Multiple losses of ecdysone receptor genes in nematodes: an alternative evolutionary

scenario of molting regulation

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Abstract

Molting is a hallmark feature of ecdysozoans, including arthropods, tardigrades, and nematodes.

Ecdysone hormones play a crucial role in regulating the molting process of different

ecdysozoan taxa. Interestingly, despite this highly conserved function of ecdysone, the model

nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* has lost the ecdysone receptor (ECR) genes and their

molting appears to be ecdysone-independent. The loss of *ecr* has only been reported in

Caenorhabditis within ecdysozoans, and the evolutionary background behind this loss has

remained enigmatic. Here, we show that loss of *ecr* is not exceptional in *Caenorhabditis*, but

has occurred at least three times in Rhabditina and Tylenchina nematodes. Our genome-wide

analysis of 160 nematode species revealed the multiple losses of *ecr* and its typical heterodimer

partner *usp* during nematode evolution. Furthermore, using genomic and transcriptomic

analyses, we identified two factors that likely underlie and buffer the loss of ECR

gene/function: molting regulation by an alternative nuclear receptor HR3 (NHR-23) and a

lineage-specific expansion of nuclear receptors in the *ecr*-deficient taxa. Taken together, it is

suggested that ecdysone/ECR function in nematodes is only minor or redundant. We propose

a novel scenario for the evolution of molting regulation, highlighting the importance of HR3

as the potential core regulator.

Introduction

Ecdysone hormone is a key regulator governing various developmental processes, such as molting and reproduction, in Ecdysozoa including arthropods, tardigrades, and nematodes[1-5]. Interestingly, however, the model nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* is known to lack any genes coding the ecdysone hormone receptor (ECR)[6,7], which is so far the only reported case among ecdysozoans (see also Fig. S1). Molting of *C. elegans* must be therefore independent of ecdysone along with loss of *ecr*[8], and this contrasts with the involvement of ecdysone/ECR in the molting regulation of some parasitic nematodes[3-5]. The loss of *ecr in C. elegans* also seems to contradict the conserved stereotypic molting in nematodes, in which all species consistently molt four times regardless of the divergence in the life cycles[9]. Thus, it is generally considered that the loss of *ecr* in *C. elegans* is an extremely specific and rare event[7], and elucidating the evolutionary background of *ecr* loss has been a long-standing challenge.

Result and Discussion

Motivated by the insufficient exploration of the specificity of *ecr* loss within a phylogenetic framework, we first searched for *ecr* genes in 160 nematode species including major nematode taxa (Fig. 1A, 159 genomic and 1 transcriptomic data, see also the methods). Our search identified *ecr* genes from all major nematode taxa, including the sister group of all remining nematodes, Enoplida (Fig. 1A). Nevertheless, not only in *C. elegans*, but in all *Caenorhabditis* species examined, *ecr* was not found (Fig. 1A). Considering that *ecr* is present in all other Rhabditina species (Fig. 1A), the loss of *ecr* is specific to the *Caenorhabditis* lineage. Unexpectedly, *ecr* is also absent in 26 of 41 Tylenchina species examined (Fig. 1A). Based on the currently supported phylogeny[10,11], the loss of *ecr* is indicated as occurring twice in Tylenchina (Fig. 1A). Together, the loss of *ecr* occured at least three times during nematode evolution.

C. elegans* is also known to lack the gene encoding USP[7], a typical heterodimer partner of ECR. Our gene mining revealed that *usp* is also absent in several lineages of Rhabditina and Tylenchina (Fig. 1A). Especially, the loss of *usp* is detected not only in the species lacking *ecr* but more broadly observed as no *usp* was identified in some Rhabditina species having *ecr* (ex., Strongylida: Fig. 1A). The loss of *usp* also precedes the loss of *ecr* in Tylenchina as only Steinernematidae have both *ecr* and *usp* (Fig. 1A). The correlation of the loss of *ecr* and *usp* suggests that the ECR-USP functionality has been lost several times in nematodes. It should

also be noted that a correlation of *ecr* and *usp* losses with specific lifestyle/habitat is not

detected (Fig. 1A).

Given that the ecdysone hormone is reportedly involved in the regulation of molting in

some nematodes such as Spirurina parasitic nematodes[3-5], it is likely that the function of

ecdysone as a molting trigger is specifically lost in Rhabditina and Tylenchina. To test this

hypothesis, we examined the temporal expression of *ecr* during the molting cycles of four

representative nematode species (Fig. 1C, D, F, and G, Rhabditina: *Pristionchus pacificus*,

Ancylostoma ceylanicum, Spirurina: *Brugia malayi*, and Trichinellida: *Trichuris suis*), for

which transcriptome data during the molting cycle are publicly available (see methods). In *T.*

suis, *ecr* expression showed a sharp peak pattern before L3-L4 and L4-adult molting (Fig. 1G).

Similar (but more moderate) peaked expression was observed in L3-L4 molting of *B. malayi*

(Fig. 1F), and these expression patterns are consistent with the molting trigger function of

ecdysone/ECR. On the other hand, although a pulsed expression of *ecr* was detected in L2-L3

and L3-L4 molting of *P. pacificus*, the expression peaks did not precede a start of molting but

showed at the same time (or later) as ecdysis, a final step of molting (Fig. 1D, see also the

method and Fig. S3). Furthermore, the expression of *ecr* in *A. ceylanisum* which lacks *usp* was

comparatively minorly increased during L3-L4 molting (Fig. 1C). In summary, it is suggested

that the molting trigger function of ECR is lost in a stepwise manner in parallel with the loss

of *ecr* and *usp*.

Regardless of the divergent molting function of ECR, nematodes consistently molt four

times in all nematodes[9], suggesting the presence of other key regulators. In this context, the

nuclear receptor HR3 (NHR-23 or ROR) is interesting because it plays a critical role in the

molting regulation in *C. elegans*[8]. Indeed, our survey revealed that HR3 is highly conserved

across nematode lineages (Fig. 1A). We then examined the expression pattern of *hr3* during the

molting cycle in six species (Fig. 1B–G, the above four species, *ecr*-lacking Rhabditina *C.*

elegans, and *ecr*-lacking Tylenchina *Globodera pallida*). Notably, pulsed expression of *hr3*

prior to molting was observed in all six species (Fig. 1B–G). For example, *hr3* expression

shows a peaked pattern prior to molting in *A. ceylanisum* which does not show peaked *ecr*

expression, and *G. pallida* which lacks *ecr* (Fig. 1C, E, respectively). We also systematically

screened and compared the transcriptome data of the six species using fuzzy c-mean clustering

and OrthoFinder (see Methods, Fig. S4); conservation of such peaked expression among six

species was not found in any other NRs. This supports that HR3 has an evolutionarily

conserved function in the regulation of molting in nematodes, which likely allows to buffer

multiple losses of the *ecr* gene and its function.

Since pleiotropic functions of the ecdysone hormone are suggested in nematodes (i.e.,

reproduction)[3], different genes may also take over the ECR function (which may include

molting trigger) in *ecr*-lacking species. In this context, it is interesting that Rhabditina and

Tylenchina species extensively expanded nuclear receptor (NR) genes (HNF4-subtype)[12].

Plotting the number of NRs in the phylogenetic tree shows an evolutionary tendency to increase

NR number (Fig. 1A). We then extracted orthogroups (OGs) of NRs from represented 11

species (1–3 species from each Rhabditina, Tylenchina, Spirurina, Trichinellida, and Enoplida:

Fig. 1A, H). This analysis showed that the common ancestor of nematodes has 12 OGs, and

NRs increased to 34 OGs in the ancestor of Rhabditida (Figs 1H, S5:

Spirurina/Rhabditina/Tylenchina). Finally, the ancestor of Rhabditina/Tylenchina acquired

additional 22 OGs (total 56 OGs), and Rhabditina and Tylenchina ancestrally had 136 and 75

OGs, respectively (Figs 1H, S5). Some nematodes such as *Plectus sambesii* also independently

increased NRs (Fig. 1A), while *ecr* is not missing. Thus, although expansions of NRs did not

strictly correlate with the loss of *ecr* in some lineages, it is plausible that Rhabditina and

Tylenchina are unique to have abundant "resource" to take over ECR function (this may also

underlie the loss of the USP gene/function).

We propose that the loss of ECR genes/functions multiply occurred in Rhabditina and

Tylenchina buffered by conserved HR3 molting regulatory function and lineage-specific

expanded NRs (Fig. 1I). This opens the hypothesis of a dominant role for HR3 as an ancestral

and conserved molting regulator in nematodes and possibly even ecdysozoans (note that HR3

is also a core molting regulator in arthropods[2] and putatively in tardigrades[1]). Considering that

HR3 orthologues ROR and NHR-23 are known to be involved in regulation of circadian clocks

among bilaterians[13,14], the ancestry of HR3 shows a correlation with the origin of molting

regulation, which control biological and developmental time. Finally, our results provide the

possible use of HR3 regulation of molting for medical applications and pest control, in plant-

parasitic and some human-parasitic nematodes, which have lost ECR (Fig. 1A:

Tylenchomorpha and Strongylida, respectively).

Fig. 1: Summary of gene identifications, expression analysis, and putative evolutionary scenario

A: Lifestyle (P: parasite and F: free-living), habitat, gene repertories (*ecr*, *usp*, and *hr3*), and number of nuclear receptors (NRs) are indicated with the phylogeny of the target nematode species (color represents the taxa [Fig. S2], question marks represent missing information, see the Methods). Abbreviation: Storngy-/Strongyloididae, Alloi-/Alloionematidae, and Stein-: Steinernematidae. The nodes of ECR and USP loss events are highlighted in the tree. **B**–**G**: Temporal expression pattern of *ecr* (blue) and *hr3* (red) in the six nematode species. The timing of molting (or ecdysis) is indicated by the dotted lines in each panel (L1–L4: first to fourth larval stages and A: juveniles/adults). **H**: Estimated number of orthogroups (OGs) of NRs at each node of the represented nematode taxa. The numbers in the brackets indicate the number of NRs gained or lost at the node. **I**: Hypothetical evolution of molting regulation (top: ECR-lacking group [ex. *Caenorhabditis*], middle: the group showing no ECR function in molting trigger [ex. *Ancylostoma*], bottom: the group having ECR and USP [ex. *Trichuris*]). HR3 may function as a "core" regulator of molting (squared) in all groups, and ECR/HR3 may ancestrally co-function to regulate molting and other functions. After expansion of NRs (NR++), ECR function may be taken over by other NRs in a stepwise manner (gray arrows), resulting in loss of ECR.

 Supplementary figures

142 **Fig. S1. Presence of *ecr*, *usp,* and *hr3* in ecdysozoans**

143 Phylogeny of Panarthropoda, Nematoida, and Scalidophora is based on Howard et al., 2022[15].

144 The presence of *ecr*, *usp*, and *hr3* was indicated in the boxes next to each species name. Gene

145 identification was referred to the previous annotation and this study (see Methods)[6,16].

- Araeolaimida
- Chromadorida
- Desmodorida
- Dioctophymatida
- Dorylaimida
- Enoplida
- Mermithida
- Monhysterida
- Plectida
- Rhabditina
- Spirurina
- Trichinellida
- Tylenchina

156   **Fig. S2. Representative taxonomic color in Fig. 1**

157   Each color represents the nematode taxa which were used in Fig. 1A.

Fig. S3. Comparison of original and corrected expression pattern of *ecr* and *hr3* in *P. pacificus*

A: Original expression profiles of *ecr* (blue) and *hr3* (red) from Sun et al., 2021[17]. B: corrected expression profiles of *ecr* and *hr3* by calculating the average expression levels (TPM) between the three time point windows from Sun *et al.*, 2021 (see Methods)[17].

Fig. S4. RNA-seq clustering of *A. ceylanisum*, *G. pallida*, *B. Malayi*, and *T. suis*

A-D: Fuzzy c-mean clustering of each transcriptome data set (*A. ceylanisum*, *G. pallida*, *B. Malayi*, and *T. suis*, respectively). Green shades indicate the clusters showing correlated expression with molting cycle.

Fig. 5. Venn diagram of orthogroups of nuclear receptors in the representative
nematode groups

Rha: Rhabditina, Tyl: Tylenchina, Spi: Spirurina, Eno_Tri: Enoplida and Trichinellida.

Supplementary dataset

Maximum-likelihood phylogenic trees for the identification of ECR, USP, and HR3

Sequences of the genes identified

Sequences of the genes which were used for the phylogenic analysis

Sequences of NRs

The list of the genes and their accession numbers

OrthoFinder output file/folder (NRs / clustering)

Results of clustering

Scripts for the analysis and visualization

Methods

Data collection and target species

We obtained protein sequences of 159 nematode species from WormBase Parasite (version: WBPS19, WS291)[18]. These sequences/protein models were reconstructed from the genomic data. All accession numbers of the original dataset are available in the supplementary dataset. In this study, the gene ID was referenced to the original dataset, while also incorporating some modifications. For example, species identifiers were added to the beginning of the gene ID (i.e. *GeneID → NEMA_CaenoElega_GeneID*). Some characters, such as curly brackets, were also removed for later analysis. In addition, the transcriptome data of the Enoplida nematode *Pontonema vulgare* was obtained from NCBI (accession number: PRJNA504396). Quality of raw reads were examined using FastQC (version: v0.11.9; https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/). The subsequent filtering was performed using trimmomatic (version: 0.39)[19], and *de novo* assembly was conducted using Trinity (version: v2.13.2)[20]. Transdecoder (version: 5.5.0; https://github.com/TransDecoder/TransDecoder) was used to obtain the peptide sequences of *P. vulgare* transcript models. The assembled sequences are available in the supplementary dataset. Phylogenic relationship of the target species was referred from previous works[10,11].

Gene identification

Screening

Gene mining of *ecr*, *usp,* and *hr3* was conducted based on the sequence similarity by combination of BLAST search and phylogenetic analysis with the following screening. All sequences and phylogenetic trees are available in the supplementary datasets.

We first performed a BLAST search using the query sequences of ECR, USP, and HR3 from *Drosophila melanogaster* against the database of each nematode species. The query sequences are from UniProt (ECR: P34021, USP: P20153, and HR3: P31396). The peptides showing the hit with less than 1E-20 e-value were extracted and used as query sequences for the second BLAST against the *D. melanogaster* database. This database was build using the CDS sequences from FlyBase (dmel-all-CDS-r6.45.fasta)[21]. Finally, the peptides showing the reciprocal top hit with less than 1E-10 e-value were extracted. Each candidate gene set of ECR, USP, and HR3 (181, 256, and 342 peptides, respectively) was aligned with other known nuclear

receptors (NRs) from different animals (the sequences were previously used to identify NR

genes[1,22], see also the supplementary dataset) using MAFFT (version: v7.526, --auto option)[23],

and the alignments were filtered using trimAl (version: 1.4.1, threshold: 0.8)[24]. Phylogenetic

analysis of each data set was performed using RAxML (version: 8.2.12, bootstrap: 1,000

generations, raxmlHPC-PTHREADS-SSE3 -f a -x 12345 -p 12345 -# 1000 -m

PROTGAMMAAUTO —-auto-prot=aic -s *input_file* -n *output_file*)[25]. Gene identity was

determined by examining, whether the candidate genes were included in the clade of target

genes with high bootstrap values. By removing the genes that did not belong to the target clade,

we finally identified 128, 74, and 276 peptide models as ECR, USP, and HR3, respectively (see

the trees in the supplementary dataset). Note that some species have multiple copies.

Next, the above identified nematode ECR, USP, and HR3 were used as query sequences,

and a BLAST search was performed against the database of each nematode species in which

the target genes were not found in the first screening. Top-hit sequences with less than 1E-20

e-values were collected, and each sequence was used as a query for the second BLAST search

against the database of the original species from which the first query originated. Then, genes

showing the reciprocal one-to-one top-hit were finally accumulated as candidates (ECR: 197,

USP: 277, and HR3: 28 peptides). After selecting the peptides having DNA binding domain of

NRs (HMMER domain search [version 3.4][26], see the below for the details) and manually

checking the accuracy of the gene domain (e.g., NCBI conserved domain search:

https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Structure/cdd/wrpsb.cgi), we finally investigated the identity of

the total 277 peptides by phylogenetic analysis as mentioned above. In this analysis, 5, 21, and

1 peptide(s) were additionally identified as ECR, USP, and HR3, respectively. Finally, a total

of 27 peptides obtained in the 2nd screening were used for the BLAST query sequences, and

we repeated the BLAST analysis as performed in the 2nd screening. However, no genes were

newly identified as ECR, USP, and HR3.

Target genes were also searched by BLAST, Hmmer domain search (screening of the

genes having DNA or ligand binding domain of NRs, see also the below), and phylogenetic

analysis. For example, the BLAST search was performed with a higher e-value threshold (ex.

1E-05). Different database was also explored for the species missing the target genes, and ECR

of *Steinema feltiae* was identified using the other dataset in WormBase Parasite (version:

WBPS19, WS291) from the one which we originally used (accession number: PRJNA204661).

Finally, eight additional genes (nine peptides) were identified to compensate for the missing

target genes, and the results are summarized in Fig. 1.

Criteria for the presence and absence of target genes

The summary of the screening and gene identification of 160 species is shown in Fig. 1A. In some species, the target genes were missing even though the genes were found in species of the same genus (or closely related species). Since this study avoided to distinguish between species-specific loss and technical errors such as low data quality, gene missing in these species were considered as missing information in Fig. 1A (10 species in total, question marks in Fig. 1A). We considered the loss to be reliable if the loss of the genes was observed in all the same genus or closely related species. According to these criteria, we detected loss of *ecr* only in *Caenorhabditis*, Tylenchomorpha, Strongyloididae and Alloionematidae (Fig. 1A). Loss of *usp* was also reliable in Strongylida, Anarhabditis, non-Steinernematidae Tylenchina (Fig. 1A).

Gene identification in other ecdysozoans

Previous works identified *ecr*, *usp* and *hr3* in insects (*Drosophila melanogaster*, *Drosophila pseudoobscura*, *Anopheles gambiae*, *Aedes aegypti*, *Bombyx mori*, *Tribolium castaneum*, and *Apis mellifera*), other arthropods (Myriapoda: *Strigamia maritima*; Chelicerata: *Limulus polyphemus* and *Stegodyphus mimosarum*; and Branchiopoda: *Daphnia pulex* and *Daphnia magna*), tardigrades (*Ramazzottius varieornatus* and *Hypsibius exemplaris*), onychophorans (*Euperipatoides rowelli*), nematodes (*Brugia malayi*, *Caenorhabditis elegans* [only *hr3*]), and priapulids (*Priaplus caudutus*)[6,16]. In addition, we newly identified *ecr*, *usp*, and *hr3* in tardigrades (*Echiniscus testudo*), nematomorphs (*Acutogordius australiensis*, *Gordionus montsenyensis*, *Nectonema munidae*, *Paragordius varius*), kinorhynchs (*Campyloderes vanhoeffeni*, *Franciscidere kalenesos*, *Dracoderes abei*) and priapulids (*Tubiluchus corallicola*). For gene identification, we collected genomic or transcriptomic data from publications or public databases (*E. testudo*: Murai et al., 2021[27], *A. australiensis* and *N. munidae*: Cunha et al., 2023[28] [FigShare: doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.23419922], *G. montsenyensis*: Eleftheriadi et al., 2024[29], *P. varius*: ERR1817116, ERR1817117, ERR1817118, and ERR1817119 [NCBI SRA]; kinorhynchs: Herranz et al., 2022[30] [*C. vanhoeffeni*: SRR14509480, *F. kalenesos*: SRR14509483, and *D. abei*: SRR14509486]). Raw read data from *P. varius* and kinorhynch species were *de novo* assembled as described above. Gene identity was confirmed by BLAST and phylogenetic analysis using the same methods as above.

The results are summarized in Fig. S1, and the gene tree and sequences are available in the
supplemental dataset.

Extraction of NRs based on the domain conservation

The HMM profile of NRs (Hormone_recep: PF00104) was obtained from the Pfam database.
Using this profile as a query, hmmscan was performed against all peptide data of the target
species (threshold 1E-05)[26], and the identified genes were considered as NRs. The number of
genes was counted considering the isoforms and shown in the linear bar graph of Fig. 1A.

OrthoFinder analysis

OrthoFinder (version: 2.5.4, with default parameters)[31] was used to examine the orthogroups
(OGs) of NRs in the represented nematode species of five major groups (Fig. 1A): Rhabditina
(*Ancylostoma ceylanicum*, *Caenorhabditis elegans*, *Heligmosomoides polygyrus*, and
Pristionchus pacificus), Tylenchina (*Globodera pallida*, *Meloidogyne arenaria*, and
Steinernema monticolum), Spirurina (*Ascaris suum* and *Brugia malayi*), Trichinellida
(*Trichuris muris*), and Enoplida (*Pontonema vulgare*). Peptide sequences of NRs from each
species were obtained as described above. After identifying 163 OGs in this comparison, we
investigated the taxonomic origin of the genes in each OG (Rhabditina, Tylenchina, Spirurina,
Trichinellida, and Enoplida). If the OG contained one or more genes from all taxa, the OG was
considered to be the one that the common ancestor of the taxa had. Using these criteria, the
evolutionary gain/loss events of NR OGs were resolved, as shown in Fig. 1H. Output file of
the analysis is available in the supplementary dataset.

Transcriptome analysis

Data collection

We collected transcriptome data, including molting stages, for a total of six nematode species
from public databases. The expression matrix (RPKM) for *Caenorhabditis elegans* was
obtained from Kim et al., 2013 (Gene Expression Omnibus, accession number: GSE49043)[32].
WormBase ParaSite (version: WBPS19, WS291)[18] was also the resource of this study to obtain
the calculated expression matrix (TPM) for *Trichuris suis* (NCBI Sequence Read Archive

[SRA] accession number: SRP039506) and *Globodera pallida* (NCBI SRA accession number:

ERP001236). The expression matrix (TPM) for *Pristionchus pacificus* was obtained from the

supplementary file of Sun et al. 2021[17]. In addition, raw read data of *Brugia malayi* and

Ancylostoma ceylanicum were obtained from SRA (NCBI SRA, accession number:

SRR4308250-51 and SRR9858310-17 [*B. malayi*][33] and SRR2125572, SRR2125581-86,

SRR2125588-90, SRR2125594, SRR2125597, SRR2125600, SRR2125602, SRR2125606-7,

SRR2125610-SRR2125611, SRR2125614, and SRR2125627 [*A. ceylanicum*][34]), and the

expression levels were calculated by us. As mentioned above, quality control and filtering of

raw reads were performed by FastQC and trimmomatic, respectively. We also used samtools

(version: 1.15.1) to remove the ribosomal RNA-derived sequences in the *B. malayi*[35]. The

filtered reads were mapped to the reference transcript models (*B. malayi*: PRJNA1072 and *A.*

ceylanicum: PRJNA231479, WormBase Parasite[18]) using RSEM/bowtie2 (version: v1.3.1,

rsem-calculate-expression --paired-end --bowtie2) to calculate expression levels (TPM)[36].

Molting stages were referred from original/previous papers[17,32-34,37-39]. Expression levels of the

transcripts corresponding to the *ecr* and *hr3,* which were identified in the above screenings,

were obtained from each transcriptome dataset (the average of TPM was calculated in the case

of having replicates at the same stage). In the transcriptome data of *G. pallida*, the gene model

of *hr3* was inappropriately reconstructed into two models (id: GPLIN_000052400 and

GPLIN_000052600). Thus, the expression levels were calculated by summing the expression

levels of the two models at each time point.

Data curation

Sun et al., 2021 originally provided the 1–2 h interval transcriptome data from 0 to 58 h after

hatching (i.e., 0, 1, 3, 5, ... 58 h)[17]. In our preliminary analysis, we found that the data contained

an overall fluctuating expression pattern throughout the examined stages (Fig. S3A). Therefore,

we divided the time points into overlapping windows of three time points each, and the mean

was calculated for each window. For example, the first time-window was grouped by the data

at 0, 1, and 3 h, and the mean value represents the data at 1 h. The second window included the

data at 1, 3, and 5 h, and the mean value represents the data at 3 h. Using this method, we

obtained the corrected expression profiles, which tends to remove the effects of fluctuating

expression due to biological or technical differences on individual development (Fig. S3B).

Unbiased screening of NRs for identifying molting regulators

With reference to our previous work[1], the expression profiles (TPM matrices) of four nematode transcriptome data were classified into 5-7 clusters using fuzzy c-mean clustering (Fig. S3: *A. ceylanicum*, *G. pallida*, *B. malayi*, and *T. suis*). Analysis was carried out using R and its package e1071 (version: 1.7.11: https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/e1071/index.html). From such clustering, the genes in the cluster(s) that showed a positively correlated expression pattern with molting cycles were extracted (Fig. S3, green shades, *A. ceylanicum*: 8110, *G. pallida*: 3383, *B. malayi*: 7114, and *T. suis*: 2896 genes). In addition, Sun et al. 2021 and Kim et al. 2013 extracted the genes whose expression showed an oscillatory pattern along the molting cycle in *P. pacificus* (2,964 genes) and *C. elegans* (1,592 genes: assigned to clusters 1–6 in Kim et al., 2013), respectively[17,32]. As described above, OrthoFinder[31] was used to extract OGs among the screened genes, and this result identified 5,180 OGs. Among 5,180 OGs, 55 OGs contain one or more genes from all species. Finally, we searched for the presence of NR domains in the represented genes of each OG using Hmmer search[26] (see above).

Data visualization

We used R (version: 4.3.3)[40] and its packages such as Tydyverse (version: 2.0.0)[41], ggtree (version: 3.10.1)[42], ggstance (version: 0.3.7, https://github.com/lionel-/ggstance), ggvenn (version: 0.1.10, https://github.com/yanlinlin82/ggvenn), and ape (version: 5.8, https://cran.r-project.org/web/packages/ape/index.html) to analyze and visualize the results. Images for Fig. S1 are from PHYLOPIC (https://www.phylopic.org/).

Data availability

Scripts and datasets (e.g. assembly sequences, phylogenetic trees, data accession numbers) are available in the supplementary dataset.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests

Author contributions

Conceptualization, S.Y..; methodology, S.Y. and L.-M.B.; software, S.Y. and L.-M.B.; formal analysis, S.Y.; investigation, S.Y and L.-M.B..; writing—original draft, S.Y.; writing—review & editing, S.Y., L.-M.B., and A.H.; visualization, S.Y.; funding acquisition, S.Y. and A.H.

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