Genetic makeup of *Trichuris hominis*, a novel *Trichuris* species naturally infecting humans and displaying signs of resistance to drug treatment

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Abstract

Trichuriasis is a neglected tropical disease that affects as many as 500 million individuals and can cause significant morbidity, even death.[1] For decades, it is thought to be caused by one species of Whipworm, *Trichuris trichiura*. Discrepancies in response rates to benzimidazole treatment for trichuriasis exist across clinical trial reports, and the emergence of anthelmintic resistance is predicted to be established within the next decade.[2,3] However, data that addresses these discrepancies and provides evidence for resistance does not exist. Here, we present the discovery of a novel *Trichuris* species, *Trichuris hominis*, causing Trichuriasis, and we provide genomic evidence that supports the establishment of drug resistance in humans. Combining long- and short- read sequencing approaches, we assembled a high-quality reference genome of *Trichuris hominis* to construct the species tree of the *Trichuris* genus and we sequenced a total of 752 individual worms which confirmed the phylogenetic placement and provided evidence supporting benzimidazole resistance. Gene duplication events across the species tree and a genome wide association study point towards β-tubulin variations as a source of albendazole resistance. Our results demonstrate how trichuriasis can be caused by more than one species of whipworm and that this species carries genomic variations conferring with drug resistance in humans. We anticipate our findings to have a profound impact on how we understand whipworm infections with implications on all present and future de-worming strategies across the globe. Efforts should support the development of species-level diagnostic tools, patient-centric treatment approaches in addition to mass-drug administration strategies, the definition of species-specific standard-of-care guidelines, and the incorporation of species diversity in vaccine development.

Introduction

Soil-transmitted helminthiasis is the most prevalent neglected tropical disease (NTD) worldwide. Over one billion people, particularly in impoverished nations, may develop debilitating chronic infections due to one of the four most common soil-transmitted helminths (STHs): *Ascaris lumbricoides*, *Trichuris trichiura*, and the two hookworm species, *Necator americanus* and *Ancylostoma duodenale*.[4] Despite their genetic diversity, these parasites are classified under the umbrella of STHs by the World Health Organization (WHO) and are treated with benzimidazoles, the cornerstone of large-scale deworming efforts through preventative chemotherapy.[5] With more than 3.3 billion tablets distributed up until August 2020, concern regarding benzimidazole resistance extending to humans, is rising. Reports of decreased efficacy and documented resistance to the same drugs in livestock support projections suggesting the emergence of resistance within the next decade.[2,6] To circumvent

resistance and improve efficacy against *Trichuris trichiura* the use of a combination therapy of
albendazole and ivermectin has been taken forward. However, recent clinical trials with
albendazole-ivermectin, revealed alarmingly low cure rates against *T. trichiura* in Côte d'Ivoire,
compared to other regions like Laos and Pemba, Tanzania, hinting to a potential emergence
of resistance also of the currently best available treatment for STH infections.[3]

Trichuris trichiura, a longstanding companion of humans, that has co-evolved over millennia,
has intrigued scientists as both symbiotic ally and evasive parasite, sparking debate over the
transition between these roles.[7-9] Whole-genome sequencing data have yielded invaluable
insights into drug discovery and vaccine candidates for trichuriasis, as well as into the broader
landscape of infectious, inflammatory, and autoimmune diseases affecting both high- and low-
income countries.[8,10-13] Notably, three genomes of *Trichuris* species have been published, *T.*
suis, *T. muris*, and the human-invasive *T. trichiura*. They represent pivotal milestones, offering
unprecedented opportunities for the discovery of new helminth-derived biomacromolecules.
However, the present genomic data has not been able to explain the low efficacy of
benzimidazoles against *T. trichiura*.

Here, we present the discovery of a novel *Trichuris* species, *Trichuris hominis*, naturally
infecting humans in Côte d'Ivoire and displaying resistance to conventional drug treatments.
Phylogenetic analysis based on the species tree of 12434 orthologous groups of genes places
the isolated worms within a new clade, more closely related to *T. suis* than to *T. trichiura*,
limiting the use of available reference genomes. We elucidate the genetic makeup of this new
species, leveraging whole-genome-sequencing (WGS) data to produce a high quality
reference genome. Comparative genomic analyses offer a path to potential vaccine candidate
for trichuriasis and immunotherapeutic agents relevant to Crohn's disease and pancreatitis.
Finally, we investigate the whole genome sequencing data of all 1098 isolates in context of
resistance by looking at duplication events across the species tree and conducting a genome
wide association study to identify potential single nucleotide polymorphisms comparing drug-
sensitive vs drug-resistant worms. We present genomic data that, for the first time in humans,
points towards albendazole resistance through variations on the β-tubulin gene, a result of
considerable health relevance.

Results

***Trichuris* expulsion study reveals a new species of Whipworm, resistant to**
conventional Albendazole-Ivermectin treatment

We screened 670 children in 7 villages Akakro, Ahouya, N'Doumikro, Tiagba, Bekpou and
Teffredji in southern Côte d'Ivoire for trichuriasis. 243 participants were enrolled in the study
and received a single dose albendazole-ivermectin (alb-ive) combination treatment (T1) after
which stool was collected daily and screened for worms for up to four days. Subsequently, 8
days after the first treatment, the same individuals received a single oral dose oxantel-
pamoate treatment (T2) after which stool was collected for 2 consecutive days, as presented
in figure 1a. We isolated 271 worms after treatment 1 (T1) with an expulsion peak on days 2
and 3 and 827 worms after treatment 2 (T2) with expulsion peaking on day 1 and 2 after
treatment. A total of 1098 *Trichuris* worms were collected. The female to male ratio was 3.42:1
and 1.6:1 during T1 and T2 respectively. A significant correlation ($R^2 = 0.34$; $P = 0.0061$) was
observed between the number of expulsed worms and the mean egg count per day, yielding
a fecundity of 14307 eggs per female worm per day. Figure 1b shows near complete expulsion
of all worms as the median EPG dropped from 1524 to 24 at the follow up time point on day
12. To assess relationship of human worms with their local domestic animal pendant, 25
individual worms from 2 swine hosts were collected directly from the caecum. Morphologically,

all worms and the observed eggs were indistinguishable and a picture of each worm is provided online.

Fig. 1: Timeline of expulsion study including the number of expulsed worms and the female/male distribution of the sequenced worms

a Timeline of expulsion study including the number of expulsed worms and the female/male distribution. T1: albendazole-ivermectin combination treatment, standard-of-care. T2: Oxantel-palmoate treatment, implemented in parts of South America, specifically against *T. trichiura* **b** EPG before treatment 1 compared to after the treatment 2.

Next a phylogenetic analysis of the *Trichuris* worms isolated in Côte d'Ivoire was done using the coding regions of the mitochondrial genomes of 535 individual worms that yielded a complete mitogenome. The reconstructed mitogenomes contained 13 protein coding genes (*cox*1-3, *nad*1-6, *nad*4L, *atp*6, *atp*8 and *co*B) as shown in figure 2b. Concatenated nucleic acid sequences from all assembled and reference mitochondrial genomes showed that the *Trichuris* species encountered in Côte d'Ivoire forms a separate clade, closer to *T. suis* than to *T. trichiura*, while the phylogenetic placement of the 16 sequenced *T. suis* fall within the expected clade of *T. suis* reference mitochondrial genomes. We tentatively name the species in this newly formed clade *Trichuris hominis*.

Fig. 2: Phylogenetic placement of expulsed *Trichuris* worms from Côte d'Ivoire

a Bayesian inferred phylogenetic tree based on the amino acid sequences of genes in the mitochondrial genomes of 535 *Trichuris hominis* worms and available reference mitochondrial sequences, using *Trichinella spiralis* as an outgroup. Timescale indicates numbers of substitutions per site. **b** Reconstructed mitochondrial genome of *Trichuris hominis*.

T. hominis hybrid *de novo* whole genome assembly is mined for potential vaccine candidates and immunotherapeutic agents using comparative genomics

The *de novo* sequenced genome of *T. hominis* at a coverage of 115X resulted in a length of 84.26 Mb, consisting of 387 contigs with an N50 of 11.78 Mb, and is presented in figure 3a. The genome completeness amounted to 75.4% of whole, duplicated, and fragmented single copy orthologues as determined by BUSCO. GC content was 43%. Genes were predicted *de novo* for all available reference whole genomes using the braker2 pipeline and the metazoa database, resulting in the prediction of 13739 genes for the newly discovered species

Fig. 3: Whole genome assembly metrics and comparative genomic analysis of available whole genomes of *Trichuris* species.

a	Trichuris hominis	Trichuris trichiura	Trichuris suis	Trichuris suis	Trichuris suis	Trichuris muris	Trichinella spiralis
Accession	NA	PRJEB535	PRJNA208416	PRJNA208415	PRJNA179528	PRJEB126	PRJNA12603
Genome Size [Mb]	84.26	80.57	70.45	73.46	63.84	111.83	63.51
Number of contigs	387	113	1131	1470	306	803	6819
N50 [Mb]	11.78	11.3	0.45	0.5	1.32	28.94	6.37
GC percentage [%]	42.8	42.3	43.5	43.6	43.31	44.6	33.9
Complete BUSCOs [%]	61.3	64.3	65.6	65.4	65.2	61.5	64.8
Duplicated BUSCOs [%]	2.7	1.8	0.4	0.7	0.4	3.9	3.8
Fragmented BUSCOs [%]	11.4	10.0	10.0	9.7	9.9	10.3	7.0
Missing BUSCOs [%]	24.6	23.9	24.0	24.2	24.5	24.3	24.4
Number of genes	13739	11809	11224	11884	9755	20537	13254
Total exon number	82285	71304	69897	71543	66000	93618	103944
Mean exon length [bp]	255	240	235	239	222	281	193
Median exon length [bp]	152	150	150	151	148	164	136
Total intron number	67462	58645	58015	58973	55584	71798	88078
Mean intron length [bp]	267	291	274	278	277	315	187
Median intron length [bp]	57	57	56	57	56	57	74
Total coding sequence [Mb]	20.98	17.14	16.45	17.07	14.63	26.23	20.03
Sequencing technique	Illumina + Nanopore	Pacbio	Illumina	Illumina	Pacbio	Pacbio + Illumina	Whole genome shotgun*

a Whole genome assembly metrics. *bacterial artificial chromosome (BAC) and expressed sequence tag (EST). **b** Venn diagram of orthologous groups from predicted transcripts. **c** Tetraspanin, Serpin and Chymotrypsin-like serine protease identified as genes of interest from analyzing orthologous groups in Venn diagram sections shared by *T. hominis*, *T. trichiura* and *T. muris*.

Having a *Trichuris* genome, closely related to *T. suis* but from a species naturally infecting humans, poses a unique opportunity to explore genes that might be crucial for the adaptation to a human host. We looked into the occurrence of orthologous groups throughout the genomes of *T. hominis*, *T. suis*, *T. trichiura* and *T. muris* as shown in figure 2b and present proteins of interest in figure 2c. Leveraging the close genetic relationship with *T. suis*, predicted transcripts were investigated that are shared with *T. trichiura* but do not occur in *T. suis*. We searched for genes which Gasser et. al identified to be upregulated in the stichosome and potentially have immunomodulatory effects like galactins, serpins, venom allergen–like proteins, apyrase or calreticulin and chymotrypsin-like serine proteases.[14-17] We identified one family of each serpins (OG0000305)[18,19] and chymotrypsin-like serine proteases (OG0010319)[20] that are shared only by *T. trichiura* and *T. hominis*. Additionally, we identified, a family of tetraspanins (OG0009162) which are investigated as vaccine candidates in Schistosomiasis.[21,22] A list of all genes and the interproscan annotations are provided in the supporting information.

Gene duplication events across the species tree and a genome wide association study point towards β-tubulin variations as a source of albendazole resistance

We inferred the gene orthology of all genes predicted in the publicly available whole genomes of *Trichuris* species, *T. hominis* and *Trichinella spiralis* to identify duplication events that might be connected to genes associated with resistance to either albendazole or ivermectin. These resistance-associated genes include β-tubulin or glutamate-gated chloride channel subunits (*glc*-1, *glc*-2, *glc*-3, *avr*-14, *avr*-15), voltage gated chloride ion channels (*clh*-3), sodium:potassium:chloride symporter (*nkcc*-1), bestrophin chloride channel (*best*-19), p-glycoprotein ABC transporters (*pgp*-1, *pgp*-2, *pgp*-9, *pgp*-11), and transcription factor *cky*-1, for albendazole.[23,24] Amongst these genes, one orthologues group (OG0000671) of the β-

tubulin gene showed 9 copies of beta tubulin gene in *T. hominis* and only 1 copy in all *T. suis*
and *T. trichiura* reference species as presented in figure 4a. Two genes g456 and g5082 were
found to be fragmented. Intriguingly, the α-tubulin gene was only present in one copy. Upon
further examination of the 7 complete beta tubulin genes, 3 are predicted to have a truncated
phenotype as shown in figure 4b. Figure 4c, shows that the truncation occurs close to the
predicted binding site of albendazole sulfoxide. Molecular docking simulations revealed a
binding energy of -5.9 kcal/mol for the non-truncated variant and >22 kcal/mol for the truncated
variant.

Fig. 4: Duplications across the species tree show a high copy number of β-tubulin genes that
exist in a truncated and non-truncated variant.

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a Species tree indicating gene duplication, gains, losses and retention as pie charts across the tree.
Heat map of copy numbers for all genes present in orthologues groups of genes, which have previously
been associated to resistance and the α-tubulin gene. **b** Sequence alignment of 7 predicted genes in
T. hominis and the orthologous genes in *T. trichiura* and *T. suis*. **c** Autodoc Vina docking simulations of
non-truncated β-tubulin variant showing a binding energy of -5.9 kcal/mol.

We then sought to investigate similarly expanded gene families as β-tubulin in *T. hominis*. GO
terms of massively expanded gene families as in ≥ 7 copies per gene in *T. hominis* and ≤4 in
all other species were investigated and a list of gene families and their annotation is provided
in the supporting information. From 81 gene families, 68 could be associated to DNA
transposable elements and retrotransposons, 6 remained unknown and without blast hits and
7 could be assigned a functionality. Apart from the β-tubulin gene, other genes related to
microtubule function and flexibility were found within these 7 assignable orthologous groups.
Amongst these highly duplicated genes is the motor protein kinesin, MAP65/Ase1, Condensin,
Transcription factor (TF) IIIC and a haspin like kinase.

Fig. 5: Genome wide association study of worms expulsed after albendazole-ivermectin
treatment (T1) versus worms expulsed after oxantel-pamoate treatment (T2).

To investigate potential SNPs associated with resistance, a genome wide association study
was conducted, comparing the populations isolated after the first treatment and second
treatment respectively. 11 genes carried suggestive associations, defined as p < 0.0001 for
the SNP and are listed in the supporting information. One of these genes, g208, stands out as
a voltage gated chloride ion channel, carrying an Arg553Lys mutation with a significance value
of $p = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$. The significance of SNPs that were found on numerously expanded gene
trees or on genes shown to be associated with either albendazole or ivermectin resistance
were all below the suggestive threshold. The β-tubulin gene is of particular interest in this
context, although it did not carry known mutations on the Phe168, Glu198 or Phe200 positions,
which have been associated to albendazole resistance in veterinary medicine. The strongest
association observed was an Asn194Ile mutation with a p-value of $p = 0.12$. As shown in figure
4b, position 194 is varying across species. The *T. trichiura* reference carries a polar Ser
sidechain at the 194 position whereas the *T. suis* reference sequences all carry a hydrophobic
Val side chain. *T. hominis* carries hydrophilic (Asn) and hydrophobic (Ile, Met) sidechains on
the duplicated beta tubulin genes, where the mutation from the hydrophilic to a non-polar
sidechain correlates significantly with loss of drug-sensitivity.

Discussion:

Our investigation and the data provided mark a pioneering milestone in *Trichuris* research,
unveiling the discovery of a previously unknown species - *Trichuris hominis* - naturally infecting
humans in Côte d'Ivoire and demonstrating low responsiveness to conventional drug
treatments. We present genomic data, that imply β-tubulin variations in resistance
mechanisms, raising concerns about the efficacy of current mass deworming strategies.
These findings challenge the current understanding of species within the *Trichuris* genus and
have profound implications for both parasitology and public health.

The whole-genome assembly forms the basis of our comprehensive genomic analysis and
uncovers noteworthy insights into *Trichuris* biology, shedding light on potential mechanisms
underlying drug resistance and offering promising avenues for therapeutic intervention. The
whole-genome assembly metrics align with established *Trichuris* genomes, underscoring the
robustness of our dataset.[9,10,12] Our exploration of orthologous gene groups shared exclusively
by *T. hominis* and *T. trichiura* – but not *T. suis* - unveils three gene families of interest: a serpin,
a chymotrypsin-like serine protease and a tetraspanin gene family, that may all play a crucial
role in human parasitism.

Serpins constitute the largest and most widely distributed superfamily of protease inhibitors and play a crucial role in escaping from host immunity.[19] They are excreted by *Trichuris* species and were reported to be upregulated in the stichosome of *T. suis*.[12] While serpins are promising antigens for *Trichinella spiralis* vaccination, this family of proteins has gained particular interest in the context of inflammatory bowels disease (IBD) due to their immunomodulatory potential.[14,15] A further intriguing gene family, identified only in human infecting *Trichuris* species, belong to the chymotrypsin-like serine proteases. Chymotrypsin is reported to degrade trypsin, the main digestive protease originating from the pancreas. The ability to degrade pancreatic proteases may be crucial for the survival of this enteric parasite and a starting point for drug development not only against trichuriasis but also in the field of pancreatitis.[12,20] Finally, we also identified a tetraspanin gene family. Tetraspanins are a highly conserved family of four-pass transmembrane proteins and their roles are highly diverse and occur in a variety of essential cellular functions. They have been identified as suitable antigens in schistosomiasis vaccination. For example, the large extracellular loop of *S. mansoni* tetraspanin-2 (Sm-TSP-2) has been employed successfully as a vaccine against murine schistosomiasis.[21,25-27] Notably, no effective human vaccine currently exists for trichuriasis, making the identification of crucial tetraspanins involved in human infection particularly promising for vaccine development.

Duplication events are encountered across the tree of life and constitute an important mechanism to provide new genetic material. The rates of gene duplication are estimated to be as frequent as the rates of single-nucleotide polymorphisms and the *C. elegans* genome is made up of 33% duplicated genes.[28,29] Drawing upon previous studies linking gene duplication to drug adaptation across diverse parasitic organisms, and deducing modes of action of drugs from observations of duplication events, we sought to investigate gene duplication events in connection to drug insensitivity.[30,31] In total, 7 variants of the β-tubulin gene were identified in the whole genome, providing substantial redundancy that may allow for adaptation through sub-functionalization or dosage compensation. The existence of the gene in a truncated and non-truncated version that severely impact the binding energy of albendazole sulfoxide, may be connected to benzimidazole resistance. The occurrence of significant SNPs, as a result of the genome wide association study, further suggests a potential link between β-tubulin variants and prolonged benzimidazole exposure in Côte d'Ivoire. Notably, while β-tubulin exhibited significant duplication, α-tubulin did not, pointing to a targeted adaptive response to albendazole, assuming the same mode of action as in other nematodes.[32,33] Furthermore, the identification of massively expanded gene families associated with microtubule dynamics and mitotic processes provides additional evidence of adaptive evolution under drug pressure, reinforcing the significance of our observations. Kinesin, for example, acts as intracellular shuttle and can de-polymerize microtubules. It has been shown to bind to negatively charged residues E410, D417 and E421 on the β-tubulin subunit.[34] MAP65/Ase1, a microtubule-associated protein is reported to promote microtubule flexibility and prevent microtubule severing by cross-linking.[35,36] These findings suggest that the duplications observed are associated to repairing and protecting microtubule functionality. Further, highly duplicated genes including Condensin, Transcription factor (TF) IIIC and a haspin like kinase were associated to chromatid condensation, organization and cohesion respectively. While these genes have not been associated to benzimidazole resistance, they are linked to mitotic processes which in turn is connected to microtubule function with regards to the mitotic spindle.[37-39]

With the unique experimental setup of the expulsion study, we were able to categorize the expulsed worms into drug sensitive and non-sensitive enabling a genome wide association study (GWAS). Results from the GWAS further imply a β-tubulin variation (Asn194Ile) in drug

sensitivity. Although the SNP is not pointing towards the *in-silico* predicted active binding site,
it is within 2 amino acids of known Glu198Val mutation conferring resistance.[24,40] Asparagine
residue Asn255 has shown an increase in albendazole sulfoxide binding affinity *in-silico*. A
mutation so close to the active sight from a polar asparagine to a hydrophobic isoleucine
sidechain may have a profound impact on the kinetics of the binding reaction of albendazole
sulfoxide. Finally, the observation of a mutation on a voltage gated chloride ion channel might
be of importance regarding ivermectin drug resistance. A voltage gated ion channel clh-3 is
implied in ivermectin adaptation through upregulation in *Haemonchus contortus*.[23]

The expulsion study allowed the collection of a population of *T. hominis* worms to investigate
the potential emergence of drug resistance in Côte d'Ivoire and gain insights into its fecundity
and expulsion dynamics. Following the administration of albendazole and ivermectin during
the first treatment (T1), 271 out of 1098 worms could be eliminated, which is in-line with
previously observed low cure rates in Côte d'Ivoire.[3,41] The expulsion dynamics of T1 exhibited
a faster rate compared to reported expulsion dynamics of a single-dose of mebendazole (500
mg) treatment against *T. trichiura*. The female to male ratio is comparable to recent reports
for *T. trichiura*. The fecundity of around 14,300 eggs per female per day of *T. hominis* matches
literature reported values of approx. 16,700 for *T. trichiura*.[42] Overall, these results suggest
that the biology of *T. hominis* in terms of fecundity is comparable to *T. trichiura*.

Despite the close genetic relationship of *T. hominis* to *T. suis*, our phylogenetic analysis
demonstrates clear separation between *T. hominis* and *T. suis* isolates from swine hosts in
Côte d'Ivoire. While zoonosis events of trichuriasis have been reported, these findings indicate
the absence of zoonotic transmission, in recent evolutionary history, between these
populations.[43] Moreover, patterns of gene duplication, gain, and loss of function events in *T.
hominis* compared to within *T. suis* suggest a more ancient and divergent evolutionary lineage.
The morphological indistinguishability of *T. hominis*, *T. trichiura* and *T. suis* worms and eggs
emphasizes the need of diagnostic tools able to differentiate between these worms to gain
further insight into the transmission dynamics and prevalence of this new species, as it
responds differently to drug treatment.

In summary, our study presents a novel *Trichuris* species, resistant to conventional
albendazole-ivermectin treatment and offers evidence of adaptive genomic changes
associated with drug exposure. The whole genome presented in this study provides a unique
data resource, not only for drug targets and vaccine candidates in the field of trichuriasis
research, but also in the field of infectious, inflammatory, and autoimmune diseases.

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Supporting Information

Methods:

Expulsion study design fieldwork

This trial was conducted in the Dabou and Jacqueville districts of Côte d'Ivoire. This area was selected, because communities with high endemicity were identified as part of a previous trial on *T. trichiura*.[3] All community members aged 6-12 who were positive for *T. trichiura* in duplicate Kato-Katz smears, with an infection intensity of at least 200 eggs per g of stool (EPG), were eligible for trial inclusion. Excluded from the trial were individuals with reported major systemic illnesses or chronic disease, known allergy to study medications and having received anthelmintic treatment with ivermectin in the past two weeks.

This trial was conducted in accordance with the protocol, International Conference on Harmonization Good Clinical Practice E6 (R2) (ICH-GCP) and the current version of the Helsinki Declaration. Parents or guardians of participating children provided written informed consent. Children provided written assent. All authors take responsibility for the accuracy and completeness of the data and the fidelity of the trial to the protocol, which is available together with the statistical analysis plan in appendix 1. The protocol was approved by independent ethics committees in Côte d'Ivoire (reference numbers 156-22/MSHPCMU/CNESVS-kp and ECCI00918) and Switzerland (reference number AO_2022_00028).

Treatment and sample collection from humans

Guardians/caregivers were invited to participate in an information session. The research team explained the purpose and procedures of the study, as well as potential benefits and risks of participation. The timeline of the procedures is summarized in figure 1a. For initial diagnosis, participants were asked to provide one stool sample from which duplicate Kato-Katz thick smears using 41·7 mg of stool were prepared and assessed under a light microscope for the identification of *T. trichiura*, *A. lumbricoides*, and hookworm ova by laboratory technicians. 10% of all Kato-Katz slides were randomly chosen for subsequent quality control by picking every tenth slide of all slides read by each laboratory technician on the respective day. All eligible participants were treated with albendazole-ivermectin at day 0. Albendazole, the product of Glaxo Smith Kline (Zentel®), was a single tablet of 400 mg. Ivermectin, the product of Merck (Stromectol®), was given at a dose of of 200 µg/kg. On day 8 a single oral dose of 20 mg/kg of oxantal pamoate was administered. Oxantel pamoate tablets (500 mg) were provided by the University of Basel.

From day 1/2 and 8 onwards, 24h-stool was collected and weighed for 2-3 days. Expelled worms were counted, washed twice with distilled water, once with sterile PBS and then stored either in pure ethanol at 4°C or mashed and stored in RNA-later at -20°C. A picture of each worm in ethanol was taken and is provided on online (https://github.com/max-baer).

Sample collection from pigs

To obtain *T. suis* worms, a list of all pig keepers was drawn by the help of local village chief. Pig keepers were gathered in formal meetings where the purpose of the study was explained. Pig keepers were asked to give written informed consent to participate in the study. Fecal samples were then collected directly from the rectum by use of gloves lubricated with glycerin by a veterinarian. The samples were analyzed using the Mini Flotac technique.[44] 2 pigs that tested positive for *T. suis* roaming freely in Tiagba were sacrificed and worms were collected directly from the cecum and stored in either pure ethanol at 4 °C or mashed and stored in RNA-later at -20 °C.

DNA extraction and high-throughput sequencing

Worms stored in absolute ethanol were photographed and used for sequencing experiments. The posterior end of the worms was severed and DNA was extracted using a DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Cat: 69504) according to the manufacturer's protocol. Sequencing libraries for illumina were prepared using the NEBNext® Ultra™ II FS DNA Library Prep Kit (New England Biolabs, Cat: E7805L) according to the manufacturer's protocol after which DNA concentration and library size was determined (HS NGS Fragment Analyzer). Libraries were sequenced using 150 bp paired-end chemistry at an average 20X coverage on an Illumina NovaSeq6000 platform with an S4 flow cell at the Genomics Facility Basel as part of the Department of Biosystems Science and Engineering. Sequencing libraries for Nanopore were prepared using the Native Barcoding Kit 24 V14 (Oxford Nanopore Technologies, Cat: SQK-NBD114.2) from a single whole female worm and sequenced on a PromethION flow cell and PromethION 2 device.

Pipeline for raw read processing and mitochondrial genome assembly

For all sequencing, assembly and annotation pipelines Nextflow (version 23.04.1 build 5866) was used with Java (version 11.0.3).[45] All outputs of confirmed Nextflow runs and code is provided online (https://github.com/max-baer). Raw reads were first processed using Trimmomatic (version 0.39);[46] for PE reads, adapters were removed and N-bases trimmed. Next reads were channeled to getorganelle (version 1.7.7.0) to reconstruct the mitochondrial genome.[47] Runs which resulted in a complete mitochondrial genome were further processed by flipping in cases where the reverse complement was generated and adjustment to COX1 as starting gene. Reference and newly constructed mitochondrial genomes were annotated and visualized using MitoZ (version 3.6).[48] Coding genes were then extracted and aligned as amino acid and nucleic acid sequences using MAFFT (version 7.490).[49] All reconstructed mitochondrial genomes and the aligned MAFFT files used as input for phylogenetic inference are provided online (https://github.com/max-baer).

Phylogenetic analysis

BEAST2 (version 2.7.5) was used for all phylogenetic inference with a pure birth process (Yule process).[50] Aligned concatenated nucleic acid sequences from all assembled and reference mitochondrial genomes were treated as homochromous. The JC69 substitution model with gamma-distributed rate heterogeneity was used (JC69 + Γ_4) and a strict molecular clock was assumed. Trees and clock models were linked and all model parameters were estimated jointly. The prior distributions of the model parameters are listed in Supplementary Table1. A Markov Chain Monte Carlo was run for each analysis. Tracer (version 1.7.2) was used to assess convergence and effective sample size. The percentage of samples discarded as burn-in was at least 10%. For the amino acid inferred species tree, 2 assembled sequences of each subclade clade with a posterior distribution over 0.95 were selected at random. The mito REV substitution model was used and all genes were partitioned separately, allowing for different rates for each gene. Effective sample size (ESS) was at least 900 for each of the inferred parameters. The intraspecies phylogeny was inferred using a TN96 + Γ_4 model. Each gene was partitioned separately and codon positions 1 and 2 were partitioned separately to 3. The mean mutation rates of the genes and there codon positions are provided in the supporting information and show a faster mutation rate for codon position 3 in all cases.

Pipeline for Hybrid-genome assembly and gene prediction

Nextflow (version 23.04.1 build 5866) was used with Java (version 11.0.3). Nanopore raw reads were channeled into chopper (version 0.6.0) where reads below 5kb and low quality reads were filtered out and adapters trimmed.[51,52] Trimmed reads were channeled into

Kraken2 (version 2.1.1) and reads with a contamination ratio >0.5 were filtered out with a
custom R (version 4.3.0) script, resulting in a 50X coverage.[53] Illumina reads of the same worm
at a 65X coverage were channeled into Kraken2 where reads of impurities were identified and
filtered out. Illumina and Nanopore channels were combined to run a hybrid de-novo genome
assembly using MaSuRCA (version 4.0.9).[54] The outputted contigs were channeled into
RagTag (version 2.1.0) for correction and scaffolding using the *Trichuris trichiura* (PRJEB535)
reference genome.[55] The corrected scaffolds were then assigned to one of three linkage
groups from T. Muris using Liftoff (version 1.6.3),[56] as described in literature.[9] The genome
was frozen for quality assessment using BUSCO (version 5.1.2 with Metazoa_obd10
database)[57] and QUAST (version 5.0.2).[58] At this point all available reference whole genomes
of *Trichuris* species and *Trichinella spiralis* were channeled into the pipeline to run a de-novo
gene prediction on all reference genomes and reduce methodological bias from gene
prediction software. Repeat regions were masked using RepeatMasker (version 4.1.4) before
channeling the genome to BRAKER (version 3.0.6, Braker2 pipeline using the Metazoa protein
database from OrthoDB 11).[59,60] Gene prediction statistics including exon and intron count,
mean length and median length were gathered using a custom bash script.

Phylogenetic orthology inference, species tree and orthologous group functional
annotation

Orthofinder (version 2.5.5) was used to infer orthology and the species tree of the braker2
predicted genes.[61] 81425 out of 92202 (88.3%) genes were classified into 12434 orthologous
groups with a mean group size of 6.5 and median group size of 5. Gene ontology of
orthologous groups of interest was inferred using InterProScan (version 5.63-95.0). A list of
resistance associated genes was downloaded from WormBase and blasted against all
orthologous groups using an E-value threshold of $1e^{-50}$ to identify orthologous groups of
resistance associated genes. A table of all genes with matching orthologous groups and Gene
IDs from worm bank is provided in the supporting information. Species tree with heat map was
visualized using iTOL (version 6.8.1).[62] Duplicated, gained, lost and retained genes across the
species tree were inferred using OMA standalone (version 2.6.0) and pyHam (version
1.1.11).[63,64] Massively expanded gene families were defined as ≥7 copies in *Trichuris hominis*
and ≤4 in all other species and a list is provided in the supporting information together with the
functional annotation. The orthology of predicted transcripts was inferred analogously. A
custom R-script was used to visualize the Venn diagram and identify transcripts shared by
Trichuris hominis, *T. trichiura* and *T. muris*. A list of these transcripts with their functional
annotation is provided in the supporting information. Protein structures were predicted using
Alphafold (version 2.2.0, template date cutoff was set to 2021-09-01) and visualized with
PyMOL (version 2.5).

Molecular docking simulations

Molecular docking simulations were ran similar to literature procedures.[40] Briefly, truncated
and non-truncated β-tubulin structures were predicted using alphafold (version 2.2.0). The
simulation was ran on AutoDock Vina (version 1.1.2) with albendazole sulfoxide as a ligand,
placed between Glu198, Phe200 and Asn255 allowing a 20 Å radius.

Pipeline for genome wide association study

Nextflow (version 23.04.1 build 5866) was used with Java (version 11.0.3). Variants were
called by transferring a published protocol by Doyle et. al. into Nextflow.[9] Plink (version 1.9)
was used to conduct the genome wide association study.[65] A principal component analysis
(PCA) was conducted to account for population stratification. The PCA together with

information on worm-sex was used in the linear regression option in PLINK. The R package
qqman was used to visualize the results.

Data availability

Raw sequencing data is available under the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA) study
accession "". 551 assembled mitochondrial genomes and the de-novo assembled *Trichuris*
hominis reference genome are available on from https://github.com/max-baer. The publicly
available mitochondrial genomes used for comparative analysis (Accession numbers:
"KT449826", "GU385218", "HG806815", "KT449822", "KT449823", "GU070737", "JQ996231",
"JQ996232", "KC461179", "NC_017747", "NC_018597", "NC_018596", "NC_028621",
"NC_002681") are available from ENA and NCBI. There are no restrictions on data availability.

Code availability

628 Custom code to analyze data and reproduce the figures presented is available at
629 https://github.com/max-baer. Where available all input scripts and log files are provided
630 including nextflow log files documenting a complete run, BEAST2 XML input and log files.