- Coupling between tolerance and resistance differs between
- 2 related Eimeria parasite species: implications for coevolution with
- 3 their mouse hosts

4 Abstract

Resistance (host capacity to reduce parasite burden) and tolerance (host capacity to 6 reduce impact on its health for a given parasite burden) manifest two different lines of defence. Tolerance can be independent from resistance, traded-off against it, or the 7 two can be positively correlated because of redundancy in underlying (immune) processes. We here tested whether this coupling between tolerance and resistance could differ upon infection with closely related parasite species. We tested this in 10 experimental infections with two parasite species of genus Eimeria. We measured 11 proxies for resistance (the (inverse of) number of parasite transmission stages 12 (oocysts) per gram of feces at the day of maximal shedding) and tolerance (the slope 13 of maximum relative weight loss compared to day of infection on number of oocysts 14 per gram of feces at the day of maximal shedding for each host strain) in four inbred 15 mouse strains and four groups of F1 hybrids belonging to two mouse subspecies, 16 Mus musculus domesticus and M. m. musculus. We found a negative correlation 17 between resistance and tolerance against E. falciformis, while the two are uncoupled 18 against E. ferrisi. We conclude that resistance and tolerance against the first parasite 19 20 species might be traded off, but evolve more independently in different mouse 21 genotypes against the latter. We argue that evolution of the host immune defences can be studied largely irrespective of parasite isolates if resistance-tolerance coupling

is absent or weak (*E. ferrisi*) but host-parasite coevolution is more likely observable and best studied in a system with negatively correlated tolerance and resistance (*E. falciformis*).

26 **Keywords**: Resistance, Tolerance, *Eimeria*, Coevolution

27 Introduction

Host defence mechanisms evolve to alleviate the detrimental effect of parasites. They 28 can be categorised into two components: resistance and tolerance (Råberg et al., 29 2009). Resistance is the ability of a host to reduce parasite burden, resulting from 30 proliferation defence against parasite infection or early after 31 (Schmid-Hempel, 2013). The negative effect of resistance on parasite fitness can 32 lead to antagonistic coevolution. According to theoretical models, fluctuating host and 33 parasite genotypes arise, and balancing selection maintains resistance alleles 34 35 polymorphic (Boots et al., 2008; Roy & Kirchner, 2000). Resistance has been the classical "catch all" measure for host-parasite systems, but recently it has been shown 36 to be incomplete, especially with respect to potential fitness effects on the host 37 (Kutzer & Armitage, 2016; Råberg et al., 2009). 38 confused "immunological 39 Disease tolerance (not to be from unresponsiveness to self antigens; Medzhitov et al., 2012) is the ability of the host to 40 limit the impact of parasite on its fitness (Kutzer & Armitage, 2016; Råberg et al., 41 42 2009; Vale & Little, 2012). By potentially providing a longer-living niche, this defence 43 mechanism improves, or at least does not deteriorate, the fitness of the parasite. Tolerance alleles are thus predicted by theoretical models to evolve to fixation due to 45 positive feedback loops (Boots et al., 2008; Restif & Koella, 2004; Roy & Kirchner, 2000). From a mechanistic perspective tolerance alleviates direct or indirect damage 46 excessive immune response underlying resistance against parasites, called 47 immunopathology; Graham et al., 2005) caused by parasites (Råberg et al., 2009). 48 Tolerance mechanisms include modulation of inflammatory response (Ayres & 49 Schneider, 2012), tissue repair (stress response, damage repair and cellular 50 regeneration mechanisms; Soares et al., 2017), and compensation of 51 parasite-induced damage by increase of reproductive effort (Baucom & de Roode, 52 2011). The resulting metabolic costs of resistance and tolerance, with and without 53 parasite infection, determine the optimal (steady state and infection inducible) extent 54 and of both immune defences (Sheldon & Verhulst, 1996). 55

Resistance and tolerance can be positively associated if they involve the same metabolic pathway, as was shown in the plant model *Arabidopsis thaliana* in response against herbivory (Mesa et al., 2017). In animals, genetic association studies of resistance and tolerance of *Drosophila melanogaster* against the bacterium *Providencia rettgeri* have shown positively correlated genetic effects, as the same loci were associated with changes of both traits in the same direction (Howick & Lazzaro, 2017).

Nevertheless, resistance and tolerance can also be genetically and physiologically independent, involving different proximate mechanisms. Lack of correlation between both defences was shown for example in monarch butterflies (*Danaus plexippus*) infected by the protozoan parasite *Ophryocystis elektroscirrha*. This study found genetic variation in resistance between butterflies families, but a fixed tolerance

(Lefèvre et al., 2010). Similarly, no correlation could be found between resistance and tolerance for the fish *Leuciscus burdigalensis* in response to infection with its parasite *Tracheliastes polycolpus*. The authors explain the decoupling of both defences by the fact that, in this system, tolerance likely involves wound repair rather than immune regulation, making resistance and tolerance mechanisms independent (Mazé-Guilmo et al., 2014).

74 Eventually, in other systems, resistance and tolerance have been found negatively correlated. For examples, inbred laboratory mouse strains lose weight upon infection 75 with Plasmodium chabaudi. The extent of this impact on host health is negatively 76 77 correlated with the peak number of parasites found in the blood (Råberg et al., 2007), meaning that mouse strains with higher resistance present lower tolerance. Similarly, 78 79 infections of sea trout (Salmo trutta trutta) and Atlantic salmon (Salmo salar) with the trematode Diplostomum pseudospathaceum showed that resistance and tolerance 80 were negatively correlated when assessing mean levels of both traits in different host 81 populations (Klemme & Karvonen, 2016). This is interpreted as a result of trade-off 82 between resistance and tolerance (Råberg et al., 2009; Restif & Koella, 2004; 83 Sheldon & Verhulst, 1996). 84

We have seen that depending on the system studied resistance and tolerance can be

(1) uncoupled (independent), (2) positively correlated (involving same genes and

mechanisms), or (3) negatively correlated (traded-off). Theoretical models show that

coupling between resistance and tolerance (or absence thereof) could depend not

only on the host but also on the parasite (Carval & Ferriere, 2010). Here we tested

this hypothesis. More precisely, we asked whether there could be differences in the

91 resistance-tolerance coupling upon infection of one host type with two closely related parasite species. To answer this question, we infected four inbred mouse strains and 92 four groups of F1 hybrids representative of two house mouse subspecies, 93 M. m. domesticus and M. m. musculus, with three parasite isolates representative of 94 two naturally occurring parasite species, the protozoan parasite Eimeria ferrisi and 95 E. falciformis (Jarquín-Díaz et al., 2019). Eimeria spp. are monoxenous parasites that 96 expand asexually and reproduce sexually in intestinal epithelial cells, leading to 97 98 malabsorption of nutrients, tissue damage and weight loss (Chapman et al., 2013). The evolutionary history of these different *Eimeria* species in the two house mouse 99 subspecies is unknown and it is unclear whether subspecies-specific adaptation 100 101 exists in one or the other. 102 We tested if coupling between resistance and tolerance differs between both parasite species and discussed the implication for parasite-host coevolution. Additionally, as 103 coevolving hosts and parasites can adapt to their antagonist, we tested adaptation to 104 105 the host subspecies (hereafter "host adaptation") of E. ferrisi to Mus musculus, using a parasite isolated in a M. m. domesticus host and one in a M. m. musculus host. 106 107 Higher parasite fitness of one isolate in one of the two hosts and inversely for the second isolate, or higher host fitness upon infection with one of the two parasite 108 109 isolates and inversely for the second isolate, would be indirect evidence for coevolution of this parasite with Mus musculus. 110

11 Material and methods

112 1. Parasite isolates

113 The three parasite isolates used in this study were isolated from feces of three different 114 M. m. domesticus/M. m. musculus hybrid mice captured in Brandenburg, Germany, in 2016 (capture permit No. 2347/35/2014). The parasite isolates belong to both the most 116 prevalent Eimeria species in this area, namely E. ferrisi (isolates Brandenburg64 and 117 Brandenburg 139) and E. falciformis (isolate Brandenburg 88) (Jarquín-Díaz et al., 2019). Isolate Brandenburg64 was isolated in a 92% M. m. domesticus individual (hybrid index 118 119 (HI) = 0.08: Proportion of *M. m. musculus* alleles in a set of 14 diagnostic markers, see 120 Balard et al. (2020)), isolate Brandenburg139 in a 85% M. m. musculus (HI=0.85) and 121 isolate Brandenburg88 in a 80% M. m. domesticus (HI=0.2). Pre-patency and the peak day of parasite shedding for these isolates were estimated during infection in NMRI laboratory mice (Al-khlifeh et al., 2019) which were also used for serial passaging of 123 the isolates. Parasite infective forms (oocysts) were recovered by flotation in saturated 124 NaCl solution followed by washing and observation under light microscope (following 125 the protocol described in Clerc et al. (2019)) and stored at room temperature in 1mL 126 127 of 2% potassium dichromate for a maximum of 2 months before infection of the wild-128 derived mice. Oocysts were allowed to sporulate 10 days before infection in a water 129 bath at 30°C.

130 2. Mouse groups

131 We used four wild-derived inbred mouse strains from which we generated four groups

132 of F1 hybrids. Two parental strains represented *M. m. domesticus*: **SCHUNT**

133 (Locality: Schweben, Hessen, Germany [N: 50° 26', E: 9° 36'] (Martincová et al., 2019)) and STRA (Locality: Straas, Bavaria, Germany [N: 50° 11', E: 11° 46'] (Piálek 134 et al., 2008), and two derived from M. m. musculus: BUSNA (Locality: Buškovice, 135 Bohemia, Czech Republic [N: 50° 14', E: 13° 22'] (Piálek et al., 2008)) and PWD 136 (Locality: Kunratice, Bohemia, Czech Republic [N: 50° 01', E: 14° 29'] (Gregorová & 137 138 Forejt, 2000)). The four groups of F1 hybrids consisted of two intrasubspecific hybrids 139 (SCHUNTxSTRA and PWDxBUSNA) and two intersubspecific hybrids (STRAxBUSNA and SCHUNTxPWD)(Figure 1). Age of the mice at the time of infection ranged between 5.6 and 21.4 weeks. All mouse strains and F1 hybrids were 141 obtained from the Institute of Vertebrate Biology of the Czech Academy of Sciences in 142 Studenec (licence number 61974/2017-MZE-17214; for further details on strains see 144 https://housemice.cz/en).

Parasites of the *Eimeria* genus are known to induce host immune protection against reinfection (Rose et al., 1992; Smith & Hayday, 2000). To ensure that our mice were *Eimeria*-naive, mouse fecal samples were tested before infection for the presence of *Eimeria* spp. oocysts by flotation in saturated NaCl solution followed by washing and observation under light microscope.

150 3. Experimental infection

Mice were kept in individual cages during infection. Water and food (SNIFF, Rat/Mouse maintenance feed 10 mm) were provided *ad libitum* supplemented with 1 g of sunflower and barley seeds per day. Mice were orally infected with 150 sporulated oocysts of one *Eimeria* isolate suspended in 100μ l phosphate-buffer saline (PBS) and monitored daily until their sacrifice by cervical dislocation at time of

regression of infection (reduction of oocyst output). Individuals presenting severe health deficiency and/or a weight loss approaching 18% relative to their starting weight were sacrificed earlier at defined humane end points (experiment license Reg. 0431/17). Weight was recorded and feces collected on a daily basis. Fecal pellets were collected every day from each individual cage and suspended in 2% potassium dichromate. Parasite oocysts were recovered using NaCl flotation (see above).

All individuals were negative for *Eimeria* at the beginning of our experiment (before 162 163 infection of first batch, as described in the next paragraph). In total, 168 mice were 164 infected. Mice were randomly allocated to experimental groups ensuring homogeneous distribution of ages and sexes between groups. Our experiments were conducted in four (partially overlapping) consecutive batches for logistical reasons. 166 167 The first two batches were infected with the two E. ferrisi isolates (Brandenburg64 and Brandenburg139), the third and fourth by one *E. ferrisi* isolate (Brandenburg64) and 168 one *E. falciformis* isolate (Brandenburg88). Our experimental design is summarized in 169 Table 1 (chronology of experimental batches can be scrutinized in Supplementary 170 171 Table S1).

Nematode infection is common in breeding facilities (Baker, 1998) and could interact with *Eimeria* (Clerc et al., 2019). We surveyed for their presence and nematode eggs were observed in flotated feces of mice belonging to all genotypes before the experiment. Despite treatment of the first infection batch of mice (B1, 22 mice) with anthelminthics (Profender®, Bayer AG, Levekusen, Germany) following the protocole of Mehlhorn et al. (2005), nematodes were still detected with PCR (following the protocole of Floyd et al. (2005)) in randomly sampled fecal samples a week later. We

179 therefore decided not to treat mice of the following infection batches. Moreover, we observed Eimeria oocysts in the feces of 28 mice belonging to the last experimental 180 batch (batch B4) at the day of infection, likely due to cross-contamination between 181 batches. For following statistical analyses, we considered along with the full data set (N=168) a conservative data set in which cross-contaminated animals and animals 183 184 treated by anthelminthic were removed (N=118). Results obtained on the conservative data set can be found in Supplementary Material S2. 185 Despite differences in significance due to a lower statistical power, the main conclusions of our 186 analyses were consistent with those obtained on the main data set. 187

188 4. Statistical analyses

189 4.1. Choice of proxies for resistance, impact of parasite on host and tolerance

190 As resistance is the capacity of a host to reduce its parasite burden, it is usually 191 estimated by the inverse of infection intensity (Råberg et al., 2009). Pre-patency (the time to shedding of infectious stages, so called oocysts) is longer for E. falciformis (7 days) than for E. ferrisi (5 days) (Al-khlifeh et al., 2019). Therefore, as a proxy of 193 (inverse of) resistance we used the number of oocysts per gram of feces (OPG) at the 194 195 day of maximal shedding. Using the Spearman's non-parametric rank correlation test, we found this measurement to be tightly correlated with the sum of oocysts shed 196 197 throughout the experiment (Spearman's ρ =0.93, N=168, P<0.001). Due to the aggregation characteristic of parasites (Shaw & Dobson, 1995), the appropriate 198 199 distribution for maximum number of OPG was found to be the negative binomial 200 distribution. This was confirmed based on log likelihood, AIC criteria and 201 goodness-of-fits plots (density, CDF, Q-Q, P-P plots; R packages MASS (Venables & 202 Ripley, 2002) and fitdistrplus (Delignette-Muller & Dutang, 2015)).

Both parasite species provoke inflammation, cellular infiltration, enteric lesions, 203 diarrhea, and ultimately weight loss (Al-khlifeh et al., 2019; Ankrom et al., 1975; Ehret 204 205 et al., 2017; Schito et al., 1996). Therefore, the impact of parasites on host health was measured as the maximum relative weight loss compared to day 0 (body weight 206 measured at the start of the experimental infection). For mice sacrificed at humane 207 208 end points before the end of the experiment, last weight of the living animal was used. 209 This weight (loss) can be expected to be a very conservative estimate for our analyses (rendering tolerance conservatively low for these animals, which might have 210 lost more weight if not sacrificed). 211

Tolerance is usually defined as a reaction norm, i.e. the regression slope of host fitness (or health condition if that is the parameter of interest) on infection intensity per host genotype (Råberg et al., 2009; Simms, 2000). Thus tolerance was assessed as the slope of maximum relative weight loss compared to day 0 on number of OPG at the day of maximal shedding, within each mouse group and for each parasite isolate. A steep slope indicates a low tolerance (high weight lost for a given parasite burden).

218 4.2. Statistical modelling

219 Maximum OPG and relative weight loss were modelled separately as a response of 220 either mouse group, parasite isolate and their interaction. We used a negative binomial 221 generalised linear model for maximum OPG, and a linear model for relative weight loss. 222 For tolerance, we performed a linear regression with null intercept (as each mouse was controlled against itself at start of the experiment, before losing weight or shedding parasite), modelling relative weight loss as a response of maximum OPG interacting either mouse group, parasite isolate and their interaction. To test the significance of the marginal contribution of each parameter to the full model, each parameter was removed from the full model, and the difference between full and reduced model was assessed using likelihood ratio tests (G).

For each of our model, we also asked within each parasite isolate if the response differed between mouse groups using likelihood ratio tests (G) as described above. Of note, four mice infected by *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88 did not shed any oocysts as death occurred at or one day before the peak of oocysts shedding in other mice. For this reason, we modelled maximum OPG for mice infected with this parasite using a zero-inflated negative binomial (ZINB) generalised linear model, after verifying that it provided a better fit than the simple negative binomial based on log likelihood and AIC criteria.

237 4.3. Test of host adaptation

Host adaptation of *E. ferrisi* was tested using two isolates (the "Western" Brandenburg64 and "Eastern" Brandenburg139) and our four parental mouse strains (the two *M. m. domesticus* Western SCHUNT and STRA, and the two *M. m. musculus* Eastern BUSNA and PWD). We hypothesised a possible host adaptation of *E. ferrisi*. The prediction drawn from this would be that the Eastern parasite (*E. ferrisi* isolate Brandenburg139) reproduces better in the matching Eastern mouse subspecies (*M. m. musculus*) than in the Western one (*M. m. musculus*), and similarly the

Western parasite (*E. ferrisi* isolate Brandenburg64) reproduce better in 246 *M. m. domesticus* than in *M. m. musculus*. Additionally, a higher tolerance of each 247 host infected by its matching parasite despite similar parasite reproductive output 248 could indicate increased host fitness, and host adaptation.

249 4.4. Test of coupling between resistance and tolerance

We tested coupling between resistance and tolerance for E. ferrisi and E. falciformis 250 251 using the isolates Brandenburg64 and Brandenburg88 and our eight mouse groups. 252 To test such coupling, one can assess the strength of correlation between measure of resistance and measure of tolerance (Råberg et al., 2007). Of note, tolerance (in 253 254 absolute value) is measured as the slope α of the linear regression of parasite load (x) 255 on maximum relative weight loss (y) of equation $y = \alpha x + \beta$ (α being the slope and β the intercept, 0 in our case). Therefore, tolerance is expressed as $\alpha = y/x - \beta/x$. As x 256 and y/x are by definition not independent, testing the correlation between resistance 257 258 and tolerance can lead to spurious correlation (Brett, 2004). To alleviate the dangers of this statistical artifact, we additionally tested differences in resistance, impact on 259 health and tolerance between mouse groups separately and also the underlying 260 correlation between mean parasite load (x) and mean relative weight loss (y). We use 261 the terminology "coupling" (between resistance and tolerance) to describe 262 genotype-level correlation between tolerance and resistance additionally supported by 263 the absence of positive correlation between health-effect and resistance. Correlations 264 265 were tested using Spearman's rank correlation.

266 All analyses were performed using R version 3.5.2 (R Development Core Team,

2013)(negative binomial: function glm.nb from R package MASS (Venables & Ripley, 2002); ZIBN: function zeroinfl from R package pscl (Jackman, 2020; Zeileis et al., 2008); linear model: function Im from R core package stats; mean and 95% confidence intervals: function ggpredict from R package ggeffect (Lüdecke, 2018)). Graphics were produced using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2016) and compiled using the free software inkscape (https://inkscape.org). Code and data used for this article can be found at: https://github.com/alicebalard/Article_RelatedParasitesResTol

274 Results

275 **1. General**

Parasites of all isolates successfully infected all mouse groups (at the exception of 5 individuals infected by E. falciformis isolate Brandenburg88 that died or had to be sacrificed due to a strong weight loss before the peak of shedding for this parasite), 278 meaning that no "qualitative infection resistance" (sensu Gandon and Michalakis 279 (2000)) was detected. For E. ferrisi (both isolates Brandenburg139 and 280 Brandenburg64), the pre-patent period was 5 days post infection (dpi) and the median 281 282 day of maximal oocyst shedding was 6 dpi (standard deviation sd=0.7 and 0.9, respectively). The median day of maximum weight loss was 5 dpi for both isolates 283 (sd=2.1 and 1.7 respectively). For *E. falciformis* (isolate Brandenburg88) pre-patency 284 285 was 7 dpi, median day of maximal shedding was 8 dpi (sd=1.3) and median day of maximal weight loss 9 dpi (sd=1.6)(Figure 2). Of note a considerable number of mice 286 infected with this isolate (13 out of 56 = 23%) died or had to be sacrificed at humane 287 end points less than 3 days after the oocysts shedding peak for the group, all 288 belonging to M. m. musculus subspecies (PWD, BUSNA, or their F1 PWDxBUSNA; 5 289

290 died at dpi 8, 5 at dpi 9, 3 at dpi 10). *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88 was more 291 lethal for the *M. m. musculus* mice strains than for the other strains (χ_7^2 = 31.96, 292 P<0.001; **Table 2**).

293 2. No indication of host adaptation of *E. ferrisi*

294 We tested if our proxies for resistance, impact on weight and tolerance were different between the four parental mouse strains and between both *E. ferrisi* infection isolates 295 296 (isolate Brandenburg64 and Brandenburg139). Maximum parasite load differed 297 between mouse strains (LRT: G=25.5, df=6, P<0.001), but the interaction term mouse strain-parasite isolate was non significant (LRT: G=4.1, df=3, P=0.25). A similar result 298 was found for maximum relative weight loss (LRT: mouse strain: G=16.8, df=6, 299 300 P=0.01; interaction mouse strain-parasite isolate: G=4.1, df=3, P=0.25). 301 indicates that when resistance and impact on weight vary between host strains, they do so independently of the parasite isolate. Eventually, the variables mouse strain, 302 parasite isolate and their interaction were found non significant at the 0.05 threshold 304 for the slope of the linear regression between the two, indicating that differences of tolerance could not be detected between mouse strains or parasite isolates (Figure 305 3). Our results do not indicate either (1) an increased reproduction of each parasite in 306 307 its matching host or (2) a higher tolerance of host infected by its matching parasite 308 despite similar parasite reproductive output. Thus they do not support the hypothesis of host adaptation between E. ferrisi and its host. 309

310 3. Resistance and tolerance to *E. ferrisi* isolate Brandenburg64 311 are uncoupled

312 We tested coupling between resistance and tolerance for *E. ferrisi* isolate 313 Brandenburg64 in our eight mouse groups. First, we tested whether our proxies for 314 resistance, impact on weight and tolerance were different between the mouse groups. 315 We found the maximum number of OPG and relative weight loss to be statistically 316 different between mouse groups (LRT: maximum number of OPG: G=26.6, df=7, P<0.001; **Figure 4A**; maximum relative weight loss: G=21.5, df=7, P<0.01; **Figure 4B**). Tolerance was not found to significantly differ between mouse groups for this 319 parasite isolate (LRT: G=6.8, df=7, P=0.45; **Figure 4C**).

We found a non significant positive correlation between resistance (inverse of maximum number of OPG) and impact on health (maximum weight loss) (Spearman's ρ =0.69, P=0.07, N=8; **Figure 4D**). Eventually, we did not find a correlation between resistance (inverse of maximum number of OPG) and tolerance (inverse of slope of maximum weight loss on maximum OPG) (Spearman's ρ =0, P=1, N=8; **Figure 4E**).

In conclusion, we did not find indications of resistance-tolerance coupling for *E. ferrisi* isolate Brandenburg64, the different mouse groups infected by this parasite presenting a similar level of tolerance while showing an effect of quantitative resistance on health.

328 4. Coupling between resistance and tolerance to *E. falciformis*

We then tested coupling between resistance and tolerance for *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88 in our eight mouse groups. First, we tested if our proxies for

We found the maximum number of OPG and relative weight loss to be statistically different between mouse groups (LRT: maximum number of OPG: G=28.6, df=14,

resistance, impact on weight and tolerance were different between the mouse groups.

P=0.012; **Figure 5A**; maximum relative weight loss: G=21, df=7, P<0.01; **Figure 5B**).

335 Finally, contrary to our results on *E. ferrisi* isolate Brandenburg64, the tolerance

336 slopes for *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88 were different between mouse groups

337 (LRT: G=13.9, df=7, P=0.05; Figure 5C).

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338 We detected a strong negative correlation between (inverse of) resistance (maximum 339 number of OPG) and tolerance (inverse of slope of maximum weight loss on maximum OPG) (Spearman's ρ =-0.95, P=0.001; **Figure 5E**). We conclude that this 340 correlation is unlikely a statistical artifact, as (1) mouse groups present statistically 341 342 different values of resistance and tolerance and (2) we found a (non significant) negative correlation between resistance (inverse of maximum number of OPG) and 343 impact on health (maximum weight loss) (Spearman's ρ =-0.5, P=0.22; **Figure 5D**), 344 indicating that mouse groups losing more weight also shed less parasites. 345

346 We conclude that our results indicate the presence of negative resistance-tolerance 347 coupling for *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88.

Discussion

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In this study, we assessed resistance and tolerance to two closely related parasites, *E. ferrisi* (two isolates) and *E. falciformis* (one isolate), in four mouse strains and their

intra-and intersubspecific hybrids. Understanding this coupling has two major

implications.

From a practical "measurement" perspective we can ask whether tolerance can be predicted from resistance, as the latter is easier to measure (e.g. in field sampling). Many studies assess the impact of parasites on host fitness based on resistance. If, as we found in the present study, resistance and tolerance are decoupled this can be missleading. In our host system, the house mice, for example, it has been shown that hybrids between *M. m. domesticus* and *M. m. musculus* are more resistant to parasites (Baird et al., 2012; Balard et al., 2020), including *Eimeria*, but tolerance could not be measured under natural conditions (Balard et al., 2020). The effect of parasites on host fitness in the evolution of the house mouse hybrid zone is thus still rather ambiguous (Baird & Goüy de Bellocq, 2019). We show that careful distinction between parasite species is necessary when analysing parasite host interaction (see also Jarquín-Díaz et al., 2019) and that it is indispensable to measure both resistance and tolerance in *Eimeria* infections of house mice.

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In this work we used the concept of tolerance as used originally in the plant litterature (Fineblum & Rausher, 1995) transfered and later to animal studies on (Råberg et al., 2007). This concept of tolerance can be criticised, as it links mathematically tolerance to resistance. Nevertheless, we argue that this view is biologically meaningfull considering resistance and tolerance as a step-wise defence system, one step limiting the parasite multiplication, the other limiting the impact of this multiplication on fitness-related traits. To limit the possible statistical artifact, our approch did not only consist in calculing blindly correlations between resistance and tolerance, but we also tested differences in resistance, impact on health and tolerance. We additionally excluded the possibility of positive correlation between mean health-effect and mean resistance of each host strains, which could indicate

some host strains having few parasites-few effects on health, and others more parasites-more effects on health: this configuration would limitate the possibility of detecting an actual resistance-tolerance trade-off.

More generally, in a evolutionary perspective, coupling between resistance and tolerance might help determine if coevolution between host and parasite can be expected: a host-parasite system in which one finds negative coupling between tolerance and resistance would be an especially promising system for studies of host-parasite co-evolution. Indeed, coevolution in host-parasite systems is often assumed but rarely proven (Woolhouse et al., 2002). Janzen (1980) notes that not all parasite-host systems are coevolving. The presence of efficient host defences against a given parasite is not necessarily produced in response to this parasite specifically and the parasite does not necessarily respond specifically. In the mouse-*E. ferrisi* system, where resistance and tolerance are decoupled, host and parasite fitness might be decoupled as a result, making host-parasite coevolution less likely. In the mouse-*E. falciformis* system we found a negative coupling between tolerance and resistance, making coevolution between host and parasite more likely.

393 Differences between parasite species could explain the evolution of different
394 strategies: *E. ferrisi* commits to sexual reproduction after a relatively short time with
395 few cycles of asexual expansion (Al-khlifeh et al., 2019; Ankrom et al., 1975), while
396 *E. falciformis* has a relatively longer life cycle (Al-khlifeh et al., 2019; Haberkorn,
397 1970). As *E. ferrisi* infections do not reach extremely high intensities, high tolerance
398 might be the optimal strategy for both house mouse subspecies. Resistance could
399 then evolve relatively freely without any major impact of the parasite on the hosts'

health. Moreover, our results did not support host adaptation of *E. ferrisi*, which might be explained by the absence of host-parasite coevolution caused by uncoupling of parasite and host fitness. In the case of *E. falciformis*, the long life cycle might lead to Tissue damage is observed during sexual reproduction for this high tissue load. parasite (Ehret et al., 2017) and might mean that a certain level of resistance is required. On the other hand, immunopathology has been observed in advanced E. falciformis infections (Stange et al., 2012). These intrinsic characteristics of E. falciformis might lead to multiple different optima for resistance and tolerance, leading to a trade-off.

In addition, we could speculate on two related alternative explanations. Firstly, E. falciformis could originally be a M. m. domesticus parasite dissipated into M. m. musculus territory by a spillover through the hybrid zone. Secondly, the particular E. falciformis isolate employed here was collected from a predominantly M. m. domesticus mouse (hybrid index 0.2). The isolate could hence be locally adapted to M. m. domesticus. Experiments with additional E. falciformis isolates from M. m. musculus are needed to test whether host subspecies adaptation can lead to high tolerance and low resistance in matching pairs of E. falciformis isolates and mouse subspecies. This seems plausible, as the coupling between resistance and tolerance links host and parasite fitness, making coevolution and hence local adaptation more likely. Interestingly, this parasite-host coevolution wouldn't be antagonistic but rather mutualistic with regards to tolerance and parasite reproduction (that is, the inverse of resistance) (Little et al., 2010; Råberg et al., 2009). Alternatively, though descriptive, molecular-genetic analyses of diagnostic marker can be used to infer coevolutionary pathways between host and their parasites (e.g. Goüy de Bellocq et al., 2018; Kváč et al., 2013).

423 In conclusion, we argue that the difference between resistance and tolerance coupling 424 in two different parasites can guide research in the house mouse system: if the effects 425 of host hybridisation should be studied independently of potential host-parasite coadaptation, a parasite species leading to uncoupling between resistance and 426 427 tolerance of the host (e.g. E. falciformis) might be the most suitable parasite. If 428 coevolution between hosts and parasites should be studied, a parasite species for 429 tolerance the and of host are negatively 430 E. falciformis) would be a more plausible target. Generally, we showed that the coupling between resistance and tolerance can differ between closely related parasite 431 432 species and we argue that this trait of a host-parasite system determines the 433 questions to be best approached with a particular parasite.

434 References

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587 **Tables**

| Mouse | | Eimeria | | | | |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| group | subspecies | <i>E. ferrisi</i> Brandenburg139 | <i>E. ferrisi</i> Brandenburg64 | <i>E. falciformis</i> Brandenburg88 | | |
| SCHUNT | M.m.domesticus | 7 (5M / 2F) | 14 (6M / 8F) | 6 (3M / 3F) | | |
| STRA | M.m.domesticus | 6 (2M / 4F) | 15 (8M / 7F) | 7 (4M /3F) | | |
| SCHUNTXSTRA | F1 M.m.domesticus | | 6 (2M / 4F) | 8 (5M / 3F) | | |
| STRAxBUSNA | F1 hybrid | | 8 (5M / 3F) | 8 (3M /5F) | | |
| SCHUNTxPWD | F1 hybrid | | 8 (3M / 5F) | 6 (4M / 2F) | | |
| PWDxBUSNA | F1 M.m.musculus | | 9 (4M / 5F) | 7 (4M /3F) | | |
| BUSNA | M.m.musculus | 6 (2M / 4F) | 14 (8M / 6F) | 7 (3M /4F) | | |
| PWD | M.m.musculus | 6 (3M / 3F) | 13 (10M / 3F) | 7 (1M / 6F) | | |

Table 1. Infection experiment design.

Mouse

| subspecies | group |) | status at dpi 11 | |
|------------|----------|-------|------------------|------|
| | | | alive | dead |
| Mmd | SCHUNT | | 6 | 0 |
| Mmd | STRA | | 7 | 0 |
| Mmd | SCHUNTXS | TRA | 8 | 0 |
| Mmd-Mmm | STRAxBUS | NA | 8 | 0 |
| Mmd-Mmm | SCHUNTXF | WD | 6 | 0 |
| Mmm | PWDxBUS1 | NΑ | 4 | 3 |
| Mmm | BUSNA | | 3 | 4 |
| Mmm | PWD | | 1 | 6 |
| | | total | 43 | 13 |

Table 2. Contingency table: number of mice and status at dpi 11 for each mouse group upon infection with *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88.

Figures legends

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Figure 1. Parasite isolates and mouse wild-derived strains. (A) Map showing locations at which mice were collected for breeding of mouse strains and isolation of parasites. The purple line is an estimation of the center of the house mouse hybrid zone between *M. m. domesticus* and *M. m. musculus* based on sampling and genotyping of mice in this area (Balard et al., 2020; Ďureje et al., 2012; Macholán et al., 2019). (B) The eight mouse groups (parents and F1s) used in our experimental infections.

- 596 Figure 2. Parasite density (A) and relative weight (B) during Eimeria infection.
- 597 Parasite density is calculated as number of oocysts detected (in millions) per gram of
- 598 feces, relative weight is calculated as the percentage of weight compared to day 0.
- 599 Mean and 95% CI are plotted for each parasite isolate. All mouse groups are pooled
- 600 together.
- Figure 3. Comparison of resistance, impact on weight and tolerance between 601 602 mouse strains for both Eimeria ferrisi isolates. (A) Maximum oocysts per gram of feces used as a proxy for (inverse of) resistance; (B) Impact on host health measured 603 as the maximum weight loss during patent period relative to starting weight (%); (C) 604 605 Tolerance estimated by the slope of the linear regression with null intercept modelling 606 maximum relative weight loss as a response of maximum oocysts per gram of feces. A 607 steep slope corresponds to a low tolerance. We did not detect (A) either higher parasite 608 shedding of the Eastern parasite isolate in Eastern mouse strains and vice versa or (C) 609 higher tolerance of Eastern hosts infected by Eastern parasite isolate and vice versa, thus our results do not support the hypothesis of local adaptation between E. ferrisi and

611 its host.

Figure 4. No indication of resistance-tolerance coupling for *E. ferrisi* isolate 612 **Brandenburg64.** Colors represent mouse subspecies (blue: *M. m. domesticus*, red: M. m. musculus, purple: Mmd-Mmm). Left side: comparison of maximum oocysts per 614 gram of feces used as a proxy for (inverse of) resistance (A), impact on weight measured as the maximum weight loss during patent period relative to starting weight 616 (B) and tolerance between mouse groups estimated by the slope of the linear 617 regression with null intercept modelling maximum relative weight loss as a response 618 of maximum oocysts per gram of feces, a steep slope corresponding to a low 619 tolerance (C). Maximum number of OPG and relative weight loss differ between 620 mouse groups, but tolerance is similar. Right side: non significant positive correlation 621 622 between mean maximum oocysts per gram of feces and mean relative weight loss (D) and absence of correlation between maximum oocysts per gram of feces used as a 623 proxy for (inverse of) resistance and tolerance (E); Grey error bars represent 95% 624 confidence intervals. Our results do not support coupling between resistance and 625 tolerance *E. ferrisi* isolate Brandenburg64. 626

Figure 5. Coupling between resistance and tolerance for *E. falciformis* isolate
Brandenburg88. Colors represent mouse subspecies (blue: *M. m. domesticus*, red: *M. m. musculus*, purple: Mmd-Mmm). Left side: comparison of maximum oocysts per

gram of feces used as a proxy for (inverse of) resistance (A), impact on weight

measured as the maximum weight loss during patent period relative to starting weight

(B) and tolerance between mouse groups estimated by the slope of the linear

regression with null intercept modelling maximum relative weight loss as a response

of maximum oocysts per gram of feces, a steep slope corresponding to a low tolerance (C). Maximum number of OPG, relative weight loss and tolerance differ between mouse groups. Right side: non significant negative correlation between mean maximum oocysts per gram of feces and mean relative weight loss (D) and strong negative correlation between maximum oocysts per gram of feces used as a proxy for (inverse of) resistance and tolerance (E); Grey error bars represent 95% confidence intervals. Our results support coupling between resistance and tolerance *E. falciformis* isolate Brandenburg88.