

Echinococcus multilocularis in Svalbard, Norway: Microsatellite genotyping to investigate the origin of a highly focal contamination.

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J. Knapp, S. Staebler, J. M. Bart, A. Stien, N. G. Yoccoz, et al.. Echinococcus multilocularis in Svalbard, Norway: Microsatellite genotyping to investigate the origin of a highly focal contamination.. Infection, Genetics and Evolution, 2012, epub ahead of print. 10.1016/j.meegid.2012.03.008 . hal-00686742

HAL Id: hal-00686742 https://hal.science/hal-00686742

Submitted on 11 Apr 2012 $\,$

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28 ABSTRACT

Echinococcus multilocularis is a threatening cestode involved in the human alveolar 29 echinococcosis. The parasite, mainly described in temperate regions of the northern 30 hemisphere was described for the first time in 1999 in the High Arctic Svalbard archipelago, 31 Norway. The origin of this contamination could be due to an anthropogenic introduction from 32 33 mainland Europe by domestic dogs or with the introduction of the sibling vole, perhaps from mainland Russia (St Petersburg area), or with roaming Arctic foxes, known as the main 34 definitive host of the parasite in Arctic regions. The genetic diversity of *E. multilocularis* in 35 Svalbard was investigated here for the first time by genotyping using EmsB microsatellite and 36 compared to other genotyped populations in the main worldwide endemic areas. We found 37 low polymorphism amongst the 27 metacestode isolates from sibling voles trapped in the core 38 of the distribution area of the vole on Svalbard. E. mutilocularis arctic populations, using the 39 Arctic fox as the definitive host, were genetically separated from European temperate 40 populations that use the red fox, but closely related to Saint Lawrence Island samples from 41 Alaska. The result is inconsistent with the hypothesis of an anthropogenic introduction from 42 43 mainland Europe, but can be seen as consistent with the hypothesis that Arctic foxes introduced E. multilocularis to Svalbard. 44

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46 Keywords

- 47 Echinococcus multilocularis
- 48 Microsatellite EmsB
- 49 Parasite dynamics
- 50 Arctic fox
- 51 Sibling vole
- 52

53 **1. Introduction**

The taeniid parasite *Echinococcus multilocularis* is the causative agent of Alveolar Echinococcosis (AE), one of the most health-threatening helminthic zoonosis occurring on the

Northern hemisphere (Fig. 1). The parasite, mostly described in Europe, some parts of North 56 America, and Asia (Vuitton et al., 2003), requires two mammalian hosts to achieve its life 57 cycle: a carnivore definitive host such as the red fox (Vulpes vulpes Linnaeus 1758), or the 58 Arctic fox (Vulpes lagopus Linnaeus 1758) in Northern latitudes and a rodent intermediate 59 host, of which many species appear susceptible (Rausch, 1995; Vuitton et al., 2003). The 60 recent establishment of the parasite transmission on the Norwegian Arctic archipelago 61 Svalbard, (Henttonen et al., 2001) was made possible by the anthropogenic introduction of the 62 only available intermediate host species to the islands, the sibling vole (Microtus levis Miller 63 64 1908), certainly from mainland Russia. This introduction probably occurred in the first half of the 20th century, with mining and maritime activities (Henttonen et al., 2001). The core 65 rodent habitat on Svalbard is along an 8 km stretch of bird cliffs along the coast in the 66 Grumant area, 10 km west of the main Norwegian settlement, Longyearbyen (78° 13' N, 15° 67 68 38' E) (Fuglei et al., 2008; Stien et al., 2010). In the Grumant area E. multilocularis has been found with high prevalence in the rodents (26%; 59 infected of 224 trapped rodents 69 70 (Henttonen et al., 2001)), the Arctic foxes (35%; 13 infected of 37 trapped foxes (Stien et al., 71 2010)), and in fox faeces (60%; 135 infected of 224 fox faeces sampled (Fuglei et al., 2008)). 72 While the introduction of the intermediate host was a prerequisite for the establishment of the 73 parasite life-cycle, the oncoming of the parasite has been suggested to be due to large scale roaming on sea ice by Arctic foxes between Svalbard and E. multilocularis-endemic areas in 74 75 Siberia (Henttonen et al., 2001). An alternative hypothesis is the possible introduction of the parasite with the sibling voles, which are likely to originate from the St Petersburg area in 76 77 Russia. Finally, a third alternative hypothesis is that the parasite has been anthropogenically introduced from mainland Europe, in association with the substantial movement of humans 78 and possibly dogs between Europe and Svalbard due to tourism, mining and scientific 79 explorations in the 20th century. 80

E. multilocularis present a genetic homogeneity with nuclear and mitochondrial targets (Haag 81 82 et al., 1997), but fast evolution markers, such as the repeated microsatellite EmsB, are readily available to detect variations at regional and local scales (Bart et al., 2006; Knapp et al., 2007; 83 Knapp et al., 2008). Recently, a European study has documented the presence of several 84 EmsB profiles distributed in the historical endemic area in the European Alps with surprising 85 patterns of genetic diversity and evidence for spread to peripheral regions as a mainland-86 island system (Knapp et al., 2009). From this study, a catalogue of EmsB profiles, described 87 88 in Europe and in some of the main worldwide endemic areas including China (Tibetan plateau), Alaska (Saint Lawrence Island) and Japan (Hokkaido), is now available and allows us to characterize the parasite diversity. Here we have tested whether *E. multilocularis* on Svalbard has been introduced from the European mainland by comparing the EmsB profiles of samples from Svalbard with samples from the European mainland. In addition we evaluate the genetic identity of the Svalbard samples in relation to the other endemic areas in the northern hemisphere with genetic samples available to improve our description of patterns in the genetic diversity of the parasite.

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98 2. Materials and methods

99 2.1. Samples collection and DNA extraction

A sample collection of 27 metacestodes was constituted from sibling voles (*Microtus levis*)
trapped in August 2004 - 2006 in the Grumant area (Stien et al., 2010) (Fig. 2). Total DNA
was extracted from metacestode tissue or isolated protoscoleces (Stieger et al., 2002).

103 2.2. Nuclear targets, PCR amplification and fragment size analyses

PCR amplification was performed for the nuclear targets EmsB, as previously described (Bart 104 et al., 2006) and for the partial sequences of the protein coding genes of ezrin-radixin-moesin-105 like protein (*Elp*), calreticulin (*Cal*) and thioredoxin peroxidase (*Th*), as recommanded by 106 107 authors (Saarma et al., 2009). The EmsB target was studied for the polymorphism of the 108 tandemly repeated microsatellite by fragment size analysis, on 3730 ABI sequencer (Applied 109 Biosystem, Foster City, CA) and analysed on GeneMapper 3.0. The amplified samples were compared with a worldwide E. multilocularis sample collection, containing aggregated 110 111 samples (from fields about 500m² in Switzerland and 100m² in Alaska) (Knapp et al., 2007)) and non correlated isolates from Europe (Switzerland, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Austria, 112 113 Germany, Netherlands, Poland and France; n=42), North America (St Lawrence Island, 114 Alaska and Canada, n=11), China (Tibetan plateau; n=5) and Japan (Hokkaido; n=6). The 115 available E. multilocularis samples closest to the putative starting point of the sibling voles introduced to Svalbard were the North-East Polish specimens (900 km south of St 116 117 Petersburg). Two E. granulosus sensu lato was chosen as outgroups (Knapp et al., 2007) and a hierarchical clustering analysis (HCA), using the Euclidean distance and the UPGMA 118

method in the R software was performed. A genetic threshold previously described on the 119 stability on time of EmsB profiles allowed us to discriminate similar and distinct isolates 120 (Knapp et al., 2007). The nuclear targets *elp* (1023 bp), *cal* (1368 bp) and *th* (583 bp), 121 previously sequenced for the currently described *Echinococcus* species (Saarma et al., 2009), 122 were chosen to investigate the worldwide genetic diversity of the parasite. The targets were 123 sequenced for E. multilocularis isolates from Central Europe (Switzerland), Canada (an 124 isolate from a rodent, exact geographical position unknown), Alaska (St Lawrence Island) and 125 Japan, and compared to one randomly chosen Svalbard sample using BioEdit (Hall, 1999). 126

127

128 **3. Results**

In comparison to referenced E. multilocularis sequences (GenBank Ref. FN582291; 129 FR820773 to FR820783), 4 mutations were described on *Elp* and *Th* for the Svalbard isolate 130 131 (none in Cal) (FR820594 to FR820596), two of these were common with the Canadian specimen and one was common with the European specimen (Table 1). However, this low 132 genetic diversity did not allow us to conclude a divergence among the E. multilocularis 133 samples. The pattern of the EmsB electrophoregram profiles were first compared to the 134 others, and were found similar to Alaskan samples by the presence on the electrophoregram 135 of a 209 bp fragment (Fig. 3(a)) never found in the other samples so far. From the HCA (Fig. 136 3(b)) performed by EmsB data computing, the European samples were clustered in a group, 137 somewhat associated with the Chinese samples and distinct from the Japanese samples. The 138 Svalbard samples were all clustered together, in the same group; the genetic distance amongst 139 all the Svalbard samples was under the threshold of 0.08 (Fig 3(b)) and allowed us to 140 considered them as identical to each other. Moreover they were closely related to St Lawrence 141 142 Island samples from Alaska, and formed the most distant group from the other Eurasian samples (Fig. 3 (b)). These Arctic samples clustered clearly in a separate group from the 143 144 samples from temperate Europe, China, Japan and Canada.

145 **4. Discussion**

In comparison with the high polymorphism of the EmsB target found in multiple European *E. multilocularis* populations, an extremely low diversity seemed to occur in the isolated Arctic islands of St Lawrence, Alaska (Knapp et al., 2007) and Svalbard. Such a pattern has previously been observed in samples from small areas such as a field in Fribourg

(Switzerland) and by the Savoonga air-strip on St Lawrence (Alaska) (Knapp et al., 2007). 150 These findings emphasize a putative clonal distribution of the parasite on restricted areas, as 151 an expected result of an initial contamination by a small number of foxes (Knapp et al., 2007). 152 In addition, the low genetic polymorphism of the parasite in the investigated Arctic sites 153 could be linked to (i) the occurrence of one or few E. multilocularis populations in 154 circumpolar areas, after a founder event in a mainland-island context, (ii) these islands could 155 be considered as metapopulations connected by sea ice, explaining the genetic similarity 156 between insular samples or (iii) in this context a low diversity of intermediate and definitive 157 158 host species exists when compared to European sites. The Arctic fox appears as a genetically homogenous species, except for a few isolated islands not connected by sea ice in winter 159 160 (Norén et al., 2011). From a co-evolution point of view, one could hypothesize that the parasite may evolve more slowly in an insular environment than in the temperate mainland 161 162 situation where many species of potential intermediate host rodent species occur simultaneously. As such, these findings indicate particularities in the circumpolar E. 163 164 multilocularis life cycle, which seems to have low or no connection with E. multilocularis life cycles from temperate regions. 165

Our microsatellite EmsB analysis suggests that Arctic E. multilocularis populations have a 166 common history. Indeed, a high genetic similarity was observed between the geographically 167 distant samples from Svalbard and Alaska, and a wide dissimilarity with the clustered 168 European samples, even from North Europe was found (Fig. 3(b)). This may suggest an 169 170 epidemiological connection between polar populations. Most likely, this could be due to the behavioral characteristics of the Arctic fox, a species with a circumpolar distribution and long 171 distance movements (Norén et al., 2011). From our samples, we can reject the hypothesis of 172 an anthropogenic introduction of E. multilocularis from mainland Europe, while the 173 hypothesis of an Arctic fox driven immigration from Siberia to Svalbard is likely. Concerning 174 the hypothesis of a strain coming from the Russian sibling vole we can speculate that the 175 176 Russian E. multilocularis could be similar to North-East Europe as the Polish parasites were sampled 900 Km from St Petersburg. However, more samples of E. multilocularis from 177 178 Russia are needed to further evaluate this hypothesis.

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180 Acknowledgments

182 We thank Prof. Henttonen for providing samples from Svalbard and Antti Lavikainen for the183 sequence data.

This work was supported by the Swiss National Science Foundation (grant no. 1003A125990) and Research Council of Norway.

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engineer in the University hospital of Besançon, France. Her major research focus is the
molecular epidemiology of echinococcosis.

192 Table and figure legends

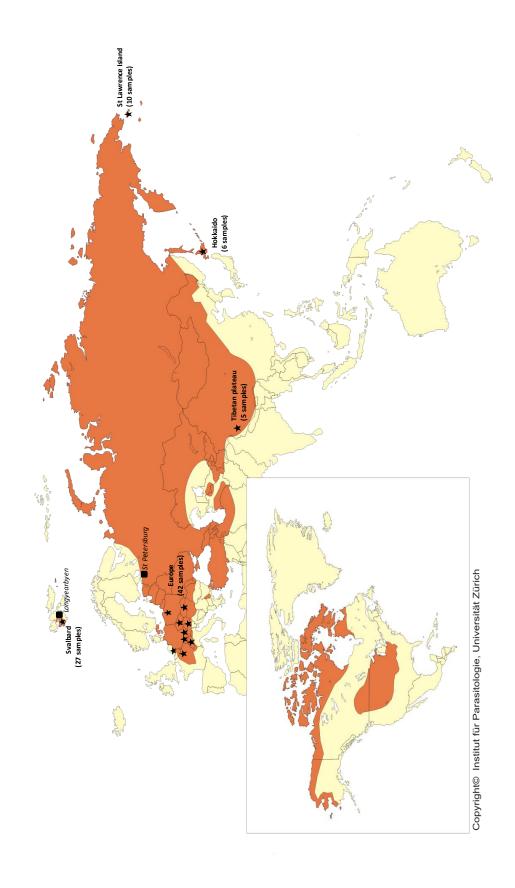
Fig. 1. Worldwide dispersion of *E. multilocularis* (orange areas) and distribution of the world
collection samples, clustered by local position (black stars) studied for EmsB profiles. The
exact geographical position of the Canadian sample is unknown (From (Eckert et al., 2011;
Osterman Lind et al., 2011)).

Fig. 2. Map of Svalbard and the details of the Grumant area (dotted line) where the sibling
voles (*Microtus levis*) infected by *E. multilocularis* were sampled in August 2004 - 2006.

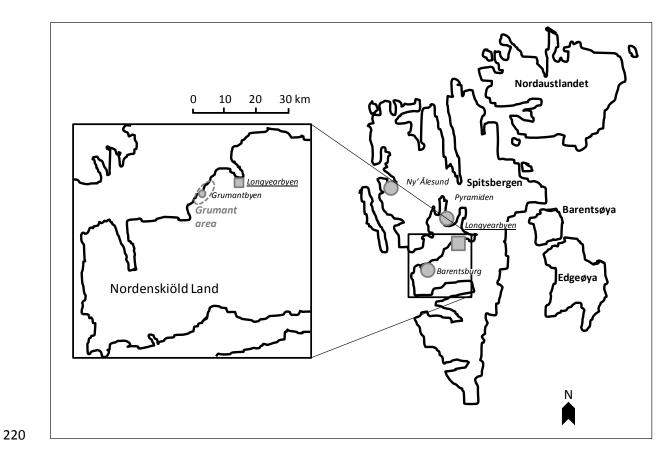
Fig. 3 (a) EmsB electrophoregrams of an Alaskan sample (3AL-r), a Svalbard sample 199 200 (Sval14-r), an Austrian sample (278A-F) and a German sample (101D-F), size in base pair. (b) E. multilocularis hierarchical clustering analysis, based on EmsB microsatellite results. 201 202 The genetic threshold at 0.08 described similar and distinct EmsB profiles (for details on the construction see Knapp et al., 2007). The sample codes used are: Sval: Svalbard; AL: Alaska; 203 CND: Canada; J: Japan; CH: Switzerland; CZ: Czech Rep., SK: Slovakia; A: Austria; D: 204 Germany; H: Netherlands; PL: Poland; F: France; PRC: Peoples' Rep. of China; hosts codes: 205 -r: rodent; -h: human; -m: monkey; -F: fox. Isolates 500AUB to 502AUB are one E. 206 multilocularis strain maintained in vivo by several passages in Meriones unguiculatus; the 207 grey scares represent the *E. multilocularis* regional groups; 116Eg (from Mauritanian camel) 208 and 539Eg (from Algerian sheep) are *E. granulosus* outgroup controls. The approximately 209 unbiased P values (numbers on nodes, in percent) were calculated with a multiscale bootstrap 210 resampling (B = 1000). 211

Table 1: Comparison of the *E. multilocularis Elp* and *Th* gene fragments from different origins.

| <i>E. multilocularis</i> origin | s origin Elp(bp) | | | <i>Th</i> (bp) |
|---------------------------------|------------------|-----|-----|----------------|
| | 323 | 459 | 631 | 328 |
| Svalbard | С | А | т | С |
| St Lawrence Island | Т | С | С | Т |
| Canada | С | С | С | С |
| Switzerland | Т | С | С | С |
| Hokkaido | т | С | С | т |

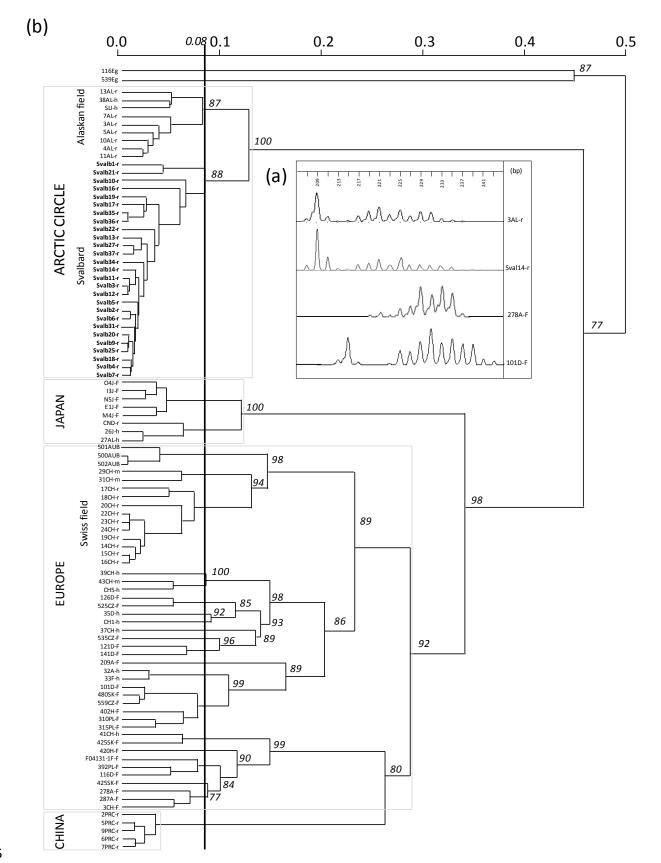


218 Fig. 1



- 221 Fig. 2

Genetic distance







| 228 | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 229 | |
| 230 | |
| 231 232 | References |
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