

Ultrastructure of Selenidium pendula, the Type Species of Archigregarines, and Phylogenetic Relations to Other Marine Apicomplexa

Joseph Schrével, Andrea Valigurová, Gérard Prensier, Aurélie Chambouvet,

Isabelle Florent, Laure Guillou

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1	ORIGINAL PAPER
2 3	Ultrastructure of Selenidium pendula, the Type Species of
4	Archigregarines, and Phylogenetic Relations to Other Marine
5	Apicomplexa
6 7	Joseph Schrével ^{a,1} , Andrea Valigurová ^b , Gérard Prensier ^{c,2} , Aurélie
8	Chambouvet ^d , Isabelle Florent ^a , and Laure Guillou ^e
9	Chambourer, isabene Fiorent, and Baare Gamou
10	^a Unité Molécules de Communication et Adaptation des Microorganismes, (MCAM, UMR
11	7245), Muséum National Histoire Naturelle, Sorbonne Universités, CNRS, CP 52, 57 Rue
12	Cuvier, 75005 Paris, France
13	^b Department of Botany and Zoology, Faculty of Science, Masaryk University, Kotlářská 2,
14	611 37 Brno, Czech Republic
15	^c Cell Biology and Electron Microscopy Laboratory, François Rabelais University, 10
16	Boulevard Tonnellé, BP 3223, 37032 Tours Cedex, France
17	^d Laboratoire des Sciences de l'Environnement Marin (LEMAR), UMR6539
18	UBO/CNRS/IRD/IFREMER, Institut Universitaire Européen de la Mer (IUEM),
19	Technopole Brest Iroise, 29280 Plouzané, France
20	^e Sorbonne Universités, Université Pierre et Marie Curie - Paris 6, CNRS, UMR 7144,
21	Station Biologique de Roscoff, Place Georges Teissier, CS90074, 29688 Roscoff cedex,
22	France
23	
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29	¹ Corresponding author; fax +33 1 40 79 34 99
30	e-mail <u>schrevel@mnhn.fr</u> (J. Schrével).
31	
32	² This work is dedicated to the memory of Brigitte Arbeille-Brassart
33	

34 Archigregarines, an early branching lineage within Apicomplexa, are a poorly-known 35 group of invertebrate parasites. By their phylogenetic position, archigregarines are an 36 important lineage to understand the functional transition that occurred between free-37 living flagellated predators to obligatory parasites in Apicomplexa. In this study, we 38 provide new ultrastructural data and phylogenies based on SSU rDNA sequences 39 using the type species of archigregarines, the Selenidiidae Selenidium pendula Giard, 40 1884. We describe for the first time the syzygy and early gamogony at the ultrastructural level, revealing a characteristic nuclear multiplication with 41 42 centrocones, cryptomitosis, filamentous network of chromatin, a cyst wall secretion 43 and a 9+0 flagellar axoneme of the male gamete. S. pendula belongs to a monophyletic 44 lineage that includes several other related species, all infecting Sedentaria Polychaeta 45 (Spionidae, Sabellaridae, Sabellidae and Cirratulidae). All of these Selenidium species 46 exhibit similar biological characters: a cell cortex with the plasma membrane - inner 47 membrane complex - subpellicular microtubule sets, an apical complex with the 48 conoid, numerous rhoptries and micronemes, a myzocytosis with large food vacuoles, 49 a nuclear multiplication during syzygy and young gamonts. Two other distantly 50 related Selenidium-like lineages infect Terebellidae and Sipunculida, underlying the 51 ability of archigregarines to parasite a wide range of marine hosts.

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54 Key words: Archigregarines; Apicomplexa; Selenidium pendula; ultrastructure;

55 phylogeny; sporozoite.

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60 Introduction

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Apicomplexa, a large subgroup of the Alveolata, are unicellular parasites infecting a wide range of invertebrate and vertebrate hosts. Most known Apicomplexa belong to Coccidia and Haemosporidia and are involved in human and veterinary diseases (malaria, toxoplasmosis, coccidiosis, babesiosis, piroplasmosis). However, a very large group of the early branching Apicomplexa, the gregarines, is comparatively poorly known. Most of the gregarines infect invertebrate hosts and usually do not have deleterious effects on their

hosts (Desportes and Schrével 2013). The number of Apicomplexa species is estimated to be ~2,000-6,000, however the ability of gregarines to infect a wide range of insects could significally enhance this estimation to several thousand or more than one million (e.g., the Coleoptera (beetles) class corresponds to about 40% of the insect biodiversity with an expected species number around 1 to 2 million) (Schrével and Desportes 2013).

73 All apicomplexan species are characterized by an infective life stage, the so-called 74 zoite, a polarized cell with an original apical complex. This apical complex is an assembly 75 of specific organelles including club-shaped rhoptries, filament-like micronemes, dense 76 granules and apical polar rings. In Apicomplexa, the presence of a conoid in the apex of the 77 zoite, observed in coccidia and gregarines, defines the Conoidasida Levine, 1988. In 78 contrast, no conoid is observed in Haemosporidia and Piroplasmida designated 79 Aconoidasida by Mehlhorn et al. (1980). Except gregarines and some other taxa developing 80 in epicellular localization, such as cryptosporidia, most Apicomplexa have an intracellular 81 development in their host cells and there, the apical organelles as well as the conoid, play 82 an essential role in cell invasion processes through sophisticated cascades of molecular 83 interactions (Boothroyd and Dubremetz 2008; Bradley et al. 2005; Santos et al. 2009). In 84 Apicomplexa displaying an intracellular life style, the cycle usually occurs in two hosts, the 85 sexual phase being performed in the definitive host while asexual phases occur in one or 86 several intermediate hosts. Gametogenesis, as observed in Coccidia or Haemosporidia, exhibits a clear anisogamy with production of small flagellated male gametes 87 88 (microgametes) and large non-flagellated female gametes (macrogametes). After 89 fertilization, the sporogony produces sporozoites in the definitive hosts while asexual 90 schizogny or merogony, producing merozoites, is realized in intermediate hosts. In contrast, 91 most gregarines exhibit an extracellular development and their entire life cycle usually 92 occurs within a single host. Their zoites transform into large vegetative cells, the 93 trophozoites, with an extraordinary diversity in their morphologies and behaviours. In 94 addition to this extracellular development, gregarines share a unique sexual phase. The 95 sexual association between two gamonts, named syzygy, produces a cyst where the 96 gametogenesis differentiates a large and equal number of male and female gametes; at this 97 stage, this cyst is called a gametocyst. Then, fertilization and sporogenesis take place 98 within the cyst yielding the final stages with the sporocysts usually containing each 8 99 sporozoites. These sporocysts can survive for a long period generally waiting for their 100 ingestion by their specific hosts. Gregarine biochemistry and physiology are still poorly 101 documented. Studies of their zoite apical apparatus as well as of the variation of their

102 cytoskeleton and microtubule organizing centers (MTOCs), with unique organization as the
103 6+0 or 3+0 flagellar axonemes described for some male gametes (Prensier et al. 1980;
104 Schrével and Besse 1975), contributed, however, to a more general understanding of many
105 biological aspects of Apicomplexa including pathogenic species.

106 Among Apicomplexa, there is a consensus on the stem group of archigregarines 107 commonly found in Polychaeta, Sipunculida and some Hemichordata. These marine 108 gregarines represent the earliest diverging lineage of Apicomplexa (Leander 2007a; 109 Schrével 1971b). The type species of archigregarines is Selenidium pendula Giard 1884 and its life cycle was established during the second part of the 20th century (Schrével 1966, 110 1970). Beside this type species, a long series of contributions have been performed on other 111 112 Selenidium and related species at the cytological (Brasil 1907, Caullery and Mesnil 1899, 113 2000, Ray 1930, Reed 1933) and ultrastructural (Leander 2006, 2007b; Macgregor and Thomasson 1965; Schrével 1968, 1970, 1971a; Simdyanov and Kuvardina 2007, Vivier 114 115 and Schrével 1964, 1966) levels and more recently also at the molecular level through the analysis of SSU rDNA sequences (Leander et al. 2003; Leander 2006, 2007b; Rueckert and 116 117 Leander 2009; Wakeman and Leander 2012, 2013; Wakeman et al. 2014). Most of these 118 studies focused on the trophozoite stages with few descriptions on nutrition modalities 119 (Schrével 1968; Simdyanov and Kuvardina 2007). Additionally, these studies highlighted 120 several incongruities among Selenidiidae at the molecular level that could not be elucidated 121 in absence of the type species of the family. Here, we report on the cell organization of the 122 Selenidium pendula trophozoite with a special attention to the conoid, the abundance of 123 rhoptries and micronemes, and we provide the first ultrastructural description of the syzygy 124 (pairing stage), the early gamogony with the cryptomitosis and the secretion of the cyst 125 walls. We also provide the first phylogenetic analysis of the SSU rDNA gene sequences 126 encompassing the type species of archigregarines S. pendula. Molecular phylogenetic 127 analyses revealed three lineages within archigregarines, S. pendula belonging to the Selenidiidae that includes parasites of Spionidae, Sabellidae, and Sabellariidae, all 128 129 polychaete annelids, as well as two Selenidiidae–like lineages, parasites of hosts belonging 130 to Terebellidae and Sipunculida, respectively.

131

132 **Results**

133

134 The Trophozoite of Selenidium pendula

135 The mature S. pendula trophozoite is a crescent-shaped cell of about 150 µm in length with 136 a circular cross section of about 35 µm in diameter. The cell surface exhibits about 30 137 striations in phase contrast light microscopy as well as in scanning electron microscopy 138 (SEM), appearing as a series of longitudinal bulges of about 2.5-3 µm in width separated 139 by grooves (Fig. 1A). The trophozoite is inserted into the intestinal epithelium of the 140 Scolelepis squamata polychaete worm by a special apical apparatus called the mucron (Figs 141 1B, 2A-C). In transmission electron microscopy (TEM), a tropism for host cells rich in 142 granules can be observed (Fig. 1B). The mucron of S. pendula corresponds to the 143 attachment apparatus anchoring the parasite to the host epithelial cell. In SEM, the mucron 144 appears as a regular mammiliform area without bulges and grooves (Fig. 2A). After 145 detachment of the trophozoite, the trace of the mucron in the host cell is very regular with 146 sometimes a small hole in a subcentral position (Fig. 2B).

A series of short microvilli is seen at the periphery of the epithelial cells (Fig. 2B).
All around the trophozoite attachment, numerous long ciliary structures of the host
epithelium are observed (Figs 1A, 2B).

150 Asexual schizogony in S. pendula could be an explanation to the exceptional 151 clotting of trophozoites, with thousands and thousands of cells that obstruct the intestinal 152 lumen of some Scolelepis squamata hosts. In vivo, trophozoites are dispersed along the 153 host intestine, except for the first thirty segments. The distinction between these two 154 intestinal regions is facilitated by the yellow color of the first segments versus the green 155 color of the posterior region. Motility of the S. pendula trophozoites is clearly of pendular 156 type, as proposed by Giard (1884) for the species diagnosis, and the stroboscopic records 157 show regular pendular beats with a period of about 0.2 second (Golstein and Schrével 1982 158).

159 In TEM cross sections, the bulges of S. pendula exhibit a characteristic 160 ultrastructure described for the first time in Selenidium hollandei (Vivier and Schrével 161 1964). The plasma membrane is underlain by a regular flat vesicle designated as the inner membrane complex (imc) while a very slight cell coat covers the cell surface. Under these 162 163 three cortical membranes, a regular set of longitudinal subpellicular microtubules and some 164 other dispersed microtubules within the cortical cytoplasm are seen below the bulges but 165 not in the area of the grooves (Fig. 3B-C). In TEM cross sections, each subpellicular 166 microtubule of S. pendula is surrounded by an electron-lucent sheath (Fig. 3C) as observed 167 in S. hollandei (Vivier and Schrével 1964), Platyproteum (Selenidium) vivax (Leander

2006), *Selenidium serpulae* (Leander 2007) and *Selenidium terebellae* (Wakeman et al.
2013). Abundant mitochondria are present under the subpellicular network of the bulges.

Different ectoplasmic structures along the grooves are observed with lamellar elements, dense material structures that crossed the imc and are in contact with the plasma membrane (Fig. 3B, D-F). Under SEM, series of holes are observed in the grooves with an irregular distribution and distances ranging from 0.3-0.4 μ m to 0.8-0.9 μ m (Fig. 3A). Such a distribution seems to correspond to the opening sites of the above-mentioned ectoplasmic structures and their density might indicate a role that was previously underestimated.

176 Interestingly, the longitudinal microtubular bundles, abundantly distributed beneath 177 the cortex in the trophozoite apical part corresponding to the mucron, could represent the 178 biogenesis site of the longitudinal networks of the subpellicular microtubules (Fig. 2D).

179

180 Conoid and Myzocytosis

The conoid of S. pendula is a truncated cone of about 225 nm height, with apical and distal 181 182 diameters about 260 nm and 1 µm respectively (Fig. 4A-C). In TEM cross sections, the 183 diameter of filaments is about 23-32 nm; 9 sections are well identified in one side of the 184 conoid, while only an opaque layer can be observed on the other side due to their spiral organization (Fig. 4B-C). This structure is quite similar to the well-described conoid of 185 186 Toxoplasma gondii (Hu et al. 2002, 2006) but the apical polar ring is not present in the 187 distal part of S. pendula mucron and the preconoidal rings are not clearly identified in its 188 apical part but a dilatation of the imc and the ends of the subpellicular microtubules are 189 unambiguously demonstrated (Fig. 4A, C, white arrows). This imc dilatation could 190 correspond to a site of a Microtubule Organizing Center (MTOC) able to generate the 191 subpellicular microtubules since abundant bundles are found in the anterior area of the 192 trophozoite (Fig. 2D). In few TEM cross sections, dense structures corresponding to the neck of the rhoptries are observed inside the conoid (Fig. 2C). 193

194 Myzocytosis, the predatory mode of nutrition characteristic of archigregarines, is 195 clearly illustrated in S. pendula with food vacuoles inserted inside the conoid (Figs. 2C, 196 4A-B). In the axis of the mucron, one or several clear food vacuoles, likely formed via the 197 conoid, are present (Fig. 2C). These food vacuoles are surrounded by many rhoptries and 198 micronemes, two apical organelles characteristic of zoites (Figs 1B, 2C). As shown by the 199 continuity of the food vacuole membrane up to its contact with the host epithelial cell, an 200 evagination process through the apex of the conoid has occurred, allowing the parasite to 201 suck out the nutriments from the host. This myzocytosis process starts at the top of the

202 conoid (Fig. 4A). The food vacuoles are large, reaching sometimes up to 7 μ m, and several 203 additional food vacuoles of about 2 or 3 μ m are observed in the axis of the trophozoite 204 (Figs 2C, 5A-B). The lumen of the food vacuoles has a low electron-dense aspect with 205 some vesicles and the membrane of the food vacuole exhibits a very irregular border with 206 numerous digitations.

207 Vital staining with low concentrations of neutral red $(1^{0}/_{00})$ allowed to visualize 208 large vacuoles of about 4x2 µm located in the apex of the *S. pendula* trophozoite with

209 several small vesicles (data not shown). This observation is in agreement with a

210 fragmentation of the initial food vacuole into numerous vacuoles present in the anterior part

211 of the trophozoite (Fig. 5A).

212

213 Rhoptries, Micronemes, and Intrareticular Granules in Trophozoites

In addition to the conoid, the apical end of *S. pendula* trophozoites exhibits about 8-10 rhoptries corresponding to the long, electron-dense club-shaped, tubular or saccular organelles. They appear in the trophozoite as cylindrical organelles reaching up to 6 μ m in length, with a diameter of 0.3-0.4 μ m in the basal bulbous. At the apex, a rhoptry neck could be observed. The rhoptry orientation usually follows the direction of the conoid. In some cases, the rhoptry neck penetrates the conoid (Fig. 2C).

220 The rough endoplasmic reticulum (RER) and the Golgi apparatus of S. pendula 221 show an original association between the swollen cisternae containing numerous 222 intrareticular granules of about 0.5-1 µm and the first saccule of the cis-region of the Golgi 223 apparatus (Fig. 6D). Similar associations are observed in S. hollandei (Vivier and Schrével 224 1966) but not in Selenidiidae species parasitizing Cirratulidae (Schrével 1971), Serpulidae 225 (Leander 2006), Terebellidae (Wakeman et al. 2014) or Sipunculida (Simdyanov and 226 Kuvardina 2007, Leander 2007). Some micrographs show an accumulation of numerous 227 micronemes close to the nuclear envelope (Fig. 7D) or to the Golgi apparatus (Fig. 6C) with annular sections likely corresponding to the neck of micronemes (Fig. 6B). The 228 229 relation of these RER-Golgi apparatus to the biogenesis of the rhoptries and/or the 230 micronemes is not clear, since numerous micronemes are mixed with large rhoptries (Fig. 231 6A).

232

233 Nucleus and the Perinuclear Cytoplasm

The ovoid nucleus of the S. pendula trophozoite is characterized by the presence of a large 234 235 spherical nucleolus of about 4-5 µm in diameter (Fig. 7A). No accumulation of chromatin 236 is observed in the nucleoplasm and the nuclear envelope lacks the nuclear lamina as 237 observed in S. hollandei (Schrével 1971a; Vivier 1967). The nuclear envelope, typically 238 comprising two membranes, is rich in nuclear pores (about 5 per µm) regularly distributed 239 all over the entire nuclear surface (Fig. 7C). In tangential sections, the pores appear as rings 240 of about 100-110 nm in their largest diameter with the presence of a central particle of 241 about 10 nm in diameter (Fig. 7C).

The periphery of the nucleus exhibits a special cytoplasmic area comprising a regular, 0.5 µm thick fibrillar zone, lacking any organelle, and surrounding the nucleus in a distance of 1.5-2 µm from the nuclear envelope (Fig. 7A-B, E). This fibrillar zone corresponds to the axial ducts described in living cells (Schrével 1970).

246

247 Apicoplast-like Organelles

In the trophozoite of *S. pendula*, organelles with four membranes are frequently observed (Fig. 5C) and they appear morphologically similar to the apicoplast of *Toxoplasma* and *Plasmodium* (Lim and McFadden 2010) with some dense structures (Fig. 5D) or in contact with multilamellar organelle (Fig. 5E).

252

253 Nuclear Multiplication During the Syzygy and Young Gamonts

The sexual phase of the *S. pendula* life cycle starts with the syzygy, characterized by the pairing of two haploid trophozoites, now called gamonts: one male and one female. During the young syzygy stage of *S. pendula*, the two gamonts are linked by their posterior parts, while their pendular motility continues with waves starting from the apex to the posterior end (Schrével, 1970).

In TEM, each gamont exhibits a similar intracellular organization with a nucleus of about 20 μ m in diameter containing a spherical nucleolus of about 5 μ m in diameter (Supplementary data 1). In each nucleolus, several clear areas are observed with sizes varying from 0.3 to 1 μ m in diameter (Supplementary data 1, arrows). The cell surface and the cytoplasm of the two gamonts also exhibit a similar organization (Supplementary data 1).

A clear characteristic of archigregarines belonging to the family Selenidiidae is the early nuclear multiplication within the two gamonts at the site corresponding to the initial trophozoite nucleus that occurs before the encystment of the gamonts. The localization of

268 the nuclei at the initial site of the trophozoite nucleus is clearly shown by the DAPI staining 269 highlighting the DNA-containing structures (Fig. 8A-B). Bright spots are observed inside 270 spherical structures, each of them corresponding to a nucleus. In about two hours, the 271 pendular motility of each gamont is progressively reduced and cyst formation occurs with a 272 widening of the nuclear zone in the gamont's median plane (Fig. 8A-B). In TEM, the 273 concentration of the nuclei at this stage is not easy to observe due to the relatively high rate 274 of this process. In favourable cross sections, the nuclei are observed in the central area of 275 the gamont and before the secretion of the cyst wall. Each spherical nucleus is about 5 µm in diameter (Fig. 8C). From this central site, the nuclei migrate to the periphery of each 276 277 gamont while the cyst wall is forming (Fig. 8D). In many nuclei of the gamonts, centrocones and other stages of cryptomitosis were detected. 278

279

280 Centrocones and Cryptomitosis in Gamonts

281 The mitosis in S. pendula gamonts is a closed-mitosis, also called cryptomitosis, with the 282 persistence of the nuclear envelope as observed in all Apicomplexa (Francia and Striepen 283 2014). All the nuclei of the S. pendula gamonts are spherical with a diameter of about 5 µm 284 and many are associated to a cupule with microtubules radiating from the Microtubule 285 Organizing Center (MTOC) in order to form half-spindles (Fig. 9A-B). The chromatin is 286 localized all around the internal face of the nuclear envelope as shown in TEM images (Fig. 287 9A-B). This chromatin forms an electron dense filamentous network with spotty dark nodes 288 and in some cases, an important dense accumulation is observed inside the nucleoplasm 289 (Fig. 9A). This dense accumulation of at least 1 µm could correspond to the bright spots 290 visualized by the DAPI-staining (Fig. 8B). The distribution of chromatin in S. pendula 291 nucleus appears as a continuous filamentous network quite similar to the model of 292 Apicomplexa cryptomitosis proposed by Francia and Striepen (2014).

293 In S. pendula gamonts, many nuclei exhibit a centrocone resulting probably from 294 the high rate of nuclear divisions since the chronology from the syzygy to the encystment 295 of the gamonts represents only 2-3 hours (Schrével 1970). The centrocone depends upon 296 the MTOC that appears as an electron dense annular structure of about 200 nm in diameter. From the MTOC, microtubules radiate and form a half-spindle that pushes the nuclear 297 298 envelope without penetration in the nucleus (Fig. 9A). The resulting cupule exhibits an 299 outer diameter of about 1.6-1.9 µm and the distance from the MTOC to the inner border of 300 the cupule is about 1.4-1.6 µm. This typical centrocone can duplicate and the second 301 centrocone migrates to the opposite direction of the initial cupule (Fig. 9B). Micrographs

with two centrocones are rather rare and an intranuclear spindle was not observed mostlikely due to the high rate of the progamic nuclear division in *S. pendula*.

304 As the progamic nuclei migrate from the central part of the gamont to the periphery, 305 the cryptomitosis continues after this migration, since the duplication of the centrocones is 306 observed in the border of the cyst where the wall is secreted.

307

308 Modifications of the Gamont Cell Surface and Secretion of the Gametocyst Wall

309 When the gametocyst wall is forming, the cortical membranes of each gamont are strongly 310 modified (Fig. 10A-C). The plasma membrane is always present but the imc is disorganized 311 with a series of folds and clear dissociation from the plasma membrane (Fig. 10B-C). In 312 TEM, the gametocyst wall exhibits two major layers, a homogeneous internal layer of 313 about 500-700 nm in thickness and a fuzzy external layer with long filaments reaching 314 about 300 nm. The total thickness of the gametocyst wall at the beginning of gamogony is 315 about 1 µm. The secretion of this wall is the result of two types of vesicles, one with rather 316 electron dense components (vesicle 1) and the second with a network of very spotty 317 filaments (Fig. 10A). The mechanism of discharge of these two types of vesicles was not 318 clearly observed. As the gametocyst wall formation occurs only two hours after the early 319 syzygy step, the secretion is probably the result of accumulations of numerous intrareticular 320 granules in the cisterns of the rough reticulum endoplasm that represent storage material for 321 this process (Fig. 6D). However, a potential dual function of the RER-Golgi apparatus for 322 both the formation of rhoptries and micronemes and the storage of material for gametocyst 323 formation needs further investigations (Fig. 6A).

324

325 The Gametocyst and the Sporocyst Walls

326 The gametogenesis is a fast process in S. pendula, lasting about one hour (Schrével 1970). After the series of progamic nuclear divisions yielding syncytium nuclei in the same 327 328 gametocyst, cellularization occurs, producing flagellated male gametes and female gametes 329 without flagellum. In TEM, the gametocyst wall is more compact with dense layers (Fig. 330 11A-B). The fuzzy coat observed at the beginning of the gamogony is now very irregular in 331 width and the internal homogenous layers are more electron dense (Fig. 11A). In some 332 cases the internal layers show a regular opaque layer of 0.3 µm and an irregular 333 homogenous layer with a lower electron density (Fig. 11A).

In cross sections, the flagellar axoneme of the male gamete of *S. pendula* exhibits a 9+0 pattern (Fig. 11B2). After fecundation, the life cycle moves into the sporogony phase with the formation of sporocysts corresponding to the evolution of the zygotes toward the sporozoite formation inside each sporocyst. A new secretion process occurs around this sporocyst (Fig. 11C). The thickness of the sporocyst wall is about 0.1 μ m with small thin spine-like digitations of about 0.2 μ m (Fig. 11C).

340

341 Molecular Phylogenetic Analyses of the SSU rDNA Sequence

342 Type species are important to build solid bridges between molecular phylogenies and 343 taxonomy. A phylogenetic tree was constructed using 115 sequences including nine novel 344 small subunit (SSU) rDNA sequences (two sequences from S. pendula, the type species for 345 Selenidiidae, one from S. hollandei, one from Lecudina pellucida, the type species for 346 Lecudinidae, and 5 from L. tuzetae, all specimen isolated from host organisms collected in 347 the Roscoff area, France) and 106 previously published ones available from public 348 databases, taking into account all available data for archigregarine species (Table 1). 349 Sequences known to produce extreme long branches in SSU rDNA-based phylogenies, 350 such as those of the gregarines Trichotokara spp. and Pyxinia robusta, were excluded from 351 this analysis. Globally, the Maximum Likelihood and the Bayesian tree topologies were 352 congruent (Fig. 12) and in good agreement with recently published phylogenies (Wakeman and Leander 2013; Wakeman et al. 2014). The two early lineages emerging among 353 354 Apicomplexa were from marine gregarines with archigregarines and eugregarines. Interestingly the phylogenetic position of the type species *Lecudina pellucida* (Fig. 12) fell 355 356 within the Lecudinidae, with a good support with lecudinids of tunicates represented by the 357 Lankesteria genus. In the terrestrial gregarines, the Gregarina lineage belongs to rather old 358 insects such as Coleoptera, Blattaria, and Orthoptera, in contrast to the Ascogregarina 359 lineage that infects more recent insects according to the most recent knowledge on insect evolution (Misof et al. 2014). 360

An analysis of the SSU rDNA sequences clearly demonstrated the paraphyly of Selenidiidae, which are split into three major groups (Fig. 13, Supplementary Material 2-4). The type species *Selenidium pendula* is closely related to *Selenidium boccardiella* (Wakeman and Leander 2013). These two gregarines infect members of the Spionidae family of Polychaeta. Similarly, *S. hollandei* is closely related to *S. neosabellariae* and *S. identhyrsae* (Wakeman and Leander 2013), these three species being parasites of hosts

belonging to Sabellariidae. Parasites infecting Spionidae and Sabellariidae diverged from
3.4 to 13.7 % from each other (sequence identity, Supplementary Material 2, 3).

Selenidium parasites of Terebellidae group form a second divergent lineage with a
wider global divergence with true Selenidiidae of 25.8-28.2 %, (Supplementary Material 2,
Finally, all Selenidiidae described in *Phascolosoma* formed a third group which is the
most divergent (26.3 - 28.8 % of divergence with the two precedent groups, Supplementary
Material 2, 3).

374

375 **Discussion**

376

377 Selenidium spp. and archigregarines

Since 2003, the morphology of some trophozoites of Selenidiidae and related 378 379 archigregarines was investigated using SEM and more than 25 SSU rDNA sequences were deposited in the GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ databases (Leander 2003, 2007; Leander et al. 380 381 2003; Rueckert and Leander 2009; Wakeman and Leander 2012, 2013; Wakeman et al. 2014). However, data on sexual stages (gamogony and sporogony) were missing. By 382 combining electron microscopic descriptions with phylogenies using SSU rDNA sequence 383 data, new Selenidium species have been proposed such as S. pisinnus Rueckert and 384 385 Leander, 2009, S. boccardiella Wakeman and Leander, 2012, S. idanthyrsae Wakeman and 386 Leander, 2012, S. neosabellariae Wakeman and Leander, 2013, S. sensimae Wakeman and 387 Leander, 2013 and S. melongena Wakeman et al., 2014. A new genus Platyproteum 388 (Rueckert and Leander 2009) was erected to replace the former species Selenidium vivax 389 (Gunderson and Small 1986). A new enigmatic genus related to archigregarines was also 390 proposed as Veloxidium (Wakeman and Leander 2013). In their discussion, Leander and 391 co-workers produced a comparative table with morphological data of all Selenidiidae 392 described in the last century (Ray 1930; Schrével 1970, 1971). Few mistakes within 393 Selenidiidae were reported in this table (table 2 in Wakeman and Leander 2012) as for 394 example the mention of S. spionis, presented as a parasite of Polyrabdina spionis. 395 Polyrhabdina spionis is in fact a lecudinid gregarine and the host of S. spionis is the 396 polychaete Scolelepis fuliginosa (Claparède, 1870) now called Malacoceros fuliginosus 397 (Claparède, 1870) (Schrével and Desportes, 2013). However, the SSU rDNA sequences 398 analysis of S. spionis revealed lineages inside archigregarines and Leander and co-workers 399 underlined the importance of future work on additional Selenidium-like gregarines

400 especially the type species *S. pendula* (Wakeman et al 2014). This current work on the type
401 species *S. pendula* Giard, 1884 and on *S. hollandei* Vivier and Schrével, 1966 therefore
402 enlighten with less ambiguities parts of the evolutionary history of archigregarines.

403 The SSU rDNA sequence phylogeny trees with the different SSU rDNA sequences 404 of archigregarines (Table 1), show three clearly delimited lineages among Selenidiidae 405 (Figs 12-13, Supplementary Material 3, 4). A major group corresponds to the true-406 Selenidium lineage, for which sexual stages (syzygy to sporocyst) have been described. Its 407 members are parasites of Sedentaria polychaetes, such as S. pendula that infects the 408 Spionidae family, S. hollandei infecting Sabellariidae and Selenidium cf. meslini infecting 409 Sabellidae. These true-Selenidium share common important features, such as a nuclear 410 multiplication during the syzygy, the gamogony and the sporocysts with usually four 411 sporozoites. Many archigregarines have developed atypical variations in their cell 412 morphology and their motility from pendular to rolling type, with subpellicular microtubule 413 sets under the inner membrane complex (imc), but without the gliding type observed in 414 eugregarines. Trophozoites of true-Selenidium exhibit a three-membrane cortex where the 415 imc forms a complete envelope underlying the plasma membrane, with sets of longitudinal 416 subpellicular microtubules running under the large folds designated as bulges (Schrével 1970a, 1971a; Schrével et al. 2013; Vivier and Schrével 1964). The grooves correspond to 417 418 the striations well described this last century by light microscopic (Brasil 1907; Ray 1930; 419 Schrével 1970). The cytoplasm beneath the grooves is devoid of microtubules but exhibits 420 micropores and residual membranous organelles in connection with the imc (Schrével et al. 421 2013; Vivier and Schrével 1964). These parasites feed by myzocytosis using the conoid 422 located at the apex of the trophozoite (Schrével 1968, Simdyanov and Kuvardina 2007, this 423 work).

424 In this true-Selenidium lineage, the sexual stage starts by the syzygy where the formation of progametic nuclei is observed inside the gamont nucleus before encystment. 425 426 This observation in the type species S. pendula (Fig. 8) is the confirmation of histological previous descriptions by Caullery and Mesnil (1900), Ray (1930), Reed (1933), Tuzet and 427 428 Ormières (1958) and in vivo observations by Schrével (1970). This gamogony is quite 429 different from all other eugregarines where the first gamogony division starts inside the 430 cyst and is followed by successive series of nuclear divisions called progamic mitoses 431 without cytokinesis such as in Lecudina tuzetae (Kuriyama et al. 2005). So, the Lecudina 432 type gamogony produces a syncytium until the cellularization process yielding the gametes. 433 Another clear difference concerns the degree of condensation of the chromatin with a

434 continuous filamentous network attached to the nuclear envelope all around the nucleus in
435 *S. pendula* cryptomitosis. Chromosome condensation does not seem to occur in *S. pendula*436 in contrast to cryptomitosis of *L. tuzetae* (Kuriyama et al. 2005) and *Grebnickiella gracilis*437 (Moblon-Noblot 1980). Sporogony then leads to spherical sporocysts that differentiate
438 usually into four sporozoites per sporocyst (Ray 1930; Schrével 1970).

439 Other Selenidium-like species infecting sipunculids and Terebellidae are only 440 known through their trophozoites and their localization within hosts (Leander 2006; 441 Wakeman et al. 2014). The intestinal trophozoite of S. terebellae Ray 1930 exhibits large 442 bulges but differences with the true-Selenidium have been observed. As an example, a 443 regular layer of about 30-33 nm in thickness (Supplementary Material 5 and Wakeman et 444 al. 2014) similar to the internal lamina of eugregarines (Schrével et al. 1983) or to some 445 euglenoid cortex (Mignot 1966) is attached to the imc. Numerous sets of longitudinal 446 subpellicular microtubules are immediately under this regular dense layer and many 447 residual membranous organelles are highly concentrated under the imc of the grooves 448 (Supplementary Material 5). S. melongena trophozoites were described in the same host as 449 S. terebellae, but inside the coelom, an unusual localization for archigregarines (Wakeman 450 et al. 2014). The cortex of S. melongena exhibits 30-40 epicytic folds helically arranged 451 along the axis of the cell. Surprisingly, although the subpellicular sets of microtubules were 452 not observed in TEM, a strong fluorescent labelling of alpha-tubulin was detected below 453 the helical folds. S. melongena are non-motile without pendular or rolling motility nor 454 gliding. According to Wakeman et al. (2014), such atypical cell organization of S. 455 melongena trophozoites seems to be closer to lecudinids than to Selenidiidae. These 456 original observations as well as the lack of description of syzygy and sporocysts require 457 future work, especially to explain the way by which S. melongena can infect its host.

458

459 The third Selenidium-like lineage described here corresponds to a group of intestinal parasites of Sipunculida. These parasites are mainly known from SEM and TEM 460 461 observations on Selenidium vivax trophozoites (Leander 2006). Renaming of S. vivax as 462 Platyproteum vivax was supported by archigregarine flat shape when observed under TEM 463 with important sets of longitudinal subpellicular microtubules and numerous mitochondria 464 probably in relation to the very active plasticity of S. vivax (Rueckert and Leander 2009). 465 This cellular organization appears similar to that of S. hollandei (Schrével 1970). Here also, 466 descriptions of the syzygy with their characteristic progametic nuclei as well as the 467 sporocysts require clarifications. This point is also important for *Filipodium* trophozoites

468 where numerous microvilli from 1.6-10 μ m long and about 0.15 μ m in diameter were 469 clearly described in TEM (Hoshide and Todd 1996).

470 All archigregarines are intestinal parasites of Annelida belonging to the clade 471 Sedentaria except one Selenidium metchnikovi reported in Hemichordata (Léger and 472 Duboscq 1917). In contrast, many lecudinids are intestinal parasites of the clade Errantia 473 from Annelida (Schrével and Desportes 2013). This separation between archigregarines and 474 marine lecudinid eugregarines is probably related to the different modes of living of their 475 hosts. For instance, lecudinids are adapted to the errant and predatory life of Errantia while 476 archigregarines are adapted to sedentary life of Sedentaria with microphage species living 477 below stones, or as tube builders or ingesting sediment as the representatives of the family Spionidae or surface deposit feeders with head appendages (Sabellidae, Sabellariidae). 478 479 Evolutionary history of Annelida is still poorly understood as the classic morphological 480 cladistic analysis with a monophyletic Polychaeta (Rouse and Fauchald 1997) was 481 challenged in the light of the recent molecular evidences. Today, Polychaeta are inferred to 482 be paraphyletic with the inclusion of the Clitella (earthworms) and the non-segmented taxa 483 Echiura and Sipunculida (Struck et al. 2011). Complexity of the phylogeny of Selenidium 484 species may reflect the one of their hosts. The true-Selenidium lineage within the 485 Selenidiidae family likely forms the core of archigregarines while the two other distant 486 lineages infecting respectively the Sipunculids and Terebellids orders, could be considered 487 as related Selenidium-like lineages. These results, deduced from molecular phylogeny 488 analyses need to be confirmed at the biological and cellular levels but are crucial since they 489 open new trends in evolutionary history among Apicomplexa.

The enigmatic *Veloxidium leptosynaptae*, initially placed within archigregarines after phylogenetic analyses (Wakeman and Leander 2012) was later included within lecudinids and urosporids (Wakeman et al. 2014). In our phylogenetic studies, it also groups with lecudinids and urosporids with strong supports (Fig. 12).

494

495 Apicoplasts, Conoid, MTOC and Rhoptries are Major Cell Structures in the 496 Evolution of Apicomplexa

497 Gregarines represent interesting models to investigate the evolution from free-living
498 flagellated alveolates status, likely photosynthetic, to obligatory parasites among
499 Apicomplexa.

500 In archigregarines, the presence of an apicoplast remains an open question. Presence 501 of a functional plastid is reported in *Chromera*, a free-living photosynthetic relative to

502 Apicomplexa (Lim and McFadden 2010). The apicoplast, a non-photosynthetic plastid of 503 red algae origin, is well documented in some Apicomplexa species such as *Plasmodium*, 504 Toxoplasma, Eimeria, Babesia, Theileria. This relict plastid is limited by four membranes 505 indicating its secondary endosymbiont origin. In the eugregarine Gregarina niphandrodes, 506 the apicoplast seems to be absent (Toso and Omoto 2007). Here in S. pendula, apicoplast-507 like organelles are regularly observed in trophozoites at the ultrastructural level. 508 Interestingly Ray (1930) reported the visualization of a dark spot stained with Heidenhain's 509 haematoxylin, associated to each merozoite nucleus in S. mesnili parasitizing the 510 polychaete Myxicola infundibulum. Such an observation at the light microscopy level was 511 also observed by TEM, revealing the presence of an organelle with four membranes close to the anterior part of each S. hollandei merozoite (Schrével 1971b). 512

513 The apical phagotrophy in the free-living predators of alveolates, with open conoid and rhoptries, may be at the origin of the anchoring device of archigregarines like 514 515 Selenidium, characterized by their mucron and the myzocytosis function. The conoid of S. 516 pendula, similar to that of S. hollandei (Schrével 1968) and S. orientale (Simdyanov and 517 Kuvardina 2007), is conserved in large trophozoites and appears similar to the conoid of 518 sporozoites from eugregarines Stylocephalus africanus (Desportes 1969) and 519 Ascogregarina (Lankesteria) culicis (Sheffield et al. 1971). Among Conoidasida, the 520 conoid of T. gondii is the most investigated at the structural and molecular levels, with the 521 construction of unique coma-shaped tubulin sheets to form a spiral cone-shaped structure 522 (Hu and Murray 2002; Hu et al. 2006). As S. pendula is the archigregarine type species and 523 an early branching Apicomplexa, its conoid appears a good model to study the transition 524 between Apicomplexa with closed conoid and free-living alveolate ancestors with open 525 conoid, as found in the early branching dinoflagellates as Colpodella (Brugerolle 2002; 526 Leander et al. 2003) or Psammosa pacifica (Okamoto and Keeling 2014).

527 Recently, the hypothesis of molecular links between Apicomplexa and algal ancestors was suggested with the demonstration of similar components in the apical 528 529 complex of Myzozoa and the flagellar apparatus of protists. This hypothesis was mainly 530 supported by the localization of striated fiber assemblies (Francia et al. 2012) and SAS-6 531 proteins (de Leon et al. 2013). T. gondii striated fiber assemblins (TgSFA2 and TgSFA3) 532 proteins whose orthologs are found in the rootlet associated with the basal bodies from 533 green algae, polymerize into a dynamic fiber that emerges from the centrosomes 534 immediately after their duplication (Francia et al. 2012). Genetic experiments showed that 535 the two proteins TgSFA2 and 3 play an essential role in the cell division of the T. gondii

536 since cytokinesis is blocked in their absence. This Tg SFA fiber thus provides a robust 537 spatial and temporal organizer for the parasite cell division. Also, Francia et al. (2012) 538 indicated that other comparable SFA fibers were observed in previous ultrastructural 539 studies on *Eimeria* (Dubremetz 1973, 1975) and *Plasmodium* (Schrével et al. 2008).

540 The SAS-6 protein is well known in the centriolar biogenesis of eukaryotes from 541 protists to vertebrates (Leidel et al. 2005; van Breugel et al. 2011). This protein was 542 described in the centrocone during T. gondii cryptomitosis (de Leon et al. 2013). In 543 addition a novel SAS-6 like (SAS-6L) protein family that shares an N-terminal domain 544 with SAS-6 but without the coiled-coil tails was localized above the T. gondii conoid (de Leon et al. 2013). Genomic analyses showed that SAS-6L is an ancient protein found in 545 546 diverse eukaryotic lineages: Trypanosoma, Leishmania, ciliates and Apicomplexa (Hodges 547 et al. 2010; de Leon et al. 2013). In Trypanosoma brucei trypomastigotes, the Tb SAS-6L was observed near the basis of the flagellum, consistent with the basal body location. In T. 548 549 gondii, the Tb SAS-6L antibody labelled the apex of tachyzoites, and after conoid extrusion triggered by ionomycin treatment, it labelled the tip of the "true" conoid. The SAS-6L and 550 551 SAS-6 antibodies did not colocalize in T. gondii, the former one labelling the centriole and 552 the latter one labelling the conoid tip (de Leon et al. 2013).

553 Complex connections between the "pseudoconoid" or "incomplete conoid" and the 554 flagellar apparatus were also shown, by conventional TEM and 3D reconstruction, in the 555 apical complex of *Psammosa pacifica*, a predator relative of apicomplexans and early 556 dinoflagellates (Okamoto and Keeling 2014).

557 The MTOC of the centrocones of S. pendula appears as a disc similar to that 558 observed in other eugregarines such as L. tuzetae where 9 singlets could be detected in 559 favourable TEM sections (Kuriyama et al. 2005). From these MTOC discs, microtubules 560 radiated to form a cone involved in the cup-shaped invaginations of the nuclear envelope. 561 The continuity of these MTOC during the life cycle could be in agreement with a 562 centriolar-like structure since a 9+0 axonemal pattern is observed in S. pendula male 563 gamete (Fig.11B). The question of the subpellicular microtubule biogenesis is not clear. 564 The conoid is not, by itself, the MTOC since it is absent in the zoites of Hematosporida and 565 Piroplasmida. The two polar rings, observed at the apex of the Eimeria or Plasmodium 566 zoites were proposed as the MTOC sites generating the subpellicular microtubules (Russel 567 and Burns 1984), but these two polar rings were not observed in S. pendula. The imc 568 dilatation at the border of the proximal opening of the conoid could fulfil this function (Fig. 569 4). The exceptional accumulation of microtubule bundles in the anterior part of the mucron,

570 before the regular subpellicular microtubule sets of the epicytic bulges (Fig. 2D), is in 571 agreement with the strong labelling of *S. melongena* apex with fluorescent anti-alpha 572 tubulin (Wakeman et al. 2014). Biogenesis of these abundant microtubule bundles needs 573 further analysis.

574 Rhoptries are characteristic of the apicomplexan zoites and also of the Selenidiidae 575 trophozoites (Schrével et al. 2013 for a review). Interestingly, presence of numerous 576 intracytoplasmic thread-like bodies described by Ray (1930) in the apex of different 577 Selenidium trophozoites was visualized after iron haematoxylin staining (Heidenhain's haematoxylin). By their sizes reaching 8-12 µm depending on the Selenidium species and 578 579 their localization, these thread-like structures could correspond to the rhoptries described 580 from TEM such as in S. pendula (Fig. 5A), S. hollandei (Schrével 1968) and S. orientale 581 (Symdyanov and Kurvidina 2007). Ray (1930) considered these thread-like structures as 582 one of the morphological characters of each Selenidium species, however the abundance of 583 rhoptries detected in TEM is in fact a general character for archigregarines (Schrével et al. 584 2013, for review). Biological functions of many apicomplexan rhoptry proteins remain largely unknown. In Plasmodium and Toxoplasma, the most investigated apicomplexans at 585 586 the molecular level, there is growing evidence to suggest that the rhoptry neck proteins are 587 predominantly involved in host-cell adhesion with some sharing evolutionary origins 588 among apicomplexans. In contrast, the rhoptry bulb proteins appear mainly genus specific, 589 suggesting that they evolved secondarily to become highly specific to their host cells 590 (Counihan et al. 2013). In S. pendula, food vacuole membranes may have arised from 591 numerous rhoptries localized within the apex. A strong membrane trafficking is expected to 592 produce the large and abundant food vacuoles observed during myzocytosis (Fig. 4A). 593 Therefore Selenidium rhoptry proteins could play a role in producing intracellular food 594 vacuole in contrast to Apicomplexa with an intracellular development, where the rhoptry 595 proteins seem involved in the parasitophorous vacuole elaboration such as in *Plasmodium* 596 and *Toxoplasma*.

597

598 Archigregarines and Eugregarines: Two Early Branching Lineages Among 599 Apicomplexa

The transition from the free-living alveolates to apicomplexan parasites was supported by comparative ultrastructural studies and molecular phylogeny analyses of basal lineages, such as dinoflagellates (together with perkinsids) and apicomplexans (including colpodellids) (Leander and Keeling 2003). The myzocytosis is the most plesiomorphic

604 features of apicomplexans with archigregarines having a closed conoid (Schrével 1968, 605 1971b), and colpodellids the sister lineage of Apicomplexa with an open conoid (Kuvardina 606 et al. 2002). In perkinsids, representing the earliest diverging sister lineage of 607 dinoflagellates (Saldarriaga et al. 2003), an open conoid is also observed (Perkins 1996). These three types of parasites also share rhoptry-like organelles and, together with their 608 609 phylogenetic positions, they confidently infer that a common ancestor of apicomplexans 610 and dinoflagellates had an apical complex involved in the acquisition of nutrients from the 611 cytoplasm of prey cells (Leander and Keeling 2003).

612 Among the high diversity of gregarines in invertebrates, Polychaeta, an animal class 613 known to be present at the Cambrian biodiversity explosion and to represent one of the 614 earliest Bilateria organisms (De Rosa et al. 2005; Schrével and Desportes 2013), is well 615 infected by gregarines. This situation supports the evolutionary prelude of marine 616 gregarines to the apicomplexan radiation (Leander 2007). The initial archigregarine radiation is supported by the "hypersporozoite" cell organization of the trophozoite, the 617 618 myzocytosis and the pendular or rolling motility (Schrével 1971; Schrével and Desportes 619 2015). The subsequent eugregarine radiation, with an adaptation to the intestinal biome and 620 an extracellular development, could have emerged from intestinal lecudinid gregarines. 621 Here, their cell cortex is quite different from archigregarines by the presence of numerous 622 epicytic folds, without the regular sets of subpellicular microtubules but with a 623 sophisticated distribution of 12-nm filaments, apical rippled dense structures at the top of 624 the folds (Schrével et al. 1983; Vivier 1968). Their gliding motility depends upon an actin-625 myosin system but the molecular mechanochemical properties are far from being 626 understood (Heintzelman 2004; Valigurová et al. 2013). The myzocytosis, similar to the 627 archigregarine model, is not observed in these marine eugregarines: their nutrition process 628 is realized through a bulbous attachment apparatus usually designated by mucron.

The gregarine colonization of the coelom in invertebrate hosts by transmigration of 629 the sporozoites through the intestinal epithelium and a coelomic development reveal 630 631 additional adaptations of eugregarines to their host environment. These adaptations are a 632 significant evolutionary step of marine gregarines as suggested by Leander (2007), and 633 represent an antithesis to any notion of "primitiveness". One of the best evidence is the 634 unique adaptation of the coelomic eugregarine Diplauxis hatti to its host Perinereis 635 cultrifera where a strict synchronization is observed between the maturation of the 636 polychaete gametes and the sexual phases (gamogony and sporogony) of the parasite (Prensier et al. 2008). This example illustrates how gregarines are well adapted to their host 637

638 environment. For instance, D. hatti is adapted to P. cultrifera but cannot invade other 639 Nereidae host as Hedistes (Nereis) diversicolor nor Nereis pelagica. The extreme 640 adaptation of some gregarines to their host environments could explain some unexpected 641 situations such as the reduction observed from the canonical 9+2 flagellar pattern, in the 642 male gametes, with a 9+0 pattern in S. pendula (this study), 6+0 in L. tuzetae (Schrével and 643 Besse 1975) and 3+0 in D. hatti (Prensier et al. 1980). The 9+0 pattern of Selenidium, close 644 to the 9+2 normality, may be correlated to a fertilization phase lasting about 1 hour in a 1-645 day sexual phase (gamogony and sporogony), the 6+0 pattern of *L. tuzetae*, may result from 646 a fertilization realized in few hours within a cyst, during a 3 days sexual phase of the 647 Lecudina life cycle (Schrével 1969). More impressively, the 3+0 pattern in D. hatti could 648 have been selected over evolution because of the fertilization step lasting only few hours in 649 a highly extended complete life cycle, lasting 2.5 years (Prensier et al. 2008). Such 650 evolutionary proposal, suggesting that each gregarine develops its own programme 651 according to its environment is in agreement with the notion of regressive evolution in 652 microorganisms proposed by Lwoff (1944). This type of regressive evolution could 653 probably continue with other coelomic gregarines with the disappearance of the flagellum 654 in male gametes of Gonospora species as suggested from histology studies (Schrével 1963; 655 Trégouboff 1918). Expression of the own program of each coelomic eugregarines is also 656 observed with the variations in their epicytic cell surface transformations with digits, surface swelling in Pterospora, microvillosities in Diplauxis or the development of 657 658 peristaltic motility instead of gliding, sometimes a pendular motility is observed in young 659 trophozoite and peristaltic motility during the fast growing period of the same trophozoite 660 as observed in D. hatti (see Schrével et al. 2013 for a review).

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- 662

663 Conclusion

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Molecular phylogenetic analyses of archigregarines demonstrate that *S. pendula*, the type species of archigregarines, belongs to a lineage with a large number of *Selenidium* parasites of Spionidae, Sabellaridae, Sabellidae, Cirratulidae families of the Sedentaria Polychaeta. All these *Selenidium* exhibit similar biological characters such as the cell cortex with a plasma membrane, imc (inner-membrane-complex) and subpellicular microtubules, the apical complex with a conoid, the myzocytosis with large food vacuoles and abundance of

671 large rhoptry organelles, the nuclear multiplication during the syzygy and the early 672 gamonts. Two other *Selenidium*-like lineages are observed in the Terebellidae and 673 Sipunculida where the sexual characters are not available at this time. Such a status 674 underlines an adaptation of the family Selenidiidae to their host families and this first early 675 evolutive lineage could correspond to the transition step between the free-living flagellated 676 alveolates and the Apicomplexa, before the diversification of the marine eugregarines 677 without the typical myzocytosis realized through the conoid but with a gliding motility.

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- 680 Methods
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Preparation of annelids and gregarines: Isolates of the gregarine Selenidium pendula 682 683 Giard, 1884 type species, were collected from the intestine of the polychaete worm 684 Scolelepis squamata (O. F. Müller, 1806) (previously named Nerine cirratulus, Delle Chiaje, 1831) on the French coast of the English Channel at the "Station Biologique de 685 Roscoff", in 2007 then again in 2012. Isolates of the gregarines Selenidium hollandei 686 Vivier and Schrével, 1966, Lecudina pellucida (Mingazzini, 1891) type species and 687 688 different isolates of L. tuzetae Schrével, 1963 were also collected from the intestines of 689 polychaete worms from the same area, in 2007, 2012, 2013 and 2014 (Table 2).

690 After washing in seawater, each collected worm was kept, at the laboratory 691 temperature, in a separate Petri dish. The medium (seawater) was changed daily. For long-692 term conservation, the collected worms were rinsed with 0.22 µm filtered seawater and 693 stored at 4 °C. In order to collect Selenidium pendula Giard, 1884, the anterior part of the 694 Scololelepis squamata worms, with a yellow color, was discarded since the parasites were 695 always absent, then the worms were cut transversally in series of segments of about 1 to 1.5 696 cm of length. To collect S. hollandei, L. pellucida and L. tuzetae, a similar type of 697 microdissection was performed from their corresponding hosts, under a classic binocular 698 microscope, in order to expose the intestinal epithelial surface to the seawater. In addition, 699 and only in the case of L. tuzetae, cysts excreted with feces were collected from the Petri 700 dishes of individually kept Neanthes (Nereis) diversicolor (O. F. Müller, 1776). 701 Trophozoites of S. pendula, attached to the intestine, were easily detected, in spite of their 702 rather small sizes (usually 150 -180 µm x 30-35 µm), by their white color - contrasting to 703 the characteristic green color of the intestinal epithelium of the worm - and by their active

pendular movements. In highly infected *Scolelepis squamata*, trophozoites and sexual stages of *S. pendula* (syzygies and young cysts) were also collected in Petri dishes, among the gametes released from hosts during the dissection. *S. hollandei* trophozoites were easily observed in host epithelium by their very active rolling movements, immediately after sectioning the post abdominal segment of their hosts, *Sabellaria alveolata* Linnaeus, 1767.

709 Electron microscopy: For transmission electron microscopy (TEM), intestinal epithelial tissues of Scolelepis squamata highly infected with trophozoites of S. pendula 710 711 were collected and fixed in 5 % (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 100-150 mM phosphate or 0.2 M 712 cacodylate buffer (pH 7.3), at 4 °C, for 6 to 12 hours. The syzygy and gametocytes of S. 713 pendula, not attached to the epithelium, were collected directly in the seawater from the 714 Petri dishes and fixed in the same conditions. After washing either in the same buffer or in 715 buffer containing 0.3 M sucrose, the samples were post-fixed with 1% (w/v) OsO₄ in the 716 same buffer for 1 hr, then processed through standard dehydration, infiltration, and 717 embedding procedures, in Epon or Araldite mixtures, with the corresponding solvents (i.e. 718 propylene oxide or acetone respectively), at room temperature. The blocks were thin 719 sectioned, collected on grids and stained with saturated uranyl acetate in 50% (v/v) ethanol 720 for 1-3 min then in lead citrate. Sections were observed with a Hitachi HU 11 E electron 721 microscopy (Hitachi Ltd, Japan) or a JEOL 1010 TEM.

For SEM, the intestines were open along the axis of the polychaete, and the body parts highly infected by *S. pendula* were carefully washed in 0.22 μ m-filtered seawater before fixation in glutaraldehyde as done above for TEM. After the post fixation in 1% OsO₄ in 0.2 M cacodylate buffer, specimens were dehydrated in a graded series of acetone, critical point-dried in liquid CO₂ and coated with gold. The samples were examined in a JEOL JSM-7401F FE SEM.

728 **DNA isolation and sequencing:** For the LG isolates (S. pendula LG, S. hollandei 729 LG, L. pellucida LG Table 1), groups of ~50-70 isolated trophozoites were washed at least three times in 0.22 µm-filtered seawater and DNA was extracted from individual parasites 730 731 using a modified GITC (Guanidinium isothiocyanate) protocol (Chomczynski and Sacchi 732 2006). Individuals were placed in 50 µl of the GITC extraction buffer and crushed using an adjusted micro-pilon (Kimble Chase®). Tubes were incubated at 72 °C for 20 min. Next, 733 one volume of cold isopropanol was added at -20 °C overnight for DNA precipitation. The 734 following day, samples were centrifuged (20,000 g, 15 min at 4 °C) and supernatants 735 736 removed. The DNA pellet was cleaned using 70% ethanol (100 µl), followed by a last 737 centrifugation (20,000 g, 10 min). Supernatant was removed and the DNA pellet was

hydrated into 20 μ l of sterile distilled water and stored at -20 °C. For *S. pendula* IF, a group of ~50-70 isolated trophozoites were washed at least three times in 0.22 μ m filtered seawater and genomic DNA was isolated by using a phenol-chloroform extraction procedure as previously described for *Plasmodium falciparum* (Florent et al. 2000), and the purified DNA pellet was rehydrated into 20 μ l of sterile distilled water and stored at -20 °C.

743 For L. tuzetae Roscoff 2012 IF462, DNA was isolated by using the phenol-744 chloroform extraction procedure described above, from 2 cysts, collected from the feces of 745 a single Neanthes (Nereis) diversicolor (O. F. Müller, 1776) host individually kept in a 746 Petri dish. The purified DNA pellet was rehydrated into 20 µl of sterile distilled water and was stored at -20 °C. Finally, for the 4 remaining L. tuzetae Roscoff, DNA extractions were 747 performed using MasterPureTM Complete DNA and RNA Purification kit (Epicentre, 748 Illumina Inc. USA) following supplier's recommendations for Cell Samples manipulations, 749 with minor modifications, from respectively 7 cysts (IF131), 50 cysts (IF171 and IF172) 750 and 30 cysts (IF181). Briefly, each group of cysts was isolated from the feces of a single N. 751 752 diversicolor host individually kept in a Petri dish, from which each cyst was then 753 extensively washed, one by one, in three successive drops of 0.22 µm filtered seawater 754 supplemented with antibiotics penicillin (100 U/mL), streptomycin (100 µg/mL) and 755 gentamycin (50 µg/mL) (Gibco, Life Technologies, USA) then pooled again. Then, isolated 756 and washed cysts were submerged in 300 µL Tissue-and-Cell lysis solution, submitted to 757 five series of freezing (liquid nitrogen) and thawing (37 °C) before addition of Proteinase K 758 then RNAse A and, after sample processing as recommended, isolated DNA pellets were rehydrated in 35 µl TE (10 mM Tris-pH 7.5 and 1mM EDTA) prior to subsequent storage 759 760 at -20 °C.

These DNA extraction products were then used as templates in various series of PCR amplifications, in order to amplify the SSU rRNA gene of these gregarines, then sequenced using the Sanger sequencing methodology.

LG samples. The PCR mix (15 μ l final volume) contained 1–6 μ l of the DNA extract, 764 765 330µM of each deoxynucleoside triphosphate (dNTP), 2.5 mM of MgCl₂, 1.25 U of GoTaq® DNA polymerase (Promega Corporation), 0.17 µM of both primers, 1× of buffer 766 767 (Promega Corporation). The PCR cycle, run in an automated thermocycler 768 (GeneAmp®PCR System 9700, Applied Biosystem, USA), was programmed to give an initial denaturating step at 95 °C for 5 min, 35 cycles of denaturating at 95 °C for 1 min, 769 770 annealing at 55 °C for 45 s and extension at 72 °C for 1 min 15 s, and a final extension step 771 at 72 °C for 7 min. PCR products were cloned into a TOPO TA cloning kit (Invitrogen®),

following manufacturer's recommendations. Inserts inside white colonies were screened by
PCR (same procedure as before). Positive PCR products were purified (ExoSAP-IT® For
PCR Product Clean-Up, USB®) and sequenced using the Big Dye Terminator Cycle
Sequencing Kit version 3.0 (PE Biosystems®) and an ABI PRISM model 377 (version 3.3)
automated sequencer with specific internal primers.

The list of primers used for both PCR amplifications and Sanger sequencing is provided inthe table of the Supplementary data 6.

IF samples. PCR amplifications were done using Hot firepol DNA polymerase as 779 780 recommended (Solis BioDyne, Estonia), in a 50 µl final volume supplemented with 2 mM 781 MgCl₂, 200 µM each dNTPs and 200 nM forward (P4+T or WL1) and reverse (EukP3) primers (Supplementary Material 6) and 1µl of isolated gregarine DNAs. PCR cycles, run 782 in an automated thermocycler (GeneAmp®PCR System 9700, Applied Biosystem, USA), 783 were programmed to give an initial denaturation step at 95 °C for 4 min, 30 cycles of 784 denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, annealing at 51°C for 30 s and extension at 72 °C for 2 min, 785 and a final extension step at 72 °C for 7 min. PCR products were purified using IllustraTM 786 GFXTM PCR DNA and Gel Band Purification kit (GE Healthcare, France) and were cloned 787 into pGEM[®]-T Easy vector (Promega, Madison WI, USA) using supplier's 788 recommendations. DNA sequences were obtained from positive clones selected by PCR 789 using T7 and Sp6 universal primers flanking the pGEM[®]-T Easy vector cloning site, using 790 T7, Sp6 and internal primers such as LWA1, LWA3, PIF3F and PIF3R (Table 6), by the 791 792 Sanger method (Beckman Coulter Genomics, Takeley, UK). Raw were edited using the 793 BioEdit 7.1.3.0 program (Hall 1999) and assembled by using MEGA6 (Tamura et al. 794 2013).

795 Phylogenetic analyses: SSU rDNA sequences from nine Selenium and Lecudina species 796 were aligned to 106 rDNA sequences from diverse eukaryotes, mostly corresponding to 797 representatives of Alveolata with one Rhizaria as outgroup. Sequences were aligned using the 798 online version of MAFFT version 7 (http://mafft.cbrc.jp/alignment/server/ Katosh and Toh 799 2010), using the secondary structure of RNA (Q-INS-I option) and further refined manually 800 taking as a reference the secondary structure of T. gondii small subunit rRNA (Gagnon et al. 801 1996). Ambiguously aligned positions were manually removed which yielded a confident 802 alignment of 1350 positions. A GTR substitution model with gamma-distributed rate variation 803 across sites was suggested as the best-fit model by JModeltest V2.1.3 (Darriba et al. 2012). 804 Accordingly, a Bayesian phylogenetic tree was constructed with MrBayes v.3.2.3 (Ronquist et al. 2012) using lset nst=6 rates=Invgamma Ngammacat=4 parameters. Four simultaneous Monte 805

Carlo Markov chains were run from random trees for a total of 13,000,000 generations in two
parallel runs. A tree was sampled every 1000 generation and 25% of the trees were discarded as
"burn-in". A consensus tree was constructed from the post-burn-in trees and posterior
probabilities were calculated in MrBayes. Maximum Likelihood analyses were performed with
MEGA 6.06 (Tamura et al. 2013) using the GTR+G+I model. Bootstraps were estimated from
1,000 replicates.

The phylogenetic tree for the Selenidiidae lineage from polychate annelids (Fig. 13) was contructed using the same alignment but for a subset of 20 sequences; all position containing gaps and missing data were eliminated; there were a total of 1,416 positions in the final dataset. Maximum Likelihood analyses were performed with MEGA 6.06 (Tamura et al. 2013) using the GTR+G+I model. Bootstraps were estimated from 1,000 replicates.

817 Estimate of evolutionary divergence between sequences: Evolutionary
818 divergence between sequences was computed by using the MEGA 6.06 (Tamura et al.
819 2013) using a subset of sequences extracted from the main phylogenetic alignment. For the
820 analysis of the Selenidiidae lineage (Supplementary Material 4) the analysis involved 33
821 nucleotide sequences for 16 distinct species, there were a total of 2088 positions in the final
822 dataset and all positions containing gaps and missing data were eliminated.

- 823
- 824

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1057 Figure legends

1058

1059 Figure 1. Scanning and transmission electron microscopy of Selenidium pendula 1060 trophozoites fixed to the intestine of the polychaete worm Scolelepis squamata (A-B.). 1061 Abbreviations: bulge (B), dense granule (DG), food vacuole (FV), groove (G), intestinal 1062 epithelium (IE), mucron (MU), rhoptry (R). A. SEM micrograph of trophozoites with their apical region inserted into the intestinal epithelium, exhibiting on this face about 18 1063 1064 longitudinal bulges separated by grooves. The long filamentous structures covering the 1065 intestinal epithelium correspond to ciliary structures (arrows). B. Longitudinal TEM section 1066 of a trophozoite with the apical end designated as mucron containing a food vacuole and 1067 numerous rhoptries. In the intestinal epithelium, the trophozoite preferentially anchors to 1068 the host cells enriched in dense granules having mucous secretions.

1069

Figure 2. Apex of the Selenidium pendula trophozoite (A-D). Abbreviations: bulge (B), 1070 1071 conoid (Co), food vacuole (FV), groove (G), intestinal epithelium (IE), microneme (mn), 1072 microtubules (mt), microvilli (mv), mucron (MU), rhoptry (R). A. SEM micrograph of the 1073 apex surface showing that bulges and grooves of the epicyte start from a regular 1074 mammiliform area corresponding to the external surface of the mucron. Small folds 1075 (arrows) are observed on the bulges located on the internal curvature of the cell B. SEM 1076 micrograph of intestinal epithelium after the detachment of a mucron, with small microvilli 1077 on the periphery, a small hole in the subcentral position (white arrow) and the long ciliary 1078 structures (black arrow). C. TEM micrograph of a median longitudinal section of the apex 1079 with several food vacuoles that enter via the conoid and are surrounded by an accumulation 1080 of rhoptries and micronemes. D. TEM longitudinal section of the apical region (= 1081 trophozoite apex with numerous micronemes and rhoptries) revealing that the subpellicular microtubule bundles start before the differentiation of the epicytic bulges of the cell 1082 1083 surface.

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Figure 3. Cell surface and cortex of *Selenidium pendula* trophozoite (**A-F**). Abbreviations: bulge (B), groove (G), inner membrane complex (imc), microneme (mn), microtubules (mt), mitochondrion (M), myelin-like structure (st myel), plasma membrane (pm), pore (p), rhoptry (R), vesicle (ves). **A.** SEM view of the cell surface with the apertures of pores along the grooves (arrows). **B-F.** TEM cross sections of the cortex with the plasma membrane, the dilated inner membrane complex and the subpellicular microtubules under the epicytic

bulges (C). In cross section, each microtubule is surrounded by a white hexagonal area.
Ectoplasmic organelles in the grooves, connected to the cortical membranes via the imc,
contain lamellar structures (arrow in B) or dense material (white arrow in D). These
organelles form an annular ring in cross section parallel to the cell surface (white arrow in
E) corresponding to the cross section of a micropore or myelin-like structures (F).

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Figure 4. Conoid in the *Selenidium pendula* mucron (**A-C**). Abbreviations: dense granule (DG), conoid (Co), food vacuole (FV), food vacuole membrane (fvm), inner membrane complex (imc), host intestinal epithelium (IE), parasite plasma membrane (pm). **A-B.** Two longitudinal sections of the *S. pendula* mucron, showing the conoid structure and the opening, allowing a contact between the fvm and the host cell, visible in **A. C.** High magnification showing the 9 cross sections of the microtubular network forming the conoid.

1104

Figure 5. Food vacuoles and rhoptries in the apex of the S. pendula trophozoite (A-B), and 1105 1106 apicoplast-like organelles (C, D, E). Abbreviations: conoid (Co), food vacuole (FV), host 1107 intestinal epithelium (IE), microneme (mn), mitochondrion (M), fragmented food vacuoles 1108 similar to pinocytotic vesicles (pv), rhoptry (R). A. TEM cross section with the initial food 1109 vacuole passing through the conoid and the fragmented food vacuoles similar to the 1110 pinocytotic vesicles (pv) observed in S. hollandei (Schrével 1968). Numerous rhoptries are 1111 accumulated around these food vacuoles. B. Another cross section showing the irregular 1112 shapes of the initial food vacuole and the intravacuolar vesicles. (C-E). Apicoplast-like organelles, characterized by the presence of four membranes morphologically similar to the 1113 1114 apicoplast of Toxoplasma and Plasmodium.

1115

Figure 6. Rhoptries, micronemes and Golgi apparatus (**A-D**). Abbreviations: amylopectin granule (am), Golgi apparatus (Go), intrareticular granule (ig), microneme (mn), mitochondrion (M), rhoptry (R). **A-B.** TEM cross sections of an accumulation of rhoptries and micronemes within the cytoplasm. The micronemes appear as long-necked bottles, the necks appear as dense rings in cross sections (white thick arrow in B). **C-D.** Golgi apparatus and mitochondrion occur close to the micronemes; the *cis*-region of the Golgi apparatus usually contains numerous intrareticular granules (D).

1123

1124 Figure 7. Nuclear area of Selenidium pendula trophozoite (A-E). Abbreviations: 1125 amylopectin granule (am), intrareticular granule (ig), microneme (mn), nuclear pores (np), 1126 nucleus (N), nucleolus (nu). A-B. TEM cross sections of the nucleus containing a spherical 1127 nucleolus (A) and surrounded by the regular fibrillar zone without organelles (white arrows 1128 in B). This fibrillar area is delimited by large vesicles of the rough endoplasmic reticular 1129 containing numerous granules and amylopectin granules. C. Tangential section of the 1130 nuclear envelope exhibits numerous pores. D. Occasional accumulation of micronemes can 1131 be observed near the nucleus. E. Higher magnification of the micronemes and intrareticular 1132 granules.

1133

1134 Figure 8. Nuclear development during the syzygy of Selenidium pendula (A-D). 1135 Abbreviations: nucleus (N), cyst wall (CW). A-B. Fluorescence staining with DAPI 1136 showing nuclei in the median plane of each gamont corresponding to the initial position of 1137 the nucleus at the beginning of the syzygy stage. Their numbers are quite similar in the two 1138 gamonts and some bright spots are observed in some nuclei (B). C-D. TEM cross sections 1139 in an early cyst where the nuclei are accumulating in the central position of the gamont 1140 while the cell wall is not secreted (C) and later after the secretion of the cyst wall where the 1141 nuclei migrate to the gamont periphery (D).

1142

Figure 9. Centrocones and mitosis stages during the gametogenesis of Selenidium pendula 1143 1144 (A-B). Abbreviations: centrocone (CC), chromatin (Ch), cyst wall (CW), dense layer (dl), 1145 filamentous layer (fl), nuclear envelope (en), mitochondrion (M), microtubule-organizing 1146 center (MTOC), microtubule (mt), nucleus (N), vesicle type 1 (V1) and type 2 (V2). A. 1147 Early gametogenesis stage before the secretion of the gametocyst wall exhibiting 1148 centrocone where the microtubules radiate from the MTOC to the cupule of the nuclear 1149 envelope forming a truncated cone. The chromatin covers the inner face of the nuclear 1150 envelope and a dense accumulation is observed in the nucleus. B. A second centrocone 1151 migrating on the other side of the nucleus. No intranuclear spindle is observed, the 1152 chromatin is attached to the persistent nuclear envelope. Two types of vesicles are observed 1153 one with dense granules (V1) and a second one with filamentous material (V2). The 1154 gametocyst wall exhibits an external filamentous layer and an internal dense layer.

1155

Figure 10. Reorganisation of the cortical membranes in *Selenidium pendula* gamonts and
ultrastructure of the gametocyst wall during the gametogenesis stage (A-D). Abbreviations:

1158 gametocyst wall (CW), dense layer (dl), epicytic folds (ef), filamentous layer (fl), inner 1159 membrane complex (imc), plasma membrane (pm), vesicle type 1 (V1) and type 2 (V2). A-1160 C. TEM cross sections of the gamont's periphery where the epicytic folds are disorganized 1161 with dissociation of the inner member complex under the plasma membrane. The wall of 1162 the gametocyst exhibits a filamentous external layer and a more homogenous internal layer; 1163 the vesicles of type 2 are probably involved in the cyst wall construction. **D.** Higher 1164 magnification of the cyst wall with large amount of filaments attached to the surface of the 1165 internal homogenous layer.

1166

1167 Figure 11. Gamonts with gametes and young sporocysts after the fertilization (A-C). 1168 Abbreviations: amylopectin granule (am), axoneme (Ax), gametocyst wall (CW), dense 1169 granule (DG), dense layer (dl), filamentous layer (fl), mitochondrion (M), nucleus (N), 1170 sporocyst wall (SW). A. Gametocyst wall after the formation of the gametes exhibits a third 1171 layer with more dense material under the two layers observed in more early gamont stages 1172 (Figure 12). Residual amylopectin and dense granules are observed between the gametes 1173 and the gametocyst wall. B. Cross sections of flagellar axonemes indicate a male gamete 1174 (B) and two serial sections are of a 9+0 pattern. C. After the fertilization process the young 1175 sporocysts are surrounded by a thin wall covered by very small spines.

1176

1177 Figure 12. Maximum Likelihood (ML) tree inferred on an alignment of 115 small subunit 1178 (SSU) rDNA sequences corresponding to 9 Selenidium and Lecudina species from this 1179 current study (highlighted in grey boxes) and 106 sequences from diverse eukaryotes 1180 corresponding mostly to representatives of Alveolata with one Rhizaria as outgroup. The 1181 Maximum Likelihood method is based on the General Time Reversible +G +I model (Nei 1182 and Kumar 2000). The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number 1183 of substitutions per site. A branch was shortened by a multiple (3) of the length of 1184 substitutions/site scale bar. There were a total of 1153 positions in the final dataset. ML evolutionary analyses were conducted in MEGA6 (Tamura et al. 2013). Numbers at the 1185 1186 branches denote ML bootstrap percentage (first value). Bayesian posterior probabilities are 1187 also indicated (second value). Black dots on branches denote bootstrap percentages above 1188 99% and Bayesian posterior probabilities superior to 0.97.

1189

Figure 13. Molecular phylogenetic analysis by Maximum Likelihood method ofSelenidiidae lineage retrieved from polychaete annelids (host families in bold black).

The evolutionary history was inferred by using the Maximum Likelihood method based on the General Time Reversible model (Nei and Kumar 2000). The tree with the highest log likelihood (-5446.5092) is shown. A discrete Gamma distribution was used to model evolutionary rate differences among sites (5 categories with gamma parameter = 0.2711). The rate variation model allowed for some sites to be evolutionarily invariable (+I), 39.8364% sites). The tree is drawn to scale, with branch lengths measured in the number of substitutions per site. Novel sequences are highlighted in grey boxes.

1199

37 Page 37 of 52

- 1199 **Table 1**. List of the SSU rDNA sequence numbers of archigregarines and *Veloxidium*
- 1200 initially included in this group and the references: 1. This work; 2. Leander et al. 2003; 3.
- 1201 Leander et al. 2007; 4. Rueckert and Leander 2009; 5. Wakeman and Leander 2012; 6.
- 1202 Wakeman and Leander 2013; 7. Wakeman et al. 2014.

Archigregarines	SSU rDNA sequences	Ref.	Host	Infraclass	Order	Family
Selenidium pendula LG	LN901443	1	Scolelepis squamata	Canalipalpata	Spionida	Spionidae
Selenidium pendula IF	LN901444	1	Scolelepis squamata	Canalipalpata	Spionida	Spionidae
Selenidium boccardiella	JN857969	5	Boccardiella ligerica	Canalipalpata	Spionida	Spionidae
Selenidium mesnili	JN857968	5	Myxicola infundibulum	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Sabellidae
Selenidium hollandei	LN901445	1	Sabellaria alveolata	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Sabellariidae
Selenidium neosabellariae	KC110871 KC110872 KC110873	6	Neosabellaria cementarium	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Sabellariidae
Selenidium identhyrsae	JN857967	6	Idanthyrsus saxicavus	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Sabellariidae
Selenidium serpulae	DQ683562	3	Serpula vermicularis	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Serpulidae
Selenidium sensimae	KC110869 KC110870	6	Spirobranchus giganteus	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Serpulidae
Selenidium Sp1	KC110863 KC110866 KC110867	6	Spirobranchus giganteus	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Serpulidae
Selenidium Sp2	KC110864 KC110865 KC110868	6	Spirobranchus giganteus	Canalipalpata	Sabellida	Serpulidae
Selenidium terebellae	AY196709	2	Thelepus sp,	Canalipalpata	Terebellida	Theleponidae
Selenidium terebellae	KC890803 KC890804 KC890805 KC890806	7	Thelepus japonica	Canalipalpata	Terebellida	Theleponidae
Selenidium melongena	KC890799 KC890800 KC890801 KC890802	7	Thelepus japonica	Canalipalpata	Terebellida	Terebellinae
Selenidium cf echinatum	KC110874 KC110875	6	Dodecaceria concarum	Canalipalpata	Terebellida	Cirratulidae
Selenidium vivax	AF236097	2	Phascolosoma agassizii	Sipunculida	Phascolosimida	Phascolosomatidae
Platyproteum vivax	AY196708	4	Phascolosoma agassizii	Sipunculida	Phascolosimida	Phascolosomatidae
Filipodium phascolosoma	FJ832163	4	Phascolosoma agassizii	Sipunculida	Phascolosimida	Phascolosomatidae
Selenidium pisinnus	FJ832162	4	Phascolosoma agassizii	Sipunculida	Phascolosimida	Phascolosomatidae
Selenidium orientale	FJ832131	4	Themiste pyroidea	Sipunculida	Golfingiida	Veloxidium leptosynaptae
Veloxidium leptosynaptae	JN857966	5	Leptosynapta clarki	Echinodermata	Apodida	Synaptidae

1203

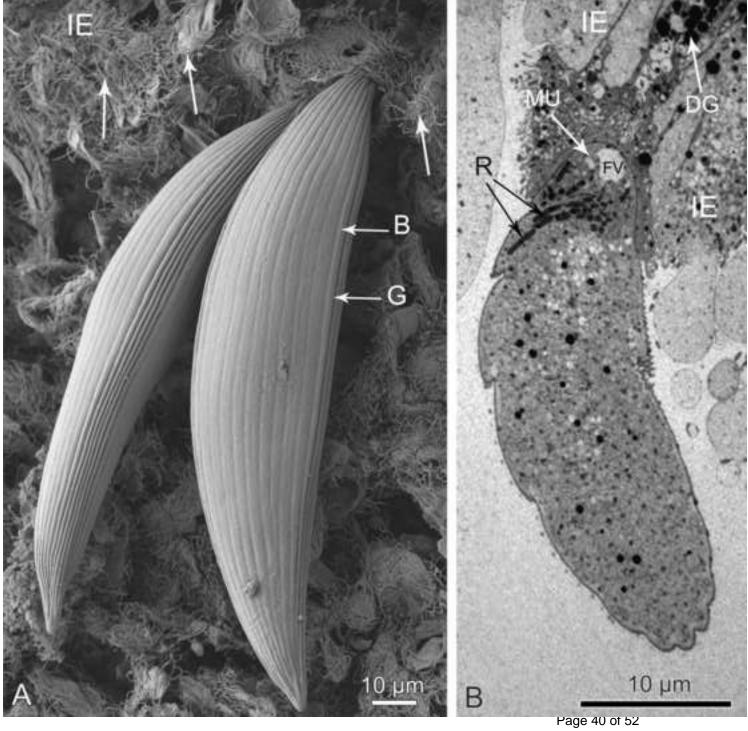
1204 **Table 2**. Summary of biological, geographical and molecular data, for original isolates in

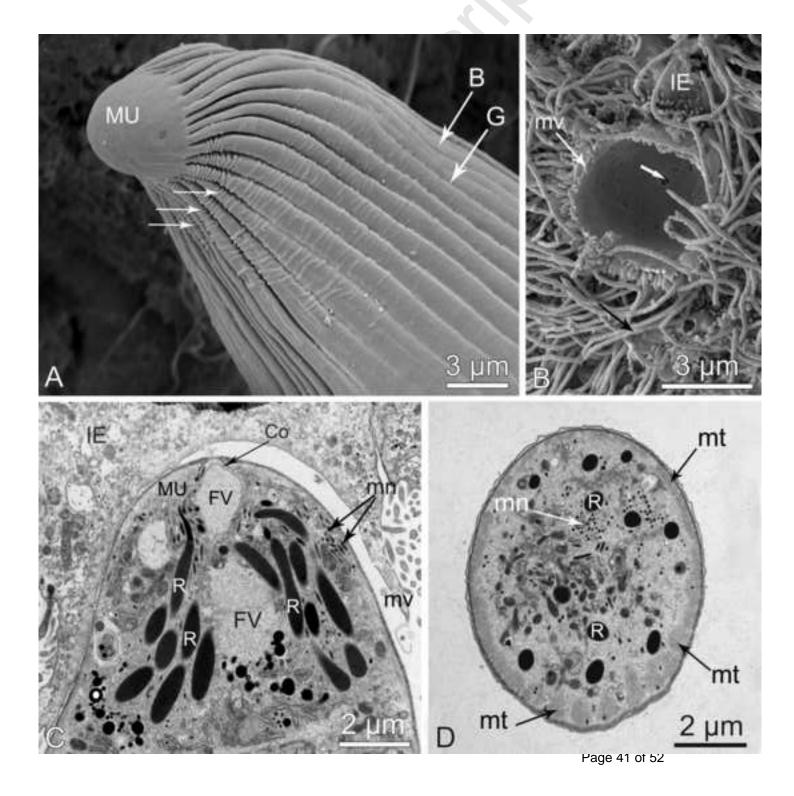
1205 this study. The number of corresponding stages used for DNA preparations is indicated; T,

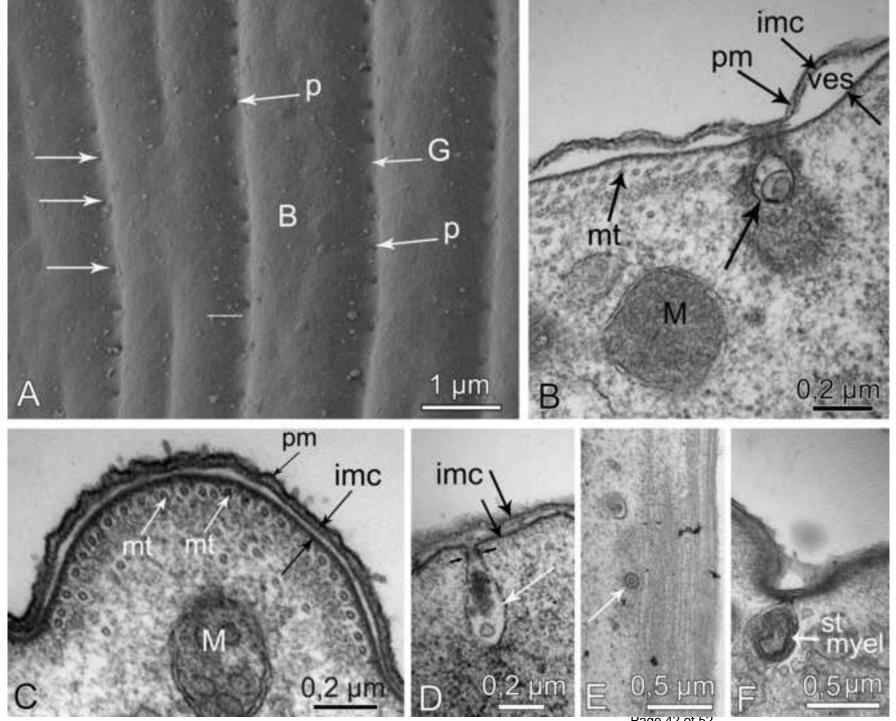
- 1206 trophozoite; C, cyst. Gene Accession numbers of the new sequences are available from the
- 1207 EMBL database.
- 1208

Gregarine	Host	Location	Isolate names	Stage	Gene Access number (18S)
<i>Selenidium</i> <i>pendula</i> Giard 1884	<i>Scolelepis</i> <i>squamata</i> (O. F. Müller 1806)	English Channel, Roscoff, Aber, Lat:48°43'35.25"N, Long:3°59'22.54"W.	Selenidium pendula LG	50-70 T	LN901443
<i>Selenidium</i> <i>pendula</i> Giard 1884	<i>Scolelepis</i> <i>squamata</i> (O. F. Müller 1806)	English Channel, Roscoff-Aber 2012, Lat:48°43'35.25"N, Long:3°59'22.54"W.	Selenidium pendula IF	50-70 T	LN901444
Selenidium hollandei Vivier & Schrével 1966	Sabellaria alveolata (Linnaeus 1767)	English Channel, Saint-Efflam-Ile Rouge Lat:48°40'57.96"N, Long:3°35'32.52"W.	Selenidium hollandei LG	50-70 T	LN901445
Lecudina pellucida (Mingazzini 1891)	<i>Perinereis</i> <i>cultrifera</i> (Grübe 1840)	English Channel, Roscoff-Ile de la Souris, Lat:48°43'41.73"N, Long:3°59'22.10"W.	Lecudina pellucida LG	50-70 T	LN901442
<i>Lecudina</i> <i>tuzetae</i> Schrével 1963	<i>Neanthes (Nereis) diversicolor (</i> O. F. Müller 1776)	English Channel, Roscoff-Penzé 2012, Lat:48°37'40.07"N, Long:3°57'13.40"W.	Lecudina tuzetae Roscoff 2012 IF132	7 C	LN901446
<i>Lecudina</i> <i>tuzetae</i> Schrével 1963	Neanthes (Nereis) diversicolor (O. F. Müller 1776)	English Channel, Roscoff-Penzé 2013, Lat:48°37'40,07"N, Long:3°57'13.40"W.	Lecudina tuzetae Roscoff 2013a IF181	30 C	LN901447
<i>Lecudina tuzetae</i> Schrével 1963	Neanthes (Nereis) diversicolor (O. F. Müller 1776)	English Channel, Roscoff-Penzé 2013, Lat:48°37'40.07"N, Long:3°57'13.40"W.	Lecudina tuzetae Roscoff 2013b IF462	2 C	LN901448
<i>Lecudina</i> <i>tuzetae</i> Schrével 1963	Neanthes (Nereis) diversicolor (O. F. Müller 1776)	English Channel, Roscoff-Penzé 2014, Lat:48°37'40,07"N, Long:3°57'13.40"W.	Lecudina tuzetae Roscoff 2014a IF171	50 C	LN901449
<i>Lecudina tuzetae</i> Schrével 1963	<i>Neanthes</i> (<i>Nereis</i>) <i>diversicolor</i> (O. F. Müller 1776)	English Channel, Roscoff-Penzé 2014, Lat:48°37'40,07"N, Long:3°57'13.40"W.	Lecudina tuzetae Roscoff 2014b IF172	50 C	LN901450

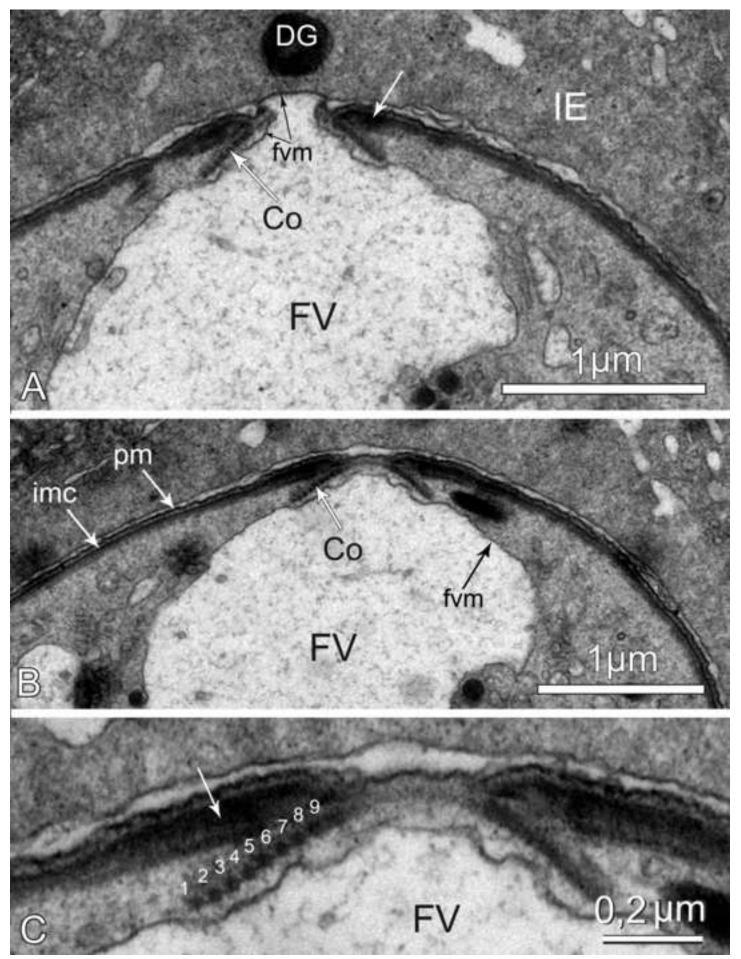
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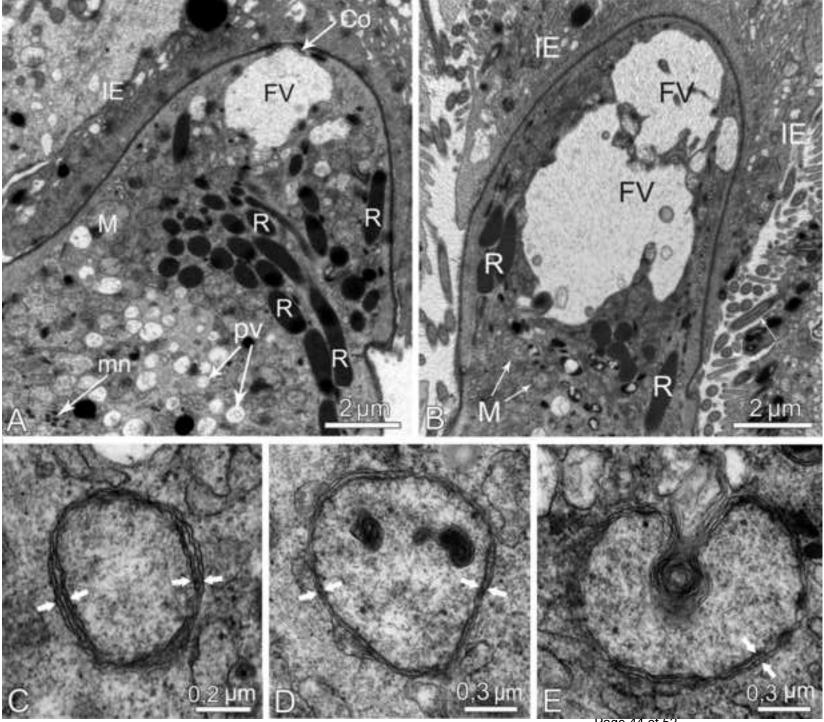




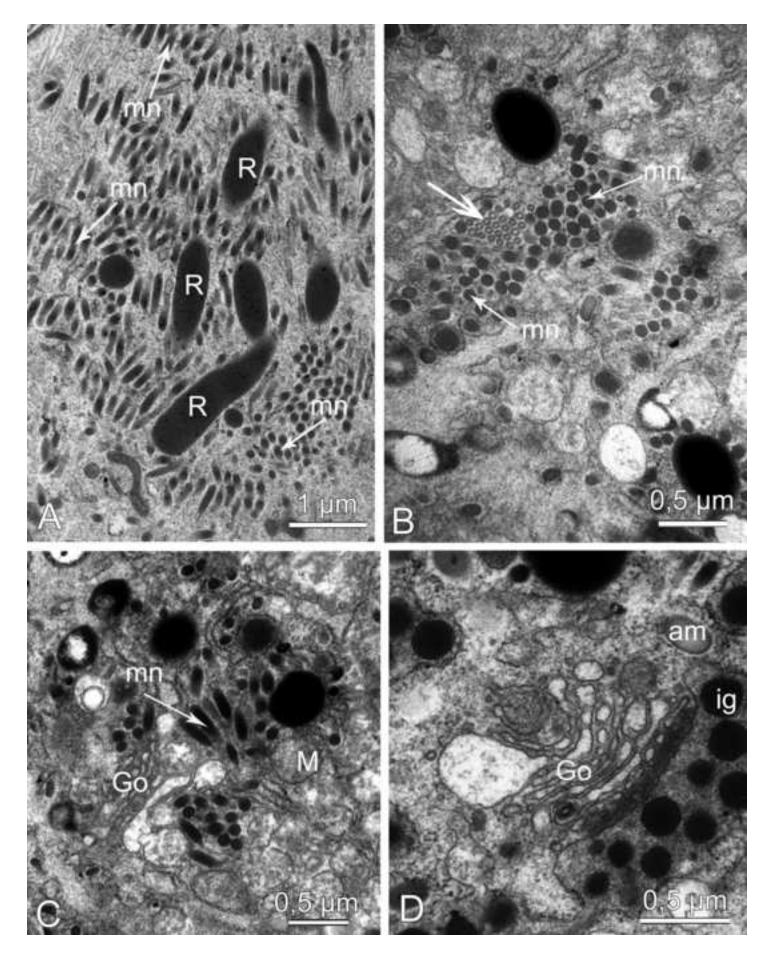


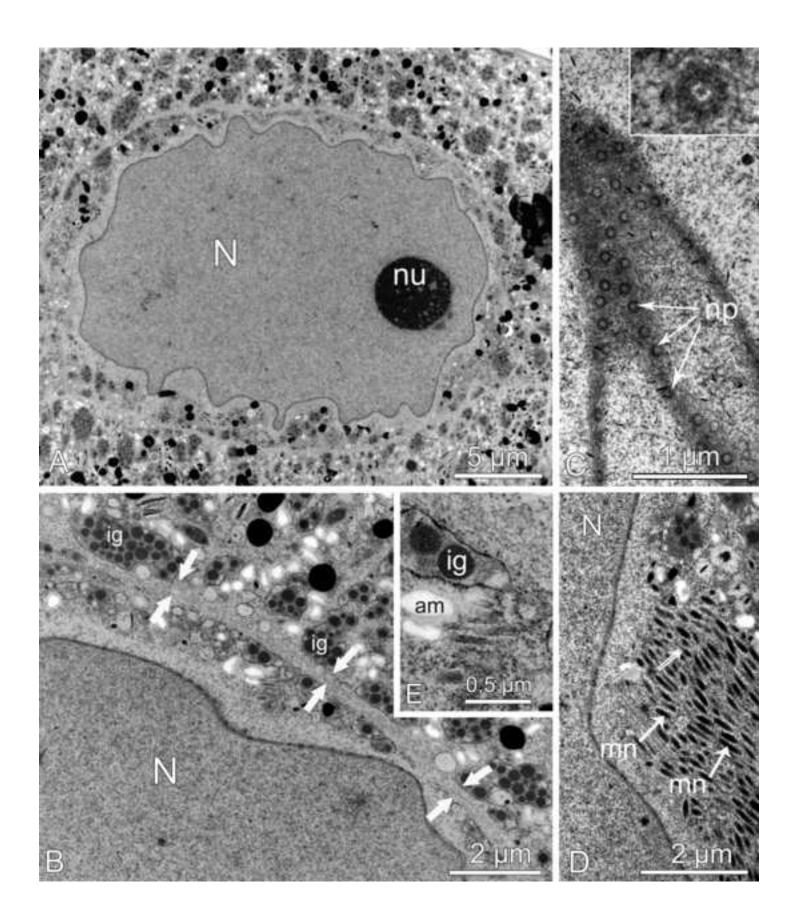
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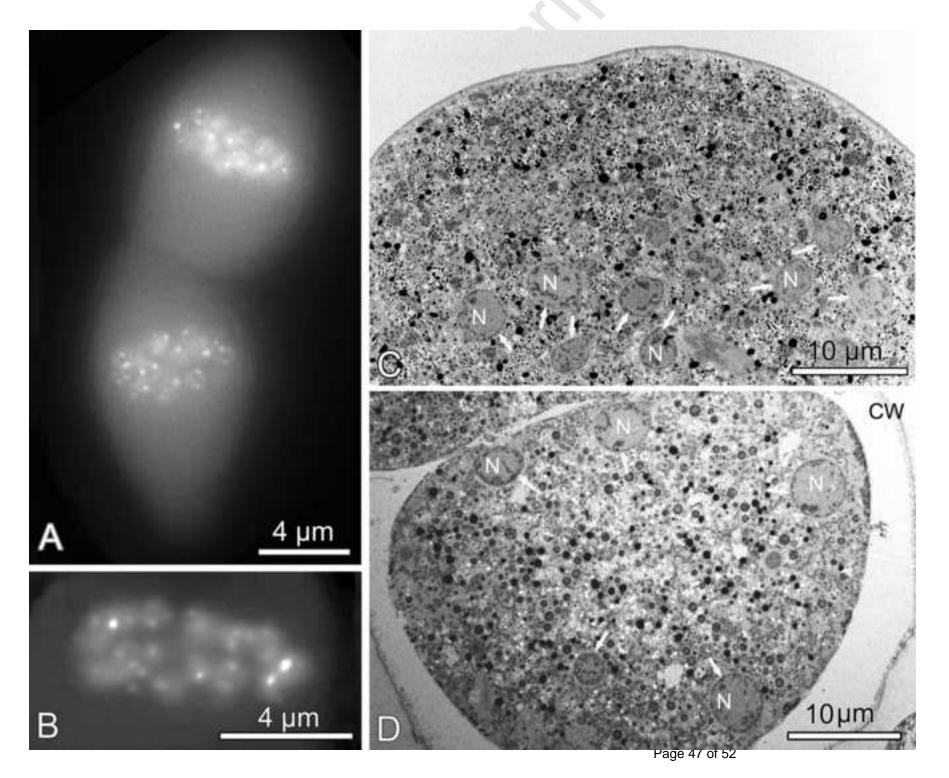


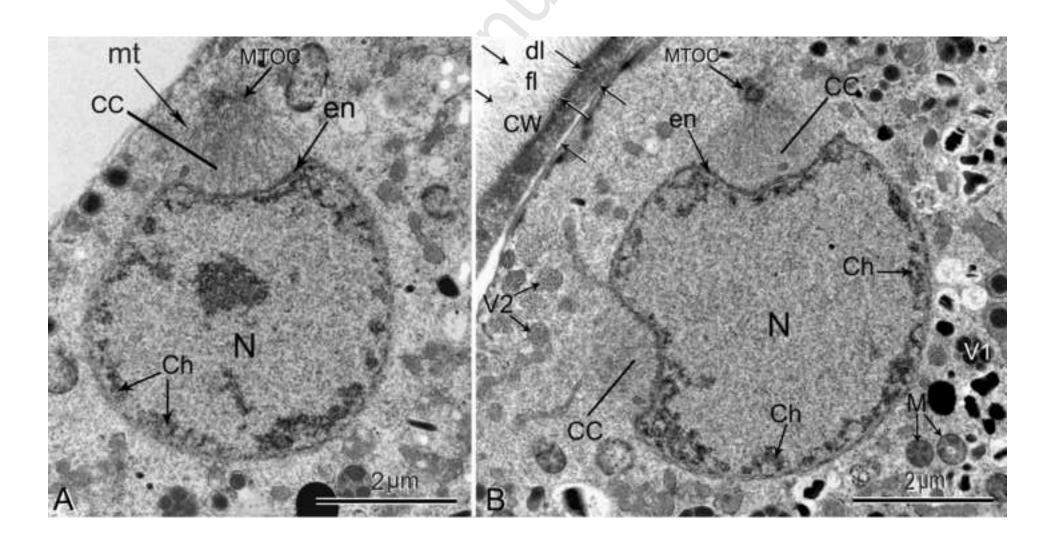


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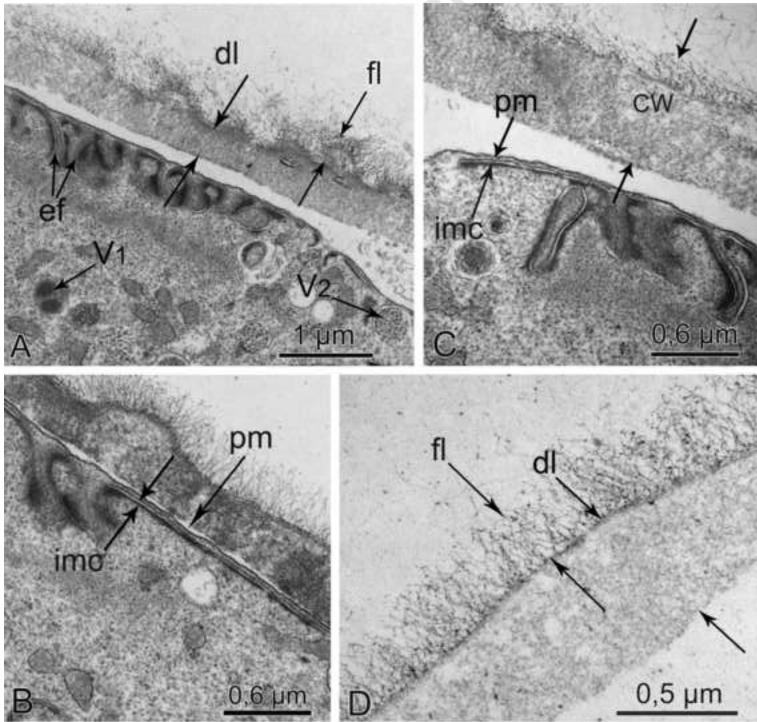








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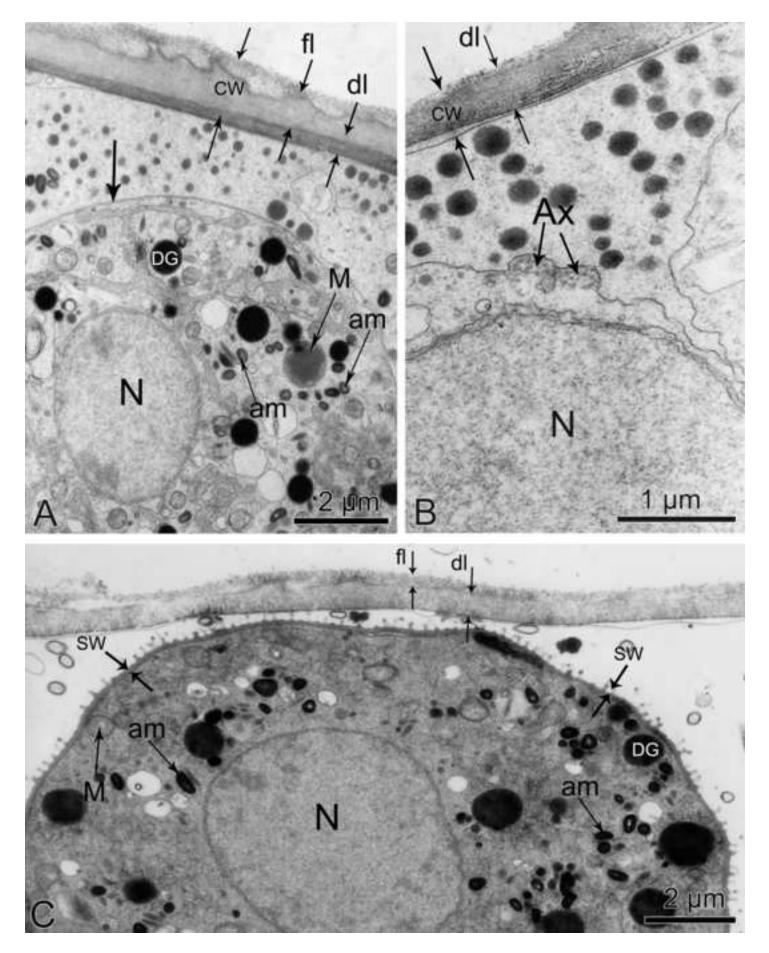


Figure 12 1000dpi Ascogregarina sp ex Ochlerotatus japonicus DQ462458	THE		λ
Ascogregarina culicis from Vietnam DQ462457 Ascogregarina armigerei DQ462459 Ascogregarina taiwanensis from Japan DQ462454 Paraschneideria metamorphosa FJ459755 Ophryocystis elektroscirrha AF129883 Mattesia geminata AY334568	Diptera Lepidoptera Hymenoptera	Hexapod gregarines	
94/0.9 Mattesia geminata AY334568 Apicystis bombi FN546182 Psychodiella chagasi FJ865354			
91/0.9 Genelomynchus manifestus - 1439739 91/0.9 Hoplorhynchus acanthatholius FJ459750	Odonata, Hemiptera		
<u> </u>	Coleoptera, Lepismatids		
77/0.6 Polyplicarum citrusae JX535336 75/0.6 Uncultured eukaryote CCA38 AY179975 75/0.6 Polyplicarum curvarae JX535340 9 Polyplicarum translucidae JX535344 9 Polyplicarum lacrimae JX535344 9 Uncultured eukaryote clone DSGM13 AB275013 9 Uncultured alveolate clone AT416 AF530523 9 Ammonia beccarii U07937	Capitellid Polychaeta	Marine gregarines	Eugr
82/0.9 Gregarina kingi FJ459746 Blabericola migratory FJ459754 Blabericola haasi FJ459753 Gregarina blattarum FJ459741 93/0.8 Gregarina tropica FJ459749 93/0.8 Amoebogregarina nigra FJ459737	Blattaria, Orthoptera	Hexapod	Eugregarines
72/0.8	Coleoptera	gregarines	les
x3 Gregarina niphandrodes FJ459747 Cephaloidophora cf communis HQ891113 (79/0.9 Heliospora cf longissima HQ89115.2 Ganymedes sp SR2010 FJ976721 Thiriotia pugettiae HQ876006		Crustacean gregarines	
Construction of the c	Lecudinids from Polychaeta		
197/1 Lankesteria abbotti DQ093796 198/1 Lankesteria ascidiae JX187607 198/1 Lankesteria chelyosomae EU670240 198/0.9 Lankesteria cystodytae JF264840	Lecudinids from Tunicates	Marine	
Lithocystis sp DQ093795 92/1 Pterospora schizosoma DQ093793 Pterospora floridiensis DQ093794	Urosporids	gregarines	
Difficilina paranemertes FJ832159 Difficilina tubulani FJ832160 Uncultured eukaryote DSGM6 AB275006 Veloxidium leptosynaptae JN857966 [80/0.5 Selenidium serpulae DQ683562 [80/0.5 Selenidium serpulae DQ683562]	Incertae sedis		Ý
Selenidium sensimae KC110869 <u>96/0.7</u> Selenidium sp2 KCW2013 KC110864 Selenidium cf echinatum KC110874 Selenidium pendula LN901444 83/1 <u>89/1</u> Selenidium pendula LN901443 <u>89/1</u> Selenidium boccardiellae JN857969 <u>4270.9</u> Selenidium cf mesnili JN857968 <u>14270.9</u> Selenidium neosabellariae KC110871	True Selenidiidae (Lineage I)	Marine gregarines	Archigregarines
439/0.6 Selenidium orientale FJ832161 Selenidium pisinnus FJ832162 Selenidium melongena 2 KC890800 Selenidium terebellae 2 KC890804	Selenidiidae from Sipunculida (III)		nes
I r Cryptosporidium serpentis AF151376	Selenidiidae from Terebellids (II)		y or
Cryptosporidium balleyi AJ276096 Cryptosporidium parvum AB089290 Goussia desseri GU479641		Cryptosporidi	ans
Eimeria tenella AF026388 Toxoplasma gondii M97703 Besnoitia besnoiti AY833646		Coccidians	
92/0.9 92/0.9 Babesia microti strain RI gi 399217317 Babesia bigemina JQ437264 100/0.8 Theileria parva L02366 1100/0.8 Theileria AV078002	Hematozoans		
<u>48/1</u> Colpodella tetrahymenae AF330214 <u>43/0.8</u> Chromera velia strain CMS22 DQ174731	Colpodellids Chromerids		
Alveolata sp Coline J ISJ militz4049 Parvilucifera infectans KF359485 98/1 Parvilucifera rostrata KF359483 44/1 Parvilucifera prorocentri FJ424512	Perkinsids		
 Duboscquella sp AB295041 Ichthyodinium chabelardi FJ440623 Uncultured marine dinoflagellate clone Ma131 1A49 FJ0326782 Amoebophrya RCC1626 HQ658161 Syndinium turbo DQ146404 Hematodinium perezi EF065717 Gonyaulax polyedra AF377944 72/1 97/1 Alexandrium catenella AY347308 47/0.7 Pfiesteria piscicida DQ991382 40/1 Akashiwo sanguinea AY831412 		Dinoflagellate	S
In 198/1 Stentor coercieus AF35/145		Ciliates	
Colponema edaphicum KF651068 Colponema sp Vietnam KF651083 Colponema sp Vietnam KF651083	Colponemids		
571 Cylindrotheca closterium DQ082742		Heterokonts	
<u>49//11 Phytophthora megasperma M54938</u> Bigelowiella sp U02075		Page 51 of 5 Rhizaria	52
0.2			

