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Genome of the ramshorn snail Biomphalaria straminea - an obligate intermediate host of schistosomiasis --Manuscript Draft--

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Abstract:	Background Schistosomiasis or bilharzia is a parasitic disease caused by trematode flatworms of the genus Schistosoma . Infection of S chistosoma mansoni in humans results when cercariae emerge into water from freshwater snails in the genus Biomphalaria , and seek out and penetrate human skin. The snail Biomphalaria straminea is native to South America and is now also present in Central America and China, and represents a potential vector host for spreading schistosomiasis. To date, genomic information for the genus is restricted to the neotropical species Biomphalaria glabrata . This limits understanding of the biology and management of other schistosomiasis vectors, such as B. straminea . Findings Using a combination of Illumina short-read, 10X Genomics linked-read, and Hi-C sequencing data, our 1.005 Gbp B. straminea genome assembly is of high contiguity, with a scaffold N50 of 25.3 Mbp. Transcriptomes from adults were also obtained. Developmental homeobox genes, hormonal genes, and stress-response genes were identified, and repeat content was annotated (40.68% of genomic content). Comparisons with other mollusc genomes (including Gastropoda, Bivalvia and Cephalopoda) revealed syntenic conservation, patterns of homeobox gene linkage indicative of evolutionary changes to gene clusters, expansion of heat shock protein genes, and the presence of sesquiterpenoid and cholesterol metabolic pathway genes in Gastropoda. In addition, hormone treatment together with RT-qPCR assay reveal a sesquiterpenoid hormone responsive system in B. straminea , illustrating this renowned insect hormonal system is also present in the lophotrochozoan lineage. Conclusion This study provides the first genome assembly for the snail B. straminea and offers an unprecedented opportunity to address a variety of biology related to snail vectors of schistosomiasis , as well as evolutionary and genomics questions related to molluscs	
Corresponding Author:	Jerome Hui	
	HONG KONG	
Corresponding Author Secondary Information:		
Corresponding Author's Institution:		
Corresponding Author's Secondary Institution:		
First Author:	Wenyan Nong	
First Author Secondary Information:		
Order of Authors:	Wenyan Nong	
	Yifei Yu	
	Madeleine E. Aase-Remedios	

	Yichun Xie
	Wai Lok So
	Yiqian Li
	Cheuk Fung Wong
	Toby Baril
	Sean TS Law
	Sheung Yee Lai
	Jasmine Haimovitz
	Thomas Swale
	Shan-shan Chen
	Zhen-peng Kai
	Xi Sun
	Zhongdao Wu
	Alexander Hayward
	David Ferrier
	Jerome Hui
Order of Authors Secondary Information	Jelone Hui
Order of Authors Secondary Information:	The data qualishility section has now been completed as any sected. Then by you
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- 1 Genome of the ramshorn snail Biomphalaria straminea an obligate intermediate host of
- 2 schistosomiasis
- Wenyan Nong^{1,^}, Yifei Yu^{1,^}, Madeleine E. Aase-Remedios^{3,^}, Yichun Xie^{1,^}, Wai Lok So^{1,^},
- 4 Yiqian Li^{1,^}, Cheuk Fung Wong^{1,^}, Toby Baril^{2,^}, Sean T. S. Law^{1,^}, Sheung Yee Lai¹, Jasmine
- 5 Haimovitz⁴, Thomas Swale⁴, Shan-shan Chen⁵, Zhen-peng Kai⁶, Sun Xi⁷, Zhongdao Wu⁷,
- 6 Alexander Hayward^{2,*}, David E.K. Ferrier^{3,*}, Jerome H.L. Hui^{1,*}
- 7 1. School of Life Science, Simon F.S. Li Marine Science Laboratory, State Key Laboratory of
- 8 Agrobiotechnology, The Chinese University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong, China
- 9 2. University of Exeter, United Kingdom
- 3. The Scottish Oceans Institute, Gatty Marine Laboratory, School of Biology, University of St.
- 11 Andrews, United Kingdom
- 4. Dovetail Genomics, United States of America
- 5. Institute of Agro-food Standard and Testing Technology, Shanghai Academy of Agricultural
- 14 Sciences, Shanghai, China
- 6. School of Chemical and Environmental Engineering, Shanghai Institute of Technology,
- 16 Shanghai, China
- 17 7. Sun Yat-sen University, Guangdong, China
- 18 ^ = contributed equally;
- 19 *=correspondence:
- alex.hayward@exeter.ac.uk; dekf@st-andrews.ac.uk; jeromehui@cuhk.edu.hk

ORCID IDs: Wenyan Nong [0000-0002-3277-716X] Madeleine E Aase-Remedios [0000-0001-6829-0815] Wai Lok So [0000-0001-5048-5454] Yichun Xie [0000-0002-1744-5749] Wu Zhongdao [0000-0001-5879-9757] Sun Xi [0000-0003-2213-2763] Zhen-peng Kai [0000-0003-4861-942X] Shan-shan Chen [0000-0002-1404-7147] Alexander Hayward [0000-0001-7413-718X] David E K Ferrier [0000-0003-3247-6233] Jerome H L Hui [0000-0003-1355-8495]

1 Abstract

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Background

- 3 Schistosomiasis or bilharzia is a parasitic disease caused by trematode flatworms of the
- 4 genus *Schistosoma*. Infection by *Schistosoma mansoni* in humans results when cercariae emerge
- 5 into water from freshwater snails in the genus *Biomphalaria*, and seek out and penetrate human
- 6 skin. The snail *Biomphalaria straminea* is native to South America and is now also present in
- 7 Central America and China, and represents a potential vector host for spreading schistosomiasis.
- 8 To date, genomic information for the genus is restricted to the neotropical species *Biomphalaria*
- 9 glabrata. This limits understanding of the biology and management of other schistosomiasis
- 10 vectors, such as *B. straminea*.

Findings

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- 12 Using a combination of Illumina short- read, 10X Genomics linked- read, and Hi- C sequencing
- data, our 1.005 Gbp *B. straminea* genome assembly is of high contiguity, with a scaffold N50 of
- 14 25.3 Mbp. Transcriptomes from adults were also obtained. Developmental homeobox genes,
- 15 hormonal genes, and stress-response genes were identified, and repeat content was annotated
- 16 (40.68% of genomic content). Comparisons with other mollusc genomes (including Gastropoda,
- 17 Bivalvia and Cephalopoda) revealed syntenic conservation, patterns of homeobox gene linkage
- indicative of evolutionary changes to gene clusters, expansion of heat shock protein genes, and the
- 19 presence of sesquiterpenoid and cholesterol metabolic pathway genes in Gastropoda. In addition,
- 20 hormone treatment together with RT-qPCR assay reveal a sesquiterpenoid hormone responsive
- 21 system in B. straminea, illustrating this renowned insect hormonal system is also present in the
- 22 lophotrochozoan lineage.

Conclusion

2 This study provides the first genome assembly for the snail B. straminea and offers an

unprecedented opportunity to address a variety of biology related to snail vectors of

schistosomiasis, as well as evolutionary and genomics questions related to molluscs more widely.

Background

With over 240 million people worldwide estimated to require treatment, the World Health Organisation considers schistosomiasis to be the second most prevalent parasitic disease after malaria (https://www.who.int/health-topics/schistosomiasis). As such, schistosomiasis is a global health problem that causes considerable economic and social burdens.

Infection by *Schistosoma mansoni* (NCBI:txid6183) in humans results when cercariae emerge into the water from their freshwater snail intermediate hosts in the genus *Biomphalaria*, and seek out and penetrate submerged body parts through the skin. Once inside the human body, adult worms lay eggs, which are deposited in the blood venules and will cross the intestinal wall to leave the body in the faeces. In addition, eggs that fail to cross the intestinal wall (named "reflux eggs") circulate to the liver where they grow, emerge, and cause pathology. Miracidia larvae hatch from eggs that reach water, then seek out and penetrate a new snail intermediate host. Following this, sporocysts develop in the infected snails, and subsequently free-living cercariae emerge from the snail into the water, completing the parasitic life cycle. Among the 34 described species of *Biomphalaria* snails, 18 species (including *B. straminea*) have been demonstrated to be potential vectors for *S. mansoni*. Different geographical locations are dominated by different species of *Biomphalaria*.

The native range of *Biomphalaria* snails is South America and Africa (Campbell et al 2000; DeJong 2001). However, several species have been introduced to other areas, presenting a risk of schistosomiasis infection. The occurrence of B. straminea in Asia was first reported at Lam Tsuen valley in Hong Kong during the 1970s (Meier-Brook 1974; Figure 1A), presumably having somehow spread from its native range in South America into Central America and southern China (Yang et al., 2018). B. straminea have since been identified at a number of locations in Hong Kong and Guangdong Province (Attwood et al 2015; Dudgeon and Yipp 1983; Meier-Brook 1974; Woodruff et al 1985; Zeng et al 2017). While S. mansoni is not yet endemic in either Hong Kong or mainland China, cases of schistosomiasis caused by the parasite are currently increasing in China. According to the records from the database of the National Notifiable Disease Report System (NNDRS), 355 cases of imported schistosomiasis cases had been reported in 15 provinces in China between 1979 and 2019, including 78 cases infected with S. mansoni, 262 cases with S. haematobia, and 15 cases with unidentified Schistosoma. Since B. straminea had already been discovered in Guangdong province in southern China, it is believed that the imported S. mansoni increases the risk of its transmission in China. (Zhu and Xu 2014; Wang et al 2020).

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Whole genome sequences are valuable resources for obtaining deeper understanding of the biology of any organism. Despite the importance of the phylum Mollusca, there is a lack of genomic resources (Davison and Neiman 2021). In the case of *B. straminea*, such a resource will impact questions of how they may interact with *S. mansoni* and how similar the genetic mechanisms are between different *Biomphalaria* species, with possible implications for how treatments and management strategies might be transferable. To date, only the genome of *Biomphalaria glabrata* has been sequenced and analysed (Adema et al 2017; Tennessen et al 2020; Figure 1B), and a high-quality genome of *B. straminea* is lacking, hindering further understanding

1	of the species. To address this issue, we provide and analyse a high-quality genome assembly
2	for B. straminea together with accompanying transcriptomes.
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Results and Discussion

Genome quality evaluation

Genomic DNA was extracted from single individuals of *B. straminea* (Figure 1A). Genome sequences were first assembled using short-reads followed by scaffolding with Hi-C data. The genome assembly (without the mitochondrial genome) is 1.005 Gbp with a scaffold N50 of 25.3 Mbp (Figure 1B). This high physical contiguity is matched by high completeness, with an 87.0% complete BUSCO score (Simao et al 2015) (Figure 1B). A total of 43,340 gene models, including 3,122 tRNA and 40,218 protein-coding genes, were generated by mapping transcriptome data to the genome assembly (S1. Sequencing data). The mean exon length is 262 bp, mean intron length is 1,603 bp, and mean deduced protein length is 377 aa. The genome quality generated in this study is comparable to the previously published genome assemblies of another schistosomiasis carrying vector snail, *B. glabrata* (Adema et al 2017; Tennessen et al 2020; Figure 1B).

Repeat element analysis

We identified a total repeat content of 40.68% in the genome of *B. straminea* (Figure 1C), demonstrating that repeats make up a large proportion of total genome size in the species. A considerable proportion of repeats were unclassified (15.81%), suggesting that many of the annotated repeats represent new repeat families (Figure 1C), which is not unexpected given the relatively sparse attention given to the analysis of repeats in gastropod molluscs to date. Of the remaining repeats, LINE elements and DNA transposons are most abundant (LINEs: 10.48%, DNA transposons: 8.32%), whereas SINEs, LTR elements, and rolling-circle elements are present

only in low proportions (LTR elements: 2.7%, rolling-circle elements: 1.71%, SINEs: 1.31%) (Figure 1C). Consideration of a repeat landscape plot suggests that there has been a long-term ongoing expansion of repeats in *B. straminea*, with a recent spike in activity. The recent spike is evident from the relatively large percentage of repeats in the genome that are separated from their family consensus sequences by short distances, while the long tail of increasing divergence from the consensus is suggestive of a gradual increase in activity over a relatively long time period (Figure 1C). LINEs and DNA transposons have expanded most significantly, however, there has also been a less considerable expansion of LTR and Rolling circle elements (Figure 1C).

Homeobox-containing gene content and linkage

a) Hox cluster genes

Homeobox genes are transcription factors involved in regulating animal development. Not only are they highly conserved between distantly related lineages, but also many of the genes are linked or clustered in genomes. Besides the most well-known clusters like the Hox and ParaHox clusters, many homeobox genes are linked including other ANTP class genes in NK and SuperHox clusters, and also amongst other classes of PRD, TALE, and SINE homeobox genes (Butts et al., 2008; Mazza et al., 2010; Ferrier, 2016). These clusters have been maintained or dispersed differently in different animal lineages. Changes to gene clustering may represent the breakdown of regulatory constraints which normally maintain clusters and are thought to be the mechanism holding together the tightly regulated Hox cluster, for instance. Genomic clustering also reflects the ancient origins of many of these homeobox genes by tandem duplication, e.g., the four ANTP clusters in the bilaterian ancestor that arose via subsequent expansions from a single Proto-ANTP gene (Hui et al., 2012). Among molluscs, a diverse phylum to which gastropods belong, alongside

other conchiferans (monoplacophorans, bivalves, scaphopods, and cephalopods), as well as aculiferans (aplacophorans and polyplacophorans), some of the diversity of body plans may be underpinned by changes to developmental genes like homeobox genes. Hox genes have been coopted to the development of novel morphological structures in cephalopods (Lee et al., 2003), and this corresponds to a breakdown of the Hox cluster across several large scaffolds, and the loss of a few genes (Albertin et al., 2015). Other mollusc genomes show a breakdown of homeobox clustering overall, like the Pacific oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*; Paps et al., 2015), while a more recent chromosome-level assembly reveals large-scale patterns of linkage in *Magallana hongkongensis* (Li et al., 2020). This genome assembly of *B. straminea* improves our understanding of homeobox gene linkage in comparison to other molluscs, which are lophotrochozoans and, alongside well-studied ecdysozoans like flies, provide a more thorough protostome comparison to vertebrates, which are within the Deuterostomia.

We found 114 homeobox genes in the genome of *B. straminea*, belonging to eleven recognized classes and one lophotrochozoan-specific gene, *Lopx* (Supplementary information S2a; Barton-Owen et al., 2018). Many of these genes are clustered (situated on the same chromosome with no or very few non-homeobox genes in between) or linked (on the same chromosome, but with intervening non-homeobox genes) in the genome (Figure 2). Nine of the eleven Hox genes are found on scaffold 32695, in an arrangement that suggests several intrachromosomal rearrangements. In an ordered cluster as seen in the gastropod, *L. gigantea*, for instance, the Hox genes are situated in the genome in the ancestral bilaterian order from anterior-acting *Hox1* to posterior-acting *Post1*, and no other non-Hox genes are found amongst the Hox genes (Simakov et al., 2013). Here, however, we find that *Hox2*, *Hox3*, and *Hox4* are upstream of *Hox5*. In addition, *Hox2-Hox5* are downstream of the posterior half of the cluster, including *Lox5*, *Hox7*, *Lox4*, *Lox2*,

and Post1. Hox1 is found on another scaffold, while the sequence for Post2 is not in the genomic assembly, though its sequence is found in our transcriptome data. The Hox arrangement in B. straminea provides more linkage information than the B. glabrata assembly, where the short scaffolds corroborate only fragments of the Hox cluster like the linkage of Hox4, Hox3, and Hox2, but do not confirm the rearrangements in B. straminea, such as the linkage of Hox5 to Hox2 (Supplementary information S2b). We do see a difference in the arrangement of the posterior half of the Hox cluster, however, where in B. glabrata, Lox4, Lox2, Post2, and Post1 are linked in that order on scaffold 139, with Lox4 and Lox2 in the negative strand and Post2 and Post1 on the positive, which is slightly different from many other molluscs in which only *Post1* differs in orientation relative to the remainder of the posterior end of the Hox cluster genes (Simakov et al., 2013; Li et al., 2020). In B. straminea, there has been a rearrangement separating Post1, placing it with Lox5 and Hox7 and in the same orientation as Lox4 and Lox2 (Figure 2). Thus, the Hox genes of Biomphalaria seem highly rearranged relative to the ancestral order and each other. Clearly then, there are no (or minimal) long-range regulatory mechanisms operating across these genes that could have constrained their organization and prevented rearrangement. At most, there may be remains of some form of sub-cluster mechanisms, such as enhancer sharing, operating over the small regions (i.e. Hox2-4 and Lox2-4) whose similar arrangement may be indicative of constraints conserved across *Biomphalaria* species. Future expression and regulatory element analyses may help resolve this possibility.

b) ParaHox cluster genes

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The ParaHox cluster is the evolutionary sister to the Hox cluster (Brooke et al., 1998). The homeodomains of the three ParaHox genes (*Gsx, Xlox* and *Cdx*) are found on three separate

scaffolds in B. straminea (Figure 2), however, three upstream exons of Cdx are on scaffold 5393, which also has the *Xlox* gene (Supplementary information S2a). This is in contrast to the genome of B. glabrata, where Gsx and Xlox are linked on scaffold 3 (Supplementary information S2a-b). Perhaps this pattern reflects maintained linkage between all three ParaHox genes in *Biomphalaria* species and only because of the draft level of all the assemblies this is not evident. However, if this is the case, the ParaHox genes are separated by large amounts of sequence and have not retained the ancestral order of Gsx-Xlox-Cdx. B. glabrata Xlox is nearly 4 Mb from the start of its scaffold, while in B. straminea, Xlox is at a location with another homeobox-containing gene (Phox)15 Mb away on one side and the first three Cdx exons are almost 5 Mb away on the other side of Xlox. Thus, although the Biomphalaria ParaHox genes may be linked, they cannot be considered to be clustered. This dispersal of ParaHox genes is typical for molluscs in general, with several species also showing loose linkage of some of the genes (Li et al., 2020), which contrasts with the relatively tight clustering of these genes in many deuterostomes (Osborne et al., 2009; Ikuta et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2017) and the likely pan-cluster regulation that may operate in these deuterostomes.

c) ANTP-class homeobox genes

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Beyond Hox and ParaHox, there are other linkages among and between the classes of homeobox genes that hint at their ancient evolutionary origins and genomic arrangement in clusters. Despite the many rearrangements to the Hox cluster, many genes linked to Hox clusters in other species are also found on the same scaffold in *B. straminea*, including *Mnx*, *Gbx-a* and *Gbx-b*, *Ena, Evx-a* and *Evx-b*, and *Dlx* (Castro and Holland, 2003; Chourrout et al., 2006; Butts et al., 2008; Hui et al., 2012; Li et al., 2020). These linkages give further support for the hypothesized Super-

- 1 Hox cluster of non-Hox ANTP-class genes linked to the Hox genes in bilaterians (Butts et al.,
- 2 2008).

d) SINE homeobox genes

Another highly conserved cluster besides Hox and ParaHox is the SINE-class cluster, typically composed of the *Six3/6*, *1/2*, and *4/5* genes or their protostome orthologues (Ferrier, 2016). In *B. straminea*, *Six4/5* and *Six1/2* are on the same scaffold, but with a number of genes between them, and *Six3/6* is on a distinct scaffold (Figure 2). In *B. glabrata*, *Six3/6* is linked to *Hlx* (Figure S2b), the last homeobox gene at the end of the *Six4/5-Six1/2* scaffold in *B. straminea* (Figure 2). Thus, there is clearly not a SINE-class gene cluster conserved in *B. straminea*, but the linkage of at least some of these genes indicates that the dispersal of this cluster has not yet proceeded to the extent of these genes being separated onto different chromosomes. Also, the location of the *Hlx* gene relative to different *Six* genes indicates a certain degree of genomic rearrangement between the two *Biomphalaria* species (i.e. conserved macrosynteny, but divergent microsynteny).

e) IRX homeobox genes

Homeobox genes in the IRX family within the TALE class, are also observed to be clustered in several lineages, for instance the three-gene (*ara*, *caup*, and *mirr*) cluster in *Drosophila*, two three-gene clusters in vertebrates, and four genes in the limpet *L. gigantea* (*irx4*, *irx2*, *irx1*, and *irx3*) (Irimia et al. 2008; Takatori et al., 2008; Kerner et al. 2009). These clusters are thought likely to have arisen convergently by independent tandem duplications in the arthropod, vertebrate, and mollusc lineages (Irimia et al., 2008; Takatori et al., 2008; Kerner et al., 2009; Chipman et al.,

2014). Both Biomphalaria species have five IRX-family genes, one pair of which appears to be a product of a more recent, possibly *Biomphalaria*-specific, duplication (*Irx1-a* and *Irx1-b*). Perhaps surprisingly, none of the *Biomphalaria Irx* genes, *Irx1* (a and b), *Irx2*, *Irx3*, and *Irx4*, show clear orthology to specific gastropod (limpet) or bivalve (oyster) genes in a phylogenetic tree (Supplementary information S2c). A paucity of phylogenetically-informative amino-acid changes is the most likely explanation for this lack of resolution. Despite this lack of resolution of Irx orthology across species the B. straminea genome assembly does provide a new example of Irx gene clustering. Irx3, Irx2, and Irx4 are closely clustered in the genome, while Irx1-b is 7 Mb away on the same scaffold, also with Zhx, a ZF-class gene another 6 Mb further. The two Irx1 paralogues, however, are on separate scaffolds, which may represent either a rearrangement following their duplication, convergence of the sequence of the homeodomain, or thirdly, an assembly artefact. In B. glabrata, only the linkage of Irx4 with Irx2 is corroborated due to the shorter scaffold lengths of that assembly. Further work, perhaps using other conserved domains from these genes and with a wider breadth of lophotrochozoan species could potentially determine whether in fact the four Irx gene types in Biomphalaria species are orthologous to genes in other species' Irx clusters. A multi-gene IRX-family cluster in *Biomphalaria* species with evidence of at least one independent expansion (Irx1-a and Irx1-b) provides an interesting addition to our understanding of IRX-family clusters, and the mechanisms behind gene expansions and subsequent maintenance of clustering in general.

f) PRD- and LIM- class homeobox genes

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We also observe linkages amongst PRD-class genes, with clusters on scaffolds 13536, 2216, 46009, and 563 (Figure 2). The PRD-class cluster that is widely found across various species

is the so-called HRO cluster, composed of the genes Otp, Rx/Rax and Hbn/Arx-like (Mazza et al., 2010; Ferrier, 2016), which ancestrally was likely embedded within a more extensive PRD/LIMclass mega-cluster, including the PRD-class genes Gsc and Otx and the LIM-class gene Isl (Ferrier, 2016). In B. straminea there is a remnant of the HRO cluster, with Otp clustered with Hbn, internally on a large scaffold (563) and flanked by other homeobox genes (Figure 2) including another PRD-class gene (Arx-a) now in this Biomphalaria PRD-class cluster, but the Rax genes are on other scaffolds. Interestingly, the *Isl* gene is also on this large 563 scaffold in *B. straminea*, consistent with descent from the hypothesized PRD/LIM-class mega-cluster (Ferrier, 2016). B. glabrata provides an interesting contrast as the HRO cluster is now complete (with Otp, Hbn and Rax-b) in contrast to B. straminea, and again Arx-a is also in the Biomphalaria cluster (Figure 2; Supplementary Figure S2b). Why the PRD-class HRO cluster would remain intact in one species of *Biomphalaria* but not the other remains to be resolved. Also, whether the inclusion of the *Arx*a gene in this cluster in these snails is found elsewhere in the animal kingdom and is of any functional significance also remains a topic for future work. Overall, the PRD-class gene clustering provides a mixed signal, of both conservation of remnants of ancient clustering alongside rearrangements between closely related, con-generic species.

g) Duplicated homeobox genes

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There are several duplications shared between the two species, which we infer to be at least ancestral to the genus. These include paralogues of *Arx*, *Pax4/6*, *Irx1*, *En*, *Evx*, *Abox*, *Barhl*, *Pbx*, and *Tlx*, as well as three paralogues of *Vsx* and *Cers*. Notably, the three paralogues each of *Vsx* and *Cers* genes remain clustered in the genome, reflecting their likely origin by tandem duplication. This is also seen for *En*, *Tlx*, *Evx*, and *Abox*. *B. straminea* is the only species of the two with two

- 1 paralogues of Gbx, though one has an apparently odd arrangement that would mean it is unlikely
- 2 to be a functional gene, if this arrangement were real. The homeodomain is split across two exons,
- 3 the first of which is in one orientation, while there are two copies of the second exon in the opposite
- 4 orientation, indicating the second Gbx gene may be a pseudogene or an assembly artefact
- 5 (Supplementary information S2a).

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h) Giga-cluster homeobox genes

An overarching framework for understanding the genomic organization of homeoboxcontaining genes comes from hypotheses about their ancient linkage patterns following their presumed origins largely via tandem duplications. This ancestral clustering goes beyond the classspecific clusters already described above and is captured by the Giga-cluster hypothesis (Ferrier, 2016). High-quality genome assemblies, such as the one described here for B. straminea, are key resources for testing this hypothesis and potentially expanding it. Several instances of linkage of different classes of homeobox gene are present in the B. straminea assembly, most notably on scaffolds 563, 8789, 2216 and 24987 (Figure 2). Scaffold 2216 is interesting for the linkage of the SINE-class genes Six4/5 and Six1/2 with some of the members of the ancestral PRD/LIM-class Mega-cluster (i.e. the PRD-class genes Gsc and Otx) that has undergone some dispersal in the *Biomphalaria* lineage (as described above). Also, some of the other members of this dispersed PRD/LIM Mega-cluster (Isl, Otp, Hbn) are on scaffold 563, which are now linked with many members of the dispersed NK-cluster (e.g. NK5, NK4, Msx, Tlx-a and -b, and NK3) as well as a member of the ancestral SuperHox cluster (i.e. Hhex) (Butts et a., 2008; Ferrier, 2016). Other members of the SuperHox cluster are still linked with the true Hox genes (EuHox genes) on scaffold 32695. These linkages of genes from different homeobox classes along with the further

new instances of inter-class linkage on scaffolds 8798 (Figure 2) are all consistent with the Gigacluster hypothesis (Ferrier, 2016). However, how much of all of these linkages represent ancestral associations (i.e. descended from primary clustering) versus instances of coming together in the genome convergently in evolution (i.e. secondary clustering) should be resolvable with comparisons to further high-quality genome sequences as well as a better understanding of the dynamics of genome evolution and rearrangements (reviewed in Ferrier, 2016).

Synteny analysis of B. straminea with other molluscs

The homeobox analyses described above provide instances of linkages that indicate varied synteny conservation across various mollusc and animal clades, even between the two *Biomphalaria* species now sequenced. The *B. straminea* genome shows considerable conserved linkage within and between classes of homeobox, and the maintenance of certain conserved clusters or linkages observed throughout wider lineages (i.e. instances of remnants of the Hox, ParaHox, SuperHox, and Giga-clusters (Ferrier, 2016)). In comparison to *B. glabrata*, in which less linkage can be observed because of shorter scaffold lengths, there is some conserved synteny. A few differences between the species may be due to species-specific genomic rearrangements resulting in the disruption of gene order, but the alternative possibility of assembly artefacts cannot be excluded entirely at present without further work. Of particular interest for further study is the major rearrangement of the Hox cluster in *B. straminea*. Perhaps more thorough sequencing of *B. glabrata* or assemblies of additional *Biomphalaria* species could determine if this is shared in the genus, or if it is a novelty of *B. straminea*. Regardless of this, the impact of this rearrangement on Hox gene expression and function is of interest. Hox cluster rearrangements could indicate the loss

of shared regulatory elements that constrain Hox clusters in other lineages and may reflect changes to Hox gene expression, perhaps underpinning developmental changes in these snails. Similarly, the impacts of the dispersal of the ParaHox cluster on gene expression will be interesting to resolve. The patterns of clustering, linkage, and rearrangement of homeobox genes are good markers for genome organization, and these results show that key differences between the species may represent higher levels of genomic divergence than expected for these two snails. Here we observe specific cases of differences between our new *B. straminea* genome and that of *B. glabrata* within the context of ancestral linkages, and this pattern may be a good indicator of wider differences between the genetics and molecular processes operating in the two species.

To examine the syntenic relationships more generally between *Biomphalaria* and mollusc genomes, we constructed Oxford dot-plots, comparing the chromosomal positions of orthologous genes between published mollusc genomes, as available from GenBank for gastropod, bivalve and cephalopod molluscs. As shown in Figure 4, the relationship of pseudo-chromosomes (2n=36, Adema et al 2017) and scaffolds between *B. straminea* and molluscs of other classes were conserved in most cases. Previous phylogenetic tree constructions for different *Biomphalaria* species suggested a monophyletic clade of African species with the remaining lineages being neotropical species (Campbell et al 2000; DeJong 2001). Based on this phylogenetic relationship, our data show that the neotropical species have not undergone any significant inter-chromosomal rearrangements from their last common ancestor after separation to different geographical regions. One-to-one synteny block could be identified between *B. straminea* and the eupulmonata gastropod, *Achatina immaculata*. However, in the comparison of *B. straminea* to the more evolutionary distant species, a few one-to-many blocks were found. These patterns indicated that some chromosome duplication and alteration occurred from the most recent common ancestor of

1 B. straminea, B. glabrata and A. immaculata (the ancestor of Hygrophila and Eupulmonata).

2 Further, species with closer evolutionary distance shared more similar synteny patterns against *B*.

3 straminea (for example, between Pomacea canaliculata and Marisa cornuarietis, as well as

between Crassostrea gigas and M. hongkongensis, which share more similar synteny blocks),

suggesting the dynamic changes of chromosome arrangements in different molluscs. In Octopus

sinensis, the gene order and synteny blocks to B. straminea were largely lost suggesting more

duplication, translocation and rearrangement events occurred since the divergence of O. sinensis

(Cephalopoda) and the common ancestor of Gastropoda and Bivalvia (Smith et al 2011).

Ecdysteroid genes

Ecdysteroids play important roles in regulating growth (in particular molting and metamorphosis) and sexual maturation of insects and other arthropods (Cheong et al 2015; Qu et al 2015). Although it has long been known that gastropods contain ecdysteroids, and that beta-ecdysone could stimulate host location activities in *S. mansoni* miracidia and enhance growth and egg production in *B. glabrata* (Bayne 1972; Shiff and Dossaji 1991), the biosynthetic pathway genes for ecdysteroids have not been systematically studied in mollusc genomes to date. As shown in Figure 3A-B, typical genes involved in this pathway including *CYP307A1*, *CYP306A1*, *CYP302A1*, *CYP315A1* and *CYP314A1* are all absent from the *B. straminea* genome assembly and transcriptome data. Nevertheless, the receptors including EcR, RXR/USP and oxygenase-like protein Nvd that are essential regulators of cholesterol metabolism are present in *B. straminea* and other mollusc genomes (Figure 3A-B; Supplementary information S3). We thus treated *B. straminea* with 10-6 M ecdysteroid 20-hydroxyecdysone for 24 hours but did not observe any significant expression changes in the downstream genes *E74*, *FOXO*, and *Nvd*. Similar hormone

treatments have been shown to elicit the downstream genes in insects in previous studies (Hossain et al, 2013; Sekimoto et al 2007; Ji et al 2021). It is unclear whether only certain forms of ecdysteroids may induce endogenous ecdysteroid pathway genes under particular conditions and this warrants further investigation. This is the first systematic analyses of ecdysteroid pathway

genes in a mollusc genome, thus providing the foundations for future work to determine how

ecdysteroids have their effect in these animals.

Insulin signaling pathway genes

Peptide hormones involved in growth and reproduction have been suggested as candidates for the development of novel methods of schistosomiasis control via manipulation of snail numbers (Acker et al 2019). Insulin is another understudied hormonal pathway in molluscs despite its potential functional roles. For instance, in the pond snail *Lymnaea stagnalis*, a decrease of insulin in the central nervous system correlated with better associative learning behaviour (Totani et al 2019), while insulin-related peptides with potential roles in sexual reproduction have been identified in the oyster *Crassostrea gigas* (Cherif-Feidel et al 2019). In both *B. straminea* and *B. glabrata* genomes, we were able to identify all key signalling pathway genes (Figure 3C-D, Supplementary S4). This establishes a foundation on which to further explore the functions of these hormones in molluscs.

Widespread gene turnover between Biomphalaria snails and other molluscs

a) Gene gains and losses in mollusc genomes

A phylogenomic tree was constructed using 2,047 orthogroups with at least 12 out of 13 mollusc genomes having single-copy genes in each orthogroup (Supplementary information 6). Gene family analysis among these genomes revealed the expansion of 1,868 orthogroups and contraction of 622 orthogroups in *B. straminea*, but in *B. glabrata*, the expansion of 840 orthogroups and contraction of 1,035 orthogroups (Figure 5). This data highlights the importance of having the *B. straminea* genomic resource, and potentially suggests that specific control strategies might be needed for *B. straminea* rather than treating it as identical to *B. glabrata*.

b) Expansion of heat shock protein family among mollusc lineages

Heat shock proteins are important stress-responsive candidates involved in protein folding for molluscs, activated in response to such things as changing pH, oxygen level, and temperature. In some mollusc genomes, such as that of the Pacific oyster *Crassostrea gigas*, an expansion of heat shock protein 70 (HSP70) has been observed in the genome and hypothesized to be important to the animals' adaptation to changes in ambient environmental factors or pressures (Zhang et al 2012). We thus identified the heat shock protein family genes in *Biomphalaria* and compared these to other lophotrochozoans to understand their evolution in different lineages (Figure 6). Among the different heat shock protein families in the investigated set of gastropods, bivalves, cephalopods, annelids, and platyhelminths, a dramatic expansion is seen specifically in the HSP70 family in the bivalve molluscs (Figure 6; Supplementary information S7). Our data and analyses agree with previous studies (e.g. Zhang et al 2012), suggesting that the expansion of HSP70 is linked to the life history of molluscs having a sessile stage. This survey also provides the foundation for future work on the expression and function of particular HSP genes/proteins and

- their activity in these parasite vectors, which may contribute to their adaptive ability as invasive
- 2 species, and possibly contributing to the recent range expansion of *B. straminea*.

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c) Differential sesquiterpenoid and cholesterol genes in certain mollusc lineages

5 Sesquiterpenoid hormones were once considered specific to insects and crustaceans where 6 they control development and reproduction (Cheong et al 2015; Qu et al 2018; Tsang et al 2020). 7 However, recent analyses have shown that the sesquiterpenoid system is also present in myriapods, 8 annelids, and cnidarians (Chipman et al 2014; Qu et al 2015; Schenk et al 2016; Nong et al 2020). 9 Conversely, vertebrates can only produce cholesterol but not sesquiterpenoids (Tobe and Bendena 10 1999; Hui et al 2013), and a recent study revealed the canonical cholesterol biosynthesis pathway 11 in sponges, placozoans and deuterostomes, suggesting cnidarians and protostomes experienced massive losses of these genes (Zhang et al 2019; Figure 7A). Treatment of B. straminea with 10^{-6} 12 13 M simvastatin and methyl farnesoate changed the expression of sesquiterpenoid pathway genes HMGCR and FPPS, suggesting a sesquiterpenoid responsive system (Figure 7B-C). Comparison 14 of sesquiterpenoid pathway genes in mollusc genomes further identified differential utilization of 15 biogenesis pathways in bivalves and gastropods, where only gastropods but not the bivalves are 16 able to produce cholesterol similar to vertebrates (Figure 7D-F). This is the first systematic study 17 showing the differential sesquiterpenoid and cholesterol synthesis pathways possessed by different 18 19 mollusc lineages.

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1 Conclusion

This study presents the first high quality genome assembly for a schistosomiasis-transmitting snail in China and Asia. The snail Biomphalaria straminea is important scientifically as well as having considerable medical relevance. Our work provides gene and transposable element annotations, and detailed analyses of a variety of gene families, including the homeobox, ecdysteroid, insulin, heat shock protein, and sesquiterpenoid pathway genes, suggesting extensive molecular differences between B. straminea and B. glabrata as well as among other molluscan taxa. More generally, our high-quality B. straminea genome provides a useful reference point for further understanding of the biology, ecology and evolution of molluscs.

1 Methods

Sample collection and genome sequencing

One week prior to the experiment, approximately 100 ramshorn snails were collected in a freshwater stream in Tai Po New Territories, Hong Kong (GPS: 22.50206300747975, 114.15354682258841). The collected animals were maintained in a laboratory aquarium and fed with lettuce three days a week. Samples for genome sequencing originate from single individuals for each sequencing method (Figure 1A). Genomic DNA (gDNA) was extracted using the PureLink Genomic DNA Mini Kit (Invitrogen) following the manufacturer's protocol. Extracted gDNA was subjected to quality control using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific) and gel electrophoresis. Qualifying samples were sent to Novogene, and Dovetail Genomics for library preparation and sequencing. The resulting library was sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq X platform (RRID:SCR_016385) to produce 2 × 150 paired-end sequences. The length-weighted mean molecule length is 22.2 kb, and the raw data can be found at NCBI's Small Read Archive (SRR12963913).

Dovetail Omni-C library preparation and sequencing

For each Dovetail Omni-C library, chromatin was fixed with formaldehyde and extracted. Fixed chromatin was digested with DNAse I, and chromatin ends were repaired and ligated to a biotinylated bridge adapter followed by proximity ligation of adapter containing ends. After proximity ligation, crosslinks were reversed and the DNA was purified. Purified DNA was treated to remove biotin that was not internal to ligated fragments. Sequencing libraries were generated using NEBNext Ultra enzymes and Illumina-compatible adapters. Biotin-containing fragments

- 1 were isolated using streptavidin beads before PCR enrichment of each library. The library was
- 2 sequenced on an Illumina HiSeqX platform to produce 128 million 150 bp read pairs, and the raw
- data can be found at NCBI's Small Read Archive (SRR12963914).

Transcriptome sequencing

Total RNA from different tissues were isolated using a combination method of cetyltrimethylammonium bromide (CTAB) pre-treatment (Jordon-Thaden et. al. 2015) and mirVana™ miRNA Isolation Kit (Ambion) following the manufacturer's protocol. The extracted total RNA was subjected to quality control using a Nanodrop spectrophotometer (Thermo Scientific), gel electrophoresis, and an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent RNA 6000 Nano Kit). Qualifying samples underwent library construction and sequencing at Novogene; polyA-selected RNA-Sequencing libraries were prepared using the TruSeq RNA Sample Prep Kit v2. Insert sizes and library concentrations of final libraries were determined using an Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer instrument (Agilent DNA 1000 Reagents) and real-time quantitative PCR (TaqMan Probe) respectively. Details of the sequencing data can be found in Supplementary information S1.

Genome assembly

Chromium WGS reads were used to construct a *de novo* assembly using Supernova (v 2.1.1) with default parameters (raw coverage = 68.32x). The Supernova output pseudohap assembly and Dovetail OmniC library reads were used as input data for HiRise, a software pipeline designed specifically for using proximity ligation data to scaffold genome assemblies (Putnam et al, 2016). Dovetail OmniC library sequences were aligned to the draft input assembly using bwa

- 1 (https://github.com/lh3/bwa). The separations of Dovetail OmniC read pairs mapped within draft
- 2 scaffolds were analyzed by HiRise to produce a likelihood model for genomic distance between
- 3 read pairs, and the model was used to identify and break putative misjoins, to score prospective
- 4 joins, and make joins above a threshold.

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Gene model prediction

Gene models were predicted as described in the Hong Kong oyster (Magallana hongkongensis) genome (Li et al. 2020). Briefly, the gene models were trained and predicted using funannotate (v1.7.4,https://github.com/nextgenusfs/funannotate) (Palmer & Stajich, 2020) with "--repeats2evm --protein_evidence following parameters: uniprot_sprot.fasta genemark_mode ET --busco_seed_species metazoa --optimize_augustus --busco_db metazoa -organism other --max intronlen 350000". The gene models from several prediction sources including GeneMark, high-quality Augustus predictions (HiQ), pasa, Augustus, GlimmerHM and snap were passed to Evidence Modeler and generated the gene model annotation files, followed by PASA to update the EVM consensus predictions, and add UTR annotations and models for alternatively spliced isoforms. Protein-coding genes were searched with BLASTp (RRID:SCR_001010) against the nr and swissprot databases by diamond (v0.9.24) (Buchfink et al., 2014) with parameters "--more-sensitive --evalue 1e-3", and mapped by HISAT2 (version 2.1.0, RRID:SCR 015530) with transcriptome reads (Kim et al. 2019). Gene models with no similarity to any known protein and no mRNA support were removed from the final version.

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Repetitive elements annotation

Repetitive elements were identified using the transposable element annotation pipeline earlGrey (Baril et al 2021) as follows. Firstly, elements were identified using RepeatMasker v.4.1 (RRID:SCR_012954) (Smit et al., 2013), using a sensitive (-s) search and ignoring low-complexity repeats (-nolow). Subsequently, a *de novo* repeat library was constructed using RepeatModeler v.1.0.11 (RRID:SCR_015027)(Smit et al., 2015), including RECON v.1.08 (RRID:SCR_021170) (Bao., et al 2002) and RepeatScout v.1.0.5 (RRID:SCR_014653)(Price et al., 2005). Identified novel repeats were analysed using a 'BLAST, Extract, Extend' process to characterise elements along their entire length (Platt et al., 2016); Consensus sequences and classifications for each repeat family were generated, and the resulting *de novo* repeat library was utilised to identify repetitive elements in RepeatMasker. All plots were generated using Rstudio ver. 1.2.1335 with R ver. 3.5.1 (Team, 2013) and ggplot2 ver. 3.2.1 (ggplot2, RRID:SCR_014601)(Wickham, 2016).

Gene family annotation and gene tree building

Gene family sequences were first obtained from NCBI for selected species, including *B. glabrata* and other lophotrochozoans. The sequences were then used to retrieve the corresponding genes from the *B. straminea* genome using the tBLASTn algorithm on a local server, with an E-value of less than 10⁻³. The identity of each retrieved gene was then checked by reciprocal searches against the Genbank nr database at NCBI with BLASTx. For phylogenetic analyses of gene families, DNA sequences were first translated into amino-acid sequences and aligned to other reference sequences (extracted from NCBI) using Clustal W. Gapped sites were removed from alignments using MEGA 7.0 (RRID:SCR_000667), and phylogenetic trees (neighbor-joining) were constructed using MEGA 7.0, where each phylogenetic node was analysed using 1000 bootstrap replicates. For homeobox-containing genes, homeodomains were annotated using

tBLASTn searches with HomeoDB sequences, and sequences from representative lophotrochozoan families, including the expanded Spiralia TALEs (Barton-Owen et al., 2018). We also removed redundant hits based on their unique locations in the genome sequence, and manually detected any likely artefactual duplicates which were not carried forward into the protein sequences alignments (Supplementary Table S2). Alignments of each class were made using MUSCLE (RRID:SCR_011812)(Edgar, 2004), with homeodomain sequences from human (*Homo sapiens*, deuterostome), amphioxus (*Branchiostoma floridae*, a cephalochordate deuterostome), the ecdysozoans fruitfly (*Drosophila melanogaster*), and red flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*), and the lophotrochozoans oyster (*Crassostrea gigas*, bivalve), limpet (*Lottia gigantea*, gastropod), brachiopod (*Lingula anatina*,), and annelids *Platynereis dumerilii* and *Capitella teleta*, where available from other studies (Paps et al., 2015; Barton-Owen et al., 2018) and HomeoDB (Ying-Fu et al., 2011; 2008). The best substitution models were tested with ModelFinder, and Maximum Likelihood phylogenies were constructed with IQ-TREE (RRID:SCR_017254) with 1000 bootstrap replicates (Nguyen et al., 2015).

Identification of orthologous genes and gene families

Orthologues and orthogroups in *B. straminea* and 12 other animal proteomes were inferred using OrthoFinder (v. 2.5.2, RRID:SCR_017118) (Emms DM & Kelly, 2019) with default values and '-M msa' activated. To cover the gene families, the longest protein of each gene was taken as the representative in OrthoFinder analysis. Gene duplication events were then identified. Duplication ratios per node/tip were calculated by dividing the number of duplications observed in each node/tip by the total number of gene trees containing that node. CAFE5 was used to infer gene gain and loss rates [29]. Orthogroups from output of OrthoFinder were regarded as gene

- 1 families and fed to CAFE5. A divergence tree was inferred using r8s [30] from the species tree
- 2 generated by OrthoFinder. We tested several gamma rate categories (-k) and k=1 showed the best
- 3 likelihood.

Functional terms enrichment analysis

Orthogroups were assigned Gene Ontology (GO), EuKaryotic Orthologous Groups (KOG), Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG), and KEGG Orthology (KO) terms by inheriting the terms from genes found within the groups. The functional term annotations were performed using eggNOG (RRID:SCR_002456)(Jensen et al. 2008). Functional enrichment was tested for using function 'compareCluster()' in R package 'clusterProfiler' v.3.16.1 (Yu et al. 2012) under the environment of R 4.0.4 [33]. Significantly enriched terms were determined with pvalueCutoff = 0.05, pAdjustMethod = "BH", and qvalueCutoff = 0.2. Data was visualised using R packages 'ggplot2' (Wickham, 2016), 'ggtree' (Yu et al. 2017) and 'pathview'(Luo & Brouwer, 2013).

Macrosynteny analysis

Single-copy orthologues anchored by mutual best Diamond blastp v0.9.14.115[17] hits (-evalue 0.001) between *B. straminea* and 12 other animals with chromosome-level or near chromosome-level assemblies were used in macrosynteny analysis. Oxford synteny plots were generated following previously described methods [36] using R packages 'ggplot2' (Wickham, 2016).

Drug and hormone treatment and RT-qPCR

Experimental adult animals of ~1cm with reproductive capability were isolated from the culture and were rinsed in double-distilled water to remove any contaminants. Three individuals per set were placed in a glass container, with a well of 3.5cm in diameter and 0.8cm in depth, filled with 2ml of double-distilled water with either 10⁻⁶M or 10⁻⁸M of methyl farnesoate (MF) (Sigma), 6x10⁻⁵M of simvastatin (Sigma) or 10⁻⁶M of 20-hydroxyecdysone (AbcamBiochemicals) in separate setups. The chemicals were first dissolved in acetone and diluted to the target concentration in the treatment container. The control setup contained the same number of individuals and was treated with the same concentration of acetone in corresponding experiments. Each replicate of snails was exposed for 24 hours to these treatments without any feeding. Post-treated animals were rinsed with double-distilled water and shells were removed prior to whole body total RNA extraction. The RNA from each experiment was isolated using TRIzol reagent following the manufacturer's protocol. Purified RNA was dissolved in nuclease-free water. The

1 cDNA synthesis was performed using the iScript gDNA Clear cDNA Synthesis Kit (BioRad)

following the manufacturer's protocol. The cDNA was used in subsequent quantitative real time

PCR. The amplification conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 95 °C for 30 s, followed

by 40 cycles of 95 °C denaturation for 15s, 57 °C primer annealing for 15s and 72°C extension for

15s. Primer details are listed in Supplementary File S8. The primers were tested by conventional

PCR with B. straminea cDNA prior to experiments to ensure their specificity. Each sample was

analyzed in replicates. The expression of each target gene transcript was normalized to the

housekeeping gene, myoglobin (Myo), as adopted in previous studies (Jiang et al 2006; Arican-

Goktas et al 2014; Queiroz et al 2017; Pinaud et al 2021). The subsequent fold induction analyses

10 were calculated using the $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method.

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Ethics Statement

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Data Availability

17 The raw genome and RNA sequencing data have been deposited in the SRA under Bioproject

number PRJNA673593. The final chromosome assembly was submitted to NCBI Assembly under

accession number JADKLZ000000000 in NCBI. All data can also be found in the GigaScience

Database (Nong et al 2022).

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10	Figure legends
11	Figure 1. A) Life cycle of snail <i>Biomphalaria straminea</i> ; B) Comparison of snail <i>Biomphalaria</i>
12	genome assembly quality; C) Transposable elements in <i>Biomphalaria straminea</i> .
13	Figure 2. Distribution of Homeoboxes in the genome of <i>Biomphalaria straminea</i> . Class is denoted
14	by colour, arrows show orientation on each scaffold, which are represented by black lines and are
15	numbered underneath. Post2 is not found in the genomic sequence but is found in the
16	transcriptome, so is not shown on a scaffold. Grey gene names and box outlines denote partial

homeodomain sequences.

- Figure 3. A) Schematic diagram of biosynthetic pathway of ecdysteroids; B) Presence and absence
- of ecdysteroid pathway genes in *B. straminea*; C) Schematic diagram of biosynthetic pathway of
- 3 insulin; E) Number of gene copies of insulin pathway genes in *B. straminea*.
- 4 **Figure 4.** Synteny between *B. straminea* and 12 mollusc genomes. The species tree is constructed
- 5 using 2,047 orthogroups with at least 12 out of 13 mollusc genomes having single-copy genes in
- 6 each orthogroup. In the Oxford dot plot, each dot represents a pair of orthologous genes between
- 7 B. straminea and the specific mollusc. Horizontal and vertical dashed lines represent chromosome
- 8 or scaffold boundaries. Orthologous genes are colored according to their position in *B. straminea*
- 9 scaffolds. Significance of synteny blocks is computed using one-tailed Fisher's exact test, and the
- 10 color of synteny blocks with Benjamini & Hochberg corrected p over 0.05 are turned into grey.
- 11 **Figure 5.** Summaries of gene families in *B. straminea* and 12 molluscs. A) Gene family clustering,
- only the longest isoform for each gene was used; B) Gene family expansion and contraction
- between mollusc genomes. Brown and green color indicate the number of significantly (p<0.05)
- expanded or contracted gene families at each node, respectively.
- Figure 6. A) Schematic diagram showing the heat shock protein actions; B) Number of gene copies
- of heat shock proteins in different mollusc genomes.
- 17 **Figure 7.** A) Schematic diagram showing the mevalonate pathway, and the downstream
- sesquiterpenoid and *de novo* cholesterol synthesis pathways. B) Expression of genes upon 6x10⁻¹
- ⁵M simvastatin, 10^{-6} M and 10^{-8} M methyl farnesoate treatment for 24 hours; *= p < 0.05. C)
- Heatmap of mevalonate pathway orthologues identified in gastropod and bivalve genomes. D)
- 21 Heatmap of sesquiterpenoid synthesis pathway orthologues identified in gastropod and bivalve

- 1 genomes. E) Heatmap of de novo cholesterol synthesis pathway orthologues identified in
- 2 gastropod and bivalve genomes. F) Schematic diagram showing the evolution of sesquiterpenoid
- 3 pathway genes in bilaterians.

- 5 Additional Files.
- **Supplementary information S1.** Sequencing data.
- 7 Supplementary information S2. a) Tables of homeobox genes sequences in B. straminea, B.
- *glabrata*, a synteny comparison of homeobox genes, and comparison of ParaHox gene linkage. b)
- 9 Distribution of Homeoboxes in the genome of Biomphalaria glabrata. c) Alignments and
- 10 phylogenies of each class of Homeobox sequences.
- **Supplementary information S3.** Ecdysteroid genes.
- **Supplementary information S4.** Insulin pathway genes.
- **Supplementary information S5.** Synteny information
- **Supplementary information S6.** Gene expansion and contraction.
- **Supplementary information S7.** Heat shock protein family genes.
- **Supplementary information S8.** Cholesterol genes and primers.
- **Supplementary information S9.** Phylogenetic trees.

1 **Supplementary information S10.** Tables.

2 Abbreviations.

- 3 BLAST: Basic Local Alignment Search Tool; BUSCO: Benchmarking Universal Single-Copy
- 4 Orthologs; kb: kilobase pairs; Mb: megabase pairs; NCBI: National Center for Biotechnology
- 5 Information; TE: transposable element

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Competing Interests

8 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' Contributions

3 JHLH, DEKF, AH, ZW, SX, ZPK, SSC conceived the study. JHLH, DEKF, AH supervised the

4 study. WN, JH, TS assembled the genome. WN carried out the gene model prediction and

5 comparison. YY carried out the heat shock proteins analyses. YX carried out the gene gain and

6 loss and synteny analyses. WLS and CFW carried out the sesquiterpenoid analyses. YY, WLS and

7 SYL carried out the ecdysteroid analyses. MEAR and YL carried out the homeobox gene analyses.

8 TB carried out the transposable element analyses. STSL carried out the insulin analyses. WN,

9 YY, YX, WLS, MEAR, TB, AH, DEKF, JHLH wrote the first draft of manuscript. All authors

approved the final version of the manuscript.

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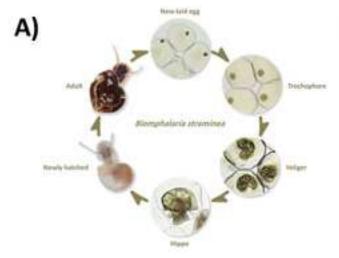
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B)

	8. straminea	8. glabrata		8. globrata		
Accession number	1ADX1,2000000000	GCF_000457365	GCA_014525025	GCA_014524965	GCA_014524955	
Assembly size (bp)	1,004,745,081	1,004,569,788	810,878,449	852,019,028	767,739,590	
Scaffold NSO (bp)	25,272,813	37,441	743,154	2,598,223	394,791	
Number of scaffolds	84,585	373,617	2,718	927	3,492	
Gaps	4.96%	1.74%	0	0	0	
BUSCO (metazoa_odb10)	87.00%	89.90%	92.50%	93.70%	88.50%	
Gene models	43,340	30,855	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	
References	This study	Adema et al 2017	1	ennessen et al 202		

C)

II ACCOMPANY I	Biomphalaria straminea					
Repeat Class	No. of elements	Total Length (Mb)	Percentage sequence			
Retroelement	315626	146.15	14.55%			
SINE	45672	13.17	1.31%			
LINE	241927	105.30	10.48%			
Penelope	1386	0.57	0.06%			
LTR element	26641	27.11	2.70%			
DNA transposon	179893	83.56	8.32%			
Rolling-circle	34786	17.20	1.71%			
Unclassified	359515	158.89	15.81%			
Other	13502	2.95	0.29%			
Total repeats	903322	408.75	40.68%			

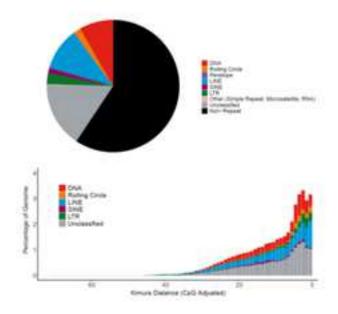


Fig 1

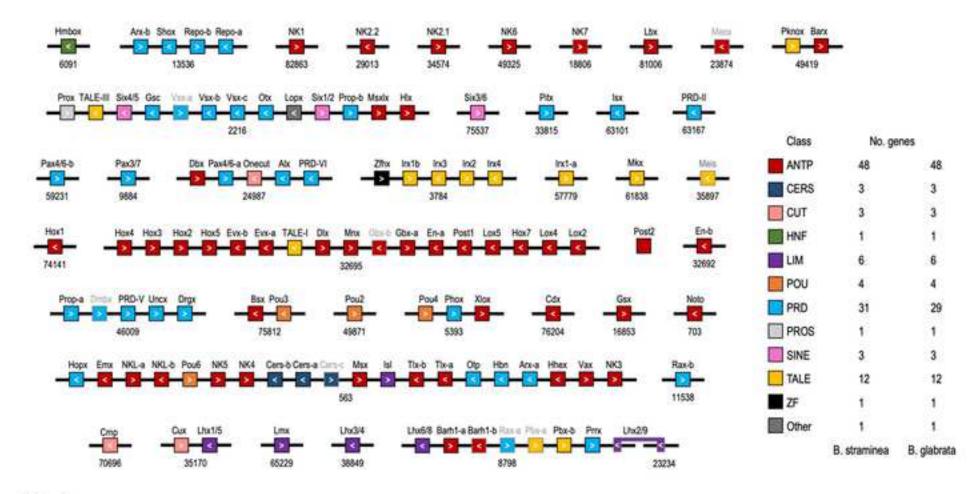
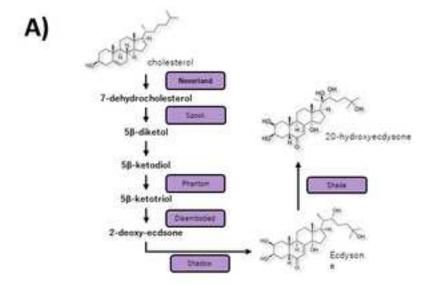
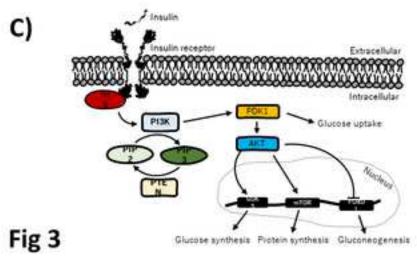


Fig 2





Gene name	Abbr:	Function	& attantosa
cholesterol 7-desaturase (Neverland)	Ned	convert cholesterol to 7-Dehydro-cholesterol	(4)
apoox (CYP307A1)	200	Syntheside 29-hydroxyectlysone (20E) from challesteral	
phantom (CYP306A1)	pho	Synthesice 30E from chalesterol	
diremooded (CYP002AL)	00	Synthesize 20E from chalesterol	2.00
anadow (CYP115A1)	322	Synthesice 30E from cholesterol	
shade (CYPS14A1)	200	Synthesize 206 from chalesterol	-
CYPISAI	1	Paralog of CYP306.	
Canonical regulatory components a	as shown in o	Charl arthropods	
Ecoja one receptor	Ecr	Ecdysteroids regulate molting by activating a heterodimer formed by the ecdysone receptor (EcR) and retinoid X receptor (RXIX)	٠
	RVR /USP	Ecolysteroids regulate molting by activating a heterodimer formed by the ecolysone receptor (EcR)	

Gene name	Asse	S stramnes	3.20000
inquin.	INS	7	- 1
insulin receptor	INSR	2	2.
insulin receptor substrate 1	(831		1
procenaticy/inceltor-4.5-bischosphate 5-kinase catalytic subunit alpha/beta/delta	P15K	1	1:
3-phosphoinositide dependent protein kinase-1	PORK1	1	1
atypical protein kinase C ceta type	aPKC	- 0	1
RAC serine/threonine-protein kinase	AKT	1	1
forkhead box pristein O1	FOX01	1	1
serine/threonine-protein kinase mTOR	MTGR	- 1	1.
glycogen synthase kinase 3 beta	G5K38	1	1
phosphat/dyfinositol-3.4.5-trisphosphate3-phosphatase and dual-specificity protein phosphatase FTEN	PTEN	1	1

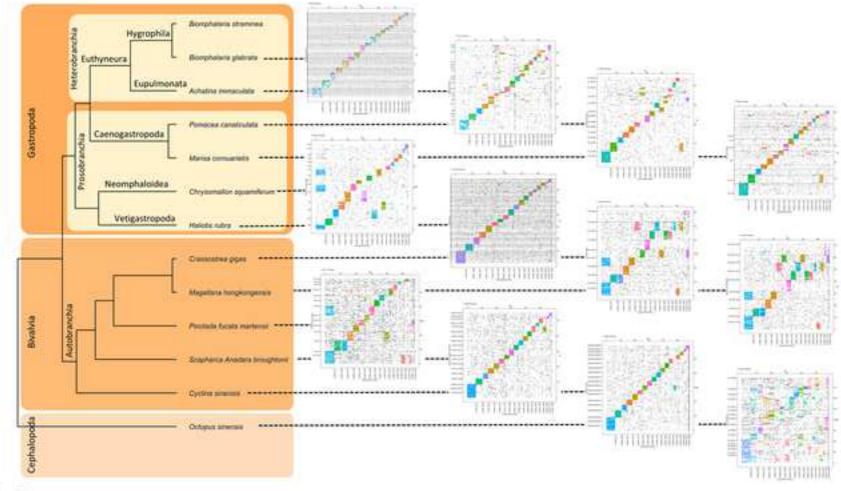


Fig 4

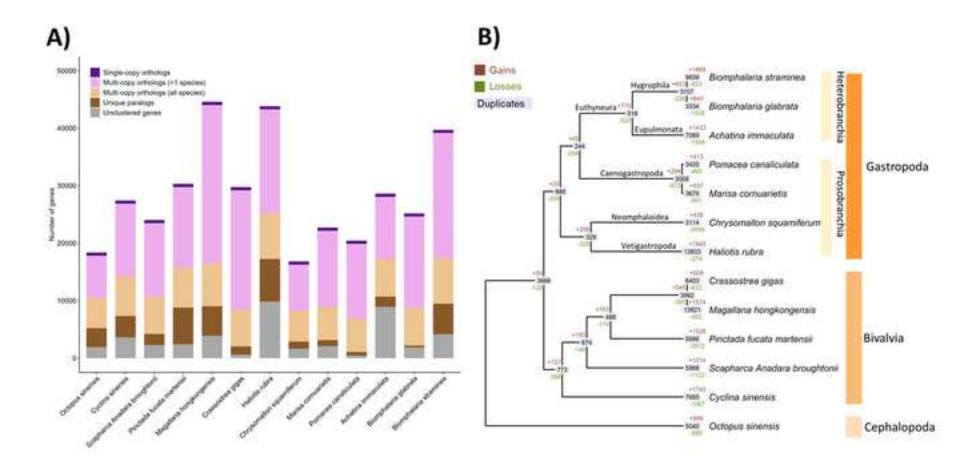
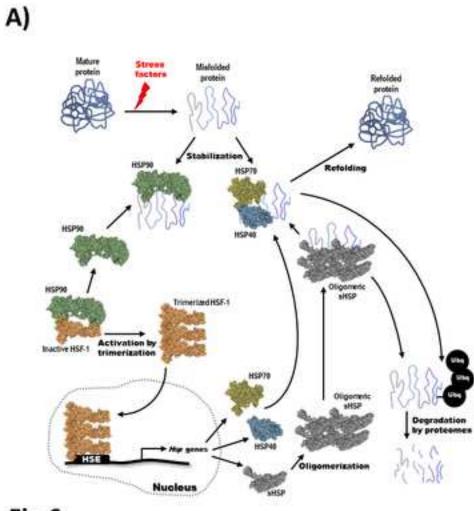


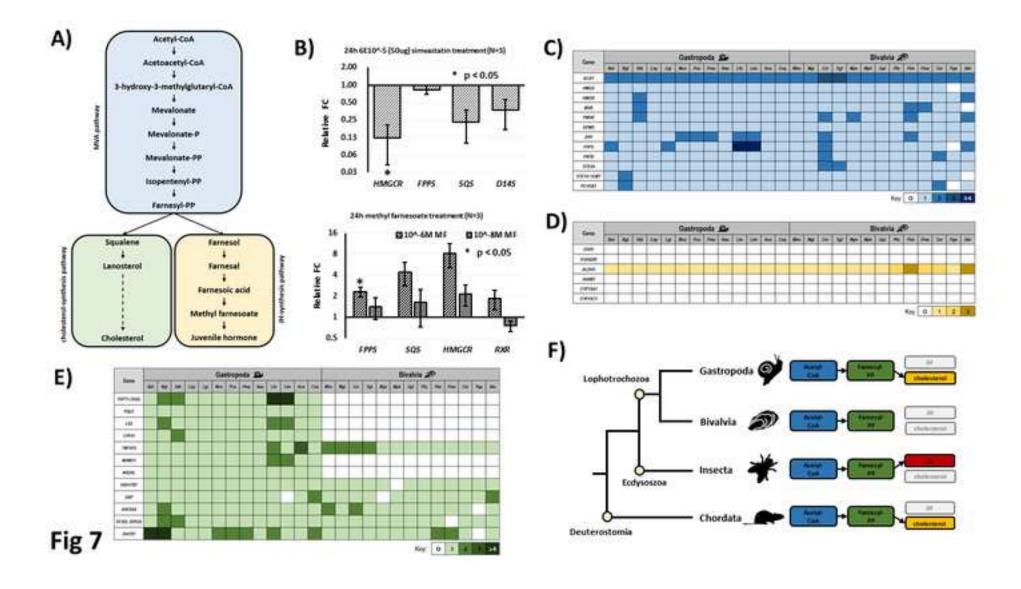
Fig 5



B)

Order	Family	Species	HSPE+	HSPB	HSP40	HSP70	HSPC (HSP90)	HSP11
	Planorbidae	Biompheloria straminea	2.	7	44	41	5	- 6
	Flanorbidae	Biomphalaria glebrata	4	5	32	11	2	1
	Hallotidae	Malians discus	1	12	26	18	1	0
	Ampullaridae	Lottia gigantea	2	11	33	15	4	2
	Ampullaridae	Lanistes nyassanus	2	9	35	13	- 1	1
	Ampultaridae	Marisa comunietis	2	12	35	13	3	2
Gastropoda	Ampullaridae	Pomioceo conoliculata	2	13	36	12	3	2
	Ampullaridae	Pomacea maculata		12	36	10	3	2
	Lymnaeidae	Radix suricularia		9	27	24	3	2
	Peltospiridae	Orgsomation squam/ferum	2	10	32	16	3	1
	Achatinidae	Achatina fulica	3	14	37	26	5	3
	Achatinidae	Achatina immaculata	4	14	53	22	. 5	4
	Ostreida	Magallana hongkangensis	2.	20	50.	123	5	2.
	Ostreida	Crassostrea gigas	2	12	39	137	4	3
	Ostreida	Crassostrea virginica	3	18	50	142	4	2
	Ostreida	Soccostrea glomerata	2	13	40	110	3	- 1
	Mytillida	Bathymodiolus pisofrons	2	7	40	103	3	2
Divolvia	Mytillida	Modialus philippinarum	2	14	38	87	3	2
2114000	Pterriida	Fincteda fucata	2	12	35	89	3	3
	Pherriida	F. f. mortenpi	0	10	40	95	3	2
	Pectinida	Mizuhopecten yessoensis	2		36	61	3	2
	Venerida	Cyclina sinensis	4	12	42	77	5	2
	Arcida	Scaphorca (Anadore) broughtonii	2	11	41	81	4	2
	Octopodidae	Octopus bimaculoides	2		32	. 9	4	3
Cephalopoda	1	Architeuthis dux(squid)	2	8	28	16	4	3
	1	Octopus sinensis	3	8	34	16	11	3
Annelida	Cliteliate	Nelobdella robusta	2	15	37	10	3	2
Anneilos	Polychaete	Capitella teleta	2	23	34	34	4	2
and an area	Cestoda	Echinococcus multilocularis	2	4	25	49	6	6
Plathelminthes	Trematoda	Schistosomo mansoni	2	-11	25	6	3	2

Fig 6



Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material** S1. Sequencing data.xls

Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material**S2a_HboxSeqsSyntenyParaHox.xlsx

Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material**S2b_B.glabrata_Hboxes.jpg

Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material** S3. Ecdysteroid.xlsx

Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material** S4. Insulin.xlsx

Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material**S5. Synteny.pptx

Click here to access/download **Supplementary Material**S6. Gene gain and loss.xlsx

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Supplementary Material
S8. Cholesterol and sesquiterpenoid.xlsx

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