

1 **Title**

2 Molecular screening approach to identify protozoan and trichostrongylid parasites infecting
3 one-humped camels (*Camelus dromedarius*)

4

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26 **Abstract**

27 Little is known about the diversity of many parasites infecting camels, with most relying on
28 morphological parameters. DNA extracted from different tissues (n= 90) and fecal samples (n=
29 101) from dromedary camels (*Camelus dromedarius*) in Egypt were screened for multiple
30 parasites using different molecular markers. Screening of tissue samples (heart) for *Toxoplasma*
31 *gondii* and *Sarcocystis* spp. was performed using *Bl* and 18S rRNA gene markers, respectively.
32 *T. gondii* was further genotyped using multiplex multilocus nested PCR-RFLP (Mn-PCR-
33 RFLP). *Sarcocystis* was analyzed using PCR-RFLP characterization (*XbaI* and *MboI* restriction
34 enzymes). A taxonomically challenging but important group of nematodes (Trichostrongylidae
35 family) were screened using the ITS-2 ribosomal DNA (rDNA) species-specific markers.
36 Furthermore, nested PCR was used for the detection of *Cryptosporidium* spp. (SSU rRNA gene)
37 and positive samples were genotyped after RFLP (*SspI* and *VspI*) and sequencing.
38 *Cryptosporidium parvum* isolates were subtyped by sequence analysis of the 60-kDa
39 glycoprotein gene. This study revealed that many parasites infect the investigated camels,
40 including *T. gondii* (1.1%), *Sarcocystis* spp. (64.4%), *Cryptosporidium* spp. (5.9%) and
41 Trichostrongylidae nematodes (22.7%). The species contribution for nematodes was as follows:
42 *Haemonchus* spp. (95.6%), *Trichostrongylus axei* (26%), *Trichostrongylus colubriformis*
43 (65.2%) and *Cooperia oncophora* (60.8%). Mn-PCR-RFLP typing for *Toxoplasma* was only
44 successful for three markers: 5'-SAG2 (type II), 3'-SAG2 (type II) and alt. SAG2 (type II).
45 PCR-RFLP using *XbaI* showed possible mixed *Sarcocystis* infection. Moreover, the
46 *Cryptosporidium* genotypes detected were *C. parvum* (IIdA19G1 and IIaA15G1R1),
47 *Cryptosporidium* rat genotype IV and a novel genotype (camel genotype). This approach
48 revealed the unique *Cryptosporidium* genotypes infecting the investigated camels, and the high
49 genetic diversity of the investigated parasites.

50 **Keywords:** *Camelus dromedarius*, *Toxoplasma gondii*, *Sarcocystis*, *Cryptosporidium*,
51 Trichostrongylidae, Egypt.

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54 **1. Introduction**

55 The genus *Camelus* contains three species: *Camelus dromedarius* (one-hump
56 dromedary), *Camelus bactrianus* and *Camelus bactrianus ferus* (two-hump Bactrian camel).
57 Dromedaries are mainly found in the Middle East, and parts of Africa, south Asia and Central
58 Australia (Kadim *et al.*, 2014; Saeed *et al.*, 2018). They are important to the economy of many
59 countries, especially Arab countries where they are used for the production of milk, meat, wool
60 and hides, besides their importance as draught and racing animals. The demand for camel (*C.*
61 *dromedarius*) meat in Egypt and other African countries is increasing due to the great food gap.

62 Little is known about the genetic structure of many parasites infecting camels. The
63 protozoan parasites *Toxoplasma gondii*, *Sarcocystis* and *Cryptosporidium* have been frequently
64 reported in dromedary camels but molecular data on these organisms are limited. Molecular
65 studies have been published for *T. gondii* (Abu-Zeid *et al.*, 2005 reviewed by Sharif *et al.*, 2017;
66 Elfadaly *et al.*, 2017; Kareshk *et al.*, 2018), *Cryptosporidium* spp. (Abdel-Wahab and Abdel-
67 Maogood, 2011; Gu *et al.*, 2016; Baroudi *et al.*, 2018; Zahedi *et al.*, 2018) and *Sarcocystis* spp.
68 (Motamedi *et al.*, 2011). A taxonomically challenging but important pathogenic group of
69 nematodes (the Trichostrongylidae family) have been increasingly reported in camels based on
70 the morphological identification of adult worms, yet molecular data remain limited. Recent
71 reports confirmed the presence of *Haemonchus longistipes* (Sultan *et al.*, 2014 and Kandil *et*
72 *al.*, 2018) in infected camels by molecular methods. The objectives of the work presented herein
73 were: 1) to determine the different genotypes of camel isolates of *T. gondii* and

74 *Cryptosporidium*, which may elucidate their role in transmission of these parasites to humans;
75 2) to estimate the diversity of *Sarcocystis* species isolated from slaughtered camels in Egypt; 3)
76 to evaluate the effectiveness of a standard PCR to identify some important species of the
77 Trichostrongylidae family infecting camels, using oligonucleotide primers employed with other
78 ruminants.

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80

81 **2. Materials and methods**

82 **2.1. Animals, study area and specimens**

83 Ninety specimens of heart tissue were obtained from slaughtered one-humped camels
84 at Al Bassatein abattoir, [Cairo](#), Egypt. In addition, 101 fecal samples were obtained from camels
85 awaiting slaughter. The camels were aged 4–9 years (males and females were not
86 distinguished), and samples were collected during the period from September 2017 to March
87 2018. [No data were available on the source, husbandry and/or management regimens of the](#)
88 [studied animals.](#)

89

90 **2.2. Screening heart samples for *T. gondii* and *Sarcocystis***

91 **2.2.1. Pepsin-hydrochloric acid digestion and DNA extraction**

92 About 30 g of each heart muscle was cut into small (1–2 cm) pieces after trimming off
93 the connective tissue and fat. Tissues were chopped and gently ground in a blender without any
94 fluid, then homogenized in saline (0.85% NaCl) for 30 s, mixed with acidic pepsin, and
95 incubated in a water bath with regular shaking for 60 min at 37°C. The homogenate was filtered
96 through two layers of gauze, centrifuged, sediment-neutralized with sodium bicarbonate, and
97 centrifuged again (Dubey, 1998). The resulting sediment was collected in Eppendorf tubes and

98 stored at $\square 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ for DNA extraction. QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen GmbH, Hilden,
99 Germany) was used for DNA extraction following the manufacturer's protocol and [DNA eluted](#)
100 [with 100 \$\mu\text{l}\$ AE buffer](#).

101

102 **2.2.2. Molecular detection and characterization of *T. gondii***

103 PCR screening was carried out in a 20- μl total volume consisting of 2 μl of 10 \times PCR
104 buffer with 15 mM MgCl_2 , 2 μl dNTPs (2 mM), 0.4 μl (50 μM) each of the forward and reverse
105 B1 gene primers (B22-23) (Bretagne et al., 1993), 0.2 μl of AmpliTaq Gold polymerase (5
106 U/ μl) (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, CA, USA) and 200 ng of DNA template. The reaction
107 mixture was treated at 95°C for 5 min, followed by 40 cycles of 95°C for 15 s, 60°C for 15 s and
108 72°C for 1 min, with a final extension step at 72°C for 7 min. Genotyping was performed using
109 multiplex multilocus nested PCR-RFLP (Mn-PCR-RFLP) typing for 12 different genetic
110 markers; SAG1, SAG2 (5'-SAG2 and 3'-SAG2), alt. SAG2, SAG3, BTUB, GRA6, c22-8, c29-
111 2, L358, PK1 and Apico as previously described by [Su et al. \(2010\)](#); Su and Dubey (2009)
112 (Table S1). Each assay was run at least twice using separate aliquots for both detection and
113 genotyping before samples were considered negative. Cell-cultured tachyzoites of *T. gondii*
114 type I (RH), type II (PLK) and type III (VEG) strains were used as positive controls. To reveal
115 the RFLP pattern of each reference strain and camel isolate, 5 μl of PCR products were mixed
116 with 15 μl of digestion reaction containing 1 \times NEB buffer and restriction enzymes added
117 according to the manufacturer's instructions (New England BioLabs, Ipswich, MA, USA)
118 (Table S2). The digested PCR products were resolved in a 2.5% agarose gel.

119

120 **2.2.3. Molecular detection and characterization of *Sarcocystis* spp.**

121 PCR detection for *Sarcocystis* spp. was carried out using the 18S rRNA gene primer
122 pair Sar-F1 and Sar-R1 (Motamedi *et al.*, 2011). PCR reactions were carried out in a 25- μ l total
123 volume consisting of 2.5 μ l of 10 \times PCR buffer with 15 mM MgCl₂, 2.5 μ l dNTPs (2 mM), 0.5
124 μ l (50 μ M) each of the forward and reverse primers, 0.2 μ l of AmpliTaq Gold polymerase (5
125 U/ μ l) and 200 ng of DNA template. The reaction mixture was treated at 94°C for 5 min,
126 followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 2 min, 57°C for 30 s and 72°C for 2 min, with a final extension
127 step at 72°C for 5 min. The PCR products were digested separately with two restriction enzymes
128 (*Xba*I, *Mbo*I). Each 20- μ l restriction digest contained 10 μ l of PCR product, 0.8 μ l of *Mbo*I
129 restriction enzyme (New England BioLabs), 2 μ l of associated 10 \times NEB buffer and 7.2 μ l of
130 MilliQ water. Incubation times and temperatures were 2 h and 37°C, respectively. *Xba*I
131 digestion was performed following the manufacturer's instructions (Takara Bio. Inc., Otsu,
132 Japan), with a 20- μ l restriction digest containing 10 μ l of PCR product, 1 μ l of *Xba*I restriction
133 enzyme, 2 μ l 10 \times M buffer, 2 μ l 0.1% BSA and 5 μ l of MilliQ water. Incubation times and
134 temperatures were 12 h and 37°C, respectively.

135

136 **2.3. Screening fecal samples for *Cryptosporidium* and trichostrongylid parasites**

137 **2.3.1. Sugar flotation technique for the isolation of eggs and oocysts and DNA extraction**

138 About 5 g of each fecal sample was crushed and mixed thoroughly with distilled water
139 to form a uniform suspension and was then immediately filtered through two layers of gauze
140 before decanting 14 ml into a centrifuge tube, which was spun for 10 min. The supernatant was
141 discarded and saturated sugar solution (minimum density 1.27) was added and mixed with the
142 fecal pellet using an applicator stick. The tube was then filled within a few millimeters from the
143 top with the sugar solution and centrifuged for 10 min. The tube was placed in a stable upright
144 rack and filled with additional sugar solution until a convex meniscus formed, then a 22-mm
145 coverslip was placed on top. This was allowed to sit for 1 h to allow parasitic eggs and oocysts

146 to float to the top of the tube and collect on the coverslip, as determined under a microscope.
147 The coverslip was then gently removed and rinsed with 10 ml distilled water in a 50 ml tube
148 with vigorous shaking. Then fluid was transferred to a centrifuge tube and centrifuged for 10
149 min (Cox and Todd, 1962). The supernatant was removed and the sediment was collected in
150 Eppendorf tubes and stored at $\square 20^{\circ}\text{C}$ for DNA extraction. Using the QIAamp DNA stool Mini
151 Kit (Qiagen), DNA was extracted following the manufacturer's protocol and DNA eluted with
152 100 μl AE buffer.

153

154 **2.3.2. Nested PCR detection of *Cryptosporidium* and typing/subtyping analysis**

155 An 834-bp segment of the *Cryptosporidium* small subunit (SSU) rRNA gene was
156 amplified by nested PCR using primers previously described by Xiao *et al.* (1999^a) and Xiao *et*
157 *al.*, (2001). PCR reactions were carried out in a 25- μl total volume consisting of 2.5 μl of 10 \times
158 PCR buffer with 15 mM MgCl_2 , 2.5 μl dNTPs (2 mM), 0.5 μl (25 μM) each of the forward and
159 reverse primers, 0.2 μl of AmpliTaq Gold polymerase (5 U/ μl) and 5 μl of DNA template. The
160 reaction mixture was treated at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 40 cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 55°C for
161 45 s and 72°C for 1 min, with a final extension step at 72°C for 7 min. The secondary positive
162 PCR products were digested separately with two restriction enzymes (*SspI*, *VspI*). Each 20- μl
163 restriction digest contained 10 μl of PCR product, 0.8 μl of *SspI* restriction enzyme (New
164 England BioLabs), 2 μl of associated 10 \times NEB buffer and 7.2 μl of MilliQ water. Incubation
165 times and temperatures were 1 h and 37°C , respectively. For *VspI* digestion, each 20- μl
166 restriction digest contained 10 μl of PCR product, 1 μl of restriction enzyme (Thermo Fisher
167 Scientific, St. Louis, MO, USA), 2 μl of associated 10 \times Buffer O and 7 μl of MilliQ water.
168 Incubation times and temperatures were 1 h and 37°C , respectively.

169 Subtyping of *Cryptosporidium parvum* isolates was achieved by amplifying a fragment
170 of the *gp60* gene using nested PCR, with the primers described by Alves *et al.* (2003), and PCR
171 cycling was performed as previously described (Trotz-Williams *et al.*, 2006).

172

173 **2.3.3. PCR detection of trichostrongylid nematodes using species-specific primers**

174 To assess the incidence of Trichostrongylidae species that are shared between
175 dromedary camels and other ruminants, primers of the second internal transcribed spacer (ITS-
176 2) region of ribosomal DNA (rDNA) were used. Five species-specific primers for *Haemonchus*
177 *contortus*, *Teladorsagia circumcincta*, *Trichostrongylus axei*, *Trichostrongylus colubriformis*
178 and *Cooperia oncophora*, together with a pair of generic primers (Bisset *et al.*, 2014), were
179 used in a simplex PCR approach. The PCR reactions were carried out in a 25- μ l total volume
180 consisting of 2.5 μ l of 10 \times PCR buffer with 15 mM MgCl₂, 2.5 μ l dNTPs (2 mM), 0.5 μ l (25
181 μ M) each of the forward and reverse primers (Table S1), 0.2 μ l of AmpliTaq Gold polymerase
182 (5 U/ μ l) and 5 μ l of DNA template. The reaction mixture was treated at 95°C for 8 min, followed
183 by 40 cycles of 94°C for 1 min, 55°C for 1 min and 72°C for 2 min, with a final extension step
184 at 72°C for 7 min. Generic primers were firstly used to screen microscopy positive samples,
185 then PCR reactions were performed using appropriate specific primers (forward or reverse) in
186 combination with one of the generic primers. Moreover, a pair of primers that amplify the ITS-2
187 region of *Marshallagia marshalli* was used to detect this parasite, according to a protocol
188 reported by Dallas *et al.* (2000).

189

190 **2.4. Sequencing analysis**

191 All secondary *Cryptosporidium*-positive PCR products of the SSU rRNA and *gp60*
192 genes were cloned and sequenced, in addition to the 3'-SAG2 amplicon of *T. gondii*. To confirm

193 the specificity of the primers used for PCR detection of Trichostrongylid nematodes, between
194 two and four positive isolates were cloned and sequenced, including the ITS-2 generic products.
195 Amplicons from all selected isolates were separated by electrophoresis on 1% agarose gels and
196 bands were excised from the gel and purified using the NucleoSpin® Gel and PCR Clean-up
197 kit (Macherey-Nagel, Diiren, Germany), and their quantity and purity were evaluated using a
198 NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The
199 purified amplicons were cloned using pCR™4-TOPO® TA Cloning Kits for Sequencing
200 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, St. Louis, MO, USA). The plasmid construct was purified using the
201 QIA prep®Spin Miniprep Kit (Qiagen) and between two and five positive clones for each
202 isolate were sequenced (bidirectionally using the M13 forward and reverse primers), with the
203 Bigdye Terminator Cycle Sequencing Kit (Applied Biosystems) using a 3100 Genetic Analyzer
204 (Applied Biosystems). All sequences were aligned with each other and with reference
205 sequences obtained from the GenBank database by Basic Local Alignment Search Tool
206 (BLAST) analyses.

207 *Sarcocystis* spp. with different RFLP profiles was directly sequenced in two directions
208 using the same PCR primers. Kits used for the purification and sequencing of amplicons were
209 the same.

210 A phylogenetic tree of SSU rRNA gene sequences of *Cryptosporidium* spp. was
211 constructed using the maximum likelihood (ML) method. The nucleotide substitution models
212 with the best fit to the data set were selected using the MEGA6 software. The Tamura 3-
213 parameter model with gamma distribution (T92+G) was used. Sequences of the SSU rRNA
214 gene of *Cryptosporidium* from camels and other species were retrieved from the GenBank
215 database and were used for phylogenetic analysis. The *Eimeria tenella* sequence was retrieved
216 from the GenBank database (AF026388) and was used as outgroup.

217 Representative nucleotide sequences obtained in this study were deposited in the
218 GenBank database under accession numbers MK491508 to MK491512, MK936874 to
219 MK936889, MK948875, MK948876 and MK955943 (Table S3).

220

221 3. Results

222 PCR was used to detect *T. gondii* using *B1* gene primers. Only one positive sample was
223 detected (1.1%, Table 1). Mn-PCR-RFLP typing for *T. gondii* was only successful for three
224 markers: 5'-SAG2 (type II), 3'-SAG2 (type II) and alt. SAG2 (type II) (Fig. 1A–C). Sequencing
225 of the 3'-SAG2 amplicon confirmed the presence of a *HhaI* restriction site, which characterized
226 this isolate as belonging to type II. This study revealed a higher infection rate with *Sarcocystis*
227 spp. in the investigated samples (64.4%). RFLP analysis of PCR products yielded a uniform
228 banding pattern with two different profiles for *XbaI*; one of them was not completely digested
229 forming three fragments and one was slightly digested (Fig. 1E). RFLP banding pattern was
230 divided into three bands: the upper band, which was equal to the undigested product in size
231 representing one genotype, and two additional bands representing the other genotype. *MboI*
232 gave the same electromorph for all samples (Fig. 1D). From the RFLP results, all positive
233 samples were suspected to harbor two molecularly distinct genotypes of *Sarcocystis* indicating
234 a mixed infection. A mixed infection, as indicated by the gel banding pattern after RFLP with
235 *XbaI*, is demonstrated by varying degrees of band strength indicating the dominance of one
236 genotype over the other. The amplicons from six isolates representing the two RFLP profiles
237 (*XbaI*) for camel sarcocysts were sequenced directly, the forward primer failed to generate a
238 sequence; however, the reverse primer provided a nearly full sequence. The identifiable reverse
239 sequence fragments (about 500 bp) were searched for *XbaI* restriction sites using NEBcutter
240 V2.0 software (New England BioLabs) and variation was demonstrated by a one nucleotide
241 substitution in the enzyme recognition site (TCTAGA to TCTAAA) (Figure S1A, B) generating

242 a restriction site for *Xba*I (TCTAGA) in one of the two genotypes. Moreover, two peaks were
243 detected at the variable nucleotide site (G to A) (Figure S1C) in some isolates, confirming a
244 mixed infection.

245 Six samples out of the 101 fecal samples (5.9%) were found to be positive for
246 *Cryptosporidium* spp. after nested PCR screening. RFLP analysis gave clear patterns for five
247 samples, with the same profile of *Ssp*I restriction enzyme (Fig. 1F), but showed different *Vsp*I
248 banding patterns (Fig. 1G). *Vsp*I digestion showed that four samples were similar, but one
249 sample was different and was suspected to be *C. parvum*. Sequencing of the partial SSU rRNA
250 gene revealed infection with *C. parvum* (two isolates, 834 bp), *Cryptosporidium* rat genotype
251 IV (one isolate, 830 bp) and one unknown genotype designated as camel genotype (three
252 isolates, 827 bp) based on their identity with other isolates in the GenBank database. Two
253 haplotypes of *C. parvum* were detected with a single nucleotide polymorphism at position 435
254 (T to C). Two haplotypes were detected of the camel genotype with two nucleotide
255 polymorphisms at positions 307 (G to A) and 494 (C to T). Sequence analysis of the *gp60* gene
256 revealed two *C. parvum* subtypes, IIdA19G1 (860 bp) and IIaA15G1R1 (866 bp). Phylogenetic
257 analysis showed that *Cryptosporidium* species formed two clusters that were statistically
258 different. One group contained *C. parvum* and the new genotypes detected in this study
259 (intestinal group), while the other group containing *C. muris* and *C. andersoni* (gastric group).
260 *Cryptosporidium* spp. designated as camel genotype formed a separate branch on phylogenetic
261 analysis (novel genotype) (Fig. 2).

262 In our study, trichostrongyle eggs were detected microscopically in 35 floats out of 101
263 examined samples (34.6%), in addition to *Trichuris* eggs. PCR screening using ITS2 generic
264 primers detected only 23 positive samples (22.7%). The species contribution of nematodes was
265 as follows: *Haemonchus* sp. (95.6%), *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* (65.2%), *Cooperia*
266 *oncophora* (60.8%) and *Trichostrongylus axei* (26%). Mixed infections with these detected

267 nematodes were highly prevalent (73.9%). The ITS-2 sequences revealed a high frequency of
268 minor differences represented by substitutions of one or more residues, while no insertions or
269 deletions were detected (Table S3, Fig. S2). A total of 15 haplotypes were detected comprising
270 *Trichostrongylus axei* (four haplotypes, two of 377 bp and two of 186 bp), *H. longistipes* (three
271 haplotypes, 379 bp), *T. colubriformis* (five haplotypes, 232 bp) and *C. oncophora* (three
272 haplotypes, 173 bp). In terms of *Haemonchus* infection, samples that tested positive using the
273 generic primer pair were cloned and sequenced and identified as *H. longistipes*, sharing 99%–
274 100% homology with species-specific sequences in the GenBank database. Maximum genetic
275 diversity was detected in the *T. colubriformis* ITS-2 partial sequences (232 bp) with up to five
276 nucleotide substitutions.

277

278 4. Discussion

279 It is important to investigate the genotypes of *T. gondii* in different food animals to
280 elucidate potential links with disease manifestations in human toxoplasmosis (Su et al., 2006).
281 Only one positive sample was detected among screened heart samples. Tissue samples were
282 limited in both volume and the amount of parasite DNA present, particularly not from clinical
283 cases or mouse bioassays. To alleviate this problem, a highly-sensitive method (Mn-PCR-
284 RFLP) employing 12 genetic markers (Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010) was used for
285 genotyping the single positive isolate. Mn-PCR-RFLP typing for *T. gondii* was only successful
286 for three markers: 5'-SAG2 (type II), 3'-SAG2 (type II) and alt. SAG2 (type II). One possible
287 explanation for this is that the *T. gondii* tissue burden is very low in naturally-infected camels.
288 Previous studies on *T. gondii* genotyping in camels reported type I, II (Abu-Zeid et al., 2005),
289 type II, III (Elfadaly et al., 2017) and type I, II, III (Kareshk et al., 2018), but lacked specific
290 criteria for the genotyping method and depending on single locus. Further studies should be
291 carried out to genotype this parasite in dromedary camels because of the limitations of markers

292 used in our study and previous studies. Moreover, isolation of the parasite is recommended due
293 to the possibility of lower parasitic burden.

294 *Xba*I RFLP analysis of *Sarcocystis* PCR products indicated that positive samples were
295 suspected to harbor two molecularly distinct genotypes of *Sarcocystis* in mixed infection.
296 Structural studies revealed the lack of comprehensive information on the taxonomy of
297 *Sarcocystis* spp. in camels. Two structurally distinct *Sarcocystis* species infect this animal,
298 namely *Sarcocystis cameli* and *Sarcocystis ippeni*, based on transmission electron microscopy
299 (Dubey *et al.*, 2015). Furthermore, Motamedi *et al.* (2011) reported the first molecular
300 characterization of *S. cameli* from dromedary camels in Iran and represented *Xba*I as an
301 appropriate restriction enzyme to differentiate *S. cameli* but the *Xba*I electromorph pattern in
302 their study may be of mixed infection (three fragments) instead of a single *S. cameli* infection
303 (two fragments). These discrepancies reveal that molecular differentiation between *Sarcocystis*
304 spp. infecting one-humped camels is still problematic and single cyst isolation is required
305 coupled with ultrastructural studies in an integrated approach.

306 Cryptosporidiosis is a zoonotic protozoan disease of a wide range of vertebrates
307 worldwide that causes a threat to human and animal health (Xiao *et al.*, 1999^a and Xiao *et al.*,
308 2001; Xiao *et al.*, 2002; Fayer 2010; Ryan *et al.*, 2016). Molecular and phylogenetic analyses
309 of the SSU rRNA gene have been widely used for genotyping *Cryptosporidium* species (Xiao
310 L., 2010; Checkley *et al.*, 2015; Khan *et al.*, 2018). Little is known about *Cryptosporidium*
311 species infecting camels (Table 2). Sequencing of partial SSU rRNA gene revealed infection
312 with *C. parvum* (two isolates, 834 bp), *Cryptosporidium* rat genotype IV (one isolate, 830 bp)
313 and one unknown genotype designed as camel genotype (three isolates, 827 bp). One haplotype
314 of *C. parvum* showed 100% identity with a *C. parvum* cattle genotype and *C. parvum* from a
315 dromedary camel in Algeria (accession no. LC270282). Another haplotype shared 100%
316 identity with *C. parvum* from deer in China (accession no. KX259140). *Cryptosporidium rat*

317 genotype IV shared 100% similarity with the genotype of brown rats (*R. norvegicus*) in China
318 (MG917670) and 99.73% similarity with isolate MG917671 (Zhao *et al.*, 2018), as well as
319 99.73% similarity with sequences from *R. norvegicus* isolated in Sweden (accession no.
320 JN172970) and 99.9% identity with different isolates from environmental samples of unknown
321 animals (accession no. KY483983, JQ413365, AY737581 and AY737578). Two haplotypes
322 were detected for the novel genotype (camel genotype), which shared 97%–98.6% identity with
323 other *Cryptosporidium* species. *C. parvum* was further subtyped into IIdA19G1 (860 bp), which
324 shared 100% identity (accession no. KM199738-KT235713 and others), and IIAA15G1R1 (866
325 bp), which shared 99.88% identity, with a buffalo isolate from Egypt (accession no.
326 AB712392). The two identified *C. parvum* subtypes found in dromedary camels in this study
327 have also been found in humans. For example, IIAA15G1R1 subtype was detected in humans
328 from Egypt (Helmy *et al.*, 2013) and other Arabian countries, such as Kuwait (Sulaiman *et al.*,
329 2005) and Jordan (Hijjawi *et al.*, 2010), while being most common in human cases in Scotland
330 (Deshpande *et al.*, 2015). IIdA19G1 subtype was isolated from humans in the Netherlands
331 (Roelfsema *et al.*, 2016), Sweden (Insulander *et al.*, 2013) and Portugal (Alves *et al.* 2006). The
332 demonstration of zoonotic *C. parvum* in our study and previous studies in dromedary camels
333 (Baroudi *et al.*, 2018; Zahedi *et al.*, 2018) suggests that dromedaries can be a potential source
334 of human cryptosporidiosis. The phylogenetic relationship among *Cryptosporidium* genotypes
335 found in camels suggested the diversity of this parasite and the susceptibility of camels not only
336 to camel-specific parasites but also to a wide range of parasites from other animals.

337 The family Trichostrongylidae includes the most pathogenic and economically
338 important nematode parasites of ruminants. Knowing which of these species are infecting
339 animals is extremely important due to differences in their pathogenicity and susceptibility to
340 anthelmintic drugs (Schnieder *et al.*, 1999; Humbert *et al.*, 2001; Jurasek *et al.*, 2010). The
341 similarities in size and shape of the eggs of different species of gastrointestinal nematodes make

342 their differentiation extremely difficult. Furthermore, the identification of third stage infective
343 larvae in cultured ruminant feces is challenging (Bowman 2014) and requires an experienced
344 worker to distinguish between the different genera (Taylor, 2010; Roeber *et al.*, 2013; Roeber
345 and Kahn, 2014). The development of molecular assays has been shown to be useful in the
346 specific identification of nematodes (Christensen *et al.*, 1994; Callaghan and Beh, 1994). ITS-
347 2 has been proven to be a suitable region for species differentiation of the family
348 Trichostrongylidae (Gasser *et al.*, 1993; Newton *et al.*, 1998; Chilton *et al.*, 1998; Heise *et al.*,
349 1999; Schnieder *et al.*, 1999; Dallas *et al.*, 2000; Zarlenga *et al.*, 2001; von Samson-
350 Himmelstjerna *et al.*, 2002; Wimmer *et al.*, 2004; Harmon *et al.*, 2007; Bisset *et al.*, 2014).

351 Morphological studies have shown that dromedary camels are parasitized by various
352 trichostrongyles which are shared between dromedary camels and other ruminants, even the
353 formerly camel-specific *H. longistipes* has been recorded in cattle and sheep (Kumsa *et al.*,
354 2008; Hussain *et al.*, 2014). There have been no attempts to use PCR for the antemortem
355 diagnosis of trichostrongyles from naturally-infected dromedary camels. In this study, we
356 evaluated the effectiveness of a standard PCR in identifying some important species of this
357 family. Oligonucleotide primers used in this study were tested by BLAST and ClustalW
358 alignment with ITS-2 (rDNA) sequences retrieved from the GenBank database. The specificity
359 of the selected primers was confirmed, with the exception of the *H. contortus* forward (Fd3)
360 primer. Single internal primer–template mismatches were detected between Fd3 and *H.*
361 *longistipes* sequences, but these types of mismatches had no significant effect on the PCR
362 product yield (Kwok *et al.*, 1990). In our study, PCR screening of microscopically-positive
363 trichostrongyles samples using ITS2 generic primers detected 23/35 positive samples, which
364 may be due to the lower numbers of recovered eggs or the possibility that samples were infected
365 with other trichostrongyles that were not detectable using these primers. In agreement with
366 some previous studies, *Haemonchus* spp. was the most prevalent trichostrongyles in dromedary

367 camels (Haroun *et al.*, 1996; Anwar and Hayat, 1999; Bekele, 2002). Generic primer
368 amplification of *Haemonchus*-positive samples and cloning/sequencing revealed *H. longistipes*
369 alone, confirming the lower specificity of the HacoFd3 primer. ClustalW alignment of *H.*
370 *longistipes* haplotype sequences obtained in this study (accession no. MK936878– MK936880,
371 379 bp) along with products amplified using the primer pair HacoFd3 - ITS-2 GR (MK936881,
372 90 bp), and the three primers ITS-2 GF, ITS-2 GR and HacoFd3, revealed single internal
373 primer–template mismatches (Figure S2). Although *H. longistipes* is the most common
374 trichostrongylid in camels, morphological studies also revealed *H. contortus* infection in
375 dromedary camels (Anwar and Hayat, 1999; Anvari-Tafti *et al.*, 2013). Intraspecies diversity
376 was slightly higher in the detected trichostrongyles, and was highest for *T. colubriformis* (five
377 substitutions, 2%), which may be attributed to the mixing of camels from different herds before
378 slaughtering and the great genetic variability of these nematodes in comparison with other
379 parasites (Braisher *et al.*, 2004). Our results were promising in terms of the detection and
380 characterization of camel nematode parasites which are shared between all ruminants. This
381 approach will elucidate the role of camels in the transmission of these nematodes by
382 antemortem diagnosis, which in turn may help in the development of control strategies against
383 nematodes, especially anthelmintic-resistant species. An important next step will be to couple
384 molecular and morphological data in the investigation of trichostrongylid nematodes infecting
385 one humped dromedary camels. This may allow a wider spectrum of species to be characterized,
386 especially those that are more abundant in camels such as *H. longistipes* and *Camelostongylus*
387 *mentulatus*.

388

389 **5. Conclusion**

390 These data showed that camels are promising animals in parasitology research and
391 further efforts are needed to characterize parasites infecting camels by molecular methods. Our

392 approach revealed unique *Cryptosporidium* genotypes infecting camels and high genetic
393 diversity of the investigated parasites. Moreover, this study revealed the role of camels in the
394 transmission of these parasites to other animals and humans, as some parasites (e.g., *T. gondii*,
395 *C. parvum*, *T. axei* and *T. colubriformis*) were found to be of zoonotic importance.

396

397 **Conflict of interest**

398 No financial or personal conflicts have been declared by the authors that could negatively
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400

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409

410

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613

614 **Figure legends**

615 **Figure 1** RFLP profiles for *T. gondii* (A, B, C), *Sarcocystis* (D, E) and *Cryptosporidium* (F, G).
616 Three markers, 5'-SAG2 (A), 3'-SAG2 (B) and alt. SAG2 (C), were used for genotyping of *T.*
617 *gondii* camel isolates. RH (type I), PLK (type II), VEG (type III) and TgC1 (camel isolate) were
618 analyzed for the three markers. (D) *MboI* digestion of *Sarcocystis* isolates (lanes 1–4) with a
619 non-digested isolate control (lane 5). (E) *XbaI* digestion of *Sarcocystis* isolates (lanes 1–7) with
620 a non-digested isolate control (lane 8). The thick arrow in electrograph E represents the typical
621 *XbaI* pattern consisting of three bands (thin arrows): the upper band (a), which was equal to the
622 undigested product in size, and two additional bands (b, c) representing the digested product.
623 Five *Cryptosporidium* isolates were used to determine the *SspI* (F) and *VspI* (G) banding
624 patterns of the camel genotype (1, 3, 4), *C. parvum* (2) and *C. rat* genotype IV (5). M: DNA
625 marker (bp).

626

627 **Figure 2** Maximum likelihood tree based on the SSU rRNA gene sequences of
628 *Cryptosporidium*, including *Cryptosporidium* from camels. Sequences from this study are
629 labeled. The Tamura 3-parameter method, modeled using gamma distribution was employed.
630 Numbers at the nodes represent the bootstrap values with more than 50% bootstrap support
631 from 1000 pseudoreplicates.

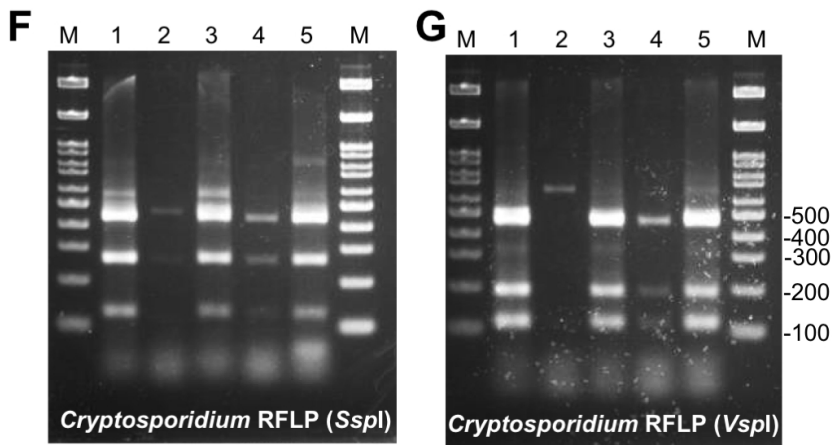
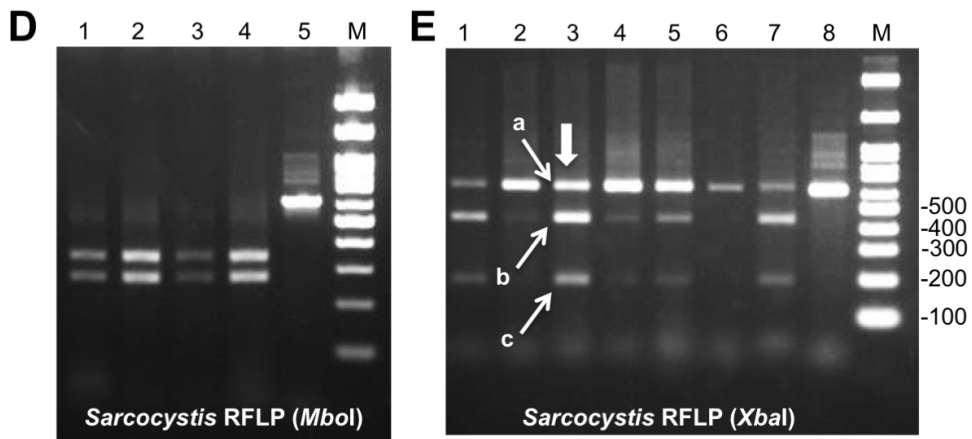
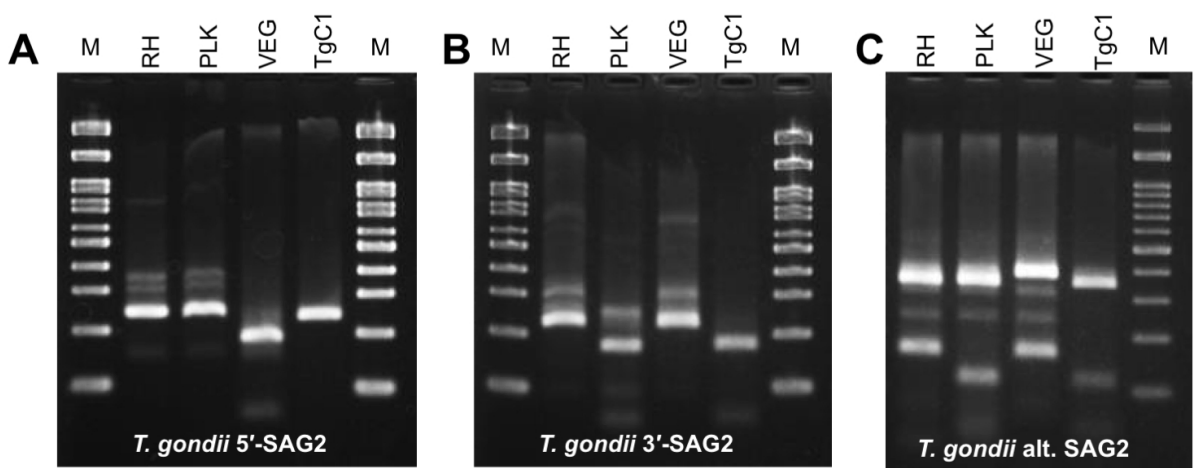




Table 1. PCR detection rate of different parasites in this study**Incidence of tissue parasites**

Name	examined	positive	%
<i>T. gondii</i>	90	1	1.1
<i>Sarcocystis</i> spp.	90	58	64.4

Incidence of GIT parasites

Name	examined	positive	%
<i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp.	101	6	5.9
Trichostongyles	101	23	22.7
<i>Haemonchus</i> spp.	*23	22	95.6
<i>Teladorsagia circumcincta</i>	*23	0	0.0
<i>Trichostrongylus axei</i>	*23	6	26.0
<i>Trichostrongylus colubriformis</i>	*23	15	65.2
<i>Cooperia oncophora</i>	*23	14	60.8
<i>Marshallagia marshalli</i>	*23	0	0.0
Mixed trichostongyles	*23	17	73.9

* indicates the contribution of each nematode species to the total number of positives not the total number of examined samples.

Table 2. Summary of genotyping reports for *T. gondii*, *Cryptosporidium* and *Sarcocystis* parasites in old world camelids

Animal species	<i>Cryptosporidium</i> species	Location	Diagnostic method	Reference
Dromedary camel	<i>C. muris</i>	Egypt	PCR	Abdel-Wahab and Abdel-Maogood 2011
Dromedary camel	<i>C. andersoni</i>	China	PCR-RFLP, and sequence analysis of 18S rRNA gene	Gu <i>et al.</i> , 2016
Dromedary camel	<i>C. parvum</i> (<i>C. hominis</i> If subtype-like)	Algeria	PCR-RFLP, and sequence analysis of 18S rRNA and <i>gp60</i> gene	Baroudi <i>et al.</i> , 2018
Dromedary camel	<i>C. parvum</i> (IIaA17G2R1)	Australia	sequence analysis of multiple loci; 18S rRNA, actin and <i>gp60</i> loci	Zahedi <i>et al.</i> , 2018
Dromedary camel	<i>C. parvum</i> (IIaA19G1- IIaA15G1R1), <i>C. rat</i> genotype IV and new genotype	Egypt	PCR-RFLP, and sequence analysis of the partial 18S rRNA and <i>gp60</i> genes	This study
Bactrian camel	<i>C. muris</i>	United States	PCR-RFLP, and sequence analysis of 18S rRNA gene	Xiao <i>et al.</i> , 1999 ^b
Bactrian camel	<i>C. muris</i>	Czech Republic	sequence analysis of two loci; 18S rDNA, and HSP-70	Morgan <i>et al.</i> , 2000
Bactrian camel	<i>C. muris</i>	Czech Republic	sequence analysis of the partial 18S rRNA gene	Kvac <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Bactrian camel	<i>C. andersoni</i>	China	sequence analysis of multiple loci; 18S rRNA, HSP70, actin and COWP	Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Bactrian camel	<i>C. andersoni</i>	China	PCR-RFLP and DNA sequence analysis of the partial 18S rRNA, COWP, and A135 genes	Liu <i>et al.</i> , 2014
Animal species	Other species	Location	Diagnostic method	Reference
Dromedary camel	<i>T. gondii</i> (type I, II)	UAE	N-PCR-RFLP SAG2	Abu-Zeid <i>et al.</i> , 2005
Dromedary camel	<i>T. gondii</i> (type II, III)	Egypt	N-PCR-RFLP SAG2 (5'-SAG2, 3'-SAG2)	Elfadaly <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Camels	<i>T. gondii</i> (type I, II, III)	Iran	N-PCR-RFLP GRA6	Kareshk <i>et al.</i> , 2018
Dromedary camel	<i>T. gondii</i> (type II)	Egypt	N-PCR-RFLP SAG2 (5'-SAG2, 3'-SAG2) and alt. SAG2	This study
Dromedary camel	<i>Sarcocystis cameli</i>	Iran	18S rRNA PCR; RFLP (<i>Xba</i> 1) and sequencing	Motamedi <i>et al.</i> , 2011
Dromedary camel	<i>Sarcocystis</i> spp.	Egypt	18S rRNA PCR; RFLP (<i>Xba</i> 1)	This study

Supplementary material

Molecular screening approach to identify protozoan and trichostrongylid parasites infecting one-humped camels (*Camelus dromedarius*)

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Table S1. Primer sequences used in this study

Markers	PCR primers (external primers)	Nested PCR primers (internal primers)	Amplicon size (bp)	Target	References
B1	F: AACGGGCGAGTAGCACCTGAGGAGA R: TGGGTCTACGTTCGATGGCATGACAAC	-	90	<i>T. gondii</i>	Bretagne et al., 1993
SAG1	F: GTTCTAACCCACGCACCCTGAG R: AAGAGTGGGAGGCTCTGTGA	F: CAATGTGCACCTGTAGGAAGC R: GTGGTCTCCGTCGGTGTGAG	390	<i>T. gondii</i>	Grigg et al., 2001; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al. 2010
5'-SAG2	Covered by the external primers of alt. SAG2	F: GAAATGTTTCAGGTTGCTGC R: GCAAGAGCGAACTTGAACAC	242	<i>T. gondii</i>	Howe et al., 1997; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
3'-SAG2	F: TCTGTTCTCCGAAGTGACTCC R: TCAAAGCGTGCATTATCGC	F: ATTCTCATGCCTCCGCTTC R: AACGTTTCACGAAGGCACAC	222	<i>T. gondii</i>	Howe et al., 1997; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
alt. SAG2	F: GGAACCGCAACAATGAGTTT R: GCACTGTTGTCCAGGGTTTT	F: ACCCATCTGCGAAGAAAACG R: ATTCGACCAGCGGGAGCAC	546	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
SAG3	F: CAACTCTCACCATCCACCC R: GCGCGTTGTTAGACAAGACA	F: TCTGTGCGGGTGTCACTCA R: CACAAGGAGACCGAGAAGGA	225	<i>T. gondii</i>	Grigg et al., 2001; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
BTUB	F: TCCAAAATGAGAGAAATCGT R: AAATTGAAATGACGGAAGAA	F: GAGGTCATCTCGGACGAACA R: TTGTAGGAACACCCGGACGC	411	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
GRA6	F: ATTTGTGTTCCGAGCAGGT R: GCACCTTCGCTTGTGGTT	F: TTTCCGAGCAGGTGACCT R: TCGCCGAAGAGTTGACATAG	344	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
C22-8	F: TGATGCATCCATCGTTTAT R: CCTCCACTTCTCGGTCTCA	F: TCTCTCTACGTGGACGCC R: AGGTGCTTGGATATTCGC	521	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
C29-2	F: ACCCACTGAGCGAAAAGAAA R: AGGGTCTCTTGCGCATACAT	F: AGTTCTGCAGAGTGTGCG R: TGCTAGGAAAAGAGGCGC	446	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
L358	F: TCTCTCGACTTCGCCTCTTC R: GCAATTTCCCTCGAAGACAGG	F: AGGAGGCGTAGCGCAAGT R: CCCTCTGGCTGCAGTGCT	418	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
PK1	F: GAAAGCTGTCCACCCTGAAA R: AGAAAGCTCCGTGCAGTGAT	F: CGCAAAGGGAGACAATCAGT R: TCATCGCTGAATCTCATTGC	903	<i>T. gondii</i>	Khan et al., 2005; Su et al., 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
Apico	F: TGGTTTTAACCTAGATTGTGG R: AAACGGAATTAATGAGATTTGAA	F: GCAAATCTTGAATTCTCAGTT R: GGGATTCGAACCCTTGATA	640	<i>T. gondii</i>	Su et al. 2006; Su and Dubey, 2009; Su et al., 2010
SSU rRNA gene	F: TTCTAGAGCTAATACATGCG R: CCCATTTCTTCGAAACAGGA	F: GGAAGGGTGTATTTATTAGATAAAG R: AAGGAGTAAGGAACAACCTCCA	834	<i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp.	Xiao et al., 1999 ^a ; Xiao et al., 2001
<i>gp60</i> gene	F: ATAGTCTCCGTGTATTC R: GGAAGGAACGATGTATCT	F: TCCGCTGTATTCTCAGCC R: GCAGAGGAACCAGCATC	~ 850	<i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp.	Alves et al. (2003)
ITS-2 rDNA	GF: CACGAATTGCAGACGCTTAG GR: GCTAAATGATATGCTTAAGTTCAGC	-	370-398	Trichostrongyle nematodes	Bisset et al., 2014
	HacoFd3: CATGTATGGCGACGATGTTCTT	-	90	<i>Haemonchus</i> spp.	Bisset et al., 2014
	TrcoRv1: ACATCATAACAGGAACATTAATGTCA	-	232	<i>Trichostrongylus colubriformis</i>	Bisset et al., 2014
	TraxFd2: GATGTTAATGTTGAACGACATTAATATC	-	186	<i>Trichostrongylus axei</i>	Bisset et al., 2014
	TeciFd3: AAATACTACAGTGTGGCTAACATA	-	295-297	<i>Teladorsagia circumcincta</i>	Bisset et al., 2014
	CoonRv1: CTATAACGGGATTTGTCAAAAACAGA	-	173	<i>Cooperia oncophora</i>	Bisset et al., 2014
	Mm-ITS2-F: TCCTGAATGATATGAATGTATTACC Mm-ITS2-R: CAATACAAATGATATATTGAACATACAG	-	90	<i>Marshallagia marshalli</i>	Dallas et al., 2000
18S rRNA gene	F: GCACTTGATGAATTCTGGCA R: CACCACCCATAGAATCAAG	-	~ 600	<i>Sarcocystis</i> spp.	Motamedi et al., 2011

Table S2. Restriction enzymes used in this study

Markers	Restriction enzymes and manufacturer	Incubation temp. and time	Target parasite
5'-SAG2	<i>Mbo</i> I, (New England BioLab, Ipswich, MA, USA)	37°C for 1hr	<i>T. gondii</i>
3'-SAG2	<i>Hha</i> I, (New England BioLab, Ipswich, MA, USA)	37°C for 1hr	<i>T. gondii</i>
alt. SAG2	<i>Hinf</i> I+ <i>Taq</i> I(double digest), (New England BioLab, Ipswich, MA, USA)	37°C and 65°C for 30 min and 30 min.	<i>T. gondii</i>
SSU rRNA gene	<i>Ssp</i> I, (New England BioLab, Ipswich, MA, USA)	37°C for 1hr	<i>Cryptosporidium spp.</i>
	<i>Vsp</i> I, (Thermo Fisher Scientific, St. Louis, MO, U.S.A.)	37°C for 1hr	
18S rRNA gene	<i>Xba</i> I, (Takara bio Inc, Japan).	37°C for 12hr	<i>Sarcocystis spp.</i>
	<i>Mbo</i> I, (New England BioLab, Ipswich, MA, USA)	37°C for 1hr	

Table S3. BLAST identification and accession numbers assigned to the isolates.

Parasite	Target gene	No. of haplotypes	Accession number	Sequence size (bp)	%identity	Genebank Accession numbers
<i>C. parvum</i>	SSU rRNA	2	MK491508	834	100	MK241967- MF671870 and others
			MK491509	834	100 ¹ - 99.88 ²	KX259140 ¹ -MK241967 and others ²
<i>C. parvum</i>	<i>gp60</i>	IIdA19G1 (1) IIaA15G1R1 (1)	MK948875	860	100	KM199738-KT235713 and others
			MK948876	866	99.88 ¹ -99.65 ²	AB712392 ¹ -KF128738 ²
<i>C. camel</i> genotype	SSU rRNA	2	MK491510	827	98.48	JQ178284
			MK491511	827	98.60	AY737581- AY737582
<i>C. rat</i> genotype IV	SSU rRNA	1	MK491512	830	100 ¹ -99.75 ² - 99.73 ³	MG917670 ¹ -JN172970 ² - MG917671 ³
<i>Trichostrongylus axei</i>	ITS-2 rDNA	4	MK936874	377	100	KC998724- KC337066 and others
			MK936875	377	100 ¹ -99.73 ²	JQ889794 ¹ -KC998724 ²
			MK936876	186	98.39	KY355033- KF880746 and others
			MK936877	186	99.46	KY355033- KF880746 and others
<i>Haemonchus longistipes</i>	ITS-2 rDNA	3	MK936878	379	98.94	AB682685- AB682684- AB682683
			MK936879	379	100 ¹ -99.73 ²	KU891905 and others ¹ -AB682685 ²
			MK936880	379	99.66 ¹ -99.47 ²	KU891905 ¹ -AB682685 ²
<i>Trichostrongylus colubriformis</i>	ITS-2 rDNA	5	MK936882	232	100 ¹ -98.71 ²	JF276021 ¹ -KR002111 and others ²
			MK936883	232	98.71	KR002111 and others
			MK936884	232	99.14	KR002111 and others
			MK936885	232	99.31 ¹ - 98.71 ²	JF276021 ¹ - KR002111 and others ²
<i>Cooperia oncophora</i>	ITS-2 rDNA	3	MK936886	173	100 ¹ - 99.14 ²	JF276021 ¹ - KR002111 and others ²
			MK936887	173	99.42 ¹ -98.84 ²	KC998744 ¹ -MH267774 and others ²
			MK936888	173	100	MH267774- KC998743 and others
<i>T. gondii</i>	3'-SAG2	1	MK936889	222	99.42	MH267774- KC998743 and others
			MK955943	222	100	MH606150

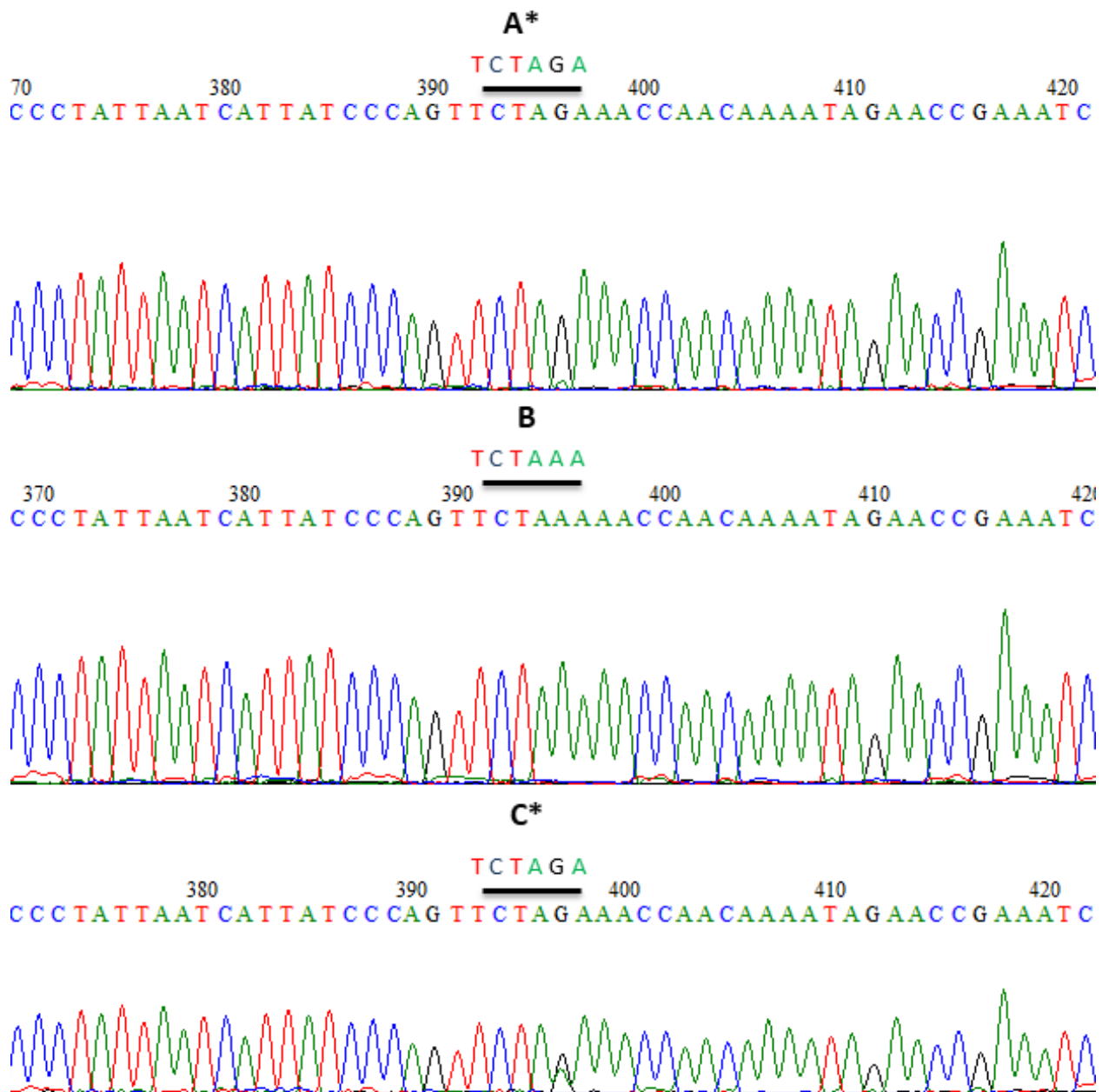


Figure S1 Chromatogram surrounding the *Xba*I restriction site within the 18S rRNA sequence of *Sarcocystis* DNA extracted from the studied camels. Horizontal bars are located over the nucleotides of interest that exhibit polymorphisms used to distinguish haplotypes. Asterisks indicate *Xba*I restriction sites.

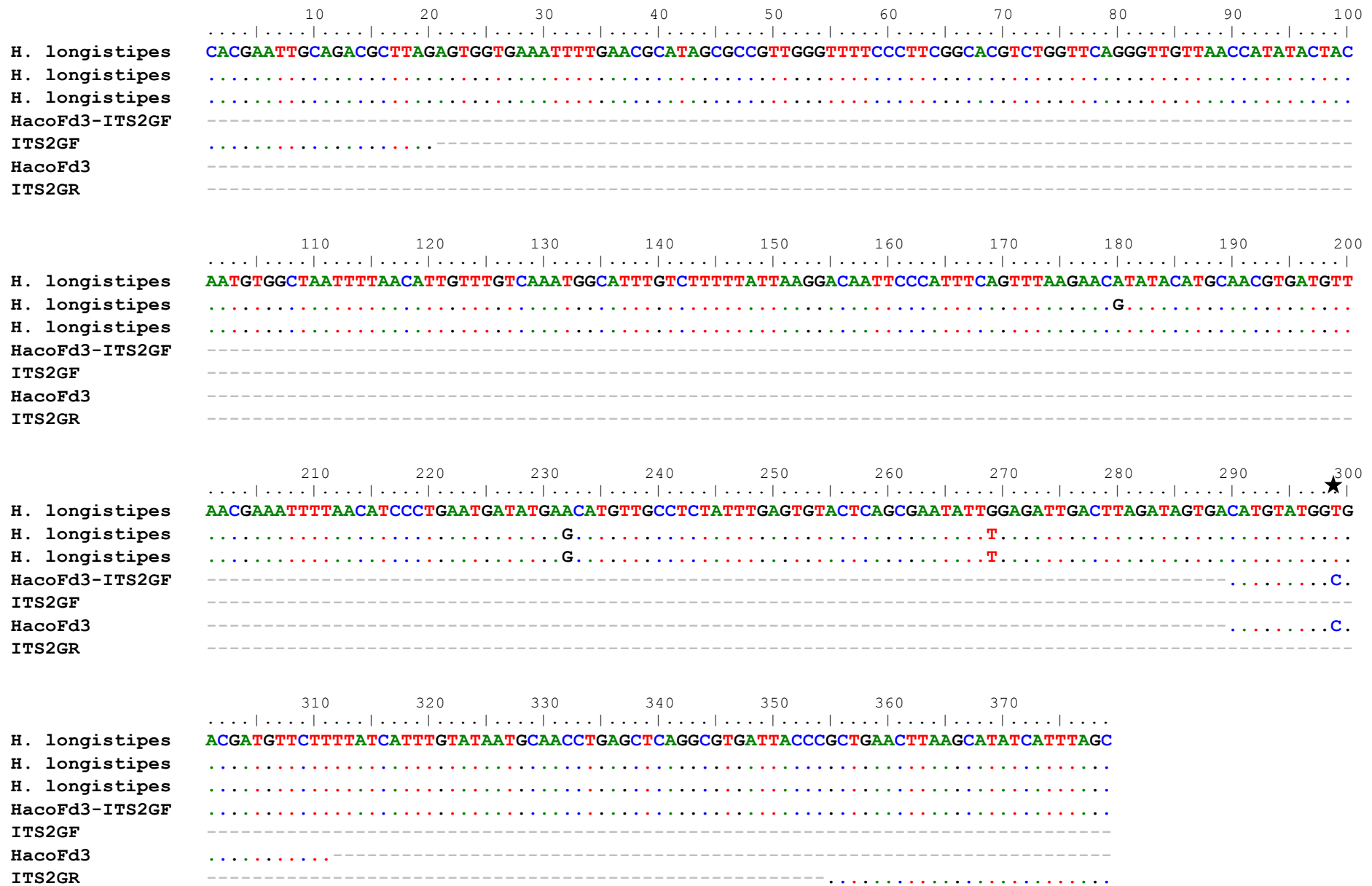


Figure S2 Alignment of the *Haemonchus longistipes* haplotype sequences obtained in this study (accession numbers: MK936878–MK936880, 379 bp) and amplified product from the primer pair HacoFd3 - ITS-2 GR (MK936881, 90 bp) and the three primers ITS-2 GF, ITS-2 GR and HacoFd3. Asterisk indicates the nucleotide polymorphism site between the target sequence and the primer-amplified products.

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