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Cryptic diversity in hymenolepidid tapeworms infecting humans.

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## 23 ABSTRACT

An adult hymenolepidid tapeworm was recovered from a 52-year-old Tibetan 24 woman during a routine epidemiological survey for human taeniasis/cysticercosis in 25 Sichuan, China. Phylogenetic analyses based on sequences of nuclear 28S 26 ribosomal DNA and mitochondrial cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit 1 showed that the 27 human isolate is distinct from Hymenolepis diminuta and Hymenolepis nana, the 28 common parasites causing human hymenolepiasis. Proglottids of the human 29 isolate were unfortunately unsuitable for morphological identification. However, 30 the resultant phylogeny demonstrated the human isolate to be a sister species to 31 Hymenolepis hibernia from Apodemus mice in Eurasia. The present data clearly 32 indicate that hymenolepidid tapeworms causing human infections are not restricted 33 to only *H. diminuta* and *H. nana*. 34

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36 Keywords:

- 37 hymenolepiasis
- 38 Hymenolepis diminuta
- <sup>39</sup> cryptic species complex

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The family Hymenolepididae is a diverse group of tapeworms consisting of 41 approximately 620 species in birds and 230 species in mammals, and has been 42 assigned to many genera based on their morphological traits [1]. However, 43 molecular phylogenetic studies on interspecific and intergeneric relationships within 44 the family are still in their infancy [2]. Although a few members of the genus 45 Hymenolepis sensu lato are of medical importance as pathogenic organisms, their 46 taxonomy is still controversial, particularly that of Hymenolepis nana [2]. Rodent 47 tapeworms of this genus generally require arthropod intermediate hosts in their life 48 49 cycles. The adult tapeworms parasitize in rodent intestines, and the eggs develop into cysticercoid larvae in the hemocoel of insects, mainly beetles (Coleoptera). 50

Human infections with adult hymenolepidid tapeworms (hymenolepiasis) 51 occur worldwide, particularly in tropical and subtropical countries under poor 52 hygiene conditions. Most patients remain asymptomatic. The human 53 hymenolepiasis has been generally believed to be caused only by the mouse 54 tapeworm *H. nana* and the rat tapeworm *Hymenolepis diminuta*, of which *H. nana* is 55 by far the most common because human-to-human infections occur frequently in 56 children by directly ingesting the parasite eggs as a result of contamination of house 57 dust, food and water with human feces [3]. Human infections with H. diminuta via 58 beetle intermediate hosts have been found less frequently [3]. Humans seem to 59 become infected with H. diminuta due to the accidental ingestion of small beetles in 60 Diagnosis of hymenolepiasis in human patients and stored cereal crops. 61 differentiation of causative species are usually based on the morphology of eggs 62 recovered from feces. 63

The taxonomy and identification of *H. diminuta* are problematic issues since the taxon includes a complex of cryptic species [2], indicating a possibility that clinical samples (i.e. proglottids and eggs) from human patients might be often misdiagnosed as *H. diminuta*. Originally, *H. diminuta* was discovered in the brown rat, *Rattus norvegicus*, from Europe. Several species of Eurasian field mice

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(Apodemus spp.) were subsequently listed as definitive hosts for *H. diminuta* [4].
However, additional descriptions of *Hymenolepis apodemi* [4], *Hymenolepis pseudodiminuta* [5] and *Hymenolepis hibernia* [6] from *Apodemus* spp. suggested that true *H. diminuta* is a specific parasite of *Rattus* spp. The infectivities of these newly defined *Hymenolepis* spp. to humans are completely unknown. We report here an unexpected and novel finding about a causative agent of hymenolepiasis in humans.

During a routine epidemiological survey for human taeniasis/cysticercosis in 76 remote communities of Ruoergai region of Sichuan, China (located at the eastern 77 margin of the Tibetan Plateau), hymenolepidid eggs were detected in a fecal 78 sample from a 52-year-old Tibetan woman. She showed no clinical signs. Under 79 approval of the local informed consent form, a deworming treatment was done for 80 her using pumpkin seeds and areca nut extract [7]. An adult tapeworm expelled 81 was washed with tap water and then kept in 70% ethanol for subsequent 82 morphological observation and molecular identification. Mature eggs were 83 obtained from the terminal gravid proglottids. Measuring the diameter of eggs, the 84 thickness of outer coat (egg-shell), the size of oncospheres, and the length of 85 embryonic hooks was done after mounting the eggs in Berlese's medium. 86

The human-derived hymenolepidid tapeworm was subjected to a molecular 87 phylogenetic analysis, together with 13 reference samples (H. diminuta and H. 88 *hibernia*) from collections of the Finnish Museum of Natural History and 3 laboratory 89 strains (H. diminuta, H. nana and Hymenolepis microstoma) kept in Asahikawa 90 Medical University, Japan. Parasite genomic DNA was purified from a small part 91 of proglottids using DNeasy tissue kit (QIAGEN) and then used as a template for 92 Nuclear 28S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) and mitochondrial cytochrome c PCR. 93 oxidase subunit 1 (cox1) were selected as target genes. The 28S rDNA primers 94 XZ-1 and 1500R [2] and the original cox1 primers Hym-cox1F (5'-GTT ACT AAT 95 CAT GGT ATT ATT ATG-3') and Hym-cox1R (5'-CCA AAA TAA TGC ATA GGA 96

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AAA-3') were used for PCR amplification and subsequent DNA sequencing. 97 Procedures of the PCR and sequencing were the same as those reported 98 The resultant sequences were submitted to BLAST homology previously [8]. 99 search [http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov] to check sequence identity. 100 All of the sequences determined in this study have been deposited into 101 DDBJ/EMBL/GenBank databases (Supplementary Table 1). In the case of 28S 102 rDNA, sequences retrieved from the databases were also added to the present 103 Nucleotide data sets of nuclear 28S rDNA and mitochondrial cox1 were analysis. 104 prepared using the multiple aligner MAFFT [9]. Gaps were completely removed 105 The genetic software MEGA 6 [10] was used to find from the alignments. 106 nucleotide substitution models and to estimate phylogenetic trees by maximum 107 likelihood (ML) method. Midpoint-rooted ML trees were generated from the data 108 sets by 500 bootstrap repetitions under the model HKY+G for 28S rDNA and the 109 model TN93+G for cox1. Pairwise divergence values were also computed at 110 interspecific and intraspecific levels using the MEGA6. 111

The adult tapeworm from a Tibetan woman was approximately 10 cm in length 112 and 3 mm in maximum width. The scolex was lost, and furthermore the contracted 113 body in ethanol was unsuitable for morphological observation of reproductive 114 organs in mature proglottids. As shown in Fig. 1, eggs obtained from the gravid 115 proglottids had a spherical shape similar to those of *H. hibernia*, *H. pseudodiminuta* 116 and *H. apodemi*. The egg size of the human tapeworm was 63 µm in mean 117 diameter (n=12), overlapping with those of the above-mentioned three species [4]. 118 The egg outer coat was relatively thick; 4.0 µm in mean thickness (n=7). The 119 oncosphere was oval;  $28.4 \times 34.6 \ \mu m$  in mean size (n=10). The embryonic hook 120 was relatively long; 16.5  $\mu$ m in mean length (n=7). These egg features appear to 121 be similar to those of *H. apodemi* [4]. However, the lack of information about 122 morphological features of reproductive organs prevented us to definitively identify 123 the human tapeworm in China. 124

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The BLAST homology search using nuclear 28S rDNA and mitochondrial cox1 125 sequences demonstrated the unidentified tapeworm not to be identical to any of the 126 hymenolepidid tapeworms recorded in DNA databases. To clarify its taxonomic 127 position, a preliminary molecular phylogeny of human-infecting hymenolepidid 128 tapeworms was made based on DNA sequences of 28S rDNA and cox1 (Fig. 2). 129 The data sets 28S rDNA and cox1 consisted of 1,243 and 1,000 nucleotide sites, 130 respectively. Both the gene data sets resulted in a very similar phylogeny, 131 showing that the unidentified tapeworm is distinct from the human-infecting 132 133 tapeworms, *H. diminuta* and *H. nana*. The unidentified tapeworm occupied a sister position relative to H. hibernia. Intraspecific divergence values of variable cox1 134 ranged from 0.054 to 0.000 in H. hibernia isolates (n=11) and from 0.021 to 0.004 in 135 H. diminuta isolates (n=3). Whereas, divergence values of cox1 between the 136 unidentified tapeworm and each isolate of *H. hibernia* ranged from 0.141 to 0.131, 137 suggesting that the unidentified tapeworm differs from *H. hibernia* at species level. 138

This report clearly demonstrates that hymenolepidid tapeworms causing 139 human infections are not restricted to only *H. diminuta* and *H. nana*. Although the 140 human-derived hymenolepidid tapeworm in China remained unidentified, the 141 present molecular phylogeny showed that the human isolate is the most related to 142 H. hibernia from Eurasian Apodemus mice. As indicated in Fig. 2, H. hibernia is 143 widely distributed in the Palaearctic region. Recently, a new species of 144 Hymenolepis from Apodemus peninsulae, Apodemus uralensis and Apodemus 145 agrarius in the south of Russian Far East, western Siberia and Kazakhstan has 146 been described as *H. apodemi* [4]. In the highlands of the eastern margin of the 147 Tibetan Plateau where the unidentified tapeworm was found, the Sichuan field 148 mouse (Apodemus latronum) and the South China field mouse (Apodemus draco) 149 are endemic [11], together with A. peninsulae and A. agrarius from which H. 150 apodemi has been found. The shared rodent fauna and the morphological 151 similarity of parasite eggs suggest that *H. apodemi* is a potential candidate for the 152

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unidentified human tapeworm, although a possibility of a new species also should
 be considered. Further taxonomic studies are needed to integrate molecular and
 morphological data of *H. diminuta* species complex.

The Eurasian Apodemus spp. generally inhabit forests, forest edges and 156 grasslands, and perpetuate the sylvatic life cycles of Hymenolepis spp. with 157 arthropod intermediate hosts. As compared with Apodemus mice, house rats and 158 house mice are more directly linked with human living environments. An early 159 experimental study of *H. hibernia* [6] indicated that the *Apodemus*-derived parasite 160 161 can infect rats (Rattus norvegicus) more easily than mice (Mus musculus). Another Apodemus-derived parasite, H. pseudodiminuta, also has a loose 162 host-specificity at the adult stage [12]. The host-switching of Hymenolepis spp. 163 from Apodemus to Rattus has an important implication because the resultant 164 synanthropic life cycles could be associated with human infections. 165

Moreover, in the cases of human infections with H. nana, researchers and 166 health workers should pay attention to the possible involvement of cryptic species 167 originating from wild rodents [13]. In Australia, H. nana-like eggs in human feces 168 were identified as H. microstoma using a mitochondrial DNA analysis, although the 169 adult tapeworms were not confirmed from the patients [14]. Even at the present 170 time, the generic assignment of *H. nana* and *H. microstoma* is a problematic issue, 171 and these species cannot be unambiguously assigned to any existing genus [2]. 172 Based on the morphological distinctiveness of the scolex, they are sometimes 173 classified into the genus Rodentolepis [1, 2] or Vampirolepis [15, 16]. However, 174 the species of Rodentolepis, Vampirolepis and other hymenolepidids with rostellar 175 hooks do not truly belong to Hymenolepis, because the members of latter genus 176 have a rudimentary rostellum without hooks [1, 2]. Therefore the generic 177 assignment "Hymenolepis sensu lato" is preferred for H. nana and H. microstoma, 178 and "Hymenolepis sensu stricto" should be used only for H. diminuta species 179 complex. Rodentolepis-like species are morphologically similar to each other, and 180

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utilize many species of rodents as definitive hosts, including the house mice Mus 181 musculus and Mus domesticus. A PCR-based molecular identification using 182 clinical samples of fecal eggs and ploglottids is necessary to clarify whether other 183 hymenolepidid tapeworms are involved in human infections with so-called "H. nana". 184 A molecular phylogenetic survey using *H. nana* isolates from humans and rodents 185 suggests a possibility that *H. nana* is a cryptic species complex containing at least 186 two morphologically indistinguishable species [17], one of them possibly 187 representing Hymenolepis fraterna [18]. However, the occurrence of the two 188 189 cryptic species was not related to the host origins (humans and rodents). A mitochondrial DNA barcoding system should be prepared for hymenolepidid 190 cestodes parasitizing humans and rodents in collaboration with tapeworm 191 taxonomists to better understand causative species of hymenolepiasis. 192

193

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- 256

257 Figure legends

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Fig. 1. Spherical eggs of a hymenolepidid tapeworm derived from a Tibetan
 woman in China. Scale bar represents 50 μm. Resolution of the microscopic
 photograph was enhanced using Nomarski prism.

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Fig. 2. Midpoint-rooted phylogenetic trees of Hymenolepis spp. including a human 263 isolate from China. Code names of the isolates and their localities are shown in 264 265 parentheses. The trees were made by maximum likelihood method using data sets of nuclear 28S rDNA (1,243 nucleotide sites) and mitochondrial cox1 (1,000 266 sites). Database accession numbers of the original sequences are shown in 267 Supplementary Table 1. Values of the main nodes are bootstrap percentages 268 after 500 replicates. Scale bars represent the estimated number of substitutions 269 per nucleotide site. A) The tree of 28S rDNA. Sequences published in a previous 270 report by Haukisalmi et al. [2] are shown by asterisks, and those published by them 271 only in databases are indicated with hash symbols. B) The tree of cox1. 272

273 Fig. 1



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## Supplementary Table 1

Database accession numbers of nucleotide sequences used in this study.

		Accession nos.	
Species	Codes	28S rDNA	cox1
Hymenolepis hibernia	U25, Turkey	KT148842	LC063180
Hymenolepis hibernia	BS2, Spain	KT148842	LC063175
Hymenolepis hibernia	U76, Croatia	KT148842	LC063172
Hymenolepis hibernia	BS1, Spain	KT148842	LC063176
Hymenolepis hibernia	U20, Turkey	KT148844	LC063181
Hymenolepis hibernia	U14, Turkey	KT148844	LC063182
Hymenolepis hibernia	U57, Romania	KT148843	LC063173
Hymenolepis hibernia	U46, Kazakhstan	KT148843	LC063174
Hymenolepis hibernia	CB4, Korea	KT148843	LC063177
Hymenolepis hibernia	CA9, Korea	KT148843	LC063178
Hymenolepis hibernia	CA0, Korea	KT148843	LC063179
Hymenolepis diminuta	Laboratory strain	LC064143	LC063185
Hymenolepis diminuta	W43, Madagascar	GU166229 <sup>a</sup>	LC063184
Hymenolepis diminuta	BM6, Canaries	HM138522 <sup>b</sup>	LC063186
Hymenolepis nana	Laboratory strain	LC064145	LC063187
Hymenolepis microstoma	Laboratory strain	LC064144	LC063188
<i>Hymenolepis</i> sp.	Human isolate	LC064142	LC063183
<i>Hymenolepis</i> sp.	U9, Turkey	GU166227 <sup>a</sup>	n.d. <sup>c</sup>
Hymenolepis weldensis	AC8, USA	GU166230 <sup> a</sup>	n.d.
Hymenolepis sp. A VH-2011	BP4, Thailand	HM138523 <sup>b</sup>	n.d.
Hymenolepis sp. B VH-2011	C31, Madagascar	HM138524 <sup>b</sup>	n.d.
<i>Hymenolepis</i> sp. C VH-2011	U45, Kazakhstan	HM138525 <sup>b</sup>	n.d.

<sup>a</sup> Sequences published in a previous report [2].

<sup>b</sup> Sequences published by Haukisalmi *et al.* only in databases.

<sup>c</sup> not determined.