



Infection status of commercial fish with cystacanth larvae of the genus *Corynosoma* (Acanthocephala: Polymorphidae) in Hokkaido, Japan

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ABSTRACT

Acanthocephalans of the genus *Corynosoma* are known as intestinal parasites, mainly of pinnipeds. Human corynosomiasis has been reported as an infrequent foodborne disease in Hokkaido, the northernmost island of Japan. Potential sources of the human infection are marine fish, because they are paratenic hosts of these parasites. In this study, the prevalence and intensity of larval *Corynosoma* in commercial fish from 17 fishing ports of Hokkaido were examined from April 2016 to January 2019. Out of a total of 1217 fish examined, 122 (10.0%) were infected with cystacanth larvae. The infected fish assemblage was composed of 7 families and 13 species from all the coastal seas of Hokkaido (the Pacific Ocean, Okhotsk Sea, and Japan Sea), showing that commercial fish can be source of human infection when eaten raw. Flatfish of the family Pleuronectidae showed the highest intensity of cystacanths, ranging from 1 to 56. A DNA barcoding system was developed in this study, based on the standard mitochondrial *cox1* sequences of morphologically identified adults of *Corynosoma* spp. from pinnipeds in Hokkaido. By using the DNA barcoding, most of the fish-derived cystacanths were identified as either *C. strumosum* or *C. villosum*, and furthermore, a clinical isolate from human as *C. villosum*. Both of the species were commonly detected from various fish of Hokkaido, irrespective of the coastal seas. Flatfish frequently harbored *C. villosum*. Considering the wide range of commercial fish in Hokkaido and the advanced transportation system of fresh fish, there is a possibility that human corynosomiasis will occur everywhere in Japan.

1. Introduction

Acanthocephalans of the genus *Corynosoma* Lühe 1904 (Polymorphidae) are known as intestinal parasites of marine mammals and seabirds, particularly of pinnipeds (Delyamure, 1968; Van Cleave, 1953b; Yamaguti, 1963). The parasite life cycle is based on predator-prey interactions in the marine habitat. Amphipod crustaceans serve as intermediate host. After ingesting the parasite eggs, the development of the larval stages (acanthor, acanthella, and cystacanth) occurs in the hemocoel. Fish acquire the cystacanths through ingesting amphipods. The cystacanths, especially in fish, become the source of infection to the definitive hosts. Thus, fish play a very important role in the transmission of *Corynosoma* as paratenic host (Crompton and Nickol, 1985).

It has been generally assumed that human is an unsuitable host for

Corynosoma, because only one case of infection with immature *Corynosoma strumosum* has been reported from Alaska (Schmidt, 1971). However, recent reports of human corynosomiasis from Japan showed that intestinal adults can reach sexual maturity (i.e. laying eggs), suggesting humans to be a suitable definitive host (Fujita et al., 2016; Takahashi et al., 2016). To date, three cases of corynosomiasis have been confirmed in Hokkaido, the northernmost island of Japan. All the patients complained of persistent abdominal pain, and the parasites were removed by endoscopy (Fujita et al., 2016; Takahashi et al., 2016; Yagi et al., 2002). The parasites were morphologically identified as *Corynosoma villosum* in the first case (Yagi et al., 2002) and as *Corynosoma* sp. and *C. villosum* in the second case (Fujita et al., 2016). The morphological observation of the whole worm was impossible in the third case. However, a mitochondrial DNA sequence (*cox1*, cytochrome

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Table 1
The prevalence of cystacanth larvae in commercial fish from the coastal seas of Hokkaido, Japan.

Fishes		Collection sites		No. fishes examined	No. fishes infected (%)	No. cystacanths per infected fish Mean (range)	
Families	Species	Fishing ports	Coasts				
Osmeridae	<i>Osmerus dentex</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	12	1 (8.3)	1 (1)	
		Akkeshi	Pacific	86	32 (37.2)	2.6 (1–7)	
		Nemuro	Pacific	162	40 (24.7)	1.7 (1–4)	
	<i>Hypomesus japonicus</i>	Akkeshi	Pacific	240	4 (1.7)	1 (1)	
		Nemuro	Pacific	151	5 (3.3)	1.2 (1–2)	
Clupeidae	<i>Hypomesus nipponensis</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	167	0 (0)		
		Esashi	Okhotsk	31	2 (6.4)	1 (1–2)	
	<i>Clupea pallasii</i>	Yubetsu	Okhotsk	38	8 (21.1)	1.1 (1–2)	
		Saroma	Okhotsk	5	2 (40.0)	1 (1)	
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	3	1 (33.3)	3	
		Nemuro	Pacific	28	1 (3.5)	1	
		Ishikari	Japan Sea	4	0 (0)		
Hexagrammidae	<i>Pleurogrammus azonus</i>	Yubetsu	Okhotsk	2	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	1	1 (100)	5	
		Shakotan	Japan Sea	43	1 (2.3)	2	
Gadidae	<i>Gadus macrocephalus</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	3	1 (33.3)	2	
		Hiroo	Pacific	10	0 (0)		
Pleuronectidae	<i>Eleginus gracilis</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	13	0 (0)		
		Hamatonbetsu	Okhotsk	10	4 (40.0)	5.5 (1–12)	
	<i>Pleuronectes herzensteini</i>	Monbetsu	Okhotsk	3	0 (0)		
		Rausu	Pacific	10	6 (10.0)	12.8 (3–56)	
		Kushiro	Pacific	20	0 (0)		
	<i>Pleuronectes schrenki</i>	Hamatonbetsu	Okhotsk	1	1 (100)	2	
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	2	0 (0)		
	<i>Pleuronectes obscurus</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	4	0 (0)		
		Rausu	Pacific	7	2 (28.6)	7 (2–12)	
		Rumoi	Japan Sea	13	7 (53.8)	4.3 (1–14)	
		Hidaka	Pacific	2	0 (0)		
	Scorpaenidae	<i>Pleuronectes mochigarei</i>	Tomamae	Japan Sea	1	1 (100)	9
			Rausu	Pacific	1	0 (0)	
<i>Sebastolobus macrochir</i>		Kushiro	Pacific	3	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	1	0 (0)		
		Nemuro	Pacific	1	1 (100)	4	
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	3	0 (0)		
		Rausu	Pacific	4	0 (0)		
Cottidae	<i>Sebastes taczanowskii</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	6	0 (0)		
		Hamatonbetsu	Okhotsk	2	0 (0)		
	<i>Myoxocephalus stelleri</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	9	1 (11.1)	3	
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	9	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	2	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	2	0 (0)		
Cyclopteridae	<i>Gymnocanthus herzensteini</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	1	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	1	0 (0)		
		Hakodate	Pacific	1	0 (0)		
Cyprinidae	<i>Aptocyclus ventricosus</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	34	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	57	0 (0)		
Gasterosteidae	<i>Tribolodon hakonensis</i>	Abashiri	Okhotsk	9	0 (0)		
		Abashiri	Okhotsk	9	0 (0)		
Total			Pacific	726	91 (12.5)	2.9 (1–56)	
			Okhotsk	430	22 (5.1)	2.5 (1–12)	
			Japan Sea	61	9 (14.8)	4.5 (1–14)	
Ground total				1217	122 (10.0)	2.8 (1–56)	

strumosum, but its body size is considerably larger (Kuramochi et al., 2000). To clarify the specific status, ethanol-preserved adults from one finless porpoise (*Neophocaena phocaenoides*) and two harbor porpoises (*Phocoena phocoena*) were subjected to molecular identification. The former porpoise was from Hokota (Pacific Ocean), central Honshu (Kuramochi et al., 2000), and the latter from Rausu (Pacific Ocean), Hokkaido.

2.2. Morphological observations

An optical microscope with digital imaging apparatus (Axio Imager, Zeiss, Germany) was used for morphological observations. Measurements were taken using the accessory software (AxioVision, Zeiss). Cystacanth larvae from fish were observed alive, or the ethanol-fixed larvae were mounted with Hoyer's medium to observe in detail. Some of the standard specimens of adult acanthocephalans were stained

with acetocarmine or Heidenhain's iron hematoxylin, dehydrated in graded ethanol series, cleared in creosote, and mounted with Canada balsam. The standard specimens of adult *Corynosoma* were identified to species, particularly based on the characteristics of the proboscis hooks (numbers of longitudinal rows and of hooks per row) and the distributional pattern of the trunk spines (Golvan, 1959; Lühe, 1911; Nickol et al., 2002; Presswell et al., 2018; Schmidt, 1975; Van Cleave, 1953a, 1953b; Yamaguti, 1963). The vouchers of *A. phalacrocoracis* from pelagic cormorants in Hokkaido (Machida, 1966), which were kept in the National Museum of Nature and Science, Tsukuba, Japan (collection no. NSMT-As1876), were employed to confirm the species identity of the present standard specimens.

2.3. Phylogenetic analyses

Genomic DNA was purified from each of adult acanthocephalans

and cystacanth larvae by using a spin column kit (DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit, Qiagen, Netherlands), and then served as a template for polymerase chain reaction (PCR). The hot-start version of *Ex Taq* DNA polymerase (TaKaRa, Japan) was employed for PCR, together with the manufacturer-supplied reaction buffer. For a distance-based DNA barcoding, the 1 kb fragment of mitochondrial *cox1* was amplified using the original primer set, Cory-CO1/F (5'-TGC TTC GTT GGT TTA TGT CTT TGA-3') and Cory-CO1/R (5'-CAT ACT TAA CAC ATA ATG AAA ATG-3'). In the case of *Andracantha* spp., the reverse primer was replaced by Cory-CO1/R2 (5'-ACC TGA CAA TTG GAA ATT GCC TGT-3'). An almost complete fragment (approximately 2.7 kb) of nuclear 28S ribosomal DNA (rDNA) was also amplified using the primer set, Acan-LSU/F (5'-CAA GTA CCG TGA GGG AAA GTT GC-3') and Acan-LSU/R (5'-CTT CGC AAT GAT AGG AAG AGC C-3'). The PCR amplicons were sequenced using BigDye terminator cycle sequencing kit and ABI genetic analyzer 3500 (Applied Biosystems, USA). Each of the PCR primers was used as a sequencing primer. Primer walking was done to determine the 28S rRNA gene sequence.

The nucleotide data sets of *cox1* and 28S rDNA were prepared by the multiple aligner MAFFT (Kato and Standley, 2013). The sequences of morphologically identified adults of *Corynosoma* spp. and *A. phalacrocoracis* were included in the data sets as standards. The comparative sequences of related taxa were retrieved from DDBJ/ENA/GenBank databases. The data sets of *cox1* and 28S rDNA consisted of 575 and 1267 nucleotide sites, respectively. The best-fit substitutional model of each data set were selected by the genetic software MEGA7 (Kumar et al., 2016), and phylogenetic trees were made by maximum likelihood (ML) method of MEGA7, using HKY + G + I model for *cox1* and K2 + G for 28S rDNA. The robustness of the trees was tested by bootstrapping with 500 replicates.

The pairwise divergence values of *cox1* sequences were computed by MEGA7 for a distance-based DNA barcoding. A network figure of *cox1* haplotypes was illustrated by TCS1.21 (Clement et al., 2000), and population genetics indices were calculated by DnaSP6 (Rozas et al., 2017). The data set of *cox1* used for these analyses was composed of 1023 nucleotide sites.

The DNA sequences of acanthocephalans determined in this study have been deposited into DDBJ/ENA/GenBank databases under the accession numbers LC465307-LC465403 (*cox1*) and LC461963-LC461973 (28S rDNA).

3. Results

3.1. Detection of cystacanths from fish

A total of 1217 commercial fish, encompassing 10 families and 28 species, were examined. Out of them, 122 (10.0%) were infected with cystacanth larvae (Table 1). The infected fish assemblage was composed of 7 families and 13 species. A host specificity of the cystacanths was not observed. The infected fish were from 3, 5, and 3 fishing ports on the coasts of the Pacific Ocean, Okhotsk Sea, and Japan Sea, respectively. The prevalences were 12.5% (Pacific Ocean), 5.1% (Okhotsk Sea), and 14.8% (Japan Sea), showing that the cystacanth infection frequently occurs in all the coastal seas of Hokkaido.

The cystacanths were mostly found alive, encysted on the serosal surface of intestine, liver, and body cavity (Fig. 2). In the case of not fresh fish, some of the cystacanths were found excysted and scattered in the body cavity. The mean intensities of cystacanth infections (number of cystacanths per infected fish) were low in each sea area (Table 1), namely 2.9 (Pacific Ocean), 2.5 (Okhotsk Sea), and 4.5 (Japan Sea). Flatfish of the family Pleuronectidae showed the highest intensity of the cystacanths, ranging from 1 to 56.

The encysted cystacanths could not be morphologically identified to species. In addition, considering a possibility of the existence of morphologically indistinguishable cryptic species, a total of 72 cystacanths randomly selected from each of the fish species or from each of the sea

areas were subjected to molecular analyses.

3.2. Molecular phylogenetic clustering and DNA barcoding

The *cox1* sequences of 72 fish-derived cystacanths, 19 morphologically identified adults (8 isolates of *C. strumosum*, 4 of *C. villosum*, 3 of *C. semerme*, and 4 of *A. phalacrocoracis*), and 6 adults of *Corynosoma* sp. from porpoises were used for constructing a phylogenetic tree, together with already published *cox1* sequences (García-Varela and Nadler, 2006; García-Varela and Pérez-Ponce de León, 2008; García-Varela et al., 2013; García-Varela et al., 2017; Hernández-Orts et al., 2017; Lisitsyna et al., 2019; Presswell et al., 2018; Waindok et al., 2018). The published sequences were from 13 taxa of the genera *Corynosoma*, *Andracantha*, and *Pseudocorynosoma*. First of all, a ML phylogenetic tree was made by using a total of the 110 *cox1* sequences. The resultant phylogeny showed that the 97 isolates from Japan were divided into 6 clades. The topology of the clades was illustrated, using the representative isolates (Fig. 3). The mean values of the intra- and inter-clade pairwise divergence are shown in Table 3. All the values of the intra-clade divergence were at low levels (0.002 to 0.013), while those of the inter-clade divergence were significantly high, with the exception of a low value (0.027) between the clades 1 and 2. This low value seemed to be at an intraspecific level. Based on the comprehensive results of the DNA barcoding and morphological identification, the clades 1 and 2 were assigned to *C. strumosum*, the clade 3 to *C. semerme*, the clade 4 to *C. villosum*, the clade 5 to *Andracantha* sp., and the clade 6 to *A. phalacrocoracis*. *Corynosoma* sp. found from porpoises in Japan was included in the clade 2 of *C. strumosum*. A sequence of *Corynosoma magdaleni* (DNA database accession no. EF467872) (García-Varela and Pérez-Ponce de León, 2008) was treated as a junior synonym of *C. strumosum*.

A certain inconsistency was observed in the present phylogenetic tree, because the published sequences of *C. validum* (accession nos. JX442193 and MK119252) (García-Varela et al., 2013; Lisitsyna et al., 2019) were included in the clade 4 of *C. villosum*. Furthermore, the published sequence of *C. villosum* (accession no. MK119251) (Lisitsyna et al., 2019) were far different from those of the clade 4.

Another phylogenetic tree was made using nuclear 28S rDNA sequences (Supplementary Fig. 2). The phylogeny of the conservative sequences was mostly consistent with the classification of DNA barcoding. The mitochondrial clades 1 and 2 of *C. strumosum* were un-separated in the 28S rDNA tree, supporting the view of unifying the two clades.

The results of DNA barcoding of larval and adult acanthocephalans are summarized in Table 2. Out of 72 cystacanth isolates from fish, 66 (91.7%) were identified as one of three species of *Corynosoma*. The majority of them were *C. strumosum* and *C. villosum* from all the coastal seas of Hokkaido. The clade 2 of *C. strumosum* was found only from the coastal sea of the Pacific. There were no clear host-parasite relationships between fish species and *Corynosoma* species. All species of *Corynosoma* and *Andracantha* were found from the Arctic rainbow smelt (*Osmerus dentex*). However, flatfish as the starry flounder (*Pleuronectes stellatus*), the yellow striped flounder (*Pleuronectes herzensteini*), the Cresthead flounder (*Pleuronectes schrenki*), the northern black flounder (*Pleuronectes obscurus*), the dusky sole (*Pleuronectes mochigarei*), and the bastard halibut (*Paralichthys olivaceus*) frequently harbored *C. villosum*, a common species to cause human infections in Hokkaido.

3.3. Genetic variation of *C. strumosum* and *C. villosum*

The *cox1* genetic variations of *C. strumosum* and *C. villosum* were examined, using 18 isolates of the clade 1, 17 isolates of the clade 2, and 30 isolates of the clade 3 from fish. A parsimony haplotype network was drawn by each data set of the three clades, which was comprised of 1023 nucleotide sites. As shown in Fig. 4, an extensive sequence diversity was observed, particularly in the clades 1 and 3. Surprisingly,

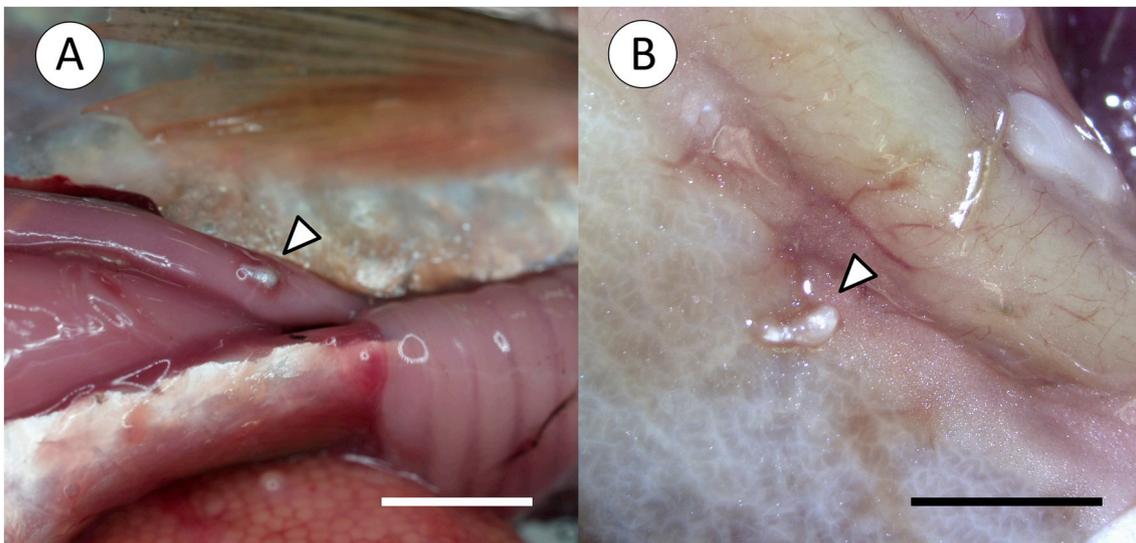


Fig. 2. Cystacanth larvae found from marine fish. A) The larva attached on the intestinal serosa of *Clupea pallasii*. B) Another larva on the intestinal serosa of *Osmerus dentex*. Scale bar 10 mm.

there were no common haplotypes in both the clades. The sea areas of host fish were completely unrelated to the network patterns of the clades 1 and 3, although haplotypes of the clade 2 were only found from the coastal sea of the Pacific. The population genetics indices of the three clades indicated that *C. strumosum* and *C. villosum* have kept mtDNA diversity without bottlenecks in the coastal seas of Hokkaido (Table 4).

3.4. Morphology of larval and adult acanthocephalans

Micrographs of cystacanth larvae recovered in this study are shown in Fig. 5A to E. All of the specimens were artificially evaginated with trypsin digestion. Here follows are brief description of the larvae.

Corynosoma strumosum (Fig. 5A). One male and four females were observed. The larva has an elongated trunk. The fore part of the dorsal area and the anterior half of the ventral area are covered with minute spines. The whole body (including fully extended proboscis) is 3.7 ± 0.4 mm long and 0.77 ± 0.06 mm wide. The hindtrunk is long and thin. The nearly cylindrical proboscis is 510 ± 29 μ m long and 260 ± 22 μ m wide, armed with 18 longitudinal rows consisting of 9–12 hooks per each row.

Corynosoma villosum (Fig. 5B). Two males and three females. The larva has a thick and short trunk. The fore part of the dorsal area and the anterior three-fourths of the ventral area are covered with minute spines. The whole body is 3.2 ± 0.2 mm long and 1.04 ± 0.06 mm wide. The foretrunk is obviously thick. The vase-shaped proboscis is 566 ± 36 μ m long and 350 ± 34 μ m wide, armed with 22–24 longitudinal rows consisting of 12–13 hooks per each row.

Corynosoma semerme (Fig. 5C). One female. The larva has a small trunk. The fore part of the dorsal area and all the ventral area covered with minute spines. The whole body is 2.7 mm long and 0.9 mm wide. The cylindrical proboscis is 571 μ m long and 296 μ m wide, armed with 22 longitudinal rows consisting of 11 hooks per each row.

Andracantha sp. (Fig. 5D). One female. The larva has a small elliptic trunk. The fore part of both the ventral and dorsal areas is covered with minute spines. The whole body is 2.4 mm long and 0.9 mm wide. The hindtrunk is very short. The proboscis is 650 μ m long and 280 μ m wide, armed with 16 longitudinal rows consisting of 9–10 hooks per each row. These features are similar to those of larval *Andracantha mergi* (Presswell et al., 2018; Schmidt, 1975).

Andracantha phalacrocoracis (Fig. 5E). One female. The larva has a long neck and a small elliptic trunk. The fore part of both the ventral

and dorsal areas is covered with minute spines. The whole body is 2.8 mm long and 1.0 mm wide. The hindtrunk is very short. Proboscis is 460 μ m long and 330 μ m wide, armed with 18 longitudinal rows consisting of 11–12 hooks per each row.

The morphological characteristics of adult *Corynosoma* spp. from pinnipeds in Hokkaido were compared with those of the North American species (Van Cleave, 1953b) (Supplementary Table 1). There were almost no discrepancies in this comparison. The appearance of adult *C. villosum* in Hokkaido is shown in Fig. 5F. The morphological feature of this species was mutually consistent with the original description of *C. villosum* (Van Cleave, 1953a), although a serious inconsistency was observed in their DNA barcode sequences (Fig. 3).

Some of the specimens used in this study have been deposited as vouchers in the National Museum of Nature and Science, Tsukuba, Japan under the collection numbers NSMT-As 4604 to 4612.

4. Discussion

In this study, the infection status of different commercial fish species with cystacanth larvae was examined in all the coastal seas of Hokkaido to evaluate the infection risk of human corynosomiasis. The large-scale fish survey, based on the morphological and molecular identification of cystacanths, showed that 3 species of *Corynosoma* (*C. strumosum*, *C. villosum*, and *C. semerme*) and 2 species of *Andracantha* (*A. phalacrocoracis* and an unidentified species) prevail in commercial fish. Among them, *C. strumosum* and *C. villosum* are dominant species. Pinnipeds in Hokkaido consistently harbor only the 3 species of adult *Corynosoma* (H. Katahira and M. Kobayashi, unpublished data), supporting the occurrence of those larvae from marine fish. The species composition of *Corynosoma* in fish varies according to sea areas (Sinisalo and Valtonen, 2003). The comprehensive result of the present study suggests a high possibility that almost every commercial fish species in Hokkaido are infected with *C. strumosum* or *C. villosum* or both, irrespective of the fishery areas. However, the existence of uninfected fish species in the present data indicates that the cystacanth infections are fluctuated perhaps due to habitats and food habits of fish. The overall prevalence of cystacanth-infected fish was approximately 10% (Table 1), but the value is expected to be increased when examining hot spots around the colonies of pinnipeds. The present study also showed that flatfish frequently harbor *C. villosum*. However, the species identification data of cystacanths (Table 2) showed that each of *Corynosoma* spp. is a

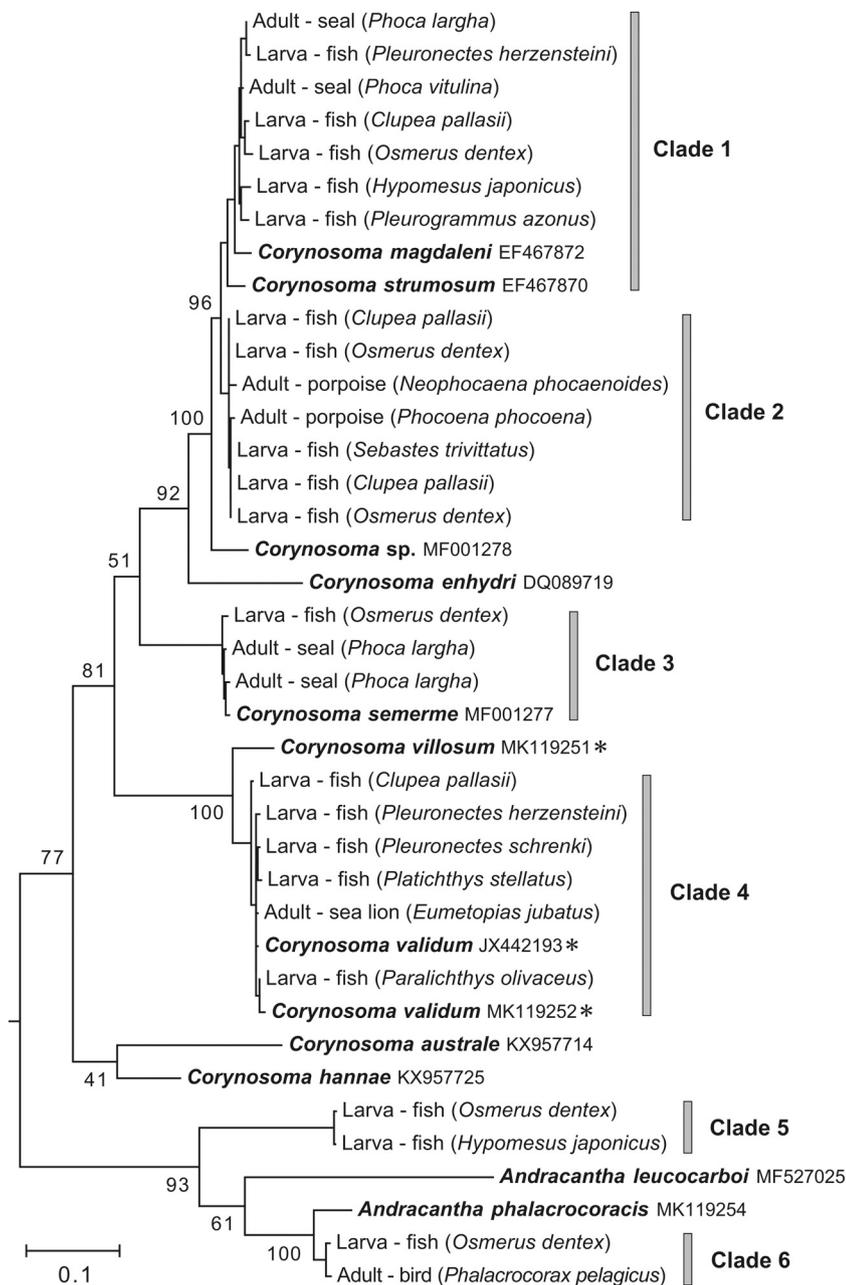


Fig. 3. A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree showing evolutionary relationships among *Corynosoma* and related acanthocephalans from fish, birds, pinnipeds, and cetaceans in Hokkaido, Japan. The tree was constructed from sequences of mitochondrial *cox1* (575 nucleotide sites). Twenty-seven representative isolates were analyzed, together with 13 reference taxa from DNA databases. The nucleotide accession numbers were shown after the scientific name. The tree was rooted with an outgroup taxon, *Pseudocorynosoma anatarium* (accession no. KX688148). Adult worms from each clades were used as a standard for morphological identification of species. An asterisk denotes a conflict sequence to our morphological identification. Bootstrap percentages are shown on representative nodes. A scale bar indicates the number of substitutions per nucleotide site.

generalist in selecting fish as a paratenic host. A wide range of fish species should therefore be considered as the source of human infections.

The inshore and offshore fisheries are one of the most important industrial sectors in Hokkaido. The annual fisheries yield of Hokkaido reached to 1.27 million tons in 2014, which accounted for 27% of the total amount of Japan (Annual statistics on fishery and aquaculture production by Statistics Department, Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries). In the Japanese archipelago, pinnipeds are most common in the coastal seas of Hokkaido (Ohdachi et al., 2015). As a result of their distribution, marine fish of Hokkaido become infected with *Corynosoma* spp. Considering the wide range of commercial fish species of Hokkaido and the advanced transportation system of fresh fish (Katahira et al., 2017; Nagaishi et al., 2017), there is a possibility that human corynosomiasis will occur everywhere in Japan.

The Japanese custom of eating raw fish is responsible for various parasitic diseases due to protozoan and helminthic pathogens (Iwashita et al., 2013; Nawa et al., 2005). The location of the parasites in fish (e.g.

scale, gills, serous membrane, and muscle) is very important in considering human infections. In this study, the encysted cystacanths of *Corynosoma* spp. were most frequently found on serous membrane covering the digestive tract of fish, but not in the muscle. As far as searching literatures to date, there are no reports on the cystacanths encysted within the muscle of fish. The internal organs of fish are usually not edible raw, and almost only the muscle is consumed uncooked (e.g. sushi and sashimi). Pickled foods made from the whole body of clupeid fish are unpopular in Japan. Accordingly, the risk of human infections with *Corynosoma* spp. appears to be virtually at low levels. In this study, we also noticed that the cystacanths were excysted in the peritoneal cavity of fish lacking in freshness. It is likely that the excysted or encysted cystacanths attached on the serosal lining of peritoneal muscle become the source of human infections. The water washing of fish after removing the guts, the elimination of the serous membrane of the peritoneal cavity, or the freezing of the whole body seems to be effective in preventing human corynosomiasis. The refrigerated storage of fish for several days is obviously ineffective in

Table 2

Species identification of acanthocephalans of the genera *Corynosoma* and *Andracantha* from fish, mammals, and birds in the coastal seas of Hokkaido by mitochondrial *cox1*-based DNA barcoding.

Host species	Coasts	Stages	Parasite species ^a	No. isolates identified
<i>Osmerus dentex</i> (fish)	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	1
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	2
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 2)	14
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	1
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. semerme</i> (clade 4)	1
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>Andracantha</i> sp. (clade 5)	2
<i>Hypomesus japonicus</i> (fish)	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>A. pharacrococoris</i> (clade 6)	3
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	3
<i>Clupea pallasii</i> (fish)	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>Andracantha</i> sp. (clade 5)	1
	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	3
<i>Pleurogrammus azonus</i> (fish)	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	7
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 2)	2
	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	2
<i>Gadus macrocephalus</i> (fish)	Japan Sea	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	1
	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	1
<i>Platichthys stellatus</i> (fish)	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	5
<i>Pleuronectes herzensteini</i> (fish)	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	3
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	5
<i>Pleuronectes schrenki</i> (fish)	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	1
<i>Pleuronectes obscurus</i> (fish)	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	1
	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	3
<i>Pleuronectes mochigarei</i> (fish)	Japan Sea	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	1
	Japan Sea	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	3
<i>Paralichthys olivaceus</i> (fish)	Japan Sea	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	2
<i>Sebastes trivittatus</i> (fish)	Pacific	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 2)	1
<i>Myoxocephalus stelleri</i> (fish)	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	2
	Okhotsk	cystacanth	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	1
Total (fish)			<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	18
			<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 2)	17
			<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	30
			<i>C. semerme</i> (clade 4)	1
			<i>Andracantha</i> sp. (clade 5)	3
			<i>A. pharacrococoris</i> (clade 6)	3
		All species	72	
<i>Phoca largha</i> (seal)	Okhotsk	adult	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	4
	Okhotsk	adult	<i>C. semerme</i> (clade 4)	3
	Japan Sea	adult	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	2
<i>Phoca vitulina</i> (seal)	Pacific	adult	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 1)	2
<i>Eumetopias jubatus</i> (sea lion)	Okhotsk	adult	<i>C. villosum</i> (clade 3)	4
<i>Phocoena phocoena</i> (porpoise)	Pacific	adult	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 2)	4
<i>Neophocaena phocaenoides</i> (porpoise) ^b	Pacific	adult	<i>C. strumosum</i> (clade 2)	2
<i>Phalacrocorax pelagicus</i> (cormorant)	Pacific	adult	<i>A. pharacrococoris</i> (clade 6)	3
<i>Phalacrocorax capillatus</i> (cormorant)	Pacific	adult	<i>A. pharacrococoris</i> (clade 6)	1
Total (mammals and birds)			All species	25
Ground total				97

^a The mitochondrial phylogenetic clade of each species is shown in parentheses.

^b The finless porpoise was originated from the Pacific coast of central Honshu (Kuramochi et al., 2000).

killing cystacanths, because this study confirmed that chilled fish in general markets kept cystacanths alive.

There are no clear ecological data on whether the population increase of pinnipeds has influence on the prevalence of fish infected with *Corynosoma*. Previous reports focused on the population dynamics of *Corynosoma* only in pinniped definitive hosts (Kaimoto et al., 2018; Sinisalo and Valtonen, 2003; Valtonen et al., 2004). The increase of

Steller sea lions, harbor seals, and spotted seals in the coastal seas of Hokkaido has consequences for serious damages to fisheries (Haneda et al., 2017; Hoshino et al., 2006; Wilke, 1954). The recent findings of human corynosomiasis in Hokkaido might be indirectly related to the increase of the pinnipeds. Detailed ecological studies on the definitive, intermediate, and paratenic hosts of *Corynosoma* are required to elucidate the parasite transmission dynamics among them, and further to

Table 3

Intra- and inter-clade divergence of mitochondrial *cox1* sequences (1023 nucleotide sites) among the phylogenetic clades of *Corynosoma* and *Andracantha* from the coastal seas of Hokkaido.

Species ^a	Phylogenetic clade ^b	Clade 1	Clade 2	Clade 3	Clade 4	Clade 5
<i>C. strumosum</i> (26)	Clade 1 (0.013)					
<i>C. strumosum</i> (23)	Clade 2 (0.004)	0.027				
<i>C. villosum</i> (34)	Clade 3 (0.007)	0.134	0.136			
<i>C. semerme</i> (4)	Clade 4 (0.007)	0.103	0.107	0.126		
<i>Andracantha</i> sp. (3)	Clade 5 (0.002)	0.178	0.174	0.175	0.177	
<i>A. pharacrococoris</i> (7)	Clade 6 (0.013)	0.182	0.185	0.191	0.183	0.155

^a A total number of both adult and larval isolates examined are shown in parentheses.

^b The values of intra-clade divergence are shown in parentheses.

Table 4
Population genetics indices of mitochondrial *cox1* sequences (1023 nucleotide sites) of *Corynosoma* spp. from fishes in the coastal seas of Hokkaido.

Species	Clade	No. isolates examined	No. haplotypes	Haplotype diversity	Nucleotide diversity	Fu's FS	Tajima's D
<i>C. strumosum</i>	1	18	18	1.000	0.01252	-8.596	-1.58069
<i>C. strumosum</i>	2	17	15	0.985	0.00391	-10.638	-2.30084
<i>C. villosum</i>	3	30	30	1.000	0.00716	-29.969	-2.21310

apply to a science-based rational management of pinnipeds. The present population genetics data of larval *Corynosoma* from fish strongly suggest that the parasites are highly shuffled in the coastal seas of Hokkaido, probably due to the long-distance movements of pinnipeds and fish. Interestingly, the clade 2 of *C. strumosum* was restricted to fish in the Pacific Ocean, and its adult stage was found from porpoises. Furthermore, the genetic diversity of the clade 2 was relatively weak as compared to the clade 1, suggesting that the clade 2 is a new comer to Hokkaido. More parasite samples from porpoises are necessary to verify the hypothesis. The behavioral ecology of intermediate hosts is also important in considering the transmission of *Corynosoma*. Amphipod crustaceans involved as intermediate hosts are mostly detritivores or scavengers (Anderson and Bell, 2016). The frequent detection of *C. villosum* from flatfish living on the seafloor is probably related to the habitat preference of amphipods and their susceptibility to the parasites.

Morphological observations are important in the taxonomy of acanthocephalans. In the adult stage of *Corynosoma*, the whole appearance of trunk, the configuration of proboscis hooks, and the distribution of trunk spines are key characters to identify species. However, slight differences of the morphological characters cause a number of synonyms (Amin, 2013). A mitochondrial *cox1*-based DNA barcoding system is an essential tool of modern taxonomy to discriminate morphologically indistinguishable species and to link the different developmental stages of a species (Hebert and Gregory, 2005). The resultant molecular phylogeny is also useful in detecting synonyms. A recent taxonomic revision of *Corynosoma* regarded *C. obtuscens* as a junior synonym of *C. australe* by comparing their morphology and *cox1* sequences (Lisitsyna et al., 2019). Also in the present study, *C. magdaleni* was tentatively treated as a junior synonym of *C. strumosum*. The original description of *C. magdaleni* was based on the adult stage from grey seals (*Halichoerus grypus*) in Canada (Montreuil, 1958). A detailed morphological comparison between *C. strumosum* and *C. magdaleni* is needed for the conclusive decision of their specific status. The taxonomy of *Corynosoma* from cetaceans is also problematic. The present DNA barcoding system identified the large adults of *Corynosoma* sp. from *N. phocaenoides* and *P. phocoena* in Japan as the clade 2 of *C. strumosum*. *Corynosoma alaskensis* described from *P. phocoena* in Alaska (Golvan,

1959) is morphologically similar to our specimens. Further comparative studies are required to evaluate the validity of *C. alaskensis*.

The clinical samples of parasites from human patients are frequently formalin-fixed and then embedded in paraffin. A PCR-based DNA sequencing is applicable to the diagnosis of the paraffin-embedded specimen to a species level (Kaito et al., 2019; Koonmee et al., 2011; Tang et al., 2017). A previous clinical report from Hokkaido (Takahashi et al., 2016) tentatively identified the causative species of corynosomiasis as *C. validum* by sequencing the parasite *cox1* from the paraffin-embedded specimen. However, the present DNA barcoding system showed that the already published *cox1* sequence of the clinical isolate (DNA database accession no. LC077795) (Takahashi et al., 2016) should be included in *C. villosum*.

International DNA databases may contain erroneous sequences (*cox1*, 28S rDNA, and internal transcribed spacers of rDNA cassette) of *Corynosoma* spp., due to the misidentification of species. Some of them were marked as invalid (Lisitsyna et al., 2019). This state of confusion makes it difficult to conduct DNA barcoding. Therefore, in this study, the original sequences of morphologically identified adults of *Corynosoma* spp. were used as standards. The most problematic issue of this study is an inconsistency of DNA barcode (*cox1*) sequences between *C. villosum* and *C. validum*. The morphological discrimination of *C. villosum* from *C. validum* is easy, because the hindtrunk of male and female *C. villosum* is spineless in the ventral side, whereas in female *C. validum* the ventral spines reach to the posterior end. A cylindrical proboscis is also unique to *C. validum* (Van Cleave, 1953b). Therefore, the possibility of misidentification of *C. villosum* can be denied in this study. There are two possible reasons for the inconsistency of the *cox1* sequences; one is a human error in the published sequences (García-Varela et al., 2013; Lisitsyna et al., 2019), the other is that an ancient mitochondrial introgression occurred in the Far Eastern population of *C. villosum*. A direct comparison between the Far Eastern and North American populations of *C. villosum* is required to resolve the inconsistency of the *cox1* sequences.

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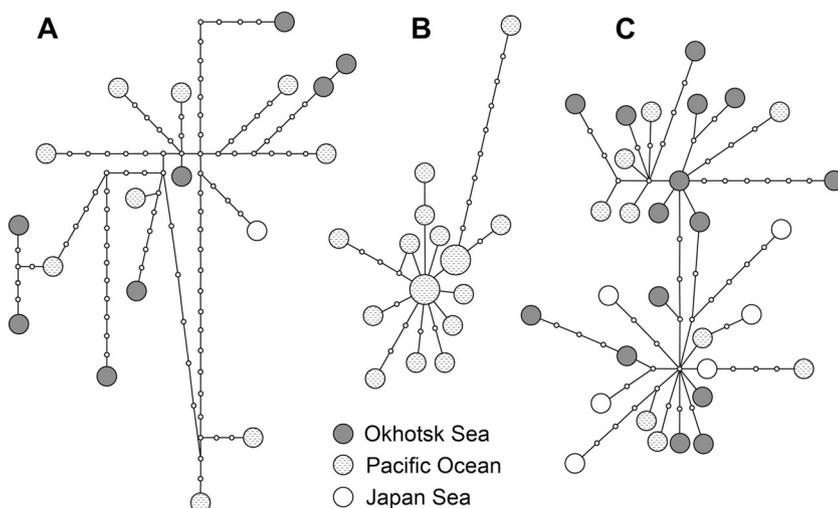


Fig. 4. Statistical parsimony networks of *Corynosoma strumosum* and *Corynosoma villosum*. The networks were made from sequences of mitochondrial *cox1* (1023 nucleotide sites). All larval isolates from fish were subjected to the analysis. The size of circles indicates the frequency of haplotypes; however, most of the circles contain only one isolate because of a strong diversity within populations. The circles are classified into three types due to the sea areas of Hokkaido. Hypothetical haplotypes are shown as small circles. A) The network of the clade 1 of *C. strumosum* ($n = 18$). B) The network of the clade 2 of *C. strumosum* ($n = 17$). C) The network of *C. villosum* ($n = 30$).

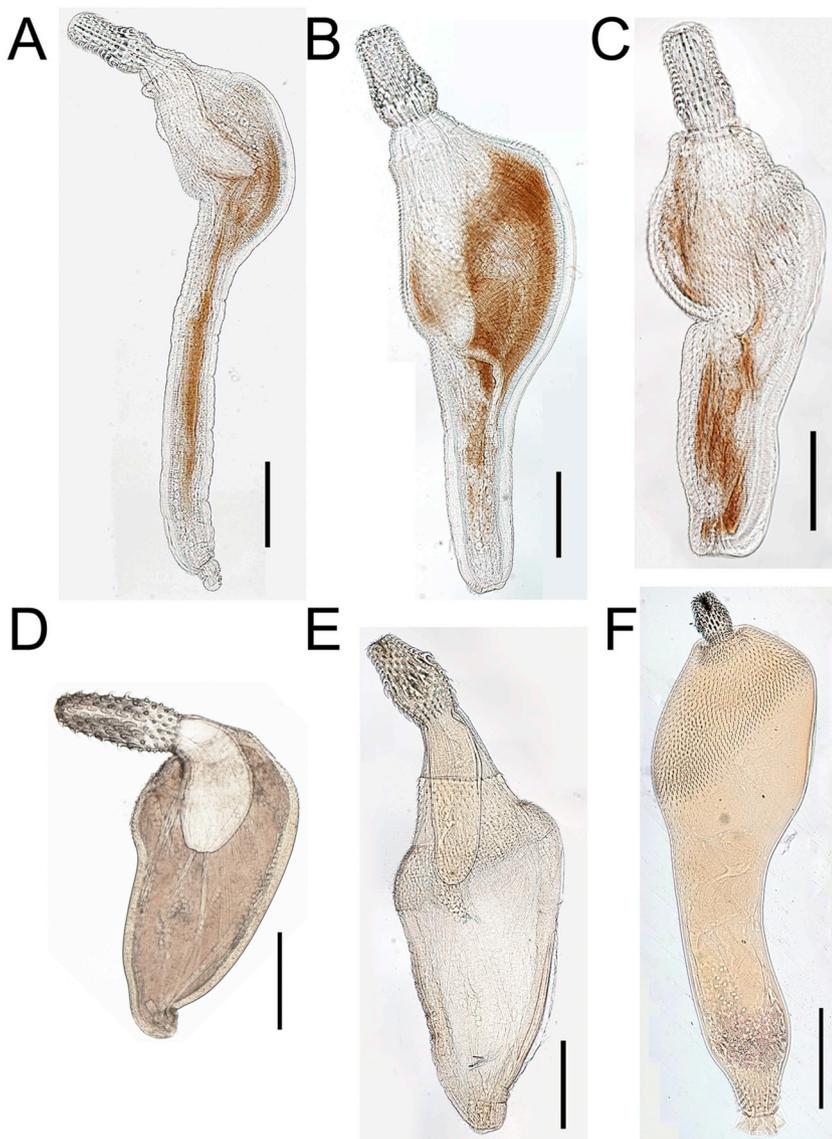


Fig. 5. Micrographs of acanthocephalans found in this study. Scale bars represent 500 μm . A) Cystacanth of *Corynosoma strumosum* from the herring (*Clupea pallasii*) in Yubetsu. B) Cystacanth of *Corynosoma villosum* from the yellow striped flounder (*Pleuronectes herzensteini*) in Rausu. C) Cystacanth of *Corynosoma semerme* from the Arctic rainbow smelt (*Osmerus dentex*) in Nemuro. D) Cystacanth of *Andracantha* sp. from the Japanese surf smelt (*Hypomesus japonicus*) in Nemuro. E) Cystacanth of *Andracantha phalacrocoracis* from *O. dentex* in Nemuro. F) Adult of *Corynosoma villosum* from the Steller sea lion (*Eumetopias jubatus*) in Abashiri. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

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