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1 **Mating barriers between genetically divergent strains of the parasitic**
2 **nematode *Haemonchus contortus* suggest incipient speciation.**

3

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24

25 ABSTRACT

26 *Haemonchus contortus*, in common with many nematode species, has extremely high
27 levels of genetic variation within and between field populations derived from distant
28 geographical locations. MHco10(CAVR), MHco3(ISE) and MHco4(WRS) are genetically
29 divergent *H. contortus* strains, originally derived from Australia, Kenya and South Africa,
30 respectively, that have been maintained by numerous rounds of *in vivo* experimental infection of
31 sheep. In order to explore potential pre-zygotic competition or post-zygotic incompatibility
32 between the strains, we have investigated the ability of MHco10(CAVR) to interbreed with
33 either MHco3(ISE) or MHco4(WRS) during dual strain co-infections. Sheep were
34 experimentally co-infected with 4,000 infective larvae (L₃) *per os* of the MHco10(CAVR) strain
35 and an equal number of either the MHco3(ISE) or the MHco4(WRS) strain L₃. The adult worm
36 establishment rates and the proportions of F₁ progeny resulting from intra- and inter-strain
37 mating events were determined by admixture analysis of microsatellite multi-locus genotypes.
38 Although there was no difference in adult worm establishment rates, the proportions of F₁
39 progeny of both the MHco10(CAVR) x MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) x MHco4(WRS)
40 dual strain co-infections departed from Mendelian expectations. The proportions of inter-strain
41 hybrid F₁ progeny were lower than the expected 50%, suggesting either pre-zygotic competition
42 or post-zygotic incompatibility between the co-infecting strains. To investigate this further, both
43 eggs and hatched first stage larvae (L₁) of broods from single adult female worms recovered
44 from each dual co-infection were genotyped. Unhatched eggs from the broods revealed no inter-
45 strain hybrid genotype deficit, suggesting there is no pre-zygotic competition between the strains.
46 In contrast, there was a deficit in L₁ inter-strain hybrid genotypes in the broods derived from
47 MHco3(ISE) or MHco4(WRS) maternal parents, but not from MHco10(CAVR) maternal
48 parents. This suggests that hybrid progeny of MHco10(CAVR) paternal parents have reduced
49 post-zygotic development and/or viability consistent with incipient speciation of the
50 MHco10(CAVR) strain. The presence of mating barriers between allopatric *H. contortus* strains
51 has important implications for parasite ecology, including the ability of newly introduced
52 anthelmintic resistant parasite populations to compete and interbreed with populations already
53 established in a region.

54

55 Keywords or phrases: *Haemonchus contortus*; genetic divergence; dual-strain infections;
56 interbreeding; hybridisation.

57

58 **1. Introduction**

59 There has been little investigation of relative fitness, competition and mating
60 compatibility between field populations or laboratory strains in parasitic nematode species. This
61 is an important knowledge gap, as such differences are likely to impact many aspects of parasite
62 biology, epidemiology and experimentation. For example, the establishment of parasites
63 introduced into a new geographical location will depend on their ability to mate, and potentially
64 compete with individuals that are already established in the parasite community. This could have
65 major practical implications for the consolidation and spread of anthelmintic resistant parasites.
66 The ability to undertake and appropriately analyse, genetic crossing experiments depends on the
67 extent to which different strains can interbreed. To our knowledge, there are no previous
68 experimental studies directly comparing relative fitness, competition and mating compatibility
69 of different strains or populations of any parasitic nematode species. Consequently, we have
70 chosen to investigate this using the blood-feeding gastrointestinal nematode of small ruminants,
71 *Haemonchus contortus*.

72 *H. contortus* is an important model for anthelmintic resistance research, and has amongst
73 the best genomic resources for any parasitic nematode (Gilleard 2013; Laing et al., 2013, 2016).
74 The parasite is well suited to investigate questions of inter-strain competition and mating
75 compatibility for a number of reasons. Firstly, there is an increasing number of well
76 characterised strains, primarily derived from anthelmintic resistance studies. The Consortium for
77 Anthelmintic Resistance and Susceptibility (CARS) database lists a total of 21 *H. contortus*
78 isolates originating from different countries and regions around the world that are currently
79 actively maintained for use by the wider research community
80 (<http://vbc.med.monash.edu.au/cars/cars.py/>). Secondly, there is a high level of genetic
81 differentiation between some of these laboratory passaged strains and between field isolates
82 (Redman et al., 2008). In some cases, the level of genetic differentiation between different *H.*
83 *contortus* strains is higher than seen between cryptic species of other parasites such as the closely
84 related gastrointestinal nematode, *Teladorsagia circumcincta* (Grillo et al., 2006). This leads us

85 to question whether significant differences occur between phenotypic and life history traits of
86 some of these *H. contortus* strains. Thirdly, there are well characterised microsatellite marker
87 panels available for *H. contortus*, enabling individual worms to be unambiguously assigned to
88 specific strains based on their multi-locus genotypes (Redman et al., 2008). This allows reliable
89 strain assignment of parental worms and their progeny to be tracked during experimental co-
90 infections of multiple strains.

91 In this work we used three independently derived and genetically divergent *H. contortus*
92 strains that are maintained at the Moredun Research Institute by *in vivo* passage in sheep and
93 larval coproculture: designated MHco3(ISE); MHco4(WRS); and MHco10(CAVR) (Redman et
94 al., 2008). These strains are known to be capable of interbreeding through genetic crosses
95 (Redman et al., 2012) but direct phenotypic comparison, or investigation of their behaviour
96 during co-infection has not yet been undertaken. The inbred *H. contortus* SE (ISE) strain, which
97 is susceptible to the benzimidazole, macrocyclic lactone and imidazothiazole anthelmintic drug
98 classes, was derived from a highly heterogeneous population thought to have originated in Kenya
99 (Otsen et al., 2001). Inbreeding was achieved by 15 rounds of serial experimental infections
100 using the broods of single adult female worms at each generation (Roos et al., 2004). The White
101 River (WRS) strain *H. contortus* originated from the Transvaal in South Africa, as a field
102 population that was resistant to benzimidazole, ivermectin and salicylanilide anthelmintics (Van
103 Wyk and Malan, 1988). The WRS strain has subsequently been characterised using *in vitro* and
104 *in vivo* methods, confirming its resistance to multiple anthelmintic groups benzimidazole,
105 ivermectin and salicylanilide anthelmintics (Van Wyk et al., 1989) and susceptibility to
106 levamisole and moxidectin (Oosthuizen and Erasmus, 1993, Gill et al., 1995, Jeannin et al.,
107 1990, Le Jambre et al., 1995). The Chiswick Avermectin Resistant strain (CAVR) arose as a
108 serendipitous, extraneous, ivermectin resistant contaminant of a laboratory passaged *T.*
109 *colubriformis* strain in Armidale, New South Wales, Australia (Le Jambre, 1993) and has
110 subsequently been characterised as being resistant to ivermectin, but susceptible to
111 benzimidazoles, levamisole and salicylanilide anthelmintics (Le Jambre et al., 1995).

112 In this paper we describe a detailed comparison of adult worm morphology of the
113 MHco10(CAVR), MHco4(WRS) and MHco3(ISE) *H. contortus* strains and the investigation of
114 the ability of the MHco10(CAVR) to interbreed with the other two strains. This was undertaken
115 to identify any competitive incompatibility between the strains, which could have significant

116 implications in the field. For example, a competitive disadvantage of an anthelmintic resistant or
117 susceptible strain, when introduced into a genetically divergent population of parasites could
118 have a major impact on the spread of anthelmintic resistant parasites, or suggest strategies by
119 which populations might revert to anthelmintic susceptibility, respectively.

120

121 **2. Materials and Methods**

122 *2.1. H. contortus strains*

123 The three genetically distinct strains of *H. contortus* with diverse histories and
124 geographic origins used in this study were MHco3(ISE), MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR).

125

126 *2.2. Morphometric strain characterisation*

127 Ten male and 10 female adult worms for each strain were preserved in 2% formalin and
128 examined and measured using established protocols (Lichtenfels et al., 1994) including vulval
129 morphology and the percentage of the body covered by longitudinal ridges (synlope), described
130 in Supplementary Tables S1 and S2. Univariate analysis of the variance of each parameter was
131 performed with strain as a factor. When strain was not considered as a statistically significant
132 factor in the model, but there were observable differences between the strains independent t-tests
133 were used to test for statistical significance between any two mean estimates (SPSS Statistics
134 18).

135

136 *2.3. Single-strain infections*

137 Experimental infections were undertaken by oral administration of 5,000 L₃ per animal to
138 three controlled efficacy test treatment groups of five, parasite naïve 7 month-old lambs for each
139 of the three strains (n = 15 lambs per strain in total) as described previously (Redman et al.,
140 2012). The lambs had been reared and maintained indoors under conditions designed to eliminate
141 the risk of trichostrongylid nematode infection and treated sequentially with 5 mg/kg of
142 fenbendazole (Panacur 2.5%; Intervet) and 7.5 mg/kg of levamisole (Levacide 3%; Norbrook) 14
143 days before oral infection with L₃. Faecal worm egg counts (FWECs) were determined for each

144 lamb just prior to infection (day 0), using a salt floatation method with a potential sensitivity of
145 one egg per gram (epg) (Christie and Jackson, 1982), to confirm their parasitic nematode-free
146 status. This was repeated on days 14, 16, 18, 21, 28, 29, 30 and 36 pi, to allow the duration of the
147 pre-patent period (PPP) of each of the three strains to be determined. Lambs were euthanased on
148 day 36, enabling the enumeration, sexing and staging (only adults were seen) of *H. contortus*
149 worm burdens in abomasal saline washings and digests using 2% subsamples (MAFF, 1986;
150 Wood et al., 1995). Worm fecundity was estimated by dividing the egg count on day 36 pi by
151 the adult female worm burden.

152

153 2.4. Dual-strain co-infections and brood production

154 Five month-old lambs were infected with equal numbers of two different strains (4,000
155 L₃ of each strain per animal) to set up two different dual strain co-infections: MHco10(CAVR)
156 with MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) with MHco4(WRS). The experiment was repeated
157 providing two bio-replicates of both dual infections. The lambs had been reared, maintained and
158 treated with anthelmintics, and FWECs were estimated exactly as described in section 2.3.
159 FWECs were estimated exactly as described in section 2.3. In addition, approximately 100g of
160 faeces were collected from each lamb on day 28 pi and day 36 pi and eggs extracted, the eggs
161 were allowed to develop and hatch in water at 20°C for 48 hours to produce L₁ from which
162 individual worm DNA lysates were prepared using previously described techniques (Redman et
163 al., 2008). Populations consisting of 30 F₁ progeny L₁ were generated for both time points and
164 DNA lysates of these were prepared and genotyped with microsatellite markers. The co-infected
165 lambs were euthanased on day 36 pi and their total *H. contortus* burdens estimated. A 10% sub-
166 sample of the abomasal washings and digests was counted, sexed and staged to estimate the
167 overall and sex-ratio establishment rates of each of the strains within the dual-infections. DNA
168 lysates were made from individual adult worms from a second 10% sub-sample.

169 In the case of the second bio-replicates for dual co-infections of MHco10(CAVR) with
170 MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) with MHco4(WRS), following necropsy 24 fresh adult
171 female *H. contortus* were individually placed into 1ml of pre-warmed RPMI 1640 medium plus
172 2.5ug/mL amphotericin B, 100U/mL penicillin and 100ug/mL streptomycin (1:10 Fungizone™)
173 in wells of a 24-well plate and incubated for 6 hours at 37°C and 5% CO₂ to prepare egg and L₁

174 broods. For each female, a sub-sample of eggs was harvested prior to hatching with the
175 remainder left for 48 hours to produce L₁. For each adult female worm, DNA lysates were
176 prepared from the head of the worm and from individual broods comprising sixteen unhatched
177 eggs and sixteen L₁.

178

179 *2.5. Microsatellite markers and PCR amplification*

180 DNA lysates were diluted in double distilled water (ddH₂O) for use in PCR to avoid
181 reaction inhibition: 1µl of a 1:20 dilution (egg, L₁, L₃ and female head lysates) and 1µl of a 1:40
182 dilution (adult male lysates) were used as PCR template. Dilutions of several aliquots of lysate
183 buffer, made in parallel, were included as negative controls for all PCR amplification
184 experiments. Microsatellites used to genotype the populations were chosen for their ability to
185 successfully differentiate between the parental strains of the two respective dual co-infections. In
186 the case of the MHco10(CAVR) and MHco3(ISE) co-infections, five microsatellite markers
187 (Hcms36, 8a20, Hc3086, Hc22193 and Hc53265) were used. In the case of the MHco10(CAVR)
188 and MHco4(WRS) co-infections, seven microsatellite markers (Hcms27, Hcms36, Hcms40,
189 Hc3086, Hc22193, Hc44104 and Hc53265) were used. The primers for loci Hcms27, Hcms36,
190 and Hcms40 (Otsen et al., 2000), Hcms8a20 (Redman et al., 2008), and Hc3086, Hc53265,
191 Hc22193 (Redman et al., 2015) have been previously published. The primers for locus Hc44104,
192 which have not been previously described, were F: TCGGCTGCTTTCATAGAC, R:
193 GGTATCGACCAAGATTCAG. The same reaction conditions were used for all microsatellite
194 loci as previously reported (Redman et al., 2008). Capillary electrophoresis was performed using
195 an ABI Prism 3100 genetic analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) for the accurate
196 sizing of microsatellite PCR products. The forward primer of each microsatellite primer pair was
197 5'-end labeled with FAM, HEX, or NED fluorescent dyes (MWG) and electrophoresed with
198 GeneScan ROX 400 (Applied Biosystems) internal size standard. Individual chromatograms
199 were analyzed using Genemapper Software Version 4.0 (Applied Biosystems). For each
200 individual worm or larvae, a multilocus microsatellite genotype (MLG) was generated by
201 combining the data for each marker.

202

203 *2.6. Admixture analyses*

204 The ancestry of individual worms from each of the respective parental strains used in the
205 dual co-infections was determined from their multi-locus microsatellite genotypes. A Bayesian
206 clustering procedure implemented in STRUCTURE 2.1 (Pritchard et al., 2000) was used to
207 assign individual progeny as the products of inter- or intra- strain mating and establish the
208 predicted and observed frequency of these events by first identifying the number of genetically
209 distinct clusters (K) that maximise the likelihood of the data, and second assigning individuals to
210 these clusters using only genotype information. Five repetitions of 9×10^4 Markov chain Monte
211 Carlo (MCMC) iterations were used following a burn-in period of 10^4 iterations. Admixture
212 analysis was performed with the ‘admixture’ model which allows each individual to have
213 ancestry from more than one parental population. The value of K (the number of
214 clusters/populations), was determined as the value that maximised the increase in the posterior
215 probability of the data (Garnier et al., 2004). The proportion membership (Q_i) of each individual
216 worm to the inferred clusters was then estimated.

217

218 *2.7. Analysis of the proportion of hybrids in individual adult worm broods*

219 The parental genotype of each of the 24 adult female worms (bioreplicate 2) was
220 determined using the admixture model in order to identify four female worms for each parental
221 strain for each of the co-infections. L₁ from the brood of each of these adult worms were then
222 genotyped with the same microsatellite markers. Validation for the admixture analysis of each
223 individual brood required the generation of separate simulated F₁ populations using the software
224 HYBRIDLAB, using the genotype of the female worm for one side of the cross and actual
225 genotype data for the remaining parental strain in the dual infection. The admixture analysis of
226 the parental and simulated F₁ genotypes was used to validate a threshold value for Q_i of 0.8. The
227 genotype data for each brood in turn were analysed alongside their corresponding parental and
228 simulated F₁ genotypes and the proportions of hybrid and parental genotypes were estimated in
229 each brood.

230 Populations of eggs from the same brood female worms were also genotyped prior to egg
231 hatch to investigate the possibility that the deficits in hybrid genotypes of the L₁ were due to
232 reduced development of eggs.

233

234 2.8. *Statistical analyses*

235 Both the establishment rate and fecundity data were modelled assuming a normal error
236 distribution, using the generalised linear modelling facility of SPSS Statistics 18 (IBM®). The
237 relative proportions of parental and hybrid genotypes identified in F₁ populations were analysed
238 using the Chi-squared statistic against the relative proportions of parental and hybrids expected
239 from a dual infection. The data for the proportion of hybrids identified within each brood were
240 first logit transformed ($\text{logit} = \ln(p/1-p)$), where p = proportion of hybrids) and then modelled
241 assuming a binary error structure using the generalised linear modelling facility of SPSS
242 Statistics 18 (IBM®). Deviations were adjusted via the scale parameter to allow for over
243 dispersion of the data.

244

245 2.8. *Ethics statement*

246 All experimental procedures described in this manuscript were examined and approved
247 by the Moredun Research Institute Experiments and Ethics Committee and were conducted
248 under approved UK Home Office licenses in accordance with the Animals (Scientific
249 Procedures) Act of 1986. The Home Office license numbers are PPL 60/03223 and PPL
250 60/03899 and experimental IDs for these studies were E06/58, E06/75 and E09/36.

251

252 **3. Results**

253 *3.1. Morphometric strain characterisation*

254 A comprehensive set of parameters was measured using 10 male and 10 female worms of
255 each strain and the data are summarised in Supplementary Tables S1 and S2.

256 Examination of the vulval process of adult females revealed that there were differences in the
257 proportions of each of the main morphotypes present between the strains: MHco3(ISE) and
258 MHc4(WRS) were predominately linguiform; whereas MHco10(CAVR) was predominately
259 smooth (Figure 1A and Supplementary Figure S1). Adult female MHco4(WRS) worms were
260 wider than both MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) worms at the oesophageal-intestinal junction
261 (EIJ) ($F_{2,30} = 6.318$, $p = 0.006$) and possessed a wider oesophagus than MHco3(ISE) worms (t_{18}
262 $= 2.189$, $p = 0.042$). The position of the nerve ring ($t_{18} = 2.101$, $p = 0.05$) and excretory pore (t_{18}

263 = 2.21, $p = 0.04$) for female MHco10(CAVR) worms was further from the anterior than for
264 MHco4(WRS) worms and the end of the synlophe was further from the anterior for MHco3(ISE)
265 worms than for MHco4(WRS) ($t_{18} = 2.354$, $p = 0.03$). There were statistical differences between
266 the three strains in the percentage synlophe ($F_{2,30} = 16.946$, $p < 0.0001$; Figure 1B).

267 The level of inter-strain variation proved considerably higher for adult male than for
268 female worms with observable differences for 11 of the 14 different male characters measured
269 compared to just 6 of the 20 female characters (Supplementary Table S3). As with the female
270 worms the percentage of the body covered with synlophe was found to vary considerably
271 between strains (Figure 1B; $F_{2,30} = 10.04$, $p = 0.001$), although the pairwise comparison between
272 MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) worms was not significant. The two male characters for
273 which statistical significant differences were observed between all three strains were male
274 spicule length ($F_{2,30} = 20.81$, $p < 0.0001$) and length of oesophagus ($F_{2,30} = 12.14$, $p < 0.0001$),
275 but the ranges for all of the characters overlapped (Supplementary Table S3).

276

277 *3.2. Characterisation of life history traits of the three strains using single-strain infections*

278 The numbers of adult worms recovered at necropsy on Day 36 post-experimental
279 infection revealed no statistical differences in establishment rates between the three strains as
280 measured by adult worm establishment ($F_{2,14} = 1.12$, $p = 0.36$, Figure 2A). In the absence of daily
281 sampling and data points, it was not possible to pinpoint the exact time when egg production
282 started, but it is clear that there was no egg shedding by day 16 pi for all three strains, but eggs
283 were being produced by day 18 pi. At this point, 12 of 15 animals infected with MHco3(ISE)
284 worms had started to shed eggs, while only 4 of 15 animals infected with MHco4(WRS) and 5 of
285 15 animals infected with MHco10(CAVR) had begun egg shedding. This variability in the onset
286 of egg production was also reflected by significantly higher FECs for MHco3(ISE) than for
287 MHco4(WRS) or MHco10(CAVR) (Figure 2B and Supplementary Table S4) on day 18 pi.
288 Therefore, the prepatent period of MHco3(ISE) appears to be 24 to 48 hours shorter than that of
289 either MHco4(WRS) or MHco10(CAVR). However, by day 21pi there was no significant
290 difference between the FEC of the three strains (Figure 2B and Supplementary Table S4), and so
291 the effect of this small difference in pre-patent period appeared to be temporary during the initial
292 establishment and did not result in any residual differences in egg production between the three

293 strains. The three *H. contortus* strains were found to be equally fecund when dividing the number
294 of eggs produced on day 36 pi (epg) by the total female worm burden at necropsy ($F_{2,15} = 0.33$, p
295 $= 0.73$).

296

297 *3.3. Establishment rates of dual-infections*

298 The adult worm establishment rates of the dual infections was similar to that observed in
299 single-strain infections (Table 1). Approximately equal proportions of each strain were identified
300 in the 10% sub-samples of the adults collected from dual strain co-infected hosts at necropsy,
301 indicating that the establishment rates of the strains were the same in dual infections as in a
302 single-strain infection. There were equal ratios of male and female adult worms in each dual
303 infection (Table 1). There was therefore no evidence of one strain out-competing the other, in
304 terms of the establishment rate of adult worms, following the oral infection of the mixture of
305 infective L₃.

306

307 *3.4. Genetic differentiation between parental strains*

308 There was a high level of genetic differentiation between the adult worms of each
309 parental population revealed by the separate clustering, by strain, of their multi-locus genotypes
310 on PCA analysis (based on genotyping 30 individual adult worms for each strain) (Figure 3A).
311 Importantly, there was no overlap between the parental clusters, indicating that the panels of
312 microsatellite markers will allow subsequent unambiguous assignment of F₁ progeny either as
313 the product of selfing of either parental strain, or as hybrids of inter-strain mating. The pairwise
314 F_{ST} values are slightly higher than previous reports (Redman et al., 2008).

315

316 *3.5. Simulation of admixture analysis to assess the reliability of identification of parental and* 317 *hybrid genotypes*

318 The power of admixture analysis to correctly identify individuals from the three parental
319 strains without any prior population information was assessed. The multi-locus genotypes of the
320 MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR) parental strains (based on genotyping 30 individual adults)
321 were analysed to determine a threshold value of proportion membership at which all individuals

322 correctly clustered according to their *a priori* parental population (Figure 3 B). A similar
323 analysis was carried-out for the MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) parental populations. A
324 threshold of $Q_i=0.8$ was established for both analyses. In order to assess the power of admixture
325 analysis to correctly identify F₁ hybrids, simulated hybrid populations were generated (Figure
326 3B). Genotypes from parental populations were used to generate 30 simulated F₁ genotypes with
327 the software HYBRIDLAB (Nielsen et al., 2001). Hybrid genotypes were created by random
328 sampling the frequency distributions of the parental populations assuming random mating,
329 neutrality and linkage equilibrium. Both analyses of the parental strains were repeated with the
330 inclusion of a simulated F₁ population. The same admixture model was used with no prior
331 population information. The threshold value (Q_i) at which these “blind” genotypes could be
332 successfully recognised as of either parental or of hybrid origin was estimated. A threshold of
333 $Q_i=0.8$ was established as the discriminatory value at which all parental and simulated hybrid
334 genotypes could be attributed to their correct *a priori* populations for both types of co-infections
335 (MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR), or MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR). The assignment of
336 parental genotypes was unambiguous, allowing the threshold for admixture analysis to be
337 determined and validating the method to determine the parental origins of F₁ hybrid genotypes.
338 This methodology was then used to interpret the actual genotypes of the progeny of the dual
339 infections.

340

341 3.6. Parental and hybrid identification in F₁ progeny

342 In a freely interbreeding 1:1 dual infection of two equally infective and fecund strains,
343 where equal numbers of each strain establish within a single host, the F₁ progeny would consist
344 of 50% hybrid, 25% 1st parental and 25% 2nd parental genotypes. Significant deviations from
345 these ratios could indicate bias in the mating efficiencies between the two co-infecting strains.
346 To test this, 30 F₁ progeny from each dual infection were genotyped and their multi-locus
347 genotypes analysed, with the admixture model, alongside their corresponding parental
348 populations and the simulated F₁ populations. For each individual worm, the admixture analysis
349 produces values of proportional membership of the two parental populations (when K=2) that
350 when summed total one. These data can be visualised with a bar-graph that plots each individual
351 worm (x-axis) against proportion membership (y-axis). Figure 3B shows just a small portion of

352 the data in this format for illustrative purposes. The proportions of parental and hybrid genotypes
353 represented in the F₁ populations were established using the discriminatory threshold value of
354 $Q_i=0.8$.

355 The Chi-squared statistic was used to compare the proportions of hybrid and parental
356 genotypes observed in F₁ progeny resulting from a dual infection with those expected if there
357 was equally efficient mating within and between strains. For the MHco3(ISE) and
358 MHco10(CAVR) co-infection, the frequency distribution of genotypes in the F₁ on day 28 pi was
359 significantly different from the expected ratio (Table 2A; $\chi^2_2 = 10.2$, $p = 0.006$). The proportion
360 of hybrids present (0.3) was lower than the expected proportion of 0.5. Although the parental
361 MHco10(CAVR) genotypes were represented in the F₁ progeny at approximately the expected
362 proportion (0.2 compared to the expected 0.25), the MHco3(ISE) parental genotypes were over
363 represented in the F₁ progeny (0.5 compared to the expected 0.25). The second bio-replicate of
364 the same MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) dual co-infection (Table 2A; bio-replicate 2)
365 revealed similar proportions of the different genotypes in the F₁ population at both day 28 pi and
366 at an additional second time point taken at day 35 pi. This over-representation of one of the
367 parental strains and under-representation of hybrids also occurred in the distributions of F₁
368 progeny genotypes resulting from the dual co-infection of the MHco4(WRS) and
369 MHco10(CAVR) strains (Table 2B). Hybrids were present at a proportion of 0.276 (expected
370 proportion of 0.5) and the MHco4(WRS) parental genotype was present at a proportion of 0.517
371 (expected proportion of 0.25). In contrast, the MHco10(CAVR) genotypes were present at a
372 similar level as predicted by Mendelian genetics (0.207 compared to 0.25; Table 2B). Similar
373 genotype proportions were also seen in the progeny produced later in the infection at day 35 pi
374 and in the progeny of a second MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR) dual co-infected sheep
375 (Table 2B; bio-replicate 2).

376

377 *3.7. Proportion of hybrids within progeny broods of individual adult worms*

378 There is a variety of explanations for the deviations from the expected proportions of
379 parental and hybrid genotypes in the F₁ progeny of the dual strain co-infections. In the
380 illustrative example presented in Figure 4A, the lack of hybrids may be the result of limited
381 hybridisation between MHco10(CAVR) males and MHco3(ISE) females, or alternatively

382 between MHco10(CAVR) females and MHco3(ISE) males (Figure 4A). To investigate this, the
383 proportion of hybrids produced from individual female worms of known strain identity from
384 both strain combinations of dual infections was determined. A total of sixteen individual female
385 worm broods were analysed: four MHco3(ISE) female broods and four MHco10(CAVR)
386 females broods of the MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) dual species co-infection, and four
387 MHco4(WRS) female broods and four MHco10(CAVR) females broods of the MHco4(WRS)
388 and MHco10(CAVR) dual species co-infection.

389 From the MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) dual infection, the mean proportion of
390 hybrid F₁ genotypes per brood for the MHco3(ISE) adult females was 0.2 and for the
391 MHco10(CAVR) adult females it was 0.54 (Figure 4B). This suggests that MHco10(CAVR)
392 female worms are equally likely to produce L₁ progeny resulting from mating with
393 MHco10(CAVR) males or with MHco3(ISE) males; but in contrast the MHco3(ISE) female
394 worms are significantly less likely to produce L₁ progeny resulting from mating with
395 MHco10(CAVR) males than mating with MHco3(ISE) males. A similar result was obtained for
396 the broods of adult female worms recovered from the MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR) dual
397 infections; female MHco4(WRS) worms produced significantly fewer hybrid progeny than the
398 female MHco10(CAVR) worms (Figure 4B; MHco3(ISE)/ MHco10(CAVR); $\chi^2_1 = 16.11$, $P <$
399 0.0001 and MHco4(WRS)/ MHco10(CAVR); $\chi^2_1 = 4.70$, $P = 0.03$).

400 Admixture analysis identified hybrid genotypes of unhatched eggs at approximately 0.5
401 for both strains in both types of dual infections (Figure 4B), indicating that deficits in hybrid
402 genotypes of the L₁ were due to reduced development of eggs. The data suggest that the eggs
403 resulting from MHco10(CAVR) male x MHco3(ISE) female or MHco10(CAVR) male x
404 MHco4(ISE) matings have reduced viability or developmental capacity than those resulting from
405 intra-strain matings.

406

407 **4. Discussion**

408 The relatively simple anatomy of nematodes limits the amount of easily visible
409 phenotypic variation and belies the high levels of genetic variation that occurs within many
410 species. A large amount of genetic variation exists within and between field populations, and
411 laboratory strains, of many nematode species, particularly those with large effective population

412 sizes (Gilleard and Redman, 2016). However, there has been little investigation of potential
413 reproductive barriers that could occur between genetically divergent strains for any nematode
414 species. *H. contortus* is arguably the parasitic nematode in which genetic variation has been most
415 intensively studied (Gilleard and Redman, 2016). This parasite species has extremely high levels
416 of intra-specific genetic variation and although genetic differentiation can be low within a local
417 geographical region, it can be extremely high over larger geographical scales (Troell et al., 2006;
418 Redman et al., 2008; Redman et al., 2012; Gilleard and Redman, 2016). MHco3(ISE),
419 MHco4(WRS) and MHc10(CAVR) are *H. contortus* strains that were originally derived from
420 different continents and subsequently been maintained by numerous rounds of *in vivo*
421 experimental infection of sheep. Consistent with this history, these strains are highly genetically
422 divergent, with pairwise F_{st} values in the range of 0.16 and 0.27 based on microsatellite marker
423 genotyping (Redman et al 2008), and similar values based on genome wide SNP analysis (Doyle
424 et al., 2018a). This high level of genetic differentiation between strains is of a similar scale to
425 that found between cryptic species of other strongylid nematodes (Grillo et al., 2006). However,
426 we do know that these *H. contortus* strains do not represent completely separate or full cryptic
427 species since they can mate to produce viable, fertile progeny during experimental crosses
428 performed to genetically map a major ivermectin resistance locus (Redman et al., 2012, Doyle et
429 al., 2018b). Nevertheless, the fact that adult males of one strain can successfully mate, and
430 produce fertile offspring, with adult females of another following direct transplantation into the
431 host abomasum, does not necessarily mean that they freely interbreed during co-infections.
432 Significant mating barriers could still exist between such strains. Consequently, in this work, we
433 have investigated the extent to which the MHc10(CAVR) strain, the most genetically divergent
434 of the three strains used in our study, can interbreed with either the MHco3(ISE) or
435 MHco4(WRS) strains in dual strain experimental co-infections. Our results clearly demonstrate
436 that, although the co-infecting strains do interbreed to some extent, there is a significant mating
437 barrier between MHc10(CAVR) and the other two strains suggesting that MHc10(CAVR) is
438 an incipient species based on the biological species concept.

439 We first investigated inter-strain morphological and morphometric variation and found
440 significant differences in both male and female adult worms between the three strains. Variation
441 in temperature tolerance in relation to different vulval morphology has led to speculation
442 regarding sub-speciation within *H. contortus* (Crofton et al., 1965; Le Jambre and Royal, 1977).

443 There were just two female characteristics that differed between the three strains, the vulval
444 morphotype (Le Jambre, 1977) and the synlophe; longitudinal cuticular ridges in the anterior
445 portion of the worm that have been previously used to differentiate between different nematode
446 species (Lichtenfels et al., 1994). There were statistically significant differences in the frequency
447 of the vulval process morphotypes between the strains, with the MHco10(CAVR) being the most
448 divergent, and in the percentage of the body covered by the synlophe. There were also
449 statistically significant differences between mean estimates for a number of adult male characters
450 including the extent of the synlophe, spicule length and morphometric features of the
451 oesophagus. We also compared a number of life history traits between the strains. There were no
452 statistically significant differences between the establishment rates of the three strains, as
453 determined by the number of adults collected at necropsy on day 36 pi relative to the number of
454 L₃ used to infect the donor animals. There was a trend towards the MHco3(ISE) strain
455 commencing egg production earlier than the other two strains. However, this effect was only
456 temporary during the initial establishment stage of infection, before day 21 pi. This is consistent
457 with previous work undertaking genetic crosses between the same three strains, where daily egg
458 production was measured and consistently observed to commence one to two days earlier in
459 MHco3(ISE) donor lambs (Sargison, 2009). There was no difference in the estimated fecundity
460 of the strains in single strain infections, calculated by dividing the number of eggs produced
461 (epg) by the total number of female worms recovered postmortem on day 36 pi. This contrasts
462 with previous work that showed differences in fecundity of the Australian Wallangra 2003,
463 Kirby 1981, Gold Coast 2004 and McMaster 1931 *H. contortus* strains (Hunt et al., 2008).
464 Consequently, overall there were only a limited number of subtle morphological differences
465 between the strains and no major differences in life history characters.

466 The primary aim of our study was to investigate if there was any detectable mating
467 barrier between the strains; specifically between the most genetically divergent of the three
468 strains, MHco10(CAVR), and the other two strains. The experimental design was to orally co-
469 infect a recipient sheep with 4,000 larvae of MHco10(CAVR) and 4,000 larvae of either the
470 MHco3(ISE) or the MHco4(WRS) strain to establish adult worm populations and then use
471 genetic analysis to determine the proportions of L₁ in the F₁ progeny that were derived from
472 intra-strain compared to inter-strain matings. We used an admixture model to assign strain
473 identity to the adult parental worms collected from the co-infected hosts at necropsy and found

474 equal proportions from each of the two strains in each dual infection. This showed that neither
475 strain out-competed the other in terms of the number of adult worms establishing following oral
476 co-infection with a mixed population of L₃. Consequently, any deviation in the expected
477 Mendelian proportions of intra-strain and inter-strain hybrid genotypes in the F₁ progeny must
478 result from differences in the mating outcomes of the parental worms, or in differential
479 development and survival of F₁ progeny.

480 The admixture analysis of the L₁ (F₁ progeny) multilocus genotypes revealed that the
481 proportions of parental and hybrid F₁ progeny departed from Mendelian expectations for both
482 bio-replicates of both the MHco10(CAVR) x MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) x
483 MHco4(WRS) dual strain co-infections. The proportions of inter-strain hybrid F₁ progeny were
484 significantly lower than the expected 50% from both the MHco10(CAVR) x MHco3(ISE) and
485 MHco10(CAVR) x MHco4(WRS) dual strain co-infections. This suggests that there is either
486 pre-zygotic competition between the strains such as assortive mating (mate preferences) or sperm
487 competition, or a post-zygotic reduction of development and survival of the inter-strain hybrid
488 genotypes. In order to investigate this, we genotyped both unhatched eggs and hatched L₁ of the
489 F₁ progeny from broods of a number individual adult female worms recovered at necropsy from
490 dual strain co-infected infected lambs. The genotyping of unhatched eggs from the broods
491 revealed no deficit of hybrid genotypes suggesting that there is no pre-zygotic competition
492 between the strains. In contrast, the genotyping of L₁ from same broods revealed a deficit in the
493 inter-strain hybrid progeny from the MHco3(ISE) and MHco4(WRS) maternal parents, but not
494 from the MHco10(CAVR) maternal parents. This suggests that hybrid progeny derived from
495 MHco10(CAVR) paternal parents have reduced post-zygotic development and/or viability. The
496 mechanisms for this are not known but there are a variety of possibilities based on recent
497 research in free-living nematode species. Hybrid fitness deficits in nematode genetic crosses
498 have been proposed to be a result of inherited factors from one parental population (Lamelza and
499 Ailion, 2017). For example, studies in the model nematode organism, *Caenorhabditis elegans*,
500 suggest that these factors may sometimes involve incompatibilities between maternally inherited
501 small RNAs regulating gene expression in developing embryos (Han et al., 2009), or
502 mitochondrial DNA (Dean et al., 2014) and the nuclear genome. Alternatively, the reduced
503 proportion of inter-strain hybrid progeny from the MHco3(ISE) or MHco4(WRS) maternal
504 parents and MHco10(CAVR) paternal parents might be due to the presence of maternal selfish

505 genetic elements (Hurst and Werren, 2001), whereby the MHCo10(CAVR) males lack a
506 zygotically expressed antidote. Both paternal and maternal genetic elements have been described
507 in *Caenorhabditis elegans*, consisting of tightly linked genes coding for sperm (Sinkins, 2011),
508 or embryos (Ben-David et al., 2017) that can deliver toxins and zygotically expressed antidotes.
509 These elements have been proposed as mechanisms of subverting the laws of Mendelian
510 segregation to promote their own transmission; by causing developmental arrest or mortality in
511 filial progeny that do not inherit the zygotically expressed antidote. In arthropods, selfish genetic
512 elements such as those regulating the inheritance of intracellular *Wolbachia* bacteria from
513 mothers to eggs can give infected females a competitive advantage over uninfected females
514 (Landmann et al., 2009). Further work will be needed to test these potential mechanisms of
515 reduced hybrid post-zygotic viability in the hybrid progeny with MHCo10(CAVR) paternity.

516 The reduced proportion of F₁ hybrid genotypes discussed above would be expected to be
517 accompanied by an equal increase in the proportions of the intra-strain homozygous progeny for
518 each of the two parental strains in a co-infection. However, in each case, MHCo10(CAVR) intra-
519 strain F₁ progeny, were under represented. Given that based on the brood analysis, 50% of eggs
520 from MHCo10(CAVR) adult maternal parents were intra-strain progeny, this suggests that the
521 total egg production of MHCo10(CAVR) maternal parents is less than that of the maternal parent
522 of the second MHCo3(ISE) or MHCo4(WRS) co-infecting strain. The reason for this is unclear,
523 but given that it has been previously shown that *H. contortus* is polyandrous (Redman 2008;
524 Doyle et al., 2018b), it is possible that there is a reduction in overall fecundity in those
525 MHCo10(CAVR) females that mate with males of more than one strain as will often occur in co-
526 infections.

527 The identification a degree of post-zygotic incompatibility between genetically divergent
528 strains of a parasitic nematode species has implications for the behavior and ecology of
529 gastrointestinal nematode parasites in the field. For example, the ability of gastrointestinal
530 nematode strains, translocated by animal movement, to establish and thrive in a new region will
531 depend on successful competition and mating with the locally established parasite population. In
532 the case of *H. contortus*, mating incompatibilities have specific practical implications when
533 considering the population genetics of anthelmintic resistance conferring alleles. This in turn
534 could have a major impact on the spread of anthelmintic resistant parasites, or suggest strategies
535 by which populations could be reverted to anthelmintic susceptibility.

536

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548

549

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666

667

668 **Figure legends**

669 **Figure 1** Frequency distribution and photographs of common vulvar processes represented in
670 different *H. contortus* strains (A). These were Smooth, Knobbed, Linguiform A with a singular
671 cuticular inflation that varied considerably in size between individuals, Linguiform B with no
672 cuticular inflation and Linguiform C with two cuticular inflations. Scale bars = 100µm.

673 Percentage of body covered in synlophe ($\pm 2SE$) for females and males (B).

674

675 **Figure 2** Establishment rates of *H. contortus* strains estimated from, mean (\pm s.e.) female, male
676 and total worm burden (A). Characterisation of the reproductive capacity of *H. contortus* strains.
677 The only significant differences in FEC of the strains was in evidence on day 18pi, when sheep
678 infected with MHco3(ISE) had a significantly higher FEC than either MHco4(WRS) or
679 MHco10(CAVR) infected animals, (B). This higher FEC at the start of the infection was directly
680 correlated with a differential prepatent period (PPP) of the *H. contortus* strains, with
681 MHco3(ISE)-infected animals starting egg production sooner than animals infected with either
682 MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR).

683

684 **Figure 3** Principal component analysis (using GenAlEx) showing the relationship of multi-locus
685 genotypes of 30 individual worms of the different *H. contortus* parental strains. (A). Genetic
686 differentiation between the strains MHco3ISE and MHco10CAVR (5 microsatellite markers) and
687 between the strains MHco4WRS and MHco10CAVR (7 microsatellite markers). X and Y axes
688 represent first and second factors of variability. STRUCTURE analyses (B) performed assuming
689 two distinct genetic clusters (K=2), of the observed parental genotypes in dual infection, F₁
690 progeny genotypes produced 28 days p.i. and simulated F₁ progeny genotypes that were
691 generated by HYBRIDLAB. Hybrid analyses of progeny of dual infection of MHco3ISE and
692 MHco10CAVR and of MHco4WRS and MHco10CAVR. Admixed genotypes at threshold $q_i =$
693 0.8 are evidenced.

694

695 **Figure 4** Potential crosses occurring within a dual infection and the resulting expected
696 proportions of genotypes within F₁ generation. Crosses that produce hybrids have been shaded.
697 Proportion of F₁ hybrids produced by individual MHco3(ISE) and MHco10(CAVR) female
698 worms following dual infection and proportion of F₁ hybrids produced by individual
699 MHco4(WRS) and MHco10(CAVR) female worms following dual infection (B). A deficiency of
700 crosses between MHco3(ISE) females and MHco10(CAVR) males appears to explain observed
701 distribution of genotypes in F₁.

702

703 **Table 1**

704 The establishment (proportion of L₃ that established as adults on day 36 post infection) and
 705 contribution of each parental strain to overall worm burden (estimated from the number of adults
 706 collected at necropsy). Single strain infections were established by oral dosing of donor lambs
 707 with 5,000 L₃ (section 2.3.) and dual strain infections by oral dosing of donor lambs with 4,000
 708 L₃ of each strain (section 2.4.). The proportions of each strain recovered on postmortem were
 709 determined by multilocus genotyping of adult worms (numbers shown in brackets).

| Type of infection | Single strain | Dual strain bioreplicate 1 | | | Dual strain bioreplicate 2 | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------|----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|
| | Infectivity | Infectivity | Proportion of strain | Sex ratio (♂:♀) | Infectivity | Proportion of strain | Sex ratio (♂:♀) |
| MHco3(ISE) + MHco10(CAVR) | 0.55 | 0.652 | 0.45 (38) | 1.0 | 0.623 | 0.4 (40) | 0.9 |
| | 0.544 | | 0.55 (38) | 1.0 | | 0.6 (40) | 1.0 |
| MHco4(WRS) + MHco10(CAVR) | 0.79 | 0.721 | 0.55 (40) | 1.2 | 0.575 | 0.5 (40) | 1.0 |
| | 0.544 | | 0.45 (40) | 0.9 | | 0.5 (40) | 1.2 |

710

711

712 **Table 2**

713 Expected and observed proportions of parental and hybrid genotypes in F₁ progeny populations

714 with Chi-squared statistic and p-value.

| A F ₁ progeny of MHco10(CAVR) x MHco3(ISE) dual infection | | | | | |
|--|----------|----------------|------------|----------------|-----------|
| | | Bioreplicate 1 | | Bioreplicate 2 | |
| Progeny type | Expected | Day 28 pi | Day 35 pi | Day 28 pi | Day 35 pi |
| MHco10(CAVR) | 0.25 | 0.2 | na | 0.1818 | 0.2444 |
| MHco3(ISE) | 0.25 | 0.5 | na | 0.5 | 0.5111 |
| F ₁ hybrids | 0.5 | 0.3 | na | 0.3182 | 0.2444 |
| N | | 30 | | 44 | 45 |
| χ^2_2 | | 10.2 | | 14.73 | 18.156 |
| | | (p=0.006) | | (p=0.001) | (p=0.000) |
| B F ₁ progeny of MHco10(CAVR) x MHco4(WRS) dual infection | | | | | |
| | | Bioreplicate 1 | | Bioreplicate 2 | |
| Progeny type | Expected | Day 28 pi | Day 35 pi | Day 28 pi | Day 35 pi |
| MHco10(CAVR) | 0.25 | 0.2069 | 0.2580 | 0.2414 | 0.2188 |
| MHco4(WRS) | 0.25 | 0.5172 | 0.4194 | 0.5172 | 0.4375 |
| F ₁ hybrids | 0.5 | 0.2758 | 0.3226 | 0.2414 | 0.3125 |
| N | | 29 | 31 | 29 | 32 |
| χ^2_2 | | 11.414 | 5.516 | 12.17 | 7.065 |
| | | (p=0.003) | (p=0.0063) | (p=0.002) | (p=0.029) |

715 na: DNA lysates of insufficient quality to allow robust microsatellite amplification

716

717

718 **Contributions**

719 JSG, FJ and NDS conceived the experimental design, overall methodology and analytical
720 approach. NDS, AAM and DJB undertook the animal work and gross parasitology. ER and NDS
721 undertook the molecular work and analysis of the data. NDS, ER, and JSG wrote the paper, with
722 input from each of the co-authors.

723