

DISSERTATION

BREAKING THE MF CURSE: THE REGULATORY ROLE OF THE METHYL
FARNESOATE – MEKRE93 PATHWAY IN CRUSTACEAN MOLTING

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ABSTRACT

BREAKING THE MF CURSE: THE REGULATORY ROLE OF THE METHYL FARNESOATE – MEKRE93 PATHWAY IN CRUSTACEAN MOLTING

Ecdysis, or the active shedding of the exoskeleton, is critical for arthropod growth, development, and/or regeneration of lost or damaged appendages. The antagonistic interaction between the steroid hormone 20-hydroxyecdysone (20-E) and the sesquiterpenoid juvenile hormone (JH) control insect molting and development, respectively. On the other hand, crustacean molting is primarily regulated through the endocrine crosstalk between 20-E and the neuropeptide molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH). MIH secretion by the X-organ, sinus gland complex (XO) inhibits Y-organ (YO) synthesis of 20-E. Molting is initiated by the decrease in MIH titers thereby allowing increasing 20-E concentrations in the hemolymph. The molting process is divided into different stages where the YO exhibits different phenotypic states: intermolt (IM)– basal, early premolt (EP)– activated, mid premolt (MP)– committed, late premolt (LP)– committed/repressed, ecdysis (E)– repressed, and postmolt (PM)– repressed/basal. The mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) and transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β) signaling leads to YO activation and commitment, respectively. However, the YO transition to- and from- the repressed state is unknown.

Methyl farnesoate (MF), commonly referred to as the crustacean JH, is produced by the mandibular organ (MO) and is suppressed by the mandibular organ-inhibiting hormone (MOIH). MF regulates several physiological processes in crustaceans including metamorphosis, development, reproduction, morphogenesis, and molting; however, the underlying mechanism

remains unknown and thereby is considered to be “cursed”. The differential effects MF has on molting and ecdysteroidogenesis is hypothesized to be regulated through the Methoprene tolerant– Krüppel homolog 1– E93 (MEKRE93) transcriptional cascade.

Using bioinformatic approaches, the components of the MF signaling pathway were identified in the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO transcriptomes, including the MF/JH receptor *Methoprene tolerant* (*Met*), the zinc finger transcription factor *Krüppel homolog 1* (*Kr-h1*), *Ecdysone response gene 93* (*E93*), *Steroid receptor coactivator* (*Src*), and transcription comediators *CREB-binding protein* (*CBP*) and *C-terminal-binding protein* (*CtBP*). Additionally, genes encoding for the MF synthetic pathway enzymes were also identified in the YO transcriptomes including *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase* (*HMGR*), *farnesoic acid O-methyltransferase* (*FAMeT*), and *FAMeT2*. Additionally, a *FAMeT2* transcript was also identified in the YO and contains an unconventional domain organization compared to annotated *FAMeT*. Nonetheless, phylogenetic analysis of each gene was overall highly conserved across pancrustaceans (and occasionally panarthropodans).

Furthermore, *in vitro* assays showed that *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* YOs were responsive to JH-mimics (e.g. pyriproxyfen, fenoxycarb, methoprene, and hydroprene), but not to MF. Taken altogether, these data suggest that the YO can respond to MF and may have its own MF-innate system serving as an autocrine factor to regulate the YO by acting through a MEKRE93 transcriptional network that can be mediated by coregulators.

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what you want and persevere amid any situation even at times it may require a sacrifice.

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DEDICATION

To the people who have encouraged me to never give up and supported my “whole lot of hustle and ambition” mentality.

“You are capable of more than you know. Choose a goal that seems right for you and strive to be the best, however hard the path. Aim high. Behave honorably. Prepare to be alone at times, and to endure failure. Persist! The world needs all you can give.”

-E. O. Wilson

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Term	Definition
20-E	The most active form of ecdysteroid functioning as the molting hormone for insects and crustaceans. This steroid hormone is derived from a cholesterol precursor after undergoing a series of hydroxylation events by cytochrome p450 enzymes encoded by the Halloween genes.
bHLH-PAS	Proteins with a highly conserved 5' N-terminus consisting of the DNA-binding domain (basic helix-loop-helix or bHLH) followed by two Period- Aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator- Single minded (Per-ARNT-Sim or PAS) domains (A and B respectively). The PAS-A domain ensures correct target gene activation by selecting the proper dimerization partner and is poorly linked to the PAS-B domain. The PAS-B domain, or the ligand binding domain is followed by a long, intrinsically disordered 3' C-terminus. The disordered region thereby allows these proteins to be dynamic in conformation upon ligand binding, thus ultimately affecting protein activity, interactions, and localization.
Br-C	Broad Complex is a transcription factor with several isoforms due to alternative splicing among duplicated exons each with one zinc finger (Zf) DNA-binding domain (Z1, Z2, Z3, or Z4). This early ecdysone response gene mediates ecdysone action essential for insect metamorphosis.
C2H2	A zinc finger (Znf) protein, generally associated with activation, that have two histidines (His) on the C-terminus of the α - helix and two cysteines (Cys) located on the β -strand which allow a zinc atom (Zn^{2+}) to bind. The binding of the Zn^{2+} with the Cys and His residues allow a tetrahedral structure contributing to the ability to bind to longer DNA sequences (~20-40 base pairs).
CA	The corpora allata is a pair of insect endocrine glands connected to the brain, located behind the corpora cardiaca (CC), that synthesize juvenile hormone (JH).
CC	The corpora cardiaca is a pair of insect neurohaemal organs that produce prothoracicotropic hormone (PTTH).
CBP	CREB (cAMP response element-binding protein)-binding protein is a transcriptional co-regulator with histone acetyl transferase (HAT) activity that affects gene expression by through different interactions with transcription machinery and DNA-binding proteins.

CHH	Crustacean hyperglycemic hormone is a family of neuropeptide hormones, such as molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH), mandibular organ-inhibiting hormone (MOIH), and gonad-inhibiting hormone (GIH). That regulate many crustacean physiological processes including metabolism, molting and reproduction.
E93	Ecdysone inducible protein (Eip93) or response gene 93 is a sequence specific, temporal transcription factor belonging to the helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH-Psq) class. Evidence suggests this ecdysone response gene, is repressed by expression of Krüppel homolog-1 (Kr-h1) despite being originally known for apoptosis in <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> . It is hypothesized that E93 evolved from the mushroom body large-type Kenyon cell protein-1 (Mblk-1) considering its shared high homology.
EP	Early premolt, also referred to as D ₀ , is part of the crustacean molt cycle where the Y-organs (YO) are in an activated state due to the absence of molt inhibiting hormone (MIH). The absence of MIH allows hemolymph ecdysteroid titers to increase as it acts in a positive feedback manner through the mTOR pathway. During this stage, calcium is stored in gastroliths and/or in the hepatopancreas, the claw muscle atrophies, and the secondary limb regenerates grow (R-index= 12-16) . Throughout this stage the YO has MIH sensitivity but eventually loses this ability to delay molting at the "point of no return" before transitioning to mid premolt (MP).
FAMeT	Farnesoic acid O-methyl transferase is the enzyme responsible for methyl farnesoate (MF) synthesis from farnesoic acid (FA).
HMGR	3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase is a nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) and dithiothreitol/glutathione dependent microsomal enzyme that is the rate limiting step in the mevalonate pathway.
Hsp (83/90)	Heat shock proteins are a type of chaperone protein that regulates the cell cycle and signal transduction through managing specific target proteins and promoting cell maturation. This protein has been implicated in the nuclear import of Methoprene tolerant (Met) to regulate juvenile hormone (JH) signaling.
HTH-Psq	Helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak proteins is a transcription factor class within the larger helix-turn-helix (HTH) protein family which have two helices connected by a short loop. This transcription factor has a pipsqueak domain (Psq) consisting of four tandem repeats consisting of ~50 amino acids.
IM	The stage (also referred to as C ₄) of the crustacean molt cycle where the Y-organ (YO) is in a basal state due to the presence of molt inhibiting hormone (MIH) and ecdysteroid titers in the hemolymph are low. During this stage, the animal has a fully formed, calcified exoskeleton and stores organic reserves in the hepatopancreas. Basal regenerates form at the autotomized limbs (R-index= 8-10).

JH	A group of acyclic sesquiterpenoid hormones produced by the corpora allata (CA), initially discovered by V. B. Wigglesworth, that regulate several insect physiological processes including reproduction and development. JH-III is the inhibitory hormone that inhibits insect metamorphosis/morphogenesis which bind to the Methoprene tolerant (Met) receptor.
JHAMT	Juvenile hormone acid methyltransferase is the enzyme responsible in juvenile hormone (JH) synthesis by transferring a methyl group to the carboxyl group of juvenile hormone acid or farnesoic acid (FA).
JHE	A juvenile hormone (JH) degradatory carboxylesterase, secreted in the hemolymph, that hydrolyzes the methyl ester of JH resulting in JH acid.
JHEH	Juvenile hormone epoxide hydrolase is a non-secretory, microsomal epoxide hydrolase (enzyme) responsible for catalyzing juvenile hormone (JH) degradation through hydrolysis of the epoxide ring thus resulting in the production of JH diol.
Kr-h1	Krüppel homolog 1 is a C2H2 zinc finger (Cys2-His2) transcription factor and a member of the Krüppel Like Family (KLF) containing many zinc finger (ZnF) motifs; insects have eight Znf motifs while crustaceans have seven. This transcription factor, sometimes referred to as the guardian of the juvenile status, is primarily associated with being the transducer of anti-metamorphic action in insects along with pancrustacean vitellogenesis. Kr-h1 works downstream of Methoprene tolerant (Met) and been shown to be strongly induced by juvenile hormone (JH) through the Met–Steroid receptor coactivator (Src) complex.
LP	Late premolt (or D ₂₋₄) is the stage in the crustacean molt cycle where the Y-organs (YO) are still in the committed state and limb regenerates reach the maximum growth (R-index= ~24). Hemolymph ecdysteroid titers are high which peak in D ₃ and subsequently decrease leading to ecdysis. Astaxanthin is reabsorbed from the exocuticle while the epicuticle and exocuticle are synthesized.
Mblk-1	Mushroom body large-type Kenyon cell protein-1 is the hypothesized ortholog to <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) that was initially isolated from mushroom bodies in the honeybee (<i>Apis mellifera</i>).
MEKRE93	The transcriptional cascade through the interaction of Methoprene tolerant (Met), Krüppel homolog-1 (Kr-h1), and ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) which regulates the ecdysteroid synthesis and ultimately insect metamorphosis.
Met	Methoprene tolerant (Met) is a basic helix-loop-helix, Period- Aryl hydrocarbon nuclear translocator- Single minded (Per- ARNT- Sim) or bHLH-PAS transcription factor that acts as the juvenile hormone (JH) and methyl farnesoate (MF) receptor.

MF	Methyl farnesoate is a sesquiterpenoid hormone synthesized by the crustacean mandibular organ (MO). Although this hormone is not fully understood it has been implicated in several physiological processes including reproduction, metamorphosis, and molting. This hormone is sometimes referred to as the crustacean juvenile hormone (JH) as it is the unepoxidated form of insect JH that binds to JH receptor Methoprene tolerant (Met).
MIH	Molt-inhibiting hormone is a neuropeptide produced by the X-organ, sinus gland complex (XO) that represses the Y-organ (YO) from synthesizing ecdysteroids.
MO	The mandibular organ is a pair of highly vascularized crustacean glands, located at the base of the mandibular tendon, that produce methyl farnesoate (MF). These glands are said to be "cursed" as the role they play in crustacean biology is not well established.
MOIH	Mandibular organ-inhibiting hormone is a neuropeptide produced by the X-organ, sinus gland complex (XO) that represses the mandibular organ (MO) from synthesizing methyl farnesoate (MF).
MP	Mid premolt (also referred to as D ₁) is the stage of the crustacean molt cycle where the Y-organ (YO) transitions to a committed state through the TGF- β pathway. As hemolymph ecdysteroid titers continue to rise and the limb regenerates grow (R-index= 16-24), the YOs lose molt inhibiting hormone (MIH) sensitivity. The epidermis separates from the exoskeleton (apolysis) and the exoskeleton (beginning with the membranous layer) is degraded.
mTOR	The mechanistic target of rapamycin is signaling pathway part of the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) network that is involved in growth and metabolism including Y-organ (YO) activation.
PG	The prothoracic glands are a pair of insect endocrine glands, ventrally located in the prothorax, that synthesize ecdysteroids– hormones playing various roles in several physiological functions including molting, metamorphosis, and reproduction.
PM	Post molt (also referred to as A, B, C ₁₋₃) is the stage of the crustacean molt cycle where hemolymph ecdysteroid titers are extremely low and the Y-organs (YO) are in a repressed state. During this time the regenerates extend, and the animal continues to swallow air or water allowing the exoskeleton to expand. The endocuticle is synthesized, the membranous layer is formed, and eventually the endocuticle is calcified.
PTTH	Prothoracicotropic hormone is an insect hormone produced by the corpora cardiaca (CC) that is secreted after juvenile hormone (JH) is degraded. This hormone must be present to stimulate the prothoracic gland (PG) to produce ecdysteroids.
R-index	The R-index, or R-value, is an external measurement of the regenerating limbs used to track the progress of proecdysial events; R-index= (length of limb regenerate in mm \times 100)/carapace width in mm.

- Src Steroid receptor coactivator is a transcriptional co-regulator that acts part of the juvenile hormone (JH) and /or methyl farnesoate (MF) receptor complex with Methoprene tolerant (Met). This coregulator has a strongly association with steroid hormones as they transactivate the transcriptional potency of steroid hormone receptors.
- TGF- β Transforming growth factor-beta is a signaling pathway that acts upon phosphorylation of SMADS thereby regulating cell proliferation and differentiation including Y-organ (YO) commitment.
- XO The X-organ is the neurosecretory center located in the crustaceans' eyestalks where molt inhibiting hormone (MIH), mandibular organ inhibiting hormone (MOIH), crustacean hyperglycemic hormones (CHH), and other neuropeptide hormones are produced. XO in the present study implies to the XO-SG complex as the XO is part of the medulla terminalis and projects to the sinus gland (SG), a neurohemal organ.
- YO The Y-organ is a pair of crustacean glands, located in the anterior end of the cephalothorax in crabs and lobsters, that produce ecdysteroids. These glands are sometimes referred to as the crustacean molting organ as the function is analogous to the insect prothoracic gland (PG).

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CHAPTER 1

A MOLECULAR PERSPECTIVE ON THE REGULATION OF PANCRUSTAEAN MOLTING PHYSIOLOGY

Introduction

Having evolved over 485-541 million years ago during the Cambrian Period, arthropods are still the most diverse animal phyla today (Giribet and Edgecombe, 2019). Part of arthropods' success can be attributed to the chitin-based exoskeleton that is occasionally reinforced with calcium carbonate (CaCO₃). Although the exoskeleton aids in protection against external elements, predators and desiccation, being equipped with this rigid support system ultimately restricts growth, development, and/or regeneration. Therefore, to overcome this obstacle arthropods must shed the old exoskeleton through an event known as ecdysis. Ecdysis is energetically expensive, thus requiring arthropods to prepare for *and* recover from the exuviation. Consequently, the emergence leaves the animals in a temporary vulnerable state as the new exoskeleton is not fully formed. Continued synthesis and hardening of the exoskeleton during postmolt involves cross-linking of chitin polymers and in crustaceans, deposition of CaCO₃ (Roer and Dillaman, 1984; Abehsera et al., 2021; Mykles, 2024; Roer et al., 2024).

The entire process, including the preparation before and recovery after ecdysis, is known as molting. Molting is initiated by the continual increase of ecdysteroids, sterol-derived hormones, in the hemolymph. Therefore, molting—including ecdysteroid synthesis, metabolism, and regulation—must be highly regulated and synchronized to ensure this physiological process is not compromised, which could ultimately affect the animals' fitness. Through scientific and technological innovations, the incorporation of an 'omics perspective, along with the integration

of genetic and biochemical approaches, researching and enhancing the knowledge surrounding molting physiology are made feasible and greatly improved (Sagi et al., 2013; Ventura et al., 2018; Torson et al., 2020).

The Three E's— evolutionary, ecological, and economic impacts and significance

When it comes to molting physiology, the majority of the knowledge stems from a developmental and evolutionary context of the insect metamorphic molt in both hemimetabolous and holometabolous species (Belles, 2019; Jindra, 2019; Truman, 2019; Martín et al., 2021). Understanding the transition between the developmental stages in insects has been a topic of particular interest as it may be a way to control pests and/or manage vectors of human diseases (Gilbert et al., 2001; Minakuchi and Riddiford, 2006; Noriega and Nouzova, 2020). Although the information regarding the insect metamorphic molt is substantial, there is considerably less information regarding crustacean molting outside of a metamorphic context. Nonetheless, the investigation of understanding this conserved, yet plastic, process must progress and extend to their crustacean relatives— important organisms in evolutionary, ecological, and economic disciplines (Miura, 2019; Wolfe et al., 2019).

Evolutionary

Ecdysozoans (e.g. nematodes, tardigrades, onychophorans, and arthropods), as signified within their name, are invertebrates united by undergoing ecdysis. With regards to endocrine and genetic similarities, molting is viewed as an autapomorphy and thus would presumably be considered a highly conserved process. However, as research progresses and more evidence is discovered, the molting machinery appears to be plastic even within lower taxonomic ranks. For

instance, within Clade Pancrustacea, insects have a terminal molt upon reaching adulthood. By contrast, crustaceans not only undergo a metamorphic molt, but continue to molt as adults, enabling them to grow to larger sizes. Moreover, molting amongst Phylum Arthropoda is triggered by an increase of hemolymph ecdysteroid (or molting hormone) titers; however different versions of ecdysteroids are utilized for various individuals and in multiple physiological processes (e.g. metabolic, reproductive, and development). For example, Subphylum Chelicerata members primarily utilize ponasterone-A (25-deoxy-20E) whereas those in Subphylum Mandibulata (e.g. myriapods and pancrustaceans) primarily use 20-hydroxyecdysone (20-E) (Qu et al., 2015). It is hypothesized that chelicerate use of 25-deoxy-20-E is the result of the absence of *phantom* (*phm*), a cytochrome P450 family gene responsible for a hydroxylation of 5 β -ketodiol to 5 β -ketotriol (Mykles, 2011; Schumann et al., 2018). Evidence suggests that the genes that encode for cytochrome P450 enzymes (Halloween genes), the ecdysone receptor complex, and ecdysone signaling genes evolved stepwise across Clade Panarthropoda (Qu et al., 2015; Schumann et al., 2018).

Furthermore, the ecdysone pathway can be mediated in different ways including the interaction of other endocrine pathways such as by sesquiterpenoids. Sesquiterpenoids, a group of terpenes with three isoprene units, are biosynthesized through the mevalonate (MVA) pathway through the conversion of acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) into mevalonate to then be transformed into farnesoic acid (FA), the byproduct used to biosynthesize juvenile hormone (JH) and methyl farnesoate (MF) (Bellés et al., 2005). The FA biosynthetic pathway is conserved overall; however, underlying mechanism and pathway afterwards is diverse, as the recruitment of specific enzymes result to different products (Tsang et al., 2020; So et al., 2022). For example, in insects, ecdysteroid secretion is stimulated by the absence juvenile hormone III (JH III), a

sesquiterpenoid produced as the result of juvenile hormone acid methyltransferase (JHAMT) and/or the P450 epoxidase CYP15 (Shinoda and Itoyama, 2003; Defelipe et al., 2011; Tsang et al., 2020; Tian et al., 2021; Orchard and Lange, 2024a). On the other hand, crustacean 20-E production is primarily prevented by the presence of molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH), a neuropeptide (Bliss and Welsh, 1952; Bliss et al., 1954; Techa and Chung, 2015). Nonetheless, methyl farnesoate (MF) has been identified and demonstrated to affect ecdysteroid synthesis and regulate other physiological functions in other arthropods, including crustaceans, myriapods, and chelicerates (Qu et al., 2015; Miura, 2019; Nicewicz et al., 2021). MF, nicknamed the crustacean juvenile hormone, is the unepoxidated form of JH III because of farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase (FAMeT) activity (Homola and Chang, 1997c). JH epoxidation is hypothesized to be an insect reproductive innovation; however, new data suggest that the evolution of sesquiterpenoid synthesis is more complex, as JH and/or MF signaling and synthetic genes have been identified in non-insect species (Hui et al., 2010; Xie et al., 2016a; Tsang et al., 2020; Nicewicz et al., 2021; Nouzova et al., 2021; So et al., 2022). Gaining perspectives on crustacean molting and regulation of ecdysteroidogenesis provide insight into the evolution underlying this physiological process, including the ecdysone and sesquiterpenoid pathways, that contributed to arthropod success (Tobe and Bendena, 1999; Cheong et al., 2015). A better understanding of the endocrine and neuromodulatory mechanisms driving and regulating ecdysis would result in new insights of molting physiology from behavioral, morphological, and evolutionary perspectives, while contributing evidence to sort out evolutionary relationships within Clade Panarthropoda and across ecdysozoans (Wolfe et al., 2019; Sullivan et al., 2022; Bernot et al., 2023).

Ecological

Measuring the ecological quality of an area links the environmental state to disturbed response(s), which then can be further applied to predict the effects on other organisms. Many insects act as bioindicators that assist with biomonitoring of an ecosystem; and nonetheless, crustaceans serve as bioindicators in aquatic systems (Rodríguez et al., 2007; Rodríguez, 2024). *Daphnia*, an aquatic crustacean with a critical role in aquatic food chains, is generally incorporated into ecotoxicological studies due to their high sensitivity to chemicals (e.g. endocrine disruptors and pesticides) (Ahmed, 2023). For example, bisphenol analogues and polystyrene beads disrupt ecdysteroid and JH signaling pathways that consequently lead to negative effects on reproduction in the brackish water flea (*Diaphanosoma celebensis*) (Cho et al., 2022). Polystyrene nanoplastics also are implicated in inducing oxidative stress in the Oriental river prawn (*Macrobrachium nipponense*) (Fan et al., 2022). Endocrine pathways regulate crustacean molting and thus are impacted by various compounds, such as antidepressants and opioids (LeBlanc, 2007; Mazurová et al., 2008; Hosamani et al., 2017; Knigge et al., 2021; Knigge, 2024). Perturbed endocrine systems, including ecdysteroid and sesquiterpenoid signaling, can impact the animals' fitness and cause further downstream effects as these hormones have various physiological roles.

Monitoring growth and molting can also determine an organisms' status, as it can be affected by abiotic and biotic factors, such as ocean acidification (Berger et al., 2021; McElhany and Busch, 2024; Thangal et al., 2024). A decrease in the seawater pH inhibits molting rate and frequency in the red king crab (*Paralithodes camtschaticus*), the giant mud crab (*Scylla serrata*), and the white spot wrist hermit crab (*Pagurus criniticornis*) (Long et al., 2019; Turra et al., 2020; Thangal et al., 2022). As a direct result of ocean acidification, CaCO₃ levels are reduced, which,

in turn, compromise postmolt by disrupting the synthesis and calcification of the exoskeleton in the blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*) and the Dungeness crab (*Metacarcinus magister*) (Glandon et al., 2018; Bednaršek et al., 2020). Compromised molt rate, molt frequency, and exoskeleton integrity makes the animals more vulnerable to disease and predators. Interestingly, juvenile Dungeness crabs were smaller in size, but exhibited a higher survival in response to increased carbon dioxide levels (CO₂), suggesting that some species experience differential effects as a result of distinct mechanisms (McElhany et al., 2022). Overall, molting can be utilized as a parameter to observe changes in water chemistry and measure endocrine stability to assess an animal's physiological state.

Molting may also be used to manage certain invasive crustacean species. The European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*), a highly adaptable predator, was named one of the most damaging invasive species by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN), as its spread has wreaked havoc on the non-native shores (Ens et al., 2022). In particular, the introduction of *C. maenas* devastated mollusk and decapod crustacean populations and demolished eelgrass (*Zostera marina*) habitats (Carlton and Cohen, 2003; Matheson et al., 2016; Ens et al., 2022). Eelgrass – a nursery and refuge for many organisms– have been shredded and/or displaced because of green crab foraging, thus diminishing biomass and functional biodiversity (Matheson et al., 2016; Ens et al., 2022). . Unfortunately, no long-term, cost-effective program has been successful in eliminating these invasive crabs. However, it has been shown that the embryonic growth and development may be influenced by abiotic factors (e.g. salinity and temperature) (Ens et al., 2022). Therefore, understanding developmental processes in provides strategies for managing this species prior to becoming a disruptive adult. Understanding crustacean molting and growth serve as a tool in ecological disciplines by incorporating it as a

parameter to monitor along with maintaining and managing the size and/or development of some species and thus protect endemic species.

Economic

Knowledge in crustacean physiology can extend beyond ecological applications and have a direct effect on the aquaculture industry and economics altogether. In 2018, aquatic animal global production reached a record 179 million tonnes, valued at \$401 billion U.S. dollar (USD), where 156 million tonnes were for direct human consumption (FAO, 2021). The annual global average of seafood consumption, from 1961 to 2017, increased at an annual rate of 3.1%, a rate nearly doubled the 1.6% population growth and 2.1% non-aquatic protein foods (FAO, 2021). Seafood is a fundamental food source for millions of people globally with a per capita annual consumption average of 20.21 kilograms (kg) (Garlock et al., 2022). According to data and statistics drawn from the Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) and the State of World Fisheries and Aquaculture (SOFIA), aquaculture and fisheries accounted for 15.7% in 2007, 16.6% in 2009, and 17% in 2017 of total animal-source protein consumption (Bondad-Reantaso et al., 2012; Kobayashi et al., 2015; Boyd et al., 2022).

In 2021, seafood provided 3.2 billion people a minimum 20% of the per capita all-animal source protein supply (FAO, 2024). With a continually growing demand and changing climate, capture fisheries alone are not sustainable; however, aquaculture has helped accommodate this need by producing almost half of aquatic animal food destined for human consumption (Bondad-Reantaso et al., 2012; Kobayashi et al., 2015; Boenish et al., 2022; Manfrini et al., 2024). Aquaculture has increased the overall total yield; from 2019 to 2020 aquatic animal production grew by 2.7%, resulting in 87.5 million tonnes (FAO, 2022). Of those, 87.5 million tonnes in

2020, 11.2 million tonnes were from crustacean species alone – valued at \$81.5 billion USD (FAO, 2022)! As of 2022, since 2020 overall aquaculture production has grown by 6.6%, of which the aquatic animals yielded 94.4 million tonnes – the first occasion where aquaculture yields exceeded capture fisheries (FAO, 2024). Moreover, within the aquaculture industry, the crustacean sector was reported to be a fast-growing division in comparison to others (e.g. finfish and mollusks) along with being a significant contributor due to the faster production rate (Bondad-Reantaso et al., 2012; FAO, 2012; Boenish et al., 2022; Boyd et al., 2022). Besides protein, seafood provides quality nutritional value to individuals and thus is integral to global food security, as it contains a high level of nutrients, essential amino acids, and protein (Nanda et al., 2021; Boyd et al., 2022). One example of the nutrient dense food is the red king crab (*Paralithodes camtschaticus*) leg meat. Red king crab leg meat contains 43 fatty acids (including saturated or SFA, mono-unsaturated or MUFA, and polyunsaturated or PUFA), a low proportion of cholesterol to muscle protein, and high quantities of amino acids (e.g. tyrosine, histidine, arginine, tryptophan and cysteine) (Dvoretzky et al., 2021). Several other studies have analyzed the nutritional composition of various edible tissues from different crustaceans, including factors that may impact these elements; various research studies of the nutritional value from top crab food commodities are presented in Table 1.1 (Nanda et al., 2021).

In addition to being good food sources, crustaceans are important assets and commodities for market sustainability. According to the FAO, the fisheries and aquaculture sectors employed 61.8 million people with most jobs in Asia at 85% and Africa at 10%, followed by Latin America and the Caribbean at 4%; combined employment in Europe, Oceania, and North America is at 1% (FAO, 2024). Furthermore, the international trade value of aquatic products was assessed at \$195 billion USD with China, Norway, Vietnam, Ecuador, and Chile being the top exporters and

the United States of America, China, Japan, Spain, and France being the top importers (FAO, 2024). Seafood has a high-value chain as it creates employment opportunities while providing means to evaluate a country's productivity through assessing the gross domestic product (GDP). GDP gauges the economy by measuring the gross total market value of *domestic* goods and products of which is affected by export and import activity. An increase in imports and trade deficit could lead to a negative effect on the exchange rate and consequently the inflation rate. Therefore, an understanding of the fisheries and aquaculture markets and projections is important to evaluate a nation's economic health (Bondad-Reantaso et al., 2012; He, 2015; Kobayashi et al., 2015). In Bangladesh, for instance, the Bangladesh Department of Fisheries (DoF) reported the crab exportation value in 1977 was \$2,000 USD but has increased to \$27 million USD in 2018 with a volume of 11,435 metric tons (Lahiri et al., 2021). In Norway, the red king crab and snow crab have high market value and are significant sources of revenue to which the Norwegian Seafood Council stated that in 2016, 3952 metric tons of frozen snow crab clusters were exported at a value of 331 Norwegian Kroner (NOK) (Lorentzen et al., 2018). Additionally, soft-shell rearing swimming crabs, specifically of portunids and mud crabs, is a multimillion-dollar activity involved the international market at the both the artisanal and industrial level (Hungria et al., 2017). With the demand for soft-shell crabs higher than the supply and the market value of reducing as the exoskeleton hardens, optimizing molt-inducing methods and lengthening the time elapsed after molting is an important issue to address in commercial production and trade (Hungria et al., 2017; Rahman et al., 2020; Voldnes et al., 2020; Lahiri et al., 2021; Tavares et al., 2021; Waiho et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2024). Additionally, the tropical rock lobster (*Panulirus ornatus*) is an overall good commercialization candidate as it is valued at \$75-100 USD per kilogram, but, unfortunately, is difficult to rear due to its high cannibalistic nature (Sutherland et

al., 2023). Monitoring pre-ecdysis events is then critical as it allows for intervention and cannibalism prevention. Thus molt-monitoring techniques, including integument ultrasounds and suture algorithm recognition, are being assessed (Sutherland et al., 2023). Optimization of the knowledge in crustacean fisheries and the aquaculture industry is important for global food security, as well as economic stimulation worldwide (Jung et al., 2013; Reddy, 2017; Abdullah-Zawawi et al., 2021; Waiho et al., 2022; Yuan et al., 2023; Wang et al., 2024).

Crustacean molting and mediation through the neuroendocrine system

Molting is a unidirectional progression of changes in the exoskeleton that involve preparation, shedding (ecdysis), and recovery from ecdysis. The crustacean molt cycle, as further described subsequent sections, is divided into major stages: intermolt (IM), premolt, ecdysis (E), and postmolt (PM), of which premolt consists of early (EP), mid (MP), and late (LP) substages. Although molting may be mediated through various signaling pathways and/or factors, crustacean molting is coordinated primarily through neuroendocrine interaction of ecdysteroids and the neuropeptide molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH) as reviewed by several others (Chang, 1985, 1993; Skinner, 1985b; Lachaise et al., 1993; Covi et al., 2012; Webster, 2015; Mykles and Chang, 2020; Mykles, 2021).

The molting gland (Y-organ) and hormone

Ecdysteroids are a class of polyhydroxylated steroid hormones present in plants, fungi, and animals involved in important biological processes (Spindler et al., 2009; Wen et al., 2023). More specifically, ecdysteroids have critical roles in arthropod growth, development, molting, regeneration, and reproduction (Subramoniam, 2000; Spindler et al., 2009). 20-Hydroxyecdysone

(20-E) is the most active form of ecdysteroid (or molting hormone) that is primarily produced and secreted by the Y-organ (YO), analogous to the insect 20-E production by the prothoracic gland (PG) (Chang, 1993; Mykles et al., 2010). The YOs, also referred to as the molting or ecdysial glands, are a pair of ectodermally-derived glands located at the anterior end of the cephalothorax in decapod crustaceans (Chang et al., 1993; Lachaise et al., 1993). As first described by Gabe in 1953, the surface of the YOs is covered with capillaries despite other surface features, such as texture, varying across species (Gabe, 1953; Achdiat et al., 2024). In brachyurans, the YO cells possess numerous mitochondria with tubular cristae, smooth endoplasmic reticulum, a basophilic nucleus, scarce cytoplasm, and varying sized vacuoles (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980; Taketomi and Hyodo, 1986; Taketomi and Nakano, 2007). Nonetheless, changes of the YO histomorphology have been reported during the transitions between the molt cycle stages (Taketomi and Nakano, 2007; Ayanath and Raghavan, 2021).

Ecdysteroidogenesis depends on the sequential enzymatic activity of Cytochrome P450s (CYP450s) monooxygenase enzymes which, in turn, are encoded by the Halloween genes (Schumann et al., 2018; Kamiyama and Niwa, 2022; Lewis et al., 2024). As thoroughly described in the Mykles (2011) review, ecdysteroid production is divided into two main stages. Due to the inability of arthropods to biosynthesize cholesterol from acetate (*de novo*), dietary cholesterol serves as the precursor for ecdysteroid production (Zhu et al., 2022; Wen et al., 2023). Initially, dietary cholesterol is converted by the monooxygenase *neverland* to 7-dehydrocholesterol and later processed into 25-deoxyecdysone (25dE) through a “black box” involving *Non-molting glossy* (*Nm-G*), *Shroud* (*Sro*), along with *Spook* (*Spo*) (CYP307A1) and its paralogs *Spookier* (*Spok*) (CYP307A2) and *Spookiest* (*Spot*) (CYP307B1) (Mykles, 2011). In the subsequent phase, the Halloween genes *Phantom* (*Phm*) (CYP306A1), *Disembodied* (*Dib*)

(CYP302A1), and *Shadow (Sad)* (CYP315A1) convert the ketodiol to ecdysone (Mykles, 2011; Niwa and Niwa, 2014). Ecdysone is eventually converted to the active 20-E in peripheral tissues by the hydroxylation through *Shed* or *Shade* (CYP314A1) in decapods and insects, respectively (Ventura et al., 2017; Hyde et al., 2019a). Remarkably, 28 transcripts of 42 CYP450s were annotated in the ornate spiny lobster (*Panulirus ornatus*), of which four *Shed* transcripts exhibited overlapping expression across adult and metamorphic tissues (Lewis et al., 2024). Even in the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*), six *Shed* orthologs were identified in the YO alone (Swall et al., 2021). Suppression of the ecdysteroid synthetic genes have been experimentally shown to affect 20-E concentrations in the hemolymph. For instance, independent RNA-interference (RNAi) experiments in the Oriental river prawn (*Macrobrachium nipponense*) showed that the introduction of double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) of *Spo* and *Phm* decreased 20-E titers, inhibited the molting frequency, and reduced body weight (Yuan et al., 2021a; Pan et al., 2022). Zheng et al. (2023b) also demonstrated that silencing CYP302A1, or *Dib*, in female *M. nipponense* decreased ecdysteroid concentrations, thus delaying ovarian development and molting.

The X-organ (XO) and neuropeptides– the neuroendocrine inhibitor

20-E secretion is inhibited by molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH), a neuropeptide produced by the X-organ/sinus gland complex (XO) located within the eyestalk ganglia (Bliss and Welsh, 1952; Bliss et al., 1954; Techa and Chung, 2015). MIH is classified within the crustacean hyperglycemic hormone (CHH) superfamily and is a Type II peptide member (along with gonad-inhibiting hormone or GIH and mandibular organ-inhibiting hormone or MOIH), as it contains the diagnostic six cysteine residues that form three intramolecular disulfide bridges (Nakatsuji et

al., 2009). Although CHH has some ability to repress, MIH is the primary antagonist for YO ecdysteroidogenesis (Webster, 1986, 1993; Webster and Keller, 1986; Chung and Webster, 2005; Lee et al., 2007; Chung et al., 2010; Webster et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2020; Mykles and Chang, 2020). After the kuruma prawn (*Marsupenaeus japonicus*) YO were exposed to MIH *in vitro*, expression of *Phm* (one of the Halloween genes) is downregulated (Asazuma et al., 2009). Techa and Chung (2015) further described the feedback mechanism of the neuroendocrine system between MIH and 20-E in the blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*) through dsRNA-mediated knockdown of *Cs-MIH*. Knocking out *Ec-MIH* with CRISPR/Cas9 in the ridge tail white prawn (*Exopalaemon carinicauda*) further supported its effect on 20-E, as it shortened the larval metamorphosis time (Zhang et al., 2018a). Therefore, YO production of 20-E can be stimulated through the removal of the XO by eyestalk ablation (ESA), which is effective method utilized in lab and aquaculture settings to induce molting in some crustacean species (Hopkins, 2012). Despite the efforts attempted by Asazuma et al. (2005) and others, the MIH receptor has yet to be confidently identified. It is hypothesized that the MIH receptor is a Class A Rhodopsin-like G protein-coupled receptor (GPCR) with an extended extracellular loop-2 with an additional two-stranded β -sheet, which putatively assists with ligand binding affinity and specificity (Tran et al., 2019; Kozma et al., 2024). Nonetheless, MIH activity upon binding with a putative GPCR receptor, is proposed to be coordinated between cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP)/Ca²⁺ and nitric oxide (NO)/cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) phases, or the triggering and summation phase as depicted in Figure 1.1 (Spaziani et al., 1999; Covi et al., 2009, 2012; Mykles et al., 2010; Pitts and Mykles, 2017; Pitts et al., 2017; Mykles, 2024).

The crustacean molt cycle

The molt cycle was initially described by Drach who divided the entire process into five stages (A-E) and further divided the stages into substages based on the structural features of the epidermis and exoskeleton (Drach, 1939). As Skinner elaborated to greater detail, there are several biochemical and physiological changes that occur not only to the exoskeleton itself but to other tissues during the molt cycle (Skinner, 1962, 1985b; Chang, 1995). Throughout the progression of the molt stages, the properties of the YO change and is correlated with hemolymph 20-E titers (Skinner, 1985b; Okumura and Aida, 2000). Stage C₄ is the longest period of the molt cycle commonly referred to as intermolt (IM). In IM, the YO is in a basal phenotypic state, as the presence of MIH in the hemolymph prevents an increase in 20-E synthesis. Once MIH clears from the hemolymph, the YO becomes activated. Molt induction, accordingly YO activation, can be experimentally initiated by ESA or by removal of five or more legs, referred to as multiple leg autotomy (MLA) (Skinner and Graham, 1972). YO activation leads to an increase in hemolymph 20-E levels, thus allowing the crab to enter premolt or stage D. Shyamal et al. (2018) reported that YO activation is controlled by the positive-feedback mechanistic target of rapamycin (mTOR) signaling pathway, causing an upregulation of ecdysteroid synthetic genes and a continued rise of 20-E titers. Hou et al. (2021) supported claim further this by silencing mTOR through RNAi in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*). As a result of RNAi to *Es-mTOR*, several genes were downregulated, including *Es-Rheb*, a molecular marker for tissue growth, and delaying molting (Hou et al., 2021). During this period, limb the regenerates grow; however, molting can be delayed if the regenerates are autotomized (Mykles, 2001; Yu et al., 2002). More specifically, the ability to postpone molting indicates the YO has MIH sensitivity and that the animal is in the early onset of early premolt (EP or D₀).

During this period, the claw muscle atrophies, while gastroliths start to form. At this point of the molt cycle, 20-E titers increase and may be correlated with increased expression of certain ecdysteroid synthetic genes, such as *Gl-Shadow* and *Gl-Shed5A* (Swall et al., 2021; Benrabaa et al., 2023). In the blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*) YO, increased expression of *Cs-Neverland* and *Cs-Spook* is correlated with increased ecdysteroidogenesis (Legrand et al., 2021). Progression into mid-premolt (MP), or stage D₁, serves as a molt commitment checkpoint that is regulated through transforming growth factor-beta (TGF- β) signaling. At this phase, the YO loses MIH sensitivity and becomes fixed into a committed phenotypic state consequently not allowing molting to be delayed (Abuhagr et al., 2016; Das et al., 2016). Apolysis, from which the epidermis separates from the exoskeleton, thickens, and starts secreting the outer layers (epicuticle and exocuticle) of the new exoskeleton in stage D₁ and continues in stage D₂. Astaxanthin from the old exocuticle is reabsorbed thereby turning the hemolymph pink in hue in late premolt (LP or stages D₂₋₄). During D₂, ecdysteroid levels drastically increase eventually reaching a peak and subsequently dropping. The decrease in ecdysteroid concentration triggers the YO repression to, which, leads up to ecdysis (E). During postmolt (PM or A, B, C₁₋₃), the two inner layers of the exoskeleton (endocuticle and membranous layer) are synthesized and hardened by sclerotization and calcification of the exocuticle and endocuticle (Figure 1.2) (Chang and Mykles, 2011; Mykles and Chang, 2020). The YO is in the repressed state, resulting the lowest hemolymph 20-E titers of the entire molt cycle. After the membranous layer is deposited at the end of PM, the YO transitions back to the basal state and the animal returns to the intermolt stage. Figure 1.3 illustrates the molt cycle in the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) (Skinner, 1962; Chang, 1995; Yu et al., 2002; Mykles and Chang, 2020). The signaling mechanisms controlling the transition of the YO from the committed to repressed state and the

transition of the YO from the repressed to basal states are unknown (Figure 1.4). As it occurs at the end of PM when synthesis and hardening of the exoskeleton is completed, it may involve an insulin-like peptide (ILP) from the integument that restores MIH control of ecdysteroid synthesis in the basal YO. The committed to repressed transition may involve interactions between ecdysteroid and methyl farnesoate (MF) signaling, as the transition coincides with the peak in 20-E titer at the end of LP; however, the repressed to basal transition remains a mystery (Figure 1.2).

The ecdysteroid receptor and ecdysone response genes

The ecdysteroid receptor is a nuclear receptor heterodimer of ecdysone receptor (EcR) and Ultraspiracle (USP) or the retinoid X receptor (RXR) in insects and crustaceans, respectively (Abdullah-Zawawi et al., 2021). Nuclear receptors (NRs) are ligand-activated proteins with a single polypeptide chain containing several domains that recognize hormone response elements (HREs) to mediate extracellular signaling and transcriptional responses (Kumar and Thompson, 1999; Bain et al., 2007; Taubenheim et al., 2021). The N-terminal region contains the A and B domain; this region varies between nuclear receptors but encompasses an activation function 1 (AF-1) motif that can drive ligand-independent transcription (Wärnmark et al., 2003; Fahrbach et al., 2012). As a result, this region is likely a site for phosphorylation and post-translational modifications that can consequently lead to differentially-regulated isoforms (Bain et al., 2007). The C domain, a highly conserved DNA-binding domain (DBD), contains conserved cysteine residues for the binding of two zinc fingers (Zf) (Cys2-Cys2) (Fahrbach et al., 2012). The E domain is the ligand binding domain (LBD) that is flanked by the activation function 2 (AF-2) subdomain at the C-terminus. Similar to AF1, AF2 enhances the ligand-dependent transcription

by binding to coactivation factors (Wärnmark et al., 2003; Fahrbach et al., 2012). The D domain is also referred to as the hinge region as this area links DBD and the LBD. This hinge domain contains amino acid residues that bind to the DNA minor groove, thus assisting with protein flexibility (Fahrbach et al., 2012). The binding of ecdysone to the ecdysteroid receptor complex increases the expression of EcR–RXR/USP itself, along with the expression of downstream transcription factors: the ecdysone response genes (Abdullah-Zawawi et al., 2021).

The expression of ecdysone response genes is initiated upon binding of ecdysone to the receptor complex. As proposed by the Ashburner model, with the observations made from puffing patterns of the polytene chromosomes in the *Drosophila* salivary glands, the expression of genes in early puff regions represses the expression of those in the late puff regions and thus has led to the general categorization as early, early-late, and late genes (Ashburner et al., 1974). Although this paradigm supports temporal gene expression, it cannot be applied in every context (e.g. types of tissues, across different species, and the response to the timing of the pulsatile releases). Thus, categorizing these genes in this manner cannot provide a full explanation of the diverse roles these genes have, including the interactions outside of a developmental context (Ou and King-Jones, 2013). Moreover, for many of these genes, different isoforms have been identified that have distinct promoter regions.

Early genes, such as the NR5 subfamily member hormone receptor 39 (HR39), ecdysone-induced protein 23 (Eip23 or E23), ecdysone-induced protein 75 (Eip75 or E75), ecdysone-induced protein 74 (Eip74 or E74), ecdysone-induced protein 93 (Eip93 or E93), and Broad-complex (Br-C), are directly induced by ecdysone. Ecdysone binding activates the early genes but can repress their own transcription, depending on hormone level, and nonetheless activate downstream (early-late and late) genes (Thummel, 1990, 2002). E23 encodes an ATP-binding

cassette (ABC) transporter protein, a major transmembrane protein family, that modulates ecdysone response by interfering with other ecdysone response genes (Hock et al., 2000). Broad complex (Br-C) is a Bric-a-brac, Tramtrack, Broad – zinc finger (BTB–Zf) transcription factor with multiple isoforms as result of alternative splicing (Karim et al., 1993; Spokony and Restifo, 2007; Siggs and Beutler, 2012). Br-C was identified in the ovaries of the giant tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*), in which *Pm-Br-C* expression increased after treatment with 20-E (Buaklin et al., 2013). E74, an Ets transcription factor homologue, is required for stage- and tissue-specific transcription of ecdysone secondary response genes (Fletcher et al., 1995; Sharrocks, 2001; Sun et al., 2002, 2005). Silencing the E74 ortholog in the *P. monodon* (*Pm-E74*) affected the expression of other ecdysone response genes (Si et al., 2022). E75, a member of the NR1 subfamily, contains a heme in the ligand pocket, thereby allowing gases [e.g. nitric oxide (NO) and carbon monoxide (CO)] to modify interactions with other components (Reinking et al., 2005; Nakagawa and Henrich, 2009; Cáceres et al., 2011; Ou and King-Jones, 2013). Nonetheless, E75 has been shown to be required in molting and metamorphosis in insects (Segraves and Hogness, 1990; Segraves and Woldin, 1993; Bialecki et al., 2002; Niwa and Niwa, 2016).

The early-late genes include the NR4 subfamily member hormone receptor 38 (HR38), ecdysone-induced protein 78 (Eip78 or E78), hormone receptor 3 (HR3), and hormone receptor 4 (HR4). Like the early genes, they are directly induced by ecdysone but require protein synthesis for maximal induction (Stone and Thummel, 1993; Nakagawa and Henrich, 2009). E78, a NR1 subfamily member, is required for development of the somatic germline stem cell niche, follicle survival, and lipid homeostasis in *Drosophila*, but also is reported to interact with other components of the ecdysone signaling pathway (Ables et al., 2015; Praggastis et al., 2021). HR3,

a member of the NR1 subfamily, acts as an activator upon binding to the retinoid orphan receptor element (RORE) motif in response genes (Swevers et al., 2002; Reinking et al., 2005). *Mr-HR3* expression in the giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) was shown to be directly correlated to E75 levels, in which both these genes can be affected by titanium dioxide–graphene oxide (TiO₂–GO) (Guo et al., 2023). HR3 action can be suppressed by E75 through direct binding with HR3, or competition for the binding site; however, this inhibition can be alleviated through NO–E75 binding (Swevers et al., 2002; Reinking et al., 2005). *HR3* expression for the water flea (*Daphnia magna*) increased 30-fold within 48 hours into the molt cycle due to increased ecdysteroid concentrations, in contrast to E75 transcript levels that varied depending on context (Hannas and LeBlanc, 2010). Hannas et al. (2010) additionally reported that E75 likely interacts directly with HR3, and not the response element, to mediate its activity in *Daphnia pulex*. Increasing ecdysteroid concentrations in the Oriental river prawn (*Macrobrachium nipponense*) and the blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*), either through 20-E injections or through ESA respectively, resulted in the increased expression of HR4, a member of the NR6 subfamily (Legrand et al., 2021; Yuan et al., 2022). Furthermore, by knocking down *Mn-HR4* the molting frequency significantly decreased (Yuan et al., 2022).

Both HR3 and HR4 repress early genes and induce the expression of the NR5 nuclear receptor subfamily late gene *Fushi tarazu transcription factor 1 (Ftz-f1)* (King-Jones and Thummel, 2005; Nakagawa and Henrich, 2009; Ou and King-Jones, 2013). *Ftz-f1* mediates ecdysteroidogenesis in the cigarette beetle (*Lasioderma serricorne*) and the cotton bollworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*), as the expression of other ecdysone synthetic and signaling genes was downregulated and prevented the larva-to-pupa metamorphic molt (Zhang et al., 2021; Yan et al., 2023b). Additionally, two *Ftz-F1* isoforms were identified in the salmon louse (*Lepeophtheirus*

salmonis), in which the knockdown of *FTZ-F1 β* in nauplius larvae and in pre-adult males resulted in molting arrest (Brunet et al., 2021). Silencing *Mn-Ftz-fl* in the *M. nipponense* through double stranded RNA (dsRNA) inhibited the expression of Halloween genes *Mn-Spook* and *Mn-Phantom* and consequently reduced molting and ovulation frequency (Yuan et al., 2021b).

Ecdysone response genes have been identified and characterized in many insect species and within various tissues, while crustacean ecdysone response genes have not been investigated not nearly as intensively in comparison. Table 1.2 summarizes the ecdysone response genes identified and characterized in various decapod crustaceans to, which, the putative E93 ortholog having been recently identified in one species in addition to current study (as further described in a subsequent section) (Ge et al., 2024). Nonetheless, Benrabaa et al. (2024) provided a collective insight on the expression of ecdysteroid response genes with respect to molting, in which *Gl-EcR*, *Gl-BrC*, *Gl-E74*, *Gl-Hr3*, *Gl-Hr4*, *Gl-FOXO*, and *Gl-Ftz-fl* were identified in the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO transcriptome. MLA-molt induced crabs increased expression of *Gl-Hr3* and *Gl-FOXO* in premolt, with small effects on expression of *Gl-EcR*, *Gl-E75*, and *Gl-Hr4*, and no effect on *Gl-Br-C*, *Gl-E74*, and *Gl-Ftz-fl* (Benrabaa et al., 2024). On the other hand, the expression of these ecdysone response genes were not correlated to the hemolymph concentration of 20-E in ESA-molt induced individuals, thereby suggesting that ecdysteroid synthesis is regulated through both transcriptional and translational mechanisms (Benrabaa et al., 2024).

Methyl farnesoate (MF)

Methyl farnesoate (MF) is a hydrophobic sesquiterpenoid hormone that was initially discovered by Laufer et al. (1987) in the spider crab (*Libinia emarginata*). MF is produced by the

crustacean mandibular organ (MO), a pair of ectodermally-derived glands homologous to the insect corpora allata (CA) (Borst et al., 1987a; Tobe et al., 1989a). The MO is located at the base of the mandibular tendon for many decapod crustaceans and was first identified by Le Roux (1968). These highly vascularized, ductless endocrine glands are composed of large cells generally arranged into clusters (Gopal et al., 2018). The MO contains an unfolded and folded region to which the unfolded region contains C-type cells, large cells with numerous mitochondria and large vacuoles (Borst et al., 1994). On the other hand, fan-fold region contains A and B cells of which A cells are undifferentiated while the B cells contained numerous vacuoles and thus B cells are likely the site of MF synthesis (Borst et al., 1994). In comparison to the Y-organ (YO), which consist of small cells with peripherally located nuclei arranged in a densely packed fashion, the MO cells are larger with centrally located nuclei and contain a substantial amount cytoplasm (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980; Gopal et al., 2018). On the other hand, both MO and YO cells contain numerous mitochondria and an extensive smooth endoplasmic reticulum (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980). Additionally, both the MO and YO experience phenotypic and histological alterations when undergoing a physiological event, such as molting and reproduction (Aoto et al., 1974; Taketomi and Nakano, 2007; Smija and Sudha Devi, 2016; Ayanath and Raghavan, 2021). These endocrines glands, previously described in various species as presented in Table 1.3, have been often confused for another with regards to similarities in anatomical proximity and features, but nonetheless are distinguished biochemically as the MO and YO synthesizes MF and ecdysteroids, respectively (Borst and Tsukimura, 1991; Fingerman, 1997).

The MO production of MF is suppressed by the mandibular organ-inhibiting hormone (MOIH), a neuropeptide produced by the X-organ, sinus gland complex (XO/SG) located within

the eyestalk ganglia (Tsukimura and Borst, 1992; Borst et al., 2001). MOIH is a type II peptide hormone, along with gonad-inhibiting hormone (GIH) and molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH), classified within the crustacean hyperglycemic hormone (CHH) superfamily, as it contains the diagnostic six cysteine residues that form three intramolecular disulfide bridges (Böcking et al., 2002; Nakatsuji et al., 2009; Chung et al., 2010; Webster et al., 2012; Katayama et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2020). Therefore, the MO can be stimulated to secrete MF by removing the XO, and thus the source of MOIH, such as through eyestalk ablation (ESA) (Tsukimura and Borst, 1992; Borst et al., 2001; Paran et al., 2010; Alnawafleh et al., 2014). Moreso, Tsukimura et al. (1993) have shown that the XO inhibition of MF production is regulated by cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP), a second messenger molecule. Besides cyclic nucleotides, it has been reported that MF synthesis may be mediated by biogenic amines, such as serotonin, as seen in the giant mud crab (*Scylla serrata*) and the narrow-clawed crayfish (*Pontatacus leptodactylus*) (Girish et al., 2017; Farhadi et al., 2020). Allatostatin C (ASTC), sometimes referred to as PISCF/AST, is a neuropeptide that has been reported to inhibit JH biosynthesis in the Chinese white pine beetle (*Dendrovtonus armandi*) by inhibiting juvenile hormone O-methyltransferase (JHAMT), the key enzyme for JH production (Sun et al., 2022). ASTC has also been shown to inhibit MF biosynthesis in the green mud crab (*Scylla paramamosain*) MO along with inhibiting the YO production of 20-E (Liu et al., 2021a). Altogether, the MO and MF serve as important regulators of various biological processes as reviewed by Nagaraju (2007) and Homola and Chang (1997). However, Fingerman (1997) designated this endocrine complex (MO-MF) as cursed due to MF actions on various physiological processes. More specifically, how MF regulates YO ecdysteroidogenesis and molting remains a mystery.

MF anabolism

MF biosynthesis is divided into two phases: 1) the mevalonate pathway (MVA) and the 2) farnesyl diphosphate/isopentenoid pathway (Tobe and Bendena, 1999; Bellés et al., 2005; Hui et al., 2010). Within the MVA pathway, acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) is converted to hydroxymethylglutharyl-CoA (HMG-CoA) and later is reduced into mevalonate by HMG-CoA reductase, or 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMGR), a rate-limiting step (Goldstein and Brown, 1990; Bellés et al., 2005). Through the series of enzymatic steps, mevalonate is eventually converted to farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP), an important intermediate in the synthesis of cholesterol and other bioactive terpenoids, by the specific action of farnesyl diphosphate synthase or FPPS (Bellés et al., 2005; Liu et al., 2022a). During the later phase, FPP is hydrolyzed to farnesol, subsequently oxidized into farnesal, and then through the removal of hydrogen atoms becomes farnesoic acid (FA) (Bellés et al., 2005; Hui et al., 2010). Independent studies have demonstrated that RNA interference (RNAi)-mediated knockdown of *HMGR* and *FPPS* have consequences on MF regulated physiological processes, including vitellogenesis in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*) and vitellogenesis and the gene responses involved in ovary and metabolic response in the red cherry shrimp (*Neocaridina denticulata sinensis*) (Chen et al., 2022b; Liu et al., 2022a). FA is transformed into MF through the methylation by farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase (FAMeT) in the presence of a P450 monooxygenase and S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM) (Tobe et al., 1989b; Wainwright et al., 1998; Borst et al., 2001; Holford et al., 2004). MOs have been shown to secrete (*in vitro*) both FA and MF with the FA secretion rate 10-fold higher than of MF; however, hemolymph analyses detected the presence of only MF and not FA (Tobe et al., 1989b). As suggested by these results, although FA may potentially serve a biological importance itself, FA is likely to be quickly metabolized,

sequestered, and/or taken up by other target tissues (Tobe et al., 1989b). These actions are aided through the action of MF-binding proteins (MFBP), as identified and characterized in various decapod species including *L. emarginata*, the Dungeness crab (*Cancer magister*), the green mud crab (*Scylla paramamosain*), and the American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) (Tobe et al., 1989a; Prestwich et al., 1990, 1996; Li and Borst, 1991; King et al., 1995; Tamone et al., 1997; Takáč et al., 1998; Zhao et al., 2020). Single and multiple FAMeT transcripts have been identified and localized in various pancrustacean tissues, including decapod crustaceans as summarized in Table 1.4. With the wide distribution of FAMeT transcripts in an assortment of tissues, it is speculated that the tissues have cellular machinery required for MF biosynthesis (Claerhout et al., 1996; Wainwright et al., 1998; Holford et al., 2004). Furthermore, it has been postulated that that target tissues may have an inactive FAMeT enzyme that becomes activated in the appropriate setting in time and place (Homola and Chang, 1997c). FAMeT orthologs contain two methyltransferase (Methyltransf_FA) domains with an overall high similarity between the two regions and thus is hypothesized to have arisen by tandem duplication of a single copy of the domain (Holford et al., 2004; Kuballa et al., 2007; Hui et al., 2008; Saikrithi et al., 2019). Generally, those individuals with multiple isoforms just vary in length with slight, but distinct, variation (Kuballa et al., 2007; Hui et al., 2008; Buaklin et al., 2015). It is speculated that the multiple FAMeT isoforms are members of a multi-gene family; however, some genomic data suggests only one gene exists (Kuballa et al., 2007; Hui et al., 2010; Yang et al., 2012; Qian and Liu, 2019). Moreover, elucidating the origins of FAMeT, including its isoforms, remains largely unknown. Several studies have shown that decapod FAMeT orthologs, including those in the brown crab (*Cancer pagarus*), the greasyback shrimp (*Metapenaeus ensis*), and the whiteleg

shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*), lack the typical SAM binding motif and therefore are classified as SAM-independent (Gunawardene et al., 2001; Ruddell et al., 2003; Hui et al., 2008, 2010).

Additionally, Zhao et al. (2018) identified a FAMEt sequence in *S. paramamosain* (*Sp-FAMEt2*) that contained one Methyltransf_FA domain and one domain of unknown function (DUF) with a DM9 repeat, an uncharacterized protein domain that is originally discovered in *Drosophila melanogaster* (Ponting et al., 2001). An additional FAMEt2 sequence was identified that contained two DM9 repeats, similar to insect FAMEt orthologs, suggesting *Sp-FAMEt2* may have alternative splice sites (Zhao et al., 2018). A DM9-containing protein (DM9CP-1) was also identified in *E. sinensis* that encompassed the Methyltransf_FA domain, followed by two consecutive DM9 repeats (Li et al., 2024). In *S. paramamosain* individuals, *FAMEt2* expression followed a similar expression to that of *HMGR*, varied across different tissue types, and fluctuated at different developmental stages (Zhao et al., 2018). The provided evidence supports the novel crustacean FAMEt2 and its role implicated in MF biosynthesis, signaling, and/or regulation, despite the sequence and structural differences with conventional FAMEt.

MF metabolism

MF is converted to FA through ester hydrolysis catalyzed by carboxylesterases (CXEs), such as MF esterase (MFE) and/or JHE-like esterase (sometimes simply referred to as CXE) (Homola and Chang, 1997b). CXEs are a family of enzymes classified on their physiological and biochemical functions in insects, which possess a catalytic site (e.g., Ser-His-Glu triad) coupled to the oxyanion hole and the acyl pocket for substrate stabilization (Sato and Hosokawa, 2006; Yu et al., 2009). It has been shown that the level of degradative activity, which can be assayed with different methods, may be impacted by seasonality for some species and varies in different

tissues as reported in *L. emarginata* and the red swamp crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) (Laufer and Albrecht, 1990; King et al., 1995; Homola and Chang, 1997a; Takac et al., 1997). For example, CXE5 regulates MF degradation in the *E. sinensis* hepatopancreas, but not in the ovary (Li et al., 2021d). Genes encoding MF-degrading enzymes were downregulated after the terminal molt in the snow crab (*Chionecetes opilio*), thereby leading to an increase in MF levels (Toyota et al., 2023).

JHE-like enzymes, as identified in the gazami crab (*Portunus trituberculatus*), putatively can hydrolyze MF (Tao et al., 2017). CXEs have been identified in several crustacean species including the morotoge shrimp (*Pandalopsis japonica*), *E. sinensis*, and the giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) (Lee et al., 2011; Xu et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021d). Twenty-one CXEs with complete open reading frames (ORFs) were identified in the whiteleg shrimp (*L. vannamei*) with proteins ranging from 488 to 669 amino acids in length and molecular weight from 54.3 to 74.5 kDa (Zhang et al., 2020). Phylogenetic analysis of the CXEs revealed that despite *Lv-CXE5* containing the GQSAG motif, a diagnostic feature of the ability of JHE to degrade JH in most insects, it is not orthologous to insect JHE (Kamita et al., 2003, 2011; Kamita and Hammock, 2010; Zhang et al., 2020). However, the GESAG motif, which is hypothesized to be associated for specific MF esterase activity, was identified in 14 CXEs in *L. vannamei* (Tao et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2020). Furthermore, juvenile hormone epoxide hydrolase-like (JHEH-like) has recently been identified in *E. sinensis*, *M. rosenbergii*, and *P. trituberculatus* and is hypothesized to have putative roles in MF catabolism (Chen et al., 2021b, 2022a; Tu et al., 2022).

The mysterious MF and its many physiological roles

MF is implicated in several physiological processes including morphogenesis, reproduction, metamorphosis/development, and molting (Borst et al., 1987b; Chang, 1993; Chang et al., 1993; Fingerman, 1997; Homola and Chang, 1997c; Laufer and Biggers, 2001; Tiu et al., 2012). In the spider crab (*Libinia emarginata*), Laufer et al. (2002) reported that males in the penultimate stage before differential molt MF prevented allometric growth of the claw propodus. Additionally, Rotllant et al. (2000) reported that MF controlled the morphogenesis in the small-claw unabraded small-carapace (SUM) polymorph. Morphogenesis in the red swamp crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) is affected by MF, as primary reproductives (Form Is) depend on a low level of MF prior to the molt, in contrast to Form IIs that developed in high levels of MF (Laufer et al., 2005). Interestingly, exogenous MF and 20-E on the kuruma prawn (*Marsupenaeus japonicus*) decreased the survival rate and slowed larval development and metamorphosis (Toyota et al., 2020a). More specifically, the metamorphic effects were correlated in a dose-dependent manner and were stage specific; nauplius exhibited a stronger resistance to MF and 20-E in comparison to zoea and mysis stages (Toyota et al., 2020a). MF has also been reported to affect metamorphosis in the barnacle larva (*Balanas amphitrite*) and the giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) (Abdu et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2000). Dietary MF to *M. rosenbergii* resulted in altered metamorphic patterns and consequent larval intermediates (Abdu et al., 1998).

MF has been shown to affect molting in various crustacean species. The duration of the molt cycle was reduced in intermolt (IM) *O. senex senex*, when MF was administered either by injections or through dietary means (Reddy et al., 2004; Reddy and Arifullah, 2021). The stimulatory effect of MF in regard to the onset of proecdysis and ecdysis and a shortened molt

cycle duration in the orange mud crab (*Scylla olivacea*) and *T. schirnerae* (Tahya et al., 2016b; Raghavan and Ayanath, 2019). MF injections reduced the interval period in intermolt and premolt in *T. schirnerae* individuals in which, premolt crabs required a higher concentration than intermolt crabs (Raghavan and Ayanath, 2019). Upon MF injection, molting was accelerated and induced in *P. monodon* and the Japanese swamp shrimp (*Caridina denticulata*), respectively (Taketomi et al., 1989; Suneetha et al., 2010). Despite these data of the ability of MF to stimulate crustacean molting, the mechanism regulating YO ecdysteroidogenesis, specifically molting outside of a developmental context, is not well-understood. Tamone and Chang (1993) showed that MF stimulates ecdysteroid production in the Dungeness crab (*Metacarcinus magister*) YO *in vitro*.

The emphasis of MF research has been focused on reproduction. Although MF has been shown to stimulate testicular growth in the Indian freshwater rice field crab *Oziotelphusa senex senex*, the giant tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*), and in European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) under certain environmental conditions, the focus has been on oocyte maturation in the ovary and vitellogenesis in the hepatopancreas (Kalavathy et al., 1999; Nagaraju and Borst, 2008; Suneetha et al., 2010). MF administration enhances ovarian growth and maturation in several crustacean species, including the orange mud crab (*Scylla olivacea*), brown crab (*Cancer pagurus*), *P. monodon*, freshwater crab *Travancoriana schirnerae*, and *O. senex senex* (Wainwright et al., 1996; Reddy and Ramamurthi, 1998; Reddy et al., 2004; Paran et al., 2010; Suneetha et al., 2010; Devi et al., 2018; Muhd-Farouk et al., 2019). Moreso, MF stimulates the uptake of vitellogenin (Vg, the yolk protein precursor) by ovaries in the gazami crab (*Portunus trituberculatus*), crucifix crab (*Charybidis feriatus*), greasyback shrimp (*Metapenaeus ensis*), and

the American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) (Mak et al., 2005; Tiu et al., 2006, 2010; Xie et al., 2015).

RNA-seq data from the red cherry shrimp (*Neocaridina denticulata sinensis*) ovary revealed that ovarian development associated genes were down regulated as a result of the knockdown of farnesyl pyrophosphate synthase (FPPS), an enzyme in the MF biosynthetic pathway (Liu et al., 2022a). Silencing *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme a reductase* (*HMGR*), another MF biosynthetic enzyme, inhibited vitellogenesis in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*) (Chen et al., 2022b). MF exposure to female Australian red-claw crayfish (*Cherax quadricarinatus*) during their winter reproductive arrest period had no effect on reproduction, accelerated molted, and increased mortality (Abdu et al., 2001). MF in the whiteleg shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*) stimulated both ovarian maturation and molting (Alnawafleh et al., 2014). It is hypothesized that MF operates in a similar fashion in terms of the transcriptional cascade to regulate different physiological processes; however, MF is considered ‘cursed’ as the mechanism is unelucidated (Fingerman, 1997).

MF/JH and the MEKRE93 transcriptional cascade

MF is the unepoxidated form of the insect juvenile hormone III (JH III) and plays similar physiological roles in reproduction, metamorphosis, and development. JH-III, discovered by Wigglesworth in 1934, is an acyclic sesquiterpenoid hormone synthesized by the corpora allata (CA) and represses the 20-E production in the insect prothoracic gland (PG) (Riddiford et al., 2003; Li et al., 2018a). 20-E secretion in insects is further mediated by prothoracicotropic hormone (PTTH), a neuropeptide hormone produced by the corpora cardiaca (CC) (Nijhout and Williams, 1974; Jindra et al., 2013; Nijhout et al., 2014). JH III was nicknamed the *status quo*

hormone as it has been shown to prevent development and maintain larval/nymphal status when present in the hemolymph. In terms of reproductive physiology, JH III has been shown to regulate reproductive diapause in the grassland leaf beetle (*Galeruca daurica*) and the cabbage beetle (*Colaphellus bowringi*); vitellogenesis in the book louse *Liposcelis entomophila*, the striped rice stemborer (*Chilo suppressalis*), and the Asian lady beetle (*Harmonia axyridis*); oocyte development the kissing bug (*Dipetalogaster maxima*) and the brown plant hopper (*Nilaparvata lugens*); and the development of male accessory glands in dark sword-grass moth (*Agrotis ipsilon*) (Mao et al., 2019; Tang et al., 2020; Gassias et al., 2021; Ma et al., 2021b, 2021a; Tian et al., 2021; Han et al., 2022; Ramos et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2023). JH action has also been reported to have overlapping physiological roles, such as oocyte maturation/vitellogenesis and metamorphosis in the cotton bollworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*), the oriental fruit moth (*Grapholita molesta*), and the bean bug (*Riptortus pedestris*) (Ma et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2018b, 2019a; Dong et al., 2022). JH III induces a mechanistic transcriptional cascade: the Methopene tolerant (Met)– Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1)– Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) or collectively referred to as the MEKRE93 signaling cascade (Belles and Santos, 2014). In brief (as later described in further detail), JH signaling regulates 20-E signaling through the induction of Kr-h1 to inhibit E93, an ecdysone response gene (Belles, 2019).

In insects, in the presence of JH, Met associates with Heat shock protein 83 (Hsp83) to allow a conformational change in Met and promote JH binding (He et al., 2014). Hsp83 interacts with the tetatricopeptide repeat (TPR) domain of a 358-kDA nucleoporin (Nup358), which leads to nuclear import of the complex, as transport receptor importin β recognizes the Met nuclear localization signal (NLS) (He et al., 2017b). Importin β binds with RanGTP upon nuclear import, thus dissociating the receptor complex and allowing cofactor binding (e.g., Steroid receptor

coactivator or Src), leading to the binding on JH response elements (JHRE) in the promoters of response genes, such as Kr-h1 (Zhang et al., 2011; He et al., 2017b). Figure 1.5 illustrates the proposed model of the Met molecular mechanism in insect JH signaling (He et al., 2017b).

The MEKRE93 cascade has adopted the new name “Metamorphic Gene Network” (or MGN), as it likely that the transcription factors behave in a non-linear fashion with different factors. The interaction and orchestration of these components influence the plasticity of the network itself across taxa in different physiological contexts (Martín et al., 2021). Several heat shock proteins have been identified in crustaceans, specifically in immunity context; however, none have been directly shown in crustacean Met nuclear transport (Junprung et al., 2021). Before addressing the downstream implications, it is first necessary to describe the various types of transcription factors that compose the network.

Methoprene tolerant (Met) and Steroid receptor coactivator (Src)

Met and Src are bHLH-PAS transcription factors with an intrinsically disordered C-terminus (Kolonko et al., 2016). The basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription factor superfamily consists of members that have two conserved domains: the basic DNA-binding domain (containing a consensus sequence referred to as the E-box) and the helix-loop-helix (HLH) dimerization domain (Jones, 2004). Genome-wide analyses suggest that the expansion of bHLHs in the water flea (*Daphnia magna*) and the copepod (*Paracyclops nana*) is the result of lineage-specific duplications, as other crustaceans have fewer (Chang and Lai, 2018). It is hypothesized that the expansion of these proteins in these lower crustaceans, provides an adaptive mechanism to address adverse environment conditions considering that many bHLH proteins acts as environmental sensors (Chang and Lai, 2018).

The bHLH superfamily is furthermore divided into six groups (A-F) in regard to distinct structural features (Atchley and Fitch, 1997; Massari and Murre, 2000; Ledent and Vervoort, 2001; Jones, 2004). Within the bHLH superfamily, proteins classified within Group C bind to ACGTG/GCGTG and contain a PAS domain, or Period (Per)-Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptor Nuclear Translocator (ARNT)-Single minded (SIM) domain (Jones, 2004; Daffern and Radhakrishnan, 2024). The PAS domain is divided into the PAS-A and PAS-B regions and are linked by a poorly conserved region (Ponting and Aravind, 1997). The PAS domain serves as a dimerization motif that allows binding to other proteins, small molecules, and hormones (Coumailleau et al., 1995; Crews and Fan, 1999; Kewley et al., 2004). The bHLH-PAS transcription factors have roles in various physiological processes including organogenesis, morphogenesis, and development, and signal transduction processes (Crews, 1998; Greb-Markiewicz and Kolonko, 2019; Tumova et al., 2024). The bHLH-PAS family is also divided into Class 1 and Class 2. Class 1 proteins, including single-minded (SIM), hypoxia-inducible factors (HIF, HIF-1 α , HIF-2 α , HIF-3 α), neuronal PAS domain proteins (NPAS), aryl hydrocarbon receptor (repressor) (AHR and AHRR), circadian locomotor output cycles protein kaput (CLOCK), and Methoprene tolerant (Met), serve as archetypal sensors of tissue specific or environmental signals (Crews, 1998; Kewley et al., 2004; Wu and Rastinejad, 2017; Kolonko and Greb-Markiewicz, 2019). Class 1 proteins require a Class 2 member, including Aryl Hydrocarbon Receptor Nuclear Translocator (ARNT) and BMAL, for dimerization (Hoffman et al., 1983; Andreasen et al., 2002; Fribourgh and Partch, 2017; Wu and Rastinejad, 2017; Kolonko and Greb-Markiewicz, 2019). Phylogenetic analysis of crustacean bHLH-PAS orthologs show a clear demarcation between Class 1 and Class 2 with the ARNT proteins forming a well-supported monophyletic group (Chang and Lai, 2018). Class 1, on the other hand,

are paraphyletic with HIF and SIM members cluster together while Met and Clock form separate monophyletic groups (Chang and Lai, 2018). It is hypothesized that bHLH and PAS domain association occurred multiple times independently through domain duplication or insertion as a result of modular evolution (Chang and Lai, 2018).

Steroid receptor coactivators (Srcs) are a group of transcription-regulating nuclear proteins that were first discovered as auxiliary factors recruited by a nuclear receptor (NR) (Pecanova and Farkas, 2016). Src is structurally homologous to the p160 coactivator family, in which it encompasses a bHLH–PAS domain at the N-terminus and has a serine/threonine rich center and phosphorylation site that can regulate its activity (Pecanova and Farkas, 2016). Src-1 was reported to be a general co-activator for several steroid receptors and thus enhanced the transactivation of steroid hormone-dependent target genes (Oñate et al., 1995). Interestingly, Src-1 has been shown to synergistically interact with CREB-binding protein (CBP), a transcriptional comediator to enhance transcriptional activity (Leo and Chen, 2000). Nonetheless, Src may be recruited for the assembly of bHLH-PAS heterodimer (Zhang et al., 2011; Pecanova and Farkas, 2016).

Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1)

Krüppel (Kr), translated from the German word for “cripple”, was identified as a gap gene in *Drosophila melanogaster*, as mutants resulted in the failure to develop the appropriate thoracic and anterior segments due to the inability to regulate segment polarity genes (Nüsslein and Wieschaus, 1980; Preiss et al., 1984; Wieschaus et al., 1984; Licht et al., 1990; Hoshizaki, 1994). Krüppel is a member of the Krüppel-like factor (Klf) family, a group of zinc finger (Zf) transcription factors associated with several physiological processes, including proliferation,

apoptosis, differentiation and development (Pearson et al., 2008). The characterization of a *Drosophila* transposable element, or P-element, led to the discovery of Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1), in which the mutant died during the prepupal period and failed to complete head eversion (Schuh et al., 1986; Pecasse et al., 2000a). Additional studies have reported two, or sometimes three major transcripts, (e.g. Kr-h1 α and Kr-h1 β) that are derived from distinct promoters from the Kr-h1 locus (Pecasse et al., 2000a). Kr-h1 is a C2H2 (Cys2-His2) zinc finger (Zf) transcription factor, the most common type of zinc finger containing protein, with insects having eight ZF repeats (Schuh et al., 1986; Pecasse et al., 2000a; Fedotova et al., 2017; Bonchuk and Georgiev, 2024). C2H2 zinc fingers are independently folded proteins, with a hydrophobic core, consisting of an α -helix and β -hairpin (Laity et al., 2001; Fedotova et al., 2017). Each zinc finger has two cysteine and two histidine residues that bind a zinc ion that aid in specific DNA-binding (Fedotova et al., 2017). Unlike most transcription factors that bind relatively short DNA sequences (i.e. 6–12 base pairs), C2H2 proteins bind to longer DNA sequences (i.e. 20–40 base pairs). In addition to DNA binding, they are involved in protein–protein and protein–RNA interactions (Fedotova et al., 2017; Krieger et al., 2022).

Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93)

Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93), also referred to as ecdysone inducible factor 93 (Eip93), is a helix-turn-helix (HTH) transcription factor containing of two α -helices connected by a β -turn (Baehrecke and Thummel, 1995; Siegmund and Lehmann, 2002). E93 is a member of the Pipsqueak (Psq) family, as it contains a Psq DNA-binding domain consisting of a 50 amino acid tandem repeat (Siegmund and Lehmann, 2002). E93 was discovered to direct larval cell apoptosis and morphogenesis, as it promotes the expression of apoptosis and autophagy genes

(e.g. *RHG* genes), along with repressing PI3K-TORC1 signaling genes (Baehrecke and Thummel, 1995; Liu et al., 2014; Zhang et al., 2023).

E93 has also been linked to changes in chromatin accessibility, in which it can activate late-acting enhancers and represses early-acting enhancers (Uyehara et al., 2017; Nystrom et al., 2020; Ling et al., 2023). In the red flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*), E93 is essential in reproductive physiology, as double-stranded RNA (dsRNA)-mediated knockdown of *Tc-E93* decreases vitellogenin (Vg) synthesis, oocyte development, and egg-laying (Eid et al., 2020). In locust, E93 has critical roles in cuticle, wing, and ovary development and metamorphosis (Gijbels et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2021b). According to the Ashburner model, E93 is classified as an early gene; however, unlike other ecdysone response genes E93 exhibits complex spatial and temporal regulation (Baehrecke and Thummel, 1995; Lam et al., 2022; Zhang et al., 2023). As an early ecdysone response gene, E93 expression responds directly to ecdysone, as studies on the yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes aegypti*) have shown that 20-E upregulates *E93* expression, and knockdown of *Aa-EcR* downregulates *E93* expression (He et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2021). Additionally, *E93* suppression in *A. aegypti* results in the loss of 20-E responsiveness of other genes and demonstrates its critical role in regulating blood meal digestion and gonadotrophic cycles (He et al., 2021; Martín, 2021; Wang et al., 2021). RNAi-mediated knockdown in *A. aegypti* of *Aa-E93* disrupts *HR3* expression (Wang et al., 2021). In the brown planthopper (*Nilaparavata lugens*), immunofluorescence showed that both E93 and E78 proteins are located in the nucleus and co-immunoprecipitation confirmed interaction between the two ecdysone response genes (Zheng et al., 2023a). In the gazami crab (*Portunus trituberculatus*), 20-E increases *Pt-E93* expression *in vivo* and *in vitro*; however, RNAi-mediated knockdown of *Pt-E93* increases expression of Halloween genes *Spo* and *Sad* (Ge et al., 2024). Recently, an E93

ortholog was identified in *P. trituberculatus* (*Pt-E93*) and was reported to exhibit responsiveness to 20-E and methyl farnesoate (MF), as administration of exogenous 20-E increased *Pt-E93* expression, while MF suppressed *Pt-E93* expression in juvenile crabs (Ge et al., 2024). Interestingly, *Pt-E93* exhibited a negative correlation in ecdysteroidogenesis as silencing of *Pt-E93* induced the expression of *Spook* (*Spo*) and *Shadow* (*Sad*) ecdysteroid biosynthetic genes (Ge et al., 2024).

E93 is hypothesized to be the Mushroom body large-type Kenyon cell-specific protein-1 (Mblk-1) ortholog (Mou et al., 2012). For example, *Drosophila melanogaster* *E93* (*Dm-E93*) and the honeybee Mblk-1 have low sequence identity overall, despite the domains share a higher sequence identity (Takeuchi et al., 2001). Mblk-1 was identified in the honeybee brain specifically in the large-type Kenyon cells of mushroom bodies, a region generally associated for higher-order processing in insects (Farris, 2005; Yasugi and Nishimura, 2016) (Takeuchi et al., 2001). In the honeybee increased Mblk-1 transcriptional activity is attributable to phosphorylation through the Ras/MAPK pathway and shown to be involved in ecdysteroid signaling with stage-specific functions (Kumagai et al., 2020). Mushroom bodies are nitric oxide (NO) containing neuronal centers hypothesized to have independently risen multiple times in the invertebrate lineage, thus contributing to phenotypic variation across pancrustaceans (O’Shea et al., 1998; Strausfeld et al., 2020; Strausfeld, 2021). Crustacean mushroom bodies, first discovered by Wolff et al. (2017) in mantis shrimps, are primarily investigated with research pursuits focusing in the neuroscience discipline (Strausfeld et al., 2020; Strausfeld, 2021). It has been reported that mushroom bodies express *Chinmo*, or Chronologically inappropriate morphogenesis (Farris, 2005; Yasugi and Nishimura, 2016). *Chinmo* is a Bric-a-brac, Tramtrack, Broad zinc finger (BTB–Zf) transcription factor (Narbonne-Reveau and Maurange, 2019).

Although serving as a neuron specifier, *Chinmo* also acts a repressor of both *Br-C* and *E93* and may serve as a pro-oncogene to these ecdysone response genes (Zhu et al., 2006; Marchetti and Tavosanis, 2017; Narbonne-Reveau and Maurange, 2019; Truman and Riddiford, 2022). It is hypothesized that *Chinmo* may serve as master regulatory gene for *Br-C* and *E93*, critical ecdysone response genes for metamorphosis (Reynolds, 2022; Truman and Riddiford, 2022; Chafino et al., 2023; Khong et al., 2024).

Building the MEKRE93 network

Structural and functional evidence suggests that Met is the receptor for JH III and MF (along with other juvenoids) and subsequently induce the same downstream targets in crustaceans and insects (Miura et al., 2005; Bernardo and Dubrovsky, 2012; Miyakawa et al., 2013; Kakaley et al., 2017; Jindra and Bittova, 2020). In the presence of MF/JH, the Met homodimer (or the germ cell-expressed (GCE) *Drosophila* paralog) dissociates and upon ligand binding Met binds to Src, orthologs to *Aedes* FISC and *Drosophila* Taiman (Tai) (Bernardo and Dubrovsky, 2012; Kakaley et al., 2017). Juvenoids specifically bind to the Met PAS-B domain encompassing several amino acid residues that form a ligand-binding pocket; however amino acid substitutions can affect ligand binding due to steric hindrance (Charles et al., 2011). Mutations of these specific amino acid residues associate with the ligand-binding pocket has been reported to affect juvenoid sensitivity and receptor dimerization in *Daphnia* (Miyakawa et al., 2013; Hirano et al., 2020). Juvenoid binding to the PAS-B domain can affect the conformation of the intrinsically disordered C-terminus of Met and interact with Ftz-F1 (Kolonko et al., 2016). Additionally, Met interacts with the ultraspiracle (USP) protein and, in turn, inhibits the ecdysone receptor complex binding to ecdysone response elements in the cotton

bollworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*) (Zhao et al., 2014). The Met ortholog was identified in various tissues of female gazami crabs (*Portunus trituberculatus*) with *Pt-Met* highly expressed in the hepatopancreas, the primary site for vitellogenesis (Liu et al., 2016). Liu et al. (2016) also reported that administration of MF (*in vivo* and *in vitro*) stimulated *Pt-Met* and *Pt-Vg* expression in the hepatopancreas.

The interaction between Met and Src is dependent on JH, in order to induce downstream *Kr-h1* expression in the domestic silk moth (*Bombyx mori*) (Kayukawa et al., 2012). *Kr-h1* is nicknamed the ‘guardian of juvenile status’ or the ‘metamorphosis doorkeeper,’ as it mediates the anti-metamorphic action of JH (Minakuchi et al., 2009; Lozano and Belles, 2011; Ojani et al., 2018; Belles, 2019; Jindra, 2019). Zhang et al. (2018b) and Kayukawa et al. (2014) reported that *Kr-h1* inhibits steroidogenic enzymes in *Drosophila* and *Bombyx ex vivo* prothoracic glands (PG), thus repressing ecdysone biosynthesis. The *Kr-h1* ortholog has been identified in *P. trituberculatus* (*Pt-Kr-h1*) with a high expression in the hepatopancreas (Xie et al., 2018). Treatment of *Pt-Met* dsRNA consequently led to a decrease in *Pt-Kr-h1* expression, suggesting *Pt-Kr-h1* is downstream of *Pt-Met* (Xie et al., 2018). Xie et al. (2018) also reported that RNAi knockdown of *Pt-Kr-h1* and *Pt-Met* led to a decreased expression of *Pt-Vg*, thereby supporting the role of MF in reproduction by means of Met and *Kr-h1*. The Met ortholog (*Es-Met*) along with *Kr-h1* (*Es-Kr-h1*) were also identified in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*) (Li et al., 2021b, 2021c). Similar to *P. trituberculatus*, *Es-Met* was largely expressed in the hepatopancreas and injections of MF increased *Es-Met* and *Es-Vg* expression (Li et al., 2021b). *Es-Kr-h1* was also highly expressed in the hepatopancreas and increased after MF injections (*in vivo* and *in vitro*) (Li et al., 2021c).

Kr-h1 inhibits *E93*, in addition to *E93* inhibiting *Kr-h1*, to ensure proper metamorphosis in brown planthopper (*Nilaparvata lugens*) and the common bed bug (*Cimex lectularius*) (Gujar and Palli, 2016; Li et al., 2018b). In *T. castaneum*, *E93* is a vital temporal factor that triggers metamorphosis (Chafino et al., 2019). *E93* is known as the “universal adult specifier gene,” as various studies have demonstrated that silencing of *E93* resulted in supernumerary pupal or nymphal stages, thereby preventing the transition from pupa-to-adult or nymph-to-adult (Ureña et al., 2014; Gijbels et al., 2020; Kamsoi and Belles, 2020; He and Zhang, 2022; Fernandez-Nicolas et al., 2023). However, *Kr-h1* also has been shown to interact with *Br-C* and have ecdysteroidogenic effects (Minakuchi et al., 2008, 2011; Kayukawa et al., 2016; Ureña et al., 2016; Okude et al., 2022). Overall, this transcriptional network is plastic, as the molecular mechanisms of activation and downstream effects vary depending on contexts (Mazina and Vorobyeva, 2019).

Other transcriptional effectors

Forkhead Box O (FOXO) is a transcription factor in the Forkhead (FH) transcription family, which belong to the larger Winged Helix Protein superfamily (Obsil and Obsilova, 2008). FOX proteins encompass a forkhead DNA-binding domain that folds into three α -helices and three β -sheets with two wing-like loops that flank the third β -sheet (Huang and Tindall, 2007). FOX proteins within the ‘O’, or other, class are the most divergent subfamily because of sequence differences within their DNA-binding domain (Kaestner et al., 2000; Barthel et al., 2005). FOXO is reported to be critical for growth, as it negatively regulates the insulin/insulin growth factor signaling pathway (IIS) and regulates many physiological processes, including development, metabolism, cell cycle control, and lifespan (Huang and Tindall, 2007). Gene

silencing of FOXO in the red flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*) affects the expression of insulin and ecdysone signaling genes, such as hormone receptor 3 (HR3), causing to in a decrease in ecdysteroid titers and a delay in pupation (Lin et al., 2018). Interestingly, FOXO-like was identified in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*). *Es-FOXO-like* was largely expressed in premolt and inhibited ecdysteroid signaling via mTOR (Li et al., 2023). FOXO may also affect 20-E signaling via the juvenile hormone (JH) signaling. Although FOXO expression levels in the red flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*) were not affected after the downregulation of the downstream effector of TORC1 S6 kinase (S6K), FOXO nuclear translocation was promoted after the downregulation of S6K and FOXO negatively regulated farnesol dehydrogenase, a JH biosynthetic gene (Jiang et al., 2022). On the other hand, FOXO is reported to regulate JH degradation, rather than the production, in the domestic silk moth (*Bombyx mori*) (Zeng et al., 2017). Furthermore, *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies revealed that FOXO physically and genetically interacts with Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1), the transcription factor inhibiting E93, to regulate the insulin receptor (InR) activation (Kang et al., 2017).

The recruitment of co-activators or repressors to specific DNA sequences influences transcriptional activation and repression (respectively), thereby regulating gene expression. CREB (cAMP response element binding protein)-binding protein (CREB-binding protein or CBP) and C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP) are two commonly known transcription mediators associated with various transcription factors.

CtBP is a transcriptional corepressor that was initially discovered as a protein that interacted with the C-terminal motif (PLDLS) of adenovirus E1A oncoprotein (Boyd et al., 1993; Schaeper et al., 1995). CtBP has critical roles in development, tumorigenesis, and cell fate through the repression of transcription factors including Krüppel, Knirps, and Snail (Nibu et al.,

1998; Chinnadurai, 2007). Despite recognized as a transcriptional corepressor across many organisms, CtBP directly activates transcription of particular Wnt genes in *Drosophila* embryos, while repressing other target genes (Fang et al., 2006). Structurally, CtBP has a conserved D2 hydroxyacid dehydrogenase (D2-HDH) domain to, which, binding of nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide, or NAD(H), can facilitate functionality (Kumar et al., 2002). Although dimer and oligomeric forms of CtBP associates with other factors to regulate transcriptional activity, the tetrameric form is more active; thus, NAD(H) binding affirms oligomerization of larger protein complex and accordingly transcriptional repression (Kumar et al., 2002; Raicu et al., 2023). The dehydrogenase domain contains the “Rossmann Fold” with the GXGXXG (17x) motif for NAD(H) binding, along with the catalytic Arginine- Glutamic acid- Histidine (Arg-Glu-His or REH) triad motif (Kumar et al., 2002). In addition to the dehydrogenase domain, CtBP has an N-terminal substrate binding domain (NTD) and the C-terminal domain (CTD). The NTD is responsible for substrate (transcription factor) binding by the recognition of and binding to the consensus sequence (e.g. PxDLS). Bilaterian CtBP orthologs exhibit high conservation in length of the NTD (approximately 100 amino acids) and contains putative post-translational modifications sites (e.g., phosphorylation and SUMOylation) (Schaeper et al., 1995; Nardini et al., 2006; Raicu et al., 2023, 2024). CtBP CTD is a proline/glycine-rich intrinsically disordered region (IDR) that contributes to its unstructured configuration, the distinguishing feature of CtBP from other HDHs (Schaeper et al., 1995; Nardini et al., 2006). Interestingly, different CtBP forms that contain and lack the CTD have been identified and have functionality (Raicu et al., 2023, 2024). In *Drosophila*, for instance, Raicu et al. (2024) reported that different CtBP isoforms had differential severity effects on wing phenotype thus selective modulation of gene targets. In the vertebrate lineage, CtBP has undergone gene duplications that produce two or more paralogs

(Raicu et al., 2023). By contrast, invertebrates have one CtBP gene but due to alternative splicing and alternative promoters may express several isoforms (Raicu et al., 2023).

CBP, the mammalian paralog of p300 or NeJire in *Drosophila*, is a promiscuous transcriptional coactivator with over 400 interaction partners (McManus and Hendzel, 2001). CBP is an important player in facilitating growth and developmental processes (McManus and Hendzel, 2001). CBP has histone acetyltransferase (HAT) activity involved in chromatin remodeling (McManus and Hendzel, 2001). Moreover, CBP has three cysteine-histidine-rich (CH) regions are flanked by transactivation domains (e.g., transcriptional adaptor zinc finger domains or TAZ) at the N and C termini; within these regions are a series of functional domains with zinc-binding motifs (McManus and Hendzel, 2001). CH1 incorporates the TAZ1 domain; followed directly after is the kinase-inducible interacting domain (KIX). The KIX domain is comprised of three α and two α -3₁₀ helices that form two distinct binding surfaces and is critical for the magnitude of the transcriptional response (Shaywitz et al., 2000). The CBP catalytic core consists of the (1) Bromodomain (BROMO), followed by the (2) CH2 domain which encompasses the Really Interesting New Gene (RING) and Plant Homeodomain (PHD), (3) the histone acetyltransferase (HAT) domain, and the (4) CH3 domain that contains the ZZ zinc finger (ZZ) and TAZ2 domain (Legge et al., 2004; Dyson and Wright, 2016). Interactions with and binding to the TAZ2 domain brings the transcriptional factor closer in proximity to the HAT domain thereby contributing acetylation regulation (Dancy and Cole, 2015). In the N-terminus contains the CREB-binding region, which has the coactivator binding sites located within the nuclear coactivator binding domain (NCBD). The NCBD binds to various protein partners, such as steroid receptor coactivator (Src) and thyroid and retinoid receptors (Dyson and Wright, 2016). The C-terminus has a glutamine- and proline-rich region.

CBP affects the expression of transcription factors in the JH and ecdysteroid signaling cascade. In the yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes aegypti*), RNA-interference (RNAi)-mediated knockdown of *CBP* downregulated *Kr-h1* and upregulated *E93* in the JH and ecdysteroid pathway (respectively), thus consequently resulting in premature metamorphosis, larval-pupal intermediate formation, improper eye development, and increased mortality (Gaddelapati et al., 2020). In the presence of JH, acetylation of core histones at the *Kr-h1* promoter region increased *Aa-Kr-h1* expression, while CBP inhibited E75a-dependent expression of *Aa-EcR*, *Aa-USP*, *Aa-Br-C*, and *Aa-E93* (Gaddelapati et al., 2020). Moreover, CBP knockdown in the red flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*) decreased JH signaling genes, including *Kr-h1*, while a histone deacetylase (HDAC) inhibitor increased the *Kr-h1* expression (Xu et al., 2018). Roy et al. (2017) confirmed the decreased expression of JH responsive genes (e.g., *Kr-h1* and *Hairy*) and ecdysone response genes (e.g., *EcR*, *E74*, *E75*, and *Br-C*) resulting from RNAi-mediated knockdown of CBP in *T. castaneum*. Molting was delayed in pre-metamorphic German cockroaches (*Blattella germanica*) treated with double-stranded CBP (dsCBP); they experienced a reduced food intake and downregulation of *E75a/b* and *HR3* (Fernandez-Nicolas and Belles, 2016). Although CBP could be affecting molting directly via ecdysone response genes, it is plausible that the delay resulted from CBP acting indirectly through TGF- β and/or JH signaling. Fernandez-Nicolas and Belles (2016) reported that the downregulation of CBP disrupted the normal *Kr-h1* decline and increase of *E93*. When dsCBP- treated *B. germanica* individuals were treated with JH, the abrogated the normal increase in *Kr-h1* expression and reduced the expression of *E93*, suggesting that CBP may be an activator to *Kr-h1*, *E93*, or both (Fernandez-Nicolas and Belles, 2016). Furthermore, Wu et al. (2021) showed that PKC α phosphorylation of *Kr-h1* in juveniles

can recruit CtBP, thereby repressing *E93*. while in adults, phosphorylation recruits CBP and enhances vitellogenesis-related genes.

Research rationale

Research objective, specific aims, and hypothesis

The goal of this research project is to examine the role of MF in the regulation of the YO. More specifically, how does the MF–MEKRE93 transcriptional cascade affect ecdysteroid production thus contributing to the YO transition from the committed-to-repressed state and the repressed-to-basal state? It is hypothesized that MF acts through the Met receptor, but the effects of MF on YO ecdysteroid synthesis are determined by hemolymph titers of 20-E. At low levels 20-E, such as in IM animals, MF stimulates ecdysteroidogenesis and contributes to YO activation. At high levels of 20-E when the YO is committed, such as in MP and LP animals, MF inhibits ecdysteroidogenesis and contributes to YO repression. MF binding to Met is hypothesized to translocate to the nucleus and thereby bind to a response element in the promoter region of the *Kr-h1* gene. At high hemolymph 20-E levels *Kr-h1* inhibits *E93* transcription, resulting in the downregulation of ecdysone response genes and the Halloween genes. *Kr-h1* expression also may be enhanced by *CBP*, thereby further downregulating ecdysone response genes. At low hemolymph 20-E levels, *Kr-h1* is downregulated as a result of *CtBP* expression. Suppression of *Kr-h1* stimulates *E93* transcription, resulting in upregulation of ecdysone response genes and Halloween genes. The different interaction between *Kr-h1* and *E93*, and/or with other ecdysone-response genes may be due to the presence of other transcription factors or/and comediators (e.g. *CtBP* and *CBP*) (Figure 1.6).

To address this objective, the components of the MF–MEKRE93 transcriptional cascade and associated transcriptional comediators were identified and characterized (Aim 1; Chapter 2). Additionally, the YO responsiveness to MF and JH analogs was determined through *in vitro* cultures (Aim 2; Chapter 2). In the last aim, components involved in the MF synthetic pathway were identified and characterized (Aim 3; Chapter 3).

Meet the model organisms

Adult male crabs from two brachyuran crab species, the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) and the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) were used for these studies. The similarities and differences between the two brachyuran species are compared in Figure 1.7.

The blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*), a terrestrial species that inhabits tropical, habitats native to the shorelines of Caribbean islands and Bermuda, molts once annually as adult (Bliss, 1968, 1979; Skinner, 1985b). An advantage of using a terrestrial species is that it does not require an aquatic environment and thus is relatively easy to maintain in the lab (Bliss, 1968, 1979; Skinner, 1985b, 1985a). In particular, *G. lateralis* serves as an excellent model species to study molt regulation, as molting can be experimentally induced. Eyestalk ablation (ESA) is an effective molt induction method, as the removal of the eyestalks eliminates the primary source of MIH, which is synthesized in the XO (Hopkins, 2012; Mykles, 2024). An alternative, a more natural, method to induce molting is through multiple leg autotomy (MLA), which involves removal of five to eight walking legs (Skinner and Graham, 1972; Skinner, 1985b, 1985a; Mykles, 2001, 2024). The molt stage can be determined by measuring the regeneration index (R-index or value), which is calculated by the [limb regenerate length (mm) x 100]/carapace width

(mm)] (Skinner, 1962, 1985b; Skinner and Graham, 1972; Holland and Skinner, 1976; Hopkins, 1982; Yu et al., 2002; Covi et al., 2010).

G. lateralis were collected in the Dominican Republic and shipped by air freight to Colorado State University (CSU) in Fort Collins, Colorado. Animals were kept in an environmental chamber at 27 °C and 75-80% relative humidity under a twelve-hour: light-dark cycle (Bliss and Boyer, 1964; Bliss et al., 1966b; Bliss, 1968; Covi et al., 2010). The land crabs were housed in large, plastic communal enclosures with Tekland Envigo Aspen Bedding Laboratory Grade #7093 shavings saturated with 5 parts per thousand (ppt) Instant Ocean®. Animals were fed twice a week on a diet consisting of lettuce, carrots, and calcium-coated raisins. Before any experimental testing or tissue harvesting was conducted, the blackback land crabs were acclimated to the lab setting for one month while the third right leg was autotomized to monitor any potential spontaneous molting (Covi et al., 2009).

Carcinus maenas is a marine species native in the eastern North Atlantic and has invaded temperate coastal and estuarine habitats all over the world (Ens et al., 2022). Unlike *G. lateralis*, both ESA and MLA do not induce molting in *C. maenas*. In some *C. maenas* populations, green color morphs invest more energy towards molting, whereas red morphs invest more energy in reproduction (Abuhagr et al., 2014; Mykles, 2024). There is a large, well-established green crab population in Bodega Harbor (Bodega Bay, California), which provided a large number of animals for determining the effects of MF and JH-mimics on YO ecdysteroid secretion *in vitro* (Aim 2; Chapter 2). *C. maenas* were trapped in Bodega Harbor and maintained at the UC Davis Bodega Marine Laboratory (BML) in a flowing sea water system at ambient water temperatures (12–15 °C). For both brachyuran species, the molt stage was determined using the R-value, presence or absence of the membranous layer of the exoskeleton, and the

concentration of 20-E quantified with a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) as described and modified by Kingan (1989) and Abuhagr et al. (2014), respectively.

Summary

The main purpose of this research is to provide a greater understanding of the physiological transitions of the crustacean molting gland (Y-organ) by the endocrine crosstalk between the MF and ecdysone signaling pathways. The role of MF in ecdysteroid production depend on the level of ecdysteroids present in the hemolymph (Figure 1.6). Although the MO is believed to be the primary source of MF, the identification and expression of transcripts of the MF-synthetic pathway in the YO suggests that these organs can also synthesize MF. The identification and expression of transcripts of the MF signaling (MEKRE93) pathway in the YO suggests that the function of this pathway extends beyond development and metamorphosis (as established in insects), but, also acts as a regulator of molting and growth. The interactions between these two endocrine pathways can reveal the underlying mechanisms that drive ecdysteroid synthesis and insight into how the YO enters and exits the repressed state.

Table 1.1. Top decapod crab, food commodity species and relevant nutritional studies.

Food commodity	Species	References	
King crab	<i>Paralithodes camtschaticus</i>	Dvoretzky et al., 2021 Ermolenko et al., 2023 Krzeczkowski et al., 1971 Latyshev et al., 2009 Latyshev et al., 2009	
	<i>Paralithodes platypus</i>	Latyshev et al., 2009 Latyshev et al., 2009	
	<i>Lithodes santolla</i>	Risso and Carelli, 2012	
Snow crab	<i>Chionoecetes opilio</i>	Vilaso-Martinez et al., 2007 Lauer et al., 1974 Addison et al., 1972 Latyshev et al., 2009	
	<i>Chionoecetes angulatus</i>	Latyshev et al., 2009	
	<i>Chionoecetes japonicus</i>	Latyshev et al., 2009	
	<i>Chionoecetes bairdi</i>	Krzeczkowski and Stone, 1974	
Soft shell crab	<i>Portunus sanguinolentus</i>	Wilson et al., 2017 Sudhakar et al., 2009	
	<i>Portunus pelagicus</i>	Wu et al., 2010 Pathak et al., 2021 Lu et al., 2020	
	<i>Portunus trituberculatus</i>	Lu et al., 2020 Chen et al., 2022 Yan et al., 2023a Huo et al., 2014 He et al., 2017a	
	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	Wan Yusof et al., 2020 Gao et al., 2023	
	<i>Scylla tranquebarica</i>	Sreelakshmi et al., 2016	
	<i>Scylla olivacea</i>	Ullah et al., 2020 Azra et al., 2020 Karim et al., 2024	
	<i>Scylla serrata</i>	Sreelakshmi et al., 2016 Sarower et al., 2013 Anas et al., 2009 Catacutan, 2002 Islam et al., 2022	
	<i>Callinectes sapidus</i>	Çelik et al., 2004 Zotti et al., 2016 Kuley et al., 2008 Tsai et al., 1984 Küçükgülmez et al., 2006	
	Other crabs	<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i>	Wang et al., 2018 Wang et al., 2020 Chen et al., 2007 Wu et al., 2020 Shao et al., 2013 Guo et al., 2015 Kong et al., 2012
		<i>Eriocheir japonica</i>	Ermolenko et al., 2023 Wang et al., 2020
<i>Cancer borealis</i>		Lauer et al., 1974	
<i>Cancer pagurus</i>		Barrento et al., 2009 Barrento et al., 2010 Zotti et al., 2016	
<i>Carcinus mediterraneus</i>		Cherif et al., 2008	
<i>Carcinus maenas</i>		Fulton and Fairchild, 2013 Skonberg and Perkins, 2002 Naczka et al., 2004	
	<i>Metacarcinus magister</i>	Allen, 1971	

Table 1.2. Ecdysteroid response genes in decapod crustaceans.

Infraorder	Scientific name	Early	Early-late	Late	References
Anomura	<i>Paralithodes camtschaticus</i>	Br-C, E75	HR3	Ftz-fl	Andersen et al., 2022
Brachyura	<i>Callinectes sapidus</i>		HR4		Legrand et al., 2021
	<i>Chionoecetes opilio</i>	Br-C, E75	HR3	Ftz-fl	Andersen et al., 2022
	<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i>	E75			Chen et al., 2023
	<i>Gecarcinus lateralis</i>	Br-C, E74, E75	HR3, HR4	Ftz-fl	Kim et al., 2005; Benrabaa et al., 2024
	<i>Oziothelphusa senex senex</i>	E75			Girish et al., 2015
	<i>Portunus trituberculatus</i>	E75, E93			Xie et al., 2016b; Ge et al., 2024
	<i>Scylla paramamosain</i>	E75			Gong et al., 2019
	<i>Scylla serrata</i>	E75			Girish et al., 2017
Astacidea	<i>Panulirus ornatus</i>	E75	E78, HR3, HR4, HR38	Ftz-fl	Hyde et al., 2019b
Achelata	<i>Homarus americanus</i>		HR3		Haj et al., 1997
	<i>Procambarus clarkii</i>	E74, E75			Zhu et al., 2017a, 2017b
Dendrobranchiata	<i>Fenneropenaeus chinensis</i>	E75			Priya et al., 2009, 2010
	<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i>	Br-C, E74, E75	E78	Ftz-fl	Qian et al., 2014; Wei et al., 2014; Gao et al., 2015
	<i>Metapenaeus ensis</i>	E75		Ftz-fl	Chan, 1998; Chan and Chan, 1999
	<i>Penaeus monodon</i>	Br-C, E74, E75		Ftz-fl	Buaklin et al., 2011, 2013; Zhou et al., 2019; Si et al., 2022
Caridea	<i>Macrobrachium nipponense</i>		HR4	Ftz-fl	Yuan et al., 2021b, 2022
	<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i>	E75	HR3		Guo et al., 2023
	<i>Neocaridina denticulata</i>	Br-C			Sin et al., 2015

Table 1.3. Comparison of the histology and ultrastructure of the crustacean mandibular organ (MO) and the Y-organ (YO).

	Mandibular organ (MO)	Both MO and YO	Y-organ (YO)
Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Large cell size, with centered nuclei containing ample cytoplasm, generally arranged in clusters ▪ Site of MF production ▪ Identified by Le Roux (1968) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Vascularized endocrine glands ▪ Contains an extensive smooth endoplasmic reticulum and abundant in mitochondria ▪ Located in the cephalothorax ▪ Experiences ultrastructural changes (e.g. hypertrophy) throughout the molt cycle and/or reproductive cycles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Relatively small cell size, with peripherally located nuclei, tightly packed together ▪ Site of ecdysteroid production ▪ Identified by Gabe (1953)
Species & References	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Barytelphusa cunicularis</i> (Gopal et al., 2018) ▪ <i>Callinectes sapidus</i> (Yudin et al., 1980) ▪ <i>Libinia emargnata</i> (Hinsch, 1977) ▪ <i>Homarus americanus</i> (Byard et al., 1975) (Borst et al., 1994) ▪ <i>Penaeus japonicus</i> (Taketomi and Kawano, 1985) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Carcinus maenas</i> (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980) ▪ <i>Hemigrapsus nudus</i> (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980) ▪ <i>Procambarus clarkii</i> (Taketomi and Nakano, 2007) ▪ <i>Palaemon paucidens</i> (Aoto et al., 1974) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Scylla olivacea</i> (Achdiat et al., 2024) ▪ <i>Portunus trituberculatus</i> (Taketomi and Hyodo, 1986) ▪ <i>Cancer antennarius</i> (Hinsch et al., 1980) ▪ <i>Travancoriana schirnerae</i> (Ayanath and Raghavan, 2021) (Smija and Sudha Devi, 2016) ▪ <i>Libinia emargnata</i> (Hinsch and Hajj, 1975)

Table 1.4. Tissue distribution of farnesoic acid O-methyl transferase (FAMeT) transcripts identified in decapod crustaceans. Abbreviations: Br, brain; CNS, central nervous system; Ep, epidermis; EG, eyestalk ganglia; Gi, gill; Hc, hemocytes; Hp, hepatopancreas; Ht, heart; In, intestine; MO, mandibular organ; Mu, muscle; NC, nerve cord; Ov, ovary; St, stomach; Te, testis; TG, thoracic ganglion, and YO, Y-organ.¹

Species	Gene #	Br	CNS	Ep	EG	Gi	Hc	Hp	Ht	In	MO	Mu	NC	Ov	St	Te	TG	YO
Brachyura																		
<i>Cancer pagurus</i> ^a	1			X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X				
<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i> ^b	1					X		X	X	X				X	X			
<i>Portunus pelagicus</i> ^c	3	X		X	X						X	X						X
<i>Portunus trituberculatus</i> ^d	1					X		X	X		X	X		X		X	X	X
<i>Scylla olivacea</i> ^e	1										X							
<i>Scylla paramamosain</i> ^f	3	X			X	X		X	X		X	X		X	X			X
	1*	X		X		X	X	X	X		X	X		X				X
Astacidea																		
<i>Homarus americanus</i> ^g	1										X	X						
<i>Procambarus clarkii</i> ^h	1				X				X		X	X	X					
Dendrobranchiata																		
<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i> ⁱ	2				X			X	X			X	X					
<i>Metapenaeus ensis</i> ^{h,j}	1			X	X			X	X		X	X	X	X		X		
<i>Penaeus chinensis</i> ^k	1				X	X	X	X	X			X		X		X		
<i>Penaeus indicus</i> ^l	1		X		X			X	X	X		X		X				
<i>Penaeus monodon</i> ^m	2													X				
Caridea																		
<i>Exopalaemon carinicauda</i> ⁿ	1				X	X	X	X		X		X		X	X			
<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i> ^o	1			X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X			X	X		
<i>Neocaridina denticulata</i> ^p	1				X	X		X	X	X		X		X		X		

¹ Asterisk (*) indicates the FAMeT containing one methyltransferase domain and one DM9-repeat containing domain of unknown function (DUF) that differs from the conventional FAMeT with two methyltransferase domains. The presence of the FAMeT transcript in which gonadal tissue in *P. chinensis* was not specified and thereby both Ov and Te are denoted. References: ^aRuddell et al., 2003; ^bChen et al., 2021; ^cKuballa et al., 2007; ^dXie et al., 2013, 2015; ^eSunarti et al., 2016; Tahya et al., 2016; ^fYang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2018; ^gHolford et al., 2004; ^hGunawardene et al., 2003; ⁱHui et al., 2008; ^jGunawardene et al., 2001, 2002; ^kLi et al., 2013; ^lSaikrithi et al., 2019; ^mBuaklin et al., 2015; ⁿDuan et al., 2014; ^oQian and Liu, 2019; ^pLiu et al., 2022.

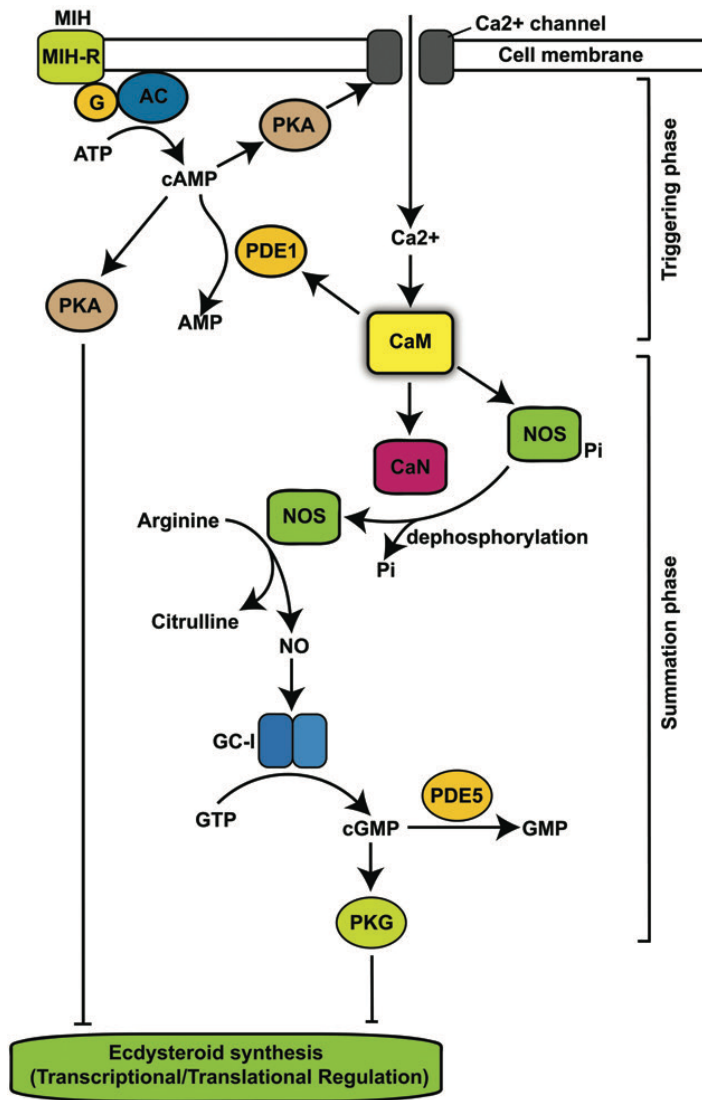


Figure 1.1. Proposed molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH) signaling pathway mediating the crustacean molting gland and ecdysteroidogenesis. The “triggering phase” is initiated by binding of MIH to its receptor (MIH-R), a hypothesized GPCR. Activation of adenylyl cyclase (AC)/cAMP increases intracellular Ca^{2+} via cAMP-dependent protein kinase (PKA) phosphorylation of Ca^{2+} channels. MIH sensitivity differs across the molt cycle and is determined by phosphodiesterase 1 (PDE1) activity. Calmodulin (CaM) connects the “triggering phase” to the “summation phase”. The summation phase is mediated by NO and cGMP through the activation of NO synthase (NOS) by calcineurin (CaN), both directly and indirectly. CaN dephosphorylates NOS which can prolong the MIH response. Additionally, CaM can activate PDE1 to inhibit the triggering phase; PDE1 can hydrolyze cGMP and thereby inhibiting the “summation phase”. cGMP-dependent protein kinase (PKG) inhibits ecdysteroidogenesis. From Covi et al. (2012).

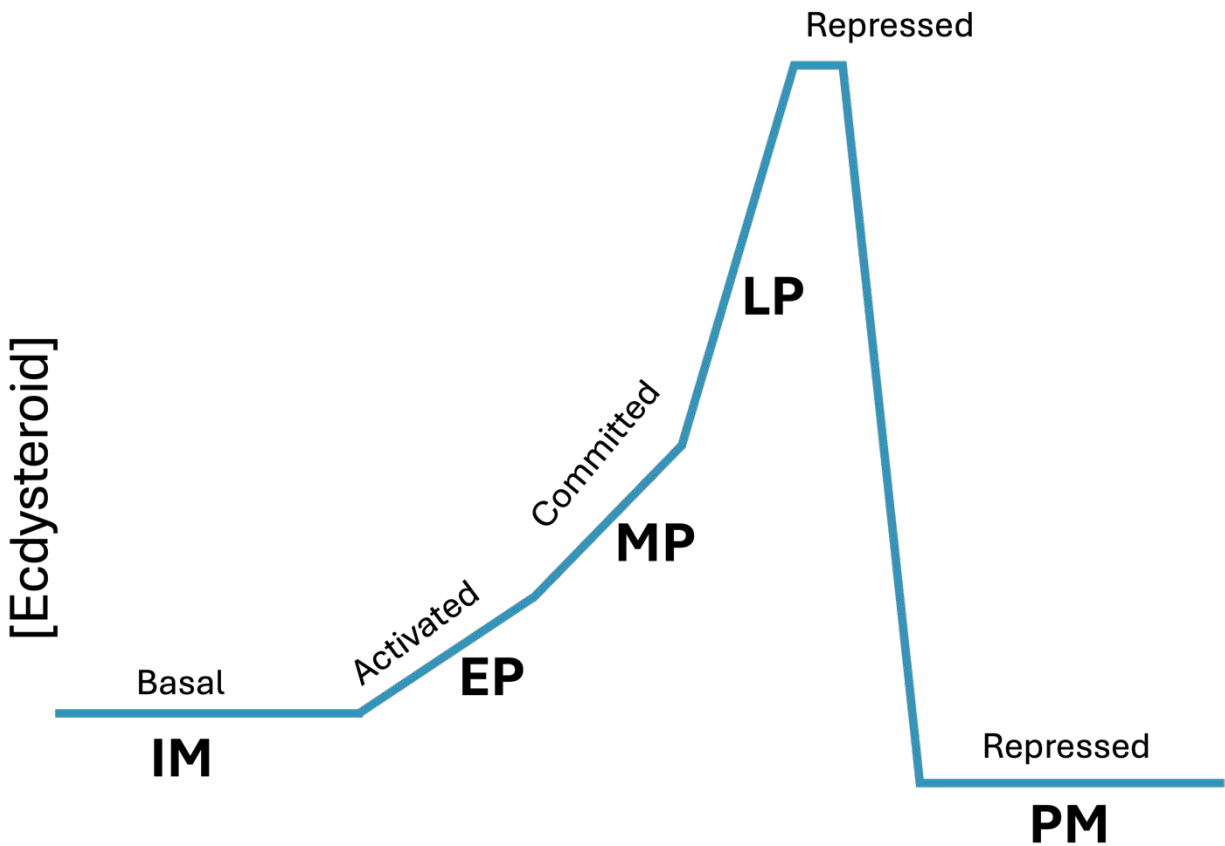


Figure 1.2. Schematic illustration of the Y-organ (YO) phenotypic status and hemolymph ecdysteroid concentration throughout the molt cycle. As ecdysteroid levels increase throughout the progression of molting, the YO transitions through four physiological states: basal in intermolt (IM), activated in early premolt (EP), committed in mid premolt (MP) and late premolt (LP), and repressed in the later phases of LP and post molt (PM). Modified from Chang and Mykles (2011).

Figure 1.3.

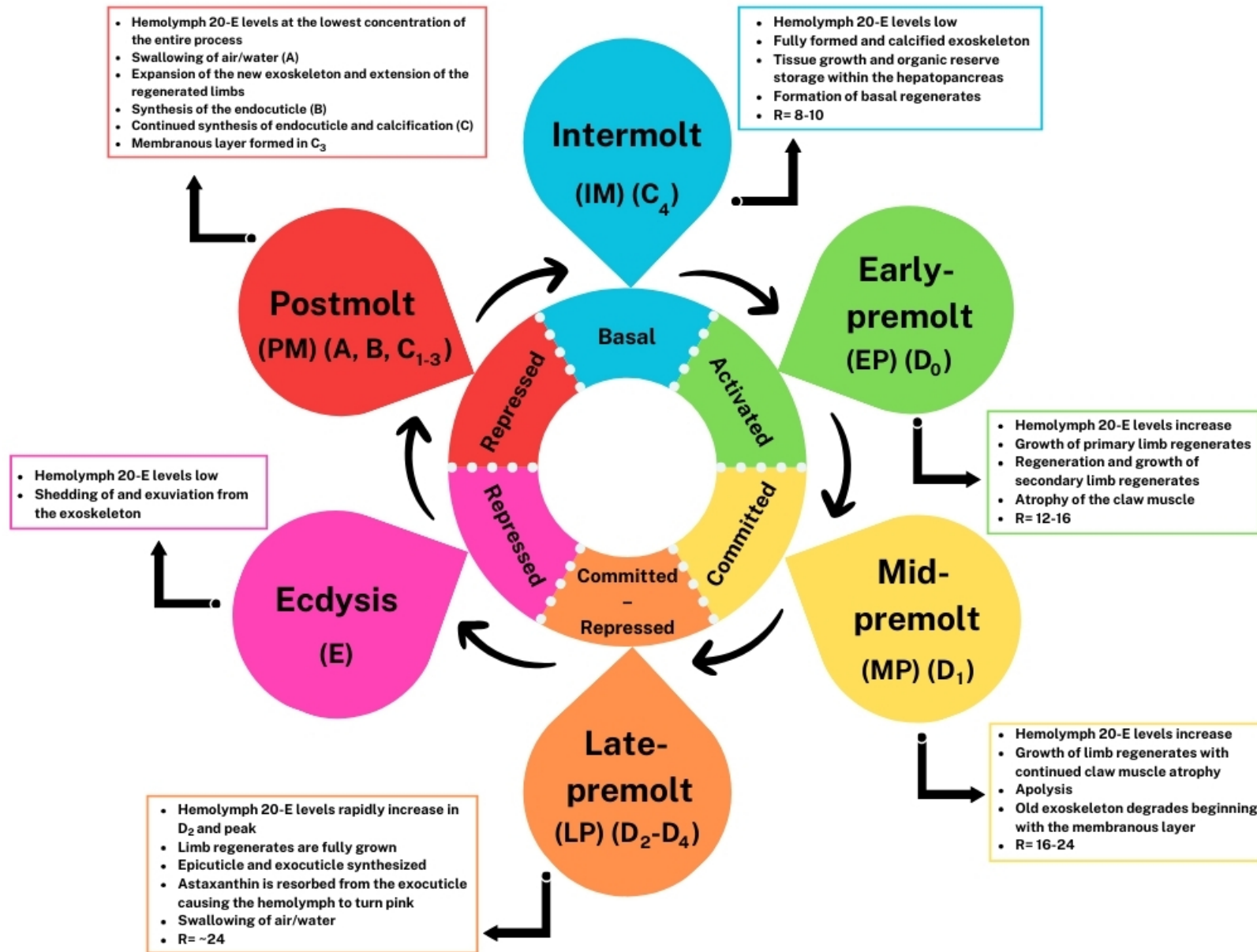


Figure 1.3. The general molt cycle and description of events as described in *G. lateralis* (Skinner, 1962; Mykles and Chang, 2020). Progression throughout the molt stages can be tracked by measuring the growth of the limb regenerates, or regeneration index (R-index) (Holland and Skinner, 1976; Yu et al., 2002).

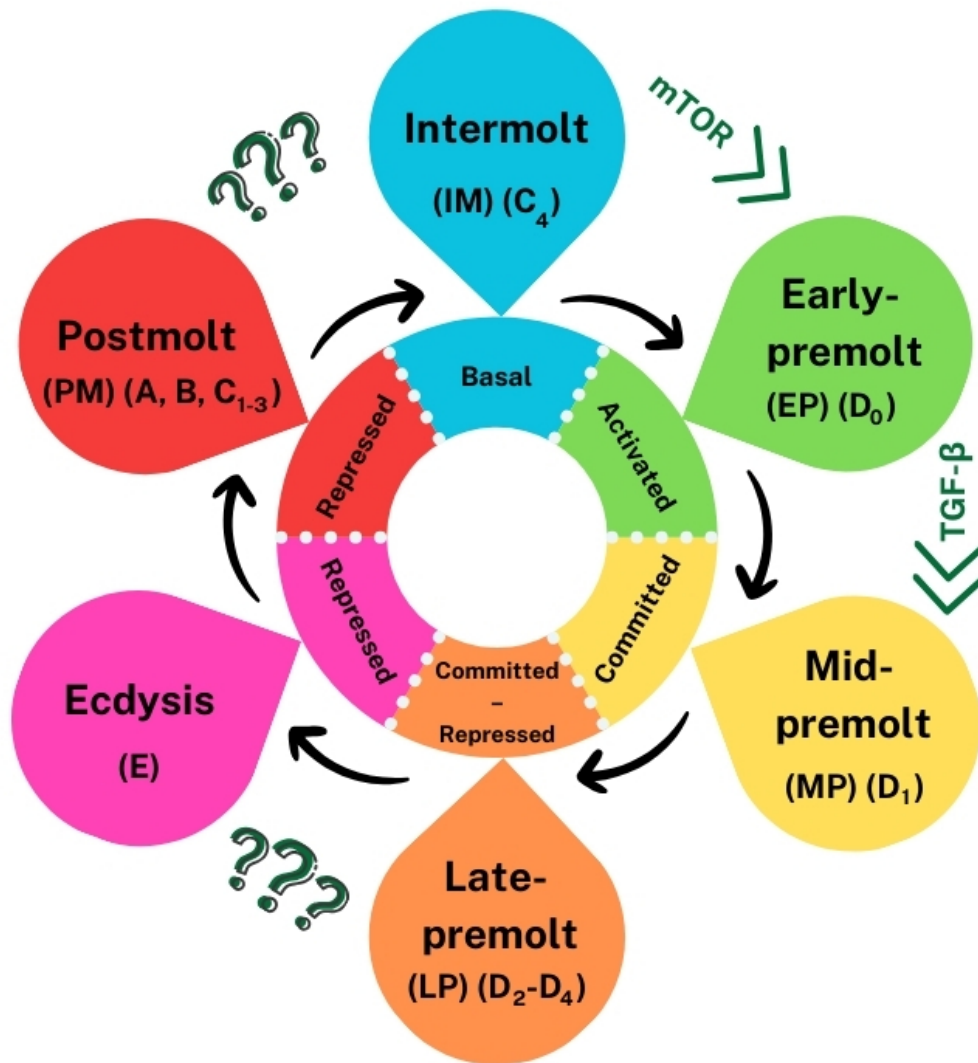


Figure 1.4. Signaling pathways associated with different stages of the crustacean molt cycle. The activation of the Y-organ (YO) is regulated through the mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1) signaling, while YO commitment is driven by the Transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β)/activin-myostatin pathway. The YO transition from the committed-to-repressed state coincides with the peak in hemolymph 20-E titer in late premolt (LP). The YO transition from the repressed back to the basal state is proposed to occur at the end of postmolt (PM), when the synthesis and calcification of the new exoskeleton is complete.

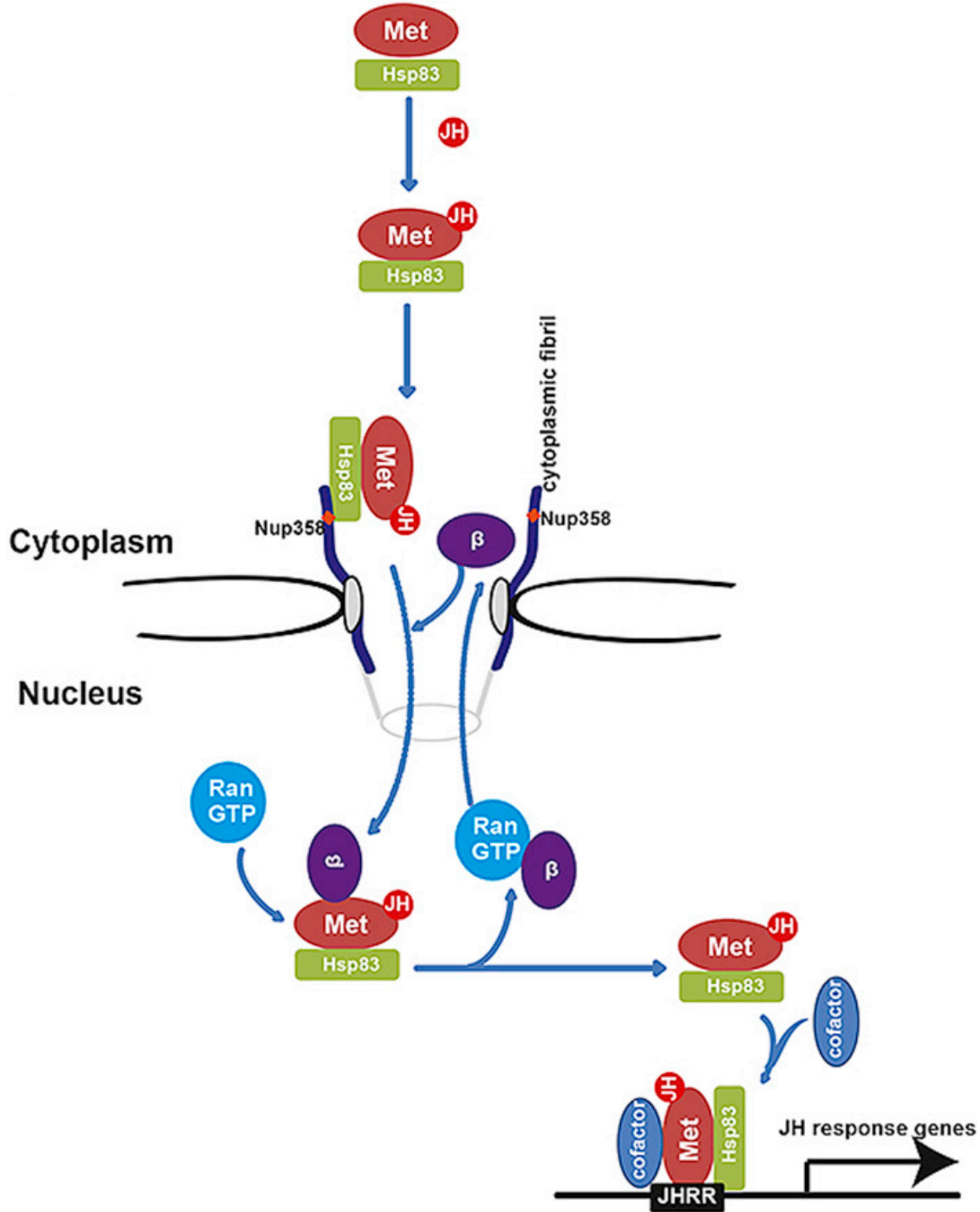


Figure 1.5. Proposed model of juvenile hormone (JH) signaling through Methoprene tolerant (Met) nuclear import. Importin β transports the Met receptor complex as a result of heat shock protein 83 (Hsp83) binding to the Nucleoporin 358 (Nup358) and the recognition of the nuclear localization signal (NLS). RanGTP binding to importin β dissociates the receptor complex thereby allowing Met to bind to JH primary response genes, such as Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1). From He et al. (2017).

Figure 1.6

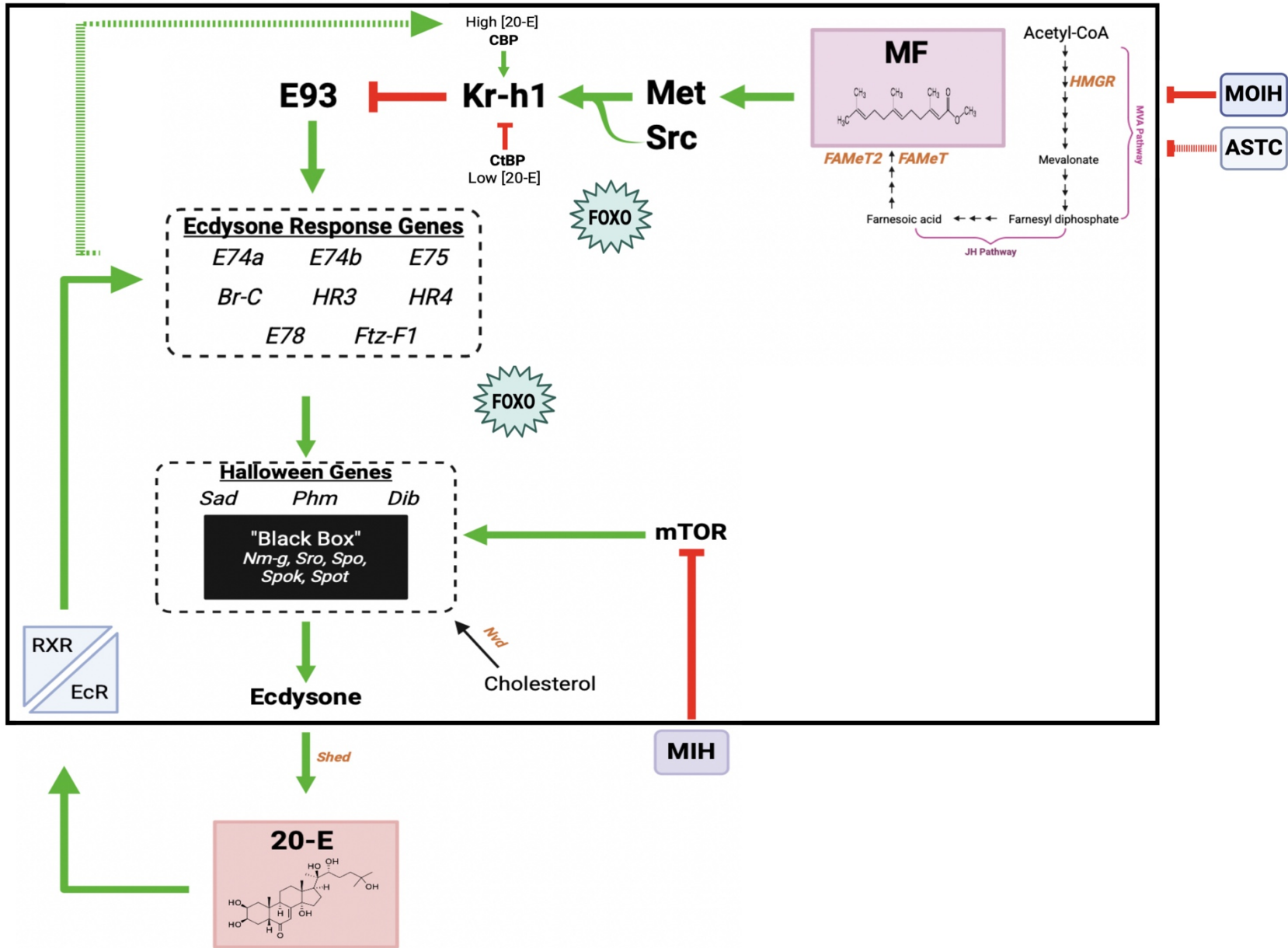


Figure 1.6. Mediation of ecdysteroidogenesis through the methyl farnesoate (MF) transcriptional cascade of Methoprene tolerant (Met) – Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) – Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) in the Y-organ (YO). MF is proposed to act as an autocrine factor to regulate the endocrine cross talk with 20-E as the genes encoding for the synthetic enzymes were identified including *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase (HMGR)* and *farnesoic acid O-methyltransferase (FAMeT)*. MF biosynthesis is inhibited by mandibular-organ inhibiting hormone (MOIH) and potentially Allatostatin C (ASTC). High hemolymph titers of 20-E, such as in mid and/or late premolt (MP and/or LP) inhibit 20-E synthesis thus leading to the transition from a committed to repressed state. By contrast, low 20-E titers in the hemolymph, such as in intermolt (IM) when the YO is in a basal or repressed state, stimulate the YO ecdysteroid production. Although molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH) inhibits ecdysteroid synthesis through the mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1), MF is proposed to act as an autocrine factor acting through the action of Kr-h1, mediated by transcriptional corepressor C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP) and/or CREB-binding protein (CBP), facilitating the expression of the ecdysone response genes and in turn the ecdysteroid biosynthetic genes. Ecdysteroidogenesis may further be impacted at a transcriptional level with the consideration to the transcription factor forkhead box O (FOXO) which has been implicated in both MF and 20-E pathways.

Taxonomy

Clade Panarthropoda
Phylum Arthropoda
Subphylum Mandibulata
Clade Pancrustacea
Superclass Altocrustacea
Clade Multicrustacea
Class Malacostraca
Order Decapoda
Infraorder Brachyura



Gecarcinus lateralis

MLA/ESA effective for molt induction

Terrestrial, subtropical and tropical habitats along the western Atlantic coast (north of the Equator) and Caribbean islands

Opportunistic omnivores (primarily herbivorous)

Lifespan: ~4-6 years

Carapace: 10 cm in width and is primarily red with the dorsal side a deep-purple (appearing to be black)



Carcinus maenas

MLA/ESA ineffective for molt induction

Invasive; native to northwestern Europe and Africa

Eurythermal, euryhaline, opportunistic predators

Lifespan: ~3 years (females) and ~5 years (males); ~4-7 years

Carapace: 6-10 cm in width with 5 marginal teeth per side and exhibits green, yellow, orange, brown, or red morphology

Figure 1.7. Characteristics of the two model organisms, the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) and the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*), incorporated in the following research studies

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CHAPTER 2

METHYL FARNESOATE SIGNALING GENE NETWORK AS A TRANSCRIPTIONAL REGULATOR OF ECDYSTEROIDOGENESIS IN THE DECAPOD MOLTING GLAND (Y-ORGAN)

Abstract

In insects, the Methoprene tolerant–Krüppel homolog 1– E93 (MEKRE93) transcriptional cascade is induced by juvenile hormone (JH) to repress ecdysteroid synthesis in the prothoracic gland (PG). Methyl farnesoate (MF) is acknowledged as the crustacean JH with various physiological roles, including morphogenesis, metamorphosis, reproduction, and molting. Previous reports have demonstrated that MF stimulates ecdysteroid production in the Y-organ (YO) and thereby accelerates molting. It is hypothesized that MF acting on the MEKRE93 signaling genes regulate YO ecdysteroidogenesis.

MF signaling genes, consisting of *Methoprene tolerant (Met)*, *Steroid receptor coactivator (Src)*, *Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1)*, and *Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93)*, and transcriptional comediators *CREB-binding protein (CBP)* and *C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP)* were identified in the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO transcriptomes. Phylogenetic and sequence analysis showed that this transcriptional cascade was highly conserved across pancrustacean species. *Met* and *Src* were classified as basic helix-loop-helix, Period- Aryl hydrocarbon nuclear translocator, Single minded protein (bHLH–PAS) transcription factors (TFs); *Kr-h1* was classified as a C2H2 zinc finger TF with seven zinc finger motifs; and *E93* was classified as a helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_Psq) TF. Analysis of *C. maenas* YO RNA-seq data showed that *Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, *E93*,

CBP, *CtBP* were expressed at all the molt stages. Analysis of *G. lateralis* YO RNA-seq data showed that expression of *Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, *E93*, *CBP*, *CtBP* was upregulated in intermolt (IM) and decreased during premolt, with little to no expression by postmolt. *In vitro* assays revealed that exposure to JH-mimics affected the ability of the YO to respond to produce ecdysteroids. These cultures indicated that the YOs *in vitro* required a high concentration to elicit a response and after 48-hours ecdysteroid secretion is complete. These cultures also revealed that even within the same infraorder, the YOs from two brachyuran species exhibited differential effects to the same compound treatment and the sensitivity may change over time. Molt stage is also a factor that was shown to impact YO responsiveness to the compounds.

These data show that the YO has a functional MEKRE93 signaling system. A model is proposed that links MF signaling with ecdysteroid synthesis. Transcriptional control of *Kr-h1* is mediated by co-activator *CBP* and co-repressor *CtBP* under high and low 20-hydroxyecdysone conditions, respectively.

Introduction

Crustacean molting is driven by the increase hemolymph titers of 20-hydroxyecdysone (20-E), a steroid hormone produced by the Y-organs (YO) (Skinner, 1985b; Chang, 1993; Mykles, 2024). The binding of 20-E to the ecdysone receptor/retinoid X receptor (EcR/RXR) complex activates a transcriptional cascade of ecdysone response genes in target tissues (Spindler et al., 2009; Hyde et al., 2019a; Mazina and Vorobyeva, 2019; Benrabaa et al., 2024; Mykles, 2024). Numerous studies have shown that ecdysone-directed physiological processes, such as reproduction, development, and metamorphosis, in pancrustaceans are regulated by the crosstalk between the ecdysteroid and juvenile hormone (JH) signaling pathways (Mu and LeBlanc, 2004; Jindra et al., 2013; Li et al., 2018a; Liu et al., 2018; Adhitama et al., 2020).

Methyl farnesoate (MF) is a sesquiterpenoid hormone, identified by Laufer et al. (1987a) produced by the crustacean mandibular organ (MO) (Laufer et al., 1987b; Tobe et al., 1989a). MF is nicknamed ‘the crustacean JH’ as it is structurally the unepoxidated form of JH III and shares similar physiological roles in crustaceans as JH does in insects (Borst et al., 1987a; Homola and Chang, 1997c; Laufer and Biggers, 2001; Nagaraju, 2007). MF has been shown to stimulate gonad growth and maturation in the ridgeback shrimp (*Sicyonia ingentis*), the whiteleg shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*), the orange mud crab (*Scylla olivacea*), the freshwater crab *Travancoriana schirnerae*, and the Indian rice field crab (*Oziotelphusa senex senex*) (Reddy and Ramamurthi, 1998; Kalavathy et al., 1999; Reddy et al., 2004; Paran et al., 2010; Alnawafleh et al., 2014; Devi et al., 2018; Muhd-Farouk et al., 2019). In the case of the Australian freshwater crayfish (*Cherax quadricarinatus*), MF had no reproductive effect on wintering females (Abdu et al., 2001). MF has also been reported to impacts morphogenesis in some species such as in the red swamp crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) and spider crabs (*Libinia emarginata*) (Rotllant et al., 2000; Laufer et al., 2005). Laufer et al. (2002) revealed that the balance between MF ecdysteroids determine the morphogenetic effects in allometric growth. Allometric growth in the spider crab was stimulated with ecdysteroids and a low MF concentration but allometric growth was inhibited when ecdysteroid and MF was high (Laufer et al., 2002). In context the development and metamorphosis, MF delayed larval development and metamorphosis in the giant freshwater prawn (*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) and the kuruma prawn (*Marsupenaeus japonicus*) while induced precocious metamorphosis in the acorn barnacle *Balanus amphitrite* (Yamamoto et al., 1997; Abdu et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2000; Toyota et al., 2020b). As adults, MF accelerated molting in wintering *C. quadricarinatus* and stimulated molting in *L. vannamei* and *T. schirnerae* (Abdu et al., 2001; Alnawafleh et al., 2014; Raghavan and Ayanath, 2019).

Tamone and Chang (1993) demonstrated that MF stimulates the Dungeness crab (*Metacarcinus magister*) YO ecdysteroidogenesis *in vitro* at high concentrations (e.g., 1.0 μ M and 10.0 μ M) primarily after 24-hours of exposure. These results suggest MF mediates the YO secretion of 20-E (Tamone and Chang, 1993b). Despite these reported accounts, the underlying mechanism of MF remains unknown and thereby is “cursed” (Fingerman, 1997).

In insects, JH induces the Methoprene tolerant (Met)– Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1)– Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93), or MEKRE93, transcriptional cascade to inhibit ecdysone response gene expression, and consequently ecdysteroid synthesis, to regulate insect development metamorphosis (Belles and Santos, 2014; Li et al., 2018a; Belles, 2019; Martín et al., 2021). Methoprene tolerant (Met) is a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), Period (Per)- Aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear translocator (ARNT)- Single minded (Sim) (bHLH–PAS) transcription factor and is the accepted JH (and MF) receptor (Miura et al., 2005; Charles et al., 2011; Bernardo and Dubrovsky, 2012; Zhao et al., 2014; Kolonko et al., 2016). Heat shock protein 83 (Hsp83) is a chaperone protein that assists in JH binding to the PAS-B domain of Met, or the ligand binding domain (LBD) (He et al., 2014, 2017b). The interaction between Hsp83 and nucleoporin 358 (Nup358) tetratricopeptide repeat (TPR) domains tethers the Met receptor complex to the nuclear pore complex (NPC) (He et al., 2014, 2017b). Upon recognition, the transport receptor importin β binds to the Met nuclear localization signal (NLS) thereby transporting the entire Met receptor complex through the NPC (He et al., 2014, 2017b). In the nucleus, the receptor complex dissociates due to a high concentration of RanGRP binding to importin β thus allowing the Met receptor complex, along with recruited cofactors such as steroid receptor coactivator (Src), to bind to JH response regions on the promoter region of Kr-h1 (Zhang et al., 2011; He et al., 2014, 2017b). Kr-h1 is a C2H2 zinc finger (Zf) transcription factor

encompassing seven or eight Zf repeats in crustaceans and insects, respectively (Pecasse et al., 2000b; Xie et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2019a; Li et al., 2021c; He and Zhang, 2022). *E93* is a helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_Psq) transcription factor and is conventionally classified as an early ecdysone response gene (Baehrecke and Thummel, 1995; Siegmund and Lehmann, 2002; Mou et al., 2012; Lam et al., 2022). *Kr-h1* has been reported to repress *E93* expression and/or other ecdysone response targets, such as Broad Complex (Br-C) (Minakuchi et al., 2008; Lozano and Belles, 2011; Kayukawa et al., 2012, 2017; Ureña et al., 2014, 2016; Liu et al., 2015b; Li et al., 2018b; Chafino et al., 2019; Kamsoi and Belles, 2020; Suzuki et al., 2021; He and Zhang, 2022; Fernandez-Nicolas et al., 2023). Although *Kr-h1* is a transcriptional repressor, its effect on *E93* expression may be impacted by the transcriptional comediators CBP, or CREB (cyclic adenosine monophosphate response element-binding protein)–binding protein, and C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP) (Wu et al., 2021).

Nonetheless, *Met* is also acknowledged to be the crustacean MF receptor (Miyakawa et al., 2013; Kakaley et al., 2017; Hirano et al., 2020). In the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*) and the gazami crab (*Portunus trituberculatus*), *Kr-h1* is downstream of *Met* and MF stimulates vitellogenin synthesis in the hepatopancreas by upregulating the expression of *Met* and *Kr-h1* (Liu et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021c, 2021b). Additionally, the *E93* ortholog was identified in *P. trituberculatus* was shown to be induced by 20-E and suppressed by MF (Ge et al., 2024).

To better understand the role of MF in regulating YO ecdysteroidogenesis, the MF-MEKRE93 cascade in crustaceans was investigated. *Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, *E93*, *CBP*, and *CtBP* were characterized in the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO transcriptomes. The mRNA transcript levels were profiled for each

MF-MEKRE93 signaling gene across the different stages of the molt cycle. *In vitro* assays determined the effects of MF and JH-mimics on YO ecdysteroid secretion. The results show that the YO expresses a functional MEKRE93 signaling cascade that is linked to ecdysteroid synthesis.

Materials and Methods

Animals

Adult male green shore crabs (*Carcinus maenas*) were collected from Bodega Harbor, Bodega Bay, California and housed at the UC Davis Bodega Marine Laboratory in a flowing seawater system at ambient temperature (11 to 14 °C) (Abuhagr et al., 2014). The YOs were harvested from the animals for *in vitro* YO assays within two weeks from collection.

Adult male blackback land crabs (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) were collected from the Dominican Republic and shipped by air cargo to Fort Collins, Colorado. Animals were housed at Colorado State University (CSU) in an environmental chamber maintained at 27 °C at 75-80% relative humidity under a 12-hour dark:12-hour light cycle (Bliss and Boyer, 1964; Bliss, 1968). The crabs were communally kept in plastic cages with Tekland Envigo Aspen Bedding Laboratory Grade #7093 shavings saturated with 5 parts per thousand (ppt) Instant Ocean® deionized water. Crabs were fed twice a week on a diet consisting of lettuce, carrots, and raisins coated with calcium powder. The third right walking leg was autotomized to monitor for spontaneous molting (Covi et al., 2009). The animals were acclimated for one month before experiments or tissue harvesting were conducted. Molting was induced by autotomy of eight walking legs, also referred to as multiple leg autotomy (MLA) or through eyestalk ablation (ESA) (Skinner, 1962, 1985b, 1985a; Skinner and Graham, 1972; Chang, 1985, 1993, 1995;

Chang et al., 1993; Lachaise et al., 1993). Progression through premolt was monitored by measuring the limb regenerate growth as determined by the regeneration index (R-index = [mm limb regenerate length x 100]/mm carapace width) (Bliss et al., 1966a; Hopkins, 1982). Molt stage was determined by the R-index; hemolymph 20-hydroxyecdysone (20-E) titer; presence of the membranous layer, the innermost layer of the exoskeleton; and the presence of gastroliths (Skinner, 1962, 1985a, 1985b; Hopkins, 1982; Chang, 1995; Yu et al., 2002).

On the day of tissue harvesting, 100 μ L of hemolymph was drawn using 22-gauge sterile, hypodermic needles from the randomly sampled individuals (e.g. color morph, size, presence of fungus/barnacles, and/or the number of limbs present). The hemolymph was combined with 300 μ L 100% methanol (MeOH) in O-ring microcentrifuge tubes, and vortexed to prevent coagulation (Gianazza et al., 2021). The 20-E concentration in the hemolymph and media samples were quantified with a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) as described by Kingan (1989) and modified by Abuhagr et al. (2014). The reagents used in the ELISA were AffiniPure™ Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG, Fc fragment-specific secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Inc. 111-005-008), and the SeraCare TMB Peroxidase Kit (Yu et al., 2002; Abuhagr et al., 2014).

Identification and characterization of MEKRE93 sequences

Previously identified and/or annotated protein sequences of MEKRE93 components were used as queries in the National Center for Biotechnology Information Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (NCBI BLAST) program to search for candidate genes in CrusTome, CrustyBase, CrusTF (crustacean transcription factor), CAT (a crustacean annotated transcriptome), and GenBank databases; identities were verified through a reciprocal BLAST search (Qin et al.,

2017; Zhang et al., 2019b; Hyde et al., 2020; Nong et al., 2020; Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023; Hyde and Ventura, 2024). Reference sequences and the BLAST hit queries were aligned with Multiple Alignment using Fast Fourier Transform (MAFFT) (v.7.490) including the *dash* parameter to refine the multiple sequence alignment (MSA) from the Database of Aligned Structural Homologs (DASH) (Kato and Toh, 2008; Yamada et al., 2016; Rozewicki et al., 2019). The MSAs were trimmed with ClipKIT using the *smart-gap* parameter to remove gaps, while preserving informative sites (Steenwyk et al., 2020). Phylogenetic analyses were inferred from the aligned protein sequences with the suitable model, as determined by ModelFinder following the Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) (Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017; Guindon, 2018). Maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees were constructed using IQ-Tree with the degree of branch support evaluated with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap iterations (UFBoot=1,000) (Hoang et al., 2017; Minh et al., 2020). The phylogenetic trees were then rooted and visualized in FigTree (v1.4.4) and Inkscape (Rambaut, 2010).

Conserved domains and residues were identified with the NCBI Conserved Domain Database (CDD) platform. Additional MSAs were executed using Mafft EINSI with default vacancy penalty scores and parameters on the Jalview (v.2.11) platform and subsequently trimmed with ClipKIT (Clamp et al., 2004; Kato and Toh, 2008; Waterhouse et al., 2009; Yamada et al., 2016; Steenwyk et al., 2020). Domain organizations were illustrated and annotated using Illustrator for Biological Sequences 2.0 (IBS 2.0) (Xie et al., 2022). Species taxonomic ranks were annotated according to the classifications defined by Giribet and Edgecombe (2019).

Differential gene expression (DGE)

C. maenas relative gene expression was acquired from the YO RNA-seq data generated by Oliphant et al. (2018) and assembled in the CrusTome database (v.0.1.0) (n = 5 biological replicates of paired YOs per molt stage) (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). Relative gene expression in the YOs was determined for *G. lateralis* using RNA-seq data from animals induced to molt by multiple leg autotomy (MLA) (n = pooled replicates of 3 animals each) (Das et al., 2018). Gene expression, measured as transcripts per million reads (TPM), was quantified using Salmon (v.1.7.0) with the “--seqBias --gcBias --validateMappings” parameters for quantitative accuracy and mitigation of possible biases. Transcript expression was graphed as mean TPM ± standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$).

YO *in vitro* assays

YOs from *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* were used to determine the effects of MF and JH-mimics on ecdysteroid secretion *in vitro*. One YO of each pair received the control to which the right and left YO were alternated in receiving the experimental or control treatment to minimize potential asymmetrical bias. Each YO was incubated in 500 µL Medium 199 (M199) (Sigma M0393; Lot 083K83201) that was modified with the appropriate crab saline solution to maintain proper osmotic pressure [*G. lateralis* saline with a sodium phosphate buffer: 316 mM sodium chloride (NaCl), 5.4mM potassium chloride (KCl), 10 mM HEPES, 6.8 mM magnesium sulfate heptahydrate (MgSO₄·7H₂O), and 8.8 mM calcium chloride dihydrate (CaCl₂·2H₂O); *C. maenas* saline: 430 mM NaCl, 5 mM potassium chloride (K₂SO₄), 10 mM HEPES, 7 mM magnesium sulfate hexahydrate (MgSO₄·6H₂O), and 4.5 mM calcium chloride dihydrate (CaCl₂·2H₂O)]. The

media was adjusted with 5 M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) achieve a pH of 7.4 and 7.2 in *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas*, respectively. The culture media was filtered through a sterile Corning Filter System Low Protein Binding, 0.22 µm cellulose acetate membrane (SKU#: 430626). The M199 was supplemented with 10 i.u./mL Penicillin (Calbiochem Penicillin G, potassium B grade; Lot 700844) and 10 µg/mL Streptomycin (Calbiochem Streptomycin, sulfate B grade; Lot 701865), to minimize bacterial growth (Tamone and Chang, 1993b; Covi et al., 2010). MF and the JH-mimics were solubilized in dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO) and added to the culture media with a 0.1% DMSO final concentration (Table A1).

Various concentrations of the JH-mimics were tested on *C. maenas* YO to determine the effects of concentration and incubation time on 20-E secretion (Tamone and Chang, 1993b). Relatively high concentrations compensated for the absence of MF binding proteins naturally found in the hemolymph (Prestwich et al., 1990, 1996; Li and Borst, 1991; King et al., 1995; Tamone et al., 1997; Takác et al., 1998; Zhao et al., 2020). Initially, *C. maenas* intermolt (IM) YO in the experimental treatment were exposed to media containing 0.1 µM, 1.0 µM, or 10.0 µM MF or a JH-mimic (pyriproxyfen, fenoxycarb, hydroprene, or methoprene), while the control YO were incubated in media with vehicle alone (0.1 % DMSO final concentration) (n = 10 IM crabs per tested compound at each concentration). The YO were incubated at room temperature in 18 flat-well sterile culture plates sealed with parafilm and shaken on an orbital shaker at 100 rotations per minute (rpm). Throughout the 48-hour incubation period, the YO were transferred to a new sterile culture plate with fresh media for each eight-hour interval while the media from the previous plate was transferred to O-ring microcentrifuge tubes. Media samples were stored at -20°C until the competitive ELISA analyses for 20-E secretion were performed.

The same experimental design was used on the *G. lateralis* YOs with modifications necessitated by the limited number of animals available (n = 10 IM crabs per tested compound and n = 6 MP crabs induced by multiple leg autotomy, or MLA, per tested compound). The modifications were informed by the results from the *C. maenas* experiments. Incubations used 10.0 μM MF and JH-mimics, as this concentration yielded the largest and most significant effects on YO ecdysteroid secretion. Pyriproxyfen was excluded, as this compound had no effect on *C. maenas* YO secretion. Furthermore, the MF media was supplemented with a 0.1% bovine serum albumin (BSA) heat shock fraction, pH 7 (Sigma-Aldrich; Lot: SLCH3830), which facilitates transport and delivery of lipophilic molecules (Riley et al., 1998; Paran et al., 2010).

Statistical analyses

Two tailed paired *t*-tests were applied independently for each chemical compound (fenoxycarb, hydroprone, methoprene, MF, and pyriproxyfen) at every combination of concentration (0.1 μM , 1 μM , and 10.0 μM) and time point (8, 16, 24, 32, and 48 hours) to examine the difference in the cumulative amount of 20-E synthesized for control and treated YOs in the same subject. For comparisons between the two species, as well as between intermolt (IM) and mid-premolt (MP) stages in *G. lateralis*, the data were analyzed using a linear model. The paired difference in the total amount of 20-E synthesized by a control and treated YO from the same individual crab was considered as the response variable and the chemical compound was the covariate of interest in the formula $Y_{ij1} - Y_{ij0} = \beta_j + \epsilon_{ij}$. In this setting, Y_{ijk} is the cumulative 20-E synthesized for the YO from the i^{th} crab within treatment status $k \in \{0,1\}$ and chemical status $j \in \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, referring to fenoxycarb, hydroprone, methoprene, and MF respectively. Thus, it follows that the response $Y_{ij1} - Y_{ij0}$, is the difference in 20-E synthesized

by the treated YO and the control YO from the same individual; β_j is the fixed effect for chemical j ; and ϵ_{ij} is the random variation in the paired difference in 20-E synthesized from the i^{th} crab in chemical group j . All visualizations were created using the ggplot2 package and arranged using the ggpubr and gridExtra packages in R.

Results

Identification of the MEKRE93 signaling genes

To investigate crustacean MF MEKRE93 signaling genes, BLAST inquiry analyses of YO transcriptomes and databases were performed using candidate genes, as indicated by the asterisk in the corresponding spreadsheet (found in the supplementary data on the online repository). Each contig identity was verified through reciprocal BLAST searches and included in supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. MEKRE93 signaling genes *Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, and *E93* along with transcriptional coregulators *CBP* and *CtBP* were identified across Clade Panarthropoda (Table 2.1). Contigs encoding MEKRE93 genes were identified in brachyuran YO transcriptomes accessed from the CrusTome database. In *G. lateralis*, complete sequences of *Gl-Met*, *Gl-Kr-h1*, *Gl-CBP*, and *Gl-CtBP* contigs and partial sequences of *Gl-Src* and *Gl-E93* contigs were identified in the YO transcriptome (Table 2.2). In *C. maenas*, complete *Cm-Kr-h1* and *Cm-E93* contigs and partial *Cm-Met*, *Cm-Src*, *Cm-CBP*, and *Cm-CtBP* contigs were identified in both YO and central nervous system (CNS) transcriptomes (Table 2.3).

Characterization of the MEKRE93 signaling genes

Phylogenetic trees were constructed and analyzed to validate and corroborate the BLAST results, while determining the evolutionary relationship of the MEKRE93 signaling genes in

panarthropod taxa. MEKRE93 protein sequences were further characterized by multiple sequence alignments (MSA) and annotation of conserved functional domains, motifs, and residues.

Methoprene tolerant (Met)

Met protein sequences were used to construct a maximum likelihood tree with the common house spider (*Parasteatoda tepidarum*) Met sequence as the outgroup. Phylogenetic analysis showed that the arthropod sequences were separated into the insect and crustacean divisions (Figure 2.1). Within each division, the sequences sorted along hierarchical taxonomic ranking of class, order, and infraorder. The only exceptions were the Met proteins from the two *Daphnia* species, crustaceans within Clade Allotriocarida, that were grouped amongst the insects (other members of Clade Allotriocarida) (Figure 2.1). The amphipod Met proteins were more phylogenetically divergent when compared to the other malacostracan orders, such as isopods and decapods (Figure 2.1). Decapod Met sequences segregated into two groups with one containing anomuran and brachyuran infraorders and the other containing astacuran and shrimp infraorders (Figure 2.1).

The domain organization of Met proteins in 18 decapod species is compared in Figure 2.2. This includes a full-length sequence from *G. lateralis* (Table 2.2; Figure A1) and a partial sequence from *C. maenas* (Table 2.3; Figure A2). Although the Met sequences varied across taxa, the N-terminal region had the same arrangement of three conserved domains: an N-terminal basic helix–loop–helix (bHLH) domain followed by two Period (Per)–Aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear transporter (Arnt)–Single-minded (Sim) A and B, or PAS-A and PAS-B domains, respectively (Figure 2.2). Decapod and amphipod Met orthologs were ~1K amino acids

in length, whereas the cladoceran and isopod Met orthologs were shorter in length (~690 amino acids and 766 amino acids, respectively; Figure A3). The lengths of decapod Met sequences were double that in some beetle species (Order Coleoptera) and *Bombyx mori* (Order Lepidoptera), while similar in length to some hemipterans (Figure A3).

MSAs of the decapod Met sequences showed that the three domains were highly conserved. The 55-amino acid bHLH domain had high amino acid identity among 19 species, including 10 residues involved in DNA binding (Figure 2.3). The PAS-A domain also had high sequence identity, including seven active site residues (Figure 2.4). By contrast, the PAS-B domain sequences varied among the decapod taxa, including substitutions at the fifth and eighth residues involved in JH binding in insects (Figure 2.5). The C-terminal region was less conserved, varying in length and amino acid sequence (Figure 2.2; supplementary data).

Steroid receptor complex (Src)

As shown in the strongly supported maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree, Src proteins segregated into insect and crustacean groups, with subclades organized along lower taxonomic hierarchy (Figure 2.6). In crustaceans, the Src proteins diverged at Class Branchiopoda (Orders Cladocera and Anostraca) and Class Malacostraca. No amphipod Src orthologs were identified. Multiple Src variants were identified in some decapod species, such as *Paratya australiensis* and *Bathypalaemonella serratipalma*, *Gastroptychus formosus*, and *Leptuca pugilator* (Figure 2.6; supplementary data). A Src sequence was only identified in one penaeid shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*) (Figure 2.6; supplementary data). Decapod Src sequences were further divided between the crab infraorders (Infraorders Anomura and Brachyura) and the lobster and shrimp infraorders (Figure 2.6). One partial transcript was identified in the *G. lateralis* YO

transcriptome (*Gl-Src*; Table 2.2; Figure A4), while two partial *Src* sequences were identified in *C. maenas* (*Cm-Src*; Table 2.3; Figure A5).

The domain organization of the *Src* proteins is conserved among the 14 decapod species, which included sequences from *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* (Tables 2.2 and 2.3). The N-terminal region encompassed the bHLH, PAS-A, and PAS-B domains (Figure 2.7). *Src* sequences showed high sequence identity in the three domains; the C-terminal region varied in length and amino acid sequence (Figure A6; supplementary data).

Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1)

A midpoint-rooted, maximum likelihood tree segregated pancrustacean *Kr-h1* proteins into insect and crustacean groups (Figure 2.8). Further division of *Kr-h1* orthologs followed taxonomic ranks, which were supported by strong bootstrap values. Generally, insect *Kr-h1* orthologs were more closely related, as indicated by short branch lengths across the various orders (Figure 2.8). By contrast, the crustacean orthologs had longer branch lengths across the different subclades (Figure 2.8). The *Kr-h1* sequences in two copepod species, which are members of Clade Multicrustacea, did not cluster with other the orders within this clade, including krill and decapod species (Figure 2.8). Instead, the copepod species were positioned adjacent to Clade Allotriocarida, which includes *Daphnia*. Within the Multicrustacea, decapod *Kr-h1* sequences were segregated from the *Kr-h1* sequences in Orders Euphausiacea (krill), Amphipoda, and Isopoda, as indicated by highly supported, long branch lengths (Figure 2.8).

The domain organization of decapod *Kr-h1* orthologs was highly conserved in 22 species (Figure 2.9). These included full-length sequences from *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* (Tables 2.2 and 2.3; Figures A7 and A8). The N-terminal region had a series of DNA-binding domains

consisting of seven C2H2 zinc finger (Znf) repeats of ~21 amino acids in length (Figure 2.9). MSA analysis of pancrustacean Kr-h1 orthologs showed high sequence identity of the Znf repeats, with insect Kr-h1 having eight repeats and crustacean Kr-h1 having seven repeats (Figure 2.10; Figures A9 and A10). Although classified within Clade Allotriocarida along with the insects, *Daphnia* Kr-h1 sequence (781-860 amino acids) had seven Znf repeats as in other crustaceans, but was similar in length (791 amino acids) to *Drosophila melanogaster* Kr-h1 (Figure 2.10; Figures A9 and A10). Thus, the difference in the number of Znf repeats was distinguishing feature between insect and crustacean Kr-h1 orthologs.

Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93)

Annotated E93 amino acid sequences were used to construct a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree that included E93 orthologs annotated as Mushroom body large-type Kenyon cell protein-1 (Mblk-1). The phylogenetic analysis showed segregation of pancrustacean E93 proteins into insect and crustacean clades with chelicerate species as the outgroup (Figure 2.11). No E93 orthologs were identified in copepod, *Daphnia*, and isopod species. Within each clade, the grouping of E93 orthologs followed taxonomic hierarchy. A fish louse crustacean (*Argulus siamensis*), member of Superclass Oligostraca, sequence was positioned between chelicerate and malacostracan E93 sequences (Figure 2.11). Within Class Malacostraca, E93 sequences were partitioned between amphipod, krill, shrimp/prawn, lobster/crayfish, and crab taxa (Figure 2.11).

Decapod E93 sequences had two helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_Psq) domains (Figure 2.12). These included one full-length E93 sequence from *G. lateralis* and two full-length sequences from *C. maenas* (Tables 2.2 and 2.3; Figures A11 and 12). The only exception was *L. vannamei* E93, which had one HTH_Psq domain (Figure 2.12). Besides the HTH_Psq domains,

the pancrustacean E93/Mblk-1 orthologs varied in length and amino acid sequence including within taxonomic orders (Figure 2.12; Figures A13-A15).

CREB-binding protein (CBP)

CBP protein sequences were used for the construction of a maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree that was rooted with two tardigrade CBPs. The three major clades did not always follow taxonomic groupings, as the pancrustacean sequences did not group together. Copepod CBPs formed a separate group from other malacostracans, such as the isopods, krill, and decapods (Figure 2.13). At the copepod branchpoint, the Pancrustacea partitioned into insect and crustacean groups with *Daphnia* positioned with the insects, as both are members of Clade Allotriocarida. Two spider CBPs were positioned between *Daphnia* and the insect orders (Figure 2.13). However, Class Malacostraca followed taxonomic order, with decapod CBPs grouping with infraorder hierarchy (Figure 2.13).

CBP proteins of 15 decapod species, including *G. lateralis* (Figure A.16) and *C. maenas* (Figure A17), were over 2K amino acids in length and had the same domain organization (Figure A14). The domain arrangement included several Zf binding regions, including the Transcription Adaptor Zinc Finger 1 (TAZ1) and 2 (TAZ2), Really Interesting New Gene (RING), Plant homeodomain (PHD), and Z-type zinc finger (ZZ) domains. CBPs contained additional domains such as the transcription factor docking site Kinase-inducible Domain Interacting (KIX), the acetylated lysine recognition and binding Bromodomain (BROMO) site, and Histone acetyltransferase (HAT) domains. The CREB binding region, located near the C-terminus, contained a nuclear receptor coactivator binding domain (NCBD) with coactivator binding sites (Figure 2.14). Across infraorders, the length varied after the NCBD, with the HAT domain the

longest in length. Within Infraorder Astacidea, the CBP ortholog in *Homarus americanus* was 2623 amino acids, in *Procambarus clarkii* was 2636 amino acids, and in *Cherax quadricarinatus* was 2175 amino acids. The CBP orthologs within Infraorder Caridea, specifically in *Macrobrachium nipponense* and *Neocaridina denticulata* were 2178 and 2585 amino acids in length, respectively (Figure 2.14). The majority of crustacean CBP orthologs, except *Daphnia*, were shorter than the dipteran CBPs (Figures A18 and A19).

C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP)

CtBP protein sequences were identified in many species in Clade Panarthropoda. A maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree showed a distinct separation of arthropods from tardigrades (Figure 2.15). Furthermore, the division between the chelicerates and mandibulates was supported with strong bootstrap values, except for the barnacles (Order Thecostraca). Class Branchiopoda (Orders Cladocera and Notostraca) CtBPs were more closely related to other crustaceans, even though they are classified with insects in Clade Allotriocarida (Figure 2.15). Within Class Malacostraca, CtBP sequences followed taxonomic order and infraorder hierarchy. Caridean shrimp had long and short CtBP transcripts. Only one CtBP variant was identified in the other decapod infraorders (Brachyura, Anomura, Achelata, Astacidea, and Dendrobranchiata).

Moreso, a full-length CtBP transcript was identified in the *G. lateralis* YO transcriptome (*Gl-CtBP*) (Table 2.2; Figure A20) but only partial sequences were obtained from the *C. maenas* CNS and YO assemblies (*Cm-CtBP*) (Table 2.3; Figure A21). All CtBP sequences contained the dehydrogenase domain (CtBP_dh) flanked by the N-terminal domain (NTD) and the C-terminal domain (CTD) (Figure 2.16; Figures A22 and A23). The N-terminal region of CtBP exhibited

high conservation especially within the CtBP_dh domain with regards to the dehydrogenase diagnostic features of NAD(H) binding sites and the catalytic triad, arginine (Arg)- glutamic acid (Glu)- histidine (His) (Figure 2.16; Figures A22 and A23). Opposed to the NTD the C-terminal domain (CTD), the site of posttranslational modification such as sumoylation and phosphorylation, exhibits more variability (Figures 2.17 and 2.18). While most decapod crustaceans had one CtBP transcript containing a CTD, caridean shrimp had two isoforms with one containing a CTD and one lacking a CTD (Figure 2.18). The crustacean CTD contains the conserved the CVNKEY, NGGY/GLNG--YY central block, and AHSTT motifs with polyproline repeats following the central block (Table 2.4). Only barnacles had the ancestral SEVH motif (Table 2.4; Figure A24). In amphipods and the tadpole shrimp, polyalanine stretches replaced the proline repeats, which also occurred in CTDs in tardigrades and *Drosophila* (Figure A25).

Gene expression over the molt cycle

The relative gene expression of MEKRE93 signaling components and transcription coregulators were determined in the *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* YO across the different molt stages. In the *C. maenas* YO, *Cm-Met*, *Cm-Src*, *Cm-Kr-h1*, and *Cm-E93* were expressed at all stages of the molt cycle (Figure 2.19). *Cm-Met* was highly expressed at all stages, with no significant differences between the means (Figure 2.19a). Expression of *Cm-Src* was significantly higher in mid-premolt (MP) and significantly lower in intermolt (IM), late premolt (LP), and postmolt (PM); IM–MP: $p = 0.0471$; LP–MP: $p = 0.047$; MP–PM: $p = 0.0346$ (Figure 2.19b). *Cm-Kr-h1* and *Cm-E93* were expressed at all molt stages with no significant differences between the means (Figure 2.19c, d). *Cm-CBP* and *Cm-CtBP* were constitutively expressed

throughout the different molt cycle stages, with the mean at MP significantly higher than that at IM; *Cm-CBP* IM–MP: $p = 0.022$; *Cm-CtBP* IM–MP: $p = 0.035$ (Figure 2.20). In the *G. lateralis* YO, *Gl-Met* and *Gl-Kr-h1* were largely expressed in IM, decreased throughout premolt, and not expressed in PM (Figure 2.21a, c). *Gl-Src* and *Gl-E93* was also upregulated in IM, lower throughout premolt, but had low expression in PM (Figure 2.21 b, d). *Gl-CBP* and *Gl-CtBP* were constitutively expressed throughout the different stages of the molt cycle (except PM) with the mean at IM significantly higher in comparison (Figure 2.22).

Effects of MF and JH-mimics on YO ecdysteroid secretion

Experiments on YOs from intermolt (IM) *C. maenas* determined the effects of three concentrations of MF and JH-mimics on ecdysteroid secretion over a 48-hour incubation period. The results from paired *t*-tests applied to the differences in the quantity of 20-E equivalents secreted were greater at 10.0 μM with secretion rates slowing by 24 hours (Table A2, Figure 2.23). Consequently, 10.0 μM of each compound and 48 hours incubation were used on YOs from IM *G. lateralis* and 10.0 μM of each compound and 24 hours incubation were used on YOs from mid-premolt (MP) *G. lateralis*. A linear model applied to these data and the associated data for YOs from IM and MP *G. lateralis* summed and aggregated the amount of 20-E secreted at each eight-hour interval to obtain the cumulative amount of 20-E secreted at 24 and 48-hours for *C. maenas* and at 24 hours for *G. lateralis* (see Materials and Methods).

After 24-hours, *C. maenas* YO ecdysteroid secretion was inhibited by fenoxycarb ($t = -1.9$, $p = 0.060$), in which YOs secreted, on average, 19.8 $\text{pg}/\mu\text{L}$ less 20-E (95% confidence interval or CI: -40.6, 0.6) than untreated paired YOs (Figure 2.24a; Figures A26 and A27). By contrast, ecdysteroid secretion was stimulated by S-hydroprene ($t = 2.2$, $p = 0.033$) or

methoprene ($t = 3.8, p < 0.001$) treatments (Figure 2.24a; Figures A26 and A27). It is estimated that S-hydroprene stimulated the YOs to secrete 22.6 pg/ μ L more 20-E (95% CI: 1.9, 43.3) and methoprene stimulated the YOs to secrete 38.6 pg/ μ L more 20-E (95% CI: 17.9, 59.3) relative to untreated paired YOs. On average, the YOs exposed to MF produced 10.5 pg/ μ L less 20-E (95% CI: -31.2, 10.2); however, there was no statistically significant difference in the means between treated and control YOs ($t = -1.0, p = 0.310$) (Figure 2.24a; Figures A26 and A27).

After 48 hours, fenoxycarb continued to inhibit the ecdysteroid secretion and gained statistical significance ($t = 2.1, p = 0.039$) (Figure 2.24a; Figures A26 and A27). Moreover, the estimated inhibiting effect increased in magnitude, as the estimated average difference in 20-E secreted at 48-hours was 51.4 pg/ μ L less 20-E secreted (95% CI: -100.2, -2.7) than that by paired untreated YOs. However, the stimulation of ecdysteroid secretion by S-hydroprene lost significance at 48 hours ($t = 1.0, p = 0.313$), even though, on average, the treatment of S-hydroprene increased 20-E secretion by 24.6 pg/ μ L 20-E (95% CI: -24.1, 73.4) control YOs (Figure 2.24b; Figures A26 and A27). The difference between treated and untreated YOs at 48-hours was similar magnitude at 24-hours, indicating that the stimulatory effect of S-hydroprene occurred in the first 24-hours of incubation. By contrast, the stimulation of methoprene on ecdysteroid secretion continued after 48-hours ($t = 2.4, p = 0.0194$). The estimated average 20-E equivalents secreted was 58.9 pg/ μ L more that of paired untreated YOs (95% CI: 10.1, 107.6), a quantity greater in magnitude compared to 24-hours (Figure 2.24b; Figures A26 and A27). MF had no effect on YO ecdysteroid secretion at 48-hours ($t = -0.0, p = 0.986$). There was no significant difference between the means of MF treated and untreated paired YOs ($\bar{x} = 0.4$ pg/ μ L; 95% CI: -49.2, 48.3) (Figure 2.24a; Figures A26 and A27).

At 24-hours, intermolt *G. lateralis* YO ecdysteroid secretion was inhibited by fenoxycarb ($t = -2.9, p = 0.005$) or S-hydroprene ($t = -4.7, p < 0.001$) (Figure 2.24c; Figures A25 and A28). On average, 17.0 pg/ μ L less 20-E was secreted with fenoxycarb treatment (95% CI: -28.7, -5.2) and 27.9 pg/ μ L less 20-E was secreted with S-hydroprene treatment (95% CI: -39.6, -16.2) compared to untreated paired YOs. Neither methoprene ($t = -0.4, p = 0.712$) nor MF ($t = -1.2, p = 0.221$) had a significant effect on ecdysteroid secretion. YOs treated with methoprene secreted 2.2 pg/ μ L less 20-E (95% CI: -13.9, 9.5), while treated with MF secreted 7.3 pg/ μ L less 20-E (95% CI: -19.0, 4.5), which were not significantly different from untreated paired YOs (Figure 2.24c; Figures A25 and A28).

At 48-hours, fenoxycarb ($t = -2.7, p = 0.001$) and S-hydroprene ($t = -4.5, p < 0.001$) continued to inhibit ecdysteroid secretion by IM *G. lateralis* YOs (Figure 2.24d; Figures A25 and A28). Fenoxycarb-treated YOs secreted 17.2 pg/ μ L less 20-E (95% CI: -30.1, -4.3), while S-hydroprene-treated YOs secreted 28.9 pg/ μ L less 20-E (95% CI: -41.8, -16.0), than untreated paired YOs. The magnitudes of the inhibiting effects for both compounds were similar at 24 and 48-hours, indicating the maximal effects of these compounds occurred by 24-hours. Neither methoprene ($t = 0.2, p = 0.816$) nor MF ($t = -0.3, p = 0.750$) had a significant effect on YO ecdysteroid secretion (Figure 2.24d; Figures A25 and A28). 20-E secretion of YOs treated with MF was only 2.1 pg/ μ L less (95% CI: -15.0, 10.8) than untreated controls, while 20-E secretion of YOs treated methoprene was only 1.5 pg/ μ L more (95% CI: -11.4, 14.4) than that of the untreated paired YO.

The effects of MF and JH-mimics on YOs from MP *G. lateralis* were determined after 24-hours incubation. Fenoxycarb ($t = -2.9, p = 0.009$) significantly inhibited YO secretion (Figures A25 and A28). Fenoxycarb-treated YOs secreted 17.0 pg/ μ L less 20-E equivalents than

the untreated paired YOs (95% CI: -27.2, -4.6) (Figure 2.24e). By contrast, methoprene ($t = -1.7$, $p = 0.107$) and S-hydroprene ($t = -0.6$, $p = 0.489$) had no significant effect on YO ecdysteroid secretion (Figure 2.24e; Figures A25 and A28). YOs treated with methoprene secreted 9.1 pg/ μ L less 20-E, which was not significantly different from the control (95% CI: -20.4, 2.2). S-Hydroprene showed no effect on the YO 20-E secretion (95% CI: -15, 7.5) (Figure 2.24e). A comparison of the effects of MF and JH-mimics on YO secretion in *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* is summarized in Table 2.5.

Discussion

Ecdysteroid signaling is essential for molting thereby regulating pancrustacean growth, development, and/or regeneration (Chang, 1993; Chang et al., 1993; Fingerman, 1997; Subramoniam, 2000; Gilbert et al., 2001; Mykles, 2024; Orchard and Lange, 2024b). Ecdysteroid binding to the EcR/RXR receptor activates the ecdysone response gene cascade, which, can be affected by the MF MEKRE93 transcriptional cascade (Mu and LeBlanc, 2004; Liu et al., 2018; Mazina and Vorobyeva, 2019; Adhitama et al., 2020). The CrusTome database, along with other published repositories, was used to identify *Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, and *E93* genes in pancrustacean taxa (Table 2.1). Transcriptional comediators *CBP* and *CtBP* were also identified. The contig sequences were obtained from *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* YO transcriptomes and characterized (Tables 2.2 and 2.3). This study constitutes the most comprehensive analysis of the crustacean MF MEKRE93 signaling genes. Phylogenetic and sequence analysis revealed high conservation of the domain organization and functional motifs, which will aid in the identification and annotation of new sequences as transcriptomes and genomes are added to GenBank and other repositories.

The MEKRE93 and comediator genes were expressed in the *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* YO at all molt stages. However, expression patterns were not consistent between species for each gene. Post-translation modifications of Methoprene tolerant (Met) and Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) have been reported to affect transcription activity. In the yellow fever mosquito (*Aedes aegypti*) within the presence of JH, *Aa-Met* Serine residue 77 (Ser-77) and Serine 710 (Ser-710) were phosphorylated, phosphoserine residues 73 and 747 were dephosphorylated, and a transient but reversible phosphorylation of Thr-664 and Ser723 (Kim et al., 2021). Additionally, in the presence of JH *Aa-Kr-h1* phosphoserine residue 694 is dephosphorylated and consequently showed significantly higher activity (Kim et al., 2021). In the cotton bollworm (*Helicoverpa armigera*), JH induced the threonine-phosphorylation of Met at Threonine residue 393 (Thr-393) was essential for Met binding to the response element inducing *Kr-h1* expression and prevented binding to its cofactor Taiman (Tai) (Li et al., 2021e). In the red flour beetle (*Tribolium castaneum*) epigenetic modifications (e.g., acetylation and deacetylation) regulate JH action as histone deacetylase 1 (HDAC1) suppressed *Kr-h1* expression (George et al., 2019). Although CBP is an accepted transcriptional enhancer and CtBP is an accepted transcriptional repressor, the expression pattern of these are the same within each species. This suggests these factors may have different transcriptional partners. In the migratory locust (*Locusta migratoria*), protein kinase C- alpha (PKC α) phosphorylates Kr-h1 to, which, in adults recruits CtBP to inhibit *E93* expression but in adults recruits CBP to enhance vitellogenesis through upregulating *Ribosomal protein L36* (Wu et al., 2021). JH-induced PKC activation, dependent on phospholipase C (PLC) and calcium/calmodulin- dependent protein kinase II (CaMKII) signaling, was reported to be essential for Met transactivation activity through promoting the binding to JH response elements in *A. aegypti* (Liu et al., 2015a; Ojani et al., 2016). In *H. armigera* JH induced PKC

phosphorylation of heat shock protein 90 (Hsp90) thus promoting the interaction between this chaperone protein and Met (Liu et al., 2013). On the other hand, (Liu et al., 2013) indicated that 20-E suppressed Hsp90 phosphorylation and promoted the interaction between the chaperone protein and Ultraspiracle 1 (USP1). PKC and PLC signaling has been reported in *H. armigera* to lead to the phosphorylation of Broad-Complex, an ecdysone response gene, in the presence of JH thus inhibiting the transcription of other 20-E genes (Cai et al., 2014). MicroRNAs (miRNAs) also may play a role in post-transcriptional regulation. *Kr-h1* transcripts were reported to be scavenged by MiR-2 in the German cockroach (*Blattella germanica*) and downregulated by let-7 and miR-278 in the migratory locust (*Locusta migratoria*) (Lozano et al., 2015; Song et al., 2018). Modulation of the genes and transcription factors within the MF/JH and ecdysone pathway provides a basis and insight to understanding the endocrine-transcriptional regulation (Geens et al., 2024).

In vitro assays showed that YOs responded to compounds acting through the MF signaling. In the present study, intermolt (IM) YOs harvested from *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* treated with any concentration of MF (0.1 μM , 1.0 μM and 10.0 μM) (*in vitro*) had no effect on ecdysteroid secretion even after 48-hours. These results differ from the findings of Tamone and Chang (1993) that revealed the stimulation of ecdysteroidogenesis in the Dungeness crab (*Metacarcinus magister*) YOs exposed to high concentrations (1.0 μM and 10.0 μM) of MF (*in vitro*) after 24-hours. Even with the use of high concentrations of MF in *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis*, ecdysteroidogenesis was not impacted thus proposing the idea of a higher dose to see an elicited response (*in vitro*) and importance of binding proteins (Prestwich et al., 1990, 1996; Li and Borst, 1991; King et al., 1995; Tamone et al., 1997; Takáč et al., 1998; Zhao et al., 2020). However, a high MF-concentration was required to stimulate molting in the whiteleg shrimp

(*Litopenaeus vannamei*) *in vivo* (Alnawafleh et al., 2014). Furthermore, MF stimulated molting and reduced the intervals within the IM and premolt stage in *Travancoriana schirnerae*; however, the optimization of shortening the molt cycle duration was dependent on timing of MF administration and the dose (Raghavan and Ayanath, 2019). Due to the ability to biosynthesize MF, it is likely that the lack of observed effect is due to degradation of MF by endogenous carboxylase activity (Laufer and Albrecht, 1990; King et al., 1995; Homola and Chang, 1997b, 1997a; Takac et al., 1997; Satoh and Hosokawa, 2006; Yu et al., 2009; Kamita and Hammock, 2010; Kamita et al., 2011; Lee et al., 2011; Tao et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2017; Zhu et al., 2018; Zhang et al., 2020; Chen et al., 2021b, 2022a; Li et al., 2021d; Tu et al., 2022).

JH-mimics, also referred to as JH-analogs such as hydroprene, methoprene, fenoxycarb, and pyriproxyfen, are hydrophobic compounds that mimic the action of JH in insects (Dhadialla et al., 1998; Wilson, 2004). JH-mimics are classified as insect growth regulators (IGRs), or insect growth disruptors (IGDs) as they are primarily utilized as insecticides. Specifically, JH-analogs are a third-generation insecticide as they are more ecofriendly and safer to other organisms, compared to first-generation (e.g., inorganic compounds including sulfur arsenic, mercury, and lead) and second-generation insecticides (e.g., organophosphates, carbamates, and DDT also known as dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane) (Parthasarathy and Palli, 2021). Due to its applicability in the management of vectors of human diseases and agricultural pests, understanding the mode of action of JH-mimics is of high interest as it may contribute to the development to novel and optimal IGRs (Minakuchi and Riddiford, 2006; Noriega and Nouzova, 2020; Apolinário and Feder, 2021; Lai et al., 2021; Devi and Awasthi, 2022; Yokoi, 2024). Some JHAs, such as hydroprene and methoprene, are designed and synthesized to contain one or more ester linkages (similar to naturally occurring JHs) and thereby be metabolized by cytochrome

p450 monooxygenases/carboxylesterases (Mohandass et al., 2006a, 2006b). JHAs are sensitive to several factors including application time, exposure duration, and concentration leading to efficacy variability (Parthasarathy and Palli, 2021). Furthermore, the effectiveness of JHAs is dependent on developmental stage (i.e. stage-specific) and the species tolerance (Parthasarathy and Palli, 2021). For instance, Santos et al. (2017) revealed that the accepted concentration dosage of pyriproxyfen utilized to control *A. aegypti* larvae is lethal to *Daphnia magna* and *Artemia salina*; however, even across crustacean species the effective concentration differs. Additionally, JH-analogs have been shown to work directly through the Met receptor as methoprene and fenoxycarb disturbs Met expression in the Colorado potato beetle (*Leptinotarsa decemlineata*) consequently impacting ecdysteroid concentration (Meng et al., 2018; Jindra and Bittova, 2020).

Pyriproxyfen and its exposure to abdominal integument sternites from pupal mealworms (*Tenebrio molitor*) *in vitro* at 1.0 μM and 10.0 μM inhibited ecdysteroid concentrations (Aribi et al., 2006). Trace amounts of pyriproxyfen in the silkworm larvae (*Bombyx mori*) reduced 20-E hemolymph concentrations, promoted Met phosphorylation thus upregulating *Kr-h1* expression, and inhibited *Br-C* expression (Li et al., 2021a). Wang et al. (2023) additionally showed that pyriproxyfen exposure in *B. mori* larvae lowered 20-E concentrations due to a downregulation of 20-E biosynthetic genes; however, it also upregulated drug metabolism and glycometabolism genes. *Kr-h1* expression in the brain tissue was also downregulated in the worker honey bee when exposed to pyriproxyfen (Litsey and Fine, 2024). Pyriproxyfen had no impact on *C. maenas* YO's at any concentration (0.1 μM , 1.0 μM and 10.0 μM) *in vitro*. Adult copepods that were reported to have a high sensitivity to pyriproxyfen; however, pyriproxyfen has been documented to have several ecotoxicological effects including in daphnids and other crustaceans

(Legrand et al., 2017; Devillers, 2020). In the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*), after two- and four-days of insecticide exposure pyriproxyfen had the highest acute toxicity while medium acute toxicity was exhibited in the red swamp crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) after two and four-days of exposure (Wang et al., 2022). Pyriproxyfen treatment in the Australian red claw crayfish (*Cherax quadricarinatus*) did not cause significant mortality but delayed spawning (Abdu et al., 2001). Exposure to pyriproxyfen also stimulated premature ovarian development and vitellogenesis were reported in the Christmas Island red crab (*Gecarcoidea natalis*) (Linton et al., 2009). Additionally, pyriproxyfen induced the expression of retinoid X receptor (RXR), a nuclear receptor in the ecdysone signaling pathway in *Gammarus fossarum* (Gouveia et al., 2018).

Fenoxycarb exposure to the Oriental latrine blow fly (*Chrysomya megacephala*) was most effective at 0-hour old larvae in comparison to 24 and 48-hour old last larval instar (Singh and Maddheshiya, 2021). McKenney et al. (2004) showed that $888 \mu\text{L}^{-1}$ fenoxycarb inhibited embryonic development in grass shrimp (*Palaemonetes pugio*) but had not affect to concentrations less than $502 \mu\text{L}^{-1}$. Additionally, *P. pugio* larvae exhibited a higher sensitivity to fenoxycarb than in embryonic stages (McKenney et al., 2004). Fenoxycarb extended the period between zoeal development in the American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) (Arnold et al., 2009). Low concentrations ($0.1 \mu\text{M}$ and $1.0 \mu\text{M}$) had not significant impact on ecdysteroid production in *C. maenas* IM YOs *in vitro*. However, ecdysteroid secretion in *C. maenas* IM YOs was significantly inhibited after 48-hours post exposure but not at 24-hours when treated with $10.0 \mu\text{M}$ fenoxycarb *in vitro*. Ecdysteroid secretion was also inhibited in *G. lateralis* IM YOs after 24 and 48-hours post exposure when treated with $10.0 \mu\text{M}$ fenoxycarb *in vitro*. Even MP *G. lateralis* YOs ecdysteroid production was inhibited after 24-hours. These results show that

although fenoxycarb has a strong inhibitory affect in both *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* the sensitivity of the YO differs due to the timing of an elicited response. The inhibitory behavior of fenoxycarb in the tested model species is similar strong inhibitory effect in honeybees (Luo et al., 2021).

Methoprene reduced molt frequency in *Daphnia magna* in a dose-dependent manner (Olmstead and Leblanc, 2001). Stueckle et al. (2008) noted that biological sex can impact methoprene sensitivity since male mud fiddler crabs (*Uca pugnax*) had a higher sensitivity to chronic exposure compared to females as post molt (PM) crabs took longer to proceed throughout premolt. *C. maenas* IM YOs exposed at low concentrations (0.1 μM and 1.0 μM) had no effect on ecdysteroid secretion *in vitro* despite its stimulatory effect at 10.0 μM after 24 and 48-hours of exposure. On the contrary, *G. lateralis* IM YOs exposed to any concentration of methopren (0.1 μM , 1.0 μM , and 10. μM) had no effect on ecdysteroid secretion after 24 or 48-hours.

Methoprene also did not impact ecdysteroid secretion after a 24-hour exposure period to MP *G. lateralis* YOs. Hydroprene has been reported to prevent normal development, emergence, and reproduction in insects (Kramer et al., 1990; Mohandass et al., 2006b, 2006a). *C. maenas* IM YOs showed sensitivity to hydroprene at any of the concentrations tested (0.1 μM , 1.0 μM and 10.0 μM) *in vitro* with a similar impact at both 1.0 μM and 10.0 μM . However, by 48-hours there was no significant difference in ecdysteroid production as a stimulatory effect on the *C. maenas* IM YOs was observed by 24-hours thereby suggesting the YO lost sensitivity. Ecdysteroid secretion was inhibited at both 24 and 48 hours in IM *G. lateralis* YOs after 10.0 μM hydroprene treatment *in vitro*; however, MP *G. lateralis* YOs elicited no response even after 24-hours. These findings suggest that YO sensitivity is time, dose, stage, and species specific. It

is possible that Fenoxycarb has a sublethal effect as there was a strong inhibition between the two brachyuran species. Blackback land crab YO's may have different sensitivity at different phases of the molt cycle considering after 24-hours of hydroprene exposure there was no significant inhibitory effect on MP YO's unlike IM YO's.

Tuberty and Mckenney (2005) reported differences in ecdysteroid responses after the exposure to JH-analogs between daggerblade grass shrimp (*Palaemonetes pugio*) and the Harris mud crab (*Rhithropanopeus harrisi*). These data supports the possibility that the difference of JHA effective in ecdysteroidogenesis is dependent on species as fenoxycarb inhibits ecdysteroid secretion in both brachyuran species tested, S-hydroprene stimulated ecdysteroid synthesis in the *C. maenas* but was inhibited in *G. lateralis*, and methoprene had a stimulatory effect only in *C. maenas*. More specifically, amino acid substitutions in S (red)/T (blue) in the fifth and seventh binding pockets may contribute to differential binding of MF and JH mimics to Met (Miura et al., 2005; Charles et al., 2011; Bernardo and Dubrovsky, 2012; Miyakawa et al., 2013; Zhao et al., 2014; Kolonko et al., 2016; Kakaley et al., 2017; Hirano et al., 2020). Besides an altered affinity to the Met receptor complex some species may require additional binding proteins may be required to reach the targeted tissue (Prestwich et al., 1990, 1996; Li and Borst, 1991; King et al., 1995; Tamone et al., 1997; Takáč et al., 1998; Zhao et al., 2020). The ineffectiveness of the JH-mimics also could be a result of increase in detoxification enzymes, insecticide resistance, cross resistance as observed in some insect species towards some compounds (Wilson, 2004; Mohandass et al., 2006b). Nevertheless, it has been proposed that other interactions between compounds and factors can interfere with the crosstalk between sesquiterpenoid hormones and ecdysteroids, such as methoprene and glyphosate in the amphipod *G. fossarum*; and methoprene, permethrin, and salinity in the crab *U. pugnax* (Stueckle et al., 2009; Gauthier et al., 2023).

Taken together, these data indicates that YO sensitivity to MF and to JH-mimics is dependent on dose and time and the effects varies across species and compound type.

Conclusion

The study constitutes a comprehensive analysis of the MEKRE93 transcriptional network in crustaceans. The determination of the phylogenetic relationships, sequence alignments, and domain and/or motif structure provides insight into the roles that MF plays in development, reproduction, and growth, as well as how pesticides may disrupt these processes. Moreover, the expression these sequences in *G. lateralis*, *C. maenas*, and *Callinectes sapidus* YO transcriptomes and the responses of YOs to JH-mimics support the notion that MF–MEKRE93 signaling regulates YO ecdysteroidogenesis, and that interactions between MEKRE93, ecdysteroid, molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH), mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1, (mTORC1), and transforming growth factor- Beta (TGF β) signaling pathways contribute to phenotypic changes in the YO over the molt cycle (Mykles and Chang, 2020; Mykles, 2021, 2024). During intermolt (IM), the YO is kept in the basal state by MIH-mediated inhibition of mTORC1 activity; a drop in MIH activates mTORC1 and the YO transitions to the activated state in early premolt (EP). TGF β /myostatin signaling meditates the transition of the YO from the activated to committed state in mid premolt (MP). The transition from the committed to repressed stated coincides with the peak in hemolymph 20-E titer in late premolt (LP), suggesting a negative-feedback mechanism mediated by ecdysteroid response genes (Mykles, 2024). The transition of the YO back to the basal state may involve a factor released from the integument upon completion of the synthesis and calcification of the new exoskeleton at the end of post molt (PM) (Mykles, 2024).

It is hypothesized that the activity of the MF MEKRE93 signaling cascade is regulated by the hemolymph 20-E titer, as the YO expresses the EcR/RXR receptor and ecdysteroid response nuclear receptors (Benrabaa et al., 2024; Benrabaa and Mykles, 2025). A model is proposed that incorporates the comediators CBP and CtBP, which have antagonistic effects on *Kr-h1* expression, where CBP acts as a co-activator and CtBP acts as a co-repressor (Figure 2.26). The model assumes that MF is constitutively present, although hemolymph MF titer increases with vitellogenesis and oocyte maturation in females (Borst and Tsukimura, 1991; Homola and Chang, 1997c; Nagaraju, 2007; Liu et al., 2016; Xie et al., 2018; Li et al., 2021c, 2021b). The balance of CBP and CtBP activities is determined by the hemolymph ecdysteroid titer. At low 20-E, such as during intermolt, CtBP is dominant and inhibits *Kr-h1* expression, resulting in increased ecdysteroid synthesis when MIH level falls. At high 20-E, such as in late premolt (LP), CBP is dominant and stimulates *Kr-h1* expression, resulting in reduced ecdysteroid synthesis.

Data availability

The corresponding datasets in this study are available on the Harvard Dataverse online repository (Bentley, Vanessa, 2025, "Methyl farnesoate", <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/BCG5V4>, Harvard Dataverse, V1).

Table 2.1. Taxonomic distribution of identified MEKRE93 transcription factors and transcription modulators. Abbreviations: CBP, CREB-binding protein; CtBP, C-terminal-binding protein; E93, Ecdysone response gene 93; Kr-h1, Krüppel homolog 1; Met, Methoprene-tolerant; and Src, Steroid receptor coactivator.

Taxon		Gene														
		<i>Met</i>	<i>Src</i>	<i>Kr-h1</i>	<i>E93</i>	<i>CBP</i>	<i>CtBP</i>									
Clade Panarthropoda	Phylum Tardigrada		–	–	–	–	2	3								
	Subphylum Chelicerata		1	–	–	3	2	5								
	Class Branchiura		–	–	–	1	–	–								
	Class Insecta		16	6	21	35	15	21								
									Clade Allotricarida							
	Class Branchiopoda		2	3	2	–	1	3								
	Class Copepoda		–	–	2	–	9	9								
	Class Thecostraca		–	–	–	–	–	4								
	Class Malacostraca		–	–	–	–	–	2								
									Order Stomatopoda							
									Order Isopoda		3	7	19	–	4	8
									Order Amphipoda		6	–	15	2	–	4
									Order Euphausiacea		–	–	3	1	2	2
									Order Decapoda		36	29	56	12	25	69
Total Number of Contigs		64	45	119	54	60	130									
Total Number of Species		64	38	118	54	60	101									

Table 2.2. MEKRE93 signaling transcripts from the *G. lateralis* Y-organ transcriptome (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). Abbreviations: aa, amino acids; bp, base pairs; bHLH-PAS, basic helix-loop-helix–Per-Arnt-Sim; C2H2 Znf, Cys2-His2 zinc finger; HTH-Psq, helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak; ID, identification; ORF, open reading frame; and UTR, untranslated region. Asterisk indicates partial sequence (incomplete ORF).

Gene	Class	Contig ID	Length (bp)	ORF (aa)	UTR (bp)	GenBank Accession
<i>Gl-Met</i>	bHLH-PAS	Y EVm001315t1	3511	1001	5': 177 3': 327	PQ306373
<i>Gl-Src</i>	bHLH-PAS	Y EVm002648t2	3179	707*	5': 1056 3': –	PQ308086
<i>Gl-Kr-h1</i>	C2H2-Znf	Y EVm003411t1	2476	616	5': 345 3': 279	PQ306361
<i>Gl-E93</i>	HTH-Psq	Y EVm001885t1	3114	854*	5': – 3': 548	PQ306469
<i>Gl-CBP</i>	Transcriptional Coactivator	Y EVm000165t1	7188	2197	5': 54 3': 540	PQ306374
<i>Gl-CtBP</i>	Transcriptional Corepressor	Y EVm005788t1	1905	454	5': 427 3': 113	PQ306376

Table 2.3. MEKRE93 signaling transcripts from the *C. maenas* Y-organ (Y) and central nervous system (CNS) transcriptomes (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). Abbreviations: aa, amino acids; bp, base pairs; bHLH-PAS, basic helix-loop-helix–Per-Arnt-Sim; C2H2 Znf, Cys2-His2 zinc finger; HTH-Psq, helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak; ID, identification; ORF, open reading frame; and UTR, untranslated region. Asterisk indicates partial sequence (incomplete ORF).

Gene	Class	Contig ID	Length (bp)	ORF (aa)	UTR (bp)	GenBank Accession
<i>Cm-Met</i>	bHLH-PAS	Y EVm001443t1	3677	998*	5': 682 3': –	PQ306465
		CNS EVm002019t1	2986	921*	5': 223 3': –	PQ321205
<i>Cm-Src</i>	bHLH-PAS	Y EVm000958t2	4878	1185*	5': 1323 3': –	PQ327774
		CNS EVm001140t3	5299	1174*	5': 1777 3': –	PQ327775
<i>Cm-Kr-h1</i>	C2H2-Znf	Y EVm004068t1	3842	603	5': 1425 3': 603	PQ306239
		CNS EVm004576t1	3418	603	5': 1020 3': 586	PQ317097
<i>Cm-E93</i>	HTH-Psq	Y EVm001380t1	4185	1016	5': 158 3': 975	PQ306467
		CNS EVm001710t1	3880	989	5': 35 3': 875	PQ317110
<i>Cm-CBP</i>	Transcriptional Coactivator	Y EVm000144t1	7455	2321*	5': 490 3': –	PQ306466
		CNS EVm000162t1	7435	2321*	5': 470 3': –	PQ327773
<i>Cm-CtBP</i>	Transcriptional Corepressor	Y EVm011142t2	1100	278*	5': – 3': 198	PQ327771
		CNS EVm011952t2	1008	326*	5': 28 3': –	PQ327772

Table 2.4. Consensus sequences of the crustacean C-terminal domain (CTD) motifs in the C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP) transcriptional corepressor. Bolded in red are aromatic residues implicated as amino acid substitutions. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).















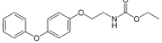
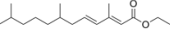
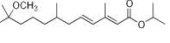
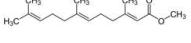


	Taxon	Motif Consensus Sequences			
		Motif #1	Motif #2	Motif #3	Motif #4
	Brachyura	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Anomura	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY or G V NG– YF	VHSTT	
	Achelata	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Astacidea	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Dendrobranchiata	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Caridea	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY or S VNG–YY	VHSTT	
	Amphipoda	CVNKEY	G V NG– YF	VHSTT/VHST A	
	Isopoda	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Copepoda	CVNKEY or C INKEY	G M NG–YY or GLNG–YY/ G P N S–YY	A HSTT	
	Euphausiacea	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Cladocera	CVNKEY	GLNG–YY	A H S S A	
	Stomatopoda	CVNKEY	G V NG–YY	VHSTT	
	Notostraca	CVNKEY	GLNG–YY	A H N S A	
	Thecostraca	CVNKEY	GLNG–YY	A H S T S	S D I H

Table 2.5. Summary of the comparative effects of 10.0 μM methyl farnesoate or JH mimics on ecdysteroid secretion in Y-organs from *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* after a) 24 hours and b) 48 hours *in vitro*. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

a)

24 hours	Molt stage	Fenoxycarb 	Hydroprene 	Methoprene 	Methyl farnesoate 
<i>C. maenas</i> 	Intermolt	- (p = 0.060)	Stimulate (p = 0.033)	Stimulate (p = <0.001)	- (p = 0.310)
<i>G. lateralis</i> 	Intermolt	Inhibit (p = 0.005)	Inhibit (p = < 0.001)	- (p = 0.712)	- (p = 0.221)
	Mid-premolt	Inhibit (p = 0.009)	- (p = 0.489)	- (p = 0.107)	No data

b)

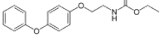
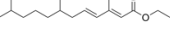
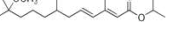
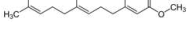


48 hours	Molt stage	Fenoxycarb 	Hydroprene 	Methoprene 	Methyl farnesoate 
<i>C. maenas</i> 	Intermolt	Inhibit (p = 0.039)	- (p = 0.313)	Stimulate (p = 0.019)	- (p = 0.986)
<i>G. lateralis</i> 	Intermolt	Inhibit (p = 0.001)	Inhibit (p = <0.001)	- (p = 0.816)	- (p = 0.750)

Figure 2.1

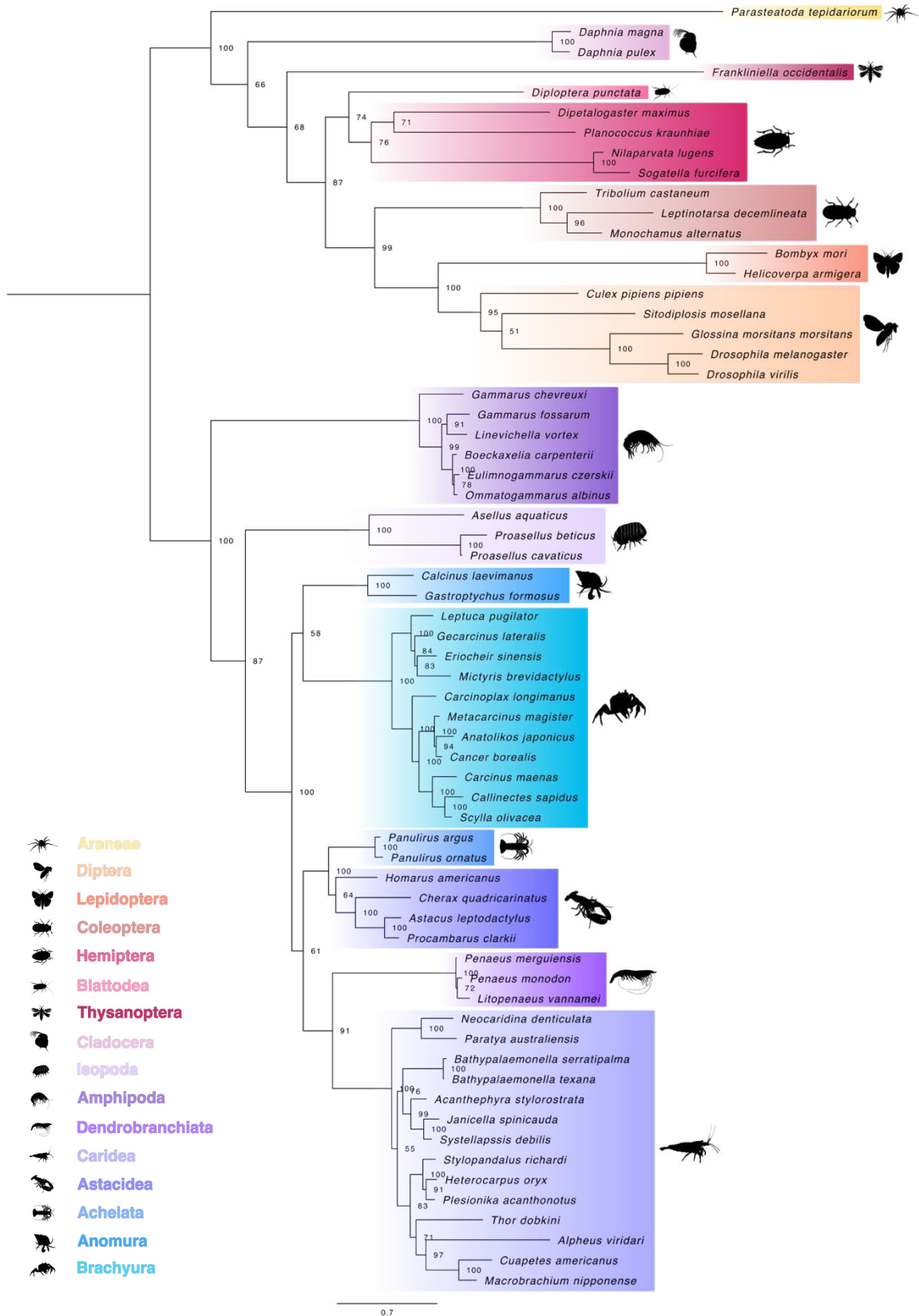


Figure 2.1. Phylogeny of arthropod Methoprene-tolerant (Met) proteins. The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model JTT+F+R5. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis can be found in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).



Figure 2.2. Domain organization of decapod Methoprene-tolerant (Met) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated partial sequences. The N-terminal region contained the basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) DNA-binding domain, followed by the PAS-A and PAS-B domains. Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

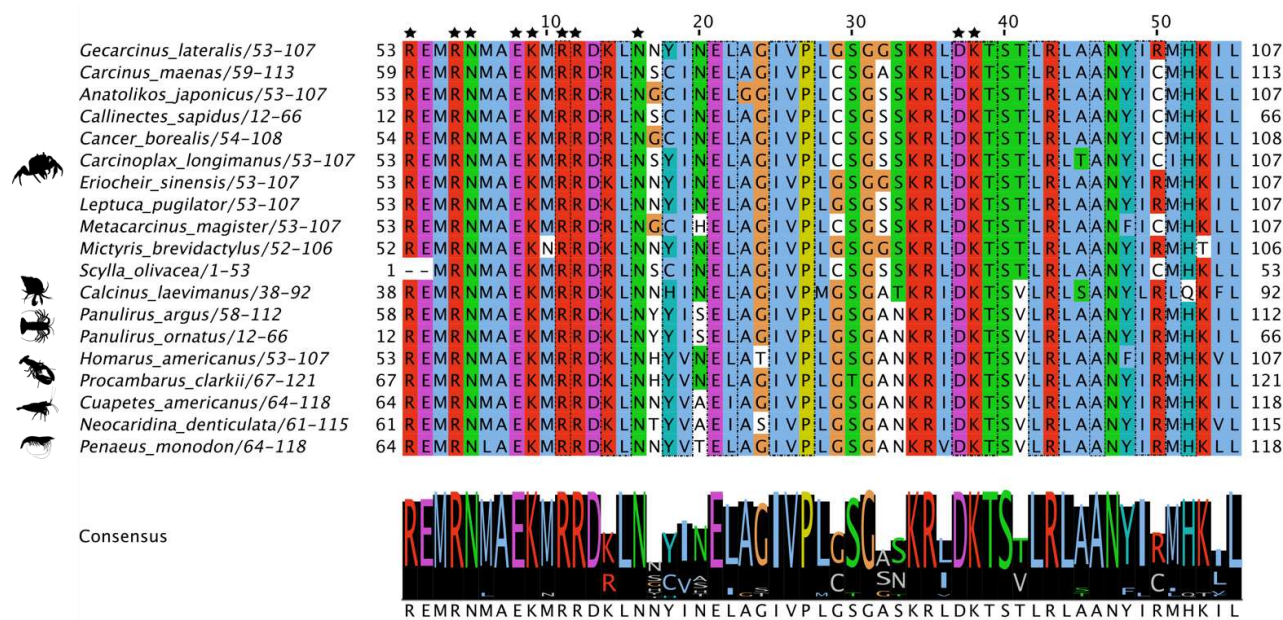


Figure 2.3. Multiple sequence alignment of the decapod Met basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) domain. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. Conserved amino acids involved with DNA binding and dimer interfaces are indicated by black stars and by dashed lines, respectively. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

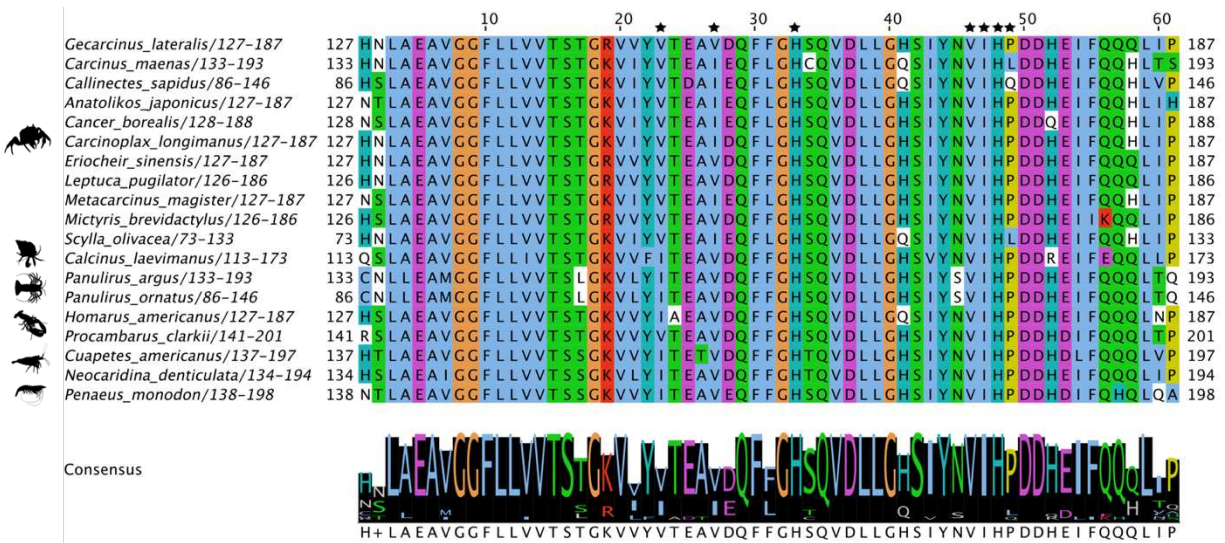


Figure 2.4. Multiple sequence alignment of the decapod Met PAS-A domain. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. Conserved amino acids as active sites are indicated by black stars. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

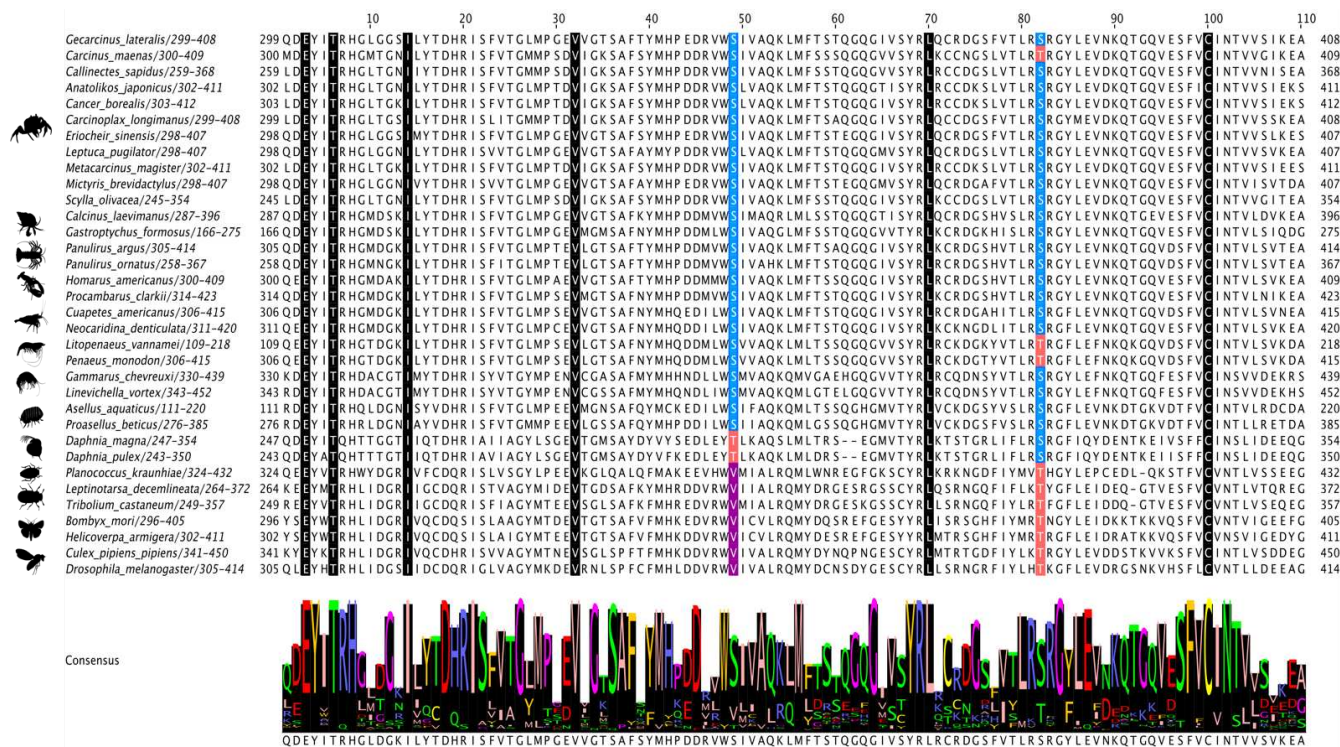


Figure 2.5. Multiple sequence alignment of the Met PAS-B domain in pancrustacean species. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. The positions of eight amino acids involved in JH binding in insects are highlighted: invariant amino acids at reference positions #3, #6, #32, #70, and #100 across all taxa are indicated by black shading; substitutions at reference positions #49 and #82 are indicated by either blue for Serine (S), peach for Threonine (T), or purple for Valine (V). Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 2.6

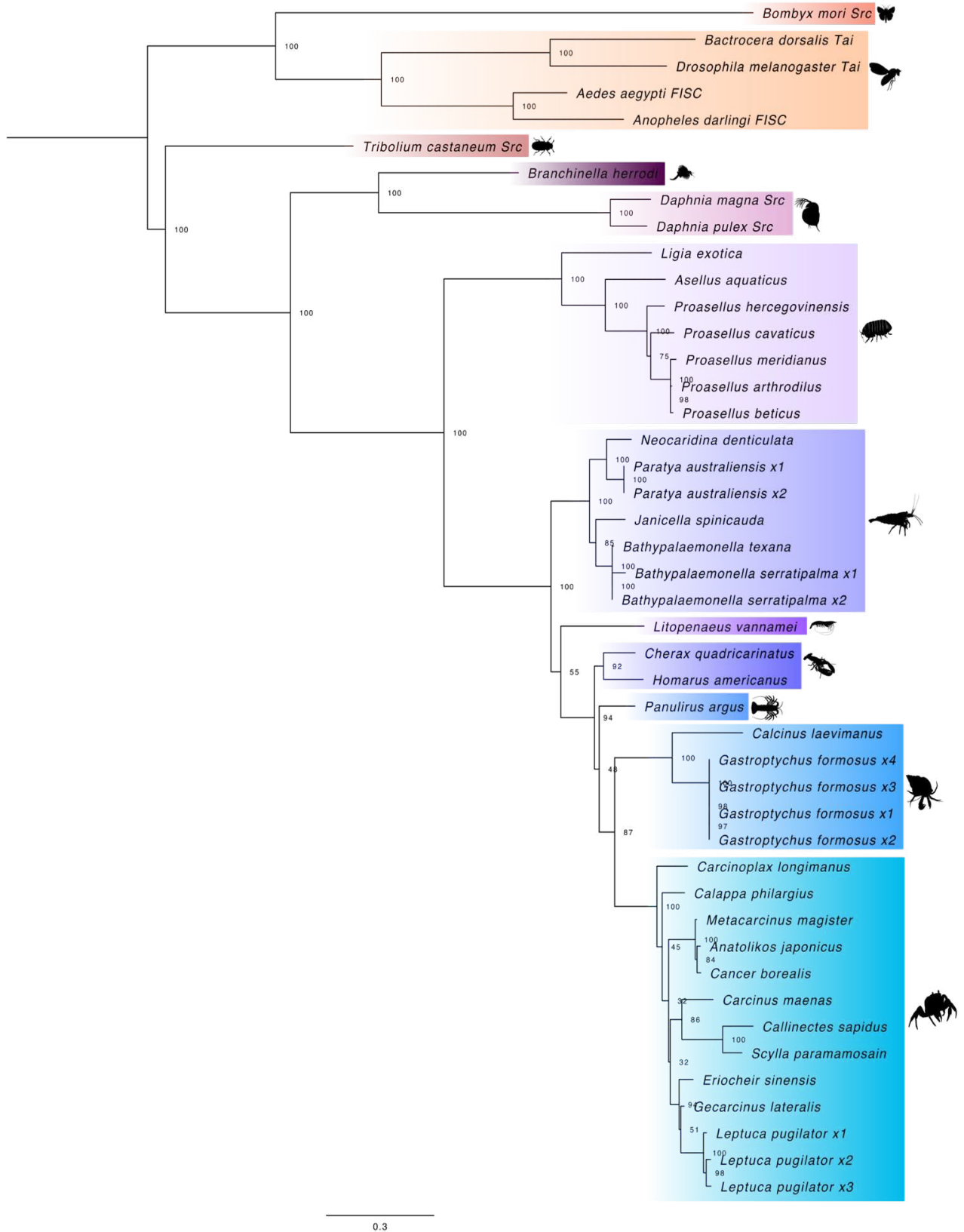


Figure 2.6. Phylogeny of pancrustacean Steroid receptor coactivator (Src) proteins. The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model JTT+F+I+G4. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

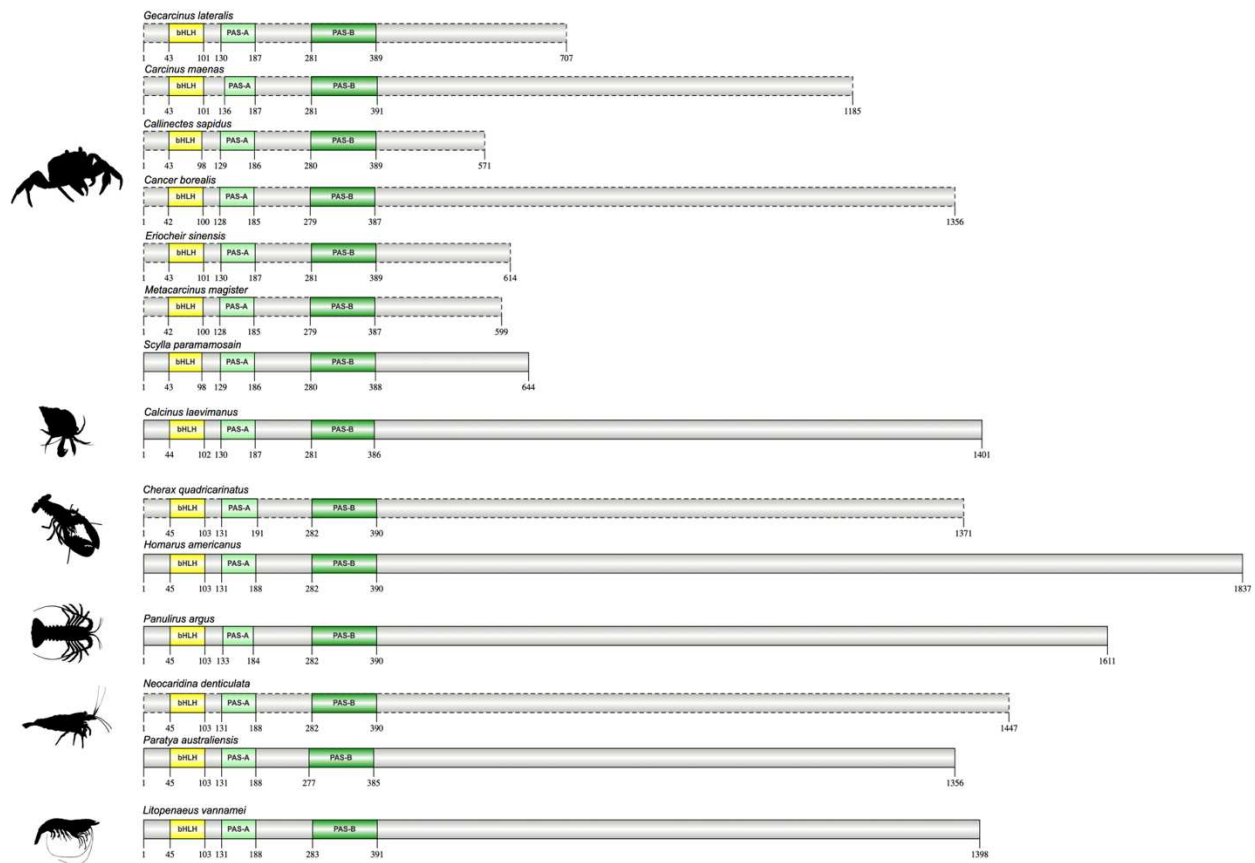


Figure 2.7. Domain organization of decapod Steroid receptor coactivator (Src) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated partial sequences. The N-terminal region contained the basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) DNA-binding domain, followed by the PAS-A and PAS-B domains. Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 2.8

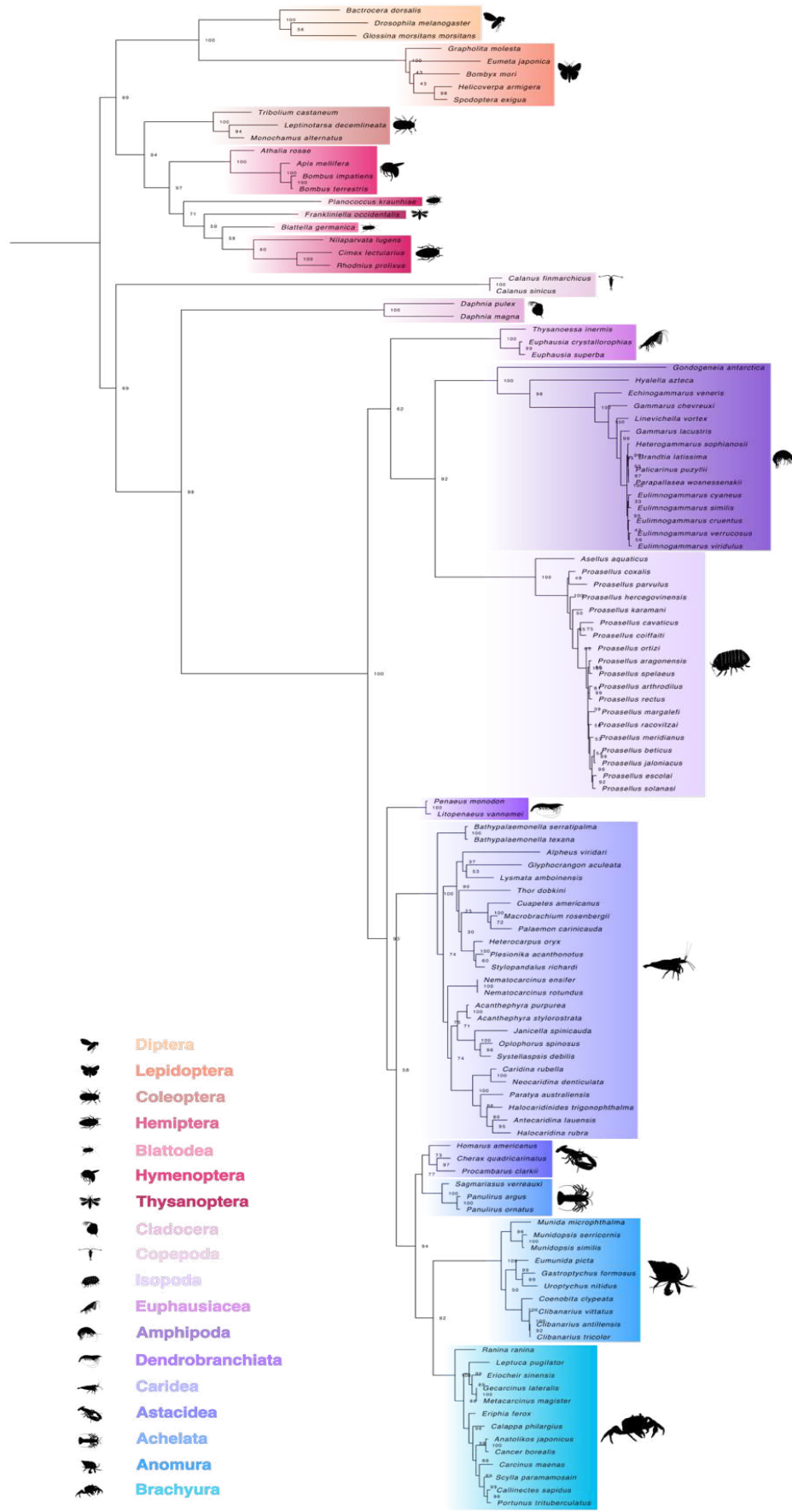


Figure 2.8. Phylogeny of pancrustacean Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) proteins. The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model JTT+I+R5. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

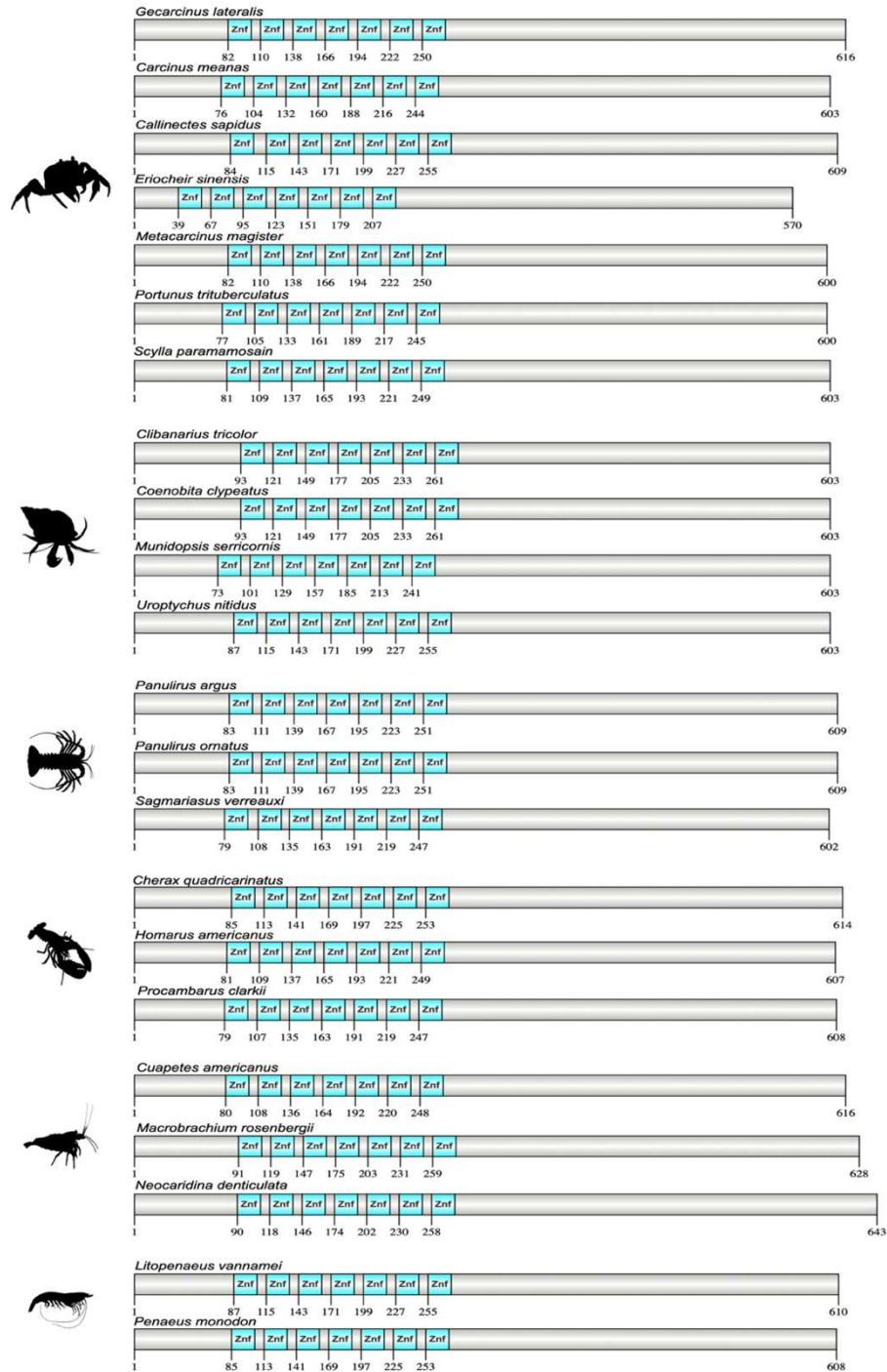


Figure 2.9. Domain organization of decapod Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated partial sequences. The N-terminal region contained seven zinc finger (Znf) repeats in the DNA-binding domain. Information for the sequences is presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

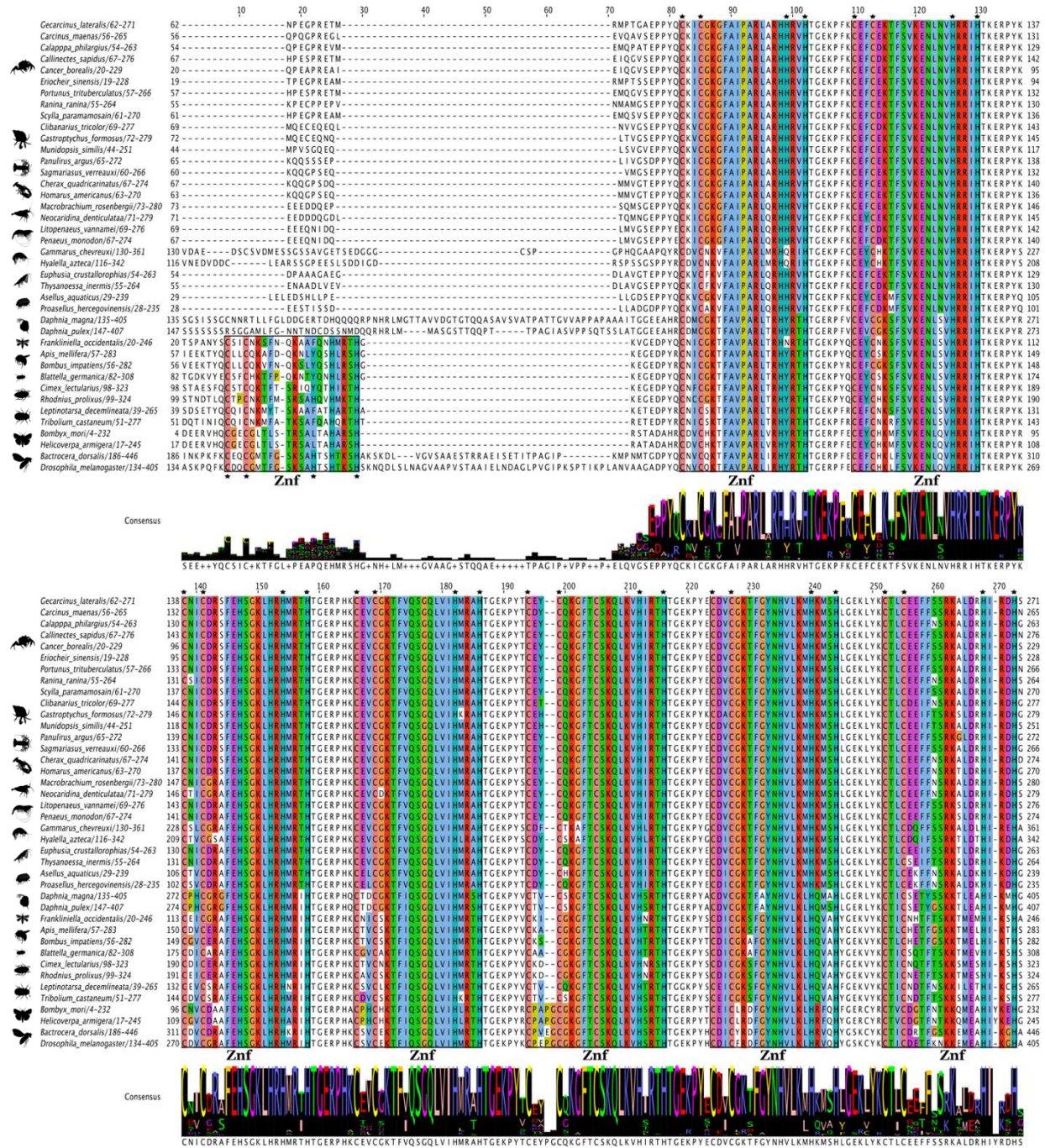


Figure 2.10. Multiple sequence alignment of Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) proteins in pancrustacean species. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. The C2H2 zinc fingers are annotated following default Clustal coloring with the two Cys and His residues indicated by black stars. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 2.11

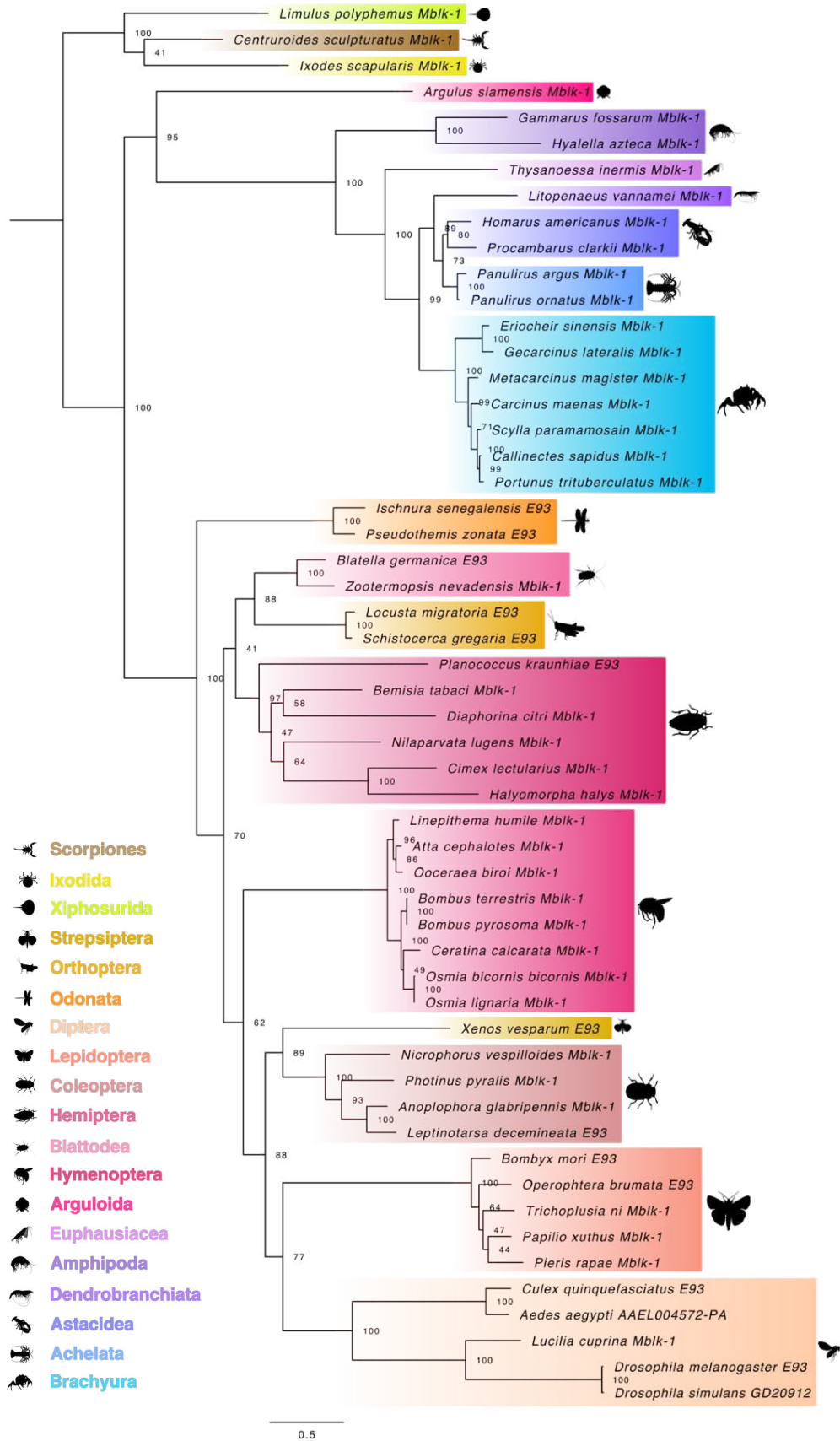


Figure 2.11. Phylogeny of arthropod E93 and Mushroom body large-type Kenyon cell-protein 1 (Mblk-1) proteins. The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model JTT+F+I+I+R4. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

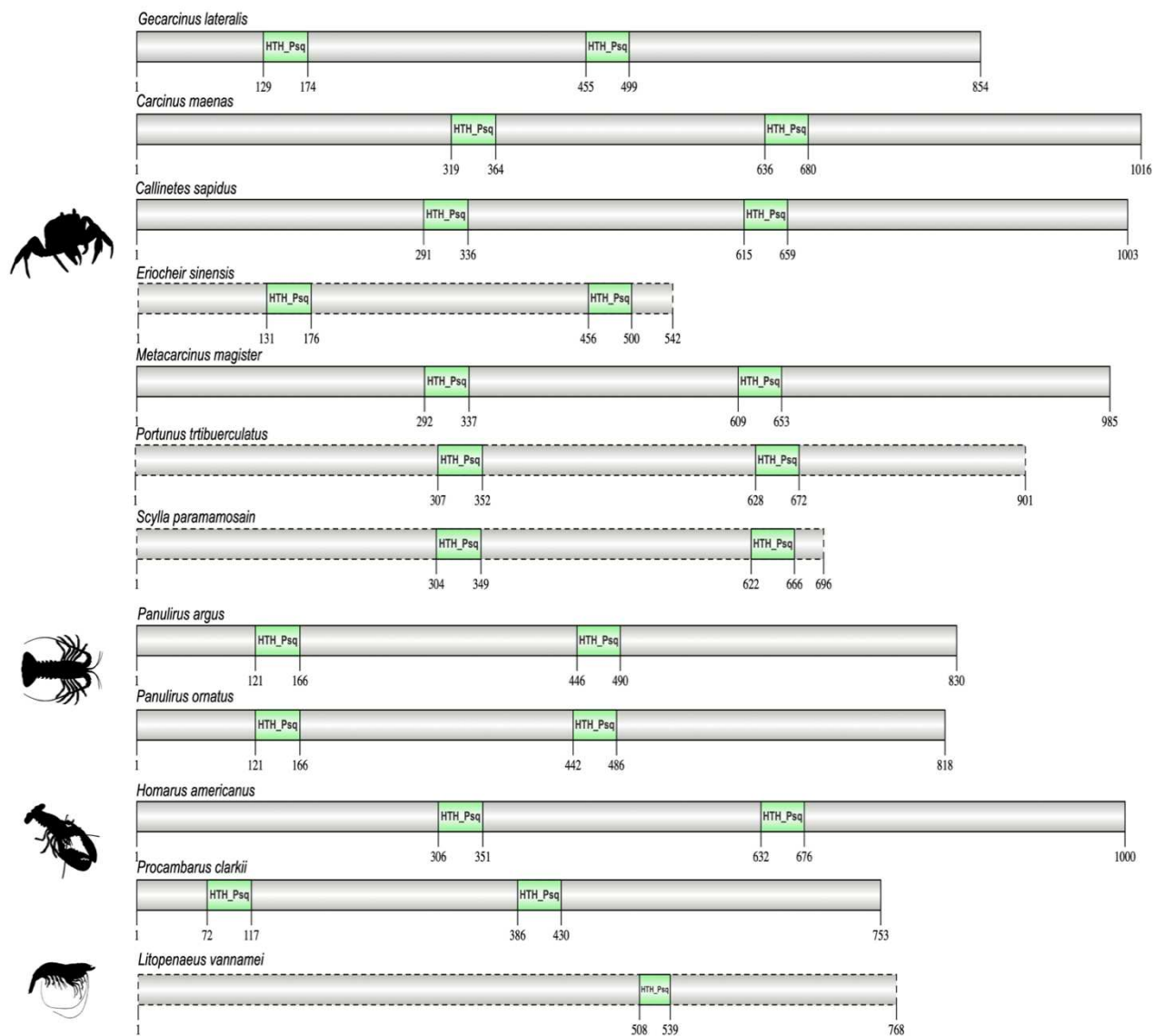


Figure 2.12. Domain organization of decapod E93 proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated partial sequences. Proteins, except Lv-E93, contained two helix-turn-helix Pipsqueak (HTH_Psq) DNA-binding domains. Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 2.13

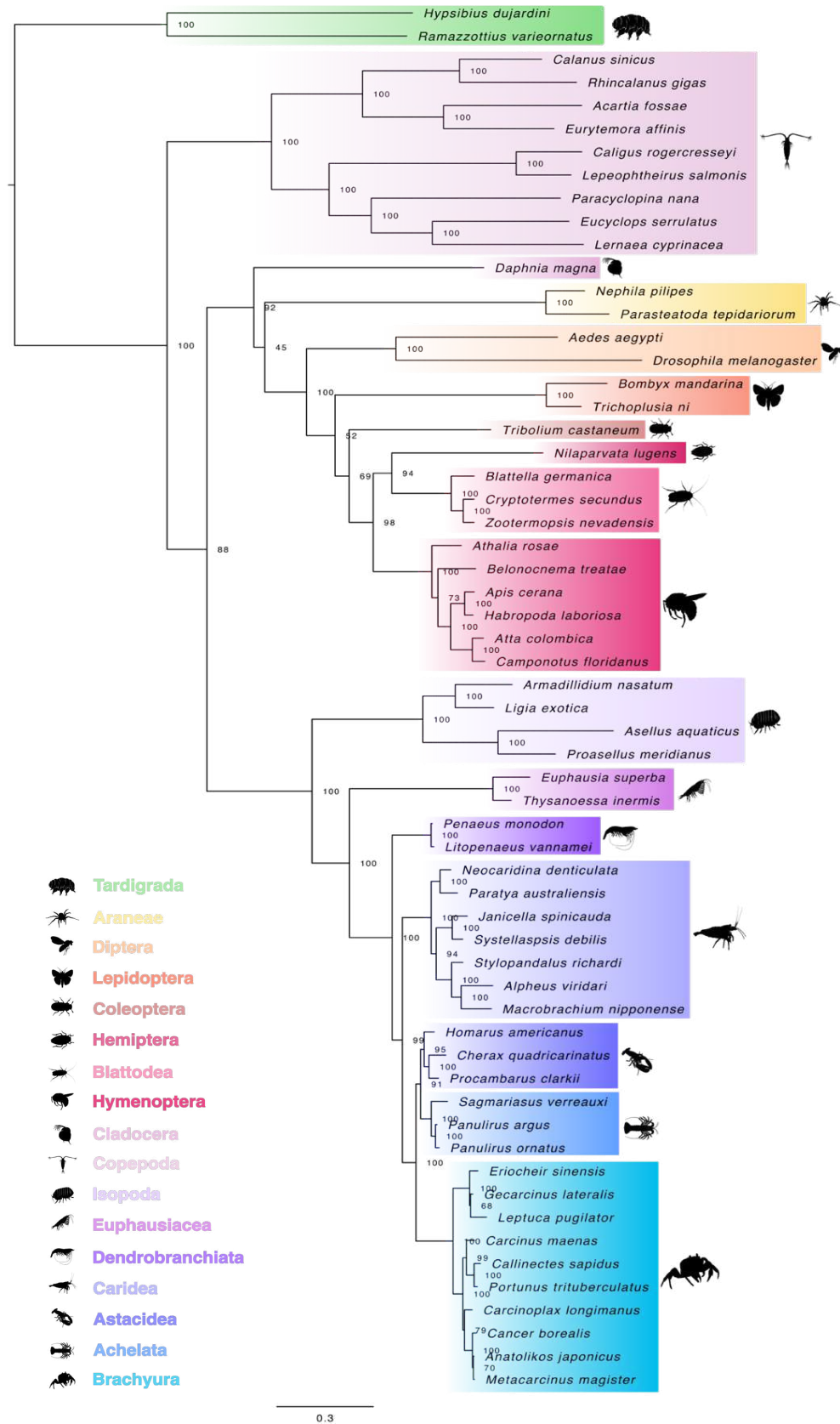


Figure 2.13. Phylogeny of panarthropoda CREB-binding proteins (CBPs). The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model JTT+F+I+I+R5. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

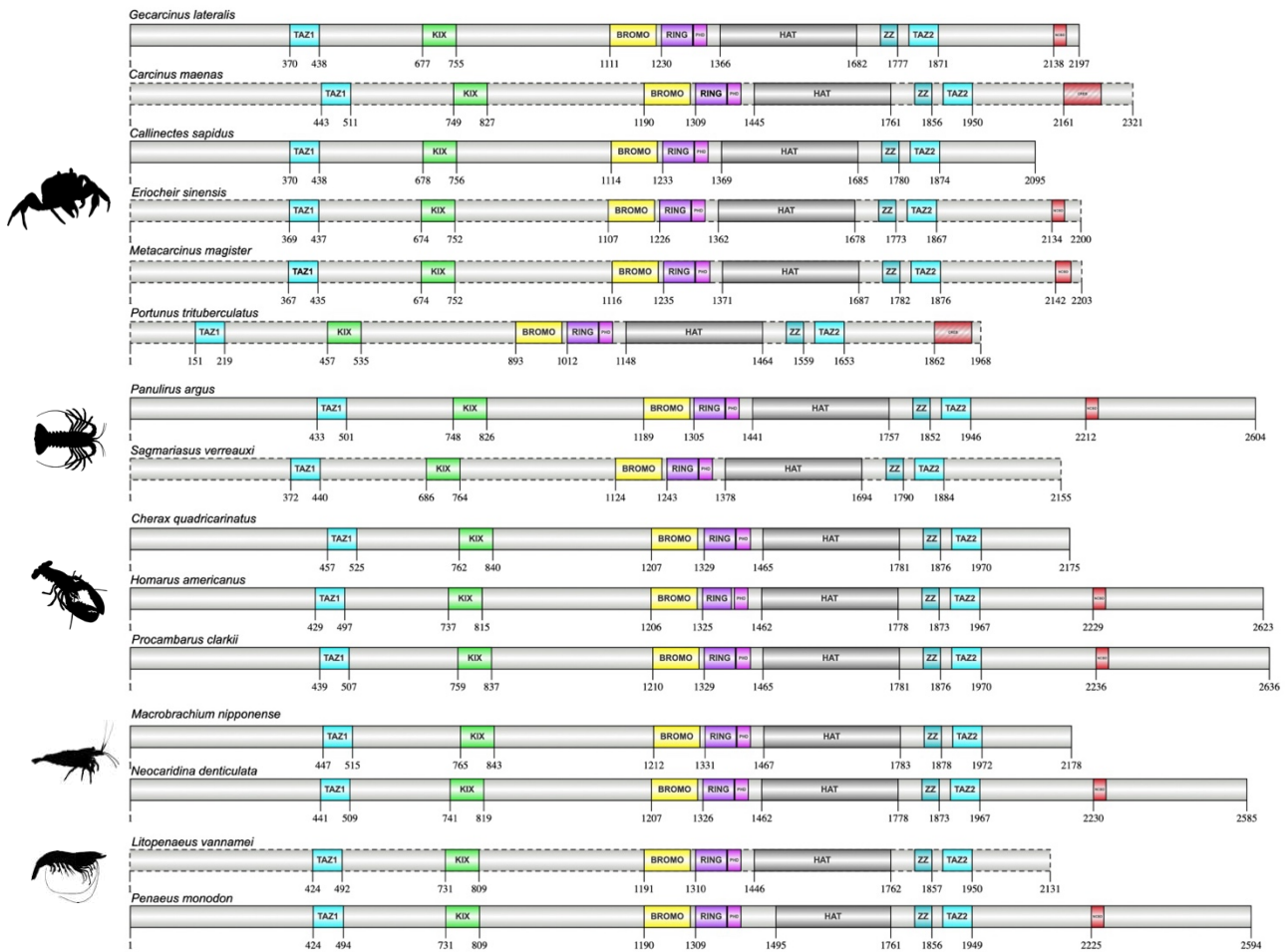


Figure 2.14. Domain organization of decapod CBPs. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated partial sequences. CBP proteins contained the Transcription Adaptor Zinc Finger (TAZ1), Kinase-inducible domain (KID) interacting domain (KIX), Bromodomain (BROMO), Really Interesting New Gene (RING), Plant Homeodomain (PHD), Histone acetyltransferase (HAT), ZZ zinc finger (ZZ), and TAZ2 domains. Coactivator binding sites were contained in the nuclear receptor coactivator binding domain (NCBD) within the CREB binding regions (CREB). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 2.15



Figure 2.15. Phylogeny of panarthropoda C-terminus-binding proteins (CtBPs). The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model Dayhoff+I+R4. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

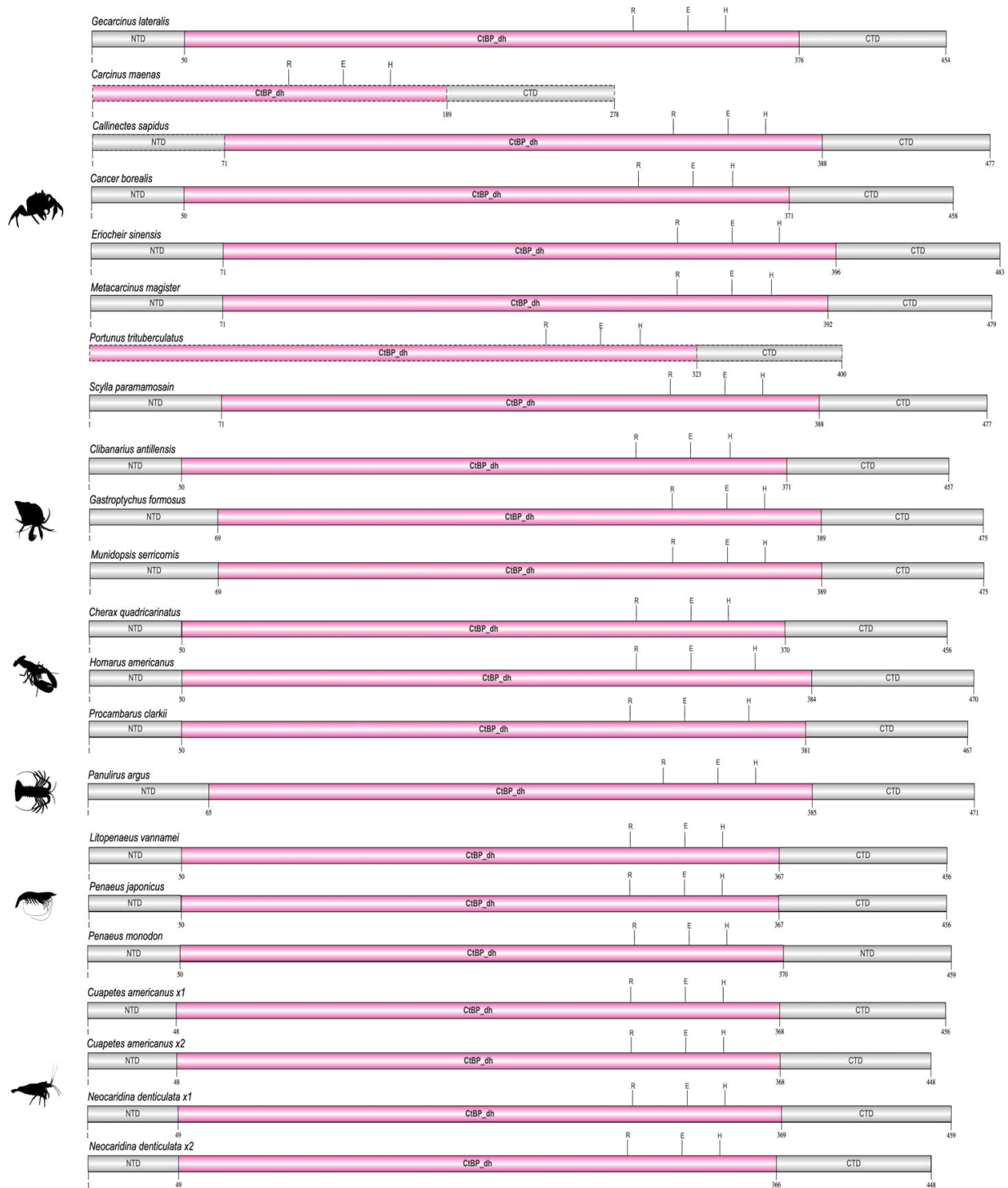


Figure 2.16. Domain organization of decapod CtBPs. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated partial sequences. The CtBP_{dh}, containing the R-E-H catalytic residue sites, is flanked by the N-terminal domain (NTD) and the C-terminal domain (CTD). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 2.17

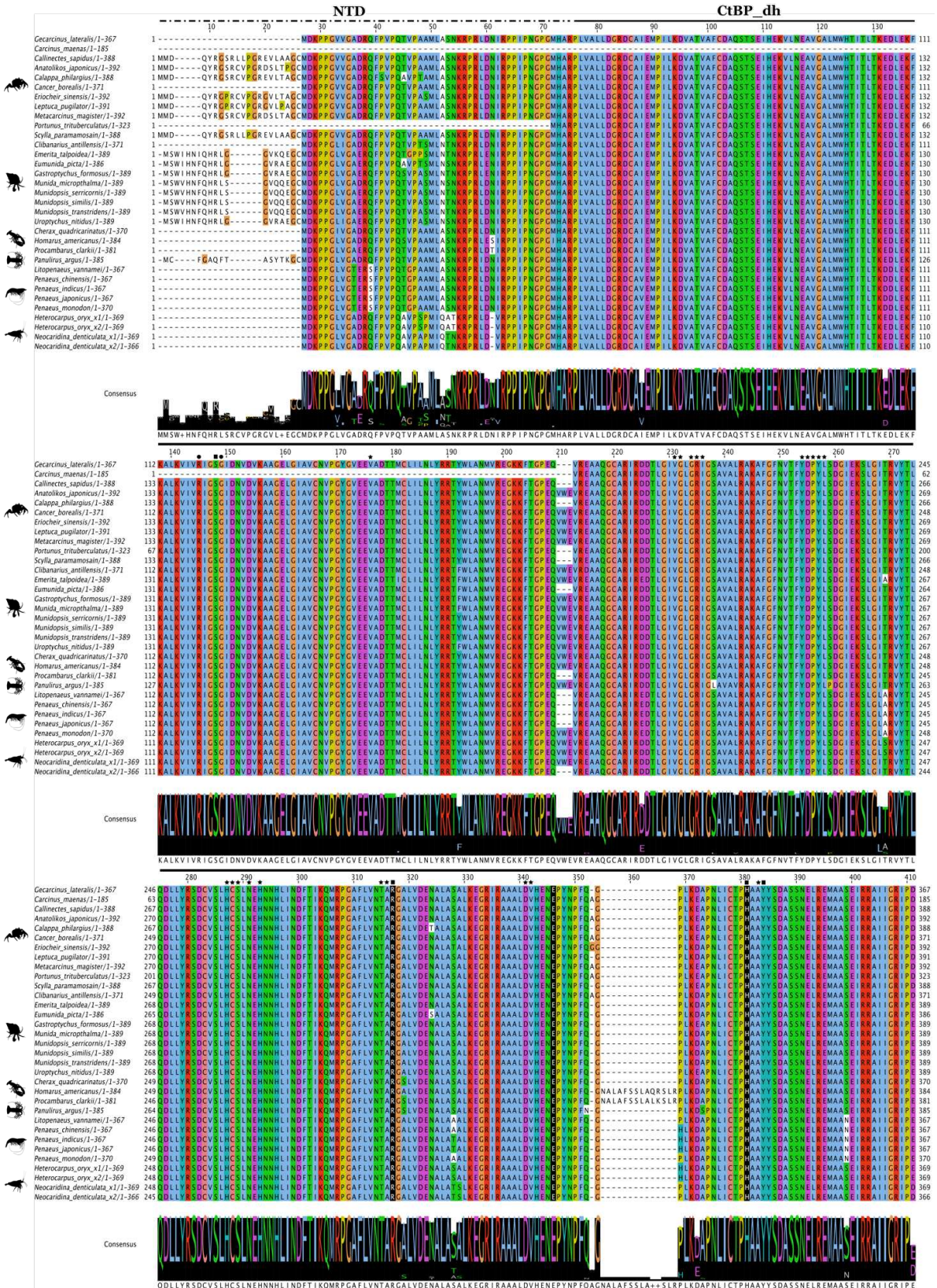


Figure 2.17. Multiple sequence alignment of decapod crustacean CtBP N-terminal region. Within this region is the N-terminal domain (NTD), indicated by the overhead dashed line, that precedes and flanks the dehydrogenase domain (CtBP_dh), shown by the overhead solid line. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. Within the CtBP_dh is the Rossmann fold along with the diagnostic catalytic triad of Arginine (R), Glutamic Acid (E), and Histidine (H) (highlighted in black). Black stars indicate conserved amino acids involved in NAD-binding while black circles indicate ligand-binding and black rectangles show NAD/ligand-binding (gray). Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

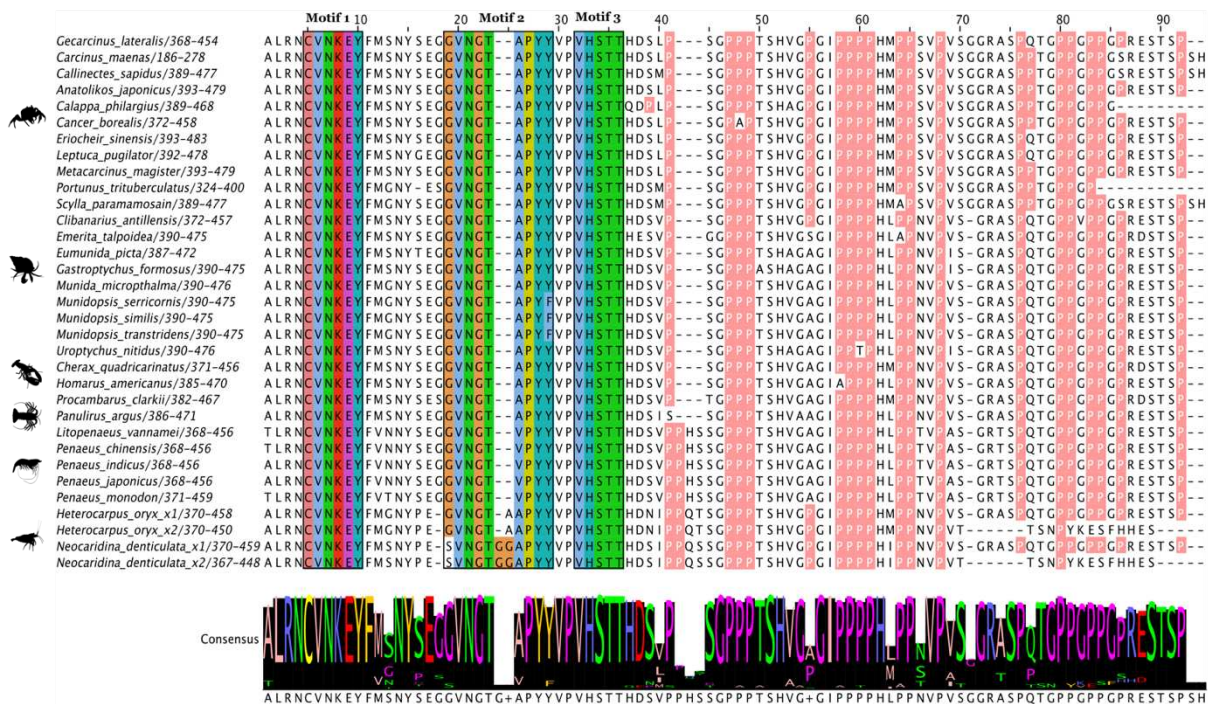


Figure 2.18. Multiple sequence alignment of the disordered C-terminal domain (CTD) of decapod crustacean CtBPs. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. The CTD begins with the C V N K E Y motif followed by the central block motif (G V N G T A P Y Y in brachyurans) and later the V H S T T motif visualized following default Clustal coloring. Subsequently following these motifs is a proline (P) rich region shown in peach. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

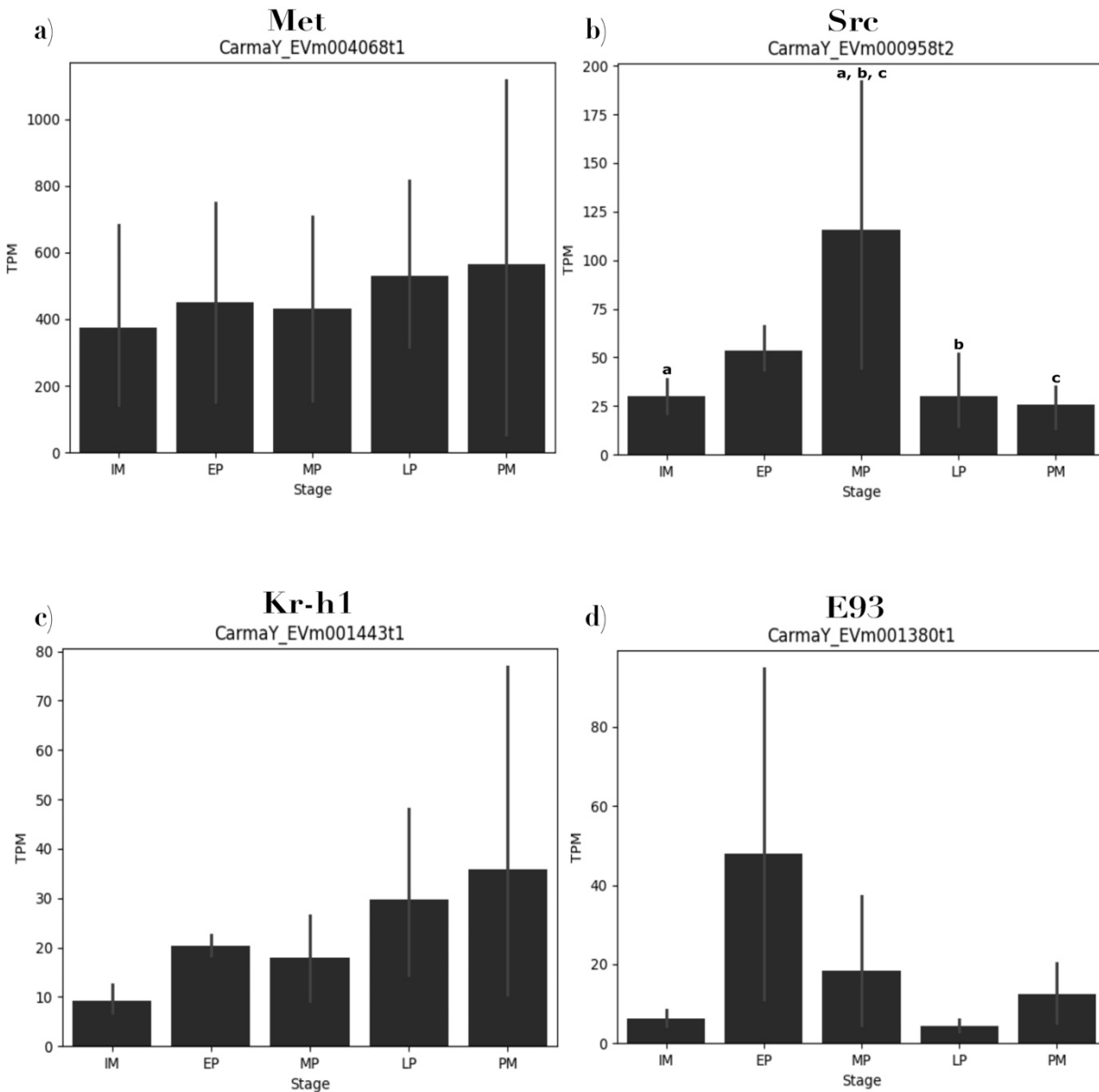


Figure 2.19. Relative gene expression of methyl farnesoate (MF) signaling genes a) *Methoprene tolerant* (*Met*), b) *Steroid receptor coactivator* (*Src*), c) *Krüppel homolog 1* (*Kr-h1*), and d) *Ecdysone response gene 93* (*E93*) in *Carcinus maenas* Y-organs (YO) across the different stages of the molt cycle (abbreviations: IM–intermolt, EP– early premolt, MP– mid premolt, LP– late premolt, and PM– postmolt). Transcript levels are expressed as mean transcripts per million reads (TPM) \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$) with letters indicating significance. *Cm-Src* expression (b) was significantly higher in MP and significantly lower in intermolt IM, LP, and PM; IM–MP: $p = 0.0471$; LP–MP: $p = 0.047$; MP–PM: $p = 0.0346$. RNA-seq data was obtained from Oliphant et al. (2018) ($n = 5$ biological replicates of paired YOs) and was quantified with Salmon (v.1.7.0) using the *C. maenas* YO transcriptome assembly included in CrusTome (v.0.1.0) (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023).

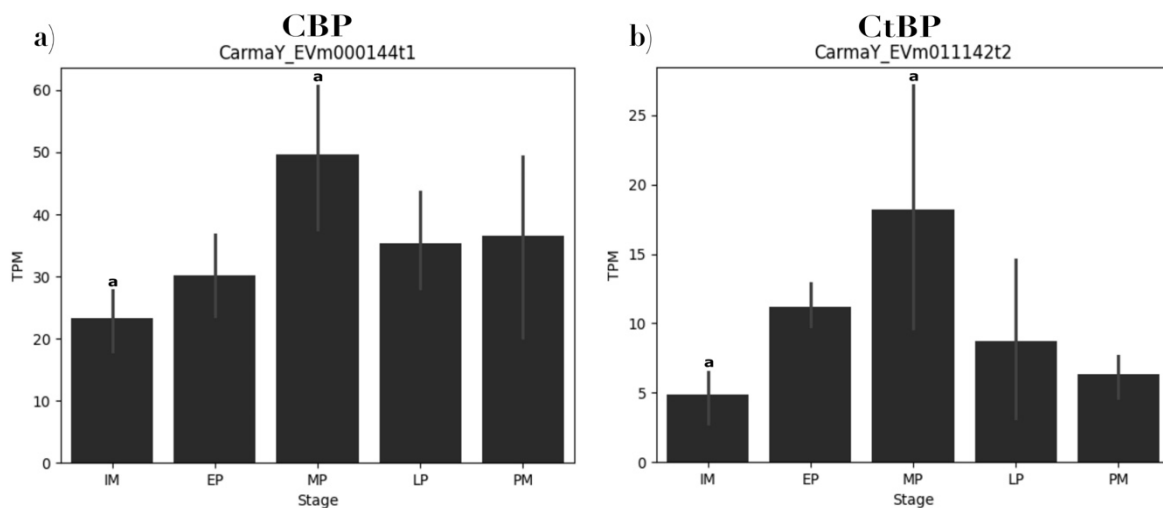


Figure 2.20. Relative gene expression of transcriptional comediators a) *CREB-binding protein (CBP)* and b) *C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP)* in *Carcinus maenas* Y-organs (YO) across the different stages of the molt cycle (abbreviations: IM–intermolt, EP– early premolt, MP– mid premolt, LP– late premolt, and PM– postmolt). Transcript levels are expressed as mean transcripts per million reads (TPM) \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$) with letters indicating significance. The mean expression of *Cm-CBP* and *Cm-CtBP* at MP was significantly higher than that at IM; a) *Cm-CBP* IM–MP: $p = 0.022$; b) *Cm-CtBP* IM–MP: $p = 0.035$. RNA-seq data was obtained from Oliphant et al. (2018) ($n = 5$ biological replicates of paired YOs) and was quantified with Salmon (v.1.7.0) using the *C. maenas* YO transcriptome assembly included in CrusTome (v.0.1.0) (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023).

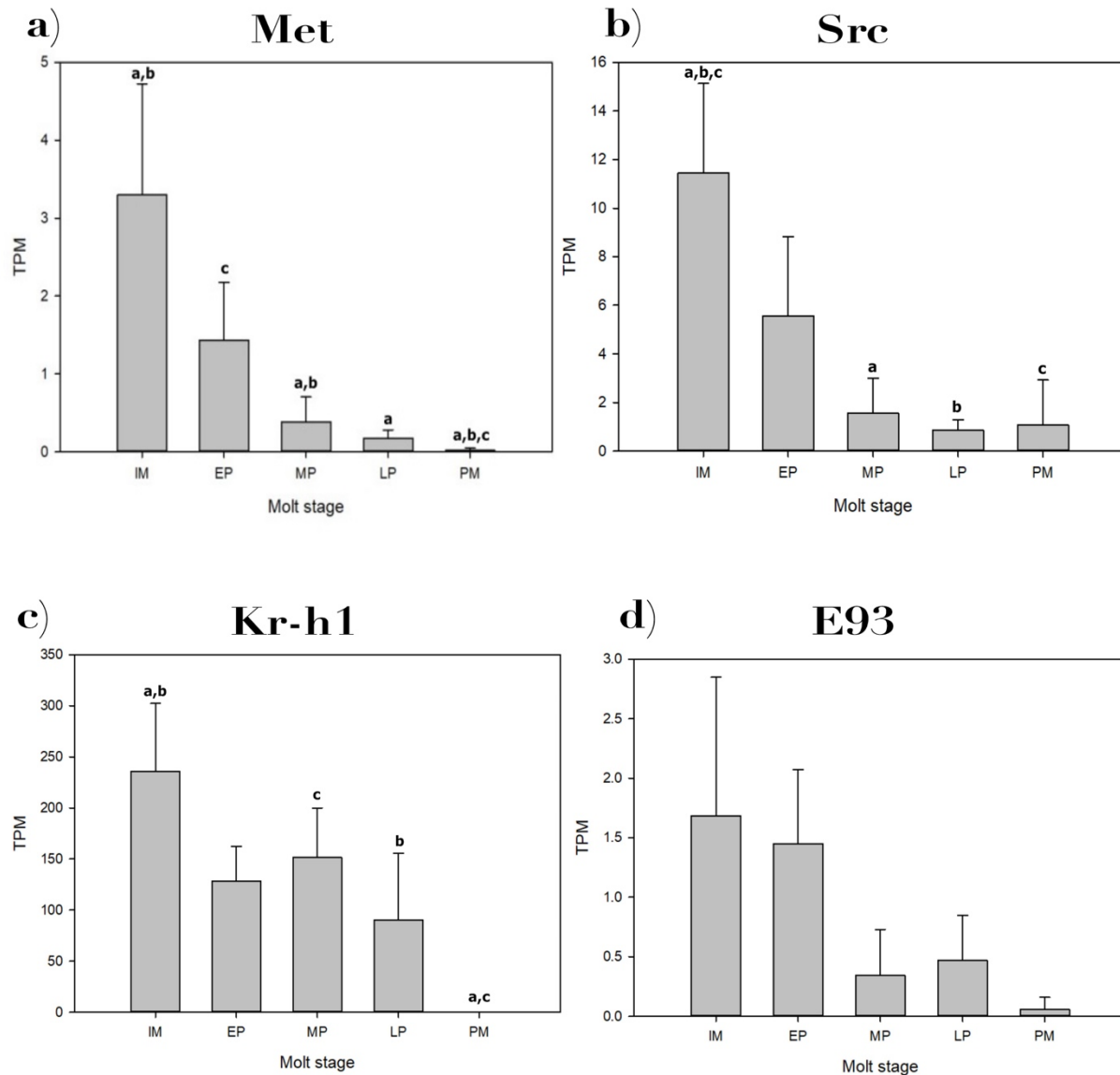


Figure 2.21. Relative gene expression of methyl farnesoate (MF) signaling genes a) *Methoprene tolerant* (*Met*), b) *Steroid receptor coactivator* (*Src*), c) *Krüppel homolog 1* (*Kr-h1*), and d) *E93* in *Gecarcinus lateralis* Y-organs (YO) across the different stages of the molt cycle (abbreviations: IM–intermolt, EP– early premolt, MP– mid premolt, LP– late premolt, and PM– postmolt). Transcript levels are expressed as mean transcripts per million reads (TPM) \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$) with letters indicating significance. RNA-seq data was obtained from (Das et al., 2018) ($n = 3$ pooled replicates of 3 animals) and was quantified with Salmon (v.1.7.0).

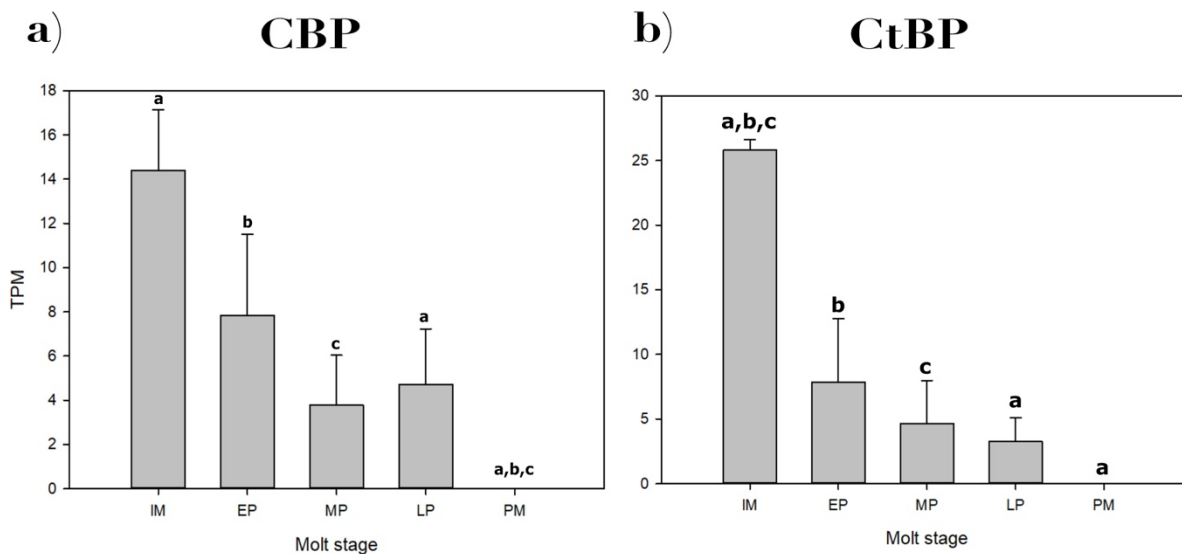


Figure 2.22. Relative gene expression of transcriptional comediators a) *CREB-binding protein* (CBP) and b) *C-terminal-binding protein* (CtBP) in *Gecarcinus lateralis* Y-organs (YO) across the different stages of the molt cycle (abbreviations: IM–intermolt, EP– early premolt, MP– mid premolt, LP– late premolt, and PM– postmolt). Transcript levels are expressed as mean transcripts per million reads (TPM) \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$) with letters indicating significance. RNA-seq data was obtained from Das et al. (2018) ($n = 3$ pooled replicates of 3 animals) and was quantified with Salmon (v.1.7.0).

Figure 2.23

Cumulative 20-E synthesized across time

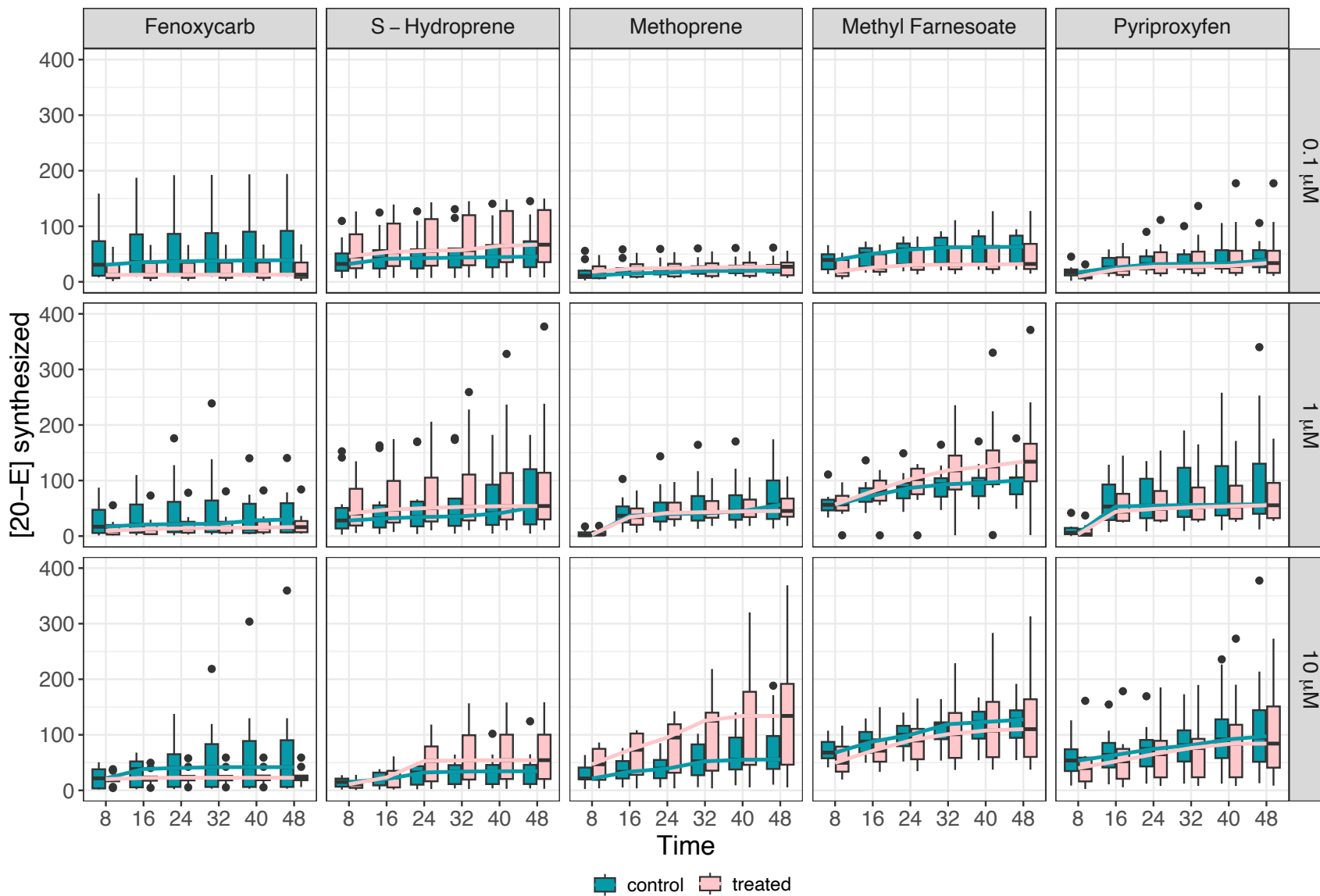


Figure 2.23. Cumulative 20-E titers ($\text{pg}/\mu\text{L}$) secreted by intermolt (IM) green crab (*C. maenas*) Y-organs (YOs) by treatment group (fenoxycarb, S-hydropene, methoprene, MF, and pyriproxyfen) at various concentration levels ($0.1 \mu\text{M}$, $1.0 \mu\text{M}$, and $10.0 \mu\text{M}$) ($n = 10$ crabs per tested compound at each concentration). The data is displayed as the control-treatment status (control and treated) with the Line for each group represents the median value for that concentration and time. Differences between treated and control groups are largest at higher concentrations and later times. S-Hydroprene and methoprene show larger magnitudes of differences at $10.0 \mu\text{M}$ and after 24-hours of exposure.

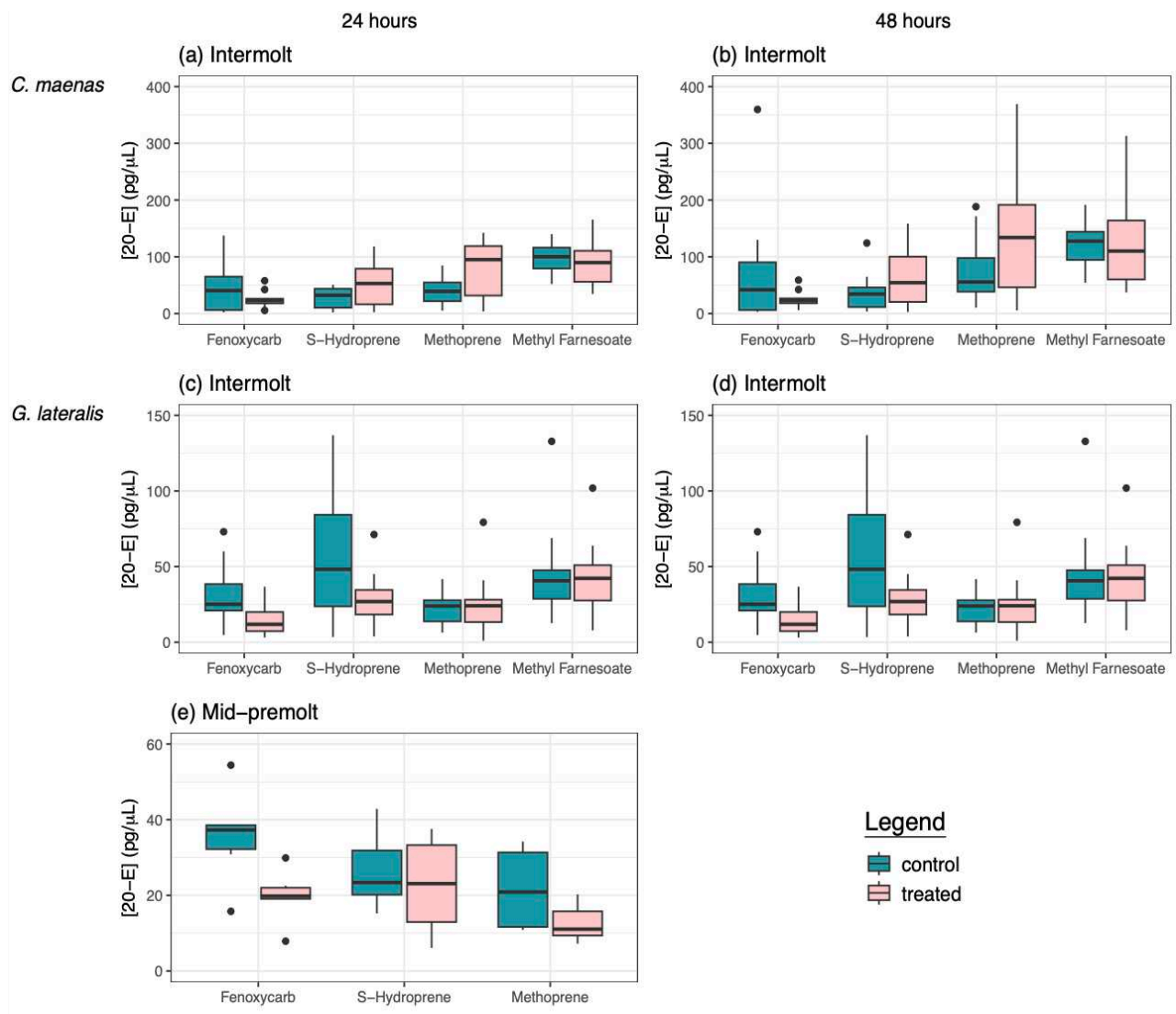


Figure 2.24. Cumulative 20-E concentration (pg/μL) synthesized by the Y-organs (YO) at 24 and 48-hours after exposure to 10.0 μM of MF or a JH-mimic (fenoxycarb, hydroprylene, and methoprene; pyriproxyfen data not shown) and their counterpart control YO for green crabs (*C. maenas*) in intermolt (IM) (n = 10 crabs per tested compound) compared to the IM and mid-premolt (MP) blackback land crabs (*G. lateralis*) (n = 10 IM crabs per tested compound and n = 6 MP crabs per tested compound).

Figure 2.25. Mediation of ecdysteroidogenesis through the methyl farnesoate (MF) transcriptional cascade of Methoprene tolerant (Met) – Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) – Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) in the Y-organ (YO). MF is proposed to act as an autocrine factor to regulate the endocrine cross talk with 20-E as the genes encoding for the synthetic enzymes were identified including *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase (HMGR)* and *farnesoic acid O-methyltransferase (FAMeT)*. High hemolymph titers of 20-E, such as in mid and/or late premolt (MP and/or LP) inhibit 20-E synthesis thus leading to the transition from a committed to repressed state. By contrast, low 20-E titers in the hemolymph, such as in intermolt (IM) when the YO is in a basal or repressed state, stimulate the YO ecdysteroid production. Although molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH) inhibits ecdysteroid synthesis through the mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1), MF is proposed to act as an autocrine factor to regulate the endocrine cross talk with 20-E.

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CHAPTER 3

METHYL FARNESOATE SYNTHETIC GENE ANNOTATION AND RNA-SEQ ANALYSIS IN BRACHYURAN Y-ORGANS

Abstract

Methyl farnesoate (MF) is an acyclic sesquiterpenoid hormone produced by the crustacean mandibular organ (MO) that has roles in morphogenesis, metamorphosis, reproduction, and molting. However, the underlying mechanism of how MF mediates the molting gland (Y-organ or YO) production of ecdysteroids is unknown. MF is synthesized through the mevalonate and farnesyl diphosphate/isopentenoid pathway in which farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase (FAMeT) converts farnesoic acid (FA) into MF in crustaceans. Crustacean FAMeT contains two methyltransferase domains and is a S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM) independent methyltransferase contrary to juvenile hormone acid methyl transferase (JHAMT), a SAM-dependent transferase involved in insect (and potentially crustacean) biosynthesis of JH and/or sesquiterpenoid hormones.

MF synthetic genes *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase (HMGR)*, *FAMeT (a/b)*, and *FAMeT2* were identified in the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO transcriptome along with other related species. Phylogenetic analysis and sequence analysis indicated that HMGR is highly conserved while FAMeT and FAMeT2 are distinct transferases. Analysis of the *C. maenas* YO RNA-seq data showed *HMGR*, *FAMeT (a/b)*, and *FAMeT2* were expressed at all stages of the molt cycle. *FAMeTa* nonetheless was largely more expressed in comparison to the other synthetic genes.

Analysis of *C. maenas* YO RNA-seq data showed that *Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, *E93*, *CBP*, *CtBP* were expressed at all the molt stages. Analysis of *G. lateralis* YO RNA-seq data showed that *HMGR*, *FAMeT*, *FAMeT2* were expressed at the different molt stages besides in post molt (PM). However, *Gl-FAMeT* was expressed at higher levels compared to the other synthetic genes and was upregulated in mid premolt (MP).

These data indicate that the YO has the machinery to biosynthesize MF and/or a MF-like hormone. Moreso, FAMeT and FAMeT2 may serve different functionalities. Besides ecdysteroids, it is proposed that the YO may produce other hormones that impact ecdysteroidogenesis.

Introduction

Methyl farnesoate (MF) is a hydrophobic, acyclic sesquiterpenoid hormone, discovered by Laufer et al. (1987) in the spider crab, *Libinia emarginata*. MF is synthesized the mandibular organs (MO), a pair of highly vascularized endocrine glands, that were first described by Le Roux (1968) (Laufer et al., 1987a). The MO, analogous to the insect corpus allatum (CA) with ultrastructural similarities to the crustacean Y-organ (YO), is located at the base of the mandibular tendon (Table 3.1) (Laufer et al., 1987b; Tobe et al., 1989a; Nagaraju et al., 2004). The MO contains an unfolded and folded region to which the unfolded region contains C-type cells, large cells with numerous mitochondria and large vacuoles (Borst et al., 1994). On the other hand, fan-fold region contains A and B cells of which A cells are undifferentiated while the B cells contained numerous vacuoles and thus B cells are likely the site of MF synthesis (Borst et al., 1994). The MOs from the giant mud crab (*Scylla serrata*) have been shown to secrete (*in vitro*) both FA and MF with the FA secretion rate 10-fold higher than of MF; however,

hemolymph analyses detected the presence of only MF and not FA (Tobe et al., 1989b; Borst and Tsukimura, 1991; Tiu et al., 2012). As suggested by these results, although FA may potentially serve a biological importance itself, FA is likely to be quickly metabolized, sequestered, and/or taken up by other target tissues (Tobe et al., 1989b; Tiu et al., 2012). The MO is repressed by mandibular inhibiting hormone (MOIH), a neuropeptide produced by the X-organ, sinus gland complex (XO) within the eyestalk ganglia, through the action of second messenger cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) (Laufer et al., 1987b; Tsukimura and Borst, 1992; Wainwright et al., 1998; Borst et al., 2001). Neurotransmitters, such as serotonin, may indirectly stimulate MF synthesis by inhibiting MOIH secretion from the sinus gland (Girish et al., 2017; Farhadi et al., 2020).

MF is often referred by its nickname ‘the crustacean juvenile hormone (JH)’ as it is the unepoxidated form of the insect JH III and is implicated in several physiological processes (Borst et al., 1987b; Tsukimura et al., 1993; Homola and Chang, 1997c; Laufer and Biggers, 2001; Nagaraju, 2007). MF was shown to control morphogenesis in adult male red swamp crayfish (*Procambarus clarkii*) and spider crabs (Rotllant et al., 2000; Laufer et al., 2002, 2005). Additionally, MF stimulates gonad maturation and vitellogenesis in the freshwater crabs *Oziotelphusa senex senex* and *Travancoriana schirnerae*, the orange mud crab (*Scylla olivaceae*), the whiteleg shrimp (*Litopenaeus vannamei*), and the ridgeback shrimp (*Sicyonia ingentis*), but no effect on the Australian freshwater crayfish (*Cherax quadricarinatus*) (Reddy and Ramamurthi, 1998; Kalavathy et al., 1999; Abdu et al., 2001; Reddy et al., 2004; Paran et al., 2010; Alnawafleh et al., 2014; Devi et al., 2018; Muhd-Farouk et al., 2019). Crustacean development and metamorphosis is also affected by MF in the barnacle *Balanus amphitrite* cypris larva, karuma prawn larval (*Marsupenaeus japonicus*), and the giant freshwater prawn

(*Macrobrachium rosenbergii*) (Yamamoto et al., 1997; Abdu et al., 1998; Smith et al., 2000; Toyota et al., 2020a). Tamone and Chang (1993) showed that Dungeness crab YOYs exposed to MF stimulated ecdysteroidogenesis (*in vitro*). MF and its stimulatory role in ecdysteroid production and molting has been further supported by other studies in *L. vannamei*, *O. senex senex*, *C. quadricarinatus*, and *T. schirnerae* (Abdu et al., 2001; Reddy et al., 2004; Alnawafleh et al., 2014; Raghavan and Ayanath, 2019).

MF biosynthesis is split into two phases: 1) the mevalonate (MVA) pathway and 2) the farnesyl diphosphate/isopentenoid pathway as summarized in Figure 3.1. In the first phase, acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA) is converted to hydroxymethylglutaryl-CoA (HMG-CoA) and then undergoes a rate-limiting reduction by 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl coenzyme A (HMG-CoA reductase or HMGR) thus resulting in the production of mevalonate (Goldstein and Brown, 1990; Bellés et al., 2005). HMGR is a membrane-bound enzyme with a variable number of transmembrane domains that is highly conserved across living organisms (Bellés et al., 2005). Mevalonate undergoes a series of enzymatic events resulting in the conversion to farnesyl pyrophosphate (FPP), an important intermediate in the synthesis of cholesterol and other bioactive terpenoids, by the specific action of farnesyl diphosphate synthase (FPPS) (Bellés et al., 2005). Independent studies have demonstrated that RNA interference (RNAi) mediated knockdown of *HMGR* and *FPPS* have consequences on MF regulated physiological processes, including vitellogenesis in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*) and vitellogenesis and metabolic gene responses in the red cherry shrimp (*Neocaridina denticulata sinensis*) (Chen et al., 2022b; Liu et al., 2022a).

Transitioning into the second phase, pyrophosphatase activity converts FPP to farnesol and subsequently into farnesoic acid (FA) by dehydrogenase activity (Bellés et al., 2005).

Farnesoic *O*-methyltransferase (FAMeT) converts FA into MF; however, depending on the type of JH and in which insect taxonomic order, FA can undergo two enzymatic steps resulting in the JH production (Noriega, 2014; Qu et al., 2015). Either FA is epoxidized by CYP15C1 into JH acid (JHA) and then is esterified by juvenile hormone methyl transferase (JHAMT), or it is esterified by JHAMT first and later epoxidized by CYP15A1 (Shinoda and Itoyama, 2003; Defelipe et al., 2011; Qu et al., 2018). JHAMT and FAMeT are distinct, critical enzymes for the biosynthesis of MF, JH, and/or additional potential terpenoids. However, these biosynthetic enzymes are often confused for one another due to inadequate information at the time of identification leading to poor annotations. The increase in data availability and power of bioinformatic tools provides the opportunity for a more thorough identification and/or reclassification of these biosynthetic enzymes. In terpenoid biosynthesis, it is understood that JHAMT is an insect innovation, while crustaceans utilize FAMeT; however, JHAMT has also been identified in crustaceans (Hui et al., 2010; Noriega, 2014; Cheong et al., 2015; Qu et al., 2015; Sin et al., 2015b; Miyakawa et al., 2018; Nouzova et al., 2021).

The *JHAMT* gene was first characterized in the domestic silk moth (*Bombyx mori*) and demonstrated to possess methyl transferase activity in the presence of both juvenile JHA and FA as substrates (Shinoda and Itoyama, 2003; Cheng et al., 2014). JHAMT and JHAMT-like enzymes encompass a variable number of methyltransf_12 domains (Cheng et al., 2014). JHAMT enzymes are S-adenosyl-L-methionine (SAM)-dependent methyltransferases, consisting of a substrate binding and Rossmann-fold cofactor binding region (Shinoda and Itoyama, 2003; Guo et al., 2021). The SAM molecule is an essential cofactor that provides the methyl group to a substrate and generates the corresponding product S-adenosyl-L-homocysteine (SAH) (Shinoda and Itoyama, 2003; Guo et al., 2021). JHAMT has been identified in crustaceans the water flea

(*Daphnia pulex*), the giant tiger prawn (*Penaeus monodon*), and the gazami crab (*Portunus trituberculatus*) (Toyota et al., 2015; Xie et al., 2016a; Semchuchot et al., 2023). Although MF is understood to be synthesized by the MO, *FAMeT* transcripts have been identified in a variety of different tissues in various crustaceans (Table 3.2). *FAMeT* is a SAM-independent methyltransferase that contains two methyltransferase domains and many putative phosphorylation sites (Liu et al., 2022b).

To enhance the understanding of the role of MF on ecdysteroidogenesis, MF synthetic genes were investigated in adult, male brachyuran YO transcriptomes. In the current study, *HMGR*, *FAMeT (a/b)*, and *FAMeT2* orthologs were identified and characterized in the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO. The expression levels for each identified mRNA transcript were profiled throughout the progression of the molt cycle. These results are anticipated to help clarify if the YO synthesizes an innate source of MF and utilizing it as an autocrine regulatory factor.

Materials and methods

Animals

Adult male blackback land crabs (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) were collected from the Dominican Republic and shipped by air cargo to Colorado State University (CSU) (Fort Collins, Colorado). The land crabs were subsequently kept in an environmental chamber at a temperature of 27 °C with 75-80% humidity under a 12-hour light:12-hour dark cycle (Bliss and Boyer, 1964; Bliss, 1968). The animals were housed in large, plastic communal enclosures lined with Tekland Envigo Aspen Bedding Laboratory Grade #7093 shavings saturated with 5 parts per thousand (ppt) Instant Ocean® deionized water. The crabs were fed twice a week on a diet of

lettuce, carrots, and raisins coated with calcium powder. Before any experimental testing or tissue harvesting was conducted, the animals were acclimated to laboratory conditions for one month, while the third right leg was autotomized to monitor for any potential spontaneous molting (Covi et al., 2009). Molting was induced by removing five to eight walking legs, also referred to as multiple leg autotomy (MLA) (Skinner, 1962, 1985a, 1985b; Hopkins, 1982; Chang, 1995; Yu et al., 2002). Premolt progression was monitored by measuring the limb regenerate growth as determined by the regeneration index (R-index = [mm limb regenerate length x 100]/mm carapace width) (Bliss et al., 1966a; Hopkins, 1982). In addition to the R-index, molt stage was further confirmed by the hemolymph 20-hydroxyecdysone (20-E) titer; presence of the membranous layer, the innermost layer of the exoskeleton; and the presence of gastroliths (Skinner, 1962, 1985a, 1985b; Hopkins, 1982; Chang, 1995; Yu et al., 2002).

On the day of tissue harvesting, 100 μ L of hemolymph was drawn using 22-gauge sterile, hypodermic needles from the randomly sampled individuals. The hemolymph sample was combined with 300 μ L of 100% methanol (MeOH) in O-ring microcentrifuge tubes, quickly vortexed to prevent coagulation, and then stored at -20°C (Gianazza et al., 2021). 20-Hydroxyecdysone (20-E) titers were quantified with a competitive enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) using the AffiniPure™ Goat Anti-Rabbit IgG, Fc fragment specific secondary antibody (Jackson ImmunoResearch Inc. 111-005-008) and the SeraCare TMB Peroxidase Kit as described and modified by Kingan (1989) and Abuhagr et al. (2014), respectively (Yu et al., 2002).

In silico identification and feature recognition: phylogenetic, sequence, and domain characterization

Previously identified and/or annotated protein sequences of MF synthetic enzymes were used as queries in the National Center for Biotechnology Information Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (NCBI BLAST) program to search for candidate genes. Upon searching CrusTome and GenBank databases, additional sequences were collected; identities were verified through a reciprocal BLAST search (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). The reference sequence and the BLAST hit queries for each gene were aligned using the Multiple Alignment using Fast Fourier Transform (MAFFT) (v.7.490) with the *dash* parameter to refine the multiple sequence alignment (MSA) from the Database of Aligned Structural Homologs (DASH) (Kato and Toh, 2008; Yamada et al., 2016; Rozewicki et al., 2019). Multiple sequence alignments (MSAs) were trimmed with ClipKIT with the *smart-gap* parameter to remove gaps, while preserving informative sites (Steenwyk et al., 2020). Additionally, phylogenetic analyses were performed on maximum likelihood phylogenetic trees using protein sequences constructed with IQ-Tree and the suitable model, as determined by ModelFinder, following the Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) with branch support evaluated with 1,000 ultrafast bootstrap iterations (UFBoot = 1,000) (Hoang et al., 2017; Kalyaanamoorthy et al., 2017; Guindon, 2018; Minh et al., 2020). The phylogenetic trees were then rooted and visualized in FigTree (v1.4.4) and Inkscape (Rambaut, 2010). Sequences were further analyzed with the NCBI Conserved Domain Database (CDD) platform to predict conserved domains and residues. The contig architecture was visualized and annotated with Illustrator for Biological Sequences 2.0 (IBS 2.0) (Xie et al., 2022). NetPhos 3.1 web server (<https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/services/NetPhos-3.1/>) was utilized to identify putative serine, threonine, and tyrosine phosphorylation sites (Blom et al., 1999, 2004). Species

taxonomic ranks were annotated according to the classifications defined by Giribet and Edgecombe (2019).

Differential gene expression (DGE)

C. maenas relative gene expression was acquired from the YO RNA-seq data generated by Oliphant et al. (2018) and assembled in the CrusTome database (v.0.1.0) (n = 5 biological replicates of paired YOs per molt stage) (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). Relative gene expression in the YOs was determined for *G. lateralis* using RNA-seq data from animals induced to molt by multiple leg autotomy (MLA) (n = pooled replicates of 3 animals each) (Das et al., 2018). Gene expression, measured as transcripts per million reads (TPM), was quantified using Salmon (v.1.7.0) with the “--seqBias --gcBias --validateMappings” parameters for quantitative accuracy and mitigation of possible biases. Transcript expression was graphed as mean TPM ± standard error of the mean (SEM). Statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$).

Results

Identification and characterization of MF synthetic genes

To investigate crustacean MF synthetic genes, BLAST inquiry analyses of the CrusTome transcriptome database were performed using candidate genes, as indicated by the asterisk on the corresponding spreadsheet found on the online repository supplementary data. The *3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme reductase (HMGR)* gene was identified across different taxa within Clade Panarthropoda (Table 3.3). Genes encoding for the rate limiting biosynthetic enzymes were identified brachyuran YO transcriptomes accessed from the CrusTome database.

In *G. lateralis*, complete sequences of *Gl-HMGR*, *Gl-FAMeTa*, *Gl-FAMeTb*, and *Gl-FAMeT2* were identified in the YO transcriptome (Table 3.4). In *C. maenas*, complete *Cm-HMGR*, *Cm-FAMeTa*, and *Cm-FAMeT2* contigs and a partial *Cm-FAMeTb*, were identified in the YO transcriptome (Table 3.5). Each contig identity was verified through reciprocal BLAST searches as presented within the corresponding spreadsheet found in the supplementary data on the online repository.

3-Hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme reductase (HMGR)

Phylogenetic analysis of the HMGR maximum likelihood tree, constructed using protein sequences, revealed the partition into pancrustacean, chelicerate, and tardigrade clades (Figure 3.2). Further analysis of Clade Pancrustacea showed that related species were generally clustered according to lower hierarchical taxonomic ranks (e.g., class, order, and infraorder), except for copepods and *Daphnia*. Although copepods are members of Clade Multicrustacea, they were positioned at the split for Clade Allotriocarida, which includes insects and *Daphnia*. *Daphnia* was positioned between the clade division of Allotriocarida and Multicrustacea. Class Malacostraca were subdivided into their respective orders, with amphipods grouping closer to isopods than to the decapods. Moreover, decapod crustaceans were partitioned between the crab infraorders (Infraorders Anomura and Brachyura) and the lobsters and shrimp infraorders. However, penaeid shrimp orthologs were more similar to lobsters than to caridean shrimp orthologs.

While pancrustacean HMGR ortholog lengths vary across taxa, the length was overall similar across orders with the HMGR domain spanning most of the protein (Figure 3.3; Figures B1 and B2). Anomuran HMGR orthologs were relatively longer (<1000 amino acids in length)

than the other decapod infraorders, but were more similar in length to other crustaceans (e.g. amphipods and some copepods) and tardigrades (Figure 3.3 and Figure B1). Except for *C. maenas*, brachyuran HMGR proteins were ~920 – 970 amino acids in length, which was similar to the lobster and shrimp orthologs. However, HMGR in *C. maenas* (860 amino acids) and *Litopenaeus vannamei* (876 amino acids) were shorter in length compared to other species. Full-length HMGR contig sequences were extracted from *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* YO transcriptome assemblies. A *Gl-HMGR* contig encoded a 961-amino acid protein (Table 3.4; Figure B3). A *Cm-HMGR* contig encoded an 860-amino acid protein (Table 3.5; Figure B4).

Farnesoic acid O-methyltransferase (FAMeT and FAMeT2)

Phylogenetic analysis of FAMeT proteins showed a clear division between insect and crustacean sequences (Figures 3.5 and 3.6). The crustacean sequences were further divided into FAMeT and FAMeT2 subclades with more FAMeT transcripts and isoforms identified compared to FAMeT2 (Figures 3.5 and 3.6). FAMeT transcripts were identified in euphausiids, amphipods, isopods, and all representative decapod infraorders (Figures 3.5 and 3.6). Malacostracan crustacean FAMeT orthologs were divided into their respective orders with krill (euphausiids) further separated from Orders Isopoda, Amphipoda, and Decapoda. Moreover, isopods and amphipods clustered closer together than to the decapod crustaceans. Most decapod infraorders followed taxonomic rank, except for the anomurans in which the hermit crabs and squat lobsters were segregated (Figures 3.5 and 3.6). FAMeT2 transcripts were identified in euphausiids, amphipods, isopods, and all representative decapod infraorders, except for Infraorder Astacidea (Figures 3.5 and 3.6). Further analysis of malacostracan FAMeT2 showed that related species were clustered together at the order level with the euphausiids set apart from the other represented

orders (Figures 3.5 and 3.6). The decapod crustaceans were divided between the crab infraorders (Infraorders Anomura and Brachyura) and the lobsters and shrimp infraorders; however, caridean shrimp orthologs were shown to be more similar to the crabs than to penaeid shrimp and spiny lobsters.

Crustacean FAME_T orthologs ranged between 274 and 302 amino acids in length and encompassed two methyltransferase (Methyltransf_FA) domains. Spiny lobster (Infraorder Achelata) orthologs were longer in length compared to the rest of the crustaceans (Figures 3.6 and B5). Decapod species exhibited various FAME_T isoforms that varied in length (e.g., long and short) (Figures 3.6 and B5). Two FAME_T isoforms (FAME_{Ta} and FAME_{Tb}) were identified in the blue crab (*Callinectes sapidus*), *C. maenas* (*Cm-FAME_{Ta/b}*), and *G. lateralis* (*Gl-FAME_{Ta/b}*) YO. *Cm-FAME_{Ta}* and *Gl-FAME_{Ta}* orthologs encoded a 280-amino acid protein, while *Cm-FAME_{Ta}* and *Gl-FAME_{Tb}* encoded shorter proteins (206 and 275 amino acids, respectively) (Tables 3.4 and 3.5). All the *FAME_T* transcripts identified in *G. lateralis* (Figures B6 and B7) and *C. maenas* (Figures B8 and B9) contained numerous putative phosphorylation sites (e.g., serine, threonine, and/or tyrosine). Crustacean FAME_{T2} orthologs consisted of 324 to 355 amino acids (Figure 3.7). FAME_{T2} differed from FAME_T as it contained one Methyltransf_FA domain that was followed by the domain of unknown function 3421 (DUF3421) (Figures 3.7 and B10).

Gene expression analysis

The relative gene expression of *HMGR*, *FAME_{T2}*, and *FAME_{Ta}*, and *FAME_{Tb}* was determined in the *C. maenas* YO across the different molt stages. All four genes were constitutively expressed, with *Cm-FAME_T* expressed at higher levels than the other three genes (Figure 3.15). There was no significant effect of molt stage on the relative expression of the four

genes. In *G. lateralis*, the relative gene expression of *Gl-HMGR*, *Gl-FAMeT2*, and *Gl-FAMeTa/b* (*a* and *b* combined), was determined in the YO across the different molt stages.

Gl-FAMeT was expressed at significantly higher levels than the other two genes and was upregulated in mid-premolt (MP). All three genes; however, were downregulated and/or not expressed in postmolt (PM) (Figure 3.16).

Discussion

MF is a sesquiterpenoid hormone that regulates several physiological processes is conventionally understood to be produced by the crustacean MO (Homola and Chang, 1997c; Nagaraju, 2007). MF is biosynthesized through transferase activity of FA through FAMEt; however, there is difference between the enzyme(s) (FAMEt and JHAMT) that are responsible for MF synthesis. It was reported that *in vitro* FAMEt catalyzes FA into MF in the greasyback shrimp (*Metapenaeus ensis*), but not in the brown crab (*Cancer pagarus*) or the American lobster (*Homarus americanus*) (Gunawardene et al., 2002; Ruddell et al., 2003; Holford et al., 2004). Additionally, *Macrobrachium rosenbergii* FAMEt activity was affected by JHAMT and *Daphnia* JHAMT catalyzed FA into MF (Toyota et al., 2015; Qian and Liu, 2019). JHAMT has been identified in *P. trituberculatus* and *Neocaridina denticulata* (Sin et al., 2015b; Xie et al., 2016a). RNAi of *FAMEt* did not affect molting in postmolt *Neocaridina sinensis* individuals, unlike in *Litopenaeus vannemi* individuals where molting was inhibited and led to higher mortality (Hui et al., 2008; Liu et al., 2022b). With consideration to these data and the presence of FAMEt in various crustacean tissues, it is possible that FAMEt activity for the conversion of FA to MF may be subjected to the presence of binding proteins (Table 3.2).

Using GenBank and the CrusTome database, the MF biosynthetic rate limiting enzymes in HMGR and FAMEt were identified in pancrustacean taxa. The extracted contig sequences obtained from *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* and *G. lateralis* YO transcriptomes were identified and characterized (Tables 3.4 and 3.5). Phylogenetic and bioinformatic analysis revealed high conservation of the domain organization, which will aid in the proper identification and annotation of new sequences as transcriptomes and genomes are added to GenBank and other repositories. HMGR sequences were identified in many crustacean species; however, HMGR was also identified in other arthropods (e.g. chelicerates) and even in an arthropod ancestor– the tardigrade (panarthropoda). The structure of HMGR was highly conserved across all taxa thus supporting that hypothesis that the mevalonate pathway is an ancestral signaling pathway involved in the isoprenoid biosynthesis (Lombard and Moreira, 2011).

Crustacean FAMEt is conventionally to have two methyltransferase domains (Methyltrans_FA) while insect FAMEt orthologs contain a Methyltrans_FA domain and a number of DM9 repeats. Phylogenetic analysis confirmed the divergence of the pancrustacean FAMEts as crustacean FAMEt sequences formed a distinct group divergent from insect FAMEt orthologs. A FAMEt containing a DM9 repeat has been identified in the current study and in the mud crab *S. paramamosain*; however, its role in MF synthesis and in turn physiological roles, more specifically the differing effects in comparison to FAMEt is unknown (Zhao et al., 2018). Although, a DM9-containing protein was identified in the Chinese mitten crab (*Eriocheir sinensis*) and was reported to have roles in immunity, the relationship of FAMEt2 and DM9 containing proteins are not well understood (Li et al., 2024). This data supports the idea that the crustacean FAMEt is not orthologous to the insect FAMEt. FAMEt2 sequences were segregated from the FAMEt sequences, to, which, encompassed the conventional two Methyltrans_FA

domains. 21 genes with 37 isoforms implicated in MF biosynthesis were identified in the green mud crab (*Scylla paramamosain*) in the variety of tissues; the YO was not specifically investigated (Zhao et al., 2022). Out of the mutual genes of interest between the current study, Zhao et al. (2015), and Zhao et al. (2022), *FAMeT* and *FAMeT2* were not identified but only *HMGR* across the three brachyurans: two in *S. paramamosain*, one in *C. maenas*, and one in *G. lateralis*. In a previous study, *FAMeT2* was identified in also in *S. paramamosain* (*Sp-FAMeT2*) (Zhao et al., 2018). During larval development there was a significant difference in the expression of *Sp-FAMeT2* and exhibited a similar expression that to *Sp-HMGR* (Zhao et al., 2015, 2018).

The MF biosynthetic genes were expressed in the *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* YO at all molt stages. However, expression patterns were not consistent between species for each gene. The present study has profiled the expression of *C. maenas* MF synthetic genes *Cm-FAMeTa*, *Cm-FAMeTb*, *Cm-FAMeT2* and *Cm-HMGR* orthologs; however, these particular MF synthetic genes displayed no statistical difference between the stages. Although *Cm-FAMeTa* was expressed at higher levels in comparison to *Cm-FAMeTb*. *Cm-FAMeTb* was expressed at its highest point during while *Cm-FAMeTa* was downregulated in MP and subsequently LP. This data suggests that the two *Cm-FAMeT* variants have differing effects in the YO during the molt cycle. In the *G. lateralis* YO, *Gl-FAMeT* was highly expressed in MP in comparison to *Gl-FAMeT2* and *Gl-HMGR*. *Gl-FAMeT2* and *Gl-HMGR* was upregulated in IM but downregulated throughout the substages of premolt and post molt stages.

Conclusion

MF and sesquiterpenoid hormones are critical physiological endocrine regulators. The two rate-limiting enzymes involved in MF biosynthesis were characterized in the present study, including determining the phylogenetic relationships and the domain organization. The identification and characterization of these contiguous sequences in brachyuran YO suggests that the YO utilizes an innate MF version as an autocrine factor to regulate ecdysteroid synthesis. The interaction of FA with these various biosynthetic enzymes may result in different types of MF hormones and/or prohormones that serve different purposes. These results call for improvement in the annotations of pancrustacean FAMEt and like FAMEt-like enzymes as well as functional studies of each enzyme and the biproducts.

Data availability

The corresponding datasets in this study are available on the Harvard Dataverse online repository (Bentley, Vanessa, 2025, "Methyl farnesoate", <https://doi.org/10.7910/DVN/BCG5V4>, Harvard Dataverse, V1).

Table 3.1. Comparison of the histology and ultrastructure of the crustacean mandibular organ (MO) and the Y-organ (YO).

	Mandibular organ (MO)	Both MO and YO	Y-organ (YO)
Characteristics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Large cell size, with centered nuclei containing ample cytoplasm, generally arranged in clusters ▪ Site of MF production ▪ Identified by Le Roux (1968) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Vascularized endocrine glands ▪ Contains an extensive smooth endoplasmic reticulum and abundant in mitochondria ▪ Located in the cephalothorax ▪ Experiences ultrastructural changes (e.g. hypertrophy) throughout the molt cycle and/or reproductive cycles 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Relatively small cell size, with peripherally located nuclei, tightly packed together ▪ Site of ecdysteroid production ▪ Identified by Gabe (1953)
Species & References	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Barytelphusa cunicularis</i> (Gopal et al., 2018) ▪ <i>Callinectes sapidus</i> (Yudin et al., 1980) ▪ <i>Libinia emargnata</i> (Hinsch, 1977) ▪ <i>Homarus americanus</i> (Byard et al., 1975) (Borst et al., 1994) ▪ <i>Penaeus japonicus</i> (Taketomi and Kawano, 1985) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Carcinus maenas</i> (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980) ▪ <i>Hemigrapsus nudus</i> (Buchholz and Adelung, 1980) ▪ <i>Procambarus clarkii</i> (Taketomi and Nakano, 2007) ▪ <i>Palaemon paucidens</i> (Aoto et al., 1974) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ <i>Scylla olivacea</i> (Achdiat et al., 2024) ▪ <i>Portunus trituberculatus</i> (Taketomi and Hyodo, 1986) ▪ <i>Cancer antennarius</i> (Hinsch et al., 1980) ▪ <i>Travancoriana schirnerae</i> (Ayanath and Raghavan, 2021) (Smija and Sudha Devi, 2016) ▪ <i>Libinia emargnata</i> (Hinsch and Hajj, 1975)

Table 3.2. Tissue distribution of farnesoic acid *O*-methyl transferase (FAMeT) transcripts identified in decapod crustaceans. Abbreviations: Br, brain; CNS, central nervous system; Ep, epidermis; EG, eyestalk ganglia; Gi, gill; Hc, hemocytes; Hp, hepatopancreas; Ht, heart; In, intestine; MO, mandibular organ; Mu, muscle; NC, nerve cord; Ov, ovary; St, stomach; Te, testis; TG, thoracic ganglion, and YO, Y-organ.²

Species	Gene #	Br	CNS	Ep	EG	Gi	Hc	Hp	Ht	In	MO	Mu	NC	Ov	St	Te	TG	YO
Brachyura																		
<i>Cancer pagurus</i> ^a	1			X	X	X		X	X	X	X	X		X				
<i>Eriocheir sinensis</i> ^b	1					X		X	X	X				X	X			
<i>Portunus pelagicus</i> ^c	3	X		X	X						X	X						X
<i>Portunus trituberculatus</i> ^d	1					X		X	X		X	X		X		X	X	X
<i>Scylla olivacea</i> ^e	1										X							
<i>Scylla paramamosain</i> ^f	3	X			X	X		X	X		X	X		X	X			X
	1*	X		X		X	X	X	X		X	X		X				X
Astacidea																		
<i>Homarus americanus</i> ^g	1										X	X						
<i>Procambarus clarkii</i> ^h	1				X				X		X	X	X					
Dendrobranchiata																		
<i>Litopenaeus vannamei</i> ⁱ	2				X			X	X			X	X					
<i>Metapenaeus ensis</i> ^{h,j}	1			X	X			X	X		X	X	X	X		X		
<i>Penaeus chinensis</i> ^k	1				X	X	X	X	X			X		X		X		
<i>Penaeus indicus</i> ^l	1		X		X			X	X	X		X		X				
<i>Penaeus monodon</i> ^m	2													X				
Caridea																		
<i>Exopalaemon carinicauda</i> ⁿ	1				X	X	X	X		X		X		X	X			
<i>Macrobrachium rosenbergii</i> ^p	1			X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X			X	X		
<i>Neocaridina denticulata</i> ^p	1				X	X		X	X	X		X		X		X		

²Asterisk (*) indicated the FAMeT containing one methyltransferase domain and one DM9-repeat containing domain of unknown function (DUF) unlike the conventional two methyltransferase domains. The presence of the FAMeT transcript in which gonadal tissue in *P. chinensis* was not specified and thereby both Ov and Te are denoted. References: ^aRuddell et al., 2003; ^bChen et al., 2021; ^cKuballa et al., 2007; ^dXie et al., 2013, 2015; ^eSunarti et al., 2016; Tahya et al., 2016; ^fYang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2018; ^gHolford et al., 2004; ^hGunawardene et al., 2003; ⁱHui et al., 2008; ^jGunawardene et al., 2001, 2002; ^kLi et al., 2013; ^lSaikrithi et al., 2019; ^mBuaklin et al., 2015; ⁿDuan et al., 2014; ^oQian and Liu, 2019; ^pLiu et al., 2022.

Table 3.3. Taxonomic distribution of identified 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme reductase (HMGR).

Taxon		Gene <i>HMGR</i>		
Phylum Tardigrada		3		
Subphylum Chelicerata		3		
Clade Panarthropoda	Phylum Arthropoda	Class Insecta	33	
		Class Branchiopoda	1	
	Clade Pancrustacea	Clade Allotriocarida	Class Copepoda	7
			Class Malacostraca	Order Isopoda
			Order Amphipoda	18
			Order Decapoda	32
	Total Number of Contigs		104	
	Total Number of Species		96	

Table 3.4. Methyl farnesoate (MF) synthetic genes from the *G. lateralis* Y-organ (YO) transcriptome (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). Abbreviations: aa, amino acids; bp, base pairs; ID, identification; ORF, open reading frame; and UTR, untranslated region. Asterisk indicates partial sequence (incomplete ORF).

Gene	Class	Contig ID	Length (bp)	ORF (aa)	UTR (bp)	GenBank Accession
<i>Gl-HMGR</i>	Reductase	Y EVm001453t1	5289	961	5': 25 3': 2378	PQ346928
<i>Gl-FAMeTa</i>	Transferase	Y EVm010627t1	1403	280	5': 124 3': 435	PV020720
<i>Gl-FAMeTb</i>	Transferase	Y EVm010627t2	1388	275	5': 124 3': 435	PV020721
<i>Gl-FAMeT2</i>	Transferase	Y EVm014805t1	814	206*	5': 157 3': 36	PV019009

Table 3.5. Methyl farnesoate (MF) synthetic genes from the *C. maenas* Y-organ (YO) transcriptome (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023). Abbreviations: aa, amino acids; bp, base pairs; ID, identification; ORF, open reading frame; and UTR, untranslated region. Asterisk indicates partial sequence (incomplete ORF).

Gene	Class	Contig ID	Length (bp)	ORF (aa)	UTR (bp)	GenBank Accession
<i>Cm-HMGR</i>	Reductase	Y EVm002033t1	2659	860	5': 36 3': 40	PV019008
<i>Cm-FAMeTa</i>	Transferase	Y EVm013262t1	1405	280	5': 133 3': 429	PV020722
<i>Cm-FAMeTb</i>	Transferase	Y EVm013262t2	1051	206*	5': – 3': 429	PV020723
<i>Cm-FAMeT2</i>	Transferase	Y EVm010974t1	1264	330	5': 251 3': 18	PV018988

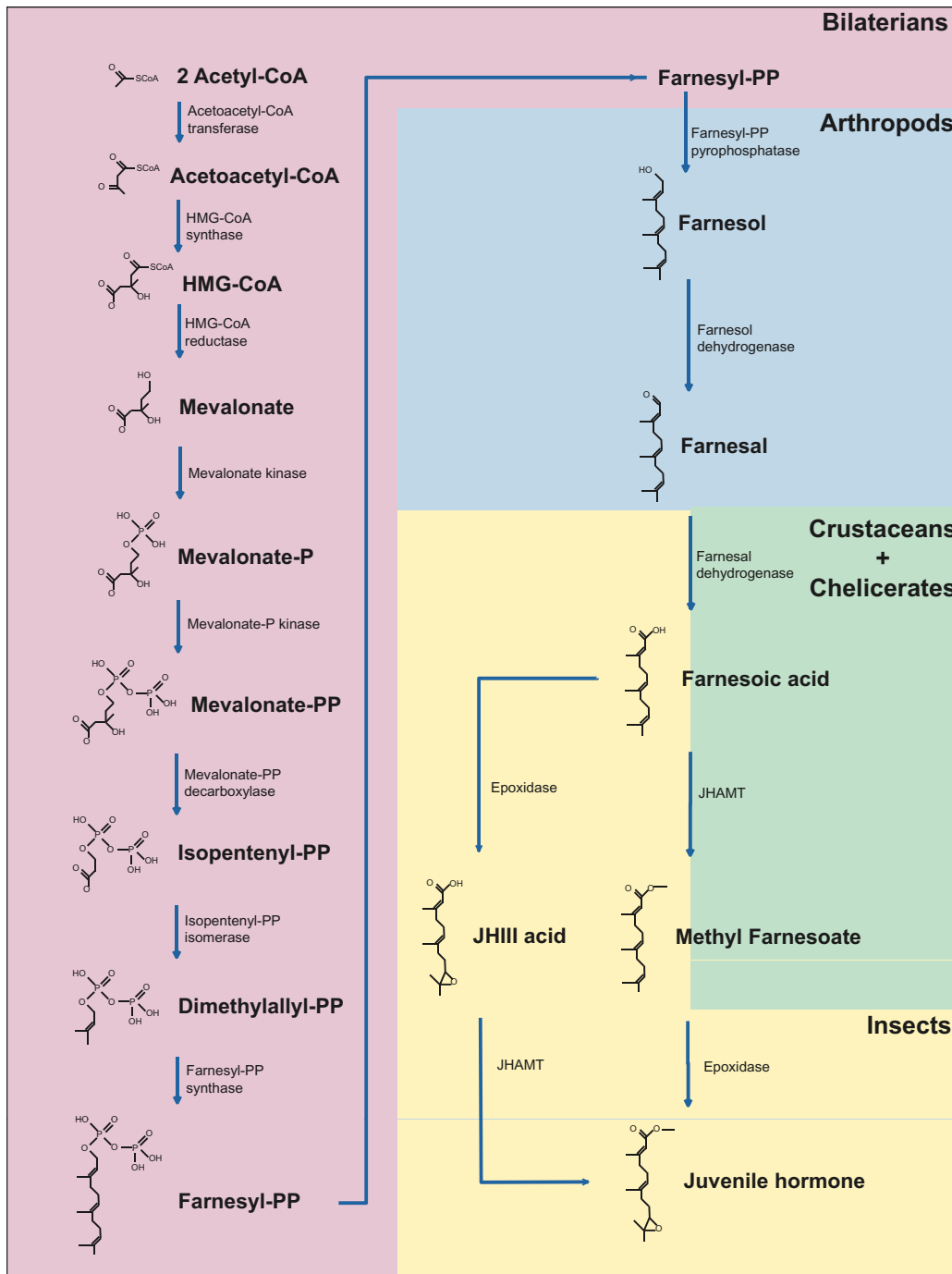


Figure 3.1. An overlook at the methyl farnesoate (MF) and juvenile hormone (JH) biosynthetic pathway. Figure adapted and modified from Cheong et al. (2015).

Figure 3.2

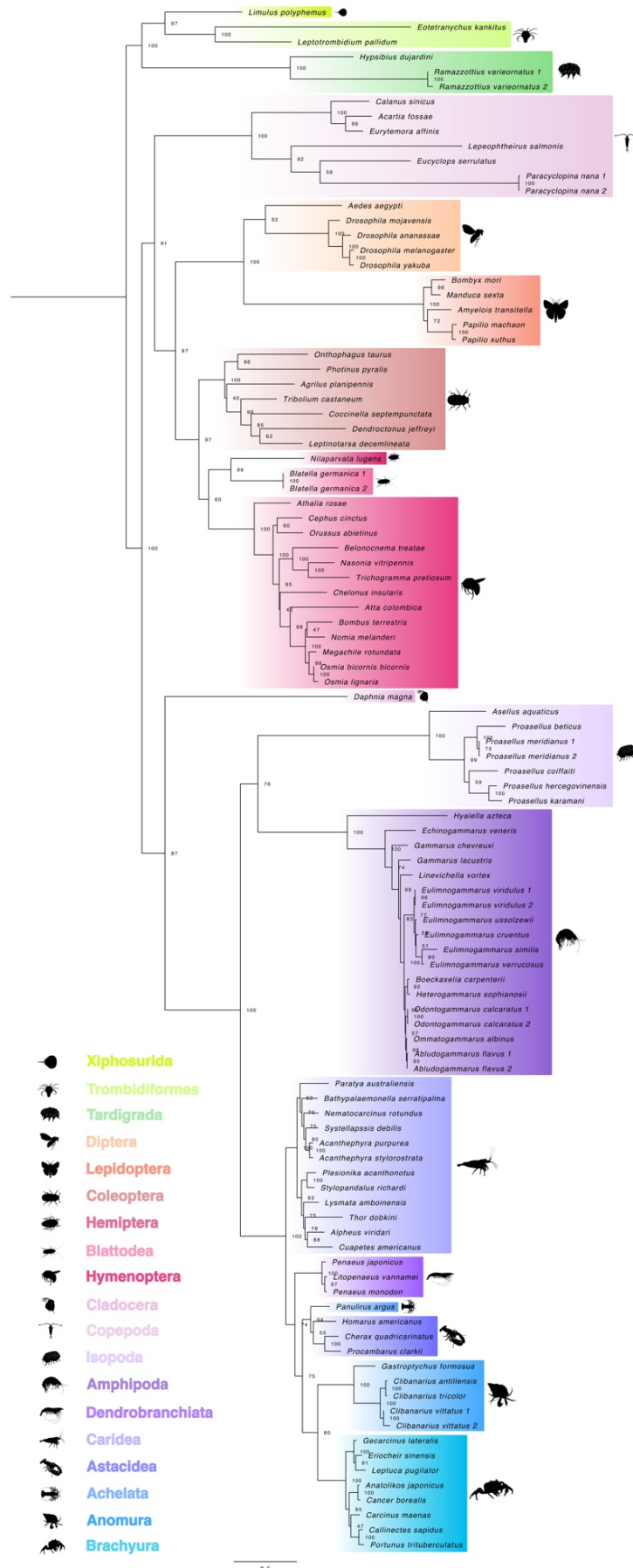


Figure 3.2. Phylogeny of panarthropod HMGR proteins. The trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree was constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model JTT+I+I+R6. The relationship confidence values at each branch point were determined with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000). The scale bar for the branch lengths represents the estimated average of substitutions per site as visualized in FigTree. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet found on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

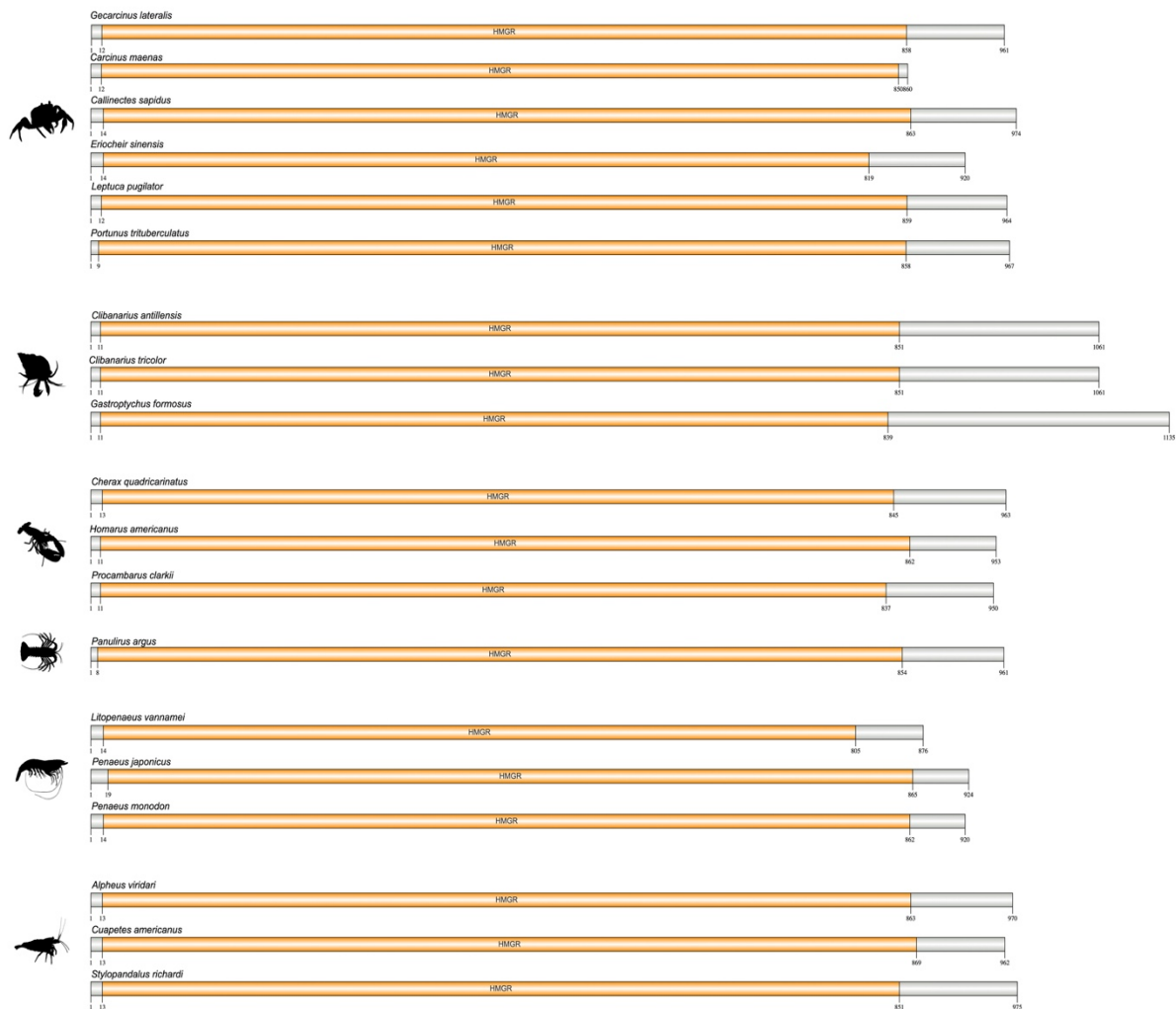


Figure 3.3. Domain organization of decapod crustaceans 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme reductase (HMGR) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 3.4. Phylogenetic tree of pancrustacean farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase (FAMeT) trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model Q.pfam+R6 visualized with TreeViewer. The relationship confidence levels are denoted with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000) and the scale bar representing the estimated average of substitutions per site. Two FAMeT transcripts exist with differing domain architectures. FAMeT2 encompassed a methyl transferase (pfam12248) and a domain of unknown function (DUF3421; pfam11901) as indicated in green branches. FAMeT, depicted in blue branches, consisted of two sequential methyl transferase domains (Methyltransf_FA; pfam12248). Refer to Figure 8 for different phylogenetic representation including insect relatives. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 3.5

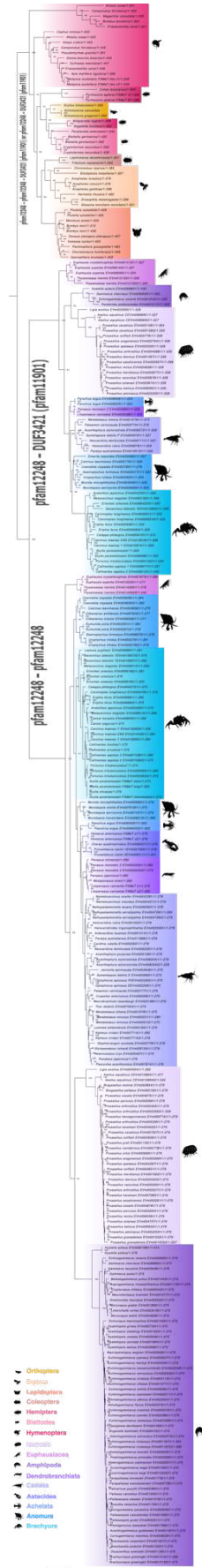


Figure 3.5 (continued)

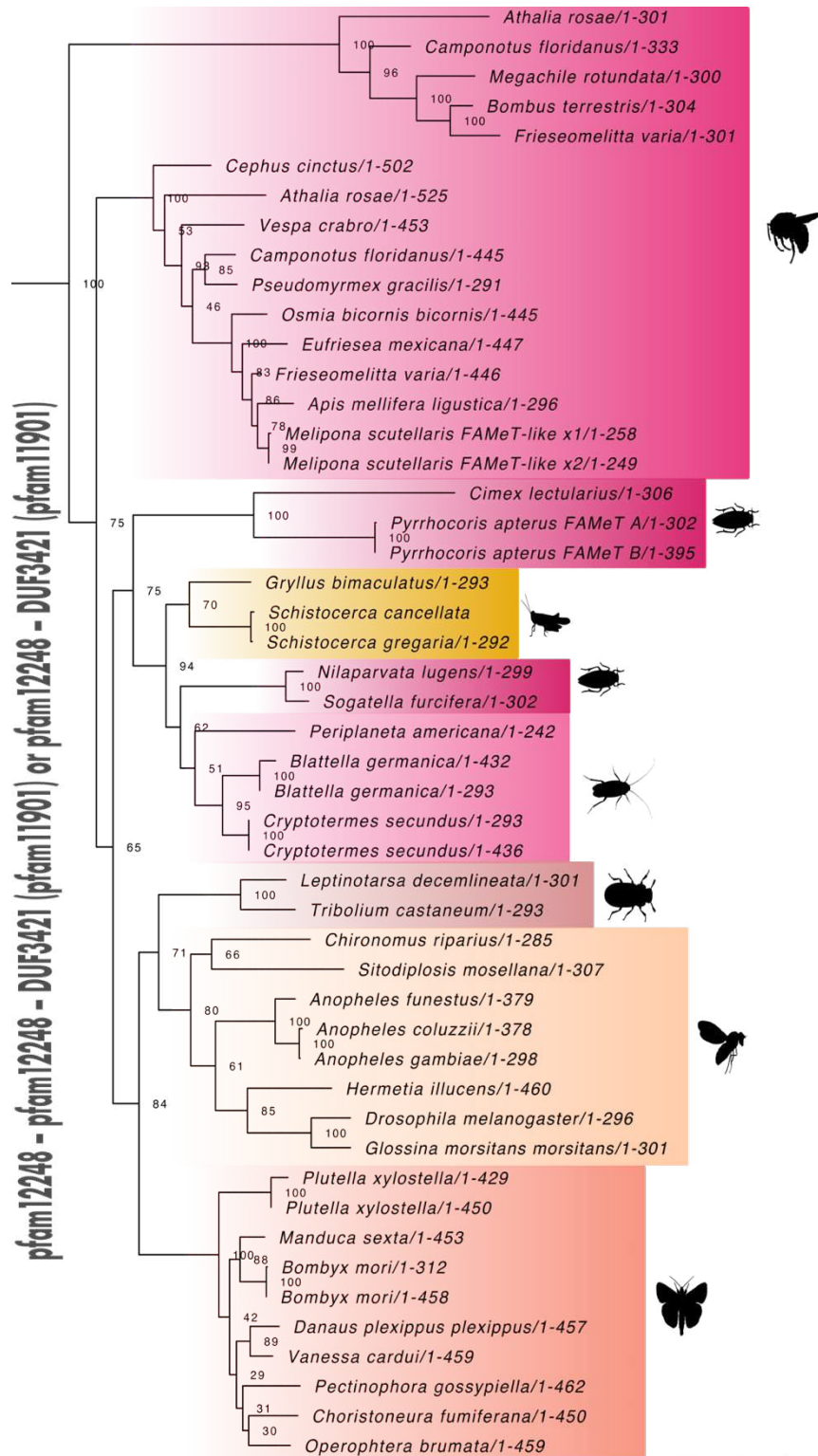


Figure 3.5 (continued)

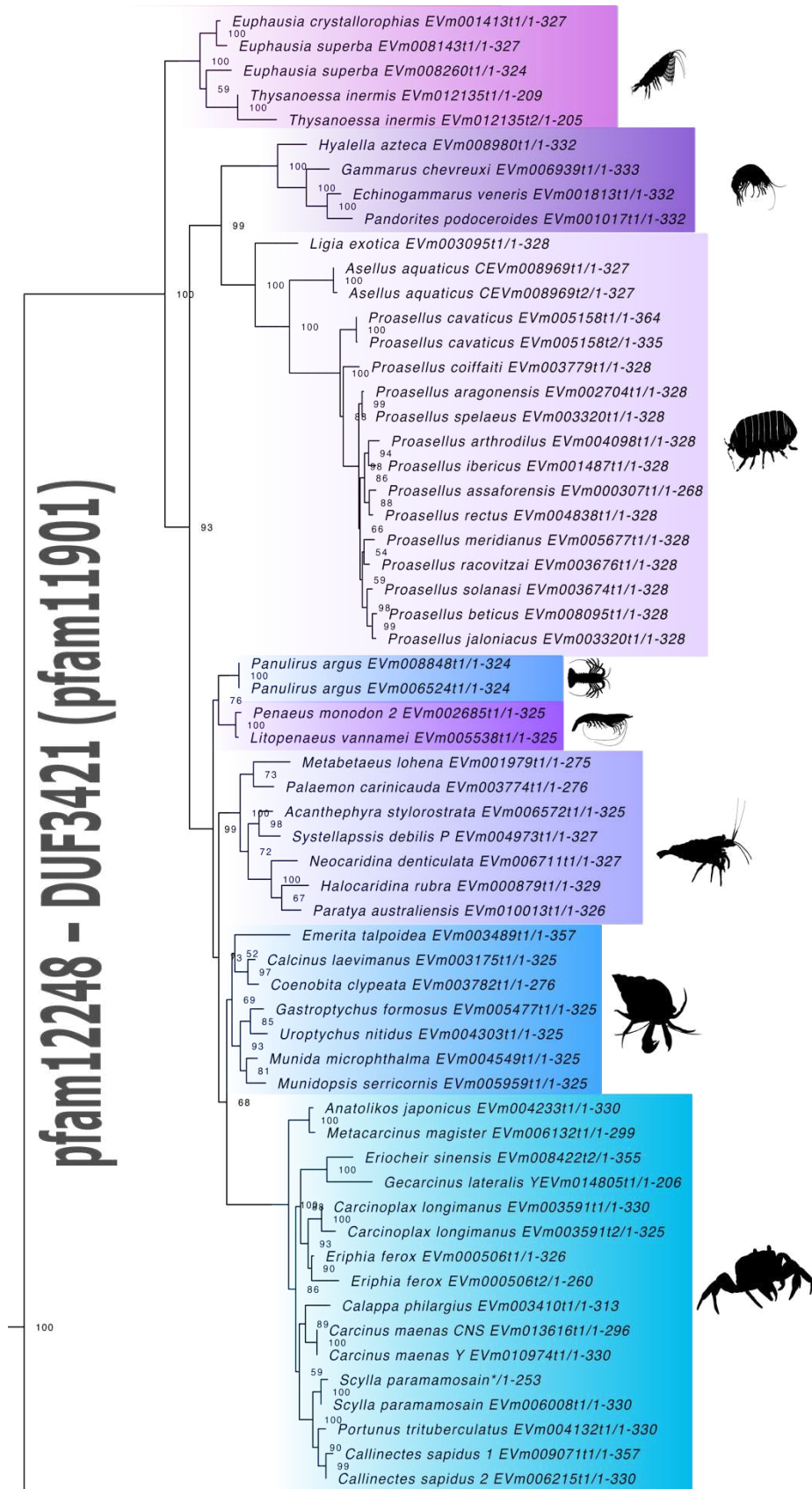


Figure 3.5 (continued)

pfam12248 - pfam12248

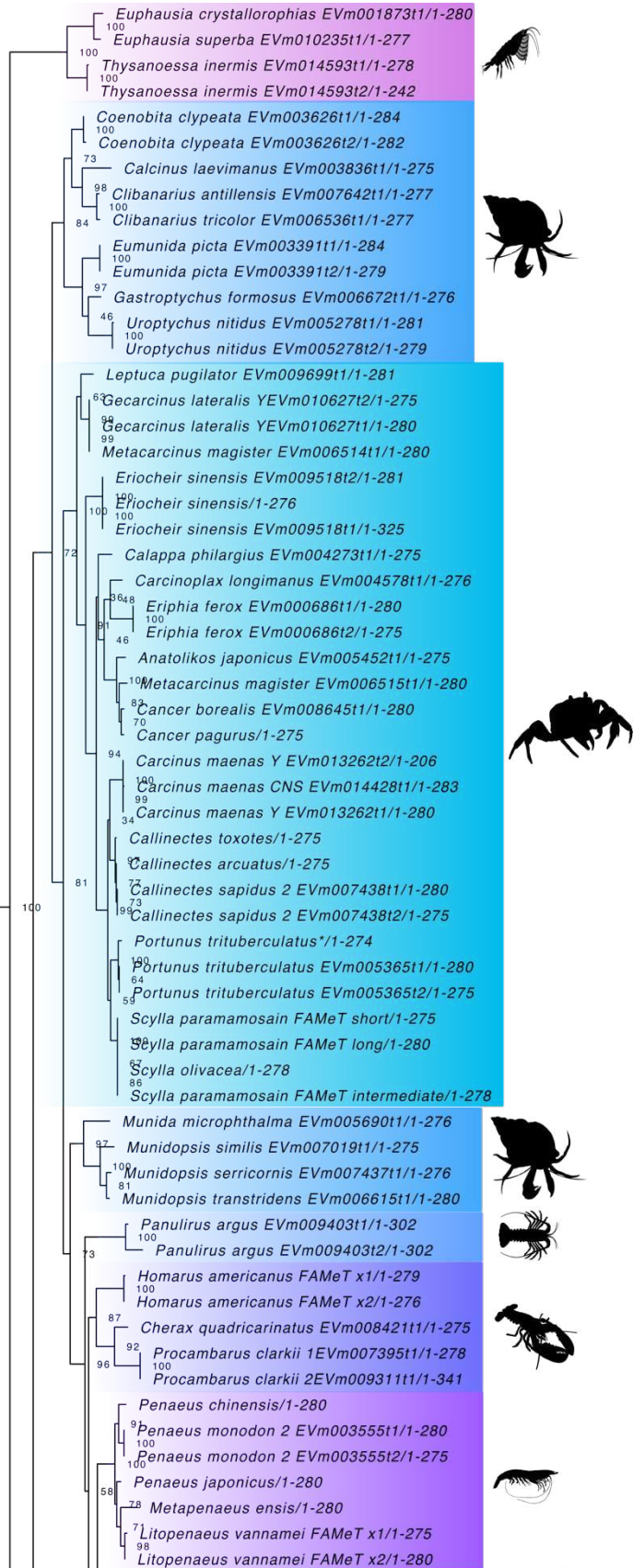


Figure 3.5 (continued)

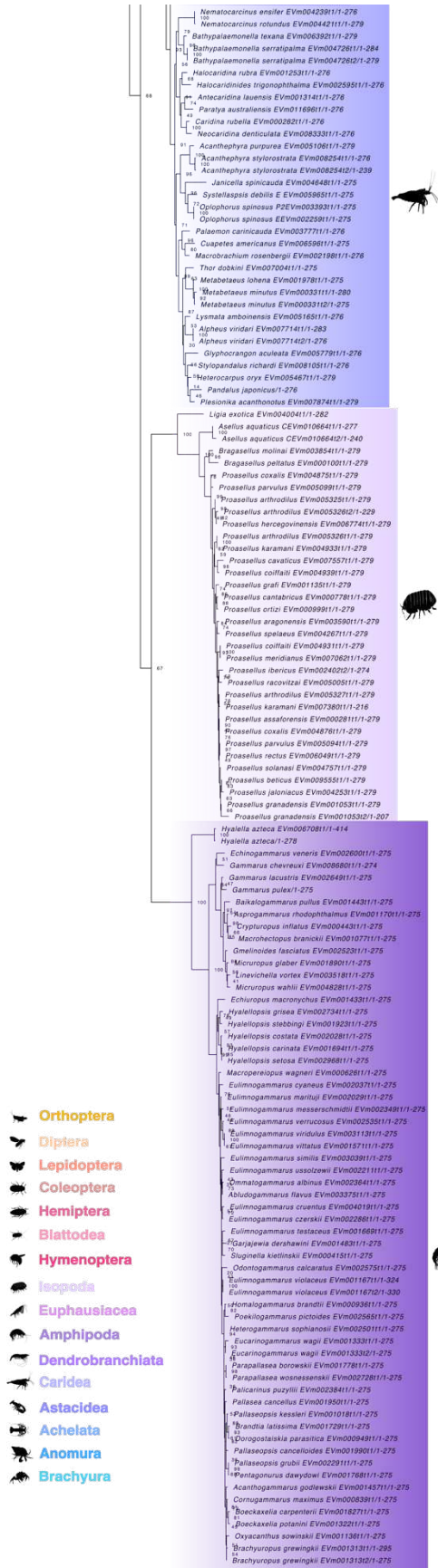


Figure 3.5. Phylogenetic tree of pancrustacean farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase (FAMeT) trimmed maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree constructed with IQ-TREE using the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) best-fit model Q.pfam+R6 visualized with TreeViewer. The relationship confidence levels are denoted with ultrafast bootstrap analysis (UFBoot = 1000) and the scale bar representing the estimated average of substitutions per site. Two FAMeT transcripts exist with differing domain architectures. FAMeT2 encompassed a methyl transferase (pfam12248) and a domain of unknown function (DUF3421;pfam11901) while FAMeT consisted of two sequential Methyltransf_FA (pfam12248) domains. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet found on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

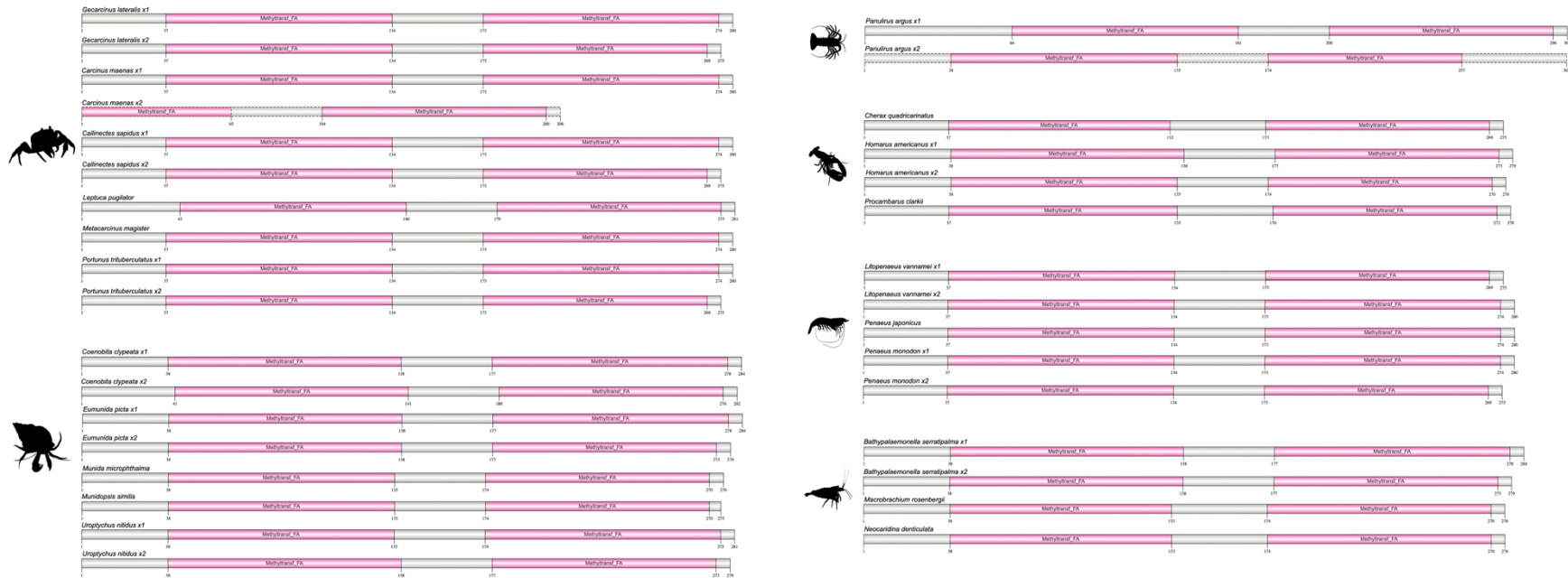


Figure 3.6. Domain organization of crustacean farnesoic acid *O*-methyl transferase (FAMEt) proteins. Two Methyltransf_FA domains were identified in the transcripts regardless of variant length. Domains were the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet found on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).



Figure 3.7. Domain organization of malacostracan crustacean farnesoic acid *O*-methyl transferase 2 (FAMeT2) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). The N-terminal region contained the Methyltransf_FA domain followed by the protein of unknown function domain, or DUF3421 (pfam11901). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet found on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure 3.8

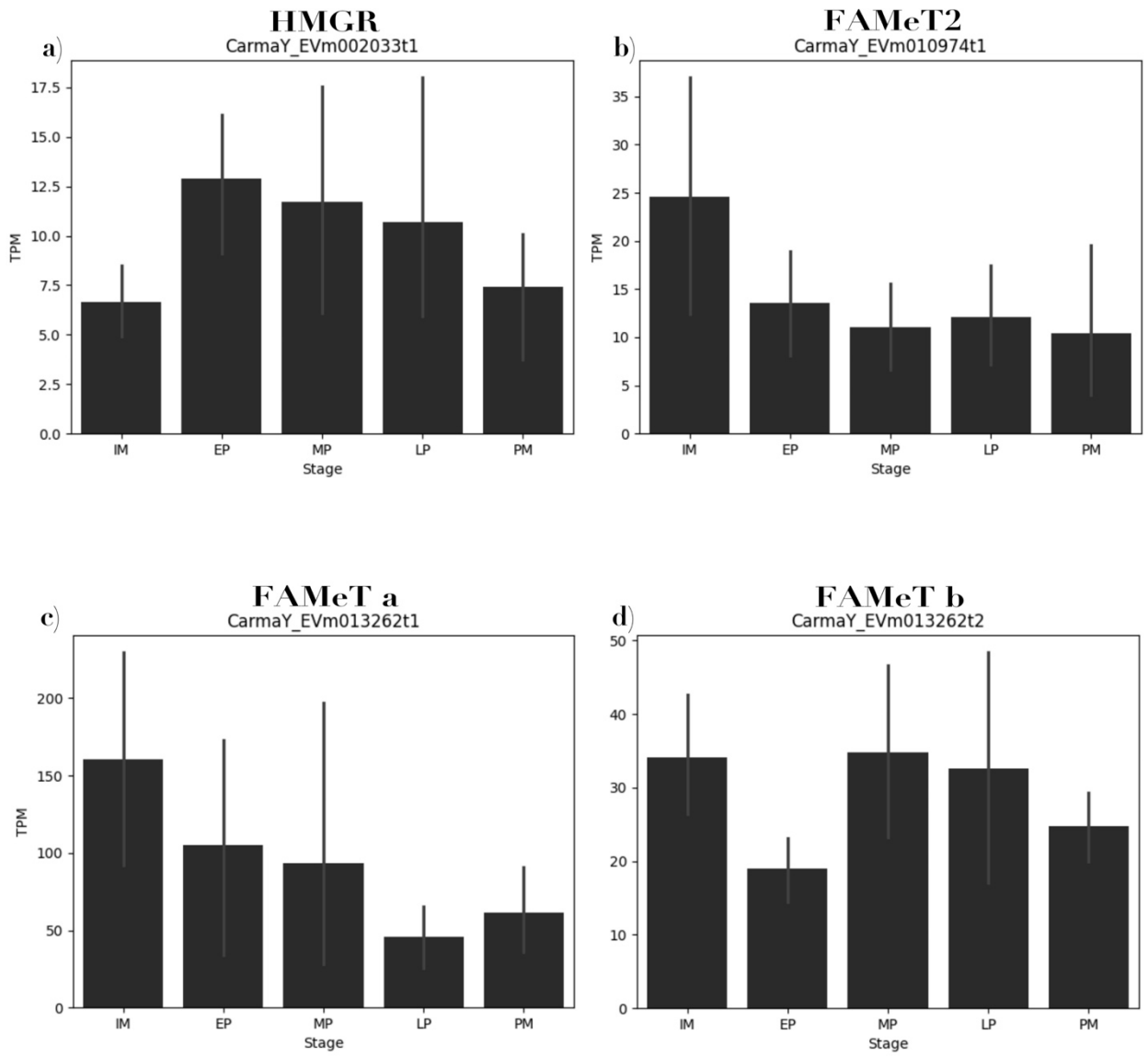


Figure 3.8. Relative gene expression of methyl farnesoate (MF) synthetic genes a) *HMGR*, b) *FAMeT2*, c) *FAMeTa*, and d) *FAMeTb* in *Carcinus maenas* Y-organs (YO) across the different stages of the molt cycle (abbreviations: IM–intermolt, EP– early premolt, MP– mid premolt, LP– late premolt, and PM– postmolt). Transcript levels are expressed as mean transcripts per million reads (TPM) \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test ($p < 0.05$) with letters indicating significance. RNA-seq data was obtained from Oliphant et al. (2018) (n = 5 biological replicates of paired YOs) and quantified with Salmon (v.1.7.0) using the *C. maenas* YO transcriptome assembly included in CrusTome (v.0.1.0) (Pérez-Moreno et al., 2023).

Figure 3.9

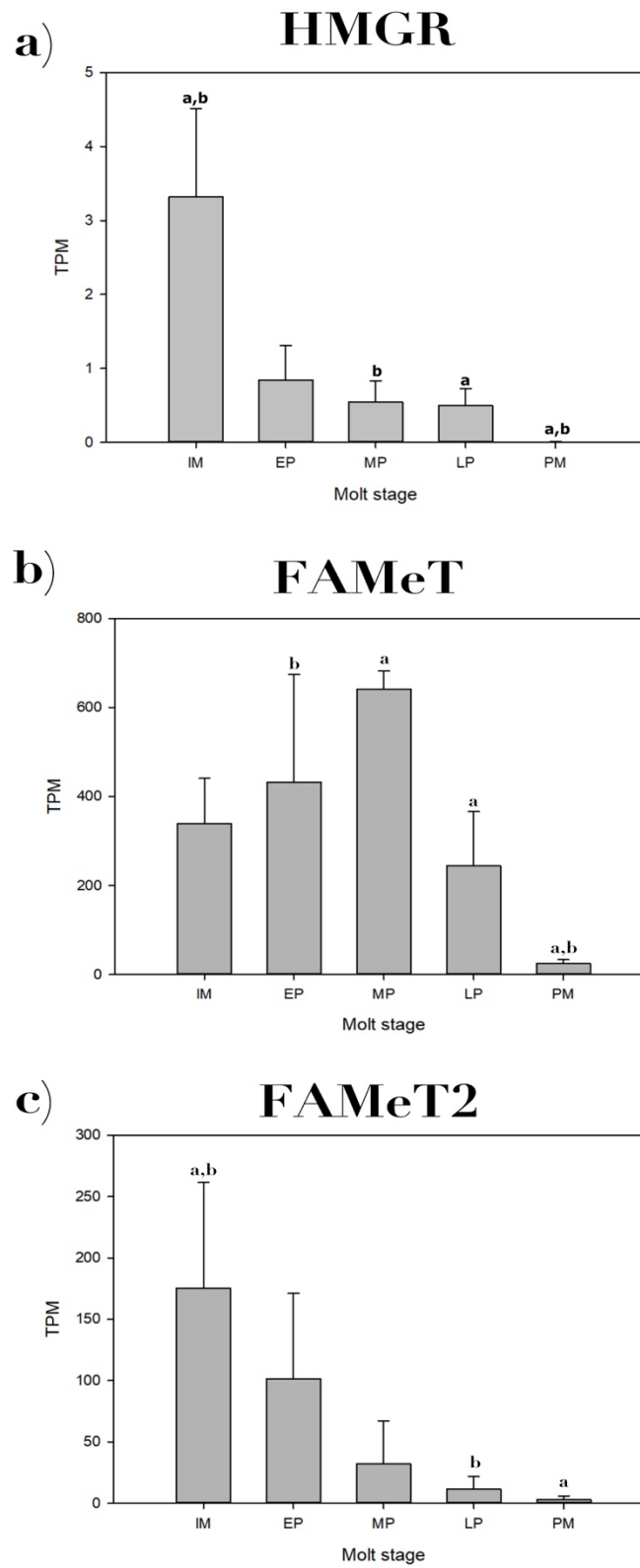


Figure 3.9. Relative gene expression of methyl farnesoate (MF) synthetic genes a) *HMGR*, b) *FAMeT* (a and b combined), and c) *FAMeT2* in *Gecarcinus lateralis* Y-organs (YO) across the different stages of the molt cycle (abbreviations: IM–intermolt, EP– early premolt, MP– mid premolt, LP– late premolt, and PM– postmolt). Transcript levels are expressed as mean transcripts per million reads (TPM) \pm standard error of the mean (SEM); statistical differences were analyzed with Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey's HSD test (n = pooled replicates of 3 animals each) with letters indicating significance ($p < 0.05$). RNA-seq data was obtained from Das et al. (2018).

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CHAPTER 4

CONCLUDING REMARKS

Molting is a crucial physiological process that allows arthropod growth, development, and/or regeneration and is initiated by an increase in ecdysteroid levels. In crustaceans, mTORC1 and TGF- β signaling are required for Y-organ (YO) activation and commitment, respectively. It is hypothesized that the peak in ecdysteroid titers in late premolt (PM) triggers the repression of the YO through a negative feedback loop on the ecdysone biosynthetic genes (Halloween genes) to, which, are mediated by the ecdysone response gene transcriptional network. Moreover, ecdysone response gene expression is hypothesized to be suppressed by Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1), acting through the methyl farnesoate (MF)–Methoprene tolerant (Met)–Kr-h1–Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) transcriptional cascade. The repressive behavior of Kr-h1 may be impacted by the recruitment of transcriptional comediators [e.g., CREB-binding protein (CBP) and C-terminal-binding protein (CtBP)]; however, the transcription factors involved in the MEKRE93 network is subjected to post-transcriptional modifications (Figure 4.1).

From the European green shore crab (*Carcinus maenas*) and the blackback land crab (*Gecarcinus lateralis*) YO transcriptomes, the MF signaling genes (*Met*, *Src*, *Kr-h1*, and *E93*), transcriptional comediators (*CBP* and *CtBP*), and MF synthetic genes (*HMGR*, *FAMeTa*, *FAMeTb*, *FAMeT2*) were successfully identified and characterized. Each of these components identified exhibited high sequence identities with orthologs from other pancrustaceans, arthropods, and/or panarthropodans. Phylogenetic analysis showed that the contig sequences clustered with the corresponding orthologs in other related species. Taken together, these results indicate that pancrustacean MF signaling pathway orthologs are highly conserved and evolved

from a common lineage, while MF synthetic gene *FAMeT* is not orthologous to the insect *FAMeT*.

RNA-seq analysis of the *C. maenas* and the *G. lateralis* indicate that the YOs express the MF signaling and synthetic gene transcripts. The expression pattern of these transcripts varies between the two species throughout the molt cycle progression thus suggesting the possibility of differing MEKRE93 mechanisms. Furthermore, expression of transcriptional mediators *CBP* and *CtBP* was correlated within each species, suggesting that despite the behavior of these factors enhancing and repressing transcription, they may be working synergistically on different transcription factor targets in different molt stages. The expression of *FAMeT* and/or *FAMeT2* proposes the idea that the YO may synthesize its own innate MF to regulate the YO as an autocrine factor.

An important next step regarding this research would be to differentiating the roles of *FAMeT* between *FAMeT2* in MF biosynthesis, including other potential *FAMeT-like* genes. FA with *FAMeT2* may result in a product that is different from that of FA with *FAMeT* and have different physiological effects. Another future direction would be to investigate the mode of action of each JH-mimic to determine the toxicity due to direct the downregulation of ecdysone response and/or biosynthetic genes. Binding of these insecticides to the Met receptor complex can vary due to mutations; therefore, determining their binding on the intrinsically disorder C-terminus can inform the actions on other transcriptional effectors and/or comediators. Additionally, it would be informative to determine if these species have developed resistance or cross resistances to these compounds. To determine if the lack of effect of MF on the YOs (*in vitro*) was due to metabolism, one could test an esterase inhibitor, such as 3-octylthio-1,1,1-trifluoropropan-2-one (OTFP). Determining the behavior and expression of specific

carboxylesterases and/or other degradation enzymes can provide insight to see if the compounds increase metabolic activity and/or if these compounds are specific. Although so much work has been done already and yet, so much work remains to be done in order to break the MF curse.

Figure 4.1 Control of ecdysteroidogenesis through the methyl farnesoate (MF) transcriptional cascade of Methoprene tolerant (Met) – Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) – Ecdysone response gene 93 (E93) in the Y-organ (YO). MF is proposed to act as an autocrine factor to regulate the endocrine cross talk with 20-E as the genes encoding for the synthetic enzymes were identified including *3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-CoA reductase (HMGR)* and *farnesoic acid O-methyltransferase (FAMeT)*. High hemolymph titers of 20-E, such as in mid and/or late premolt (MP and/or LP) inhibit 20-E synthesis thus leading to the transition from a committed to repressed state. By contrast, low 20-E titers in the hemolymph, such as in intermolt (IM) when the YO is in a basal or repressed state, stimulate the YO ecdysteroid production. Although molt-inhibiting hormone (MIH) inhibits ecdysteroid synthesis through the mechanistic target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1), MF is proposed to act as an autocrine factor to regulate the endocrine cross talk with 20-E.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Table A1. Compound information utilized for the *G. lateralis* and *C. maenas* YO *in vitro* cultures.

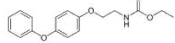
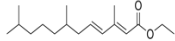
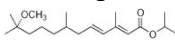
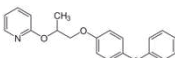
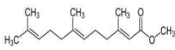
Compound	Formula	Molecular weight (g/mol)	Company	Product number (Lot)	Expiration
Fenoxycarb 	C ₁₇ H ₁₉ NO ₄	301.34	Sigma Aldrich	34343 (BCBT7968)	January 2022
Hydroprene 	C ₁₇ H ₃₀ O ₂	266.42	Sigma Aldrich	46426 (BCBW5576)	February 2023
Methoprene 	C ₁₉ H ₃₄ O ₃	310.47	Sigma Aldrich	33375 (BCCD7840)	August 2022
Pyriproxyfen 	C ₂₀ H ₁₉ NO ₃	321.37	Sigma Aldrich	34174 (BCBZ9221)	December 2021
Methyl farnesoate 	C ₁₆ H ₂₆ O ₂	250.38	Echelon Inc.	S-1053 (E00282-017-05)	May 2021

Table A2. Average paired difference in cumulative 20-E (in pg/ μ L) synthesized and paired *t*-statistic for each chemical across the concentration levels for intermolt green crabs. The paired difference considered is treated YO minus control YO from the same host animal. In general, we observe larger magnitudes of average paired differences for larger concentrations and after longer periods of times.

	8 hours	16 hours	24 hours	32 hours	40 hours	48 hours
0.1 μM	$\bar{x}_d(t_d)$					
Fenoxycarb	-30.8(-1.8)	-37.8(-1.9)	-38.7(-1.9)	-39.5(-2.0)	-40.6(-2.0)	-40.9(-2.0)
S-Hydroprene	15.1(1.1)	17.4(1.1)	19.2(1.2)	19.7(1.2)	21.4(1.3)	20.1(1.2)
Methoprene	1.9(0.3)	1.1(0.2)	0.6(0.1)	-0.4(-0.1)	-0.7(-0.1)	-1.0(-0.1)
Methyl Farnesoate	-13.7(-1.5)	-12.1(-1.2)	-12.1(-1.1)	-9.0(-0.6)	-6.8(-0.4)	-6.0(-0.4)
Pyriproxyfen	-6.3(-1.4)	-0.6(-0.1)	1.5(0.1)	3.5(0.2)	8.1(0.4)	6.2(0.4)
1.0 μM						
Fenoxycarb	-16.7(-1.6)	-20.2(-1.7)	-28.1(-1.5)	-35.6(-1.5)	-54.8(-1.5)	-62.7(-1.3)
S-Hydroprene	6.5(0.3)	14.1(0.6)	19.5(0.8)	25.9(0.9)	29.0(0.9)	27.6(0.8)
Methoprene	1.2(2.0)	-5.1(-0.4)	-6.3(-0.5)	-11.5(-0.8)	-12.8(-0.8)	-19.9(-1.2)
Methyl Farnesoate	-2.7(-0.3)	0.7(0.1)	5.6(0.4)	25.9(1.4)	43.9(1.8)	52.4(1.9)
Pyriproxyfen	-1.9(-0.3)	-4.9(-0.3)	-7.3(-0.4)	-16.7(-0.6)	-24.4(-0.8)	-38.4(-1.0)
10.0 μM						
Fenoxycarb	-1.9(-0.4)	-9.5(-1.6)	-19.8(-2.0)	-35.0(-2.0)	-45.3(-1.8)	-51.4(-1.7)
S-Hydroprene	-2.9(-1.8)	3.8(1.0)	22.6(2.7)	29.9(2.9)	27.0(3.2)	24.6(3.1)
Methoprene	18.4(1.8)	27.5(2.3)	38.6(2.8)	47.0(2.5)	58.8(2.4)	58.9(2.3)
Methyl Farnesoate	-13.2(-1.8)	-11.9(-1.8)	-10.5(-1.4)	-3.5(-0.2)	-0.2(-0.0)	-0.4(-0.0)
Pyriproxyfen	-11.2(-0.7)	-9.8(-0.6)	-5.4(-0.3)	-5.0(-0.3)	-13.8(-0.6)	-47.7(-1.2)

Figure A1

```
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Figure A1. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *G. lateralis* Methoprene tolerant (Met) contig (Y EVm001315t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The contig sequence included a 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) consisting of 177 and 327 base pairs (bp) respectively; the start codon (atg) is bolded in green and the stop codon (tga) in red. The 1001 aa open reading frame (ORF) includes the basic-helix-loop-helix (bHLH) domain shown in yellow (53-107 aa) which contains putative DNA binding sites (bolded) and dimer interfaces (boxed). Subsequently following the bHLH domain are two Per-ARNT-Sim (PAS) domains. The PAS A domain highlighted in green (127-187 aa) contains putative active sites (bolded). Indicated in blue is the PAS B domain (299-408 aa) that acts as the ligand binding domain (LBD).

Figure A2

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Figure A2. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *C. maenas* Methoprene tolerant (Met) contig (Y EVm001443t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The partial contig sequence included a 5' untranslated region (UTR) consisting of 682 base pairs (bp) with the start codon (atg) bolded in green. Within the 998 aa open reading frame (ORF) is the basic-helix-loop-helix (bHLH) domain shown in yellow (61-115 aa) which contains putative DNA binding sites (bolded) and dimer interfaces (boxed). Subsequently followed are two Per-ARNT-Sim (PAS) domains, A (135-191 aa) and B (309-416 aa) highlighted in green and blue respectively.

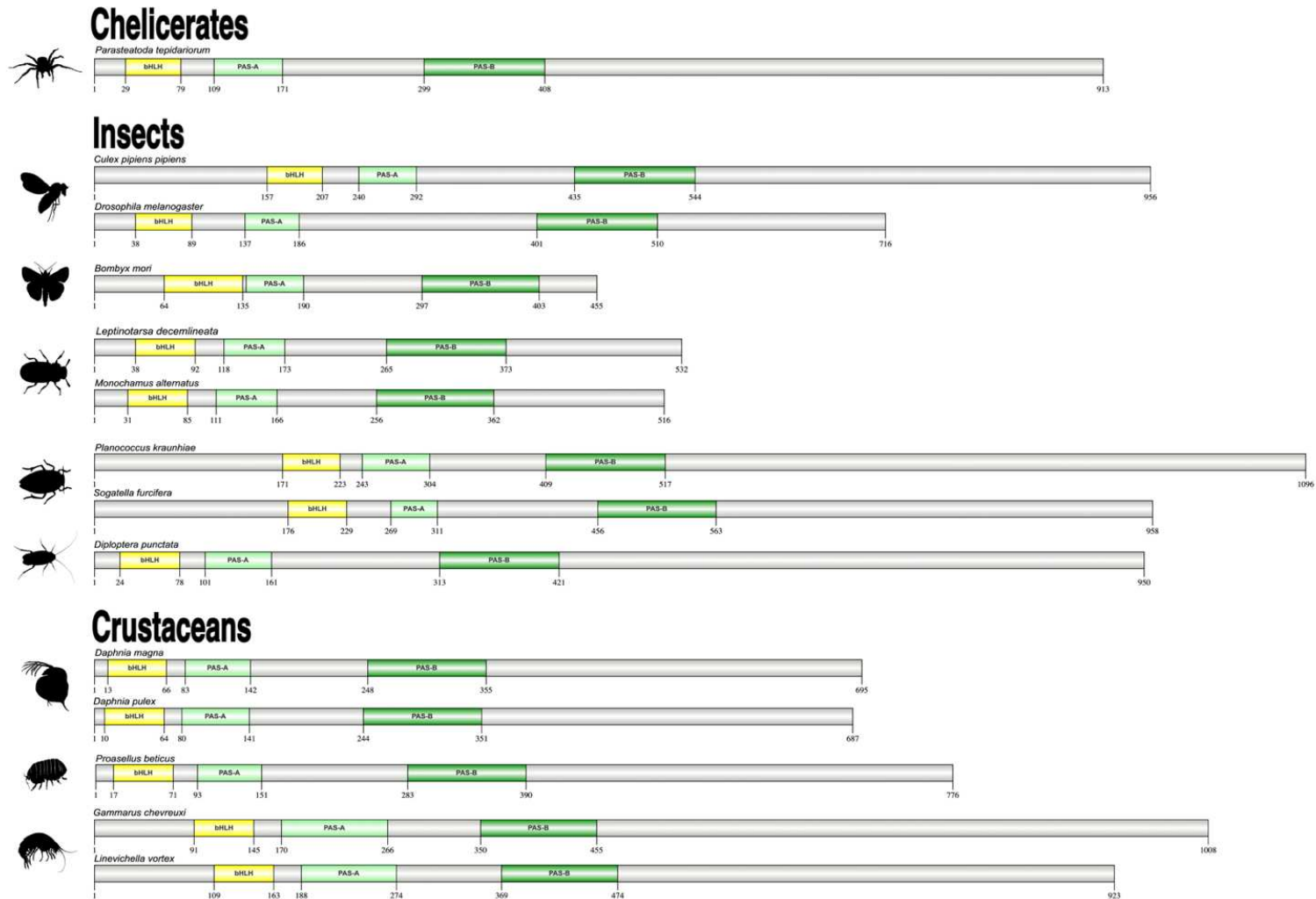


Figure A3. Domain architecture of arthropod Methoprene tolerant (Met) orthologues. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Met contained a structured 5' N-terminus containing the basic, helix-loop-helix (bHLH) DNA binding domain followed by two PAS domains, A and B respectively. Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

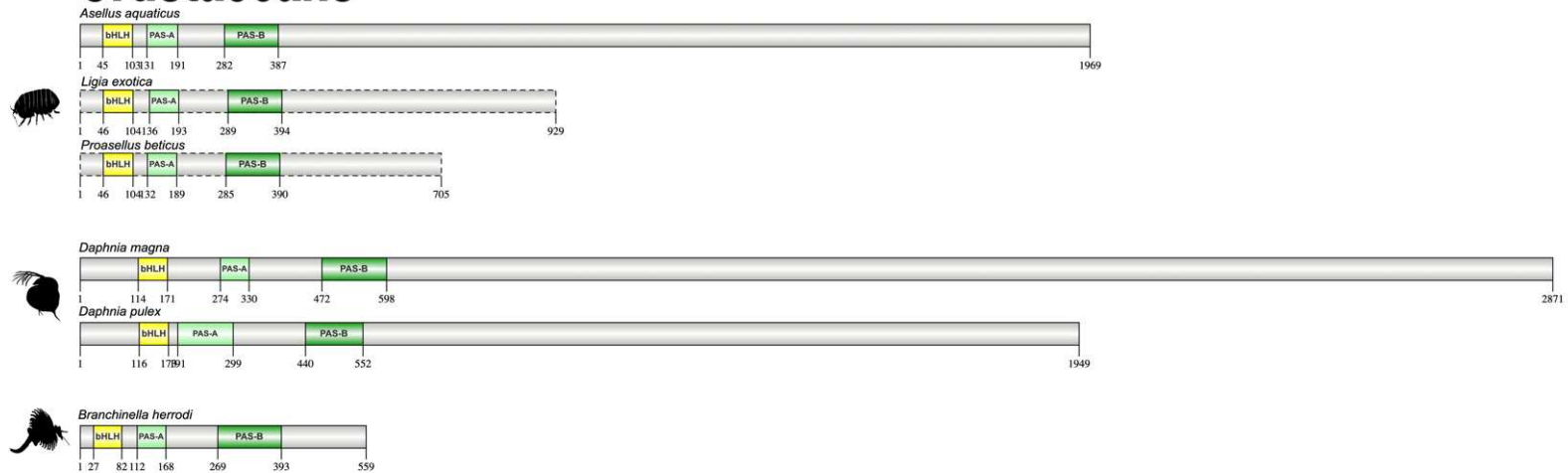
Figure A4

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Figure A4. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *G. lateralis* Src contig (Y EVm002648t2) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The contig sequence included a 1056 (bp) 5' untranslated region (UTR) with the start codon (atg) bolded in green. The 707 aa partial open reading frame (ORF) contains the basic-helix-loop-helix (bHLH) domain indicated in yellow (43-101 aa) which contains putative DNA binding sites (bolded) and dimer interfaces (boxed). Subsequently followed are two Per-ARNT-Sim (PAS) domains, A (130-187 aa) and B (281-389 aa) highlighted in green and blue respectively. Putative active sites within the PAS A domain are bolded.

Figure A5. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *C. maenas* Src contig (Y EVm000958t2) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The contig sequence included a 1323 (bp) 5' untranslated region (UTR) with the start codon (atg) bolded in green. Within the 1185 aa partial open reading frame (ORF) is the basic-helix-loop-helix (bHLH) domain shown indicated in yellow (43-101 aa) which contains putative DNA binding sites (bolded) and dimer interfaces (boxed). Subsequently followed are two Per-ARNT-Sim (PAS) domains, A (136-187 aa) and B (281-391 aa) highlighted in green and blue respectively.

Crustaceans



Insects

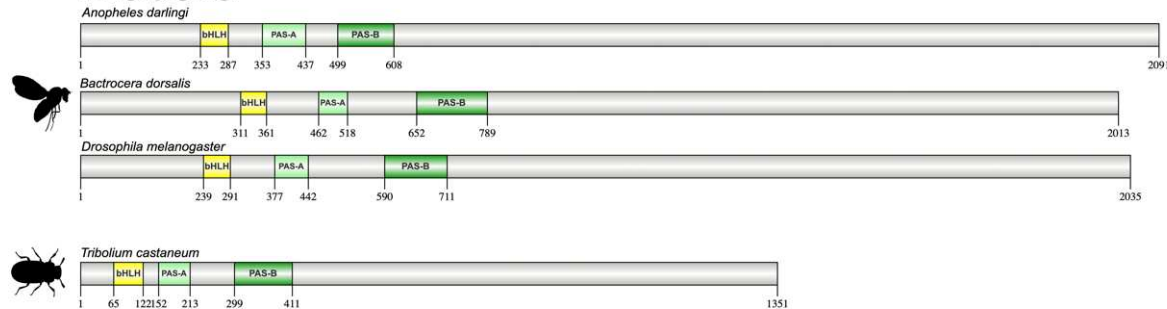


Figure A6. Domain architecture of pancrustacean Steroid receptor co-activator (Src) orthologs. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated a partial sequence. Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A7

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C E V C G K T F V Q S G Q L V I H M R A
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H T G E K P Y T C E Y C Q K G F T C S K
caactcaaagtgcacattgcacggccactggcgagaagccgtatgagtgtgacgtgtggc
Q L K V H I R T H T G E K P Y E C D V C
ggcaagaccttgcgctacaaccacgtgctcaagatgcacaagatgtgccacctggggcaa
G K T F G Y N H V L K M H K M S H L G E
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R R L Y P D L V T P R A E S S S P R L T
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D D I V A E F L N F C -
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Figure A7. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence alignment of the *G. lateralis* Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) contig (Y EVm003411t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The contig sequence included a 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) consisting of 345 and 279 base pairs (bp) respectively; the start codon (atg) is indicated in green and the stop codon (tga) in red. Within the 616 aa open reading frame (ORF) are seven C2H2 zinc finger (Znf) domains (highlighted in aqua) with the zinc binding sites bolded. Each zinc finger consists of 21 aa and are separated by seven amino acids.

Figure A8

```
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V Q A V S E P P Y Q C K I C G K G F A I
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Figure A8. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *C. maenas* Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) contig (Y EVm004068t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The contig sequence included a 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) consisting of 1425 and 603 base pairs (bp) respectively; the start codon (atg) is indicated in green and the stop codon (tga) in red. Within the 603 aa open reading frame (ORF) are seven C2H2 zinc finger (Znf) domains, highlighted in multiple colors with zinc binding sites bolded, consisting of 21 aa of which each is separated by seven amino acids.

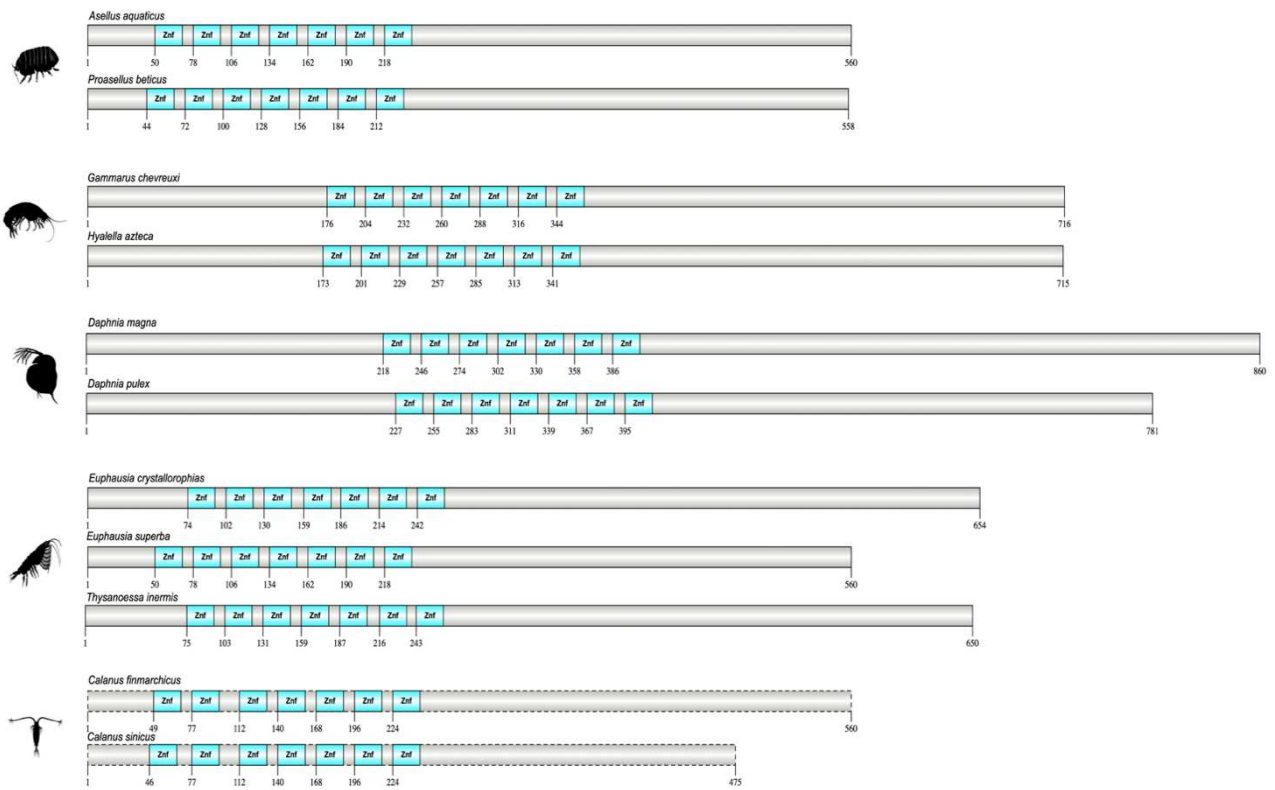


Figure A9. Domain structure of Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) orthologs in non-decapod crustaceans. Seven zinc finger (Znf) repeats were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Dashed configurations indicated a partial sequence. Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

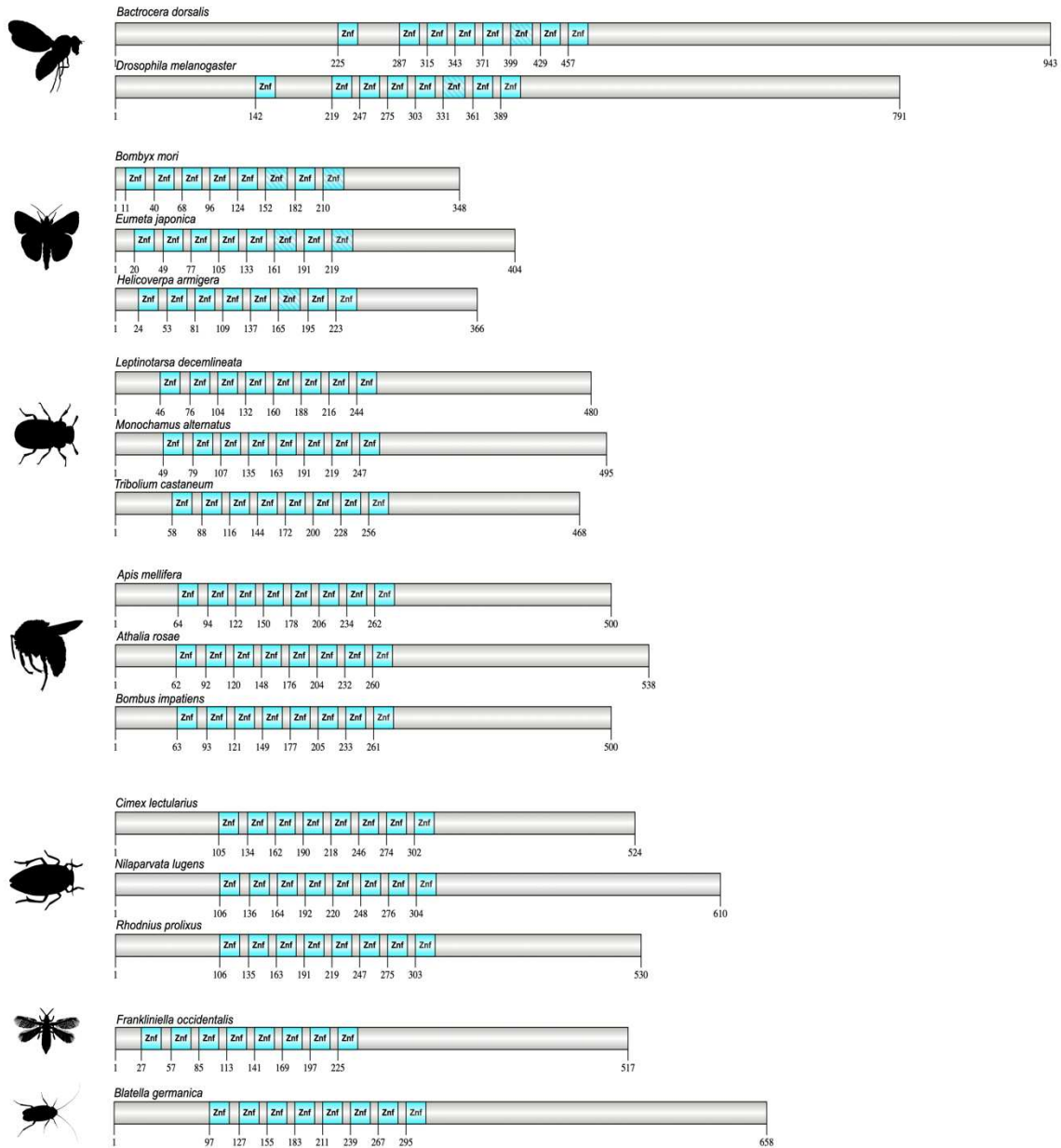


Figure A10. Domain structure of Krüppel homolog 1 (Kr-h1) orthologs in various insect orders. Eight zinc finger (Znf) repeats were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A11

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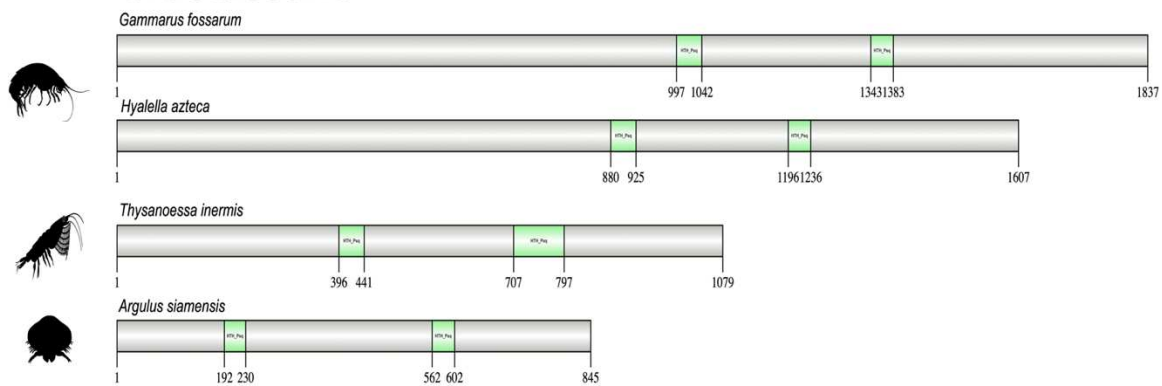
Figure A11. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *G. lateralis* Mushroom body large-type Kenyon-cell protein-1 (Mblk-1) contig (Y EVm001885t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The partial open reading frame (ORF) of 854 aa contains two helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_psq) domains; the stop codon (tga) bolded in red is followed by a 548 base pair (bp) 3' untranslated region (UTR).

Figure A12

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Figure A12. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *C. maenas* Mushroom body large-type Kenyon-cell protein-1 (Mblk-1) contig (Y EVm001380t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The 1016 aa open reading frame (ORF) contains two helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_psq) domains; bolded are the start (atg) and stop (tga) codons in green and red respectively. The contig contains a 158 base pair (bp) 5' untranslated region (UTR) and 975 bp 3' UTR.

Crustaceans



Chelicerates

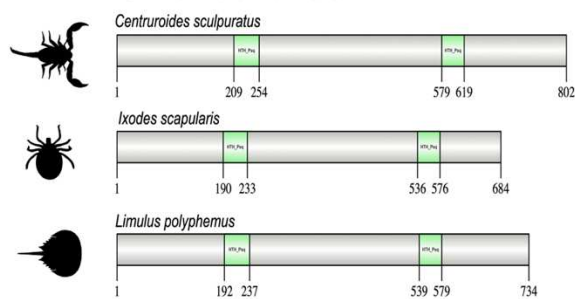


Figure A13. Comparison of E93/Mblk-1 orthologs between non-decapod crustaceans and chelicerates. Two helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_Psq) were predicted with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Insects

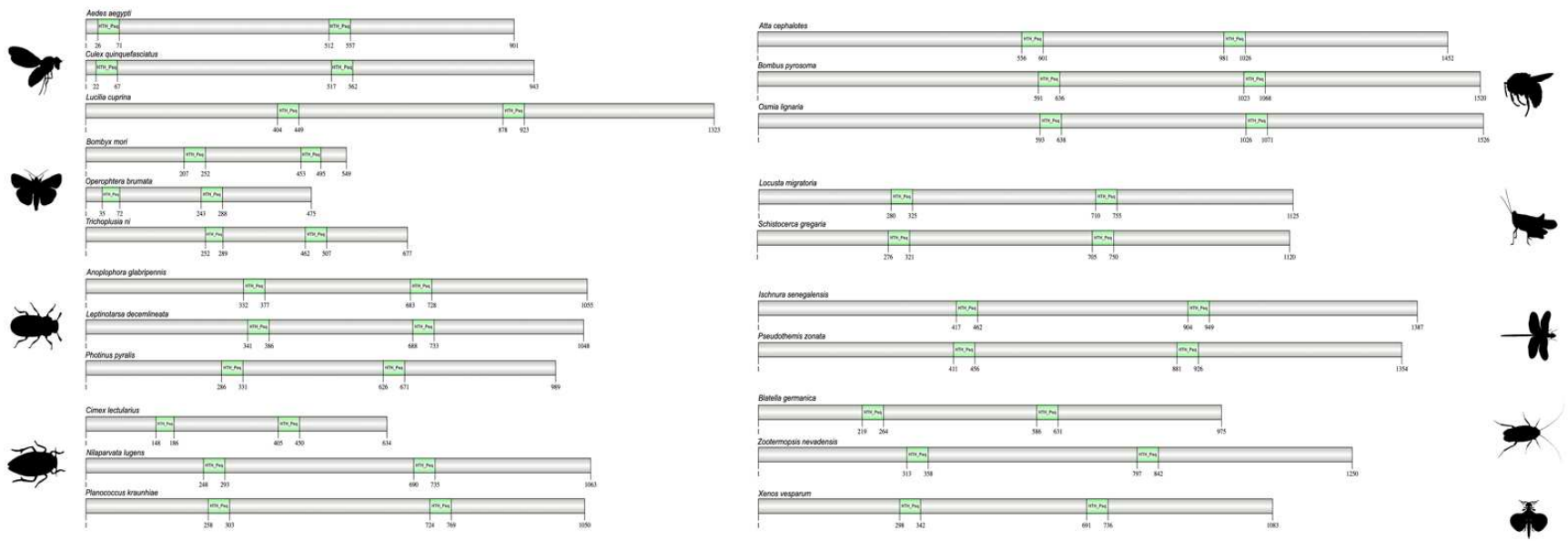


Figure A14. Comparison of E93/Mblk-1 orthologs across various insect orders. Two helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak (HTH_Psq) were predicted with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the Supplementary Data spreadsheet. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A15

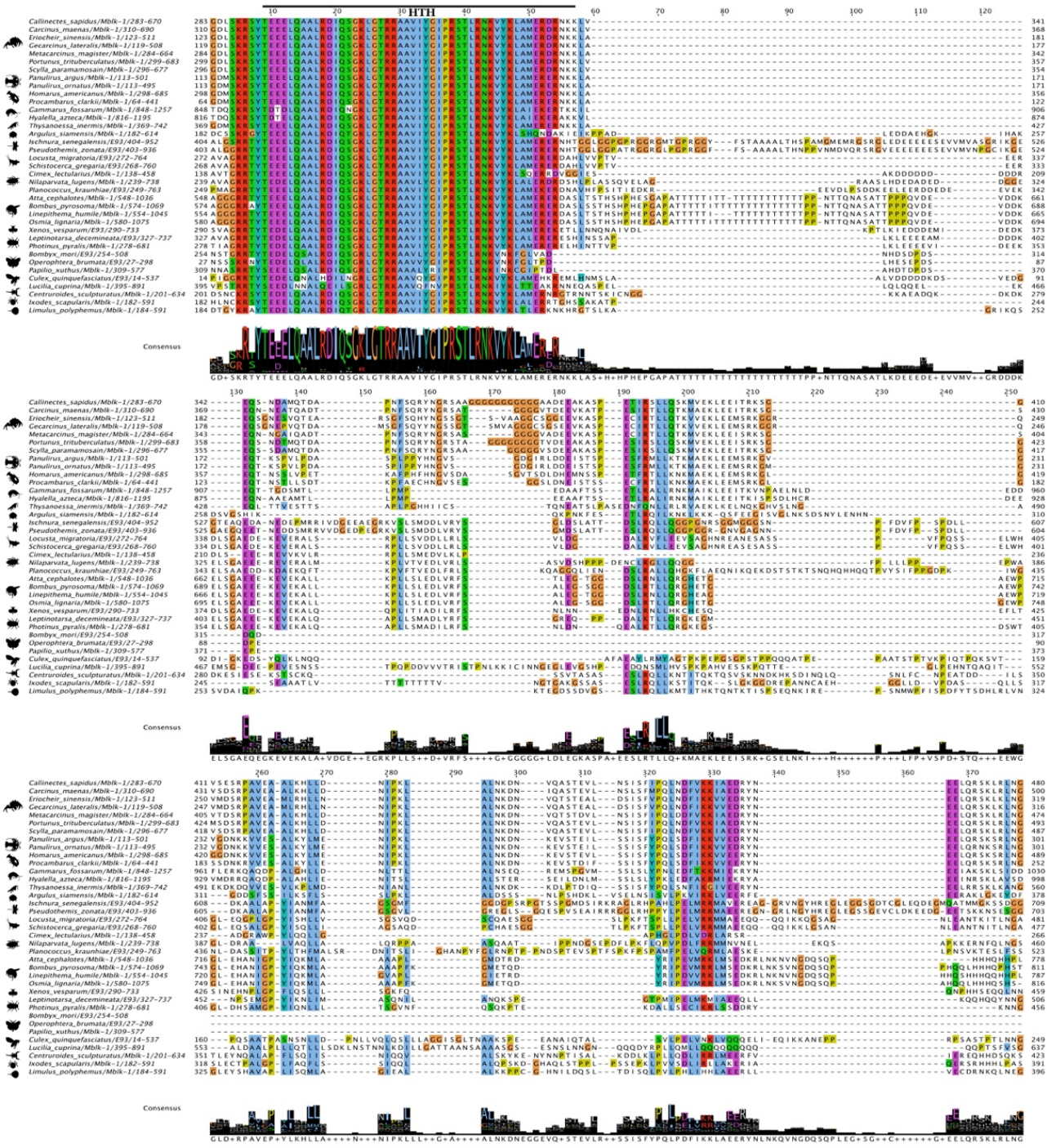


Figure A15 (continued)

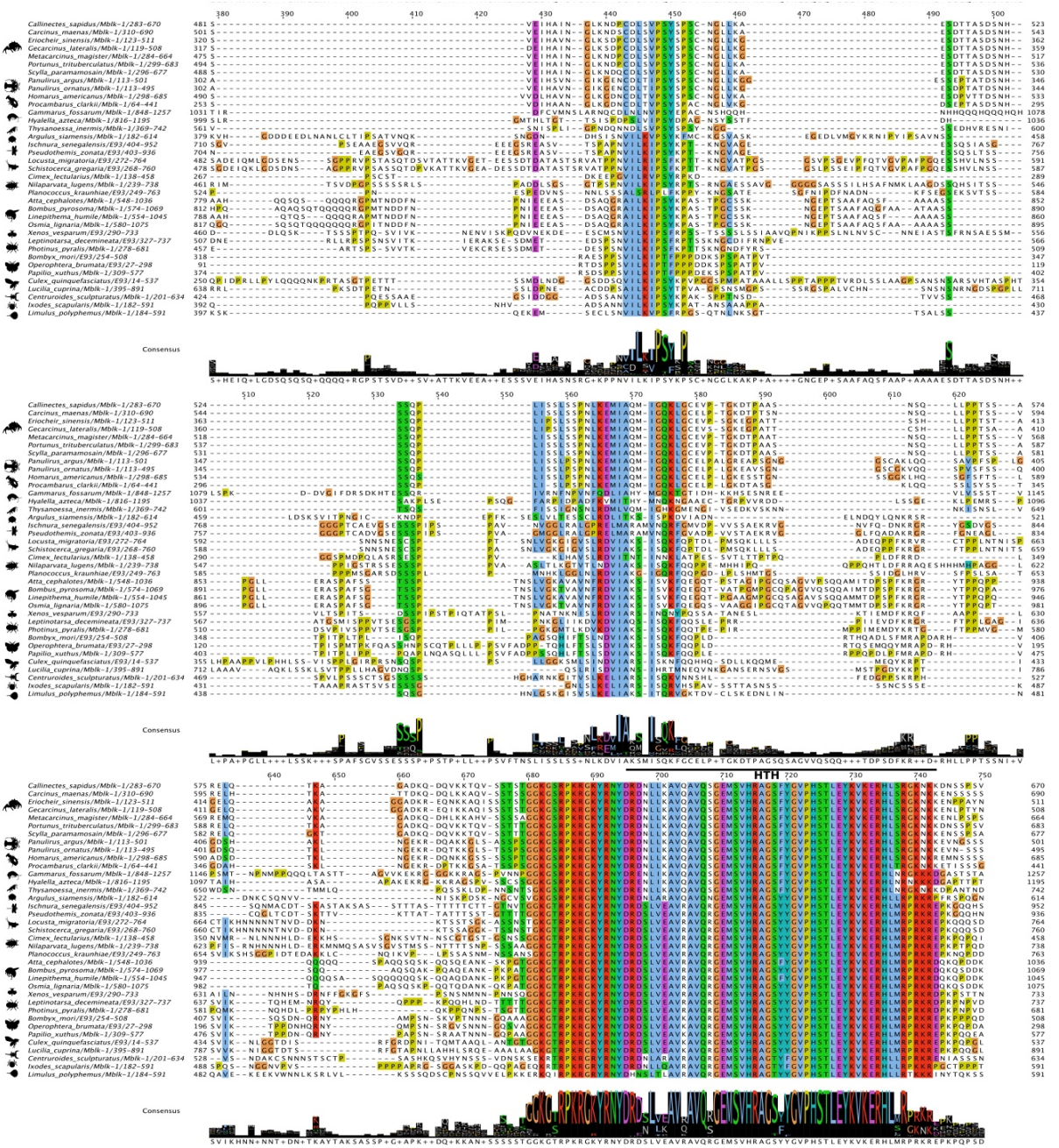
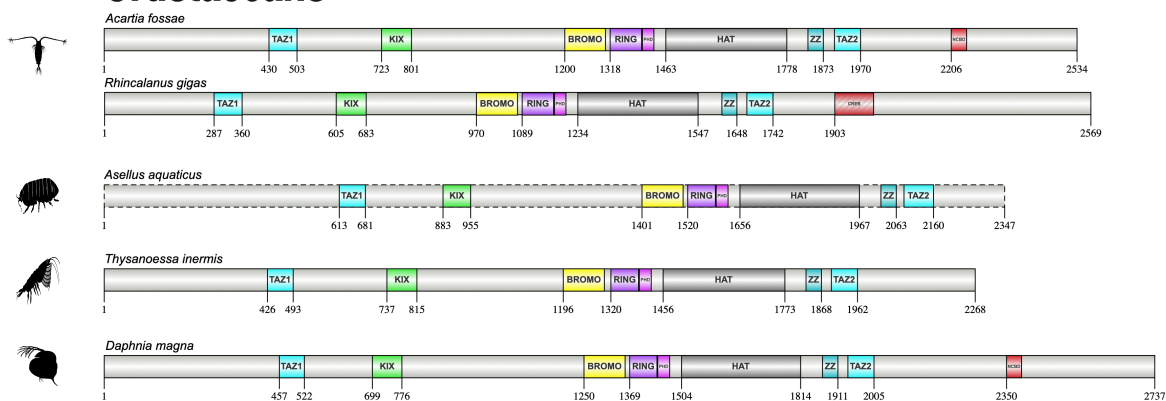
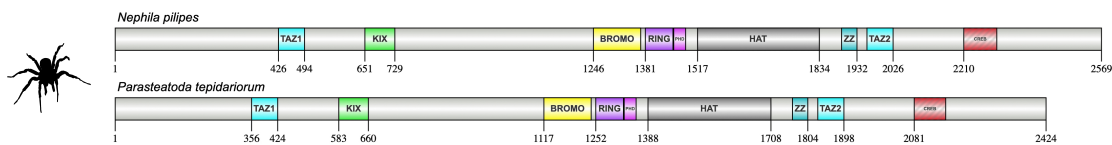


Figure A15. Multiple sequence alignment of the arthropod E93/Mblk-1 sequences. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. Two helix-turn-helix (HTH) domains exhibited high sequence identity and are indicated by an overhead solid line. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Crustaceans



Chelicerates



Tardigrades

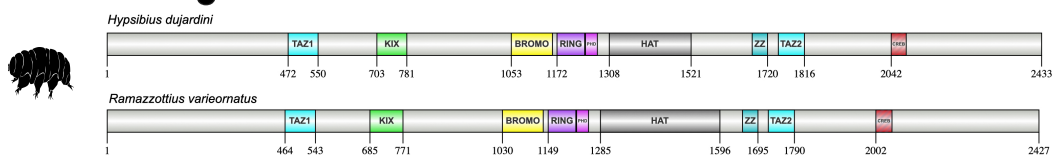


Figure A16. Domain architecture of CREB binding protein (CBP) orthologs in Clade Panarthropoda (non-decapod crustaceans, chelicerates, tardigrades, and various orders of insects) as identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0; dashed configurations indicate a partial sequence. CBP structure is organized through a series of domains starting with the Transcription Adaptor Zinc Finger (TAZ1) domain, followed by the KIX, Bromodomain (BROMO) with acetyllysine binding sites, the RING with zinc-binding sites and HAT interfaces, the PHD with histone H3 binding sites, HAT, ZZ with zinc-binding sites, and TAZ2 domain. At the 3' C-terminal region is the CREB binding domain which contains coactivator binding sites. Refer to the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Various species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Insects

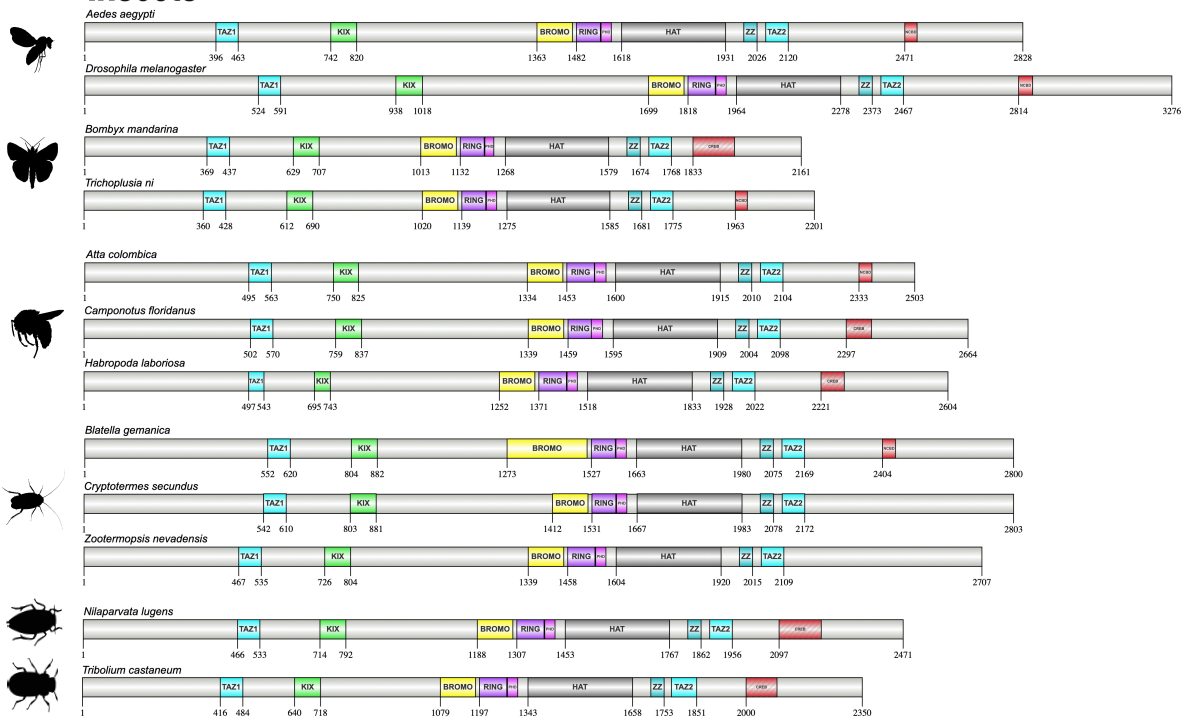


Figure A17. Domain structure of CREB binding protein (CBP) orthologs in various insect orders. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). CBP proteins contained the Transcription Adaptor Zinc Finger (TAZ1), Kinase-inducible domain (KID) interacting domain (KIX), Bromodomain (BROMO), Really Interesting New Gene (RING), Plant Homeodomain (PHD), Histone acetyltransferase (HAT), ZZ zinc finger (ZZ), and TAZ2 domains. Coactivator binding sites were contained in the nuclear receptor coactivator binding domain (NCBD) within the CREB binding regions (CREB). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A18

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Figure A18. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *G. lateralis* C-terminus binding protein contig (Y EVm005788t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO) transcriptome. The 454 aa open reading frame (ORF) contained the C-terminal binding protein dehydrogenase (CtBP_dh) domain highlighted in yellow with the start (atg) and stop codon (taa) bolded green and red respectively. The contig included a 427 and 113 base pair (bp) 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) respectively. The nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) sites were bolded, ligand binding sites boxed, and catalytic sites underlined.

Figure A19

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Figure A19. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *C. maenas* C-terminus binding protein contig (CNS EVm011952t2). The 326 aa open reading frame (ORF) contained the C-terminal binding protein dehydrogenase (CtBP_dh) domain highlighted in yellow with the start (atg) in green. The contig included a 28 base pair (bp) 5' untranslated region (UTR). The nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) sites were bolded, ligand binding sites boxed, and catalytic sites underlined.

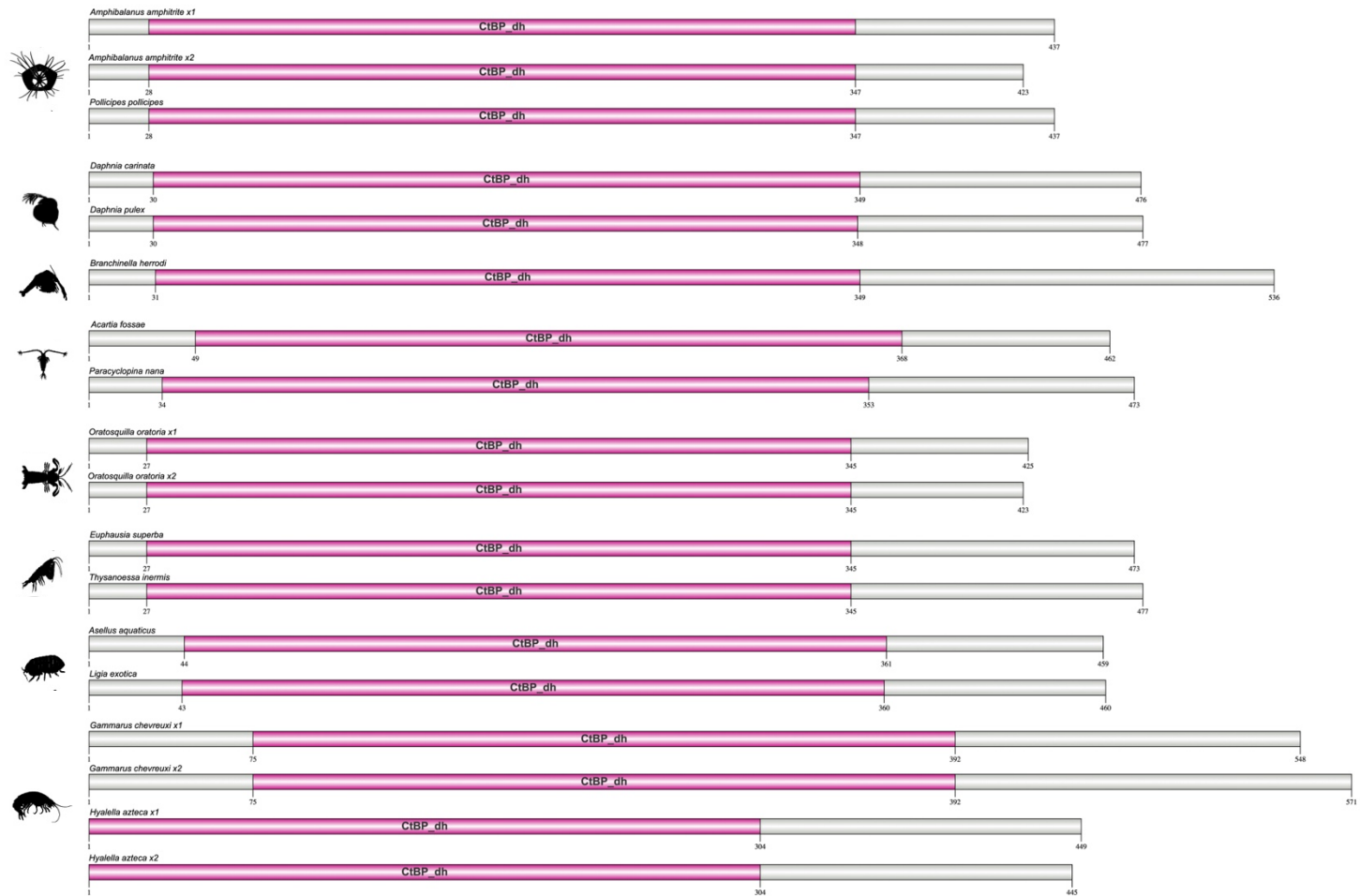


Figure A20. Domain architecture of non-decapod crustacean C-terminal binding protein (CtBP) orthologues. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>)

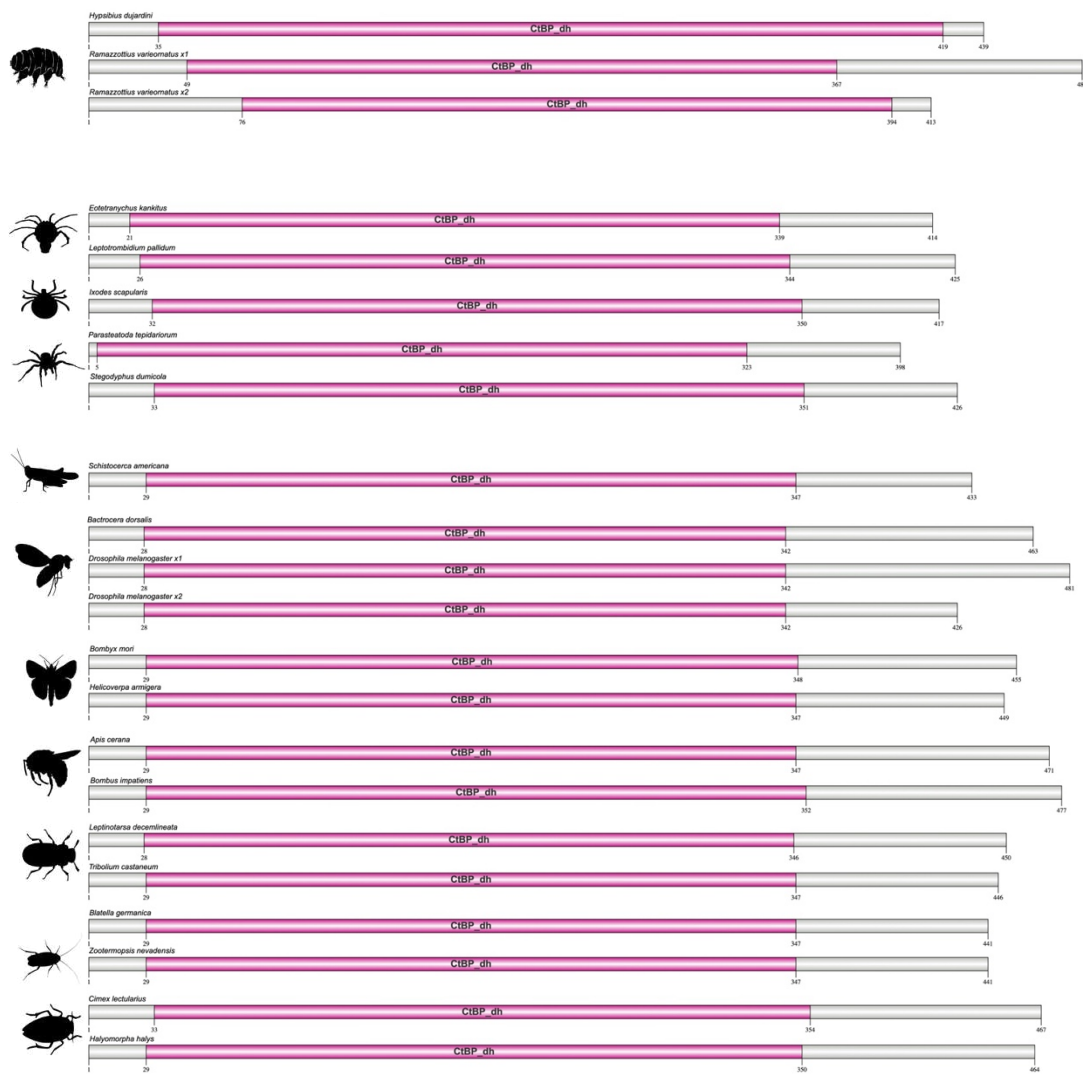


Figure A21. Domain architecture of C-terminal binding protein (CtBP) orthologs in Clade Panarthropoda (tardigrades, chelicerates, and insects). Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A22

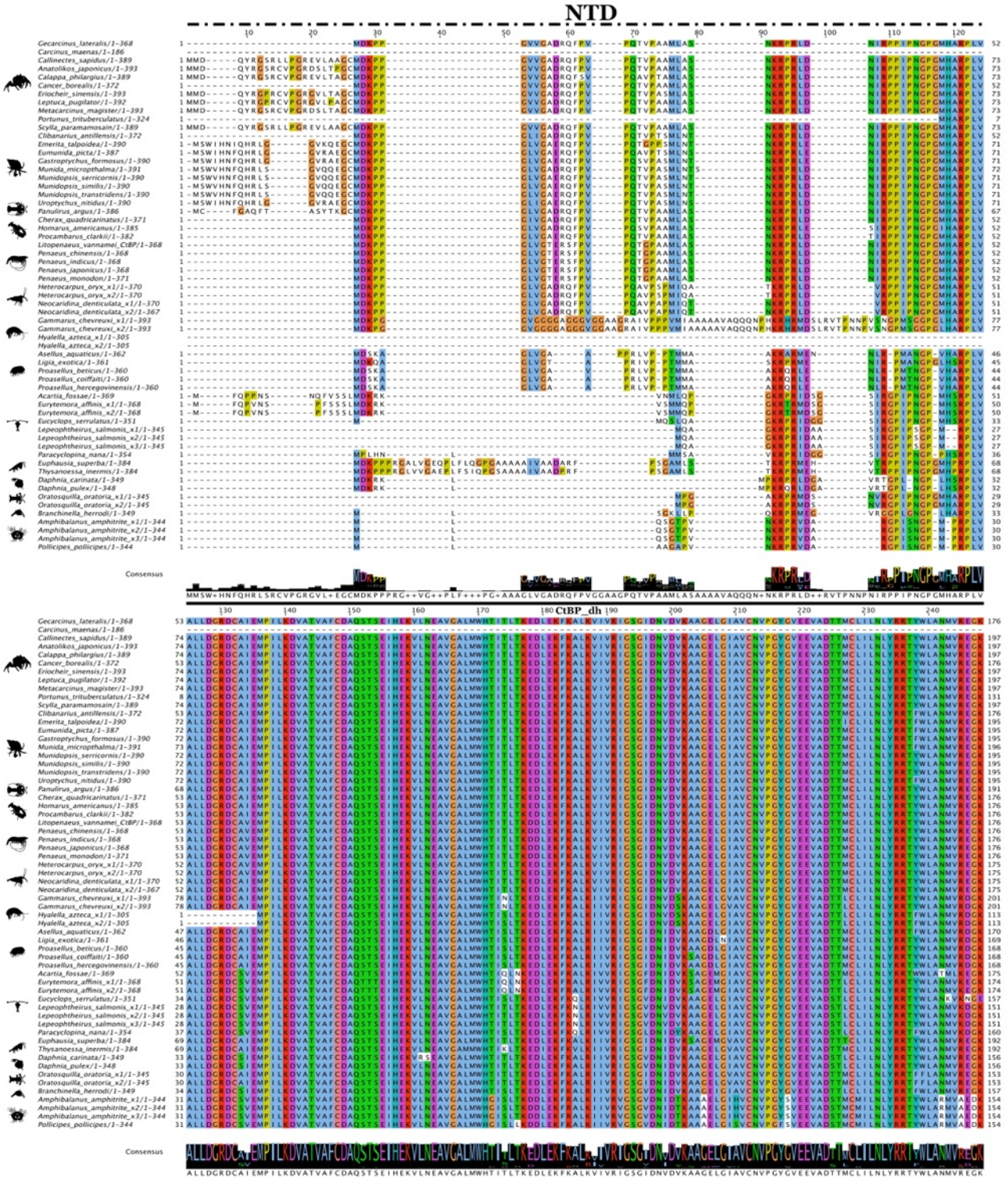


Figure A22 (continued)

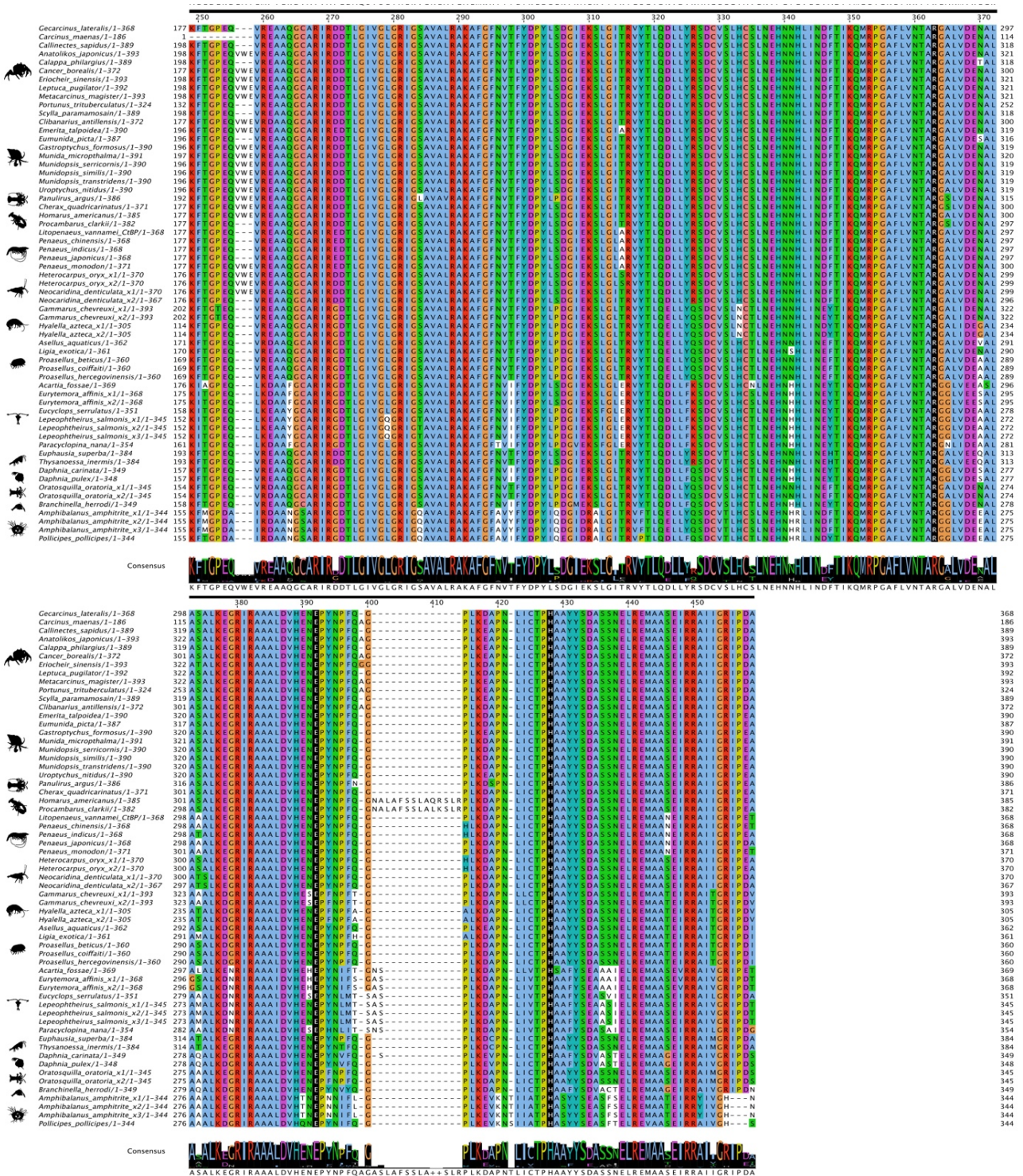


Figure A22. Multiple sequence alignment of the N-terminal region of crustacean CtBP orthologs. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. The N-terminal domain (NTD), indicated by the overhead dashed line, precedes and flanks the dehydrogenase domain (CtBP_dh), shown by the overhead solid line, which contains the R-E-H catalytic triad (highlighted in black). Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A23

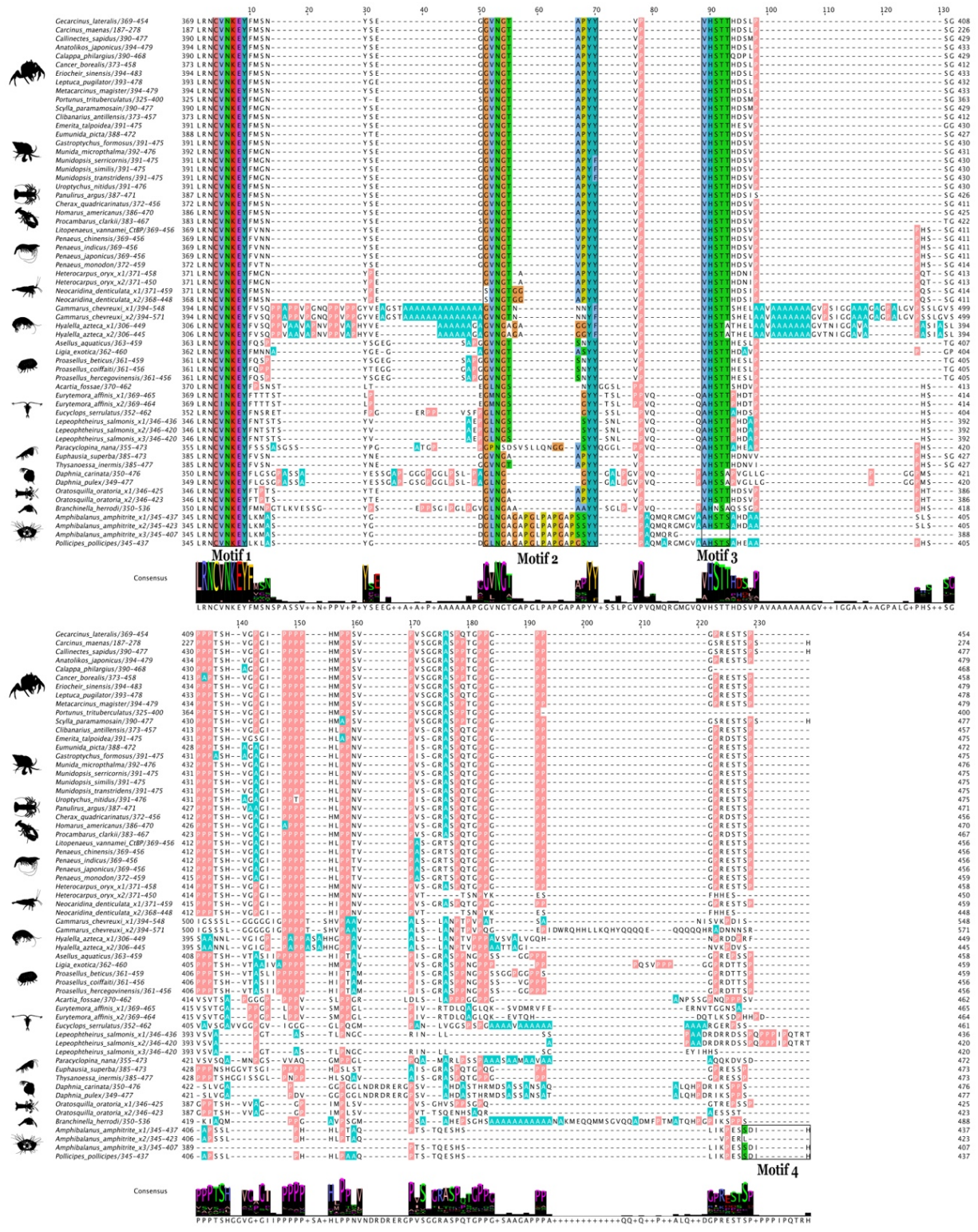


Figure A23. Multiple sequence alignment of the C-terminal domain (CTD) of crustacean CtBP orthologs. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The CTD exhibited a disordered structure as it encompassed a proline rich region (shown in peach) along with showing sequence variability including having poly-alanine repeats (highlighted in aqua). Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A24

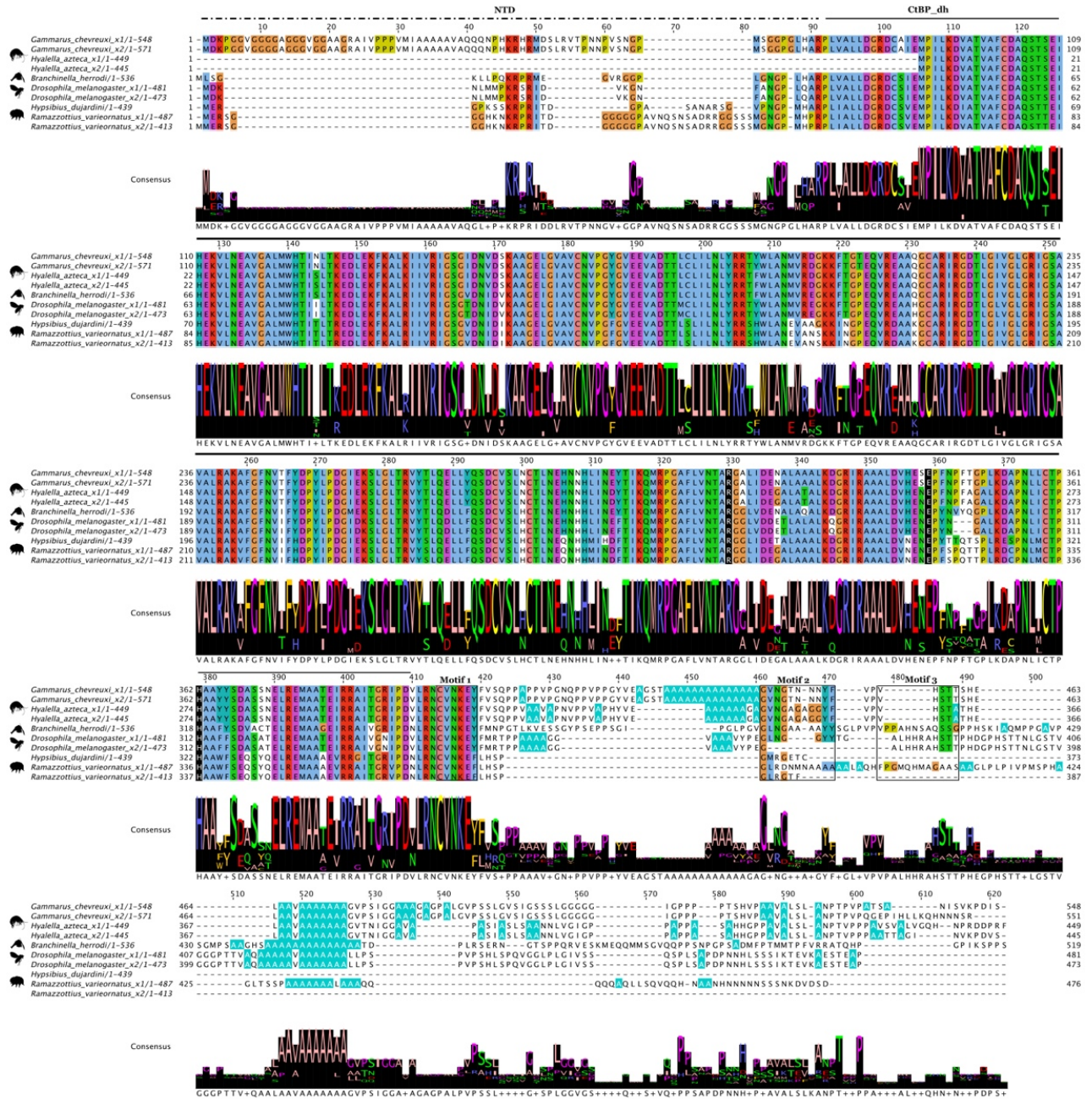


Figure A24. Multiple sequence alignment of panarthropoda CtBP orthologs. The sequences were aligned using the Mafft EINSI parameters, trimmed with ClipKIT, and visualized through Jalview following default Clustal coloring (see Materials and Methods). The consensus sequence is illustrated as a logo schematic. The N-terminal domain (NTD), indicated by the overhead dashed line, precedes and flanks the dehydrogenase domain (CtBP_dh), shown by the overhead solid line. The disordered C-terminal domain exhibited sequence variability while containing poly-alanine repeats. Sequences and databases used in the analysis are presented in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure A25

Cumulative 20-E synthesized across time

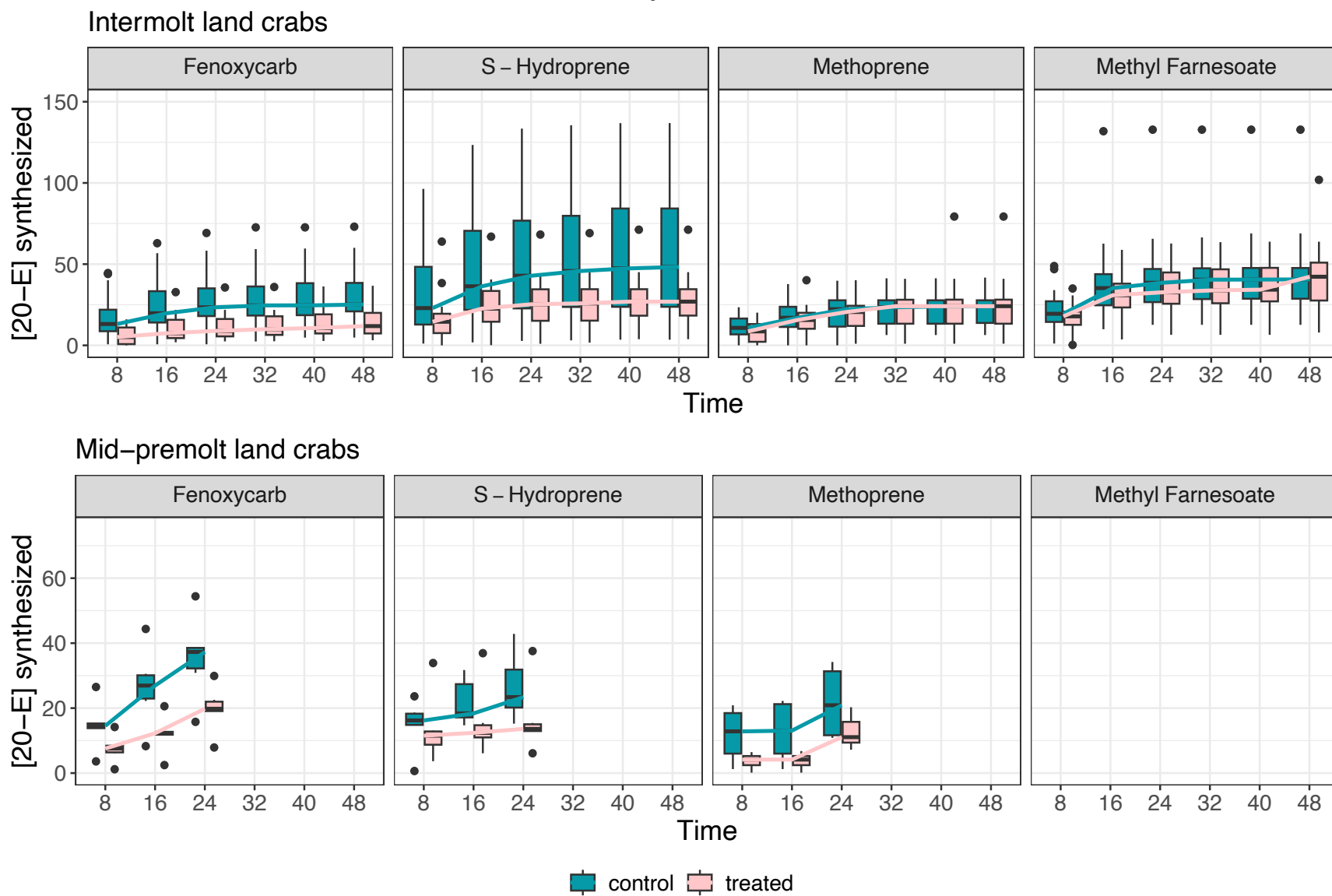


Figure A25. Cumulative 20-E concentration ($\text{pg}/\mu\text{L}$) for each synthesized for blackback land crab (*G. lateralis*) YO's exposed to $10.0 \mu\text{M}$ of methyl farnesoate (MF) or a JH-mimic in each at each eight-hour interval by treatment group (fenoxycarb, S-hydropene, methoprene, and MF), control-treatment status (control and treated), and stage (intermolt or IM and mid-premolt or MP). Line for each group represents the median value for that time and stage with individual outliers indicated by dots. /

Figure A26

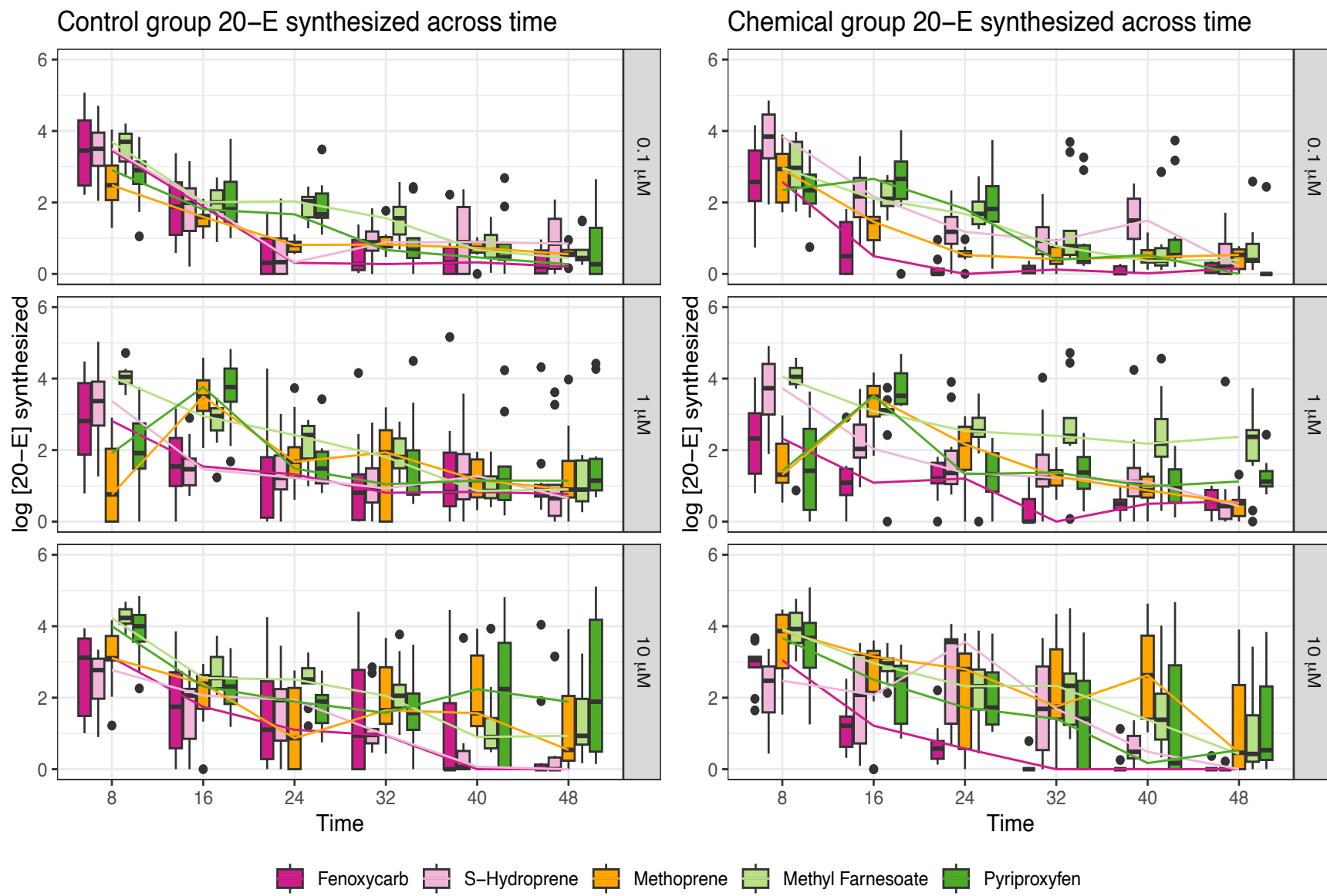


Figure A26. The log 20-E (log pg/ μ L) synthesized during each time interval for the control (left) and treated (right) green crab (*C. maenas*) Y-organs (YOs) across MF or a JH-mimic and concentration levels of 0.1 μ M, 1.0 μ M, and 10.0 μ M. By the 24-hour mark, 20-E synthesis tends to stabilize for each concentration level. The line for each group represents the median value for the tested concentration and treatment at that time point with individual outliers indicated by dots.

Figure A27

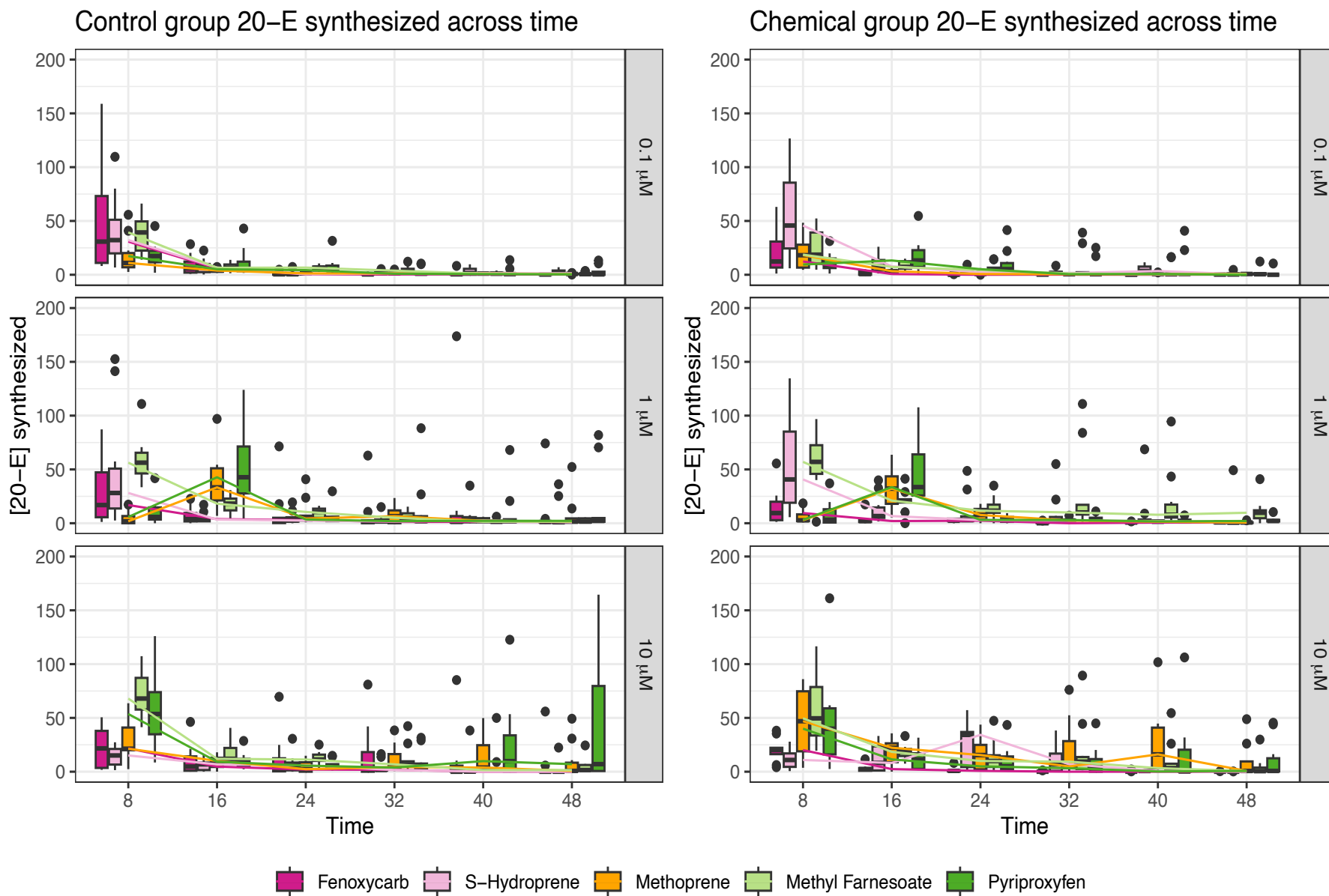


Figure A27. Concentration of 20-E (pg/ μ L) synthesized during each time interval for the control (left) and treated (right) green crab *C. maenas* YOJs across MF or a JH-mimic and concentration levels of 0.1 μ M, 1.0 μ M, and 10.0 μ M. Line for each group represents the median value for that concentration and treatment at that time point. By the 24-hour mark, 20-E synthesis tends to stabilize for each concentration level

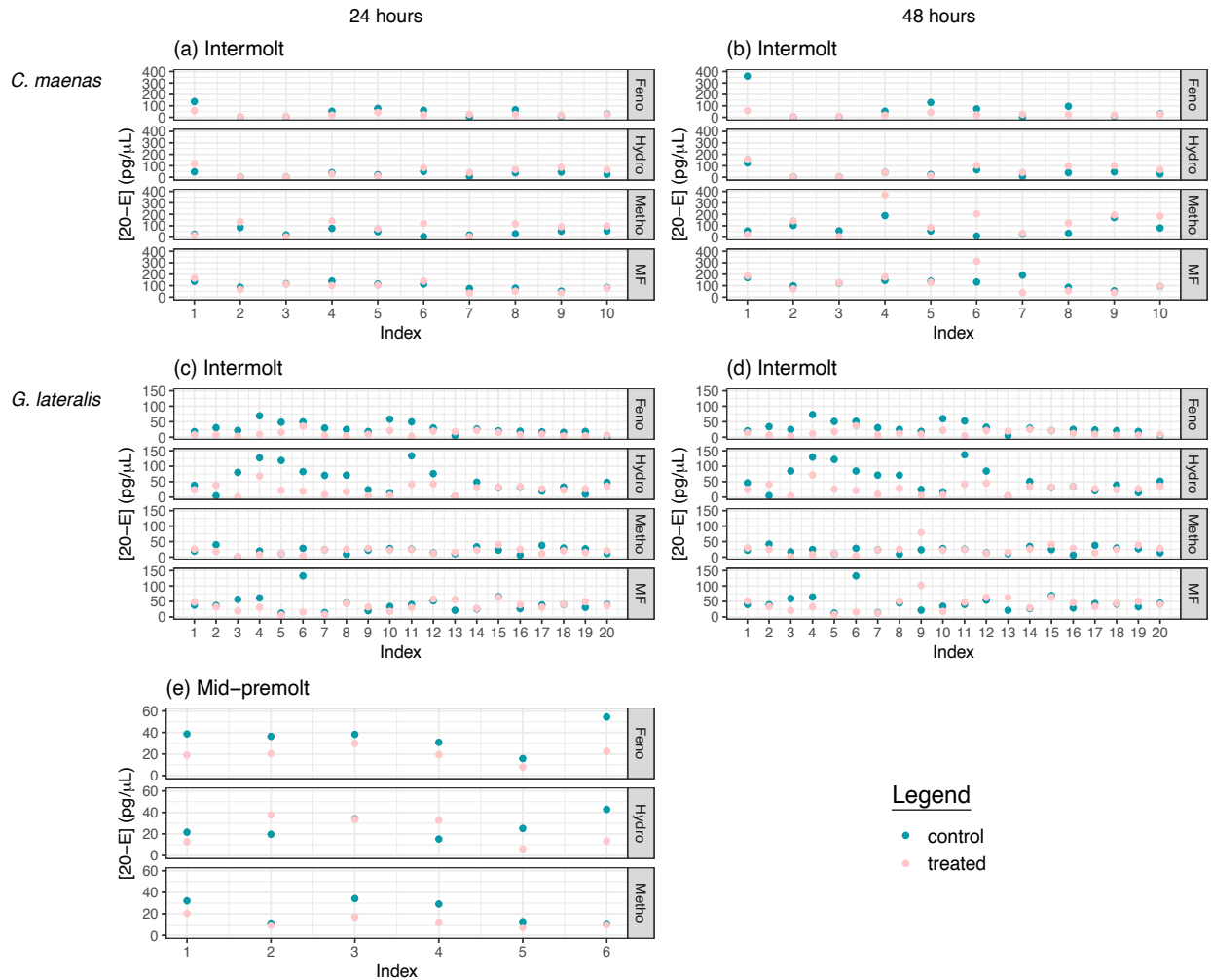


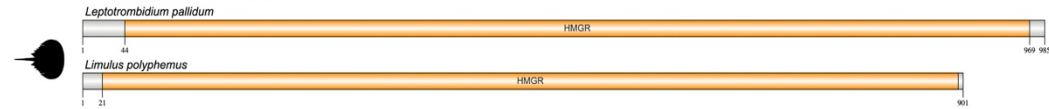
Figure A28. Cumulative 20-E concentration (pg/μL) for each Y-organ (YO) after exposure to 10.0 μM of MF or a JH-mimic and their associated untreated YO from the same host animal for intermolt (IM) green crab (*C. maenas*) along with IM and mid-premolt (MP) blackback land crab (*G. lateralis*) after 24 and 48-hours. Index refers to each animal subject from the paired YOs were harvested from. Abbreviations: Feno–fenoxycarb; Hydro–hydroprene; Metho–methoprene; and MF– methyl farnesoate.

APPENDIX B

Tardigrades



Chelicerates



Crustaceans

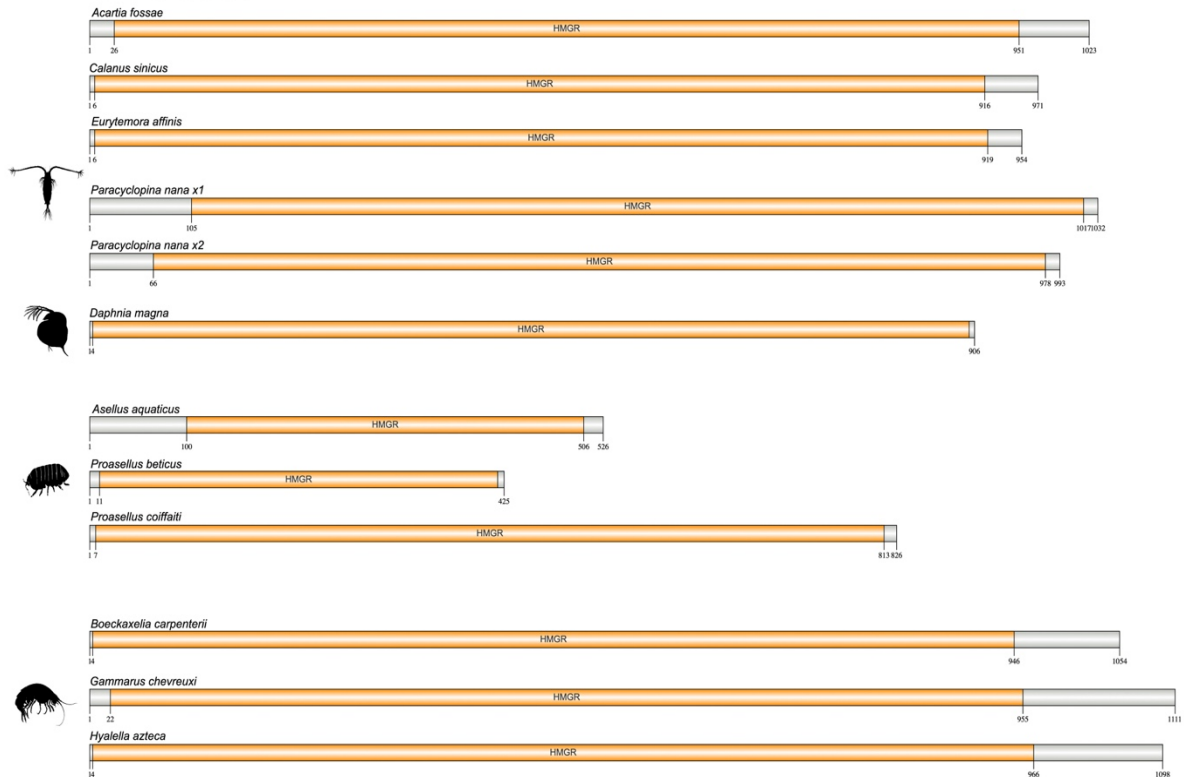


Figure B1. Domain organization of panarthropoda (tardigrades, chelicerates, and non-decapod crustaceans) 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme reductase (HMGR) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

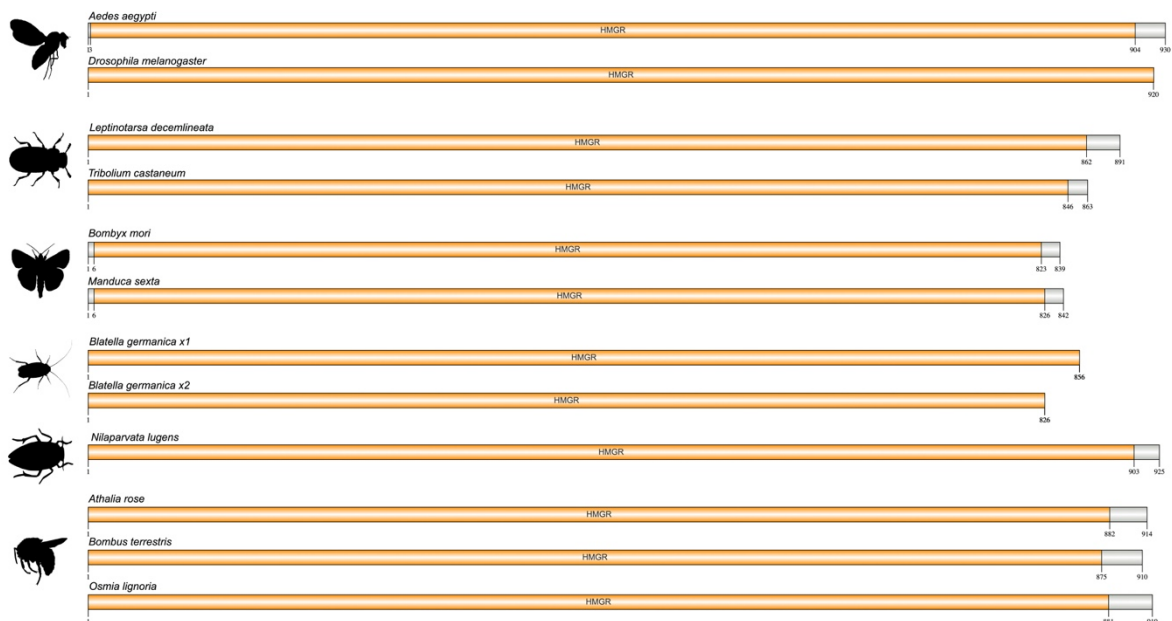


Figure B2. Domain organization of insect 3-hydroxy-3-methyl-glutaryl-coenzyme reductase (HMGR) proteins. Domains were identified with the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository. Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure B3. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *G. lateralis* 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase (HMGR) contig (Y EVm001453t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) consisting of 25 and 2378 base pairs (bp) respectively; the start codon (atg) is indicated in green and stop codon (tga) in red. Within the 961 aa open reading frame (ORF) is the HMGR domain (12-858 aa) highlighted in yellow.

Figure B4

```
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P G Q P R T P Q E Y Q G L D V V V M T V
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L T L D T I V E A L V I G A G T L S G V
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S R L E Q M C A F A C M S I L V N Y I V
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F M T F F P A C L S L I L E L S N R C S
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T S L N S S T D P H V I V R L L N A G L
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G R L L Y M R F V A Q T G D A M G M N M
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V S K G T E A G L K N L K K Y F P D M E
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L E V G T V G G G T S L H P Q A S C L S
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```

Figure B4. Nucleotide (nt) and deduced amino acid (aa) sequence of the *C. maenas* 3-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A reductase (HMGR) contig (Y EVm002033t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) consisting of 36 and 40 base pairs (bp) respectively; the start codon (atg) is indicated in green and stop codon (tga) in red. Within the 860 aa open reading frame (ORF) is the HMGR domain (12-850 aa) highlighted in yellow.



Figure B5. Domain organization of non-decapod crustacean farnesoic acid *O*-methyl transferase (FAMeT) proteins. Two Methyltransf_FA domains were identified in the transcripts regardless of variant length. Domains were the NCBI CD search tool and visualized with IBS 2.0 (see Materials and Methods). Information for the sequences is provided in the supplementary data spreadsheet on the online repository Species silhouettes were obtained from PhyloPic (<http://phylopic.org>).

Figure B6

```
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```

Figure B6. Nucleotide (nt) and amino acid (aa) sequence alignment of the *G. lateralis* FAMeTa contig (Y Evm0106271t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 124 and 435 base pair (bp) 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) with the start codon (atg) indicated in green and stop codon (tga) in red, respectively. The 280 aa open reading frame (ORF) are two farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase domains (Methyltransf_FA) (37 aa – 134 aa and 173 aa – 274 aa) highlighted in aqua with putative phosphorylation sites indicated in boxes.

Figure B7

```
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H D R T L N T E D C L T Y N F E P V Y G
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D T F T F S V A C S N D A H L A L T S G
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P E E T T P M Y E L F I G G W E N K H S
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agatatgagaggtatcttctgactcttctgtggcttcacgtcaataagaagagagaacgta
gaagat
```

Figure B7. Nucleotide (nt) and amino acid (aa) sequence alignment of the *G. lateralis* FAMeTb contig (Y Evm0106271t2) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 124 and 435 base pair (bp) 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) with the start codon (atg) indicated in green and stop codon (tga) in red, respectively. The 275 aa open reading frame (ORF) contains two farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase domains (Methyltransf_FA) (37 aa –134 aa and 173 aa –274 aa) highlighted in aqua with putative phosphorylation sites indicated in boxes.

Figure B8

gtcctgcgcgcatatacgaagtggtagcgtagtgaggaggggcaatataaggctgtgag
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N E V R V G K A G E W E P L M Q A P L P
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actactactactactactact

Figure B8. Nucleotide (nt) and amino acid (aa) sequence alignment of the *C. maenas* FAMeTa contig (Y EVM013262t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 133 and 429 base pair (bp) 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR) with the start codon (atg) indicated in green and stop codon (tga) in red, respectively. The 280 aa open reading frame (ORF) contains two farnesoic acid *O*-methyltransferase domains (Methyltransf_FA) (37 aa – 134 aa and 173 aa – 274 aa) highlighted in aqua with putative phosphorylation sites indicated in boxes.

Figure B9. Nucleotide (nt) and amino acid (aa) sequence alignment of the *C. maenas* FAMeTb contig (Y EVM013262t2) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 429 bp 3' untranslated region (UTR) with stop codon (tga) in red. The 206 aa partial open reading frame (ORF) contains two farnesoic acid *O*-methyl transferase (Methyltransf_FA) domains highlighted in aqua with putative phosphorylation sites indicated in boxes.

Figure B10

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gtagtgaagggaaagactctcgtcacacccatcgcggtgtcgtcacgaacacaagtgtctt
tcccttactactttgccttcacgctcttctcattactttactatcactctcttccattc
tgacaacctaagttgtgtacaagtacagctacatttgtgtacacgctcgttggcaccacc
acacgctgctctcagaccctgacgccgtcctcactaccacaacacaagaacacttgcca
caacaaaacatggtctgtctaccacaccgaagattgtggagatggacggaactaccatttc
      M S V Y H T E D C G D G R N Y H F
cgccgcattccaaactactgcaataagggttcaagggtgaaagctgagcacgatggtgccatc
R R I Q T T A I R F K V K A E H D V A I
tgctctcccccgctcaacgaggaggaagatgggtcagatggcgacgcatacagggtgttc
C L S P V N E E E D G S D G D A Y E V F
attggttgctggggaggcgatgagctctggcattcgggagacgagggactggggaggacgtc
I G C W G G D E S G I R R R G T G E D V
tgcaagatccacactccccgggatattggaaagcggggaggactatcaatcattctggatc
C K I H T P G I L E S G E D Y Q S F W I
aagataaaacgtggggtgataaaggtagggaaatcagggatgaagacagccttcatgacg
K I K R G V I K V G K S G M K T A F M T
ttcagtgaccgcgacgccctcctcacttctcctggtatggctacagcaccgggtgggga
F S D P S A L L H F S W Y G Y S T G W G
gcggaaggggactggatctttctggatgaggacgatacctcatcctcctcatcatctggt
A E G D W I F L D E D D T S S S S S S G
ctttcttctcctccgattctgaggctgaggaaataaacactttggaggaaagaccatccag
L S S S D S E A E E I N T L E E R P I Q
tacaagcgtccggcccgatgggtgccctcgtcgggggatactttcccaccgctcctgtg
Y K R P A R W V P S S G G Y F P H R P V
tcaggaggcgaaggaaccagatggagaagtgtacgttggcatggcacgccacgaagacgcg
S G G E G P D G E V Y V G M A R H E D A
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Y V V G M V V P E H S C C Y V P F G G A
gctataccaaagcaagactattttgttttgagcaatccggcgagcgtgactctgacctgg
A I P K Q D Y F V L S N P A S V T L T W
gagcctagcagccatggcaaggtaccgctggtgccctacagggaggcttgtctgaggac
E P S S H G K V P A G A L Q G G L S E D
ggcgagacactcttcattggcaggggtgaacgtggacggcgtagtgtccgtaggcaagatt
G E T L F I G R V N V D G V V S V G K I
catcagagtcacggcgtgtgttacgtgccctatgggggagccgagcactcacacaagaac
H Q S H G V C Y V P Y G G A E H S H K N
tatgaggtgctctgtgtacgttccgtaacagtgagggtgtaacaacacacacacacacac
Y E V L C V R S V T V K V -
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Figure B10. Nucleotide (nt) and amino acid (aa) sequence alignment of the *C. maenas* FAMeT2 contig (CarmaY_EVm010974t1) isolated from the Y-organ (YO). The contig sequence includes a 251 bp and 18 bp 429 bp 5' and 3' untranslated region (UTR), respectively. The start (atg) and stop codon (tga) are bolded in green and red, respectively. Within the 330 aa open reading frame (ORF) is the farnesoic acid *O*-methyl transferase (Methyltransf_FA) domain (highlighted in aqua; 37 aa – 140 aa) followed by the protein of unknown function domain, or DUF3421 (pfam11901) (highlighted in yellow; 203 aa – 315 aa).

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviation	Meaning
20-E	20-Hydroxyecdysone
aa	Amino acid
Acetyl-CoA	Acetyl coenzyme A
bHLH-PAS	Basic helix-loop-helix/Period (Per) – Aryl hydrocarbon receptor nuclear
bp	Base pairs
Br-C	Broad complex
C2H2	Two cysteine (Cys) residues–two histidine (His) residues
CA	Corpora allata
CaCO ₃	Calcium carbonate
CC	Corpora cardiaca
CBP	Cyclic adenosine monophosphate (cAMP) response element binding
CHH	Crustacean hyperglycemic hormone
CXE	Carboxylesterase
DUF	Domain of unknown function
E93	Ecdysone inducible factor 93
ECR/RXR	Ecdysone receptor/retinoid X receptor
EP	Early premolt
ESA	Eyestalk ablation
FA	Farnesoic acid
FAMeT	Farnesoic acid <i>O</i> -methyltransferase
FPP	Farnesyl pyrophosphate
GIH	Gonad-inhibiting hormone

HAT	Histone acetyltransferase
HMG-CoA	Hydroxymethylglutharyl-CoA
HMGR	3-Hydroxy-3-methylglutarul-coenzyme A reductase
Hsp83/Hsp90	Heat shock protein (83/90)
HTH–Psq	Helix-turn-helix, pipsqueak
IGR	Insect growth regulator
ILP	Insulin-like peptide
IM	Intermolt
JH	Juvenile hormone
JHA	Juvenile hormone acid
JHAMT	Juvenile hormone acid methyltransferase
JHE (-like)	Juvenile hormone esterase (-like)
JHEH	Juvenile hormibe epoxide hydrolase
Kr-h1	Krüppel homolog-1
LP	Late premolt
Mblk-1	Mushroom body large-type Kenyon-cell protein 1
MEKRE93	Methoprene tolerant – Krüppel homolog-1 – E93
Met	Methoprene tolerant
MF	Methyl farnesoate
MFBP	Methyl farnesoate (MF)-binding proteins
MFE	Methyl farnesoate (MF) esterase
MIH	Molt-inhibiting hormone
MO	Mandibular organ
MOIH	Mandibular organ inhibiting hormone
MP	Mid premolt

mTOR	Mechanistic target of rapamycin
MVA	Mevalonate pathway
NADPH	Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate
nt	Nucleotide
ORF	Open reading frame
PAC	PAS-associated C-terminus
PG	Prothoracic gland
PTTH	Prothoracicotropic hormone
R-index	Regeneration index
SAM	S-adenosyl-L-methionine
Src	Steroid receptor coactivator
TGF- β	Transforming growth factor β
UTR	Untranslated region
XO	X-organ, sinus gland complex
YO	Y-organ
Znf	Zinc finger