

1 *PNAS– Article*

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3 **Assessing the origins of the European Plagues following the Black**
4 **Death: a synthesis of genomic, historical and ecological**
5 **information**

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 The Second Plague Pandemic started in Europe with the Black Death in 1346 and

24 lasted until the 19th century. Based on ancient DNA studies, there is a scientific

25 disagreement over whether the bacterium, *Yersinia pestis*, came into Europe once

26 (Hypothesis 1), or repeatedly over the following four centuries (Hypothesis 2). Here

27 we synthesize the most updated phylogeny together with historical, archeological,
28 evolutionary and ecological information. On the basis of this holistic view, we
29 conclude that Hypothesis 2 is the most plausible. We also suggest that *Y. pestis*
30 lineages might have developed attenuated virulence during transmission, which can
31 explain the convergent evolutionary signals, including *pla*-decay, that appeared at the
32 end of the pandemics.

33

34 **Keywords:** *Yersinia pestis* | ancient DNA | Black Death | European Plague | pathogen
35 evolution
36

37 **Significance Statement**

38 Over the last few years there has been a great deal of scientific debate
39 regarding whether the plague bacterium, *Yersinia pestis*, spread from a
40 Western European reservoir during the Second Plague Pandemic, or if it
41 repeatedly came to Europe from Asia. Here we make a synthesis of the
42 available evidence, including genomes of ancient DNA, historical,
43 archeological and ecological information. We conclude that the bacterium most
44 likely came to Europe from Asia several times during the Second Plague
45 Pandemic.

46

47 **Main Text**

48 Researchers agree that the Second Plague Pandemic was caused by *Yersinia pestis*
49 (1-9), which arrived in Europe from Caffa transported by Genoese galleys on the
50 Black Sea at the beginning of the Black Death (10). However, there is no consensus
51 among researchers as to the origins of plague epidemics in Europe following the

52 Black Death and ravaging Europe until the 19th century, as attested by historical
53 documents (11).

54 The two main theories are that one or more plague reservoirs remained in Western
55 Europe during the entire Second Plague Pandemic (referred to in the following as
56 Hypothesis 1) (3, 4, 8, 12), or the bacteria repeatedly invaded Europe from non-
57 Western European reservoir(s) during the same period (referred to in the following as
58 Hypothesis 2) (6, 7, 9, 11, 13). Here, we assess these two hypotheses using a broad
59 spectrum of evidence including historical and archeological, genetic and evolutionary,
60 as well as ecological information.

61

62 **Results and Discussion**

63 **Assessment of the two hypotheses.**

64 For the purpose of understanding the evolution of the plague bacteria, more than 100
65 ancient *Y. pestis* genomes have been published to date. The last 17 were recently
66 reported during a short period by four distinct research groups (7-9, 12). Using most
67 of the ancient genomes (criteria for exclusion are described in methods) along with
68 499 modern ones, we present here the most updated phylogeny (Fig. 1).

69

70 The updated phylogeny confirms the almost clonal nature of the Black Death strains,
71 in comparison to all other lineages of the Second Plague Pandemic, including the
72 strains from the *Pestis secunda* (Ber37 and Ber 45, The Netherlands (6), and
73 BolgarCity2370, Russia (3)), which are placed on Branch 1 (see also London-
74 Ind6330, UK (3)), as well as to all other strains, which are placed on the post-Black
75 Death branch. There is general agreement that the post-Black Death branch was
76 hosted in a novel wild rodent reservoir – either in Europe or outside Europe. The
77 original hypothesis (Hypothesis 1) claims that such a plague reservoir existed in

78 Western Europe (14), perhaps in the Alps (15). However, a newer hypothesis
 79 (Hypothesis 2) claims that the plague reservoir was in Asia, possibly close to Eastern
 80 Europe (6, 7, 9, 11, 13).

81

82 In order to more easily view the phylogeny from the Second Plague Pandemic and to
 83 better contrast the evidence for the two hypotheses, we generated two schematic
 84 figures (Fig. 2) and a table (Table 1).

85

86 **Table 1. Main differences between the two competing hypotheses proposed to explain the**
 87 **phylogeny of *Y. pestis* of the Second Plague Pandemic.** Genomic and evolutionary, historical
 88 and archaeological, as well as ecological arguments are considered.

	Hypothesis 1	Hypothesis 2
Main differences		
Origin of the outbreaks	Plague established in Western European reservoirs (for example, marmots in the Alps) (3, 4, 8)	Plague was repeatedly imported from Eastern European or Asian reservoirs (6, 7, 9, 11, 13)
Transmission	Mediated by rats infected by wild rodents, as in China during the Third Pandemic	Imported by rats, humans, and goods, and subsequently spread by chains of human transmission, as in Europe during the Third Pandemic (16, 17)
Vector	<i>Xenopsylla cheopis</i> and other rodent fleas	Any ectoparasite, including <i>Pulex irritans</i> , and body lice (18, 19)
Supporting information		
Population genomics	Western European strains (the Alpine clade) are basal in the sub-branch (although of different eras). A model proposes Western European strains as ancestral sources for the transmissions (Fig. S1)	The oldest (LAI009) and the most recent strains, in addition to Bolgar, are all from Eastern Europe (Russia), as well as all the strains of the 18 th century; the majority of the Western European strains in the phylogeny come from ports
History and archaeology	A hypothesis (15) suggests that the plagues from the 16 th century in the Alps, were not imported by major trade centers	Multiple historical records assert that plague was imported for outbreaks associated with the Black Death strains (partially reviewed in (6, 7, 11, 13)), for BRA (4), for SPN (in the Alps), PEB10 (7) and OBS (5). Multiple records of importation are historically attested (20), particularly in harbors

Climate	No climatic signal in support, although 4 datasets of climatic proxies were from the Alps (13)	Strong signals of climate-driven introductions of plague from Asia (13)
Evolution	<i>Y. pestis</i> developed in Western European reservoir strains <i>pla+</i> / <i>pla-</i> and Delta49kb possibly as a form of adaptation to the local host (rodents).	<i>Y. pestis</i> developed <i>pla+</i> / <i>pla-</i> and Delta49kb strains possibly as a form of adaptation to the new host (humans) and/or new vectors (fleas or body lice).

89

90 Hypothesis 1 is supported by a phylogenetic analysis based on the currently
91 available ancient genomes, which infers high posterior probability for a Western
92 European source of the transmissions on the post Black Death branch (see Fig. S1).
93 However, as the dataset includes 41 ancient genomes from Western Europe against
94 only 8 strains from Eastern Europe (including Gdansk and Riga), the proposed
95 origins from Western Europe are likely to be biased toward a European reservoir due
96 to a size-effect bias. Notably, the most basal genome LAI009 (4) (the Black Death's
97 lineage), Bolgar (at the root of Branch 1), and the most recent genome (CHE1 (7)),
98 all originated from Western Russia, implying that they might have been closer to a
99 putative Asian or Eastern European reservoir. This continuity does represent strong
100 evidence in support of Hypothesis 2.

101

102 Using only genomic data, Hypothesis 1 might be seen as the most parsimonious
103 hypothesis, since it proposes an internal source for all western Eurasian outbreaks.
104 However, for two locations (Pestbacken, Sweden 1710 (PEB10), and Marseille,
105 France 1722 (OBS)), an origin from the Ottoman Empire is historically and
106 archaeologically well supported (7). Thus, Hypothesis 1 needs to account for a back-
107 and-forth spread, which reintroduced plague on two occasions to the Ottoman
108 Empire and back again to Western Europe. Notably, none of the strains from the 18th
109 century appear to have originated in Western Europe according to historical sources
110 (7, 9).

111

112 Hypothesis 1 assumes the existence of a wild rodent plague reservoir in the Alps,
113 which is not supported by ecological evidence (13). Instead, a study of more than
114 7,000 historical plague outbreaks and 15 tree-ring datasets (4 of which from the Alps),
115 found climatic signals in support of frequent re-importations of plague from Asia into
116 Eastern and Western European harbors (13).

117

118 Intriguingly, only a few genotyped strains are nodes on the backbone of the post-
119 Black Death branch: the strains of the Black Death itself, the strain from Gdansk
120 1425-1469 and the strains from London (BED, 16th-17th century). While the strains of
121 the Black Death were notoriously imported into Western Europe from the Mongol
122 Empire via Caffa in Crimea (10), both Gdansk and London were very active harbors
123 also in historical times and were very often hit by plague. Interestingly, *Yersinia*
124 *pestis* was also recovered from a rat found in Gdansk. Although the genome is partial,
125 due to the different SNPs profile, it is clear that the strain from the rat could not have
126 infected the victim (Gdansk8) (9). Being a port, Gdansk may indeed have hosted
127 diverse importations of infected rats in the period 1425-1469, as it happened in
128 European harbors during the Third Pandemic (16).

129

130 Hypothesis 2 is consistent with the ecological as well as with the historical evidence
131 (Fig. 2 and Table 1). The only Western European sub-cluster, the 'Alpine cluster'
132 formed by LBG, STN, BRA, LAR and SPN, may naturally be explained by the
133 circulation of soldiers and troops in Europe during the Thirty Years War (1618-1648),
134 which made up human chains of transmission with historically documented epidemic
135 events (20, 21). For three strains, SPN from the Italian Alps, LAR from the French
136 Alps and BRA, from Northern Germany, the relationship with the time of the Thirty

137 Years War is historically and archaeologically documented (4, 7, 12). Human chains
138 of transmission, which do not require the presence of rats to start and sustain an
139 epidemic, might explain the circulation of the plague within Europe over long periods
140 of time. They might be due to interpersonal contacts, crowding, infected parasites in
141 clothes or goods, or contact with infected pets. Several chains of human transmission
142 within Europe could be reconstructed for cases of the last century (16, 17).

143

144 **Two convergent mutations.**

145 To better understand the evolution of *Y. pestis*, we examined two more mutations,
146 which were recently discovered in ancient strains. In the most recent sub-clade of the
147 Second Pandemic, starting with BED, there is a 49kbp deletion with unknown
148 function. This deletion was also present in the last lineage of the First Pandemic, and,
149 in both cases, might have accounted for the decline of the pandemic (7). We found
150 the same mutation in the Rostov 2033 strain in the 18th century clade (Fig.1 and 2).
151 By contrast, a second strain found in the same cemetery in Rostov (Rostov 2039)
152 has a different SNPs-pattern and lacks the chromosomal deletion.

153

154 Another mutation, the depletion of the *pla*-gene on the plasmid pPCP1, has recently
155 been proposed as the cause of the disappearance of the Second Plague Pandemic
156 in the 18th century (8), given that the *pla*-gene is an important virulence factor of *Y.*
157 *pestis*. We checked for the presence of the *pla*⁺/*pla*⁻ plasmids in all published ancient
158 strains. The ratio in coverage depth between *pla* and the whole pPCP1 plasmid
159 indicates the status of *pla*-loss in an organism (Fig. 3). If the depth of *pla* is
160 significantly lower than that of pPCP1, it might properly be concluded that the *pla*-
161 gene was lost in some pPCP1 plasmids. Our analyses show that the ratio of *pla* in
162 the Black Death and post-Black Death genomes appears to be different when

163 compared with the pre-historic and the First pandemic lineages (Fig. 1). We have
164 also checked randomly selected modern *Y. pestis* genomes in different lineages, and
165 their depth of *pla* and pPCP1 are quite consistent, indicating no other *pla*-loss in
166 modern plagues. By contrast, the generalized depletion of *pla* extensively observed
167 during the post-Black Death era and at the end of the First Pandemic (Fig. 1) seems
168 to be consistent. Given that the sequencing data were generated by several different
169 research groups, a systemic error during sequencing is unlikely.

170

171 It seems that full *pla*-strains were slightly depleted at the end of the Second
172 Pandemic (8), with the same phenomenon at the end of the First Pandemic. Notably,
173 however, Rostov2033, one of the most recent genomes of the Second Pandemic,
174 shows full reads pPCP1 plasmids, whereas CHE, the most recent historical strain,
175 shows very slight *pla*-decay (Fig. 3). This observation is not fully in agreement with
176 the proposed hypothesis that *pla*-depletion contributed to the end of the pandemic.
177 An alternative explanation for this phenomenon (8) is that the differences observed in
178 the full *pla*-plasmids might be due to different forms of plague. In particular, bubonic
179 plague and pneumonic plague need the *pla*-gene to develop, whereas primary
180 septicemic plague does not (8). It seems that plague existed in all three forms, at
181 least from the time of the First Pandemic, however, this does not add any specific
182 evolutionary information to the observed variability.

183

184 **The evolution of the *pla*-gene.**

185 We propose an evolutionary hypothesis for the presence of lineages with *pla* decay.
186 One of the optimized survival strategies for an emerging pathogen is to balance its
187 virulence to the main host with its transmission strategy. This trade-off hypothesis
188 was previously demonstrated for *Y. pestis* (22, 23). This mechanism would allow the

189 bacterium to reduce virulence and enhance the time of survival of the host and,
190 consequently, of the pathogen (24). After experiencing the Black Death and
191 successive waves, the *pla* decay strains might have attempted to acquire a fitness
192 advantage reducing their virulence by increasing the time-to-death. Indeed, we
193 observe among the victims only *pla*⁺/*pla*⁻ mixed strains, whereas *pla*⁻ lineages might
194 have survived longer in the host population, providing a milder form of the illness.
195 The Eastern European/Asia clade of the 18th century (including CHE1) further lost the
196 49kb region, which can be the result of an extension of a virulence attenuated
197 pattern. Such events of attenuated virulence might have occurred multiple times in
198 the *Y. pestis* evolutionary history, and left out host-adapted lineages, such as for
199 O.PE2 and O.PE4 (25). Therefore, the possible virulence reduction caused by *pla*
200 decay and loss of the 49k region is not necessarily the reason for the extinction of
201 plague at the end of the First and Second Pandemics, but might be the result of a
202 form of adaptation to a new host, which may be the wild rodent in the putative
203 Western European reservoir (Hypothesis 1), a new host in the Asian reservoir or the
204 human host (Hypothesis 2), as well as their vectors. We observed that the newly
205 published strains from Lariey (French Alps, (12)) do not show *pla*-decay, in contrast
206 to other Alpine lineages (SPN). This evidence might exclude the hypothesis of an
207 adaptation to a host in a Western European reservoir. Thus, we tentatively propose
208 that this mechanism of *pla*-decay would support the presence of human-to-human
209 transmission chains mediated by human ectoparasites (fleas and body lice) during
210 plague pandemics in Europe, the plausibility of which has previously been
211 demonstrated (16-18).

212

213 **Conclusion**

214 Altogether, the most consistent interpretation of the current information is in support
215 of Hypothesis 2. This implies that there must have existed a reservoir outside of
216 Western Europe (with the Ottoman Empire, Persia and Central Asia as possible
217 candidates (7, 9)). Such a reservoir could then feed, with multiple introductions, the
218 Second Plague Pandemic outbreaks in Western Europe along Northern and
219 Southern trade routes (6, 26). In addition there might have been continuous
220 recirculation of plague in (Western and Eastern) Europe with the movement of goods
221 and troops. The recirculation of plague within Western Europe, mediated by trade
222 and travel, might mimic the presence of a local reservoir, assuring the long-lasting re-
223 emergence of epidemics on the continent. Such recirculation of plague could explain
224 the collateral branches on the phylogenetic tree – an example of which may be the
225 Thirty Years War Clade (1618-1648) evidenced in Fig. 2. Additional ancient strains
226 from Asia and Eastern Europe, and more accurate dating and historical
227 contextualization, will provide further evidence to clarify the phylogeny and evolution
228 of the *Y. pestis* pathogen.

229

230 **Methods**

231 **SNP calling and evaluation**

232 All raw reads of 111 published ancient genomes were downloaded from NCBI SRA
233 and EBI ENA databases. For the clones from each sampling site, only one genome
234 with the highest quality (sequencing depth) as reported in corresponding publications
235 was chosen, and genomes covering less than 20% of the chromosome length of the
236 CO92 assembly (GCF_000009065.1) were excluded from further analysis, which
237 resulted in a dataset with a total of 75 ancient genomes (Dataset S1). We trimmed
238 and quality filtered raw reads using Trimmomatic v0.38 (27), and reads shorter than

239 30 bp and below a quality score of 20 were discarded. Subsequently, the filtered
240 reads were mapped against the CO92 assembly with BWA mem model (v0.7.17) (28)
241 and the aligned reads were extracted from bam files using SAMtools (v1.9) (29) view
242 command (-bF 4) and then different runs of the same sample were merged using
243 SAMtools merge command. Sequences with more than 10 soft and hard clipped
244 alignments were filtered out by samclip, and duplicates were removed using Picard's
245 MarkDuplicates module. SNP calling was performed using the UnifiedGenotyper of
246 the Genome Analysis Toolkit (GATK v3.8) (30) under the
247 "EMIT_ALL_CONFIDENT_SITES" option with a minimum confidence threshold 10; a
248 vcf file for every ancient genome was produced and SNPs that were close to each
249 other by less than 20 bp were excluded.

250

251 A total of 499 modern genomic assemblies of *Y. pestis* available in NCBI Genbank
252 database on 19th October, 2020 were downloaded (Dataset S2) and then aligned to
253 the CO92 assembly using NASP's convert_external_genome command (31), which
254 was based on MUMmer's nucmer and delta-filter modules (v3.23) (32). A fasta file 1-
255 to-1 position aligned with a reference fasta for every modern genome was created.

256

257 All vcf files and aligned fasta files were used to aggregate sample calls into matrices
258 with NASP's matrix module. For ancient genomes, a SNP would be called when
259 supported by ≥ 3 reads and $\geq 90\%$ allele frequency. After manually validating the
260 calls for ancient genomes with notably longer branch lengths (SPN strains, BSS31,
261 and SLC1006) according to their published SNP lists, we got a final dataset of 12,608
262 polymorphic loci (Dataset S3).

263

264 **Phylogenetic analyses and geographic extent of sampled sites**

265 A fasta file, concatenated of all SNP sites, was used to generate a maximum-
266 likelihood tree with 1,000 fast bootstrap replicates using IQ-TREE (v1.6.5) (33) with
267 the option -m MFP+ASC to infer the best substitution model and account for
268 ascertainment bias correction. Then FigTree (v1.4.3) was used to visualize the
269 generated tree. The packages of ggplot2, maptools and maps in R (v3.6.1) were used
270 to mark the archaeological site locations of samples from the Second Plague
271 Pandemic. The longitude and latitude for each site was taken from the website
272 mapcoordinates (<https://www.mapcoordinates.net/en>).

273

274 **Phylogenetic analyses with calculation of MCMC posterior probability**

275 A maximum-likelihood tree for 47 ancient genomes during the Second Pandemic was
276 rebuilt using RAxML(v8.2.11) (34) with 100 replicates and GTRGAMMA model. It
277 was rerooted to strain LAI009 and transformed into newick format using FigTree. We
278 used the ReorderData function in evobiR (v1.1, R package) to match the source
279 records (country names) to the order of tips on the phylogenetic tree. Then
280 the make.simmap function in phytools (v0.7-70, R package) (35) was used to perform
281 stochastic source mapping based on ARD model and the tip states on the tree, with
282 10000 generations of MCMC sampling every 100 generations.

283

284 **pPCP1 and *pla* analysis**

285 Samtools depth command was used to count the depth of whole pPCP1 plasmid and
286 *pla*-gene for each sample from bam files. The packages of ggplot2 and ggsignif were
287 used to obtain the boxplots and group-wise comparisons (Wilcoxon-test) of the ratio
288 between the depth of *pla* and that of whole pPCP1 plasmid among three subclades
289 of the Second Pandemic. The coverage plots of pPCP1 in CHE1 (Fig. 3) was
290 visualized using Integrative Genomics Viewer(IGV, v2.8.11) (36).

291

292 **Data availability**

293 Publicly available genomes are listed in Dataset S1 and Dataset S2.

294

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302

303 **Authors’ contributions**

304 B.B. conceived the work; N.C.S. established the author team; B.B., Y.C. and N.C.S.
305 designed research; Y.W. analyzed the data, designed and generated the phylogeny;
306 B.B. wrote the paper with contributions from Y.W., R.Y., Y.C. and N.C.S.; R.Y. and
307 N.C.S. supervised the work.

308

309 **Competing interests**

310 The authors declare no competing interests.

311

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407

408 **Figure legends**

409 **Fig 1. Phylogeny and archaeological site locations of ancient genomes.** (A) A
410 maximum likelihood phylogeny was obtained with 574 genomes of *Y. pestis*
411 (including 75 ancient genomes) involved, based on 12,608 SNPs. The numbers at
412 each node indicate the bootstrap values of 1,000 replicates. Branches highlighted in
413 blue correspond to the Second Pandemic, which is subdivided in three groups: the
414 14th-15th century group, which also includes the Black Death and the *Pestis secunda*
415 (1357-1366) strains, the 15th-17th century group, and the 18th century group (which
416 includes also the BED genomes for homogeneity). Branches in purple correspond to
417 the First Pandemic and branches in green correspond to the prehistoric plague. The
418 ratio between the depth of *pla* and that of the entire pPCP1 plasmid for all ancient

419 genomes is shown in the rightmost heatmap, with a color scale ranging from 0 (dark
420 blue) to 130+ (dark red). (B) Geographic distribution of the three waves during the
421 Second Pandemic.

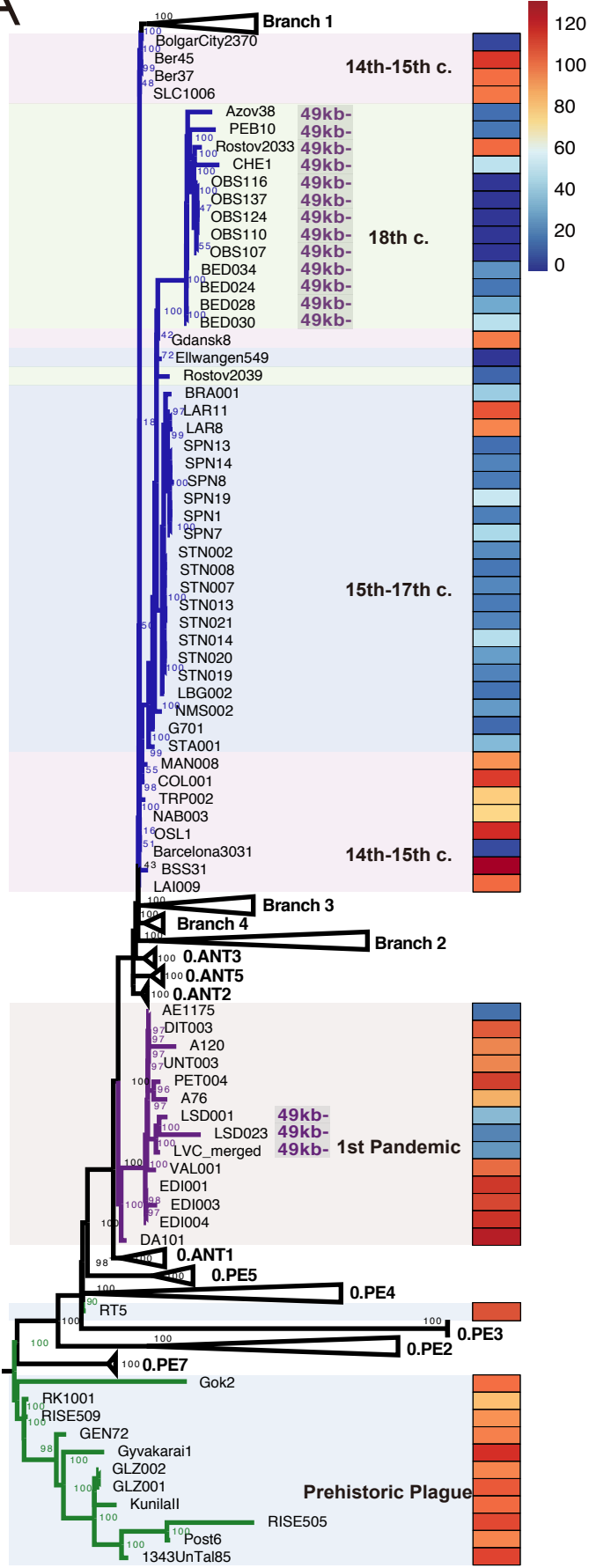
422 **Fig. 2. Schematic comparison between the two main hypotheses for the**
423 **interpretation of the *Y. pestis* phylogeny of the Second Plague Pandemic.**

424 Historic and evolutionary information is included in the schematic figures. In addition
425 to the symbols explained in the figure, we outlined in red the strains showing the
426 49kb deletion. *Pla*-decay (meaning both, full or partial absence of the *pla*-gene) is
427 indicated by the names in bold.

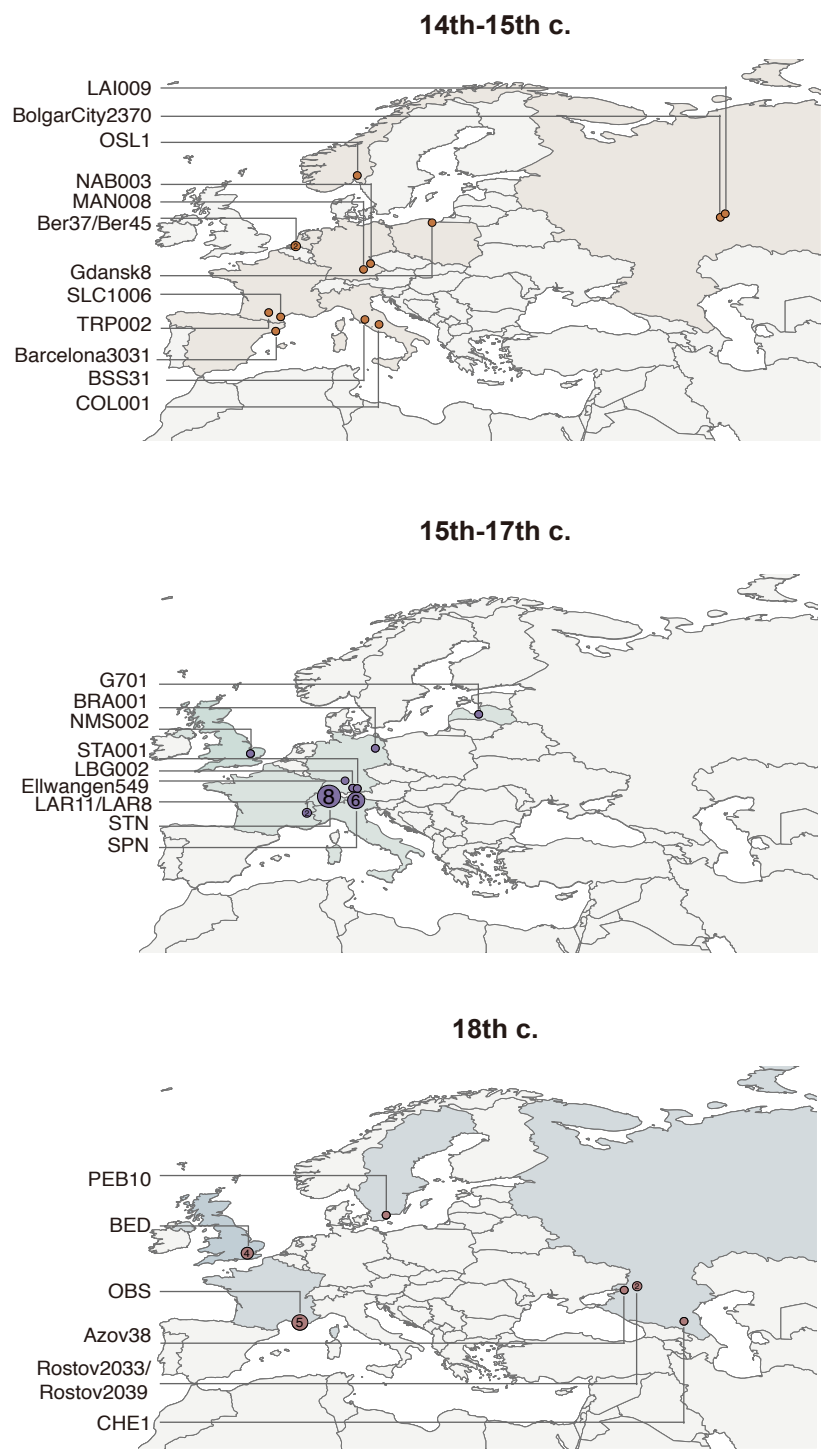
428 **Fig 3. The decay of the *pla*-gene.** (A) Depth plot of the pPCP1 plasmid in strain
429 CHE1 using IGV. The annotated genes of the pPCP1 plasmid are marked with blue
430 bars. The average sequencing depth of whole pPCP1 plasmid is 195.65X, while the
431 average sequencing depth of the *pla*-region is 96.04X. (B) Group-wise comparison of
432 the ratio between the depth of *pla* and that of whole pPCP1 plasmid among three
433 waves of the Second Pandemic. Boxplots depict the upper, median, and lower
434 quartiles of the ratios, individual dots indicate outliers that lie outside of 1.5 times the
435 interquartile range, and vertical lines indicate the range of all ratios except for outliers.
436 The *p*-value of group-wise comparison using the Wilcoxon-test are labeled on the top,
437 two of which are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). Data of Fig. 3b are provided in
438 Dataset S4.

439

A



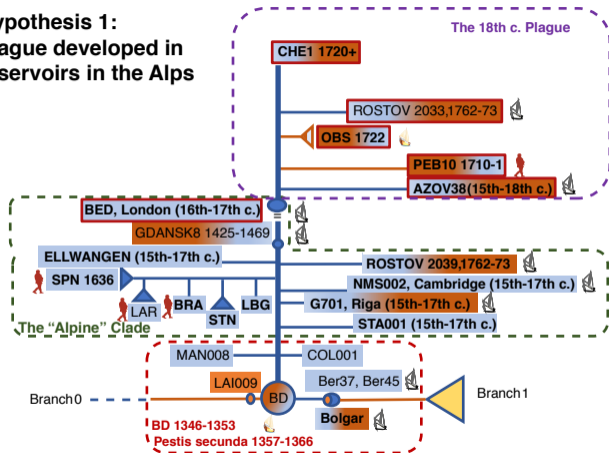
B



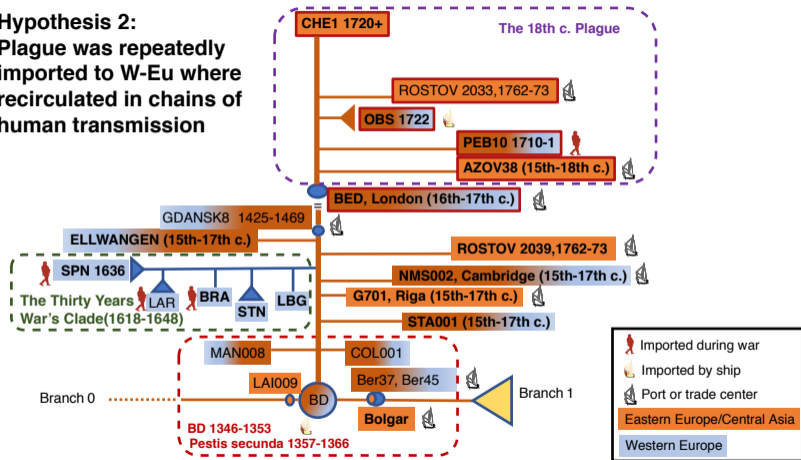
Sample num	
○	1
⊙	2
⊚	4
⊛	5
⊜	6
⊝	8

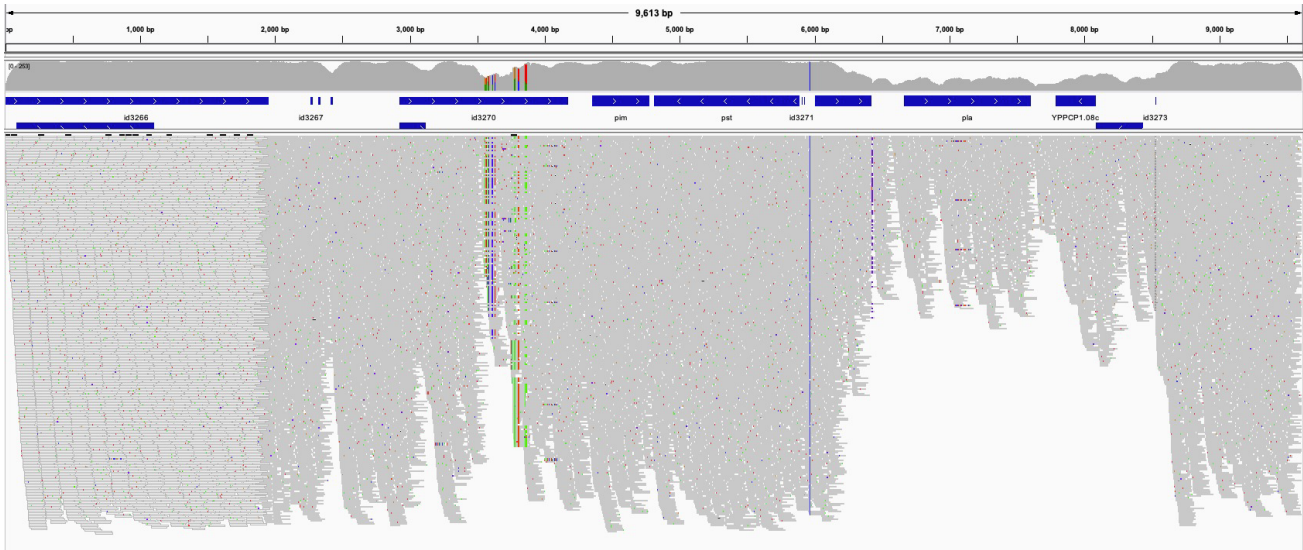
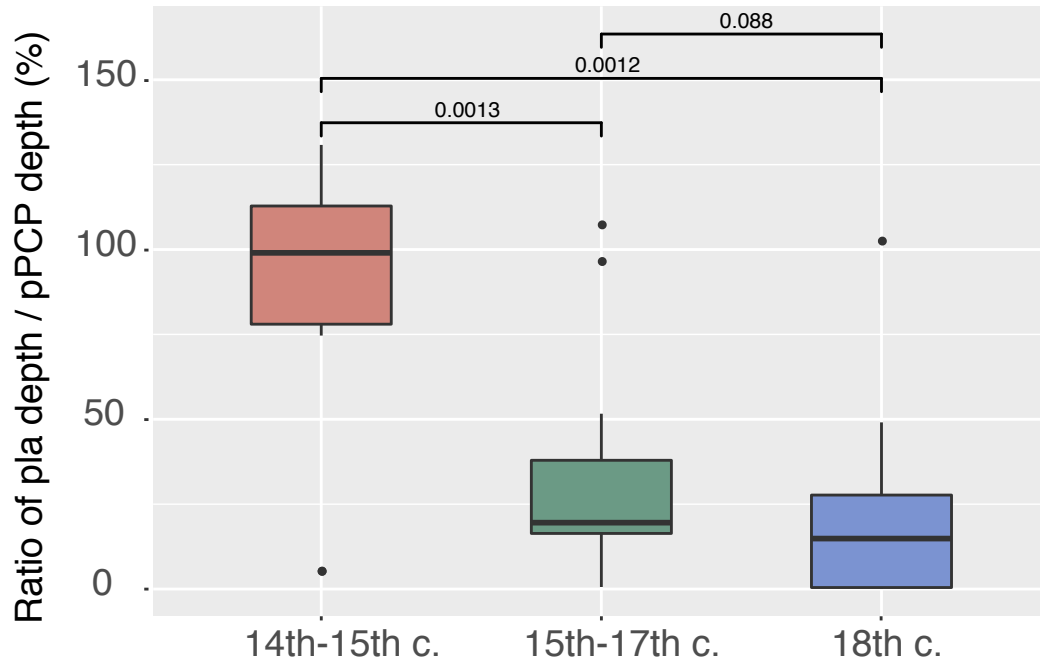
9.0E-4

Hypothesis 1:
Plague developed in reservoirs in the Alps



Hypothesis 2:
Plague was repeatedly imported to W-Eu where recirculated in chains of human transmission



A**B**

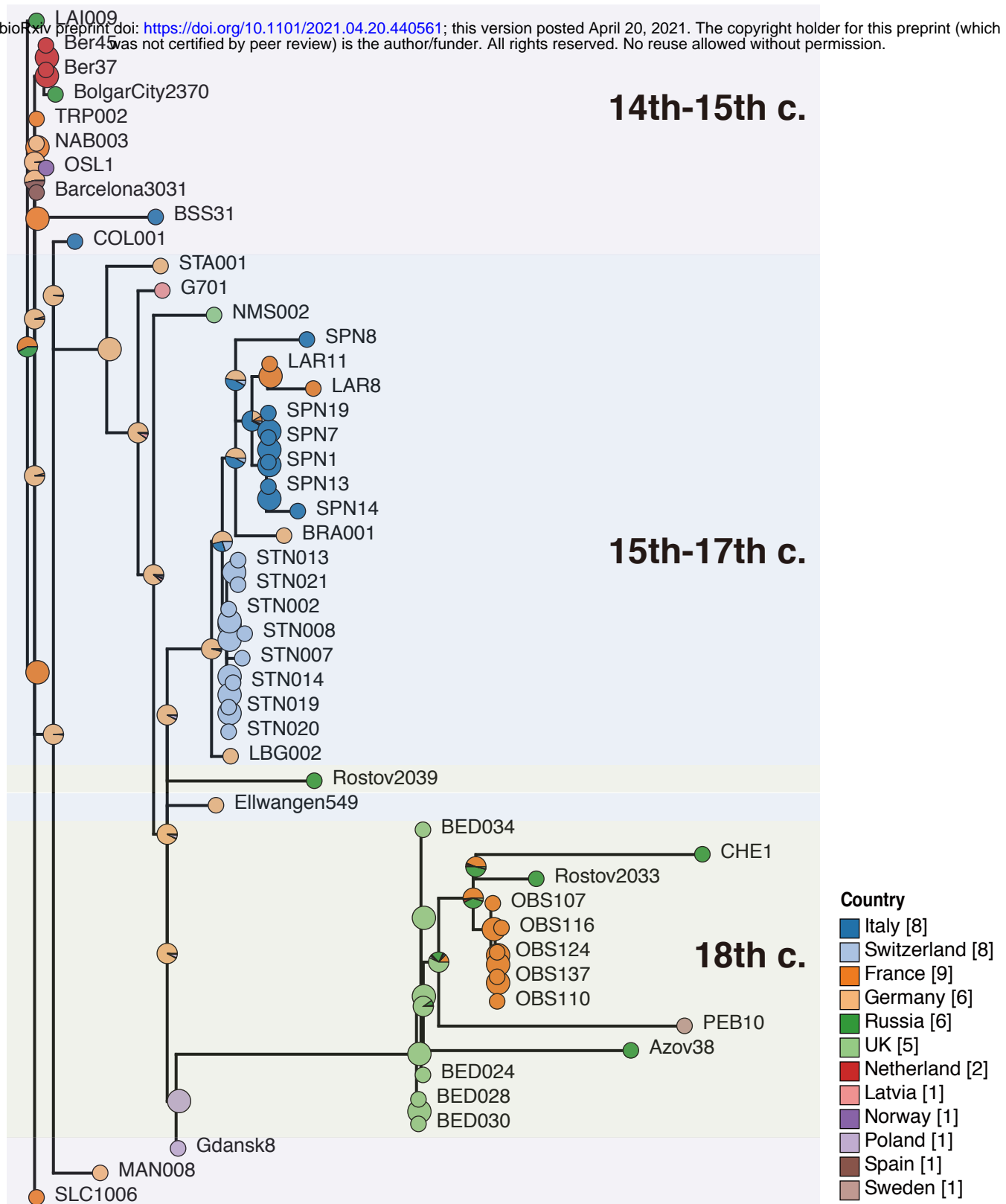


Fig. S1. Accessed transmission among different regions. The phylogenetic tree was obtained using Bayesian MCMC method implemented by phytools package for R. The pie chart at the internal node of the MCMC tree indicated the ancestor source probability of its descendent clades. Except for the Gdansk8 node, all other internal nodes of the tree were sourced from Western Europe, including the node of 14th-15th c., which appears to have originated in France or Germany with a high posterior probability. See the text for an explanation.