ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Molecular Phylogeny of Marine Gregarine Parasites (Apicomplexa) from Tube-forming Polychaetes (Sabellariidae, Cirratulidae, and Serpulidae), Including Descriptions of Two New Species of *Selenidium*

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ABSTRACT

Selenidium is a genus of gregarine parasites that infect the intestines of marine invertebrates and have morphological, ecological, and motility traits inferred to reflect the early evolutionary history of apicomplexans. Because the overall diversity and phylogenetic position(s) of these species remain poorly understood, we performed a species discovery survey of Selenidium from tube-forming polychaetes. This survey uncovered five different morphotypes of trophozoites (feeding stages) living within the intestines of three different polychaete hosts. We acquired small subunit (SSU) rDNA sequences from singlecell (trophozoite) isolates, representing all five morphotypes that were also imaged with light and scanning electron microscopy. The combination of molecular, ecological, and morphological data provided evidence for four novel species of Selenidium, two of which were established in this study: Selenidium neosabellariae n. sp. and Selenidium sensimae n. sp. The trophozoites of these species differed from one another in the overall shape of the cell, the specific shape of the posterior end, the number and form of longitudinal striations, the presence/absence of transverse striations, and the position and shape of the nucleus. A fifth morphotype of Selenidium, isolated from the tube worm Dodecaceria concharum, was inferred to have been previously described as Selenidium cf. echinatum, based on general trophozoite morphology and host association. Phylogenetic analyses of the SSU rDNA sequences resulted in a robust clade of Selenidium species collected from tube-forming polychaetes, consisting of the two new species, the two additional morphotypes, S. cf. echinatum, and four previously described species (Selenidium serpulae, Selenidium boccardiellae, Selenidium idanthyrsae, and Selenidium cf. mesnili). Genetic distances between the SSU rDNA sequences in this clade distinguished closely related and potential cryptic species of Selenidium that were otherwise very similar in trophozoite morphology.

GREGARINE parasites within the genus *Selenidium* have retained several morphological and ecological traits inferred to be ancestral for apicomplexans as a whole, such as monoxenous lifecycles involving extracellular trophozoites (feeding stages) that feed by myzocytosis within the intestinal lumen of marine invertebrate hosts (Leander 2007, 2008; Schrével 1968, 1970, 1971a,b; Simdyanov and Kuvardina 2007). However, molecular phylogenetic data from this genus are rare, which severely limits our understanding of these evolutionarily significant parasites. Small subunit (SSU) rDNA sequences, for instance, are currently available from only seven of the approximately 60 described species of *Selenidium*, and it is expected that the vast majority of *Selenidium* species have yet to be discovered and characterized. As such, the phylogenetic relationships between *Selenidium* species and other lineages of marine gregarines remain unclear (Leander 2007, 2008; Leander et al. 2003; Rueckert and Leander 2009; Wakeman and Leander 2012).

Selenidium species have been reported predominately from polychaete worms (e.g., spionids, sabellids, and serpulids) but have also been described from sipunculids, sea cucumbers, hemichordates, and tunicates (Levine 1971; Ray 1930; Rueckert and Leander 2009; Schrével 1971a; Wakeman and Leander 2012). The intestinal trophozoites are either spindle-shaped or vermiform and exhibit a type of bending motility that is reminiscent of nematodes. The cell shape, pattern of motility, and specific ultrastructural features associated with the trophozoite stage in Selenidium (e.g., an apical complex associated with myzocytosis and a robust corset of microtubules beneath the inner membrane complex) are most similar to the traits of apicomplexan sporozoites in general and, taken together, are indicative of the traditional "archigregarine" concept (Grassé 1953; Leander 2008; Mellor and Stebbings 1980; Schrével 1970, 1971a,b; Simdyanov and Kuvardina 2007; Stebbings et al. 1974; Vivier and Schrével 1964; Wakeman and Leander 2012). This concept promotes the inference that Selenidium species have retained several morphological, ecological, and life history traits from distant ancestors that provide compelling insights into the earliest stages of apicomplexan evolution (Barta and Thompson 2006; Cox 1994; Dyson et al. 1994; Leander 2007, 2008; Leander and Keeling 2003). Therefore, continued exploration of Selenidium diversity is expected to shed considerable light onto the deepest relationships within the phylogeny of apicomplexans and onto patterns of co-evolution between gregarine apicomplexans and marine metazoan hosts (Leander 2008; Rueckert and Leander 2009; Théodoridès 1984).

Unlike many species of terrestrial gregarines (from insect hosts), marine gregarines are particularly challenging to work with because they are generally encountered only as trophozoites and in low numbers within a small percentage of individual hosts that are difficult to obtain from oceanic environments (Wakeman and Leander 2013).

In this study, we discovered five different morphotypes of Selenidium isolated from the intestines of three different species of tube-forming polychaetes collected from the Pacific Ocean. These Selenidium isolates were compared with one another and with previously described species using a combination of molecular, ecological, and morphological data. SSU rDNA sequences were generated from single-cell (trophozoite) isolates that were first imaged with light microscopy. These data enabled us to evaluate cryptic diversity among gregarines, establish two new species of Selenidium, and link SSU rDNA sequences to a previously described species of Selenidium. These data underscored the practical advantages of DNA sequences in advancing the field of gregarine systematics and the importance of reciprocal reinforcement between molecular, morphological, and ecological data in building arguments for the establishment of new species (Leander 2008; Rueckert et al. 2011a,b; Wakeman and Leander 2013).

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Collection of host animals

Neosabellaria cementarium Moore, 1906 and *D. concharum* Örsted, 1843 were collected in February 2012 off rocks in Victoria, British Columbia, Canada while SCUBA diving at a depth of 10–20 m near Ogden Point 48°24′46.10″N 123°23′ 24.67″W and Clover Point 48°24′14.18″N 123°21′00.91″W, respectively. *Spirobranchus giganteus* Pallas, 1766 was purchased in March 2012 from J&L Aquatics, Burnaby, British Columbia, Canada. Host guts from seven, nine and four individuals of *N. cementarium*, *D. concharum* and *S. giganteus*, respectively, were removed with forceps and teased apart in seawater on a well slide. All gut material from *N. cementarium* and *D. concharum* was infected with gregarine parasites; 75% of the material (i.e., three individuals) from *S. giganteus* was infected.

Light microscopy

Hand-drawn glass pipettes were used to isolate and clean individual trophozoites using an inverted microscope (Zeiss Axiovert 200, Carl-Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany) attached to a PixeLink Megapixel color digital camera (PL-A662-KIT, Ottawa, Canada). Some isolates were photographed on well slides, washed in autoclaved, filtered seawater and collected for DNA extraction and single-cell PCR amplification (SC-PCR). Isolates were also photographed using a Leica DC 500 color camera attached to a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope (Carl-Zeiss, Göttingen, Germany); as noted below, some of these cells were also recovered for SC-PCR.

Scanning electron microscopy

Individual trophozoites were pooled in 2% glutaraldehyde on ice. A 10-µl polycarbonate membrane filter was placed within a Swinnex filter holder (Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA). Trophozoites were filtered onto the membrane using a syringe with distilled water, and the holder was placed in a small beaker (4 cm diam. and 5 cm tall) that was filled with distilled water. Ten drops of 1% OsO4 were added to the opening of the filter holder, and the samples were postfixed on ice for 30 min. The syringe was used to slowly run distilled water over all samples. A graded series of ethanol washes (30%, 50%, 75%, 85%, 95%, and 100%) were then used to dehydrate the fixed cells using the syringe system. Following dehydration, the polycarbonate membrane filters containing the trophozoites were transferred from the Swinnex filter holders into an aluminum basket submerged in 100% ethanol in preparation for critical point drying with CO2. The dried polycarbonate membrane filters containing the trophozoites were mounted on aluminum stubs, sputter coated with 5 nm gold and viewed under a Hitachi S4700 scanning electron microscope (Nissei Sangyo America, Ltd., Pleasanton, CA). Some SEM data were presented on a black background using Adobe Photoshop 6.0 (Adobe Systems, San Jose, CA).

DNA extraction, single-cell PCR amplification, and sequencing

Each of the single-cell isolates (13 total) were placed in a 1.5 ml eppendorf tube containing cell lysis buffer. Genomic DNA was extracted with the standard protocol provided by the MasterPure complete DNA & RNA purification kit (Epicentre Biotechnologies, Madison, WI). However, the final elution step was lowered to 4 µl, with the goal of concentrating extracted DNA prior to SC-PCR amplification. Outside primers, PF1 5'-GCGCTACCTGGTT GATCCTGCC-3' and SSUR4 5'-GATCCTTCTGCAGGTT CACCTAC-3' (Leander et al. 2003), were used in a 25 µl PCR with EconoTag 2X Master Mix (Lucigen Corp., Middleton, WI). The following program was used on the thermocycler for the initial amplification: initial denaturation at 94 °C for 2 min, 35 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing at 52 °C for 30 s, extension at 72 °C for 1 min 50 s, final extension 72 °C 9 min. Subsequently, internal primers F2 5'-GGTAGYGACAAGAAATAACAAC-3' and R2 5'-GAYTACGACGGTATCTGATCGTC-3' were paired with outside primers in a nested PCR using the following program on a thermocycler: initial denaturation for 94 °C for 2 min, 25 cycles of denaturation at 94 °C for 30 s, annealing at 55 °C for 30 s, extension at 72 °C for 1 min 30 s, final extension at 72 °C for 9 min. All SC-PCR products were separated on agarose gels and isolated using the UltraClean15 DNA Purification Kit (MO BIO, Laboratories, Inc., Carlsbad, CA), and cloned into a pCR 2.1 vector using a StrataClone PCR cloning kit (Aligent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). Clones were screened for size and sequenced using vector primers and ABI Big-dye reaction mix. Novel sequences (i.e., one from each of the singlecell isolates) were identified using the National Center for Biotechnology Information's (NCBI) BLAST tool, confirmed with molecular phylogenetic analyses, and deposited in GenBank (KC110863-KC110875).

Molecular phylogenetic analyses

Two separate datasets were constructed de novo and analyzed in this study: (1) a comprehensive 82-taxon alignment (1,085 unambiguously aligned sites) containing a representative SSU rDNA sequence from each of the five Selenidium morphotypes described here, three dinoflagellate sequences (outgroup), and 74 sequences representing gregarine and other apicomplexan subclades and (2) a 17taxon alignment (1,610 unambiguously aligned sites) containing the 13 Selenidium sequences generated in this study by SC-PCR (from five different morphotypes) and four sequences published previously from closely related Selenidium species. Both alignments were initially constructed using MUSCLE (Edgar 2004) and were subsequently edited using MacClade 4 (Maddison and Maddison 2000); gaps and ambiguously aligned regions were excluded from the analyses.

Jmodeltest 0.1.1 selected a GTR + I + Γ model of evolution under Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and AIC with correction for both alignments (82-taxon alignment:

proportion of invariable sites = 0.1820, gamma shape = 0.6230; 17-taxon alignment: proportion of invariable sites = 0.3290, gamma shape = 0.3770) (Posada and Crandall 1998). Garli0.951-GUI (www.bio.utexas.edu/fac-ulty/antisense/garli/Garli.html) was used to infer a maximum likelihood (ML) tree and for ML bootstrap analyses (500 pseudoreplicates, one heuristic search per pseudoreplicate) (Zwickl 2006).

Bayesian posterior probabilities were calculated for both alignments using the following parameter on the program MrBayes 3.1.2. (Huelsenbeck and Ronguist 2001; Ronquist and Huelsenbeck 2003): (GTR [Lset nst = 6]; gamma distribution [of rate among sites] and Monte Carlo Markov Chains [starting trees = 4; default temperature = 0.2; generations = 7,000,000; sample frequency = 100; prior burn-in = 500,000 trees]; stop rule of 0.01 [i.e. when the average split deviation fell below 0.01, the program would terminate]). Burn-in was confirmed manually, and majorityrule consensus trees were constructed; posterior probabilities correspond to the frequency at which a given node is found in the post-burn-in trees. PAUP 4.0 (Swofford 1999) was used to calculate percent differences between the SSU rDNA sequences in the 17-taxon alignment. All alignments are available upon request.

RESULTS

Selenidium cf. echinatum

The trophozoites isolated from the gut material of *D.* concharum were spindle-shaped, 173 μ m (95–205 μ m; n = 14) long and 10 μ m (8–11 μ m; n = 14) wide (Table 1 and Fig. 1–4). The cells were capable of bending and twisting. The spherical nucleus had an average width of 10 μ m (n = 14) and was positioned in the anterior-half of the trophozoites. Syzygy of gamonts was tail-to-tail (Fig. 5). The mucron terminated as a nipple-like projection at the anterior tip of the cell, where a single apical opening was observed (Fig. 6, 7). Five to six longitudinal striations were observed on one side of the cell (Fig. 7). Parasites on gold sputter-coated SEM stubs have been deposited in the Beaty Biodiversity Museum (Marine Invertebrate Collection) at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. Museum Code – MI-PR124.

Selenidium neosabellariae n. sp.

Trophozoites isolated from the intestines of *N. cementarium* were elongate and vermiform in shape, 292 µm (125–350 µm; n = 27) long, and 11 µm (9–12 µm; n = 27) wide (Table 1 and Fig. 8–12). The spherical nucleus (10 µm; n = 20) was positioned in the center of the trophozoite cell (Fig. 8–11). The posterior end tapered to a fine point, and the base of a cone-shaped mucron was defined by a cluster of transverse striations (Fig. 12, 13). Five to six longitudinal striations were observed on one side of the cell (Fig. 12–14). Parasites on gold sputtercoated SEM stubs have been deposited in the Beaty Biodiversity Museum (Marine Invertebrate Collection) at

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Wakeman and L		Wakeman and	Caullery and Mesnil	This study	This study	This study	This study
Schrével 1970 Leander 2012 Leander 2006	>	Leander 2012	1899; this study				
	and Leander						
	2012						

Table 1. Morphological comparisons of trophozoites between species within the Selenidium clade and the type species. S. pendula. Species of Selenidium litalics font] are highlighted in bold.

The bold indicates species presented in this study.

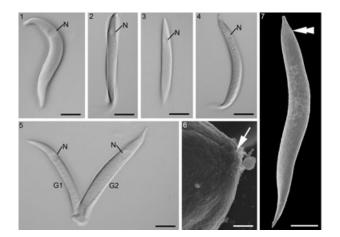


Figure 1–7 Differential interference contrast light micrographs (LM) and scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of the trophozoite stage of *Selenidium* cf. *echinatum* isolated from the intestines of *Dodecaceria concharum*. **1–4**. LMs showing the general spindle-shaped morphology of the trophozoites that were used for single-cell (SC) PCR. The nipple-like mucron is oriented upwards. The spherical nucleus (N) is positioned in the anterior region of the trophozoites. Longitudinal epicytic folds (arrowhead) run nearly the entire length of the trophozoite. **5**. LM showing the mucron region of the trophozoite with a single apical opening at the tip (arrow). **7**. SEM showing the general morphology of the trophozoite. Five to six relatively weakly developed epicytic folds (double arrowhead) run along the longitudinal axis on each side of the cell. Scale bars: $1–5 = 25 \ \mu m$; $6 = 1 \ \mu m$; $7 = 10 \ \mu m$.

the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. Museum Code – MI-PR122.

Selenidium sensimae n. sp.

This species represented one of three trophozoite morphotypes isolated from the intestines of S. giganteus. These trophozoites were spindle shaped, 155 µm (130-170 μ m n = 11) long, and 12 μ m (10–13 μ m; n = 11) wide (Table 1 and Fig. 15–18). An ellipsoidal nucleus (10 \times 4– 6 μ m; n = 11) was centrally located in the cell. The posterior end of the cell tapered distinctly to a blunt point with a terminal indentation (Fig. 15-18); the anterior region of the cell either tapered to a blunt point or was rounded. There were eight to nine longitudinal striations observed on one side of the cell (Fig. 18). A row of micropores were positioned in the grooves between the epicytic folds and extended nearly the entire length of the cell (Fig. 19). Parasites on gold sputter-coated SEM stubs have been deposited in the Beaty Biodiversity Museum (Marine Invertebrate Collection) at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. Museum Code - MI-PR123.

Selenidium sp. 1

This species represented one of three trophozoite morphotypes isolated from the intestines of *S. giganteus*. These trophozoites were relatively cylindrical in shape, elongate, measured 170 μ m (105–220 μ m; *n* = 9) long, and 13 μ m

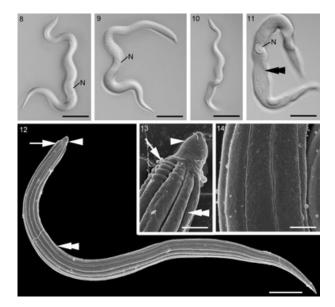


Figure 8–14 Differential interference contrast light micrographs (LM) and scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of the trophozoite stage of *Selenidium neosabellariae* n. sp. isolated from the intestines of *Neosabellaria cementarium*. **8–11**. LMs showing the vermiform and highly undulated morphology of the trophozoites with a nucleus (N) located in the center of the cell. Images 9–11 show the specific cells that were recovered for single-cell (SC) PCR. **12**. SEM showing the general vermiform-shape of the cell and epicytic folds (double arrowhead) that run along the longitudinal axis of the cell. The nipple-like mucron (arrowhead) is defined by a basal cluster of transverse striations (arrow). **13**. High-magnification SEM showing the mucron region (arrowhead) of the cell, the transverse striations (arrow), and the longitudinally arranged epicytic folds. Scale bars: 8–11 = 35 µm; 12 = 10 µm; 13 = 3 µm; 14 = 1.5 µm.

(9–14 μ m; n = 9) wide (Table 1 and Fig. 20–22), and displayed a dynamic ungulating movement.. The posterior and anterior ends of the cell were distinctly bulbous in shape. The spherical nucleus (10 μ m; n = 10) was positioned in the anterior half of the cell (Fig. 20–22).

Selenidium sp. 2

This species represented one of three trophozoite morphotypes isolated from the intestines of *S. giganteus*. These trophozoites were spindle shaped, 160 µm (150–185 µm; n = 13) long, and 13 µm (10–15 µm; n = 13) wide (Table 1 and Fig. 23–25). The posterior end of the cell was distinctly spade-like in appearance (Fig. 23–25); the anterior region of the cell was pointed in association with a cone-shaped mucron. The ellipsoidal nucleus (10 × 4–6 µm; n = 13) was centrally located in the trophozoite cell. Nine to ten longitudinal striations were observed on one side of the cell (Fig. 23, 24).

Molecular phylogenetic analyses

Analyses of the 82-taxon alignment resulted in four relatively speciose clades of marine gregarines: crustacean

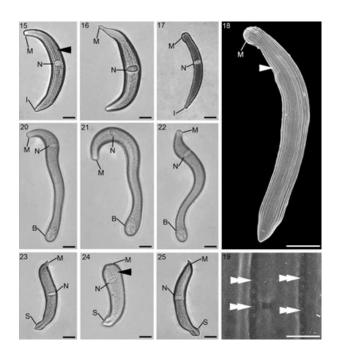


Figure 15-25 Differential interference contrast light micrographs (LM) and scanning electron micrographs (SEM) of the trophozoite stages of Selenidium sensimae n. sp., Selenidium sp. 1 and Selenidium sp. 2 isolated from the intestines of Spirobranchus giganteus. 15, 16. LMs showing trophozoites of S. sensimae n. sp. that were used for singlecell (SC) PCR. The rounded mucron (M) is oriented upwards, the posterior end is blunt with a terminal indentation (I), and epicytic folds (arrowhead) run along the longitudinal axis of the cell. 17. LM of a single-cell of S. sensimae n. sp. that was subsequently isolated and prepared for SEM. 18. SEM showing the general cell morphology of S. sensimae n. sp. with eight to nine epicytic folds (arrowhead) that run along the longitudinal axis on one side of the cell. 19. High-magnification SEM showing rows of pores (double arrowhead) running along the longitudinal axis of S. sensimae n. sp. 20-22. LMs showing the general vermiform and cylindrical shape of Selenidium sp. 1 trophozoites that were isolated for SC-PCR. The nucleus (N) is positioned near the rounded mucron (M). The posterior end is distinctively bulbous (B) in shape. 23-25. LMs showing the trophozoites of Selenidium sp. 2 that were isolated for SC-PCR. The pointed mucron (M) is oriented upwards and 18-20 epicytic folds (arrowhead) run along the longitudinal axis of the cell. An ellipsoidal nucleus (N) is positioned in the middle of the cell. The posterior end of the trophozoite is distinctly flattened and spadeshaped (S). Scale bars: 15–18, $19 = 1 \ \mu m$, $20-25 = 10 \ \mu m$.

gregarines, capitellid gregarines, lecudinids, and *Selenidium* species isolated from Pacific tube-forming polychaetes (Fig. 26). All of the sequences reported in this study clustered within the *Selenidium* clade from Pacific tube-forming polychaetes with very strong statistical support (Fig. 26). The *Selenidium* species isolated from serpulid polychaetes (*S. serpulae, S. sensimae* n. sp., *Selenidium* sp. 1 and *Selenidium* sp. 2) formed a robust subclade within the more inclusive *Selenidium* clade from Pacific tube-forming polychaetes. The two *Selenidium* species isolated from sipunculids (*S. orientale* and *S. pisinnus*) formed a separate clade that branched from an unresolved apicomplexan backbone; *S. terebellae*, isolated from a spaghetti worm (*Thelepus* sp.), did not cluster with either of the two *Selenidium* clades (Fig. 26). Our analyses also recovered separate clades consisting of coccidians, cryptosporidians, rhytidocystids, and two different compositions of terrestrial gregarines (terrestrial gregarines I and II). Generally speaking, statistical support values for branches reflecting more recent relationships were strong, but the overall apicomplexan backbone was poorly resolved (Fig. 26).

Molecular phylogenetic analyses of the 17-taxon alignment focused on the internal relationships within the Selenidium clade from Pacific tube-forming polychaetes and contained all of the SSU rDNA sequences derived from SC-PCR and four SSU rDNA sequences from previous work. These analyses resulted in distinct and well-supported subclades of Selenidium species that correlated with host affiliation and trophozoite morphology (Fig. 27). Genetic distances between the SSU rDNA sequence of Selenidium sp. 2 and all other Selenidium species in the analysis ranged from 8.3% to 14.0%; intraspecific variation between the SC isolates of Selenidium sp. 2 ranged from 0.3% to 0.8% (Table 2). Genetic distances between the SSU rDNA sequence of Selenidium sp. 1 and all other Selenidium species in the analysis ranged from 4.8% to 11.5%; intraspecific variation between the SC isolates of Selenidium sp. 1 ranged from 0.18% to 0.48% (Table 2). Genetic distances between the SSU rDNA sequence of S. sensimae n. sp. and all other Selenidium species in the analysis ranged from 5.8% to 12.8%; intraspecific variation between the SC isolates of S. sensimae n. sp. was 0.6% (Table 2). Genetic distances between the SSU rDNA sequence of Selenidium cf. echinatum and all other Selenidium species in the analysis ranged from 8.9% to 11.0%; intraspecific variation between the SC isolates of S. cf. echinatum n. sp. was 1.7% (Table 2). The lowest interspecific genetic distance found within this clade ranged from 2.2% to 2.4%, between S. neosabellariae n. sp. and S. indanthyrsae. Intraspecific variation between the SC isolates of S. neosabellariae n. sp. ranged from 0.24% to 0.42% (Table 2).

DISCUSSION

The majority of species descriptions within Selenidium, and gregarines in general, are based on morphological observations using light microscopy, electron microscopy, and line drawings (Levine 1971, 1976, 1977a,b, 1981; Ray 1930 Schrével 1968, 1971a,b; Vivier and Schrével 1964). Linking these older species descriptions to modern day speciesdiscovery surveys is challenging because definitive traits for species identification are often lacking, especially when new isolates have been collected in environments that are very distant from the type locality. For instance, how does one reconcile a new Pacific isolate that is very similar in morphology to a gregarine species described from an Atlantic type locality? This issue is made increasingly formidable because: (1) infection rates may be low both within an individual host, and among a host population; (2) gregarines have never been cultivated; (3) different life history stages of gregarines are either ambiguous or difficult to observe

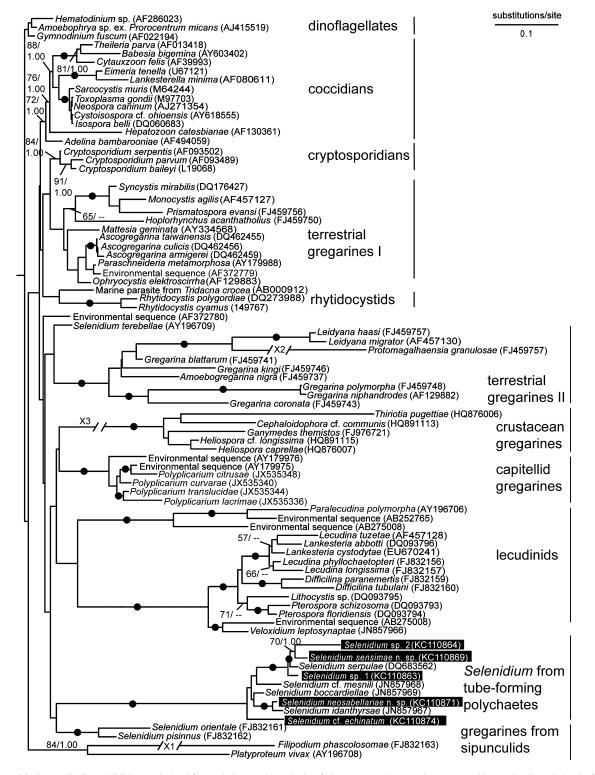
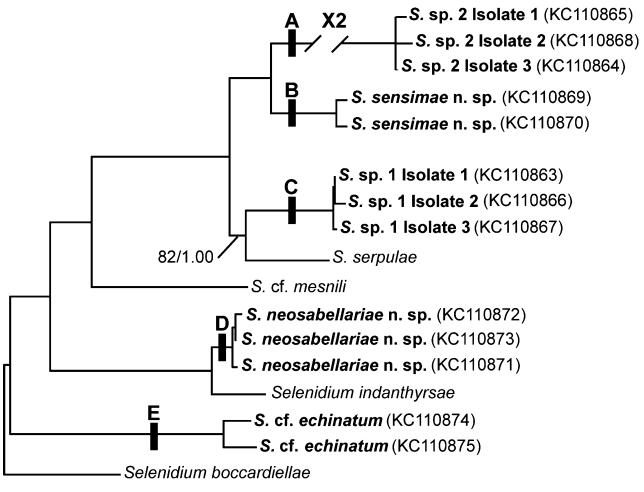


Figure 26 Maximum likelihood (ML) tree derived from phylogenetic analysis of the 82-taxon dataset (1,085 unambiguously aligned sites) of small subunit (SSU) rDNA sequences. This tree was inferred using the GTR + I + Γ substitution model (-In *L*= 21,138.89056 gamma shape = 0.6230, proportion of invariable sites = 0.1820). Bootstrap support values are listed above Bayesian posterior probabilities are listed below. Black dots on branches denote bootstrap support values and Bayesian posterior probabilities of 95/0.95 or greater, respectively. Bootstrap and Bayesian values less than 55 and 0.95, respectively, were not added to this tree. Representative sequences from the five species of *Selenidium* described in this study are highlighted in black boxes. Some branches were shortened by the length (e.g., X1) of the substitutions/site scale bar.



substitutions/site



Figure 27 Unrooted maximum likelihood (ML) tree derived from phylogenetic analysis of the 17-taxon dataset (1,610 unambiguously aligned sites) containing small subunit (SSU) rDNA sequences from 13 single-cell isolates representing the five species of *Selenidium* described here (bold) and four closely related species of *Selenidium* published previously. This tree was inferred using the GTR + I + Γ substitution model (–In L = 5,903.65704, gamma shape = 0.3770, proportion of invariable sites = 0.3290). Bootstrap support values are listed above Bayesian posterior probabilities; support values of 100 and 1.00 for bootstap and Bayesian analyses, respectively, are represented by black dashes. Morphological traits that distinguish the species from one another are indicated by letters. (**A**) Spindle-shaped trophozoites, 160 µm long and 13 µm wide, with spade-like posterior end; host: *Spirobranchus giganteus*. (**B**) Spindle-shaped trophozoites, 155 µm long and 12 µm wide, with blunt posterior end containing a terminal indentation; host: *S. giganteus*. (**C**) Vermiform trophozoites, 170 µm long and 13 µm wide, with bulbous posterior and anterior ends; host: *S. giganteus*. (**C**) Vermiform trophozoites, 292 µm long and 10 µm wide, with a pointed posterior end and a cluster of transverse striations that define the base of a nipple-like mucron; host: *Neosabellaria cementarium*. (**E**) Spindle-shaped trophozoites, 173 µm long and 10 µm wide, with pointed posterior end, a nipple-like mucron, and five to six subtle epicytic folds on each side of the cell; host: *Dodecaceria concharum*. Some branches were shortened by multiple lengths (e.g., X2) of the substitutions/site scalebar.

within an individual host; and (4) host material may be rare and only opportunistically available (e.g., acquired from a marine sediment dredge).

The literature is rich with examples of how molecular phylogenetic data can discriminate different species of microbial eukaryotes (protists) from one another, especially species that are rarely encountered, have very dissimilar life history stages, and are prone to cryptic speciation and convergent evolution (Adl et al. 2007; LaJeunesse et al. 2012). Along these lines, the use of molecular markers, especially SSU rDNA sequences, for evaluating the diversity of marine gregarines has been very informative for delimiting closely related species from one another and for discovering major clades of gregarine species (Leander et al. 2003; Rueckert and Leander 2010; Rueckert et al. 2010, 2011a,b, 2012; Wakeman and Leander 2013). Genetic distances have also shed light onto patterns of biogeography and host affinity in different

	Selenidium. sp. 2	Selenidium. sp. 1	Selenidium sensimae n. sp.	Selenidium serpulae	Selenidium cf. echinatum	Selenidium cf. mesnili	Selenidium boccardiellae	Selenidium neosabellariae n. sp.	Selenidium idanthyrsae
Selenidium sp. 2	0.30-0.80%								
Selenidium sp. 1	9.1–9.8%	0.18-0.48%							
Selenidium sensimae n. sp.	8.3–9.0%	5.7-6.1%	0.60%						
Selenidium serpulae	8.5–9.1%	4.8-5.1%	5.8%	N/A					
Selenidium cf. echinatum	13.4–14.0%	11.2-11.5%	12.7–12.8%	11.9–12.1%	1.7%				
Selenidium cf. mesnili	11.7-12.2%	9.2–9.5%	10.1%	9.1%	10.9-11.0%	N/A			
Selenidium boccardiellae	12.2–12.6%	9.9–10.2%	10.3%	9.6%	8.9–9.0%	8.2%	N/A		
Selenidium	12.3–12.8%	10.1-10.4%	10.4-10.5%	9.7–9.8%	10.2-10.7%	8.7–8.8%	8.2-8.3%	0.24-0.42%	
<i>neosabellariae</i> n. sp.									
Selenidium idanthyrsae	12.4–12.7%	10.5–10.8%	10.9%	10.0%	10.3-10.6%	9.0%	9.0%	2.2-2.4%	N/A

single-cell isolates of each new species are indicated along the diagonal

Wakeman & Leander

gregarine species (Landers and Leander 2005; Leander et al. 2003; Rueckert et al. 2011b).

The variation in the SSU rDNA sequences generated here combined with host affinity, type locality, and trophozoite morphology suggest that all five gregarine morphotypes discovered in this study are different species. Two of the host species, namely N. cementarium and S. giganteus, were examined for gregarines for the first time in this study. A previous study of D. concharum in 1899 resulted in the description of one Selenidium species, namely S. echinatum (Caullery and Mesnil 1899). While the type locality of this species is in the Eastern Atlantic Ocean, the trophozoites we encountered within the intestines of D. concharum collected from the Eastern Pacific Ocean shared general morphological features with the original line drawings and description of S. echinatum: 10-12 longitudinal epicytic folds, spindleshape, and tail-to-tail syzygy (Caullery and Mesnil 1899). Therefore, we chose to designate our isolate "S. cf. echinatum" until molecular phylogenetic data from gregarines isolated from D. concharum collected in the type locality have been generated; these data will further our understanding of biogeographical patterns associated with Selenidium species.

The trophozoites of S. neosabellariae n. sp. were isolated from the intestines of the tube worm N. cementarium, which is closely related to the type host of Selenidium indanthyrsae, namely Idanthyrsus saxicavus (Wakeman and Leander 2012). The SSU rDNA sequences from these two Selenidium species were also very similar, with a genetic distance of only 2.2-2.4%. However, intraspecific variability within the three different sequences of S. neosabellariae ranged from 0.24% to 0.42%, and the sequences formed a robust clade to the exclusion of S. indanthyrsae in the molecular phylogenetic analyses (Fig. 27). Moreover, along with an affiliation with different host species, the trophozoites of these two gregarine species can be distinguished from one another at the morphological level; the trophozoites of S. neosabellariae n. sp. are half the average length and have half the number of longitudinal folds (visible) as the trophozoites of S. indanthyrsae (Table 1).

The three different morphotypes of trophozoites discovered within the intestines of S. giganteus also had distinctive SSU rDNA sequences, which taken together formed the basis for establishing S. sensimae n. sp. and the recognition of two additional putative species (Selenidium sp. 1 and 2). Differences in the form of the posterior end of the trophozoites between S. sensimae n. sp., Selenidium sp. 1, and Selenidium sp. 2 were diagnostic for each: Selenidium sp. 1 has a bulbous posterior end, Selenidium sp. 2 has a spade-like posterior end, and S. sensimae n. sp. has a posterior end that tapers to a blunt point with a terminal indentation. A more focussed molecular phylogenetic analyses of the SSU rDNA sequences from these three species (in the 17-taxon alignment) allowed us to include almost 600 additional homologous sites (compared to the more comprehensive 82-taxon alignment consisting of more distantly related gregarines and apicomplexans). The

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17-taxon alignment resulted in robust clades that were congruent with the observed morphological difference between the trophozoites. Interspecific variability between these three clades ranged from 5.7% to 9.8%, while intraspecific variability ranged from 0.18% to 0.80% (Table 2 and Fig. 27). The intraspecific variation between the SC isolates was localized to the hyper-variable regions in the SSU rDNA sequences (i.e., not randomly scattered throughout the sequences). Similarly, most of the sequences from the SC isolates of each morphotype shared identical indels and nucleotide substitutions. These results indicate that this variability reflects the population rather than artifacts of PCR or sequencing error. Nonetheless, the hyper-variable regions and ambiguous sites (e.g., indels) were excluded from the phylogenetic analyses.

Molecular phylogenetic analyses of the 82-taxon alignment, including representative sequences from each of the five morphotypes discovered in the study, demonstrated a robust clade of nine Selenidium species isolated from Pacific tube-forming polychaetes. This clade does not include Selenidium species collected from sipunculids (S. orientale and S. pisinnus) or other lineages of polychaetes such as spaghetti worms (S. terebellae). As such, these data demonstrate that host affinity can be a predictor of gregarine phylogenetic relationships and offers additional insights into emerging co-evolutionary patterns between gregarine parasites and their marine invertebrate hosts. The (unresolved) phylogenetic positions of S. terebellae, Veloxidium leptosynaptae, and the clade consisting of S. orientale and S. pisinnus leave open the possibility that the Selenidium morphotype (i.e., the "archigregarine" concept) reflects a paraphyletic stem group from which all other gregarines, and perhaps apicomplexans, generally evolved (Leander 2008; Wakeman and Leander 2012). Phylogenetic analyses of additional molecular markers (e.g., heat shock protein 90 and perhaps cytoskeletal protein genes) from Selenidium species offer the most promising way forward for evaluating the strength of the phylogenetic hypotheses inferred from SSU rDNA sequences.

It is worthwhile to note here that an article published this year (Clopton 2012) argued strongly against the predominant use of molecular phylogenetic data for describing gregarine species, and perhaps organisms in general, in favor of a set of ideological rules based on detailed analyses of morphometric data; the promotion of these rules is intended to govern the way new species of gregarines should be described in the future. As reflected in our previous studies (Landers and Leander 2005; Leander 2007; Leander et al. 2003; Rueckert and Leander 2010; Rueckert et al. 2010, 2011a,b, 2012; Wakeman and Leander 2012, 2013), we advocate a very different point of view and path forward using SC-PCR and comparative analyses of molecular markers (e.g., SSU rDNA) to more precisely determine the boundaries between gregarine species. The advantages and insights gained from molecular data are varied and have been repeatedly demonstrated in a large body of molecular systematic studies on a vast array of lineages (e.g., determining biogeographical patterns, convergent evolution of morphological traits, cryptic species, and the connections between disparate life history stages of the same species) (Bucklin et al. 2011; Hebert and Gregory 2005; Pawlowski et al. 2012).

Molecular phylogenetic approaches are particularly powerful and pragmatic for the systematics of gregarine parasites because their life histories involve several distinct developmental stages (e.g., cysts, sprorozoites, and trophozoites at different phases of maturation) that complicate species identification based on morphology alone, no matter how detailed the morphometric data might be (Leander 2008; Rueckert et al. 2011b; Wakeman and Leander 2013). Moreover, not all life history stages are available to observe at any given time (especially in species of marine gregarines) and there tends to be high levels of intraspecific variation coupled with low levels of interspecific variation associated with trophozoite morphology, which is the most conspicuous life history stage in most gregarine species. The SSU rDNA sequences reported here from S. cf. echinatum provide an important example of how molecular data will help us reconcile new discoveries with previous species descriptions based on line drawings and/or light micrographs. The SSU rDNA sequences from our Pacific Ocean isolates can eventually be compared with SSU rDNA sequences generated from isolates of S. echinatum collected from hosts living in the type locality in the Atlantic Ocean. We were unable to make a definitive species identification based on comparative morphology alone because of the ambiguities associated with the trophozoite traits and the original description itself. The intraspecific and interspecific variation associated with molecular markers, such as SSU rDNA sequences, will provide great insight into whether or not S. echinatum has a biogeographical distribution that extends into both the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans or represents two different (cryptic) species. The SSU rDNA sequence data also place the diversity of gregarine species into a molecular phylogenetic context, which so far has demonstrated several unexpected clades and relationships that are steadily refining our overall understanding of apicomplexan evolution.

TAXONOMIC SUMMARY

Apicomplexa Levine, 1970 Gregarinea Bütschli, 1882, stat. nov. Grassé 1953 Archigregarinorida Grassé 1953 Selenidiidae Brasil, 1907 *Selenidium* Giard, 1884

Selenidium neosabellariae n. sp. Wakeman and Leander

Description. Trophozoites vermiform with an average length and width, at the widest part, of 292 μ m and 11 μ m, respectively. Cells light-brown. The posterior end tapers to a fine point; the anterior end tapers to a cone-shaped mucron defined at the base by a series of

transverse striations. A spherical nucleus (10×12 – 14 µm) is positioned in the center of the cell. Trophozoites move by undulating, bending and twisting. Five to six deep longitudinal striations occur on each side of the trophozoite surface.

DNA sequence. SSU rDNA sequence (GenBank KC110871).

Type locality. Ogden Point (48°24'46.10"N 123°23' 24.67"W), Victoria, British Columbia, Canada. Host in tubes on rocks; subtidal; 20 m below mean sea level.

Type habitat. Marine.

Type host. *Neosabellaria cementarium* Moore, 1906 (Annelida, Polychaeta, Sabellida, Sabellariidae).

Location in host. Intestinal lumen.

Type material. Parasites on gold sputter-coated SEM stubs have been deposited in the Beaty Biodiversity Museum (Marine Invertebrate Collection) at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. Museum Code – MI-PR122. This accession constitutes the name-bearing hapantotype for this species, and is represented by Fig. 12.

Etymology. The species name, *neosabellariae*, refers to the genus of the type host.

Selenidium sensimae n. sp. Wakeman and Leander

Description. Trophozoites spindle-shaped with an average length and width, at the widest part, of 155 μ m and 12 μ m, respectively. Cells dark-brown. An ellipsoidal nucleus (10 × 4–6 μ m) is positioned in the central part of the cell. The posterior end of the cell tapers to a blunt point with a terminal indentation; the anterior region of the cell forms a rounded or pointed mucron. Trophozoites bend and twist slowly. Eight to nine longitudinal striations occur on each side of the trophozoite surface.

DNA sequence. SSU rDNA sequence (GenBank KC110863).

Type locality. Coral specimen purchased from J&L Aquatics, Burnaby, British Columbia, Canada, collected in the Eastern Pacific Ocean (Fiji) in coral reef habitat.

Type habitat. Marine.

Type host. *Spirobranchus giganteus* Pallas, 1766 (Annelida, Polychaeta, Sabellida, Serpulidae).

Location in host. Intestinal lumen.

Type Material. Parasites on gold sputter-coated SEM stubs have been deposited in the Beaty Biodiversity Museum (Marine Invertebrate Collection) at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, Canada. Museum Code – MI-PR123. This accession constitutes the name-bearing hapantotype for this species, and is represented by Fig. 18.

Etymology. The specific epithet, *sensimae*, means "slowly" in Latin and refers to the slow bending and twisting movements observed in the trophozoites.

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