

A new view on the morphology and phylogeny of eugregarines suggested by the evidence from the gregarine *Ancora sagittata* (Leuckart, 1860) Labbé, 1899 (Apicomplexa: Eugregarinida)

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Background. Gregarines are a group of early branching Apicomplexa parasitizing invertebrate animals. Despite their wide distribution and relevance to the understanding the phylogenesis of apicomplexans, gregarines remain understudied: light microscopy data are insufficient for classification, and electron microscopy and molecular data are fragmentary and overlap only partially.

Methods. Scanning and transmission electron microscopy, PCR, DNA cloning and sequencing (Sanger and NGS), molecular phylogenetic analyses using ribosomal RNA genes (18S (SSU), 5.8S, and 28S (LSU) ribosomal DNAs (rDNAs)).

Results & Discussion. We present the results of an ultrastructural and molecular phylogenetic study on the marine gregarine *Ancora sagittata* from the polychaete *Capitella capitata* followed by evolutionary and taxonomic synthesis of the morphological and molecular phylogenetic evidence on eugregarines. The ultrastructure of *A. sagittata* generally corresponds to that of other eugregarines, but reveals some differences in epicytic folds (crests) and attachment apparatus to gregarines in the family Lecudinidae, where *A. sagittata* has been classified. Molecular phylogenetic trees based on SSU (18S) rDNA reveal several robust clades (superfamilies) of eugregarines, including Ancoroidea superfam. nov., which comprises two families (Ancoridae fam. nov. and Polyplacariidae) and branches separately from the Lecudinidae; thus, all representatives of Ancoroidea are here officially removed from the Lecudinidae. Analysis of sequence data also points to possible cryptic species within *A. sagittata* and the inclusion of numerous environmental sequences from anoxic habitats within the Ancoroidea. LSU (28S) rDNA phylogenies, unlike the analysis of SSU rDNA alone, recover a well-supported monophyly of the gregarines involved (eugregarines), although this conclusion is currently limited by sparse taxon sampling and the presence of fast-evolving sequences in some species. Comparative morphological analyses of gregarine teguments and attachment organelles lead us to revise their terminology. The terms "longitudinal folds" and "mucron" are restricted to archigregarines, whereas the terms "epicytic crests" and "epimerite" are proposed to describe the candidate synapomorphies of eugregarines, which,

consequently, are considered as a monophyletic group. Abolishing the suborders Aseptata and Septata, incorporating neogregarines into the Eugregarinida, and treating the major molecular phylogenetic lineages of eugregarines as superfamilies appear as the best way of reconciling recent morphological and molecular evidence. Accordingly, the diagnosis of the order Eugregarinida Léger, 1900 is updated.

1 **A new view on the morphology and phylogeny of eugregarines suggested by the evidence**
2 **from the gregarine *Ancora sagittata* (Leuckart, 1860) Labbé, 1899 (Apicomplexa:**
3 **Eugregarinida)**

4

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29 **Abstract**

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31 animals. Despite their wide distribution and relevance to the understanding the phylogenesis of
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40 by evolutionary and taxonomic synthesis of the morphological and molecular phylogenetic
41 evidence on eugregarines. The ultrastructure of *A. sagittata* generally corresponds to that of other
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43 gregarines in the family Lecudinidae, where *A. sagittata* has been classified. Molecular
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45 eugregarines, including Ancoroidea superfam. nov., which comprises two families (Ancoridae
46 fam. nov. and Polyplicariidae) and branches separately from the Lecudinidae; thus, all
47 representatives of Ancoroidea are here officially removed from the Lecudinidae. Analysis of
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49 numerous environmental sequences from anoxic habitats within the Ancoroidea. LSU (28S)
50 rDNA phylogenies, unlike the analysis of SSU rDNA alone, recover a well-supported
51 monophyly of the gregarines involved (eugregarines), although this conclusion is currently
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53 Comparative morphological analyses of gregarine teguments and attachment organelles lead us
54 to revise their terminology. The terms "longitudinal folds" and "mucron" are restricted to
55 archigregarines, whereas the terms "epicystic crests" and "epimerite" are proposed to describe
56 the candidate synapomorphies of eugregarines, which, consequently, are considered as a
57 monophyletic group. Abolishing the suborders Aseptata and Septata, incorporating
58 neogregarines into the Eugregarinida, and treating the major molecular phylogenetic lineages of
59 eugregarines as superfamilies appear as the best way of reconciling recent morphological and

60 molecular evidence. Accordingly, the diagnosis of the order Eugregarinida Léger, 1900 is
61 updated.

62 Introduction

63

64 The Apicomplexa is a group of unicellular eukaryotes within the Alveolata encompassing
65 parasites of humans and animals. Some apicomplexans are well studied (e.g., human pathogens
66 such as *Plasmodium*, *Toxoplasma*, and *Cryptosporidium*), while early branching representatives
67 such as gregarines, are far less well known. Gregarines are obligate parasites of invertebrate
68 animals: various groups of worms, molluscs, arthropods (aquatic and terrestrial), echinoderms,
69 and tunicates. The large majority of gregarines are monoxenous (have a single invertebrate host)
70 and parasitize in the gut of their hosts, where they are commonly found as epicellular feeding
71 stages, the trophozoites, which are conspicuous due to their large size (usually ranging from 200
72 to 600 μm). Because of their minor economic importance, gregarines are poorly studied despite
73 their widespread distribution and relevance to the reconstruction of the evolutionary history of
74 apicomplexans.

75 The taxonomy and phylogeny of gregarines remains largely incomplete (Grassé, 1953; Levine,
76 1985; Levine, 1988; Perkins et al., 2000) due to uneven scrutiny: light microscopic data cannot
77 sustain a reliable classification, electron microscopy and molecular phylogenetic data are
78 fragmentary, and, additionally, sets of features that have been examined using different methods
79 overlap only partially (see Discussion). Gregarine orders differ by their life cycles, which include
80 sexual (gamogony) and asexual (merogony and sporogony) reproductions. Sexual reproduction
81 in gregarines (Grassé, 1953; Schrével et al., 2013) is initiated by syzygy (the association of
82 gamonts, usually two of them) and followed by the production of a surrounding gametocyst,
83 which is typical only for gregarines and likely represents a synapomorphy for the group (Frolov,
84 1991). The large majority of gregarines, which are classified within the order Eugregarinida
85 Léger, 1900, have lost merogony, while some others (former order Schizogregarinida Léger,
86 1900) retain it.

87 The most productive taxonomical scheme of the gregarines is based on Grassé's hypothesis about
88 their co-evolution with their hosts (Grassé, 1953). Grassé divided Schizogregarinida into two
89 orders: Archigregarinida Grassé, 1953, and Neogregarinida Grassé, 1953. Archigregarines
90 parasitize marine invertebrates, mainly polychaetes and sipunculids. Neogregarines parasitize
91 insects (intestine, Malpighian tubules, and fat body) and Grassé suggested that they are derived
92 from various representatives of the eugregarine family Actinocephalidae (parasites of insects), by

93 the secondary gain of merogony. The third order, the already mentioned Eugregarinida Léger,
94 1900, is the most diverse group of gregarines infecting a broad range of invertebrate hosts.
95 The current gregarine classification (e.g., Levine, 1988; Perkins et al., 2000) relies chiefly on the
96 light-microscopy of trophozoites and life cycle features (absence or presence of merogony),
97 discarding Grassé's co-evolutionary approach. It also ignores results of SEM and TEM studies,
98 which have revealed distinct differences between Grassé's gregarine orders in the structure of the
99 cortex and attachment apparatus, especially between archi- and eugregarines (Schrével, 1968;
100 Vivier, 1968; Vavra & Small, 1969; Vivier et al., 1970; Schrével, 1971; Simdyanov &
101 Kuvardina, 2007; Schrével et al., 1983; also see Discussion). As a result, a portion of the
102 archigregarines and even blastogregarines (*Sporozoa incertae sedis* after Grassé) were reassigned
103 to eugregarines (Levine, 1985; Levine, 1988), which in turn were divided into two main
104 suborders: Septata Lankester, 1885 and Aseptata Chakravarty, 1960. Aseptate eugregarines (e.g.,
105 the families Lecudinidae and Urosporidae) chiefly infect marine invertebrates and considered
106 plesiomorphic representatives of the order (Grassé, 1953; Perkins et al., 2000; Schrével &
107 Desportes, 2013b). Septate gregarines are widespread parasites of aquatic and terrestrial
108 arthropods and considered evolutionarily derived: they possess one or more light-refracting
109 septum, which separates the trophozoite into two compartments: a smaller protomerite and larger
110 deutomerite, where the nucleus is located.

111 Molecular phylogenetic studies of gregarines are limited in sampling and largely rely on small
112 subunit (SSU or 18S) ribosomal DNA (rDNA) sequences (Carreno, Martin & Barta, 1999;
113 Leander, Clopton & Keeling, 2003; Leander, Harper & Keeling, 2003; Leander et al., 2006;
114 Leander, 2007; Rueckert & Leander, 2008; Clopton, 2009; Rueckert & Leander, 2009; Rueckert,
115 Chantangsi & Leander, 2010; Rueckert & Leander, 2010; Rueckert et al., 2011; Rueckert,
116 Villette & Leander, 2011; Wakeman & Leander, 2012; Rueckert, Wakeman & Leander, 2013;
117 Wakeman & Leander, 2013a; Wakeman & Leander, 2013b; Wakeman, Heintzelman & Leander,
118 2014; Wakeman et al., 2014; Rueckert et al., 2015; Diakin, Wakeman & Valigurová, 2017).

119 Gregarines have been also detected in environmental sequence surveys from various marine and
120 freshwater samples, possibly because oocysts are stable in the environment (Rueckert et al.,
121 2011; Janouškovec et al., 2015). A large majority of these environmental sequences cannot be
122 taxonomically assigned to a specific gregarine family. Because many gregarine SSU rDNA
123 sequences are fast evolving and form long branches in molecular phylogenies, the entire group

124 and its orders are not recognized as monophyletic. This has led to the proposal that eugregarines
125 are polyphyletic (Cavalier-Smith, 2014) and their shared key ultrastructural characteristics have
126 been acquired convergently (see Discussion for details).

127 In this work, we characterize the aseptate eugregarine *Ancora sagittata* (Leuckart, 1861) Labbé,
128 1899, an intestinal parasite of the marine polychaete worm *Capitella capitata* Fabricius, 1780, a
129 widely distributed and abundant inhabitant of oxygen-depleted substrates. *A. sagittata* has been
130 classified as a member of Lecudinidae Kamm, 1922, the largest family of marine aseptate
131 eugregarines (containing ~30 genera and >160 named species). The taxonomy of Lecudinidae is
132 nevertheless controversial and the family may not represent a natural group (Levine, 1977;
133 Levine, 1985; Levine, 1988; Perkins et al., 2000).

134 Trophozoites of *A. sagittata* have a characteristic anchor-like appearance (Labbé, 1899; Perkins
135 et al., 2000) and their structure, growth, and development were previously observed by light
136 microscopy (Cecconi, 1905; Hasselmann, 1927). The sexual reproduction of *A. sagittata* is little
137 understood (Hasselmann, 1927) and syzygy in this species has never been observed. Neither
138 ultrastructural nor sequence data are currently available for the parasite. Here, we undertook an
139 integrated study of the *A. sagittata* morphology, ultrastructure, and molecular phylogeny by
140 using ribosomal DNA: SSU (18S), 5.8S, and LSU (28S). We revealed that *A. sagittata* represents
141 a deep molecular phylogenetic lineage of eugregarines independent of the Lecudinidae in spite of
142 their morphological similarities. This finding led us to re-evaluate and reconcile ultrastructural
143 and molecular evidence for eugregarines and, relying on this combined approach, amend
144 conventional views on eugregarine phylogeny and taxonomy.

145

146 **Materials & Methods**

147

148 **Collection, isolation, and light microscopy.** Trophozoites of *Ancora sagittata* (Leuckart, 1860)
149 Labbé, 1899 were isolated from the intestine of the polychaete worms *Capitella capitata*
150 Fabricius, 1780 collected in 2006-2011 from two sites: (i) littoral of the beach of L'Aber, the
151 coastal zone of the English Channel near Station Biologique de Roscoff, Roscoff, France
152 (48°42'45"N, 4°00' 05"W) and (ii) a sublittoral habitat at White Sea Biological Station (WSBS)
153 of Lomonosov Moscow State University, Velikaya Salma Straight, Kandalaksha Gulf of White
154 Sea, Russia (66°33'12"N, 33°06'17"E).

155 The gregarines were isolated by breaking the host body and intestine with fine tip needles under
156 a stereomicroscope (Olympus SZ40, Japan, or MBS-1, LOMO, Russia). The released parasites
157 or small fragments of host gut with attached gregarines were rinsed with filtered seawater by
158 using thin glass pipettes and then photographed under Leica DM 2000, Leica DM 2500 or Leica
159 DM5000 light microscopes with Leica DFC 420 cameras (Leica Microsystems, Germany), or
160 fixed for electron microscopy, or subjected to DNA extraction.

161 **Electron microscopy:** The structure of the gregarines *A. sagittata* from WSBS was studied by
162 scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). For both
163 methods, the individual gregarines or small fragments of the host gut with the attached
164 gregarines were fixed with 2.5% (v/v) glutaraldehyde in 0.05 M cacodylate buffer (pH 7.4)
165 containing 1.28% (w/v) NaCl in an ice bath in the dark. The fixative was once replaced with
166 fresh fixative after 1 hour, and the total fixation time was 2 hours. The fixed samples were rinsed
167 three times with cacodylate buffer and post-fixed with 2% (w/v) OsO₄ in the cacodylate buffer
168 (ice bath, 2 hours).

169 For SEM study, the fixed gregarines *A. sagittata* were dehydrated in a graded series of ethanol,
170 transferred to an ethanol/acetone mixture (1:1, v/v), rinsed three times with 100% acetone, and
171 critical point-dried with CO₂. The samples were mounted on stubs, sputter-coated with
172 gold/palladium, and examined under a CamScan-S2 scanning electron microscope (CamScan,
173 UK).

174 For TEM study, after dehydration in a graded series of ethanol, the fixed parasites *A. sagittata*
175 were transferred to an ethanol/acetone mixture 1:1 (v/v), rinsed twice in pure acetone, and
176 embedded in Epon resin using a standard procedure. Ultrathin sections obtained using LKB-III
177 (LKB, Sweden) or Leica EM UC6 (Leica Microsystems, Germany) ultramicrotomes were
178 contrasted with uranyl acetate and lead citrate (Reynolds, 1963) and examined under a JEM-
179 100B or a JEM 1011 electron microscope (JEOL, Japan).

180 **DNA isolation, PCR, cloning and sequencing.** After thrice-repeated rinsing with filtered
181 seawater, the gregarine trophozoites *A. sagittata* were deposited into 1.5-ml microcentrifuge
182 tubes: ~20 individuals from Roscoff (10 hosts, 2009), ~20 individuals from WSBS (4 hosts,
183 2006), ~40 individuals from WSBS (all from the single host, 2010), and ~100 individuals from
184 WSBS (10 hosts, 2011). All four samples were fixed and stored in "RNAlater" reagent (Life
185 Technologies, USA).

186 The nucleotide sequences of *A. sagittata* (SSU, 5.8S, and LSU rDNAs, as well as internal
187 transcribed spacers 1 and 2 (ITS1 and ITS2, respectively) were obtained by two methods: (i)
188 PCR followed by Sanger sequencing (Roscoff and WSBS 2006 samples) and (ii) a genome
189 amplification approach (WSBS 2010 and 2011 samples).

190 For the first method, DNA extraction was performed using the "Diatom DNA Prep 200" kit
191 (Isogen, Russia). The rDNA sequences were amplified in several PCRs with different pairs of
192 primers (Fig. 1, Table 1). As revealed later, the sample WSBS 2006 was contaminated with
193 hyperparasitic microsporidians (Mikhailov, Simdyanov & Aleoshin, 2017), which predominantly
194 reacted with the primers A and B; therefore, a specific forward primer Q5A (Table 1) was
195 constructed to provide a specific gregarine PCR product. A set of overlapping fragments
196 encompassing SSU rDNA, ITS 1 and 2, 5.8S rDNA, and LSU rDNA was obtained for each
197 sample: fragments I-IV for the sample from Roscoff and fragments V-VI for the sample from the
198 White Sea (Fig. 1). All fragments were amplified with an Encyclo PCR kit (Evrogen, Russia) in
199 a total volume of 25 μ l using a DNA Engine Dyad thermocycler (Bio-Rad) and the following
200 protocol: initial denaturation at 95°C for 3 min; 40 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 45°C (fragments I,
201 II, and V) or 53°C (fragments II, IV, and VI) for 30 sec, and 72°C for 1.5 min; and a final
202 extension at 72°C for 10 min. Only weak bands of the expected size were obtained by
203 electrophoresis in agarose gel for fragments II and IV. Therefore, small pieces of the gel were
204 sampled from those bands (using pipette tips on a trans-illuminator), followed by re-
205 amplification with the same primers, "ColorTaq PCR kit" (Syntol, Russia), a DNA Engine Dyad
206 thermocycler (Bio-Rad), and the following PCR conditions: initial denaturation at 95°C for 1
207 min; 25 cycles of 95°C for 30 sec, 53°C for 30 sec, and 72°C for 1.5 min; and a final extension at
208 72°C for 10 min. PCR products of the expected size were gel-isolated by the Cytokine DNA
209 isolation kit (Cytokine, Russia). For the fragments I, IV, and V, the PCR products were
210 sequenced directly. The fragments II, III, and VI were cloned by using the InsTAclone PCR
211 Cloning Kit (Fermentas, Lithuania) because the corresponding PCR products were
212 heterogeneous. Sequences were obtained by using the ABI PRISM BigDye Terminator v. 3.1
213 reagent kit and the Applied Biosystems 3730 DNA Analyzer for automatic sequencing. The
214 contiguous sequences of the ribosomal operons (SSU rDNA + ITS1 + 5.8S rDNA + ITS2 + LSU
215 rDNA) were assembled for the gregarine samples from Roscoff and WSBS 2006 (GenBank
216 accession numbers KX982501 and KX982502, respectively).

217 For the samples of *A. sagittata* 2010 and 2011 (WSBS), DNA extraction was performed using
218 the "NucleoSpin Tissue" kit (Macherey-Nagel). The corresponding complete ribosomal operon
219 sequences were obtained by whole genome amplification and high-throughput sequencing: ~1 ng
220 of DNA from each sample was amplified with the REPLI-g Midi kit (Qiagen) according to the
221 manufacturer's protocol and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq2000 NGS platform using one
222 quarter of a lane in paired-end libraries, an estimated mean insert size of ~330 bp and a read
223 length of 100 bp. The Illumina reads were adapter-trimmed with Trimmomatic-0.30 (Lohse et
224 al., 2012), read pairs with reads shorter than 55 bp were discarded and the remaining reads were
225 assembled using SPAdes 2.5.0 (Bankevich et al., 2012) in single-cell mode (--sc) with read error
226 correction and five *k*-mer values: 21, 33, 55, 77, and 95. Contiguous sequences corresponding to
227 the ribosomal operon of *A. sagittata* (GenBank accession numbers KX982503 and KX982504)
228 were identified in the assembly using the standalone BLAST 2.2.25+ package (Altschul et al.,
229 1997).

230 In addition, we sequenced the LSU rDNA of the ciliate *Stentor coeruleus* to enhance the taxon
231 sampling of the LSU rDNA (GenBank accession number KX982500). Two overlapping
232 sequences was obtained using the same procedures as for the LSU rDNA fragments III and IV of
233 *A. sagittata* (PCR, cloning, and sequencing; see above for details and Table 1 for primers), and
234 the resulting contiguous sequence was assembled.

235 **Predicted secondary structures of ITS 2.** The structures were created by using MFOLD
236 (Zuker, 2003) under default parameters in the temperature range 5 – 37°C; it was made manually
237 because there was no suitable template for automatic modelling in the available databases. ITS 2
238 is a genetic region that could be a valuable marker for species delineation and compensatory base
239 changes (CBS) within it can be used to discriminate species (Coleman, 2000; Müller et al., 2007;
240 Coleman, 2009; Wolf et al., 2013).

241 **Molecular phylogenetic analyses.** Four nucleotide alignments were prepared: of SSU rDNA
242 (two variants: 114 and 52 sequences), LSU rDNA, and ribosomal operon (concatenated SSU,
243 5.8S, and LSU rDNA sequences). The alignments were generated in MUSCLE 3.6 (Edgar, 2004)
244 and manually adjusted with BioEdit 7.0.9.0 (Hall, 1999): gaps, columns containing few
245 nucleotides, and hypervariable regions were removed. The taxon sampling was designed as to
246 maximize the phylogenetic diversity and completeness of sequences in the alignments.

247 Representatives of heterokonts and rhizarians were used as outgroups. The final analysis
248 included 114 representative sequences (1,570 aligned sites).
249 To analyse sequences that are closely related to *A. sagittata*, including environmental entries
250 (from GenBank), we prepared the SSU rDNA alignment of 52 sequences for 1,709 sites; only
251 one sequence was included for each of 4 clusters of near-identical environmental clones (see
252 below). This analysis involved 139 additional nucleotides from hypervariable regions of the SSU
253 rDNA compared to the standard analysis. To assess the similarity of these closely related
254 sequences quantitatively, substitutions and indels were counted between each pair of the
255 sequences in their overlapping regions and their similarity indexes were calculated as ratio of
256 matching sites to the total amount of sites in the region of overlap, expressed with percentage:
257 $((a - d) / a) * 100\%$, where a = total number of sites in the region of overlap, d = number of
258 mismatches (Supplemental Tables 1 and 2). For these calculations, an original computer script,
259 Identity Counter, written by the author KVM and available by request, was applied.
260 For the LSU rDNA and ribosomal operon (concatenated SSU, 5.8S and LSU rDNAs) analyses,
261 the taxon sampling of only 50 sequences was used due to the limited availability of data for LSU
262 rDNA, and, especially, 5.8S rDNA. Therefore, the 5.8S rDNA (155 sites in the alignment) was
263 rejected from the analysis of the concatenated rRNA genes for seven sequences (*Chromera velia*,
264 *Colponema vietnamica*, *Goussia desseri*, *Stentor coeruleus*, and 3 environmental sequences:
265 Ma131 1A38, Ma131 1A45, and Ma131 1A49): these nucleotide sites were replaced with "N" in
266 the alignment. The resulting multiple alignments contained 50 sequences (2,911 sites) for the
267 LSU rDNA, and the same 50 sequences (4,636 sites) for the concatenated rDNAs (ribosomal
268 operon). Thus, both taxon sampling comprised an identical set of species, all of which were also
269 represented in the alignment of the 114 SSU rDNA sequences.
270 Maximum-likelihood (ML) analyses were performed by using RAxML 7.2.8 (Stamatakis, 2006)
271 under the GTR+ Γ +I model with 8 categories of discrete gamma distribution. The procedure
272 included 100 independent runs of the ML analysis and 1,000 replicates of multiparametric
273 bootstrap. Bayesian inference (BI) analyses were computed in MrBayes 3.2.1 (Ronquist et al.,
274 2012) under the same model. The program was set to operate using the following parameters: nst
275 = 6, ngammacat = 12, rates = invgamma, covarion = yes; parameters of Metropolis Coupling
276 Marcov Chains Monte Carlo (mcmc): nchains = 4, nruns = 2, temp=0.2, ngen = 7,000,000,
277 samplefreq = 1,000, burninfrac = 0.5 (the first 50% of the 7,000 sampled trees, i.e., the first

278 3,500, were discarded in each run). The following average standard deviations of split
279 frequencies were obtained: 0.009904 for the SSU rDNA analysis, 0.001084 for the LSU rDNA
280 analysis, and 0.001113 for the ribosomal operon analysis. The calculations of bootstrap support
281 for the resulting Bayesian trees were performed by using RAxML 7.2.8 under the same
282 parameters as for the ML analyses (see above).

283

284 **Results**

285

286 **Light and scanning electron microscopy (Fig. 2).**

287 Thirty specimens of *Capitella capitata* from Roscoff (English Channel, France) and twenty-five
288 specimens from the White Sea biological station (WSBS, Russia) were dissected. All were
289 infected and the number of gregarine trophozoites per host varied from several individuals up to
290 about a hundred. The parasites from both locations had the same morphology, which fitted the
291 description of *A. sagittata*: an elongated body that narrowed toward the posterior end and with a
292 rounded anterior end, without a septum, and with two lateral projections giving the cell the
293 appearance of an anchor (e.g., Perkins et al., 2000). The average dimensions were 250 μm in
294 length and 37 μm in width ($n = 25$). The attached trophozoites were easy to dislodge from the
295 host epithelium, and a small drop of the cytoplasm then appeared at the front of the gregarine.
296 However, most of the gregarines were already free (not attached) during the dissection, without
297 any visible damage to their forebodies. All detached gregarines demonstrated gliding motility in
298 seawater. Other stages of the life cycle were not observed.

299 SEM micrographs of the gregarine surface revealed structure typical for eugregarines (Vavra &
300 Small, 1969): epicytic folds appressed to each other (3 folds per 1 μm) and converging to the
301 apex of the cell, where a small apical papilla of 2.5 μm in diameter was sometimes observed
302 (Fig. 2, F, G). The epicytic folds branched dichotomically in the apical region and similar
303 branching was also observed at the bases of the lateral projections (Fig. 2, E).

304 **Transmission electron microscopy (TEM) (Figs. 3 - 5).**

305 Cross-sections of trophozoites of *A. sagittata* showed a typical eugregarine tegument (Vivier,
306 1968; Vivier et al., 1970; Schr vel et al., 1983): the epicyte consisting of numerous folds or
307 crests (Fig. 3, A-F) formed by the trimembrane pellicle (45 nm thick) composed of the plasma
308 membrane (covered by the cell coat) and the inner membrane complex, IMC (Fig. 3, D). Cross-

309 sections of the middle of the cell revealed regularly arranged and closely packed epicytic folds
310 (crests) that were approximately 1 μm high and 375 nm wide and had finger-like shapes with
311 weak constrictions at their bases. A 13-nm-thick internal lamina (an electron-dense layer
312 undelaying the pellicle) was observed, which was thickened at the bottom of grooves between
313 the epicytic folds (up to 48-50 nm) and did not form links in the bases of the folds, which are
314 characteristic for many other eugregarines (see, e.g., Vivier, 1968; Schrével et al., 2013; also see
315 Discussion). Six to eight rippled dense structures (also called apical arcs) were present at the top
316 of the folds. No 12-nm apical filaments, characteristic for most eugregarines (Vivier, 1968;
317 Schrével et al., 2013), were detected, but electron-dense plates were found at the top of the folds
318 just beneath the IMC (Fig. 3, D). The cytoplasm in the folds contained fibrils (Fig. 3, C). The
319 folds displayed increased bulging near the bases of the lateral projections of the trophozoite cell,
320 and rare micropores were observed at the lateral surfaces of the folds in this region (Fig. 3, F). In
321 the frontal region of the cell, gaps in between the folds were present and large electron-dense
322 globules were found in the cytoplasm of the folds (Fig. 3, E). Circular filaments (~ 30 nm) were
323 observed just beneath the tegument (Fig. 3, C, F, G). The ecto- and endoplasm were not
324 separated distinctly from each other (Fig. 3, A, B): the thickness of the ectoplasm (the cytoplasm
325 layer free of amylopectin) varied only from 1.5 to 2.5 μm . Rounded amylopectin granules of
326 approximately 0.7-1 μm were abundant in the deeper layers of the cytoplasm.

327 The trophozoites were attached to the intestinal epithelium by a bulbous attachment apparatus
328 that was embedded in the host cell and connected to the trophozoite cell by a short stalk or neck
329 (Fig. 4, A). The anterior part of the attachment apparatus contained a large lobate vacuole filled
330 with a loose, thin fibrillar network, which could be the result of coagulation of some matter
331 during the fixation and/or embedding procedures (Fig. 4, A and B). A groove pinching a small
332 portion of the host cell was present at the base of the attachment bulb (Figs. 4, B and 5). The
333 IMC of the parasite pellicle terminated at this site and the attachment bulb was apparently
334 covered only by the single plasma membrane of the gregarine, not by the pellicle (Figs. 4, B and
335 5). A bundle of longitudinal filaments spread throughout the gregarine cell backwards from the
336 IMC terminus. The wall of a large frontal vacuole arose from the same site (Figs. 4, B and 5).
337 The cytoplasm behind the vacuole contained individual amylopectin granules. Longitudinal
338 sections of four trophozoites revealed the complex structure of the contact zone between the
339 parasite and the host cell (Figs. 4, B and 5). The cell junction was formed by two closely

340 adjacent plasma membranes of the host and parasite cells without a distinct gap between them.
341 Electron-dense areas were present on both parasite and host cell sides of the junction. The area
342 within the host cell appeared uniformly grey, whereas that of the gregarine cell was distinguished
343 into three zones: (i) a black zone immediately adjacent to the cell junction, (ii) a grey zone
344 similar to that in the host cell, and (iii) thin fibrils arising from the grey zone towards the interior
345 of the cell (Figs. 4, B and 5).

346 **Sequence diversity in *A. sagittata*.**

347 Four contiguous nucleotide sequences of *A. sagittata* were obtained (Table 1), three (Roscoff,
348 WSBS 2010, and WSBS 2011) covering complete or near-complete ribosomal operon (SSU,
349 5.8S, LSU rDNAs, and the internal transcribed spacers ITS 1 and 2), and a shorter one (WSBS
350 2006) lacking the most part of LSU rDNA (only first ~600 bp of it were amplified and
351 sequenced; Fig.1). Three of these sequences (Roscoff, WSBS 2006, and 2011; ribotype 1) were
352 near identical to one another (99.4 to 100%; Supplemental Tables 1 and 2), whereas the fourth
353 (WSBS 2010; ribotype 2) was more divergent (94.3 to 96.2% identities with three other
354 sequences). Nucleotide substitutions and indels were concentrated chiefly in the hypervariable
355 regions of the rRNA genes and in the ITSs (the ITSs contained ~40% of total mismatches).
356 A search for compensatory base changes (CBCs) in ITS2 was performed to discriminate possible
357 cryptic species (Coleman, 2000; Müller et al., 2007; Coleman, 2009; Wolf et al., 2013). The
358 manually assembled secondary structure was tested by MFOLD in the temperature range of 5 –
359 37°C and was found to be nearly optimal. The *A. sagittata* ITS 2 (Fig. 6) appears to be one of the
360 shortest known sequences in eukaryotes (102 and 100 nucleotides in the ribotype 1 and 2,
361 respectively; helix IV is absent), however it retains universally conserved features (Schultz et al.
362 2005): a U-U mismatch in helix II and a vestige of the "UGGU" motif in helix III, modified as
363 "UGUGU" (Fig. 6). Four CBCs between the ribotypes 1 and 2 were detected: two putative in the
364 spacer stalk, one in helix I, and one at the base of helix III.

365 **Phylogenies inferred from SSU rDNA.**

366 Phylogenies of SSU rDNA (114 sequences; 1,570 sites) showed a well supported monophyly of
367 the major groups of alveolates (ciliates, dinoflagellates and their subgroups, and apicomplexans)
368 with a high Bayesian posterior probability (PP) and moderate ML bootstrap percentage (BP)
369 support (Fig. 7). The backbone of the apicomplexans was poorly resolved in both Bayesian and
370 ML analyses; nevertheless, the topologies were largely congruent with small differences in the

371 gregarine branching order. The cryptosporidians were consistently placed as the sister group of
372 all gregarines in both analyses, although with low support. Archigregarines (*Selenidium* spp.)
373 formed three branches of greatly variable lengths and were not monophyletic. Eugregarines were
374 separated from archigregarines and were monophyletic in both Bayesian and ML trees, although
375 without a cogent support (PP=0.58, BP=12%). They comprised eight well-supported subclades
376 of an uncertain branching order, five of which were recently erected as superfamilies (Clopton,
377 2009; Rueckert et al., 2011; Simdyanov & Diakin, 2013; Cavalier-Smith, 2014), namely: (i)
378 Lecudinoidea (*Veloxidium leptosynaptae* and the aseptate marine Lecudinidae (with the type
379 species *Lecudina pellucida*) and Urosporidae); (ii) Cephaloidophoroidea (septate and aseptate
380 gregarines from crustaceans); (iii) Gregarinoidea (septate gregarines from insects); (iv)
381 Stylocephaloidea (septate gregarines from insects); and (v) Actinocephaloidea (septate and some
382 aseptate gregarines from insects including neogregarines and *Monocystis agilis*; Fig. 7). Two
383 additional lineages were designated as *incertae sedis*: one (vi) was composed entirely of
384 unidentified environmental sequences including a "clone from the foraminiferan *Ammonia*
385 *beccarii*", and the other (vii) comprised the aseptate marine gregarine *Paralecudina polymorpha*
386 and related environmental sequences. The last lineage (viii), hereby named "Ancoroidea", was a
387 robust monophyletic clade that includes *A. sagittata*, *Polyplacarium* spp., and 70 environmental
388 sequences from anoxic marine habitats (Figs. 7 and 8). Two clusters were found within this clade
389 (Fig. 8): a robust clade including *A. sagittata* and related environmental sequences, and the clade
390 of *Polyplacarium* spp. and environmental relatives, which was either strongly (Fig. 7) or
391 moderately (Fig. 8) supported depending on the dataset. The environmental clade vii ("clone
392 from *Ammonia beccarii*" and relatives) displayed a certain affinity to the Ancoroidea (Figs. 7 and
393 8).

394 Aseptate gregarines (Ancoroidea, Lecudinoidea, and the clade of *Paralecudina*) were not
395 monophyletic, whereas the four other lineages (Actinocephaloidea, Cephaloidophoroidea,
396 Gregarinoidea, and Stylocephaloidea) formed a weakly supported clade of primarily septate
397 eugregarines, although some representatives of this "septate" clade are actually aseptate (marked
398 with asterisks in Fig. 7).

399 **Analyses of LSU rDNA and the ribosomal operon.**

400 All analyses of the LSU rDNA dataset (50 sequences, 2911 sites) showed topologies that were
401 congruent with the SSU rDNA result with minor exceptions (Fig. 9, A). The three sequences

402 from *A. sagittata* (Roscoff, WSBS 2010 and 2011) were monophyletic and related to a clade
403 containing *Gregarina* spp. and crustacean gregarines in both Bayesian and ML analyses (Fig. 9,
404 A). All gregarines, including a clade containing *Ascogregarina* and Neogregarinida sp. OPPPC1
405 (Fig. 9, A), were monophyletic.

406 Trees derived from the ribosomal operon dataset (alignment of 50 sequences, 4,636 sites)
407 showed the same topology as the LSU rDNA tree (Fig. 9, B) with increased supports for several
408 branches. Within the sporozoan clade, all gregarines were monophyletic and most supports were
409 similar to those in the LSU rDNA tree, however BP support for the subclade including *A.*
410 *sagittata* from Roscoff and *A. sagittata* from WSBS 2011 increases considerably (BP = 92% vs
411 86% in the LSU rDNA tree).

412

413 Discussion

414

415 Ultrastructure of the cortex.

416 The tegument of gregarines is composed of a trimembrane pellicle (plasma membrane and inner
417 membrane complex, formed by two closely adjacent cytomembranes) underlaid by the internal
418 lamina, an electron-dense layer that most likely consists of closely packed thin fibrils (Vivier,
419 1968; Vivier et al., 1970; Schrével et al., 1983; Schrével et al., 2013). The pellicle forms so-
420 called epicyte – a set of multiple narrow longitudinal folds called epicytic folds (Vivier, 1968;
421 Vavra & Small, 1969; Vivier et al., 1970; Schrével et al., 1983; Schrével et al., 2013). The
422 epicytic folds of most eugregarines, including the Lecudinidae, have a very specific structure:
423 they contain several rippled dense structures (also called apical arcs) and 12-nm apical filaments
424 within their top regions: the former are located between plasmalemma and the IMC, the latter
425 just beneath the IMC; the internal lamina usually forms links or septa in the bases of the folds
426 (Vivier, 1968; Schrével et al., 1983; Simdyanov, 1995b; Simdyanov, 2004; Simdyanov, 2009;
427 Schrével et al., 2013). Both the rippled dense structures and 12-nm apical filaments are thought
428 to be involved in gliding motility, which is characteristic of typical eugregarines; however, the
429 detailed mechanism of gliding remains unclear (Vivier, 1968; Vavra & Small, 1969; Mackenzie
430 & Walker, 1983; King, 1988; Valigurová et al., 2013). Observations of *A. sagittata* trophozoites
431 are congruent with the information available for eugregarines, with a few differences. The 12-nm
432 apical filaments were not observed in the epicytic folds, they are obscured or substituted by an

433 electron dense plate. Additional studies, including immunochemical methods, are required to
434 reveal the true composition of this structure.

435 Another interesting observation is the absence of the links of the internal lamina (see above) in
436 the bases of the epicytic folds of *A. sagittata* (Fig. 3, C, F) and, simultaneously, the accumulation
437 of large cytoplasmic inclusions within the folds and the location of micropores on the lateral
438 surfaces of the epicytic folds, while their typical location is in between the folds. These three
439 peculiarities have been reported for a few other eugregarines such as *Kamptocephalus mobilis*,
440 *Mastigorhynchus bradae*, and *Stylocephalus* spp. (Desportes, 1969; Simdyanov, 1995a) and they
441 have occurred together in each case, so they obviously correlate with one another. Thus, in
442 eugregarines with typical epicytes, the links of the internal lamina appear to act as barriers
443 between the space within the epicytic folds and the rest of the cytoplasm, but their true purpose
444 remains unclear.

445 Circular cortical filaments found in *A. sagittata* are similar to those in eugregarines with
446 peristaltic motility, such as *Monocystis* spp., *Nematocystis magna*, and *Rhynchocystis pilosa*
447 (Miles, 1968; Warner, 1968; Vinckier, 1969; MacMillan, 1973), or bending motility, such as
448 some *Gregarina* spp. (Valigurová et al., 2013). However, neither peristaltic nor bending motility
449 has been observed in *A. sagittata*.

450 **Attachment apparatus: mucron or epimerite?**

451 The terminology of the gregarine attachment apparatuses is rather confusing. The commonly
452 used names are "mucron" and "epimerite" depending on whether the trophozoite is aseptate or
453 septate, respectively (Levine, 1971). The mucron is mostly small and can be pointed, rounded or
454 sucker-shaped, whereas the epimerite varies in size and shape from elongated to lenticular and is
455 sometimes equipped with hooks or other projections (Grassé, 1953; Schrével et al., 2013).

456 Consequently, the attachment apparatus of *A. sagittata* should be called the mucron (e.g., see:
457 Perkins et al., 2000), although it more resembles the epimerite on its ultrastructure and fate (see
458 below). Similar confusion arises about the attachment apparatus in other gregarines and stems
459 from Levine's definition (Levine, 1971) that "[the] mucron is an attachment organelle of aseptate
460 gregarines...", i.e., its applies equally to archigregarines and aseptate eugregarines as both of
461 them are aseptate. TEM data has since forced a revision of this light microscopy-driven
462 perspective revealing conspicuous differences between the attachment organelles of archi- and
463 eugregarines. The archigregarine mucron contains an apical complex and performs myzocytotic

464 feeding, i.e., intermittent sucking of nutrients through a temporary cytostome (Schrével, 1968;
465 Schrével, 1971a; Simdyanov & Kuvardina, 2007; Schrevel et al., 2016), whereas eugregarine
466 trophozoites have no apical complex (with exception of the earliest developmental stages) and do
467 not exhibit myzocytosis in their mucrons and epimerites (Schrével & Vivier, 1966; Devauchelle,
468 1968; Baudoin, 1969; Desportes, 1969; Ormierès & Daumal, 1970; Hildebrand, 1976; Ormierès,
469 1977; Tronchin & Schrével, 1977; Ouassi & Porchet-Henneré, 1978; Valigurová & Koudela,
470 2005; Valigurová et al., 2007; Valigurová, Michalková & Koudela, 2009; Schrével et al., 2013;
471 Schrével et al., 2016). Thus, there is no doubt that the mucron of archigregarines and the
472 epimerite in septate eugregarines differ in their genesis, structure, and feeding function (Table 2,
473 Fig. 10). However, the "mucron" of aseptate eugregarines (e.g., some lecudinids) is actually a
474 homologue of the epimerite when examined in detail, not of the archigregarine mucron (Table 2
475 and Fig. 10). The archigregarine mucron contains the apical complex and is covered by a
476 trimembrane pellicle, excepting a small region in front of the conoid where the IMC is absent
477 and the cytostome is intermittently opened (Schrével, 1968; Schrével, 1971a; Kuvardina &
478 Simdyanov, 2002; Simdyanov & Kuvardina, 2007). In contrast, the attachment organelles of
479 eugregarine trophozoites, both the "mucron" and epimerite, originate from the region
480 corresponding to the "cytostome site" of archigregarines (in front of the conoid where is no IMC)
481 as a progressing protuberance covered by a single plasma membrane (Table 2 and Fig. 10, F and
482 G) and their apical complex disappears in a short time after the protuberance is starting to
483 develop (Desportes, 1969; Tronchin & Schrével, 1977; Ouassi & Porchet-Henneré, 1978). The
484 archigregarine mucron forms a septate cell junction with the host cell, the main characteristic of
485 which is a conspicuous "septate" gap between the host plasma membrane and the gregarine
486 pellicle (Simdyanov & Kuvardina, 2007). In contrast, a cell junction in the eugregarine
487 attachment apparatus (both the so-called "mucron" and epimerite) forms no gap between the
488 parasite and host cell membranes, which are underlaid by electron dense areas (Figs. 5 and 10).
489 The eugregarine cell junction zone is bordered by the circular groove running along the edge of
490 the attachment site and pinching a small portion of the host cell; this structure is absent in
491 archigregarines. In archigregarines, a large mucronal vacuole is present within the mucron,
492 which is intermittently connected by a duct (cytopharynx) with the cytostome; obviously it is a
493 food vacuole (Schrével, 1968; Schrével, 1971a; Kuvardina & Simdyanov, 2002; Simdyanov &
494 Kuvardina, 2007; Schrével et al., 2016). In eugregarine trophozoites, no cytostome-

495 cytopharyngeal complex has been observed – only with the possibly exception of the earliest
496 developmental stage (Fig. 10, F1, G3). A large frontal vacuolar structure (usually flattened and
497 containing fibrillar matter) develops just beneath the cell junction region; however, the vacuole
498 can sometimes be completely replaced with a dense fibrillar zone (Tronchin & Schrével, 1977;
499 Ouassi & Porchet-Henneré, 1978). No evidence of its involvement in the eugregarine feeding has
500 been observed. Finally, archigregarines retain their mucron (together with the apical complex)
501 well into the syzygy stage (Fig. 10, D) (Kuvardina & Simdyanov, 2002). Although the fate of the
502 attachment apparatus in aseptate eugregarines is poorly studied, it is presumably the same that in
503 the septate eugregarines, whose gamonts lose their epimerite upon the detaching from the host
504 epithelium (Grassé, 1953; Devauchelle, 1968; Valigurová, Michalková & Koudela, 2009;
505 Schrével et al., 2013).

506 The structure and cytoplasmic content of developed epimerites in septate gregarines vary
507 substantially (Devauchelle, 1968; Baudoin, 1969; Desportes, 1969; Ormierès & Daumal, 1970;
508 Tronchin & Schrével, 1977; Valigurová & Koudela, 2005): numerous mitochondria, granules of
509 amylopectin, lipid drops and vacuoles, well developed arrays of ER, and numerous fibrillar
510 structures (microtubules and microfilaments) – especially in the basal region if it is shaped like a
511 neck or stalk (so-called "diamerite") as, e.g., in *Epicavus araeoceri* (Ormierès & Daumal, 1970),
512 can be present.

513 The attachment apparatus of *A. sagittata* displays the main features of a simple epimerite (Fig. 4)
514 lacking cytoplasmic organelles and inclusions (absence of mitochondria, ER, and lipid drops),
515 although, like in epimerites of septate gregarines, there are amylopectin granules and a large
516 frontal vacuole – although not flattened, but rather bulky. Detached gregarines (mature
517 gamonts?) have no epimerite, which has been apparently discarded, judging from the appearance
518 and behaviour of individuals that were artificially dislodged from the host epithelium (see
519 Results). Some other aseptate gregarines also possess complex attachment organelles that are
520 comparable to true epimerites of septate gregarines in shape, ultrastructure, and fate (absent in
521 mature gamonts), e.g., *Lecudina (Cygnicollum) lankesteri*. Unlike *A. sagittata*, the epimerite of *L.*
522 *lankesteri* (Fig. 10, I and J) has a complex structure: the cytoplasm contains mitochondria,
523 inclusions, a well-developed cytoskeleton, and abundant fibrillar structures in the basal region
524 (Desportes & Théodoridès, 1986). Thus the sucker-shaped "mucrons" of many other lecludinids,
525 such as *Lecudina* sp. from the polychaete *Cirriiformia (Audouinia) tentaculata* (Ouassi &

526 Porchet-Henneré, 1978; also see Fig. 10, G and H) and *L. pellucida* (Schrével & Vivier, 1966),
527 which are not deeply embedded into host cell, can be considered underdeveloped epimerites that
528 lack the main (middle) region containing cytoplasmic organelles and inclusions.
529 Taking into account the homologies of the eugregarine attachment organelles, the term "mucron"
530 should be restricted to the attachment apparatus in archigregarines, which contains the apical
531 complex and performs myzocytosis. In eugregarines, both aseptate and septate, the term
532 "epimerite" appears to be more appropriate, and is in accordance with the definitions and
533 gregarine descriptions in the "classic" literature on gregarines (e.g., Watson Kamm, 1922). This
534 terminological correction will remove ambiguity in taxonomical diagnoses and emphasize that
535 the epimerite is a shared evolutionary innovation (synapomorphy) of eugregarines. More
536 representative data are required to distinguish different types of epimerites: for example, the
537 "cephaloid" type of *Cephaloidophora* (Simdyanov, Diakin & Aleoshin, 2015) and the
538 underdeveloped epimerites of *Lecudina* spp. (above), which can be called "pseudomucrons". It
539 should be noted, that in some morphologically divergent eugregarines, e.g., *Uradiophora maetzi*
540 and representatives of the family Dactylophoridae, the epimerite was reduced and they are
541 anchored in host cells with projections of the protomerite (Ormierès & Marquès, 1976; Desportes
542 & Théodoridès, 1985).

543 **Reconciling molecular phylogenies with eugregarine morphology.**

544 In SSU rDNA phylogenies published to date, gregarines (*sensu* class Gregarinomorpha Grassé,
545 1953) have been not monophyletic. The most probable reason for that is that the SSU rDNA
546 sequences of many gregarines are highly divergent, therefore the topologies of resulting
547 phylogenetic trees are sensitive to changes in alignment site selection and taxon sampling.
548 Additionally, the presence of many long branches among gregarines and other apicomplexans
549 may lead to long branch attraction (LBA) artefacts (Bergsten, 2005). Only after careful manual
550 editing of the alignment (see supplemental raw data) and the exclusion of single gregarine
551 sequences corresponding to three extremely long branches (*Pyxinia crystalligera*, *Stenophora*
552 *robusta*, and *Trichotokara* spp.), all of the other gregarines did form a monophyletic lineage,
553 albeit weakly supported (Fig. 7). Despite their weakly supported monophyly in the SSU rDNA
554 phylogenies, all gregarines display a distinct morphological synapomorphy: the gametocyst,
555 which is an encysted syzygy (Frolov, 1991). Among other apicomplexans, only adeleid
556 coccidians have syzygy, but without the subsequent encystment into a gametocyst. Unlike SSU

557 rDNA alone, both the LSU rDNA and ribosomal operon-based phylogenies support the
558 monophyly of gregarines, although with a significantly limited taxon sampling without
559 archigregarine and some eugregarine lineages (Fig. 9). Similarly to SSU rDNA phylogenies,
560 long branch attraction can affect these tree topologies, although its negative effects are expected
561 to be lower than in SSU rDNA-alone phylogenies because the relative evolution rates of the LSU
562 rDNA in apicomplexans are more even than those of the SSU rDNA (Simdyanov, Diakin &
563 Aleoshin, 2015).

564 Neogregarines (order Neogregarinida Grassé, 1953) never form a monophyletic lineage but are
565 shuffled amongst actinocephalids (confirming Grassé's hypothesis for their origin) and should
566 therefore be included in the superfamily Actinocephaloidea. Consequently, the absence of
567 merogony should be removed from the eugregarine diagnosis. Archigregarines are paraphyletic
568 in SSU rDNA-based phylogenies, forming two or three independent lineages, which are often
569 shuffled with eugregarine clades in available molecular phylogenetic trees (e.g., Cavalier-Smith,
570 2014). However, the proposition of the independent polyphyletic origin of different eugregarine
571 lineages (Cavalier-Smith, 2014) contradicts evidence from ultrastructural studies. On the
572 contrary, relying on the morphological evidence, eugregarines appear to be a monophyletic
573 group because all their major lineages share at least two distinct morphological apomorphies
574 (Fig. 11): (i) the presence of the epimerite (see above) and (ii) gliding motility apparently
575 associated with rippled dense structures (apical arcs) and 12-nm apical filaments in eugregarine
576 epicytic folds (also see: Krylov & Dobrovolskij, 1980). Archigregarines, apart from having the
577 different type of attachment apparatus (the mucron, see above), lack the eugregarine type of the
578 epicyte: they possess longitudinal pellicular folds (bulges), which are significantly larger than
579 eugregarine epicytic folds (crests) and contain neither the rippled dense structures (apical arcs)
580 nor 12-nm apical filaments (Fig. 11, A): just beneath the pellicle, both in the bulges and between
581 them, one to three layers of longitudinal subpellicular microtubules are located that have never
582 observed in the eugregarines (Schrével, 1971a; Schrével, 1971b; Simdyanov & Kuvardina, 2007;
583 Schrével & Desportes, 2013b). The archigregarine pellicular bulges are thus only a simple
584 surface sculpture, whereas the epicytic crests of eugregarines are complex organelles that
585 apparently provide the gliding motility, which is absent in archigregarines and substituted by
586 active bending motility instead (Grassé, 1953; Schrével, 1971a; Perkins et al., 2000). The failure
587 to distinguish these different cortical structures in archi- and eugregarines (e.g., Cavalier-Smith,

588 2014) is linked to the use of a misleading term "longitudinal folds", which assumes their identity
589 in both gregarine groups and has been used as the morphological evidence of the polyphyletic
590 origin of eugregarines from different archigregarine lineages (Cavalier-Smith, 2014). To
591 eliminate this ambiguity, we propose the term "epicytic crests" instead of "folds" for
592 eugregarines and the terms "longitudinal folds" or "bulges" for archigregarines. The term "crests"
593 has been already used to describe the eugregarine epicyte (Pitelka, 1963: p. 90) and corresponds
594 well to their narrow shape, compressed from the sides, in contrast to the large, gently sloped
595 pellicular folds of archigregarines.

596 The hypothesis of eugregarine polyphyly is inferred solely from ambiguous SSU rDNA-based
597 molecular phylogenies (which are low resolved and apparently affected by LBA) and assumes
598 the independent origin both of epimerite and epicytic crests in the major eugregarine lineages,
599 i.e., they are convergences (homoplasies), that appears unlikely considering their detailed
600 ultrastructural resemblance in a broad range of gregarines (see below). Therefore, following the
601 principle of Ockham's razor (minimum of assumptions), we rather consider the epimerite and
602 epicytic crests shared-derived characteristics of eugregarines (Figs. 10 and 11). Apart from the
603 Ancoroidea (*A. sagittata*), these features are widespread within all other eugregarine
604 superfamilies revealed to date: Actinocephaloidea (Baudoin, 1969; Vávra, 1969; Ormierès &
605 Daumal, 1970; Vorobyeva & Dyakin, 2011), Stylocephaloidea (Desportes, 1969), Gregarinoidea
606 (Devauchelle, 1968; Tronchin & Schrével, 1977; Dallai & Talluri, 1983; Schrével et al., 1983),
607 Cephaloidophoroidea (epimerite is understudied) (Desportes, Vivarès & Théodoridès, 1977;
608 Simdyanov, Diakin & Aleoshin, 2015), Lecudinoidea (Schrével & Vivier, 1966; Vivier, 1968;
609 Ouassi & Porchet-Henneré, 1968; Corbel, Desportes & Théodoridès, 1979; Simdyanov, 1995b;
610 Simdyanov, 2004; Simdyanov, 2009; Diakin et al., 2016). It should be noted, however, that the
611 Lecudinoidea and Actinocephaloidea, apart from typical (core) representatives, also include
612 morphologically divergent forms possessing various modifications of the epicyte structure
613 (fusion or reduction of the epicytic crests, sometimes formation of hair-like projections). Such
614 modifications are always attended by the loss of gliding motility and transition to metaboly
615 (peristaltic motility) or nonmotility. Within the Lecudinoidea, there is the family Urosporidae
616 parasitizing coelom of polychaetes and echinoderms, unlike the Lecudinidae – core
617 representatives, which are intestinal parasites, chiefly in polychaetes. Within the
618 Actinocephaloidea, there are intracellular neogregarines without epicyte (Žižka, 1978) and the

619 family Monocystidae parasitizing seminal vesicles of oligochaetes, whereas core representatives,
620 the Actinocephalidae, are intestinal parasites of insects (chiefly). The monocystids show very
621 divergent and various structure of the cortex and possess peristaltic motility (Miles, 1968;
622 Warner, 1968; Vinckier, 1969; MacMillan, 1973) that is similar with some species of the
623 Urosporidae (Dyakin and Simdyanov, 2005; Landers & Leander, 2005; Leander et al., 2006;
624 Diakin et al., 2016). However, in terms of comparative anatomy, existence of certain aberrant
625 forms does not cancel the presence of a shared bauplan in core representatives of the group: e.g.,
626 "archannelids" and leeches within annelids when compared with the core forms as polychaetes
627 and oligochaetes – in this and many other cases, large majority of diagnostic characteristics may
628 be applied only to the "core group". The core (non-aberrant) representatives of all known
629 eugregarine lineages/ superfamilies share both epimerite (understudied in Cephaloidophoroidea)
630 and epicytic crests. Therefore, in compliance with the main principle of cladistics, we present a
631 morphology-driven hypothesis on the monophyly of eugregarines based on the presence of the
632 epimerite and epicytic crests as defining synapomorphies of the order Eugregarinida (Figs. 10
633 and 11), which may be included in its diagnosis (see below in the taxonomical subsection). This
634 hypothesis cannot be tested by the currently available molecular data but is potentially consistent
635 with it (at least, does not contradict: see Figs. 7 and 9). More robust molecular datasets are
636 therefore needed to test whether these structures represents true homologies.

637 Three cases seemingly challenge the monophyly eugregarines at the morphological level:
638 *Veloxidium leptosynaptae*, *Caliculium glossobalani*, and *Seledinium melongena* (Wakeman &
639 Leander, 2012; Wakeman, Heintzelman & Leander, 2014; Wakeman et al., 2014). *V.*
640 *leptosynaptae* and *C. glossobalani* broadly resemble archigregarines but SSU rDNA phylogenies
641 unambiguously place them in the eugregarine clades Lecudinoidea and Gregarinoidea,
642 respectively (Fig. 7). External morphology and ultrastructure and of *S. melongena* is somewhat
643 similar to *C. glossobalani*, but it is a sister taxon to the archigregarine *Selenidium terebellae*
644 (Fig.7). The certain morphological resemblances of all three species have been used to challenge
645 the archi- and eugregarine concepts, however, their ultrastructure provides no firm support for
646 such conclusions. *V. leptosynaptae* lacks ultrastructural data altogether and those available for *C.*
647 *glossobalani* do not reveal any key ultrastructural features of either archi- or eugregarines (see
648 Figs. 10 and 11). *C. glossobalani* lacks a genuine mucron, the associated conoid, mucronal
649 vacuole, and rhoptries and the layered arrangement of the subpellicular microtubules that is

650 characteristic for archigregarines (see above). *C. glossobalani* also lacks eugregarine epicytic
651 crests (it has only low, wide, and mildly sloping longitudinal folds resembling those in
652 archigregarines, however without microtubules) and the epimerite: its sucker-shaped attachment
653 organelle is covered by a trimembrane pellicle in detached individuals (note, however, that no
654 trophozoites attached to the host cells were examined by TEM). Thus, as yet, *V. leptosynaptae*
655 and *C. glossobalani* rather appear to be morphologically divergent eugregarines when compared
656 with the typical representatives of their phylogenetic lineages (e.g., Lecudinoidea and
657 Gregarinoidea) – possibly because they both occur in unusual habitats or hosts (compare with
658 Urosporidae and Monocystidae) – but their similarity with archigregarines is superficial and not
659 supported by ultrastructural data. The situation with *S. melongena* is somewhat similar to *C.*
660 *glossobalani*: most aforementioned key features of archi- and eugregarines were not identified
661 (Wakeman, Heintzelman & Leander, 2014). The presence of structures resembling the mucronal
662 vacuole and micronemes or small rhoptries combined with molecular phylogenetic data
663 nevertheless suggests that *S. melongena* could be a divergent archigregarine, which has
664 undergone a morphological transformation possibly due its unusual, coelomic localization within
665 the host. Certain ultrastructural similarities between *C. glossobalani* and *S. melongena* are
666 actually caused by the "shared" absence of the defining ultrastructural features of both archi- and
667 eugregarines. Altogether, the external morphology of *V. leptosynaptae*, *C. glossobalani*, and *S.*
668 *melongena* reaffirms that the external morphology of gregarine trophozoites and gamonts is a
669 poor taxonomic marker susceptible to convergence. Because evidence of the key ultrastructural
670 characteristics in all three species is presently lacking, they cannot be used in evaluating
671 hypotheses on the evolutionary origin of archi- and eugregarines.

672 The dichotomy between aseptate and septate gregarines is rejected by the SSU rDNA
673 phylogenies: that is consistent with the hypothesis of Grassé, which considered some aseptate
674 forms likely derived secondarily from septate gregarines (e.g., *Paraschneideria* with young
675 septate trophozoites and aseptate gamonts and, most likely, *Ascogregarina* (former "mosquito
676 *Lankesteria*")); also there are intermediate forms between aseptate and septate gregarines, e.g.,
677 *Ganymedes* (Grassé, 1953; Schrével & Desportes, 2013b). Hence, the septum appears to be an
678 evolutionarily unstable trait, therefore the separation of the order Eugregarinida into Aseptata
679 and Septata, which is additionally not supported by available molecular data, should be
680 abolished.

681 In contrast, the separation of eugregarines into several deep lineages (superfamilies) is well
682 supported by the SSU rDNA phylogenies, although some families of gregarines are still missing
683 in these analyses (e.g., Dactylophoridae and Hirmocystidae), and others are represented by a
684 single species (e.g., Monocystidae) or are composed exclusively of environmental sequences
685 (e.g., the cluster of "*Ammonia*-like" clones). Despite these limitations, designation of the well
686 supported eugregarine clades with a superfamily rank (Actinocephaloidea, Stylocephaloidea,
687 Gregarinoidea, Cephaloidophoroidea, and Lecudinoidea) appears to be natural and has been
688 proposed repeatedly (Clopton, 2009; Rueckert et al., 2011; Simdyanov & Diakin, 2013;
689 Cavalier-Smith, 2014).

690 The morphology and host spectra of eugregarine superfamilies (Table 3) does not correlate with
691 the rates of evolution of their SSU rDNAs. The ancestral eugregarines were likely intestinal
692 parasites of marine invertebrates (similarly to archigregarines and lower coccidians), whose
693 morphology may have resembled aseptate lecudinids with weakly developed epimerites.
694 However, the Lecudinodea have highly divergent sequences, whereas some taxa with short
695 branched sequences have a complex and divergent morphology (Actinocephalidae and
696 Stylocephalidae). Consequently, the use of general morphology of trophozoites in defining
697 taxonomic levels lower than the order should be implemented with caution, because these
698 characteristics may be convergent (for example, peristaltic motility and aberrant surface
699 structures in eugregarines that occur in the host coelom – see above). The independent
700 morphological and molecular evolutions in eugregarines can be also observed in *Ancora*
701 *sagittata* and its sister group *Polyplacarium*, which have aseptate organization resembling
702 lecudinids, but are not closely related to the Lecudinoidea (Fig. 7). Since they form the firmly
703 supported separated molecular phylogenetic lineage, we formally delimit them as a new
704 superfamily Ancoroidea in the framework of Linnaean taxonomy.

705 **Molecular and morphological diversity in Ancoroidea.**

706 All environmental sequences in GenBank, which were affiliated with the Ancoroidea (Fig. 8),
707 were obtained from anoxic marine sediments, including cold methane seeps and shallow water
708 hydrothermal zones (Edgcomb et al., 2002; Stoeck & Epstein, 2003; Stoeck, Taylor & Epstein,
709 2003; Stoeck et al., 2007; Takishita et al., 2007; Santos et al., 2010; Boere et al., 2011; Garman
710 et al., 2011; Orsi et al., 2012). The geographical distribution of samples containing the ancoroid
711 sequences is wide: arctic, temperate, and tropical zones of the Atlantic and Indo-Pacific regions:

712 Greenland, North America (Vancouver (BC) and Cape Cod), the Gulf of Mexico, and Papua
713 New Guinea; however, the sequences that are closely related to *A. sagittata* were collected only
714 from the Atlantic and European Arctic. Considering that both *A. sagittata* and *Polyplacarium* spp.
715 parasitize polychaetes in the family Capitellidae and that most of related environmental
716 sequences have been retrieved from anoxic environments, in which the Capitellidae are
717 preferentially distributed, we hypothesize that all these Ancoroidea likely share the same group
718 of hosts in similar habitats.

719 In this context, the affiliation of another species, *Ancora prolifera* Clausen, 1993, to this genus is
720 questionable because this species is a parasite of the non-capitellid polychaete *Microphthalmus*
721 *ephippiophorus* (Hesionidae). *A. prolifera* and *A. sagittata* are morphologically similar: the latter
722 also has lateral projections, however these are not located in the plane of the body axis but at an
723 angle to it, similar to lifted wings of a bird (Clausen, 1993). Clausen also observed a nucleus-like
724 structure in these projections (apart from the genuine nucleus) and therefore proposed that cell
725 division in this gregarine occurs via budding, which has never been observed in eugregarines.

726 One additional species, *Ancora lutzii* Hasselmann, 1918, was only described in a preliminary note
727 (Hasselmann, 1918) without figures and delimitation of type material. The gregarines were
728 present in two individuals of *Capitella capitata* (the same host species as *A. sagittata*) collected
729 in the bay of Manguinhos (Brazil) and distinguished from *A. sagittata* by a shorter and wider
730 body, more intense granulation in the cytoplasm, and a frontal nucleus. This species was never
731 rediscovered and was later suggested to represent a morphological variant of *A. sagittata*
732 (Watson Kamm, 1922).

733 Because the Ancoroidea is split into two distinct clusters (Fig. 8), we recognize two families
734 within this superfamily: Ancoridae fam. nov. and Polyplacariidae Cavalier-Smith, 2014. The
735 family Ancoridae is currently monotypic (single genus *Ancora*). This taxonomical rearrangement
736 removes *A. sagittata* from the family Lecudinidae. The family Polyplacariidae, apart from the
737 type genus *Polyplacarium*, likely includes at least two additional undescribed genera
738 corresponding to two environmental clusters (Fig. 8). The representatives of Ancoroidea display
739 small morphological differences from the Lecudinidae in the fine structure of the epicytic folds
740 and attachment apparatus (in *A. sagittata* described above; the ultrastructure of *Polyplacarium* is
741 not known).

742 **Putative cryptic species in *A. sagittata*.**

743 Considerable differences have been observed between two ribotypes of *A. sagittata*, WSBS 2010
744 contig (ribotype 2) and WSBS 2006, 2011, and Roscoff contigs (ribotype1). Four CBCs in ITS2
745 (Fig. 6) suggest that these ribotypes represent two distinct cryptic species (Coleman, 2000;
746 Müller et al., 2007; Coleman, 2009; Wolf et al., 2013). Although the ribotype of the *A. sagittata*
747 type material is not known, we still have annotated the sequences of ribotype 1 as belonging to
748 the type species *Ancora sagittata* (GenBank accessions KX982501 – 3) because they appear
749 more widespread than ribotype 2, the only sequence from the sample WSBS 2010, which was
750 annotated as *Ancora cf. sagittata*, KX982504.

751 Nine environmental sequences closely related to *A. sagittata* may belong to other cryptic species
752 within the same morphotype since, in the tree, they are flanked by the sequences obtained from
753 the same morphospecies, although belonging to the different ribotypes (Fig. 8). Two other
754 environmental sequences, M60E1D07 and M23E1H07, which form a sister branch to the *A.*
755 *sagittata* cluster, putatively belong to another species in the genus *Ancora*.

756 Hasselmann (1927) proposed parthenogenetic formation of oocysts (solitary encystment of
757 gamonts) in *A. sagittata* based on the behaviour of solitary mature gamonts due to similarities to
758 late syzygy in other gregarines (flexion of the body and circular gliding (rotation)). Although
759 solitary encystment and gametogenesis have not been described in *A. sagittata*, it is possible that
760 its morphospecies exist as parthenogenetic clones, while others likely have a regular sexual
761 cycle. This possibility could explain branch length differences within the *A. sagittata* group (Fig.
762 8) and the sympatric coexistence of two cryptic species (ribotypes) of *A. sagittata* at the WSBS.
763 Thus, the hypothesis of a cryptic species complex in *A. sagittata* should be reconsidered both in
764 terms of reproduction modes and the presence of a species complex in its host, *Capitella capitata*
765 (Grassle & Grassle, 1976).

766 **Taxonomic actions: modification of gregarine and eugregarine diagnoses and**
767 **establishment of the new superfamily Ancoroidea.**

768 **Phylum Apicomplexa** Levine, 1970

769 **Subphylum Sporozoa** Leuckart, 1879

770 **Class Gregarinomorpha** Grassé, 1953, emend.

771 **Diagnosis.** Sporozoa. Gamont coupling (syzygy) followed by encystment (formation of
772 gametocyst); progamic mitoses in both gamonts; gametogenesis and fecundation within the
773 gametocyst; anisogamy is characteristic: female gametes are non-flagellated, male gametes

774 usually flagellated, bear 1 flagellum; oocysts without sporocysts (sporozoites lie free within the
775 oocyst, not in its internal compartments). Typical representatives are epicellular intestinal
776 parasites of invertebrates, mainly Trochozoa, Arthropoda, and Deuterostomia, including lower
777 Chordata (Tunicata).

778 **Order Eugregarinida** Léger, 1900, emend.

779 **Diagnosis.** Gregarinomorpha. Typically: gliding locomotion of the gamonts likely provided by
780 epicytic crests, i.e. longitudinal pellicular folds of complex structure (rippled dense structures
781 (apical arcs) and 12-nm apical filaments within the tops of the crests, the links of internal lamina
782 in their bases); the attachment apparatus is chiefly an epimerite that develops ahead of the
783 sporozoite apical complex, which disappears in the beginning of trophozoite formation; the
784 epimerite is mostly absent in mature gamont (degenerated, retracted or discarded). A number of
785 representatives exhibit a septate morphology of the trophozoites: there are one or more fibrillar
786 septa that separate the cell into compartments – protomerite and deutomerite.

787 **Note 1.** The morphological synapomorphies of the Eugregarinida compared with the
788 plesiomorphies of Archigregarinida have been presented as diagrams in Fig. 11.

789 **Note 2.** There are a number of aberrant representatives, which lose the typical structure of the
790 attachment apparatus and epicyte. This is frequently correlated with the transition from the
791 intestinal to coelomic parasitism (e.g., Monocystidae and Urosporidae).

792 **Note 3.** The order includes several superfamilies (see below), which were erected after molecular
793 phylogenetic analyses of SSU rDNA. However, recent molecular data do not encompass the
794 complete taxonomical diversity of eugregarines, and we expect additional superfamilies to be
795 established in the future. The current composition and characteristics of the superfamilies
796 described to date are consistent with the characteristics of corresponding molecular phylogenetic
797 lineages (Table 3).

798 **Superfamily Actinocephaloidea**

799 **Note.** Since molecular data corroborate the assumption of Grassé about the origin of
800 neogregarines from actinocephalids, the superfamily must also include neogregarines.
801 Consequently, the order Neogregarinida should be abolished.

802 **Superfamily Stylocephaloidea**

803 **Superfamily Gregarinoidea**

804 **Superfamily Cephaloidophoroidea**

805 **Note.** This name was first proposed in Rueckert et al. (2011), but it was changed by Cavalier-
806 Smith (2014) into Porosporoidea because of the earlier establishment of the family Porosporidae
807 Labbé, 1899 than Cephaloidophoridae Kamm, 1922. However, considering that the guidelines of
808 the International Code of zoological nomenclature have a recommendatory (suggestive) nature
809 for superfamilies, the name Cephaloidophoroidea can be accepted and appears to be more
810 appropriate: the SSU rDNA of *Cephaloidophora communis*, the type species of this family, was
811 sequenced (Rueckert et al., 2011), unlike type species of all of the other families included in this
812 clade. Additionally, these families are more or less problematic and require revision: e.g., at the
813 last time, the family Thiriotiidae was separated from the Porosporidae based on the shape of the
814 unusual syzygy (Schrével & Desportes, 2013b); the DNA sequences of the true representatives
815 of the Porosporidae (*Porospora*, *Nematopsis*) are unavailable.

816 **Superfamily Lecudinoidea**

817 **Note.** Cavalier-Smith (2014) used the name Urosporoidea, but Lecudinoidea appears to be more
818 appropriate because the SSU rDNA sequence of the type species of the family Lecudinidae,
819 *Lecudina pellucida*, is available. In contrast, DNA sequences of the type species of the family
820 Urosporidae, *Urospora nemertis*, are unavailable. Additionally, the Urosporidae is the aberrant
821 family (see above), which also could present nomenclatural problems: while other urosporids
822 chiefly parasitize the coelom of echinoderms and polychaetes, the type species is an intestinal
823 parasite of the nemertean *Baseodiscus delineatus*, and its taxonomical position and status may be
824 questionable.

825 **Superfamily Ancoroidea**, superfam. nov.

826 **Diagnosis.** Eugregarinida. Aseptate forms parasitize marine polychaetes, mainly the family
827 Capitellidae; tightly adjacent epicytic crests; gliding motility. Molecular data: the robust SSU
828 rDNA clade.

829 **Note.** For more grounded diagnoses of the entire group and subgroups within it, additional data
830 are necessary, e.g., the ultrastructure of *Polyplacarium* spp.

831 **Family Polyplacariidae** Cavalier-Smith, 2014

832 **Diagnosis (preliminary).** Ancoroidea. Characteristics of the type genus *Polyplacarium*.

833 **Genus *Polyplacarium* Wakeman et Leander 2013.** Ovoid to elongate trophozoites with a blunt
834 anterior end. The posterior end is either blunt or tapers to a point. Longitudinal epicytic folds
835 with a density of 4–5 per 1 μm ; most trophozoites also have a distinct region of wider, shallower

836 epicytic folds; gliding locomotion; other life-cycle stages are unknown. There are four named
837 species.

838 **Note.** The family likely includes at least 2 additional undescribed genera that are represented
839 only by environmental sequences.

840 **Family Ancoridae** Simdyanov, fam. nov.

841 **Diagnosis.** Ancoroidea. Monotypic, characters of the type genus *Ancora*.

842 **Genus *Ancora* Labbé, 1899.** Trophozoites and gamonts with 2 lateral projections giving them
843 appearance of an anchor. Gliding locomotion. Growing trophozoites with a bulbous epimerite.
844 Syzygy unknown. Simple gametocyst dehiscence by rupture. Oocysts ovoid. There are three
845 named species, but 2 of them are questionable.

846 **Note.** The type morphospecies *Ancora sagittata* (Leuckart, 1860) Labbé, 1899 likely is a
847 complex of cryptic sibling species.

848

849 **Conclusion**

850

851 The results of our work point to several new directions of importance to gregarine research. The
852 molecular phylogenies based on the SSU rDNA alone firmly delimit several major lineages
853 (superfamilies) in eugregarines but not their suborders (Aseptata and Septata), a finding that is
854 more consistent with Grassé's taxonomical scheme (Grassé, 1953) than with the current
855 taxonomy established by Levine and the followers (Levine, 1985; Levine 1988; Perkins et al.,
856 2000). The results also corroborate other Grassé's assumptions (Grassé, 1953): (i) the
857 polyphyletic origin of neogregarines, likely from different representatives of the eugregarine
858 family Actinocephalidae; (ii) the secondary origin of some aseptate gregarines from septate
859 ancestors; and (iii) the importance of gregarine co-evolution with their hosts. The molecular
860 evidence indicates that both the life cycle peculiarities (presence or absence of merogony) and
861 the general morphology of eugregarine trophozoites (septate or aseptate), which are broadly
862 employed in the current eugregarine taxonomy, are unreliable. However, SSU rDNA
863 phylogenies do not resolve their deeper branching and do not allow for testing the monophyly of
864 Eugregarinida, Archigregarinida, and all gregarines, possibly due to their explosive evolutionary
865 radiation and/ or rapid sequence evolution that resulted in numerous long branches in molecular
866 phylogenies suffering from long-branch attraction (LBA) artefacts.

867 The near-complete rDNA operon likely provides an increased resolution over SSU rDNA and
868 appears more resilient to LBA (Simdyanov, Diakin & Aleoshin, 2015; Fig. 8). Although neither
869 of the markers resolves deep relationships among gregarines recently, a representatively sampled
870 rDNA operon is likely to provide a more reliable test of the group's morphological evolution in
871 the future. The best strategy for the development of gregarine phylogeny (*sensu lato*) and high-
872 rank taxonomy seems to be reconciling and combining morphological evidence with
873 unambiguous molecular data such as well-resolved deep branching in the molecular phylogenetic
874 trees of gregarines – probably with the use of concatenated nuclear markers compiled from
875 transcriptomic and genomic datasets. However, until such datasets become available, we propose
876 to treat the shared ultrastructural characteristics of their epicytic crests and epimerite as
877 synapomorphies of eugregarines and, consequently, as evidence for their monophyly by
878 following the principles of cladistics. At the same time, relying on the firm molecular
879 phylogenetic support and following previous works, we also propose to abolish the suborders
880 Aseptata and Septata within the order Eugregarinida (Simdyanov & Diakin, 2013; Cavalier-
881 Smith, 2014) and accept the robust molecular phylogenetic lineages as superfamilies instead
882 (Clopton, 2009; Rueckert et al., 2011; Simdyanov & Diakin, 2013; Cavalier-Smith, 2014). On
883 the same ground, we acknowledge the abolition of the order Neogregarinida (Simdyanov &
884 Diakin, 2013; Cavalier-Smith, 2014), which apparently comprises divergent representatives of
885 the eugregarine superfamily Actinocephaloidea. Finally, following this assertion, we also
886 propose to remove the absence of merogony from the diagnostic criteria of eugregarines, despite
887 that the current gregarine taxonomy relies heavily on this characteristic (Levine, 1985; Perkins et
888 al., 2000; Adl et al., 2012). The majority of these proposals receive molecular phylogenetic and
889 ultrastructural backing and although some are more preliminary than others (the monophyly of
890 eugregarines will require thorough testing, e.g., by evidence from multigene molecular
891 phylogenetic analyses), they altogether represent a next step in a much needed revision of the
892 gregarine taxonomy and evolution.

893

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895

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912

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914

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1285 Table 1. Main characteristics of the sequences obtained in this study.

Sample name, obtained resulting sequence and its accession number	Characteristics of the PCR-amplified fragments or NGS-obtained contigs	Method of sequencing and PCR primers (if applicable): forward (F) and reverse (R)
<i>Ancora sagittata</i> from Roscoff 2009, contig of 4,853 bp long: part of SSU rDNA (1713 bp), complete ITS1, complete 5.8S rDNA, complete ITS2, and part of LSU rDNA (2767 bp); KX982501	(I) SSU rDNA (part); 1,567 bp	Sanger (direct sequencing of the PCR product) A ¹ (F) 5'- GTATCTGGTTGATCCTGCCAGT -3' r71 (R) 5'- GCGACGGGCGGTGTGTAC -3'
	(II) SSU rDNA (part), ITS1, 5.8S rDNA, ITS2, and LSU rDNA (part); 941 bp	Sanger (after cloning) d6 (F) 5'- CCGTTCCTAGTTGGTGG -3' 28r3 ² (R) 5'-CCTTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGAC-3'
	(III) LSU rDNA (part); 1,748 bp	Sanger (after cloning) 28d1 ² (F) 5'-ACCCGCTGAAAYTTAAGCATAT-3' 28r7 ² (R) 5'- GCCAATCCTTWTCCCGAAGTTAC -3'
	(IV) LSU rDNA (part); 1,608 bp	Sanger (direct sequencing of the PCR product) 28d5 ² (F) 5'- CCGCTAAGGAGTGTGTAACAAC -3' 28r11 ² (R) 5'-GTCTAAACCCAGCTCACGTTCCCT-3'
<i>Ancora sagittata</i> from WSBS 2006, contig of 2,634 bp long: part of SSU rDNA (1696 bp), complete ITS1, complete 5.8S rDNA, complete ITS2, and part of LSU rDNA (first 564 bp); KX982502	(V) SSU rDNA (part); 1,663 bp	Sanger (direct sequencing of the PCR product) Q5A (F) 5'- GATTAAGCCATGCATGTCT -3' B ¹ (R) 5'- GATCCTTCTGCAGGTTACACCTAC -3'
	(VI) SSU rDNA (part), ITS1, 5.8S rDNA, ITS2, and LSU rDNA (part); 1,096 bp	Sanger (after cloning) d71 (F) 5'-GTCCCTGCCCTTTGTACACACCGCCCG-3' 28r3 ² (R) 5'- CCTTGGTCCGTGTTTCAAGAC -3'
<i>Ancora sagittata</i> from WSBS 2010, contig of complete ribosomal operon (5,973 bp) KX982504	complete sequences of SSU rDNA (1737 bp), ITS1, 5.8S, rDNA, ITS2, LSU rDNA (3169 bp), and parts of ETSS	NGS (Illumina HiSeq 2000)
<i>Ancora sagittata</i> from WSBS 2011 contig of complete ribosomal operon (5,973 bp); KX982503	complete sequences of SSU rDNA (1737 bp), ITS1, 5.8S, rDNA, ITS2, LSU rDNA (3170 bp), and parts of ETSS	NGS (Illumina HiSeq 2000)
<i>Stentor coeruleus</i> , contig of 3,064 bp long: LSU rDNA, partial sequence; KX982500	LSU rDNA (part); 1,728 bp	Sanger (direct sequencing of the PCR product) 28d1 ² (F) 5'- ACCCGCTGAAAYTTAAGCATAT -3' 28r7 ² (R) 5'- GCCAATCCTTWTCCCGAAGTTAC -3'
	LSU rDNA (part); 1958 bp	Sanger (after cloning) 28d5 ² (F) 5'- CCGCTAAGGAGTGTGTAACAAC -3' 28r13 ² (R) 5'- DYWRGCGYCGTTCTTCATCG -3'

1286 ¹ The primer sequences were based on: Medlin et al., 1988.1287 ² The primer sequences were based on: Van der Auwera, Chapelle & De Wachter, 1994.

1288 Table 2. Comparison of the key features of gregarine attachment organelles.

	Mucron of archigregarines (<i>Selenidium</i>)	"Mucron" of aseptate eugregarines	Epimerite of septate eugregarines
Shape	Knob-like	Sucker-shaped or dome-shaped	Various, usually – a well-developed frontal protuberance of the cell of diverse shape
Tegument structure in the region of the junction with the host cell	The tegument of mucron is trimembrane pellicle excepting small region in front of conoid, where a cytostome and duct of mucron vacuole is intermittently formed, IMC is absent and there is just a single plasma membrane.	The IMC of the pellicle terminates at the edge of the cell junction zone, so the tegument of the attachment organelle is represented only by a single plasma membrane.	The IMC of the pellicle terminates at the edge of the cell junction zone, so the tegument of the attachment organelle is represented only by a single plasma membrane.
Cell junction between host and parasite	Septate cell junction; no peculiar structures on the edge of the junction zone.	Two closely adjacent plasma membranes (of host and parasite) forming high electron density zone. A circular groove in the gregarine tegument (plasma membrane) runs along the edge of the region of the cell junction (where the IMC terminates) and pinches a small portion of the host cell.	Two closely adjacent plasma membranes (of host and parasite) forming high electron density zone. A circular groove in the gregarine tegument (plasma membrane) runs along the edge of the region of the cell junction (where the IMC terminates) and pinches a small portion of the host cell.
Cytoplasm organelles	Apical complex (conoid, apical polar ring(s), rhoptries) and mucronal (food) vacuole.	Frontal region of "mucron" contains fibrillar zone or large vacuole with fibrillar content adjoining the cell junction zone; no mitochondria were observed; longitudinal actin-like fibrillar structures (filaments) are well developed.	Frontal region of epimerite contains a large flattened frontal vacuole with fibrillar content adjoining the cell junction zone; it is built from ER vesicles; mitochondria, often numerous and arranged in a layer, are located beneath this vacuole during growth and development of the trophozoite; different inclusions (lipid globules, amylopectin granules); longitudinal fibrillar structures (microfilaments and microtubules) can be well developed within the stalk of epimerite (if present).
Functioning	Attachment and feeding by myzocytosis: formation of temporary cytostome-cytopharyngeal complex consisting of mucronal vacuole with the duct running through the conoid.	Attachment; feeding is questionable, no myzocytosis observed.	Attachment; feeding is questionable, no myzocytosis observed.
Fate	Mucron of archigregarines persists for long time after	Unknown; most likely is to retract/ condense: frontal part of	When trophozoite transforms into mature gamont, the epimerite is to

	trophozoite detachment and retains apical complex (conoid at least) till (including) stage of syzygy.	mature detached gamonts is covered by trimembrane pellicle, but not by a single plasma membrane.	break off or to retract/ condense.
Studied species	<i>Selenidium pendula</i> , <i>S. hollandei</i> , <i>S. orientale</i> , <i>S. pennatum</i>	<i>Lecudina</i> sp. from <i>Cirriiformia tentaculata</i> , <i>L. pellucida</i> , <i>Lankesteria levinei</i> , <i>Difficilina cerebratuli</i>	<i>Didymophyes gigantea</i> , <i>Epicavus araeoceri</i> , <i>Gregarina</i> spp., <i>Leidyana ephestiae</i> , <i>Pyxinia firmus</i> , <i>Stylocephalus africanus</i> .
References	Schrével, 1968; Schrével, 1971a; Kuvardina & Simdyanov, 2002; Simdyanov & Kuvardina, 2007; Schrével et al., 2016	Schrével & Vivier, 1966; Ouassi & Porchet-Henneré, 1978; Simdyanov, 1995b; Simdyanov, 2009	Grassé, 1953; Devauchelle, 1968; Baudoin, 1969; Desportes, 1969; Ormières & Daumal, 1970; Hildebrand, 1976; Ormierès, 1977; Tronchin & Schrével, 1977; Marquès, 1979; Ghazali et al., 1989; Valigurová & Koudela, 2005; Valigurová et al., 2007; Valigurová, Michalková & Koudela, 2009; Schrével et al., 2013

1290 Table 3. Characteristics of the main phylogenetic lineages of eugregarines¹.

Lineage and main representatives	Main characteristics	Hosts
Actinocephaloidea (short branch)	Morphologically diverse group, but well-supported with SSU rDNA phylogenies; possible morphological synapomorphy: biconical or bipyramidal oocysts ² ; also frontal syzygy are characteristic for the majority of the representatives.	Chiefly insects, but also earthworms.
Actinocephalidae ³	Septate, typically with well-developed protruded epimerite often bearing hooks or other projections, or secondary aseptate (e.g., <i>Ascogregarina</i> , <i>Paraschneideria</i>); gliding motility and typical epicyte; epimerite discarding in mature gamonts; syzygy frontal; oocysts chiefly biconical or bipyramidal (sometimes spiny), sometimes crescent (e.g., <i>Menospora</i>).	Insects (intestine).
Monocystidae	Aberrant aseptate gregarines without pronounced epimerite (no valid TEM data); peristaltic motility (metaboly), aberrant epicyte (variously modified up to full loss); syzygy frontal or lateral; oocysts biconical.	Earthworms (seminal vesicles and coelom).
"Neogregarines"	Aseptate forms (sometimes intracellular) without pronounced epimerite; gliding motility and typical epicyte are absent in studied representatives; syzygy frontal (including intracellular species (Žižka, 1978)); oocysts biconical or bipyramidal (sometimes spiny).	Insects (intestine, Malpighian tubules, and fat body - for intracellular species).
Stylocephaloidea (short branch) Stylocephalidae	Septate gregarines likely related to Actinocephaloidea: trophozoite and syzygy morphology similar to the family Actinocephalidae, but epimerite is always elongate, without projections; oocysts purse-shaped.	Insects (intestine).
Gregarinoidea (long branch)	Chiefly septate (excepting <i>Caliculium glossobalani</i>). Possible synapomorphy: gametocysts with sporoducts (tubular projections for the releasing of oocysts); the other non-sequenced gregarines having them (e.g., <i>Gigaductus</i> having merogony like neogregarines (Ormierès, 1971)) are probably members of this lineage (Simdyanov, 2007; Schrével & Desportes, 2015).	Chiefly insects (intestine).
Gregarinidae ⁴	Septate with bulbous epimerite retracted or condensed in mature gamonts, gliding motility and typical epicyte; early syzygy of caudo-frontal type; gametocysts with sporoducts, oocysts barrel-like	Insects (intestine).
Leidyaniidae	Similar to Gregarinidae, but with late syzygy (just before gametocyst formation).	Insects (intestine).
<i>Caliculium glossobalani</i>	Weird marine aseptate gregarine superficially resembling <i>Selenidium</i> , but possessing neither bending motility nor the key ultrastructural features of archigregarines. Molecular data place it within Gregarinoidea.	<i>Glossobalanus minutus</i> (Hemichordata), intestine.
Cephaloidophoroidea (extremely long branch)	Septate and aseptate forms, intestinal parasites in crustaceans, robust clade in molecular phylogenetic trees with multiple distinct signatures in SSU rDNA sequences; no obvious morphological synapomorphies.	Crustaceans (intestine).
Cephaloidophoridae	Septate, with small epimerite (cephaloid) separated by septa persisting in mature gamonts, gliding motility and typical epicyte; syzygy caudo-frontal; oocysts ovoid or spherical with equatorial	Crustaceans (intestine).

suture or crest.

Uradiophoridae	Septate, with small epimerite persisting in mature gamonts, gliding motility and typical epicyte; syzygy caudo-frontal; oocysts spherical with equatorial crest or radial projections.	Crustaceans (intestine).
Thiriottiidae	Aseptate, epimerite appears absent (no TEM data), gliding motility and typical epicyte; syzygy of unusual type (head-to-side); oocysts unknown.	Crustaceans (intestine).
Ganymedidae	Aseptate, epimerite appears absent (no TEM data), gliding motility and typical epicytic folds, syzygy caudo-frontal; oocysts unknown.	Crustaceans (intestine).
Lecudinoidea (long branch)	Chiefly aseptate forms without obvious morphological synapomorphies, but robust clade in molecular phylogenetic trees with nice multiple signatures in SSU rDNA sequences.	Broad range of various aquatic (chiefly marine) invertebrates.
Urosporidae ⁵	Aseptate with weakly developed attachment apparatus (no TEM data); motility can be modified from gliding to peristaltic or loss of motility; epicyt from typical to aberrant; syzygy mainly lateral or frontal; oocysts heteropolar with funnel on the one pole and tail-like projection(s) on the other pole.	Chiefly coelom of echinoderms and polychaetes.
Ancoroidea (moderately long branch)	Robust clade in molecular phylogenetic trees (SSU rDNA); the external morphology of known representatives is similar to Lecudinidae; ultrastructure is understudied.	Capitellid polychaetes (intestine).
Ancoridae	Aseptate with two lateral projections and bulbous epimerite thought to be discarded in mature gamonts; gliding motility and typical epicyte, but apical filaments are probably modified; syzygy unknown; oocysts ovoid.	Capitellid polychaetes (intestine).
Polyplacariidae	Aseptate; attachment apparatus unknown; gliding motility and epicyte crests (no TEM data).	Capitellid polychaetes (intestine).
" <i>Ammonia</i> -like" environmental SSU rDNA sequences (moderate length branch)	Identified only with molecular data (SSU rDNA). Putative gregarines, expected to be aseptate, possibly a part of the current Lecudinidae.	Unknown.

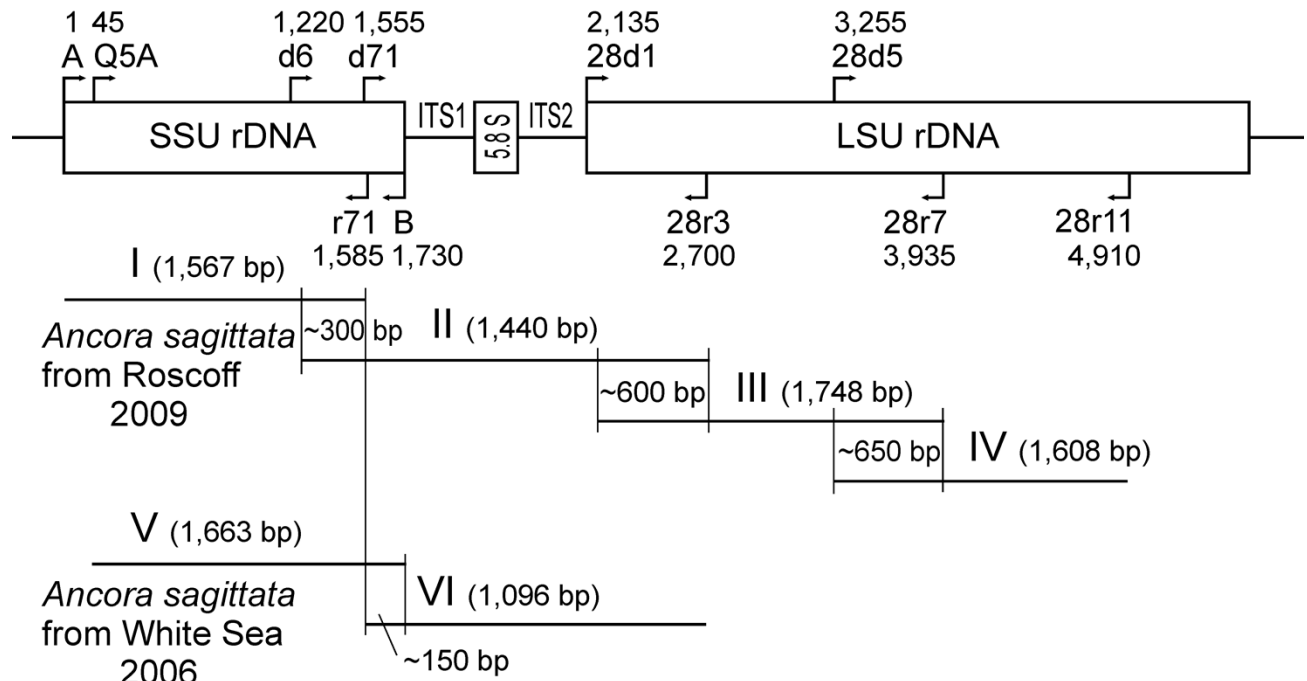
1291 ¹ Morphological characteristics were taken mainly from Grassé, 1953 and Perkins et al., 2000.

1292 ² Oocysts = sporocysts or spores in Grassé, 1953; Schrével & Desportes, 2013a; Schrével et al.,
1293 2013.

1294 ³ *sensu lato*, i.e., including Sphaerocystidae and other related minor families separated by
1295 Levine.

1296 ⁴ *sensu lato*, including Blabericolidae Clopton, 2009.

1297 ⁵ *sensu lato*, including Gonosporidae Schrével and Desportes, 2013



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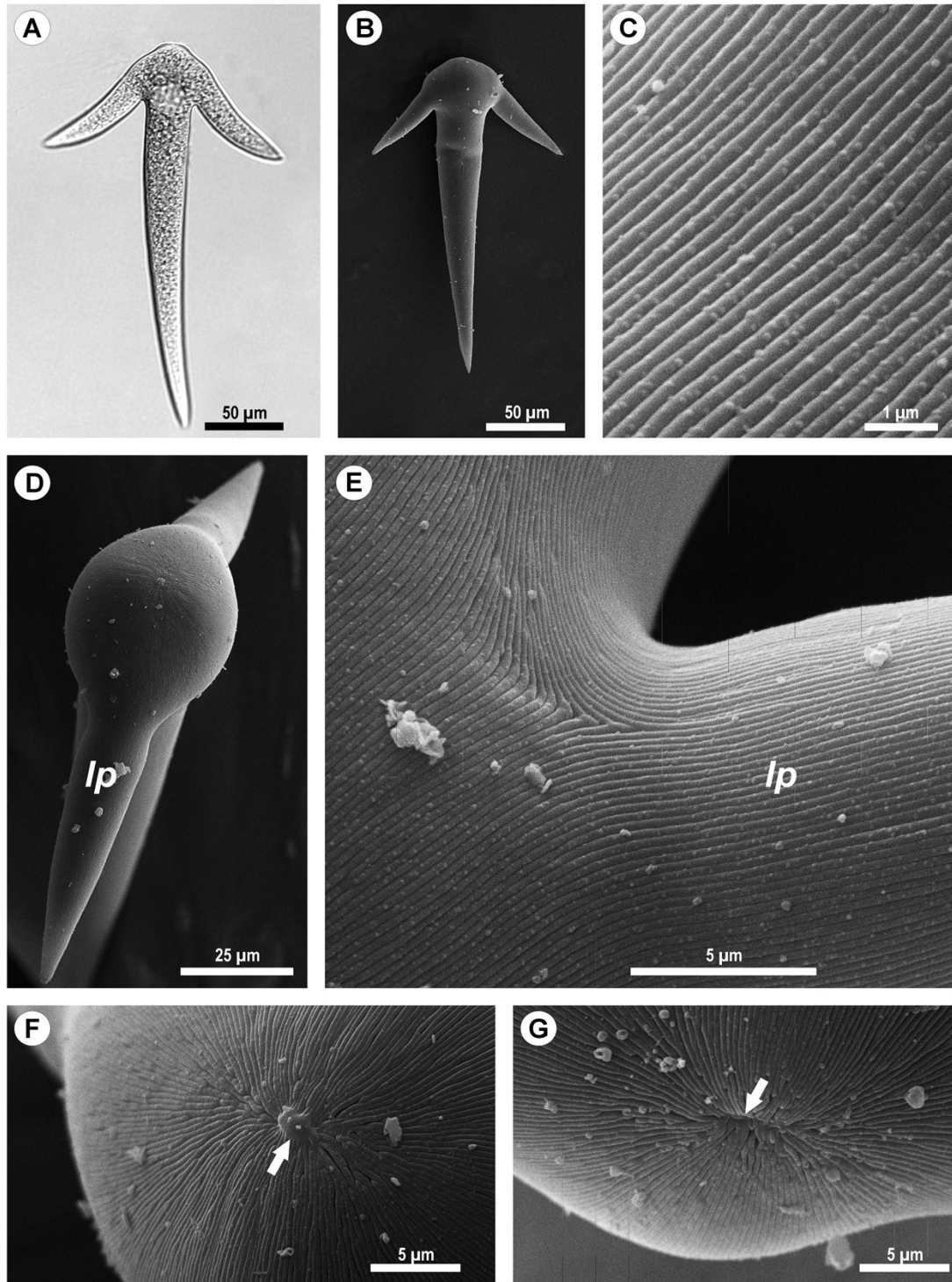
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Figure 1: Strategy used to obtain contigs of the ribosomal operon from the samples of *A. sagittata* Roscoff 2009 and *A. sagittata* WSBS 2006.

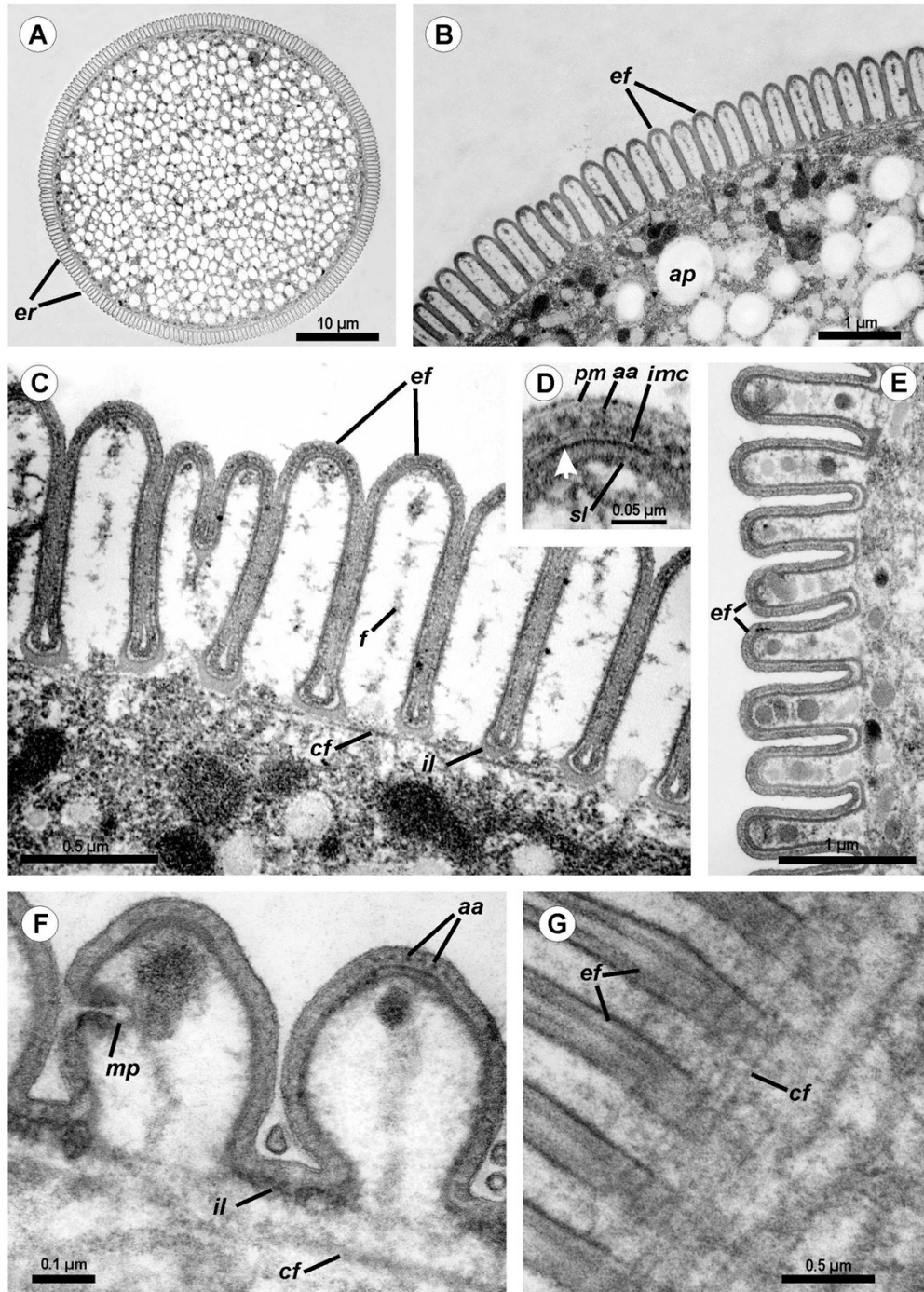
Upper part: schematic ribosomal operon with approximate positions of the forward and reverse primers. Lower part: the amplified fragments of ribosomal DNA aligned with the ribosomal operon (above). Numbers indicate the length of the overlapping regions. Roman numerals denote the amplified fragments.



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Figure 2: Light (A) and scanning electron microscopy (B–G) of *Ancora sagittata*.

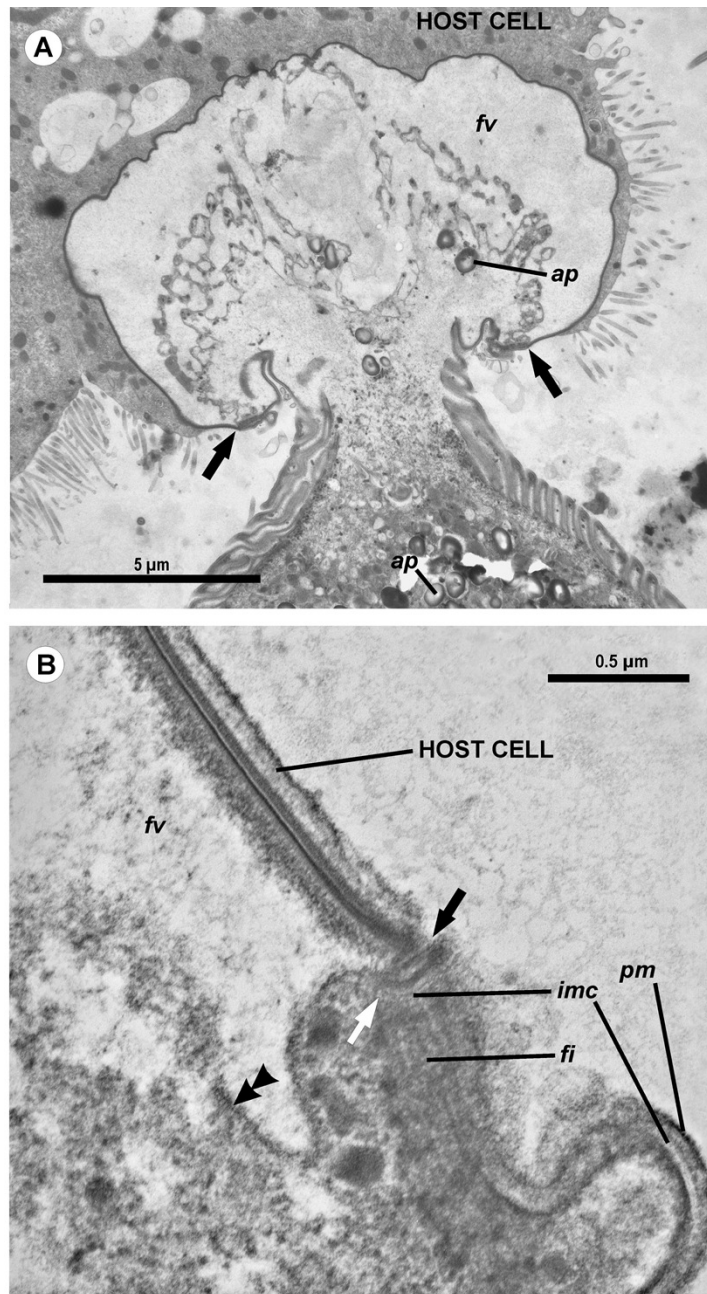
(A and B) General view of the gregarine; (C) Epicyte; (D) View of the gregarine from the apical pole of the cell; (E) Epicytic folds at the base of the lateral projections (*lp*); (F, G) Apical pole of *Ancora sagittata* (arrows) with (F) and without the apical papilla (G). *lp*, lateral projections of the cell.



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Figure 3: Transmission electron microscopy of *Ancora sagittata*.

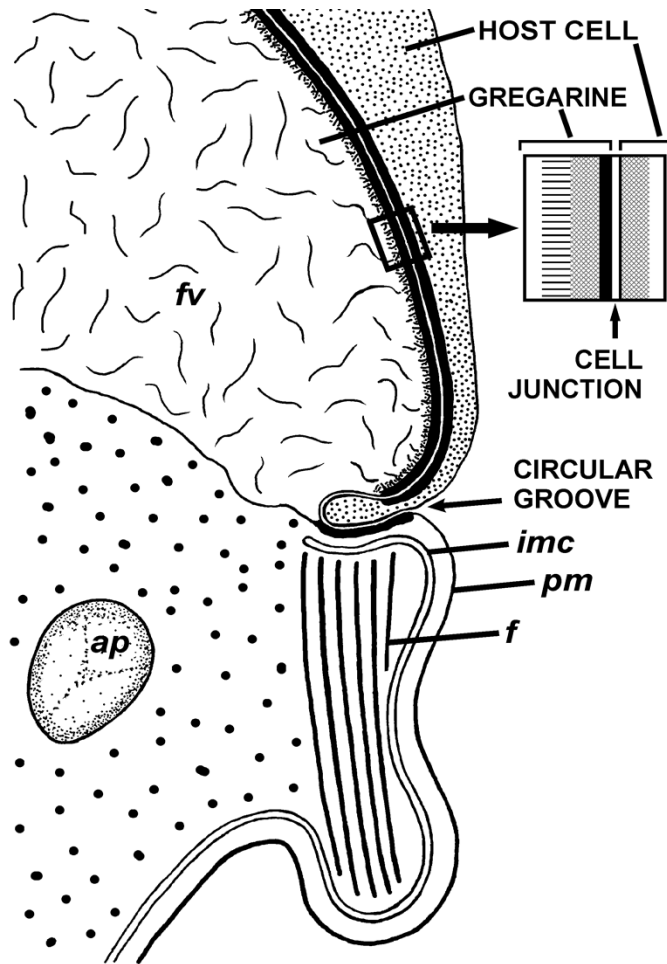
(A–C) Cross sections in the middle of the cell show epicytic folds (*ef*) with fibrils (*f*) inside, internal lamina (*il*), circular cortical filaments (*cf*), and granules of amylopectin (*ap*); (D) The top of the epicytic fold reveals a structure of the pellicle consisting of the plasma membrane (*pm*) and the internal membrane complex (*imc*) with rippled dense structures (= apical arcs, *aa*) and an electron dense plate (arrow); (E) Epicytic folds of the frontal zone of the cell with electron dense globules inside the folds; (F) Cross section at the level of the lateral projections: a micropore (*mp*) and circular cortical filaments (*cf*) are visible; (G) Tangential section of the cortex in the posterior region of the trophozoite reveals circular cortical filaments (*cf*).



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Figure 4: Transmission electron microscopy of the attachment apparatus of *Ancora sagittata*.

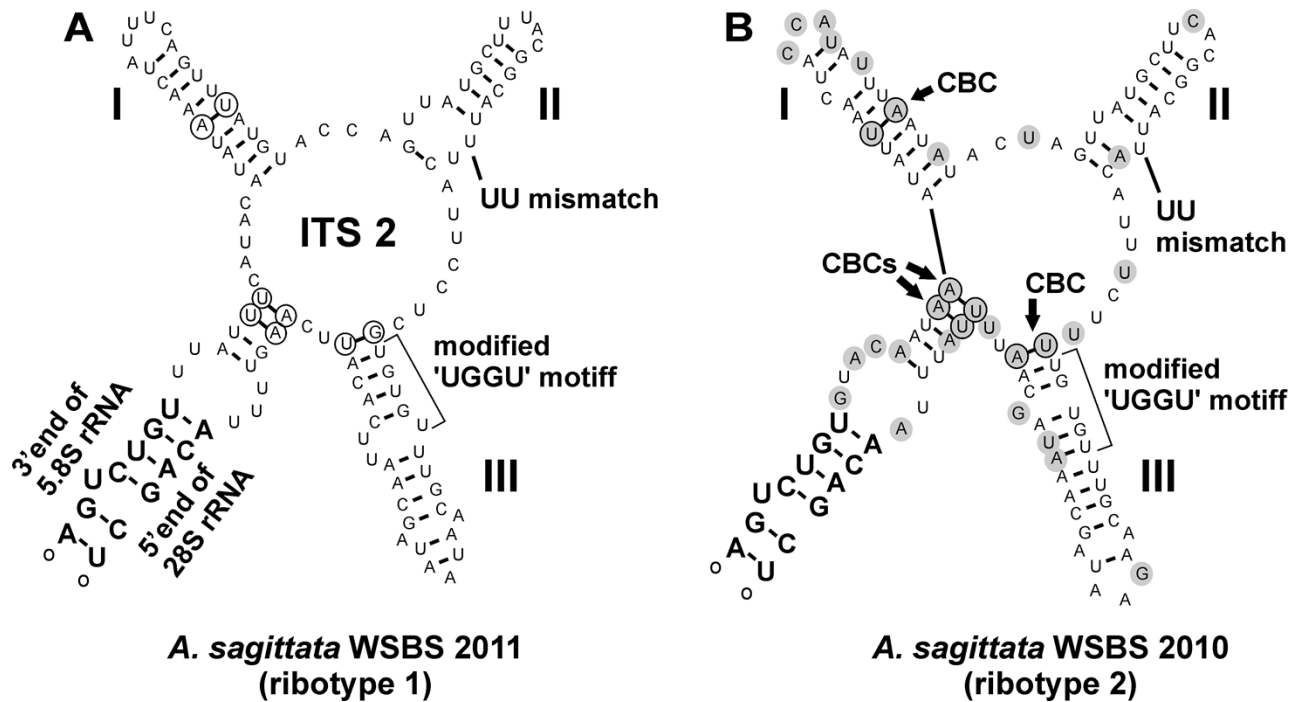
(A) Longitudinal section of the gregarine forebody embedded in a host cell shows a large frontal vacuole (*fv*) and amylopectin granules (*ap*) within the attachment organelle and the main part of the cell; the black arrows indicate the base of the contact zone (circular groove, see B); (B) The base of the contact zone between the gregarine and host cell under a higher magnification: gregarine cell forms a circular groove (black arrow) pinching the host cell; the rear wall of the frontal vacuole (double arrow) arises from this area; parallel filaments (*fi*) arise from the groove zone backward; the white arrow indicates the terminus of the internal membrane complex (*imc*) of the pellicle; *pm* is the plasma membrane of the gregarine cell.



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1336 **Figure 5: Diagram of the contact between the gregarine and the host cell as inferred from**
1337 **TEM micrographs.**

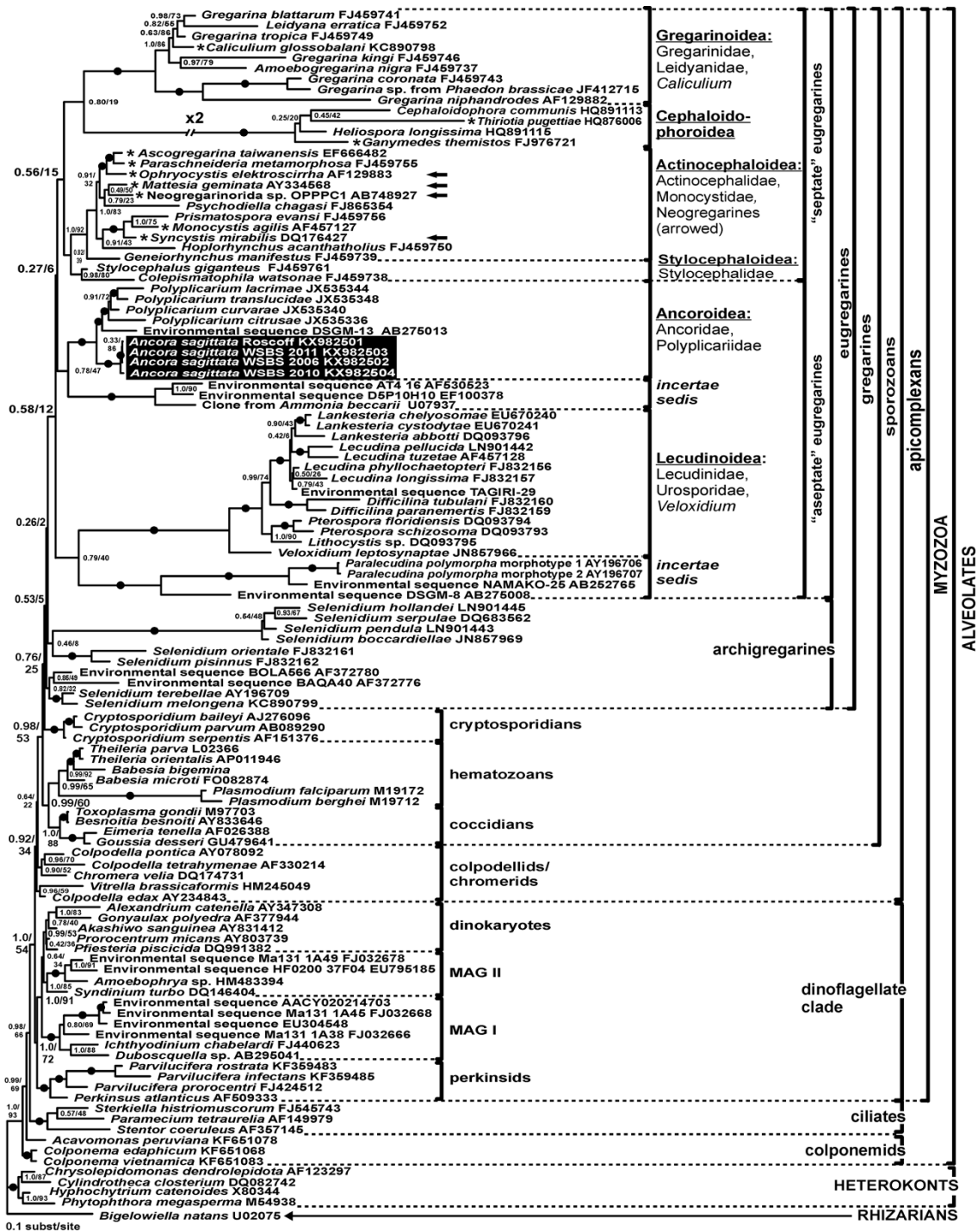
1338 Abbreviations are the same as in Figure 4.



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Figure 6: Predicted secondary structures of ITS 2 transcripts of two *Ancora sagittata* ribotypes demonstrating differences between them.

(A) Ribotype 1; (B) Ribotype 2. Nucleotide substitutions and insertions in the ribotype 2 are highlighted in grey. Nucleotides involved in compensatory base changes are encircled.



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Figure 7: Bayesian inference tree of alveolates calculated by using the GTR+ Γ +I model from the dataset of 114 SSU rDNA sequences (1,570 sites).

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Numbers at the nodes indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities / ML bootstrap percentage. Black

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dots on the branches indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities and bootstrap percentages of at

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least 0.95 and 95%, respectively. The newly obtained sequences of *Ancora sagittata* are

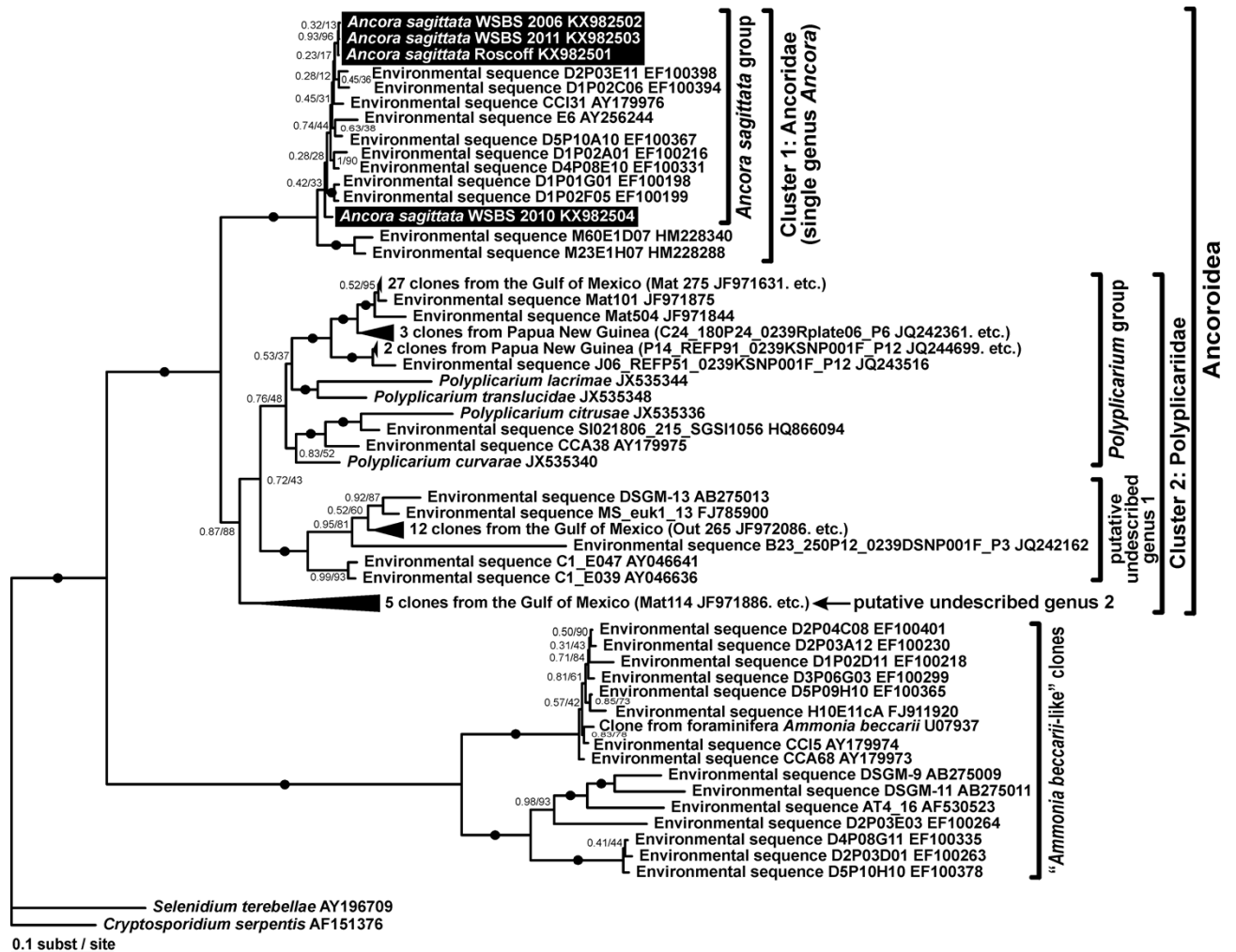
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highlighted in by a black rectangle. Asterisks indicate aseptate gregarines within the "septate"

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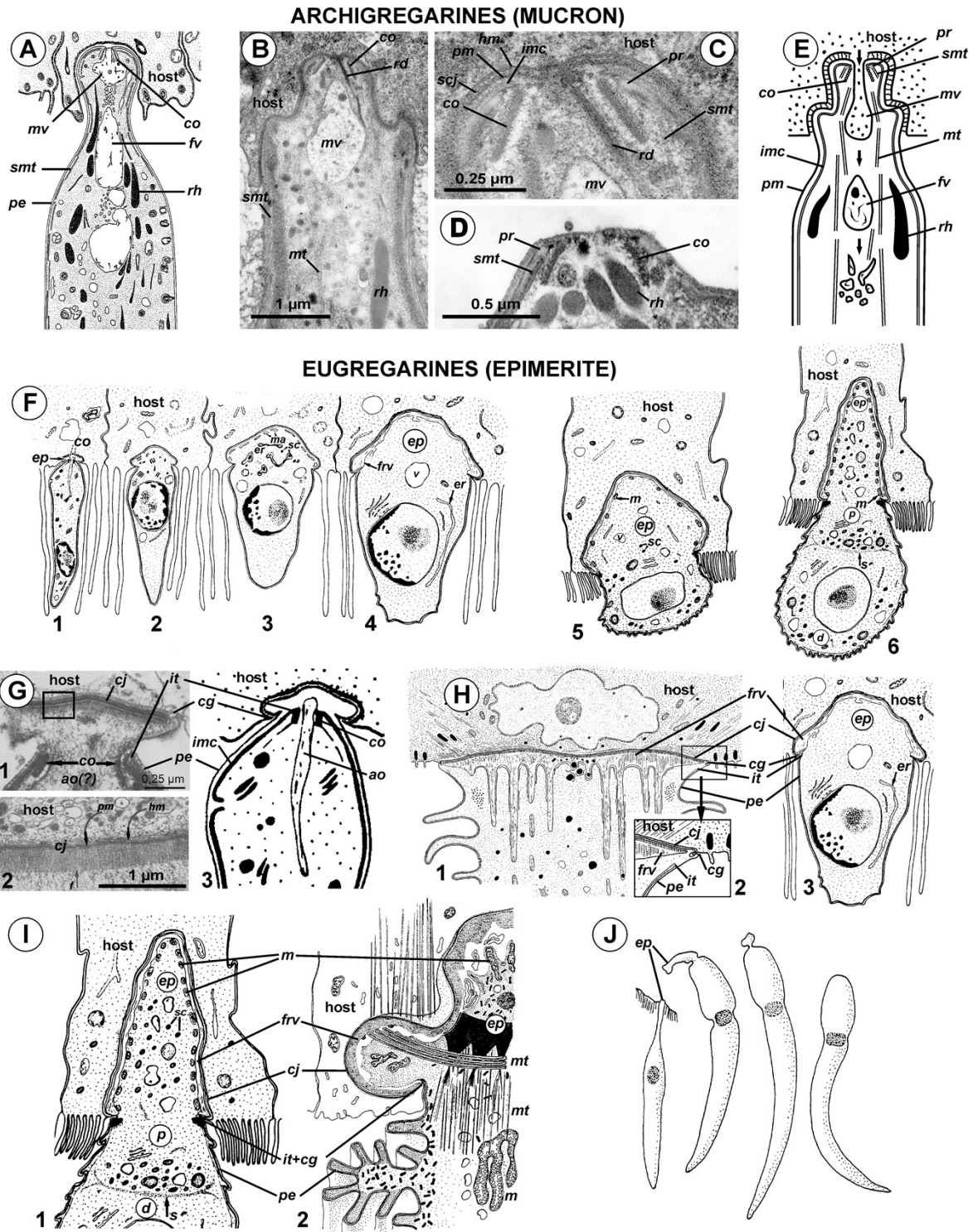
clade; arrows indicate neogregarines.

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1356 **Figure 8: Bayesian inference tree of *Ancora sagittata* and related sequences obtained by**
 1357 **using the GTR+ Γ +I model from the dataset of 52 SSU rDNA sequences (1,709 sites).**
 1358 Numbers at the nodes indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities / ML bootstrap percentage. Black
 1359 dots on the branches indicate Bayesian posterior probabilities and bootstrap percentages of at
 1360 least 0.95 and 95%, respectively. The newly obtained sequences of *Ancora sagittata* are
 1361 highlighted by black rectangles. Black triangles indicate clusters of near-identical sequences
 1362 (identity of 99% or more), each of which was represented by a single representative.



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Figure 10: Comparison of the attachment organelles of archigregarines *Selenidium* spp. (A–E) with septate and aseptate eugregarines (F–I).

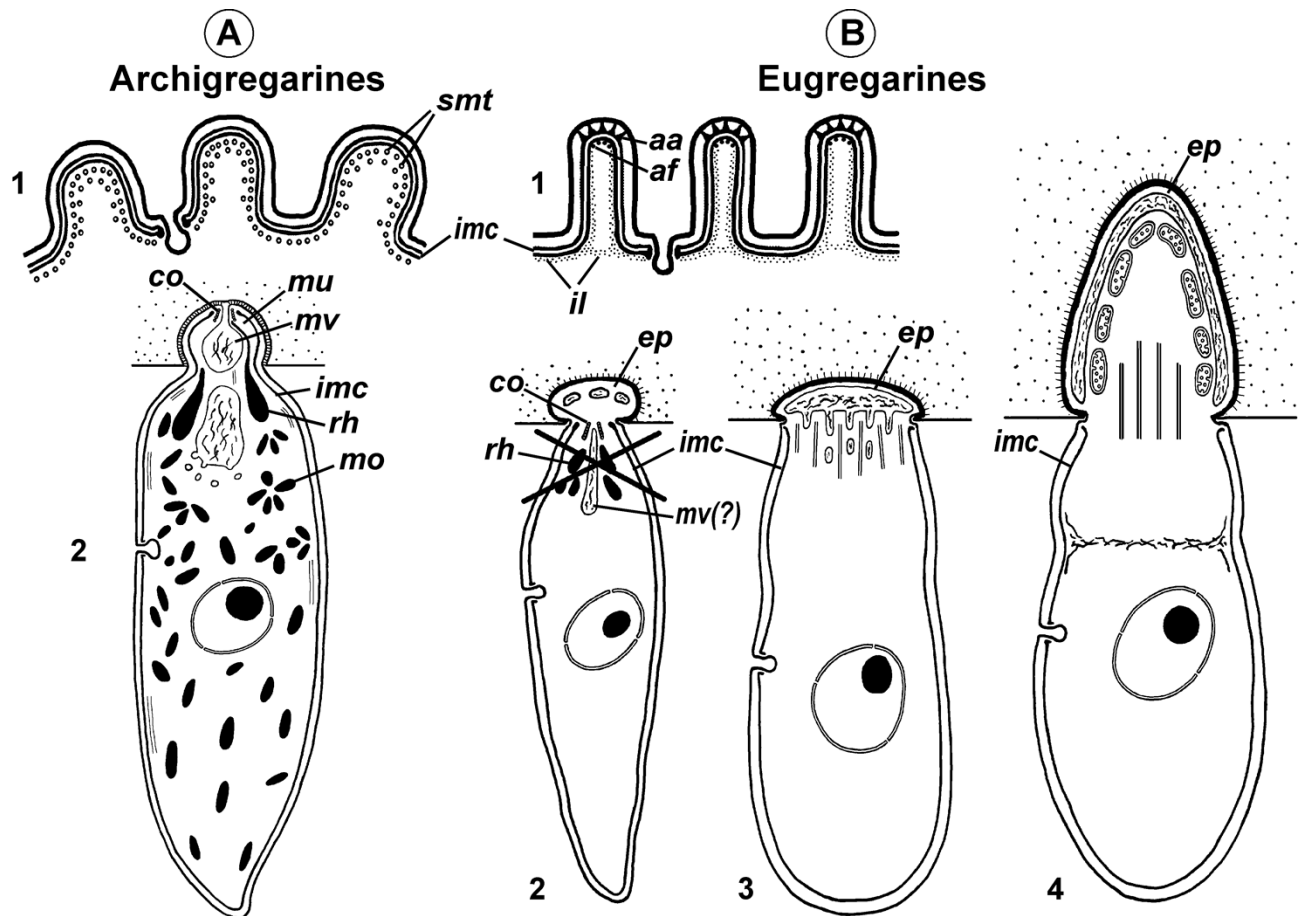
(A) Drawing of the apical part of a *Selenidium hollandei* cell; (B) Ultrastructure of the apical part of an *S. orientale* cell, a longitudinal section; (C) The frontal region of the mucron under a higher magnification; (D) Mucron of the gamont (syzygy partner) of *S. pennatum*, a longitudinal section; (E) Predicted myzocytotic feeding in *Selenidium*; the mucron is embedded in the host

1381 cell and contains well-developed apical complex consisting of the conoid (*co*), polar ring (*pr*)
1382 giving rise to subpellicular microtubules (*smt*), rhoptries (*rh*) with rhoptry ducts (*rd*), and a large
1383 mucronal vacuole (*mv*); the tegument of the mucron comprises a trimembrane pellicle (*pe*)
1384 consisting of the plasma membrane (*pm*) and internal membrane complex, IMC (*imc*), with the
1385 exception of a small region in front of the conoid, a "cytostome site", where the IMC is absent
1386 and only single plasma membrane is present; the cytostome is intermittently opened in this
1387 region to myzocytosis: at first, food comes through the duct (temporary cytopharynx) in the
1388 newly formed mucronal vacuole (*mv*), which then becomes a food vacuole (*fv*) and is transported
1389 into the cell along microtubules (*mt*) for digestion; the parasite-host contact is mediated by the
1390 septate cell junction (*scj*) with a characteristic wide gap between the plasma membranes (*pm* and
1391 *hm*, respectively). (D) The mucron with the apical complex persists for a long time into the
1392 syzygy; the mucronal food vacuole is absent because the syzygy is a non-feeding stage.

1393 (F) Development of trophozoite of the septate gregarine *Gregarina blaberae* (scheme):
1394 (1), epimerite (*ep*) develops as a bulb in front of the apical complex consisting of the conoid and
1395 axial organelle (*ao*), which is likely a homologue of mucronal vacuole (also see (G, 3)); the IMC
1396 terminates near the apical part of conoid (similarly to mature *Selenidium*), therefore the
1397 developing epimerite is covered only by a single plasma membrane, not by the pellicle; (2–6),
1398 the apical complex disappears, the epimerite is growing; a large flattened frontal vacuole (*frv*)
1399 arising from the layer of membrane alveoli (*ma*) of endoplasmic-reticulum (*er*) origin, numerous
1400 mitochondria (*m*), granules of storage carbohydrate amylopectin (*sc*), lipid drops (*ld*), and
1401 vacuoles (*v*) are present in the epimerite cytoplasm; (6), finally, protomerite (*p*) and deutomerite
1402 (*d*) are separated by the septum (*s*). (G) Comparison of developing attachment organelles in the
1403 youngest trophozoites of the aseptate gregarine *Lecudina* sp. from the polychaete *Cirriformia*
1404 (Syn. *Audouinia*) *tentaculata*: ((1 and 2); (2) shows the details of the cell junction) and *G.*
1405 *blaberae* ((3), the magnified fragment of (F, 1)): both organelles develop ahead of the conoid in
1406 the same way and are covered by a single plasma membrane; the cell junction (*cj*) between the
1407 parasite and host cells is, unlike *Selenidium*, formed by two closely adjacent plasma membranes
1408 (parasite and host); an electron-dense fibrillar zone adjoins the cell junction in the gregarine cell
1409 (arrow); the cell junction is bordered by the circular groove (*cg*) pinching a small portion of the
1410 host cell; the IMC terminates (*it*) at the apical part of the conoid. (H) Comparison of the
1411 "mucron" of a well-developed trophozoite of the same *Lecudina* sp. ((1 and 2); the magnified
1412 fragment of (1) marked by the rectangle) and underdeveloped epimerite (*ep*) of a growing
1413 trophozoite of *G. blaberae* ((3), stage (4) from (F), magnified): the IMC terminates (*ie*) at the
1414 base of the attachment organelle (it marks the former apex of the sporozoite mucron), the cell
1415 junction consists of two closely adjacent plasma membranes bordered by the circular groove (*cg*)
1416 pinching a small part of the host cell, a large flattened frontal vacuole (*frv*) with fibrillar content
1417 develops just beneath the region of cell junction. (I) Comparison of the developing epimerite of
1418 an older trophozoite of *G. blaberae* ((1), stage (6) from (F), magnified) and the attachment
1419 organelle of *Lecudina* (Syn. *Cygnicollum*) *lankesteri* (2); (*m*), mitochondria. (J) A trophozoite
1420 and mature gamonts of *L. lankesteri*: losing of the epimerite.

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1446 **Figure 11: Comparison of archigregarine (A) and eugregarine (B) cell organization with**
1447 **their main diagnostic characteristics (candidate synapomorphies).**

1448 (A, 1 and B, 1) Cross sections of the cortex of a typical representatives showing regularly
1449 arranged longitudinal subpellicular microtubules (*smt*) in archigregarine longitudinal folds vs.
1450 ripple dense structures (apical arcs (*aa*)) and 12-nm filaments (apical filaments (*af*)) closely
1451 adjacent to the inner membrane complex of the pellicle (*imc*) within the tops of eugregarine
1452 epicytic crests; typically, internal lamina (*il*) forms links in the bases of the epicytic crests. (A, 2)
1453 Archigregarine trophozoite showing a mucron (*mu*) with an apical complex (conoid (*co*) and
1454 rhoptries (*rh*)) and mucronal food vacuole (*mv*) performing myzocytosis (the cell junction type
1455 between the host and parasite cells is septate junction); the cytoplasm is rich in microneme-like
1456 organelles (*mo*). (B, 2) Formation of the epimerite (*ep*) in eugregarines: a protuberance of the
1457 gregarine cell emerging ahead of the degrading apical complex. (B, 3) Epimerite (so-called
1458 "mucron") of some aseptate gregarines *Lecudina* spp. without the apical complex and with a
1459 large flat frontal vacuole and microtubules in the base. (B, 4) Epimerite of septate gregarines
1460 with the same structures and with mitochondria. In eugregarines, the cell junction between the
1461 host and parasite is formed by two closely adjacent plasma membranes and there is no
1462 myzocytosis (or perhaps only in the earliest developmental stages before the reduction of the
1463 apical complex).