

1 Omics tools enabling vaccine discovery against fasciolosis

2 Krystyna Cwiklinski^{1*} and John P. Dalton²

3 1. Institute of Infection, Veterinary and Ecological Sciences, University of Liverpool,
4 UK

5 2. Molecular Parasitology Laboratory, Centre for One Health (MPL), Ryan Institute,
6 School of Natural Science, National University of Ireland Galway, Galway, Ireland.

7 K.Cwiklinski ORCID ID: 0000-0001-5577-2735

8 J.P.Dalton ORCID ID: 0000-0003-3829-9186

9 *Correspondence: krystyna.cwiklinski@liverpool.ac.uk (K. Cwiklinski).

10 Keywords: *Fasciola*, helminths, vaccines, genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics.

11 Abstract

12 In the past decade significant advances in our understanding of liver fluke biology have
13 been made through in-depth interrogation and analysis of evolving *Fasciola hepatica*
14 and *Fasciola gigantica* omics datasets. This information is crucial for developing novel
15 control strategies, particularly vaccines necessitated by the global spread of
16 anthelmintic resistance. Distilling them down to a manageable number of testable
17 vaccines requires combined rational, empirical, and collaborative approaches. Despite
18 a lack of clear outstanding vaccine candidate(s), we must continue to identify salient
19 parasite-host interacting molecules, likely in the secretory products, tegument, or
20 extracellular vesicles, and perform robust trials especially in livestock, employing
21 present and emerging vaccinology technologies to discover that elusive liver fluke
22 vaccine. Omics tools are bringing this prospect ever closer.

23 **Current control strategies for fasciolosis**

24 **Helminth** (see **Glossary**) parasite infections impact negatively the health of people
25 worldwide, representing a loss of 10.6 million **disability adjusted life years** each
26 year, and cause major global economic losses within the animal production industry
27 [1, 2]. Fasciolosis, resulting from infection with the liver flukes *Fasciola hepatica* and
28 *Fasciola gigantica*, is now recognised as an important neglected tropical disease
29 contributing substantially to these impacts on humans and their livestock [3]. Current
30 fluke control in both animals and people is reliant on the use of anthelmintic drugs,
31 predominantly triclabendazole (TCBZ). However, due to widespread resistance to
32 TCBZ, climate change factors, intensification of farming and the potential hybridisation
33 of these related parasites [4, 5], the incidence of animal disease is increasing,
34 threatening more human infections. The environmental damage caused by intense
35 farming and parasite control with chemicals is accelerating the need for green
36 preventative measures, particularly vaccines, which alongside improved farm
37 management and diagnostic practices would provide a multi-pronged approach to
38 fasciolosis control.

39

40 **State of play of vaccines**

41 In their recent review of *Fasciola* spp. vaccines, Spithill and colleagues [6] pointed out
42 that the majority of vaccine trials carried out to-date have concentrated on just a few
43 parasite molecules, namely cathepsin L peptidases, glutathione-S-transferases
44 (GST), fatty acid binding proteins (FABP), and leucine aminopeptidase (LAP), that
45 were of interest because they are abundantly secreted *in vitro* by the mature adult
46 parasites. These vaccine trials first used **native proteins** isolated using conventional
47 biochemical methods from the **excreted/secreted (ES) proteins** of adult parasites but

48 were later reconfigured as recombinant sub-unit vaccines produced by prokaryotic
49 bacterial and/or eukaryotic yeast expression systems (**Table 1**). Despite promising
50 results reported for some trials (as high as 89% protection against a single challenge
51 infection), in the end, these studies did not identify a vaccine that induces reproducible
52 protection at levels that encouraged further development and translation. Perhaps,
53 therefore, in light of the extensive molecular data for liver fluke that have expanded
54 and evolved as technology improves, we need to re-think our approach to consider a
55 more rational means of choosing vaccine molecules. Even in the short space of time
56 since we reviewed the available *Fasciola* spp. omics data in 2018 [7], the number of
57 available datasets has increased markedly, particularly in relation to those available
58 for *F. gigantica*. A conscious effort is therefore needed to analyse and re-evaluate this
59 collective data to discern novel aspects of liver fluke biology, which will play an
60 important role in vaccine development going forward. Additionally, and/or alternatively,
61 we need to take an empirical approach by screening as many candidates as possible,
62 although the logistics/statistics and high costs of large animal trials (sheep, and more
63 so cattle) negates our ability to perform even medium throughput vaccine screens; it
64 follows, therefore, that these studies will require close collaborations with
65 government/agricultural research institutions with access to appropriate large animal
66 research facilities.

67

68 **Why is developing a vaccine against liver fluke so difficult?**

69 *The growing migratory parasite*

70 The rapid production of the various SARS-CoV-2 vaccines in 2019 was a great
71 achievement and gives optimism for all vaccine development programmes. But this
72 achievement was built upon decades of work on coronaviruses that pinpointed the

73 spike protein as a prime target for antibody- and cellular-mediated immunity [8, 9]; the
74 spike protein is required for viral cell entry and is also one of only ~30 proteins
75 expressed by the virus. Parasites, particularly the large multicellular helminths, are far
76 more complex than viruses, requiring multiple hosts to complete their life cycle (**Figure**
77 **1**), within which they undergo extensive changes in development and growth,
78 expressing thousands of proteins; exemplified by the *Fasciola* spp. parasites that
79 transcribe over 18, 000 genes during their development within the mammalian host
80 [10-12].

81

82 Within the mammalian host, the *Fasciola* parasites migrate through several different
83 tissues and cellular environments, involving three major phases (**Figure 1**): (1) The
84 invasion across the intestinal wall by the rapidly moving newly excysted juveniles
85 (NEJ) dependent on endogenous glycogen stores; (2) the migration through the liver
86 **parenchyma** by the immature flukes that undergo extensive growth and development
87 sustained by feeding on host tissues and blood; and (3) the mature stage, where the
88 obligate blood-feeding adult parasites reside in the bile ducts with a primary purpose
89 of producing thousands of eggs per day. Analysis by histopathology [13] has shown
90 that active locomotion and migration ensures that the parasites elude the onslaught of
91 rapidly-recruited host immune cells, especially eosinophils, macrophages and
92 lymphocytes; a response that is also needed to repair the extensive damage caused
93 by the parasites' tunnelling. These cells are undoubtedly attracted by the many
94 antigens released from the parasite **tegument**, gut and reproductive organs via
95 **classical, non-classical secretion** pathways and as cargo of **extracellular vesicles**
96 [13], and also by host **alarmins** released from damaged tissue [14].

97

98 *No protective immunity displayed during natural infection*

99 Demonstration of natural immunity to infectious organisms augurs well for the
100 downstream development of a protective vaccine. But, in this regard, there is a paucity
101 of information relating to the ability of *F. hepatica* to induce protective innate and
102 cellular immunity during infections particularly in sheep and cattle, unlike comparable
103 studies of gastrointestinal nematode infection of ruminants [15, 16]. Studies in sheep
104 generally conclude that protection is not elicited during primary or challenge infection,
105 with the exception of Indonesian thin-tail (ITT) sheep that elicit high levels of immune-
106 mediated resistance to infection by *F. gigantica* but not *F. hepatica* [16-19]. Resistance
107 to re-infection shown in cattle is thought to be related to extensive liver fibrosis that
108 occurs during primary infection, rather than this being immune-mediated [16, 17].
109 Although studies by Hoyle et al. [20] indicated that drug abbreviated infections can
110 induce some protection against liver damage in cattle, field studies have shown that
111 despite exposure to multiple natural infections while out on pasture, ruminants are still
112 susceptible to further infections [21, 22]. This underlines the need for more studies on
113 liver fluke infections in ruminants to identify robust markers and mechanisms of
114 protection. Analysis of antibody responses to infections in ruminants is highly polarised
115 towards IgG1 classes, indicative of a potent Th2-driven immune response to infection
116 [23], and vaccine studies suggest that partial protection is associated with the
117 induction of IgG2 antibodies [6, 22]. But, whether IgG2 antibodies are protective in
118 themselves or are markers of a broader (Th1-driven) immune response needs further
119 clarification. Nevertheless, to-date vaccine-induced IgG2 is the only suggested
120 biomarker of potential natural and vaccine-induced protection proposed so far,
121 underscoring the need for more research in this area.

122

123 *Modulation of the host immune responses*

124 A well-known feature of liver fluke infection in laboratory animals and ruminants is the
125 rapid skewing of the host immune response from an early Th1/Th2 response towards
126 a potent Th2 and hyporesponsive phenotype [16]; a response that is essential for
127 wound healing but may not offer any protection against liver fluke parasites [24]. Th2-
128 driven responses induced by helminths can impair immune responses of bacterial co-
129 infections [25-27] and vaccine-induced Th1 performance (e.g. schistosomes and
130 diphtheria, hepatitis B and tetanus vaccines; [28-30]) and therefore needs to be
131 considered for liver fluke vaccine development as challenge infections can negate the
132 effects of the vaccination-elicited responses. A range of parasite proteins found in the
133 parasite **secretomes** have been shown to be immunomodulatory, including the
134 cathepsin peptidases, helminth defense molecule (FhHDM), Kunitz-like inhibitor
135 (FhKT1), peroxiredoxin (FhPrx), GSTs, and FABPs [31]. As such, this presents a good
136 example of a rational approach to vaccine development, i.e. targeting important
137 parasite immunomodulators, as these molecules could induce responses that
138 counteract the parasite's ability to control host immune responses [31]. Further studies
139 on molecules involved in immunomodulation by liver flukes is therefore highly
140 warranted.

141

142 **Interrogation and integration of omics data is advancing our knowledge of liver** 143 **fluke biology**

144 Deciphering the functional role that every parasite molecule plays at each phase of
145 the life cycle is critical for the future development of new control strategies. The
146 advances in sequencing technologies and their application for analysis of *Fasciola*
147 species over the past decade has laid the foundation for a global molecular view of

148 parasite developmental biology. Detailed genomic, transcriptomic and
149 proteomic/glycomic data has given us a complete picture from the starting DNA
150 through to the expression, production and post-translational modification of many
151 critical parasite proteins that can be exploited for the development of novel control
152 strategies (**Box 1**; [32]).

153

154 For both *Fasciola* spp., multiple genome assemblies are available from samples
155 collected in geographical disparate locations; *F. hepatica* isolates from the UK and
156 USA, and *F. gigantica* isolates from Uganda, India and China. These genome
157 assemblies highlight several multi-membered gene families that are known to play
158 important roles in the *Fasciola* spp., such as the papain-like cysteine peptidases,
159 cysteine peptidases inhibitors, G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs) and a plethora
160 of kinases (**Box 2**; [32, 33]). The availability of these datasets now allows genome-
161 wide comparative studies to investigate how liver flukes and their biological strategies
162 have evolved, recently revealing the evolutionary divergence of the *Fasciola* spp. 5
163 million years ago [34]. By extension, we can now investigate how both parasites have
164 since evolved and adapted to infect a wide range of hosts and determine what role
165 genetic diversity plays in parasite virulence and survival.

166

167 Comprehensive transcriptome analyses from multiple life cycle stages (seven *F.*
168 *hepatica* life cycle stages [10, 12, 35, 36] and eight *F. gigantica* life cycle stages [37]),
169 provide information as to when and where these important genes are being turned on
170 and off. These studies highlight the complex and dynamic changes the parasites
171 undergo as they transition through their developmental stages within the different
172 environments in the host. Differential gene transcription analysis of the *Fasciola* spp.

173 stage-specific transcriptomes shows that distinct subsets of genes are expressed by
174 the parasite as it migrates through the host [10, 37]. This strict gene regulation is
175 controlled in part by non-coding RNAs, of which the majority of our knowledge pertains
176 to the regulatory microRNAs (miRNAs) that also display temporal expression
177 throughout the life cycle [32, 38-40]. Amongst the most highly regulated genes are
178 those found within large gene families, specifically the secreted cathepsin cysteine
179 peptidases and the structural tubulins comprising alpha and beta tubulin, that play
180 stage-specific roles (**Box 2**; [10]).

181

182 A significant advancement in our knowledge of how the parasite interacts with its host
183 has been driven by our ability to analyse the parasite stages involved in early infection,
184 namely the NEJ and immature flukes, that were previously challenging to analyse due
185 to difficulty in obtaining sufficient parasite material [11, 12]. Underpinned by the
186 regulation of a large number of genes following the development from NEJ to mature
187 adults (up-regulation of ~18,000 genes), proteomic studies highlight the temporal
188 expression of parasite molecules that are required as the parasite migrates through
189 different tissues and microenvironments within the host [11, 12, 41]. High expression
190 of pathways associated with carbohydrate metabolism and signal transduction reveal
191 the metabolic changes driving parasite growth and development as the NEJ transitions
192 from aerobic metabolism to the reliance on aerobic acetate production displayed by
193 the immature flukes in the liver [10-12]. Analysis of the ES proteins reveals the array
194 of secreted molecules that are important for parasite survival amongst which are a
195 diverse range of proteases, protease inhibitors, antioxidants, immunomodulators,
196 metabolic enzymes (and a number of uncharacterised proteins) [11, 12, 32, 41-44].
197 These proteins are involved in critical processes including the transition to blood

198 feeding (cathepsin peptidases, saposins, LAP), protease regulation (protease
199 inhibitors) and immunomodulation/evasion (as described above). Investigation of the
200 role these proteins play is being supported by **immunolocalisation** of the proteins
201 within NEJ and adult fluke sections, and biochemical analyses of recombinantly
202 expressed proteins provides insight into their biological function.

203

204 **Omics-inspired anti-fluke vaccine development**

205 Vaccine development against fasciolosis has gradually focussed on those molecules
206 present at the host-parasite interface, specifically proteins within the parasite tegument
207 and gut, and now extracellular vesicles, which appear in the parasite secretome and
208 play a critical role in host invasion, host immune modulation/manipulation and parasite
209 survival. Proteomic studies have increased our understanding of these important
210 proteins by unmasking their expression and secretory profiles in the various *F.*
211 *hepatica* developmental life cycle stages, namely NEJ (159 proteins; [11]), immature
212 flukes (210 proteins; [12]) and adult flukes (227; [12]).

213

214 Proteases dominate the secretomes, specifically the cathepsin cysteine peptidases
215 that are involved in migration, blood feeding and immunomodulation [45]. Since all
216 these functions must be highly regulated to prevent excessive host damage, inhibitors
217 of these parasite proteases (stefins and Kunitz-type inhibitors) are also abundantly
218 secreted, particularly by the liver-migrating immature flukes [11, 12]. But some
219 secreted inhibitors do not have known targets within the parasite, e.g. serine protease
220 inhibitors (serpins), and thus are suspected to have been adapted to control host
221 proteases such as lysosome-associated cathepsins [46]. Thereby, they impair antigen
222 processing in innate immune cells such as macrophages, and impede the action of

223 serum-related proteases (e.g. thrombin, plasmin, kininogen and MBL-associated
224 serine proteases; MASPs) involved in the initiation of the Lectin complement pathway
225 and blood coagulation [46, 47]. Omics analyses have also revealed that a plethora of
226 antioxidants, such as thioredoxin (FhTrx), FhPrx, superoxide dismutases (FhSODs)
227 and GSTs, are predominately secreted by the NEJ and adult stage parasites [11, 12,
228 42, 48]. Collectively, these molecules defend the parasite against the damaging effects
229 of various **reactive oxygen species (ROS)**, but also have moonlighting roles in the
230 modulation and regulation of the host immune response, such as the alternative
231 activation of M2 macrophages by FhPrx [48, 49].

232

233 The *F. hepatica* secretome contains a variety of extracellular vesicles (EVs), whose
234 cargo (proteins, lipids and miRNAs) interact and manipulate the host immune
235 response following EV internalisation by host cells [50]. EVs that are predominantly
236 released from cells surrounding the gastrodermis in adult parasites [51, 52], are also
237 released by several life cycle stages, including eggs and NEJ [53], indicating that EVs
238 play a stage-specific role. We and others discovered that EVs are an important route
239 for the exportation of proteins that lack a signal peptide for classical secretion, such
240 as the abundantly expressed antioxidant FhTrx, various metabolic enzymes (enolase,
241 fructose-bisphosphate aldolase) and the Kunitz-type protease inhibitor [44, 54, 55].
242 Given the immunomodulatory role of parasite EVs, they have been proposed as
243 vaccine candidates [56], though the utility of this strategy has yet to be demonstrated
244 for fasciolosis. Targeting exposed epitopes on EV surface proteins and glycoproteins
245 clearly represent prime targets for vaccines.

246

247 Recent characterisation of protein post-translational modifications namely
248 glycosylation has revealed that the *F. hepatica* glycome is also dynamic and stage-
249 specific [32]. *F. hepatica* glycans are displayed on the parasite outer surface, in
250 addition to being released into the host environment on the EVs and the secreted
251 proteins. They are a key player in host-parasite interactions, mimicking host glycans
252 and promoting the maturation of dendritic cells driving Th2 type immune responses
253 and preventing the activation of complement [32, 47]. While we have only begun to
254 scratch the glycan surface of *F. hepatica*, elucidation of the role they play will be
255 important for future vaccine design, either as direct targets or as accompanying
256 **adjuvants** in cocktail vaccines.

257

258 *Multi-antigen vaccine for a multicellular organism*

259 Despite our increased knowledge of the complexity of the *Fasciola* spp. parasites, few
260 early *F. hepatica* vaccine studies embraced a multi-target approach based on more
261 than one parasite protein or functional type of protein; an approach that has been
262 pursued by researchers involved in the EU consortia PARAVAC (grant id 265862) and
263 PARAGONE (grant id 635408) battling various worm parasites of ruminants [57, 58].

264

265 Since the release of the first draft *F. hepatica* genome in 2015 [10], only five studies
266 have employed a multi-antigen vaccine approach for control of fasciolosis, using
267 combinations of potentially functionally different proteins (FhGST and tegumental
268 antigen [59]; FhLAP and FhCL1 [60]; FhTeg1 and FhTeg5 [61]; FhCL1, FhPrx, FhLAP,
269 FhHDM [58]; FhStf1, FhStf2, FhStf3, FhKT1 [62]). These studies reported varying
270 levels of vaccine efficacy, based on reductions of adult parasites and eggs.
271 Surprisingly, when compared to vaccine trials using single antigens, these

272 combination vaccines appear were less effective (**Table 1**), although direct
273 comparisons between trials is tentative due to the inconsistencies in experimental
274 design, including the host animal used for the trial, the number of animals per group
275 and the adjuvant used for vaccine formulation. This also highlights the need for
276 consistent methods of vaccine efficacy assessment, which should not solely rely on
277 mean fluke burdens but should also address the effects of liver fluke infection on
278 animal health and welfare that impacts animal productivity [6, 62, 63]. Nevertheless, it
279 may signal that more antigens in vaccine cocktails is not necessarily better than
280 individual antigens and raises doubts concerning which combination of antigens
281 should be used and how we assess the contribution of each individual antigen in
282 vaccine efficacy versus their amalgamated effect.

283

284 *Targeting the NEJ*

285 Recent vaccine strategies are aimed at preventing the damaging effects of the
286 parasite's invasion and migration through the liver tissues rather than focussing on
287 molecules released by the adult parasites that represent long-established infections
288 [62, 64]. Moreover, once in the liver the rapid growth, development and continuous
289 movement of the parasite makes the immune response of the host rather ineffectual
290 as the parasite has moved on (with the exception of the immune responses observed
291 in *F. gigantica*-infected ITT sheep). Targeting the NEJ as it enters the host via the
292 intestine and before it enters the liver makes sense and dissection of the molecular
293 make-up of the NEJ tegument and secretome has revealed that the NEJ express and
294 secrete a unique array of proteins (e.g. a family of cathepsin B peptidases and a
295 cathepsin L3 peptidase with unique collagenase-like substrate specificity [45])
296 compared with the liver and adult stages [11, 12].

297

298 Functional biochemical and molecular characterisation analyses are beginning to
299 reveal the potential redundancy in biological function of the proteins secreted by *F.*
300 *hepatica*, whereby multiple proteins and/or mechanisms are employed to modulate
301 host proteins; for example, the use of stefins and Kunitz-type inhibitors to modulate
302 cathepsin peptidases [62, 65, 66]. We have categorised these proteins into key
303 biological processes (e.g. proteases, protease inhibitors, antioxidants,
304 immunomodulators) that can be combined within a cocktail vaccine that may offer a
305 strategy to overcome this molecular redundancy that could block or interfere with key
306 parasite processes to more effectively combat these multicellular organisms.
307 Clarification of these protein families using the *Fasciola* spp. genomic platforms has
308 facilitated the identification of stage-specific members, especially those that NEJ-
309 specific, which aid our selection of vaccine candidates.

310

311 **Concluding remarks**

312 Our interrogation of these large sequencing datasets has provided novel insights into
313 how *F. hepatica* and *F. gigantica* navigate the various host tissues and environments
314 they encounter. Moving forward, we now need to mirror our omics understanding of
315 liver fluke infection from the host's point of view to provide a comparative global view
316 of the dynamics of host-parasite interactions. But the process of deciphering what
317 these *Fasciola* spp. datasets can reveal about the parasite's biology and relationship
318 with its hosts has only just begun (see **Outstanding questions**) since recent analysis
319 of our datasets has revealed that a vast number of the predicted proteins derived from
320 these genome datasets remain uncharacterised, some of which must play an
321 important role during the invasion and migratory phases of the life cycles.

322

323 Omics studies can now provide a complete menu of candidates that can be used to
324 test new ideas of vaccination. Despite the slow rate of progress to date, continued
325 evaluation of new vaccination strategies (e.g. different adjuvants, formulations,
326 delivery; [67]), informed by immunoinformatic/immunoproteomic approaches such as
327 described by [68, 69], is necessary to achieve a breakthrough in the development of
328 fasciolosis vaccines. Importantly, robust immune response and vaccine efficacy
329 analyses is required, which necessitates using relevant target host species (sheep,
330 cattle, goats, buffalo), suitable numbers of animals and appropriately repeated
331 experiments to ensure statistical robustness, a major logistical, experimental and
332 financial challenge in itself.

333

334 **Acknowledgements**

335 Science Foundation Ireland (SFI) Professorship grant (17/RP/5368) awarded to JPD.

336

337 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

338 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

339

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577

578 **Glossary**

579 **Adjuvant:** substance added to the vaccine antigens to increase/modulate the
580 efficacy/potency of the immune response to the vaccine components.

581 **Alarmin:** molecules (proteins/peptides) released following cellular damage that
582 signals the immune system to respond.

583 **Classical/Non-classical secretion:** Proteins involved in classical secretion contain a
584 secretory signal peptide sequence that directs the protein to endoplasmic reticulum
585 (ER) and Golgi apparatus for transport across the cell plasma membrane. Proteins
586 that do not contain a signal peptide i.e. are leaderless, follow the non-classical route
587 of secretion that does not involved the ER-Golgi system. There is no one mechanism
588 for non-classical secretion.

589 **Disability adjusted life years:** measure of disease burden, based on the number of
590 years lost due to ill-health, disability or early death.

591 **Extracellular vesicles:** non-replicating vesicles surrounded by a lipid membrane that
592 contain proteins, nucleic acids (DNA, microRNAs etc), lipids and sugars (glycans) that
593 are release by most cell types and are involved in cell to cell communication.

594 **Fasciolosis:** disease caused by infection with the helminth parasites *Fasciola*
595 *hepatica* and *Fasciola gigantica*.

596 **Helminth:** invertebrate worms characterised by elongated, flat or round bodies.

597 **Immunolocalisation:** Process of detecting proteins in tissue samples using
598 antibodies.

599 **Native protein:** Proteins purified from their natural source, which are properly folded
600 and fully functional protein.

601 **Omics:** field of study relating to the collective characterisation of biological molecules
602 (genome - DNA, transcript - RNA, proteins, lipids, sugars etc). The individual fields
603 end with the suffix -omics (genomics, transcriptomics, proteomics etc).

604 **Parenchyma:** functional tissue within an organ or organism.

605 **Reactive oxygen species (ROS):** molecules and free radicals derived from molecular
606 oxygen that are released from molecular oxygen during oxidative metabolism and as
607 a cellular response to drugs, cytokines, tissue/cellular damage and pathogen invasion.

608 **Secretome / excreted/secreted proteins (ES):** collection of molecules (proteins,
609 microRNAs, extracellular vesicles) released by live helminths from the parasite
610 tegument, gut and reproductive organs by active secretion or passive release.

611 **Tegument:** dynamic cellular structure that covers the surface of organisms within the
612 Phylum Platyhelminthes, specifically tapeworms (cestodes) and flukes (trematodes).

613

614 **Box 1. Advances in *Fasciola* spp. omics datasets**

615 Over the last decade significant advances have been made in the availability of omics
616 datasets for the *Fasciola* spp. These omics data are freely available to the liver fluke
617 community; highlighted here is what is currently available and where it is housed
618 **(Figure I)**.

619 Genomics: The *Fasciola* spp. data available at WormBase ParaSite
620 (<https://parasite.wormbase.org>) includes (1) *F. hepatica* genome sequence data from
621 an UK isolate (PRJEB6687, PRJEB25283; [10]) and isolates from the Americas
622 (PRJNA179522; [34, 36]), and (2) *F. gigantica* genome sequence data from an isolate
623 from Uganda (PRJNA230515; [34]). Two further *F. gigantica* genome datasets are
624 also available for isolates from India (NCBI: MKHB03000000; [70]) and China (NCBI:
625 PRJNA691688, Genome Warehouse: GWHAZTT00000000; [71]).

626 Transcriptomics: Comprehensive transcriptome analyses have been carried out on
627 several *Fasciola* spp. developmental life cycle stages; available datasets include: (3)
628 *F. hepatica* transcriptomes from eggs (NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus: GSE160622;
629 [35]), metacercariae, NEJ 1hr, NEJ 3hr, NEJ 24hr, Immature fluke and adult parasites
630 (NCBI/ENA: PRJEB6904, PRJNA665699; [10, 12]) and (4) *F. gigantica* developmental
631 life cycle stage-specific transcriptomes, namely egg, miracidia, rediae, cercariae,
632 metacercariae, immature flukes at 42 days post infection (dpi) and 70 dpi, and adult
633 parasites (NCBI/ENA: PRJNA350370; [37]).

634 Small non-coding RNAs (microRNA; miRNAs): MicroRNA datasets are available for
635 the following (5) *F. hepatica* life cycle stages metacercariae, NEJ, immature fluke,
636 adult parasites and extracellular vesicles from NEJ and adult flukes generated from
637 three studies (SRR3584125, SRR3584124, SRR3584126, SRR3584122,

638 SRS862512, PRJNA782636 [40, 72]; PRJEB48810 [39]; GSE186948 [38]) and (6) *F.*
639 *gigantica* life cycle stages described above [73].

640 Proteomics: Datasets have been generated for *F. hepatica* proteins derived from the
641 somatic proteome, tegument and ES proteins (secretome) [11, 12, 32, 35, 41-44, 53-
642 55, 69, 74-81]. (7) The raw data has been deposited in the ProteomeXchange
643 Consortium: egg somatic proteome (PXD022516; [35]), secretome and somatic
644 proteomes of NEJ, immature and adult parasites (PXD003214 [41]; PXD007255 [11];
645 PXD021221 [12]; PXD011991 [43]); adult extracellular vesicles (PXD002570 [44];
646 PXD008737 [75]; PXD007782 [55]; PXD016561 [42]); tegument (PXD003911 [81];
647 PXD005099 [69]). Proteomic profiles of host responses to *F. gigantica* infections are
648 deposited in the iprox database (IPX0002287000; [82]) and ProteomeXchange
649 Consortium (PXD011576; [83]).

650 Post-translational modifications: Only a few studies have been carried out
651 investigating glycosylation and phosphorylation of *Fasciola* spp. proteins namely (9)
652 glycomics analyses of *F. hepatica* [32, 42, 55, 84, 85] and (10) phosphoproteomics
653 analysis of adult *F. gigantica* [86].

654 **Figure I (in Box 1). Schematic of available omics datasets for *Fasciola* spp.**

655 Figure created using Biorender; Parasite art by <https://smart.servier.com>.

656

657 **Box 2. Highly regulated multi-gene families**

658 Within the *Fasciola* spp. genomes, key gene families have expanded and display
659 diverse functionality, highlighting the critical roles these molecules play in parasite
660 biology and their interaction with their hosts [33]. These genes are strictly regulated
661 and are expressed at strategic points of the life cycle.

662

663 *Cathepsin cysteine peptidases*

664 The genes that comprise the large functionally diverse cathepsin cysteine peptidase
665 gene family (23 cathepsin L and 11 cathepsin B genes) play a critical role within both
666 the intermediate and definitive hosts, reflected by the high levels of stage-specific
667 transcription of cohorts of cathepsin peptidase genes [45]. Strikingly, only the
668 cathepsin L peptidases are abundantly transcribed by the snail associated stages [37].
669 In contrast, differential transcription of cathepsin B and L peptidase genes is observed
670 by the stages present within the mammalian host [37, 45]. These peptidases play
671 critical roles for metacercariae excystment, digestion of liver tissue and
672 macromolecules during migration, haemoglobin digestion during feeding and
673 immunomodulation by cleaving immunoglobulins [45].

674

675 *G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs)*

676 The GPCR superfamily, comprised of five main families (GRAFS nomenclature),
677 regulate a range of physiological functions including neurotransmission, sensing the
678 environment, metabolism and cellular differentiation and growth [87]. To date, 147
679 GPCRs have been identified within the *F. hepatica* genome, with the rhodopsin family
680 highly represented (135 GPCRs), representing the largest number of GPCRs
681 described for a parasitic helminth [88]. Of the 77 GPCRs expressed by the life cycle
682 stages associated with the mammalian host, the majority (64) are abundantly
683 transcribed by the actively migrating NEJ stage implying an important role in migration,
684 growth and development of these liver-migrating stages [88].

685

686 *Tubulins*

687 Cytoskeletal microtubules are involved in a variety of cellular processes including
688 cellular structure and the separation of chromosomes during mitosis [89]. They are
689 also the targets of the benzimidazole class of anthelmintics [90]. In eukaryotes, the
690 genes encoding these microtubule proteins, α and β -tubulin, generally form a large
691 family, with distinct transcription encompassing cohorts of genes displaying
692 constitutive expression as well as genes with cell-specific transcription [91]. The
693 *Fasciola* spp. tubulin genes follow this pattern with constitutive transcription of five
694 tubulin genes implying a house-keeping role (α 2, α 3, β 2, β 3, β 4) and the remaining
695 members of the gene family (α 1, α 4, α 5, β 1, β 5, β 6) displaying a dramatic upregulation
696 by the immature and adult flukes indicating a more specialised yet to be determined
697 role [10, 37].

698

699 **Figure legends**

700 **Figure 1. *Fasciola hepatica* life cycle.** (A) The liver fluke life cycle requires two hosts;
701 a snail intermediate host where asexual reproduction occurs over a 6-8-week period
702 and a mammalian definitive host where sexual reproduction occurs. Eggs are
703 produced by the adult parasites within the bile ducts, that are typically detected
704 approximately 10-12 weeks after ingestion of the infective metacercariae stage. A
705 summary of the key metabolic and developmental changes that occur across the life
706 cycle is included. (1) Metacercariae are ingested by mammalian host; (2)
707 Metacercariae excyst in small intestine releasing newly excysted juveniles (NEJ); (3)
708 Migration across the peritoneal cavity to the liver; (4) Migration through the liver
709 parenchyma to the bile ducts, where the mature adult parasites produce eggs that are
710 passed in the faeces; (5) Eggs hatch and release miracidia; (6) Miracidia penetrate
711 snail tissue; (7) Successive generation of sporocysts and rediae; (8) Cercariae

712 released from snail; encyst on vegetation as metacercariae. Figure created using
713 Biorender; Parasite medical art provided by Les Laboratoires Servier,
714 <https://smart.servier.com>. (B) Graphical representation of the number of transcripts
715 from the comparable *F. hepatica* [10] and *F. gigantica* [37] stage-specific
716 transcriptome datasets generated by ggplot2 in R. The colours represent the number
717 of transcripts shared by all the life cycle stages (green), shared by at least two life
718 cycle stages (aqua/blue) and those unique to that specific dataset (purple).

719

Table 1. Efficacy of fasciolosis vaccines in large ruminants; comparison between single antigen vaccines versus multi-antigen cocktails.

Combination vaccine trials						
Trial	FhGST, FhTeg [59]	FhCL1, FhLAP [60]	FhTeg1^, FhTeg5^ [61]	FhCL1, FhHDM, FhLAP, FhPrx [58]	FhStf1, FhStf2, FhStf3, FhKT1 [62]	
Form	Recombinant	Recombinant chimera	Recombinant	Recombinant	Recombinant	
Adjuvant	FCA/FIA	Quil A	FCA/FIA	Montanide ISA 61 VG	Montanide ISA 61 VG	
Host; No. animals/group	Cattle; 6 33%	Sheep; 5 46.5%	Cattle; 7 0%	Sheep; 10 37.2%	Sheep; 14 17.4%	
Vaccine efficacy						
Single antigen vaccine trials						
Antigen	Form	Adjuvant	Host	No. animals /group	Vaccine efficacy	Reference / Reviewed by
FhCL1*	Native	FCA/FIA	Cattle	4	52.5-69.5%	[92]
	Recombinant	Montanide ISA 206 VG	Cattle	13	49.2%	

FhGST	Native	FCA	Sheep	9	57%	[92]
	Native	Quil A+ 33% w/v	Cattle	8	69%	
	Native	Montanide 80	Goat	6	0%	
	Recombinant	FCA/FIA	Goat	7	0%	
		Quil A				
FhHDM	Native	Quil A	Sheep	5	15%	[6]
	Synthetic	Quil A	Sheep	5	6%	
FhKT1/KTM	Native	FCA/FIA	Sheep	Not stated	0%	[92]
	Native	Quil A	Cattle	Not stated	0%	
FhLAP	Native	FCA/FIA	Sheep	10	89.6%	[92]
	Recombinant	FCA/FIA	Sheep	10	83.8%	
	Recombinant	Adyuvac 50	Sheep	10	74.4%	
	Recombinant	Alum	Sheep	10	86.9%	
FhPrx	Recombinant	Quil A	Goat	7	33.04%	[92]
	Recombinant	Quil A	Goat	7	0%	

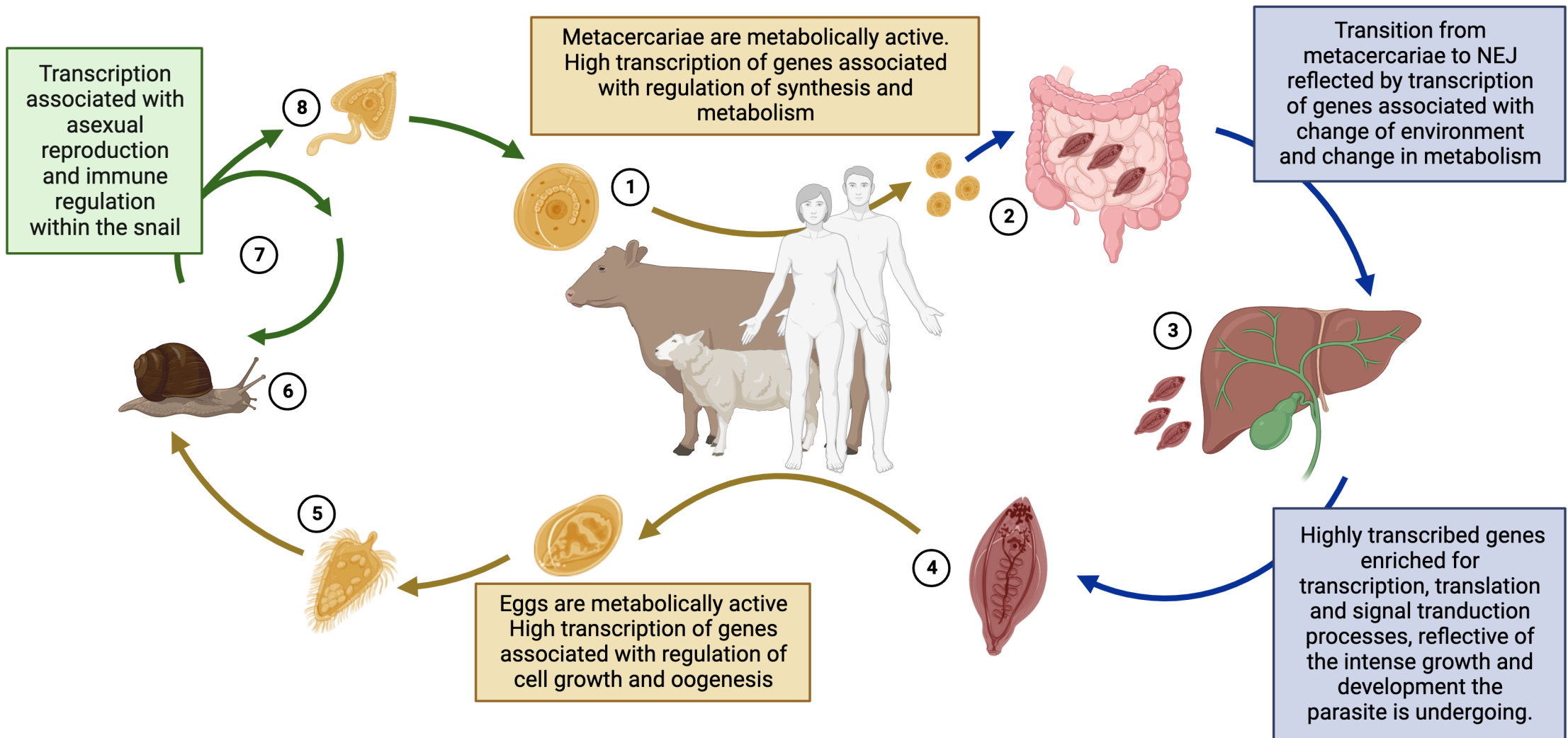
FhTeg	Recombinant	FCA/FIA	Cattle	6	0%	[59]
-------	-------------	---------	--------	---	----	------

*Representative trials using native and recombinant forms

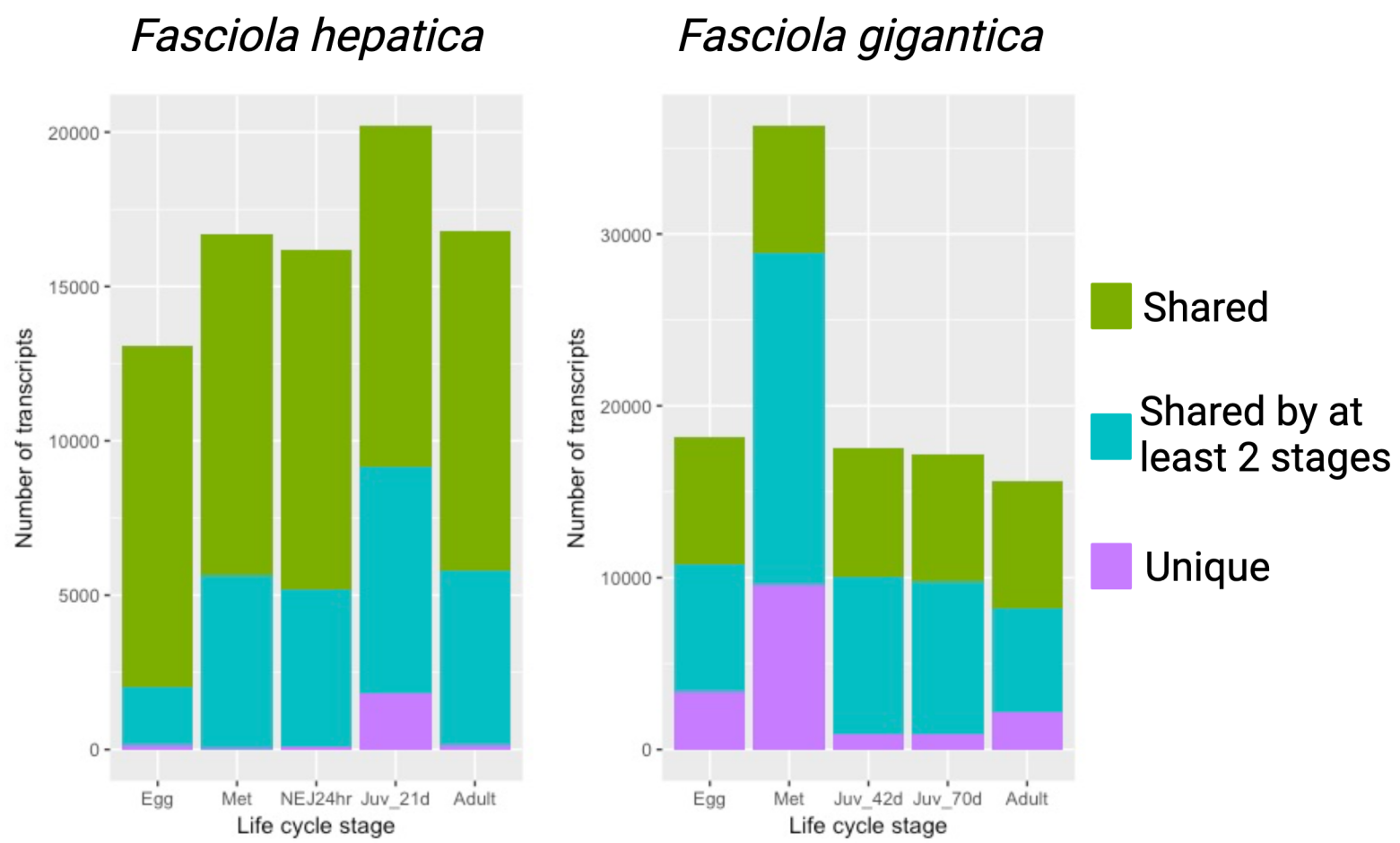
^ Single antigen vaccine trials not described for these antigens

A

Cathepsin peptidases play an important role during the *Fasciola* spp. lifecycle.
 Cathepsin B peptidases: abundantly transcribed by the cercariae stage through to the adult stage parasite.
 Cathepsin L peptidases: abundantly transcribed by the rediae stage through to the adult stage parasite.



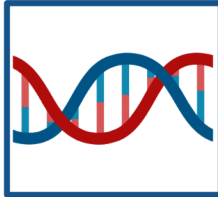
B



Fasciola hepatica

Fasciola gigantica

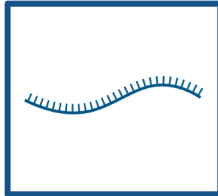
Genome



1   PRJEB6687
 PRJEB25283
PRJNA179522

2   PRJNA230515
 MKHB03000000
 PRJNA691688

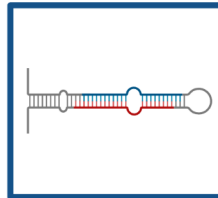
Transcriptome




3  PRJEB6904

4  PRJNA350370

Small non-coding RNAs




5 

6 

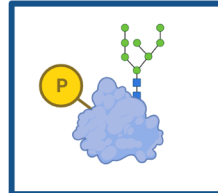
Proteome

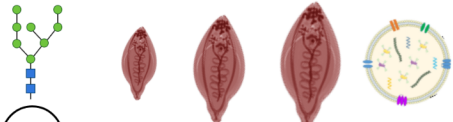



7 

8 

Post-translational modifications



9  Glycosylation

10  Phosphorylation