Global phylogeography and genetic diversity of the zoonotic tapeworm Echinococcus granulosus sensu stricto genotype G1

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- ² *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1
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ABSTRACT

 Echinococcus granulosus sensu stricto (s. s.) is the major cause of human cystic echinococcosis worldwide and is listed among the most severe parasitic diseases of humans. To date, numerous studies have investigated the genetic diversity and population structure of *E. granulosus* s. s. in various geographic regions. However, there has been no global study. Recently, using mitochondrial DNA, it was shown that *E. granulosus* s. s. G1 and G3 are distinct genotypes, but a larger dataset is required to confirm the distinction of these genotypes. The objectives of this study were to: (i) investigate the distinction of genotypes G1 and G3 using a large global dataset; (ii) analyse the genetic diversity and phylogeography of genotype G1 on a global scale using near- complete mitogenome sequences. For this study, 222 globally distributed *E. granulosus* s. s. samples were used, of which 212 belonged to genotype G1 and 10 to G3. Using a total sequence length of 11 682 bp, we inferred phylogenetic networks based on the whole *E. granulosus* s. s. 74 dataset (n = 222), G1 dataset (n = 212) and G1 human samples (n = 41). In addition, the Bayesian phylogenetic and phylogeographic analyses were performed. The latter yielded several statistically significant diffusion routes of genotype G1 originating from Turkey, Tunisia and Argentina. We conclude that: (i) using a considerably larger dataset than employed previously, *E. granulosus* s. s. G1 and G3 are indeed distinct mitochondrial genotypes; (ii) the genetic diversity of *E. granulosus* s. s. G1 is high globally, with lower values in South America; (iii) the complex phylogeographic patterns emerging from the phylogenetic and geographic analyses suggest that the current distribution of genotype G1 has been shaped by early livestock diffusion events, along with intensive animal trade in relatively recent history.

- *Keywords:*
- Cystic echinococcosis
- *Echinococcus granulosus*
- Genetic variability
- Global phylogeography
- Mitochondrial genome
- Livestock domestication

1. Introduction

 Echinococcus granulosus sensu lato (s. l.) is the causative agent of cystic echinococcosis (CE), which is one of the most important zoonoses worldwide and a significant global public health concern (e.g., Eckert et al., 2001; Alvarez Rojas et al., 2014; Marcinkute et al., 2015; Budke et al., 2017). CE is listed amongst the most severe parasitic diseases in humans, ranking second in the list of food-borne parasites globally (FAO/WHO, 2014) and representing one of the 17 neglected tropical diseases prioritised by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2015). The life cycle of the parasite involves mainly dogs and wild carnivores as definitive hosts and a wide range of domestic and wild mammals, but also humans, as intermediate or accidental hosts (Eckert et al., 2001; Moks et al., 2006; Deplazes et al., 2011; Laurimaa et al., 2015a).

 Echinococcus granulosus s. l. exhibits considerable variation in terms of morphology, host range, infectivity to humans, pathogenicity and other aspects (e.g., Eckert et al., 2001; Thompson, 2008; Gholami et al., 2011; Romig et al., 2015). Molecular studies have identified and characterised a number of genotypes/species within the *E. granulosus* s. l. complex (Bowles et al., 1992, 1994; Thompson and McManus, 2002; Lavikainen et al., 2003; Thompson, 2008; Saarma et al., 2009; Knapp et al., 2011), which are relatively closely related to other species within the genus *Echinococcus* (Knapp et al., 2015). The accurate identification and differentiation of genotypes has important epidemiological implications and informs about the zoonotic potential of particular genotypes. Earlier, the complex was considered to consist of genotypes G1-G8, G10 and *E. felidis* (see Bowles et al., 1992, 1994; Lavikainen et al., 2003; Hüttner et al., 2008), however G2 is no longer considered a valid genotype (Kinkar et al., 2017). Currently, the genotypes regarded as distinct species are *E. granulosus* sensu stricto (s. s.; genotypes G1 and G3; Kinkar et al., 2017), *E. equinus* (G4), *E. ortleppi* (G5) (Thompson and McManus, 2002), whereas the species status of genotypes G6-G10 remains contentious (Moks et al., 2008; Thompson, 2008; Saarma et al., 2009;

 Knapp et al., 2011, 2015; Lymbery et al., 2015; Nakao et al., 2015). Recently, a new genotype was discovered in Ethiopia, but its status is not yet clear (Wassermann et al., 2016).

 Echinococcus granulosus s. s. (genotypes G1 and G3) is widespread globally, with highly endemic foci in South America, the Mediterranean basin and Central Asia, and particularly affects rural livestock-raising areas (Dakkak et al., 2010; Hajialilo et al., 2012; Rostami et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015; Cucher et al., 2016). Some of the main factors contributing to the persistence of CE include the frequent illegal and home slaughtering of animals for food, feeding raw offal to dogs, low public awareness of the disease, large populations of stray dogs and poor hygiene conditions (Eckert et al., 2001; Torgerson and Budke, 2003; Varcasia et al., 2011; Possenti et al., 2016). According to a recent estimate by Alvarez Rojas et al. (2014), *E. granulosus* s. s. is also the most frequently implicated causative agent of CE of humans (88% of cases) worldwide, and thus deserves particular attention.

 To date, numerous studies have explored the genetic diversity and population structure of *E. granulosus* s. s. in various geographic regions (Nakao et al., 2010; Casulli et al., 2012; Rostami Nejad et al., 2012; Yanagida et al., 2012; Andresiuk et al., 2013; Yan et al., 2013; Boufana et al., 2014, 2015; Romig et al., 2015; Kinkar et al., 2016; Laurimäe et al., 2016; Hassan et al., 2017). However, there has been no global study. In addition, the analytical power has been low in most studies as the analyses have been based largely on short sequences of mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA), most often on a single gene, e.g., the cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 gene (*cox1*; 1609 bp; Yanagida et al., 2012; Alvarez Rojas et al., 2016; Alvarez Rojas et al., 2017) or partial sequence of the *cox1* or *nad1* (e.g., Casulli et al., 2012; Andresiuk et al., 2013). Few studies used considerably longer mtDNA sequences (~8270 bp; Kinkar et al., 2016; Laurimäe et al., 2016) and demonstrated significantly better phylogenetic resolution. Due to the variable sequence lengths used 140 thus far (a few hundred bp up to ~ 8270 bp), the results from different studies and geographic regions are not directly comparable. Therefore, an analysis of near-complete mitogenome sequences

 in a large geographical scale is required to gain better insight into the global patterns of diversity and phylogeography. Furthermore, the sequences of relatively short mtDNA regions most commonly used to date cannot unequivocally differentiate genotypes G1-G3 due to limited phylogenetic signal (e.g., Casulli et al., 2012; Andresiuk et al., 2013; Romig et al., 2015). Thus, although short mtDNA sequences have been widely used in phylogeographic studies and to develop methods for identifying genotypes (e. g. Boubaker et al., 2013; Laurimaa et al., 2015b), one has to be cautious when interpreting the results based on short mtDNA sequences.

 By contrast, using near-complete mitogenome sequences (11 443 bp), Kinkar et al. (2017) provided evidence that G1 and G3 are distinct mitochondrial genotypes. As a relatively small number of samples was used in Kinkar et al. (2017), a larger sample size would be preferable to confirm the distinction of the two genotypes (G1 and G3). Therefore, in the present study, we (i) investigated the distinction of the *E. granulosus* s. s. genotypes G1 and G3 using a large global dataset (n = 222), and (ii) analysed the genetic diversity and phylogeography of genotype G1 on a world-wide scale using near-complete mitochondrial genome sequences.

2. Materials and methods

2.1 Parasite material

 We sequenced 221 *E. granulosus* s. s. samples and included an additional sequence from Genbank (AB786664; genotype G1 from China; Nakao et al., 2013). Of the 221 samples, 114 were newly sequenced, whereas the rest were from Kinkar et al. (2016 and 2017) and Laurimäe et al. (2016) (Tables S1 and S2). However, additional mtDNA loci were sequenced for these samples in this study. The samples were obtained during routine meat inspections or from hospital cases and were ethanol-preserved at -20°C until further use.

2.2 DNA extraction, PCR amplification, sequencing and assembly

 Total genomic DNA was extracted from protoscoleces, cyst membranes or adult worms of *E. granulosus* using the High Pure PCR Template Preparation Kit (Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, 169 • Germany), following the manufacturer's protocols. For PCR amplification we used 12 primer pairs described in Kinkar et al. (2017). Sequencing was performed using the same primers as for the initial PCR amplification. Cycle parameters for PCR and sequencing were as described in Kinkar et al. (2016). Sequences were assembled using the program CodonCode v6.0.2 and manually curated in BioEdit v7.2.5 (Hall, 1999). All G1 sequences were deposited in the GenBank database under accession nos. XXXX-XXXX.

2.3 Phylogenetic analyses

 Phylogenetic networks were calculated for three mtDNA sequence datasets: (1) all samples 178 of *E. granulosus* s. s. $(n = 222)$, (2) sequences representing genotype G1 only $(n = 212)$ and (3) sequences representing genotype G1 from humans (n = 41) using Network v4.6.1.5 (Bandelt et al., 1999); http://www.fluxusengineering.com, Fluxus Technology Ltd., 2004. Networks were constructed considering both indels and point mutations.

 The Bayesian phylogenetic analysis for the whole dataset (n = 222 samples) was performed in the program BEAST 1.8.4 (Drummond et al., 2012) using BEAUti v1.8.4 to generate the initial xml file for BEAST. The general time-reversible nucleotide-substitution model with a proportion of invariable sites and gamma distributed rate variation (GTR+*I*+*G;* Tavaré, 1986; Gu et al., 1995) was determined as the best-fit model of sequence evolution using the program PartitionFinder 2.1.1 (Guindon et al., 2010; Lanfear et al., 2012, 2016). Exponential growth coalescent prior (Griffiths and Tavaré, 1994) was chosen for the tree, and a strict molecular clock was assumed owing to the intraspecific nature of the data (Drummond and Bouckaert, 2015). The posterior distribution of

 parameters was estimated by Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) sampling. MCMC chains were run for 10 million states, sampled every 1000 states with 10% burn-in. Log files were analysed using the program Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014). The tree was produced using TreeAnnotator v1.8.4 and displayed in FigTree v.1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2014).

2.4 Population indices

 The population diversity indices, such as the number of haplotypes, haplotype diversity and nucleotide diversity, were calculated using the program DnaSP v5.10.01 (Librado and Rozas, 198 2009). Neutrality indices Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989) and Fu's Fs (Fu, 1997) and the pairwise fixation index (Fst) were calculated using the Arlequin 3.5.2.2 software package (Excoffier et al., 2005). Indices were calculated for four different datasets representing genotype G1: (a) all 201 sequences $(n = 212)$; (b) the three most numerous host species in this study (cattle, sheep and human), (c) five regions (the Americas, Africa, Asia/Australia, Europe and the Middle East), and (d) eight countries for which the sample size exceeded 10: Algeria, Argentina, Brazil, Iran, Italy (comprising continental Italy and Sardinia), Spain, Tunisia and Turkey. In addition, the pairwise fixation index was calculated between genotypes G1 and G3.

2.5 Bayesian phylogeographic analysis

 The phylogeographic diffusion patterns of genotype G1 were analysed using a Bayesian discrete phylogeographic approach (Lemey et al., 2009). This approach estimates ancestral locations from the set of sampled locations and annotates the discrete location states to tree nodes (Lemey et al., 2009; Faria et al., 2011). The standard Markov model is extended using a Bayesian Stochastic Search Variable Selection (BSSVS) procedure, which offers a Bayesian Factor (BF) test to identify the most parsimonious description of the phylogeographic diffusion process (Lemey et al., 2009). Specifically, the intial xml file generated in BEAUti in the Bayesian phylogenetic analysis (see 215 section 2.3) was edited according to the 'Discrete phylogeographic analysis' tutorial available on the Beast website (http://beast.bio.ed.ac.uk/tutorials). The analysis was performed in BEAST 1.8.4 (Drummond et al., 2012) using the BEAGLE library (Ayres et al., 2011). MCMC chains were run for 50 million states, sampled every 5000 states with 10% burn-in. The effective sampling size (ESS) of estimates was assessed using Tracer v1.6 (Rambaut et al., 2014), and the tree was produced using TreeAnnotator v1.8.4 and displayed in FigTree v.1.4.3 (Rambaut, 2014). The program SpreaD3 v0.9.6 (Bielejec et al., 2016) was used to visualize the output from the Bayesian phylogeographic analysis and to calculate the Bayes Factor supports. Three independent runs were conducted and geographic links that yielded BF > 10 in all three runs were displayed.

3. Results

 Near-complete mitogenome sequences representing *E. granulosus* s. s. samples (n = 221) were produced and aligned (length of alignment 11 682 bp). Most sequences were 11 675 bp in length, but some varied from 11 674 bp to 11 678 bp. An additional sequence from GenBank (see section *2.1*) was included, totalling 222 sequences in analysis.

3.1. The phylogenetic network of E. granulosus s. s.

 The 222 sequences divided into two haplogroups, separated by 37 mutations (Fig. 3). The largest haplogroup included 212 sequences representing genotype G1, whereas the other haplogroup included 10 samples representing genotype G3. The 212 G1 samples were divided into 171 different haplotypes (Fig. 3). The origin and host species of the G1 samples are shown in Figs. 1 and 2 and Tables 1 and S3. To the best of our knowledge, all human G1 samples used in the analysis were autochthonic cases of CE, except for a Finnish sample, which originated from an Algerian patient who was living in Finland. Therefore the origin of the infection is most likely Algeria.

3.2 Bayesian phylogenetic analysis

 The Bayesian phylogenetic analysis divided *E. granulosus* s. s. samples into two well- supported clades, corresponding to genotypes G1 and G3 (posterior probability value = 1.00; Fig. 4; Fig. S1). The intraspecific phylogeny of G1 yielded clades with varying support values, of which 245 several clades were well resolved (posterior probability values $= 1.00$).

3.3. The phylogenetic network for genotype G1

 The phylogenetic network for genotype G1 was highly divergent (Fig. 5). Among the 171 haplotypes, 147 were represented by a single sample, 18 haplotypes included two samples, 5 haplotypes (IRA1, BRA1, TUR1, TUR3, TUN5) included 3 samples and one haplotype (ARB1) included 14 samples. The average number of mutational steps between different G1 haplotypes was 16 and the maximum 32 (e.g., between TUR12 and ALB2).

 Multiple haplogroups (monophyletic groups) could be distinguished. Seven such haplogroups (named A-G, respectively) corresponded to the well-supported clusters in the Bayesian phylogenetic tree (posterior probability values = 1.00; see Figs. 4 and 5; see also section *3.2*). Out of the nine haplogroups in grey (Fig. 5), seven were well-supported on the phylogenetic tree 257 (posterior probability values $= 1.00$; Fig. 5).

 In some of the monophyletic clusters in the network, haplotypes clustered together according to geographic origin. For example, three monophyletic groups represented haplotypes only from Tunisia (TUN25, TUN11 and TUN1; TUN26 and TUN6; TUN13, TUN3 and TUN18). Another haplogroup (D) was of Middle-East origin, comprising samples from Turkey (TUR8, TUR21,

 TUR18, TUR19) and Iran (IRA11). In addition, one group was of African origin and included samples from Tunisia (TUN5, TUN7) and Algeria (ALG9) and another group was from South- America, including haplotypes from Brazil and Argentina (BRA4, ARG2, BRA6). In other monophyletic groups, samples from Eurasia clustered together, some of which comprised haplotypes that were geographically distant from each other, such as an Indian-Iranian group (IND1 and IRA16) and a Turkish-Spanish-Iranian group F (TUR12, TUR24, TUR27, TUR4, TUR9, IRA12 and SPA1). Haplogroup G from Eurasia represented haplotypes from Turkey (TUR32, TUR22, TUR11, TUR36, TUR13, TUR28, TUR26, TUR10, TUR31, TUR33, TUR17, TUR7), Iran (IRA1, IRA13, IRA8, IRA18, IRA7, IRA17, IRA4, IRA9), Albania (ALB1, ALB2), Moldova (MOL2) and Romania (ROM1), and haplogroup C represented haplotypes from Iran (IRA19, IRA6 and IRA5), Moldova (MOL3), Mongolia (MON1) and Romania (ROM2).

 The geographically most distant haplotypes that clustered together into haplogroups originated from different continents, including two haplotypes from Australia (AUS1 and AUS2) and a haplotype originating from Algeria (ALG4). However, haplotype AUS3 from Australia clustered together with 12 haplotypes from Africa (TUN8, TUN30, ALG6, TUN12, ALG10, TUN14, TUN23, TUN9, ALG1, TUN10, ALG3 and ALG11) and the haplotypes from Europe (SPA7, SPA4 and FIN1; A). In addition, five haplotypes from Africa (ALG2, TUN15, MOR1, TUN27, ALG8) clustered with haplotype ARG8 from Argentina, and haplotypes ITA7, ITA6, ITA8, and TUN2 from Italy and Tunisia also clustered together.

 No host-specific pattern was identified, as the majority of monophyletic clusters included samples from different host species. The most numerous host species in this study, cattle and sheep, were genetically closely related and some haplotypes (TUR17, TUN14 and ARB1) included samples from both hosts. As expected, the haplotypes representing 41 samples from humans did not cluster together and were in different haplogroups, together with samples from other hosts. Haplotype TUN5 from Tunisia represented three samples, one from sheep and two from human and

 haplotype TUN15 also from Tunisia represented two samples, one from sheep the other from human.

3.4 The phylogenetic network of human G1 samples

 The 41 genotype G1 samples from humans represented 37 distinct haplotypes (Fig. 6). Haplotypes from Tunisia and Algeria were frequently closely related (e.g., TUN22 and ALG12), but some were genetically very distant from one another (e.g. ALG7 and TUN27; separated by 30 mutations). Haplotype ALG1 from Algeria was most closely related to haplotype FIN1; FIN1 was from an Algerian CE patient who was living in Finland. Haplotype MON1 representing two samples from Mongolia was within a monophyletic cluster with haplotype ROM2 from Romania and haplotype IRA3 from Iran with haplotype TUN21 from Tunisia.

3.5 Diversity and neutrality indices

300 The overall haplotype diversity index for genotype G1 was very high $(Hd = 0.994)$, while 301 the nucleotide diversity was low (π = 0.00133; Table 2). The most numerous host species in this study – cattle, sheep and human – were represented by high haplotype diversity indices (0.987 to 0.995), whereas nucleotide diversities ranged from 0.00128 to 0.00138. The haplotype diversity indices for genotype G1 from the five geographical regions were also high, ranging from 0.926 to 0.994, whereas the nucleotide diversities varied from 0.00083 to 0.00136, with samples from America having the lowest values. Of the countries represented in the present analysis, Argentina 307 had the lowest values of haplotype and nucleotide diversities (Hd = 0.832 and $\pi = 0.00057$), whilst 308 the corresponding values for other countries were higher (ranging from 0.956 to 1.000 and π) ranging from 0.115 to 0.00143).

310 Neutrality indices Tajima's D and Fu's Fs were negative and statistically highly significant 311 for genotype G1 ($D = -2.77$, $Fs = -23.80$; Table 2). Neutrality indices were similar among host species and in the majority of the regions (Africa, the Americas, Europe and the Middle East). However, neutrality indices were lower and insignificant for Asia and Australia. Among the countries included, both neutrality indices were negative and statistically significant for Algeria, 315 Argentina, Tunisia and Turkey, while only Tajima's D (-2.03) was significant for Iran. The neutrality indices calculated for Brazil, Italy and Spain were all negative, and statistically insignificant.

3.6. Population differentiation

 The Fst value between genotypes G1 and G3 was very high (0.711; p < 0.00001). By contrast, low Fst values were observed between cattle, sheep and human samples of G1 (Fst < 0.05; Table 3) and between most of the regions of G1 in this study (Africa, Asia and Australia, Europe and the Middle East), ranging from 0.022 to 0.068 (Table 4). However, higher Fst values (ranging from 0.186 to 0.216) were detected between the Americas and the other regions. Among countries, the highest Fst values were seen between Argentina and the Eurasian (Iran, Italy, Spain and Turkey) and African countries (Algeria and Tunisia), ranging from 0.269 to 0.359, while the value was slightly lower between Argentina and Brazil (0.124; Table 5). The Fst values between the remaining countries were mostly less than 0.100. Statistically insignificant values were observed between Europe and Asia-Australia (Table 4) and between Algeria and Tunisia (Table 5).

3.7. Bayesian phylogeographic analysis

 The Bayesian discrete phylogeographic analysis yielded 18 statistically significant spatial diffusion routes for genotype G1, of which 11 had a BF value of 10 to 100, whereas the BF value

 was very high (>100) for seven routes (Fig. 7). A total of seven routes originated from Turkey, two of which had very high statistical support (BF > 100; between Turkey and Iran and Turkey and Greece); six originated from Tunisia, three of which had BF values >100 (between Tunisia and Italy, Tunisia - Algeria and Tunisia - Argentina). Argentina was the ancestral location to Brazil (BF $>$ 100), Mexico and Chile, while Iran was ancestral to India. Algeria was identified as the origin of the sample from a human from Finland.

4. Discussion

 The results of this study based on 222 near-complete *E. granulosus* s. s. mitogenome sequences from a worldwide distribution confirmed that genotypes G1 and G3 are indeed distinct 344 genotypes, as reported recently by Kinkar et al. (2017) with a significantly smaller sample size ($n =$ 23). The analysis of the much larger dataset used in the present study also positioned genotypes G1 and G3 into distinct haplogroups, separated by 37 mutations (Fig. 3). This distinction was also well 347 supported by the Bayesian phylogenetic analysis (Fig. 4) and by the high Fst value (0.7nn; $p \le$ 0.00001) between genotypes G1 and G3. As genotypes G1 and G3 represent distinct mitochondrial lineages and G1 is more widespread with a larger spectrum of hosts, it is possible that there are epidemiological differences between these genotypes. Although this proposal has not yet been explored, the use of up-to-date molecular methods to identify and distinguish these genotypes will be the prerequisite to test this hypothesis. However, sequencing a large portion of the mitochondrial genome is often not feasible in most laboratories, such that establishing a set of diagnostic nucleotides to confidently assign samples to genotypes G1 and G3 is needed (ongoing project).

 The results of the present study demonstrated an extremely high global haplotype diversity within genotype G1 (Fig. 5); the 212 samples analysed represented a total of 171 haplotypes (overall haplotype diversity 0.994; Table 2). Haplotype diversities within genotype G1 were high for different host species, regions and countries (with values being mostly between 0.970 and 1.000; Table 2), whereas Fst values were low (mostly < 0.1; Tables 3-5), pointing to a high genetic diversity and low genetic differentiation between G1 subpopulations globally, possibly due to rapid radiation. However, the South- and Central-American samples (since only one sample was from Mexico, we use henceforth South America) showed slightly lower values of haplotype diversities (particularly Argentina; Hd = 0.832; Table 2) and higher values of Fst (ranging from 0.186 to 0.216 between the Americas and the other regions; Table 4), indicating lower genetic diversity and moderate genetic differentiation of samples from South America compared with those from Africa and Eurasia. This finding is also supported by the phylogenetic network wherein the South- American samples formed a haplogroup (B) with a dominant central haplotype (Fig. 5), suggesting 368 a bottleneck event in the past, while significant negative values of neutrality indices ($D = -2.201$, Fs = -13.284; Table 2) indicated a population expansion in South America. A possible explanation for this observation is the relatively recent arrival to and sudden expansion of domestic animals (cattle and sheep) in South America during the 15th and 16th Centuries (Rodero et al., 1992) compared with the domestication history in Africa and Eurasia, extending thousands of years BC (Zeder, 2008; Lv et al., 2015). However, as Argentina contributed more to the lower Hd value for South America, another possible reason could be that a relatively large number of the Argentinian samples (24 of 31) originated from the same geographical area (the Buenos Aires province in Argentina). However, the samples from Turkey used in this study also originated from one area in the East (Erzurum and Elazig provinces), but yielded very high haplotype diversity (Hd = 0.991; Table 2). Therefore, the results could reflect a more recent arrival and sudden expansion of *E. granulosus* s. s. genotype G1 in South America.

 In addition to the South-American haplogroup B, there were multiple other groups where samples clustered together according to their geographical origin; for example, some of the African samples (Fig. 5). However, the opposite was also observed, and numerous well-supported clusters

 on the phylogenetic tree comprised samples from various geographic locations (e.g., in haplogroup A, in which African, Australian and European samples clustered together). These observed phylogeographical patterns (along with the low Fst values in Eurasia and Africa) might be the consequence of an extensive livestock trade that has facilitated the dispersal of the parasite over vast geographic areas. Demographic analysis also supported this hypothesis: high haplotype 388 diversity coupled to relatively low nucleotide diversity values observed in this study (Hd = 0.994, π) = 0.00133 for the overall population) suggest rapid demographic expansion, supported by 390 significant negative values of neutrality indices Tajima's D (-2.771) and Fu's Fs (-23.802), particularly evident among subpopulations with larger sample sizes (the whole dataset, hosts, African and the Middle Eastern region, Turkey; Table 2). Similar results reflecting populations under expansion have been reported in previous studies in various geographic regions (e.g., Nakao et al., 2010; Casulli et al., 2012; Yanagida et al., 2012; Kinkar et al., 2016; Laurimäe et al., 2016; Hassan et al., 2017).

 In this study, samples from humans did not cluster together and were frequently positioned with samples from various livestock species (e.g., sheep and goat in group C; sheep and cattle in groups A and F; see Figs. 4 and 5). Furthermore, some of the samples from humans were relatively closely related to samples from wildlife species, such as dingo (group A) and wild boar (group E). Interestingly, the aforementioned human samples were of African origin, whereas the samples from dingo and wild boar were from Australia and Spain, respectively (Fig. 5). The results clearly demonstrate a highly efficient transmission cycle of genotype G1 among different host species (livestock, wildlife and humans) globally. This statement is further supported by the low Fst values among cattle, sheep and human samples (Table 3), suggesting that no particular haplotype is more virulent to humans than any other within genotype G1. However, the Fst values point to a slightly 406 higher genetic similarity between sheep and human samples ($Fst = 0.025$) compared with cattle and human samples (Fst = 0.046). Interestingly, the majority of the *E. granulosus* s. s. cysts obtained

 from cattle are reported as sterile whereas a high fertility rate is characteristic of sheep and human infections (e.g. McManus and Thompson, 2003; Andresiuk et al., 2013; Elmajdoub and Rahman, 2015; Kamelli et al., 2016). The higher genetic similarity between samples of human and sheep origin could indicate better G1 transmission between human and sheep, compared with human and cattle.

 As a large portion (29 of 41) of the G1 samples from human studied here originated from Africa, it is not surprising that most of these clustered together in the phylogenetic network (see Fig. 6). The sample from a CE patient in Finland who originated from Algeria, clustered together with another human sample from Algeria and the link between Algeria and Finland was also supported by phylogeographic analysis (Fig. 7), suggesting that the individual was most likely infected in Algeria. The genetic diversity among samples from humans was very high (Hd = 0.995), almost equal to values calculated for cattle and sheep (Hd = 0.992 and 0.987, respectively; Table 2).

 The Bayesian phylogeographic analysis revealed a number of statistically significant migration routes which seemed to follow the spread of livestock animals from the centre of domestication during Neolithic times (Zeder, 2008; Lv et al., 2015; Fig. 7). One ancestral location of genotype G1 was Turkey, from which several migration routes originated. The Fertile Crescent of the Middle East is considered as one of the earliest centres of livestock domestication (mainly cattle, sheep, pigs and goats) from where the animals were later distributed east- and westwards during Neolithic times (Bruford et al., 2003; Zeder, 2008; Chessa et al., 2009; Lv et al., 2015; Rannamäe et al., 427 2016). The phylogeographic results of this study could reflect the early spread of livestock from this region along with *E. granulosus* s. s. genotype G1. Although the possible ancestral location of *E. granulosus* s. s. in the Middle East has been suggested before (e. g. Nakao et al., 2010; Casulli et al., 2012; Yanagida et al., 2012; Kinkar et al., 2016; Hassan et al., 2017), the discrete Bayesian phylogeographic approach used here provided statistical support for this diffusion pattern. In addition, the migration routes from Tunisia to Morocco and Algeria point to a westward movement of genotype G1 in North Africa which is also in accordance with the supposed direction of early dispersal of domesticated animals (cattle, sheep and goat) in this area (Gifford-Gonzalez and Hanotte, 2011).

 Another location from which several diffusion routes originated was Tunisia: among others, three routes showed a possible migration of genotype G1 from Tunisia to Argentina, Australia and Turkey which could be linked to human/livestock migration in later history. It is possible that 439 during the colonization of Tunisia by the Ottoman Empire (founded by the Turkish) from the $16th$ to 440 19th Centuries, domestic animals infected with genotype G1 were transported between these regions, and later to other parts of the world, which could also result in Tunisia being one of the 442 centres of radiation, together with Turkey. During the same period (the $15th$ and $16th$ Centuries), sheep and other livestock were introduced to the Americas by Spanish and British colonizers. However, some animals that arrived to the Americas could have had an African origin as some of the livestock species (mostly pigs and goats) were taken aboard on the Canary Islands, which were colonized by people from North Africa (Rodero et al., 1992; Rando et al., 1999; also discussed in Alvarez Rojas et al., 2017), possibly explaining the significant diffusion route between Tunisia and Argentina. The ancestral position of Argentina could indicate its possible origin for the other American samples (Brazil, Chile and Mexico). The connection between Tunisia and Australia could also be linked to relatively recent history: it is thought that the sources of Australian sheep could be Spain and/or North Africa, as Merinos raised in North Africa arrived in Australia in the beginning of the 19th Century, as discussed by Jenkins (2005).

 In conclusion, this is the first study to explore the global patterns of genetic diversity and phylogeography of *E. granulosus* s. s. using near-complete mitogenome sequences. We show that: (i) using a considerably larger dataset than employed previously, *E. granulosus* s. s. genotypes G1 and G3 are clearly distinct mitochondrial genotypes; (ii) the genetic diversity within genotype G1 is very high worldwide, with slightly lower values in South America; (iii) the observed complex

Conflict of interest

- Authors declare no conflict of interest.
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Legends to Figures

 Fig. 1. Geographic locations of *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1 samples (n = 212) analysed in this study.

 Fig. 2. Geographic locations of *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1 samples from 738 humans $(n = 41)$ used in this study.

 Fig. 3. Phylogenetic network of *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto samples based on 11 682 bp of mtDNA. Small black circles are median vectors (i.e. hypothetical haplotypes: haplotypes not sampled or extinct). The larger haplogroup (n = 212) corresponds to the mitochondrial genotype G1 743 and the smaller haplogroup ($n = 10$) to G3. The small circles and triangles in the haplogroups represent haplotypes. The number on the line connecting the haplogroups indicates the mutational steps between genotypes G1 and G3.

 Fig. 4. Bayesian phylogenetic tree inferred from 222 *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto 748 samples. The larger clade $(n = 212)$ corresponds to the mitochondrial genotype G1 and the smaller $(n = 10)$ to G3. Posterior probability values >0.95 are indicated at the nodes. The asterisks indicate haplotypes obtained from humans. Seven clades depicted in blue, yellow, red, green, pink, purple, 751 orange and named A–G, respectively, illustrate clades that received the posterior probability value >0.95 and in which the sample size was equal or higher than 5. Note that the lengths of two branches are reduced (dashed line); for the figure with actual branch lengths, see Fig. S1.

 Fig. 5. Phylogenetic network of *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto G1 samples based on 11 682 bp of mtDNA. Circles represent haplotypes obtained from livestock and wild animals, triangles represent haplotypes of human origin. Haplotype colours represent different geographical regions:

758 purple $-$ Africa, green $-$ America, orange $-$ Asia and Australia, blue $-$ Europe, dark red $-$ the 759 Middle East (please note that colours indicated on the right corner of the figure refer to geographic 760 locations of haplotypes, not haplogroups). Haplotype names represent their geographical origin: 761 ALB - Albania, ALG - Algeria, ARG - Argentina, AUS - Australia, BRA - Brazil, CHI - Chile, 762 CHN – China, FIN – Finland (patient from Algeria), FRA – France, GRE – Greece, IND – India, 763 IRA – Iran, ITA – Italy, KAZ – Kazakhstan, MEX – Mexico, MOL – Moldova, MON – Mongolia, 764 MOR – Morocco, ROM – Romania, SPA – Spain, TUN – Tunisia, TUR – Turkey. Host species are 765 indicated with letters inside the haplotypes $(C - \text{cattle}, S - \text{sheep}, H - \text{human}, P - \text{pig}, G - \text{goat}, D - \text{linear})$ 766 dingo, W – wild boar, B – buffalo). The small number inside haplotypes indicates the frequency of 767 the haplotype. Numbers on the lines represent the number of mutations (single mutations are not 768 marked with a number).

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 Fig. 6. Phylogenetic network of *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto G1 human samples based on 11 682 bp of mtDNA. Triangles represent haplotypes. Haplotype colours represent different 772 geographical regions: purple $-\text{ Africa}$, orange $-\text{Asia}$, blue $-\text{Europe}$ and dark red $-\text{ the Middle East}$. 773 Haplotype names represent different geographical origins: $ALG - Algeria$, $CHN - China$, $FIN -$ 774 Finland (Algerian patient), IRA - Iran, ITA - Italy, KAZ - Kazakhstan, MON - Mongolia, ROM - Romania, $SPA - Spain$, $TUN - Tunisia$. The number inside the triangles indicate the frequency of the haplotype. Numbers on the lines represent the number of mutations (single mutations are not marked with a number).

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 Fig. 7. Statistically significant diffusion routes inferred from the Bayesian phylogeographic analysis based on 212 *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1 samples (11 682 bp of mtDNA). Black lines represent significant links (BF > 10), whereas black lines with red outlines represent 782 highly significant links $(BF > 100)$.

 Fig. S1. Bayesian phylogenetic tree inferred from 222 *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto 785 samples. The larger clade $(n = 212)$ corresponds to the mitochondrial genotype G1 and the smaller $(n = 10)$ to G3. Posterior probability values >0.95 are indicated at the nodes. The asterisks indicate haplotypes obtained from humans. Seven clades depicted in blue, yellow, red, green, pink, purple, orange and named A-G, respectively, illustrate clades that received the posterior probability value >0.95 and in which the sample size was equal or higher than 5. This is essentially the same as Fig. 790 4, but with actual branch lengths.

 Table 1 Host data for 212 *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto G1 isolates analysed in this study.

818 ^a Sequence was obtained from GenBank (AB786664; Nakao et al., 2013).

820 Diversity and neutrality indices for *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto G1 samples based on 11 821 682 bp mtDNA sequences.

822

823 Abbreviations: number of isolates examined (n), number of haplotypes (Hn), haplotype diversity (Hd), nucleotide 824 diversity (π) , Tajima's D (D), Fu's Fs (Fs), and standard deviation (S.D.).
825

826 ^a Highly significant p value (p \leq 0.001).
827 ^b Highly significant p value (p \leq 0.01).

828 Significant p value ($p < 0.05$).

 Pairwise fixation index (Fst) values between *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1 hosts based on 11 682 bp of mtDNA.

 Pairwise fixation index (Fst) values between *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1 regions based on 11 682 bp of mtDNA.

846 \degree Significant p value (p < 0.05).

848 Pairwise fixation index (Fst) values between *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto genotype G1 849 countries based on 11 682 bp of mtDNA.

859 $\frac{a}{b}$ Significant p value (p < 0.05).

Table S1

The list of G1 samples from the Americas partially published previously in Laurimäe et al. (2016) and Kinkar et al. (2017).

Table S2

The list of G1 samples from Eurasia and Africa partially published previously in Kinkar et al. (2016 and 2017).

Lab code in	Haplotype	Host	Origin	GenBank accession nr
Tartu				
V8	GRE1	Sheep	Greece	
HS4	ROM1	Cattle	Romania	
Fin16	FIN1	Human	Finland, Algerian patient	
IT3	ITA1	Cattle	Italy, South	
IT ₁₀	ITA ₂	Cattle	Italy, North	
HIP9	ITA3	Human	Italy, Pavia	
AC3	ITA4	Sheep	Italy, Sicily island	
AC4	ITA4	Sheep	Italy, Sicily island	
2G	SPA1	Human	Spain	
7G	ROM ₂	Human	Romania	
12G	SPA ₂	Wild boar	Spain	
ALB3	ALB1	Sheep	Albania, Tirana	
ALB4	ALB ₂	Sheep	Albania, Tirana	
4150	MOR1	Cattle	Morocco, Sidi Kacem	
5455	FRA1	Cattle	France, Oloron-Sainte-Marie	
6200	MOL1	Sheep	Moldova, Centre	
6214	MOL ₂	Cattle	Moldova, Centre	
6187	MOL3	Sheep	Moldova, South	
P ₂	SPA3	Sheep	Central Spain	
P ₃	SPA4	Sheep	Central Spain	
P ₄	SPA4	Sheep	Central Spain	
P ₁₅	SPA5	Sheep	Central Spain	
P ₁₆	SPA ₆	Sheep	Central Spain	
P21	SPA7	Sheep	Central Spain	
P47	SPA8	Pig	Spain, Segovia	
P51	SPA9	Goat	Central Spain	
P ₅₂	SPA10	Goat	Central Spain	
P ₅₃	SPA9	Goat	Central Spain	
P61	SPA11	Human	Spain, Madrid	
U ₃	TUN1	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U8	TUN2	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U11	TUN3	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U17	TUN4	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U30	TUN5	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U32	TUN ₆	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U33	TUN7	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U44	TUN8	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U57	TUN ₈	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U ₆₂	TUN9	Sheep	Tunisia, Sousse	
U66	TUN10	Sheep	Tunisia, Kairouan	
U80	TUN10	Sheep	Tunisia, Kairouan	
U82	TUN11	Sheep	Tunisia, Kairouan	
U110	TUN12	Sheep	Tunisia, Kairouan	
U117	TUN13	Sheep	Tunisia, Kasserine	
U118	TUN14	Sheep	Tunisia, Kasserine	
U120	TUN15	Sheep	Tunisia, Gafsa	

Table S3 Data for the 211 *Echinococcus granulosus* sensu stricto G1 isolates sequenced in this study.

Figure 1 print version [Click here to download high resolution image](http://eeslive.elsevier.com/ijpara/download.aspx?id=329765&guid=197dee72-982d-415e-8ece-11fd4e9e337d&scheme=1)

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Figure S1 [Click here to download high resolution image](http://eeslive.elsevier.com/ijpara/download.aspx?id=329779&guid=00c7eb54-531e-49f6-9309-9573fc0f69ef&scheme=1)

Highlights

- 11 682 bp of mtDNA was analysed for 222 *E. granulosus* s. s. samples globally
- G1 and G3 are distinct mitochondrial genotypes
- The genetic diversity of *E. granulosus* s. s. G1 is extremely high globally
- The main diffusion routes of G1 originated from Turkey, Tunisia and Argentina
- Livestock trade has greatly influenced the present-day diversity of genotype G1

Global phylogeography of E. granulosus s. s. genotype G1

