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First report of the nematode *Cruzia tentaculata* using molluscs as natural intermediate hosts, based on morphology and genetic markers

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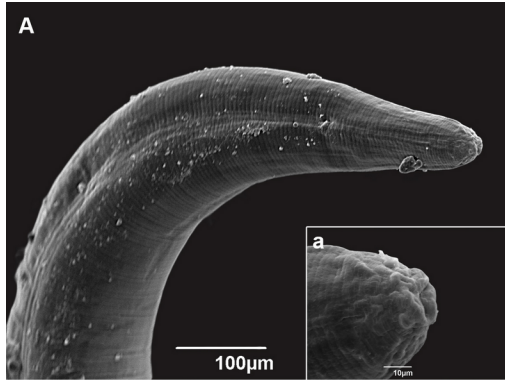
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1 **First report of the nematode *Cruzia tentaculata* using molluscs as natural intermediate hosts,**
2 **based on morphology and genetic markers**

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16

17

18 ABSTRACT

19 The life cycles of many parasitic nematodes include terrestrial gastropods as intermediate hosts.
20 Over the past few decades, a number of cases of parasitism between molluscs and medically-
21 important nematodes have been reported in Brazil, in particular, those involving the invasive giant
22 African gastropod, *Achatina fulica*, and zoonoses caused by the nematodes *Angiostrongylus*
23 *cantonensis* and *Angiostrongylus costaricensis*, the etiological agents of neuroangiostrongyliasis
24 and abdominal angiostrongyliasis, respectively. In the present study, larvae found infecting *A.*
25 *fulica*, *Latipes erinaceus*, and *Thaumastus taunaisii*, from two localities in the Brazilian state of Rio
26 de Janeiro were characterized using light and scanning electron microscopy, and sequences of the
27 18S rRNA and MT-CO1 genes. Genetic markers allowed to identify the larvae collected in the
28 present study as *Cruzia tentaculata*, whose adults parasitize didelphid marsupials in the Americas.
29 These findings indicate that both native and non-native gastropods may act as intermediate hosts
30 and represent a previously unnoticed heteroxenous life cycle of *C. tentaculata*.

31
32 **Keywords:** MT-CO1; 18S rRNA; *Strongyluris* sp.; *Achatina fulica*; *Latipes erinaceus*; *Thaumastus*
33 *taunaisii*.

38 1. Introduction

39 Molluscs can act as vectors in the transmission of parasitic worms of pets, livestock and
40 wildlife, thus contributing to the spread of zoonoses through their dispersal capacity. The giant
41 African land snail, *Achatina fulica* Bowdich, 1822, an invasive species from Africa, which is
42 currently found in Asia and Oceania, recently has been spreading throughout South America and is
43 also present in Florida, USA (Fontanilla et al., 2014). Associated with the spread of *A. fulica*, the

44 zoonotic nematode *Angiostrongylus cantonensis* (Chen, 1935) has been confirmed as one causative
45 agent of parasitic eosinophilic meningitis in human populations of the Americas (Morassutti et al.,
46 2014; Ramos-de-Souza et al., 2018; Valente et al., 2018).

47 In South and Central America, several nematodes have been detected infecting *A. fulica*, i.e.,
48 *Aelurostrongylus abstrusus* (Railliet, 1898), parasite that infects the lungs of felines and
49 *Strongyluris* sp., parasite of lizards (Thiengo, 1995; Thiengo et al., 2008; 2010; Oliveira et al.,
50 2010; Pereira et al., 2017; Ramos-de-Souza et al., 2018). This snail is also considered a potential
51 host for *Angiostrongylus costaricensis* Morera & Céspedes 1971 (Carvalho et al., 2003). During the
52 past few years, we have collected a large number of *A. fulica* individuals naturally infected by
53 larvae resembling *Strongyluris* spp. and *A. cantonensis*. This drew our attention to the potential
54 susceptibility of *A. fulica* to nematodes present in areas it has recently invaded and its capacity for
55 their dissemination over a large geographical scale within a short period of time which is strongly
56 influenced by human activities . Since *A. fulica* has a high reproductive rate, potential for dispersal,
57 and compatibility with helminths of humans, livestock, and pets (Thiengo et al., 2007; 2008), it may
58 play an important role i disseminating parasitic worms of indigenous fauna.

59 Recent parasitological surveys of molluscs in the state of Rio de Janeiro have recovered
60 several different forms of nematode larvae, including some belonging to unidentified taxa,
61 highlighting the possibility of a role for *A. fulica* in infection of the region's wildlife. The present
62 study detected and described unidentified nematode larvae recovered from the invasive *A. fulica*
63 and from two aboriginal gastropods – *Thaumastus taunaisii* (Férussac, 1822) and *Latipes erinaceus*
64 (Colosi, 1922) – in the state of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The larvae were identified based on
65 morphology and molecular analysis of nuclear 18S rRNA and mitochondrial MT-CO1 genes.

66

67 **2. Materials and Methods**

68 Nematode larvae of a single morphotype were recovered from three mollusc species
69 collected from three sites in the state of Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Individuals of two of the molluscs

70 (*A. fulica* and *T. taunaisii*) were collected in the municipality of Rio de Janeiro. Invasive snails *A.*
71 *fulica* (n=7) were collected at the Fiocruz Manguinhos Campus (22°52'31.2"S, 43°14'51.4W),
72 whereas native snails *T. taunaisii* (n=2) were obtained from the Fiocruz Atlantic Forest Campus
73 (CFMA: 22°55'27.5"S, 43°26'27.0"W), adjoining the Pedra Branca State Park (*Parque Estadual*
74 *da Pedra Branca - PEPB*). A single individual of the autochthonous slug *Latipes erinaceus* was
75 collected in the municipality of Paraty (23°13'01.8"S, 44°43'22.5"W). The molluscs were collected
76 between November 2017 and January 2018, and in all cases (except for *L. erinaceus* and one *A.*
77 *fulica* individual) the parasitological analysis was based on artificial digestion of the molluscs
78 (Graeff-Teixeira and Morera, 1995). In addition, we also added to this study, adult worms identified
79 as *Cruzia tentaculata*, recovered from opossum *Didelphis aurita* from Fiocruz Manguinhos
80 Campus.

81

82 2.1. Morphological analyses

83 Larvae recovered from each mollusc were fixed in AFA (2% glacial acetic acid, 3%
84 formaldehyde, 95% ethanol) for morphological analyses (light microscopy – LM, and Scanning
85 Electron Microscopy – SEM). The AFA-fixed specimens were clarified in lactophenol (50% lactic
86 acid, 25% phenol, 25% distilled water) for description of morphological structures: body width,
87 nerve ring, muscular and glandular esophagus, esophageal bulb, pre-bulb, excretory pore, and tail.
88 The morphological structures were classified following Travassos (1917; 1922), and the specimens
89 were identified using taxonomic keys (Anderson et al., 2009; Adnet et al., 2009; Gibbons 2010).

90 For SEM, the nematode larvae collected from *A. fulica* (3 larvae), *L. erinaceus* (2), and *T.*
91 *taunaisii* (1) were processed according to Mafra and Lanfredi (1998). The samples were analyzed in
92 a JEOL JSM-6390 microscope (Tokyo, Japan) at the Rudolf Barth Electron Microscopy Platform of
93 the Oswaldo Cruz Institute, in Rio de Janeiro.

94

95 2.2. Molecular analyses

96 Three larvae recovered from *A. fulica*, two from *L. erinaceus*, and two from *T. taunaisii* were
97 transferred to 70% ethanol for DNA extraction and molecular analyses. The samples were washed
98 individually in distilled water for 24 h. The DNA was then extracted using a QIAamp DNA Mini
99 kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany), following the manufacturer's protocol.

100 The partial nuclear small subunit ribosomal RNA gene (18S rRNA) sequence was amplified
101 by conventional Polymerase Chain Reaction (PCR) using the primer pair Physa_F and Physa_R
102 (Gomes et al., 2015). The PCR reactions had 12.5 μ L of PCR Master Mix (PROMEGA, Madison,
103 USA), 0.5 μ L of each primer (10 μ M each), 3.0 μ L of the genomic DNA, and ultrapure water to
104 complete a total reaction volume of 25 μ L. The thermal cycling conditions followed Gomes et al.
105 (2015).

106 The barcode region of the mitochondrial cytochrome *c* oxidase subunit I gene (MT-CO1) was
107 amplified using the primer cocktail of Prosser et al. (2013). The PCR reactions had 12.5 μ L of PCR
108 Master Mix (PROMEGA, Madison, USA), 0.5 μ L of each primer cocktail (10 μ M of a three-
109 forward-primers mix and 10 μ M of a three-reverse-primers mix), 3.0 μ L of genomic DNA, and
110 ultrapure water to complete a total reaction volume of 25 μ L. The thermal cycling conditions
111 followed Prosser et al. (2013).

112 After 1.5% agarose gel electrophoresis and visualization on UV transilluminator, successfully
113 amplified samples were purified using the Illustra GFX PCR DNA and Gel Band Purification kit
114 (GE Healthcare Little Chalfont, Bucks, UK) following the manufacturer's protocol. Cycle-
115 sequencing reactions were conducted using the BigDye Terminator v3.1 Cycle Sequencing kit
116 (Applied Biosystems, Carlsbad, California, USA), reactions were run individually for each primer
117 for better accuracy. The samples were sequenced in an ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer (Applied
118 Biosystems) at the DNA Sequencing Platform of the Oswaldo Cruz Institute, PDTIS/FIOCRUZ,
119 subunit RPT01A – DNA Sequencing.

120 We searched GenBank (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/) for similar sequences using
121 BLAST (Basic Local Alignment Search Tool), firstly with 18S rRNA sequences and subsequently

122 with MT-CO1 sequences, based on observations of the first results. Our sequences were assembled
123 into contigs and edited using the Geneious R9 software package (Kearse et al., 2012). From the
124 BLAST results, for phylogenetic analyses, we added other nematode species sequences from
125 GenBank, representing the superfamily Cosmocercoidea, as outgroup we included sequences
126 representing the superfamily Heterakoidea, based on this superfamily phylogenetic proximity to
127 Cosmocercoidea (Supplementary file 1).

128 The 18S rRNA sequences were aligned using the SINA Aligner v1.2.11 (Pruesse et al., 2012),
129 while the MT-CO1 sequences were aligned using the Translator X server (Abascal et al., 2010).
130 Each resulting matrix was trimmed to eliminate poorly-aligned extremities, and converted to
131 different formats using Mesquite version 3.51 (Maddison and Maddison, 2018). Bayesian Inference
132 (BI) analyses were run in MrBayes version 3.2.6 (Ronquist et al., 2012) with GTR+I+G model
133 command blocks added to the matrices using Mesquite version 3.51 (Maddison and Maddison,
134 2018). MrBayes analyses were run in the CIPRES Science Gateway V. 3.3 (Miller et al., 2010).

136 3. Results

137 3.1. Morphological analyses by light and scanning electron microscopy

138 Nine of ten molluscs collected in the present study were infected by whitish robust non-
139 identified larvae. The number of larvae recovered per individual varied considerably in *A. fulica*,
140 ranging from three to 70, whereas two and five larvae were obtained from the two *T. taunaisii*
141 individuals, and eight larvae were collected from *L. erinaceus*.

142 All larvae examined had an elongated body, with a lanceolate tail (Figure 1). Under light
143 microscopy, the larvae exhibited a long esophagus, divided into anterior (muscular) and posterior
144 (glandular) parts, followed by a discrete pre-bulbar dilation, a well-developed bulb, and a discrete
145 intestinal diverticulum, projecting anteriorly to the level of the pre-bulbar dilation (Figure 1); an
146 excretory pore located near the bulb (Figure 2A); buccal cavity lined with at least one row of hooks
147 in the lateral view (Figure 2B); a double lateral line running along the side of the body (Figures 2D,

148 4C, and 4D); posterior region conical-shaped with a sharply pointed tail (Figures 2E and 3E); anal
149 opening with prominent anterior edge situated near the end of the body, preceded by a pair of anal
150 glands (Figures 2F and 3E). The structures visible in the SEM included the lateral line, poorly
151 defined lips, anus with prominent border, and pointed tail (Figure 3).

152 The larval specimens – five from *A. fulica*, and two each from *L. erinaceus* and *T. taunaisii*
153 were deposited in the Helminthological Collection of the Instituto Oswaldo Cruz, under catalog
154 numbers CHIOC 38721–38723. Adult worms (n=2), identified as *Cruzia tentaculata*, recovered
155 from opossum *Didelphis aurita*, were also deposited under the collection number CHIOC 38782.

156

157 3.2. Molecular analyses

158 The partial sequencing of the 18S rRNA resulted in two good quality chromatograms
159 (forward and reverse) of over 800 base pairs (bps) for each sample. As the larvae obtained from the
160 three mollusc hosts, together with the adult *C. tentaculata* recovered from *D. aurita*, all shared the
161 same 18S rRNA gene sequence, only one sequence was included in the subsequent analyses.

162 The partial sequencing of the MT-CO1 produced six sequences of nearly 700 bp for each
163 sample. Our sequences were deposited in GenBank under accession numbers MN873564,
164 MN873565, MN873566, and MN873570 for the 18S rRNA, and MN842776, MN842777, and
165 MN842778 for the MT-CO1 (Supplementary file S1).

166 The 18S rRNA sequence of the larvae recovered from the molluscs, and the sequence of the
167 adult *C. tentaculata*, recovered from *D. aurita* formed a well-supported monophyletic group with
168 the GenBank sequence of *Cruzia americana* (BPP=1.00) (Supplementary file S2). The MT-CO1
169 sequences of the larvae and the adult *C. tentaculata* formed together a well-supported monophyletic
170 group (BPP=1.00) (Supplementary file S3).

171 In the MT-CO1 analyses, two of three larvae yielded good quality sequences, from which,
172 two haplotypes were obtained. A third haplotype, of the adult *C. tentaculata* from *D. aurita*, was

173 distinct from that of either larval haplotypes, that nevertheless formed a moderately-supported
174 monophyletic group with the sequences of larvae (BPP=0.60), sister to the adult haplotype.

175

176 **4. Discussion**

177 The morphological and genetic analyses confirmed the identification of the larvae recovered from
178 the cysts found in the pallial cavity of *Achatina fulica* and *Thaumastus taunaisii*, and the body
179 cavity of *Latipes erinaceus* as *Cruzia tentaculata*, a known parasite of the cecum of Neotropical
180 didelphid marsupials (Anderson et al., 2009).

181

182 *4.1. Taxonomy and distribution*

183 In total, 13 *Cruzia* species are currently recognized, including parasites of amphibians, reptiles,
184 marsupials and xenarthrans (Anderson et al., 2009; Adnet et al., 2009; Li, 2019; Vieira et al., 2020).
185 Among marsupial hosts, three species are known *Cruzia cameroni* Wolfgang, 1951; *C. americana*
186 and *C. tentaculata* (Li, 2019). *Cruzia tentaculata* was described originally as *Ascaris tentaculata*
187 Rudolphi, 1819 (Travassos, 1917, 1922) and assigned to the family Ascarididae, was subsequently
188 placed by Travassos (1917) in his new genus *Cruzia* in a new family Cruzidae, with a single
189 species, *Cruzia tentaculata*. Subsequently, *C. tentaculata* was placed within the family Kathlaniidae
190 (Travassos, 1922; Anderson et al., 2009). *Cruzia americana*, a parasite of the cecum and large
191 intestine of the opossum *Didelphis virginiana* in the United States, may cause severe pathology, or
192 even death, at high infestation rates (Nichelason et al., 2008; Anderson et al., 2009). *Cruzia*
193 *tentaculata* and *C. americana* both occur in didelphid marsupials, although there are records of
194 armadillo (Dasypodidae) as hosts, in both South and North America, in particular in Brazil,
195 Colombia, Paraguay, and Mexico (Travassos, 1922; Adnet et al., 2009; Li, 2019). In Brazil, there
196 are reports of *C. tentaculata* parasitizing opossums in both the Amazon and the Atlantic Forest,
197 including the state of Rio de Janeiro (Travassos, 1922, Adnet et al., 2009). Until now, however,
198 nothing was known of an intermediate host.

199 The generalist dietary habits of the didelphid opossums, their tolerance of anthropogenic
200 environments, and the presence of *A. fulica*, an invasive mollusc, in the same habitats, may favor
201 the life cycle of *C. tentaculata*. This is probably reinforced by the fact that *A. fulica* is widely
202 distributed in Brazil and normally occurs in dense populations due to its high reproductive potential
203 and generalist habits (Thiengo et al., 2013, Fernandez and Thiengo, 2016). Given this, *A. fulica* is
204 presumably a novel, and epidemiologically important species that may transmit this parasite to wild
205 mammals, forming a link between the parasite and its definitive host in urban and peri-urban areas.
206 The other mollusc species analyzed in the present study, *L. erinaceus* and *T. taunaisii*, are
207 autochthonous to Brazil and may act as natural intermediate hosts of *C. tentaculata*. Also it is
208 possible that other native species of gastropods participate of this life cycle

209

210 4.2. Biological features

211 The nematode larvae were invariably observed encysted in the pallial or body cavity of the
212 molluscs, with up to 70 larvae being found in a single individual. The most frequent form of the
213 larvae, probably the L₃ stage, was found in all all mollusc species. Oliveira and Santos (2018)
214 concluded tentatively that the larvae recovered from *A. fulica* may have hatched after the ingestion
215 of the eggs by the mollusc, with these larvae then becoming encysted in the pallial cavity, where
216 they encountered suitable glycogen storage that allowed them to develop to the L₃ stage, thus
217 indicating that these molluscs are intermediate hosts.

218 Valente et al. (2016) suggested that the presence of these larvae in the molluscs may
219 represent an abortive cycle, in which they failed to complete their stage of life cycle in the molluscs.
220 In the present study, however, the life cycle of *C. tentaculata* apparently was not interrupted within
221 the mollusc, given that the encysted larvae were still alive. It seems possible that the reserves of
222 glycogen in the mollusc tissues may have supported the parasitism (Oliveira and Santos, 2018).

223 Molluscs are also a part of the diet of opossums (Franco-Acuña et al., 2009; Li, 2019),
224 which are the definitive hosts of *C. tentaculata* (Travassos, 1922; Adnet et al., 2009), so it is

225 possible that the life cycle of the parasite includes the infection of gastropods when these
226 invertebrates ingest opossum feces containing nematode eggs. The biological compatibility of
227 different host molluscs further supports their potential role as intermediate hosts for this nematode.

228

229 4.3. Morphological features

230 The larvae recovered from the molluscs in the present study were morphologically similar to
231 the *Strongyluris* sp. larvae reported previously (Thiengo, 1995, Oliveira et al., 2010; Valente et al.,
232 2016). However, the morphological comparison of our samples with the original descriptions of
233 adult *Cruzia* sp. and subsequent papers, revealed similar structures in both the adult and the larvae
234 (Thiengo, 1995; Travassos, 1917;1922; Anderson et al., 2009). Given these similarities, the
235 specimens were identified as *Cruzia* sp., based on the presence of papillae, trilabial mouth, long tail,
236 the position of the excretory pore, presence of a pre-bulbar dilatation, buccal cavity with
237 pharyngeal teeth, lateral line on the body, a discrete intestinal diverticulum projecting anteriorly,
238 and the anal protuberance and mainly the buccal cavity with longitudinal row of cuticular lamellae.

239

240 4.4. Molecular features

241 Our molecular 18S rRNA analyses suggested a close relationship between the larvae
242 collected in the present study and *Cruzia americana*. Given the absence of *C. americana* MT-CO1
243 sequences in GenBank, we included the MT-CO1 sequence of an adult *C. tentaculata* recovered
244 from *Didelphis aurita*. This confirmed that our samples had similar haplotypes, thus supporting that
245 all samples represented the same species, *C. tentaculata*. Since the larvae analyzed in the present
246 study were obtained from different gastropod species (both native and non-native), and distinct
247 habitats, *i.e.*, well-preserved Atlantic Forest and anthropogenic environments, it seems likely that
248 *Cruzia tentaculata* has a low degree of specificity in terms of either its intermediate host or the
249 environments in which it occurs.

250

251 **5. Conclusions**

252 Our study highlights the urgent need for a comprehensive reassessment of the helminth
253 fauna of terrestrial gastropods. It is the first to provide molecular and morphological evidence on
254 the occurrence of *Cruzia tentaculata* larvae in terrestrial molluscs, including both native and
255 invasive species, further contributing with DNA sequences of adult *C. tentaculata* from an
256 opossum. Prior to the present study, the participation of molluscs in the life cycle of *C. tentaculata*
257 had been entirely overlooked, and this is the first record of the role of terrestrial molluscs as
258 intermediate hosts in the life cycle of *C. tentaculata*. These findings also indicate that the previous
259 studies that have identified *Strongyluris* sp. infecting molluscs, based only on the larval
260 morphology, may in fact have misidentified *C. tentaculata*. It may thus even be possible that
261 *Strongyluris* does not infect molluscs at all, and further research, based on molecular analyses of
262 such larvae, would be required to confirm this.

263

264

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274

275 **AVAILABILITY OF DATA AND MATERIALS**

276 All data generated or analyzed during this study are included in this published article and its
277 additional files.

278

279 **6. References**

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439 **ETHICS APPROVAL AND CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE**

440 Not applicable

441 **CONSENT FOR PUBLICATION**

442 Not applicable

443 **COMPETING INTERESTS**

444 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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448 **AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS**

449 JRS, SCT and AMJ conceived, designed, and supervised the study. JRS, RVV, BEAS, HSB and

450 SRG conducted the study. JRS analyzed the data and wrote the manuscript, which was further

451 revised and edited by AMJ, RVV, and SCT. All the authors read and approved the final manuscript.

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453

454 **Figure 1:** Line drawings of *Cruzia tentaculata* recovered from the molluscs in the present study,
455 based on light microscopy. A) side view of the anterior region of a nematode recovered from
456 *Achatina fulica*; B) side view of the posterior region of a nematode from *A. fulica*; C) Lateral view
457 of a whole specimen recovered from *Latipes erinaceus*. Scale bar=100 μ m.

458

459 **Figure 2:** Photomicrographs of the *Cruzia tentaculata* larvae recovered from *A. fulica*; A) Anterior
460 extremity, showing the excretory pore (ep), bulb, and pre-bulbar dilatation; (a) details of the
461 excretory pore in lateral view; B) Cephalic extremity showing the labial papillae and the teeth (t),
462 apical view; b) Trilabial mouth, apical view; C) Pre-bulbar dilatation (pb) and well developed bulb;
463 D) Lateral lines (arrows), transversal section; E) Posterior extremity, lateral view; (e) detail of the
464 extremity of the tail; F) anus (a), with prominent opening lateral view and a pair of anal glands
465 (arrow).

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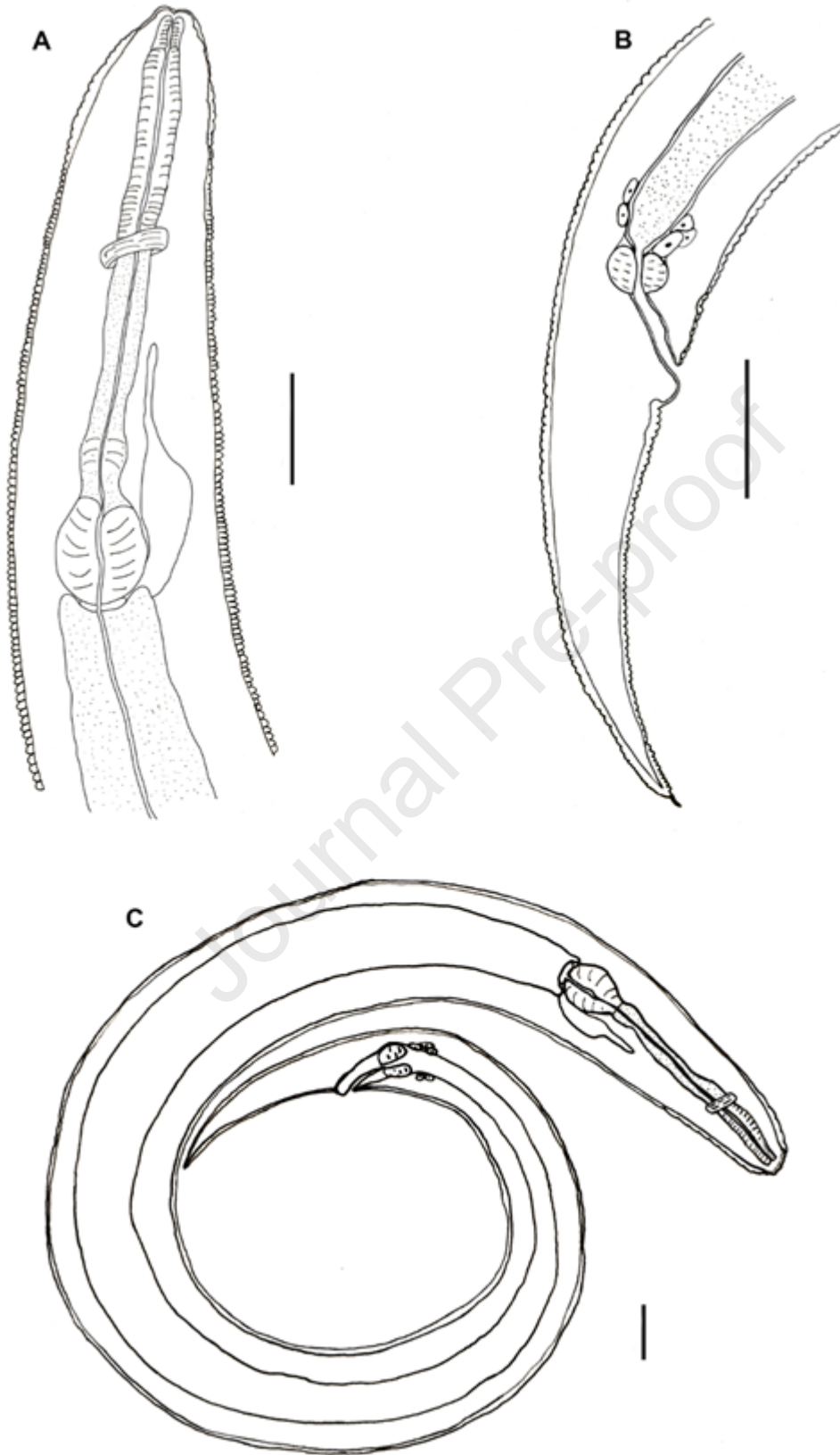
467 **Figure 3:** Scanning Electron Microscope images of a *Cruzia tentaculata* larvae recovered from
468 *Achatina fulica*: A) Anterior extremity and detail of the apical view showing the oral opening; B)
469 Cephalic extremity with labial papillae and phasmids (arrows), apical view; C) Lateral view
470 showing the lateral line (arrow); D) posterior region, lateral view showing the lateral line (arrow);
471 E) posterior region, ventral view, and (e) detail of the anus.

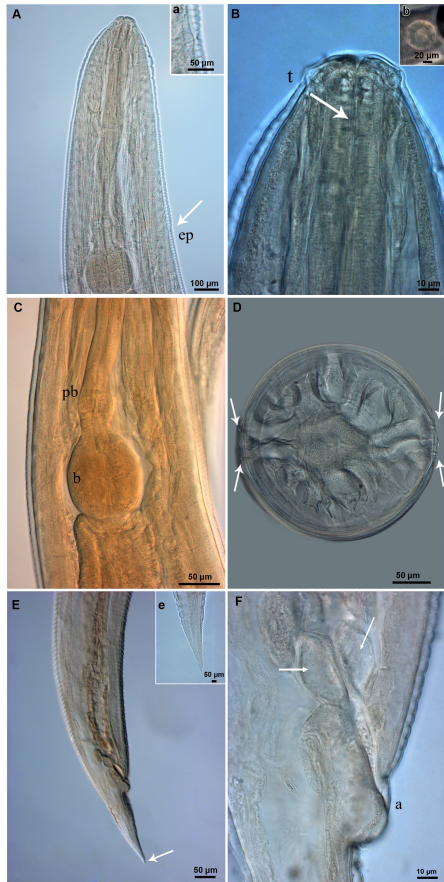
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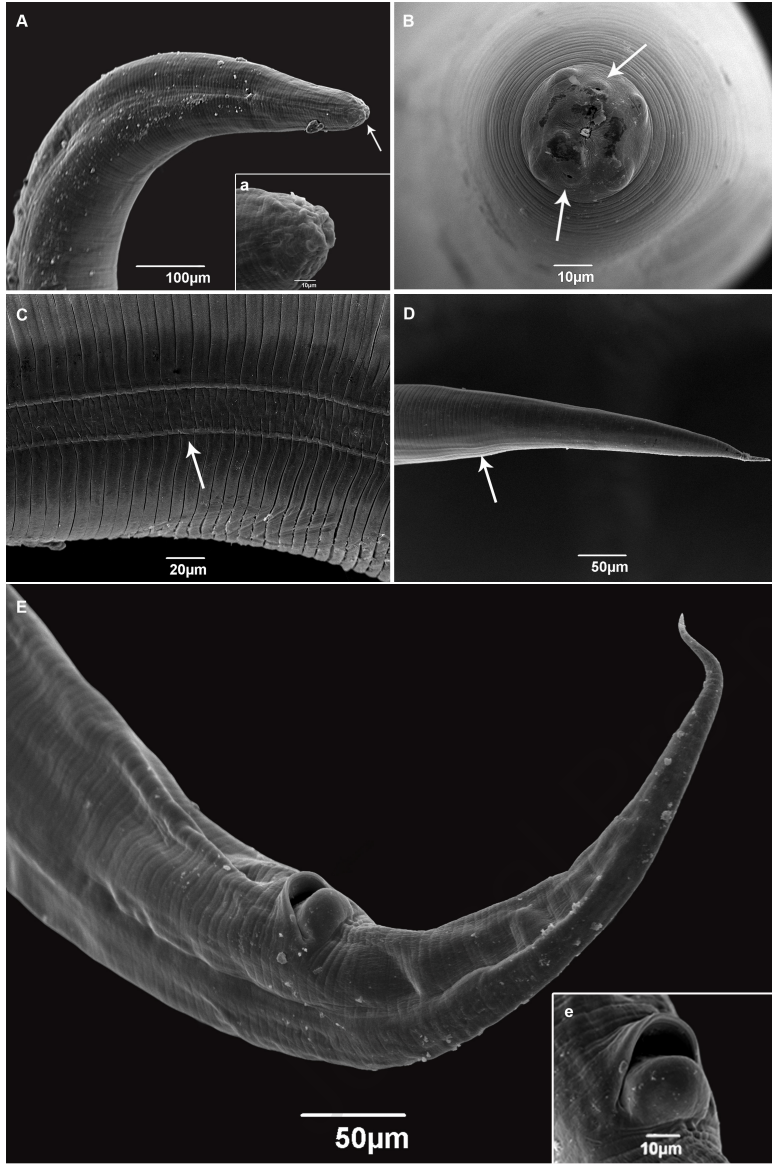
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HIGHLIGHTS

- First report of *Cruzia tentaculata* as heteroxenous life cycle involving *A. fulica*;
- Integrative taxonomy of *C. tentaculata* larvae by morphology and MT-CO1 and 18S rRNA;
- *C. tentaculata* in both opossum and terrestrial molluscs;
- Infected molluscs with *C. tentaculata* have been found in urban and preserved areas
- *Strongyluris*-Like reported in previous studies infecting *A. fulica* may represent *C. tentaculata*.

COMPETING INTERESTS

All the authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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