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Asian Fish Tapeworm *Bothriocephalus acheilognathi* in the Desert Southwestern United States

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Abstract.—The Asian fish tapeworm *Bothriocephalus acheilognathi* (Cestoda: Bothriocephalidea) is an introduced fish parasite in the southwestern United States and is often considered a serious threat to native desert fishes. Determining the geographic distribution of nonnative fish parasites is important for recovery efforts of native fishes. We examined 1,140 individuals belonging to nine fish species from southwestern U.S. streams and springs between January 2005 and April 2007. The Asian fish tapeworm was present in the Gila River, Salt River, Verde River, San Pedro River, Aravaipa Creek, and Fossil Creek, Arizona, and in Lake Tuenada at Zzyzx Springs and Afton Canyon of the Mojave River, California. Overall prevalence of the Asian fish tapeworm in Arizona fish populations was 19% (range = 0–100%) and varied by location, time, and fish species. In California, the prevalence, abundance, and intensity of the Asian fish tapeworm in Mohave tui chub *Gila bicolor mohavensis* were higher during warmer months than during cooler months. Three new definitive host species—Yaqui chub *G. purpurea*, headwater chub *G. nigra*, and longfin dace *Agosia chrysogaster*—were identified. Widespread occurrence of the Asian fish tapeworm in southwestern U.S. waters suggests that the lack of detection in other systems where nonnative fishes occur is due to a lack of effort as opposed to true absence of the parasite. To limit further spread of diseases considerable, we recommend treatment for both endo- and exoparasites when management actions include transplantation of fishes.

Originating in Asia, the Asian fish tapeworm *Bothriocephalus acheilognathi* (Cestoda: Bothriocephalidea) is a fish parasite that has been introduced worldwide, primarily through shipments of grass carp *Ctenopharyngodon idella* (Andrews et al. 1981; Font and Tate 1994; Dove and Fletcher 2000; Salgado-Martinez-Aquino and Aguilar-Aguilar 2008). Liao and Shih (1956) described the life cycle of the Asian fish tapeworm. Eggs are passed in the feces of the definitive fish host, and coracidia hatch in 1–5 d depending on water temperature. Free-swimming coracidia are ingested by cyclopoid copepods, the intermediate host. Hexacanths develop into infective procercoids in 11–12 d at a water temperature of 29–31°C. The Asian fish tapeworm life cycle is completed when a fish eats an infected copepod and the procercoids develop into adult tapeworms.

The Asian fish tapeworm can cause complete intestinal blockage in heavily infected fish (Hoole and Nisan 1994). Infected bonytails *Gila elegans* that were fed low rations had reduced growth and increased mortality compared with uninfected fish on a low-racion diet (Hansen et al. 2006). Other species of fish infected with the Asian fish tapeworm that have shown reduced growth or survival include wild-caught western mosquitofish *Gambusia affinis*, hatchery-reared roundtail chub *Gila robusta*, and red shiners *Cyprinella lutrensis* (Granath and Esch 1983a; Brouder 1999; Bean 2008). Due to its low specificity for intermediate hosts among cyclopoid copepods and its low specificity for definitive hosts among minnows (family Cyprinidae), the Asian fish tapeworm can be a threat to native fishes, especially in the U.S. desert.
Southwest, where stream temperatures are warm and where many imperiled fishes are cyprinids (Marcogliese and Esch 1989; Clarkson et al. 1997).

Upon initial entry into a new, uninfected fish population, the prevalence and intensity of the Asian fish tapeworm are high but eventually decrease over time (Heckmann et al. 1987; Hoffman 1999). Accidental transportation to new areas, especially small, isolated systems containing rare fishes, should be prevented. Determining the current geographic distribution of the Asian fish tapeworm should be a priority for management, especially when fish repatriations and translocations are common management actions. We present detections of the Asian fish tapeworm in southwestern desert areas of the United States, and we provide a list of new definitive host species.

Methods

We collected fish from southwestern desert areas between January 2005 and April 2007 (Figure 1). Fish were collected in the Verde River between 30 May and 25 June 2005. Mohave tui chub in Lake Tuendae at Zzyzx Springs, California, were sampled seven times between 19 October 2005 and 1 April 2007. We used a 3-m seine (3-mm mesh) for stream fish collections and mesh minnow traps for collection in springs. We concentrated our effort on collecting cyprinids, which typically have the highest probability of infection compared with other fish families. To determine presence–absence of the Asian fish tapeworm in nonnative fishes, we dissected fish and examined gut contents; in extremely small fish, we used the squash-plate method (Mitchell 1989). For native fishes, we filled a collapsible vinyl pool with approximately 2,000 L of water, added praziquantel at a concentration of 6.0 mg/L of water, placed individual fish in 3-L plastic containers covered with screen, and then placed each container in the pool for 24 h consistent with the methods of Ward (2007). Duration of treatment (>24 h) and concentration of praziquantel ensured that tapeworms would be removed and that the treatment would be nonlethal to fish (Mitchell 1995, 2004; Ward...
Asian fish tapeworms in fish hosts were all low. Asian fish tapeworm prevalence, mean abundance, mean intensity, and median intensity varied by fish species, time, and location (Table 1). In all collections combined, at least one individual of each species examined was infected with the Asian fish tapeworm.

In California, the Asian fish tapeworm was present in arroyo chub sampled from the Mojave River at Afton Canyon and in Mohave tui chub sampled from Lake Tuendae at Zzyzx Springs. The Asian fish tapeworm was not found in Mohave tui chub collected in MC Spring (Zzyzx Springs), Lark Seep (China Lake Naval Air Weapons Station), or Camp Cady ponds (Mojave River; Table 1). For Mohave tui chub in Lake Tuendae, prevalence ranged from 0.0% to 62.2% and mean intensity ranged from 0.0 to 39.12 tapeworms/fish (Table 2). Asian fish tapeworm prevalence and mean intensity in Lake Tuendae Mohave tui chub were higher during the warmer months compared with cooler months (Table 2).

The Asian fish tapeworm is also known to occur in Yaqui chub Gila purpurea and other fishes in refugium ponds at Black Draw in the San Bernardino National Wildlife Refuge; in Leslie Creek in the Leslie Canyon National Wildlife Refuge; and at the Rancho San Bernardino wetlands in Mexico (W. Radke, U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service, personal communication). We found the Asian fish tapeworm to be widespread in the Gila River basin. Tapeworms also infected fish in the San Bernardino and Leslie Canyon National Wildlife refuges outside the Gila River basin and at two locations in the Mojave River basin, California.

Table 1.—Prevalence and intensity of Asian fish tapeworm infections in fishes sampled from streams in southern Arizona and California. Confidence intervals (CIs) for prevalence were calculated by Sterne’s exact method (NR = not recorded; NA = not applicable; SL = standard length). Units for abundance and intensity are tapeworms/fish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Species</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Host SL range (mm)</th>
<th>Prevalence (%) (95% CI)</th>
<th>Mean intensity</th>
<th>Median intensity</th>
<th>Mean abundance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verde River</td>
<td>Red shiner</td>
<td>256</td>
<td>30–55</td>
<td>20.0 (15.5–25.3)</td>
<td>1.68</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Common carp Cyprinus carpio</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>75–280</td>
<td>20.7 (13.2–31.0)</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>San Pedro River</td>
<td>Longfin dace Agosia chrysogastera</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>42–57</td>
<td>6.3 (1.1–20.0)</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fathead minnow Pimephales promelas</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>39–59</td>
<td>40.0 (19.1–66.8)</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western mosquitofish</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25–41</td>
<td>7 (0.4–30.2)</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aravaipa Creek</td>
<td>Red shiner</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>34–62</td>
<td>20.7 (15.0–27.5)</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Roundtail chubb</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>178–247</td>
<td>100 (70.9–100)</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fossil Creek</td>
<td>Headwater chub Gila nigraa</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>189–301</td>
<td>100 (70.9–100)</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>NR</td>
<td>NR</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salt River</td>
<td>Red shiner</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>41–58</td>
<td>14.0 (6.7–26.8)</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western mosquitofish</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37–54</td>
<td>10.0 (3.7–23.4)</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fathead minnow</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>45–57</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–26.4)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Western mosquitofish</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>33–39</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–36.5)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sonoita Creek</td>
<td>Western mosquitofish</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27–35</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–11.1)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Red shiner</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>51–56</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–37.7)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bonita Creek</td>
<td>Red shiner</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>42–54</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–22.2)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Arroyo chub Gila orcuttii</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>24–59</td>
<td>88.7 (78.4–94.6)</td>
<td>16.93</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>15.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mohave tui chub</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>77–175</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–11.1)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mohave tui chuba</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>57–82</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–11.1)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mohave tui chub</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>73–191</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–11.1)</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a Species native to the collection location.  
b Locations in California; all other locations are in Arizona.

2007). We added several air pumps and air stones to the pool to increase oxygen exchange. After 24 h, tapeworms were expelled from fish and we were able to collect expelled tapeworms in each individual box. We measured standard length (mm) of all fish. After fish dissection or treatment with praziquantel, we counted the number of tapeworms under a compound microscope. Native fishes were returned to the place of capture. We identified Asian fish tapeworms by the segmented body and heart-shaped scolex (Hoffman 1999; A. Choudhury, St. Norbert’s College, De Pere, Wisconsin, personal communication). Mean and median intensity (the average number of tapeworms per infected host), mean abundance (the average number of tapeworms per host), and prevalence (the percent of hosts infected), with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals determined by Sterne’s exact method, were calculated in QP software version 3.0 (Rózsa et al. 2000; Reiczigel 2003).

Results

We surveyed 29 sites in nine streams and four springs; 1,140 fish representing nine species were examined. In Arizona, the Asian fish tapeworm was detected at 21 of the 28 sites and in six of eight streams. The only Arizona streams where the Asian fish tapeworm was not detected were Bonita and Sonoita creeks. Infection prevalence ranged from 0% to 100% and averaged 19% among all samples combined. Mean and median intensity and mean abundance of Asian fish tapeworms in fish hosts were all low. Asian fish tapeworm prevalence, mean abundance, mean intensity, and median intensity varied by fish species, time, and location (Table 1). In all collections combined, at least one individual of each species examined was infected with the Asian fish tapeworm.

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Observations of the Asian fish tapeworm in the headwater chub, Yaqui chub, and longfin dace represent new definitive host records for this parasite.

**Discussion**

Many of the southwestern U.S. endemic fish species are cyprinids and are probably highly susceptible to Asian fish tapeworm infection (Clarkson et al. 1997). We found the Asian fish tapeworm in every major Gila River drainage subbasin we examined except for the Santa Cruz River basin. Some of the more troubling new locations where the Asian fish tapeworm was present included both the east and west ends of Aravaipa Canyon on Aravaipa Creek; Fossil Creek, where endangered headwater chub were infected; and Leslie Canyon, where endangered Yaqui chub were infected (Figure 1).

Aravaipa Creek hosts seven native species of fish, five of which are cyprinids and potential hosts for the Asian fish tapeworm. A barrier to fish movement into Aravaipa Creek from the San Pedro River during high waters was completed in 2001; this suggests that the Asian fish tapeworm was present in Aravaipa Creek before 2001. The Asian fish tapeworm was also present in headwater chub sampled at Fossil Creek, a tributary to the Verde River (Figure 1). A recent renovation in Fossil Creek included the collection of native fishes for holding while a piscicide treatment was applied to remove nonnative fishes. A barrier was installed to prevent fish in the Verde River from entering Fossil Creek, and native fishes were then returned to the stream. Headwater chub infected with the Asian fish tapeworm were collected after the renovation was completed. Presence of the Asian fish tapeworm in Leslie Canyon can probably be explained by the transport of eggs by birds, on clothing, or on sampling gear (W. Radke, personal communication).

In California, Mohave tui chub and arroyo chub have been reported as known hosts for the Asian fish tapeworm (Warburton et al. 2002). We confirmed both Mohave tui chub and arroyo chub as hosts for this parasite. Of all fish species examined, arroyo chub at Afton Canyon (an isolated pool in the Mojave River) exhibited the highest mean intensity, median intensity, and mean abundance of the Asian fish tapeworm. The Asian fish tapeworm was absent from Mohave tui chub inhabiting Lark Seep at the China Lake Naval Air Weapons Station, ponds at Camp Cady, and MC Spring at Zzyzx Springs. The Asian fish tapeworm was identified in Mohave tui chub only in Lake Tuendae at Zzyzx Springs. The first record of Asian fish tapeworm parasitism in Mohave tui chub was in 2001, when 100% (n = 10) of fish sampled were found to be infected. The introduction of the parasite is assumed to have been through inadvertent introduction of western mosquitofish (Warburton et al. 2002; S. Parmenter, California Department of Fish and Game, personal communication). The highest prevalence and intensity of the Asian fish tapeworm in Mohave tui chub occurred in summer and fall, whereas prevalence and intensity were highest in spring and summer for western mosquitofish in North Carolina (Granath and Esch 1983b). However, the parasite was not found in Mohave tui chub in Lake Tuendae after August 2006. The pattern of high prevalence followed by low prevalence (or absence) is consistent with observations of the Asian fish tapeworm in other fish populations (Heckmann et al. 1987).

The Asian fish tapeworm probably occurs at low prevalence in most systems containing nonnative cyprinid fishes, and the recent detections in the Laurentian Great Lakes and Canada (Choudhury et al. 2006; Marcogliese 2008) suggest that the parasite’s tolerance of low temperatures is greater than previously assumed. Lack of detection of the Asian fish tapeworm in systems where nonnative warmwater cyprinids occur is probably due to a lack of sampling effort rather than to true absence of the parasite.

The Asian fish tapeworm is known to negatively affect growth, mortality, and fertility of individual fish (Scott and Grizzle 1979; Granath and Esch 1983a; Hoole and Nisan 1994; Hansen et al. 2006; Bean

**Table 2.**—Seasonal variation in Asian fish tapeworm infections in Mohave tui chub sampled from Lake Tuendae, Zzyzx Springs, California (SL = standard length). Confidence intervals (CIs) for prevalence were calculated by Sterne’s exact method. Asian fish tapeworms were quantified by the methods of Ward (2007). Units for abundance and intensity are tapeworms/fish.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Host SL range (mm)</th>
<th>Prevalence (%) (95% CI)</th>
<th>Mean intensity</th>
<th>Median intensity</th>
<th>Mean abundance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19 Oct 2005</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>83–185</td>
<td>33.3 (17.7–51.7)</td>
<td>9.10</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 Feb 2006</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>74–267</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–1.6)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 May 2006</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>61–226</td>
<td>25 (7.1–54.3)</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Aug 2006</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>70–206</td>
<td>62.2 (46.6–75.8)</td>
<td>39.14</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Nov 2006</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>46–201</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–8.4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Jan 2007</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>76–205</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–11.1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 Apr 2007</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>65–189</td>
<td>0.0 (0.0–8.9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2008), but effects on fish populations in the U.S. desert Southwest are unknown. We found that the Asian fish tapeworm was present in all of the major basins and several of the isolated systems we surveyed and was absent from only a few small, isolated waters. Eradication or control of the Asian fish tapeworm is probably impossible, especially in large streams. However, treating fish for endo- and exoparasites before translocations take place will prevent the further spread of nonnative fish parasites to small, isolated systems that contain rare native fishes.

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We thank A. Choudhury for assistance with identification of the Asian fish tapeworm; A. Francis, S. Tackley, and D. Ward for laboratory and field assistance; E. Sontz for assistance with Aravaipa Creek and Fossil Creek fishes; and W. Radke for information on fishes at San Bernardino National Wildlife Refuge. S. Davenport, T. Austring, and two anonymous reviewers provided comments to improve the manuscript. This project was partially funded by the U.S. Geological Survey Biological Resources Division and by the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service. The views expressed are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the views of the Arizona Cooperative Fish and Wildlife Research Unit or the U.S. Geological Survey.

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