

1 Ultrastructure of digenean trematode eggs (Platyhelminthes: Neophora): A review emphasizing  
2 new comparative data on four European Microphalloidea

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20 **Abstract**

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22 Despite their tremendous diversity and their medical and veterinary importance, details of egg  
23 ultrastructure among the digenean trematodes has been studied rather little. The available  
24 literature is spread over several decades and several species, but has not been adequately  
25 reviewed to reveal patterns of similarity and divergence. We present this review to synthesize  
26 and analyse what is known from the available literature reporting studies using both transmission  
27 electron microscopy (TEM) and scanning electron microscopy (SEM). To support our general  
28 review of existing literature, we also have synthesized our own previously published  
29 descriptions, and present herein our new previously unpublished data. From these new electron  
30 micrographs, we provide a comparative analysis of the intrauterine eggs of four digenean  
31 species, representing four genera and three families of the superfamily Microphalloidea,  
32 collected from four different host wildlife species in four European countries: 1) *Mediogonimus*  
33 *jourdanei* (Prosthogonimidae) from *Myodes glareolus* (Mammalia: Rodentia), collected in  
34 France; 2) *Maritrema felii* (Microphallidae) from *Crocidura russula* (Mammalia:  
35 Soricimorpha), collected in Spain; 3) *Brandesia turgida* (Pleurogenidae) from *Pelophylax*  
36 *ridibundus* (Amphibia: Anura: Ranidae), collected in Russia; and 4) *Prosotocus confusus*  
37 (Pleurogenidae) from *Rana lessonae* (Amphibia: Anura: Ranidae), collected in Belarus. All were  
38 studied by preparing whole worms by various techniques for TEM, so that eggs could be studied  
39 in situ within the uterus of the parent worm. Based on the literature review and the new data  
40 presented here, we describe basic similarities in patterns of embryogenesis and egg formation  
41 among all trematode species, but substantial variations in timing of larvigenesis, sculpturing of  
42 egg shell surfaces, and some other features, especially including accessory cocoon coverings  
43 outside the egg shells of *B. turgida* and *P. confusus*. In the future, many more studies are needed  
44 to explore egg ultrastructure in other digenean taxa, to explore potential phylogenetic patterns in  
45 egg development and structure, and to correlate structure with function in the life cycle.

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## 50 **Keywords**

51 development, egg, embryo, larva, miracidia, reproduction, Trematoda, ultrastructure, vitellocyte

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## 57 **Introduction**

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59 Life cycle schematics have long played a prominent role in forming the conceptual framework of  
60 how parasites circulate in the environment between hosts. Most published life cycle schematics,  
61 as well as written descriptions, primarily emphasize those developmental stages that occur within  
62 the hosts, or that directly invade hosts. For digenean trematodes, this includes stages such as  
63 adults within vertebrate hosts, intramolluscan stages within gastropod molluscs, and  
64 metacercariae (Martin and Conn 1990) and other transitional stages (Conn 2007a, 2010; Goater  
65 et al. 2005; Conn et al. 2008) within various second-intermediate hosts. Secondary but  
66 significant emphasis has been placed on free-living stages that are directly infective to hosts,  
67 including miracidia that invade molluscs (Karatayev et al. 2012) and cercariae that invade either  
68 intermediate hosts (Conn and Conn 1995), or that directly invade definitive hosts (e.g., the  
69 extensively studied schistosomatids). In contrast, relatively little emphasis has been placed on the  
70 egg stage, although there has been an increase in the recognition that cestode eggs are highly  
71 diverse in both structure and role within the life cycle (see review by Conn and Świdorski 2008).

72 Because trematode eggs are very small – usually microscopic – little can be seen using  
73 light microscopy methods. Thus, electron microscopy is necessary to reveal the essential  
74 features of the structure of the eggs and the embryos or larvae they contain. To further  
75 complicate their study, because the highly resistant trematode egg shells are designed to protect  
76 the embryo and larva from harsh environmental conditions outside the host and outside the  
77 parent worm, preparing trematode eggs for ultrastructural studies is technologically challenging.  
78 Thus, egg ultrastructure in this important group of parasites has received relatively little study,  
79 even when compared to their closely related class of parasitic Platyhelminthes, the cestodes (Burt  
80 1986; Świdorski 1996; Świdorski and Conn 2000, 2001; Conn 2007b, 2016).

81 The purpose of this paper is to provide a brief review of the known studies on digenean  
82 trematode egg ultrastructure, while providing up-to-date context by reporting new comparative  
83 data and a new synthesis of information on four microphalloid trematodes from Europe, which  
84 until now have been the subject of only a cursory comparison (Świdorski and Conn 2014).

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## 87 **Materials and methods**

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89 Adult specimens of *Brandesia turgida* (Brandes, 1888) were obtained from crypts in the  
90 intestinal wall of naturally infected mars frogs, *Pelophylax ridibundus* (Pallas, 1771) (Amphibia:  
91 Ranidae), collected near the Rybinsk Reservoir on the Volga River, Russia during Adults of  
92 *Maritrema felii* were collected live from the intestine of the greater white-toothed shrew,

93 *Crocidura russula* (Hermann, 1780) (Eulipotyphla: Soricidae), captured in La Ricarda, a marshy  
94 nature reserve close to the estuary of the River Llobregat (Barcelona, Spain), during October,  
95 2010.

96 Naturally infected bank voles, *Myodes glareolus* (Schreber, 1780) (Rodentia: Cricetidae),  
97 were captured in the Nature Reserve of Py (Pyrenean Mountains, France) during June, 2009.  
98 Live mature specimens of *Mediogonimus jourdanei* Mas-Coma et Rocamora, 1978 were  
99 collected from the liver upon necropsy and dissection of voles at the laboratory of “Centres  
100 Científics i Tecnològics” of the University of Barcelona (CCiTUB) in order to apply high  
101 pressure freezing fixation and freeze substitution (see below).

102 Adult, live specimens of *Prosotocus confusus* (Looss, 1894) were collected from the intestine of  
103 naturally infected pool frogs, *Pelophylax lessonae* (Camerano, 1882) (Amphibia: Ranidae),  
104 during April 2008 in the Bugskiy landscape reserve (Southwest Belarus).

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#### 106 *Conventional TEM methodology*

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108 For *Maritrema felii* and *Prosotocus confusus*, live worms were first placed in a 0.9 % NaCl  
109 solution. Later, they were fixed in cold (4 °C) 2 % paraformaldehyde and 2.5 % glutaraldehyde  
110 in a 0.1M sodium cacodylate buffer at pH 7.4 for a minimum of 2 h, rinsed in a 0.1M sodium  
111 cacodylate buffer at pH 7.4, postfixed in cold (4 °C) 1 % osmium tetroxide in the same buffer for  
112 1 h, rinsed in MilliQ water, dehydrated in an ethanol series and propylene oxide, and finally  
113 embedded in Spurr's resin. Ultrathin sections were obtained using a Reichert-Jung Ultracut E  
114 ultramicrotome, placed on copper grids and double-stained with uranyl acetate and lead citrate.  
115 Ultrathin sections were examined using a JEOL 1010 TEM operated at an accelerating voltage of  
116 80 kV in the CCiTUB (Barcelona, Spain). For *Brandesia turgida*, materials were embedded in a  
117 mixture of Araldite and Epon. Ultrathin sections were cut on a Leica Ultracut UCT  
118 ultramicrotome and, after staining, examined in JEOL 1011 TEM in Centre of Electron  
119 Microscopy, I.D. Papanin Institute for the Biology of Inland Waters, Russian Academy of  
120 Sciences, Borok, Russia.

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#### 122 *High pressure freezing, freeze substitution and infiltration with resin*

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124 Live specimens of *Mediogonimus jourdanei* were cut open and pieces of uterus were selected in  
125 small Petri dishes under a stereomicroscope in PBS with 20% BSA. The sections of uterus were  
126 transferred to the cavity of a 200 µm-deep flat specimen carrier. The specimen holder was then  
127 inserted into the rapid transfer system, high pressure frozen using a Leica EM PACT and stored  
128 in liquid nitrogen.

129 For freeze substitution in preparation of the *M. jourdanei* specimens, sample holders were  
130 transferred to precooled cryovials (−120°C) and freeze substitution was performed in anhydrous  
131 acetone containing 2% osmium tetroxide. Using a Leica EM AFS, samples were maintained for  
132 24 h at −90°C. Hereafter, the temperature was raised at a rate of 2°C/h to −60°C and then to −30°  
133 C. Samples were kept at each level for 9 h in the original substitution medium. Specimens were  
134 then washed three times for 10 min in fresh anhydrous acetone. After the washes, the  
135 temperature was gradually raised to room temperature and the specimens were infiltrated with  
136 Spurr resin (one part resin/three parts acetone) overnight; 1:1 for 4 h; 3:1 for 4 h and 100% resin  
137 for 4 h and then overnight. Polymerization was carried out by heat at 60°C for 72 h. Ultrathin  
138 sections were cut using a Reichert-Jung Ultracut E ultramicrotome, placed on copper grids and

139 poststained with uranyl acetate (2%) in methanol for 5 min and lead citrate for 4 min. Finally,  
140 ultrathin sections were examined using a JEOL 1010 TEM operated at an accelerating voltage of  
141 80 kV in the CCiTUB.

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## 144 **Results**

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146 Side-by-side comparison of transmission electron micrographs (TEM) the in utero eggs within  
147 the intact parent of all four microphalloid species demonstrated significant similarities in the  
148 basic patterns of embryogenesis and ultimate structure of the egg shell and embryonic envelopes.  
149 However, substantial variation occurred among the four species, especially relating to the timing  
150 of postembryonic development into the fully formed miracidium (i.e., larvigenesis), and in the  
151 presence of unique structures enclosing each egg outside the egg shell. Most details have been  
152 reported previously for each individual species (Świdorski et al. 2010, 2013a, 2013b, 2014,  
153 2015a). To expand on these individual studies, our descriptions presented here provide new  
154 comparative data on these four representatives of the superfamily Microphalloidea. Essential  
155 new data in the form of TEM micrographs for each species are shown in Figs. 1-5. General  
156 observations on comparative aspects are presented below and in Table 1.

157 The eggs of all four species followed general aspects of the pattern that we and others  
158 have described previously for all trematodes and cestodes; however, there are some variations  
159 among species in details as well as in some more generalized features described here.

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### 162 *Embryogenesis and embryonic envelopes*

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164 In all four species, the early embryo (*M. felii* and *P. confusus*) or the fully formed miracidium  
165 (*M. jourdanei* and *B. turgida*), is surrounded by two syncytial embryonic envelopes: 1) an inner  
166 embryonic envelope formed from mesomeres; 2) an outer embryonic envelope formed from  
167 macromeres and vitellocyte remnants. The maternally derived egg shell covers these and  
168 constitutes the outer protective layer of the enclosed embryo, and fully formed larva in the case  
169 of *M. jourdanei* and *B. turgida*.

170 The macromeres forming the outer envelope initially have well-developed nuclei and  
171 complex perinuclear cytoplasm containing ribosomes and endomembrane elements. These cells  
172 deteriorate very quickly in *M. jourdanei*, *B. turgida*, and *P. confusus*, but persist for longer in *M.*  
173 *feliui*, in which they undergo migration to the poles of the egg prior to forming a syncytium (Fig.  
174 2). In all species, the embryo proper and ultimately the miracidium forms from micromeres.  
175 Some of these undergo apoptosis during early embryogenesis, but others persist through  
176 embryonic development, and ultimately their derivative cells form the completed miracidium  
177 larva, which develops completely within the in-utero egg in *B. turgida* (Fig. 1), and *M. jourdanei*  
178 (Fig. 4), in which fully developed cilia are easily visible.

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### 181 *Larval development*

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183 The micrographs presented here confirm the complete development of ciliated miracidia larvae  
184 within the intrauterine eggs of both *B. turgida* (Figs. 1, 2) and *M. jourdanei* (Fig. 4), thus

185 constituting very late-stage ovoviviparity in these two species. These do not attain true  
186 viviparity, as the miracidia never are released within the parent uterus. In contrast to these two  
187 ovoviviparous species, the two other species, *M. feliui* and *P. confusus*, possess eggs containing  
188 only early embryos (Figs. 3, 5), thus constituting either oviparity or very early-stage  
189 ovoviviparity.

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#### 192 *Egg shell formation and structure*

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194 All four species examined comparatively here possess an egg shell formed from secreted  
195 components of the parent worm, including vitellocytes and Mehlis' gland. In all four species, the  
196 egg shell is thick and homogenous in composition within its primary layer. A single highly  
197 electron-dense layer constitutes the egg shell of *P. confusus* (Fig. 5), but the other three species  
198 have outer or inner layers that are more electron-dense than the central primary layer (Figs. 1-4).  
199 In *M. jourdanei* and *M. feliui*, the outermost layer appears membranous (Figs. 3, 4), and possibly  
200 constitutes a fixation artefact. An operculum is clearly visible in both ovoviviparous *B. turgida*  
201 (Fig. 1, 2), as well as oviparous *M. feliui* (Fig. 3) presented here, and was present in all four  
202 species.

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#### 205 *Cocoons and extra-egg shell layers*

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207 In addition to the egg shell, the eggs of *B. turgida* and *P. confusus* were enclosed by a thick layer  
208 external to the egg shell (Figs. 2, 5). This layer consisted of a thick layer of electron-lucent  
209 material proximally and an irregular series of electron-dense islands distally, attached to  
210 a bounding membrane. For this unique structure, which has not been described in any other  
211 trematode, we have coined the term „cocoon“. Our examination did not reveal any information  
212 regarding the origin, composition, or function of this unique layer. The uterine lumen outside  
213 this cocoon, and outside the egg shells of the *M. feliui* and *M. jourdanei*, contained amorphous  
214 material that appeared unassociated with the eggs or with the surrounding uterine epithelium  
215 (Figs. 1-5).

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## 218 **Discussion**

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220 Few detailed studies have been done on ultrastructural aspects of trematode eggs, probably  
221 because the technical difficulties encountered in processing the highly resistant eggs require  
222 advanced methodological experience and skill. Despite the paucity of detailed ultrastructural  
223 studies, scanning (SEM) and/or transmission electron microscopy (TEM) have been applied to  
224 very generalized reports of many species. Thus, the literature contains many very superficial  
225 descriptions, primarily of the fully formed egg shells of trematodes that are of some medical or  
226 veterinary importance.

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231 *General pattern for all trematode eggs*

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 233 A general overview of the published research on trematode egg structure, including the new data  
 234 included in this present review, shows clear patterns of common origin and development among  
 235 all the species examined, in both the Digenea and the Aspidogastrea (Świderski 2011, 2012). The  
 236 common developmental pattern for each egg of each species, regardless of trematode taxon,  
 237 consists of an embryo surrounded by an egg shell, with shell material deriving from vitellocyte  
 238 secretions. This common pattern is very similar to that which occurs in the polyecithal eggs of  
 239 pseudophyllidean (Korneva 2001), bothriocephalidean (Świderski 1993, 1994b; Mlocicki et al.  
 240 2010a), caryophyllidean (Mlocicki et al. 2010b), spathebothriidean (Poddubnaya et al. 2005),  
 241 and other cestodes (see reviews by Świderski 1994c; Świderski and Mackiewicz 2007; Conn and  
 242 Świderski 2008), as well as in the phylogenetically more basal gyrocotylideans (Levron et al.  
 243 2016), which may be more closely related to trematodes. A similar pattern occurs in least some  
 244 neophoran turbellarians (Shinn 1993), though critical comparisons between eggs of  
 245 neodermatans and more basal Platyhelminthes are still lacking and need further study.

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248 *Diversity in trematode egg shell surface ultrastructure*

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 250 As a technicality, ultrastructural studies are often as regarded as encompassing investigations  
 251 that employ scanning (SEM) as well as transmission (TEM) electron microscopy. However, true  
 252 cellular ultrastructure requires either TEM or very specialized modified SEM that is coupled  
 253 with cryofracturing or other methods to show internal structure. Our comparative study  
 254 presented here, as well as our earlier related work, employs TEM exclusively or primarily, as this  
 255 is necessary to discern cellular and subcellular details. Nevertheless, while SEM reveals few if  
 256 any internal structures, and is not adequate for demonstrating embryogenetic details, it is a much  
 257 easier and less expensive technique to use for general descriptive studies. Thus many authors  
 258 have published generalized SEM micrographs of various trematode eggs, so that some  
 259 information is available on variations in egg shell surface features; in some cases this has been  
 260 supplemented with TEM of only the egg shell, with no internal cellular features of the embryo or  
 261 larva available, presumably due to inadequate penetration of the egg shell with fixative and  
 262 embedding medium. This generalized literature is far too voluminous to cover in this review, but  
 263 some examples are presented here to demonstrate the variety of digenean egg shell surfaces.  
 264 Krupa (1974) used SEM and TEM to show shallow ridges covering the surface of *Cryptocotyle*  
 265 *lingua* eggs. In an early comparative SEM study of eggs from the three primary human  
 266 schistosome species, *Schistosoma haematobium*, *Schistosoma japonicum*, and *Schistosoma*  
 267 *mansoni*, Ford and Blankespoor (1979) showed interspecific variations in surface microspines.  
 268 Bundy (1981) presented SEM and some TEM data showing filamentous extensions of the egg  
 269 shell of *Transverotrema patielense*. Fujino et al. (1989) used SEM and TEM to show complex  
 270 ridges and folds in the eggs of two species each of the genera *Haplorchis* and *Metagonimus*.  
 271 Their results were corroborated for these species, as well as other trematode parasites of humans  
 272 in Thailand (Tesana et al., 1991). Ditrich et al. (1992) used extensive SEM and a single TEM to  
 273 reveal extensive variation in the surface sculpturing of several medically important heterophyid  
 274 and opisthorchiid flukes, including some with extensive and complex folding surface extensions;  
 275 this was corroborated for *Opishorchis viverrini* by Scholz et al. (1992). Krejci and Fried (1994)  
 276 and Fujino et al. (2000) reported relatively smooth surfaces for the eggs of several

277 echinostomatid species. Similarly, *Eurytrema coelomatica* eggs seem to have a nearly smooth or  
278 only slightly sculptured surface (Pinheiro et al. 2015). Shell sculpturing seems to be a consistent  
279 character for any given species, and its distinctive characteristics are identifiable even after  
280 thousands of years mummified within their deceased hosts (Shin et al. 2009). This present  
281 review is not intended to review all of the known cases of surface SEM studies, as many are  
282 parts of cursory case studies in which ultrastructural examination was not the intended goal.  
283 Nevertheless, the literature contains much that has not yet been reviewed and synthesized,  
284 though the available material is primarily related to trematodes of human and veterinary  
285 significance. Analysis and synthesis of diverse egg shell surface form should be the main  
286 objective of a future literature review, of more original research on a broad range of trematode  
287 species.

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#### 290 *Diversity of trematode intrauterine structures outside the egg shell*

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292 This report corroborates and extends information from recent individual reports (Świdorski et al.  
293 2013b, 2015a) that *B. turgida* and *P. confusus* possess a unique bilayered structure outside the  
294 egg shell, separating it from the uterine lumen contents. This distinctive structure, which we  
295 designate as a "cocoon", is of undetermined function, though we suggest that it is protective. No  
296 other extra-egg-shell structure has been described from any other trematode.

297 To the contrary, such structures have been described from many cestodes, although none  
298 has the same appearance as those described for the two trematodes. Outside the vitelline capsule  
299 and egg shell, or uterine-derived capsule in the case of oligolecithal cestodes (Conn and  
300 Świdorski 2008), some cestode eggs are further surrounded by diverse uterine, parenchymal, or  
301 utero-parenchymal structures (Świdorski et al. 2016b). Such complex parental structures appear  
302 to be confined to certain members of the cestode order Cyclophyllidea. No trematode to date has  
303 been demonstrated to possess such parental structures outside the basic reproductive system.  
304 The cocoons reported here for *B. turgida* and *P. confusus* are clearly within the uterus, and thus  
305 unlike the somatic protective structures described for cestodes such as *Mesocestoides* spp.,  
306 nematotaeniids, and davaineids (Conn et al. 1984; Conn 1999; Świdorski and Conn 2004;  
307 Świdorski et al. 2015b). However, they are somewhat similar to the intrauterine capsules present  
308 in *Ochroristica anolis* (Conn and Etges 1984; Conn 1985) The two species described in this  
309 report are the only trematode species for which any additional layer outside the egg shell has  
310 been described. Both of these trematode species belong to the microphalloid family  
311 Pleurogenidae, and this cocoon structure may be a feature specific to this family. However,  
312 detailed ultrastructure of potential extra-egg intra-uterine structures has been examined for very  
313 few trematode families, even in comparison to the number of such studies among the cestodes  
314 (Conn 1985; Świdorski and Conn 2004). Wittrock (1982) used TEM and SEM to demonstrate a  
315 double-layered egg shell for *Quinqueserialis quinqueserialis*, a notocotyloid digenean, but the  
316 exact nature of the outer layer was not elucidated in that study, and may have been extraneous  
317 uterine secretion on the surface of the vitelline-derived egg shell. Detailed ultrastructural studies  
318 of the eggs, uterine epithelium, and uterine contents of a wider taxonomic variety of trematodes  
319 should be a high priority in the future to understand both phylogenetic and functional  
320 morphological aspects of these and similar structures.

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323 *Diversity in trematode vitellocyte number and contribution*

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325 By far the majority of trematode eggs conform to the polylecithal pattern, in which very  
 326 many vitellocytes accompany the oocyte and sperm into the ootype, and are subsequently  
 327 enclosed by the vitelline membrane and finally the egg shell. Indeed, in terms of organelle  
 328 volume, the primary function of vitellocytes seems to contribution of egg shell precursor  
 329 materials by secretion from numerous egg shell vesicles (Björkman and Thorsell 1963; Sato et  
 330 al. 1966; Irwin and Threadgold 1970, 1972; Justine and Mattei 1984; Conn 2000; Meepool et al.  
 331 2006). In the plagiiorchiid trematode, *Plagitura salamandra*, it was shown that a malformed  
 332 worm lacking connections between the vitelline ducts and the ootype resulted in normal  
 333 vitellocytes and normal oocytes and embryos, but no secretion of egg shell materials and thus no  
 334 formation of egg shells (Conn and Etges 1983). Thus, the reference to “lecithality” among  
 335 trematodes, and even the use of the term “vitellocyte”, are perhaps misnomers, as both terms  
 336 imply the typically nutritive function of yolk in other animals. Conversely, ectolecithal animals  
 337 such as the trematodes, cestodes, and all neophoran Platyhelminthes (see review by Conn  
 338 2000), appear to supply nutrients to the developing embryo primarily through the autolysis of  
 339 blastomeres and their later resorption by differentiating embryonic cells (Świderski et al. 2012).  
 340 In trematode eggs, the nutritive role is minor, being secondary to egg shell production and  
 341 perhaps to other functions surrounding fertilization and embryogenesis (Wittrock 1982; Conn  
 342 and Etges 1983; Holy and Wittrock 1986; Orido 1988; Colhoun et al. 1998; Khampoosa et al.  
 343 2011). It has been proposed, with some ultrastructural evidence, that vitelline secretions of at  
 344 least some oligolecithal cestodes may function in polyspermy prevention (Conn 1988); however,  
 345 this has been scarcely studied for cestodes, and not at all for trematodes, and thus is a prime  
 346 subject in need of new research.

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349 *Diversity in trematode embryogenesis and larvigensis*

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351 The basic events of cleavage and embryonic development are remarkable uniform in all  
 352 species of neodermatans that have been studied. In all, the early macromeres break away from  
 353 the blastomere mass to form the syncytial outer envelope. This is followed by a similar  
 354 separation of mesomeres from the remaining mass to form the syncytial inner envelope in all  
 355 groups studied thus far except the aspidogastreans, which form a discrete inner vitelline  
 356 syncytium and no inner embryonic envelope; this unusual pattern has been described for  
 357 *Aspidogaster limacoides*, only one aspidogastrean thus far studied in detail (Świderski et al.  
 358 2011, 2012). Possibly similar to *A. limacoides*, Levron et al. (2016) described the cestodarian  
 359 *Gyrocotyle urna* as having only a single embryonic envelope, at least in early development, but  
 360 cautioned that two envelopes may differentiate in later stages than those examined in their study.  
 361 This point of variation among embryonic envelopes of neodermatan taxa needs further study of  
 362 more species and at more developmental stages.

363

364 For all neodermatan taxa studied to date, the embryo proper is thus formed exclusively  
 365 from the remaining micromeres, and develops into the hexacanth (Cestoda), decacanth  
 366 (Cestodaria), miracidium (Digenea), oncomiracidium (Monogenea), or cotylocidium  
 367 (Aspidogastrea) larva (Burt 1987; Conn 2000; Conn et al. 2007; Levron et al. 2016). The  
 368 blastomere mass and later embryonic stages differentiate into the larva at a rate and in a location  
 that varies among different taxa. In cestodes, the usual pattern results in a fully formed



369 hexacanth larva within the parent worm's gravid uterus, thus constituting ovoviviparous  
370 development (Conn and Świdorski 2008). Similarly, monogenean oncomiracidia frequently are  
371 ovoviviparous (Tinsley 1993; Cable and Tinsley 1991; Cable et al. 1997), as is the  
372 aspidogastrean *A. limacoides* (Świdorski et al. 2012). However, among neodermatan flatworms,  
373 viviparity has been confirmed only for a few gyroductylid monogeneans (Cable et al. 1996), and  
374 never for any digenean. Among digeneans, some are ovoviviparous, including *B. turgida* and *M.*  
375 *jourdanei* described here, along with a few others studied recently (Swiderski et al. 2017a,  
376 2017b). However, many others, like *P. confusus* and *M. felii* described here, are oviparous.  
377 Ovoviviparity may be the most common pattern among digeneans, whether the eggs develop in the  
378 external environment (Born-Torrijos et al. 2017), or within the body of the definitive hosts, such  
379 as the extensively studied schistosomatids (Eklū-Natey et al. 1982; Neill et al. 1988; Ashton et  
380 al. 2001; Jones et al. 2008; Jurberg et al. 2009; Świdorski 1984, 1985, 1986, 1988, 1994a;  
381 Świdorski et al. 1980).

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383

### 384 **Conclusions**

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386 Our new data have shown remarkable diversity among the eggs of four closely related  
387 microphalloidean trematodes, from similar habitats, and all native to the Eurasian contiguous  
388 land mass (see Table 1). In this case, variation in definitive host (amphibian vs. mammal), host  
389 habitat (freshwater vs. terrestrial) and trematode family are not the apparent bases of these  
390 variations. These new data reflect the growing understanding of trematode eggs as being very  
391 diverse in structure and developmental timing of larvigogenesis, while conserving much basic  
392 similarity in terms of fundamental embryogenetic patterns and essential contributions from the  
393 female reproductive system of the parent worm. Clearly, a broad taxonomic range of trematode  
394 eggs is in need of much more detailed study that can only be accomplished through electron  
395 microscopy of cellular and subcellular characteristics. As we have observed in the past two  
396 decades with cestodes (reviewed by Conn and Świdorski 2008), further studies of trematode eggs  
397 are likely to reveal that, contrary to past assumption, the microscopic but highly complex and  
398 varied eggs are likely to provide much greater insight into the population and community  
399 dynamics of the trematodes and their gastropod and vertebrate hosts.

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661 **Table 1.** Comparative host-parasite data and ultrastructure of the intrauterine eggs in some

662 European Microphalloidea.

<b>PARASITE AND HOST DATA</b>				
DIGENEAN SPECIES	<i>Maritrema felii</i>	<i>Mediogonimus jourdanei</i>	<i>Brandesia turgida</i>	<i>Prosotocus confusus</i>
DIGENEAN FAMILY	Microphallidae	Prosthogonimidae	Pleurogenidae	Pleurogenidae
DEFINITIVE HOST	<i>Crocidura russula</i>	<i>Myodes glareolus</i>	<i>Pelophylax ridibundus</i>	<i>Pelophylax lessonae</i>
HOST	Mammalia:	Mammalia:	Amphibia:	Amphibia:
SYSTEMATICS	Soricimorpha	Rodentia	Anura	Anura
HOST HABITAT	Terrestrial	Terrestrial	Aquatic	Aquatic
HOST LOCALITY	La Ricarda, Barcelona (Spain)	Nature Reserve of Py (France)	Rybinsk Reservoir (Russia)	Bugskiy landscape reserve (Belarus)
<b>ULTRASTRUCTURAL DATA</b>				
EGG SHELL TYPE	Oligolecithal	Polylecithal	Polylecithal	Polylecithal
EGG SHELL ORIGIN	Vitellocytes and Mehlis	Vitellocytes and Mehlis	Vitellocytes and Mehlis	Vitellocytes and Mehlis
EXTRA-EGG SHELL "COCOON"	No	No	Yes	Yes
"COCOON" ORIGIN	N/A	N/A	Undetermined	Undetermined
DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE	Early embryo	Fully formed miracidium	Fully formed miracidium	Early embryo
OUTER ENVELOPE	Macromeres persist into later development	Macromere nuclei degenerate early	Macromere nuclei degenerate early	Macromere nuclei degenerate early
INNER ENVELOPE	Mesomere syncytium?	Mesomere syncytium	Persistent mesomere syncytium	Mesomere syncytium?

663 N/A not applicable

664



665 **Abbreviations to all figures:** AG – apical gland, Bl – blastomere, C – cilia, DI – dense islands  
 666 of electron-dense material at peripheral membrane of external, electron lucent cocoon, DB –  
 667 dense bodies, DM – degenerating micromeres, ES – egg shell, FA – possible fixation artefacts,  
 668 FCD - areas of focal cytoplasmic degradation, GER-B – granular endoplasmic reticulum body, gl  
 669 – glycogen,  $\alpha$ -gl – alpha-glycogen rosettes,  $\beta$ -gl – beta-glycogen particles, HCh –  
 670 heterochromatin islands, L – lipid droplets, LG – lateral gland, m – mitochondria, MaN –  
 671 macromere nucleus, Mi – miracidium, MiG – miracidial gland, N – nucleus, np – nuclear pore,  
 672 Op – operculum, SG – secretory granules, Sp – spermatozoa, SR – striated rootlets, TL –  
 673 transparent layer of external electron-lucent cocoon.

674

675 **Fig. 1A and B.** TEM micrographs of differentiating eggs of *Brandesia turgida*. **A** – Low power  
 676 TEM micrograph illustrating the general topography of a mature intrauterine egg in the distal  
 677 part of the uterus. Note: (1) an outer anucleate layer, situated externally to the egg shell and  
 678 forming a thick cocoon composed of a transparent, electron-lucent substance; and (2) numerous  
 679 small, electron dense islands irregularly dispersed around the egg surface and attached to its  
 680 peripheral membrane. **B** – Operculated pole of a mature, intrauterine egg showing details of the  
 681 three egg envelopes, the operculum and the apical part of a ciliated miracidium. Note: (1) the  
 682 very close contact between the operculum and the flat discs of the peripheral islands of electron  
 683 dense material situated at the surface of the transparent, electron-lucent cocoon.

684

685 **Fig. 2A and B.** TEM micrographs of the apical region of differentiating eggs of *Brandesia*  
 686 *turgida*. **A** – Anterior part of a mature egg containing a fully formed, ciliated miracidium. Note:  
 687 (1) the characteristic apical gland with large nucleus containing heterochromatin islands and (2)  
 688 numerous cilia and their striated rootlets embedded in the peripheral layer of the miracidium  
 689 providing an evidence for the miracidial maturity in the intrauterine eggs. **B** – High power  
 690 micrograph showing details of the apical part of ciliated miracidium. Note numerous secretory  
 691 granules and elongated mitochondria in the apical gland cytoplasm and the several cross section  
 692 of cilia and oblique section of their striated ciliary rootlets.

693

694 **Fig. 3A, B, C and D.** TEM micrographs of differentiating eggs of *Maritrema felii*. **A and B** –  
 695 Low-power TEM micrographs of two eggs with early embryos comprising only a very few  
 696 blastomeres but already exhibiting the degenerating, pycnotic nuclei of micromeres undergoing  
 697 apoptosis. **C and D** – TEM micrographs showing details of the apical pole of differentiating  
 698 eggs. Note: (1) a well-defined operculum in the shell of each egg, (2) numerous spermatozoa in  
 699 the uterine lumen, frequently surrounding the egg shell surfaces, and (3) a peeling of the egg  
 700 shell surface, possibly a fixation artefact.

701

702 **Fig. 4A, B, C and D.** TEM micrographs of mature eggs of *Mediogonimus jourdanei*. **A** – The  
 703 general topography of the mature egg. Note: (1) peeling of the outer surface of the egg shell,

704 possibly representing fixation artefacts, (2) flattened nucleus of the mesomere and several  
705 spherical lipid droplets in the inner envelope cytoplasm, and (3) a great number of cilia which  
706 occupy all the space between the egg envelopes and miracidium. **B** – Part of the egg showing the  
707 miracidium surrounded by numerous cilia and miracidial gland with numerous electron-dense  
708 secretory granules in the central part of the micrograph. **C** – High-power TEM micrograph  
709 showing details of the miracidial gland nucleus. Note: (1) numerous large heterochromatin  
710 islands situated around the nuclear membrane and in the central part of the nucleoplasm, and (2)  
711 numerous nuclear pores around the nuclear membrane. **D** – Peripheral cytoplasm of the  
712 miracidium. Note: (1) several electron-dense secretory granules of different sizes, (2) numerous  
713 cross-sectioned at different levels miracidial cilia, and (3) heavy accumulation of alpha-glycogen  
714 rosettes and beta-glycogen particles.

715

716 **Fig. 5 A and B.** TEM micrographs of differentiating eggs of *Prosotocus confusus*. **A** – Low-  
717 magnification micrograph illustrating the general topography of three differentiating eggs in the  
718 proximal part of the uterus. Note: (1) an outer anucleate layer situated externally to the egg shell  
719 of each egg, forming a thin layer of cocoon composed of a transparent, electron-lucent substance;  
720 (2) numerous small, electron-dense islands irregularly dispersed around the egg surface, all  
721 attached to its peripheral membrane; and (3) dense bodies representing mainly degenerating early  
722 blastomeres and/or their nuclei undergoing apoptosis. **B** – Enlarged micrograph showing entire  
723 egg in early stage of embryonic development showing already three large areas of focal  
724 degradation and adjacent to a few small GER bodies, representing evident signs of cellular  
725 apoptosis.

**Table 1.** Comparative host-parasite data and ultrastructure of the intrauterine eggs in some European Microphalloidea.

<b>PARASITE AND HOST DATA</b>				
DIGENEAN SPECIES	<i>Maritrema felii</i>	<i>Mediogonimus jourdanei</i>	<i>Brandesia turgida</i>	<i>Prosotocus confusus</i>
DIGENEAN FAMILY	Microphallidae	Prosthogonimidae	Pleurogenidae	Pleurogenidae
DEFINITIVE HOST	<i>Crocidura russula</i>	<i>Myodes glareolus</i>	<i>Pelophylax ridibundus</i>	<i>Pelophylax lessonae</i>
HOST SYSTEMATICS	Mammalia: Soricimorpha	Mammalia: Rodentia	Amphibia: Anura	Amphibia: Anura
HOST HABITAT	Terrestrial	Terrestrial	Aquatic	Aquatic
HOST LOCALITY	La Ricarda, Barcelona (Spain)	Nature Reserve of Py (France)	Rybinsk Reservoir (Russia)	Bugskiy landscape reserve (Belarus)
<b>ULTRASTRUCTURAL DATA</b>				
EGGSHELL TYPE	Oligolecithal	Polylecithal	Polylecithal	Polylecithal
EGGSHELL ORIGIN	Vitellocytes and Mehlis	Vitellocytes and Mehlis	Vitellocytes and Mehlis	Vitellocytes and Mehlis
EXTRA-EGGSHELL "COCOON"	No	No	Yes	Yes
"COCOON" ORIGIN	N/A	N/A	Undetermined	Undetermined
DEVELOPMENTAL STAGE	Early embryo	Fully formed miracidium	Fully formed miracidium	Early embryo
OUTER ENVELOPE	Macromeres persist into later development	Macromere nuclei degenerate early	Macromere nuclei degenerate early	Macromere nuclei degenerate early
INNER ENVELOPE	Mesomere syncytium?	Mesomere syncytium	Persistent mesomere syncytium	Mesomere syncytium?
N/A not applicable				









