# Morphologic and Genetic Identification of *Diphyllobothrium* nihonkaiense in Korea

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**Abstract:** Diphyllobothrium nihonkaiense was first described by Yamane in 1986 but the taxonomical features have been obscure due to lack of critical morphologic criteria in its larval and adult stages. In Korea, this tapeworm had long been known as Diphyllobothrium latum. In this study, we observed 62 specimens collected from Korean residents and analyzed them by morphological features and nucleotide sequences of mitochondrial cox1 gene as well as the ITS1 region. Adult tapeworms were examined after carmine or trichrome stain. Longitudinal sections of the gravid proglottids showed an obtuse angle of about 150 degree between the cirrus sac and seminal vesicle. This angle is known as a major differential point compared with that of D. latum. Nucleotide sequence differences between D. latum and the specimens from Koreans represented 17.3% in mitochondrial DNA cox1 gene. Sequence divergence of ITS1 among 4 Korean isolates was 0.3% and similarity was 99.7% with D. nihonkaiense and D. klebanovskii. All of the Korean specimens analyzed in this study were identified as being D. nihonkaiense (n = 62). We propose its Korean name as "Dong-hae-gin-chon-chung" which means 'long tapeworm of the East Sea' for this newly analyzed diphyllobothriid tapeworm in Korea.

Key words: Diphyllobothrium nihonkaiense, Diphyllobothrium latum, genetic identification, distribution, Korea

# INTRODUCTION

Cestodes of the genus *Diphyllobothrium* (Cobbold, 1858) are known to be widely distributed in northwestern Europe and Far-East Asia as a causative agent of diphyllobothriasis. Diphyllobothriasis is an intestinal parasitosis caused by the ingestion of raw freshwater fish containing infectious larvae of the genus *Diphyllobothrium*. Human diphyllobothriid cestodes have been reported so far as many as 18 species in the genus *Diphyllobothrium* (Yamane et al. 'Forum Cheju' in 1996, Japan). Among them, *D. latum* (Linnaeus, 1758), the broad fish tapeworm, is the most common human species whose life cycle is dependent on fish transport hosts. *D. latum* is mildly pathogenic in humans where it may cause pernicious anemia by absorbing large amounts of vitamin B<sub>12</sub>. Human diphyllobothriasis in Korea was first reported in 1919 by Kojima and Ko, and was morphologically identified by the adult worm as *D. latum* [1];

D. nihonkaiense was first described by Yamane [4] in 1986 in Japan. He described morphologic differences of D. latum in Japan from that in Finland in the adult worms, eggs, and plerocercoids and proposed reconsideration about the taxonomic status of D. latum in Japan. Since Japan and Korea share the East Sea which locates between the 2 countries, and the salmons return to both countries from the Pacific Ocean, we speculate the possibility of diphyllobothriid tapeworms of identical species present in both countries. The morphologic identification of Diphyllobothrium in Korea has been obscure because of lack of detailed observations. Therefore, a reliable taxonomic criterion is needed based on morphologic features combined with molecular data. Molecular approaches to differential identification of D. latum and D. nihonkaiense have been done by restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLP) of ribosomal DNA [5], sequence differences of mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase I (cox1) gene [6,7] and differentiating molecular makers [8].

The present study focused on differences in the morphology,

Diphyllobothrium yonagoense [2] and D. latum parvum type [3] were also reported.

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sequence variations in the mitochondrial cox1, and rDNA internal transcribed spacer I (ITS1) PCR as markers for identifying diphyllobothriid tapeworms in Korea.

# **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### Specimens

A total of 68 Diphyllobothrium tapeworms (1982-2007) were analyzed in this study (Table 1). Six isolates of D. latum were collected from France (n = 1), Russia (n = 1), Spain (n = 1), and Switzerland (n = 3). Sixty-two isolates were originated from Korea. Among them, 57 collections were given from other laboratories in Korea, and the rest 5 were collected from infected Korean patients who passed proglottids naturally in the stool or after treatment with niclosamide or praziquantel with purgation using MgSO<sub>4</sub>. These sample materials were divided each into 2 parts, which were then preserved in a -70°C deep freezer and in 70% ethanol. Thirty-seven specimens were preserved in 10% formalin, 24 specimens were kept in 70% ethanol, and 7 specimens were kept between -20°C and -70°C.

The rest 5 treated patients, all from Chungbuk Province in Korea, were addressed as follows. The code number G1213 was a 44-year-old man living in Cheongju City. He had eaten many unknown kinds of sea fishes raw and brought with an apolysed 1 m long strobila without scolex in 1998. G1215 was a 42 yearold woman living in Jochiwon, who had eaten sea fishes, brought an apolysed 130 cm long strobila without scolex, and a 5 m long strobila was collected after treatment in 1997. G1214 was a 42-year-old man living in Cheongju City, who he had eaten salmons and other sea fishes, brought an apolysed 2 m long strobila without scolex in 1996. G1623 was a 41-year-old man living in Eumseong. He had eaten 'masou salmon' and brought an apolysed 1 m long strobila, and a 5 m strobila was discharged after treatment in 2007. G1621 was a 65-year-old man living in Cheongwon. He also had eaten 'masou salmon' and a 6 m long strobila was collected after treatment in 2007.

# Morphologic analysis

Ten or more gravid proglottids were longitudinally disrupted with a dissecting needle and fresh eggs were collected from terminal proglottids in saline and were prepared for scanning electron microscopy. After drying with critical point drier (CPD) and gold coating, specimens were observed by SEM (Hitachi S-570, Tokyo, Japan). The tapeworms were pressed and fixed in alcohol-formalin-acetic acid (AFA) for carmine stain. Some part of the specimen was used in hematoxylin and eosin (H-E) and trichrome stain after longitudinal sections for observation of the cirrus pouch, seminal vesicle, uterus, and uterine pore.

# Genetic analysis

DNA extraction

Total genomic DNA was extracted from a single specimen that was chopped into small pieces and then the DNeasy Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, California, USA) was used according to manufacturer's instructions. The specimens were crushed in liquid nitrogen, soaked in TE buffer for 3-5 hr, and then digested for 30 min in DNA extraction buffer (100 mM NaCl, 50 mM EDTA [pH8.0], 50 mM Tris base/HCl [pH 8.0], 50 mM EDTA, 10% SDS, and 20 mg/ml proteinase K) at 56°C After the incubation was continued in a hexadecyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB)/NaCl solution for 3 hr at 65°C, the cellular debris was removed and the genomic DNA was extracted using the phenol/ chloroform extraction protocol. DNA was then precipitated in 3 M sodium acetate (pH 5.2) and 2 volumes of 95% ethanol were added, after which the DNA was dried. The pellet was subsequently dissolved in 50 µl TE buffer.

# **PCR**

18S small subunit nuclear ribosomal DNA (18S rDNA), ribosomal DNA ITS1, and mitochondrial cox1 gene were amplified by PCR. PCR were performed in a reaction mixture of  $50 \mu l$  with 0.01  $\mu g/\mu l$  of genomic DNA, 10 × PCR buffer (20 mM Mg<sup>-</sup>), 10 mM dNTP mixture, 10 pmoles of each primer, and 2.5  $U/\mu l$ Tag DNA polymerase (High Fidelity PCR system, Roche, Mannheim, Germany). PCRs were performed in a GeneAmp PCR System 9700 (Applied Biosystems, Langen, Germany) and involved 1 cycle of initial denaturation at 94°C for 3 min, followed by 35 cycles of denaturation (94°C for 30 sec), annealing (52°C for 30 sec for ITS1), and extension (72°C for 1 min), with a final extension at 72°C for 10 min. The PCR primers used were 5'-AACAAGGTTTCC GTAGGTG-3' and 5'-AGCAGTCTGCGATT-CACATT-3' for ITS1 which yielded a 534 bp product including 18S rDNA and 5.8S rDNA, and 84C (5'-TGATTITTTGGCCA-CCCCGAA AGTATA-3') and 85C (5'-TGACATTACATAGTGG-AAGTGAGCTAC-3'), which yield a 348-bp product and designed from D. nihonkaiense [6]. These primers were used in PCR, which employed 35 cycles of 94°C for 20 sec, 46°C for 40 sec, 72°C for 1 min, and incubation at 72°C for 4 min. This resulted in 370 bp DNA fragments, which were isolated on a 1.0% agarose gel, excised under long-wave UV light, and extracted

Table 1. Diphyllobothriid specimens analyzed in this study collected between the years 1982 and 2007

Code	Locality	Sex/age	Year	Molecular identification	GenBank
G1213	Korea (Cheongju)	M/44	1998	D. nihonkaiense	
G1214	Korea (Cheongju)	M/42	1996	D. nihonkaiense	EF420138
G1215	Korea (Jochiwon)	F42	1997	D. nihonkaiense	
G1223	Korea (Chuncheon)	M/41	1998	D. nihonkaiense	
G1224	Korea (Chuncheon)	M/43	1996	D. nihonkaiense	
G1225	Korea (Yangyang)	F/6	1996	D. nihonkaiense	
G1226	Korea (Yangyang)	M/37	1996	D. nihonkaiense	
G1227	Korea (Yangyang)	M	1998	D. nihonkaiense	
G1228	Korea (Yangyang)	M/61	1998	D. nihonkaiense	
G1229			-	D. nihonkaiense	
	Korea (Yangyang)	M		D. nihonkaiense	
G1230	Korea (Yangyang)	M	1995		
G1262	Korea (Seoul)	F/13	1988	D. nihonkaiense	
G1263	Korea (Seoul)	M/41	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1264	Korea (Seoul)	М	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1358	Korea (Seoul)	M/38	2001	D. nihonkaiense	
G1359	Korea (Seoul)	F/38	1996	D. nihonkaiense	
G1360	Korea (Seoul)	M/52	1991	D. nihonkaiense	
G1361	Korea (Seoul)	M/43	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1362	Korea (Seoul)	M/31	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1363	Korea (Seoul)	M/38	2001	D. nihonkaiense	
G1364	Korea (Seoul)	M/25	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1365	Korea (Seoul)	M/59	2002	D. nihonkaiense	
G1366	Korea (Seoul)	M	1988	D. nihonkaiense	
G1367				D. nihonkaiense	
	Korea (Seoul)	M/45	2000		
G1368	Korea (Seoul)	F/53	1983	D. nihonkaiense	
G1369	Korea (Hoengseong)	M/21	1994	D. nihonkaiense	
G1370	Korea (Hoengseong)	M/23	1997	D. nihonkaiense	
G1371	Korea (Wando)	M/64	1982	D. nihonkaiense	
G1372	Korea (Wando)	F/40	1985	D. nihonkaiense	
G1373	Korea (Seoul)	M/30	1996	D. nihonkaiense	
G1374	Korea (Seoul)	-	-	D. nihonkaiense	
G1375	Korea (Seoul)	M/43	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1376	Korea (Seoul)	M/41	1995	D. nihonkaiense	
G1377	Korea (Seoul)	- -	1982	D, nihonkaiense	
G1378	Korea (Seoul)	M/40	1994	D. nihonkaiense	
G1379	Korea (Seoul)	M/30	1986	D. nihonkaiense	
G1380	Korea (Seoul)	F/37	1999	D. nihonkaiense	
G1381	Korea (Seoul)	M/27	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1382	, ,	M45		D. nihonkaiense	
	Korea (Seoul)		2000		
G1383	Korea (Seoul)	M/50	1999	D. nihonkaiense	
G1384	Korea (Gunpo)	M/43	2001	D. nihonkaiense	
G1385	Korea (Goheung)	M/23	1983	D. nihonkaiense	
G1386	Korea (Seoul)	M/36	1984	D. nihonkaiense	
G1387	Korea (Seoul)	M/20	1986	D. nihonkaiense	
G1388	Korea (Hwasun)	M/33	1999	D. nihonkaiense	
G1389	Korea (Hwasun)	F/53	_	D. nihonkaiense	
G1390	Korea (Seoul)	_	_	D. nihonkaiense	
G1391	Korea (Hwasun)	M/27	1987	D. nihonkaiense	
G1397	Korea (Chuncheon)	· · · · · · · ·	-	D. nihonkaiense	
G1463	Korea (Seoul)	F/29	2004	D. nihonkaiense	
G1464	Korea (Seoul)	F/29	2004	D. nihonkaiense	
G1465	, ,			D. nihonkaiense	
	Korea (Seoul)	M/50	2004		
G1466	Korea (Seoul)	M/58	1996	D. nihonkaiense	
G1533	Korea (Wando)	M/64	1982	D. nihonkaiense	
G1577	Korea (Seoul)	M/35	1995	D. nihonkaiense	

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Table 1. (Continued from the previous page)

Code	Locality	Sex/age	Year	Molecular identification	GenBank
G1588	Korea (Daegu)	_	2001	D. nihonkaiense	
G1589	Korea (Daegu)	_	1998	D. nihonkaiense	
G1590	Korea (Daegu)	_	2000	D. nihonkaiense	
G1620	Korea (Jincheon)	M/40	2007	D. nihonkaiense	
G1621	Korea (Cheongwon)	M/65	2007	D. nihonkaiense	
G1623	Korea (Eumseong)	M/41	2007	D. nihonkaiense	
G1683	Korea (Seoul)	•	***	D. nihonkaiense	
G1245	Swiss (Geneva)	_	***	D. latum	
G1304	France	=	=	D. latum	
G1460	Swiss (Geneva)	M/38	2004	D. nihonkaiense	
G1461	Russia	F/31	2004	D. latum	DQ985706
G1462	Swiss (Geneva)	F/36	2004	D. latum	
G1551	Spain	-	2004	D. nihonkaiense	

<sup>-:</sup> unknown.

using a QIAquick PCR purification kit (Qiagen Co.).

# DNA sequencing and analyses

The purified PCR-amplified fragments of ITS1 were then separately cloned. Ligation of the fragments was performed overnight at 15°C using the pGEM-T easy vector kit (Promega, Madison, Wisconsin, USA). The ligates were transformed into the DH5 $\alpha$  cell line. Plasmid DNA was then purified by using a QIAprep spin miniprep kit (Qiagen). The primer walking method was employed to obtain overlapping sequences for each of the amplified fragments. Cyclic sequencing from both ends of the fragments was performed by using a Big-Dye Terminator sequencing kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA) and the reaction products were electrophoresed on an automated DNA sequencer (model 3730KL, Applied Biosystems).

The sequences were assembled and aligned by using CLUSTAL X multiple alignment program [9] and the Bioedit program version 5.0.6 (BIOSOFT, Ferguson, Missouri, USA). The sequencing regions were identified by comparing them using BLAST searches with those of Platyhelminthes that had been deposited in the GenBank database. The molecular identification of Diphyllobothrium tapeworm specimens was based on the similarity of nucleotide sequences of cox1 gene and ITS1 region, and phylogenetic relationships with those of D. nihonkaiense (Gen-Bank accession number EF420138), D. latum (Genbank accession number DQ985706). Phylogenetic analyses were determined by the neighbor-joining (NJ), maximum-parsimony (MP), and minimum-evolution (ME) methods using the Mega 3.1 program [11]. NJ analysis was performed using a distance matrix calculated using the Kimura 2 parameter method. Bootstrap analysis was performed with 3,000 replications.

# **RESULTS**

# Morphologic characteristics of *D. nihonkaiense*

Morphologic observation was based on 5 specimens collected from the Korean people; G1213-5, G1261, and G1623. Whitish-yellow adult tapeworms were 1-5 m long with longitudinal central line of genital pores. The widest gravid proglottids measured 11 mm. The uterine structure showed typical diphyllobothriid tapeworm's feature showing rosette formation swirling 5-7 loops in carmine-stained specimens (Fig. 1A). Average size of eggs was 55.5 ( $\pm$  1.0)  $\times$  40.5 ( $\pm$  1.5)  $\mu$ m and the ratio of length and width was 1.37 ( $\pm$  0.06)  $\mu$ m (n = 20). The eggshell showed shallow pits on the smooth surface in SEM (Fig. 1B). The ovary was renal shape and located at the posterior side. Testes were follicular and the ovaries were dumbbell shape. Longitudinal sections of the gravid proglottids showed an obtuse angle of about 150 degree between the cirrus sac and seminal vesicle, which looked different from D. latum after H-E or trichrome stain (Fig. 1C, D). The uterine and genital pores were separated on the midline with 150-300  $\mu$ m. The uterine pore opened slightly posterior to the genital pore. The genital pore was located ventral on the middle at 1/3 of the proglottids. The cirrus sacs in sagittal sections were 430-480  $\mu$ m in length and 275-310  $\mu$ m in width. The seminal vesicles were round to elliptical and 300-420 in length by 170-300  $\mu$ m in diameter.

# Sequence divergence of mitochondrial cox1 and ITS1 of human diphyllobothriid tapeworms

The cox1 sequences (335 bp) of 62 Korean isolates showed 99% similarity to reference sequences of the Japanese origin D. nihonkaiense (GenBank No. AB015755) and 83.7% similarity

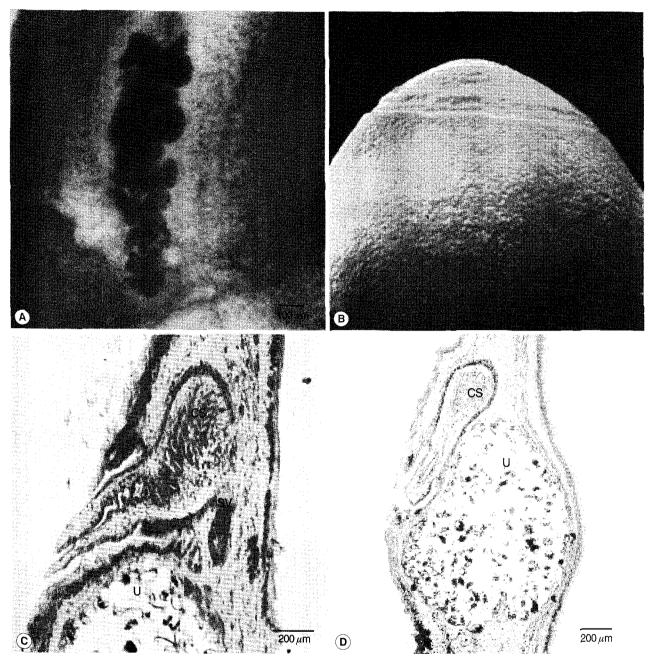


Fig. 1. Gravid proglottids and an egg of Diphyllobothrium nihonkaiense. (A) Whole mounted specimens of a proglottid showing the uterus and cirrus sac (× 25), (B) A SEM photo of the eggshell showing shallow pits and opercular structure (× 3,000), (C, D) Longitudinal sections of a mature proglottid showing the cirrus sac (CS), seminal vesicle (SV), and uterus (U) (C: H-E stain, D: trichrome stain).

with reference sequences of the Russian origin D. latum (G1461; GenBank No. DQ985706). Phylogenetic analysis of the mitochondrial DNA cox1 (mtDNA cox1) sequences for a total 62 isolates identified Spirometra sp. as basal to the D. nihonkaiense-D. latum clade. The mtDNA cox1 sequences of D. nihonkaiense and D. latum differed by 17.3% based on Kimura's 2-parameter model. Trees topology using various analytical methods (NJ, MP,

and ME) generated very high confidence values (bootstrap values of 100%, 99%, and 100% in NJ, MP and ME, respectively) for 2 major branches representing each of D. nihonkaiense and D. latum (Fig. 2). The ITS1 sequences of Spain (G1551) and Switzerland (G1460) presented 100% similarity (525 bp) to the Japanese reference sequences of D. nihonkaiense (GenBank No. AB375175), and other 4 Korean isolates (G1213-5 and

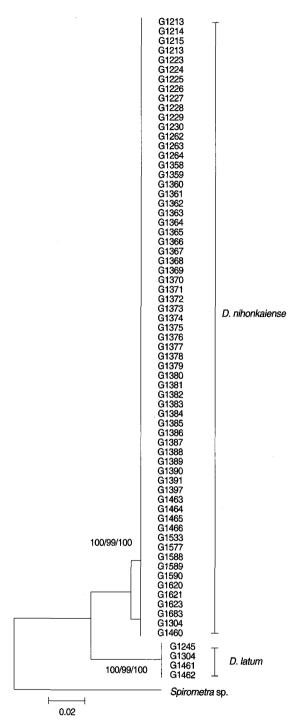


Fig. 2. A phylogenetic tree of diphyllobothriid tapeworms based on partial *cox1* sequences inferred from neighbor-joining (NJ) analysis. Numbers on branches indicate the bootstrap supporting values based on the 3,000 replicates. There were 335 bps corresponding to positions 735-1107 of the *cox1* gene.

G1621) also presented 100% identity to that of *D. nihonkaiense*. The analyses of *cox1* and ITS1 sequences identified all 62 Korean specimens as *D. nihonkaiense*.

#### DISCUSSION

Diphyllobothriid tapeworm infections have been reported in 43 cases in South Korea since 1971, including D. latum parvum type and D. yonagoense [11]. The major symptoms were gastrointestinal discomfort, except in a case of a child reported in 1983 by Ioo and colleagues who showed microcytic hypochromic anemia (25th annual meeting of The Korean Society for Parasitology in Seoul). The suspected sources of infection of diphyllobothriid tapeworms in Korea were salmon, mullet, perch, and trout, but there have been no reports on plerocercoid infections from these fish intermediate hosts. The main infective source of D. nihonkaiense is now known to be Oncorhynchus masou, O. keta, and Hucho perryi (Salmoniidae) in Japan [6]. These species migrate around the Okhotsk, Bering, and Pacific Ocean. The salmons return back to the East Sea which is located between Korea and Japan; that is the reason why we consider D. nihonkaiense is shared by the 2 countries. The prevalence of diphyllobothriasis among Koreans was considered to be caused mainly by infection with D. latum until the address of D. nihonkaiense by Eom and colleagues in 2001 (35th annual meeting of The Korean Society for Parasitology at Kwangiu, Korea). Characterization of the complete mitochondrial genome of D. nihonkaiense was also reported by Kim et al. in 2007 [8]. More recently, revised identification of D. nihonkaiense Yamane et al., 1986 and D. klebanovskii Muratov and Posokhov, 1988 [12] has been studied, and they were considered as the same species according to Arizono et al. in 2009 [13].

D. nihonkaiense was first identified by Yamane et al. in 1986 [4] with establishment of distinct characteristics of this parasite, such as an angle of the axis of the cirrus sac and seminal vesicle, of which morphology was first addressed by Kamo in 1978 [14]. Morphologic differentiation of human-infecting diphyllobothriid tapeworms is based on the features like the pit shape of egg shells, genital atrium openings, the angle between the long axis of the cirrus sac and seminal vesicle. The average size of D. nihonkaiense eggs was 55.5 ( $\pm$  1.0)  $\times$  40.5 ( $\pm$  1.5)  $\mu$ m which is smaller than that of D. latum [7,15]. The egg shells of D. nihonkaiense exhibit shallower pits distributing on the smooth surface. The genital pore and uterine pore were closer in D. nihonkaiense (150-300  $\mu$ m) than in D. latum (260-1,240  $\mu$ m) [15]. The angle between the long axis of the cirrus sac and seminal vesicle was sharper in D. nihonkaiense than those of D. latum. Nevertheless, species differentiation between D. latum and D. nihonkaiense is not clear sometimes due to their morphological

similarities.

Recently, the taxonomic status of diphyllobothriid tapeworm infections was questioned because only D. latum was reported in Korea. Consequently, it was necessary to clarify the distribution of these tapeworms in this country. Only 15 specimens could be examined on the morphological basis; the rest 47 specimens could not afford it. Most of them were preserved in 10% formalin or improper for morphologic examinations. The cox1 sequences of 62 specimens showed 2 polymorphic sites with 2 non-synonymous substitution in D. nihonkaiense Korean isolates. The overall sequence difference in the full mitochondrial cox1 gene between D. nihonkaiense and D. latum was 7.7%, whereas the full mitochondrial genome differed by 10.1% [8]. The sequence divergence of ITS1 among 4 Korean isolates was 0.3% and the similarity was 99.7% with D. nihonkaiense (GenBank No. AB375175) and D. klebanovskii (GenBank No. AB375657-AB375671). These results clearly indicate that D. nihonkaiense is a dominant species distributing in Korea without exception in all specimens examined (n = 62).

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