Cross-transmission of resistant gastrointestinal nematodes between wildlife and transhumant sheep

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ABSTRACT

Wild and domestic ungulates can be infected with the same species of gastrointestinal parasitic nematodes. These parasites have free-living stages in the environment that contribute to the ease of transmission among different host species. In addition, gastrointestinal nematodes have developed resistance to anthelmintics which is now considered a major problem for the livestock sector. In a context where wild and domestic ungulates share the same pastures, the maintenance and circulation of resistant gastrointestinal nematodes between species have rarely been explored.

In the European Alps, domestic sheep are driven to high-altitude summer pastures and live in sympatry with wild ungulates for several months each year. In this study, we investigated the nemabiome of domestic sheep and Alpine ibex, *Capra ibex*, in three different areas of the French Alps to evaluate parasite circulation between the two host species. The Alpine ibex is a protected mountain ungulate that is phylogenetically related to sheep and hosts nematode species common to sheep.

Using internal transcribed spacer 2 (ITS-2) nemabiome metabarcoding, we found sheep and ibex share similar gastrointestinal nematodes, except for a few species such as *Marshallagia marshalli* and *Trichostrongylus axei*. This suggests that the long-term co-occurrence of sheep and ibex on mountain pastures has promoted the exchange of gastrointestinal nematodes between the two hosts. Based on the sequencing of the isotype 1 of the beta tubulin gene, associated with benzimidazole resistance, we found resistant nematodes in all sheep flocks and in all ibex populations. Our results demonstrated that ibex can host and shed resistant strains before transhumant sheep arrive on pastures, and thus could act as a refuge or even contribute to maintaining resistant gastrointestinal nematodes. The relative role of ibex in the maintenance and circulation of resistant strains in sheep remain to be determined.

Keywords: ITS-2 rDNA, benzimidazole resistance; β-tubulin isotype 1; livestock; nemabiome metabarcoding; wild ungulates, transhumant sheep, Alpine ibex

Introduction

Parasites represent a large proportion of animal diversity and are key components
of food webs (Hudson et al., 2006). They are also essential determinants of the
health, fitness, population dynamics and community composition of their hosts
(Tompkins et al., 2011). Parasites of the Nematoda phylum infect a wide range of
species worldwide, including animals and plants (Blaxter and Koutsovoulos, 2015). In
animals, gastrointestinal nematode parasites are of major concern for livestock
productivity and security as they can impact animal health and reduce animal
production, with significant economic losses (Charlier et al., 2020; Roeber et al.,
2013). Ungulates are usually infected by free-living larvae of gastrointestinal
nematodes when they graze pasture. Infective larvae may survive several months in
the environment depending on species and climatic conditions (O'Connor et al.,
2006). Following ingestion, larvae complete their development to reach the adult
stage in the digestive tract. Egg-laying occurs 2─4 weeks post-infection. The duration
of infection by nematodes varies depending on species but lasts for at least 2 months
from L3 ingestion (Deplazes et al., 2016). The larvae can arrest their development in
the host (hypobiosis) during harsh climatic conditions, delaying egg-laying (Deplazes
et al., 2016).

To limit parasite load and its impact on livestock health, the use of anthelmintics
to treat livestock against gastrointestinal nematodes is a common and cost-effective
practice (Vercruysse et al., 2018). Nonetheless, the repeated use of anthelmintics
has led to the selection of anthelmintic-resistant strains of gastrointestinal
nematodes. Resistance to several families of anthelmintics (e.g., benzimidazole,
macrocyclic lactones, and levamisole) has been observed, and multi-resistance is
increasing (Bordes et al., 2020; Kaplan and Vidyashankar, 2012; Rose et al., 2015;
Rose Vineer et al., 2020).

In particular, resistance to benzimidazoles is widespread throughout the world
(Kaplan and Vidyashankar, 2012), and is particularly common on sheep farms in
Europe (Papadopoulos et al., 2012; Rose Vineer et al., 2020). Contrary to other
anthelmintic families, the mechanisms of resistance to benzimidazoles are well
known and documented (Whittaker et al., 2017); in resistant nematodes, specific
mutations of the β-tubulin isotype-1 gene have been correlated with resistance

(Charlier et al., 2022). Furthermore, large-scale screening based on molecular tools

is now feasible for this resistance (Avramenko et al., 2019), whereas the

recommended method in livestock (i.e., the fecal egg count reduction test; Kaplan et

al., 2023) for the diagnosis of resistance to other anthelmintics requires techniques

that are difficult to achieve in wildlife living in remote locations.

Some generalist gastrointestinal nematodes can infect several host species

(Walker and Morgan, 2014), including both domestic and wild ungulates (e.g.,

Beaumelle et al., 2022; Cerutti et al., 2010). The transmission of gastrointestinal

nematodes among hosts, even if they do not simultaneously occupy the same

pastures, is possible thanks to their free-living infective larval stage, which may

remain active in the environment for several months (Carlsson et al., 2013; Fiel et al.,

2012; Walker and Morgan, 2014). Transmitted parasites can also include

gastrointestinal nematodes resistant to anthelmintics. For instance, benzimidazole-

resistant nematodes have been detected in free-living populations of roe deer

(*Capreolus capreolus*), living in sympatry with livestock (Chintoan-Uta et al., 2014;

Nagy et al., 2017). To date, the role of wild ungulates in the epidemiology of resistant

nematodes remains to be determined, but it has been suggested that wildlife may act

as a reservoir of resistant nematodes for livestock (Brown et al., 2022; Chintoan-Uta

et al., 2014; Francis and Šlapeta, 2023; Laca Megyesi et al., 2019; Walker and

Morgan, 2014). To accurately evaluate this hypothesis, we need to investigate the

presence of resistant nematodes in co-grazing wild and domestic ungulates in

different contexts (i.e., different host species, different landscapes, and under

different climatic conditions).

Transhumant pastoralism is a common practice in the European Alps and

consists in the seasonal movement of grazing livestock from lowland areas to

mountain meadows in summer which provide fresh pasture for domestic ungulates,

i.e., mainly sheep, but also cows or goats (Biber, 2010). Mountainous areas are

inhabited year-round by wild ungulates, particularly those living at high altitude in the

European Alps, like Alpine ibex (*Capra ibex*), or Northern chamois (*Rupicapra*

rupicapra). While wild ungulates tend to spatially or temporarily avoid domestic herds

during the summer (Acevedo et al., 2008), certain factors may contribute to their use

of the same pastures.

Spatial segregation between wild and domestic ungulates is usually observed

once livestock arrive on pasture (Brivio et al., 2022; Ryser-Degiorgis et al., 2002).

Livestock are generally released onto the best grazing areas during the summer
season (Chirichella et al., 2014; Richomme et al., 2006; Ryser-Degiorgis et al.,
2002). Mountain ungulates have been observed to preferentially use the same
grazing areas both before and after livestock use (Brivio et al., 2022; Ryser-Degiorgis
et al., 2002). The presence of wild and domestic ungulates in attracting zones such
as salt licks, even if not simultaneous, offers ample opportunities for parasite
transmission. Therefore, these areas are considered hotspots for parasite infection
(Richomme et al., 2006; Ryser-Degiorgis et al., 2002; Utaaker et al., 2023).

Consequently, transhumant pastoralism represents a risk for pathogen
transmission between wild and domestic ungulates in mountain areas (Rossi et al.,
2019). Pathogen exchange at the interface of wild and domestic ungulates have
already been well documented. The Alpine ibex has been identified as the wildlife
reservoir of brucellosis (*Brucella melitensis*) which was transmitted to cattle and
humans in the Bargy massif in northern French Alps (Marchand et al., 2017). In
addition, sheep have been confirmed as the domestic reservoir of Border disease,
which caused a major viral outbreak in Southern chamois (*Rupicapra pyrenaica*)
populations in the Pyrenees (Luzzago et al., 2016). The transmission of
gastrointestinal nematodes has already been described between wild ungulates and
transhumant domestic ungulates in mountainous areas (Cerutti et al., 2010; Citterio
et al., 2006; Khanyari et al., 2022; Zaffaroni et al., 2000). However, no study has yet
investigated the transmission of anthelmintic-resistant nematodes in a transhumant
pastoral system.

In this study, we investigated the community of gastrointestinal nematodes
infecting Alpine ibex and domestic sheep (*Ovis aries*) and the prevalence of
resistance to benzimidazole in three different regions of the French Alps. The Alpine
ibex was close to extinction at the beginning of the 19th century but the reinforcement
of its populations by several reintroductions in different parts of the Alps has
increased the species' overall abundance and range (Brambilla et al., 2022). Today,
the Alpine ibex population is estimated at 52 000 individuals in Europe (Brambilla et
al., 2020).

Ibex usually host species-specific gastrointestinal nematodes (Walker and
Morgan, 2014) but they may also be exposed to generalist nematodes deposited by
other related ungulate (i.e., Northern chamois, *Rupicapra rupicapra*) or domestic
species (e.g., sheep). Furthermore, anthelmintic treatments are frequently applied to

livestock by farmers to reduce parasite load and consequently the diversity of
nematodes in sheep. Therefore, we expected significant differentiation in the
nemabiome between the two species across the three studied mountain areas, with
higher nematode diversity in ibex compared to sheep (H1). We also expected sheep
to host benzimidazole-resistant strains of gastrointestinal nematodes, consistent with
the general pattern observed for sheep in France (Papadopoulos et al., 2012; Rose
Vineer et al., 2020). Thanks to the reintroduction programs in the second half of the
20th century, ibex colonized pastures traditionally grazed by sheep. Consequently, we
expected that ibex would also host benzimidazole-resistant gastrointestinal
nematodes, albeit to a lesser extent, as resistance does not confer a selective
advantage for nematodes in the ibex environment (Hahnel et al., 2018) (H2). Given
the rarity of documented ibex dispersal events among the three studied mountain
areas (Brambilla, 2020 R. Papet, C. Toïgo and E. Vannard, personal
communication), we predicted genetic differences in nematode species/communities
or strains (ASV: Amplicon sequence variant) among ibex populations due to genetic
drift (H3).

Materials and Methods

Study areas

Samples of sheep and ibex feces were collected in the French Alps in three
different mountain areas (Figure 1). The Belledonne mountain is located in the
western part of the Alps in southeast France. The Cerces and Champsaur mountains
are situated in the northern and the southern parts of the Ecrins National Park,
respectively (Figure 1).

Figure 1 : Map of the study area illustrating the three mountain areas (Belledonne,

Cerces, Champsaur) in the French Alps where fecal samples from sheep and ibex

were collected. In the Belledonne and Cerces areas, several pastoral units were

sampled: Belledonne: AB: Ane Buyant, LP: La Pesée and SL: Sept Laux, Cerces:

AL: Aiguillette de Lauzet, and MO: Montagne de l'Oule.

The three mountain areas are characterized by the presence of steep slopes,

high peaks (>2500m) and agropastoral activities. Climatic conditions are harsh in

these mountains with a mean temperature in winter (December-March) 2015-2019 of

0°C in Belledonne (alt:1785m), 1°C in Champsaur (alt:1620m) and 1.5°C in Cerces

(alt:1553m). During summer (June-September), the mean temperature is 13°C in

Belledonne, 14°C in Champsaur and 16°C in the Cerces (Réseau d'Observation

Météo du Massif Alpin; www.romma.fr). Champsaur, the southern study area, has a

Mediterranean influence. Consequently, rainfall is less important in this area

compared to Cerces and Belledonne. Across areas, the vegetation is distributed

along an elevation gradient from coniferous woodland (*Abies alba* and *Picea abies* in

Belledonne and *Larix decidua* and *Pinus sylvestris* in Cerces and Champsaur) in the

lower range of ibex, to a landscape dominated by heathland with *Rhododendron*

ferrugineum, *Vaccinium* spp. and *Juniperus communis*, and grassland (*Carex* spp. *Festuca* spp.) above the tree line (Ozenda, 1985).

The ibex populations were established in Belledonne in 1983 with the introduction of 20 ibex, in Cerces, in 1959-1961 with the introduction of 6 ibex, and in Champsaur in 1994-1995 with the introduction of 30 ibex. Traditional pastoral activity is practiced in all massifs, where sheep flocks arrive from the plain on foot or by truck in early summer to graze mountain pastures.

In the Belledonne mountain, the distribution of ibex range between 630m and 2860m over 200km². Population size is estimated at 800 individuals. The size of the sheep herds are 750 ewes followed by their lambs in La Pesée, 900 ewes in Sept Laux, and 1600 ewes in Ane Buyant. A dozen rams are also present within the La Pesée and Sept Laux herds, as well as some goats in La Pesée.

The ibex population located in the Cerces mountain is estimated at 320 individuals and occupies an area of 120km², between 1410m and 3100m. In Cerces, the sheep herd located in the West (Aiguillette du Lauzet) includes 3 breeding farms for a total of 800 sheep and the herd located in the East (Montagne de l'Oule) includes 4 breeding farms for a total of 940 sheep (Table 1).

In the Champsaur mountain, the distribution of ibex range between 1320m and 3550m over 280km². Population size is estimated at 420 individuals. In Champsaur, the sheep herd includes 4 breeding farms for a total of 1070 sheep and 5 goats (Table 1).

Each sheep herd belongs to one farmer while several farmers grouped their sheep herds in Cerces and Champsaur (Table 1).

Table 1 : Descriptive data on the three mountain areas in the French Alps.

	Area (km²)	Altitude (m)	Number of introduced ibex	Ibex Population size	Domestic flock size	Climate
Belledonne mountain	200	630-2860	20	800	AB: 1600 LP: 750 SL: 900	Mountain climate
Cerces mountain	120	1410-3100	6	320	AL: 800 MO: 940	Mountain climate
Champsaur mountain	280	1320-3550	30	420	1070	Mountain climate with

	Mediterranean influence	

Belledonne : AB: Ane Buyant, LP: La Pesée and SL: Sept Laux, Cerces : AL: Aiguillette de Lauzet,
and MO: Montagne de l'Oule.

Sample collection

We collected sheep feces for 15 days after their arrival on pasture to ensure
that we collected nematode species representative of sheep at the time of arrival on
pastures and not those ingested secondarily on alpine pastures. Similarly, ibex feces
were collected prior to the arrival sheep and until 15 days after arrival to ensure that
the nematode community was not influenced by the arrival of domestic livestock. We
collected fresh ibex feces mostly directly on the ground and, in Belledonne, also
during captures as part of the long-term monitoring program conducted by the French
Office for Biodiversity. Ibex feces were collected within each of the pastoral units
where we collected sheep feces. Whenever possible, feces were collected
immediately after observation of ibex to avoid collecting of feces from the same
individual. Feces from all age groups were collected. Samples were stored in plastic
bags, sealed after air removal, and analyzed within 48h upon receipt in the
parasitology laboratory of the National Veterinary School of Lyon (ENVL, Marcy-
l'Étoile, France) or up to a maximum of 15 days after field collection (mean: 2.5
days). In total, we sampled 167 fecal samples from ibex and 90 fecal samples from 6
sheep herds, distributed over 6 pastoral units, i.e., Aiguillette du Lauzet, Montagne
de l'Oule, Champsaur, Ane Buyant, La Pesée and Sept Laux (Table 2, Figure S1). In
Belledonne, 21 samples were collected in 2018 following the sampling strategy of
2019. We controlled that year of sampling did not result in a significant change in the
nemabiome of ibex (Figure S6) and included those samples in the analyses.

Table 2 : Sampling period and number of ibex and sheep feces collected in the three
mountain areas of the French Alps. Coproscopic results of the gastro-intestinal (GI)
nematodes (strongyles) in eggs per gram (epg) of feces are also reported
(median[min-max]).

	Sampling date	N	GI nematodes epg
Belledonne mountain			

Sheep	July 2019	AB: 15	AB: 30 [0-90]
		LP: 15	LP: 7.5 [0-165]
		SL: 15	SL: 0 [0-30]
Ibex	July 2018 and May-June 2019	80	15 [0-525]
Cerces mountain			
Sheep	June 2019	AL: 15	AL: 7.5 [0-60]
		MO: 15	MO: 7.5 [0-225]
Ibex	AL: May-June 2019	AL: 29	AL: 7.5 [0-30]
	MO: May 2019	MO: 18	MO: 7.5 [0-60]
Champsaur mountain			
Sheep	June 2019	15	7.5 [0-30]
Ibex	May 2019	40	7.5 [7.5-105]

Belledonne : AB: Ane Buyant, LP: La Pesée and SL: Sept Laux. Cerces : AL: Aiguillette de Lauzet, and MO: Montagne de l'Oule.

Parasitological analyses

The number of gastro-intestinal nematode eggs per gram of feces (epg) was counted following a modified McMaster protocol (Raynaud et al., 1970) with a solution of zinc sulphate ($ZnSO_4$, density = 1.36, 1/15 dilution). The eggs were counted on a McMaster slide with two chambers (theoretical sensitivity of 15 epg). We also checked for the presence of low abundant parasite propagules with a "control slide". We prepared this control slide with a 14mL tube filled with the remaining solution until a meniscus is formed. We covered the tube with a coverslip and centrifuged the tube with a basket centrifuge (5 min at 1200 rpm) to help propagules to rise and stick on the coverslip. After centrifugation, the coverslip was transferred onto a microscope slide for microscopical observation. We attributed the value of 7.5 epg for parasites with no egg observed on the McMaster, but at least one egg observed on the control slide (for a similar procedure see Beaumelle et al, 2021).

In order for strongyles to reach the L3 stage, coprocultures of feces were done at 24 ± 1 °C during 12-15 days with regular mixing and moistening. We then collected the L3 in tape water with a Baermann apparatus. We extracted gastrointestinal nematode DNA from samples for which there were at least 20 L3 and we limited the extraction to ~200 L3. DNA was extracted using an extraction kit (Qiagen DNeasy[®]

PowerSoil) following the manufacturer's instruction with an elution volume of 50 µl of

water. We extracted the DNA of 30 randomly chosen samples twice as internal

extraction controls (Taberlet et al., 2018). We quantified the DNA concentration for all

samples using a Qubit 2.0 fluorometer (Life Technologies) and homogenized DNA

samples to a DNA concentration of 1ng/µl (DNA samples were not diluted if the DNA

concentration was <1 ng/µl).

High throughput sequencing analyses

To determine the nemabiome of sheep and ibex, we used a modified version

of the protocol developed by Avramenko et al (2015). The ITS2 region of the nuclear

rDNA was amplified using the primer pair NC1 (Forward - 5'-

ACGTCTGGTTCAGGGTTGTT-3') and NC2 (Reverse- 5'-

TTAGTTTCTTTTCCTCCGCT-3') with the following PCR conditions: 10µl of Applied

Biosystems™ Master Mix AmpliTaq Gold™ 360, 5.84µl of molecular biology grade

water, 0.16µl of Bovine Serum Albumin, 2µL of 5 µM mixed F and R primers form, 2

µL of DNA lysate. The PCR was performed under the following conditions: 10 min

initial denaturation at 95°C; followed by 35 cycles of denaturation (30 s at 95°C),

annealing (30 s at 54°C), and extension (1 min at 72°C); a final extension at 72°C for

7 min.

To detect the mutations responsible for the resistance of gastrointestinal

nematodes to benzimidazole, we used a modified protocol of Avramenko et al.,

(2019). Using the same mix as previously described, we amplified the β-tubulin

isotype 1 fragment comprising the codons at position 167, 198 and 200 with two pairs

of primers in two independent PCRs. The PCR was performed under the following

conditions: 10 min initial denaturation at 95°C; 40 cycles of denaturation (30 s at

95°C), annealing (30 s at 65°C), and extension (30 s at 72°C); a final extension at

72°C for 7 min. We targeted *Teladorsagia circumcincta* and *Trichostrongylus* spp.

(Forward:5'- CGCATTCWCTTGGAGGAGG-3' and Reverse: 5'-

GTGAGYTTCAAWGTGCGGAAG-3') and *Haemonchus contortus* (Forward:5'-

CGCATTCYTTGGGAGGAGG-3' and Reverse: 5'-GTGAGTTTYAAGGTGCGGAAG-

3') with the primers described by Avramenko et al (2019). All forward and reverse

primers were tagged at 5' in order that each sample had a unique combination of tagged primers.

In all PCRs, we added positive PCR controls (i.e., *Haemonchus contortus* and *Teladorsagia circumcincta* DNA extracts), negative PCR controls (distilled H_2O) and negative DNA extraction controls. All samples (including controls) were tagged with unique barcode identifiers to allow pooling into a single amplicon library (Taberlet et al., 2018), and all samples were independently amplified 4 times to ensure sequencing reliability. Amplifications were carried out in 96-well plates, totaling 209 ibex and sheep samples, 17 PCR positive controls, 13 PCR negative controls, 7 extraction negative controls, 30 DNA extraction controls, as well as 12 empty wells in each plate to quantify tag jumping during PCR and sequencing steps (Figure S2; De Barba et al., 2014; Taberlet et al., 2018).

All PCR products of the ITS2 and the two β-tubulin isotype 1 sets were purified using QIAquick® Spin Columns (QIAquick® PCR Purification KitQIAGEN) and quantified using a Qubit 2.0 fluorometer (Life Technologies). Next, we pooled the 3 purified DNA pools (ITS2, two β-tubulin isotype 1) based on their initial concentration and in proportion according to the following ratio: ITS2 50%, β-tubulin isotype 1 25% for each. According to preliminary tests, we expected to achieve a sequencing depth of 20 000 reads per ITS2 DNA sample and 5 000 reads per β-tubulin isotype 1 DNA sample. Sequencing was performed with pair-end sequencing technology on the Illumina platform (2*250 bp Miseq) at Fasteris, Geneva, Switzerland.

Sequence analysis and taxon assignation

The sequence reads were first analyzed with the OBITOOLS package (Boyer et al., 2016). Forward and reverse reads were assembled with the *alignpairedend* function, and we kept only sequences with a good score of alignment (rnorm>0.8). Sequences were attributed to their samples with the *ngsfilter* function with default parameters. Subsequently, assigned sequences were analyzed with the dada2 package (Callahan et al., 2016) following the pipeline available in www.nemabiome.ca. The *dada2* pipeline returns Amplicon Sequence Variants (ASV) which are sequence variants differing by as little as one nucleotide (Callahan et al., 2017). Following Beaumelle et al. (2021), gastrointestinal nematodes were identified with four different

methods of assignation-databases: BLASTn (Altschul et al., 1990) based on (1) the

NCBI database (Accessed: November 2022), and (2) AssignTaxonomy (Callahan et

al., 2016; Wang et al., 2007) and (3) IDTaxa (Murali et al., 2018) based on the

nematode ITS2 rDNA database 1.1.0 (Workentine et al., 2020). To identify the

species associated with the β-tubulin sequences, we used IDTaxa against the

nematode β-tubulin isotype 1 DNA reference sequences supplied in Avramenko et

al., (2019). We chose to attribute a confidence level to taxonomic identifications at

the species level: high or moderate confidence if three or two methods of assignation,

respectively, were congruent. We also adjusted the sequence filtering based on an

adapted procedure of Calderón-Sanou et al. (2020). We kept only ASVs present in at

least 2 replicates of the same sample and removed ASVs that were not assigned to

the genus level for the ITS2 and to the species level for β-tubulin isotype 1. We

removed potential contaminants (reagent contaminants and cross-contaminations)

following the procedure detailed in Calderón-Sanou et al., (2020). For each sample,

we summed the reads of the two replicates with the highest similarity (i.e., 1 - Bray-

Curtis dissimilarity). If this similarity was lower than the mean similarity among all

replicates, sample was discarded. Then, we verified that the 30 DNA extraction

replicates had similar nemabiomes and kept one sample replicate out of two. At the

end, we removed samples if they had <1000 reads of ITS2 and <500 reads of β-

tubulin isotype 1 (Figure S3).

Identification of non-synonymous mutations in codons 167, 198 and 200

For each nematode species, all β-tubulin isotype 1 ASVs were aligned to one

of the β-tubulin isotype 1 consensus sequences of the reference database

(Avramenko et al., 2019) using the *AlignSeqs* function of the DECIPHER package

(Wright, 2016). We examined each β-tubulin isotype 1 ASV at codons 167,198 and

200 to determine if these codons were associated with non-synonymous mutations.

However, we did not consider other polymorphic sites of the exon.

Statistical analyses on measures of nemabiomes

We measured differences of nemabiomes between the two host species (sheep and ibex) across the 4 study sites (Aiguillette de Lauzet, Montagne de l'Oule, Champsaur and Belledonne). In the Cerces Massif, we considered independently the two sectors of the Aiguillette de Lauzet and the Montagne de l'Oule that correspond to distinct and distant pastures where sheep herds never met and where ibex feces were independently collected. We considered two measures of diversity on abundance of ASV, i.e., the alpha diversity and the beta diversity. The abundance of each ASV was computed as the reads relative frequency of each ASV in each sample, i.e., read relative abundance (RRA). The alpha diversity was measured with the Shannon index that considers richness and evenness of communities, and the beta diversity was measured with the weighted UniFrac index estimated using the R phyloseq package (McMurdie and Holmes, 2013). The weighted UniFrac distance is a phylogenetic distance between the set of ASVs from each nemabiome weighted by the transformed abundance of each ASV (Lozupone and Knight, 2005). The phylogenetic distances were computed from a phylogenetic tree which was constructed using maximum likelihood with the GTR+G+I model according to the *ModelTest* function (Posada and Crandall, 1998; Schliep, 2011). The exact counts of ITS2 reads were transformed with the Hellinger transformation (e.g., square root of relative frequencies) to account for the high number of zeros in the community tables and to decrease the influence of rare ASVs in statistical analyses (Legendre and Legendre, 2012).

We tested the effects of host species and site, including their interaction, on alpha diversity with linear models, and on beta diversity using perMANOVA (*adonis2*, vegan R package (Oksanen et al., 2020)). All possible models including the null model were computed. For perMANOVA models, we used a custom function to compute Akaike's information criterion corrected for small sample size (AICc) based on residual sums of squares (Dyson, 2018). In a model selection approach, for both alpha and beta diversity, all possible models were ranked using the AICc and we selected the model with the lowest AICc value. Models with ΔAICc $\leq$ 2 were considered equivalent (Burnham and Anderson, 2002), and in this case, we considered the most parsimonious one, i.e., the model with the lowest degrees of freedom.

As sex and age were determined for some ibex, we also tested the effect of ibex classes (1: adult males, 2: females or kids/yearlings) on alpha and beta diversity

following the same model selection approach. This included ibex classes and sites as
explanatory variables.

All analyses were carried out using R 3.6 (R Core team, 2020. https://www.R-
project.org/).

Statistical analyses on measures of resistant nematode strains

To compare the frequency of benzimidazole resistance in gastrointestinal nematodes
between ibex and sheep, and among the 4 study sites, we tested whether host
species, site and nematode species influenced the relative abundance of ASVs with
a resistant allele. For this purpose, we used a generalized linear model with a
binomial family and a model selection approach as described above.

We used *AlignSeqs* (Wright, 2016) to generate multi-sequence aligned β-tubulin
isotype 1 haplotype data. For each gastrointestinal species, we removed short ASVs,
e.g., ASVs with a sequence length <10% compared to the median ASV length.
PopART v1.7 (Leigh and Bryant, 2015) was used to draw median joining networks
based on the haplotype data of each gastrointestinal nematode species.

Results

Parasite material

The median number of eggs of strongyles per gram of feces were lower in sheep
(7.5[0,148]$_{95\%IQR}$; n = 90) than in ibex (15[0,163]$_{95\%IQR}$; n = 167) feces (Mann–
Whitney U test; W = 9043.5, P = 0.006). Due to the level of infestation in some
samples, the number of L3 hatched from eggs was not sufficient (n<20) for 48
samples. These samples were not used for subsequent genetic investigations.
Specifically, all samples from the Sept Laux sheep herd (n=15, Belledonne) were
discarded. Therefore, the nemabiome was determined based on the ITS2 for 196 (n=
55 sheep and n=141 ibex) out of 209 samples for which DNA was extracted (Figure
S1).

Diversity of gastrointestinal nematodes in sheep and ibex

In total, we detected 408 ASVs corresponding to 13 gastrointestinal nematode
species (Table 3, Figure S4). Eight ASVs were assigned to the genus level (i.e.,
Marshallagia spp., *Nematodirus* spp. and *Trichostrongylus* spp.) due to non-identical
assignation among taxonomic methods. An ASV corresponding to the lungworm
Cystocaulus ocreatus was discarded for the statistical analyses because we only
focus on gastrointestinal nematodes.

Teladorsagia circumcincta was the most prevalent nematode species and was
detected in 85% of samples (90%, n=127/141 ibex and 71%, n=39/55 sheep),
followed by *Trichostrongylus vitrinus,* 63% (73%, n=103/141 ibex and 36%, n=20/55
sheep) and *Haemonchus contortus,* 56% (70%, n=98/141 ibex and 22%, n=12/55
sheep) (Table 3, Figure S4). *Nematodirus* spp. and *Ostertagia leptospicularis* were
the rarest species and were detected in only 2 and 1 sample, respectively and with a
very low relative frequency (<0.1%).

The parasites of the genus *Nematodirus* were not considered for the following results
as our coproculture protocol is not the most appropriate for these parasites (i.e.,
some species need more than 2 weeks to reach the L3 stage and need to be
exposed to cold temperatures before coproculture, which can be deleterious for other
strongyle species such as *Haemonchus contortus*, van Wyk and Mayhew, 2013).

Table 3 : Number of ASVs, reads and samples for each nematode taxon, including
the results from the ITS2 (nemabiome) and the β-tubulin isotype 1 (resistance to
benzimidazole). N= number (and percentage) of samples in which a taxon was
detected. Host species and study sites are mixed here.

	ITS2			β-tubulin isotype 1		
	ASVs	Reads	N (%)	ASVs	Reads	N (%)
Bunostomum trigonocephalum	8	61 631	12 (6%)	-	-	-
Chabertia ovina	19	95 585	62 (32%)	-	-	-
Cooperia curticei	4	803	6 (3%)	-	-	-
Cooperia fuelleborni	2	358	5 (3%)	-	-	-
Haemonchus contortus	47	1 937 587	110 (56%)	38	392 110	96 (62%)
Marshallagia marshalli	23	338 064	57 (29%)	-	-	-

Marshallagia spp.	2	404	2 (1%)	-	-	-
Oesophagostomum venulosum	13	311 530	82 (42%)	-	-	-
Ostertagia leptospicularis	1	5	1 (1%)	-	-	-
Ostertagia ostertagi	2	269	2 (1%)	-	-	-
Teladorsagia circumcincta	235	3 311 094	166 (85%)	310	343 551	145 (94%)
Trichostrongylus axei	26	462 936	103 (53%)	33	68 414	104 (68%)
Trichostrongylus colubriformis	12	411 776	102 (52%)	8	144 643	112 (73%)
Trichostrongylus vitrinus	9	521 817	123 (63%)	44	92 834	107 (69%)
Trichostrongylus spp.	5	71 124	70 (36%)	-	-	-

According to the model selection approach, host species was the only factor that explained the alpha diversity (Table S1). The model indicated that sheep had a lower alpha diversity compared to ibex (β = -0.42 ± 0.07, P < 0.001, R² of the model=0.15) (Figure 2b). Site, and its interaction with host species were not retained in the selected model (Table S1).

Beta diversity was best explained by both factors, host species ($F_{1,188}$ = 27.69, P = 0.001) and site ($F_{3,188}$ = 16.39, P = 0.001), and their interaction ($F_{3,188}$ = 25.61, P = 0.001) according to model selection results (Table 4, Table S2). Some gastrointestinal nematodes were mostly found in sheep feces, or only in ibex feces (Figure 2a). *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* was more frequent in the Ecrins National Park, i.e., in the Cerces and Champsaur massifs combined (mean RRA: 10% [6%; 13%]$_{95CI}$) than in Belledonne (mean RRA: 4% [2%; 6%]$_{95CI}$). Likewise, *Marshallagia* spp. was more frequent in ibex feces in Cerces and Champsaur mountains (mean RRA: 11% [6%;15%]$_{95CI}$) than in ibex feces in Belledonne (0.4% [-0.2%; 1%]$_{95CI}$). The distribution of *Haemonchus contortus* in host species and sites had a particular pattern. This parasite was more frequent in ibex feces compared to sheep feces in Belledonne (mean RRA: 0.004% in sheep; 48% in ibex) and Champsaur (mean RRA: 0% in sheep; 41% in ibex), while the opposite was observed in the Cerces (Aiguillette du Lauzet: mean RRA of 7% in sheep and 0.9% in ibex; Montagne de l'Oule: mean RRA of 30% in sheep and 0% in ibex).

Concerning ibex only, the model selection approach retained the effects of site and class of individuals and the interaction between the two independent factors in

the best model explaining alpha diversity (Table S3). We found significant differences
among sites: Shannon index of alpha diversity was higher in Belledonne (β = 0.62 ±
0.16, P < 0.001, R² of the model=0.27) and Champsaur (β = 0.55 ± 0.16, P < 0.001)
compared to the Aiguillette du Lauzet. The diversity of nematodes was higher also in
males compared to females/yearlings (β = 0.60 ± 0.15, P < 0.001), except in
Champsaur where males presented a lower alpha diversity than females with kids (β
= -0.52 ± 0.20, P < 0.001). For the beta diversity, the best model included only the
effect of site on the difference of nemabiomes among ibex ($F_{2,62}$ = 15.93, P = 0.001,
Table S4).

Table 4 : Parameters estimated from the best PerMANOVA model explaining the
beta diversity in ibex and sheep. The effect of host species (ibex or sheep) and site
(Aiguillette de Lauzet, Montagne de l'Oule, Champsaur or Belledonne) and the
interaction between the two factors are reported. Partial R² are reported with the
corresponding *F*-value and *p value* (P).

Diversity index	Best model selected	Variables	partial R²	F-value	P
Weighted UniFrac	$\beta \sim$ Site x Host species	Residuals	0.55	-	-
		Site	0.14	16.39	0.001
		Host species	0.08	27.69	0.001
		Site: Host species	0.22	25.61	0.001

Figure 2: (a) Mean relative frequencies of gastrointestinal nematode species, (b) Shannon diversity of ITS2 ASVs and (c) prevalence and mean relative frequencies of β-tubulin isotype 1. Results and sample size (N_{ITS} and $N_β$) are presented for each host species (sheep or ibex) in each study site (Cerces: Montagne de l'Oule and Aiguillette de Lauzet; Champsaur and Belledonne: Ane Buyant (AB) and La Pesée (LP)). On panel (c), the size of the pie chart corresponds to the prevalence of the corresponding gastrointestinal nematode species in the population, and the size of each slice to the mean proportion of each allele.

Anthelmintic resistance

We found 433 different β-tubulin isotype 1 ASVs in 154 (n= 39 sheep and n=115 ibex) out of 209 samples for which DNA was extracted. Among the 5 gastrointestinal nematode species targeted by specific primers, we detected *Haemonchus contortus* in 96 samples, *Teladorsagia circumcincta* in 145 samples, *Trichostrongylus axei* in 104 samples, *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* in 107 samples and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* in 112 samples (Table 3, Figure S5). No resistance mutation was detected for *Trichostrongylus vitrinus.* Therefore, *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* was not included in the model explaining the relative abundance of resistant reads.

Resistance mutations were highly frequent (93.5%; n=144/154) with only 10 ibex feces (3 from Belledonne and 7 from Champsaur) in which no resistant mutation was detected. Based on the best model for resistant RRA, the frequency of resistant nematodes depended on gastrointestinal nematode species and the interaction between host species and the study site (Table 5, Table S5). *Teladorsagia circumcincta* was the species with the lowest resistant RRA and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* had the highest resistant RRA (Table 5). The mean observed RRA of resistant nematodes differed between gastrointestinal nematode species (*Haemonchus contortus:* 19% $[13;25]_{95CI}$*; Teladorsagia circumcincta:* 4% $[3;6]_{95CI}$; *Trichostrongylus axei:* 70% $[63;78]_{95CI}$; *Trichostrongylus colubriformis:* 96% $[93;99]_{95CI}$). Resistant RRA were generally lower in ibex compared to sheep (β = -2.21 ± 0.66, *P* < 0.001). Resistant RRA were the lowest in the Aiguillette de Lauzet but this was also the only site where ibex had a significantly higher resistant RRA compared to sheep (Table 5). We found no significative effect of ibex classes (males or females and kids/yearlings) on benzimidazole resistance frequencies ($F_{1,49}$=0.03, P = 0.863, ANOVA test).

The most frequent resistance mutation was the F200Y, present in the 4 gastrointestinal nematode species and 141 fecal samples, followed by the E198A (46 samples, 2 nematode species: *Haemonchus contortus* and *Teladorsagia circumcincta*), the F167Y (17 samples, 2 nematode species: *Haemonchus contortus* and *Teladorsagia circumcincta*), the E198L (7 samples, *Teladorsagia circumcincta*) and the E198G (4 samples, *Haemonchus contortus*) (Figure 2c).

 Table 5 : Parameter estimates for the best generalized linear model explaining the
 resistant reads relative abundance (RRA) in ibex and sheep. The effect of host
 species (sheep as reference), study sites (Belledonne as reference), and their
 interaction, in addition to the nematode species (*Teladorsagia circumcincta* as
 reference) are reported. Parameter estimates with standard error (SE) are reported
 with the corresponding *z-value (z-*val*)* and *p value* (*P*). AL: Aiguillette de Lauzet; MO:
 Montagne de l'Oule; Ch: Champsaur; Hc : *Haemonchus contortus*; Ta:
 Trichostrongylus axei; Tcol: *Trichostrongylus colubriformis*.

Best model selected	Variables	Parameter estimate ± SE	z-val	*P*
Resistant RRA ~ host species x study sites + nematode species	Intercept	-2.02 ± 0.59	-3.45	**5e-04**
	Species	-2.21 ± 0.66	-3.35	**8e-04**
	Mountain(AL)	-2.89 ± 0.99	-2.93	**0.003**
	Mountain(MO)	-1.37 ± 0.89	1.54	0.123
	Mountain(Ch)	-0.10 ± 1.18	-0.08	0.935
	Nematode(Hc)	2.52 ± 0.62	4.05	**5e-05**
	Nematode(Ta)	4.68 ± 0.59	7.95	**1e-15**
	Nematode(Tcol)	7.38 ± 0.75	9.79	**<2e-16**
	Species:Site(AL)	2.90 ± 1.19	2.44	**0.015**
	Species:Site(MO)	0.04 ± 1.28	0.03	0.973
	Species:Site(Ch)	-0.75 ± 1.32	-0.56	0.574

        Sheep and ibex shared 164 (38%) β-tubulin isotype 1 haplotypes and 238
 (55%) β-tubulin isotype 1 haplotypes were only found in ibex samples (Figure 3).
 Most of the resistant haplotypes of *Teladorsagia circumcincta* and *Haemonchus*
 contortus, e.g., containing a non-synonymous mutation at the codon 167, 198 or 200,
 were genetic variants of a common sensitive haplotype shared by ibex and sheep
 (Figure 3). The resistant haplotypes of *Trichostrongylus axei* and *Trichostrongylus*
 colubriformis were more common than the sensitive haplotypes and the most similar
 sensitive haplotypes were found either in both sheep and ibex samples, or only in
 ibex samples. Both, *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* and *Trichostrongylus vitrinus*
 showed two distinct lineages, separated by ≥10 mutations. One of the lineages of
 Trichostrongylus vitrinus was only found in ibex from Belledonne and an ibex from
 Champsaur (Figure 3) while the ASVs of the second lineage were found both in ibex

 and sheep. One of the lineages of the *Teladorsagia circumcincta* was more diverse
 (Figure 3).

 Figure 3 : Median joining network of β-tubulin isotype 1 haplotypes. Each point
 represents a unique haplotype, and the colors correspond to the host species in

which the haplotype was detected. The size of the point is proportional to the number of samples in which the haplotype was found. S: sensitive haplotype, R: resistant haplotype. The tag above the points indicates the name of the mutation, based on the codon position and the substitution of the amino acid.

Discussion

Because resident Alpine ibex use pastures grazed by transhumant sheep during the summer, but not concurrently, we sought to assess the extent of nematode sharing between these two host species. Specifically, we investigated the presence of anthelmintic-resistant nematode strains in sheep and ibex to determine the role of transhumant sheep in contaminating alpine pastures, and whether ibex may contribute to the circulation and maintenance of anthelmintic resistant nematodes. We used a metabarcoding approach based on the sequencing of ITS2 and β-tubulin to demonstrate that both sheep and ibex were infected by the same gastrointestinal nematode species and shared anthelmintic-resistant strains, despite the absence of sheep on alpine pastures for much of the year and therefore a narrow temporal window for contamination.

In line with other studies investigating the gastrointestinal nematodes of sheep and ibex (Burgess et al., 2012; Gruner et al., 2006; Redman et al., 2019; Zaffaroni et al., 2000), the most prevalent and abundant species in both host species was *Teladorsagia circumcincta*. Next, *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* was moderately prevalent, but not abundant in sheep or ibex nemabiomes. These results are consistent with the year-round climatic conditions as these two nematode species, along with *Marshallagia* spp., are better adapted to cold temperatures than the other nematode species detected in this study (O'Connor et al., 2006; Zaffaroni et al., 2000). The studied sheep flocks originate from the French plains and/or the south of France and are driven into mountain areas in early summer. Consequently, their nemabiome at the time of sampling is representative of the gastrointestinal nematode communities present in sheep on the farm, prior to transhumance. In a similar context, Gruner et al., (2006) observed a high prevalence of *Teladorsagia circumcincta* in two of three transhumant sheep flocks at the beginning of the grazing season in the southern Alps. Furthermore, transhumant sheep flocks appear to ingest mainly *Teladorsagia circumcincta* when grazing in the mountains, as this parasite remains the dominant

species identified in feces and tracer lambs during the summer (Gruner et al., 2006).
Pastoral activity in mountainous areas of France could therefore favor nematode
species more adapted to cool and wet environmental conditions, such as
Teladorsagia circumcincta (O'Connor et al., 2006), compared with sheep grazing on
the plains year round. To confirm this hypothesis, the nemabiome of transhumant
sheep should be compared with the nemabiome of resident sheep that stay in farm
all year around.

A high relative frequency (>30%) of *Haemonchus contortus* was detected in ibex
in Belledonne and Champsaur. In contrast, almost no *Haemonchus contortus* was
observed in sheep flocks driven to these mountains, raising the possibility that ibex
may be contributing to the infection of sheep with *Haemonchus contortus*. To our
knowledge, this is the first time that such a relative abundance of *Haemonchus*
contortus is reported in Alpine ibex (see previous studies based on morphological
identification: Carcereri et al., 2021; Marreros et al., 2012; Zaffaroni et al., 2000). In
addition, it should be noted that Alpine ibex were sampled before potential
contamination by domestic sheep could be detected, i.e., before the end of the pre-
patent period (i.e., the time between infection and egg production) and at the end of
spring – to early summer, which is the start of the epidemiological period for
Haemonchus contortus infection in high-altitude mountain areas. We can therefore
expect higher levels of contamination in late summer, when domestic sheep leave
mountain pastures. Nonetheless, we cannot exclude the possibility that some
laboratory issues might have reduced the apparent prevalence and abundance of
Haemonchus contortus. For instance, some samples from sheep were kept in the
fridge at 4°C during 2 to 3 days (including the sheep samples without *Haemonchus*
contortus from Belledonne and Champsaur) which could have reduced the proportion
of *Haemonchus contortus* eggs hatching (McKenna, 1998).

The detection of *Haemonchus contortus* raises conservation issues for Alpine
ibex as this nematode species is known to be highly pathogenic in sheep (Taylor et
al., 2015). Infection of a phylogenetically related species, the Pyrenean ibex (*Capra*
pyrenaica pyrenaica), with a few thousand *Haemonchus contortus* resulted in severe
clinical signs, including extremely low weight and hemorrhagic anemia (Lavín et al.,
1997). Additionally, *Haemonchus contortus* may have contributed to the collapse of
the Northern Chamois, *Rupicapra rupicapra*, in the province of Lecco, Italy from
November 2000 to March 2001 (Citterio et al., 2006). As gastrointestinal nematodes

can have an impact on the demographic dynamics of host populations (Acerini et al.,
2022; Albery et al., 2021; Albon et al., 2002), they are suspected of being behind the
low natality rates observed in the French Alpine ibex populations (Brambilla et al.,
2020). While Alpine ibex appear to be fairly resilient to parasite infections (Marreros
et al., 2012), further investigations should be carried out to assess the consequences
of gastrointestinal nematode infections for ibex at both individual and population
levels.

Several of the nematode species we found are common to other ungulate species
present in the study areas (Mediterranean mouflon, *Ovis gmelini musimon × Ovis sp.*;
Northen chamois; domestic goat, *Capra hircus*; red deer*, Cervus elaphus*; and roe
deer, *Capreolus capreolus*) (Zaffaroni et al., 2000). In our study, only a few domestic
goats were present in Belledonne (n = 11 individuals) and in Champsaur (n =5
individuals) and represented less than 0.01% of the domestic flock in these areas. As
we collected feces directly on the ground, we cannot exclude that goat feces were
collected instead of sheep feces. In our opinion, domestic goats should not have a
significative influence on nemabiome of ibex in our study area considering the
scarcity of the species. In future analyses, we should consider the different domestic
and wild ungulate species living in the same study area. Especially because they
have different space use, different nemabiomes and could provide key information to
better understand the dynamic of nematode exchanges among domestic and wild
ungulates.

We found a higher diversity of nematodes in adult males compared to females
and kids/yearlings. Sexual parasitism towards males is commonly observed in
vertebrates and ungulates in particular (Klein, 2000; Martínez-Guijosa et al., 2015;
Oliver-Guimerá et al., 2017, but see Beaumelle et al., 2021; Bourgoin et al., 2021).
This parasitism towards males is generally explained by both hormonal and
behavioral differences between the two sexes. Generally, males tend to allocate
more energy to the development of traits influenced by testosterone, such as
secondary sexual characteristics (e.g. the length of horns in ungulates) or courtship
displays (e.g. male aggression for mating opportunities). It is important to note that
while testosterone is necessary for the development of these secondary sexual
characteristics in males, high levels of testosterone have also been linked to an
altered immune system (Klein, 2004), leading to increased parasitism. In addition,
ibex segregate by sex (Brambilla et al., 2022), providing less opportunities for

intersexual transmission of parasites. Contrary to females and kids, males feed on
patches grazed by domestic sheep before the grazing period (Margaillan, 2021),
increasing the probability of infection of males by over-wintering nematodes
deposited by livestock during the previous transhumance (O'Connor et al., 2006).
However, we did not observe any difference between classes concerning
benzimidazole resistance frequencies. Further information on the spatial distribution
of both sexes is necessary to investigate the susceptibility of different sexes or age
classes and its importance in the spread and exchange of parasites with domestic
livestock (Bourgoin et al., 2021).

We detected anthelmintic resistant alleles in 4 out of the 5 nematode species
tested, namely *Haemonchus contortus*, *Teladorsagia circumcincta*, *Trichostrongylus
axei*, *Trichostrongylus colubriformis*, but not in *Trichostrongylus vitrinus*. Both sheep
and ibex hosted resistant strains of the 4 nematode species and only 10 out of 116
ibex carried only susceptible strains. Benzimidazole resistance was therefore very
common in both host groups, consistent with the situation of sheep farms in Europe
(Rose et al., 2015; Rose Vineer et al., 2020). The presence of anthelmintic resistant
nematodes in ibex is most likely explained by the indirect transmission of resistant
nematodes from sheep to ibex through the deposition of infected feces by sheep on
pastures. The large number of shared β-tubulin ASVs between sheep and ibex and
the high overlap between their nemabiomes tend to confirm this hypothesis (Figure
2c, Figure 3). This is also in accordance with other studies investigating nematode
parasite exchange at the interface between wild and domestic ungulates (Beaumelle
et al., 2022; Cerutti et al., 2010; Laca Megyesi et al., 2019). Another pathway for the
contamination of ibex by resistant nematodes could be the sublethal exposure of the
free-living stages of nematodes to anthelmintic residues excreted in the environment
by treated sheep, which can select for anthelmintic resistance in situ (Dimunová et
al., 2022). Whereas sheep are generally treated just before their ascent to the
mountain pastures, excretion of anthelmintic drugs via sheep feces can occur during
several days after the administration and molecule degradation can last days, or
even months (Kolar et al., 2006). Unfortunately, the level of drugs in the environment,
their persistence, and their spread in grazed mountainous area are entirely unknown.
Environmental circulation of anthelmintic residues should be investigated in further
studies to understand their impact on the presence of resistant nematodes in wildlife.

It is worth noting that feces of ibex were sampled before the arrival of sheep on
pastures. This demonstrates that anthelmintic resistant nematodes can be
maintained in mountainous areas from year to year in wild populations of ibex,
despite harsh winter environmental conditions, and in the absence of the main
source of parasites during most of the year, i.e., domestic sheep. The shedding of
eggs from resistant nematodes by ibex prior to the arrival of domestic sheep
suggests the potential role of ibex as a reservoir of anthelmintic resistant nematodes
for other susceptible domestic and wild ungulates. Once resistant strains have been
selected, the absence of selection pressure (i.e. absence of the use of anthelmintics)
does not guarantee the reversion of resistance (Hamilton et al., 2022; Leathwick et
al., 2015). Consequently, ibex may maintain benzimidazole-resistant strains for
several years even in the absence of selection pressure. In addition, the position of
resistant mutant strains detected at the periphery of haplotype networks (Figure 3)
supports the lack of benzimidazole resistant reversions and relatively recent selection
of benzimidazole resistance. The recent selection of resistance could result from the
repeated use of benzimidazole and possibly from the presence of anthelmintic drug
residues in the environment which maintain a selection pressure for gastro-intestinal
nematodes (Dimunová et al., 2022).

The 5 nematode species studied seemed to have different selection dynamics
which may reflect their life history traits (Redman et al., 2015). In fact, we detected no
resistant allele in *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* and conversely, the proportion of
benzimidazole resistant strains of *Trichostrongylus axei* and *Trichostrongylus*
colubriformis were high in sheep, i.e., between 40% and 100% and slightly lower in
ibex, i.e., 33-100% (Figure 2c). These results are consistent with observations in the
literature. Strains of *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* resistant to benzimidazoles were also
rare in other studies of sheep farms, e.g., in the UK (Avramenko et al., 2019), and in
Canada (Queiroz et al., 2020). Conversely, higher frequencies of benzimidazole
resistance in *Trichostrongylus axei* and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* were already
reported in sheep, e.g., in UK (*Trichostrongylus axei*: 26-27% and *Trichostrongylus*
colubriformis: 53-62%; Avramenko et al., 2019), in Austria (*Trichostrongylus*
colubriformis: 77%-100%; Hinney et al., 2020), or in France, (*Trichostrongylus axei*:
63%; Palcy et al., 2010). Furthermore, we found a low proportion of resistance in
Teladorsagia circumcincta both in sheep and ibex (mean ± standard error of the
mean: 6.6 ± 3.5%), in comparison, for example, with *Trichostrongylus axei* and

Trichostrongylus colubriformis, (Figure 2c). This contrast with previous results from
the literature, where a higher frequency of resistance alleles was found for
Teladorsagia circumcincta: 32.4 ± 6.8% in Hinney et al. (2020) and ~66% in
Avramenko et al. (2019). Regarding *Haemonchus contortus*, we found high variability
of resistance frequencies among sheep flocks (69.9 ± 14.4%). Our results are similar
to the observations of Avramenko et al. (2019), but contrast with those of Hinney et
al. (2020), who detected high resistance frequencies for *Haemonchus contortus* (91.9
± 3.7%) in transhumant sheep flocks in the Austrian Alps. In addition, *Haemonchus*
contortus was the parasite species with the highest diversity in terms of non-
synonymous mutations. Besides the commonly found polymorphisms at codons 167
and 200 (Avramenko et al., 2019; Redman et al., 2015), we detected several
mutations at codon 198, occurring in particular with high frequency on the sheep farm
in Montagne de l'Oule. In contrast to our study, previous research found
polymorphisms at codon 198, but they were rare (Francis and Šlapeta, 2023;
Ramünke et al., 2016).

Several factors are suspected to contribute to interspecific differences in the
selection of resistance strains among nematode species, including specific
reproductive rates, seasonal dynamics, exposure to anthelmintics in the digestive
tract, drug effective dose and the fitness cost of benzimidazole resistance, and
climatic conditions in the location of sheep farms, anthelmintic strategies, e.g.,
treatment molecules, timing and rate of anthelmintic treatments and grazing
management (Hodgkinson et al., 2019; Redman et al., 2015). However, the links
between parasite traits and interspecific variation in resistance acquisition by
gastrointestinal nematodes has not been tested yet (Morgan et al., 2019). Our results
suggest some clues related to the ecology of the nematode species.

Firstly, nematode species have different abilities to practice hypobiosis, i.e., the
ability to halt embryonic development under environmental constraints (Gibbs, 1986).
Haemonchus contortus and *Teladorsagia circumcincta* are known to arrest
development more frequently than *Trichostrongylus* spp. (Langrová et al., 2008), and
hypobiotic larvae have been shown to be less sensitive to drugs (Sargison et al.,
2007). Secondly, among the *Trichostrongylus* spp., *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* may
have a higher proportion of overwintering larvae in pastures as this species is more
resistant to cold temperature compared to *Trichostrongylus axei* and *Trichostrongylus*

colubriformis (O'Connor et al., 2006). As parasites on pastures may be less subject
to selection pressure by anthelmintics, they could be a source of susceptible strains.

As the proportion of resistant strains is generally lower in ibex compared to sheep,
ibex may contribute to a dilution effect of resistant strains, i.e., by hosting susceptible
nematodes. However, the role of ibex in the maintenance of a refugia needs to be
investigated by considering the relative number of susceptible strains deposited by
ibex on a pasture compared with sheep. Furthermore, it seems that the role of ibex in
the maintenance of a refugia may vary according to nematode species. For example,
ibex excrete a lower proportion of *Trichostrongylus axei* eggs than sheep (Figure 2a),
but these eggs largely contain resistant strains (Figure 2c). In contrast, *Teladorsagia*
circumcincta and *Haemonchus contortus* in ibex were more frequently susceptible
and genetically diverse (higher number of ITS2 and β-tubulin ASVs) compared with
Trichostrongylus axei and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* in ibex (Table 3, Figure 3).
As *Teladorsagia circumcincta* was dominant in ibex, a refuge of susceptible
Teladorsagia circumcincta strains may be maintained within ibex and may contribute
to limiting the spread of resistance in sheep farms. Nematodes can negatively or
positively interact within the host gut, and interactions between species or between
strains may have important implications for the selection of resistance. However, the
magnitude of within-host interactions between nematode strains/species and its
implication in the management of resistance remains to be determined (Hellard et al.,
2015; Lello et al., 2004).

Differences in patterns among massifs were observed at the community and
genetic level among sheep flocks and ibex populations. Indeed, it was expected that
differences in nemabiome composition would be observed between the massifs and
sheep flocks, considering that sheep and ibex from different areas never meet (R.
Papet, C. Toïgo, E. Vannard, Pers. communication). Furthermore, the sheep flocks
come from different locations and have been subjected to different anthelmintic
strategies. For the ibex, differences in the original population of translocated animals
(Gauthier and Villaret, 1990; Kessler et al., 2022) and potential founder effects – not
all parasites present in the source population were present in the newly established
population - may have had a long term impact on the composition of the nemabiome.
For example, the distinct population of *Trichostrongylus vitrinus*, found mainly in ibex
in Belledonne, may have been inherited from the founding ibex population. This
highlights that various reintroductions of ibex in the study area can also influence the

composition of the parasite community. This distinct population *of Trichostrongylus vitrinus* was absent in sheep grazing in Belledonne, which hosted other strains of *Trichostrongylus vitrinus* despite summers of co-occurrence of sheep and ibex. It is possible that this strain is adapted to ibex and incapable of developing in sheep or that this strain is highly sensitive to antiparasitic treatments used in sheep farms and is systematically eliminated when sheep are treated. However, it is possible that this observation may also be due to a sampling bias as the number of sheep sampled remains low.

In conclusion, transmission of gastrointestinal nematode species, including resistant nematode strains, occurs between sheep and ibex even though the contact between the two species is limited to the summer period. Our study specifically demonstrates that ibex can maintain and shed eggs of resistant gastrointestinal nematodes even in the absence of sheep on pastures for several months, suggesting a potential reservoir role for ibex. However, the extent to which each host species can influence the nematode community of the other during the transhumant period remains to be determined. A temporal sampling before, during and after the different host species share the same pasture - should be considered for future studies. Additionally, analysis of parasite population structure using appropriate genetic markers such as microsatellites or SNPs could quantify gene flow between ibex and sheep nematode populations (Cerutti et al., 2010). Next, intervention studies could be employed to infer the role of ibex in maintaining nematode populations shared between the two host species (Viana et al., 2014). Experimental infections of captive ibex or monitoring free-ranging ibex populations after access to alpine pastures has been restricted to livestock should help us to refine the ability of ibex to maintain nematodes from domestic ungulates, including resistant nematodes. Finally, epidemiological models could be useful tools to better understand the dynamics of resistant parasites at the livestock-wildlife interface (Brown et al., 2022; Dickinson et al., 2024). The lower proportion of resistance alleles in ibex compared to sheep underlines the possibility that ibex could contribute to the maintenance and circulation of susceptible strains in sheep. As with roe deer (Beaumelle et al., 2022), domestic sheep contribute to the modification of the nemabiome of ibex. This raises concerns about ibex conservation, and the consequences of strongyle infection in ibex should be investigated. Indeed, ibex are characterized by low genetic diversity due to the severe demographic decline of this species followed by multiple re-

introductions (Grossen et al., 2018). The high genetic structure of immunity-related loci among ibex populations (Kessler et al., 2022) raises additional concerns, as both neutral and adaptive genetic diversity are known to have an influence on parasite resistance and tolerance in ungulates (Portanier et al., 2019).

Appendices

Supplementary data to this article can be found online in MendeleyData (DOI: 10.17632/cm97cg87d6.1).

Acknowledgements

The authors warmly thank all the professionals from the Office Français de la Biodiversité and all the trainees for data collection, J. S. Gilleard and E. Redman from the University of Calgary, C. Lionnet from the Laboratoire d'Ecologie Alpine (LECA) and other members of the lab to help us developing the deep sequencing analyses for nematodes. The research benefited from the support of AnaBM (USMB) and AEEM (UGA) laboratory facilities. We warmly thank Karen McCoy as well as two anonymous reviewers for their insightful comments on the manuscript.

Funding

This project was founded by the Office Français de la Biodiversité, the Laboratoire d'Ecologie Alpine (LECA) and VetAgro Sup - Pôle d'Expertise Vétérinaire et Agronomique des Animaux Sauvages (EVAAS, France; http://evaas.vetagro sup.fr/; DGAL—VetAgro Sup - INRAE funding). G. Bourgoin was supported by the AgreenSkills+ fellowship program (European Union program; MarieCurie FP7 COFUND People Programme; grant agreement n_609398).

Conflict of interest disclosure

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Data, scripts, and supplementary information availability

The bioinformatic pipeline, the ASV analysed during the current study and the R script of statistic analyses are available in MendeleyData (DOI: 10.17632/cm97cg87d6.1).

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