

Supplementary file 1

for

The evolution of mitogenomic architecture in Bilateria

by

Dong Zhang, Yi-Wen Ma, Tong Ye, Rui Han, Xiang Liu, Hong Zou, Jin Zhang, Rui Song, Gui-Tang Wang, Fei Liu, Benhe Zeng, Jinsong Chen, Ivan Jakovlić

* Corresponding author: Ivan Jakovlić (jakovlici@lzu.edu.cn)

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Table S1. The list of mitogenomes sequenced by our research team(s).

No	Species	Phylum	Publication
1	<i>Tetraonchus monenteron</i>	Platyhelminthes	1
2	<i>Enterogyrus malmbergi</i>	Platyhelminthes	2
3	<i>Lamellodiscus spari</i>	Platyhelminthes	3
4	<i>Lepidotrema longipenis</i>	Platyhelminthes	3
5	<i>Sindiplozoon</i> sp.	Platyhelminthes	4
6	<i>Eudiplozoon</i> sp.	Platyhelminthes	4
7	<i>Paradiplozoon opsariichthydis</i>	Platyhelminthes	4
8	<i>Paratetraonchoides inermis</i>	Platyhelminthes	5
9	<i>Dactylogyrus lamellatus</i>	Platyhelminthes	6
10	<i>Thaparocleidus asoti</i>	Platyhelminthes	7
11	<i>Thaparocleidus varicus</i>	Platyhelminthes	7
12	<i>Euryhaliotrema johnei</i>	Platyhelminthes	8
13	<i>Gangesia oligonchis</i>	Platyhelminthes	9
14	<i>Atractolytocestus huronensis</i>	Platyhelminthes	10
15	<i>Khawia sinensis</i>	Platyhelminthes	10
17	<i>Breviscolex orientalis</i>	Platyhelminthes	10
18	<i>Schyzocotyle acheilognathi</i>	Platyhelminthes	10
19	<i>Digramma interrupta</i>	Platyhelminthes	11
20	<i>Ligula intestinalis</i>	Platyhelminthes	11
21	<i>Gyrodactylus gurleyi</i>	Platyhelminthes	12
22	<i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. L1	Platyhelminthes	13
23	<i>Gyrodactylus</i> sp. L4	Platyhelminthes	13
24	<i>Diplorchis</i> sp.	Platyhelminthes	14
25	<i>Gyrodactylus kobayashii</i>	Platyhelminthes	15
26	<i>Dollfustrema vaneyi</i>	Platyhelminthes	16
27	<i>Aspidogaster conchicola</i>	Platyhelminthes	work in progress
28	<i>Aspidogaster ijimai</i>	Platyhelminthes	work in progress
29	<i>Diceratocephala</i> sp.	Platyhelminthes	work in progress
30	<i>Craspedella pedum</i>	Platyhelminthes	work in progress
31	<i>Pseudocapillaria tomentosa</i>	Nematoda	17
32	<i>Camallanus lacustris</i>	Nematoda	18
33	<i>Clavinema parasiluri</i>	Nematoda	18
34	<i>Philometra</i> sp.	Nematoda	18
35	<i>Camallanus cotti</i>	Nematoda	19
36	<i>Pingus sinensis</i>	Nematoda	20
37	<i>Eustrongylides ignotus</i>	Nematoda	work in progress
38	<i>Procamallanus fulvidraconis</i>	Nematoda	work in progress
39	<i>Rhabdochona</i> sp.	Nematoda	work in progress
40	<i>Cucullanus cyprini</i>	Nematoda	work in progress
41	<i>Camallanus hypophthalmichthys</i>	Nematoda	work in progress
42	<i>Cymothoa indica</i>	Arthropoda	21
43	<i>Asotana magnifica</i>	Arthropoda	22
44	<i>Tachaea chinensis</i>	Arthropoda	23
45	<i>Ichthyoxenos japonensis</i>	Arthropoda	23

Text S1. Overview of hypotheses

- 1)** The ancestral mitogenomic architecture of Bilateria is **(a)** identical to the one exhibited by most vertebrates (ur-Vertebrata), and **(b)** double-stranded.
- 2)** Single-stranded (all genes encoded on one strand) to double-stranded (genes encoded on both strands) architecture type evolutionary shifts are non-existent.
- 3)** Mitogenomic architecture evolution is episodic (often re-stabilised after an evolutionary period of smaller or greater architectural rearrangements, commonly occurring deep in the evolutionary history) and discontinuous (in most phyla, the ancestral architecture for the phylum is highly conserved in a majority of species, with exponentially elevated rearrangement rates in a small proportion of species).
- 4)** The correlation between the architectural evolution (GORR) and sequence evolution (branch length) is **(a)** positive, **(b)** but only in lineages with highly rearranged mitogenomic architectures ($\text{GORR} \geq 7$), **(c)** and only in lineages with double-stranded architectures.
- 5)** Lineages with a single-stranded architectures exhibit higher **(a)** architecture (GORR) and **(b)** sequence (branch length) evolutionary rates.
- 6)** Compared to free-living species, parasitic species exhibit elevated **(a)** GORR values, **(b)** with the effect persisting when variability in locomotory capacity is accounted for (the hypothesis tested using only Low locomotory capacity category). **(c)** Single-stranded architectures are statistically overrepresented in parasitic species.
- 7)** Compared to high-locomotory species, low-locomotory species exhibit elevated: **(a)** GORR values, **(b)** with the effect persisting when variability in lifestyle is removed from the dataset (the hypothesis tested using only free-living species). **(c)** Single-stranded architectures are statistically overrepresented in low-locomotory species.
- 8)** There is a positive correlation between the mitogenome size and **(a)** architecture (GORR), and **(b)** sequence (branch length) evolutionary rates. Mitogenomic sizes are increased in **(c)** parasitic species and **(d)** low-locomotory species.

Text S2. Additional methodological details

The pipeline to resolve duplicated genes (i.e. leave only the ancestral copy), was designed by us for a previous study ²⁴ and implemented in PhyloSuite v1.2.3 ²⁵. Briefly, the pipeline first searches for the existence of stop codons in gene duplicates, and then removes the one possessing them, as this implies non-functionality. If this step does not resolve the duplicates, then it compares the orthologous genes of the closest available taxon in the dataset, and keeps the most conserved duplicate.

We adopted the definition of parasitism as a consumer interaction in which the consumer feeds on a single individual (the host) during at least one life-history stage, where both parasites and hosts belong to the Animalia. This includes strategies employed by parasitoids, parasitic castrators, macroparasites and pathogens, but excludes micropredators, brood parasites, kleptoparasites, symbiotic egg predators, inquilines, non-feeding symbionts, and plant-parasites ^{24,26,27}. Parasites living inside the host's body were classified as endoparasites (this category also included mesoparasites) (274 species). Parasites attaching themselves to or permanently living on the surface of the host's body were classified as ectoparasites (117 species). We found before that endoparasites exhibit higher evolutionary rates than ectoparasites, and attributed it to their lower locomotory capacity and higher metabolic dependence on the host ²⁴. Parasitoids (66 species) comprise organisms that are parasitic during a part of their life cycle (commonly this comprises a parasitic larva stage), followed by a free-living adult stage. As such, they evolve under a stronger purifying selection pressure than ecto- and endo-parasites, and exhibit lower mitogenomic evolutionary rates ²⁴. We also separately classified micropredators (186 species), as they resemble many ectoparasites in their haematophagous feeding habits, but they only visit the host for feeding (e.g. mosquitoes). All other bilaterian species were classified as free-living (10,217 species). For further details about these classifications and sequence evolutionary rates see ²⁴.

The categorisation of locomotory capacity was based on the “visual interaction hypothesis”, which is the best explanatory variable for variability in scaling coefficients between the mass-specific metabolic rate in marine animals: high metabolic demand follows strong selection for locomotory capacity for pursuit and evasion in visual prey/predators inhabiting well-lit oceanic waters, whereas limited visibility allows for reduced locomotory capacity, reflected in low metabolic rates ^{28,29}. We divided the dataset into three locomotory capacity categories: (1) High comprised all species expected to rely on locomotion for pursuit and evasion of prey/predators. This category comprised a vast majority of species (8,713); (2) Low comprised all species that have merely a rudimentary locomotory capacity. This comprises sedentary species, or those capable only of minimal, very slow locomotion, that do not

rely on locomotion for pursuit and evasion of prey/predators. This category comprised 1,202 species, mostly from lineages such as nematodes, flatworms, sessile molluscs and crustaceans, parasitic crustaceans, ticks, some annelids, mites, Acanthocephala, Diplura, Brachiopoda, Bryozoa, Ascidiacea, Echinodermata, Entoprocta, Gastrotricha, Gnathostomulida, Hemichordata, Kinorhyncha, Nemertea, Onychophora, Orthonectida, Phoronida, Priapulida, Tardigrada, and Xenacoelomorpha; (3) Because locomotory capacity is a continuous trait, it is impossible to categorise species into only two categories without creating a large overlap between the two categories. Therefore, to minimise the overlap between the Low and High locomotory capacity categories, we designed a third category: Intermediate locomotory capacity. This category comprised 945 species that would be expected to possess more than a rudimentary locomotory capacity, but also rely on strategies other than locomotion to evade/pursue predators/prey. Examples are certain flightless insects and Collembola, certain bathyal, abyssal and stygobitic crustacean and fish lineages, Chaetognatha, certain amphibian and reptilian lineages, some mammals, some Bivalvia and Cephalopoda, some Gastropoda, Nematomorpha, and Rotifera.

All steps of phylogenetic analyses were conducted using PhyloSuite ^{25,30} and its plug-in programs. All gene sequences were aligned using MAFFT v7.475 ³¹, alignments trimmed by trimAl v1.2rev59 ³², and concatenated by PhyloSuite.

For the inference of ancestral architecture, we also tested ProCARs ³³, but the results were nonsensical (details in Text S3), so we discarded them as unreliable. Additional analyses were conducted using MLGO and all genes (tRNAs included) to infer the ancestral state of Lophotrochozoa. As the outgroup for this analysis, we used two Ecdysozoa species: *Priapulid caudatus* (Priapulida) and *Limulus polyphemus* (Arthropoda), as their architectures are separated by a single rearrangement event ³⁴. The “Xenambulacraria” topology was constrained according to ^{35,36} as follows: (Porifera,(Placozoa,(Cnidaria,(Chordata,(Xenacoelomorpha,(Echinodermata,Hemichordata)))))). Ctenophora was excluded due to missing genes.

The main dataset (10,860 mitogenomes) comprised only those from the curated NCBI’s RefSeq database ³⁷, which comprises only complete mitogenomes manually confirmed by the GenBank staff, and only one per species. The full GenBank dataset commonly also comprises multiple mitogenomes per species, those flagged as “unconfirmed” by the GenBank staff, incomplete, unannotated/partially annotated, etc.

Three different effect size measures were used. Cohen’s *d* should be used when the two groups have similar standard deviations and the same sample size that is >20. Glass’s Δ should be used when the

two groups' standard deviations are different. Hedges's g should be used when the two groups have similar standard deviations and different sample sizes, or both groups have a sample size <20 per group. Cohen's d values can be interpreted in the following way: $d < 0.2$ = small effect size, $0.2 < d < 0.5$ = medium, $0.5 < d < 0.8$ = large, and $d > 0.8$ = very large. Statistical power analyses were conducted for each effect size measure using `pwr.t2n.test` method in the R package 'pwr'. Power refers to the probability of detecting a statistically significant effect if one exists, where the commonly accepted cut-off value for a good statistical power is ≥ 0.8 .

Table S2. Previous proposals for ancestral architectures of selected lineages.

Ancestral for	References
Bilateria	38,39
Deuterostomia	40
Ecdysozoa	34
Arthropoda	39,41
Mollusca	42
Gastropoda	39

Table S3. Details for Figure 1 in the main manuscript. No is species count; s-s is the number of single-stranded mitogenomes; d-s is the number of double-stranded mitogenomes; GORR is gene order rearrangement rate; Size is mitogenome size in base pairs; BRL is branch length; SD is standard deviation.

Phylum	No	s-s	d-s	GORR		Size		BRL	
				mean	SD	mean	SD	mean	SD
Chordata	6226	25	6201	0.2	0.52	16791.89	660.44	1.97	0.26
Arthropoda	3476	4	3472	3.17	0.66	15726.04	1160.07	2.9	0.67
Mollusca	551	119	432	6.93	2.39	16351.47	2750.8	3.58	1.25
Nematoda	174	148	26	5.71	1.23	14426.52	1727.97	6.84	0.77
Platyhelminthes	149	148	1	8.74	0.78	14380.99	1314.26	11.42	1.88
Echinodermata	104	0	104	2.57	0.83	16115.32	517.35	2.04	0.39
Annelida	100	97	3	4.13	0.68	15473.61	958.11	2.99	0.64
Nemertea	19	0	19	6.58	0.51	15313.89	673.68	2.65	0.17
Acanthocephala	12	12	0	5	0	14123.17	524.03	8.03	0.74
Xenacoelomorpha	9	1	8	3.56	3.84	15343.33	514.44	2.73	1.43
Bryozoa	8	2	6	6.38	1.69	15390	1631.57	3.75	0.65
Hemichordata	6	0	6	1.5	0.84	16344	827.73	1.73	0.13
Brachiopoda	5	5	0	6.4	0.89	16763.2	5076.65	4.45	2
Onychophora	4	0	4	5.25	2.06	14481	685.05	2.34	0.06
Kinorhyncha	3	3	0	4.67	1.15	15091.67	183.89	5.53	0.49
Tardigrada	3	0	3	3.67	1.15	14881.33	397.31	3.69	0.23
Gnathostomulida	2	0	2	6	0	14113.5	118.09	5.56	0.09
Entoprocta	2	0	2	6	0	15092.5	325.98	2.42	0.06
Priapulida	2	0	2	4	0	14825.5	132.23	2.3	0.04
Gastrotricha	1	0	1	5		14558		3.69	0
Nematomorpha	1	0	1	5		15132		5.53	0
Orthonectida	1	0	1	8		15217		9.43	0
Phoronida	1	0	1	6		15495		2.48	0
Rotifera	1	1	0	5		15319		5.84	0

Text S3. Hypothesis 1a: Ancestral bilaterian mitogenomic architecture

We tested multiple algorithms for the ancestral gene order reconstruction in bilaterian lineages. The architecture of the ancestor of all bilaterian animals (ur-bilaterian) inferred by ProCARs algorithm produced *nad2* on the “minus” strand (by convention, the mitogenomic strand encoding a majority of genes is commonly named “plus” strand, and the opposite one “minus” strand) (Figure S1). The only other lineage for which we inferred *nad2* on the minus strand as the ancestral state was Entoprocta. This architecture also did not exhibit almost any of the commonly highly conserved bilaterian gene boxes, including the *nad4+nad4L* and *atp6+atp8* gene boxes⁴³. On this basis, we rejected ProCARs results as nonsensical with high confidence.

MLGO: In combination with the “Nephrozoa” topology, this algorithm produced the architecture exhibited by most chordates, including humans (“ur-chordate” architecture henceforth) as the ur-bilaterian architecture, but with all genes encoded on the same strand, i.e. *nad6* was inverted from the minus to the plus strand (Figure S1). In more detail, the ur-chordate architecture is characterised by 12 PCGs and 2 rRNAs encoded on the “plus” strand, whereas *nad6* is encoded on the “minus” strand (opposite transcription direction), within the “*nad5 -nad6 cytb rrnS*” gene box (“-” indicates that the gene is encoded on the minus strand). MLGO produced a “*nad5 nad6 cytb rrnS*” gene box as the ancestral state for Bilateria. This gene (*nad6*) is on the minus strand in almost all Chordata, Hemichordata, Echinodermata, and Xenacoelomorpha mitogenomes, aside from a few exceptions in the latter two phyla. Given the putatively key position of Xenacoelomorpha in this topology, we suspected that it may have skewed the reconstruction. To get a better resolution, we additionally analysed all 14 annotated Xenacoelomorpha mitogenomes available in the GenBank (Figure S2). They exhibited highly scrambled gene orders, some with all genes on a single strand, so it was almost impossible to infer the ancestral position of *nad6*. When we tested the performance of MLGO in combination with the “Xenambulacraria” topology, the ancestral chordate architecture characterised by the “*nad5 -nad6 cytb*” gene box was resolved as the ancestral state for Bilateria (Figure S1). This supports our suspicions of an artefact caused by the “basal” position of Xenacoelomorpha. *Nad6* was also resolved on the minus strand in the ur-Xenambulacraria (Xenacoelomorpha+Ambulacraria) architecture, but it was translocated to the *rrnL -nad6 nad1* gene box. As regards the ur-Ambulacraria (Echinodermata+Hemichordata), it was also on the minus strand, but translocated to the *cytb -nad6 rrnS* gene box (Figure S1).

TreeREx: In combination with the “Nephrozoa” topology, this algorithm produced the ancestral chordate architecture characterised by the “*nad5 -nad6 cytb rrnS*” gene box as the ancestral state for Nephrozoa. However, *nad6* was translocated to the “*rrnS rrnL -nad6 nad1*” in the ur-bilaterian architecture (Figure S1). This gene box (*rrnL -nad6 nad1*) was not observed in the ur-chordate architecture, nor in any of the Hemichordata and Echinodermata mitogenomes. Among the six available genera for Xenacoelomorpha, it was found only in *Xenoturbella* (Figure S2). As this genus was overrepresented (6/14 mitogenomes in the dataset), we again suspected that this skewed the TreeREx reconstruction (Xenacoelomorpha was the sister-lineage to all other bilaterians in this topology). The remaining Xenacoelomorpha species exhibited highly scrambled gene orders, from which we failed to infer the ancestral arrangement of *nad6* for this phylum. When we tested the performance of TreeREx in combination with the “Xenambulacraria” topology, *nad6* was translocated between *cytb* and *rrnS* (“*nad5 cytb -nad6 rrnS*” gene box). An identical architecture was also produced

as the ancestral state for the Xenambulacraria (Xenacoelomorpha+Ambulacraria) and Ambulacraria (Echinodermata+Hemichordata) (Figure S1).

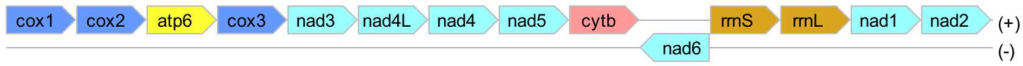
Therefore, in both cases we rejected results inferred using the Nephrozoa topology as likely to be artefactual, which leaves us with two candidates for the ancestral bilaterian architecture, both produced using the Xenambulacraria topology, and differing only in the position of *nad6*: (1) “*nad5 - nad6 cytb rrnS*” (MLGO), or (2) “*nad5 cytb -nad6 rrnS*” (TreeREx) (Figure S1).

As mitogenomic rearrangements are considered to be (nearly) a Dollo character, i.e. almost irreversible^{44,45}, the probability of homoplasy in mitogenomic arrangements is statistically very low. Therefore, the architecture that is found across more distantly related lineages is the most parsimonious candidate for the ancestral architecture^{8,45,46}. The “*cytb -nad6*” arrangement was found only in Hemichordata, whereas the “*-nad6 cytb*” arrangement is present in most Chordata and Echinodermata. Neither arrangement was observed in Xenacoelomorpha. In addition, “*nad6 cytb*” arrangement is present in the putative ancestral architectures of both Ecdysozoa and Lophotrochozoa (Protostomia), albeit with *nad6* on the plus strand^{34,42,47}. On this basis we accepted the “*-nad6 cytb*” arrangement as the most parsimonious candidate for the ancestral bilaterian mitogenome.

TreeREx_ur-Bilateria_(Nephrozoa_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Bilateria_(Xenambulacraria_topology)



MLGO_ur-Bilateria_(Nephrozoa_topology)



MLGO_ur-Bilateria_(Xenambulacraria_topology)



ur-Chordata_Homo_sapiens



ProCARs_ur-Bilateria_(Nephrozoa_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Nephrozoa_(Nephrozoa_topology)



MLGO_ur-Xenambulacraria(Xenacoelomorpha+Ambulacraria)_(Xenambulacraria_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Xenambulacraria(Xenacoelomorpha+Ambulacraria)_(Xenambulacraria_topology)



MLGO_ur-Ambulacraria(Hemichordata+Echinodermata)_(Xenambulacraria_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Ambulacraria(Hemichordata+Echinodermata)_(Xenambulacraria_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Ambulacraria(Hemichordata+Echinodermata)_(Nephrozoa_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Protostomia_(Nephrozoa_topology)



TreeREx_ur-Ecdysozoa_(Nephrozoa_topology)



Aside from Bilateria, our analyses also produced double-stranded architecture as the ancestral state for Deuterostomia (or Xenambulacraria in alternative topologies), Protostomia, and both superphyla forming the latter clade: Ecdysozoa and Lophotrochozoa (Figure S1).

Chordata

All Tunicata (subphylum) included in the main dataset exhibited a single-stranded architecture, which is a recognised feature⁴⁸, but all belonged to the class Ascidiacea. To get a better resolution, we retrieved all 122 Tunicata mitogenomes from the GenBank. Among these 122 mitogenomes, 7 mitogenomes belonged to the class Thaliacea, 3 to Appendicularia, and all other belonged to Ascidiacea. Ascidiacea and Thaliacea consistently exhibited single-stranded architectures. In contrast, among the Appendicularia, all three species belonged to the genus *Oikopleura*: one was single-stranded (*O. sp. bigama* LC830956), and two mitogenomes were double-stranded - *O. dioica* (OZ035851) and *Oikopleura* sp. (PP146516) (Figure S3). The mitogenome of *Oikopleura dioica* has been sequenced, and its unique features discussed, multiple times^{49–52}. Among these, only two studies observed that genes are encoded on both strands^{51,52}, but did not further discuss the relevance of this observation. There are some indications that Appendicularia may be the sister clade to all other tunicates⁵³, which indicates that this class may exhibit the ancestral double-stranded architecture, but the single-stranded architecture of *O. sp. bigama* (LC830956)⁵⁴ contradicts this proposal. Notably, the annotation of appendicularian mitogenomes is extremely difficult, with rapidly-evolving, highly divergent genes, in addition to the incomplete gene set, hampering the annotation^{51,52}. In this light, the first scenario we should consider is that this is an annotation artefact, and the possibility that this species actually does have genes encoded on the minus strand. Assuming that the annotation is correct, there are multiple scenarios: (1) double-strand is the ancestral state for Appendicularia, so there is a second independent double-single transition in some *Oikopleura* species; (2) single-strand is the ancestral state for all Tunicata, and some *O. dioica* that mitogenomes underwent a single-double transition (state-reversal). Mitogenomes for more Appendicularia species and lineages should be sequenced and annotated in order to be able to answer this question.

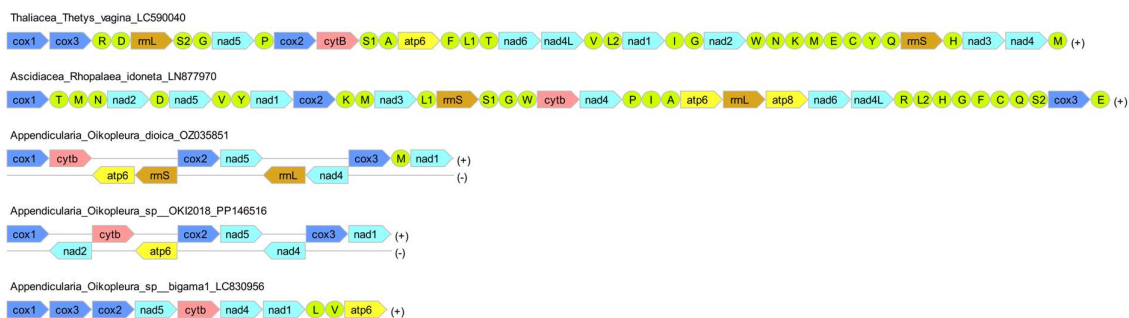


Figure S3. Selected Tunicata mitogenomic architectures. (+) and (-) indicate mitogenomic “plus” and “minus” strands respectively. Class is shown before the species name.

Ecdysozoa

The identified ancestral PCGs+rRNAs arrangement for Ecdysozoa was found in 3068 out of 3476 Arthropoda species, 2 out of 3 Tardigrada, and 1 out of 4 Onychophora. Phyla exhibiting exclusively double-stranded mitogenomic architectures were: Priapulida (2/2 species), Tardigrada (2/2 species), Nematomorpha (1/1 species), Onychophora (4/4 species). Phyla exhibiting exclusively single-stranded mitogenomic architectures: Kinorhyncha: (3/3 species). A putative double-to-single switch was inferred in the common ancestor of Kinorhyncha (Figure S4), because the sister clade, Priapulida, exhibits a double-stranded state.

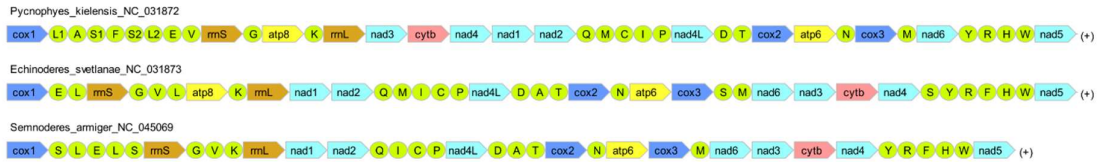


Figure S4. Mitogenomic architectures of all three available Kinorhyncha species.

Nematoda: 148 single-stranded, and 26 double-stranded mitogenomes in the RefSeq dataset. Within this phylum, the class Enoplea consistently double-stranded (26/26), and the class Chromadorea consistently single-stranded (148/148). A single transition is inferred in the common ancestor of Chromadorea.

Arthropoda: 4 species had single-stranded, and 3500 had double-stranded mitogenomes. Both available Polydesmida (Arthropoda; Myriapoda; Diplopoda; Helminthomorpha; Polydesmida) mitogenomes included in the original dataset had all genes on a single strand, so we downloaded all available mitogenomes from GenBank, and confirmed that all seven were single-stranded (Figure S5). The uniqueness of single-stranded architecture of this clade had not been recognised before apparently, e.g. ⁵⁵, but the inversion of half of the mitochondrial genome in *Appalachioria falcifera* (NC_021933) has been recognised as a major rearrangement, unprecedented in myriapods ⁵⁶.

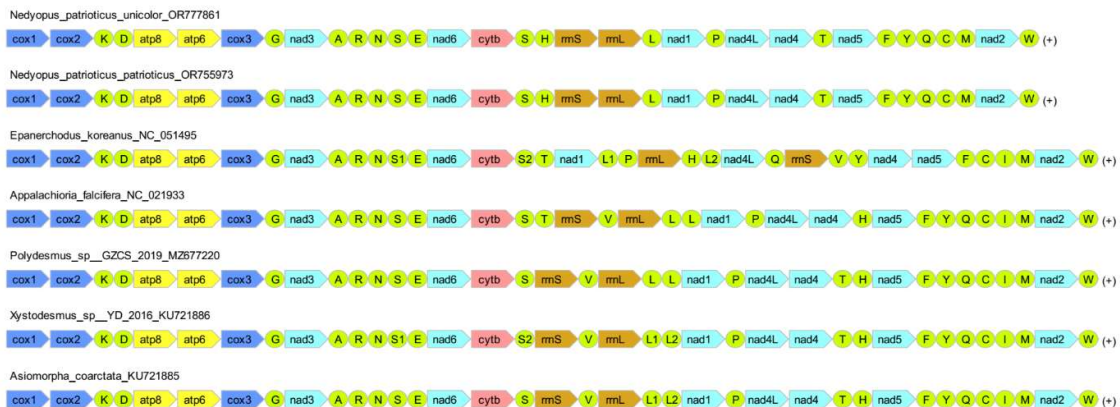


Figure S5. Mitogenomic architectures of seven available Polydesmida species.

Two independent state shifts were observed in Copepoda (Arthropoda; Crustacea; Multicrustacea; Hexanauplia): one in the order Calanoida and the other in Harpacticoida. (1) Among the three mitogenomes of species belonging to the order Calanoida, one species had all genes on a single strand: *Eurytemora affinis* (NC_046694; family Temoridae). To get a better resolution, we downloaded all 32 available mitogenomes from GenBank, and identified only one more single-stranded architecture: *Labidocera rotunda* (Pontellidae) (Figure S6). As Temoridae and Pontellidae are sister families⁵⁷, and these were the only representatives of these families, we inferred a double-to-single transition in a common ancestor of Temoridae+Pontellidae as the most parsimonious scenario. The authors that sequenced the mitogenome *E. affinis* did not observe that it is unique in its distribution of genes; they merely observed that it resembles *Tigriopus*⁵⁸. (2) Among the Harpacticoida, Harpacticidae, one *Tigriopus* species exhibited a single-stranded architecture: *Tigriopus californicus* in the original dataset. This unique architecture, along with extremely high levels of divergence, was observed in the associated study⁵⁹. We retrieved all Copepoda mitogenomes, and confirmed the single-stranded architecture on all four available *T. californicus* mitogenomes, as well as two *Tigriopus japonicus* mitogenomes. However, the third available *Tigriopus* species, *Tigriopus kingsejongensis*, had genes encoded on both strands, and its sequence was highly divergent compared to the former two species (Figure S7).

Figure S6. Mitogenomic architectures of Calanoida (one mitogenome per species selected for visualisation).

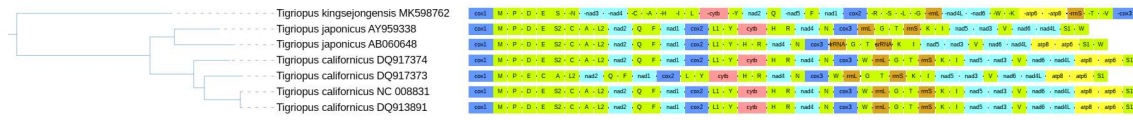


Figure S7. Mitogenomic architectures of all seven available *Tigriopus* species, with phylogeny inferred using concatenated mitochondrial PCGs.

Lophotrochozoa

Overall, Lophotrochozoa was the most “problematic” lineage due to highly rearranged mitogenomic architectures, often exhibiting few or no plesiomorphies with the ur-bilaterian architecture. We tested the performance of different datasets and algorithms, but likely due to the highly rearranged mitogenomic architectures of most lineages, we failed to reconstruct the ancestral architecture for this superphylum with confidence (Figure S8). However, multiple lines of evidence strongly support double-stranded arrangement as the ancestral one, including most of our own results.

To reduce the amount of noise, we reduced the dataset to only a few species per phylum, either comprising only species exhibiting gene orders conserved across multiple phyla, or belonging to “basal” (early-diverging) lineages. Starting with the putative ancestral double-stranded architecture for Protostomia (Figure S1), the scenario of single-strand as the ancestral state for Lophotrochozoa requires a shift of two gene blocks from minus strand to plus strand: *nad5-nad4-nad4L* and *nad1-rrnL-rrnS*. This would then require multiple single-strand-to-double-strand shifts in the common ancestors of major lophotrochozoan lineages (Gnathifera, Gastrotricha+Platyhelminthes, and the common ancestor of remaining phyla; note that the topology of this clade is unresolved, so the scenario may differ depending on the topology). The hypothesis of double-stranded ancestral lophotrochozoan requires a much simpler, and therefore much more parsimonious scenario.

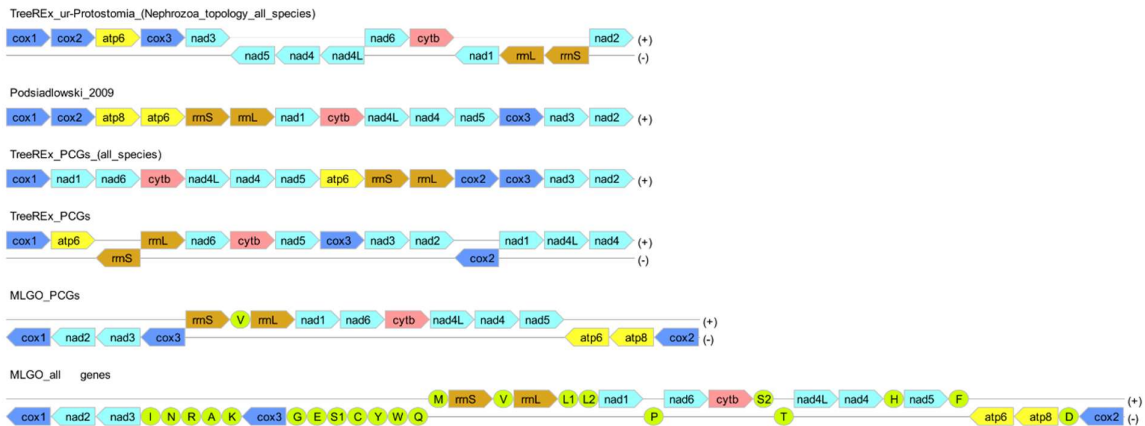


Figure S8. Candidates for ancestral mitogenomic architectures of Lophotrochozoa produced across different algorithms (TreeREx, MLGO) and datasets. “All species” in the name indicates that all Lophotrochozoa mitogenomes in the dataset we included in the dataset. For others, only a few selected species (basal lineages or putatively ancestral architectures) were used per phylum. tRNAs were included in one dataset (“all genes”), and excluded from other datasets (only PCGs+rRNAs included). Prefix “ur” stands for “ancestral”. (+) and (-) indicate mitogenomic “plus” and “minus” strands respectively. *atp8* was removed from all TreeREx analyses (missing genes not allowed). “Podsiadlowski_2009” is the ur-Lophotrochozoa architecture proposed by Podsiadlowski et al. ⁴².

Previous studies proposed the architecture found in several Nemertea species as the ancestral lophotrochozoan architecture on the basis of its similarity with the ancestral architecture for Mollusca and Phoronida ^{42,47,60,61}. Whereas Mollusca and Nemertea are likely to be sister phyla, Phoronida is more distantly related ⁶². In the ancestral Nemertea architecture, only *trnT* and *trnP* are encoded on the minus strand (Figure S9). Indeed, a similar, architecture, is also shared by Entoprocta albeit inverted. However, this group of phyla forms Platyzoa or Lophotrochozoa sensu stricto, and comparison with other phyla does not indicate that it can be considered ancestral for the remaining lophotrochozoan phyla. In more detail, there is some discrepancy in the definition of Lophotrochozoa between different scientists, and the relationships within the clade remain unresolved ^{63,64}. Herein we use Lophotrochozoa sensu lato definition, comprising a monophyletic sister-superphylum to Ecdysozoa, and we accounted for this discrepancy in definitions in the interpretation of previous findings.

The ancestral bilaterian “*cox1 cox2 atp8 atp6*” box (Figure S1) was observed in multiple phyla (Nemertea, Mollusca, Annelida) (Figure S9), so we can safely assume that it was present in the ur-Lophotrochozoa. Previous studies proposed that this was followed by the “*rrnS rrnL nad1*” box in the ur-lophotrochozoan architecture, also conserved in other bilaterian lineages ^{42,47}. This box was found in the proposed position, downstream from the “*cox1...atp6*” box, only in Nemertea. We observed it in a few other phyla, but in different locations: in Annelida (*Magelona mirabilis*) it has been transposed, whereas in Mollusca (*Katharina tunicata*) and Phoronida it has been inverted and transposed (minus strand). Notably, the “*rrnS rrnL*” box was conserved across most phyla, but its position varied. In the proposed ur-lophotrochozoan architecture, the downstream gene box comprises another highly conserved bilaterian box, “*nad6 cytb*”, already discussed herein (Text S3). In the proposed ancestral position, it was found only in Nemertea. In Mollusca, the location was downstream from the “*rrnS rrnL nad1*” box, as the entire section underwent an inversion. It was also found in Gnathostomulida (transposed), Entoprocta, Bryozoa Phoronida, Annelida, Orthonectida (all transposed-inverted). Further downstream in the proposed ur-lophotrochozoan architecture is another conserved bilaterian box: “*nad4L nad4 nad5*”. It was observed only in several phyla, but translocated in all cases. In Entoprocta, it was transposed-inverted together with the upstream “*nad1 nad6 cytb*” box. In Mollusca and Phoronida, it was transposed-inverted together with the upstream “*rrnS rrnL nad1 nad6 cytb*” box. In Bryozoa (*Pectinatella magnifica*), also transposed-inverted - together with the upstream “*nad1 nad6 cytb*” box (rearranged architecture otherwise). The next downstream bilaterian box, *cox3-nad3* was found in multiple phyla: Gnathostomulida (transposed), Entoprocta (transposed-inverted together with the upstream *nad1-nad6-cytb* box), Mollusca and Phoronida (inverted together with the upstream *rrnS-rrnL-nad1-nad6-cytb* box), Bryozoa (*Pectinatella magnifica*) - together with the

upstream *nad1-nad6-cytb* box (rearranged architecture otherwise), and Annelida (*nad6-cytb* transposed elsewhere, otherwise conserved) (Figure S9).

Ecdysozoa_Limulus_polyphemus_NC_003057



Ecdysozoa_Priapulida_Priapulidius_caudatus_NC_008557



Chaetognatha_Ferosagitta_ferox_KT818830



Chaetognatha_Pterosagitta_draco_KU807531



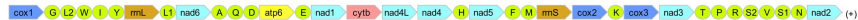
Gnathostomulida_Gnathostomula_armata_NC_026983



Gnathostomulida_Gnathostomula_paradoxa_NC_026984



Rotifera_Rotaria_rotatoria_NC_013568



Acanthocephala_Southwellina_hispida_NC_026516



Gastrotricha_Lepidodermella_squamata_NC_026985



Platyhelminthes_Catenulida_Stenostomum_leucops_KO502929



Platyhelminthes_Catenulida_Stenostomum_sithenum_NC_035256



Entoprocta_Loxocorone_allax_NC_010431



Entoprocta_Loxosomella_aloiata_NC_010432



Nemertea_Yinimeretes_pratensis_NC_057068



Nemertea_Gononemertes_parasita_NC_024822



Nemertea_Lineus_viridis_NC_012889



Mollusca_Katharina_tunicata_NC_001636



Orthonectida_Intoshia_linei_NC_060553



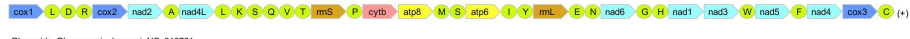
Annelida_Magelona_mirabilis_NC_028711



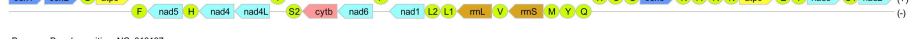
Annelida_Owenia_fusiformis_NC_028712



Brachiopoda_Lingula_anatina_NC_036679



Phoronida_Phoronopsis_harmeri_NC_018761



Bryozoa_Bugula_neritina_NC_010197



Bryozoa_Flustra_foliacea_NC_016722



Bryozoa_Celleporella_hyalina_NC_018344



Bryozoa_Pectinatella_magnifica_NC_038192



Bryozoa_Tubulipora_fabellaris_NC_015646



Figure S9. Mitogenomic architectures of selected representatives of lophotrochozoan phyla. The phylum name is followed by the species name and GenBank accession number. tRNA genes are included. (+) and (-) indicate mitogenomic “plus” and “minus” strands respectively. Two ecdysozoan species exhibiting conserved ancestral architectures are shown at the top.

Brachiopoda: All available species exhibited a single-stranded architecture (Figure S10). Double-to-single transition in the common ancestor of the entire phylum is the most parsimonious scenario given the currently available dataset.

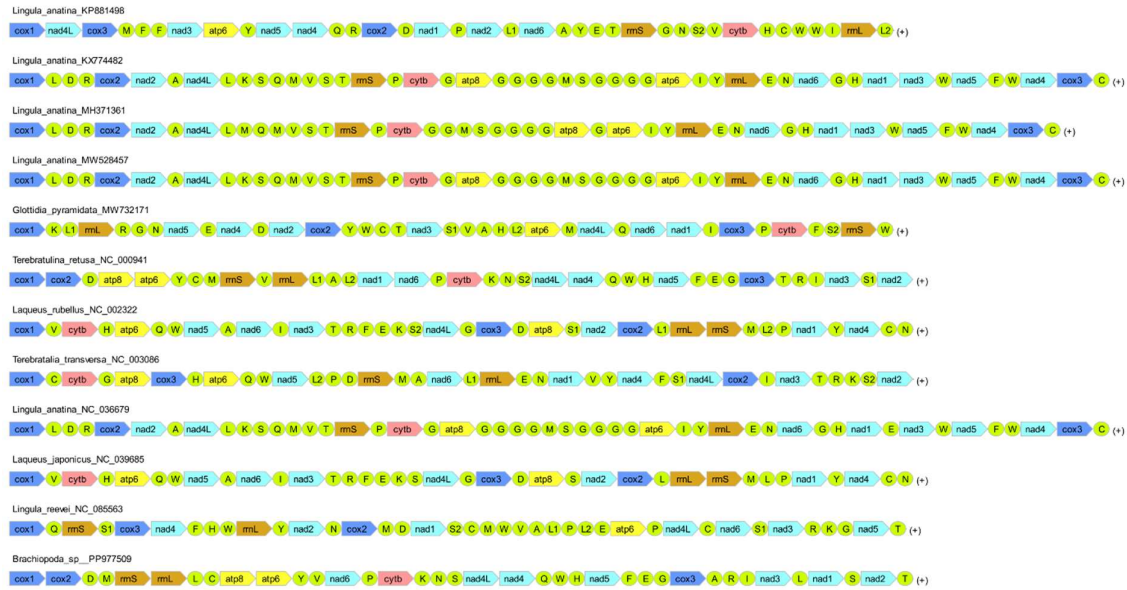


Figure S10. Mitogenomic architectures of all available Brachiopoda species.

Gnathifera: Within the clade Gnathifera, the single-stranded architectural type is limited to the derived ⁶² Syndermata (Rotifera+Acanthocephala) (Figures S11-S12), whereas Chaetognatha and Gnathostomulida both have double-stranded ancestral architectures (Figure S9). On this basis, double-strand architecture is the parsimonious ancestral state for Gnathifera, as it requires only one double-to-single shift in the ancestor of Syndermata. In contrast, the alternative scenario would require single-to-double shifts in these two phyla, which are evolutionarily rare and not observed with confidence outside Mollusca and Annelida. In Rotifera, which predominantly exhibit fragmented mitogenomes, we observed three species that exhibited a combination of single-stranded and double-stranded architectures (Figure S12). Due to the fragmentation of their genomes, these could easily be annotation artefacts.

22

Figure S11. Mitogenomic architectures of most available Acanthocephala.

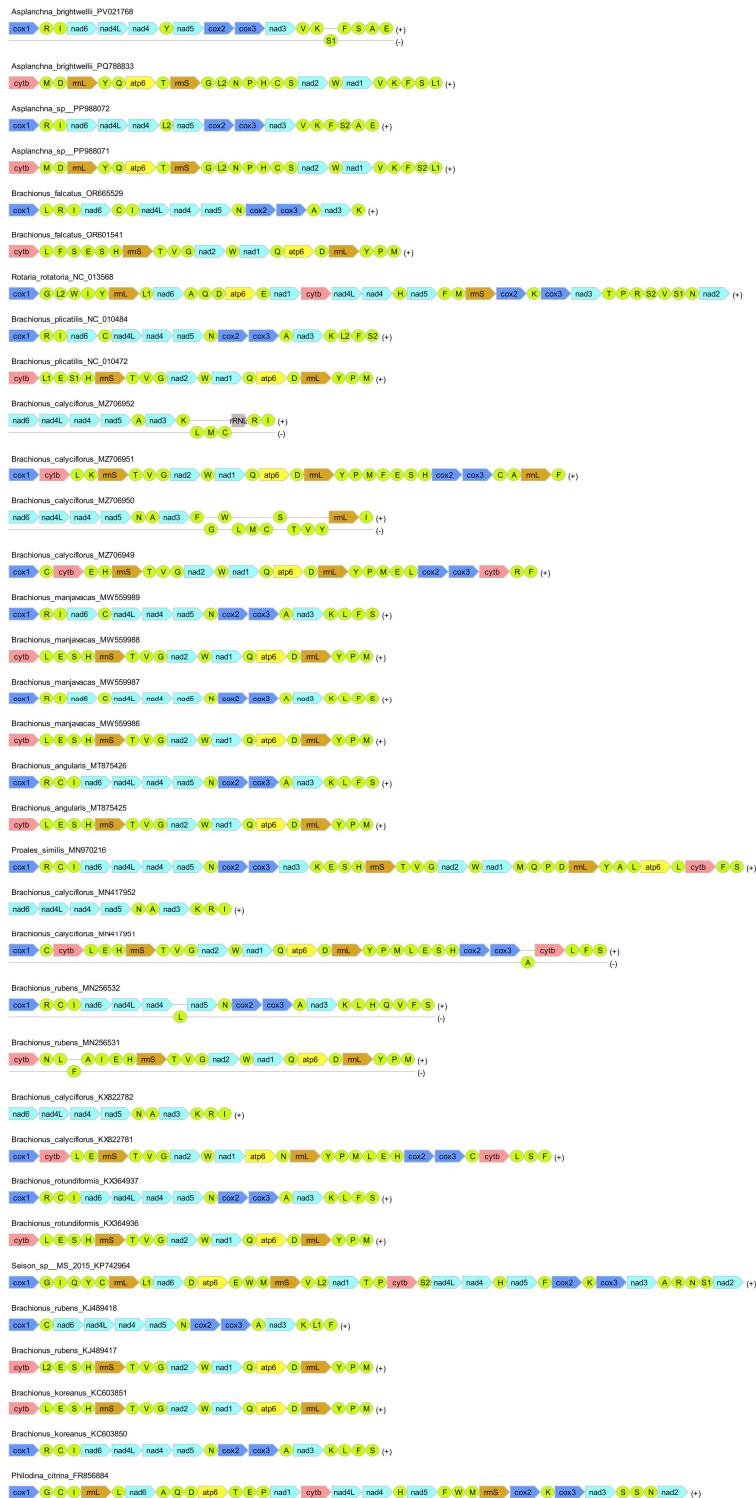


Figure S12. Mitogenomic architectures of most available Rotifera.

Platyhelminthes: Despite the vast majority of Platyhelminthes exhibiting a single-stranded architecture, we inferred a double-stranded ancestral architecture for this phylum, because both

available mitogenomes in the “basal” radiation (i.e. sister clade to all other Platyhelminthes), Catenulida^{65,66}, exhibited a double-stranded architecture⁶⁷ (Figure S13). In this scenario, only one double-to-single transition is required in the common ancestor of the remaining Platyhelminthes (“turbellaria+Neodermata”, all single-stranded), whereas two transitions would be required assuming single-stranded as the ancestral state for the entire phylum. The putative sister-phyllum, Gastrotricha, exhibits a double-stranded architecture, albeit only with three tRNA genes on the minus strand (Figure S9). This implies that the most likely ancestral state for Platyhelminthes is double-stranded.

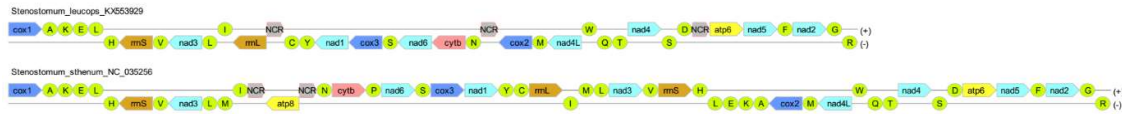


Figure S13. Mitogenomic architectures of both available Catenulida species.

Entoprocta: Exhibited a large number of genes on the minus strand (Figure S9). The most likely ancestral state is double-stranded.

Phoronida: Only one species was available, with multiple genes on the minus strand (*Phoronopsis harmeri*; NC_018761; Figure S9). Double-stranded ancestral architecture is the most parsimonious scenario given the currently available dataset.

Bryozoa: *Pectinatella magnifica* (Pectinatellidae) from the “basal” radiation Phylactolaemata⁶⁸ exhibited a double-stranded architecture (Figure S14). On this basis, we inferred double-stranded as the ancestral state, and putatively three derived double-to-single evolutionary shifts: (1) Flustridae+Antroporidae sister families⁶⁸; (2) *Watersipora subtorquata* (putatively all Watersiporidae); (3) *Exechonella vieirai* (putatively all Exechonellidae). Due to the unresolved phylogeny of Bryozoa⁶⁸ and poor lineage coverage, the evolutionary history of transitions in this phylum is likely to be partial.

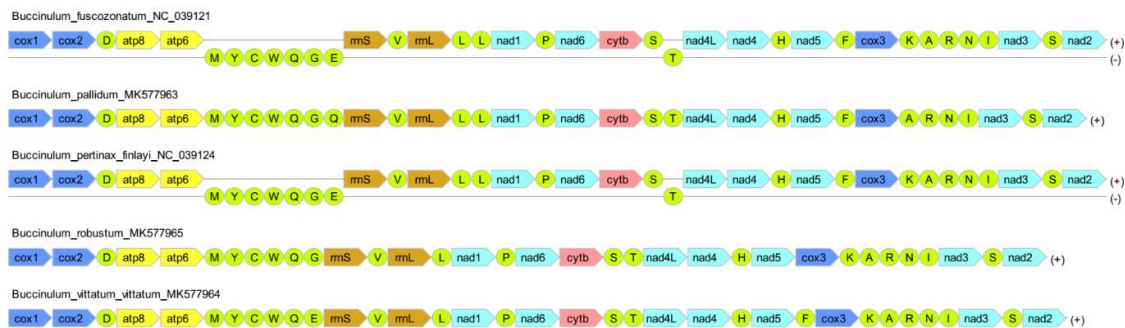
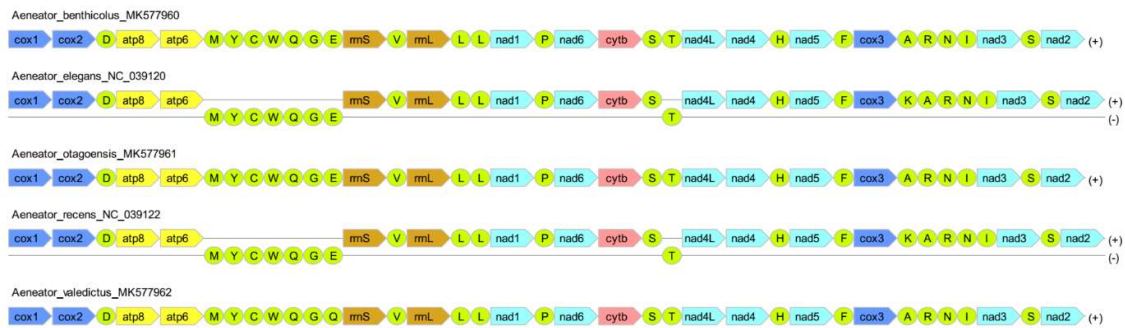


Figure S14. Mitogenomic architectures of all available Bryozoa species.

Nemertea: This phylum putatively forms a sister clade with highly variable and unique Mollusca. We additionally extracted all 44 Nemertea mitogenomes available in the GenBank. They exhibited a remarkably conserved architecture, with almost all genes on the plus strand, apart from *trnP* and *trnT* (Figure S15).



Gastropoda: Most species had genes on both strands, but outliers were observed in two lineages. In Patellogastropoda, the basal gastropod lineage, most species had the ancestral molluscan double-stranded architecture. This implies that double-stranded is the ancestral state for Gastropoda. The outlier in Patellogastropoda was *Scurria scurria* (Lottioidea: Acmaeidae or Lottiidae, taxonomic incongruence), which exhibited a single-stranded architecture. All other Lottioidea mitogenomes were double-stranded. The authors of this mitogenome annotated all genes on the minus strand, so we suspect an annotation artefact.



In the family Babyloniidae (taxonomic discrepancy: Buccinidae in GenBank), one out of four *Babylonia* species was single-stranded: *Babylonia bomeensis* (Figure S19).

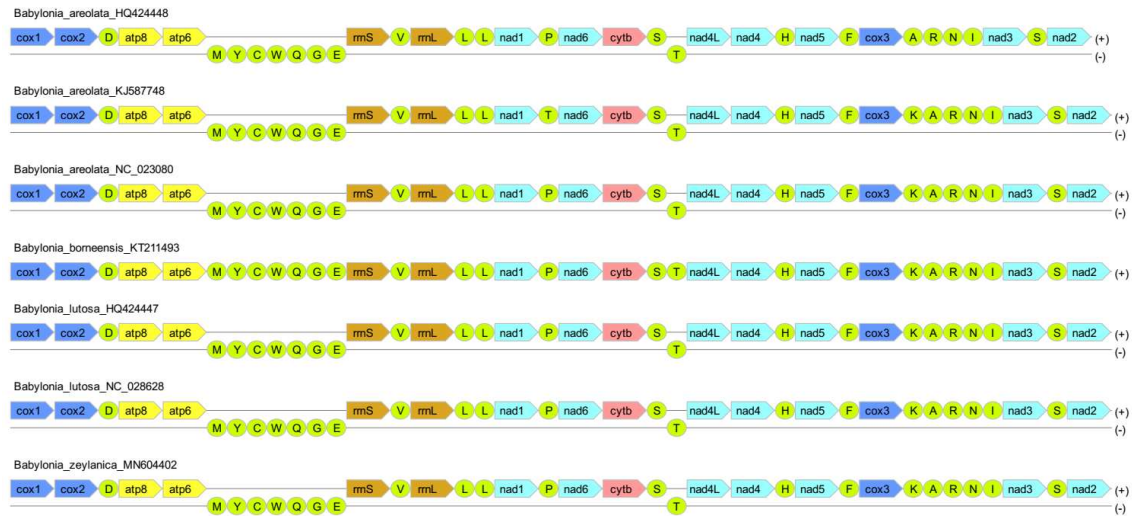


Figure S19. Mitogenomic architectures of all available *Babylonia* (Babyloniidae; taxonomic discrepancy: Buccinidae in GenBank) GenBank entries.

In the family Buccinidae single-stranded architectures were observed in three genera: (1) within the genus *Buccinum*, two out of five species were single-stranded (Figure S20); and the only representatives of the genera (2) *Volutopsius* (*norwegicus*) (Figure S21), and (3) *Pararetifusus* (*carinatus*) were single-stranded (Figure S22). In the family Colidae, the only representative of the genus *Colus* (*islandicus*) was single-stranded (Figure S22).

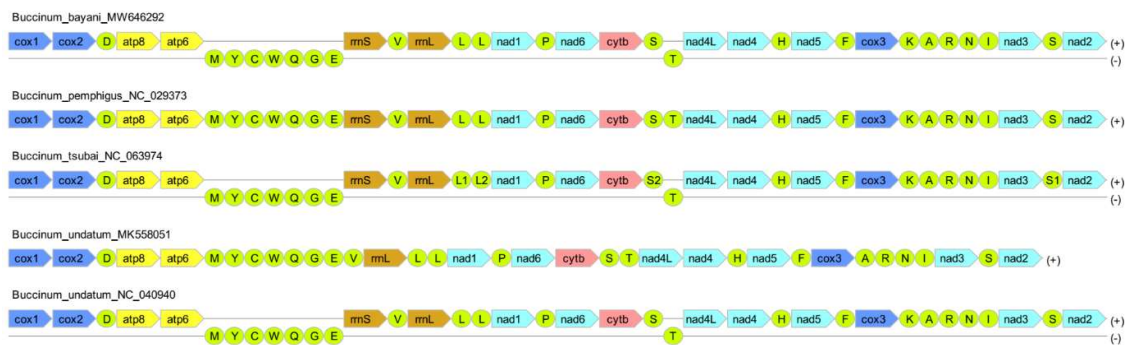


Figure S20. Mitogenomic architectures of all available *Buccinum* (Buccinidae) GenBank entries.

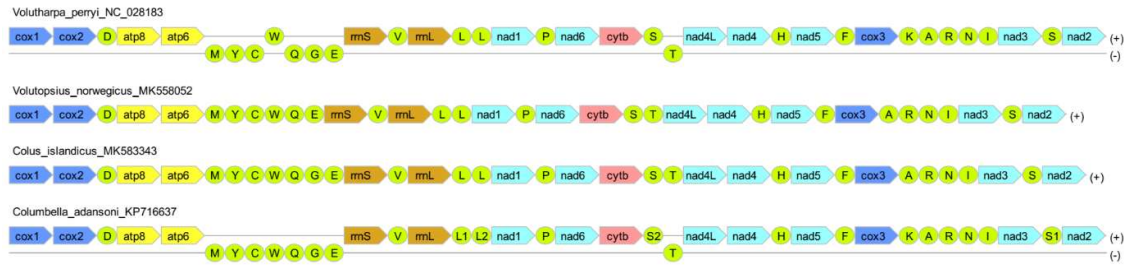


Figure S21. Mitogenomic architectures of all available *Volutopsius* (Buccinidae) and *Colus* (Colidae) GenBank entries.



Figure S22. Mitogenomic architecture of the only available *Pararetifusus* (Buccinidae) GenBank entry.

In the family Fascioliariidae, single-stranded architectures were observed in two genera: (1) the only available *Glaphyrina* (*G. caudata*) and *Taron* species (*T. dubius*) were single-stranded (Figures S23 and S24 respectively).



Figure S23. Mitogenomic architecture of the only available *Glaphyrina* (Fascioliariidae) GenBank entry.



Figure S24. Mitogenomic architecture of the only available *Taron* (Fascioliariidae) GenBank entry.

In the family Cominelliidae, one out of two *Cominella* species was single-stranded (Figure S25).

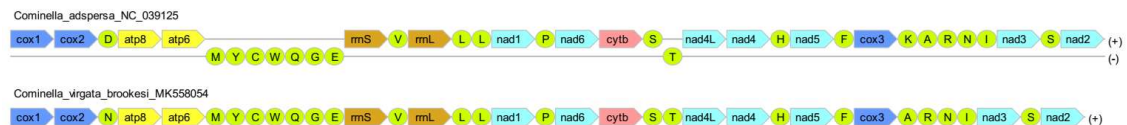


Figure S25. Mitogenomic architectures of both available *Cominella* (Cominelliidae) GenBank entries.

In the family Austrosiphonidae, two out of seven *Penion* species were single-stranded (Figure S26).

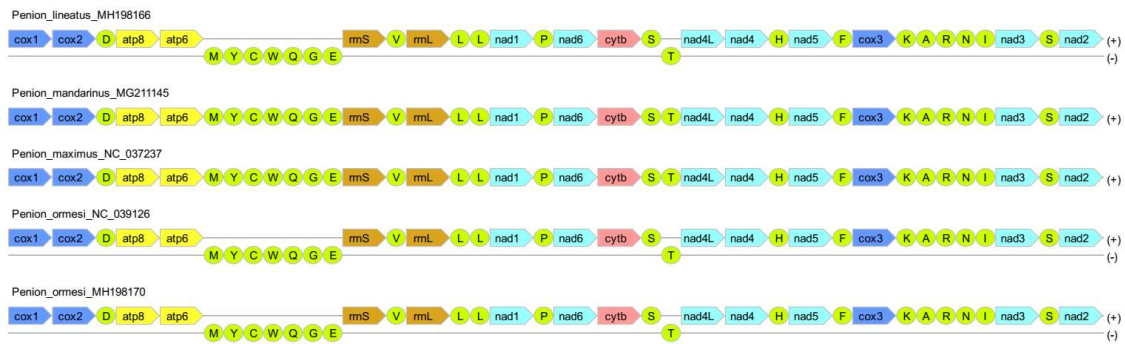


Figure S26. Mitogenomic architectures of a selection of *Penion* (Austrosiphonidae) GenBank entries, showing the two single-stranded architectures.

In the family Prosiphonidae, the only representative of the genus *Austrofusus* was single-stranded: *Austrofusus glans* (Figure S27).



Figure S27. Mitogenomic architecture of the only available *Austrofusus* (Prosiphonidae) GenBank entry.

In the family Nassariidae, single-stranded architectures were observed in two out of five species from the genus *Nassarius*: *granifer* and *hepaticus* (Figure S28).

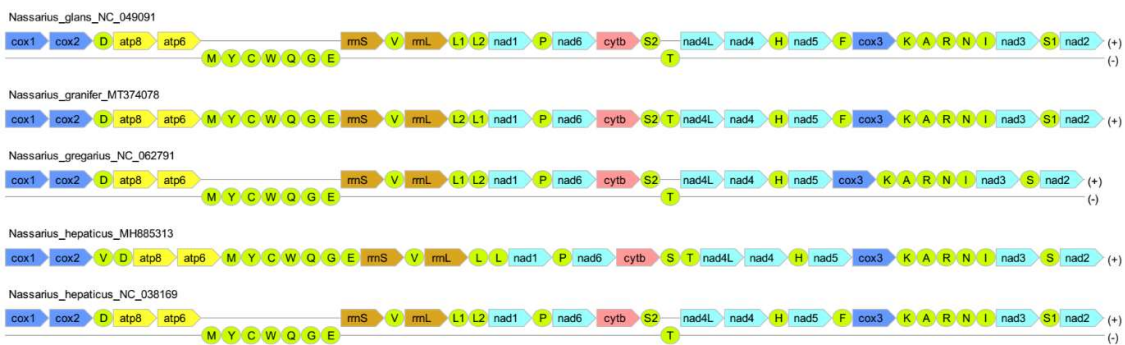


Figure S28. Mitogenomic architectures of all *Nassarius* (Nassariidae) GenBank entries.

In addition, *Scurria scurria* of the family Acmaeidae (Patellogastropoda: Lottioidea; WormBase lists it as Lottiidae) exhibited a single-stranded architecture (Figure S29). The authors annotated all genes on the minus strand, so we suspect a possibility of an annotation artefact. All other Lottioidea mitogenomes were double-stranded. An annotation artefact is likely here.

cox2 and multiple tRNA genes, which may be indicative of common recombination in this species. Due to the sparsity of data, we cannot determine the phylogenetic timing of this event with confidence.

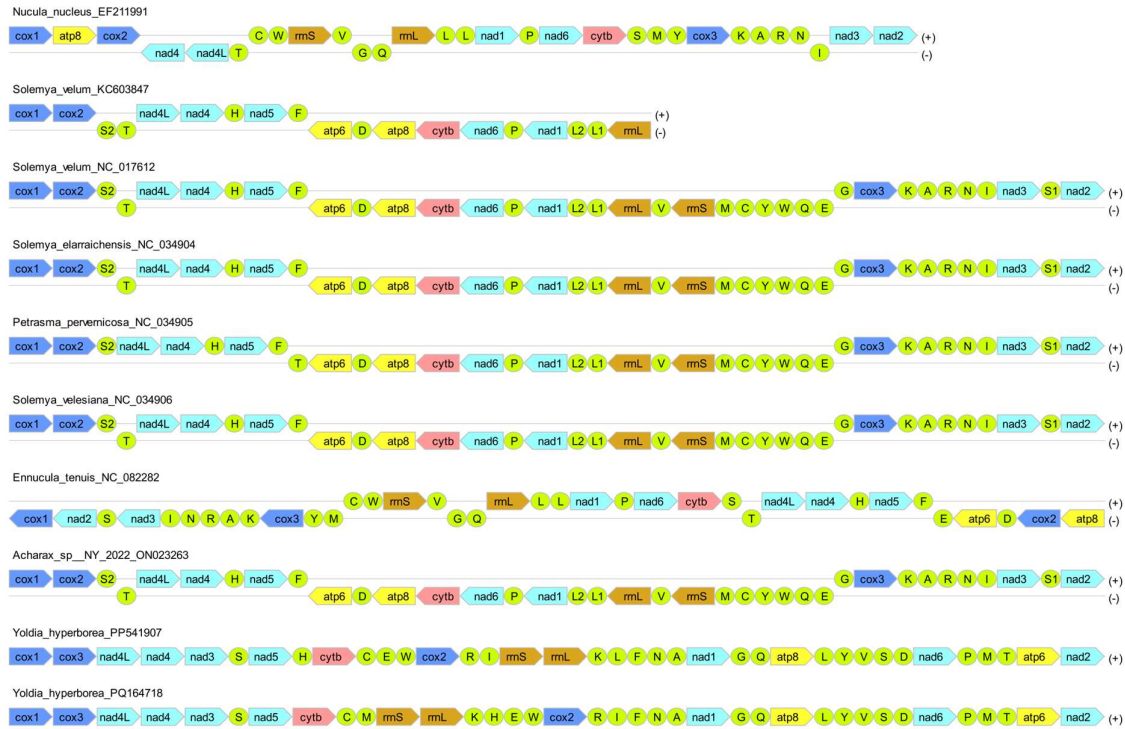


Figure S30. Mitogenomic architectures of all Protobranchia.

As regards the bivalvian class Heteroconchia, the ancestral state is double-stranded, as Palaeoheterodonta (e.g. Unionida; Figure S31) consistently exhibited double-stranded architectures, but we inferred a transition from the ancestral double-stranded architecture (double-to-single event) in the common ancestor of the subclass Euheterodonta, as a majority of species in both of its superorders, Anomalodesmata (smaller) and Imparidentia (larger) ⁷⁶, exhibited single-stranded architectures (Figure S32). Two outlier lineages were observed within the Imparidentia. The only available species in the order Galeommatida (*Scintilla* sp.) exhibited a double-stranded architecture (with multiple genes on the minus strand; Figure S33). We should also mention that *Panopea japonica* exhibited a single tRNA gene on the minus strand, but this could easily be an annotation artefact as the mitogenome is incomplete and other *Panopea* species exhibit single-stranded architectures (Figure S33). As mitogenomes are absent for the sister order Gastrochaenida, the event can be mapped anywhere between the ancestor of a single species (*Scintilla* sp.) to the common ancestor of these two orders (Galeommatida+Gastrochaenida). Although these two orders are relatively early-diverging within the Imparidentia, the putatively oldest radiation in this superorder, the order Lucinida

⁷⁶, exhibits a single-stranded architecture (Figure S33), so single-stranded is the most parsimonious ancestral state for Imparidentia.

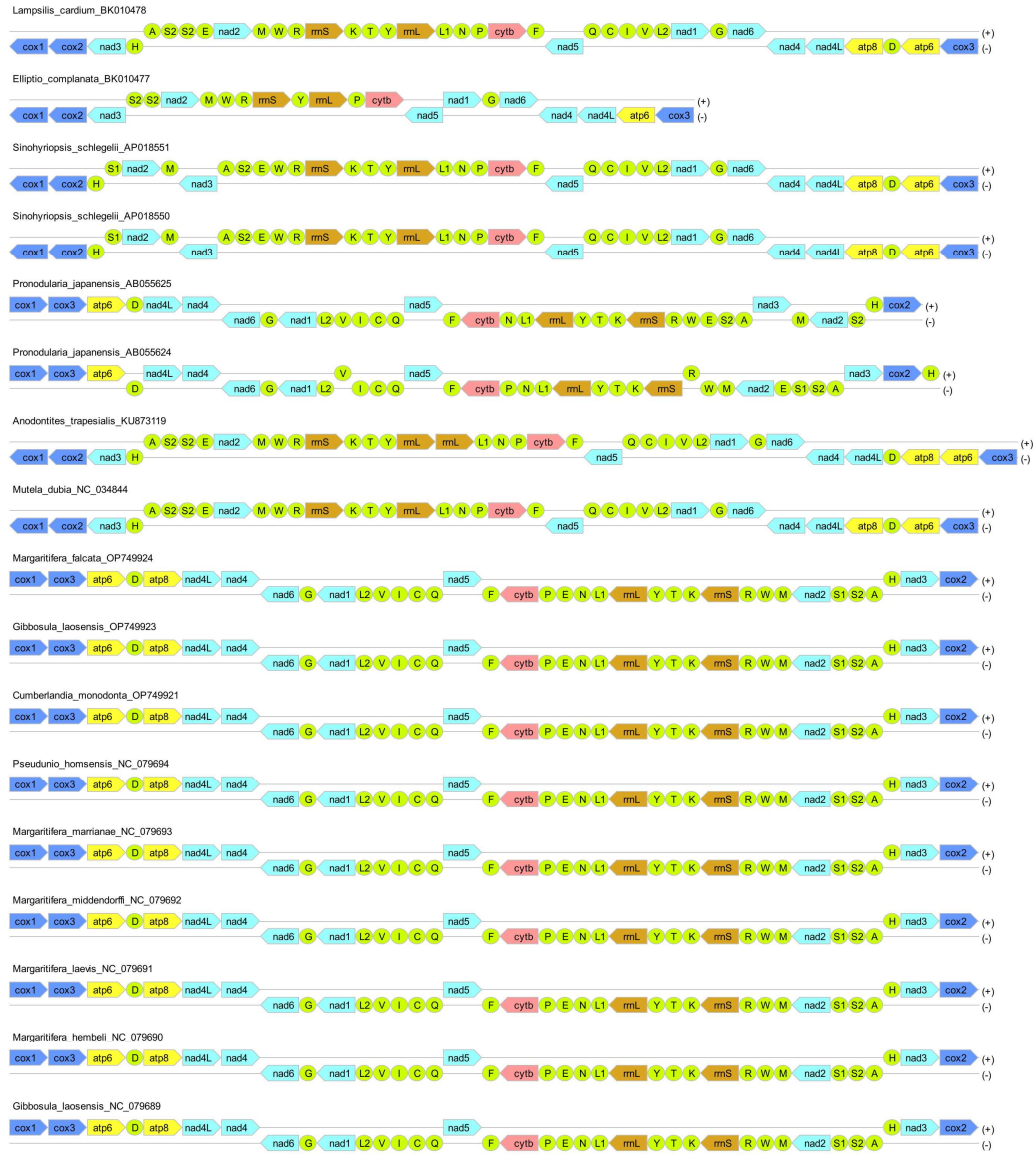
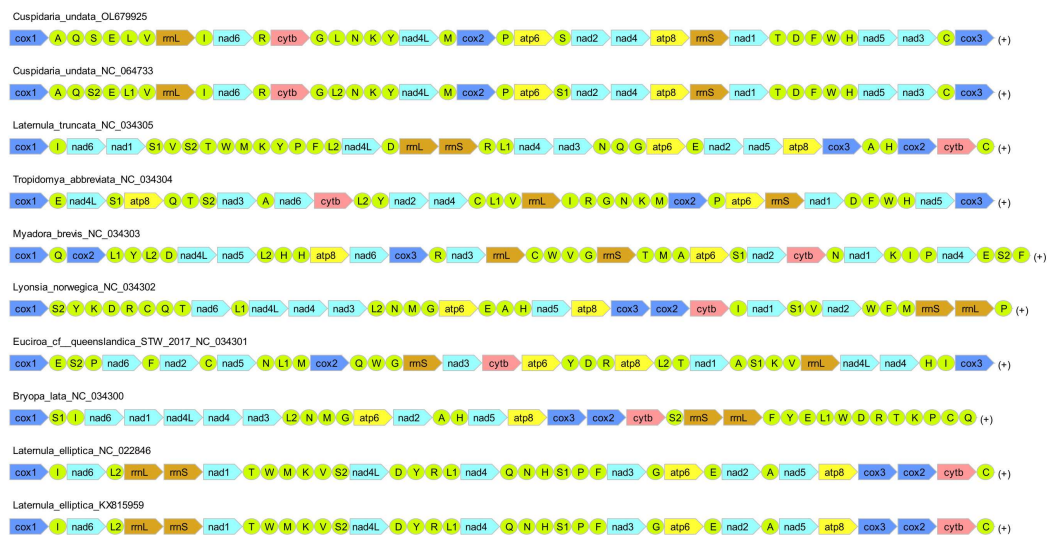


Figure S31. Mitogenomic architectures of a random selection of Unionida (Palaeoheterodonta).



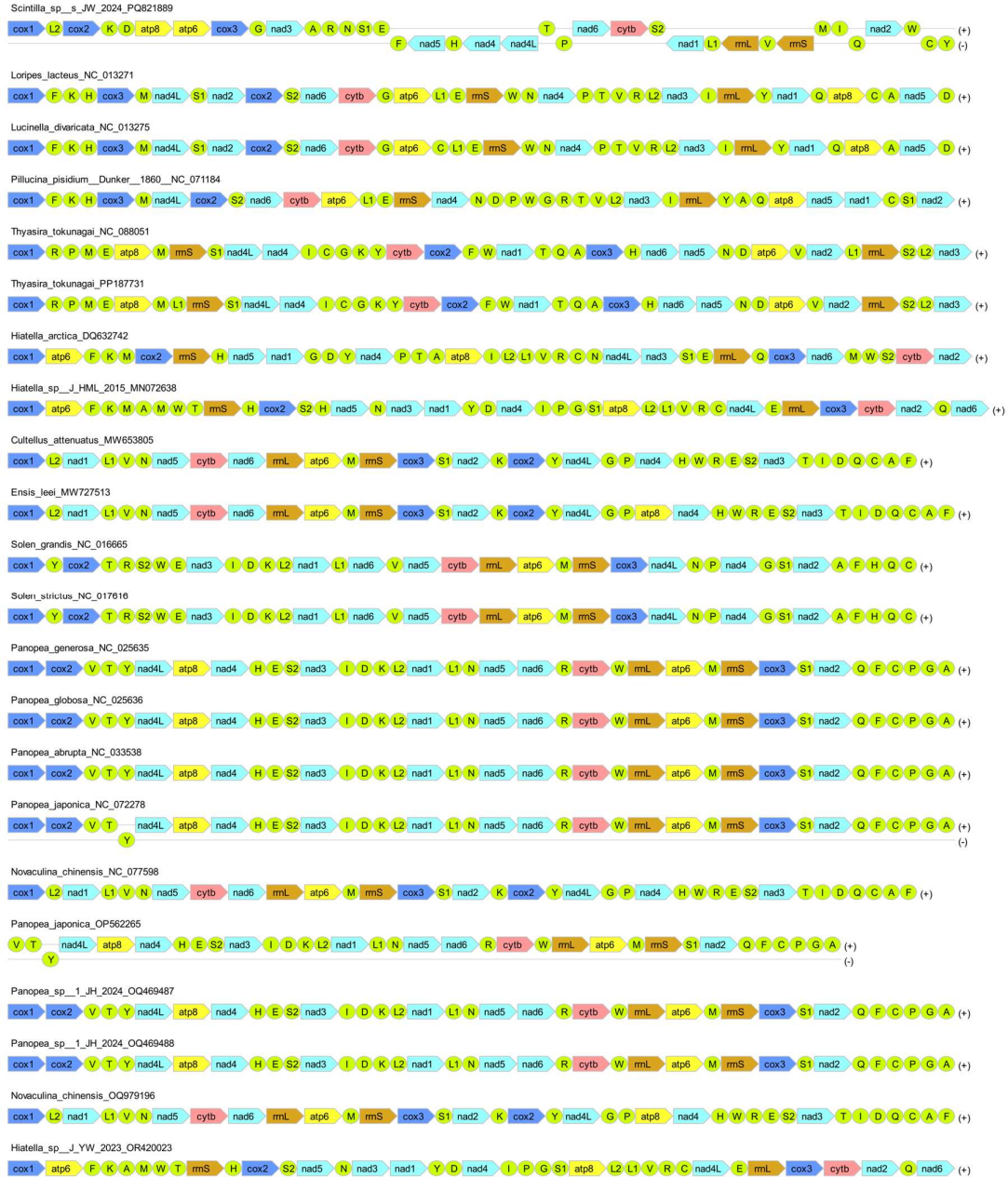


Figure S33. Mitogenomic architectures of “basal” ⁷⁶ radiations of Imparidentia: Lucinida, Galeommatida, and Adapedonta.

Within the order Myida, all species exhibited a single-stranded architecture, apart from the superfamily Dreissenioidea. All mitogenomes in this lineages were double-stranded, with multiple genes on the minus strand, but the exact phylogenetic location of the shift cannot be determined due to the lineage being represented by only two genera: *Dreissena* and *Mytilopsis* (both family Dreissenidae) (Figure S34).



All Mytiloida species belonged to Mytilidae, which might be divided into two clades: clade 1 and 2 ⁷⁸. **Mytilidae Clade 1:** Subfamilies: Limnoperninae(Litophaginae(Modiolinae+Bathymodiolinae)) ⁷⁸. Limnoperninae (*Limnoperna fortunei*) and Litophaginae (*Litophaga kurta*) exhibited the ancestral single-stranded architectures (Figure S36), so the most likely ancestral state for Clade 1 is also single-stranded. A majority of mitogenomes from the Bathymodiolinae (*Bathymodiolus*+*Gigantidas* genera) and Modiolinae (*Modiolus*) subfamilies, exhibited *trnT* translocated to the minus strand. Such high level of conservation indicates that gene might be functional and that this may represent a true transition in strandedness, but we cannot confirm this with certainty. The putative transition was mapped to the ancestor of these two subfamilies. Among the nine *Bathymodiolous* species, *Bathymodiolus brooksi* and *Bathymodiolus thermophilus* exhibited apparent single-stranded architectures, with *trnT* encoded on the plus strand. Neither of the studies that reported mitogenomes of these two species did not discuss this discrepancy ^{78,79}, so we suspect that both may be annotation artefacts. Among the seven *Modiolus* species, *M. auriculatus* and *M. modiolus* exhibited apparent single-stranded architectures, with *trnT* encoded on the plus strand. Between the two associated studies ^{80,81}, the one associated with *M. modiolus* mentioned that there was a string of duplicated *trnT* genes ⁸⁰. We cannot assess with certainty whether this species underwent another evolutionary shift (back to single-stranded). Remarkably, a series of duplicated tRNA genes, but encoded on the minus strand, was reported in several *Gigantidas* species (Figure S36).

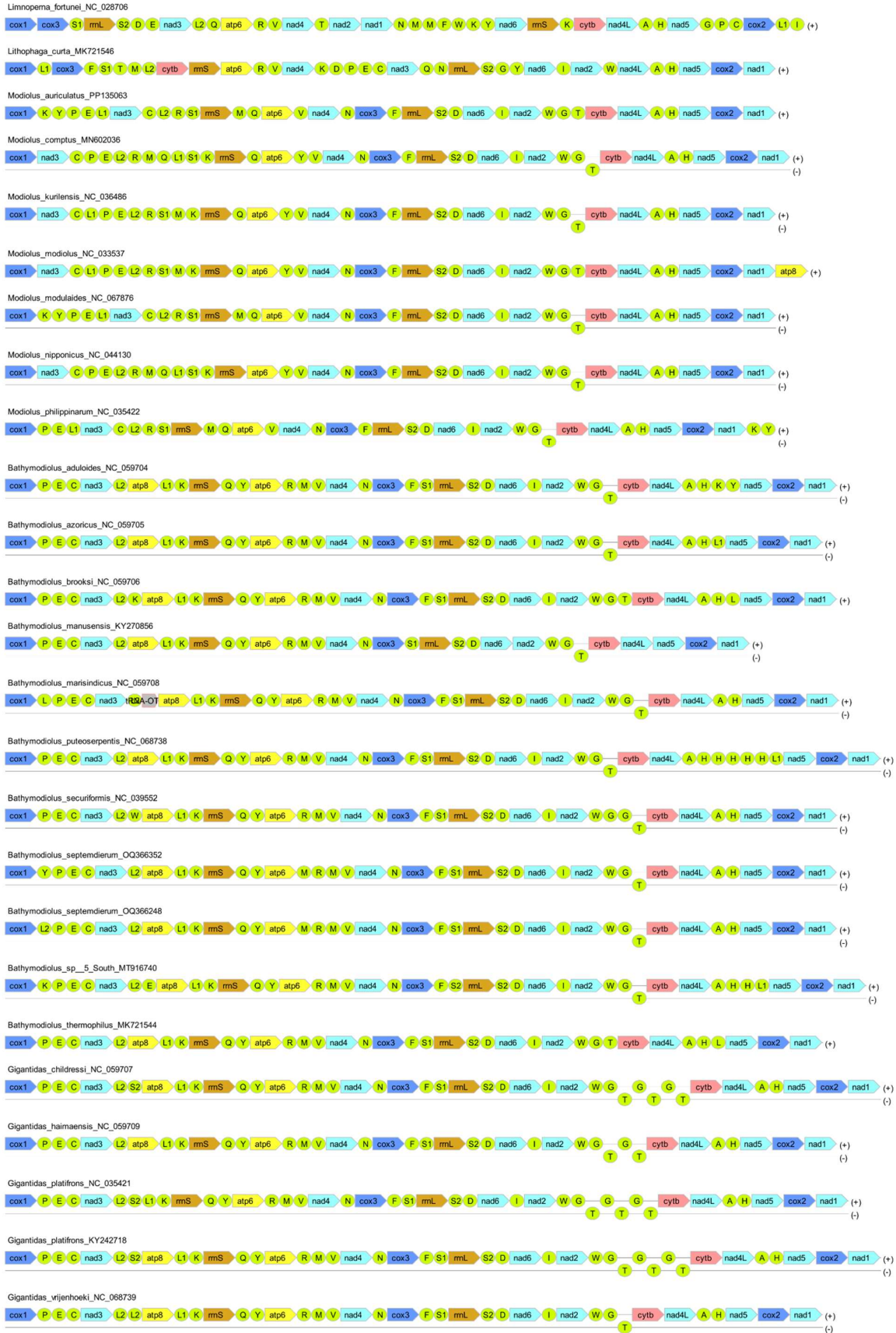


Figure S36. Mytilidae Clade 1: Limnoperninae, Litophaginae, Modiolinae and Bathymodiolinae.

Mytilidae Clade 2: Subfamilies and genera in this clade comprise: Brachidontinae (*Brachidontes*+*Mytilisepta*+*Perna*+*Geukensia*), Mytilinae (*Mytilus*+*Crenomytilus*+*Perna*); Crenellinae (*Gregariella*+ *Mytella*), Septiferinae (*Perumytilus*+*Septifer*)^{78,82}. Among these, most mitogenomes were single-stranded (e.g. *Brachidontes*, *Geukensia*, *Gregariella*, *Crenomytilus*, *Perumytilus*, *Mytilisepta*...), so the ancestral state for Clade 2 of Mytilidae is likely to be single-stranded, as most species exhibited that architecture, and this does not require any changes in the ancestral strand state of Mytilidae. In Crenellinae (Arcuatulinae in NCBI), two out of five *Arcuatula senhousia* mitogenomes exhibited a double-stranded architecture, but only with *trnS2* on the minus strand (Figure S37). As this was not mentioned in a paper that reported both M and F types⁸³, this may be an annotation artefact. Similar, both *Xenostrobus securis* (Arcuatulinae in NCBI, Xenostrobiniae in WORMS) mitogenomes exhibited *trnT* on the minus strand (Figure S38).

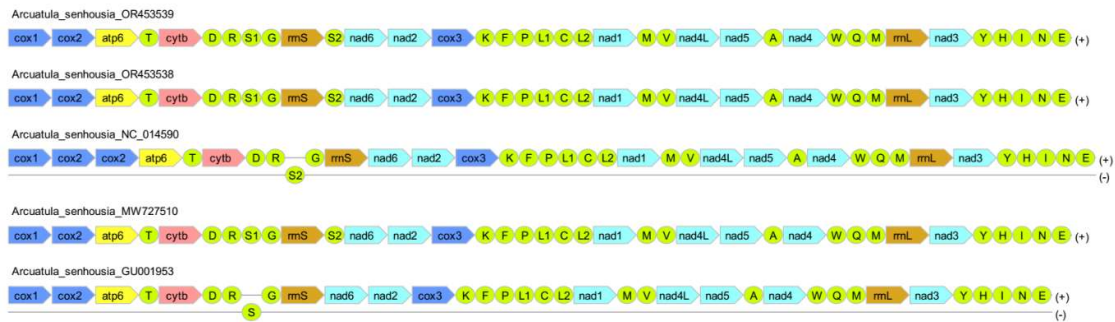


Figure S37. Mytilidae Clade 2: *Arcuatula* (Crenellinae in WORMS, Arcuatulinae in NCBI).

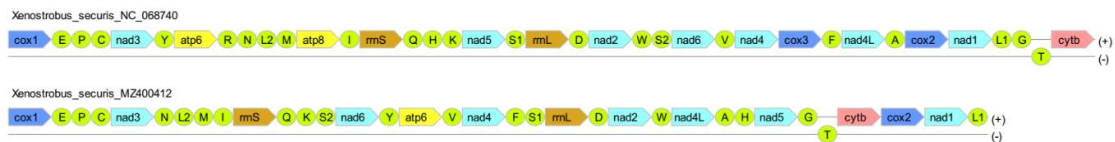


Figure S38. Mytilidae Clade 2: *Xenostrobus* (Crenellinae in WORMS, Arcuatulinae in NCBI).

Text S5. GORR values distribution and correlations with branch length, mitogenome size, and strand distribution of genes

Kolmogorov-Smirnov test rejected the hypothesis that GORR distribution across the Bilateria fits an exponential distribution. The correlation between GORR and branch length was unaffected by recoding GORR = 0 values as GORR = 0.0000001: (a) for “0” values, results were $r = 0.6892$, $p = 0.0$, and $R^2 = 0.4750$; (b) for “0.0000001” values, results were: $r = 0.6892$, $p = 0.0$, and $R^2 = 0.4750$. When Chordata were removed from the dataset completely, results were: $r = 0.5739$, $p = 0.0$, and $R^2 = 0.3293$.

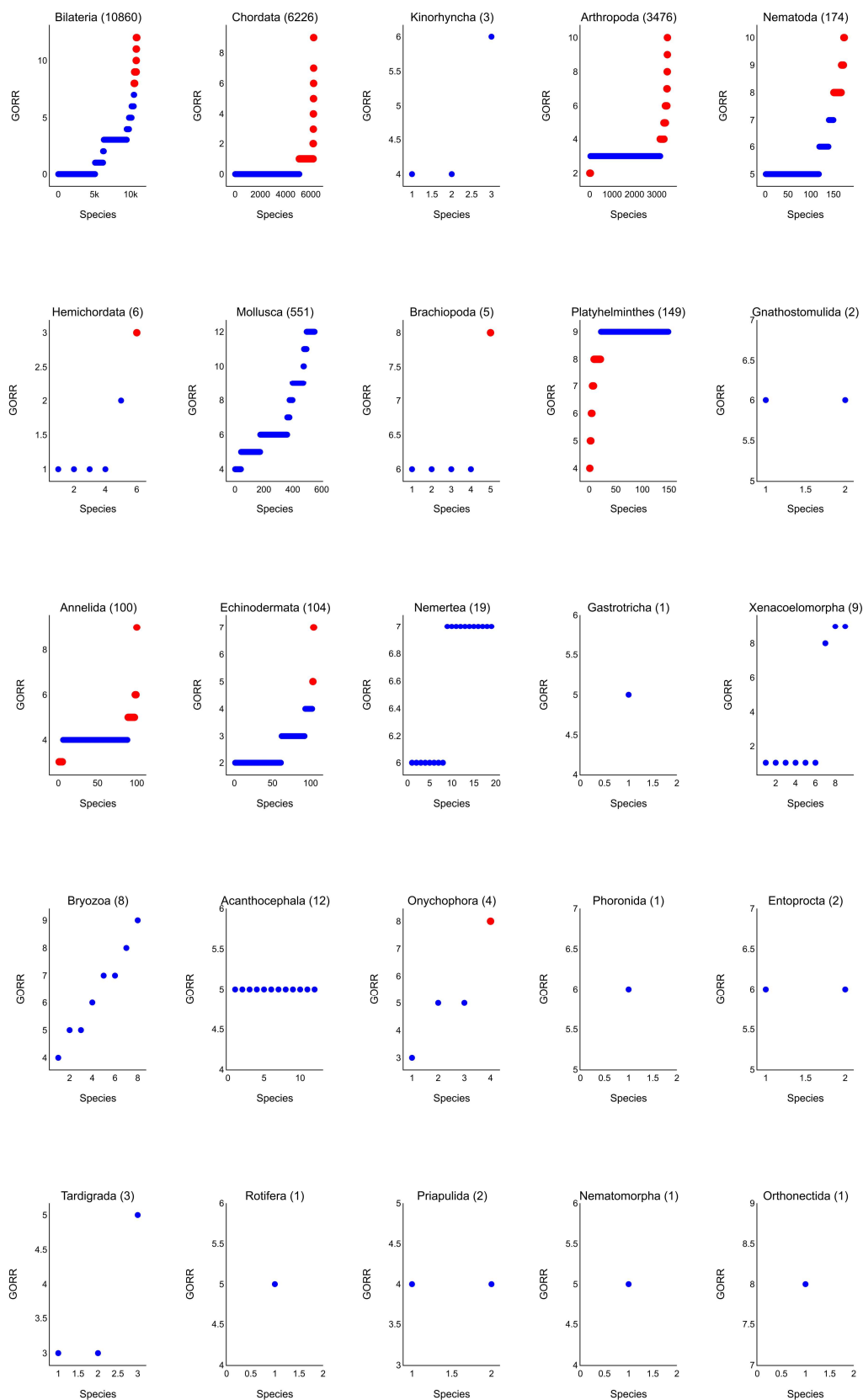


Figure S39. The distribution of gene order rearrangement rates (GORR) in comparison to the ancestral bilaterian architecture across Bilateria for each phylum. Statistically identified outliers are highlighted in red.

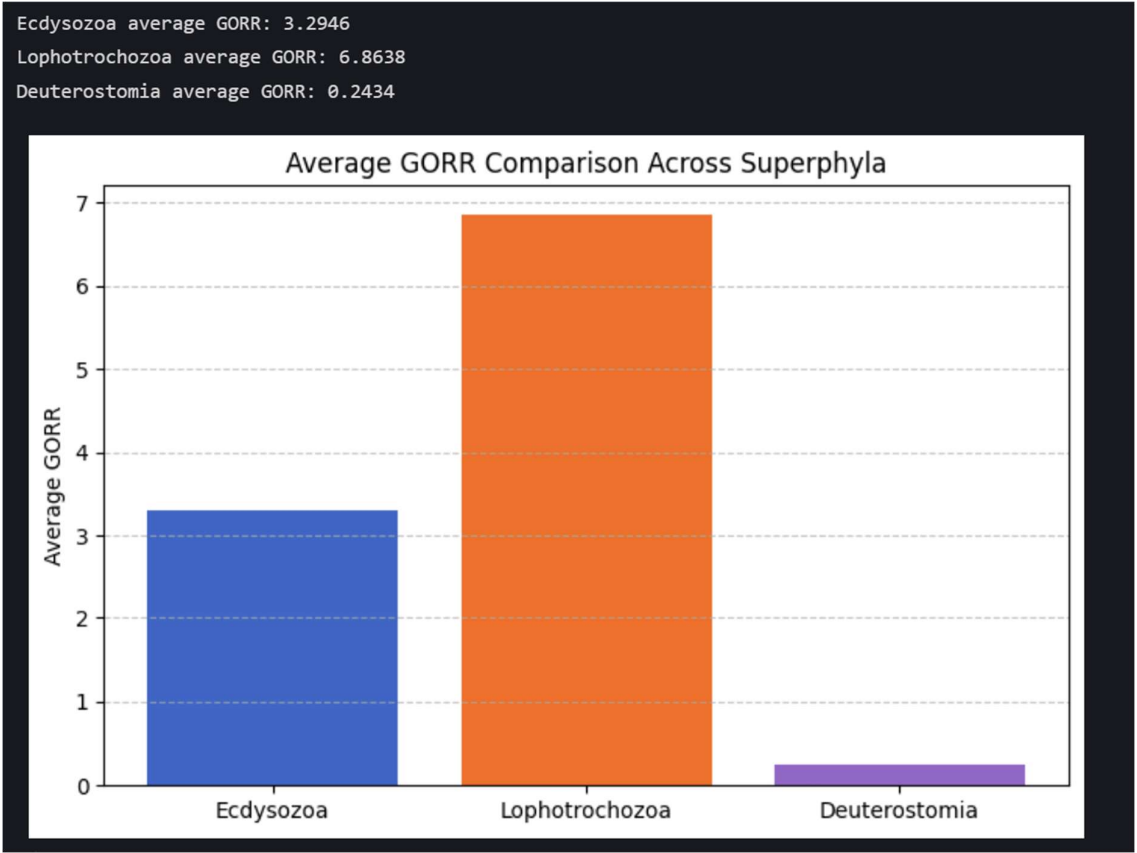


Figure S40. Average gene order rearrangement rate (GORR) values across the three bilaterian superphyla for each phylum.

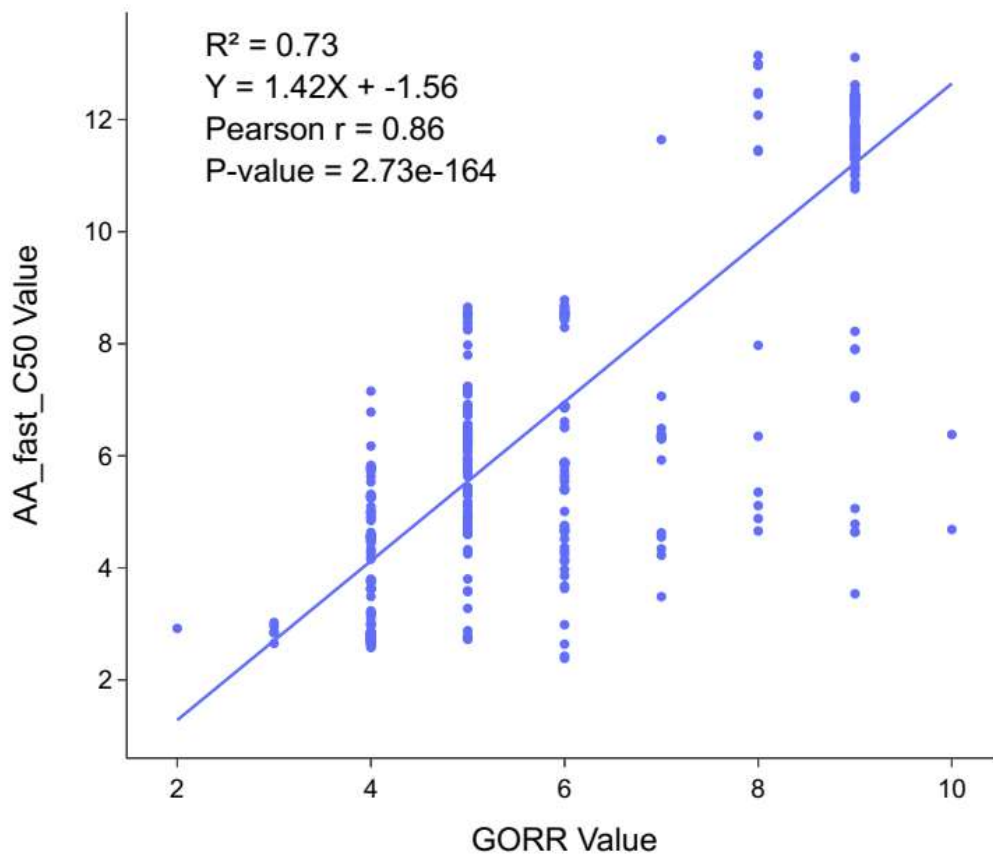


Figure S41. The correlation between the gene order rearrangement rate (GORR) and branch length (AA_fast_C50 Value) inferred using only single-stranded mitogenomes (all genes encoded on a single strand). Correlation is presented as Pearson r , and R^2 is regression. GORR = 0 values were recoded as 0.0000001.

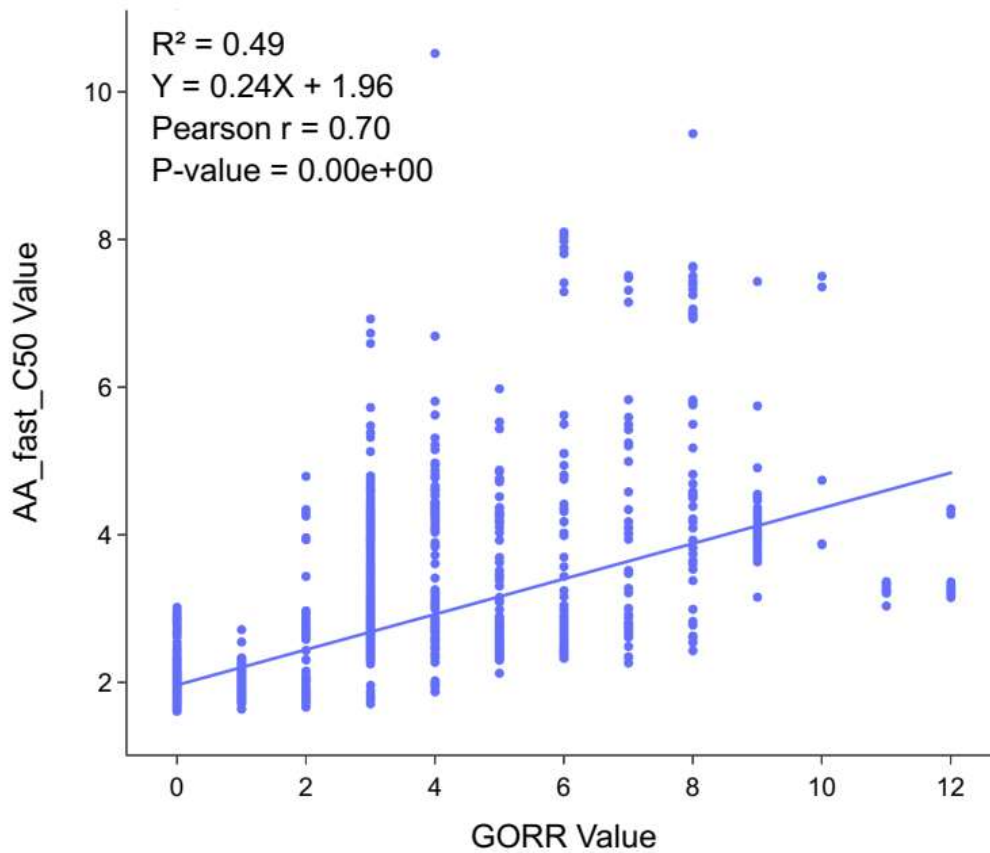


Figure S42. The correlation between the gene order rearrangement rate (GORR) and branch length (AA_fast_C50 Value) inferred using only double-stranded mitogenomes (genes encoded on both strands). Correlation is presented as Pearson r , and R^2 is regression. GORR = 0 values were recoded as 0.0000001.

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Group GORR >= 7 brl: Count = 421, Mean = 6.77553919239905, Std = 3.7934772936748895
Group GORR < 7 brl: Count = 10439, Mean = 2.409786569594789, Std = 0.8990851795230749
brl comparison between two groups, T-statistic: 76.04687650410519, P-value: 0.0
Correlation (GORR and AA_fast_C50) for GORR >= 7: -0.18414413546920747
Correlation (GORR and AA_fast_C50) for GORR < 7: 0.6897612404439364

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Figure S43. Details of correlation analyses between GORR and branch length in highly rearranged (GORR \geq 7) and architecturally conserved (GORR<7) mitogenomes.

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Statistics for Strand_Trait = double-stranded:
Group Strand_Trait = double-stranded, GORR >= 7: Count = 251, Mean = 4.066641434262948, Std = 1.2876010837663716
Group Strand_Trait = double-stranded, GORR < 7: Count = 10044, Mean = 2.2963877937076864, Std = 0.6192251768379109

Statistics for Strand_Trait = single-stranded:
Group Strand_Trait = single-stranded, GORR >= 7: Count = 170, Mean = 10.77514705882353, Std = 2.514080625685445
Group Strand_Trait = single-stranded, GORR < 7: Count = 395, Mean = 5.293273417721519, Std = 1.7256867260085318

AA_fast_C50 comparison for Strand_Trait = double-stranded, T-statistic: 43.03337488062722, P-value: 0.0
AA_fast_C50 comparison for Strand_Trait = single-stranded, T-statistic: 29.95101284456735, P-value: 1.3467314101702297e-118

Correlation (GORR and AA_fast_C50) for Strand_Trait = double-stranded, GORR >= 7: -0.345015273826854
Correlation (GORR and AA_fast_C50) for Strand_Trait = double-stranded, GORR < 7: 0.6931874402643464
Correlation (GORR and AA_fast_C50) for Strand_Trait = single-stranded, GORR >= 7: 0.5542617737180465
Correlation (GORR and AA_fast_C50) for Strand_Trait = single-stranded, GORR < 7: 0.5951545921388597

```

Figure S44. Details of correlation analyses between GORR and branch length with the full dataset divided into four subdatasets along the lines of strand distribution of genes (single-stranded vs. double-stranded) and rearrangement rate (GORR>7 vs. GORR≤7).

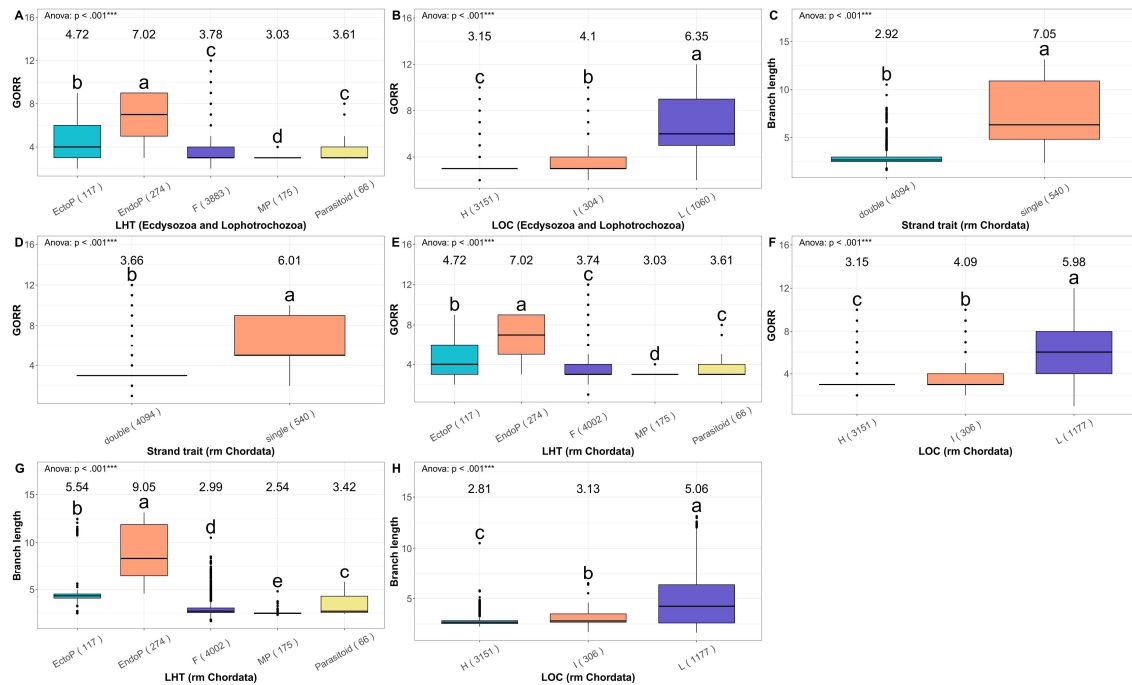


Figure S45. Additional pairwise Tukey HSD tests. In each panel, the GORR/branch length distribution boxplot is shown on the y-axis, while datasets compared are shown on the x-axis. The titles below the panels are presented in the following format: categorisation (dataset). In the life-history (LHT) categorisation, F is free-living, EndoP is endoparasitic, EctoP is ectoparasitic, and MP is micropredatory. In the locomotory capacity (LOC) categorisation, H is high, I is intermediate, and L is low. The number of species included is shown next to the category name. “rm Chordata” indicates that Chordata were removed from the dataset. “Strand trait” panels (C and D) supplement Figure 4 in

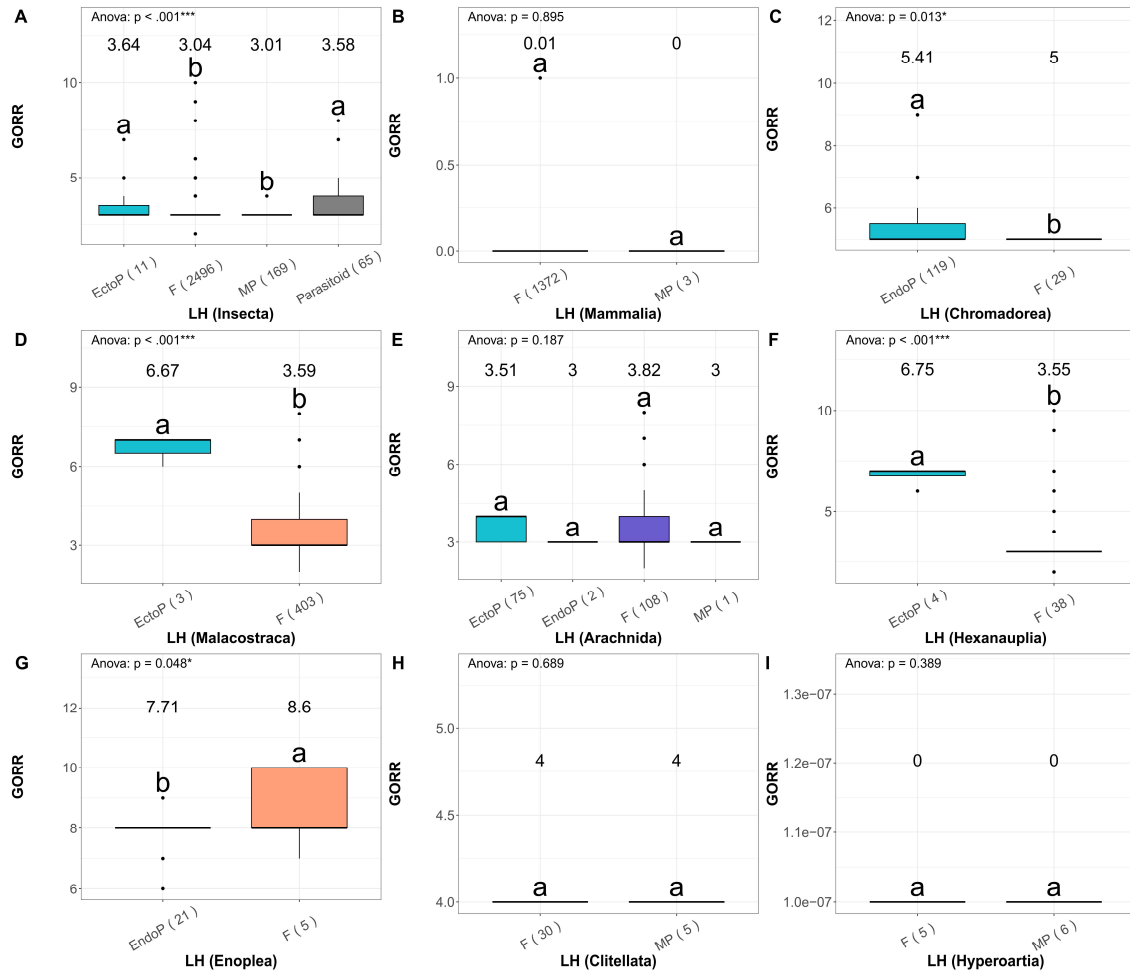


Figure S47. Pairwise comparisons (Tukey HSD tests) of GORR values between different life history categories across individual classes. See Figure S45 for other details.

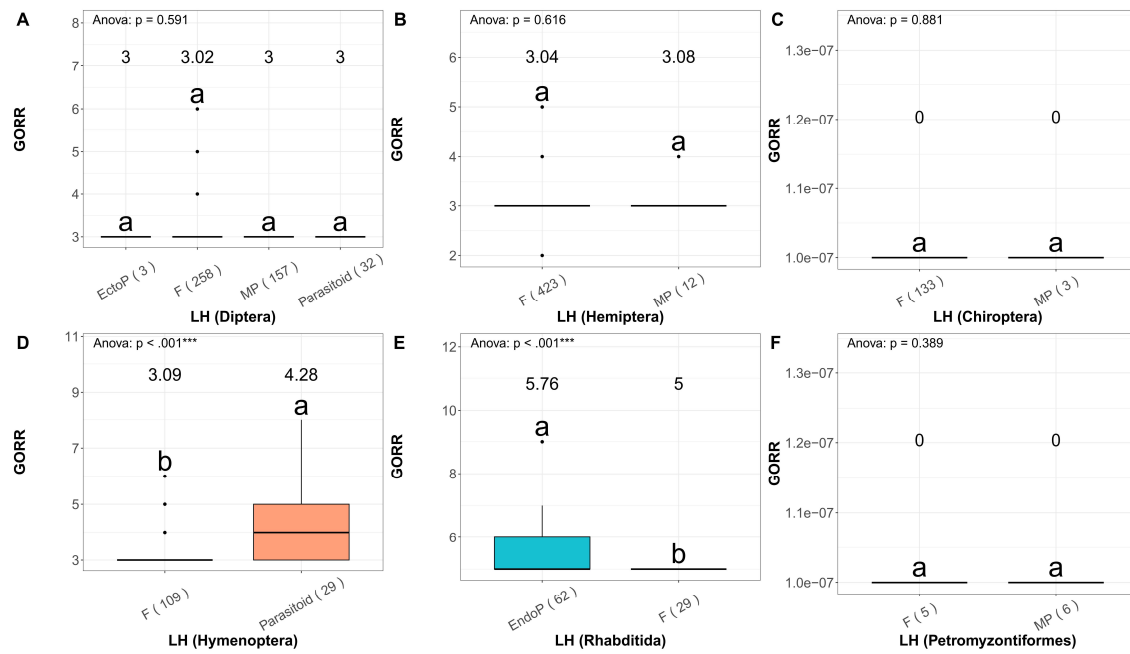


Figure S48. Pairwise comparisons (Tukey HSD tests) of GORR values between different life history categories (LH) across individual orders. See Figure S45 for other details.

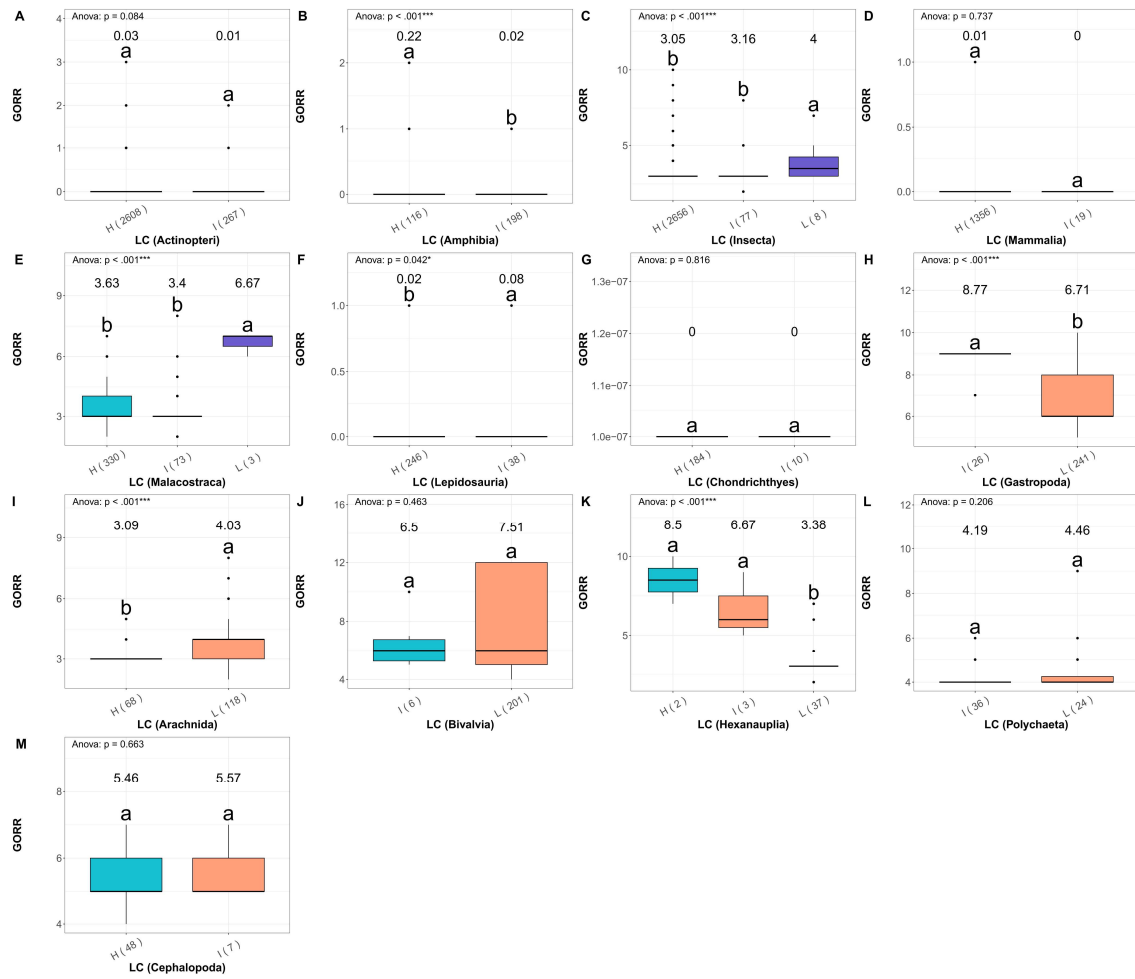


Figure S49. Pairwise comparisons (Tukey HSD tests) of GORR values between different locomotory capacity categories (LH) across individual classes. See Figure S45 for other details.

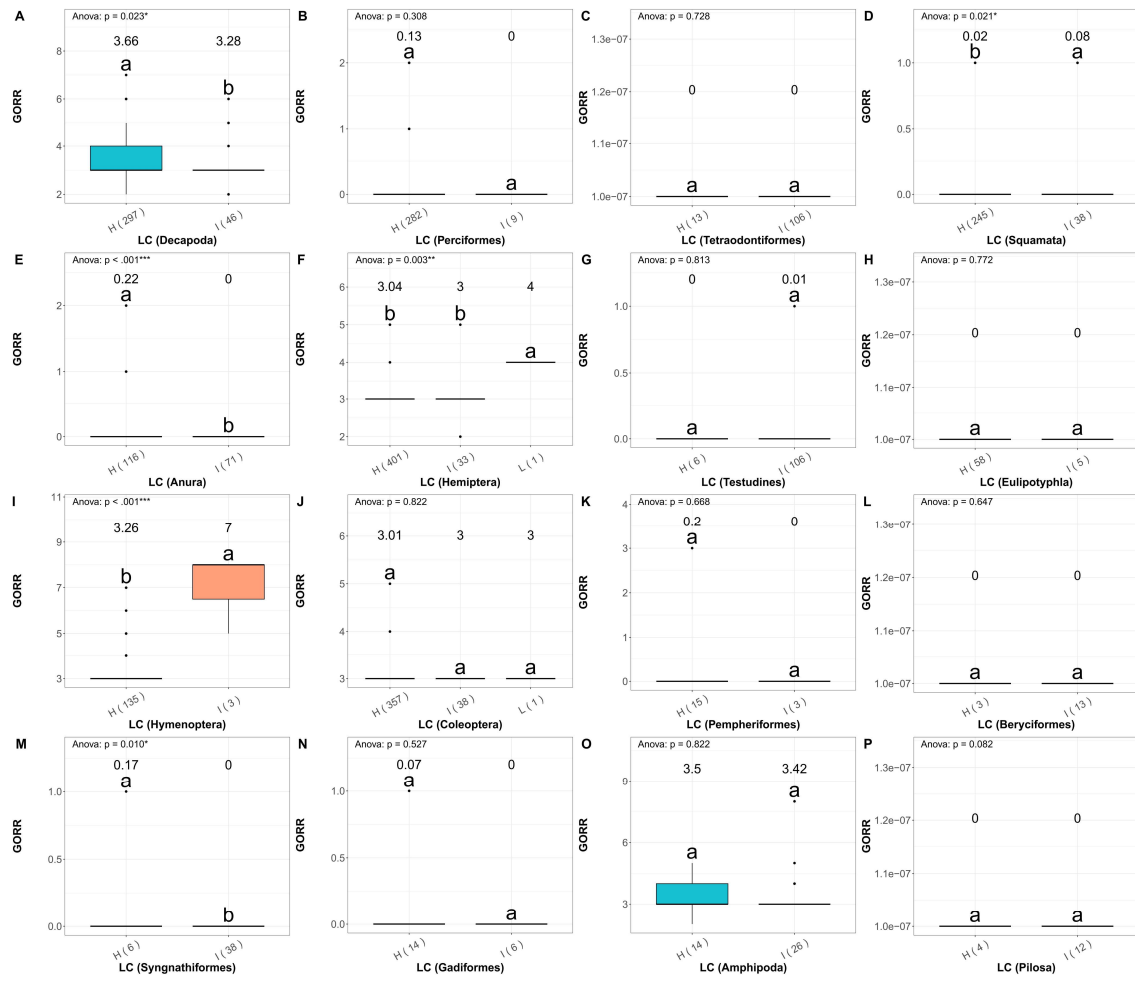


Figure S50. Pairwise comparisons (Tukey HSD tests) of GORR values between different locomotory capacity categories (LH) across individual orders. See Figure S45 for other details.

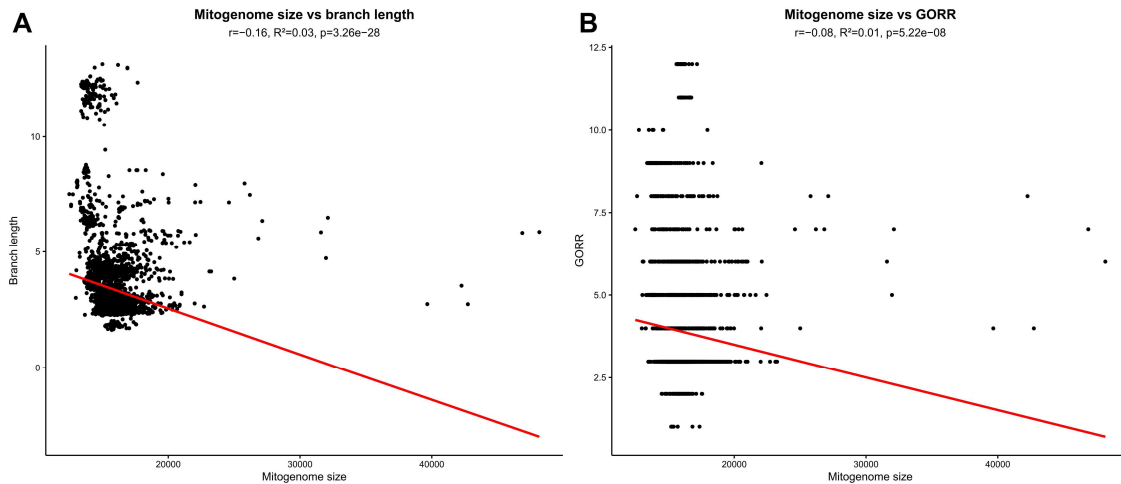


Figure S51. Correlations between the mitogenome size and branch length (panel A) and gene order rearrangement rate (GORR) (panels B), with Chordata removed from the dataset. Correlation is presented as Pearson r , and R^2 is regression. GORR = 0 values were recoded as 0.0000001.

Text S6. Ancestral architectural types in Lophotrochozoa

Podsiadlowski et al.⁴² based the argument that the ancestral state for Lophotrochozoa was single-stranded on the observation that “Brachiopoda, Annelida, Platyhelminthes and Acanthocephala all have single-strand architectural types”. In partial contradiction, our inference produced double-stranded architecture as the most likely ancestral state for all lophotrochozoan phyla aside from Brachiopoda and Acanthocephala, so this discrepancy needs to be discussed in more detail.

As regards the two phyla where our ancestral state inference is in disagreement with the reconstruction of Podsiadlowski et al.⁴², we inferred double-stranded as the most parsimonious ancestral architecture for Annelida and Platyhelminthes (flatworms) on the basis of “basal” lineages of both phyla exhibiting double-stranded architectures. Despite the vast majority of Platyhelminthes exhibiting a single-stranded architecture, we inferred a double-stranded ancestral architecture for this phylum, because both available mitogenomes in the “basal” radiation (i.e. sister clade to all other Platyhelminthes), Catenulida^{65,66}, exhibited a double-stranded architecture⁶⁷ (Figure S13). In this scenario, only one double-to-single transition is required in the common ancestor of the remaining Platyhelminthes (“turbellaria+Neodermata”, all single-stranded), whereas in the alternative scenario, a double-to-single transitions would be required in the ur-Lophotrochozoa, followed by the evolutionarily very rare single-to-double transition in the Catenulida. For Annelida, Oweniidae and Magelonidae exhibit double-stranded architectures, and this was recognised as the most likely ancestral state for the entire phylum⁸⁴. The same rationale was applied to infer double-stranded as the ancestral state in the remaining two phyla exhibiting complex evolutionary scenarios in this aspect: Mollusca and Bryozoa. In addition, we should note that we extended the transition to single-strandedness from Acanthocephala to Syndermata (comprises Rotifera as well). Among the Rotifera, now recognised as paraphyletic^{85,86}, some species exhibited both single-stranded and double-stranded mitogenomes (*Asplanchna brigtwelli*, *Brachionus calyciflorus*, and *B. plicatilis*;

Figure S12). As rotifers also predominantly exhibit fragmented mitogenomes⁸⁷, we cannot ascertain with confidence whether these are assembly or annotation artefacts, or state reversals (single-to-double architectural transitions). Syndermata is a derived phylum within the superclade Gnathifera⁶², wherein both other phyla, Chaetognatha and Gnathostomulida, have double-stranded ancestral architectures, which makes double-stranded the most parsimonious ancestral state for Gnathifera. Similarly, the most likely sister-clades to other discussed phyla, Gastrotricha (Platyhelminthes), Orthonectida (Annelida), Nemertea (Mollusca), and Phoronida (Bryozoa), all have double-stranded architectures^{42,61,88,89}. Combined, these findings further support double-stranded as the ancestral state for Lophotrochozoa.

Text S7. Parasitoids, ectoparasites with high locomotory capacity, and GC skews

Further support for our proposed model of mitogenomic evolution was found in parasitoids exhibiting intermediate GORR values. This supports our previous hypothesis and observation that due to the selection for high locomotory capacity in adults, parasitoids should have lower evolutionary rates than most other parasites²⁴. In addition, we also found that ectoparasites with high locomotory capacity had lower GORR values than those with low locomotory capacity, which further mirrors our previous hypotheses and sequence evolution analyses²⁴. Previously we proposed that GC skew is a more reliable measure of purifying selection pressure in crustacean mitogenomes than dN/dS ratio, largely due to the parameter-rich and often noisy calculation of the latter⁹⁰. In support of this hypothesis, herein we found an intermediate, highly significant, positive correlation of GORR with GC skew and AT content (Figure S52). We should note that the actual correlation is likely to be much higher, because we did not identify putative strand switches of the origin of replication in our dataset, which beyond any doubt produced a huge amount of noise in the analysis and almost certainly reduced the inferred magnitude of the correlation. For further details of these issues please see^{90,91}. We should also mention here that Struck et al.⁴⁵ also found that GC skew had a very high explanatory power on architectural rearrangement rates in their analyses of annelid mitogenomes. Therefore, this is another piece of evidence supporting the major role of purifying selection in mitogenomic architectural evolution.

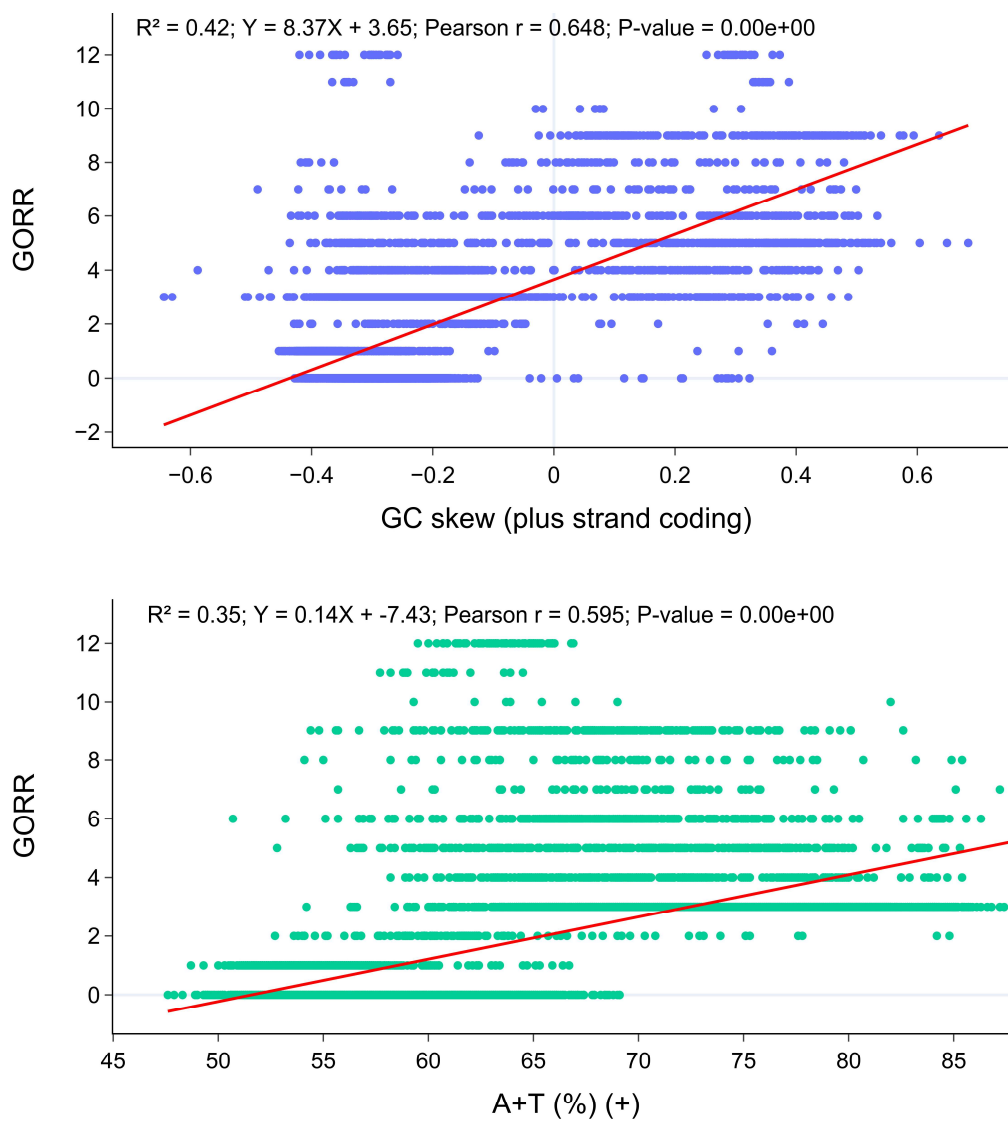


Figure S52. Correlations between the GORR and GC skew (upper panel; calculated using only the coding section of the mitogenomic plus strand) and A+T content (lower panel; calculated using the entire mitogenomic plus strand). Correlation is presented as Pearson r , and R^2 is regression. GORR = 0 values were recoded as 0.0000001.

Text S8. Rejects, outliers and limitations

The correlation between GORR and branch length disappeared in highly rearranged mitogenomes with double-stranded architectures (it was found in all other tested combinations). This appears to contradict the results of Bernt et al.⁴⁷, but results are not directly comparable as they studied a much smaller dataset (650 vs. 10,860 mitogenomes), and they only statistically tested the correlation on the overall dataset, without testing subdatasets statistically: “Complete shuffling of the mitochondrial genome is clearly correlated with long branches (equals high substitution rate), while a moderate gene rearrangement (2–6 breakpoints) has virtually no effect.”⁴⁷. Notably, in the overall dataset, they obtained an identical value to the one found in our analyses ($r = 0.69$). We hypothesise that the disappearing correlation between GORR and branch length in highly rearranged mitogenomes with double-stranded architectures this may indicate that purifying selection pressures acting on rearrangements, but not on sequence mutations, become highly weakened (to the point of disappearing) in lineages exhibiting highly rearranged mitogenomes. This is not a stretch, as nonsynonymous sequence mutations may severely negatively affect the functioning of the OXPHOS cycle even in lineages evolving under relaxed selection pressures, whereas gene order rearrangements per se would have much lower impacts on fitness in lineages with already destabilized architectures. Of course, architectural rearrangements causing fragmentation of key genes would still be lethal in most cases, as reflected in the gene (PCGs+rRNAs) content remaining relatively stable throughout the evolution of bilaterian animals (although there is evidence of losses of individual genes in isolated lineages)^{43,92}. Indeed, in our analyses of parasitic mitogenomes, we have found fragmental genes, but full copies of these fragmented genes were also present in the mitogenome⁹³. However, stochasticity aside, we do not have a good explanation for the correlation disappearing only in lineages with double-stranded architectures. In addition, single-stranded mitogenomes exhibited significantly higher architecture and sequence evolutionary rates than double-stranded mitogenomes, and single-stranded architectures were significantly more common in parasitic and low-locomotory lineages. As we did not remove double-stranded mitogenomes that underwent a state reversal, this may have produced some noise in the dataset.

Outliers: There were multiple outliers at the phylum level (Table 1 in the main manuscript). There were also outliers at the class and order levels: (1) GORR was not increased in parasitic lineages in Arachnida (Arthropoda), Enoplea (Nematoda), and Diptera (Arthropoda); (2) GORR was not increased in low-locomotory species in Hexanauplia (Arthropoda).

Nematoda exhibited lower GORR and branch length in single-stranded mitogenomes, and GORR was not increased in parasitic Enoplea. Nematoda was also a major exception in terms of branch length, with endoparasites exhibiting almost identical branch lengths to the free-living species²⁴. All Nematoda exhibit relatively low locomotory capacity (Figure S53). Reduced variability in this variable is expected to increase the similarity in evolutionary rates and increase the amount of noise in the dataset. Further, they also exhibit an evolutionary complex mix of parasitic and free-living life histories, with relatively common major life history switches⁹⁴. If the emergence of parasitic lineages is evolutionarily relatively recent, this may further reduce the impact of this variable. Then, according to the definition of parasitism that we relied on in this study, plant-parasitic nematodes were classified as free-living. As they resemble endoparasitic ones in many aspects²⁴, this can further decrease the impact of this variable. In addition, contrary to the overall bilaterian pattern, nematodes exhibited lower GORR and branch lengths in single-stranded mitogenomes. The two major classes of nematodes differ in this aspect: Enoplea have double-stranded mitogenomes, whereas Chromadorea have single-

stranded mitogenomes⁹². Some of the most highly rearranged architectures were found in the enoplean lineages: Longidoridae, Capillariidae, Trichinellidae, Trichuridae, and Mermithidae (Figure S53), which can explain the outlier partially, but they also indicate that enoplean nematodes have an increased overall level of mitogenomic rearrangements for only partially understood reasons. The unique mitogenomic architectural evolutionary patterns of enoplean nematodes have been observed and discussed before^{17,92,95,96}.

Diptera (Arthropoda: Insecta) exhibited practically identical GORR values across all four life history categories (Figure S48). As regards the sequence evolution rates, they were the highest in parasitoids, followed by ectoparasites, micropredators, and finally free-living, but all values were similar, so none of the differences was statistically significant²⁴. In terms of GORR, it was highly conserved across the entire order (GORR = 3), with only two families exhibiting increased GORR values (Figure S54). Both ectoparasitic families exhibited conserved GORRs. There were only three ectoparasitic species in the dataset, which weakened the statistical analyses. All three species belong to the superfamily Hippoboscoidea: two Streblidae (bat flies) and one Hippoboscidae (*Melophagus ovinus*, sheep ked). Both families exhibit remarkably high locomotory capacity in comparison to most other ectoparasites, aside from fleas, and they resemble micropredators in their lifestyle²⁴. In addition, the loss of high locomotory capacity in Hippoboscidae may be of relatively recent evolutionary origin, as sheep ked is an exception within Hippoboscidae for being the only member that has completely lost its wings⁹⁷. Therefore, locomotory capacity appears to be a suitable explanation for this outlier.

Arachnida (Arthropoda) appeared as an outlier in both studies, with ectoparasites exhibiting nonsignificantly shorter branches²⁴, and GORR values (Figure S47) than the free-living. The analyses were somewhat hampered by the low number of endoparasites (2) in this class, but the number of ectoparasites was rather high (75). Previously, we attributed this outlier (in branch lengths) to a similarity in locomotory capacity between parasitic (ticks) and free-living (mites) lineages²⁴. Indeed, herein we also observed that GORR values were strongly increased in arachnids with low locomotory capacity compared to those with high locomotory capacity (Figure S49 and S55).

Hexanauplia (Arthropoda): low-locomotory species exhibited low GORR values (Figure S49 and S56) and branch lengths²⁴. This can be attributed to the unique evolution of barnacles (subclass Cirripedia; class Hexanauplia in NCBI's taxonomy database, and Thecostraca in WORMS). There are now multiple lines of evidence across several studies^{24,90} indicating that mitogenomes of this lineage are evolving under some of the most stringent purifying selection pressures among all Arthropoda (Figure S56-S57), despite their predominantly sessile lifestyle. Previously, we associated this with a possibility that they exhibit an unusually large N_e ⁹⁰, but this remains highly questionable, so other explanations should be sought.



Figure S53. Average GORR values, life history, locomotory capacity, and strandedness across the families of Nematoda. In the life history categorisation, F is free-living, and EndoP is endoparasites. In the locomotory capacity categorisation, L is low. Strandedness categories are double (double-stranded) and single (single-stranded). Families are shown at the bottom, arranged according to the GORR values (high to low), with the number of species included in the dataset shown in brackets.

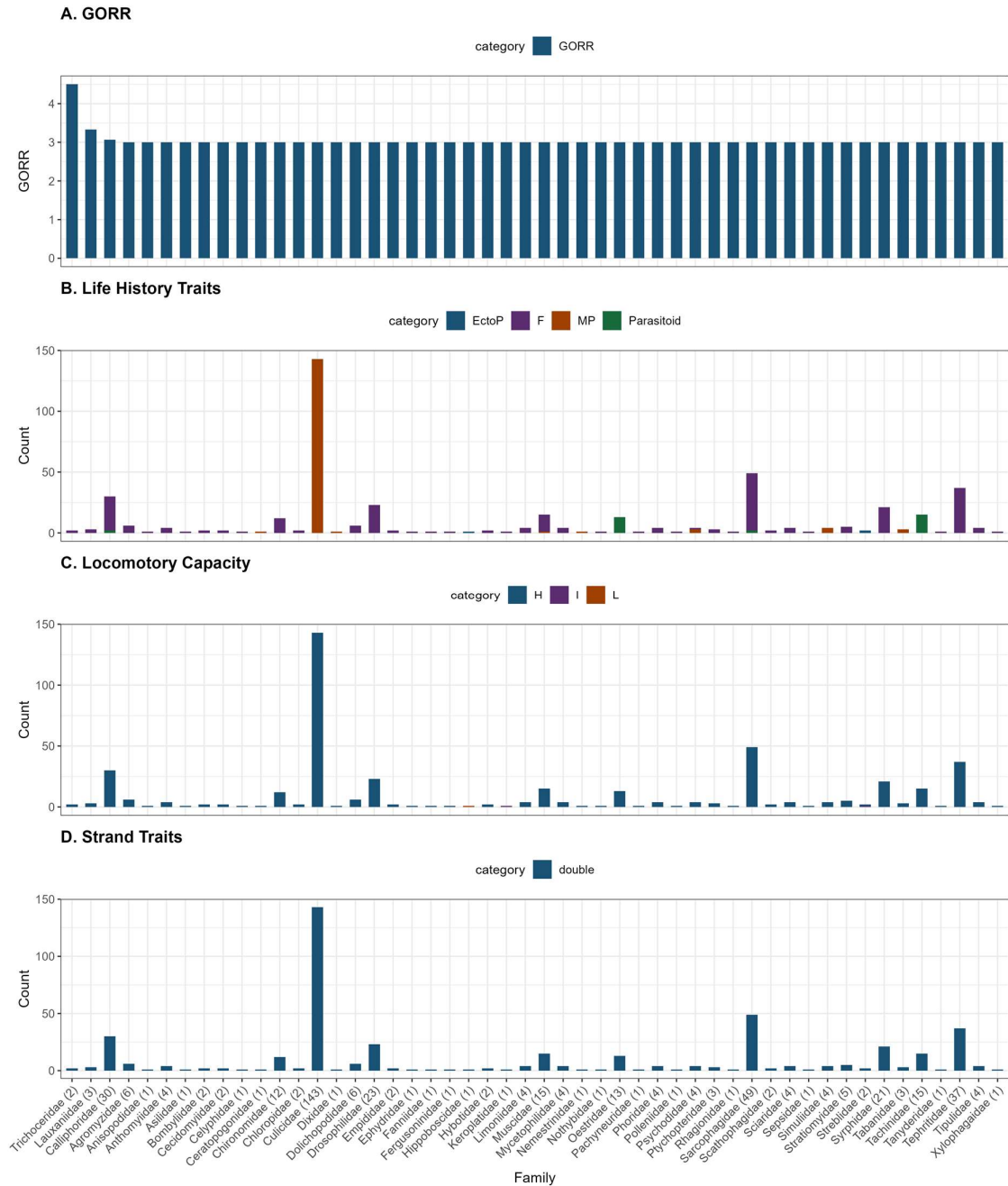


Figure S54. Average GORR values, life history, locomotory capacity, and strandedness across the families of Diptera. In the life history categorisation, F is free-living, EctoP is ectoparasites, and MP is micropredators. In the locomotory capacity categorisation, H is high, I is intermediate, and L is low. All mitogenomes were double-stranded (Strand Traits: double). Families are shown at the bottom, arranged according to the GORR values (high to low), with the number of species included in the dataset shown in brackets.



Figure S55. Average GORR values, life history, locomotory capacity, and strandedness across the families of Arachnida. In the life history categorisation, F is free-living, EndoP is endoparasites, EctoP is ectoparasites, and MP is micropredators. In the locomotory capacity categorisation, H is high and L is low. All mitogenomes were double-stranded (Strand Traits: double). Families are shown at the bottom, arranged according to the GORR values (high to low), with the number of species included in the dataset shown in brackets.

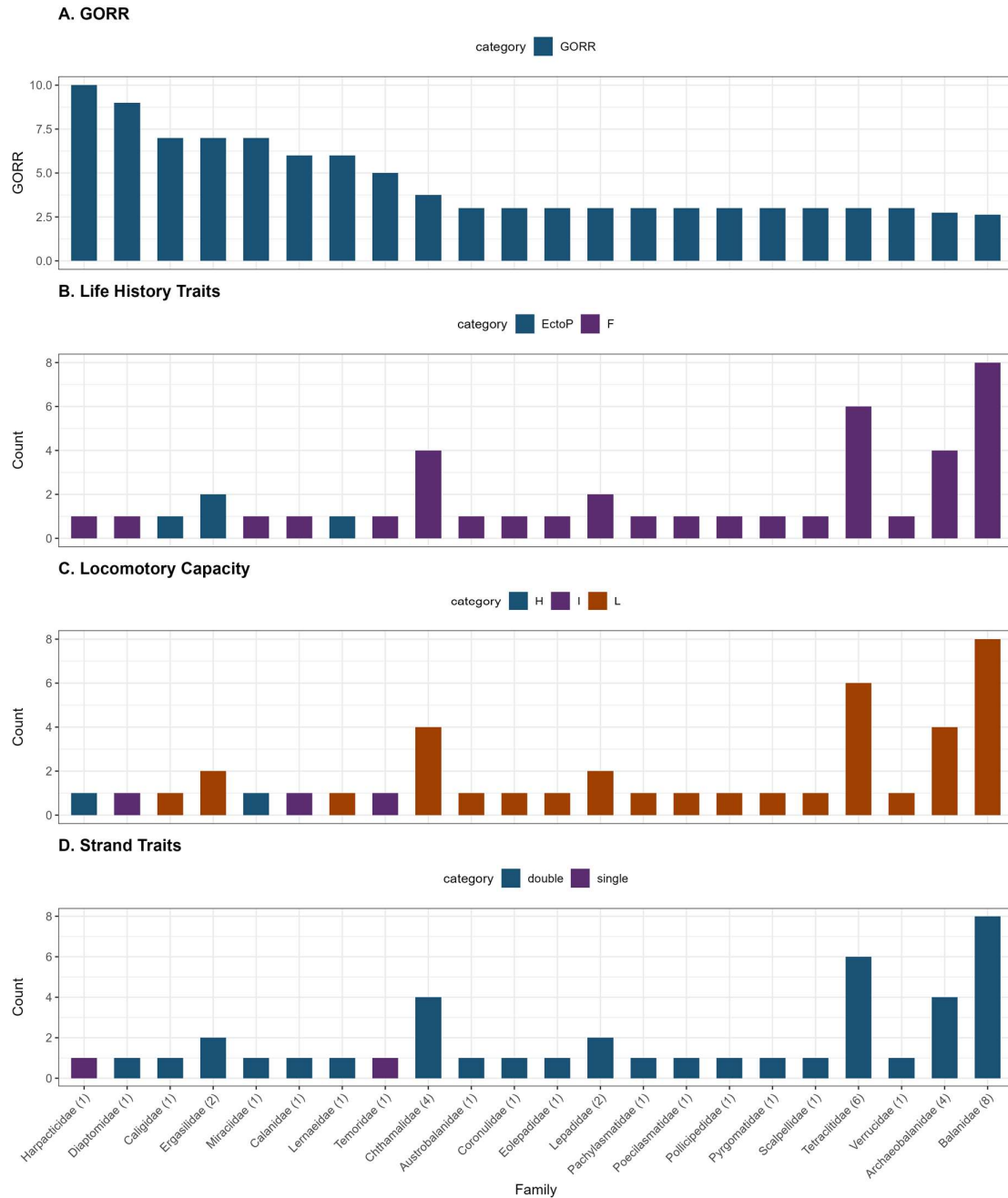


Figure S56. Average GORR values, life history, locomotory capacity, and strandedness across the families of Hexanauplia (Arthropoda). In the life history categorisation, F is free-living, EndoP is endoparasites, EctoP is ectoparasites, and MP is micropredators. In the locomotory capacity categorisation, H is high and L is low. All mitogenomes were double-stranded (Strand Traits: double). Families are shown at the bottom, arranged according to the GORR values (high to low), with the number of species included in the dataset shown in brackets.

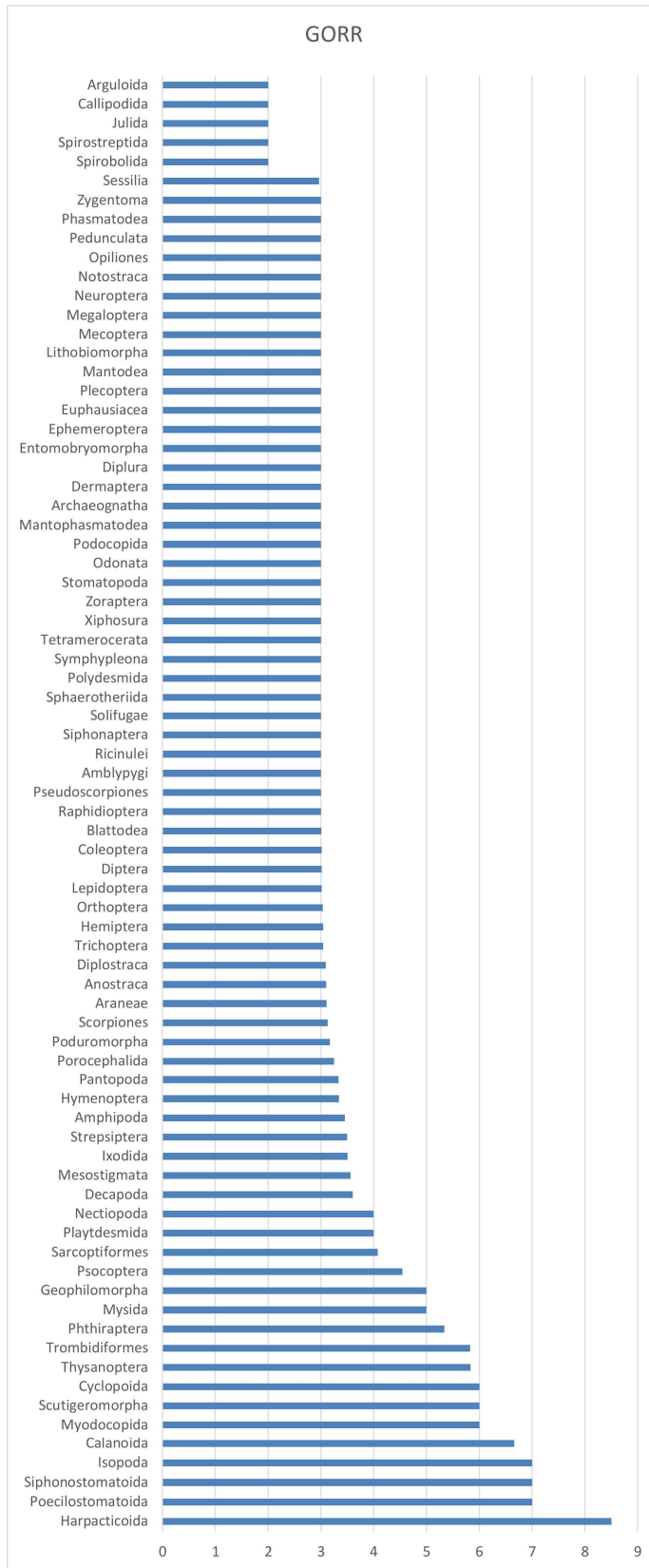


Figure S57. Average GORR values across the orders of Arthropoda.

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