

1 ***Strongyloides stercoralis* infection in imported and local dogs in Switzerland - From clinics to**
2 **molecular genetics**

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12 Key words

13 Strongyloidosis; animal transport; diarrhoea; genotyping; zoonosis; breeding kennel

14

15 Abstract

16

17 *Strongyloides stercoralis* is a worldwide distributed intestinal nematode affecting mainly humans and
18 dogs. Canine strongyloidosis is generally characterized by diarrhoea, malabsorption and
19 bronchopneumonia, and may be fatal in cases of impaired immunity. In recent years, molecular and
20 epidemiological studies suggested that host-adapted populations of *S. stercoralis* with different
21 zoonotic potential may exist. Clinical and subclinical cases of *S. stercoralis* infection have been
22 increasingly diagnosed in imported (France, Belgium, Bulgaria) and locally born dogs in Switzerland,
23 showing that this parasite is currently circulating in Europe. Three of these clinical cases will be
24 described here. All three dogs presented severe disease, characterised by harsh diarrhoea,
25 dehydration, vomiting, respiratory and/or neurologic signs, and needed intensive care and
26 hospitalisation. One of these dogs was related to a Swiss breeding kennel, in which the infection was
27 subsequently diagnosed in several other dogs. Faeces were analysed by three coproscopical methods
28 including (i) the Baermann technique, which consistently identified the typical *S. stercoralis* first-stage
29 larvae in both clinical and subclinical infections, (ii) the sedimentation-zinc chloride flotation and (iii)
30 sodium acetate - acetic acid - formalin concentration (SAFC) methods, which allowed the additional
31 identification of parasitic females and/or eggs in two of the clinical cases. Interestingly, *S. stercoralis*

32 isolated from all three independent clinical cases exhibited an identical genetic background on the
33 nuclear 18S rDNA (fragment involving hypervariable regions I and IV) and the mitochondrial
34 cytochrome oxidase subunit I (*cox1*) loci, similar to that of zoonotic isolates from other geographical
35 regions, and not to that of dog-adapted variants. Due to the clinical relevance and zoonotic potential of
36 this parasite, the awareness of both diagnosticians and clinicians is strongly required.

37

38

39 Introduction

40

41 *Strongyloides stercoralis* is a worldwide distributed intestinal nematode that affects mainly humans
42 and dogs. Higher prevalences are generally observed in tropical and subtropical regions (Thamsborg
43 et al. 2017). *S. stercoralis* undergoes a complex life cycle involving both parasitic and free-living
44 generations. Parasitic females are located in the small intestine mucosa and produce eggs containing
45 first-stage rhabditoid larvae (L1) by parthenogenesis, which hatch in the intestine and are shed with
46 the faeces. In the environment, they develop either directly through second-stage rhabditoid larvae
47 (L2) into infective third-stage filariform larvae (L3) (homogonic development) or alternatively, through
48 several stages and moultings into free-living female and male worms that mate and produce a
49 generation of parasitic L3 (heterogonic development) (Thamsborg et al. 2017; Deplazes et al. 2016).
50 Dogs get mainly infected by percutaneous penetration of L3, or through the oral mucosa. Lactogenic
51 transmission may be possible if the bitch is infected late in gestation or during lactation, but it is
52 considered not common (Shoop et al. 2002). After infection, L3 migrate to the small intestine via lungs,
53 and reach maturity after two moults, developing into parthenogenetic females. However, the existence
54 of further alternative migration routes was assumed (Schad et al. 1989).

55 The infection in dogs can be asymptomatic; however, life threatening disease characterized by
56 diarrhoea, malabsorption and bronchopneumonia may occur. In case of impaired immunity (e.g. due to
57 illness or administration of immunosuppressive drugs) autoinfection, hyperinfection and extraintestinal
58 dissemination (e.g. trachea, nasal cavities, lungs, oesophagus, stomach, cranial cavity) of the
59 parasite, with severe clinical signs were reported in dogs (Cervone et al. 2016; Genta 1986; Grove et
60 al. 1983; Mansfield et al. 1996; Schad et al. 1984).

61 *Strongyloides stercoralis* was successfully transmitted from humans to dogs experimentally, and it has
62 been largely considered a zoonotic nematode (Deplazes et al. 2016; Thamsborg et al. 2017; Jariwala

63 et al. 2017). However, since different genotypes have been identified during the last years, this fact
64 has been subject of discussion. It was assumed that host-specialized populations of *S. stercoralis* may
65 exist, and that zoonotic transmission might occur less frequently than previously thought
66 (Ramachandran et al. 1997; Hasegawa et al. 2010; Thamsborg et al. 2017; Takano et al. 2009).
67 Recent comparative studies mainly based on the nuclear 18S rDNA (small subunit, *SSU*) and the
68 mitochondrial cytochrome oxidase subunit I (*cox1*) locus revealed the existence of two genetically
69 different populations of *S. stercoralis* in dogs: one population appeared to be dog-specific, while
70 another population was shared by dogs and humans (Jaleta et al. 2017; Nagayasu et al. 2017).
71 Although *S. stercoralis* infections in dogs may be frequent in some tropical regions, they are
72 considered rare in Europe. Reports on *S. stercoralis* infections in dogs during the last years (2007-
73 2018) in Europe are summarized in Table 1.

74 In this study we present three clinical cases of *S. stercoralis* infection including one case from a Swiss
75 breeding kennel involving several (imported and locally born) dogs, and two further cases from
76 imported dogs unrelated to the first case. We also provide data on the diagnosis and treatment of this
77 disease. Furthermore, molecular typing of the *S. stercoralis* isolates involved in the three clinical cases
78 was performed to shed some light on the genetic background and zoonotic potential of canine *S.*
79 *stercoralis* parasites circulating in Europe. For better understanding, we first present each case with its
80 outcome and afterwards the molecular characterisation of the isolated parasites from all cases.

81

82 Materials and Methods

83

84 Cases of *Strongyloides stercoralis* infection in dogs (Summarized in Suppl. Table 1)

85 Case 1

86 A female 11-month-old Yorkshire terrier (Dog No. 1) was presented to the emergency service of the
87 Small Animal Clinic of the Vetsuisse Faculty in Bern with acute diarrhoea, vomiting, anorexia, apathy
88 and chronic respiratory problems. The dog had been imported from France into Switzerland eight
89 months before and held in a familiar breeding kennel together with 36 other dogs since purchase.
90 During the previous months before diagnosis, the dog received amoxicillin and metacam for 2.5
91 months (i.e. until 1.5 months before admission) due to a severe respiratory disease, clinically
92 diagnosed as kennel cough by the referring veterinarian that affected half of the adult dogs and most
93 puppies in the kennel during a total period of 3.5 months (as not all dogs got ill simultaneously). After a

94 short clinical recovery, the dog presented pruritus, and a treatment with dexamethasone
95 (Dexadreson®) was initiated, which was prolonged over one month (until admission). Two weeks later,
96 respiratory signs reappeared, and shortly afterwards, diarrhoea was also noted; therefore, amoxicillin
97 and enrofloxacin administration was started few days before admission.

98 At clinical examination, abdominal breathing, marked loss of weight, and alopecia with desquamation
99 and pustules in neck, legs, and perineal regions were noticed. Thoracic radiographs showed a mixed
100 alveolar and interstitial lung pattern, more evident in the periphery of the caudal lobes. Abdominal
101 ultrasonography suggested the presence of hepatopathy, enteropathy and ascites. Blood analyses
102 revealed marked hypoalbuminemia, hypocalcaemia, hypoglycemia, hypocobalaminemia, elevated C-
103 reactive protein (CRP) levels and hypercoagulability. First, a serious protein-losing enteropathy
104 associated with a viral, bacterial or parasitic pneumonia was suspected or, less probable a
105 thromboembolism. Immediately, a therapy based on glucocorticoids in anti-inflammatory dose,
106 parenteral glucose infusion (Plasmalyte®), clopidogrel (antiaggregant), cobalamin (250 µg sc, 4
107 applications at weekly intervals) as well as enrofloxacin (Baytril®) (5 mg/kg/day for 7 days) and
108 fenbendazole (Panacur®) (50 mg/Kg/day 5 days, repeating after 3 days interval) was initiated.

109 Subsequently, further complementary diagnostic methods were performed. Commercial rapid tests for
110 Parvovirus, *Leptospira* and *Angiostrongylus vasorum* infections (IDEXX Parvo Snap Test; Zoetis
111 Witness Lepto and IDEXX Angio Detect Test) yielded negative results. Next, a coproscopical
112 examination by three different techniques (i.e. SAFC (sodium acetate-acetic acid-formalin
113 concentration); sedimentation-zinc chloride flotation (s.d. 1.35) and Baermann techniques) (Deplazes
114 et al. 2016) was performed at the Institute of Parasitology in Bern. The analysis by the SAFC method
115 was negative. By sedimentation-flotation, a few nematode larvae were observed, but their distinctive
116 morphological characteristics were not clearly recognisable. The Baermann technique, however,
117 revealed a high number of rhabditoid larvae, which were morphologically identified as L1 of *S.*
118 *stercoralis* (Fig 1 a-c). After the first parasitological diagnosis, the glucocorticoid therapy was
119 immediately stopped. A coproscopical control 3 days after beginning of fenbendazole therapy still
120 showed viable L1 in the faeces, and diarrhoea and coughing were still present. Consequently,
121 ivermectin (0.2 mg/kg sc) was administered (off-label) once and repeated after 2 weeks. Diarrhoea
122 ceased 24 h after the first ivermectin administration. During the following days, the general condition of
123 the dog improved, and it left the clinic 7 days after admission. At control 10 days later, the respiratory

124 signs disappeared completely, serum albumin levels almost normalized but faeces were still soft.
125 Coproscopical analyses were negative.
126 Subsequently, all dogs from the kennel were coproscopically examined. *S. stercoralis* L1 were
127 detected by the Baermann method in faeces (several pools) from 33 asymptomatic (or showing only
128 soft faeces) Swiss Yorkshire terriers, in two 9-month-old Yorkshire terriers showing diarrhoea and
129 respiratory problems, which had been imported from Bulgaria 4 months before, and finally in one adult
130 female Swiss Yorkshire with cough. Additionally, *Giardia duodenalis* cysts were detected in all
131 analysed faecal samples by SAFC, and *Isoospora canis* oocysts were found in faeces from the first dog
132 groups (asymptomatic dogs) by the sedimentation-zinc chloride flotation method. All adult dogs and
133 puppies were treated with fenbendazole (50 mg/Kg/day 5 days twice with 3 days interval) and
134 ivermectin in the above-mentioned doses. Bitches that were pregnant when the diagnosis was first
135 made were initially treated with selamectin spot-on solution (Stronghold®) and after delivery also with
136 ivermectin. A coproscopical control from all dogs ($n=6$ pooled samples according to housing groups)
137 performed 10 days after finishing the second ivermectin treatment was negative for *S. stercoralis*, but
138 two of the pools were still positive for *Giardia*.
139 As further dogs in the kennel showed diarrhoea from time to time, the ivermectin dose was increased
140 to 0.4 mg/kg, and the duration of the treatment was prolonged by the veterinarian of the kennel.
141 Finally, all dogs received a total of 5 ivermectin doses (once 0.2 mg/kg, and four times 0.4 mg/kg). All
142 dogs showed a good tolerance to the medication, except one, which presented transient ataxia and
143 trembling after the first ivermectin dose. After the fourth ivermectin dose, the digestive signs
144 completely disappeared in the kennel.

145

146 Case 2

147 (One month after Case 1) A female 3-month-old Chihuahua (Dog No. 2) was transferred to the
148 urgency service of the Small Animal Clinic in Bern by a private Veterinarian after presenting
149 epileptiform episodes that were treated with midazolam. The dog had been imported from France two
150 days before. At admission it was in lateral recumbency, comatose, hypothermic, showing tremors and
151 diarrhoea. Blood analyses revealed hypoglycaemia, metabolic acidosis with low bicarbonate levels,
152 hypoalbuminemia and hyperphosphatemia. Coproscopical analyses were performed at the Institute of
153 Parasitology as detailed above. The SAFC method revealed the presence of *G. duodenalis* cysts and
154 trophozoites. By the sedimentation/flotation method *I. canis* oocysts and thin-shelled larvated

155 nematode eggs (82.7 [76.3-86.0] x 40.2 [37.7-42.5] μm ; $n=9$) were detected (Fig 2 a, b). Free
156 rhabditoid larvae (337.5 [276-380] μm ; $n=9$) (Fig 2 a) were observed by both sedimentation/flotation
157 and Baermann methods.
158 The dog received parenteral glucose infusion, omeprazole, fenbendazole (50 mg/kg for 5 days) and
159 toltrazuril (8 mg/kg/day for 5 days). Three days after beginning with fenbendazole therapy, live L1
160 were still present in the faeces and ivermectin was administered (0.2 mg/kg) and recommended to be
161 repeated after 2 weeks. The dog recovered clinically after 5 days of treatment, left the Clinic and no
162 further follow up was possible.

163

164 Case 3

165 (Five months after Case 1) A female 5-month-old French bulldog (Dog No. 3) imported from Belgium
166 into Switzerland 2 months earlier was presented to the Small Animal Clinic in Bern with bloody
167 diarrhoea and vomiting. The dog had diarrhoea since it was bought, and since f approximately one
168 week before admittance, also blood was observed in the faeces. A coprological analysis performed at
169 a private veterinary clinic one week before (no method was specified) gave negative results. Thoracic
170 radiologic examination showed no abnormalities. After being hospitalized at our veterinary hospital,
171 coprological analyses were performed at the Institute of Parasitology. Numerous *S. stercoralis* eggs
172 (72.4 [62.1-81.5] x 37.2 [32.3-39.3] μm ; $n=7$) containing larvae in different evolution stages (Fig 3 a, b),
173 free rhabditoid L1 (Fig 3 a, b) and parasitic females (Fig 3 c, d) were detected by the
174 sedimentation/flotation and SAFC methods; by Baermann, abundant living L1 were seen. The dog
175 was treated with ivermectin 0.2 mg/kg sc and fenbendazole 50 mg/kg for 5 days. The dog clinically
176 recovered and left the hospital 6 days after admission. The coproscopical control one week after
177 initiated the treatment was negative. Cases 1 to 3 are summarized in Suppl. Table 1.

178

179 Molecular characterisation of *S. stercoralis* isolates

180 To confirm the microscopical diagnosis and to obtain information on the genetic background and
181 zoonotic potential of *S. stercoralis* parasites involved in these clinical cases, a molecular
182 characterisation based in the amplification and sequencing of fragments of the mitochondrial *cox1*
183 gene and of the nuclear 18S rDNA, including the hypervariable regions (HVR) I and IV was performed

184 (Table 2). The amplified small subunit (SSU) fragment indicating the localization of the HVR I and HVR
185 IV and of the primers used in this study is presented in fig 2 in Jaleta et al. (2017).
186 Briefly, *S. stercoralis* L1 were isolated from all three dogs (Dogs No. 1 to 3) by the Baermann method,
187 washed in PBS by centrifugation and conserved at -20°C until processing. DNA from the larvae was
188 extracted with a commercial kit (DNeasy Blood & Tissue Kit, QIAGEN) as indicated by the
189 manufacturer. PCR reactions were performed in a total volume of 50 µl (25 µl QIAGEN Multiplex
190 Master Mix 2X, 19 µl nuclease free water, 0.5 µl of each primer according to Table 2 and 5 µl
191 template) using a GeneAmp® PCR System 9700 (Applied Biosystems) instrument and following
192 thermocycling programs: *cox1*: 94°C/15', 40 x (94°C/45", 52°C/45", 72°C/90"), 72°C/10', 4°C/∞; SSU
193 HVR I: 94°C/15', 35 x (94°C/30", 52°C/15", 72°C/90"), 72°C/10', 4°C/∞; SSU HVR IV: 94°C/15', 35 x
194 (94°C/30", 57°C/15", 72°C/90"), 72°C/10', 4°C/∞. The obtained PCR products were visualized after
195 electrophoresis in 2% agarose gels stained with ethidium bromide, subsequently purified with a
196 commercial kit (DNA Clean & Concentrator-5 Zymo Research, USA) and sequenced in both directions
197 by a commercial company (Microsynth, Balgach, Switzerland) using primers indicated in Table 2. The
198 obtained sequences were compared with those available in GenBank using the BLAST tool
199 (<http://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi>).

200

201 Results

202 PCR products with the expected sizes were obtained in all cases. All amplified products showed 99-
203 100% identity with published *S. stercoralis* sequences, confirming the morphological diagnosis. The
204 obtained DNA sequences were deposited in GenBank, after trimming of the primers binding region
205 (accession numbers MH932095-MH932103). Interestingly, all three isolates showed the same genetic
206 background with an identical molecular pattern in all three analysed markers. The obtained *cox1*
207 sequences (accession No. MH932101-MH932103) showed 100% identity (649/649 bp) with
208 sequences of *S. stercoralis* (AJ558163.1, LC050212.1) from parasites derived from an isolate
209 originally obtained from a dog in the USA (UPD strain) (Schad et al. 1984; Stoltzfus et al. 2012). They
210 also showed 100% identity (606/606 pb) with *S. stercoralis* isolates from dogs from Japan (accession
211 No. LC179456-58; LC179244-53) and from a human patient from Thailand (LC179281), but with only
212 93% query cover, as only partial *cox1* sequences were available in GenBank (Nagayasu et al., 2017).
213 The polymorphism in the HVR-I observed among isolates of *S. stercoralis* is a single base
214 insertion/deletion (indel) that results in a stretch of either four or five thymidine nucleotides within this

215 region (4T or 5T sequence) (Nagayasu et al., 2017). In this study, the amplified *SSU* fragment
216 including HVR I (accession No.MH932098-MH932100) displayed an HRV I haplotype with a 4T
217 sequence: 5´- TTTT-ATATT...A -3´. Additionally, a polymorphism A was observed in the polymorphic
218 site 18S rDNA 458 T/A, identified at position 458 of the reference AF279916 (Online Resource 1).
219 Following the nomenclature of Jaleta et al., (2017) we named this haplotype as HVR I haplotype VI
220 (Online Resource 1). This haplotype VI was observed previously in *S. stercoralis* isolates from a dog
221 (accession No. AB453316.1) and a chimpanzee (accession No. AB453314.1) in Japan (Hasegawa et
222 al. 2009).

223 Parasites isolated from Dogs No. 1, 2 and 3 displayed HRV IV haplotype A (5´- ATTTTGTTTATTTTA-
224 ATAT-3´). This haplotype has been observed in parasites isolated from dogs, humans and non-human
225 primates (Hasegawa et al. 2009) and was assumed to characterise the zoonotic population of *S.*
226 *stercoralis* (Jaleta et al. 2017). Moreover, the whole amplified sequence surrounding HVR IV of the
227 parasites in this study (Accession No. MH932095-MH932097) showed a 100% identity (680/680 pb)
228 with GenBank sequences of *S. stercoralis* isolated from the faeces of a human patient in Myanmar
229 (accession No. AB923888.1) (Hino et al. 2014).

230

231 Discussion

232

233 *S. stercoralis* infections in dogs are not considered common in Europe, however some cases have
234 been recorded during the last years in England (Wright et al. 2016); Finland (Dillard et al. 2007);
235 France (Cervone et al. 2016); Greece (Papazahariadou et al. 2007; Kostopoulou et al. 2017); Iceland
236 (Eydal und Skírnisson 2016); Italy (Zanzani et al. 2014; Riggio et al. 2013; Paradies et al. 2017; Sauda
237 et al. 2018; Iatta et al. 2018); Norway (Hamnes IS, Davidson R & Øines Ø 2009); Republic of
238 Macedonia (Cvetkovikj et al. 2018); Slovakia (Štrkolcová et al. 2017) and Romania (Mircean et al.
239 2012) (summarized in Table 1). There are no recent reports from Central Europe. In Austria, *S.*
240 *stercoralis* infection was first recorded in a dog in 1974 at the Institute of Parasitology in Vienna, and in
241 two Austrian breeder kennels in the 80s (Prosl 1985). In Germany, the parasite was detected in 0.3%
242 of 3,329 dogs analysed between 1984 and 1991 at the Institute of Parasitology, University of
243 Veterinary Medicine Hannover (Epe et al. 1993). However, it was not observed in further 4,012 dogs
244 analysed by the sedimentation/ zinc sulphate (s.g 1.3) flotation and Baermann methods between 1998
245 and 2012 at the same Institute (Epe et al. 2004; Raue et al. 2017). In the present study, the diagnosis

246 of all cases was performed between December 2017 and May 2018 at the Institute of Parasitology in
247 Bern, and there were no previous records of this parasite in dogs for the last 10 years at the Institute.
248 Although *S. stercoralis* is generally considered as a tropical parasite, and it seems not well adapted to
249 survive low environmental temperatures, it can nevertheless successfully fulfil its life cycle and
250 disseminate within commercial kennels and dog shelters (Table 1) even in cold climates (Eydal und
251 Skírnisson 2016; Dillard et al. 2007; Hamnes IS, Davidson R & Øines Ø 2009). This fact, added to the
252 increased national and international transport of dogs (e.g. dog trade, relocation of dogs by animal
253 welfare associations, illegal import, tourism) observed during the last years may favour a wider
254 spreading of this parasite in Europe, thus requiring an appropriate awareness of diagnostic labs,
255 practicing veterinarians, as well as the availability of adequate control measures.

256 In the present study, *S. stercoralis* infection was detected in imported but also in dogs born in
257 Switzerland. In the Swiss breeding kennel (Case 1), the parasite might have been introduced by the
258 dog imported from France (Dog No. 1), but also by one or both dogs imported from Bulgaria (that had
259 diarrhoea since their arrival), or it might have been already present in the kennel before these dogs
260 arrived, remaining undiscovered so far. Since the imported dogs had been in the kennel for several
261 months before the diagnosis was made, the origin of the infection could not be clearly elucidated. On
262 the other hand, Dog No. 2 must be certainly considered as an imported case of strongyloidosis, as the
263 Chihuahua was shedding *S. stercoralis* larvae when it was brought to the Clinic after being been
264 bought in France only two days before (prepatent period of *S. stercoralis*: at least 5 to 21 days). Dog
265 No. 3, originating from a breeding kennel in Belgium, was showing digestive signs since its arrival. The
266 infection might have occurred in the kennel; however, since the animal had been in Switzerland for two
267 months before diagnosis (and this exceeds the prepatent period of *S. stercoralis*) its imported origin
268 can be only suspected but not proven.

269 In the present study, all three infected and hospitalised dogs showed severe disease needing
270 intensive care. However, milder disease and subclinical infection were also detected in further dogs
271 from the Swiss kennel (Case 1). Digestive signs were present in all three hospitalised cases,
272 respiratory signs were additionally observed in Dog No. 1, and neurologic signs only in Dog No. 2,
273 indicating a rather diversity of clinical presentations of this disease (Suppl. Table 1). Although *S.*
274 *stercoralis* is considered a primary pathogen, concomitant viral, bacterial and parasitic infections can
275 influence the clinical outcome. In the Swiss kennel, underlying respiratory agents as well as *G.*
276 *duodenalis* and *I. canis* infections and prolonged medication, especially with corticosteroids, may have

277 contributed to some extent to the clinical severity observed, and to the dissemination of *S. stercoralis*
278 within the kennel. Recrudescence of infection, autoinfection and hyperinfection with dissemination of
279 the parasite to extraintestinal organs were observed in infected dogs after administration of high
280 and/or prolonged doses of corticosteroids (Genta 1986; Mansfield et al. 1996; Schad et al. 1984;
281 Schad et al. 1997; Genta 1989). In the case of Dog No. 2, coinfections with the intestinal parasites *G.*
282 *duodenalis* and *I. canis* were diagnosed, which could have also intensified the clinical manifestations.
283 Regarding coproscopical analyses, eggs in different maturity stages (Dogs No. 2 and 3) and parasitic
284 females (Dog No. 3) were additionally observed besides the typical L1. It is worth to note that the size
285 of *S. stercoralis* eggs seems to be quite variable. The eggs observed in this study (62-86 x 32-42 µm)
286 were larger than those reported for *S. stercoralis* (e.g. 50-58 x 30-34 µm) by Thamsborg et al. (2017).
287 However, our observations are in agreement with previous reports, in which also a larger size for *S.*
288 *stercoralis* eggs after oviposition was observed (Tanaka 1966). Shimura (1919) described that the
289 eggs of *S. stercoralis* in dogs had a size of 56-64 x 22-30 µm in the uterus and of 60 x 40 µm after
290 oviposition and Ito (1932) reported sizes of 66-83 x 36-45 µm in the uterus and of 75-88 x 40-60 µm
291 after oviposition (as cited in Tanaka 1966). Therefore, factors that may influence the size of the eggs
292 such as maturity, possible degradation inside dead females shed with the faeces, or mechanical
293 effects during performance of the coproscopical analyses should be considered during the diagnosis.
294 Due to their similar size, *S. stercoralis* eggs could have been misdiagnosed with hookworm or free-
295 living nematode eggs (product of intestinal passage through coprophagia); however, this possibility
296 can be disregarded in the present cases as several of the observed eggs in fresh faeces contained
297 already a larva (hookworm eggs are morulated when shed), and coprophagia was not possible as the
298 dogs were housed in isolated cages in the intensive care station of the Clinic.

299 To the authors knowledge, no products for the treatment of *S. stercoralis* infections in dogs are
300 registered so far, and reported treatments were mostly attempted in only one or a few dogs. Some
301 good clinical results and/or clearance of L1 from the faeces seem to have been obtained after off-label
302 administration of ivermectin (0.2-0.8 mg/Kg BW one or several doses with different intervals)
303 (Mansfield und Schad 1992; Dillard et al. 2007; Cervone et al. 2016; Thamsborg et al. 2017; Nolan
304 2001; Umur et al. 2017; Iatta et al. 2018); however, this drug appears not to be effective to remove
305 migrating L3 from extraintestinal sites (Mansfield und Schad 1992). Administration of fenbendazole as
306 mono-drug (50 mg/kg BW/day for 5-7 days) (Cervone et al. 2016; Paradies et al. 2017; Eydal und

307 Skírnisson 2016; Itoh et al. 2009) or combined with Moxydectin-imidacloprid (Advocate®) (Paradies et
308 al. 2017) was only partially effective or not effective. There is also one report on the use of febantel
309 (31.5 mg/kg BW) + pyrantel + praziquantel (Drontal Plus®) for 1 day, repeated after 12 days for 3 days
310 with good clinical results (Cvetkovikj et al. 2018). Unfortunately, in most cases no long-term follow-up
311 was possible. In this study, the combination of fenbendazole and ivermectin lead to clinical
312 improvement and to the cease of larvae shedding in Dogs No.1 to 3. In Dog No. 1 also a long-term
313 follow up could be carried up. In Dogs No. 1 and 2 it could be observed that after three days of
314 fenbendazole treatment viable *S. stercoralis* larvae were still being shed, thus it seems that this drug is
315 not or not highly effective against this parasite, at least as sole treatment. Clinical improvement and
316 cease of larvae shedding were observed only after additional administration of ivermectin.

317 In the last years, the zoonotic potential of *S. stercoralis* and the role of dogs as reservoirs for humans
318 has been subject of debate. Due to epidemiological data and to the observed genetic diversity within
319 *S. stercoralis*, the existence of different host-adapted variants, subspecies or even species has been
320 suggested (Thamsborg et al. 2017; Jaleta et al. 2017; Ramachandran et al. 1997; Hasegawa et al.
321 2009; Hasegawa et al. 2010). Recent molecular studies based on the polymorphism of the
322 mitochondrial *cox1* gene and nuclear *18S* (hypervariable regions I and IV) rDNA sequences of *S.*
323 *stercoralis* revealed that two genetically different populations occurred in dogs living in an endemic
324 region for human and canine strongyloidosis in Cambodia. One population appeared to be restricted
325 to dogs (“dog-adapted”) while the other population was present both in dogs and humans (“dog-
326 human shared”) of the same region, arguing for its zoonotic character (Jaleta et al. 2017). These
327 results would support the existence of a zoonotic species (*S. stercoralis*) and a dog-adapted species
328 (*S. canis*) (Jaleta et al. 2017). Also Nagayasu et al. (2017) reported recently the existence of two
329 genetically different lineages of *S. stercoralis* (Type A and Type B parasites), mainly characterized by
330 the *cox1* sequence (*cox1* clades I and II haplotypes define *S. stercoralis* Type A and B respectively).
331 While *S. stercoralis* type A were isolated from both humans and dogs from different countries (i.e
332 humans from Japan, Myanmar, Thailand, Laos, Uganda, Central Africa and dogs from Japan and
333 Myanmar), *S. stercoralis* type B were isolated exclusively from dogs from Myanmar. The authors
334 suggested that Type B parasites could represent an ancestral canid-adapted *S. stercoralis* line, from
335 which type A parasites evolved, expanding its host-spectrum to infect humans (Nagayasu et al., 2017).
336 However, it is not known if these observations do also apply to parasites from other geographical
337 regions. As the genetic structure of *S. stercoralis* strains circulating in Europe is largely unknown, we

338 performed a molecular characterisation of the isolates involved in the clinical cases in this study to aid
339 clarifying this issue. Interestingly, in our study, all three European isolates obtained from unrelated
340 dogs had the same genetic background for the considered markers, independent of their origin. This
341 fact suggests that *S. stercoralis* isolates circulating among kennels/breeders in Europe may be very
342 closely related. A full-genome sequencing approach could figure out if all three isolates are completely
343 identical. This is noteworthy because the *cox1* sequence of *S. stercoralis* was shown to have a great
344 variability, with at least 100 different haplotypes described in isolates from dogs and humans so far
345 (Jaleta et al. 2017; Hasegawa et al. 2010; Laymanivong et al. 2016; Schad et al. 1984; Nagayasu et
346 al. 2017). The *cox1* sequence from all three dogs in our study showed a 100% identity and query
347 cover with GenBank entries (AJ558163.1, LC050212.1) derived from a same *S. stercoralis* isolate
348 (UPD strain), originally obtained from a dog in the USA (Schad et al. 1984; Stoltzfus et al., 2012), but
349 with none of the 17 haplotypes identified by Jaleta et al, (2017). It had also a 100% identity (but only
350 93% query cover) with *S. stercoralis* isolates from dogs from Japan (accession No. LC179456-58;
351 LC179244-53) and from a human patient from Thailand (LC179281); however only partial *cox1*
352 sequences (covering 93% of our sequences) were available from these isolates (Nagayasu et al.,
353 2017). Therefore, we assume that the isolates obtained in our study would be phylogenetically related
354 with parasites within the *cox1* Clade I in the study of Nagayasu et al (2017), in which both human and
355 dog *S. stercoralis* isolates clustered, suggesting their zoonotic potential.

356 The HVR I haplotype detected in the present study (5' TTTT-ATATT...A 3') does not belong to any of
357 the haplotypes (I to V) observed in parasites isolated from dogs and humans by Jaleta et al., (2017);
358 however, this haplotype was observed previously in isolates from both dogs and non-human primates
359 before (accession No. AB453316.1 and AB453314.1). Although the HVR I is highly conserved within
360 many nematode species, it appears to be more variable in *S. stercoralis* and its usefulness to
361 distinguish dog and human-adapted strains should be further clarified (Nagayasu et al., 2017). Among
362 the three selected markers, the *SSU* HVR IV is the most conserved region, and so far, only 2 variants:
363 haplotypes A and B have been described in *S. stercoralis* (Jaleta et al. 2017). The two haplotypes
364 differed at three positions (two indels, one base substitution). Haplotype A seems to be the most
365 frequent haplotype and was originally described as the HVR IV sequence of *S. stercoralis* (Hasegawa
366 et al. 2009). Parasites showing this haplotype were isolated from humans and dogs from different
367 geographical regions and also from chimpanzees (Hasegawa et al. 2009). In the study from Jaleta et
368 al., (2017), the HVR IV haplotype A was the only haplotype present in *S. stercoralis* isolated from

369 humans and it was also found in 22.5% of the worms obtained from dogs, while the haplotype B was
370 exclusively found in dog-derived worms and represented the most frequent haplotype in this species.
371 In the same study, a total of 17 *cox1* different haplotypes were observed, 7 of them were associated
372 with HVR IV haplotype A and 10 with HVR IV haplotype B. No *cox1* haplotype was shared by both
373 HVR IV haplotypes, accounting for the existence of two different phylogenetic groups. On the other
374 side, same HVR I haplotypes were shared by both groups, suggesting that the HVR I other than the
375 HVR IV, does not indicate genetically separated populations. The authors stated that the *SSU* HVR IV
376 haplotype can be adequate to identify both *S. stercoralis* populations in dogs and that haplotype A
377 would be a marker for the zoonotic population. Parasites from all dogs in our study presented the HVR
378 IV haplotype A variant accounting for their zoonotic potential, if this assumption proves to be valid. To
379 our knowledge, only the owner of the dogs in Case 1 was examined coprologically after our diagnosis
380 in the dogs and tested negative. Nevertheless, transmission from infected dogs to humans was
381 already reported and dogs have been experimentally infected with parasites isolated from humans
382 (Georgi und Sprinkle 1974; Thamsborg et al. 2017; Genta 1989; Grove und Northern 1988). It should
383 be considered, that not only the presence of infected dogs in the household, but also factors from the
384 host (e.g. level of exposure, immune status, hygiene measures), environment (e.g. humidity,
385 temperature, sanitary conditions, level of contamination) and from the parasite (e.g. parasite burden,
386 genetic background) are needed for the infection to be successfully established.

387

388 Conclusions

389

390 *S. stercoralis* infections in dogs may occur and should be considered during the diagnosis of enteritis
391 and respiratory disease. Breeding kennels and animal trade seem to play an important epidemiological
392 role in the dissemination of *S. stercoralis*. Since routine faecal flotation methods have low sensitivity
393 for detection of L1, and shedding of eggs is considered uncommon, the prevalence, as well as the
394 clinical significance of *S. stercoralis* in dogs might be underestimated; therefore, the awareness of
395 diagnosticians and practicing veterinarians is required. Moreover, due to its zoonotic potential, a
396 correct diagnosis is pivotal also from the public health point of view. The genetic background of the
397 parasites detected in this study correlates with that of the zoonotic isolates and not with the dog-
398 adapted variants. In the present case, *S. stercoralis* infection was detected in several dogs in
399 Switzerland, either locally born or imported from other European countries, showing that the parasite is

400 currently circulating in Europe. The combination of fenbendazole and ivermectin (off-label) proved to
401 be effective as treatment. However, no necropsies to ensure a complete absence of adult parasites or
402 migrating larvae after treatment were performed and a long-term follow-up was not possible in all
403 cases.

404

405 Notes

406

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410

411 Compliance with Ethical Standards

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414

415 Conflict of Interest

416 On behalf of all authors, the corresponding author states that there is no conflict of interest.

417

418 Ethical approval

419 All applicable international, national, and/or institutional guidelines for the care and use of animals
420 were followed.

421

422 Data availability

423 The DNA sequences obtained from this study are available from GenBank

424 (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank>) (accession numbers MH932095-MH932103).

425

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565

566 **Figure captions**

567 **Fig 1** First-stage (L1) rhabditoid larvae of *Strongyloides stercoralis* isolated from the faeces of Dog
568 No.1 by the Baermann technique. A: whole L1; B and C Detail of the anterior and posterior ends of
569 one L1. gp: prominent genital primordium; bc: small buccal capsule; ro: rhabditoid oesophagus; st:
570 straight tail

571

572 **Fig 2** a and b: First-stage larvae (arrows) and larvated eggs (arrow heads) of *Strongyloides stercoralis*
573 isolated from the faeces of Dog No. 2 by the sedimentation-zinc chloride flotation technique. Note in b
574 a string of larvated eggs.

575

576 **Fig 3** *Strongyloides stercoralis* stages isolated from faeces of Dog No. 3. a: first -stage larva (arrow)
577 and immature egg (arrow head); b: immature egg (arrow head); c: Detail of posterior end of the
578 parasitic female. d: Parasitic female, co: long, cylindric oesophagus, v: vulva behind the middle of the
579 body.

580

581 **Online Resources**

582 **Suppl. Table 1:** Cases of *Strongyloides stercoralis* infection in dogs in Switzerland. F: female; M: male;
583 d: days; m: months; Y: yes; N: no; L1: first-stage larvae; A: adult; SAFC: sodium acetate-acetic acid-
584 formalin concentration technique

585

586 **Suppl. Fig 1:** Nucleotide arrangements in hypervariable regions (HVR) I and IV (in boxes) in 18S
587 rDNA of *Strongyloides stercoralis* as defined by Hasegawa et al. (2009) and haplotypes according to
588 Jaleta et al. (2017); dash indicates absence of nucleotide; H: human; D: dog. Red: variable
589 nucleotides *: polymorphic site 18S rDNA 458T/A, identified at position 458 of the reference AF279916

590

591

Table 1: Reports on *S. stercoralis* infections in dogs during 2007-2018 in Europe detected by coproscopical methods

Country	Region	<i>n</i> tested	<i>n</i> pos	Prevalence (%)	Type of dogs	Breed, sex, age (w, m, y) in positive cases	Origin	Clinical signs in positive cases	Coproscopical method used to obtain the reported prevalence of <i>S. stercoralis</i>	Reference
England	Lancashire	171	3	1.7	household	>6 m	ns	ns	FLOTAC	(Wright et al. 2016)
Finland		1	1		household	Yorkshire terrier, 10 w	born in Finnish Kennel	yes	intestinal scrapings, histopathology	(Dillard et al. 2007)
		46	3		kennel (<i>n</i> =1)	adults	Netherlands (<i>n</i> =1) imported 3 years before; born in Finish kennel (<i>n</i> =2)	ns	Baermann	
France	Paris	1	1		household	Chihuahua, male, 10 m	animal shop in Paris > 6 m before	yes	Flotation (solution s.g. 1.2; direct smear; Baermann	(Cervone et al. 2016)

Greece	Crete	879	1	0.1	shelters, household, shepherd	ns	ns	ns	sedimentation (acid/ether); flotation (sugar-salt s.g. 1.28)	(Kostopoulou et al. 2017)
	Serres Prefecture	117	1	0.9	shepherd	<6 m	ns	ns	Telemann's sedimentation	(Papazahariadou et al. 2007)
		164	4	2.4	hunting dogs	<6 m (<i>n</i> =1); adults (<i>n</i> =3)	ns	ns		
Iceland		3,208	20	0.6	imported dogs in quarantine 1989-2016	12 breeds; age: <1.5 years (<i>n</i> =17), 2–7 years (<i>n</i> =3)	Sweden (<i>n</i> =7); Hungary (<i>n</i> =4); Belgium (<i>n</i> =2); Finland (<i>n</i> =1); Poland (<i>n</i> =1); Latvia (<i>n</i> =1); Russia (<i>n</i> =1); UK (<i>n</i> =1); USA (<i>n</i> =2).	ns	formalin-ethyl acetate sedimentation technique (FEAST); Baermann	(Eydal und Skírnisson 2016)
		17	8		kennel (<i>n</i> =1) (faecal pools)	ns	Icelandic kennel (imported and locally born dogs)	ns	Baermann	

		96	11		household	8 breeds; 2.5-7 m (n=9); 5 y (n=2)	Icelandic kennel (n=9); in contact with dogs from the kennel (n=2)	yes (n=6); ns (n=5)	FEAST; Baermann	
Italy	Latium, Tuscany	639	1	0.2	kennels, shelters	ns	ns	ns	Baermann	(Sauda et al. 2018)
	Pisa, Tuscany	239	2	0.8	household	ns	ns	no	flotation (NaCl s.g. 1.2); Baermann	(Riggio et al. 2013)
	Milan, Lombardy	463	4	0.9	faeces from public soil	ns	ns	ns	flotation (sucrose and NaNO ₃ s.g. 1.36)	(Zanzani et al. 2014)
	Apulia	210	1	0.5	household	adult	shelter (adopted 1 year before)	no	Baermann	(Paradies et al. 2017)
		62	5	8.1	shelter (n=1)	adults	ns	yes		
	Apulia	85	19	22.3	shelter (n=1)		ns	yes (n=2)	Baermann	(Iatta et al. 2018)
Norway		3	3		household	3 puppies	Sweden (n=1); born in Norwegian kennel (n=2)	yes		(Hamnes IS, Davidson R & Øines Ø 2009)

Slovakia	Medzev (Roma settlement)	30	4	13.3	household	mixed-breeds	ns	bad sanitary conditions	Koga agar plate culture	(Štrkolcová et al. 2017)
	Haniska	20	2	10	shelter (n=1)	mixed-breeds; <7 m (n=1); >7 m (n=1)	ns			
Republic of Macedonia	Skopje	1	1		household	Pomerania, male, 6 m	Russia (imported 1 w before)	yes	Direct faecal smear; flotation (ZnSO ₄); Baermann	(Cvetkovikj et al. 2018)
Romania		52	2	3.8	kennels, shelters, shepherd, household	ns	ns	no	flotation (NaCl s.g. 1.2)	(Mircean et al. 2012)

ns: not specified; w: weeks; m: months; y: years; pos: positive; s.g. specific gravity

Table 2. Primers used for molecular typing of *Strongyloides stercoralis* isolates and PCR product size

Target	Primer	Name	Sequence	Product size (pb)	Ref
<i>cox1</i>	Fwd	COI int F	5'-TGATTGGTGGTTTTGGTAA-3'	688 bp	(Casiraghi M. et al. 2001)
	Rev	COI int R	5'-ATAAGTACGAGTATCAATATC-3'		
18S rDNA HVR I	Fwd	SSU 18A	5'AAAGATTAAGCCATGCATG-3'	863 bp	(Dorris et al. 2002)
	Rev	SSU 26R	5'-CATTCTTGGCAAATGCTTTTCG-3'		
18S rDNA HVR IV	Fwd	18S P4F	5'-GCGAAAGCATTGCCAA-3'	712 bp	(Hasegawa et al. 2009)
	Rev	18S PCR	5'-ACGGGCGGTGTGTRC-3'		

cox1: mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase subunit I locus; HVR: hypervariable region of the 18S rDNA;

bp: base pairs

Suppl. Table 1: Cases of *Strongyloides stercoralis* infection in dogs in Switzerland

Case No	Breed	n	Origin (time since import into Switzerland)	Sex	Age	Clinical signs							Coproscopical results (1 st diagnosis)			Genotyping performed
						Apathy	Anorexia	Respiratory	Digestive	Dermatological	Neurological	Asymptomatic or soft faeces	Sedimentation-Flotation (zinc chloride s.d. 1.35)	SAFC	Baermann technique	
1 (Swiss Kennel)	Yorkshire terrier	1	France (8 m)	F	11 m	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	N	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	negative	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	Y (Dog No. 1)
	Yorkshire terrier	33	Switzerland	F, M	adults and puppies	N	N	N	N	N	N	Y	<i>I. canis</i>	<i>G. duodenalis</i>	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	N
	Yorkshire terrier	2	Bulgaria (4 m)	F	9 m	N	N	Y	Y	N	N	N	negative	<i>G. duodenalis</i>	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	N
	Yorkshire terrier	1	Switzerland	F	adult	N	N	Y	N	N	N	N	negative	<i>G. duodenalis</i>	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	N
2	Chihuahua	1	France (2 d)	F	3 m	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	N	<i>I. canis</i> <i>S. stercoralis</i> L1 and eggs	<i>G. duodenalis</i>	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	Y (Dog No. 2)
3	French bulldog	1	Belgium (2 m)	F	5 m	Y	Y	N	Y	N	N	N	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1, eggs and adult females	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1, eggs and adult females	<i>S. stercoralis</i> L1	Y (Dog No. 3)

F: female; M: male; d: days; m: months; Y: yes; N: no; L1: first-stage larvae; A: adult; SAFC: sodium acetate-acetic acid-formalin concentration technique





