

Divergence of an introduced population of the Swimbladder-nematode *Anguillicola crassus* - a transcriptomic perspective



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Abstract

The ability to expand into new environments and niches, despite being highly adapted for survival in their angestammten environment, is a fascinating feat of organisms. The propensity of *Anguillicola crassus* to capture new hosts can serve as a model for an extreme case of this, in which parasites acquire new hosts. Selection in such new environments leading to adaptation is considered a driving force of divergence and thus for the origin of species and biotic diversity.

Gene regulatory networks, as a bridge between genotype and phenotype, are thought to play a central role both in the response to stress (e.g. from sofar unexperienced environmental stressors) and in the divergence and eventually establishment of reproductive barriers between populations.

In the present project the differences in gene-expression in *A. crassus* populations should be illuminated. The parasite was introduced to Europe 30 years ago, spread successfully in a new host and established stable populations.

Zusammenfassung

Die Fähigkeit sich in neuen Umgebungen und Nischen auszubreiten, obwohl sie höchst angepasst an ihren angestammten Lebensraum sind, stellt eine faszinierende Fähigkeit von Lebewesen dar. Der Wechsel der Wirtsart durch *Anguillicola crassus* kann als Modell für einen Extremfall dieses Vorganges gesehen werden, bei dem Parasiten neue Wirte besiedeln. Selektion in solch einer neuen Umgebung, die zu einer Anpassung führt gilt als ein treibende Kraft für Divergenz und so zum Entstehen neuer Arten und biologischer Vielfalt. Gen-regulatorische Netzwerke, als eine Brücke zwischen Genotyp und Phenotyp, haben eine zentrale Rolle sowohl in der Antwort auf Stress (etwa durch eine veränderte Umwelt) als auch in der Entwicklung von Barrieren für die Fortpflanzung.

Im hier vorgestellten Projekt sollen die Unterschiede im Transkriptom zweier Populationen von *A. crassus* beleuchtet werden. Der Parasit wurde vor 30 Jahren nach Europa eingeschleppt, wo er sich erfolgreich in einer neuen Wirtsart ausbreitet und etablierte.

To my grandmother Ruth my brother Roman and my wife Silvia

Acknowledgements

I would like to acknowledge the thousands of individuals who have coded for free software and open source projects. It is due to their efforts that code is shared, tested, challenged and improved. Sharing their intellectual property as a general good, they serve progress in science and technology.

Contents

List of Figures	v
List of Tables	vii
Glossary	ix
1 Introduction	1
1.1 The study organism: <i>Anguillicola crassus</i>	1
1.1.1 Ecological significance	1
1.1.2 Evolutionary significance	6
1.1.2.1 Divergence of <i>A. crassus</i> populations	7
1.1.2.2 Interest in <i>A. crassus</i> based on its phylogeny	8
1.2 Functional insights from other nematodes used to formulate hypotheses for <i>A. crassus</i>	13
1.3 Advances in sequencing technology enabeling this study	14
1.3.1 Pyro-sequencing	16
1.3.2 Illumina-Solexa sequencing	17
1.4 Gene-expression and evolutionary divergence	17
2 Aims of the project	19
2.1 Preliminary aims	19
2.2 Final aim	19
3 Pilot sequencing (Sanger method)	21
4 Pyrosequencing of the <i>A. crassus</i> transcriptome	27

CONTENTS

5	NlaIII-tag sequencing (Super-SAGE)	29
5.1	Comparison with pyrosequencing-data	29
6	Transcriptomic divergence inferred from expression differences in common garden experiments	31
6.1	Infection experiments	31
6.2	Examination of data-quality	31
6.3	Expression differences between male and female	31
6.4	Expression differences between worms in European and Japanese Eels .	31
6.5	Expression differences between worms in from the European and Taiwanese worm-population	31
7	Discussion	33
7.1	Sanger-method pilot-sequencing	33
7.2	454-pyrosequencing	33
8	Materials & methods	35
8.1	Sampling of worms from wild eels	35
8.1.1	Sampling in Taiwan	35
8.1.2	Sampling of European worms	35
8.2	RNA-extraction and cDNA synthesis for Sanger- and 454-sequencing . .	36
8.3	Cloning and Sanger-sequencing	36
8.4	Bioinformatic analysis of pilot Sanger-sequencing	37
8.5	Bioinformatic analysis of 454-pyro-sequencing	38
	References	41

List of Figures

1.1	Transcontinental dispersal of <i>A. crassus</i> :	3
1.2	Life-cycle of <i>A. crassus</i>	4
1.3	Difference between worms in the swimbladder of the European eel and the Japanese eel	6
1.4	Differences in developmental speed	7
1.5	Phylogeny of the genus <i>Anguillicola</i> based on nLSU	10
1.6	Phylogeny of the genus <i>Anguillicola</i> based on COXI	11
1.7	Phylogeny of nematode clade III based on nSSU	12
1.8	Falling sequencing costs	15
3.1	Proportion of rRNA in different libraries for <i>A. crassus</i> and <i>A. japonica</i>	22
3.2	GC-content of sequences from <i>A. japonica</i> and <i>A. crassus</i>	24

LIST OF FIGURES

List of Tables

3.1	Screening statistics for pilot sequencing	23
3.2	Annotaion of putative host-derived sequences in the <i>A. crassus</i> -dataset	26
8.1	PCR protocol for insert amplification	36

GLOSSARY

Glossary

DNA Desoxy Ribonucleic Acid; a chemical molecule bearing the heritable genetic information in all life on earth

dpi Days post infection; In infection experiments, a point in time given in

days after an individual has been infected

ORF Open Reading Frame; a region in a DNA-sequence beginning with a start-codon and not containing a stop-codon. For example a region within a processed mRNA transcript being transcribed into a protein

SNP Single Nucleotide Polymorphism; variation occurring in a single nucleotide between two closely related homologous sequences. Leading to for example to allelic differences within a population or even the homologous chromosomes in an individual

GLOSSARY

1

Introduction

1.1 The study organism: *Anguillicola crassus*

1.1.1 Ecological significance

Anguillicola crassus Kuwahara, Niimi and Ithakagi 1974 (1, 2) is a swimbladder nematode naturally parasitizing the Japanese eel (*Anguilla japonica*) indigenous to East-Asia. In the last 30 years anthropogenic expansions of its geographic- and host-range to new continents and host-species attracted interest of limnologists and ecologists. The newly acquired hosts are, like the native host, freshwater eels of the genus *Anguilla*, and the use of the definitive host seems to be limited to this genus (3). However the nematode displayed a high versatility and plasticity in most other aspects of its life, and this has been proposed as one of the reasons for its success invading new continents (4).

A. crassus colonized Europe in the early 1980ies and spread through almost all populations of the European eel (*Anguilla anguilla*) during the following decades (reviewed in (5)). This spread includes populations of the European eel in North Africa(6, 7). At the present day *A. crassus* is found in all but the northernmost population of the European eel in Iceland (8). It has to be noted however, that low water temperature (9) and salinity (10) limit the dispersal of *A. crassus* larvae and thus high epidemiological parameters are rather expected in freshwater and in southern latitudes.

Wielgoss et al. (11) studied the population structure of *A. crassus* using microsatellite markers and inferred details about the colonization process and history. These

1. INTRODUCTION

details are in very good agreement with previous knowledge about the history of introduction and dispersal. Therefore the process of introduction and spread can be considered very well illuminated:

A. crassus was first recorded in 1882 in North-West Germany, and this record was published in a German fishery magazine in 1985 (12). The import of Japanese Eels from Taiwan to the harbor of Bremerhaven in 1980, was soon identified as most likely source of introduction (13). Taiwan as the most likely geographical source of the introduction was in turn also inferred from population structure by Wielgoss et al. Furthermore, from the fact that genetic diversity is highest in northern regions of Germany and gradually declines to the south, they concluded a single introduction event to Germany as source for all populations of *A. crassus* in the comprehensive set of investigated populations of the European eel. This signal was persistent together with a strong signal for anthropogenic mixing of eel and parasite populations due to restocking (14). However a recent study of Laetsch et al. (15) found additional haplotypes for Cytochrome C oxidase subunit II in Turkey, and a second introduction to the Eastern Mediterranean seems possible. These Turkish haplotypes cluster with Taiwanese haplotypes and the introduction source would be similar to the main introduction.

A second colonization of *A. crassus*, succeeded in North-America. Since the 1990s populations of the American eel (*Anguilla rostrata*) have been invaded as novel hosts (17, 18, 19). Wielgoss et al. identified Japan as the most likely source of this American population of *A. crassus*. Laetsch et al. (15) showed that all source populations for different introductions are from one of two clearly separated clades of *A. crassus*.

Finally *A. crassus* has been detected in three indigenous species of freshwater eels on the island of Reunion near Madagascar (16).

Copepods and ostracods serve as intermediate hosts of *A. crassus* in Asia, as well as in the introduced ranges (20). In these hosts L2 larvae develop to L3 larvae infective for the final host. Once ingested by an eel they migrate through the intestinal wall and via the body cavity into the swimbladder wall (21), i.e. using a trypsin-like proteinase (22). In the swimbladder wall L3 larvae hatch to L4 larvae. After a final moult from the L4 stage to adults (via a short preadult stage) the parasites inhabit the lumen of the swimbladder, where they eventually mate. Eggs containing L2 larvae are released via the eel's *ductus pneumaticus* into its intestine and finally into the water (23).

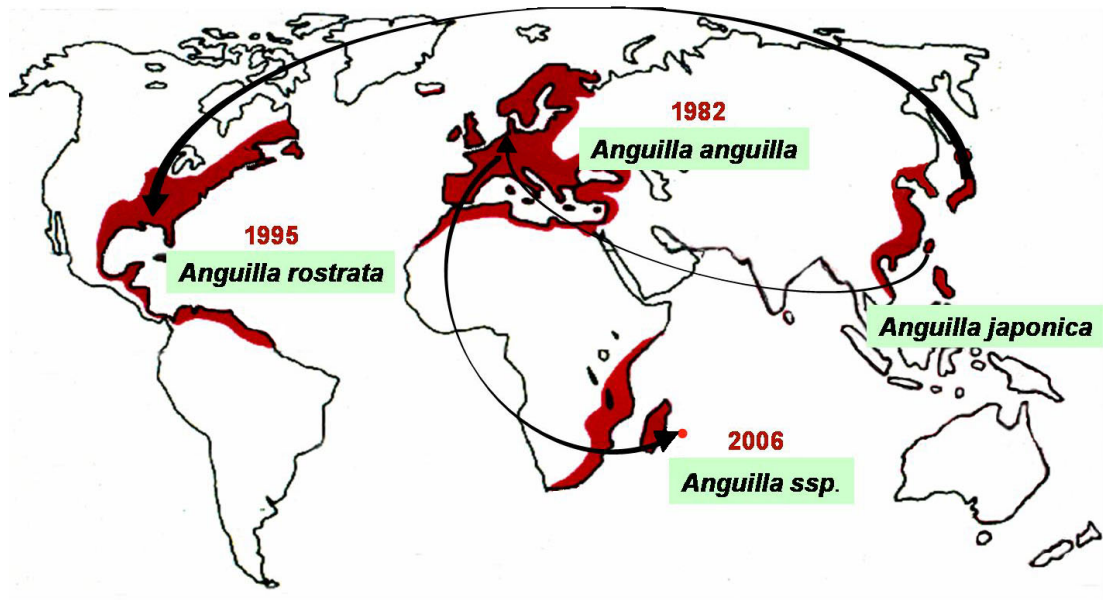


Figure 1.1: Transcontinental dispersal of *A. crassus*: - Invasions of different continents by different source-population are illustrated using arrows. Red color indicates the range of the eel species targeted by the invasion. Modified from (15), based on data reviewed in (5) and newer findings in (11) and (16)

1. INTRODUCTION

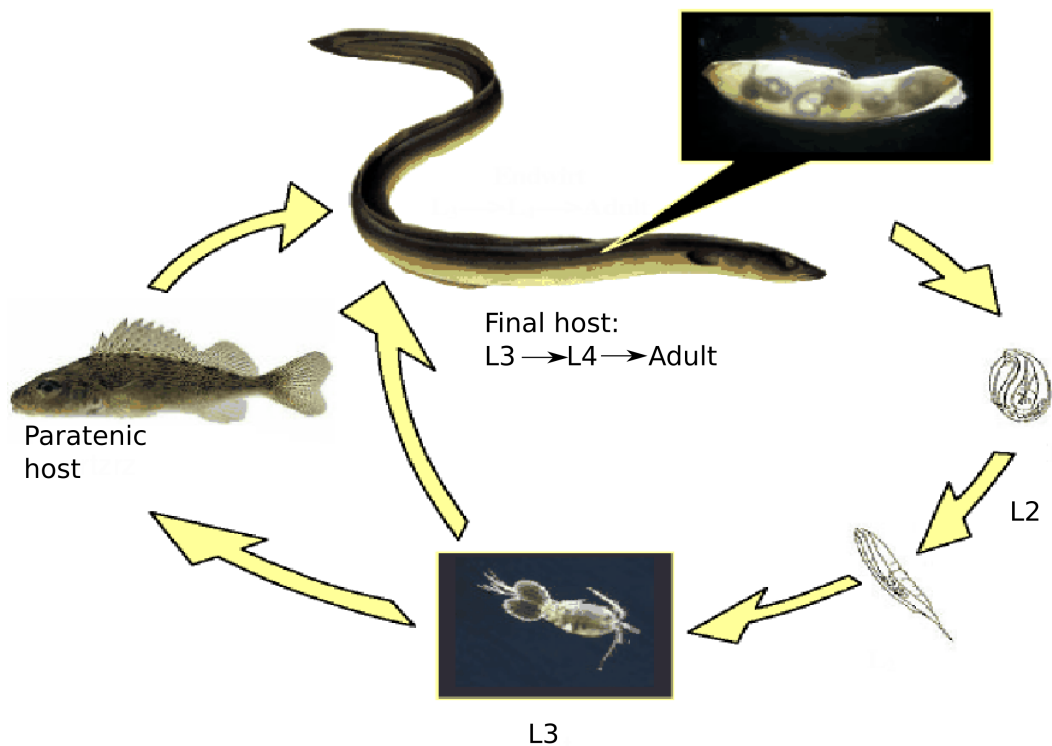


Figure 1.2: Life-cycle of *A. crassus* - Adult females deposit already hatched L2 in the lumen of the swimbladder. Larvae migrate through the *ductus pneumaticus* and the intestine into the open water. Copepods serve as intermediate host where infective L3-larvae develop. These can be transported and accumulated in paratenic hosts or directly ingested by an eel. They migrate through the eel's intestinal wall into the swimbladder wall. After the final molt to adults, worms arrive in the lumen of the swimbladder, feed on blood and reproduce. Modified from (15).

1.1 The study organism: *Anguillicola crassus*

One of the possible differences between Asian and European population of *A. crassus* is the widespread use of paratenic hosts in European waters (24, 25). Such a use of paratenic hosts has not been reported from the Asian range of the parasite and there are some speculation that the use and availability of paratenic hosts could be a factor explaining the success of invasion or even the higher epidemiological parameters in Europe (25). However the lack of evidence for the use of paratenic host in Asia could as well be a a result of the lack of appropriate studies in Asian water systems.

The impact of *A. crassus* on the European eel has been a major focus of research during the past decades. Pathogenic effects on the eels such as a thickening (26) and infammation (27) of the swimbladder wall, can lead to mortality of eels, when combined with co-stressors (28). Especially the changes in the tissue of the swimbladder wall have been shown to influence swimming behavior and it has been speculated that eel may fail to complete their spawning migration (29). Anguillicolosis (the condition caused by *Anguillicola*) has therefore been speculated to be a cofactor in the decline of European eel stocks (30) caused by overfishing of glass-eels (31).

High prevalences of the parasite of above 70% (e.g. (32)), as well as high intesities of infections were reported, throughout the newly colonized area (33). In the natural host in Asia prevalences and intesities are lower (36).

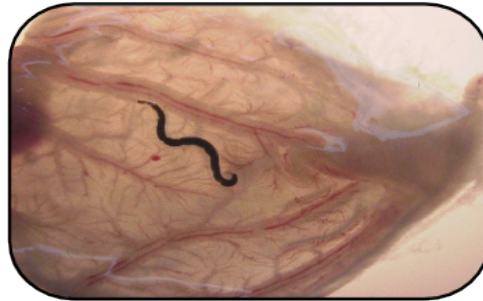
These differences in abundance and intensity of *A. crassus* infections in East Asia compared to Europe are commonly attributed to the different host-parasite relations in the final eel host permitting a differential survival of the larval and the adult parasites (34). High epidemiological parameters are attributed to the inadequate immune-response of the European Eel (37). While the Japanese eel is capable of killing larvae of the parasite after vaccination (38) or under high infection pressure (39), responses in *An. anguilla* have hallmarks of pathology. Recently, data from experimental infections of European eels with *A. crassus* have been published (35) that show that in this host the parasite undergoes (under experimental conditions) a density-dependent regulation keeping the number of worms within a certain range.

Interestingly the differences in the two host also affect the size and life-history of the worm: In European eels the nematodes are bigger and develop and reproduce faster (34).

1. INTRODUCTION



Parasites in the swimbladder
of the European eel



Parasites in the swimbladder
of the Japanese eel

Figure 1.3: Difference between worms in the swimbladder of the European eel and the Japanese eel - Note the bigger size and higher number of worm in a typically infected European eel. In comparison in the Japanese eel worms are smaller and intensities of infection are much lower. The dark brown matter is ingested eel-blood visible through the transparent nematode body- and intestinal wall, the white matter are developing eggs and larvae in ovaries of female *A. crassus*.

1.1.2 Evolutionary significance

With a view on the potential co-evolution (i.e. adaptation), of the eel-hosts to *A. crassus* the katadromous reproduction of freshwater eels might play an important role. Individuals of both species *An. anguilla* and *An. japonica* migrate thousands of kilometers to reproduce in the area of the Sargasso sea CITE!!. Eel larvae then migrate to their freshwater habitats with the help of oceanic currents. While hybrids between the two Atlantic eel species have only been reported from Iceland !!CITE, European eels as a species are considered panmictic (40): Signals for population structure, interpreted as evidence against panmixia first (41), have been shown to be an artifact of temporal variation between cohorts of juvenile eels (42, 43, 44). Such panmixia would reduce the effectiveness of selection, when uninfected populations are participating in reproduction.

A decline of epidemiological parameters for European populations of *A. crassus* has been hypothesised based on data published over two decades (33). However this decline has not been confirmed in an explicit meta-analysis. If it be present, possible explanations would include lower population density of the host, an evolution of the eel host towards better resistance, and an evolution of *A. crassus* towards lower infectivity.

1.1.2.1 Divergence of *A. crassus* populations

Common-garden experiments (also termed “transplant experiments”) are a method to identify genetic components of phenotypic differences between potentially diverged population of a species, used for almost as long as scientists investigate evolution (45, 46). In the reciprocal version of these experiments, representatives of each population intended to be studied are raised in the other population’s natural environment. A modification of this would be to raise each population in an experimental setup under conditions resembling the environment of the other population.

When applied to parasites infecting two different hosts such an experiment can be best described as “cross-inoculation experiment under common garden conditions” (?). In a recent study using this method both European and Japanese eels were infected under laboratory conditions with worms from three geographic origins; Southern Germany, Poland and Taiwan.

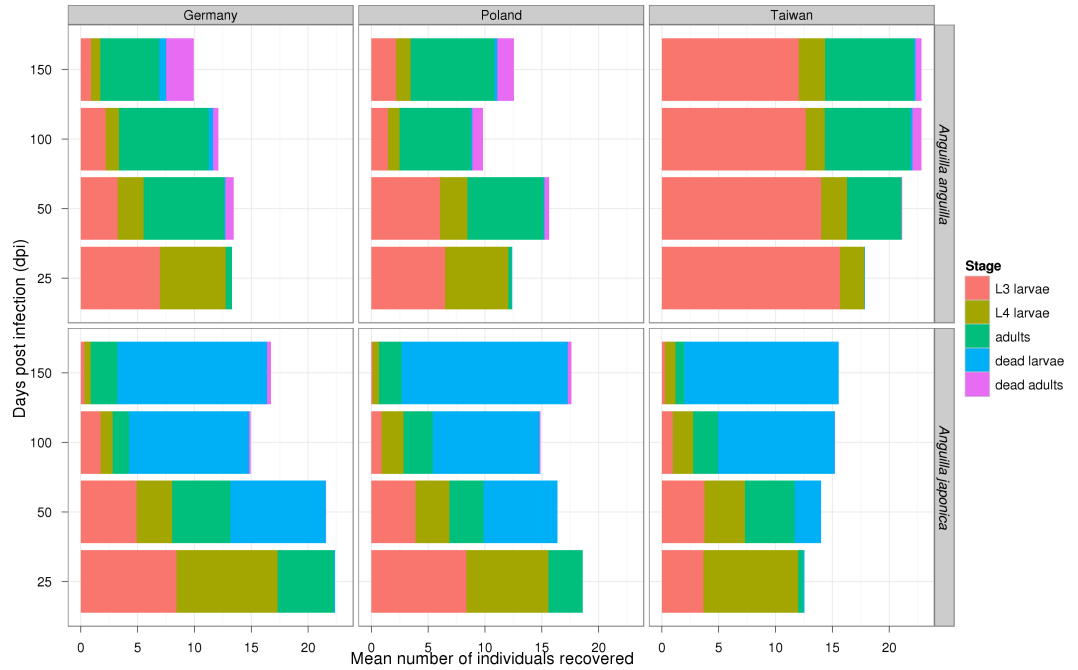


Figure 1.4: Differences in developmental speed - data courtesy of Urszula Weclawski

In these experiments differences between the two European populations and the Taiwanese population of worms manifested. Differences were especially (but not

1. INTRODUCTION

solely) visible in the early stages of the life-cycle. In the European eel the number of **L3 larvae** from the Taiwanese population of worms was higher than from European worms. From the Taiwanese population less **L4 larvae** were observed at 25 dpi and the levels of this larval stage were stable during the infection, in contrast the numbers of L4 for the European populations decreased with the time. Additionally up to 50 dpi there were less living **adults** observed for worm from the Taiwanese population, fewer **dead adult** worms were recorded for the Taiwanese population beginning from 50 dpi.

In the Japanese eel fewer **L3 larvae** at 25dpi were observed from the Taiwanese population compared to the European population of worms. Additionally more **L4 larvae** at this point in time and fewer living **adults** at 25 and 150 dpi, as well as fewer **dead adults** beginning from 50 dpi from worms of Taiwanese origin compared to worms of European origin.

These findings taken can be consolidated to the interpretation that an increase in the speed of development was observed in the European population.

Interpretation of morphological characters in these studies proved difficult

Such experiments have their problems because environmental factors, such as the general quality of the environment (i.e. water temperature) can interact with the host-environment (?).

1.1.2.2 Interest in *A. crassus* based on its phylogeny

The genus *Anguillicola* comprises five morphospecies (47): In East Asia in addition to *A. crassus*, *A. globiceps* Yamaguti, 1935 (48) parasitises *Anguilla japonica*. *A. novaezealandiae* is endemic to New Zealand and South-Eastern Australia in *Anguilla australis* and *A. australiensis* Johnston et Mawson, 1940 (49) parasitizes the long-fin eel *Anguilla reinhardtii* in North-Eastern Australia. Finally *A. papernai* is known from the African longfin eel *Anguilla mossambica* in Southern Afrika and Madagascar.

In 2006 Moravec promoted the the former subgenus *Anguillicoloides* comprising all species but *A. globiceps* to the rank of a genus (2). This subdivision of the Anguillicolidae in two genera was revised based on the notion that monophyly of *Anguillicoloides* had to be rejected, *Anguillicolides crassus* was restored to *Anguillicola crassus* in CITE!! In the same study on the phylogeny of the *Anguillicolidae* *A. crassus* was identified as the basal species in the genus, analysing nuclear genes SSU and LSU (see

1.1 The study organism: *Anguillicola crassus*

figure 1.5) or as forming a clade with the oceanic species with *A. globiceps* and *A. papernai* in a sister clade (see figure 1.6).

Neither of these phylogenetic hypotheses is consistent with the phylogeny of the eel-hosts without host-switching: Assuming the establishment of *Anguillicola* in an ancestral Indo- pacific host at least three host-switch events are needed, even to explain classical (non-recent, non-anthropogenic) host-parasite associations. Two of these host-capture events must have spanned the major splits in the eel phylogeny (50): Oceanic *Anguillicola* must have captured hosts transitioning between the clade of *An. reinhardtii* and *An. japonica* to the clade in which *An. australis* is found. Finally the the most basal have species of freshwater eels *An. mossambica* must have been captured.

The recent anthropogenic host-switch of *A. crassus* from *An. japonica* to *An. anguilla* and *An. rostrata* constitutes additional acquisition of phylogenetically well separated hosts. This affinity for host-switching may be an evolutionary relict found only in one clade of *A. crassus* !!CITE Laetsch.

The to date most likely phylogenetic hypothesis places the genus *Anguillicola* (the only genus in the family Anguillicolidae) at a basal position in the Spirurina (clade III *sensu* (51)), one of 5 major clades of nematodes (52, 53). The Spirurina exclusively exhibit a animal-parasitic lifestyle and comprise important human pathogens as well as prominent parasites of livestock (e.g. the Filarioidea and Ascarididae). A finer subdivision of the Spirurina into Spirurina A, and the Sister clades Spriurnina B and C can be seen in figure 1.7.

Within the Spirurina B an enormous phylogentic diversity of the definitive hosts can be observed ranging from fresh-water fish as hosts for the Anguillicolidae to cartilaginous fish for Echinocephalus, mammals parasitized by Gnathostoma and Linstowinema to reptiles as hosts for Tanqua.

A complex life-cycle ...

This phylogenetic position makes the Anguillicolidae an interesting system in the endeavour to understand the emergence of parasitism in Spirurina and as an “outgroup” for functional studies of parasitism in this clade.

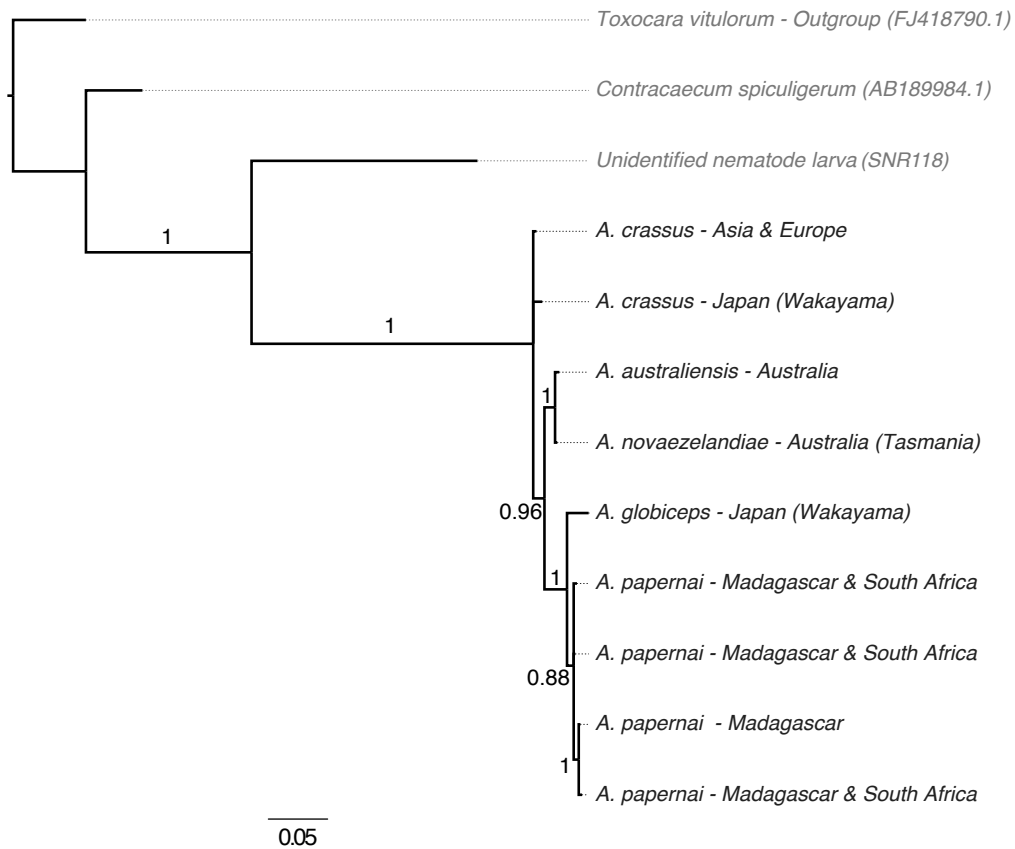


Figure 1.5: Phylogeny of the genus *Anguillicola* based on nLSU - Phylogram inferred from large ribosomal subunit of *Anguillicola* and outgroups using Bayesian Inference. Lables on internal branches indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities. From

1.1 The study organism: *Anguillicola crassus*

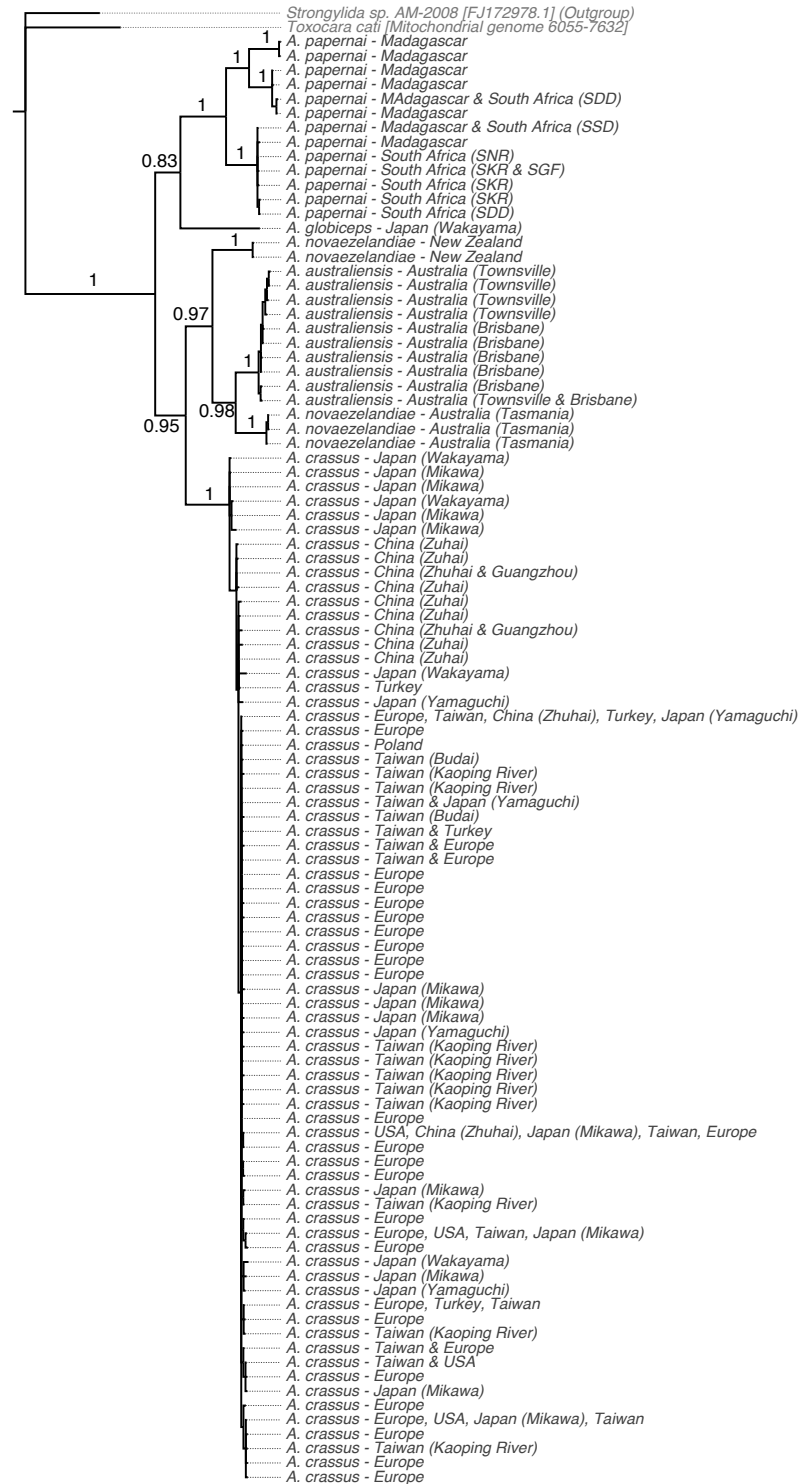


Figure 1.6: Phylogeny of the genus *Anguillicola* based on COXI - Phylogram inferred for *Anguillicola* based on mitochondrial Cytochrome C oxidase subunit I and out-groups using Bayesian Inference. Lables on internal branches indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities. From

1. INTRODUCTION

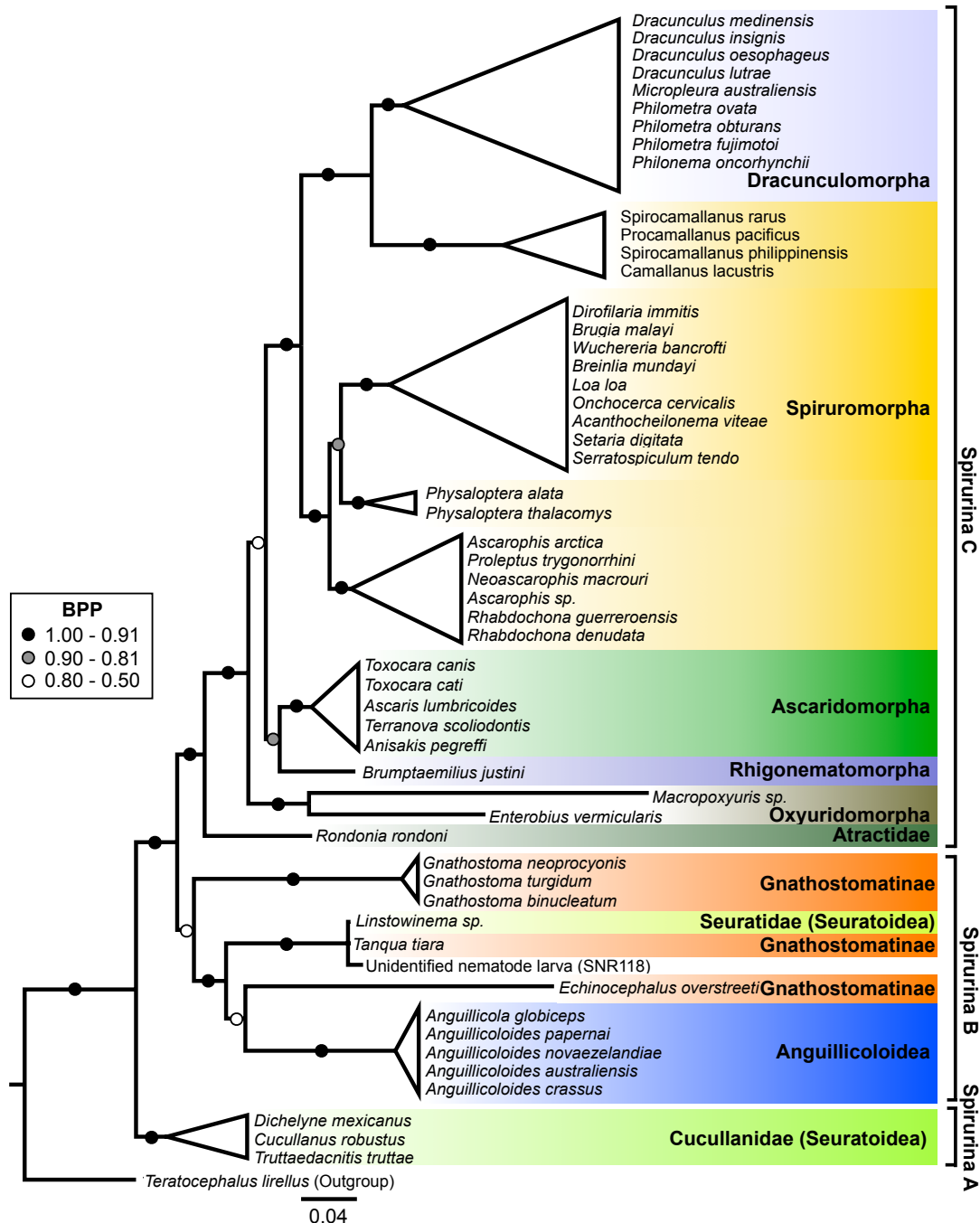


Figure 1.7: Phylogeny of nematode clade III based on nSSU - Phylogram inferred from nuclear small ribosomal subunit for Spirurina using Bayesian Inference. Branches are collapsed to highlight major groups. Labels on internal branches indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities. From

1.2 Functional insights from other nematodes used to formulate hypotheses for *A.crassus*

In 1998 *Caenorhabditis elegans* became the first multicellular organism with a sequenced genome (57). Soon it was noted, that in addition to its use as a general model system for the metazoa, knowledge gained in this species has the potential to be even more valuable in the phylum Nematoda (58). The breadth of genomic information available for *C. elegans* to date is illustrated by a recent publication of the Gerstein et al. (59): detailed annotation of the diverse functional genomic elements and their interactions by the modENCODE consortium.

The complete genome sequence of the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (57) and *Caenorhabditis briggsae* (60), as well as the draft genome of *Brugia malayi* (61) provide useful sources for mining databases for homologous sequences.

Emerging genomes from *Trichinella spiralis* (62), *Meloidogyne incognita* (63), *Meloidogyne hapla* (64) *Pristionchus pacificus* the pinewood nematode *Bursaphelenchus xylophilus* (65)

The lack of genomic information in many species of nematodes promoted use of ESTs as a tool for gene-discovery and partial genomes *sensu* (66) were successfully interrogated for a large array of genes interesting for different scientific communities. In nematode parasites of vertebrates, pathogenic factors were described as potential vaccine candidates (67).

Cystein-proteinase inhibitors (cystatins), Serin proteinase inhibitors (serpins) were identified

Some functionally interesting genes in this respect are thought to be under diversifying selection in an arms-race between host and parasite (54).

That positive or diversifying selection on parasite proteins from the host-parasite interface can lead to a overabundance of non-synonymous changes (altering the protein sequence) over synonymous polymorphisms e.g. in *Plasmodium* (55).

Memory component of the vertebrate immune system has been thought to be a driving positive selection on antigens of microorganisms (56). The immune systems of teleost has a immune system with interstin implications for the eels response to parasites.

1. INTRODUCTION

Homologues of mammalian cytokines were identified, which are believed to interact with receptors of mammalian

The abundant larval transcripts of *B. malay* (Bm-ALT) have been identified in the transcriptome-projects first CITE! as a gene family (68)

Bm-VAL-1

(69, 70, 71, 72))

In some of these studies secreted proteins were in the center of interest. They could potentially be excreted by the nematode to interact with the host's immune system. The detection of signal-peptides for secretion using *in silico* analysis of ESTs has been used to highlight candidate genes for example in *Nippostrongylus brasiliensis* (73), and across all nematode ESTs (74).

Proteomic analysis in *Brugia malayi* (75, 76), *Heligmosomoides polygyrus* (77) and *Haemonchus contortus* (78) was able to find evidence for excretion for some of the protein-products and to highlight additional candidate genes.

1.3 Advances in sequencing technology enabeling this study

For almost tree decades the method developed by Frederick Sanger (79) was the only practical choice for determining the sequence of nucleic acid. Although modern machines use the chain-termitaion method combined with capillary gel electorphoresis (80) in a highly paralyzed way, costs and labour constrained sequencing to a well established laboratory-model organisms (the bacterium *Escherichia coli*, 1997 (81); the baker's yeast *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, 1996 (82); the nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* 1998 (57), the fruit fly *Drosophila melanogaster*, 2000 (83); the mouse *Mus musculus*, 2002 (84); to name a few together with the year of publication their genome sequence).

This "first generation of genomics" culminated in the publication of the human genome in 2001 (85).

In this context a common characteristic of all DNA-sequencing methods has to be emphasized: Read-length is usually shorter than the length of the target molecule to be sequenced. This potential problem is solved by oversampling the target molecule, producing overlapping sequence. The amount of redundancy of the overlap is termed coverage (e.g. 10-fold coverage means a base is sequenced 10 times redundantly) the method as such is referred to as shotgun-sequencing and has - shortly after sequencing

1.3 Advances in sequencing technology enabeling this study

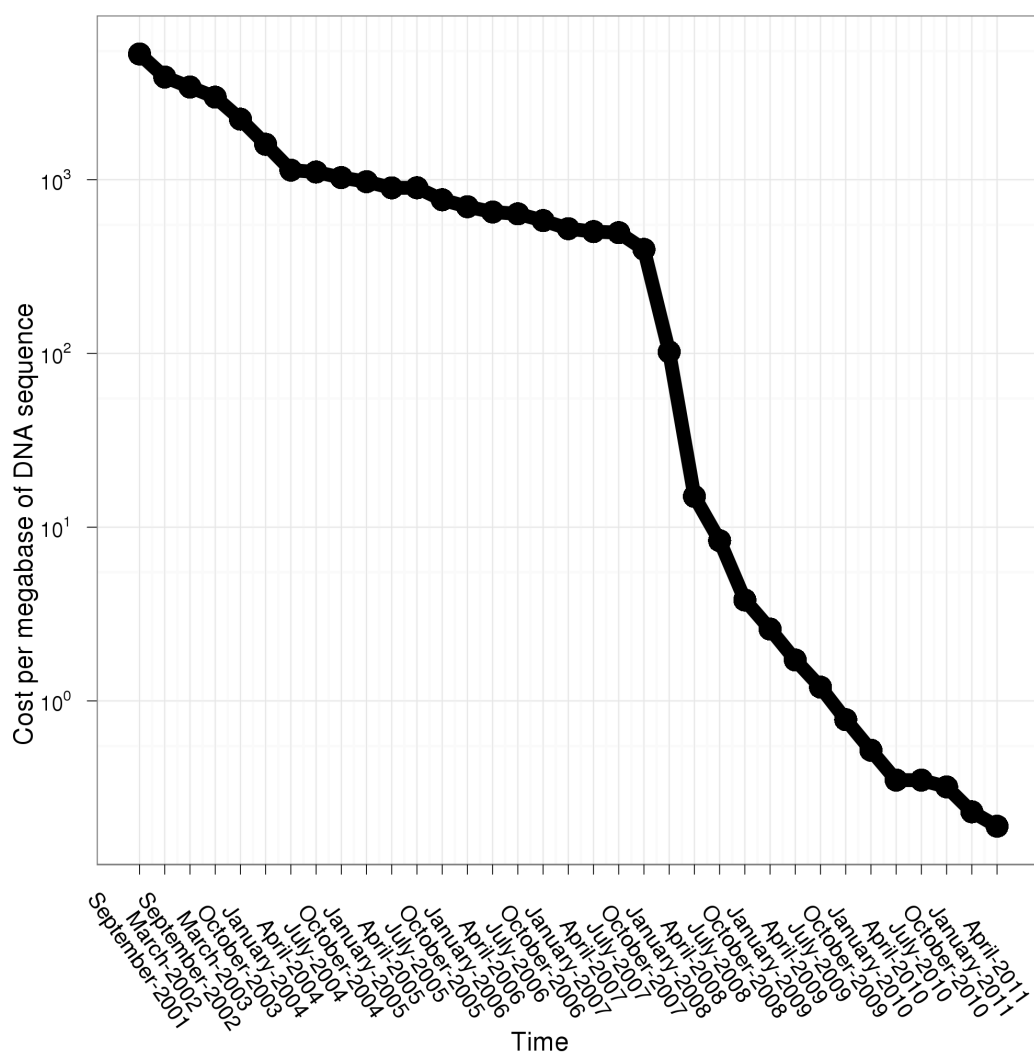


Figure 1.8: Falling sequencing costs - Sequencing costs falling due to advances in Solexa-sequencing: Due to improved read-length and data-volume on this platform per base sequencing-prices for many applications tumble into free fall. Data provided by National Human Genome Research Institute, NHGRI.

1. INTRODUCTION

chemistry - been described by Sanger (86). Soon computer programs were necessary to align sequences, to compute overlaps and consensus sequences (87) and the process of computationally reconstructing the target molecule was termed sequence-assembly (88).

Advances in sequencing technology (often termed “Next Generation Sequencing”; NGS), provide the opportunity for rapid and cost-effective generation of genome-scale data. The technologies described as NGS have in common that they use radically new chemistry compared to the Sanger-method, up to date all these methods produce much more, but shorter reads than classical sanger sequencing. This fostered use and development of new methods to assemble large-scale shotgun sequences, as higher coverage but shorter read-length (and also lower accuracy) are increasing the computational complexity of the assembly-problem (reviewed in (89)).

NGS technologies are increasingly used in studies on organisms with ecological and evolutionary significance. Such ecological and evolutionary “model organisms” often lack reference genomes to guide the assembly-process.

“Genome-scale” sequencing in the broadest context can also mean sequencing comprehensive transcriptome datasets: Such transcriptomic datasets are still less expensive than genomic data-sets in terms sequencing costs and analytical needs.

1.3.1 Pyro-sequencing

see also

The longer read length of 454-sequencing (90) compared to other NGS technologies, allows *de novo* assembly of Expressed Sequence Tags (ESTs) in organisms lacking previous genomic or transcriptomic data (for a comprehensive list of studies using this approach before Oct 2010 see (91)).

A study on trout in Lake Superior (92) used an approach similar to the approach in the work presented here: Fish showing two different phenotypes were raised in a common environment, demonstrating the genetic fixation of the phenotypic trait. 454 sequencing was then used to measure the gene expression levels and to identify 40 genes from two pathways being differently expressed and therefore showing divergent evolution of gene-expression.

1.3.2 Illumina-Solexa sequencing

As shorter read-length but higher throughput of the Illumina-Solexa platform provides superior means for gene expression analysis (93):

RNA-seq (94)

Expression-tags (SuperSAGE (95)) provide the benefit of classical SAGE-analysis (96) with those of the ultra high throughput of Illumina-Solexa sequencing.

1.4 Gene-expression and evolutionary divergence

Today, both theoretical arguments as well as field and laboratory data suggest that evolution, including divergence of populations, can occur very rapidly given the right selective pressure. Such situations provide us with the opportunity of examining how divergence and even speciation work at the molecular genetic level (97) .

Divergence in gene-expression is thought to be a factor for the establishment of reproductive barriers through hybrid

In *Drosophila* the effect of cis- and trans-regulatory differences (98)

In *Drosophila* hybrid sterility in hybrids between species (99)

1. INTRODUCTION

2

Aims of the project

The difference of the immune attack on *A. crassus* in the two different hosts provides an opportunity to investigate the parasite's response to different “immune environments” on a transcriptomic basis.

2.1 Preliminary aims

Establishment of transcriptomic and genomic resources,

2.2 Final aim

2. AIMS OF THE PROJECT

3

Pilot sequencing (Sanger method)

In preparation of high-throughput transcriptome sequencing of the swimbladder nematode *A. crassus* expressed sequence tags (ESTs) were generated using traditional Sanger-technology. In total 945 reads from adult *A. crassus* (5 libraries from 4 cDNA preparations, including 541 sequences generated by students in a laboratory course) and 288 reads from liver-tissue of the host species *Anguilla japonica* (3 libraries from 3 cDNA preparations) were sequenced.

Initial quality screening

The initial quality screening of *A. crassus*-sequences revealed a high number of sequences that had to be discarded due to failed sequencing reactions (sequences being too short after quality trimming by `trace2seq`) in the library prepared by students. For sequences of *Anguilla japonica* and the other libraries from *A. crassus* failed sequencing reactions were less common.

In the next screening-step for *A. crassus* 125 (13.23%) and for *Anguilla japonica* 64 (22.22%) of the sequences were excluded because of homopolymer-runs considered artificial. This resulted in 452 of the nematode and 195 of the host reads regarded of sufficient quality for further processing after base-calling and quality screening.

3. PILOT SEQUENCING (SANGER METHOD)

rRNA screening

The further screening of sequences revealed a high abundance of rRNA (see Figure 3.1) ranging from 71.67% to 91.67% of obtained sequences. High abundances of rRNA were also found in the libraries from host liver tissue (see table 3.1), ranging from 71.67% to 77.42% . This contamination in libraries from both species was mainly responsible for a low ammount of sequences beeing of sufficient quality for submission to NCBI-dbEST. At this point for the *A. japonica*-dataset 36 sequences were submitted to NCBI-dbEST under the Library Name “*Anguilla japonica* liver” and were assigned the accession LIBEST.027503 by the curators.

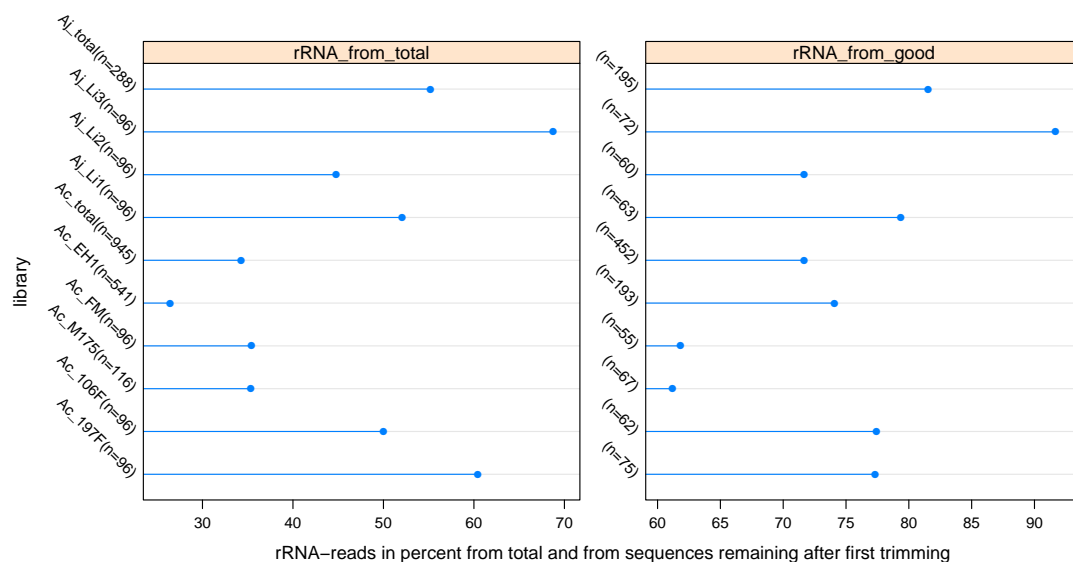


Figure 3.1: Proportion of rRNA in different libraries for *A. crassus* and *A. japonica* - rRNA abundance as proportion of the raw sequencing-reads (rRNA from total) and as proportion of the reads after quality screening (rRNA from good). Libraries starting with “Ac_” are from *A. crassus*, libraries starting with “Aj_” are from *A. japonica*.

Screening for host-contamination

For the *A. crassus*-dataset screening for host-sequences at this stage was regarded necessary based on the notion that a big proportion of the tissue prepared in RNA extraction consisted of eel-blood inside the gut of the worms (see also Figure 1.3). Additionally a bimodal distribution

	short	poly	rRNA	fishpep	good
Ac_197F(n=96)	4	17	58	1	16
Ac_106F(n=96)	25	9	48	0	14
Ac_M175(n=116)	30	19	41	3	23
Ac_FM(n=96)	12	29	34	1	20
Ac_EH1(n=541)	297	51	143	8	42
Ac_total(n=945)	368	125	324	13	115
Aj_Li1(n=96)	10	23	50		13
Aj_Li2(n=96)	10	26	43		17
Aj_Li3(n=96)	9	15	66		6
Aj_total(n=288)	29	64	159		36

Table 3.1: Screening statistics for pilot sequencing - Number of ESTs discarded at each screening-step for single libraries and totals for species. Short, sequence to short in `trace2seq`; poly, sequences with artificial homopolymer-runs from poly-A tails; rRNA, with hits to rRNA databases; fishpep with better hits to host-protein-databases than to nematode protein databases; good, sequences regarded “valid” after all screening steps. Note that the 13 sequences in the *A. crassus*-dataset, for which fish-origin was inferred, were still submitted to NCBI-dbEST.

of GC-content in the *A. crassus*-dataset was observed with one of the modes consistent with the mean GC-content of the ESTs from the Japanese eel.

Comparison of **Blast**- results for these sequences versus nempep4 and a fishprotein-database (derived from NCBI non-redundant), showed that 13 sequences were more likely to originate from host contamination than from *A. crassus*. These 13 sequences in the *A. crassus* data-set were submitted to NCBI-dbEST with a comment, that host origin had been inferred. This reduced the dataset essentially to 115 ESTs. However it has to be noted that these 13 ESTs are still accessible through the same library name “Adult *Anguillicola crassus*” and library-identifier LIBEST_027505 and are taxonomically associated to *A. crassus* on NCBI-dbEST.

After screening of host-sequences the GC-content of *A. crassus* ESTs had a unimodal distribution (see Figure 3.2). *A. crassus* had a lower mean GC-content (37.32 ± 8.36 mean \pm sd) than *Anguilla japonica* (45.79 ± 8.36 mean \pm sd; two-sided t-test $p < 0.001$). The distribution of the GC-contents for sequences, for which host-origin was inferred was in agreement with the GC-distribution for host sequences.

Blast-annotations obtained (by similarity searches against NCBI-nr, bit-score threshold of 55) for the sequences of putative host origin were also largely in agreement with the expectations for eel-blood: One sequence could be identified being highly similar to “Hemoglobin anodic subunit” from the European eel. Others were annotated with best hits to highly expressed

3. PILOT SEQUENCING (SANGER METHOD)

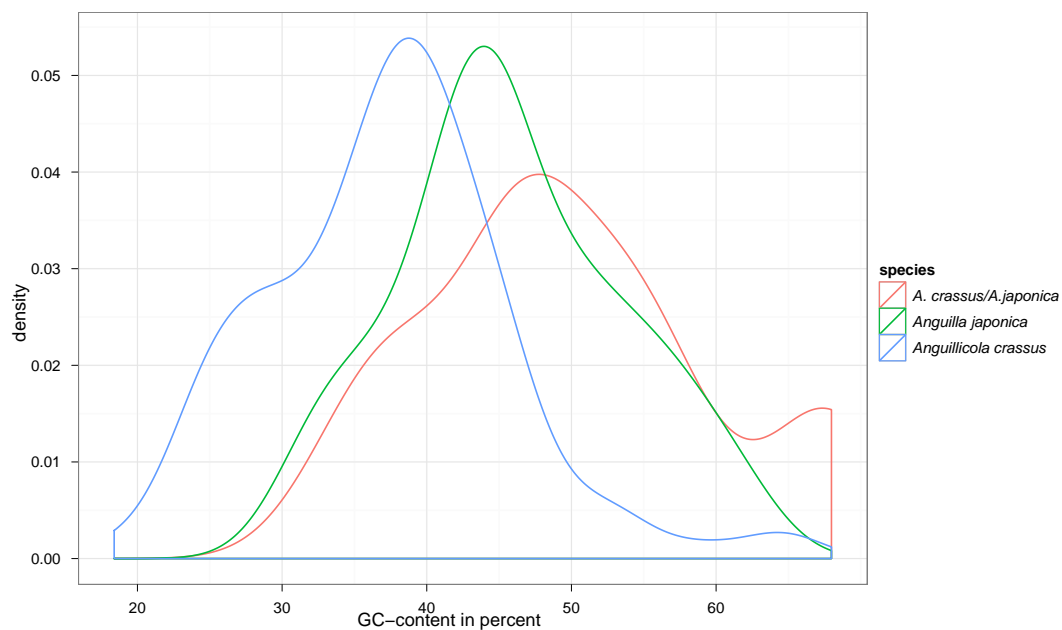


Figure 3.2: GC-content of sequences from *A. japonica* and *A. crassus* - The Japanese eel has a slightly higher GC-content than the parasite: This sequence characteristic is useful for separation of sequences from the host-parasite interface, note the higher GC-content of the sequences from *A. crassus*, for which host origin was inferred from similarity searches (red line labeled *A. crassus/A. japonica*).

housekeeping genes from fish or vertebrates (see table 3.2). Two sequences in the set had lower similarities only to proteins predicted from genome-sequences of Chordates, and one sequence of the 13 lacked any similarity to NCBI-nr above the threshold of 55 bits.

115 of the submitted sequences for “Adult *Anguillicola crassus*” (LIBEST_027505) were regarded “valid” i.e. not clearly host origin.

However it should be noted, that two ESTs (Ac_EH1f_01D10 and Ac_EH1r_01D10; forward and reverse read of the same clone) were annotated with “ref|ZP_05032178.1|; Exopolysaccharide synthesis, ExoD superfamily” from *Brevundimonas* sp. BAL3. The family Caulobacteraceae, comprises bacteria living in oligotroph freshwater and sequences are probably derived from a commensal, symbiont or pathogen of eels or swimbladder-nematodes. These off-target data was left in the submission file.

For 66 (58.4%) of the remaining 113 ESTs annotations were obtained from orthologous sequences. All these orthologous sequences were from other species in the phylum nematoda.

3. PILOT SEQUENCING (SANGER METHOD)

sequence	hit identifier	hit description	species	bit-score	e-value
Ac_EH1f.005B07	gb AAQ97992.1	cyclin G1	<i>Danio rerio</i>	67.0	9e-10
Ac_EH1f.01A02	gb ACO10003.1	Nicotinamide ribo- side kinase 2	<i>Osmernus mordax</i>	333	1e-89
Ac_EH1f.01C10	gb ADF80517.1	ferritin M subunit	<i>Sciaenops ocellatus</i>	328	5e-88
Ac_EH1r.004A04	ref XP_003340320.1	cytoplasmic 1-like actin	<i>Monodelphis domestica</i>	102	3e-20
Ac_EH1r.005B07	gb ABN80454.1	cyclin G1	<i>Poecilia reticulata</i>	90.5	8e-17
Ac_EH1r.009C03	ref NP_001122208.1	THAP domain con- taining protein 4	<i>Danio rerio</i>	176	1e-42
Ac_EH1r.01A07	sp P80946.1	Hemoglobin anodic subunit beta	<i>Anguilla anguilla</i>	283	1e-74
Ac_FMf.08F03	ref XP_003226802.1	cohesin subunit SA- 2-like isoform 2	<i>Anolis carolinensis</i>	219	8e-56
Ac_M175.01H02	emb CAQ87569.1	NKEF-B protein	<i>Plecoglossus altivelis</i>	365	3e-99
Ac_197Ff.01E04	ref XP_002121150.1	CUB and sushi domain-containing protein 3	<i>Ciona intestinalis</i>	80.5	2e-13
Ac_EH1f.01D07	ref XP_002606965.1	hypothetical protein	<i>Branchiostoma floridae</i>	82.8	3e-14
Ac_M175.01B06	ref XP_422710.2	hypothetical protein	<i>Gallus gallus</i>	123	1e-26

Table 3.2: Annotation of putative host-derived sequences in the A. crassus-dataset - Sequences excluded because of inferred host-origin comparing similarity to nematode- and fish-proteins. The annotation obtained against NCBI-nr are in agreement with this inference of host origin, as only best hits to vertebrate proteins are found.

4

Pyrosequencing of the *A. crassus* transcriptome

454

4. PYROSEQUENCING OF THE *A. CRASSUS* TRANSCRIPTOME

5

NlaIII-tag sequencing (Super-SAGE)

5.1 Comparison with pyrosequencing-data

5. NLAIII-TAG SEQUENCING (SUPER-SAGE)

6

Transcriptomic divergence inferred from expression differences in common garden experiments

6.1 Infection experiments

6.2 Examination of data-quality

6.3 Expression differences between male and female

6.4 Expression differences between worms in European
and Japanese Eels

6.5 Expression differences between worms in from the Eu-
ropean and Taiwanese worm-population

6. TRANSCRIPTOMIC DIVERGENCE INFERRED FROM EXPRESSION DIFFERENCES IN COMMON GARDEN EXPERIMENTS

7

Discussion

7.1 Sanger-method pilot-sequencing

One reason to sequence the libraries from the eels host was to elucidate whether this contamination was nematode or species-typical (e.g caused by poly-dT primers binding to A-rich rRNA regions), or caused by shortcomings in the preparation.

Nevertheless the stringent quality trimming and processing of raw reads, as summarized in the present document, make the remaining ESTs a valuable resource for comparison with future 454-sequencing-data..

7.2 454-pyrosequencing

7. DISCUSSION

8

Materials & methods

8.1 Sampling of worms from wild eels

8.1.1 Sampling in Taiwan

Cultured eels were acquired from an aquaculture directly adjacent to Kaoping river (22.6418N; 120.4440E) 15km stream upwards from it's estuary, on the 29th of April 2008. On the same day wild eels were picked up at Tunkang Biotechnology Research Centre Fisheries Research institute in Tunkang, Pintung, Taiwan, where they had been sheltered since the time of purchase during the 2nd two weeks of April 2008 from a fisherman, fishing in the estuary of Kao-Ping river (22.5074N; 120.4220E). All eels were transported to the Institute of Fisheries Science at the National Taiwan University in Taipei in aerated plastic bags, where they were sheltered until dissection.

Dissection of eels was carried out during May 2008. Eels were decapitated, length (to the nearest 1.0mm) and weight (to the nearest 0.1g) were measured, and sex was determined by visual inspection of the gonads. The swimbladder was opened, adult worms were removed from the lumen with a forceps, their sex was determined, and they were counted. All adult *A. crassus* were preserved in RNAlater(Quiagen, Hilden, Germany) in individual plastic tubes.

8.1.2 Sampling of European worms

Worms from the European eel were sampled in Sniardwy Lake, Poland (53.751959N ,21.730957E) by Urszula Weclawski and from the Linkenheimer Altrhein, Germany (49.0262N; 8.310556E), following a procedure similar to the one described above for worms from Taiwan.

8. MATERIALS & METHODS

8.2 RNA-extraction and cDNA synthesis for Sanger- and 454-sequencing

Total RNA was extracted from single, whole worms using the RNeasy kit (Quiagen, Hilden, Germany), following the manufacturers protocol. Alternatively parts of the liver of the host species *Anguilla japonica*, which also had been preserved in RNAlater were used for RNA extraction, following the same protocol.

The Evrogen MINT cDNA synthesis kit (Evrogen, Moscow, Russia) was then used to amplify mRNA transcripts according to the manufacturers protocol. It uses an adapter sequence at 3' the end of a poly dT-primer for first strand synthesis and adds a second adapter complementary to the bases at the 5' end of the transcripts by terminal transferase activity and template switching. Using these adapters it is possible to specifically amplify mRNA enriched for full-length transcripts.

8.3 Cloning and Sanger-sequencing

The obtained cDNA preparations were undirectionally cloned into TOPO2PCR-vectors (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) and TOP10 chemically competent cells (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, USA) were transformed with this construct. The cells were plated on LB-medium-agarose containing Kanamycin (5mg/ml), xGal (5-bromo-4-chloro-3-indolyl- β -D-galactopyranoside) and IPTG (Isopropyl- β -D-1-thiogalactopyranosid). After 24h of incubation at 36 °C cells were picked into 96-well micro-liter-plates containing liquid LB-medium and Kanamycin (5mg/ml) and incubated for another 24h. Subsequently 2ml of the cells were used as template for amplification of the insert by PCR using the primers

Forward M13F(GTAAAACGACGGCCAGT) and

Reverse M13R(GGCAGGAAACAGCTATGACC)

in a concentration of 10 μ M. The protocol for PCR cycling is shown

Initial denaturation	94 °C	5min	
Denaturation	94 °C	30s	
Annealing	54 °C	45s	35 cycles
Elongation	72 °C	2min	
Final Elongation	72 °C	10min	

Table 8.1: PCR protocol for insert amplification

Amplification products were controlled on gel and cleaned using SAP (Shrimp Alkaline Phosphatase) and ExoI (Exonuclease I). Sequencing reactions were performed using the BigDye-Terminator kit and PCR-primers (forward or reverse) in a concentration of 3.5 μ M and sequenced

8.4 Bioinformatic analysis of pilot Sanger-sequencing

on an ABI 3730 DNA Analyzer (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, California, USA). For *A. crassus* the following libraries were prepared:

Ac_197F: Female from Taiwanese aquaculture

Ac_106F: Female from Taiwanese aquaculture

Ac_M175: Male from Taiwanese aquaculture

Ac_FM: Female from Taiwanese aquaculture

Ac_EH1: Same cDNA preparation as Ac_FM, but sequenced by students in a practical

For *Anguilla japonica* the following three libraries:

Aj_Li1: liver of an eel from aquaculture

Aj_Li2: liver of an eel from aquaculture

Aj_Li3: liver of an eel from aquaculture

8.4 Bioinformatic analysis of pilot Sanger-sequencing

The original sequencing-chromatographs ("trace-files") were renamed according to the NERC environmental genomics scheme. "Ac" was used as project-identifier for *Anguillicoloides crassus*, "Aj" for *Anguilla japonica*. In *Anguillicoloides* sequences information on the sequencing primer (forward or reverse PCR primer *Anguilla japonica* sequences were all sequenced using the forward PCR primer) was stored in the middle "library"-field, resulting in names of the following form:

Ac-[\d|\w]{2,4}(f|r)-\d\d\w\d\d
Aj-[\d|\w]{2,4}-\d\d\w\d\d

The last field indicates the plate number (two digits), the row (one letter) and the column (two digits) of the corresponding clone. For first quality trimming trace2seq, a tool derived from trace2dbEST (both part of PartiGene (66)) was used, briefly it performs quality trimming using phred(100) and trimming of vector sequences using cross-match(101). The adapters used by the MINT kit were trimmed by supplying them in the vector-file used for trimming along with the TOPO2PCR-vector. After processing with trace2seq additional quality trimming was performed on the produced sequence-files using a custom script. This trimming was intended to remove artificial sequences produced when the sequencing reaction starts at the 3' end of the transcript at the poly-A tail. These sequences typically consist of numerous homo-polymer-runs throughout their length caused by "slippage" of the reaction. The basic perl regular expression used for this was:

8. MATERIALS & METHODS

`/(. *A{5,}|T{5,}|G{5,}|C{5,}.*){$lengthfac,}/g`

Where `$lengthfac` was set to the length of the sequence divided by 70 and rounded to the next integer. So only one homo-polymer-run of more than 5 bases was allowed per 105 bases.

Sequences were screened for host contamination by a comparison of **BLAST** searches against the version of nempep4 and a fish protein database. Sequences producing better bit scores against fish proteins than nematode proteins were labeled as host-contamination.

Only the trace-files corresponding to the sequences still regarded as good after this step were processed with trace2dbEST. Additionally to the processing of traces already included in trace2seq sequences were preliminary annotated using **BLAST** versus the NCBI-NR non-redundant protein database and EST-submission-files were produced.

8.5 Bioinformatic analysis of 454-pyro-sequencing

Trimming, quality control and assembly

Raw sequences were extracted in fasta format (with the corresponding qualities files) using `sffinfo` (Roche/454) and screened for adapter sequences of the MINT-amplification-kit using `cross-match` (101) (with parameters `-minscore 20` and `-minmatch 10`). `Seqclean` (102) was used to screen poly-A-tails, low quality, repetitive and short (<100 bases) sequences. In addition all reads were `blasted` (1e-5 -F F) against the following databases:

- a combined eel-mRNA database consisting of an assembly of sequences from the liver of the Japanese eel sequenced for this purpose (as described above), a sequence assembly of unpublished (sanger-) ESTs (made available to us by Gordon Cramb; University of St Andrews) and from EelBase (103) a publically available transcriptome database for the European eel.
- a eel-rRNA database from a rRNA screening of the above and assembly together with publically available rRNA-sequences.
- an *A. crassus* rRNA-database from screening of our dataset against nematode-rRNA, and assembly of these rRNA reads. This database notably also contained xenobiotic rRNA sequences.

Reads mapping to one of the databases with more than 80% of their length and 95% identity were removed from the dataset. Screening and trimming information was written back into sff-format using `sfffile` (Roche/454).

We used an approach proposed by Kumar and Blaxter(91), combining assemblies from the `mira` (104) and `newbler` (90). Briefly the two assemblies are combined into one using `Cap3`(105) and only contigs supported by both assemblers are regarded good quality. For further details see the supplementary methods.

Post assembly classification and taxonomic assesment

After assembly contigs were assesed a second time for host-contamination and other xenobiotics:

The contigs were **blasted** (with a cut-off 1e-5) against the same databases used prior to assembly (Eel-mRNA, Eel-rRNA, *A. crassus*-rRNA and additionally against the nucleotide version of nempep4 (106, 107), determining the best hit across databases. These best hits across databases were screened and only such hits involving more then 50% of the

Additionally **blast** (**blastn** e-value cut-off 1e-5) against NCBI-nt and (**blastx** e-value cut-off 1e-5) against NCBI-nt was used to determine taxon-membership of the top hit at the family, phylum and kingdom rank.

Protein prediction and annotation

Proteins were predicted using the **Prot4EST** (version 3.0b) (108): First **blast** searches against a rRNA-database, a mitochondrial database and against uniref100(109) were preformed. Then results were used to predict proteins directly (joining single high scoring pairs, and thereby intorducing gaps and ambiguous bases if needed). Secondly using the codon-usage from **blast**-predictions a simulated transcriptome was generated, reverse translating the *B. malayi* proteom, as training-data-set for **ESTscans**(110) hidden Markov models. If both **blast**-based prediction and **ESTscan** failed, simply the longest ORF is inferred.

Blast-based annotations were inferred using Annot8r (version 1.1.1) (111): Searches were performed against all sequences in uniref100 being annotated with GO-terms, EC-numbers and KEGG-parthways. Up to 10 (possibly contradictory) annotations based on a bitscore cut-off of 55 were obtained for each annotated database.

SignalP V3.0 (112) was used to predict signal peptide cleavage sites and signal anchor signatures.

SNP analysis

As protein-prediction inferres gaps (e.g from sequencing errors) to predict the most likely protein, not only start- and end-coordinates of open reading frames (ORFs) had to be extracted from the output of **Prot4EST**. We did this in a custom **perl**-script using a **blast**-search with the nucleotide equivalent of the protein as query and the raw sequence as subject. We obtain the hit-coordinates as ORF-coordinates and imputed the **blast**-query as corrected ORF-sequences.

We mapped the raw reads against the the complete unigene set, with the imputed sequences for those contigs with proteins predicted, using **ssaha2** (with parameters -kmer 13 -skip 3 -seeds 6 -score 100 -cmatch 10 -ckmer 6 -output sam -best 1).

pileup-files were produced using **samtools** (113), discarding sequences mapping to multiple regions with the best hit. **VarScan** (114) (**pileup2snp**) was used with default parameters on **pileup**-files. This output was further screened as described in the results part of the manuscript.

8. MATERIALS & METHODS

Gene-expression analysis

For NlaIII-tag-sequencing total RNA was prepared as described above from a worm from the Polish sampling site. A sequence-tag library was created following the protocol supplied by Illumina for this method. Briefly after synthesis of cDNA on oligo(dt)-beads, this cDNA is digested with the enzyme NlaIII (restriction site “CATG”). After ligation of an adaptor containing its restriction site the enzyme MmeI cuts 17 bases downstream of its binding site generating a sequence tag of in total 21 bases.

For 454 reads, read counts were obtained from the mapping to imputed sequence described above. Tag-sequences were mapped using BWA(115). And read counts extracted using Samtools.

The R-package DESeq(116) was used to normalize for library-size and analyse statistical significance of differential expression.

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Declaration

I herewith declare that I have produced this paper without the prohibited assistance of third parties and without making use of aids other than those specified; notions taken over directly or indirectly from other sources have been identified as such. This paper has not previously been presented in identical or similar form to any other German or foreign examination board.

Chapter 4 was in similar form submitted for publication to BMC Genomics, in the course of manuscript preparation Mark Blaxter edited the text.

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KARLSRUHE,