## **Supplementary Information for:**

# **Bdelloid rotifers deploy horizontally acquired biosynthetic genes against a pathogenic fungus**

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## <span id="page-2-0"></span>**Supplementary Methods**

#### **Rotifer and pathogen isolates**

Animals belonging to the species *Adineta ricciae*<sup>1</sup> and *A. vaga*<sup>2,3</sup> were isolated respectively in 1998 from mud in Australia<sup>1</sup> and ca. 1984 from moss in Italy<sup>4</sup> and propagated clonally in continuous long-term culture across several laboratories<sup>5-8</sup>. We use the code 'AD001' for this lineage of *A. ricciae*, and 'AD008' for *A. vaga*. These cultures are available on request, and were selected because annotated genome assemblies were available for both species at the time the experiments were conducted, denoted 'Ar18' for *A. ricciae* and 'Av13' for *A. vaga*7,9. Cultures were maintained in 60mm plastic Petri dishes in sterilised distilled water, fed with *Escherichia coli* (OP50) and *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (S288c) and subcultured approximately once per month. They were stored at 20°C in an illuminated incubator (LMS, Kent, UK) with a 12:12 hour light:dark cycle.

The fungal pathogen *Rotiferophthora globospora*<sup>10</sup> was found attacking co-occurring rotifers of the genus *Adineta* in soil in northern New York<sup>11</sup>. A pure culture on potato dextrose agar (PDA) was obtained in December 2008 using methods described elsewhere $^{12}$ , and deposited in April 2009 with the USDA Agricultural Research Service Collection of Entomopathogenic Fungal Cultures (ARSEF) for long-term cryogenic storage under the accession code ARSEF 8995. Frozen mycelium was retrieved and revived from this collection in 2013, and since maintained in serial subculture on PDA at 20°C with a 12:12 hour light:dark cycle and with transfers every 4 months. This pathogen strain has no recent history of laboratory co-passage with either of the two rotifer hosts tested here and all three were isolated on different continents. However, *R. globospora* appears to be globally  $\frac{d}{dt}$  distributed—it was originally described from New Zealand<sup>10</sup> and has also been recorded in Japan (CGW, pers. obs.), in both cases attacking *Adineta*. Therefore, both host species are likely to encounter this pathogen in nature, especially given the high dispersal capacity and global distribution of bdelloid rotifers<sup>13-16</sup>.

Infection by *R. globospora* is initiated when a host ingests infectious spores (conidia), which are spherical and approximately  $3.5\mu$ m in diameter<sup>10</sup>. These lodge in the mouth or oesophagus, at which point the animal stops feeding and contracts within a few minutes (Fig. 1a, main text). Over the next 6–8 hours, the conidium produces a thin germ tube that penetrates the gut wall and swells into assimilative hyphae, which begin to invade and digest the surrounding host tissue after about 12–24 hours, as the infection becomes established. By 36–48 hours, fungal hyphae have filled most of the body cavity and the host is dead. Between 48–72 hours, hyphae begin to emerge through the host integument, and will eventually differentiate to form two types of spores: a handful of thick-walled resting spores, and hundreds of fresh infectious conidia (Fig. 1a, main text).

Because *Rotiferophthora* can only complete its life cycle by killing its host, these fungi are inherently highly virulent pathogens, and have been described as "devastating" to populations of *Adineta*<sup>10</sup>. *R. globospora* (ARSEF 8995) has been shown to exterminate laboratory populations of a sympatric *Adineta* clone within 28 days of initial exposure to a low density of conidia<sup>11</sup>. However, even if rotifer individuals are inevitably killed once the pathogen has established a large-scale infection within the body, an individual host can resist the initial attack and prevent an ingested spore from establishing a successful infection, or at least delay its progression. Even partial resistance at an early stage could dramatically slow the spread of an epidemic<sup>17</sup>, giving clonal relatives time to escape the infested habitat<sup>16,18</sup> before the local population is exterminated.

#### **Infection assays**

To quantify resistance to *R. globospora* under standard conditions, rotifers were transferred by pipette from stock populations to a 2mL droplet of sterile distilled water, where eggs, corpses and food from the cultures were washed away. Adult individuals were transferred to 96-well plates (Thermo-Fisher), with approximately 11 animals per well (mean: 11.0, SD: 3.5) in 60µL of sterilised, distilled water. Rotifers were counted using a compound microscope (Nikon Eclipse E400), noting whether each animal was active (feeding or locomoting, Fig. 1a), contracted (with head withdrawn) or dead. Animals that died during the transfer (<1.5% of the total) were physically removed where possible, or recorded so they could be excluded from later counts.

To obtain pure suspensions of conidia, approximately 5x5mm of freshly subcultured sporulating mycelium on PDA was moved to  $500 \mu$ L of sterile distilled water in a 1.5mL Eppendorf tube. After vortexing,  $400\mu$ L of conidial suspension was transferred to a fresh sterile tube and conidial density was measured using a haemocytometer and lactophenol cotton blue stain. An inactivated inoculum was prepared simultaneously as a control, by exposing an aliquot of conidia in water to a germicidal ultraviolet lamp (25W, 253.7nm) at a distance of 10cm for 45 minutes, with regular vortexing to ensure all spores were irradiated. This treatment was successful, as none of the rotifers in control wells treated with irradiated spores became infected.

Wells were inoculated with  $8\mu$ L of freshly prepared conidial suspension at a density of 125 spores  $\mu L^{-1}$ . Negative control wells received 8 $\mu L$  of distilled water or inactivated spore suspension. The final density of spores in each well was high (ca. 15 conidia  $\mu L^{-1}$ ) to ensure every animal was exposed to the pathogen in a synchronised pulse. This appeared to work, because 94% of animals in experimental wells were contracted 8 hours after exposure, versus a baseline of 3% of animals contracted in control wells (Supplementary Fig. 16). To check our inference that contracted animals have ingested fungal spores, small numbers of contracted rotifers  $(n = 15)$  were isolated from wells between 4 and 7h after inoculation. transferred to microscope slides, squashed and imaged using phase contrast optics (as in Supplementary Fig. 1). All animals were found to have ingested spores: 12 animals (80%) had one spore; two animals (13%) had two spores, and one animal (7%) had ingested three spores. Wells from which animals had been removed for this purpose did not contribute to the experimental dataset.

Following inoculation, plates were stored in incubators (LMS 300NP) at  $20^{\circ}$ C, with a 12:12 hour light:dark cycle. After 8, 24 and 72 hours, rotifers were counted again, and classed as active, contracted, killed by infection or otherwise dead. A rotifer was considered to be killed by infection if at least one hypha had emerged through the integument from the interior. This criterion was unambiguous, in contrast with the difficulty of determining whether a fungal infection had established inside a contracted animal. By 72h, the proportion of infected animals in experimental wells appeared to have stabilised (Supplementary Fig. 16). In a subset of wells recounted at 96h, only a small fraction of animals (~6.5%) had newly developed visible infections. The relative risk of infection for *A. vaga* versus *A. ricciae* at 96h (RR 2.94, 95% CI 1.93–4.46;  $Z = 5.06$ ,  $P < 0.0001$ ) had not narrowed significantly since 72h (ratio of RR 0.78, 95% CI 0.47–1.31,  $Z = -0.926$ ,  $P = 0.354$ ), but the survivors had reproduced, making further tracking of the originally exposed cohort difficult. We therefore took the 72h timepoint as the standard measure of infection mortality. Individuals in negative control wells never became infected, whether they received water or sterilized spores, and the background death rate was ~2%.

Inoculation trials with both *A. ricciae* and *A. vaga* were replicated on multiple occasions using at least three separate source dishes for each species prepared at different times, and separately prepared cultures and inocula of fungi, with each set of trials replicated in at least three wells with accompanying negative controls in a blocked design. The total number of animals exposed across counted trials was 216 for *A. ricciae* and 189 for *A. vaga* (Fig. 1b). Rates of mortality from *R. globospora* infection were consistent across these trials, as was the difference in susceptibility between the species (Fig. 1b, main text). One set of well trials was run simultaneously and in close linkage with the scaled-up RNA-seq experiment described below, using rotifers from the same source populations, inoculated with the same live and irradiated pathogen suspensions. This enabled the timings and presumed final outcomes of infections in the RNA tubes to be inferred, even though those animals could not be directly counted and were sacrificed for RNA by 24h. The results of the RNAlinked well experiments were similar to earlier trials: mean infection mortality at 72h was 18% for *A. ricciae* and 79% for *A. vaga*.

#### **RNA-seq experimental design**

Rotifers for the RNA-seq experiment were reared at scale in eight replicate Petri dishes per species, with ca. 50 founders per dish, all from the same clonal laboratory line of each species. These were fed only with *E. coli* (OP50, 5 x 10<sup>8</sup> cells per dish) in distilled water. *S. cerevisiae* was omitted to avoid introducing further eukaryotic transcripts, and because gene expression by rotifers metabolising a fungal food source might complicate inferences about transcription in response to a fungal pathogen. The omission of *S. cerevisiae* as a food did not affect infection outcomes, because results of RNA-linked well assays were almost identical to earlier trials. When the *A. ricciae* dishes were initially established, each was inoculated with 50µL of 5µm-filtered water from the *A. vaga* source population, and vice-versa, to homogenise any co-cultured bacterial communities whose composition might differ between the cultured lines of the two species, and limit this as a potential source of gene expression differences. Dishes of the two species were stored in evenly interspersed blocks while the populations were growing.

Rotifers were counted and harvested after 4 weeks, when the mean population size was about 3000 per dish for *A. ricciae* and 2000 for *A. vaga*, which reproduces more slowly<sup>19</sup>. Each dish was gently washed, using several water changes to float and pour off eggs, bacterial cells and corpses, while active animals adhered to the plastic. Cleaned rotifers were detached from the plastic by dropping distilled water onto them from a 10mL syringe at 40cm height, followed by repeated aspiration and forcible expulsion of medium using a P1000 pipetter and a 1mL tip. Physical detachment was preferred over a salt or cold shock approach<sup>7</sup>, to reduce the chance of inducing transcriptomic, immunological or behavioural changes. Suspended rotifers were poured into a 50mL centrifuge tube and pelleted at 3000 x g for 5 minutes using a swing-bucket cradle. All but 17.5mL of supernatant was removed, then a vortex shaker was used to resuspend the rotifer pellets and 1mL was transferred immediately by pipette to a 1.5mL Eppendorf tube. This process was repeated to yield 16 replicate 1.5mL tubes for each species. Each tube was centrifuged at 17000 x g for 3 minutes, and all but 100µL of water was removed from the rotifer pellet. The pelleted rotifers were left overnight to recover and redistribute themselves around the submerged interior of the tube. We estimate that the efficiency of rotifer recovery via this method is about 70%, based on numbers of animals left over in plates or tubes, giving approximately 1000 animals per tube for *A. ricciae* and 600 for *A. vaga*.

The 16 tubes for each species were randomly allocated to receive either live or irradiated pathogen spores, and to have RNA extracted either 7 or 24 hours later, with each

combination replicated four times. Irradiated spore suspensions, as described above, were used as a control treatment to account for physical, chemical, or nutritional effects of ingesting fungal cells, so that all else was equal except for pathogen viability. RNA sampling times were chosen to correspond to the early stages of infection<sup>12</sup>—by 7h, germ tubes from ingested spores have attempted to infiltrate the host, but assimilative hyphae would not yet be established. By 24h, assimilative hyphae would be present if the germ tube had been successful, but these would not yet have colonised the host extensively or killed it (Supplementary Fig. 1). Each tube was inoculated with 20µL of live or irradiated spore suspension at a density of 500 spores  $\mu L^{-1}$ , for a total of 10,000 spores and a final density of 80 conidia  $\mu L^{-1}$ , to ensure every animal was exposed as synchronously as possible. Tubes were incubated upright at  $20^{\circ}$ C in a blocked layout until RNA extraction.

To check the efficiency of spore exposure in tubes, a small subsample of rotifers from each tube was examined microscopically, starting 40 minutes after inoculation, and counted blind and in random order with respect to treatment, but blocked with respect to rotifer species. The *A. vaga* count was completed within 20 minutes and the *A. ricciae* count within 30 minutes. Proportions of contracted animals were then calculated, comparing the animals in treatment tubes to those that had received irradiated spore suspension. For *A. ricciae*, the proportion contracted in treatment tubes was 97.7%, and for *A. vaga*, this was 95.8%. This difference between species was not significant ( $\chi^2$ , = 1.271, d.f. = 2, *P* = 0.26, *n* = 484). The UV-irradiation treatment appeared highly effective, with  $\lt$  3% of contracted animals observed in control tubes for both species, consistent with results from the well trials described above.

#### **RNA extraction and sequencing**

Total RNA was extracted from each tube at the appropriate timepoint using a column-based RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen #74104), following the manufacturer's protocol for animal tissues. To lyse and homogenise the rotifers, tubes were centrifuged at 17,000 x g for 3 minutes and 100µL of excess water was removed, leaving rotifers pelleted in approximately 20µL of water. After adding 50 $\mu$ L of Buffer RLT, the pellet was immediately disrupted and homogenised for 1 minute by pulsed application of a pellet pestle attached to a cordless motor (Kimble). A further 250µL of Buffer RLT was added to stabilise the lysate and rinse residue from the pestle, before proceeding with the manufacturer's protocol, including an oncolumn DNase I digestion step. Lysis and stabilisation were completed for all tubes within 30 minutes of the target timepoint, in a balanced order with respect to treatment and species.

RNA was eluted in 32µL of RNase-free water and 1.5µL aliquots were analysed using a Nanodrop 2000 (ThermoFisher). Spectrophotometric measurements were used to select the three replicates with the highest RNA concentrations from each treatment group for further analysis and sequencing, so that downstream steps had three biological replicates. These 24 tubes were frozen at  $-80^{\circ}$ C and shipped on dry ice to the University of Edinburgh, where further quality control was undertaken by Edinburgh Genomics, including RNA quantitation with a Qubit 2.0 fluorometer in duplicate for each sample, and RNA ScreenTape analysis with an Agilent 2200 TapeStation system to assess RNA integrity. All 24 samples proceeded to cDNA library preparation, using the TruSeq stranded mRNA kit (Illumina) to enrich for polyadenylated transcripts. The indexed ~200 bp insert libraries were sequenced in multiplex on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 at Edinburgh Genomics, using an SP flow cell to generate 50 base paired-end reads.

#### **Data filtering and quality control**

The 24 libraries yielded 102.9 Gb of raw sequencing data. Raw sequencing reads were quality- and adapter-trimmed using BBTools 'bbduk' v38.73 (parameters 'ktrim=r k=23 mink=11 hdist=1 tpe tbo'), and error-corrected using BBTools 'tadpole' (parameters 'mode=correct tossjunk tossuncorrectable') [\(https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/\)](https://sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/). Unwanted reads derived from ribosomal RNA (rRNA) were removed by mapping the data to the SILVA rRNA database<sup>20</sup> using BBTools 'bbmap' with parameters 'local=t outu=filtered\_R#.fq.gz' (i.e. retaining only unmapped pairs of reads). Sequences derived from the fungal pathogen were removed using the same approach, mapping to sequenced genomes of fungi in the family *Clavicipitaceae* (NCBI taxid 34397). The proportion of remaining reads mapping to the Ar18 or Av13 target genomes was assessed using STAR  $v2.7.3a^{21}$  with the parameter '--twoPassMode Basic'. Final data quality was assessed visually using FastQC v0.11.6<sup>22</sup> and MultiQC v1.9<sup>23</sup>. All raw sequencing data have been deposited in the relevant International Nucleotide Sequence Database Collaboration (INSDC) database with the Study ID PRJEB39927 (see Supplementary Table 9 for run accessions).

Before using the data to quantify expression of horizontally acquired genes encoded by rotifers, it was important to account for reads from contaminating microorganisms in the non-axenic experimental tubes. For example, bacterial contamination might complicate expression measurements for rotifer  $HGT_C$  genes that share partial homology with true bacterial sequences. Rotifer-encoded  $HGT_C$  genes also preclude simply filtering out all reads mapping to known bacterial sequences. These potential issues were instead assessed by focusing on the *E. coli* that was fed to the rotifers (strain OP50), whose genome sequence is available (GenBank accession GCF\_009496595.1). Despite efforts to wash the animals and allow time to clear the gut, OP50 was still by far the largest potential source of contaminating transcripts—approximately  $3.56\%$  ( $\pm$  2.8 SD) of unfiltered reads mapped to the OP50 genome (Supplementary Table 11). In filtered reads, however, this was reduced to 0.016% ( $\pm$ 0.015 SD; Supplementary Table 12), indicating that the vast majority of sequenced OP50 reads were derived from 16S and 23S rRNA, as confirmed by further direct mapping to OP50 rRNA (Supplementary Table 13). *E. coli* therefore made a negligible contribution to the mRNA pool, probably owing to massive enrichment for eukaryotic sequences via the poly-A selection step. Nevertheless, to exclude even a marginal effect of mis-mapped bacterial reads on estimated  $HGT_C$  expression, each significantly upregulated  $HGT_C$  gene was examined for any contribution from OP50-derived reads. For none of these genes did more than one or two reads from OP50 contribute to expression calculations, whereas the corresponding mean number of total reads was 13655 (minimum 153) (Supplementary Tables 14 and 15). Given that *E. coli* OP50 was the most common contaminant, its negligible contributions to mRNAderived reads and  $HGT<sub>C</sub>$  expression calculations indicate that the data and results reflect genes encoded and expressed by rotifers, and not RNA originating in bacterial contaminants. The hypothesis that  $HGT_C$  sequences arise from contamination is further refuted by the presence of corresponding paired copies on genomic scaffolds for *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* whose divergence matches the rest of the genomes, by the fact that investigated  $HGT_C$  genes often show a high degree of divergence from the nearest sequenced non-metazoan copies, and by the presence of introns in genes encoding proteins whose closest homology is otherwise to bacteria. Many upregulated gene copies were closely related to each other and showed patterns of homologous or homoeologous relationships consistent with the ancestral tetraploidy of bdelloid species<sup>24,25</sup>.

After data filtering and quality-control, 78.5 million reads were retained per library (94.2 Gb total data, Supplementary Table 9). Over 99% of filtered reads mapped to the Av13 and Ar18 reference genomes. To check for overall agreement between the RNA-seq data and

transcriptomes predicted from whole genomes, the filtered data were *de novo* assembled using the Trinity software v2.8.9<sup>26,27</sup>, resulting in 118,860 and 63,749 transcripts representing 41,527 and 35,079 'genes' for *A. ricciae* and *A. vaga*, respectively (Supplementary Table 10). Transcriptomes showed  $G + C$  proportions that were consistent with their respective genomes (*A. ricciae* = 37.6%; *A. vaga* = 33.0%) and high 'completeness' scores as measured by BUSCO analysis (>97% of core eukaryote genes completely recovered in both cases). Transcript-to-genome mapping rates were >99% in both species, with 87.1% (*A. ricciae*) and 81.8% (*A. vaga*) of introns correctly called based on previously published gene models. Note that *de novo* transcriptomes were not used for subsequent gene expression analyses, which used gene models predicted from whole genomes instead (see the following section).

#### **Differential expression analysis**

Transcript quantification was performed using Salmon 'quant' v0.14.1<sup>28</sup>, with the gene models of Nowell et al.  $(2018)^9$  as the target transcriptomes. Short transcripts <150 bp were removed before analysis, resulting in a total of 58,423 (*A. ricciae*) and 66,273 (*A. vaga*) gene models to test for differential expression. Genomic scaffolds were appended as 'decoys' to each transcriptome prior to quantification as recommended in the Salmon documentation. Relationships between biological replicateswithin and between samples were visually checked using utility scripts in the Trinity software<sup>26,27</sup>, with PCA results indicating high correlation in gene expression among replicates (Supplementary Fig. 17). Statistical analysis of the resulting count matrix was performed with DESeq2 v1.26.0<sup>29</sup>, which uses negative binomial generalized linear models to test for differential expression. *P*-values were adjusted for multiple testing using the Benjamini-Hochberg method<sup>30</sup> to control the false discovery rate (FDR). Stringent thresholds of FDR  $\langle$  1e–3 and log<sub>2</sub> fold-change  $\geq$  2 (i.e. 4-fold expression difference) were used to define differentially expressed genes for downstream analysis. Comparison of control populations (Supplementary Figs. 18 and 19) showed that  $HGT_C$  genes are more likely to be expressed than ancestrally metazoan genes under control conditions, but at significantly lower levels. The enrichment we saw for  $HGT_C$  among differentially expressed genes is thus unlikely to be due to a known false-positive bias in some RNA-seq analyses toward genes with higher expression levels $31,32$ . However, to test for this effect and check for overall consistency in our results, we also calculated differential expression using two other software packages: edgeR v3.28.1<sup>33–35</sup> and limma/voom v3.42.2<sup>36</sup>. These handle known biases in RNA-seq analysis differently<sup>32</sup>, enabling us to establish that the key differential expression result does not depend on the software used (Supplementary Figs. 7–10).

Gene sharing among the different treatment groups was visualised using the R packages 'ggvenn' v0.1.10 and 'eulerr' v7.0.0, linked by orthogroup (see below) when compared across species.

### **Gene orthology**

Orthologous relationships between *A. ricciae* and *A. vaga* genes were determined using OrthoFinder v2.3.12<sup>39</sup> with default parameters. Proteomes from 33 other rotifer species<sup>9,40,41</sup> (i.e., all available transcriptome data) were included in the analysis to aid orthology inference (see Supplementary Data 8 for full description of included genomes). Clustering produced a total of 15,585 orthologous groups (OGs) that contained at least one gene from both species, accounting for 86.5 and 81.7% of total genes in *A. ricciae* and *A. vaga*, respectively. Resulting orthogroups were used to link genes across *A. ricciae* and *A. vaga* for assessment of correlations in gene expression between the two species (e.g., PCA below and Supplementary Figs. 3 and 4).

### **Principal component analyses**

To compare gene expression dynamics across species and experiments, a mean expression level was calculated for each orthogroup in each replicate in each species, by taking the mean value of normalised counts per million (CPM) gene expression data (from the DESeq2 results, as used for cross-replicate PCA by Trinity QC scripts) across all genes within that orthogroup as defined above (Supplementary Data 2). PCA was then performed using the 'prcomp' function in R, with parameters 'center=F scale.=F'. To compare the relative magnitude and consistency of gene expression changes occurring within the pathogen and desiccation experiments, we plotted replicates from the two datasets on the same set of principal component axes (Supplementary Fig. 11).

## **HGT classification**

Putative HGT candidate genes (denoted  $HGT_C$ ) were determined from the recent analysis of Jaron et al.<sup>42</sup>. Briefly, proteins were aligned to the UniProt90 sequence database<sup>43</sup> using Diamond 'blastp' v0.9.21<sup>44</sup> with the parameters '--sensitive -k  $\overrightarrow{500}$  -e 1e-10'. For each protein, a HGT 'index'  $(h_U)$  was computed based on the alignment bitscores to the bestmatching hits from the Metazoa ( $B_{\text{IN}}$ ) and non-Metazoa ( $B_{\text{OUT}}$ ) with the formula:  $h_{\text{U}} = B_{\text{OUT}} B_{\text{IN}}^{45}$ . A 'consensus hit support' (CHS) score was also calculated as the proportion of secondary hits in agreement with the result based on the  $hU^{9,46}$ . An initial set of HGT<sub>C</sub> were defined if  $h<sub>U</sub> > 30$  and CHS  $> 90\%$ , but removing a previous filtering step of requiring coassembly of the  $HGT_C$  on a contig which also encodes a gene of 'unambiguous' metazoan origin. Initial investigations found this criterion to be overly conservative: *bona fide* HGT<sub>C</sub> were being excluded because they were encoded on short scaffolds with no other genes, thus failing the filter. Instead, we filtered this initial set based on tBLASTn alignment to a recently published, near-chromosomal level *A. vaga* assembly<sup>47</sup> ('Av20', diploid version), retaining only those with a good match  $(E$ -value  $\leq 1e-5$ ) to this genome. This allowed us to retain  $HGT_C$  clearly encoded on chromosomal scaffolds for subsequent analysis while removing potential contaminants from the Av13 gene model set. Phylogenetic trees of selected  $HGT<sub>C</sub>$ and their putative co-orthologs from the UniRef90 database were constructed using IQ-TREE v1.6.12 with the parameters '-alrt 1000 -bb 5000 -m  $TEST^{48-50}$ .

## **HGT<sup>C</sup> presence or absence in other bdelloid species**

The presence or absence of significantly upregulated  $HGT<sub>C</sub>$  across bdelloid genera was tested explicitly by searching (using Diamond 'blastp' as above) for significant hits to the combined proteomes of all bdelloid samples with available whole-genome data. The number of hits with minimum identity  $= 40\%$  to other proteomes are tabulated and summarised in Supplementary Data 12.

## **Functional annotation**

Protein sequences from the *A. ricciae* and *A. vaga* reference genomes were aligned to the SwissProt<sup>43</sup> and Pfam<sup>51</sup> sequence databases using BLAST v2.10.1+<sup>52</sup> and HMMER v3.3 [\(http://hmmer.org/\)](http://hmmer.org/) respectively. Signal peptide cleavage sites and transmembrane helices were identified using SignalP v4.1<sup>53</sup> and TMHMM v2.0<sup>54</sup> respectively. Protein domains were further identified using InterProScan  $v5^{55}$ . Functional annotations were assimilated using the Trinotate  $v3.2.0^{56}$  pipeline.

#### **Functional enrichment analyses**

Functional enrichment analysis was performed using  $GOseq^{57}$ , based on gene ontology (GO) terms identified during functional annotation above. For each timepoint, the test set was defined as  $HGT_C$  that were significantly up- or downregulated (based on absolute fold-change  $>$  4 and FDR  $<$  1e–3) versus the background set of the whole genome. GOseq was run using the 'run\_GOseq.pl' utility script in the Trinity software package. At the most stringent threshold (FDR < 0.001), 29 GO terms were significantly enriched for genes upregulated by *A. ricciae* at T24 (rising to 43 and 68 for FDR < 0.01 and < 0.05 respectively). Significant GO terms were visualised using Revigo<sup>58</sup> (default parameters). To assist in interpreting enriched GO terms, each unique  $HGT_C$  associated with significantly enriched terms was individually translated and processed as a BLASTp query against the UniProt database, with rotifers (NCBI taxid 10190) excluded. For clarification in selected cases, a tBLASTn query was run against the NCBI nucleotide database. The list of significantly enriched GO terms that appeared to point to NRP/PKS functions was: GO:0031177 (MF) phosphopantetheine binding; GO:0017000 (BP) antibiotic biosynthetic process; GO:0016999 (BP) antibiotic metabolic process; GO:0072341(MF) modified amino acid binding; GO:0017144 (BP) drug metabolic process; GO:0019842 (MF) vitamin binding; GO:0033218 (MF) amide binding; GO:0016853 (MF) isomerase activity.

We tested whether the apparent pattern of enrichment for NRP/PKS-related terms in A. *ricciae* versus *A. vaga* was affected by the reference genomes used for HGT<sub>C</sub> and functional enrichment analyses, which were assembled and annotated using different methods for the two species. We repeated the functional enrichment analysis as above, using transcriptomes assembled and annotated de novo from RNA-seq data, independent of reference assemblies or HGT<sub>C</sub> filtering (Supplementary Data 4). 'Phosphopantetheine binding' (GO:0031177) was still the most highly enriched term for *A. ricciae* (FDR = 3.72e–15), with 'isomerase activity' and 'antibiotic biosynthetic process' also significantly enriched ( $FDR = 0.0001$ ), whereas none of these NRP/PKS-associated terms was enriched at any level for *A. vaga*. The same conclusion is therefore reached whether transcriptomes are assembled and annotated de novo from RNA-seq data, or mapped to the predicted proteome of existing reference genomes.

To account for the lower RNA-seq coverage and power to detect functional enrichment in the desiccation dataset<sup>59</sup>, we relaxed the threshold for GO term enrichment to FDR  $< 0.05$  (Fig. 4, main text), then to FDR  $< 0.1$  (Supplementary Data 5). This ensured we would not miss weak signals of functional overlap between  $HGT_C$  genes upregulated in response to biotic and abiotic stress. Even at this lowest threshold, however, only five of the 54 significantly (FDR < 0.05) enriched GO terms for pathogen-exposed *A. vaga* at T24 (Supplementary Data 3) overlapped with desiccation stress, all unrelated to the putative defensive functions discussed elsewhere: three redundant GO terms for oxidoreductase activity, 'trimethyllysine dioxygenase activity', 'iron ion binding' and 'carnitine biosynthetic process' (which is not mediated by NRP/PKS). Likewise, no enrichment for NRP/PKSrelated GO terms and no upregulation of putative NRP/PKS CDS was reported in a separate transcriptomic analysis of desiccation and radiation stress in *A. vaga*<sup>60</sup>.

The list of significantly enriched terms pointing to RNA ligase functions was: GO:0003972 (MF) RNA ligase (ATP) activity; GO:0008452 (MF) RNA ligase activity; GO:0042245 (BP) RNA repair; GO:0098004 (BP) virus tail fiber assembly; GO:0016886 (MF) ligase activity, forming phosphoric ester bonds. None of these terms was significantly enriched in our analysis of the response to desiccation, nor were they enriched (FDR  $< 0.05$ ) in a separate analysis of desiccation and ionizing radiation in  $A$ .  $vaga^{60}$ , but two individual RNA ligases of horizontal origin were reported as upregulated in response to radiation.

#### **Screen for putative NRP/PKS and genomic validation in** *A. vaga*

An automated screen was conducted on the predicted proteomes of *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* for putative NRP/PKS genes using a conservative approach based on the presence of canonical adenylation (AMP-binding, Pfam accession PF00501), thiolation and peptide carrier protein (PP-binding, PF00550) and condensation (PF00668) domains, using HMMER 'hmmsearch' v3.3 (http://hmmer.org/). Only proteins with significant matches (E-value  $\leq 1e-5$ ) to all three domains were classified as putative NRP/PKS in this 'three-domain' set of gene models. The same survey was conducted on published proteomes of the monogonont rotifers *Brachionus plicatilis* (GenBank: GCA\_003710015.1) and *B. calyciflorus* (GCA\_905250105.1), and the acanthocephalan rotifer *Pomphorhynchus laevis* (GCA\_012934845.2); none were found. To check this set against the genomic repertoire of NRP/PKS clusters, a more inclusive manual survey was conducted in *A. vaga*, where a chromosome-scale haploid genome assembly  $(Av20)$  is available<sup>47</sup> alongside the diploid reference assembly used elsewhere  $(Av13)$ . First, Av13 was screened for putative biosynthetic clusters based on the presence of adenylation (A-) and condensation (C-) domains using tBLASTn, agnostic to prior annotations. The number of individual domains occurring once per module was counted, to obtain an independent estimate of the number of modules while accounting for partially assembled NRPS genes that may be distributed between scaffolds. This yielded a total of 306 hits to Adomains and 276 hits to similarly sized C-domains. Since NRPS are organized as iterative modules, each scaffold represented by a set of A-domains and/or C-domains was manually curated to obtain the putative multi-domain cluster. A total of 110 gene models corresponding to putative biosynthetic clusters were identified, most of which exhibit higher similarity to bacterial than to fungal NRPS, alongside 12 annotated polyketide synthases (PKS), with some of the annotated clusters representing NRPS-PKS hybrids. This list recovers all members of the conservative three-domain set  $(n = 60)$ , but also many fragmented or potentially non-biosynthetic annotations, lacking one or more canonical domains.

Cross-referencing to Av20 was performed using a multi-step approach. First, the software AntiSMASH  $v6.1.1^{61}$  was used for automated detection; this revealed potential NRPS-PKS cluster locations, but gene annotations were not optimal, especially intron detection, since the method is optimized for fungal or bacterial genomes. Further searches used tBLASTn with translated CDS of the 122 NRP/PKS-related annotations from the maximal Av13 set. Additionally, putative NRPS A-domains were confirmed with  $NRPS$  predictor $2^{62}$ , which uses support vector machines to predict substrate specificity based on the configuration of the amino acid residues in the active site of an A-domain, with Av20 haploid gene annotations showing a total of 51 with substrate predictions consistent with Adomains. In combination, these lines of evidence identified approximately 40 putative biosynthetic gene clusters in the haploid Av20 assembly (Supplementary Data 9), distributed across the six chromosomes (Fig. 5c, main text). Approximately 10 appeared defective in some way (3' incomplete; apparent frameshifts in key modules), but several of these CDS were highly expressed, so these apparent defects may reflect ongoing assembly and annotation challenges even in a high-quality genome. Clusters (especially those consisting of more than one module) are preferentially located in subtelomeric regions, which agrees with the known enrichment of  $HGT_C$  in telomeric and subtelomeric regions in the A. *vaga* genome.

All of the Av13 annotations in the three-domain NRP/PKS set  $(n = 60)$  could be matched by BLAST to one of 20 clusters in Av20. Each matched cluster attracted a median of 2 annotations, as expected when mapping to a haploid assembly, but with some variability. For example, one especially large subtelomeric Av20 cluster (3.2; 108.5 kb) had 8 matching Av13 annotations, perhaps reflecting scaffold fragmentation in the Av13 assembly, while two focal annotations (AVAG|g23567 and AVAG|g48151) mapped uniquely to a single Av20

cluster each (3.4 and 5.2 respectively), suggesting unresolved alleles in Av13. The remaining Av20 clusters  $(n = 19)$  did not attract matching annotations from the three-domain set, largely because they lacked the canonical C-domains required in the automated survey. Of the 18 Av20 clusters with annotated C-domains, 17 (94%) were captured in the three-domain set.

The genomic context of identified clusters was ascertained directly for *A. vaga* using the Av20 assembly. Of 40 putative NRP/PKS clusters shown in Fig. 5c, 27 (67.5%) are within a subtelomeric region, as defined by a mean relative density of  $>10$  telomeric repeats assessed in a 1 Mb sliding window (Supplementary Fig. 12; see also Figure S10 of Simion et al. 2021). For both species, a statistical approach was used to confirm subtelomeric location, by counting the frequency of three telomere-associated genome features (the telomeric repeat hexamer "TGTGGG"<sup>63</sup>, low gene density and elevated transposable element repeat density) in a (maximum) 50 kb window surrounding each putative NRP/PKS gene model, using BEDTools v2.29.2. The span of each feature was converted to a proportion by dividing by the actual window size for each flanking region, to correct for window size variation. The genomic context of eukaryote BUSCO genes (*n* = 303) was evaluated for comparison. Relative to BUSCO genes, NRP/PKS CDS in both rotifer species show significant associations with increased telomeric repeats (estimate  $= 0.72$ ,  $SE = 0.05$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ) and transposable element repeats (estimate  $= 1.33$ ,  $SE = 0.11$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ), and decreased gene density (estimate  $= -0.09$ , SE  $= 0.01$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Supplementary Fig. 13 and Supplementary Table 6).

One focal NRP/PKS annotation (AVAG|g23567) was not located in a subtelomeric region of Av20, but approximately 6.8 Mb along Chromosome 3 (Fig. 5c; cluster 3.4). It was also unusual among upregulated annotations in apparently lacking orthologous copies in other bdelloids (Supplementary Data 12). Contamination can be excluded, as it was assembled almost identically in Av13 and the Hi-C-scaffolded Av20, with consistent linkage to flanking metazoan genes. The cluster also has few or no introns. Together, this evidence suggests a recent acquisition. We further tested this hypothesis by measuring the guanosine-cytosine (GC) content of the cluster relative to the local genomic context. Elevated GC content is predicted for recently acquired sequences<sup>7</sup> that have yet to converge with the genomic background. We tested this for  $\angle$ AG|g23567 by calculating %GC in a 20kb sliding window along its Av13 contig (AVAG00146). The focal annotation sits at the global maximum of the resulting landscape (Supplementary Fig. 15); no equivalent window in the 365 kb contig shows such high GC content (38%). We used the same method to assess %GC in Av20, where AVAG|g23567 corresponds to cluster 3.4 on Chromosome 3 (the longest chromosome, 20.35 Mb). Again, the maximum GC content (38.1%) for this contig occurs within the focal NRP/PKS cluster. The next-highest 20kb window has a substantially lower value (37.2%). Cluster 3.4 thus underpins the most marked peak in GC content seen on Chromosome 3, consistent with other evidence that it has recently been acquired from a bacterial genome.

#### **Phylogenetic analyses**

Phylogenetic trees of rotifer-encoded NRP/PKS proteins with bacterial and fungal homologs were constructed based on the alignment of the condensation domain (PF00668) with Pfam 'seed' representatives and selected best-matching (i.e. lowest *E*-value) homologs from UniProt/Uniref90 (Supplementary Data 8). Note that the sequence for ARIC|g51138 shown in Fig. 5b was not aligned as it lacks the focal C domain, which is encoded instead in the adjacent gene model (ARIC|g51137). Searches were conducted using Diamond 'blastp' v2.1.8<sup>64</sup> with the parameters "-k 50 --taxon-k 1 --taxon-exclude 44578 -e 1e-5", i.e. excluding any hits to sequences from the Class Bdelloidea but allowing hits to other metazoans should they exist. Additional sequences from other taxa were added manually for some analyses, e.g., rare cases of NRP/PKS in animals<sup>65</sup> to Fig. 5a. Alignments were built using HMMER

'hmmalign', and phylogenetic analysis performed using IQ-TREE v1.6.12 $^{48}$ , using ModelFinder for automatic model selection<sup>49</sup> and the ultrafast bootstrap<sup>66</sup> and SH-like approximate likelihood ratio test<sup>67</sup> for inferring branch support (parameters  $\cdot$ -m TEST -bb 2000 -alrt 1000'). Resultant trees were plotted in R using the 'phytools' v0.7-70<sup>68</sup> and 'ape' v5.4.1<sup>69</sup> packages. Aligned rotifer proteins generally show low similarity to even the bestmatching bacterial hits (e.g., pairwise BLSM62 residue matches are  $<$  50%, even where long sequences spanning multiple domains can be aligned).

#### **Orthology and copy number estimate for the upregulated NRP/PKS cluster**

To test for orthology between AVAG|g48151 and the upregulated, putatively fragmented *A. ricciae* CDS (Fig. 5a and b, main text), the corresponding regions were examined in Av20, and in an alternative short-read genome assembly for *A. ricciae* (denoted Ar21<sup>41</sup>). Although internal sections of the putative NRPS-PKS hybrid cluster may have been collapsed where modules are identical, or fragmented into separately-assembled contigs where alleles diverge, the number of unique flanking sequences at the 5'- and 3'-termini of the gene model can be used to estimate the copy number for each cluster, even if the assembly is less reliable in the middle. We therefore inspected the adjacent flanking regions in the *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* genomic contigs encoding the N-terminal and C-terminal regions of upregulated clusters, looking for local microsynteny in the 5'- and 3'-flanks. The single-copy AVAG|g23567 (scaffold AVAG00146 in Av13; Chr5: 665120..721107 in haploid Av20) does not have a recognizable ortholog in *A. ricciae* assemblies. The single-copy AVAG|g48151 in *A. vaga* (scaffold AVAG00591in Av13; Chr5: 665120..721107 in haploid Av20) has one true ortholog in *A. ricciae*: ARIC|g35898, as judged by the presence of a cytochrome P450 CDS in its immediate 3'-flank on the corresponding Ar21 genomic contig ARIC00373, and an ABC transporter B1-like CDS at the 5'-flank. It also has at least two potentially intact paralogs, indicated by upregulated CDS with alternative 5' and 3' flanks encoding different products: ARIC|g15363, with amiloride-sensitive sodium channel at the 5'-flank in contig ARIC00114; ARIC|g49019 with RNA-recognition motif RRM1\_CPEB2-like protein at the 3'-flank in the Ar21 assembly contig ARIC003\_00110, and ARIC|g51257, with ABC transporter B1-like protein at the 3'-flank in the Ar21 assembly contig ARIC003\_01015; and AVAG|g51868 with MFS transporter-like abhydrolase domain-containing protein at the 5' flank in the Ar21 assembly contig ARIC003\_02601. An additional distinct 3'-flank was detected on a contig harboring an NRPS C-terminal fragment, however it was 5'-truncated and the copy was deemed non-functional. The remaining CDS from Fig. 5b belonging to the middle modules from the same cluster could not be confidently matched with contigs harboring flanking genes, and can be assumed to originate from collapsed or improperly assembled middle modules from one of the paralogs. Note that some copies may have undergone further tandem duplications, thus the current estimate of 3 (or 6, if both alleles are counted) represents the minimal number, which may be revised upwards when a chromosome-quality assembly becomes available. The difficulty in assembling and resolving so many divergent copies of a multimodular cluster (and potential accessory transporter genes) helps explain the apparent fragmentation into multiple gene models for *A. ricciae* (Fig. 5b). Nevertheless, even where multiple gene models overlap (e.g. ARIC|g35898; AVAG|g51868), each feature was assessed as being strongly upregulated in its own right, in analyses where all 11 CDS were available to attract RNA reads (Fig. 5d). Therefore, automated and manually curated annotations across multiple alternative genome assemblies support the conclusion that *A. ricciae* both encodes more copies of the focal NRPS-PKS cluster than *A. vaga* and upregulates these copies more strongly.

#### **Secondary metabolite prediction**

Secondary metabolite products of focal NRP/PKS gene models were predicted using the SeMPI v2.0 web server<sup>70</sup>, with maximum cluster distance set to 25 kb and all metabolite databases selected, but otherwise default settings. We used the upregulated *A. vaga* annotation AVAG|g48151, because this corresponds to a full-length PKS-NRPS cluster whereas the orthologous annotations in *A. ricciae* were fragmented as discussed above. Two different sequences were submitted: an extraction of the region spanning the predicted gene model for AVAG|g48151 (23.4 kb including introns), and the full Av13 genomic scaffold on which this gene model is encoded (AVAG00591, 98.7 kb). The automatic reannotation performed as part of the SeMPI pipeline gave slightly different module and product predictions (gene model region:  $C_{70}H_{86}N_8O_{26}$ ; full scaffold:  $C_{64}H_{77}N_7O_{23}$ ), though both predictions had highest similarity to tyrocidines. Fig. 6a (main text) reports the prediction for the full scaffold input because this is agnostic with respect to prior annotations, but both outputs are provided in Supplementary Data 11 (interpretation of files and terms in this output can be found in the documentation supplied at: [https://sempi-2](https://sempi-2-docu.readthedocs.io/en/latest/) [docu.readthedocs.io/en/latest/\)](https://sempi-2-docu.readthedocs.io/en/latest/). For AVAG|g23567, the full scaffold (AVAG00146, 365.1 kb) was used. The predicted metabolite for AVAG|g48151 was initially rendered by SeMPI with chemical structural errors (pentavalent carbon atoms), so was re-exported in SMILES format to ChemDraw JS (version 19.0.0-CDJS-19.0.x.9+da9bec968, PerkinElmer Informatics), cyclicised with appropriate valences and re-rendered using RDKit.js

[\(https://github.com/rdkit/rdkit\)](https://github.com/rdkit/rdkit).

## <span id="page-14-0"></span>**Supplementary Figures**



**Supplementary Fig. 1**. **Photomicrographs of four individual bdelloid rotifers, illustrating the typical visible timecourse of early attack by** *R. globospora***.** Taken using a SPOT Insight 2MP Color Camera mounted on a Leica DM1000 compound microscope using phase contrast optics and a 40x objective, with pressure applied to partially squash the animal between a glass slide and a coverslip. Scale bar for outer panels is 100 $\mu$ m; inner panels show areas of detail (3x enlarged). *Av* **T1**: *Adineta vaga* 1 hour after exposure to spores, showing a conidium (c) lodged in the mouth near one of the bilateral rows of 4 'U-hooks' that form the rakes. Micrograph is representative of  $n = 9$  replicate animals. Av T7: A different *A. vaga* 7 hours later, showing germination of a lodged conidium into a filiform germ tube (g) that has penetrated the oesophageal tissue and begun to bifurcate (*n* = 9 replicates). *Av* **T24**: After 24 hours, a germ tube from a conidium lodged near the rakes has penetrated the tissue between the mouth and trophi and has differentiated to form lobed, branching assimilative hyphae (a). Micrograph is representative of  $n = 7$  replicate infections. Ar **T24**: An individual A. *ricciae* that was exposed to the same spore inoculum at the same time as *A. vaga*. After 24 hours, a similarly lodged and differentiated conidium can be seen, except that the assimilative hyphae in this case appear less extensive and have not penetrated as deeply beyond the mouth. Micrograph is representative of  $n = 5$  replicate animals. It is unknown whether the animals seen here would have gone on to resist or succumb to the infections, because the slide squash is irreversible, but elsewhere we show that survival rates for *A. ricciae* are three times higher than for *A. vaga*.



**Supplementary Fig. 2. Correlation in DE between timepoints.** Each point represents a single gene, and its log<sup>2</sup> fold change in expression in treatment groups versus control groups at timepoint T7 (*X*-axis) versus timepoint T24 (*Y*-axis) for **a** *A. vaga* and **b** *A. ricciae*. Positive values represent upregulation in the treatment groups relative to control groups; negative values represent downregulation. Genes with significant DE in both timepoints are shown in red (*A. vaga*) and blue (*A. ricciae*); genes significant in one timepoint but not the other are shown with diamond and circle symbols (see legends). Genes with non-significant DE in both timepoints are plotted in grey. Solid black lines show the linear relationship for all upregulated genes (i.e., genes with  $log_2$  fold change  $> 0$  in both timepoints; Pearson's correlation  $R = 0.84$  and 0.82 for *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae*, respectively; *P* < 2e–16 in both cases). Dashed black lines show the linear relationship for downregulated genes ( $log_2$  fold change  $\leq 0$  in both timepoints; Pearson's correlation  $R = 0.67$  and 0.66 for *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae*, respectively;  $P < 2e-16$  in both cases).



**Supplementary Fig. 3. Extent of gene sharing in differentially expressed subsets across timepoints and species.** Values in each segment show the number of genes significantly **a**  upregulated and **b** downregulated for intersecting groups. Genes are linked by orthologous group ID (note that values represent numbers of orthologous groups, which do not always match the number of individual genes; see Supplementary Methods for more details). *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* are shown in red and blue outlines, respectively; T7 is shown with a solid outline, T24 with a dashed outline. Segments with no values have no genes (orthogroups) shared across that intersection. No genes were shared between upregulated and downregulated sets for different timepoints for either species, so these two plots do not themselves overlap.



**Supplementary Fig. 4. Correlation in DE between gene copies within and between genomes.** Plots show the log<sub>2</sub> fold change in expression in treatment versus control groups for **a** gene copies within *A. vaga* at timepoint T7, **b** gene copies within *A. vaga* at timepoint T24, **c** gene copies within *A. ricciae* at T7, **d** gene copies within *A. ricciae* at T24, **e** gene copies between species at T7, and finally **f** gene copies between species at T24. Note that each point represents a relationship between a pair of genes, not a gene itself (i.e., putative homologs, homoeologs or paralogs for within-genome comparisons, or orthologs for between-genome comparisons). Solid black lines show the linear relationship for all upregulated genes (i.e., genes with  $log_2$  fold change  $> 0$  in both copies; Pearson's correlation  $R = 0.43, 0.43, 0.49, 0.60$ , 0.35 and 0.37 for *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* within-genome copies (i.e., 'homologs'), timepoints T7 and T24 between-genome copies (i.e., 'homoeologs'), respectively; *P* < 2e–16 in all cases). Dashed black lines show the linear relationship for downregulated genes ( $log_2$  fold change  $< 0$ ) at both timepoints; Pearson's correlation *R* = 0.50, 0.50, 0.39, 0.42, 0.26 and 0.40 for *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae*, timepoints T7 and T24 respectively; *P* < 2e–16 in all cases). For example, of 1093 genes that were significantly upregulated in *A. vaga* at T24, 552 (50.5%) shared an ortholog that was also significantly upregulated in *A. ricciae*, and the magnitude of DE between these orthologs was significantly correlated (Pearson's correlation  $R = 0.62$ ,  $P < 2e-16$ ).



**Supplementary Fig. 5. Effect of varying DE significance parameters on HGT<sup>C</sup> enrichment in** *A. vaga*. Dashed lines show  $\pm \log_2$  fold change thresholds that are equivalent to demarking up- and downregulated subsets using **a** 1.5-fold, **b** 2-fold, **c** 8-fold, and **d** 16-fold changes in expression value. FDR threshold < 1e–3 in all cases. *P*-values in blue show the probability of observing these data given the null hypothesis that  $HGT_C$  were not enriched in the corresponding subset (Fisher exact tests, two-sided).



**Supplementary Fig. 6. Effect of varying DE significance parameters on HGT<sub>C</sub> enrichment in** A. ricciae. Dashed lines show  $\pm \log_2 5$  fold change thresholds that are equivalent to demarking up- and downregulated subsets using **a** 1.5-fold, **b** 2-fold, **c** 8-fold, and **d** 16-fold changes in expression value. FDR threshold < 1e–3 in all cases. *P*-values in blue show the probability of observing these data given the null hypothesis that  $HGT_C$  were not enriched in the corresponding subset (Fisher exact tests, two-sided).



#### A. vaga DE results (edgeR)

**Supplementary Fig. 7. DE results using the edgeR package in** *A. vaga***.** Plots arranged as above.



A. vaga DE results (Limma/Voom)

**Supplementary Fig. 8. DE results using the voom package in** *A. vaga***.** Plots arranged as above.



#### A. ricciae DE results (edgeR)

**Supplementary Fig. 9. DE results using the edgeR package in** *A. ricciae***.** Plots arranged as above.



#### A. ricciae DE results (Limma/Voom)

**Supplementary Fig. 10. DE results using the voom package in** *A. ricciae***.** Plots arranged as above.



**Supplementary Fig. 11. Combined PCA summarising overall patterns of gene expression across all replicates of the pathogen and desiccation stress experiments.** Clustering of replicates within each treatment group is generally highly consistent. The position of replicates along the primary axis (PC1) is correlated with the relative onset and progression of the stressor in the respective experiments: 'control' (hydrated + uninfected); 'early-stage stress'  $(T7 +$ entering) and 'later-stage stress'  $(T24 + \text{recovering})$ . The variation among control groups within the pathogen experiment  $(n = 12)$  is similar in magnitude to the difference between the pathogen and the desiccation control groups. At the broad scale analysed here, this suggests that the baseline transcriptional state of the animals was not dramatically different between experiments, relative to variation within experiments and to the changes induced by the respective stressors.



**Supplementary Fig. 12. Locations of TEs, genes, HGT<sup>C</sup> and putative secondary metabolite synthesis clusters in the Av20 haploid assembly.** Profiles for chromosomes 1–6 show seven tracks: **a** biosynthetic gene clusters (black ticks with yellow highlights to indicate span), **b** HGT<sub>C</sub>, **c** core metazoan genes, **d** TE-like elements, **e** Av13-TE consensus annotations (black histogram), **f** PacBio DNA sequencing coverage and **g** Illumina DNA sequencing coverage (red line). Transposable element (TE) repeats described by Simion et al.<sup>47</sup> were predominantly located in subtelomeric regions (green histogram), with distribution confirmed here by mapping compiled A. vaga TE consensus sequences<sup>7</sup> to the Av20 assembly (black histogram). Gene-rich regions (blue histogram) are mainly located outside of subtelomeric regions. Chromosome ideograms (outer layer) are plotted as colour bars (homologous pairs showing similar colour), with labels  $(1-6)$  showing chromosome numbers from the source genome assembly (GCA\_021613535.1). External label ticks are spaced at 2.4 Mb apart. Coverage and histogram layers were calculated with a 100 kb sliding window. Tracks a and e are new, the others are drawn after Simion et al.<sup>47</sup>. Of approximately 40 putative biosynthesis clusters, two appear to be 3'-incomplete and 10 appear to contain frameshifts and/or stop codons; nevertheless, several of these are substantially transcribed.



**Supplementary Fig. 13. Genomic context of putative NRP/PKS clusters.** The 50 kb flanking regions surrounding putative NRP/PKS gene models in both *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* show significantly **a** fewer genes, and **b** more TEs compared to BUSCO genes (see also Fig. 5d and Supplementary Table 6 for statistical testing). *N* = 1120, 1137, 97 and 45 for *A. vaga* and *A. ricciae* BUSCO and NRP/PKS categories, respectively. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.



**Supplementary Fig. 14. Phylogenetic relationships of bdelloid HGT<sup>C</sup> with putative roles in pathogen resistance.** Trees are shown for RNA ligase domains **a** 2\_5\_RNA\_ligase2, **b** RNA\_ligase and **c** RNA\_lig\_T4\_1; glycosyl hydrolase domains **d** Glyco\_hydro\_16 and **e** Glyco\_hydro\_64, and a caspase domain **f** Peptidase\_C14. Sequences from *A. vaga* (red) and *A. ricciae* (blue) that were significantly up- or downregulated at T24 after pathogen exposure are shown as black triangles. Non-rotifer sequences were taken from the Pfam seed alignments for each domain, and thus represent the known diversity across the tree of life. Tip symbols indicate taxonomy (see legend). Metazoan sequences are indicated with a blue 'M' if present.



**Supplementary Fig. 15. GC content surrounding the upregulated NRPS/PKS cluster corresponding to AVAG|g23567.** GC content was calculated in a 20 kb sliding window along **a** contig AVAG00146 (Av13, 36.5 kb), and **b** contig CP075492 (Av20, Chromosome 3, 20.35 Mb). In each case the position of the focal annotation (shown in red) corresponds to a global peak in GC content, as predicted if this cluster had recently been acquired from a genome with a substantially higher baseline GC content than *A. vaga*.



**Supplementary Fig. 16. Counts of rotifers in the subset of experimental well plates coupled directly to RNA extraction tubes.** Each datapoint represents six biologically replicated exposures to either live or UV-inactivated pathogen spores for *A. ricciae* (total *n* = 125 individuals) and *A. vaga* (*n* = 119). The pulse of live or inactivated spores was applied at  $T = 0$ . Between 72 and 96 hours, hatchlings began to emerge in the wells that had not been present when the spores were applied, and the infection mortality rate for the exposed cohort appeared to have stabilised. Animals dying of causes other than fungal infection are not plotted here, but this background mortality rate was < 2% of individuals. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.



a



**Supplementary Fig. 17. PCA of gene expression within and between biological replicates.** Plots of primary versus secondary (left panels) and secondary versus tertiary (right panels) axes of variation are shown for all replicate groups of the **a** *A. ricciae* pathogen experiment, **b** *A. vaga* pathogen experiment, and **c** *A. vaga* desiccation experiment. Group codes are as follows: 'AD1' = *A. ricciae*; 'AD8' = *A. vaga*; 'X' = control; 'Y' = treatment (pathogen exposure); '7' = timepoint T7; '24' = timepoint T24; 'Ent' = entering desiccation; 'Hyd' = hydrated; 'Rec' = recovering from desiccation.



**Supplementary Fig. 18. Expression of HGT<sup>C</sup> in control groups. a** Proportion of genes expressed in control groups (i.e., trimmed mean of M-values [TMM] > 0 in any control replicate) by  $HGT_C$  classification, for the pathogen experiment. Fisher exact test for count data, for *A. vaga* odds ratio = 1.34 (95% CI = 1.32–1.38), for *A. ricciae* odds ratio = 1.22 (95% CI = 1.19–1.27);  $P < 2e-16$  in both cases. **b** Level of gene expression ( $log_{10}$  TMM) by HGT<sub>C</sub> classification in control replicates. Mean (log<sub>10</sub>) TMM *A. vaga* non-HGT<sub>C</sub> = 1.35  $\pm$ 2.38 SD, *A. vaga* HGT<sub>C</sub> =  $1.03 \pm 1.97$  SD; Welch two sample *t*-test,  $t = 80.5$  (49,628 d.f.),  $P < 2e-16$ ; Mean (log<sub>10</sub>) TMM *A. ricciae* non-HGT<sub>C</sub> = 1.30  $\pm$  2.31 SD; *A. ricciae* HGT<sub>C</sub> = 1.12 ± 2.08 SD; Welch two sample *t*-test, *t* = 60.3 (31,226 d.f.), *P* < 2e–16. *N* = 248,974, 37,407, 262,095 and 32,695 across categories as shown, for both panels. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.



**Supplementary Fig. 19. Gene expression in control replicates of** *A. vaga* **in a desiccation experiment. a** Proportion of genes expressed in control groups (i.e., trimmed mean of Mvalues  $[TMM] > 0$  in any control replicate) by  $HGT_C$  classification, for the desiccation experiment. Fisher exact test for count data, odds ratio =  $1.43$  (95% CI =  $1.38-1.47$ ),  $P < 2e-$ 16. **b** Level of expression ( $log_{10}$  TMM) of HGT<sub>C</sub> and metazoan genes expressed in control replicates. Mean (log<sub>10</sub>) TMM *A. vaga* metazoan =  $1.33 \pm 2.57$  SD; *A. vaga* HGT<sub>C</sub> =  $1.10 \pm$ 2.27 SD; Welch two sample *t*-test, *t* = 56.5 (25,801 d.f.), *P* < 2e–16. *N* = 126,293 and 19,157 across categories as shown. Source data are provided as a Source Data file.

## <span id="page-33-0"></span>**Supplementary Tables**

**Supplementary Table 1.** Fixed and random effects for a linear mixed effects model testing for significant differences in magnitude of DE (normalised log2FC) between species. The reference levels for fixed factors were as follows: 'Species' = 'Av' (*A. vaga*), 'DE category' = 'NS' (i.e. genes with no significant change in expression, defined by the thresholds stated in the main text), 'Timepoint' = 'T7'. Results are based on 249,392 observations from 124,696 genes.





**Supplementary Table 2.** Pearson's product-moment correlations (two-tailed) in log<sub>2</sub> foldchange expression.

<sup>a</sup>Explanation of tests: "Timepoints", correlation in differential expression (DE) in the same gene across timepoints T7 and T24 (Supplementary Fig. 2); "Within genomes", correlation in DE between inferred gene copies within genomes (including putative homologs, homoeologs and other gene copies) (Supplementary Fig. 4a–d); "Between genomes"; correlation in DE between inferred orthologs across species (Supplementary Fig. 4e–f).

<sup>b</sup>Timepoints: "T7", 7h post-infection; "T24", 24h post-infection.

<sup>c</sup>DE type: "Up", genes that are upregulated in the treatment group (i.e., positive DE); "Down", genes that are downregulated in the treatment group (negative DE). Note that all genes are included in correlations regardless of significance.

## **Supplementary Table 3.** Statistical analysis of HGT<sub>C</sub> enrichment among DE genes.

**a** Summary of a generalised (binomial) linear model testing for enrichment of  $HGT<sub>C</sub>$  in upand downregulated subsets of genes following exposure to a fungal pathogen. The reference levels for fixed factors were as follows: 'DE category' = 'NS' (i.e. genes with no significant change in expression, defined by the thresholds stated in the main text); 'timepoint' = ' $T7$ '. Results are based on 249,392 observations of 124,696 genes.



**b** Fixed effects for generalized linear models run separately for timepoints T7 and T24. The reference levels for fixed factors were as follows: 'Species' = 'Av' (*A. vaga*), 'DE category' = 'NS' (i.e. genes with no significant change in expression, defined by the thresholds stated in the main text).



**Supplementary Table 4.** Fixed effects for a generalized linear model testing for significant enrichment of  $\overline{HGT_C}$  in up- and downregulated subsets of genes while entering and recovering from desiccation. The reference levels for the fixed factor 'DE category' = 'NS' (i.e. genes with no significant change in expression, defined by the thresholds stated in the main text).



**Supplementary Table 5.** Proportion of *A. vaga* DE genes shared between pathogen and desiccation conditions. Values in bold on diagonals indicate the total number of genes in each category (e.g., 136 HGT<sub>C</sub> genes upregulated at T7). Percentages in each cell then indicate the proportion of shared genes relative to the row total (e.g.,  $89\%$  of 145 T7 upregulated HGT<sub>C</sub> genes are shared with T24 upregulated set). Green and red shading is to highlight the relative size of the shared fraction for up- and downregulated subsets, respectively.



**Supplementary Table 6.** Fixed and random effects for linear mixed effects models testing for an association between putative NRP/PKS genes and three genomic features of interest **a**  gene density, **b** transposable elements, and **c** telomeric repeats, as measured by the proportion  $(%)$  of base pairs occupied by these features in 25 kb flanking regions (minimum = 1 kb) surrounding putative NRP/PKS genes compared to BUSCO genes.



**a** Gene density. The reference level for the fixed factor 'Type' = 'BUSCO'.

**b** Transposable elements. The reference level for the fixed factor 'Type' = 'BUSCO'.



### **c** Telomeric repeats. The reference level for the fixed factor 'Type' = 'BUSCO'.



**Supplementary Table 7**. Determination of flanking genes in paralogous *A. ricciae* copies of the *A. vaga* PKS-NRPS cluster AVAG|g48151 shown in Fig. 5b, using alternative 2021 assembly (Ar21<sup>41</sup>). Bold font denotes flanking genes resembling putative drug transporters  $(MFS/ABCB)^{71}$  or encoding the cytochrome P450 domain, associated with metazoan detoxification of xenobiotic metabolites and with their biosynthesis and biotransformation in bacteria<sup>72</sup>. Matching Ar18 gene models are listed and the differential expression status of these flanking genes is shown in Supplementary Data 10 (all are highly upregulated together with their neighbouring NRP/PKS).



1 **Supplementary Table 8.** Evidence for the hypothesis that upregulation of HGT<sub>C</sub>-enriched<br>2 effectors might be paired with downregulation of HGT<sub>C</sub>-enriched negative regulators or

- 2 effectors might be paired with downregulation of  $HGT_C$ -enriched negative regulators or repressors. Occurrence of the word "regulation" in the text of GO terms that are significal
- 3 repressors. Occurrence of the word "regulation" in the text of GO terms that are significantly
- 4 enriched among differentially expressed  $HGT_C$  genes. This word appears only in terms
- 5 enriched in downregulated genes, and at a significantly higher rate in the pathogen response
- 6 than in the desiccation response, where  $HGT_C$  are not significantly enriched. For instance, it<br>7 only appears once among the 55 GO terms enriched among  $HGT_C$  that are downregulated only appears once among the 55 GO terms enriched among  $HGT<sub>C</sub>$  that are downregulated
- 8 during desiccation recovery, where there was correspondingly only very weak enrichment of
- 9 upregulated HGT<sub>C</sub> (Fig. 3b). Fisher's exact test for frequency of "regulation" in *A. vaga*
- 10 pathogen T24 downregulated versus desiccation recovery downregulated terms: *P* < 0.0001.
- 11



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**Supplementary Table 9.** Data counts for raw and filtered sequencing data.

**Supplementary Table 10.** Assembly and quality metrics for Trinity *de novo* transcriptomes.



<sup>a</sup>BUSCO codes: **C**, complete; **S**, complete and single copy; **D**, complete and duplicated; **F**, fragmented. bGenBank accessions: *A. ricciae*, GCA\_900240375.1; *A. vaga*, GCA\_000513175.1.



# **Supplementary Table 11.** Proportion of raw RNA-seq data mapping to *E. coli* OP50 genome.

<b>Sample ID</b>	<b>Species</b>	<b>Total reads</b>	<b>Mapped reads</b>	$\frac{6}{9}$	<b>Total bases</b>	<b>Mapped bases</b>	$\frac{6}{6}$
AD1X24b	Adineta ricciae	66227634	2540	0.004%	3310716200	126964	0.004%
AD1X24c	Adineta ricciae	94024076	3869	0.004%	4700243436	193427	0.004%
AD1X24d	Adineta ricciae	76229980	1984	0.003%	3810727560	99189	0.003%
AD1X7a	Adineta ricciae	101914574	8800	0.009%	5094710998	439925	0.009%
AD1X7b	Adineta ricciae	71677976	4079	0.006%	3583188364	203939	0.006%
AD1X7c	Adineta ricciae	88264972	8537	0.010%	4412373744	426824	0.010%
AD1Y24b	Adineta ricciae	72107000	6247	0.009%	3604641298	312326	0.009%
AD1Y24c	Adineta ricciae	84864356	6671	0.008%	4242376646	333452	0.008%
AD1Y24d	Adineta ricciae	68816850	4148	0.006%	3440163964	207340	0.006%
AD1Y7a	Adineta ricciae	88073474	7420	0.008%	4402804314	370968	0.008%
AD1Y7c	Adineta ricciae	59626746	37248	0.063%	2980729936	1861604	0.063%
AD1Y7d	Adineta ricciae	91899730	15321	0.017%	4594073480	765977	0.017%
AD8X24b	Adineta vaga	72241176	4026	0.006%	3611252230	201274	0.006%
AD8X24c	Adineta vaga	88430872	8762	0.010%	4420542982	437924	0.010%
AD8X24d	Adineta vaga	75066308	7264	0.010%	3752507226	363134	0.010%
AD8X7a	Adineta vaga	100763764	16084	0.016%	5037013014	803992	0.016%
AD8X7b	Adineta vaga	80579888	28897	0.036%	4028031738	1444544	0.036%
AD8X7c	Adineta vaga	77159840	12345	0.016%	3857128480	617118	0.016%
AD8Y24a	Adineta vaga	66005632	7151	0.011%	3299557790	357435	0.011%
AD8Y24b	Adineta vaga	72408734	8282	0.011%	3619621438	414048	0.011%
AD8Y24c	Adineta vaga	64429388	15062	0.023%	3220751222	753022	0.023%
AD8Y7a	Adineta vaga	97013708	19600	0.020%	4849556092	979854	0.020%
AD8Y7c	Adineta vaga	64664014	25117	0.039%	3232464688	1255458	0.039%
AD8Y7d	Adineta vaga	61679400	25849	0.042%	3083272030	1292098	0.042%

**Supplementary Table 12.** Proportion of filtered RNA-seq data mapping to *E. coli* OP50 genome.



**Supplementary Table 13.** Proportion of filtered data mapping to *E. coli* OP50 23S rRNA reference.

![](_page_46_Picture_383.jpeg)

**Supplementary Table 14.** Counts for significantly upregulated *A. vaga* HGT<sub>C</sub> genes with OP50 reads mapping. Replicate count data and control/treatment means shown in columns 4–11.

<sup>a</sup>Total number of filtered RNA-seq reads mapping to focal gene (i.e., that could possibly influence DE outcome).

**Supplementary Table 15.** Counts for significantly upregulated *A. ricciae* HGT<sub>C</sub> genes with OP50 reads mapping. Replicate count data and control/treatment means shown in columns 4–11. The only gene for which a potential *E. coli* OP50-derived read could account for a substantial proportion of total count data (1 read mapping versus control mean of 4) is highlighted in bold and with an asterisk. This gene is most similar to a hypothetical protein with unknown function from a Delta proteobacterium and is not discussed in the text.

![](_page_47_Picture_618.jpeg)

![](_page_48_Picture_678.jpeg)

<sup>a</sup> Total number of filtered RNA-seq reads mapping to focal gene (i.e., that could possibly influence DE outcome).

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