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Article



- Development of a molecular snail xenomonitoring
 assay to detect *Schistosoma haematobium* and *S*.
- 4 *bovis* infections in their *Bulinus* snail hosts
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25 Abstract: Schistosomiasis, a neglected tropical disease of medical and veterinary importance, 26 transmitted through specific freshwater snail intermediate hosts, is targeted for elimination in 27 several endemic regions in sub-Saharan Africa. Multi-disciplinary methods are required for both 28 human and environmental diagnostics to certify schistosomiasis elimination when eventually 29 reached. Molecular xenomonitoring protocols, a DNA based detection method for screening disease 30 vectors, have been developed and trialed for diseases transmitted by hematophagous insects, such 31 as lymphatic filariasis and trypanosomiasis, yet none have been extensively trialed or proven 32 reliable for schistosomiasis. Here, previously published universal and Schistosoma specific internal 33 transcribed spacer (ITS) rDNA primers have been adapted into a triplex PCR primer assay that 34 allows for simple, robust and rapid detection of Schistosoma haematobium and S. bovis in Bulinus 35 snails. We show this two-step protocol can sensitively detect DNA of a single larval schistosome 36 from experimentally infected snails and demonstrate its functionality for detecting S. haematobium 37 infections in wild caught snails from Zanzibar. Such surveillance tools are a necessity for succeeding 38 in and certifying the 2030 control and elimination goals set by the World Health Organization.

Keywords: bovine; control; elimination; schistosomiasis; urogenital; surveillance; disease; parasite
 40

41 **1. Introduction**

42 Schistosomiasis is a parasitic disease infecting an estimated 229 million people worldwide 43 caused by parasitic worms of the genus *Schistosoma*, infection leading to severe morbidity and 44 mortality due to the associated complications of worm presence [1]. Schistosoma spp. in Africa are 45 transmitted through specific freshwater snail intermediate hosts of the Bulinus and Biomphalaria 46 genus [2]. Infections occur when humans or animals come into contact with freshwater containing 47 infectious larval stages (cercariae) shed from the infected snails. Human schistosomiasis in Africa, 48 where at least ~90% of those requiring treatment live [3], consists of two forms of the disease, 49 urogenital and intestinal schistosomiasis, caused predominantly by Schistosoma haematobium and S. 50 mansoni respectively [1]. Bovine, ovine and caprine schistosomiasis is also of significant veterinary 51 and economic importance across sub-Saharan Africa [4,5] and is caused by infection of cattle, sheep 52 and goats with species closely related to S. haematobium (termed S. haematobium group species), 53 primarily S. bovis, S. curassoni and S. mattheei. Sympatric geographical distribution of schistosome 54 species and overlapping intermediate snail host use of certain schistosome species and geographical 55 strains, complicates disease transmission surveillance in (co)endemic zones [2,6,7].

56 The World Health Organization (WHO) aims for the elimination of human schistosomiasis as a 57 public health problem, defined as >1% of the population with heavy intensity infections (≥50 58 schistosome eggs per 10 ml of urine or ≥400 schistosome eggs per gram of faeces [8]), in all endemic 59 countries by 2030 [9]. Despite great advances in schistosomiasis control mainly via preventative 60 chemotherapy (praziquantel), the lack of protection against rapid re-infection together with the 61 prolific asexual replication of schistosomes within their intermediate snail host presents substantial 62 hurdles to achieving the targeted elimination of schistosomiasis. Very quickly snails can become 63 infected by eggs emanating from untreated humans leading to rapid resurgence of transmission [10]. 64 Therefore, adaptive treatment strategies that take into account the transmission dynamics of 65 Schistosoma spp. with their snail hosts are required to control and eliminate the disease [11].

66 To better understand the local transmission dynamics of different *Schistosoma* species, allowing 67 both human and bovine schistosomiasis to be monitored, a need exists for methodologies that detect 68 schistosome infections in the intermediate host snails. These tools for assessing Schistosoma 69 transmission could eventually be used during elimination programs to identify focal areas of 70 persisting transmission or certify elimination and / or transmission interruption [12-14]. Defining 71 ongoing transmission in snail populations through traditional methods of observing cercariae shed 72 from snails is particularly challenging in an elimination setting such as the Zanzibar Archipelago 73 where few snails (0.5 - 2.3%) are observed shedding cercariae [6,15]. Furthermore, snails with non-74 patent (including pre-patent) infections are missed using these approaches. Where cercarial larval 75 schistosomes are observed, these cannot be easily identified using morphological characteristics to 76 species level (although relative position of sensory receptors is of some value [16,17]).

77 Molecular xenomonitoring is a DNA-based method that has been developed to monitor the 78 transmission of several vector borne diseases including trypanosomiasis [18,19], filariasis and malaria 79 [20], helminthiases [21] and fascioliasis [22], including to some extent schistosomiasis [23-29]. 80 Screening snails provides evidence on the extent of environmental contamination (i.e. schistosome 81 miracidia penetrating snails) as well as environmental infection risk (i.e. schistosome sporocysts and 82 cercariae developing inside the (pre-patent) snails, eventually emerging from the snail (patent)). Most 83 of the available snail-schistosome xenomonitoring assays do not include internal controls [23,28,30], 84 an important feature in any diagnostic tool that helps prevent false negative results [27]. Many assays 85 just assume that a negative result means non-infection.

In the current study, we adapted available universal [31] and *Schistosoma* specific [27] ITS rDNA primers to design a three primer multiplex assay and tested this as a simple, robust and rapid xenomonitoring PCR assay to enable the large-scale screening of *Bulinus* snails for *Schistosoma* infections (*S. haematobium* and *S. bovis*). We use a conventional PCR based approach focused on simplicity, ease of data interpretation, sensitivity and specificity with a primary aim to provide a

91 xenomonitoring tool for monitoring *S. haematobium* transmission in endemic settings.

92 2. Results

93 2.1. In silico and in vitro Primer Evaluation

B. globosus and *B. nasutus* rDNA sequence data showed conserved primer binding sites for the
universal primers ETTS2 and ETTS1 [31] at the 3' end of the 18S and 5' end of the 28S, flanking regions
of the ITS, respectively. ETTS1 gave a 100% match and the ETTS2 primer showed just a single base
pair mismatch. The resulting snail amplicon size predicted from these alignments was between 12321263 bp and served as an internal snail control during PCR amplification.

99 Alignments of the Schistosoma specific ITS primers (ITS2 Schisto F and ITS2 Schisto R [27]) 100 showed 100% and 90% (2 mismatches) homology to S. haematobium and S. bovis respectively, with no 101 cross reactivity to the Bulinus reference rDNA data. When paired with their opposing universal 102 primers (ITS2_Schisto_F + ETTS1 or ITS2_Schisto_R + ETTS2) amplicon sizes of 538 and 835 bp were 103 predicted respectively for Schistosoma. With the addition of the other universal primer to each 104 combination (ETTS2 and ETTS1 respectively), the three-primer Multiplex ITS Xenomonitoring (MIX) 105 reactions were predicted to be able to produce distinct amplicon profiles for non-infected snails (a 106 single snail amplicon) and snails infected with Schistosoma spp. (three band profile). This was 107 confirmed by in vitro testing of the primer combinations (Figure 1).



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Figure 1. Singleplex (A; ETTS2 + ETTS1) and multiplex (B; multiplex ETTS2 + ETTS1 + ITS2_Schisto_F, C; ETTS2 + ETTS1 + ITS2_Schisto_R) PCRs on laboratory bred *Bulinus wrighti (B.w.)* and *Schistosoma haematobium (S.h.)* gDNA separately (1; *B.w., 2; S.h.)* and combined (3; *B.w. + S.h.)*. When *B.w.* and *S.h.* DNA is combined (A3, B3, C3), two amplicons are produced by the ETTS1 + ETTS2 primers, a larger snail amplicon (Sn) (~1200 bp) and a smaller *Schistosoma* amplicon (T) (~1000), with the additional *Schistosoma* specific primers producing either a 538 bp (B3; ITS2_Schisto_F) or 835 bp (C3; ITS2_Schisto_R) amplicon (S). A larger amplicon (A) (~1400-1600 bp) was also observed to be amplified in some reactions, this is thought to be a PCR artefact or additional primer targets in the *Schistosoma* gDNA. L1 = HyperLadder I (Bioline, London, UK). -ve = negative no template control.

118 To maximise amplification efficiency/sensitivity and to provide good amplicon size 119 differentiation, the multiplex PCR incorporating the internal ITS2 Schisto F (Figure 1B) was selected 120 for further development and testing. This primer combination was also selected as it targets the ITS2 121 region for Schistosoma containing four species specific SNP's enabling species identification (Table 1). 122 The MIX assay proved robust at varying annealing temperatures (55°C, 60°C Figure 2A, 58°C 123 Figure 2B) and with 58°C proving to be the most efficient, maximising specificity without decreasing 124 sensitivity. Each of the three amplicons were extracted from the gel and sequenced, confirming the 125 band identity and specificity of the primers to their target gDNA amplicon. These three bands are 126 described as the snail (Sn) (1232 – 1263 bp), trematode (T) (~ 1000 bp) and Schistosoma (S) (538 bp) 127 bands going forward. The secondary Schistosoma ITS xenomonitoring (SIX) PCR, solely targeting the 128 Schistosoma amplicon proved robust, enabling single amplicon generation and sequencing (Figure 3). 129 This provides a two-step PCR methodology with the MIX PCR for the initial high-throughput 130 screening of the samples and the secondary SIX PCR to target specific samples for further infection 131 clarification.

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Table 1. Schistosoma species-specific SNP positions (including base position) in the ITS2 region.

	ITS 2 Schistosome species specific SNP positions (bp)				
Schistosoma species	SNP1 (90)	SNP2 (145)	SNP3 (195)	SNP4 (265)	
S. haematobium	S. h (G)	S. h (C)	S. h (G)	S. h (C)	
S. bovis	<i>S. b</i> (A)	<i>S. b</i> (T)	<i>S. b</i> (A)	<i>S. b</i> (T)	



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136	Figure 2. Multiplex ITS xenomonitoring assay trial at 55°C (A) and 60°C (B). Includes gDNA of Bulinus
137	wrighti of both BioSprint (Lane 1 and 5) and DNeasy extractions (Lane 2 and 6) and gDNA of
138	Schistosoma haematobium (Lane 3 and 5) and S. bovis (Lane 4 and 6). Combinations of B. wrighti and S.
139	haematobium (Lane 5) or S. bovis (Lane 6) gDNA shown. Sn = snail amplicon, T = trematode amplicon,
140	S = Schistosoma amplicon and A = non-specific amplicon or artefact. L1 = HyperLadder I. L2 =
141	HyperLadder IV (Bioline, London, UK)ve = negative no template control.



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- 143Figure 3. Gel showing the secondary singleplex ITS xenomonitoring (SIX) PCR for: 1) Schistosoma144haematobium gDNA; 2) S. bovis gDNA; 3) S. haematobium + B. wrighti gDNA; 4) S. bovis + B. wrighti
- 145 gDNA. ve = non-template negative control. L1 = HyperLadder I (Bioline, London, UK).
- 146 2.2. Analytical Sensitivity

147 The assay proved highly sensitive with a LoD of 0.02 ng and 0.002 ng of gDNA for *S. bovis* and 148 *S. haematobium*, respectively (Figure 4). Sensitivity appeared higher for *S. haematobium* (Figure 4), but 149 in both cases the assay's sensitivity is above that necessary to detect gDNA from a single miracidium, 150 which ranges from 1.6-3.65 ng/µl [32]. At lower *Schistosoma* DNA concentrations the 1005 bp 151 trematode band (T) lost sensitivity compared with the smaller *Schistosoma* specific band.



153 Figure 4. Sensitivity tests of ITS1-2-F PCR performed with serial dilutions of *Schistosoma haematobium*

and *S. bovis* gDNA in the presence of *Bulinus wrighti* gDNA. L1 = HyperLadder I. L2 = HyperLadder

155 IV (Bioline, London, UK).

156 2.3. Experimental snail infections

157 For the non-patent infections of B. truncatus with S. haematobium, preserved 24 h after exposure, 158 61.1% (11 out of 18) B. truncatus were observed to be infected presenting the Schistosoma specific ITS2 159 band (Figure 5). Infections were detected in snails exposed to 1, 2 and 7 miracidia. Two of the five 160 (40%) B. truncatus exposed to one or two miracidia and left for 11 weeks, did not reach patency, but 161 were also confirmed to be infected by the presence of S. haematobium amplicon (Figure 5: Lanes 20 162 and 21). The secondary SIX PCR was performed on all 13 non-patent infected snails and the single 163 amplicons were sequenced and confirmed as S. haematobium. Out of all the snails infected that 164 survived until the end of the experiment (11 weeks), 15% (nine out of 62) reached patency of which 165 two had been infected with two miracidia and seven with seven miracidia. One of these samples, 166 infected with two miracidia, was analysed using the MIX PCR giving the expected triple banding 167 pattern (snail, trematode and Schistosoma) (Figure 5: Lane 24). All three amplicons from this sample 168 (Figure 5: Lane 24) were gel extracted and sequenced confirming their identification. Interestingly, in 169 all the non-patent infections the large trematode amplicons (ETTS2-ETTS2) did not amplify (Figure 170 5), due to the low level of *Schistosoma* DNA present in the snails that did not reach patency.



172Figure 5. Experimental infections of Bulinus truncatus with Schistosoma haematobium (1-24) and field-173collected B. globosus infected with Euclinostomum sp. (Euc.) and field collected B. nasutus shedding174Echinostoma sp. cercariae (Ech.). The S. haematobium DNA amplicon is present (+ve) in 13 of the 23 non-175patent snails (11 at 24 hours post exposure and two at 11 weeks post exposure) highlighted by the176arrow. Lane 24 = B. truncatus sample that was shedding S. haematobium cercariae 11 weeks after177exposure. Positive control (+ve) in a mix of B. wrighti and S. haematobium control gDNA. L1:178HyperLadder I, L2: HyperLadder IV (Bioline, London, UK).

179 2.4. Specificity testing

180The *B. globosus* with patent *S. haematobium* (n=2) and *S. bovis* (n=5) infections showed the expected181triple banding pattern (snail, trematode and *Schistosoma* amplicons, results not shown) and following182gel extraction and sequencing the data matched those from the cercariae collected from these samples183(GenBank Accessions: MH014047 and MH014044, see [6]).

When the MIX PCR was tested on snails confirmed to be infected with other commonly found trematode species (*B. globosus* infected with *Euclinostomum* sp. and the *B. nasutus* infected with *Echinostoma* sp. (Figure 5: Lanes *Euc.* and *Ech.*), no *Schistosoma* amplicon was observed. However, there was strong amplification of the trematode band together with the snail band. These trematode amplicons were gel extracted, sequenced and the infections confirmed as *Euclinostomum* sp. and *Echinostoma* sp., matching data from the cercariae originally collected from each snail.

190 2.5. Testing on field samples

From the 94 field collected *B. globosus*, 33 were shown to be infected with *Schistosoma* spp. with amplification of the *Schistosoma* specific band (Figure 6). Among them, eight also presented the trematode band. The internal snail control was amplified in all samples apart from one. The one that failed is predicted to be due to poor sample preservation, gDNA extraction or PCR error and so was disregarded (Figure 6). Of all the samples that gave the *Schistosoma* specific band, the secondary SIX PCR (ITS2_Schisto_F + ETTS2) was conducted and all amplicons were Sanger sequenced. Two failed 197 to amplify but the remaining 31 produced the *Schistosoma* amplicon that all sequenced as *S*.

haematobium. One sample also gave the trematode band without the *Schistosoma* band indicating anon-*Schistosoma* trematode infection.



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Figure 6. Gel images for the multiplex ITS xenomonitoring (MIX) PCR amplicons for 94 non-patent *Bulinus globosus* collected from Wambaa, Pemba, United Republic of Tanzania. Text under each amplicon denotes the outcome of the *Schistosoma* sp. targeted sequencing where relevant (i.e. presence of 538 bp amplicon), which resulted in either *S. haematobium* (*S.h.*) or sequencing failure (F). Presence of a trematode band without the presence of the *Schistosoma* band indicates a non-*Schistosoma* trematode infection (Tr.). Other non-specific bands, in this case larger bands (NA) were also observed in these snail populations, which did not amplify with the secondary SIX PCR. x = sample failure with no control amplicon. Arrows highlight the presence of the ~1000 bp trematode band when present (n = 8). *B. globosus* with a patent *S. haematobium* infection (Cham10.1 see [6]) was run as a positive control (+ ve) and also represents the amplicon profile obtained for the seven patent *B. globosus* snail (five and two with *S. bovis* and *S. haematobium* infections, respectively (see section 2.4). -ve = the non-template negative control. L1 – HyperLadder IV (Bioline, London, UK).

213 2.6. Schistosoma *spp.* cox1 *RD*-*PCR*

Despite trying different annealing temperatures and gDNA template amounts used, the *cox*1 RD-PCR developed by Webster *et al.* (2010) [33] tested on the patent *S. haematobium* and *S. bovis* infected *B. globosus*, only generated the species-specific amplicon for *S. bovis* infected snails. PCRs for the *S. haematobium* infected snails repeatedly failed to produce a clear amplicon. The *cox*1 amplicons produced for the *S. bovis* infected snails were sequenced and the data matched that obtained from the cercariae collected and analysed from the snails (see [6]).

220 3. Discussion

Pre-patent and non-patent snail screening methods for schistosomes, such as molecular 221 222 xenomonitoring, offer a higher sensitivity over traditional snail shedding methods that can only 223 detect patent infections (observation of schistosome cercariae). Molecular xenomonitoring better 224 helps to assess the impact of schistosomiasis control interventions in local communities, particularly 225 where local elimination is being achieved and certification of the absence of transmission is suspected 226 at specific foci. However, the diversity of the Schistosoma species circulating in co-endemic areas 227 means that species specific methodologies are needed to prevent false positive data related to non-228 target species.

229 Here, we describe the development and application of a molecular xenomonitoring pipeline for 230 the detection and differentiation of S. haematobium and S. bovis patent and non-patent infections in 231 Bulinus freshwater snails, using three previously developed primers [27,31]. The MIX assay screens 232 for Schistosoma and other trematode species, whilst also incorporating an internal control, in this case 233 gastropod DNA, an important feature for any molecular diagnostic assay. The MIX PCR generates 234 clearly identifiable amplicons, of different sizes, for each target (snail, trematode, Schistosoma) which 235 are visible by simple agarose gel electrophoresis. However, the trematode target lacks sensitivity at 236 low DNA concentrations, probably due to its large size and PCR biases for small amplicons at 237 reduced gDNA concentrations. Interestingly, a PCR artefact (~1400-1600 bp) was also observed when 238 using the MIX assay in the presence of Schistosoma DNA, suggesting that the primers may have a 239 secondary binding site. However, this artefact is clearly identifiable from the main target amplicons 240 and does not mislead interpretation of the results.

241 3.1. Sensitivity of MIX PCR assay

242 Our in silico and in vitro testing of the MIX assay showed that the presence of S. haematobium and 243 S. bovis DNA can be routinely detected at low concentrations, and also was able to identify non-patent 244 Schistosoma infections in snails where the level of DNA varies depending on the development of the 245 infection. The LoD for *Schistosoma* DNA was ≤ 0.02 ng/µl, which is 80-fold lower than the minimum 246 amount of gDNA usually observed from a single miracidia [32]. This was also demonstrated by the 247 assay's ability to detect pre-patent snail infections 24 h after exposure to a single miracidium. This 248 provided sufficient sensitivity for the LoD of detection needed to detect any stage of snail infection, 249 from initial miracidial penetration of a single miracidium to full patency, in natural settings. The fact 250 that not all the snails tested from the experimental snail infections gave positive results is 251 corroborative with observations that, even in experimental systems, many snails avoid penetration 252 or destroy the miracidia rapidly upon invasion. The MIX and SIX methodology also proved robust 253 when used to screen 'wild caught' snails from Pemba, with uninfected, pre-patent S. haematobium 254 infected snails, and non-Schistosoma trematode infections clearly identified.

255 3.2. Benefits of an updated molecular xenomonitoring protocol for schistosomiasis surveillance

The molecular xenomonitoring protocol requires few consumables and no cold chain, and results can be interpreted using basic molecular laboratory equipment (thermocycler and gel electrophoresis) making the molecular assay accessible in lower resource settings, such as schistosomiasis endemic regions. The molecular xenomonitoring approach described here therefore provides a useful tool for monitoring schistosomiasis transmission, as has been outlined as a necessary method for leading toward the WHO 2030 goals for schistosomiasis control and elimination [9].

263 Molecular xenomonitoring surveillance techniques are often associated with diseases 264 transmitted by hematophagous insects, such as lymphatic filariasis in mosquito vectors [20,34–36] 265 and trypanosomes in tsetse flies [18,19]. However, several assays have been developed for detecting 266 trematode species in freshwater snails, including Fasciola spp. [22,37-44], other wildlife trematode 267 species [45] and medically important schistosome species; S. japonicum [46,47], S. mansoni 268 [24,27,28,48–54] and S. haematobium [23,26,27,30,52,54,55]. The first developed assay for the molecular 269 detection of S. haematobium DNA in Bulinus employed the highly repetitive Dra1 target and this has 270 been the marker of choice for studies investigating *S. haematobium* infections in snails due to its high 271 sensitivity [55]. However, the specificity of the Dra1 and interpretation of results can be problematic 272 due to the frequent false positive and negative results, lack of internal control, and difficulties in 273 interpreting the amplicon patterns. Furthermore this marker does not allow for species identification. 274 Kane et al. (2013) [54] employed the use of another repetitive marker, intergenic spacer (IGS), for the 275 detection of snail infections and a post amplification restriction digest allowed for downstream 276 species identification of S. haematobium and S. bovis. However the method lacks internal controls. In 277 addition, many of these assays use quantitative-PCR (qPCR), rather than conventional PCR/gel 278 electrophoresis. Although able to quantify levels of DNA within a sample, qPCR is more arduous to

carry out and lesser suited for use in endemic settings. However, recent technological advances in sample preparation and DNA extraction methods have demonstrated robust field setting methodologies to conduct qPCR analysis capable of detecting avian trematodes and host species in Canadian lakes [56–58], which could potentially be modified to suit the detection of human and bovine schistosomes in sub-Saharan Africa, although cost and throughput would need to be considered.

285 A recent assay designed by Schols et al. (2019) [27] is a six primer multiplex PCR, that 286 incorporates an internal snail control and offers a xenomonitoring tool for S. haematobium group 287 species that are transmitted by Bulinus snail hosts. Our study simplifies the multiplex process, 288 reducing the primer numbers and mitigating against PCR competition and biases that may occur 289 with multiple primer combinations. It also allows for greater amplicon size differentiation (as 290 amplicon sizes can be more easily distinguished based on size) making results more interpretable. 291 The ITS rDNA is a favourable target within the repeat ribosomal operon of Bulinus and Schistosoma 292 spp., easily detected within small quantities of DNA due to the high copy number of rRNA clusters 293 within eukaryote genomes. The other key feature of the target relates to specificity. The ITS regions 294 of Schistosoma and Bulinus spp. can be routinely amplified using conventional PCR thanks to its small 295 size ~1000 bp) and highly conserved flanking regions (5'18S and 3'28S) enabling the use of universal 296 primers (ETTS1+2) for multiple species [31]. However inter species heterogeneity, and to a lesser 297 extent intra species heterogeneity (Pennance et al., unpublished observations), of the ITS regions 298 allow for differentiation between species, such as those of the S. haematobium group [7,33]. The 299 internal Schistosoma specific primer is situated in a conserved ITS region within the Schistosoma genus, 300 with 100% conservation between several African species suggesting that it could be utilised for 301 several Schistosoma-snail transmission systems.

302 3.3. Limitations of molecular xenomonitoring approaches for schistosomiasis surveillance

303 From our study, we identified two limiting factors for the practical use of the methodology. First, 304 the laborious nature of testing each individual snail adds time and cost. Further sensitivity testing 305 should be performed to support the development of pooling strategies. This would help to determine 306 whether infections are still detected when the Schistosoma DNA is diluted in the presence of much 307 higher concentrations of snail DNA, which may inhibit the reaction. Pooling strategies have been 308 successful for arthropod xenomonitoring protocols [18] and would allow for higher throughput of 309 samples required for screening large snail populations, such as those encountered for 310 schistosomiasis.

311 Second, a limitation does come with the need for the secondary screening (SIX PCR) of the 312 Schistosoma amplicon, via sequencing, to confirm species. Despite best efforts, rapid species 313 diagnostics, such as the rapid diagnostic cox1 RD-PCR developed by Webster et al. (2010) [33] to 314 determine adult worm and larval stage species identity, was not robust when snail DNA was present, 315 particularly for S. haematobium infections. The cox1 RD-PCR was suggested as a secondary screening 316 method by Schols et al. (2019) [27] but it was only theoretically examined as part of that study. Clearly 317 further 'wet lab' testing on infected snails is needed. In regions where Schistosoma hybridisation 318 occurs, mitochondrial DNA analysis would be necessary, since both nuclear and mitochondrial DNA 319 is required for hybrid identification [33]. Unfortunately, as with most diagnostics there is a balance 320 between sensitivity and specificity, with sensitivity increasing and specificity decreasing, usually due 321 to the nature of the biomedical targets. Here, rapid screening with high sensitivity was a priority due 322 to the extremely low levels of infections in our study sites, with secondary species-specific screening 323 only required on a small subset of samples that were identified as infected. Moreover, Zanzibar was 324 previously thought to be a zone of S. haematobium transmission only, although with the recent 325 occurrence of S. bovis transmission being observed [6], the additional species specific screening is 326 warranted. However, the need for the secondary screening step for Schistosoma species identification 327 does need further exploration such as trialing more direct methods that mitigate DNA sequencing, 328 for example, amplicon enzyme restriction digestion demonstrated in Kane et al. (2013) [54]. However, 329 it is also important to gather detailed information, as is obtained through DNA sequencing and

analysis, on species complexities and diversity within target endemic zones to optimise focal
 surveillance strategies [6,7]. It is likely that xenomonitoring methods may need to be adapted to
 specific endemic zones due to geographical genetic difference of the target organisms and potential
 unidentified species.

334 4. Materials and Methods

335 4.1. Primer selection and in silico evaluation

336 The universal primer pair, ETTS2 and ETTS1 (Table 2 and Figure 7), was selected for the 337 development of the internal control for the assay. They anneal to conserved flanking regions either 338 side of the ITS(1+2) rDNA region of Schistosoma spp., amplifying the full ITS rDNA regions resulting 339 in an amplicon of ~ 1005 bp [6,7,31,33]. These primers have also been demonstrated to amplify the 340 full ITS rDNA region of other organisms including intermediate gastropod hosts. Primer cross 341 reactivity with the target Bulinus snail hosts was further confirmed through alignments of the ETTS2 342 and ETTS1 primers with B. globosus and B. nasutus rDNA regions, available from ongoing projects 343 (Briscoe et al. unpublished data, Pennance et al. unpublished data).

344 To develop the Schistosoma specific target, two Schistosoma specific primers (ITS2_Schisto_F and 345 ITS2 Schisto R) published by Schols et al. (2019) [27] were selected targeting the internal ITS1 and 346 ITS2 rDNA regions of Schistosoma (Figure 7). These were further tested in silico for specificity by 347 stringently aligning them with rDNA sequence data (Briscoe et al., unpublished data; Pennance et al., 348 unpublished data) of a single B. globosus and B. nasutus from both Unguja and Pemba island 349 (Zanzibar, United Republic of Tanzania) and those previously published for Schistosoma spp. [59,60]. 350 All alignments were performed using Sequencher v5.4.6 (Gene Codes Corporation, Michigan, 351 USA) and primer positions were used to predict the specific amplicon sizes that would result 352 following amplification of snail and schistosome DNA using the different primer combinations of 353 ETTS1, ETTS2, ITS2_Schisto_F and ITS2_Schisto_R.

354 355

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Table 2. Details of the primers selected for the development of the xenomonitoring assay. Universal (U) and specific (S) denotes whether the primers universally targets both *Schistosoma* and snail or just specifically target *Schistosoma* DNA.

Primer (direction)	Primer Sequence (5'-3')	Primer position	State	Reference
ETTS1 (Reverse)	TGCTTAAGTTCAGCGGG	28S 5' end (ITS2 3' flanking region)	U	Kane <i>et al.</i> (1994) [31]
ETTS2 (Forward)	TAACAAGGTTTCCGTAGGTGA	18S 3' region (ITS1 5' flanking region)	U	Kane <i>et al.</i> (1994) [31]
ITS2_Schisto_F (Forward)	GGAAACCAATGTATGGGATTATTG	ITS1 3' end (5.8S 5' flanking region)	S	Schols <i>et al.</i> (2019) [27]
ITS2_Schisto_R (Reverse)	ATTAAGCCACGACTCGAGCA	ITS2 (middle)	S	Schols <i>et al.</i> (2019) [27]



358 Figure 7. Primer annealing positions flanking and internal to the ITS1+2 rDNA targets. Primer 359 positions are mapped to Schistosoma haematobium and S. bovis ITS1+2 reference data [59], and to a 360 Bulinus globosus and B. nasutus DNA reference (Pennance et al., unpublished data). For Schistosoma 361 DNA the primer combinations produce two fragments; 1) ETTS2-ETTS1 (1005 bp) and either 2) 362 ITS2_Schisto_F-ETTS1 (538 bp) or 3) ITS2_Schisto_R-ETTS2 (835 bp). For Bulinus DNA the primer 363 combinations produce one fragment ranging in size between 1232-1263 due to inter species variation. 364 For Schistosoma species identification four SNPs are present at bp positions 90, 145, 195, and 265 in the 365 ITS2 rDNA region, allowing differentiation of S. haematobium and S. bovis following ITS2 sequencing.

366 4.2. Bulinus and Schistosoma genomic DNA extractions

367 Whole soft tissue from Bulinus samples (as detailed below) available through the Schistosomiasis 368 Collection at the Natural History Museum (SCAN) [61] and other ongoing projects, including 369 laboratory and field samples, infected / non-infected and patent / non-patent, were used for the assay 370 development and validation. Genomic DNA (gDNA) from all Bulinus samples were extracted using 371 a modified tissue lysis protocol [6]. Two kits were then used to extract total gDNA from the lysed 372 snail tissue, the BioSprint 96 DNA Blood Kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) for high-throughput multiple 373 sample processing, and the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) for single sample 374 processing. Protocols were carried out according to the manufacture instructions.

Positive control *Schistosoma* gDNA was obtained from adult worms, *S. haematobium* (single
female worm from Zanzibar) and *S. bovis* (single male worm from Senegal), available from SCAN.
DNA was extracted following the DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit protocol according to manufacturer's
instructions (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) [60].

379 4.3. PCR conditions, amplicon visualisation and sequencing

380 All PCR amplifications were performed in 25 µl PCR reactions using illustra™ PuReTaq Ready-381 To-Go™ PCR Beads (GE Healthcare, UK) with 1 µl of each primer, in their different combinations as 382 stated in each section, at a concentration of 10 µM. gDNA templates (Schistosoma and/or Bulinus sp.) 383 were added at different volumes and concentrations as detailed below. The PCR cycling conditions 384 for all multiplex and singleplex reactions were as follows: initial denaturation 5 minutes at 95°C 385 followed by 40 cycles of 30 seconds at 95°C, 30 seconds at 58°C (unless stated otherwise), 90 seconds 386 at 72°C and a final extension of 10 minutes at 72°C. Visualisation of all PCR products were performed 387 by running 7.5 μ l of each PCR product, mixed with 2 μ l of Bioline 5x DNA Loading Buffer Blue 388 (London, UK) and GelRed for visualisation under UV light, on a 2% agarose gel for 90 minutes at 90 V. HyperLadder I and HyperLadder IV were run alongside the PCR amplicons to assess fragment
 sizes. Gels were visualised using a GBOX-Chemi-XRQ gel documentation system (Syngene,
 Cambridge, UK).

392 To validate amplification specificity, selected PCR amplicons from multiplex PCRs, where 393 multiple amplicons are present, were cut from agarose gels and sequenced following purification 394 using the QiaQuick Gel purification kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) following manufacturer's 395 instructions. For singleplex reactions, resulting in a single amplicon, PCR products were purified 396 using the QiaQuick PCR purification kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) following manufacturer's 397 instructions. Amplicons were Sanger sequenced in both directions using dilutions of the PCR 398 primers. Sequence data was manually edited using Sequencher v5.4.6 (Gene Codes Corporation, 399 Michingan, USA) and amplicon identification was confirmed by comparison to Schistosoma reference 400 data [59] and by BLAST analysis (BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool, NCBI).

401 4.4. In vitro primer testing and assay validation

402 All gDNA extractions from laboratory-bred Bulinus wrighti (not exposed to any trematodes and 403 therefore negative for infection) and from the S. haematobium and S. bovis adult worms were 404 quantified using a Qubit® Fluorometer using the dsDNA Broad Range (BR) Assay Kit (Molecular 405 Probes, Life Technologies). The gDNA extracts from the single adult S. haematobium and S. bovis 406 worms were normalised, using nuclease free water, to 2 ng/µl (+/- 0.05 ng/µl). The gDNA extract of a 407 *B. wrighti* snail control was recorded and kept at 31.3 ng/ μ l. Template gDNA (1 μ l) was used in each 408 PCR separately or combined and used to test the different primer combinations (shown in Figure 1). 409 The primers were tested as singleplex PCRs for the internal control (ETTS2 + ETTS1) targeting both 410 snail and Schistosoma gDNA and then as multiplex PCR's incorporating each of the internal 411 Schistosoma specific primers (ETTS2 + ETTS1 + ITS2_Schisto_F or ITS2_Schisto_R). All test PCRs were 412 initially performed at an annealing temperature of 55°C.

413 The multiplex primer combination ETTS2 + ITS2 Schisto F + ETTS1 was selected and taken 414 forward for further development and validation. This is referred to as the Multiplex ITS 415 Xenomonitoring (MIX) PCR. The MIX PCR was further tested at annealing temperatures of 58° and 416 60°C to enhance assay specificity, with 58°C taken forward for further experiments. Additionally, a 417 secondary Schistosoma ITS xenomonitoring (SIX) PCR, incorporating just the Schistosoma specific 418 primer (ITS2 Schisto F) and its universal reverse primer (ETTS1), was validated targeting just the 419 538 bp Schistosoma DNA amplicon. The SIX PCR was developed to obtain more targeted schistosome species data amplicon sequence analysis, of positive samples, following initial high-throughput 420 421 screening of snail populations with the multiplex PCR, which incorporates the internal snail control.

422 *4.5. Sensitivity testing*

423 Analytical sensitivity and limit-of-detection (LoD) of the MIX PCRs ability to detect low levels 424 of *Schistosoma* DNA, was performed using serial dilutions of *S. haematobium* and *S. bovis* gDNA. The 425 *S. haematobium* and *S. bovis* gDNA, normalised to 2 ng/µl (+/- 0.05 ng/µl), was diluted using nuclease 426 free water by one in ten (0.2 ng/µl), one in one hundred (0.02 ng/µl) and one in one thousand (0.002 427 ng/µl). 1 µl of each *Schistosoma* gDNA dilution was used in each multiplex PCR together with 1 µl of 428 the *B. wrighti* gDNA (31.3 ng/µl).

429 Sensitivity was also tested using controlled laboratory snail infections. Infections were 430 performed by the Schistosomiasis Resource Centre (SRC) (Biomedical Research Institute, Maryland, 431 USA [62]) using their B. truncatus / S. haematobium (Egyptian strain) model lifecycle system. Juvenile 432 B. truncatus (2-3 mm, n=133) were divided into three groups, with individual snails in each group 433 being exposed to either 1, 2 or several (~7) S. haematobium miracidia respectively (Table 3). Miracidia, 434 hatched in freshwater from eggs collected from S. haematobium infected male LVG Syrian golden 435 hamsters (see Ethical Statement), were added to individual B. truncatus snails which had been placed 436 in fresh snail water, in individual wells of a 24 well ELISA plates. A fine tipped Pasteur pipet was 437 used under a dissection microscope to capture and deliver either an individual miracidium or several 438 (~7) miracidia at a time, following the standard operating procedures (SOPs) conducted at SRC (see:
 439 https://www.afbr-bri.org/schistosomiasis/standard-operating-procedures/).

440 The snails were kept in their individual wells until no miracidia were observed swimming under 441 a binocular microscope, assumed to have penetrated the snail (~2 h). Following 24 h after initial 442 exposure to the miracidia, half of each infection group were preserved in 100% ethanol for molecular 443 analysis. The remaining exposed *B. truncatus* were maintained in their separate infection groups for 444 11 weeks to allow the infections to mature and since this was the first opportunity to conduct 445 sampling of infected snails. Snails were maintained according to the SRC's SOP's (see above). Snails 446 that died were recorded and promptly removed from the group. At 11 weeks post exposure the 447 remaining snails were individually induced to shed cercariae by exposure to fresh water and light. 448 Once it had been determined if the snails were infected and patent they were washed, to remove any 449 cercariae, and preserved in 100% ethanol for molecular analysis.

450 The MIX PCR was performed using gDNA (1 μl) extracted from six individual *B. truncatus* from 451 each group that were preserved after 24 h, two non-patent snails from group 1 and 2, and one non-452 patent snail from group 3 (11 weeks post exposure), and one patent (shedding) snail from group 2 453 (11 weeks post exposure) (Table 3). The secondary SIX PCR was performed on selected *Schistosoma* 454 positive samples, to amplify the 538bp *S. haematobium* specific amplicon for sequence analysis to 455 confirm that the MIX PCR was not a false positive.

456Table 3. Groups of Bulinus truncatus (B.t.) experimentally challenged with either 1, 2 or ~7 S.457haematobium (S.h.) miracidia and preserved 24 hours (h) post exposure or checked for patent S.h.458infections and preserved 11 weeks (wks) post exposure.

Infection Group	No. of <i>B.t.</i> exposed	No. of <i>S.h.</i> miracidia used	No. of <i>B.t.</i> preserved at 24 h	No. of <i>B.t.</i> checked for patency at 11 wks and preserved (no. shedding +ve)
1	45	1	22	221 (0)
2	43	2	21	191 (2)
3	45	~7	23	211 (7)

⁴⁵⁹

¹One *B. truncatus* died from each infection group during the 11 weeks post miracidia exposure.

460 4.6. Specificity testing and validation on field samples

461 As part of a longitudinal xenomonitoring project on Pemba in relation to urogenital 462 schistosomiasis transmission [6], 'wild caught' B. globosus and B. nasutus field isolates were available 463 for further validation of the MIX assay. Individual snails had been collected during malacological 464 surveys, individually checked for patent trematode infections by cercarial shedding and then 465 preserved in 100% ethanol for molecular analysis [6]. Cercariae from infected B. globosus were 466 preserved on Whatman FTA cards and identified using molecular methods as S. haematobium or S. 467 bovis from two and five snails, respectively [6]. In addition, individual B. globosus and B. nasutus (also 468 collected from Pemba), which were shedding two other trematode species, Euclinostomum sp. and 469 Echinostoma sp. respectively (unpublished data), were tested to investigate assay specificity. 470 Additionally, 94 B. globosus snails from Wambaa (Pemba) collected during November 2018, that were 471 not shedding any trematode cercariae were tested for infections by PCR.

472 All samples that gave the 538 bp *Schistosoma* specific amplicon (Figure 7), were further subjected 473 to the SIX PCR assay with the resulting amplicons purified and sequenced to confirm the species of 474 the infection. *S. haematobium* and *S. bovis* species identity was confirmed by analysis of the four species 475 SNP's that exist in the ITS2 region [7] between *S. haematobium* and *S. bovis* (Table 3).

476 4.7. Testing the Schistosoma cox1 rapid-diagnostic PCR (RD-PCR) for secondary species identification

The patent *B. globosus* snails collected from Pemba shedding either *S. haematobium* (n = 2) or *S. bovis* (n = 5) (see [6]), as detailed above, were further tested using the published multiplex RD-PCR

479 (see [27,33]) with an aim to provide a secondary species-specific screening method as described in

480 Schols *et al.* (2019) [27]. This multiplex RD-PCR, capable of differentiating *S. bovis* and *S. haematobium*

by species-specific amplicon size (*S. haematobium* (543 bp) *S. bovis* (306 bp), was performed following the published protocol and cycling conditions described by Webster *et al.* (2010) [33]. Different amount of gDNA (1 μ l, 2 μ l and 3 μ l) and PCR annealing temperatures (58°C, 62°C and 65°C) were trialed to investigate sensitivity and specificity. Amplicons were purified and Sanger sequenced as described above, using the species-specific reverse primers to confirm species/amplicon identification.

487 *4.8. Ethical Statement*

488 *Schistosoma haematobium* experimental infections were conducted at the Biomedical Research 489 Institute – Schistosomiasis Resource Centre (Rockville, MA, USA) animal facility maintained with 490 AAALAC full accreditation (Site # 000779), operating under the National Institutes of Health's Office 491 of Laboratory Animal Welfare (OLAW) # A3080-01. *S. haematobium* parasite material was collected 492 from male LVG Syrian golden hamsters following percutaneous exposure to cercariae. Hamster use 493 was approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) of the Biomedical 494 Research Institute for the Animal Use Protocol, #18-01.

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681 Sample Availability: Samples (DNA extracts of snails and parasites) are available from the authors upon682 appropriate request.



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683