

1 **Low occurrence and limited zoonotic potential of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Giardia***
2 ***duodenalis*, and *Balantioides coli* infections in free-ranging and farmed wild**
3 **ungulates in Spain**

4

5 Running Head: Zoonotic protist parasites in Spanish wild ungulates

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57 SUMMARY

58 Little information is currently available on the occurrence and molecular diversity of the
59 enteric protozoan parasites *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Giardia duodenalis*, and *Balantioides*
60 *coli* in wild ungulates and the role of these host species as potential sources of
61 environmental contamination and human infections. The presence of these three
62 pathogens was investigated in eight wild ungulate species present in Spain (genera
63 *Ammotragus*, *Capra*, *Capreolus*, *Cervus*, *Dama*, *Ovis*, *Rupicapra*, and *Sus*) by molecular
64 methods. Faecal samples were retrospectively collected from free-ranging ($n = 1,058$) and
65 farmed ($n = 324$) wild ungulates from the five Spanish bioregions. Overall infection rates
66 were 3.0% (42/1,382; 95% CI: 2.1–3.9%) for *Cryptosporidium* spp., 5.4% (74/1,382;
67 95% CI: 4.2–6.5%) for *G. duodenalis*, and 0.7% (9/1,382; 95% CI: 0.3–1.2%) for *B. coli*.
68 *Cryptosporidium* spp. was detected in roe deer (7.5%), wild boar (7.0%) and red deer
69 (1.5%), and *G. duodenalis* in southern chamois (12.9%), mouflon (10.0%), Iberian wild
70 goat (9.0%), roe deer (7.5%), wild boar (5.6%), fallow deer (5.2%) and red deer (3.8%).
71 *Balantioides coli* was only detected in wild boar (2.5%, 9/359). Sequence analyses
72 revealed the presence of six distinct *Cryptosporidium* species: *C. ryanae* in red deer, Roe
73 deer, and wild boar; *C. parvum* in red deer and wild boar; *C. ubiquitum* in roe deer; *C.*

74 *scrofarum* in wild boar; *C. canis* in roe deer; and *C. suis* in red deer. Zoonotic assemblages
75 A and B were detected in wild boar and red deer, respectively. Ungulate-adapted
76 assemblage E was identified in mouflon, red deer, and southern chamois. Attempts to
77 genotype samples positive for *B. coli* failed. Sporadic infections by canine- or swine-
78 adapted species may be indicative of potential cross-species transmission, although
79 spurious infections cannot be ruled out. Molecular evidence gathered is consistent with
80 parasite mild infections and limited environmental contamination with (oo)cysts. Wild
81 ungulate species would not play a significant role as source of human infections by these
82 pathogens. Wild ruminants are not susceptible hosts for *B. coli*.

83

84 **KEYWORDS**

85 Enteric protozoan parasites, wildlife, disease transmission, occurrence, molecular
86 diversity, genotyping, zoonoses

87

88 **1. INTRODUCTION**

89 Ungulates are suitable hosts for numerous zoonotic pathogens representing a public
90 health concern (Palmer et al., 2017; Trimmel & Walzer, 2020). In Europe, wild ungulate
91 species have increased their densities and expanded their habitat ranges during the last
92 few decades due to land-use changes (Carpio et al., 2021). Human-driven overabundance
93 of wild ungulate populations might increase the interaction with other animals and the
94 risk of zoonotic transmission. Among parasitic agents, the enteric protozoa
95 *Cryptosporidium* spp. and *Giardia duodenalis*, and, to a lesser extent, the ciliate
96 *Balantioides coli* can infect a wide variety of ungulate species (Feng & Xiao, 2011;
97 Ponce-Gordo & García-Rodríguez 2021; Santín 2020; Zahedi et al., 2015). Indeed,
98 diarrhoea caused by both *Cryptosporidium* spp. and *G. duodenalis* infections has been

99 associated with significant economic losses due to growth retardation and mortality in
100 infected livestock (Hatam-Nahavandi et al., 2019; Santín, 2020). *Balantioides coli* is the
101 only ciliate known to infect humans. In addition, this parasite is commonly found in
102 domestic and wild swine populations, suggesting that these animals are the main reservoir
103 of this pathogen (Ponce-Gordo & García-Rodríguez, 2021). All three parasite species are
104 faecal-orally transmitted through cysts (*G. duodenalis* and *B. coli*) or oocysts
105 (*Cryptosporidium* spp.) either by direct contact with faeces of infected humans or animals
106 or indirectly by ingestion of contaminated water or foodstuffs.

107 Currently, at least 46 *Cryptosporidium* species are considered taxonomically valid
108 (Ježková et al., 2021; Ryan et al., 2021; Zahedi et al., 2021), of which ten
109 species/genotypes have been reported in cervids: *C. parvum*, *C. bovis*, *C. ryanae*, *C.*
110 *ubiquitum*, *C.* deer genotype, *C. muris*, *C. andersoni*, *C. parvum* genotype II, *C.* cervine
111 genotype, and *C. suis*-like genotype (Hatam-Nahavandi et al., 2019). On the other hand,
112 only *C. parvum*, *C. suis* and *C. scrofarum* have been reported in wild boar (*Sus scrofa*) to
113 date (García-Preledo et al., 2013b; Ryan et al., 2021).

114 *Giardia duodenalis* is one of the most common enteric parasites that infect
115 humans as well as domestic and wild mammals (Feng & Xiao, 2011). This pathogen is
116 considered as a species complex that comprises eight (A to H) genetic variants or
117 assemblages (Cai et al., 2021). Assemblages A and B are able to infect a wide range of
118 hosts including humans, livestock, companion animals, and wildlife and are considered
119 zoonotic. Assemblages C and D are mainly identified in canids, E in domestic and wild
120 hoofed animals, F in felids, G in rodents, and H in marine mammals (Cai et al., 2021).
121 Besides assemblage E, assemblages A and to a lesser extent B and C have been reported
122 in ungulate species (Cai et al., 2021).

123 Comparatively, the molecular diversity of *B. coli* is more limited than that
124 observed in the *Cryptosporidium* and *Giardia* genera. To date, three (A to C) genotypes
125 have been reported. Genotypes A and B are found in various host species, whereas
126 genotype C seems to be restricted to non-human primates (Ponce-Gordo et al., 2011).
127 However, little is known on the role of non-human primates or non-swine animals as
128 suitable hosts for *B. coli*.

129 In Spain, data on the occurrence and molecular diversity of *G. duodenalis*,
130 *Cryptosporidium* spp., and *B. coli* in ungulate species is limited. Most studies have
131 reported the presence of these parasites in farmed ungulate species, whereas few studies
132 have been carried out in wild animal populations (Table S1). *Cryptosporidium* infections
133 have been identified in wild ungulates of the genera *Capreolus*, *Cervus*, and *Sus* with
134 prevalence rates ranging from 4–17%. *Cryptosporidium bovis* and *C. ryanae* have been
135 detected in roe deer (*Capreolus capreolus*), and *C. parvum*, *C suis*, and *C. scrofarum* in
136 wild boar (Table S1). *Giardia duodenalis* has been reported in members of the genera
137 *Capreolus*, *Cervus*, and *Sus* at prevalence rates of 1–23%. Only assemblage A has been
138 documented in roe deer (García-Presedo et al., 2013a). A single study reported the
139 presence of *B. coli* in wild boar in Córdoba (Rivero-Juarez et al., 2020). Given the scarcity
140 of molecular epidemiological data on these enteric parasites in ungulate species in Spain,
141 the purpose of the current study was to investigate the occurrence, genetic diversity, and
142 zoonotic potential of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *G. duodenalis*, and *B. coli* in free-ranging
143 and farmed wild ungulates at the national scale.

144

145 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

146 **2.1. Ethical statement**

147 Sampled animals were legally hunted under Spanish (RD 8/2003, RD 138/2020) and EU
148 (RD 53/2013) legislation. All the hunters had hunting licenses. Professional personnel
149 collected the faecal samples from hunter-harvested wild ruminants and boar during the
150 regular hunting seasons.

151

152 **2.2. Study area and sampling strategy**

153 Between 1999 and 2021, a retrospective nationwide survey was performed. Faecal
154 samples from the eight wild ungulate species present in Spain: Barbary sheep
155 (*Ammotragus lervia*), Iberian wild goat (*Capra pyrenaica*), roe deer, red deer (*Cervus*
156 *elaphus*), fallow deer (*Dama dama*), mouflon (*Ovis aries musimon*), southern chamois
157 (*Rupicapra pyrenaica*), and wild boar, were collected throughout the five bioregions
158 (BRs, see below) of mainland Spain (Table 1).

159 Based on landscape structure, major ecosystems, game management practices,
160 and socio-political aspects, the Spanish Wildlife Disease Surveillance Scheme splits
161 mainland Spain into five different BRs sharing similar epidemiological features
162 (PNVSFS, 2020). BR1 comprises the Northern areas of temperate Atlantic climate with
163 almost no game management; meanwhile, the remaining BRs present a Mediterranean
164 climate with an increasing drought gradient from BR2 to BR4. In the Mediterranean BRs,
165 game management is not the norm except for BR3 and the Southwest of BR5, where the
166 highly productive savannah-like or oak forest landscapes are frequently profited for large
167 game production. Mountain habitats are more dominant in BRs 1, 2, and 5, while cereal
168 plains are predominant in BR4. This zoning has been previously exploited to facilitate
169 disease surveillance efforts in wild ungulates in Spain (García-Bocanegra et al., 2016;
170 González-Barrio et al., 2015; Jiménez-Ruiz et al., 2021; Lorca-Oró et al., 2014; Muñoz
171 et al., 2010). From each sampling site, that is, hunting estates or game reserves ($n = 63$,

172 Table S2) selected by simple random sampling throughout the study area, the animals
173 (15–20 whenever possible) were also randomly sampled. Figure 1 shows the map of the
174 Iberian Peninsula showing the sampling areas and the geographical distribution of
175 protozoan DNA detected according to the bioregion of origin in all free-ranging and
176 farmed wild ungulate species (Panel A), in free-ranging and farmed wild cervid (fallow
177 deer, red deer, and roe deer) species only (Panel B), in free-ranging wild bovid (Barbary
178 sheep, Iberian wild goat, mouflon, and suthern chamois) species only (Panel C), and in
179 wild boar only (Panel D).

180 Faecal samples were collected directly from the rectum of each animal during field
181 necropsies after hunting using disposable gloves and placed in individual sterile tubes
182 with records of the date, location, and host species. Collected samples were transported
183 in cooled boxes to each participating institution responsible for the sampling and stored
184 at –20°C. Aliquots of these faecal samples were shipped to the Spanish National Centre
185 for Microbiology, Majadahonda (Spain) for subsequent molecular analyses.

186 For comparative purposes, aliquots of faecal samples from a farmed wild red deer
187 population located in southern Spain (Figure 1, Panel B) were obtained from a previous
188 work (González-Barrio et al., 2017). These red deer were semi-extensively bred in a
189 forest-shrub prairie habitat divided into different plots by high-wire fencing. The animals
190 were kept in separate batches according to their sex and productive status. Batches of 60–
191 80 reproductive females were kept within large-fenced areas (6–8 ha), whereas males
192 were kept in separate enclosures. The animals were identified with individual ear tags.
193 Faecal material was collected directly from the rectum using sterile disposable latex
194 gloves during routine health veterinary inspections.

195

196 **2.3. DNA extraction and purification**

197 Genomic DNA was isolated from about 200 mg of each faecal specimen of free-ranging
198 or farmed wild ungulate by using the QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden,
199 Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions, except that samples mixed with
200 InhibitEX buffer were incubated for 10 min at 95°C. Extracted and purified DNA samples
201 were eluted in 200 μ l of PCR-grade water and kept at 4°C until further molecular analysis.

202

203 **Molecular detection and characterisation of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Giardia*** 204 ***duodenalis*, and *Balantioides coli***

205 Detailed information on the PCR cycling conditions and oligonucleotides used for the
206 molecular identification and/or characterisation of the protozoan parasites investigated in
207 the present study is presented in Tables S3 and S4, respectively.

208 The presence of *Cryptosporidium* spp. was assessed using a nested PCR protocol
209 to amplify a 587-bp fragment of the small subunit of the rRNA (*ssu* rRNA) gene of the
210 parasite (Tiangtip and Jongwutives, 2002). Specific subtyping tools targeting the partial
211 60-kDa glycoprotein gene (*gp60*) were used in those samples that tested positive for
212 *Cryptosporidium* by *ssu*-PCR including *C. canis* (Jiang et al., 2021), *C. parvum* (Feltus
213 et al., 2008), *C. ryanae* (Yang et al, 2020), and *C. ubiquitum* (Li et al., 2014) to ascertain
214 intra-species genetic diversity.

215 The presence of *G. duodenalis* was investigated using a real-time PCR (qPCR)
216 method targeting a 62-bp region of the *ssu* rRNA gene of the parasite as initial screening
217 methods (Verweij et al., 2003). For assessing the molecular diversity of *G. duodenalis* at
218 the assemblage level, a nested PCR was used to amplify a 300-bp fragment of the *ssu*
219 rRNA gene in those samples that yielded cycle threshold (C_T) values <35 in qPCR
220 (Appelbee et al., 2003). For assessing the molecular diversity of the parasite at the sub-
221 assemblage level we adopted a sequence-based multilocus genotyping (MLST) scheme

222 targeting the genes encoding for the glutamate dehydrogenase (*gdh*), β -giardin (*bg*), and
223 triose phosphate isomerase (*tpi*) proteins of the parasite. Only samples that yielded qPCR
224 C_T values <32 were assessed under the MLST scheme. A semi-nested PCR was used to
225 amplify a 432-bp fragment of the *gdh* gene (Read et al., 2004), and nested PCRs were
226 used to amplify 511 and 530 bp fragments of the *bg* and *tpi* genes, respectively (Lalle et
227 al., 2005 Sulaiman et al., 2003).

228 *Balantioides coli* detection was attempted by a direct PCR assay to amplify the
229 complete ITS1–5.8s-rRNA–ITS2 region and the last 117 bp (3' end) of the *ssu*-rRNA
230 sequence of this ciliate using (Ponce-Gordo et al., 2011).

231 All the direct, semi-nested and nested PCR protocols described above were
232 conducted on a 2720 Thermal Cycler (Applied Biosystems). Reaction mixes always
233 included 2.5 U of MyTAQTM DNA polymerase (Bioline GmbH, Luckenwalde, Germany)
234 and 5–10 μ l 5 \times MyTAQTM Reaction Buffer containing 5 mM deoxynucleotide
235 triphosphates and 15 mM MgCl₂. Negative and positive controls were included in every
236 PCR run. PCR amplicons were visualized on 2% D5 agarose gels (Conda, Madrid, Spain)
237 stained with Pronasafe (Conda nucleic acid staining solutions. A 100 bp DNA ladder
238 (Boehringer Mannheim GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) was used for the sizing of the
239 obtained amplicons.

240

241 **2.4. Sequence analysis**

242 All amplicons of the expected size were directly sequenced in both directions with the
243 corresponding internal primer pair (see Table S4) in 10 μ l reactions using Big DyeTM
244 chemistries and an ABI 3730xl sequencer analyser (Applied Biosystems, Foster City,
245 CA). Raw sequences were examined with Chromas Lite version 2.1 software
246 (<http://chromaslite.software.informer.com/2.1>) to generate consensus sequences. These

247 sequences were compared with reference sequences deposited at the National Center for
248 Biotechnology Information (NCBI) using the BLAST tool
249 (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>). Sequences generated in the present study were
250 deposited in the GenBank public repository database under accession numbers OP164760
251 (*C. canis*), OP164761–OP164762 (*C. parvum*), OP164763–OP164767 (*C. ryanae*),
252 OP164768–OP164773 (*C. scrofarum*), OP164774 (*C. suis*), OP164775 (*C. ubiquitum*),
253 and OP888101-OP888103 (*G. duodenalis*).

254

255 **2.5. Statistical analysis**

256 The pathogens community was analysed with a Permutational Multivariate Analysis of
257 Variance (PERMANOVA). Two fixed factors were entered into the analysis: bioregion
258 (with five levels) and species (with eight levels). Type III Sum of Squares was used since
259 it is appropriate in the case of an unbalanced design. All the tests were performed with
260 999 permutations to increase the power and precision of analysis (Anderson et al., 2008)
261 of residuals under a reduced model (Anderson and Braak, 2003). The differences in
262 community structure among the bioregion and species were investigated using a
263 posteriori pair-wise test with 999 permutations. The advantage of the permutation
264 approach is that the resulting test is “distribution-free” and not constrained by many of
265 the typical assumptions of parametric statistics (Walters and Coen, 2006). The relative
266 contribution of each pathogen species to determine differences in the composition of the
267 communities between bioregion and species were evaluated using a similarity percentage
268 analysis (SIMPER). In this study, SIMPER was employed to identify those pathogen
269 species that were responsible for more than 90% of dissimilarity among bioregion and
270 species. All the analyses were performed using PRIMER v6 software (Clarke and Gorley,
271 2006), including the PERMANOVA+ add-on package (Anderson et al., 2008).

272

273 3. RESULTS

274 3.1. Occurrence of enteric protozoa

275 The full dataset of this study showing sampling, diagnostic, and molecular data can be
276 found in Table S5. A total of 1,382 samples from free-ranging ungulates (76.6%,
277 1058/1,382) and farmed wild red deer (23.4%, 324/1,382) were included in the survey.
278 Overall, *G. duodenalis* was the most prevalent enteric parasite found in the wild and
279 farmed ungulate species (5.4%, 74/1,382; 95% CI: 4.2–6.5%), followed by
280 *Cryptosporidium* spp. (3.0%, 42/1,382; 95% CI: 2.1–3.9%), and *B. coli* (0.7%, 9/1,382;
281 95% CI: 0.3–1.2%).

282 *Cryptosporidium* spp. was only detected in roe deer (7.5%, 7/93), wild boar (7.0%,
283 25/359) and red deer (1.5%, 10/653). This protozoan was detected in BR3 (7.5%, 25/335),
284 BR1 (6.8%, 7/103), BR2 (4.3%, 7/164) and BR5 (0.4%, 3/748) (Table 1, Figure 1). Unlike
285 the Barbary sheep ($n = 20$), *G. duodenalis* was detected in seven of the studied host
286 species including southern chamois (12.9%, 8/62), mouflon (10.0%, 1/10), Iberian wild
287 goat (9.0%, 8/89), roe deer (7.5%, 7/93), wild boar (5.6%, 20/359), fallow deer (5.2%,
288 5/96) and red deer (3.8%, 25/653) (Figure 1, Table 1). The infection rate of *G. duodenalis*
289 detected in farmed wild red deer (5.2%, 17/324) was higher than in free-ranging red deer
290 (2.4%, 8/329). According to the spatial distribution in the bioregion of origin, *G.*
291 *duodenalis* infections were more frequent in BR1 (12.6%, 13/103) than in BR4 (12.5%,
292 4/32), BR5 (4.9%, 37/748), BR2 (4.3%, 7/164) and BR3 (3.9%, 13/335). The ciliate *B.*
293 *coli* was only detected in wild boar (2.5%, 9/359) from the BR5 (1.2%, 9/748) (Figure 1,
294 Table 1).

295

296 3.2. Molecular diversity

297 Six *Cryptosporidium* species were identified in the ungulate population investigated: *C.*
298 *scrofarum* (52.4%, 22/42), *C. ryanae* (31.0%, 13/42), *C. parvum* (7.1%, 3/42), *C. canis*
299 (2.4%, 1/42), *C. suis* (2.4%, 1/42), and *C. ubiquitum* (2.4%, 1/42) (Table 2).
300 *Cryptosporidium scrofarum* was identified exclusively in wild boar, whereas *C. ryanae*
301 was found infecting red deer ($n = 7$), roe deer ($n = 5$), and wild boar ($n = 1$).
302 *Cryptosporidium parvum* was detected in red deer ($n = 2$) and wild boar ($n = 1$), *C.*
303 *ubiquitum* and canine-adapted *C. canis* in roe deer (one each), and swine-adapted *C. suis*
304 in red deer. An additional wild boar sample (very likely belonging to *C. scrofarum*) could
305 not be assigned to a given *Cryptosporidium* species due to insufficient sequence quality.
306 *Cryptosporidium scrofarum*, *C. ryanae*, and *C. parvum* had a wide geographical
307 distribution, being identified in two or more bioregions. *C. suis* was only detected in BR3,
308 *C. canis* in BR2, and *C. ubiquitum* in BR1 (Table S5).

309 None of the *Cryptosporidium*-positive samples could be genotyped at the *gp60*
310 gene. Remarkably, the *ssu*-PCR used for initial *Cryptosporidium* detection yielded many
311 unspecific amplification reactions ($n = 113$). Sanger sequencing analysis of these products
312 revealed the presence of bacterial (*Aeromonas*), fungal (genera *Alternaria*, *Bipolaris*,
313 *Cercophora*, *Fusarium*, *Gnomoniopsis*, *Preussia*, *Sirococcus*, *Sordaria*, *Thelebolus*),
314 plant (genera *Fagus*, *Pelargonium*), algae (genus *Desmodesmus*) or other protist (genera
315 *Adelina*, *Colpodella*, *Cyclotella*, *Platyophrides*, *Stylonychia*, *Theileria*) organisms (Table
316 S5).

317 *Giardia duodenalis*-positive samples from free-ranging and farmed wild ungulate
318 species ($n = 74$) generated cycle threshold (C_T) values ranging from 20.9 to 39.5 (median:
319 33.7; SD: 3.6). To maximize resources and time, only samples with C_T values ≤ 35 ($n =$
320 35) were attempted to be genotyped at the *ssu* rRNA locus for assemblage determination.
321 Sequence analyses revealed the presence of zoonotic assemblages A ($n = 1$) and B ($n = 1$)

322 and ungulate-adapted assemblage E ($n = 4$) (Table 2). Additionally, samples with C_T
323 values ≤ 32 ($n = 21$) were assessed at the *gdh*, *bg*, and *tpi* loci for sub-assemblage
324 determination, but none of them could be successfully amplified at these markers.

325 *Balantioides coli* was unmistakably identified in eight wild boar samples, but
326 sequence data of insufficient quality precluded the possibility of determining the
327 genotype of this parasite species. Four additional amplicons (also from swine origin)
328 yielded faint bands on gel electrophoresis that could not be confirmed by Sanger
329 sequencing. These four samples were conservatively regarded as *B. coli*-negative.

330

331 **Pathogen community** The PERMANOVA analysis revealed significant differences in
332 the composition of pathogen species across bioregion ($P = 0.001$) and host species ($P =$
333 0.002). Pair-wise test results revealed significant differences in pathogen compositions
334 according to bioregions (between BR2 vs. BR1, BR2 vs. BR5, and BR3 vs. BR5) and host
335 species (between *C. elaphus* vs. *S. scrofa* and *C. elaphus* vs. *R. pyrenaica* (Table 3).

336 The SIMPER analysis showed considerable average dissimilarity between
337 bioregions: BR2 vs. BR1 (96.8%), BR2 vs. BR5 (98.4%), and BR3 vs. BR5 (98.7%). The
338 species with the highest dissimilarity contribution between bioregions was *G. duodenalis*
339 (Table 4). The SIMPER analysis also showed considerable average dissimilarity between
340 species: *C. elaphus* vs. *Sus scrofa* (98.5%) and *C. elaphus* vs. *R. pirenaica* (97.2%). The
341 species with the highest dissimilarity contribution values between host species also was
342 *G. duodenalis*.

343

344 4. DISCUSSION

345 This study represents the largest attempt to assess the occurrence, molecular diversity,
346 and zoonotic potential of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *G. duodenalis*, and *B. coli* in wild hoofed

347 animals conducted in Spain to date. A molecular-based study specifically devoted to the
348 Microsporidia *Enterocytozoon bieneusi* was previously published in this very same
349 population (Dashti et al., 2022). Our study had several strengths, including large sample
350 size, representativeness of all eight wild ungulate species present in the country, national
351 coverage, and molecular-based diagnosis and genotyping approaches. The survey is also
352 timely because information on the wild ungulate contribution to environmental
353 *Cryptosporidium* oocysts and *Giardia* cysts is scarce (Hatam-Nahavandi et al., 2019).
354 Regarding *B. coli*, little is known about the role of non-swine species as potential suitable
355 hosts for this ciliate parasite (Ponce-Gordo & García-Rodríguez, 2021).

356 Our data revealed an overall *Cryptosporidium* infection rate of 3%, peaking at 7–
357 8% in roe deer and wild boar, respectively. These figures agree with that (8%, 484/9,480)
358 estimated in a recent systematic review and meta-analysis of *Cryptosporidium* prevalence
359 in deer worldwide (Lv et al., 2021). In Spain, most of the epidemiological studies on
360 protozoan infections in domestic and wild ruminants have been conducted in Galicia
361 (north-western areas of the country) (see Table S1). In this region *Cryptosporidium*
362 infections have been reported in 7% of red deer, in 1–4% of roe deer, and in 7–17% of
363 wild boar (Castro-Hermida et al., 2011a,b; García-Presedo et al., 2013a,b). A prevalence
364 rate of 6% has also been documented in wild boar in the south of Spain (Rivero-Juarez et
365 al., 2020). At the European scenario, *Cryptosporidium* infections have been identified in
366 nine different species of wild ungulate species. These include 2% of Alpine chamois
367 (*Rupicapra rupicapra*) in Italy (Trogu et al., 2021), 6% of fallow deer in the UK (Sturdee
368 et al., 1999), 3% of moose (*Alces alces*) in Norway (Hamnes et al., 2006), 2% of mouflons
369 (*Ovis musimon*) in the Czech Republic (Kotkova et al., 2016), 0.3–80% of red deer in the
370 Czech Republic (Kotkova et al., 2016), Ireland (Skerrett & Holland, 2001), Italy (Trogu
371 et al., 2021), Poland (Paziewska et al., 2007), Norway (Hamnes et al., 2006), and UK

372 (Wells et al., 2015), 10% of Reeve's muntjac (*Muntiacus reevesi*) in the UK (Sturdee et
373 al., 1999), 3–33% of roe deer in Italy (Trogu et al., 2021), Poland (Paziewska et al., 2007),
374 and Norway (Hamnes et al., 2006), 12% of white-tailed deer (*Odocoileus virginianus*) in
375 the Czech Republic (Kotkova et al., 2016), and 13–17% of wild boar in central Europe
376 (Němejc et al., 2012, 2013).

377 Our sequence analyses confirmed the occurrence of six distinct *Cryptosporidium*
378 species circulating within the surveyed wild ungulate population. Of them, *C. ryanae*
379 showed the widest host range, being detected in red deer, roe deer, and wild boar.
380 *Cryptosporidium parvum* was identified in red deer and wild boar, but less frequently
381 than *C. ryanae*. *Cryptosporidium ubiquitum* was observed only in one roe deer sample,
382 whereas *C. scrofarum* (formerly known as pig genotype II) was exclusively detected in
383 wild boar. The findings of *C. canis* in one roe deer and *C. suis* in one red deer are
384 interesting. These *Cryptosporidium* species are adapted to infect canids and swine,
385 respectively, suggesting that their presence in wild cervids could be the result of
386 overlapping sylvatic and/or domestic transmission cycles of the parasite in habitats where
387 different host species live sympatrically. Whether these findings correspond to true or
388 spurious (mechanical carriage) infections remain to be elucidated.

389 In the only previous Spanish study reporting molecular data on wild cervids, *C.*
390 *ryanae* and *C. bovis* were described infecting roe deer in Galicia (García-Presedo et al.,
391 2013a). At the European level, *C. ubiquitum* is also the predominant *Cryptosporidium*
392 species circulating in wild ruminants, being identified in red deer in the Czech Republic
393 (Kotkova et al., 2016), roe deer in Italy and the UK (Trogu et al., 2021), and Alpine
394 chamois in Italy (Trogu et al., 2021). *Cryptosporidium* deer genotype has also been
395 reported in white-tailed deer in the Czech Republic (Kotkova et al., 2016) and in red deer
396 and roe deer in the UK (Robinson et al., 2011; Wells et al., 2015), whereas sporadic cases

397 of infections by murine-adapted *C. muris* have been identified in mouflon, red deer and
398 white-tailed deer (one each) in the Czech Republic (Kotkova et al., 2016). Neither *C. deer*
399 genotype and *C. muris* nor *C. bovis* were identified in the Spanish population surveyed in
400 the present study. Remarkably, *C. parvum* is a common finding in wild cervids in the UK
401 (Wells et al., 2015), likely as a result of spill over events from infected livestock.
402 Regarding wild boar, both *C. scrofarum* and *C. suis* have been documented at similar
403 proportions in Central European countries including Austria, Czech Republic, Poland,
404 and Slovakia (Němejc et al., 2012, 2013). This is not the case in Spain, where *C.*
405 *scrofarum* is far more prevalent than *C. suis* in this host species (Rivero-Juarez et al.,
406 2020; present study).

407 In our study *G. duodenalis* was the most prevalent protozoan parasite found (5%),
408 with peaks of 10–13% in mouflons and southern chamois. In Spain, this parasite has been
409 previously identified at infection rates of 8% in red deer, 5–9% in roe deer, and 1–4% in
410 wild boar in Galicia (Castro-Hermida et al., 2011a,b; García-Presedo et al., 2013a). A
411 higher infection rate of 23% was documented in wild boar in the southern province of
412 Córdoba (Rivero-Juarez et al., 2020). In other European countries, *G. duodenalis* has been
413 described in six genera of wild ungulates including *Alces*, *Capreolus*, *Cervus*, *Dama*,
414 *Rangifer*, and *Sus*. Prevalences of 1–2% and 4–24% have been obtained in red deer and
415 roe deer, respectively, in Croatia (Beck et al., 2011), Norway (Hamnes et al., 2006), and
416 Poland (Majewska et al., 2012; Paziewska et al., 2007). *Giardia* infections have also been
417 documented at rates of 12% in fallow deer in Italy (Lalle et al., 2007), of 5–12% in moose
418 and reindeer (*Rangifer tarandus*) in Norway (Hamnes et al., 2006; Robertson et al., 2007),
419 and in 2–4% in wild boar in Croatia and Switzerland (Beck et al., 2011; Spieler &
420 Schnyder, 2021).

421 *Ssu* rRNA sequence analyses revealed the presence of zoonotic assemblages A
422 and B in single samples from wild boar and red deer, whereas ungulate-adapted
423 assemblage E was identified in mouflon, red deer, and southern chamois. We failed to
424 amplify any of these isolates at the *gdh*, *bg* or *tpi* loci, so information at the sub-
425 assemblage level is still lacking. Similar negative sub-genotyping results have been
426 obtained in previous studies by our research group when investigating wild boar (Rivero-
427 Juarez et al., 2020). Information on the molecular diversity of *G. duodenalis* in wild
428 ungulate European populations is also limited. Assemblage A seems to be the most
429 prevalent genetic variant of the parasite, being detected in red deer, roe deer, and wild
430 boar in Croatia (Beck et al., 2011), in fallow deer in Italy (Lalle et al., 2007), in moose
431 and reindeer in Norway (Idland et al., 2021; Robertson et al., 2007), and in roe deer in
432 Spain (García-Preedo et al., 2013a). Interestingly, canine-adapted *G. duodenalis*
433 assemblages C/D and murine-adapted *G. muris* have been sporadically detected in
434 Croatian roe deer and wild boar (Beck et al., 2011), indicative of cross-species
435 transmission or overlapping of transmission cycles of these pathogens. As in the case of
436 *C. canis* and *C. suis*, at present it is unclear whether these findings correspond to true or
437 spurious infections.

438 Swine-adapted *B. coli* was identified at low frequency (<3%) in wild boar only.
439 This finding suggests that wild ruminants are not suitable hosts for this ciliate parasite,
440 which in Europe seems naturally restricted to pigs and, to a lesser extent, wild boar. A *B.*
441 *coli* infection rate of 2% has been previously reported in wild boar in Switzerland (Spieler
442 & Schnyder, 2021).

443 Our study provided also interesting data when protozoan infections were analysed
444 according to host species and bioregion of origin. Because higher interaction rates
445 (facilitating pathogen transmission) are more likely to occur among animals living in

446 restricted areas than among wandering animals, one would expect that wild farmed red
447 deer would bear higher protozoan infection rates than their free-ranging wild
448 counterparts. Although this was the case for *G. duodenalis* infections (2.4% vs. 5.2%),
449 exactly the opposite trend was observed for *Cryptosporidium* infections (2.7% vs. 0.3%).
450 Interestingly, free-living wild red deer were infected by a higher diversity of
451 *Cryptosporidium* species (*C. ryanae*, *C. parvum*, *C. suis*) than farmed wild red deer (in
452 which only *C. parvum* was found), suggesting that the former were exposed to a wider
453 range of infective sources. Regarding bioregion of origin, wild boar living in BR5 were
454 less likely to be infected by *Cryptosporidium* spp., but not by *G. duodenalis*. A potential
455 explanation for this finding is that BR5 comprises all the Spanish Mediterranean littoral,
456 highly developed and urbanized and, at least in theory, less suitable for sustaining large
457 populations of wild animals. Remarkably, all the *B. coli*-positive samples were collected
458 in the Doñana National Park, a natural reserve extending over three provinces (Huelva,
459 Cádiz, and Seville) in southern Spain, BR5. At present we do not have a clear explanation
460 for the apparent geographical segregation observed for *B. coli* in wild boar.

461 This study had four potential limitations that may have biased the results obtained.
462 First, its retroactive nature implied that some of the faecal samples analysed were stored
463 at -20°C for up to 12 years prior DNA extraction and molecular testing. Long-term
464 storage may have altered the quantity/quality of parasite DNA, compromising the
465 performance of the PCRs used. Second, sample size for some wild ungulate species (e.g.,
466 mouflon and Barbary sheep) may be underrepresented. Of note, the natural populations
467 of these ruminants in Spain are relatively low in numbers (mouflon: near 15,000
468 individuals; Barbary sheep: near 1,300 individuals) making difficult obtaining
469 representative sample numbers. Third, the genetic markers used in our genotyping PCR
470 protocols had intrinsic limited sensitivities. In practical terms this means that samples

471 with little amount of parasite DNA would be amplified by the detection PCRs (targeting
472 highly sensitive, multi-copy genes such as *ssu* rRNA) but not by the genotyping PCRs
473 (targeting low sensitive, single-copy genes such as *gdh*, *bg*, and *tpi* in *Giardia* or *gp60* in
474 *Cryptosporidium*). Lack or insufficient genotyping data make difficult the assessment of
475 zoonotic potential and the public health significance of the results obtained. Finally, direct
476 comparison of results among bioregions should be interpreted with caution because of
477 differences not only in environmental and epidemiological factors, but also in
478 methodological approaches including sampling periods and strategies and diagnostic
479 methods.

480

481 **5. CONCLUSIONS**

482 This is the largest molecular epidemiological study investigating the presence and genetic
483 diversity of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *G. duodenalis*, and *B. coli* in wild ungulate species
484 conducted in Spain to date. Overall infection rates were relatively low ($\leq 5\%$) and, in the
485 case of *Cryptosporidium* and *Balantiodes* infections, mostly caused by ungulate-adapted
486 species/genotypes. Sporadic infections by canine- or swine-adapted species may be
487 indicative of potential cross-species transmission, although spurious infections cannot be
488 ruled out. Taken together, these data would indicate that wild ungulate species pose a
489 limited role as source of human infections by *Cryptosporidium* spp., *G. duodenalis*, or *B.*
490 *coli*. Wild ruminants are not suitable hosts for *B. coli*, whose main ungulate host species
491 is the wild boar.

492

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521

522 **CONFLICT OF INTEREST**

523 The authors have declared no conflict of interest.

524

525 **DATA AVAILABILITY STATEMENT**

526 The data that supports the findings of this study are available within the main body of the
527 manuscript.

528

529 **AUTHORS CONTRIBUTIONS**

530 MAH, ARJ, JV, MCA, DFL, PM, JAA, AB, GAC, CMC, JAO, RCB, DGB and ES (on
531 behalf of the WE&H group) collected the samples. AD, PCK, BB and ASM carried out
532 the laboratory experiments. DC and DGB designed and supervised the experiments. AD,
533 DGB and DC writing—original draft preparation. ARJ, AB, RCB, ES, DGB and DC
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791

792 **FIGURE LEGENDS**

793 **FIGURE 1** Map of the Iberian Peninsula showing the sampling areas and the
794 geographical distribution of protozoan DNA detected according to established bioregions
795 (BR1-5) in Spain (Muñoz et al., 2010). Coloured circles indicate the presence of the
796 protozoan species (red: *Cryptosporidium* spp.; green: *G. duodenalis*; yellow: *Balantioides*
797 *coli*) investigated in each sampling area. Black filled circles indicate a negative PCR
798 result. The area of the represented circles is proportional to the sample size (see figure
799 legend). Panel A: all free-ranging and farmed wild ungulate species. Panel B: Free-
800 ranging and farmed wild cervid species only. Panel C: Free-ranging wild bovid species
801 only. Panel D: Free-ranging wild boar only.

802

803 **TABLE LEGENDS**

804

805 **TABLE 1.** Infection rates of the protozoan intestinal parasites investigated in the present
806 survey according to host species

807

808 **TABLE 2.** Frequency and molecular diversity of *Cryptosporidium* spp. and *G.*
809 *duodenalis* identified at the ssu rRNA gene in the free-ranging and farmed wild ungulate
810 species investigated in the present study.

811

812 **TABLE 3.** Results of multivariate PERMANOVA (A) main test and pairwise tests
813 assessing for the presence/absence of pathogens for each pair of bioregions (B) and host
814 species (C). *P*-values in bold indicate statistical significance.

815

816 **TABLE 4** SIMPER results of pathogen species that contribute at dissimilarity between
817 bioregions and host species

818

819

820 **SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL**

821 **TABLE S1** Infection rates and molecular diversity of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Giardia*
822 *duodenalis*, and *Balantioides coli* reported in wild and farmed ungulate (ruminant and
823 wild boar) species in Spain.

824 **TABLE S2** Number and relative frequencies of faecal samples from free-ranging and
825 farmed wild ungulates (n = 1,382) analysed in the present survey according to the
826 bioregion of origin.

827 **TABLE S3** PCR cycling conditions used for the molecular identification and/or
828 characterization of the microeukaryotic parasites investigated in the present study.

829

830 **TABLE S4** Oligonucleotides used for the molecular identification and/or
831 characterization of *Cryptosporidium* spp., *Giardia duodenalis*, and *Balantioides coli* in
832 the present study.

833

834 **TABLE S5** Full dataset generated in the present study showing epidemiological,
835 diagnostic, and genotyping results.

836