Global genetic diversity of Spirometra tapeworms

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Received 17 April 2019; received in revised form 16 November 2019; accepted 20 November 2019

Abstract. Spirometra larvae are etiological agents of human sparganosis. However, the systematics of spirometrid cestodes has long been controversial. In order to determine the current knowledge on the evolution and genetic structure of Spirometra, an exhaustive population diversity analysis of spirometrid cestodes using the mitochondrial gene: cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 (cox1) was performed. All publicly available cox1 sequences available in the GenBank and 127 new sequencing genes from China were used as the dataset. The haplotype identify, network, genetic differentiation and phylogenetic analysis were conducted successively. A total of 488 sequences from 20 host species, representing four spirometrid tapeworms (S. decipiens, S. ranarum, S. erinaceieuropaei and Sparganum proliferum) and several unclassified American and African isolates from 113 geographical locations in 17 countries, identified 45 haplotypes. The genetic analysis revealed that there are four clades of spirometrid cestodes: Clade 1 (Brazil + USA) and Clade 2 (Argentina + Venezuela) included isolates from America, Clade 3 contained African isolates and one Korean sample, and the remainders from Asia and Australia belonged to Clade 4; unclassified Spirometra from America and Africa should be considered the separate species within the genus; and the taxonomy of two Korea isolates (S. erinaceieuropaei KJ599680 and S. decipiens KJ599679) was still ambiguous and needs to be further identified. In addition, the demographical analyses supported population expansion for the total spirometrid population. In summary, four lineages were found in the spirometrid tapeworm, and further investigation with deeper sampling is needed to elucidate the population structure.

INTRODUCTION

The Spirometra tapeworm belongs to the family Diphyllobothriidae and order Diphyllobothriidea. Adults live in the intestine of felids and canids, however larvae (plerocercoids or spargana) parasitize in body cavity and tissues of all tetrapode groups (Okamoto et al., 2007). In humans, the plerocercoid (sparganum) invades mainly subcutaneous tissues, but also eyes, brain, and central nervous system, causing a serious parasitic zoonosis known as sparganosis (Cui et al., 2011, 2017; Liu et al., 2015). Although with medical importance, the identification and taxonomy of Spirometra species has long been controversial (Faust et al., 1929; Mueller, 1937; Okamoto et al., 2007; Jeon et al., 2016a, 2018a; Zhang et al.,

2017). The most recent review concluded only 4 valid species of the genus (Kuchta and Scholz, 2017), however, many more nominal *Spirometra* species have been described. In addition, the sparganum isolates from America (Argentina, Brazil and USA) and Africa (Ethiopia and South Sudan) were still unclassified (Eberhard *et al.*, 2015; Almeida *et al.*, 2016; Waeschenbach *et al.*, 2017). Therefore, there is a pressing requirement to investigate the genetic diversity and phylogenetic relationship among the *Spirometra* species in order to establish the taxonomy of spirometrid tapeworm.

Generally, species identification of *Spirometra* tapeworm is based on the morphology of adult worms, however the typical specimens obtained in practice were *Spirometra* larval forms. It is hard to

distinguish the morphological differences in the plerocercoids among spirometrid tapeworms. Therefore, more species identification has preferred DNA borcoding methods. Among all genetic markers that have been applied in the molecular studies of Spirometra, the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit 1 gene (cox1) has been the most commonly used. This gene has been widely used for the species identification (Lee et al., 1997; Miyadera et al., 2001; Liu et al., 2010; Simpson et al., 2012; Boonyasiri et al., 2013, 2014; Jongthawin et al., 2014; Jeon et al., 2015, 2016a, 2018a; Holldorf et al., 2015; Petrigh et al., 2015; Thanchomnang et al., 2016; Tang et al., 2017), genetic variation (Okamoto et al., 2007; Zhang et al., 2014, 2015a; Jeon et al., 2016b, 2018b) and phylogeny (Lee et al., 2007; Dai et al., 2012; Wei et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2015b, 2016).

To date, 366 sequences of the cox1 gene of spirometrid tapeworms have been deposited in the GenBank database, which represent the isolates collected from different hosts and originated from more than 84 geographical locations in 17 countries. These publicly available datasets offer good opportunities to compare the intra- and interspecific diversity of Spirometra tapeworms. In this study, we intend to perform an exhaustive genetic diversity analysis of spirometrid cestodes using these available datasets, as well as with 127 newly added sequences of spargana isolated from wild frogs in 29 geographical locations in mainland China.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Sequencing the *cox*1 gene of Chinese isolates

Wild frogs were collected from different locations in China from May 2014 until September 2018. The presence of spargana was examined as the methods described by Wei *et al.* (2015). In total, 127 spargana were collected from 29 geographical locations (Table 1). Genomic DNA was extracted from individual plerocercoids using the EasyPure Genomic DNA Kit (Transgen, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The *cox1* gene was amplified by PCR using the primers designed by Yanagida *et al.* (2010). The PCR products were purified using the EasyPure PCR Purification Kit (Transgen, China) and sequenced in both directions at the Genwiz Company (Suzhou, China). All sequences were deposited in the GenBank database under accession numbers MK085765-K085891.

Genetic diversity analysis

To perform a worldwide genetic variable comparative analysis of Spirometra tapeworms, all available sequences of cox1in the GenBank database were included in this study (Table 1). More specifically, 366 sequenced cox1 genes of spirometrid tapeworms have been published, representing five species and several unclassified species: S. decipiens (n=1), S. ranarum (n=1), S. erinaceieuropaei (n=349), Sparganum proliferum (n=1) and Spirometra sp. (n=14). For S. erinaceieuropaei, 11 sequences were from Australia, three from Indonesia, one from India, 12 from Thailand, 16 from Laos, one from Myanmar, three from Korea, seven from Japan, one from Vietnam, one from Iran and 293 from mainland China. Two diphyllobothriid tapeworms, Diphyllobothrium scoticum (KY552883) and Adenocephalus pacificus (KY552867) were used as outgroups according to the report by Waeschenbach et al. (2017).

The alignment of cox1 sequences was performed in MEGA v.6.06 (Tamura et al., 2013) with the default settings. The variable sites, nucleotide compositions and pairwise distances were also estimated in MEGA v.6.06. The number of haplotypes, haplotype diversity (Hd), and nucleotide diversity (Pi) were analysed with DnaSP v.6 (Rozas et al., 2017). The software Network v.5.0 (Bandelt et al., 1999) was employed to draw a medianjoining network to explore the relationships among the detected haplotypes. To explore the levels of genetic differentiation among the geographical populations, the pairwise $F_{\rm ST}$ values between populations were calculated by using Arlequin v.3.5 (Excoffier et al., 2010).

Phylogenetic analysis

The phylogenetic pattern of all cox1haplotypes was estimated through two methods: maximum likelihood (ML) and Bayesian inference (BI). The sequence evolution model was selected by jModelTest v0.2 (Darriba et al., 2012) under the Akaike information criterion (AIC). The ML analysis was performed in MEGA v.6.06. Confidence in each node was assessed by boot-strapping (1000 pseudo-replicates). BI was performed in MrBayes v.3.2 (Ronquist et al., 2012). The analysis consisted of two runs, each with four MCMC chains running for 5 000 000 generations, and sampling every 100th generation. The neutrality tests using Tajima's D (Tajima, 1989) and Fu's $F_{\rm S}$ (Fu, 1997) were also applied through Arlequin v.3.5 as an assessment of possible population expansion. In addition, to estimate changes in population size over time, and the time to the most recent common ancestor (tMRCA), a Bayesian Skyline Plot analysis (BSP) implemented in BEAST v1.8.2 (Drummond et al., 2012) was performed. Using the piecewise-constant skyline model, the molecular evolutionary rate of cox1 was fixed at 0.0225 substitutions per site per million years ago (Mya) as described previously (Michelet et al., 2010).

RESULTS

Haplotypic variability

Six sequences (AF096239, KT375455, KT375456, KF656743, KF656744 and KP738256) were excluded due to ambiguous alignment. The final alignment contained 487 sequences representing one Sparganum proliferum, one S. decipiens, one S. ranarum, 12 unclassified Spirometra and 473 S. erinaceieuropaei. A total of 45 haplotypes (Haps) were identified from these 488 sequences (Table 1). Among the haplotypes, Sparganum proliferum originated from Venezuela (AB015753), S. decipiens from Korea (KJ599679), three unclassified isolates from Argentina (KF572950), Ethiopia (KM248530), and the USA (KY552892) were identified as separate Haps; two unclassified Brazil isolates (KF740506 and KF740507) and six isolates from South Sudan were identified 2 Haps; and the remaining S. erinaceieuropaei isolates and a S. ranarum sample constituted another 36 Haps. All samples had high haplotype diversity (0.652 ± 0.023) accompanied by low nucleotide diversity (0.01619 ± 0.00156) . The median-joining network analysis showed that Hap12 was the most prominent haplotype represent 55.3% of all sequences and originated from China, Thailand, Japan, Australia, Korea and Iran (Fig. 1). Hap2 was shared by isolates from China, Thailand and Myanmar. Hap13 was shared by isolates from China, Australia, Japan and Indonesia. Hap14 was shared by isolates from China and Indonesia. The Chinese isolates (82.9% of the sequences represented China samples) showed the most diversity of haplotypes (24 Haps). Samples from Japan and Korea shared 5 (Haps12-13, Haps19-21) and 4 (Hap3, Hap12, Haps17-18) Haps, respectively. Isolates from Thailand (Hap2, Hap12 and Hap25), Indonesia (Haps13-15) and Laos (Haps22-24) revealed 3 Haps. Worms from Australia (Haps12-13), Brazil (Haps6-7) and South Sudan (Happs9-10) possessed 2 Haps. The species from Venezuela (Hap1), Argentina (Hap5), Ethiopia (Hap8), the USA (Hap11), India (Hap16) and Vietnam (Hap45) were identified as separate single haplotype. The pairwise Fst values between isolates from different countries were calculated to estimate levels of genetic differentiation (Table 2). Most of the Fst values between American countries (Brazil, Argentina, Venezuela and USA) and Asian countries + Australia, American and African countries, African countries and Asian countries + Australia were very high (above 0.5), although with little statistically significance (p < 0.05).

Phylogeny

The model test suggested that the HKY+G model was most suitable for the *cox1* sequences. Both maximum likelihood and Bayesian inference analyses revealed four clades: Clades 1–4 (Fig. 2). The earliest divergence gave rise to isolates from Brazil and the USA (Clade 1) and then to a sample from Argentina and a sample from Venezuela

Taxa	Country of origin	Host	Cox1 haplotype	No. of seqs	GenBank No.	Reference
Sparganum proliferum	Venezuela	Homo sapiens	Hap1	1	AB015753	Miyadera et al. 2001
Spirometra sp.	Argentina	Lycalopex gymnocercus	Hap5	1	KF572950	Petrigh et al. 2015
	Brazil	Leopardus pardalis	Hap6	1	KF740506	Almeida et al. 2016
		L. pardalis	Hap7	1	KF740507	Almeida et al. 2016
	Ethiopia	Homo sapiens	Hap8	1	KM248530	Eberhard et al. 2015
	South Sudan		Haps9-10	9	KM248531-KM248536	Eberhard et al. 2015
	USA	Pantherophis obsoletus	Hap11	1	KY552892	Waeschenbach et al. 2017
	China	N/a	Hap4	1	HQ699076	Direct submission
S. decipiens	Korea	Rhabdophis tigrinus	Hap3	1	KJ599679	Eom <i>et al.</i> 2015
S. ranarum	Myanmar	Hoplobatrachus rugulosus	Hap2	1	MH298843	Jeon et al. 2018a
S. erinaceieuropaei	Australia	Felis silvestris	Hap13	1	AJ308261	Okamoto et al. 2007
		Litoria caerulea	Hap12	2	AJ308264-AJ308265	Okamoto et al. 2007
		Python bivittatus	Hap13	1	AJ308263	Okamoto et al. 2007
		Tiger snake	Hap13	1	AJ308262	Okamoto et al. 2007
		Vulpes velox	Hap13	2	AJ308259-AJ308260	Okamoto et al. 2007
		Canis familiaris	Hap13	2	AJ308257-AJ308258	Okamoto et al. 2007
		C. familiaris	Hap13	1	JN367266	Simpson et al. 2012
		C. familiaris	Hap12	1	KY552886	Waeschenbach et al. 2017
	Vietnam	Xenochrophis flavipunctatus	Hap45	1	KY552887	Waeschenbach et al. 2017
	Indonesia	C. familiaris	Haps13-15	co	AB278575-AB278577	Okamoto et al. 2007
	India	C. familiaris	Hap16	1	AB278574	Okamoto et al. 2007
	Thailand	H. sapiens	Hap12	6	KF539833-KF539841	Boonyasiri et al. 2014
			Hap25	1	KC551943	Boonyasiri et al. 2013
		Ptyas korros	Hap2	5	KM099139-KM099140	Jongthawin et al. 2014

Table 1. Spirometra tapeworms and the corresponding cox1 sequences used in this study. Asterisks indicate sequences newly reported in this study

orros itrachus rugulosus ens	Haps22-24	16	KM099122-KM099137	Jongthawin et al. 2014
itrachus rugulosus ens				
ens	Hap2	1	KM099138	Jongthawin et al. 2014
	Hap17	1	KJ599680	Eom et al. 2015
	Hap18	-	AF096237	Lee et al. 2007
	Hap12	1	AF096238	Lee et al. 2007
climacophora	Hap19	-	AB015754	Miyadera et al. 2001
quadrivirgata	Hap12	-	AB369249	Yamasaki et al. 2007
ens	Hap20	-	AB369251	Yamasaki et al. 2007
	Hap21	1	AB369250	Yamasaki et al. 2007
	Hap13	1	AB480297	Abe <i>et al.</i> 2009
trivirgata	Hap12	1	AB522603	Okino et al. 2017
tus	Hap12	1	AB278573	Okamoto et al. 2007
	Hap12	1	KY009916	Badri et al. 2017
	Hap12	2	KC561784, KF988137	Direct submission
liaris	Hap14	17	GU576892-GU576908	Direct submission
dax nigromaculatus	Haps2, 4	22	GQ866863-GQ866884	Direct submission
liaris	Haps28-31	11	FJ886763-FJ886773	Dai et al. 2012
pmaculatus	Haps4, 12, 14, 26-27	12	GQ999946-GQ999957	Liu <i>et al.</i> 2010
ugulosa	Hap12	12	KF656735-KF656746	Wei et al. 2015
emporaria	Haps2, 12	16	KF745143-KF745158	Zhang et al. 2014
	Haps2, 12, 13, 32-38	88	KM605255-KM605342	Zhang et al. 2015a
	Haps12, 39,	61	KP738228-KP738288	Zhang et al. 2015b
	Haps2, 4, 12, 14, 33, 40-42	52	KT376494-KT376545	Zhang et al. 2016
	Haps2, 4, 12-14, 32, 39, 43, 44	127	MK085765*-MK085891*	This study
	ens brivirgata ttus s taris liaris maculatus mporaria mporaria		mss Hap20 1 Hap11 Hap13 1 hrivingata Hap12 1 hrivingata Hap12 1 hrivingata Hap12 1 html Hap23 4 22 html Hap24 12, 14, 26-27 12 html Hap23, 41, 13, 14, 26-27 12 html Hap22, 12, 13, 32-38 88 html Hap22, 4, 12, 14, 33, 40-42 52 Hap22, 4, 12, 14, 33, 40-42 52 12 Hap22, 4, 12, 44 32, 39, 43, 44 12 Hap32, 43, 44 <t< td=""><td>ens Hap20 1 AB369251 Hap21 1 AB369250 Hap13 1 AB369250 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB369260 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB369260 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB369260 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB52603 tus Hap12 1 AB578573 tus Hap12 1 AB278573 tus Hap12 2 K7009916 tus Hap12 1 AB278573 tus Hap14 17 GU576892-GU576908 tus Hap24 4 22 GQ86863-GQ8684 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ86863-GQ8684 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ86863-GQ8684 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ999946-GQ999967 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ86863-GU568644 tus Hap22, 14, 26-27 12 Gu566999966-GU5999967</td></t<>	ens Hap20 1 AB369251 Hap21 1 AB369250 Hap13 1 AB369250 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB369260 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB369260 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB369260 Frivirgata Hap12 1 AB52603 tus Hap12 1 AB578573 tus Hap12 1 AB278573 tus Hap12 2 K7009916 tus Hap12 1 AB278573 tus Hap14 17 GU576892-GU576908 tus Hap24 4 22 GQ86863-GQ8684 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ86863-GQ8684 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ86863-GQ8684 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ999946-GQ999967 tus Hap22, 4 22 GQ86863-GU568644 tus Hap22, 14, 26-27 12 Gu566999966-GU5999967

Table 1 continued...

Population	1	2	3	4	5	9	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1 Brazil	0.000																
2 Argentina	0.672	0.000															
3 USA	0.511	1.000	0.000														
4 Venezuela	0.669	1.000	1.000	0.000													
5 South Sudan	0.935	0.993	0.994	0.992	0.000												
6 Ethiopia	0.658	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.895	0.000											
7 China	0.916	0.898	0.921	0.869	0.871	0.874	0.000										
8 Korea	0.562	0.353	0.510	0.248	0.676	0.252	0.406	0.000									
9 Myanmar	0.824	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.992	1.00	0.241	0.020	0.000								
10 Thailand	0.877	0.874	0.903	0.841	0.885	0.847	0.001	0.177	0.261	0.000							
11 Japan	0.846	0.849	0.883	0.814	0.890	0.819	0.124	0.126	0.082	0.107	0.000						
12 Australia	0.911	0.924	0.940	0.903	0.930	0.907	0.256	0.333	0.151	0.311	0.059	0.000					
13 Indonesia	0.837	0.915	0.931	0.891	0.960	0.896	0.369	0.113	0.077	0.377	0.080	0.013	0.000				
14 India	0.654	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.991	1.000	0.217	0.487	1.000	0.179	0.132	0.147	0.091	0.000			
15 Laos	0.940	0.950	0.959	0.937	0.949	0.940	0.545	0.568	0.587	0.625	0.420	0.413	0.325	0.579	0.000		
16 Vietnam	0.651	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.990	1.000	0.121	0.558	1.000	0.084	0.159	0.086	0.091	1.000	0.597	0.000	
17 Iran	0.636	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.990	1.000	0.544	0.960	1.000	0.832	0.281	0.400	0.520	1.000	0.765	1.000	0.000

Table 2. Genetic differentiation (Fst) values among Spirometra isolates. Significant comparisons (P < 0.05) are in bold

Table 3. Neutrality tests results of spirometrid tapeworms. Significant level = 0.05. Number in parentheses is *P* value

Phylogroups	Neutralit	ty Tests
1 hylogroups	Fu's $F_{\rm S}$	Tajima's D
Total population	-5.40180 (0.17)	-1.89942 (0.00)



Figure 1. Median-joining network of haplotypes of spirometrid tapeworms. Each haplotype is represented by a circle, with the area of the circle proportional to its frequency. The median vector is indicated by a solid black circle.

(Clade 2), next to isolates from Africa (South Sudan and Ethiopia) and a sample from Korea (KJ599680) (Clade 3). The last divergence event separated isolates from Asia and Australia (Clade 4). However, within the cluster of Clade 4, a sample from Korea (KJ599679) and a sample from Myanmar (MH298843) were classified as S. decipiens and S. ranarum in the GenBank database respectively. Neutrality tests based on Tajima's D and Fu's $F_{\rm S}$ for the spirometrid tapeworms showed negative values, supporting a possible population expansion (Table 3). The result of Bayesian Skyline Plot analysis also supports a sudden population expansion for the total population: a sudden

expansion was identified between 0.25–0.75 Mya by BSP (Fig. 3).

DISCUSSION

The systematics of *Spirometra* and the taxonomic position of species within it remain controversial (Faust *et al.*, 1929; Mueller, 1937; Okamoto *et al.*, 2007; Kuchta *et al.*, 2008; Zhang *et al.*, 2019). Molecular markers, especially the *cox1*, have played an important role in the studies on modern parasite identification, genetic variation and evolution over the past decade (Miyadera *et al.*, 2001; Okamoto *et al.*, 2007; Dai *et al.*



Figure 2. Bayesian phylogenetic tree of spirometrid tapeworms based on the data set of *cox1*. The numbers along branches indicate posterior probabilities and only posterior probabilities above 0.6 are shown. The number in the parenthesis indicates the sampling size of each haplotype. The abbreviations of countries are designated as follows: Bra, Brazil; Arg, Argentina; Ven, Venezuela; S Sud, South Sudan; Eth, Ethiopia; Kor. Korea; Jap, Japan; Ira, Iran; Tha, Thailand; Indi, India; Aus, Australia; Vie, Vietnam; Indo, Indonesia; Mya, Myanmar; Lao, Laos; Chi, China.

2012; Boonyasiri *et al.*, 2014; Eom *et al.*, 2015; Almeida *et al.*, 2016; Zhang *et al.*, 2018). Here, we performed the first comparative analysis of spirometrid cestodes from worldwide using all available cox1 sequences deposited in the GenBank as well as with 127 newly added sequences of spargana isolated from 29 geographical locations in mainland China. A total of 488 sequences representing four species of spirometrid cestodes (Sparganum proliferum, S. decipiens, S. ranarum, and S. erinaceieuropaei) and several unclassified Spirometra from American and African identified 45 haplotypes. Sparganum proliferum, whose adult stage is still unknown, has been



Figure 3. Estimated demographic expansion of the spirometrid tapeworm population. A Bayesian skyline plot derived from the data set of *cox*1. The X-axis is in units of million years in the past, and the Y-axis is Ne $\times \mu$ (effective population size \times mutation rate per site per generation). The median estimates are shown as thick solid lines, and the purple areas show the 95% HPD limits.

identified as a diphyllobothriidean cestode using cox1 and nuclear sdhB genes (Miyadera et al., 2001). In this study, S. proliferum was identified as a separate Hap, indicating that this organism should be a valid species. However, the phylogenetic analysis showed that S. proliferum is a sister lineage to the Argentina isolate. Plerocercoid larvae collected from snake (*Rhabdophis tigrinus*) were identified as S. decipiens (KJ599679) in Eom et al. (2015). Although the S. decipiens (KJ599679) was revealed as a separate Hap, this species was inserted into a group containing mainly Asia and Australia S. erinaceieuropaei isolates in the phylogenetic tree, suggesting the ambiguous taxonomy of S. decipiens. The S. ranarum from Myanmar and isolates of S. erinaceieuropaei from Thailand and different locations in China were identified as a single haplotype (Hap2), confirming that S. ranarum is a synonym of S. erinaceieuropaei. However, Jeon et al. (2018a) confirmed a Spirometra species of Myanmar origin as S. ranarum based on cox1 and *nad*1 genes as well as morphological

observations of an adult tapeworm. For the unclassified Spirometra, four isoaltes from America, one from Argentina, two from Brazil and one from the USA, were revealed as four separate Haps, and seven samples from Africa (South Sudan 6, Ethiopia 1) showed 3 Haps, indicating their specific taxonomy within the genus. The remaining sequences of S. erinaceieuropaei from 11 countries (China, Japan, Korea, Myanmar, Thailand, Indonesia, Laos, Vietnam, Iran, India and Australia) constituted 37 additional Haps. The haplotype diversity was less than that with smaller sampling of S. erinaceieuropaei in China (Zhang et al., 2015a, 2016). A possible reason might be that the molecular marker used here is only a small portion of the cox1 (369 bp), and the markers for Chinese samples in previous studies were the concatenated complete genes of cox1 (1566 bp) and cytb(1110 bp) (Zhang et al., 2015a, 2015b, 2016).

The phylogenetic analyses supported the existence of four lineages among spirometrid tapeworms. America isolates belong to two clades: Clade 1 and Clade 2. Interestingly, in comparison with the Argentina isolate, the USA isolate has a closer relationship with the Brazil isolates. In addition, sibling relationships were revealed between the Argentina isolate and S. proliferum. The third lineage only included African isolates, with the exception of a Korea isolate (KJ599680), indicating the specific phylogenetic position of the African Spiromtra species. In consideration of the above genetic analyses, the unclassified Spirometra from America and Africa should be separate species within the genus which could be due to high Fst values between the different geographical isolates, identified as individual haplotypes and distinct phylogenetic patterns. Nevertheless, the precise taxonomy of the unclassified isolates requires further identification with more robust evidence in the future.

A Korean isolate (KJ599680), which has been classified as S. erinaceieuropaei (Eom et al., 2015), was identified as member of Clade 3 in the genetic analysis. The phylogenetic tree topology also indicated that this species had a close relationship with the African isolates. In addition, our previous mitogenomic comparative analysis of Spirometra also showed that the KJ599680 was distinct from other S. erinaceieuropaei mitogenomic sequences from China and Japan (Zhang et al., 2017). Therefore, the taxonomy of the Korea isolate (KJ599680) was probably imprecisely identified in GenBank and should be considered as an independent species within the genus. Although S. decipiens (KJ599679) was identified as a separate haplotype, its close relationship with most of the S. erinaceieuropaei isolates (with exception of KJ599680) has been firmly supported in the phylogenetic analysis, indicating that it is hard to distinguish S. decipiens from S. erinaceieuropaei using only the cox1 gene. For S. erinaceieuropaei, although high haplotype diversity has been found, no obvious phylogenetic patterns were revealed among isolates from different hosts and different geographical localities. Considering that the distribution of Spirometra species is cosmopolitan, the true pattern

of the genetic structure of spirometrid tapeworms needs further investigation with deeper sampling, especially with samples from America, Africa and other scarce species, in the future.

CONCLUSION

In this study, all publicly available cox1sequences in GenBank and 127 newly added sequences from China were used to explore the genetic diversity analysis of spirometrid cestodes worldwide. A total of 488 sequences of spirometrid tapeworms from 113 geographical locations with different hosts in 17 countries identified 45 haplotypes. The network, genetic differentiation and phylogenetic analyses revealed that (1) there are four clades of spirometrid cestodes: Clade 1 included isolates from Brazil and USA, Clade 2 included isolates from Argentina and Venezuela, Clade 3 contained African isolates and one Korean sample, Clade 4 contain the remaining samples from Asia and Australia; (2) unclassified Spirometra from America and Africa should be considered individual valid species within the genus; (3) The taxonomy of two Korean isolates (S. erinaceieuropaei KJ599680 and S. decipiens KJ599679) was still ambiguous and need to be further identified. In addition, the demographical analyses supported population expansion for all spirometrid tapeworms.

Acknowledgements. We thank Mr. QW Wu, DJ Zeng, CH Du, JW Rao, Y Chen, YH Lin and HH Huang, Ms. M Gao, HQ Li, M Peng, SZ Wang, F Wu, SS Wang, M Tao and SQ Yi for collecting valuable specimens used in this study. This work was supported by National Natural Science Foundation of China (U1704189), China Postdoctoral Science Foundation (2018T110740), Henan Province Science and Technology Key Project (182102310075) and Backbone Teachers Development Program in Henan Province (2017GGJS011).

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