

ABSTRACT

 The polyopisthocotylean *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* is considered one of the most harmful pathogens in Mediterranean farmed gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*). For the first time recorded in aquaculture in the mid-eighties, it has rapidly spread through facilities in the whole Mediterranean basin, causing mortalities due the anemia, the mechanical damage of the host's gill tissues and the consequent secondary bacterial infections. Even though one of the recognized risk factors for spreading of sparicotylosis is the transfer of the parasite from wild fish, there is a need to infer the extent of this event over a wider geographic area, as well as using more informative multilocus genotyping, such as typing based on the discovery of SNPs. Therefore, we sampled a total of 330 *S. chryspohrii* specimens from Italian, Croatian, and Greek wild and farmed gilthead seabream, as well as from Spanish farmed fish. After a double digest restriction-site associated DNA sequencing (ddRADseq), a total 173 samples were used to infer the genetic structure of the parasite and draw conclusions on its migratory patterns in the Mediterranean. Our results confirm a panmictic distribution of the polyopisthocotylean in the Mediterranean basin, with no clear genetic structure. However, three discrete genetic pools or clusters, probably driven by geographic constraints, have been observed within the parasite populations of origins. We speculate that the dispersion of polyopisthocotylean eggs via the circulation of dominant currents and fronts, as well as anthropogenic influence, facilitates the gene flow within the genetic clusters. In addition, gene flow between polyopisthocotyleans parasitizing wild and farmed gilthead seabream is evident, but other wild sparids (*i.e*., the auxiliary and annular seabream, blotched pickerel, bogue, and common pandora) likely play a role in the event. This indicates that *S. chrysophrii* should be considered a family-specific rather than a host-specific parasite.

 Keywords: ectoparasite, gilthead seabream, ddRAD, *Sparicotyle chrysophrii*, *Sparus aurata*, transfer, wild fish

1. Introduction

 Sparicotyle chrysophrii is a hematophagous polyopisthocotylean with a direct life cycle that parasitizes the gills of the gilthead seabream (GSB) (*Sparus aurata*). The host range encompasses only a couple of other representatives of the family Sparidae, *i.e*., the sharpsnout seabream (*Diplodus puntazzo*) (Sánchez-García et al., 2015) and the bogue (*Boops boops*) (Mladineo et al., 2009).

 The polyopisthocotylean causes endemic sparicotylosis almost throughout the year in intensive aquaculture facilities located in the Mediterranean basin. Fast infection rate within reared fish is conditioned by a higher fish density, admixture of different fish age categories, elevated seawater temperature, low water flow through cages (caused by biofouling overgrowth on the nets), and the presence of wild sparid populations as a natural source of the parasite (Fioravanti et al., 2020; Mladineo et al., 2023). Other gill-infecting species, such as monopisthocotyleans *Lamellodiscus echeneis* (Mladineo and Maršić Lučić, 2007; Antonelli et al., 2010) and *Gyrodactylus* spp. (Paladini et al., 2009; 2011) are present throughout the Mediterranean in the farmed GSB, sometimes in co-infection with *S. chrysophrii*, but show rather a patchy distribution and rarely cause mortality. In contrast, *S. chrysophrii* pathogenicity is more pronounced, similar to detrimental infections of *Zeuxapta seriolae* in the farmed greater amberjack (*Seriola dumerili*) (Montero et al., 2004). Sparicotylosis is ubiquitous throughout the Mediterranean and is reported in the northwest part of the Mediterranean in facilities along the Spanish and French coasts, in the northcentral part in Italy and Croatia, and in the eastern and southeastern Mediterranean in the aquaculture facilities in the Aegean Sea, and Red Sea (Mladineo et al., 2023). Unfortunately, there are no epidemiological data on its presence in Middle Eastern countries.

 Sparicotylosis manifests with systemic and general clinical signs in the farmed GSB, including lethargy, sluggish movements, body discoloration, an increased frequency of opercular movements that exacerbates permanently dilated opercula, anorexia, emaciation and cachexia, gill paleness, and lastly, general anemia (Vagianou et al., 2006; Sitjà-Bobadilla et al., 2009). Pathogenesis is due to the specificity of the monogenean attaching apparatus, which is formed by a large number of clamps that are added daily into the opisthaptor throughout parasite lifetime (Repullés-Albelda et al., 2011). The co-morbidity with epitheliocystis (Padros and Crespo, 1995; Toxqui-Rodríguez et al., 2023) and *Tenacibaculum* sp. (Padros, personal 84 observations), as well as blood feeding, estimated to amount to 4.31 µl of blood per hour (Riera- Ferrer et al., 2022; 2023) further aggravate the infection outcome. Although much effort has been invested in combating the disease through good disease management (Fioravanti et al., 2020), an efficient treatment for the industry is still pending (Sitjà-Bobadilla et al., 2006; Rigos et al., 2013; 2023; Firmino et al., 2020; Mladineo et al., 2021; Kogiannou et al., 2022).

 Prompted by the aggregation of wild GSB infected with *S. chrysophrii* (irrespective of their origin, *i.e*., natural fish populations or farmed escapees) and potentially also other wild sparids at the Mediterranean aquaculture sites, the objective of the study was to infer: i) polyopisthocotylean's transfer between wild and farmed host populations, and ii) *S. chrysophrii* genetic structure in the Mediterranean Sea using restriction site-associated DNA (RAD) markers.

2. Material and Methods

2.1. Fish sampling and isolation of Sparicotyle chrysophrii

 Polyopisthocotyleans were collected from gilthead seabream (GSB) (*Sparus aurata*) farmed in four locations in the Mediterranean Sea (Spain, Italy, Croatia, and Greece) and from wild GSB and other sparids inhabiting the same aquaculture sites. Off-shore open waters were only sampled in the case of Italy (Figure 1). Depending on the parasite intensity, either multiple specimens or a single specimen was collected from a single fish (Supplementary Table 1).

 Due to the disproportionate effort needed to collect enough wild hosts from the open waters infected by the monogenean, the study was limited to collections of specimens aggregating at aquaculture sites.

 Spain: Four heavily infected farmed GSB (70 g) from net cages (Province of Castellón; 39°59'02.7"N 0°08'09.3"E) were provided in July 2018. Fishing operation for wild sparids was organized on one occasion in July 2018 through the engagement of professional fishermen, resulting in the collection of six specimens. However, the extracted DNA was not suitable for ddRAD libraries and was therefore excluded.

Italy: Farmed GSB (n=65; 200-300 g) infected with *S. chrysophrii* were provided by

three Italian farms through September and December 2016, located in different areas:

Spezzina Itticoltura (Italian farm 1; 44° 4'23.57"N 9°50'28.33"E) in the Ligurian Sea,

Piscicoltura del Golfo di Gaeta (Italian farm 2; 41°13'48.24"N 13°35'56.83"E) in the

Tyrrhenian Sea, and Ca' Zuliani (Italian farm 3; 45°45'56.64"N 13°35'28.87"E) in the

northern Adriatic Sea. In 2018, 126 wild GSB (200-300 g) were collected by fishermen: 50

fished from the Porto Buso area and 76 from the Marano Lagoon (45°42'1.57"N

13°15'27.97"E). It is worth noting that in contrast to other wild GSB specimens that were

caught from the farming sites, these fish were not farm-associated, and thus represent a truly

wild population.

 Croatia: GSB (n=100; 200-220 g) farmed in a facility in middle Adriatic (44°01'57.7"N 15°13'28.5"E) were sampled in July and November 2016, and March and June 2017. From the same farming site, different wild farm-associated fish (n=444); blotched picarel (*Spicara maena*), picarel (*S. smaris*), bogue (*Boops boops*), GSB, annular seabream (*D. annularis*), sharpsnout seabream (*D. puntazzo*), common two-banded seabream (*D. vulgaris*), golden grey mullet (*Liza aurata*), common pandora (*Pagellus erythrinus*), blackspot seabream (*P. bogaraveo*), axillary seabream (*P. acarne*), European seabass (*D. labrax*), saddled seabream (*Oblada melanura*) were sampled by hook and line or trammel net. *S. chrysophrii* were isolated from the following wild sparids in November 2016, May, July, and October 2017: annular and axillary seabream, bogue, blotched picarel and common pandora. Greece: Two hundred farmed GSB (70-100 g) were transferred from Andromeda SA (cage site, Astakos, Ionian Sea; 38° 32' 00" N, 21° 05' 00" E) to the facilities of the Hellenic Centre for Marine Research in Athens in November 2015. By July 2016, 100 fish were sampled to collect monogeneans. Three fishing missions (November 2015, July 2016, and April 2018) were carried out to sample wild fish inhabiting the selected farming site, deploying nets suspended around the cages. On the first fishing mission, collected fish (n=36) of various species were caught: garrick (*Lichia amia*), saddled seabream (*O. melanura*), striped mullet (*Mugil cephalus*), swallowtail seaperch (*Anthias anthias*), white seabream (*D. sargus*), salema porgy (*Sarpa salpa*), crevalle jack (*Caranx hippos*) and GSB, all non- infected with *S. chrysophrii*. On the second mission, only GSB was targeted (n=7, 350 g) and 143 all were found to be infected. On the third trial (38° 32' 00" N, 21° 05' 00" E), fish (n=63) of various species were caught (red seabream *Pagrus major*, grouper *Epinephelus* sp., Atlantic cod *Gadus morhua*, white seabream, GSB, scorpion fish *Scorpaena* sp., two-banded seabream, stargazer *Uranoscopus scaber*, painted comber *Serranus scriba*, European

 barracuda *Sphyraena sphyraena*, saddled seabream, meagre *Argyrosomus regius*, and greater forkbeard *Phycis blennoides*), and *S. chrysophrii* was isolated only from bogue and a single common pandora.

 The polyopisthocotyleans were isolated according to a standardized protocol. The fish were examined for the presence of the polyopisthocotyleans the same day after arrival at the laboratory (up to 6 hours, transportation on ice). The gill arches were cut, the lamellae carefully dissected in a Petri dish filled with seawater, with the number and side of each gill arch labeled, and subsequently examined under a stereomicroscope. Each specimen was identified as *S. chrysophrii*, following Mamaev (1984). Parasites (adults and juveniles, while the presence of eggs was qualitatively noted) were collected and fixed in ethyl alcohol (100%) and stored at -20 ºC before being sent to shipment to Croatia for DNA isolation. A total of 330 parasite specimens were collected, and categorized into the following populations prior to DNA extraction: Spanish farmed (n=78), Italian farmed 1 (n=24), Italian farmed 2 (n=10), Italian farmed 3 (n=24), Italian wild (n=22), Croatian farmed (n=54), Croatian wild (n=39), Greek farmed (n=70), and Greek wild (n=9) (Supplementary Table 1).

2.2.DNA extraction, and construction and sequencing of double digest Restriction-Site Associated DNA (ddRAD) libraries

 High molecular weight (HMW) DNA from *S. chrysophrii* specimens was extracted using the QIAamp DNA Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) following the manufacturer's instructions. After DNA quantification using NanoDrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and agarose gel electrophoresis visualization, ddRAD library 169 preparation followed Peterson et al. (2012) with few modifications. Three ul of each sample (21 ng HMW DNA in total) were processed in one of the three libraries to achieve adequate coverage, resulting in 330 *Sparicotyle* DNA used for the library preparations. Samples were simultaneously digested by two high-fidelity restriction enzymes (RE); 8-cutter *SbfI* (CCTGCA|GG recognition site) and 6-cutter *SphI* (GCATG|C recognition site) (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, Massachusetts, USA) at 37ºC for 90 min. Barcoded adapters were individually ligated to the RE sites, and the ligated samples were combined into a single pool, which was then column-purified (MinElute PCR Purification Kit, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), and eluted in 70 µl of EB buffer (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). Fragments between 400–700 bp were size-selected by gel electrophoresis, gel-purified (MinElute Gel Extraction Kit, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany), and eluted. The size-selected template DNA (68 µl in EB buffer) was PCR amplified (15 cycles of PCR; 36 separate 12.5 µl reactions, each with 1 µl of template DNA) using a Q5 Hot Start High-Fidelity DNA Polymerase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA). The PCR reactions were pooled (450 µl), column-purified (MinElute PCR Purification Kit, Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) and eluted into ~55 µl per library. Removal of any small leftover fragments (<200 bp) was achieved by an additional clean-up with an equal volume of 185 AMPure XP Beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA, USA) and eluted in the final \sim 22 μ l of EB buffer. ddRAD libraries were quantified by Qubit (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and sequenced on an Illumina MiSeq Next Generation Sequencer (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) using the Reagent kit v2 (300-cycle kit, 162 bp paired-end reads) (Illumina, San Diego, CA, USA) at the Institute of Marine Biology, Biotechnology and Aquaculture (IMBBC) of HCMR in Crete. Two MiSeq runs were performed for each library mix.

2.3. de novo assembly and SNP calling

193 The process radtags function in Stacks v.2.5 was used to filter and demultiplex low- quality or unidentified raw reads (Rochette et al., 2019). This step involved removing cut sites, barcodes, and adapters from the ddRAD results. FastQC (Andrews, 2010) was then used to assess the initial quality of the raw sequencing data. A de novo assembly of RAD-seq data was performed using the Stacks software v2.64 suite to identify and genotype SNPs across all paired-end read samples. To optimize the assembly parameters and enhance the quality of the loci, the RADstackhelpR (De Raad, 2021) and vcfR (Knaus and Grunwald, 2017) packages were employed. These tools were used to determine the optimal values for the -M, -m, and -N parameters in Stacks, which are critical for balancing sensitivity and specificity in the assembly (Paris et al., 2017). The -M parameter defines the maximum allowable nucleotide difference between stacks within an individual, -m specifies the minimum depth of coverage required to form a stack, and -N sets the maximum distance permitted when merging stacks across individuals (Rochette et al., 2019). Data were assembled multiple times, varying one parameter 206 at a time (-m = 3–6, -M = 2–8, -N = 0–11), while keeping the other parameters fixed at their default values (m3M2N1). For each run, the number of assembled loci, polymorphic loci, and SNPs generated were recorded (Supplementary Figure 1). Optimal settings were finally identified as -m 6, -M 1 and -N 2.

 Loci were built, catalogued, SNPs called and individuals genotyped using the 211 denovo map.pl wrapper in Stacks. Multiple filters within the Stacks populations module were used to obtain loci present in 70% of all populations (p), in at least 80% of individuals in each 213 population $(r=0.80)$, and with a maximum observed heterozygosity of 80% 214 (max obs het= 0.80).

215 PCA, phylogenetic analysis, and F_{ST} -based analysis were performed after eliminating SNPs in linkage disequilibrium with a squared coefficient of correlation of 0.5 in 50-SNP sliding windows. In addition, vcftools v0.1.16 was used to exclude variants with either low (<5x) or extremely high (800x) coverage depth (Danecek et al., 2011). Finally, all loci with more than 25% missingness were eliminated and two SNP matrices were created in Variant Call Format (VCF), consisting of: 1) 2,920 SNPs with an average locus coverage of approximately 20x; and 2) a second dataset with 1,780 unlinked SNPs with an average locus coverage of approximately 14x. The final dataset included a total of 173 specimens.

2.4. Genetic diversity

 The R package SambaR was used on the first ddRAD dataset (2,920 SNPs) to assess the expected (HE) and observed (HO) heterozygosity, private alleles, Tajima's D and inbreeding coefficients among the parasite populations (De Jong et al., 2021). This was due to 228 the algorithms' assumption that the input data have not been subjected to LD filtering. Plink V 1.90 was used to convert the VCF file to bed format.

2.5. Population genetic structure

 To assess the presence of structure within the population, we calculated pairwise FST values using ddRAD sequence data, by grouping individuals based on their country of origin and distinguishing between those from farm and wild populations, treating the latter as separate geographic units. This analysis was carried out in Arlequin 3.5 (Excoffier and Lischer, 2010), where the SNP data, initially in Plink format, were converted to the Arlequin format using PGDSpider 2.1.1.5 (Lischer and Excoffier, 2011). Subsequently, Fst and p values were determined by performing 1000 permutations in Arlequin 3.5.

 A series of cluster analyzes were performed to elucidate the neutral genetic structure within the parasite populations. First, we performed a discriminant analysis of principal components (DAPC) (Jombart et al. 2015) to reveal the group structure without being affected by within-group variance, using the adegenet package in R v4.0.5 (R Core Team, 2020. To determine the most appropriate number of genetic clusters, the K-means clustering algorithm was applied, selecting the configuration with the lowest Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) value as the optimal solution. Individuals were then assigned to these clusters using DAPC, with the number of principal components to be retained determined by the optim.a.score function. To visualize the genetic clusters among the parasite populations and the placement of individuals within these clusters, diagrams were created that combined the results of DAPC with PCA.

 Subsequently, the model-based evolutionary clustering method was applied in the ADMIXTURE software to calculate the genetic differentiation among the populations, and the optimal number of population clusters was inferred using AdmixPiPe (Alexander et al., 2009; Mussmann et al., 2020). Using the second VCF file described above, a default thin parameter $(t=100)$ was chosen, and ADMIXTURE was run with 20 replicates for each value of K ranging between 1 and 20. Minimization of the cross-validation error in ADMIXTURE was used to find the most likely K values in the replicate runs (Alexander and Lange, 2011). The CLUMPK server (http://clumpak.tau.ac.il/) was used to visualize the clustering of individuals into populations.

 Finally, fineRADstructure and RADpainter v.0.2 were used to reveal the population genetic structure based on nearest neighbor haplotypes (Malinsky et al., 2018). The script Stacks2fineRAD.py within the fineRADstructure package was initiated to compute the allele distribution, SNPs per locus, and individual missing data. The maximum number of SNPs per locus was set to 10 and capped individual missingness to 25% when converting the haplotype file to RADpainter format. Due to the susceptibility of ddRAD to batch effects caused by minor variations between libraries in the size selection stage, the potential influence of missing data on each library-based structure was scrutinized. The fineRADstructure pipeline was run with default settings, but with extending the burn-in iterations to 200,000 and sampling 1,000,000 iterations at intervals of 1000. To verify consistent convergence of Bayesian posterior distributions, convergence was assessed by assigning individuals to populations in multiple independent runs, examining the plots for MCMC output of parameter values, and achieving sufficient parameter sample size (over 100) by extending the duration of each chain. The "FinestructureLibrary.R" function from the fineRADstructure package was used to display the co-ancestry heatmap.

2.6. Isolation by distance (IBD)

 The Mantel test in Adegenet 1.3. was used to determine whether the genetic differentiation Pattern was consistent with an Isolation by Distance (IBD) model. The analysis calculated the 278 correlation between genetic distances (F_{ST}) and geographic distances (km) based on 10,000 permutations. For the geographic distances, the straight-line distances between the sample locations, resulting from their geographic coordinates were considered (Jombart, 2011).

2.7. Gene flow

TreeMix was applied to an unlinked SNP dataset to determine the phylogenetic

 relationships and historical admixture events among populations (Pickrell and Pritchard, 2012). Initially, the tool was used to determine the connections among populations and then to construct a maximum likelihood population tree to account for ancestral admixture or migration events occurring among groups. Plots were created that allowed for 0-10 admixture events, as indicated by the m parameter, and then the m-model was selected that had the smallest m value at which the log-likelihood values stabilized while having the least residual variance. The significance of the migration events was assessed by a jackknife procedure within TreeMix.

2.8. Data Deposition

 Obtained sequences have been deposited in the NCBI, submission ID SUB13956223, BioProject PRJNA1038783.

3. Results

3.1. Spricotyle chrysophrii sequencing data

 In total 330 samples were sequenced out of the three ddRAD library mixes prepared, yielding 57,300,206 high quality reads assigned to the individuals. On average, 342,180 reads were obtained per individual. Approximately 10% of the sequenced parasites (36 samples) yielded very few reads to build even a single locus due to low DNA quality and/or integrity, leaving 294 specimens for downstream population genetics analysis. Unfortunately, among the excluded samples were all six wild Spanish specimens, therefore they were not included in the downstream analyses. In total, 25,550 unique RAD loci were identified in all parasites. For these loci, the effective per-sample coverage had a mean coverage of 49.3x with SD=58.2x, min=5.0x, max=499.1x and 203.7 number of sites per locus on average. Individuals had a range of 1 up to 4,057 loci (median 395.5) including from 5 up to 758,491 reads (median 19,913.5) used for building them. Following filtering, stacks populations software kept 514 RAD loci, composed of 135,642 sites; 4,761 of those sites were filtered keeping 246 variant sites (SNPs).

3.2. Genetic diversity

 Genetic diversity estimated through nucleotide diversity, expected, observed, and multilocus heterozygosity, and observed homozygosity of 173 specimens obtained after filtering of sequenced ddRAD libraries is shown in Table 1. The Greek farmed population had the highest overall heterozygosity and Italian farm on the Adriatic side had the lowest Italian farmed populations had generally lower values compared to the wild parasite population. The observed heterozygosity was lower than expected in all populations. Nucleotide diversity was highest in the Croatian farm parasites and lowest in the Italian wild *S. chrysophrii*.

 All populations showed negative Tajima's D values, but these were not statistically significant (Table 1). The highest negative D value was observed in the Italian farm 3 population (-0.1527), while the lowest was in the Greek farm (-0.0893).

 The total number of private alleles observed across all wild populations was 119, while farmed populations had a total of 1,101 private alleles. When analyzed separately, the Spanish farmed *S. chrysophrii* population had the highest frequency of private alleles and the Italian wild population the lowest. Similarly, the inbreeding coefficient was highest in the Spanish farmed polyopisthocotylean population, and lowest in the Italian wild population (Table 1).

3.3. Population Genetic Structure

330 The genetic distance (F_{ST}) among populations was low, ranging from the smallest 0.008 (between the Croatian farmed and the Italian farmed 3 parasites, not significant) to the highest of 0.076 (between the Italian farmed 1 and Spanish farmed in respect to the Greek farmed parasites, significant) (Table 2).

 The DAPC analysis identified three separate genetic clusters: the first comprising Spanish and two Italian farm populations; the second comprising the Italian wild population; and the third cluster comprising the Italian Adriatic farmed population and both the Croatian and Greek wild and farmed populations (Figure 2A). Interestingly, when the analyses were run for all wild vs all farmed populations, no genetic differentiation was inferred (Figure 2B).

 Similarly, the admixture patterns largely reflect the clusters identified by the DAPC and confirm an optimal division into three clusters. A notable separation exists between the mixed populations of Spanish and Italian farms (Italy west coast) and those of Italy east coast (farmed), Greece and Croatia, with the division marked by the wild population in Italy (Italy east coast). The latter is the only truly wild parasite population, in contrast to others that infect wild, but farm-associated fish. Admixture is particularly evident in the wild and farmed Croatian and Greek populations (Figure 2C).

 Finally, the dendrogram produced by fineRADstructure analysis corroborated the number of clusters and association of populations to a specific cluster as indicated by the genetic structural analysis (DAPC and Admixture) mentioned above (Figure 3). The first cluster (Spain farmed, Italy farmed 1 and 2) and the third cluster (Italy farmed 3, Croatia and Greece wild and farmed) showed a relatively high level of shared ancestry within themselves and a relatively low level of ancestry when compared to each other (i*.e*., cluster 1 vs cluster 3). In contrast, the second cluster (Italian wild) showed a clear divergence from the others, but was more closely related to the genotypes of cluster 3 (Croatian and Greek wild and farmed) (Figure 3). This is slightly in contrast with DAPC analyses (Figure 2A), but consistent with ADMIXTURE clustering results (Figure 2C).

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- *3.4. Isolation by Distance (IBD)*

 Mantel test revealed a significant positive correlation between the pairwise genetic 359 distances (F_{ST}) and geographic distances $(r=0.31, p=0.031)$, indicating that distance-based isolation may have a significant effect on shaping the genetic differentiation of *S. chrysophrii* populations (Figure 4). In addition, a species tree obtained by Treemix analysis revealed three primary genetic groups, aligning with the results from the population genetic structure study. The parasite populations in Greece and Croatia (both farmed and wild), including the Italian farmed 3 population, displayed a close genetic linkage, which is distinct from the other parasite groups. Similarly, the parasite populations from Spain and Italy farmed 1 and 2 are grouped together. Interestingly, the tree is best supported by a model that incorporates two migration events: both directed from the Italian wild population towards the other two genetic clusters, but with different migration weights and drift parameters (Figure 5).

3.5. Host range

 Sparicotyle chrysophrii was isolated from sparid species other then GSB collected from the farming site in Adriatic and Greece: annular seabream (*D. annularis*), axillary seabream (*P. acarne*), blotched picarel (*S. maena*), bogue (*B. boops*), and common pandora (*P. erythrinus*).

4. Discussion

 Transmission of *S. chrysophrii* between wild and reared GSB is recognised as an important factor in the epidemiology of sparicotylosis (Arechavala-Lopez et al., 2013) and is supported by molecular evidence from sequencing of conventional mitochondrial and nuclear markers

(Mladineo and Maršić Lučić, 2007; Mladineo et al., 2009; Farjallah et al., 2023).

 Nevertheless, this is the first time that next-generation sequencing has been used to discover hundreds of single nucleotide polymorphisms of *S. chrysophrii* and to genotype specimens over a large geographic range to infer their genetic structure. First, our data confirm that there is a high gene flow between polyopisthocotyleans from wild and farmed fish at the geographic (country) level, *i.e*., transmission of the parasite between wild and farmed hosts is successful, resulting in lack of clearly observed genetic structure. Secondly, when all Mediterranean-wide wild genotypes have been pooled and compared with all farmed genotypes, the genomic structure remains elusive, attributing a panmictic character to *S. chrysophrii*.

 Observed heterozygosity was lower than expected throughout all *S. chrysophrii* populations, suggesting a possibility of inbreeding (Schmidt et al., 2021), consistent with its hermaphroditic reproduction. Inbreeding can also result from a succession of several generations on a single host specimen, for which the data for *S. chrysophry* are lacking, but which represents a trade-off between the "secured" continuity of a population and a genetic bottleneck (Huyse et al., 2003). The farmed Spanish *S. chrysophrii* population exhibited the highest number of private alleles, which may indicate low gene flow from other populations and suggest some degree of genetic differentiation. This pattern could result from limited migration or unique selection pressures within the aquaculture environment (Shults et al., 2023). The Tajima's D values across populations were low and not significant, suggesting that these populations are not experiencing recent demographic expansions or contractions detectable by this test. The apparent genetic stability in the farmed Spanish population since its establishment in 1986 (Mladineo et al., 2023) may reflect the closed nature of aquaculture systems and minimal introduction of new genetic material.

 The comparison among populations in the Mediterranean region resulted in a distinct pattern of genetic structure conditioned by geographical distance. Namely, there are three distinct genetic clusters distributed from the geographical area referred as "West" (consisting of farmed Spanish and Italian west coast *S. chrysophrii* populations), to the intermediate genetic cluster consisting only of a single wild Italian east coast population, to the genetic cluster "East" (both wild and farmed Croatian and Greek populations, and Italian farmed east coast population). Many mechanisms account for genetic differentiation between populations, *e.g*., vicariance processes as consequence of historical barriers, ocean currents, habitat discontinuities, local adaptation, larval behavior, isolation by distance, and other limitations of the dispersal capabilities (Schunter et al., 2011). In the case of *S. chrysophrii*, the physical barrier of the Apennine Peninsula between the western and eastern clusters appears to prevent the admixture of polyopisthocotylean genotypes from the Italian west and east coasts (at least in the case of farmed genotypes), allowing the formation of a discrete intermediate genetic pool consisting only of Italian wild population of *S. chrysophrii*. The latter is the only truly wild population, and not farm-associated, indicating the local genetic variation shaped probably by isolation by distance. However, as no specimens from the southern areas of Italy were collected for the study, their status remains to be ascertained in the future. When evaluating the three genetic clusters, farmed Greek *S. chrysophrii* were genetically close to the Croatian farmed parasites, and together formed the so-called the East cluster. Considering the large geographical distance between the sampling sites on the eastern Adriatic and the Aegean coast (approximately 2,000 km of coastline) and the absence of densely integrated aquaculture facilities on the aforementioned coast, the admixture of genotypes suggests it might have resulted from human intervention, through the accidental transportation of polyopisthocotylean eggs or infected fish. However, it is also plausible that the eggs were dispersed from Greek sites in the Aegean Sea, facilitated by major dynamical

 and oceanographic processes within the Adriatic-Ionian basin. Namely, circulation in the Ionian Sea involves cyclonic or anticyclonic circular current regimes in its northern parts that result in warm and salty Levantine Intermediate Water flowing toward the Adriatic Sea. From there, it mixes with the Eastern Adriatic Current, which flows upward along the eastern Adriatic coast in the surface and intermediate layers (Vilibić et al., 2016) and passes by Croatian aquaculture sites. However, as in the case of the physical barrier between the eastern and western Italian *S. chrysophrii* populations, a future collection of specimens along the coast of the Ionian Sea would provide a more robust overview of the East cluster. The "intermediate" genetic cluster formed only by the Italian wild *S. chrysophrii*, is close to the East cluster, but still represents an independent pool of genotypes. Interestingly, these genotypes appear to have been the source of two migration events: an intense gene flow event towards the more distant West cluster (Spain farmed and Italy farmed 1 and 2) and a second, less intense event of gene flow towards the closer East cluster (Croatian and Greek wild and farmed, including the Italian farmed 3), which may indicate human-assisted transmission. The central and East clusters show a similar drift (*i.e*., evolutionary change) from the ancestral *S. chrysophrii* population, presumably representing the source of infection for the West cluster.

 This high dispersal capacity is also supported by the lack of genetic structure observed within the West genetic cluster made of *S. chrysophrii* genotypes from Spanish and Italian farmed fish, the latter being located on the west coast of the peninsula (*i.e*., farms from the Ligurian and Tyrrhenian Seas). Farjallah et al. (2023) have recently evaluated the populations of *S. chrysophrii* inhabiting the area from the Spanish Mediterranean coast to Sardinia, which can be considered a subgroup of the West cluster described here. Using a mitochondrial and a nuclear marker, the authors also found no genetic structure. The geographical distance measured along the coast between the most distant Spanish and Italian farms is almost twice

 as large as the distance between Greek and Croatian farms. The surface circulation in the Balearic Sea is strong throughout the year, resulting from the Catalan Front on the slope of the continental shelf and the Balearic Front, on the slope of the Balearic Islands shelf (La Violette et al., 1990). In the northern area, the water moves counterclockwise from the Tyrrhenian Sea towards the Balearic Islands, which could indicate that the origin of the far West genotypes is from the Tyrrhenian gene pool. The Spanish wild genotypes, which were excluded from the analyzes due to their low-quality, may have supported or rejected the hypothesis of a *S. chrysophrii* panmixia in this geographical area.

 Transmission of the polyopisthocotylean in nature is achieved via eggs and free-living oncomiracidia, which are typically dispersed passively by water currents or by active swimming. Therefore, the swimming behavior and persistence of the free-living stages are essential for the success of parasite transmission (Bush et al., 2001; Marcogliese, 2005). In the case of *S. chrysophrii*, the swimming ability of oncomiracidia decreases with the increase in seawater temperature and the time lapsed post-hatching. On average, oncomiracidia only live for 12 hours (Repullés-Albelda et al., 2012) and succeed in swimming vertically (*i.e*., their most successful swimming direction) for only 6-8 hours, which is only prolonged in darkness (Villar-Torres et al., 2018). Considering that their speed increases at lower water 470 temperatures (from 1.9 mm/s to 2.9 mm/s at 26 and 18 °C, respectively) (Villar-Torres et al., 2023a) and that approximately up to 51% of oncomiracidia infect their host within the ideal temperature limits of 18-22 ºC (Villar-Torres et al. 2023b), the chance of finding a sparid host in the wild is limited compared to the number of encounters within the aquaculture system. However, Villar-Torres et al. (2023) suggested that the longer period of upward swimming at 475 18 °C, and faster swimming between 14 and 18 °C might allow for longer multidirectional dispersal of larvae in the wild.

 When active dispersal of oncomiracidia ceases, dispersal may be supported by passive drift in currents (Kearn, 1981). The Mediterranean-wide dispersal of *S. chrysophrii* likely relies more on passive dispersal of thick-shelled eggs with positive buoyancy rather than short-lived oncomiracidia. Hypothetically, the eggs could also be accidentally shifted via ballast waters, although specific data for marine helminths is missing (Volodymyr et al., 2011). The discrete structuring of three genetic clusters geographically distributed across the path of dominant seawater masses supports the concept that marine species can have strong genetic population structuring even at very small scales, in contrast to the earlier hypothesis of open, homogeneous, and interconnected seas (Selkoe and Toonen, 2011). However, for the tangible evidence of empirical structuring of *S. chrysophrii* throughout the Mediterranean, sampling should focus on the areas not covered here, in particular the southern area of the Apennine Peninsula and the Middle East, for which data on parasite loads in fish are not available. Finally, host and parasite evolutionary pathways are interlinked in a process of continuous selection of adaptations and counter-adaptations, where the former evades or manipulates host immune response, and the latter tolerates or fights the infection (Buckingham and Ashby, 2022). Panmictic distribution of the polyopisthocotylean therefore may mirror the genetic distribution of the host. Namely, the pattern of genetic differentiation of the wild gilthead seabream in relation to geographic distribution in Aegean and Ionian Seas, and along the Italian coast suggests a lack of strong population structure, potentially linked to widespread of larval stages or aquaculture escapees (Franchini et al., 2012; Gkagkavouzis et al., 2019). Interestingly, despite the evidence for connectivity and gene flow, those studies identified the same level of population structure, highlighting the complexity of factors influencing population dynamic. It remains further to explore, the level of coevolutionary congruence between genetic differentiation of *S. chrysophrii* and the gilthead seabream in the Mediterranean.

 An important misconception about the life history of *S. chrysophrii* is that it is generally considered to be host-specific, which is a trait that usually limits the spread of the parasite but allows more efficient exploitation of the host due to a tight parasite-host coevolution (Sasal et al., 1999). Specialization on a single host type could lead to local extinction of the parasite and reduce the likelihood of successful establishment in new regions (Bush and Kennedy, 1999). Only a few previous studies have evidenced that the species is present in other Spariadae, such as the bogue and sharpsnout seabream (Mladineo et al., 2009; Sánchez-García et al 2015), while here the annular seabream, axillary seabream, blotched picarel, and common pandora have also been identified as hosts. This indicates that the actual host range is likely underestimated due to limited sampling efforts (Mladineo et al., 2023), but understanding the extent of the former is important for better framing of the polyopisthocotylean genetic structure.

5. Conclusions

 Sparicotyle chrysophrii has a panmictic distribution in the Mediterranean basin but forms three discrete genetic pools or clusters, driven by geographic constraints. Gene flow within these three clusters is at least facilitated by the dispersal of polyopisthocotylean eggs via the circulation of dominant currents and fronts, but anthropogenic influences should also be considered. Gene flow between parasites inhabiting wild and farmed GSB stocks is pronounced, but other sparids, such as the annular seabream, axillary seabream, blotched picarel, bogue, and common pandora, could also play a role in the transmission. This polyopisthocotylean should not be considered a host-specific, but rather a family-specific parasite.

Author contribution statement

Ivona Mladineo: conceptualization, investigation, statistical analysis, writing and editing.

Jerko Hrabar: sample collection and analyses, review, and editing.

Zeljka Trumbic: sample collection and analyses, review, and editing.

Somaye Rasouli-Dogaheh: statistical analysis, writing and editing.

Paola Beraldo: sample collection and analyses, review, and editing.

Donatella Volpatti: sample collection and analyses, review, and editing.

George Rigos: sample collection and analyses, review, and editing.

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 Ariadna Sitjà-Bobadilla: funding acquisition and coordination, sample collection, writing and editing.

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Declaration of Competing Interest

 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

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836 **Tables**

837 **Table 1**: Comparative genetic metrics across populations of the polyopisthocotylean *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* isolated from wild (W) and farmed

- 838 (F, F1-F3) gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) from Spain, Italy, Croatia, and Greece. N: number of collected parasites, Nx: number of sequences
- 839 used in analyses after filtering of low-quality reads; Pi: nucleotide diversity; He: expected heterozygosity; Ho: observed heterozygosity; MLH:
- 840 multi-locus heterozygosity (MLH); TD: Tajima's D; Hom: observed homozygosity; K: frequency of private alleles; F: inbreeding coefficient.
- 841 Statistics were not reported for populations with fewer than 10 individuals.

Table 2: Pairwise F_{ST} values among nine pre-defined populations of the polyopisthocotylean *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* infecting wild sparids (W) and farmed (F) gilthead seabream *Sparus aurata*. F_{ST} values were calculated only for populations with more than 10 individuals. Numbers in bold indicate statistically significant differences in genetic structure (*P*<0.05).

Figures

 Figure 1: Map of sampling locations of fish infected by polyopisthocotylean *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* in the Mediterranean. The triangles represent sampling sites of the farmed gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*), and circles represent sampling sites of the wild sparids.

 Figure 2: Summary of genetic differentiation among predefined populations of *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* infecting wild sparids and farmed gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*) in the Mediterranean: A) Scatterplot showing the first two principal components of the Discriminant Analyses of Principal Components (DAPC) performed on *S. chrysophrii*

 nuclear ddRAD SNPs as prior clusters (explaining 32% and 2.1% of variance) depicted in different colors; B) Scatterplot generated using *S. chrysophrii* populations grouped as wild and farmed; C) Group membership probability for each individual of *S. chrysophrii* derived using Admixture analysis and visualized in a STRUCTURE-like plot. Each vertical stacked column (100%) indicates an individual representing the proportions of ancestry in K constructed ancestral populations. The color gradient shows the degree of difference among individuals.

 Figure 3: Clustered fineRADstructure coancestry matrix based on nuclear ddRAD data. Predicted populations of *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* (Spain farmed, Italy farmed 1, 2, 3, Italy wild, Croatia farmed, Croatia wild, Greece farmed, Greece wild) are collectively grouped within the corresponding dendrogram. Red, purple, and dark purple colors in the matrix indicate a higher proportion of loci with shared coancestry.

 Figure 4: Isolation by distance (IBD) scatterplot shows the results of the Mantel test between 880 the geographic distance and the genetic distance (F_{ST}) based on SNPs among populations of *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* from wild sparids and farmed gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*). Two- dimensional kernel estimation of the correlation of the genetic and geographic distances are 883 shown ($r=0.31$, $p < 0.05$); line shows the correlation trend, and colors represent the relative density of points: blue low density, yellow medium density, and orange to red high density.

 Figure 5: Maximum likelihood population tree inferred by TreeMix constructed based on ddRAD-generated unlinked SNPs of *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* isolated from wild sparids and farmed gilthead seabream (*Sparus aurata*). Branch lengths are proportional to the evolutionary change (the drift parameter), and terminal nodes are labeled by population codes. The two

- Supplementary material
- Supplementary Table 1: Data of sampled *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* in the study, including
- sampling date, country, extraction date from the fish gills, coordinates of the sampling site,
- fish origin (wild or farmed) and fish species, fish total length, fish total weight, parasite id
- number, fish id number, total number of parasites, number of adult/ juvenile/ oncomiracidia
- 898 parasites stages per 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th gill arch left (L) and right (R).
- Supplementary Figure 1: Optimization of the -M, -m, and -N parameters of de novo assembly
- of RAD-seq data of *Sparicotyle chrysophrii* that recorded the number of assembled loci,

polymorphic loci, and SNPs generated for each run.