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# **Research Paper**

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# Morphological and genetic analysis of a rediscovered *Clinostomum* sp. parasitising *Titanolebias monstrosus* and *Trigonectes aplocheiloides* (Cyprinodontiformes: Rivulidae)

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## Abstract

Clinostomids are a group of digeneans in which substantial diversity has been recently discovered, with some metacercariae specific to their fish hosts. Genetic analysis has been instrumental in elucidating species diversity within this genus. Recently, seven COI lineages were reported in Argentina, along with three metacercarial morphotypes lacking molecular data. Two of these were found parasitising Rivulidae fishes. The discovery of Clinostomum metacercariae in Trigonectes aplocheiloides and Titanolebias monstrosus from temporary ponds in the western Chacoan region allowed us to redescribe the metacercariae previously identified by other authors and provide the first sequences of this lineage. The morphology of the metacercariae in both hosts matched previously reported descriptions. Genetic analysis clustered the new lineage with Clinostomum detruncatum, Clinostomum sp. 7, Clinostomum L1, and Clinostomum CRA. This discovery leaves only two morphological records of metacercariae to be characterised using DNA sequencing: one in another Rivulidae (Neofundulus paraguayensis) and one in a Loricaridae (Hypostomus sp.). The present results represent the eighth clinostomid lineage sequenced from Argentina, highlighting the extensive diversity in South America and the many lineages yet to be described or identified, considering that only one of these lineages is formally described based on adult specimens found in the heron Ardea cocoi.

## Introduction

Species of *Clinostomum* Leidy 1856 have an indirect life cycle involving a snail as the first intermediate host, fish or amphibians as the second intermediate hosts, and fish-eating birds, mammals, or occasionally reptiles as the definitive hosts (Kanev *et al.* 2002). Until recently, species diversity of clinostomids remained largely unknown. This changed with the application of combined morphological and genetic tools, revealing significant species diversity within this family, particularly in the genus *Clinostomum* (e.g., Pérez-Ponce de León *et al.* 2016; Caffara *et al.* 2017; Locke et al. 2019; Sereno-Uribe *et al.* 2018; Briosio-Aguilar *et al.* 2018; Montes *et al.* 2020, 2021, 2023). In Argentina, seven COI lineages of *Clinostomum* have been described or reported (Montes *et al.* 2020, 2021, 2023), and phylogenetic analysis supports the division of the genus into two clades: one from the Old World and another from the Americas (Locke *et al.* 2015).

In Argentina, a few metacercariae have been described or cited based solely on morphology, including from *Hypostomus plecostomus* (Linnaeus, 1758) from Córdoba province (Weyenbergh, 1878) and from *Neofundulus paraguayensis* (Eigenmann & Kennedy, 1903) from Formosa province (Szidat, 1969). Additionally, metacercariae were reported in *Trigonectes* sp. (Myers) and *Hoplosternum littorale* (Hancock, 1828) from Salta province, but without molecular data (Davies *et al.* 2016). The records of metacercariae in Rivulidae by Szidat (1969) and Davies *et al.* (2016) are particularly important because of the high value of these fishes to aquarists and their significance as endangered species in the Neotropics (Alonso 2022; Alonso et al. 2023, 2024).

Seasonal killifish, members of the Neotropical Rivulidae and African Nothobranchiidae families within the order Cyprinodontiformes, inhabit temporary wetlands that periodically dry up. These fish lay desiccation-resistant eggs that undergo metabolic and developmental arrests

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known as diapause, regulated by environmental cues. The eggs hatch when ponds refill with rainwater, whereas adults do not survive the dry period (Podrabsky and Hand 2015; Furness 2016). Seasonal killifish exhibit rapid growth and maturity within a short lifespan, thriving in harsh conditions (Costa 1998; Berois et al. 2015). Nearly 48% of killifish species in the Neotropical region are threatened due to their narrow geographic ranges and reliance on seasonal aquatic habitats highly impacted by human activities (Costa 2016; Alonso *et al.* 2018, 2023, 2024).

As part of our studies on killifishes in Argentina, particularly in the western Chacoan region, we discovered *Clinostomum* metacercariae infecting *Trigonectes aplocheiloides* Huber 1995 and *Titanolebias monstrosus* (Huber, 1995). The objectives of this study were to analyse the *Clinostomum* metacercariae found in Rivulidae fish, describe their morphology, and report their COI sequences to evaluate their phylogenetic position.

### Materials and methods

## Collection of samples and morphological study

Nine *Tr. aplocheiloides* (TRI) and two *Ti. monstrosus* (TMO) were sampled using hand nets near Hickman on the route to Embarcación city (-23.215479, -63.706228, Salta province). The collection site is the same as the one reported by Davies et al. (2016) where they found clinostomids parasitising *H. littorale.* It is also located approximately 100 km in a straight line from Bañados del Quinquincho, where those authors discovered infected *Trigonectes* sp. (Fig. 1).

The fish were transported alive in aerated, water-filled bags to a field laboratory. The hosts were euthanised with an overdose of eugenol anesthetic (30 mg/L) and subjected to necropsy. Internal organs (testes, ovaries, liver, intestine, and mesentery) were excised and fixed in 10% buffered formalin for light microscopic studies. The metacercariae of *Clinostomum* were removed from their cyst using needles, rinsed in 0.85% saline solution, and preserved in 96% ethanol for molecular analysis. Some parasites were fixed in formalin after excysting for morphological analysis.

#### Molecular analysis

DNA was extracted from whole specimens of metacercariae infecting Tr. aplocheiloides and Ti. monstrosus using PURO-Genomic DNA (Productos Bio-logicos SA) following the manufacturer's protocol. A fragment of the partial COI-mtDNA gene was amplified using polymerase chain reaction on an Eppendorf Mastercycler thermal cycler with the forward primer DICE 1F (5' -ATT AAC CCT CAC TAA ATT WCN TTR GAT CAT AAG- 3') and the reverse primer DICE 14R (5' -TAA TAC GAC TCA CTA TAC CHA CMR TAA ACA TAT GAT G-3') (Van Steenkiste et al. 2015). The reaction was performed with GoTAQ Master Mix (Promega) following the manufacturer's protocol. The thermocycling conditions followed Montes et al. (2023). polymerase chain reaction products were sequenced by Macrogen Inc. (Korea). Sequences were manually edited using the Geneious 11 platform. Nucleotide alignment was checked for pseudogenes by translating sequences into amino acids based on the invertebrate mitochondrial genetic code. Newly sequenced barcode fragments were aligned with COI sequences from GenBank using the MAFFT v.7 program (Katoh and Standley 2013).

Sequences of Euclinostomum heterostomum (Rudolphi 1809), Ithyoclinostomum yamagutii Rosser et al. 2020, and Odhneriotrema incomodum (Leidy 1850) were used as outgroups as previously done by Montes et al. (2023). Optimal partitioning schemes and substitution models for each DNA partition were determined using the Bayesian Information Criterion with the "greedy" search strategy in Partition Finder v. 1.1.1 (Lanfear et al. 2012). The dataset encompassing barcode fragments was partitioned based on first-, second-, and third-codon positions, each employing the appropriate nucleotide substitution model. The first codon position used the Tamura-Nei model with estimates of invariant sites and gammadistributed among-site variation (TrN+I+G). The second codon position utilised the Kimura 1981 model with unequal base frequencies (K81uf), and the third codon position was characterised by the general time-reversible model with gamma-distributed among-site variation (GTR + G). For the Bayesian Inference analyses, the implemented model was GTR for all three positions because the less complex TrN+I+G and K81uf are not implemented in Mr. Bayes. The first codon with invariant sites and gammadistributed among-site variation (GTR+I+G) while the second codon position used a model with equal-distributed among-site variation (GTR).

The phylogenetic trees were reconstructed using two parallel analyses of Metropolis-Coupled Markov Chain Monte Carlo for  $20 \times 10^6$  generations each, to estimate the posterior probability distribution using Bayesian Inference through MrBayes v. 3.2.1 (Ronquist *et al.* 2012). Topologies were sampled every 1,000 generations. The first 25% of the sampled trees were discarded as 'burn in'. The consensus tree was visualised in FigTree 1.4.2 (Rambaut 2014). The proportion (p) of absolute nucleotide sites (p-distance) (Nei and Kumar 2000) was obtained to compare the genetic distance among and between lineages, using MEGA 7, with 1,000 bootstrap replicates and a nucleotide substitution (transition + transversions) uniform rate. The obtained sequences were deposited in the GenBank database (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov) (Table 1).

#### Morphological analysis

Specimens of *Clinostomum* TRI and TMO were stained in hydrochloric carmine, dehydrated through a series of ethanol concentrations, cleared, and mounted in Canada balsam (Pritchard and Kruse 1982). Specimens were photographed with an AmScope MU 1000 MP digital camera attached to an Olympus BX51 microscope and measured using ImageJ software (Schneider *et al.* 2012). Whole specimens were photographed with a Leica DMC 4500 digital camera attached to a Leica M205A stereomicroscope. Voucher specimens were deposited in the Invertebrate Collection of the Museo de La Plata, La Plata, Argentina under the accession numbers MLP-HE 8150 (*Clinostomum* TRI) and MLP-HE 8151 (*Clinostomum* TMO).

#### Results

A total of 72 digeneans were collected from *Tr. aplocheiloides*, with a prevalence of 78%, an abundance of eight, and an intensity of 14.4. Both *Ti. monstrosus* individuals were infected with more than 100 metacercariae. The parasites in both hosts were attached to different organs and musculature, and at various stages of development, with only those showing more mature genitalia being measured.

Clinostomidae Lühe, 1901

Clinostomum Leidy, 1856

Clinostomum TRI (Fig. 2a), TMO (Fig. 2b)

Table 1. Information on clinostomids species/lineages used to construct the cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) phylogenetic tree showed in Fig 1 (new sequences in bold)

Species/lineages	COI sequence	Host order and family	Host species	Locality	Sequence from
Clinostomum album	MH282542	Planorbidae	Planorbella trivolvis	Mississippi, USA	Rosser <i>et al</i> . (2018)
Clinostomum arquus	KJ477565	Cyprinodontiformes, Poeciliidae	Pseudoxiphophorus jonesii	Presa Los Ocotes, México	Pérez Ponce de León et al. (2016)
Clinostomum ASC	OR645410	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Australoheros scitulus	Entre Ríos, Argentina	Montes <i>et al.</i> (2023)
Clinostomum attenuatum	KP150305	Anura, Ranidae	Lithobates sp.	Quebec, Canada	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum brieni	MH253044	Siluriformes, Clariidae	Clarias gariepinus	Limpopo, South Africa	Caffara <i>et al.</i> (2019)
Clinostomum caffarae	KU156797	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Egretta thula	Lago de Catemaco, México	Pérez Ponce de León <i>et al</i> . (2016)
Clinostomum cichlidorum	KU156816	Perciformes, Cichlidae	Archocentrus siquia	Rio Las Vueltas, Costa Rica	
Clinostomum "Adult-Cra"	MW187310	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea cocoi	Santa Fe, Argentina	Montes <i>et al</i> . (2021)
Clinostomum "Cra"	MF673556-57	Characiformes, Crenuchiidae	Characidium rachovii	Entre Ríos Argentina	Montes <i>et al</i> . (2020)
Clinostomum "Cra"	MF67356263	Characiformes, Characidae	Hyphessobrycon anisitsi	Entre Ríos Argentina	Montes <i>et al</i> . (2020)
Clinostomum "CDIM"	OR645411	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Cichlasoma dimerus	Bueno Aires, Argentina	Montes et al. (2023)
Clinostomum complanatum	KM518246	Caudata: Salamandridae	Triturus carnifex or Lissotriton vulgaris	Italy	Caffara et al. (2014)
Clinostomum cutaneum	KP110515	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea cinerea	Central, Kenya	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum "Cvi"	MF673558–59	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Crenicichla vitatta	Corrientes, Argentina	Montes <i>et al.</i> (2020)
Clinostomum detruncatum	KP110518	Synbranchiformes, Synbranchidae	Synbranchus marmoratus	Guaira, Brazil	Locke <i>et al.</i> (2015)
Clinostomum fergalliarii	MW187308-09	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea Cocoi	Buenos Aires, Argentina	Montes <i>et al.</i> (2021)
	OR645409			Santa Fe, Argentina	Montes et al. (2023)
Clinostomum "Gba"	MF673560-61	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Gymnogeophagus balzanii	Corrientes, Argentina	Montes <i>et al</i> . (2020)
Clinostomum heluans	KP110534		Cichlasoma boliviense	Santa Cruz, Bolivia	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
	MG860853	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea alba	Mexico	Briosio-Aguilar <i>et al</i> .
	MG860852	Perciformes, Cichlidae	Australoheros sp.	Brazil	(2018)
	MW187311		Cichlasoma dimerus	Buenos Aires, Argentina	Montes <i>et al</i> . (2021)
Clinostomum L1	KU156782	Siluriformes, Pimelodidae	Rhamdia guatemalensis	Rio San Juan, México	Pérez Ponce de León et al. (2016)
Clinostomum L3	KJ477500	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Tigrisoma mexicanum	Emiliano Zapata, México	
Clinostomum M1	KY865681	Siluriformes, Schilbeidae	Schilbe intermedius	South Africa	Caffara et al. (2017)
Clinostomum M2	KY865662	Osteoglossiformes, Mormyridae	Marcusenius macrolepidotus		
Clinostomum M3	KY865667	Siluriformes, Amphiliidae	Amphilius uranoscopus		
Clinostomum M4	KY865661	Cypriniformes, Cyprinidae	Barbus trimaculatus		
Clinostomum marginatum sensu lato	JF718618	Anura, Ranidae	Rana clamitans	Quebec, Canada	Caffara et al. (2011)
	JF718619	Perciformes,	Lepomis gibbosus		
	MH282538	Centrarchidae	Lepomis macrochirus	Mississippi, USA	Rosser et al. (2018)
	JX630993	Cypriniformes, Catostomidae	Catostomus nebuliferus	Durango, Mexico	Sereno-Uribe <i>et al.</i> (2013)
	JX630995	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea alba	Veracruz, Mexico	

#### Table 1. (Continued)

Species/lineages	COI sequence	Host order and family	Host species	Locality	Sequence from
Clinostomum TMO	PQ326978-79	Cyprinodontiformes, Rivulidae	Titanolebias monstrosus	Salta, Argentina	This study
Clinostomum "Pau"	MW187306-07	Characiformes, Lebiasinidae	Pyrrhulina australis	Corrientes, Argentina	Montes <i>et al.</i> (2021)
Clinostomum phalacrocoracis	KP110522	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea cinerea	Central, Kenya	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum philippiense	KP110523	Perciformes, Osphronemidae	Trichogaster microlepis	Thailand	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum PLA	OR645412	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Pimelodella laticeps	Buenos Aires, Argentina	Montes <i>et al.</i> (2023)
Clinostomum poteae	MH282551	Suliformes, Phalacrocoracidae	Nannopterum auritus	Mississippi, USA	Rosser <i>et al</i> . (2018)
Clinostomum sp. 1	KP110524	Siluriformes, Pimelodidae	Rhamdia guatamensis	Yucatan, Mexico	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum sp. 2	KP110526	Perciformes, Gobiidae	Sicydium salvini	Oaxaca, Mexico	
Clinostomum sp. 3	KP110530	Cyprinodontiformes, Poeciliidae	Poecilia mexicana	Veracruz, Mexico	Pérez Ponce de León <i>et al</i> . (2016)
Clinostomum sp. 4	KP110531	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Apistogramma sp.	Iquitos, Peru	Locke <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum sp. 5	KP110532		Cichlasoma boliviense	Santa Cruz, Bolivia	
Clinostomum sp. 7	KJ818259	Cyprinodontiformes, Poeciliidae	Poecilia reticulata	Minas Gerais, Brazil	Pinto <i>et al</i> . (2015)
Clinostomum sinensis	MK801713	Cypriniformes, Cyprinidae	Candidia barbata	Taiwan	Caffara et al. (2019)
Clinostomum tataxumui	KJ504192	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Tigrisoma mexicanum	Laguna Manialtepec, Mexico	Pérez Ponce de León <i>et al</i> . (2016)
Clinostomum tilapiae	KY649357	Siluriformes, Mochokidae	Synodontis batensoda	Anambra River, Nigeria	Caffara et al. (2017)
Clinostomum TRI	PQ326976-77	Cyprinodontiformes, Rivulidae	Trigonectes aplocheiloides	Salta, Argentina	This study
Clinostomum ukolii	MN044350	Siluriformes, Mochokidae	Synodontis batensoda	Anambra River, Nigeria	Caffara et al. (2020)
Euclinostomum heterostomum	KP721420	Cichliformes, Cichlidae	Cichlids	Lake Kinneret, Israel	Caffara et al. (2016)
Ithyoclinostomum yamagutii	MN696163	Pelecaniformes, Ardeidae	Ardea herodias	Mississippi, USA	Rosser <i>et al</i> . (2020)
Odhneriotrema incommodum	MF766002	Crocodilia, Alligatoridae	Alligator mississippiensis	Mississippi, USA	Woodyard et al. (2017)

Description (based on five specimens found on Tr. aplocheiloides [TRI] and eight specimens on Ti. monstrosus [TMO], measurements Table 2). Body elongated, devoid of spines, flattened anterior end with oral collar. Oral sucker subterminal, rounded, smaller than ventral sucker. Developed prepharynx. Short pharynx. Intestinal caeca lateral to ventral sucker and genital primordium extending to posterior end. Diverticulated (TRI) or slightly diverticulated (TMO) intestinal wall. Ventral sucker 2-3 times larger than oral sucker, rounded, almost triangular opening. Genital complex posterior to body middle plane (TRI) or in posterior end (TMO). Testes slightly triangular, points rounded, apex of triangle wide but smaller than elongated base with an almost irregular margin. Concave base of testes facing the ootype. Posterior testis transversely elongated (in TMO). Kidney-shaped cirrus sac in right margin of anterior testis. Small, oval ovary, intertesticular and dextrally located. Tubular uterine sac not observed (TRI), tubular uterine sac, long, between genital complex and ventral sucker (TMO).

## Remarks

Despite minor morphological differences (such as pharynx size and cirrus sac length), both metacercariae found in Tr. aplocheiloides and T. monstrosus constitute a single biological entity and may be identical to those described by Davies et al. (2016). The metacercariae described by these authors were obtained from the same host (Tr. aplocheiloides) and H. littorale, near the same sampling site as in the present study. The range of measurements and features is quite similar. The main difference observed in the measurements is the body length/body weight ratio, which is smaller in Trigonectes sp. compared to those reported here or in H. littorale by Davies et al. (2016). Although the oral sucker width falls within the reported range, it is larger in both hosts found by Davies et al. (2016). This measurement affects the ratios of oral sucker width/body width and ventral sucker width/oral sucker width, which are larger and smaller, respectively, in Davies et al. (2016). The distance between the suckers is smaller in both hosts reported by Davies et al. (2016). The anterior



Figure 1. Map of Argentina showing the sampling localities and previous reports of *Clinostomum* spp. Dots: Samples sites without genetic information. 1 Province of Cordoba (Weyenbergh 1878). 2 Province of Formosa (Szidat 1969). 3 Uribelarrea city (Boero and Led 1971). 4 Pirané city, Formosa province (Lunaschi and Drago 2009). 5 Quinquincho Wetland, Salta province (Davies et al. 2016). 6 Hickman locality, Salta province (this study). 7, 8 Ibera Lagoon, Corrientes province (Montes *et al.* 2020). 9 Concordia city, Entre Ríos Province (Montes et al. 2021). 10 Montecaseros, Corrientes province (Montes *et al.* 2021). 11 Santo Tome, Santa Fe Province (Montes *et al.* 2021). 12 Juan Blanco stream, Buenos Aires Province (Montes *et al.* 2021). 13 La Balandra, Buenos Aires Province (Sutton and Damborenea 2000). 14 Espinillo stream, Buenos Aires Province (Montes *et al.* 2023). 15 El Palmar National Park, Corrientes Province (Montes *et al.* 2023).

and posterior testicle width/length ratios are larger in *Trigonectes* sp. from Davies et al. (2016), where the testicles are wider than they are long. The distance between the testes is also greater in *Trigonectes* sp. from Davies et al. (2016) compared to that found in *Tr*.



**Figure 2.** Clinostomid metacercaria from A) *Trigonectes aplocheiloides*; B) *Titanolebias monstrosus*. Abbreviations: At, anterior testis; C, caecum; Cs, cirrus sac; O, ovary; Oc, oral collar; Oo, ootype; Os, oral sucker; P, pharynx; Pp, Prepharynx; Pt, posterior testis; Vs, ventral sucker; Us, uterus. Scale bars = 500 μm.

*aplocheiloides* in this study. These observed differences may reflect variation in the maturation stage of the metacercariae.

# Molecular analysis

Four partial COI mtDNA fragments were recovered (Table 1), two from Tr. aplocheiloides and two from Ti. monstrosus. The sequences measured 612 bp for Clinostomum TRI and 542-606 bp for Clinostomum MON. The final COI alignment was 624-bp long and consisted of 63 terminals, including the newly sequenced Clinostomum specimens and outgroups. Metacercariae from both rivulid hosts fell within the New World clade in the phylogenetic tree (Fig. 3), clustering with a p-distance of 0.52% (Supplementary material 1). Phylogenetic analysis showed this lineage as a sister species to the node formed by Clinostomum sp. 7, Clinostomum L1, and Clinostomum CRA. The smallest p-distances were with Clinostomum arquus García-Varela, Pinacho-Pinacho & Pérez-Ponce de León, 2018 and Clinostomum sp. 3 (10.91%-11.17%), Clinostomum L3 (12.50-12.76%), Clinostomum GBA (13.12%-13.38%), and Clinostomum caffarae Sereno-Uribe, García-Varela, Pinacho-Pinacho & Pérez-Ponce de León, 2018 (13.25%-13.77%).

## Discussion

The metacercariae found in *Tr. aplocheiloides* and *Ti. monstrosus* belong to the same entity and belong to the *Clinostomum*gGenus.

Previous findings (Montes et al. 2020, 2021, 2023) revealed a wide range of second intermediate hosts of clinostomids in Argentina, including Characidae, Cichlidae, Crenuchiidae, Heptapteridae, and Lebiasinidae. This study is the first to sequence a *Clinostomum* lineage from the host belonging to the Rivulidae. The *Clinostomum* found here represents the eighth lineage identified in Argentina, with only one formally described as a new species so far (*Clinostomum fergalliari* Montes, Barneche, Pagano, Ferrari, Martorelli & Pérez-Ponce de León, 2021). Some metacercariae found are specific to their fish hosts such as *Clinostomum* ASC

126 (59-285)

0.95\*

		(,	<b>3</b> , <b>1</b>			
	This	This study		Davies et al. (2016)		
	Trigonectes aplocheiloides	Titanolebias monstrosus	Hoplosternum littorale	Trigonectes sp.		
BL	4039 (3499–5942)	4545 (4080–5247)	3,662 (3,398–4,032)	3,542 (2,966–4,752)		
BW	1014 (784–1336)	1225 (1060–1384)	1,012 (835–1,152)	1,231 (778–1,930)		
BL/BW	3.97 (3.45–4.46)	3.72 (3.31–3.95)	3.62*	2.88*		
FbL	1004 (876–1127)	934 (808–1,018)	n/c	n/c		
HbL	3,035 (2,453–4,890)	36,11 (3,105–4,273)	n/c	n/c		
CoL	332 (286–416)	373 (294–423)	n/c	n/c		
CoW	658 (532–810)	617 (512–652)	n/c	n/c		
OsL	159 (89–197)	177 (135–229)	229 (187–285)	230 (157–363)		
OsW	159 (113–202)	196 (158–230)	355 (246–442)	334 (147–579)		
OsW/BW	0.16 (0.08–0.20)	0.16 (0.12–0.21)	0.35*	0.27*		
PL	97 (89–108)	83 (70–87)	n/c	n/c		
PW	99 (92–104)	70 (62–79)	n/c	n/c		
VsL	678 (602–782)	642 (546–713)	613 (540–717)	681 (560–805)		
VsW	641 (583–734)	650 (534–744)	603 (520–687)	664 (540–835)		
VsW/OsW	4.28 (3.17–6.50)	3.44 (3.03–4.29)	1.70*	2.03*		
VsW/BW	0.64 (0.55–0.75)	0.52 (0.45–0.58)	0.6*	0.54*		
Dbs	429 (239–589)	401 (361–448)	188 (98–314)	56 (128–206)		
ATL	265 (250–285)	343 (220–453)	295 (265–324)	275 (167–393)		
ATW	270 (209–310)	305 (190–431)	303 (285–353)	355 (265–520)		
ATW/ATL	1.02 (0.84–1.22)	0.93 (0.54–1.22)	1.03*	1.3*		
PTL	237 (190–293)	343 (244–463)	274 (226–363)	226 (147–304)		
PTW	261 (197–317)	346 (230–487)	339 (295–373)	376 (250–599)		
PTW/PTL	1.11 (0.92–1.44)	1.04 (0.77–1.38)	1.24*	1.66*		
Dbt	129 (103–159)	202 (158–295)	142 (98–196)	191 (167–216)		
CsL	175 (140–205)	283 (237–319)	226 (167–275)	211 (167–255)		
CsW	77 (66–107)	119 (101–136)	102 (88–137)	88 (79–98)		
CsL/BL	0.04 (0.03–0.06)	0.06 (0.06–0.07)	0.06*	0.06*		
OL	120 (107–136)	152 (103–217)	160 (137–187)	132 (59–196)		

Table 2. Measurements of Clinostomum sp. infecting Rivulidae host from Embarcacion (Salta, Argentina) compared with those reported for Davies et al. (2016)

In bold are measurements of the new specimens. Measurements are shown in µm with the mean followed by the range.

Abbreviations: AT, anterior testicle; B, body; Co, collar; Cs, Cirrus sac; Dbs, distance between suckers; Dbt, distance between testicles; Fb, forebody; Hb, hindbody; L, length; n/c, not calculated; O, ovary; Os, oral sucker; P, pharynx; PT, posterior testicle; Vs, ventral sucker; W, width.

113 (84-172)

0.75 (0.56-0.95)

\*Calculated from the measurements provided by Davies et al. (2016).

OW

OW/OL

on Australoheros scitulus Říčan & Kullander 2003, Clinostomum GBA on Gymnogeophagus balzanii (Perugia, 1891), and Clinostomum PAU on Pyrrhulina australis (Eigenmann and Kennedy, 1903), all of them from Argentina. Others have a broader range of fish hosts, such as Clinostomum CRA in Characidium rachovii Regan 1913 and Psalidodon anisitsi 1907 (Eigenmann), Clinostomum heluans Braun, 1899, on Australoheros sp., and Cichlasoma dimerus (Heckel, 1840) (in Argentina), and Clinostomum L3 on Gobiomorus maculatus (Günther, 1859), Rhamdia guatamensis (Günther, 1864), Rhamdia laticauda (Kner, 1858) and Sicydium salvini Ogilvie-Grant, 1884. This last lineage, until the analysis of

86 (64-108)

0.72 (0.60-0.96)

Montes et al. (2023), was considered separate from others found in Argentina, like *Clinostomum* CVI on *Crenicichla vittata* Heckel, 1840, *C. dimerus* (CDIM); and *Clinostomum* PLA on *Pimellodella laticeps* (Eigenmann, 1917). However, genetic distance among these and other metacercariae (*Clinostomum* sp1 and *Clinostomum* sp2) from the Americas indicates they belong to the same lineage but exhibit different morphologies. The conspecificity among *Clinostomum* L3, *Clinostomum* sp1, and *Clinostomum* sp2 was previously established by Perez Ponce de Leon et al. (2016).

121 (98-147)

0.76\*

The new *Clinostomum* lineage appears to be less host-specific, parasitising different hosts from the same locality and



Posthodiplostomum HM064865

Figure 3. Phylogenetic tree inferred using Bayesian Inference derived from cytochrome c oxidase subunit I (COI) gene dataset. Numbers in the nodes represent posterior probability (<0.9 are not shown). The Clinostomum species observed in this study are in bold. Reports from Argentina are indicated with a strong black bar, whereas the turquoise bars represent lineages or species recognised in the New World.

environment. This lineage seems endemic to the Western Chacoan region, particularly in temporary ponds. The parasite appears adapted to the hydrology of these ponds, filling with water in summer from rains and drying in autumn and winter (Alonso *et al.* 2016). In addition, this shallow and confined environment might allow cercariae to parasitise secondary hosts more efficiently.

We found *Clinostomum* metacercariae displaying different degrees of development, from short individuals with underdeveloped genitalia to larger ones with developed testes, particularly in *Tr. aplocheiloides* (Supplementary material 1). Variations in developmental stages could lead to misidentification of distinct lineages without genetic analysis. Accurate description of metacercariae requires 'mature' specimens.

The genetic study has reduced the number of morphologicalonly descriptions (or citations without genetic information) of *Clinostomum* in Argentine fishes, to those found by Weyenbergh (1878) in *H. plecostomus* from Córdoba, which is not a species present in Argentina (Mirande and Koerber 2020, Bogan *et al.* 2024), and that may actually be *Hypostomus commersoni* Valencienne 1836 or *Hypostomus cordovae* (Günther, 1880); and by Szidat (1969) in *N. paraguayensis*; and juveniles found in bird throats by Lunaschi and Drago (2009) and Lunaschi *et al.* (2007). Without genetic data, it is impossible to determine if these represent previously reported lineages.

The importance of this new metacercariae relies on several aspects. Parasites play vital roles in ecosystems as part of

biodiversity, controlling host populations, and participating in energy flow within food chains (Lafferty et al. 2006; Timi and Poulin, 2020). This study of parasites, particularly this lineage, is crucial. Many aquarists value rivulids captured in nature, and the 'vellow grub' disease (caused by several Clinostomum species) could pose a significant problem if they also collect snails for their biotopes. We have observed that some fishermen use rivulids as bait, which could lead to the translocation of their parasites. Conservation issues related to Rivulidae could result in biodiversity loss in temporary ponds and affect hidden diversity within fish. Changes in rainfall, temperature (Allen and Ingram 2002; Karl and Trenberth 2003) and habitat surroundings, such as large soy plantations and agriculture, could endanger these pools. These habitats are susceptible to fire, agrochemical contamination, and other ecosystem changes (Alonso et al. 2018). Limited knowledge of parasite biodiversity and life cycles is crucial for protecting host fishes and ecosystems. Parasites can detect environmental changes, showing more sensitive responses than their hosts and indicating biogeographical shifts (Parmar et al. 2016). This underscores the importance of describing this and other parasite species or lineages. Finally, a very interesting line of investigation on the coevolution of those parasites and their seasonal killifish host inhabiting temporary wetlands seems to be a promising avenue for future research.

**Supplementary material.** The supplementary material for this article can be found at http://doi.org/10.1017/S0022149X24000658.

**Ethics approval.** The authors assert that all procedures contributing to this work comply with the ethical standards of the relevant national and institutional guides on the care and use of laboratory animals.

**Consent to participate.** All the authors give their consent to participate in this work

**Consent for publication.** All the authors give their consent to the publication of this work

**Availability of data and material.** All the material will be deposited in Museums and the sequences deposited on GenBank

#### Code availability. Not applicable

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

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