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**The “leva” dilemma: Harnessing next-generation sequencing for the
surveillance of levamisole resistance in *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* and
Teladorsagia circumcincta in sheep across New South Wales**

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2025

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52 **Abstract**

53 The rapid escalation of anthelmintic resistance (AR) poses a major threat to the productivity
54 and sustainability of the Australian sheep industry. Gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) such as
55 *Trichostrongylus colubriformis* and *Teladorsagia circumcincta* are among the most pathogenic
56 parasites of small ruminants, with widespread resistance now reported across multiple
57 anthelmintic classes. Levamisole (LEV) remains one of the few effective compounds available
58 and is used in combination drenches to manage mixed-species GIN infections. However,
59 emerging reports of LEV resistance are cause for significant concern. The single nucleotide
60 polymorphism (SNP) S168T within the *acr-8* exon 4 region has been functionally validated in
61 *Haemonchus contortus* as a marker of LEV resistance, providing a valuable molecular target
62 for surveillance. This study aimed to establish a proof of concept for the molecular detection
63 of the S168T SNP in *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* populations using metabarcoding
64 and next-generation sequencing. Across 200 mixed-larval samples collected from New South
65 Wales sheep flocks, the average frequency of the S168T mutation was 34.64% in *Tel.*
66 *circumcincta* and 24.34% in *Tri. colubriformis*. These results provide the first molecular
67 evidence of LEV resistance alleles in *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* in Australia. By
68 integrating real-time parasite monitoring with SNP-based screening, resistance alleles can be
69 detected at low frequencies before phenotypic drug failure occurs. This approach provides a
70 foundation for improved anthelmintic stewardship and highlights the need for further research
71 to define the threshold at which genotypic resistance translates to phenotypic drug failure.
72 Overall, this work supports a proactive transition in AR management, shifting from reactive
73 treatment to evidence-based prevention.

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76 **Keywords**

77 Anthelmintic resistance, sheep, levamisole, next-generation sequencing, S168T

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102 **1. Introduction**

103 Anthelmintic resistance (AR) in gastrointestinal nematodes (GINs) represents one of the most
104 pressing threats to global small ruminant production, undermining animal health, productivity
105 and the sustainability of livestock systems (Charlier et al., 2022; Hodgkinson et al., 2019;
106 McLeod, 1995). In Australia, AR costs the livestock industry an estimated AUD \$785 million
107 annually through reduced growth, impaired wool quality, reproductive losses, and increased
108 mortality (Shephard et al., 2022). This burden is particularly severe in temperate regions, where
109 *Teladorsagia circumcincta* (small brown stomach worm) and *Trichostrongylus colubriformis*
110 (black scour worm) are highly prevalent and pathogenic to sheep (Craig, 2009; Roeber et al.,
111 2013a). The pathogenicity of *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* not only compromises
112 animal health and welfare, but also amplifies the economic and sustainability challenges posed
113 by AR in grazing systems (Barker & Titchen, 1982; Roeber et al., 2013a).

114
115 Levamisole (LEV), an imidazothiazole acetylcholine receptor agonist, has maintained efficacy
116 longer than other anthelmintic compounds due to its unique mode of action and historically
117 lower usage (Tyrrell & LeJambre, 2010). Its continued effectiveness against *Haemonchus*
118 *contortus* has driven widespread adoption in mixed-species infections, where resistance to
119 benzimidazoles and macrocyclic lactones is prevalent (Antonopoulos et al., 2022). However,
120 intensified reliance on this compound within combination drenches has coincided with elevated
121 levels of LEV resistance in *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta*, as demonstrated in
122 national and regional surveys (Playford et al., 2014). The “leva” dilemma encapsulates this
123 dual challenge: LEV is indispensable for controlling *H. contortus*, especially in temperate
124 regions, yet its extensive use in mixed species infections appears to accelerate resistance in
125 other critical GIN species.

126

127 Large-scale surveillance studies underscore the scale of this issue. Over a decade ago, a
128 national survey reported LEV resistance in 82% of *Trichostrongylus* isolates (n = 104
129 properties) and 86% of *Teladorsagia* isolates (n = 97 properties), with regional studies in
130 Victoria and Queensland revealing comparable prevalence (Lyndal-Murphy et al., 2014;
131 Playford et al., 2014; Preston et al., 2019). Internationally, declining LEV efficacy has been
132 documented in Argentina, New Zealand and Europe, often despite the deployment of
133 combination drenches (Hodgson & Mulvaney, 2017; Luque et al., 2021; Waghorn et al.,
134 2014). Collectively, these findings highlight the adaptability of GINs as a result of increased
135 drug selection pressure and indicate that even combination drenches may fail to provide
136 sustainable control without enhanced AR surveillance.

137

138 Contemporary diagnostic approaches for surveying AR largely rely on phenotypic
139 assessments, using observable traits such as larval development and egg production. The faecal
140 egg count reduction test (FECRT) lacks sensitivity and fails to identify resistance until
141 approximately 25% of the nematode population harbours resistance alleles (Martin et al., 1989;
142 Morgan et al., 2022). Compounding this challenge, species-level identification depends on
143 larval differentiation, an approach that is time-consuming, prone to bias from unequal species
144 survival, and incapable of resolving beyond the genus level (Dobson et al., 1992; Roeber &
145 Kahn, 2014). Critically, their inability to detect preclinical resistance means intervention only
146 occurs once clinical failure is evident, by which point the opportunity to prevent production
147 losses and contain the proliferation of resistance has often passed (Martin et al., 1989).
148 Consequently, resistance in *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcineta* is likely underestimated
149 relative to *H. contortus*, where genomic characterisation has enabled the development of
150 molecular diagnostics (Doyle et al., 2022).

151

152 As resistance escalates, molecular diagnostics offer a transformative opportunity for detecting
153 resistance earlier and with greater precision than conventional approaches, as they can reveal
154 resistance at the genetic level before phenotypic failure becomes apparent (Roeber et al.,
155 2013b). Among these, next-generation sequencing and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP)
156 screening permit the identification of resistance-associated alleles at low frequencies, enabling
157 proactive management interventions (Avramenko et al., 2019; Kotze et al., 2020). A prominent
158 advance has been the characterisation of the S168T mutation in the *acr-8* gene of exon 4 in *H.*
159 *contortus*, which has been functionally-validated in field-applicable diagnostics to be
160 associated with LEV resistance (Antonopoulos et al., 2024; Francis et al., 2024). Whether this
161 mutation or analogous markers occurs in *Tri. colubriformis* or *Tel. circumcineta* remains
162 unknown, representing a critical knowledge gap that constrains molecular surveillance and
163 leaves producers vulnerable to emerging resistance until clinical treatment failure occurs.

164

165 To address this deficit, this study investigates the presence of the S168T SNP associated with
166 LEV resistance in field populations of *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcineta* collected from
167 sheep across New South Wales. To date, no molecular screening of LEV resistance has been
168 conducted for these species in Australia, representing a key knowledge gap in national
169 resistance surveillance. The objectives of this study are to: (i) demonstrate the potential of next
170 generation sequencing as a high-throughput surveillance tool for detecting the S168T mutation
171 in *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcineta*, and (ii) map the distribution and frequency of this
172 resistance-associated SNP across 200 mixed-larval field samples. Collectively, this research
173 establishes the groundwork for integrating next generation sequencing into resistance
174 monitoring frameworks, contributing to broader efforts to safeguard LEV efficacy in
175 Australian sheep flocks.

176

177 **2. Materials and Methods**

178 **2.1 Parasitic larval samples**

179 Aliquots of third stage mixed larvae (L3s) were provided by Elizabeth Macarthur Agricultural
180 Institute (EMAI; NSW Department of Primary Industries, Menangle, NSW, Australia.) L3s
181 were cultured from ovine faeces submitted to EMAI for routine gastrointestinal nematode
182 diagnostic testing from 2022 to 2024 across properties in NSW. For each larval sample, the
183 postcode of origin, EMAI identification code, host species and larval collection date was
184 recorded. All samples were stored at 4 °C until required for further analysis.

185

186 **2.2 DNA preparation**

187 All parasitic material was pelleted by centrifugation at 2000 rpm for 2 minutes, and
188 approximately 20 µL of the pellet was extracted for DNA isolation: equating to ~2000 larvae.
189 DNA was extracted from the pellets using the Monarch Genomic DNA Purification kit (New
190 England Biolabs, Australia), following the manufacturer's instructions for tissue lysis. Blank
191 extraction controls (ddH₂O) were included in each batch to detect potential contamination
192 during the DNA extraction process. Resultant DNA isolates were eluted into 100 µL of elution
193 buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 9.0; 0.1 mM EDTA) and stored at -20 °C until further use.
194 Internal Transcribed Spacer 2 (ITS2) nemabiome metabarcoding was performed to determine
195 the species composition of mixed-larval samples. Samples which acquired less than 1000 ITS2
196 total reads were discarded from further analysis, with samples that had over 10% DNA for both
197 *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta*, selected for PCR assays.

198

199 **2.3 Real-Time PCR assays**

200 Species-specific SYBR chemistry real-time PCRs were conducted to confirm the presence of
201 *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* in each mixed-larval sample. Reactions were prepared

202 using a Myra robotic liquid handling system (Bio Molecular Systems, Australia) at a final
203 volume of 20 μ L, containing SensiFAST™ SYBR® No-ROX mix (Meridian Bioscience,
204 Australia), 2 μ L of template DNA (1:1000 dilution), 400 nM each of forward and reverse
205 primers, and nuclease-free water added to volume. Primer sequences utilised were: *Tri.*
206 *colubriiformis* (forward primer S1188, reverse primer S1191) and *Tel. circumcincta* (forward
207 primer S1183, reverse primer S1184).

208

209 PCR cycling was performed on Bio-Rad CFX96 real-time detection system (Bio-Rad,
210 Australia), with an initial denaturation at 95 °C for 3 minutes, followed by 28-32 amplification
211 cycles of 95 °C for 5 seconds, 60 °C for 15 seconds and 72°C for 15 seconds. A melt-curve
212 analysis was performed at the end of each run to confirm specificity. No-template controls
213 (NTCs) were included in each assay to verify that amplification was specific to the target
214 sequence and that no contamination occurred within the reaction setup or PCR reagents. 200
215 samples producing adequate amplification (Relative Fluorescence Units above 2000) in both
216 *Tri. colubriiformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* primer sets were selected to send for Illumina
217 sequencing.

218

219 **2.4 Illumina next generation sequencing**

220 PCR products for *Tri. colubriiformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* from each sample were pooled at a
221 1:1 ratio and submitted for paired-end sequencing at the Ramaciotti Centre for Genomics at the
222 University of New South Wales. Sequencing libraries were prepared according to standard
223 Illumina protocols, and raw sequencing reads were provided as FASTQ files.

224

225 **2.5 Bioinformatic analysis**

226 FASTQ files were processed in RStudio (R version 2024.12.1+563) using the DADA2 pipeline
 227 (<https://benjjneb.github.io/dada2/tutorial.html>). Forward and reverse primer sequences for both
 228 *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* were imported (Table 1). Quality filtering, primer
 229 removal, error estimation, dereplication, and chimera removal were performed to infer
 230 amplicon sequence variants (ASVs). Additional cleaning steps were applied by transforming
 231 raw read counts to relative abundances and removing low-abundance ASVs (<0.5%) to reduce
 232 potential sequencing noise (Francis et al., 2024). Separate ASV tables were generated for *Tri.*
 233 *colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* and imported into CLC Genomics Workbench (Version
 234 25.0.1).

235

236 **Table 1.** Primer sequences imported into RStudio.

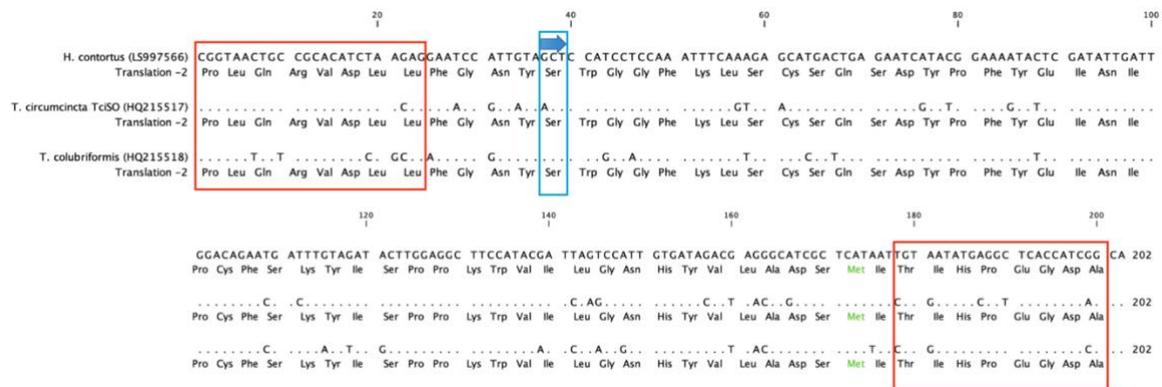
Primer ID	Sequence
LEV <i>Tri. colubriformis</i> forward primer	GGTAAYTGTMGYACAKCCAGCAG
LEV <i>Tri. colubriformis</i> reverse primer	GCGGATGGKGAGCCTCAYATCAC
LEV <i>Tel. circumcincta</i> forward primer	GGYAACTGCCGYRCATSTAACAG
LEV <i>Tel. circumcincta</i> reverse primer	GCTGATGGTGAACCGCATATCAC

237

238

239 ASVs were aligned against NCBI reference genomes for *Tri. colubriformis* TcoSO
 240 (HQ215518) and *Tel. circumcincta* TciSO (HQ215517), with a minimum threshold of 97%
 241 greatest identity for species assignment for *Tel. circumcincta* (Mejías-Alpizar et al., 2024).
 242 ASVs below this threshold were discarded from further analysis. Due to there being multiple
 243 species within the *Trichostrongylus* genus which infect sheep such as *Tri. vitrinus*, *Tri. axei*
 244 and *Tri. rugatus*, and there being only a reference genome available for *Tri. colubriformis*,
 245 there is inherent uncertainty in sequence assignment within that genus. Consequently, a lower
 246 identity threshold of 90% was applied for *Tri. colubriformis* ASVs. Species identity was further

247 confirmed through plotting ASVs against a phylogenetic tree with confirmed *Tri.*
 248 *colubriiformis*, *Tel. circumcincta* and *H. contortus* samples to visualise species clustering. An
 249 annotated *H. contortus* chromosome 5 genome containing the LEV-resistant S168T SNP was
 250 simultaneously imported and utilised as a reference to guide alignment and identify the
 251 corresponding codon in *Tri. colubriiformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* (Figure 1). Resultant ASVs
 252 with confirmed species identity were used to screen the acetylcholine receptor subunit gene
 253 (*acr-8*) located on exon-4 to determine the presence of susceptible or resistant alleles at codon
 254 168 (S168T SNP).
 255



256
 257 **Figure 1:** Alignment of the *acr-8* exon 4 region from *H. contortus* (LS997566), *Tel.*
 258 *circumcincta* (HQ215517) and *Tri. colubriiformis* (HQ215518) generated in CLC Workbench.
 259 The alignment illustrates conservation across species and the position of the LEV-resistant
 260 S168T SNP within the *acr-8* gene. Primer binding sites are indicated by red boxes, and the blue
 261 box marks the codon corresponding to the serine-to-threonine substitution at residue 168.

262

263 2.6 Data analysis and quality control

264 For each sample, the total counts of LEV-resistant and susceptible ASVs were determined in
 265 Microsoft Excel, alongside the total number of Illumina sequencing reads. Allele frequencies
 266 for the S168T SNP in *Tri. colubriiformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* were calculated in Microsoft

267 Excel by dividing the number of resistant reads by the total reads for each sample. For
268 visualisation of allele frequency distributions, figures were generated in GraphPad Prism and
269 Microsoft Excel.

270

271 **2.7 Mapping**

272 Shapefiles for Australia and Local Land Service (LLS) regions were sourced from the
273 Australian Bureau of Statistics (1270.0.55.001 – Australian Statistical Geography Standard
274 (ASGS): Volume 1 – Main Structure and Greater Capital City Statistical Areas, July 2016,
275 Australian Government). These shapefiles were processed and resistance allele frequency data
276 were integrated using R packages ‘sf’, ‘ggplot2’ and ‘dplyr’ (current versions as of 2025),
277 enabling the spatial visualisation of samples across NSW, showcasing the average, maximum
278 and minimum SNP frequency for each GIN species.

279

280 **3. Results**

281 **3.1 Sequencing and species confirmation of *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta***

282 A total of 200 mixed-larval samples underwent ITS-2 metabarcoding to detect and differentiate
283 *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta*. Across all samples, *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel.*
284 *circumcincta* represented an average of 22.93% (S.D. ± 0.25) and 24.96% (S.D. ± 0.21) of total
285 ITS-2 reads respectively. Quantitative PCR assays employing SYBR-chemistry yielded mean
286 cycle threshold (Ct) values of 27.69 (S.D. ± 2.92) for *Tri. colubriformis* primers, and 28.30
287 (S.D. ± 2.12) for *Tel. circumcincta* primers. Initial amplicon sequence variants (ASVs) were
288 rigorously filtered through NCBI BLAST analysis and phylogenetic tree placement to confirm
289 species identity. ASVs failing to meet species-specific sequence identity thresholds, as well as
290 samples with fewer than 1000 reads, were excluded from subsequent analyses to maintain data
291 integrity and analytical reliability. For *Tel. circumcincta*, 307 ASVs were initially detected, of

292 which 98 (31.9%) satisfied the 97% BLAST identity criterion. Six samples (EF0288, EF0369,
 293 EF0436, EF0565, EF0685, EF0734) were excluded due to insufficient sequencing depth.
 294 Following these quality control measures, 5,366,643 of 5,568,300 initial reads were retained,
 295 corresponding to a 3.62% reduction.

296

297 **Table 2.** Summary of data filtering and sequencing read retention for *Tri. colubriformis* and
 298 *Tel. circumcincta*.

Metric	<i>Tel. circumcincta</i>	<i>Tri. colubriformis</i>
Initial ASVs	307	338
Confirmed ASVs following species assignment	209	237
Confirmed ASVs	98 (31.9%)	101 (29.9%)
Initial Sample Size	199	199
Samples removed (<1000 reads)	6	1
Remaining Samples	193 (97.0%)	198 (99.5%)
Total Initial Reads	5,568,300	7,151,741
Reads Retained After Filtering	5,366,643	6,830,422
Total Reads Removed	3.62%	4.49%

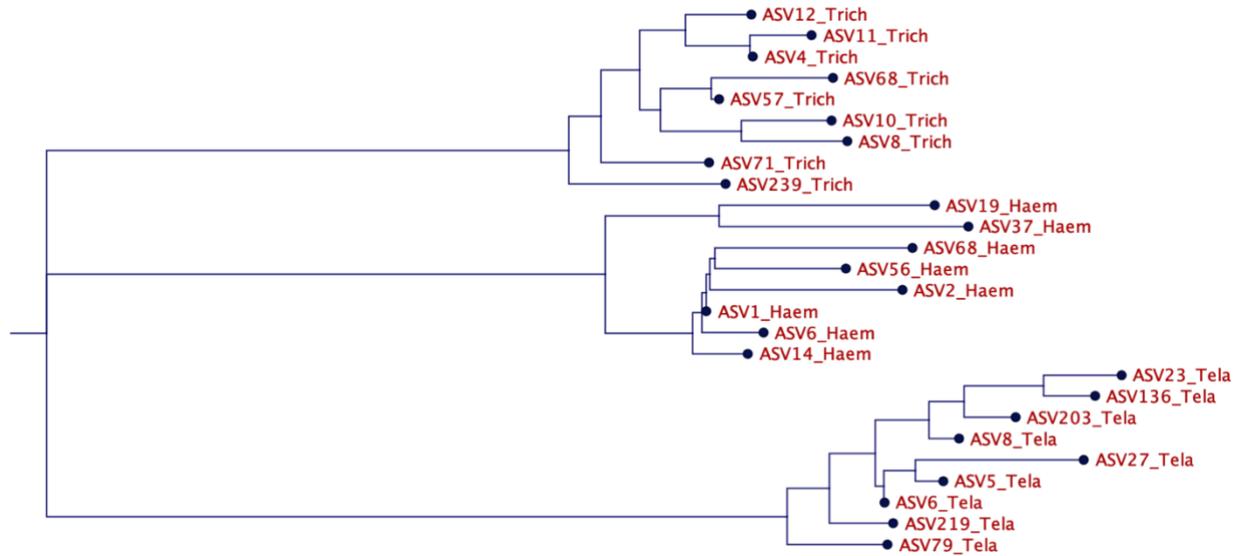
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301 For *Tri. colubriformis*, 338 ASVs were initially detected. Given the species' elevated sequence
 302 diversity and the availability of only a single reference genome for the entire *Trichostrongylus*
 303 genus, a 90% BLAST identity threshold was applied, yielding 101 confirmed ASVs (29.9%).
 304 Three ASVs that clustered phylogenetically with *Tel. circumcincta* were excluded to prevent
 305 misassignment. One sample (EF0369) was removed for low read count. Post-filtering,
 306 6,830,422 of 7,151,741 reads were retained, representing a 4.49% loss. The combined read-
 307 retention and filtering outcomes for both species are summarised in Table 2. Across *Tri.*
 308 *colubriformis*, the average Illumina sequencing depth was 34152.2 (S.D. \pm 29009.9), whilst for
 309 *Tel. circumcincta* it was 26833.2 (S.D. \pm 25,898.3); reflecting high variability in sequencing

310 depth within species. Phylogenetic reconstruction demonstrated clear species-specific
311 clustering for both taxa (Figure 2), validating the accuracy of ASV assignment and establishing
312 a robust foundation for downstream SNP analyses.

313



314

315

316 **Figure 2:** Reference phylogenetic tree of known GIN sequences (*T. circumcincta*, *H. contortus*
317 and *Tri. colubriformis*). Branch lengths indicate genetic distances, and the tree illustrates the
318 distinct clustering of species. This reference framework was used to assign unknown ASVs to
319 their respective species, ensuring accurate species assignment for subsequent S168T SNP
320 analysis.

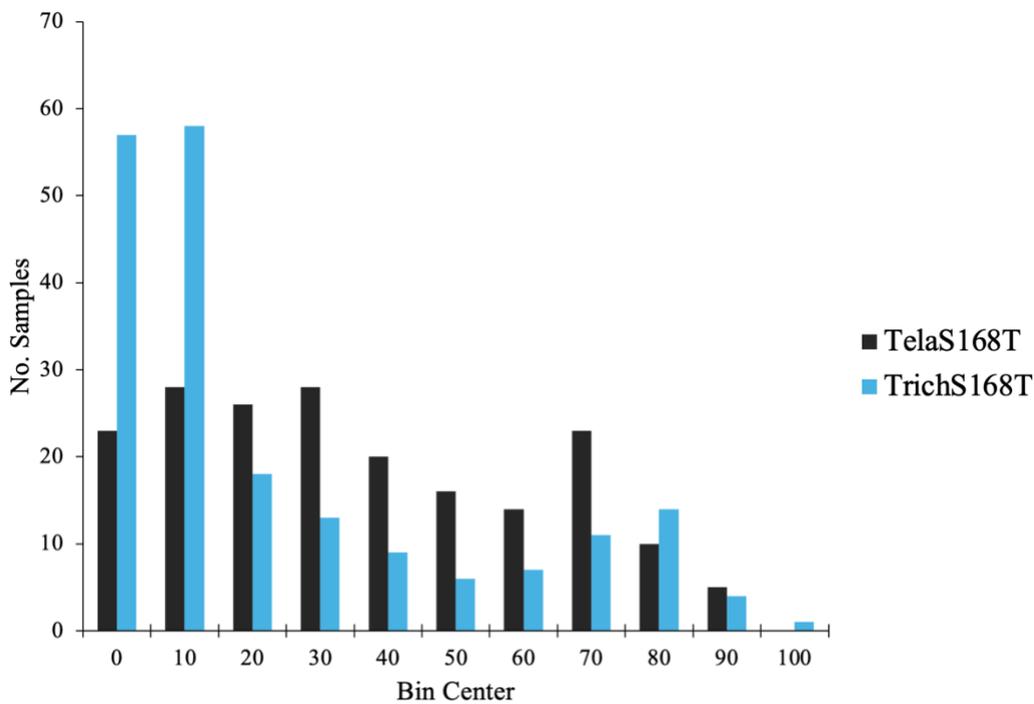
321

322 **3.2 Identification of the LEV-resistant S168T SNP**

323 To examine the distribution of S168T SNP frequencies within populations, a cumulative
324 histogram was constructed (Figure 3). In *Tri. colubriformis*, allele frequencies were heavily
325 skewed toward the lower bins (0-20%), indicating that LEV resistance largely persists at low
326 prevalence within most populations. In contrast, *Tel. circumcincta*, exhibited a broader and
327 more uniform distribution across frequency bins, suggesting that resistance-associated alleles

328 are more widely established and entrenched within these GIN populations. While all low-
 329 abundance ASVs were removed prior to analysis to minimise sequencing noise, a small subset
 330 of samples still exhibited allele frequencies below 5%. These may reflect genuine low-
 331 prevalence alleles, although the potential contribution of background noise cannot be entirely
 332 excluded.

333



334

335 **Figure 3:** Cumulative histogram of the S168T SNP allele frequencies in *Tel. circumcineta* and
 336 *Tri. colubriiformis*. Data were binned in 10% intervals, with the y-axis representing the
 337 cumulative portion of samples at or below each frequency bin.

338

339 Analysis of the S168T SNP revealed species-specific differences in prevalence (Table 3). The
 340 S168T SNP was detected in 188/198 (94.9%) *Tel. circumcineta* samples, and 187/193 (96.9%)
 341 *Tri. colubriiformis* samples. Across all samples which fulfilled the eligibility criteria, the
 342 average frequency of the S168T mutation for *Tel. circumcineta* was 34.64% (S.D. $\pm 25.76\%$),
 343 whereas in *Tri. colubriiformis*, the mutation was detected an at an average frequency of 24.34%

344 (S.D. $\pm 27.26\%$) across all confirmed samples (Figure 4; Figure 5). Frequencies were calculated
 345 following quality filtering and confirmation thresholds for each species. For *Tel. circumcincta*,
 346 the average maximum SNP frequency per postcode was 42.86% (S.D. $\pm 26.55\%$), whilst the
 347 average minimum SNP frequency was 24.57% (S.D. $\pm 22.53\%$). Conversely, the average
 348 maximum SNP frequency per postcode for *Tri. colubriformis* was 37.33% (S.D. $\pm 31.99\%$),
 349 whereas the average minimum SNP frequency was 18.25% (S.D. $\pm 26.66\%$).

350

351 **Table 3.** Summary of LEV-resistance associated S168T SNP detection and allele frequencies
 352 in *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis*.

Metric	<i>Tel. circumcincta</i>	<i>Tri. colubriformis</i>
n (samples)	198	193
S168T detected (%)	94.9	96.9
Mean SNP frequency \pm SD (%)	34.64 \pm 25.76	24.34 \pm 27.26
Maximum SNP frequency per postcode \pm SD (%)	43.86 \pm 26.55	37.33 \pm 31.99
Minimum SNP frequency per postcode \pm SD (%)	24.57 \pm 22.53	18.25 \pm 26.66

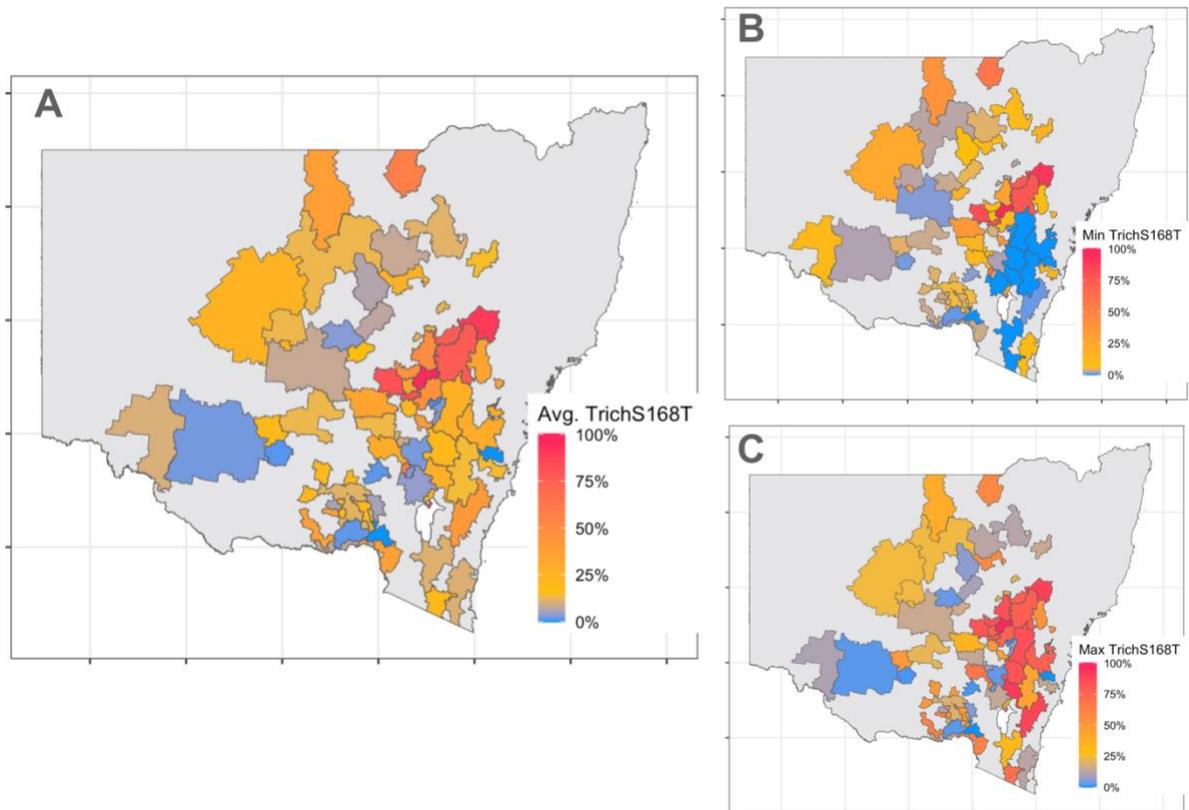
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355 Two samples were excluded from New South Wales analysis due to Victorian postcodes. The
 356 remaining samples were distributed across New South Wales as follows: Central Tablelands (n
 357 = 55), Central West (n = 31), Greater Sydney (n = 1), Hunter (n = 1), Murray (n = 12), North
 358 West (n = 5), Riverina (n = 34), South East (n = 54), Western (n = 3) and Australian Capital
 359 Territory (n = 3). Geographic visualisation of sample distribution and frequency is shown in
 360 Figure 6. The prevalence of the S168T mutation was mapped to these regions (Figure 4; Figure
 361 5), with frequencies displayed for each Local Land Service region (Figure 7).

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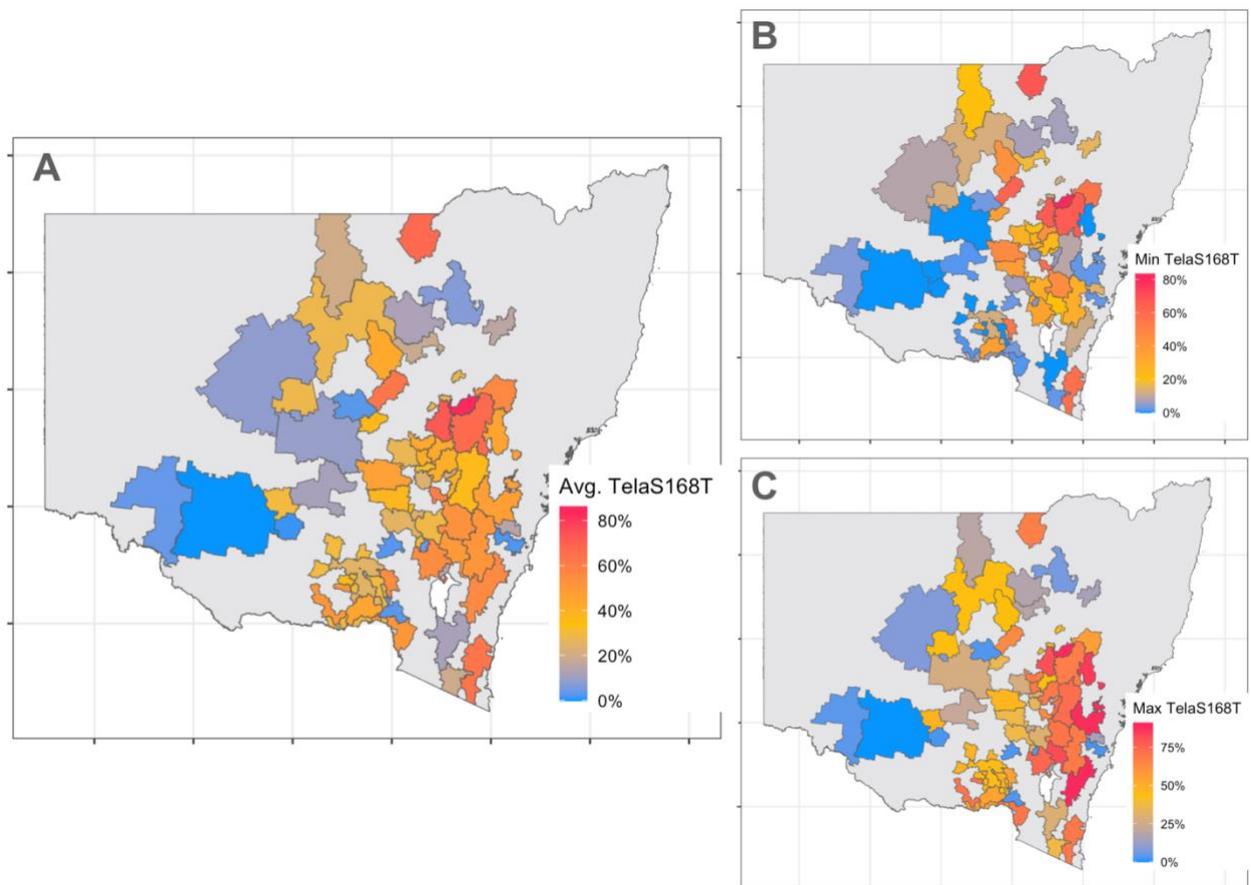
365 **Figure 4:** Spatial distribution of the S168T SNP in *Tri. colubriformis* across New South Wales.

366 Panel (A) shows the average frequency of the mutation per postcode, providing an overview

367 of resistance prevalence. Panels (B) and (C) depict the maximum and minimum frequencies

368 observed per postcode, respectively, highlighting the range of variation within each sampled

369 location. Colour intensity corresponds to mutation frequency.



370

371 **Figure 5:** Spatial distribution of the S168T SNP in *Tel. circumcincta* across New South Wales.

372 Panel (A) shows the average frequency of the mutation per postcode, providing an overview

373 of resistance prevalence. Panels (B) and (C) depict the maximum and minimum frequencies

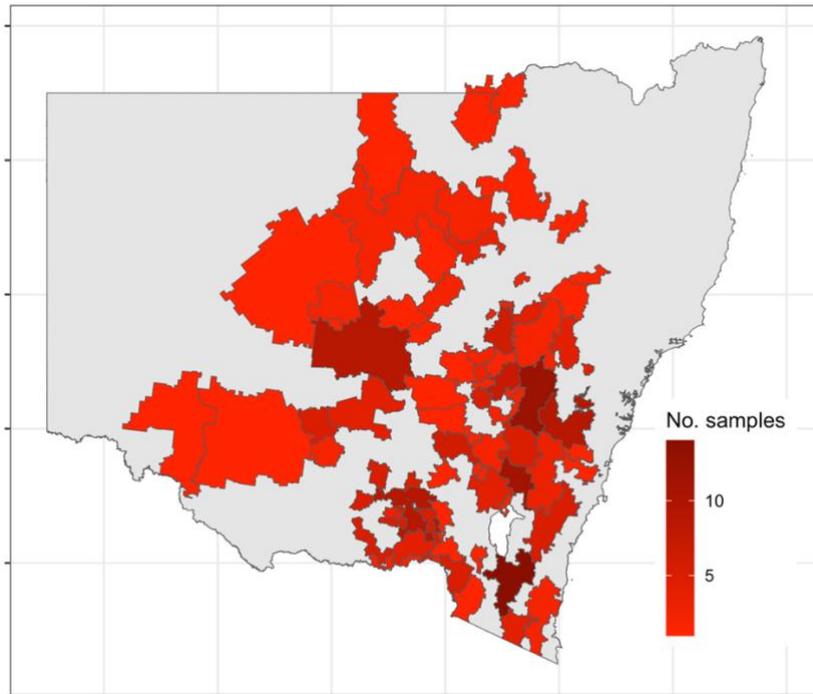
374 observed per postcode, respectively, highlighting the range of variation within each sampled

375 location. Colour intensity corresponds to mutation frequency.

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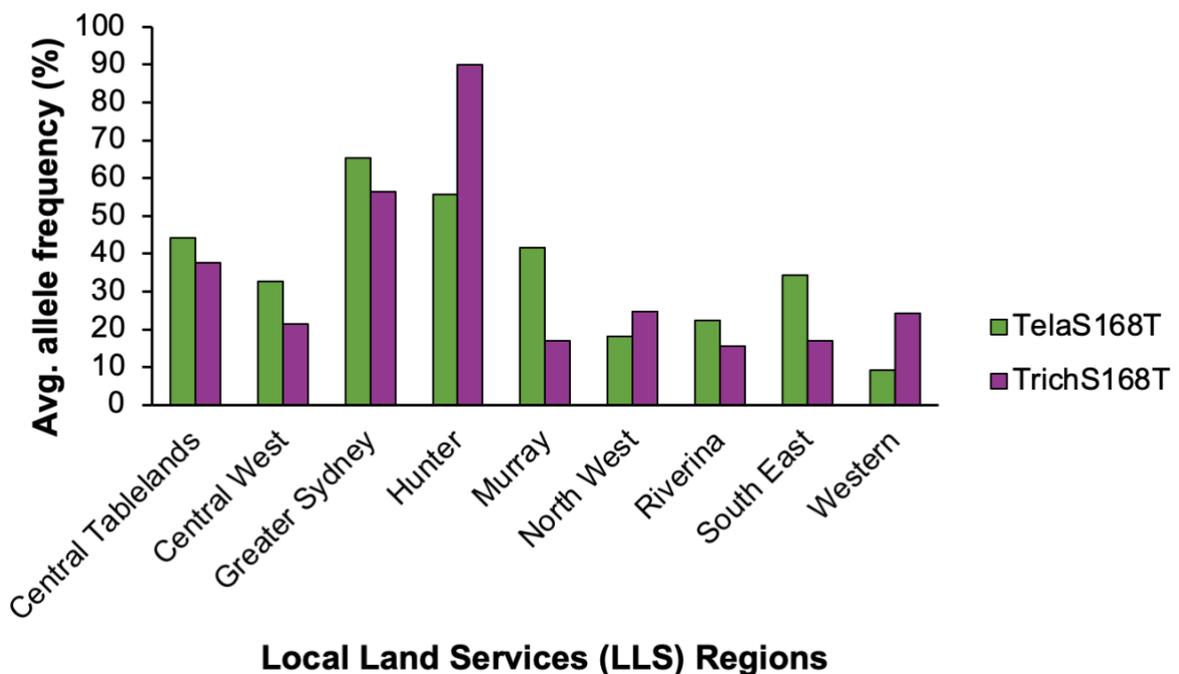
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380 **Figure 6:** Frequency of collected samples per postcode in New South Wales for *Tri.*
 381 *colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta*. Darker red indicates higher sampling density, providing
 382 a spatial overview of the dataset used for S168T SNP analyses.

383



384

385 **Figure 7:** Average frequency of the S168T SNP in *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta*

386 across Local Land Service (LLS) Regions of New South Wales. Each bar represents the mean
387 mutation frequency per species in each LLS region, allowing direct comparison of resistance
388 prevalence between the two GIN species.

389

390 **4. Discussion**

391 This study represents the first molecular screening of the LEV resistance-associated S168T
392 SNP in *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* populations across New South Wales,
393 Australia. Using ITS-2 metabarcoding and next-generation sequencing, this proof-of-concept
394 investigation successfully demonstrated the feasibility of identifying species-specific
395 resistance alleles directly from mixed-field larval populations. Across 200 samples, the S168T
396 mutation was detected at an average frequency of 34.64% in *Tel. circumcincta* and 24.34% in
397 *Tri. colubriformis*, providing foundational evidence that the LEV-resistant SNP is not only
398 present but may already be established within NSW nematode populations.

399

400 These findings align with the broader trajectory of rising AR in Australian livestock industries
401 (Fissiha & Kinde, 2021; Kaplan, 2004; Playford et al., 2014), highlighting the value of
402 molecular surveillance approaches in complementing phenotypic assays such as FECRTs,
403 allowing detection of resistance at a genetic level before phenotypic failure translates into
404 production losses (Avramenko et al., 2019; Francis & Šlapeta, 2024). While this study was not
405 designed to assess LEV efficacy, the molecular evidence presented through this investigation
406 provides a valuable proxy for emerging resistance. By validating the S168T marker in these
407 two key GIN species, this research contributes a critical step toward integrating SNP-based
408 diagnostics into national resistance monitoring frameworks. These approaches will be
409 instrumental in facilitating earlier detection of resistance alleles, shifting AR management from

410 reactive responses following drug failure toward proactive, evidence-based prevention (Francis
411 et al., 2024; Kaplan, 2004).

412

413 **4.1 Species-specific variation in S168T prevalence**

414 Sheep in temperate grazing systems are routinely exposed to multiple GIN species, including
415 *Tel. circumcincta*, *Tri. colubriformis* and *H. contortus* (Roeber et al., 2013a). While LEV
416 remains effective against *H. contortus*, its broad and extensive application to control mixed-
417 species nematode burdens may inadvertently impose selection pressure on *Tel. circumcincta*
418 and *Tri. colubriformis*, both of which have exhibited elevated levels of LEV resistance in field
419 studies (Playford et al., 2014). The marked difference in S168T frequency between *Tel.*
420 *circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* highlights substantial interspecific variation in resistance
421 dynamics. The higher prevalence in *Tel. circumcincta* (34.64%) compared to *Tri. colubriformis*
422 (24.34%) may arise from differences in drug exposure history, genetic diversity and species-
423 specific selection pressures. This disparity likely reflects a combination of biological and
424 pharmacokinetic factors, whereby the abomasal niche of *Tel. circumcincta* may confer greater
425 and more sustained LEV exposure than that experienced by intestinal *Trichostrongylus* spp.,
426 compounded by different treatment histories and host immune pressures that collectively
427 favour the persistence of resistant *Tel. circumcincta* genotypes. These findings are consistent
428 with previous reports demonstrating species-specific variation amongst trichostrongylid
429 nematodes in the development and persistence of LEV resistance (Edwards et al., 1986;
430 Playford et al., 2014; Preston et al., 2019).

431

432 The detection of S168T in both species further supports the hypothesis of a conserved
433 molecular mechanism underlying LEV resistance across trichostrongylid nematodes. However,
434 as Antonopoulos et al. (2024) argue, resistance in *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* is

435 unlikely to be explained by a single genetic determinant. Alternative or additive mutations may
436 influence the acetylcholine receptor subunit targeted by LEV, modifying receptor sensitivity
437 or drug binding affinity (Antonopoulos et al., 2024). Consequently, while the S168T marker
438 provides a valuable diagnostic entry point, it should be viewed within a broader, multifactorial
439 resistance framework that integrates multiple molecular and ecological drivers.

440

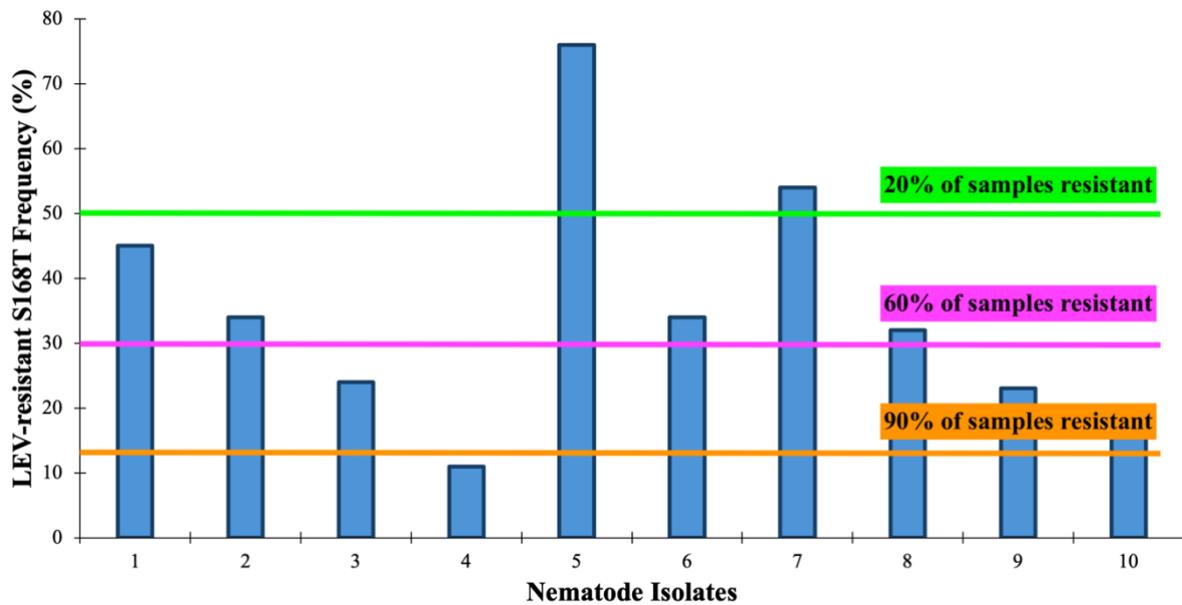
441 **4.2 Comparison with historical phenotypic data**

442 Although phenotypic assays were not performed within this study, comparison with historical
443 FECRT data offer meaningful interpretive context. The last national resistance survey
444 conducted between 2009 and 2012 confirmed phenotypic LEV resistance in 82% of
445 *Teladorsagia* and 89% of *Trichostrongylus* isolates from Australian sheep flocks, with NSW
446 trends mirroring national averages (Playford et al., 2014). The S168T frequencies reported in
447 this study parallel these high resistance rates, suggesting that the molecular signature of LEV
448 resistance has persisted over the past decade.

449

450 In *H. contortus*, phenotypic resistance has been associated with a population-level S168T
451 frequency of approximately 16% (Francis et al., 2024). Alternatively, based on previous
452 FECRT data, a study exploring benzimidazole resistance in *H. contortus* applied a 10%
453 threshold utilising SNPs at codons 167, 198 and 200 of the β -tubulin gene (Barrere et al., 2013).
454 While these thresholds cannot be directly extrapolated across drug classes or nematode species,
455 the substantially higher S168T frequencies reported likely exceed any plausible diagnostic
456 threshold for LEV resistance, implying phenotypic resistance is already widespread.

457



458

459 **Figure 8:** Bar graph showcasing the frequency (%) of the LEV-resistant S168T SNP across 10
 460 hypothetical *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* larval isolates, assessed against three
 461 theoretical diagnostic thresholds for levamisole resistance. The green threshold indicates the
 462 LEV-resistance is conferred when 50% of the isolate has the SNP, pink is indicative of a 30%
 463 threshold and orange represents a 15% threshold.

464

465 To illustrate this relationship where different thresholds would result in different levels of
 466 phenotypic resistance, Figure 8 compares hypothetical S168T allele frequencies against three
 467 theoretical diagnostic thresholds. However, cross-species extrapolation must be approached
 468 critically. The functional implications of S168T may differ depending on gene expression
 469 profiles and receptor subunit composition unique to each species. Without concurrent efficacy
 470 testing, it remains uncertain whether similar allele frequencies translate to equivalent clinical
 471 resistance. Nonetheless, the alignment between molecular and historical phenotypic data
 472 reinforces that LEV resistance in *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* is not an emerging
 473 trend but an entrenched phenomenon. The persistence of this signal suggests sustained
 474 selection pressure, likely driven by intensive drench use and the continued inclusion of LEV

475 within combination drenching products (Bartram et al., 2012; Fissiha & Kinde, 2021; Gilleard
476 et al., 2021). The absence of coordinated molecular surveillance since the last national survey
477 conducted over a decade ago has likely obscured the true progression of resistance evolution,
478 underscoring the urgency of adopting genomic monitoring tools capable of detecting early
479 shifts in allele frequency before treatment failure becomes irreversible.

480

481 **4.3 Methodological considerations**

482 While this study successfully establishes a proof of concept for SNP-based detection of LEV
483 resistance, several methodological factors warrant rigorous consideration. The modest sample
484 size (n = 200) and uneven distribution across NSW Local Land Service regions restrict
485 generalisation as some regions contributed only a single sample, precluding robust spatial
486 comparisons. The absence of information on drenching practices across sampled flocks limits
487 interpretation, as potential associations between treatment history and the uneven geographic
488 distribution of the S168T SNP could not be assessed. Moreover, larval samples were pre-
489 selected for ITS-2 positivity for *Tri. colubriformis* and *Tel. circumcincta* to ensure dual-species
490 representation and mitigate confounding from *H. contortus* dominance, although this approach
491 may have favoured populations with higher infection intensities of the target species.
492 Consequently, the reported allele frequencies should be interpreted as indicative rather than
493 representative of statewide prevalence.

494

495 Furthermore, unlike *Tel. circumcincta* which is the only *Teladorsagia* species within the genus
496 to infect sheep (Cortés et al., 2020), the *Trichostrongylus* genus encompasses multiple species
497 of importance for ovine species; inclusive of *T. vitrinus*, *T. rugatus* and *T. axei* (Craig, 2009).
498 As the only complete genome currently available within this genus is that of *Tri. colubriformis*,
499 this taxonomic resolution gap introduces additional uncertainty in ASV assignment. Although

500 the conservative 90% identity threshold minimised false positives, it concurrently may have
501 inadvertently excluded true ASVs or misclassified others. The implementation of phylogenetic
502 placement assisted in the mitigation of these risks, by serving as a tool to individually visualise
503 where ASVs were clustering in accordance with confirmed *Tel. circumcineta*, *Tri.*
504 *colubriformis* and *H. contortus* ASVs. Nonetheless, this limitation underscores the urgent need
505 for high-quality reference sequences across non-*Haemonchus* nematodes to enhance
506 assignment accuracy and reliability for future molecular surveillance of drug resistance.

507

508 Additionally, the study's molecular-only design, while advantageous for throughput and
509 sensitivity, precludes phenotypic validation. Without paired drench efficacy data, the results of
510 this experiment cannot define the precise frequency at which the S168T mutation confers
511 measurable drug inefficacy. This knowledge gap reflects a broader challenge in resistance
512 genetics as linking genotype to phenotype requires integrated datasets that capture both
513 molecular and field efficacy measures. Without such integration, genotypic markers remain
514 predictive rather than confirmatory. Despite these constraints, the methodological framework
515 employed here exemplifies a scalable, cost-efficient approach for routine resistance
516 surveillance. The ability to derive molecular resistance data from existing diagnostic samples
517 demonstrates strong potential for integration into ongoing parasite monitoring programs,
518 enhancing the efficiency and reach of surveillance efforts without imposing additional
519 sampling demands.

520

521 **4.4 Implications for LEV-resistance surveillance and anthelmintic stewardship**

522 The broader significance of these findings lies in their implications for sustainable parasite
523 control. Traditional resistance detection in Australia relies heavily on FECRT, which although
524 informative, is time-consuming, costly and often insensitive to low-frequency resistance alleles

525 with 25% of a population needing to be resistant for detection (Martin et al., 1989). Molecular
526 diagnostics, particularly SNP-based screening, offer a transformative alternative by enabling
527 early detection of resistance before phenotypic failure occurs. When combined with
528 nemabiome metabarcoding, such tools allow simultaneous identification of parasite species
529 and resistance status from mixed infections, representing a critical advancement for realistic
530 field surveillance. However, no coordinated resistance monitoring has occurred since 2012
531 (Playford et al., 2014), underscoring the need for molecular-screening integration into national
532 diagnostic frameworks.

533

534 The identification of substantial S168T frequencies in both *Tel. circumcineta* and *Tri.*
535 *colubriformis* suggests that LEV resistance has become entrenched within NSW nematode
536 populations; catalysing significant implications for anthelmintic stewardship. Continued use of
537 LEV in combination drenches may temporarily mask treatment failure but risks accelerating
538 selection pressure across co-infecting species. Given the co-occurrence of *Tel. circumcineta*
539 and *Tri. colubriformis* in Australian sheep, differential selection could drive asynchronous
540 resistance trajectories (Evans et al., 2023), complicating control outcomes and hastening multi-
541 drug resistance.

542

543 These findings support the urgent implementation of proactive management strategies that
544 incorporate drench preservation, rotational drenching, and evidence-based decision-making.
545 Integrating molecular surveillance into these frameworks would enable producers to align
546 drench decisions with the resistance profiles of their flocks, representing an essential step
547 toward implementing targeted selective treatment that maximises efficacy while minimising
548 selection pressure (Busin et al., 2014; Charlier et al., 2014; Laurenson et al., 2013). By
549 detecting resistance alleles at sub-clinical levels, producers and veterinarians can adjust

550 treatment regimes before efficacy declines, reducing unnecessary drenching and preserving the
551 longevity of remaining effective compounds (Francis & Šlapeta, 2024; Kotze et al., 2020;
552 Roeber et al., 2013b).

553

554 **4.5 Further directions**

555 This study highlights both the potential and contemporary limitations of molecular resistance
556 surveillance in Australian parasitic GIN populations. Future research should fundamentally
557 address the following three key areas. (1) The development of comprehensive reference
558 genomes for *Trichostrongylus* and other non-*Haemonchus* species to improve ASV assignment
559 and potentially discover additional resistance SNPs. (2) The integration of genotypic and
560 phenotypic data to define allele frequency thresholds predictive of functional resistance,
561 allowing molecular markers for *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* to transition from
562 exploratory to robust diagnostic tools. (3) The implementation of longitudinal surveillance
563 across diverse geographic regions to track LEV-resistant allele dynamics and resistance
564 evolution over time, supporting predictive modelling and evidence-based drench strategies.
565 Beyond technical advancements, these findings harbour broader implications for national
566 parasite control policy, as the persistently high S168T frequencies reported in this investigation
567 indicate that existing anthelmintic stewardship frameworks are insufficiently adaptive.
568 Alternatively, coordinated, data-driven approaches incorporating molecular screening are
569 indispensable to maintain the efficacy of critical anthelmintics such as LEV and support
570 sustainable livestock production (Francis & Šlapeta, 2024).

571

572 **5. Conclusion**

573 This study establishes a proof of concept for the molecular detection of the LEV-resistant
574 S168T SNP in *Tel. circumcincta* and *Tri. colubriformis* using next-generation sequencing;

575 addressing the growing diagnostic bottleneck for these species relative to *H. contortus*. The
576 high frequencies of this mutation across NSW field populations indicate that LEV resistance is
577 likely entrenched within Australian sheep flocks. While limited by sample representation and
578 the absence of phenotypic validation, the results nonetheless emphasise the feasibility and
579 value of SNP-based diagnostics for large-scale resistance surveillance. By bridging molecular
580 insight with practical management, this research contributes to a growing body of evidence
581 supporting integrated frameworks for anthelmintic stewardship in Australian livestock
582 industries, promoting the transition from reactive drenching to preventative strategies that
583 preserve drug efficacy and sustain long-term parasite control. Overall, these findings
584 underscore the need for national adoption of genomic-driven surveillance to preserve LEV
585 efficacy and sustain long-term parasite control.

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