Research Paper

Description and prevalence of gregarines infecting the amphipod *Gammarus pulex*, in the Water of Leith, Scotland, UK

Kevin McKinley, Anastasios D. Tsaousis, Sonja Rückert

PII: S0932-4739(24)00034-8

DOI: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejop.2024.126084

Reference: EJOP 126084

To appear in: European Journal of Protistology



Please cite this article as: K. McKinley, A.D. Tsaousis, S. Rückert, Description and prevalence of gregarines infecting the amphipod *Gammarus pulex*, in the Water of Leith, Scotland, UK, *European Journal of Protistology* (2024), doi: https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ejop.2024.126084

This is a PDF file of an article that has undergone enhancements after acceptance, such as the addition of a cover page and metadata, and formatting for readability, but it is not yet the definitive version of record. This version will undergo additional copyediting, typesetting and review before it is published in its final form, but we are providing this version to give early visibility of the article. Please note that, during the production process, errors may be discovered which could affect the content, and all legal disclaimers that apply to the journal pertain.

© 2024 Published by Elsevier GmbH.

Description and prevalence of gregarines infecting the amphipod *Gammarus pulex*, in the Water of Leith, Scotland, UK.

Kevin McKinley^{a,b}, Anastasios D. Tsaousis^b, Sonja Rückert^{c,d}

^aSchool of Applied Sciences, Edinburgh Napier University, Edinburgh, Scotland, UK

^bLaboratory of Molecular and Evolutionary Parasitology, RAPID group, School of Biosciences, University of Kent, Canterbury, Kent, England, UK

^cDepartment of Eukaryotic Microbiology, Faculty of Biology, University of Duisburg-Essen, Essen, Germany

^d Centre for Conservation and Restoration Science, School of Applied Sciences, Edinburgh Napier University, Edinburgh, Scotland, UK

Corresponding author

Sonja Rückert, sonja.rueckert@uni-due.de, Department of Eukaryotic Microbiology, University of Duisburg-Essen, Essen, Germany

Abstract

Gregarines are symbiotic protists that are found in a broad spectrum of invertebrates, including insects, crustaceans, and annelids. Among these the globally distributed amphipod *Gammarus pulex* is one of the earliest recognized hosts for aquatic gregarines and is prevalent among macroinvertebrates in freshwater environments. In this study, samples of *G. pulex* were collected in the Water of Leith river, Scotland, UK. Gregarines were identified using light and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) as well as standard molecular techniques. We identified three septate eugregarine symbionts—*Heliospora longissima*, *Cephaloidophora gammari*, and the here newly characterized *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. (formerly *Cephaloidophora* sp.) associated with *Gammarus pulex* in the Water of Leith. Prevalences for identified gregarine species were calculated and seasonal dynamics of gregarine infections/colonization were analyzed. Prevalences were highest in autumn and spring reaching almost 50%. While the two *Cephaloidophora* species showed similar colonization patterns, the prevalence of *Heliospora* showed an opposite trend. Identifying gregarine infection/colonization patterns is one step towards better understanding the gregarine-host relationship, as well as possible impacts of the gregarines on their hosts.

Keywords

Gregarine apicomplexa, *Cephaloidophora*, freshwater shrimp, *Gammarus pulex*, infection levels

1. Introduction

Gregarines are a diverse group of symbiotic protists that infect a wide range of invertebrates, including insects, crustaceans, and annelids (Rueckert et al., 2019). The trophozoites (feeding stages) of these single-celled organisms commonly live inside the host's gut (Wakeman et al., 2014). Although they are generally considered commensals, some gregarines have a significant impact on their host's health and behaviour (Field and Michiels, 2006; Marden and Cobb, 2004). It has been shown that gregarine-host symbiotic relationships can cover a wide spectrum from mutualistic, commensalistic, to parasitic (Rueckert et al., 2019). Effects can vary from altering the host population density, behaviour, survival, and/or physiology (Adamo, 2013; Grabner and Sures, 2019; Kamiya et al., 2014; Zamboni and Lima-Junior, 2015).

One of the oldest established host of aquatic gregarines is the globally distributed amphipod crustacean *Gammarus pulex*, which is among the most prevalent macroinvertebrates found in European freshwater environments. In addition to being a vital component of the food chain (Macneil et al., 1999), *G. pulex* plays a crucial role in breaking down organic matter (Palmia et al., 2019; Vigneron et al., 2015). With its rich content of protein, fats, and amino acids (Köprücü and Özdemir, 2005), *G. pulex* boosts fish feed composition, enhances immune responses, increases stress resistance, and promotes growth performance (Rufchaei et al., 2017). The organism is utilized as an economical substitute for animal protein in the diets of premium fish species (Harlıoğlu and Farhadi, 2018). *Gammarus pulex* is host to various symbionts, including two previously described gregarine species: *Cephaloidophora gammari* (Diesing, 1859; Goodrich, 1949) and *Heliospora longissima* (von Siebold and von Kölliker, 1848).

Gregarine systematics is in flux, but the traditional organization into three main categories (eugregarines, archigregarines, and neogregarines) is still used (Medina-Durán et al., 2020). The gregarines that infect *G. pulex* are categorized as eugregarines. Eugregarine trophozoite morphology can differ between species (Frolova et al., 2021; Medina- Durán et al., 2020), but in general, they are elongated, with a length ranging from a few micrometers to several millimeters (Rueckert et al., 2015). In septate gregarine trophozoites, the anterior region, called the protomerite, includes an epimerite – a specialized structure that helps the symbiont to attach to the host's gut epithelium (Valigurová and Florent, 2021). The posterior region of the trophozoite is called the deutomerite, which contains the cell's nucleus (Sokolova et al., 2013). Septate eugregarines are mostly found in the intestines of arthropods (Simdyanov et al., 2017).

In some cases, gregarine symbionts are present in almost all individuals of a given species, while in others, they are rare or absent altogether. For example, a study conducted by Schall (2021) reports that 90% of earthworms in a particular population were infected

with gregarines, while Diakin et al. (2016) described a gregarine infection in only ~10% of amphipods in their study area. One of the main factors that can affect gregarine prevalence for example in odonates is the host's diet (Ilvonen et al., 2018). The prevalence of gregarines can also be influenced by the presence of other parasites or pathogens in the host's gut (Rueckert et al., 2019). There are multiple factors that can result in concurrent infections, for example, variations in host feeding ecology, habitat, and population density significantly impact symbiotic infection rates. Symbionts must overcome or adapt to competition with other symbiotic taxa within the host (Rynkiewicz et al., 2015).

In this study, we investigated three septate eugregarine symbionts that share *Gammarus pulex* as host species. They were identified as *Heliospora longissima*, *Cephaloidophora gammari*, and the here newly described *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. (previously *Cephaloidophora* sp.). We addressed the molecular phylogenetic positions of these septate eugregarines using SSU rDNA sequences and analysed the seasonal dynamics of gregarine infections and their possible impact on the *G. pulex* population inhabiting the Water of Leith.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Sample collection and light microscopy (LM)

Our study was carried out on original material, collected from the Water of Leith river in Scotland (55°89'60.1"N, -3°30'77.9"W). Gammarus pulex were caught using a standard kick sampling procedure (Cheshmedjiev et al., 2011). Samples were taken during a sampling period of 1-2hrs starting between the times of 9am-11am from the same habitat, between November 2020 and January 2022. Gammarus pulex were kept alive in aerated river water until dissection, at which point their wet weight (mg) was measured. After measurements were recorded, G. pulex were dissected for gregarines by decapitation and by gently pulling out the gut with fine-tipped forceps under a stereomicroscope (Stemi 2000-C, ZEISS). All dissections were done in physiological NaCl solution (154 mM). The gut material was examined under an inverted microscope (Axio Vert.A1, ZEISS) and gregarines were isolated by micromanipulation and washed three times in physiological NaCl solution (154 mM). For measurements, the software 'ZEN Imaging' in combination with a AxioCam ERc 5s (ZEISS) and an Axio Vert.A1, ZEISS microscope were used. Trophozoite length was measured from the end of the deutomerite to the tip of the protomerite and the width was measured across the centre of the deutomerite. Cephaloidophora gammari were identified morphologically using original measurements, and line-drawings from Goodrich (1949) and Narasimhamurti (1964), as well as photographs from Sorcetti and Di Giovanni (1984). Heliospora longissima was identified by both morphological and molecular analyses. Gregarines described as Cephaloidophora sp. by Wróblewski et al. (2019), were also identified in G. pulex in Scotland and are officially described here as Cephaloidophora conus n. sp.

2.2. Scanning electron microscopy

Up to 30 individuals of *Cephaloidophora gammari* and *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. were prepared for scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Rueckert et al. (2011) had previously provided SEM micrographs of *Heliospora longissima* and therefore these are not included in this study. Individuals were deposited directly into baskets created using the end of a pipette tip attached to 10 μ m polycarbonate membrane filter (Millipore Corp., Billerica, MA), that was submerged in physiological NaCl solution (154 mM) in a 6-well multiwell plate. A piece of Whatman No. 1 filter paper was mounted on the inside lid of the multi-well plate. The Whatman filter paper was saturated with 4% (w/v) OsO₄ and the lid placed back. The gregarines were fixed by OsO₄ vapours for 30 min in the dark. Ten drops of 4% (w/v) OsO₄ were added directly to the physiological NaCl solution (154 mM) for an additional 30 min fixation. The gregarines were washed with distilled water, dehydrated with a graded series of ethyl alcohol, and critical point dried with CO₂. Filters were mounted on stubs, sputter coated with 5 nm platinum, and viewed under a Hitachi S-4300 scanning electron microscope (Hitachi, Tokyo, Japan).

2.3. DNA extraction and sequencing

Around 20 trophozoites of each species were isolated from the dissected hosts, washed three times in 154 mM physiological NaCl solution and deposited into a 1.5-ml microcentrifuge tube. DNA extraction was performed using Qiagen DNeasy Blood & Tissue extraction kit. Small subunit rDNA sequences were PCR-amplified using a total volume of 25 μl containing 1.5 μl of primer, 1.5 μl of DNA template, 22 μl of ultra-pure water and a puReTaq Ready-to-go PCR bead (GE Healthcare, Quebec, Canada). The SSU rDNA sequences for Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. were amplified in three fragments using universal eukaryotic PCR primers: 525F 5'-AAGTCTGGTGCCAGCAGCC-3' and R4 5'-GATCCTTCTGCAGGTTCACCTAC-3', 917FD 5'-GCCAGAGGTGAAATTCTNGG-3' and R4 5'-GATCCTTCTGCAGGTTCACCTAC-3', NPF1 5'-TGCGCTACCTGGTTGATCC-3' and 1050MRD 5'-GCCTYGCGACCATACTCC-3'. For Heliospora longissima, custom primers Helio-29F 5'-CATGCATGTGTTCGGCACTT-3' and Helio-637R 5'-ACTCGCGGAGGAAATGTCAA-3' were developed and used based on existing Heliospora longissima SSU sequences. A PCR was performed using a Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad) with Lid set at 100°C. The protocol included four cycles of an initial denaturation step at 94°C for 4.5 min, 45°C for 1 min and 72°C for 1.45 min, followed by 34 cycles of 94°C for 30 sec (denaturation), 50°C for 1 min (annealing), 72°C for 1.45 min (extension), with a final extension period at 72°C for 10 min. PCR products for Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. and Heliospora longissima corresponding to the expected size were gel isolated using the GeneJET Gel Extraction Kit (Thermo Scientific). The cleaned PCR product for Heliospora longissima was sent for sequencing. The PCR product for Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. was cloned into the vector using the StrataClone PCR Cloning kit (Agilent). PCR products were digested with EcoRI and screened for size. Clones were sequenced using vector primers. Two SSU rDNA clones were sequenced from Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. The SSU rDNA sequence from Cephaloidophora gammari was extracted from a transcriptomic data set generated in the umbrella project 'Developing gregarine apicomplexans as aquatic symbiosis model system'. These transcriptome data have not been published yet. The new SSU rDNA sequences were initially identified by BLAST analysis and subsequently verified with molecular phylogenetic analyses. SSU rDNA data for Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. (1817 bp) and Cephaloidophora gammari (1890 bp)

Heliospora longissima (271bp, 5' prime end) were uploaded to GenBank, Accession numbers PP326845, PP326846 and PP656908, respectively.

2.4. Molecular phylogenetic analysis

The three new SSU rDNA sequences were MAFFT v7.490 (Katoh and Standley, 2013; Katoh et al., 2002) aligned with 47 other SSU rDNA sequences chosen based on closely related results from Nucleotide BLAST (GenBank) to represent gregarines with Cryptosporidium species as the outgroup. The model for the phylogenetic tree was selected using MEGA version 11.0.13. A phylogenetic tree based on the 50-taxon dataset (1738 bp) was generated using RaxML RAxML 8.2.11 (Stamatakis, 2014) and visual fine-tuning. RaxML was used to analyze the dataset (one heuristic search) with maximum-likelihood (ML) using a general-time reversible (GTR) model of base substitutions that incorporated invariable sites and a discrete gamma distribution with eight rate categories. ML bootstrap analyses were conducted with the same settings described above (1000 pseudoreplicates; one heuristic search per pseudoreplicate). Bayesian analysis was conducted on the same dataset using MrBayes 3.2.6 (Huelsenbeck and Ronquist, 2001) under the GTR model with four rating categories. The chain heating coefficient (temp) was set to 0.2. The inference was conducted using four independent runs of four MCMC, and a consensus tree was built with a 50% burn-in after 10 million generations. Posterior probabilities reflect the frequency at which a specific node was present in the post burn-in trees. A pair-wise distance calculation based on Kimura's two-parameter model (Kimura, 1980) was performed on a subset of the alignment, using MEGA 11 (Tamura et al., 2021). Parameters for the calculation were set as follows: pairwise deletion, 10,000 bootstraps, substitutions with transitions and transversions, Gamma distribution and Gamma parameter 4.

2.5. Statistical Analysis

Prevalences of each gregarine species were calculated for every sampling date and overall for each month. Prevalence along with Clopper-Pearson 95% confidence intervals were reported. Host body weight was compared between specimens infected with a single gregarine species rather than concurrent infections. Results are presented in a box plot. Statistical analyses were conducted using Microsoft Excel and R version 4.2.2 (R Core Team, 2022). Significance was set at $p \le 0.05$.

2.6. ZooBank registration

This article was registered in the Official Register of Zoological Nomenclature (ZooBank) as: urn:lsid:zoobank.org:pub:191D15E2-AC54-4E45-B755-42BACA84E6E2.

3. Results

3.1. Morphological observations

Heliospora longissima trophozoites were long and thin with a clearly visible nucleus in the centre of the deutomerite. The deutomerite was long and thin with a short protomerite. The

trophozoites were on average 93 μ m (69–170 μ m, n = 100) long and 9 μ m (7–16 μ m, n = 100) wide (Fig. 1).

Cephaloidophora gammari trophozoites were observed to have a short and round deutomerite and protomerite, with the nucleus positioned off-centre towards the posterior end of the deutomerite (Fig. 2a). The trophozoite was found to be on average 48 μm (37–59 μm, n = 100) long and 29 μm (19–39 μm, n = 100) wide (Fig. 1). The epimerite contained an even distribution of surface pores with no distinct pattern visible in SEM micrographs (Fig. 2c). Gamonts pair up in caudo-frontal syzygy in which the anterior gregarine is called the primite and the posterior gregarine is called the satellite (Fig. 2b). There was no obvious pattern of the satellite being conspicuously smaller or bigger than the primite. SEM micrographs demonstrated that the protomerite and the deutomerite were continuously covered in epicytic folds. The density of folds were 5 folds/μm (Fig. 2e). Single trophozoites and two individuals in syzygy were capable of gliding movements. There was a visible junction between the primite and the satellite of associated gamonts. In the junction the folds of the primite and satellite showed an alternating pattern (Fig. 2d).

Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. was named due to its more cone shaped appearance compared to the other gregarine symbionts found in *G. pulex. Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. has a longer and thinner deutomerite compared to *C. gammari*, with a nucleus centrally located towards the protomerite. The protomerite was observed to be round and protrudes from the deutomerite at the septum (Fig. 3a). *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. trophozoites were measured at a length of around 72 μm (46–98 μm, n = 100) and a width of around 17 μm (12–22 μm, n = 100) (Fig. 1). The septum was clearly visible with light microscopy (LM; Fig. 3a–b). Gamonts pair up in caudo-frontal syzygy (Fig. 3b). SEM micrographs demonstrated that the protomerite and the deutomerite were continuously covered in epicytic folds with a slight indentation at the level of the septum. The density of folds was up to 5 folds/μm. Single trophozoites and two individuals in syzygy were capable of gliding movements.

3.2. Molecular phylogenetic analysis

Phylogenetic analyses of the 50-taxon dataset resulted in a strongly supported clade of cryptosporidians (outgroup), one strongly supported terrestrial gregarine clade, a second strongly supported terrestrial clade as sister group to the aquatic eugregarines, and a poorly supported backbone for the aquatic eugregarines and archigregarines (Fig. 4). Aquatic eugregarines formed a clade consisting of the genera *Pterospora*, *Lithocystis*, *Lankesteria*, and *Lecudina* found in polychaetes, tunicates, etc. The obtained sequences from *Cephaloidophora* and *Heliospora* formed a strongly supported clade within the aquatic eugregarines (Fig. 4) and sister group to *Porospora*. This clade consisted of eugregarines isolated from the intestines of marine and freshwater crustaceans (*Cephaloidophora*,

Heliospora, Thiriotia, and Ganymedes). They formed two sister clades, Cephaloidophora grouped with Thiriotia and Heliospora with Ganymedes. All gregarine sequences from crustaceans formed a weakly supported clade with Lecudina polymorpha (Fig. 4). Aquatic eugregarines formed a weekly supported clade with the archigregarines (Selenidium spp.). Trichotokara species branched directly off the archigregarine clade.

Sequence divergence in the crustacean clade made up of 10 sequences ranged from 0.3% to 33.5% (Table 1). The sequences of the *Cephaloidophora* species differed between 6.7% and 17.6% while the difference between the *Heliospora* sequences ranged from 0.3% to 6.6%.

3.3. Prevalence of infection

The numbers of collected *G. pulex* varied over the year, with the highest number of *G. pulex* being caught in May 2021 and June 2021 (with an average of 82 and 87, respectively) and the lowest number being caught in December 2020 and December 2021 (an average of 17 and 8, respectively).

Gregarines occurred in *G. pulex* across the sampling period with the highest prevalence increase in spring and autumn, reaching the value of 46% in November 2020, 45% in April 2021, and 45% in November 2021 (Fig. 5). The minimum share of infected *G. pulex* was recorded in July 2021 and August 2021 (17% and 19%, respectively). *Cephaloidophora gammari* and *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. showed similar infection patterns with a prevalence peak of 46% in November 2020 (Fig. 6). *Heliospora longissima* infection peaked during April 2021 with a prevalence of 45% (Fig. 6) opposite to the two *Cephaloidophora* species. *Cephaloidophora gammari* prevalence was lowest in April 2021, coinciding with the peak prevalence of *H. longissima* (Fig. 6). Concurrent infections had an overall prevalence of 19.5% throughout the entire sampling period. *Heliospora longissima* prevalence was lowest in the summer (July 2021) when mean host size was smallest (3.6 \pm 2 mg) (Fig. 7). Mean infected *G. pulex* wet weight was 11.7 \pm 2.3 mg. The mean weight of *G. pulex* with single species infections of the observed gregarines differed. *Gammarus pulex* infected with *H. longissima* weighed 20.5 \pm 0.9 mg (n = 100), with *C. gammari* 8.7 \pm 1.9 mg (n = 100), and with *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. 10.9 \pm 1.1 mg (n = 100) (Fig. 8).

4. Discussion

In this study we identified three gregarine species infecting *G. pulex* in the Water of Leith river, Scotland, UK. These were the previously described *Heliospora longissima* and *Cephaloidophora gammari*, plus the newly described *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. (ex. *Cephaloidophora* sp.)

The size of the trophozoites of *Heliospora longissima* in this study were smaller, but in the range of the measurements provided by Rueckert et al. (2011) and Goodrich (1949) (Table 2). Similarly, measurements of *Cephaloidophora gammari* in the current study agreed with that reported by Goodrich (1949). Initially Wróblewski et al. (2019) identified a

gregarine species found in G. pulex as Cephaloidophora sp. based solely on morphological characteristics. There was uncertainty whether these specimens represented a life stage of C. gammari or a distinct species. Morphologically it falls between C. oradareae and C. communis (Table 2). However, in the current study, the sequencing results have unequivocally established its taxonomic position, confirming it as a separate species, which we describe here as Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. Molecular phylogenetic analyses has shown that it belongs to the Cephaloidophora genus and it is closely related to Cephaloidophora gammari (Fig. 4). Sequence divergence between those two sequences was 6.7% (Table 1), supporting the establishment of a new species. Cephaloidophora oradareae and C. communis form a separate clade in the phyologenetic analyses. The designated species, Heliospora longissima HQ891115 (Fig. 4), was documented in two amphipod species (Eulimnogammarus verrucosus and Eulimnogammarus vittatus) taken from Lake Baikal, Russia (Rueckert et al., 2011). We encountered Heliospora longissima in the amphipod Gammarus pulex, taken from the Water of Leith river in Scotland, UK. Despite the different host species and sample locations, the genetic sequences derived from Heliospora longissima exhibited only a 0.3% difference (Table 1).

While some gregarines have been observed to be host-specific (Walsh and Olson, 1976; Patil et al., 1985; Wise et al., 2000), this is not the case for neither *H. longissima* nor *Cephaloidophora* spp. *Heliospora longissima* is a widespread gregarine species which has previously been described to infect *G. pulex* in France, Germany and Poland (Wróblewski et al., 2019). It has also been found to infect *Orchestia littorea* and *Caprella aequilibra* in France; *Gammarus roeselii* in Germany; *Gammarus balcanicus* in Romania, *Dikerogammarus villosus* in Poland (Bojko et al., 2019; Codreanu-Bălcescu 1996; Ovcharenko et al. 2009); and *Eulimnogammarus verrucosus* and *Eulimnogammarus vittatus* in Siberia, Russia (Rueckert et al., 2011). Members of the genus *Cephaloidophora* have been identified in a diverse range of hosts, including cirripedes, decapods, and amphipods. *Cephaloidophora gammari* infects freshwater gammaroids, particularly the amphipod *G. pulex*. This gregarine has been identified to infect *G. pulex* in several different countries, including the United Kingdom, France, Switzerland, Slovenia, Slovakia, Poland and in the South Baltic coastal stream (Narasimhamurti, 1964; Wróblewski et al. 2019).

A survey of G. pulex in the Water of Leith, Scotland revealed distinct patterns of infection with the three gregarine species (H. longissima, C. gammari and C. conus n. sp.). While the occurrence of H. longissima and C. gammari can vary significantly depending on factors such as the host species, geographic location, and environmental conditions, infections of these two species seem to have no discernible impact on the population size, as has been previously shown for the amphipod Gammarus fasciatus (Grunberg and Sukhdeo, 2017). Herein, the most significant surge in gregarine infections was evident during the spring and autumn seasons, reaching up to 46% in November (Fig. 5). Conversely, the lowest infection rates were recorded in July and August, standing at 17% and 19%, respectively. Wróblewski et al. (2019) also noted the highest prevalence increases for H. longissima, C. gammari and Cephaloidophora sp. (now C. conus) in G. pulex in early spring, with the lowest prevalence rates in July. Cephaloidophora gammari and C. conus n. sp. primarily infected G. pulex during November, while H. longissima showed a propensity to infect hosts in April (Fig. 6). These findings align with those of Grunberg and Sukhdeo (2017), who observed that C. gammari reaches its peak prevalence during the autumn months, while H. longissima peaks in the spring. Each of the gregarine species examined in our study

displayed an annual peak in prevalence followed by a noticeable decline. These seasonal infection patterns observed in our study may be attributed to the development of gametocysts, a process highly influenced by temperature and humidity levels. Notably, *C. gammari* exhibited its lowest prevalence in April, coinciding with the peak prevalence of *H. longissima* (Fig. 6). The prevalence of *H. longissima* correlated with the size of *G. pulex* (Fig 4). Its prevalence was lowest in the summer when mean *G. pulex* host size was the smallest $(3.6 \pm 2 \text{ mg})$ (Fig. 3, 4). Grunberg and Sukhdeo (2017) reported similar observations for the prevalence of *H. longissima*, which increased with the increasing size of the host *Gammarus fasciatus*. Grunberg and Sukhdeo (2017) suggested this could be due to the size and morphology of *H. longissima* oocysts which are larger than the oocysts of *C. gammari* at around 8 μ m in diameter, with additional ~10 μ m long ray-like processes extending from the cyst, while *C. gammari* oocysts are smaller at around 5 μ m with no processes (Goodrich, 1949).

Understanding the factors that influence gregarine occurrence and prevalence is important as they can significantly impact the health and behaviour of their hosts (Field and Michiels, 2006; Marden and Cobb, 2004). They can reduce the host's lifespan, lead to host mortality (Field and Michiels, 2006), or they may alter the host's behaviour in ways that benefit the symbiont e.g. infected insects that spend more time feeding, increase the chance of gregarine transmission to other hosts via the faecal-oral route (De Bekker et al., 2018). As *G. pulex* is an important invertebrate species in the food web and ecology of freshwater ecosystems, it is essential to understand how this freshwater shrimp is coping with possible infections/colonizations. In this study we are taking a step towards understanding the relationship of *G. pulex* with its gregarine species.

5. Conclusion

Future work should focus on studying if the three gregarine species have a significant impact on the health and/or behaviour of their hosts. Gregarines are also important from an ecological perspective (Bojko, et al., 2019), as they may play a role in regulating host populations by reducing the reproductive success of infected individuals or making them more vulnerable to other predators or environmental stressors (Marden and Cobb, 2004). Do gregarine infections of *G. pulex* make the host generally more vulnerable to predators or environmental stressors? Understanding the factors that influence infection/colonization patterns could help to guide general management efforts aimed at protecting freshwater ecosystems.

Taxonomic summary

Superphylum: Alveolata Cavalier-Smith, 1991

Phylum: Apicomplexa Levine, 1980, emend. Adl et al., 2005

Class: Conoidasida Levine, 1988

Subclass: Gregarinasina Dufour, 1828

Order: Eugregarinorida Léger, 1900

Family: Cephaloidophoridae Kamm, 1922

Cephaloidophora conus n. sp. McKinley, Tsaousis and Rueckert 2024.

Description: Deutomerites in *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. are elongated and slender compared to those in *Cephaloidophora gammari*, featuring a centrally located nucleus toward the protomerite. The protomerite exhibits a rounded shape, extending outward from the deutomerite at the septum. Trophozoites of *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. were measured at 72 μm in length (with a range of 46 – 98 μm, n = 100) and 17 μm in width (with a range of 12–22 μm, n = 100). The septum was clearly discernible under light microscopy. Gamonts form pairs in caudo-frontal syzygy. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images revealed that both the protomerite and deutomerite were consistently covered in epicytic folds, displaying a slight indentation at the septum level. The density of folds reached up to 5 folds/μm. Individual trophozoites and paired individuals in syzygy exhibited gliding movements.

DNA sequence: Small subunit rDNA (Genbank Accession number: PP326845).

Type locality: Water of Leith, Scotland (55°89'60.1"N, -3°30'77.9"W)

Type host: Gammarus pulex (Linnaeus, 1758) (Ampipoda: Gammaridae).

Site of infection: Intestine.

Holotype: The name-bearing type of this species is the specimen illustrated in Fig. 3a (ICZN, 1999, Articles 73.1.4).

LSID: urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:DECF2747-4238-45CA-AAAD-048A17E82199

Etymology: The species name *conus* refers to the cone shaped morphology of this species in comparison to the other gregarine species known to parasitize the host *Gammarus pulex*.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Kevin McKinley: Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing - original draft. Anastasios D. Tsaousis: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing. Sonja Rückert: Conceptualization, Funding acquisition, Supervision, Writing - review & editing.

Competing interests

The authors have no competing interests to declare.

Acknowledgements

KM would like to thank Monika Wiśniewska for advice on the molecular analysis and KM, AT and SR would like to thank Martin Kolisko for help with the trancriptome dataset. Both are based at the Institute of Parasitology, Biology Centre, Czech Academy of Sciences, Ceske Budejovice, Czech Republic.

Funding

This work was supported by the Gordon and Betty Moore Foundation (project number: GBMF9327, https://doi.org/10.37807/GBMF9327).

Data availability

Data will be made available on request.

References

Adamo, S.A., 2013. Parasites: evolution's neurobiologists. J. Exp. Biol. 216 (1), 3–10.

Bass, D., Stentiford, G.D., Littlewood, D.T.J., Hartikainen, H., 2015. Diverse Applications of Environmental DNA Methods in Parasitology, Trends Parasitol. 31 (10), 499–513.

Bojko, J., Stentiford, G.D., Stebbing, P.D., Hassall, C., Deacon, A., Cargill, B., Pile, B., Dunn, A.M., 2019. Pathogens of *Dikerogammarus haemobaphes* regulate host activity and survival, but also threaten native amphipod populations in the UK. Dis. of Aquat. Org. 136(1), 63–78.

Cheshmedjiev, S., Soufi, R., Vidinova, Y., Tyufekchieva, V., Yaneva, I., Uzunov, Y. Varadinova, E., 2011. Multi-habitat sampling method for benthic macroinvertebrate communities in different river types in Bulgaria. Water Res. and Manag. 1 (3), 55–58.

Codreanu-Bălcescu, D., 1996. Sur les grégarines (Protozoa, Sporozoa) parasites chez *Rivulogammarus* (Crust., Amph.) des ruisseaux de montagne en Roumanie. [On the gregarines (Protozoa, Sporozoa) parasites in *Rivulogammarus* (Crust., Amph.) of mountain streams in Romania]. Rev. Roumaine de Biol., Sér. Biol. Anim. 41, 7–15.

De Bekker, C., Will, I., Das, B., Adams, R.M., 2018. The ants (Hymenoptera: Formicidae) and their parasites: effects of parasitic manipulations and host responses on ant behavioral ecology. Myrmecol. News 28, 1–2.

Diakin, A., Paskerova, G.G., Simdyanov, T.G., Aleoshin, V.V., Valigurová, A., 2016. Morphology and molecular phylogeny of coelomic gregarines (Apicomplexa) with different types of motility: *Urospora ovalis* and *U. travisiae* from the polychaete *Travisia forbesii*. Protist 167 (3), 279–301.

Esteban, G.F., Finlay, B.J., Warren, A., 2015. Chapter 7 - Free-Living Protozoa. In: Thorp, J.H., Rogers, D.C. (Eds.), Thorp and Covich's Freshwater Invertebrates (Fourth Edition), Academic Press, pp. 113–132.

Field, S.G., Michiels, N.K., 2006. Does the acephaline gregarine *Monocystis* sp. modify the surface behaviour of its earthworm host *Lumbricus terrestris*?, Soil Biol. Biochem. 38 (6), 1334–1339.

Frolova, E., Paskerova, G., Smirnov, A., Nassonova, E., 2021. Molecular phylogeny and new light microscopic data of *Metchnikovella spiralis* (Microsporidia: Metchnikovellidae), a hyperparasite of eugregaine *Polyrhabdina* sp. from the polychaete *Pygospio elegans*. Parasitology 148 (7), 779–786.

Grabner, D., Sures,. B., 2019. Amphipod parasites may bias results of ecotoxicological research. Dis. Aquat. Org. 136, 121–132.

Goodrich, H.P., 1949. *Heliospora* n.g. and *Rotundula* n.g., gregarines of *Gammarus pulex*. Q. J. Microsc. Sci. 90 (1), 27–35.

Grunberg, R.L., Sukhdeo, M.V., 2017. Temporal community structure in two gregarines (*Rotundula gammari* and *Heliospora longissima*) co-infecting the amphipod *Gammarus fasciatus*. J. Parasitol. 103 (1), 6–13. doi: 10.1645/16-47.

Harlıoğlu, M.M., Farhadi, A., 2018. Importance of *Gammarus* in aquaculture. Aquacult. Int. 26, 1327–1338.

Huelsenbeck, J.P., Ronquist, F., 2001. MRBAYES: Bayesian inference of phylogenetic trees. Bioinformatics 17 (8), 754–755. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/17.8.754.

Ilvonen, J.J., Kaunisto, K.M., Suhonen, J., 2018. Odonates, gregarines and water mites: why are the same host species infected by both parasites? Ecol. Entomol. 43 (5), 591–600.

Kamiya, T., O'Dwyer, K., Nakagawa, S., Poulin, R., 2014. What determines species richness of parasitic organisms? A meta-analysis across animal, plant and fungal hosts. Biol. Rev. 89, 123–134.

Katoh, K., Standley, D.M. 2013. MAFFT multiple sequence alignment software version 7: improvements in performance and usability. Mol. Biol. Evol. 30 (4), 772–780. doi: 10.1093/molbev/mst010.

Katoh, K., Misawa, K., Kuma, K., Miyata, T., 2002. MAFFT: a novel method for rapid multiple sequence alignment based on fast Fourier transform. Nucleic Acids Res. 30 (14), 3059–3066. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkf436.

Kimura, M., 1980. A simple method for estimating evolutionary rates of base substitutions through comparative studies of nucleotide sequences. J. Mol. Evol. 16, 111–120.

Köprücü, K., Özdemir, Y., 2005. Apparent digestibility of selected feed ingredients for Nile tilapia (*Oreochromis niloticus*). Aquaculture 250, 308–316.

Macneil, C., Dick, J.T, Elwood, R.W., 1999. The dynamics of predation on *Gammarus* spp. (Crustacea: Amphipoda). Biol. Rev. 74, 375–395.

Marden, J.H., Cobb, J.R., 2004. Territorial and mating success of dragonflies that vary in muscle power output and presence of gregarine gut parasites. Animal Behav. 68 (4), 857–865.

Medina-Durán, J.H., Mayén-Estrada, R., Mariño-Pérez, R., Song, H., 2020. Morphology and phylogenetic position of two new gregarine species (Apicomplexa: Eugregarinorida) parasitizing the Lubber Grasshopper *Taeniopoda centurio* (Drury, 1770) (Insecta: Orthoptera: Romaleidae) in Mexico. J. Eukaryot. Microbiol. 67, 4–17.

Mitchell, P.D., 2015. Chapter Ten - Human parasites in medieval Europe: Lifestyle, sanitation and medical treatment. In: De Baets, K., Littlewood, D.T.J, (Eds.), Fossil Parasites. Adv. Parasitol. 90, pp. 389–420.

Narasimhamurti, C., 1964. Observations on the gregarine *Rotundula gammari* (Diesing, 1859), Goodrich 1949. Parasitology 54 (1), 195–199.

Ovcharenko, M., Codreanu-Balcescu, D., Grabowski, M., Konopacka, A., Wita, I., Czaplinska, U., 2009. Gregarines (Apicomplexa) and microsporidians (Microsporidia) of native and invasive gammarids (Amphipoda, Gammaroidea), occurring in Poland. Wiad. Parazytol. 55 (2), 237–247.

Palmia, B., Bartoli, M., Laini, A., Bolpagni, R., Ferrari, C., Viaroli, P., 2019. Effects of drying and re-wetting on litter decomposition and nutrient recycling: a manipulative experiment. Water 11 (4), 708.

Patil, C.C., Amoji, S.D., Neelgund, Y.F., 1985. Studies on cross infection of cephaline gregarines of tenebrionid insects. Arch. Protistenk. 129, 179–182.

R Core Team, 2022. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. R Foundation

for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. https://www.R-project.org/ (accessed 30 November 2023)

Rueckert, S., Simdyanov, T.G., Aleoshin, V.V., Leander, B.S., 2011. Identification of a divergent environmental DNA sequence clade using the phylogeny of gregarine parasites (Apicomplexa) from crustacean hosts. PLOS ONE 6 (3), e18163. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0018163

Rueckert, S., Wakeman, K.C., Jenke-Kodama, H., Leander, B.S., 2015. Molecular systematics of marine gregarine apicomplexans from Pacific tunicates, with descriptions of five novel species of *Lankesteria*. Int. J. Syst. Evol. Microbiol. 65 (8), 2598–2614.

Rueckert, S., Betts, E.L., Tsaousis, A.D., 2019. The symbiotic spectrum: Where do the gregarines fit? Trends Parasitol. 35 (9), 687–694.

Rufchaei, R., Hoseinifar, S.H., Mirzajani, A., Van Doan, H., 2017. Dietary administration of *Pontogammarus maeoticus* extract affects immune responses, stress resistance, feed intake and growth performance of Caspian roach (*Rutilus caspicus*) fingerlings. Fish Shellfish Immunol. 63, 196–200.

Rynkiewicz, E.C., Pedersen, A.B., Fenton, A., 2015. An ecosystem approach to understanding and managing within- host parasite community dynamics. Trends Parasitol. 31, 212–221.

Schall, J.J., 2021. *Stomatocystis goerresi*, a new species of gregarine parasite (Apicomplexa, Monocystidae) from the invasive Japanese earthworm *Amynthas tokioensis* (Megascolecidae), with a description of the parasite's life cycle. Folia Parasitol. 68, 1–7.

Simdyanov, T.G., Diakin, A.Y., Aleoshin, V.V., 2015. Ultrastructure and 28S rDNA phylogeny of two gregarines: *Cephaloidophora* cf. *communis* and *Heliospora* cf. *longissima* with remarks on gregarine morphology and phylogenetic analysis. Acta Protozool. 54 (3), 241–262.

Simdyanov, T.G., Guillou, L., Diakin, A.Y., Mikhailov, K.V., Schrével, J., Aleoshin, V.V., 2017. 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). PeerJ 5, e3354. https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj.3354.

Sokolova, Y.Y., Paskerova, G.G., Rotari, Y.M., Nassonova, E.S. and Smirnov, A.V., 2013. Fine structure of *Metchnikovella incurvata* Caullery and Mesnil 1914 (microsporidia), a hyperparasite of gregarines *Polyrhabdina* sp. from the polychaete *Pygospio elegans*. Parasitology, 140 (7), 855–867.

Sorcetti, C.C., Di Giovanni, M.V., 1984. Gregarines (Protozoa-Sporozoa) in Italian freshwater arthropods. A preliminary contribution. Boll. Zool., 51 (3–4), 313–327.

Stamatakis, A., 2014. RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and post-analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics 30 (9), 1312–1313. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btu033.

Tamura, K., Stecher, G., Kumar, S., 2021. MEGA11: Molecular Evolutionary Genetics Analysis Version 11. Mol. Biol. Evol. 38 (7), 3022–3027. doi: 10.1093/molbev/msab120.

Venter, P.C., Nitsche, F., Domonell, A., Heger, P., Arndt, H., 2017. The protistan microbiome of grassland soil: Diversity in the mesoscale. Protist 168 (5), 546–564.

Valigurová, A., Florent, I., 2021. Nutrient acquisition and attachment strategies in basal lineages: A tough nut to crack in the evolutionary puzzle of Apicomplexa. Microorganisms 9 (7), 1430.

Vigneron, A., Geffard, O., Coquery, M., François, A., Quéau, H., Chaumot, A., 2015. Evolution of cadmium tolerance and associated costs in a *Gammarus fossarum* population inhabiting a low-level contaminated stream. Ecotoxicology 24, 1239–1249.

Wakeman, K.C., Heintzelman, M.B., Leander, B.S., 2014. Comparative ultrastructure and molecular phylogeny of *Selenidium melongena* n. sp. and *S. terebellae* Ray 1930 demonstrate niche partitioning in marine gregarine parasites (Apicomplexa). Protist 165 (4), 493–511.

Walsh, R.D., Olson, J.K., 1976. Observations on the susceptibility of certain culicine mosquito species to infection by *Lankesteria culicis* (Ross). Mosquito News 36, 154–160.

Wise, M.R., Janovy, J., Wise, J.C., 2000. Host specificity in *Metamera sillasenorum*, n. sp, a gregarine parasite of the leech *Helobdella triserialis* with notes on transmission dynamics. J. Parasitol. 86, 602–606.

Wróblewski, P., Ovcharenko, M., Eichenlaub, J., Yuryshynets, V., 2019. Seasonality of microsporidian and gregarine parasitism in *Gammarus pulex* (Crustacea: Amphipoda) inhabiting the tributary of the Słupia river. Baltic Coastal Zone 23, 37–42.

Zamboni, D.S., Lima-Junior, D.S., 2015. Inflammasomes in host response to protozoan parasites. Immunol. Rev. 265, 156–171.

Tables

Table 1. Kimura-2-parameter genetic distance table in %. Newly generated sequences are marked in bold.

Table 2. Comparison of morphological characteristics observed in gregarine species infecting *Gammarus* and closely related species.

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Average length (A) and width (B) (μ m) of gregarine species collected in the current study based on a sample population size of 100 individuals per species. Length is measured from the end of deutomerite to the tip of the protomerite. Width is measured across the centre of the deutomerite.

Fig. 2. Light micrographs and scanning electron micrographs (SEM) showing the general morphology and surface ultrastructure of the gregarine *Cephaloidophora gammari*. A. Trophozoite showing the cell organization of the gregarine. The cell is divided by a septum (S) into the protomerite (PM) with the epimerite (E) at the anterior end and the deutomerite (D) with the spherical nucleus (N). B. An association of two gregarines paired up in caudo-frontal syzygy. The anterior trophozoite is the primite (PR), while the posterior

trophozoite is the satellite (SA). C. Higher magnification SEM of the anterior end of a trophozoite with the epimerite free of epicytic folds. There is a visible separation between the protomerite with folds and the epimerite without folds. Surface pores (P) are distributed across the epimerite. D. Higher magnification SEM of the junction between primite and satellite. E. High magnification SEM of the epicytic folds. Scale bars: Figs. 1A–B = 15 μ m; Fig. 1C–D = 1 μ m; Fig. 1E = 500 nm.

- **Fig. 3.** Light micrographs and scanning electron micrographs (SEM) showing the general morphology and surface ultrastructure of the gregarine *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. A. Trophozoite showing the cell organization of the gregarine. The cell is divided by a septum (S) into the protomerite (PM) with the epimerite (E) at the anterior end and the deutomerite (D) with the spherical nucleus (N). B. An association of two gregarines paired up in caudo-frontal syzygy. The anterior trophozoite is the primite (PR), while the posterior trophozoite is the satellite (SA). C. Higher magnification SEM of the anterior end of a trophozoite with the epimerite. There is a visible junction between the protomerite and the epimerite.. D. Higher magnification SEM of the posterior end of the trophozoite. Pore visible (P) E. High magnification SEM of the epicytic folds. The density of the folds is up to 5 folds/μm. Pores visible (P). Scale bars: Figs. 3A–B = 10 μm; Fig. 3C–D = 1 μm; Fig. 3E = 250 nm
- **Fig. 4.** Maximum likelihood (ML) tree of apicomplexans inferred using the GTR model of substitution on an alignment of 50 small subunit (SSU) rDNA sequences (1738 bp), four rate categories. Numbers at the branches denote bootstrap percentage (top) and Bayesian posterior probabilities (bottom). Black dots on branches denote Bayesian posterior probabilities and bootstrap percentages of 90% or higher. Bootstrap values lower than 50/0.5 are not shown.
- **Fig. 5.** Seasonal difference in average percent of infected and uninfected *Gammarus pulex* collected during 2hr sampling trips in the Water of Leith river in Scotland. Error bars represent Clopper-Pearson 95% confidence interval.
- **Fig. 6.** Prevalence of gregarine infections in the amphipod *Gammarus pulex* over the sampling period in the Water of Leith. Error bars represent Clopper-Pearson 95% confidence interval.
- **Fig. 7.** Average infected *Gammarus pulex* body weight (mg) collected in each sampling trip across the 1-year sampling period. Error bars represent Clopper-Pearson 95% confidence interval.

Fig. 8. Differences in *Gammarus pulex* body weight (mg) when infected with only one of the three gregarine species *H. longissima, C. gammari*, or *C. conus* n. sp. (100 infected *Gammarus* measured for each gregarine species).

Highlights

- We identified three septate gregarine apicomplexans in the host species *Gammarus* pulex.
- In addition to *Heliospora longissimi* and *Cephaloidophora gammari*, we newly characterized *Cephaloidophora conus* n. sp. (formerly *Cephaloidophora* sp.).
- Seasonal dynamics of gregarine infections/colonization and their potential impact on the *G. pulex* population in the Water of Leith river, located in Scotland, UK are described.

Sequence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. <i>C. communis</i> (HQ891113)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
2. <i>C. conus</i> n. sp. (PP326845)	17.6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-		-
3. <i>C. oradareae</i> (MG009200)	12.2	11	-	-	-	-	-			_
4. <i>C. gammari</i> (PP326846)	17.3	6.7	10.9	-	-	-	(-	-	-	-
5. <i>Ganymedes</i> sp. (FJ976721)	21.8	24.3	18.8	24.4	- \	0	-	-	-	-
6. <i>H. caprellae</i> (HQ876007)	20.1	18.7	15.3	19	17	-	-	-	-	-
7. <i>H. longissima</i> (PP656908)	21.6	14.8	14.7	15.7	14.6	6.6	-	-	-	-
8. <i>H. longissima</i> (HQ891115)	19.3	19.2	14.9	19.4	16.4	6.1	0.3	-	-	-
9. <i>T. pugettiae</i> (HQ876006)	27	28.4	24.2	28.5	25.4	24.4	33.3	24.1	-	-
10. <i>G. vurii</i> (KU726617)	30.5	32.9	27.7	33.5	25.4	27.7	28.4	26.7	30.7	-

Heliospora Iongissima	Cephaloido phora gammari	Cephaloido phora communis	Cephaloido phora oradareae	Cephaloido phora conus

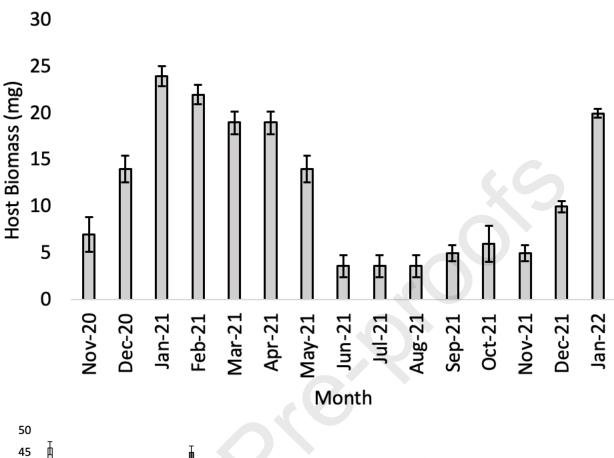
Host	Gammarus pulex,	Gammarus pulex,	Balanus amphitrite,	<i>Oradarea</i> sp.	Gammarus pulex
	Orchestia littorea,	Gammarus fasciatus	Balanus eburneus,		
	Gammarus roeselii,		Balanus crenatus,		
	Gammarus fasciatus,		Balanus glandula,		
	Gammarus balcanicus,		Balanus cariosus,		
	Eulimnogammarus verrucosus,		Balanus improvisus		
	Eulimnogammarus vittatus,				
	Caprella aequilibra,				
	Dikerogammarus villosus				
Cell	trophozoites long and slender, epimerite showed prominent collar-like margin under SEM, protomerite short and rounded, septum clearly visible under LM and SEM, deutomerite long and slender	short and round deutomerit e and protomerite	cylindrical in shape, epimerite rudimental and rounded, deutomerit e longer than protomerite , septum clearly	cylindrical and rigid, protomerite and deutomerit e were divided by a distinct septum	longer and thinner deutomerit e than <i>C. gammari</i> , protomerite round and protrudes from the deutomerit e at the septum, septum clearly

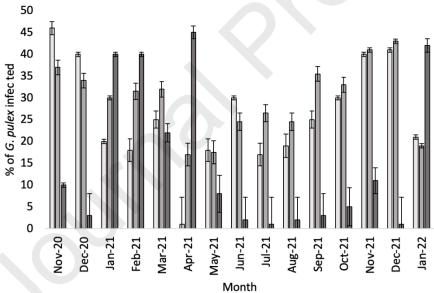
visible	
under	LM

visible under LM

Length	93 μm (69 – 170 μm, n = 100) ¹	48 μm (37 – 59 μm, n = 100) ¹	46.7 μm (24.3 – 80 μm, n = 24) ²	40 μm (34 – 48 μm, n = 20) ³	72 μm (46 – 98 μm, n = 100) ¹
	154 μm (57.9 – 273 μm, n = 16) ²) `
Width	9 μm (7 – 16 μm, n = 100) ¹	29 μm (19 – 39 μm, n = 100) ¹	17.8 μm (8.3 – 33 μm, n = 24) ²	13 μm (11 – 15 μm, n = 20) ³	17 μm (12 – 22 μm, n =100) ¹
	17 μm (9.6 –25 μm, n = 16) ²	0			
Longitu dinal folds	3 folds/micron	5 folds/micro n	6 folds/micro n	4 folds/micro n	5 folds/micro n

¹Current study, ²Rueckert et al., (2011), ³Wakeman et al., (2018)





□ Cephaloidophora gammari □ Cephaloidophora conus ■ Heliospora longissima

