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Population structure and genetic diversity in the invasive freshwater snail Galba schirazensis (Lymnaeidae)

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43 **Population structure and genetic diversity in the invasive freshwater snail**

44 *Galba schirazensis* (Lymnaeidae)

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48

49 Abstract

We studied the population genetic structure of the freshwater snail Galba schirazensis, a 50 potential vector of infectious diseases such as fascioliasis. Galba schirazensis has now a 51 worldwide distribution but a poorly known origin because this species has been distinguished 52 only recently from the morphologically similar and cosmopolitan Galba truncatula. We 53 developed specific microsatellite markers and sequenced a mitochondrial gene (cytochrome 54 oxidase subunit I) to study individuals of G. schirazensis from the Old World and New World. 55 We found very low genetic diversity within populations, no heterozygotes, and marked 56 population structure—a pattern observed in other highly selfing lymnaeid species with recently 57 58 enlarged distributions as a result of biological invasions. The total lack of observed heterozygosity in the few populations of G. schirazensis that displayed some allelic diversity 59 60 suggests high selfing rates. We also found that the center of diversity, and by extension the origin area of this species, should be found in the New World, while Old World populations 61 62 should rather result from a recent introduction of a genetically uniform population. The microsatellite markers developed here will help to clarify the history of expansion of G. 63 schirazensis and might help understanding its role as a potential vector of infectious diseases. 64 65 66 Keywords: lymnaeids; Lymnaea; Galba schirazensis; Galba truncatula; vector; microsatellites;

67 selfing.

68 1. Introduction

During the last century, human activities and climatic change have considerably increased the 69 spread of species across their natural barriers and modified their areas of distribution (Kolar and 70 Lodge 2001), threatening local biodiversity (Davis 2009). To better understand these threats, it is 71 important to more fully characterize the species involved and the expansion pathways. 72 Freshwater systems are particularly sensitive to bioinvasion risks (Beisel and Lévêque 2010). 73 The Mollusca includes a large number of species invasive in freshwater habitats (Nunes et al. 74 75 2015). We here focus on the family Lymnaeidae in which several species have shown widespread long-distance colonization (Jabbour-Zahab et al. 1997, Meunier et al. 2001, Kopp et 76 al. 2012). Long-distance dispersal con occur as a result of human activities, such as aquarium 77 trade (Duggan 2010). Lymnaeids has a marked resistance to desiccation that increases their 78 survival probability (Chapuis and Ferdy 2012). If released in conducive new environments, even 79 one individual can found a population because lymnaeids are capable of self-fertilization, which 80 also happens to be the main reproductive mode in some species (e.g., Meunier et al. 2004b, 81 82 Escobar et al. 2011, Lounnas et al. 2016). Such colonization events may also spread food- and water-borne trematodes carried by lymnaeids (Meunier et al. 2001, Mas-Coma et al. 2005, 83 Correa et al. 2010), either because dispersing snails are themselves infected or because their 84 presence in a new location facilitates subsequent transmission that originates from nearby 85 86 infected vertebrates. Importantly, the worldwide expansion of the liver fluke *Fasciola hepatica*, 87 a parasite infecting livestock and humans, has been facilitated by the dispersal of lymnaeids 88 (Hurtrez-Boussès et al. 2001, Mas-Coma et al. 2005). 89

Despite their relevance to human and animal health, lymnaeids have been often misidentified
(Correa et al. 2010, 2011, Lounnas et al. 2016). *Galba* species, a phylogenetically distinct group
of small-shelled lymnaeids, exhibit high phenotypic plasticity in shell shape and display

extremely similar anatomical traits that make accurate species identification difficult in the 93 absence of molecular data (Samadi et al. 2000, Correa et al. 2011). For instance, Galba 94 schirazensis has only recently been distinguished from Galba truncatula in Europe and Asia and 95 from G. truncatula, Galba cubensis, and Galba viator in the Americas (Correa et al. 2010, 2011, 96 Bargues et al. 2011). However, G. schirazensis is now present in many regions of the world, 97 98 probably favored by its wide habitat range and its capacity to survive outside water for extended 99 time periods (Bargues et al. 2011). Recent molecular-based studies reported G. schirazensis in Iran, Egypt, Reunion Island, Spain, Dominican Republic, Mexico, Colombia, Venezuela, 100 Ecuador, and Peru (Bargues et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2010, 2011, reported as Lymnaea sp. and 101 Galba sp. by the latter authors), but were of course unnoticed because the species was recently 102 103 described. However, only highly conserved genetic markers have been used so far in species discrimination (Bargues et al. 2011; Correa et al. 2010, 2011). The population structure and 104 genetic diversity of the invasive lymnaeid G. schirazensis remains therefore largely unknown. 105 106 107 We developed microsatellite markers in G. schirazensis and use them to genotype 242 individuals from 18 localities in Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, Venezuela, USA, Spain, and Reunion 108 Island. We characterized the population structure and genetic diversity, and discuss it in light of 109 the breeding system and recent history of expansion of this species. We also assessed the 110 111 specificity of these markers by testing amplification in the morphologically similar and closely related Galba species, i.e. G. truncatula, G. cubensis, and G. viator. We also sequenced a 112 mitochondrial gene (cytochrome oxidase subunit I; CO1) to further elucidate the 113 phylogeographic relationships among these populations and the populations studied by Bargues 114 et al. (2011) and Correa et al. (2011).

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117 **2. Materials and methods**

118	Development of specific microsatellite markers
119	We mixed DNA from four individuals identified by Correa et al. (2011) as Galba sp. These
120	individuals were collected in Río Negro, Antioquia, Colombia (N 06°07'21" W 75°26'57").
121	DNA was extracted from foot tissue using the DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit (Qiagen) and
122	individuals were identified to species using the nuclear genes 18S (GenBank accession numbers:
123	JN614335, JN614339, JN614340, JN614342), ITS-1 (HQ283253, JN614429, JN614430,
124	JN614432), ITS-2 (HQ283263, JN614455, JN614456, JN614458), and the mtDNA gene CO1
125	(JN614370, JN614371, JN614373, JN614374). All these sequences showed 99–100% of
126	homology with the sequences of G. schirazensis reported by Bargues et al. (2011).
127	
128	Microsatellite loci were isolated from two enriched libraries (TC10 and TG10) following
129	protocols described in Dubois et al. (2005) and using biotin-labeled microsatellite oligoprobes
130	and streptavidin-coated magnetic beads. The enriched molecules were cloned into the pGEMt
131	vector used to transform XL1-Blue Supercompetent Cells. Recombinant clones were screened
132	with TC10, TG10, and AGE1 (AAACAGCTATGACCATGATTAC) or AGE2
133	(TTGTAAAACGACGGCCAGTG) oligonucleotides using a modified PCR method (Waldbieser
134	1995). We screened 228 clones, 163 of which gave a positive signal and were sequenced using
135	an ABI Prism 3100 sequencer (Applied Biosystems). Ninety seven sequences included a
136	repeated motif and flanking regions allowing determination of PCR primers that were designed
137	using Primer3 (Rozen and Skaletsky 1999). We retained the 25 loci that showed the largest
138	uninterrupted stretches of repeated motifs and selected the 22 ones that amplified successfully
139	(Table 1). We tested these 22 microsatellite loci in six individuals from five localities from the
140	Americas: Finca Jocum Bucaramanga (Colombia), Huagrahuma (Ecuador), Manto de la Novia
141	(Ecuador), Louisiana Bedico (USA; 2 individuals), and Bodoque (Venezuela; Table 2, Fig. 1).

We finally selected the 13 loci that were polymorphic in these six individuals for further

143 population genetic analyses.

144

145 To test the specificity of microsatellite markers, we also examined individuals of *G. truncatula*,

146 G. cubensis, and G. viator identified using the molecular markers 18S, ITS-1, ITS-2, and CO1

147 (GenBank accession numbers in Correa et al., 2011).

148

149 Population genetic analyses using microsatellite markers

We analyzed 238 individuals of G. schirazensis from 16 localities from Colombia, Ecuador, 150 Peru, USA, and Venezuela, as well as individuals from the Old World, one from Spain and three 151 152 from Reunion Island (Table 2, Fig. 1). The four latter individuals were initially identified as G. truncatula, but re-identified as G. schirazensis by analyzing the CO1 gene (GenBank accession 153 numbers in Table 2) and/or specific microsatellite loci. The Spanish specimen was collected 154 from within the geographic range of G. truncatula. The date of appearance of G. schirazensis in 155 156 this region is currently unknown. The population from Reunion Island is not native and was first ascribed to the introduced species G. truncatula (Griffiths and Florens 2006). Despite the small 157 sample sizes, we included these individuals because they constitute the first mention of G. 158 schirazensis in these two areas. All samples were collected from small areas ($< 2m^2$) to prevent a 159 160 Wahlund effect (Meunier et al. 2004*a*). Snails were killed in 70 °C water and immediately stored in 70% ethanol. 161

162

For each specimen, we removed the distal part of the foot, which was twice compressed between
paper towels to remove excess ethanol. DNA extractions were then performed using 200 μl of
5% Chelex® (Chelex Bio Rad diluted in a Tris-EDTA buffer) solution incorporating 5 μl of
proteinase K (Sigma) at a concentration of 20 mg/ml. This suspension was heated at 56 °C for 6

hours followed by gentle vortexing and a further incubation at 95 °C for 10 min. The mixture was gently vortexed and centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 sec. The supernatant (100 μ l) was collected, diluted 1: 10 in deionized water, and stored at -20 °C.

170

We amplified microsatellite loci in an Eppendorf Thermal Cycler, in a total volume of $10 \ \mu$ l 171 containing 5 µl of Taq PCR Master Mix Kit (Qiagen), 1 µl of the primer mix, and 1 µl of DNA. 172 173 PCR conditions were as follow: 15 min activation at 95 °C, 35 cycles including 30 sec of initial denaturation at 94 °C, 90 sec of annealing at 55 °C, and 60 sec of extension at 72 °C, followed 174 by 30 min of final extension at 60 °C. For genotyping, we pooled 3 µl of diluted (1: 100) PCR 175 products with 15 µl of Hi-Di Formamide and 0.15 µl of GeneScan-500 LIZ Size Standard and 176 analyzed it on an ABI Prism 3100 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). We performed 177 multiplexed locus amplification for those PCR products characterized by different sizes and 178 labeled with different fluorochromes. Allele sizes were estimated using GeneMapper® v.4.0 179 180 software (Applied Biosystems).

181

We used the individual genotypes of the 238 American individuals to estimate allelic richness, 182 observed and expected heterozygosities, the F-statistic F_{IS} , and the selfing rate (s) estimated as s 183 = $2 F_{IS} / (1 + F_{IS})$ (Hartl and Clark 1997). The global and pairwise differentiations among 184 185 populations were estimated using F_{ST} and R_{ST} . We could not use software that detect null alleles 186 because lymnaeids are hermaphroditic. Standard Bonferroni corrections were applied in the case of multiple tests (Rice 1989). We analyzed data using Genodive (version 2.0b23; Meirmans and 187 Van Tienderen, 2004) and FSTAT (version 2.9.3.2; Goudet, 1995) software. Individuals from 188 Spain and Reunion Island were not included in the population genetic analysis because sample 189 sizes were too low. However, we compared their genotypes to those of American individuals. 190 Multilocus genotypes were clustered using a discriminant analysis of principal components 191

192 (DAPC) using the adegenet package of R (Jombart et al. 2010). One of the main advantages of this analysis is that it does not rely on a particular population genetic model and is thus free of 193 assumptions about Hardy-Weinberg or linkage equilibrium. Six principal components were 194 retained as inferred by the α -score. The α -score gives a number of principal components 195 optimized in order to capture the best discrimination without overfitting. 196 197 198 Amplification and sequencing of CO1 and phylogeographic analysis We amplified and sequenced the CO1 gene in 21 snails from 11 populations (Fig. 3). Because of 199 200 amplification failure, we did not sequence it in individuals from Andaracas (Ecuador), Bodoque, 201 Zea el Amparo, La Azulita, Bailadores, and San Eusebio (Venezuela) and El Rocío (Spain). The 202 PCR primers were LCO1490 (5'-GGTCAACAACTCATAAAGATATTGG-3') and HCO2198 203 (5'-TAAACTTCAGGGTGACCAAAAAATCA-3') (Folmer et al. 1994). We used 2.5 μl of DNA, 12.5 μ l of Taq PCR Master Mix Kit (Qiagen), 2.5 μ l of each primer (2 μ M), and 5 μ l of 204 distilled water. PCR conditions were as follow: 15 min activation at 95 °C, 35 cycles including 205 30 sec of initial denaturation at 95 °C, 1 minute of annealing at 50 °C, and 10 min of extension at 206 72 °C, followed by 10 min of final extension at 72 °C. DNA sequencing was performed by 207 208 Eurofins MWG Operon (Germany). In addition, we downloaded from GenBank 13 CO1 sequences of G. schirazensis from Iran, Spain, Reunion Island, Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, 209 210 Venezuela, and Mexico (JF272607–JF272610, Bargues et al. 2011; JN614370–JN614378, Correa et al. 2011). 211

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The number of haplotypes, the number of polymorphic sites, and the nucleotide diversity were calculated using DnaSp V5 (Librado and Rozas 2009). Divergence between haplotypes were calculated using Mega7 (Kumar et al. 2016). CO1 sequences were aligned sequences using Clustal-W and used to build a Maximum Likelihood tree with the best-fitting model of sequence

217	evolution using Mega7 (Kumar et al. 2016). Model selection was based on Bayesian Information
218	Criterion using Mega7 (Kumar et al. 2016). Node robustness was assessed based on 500
219	bootstraps.
220	
221	3. Results
222	The sequences and primers of the 22 microsatellite loci that we identified in G. schirazensis are
223	available in GenBank (accession numbers in Table 1). No amplification was observed in the
224	closely related species G. truncatula, G. cubensis, and G. viator, suggesting that these 22 loci are
225	specific to G. schirazensis.
226	
227	Approximate position of Table 1.
228	
229	We characterized the variation at the 13 polymorphic loci in all American individuals. The
230	number of alleles per locus was 2.846 ± 0.274 SD, the observed heterozygosity was 0 at all loci,
231	and the mean expected heterozygosity was 0.007 ± 0.005 SD (Table 1). In most loci and
232	populations, the lack of diversity prevented us from estimating F_{IS} (Table 2). Among the four
233	loci and populations that showed allelic diversity at some loci (Table S1), the observed
234	heterozygosity was always zero ($F_{IS} = 1$, $s = 1$; Table 2).
235	
236	Approximate position of Table 2.
237	
238	We found high genetic differentiation among populations (global $F_{ST} = 0.979$; $P < 0.001$; global
239	$R_{ST} = 0.979$; $P < 0.001$). All population pairs coming from different countries (except for
240	Venezuela and Colombia) showed significant F_{ST} after Bonferroni's adjustment ($P = 0.0004$;
241	Table S2). In contrast, populations from the same country or from adjacent countries usually

showed no significant differentiation (Ecuador: $F_{ST} < 0.019$, NS; Venezuela and Colombia: $F_{ST} < 0.235$, NS). An exception is the Venezuelan population from La Trampa that differs significantly from most other Venezuelan and Colombian populations with F_{ST} between 0.3 and 0.45 (Table S2).

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Nine multilocus genotypes were found (Fig. 1). Some loci (1-8) could not be genotyped in some 247 248 individuals (N = 65). Thus, we did not ascribe these individuals with incomplete genotypes to any multilocus genotype. However, in these individuals the loci that could be genotyped were 249 exactly the same as in the individuals were all the loci were genotyped (Table S1). To analyze 250 the genetic structure of populations using the DAPC, we used all the individuals except for 12 251252 individual genotypes that had more than three loci that did not amplify (Table S1). Four clusters were detected by DAPC which grouped together individuals from (1) Peru, (2) Ecuador, (3) 253 Colombia, Venezuela, Spain, and Reunion Island, and (4) USA (Fig. 2; Table S1). Each cluster 254 consisted of a single main multilocus genotype with small within-cluster variation (Table S1). 255 256 Differences between the main genotypes and variants did not exceed one repeat (two base pairs), and was of one base pair in some cases. The exception is the specimen from Spain that differed 257 from the main type at two loci (Table S1). The main type from each cluster differed from those 258 of other clusters at five loci or more (Table S1). The largest difference was observed between 259 260 clusters from Ecuador and USA (all 13 loci fixed for different alleles). 261

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263

Approximate position of Figure 1.

We obtained 21 CO1 sequences of *G. schirazensis* (Table 2). The analysis of mtDNA CO1 sequences revealed 5 haplotypes (haplotype diversity: 0.499 ± 0.083 SD) determined by 9 polymorphic sites without indels. The best model describing the evolution of these sequences

267	and sequences retrieved from GenBank (Fig. 3) was T92+G. The Maximum Likelihood tree
268	showed that the sequences here studied were gathered in three clades: (i) one that grouped
269	sequences from Ecuador (cluster 2 in DAPC), (ii) one with the only sequence from USA (cluster
270	4), (iii) and one large worldwide clade that grouped the sequences from Peru (cluster 1) and
271	Venezuela, Colombia, and Reunion Island (cluster 3). Most CO1 sequences retrieved from
272	GenBank-that included sequences from Iran, Spain, Venezuela, Colombia, and Reunion
273	Island—were in the large worldwide clade (Fig. 3).
274	
275	The Maximum Likelihood tree was consistent with the results from the DAPC in grouping the
276	individuals from the same cluster in the same clade (Figs. 2 and 3). However, the tree did not
277	reflect the same genetic distances that we did observed with the DAPC, for instance the clusters
278	1 and 3 were genetically distant from each other in the DAPC but they gathered in the same
279	worldwide clade (Figs. 2 and 3). Also, the clusters 2 and 4 were genetically distant from each
280	other in the DAPC (Fig. 2) but they were genetically close in the tree and the CO1 sequences
281	diverged a little from each other (Table S3; Fig. 3). This inconsistency could be explained by a
282	mitochondrial introgression among populations.
283	
284	Approximate position of Figure 2.
285	
286	4. Discussion
287	We developed 13 polymorphic genetic markers to study the population structure and genetic
288	diversity of G. schirazensis, an invasive freshwater snail inhabiting Asia, Europe, and the New
289	World. These microsatellite loci were specific to G. schirazensis because we did not find any
290	amplification in the morphologically similar and most closely related species G. truncatula, G.

291 *cubensis,* and *G. viator.* Analyzing New World populations, we observed very low genetic

292 diversity within populations, a total lack of heterozygotes, and marked population structure. The lack of observed heterozygosity in those few populations that showed allelic diversity suggests 293 294 that G. schirazensis mainly reproduces by self-fertilization. This is consistent with the fact that under laboratory conditions, individuals isolated from birth are able to self fertilize (Bargues et 295 296 al. 2011). Our population genetic evidence for self-fertilization in natural population only relies on five locus-by-population combinations, all involving relatively rare alleles segregated in the 297 298 populations (Tables 2, S1). In the absence of self-fertilization, rare alleles are expected to be mainly in the heterozygous state, so it would be very improbable for them to appear only as 299 homozygotes in these five cases. Therefore, a high rate of self-fertilization is the most likely 300 explanation for the lack of heterozygosity. In addition, related lymnaeid species exhibit selfing 301 302 rates in the 80–100% range, for example G. cubensis (Lounnas et al. 2016), G. truncatula (Trouvé et al. 2000, Meunier et al. 2001, 2004a), Omphiscola glabra (Hurtrez-Boussès et al. 303 2005), and Pseudosuccinea columella (Nicot et al. 2008) which also show very low or absent 304 within-population allelic diversity, high F_{IS} , and large F_{ST} . In contrast, most populations of 305 306 mainly outcrossing lymnaeids such as Lymnaea stagnalis (Puurtinen et al. 2007, Kopp et al. 2012, Besnard et al. 2013) and Radix sp. (Pfenninger et al. 2011) have high polymorphism, low 307 F_{IS} , and moderate F_{ST} . Therefore, G. schirazensis shares the common characteristics of highly 308 selfing lymnaeid species studied so far. It also shares a similar ecology with G. cubensis, G. 309 310 truncatula, and O. glabra. All of them live mainly in temporary habitats that undergo frequent flooding and droughts that create strong bottlenecks (Meunier et al. 2004b). In this context, self-311 fertilization allows a single individual to colonize vacant habitats and to produce a new 312 population (Meunier et al. 2004*a*). Finally, the recently analyzed transcriptomes of both *G*. 313 truncatula and G. schirazensis bear molecular signatures consistent with ancient self-314 fertilization, dating back to their common ancestor (Burgarella et al. 2015). 315 316

317 It is very difficult to know *a priori* where G. schirazensis was present before 2010, hence 318 whether each particular population is native or invasive. Galba schirazensis has probably been 319 misidentified in previous reports of small lymnaeid species from all over the world, either as G. truncatula (everywhere) or as G. cubensis and G. viator (New World; Correa et al. 2010, 2011, 320 Bargues et al. 2011) as they all have very similar shell morphology and internal anatomy. Thus, 321 it is impossible to trace invasion routes using reports from the literature, except for places known 322 323 from historical records to be devoid of native small-shelled lymnaeids, such as Reunion Island where the G. schirazensis populations necessarily result from introduction(s). The geographic 324 origin of G. schirazensis remains unknown. Bargues et al. (2011) assumed that this species is 325 native to the Middle East as it was first described in Iran (Küster 1862). However, as is typical of 326 327 species descriptions of that time, only a brief description of the shell of G. schirazensis was provided, which could in practice fit many small-shelled lymnaeids, including the very 328 widespread G. truncatula. Therefore, the snail lineage studied in the present paper, re-described 329 on the basis of molecular sequences as G. schirazensis by Bargues et al. (2011), as Lymnaea sp. 330 by Correa et al. (2010), and as *Galba* sp. by Correa et al. (2011), may not necessarily be (i) the 331 same snail as that named G. schirazensis by Küster (1862) and (ii) native from the Middle East. 332 It current occurrence in Iran (Bargues et al. 2011) could well result from an introduction. 333

334

In this confused taxonomical situation, it is important to clearly list the available evidence on the possible geographical origin of *G. schirazensis*. Any mention of this species can only be ascertained based on molecular evidence in order to avoid misidentification. This eliminates all mentions prior to 2010, including the first description by Küster (1862). As a consequence, we must rely only on genetic diversity and phylogeny to identify likely origin areas. Bargues et al. (2011; Table 1) showed that all the individuals they sampled in the Old World (Iran, Egypt, and Spain) have exactly the same haplotypes at the nuclear genes18S, ITS-2, ITS-1 and the

mitochondrial genes 16S and CO1. However, they observed two to four different haplotypes for 342 each gene in American populations (Dominican Republic, Mexico, Peru, Ecuador, and 343 Venezuela), including the Old World haplotype. Our microsatellite study corroborates this 344 pattern, as each of the four different regions sampled in the New World forms well-defined and 345 346 differentiated clusters and the few individuals from two very distant places in the Old World (La Réunion and Spain), including one from a known recent introduction (Reunion Island), are 347 348 genetically related to only one of these clusters (Fig. 1). The phylogeographic tree is consistent with this pattern, since American CO1 sequences are variable while the sequences from the Old 349 World showed no variation and belong all to the large worldwide clade (Fig. 3). All this suggests 350 that the center of diversity, and by extension the origin area of this species, should be found in 351 the New World, while Old World populations should rather result from a recent introduction of a 352 genetically uniform population. In other snail species with the ability to self-fertilize, genetic 353 uniformity over large distances and many populations is indeed the signature of recent 354 introductions, for example in Lymnaea stagnalis introduced in New Zealand (Kopp et al. 2012) 355 356 or G. truncatula introduced on the Bolivian Altiplano (Meunier et al. 2001). Finally, an American origin for G. schirazensis is also corroborated by the phylogeny of Correa et al. 357 (2010), who concluded that the whole Galba clade likely has an American origin, as most of its 358 species are native there (G. cousini, G. viator, G. neotropica, G. cubensis, G. humilis). The 359 360 hypothesis posed by Bargues et al. (2011) of a post-Columbian introduction of G. schirazensis from Europe to the New World, is not consistent with our findings: it would have been very 361 362 unlikely to accumulate fixed differences at 13 distinct loci (as we observed between USA and Ecuador) in such a short time, while at the same time Venezuelan, Colombian, and Old World 363 populations would remain nearly identical and devoid of diversity over huge geographical 364 365 distances.

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367 Although our data together along with the report of Bargues et al. (2011) seem sufficient to 368 reject the hypothesis of a single recent introduction of G. schirazensis in the New World, more 369 extensive sampling is needed (i) to more fully understand the genetic variation observed among South and North America isolates and (ii) to test whether all the populations from the Old World 370 have a single recent introduced origin, an hypothesis so far consistent with the results of 371 conservative (Bargues et al. 2011, Correa et al. 2011, this study) and polymorphic (this study) 372 373 markers. The application of the genetic markers developed here to a more extensive sample that covers a worldwide range will therefore help to clarify the geographic origin and invasion routes 374 of G. schirazensis. 375 376 Understanding the population structure and the genetic diversity of G. schirazensis can also help 377 elucidating its role in spreading infectious diseases. However, our capacity to identify which 378 parasites are transmitted by G. schirazensis has hitherto been hindered by the morphological 379 380 similarity among Galba species (Correa et al. 2011). We need to identify by molecular means 381 morphologically cryptic Galba species and to identify the role of G. schirazensis as an 382 intermediate host of food- and water-borne trematodes such as F. hepatica. 383 384 In conclusion, our analysis provides strong support to the ideas that this species is predominantly 385 self-fertilizing, and has an American origin with recent colonization of the Old World by a 386 genetically uniform strain related to populations from Venezuela and Colombia-a hypothesis 387 that awaits confirmation by more extensive sampling. 388 Acknowledgements 389 390 We are most grateful to Nicolás Bonel for his useful comments on an earlier draft of the manuscript. ML was supported by a doctoral fellowship from University of Montpellier, AC by 391

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- 394

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519	Table 1. Microsatellite loci in Galba schirazensis. Description of loci and genetic variation in
520	six individuals from five localities (polymorphic loci in bold characters). Annealing
521	temperature is 55 °C for all loci. Na, number of alleles detected; RAS, range of allele size
522	(in base pairs).

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Locus	Primer sequences $(5' \rightarrow 3')$	GenBank accession number	Repeat motif	Na	RAS
Gsch_1	F: TTTTGGGTCAACATTAGGTTAGG R: GAACATTTGACACAGTAGCGTTG	KT324711	(TC) ₁₃	3	213–249
Gsch_2	F: ACGTGCACACTTCTCCCTCT R: GCCTTGGTGCAGTTTTGTATT	KT324709	(CT) ₂₃	1	185
Gsch_3	F: TGTAGGCAAAGGCACAAAAA R: AGGGTGTAAGGGCTGAATTG	KT324702	(CT) ₁₃	4	152–178
Gsch_4	F: TTCATTGTCTGCTCCTGCTG R: CGCCACTGGTCGATAGACTT	KT324708	(TC) ₂₀ (CT) ₁₃	2	157–160
Gsch_5	F: GGTCGTTTAGCAGCCTAGCA R: CGACCGTTCAAACGTTACTG	KT324710	(GT) ₁₀ (AG) ₁₃	2	179–185
Gsch_7	F: AAACGACCGTTTCTAAGGTGA R: CCCTGAACCAACAGAGCATT	KT324707	(AG) ₂₃	1	244
Gsch_9	F: GGCGGAAACGAAGAGAGTAA R: TACGTGCACACACTCAACCA	КТ324705	(TC) ₁₁	4	207–227
Gsch_10	F: AGGAGAGTCCCATTGAGCTG R: CGAAACTGTTGAAGGCATTG	KT324706	(GT) ₁₁	1	218
Gsch_11	F: AACACATTTCCACCCACACA R: CTTTCTTTCGCGTGGGGTAT	KT324712	(CT) ₁₈	2	216–235
Gsch_12	F: CTGGGGGCTAACCCAAGAATC R: TTTGGGGGTTGAGGGCTTTAT	KT324713	(TG) ₁₀	1	151
Gsch_13	F: TCACGTTCTCGTGGTTCTCA R: GTCGATGGGGGCTATGTGTCT	KT324714	(CA) ₁₀	5	166–173
Gsch_14	F: CGATGGCGCCAACTTATTTA R: TCATATCGCTACGGACATTCA	KT324715	(CA) ₁₀	2	201–222
Gsch_15	F: TGAGACGGGCAAGATTTCTC R: AGGGTTCGATTCCCATCTCT	KT324716	(CT) ₁₅	1	154
Gsch_17	F: CTTCATCCACGCAGCAAGTA R: GGGGGCCGATATTAATTTTT	KT324717	(AC) ₁₃	1	205
Gsch_18	F: GACGGACCGTGAATTAGAGC	KT324718	(AG) ₁₁	1	210

R: ATTGTTGCGGCGGATAACTA

Gsch_19	F: CGGTATTAGGGTGTCATGTGC R: CAGGGGGGAACCATAAAGTTG	KT324719	(CA) ₁₂	1	171
Gsch_20	F: CAGTGAGACAGAGCCACGAA R: ATTGCCGACACGTTTGTTGT	KT324720	(AG) ₃₁	1	192
Gsch_21	F: CGCTAGACCTTTCTTTCTGTCC R: TTACAAGCTCTTGGGAACGA	KT324721	(TC) ₁₄	3	239–279
Gsch_22	F: TGTGTGTGTGTTTGTGGAGAGAGA R: GTGTTACGCATGGTGAACCT	KT324722	(AG) ₁₁	3	249–322
Gsch_23	F: AATGACCCAGTGGGGAAG R: TGGGGAAGGTTCAATTGTTT	KT324723	(AC) ₁₆	2	227–232
Gsch_24	F: GCGTGCGTGTATGTGAAAGA R: GGGGCTCTTCAAGTGTGTGT	KT324704	(AG) ₁₀	3	167–171
Gsch_25	F: AGCCAGACAAAGGGGGGATAG R: GGGCAGGTTCATTACTCTGTTC	KT324703	(GA) ₁₉	2	188–190



Table 2. Populations of *Galba schirazensis* and their genetic variability. Genetic parameters were not calculated in the samples from Spain and La Réunion Island because of too small sample size. N, sample size; Na, mean number of alleles; He, expected heterozygosity; F_{IS} , inbreeding coefficient and *P*-value; NA, not available. Bonferroni corrections were applied (P = 0.0125). Observed heterozygosity was null in all populations.

Country	Location	Acronym	Coordinates	Sampling year	GenBank accession number	N	Na	Не	F_{IS}	Estimated selfing rate
Peru	La Joya de Arequipa	LJ	16°28'56" S 71°49'07" W	2012	KY198250, KY198260	14	1.000	0.000	-	-
Ecuador	Huagrahuma	HU	02°47'32" S 79°16'31" W	2012	KT781302, KT781304	13	1.000	0.000	-	-
	Manto de la Novia	MN	01°24'03" S 78°17'49" W	2011	KT781305, KT781315	15	1.000	0.000	-	-
	Hacienda Cienaga	HC	00°46'18" S 78°37'10" W	2011	KT781301	12	1.000	0.000	-	-
	Andaracas	AN	00°26'10" S 78°32'22" W	2014	-	14	1.077	0.013	1 (<0.0001)	1
	Nono	NO	00°03'25" S 78°34'15" W	2014	KY198255, KY198256	16	1.000	0.000	-	-
Colombia	Finca Jocum Bucaramanga	FJ	07°06'25" N 73°04'60" W	2012	KY198253, KY198254	14	1.000	0.000	-	-
Venezuela	Bodoque	BO	08°16'15" N 71°48'51" W	2005	-	18	1.077	0.033	1 (<0.0001)	1
	Los Nevados	LN	08°27'41" N 71°04'28" W	2013	KT781320	18	1.000	0.000	-	-
	Zea el Amparo	ZA	08°21'40" N 71°46'01" W	2005	-	9	1.000	0.000	-	-
	La Azulita	LA	08°44'06" N 71°26'49" W	2005	-	11	1.000	0.000	-	-
	Bailadores	BA	08°14'05" N 71°50'26" W	2005	-	18	1.000	0.000	-	-
	San Eusebio	SE	08°38'39" N 71°23'42" W	2005	-	18	1.000	0.000	-	-
	Sabana Alto	SA	08°36'11" N 71°27'45" W	2013	KT781322, KT781323, KT781324	7	1.000	0.000	-	-

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	La Trampa	LT	08°33'31" N 71°27'13" W	2013	KY198251, KY198252	20	1.154	0.048	1 (<0.0001)	1
USA	Louisiana Bedico	LB	30°26'11" N 90°15'01" W	NA	KT781332	21	1.077	0.015	1 (<0.0001)	1
Spain	El Rocío	ER	37°08'02" N 06°28'18" W	2010	-	1	-	-	-	-
La Reunion Island (France)	Ravine du Gol	RG	21°14'26" S 55°25'07" E	2009	KY198257, KY198258, KY198259	3	-	-	-	-

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Geographic location of multilocus microsatellite genotypes of *Galba schirazensis*. Each multilocus genotype is figured by a color and a letter. Each pie chart represents a population. See Table 2 for population acronyms.

Figure 2. Genetic population structure of *Galba schirazensis*. Scatter plot of 230 individuals on the first two DAPC axes (first axis: 61% of total variance; second axis: 22%). Individuals group in four clusters.

Figure 3. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of *Galba schirazensis* based on mtDNA CO1 sequences. Bootstrap values are indicated at each node. Sequences are given their GenBank accession numbers. Colored sequences are those obtained in this study, the others having been retrieved from GenBank. *Galba truncatula* JN614386 sequence (Correa et al. 2011) was used as outgroup. For each sequence obtained here, the color code refers to the cluster number derived from DAPC.

Supplementary material

Table S1. Multilocus genotype of *Galba schirazensis*. N is the number of individuals for a given multilocus genotype. * indicates the genotypes that were discarded from DAPC due to more the three not amplified loci. Further details about loci and populations in Table 2 from main text.

Table S2. Genetic distance between populations of *Galba schirazensis*. Pairwise *FST* values on the lower diagonal, *P*-values on the upper diagonal. Bonferroni corrections were applied in all pairwise comparisons (P = 0.0004). FJ, Finca Jocum Bucaramanga; AN, Andaracas; HC, Hacienda Cienaga; HU, Huagrahuma; MN, Manto de la Novia; NO, Nono; LJ, La Joya de Arequipa; LB, Louisiana Bedico; LA, La Azulita; BA, Bailadores; BO, Bodoque; LN, Los Nevados; SA, Sabana Alto; SE, San Eusebio; LT, La Trampa; ZA, Zea el Amparo.

Table S3. Divergence between sequences of CO1 in *Galba schirazensis*. The number of base substitutions per site between sequences are shown. Haplotype 1, Iran, Spain, Reunion Island, Venezuela, Colombia, and Peru (the sequences here studied); Haplotype 2, Peru (the sequences studied by Bargues et al. 2011); Haplotype 3, Mexico; Haplotype 4, USA; Haplotype 5, Ecuador.

References in Supplementary Material

Bargues, M.D., Artigas, P., Khoubbane, M., Flores, R., Glöer, P., Rojas-García, R., Ashrafi, K., Falkner, G., and Mas-Coma, S. 2011. *Lymnaea schirazensis*, an overlooked snail distorting fascioliasis data: Genotype, phenotype, ecology, worldwide spread, susceptibility, applicability. PLoS ONE 6 6: e24567. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0024567.







Figure 3. Maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree of Galba schirazensis based on mtDNA CO1 sequences. Bootstrap values are indicated at each node. Sequences are given their GenBank accession numbers. Colored sequences are those obtained in this study, the others having been retrieved from GenBank. Galba truncatula JN614386 sequence (Correa et al. 2011) was used as outgroup. For each sequence obtained here, the color code refers to the cluster number derived from DAPC.

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Table S1. Multilocus genotype of Galba schirazensis. N is the number of individuals for a given multilocus genotype. * indicates the genotypes that were discarded from DAPC due to more the three not amplified loci. Further details about loci and populations in Table 2 from main text.

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169 169	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171			171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	171 171	169 169	169 169	169 169	169 169	169 169		169 169	169 169	169 169	
232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232		-	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	232 232	227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227		226 226	
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	279 279	279 279	279 279	279 279			-	279 279	279 279	279 279	279 279		279 279	279 279	279 279	279 279	279 279		279 279	279 279	279 279	279 279	279 279	239 239	239 239	239 239	239 239	239 239	239 239	239 239		239 239	
222 222	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201		-	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201		201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	201 201	222 222	222 222	222 222	222 222	222 222	222 222	222 222	222 222	222 222	
172 172	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166			166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	166 166	170 170	170 170	170 170	170 170		170 170	,		170 170	
<mark>235 235</mark>	216216	216216	216216	216216			216216	216216		216216	216216		216216	216216	216216	216216	216216		216216	216216	216216	216216	-	235 235	235 235	235 235		235 235		235 235	235 235	235 235	
221 221	227 227	221 221	227 227	227 227	227 227			227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227		227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227	227 227	•	227 227		227 227	227 227	209 209	209 209	209 209	209 209	209 209	209 209	209 209			
185 185	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179		179 179	179 179	179 179	•	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	179 179	185 185	185 185	185 185	185 185	185 185	185 185	185 185	185 185		
157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	•	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	•	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	157 157	160 160	160 160			160 160	160 160	160 160	,		
152 152	178 178	178 178	•	178 178	178 178	•	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	•	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	178 178	162 162	161 161	162 162	162 162	162 162	162 162	162 162			
249 249	249 249	249 249	249 249		249 249	249 249		249 249	249 249		249 249	249 249	249 249	249 249	•	249 249	249 249		249 249	249 249	249 249	•	249 249	233 233	233 233		233 233		•	233 233	233 233	233 233	
(1)	(2)	(2)	(2)	3	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(7)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	(4)	
	ы	ц						Е			н			Е						ш				Η	Ι								
1	8	-	-	1	-	-	1	6	-	7	11	-	1	10	-	-	-	-	-	13	-	-	1	12	7	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	242
	Andaracas							Hacienda Cienaga			Huagrahuma			Manto de la Novia						Nono				Louisiana Bedico									
	Ecuador																							USA									

Table S2. Genetic distance between populations of Galba schirazensis. Pairwise F_{ST} values on the lower diagonal, P-values on the upper diagonal. Bonferroni corrections were applied in all pairwise comparisons (P = 0.00041). FJ, Finca Jocum Bucaramanga; AN, Andaracas; HC, Hacienda Cienaga; HU, Huagrahuma; MN, Manto de la Novia: NO. Nono: LJ. La Jova de Areauina: LB. Louisiana Bedico: LA. La Azulita: BA. Bailadores: BO. Bodoque: LN. Los Nevados: SA. Sabana Alto: SE. San Eusebio:

	ZA	1,000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	1 000	0.001	0.127	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.003	
	LT	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	100.0	0.004	0.168	0.001	0.013	0.001		0.344
	SE	1,000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	1 000	0.501	0.046	1,000	1,000	I	0.435	0.000
	SA	1,000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	1 000	000,1	0.157	1,000	,	0.000	0.330	0.000
	LN	1,000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	1 000	0.510	0.050	ı	0.000	0.000	0.435	0.000
	BO	0.054	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0110	0.044		0.235	0.142	0.235	0.053	0.155
ela	BA	0.760	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	177.0	0./41	0.150	0.003	-0.052	0.003	0.354	-0.043
Venezu	LA	1,000	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001		- 0.028	0.177	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.368	0.000
USA	LB	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	-	0.006	0.000	0.964	0.989	0.984	0.989	0.952	0.985
Peru	LJ	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001	0.001		0.987	1 000	0.000	0.955	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.936	1,000
	NO	0.001	0.311	1,000	1,000	1,000	ı	1,000	0.992	1 000	0.000	0.975	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.963	1,000
	MN	0.001	0.323	1,000	1,000		0.000	1,000	0.991	1 000	0.003	0.974	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.962	1,000
	HU	0.001	0.752	1,000		0.000	0.000	1,000	066.0	1 000	0.001	0.972	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.959	1,000
r	HC	0.001	0.721	ı	0.000	0.000	0.000	1,000	0.991	1 000	0,000	0.970	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.956	1,000
Ecuado	AN	0.001	ı	0.000	0.000	0.013	0.019	0.991	0.986	0000	0.0250	0.964	0.993	0.988	0.993	0.951	0.989
Colombia	FJ	ı	0.992	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	1,000	0.987	0000	-0.010	0.204	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.400	0.000
		ЕJ	AN	HC	ΗU	NΜ	NO	Γſ	LB	<	ч Ч	BO BO	ΓN	SA	SE	LT	ZA
		Colombia	Ecuador					Peru	USA	Voucencle	V CIICZUCIA						

Table S3. Divergence between sequences of CO1 in *Galba schirazensis*. The number of base substitutions per site between sequences are shown. Haplotype 1, Iran, Spain, Reunion Island, Venezuela, Colombia, and Peru (the sequences here studied); Haplotype 2, Peru (the sequences studied by Bargues et al. 2011); Haplotype 3, Mexico; Haplotype 4, USA; Haplotype 5, Ecuador.

	Haplotype 1	Haplotype 2	Haplotype 3	Haplotype 4	Haplotype 5
Haplotype 1					
Haplotype 2	0.012				
Haplotype 3	0.007	0.014			
Haplotype 4	0.009	0.016	0.002		
Haplotype 5	0.012	0.019	0.005	0.002	