

Identification of a longevity gene through evolutionary rate covariation of insect mito-nuclear genomes

Received: 3 July 2023

Accepted: 2 May 2024

Published online: 04 June 2024

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Oxidative phosphorylation, essential for energy metabolism and linked to the regulation of longevity, involves mitochondrial and nuclear genes. The functions of these genes and their evolutionary rate covariation (ERC) have been extensively studied, but little is known about whether other nuclear genes not targeted to mitochondria evolutionarily and functionally interact with mitochondrial genes. Here we systematically examined the ERC of mitochondrial and nuclear benchmarking universal single-copy ortholog (BUSCO) genes from 472 insects, identifying 75 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes. We found that the uncharacterized gene *CG11837*—a putative ortholog of human *DIMT1*—regulates insect lifespan, as its knockdown reduces median lifespan in five diverse insect species and *Caenorhabditis elegans*, whereas its overexpression extends median lifespans in fruit flies and *C. elegans* and enhances oxidative phosphorylation gene activity. Additionally, *DIMT1* overexpression protects human cells from cellular senescence. Together, these data provide insights into the ERC of mito-nuclear genes and suggest that *CG11837* may regulate longevity across animals.

Animal cells contain both nuclear and mitochondrial genomes in spatially distinct compartments. In a single cell, mitochondrial genomes are typically present at hundreds to thousands of copies, whereas the nuclear genome typically has two copies. The mitochondrial genome often encodes 37 genes and accounts for approximately 0.25% of the entire cell's genetic makeup¹, whereas the nuclear genome often encodes tens of thousands of genes and accounts for approximately 99.75% of the cell's genetic makeup¹. Coordination between

mitochondrial and nuclear genomes is crucial for cellular functions², notably in the oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) pathway, which generates ATP and contains five protein complexes encoded by all 13 mitochondrial protein-coding genes (mtOXPHOS) and approximately 70 nuclear protein-coding genes (nuOXPHOS). Dysfunctions of these mtOXPHOS and nuOXPHOS genes in model species lead to multisystem diseases³, including, but not limited to, aging-related diseases⁴, neurodegenerative disorders⁵ and metabolic disorders⁶.

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Recent studies employed genome-scale data to investigate the evolutionary rate covariation (ERC) of nuOXPHOS genes and mtOXPHOS genes in different lineages, including mammals⁷, bivalves⁸ and insects⁹. Despite using moderate numbers of genomes (mammals: 58 species; bivalves: 31 species; insects: 44 species), these studies found highly correlated evolutionary rates between nuOXPHOS genes and mtOXPHOS genes. nuOXPHOS genes also showed stronger signals of covariation with mtOXPHOS genes compared to other nuclear-encoded mitochondrial (nuMT) genes^{2,10}. In addition to the mitochondria-targeted nuclear (nuOXPHOS and nuMT) genes, other nuclear genes (for example, *SIRT1* in human) that are not targeted to mitochondria were previously reported to severely affect mitochondrial functions and phenotypes¹¹. What remains unknown is how many other nuclear genes are not targeted to mitochondria but exhibit strong signals of ERC with mtOXPHOS genes and functionally associate with them.

To address this gap, we systematically examined the ERC of 1,203 conserved non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes and 67 nuOXPHOS genes with 13 mtOXPHOS genes using the high-quality nuclear and mitochondrial genomes of 472 insects, representing 19 of 23 species-rich orders¹². We asked three questions. (1) What is the landscape of ERC signals of all non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes and all nuOXPHOS genes with the 13 mtOXPHOS genes? (2) Which are the non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes that exhibit strong ERC with the mtOXPHOS genes? (3) What are the biological functions of non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes that exhibit strong ERC with the mtOXPHOS genes? Our study identified 75 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes exhibiting strong ERC signals with mtOXPHOS genes and displaying diverse functions, such as ribosome biogenesis, DNA replication and telomere maintenance. Additionally, we discovered *CGII837*, a longevity gene putatively considered an ortholog of the human gene *DIMT1*, contributing to lifespans from worms to insects and protecting human cells from cellular senescence.

Results

Evolution of nuclear and mitochondrial genomes in insects

To examine the modes of nuclear and mitochondrial genome evolution in insects, we compiled 472 mitochondrial and nuclear genomes (Methods and Supplementary Table 1). These 472 insects represent 19 of 23 species-rich orders¹². Analysis of nuclear genome assembly completeness revealed that 357 of 472 (~76%) nuclear genomes have at least 90% of the 1,417 full-length benchmarking universal single-copy ortholog (BUSCO) nuclear genes (Supplementary Fig. 1). The percentage of complete BUSCO genes varied between 22.2% and 99.9%, with an average value of 89.3%. Regarding mitochondrial genomes, 440 genomes (~93%) contained all 13 protein-coding genes (PCGs), whereas nearly all genomes had at least 10. Examining gene composition (Supplementary Fig. 2), four genes (*COX3*, *CYTB*, *ND4* and *ND5*) were universally present, whereas eight (*ATP6*, *COX1*, *COX2*, *ND1*, *ND2*, *ND3*, *ND4L*

and *ND6*) were sporadically absent in 1–6 unrelated species. *ATP8* was the most commonly absent gene, being absent in 25 out of 472 species. The absence of the *ATP8* gene is likely attributed to its small size and high variation in base composition that could pose challenges for its annotations.

We next inferred two concatenation-based maximum likelihood (ML) phylogenies of 472 insects and 15 outgroups using the 1,417 nuclear BUSCO (nuBUSCO) PCGs and 13 mitochondrial protein-coding genes (mtPCGs), respectively. Most internodes in both nuBUSCO (98%) and mtPCG (84%) phylogenies received strong ($\geq 95\%$) support (Supplementary Figs. 3 and 4). However, the nuBUSCO phylogeny was more congruent with a previous genome-scale phylogeny of 126 insects¹³ than the mtPCG phylogeny (Extended Data Fig. 1). The nuBUSCO phylogeny supported the monophyly of 19 orders, with intraordinal relationships consistent with a previous study¹³, except for the placement of the order Phthiraptera (Fig. 1a). In our nuBUSCO phylogeny, Phthiraptera was recovered as the sister group to Thysanoptera, albeit with low branch support (bootstrap value = 56%). In contrast, a previous genome-scale study supported (bootstrap value = 89%) the Phthiraptera as the sister group to the holometabolous insects¹³. The conflicting placement of the Phthiraptera likely results from our nuBUSCO phylogeny containing only one taxon (*Pediculus humanus*) in Phthiraptera, whereas the previous genome-scale study included four taxa. In addition, the mtPCG phylogeny did not support the monophyly of each of three orders (Ephemeroptera, Hemiptera and Coleoptera), likely due to fewer markers and sites, maternal inheritance, stronger base composition bias and/or higher substitution rate heterogeneity.

To quantify the similarities and differences in the modes of nuclear and mitochondrial insect genome evolution, we assessed GC content and evolutionary rate across 472 insects. Surprisingly, nuclear genomes generally exhibited higher GC content than their mitochondrial genomes (Fig. 1a), with ratios ranging from 0.8 to 3.3 and an average of 1.7. Additionally, the five largest orders—Hemiptera, Hymenoptera, Coleoptera, Lepidoptera and Diptera—displayed significant differences in GC content between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes (Supplementary Fig. 5a). When examining the GC content correlation between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes for each of the five largest orders, positive correlations were observed in some orders but not in others (Supplementary Fig. 5b). To calculate the evolutionary rate for each species, we used a sum of path distances from the most recent common ancestor of insects to its tip in the ML tree. Because the nuBUSCO phylogeny was more congruent with a previous genome-scale study¹³ than the mtPCG phylogeny, we used the topology constrained to recover the nuBUSCO phylogeny (Fig. 1a) to re-estimate all branch lengths for the mtPCG data matrix (Fig. 1a). The comparisons of evolutionary rate of nuclear and mitochondrial genomes showed order-specific differences among the five largest orders (Fig. 1c). These order-specific differences in evolutionary rate

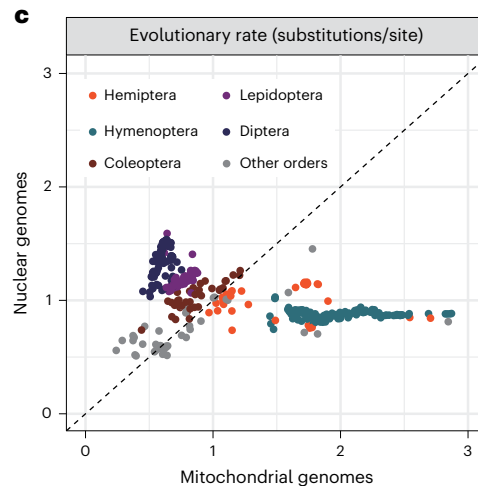
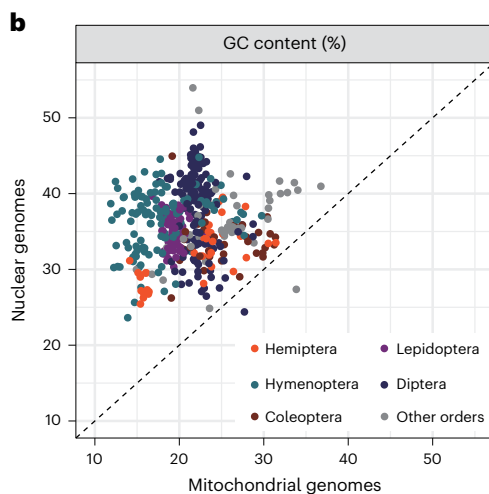
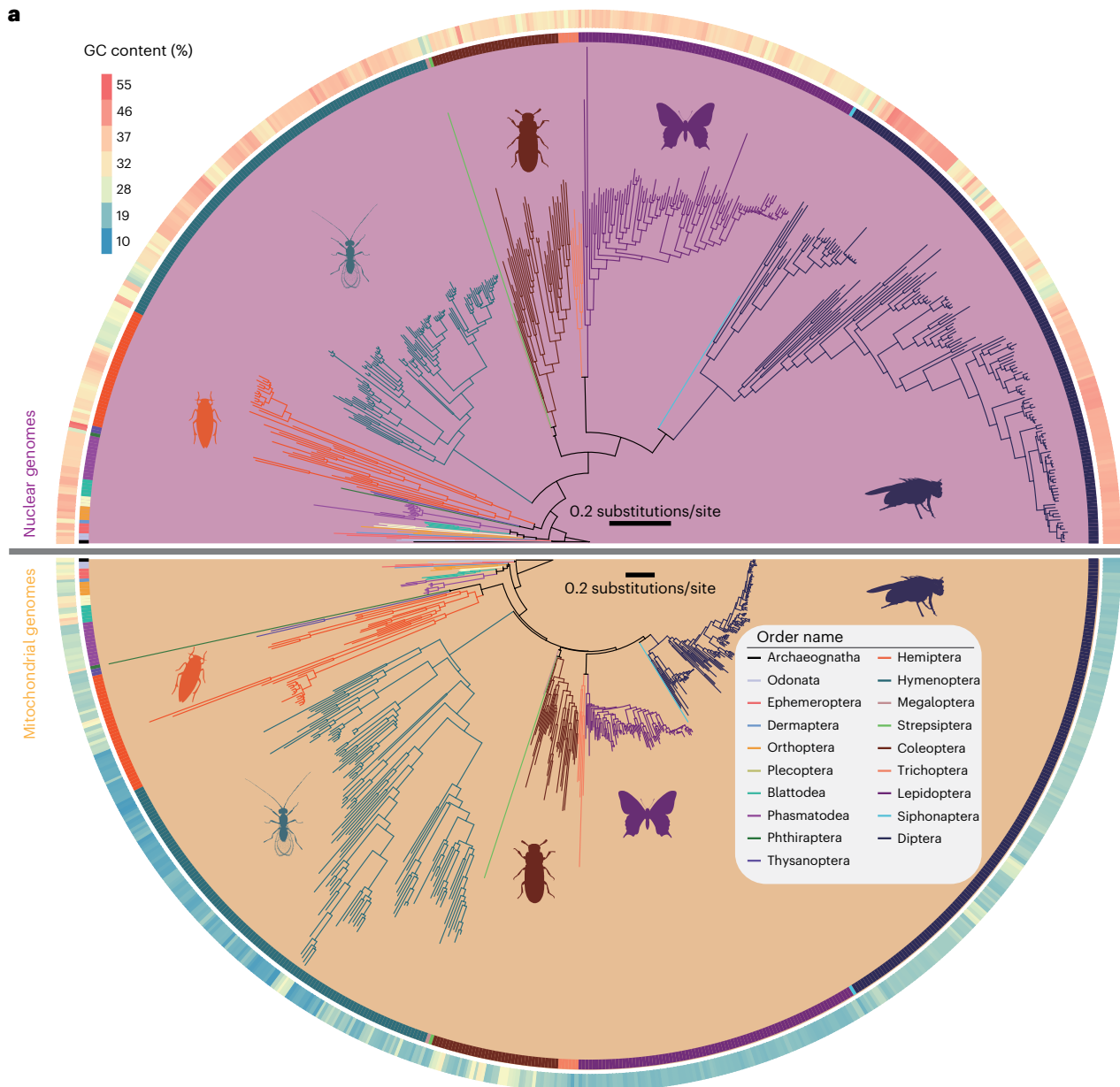
Fig. 1 | Contrasting patterns of genomic properties between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes in insects. We sampled the high-quality nuclear and mitochondrial genomes of 472 insects (Supplementary Table 1), representing 19 of 23 species-rich orders (that is, orders with >500 described species)¹².

a, The upper phylogeny was a concatenated ML tree inferred from analysis of 1,417 nuBUSCO PCGs under a single LG + G4. The complete phylogenetic relationships of 472 insects in the nuBUSCO phylogeny are given in Supplementary Fig. 3. Because the topology of the ML phylogeny inferred from all 13 mtPCGs was largely incongruent with that of the nuBUSCO phylogeny, we present the lower phylogeny constrained to recover the nuBUSCO phylogeny, but we re-estimated all their branch lengths using the mtPCG data matrix under a single mtIn+F + G4. The complete phylogenetic relationships of 472 insects in the unconstrained mtPCG phylogeny are shown in Supplementary Fig. 4. The concentric track on the periphery of the figure depicts GC content (%) of nuclear and mitochondrial genomes, respectively. Images representing taxa were taken

from the free-to-use PhyloPic website (<http://phylopic.org>)⁵⁸. **b**, Comparison of GC content between mitochondrial (x axis) and nuclear (y axis) genomes across 472 insects. Each dot corresponds to one species ($n = 472$). **c**, Comparison of evolutionary rate between mitochondrial (x axis) and nuclear (y axis) genomes across 472 insects. Each dot corresponds to one species ($n = 472$). For a given species, the evolutionary rates of its nuclear genome and mitochondrial genome were the sums of path distances from the most recent common ancestor of insects to its tip in the nuBUSCO phylogeny (upper phylogeny in **a**) and in the constrained mtPCG phylogeny (lower phylogeny in **a**), respectively. Because the five largest orders (Lepidoptera, Coleoptera, Diptera, Hemiptera and Hymenoptera) constitute 428 (~91%) of the 472 insects, we also assessed differences in GC content and evolutionary rate and explored their correlations between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes within each of these five largest orders (Supplementary Figs. 5 and 7).

still held (Supplementary Fig. 6) with unconstrained mtPCG phylogeny (Supplementary Fig. 4). Specifically, Hemiptera and Hymenoptera nuclear genomes evolved slower than their mitochondrial genomes,

whereas the opposite trend was observed in Coleoptera, Lepidoptera and Diptera (Supplementary Fig. 7a). When investigating the evolutionary rate correlation between nuclear and mitochondrial genomes, we



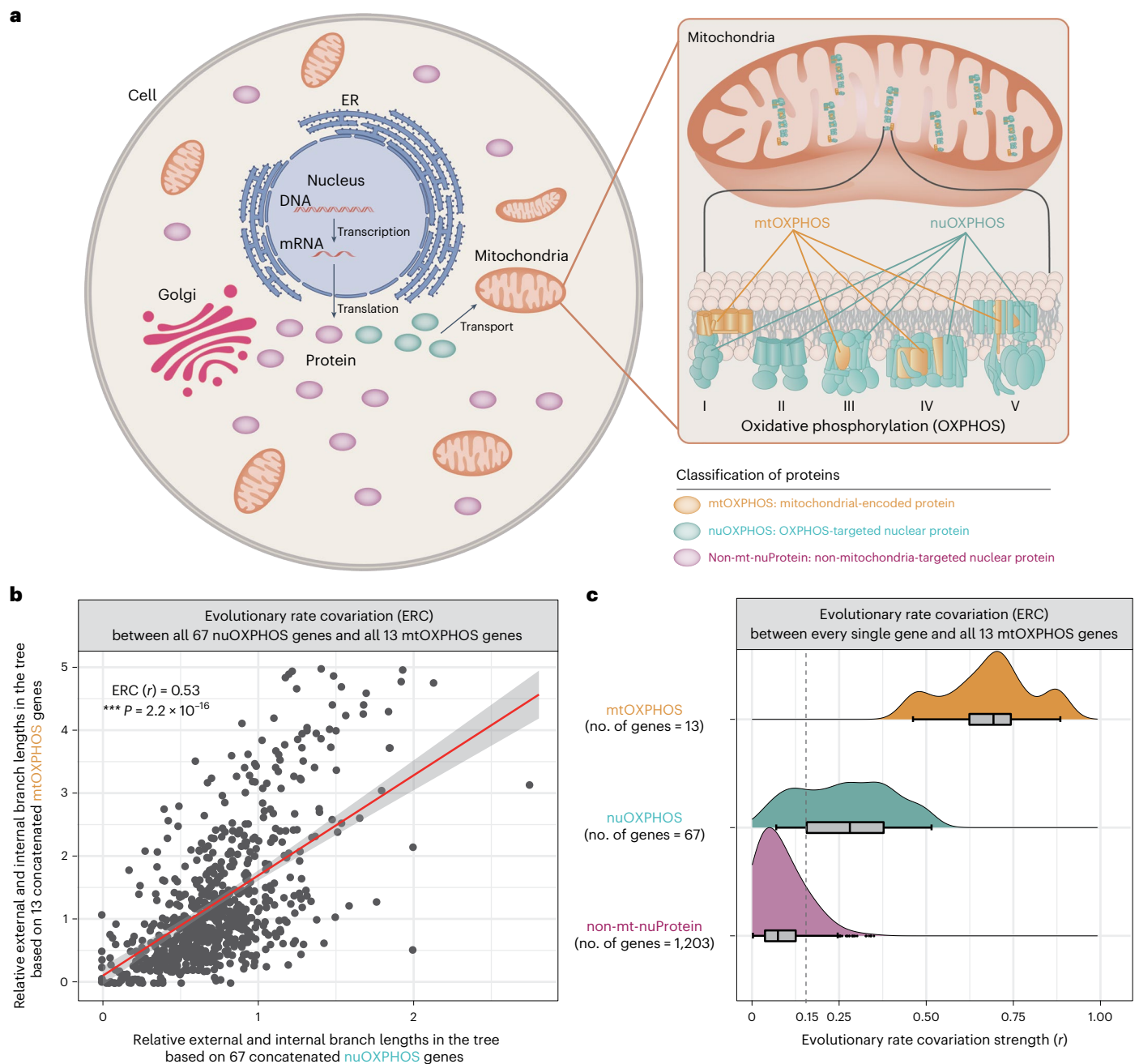


Fig. 2 | The classification of proteins and the landscape of ERC of nuclear and mitochondrial PCGs. a, The diagram of classification of proteins. Based on the subcellular locations of protein products and their involvement in the OXPHOS pathway using data from the FlyBase, we divided all 13 mitochondrial PCGs and the 1,270 nuclear protein-coding BUSCO genes into three groups: mtOXPHOS (13 mitochondrial-encoded proteins), nuOXPHOS (67 OXPHOS-targeted nuclear proteins) and non-mt-nuProtein (1,203 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear proteins). **b**, The ERC of the nuOXPHOS supergene versus the mtOXPHOS supergene. ERC was the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) between relative evolutionary rates estimated from each branch of the phylogeny inferred from all 67 concatenated nuOXPHOS genes (nuOXPHOS supergene) and those estimated from each branch of the phylogeny inferred from all 13 concatenated mtOXPHOS genes (mtOXPHOS supergene). Note that the nuOXPHOS supergene's phylogeny and the mtOXPHOS supergene's phylogeny were topologically identical to the reference species phylogeny of 472 insects (Fig. 1), but they exhibited

different relative branch lengths across 472 insects. In addition to the ERC of the nuOXPHOS supergene versus the mtOXPHOS supergene, we also calculated the ERC of the non-mt-nuProtein supergene (which included 67 randomly concatenated non-mt-nuProtein genes) versus the mtOXPHOS supergene (Supplementary Fig. 8). Each dot in the scatter plot indicates a branch ($n = 941$). The red line indicates linear regression model fit, and the gray outline represents the 95% confidence interval. Two-tailed Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was used to determine whether the two sets of values are significantly correlated. *** $P \leq 0.001$. **c**, The distribution of ERC values of all individual genes (13 mtOXPHOS genes, 67 nuOXPHOS genes and 1,203 non-mt-nuProtein genes) versus the mtOXPHOS supergene. For each box plot, the bottom, center and top represent 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles, respectively. Whiskers represent $1.5 \times$ interquartile range. Outliers are data points falling above or below the ends of the whiskers. The vertical dashed gray line indicates the lower (third) quartile of the set of ERC values of all 67 nuOXPHOS genes. ER, endoplasmic reticulum.

found that correlations between nuclear and mitochondrial evolutionary rates varied among the five orders (Supplementary Fig. 7b). The underlying causes of these contrasting modes of the evolution of

nuclear and mitochondrial genomes and, in particular, the surprising and striking variation in their direction among different orders remain unknown and deserve further attention.

Robust signal of ERC between nuclear and mitochondrial genes

We adopted the widely used ERC metric to identify gene–gene functional associations of nuclear and mitochondrial PCGs across 472 insects. The ERC is a Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) between relative evolutionary rates estimated from each branch of a gene's phylogeny and those of another gene's phylogeny (Extended Data Fig. 2). Because one major goal of our study is to identify nuclear PCGs that are not targeted to mitochondria but exhibit strong ERC signals and potentially interact with mtOXPHOS genes, we initially excluded 147 genes that are targeted to the mitochondria (but do not physically interact with any of the five protein complexes in the OXPHOS pathway) from the set of 1,417 conserved nuclear protein-coding BUSCO genes across 472 insects, retaining 1,270 BUSCO genes. Next, we divided all 13 mitochondrial genes and the remaining 1,270 nuclear BUSCO genes based on subcellular location and involvement in the OXPHOS pathway into three groups: mtOXPHOS (13 mitochondrial-encoded proteins), nuOXPHOS (67 OXPHOS-targeted nuclear proteins) and non-mt-nuProtein (1,203 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear proteins) (Fig. 2a and Supplementary Table 2).

For each of three groups (mtOXPHOS, nuOXPHOS and non-mt-nuProtein), we concatenated genes into supergenes and computed ERC values. The 67 concatenated nuOXPHOS supergene exhibited strong ERC with the 13 concatenated mtOXPHOS supergene (Fig. 2b), whereas the 67 randomly concatenated non-mt-nuProtein supergene had substantially weak ERC with the 13 concatenated mtOXPHOS supergene (number of replicates = 1,000; average ERC = 0.070; 95% confidence interval: 0.058–0.082) (Supplementary Fig. 8). Additionally, we calculated the ERC value of every single gene and the 13 concatenated mtOXPHOS supergene. Individual gene ERC values varied, with mtOXPHOS genes having the highest average (0.68), followed by nuOXPHOS genes (0.27) and non-mt-nuProtein genes (0.08) (Fig. 2c and Supplementary Table 2). These results suggest that the ERC between nuOXPHOS genes and mtOXPHOS supergene was generally stronger than that between non-mt-nuProtein genes and mtOXPHOS supergene (Fig. 2c).

ERC identifies 75 mitochondria-associated nuclear genes

Our analyses showed a subset of 1,203 non-mt-nuProtein genes with similar ERC (r) values to the mtOXPHOS supergene (Fig. 2c), compared to 67 nuOXPHOS genes. To identify genes that exhibit strong ERC signals and potentially interact with mtOXPHOS genes, we initially implemented a high r threshold of ≥ 0.15 , which is the lower (third) quartile of the set of r values of all 67 nuOXPHOS genes (Fig. 2c). This resulted in 254 genes with high r values (Fig. 3a), including 13 mtOXPHOS genes, 50 nuOXPHOS genes and 191 non-mt-nuProtein genes.

Using the 254 genes, we constructed a network based on potential protein–protein associations using the STRING database. Thirty-one clusters emerged, with the three largest (clusters 1–3) harboring 138 genes (54% of total) (Supplementary Fig. 9). Cluster 1 contained 13 mtOXPHOS genes, 50 nuOXPHOS genes and five non-mt-nuProtein genes; cluster 2 contained 50 non-mt-nuProtein genes; and cluster 3 contained 20 non-mt-nuProtein genes (Fig. 3b and Supplementary Table 3). As a result, we identified 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes showing strong ERC signals and potential functional interactions with mtOXPHOS genes. Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis revealed diverse roles for these 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes, including ribosome biogenesis, DNA replication, DNA repair, telomere maintenance, metabolic process and protein localization and transport (Fig. 3c and Supplementary Table 3).

Lastly, we assessed the connectivity (that is, the number of edges connecting the examined gene to other genes) for each of the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes in the three largest clusters 1–3 (Fig. 3b). *CG13220*, *CG11837* and *CG11788* exhibited the highest connectivity in clusters 1, 2 and 3 (Extended Data Fig. 3 and Supplementary Table 3),

respectively. Based on these findings, we chose *CG13220*, *CG11837* and *CG11788* as well as *Nop60B*, which ranked as the second-highest in connectivity within the largest cluster 2 (Extended Data Fig. 3), to investigate their impact on mitochondrial morphology, following the protocol of Zhou et al.¹⁴. In brief, we used RNA interference (RNAi) to knock down expression with *Cg-Gal4 > UAS-mitoGFP*, which is expressed in fruit fly fat bodies and labels mitochondria with *mitoGFP*. Then, we examined the mitochondrial morphology in the early third-instar larval fat bodies using confocal microscopy. Finally, we quantified and averaged the length of mitochondria from each of five randomly selected areas (25 μm \times 25 μm) within a given genotype's confocal image (four different images were examined for each genotype). Knockdown of all four tested genes led to abnormal mitochondrial morphologies (Extended Data Fig. 4a,b and Supplementary Fig. 10). Specifically, when compared to the control, knockdown of *CG13220* and *CG11788* increased mitochondrial lengths by 210% and 185% (Extended Data Fig. 4c), respectively; knockdown of *CG11837* and *Nop60B* decreased mitochondrial lengths by 48% and 59% (Extended Data Fig. 4c), respectively. These results suggest that these four non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes can severely affect mitochondrial morphology.

CG11837 is a conserved longevity gene

Among the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes, we evaluated the genetic function of *CG11837*, which had a similarly high ERC value ($r = 0.23$) (Supplementary Table 3), the highest connectivity (Extended Data Fig. 3) and a significant impact on mitochondrial morphology in larval and adult fat body (Extended Data Fig. 4, Supplementary Fig. 11 and Supplementary Table 4). Analysis of its three-dimensional (3D) protein structure in the AlphaFold2 database¹⁵ revealed a 93% similarity to the human *DIMT1* gene product, suggesting a role as a dimethyladenosine transferase involved in ribosome biogenesis (Extended Data Fig. 5). However, little is known about the function of *CG11837* in insects. To investigate the role of *CG11837* in *Drosophila melanogaster*, we knocked down the expression level of *CG11837* with three distinct GAL4 drivers (whole-body *Actin-GAL4*, neuronal-specific *Elav-GAL4* and motor-neuron-specific *D42-GAL4*) and assessed fly eclosion rate (Supplementary Fig. 12 and Supplementary Table 5). The choice of neuronal-specific and motor-neuron-specific drivers was based on our finding that *CG11837* can alter mitochondrial morphology (Extended Data Fig. 4 and Supplementary Fig. 11), which could potentially lead to neurodegenerative diseases and movement disorders⁵. When *CG11837* was knocked down in the whole body and neuronal cells, none of emerged flies was observed (Supplementary Fig. 12 and Supplementary Table 5). However, knockdown in motor neurons resulted in an average fly eclosion rate of 58% (Supplementary Fig. 12 and Supplementary Table 5). Therefore, we chose the *D42-GAL4 > UAS-CG11837-RNAi* line for subsequent experiments in *D. melanogaster*. In addition, we used RNAi technology with double-stranded RNA (dsRNA) injections to knock down the expression level of orthologs of *CG11837* in five other diverse organisms, including mosquito, beetle, bee, brown planthopper and worm (Extended Data Fig. 6a).

Knockdown of *CG11837* and its orthologs in fruit fly and five other diverse organisms significantly affected adult survival (Fig. 4a). To precisely quantify lifespan and reduce variation of sample sizes between treatment and control groups, we considered the timepoint by which half of the adults had died as the median lifespan for a given tested male or female species (Fig. 4a). Specifically, when compared to the genetic controls (*D42-GAL4/+* and *UAS-CG11837-RNAi/+* for fruit fly; *dsGFP* for mosquito, beetle, bee and brown planthopper; empty vector for worm), knockdowns resulted in reduced median lifespans: fruit flies (males 26–33%, females 58–59%), mosquitoes (males ~40%, females ~15%), bees (males ~40%, females ~50%) and brown planthoppers (males ~24%, females ~21%). All knockdown male and female beetles died by 24 d and 26 d, but none of control male and female adult beetles died by 30 d.

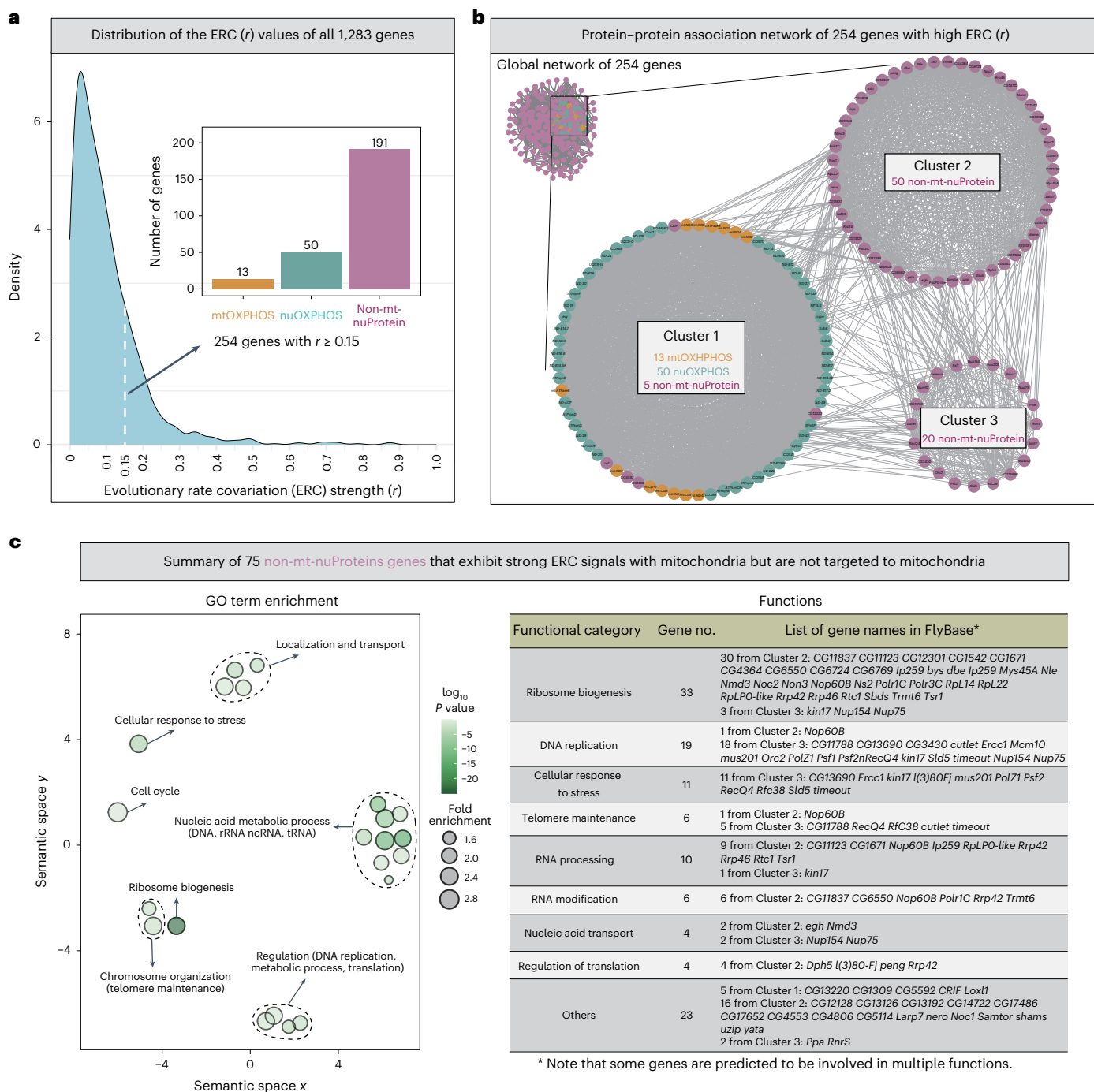


Fig. 3 | Identification of non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes that exhibit strong ERC and potentially interact with mtOXPHOS genes. **a**, The distribution of ERC values between all 1,283 individual genes (13 mtOXPHOS genes, 67 nuOXPHOS genes and 1,203 non-mt-nuProtein genes) and the mtOXPHOS supergene. To identify non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes that exhibit strong ERC and potentially interact with mtOXPHOS genes, an ERC (r) threshold of ≥ 0.15 , which was the lower (third) quartile of the set of ERC values of all 67 nuOXPHOS genes (Fig. 2c), was used to initially retain 254 genes, including 13 mtOXPHOS genes, 50 nuOXPHOS genes and 191 non-mt-nuProtein genes. **b**, The analysis of protein-protein association network of the 254 genes with high r values. In total, 254 genes were grouped into 31 clusters, each of which

consists of at least two genes (Supplementary Fig. 9). Among 31 clusters, the three largest clusters contained 138 (cluster 1: 68; cluster 2: 50; cluster 3: 20) out of 254 (54%) genes, whereas the remaining 28 small clusters included 2–6 genes each. This analysis resulted in 75 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes (cluster 1: 5; cluster 2: 50; cluster 3: 20) that exhibit strong signals of ERC with the mitochondria and potentially interact with them. Furthermore, we investigated the connectivity (that is, the number of edges connecting the examined gene to other genes in the three largest clusters) for each of the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes (Extended Data Fig. 3). **c**, GO enrichment analysis (left) and functional categories (right) of 75 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes. ncRNA, non-coding RNA; tRNA, transfer RNA.

Knockdown in worms, being hermaphrodites, had approximately 33% decrease in median lifespan compared to the controls.

To assess the impact of overexpression at different developmental stages on adult lifespan (Extended Data Fig. 6b), *EO2H1.1* was

overexpressed throughout the worm life cycle, whereas *CG11837* in fruit fly was overexpressed only in adults using a temperature-sensitive transgenic line (*Actin-GAL4 tsGAL80 > UAS-CG11837*) at 29 °C. Compared to two genetic controls (*Actin-GAL4 tsGAL80/+* and *UAS-CG11837/+*),

CGI1837 overexpression extended median lifespans by 30–59% in male flies and by 27–30% in female flies (Fig. 4b). Additionally, *E02HL1* overexpression in worms (being hermaphrodites) increased median lifespan by 12% (Fig. 4b) compared to control worms.

We also overexpressed the human gene *DIMT1*, an ortholog of *CGI1837*, in human skin fibroblast HCA2 cells. Under standard conditions, *DIMT1*-overexpressing and control cells showed similarly low levels of senescence-associated β -galactosidase (SA- β -gal) activity, a marker of cell senescence (overexpression: 2.4%; control: 2.4%) and high cell proliferation capability (overexpression: 96.3%; control: 97.2%) (Fig. 4c, Extended Data Fig. 7, Supplementary Fig. 13 and Supplementary Table 6). However, upon exposure to X-ray irradiation (IR), *DIMT1*-overexpressing cells displayed an approximately 30% reduction in SA- β -gal activity (overexpression: 64.8%; control: 92.1%) and a 2.8-fold increase in cell proliferation (overexpression: 23.7%; control: 6.3%) (Fig. 4c, Extended Data Fig. 7, Supplementary Fig. 13 and Supplementary Table 6).

Given the increased lifespan with *CGI1837* overexpression, we analyzed the correlation between *CGI1837* gene expression levels and lifespans from 43 insects representing nine orders (Supplementary Table 7). We found that relative expression levels of *CGI1837* in 43 insects were significantly positively correlated ($r = 0.45$, $P = 0.002$) with their lifespans (Supplementary Fig. 14a and Supplementary Table 7). Additionally, we examined *DIMT1* in BXD mouse strains¹⁶ and found a significant positive correlation ($r = 0.58$, $P = 0.0058$) between the lifespans of BXD strains and *DIMT1* expression levels (Supplementary Fig. 14b and Supplementary Table 8).

To further explore what pathway(s) are associated with the lifespan-associated gene *CGI1837*, we conducted whole-body transcriptome analyses on *CGI1837* knockdown versus control male mosquitoes and beetles as well as *CGI1837* overexpression versus control male adult fruit flies (Methods). KEGG pathway enrichment analysis revealed that the genes significantly downregulated in *CGI1837* knockdown mosquitoes and beetles, as well as those significantly upregulated in *CGI1837* overexpression fruit flies, are mainly involved in energy-related pathways, such as OXPHOS and carbon metabolism (Extended Data Fig. 8). Surprisingly, out of 80 OXPHOS genes (13 mtOXPHOS genes and 67 nuOXPHOS genes), 63 and 71 genes were expressed at lower levels in *CGI1837* knockdown mosquitoes and beetles, respectively (Fig. 4d and Extended Data Fig. 8a). Conversely, *CGI1837* overexpression fruit flies increased expression of 73 out of 80 OXPHOS genes (Fig. 4d and Extended Data Fig. 8b). Furthermore, comparing expression levels of all 80 OXPHOS genes between young and aged wild-type diverse insects^{17–21} revealed a decrease in OXPHOS gene expression with age (Extended Data Fig. 9). Given that OXPHOS plays a central role in cellular energy synthesis, we examined ATP production and found that *CGI1837* knockdown male mosquitoes significantly reduced ATP production (Fig. 4e). Conversely, overexpression

of *CGI1837* in male fruit flies significantly increased ATP production (Fig. 4e). Collectively, these results suggest that increased activity of *CGI1837* may potentially extend lifespan by enhancing the OXPHOS pathway.

Discussion

Many studies have demonstrated the utility of ERC in identifying gene–gene functional associations^{7–9,22,23}. In our investigation of 472 insects, we observed strong ERC between nuOXPHOS and mtOXPHOS genes (Fig. 2b). Most of the 1,203 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes showed lower ERC values with mtOXPHOS genes compared to nuOXPHOS genes (Fig. 2c), likely due to divergent evolutionary modes of nuclear and mitochondrial genomes (Fig. 1). To mitigate false positives, we performed functional protein–protein association network analyses based on 254 genes with an ERC value of ≥ 0.15 (Fig. 3a,b), identifying 75 non-mt-nuProteins candidate genes with diverse functions (Fig. 3c). Knocking down four of these candidate genes in fruit fly larval fat body severely affected mitochondrial morphology (Extended Data Fig. 4). These findings underscore ERC's potency in pinpointing genes with shared functions, offering potential insights into aging-related signaling pathways, such as insulin, mTOR or sirtuin signaling. This potential would be strengthened by leveraging aging-related resources, such as genome-wide association study data²⁴, single-cell transcriptome data²⁵ and epigenomic data²⁶.

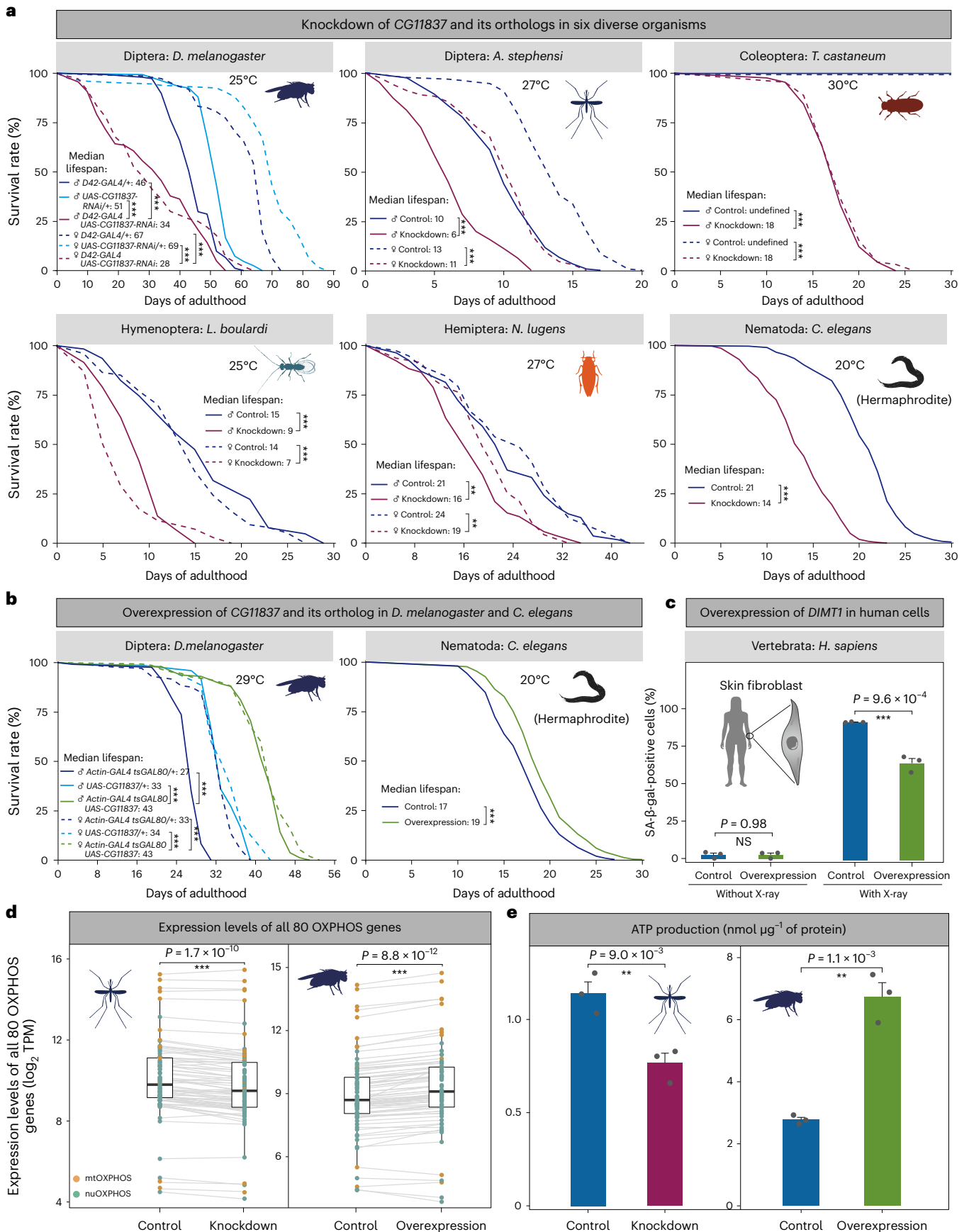
The OXPHOS pathway, vital for cellular energy synthesis, relies on both mtOXPHOS and nuOXPHOS PCGs in most animals. Dysfunction of mtOXPHOS and nuOXPHOS genes can lead to a variety of disorders, such as aging-related diseases⁴, neurodegenerative diseases⁵ and metabolic disorders⁶. Our study functionally validated a non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear gene, *CGI1837*, which is conserved across animals, and exhibited strong ERC with mtOXPHOS genes and severely affected mitochondrial morphology. Knockdown of *CGI1837* shortened lifespans in six diverse organisms, and overexpression increased lifespan in fruit fly and worm (Fig. 4a,b). Furthermore, *DIMT1* (an ortholog of *CGI1837*) overexpression in human cells reduced cellular senescence and rescued cell proliferation arrests in response to DNA damage (Fig. 4c, Extended Data Fig. 7 and Supplementary Fig. 13). Elevated *CGI1837* activity increased nearly all OXPHOS gene expressions (Fig. 4d). Many longevity-promoting genes have been reported across species from fungi to mammals. For example, *Sir2*, a member of the Sirtuin family, has been reported to promote longevity in yeast. However, studies on the effects of *Sir2* on lifespan extension in worms and flies have yielded conflicting results^{27–29}. In our study, we identified a longevity gene, *CGI1837*, that plays a significant role in extending lifespan, observed from worm to insect, and, potentially, this effect could extend to mammals, including humans. Although the mechanism underlying the extension of lifespan by *CGI1837* in insects remains unclear, previous studies indicated that its ortholog *DIMT1*

Fig. 4 | *CGI1837* is a conserved lifespan gene across animals. **a**, Effect of knockdown of *CGI1837* and its orthologs on adult survival rates of six diverse organisms. Median lifespans for males (solid) and females (dashed) in control and knockdown groups are provided with temperatures. Fruit fly used two genetic controls (*D42-GAL4/+* and *UAS-CGI1837-RNAi/+*); mosquito, beetle, bee and brown planthopper used *dsGFP* as controls; worm used empty vector as a control. Each experiment was conducted with three biological replicates. P values were determined by two-sided log-rank test. $**P \leq 0.01$ and $***P \leq 0.001$. **b**, Effect of overexpression of *CGI1837* and its ortholog on survival rates of fruit fly (*Actin-GAL4 tsGAL80 > UAS-CGI1837*) and worm (*E02HL1^{OE}*), respectively. Median lifespans for male (solid) and female (dashed) fruit flies in control and treatment groups are provided with temperatures. Fruit fly used two genetic controls (*Actin-GAL4 tsGAL80/+* and *UAS-CGI1837/+*); worm used N2 Bristol strain as a control. We conducted three biological replicates for each experiment. P values were determined by two-sided log-rank test. $***P \leq 0.001$. Worms are hermaphrodites. **c**, *DIMT1* overexpression in HCA2 cells, control (empty vector)

versus *DIMT1*-overexpressing, with or without 5 Gy X-ray, quantified for SA- β -gal, a biomarker of senescent cell. Three biological replicates were conducted for each experiment. Data represent mean \pm s.d. P values were calculated using two-tailed t -test. NS $P > 0.05$ and $***P \leq 0.001$. **d**, Comparison of OXPHOS expression levels in control versus *CGI1837* knockdown 3-day-old male adult mosquitoes (left) and in control versus *CGI1837* overexpression 3-day-old male adult fruit flies (right). For each box plot (sample size = 80), bottom, center and top represent 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles, respectively. Whiskers represent 1.5 \times interquartile range. P values were calculated using the two-tailed paired Wilcoxon test. $***P \leq 0.001$. **e**, Comparison of ATP production in control versus *CGI1837* knockdown 3-day-old male adult mosquitoes (left) and in control versus *CGI1837* overexpression 3-day-old male adult fruit flies (right). Three biological replicates were conducted for each experiment. Data represent mean \pm s.d. P values were calculated using two-tailed t -test. $**P \leq 0.01$. All images were taken from the free-to-use PhyloPic website (<http://phylopic.org>)⁵⁸. TPM, transcripts per million.

is involved in ribosome assembly and protein translation fidelity in human cell lines^{30–32}. Additionally, a recent study found that *DIMT1* is necessary for the transmission of intergenerational hormesis by

catalyzing ribosomal RNA (rRNA) methylation in response to starvation in worm³³. Given these previous findings and the predicted function of *CG11837* as a dimethyladenosine transferase, exploring how



CG11837/DIMT1 contributes to longevity across animals is an exciting future direction, particularly in the field of epigenetics.

Our study focused primarily on nuclear PCGs not targeted to mitochondria but displaying strong ERC with mtOXPHOS genes. However, nuOXPHOS genes also play a crucial role in cellular energy harvesting. For instance, investigating copper resistance variation among wild fruit fly populations, Everman et al.³⁴ identified copper-associated single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in certain nuOXPHOS genes, including bellwether (*blw*). Excessive copper exposure was found to impact the expression levels of nuOXPHOS genes in fruit flies, causing decreased ATP production³⁵ and higher levels of reactive oxygen species (ROS)³⁶. Furthermore, our study centered primarily on the set of 1,417 conserved nuclear BUSCO genes, which represent only a fraction of the nuclear genome encoding tens of thousands of genes. Therefore, investigations into the ERC between mitochondrial and nuclear genomes using all nuclear genes and all OXPHOS genes (mtOXPHOS and nuOXPHOS genes) represent promising directions for future research and could offer additional insights into the interplay between these two genomes.

Methods

Taxon sampling

Nuclear genomes. To collect the greatest possible set of the full genome representatives of the class Insecta as of 9 May 2020, we used ‘insects’ as a search term in the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Genome browser to obtain the basic information of species name, assembly accession number, assembly release date, assembly level and GenBank FTP access number. Collectively, we sampled 472 insect genomes (Supplementary Table 1). To assess quality of genome assemblies, we ran BUSCO version 5.2.2 (ref. 37) with the genome mode option (‘-m genome’). Each assembly’s completeness was evaluated using 1,417 full-length BUSCO nuclear genes from 75 insect genomes in the OrthoDB version 10 database. For each BUSCO gene, its consensus orthologous protein sequence among the reference genomes was queried using tBLASTn against each assembly, identifying up to three putative genomic regions. Gene structure prediction was performed using MetaEuk version 5-34c21f2 (ref. 38). Predicted genes were aligned to the hidden Markov model (HMM) profile of the BUSCO gene. BUSCO genes were classified as ‘single-copy, full-length’ if one complete gene was present, as ‘duplicated, full-length’ if two or more complete genes were present, as ‘fragmented’ if gene length was less than 95% of the reference and as ‘missing’ if no gene was predicted. Here, we considered single-copy, full-length genes and duplicated, full-length genes as complete genes. To construct the phylogenetic data matrix, we started with the set of 1,417 single-copy, full-length BUSCO genes from 472 insect genomes. For each BUSCO gene, we used BUSCO output table ‘full_table.tsv’ to collate single-copy, full-length amino acid sequences from BUSCO output folder ‘single_copy_busco_sequences’ across all genomes into a single FASTA file. These 1,417 BUSCO genes were used for phylogenetic analyses and ERC analyses.

Mitochondrial genomes. For 237 insects lacking mitochondrial genomes, we retrieved approximately 2–3 million raw reads from the whole-genome sequencing (WGS) data in the NCBI’s Sequence Read Archive browser to assemble mitochondrial genomes using GetOrganelle version 1.7.3.5 (ref. 39). We used MitoZ version 2.3 (ref. 40) to annotate the mitochondrial genome. The completeness of the mitochondrial genome was gauged by assessing the occupancy of all 13 PCGs.

Phylogenetic analyses

To infer two genome-scale phylogenies of 472 insects for nuclear genomes and mitochondrial genomes, we included 15 outgroups from Entognatha.

A genome-scale phylogeny of 472 insects using nuclear genomes. For each of 1,417 nuBUSCO genes, amino acid sequences were aligned

using MAFFT version 7.299b (ref. 41) with the options ‘-thread 12 -auto-maxiterate 1000’ and trimmed using trimAl version 1.4.rev15 (ref. 42) with the options ‘-gappout -colnumbering’. We inferred concatenation-based ML tree using IQ-TREE multicore version 1.6.8 (ref. 43) under a single ‘LG + G4’ model with the options ‘-nt 50 -mem 350 G -m LG + G4 -bb 1000’. Five independent tree searches were conducted.

A genome-scale phylogeny of 472 insects using mitochondrial genomes. Each of 13 mtPCGs underwent multiple amino acid sequence alignments and trimming of ambiguously aligned regions, following the same procedure described above for the nuBUSCO data matrix. We inferred tmtPCG concatenation-based ML tree using IQ-TREE under a single ‘mtInV+F + G4’ model with the options ‘-nt 20 -mem 10 G -m mtInV+F + G4 -bb 1000’. Five independent tree searches were conducted.

ERC calculations

Dataset. Before ERC calculation, we excluded 147 nuclear BUSCO genes targeted to mitochondria without interacting with OXPHOS pathway proteins. Using the FlyBase database (<https://flybase.org/>), we categorized 13 mitochondrial and 1,270 nuclear BUSCO genes into three groups: mtOXPHOS (13 mitochondrial-encoded proteins), nuOXPHOS (67 OXPHOS-targeted nuclear proteins) and non-mt-nuProtein (1,203 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear proteins).

Workflow of ERC calculation. In brief, to account for evolutionary rates and independent branch length contrasts, we transformed branch lengths into relative evolutionary rates by dividing gene tree branch length by background branch length in the reference species phylogeny inferred from all nuclear genes. Subsequently, we calculated the Pearson’s correlation coefficient (r) of the relative evolutionary rates between a given gene and the mtOXPHOS supergene (13 concatenated mtOXPHOS genes) using a three-step workflow (Extended Data Fig. 2) following Steenwyk et al.²².

In step 1, we estimated all branch lengths for a given gene and the mtOXPHOS supergene based on the topology of the reference species tree (Fig. 1a)—namely, the nuBUSCO phylogeny that was largely congruent with a previous genome-scale phylogeny of 103 insects¹³.

In step 2, we normalized the re-estimated branch lengths for a given gene and the mtOXPHOS supergene to the relative evolutionary rates by dividing the branch lengths of the gene tree by those of the reference species tree.

In step 3, we calculated the Pearson’s correlation coefficient (r) between relative evolutionary rates estimated from a given gene and those estimated from the mtOXPHOS supergene as the ERC value.

ERC of nuOXPHOS supergene and non-mt-nuProtein supergene with mtOXPHOS supergene. For nuOXPHOS supergene, we concatenated all 67 individual genes into a supergene. For non-mt-nuProtein supergene, we randomly concatenated 67 non-mt-nuProtein genes (by sampling genes with replacement) from the set of 1,203 non-mt-nuProtein genes into a supergene. This procedure was repeated 1,000 times. For a given supergene, we calculated its ERC with the mtOXPHOS supergene, using the above workflow.

ERC of every single gene and mtOXPHOS supergene. For each of all 1,290 genes (13 mtOXPHOS genes, 67 nuOXPHOS genes and 1,203 non-mt-nuProtein genes), we calculated its ERC with the mtOXPHOS supergene, using the above workflow. Note that the reference species tree was pruned to match the taxon set in single-gene alignment if the reference species tree contained taxa that were absent from the single-gene alignment.

ERC of every single gene and mtRNA supergene. In addition to 13 mtOXPHOS genes, bilaterian mitochondrial genomes also typically contain 24 non-coding RNA genes (24 mtRNA genes)⁴⁴. We also used 24 mtRNA genes as targets to investigate ERC for all 1,290 genes (13 mtOXPHOS genes, 67 nuOXPHOS genes and 1,203 non-mt-nuProtein genes). We found that the 24 concatenated mtRNA supergene exhibited a significantly strong signal of ERC with the 13 concatenated mtOXPHOS

supergene (ERC value = 0.89, $P = 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$) (Supplementary Fig. 15a). Furthermore, we identified 196 individual genes that displayed a strong ERC with the mtRNA supergene (Supplementary Fig. 15b). Among these 196 genes, 129 genes (66%) were also present in the list of 254 genes showing a strong ERC with the mtOXPHOS supergene. These findings imply a highly similar mode of evolution between mtOXPHOS genes and mtRNA genes in mitochondria.

Identification of mitochondria-associated nuclear genes

To identify non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes that display strong ERC with the OXPHOS genes and functionally associated with the mitochondria, we applied 254 genes with an ERC (r) threshold of ≥ 0.15 (Fig. 2c) to construct a protein–protein association network using the STRING database⁴⁵; default parameters were used. The protein–protein association network was visualized using Cytoscape version 3.9.0 (ref. 46). These 254 genes were grouped into 31 clusters, each of which contains at least two genes (Supplementary Fig. 9). Here, we focused on the three largest clusters 1–3, which consist of 5, 50 and 20 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear genes, respectively. Furthermore, we assessed the connectivity (that is, the number of edges connecting the examined gene to other genes) for each of the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes in the clusters 1–3. To investigate the functions of these 75 genes, we carried out GO enrichment analysis using Metascape version 3.5 (ref. 47). The significantly enriched GO terms were summarized and visualized using REVIGO version 20150217beta (ref. 48).

Effect of RNAi of four candidate genes on mitochondria

We knocked down expression of *CGI3220*, *CGI1837*, *CGI1788* and *Nop60B* in fat body using *UASRNAi* lines and *CgGal4* following the protocol of Zhou et al.¹⁴. *D. melanogaster UAS-CGI1837-RNAi* (THU5456) line was acquired from the TsingHua Fly Center; this line corresponds to the HMS02625 from the TRIP RNAi library and is also available in the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center (BDSC_42932). *UAS-CGI3220-RNAi* (HMJ21671; BDSC_52984), *UAS-CGI1788-RNAi* (HMJ21486; BDSC_54043) and *UAS-Nop60B-RNAi* (HMC04815; BDSC_57500) lines were acquired from the Bloomington *Drosophila* Stock Center. The reporter line *Cg-GAL4 > UAS-mitoGFP* was provided by Chao Tong (Zhejiang University).

The early third-instar larval fat bodies were dissected in 1× PBS and fixed with 4% paraformaldehyde for half an hour. The mitochondria in each sample were marked with mitoGFP and examined without antibody immunostaining. Samples were rinsed three times with 1× PBST (PBS containing 0.1% Triton X-100 and 0.05% Tween 20) and then mounted in ProLong Gold Antifade Mountant with blue fluorescent DNA stain DAPI (Invitrogen). All the samples were imaged by using a ×63/1.4 NA oil immersion lens with a Zeiss LSM 800 confocal microscope. Additionally, we verified the presence of lipid droplets in the genetic background fly *Cg-GAL4 > UAS-mitoGFP* with 1× PBS of 0.05% Nile Red (Sigma-Aldrich, 19123) at a final dilution of 1:2,000. For a given confocal image, we measured and averaged the length of mitochondria from each of five randomly selected areas (25 μm × 25 μm). The quantification of mitochondrial length was performed with four different images. Given that *CGI1837* can affect the adult lifespan in diverse organisms (Fig. 4), we also examined the effect of knocking down *CGI1837* on mitochondrial morphology for the 3-day-old adult fat body (Supplementary Fig. 11) and found that knockdown of *CGI1837* also led to abnormal mitochondrial morphology in adult fat body, consistent with the finding in the early third-instar larval fat body (Extended Data Fig. 4).

Knockdown of *CGI1837* and its orthologs in diverse organisms

We used RNAi to knock down the expression levels of *CGI1837* in fruit fly and its orthologs in five diverse organisms: *LOC118508549* in mosquito *Anopheles stephensi*, *LOC661358* in beetle *Tribolium castaneum*, *LOC127283745* in bee *Leptopilina boucardi*, *LOC111053781* in brown planthopper *Nilaparvata lugens* and *E02H1.1* in worm *C. elegans*.

Detailed information of all animal rearing and the RNAi assay is given in the Supplementary Methods and in Supplementary Tables 9–11. For each examined species, we amplified the target gene using cDNA by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with primers containing the T7 primer sequence at the 5' ends and then sequenced the PCR products using Sanger sequencing. Next, we used PCR products as templates to synthesize the dsRNA using a MEGAscript RNAi Kit (Life Technologies) and measured the concentration of dsRNAs by NanoDrop 2000 (Thermo Fisher Scientific). Third, female and male adults (except for hermaphrodite worms) were injected with dsRNAs by micro-injection, respectively. The efficiency of RNAi in 3-day-old adult whole body was determined by quantitative real-time PCR (qPCR), unless otherwise indicated. Overall, the efficiencies of knocking down expression levels of *CGI1837* and its orthologs by RNAi vary between 43% and 97%. The lifespan assays were performed in three replicates on both sexes (except for hermaphrodite worms). Each replicate was at least 20 individuals. *dsGFP* was synthesized and used as a negative control, unless otherwise indicated.

Overexpression of *CGI1837* in fruit fly and worm

To assess the impact of *CGI1837* overexpression at different developmental stages on adult lifespan, we overexpressed *CGI1837* only at adult stage, whereas *E02H1.1* in worm was overexpressed throughout the entire life cycle.

To generate the transgenic flies that overexpressed *CGI1837* throughout whole body at the adult stage, we used a temperature-sensitive conditional *GAL4/GAL80ts* system to drive *UAS-CGI1837* expression only in adults. Flies were raised at 18 °C to suppress *GAL4* activity during developmental stages. After eclosion, the adults were switched to 29 °C to inactivate *GAL80ts* and, thereby, permit *GAL4* activation of *UAS-CGI1837*. The *tub-GAL80^{ts}* (*tsGAL80*) and *Actin-GAL4* lines were from the Daniel Kalderon laboratory (Columbia University). For *UAS-CGI1837* transgenic flies, we amplified the coding region of *CGI1837* from cDNA of *Drosophila W¹¹¹⁸* strain. Then, the resulting cDNA fragment was inserted into the *pUAS-attB* vector digested with *Kpn*-I. The plasmid of *CGI1837* was injected into *Drosophila* embryos and specifically integrated into the *attP* site on chromosome 2 (*attP2*, 25C6). Eclosed virgin male and female adults of each genotype were collected and kept separately at a density of approximately 50 flies per bottle at 29 °C and 50% relative humidity under a 16-h light and 8-h dark photoperiod. The flies were transferred to fresh medium every 2–3 d, and the number of dead flies was recorded until all flies died. The efficiencies of 3-day-old overexpression male and female adult whole bodies were 59.6-fold and 4.8-fold, respectively.

For overexpression of *E02H1.1* in hermaphrodite *C. elegans* worms, overexpressed *E02H1.1* was driven by its own promoter through the entire worm life cycle. Specifically, *C. elegans* were cultured on nematode growth medium (NGM) plates with *Escherichia coli* OP50 at 20 °C. The N2 Bristol strain was used as the control strain. Standard procedures were used to construct overexpression strains using the CRISPR–Cas9 genome editing method, and these strains were genotyped by PCR and sequencing. Standard microinjection methods were used to generate transgenic animals carrying extrachromosomal arrays (*zjuEx*). For extrachromosomal array transgenic worms (*PE02H1.1-E02H1.1 [zjuEx2441]*), 10 ng μl⁻¹ plasmids and 50 ng μl⁻¹ co-injection marker (*Pttx-3-RFP*) were injected into N2 animals. L4 stage worms were picked onto 6-cm NGM plates. Worms that escaped or died by bursting through the vulva were censored. Survival was scored daily. The transgenic worms (*PE02H1.1-E02H1.1 [zjuEx2441]*) had approximately 2.2-fold higher expression level of *E02H1.1* than the control trains.

Overexpression of *DIMT1* in human cells

Cell line. Human primary skin fibroblast HCA2 cells were obtained from the Huffington Center on Aging and named by Olivia Pereira-Smith. The cells were immortalized by overexpressing a human telomerase

(hTERT). Cells were cultured in EMEM media (American Type Culture Collection) containing 15% (v/v) FBS and 1% (v/v) penicillin–streptomycin and maintained in a 37 °C incubator in an atmosphere of 5% CO₂ and 3% O₂.

Plasmids and transfection. The coding sequence (CDS) of human *DIMT1* (an ortholog of *CG11837*) was cloned into a modified piggyBac (pPB) expression vector. Growing human fibroblasts were harvested and transfected with 5 µg of pPB and 5 µg of pPB transposase (pBase) plasmids per 1 × 10⁶ cells using a Lonza Nucleofector II machine, with program T-020 and NHDF solution (Amaxa). Cells were selected with puromycin, and survived cells were collected and pooled for downstream experiments.

Western blot. Cells were lysed with 2 × Laemmli buffer (Bio-Rad) containing protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) and boiled. The protein samples were resolved by SDS-PAGE and transferred to a PVDF membrane (Bio-Rad). The membranes were blocked with 5% non-fat milk in TBS containing 0.1% Tween 20 (TBS-T), followed by incubation with primary antibody against *DIMT1* (Abcam, ab271003) or β-actin at 4 °C overnight. Membranes were incubated with HRP-conjugated anti-rabbit IgG secondary antibody (Abcam) at room temperature for 1 h. Proteins were visualized on a gel imager (Bio-Rad) using an ECL kit (Zen-Bio).

Senescence induction by X-ray. Growing human fibroblasts were subjected to 5 Gy X-ray IR and allowed to grow for 10 d for SA-β-gal or 2 d for 5'-bromo-2'-deoxyuridine (BrdU) assay.

SA-β-gal assay. Ten days after IR, cells were trypsinized and seeded in six-well plates in low density. Twenty-four hours later, cells were fixed with 2% formaldehyde and 0.2% glutaraldehyde in PBS for 5 min at room temperature. Cells were stained with a staining solution containing 20 mg ml⁻¹ X-gal in dimethylformamide, 0.2 M citric acid/Na phosphate buffer (pH 6.0), 100 mM potassium ferrocyanide, 100 mM potassium ferricyanide, 5 M NaCl₂ and 1 M MgCl₂. The plates were incubated at 37 °C for 16 h without CO₂. Images of three different areas from three different samples were captured, and SA-β-gal staining of at least 50 cells in each area was counted.

BrdU incorporation assay. Two days after IR, cells were incubated with BrdU (3 µg ml⁻¹) for 48 h. The cells were then fixed using 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min and washed with PBS five times, followed by treatment with 2 N HCl for 30 min. Cells were blocked for 2 h using 5% FBS in PBS with 0.2% Triton X-100. A FITC-conjugated anti-BrdU antibody (Thermo Fisher Scientific, 1:200) was used to incubate the cells at 4 °C overnight. Cells were mounted with DAPI Fluoromount-G for 10 min and then observed under a fluorescence microscope. Images were acquired by scanning the whole slide, and three random areas from three different samples were picked for quantification.

Transcriptome

RNA sequencing. Total RNA from *CG11837* knockdown and control male adults of 3-day-old *A. stephensi*, 13-day-old *T. castaneum* and *CG11837* overexpression and control male adults of 3-day-old *D. melanogaster* was isolated using a FastPure Cell/Tissue Total RNA Isolation Kit (Vazyme). Residual DNA was removed per the manufacturer's protocol. RNA sequencing libraries were constructed and sequenced on an Illumina HiSeq 2000 (paired ends).

Transcriptome analysis. Trimmomatic version 0.39 (ref. 49) removed low-quality reads and adapter sequences. Clean reads were mapped to the reference genome using STAR version 2.7.10a (ref. 50), and featureCounts version 2.0.1 (ref. 51) counted reads per gene. DESeq2 version 1.30.1 (ref. 52) analyzed differential expression, considering genes with adjusted $P \leq 0.05$ and $|\log_2 \text{fold change}| \geq 1$. KEGG enrichment analysis was conducted using ShinyGO 0.77 (ref. 53).

ATP production assay

ATP production levels were detected using an ATP assay kit (Beyotime Biotechnology) following the manufacturer's instructions. We quantified ATP production for *CG11837* knockdown and control 3-day-old

adult male *A. stephensi* as well as *CG11837* overexpression and control 3-day-old adult male *D. melanogaster*, respectively. In brief, three adult males for each genotype were lysed in ATP lysis buffer and centrifuged at 12,000g for 5 min at 4 °C. A 20-µl aliquot of supernatant from each sample was incubated with 100 µl of ATP working buffer, and the ATP levels were measured using a SpectraMax iD5 Multi-Mode Microplate Reader (Molecular Devices). The values were normalized to the amount of total protein in each sample, which was determined using a BCA Protein Assay Kit (Invitrogen). The measurements were repeated three times for each species.

Statistics and reproducibility

All statistical analyses were performed in R version 3.4.2. Experiments were performed with three or more biological replicates. Data are shown as the mean ± s.d. Comparisons were conducted using two-tailed Student's *t*-test or two-tailed paired Wilcoxon test as indicated in the figure legends. Additionally, correlation analyses were conducted using two-tailed Pearson's correlation method. Significance throughout the paper is designated as follows: not significant (NS) > 0.05; * $P \leq 0.05$; ** $P \leq 0.01$; and *** $P \leq 0.001$. Data distribution was assumed to be normal, but this was not formally tested. No randomization method was used to allocate samples to experimental groups. Data collection and analysis were not performed blinded to the conditions of the experiments. No data were excluded from the analyses.

Reporting summary

Further information on research design is available in the Nature Portfolio Reporting Summary linked to this article.

Data availability

All mitochondrial genomes, phylogenomic matrix, gene trees and summary statistics as well as 3D protein structures of 75 non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear proteins are available on the figure share repository (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.22637761>)⁵⁴. Raw RNA sequencing data have been deposited in GenBank under Bio-Project ID PRJNA962685. The STRING version 11 resource⁴⁵ is available at <https://string-db.org/>. Publicly available insect genome assemblies and RNA sequencing data are from National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) Genome browser (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/datasets/genome/>) and the NCBI Sequence Read Archive browser (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/sra/>)⁵⁵. The OrthoDB version 10.1 resource⁵⁶ is available at <https://v10-1.orthodb.org/>. The lifespans of 43 insects are available at the Animal Diversity Web (<https://animaldiversity.org/>)⁵⁷. All other data supporting the findings of this study are available as source data or from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Acknowledgements

We thank X. Yin and J. Yang for constructive feedbacks. We also thank C. Tong and S. Liu for quantifying mitochondrial morphology. This work was conducted, in part, using the resources of the Information Technology Center and the State Key Laboratory of Computer-Aided Design & Computer Graphics at Zhejiang University. This work was supported by the National Key R&D Program of China (2022YFD1401600 to X.-X.S.); the National Science Foundation for Distinguished Young Scholars of Zhejiang Province (LR23C140001 to X.-X.S.); the National Natural Science Foundation of China (32071665 to X.-X.S., 32325044 to J.H., 32230015 and 32021001 to S.W. and 31922074 to Y.C.); the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (226-2023-00021 to X.-X.S. and 2021FZZX001-31 to Y.C.); the Zhejiang Provincial Natural Science Foundation of China (LZ23C140003 to J.H., LZ23C110002 to Y.Z., LZ23C020002 to R.P. and LR21C120002 to S.X.); the General Program of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (32371236 to Y.Z.); the New Cornerstone Science Foundation (S.W.); the Key International Joint Research Program of the National Natural Science Foundation of China (31920103005 to X.-x.C.); the National Science Foundation (DEB-2110404 to A.R.); and the National Institutes of Health/

National Institute of Allergy and Infectious Diseases (R01 AI153356 to A.R.).

Author contributions

X.-X.S. conceived and designed the study. X.-X.S., M.T., J.C., C.C., Z.S., J.X., J.Y., J.Z., G.-Z.O., C.L. and Y.X. performed computational analyses and experiments. X.-X.S., J.H., A.R., S.W., M.T., J.C., Y.C., Z.-R.Z., R.P., S.X., X.-x.C. and Y.Z. interpreted results. X.-X.S. wrote the paper, with input from all authors. X.-X.S., M.T., J.H., A.R., S.W. and Y.Z. edited the paper.

Competing interests

A.R. is a scientific consultant for LifeMine Therapeutics, Inc. The other authors declare no competing interests.

Additional information

Extended data is available for this paper at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43587-024-00641-z>.

Supplementary information The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43587-024-00641-z>.

Correspondence and requests for materials should be addressed to Sibao Wang, Jianhua Huang or Xing-Xing Shen.

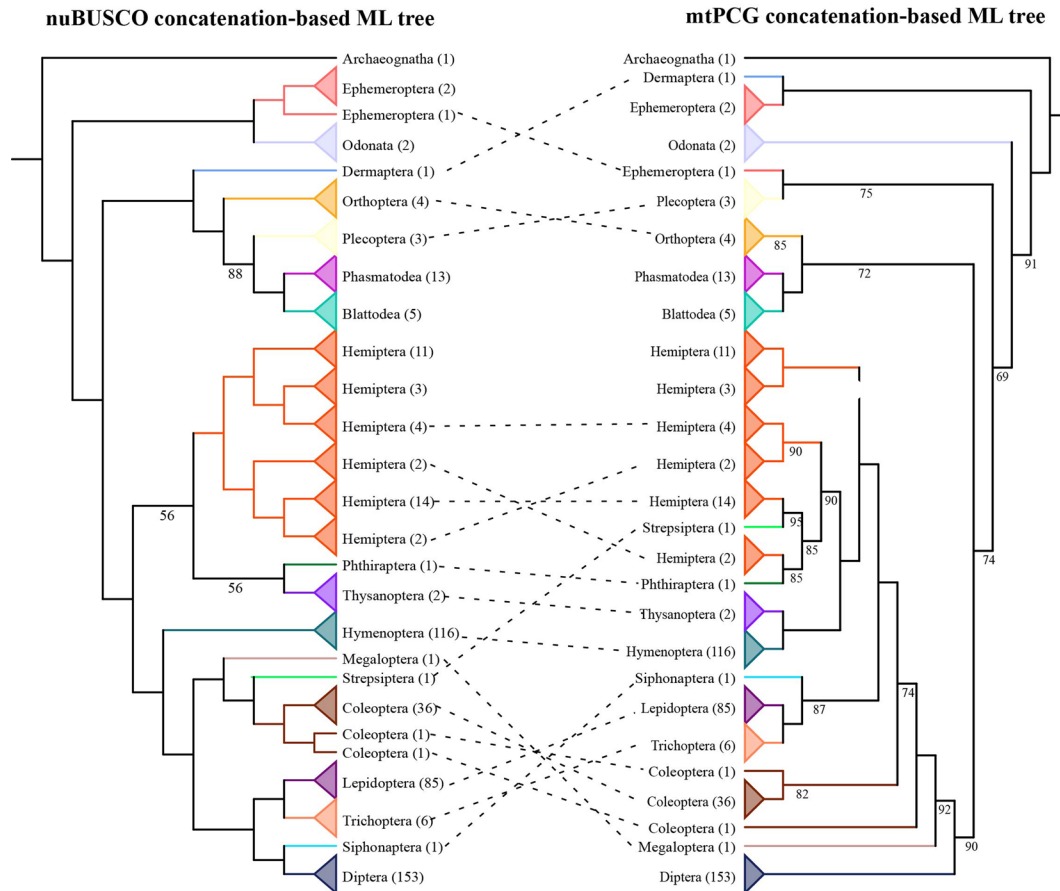
Peer review information *Nature Aging* thanks Mark Harrison, David Rand, Li Zhao and the other, anonymous, reviewer(s) for their contribution to the peer review of this work.

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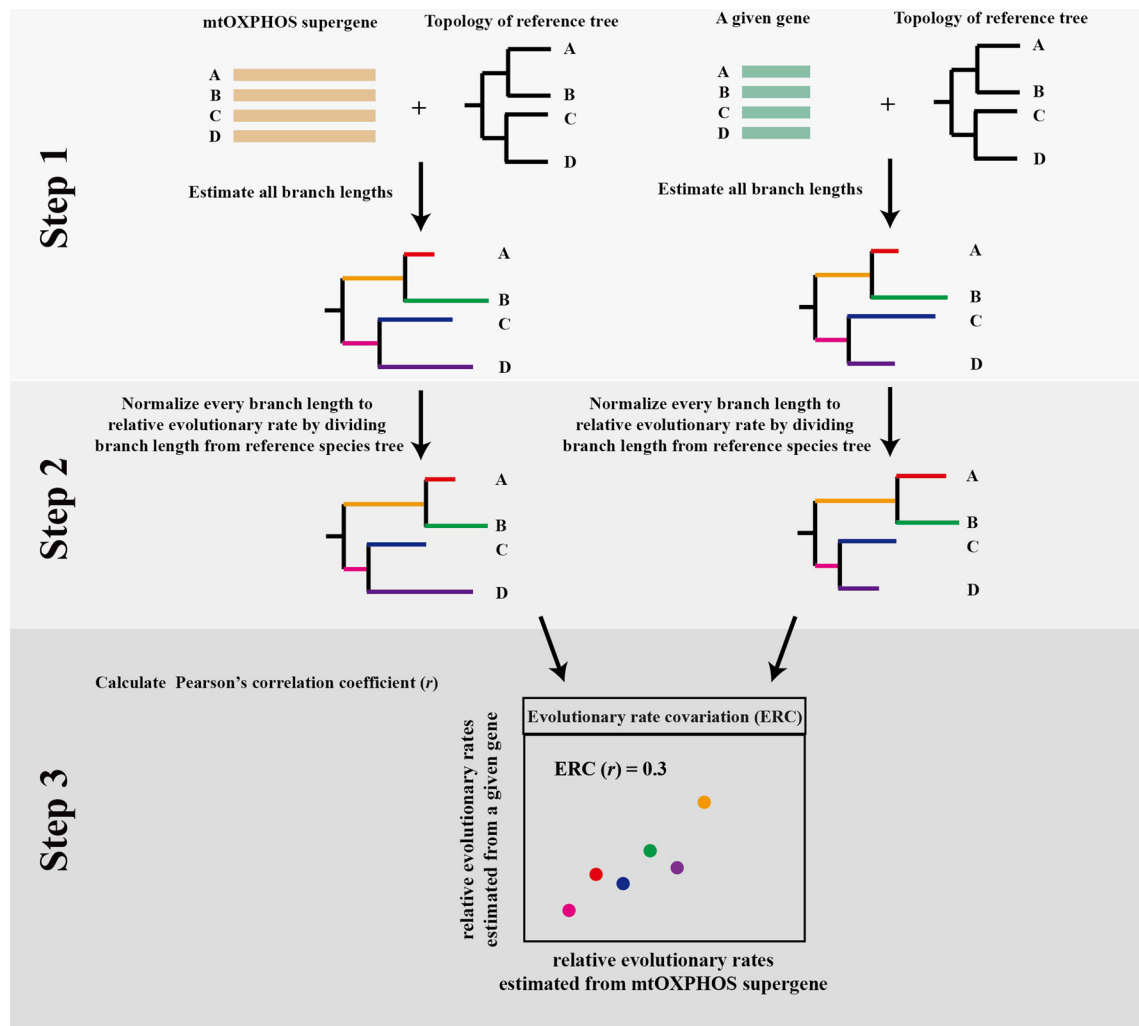
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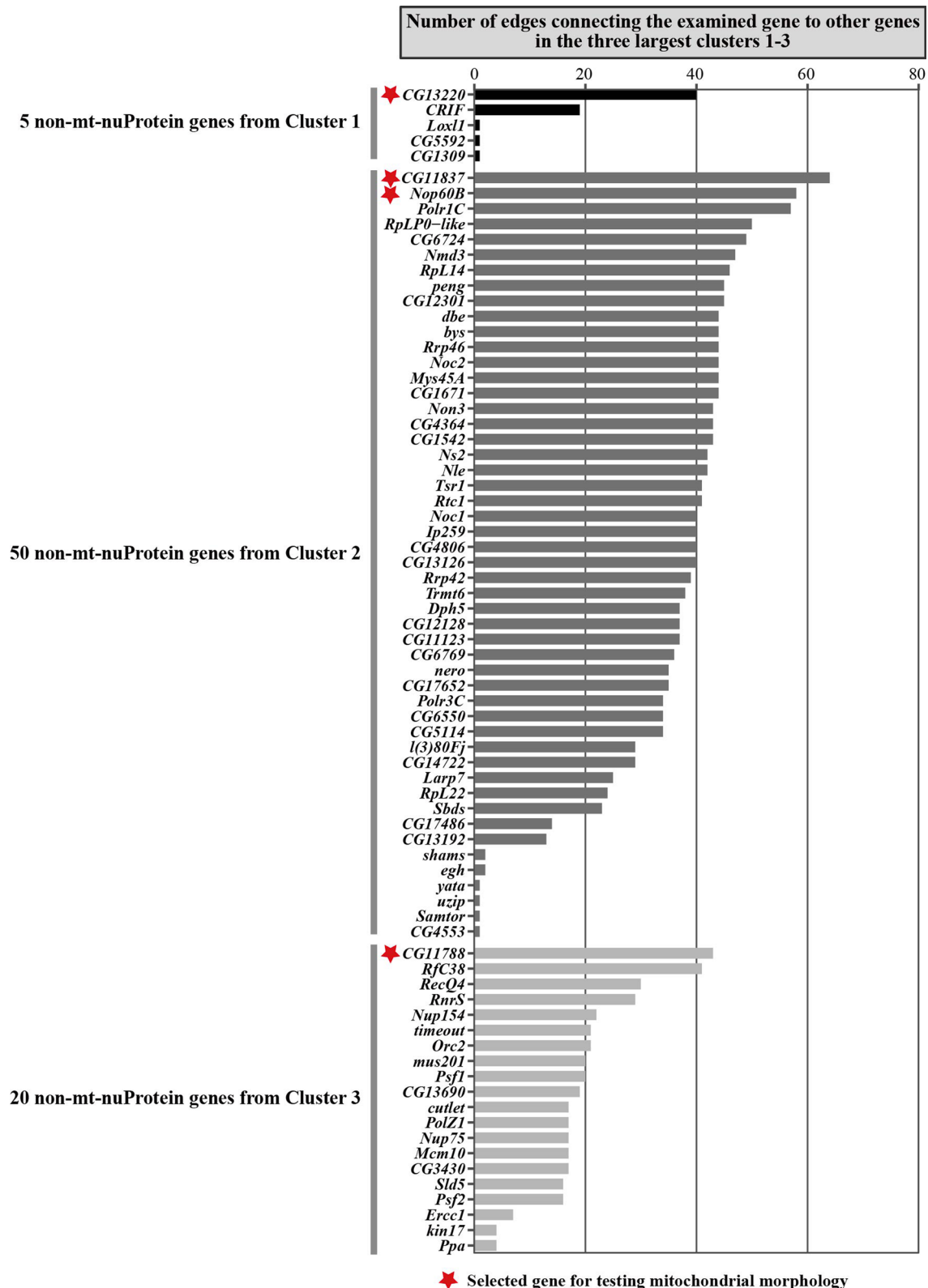
Extended Data Fig. 1 | Comparison of the higher-level phylogenies inferred from the analyses of 1,417 nuclear BUSCO amino acid genes (left panel) and 13 mitochondrial amino acid genes (right panel). Branch support values near internodes / internal branches correspond to ultrafast bootstrap support.

Only support values smaller than 95% are shown. The number in parenthesis is the number of species for each collapsed clade. The conflicting relationships between nuBUSCO phylogeny and mtPCG phylogeny indicate dashed lines. Two complete phylogenies are given in Supplementary Figs. 3 and 4.



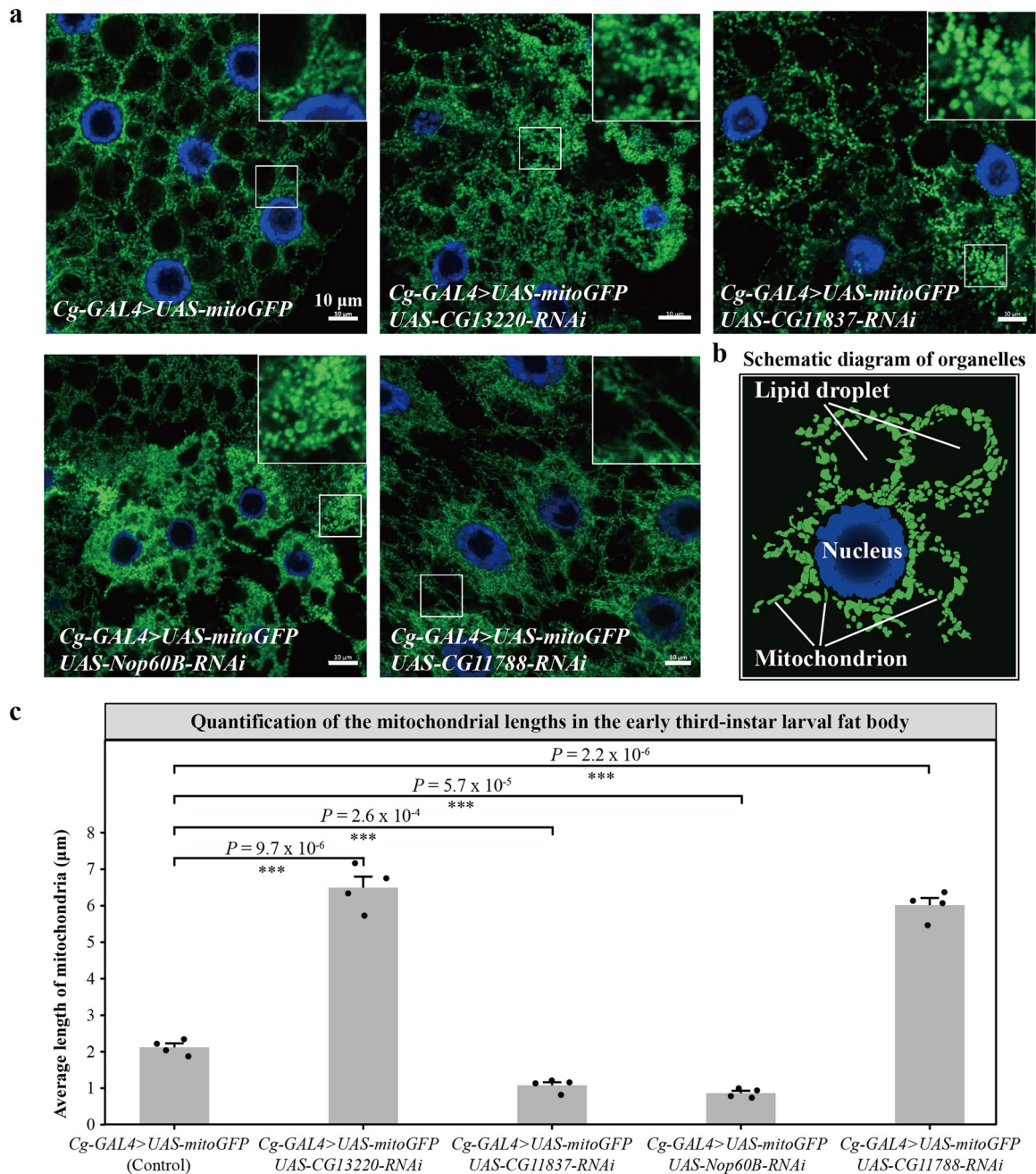
Extended Data Fig. 2 | The schematic workflow used for the calculation of the evolutionary rate covariation (ERC). Evolutionary rate covariation (ERC) was the Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) between relative evolutionary rates estimated from each branch of the phylogeny inferred from a given gene

and those estimated from each branch of the phylogeny inferred from the mtOXPHOS supergene (concatenated 13 mtOXPHOS genes). The reference (or background) species tree is from the Fig. 1a. A detailed description of the analyses performed in each step of the workflow is provided in the Methods.



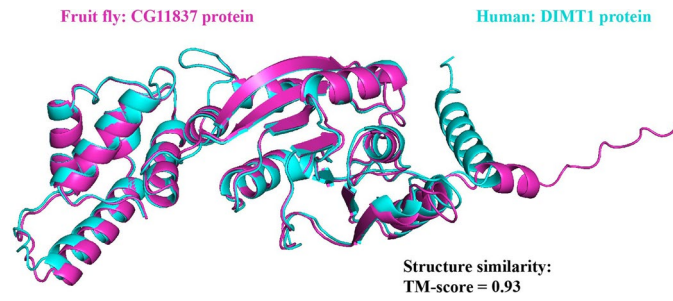
Extended Data Fig. 3 | The histogram of connectivity for each of the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes in three largest Clusters 1-3. After identifying 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes based on the protein-protein association network (Fig. 3b), we further examined the connectivity (that is, the number of edges connecting the examined gene to other genes) for each of the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes within three largest Clusters 1-3. Four genes with red stars, namely, *CG13220*, *CG11837*,

and *CG11788*, which displayed the highest connectivity levels in their respective clusters, as well as *Nop60B*, which ranked as the second-highest in connectivity within the largest Cluster 2 that contains 50 genes (~67%) out of the 75 non-mt-nuProtein genes, were used to investigate their impact on mitochondrial morphology.

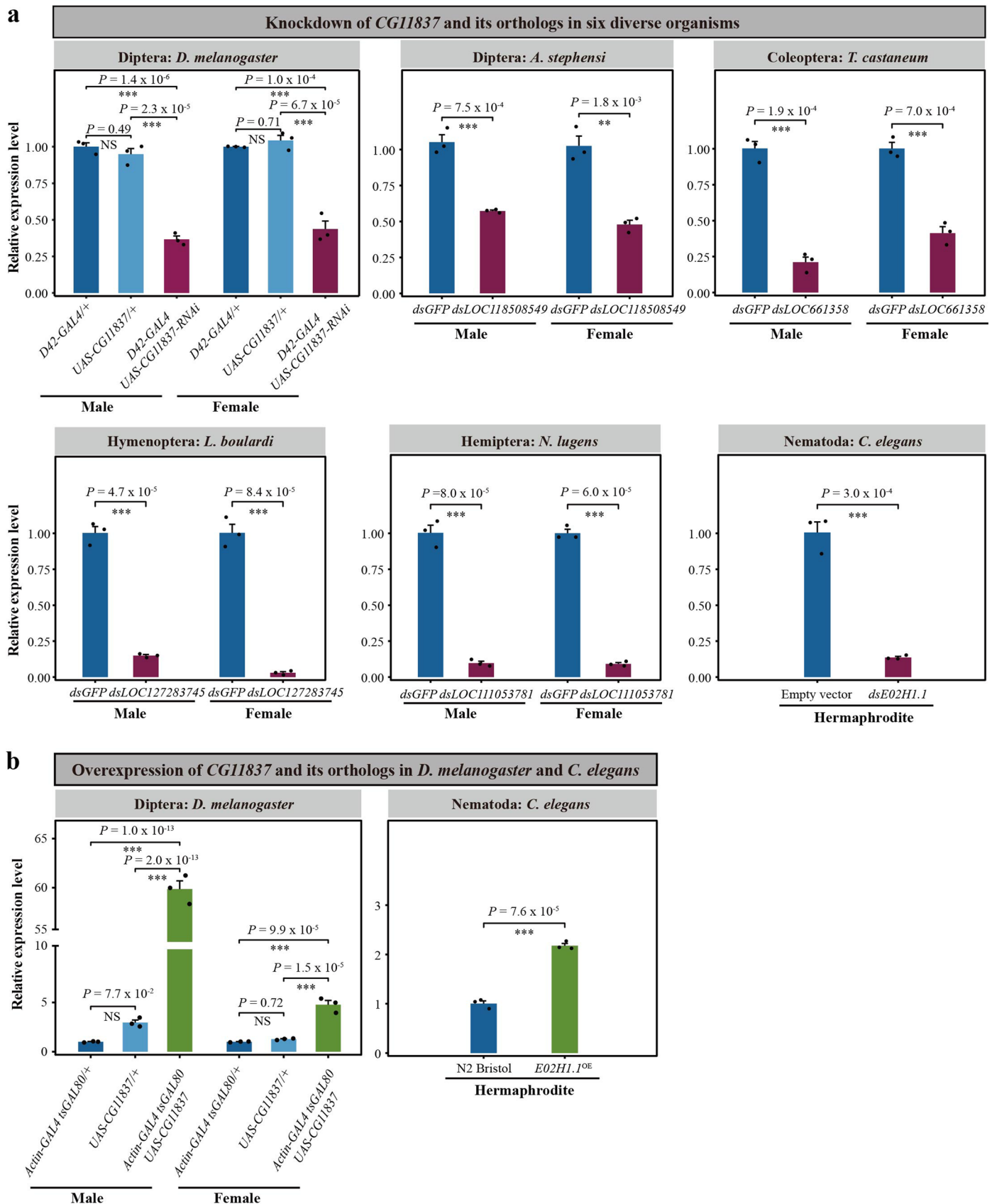


Extended Data Fig. 4 | Effect of RNA interference of four non-mitochondria-targeted nuclear candidate genes on mitochondrial morphology. We chose *CG13220*, *CG11837*, *CG11788*, and *Nop60B* to examine their effect on fruit fly mitochondrial morphologies. The *Cg-GAL4 > UAS-mitoGFP* line was crossed with the four *UAS-RNAi* lines (*UAS-CG13220-RNAi*, *UAS-CG11837-RNAi*, *UAS-CG11788-RNAi*, and *UAS-Nop60B-RNAi*), respectively. The early third-instar larval fat body was used for investigating mitochondrial morphology for each genotype. **a**, For each image, the boxes in the top right corners of the individual panels are magnifications that show mitochondrial morphology in greater detail. The genotypes are specified in the bottom left corners of the individual

panels. We included three additional representative images for each genotype in Supplementary Fig. 10a, in addition to the one already provided. Scale bars = 10 μm. **b**, Illustration of the simplified organelle components, determined and stained from the control (*Cg-GAL4 > UAS-mitoGFP*) early third-instar larval fat body. **c**, For a given genotype's confocal image, we measured and averaged the length of mitochondria from each of five randomly selected areas (25 μm x 25 μm) in the early third-instar larval fat body. n = 4 biologically independent experiments for each genotype. Data represent mean ± SD. P values were calculated using a two-tailed t test. ***P ≤ 0.001.



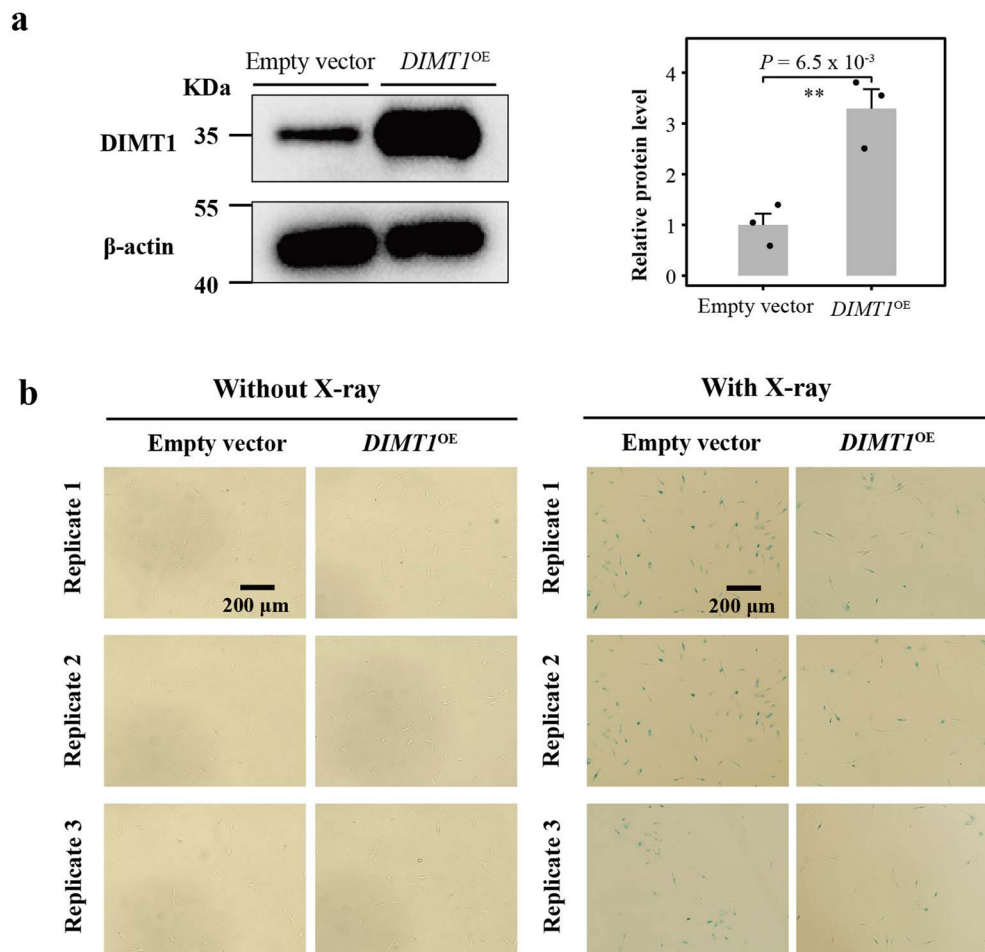
Extended Data Fig. 5 | A superposition between two protein structures. Protein structures of fruit fly CG11837 and human DIMT1 were retrieved from the AlphaFold2 database (<https://alphafold.ebi.ac.uk/>), respectively. TM-score in structure similarity is 0.93.



Extended Data Fig. 6 | See next page for caption.

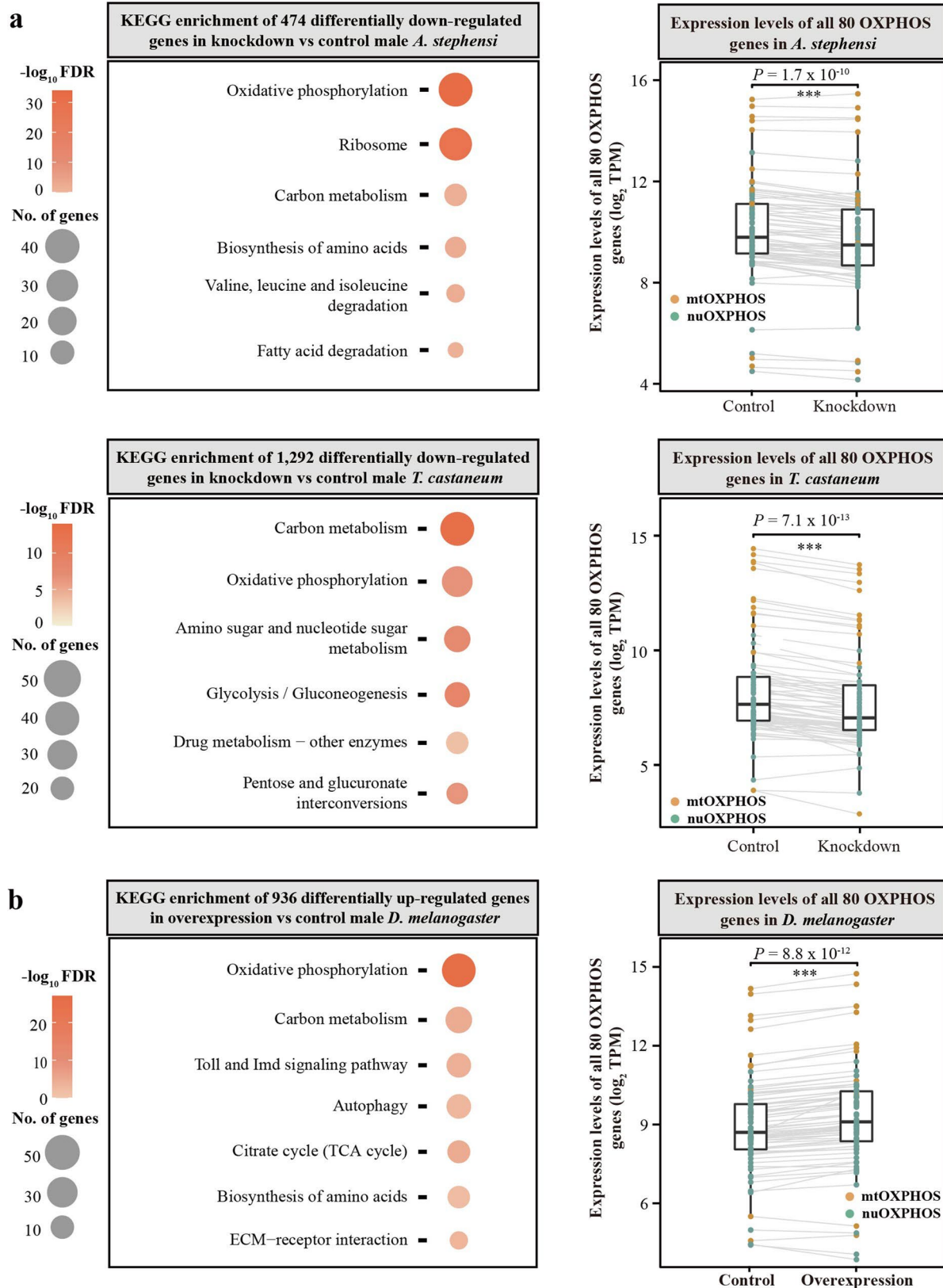
Extended Data Fig. 6 | The efficiencies of knockdown and overexpression of *CG11837*. **a**, The efficiencies of knockdown of *CG11837* and its orthologs on both sexes. Note that the worm was not assessed for two sexes, as worms are hermaphrodites. Fruit fly used *D42-GAL4/+* and *UAS-CG11837-RNAi/+* as two genetic controls; mosquito, beetle, bee, and brown planthopper used *dsGFP* as controls; worm used empty vector as a control. $n = 3$ biologically independent experiments for each genotype. Data represent mean \pm SD. P values were calculated using a two-tailed t test. NS $P > 0.05$; $*P \leq 0.05$; $**P \leq 0.01$;

$***P \leq 0.001$. **b**, The efficiency of overexpression of *CG11837* in fruit fly and *E02H1.1* (an ortholog of *CG11837*) in worm. Fruit fly used *Actin-GAL4 tsGAL80/+* and *UAS-CG11837/+* as two genetic controls; worm used the N2 Bristol strain as a control. Note that the worm was not assessed for two sexes, as worms are hermaphrodites. $n = 3$ biologically independent experiments for each genotype. Data represent mean \pm SD. P values were calculated using a two-tailed t test. NS $P > 0.05$; $*P \leq 0.05$; $**P \leq 0.01$; $***P \leq 0.001$. All examined organisms are 3-day-old adults.



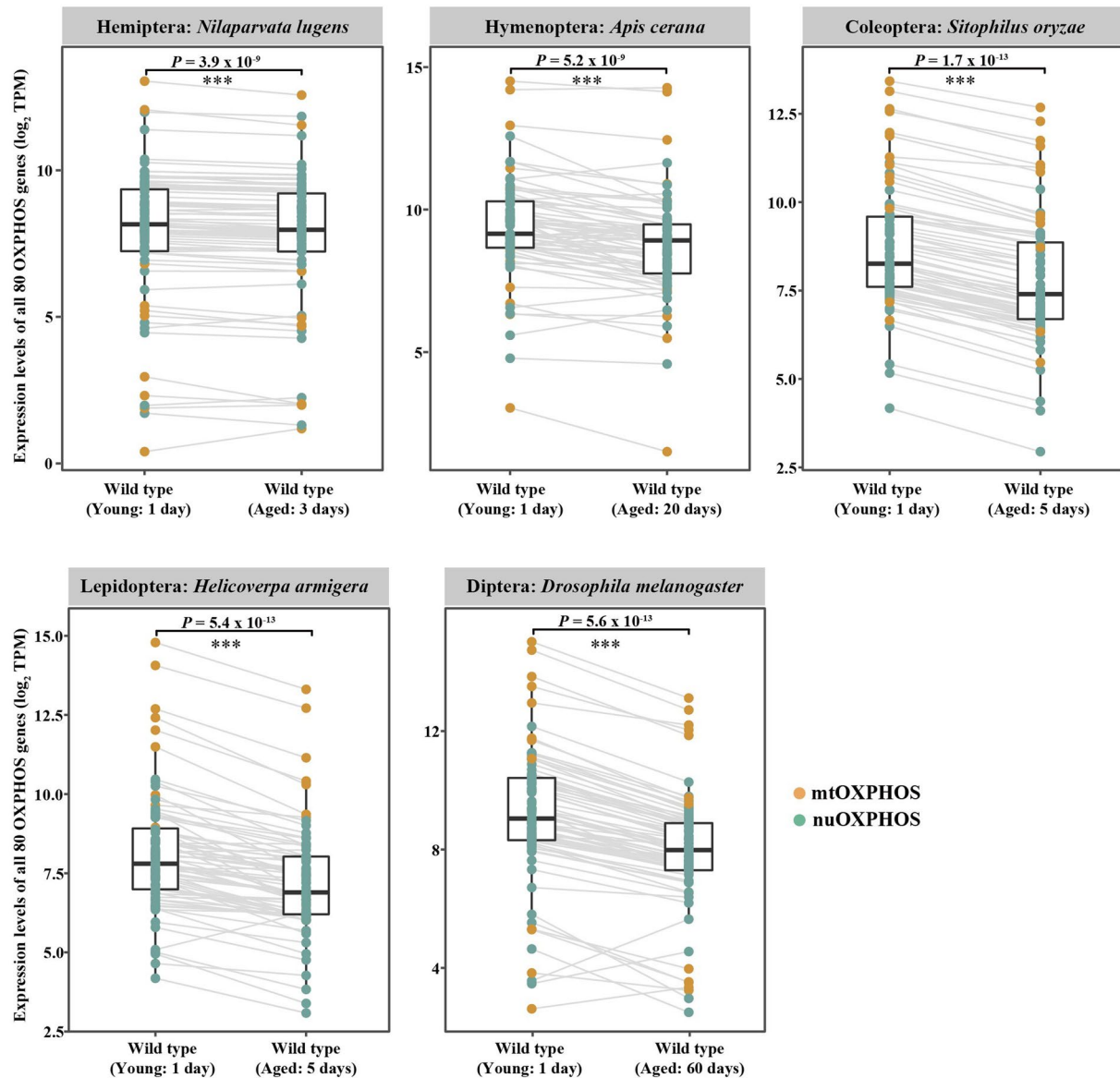
Extended Data Fig. 7 | Overexpression of *DIMT1* protects human cells in response to DNA damage. **a**, Western blot verifying the overexpression of *DIMT1* in human skin fibroblasts. $n = 3$ biologically independent experiments. Data represent mean \pm SD. P value was calculated using a two-tailed t test. $**P \leq 0.01$ and > 0.001 . **b**, Senescence-associated β -galactosidase (SA- β -gal.) activity assay

without (left panel) and with (right panel) X-ray. Cells were irradiated without or with 5 Gy X-ray. Ten days after irradiation, cells were re-seeded to 6-well plates and the next day, cells were stained for SA- β -gal. $n = 3$ biologically independent experiments. Scale bars = 200 μ m.



Extended Data Fig. 8 | Transcriptome data analysis for KEGG pathway enrichment and expression level of all 80 OXPPOS genes. a, KEGG pathway enrichment (left panel) and expression level of all OXPPOS genes (right panel) between *CG11837* knockdown and control male adults of 3-day-old mosquitos and 13-day-old beetles. A two paired Wilcoxon test was used to test whether the

two sets of values (sample size = 80) are significantly different. $***P \leq 0.001$. **b,** KEGG pathway enrichment (left panel) and expression level of all OXPPOS genes (right panel) between *CG11837* overexpression and control male adults of 3-day-old fruit flies. A two paired Wilcoxon test was used to test whether the two sets of values (sample size = 80) are significantly different. $***P \leq 0.001$.



Extended Data Fig. 9 | Comparison of expression levels of the all 80 OXPPOS genes between young and aged adult insects. Note that expression levels of all OXPPOS genes for young and aged insects were calculated based on publicly available wild type adult whole body transcriptome data. *Nilaparvata lugens*: female; *Apis cerana*: female; *Sitophilus oryzae*: unknown sex; *Helicoverpa*

armigera: unknown sex; *Drosophila melanogaster*: female + male. For each boxplot, the bottom, center and top represent 25th, 50th and 75th percentiles, respectively. Whiskers represent 1.5× interquartile range. Sample size = 80. Two-tailed paired Wilcoxon test was used to test whether the two sets of values are significantly different. *** $P \leq 0.001$.

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Data collection No software or code was used for data collection.

Data analysis BUSCO v 5.2.2 and MetaEuk v 5-34c21f2 were used for assessing assembly completeness. GetOrganelle v1.7.3.5 and MitoZ v2.3 were used for annotating the mitochondrial genomes. MAFFT v7.299b, trimAl v1.4.rev15, and IQ-TREE v1.6.8 were used for constructing phylogenetic matrix and inferring phylogenetic trees. Cytoscape v3.9.0, Metascape v3.5, and REVIGO v20150217beta were used for identifying of mitochondria-associated nuclear genes. Trimmomatic v0.39, STAR v2.7.10a, featureCounts v2.0.1, DESeq2 v1.30.152, and ShinyGO 0.77 53 were used for analyzing transcriptome data. All statistical analyses were performed in R v. 3.4.2.

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Randomization	Randomization was not employed in our study design, as there was no intention to balance differences.
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<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Clinical data
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Methods

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<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> Flow cytometry
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/> MRI-based neuroimaging

Antibodies

Antibodies used	DIMT1(abcam ab271003: 1:1000 for western blot), BrdU (Thermo Fisher 11-5071-42: 1:200 for immunofluorescence)
Validation	Immunoblot - DIMT1 – abcam, ab271003

Eukaryotic cell lines

Policy information about [cell lines and Sex and Gender in Research](#)

Cell line source(s)	Human primary skin fibroblasts HCA2 were obtained from Huffington Center on Aging and named by Olivia Pereira-Smith.
Authentication	Fibroblast cell lines were authenticated using Short Tandem Repeat (STR) analysis as described in 2012 in ANSI Standard (ASN-0002) by the ATCC Standards Development Organization (SDO) and in Capes-Davis et al., Match criteria for human cell line authentication: Where do we draw the line? Int J Cancer, 2023, 132(11): 2510-9.
Mycoplasma contamination	All cells are mycoplasma-free with regular checks performed by a LookOut Mycoplasma PCR Detection Kit (MP0035, Sigma-Aldrich).
Commonly misidentified lines (See ICLAC register)	None of the cell lines used in this study are listed in the International Cell Line Authentication Committee (ICLAC) database.

Palaeontology and Archaeology

Specimen provenance	<i>Provide provenance information for specimens and describe permits that were obtained for the work (including the name of the issuing authority, the date of issue, and any identifying information). Permits should encompass collection and, where applicable, export.</i>
Specimen deposition	<i>Indicate where the specimens have been deposited to permit free access by other researchers.</i>
Dating methods	<i>If new dates are provided, describe how they were obtained (e.g. collection, storage, sample pretreatment and measurement), where they were obtained (i.e. lab name), the calibration program and the protocol for quality assurance OR state that no new dates are provided.</i>
<input type="checkbox"/>	Tick this box to confirm that the raw and calibrated dates are available in the paper or in Supplementary Information.
Ethics oversight	<i>Identify the organization(s) that approved or provided guidance on the study protocol, OR state that no ethical approval or guidance was required and explain why not.</i>

Note that full information on the approval of the study protocol must also be provided in the manuscript.

Animals and other research organisms

Policy information about [studies involving animals](#); [ARRIVE guidelines](#) recommended for reporting animal research, and [Sex and Gender in Research](#)

Laboratory animals	Details about all six examined species are provided in the Methods. 3-day-old adult <i>Drosophila melanogaster</i> (W1118) 3-day-old adult <i>Anopheles stephensi</i> (Dutch strain) 3-day-old adult <i>Tribolium castaneum</i> (Tcas_zju), 3-day-old adult <i>Leptopilina boulardi</i> (Lb14), 3-day-old adult <i>Nilaparvata lugens</i> (Stal), and 3-day-old adult <i>Caenorhabditis elegans</i> (N2).
Wild animals	No wild animals were used in the study.
Reporting on sex	The findings in this study apply to both male and female animals.
Field-collected samples	No field-collected samples were used.
Ethics oversight	Since all examined species were from the labs, there was no need for ethical approval.

Note that full information on the approval of the study protocol must also be provided in the manuscript.

Clinical data

Policy information about [clinical studies](#)

All manuscripts should comply with the ICMJE [guidelines for publication of clinical research](#) and a completed [CONSORT checklist](#) must be included with all submissions.

Clinical trial registration	<i>Provide the trial registration number from ClinicalTrials.gov or an equivalent agency.</i>
Study protocol	<i>Note where the full trial protocol can be accessed OR if not available, explain why.</i>
Data collection	<i>Describe the settings and locales of data collection, noting the time periods of recruitment and data collection.</i>
Outcomes	<i>Describe how you pre-defined primary and secondary outcome measures and how you assessed these measures.</i>

Dual use research of concern

Policy information about [dual use research of concern](#)

Hazards

Could the accidental, deliberate or reckless misuse of agents or technologies generated in the work, or the application of information presented in the manuscript, pose a threat to:

No	Yes	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Public health
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	National security
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Crops and/or livestock
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Ecosystems
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Any other significant area

Experiments of concern

Does the work involve any of these experiments of concern:

No	Yes	
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Demonstrate how to render a vaccine ineffective
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Confer resistance to therapeutically useful antibiotics or antiviral agents
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Enhance the virulence of a pathogen or render a nonpathogen virulent
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Increase transmissibility of a pathogen
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Alter the host range of a pathogen
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Enable evasion of diagnostic/detection modalities
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Enable the weaponization of a biological agent or toxin
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	Any other potentially harmful combination of experiments and agents

Plants

Seed stocks	not applicable
Novel plant genotypes	not applicable
Authentication	not applicable

ChIP-seq

Data deposition

- Confirm that both raw and final processed data have been deposited in a public database such as [GEO](#).
- Confirm that you have deposited or provided access to graph files (e.g. BED files) for the called peaks.

Data access links <i>May remain private before publication.</i>	<i>For "Initial submission" or "Revised version" documents, provide reviewer access links. For your "Final submission" document, provide a link to the deposited data.</i>
Files in database submission	<i>Provide a list of all files available in the database submission.</i>
Genome browser session <i>(e.g. UCSC)</i>	<i>Provide a link to an anonymized genome browser session for "Initial submission" and "Revised version" documents only, to enable peer review. Write "no longer applicable" for "Final submission" documents.</i>

Methodology

Replicates	<i>Describe the experimental replicates, specifying number, type and replicate agreement.</i>
Sequencing depth	<i>Describe the sequencing depth for each experiment, providing the total number of reads, uniquely mapped reads, length of reads and whether they were paired- or single-end.</i>
Antibodies	<i>Describe the antibodies used for the ChIP-seq experiments; as applicable, provide supplier name, catalog number, clone name, and lot number.</i>
Peak calling parameters	<i>Specify the command line program and parameters used for read mapping and peak calling, including the ChIP, control and index files used.</i>
Data quality	<i>Describe the methods used to ensure data quality in full detail, including how many peaks are at FDR 5% and above 5-fold enrichment.</i>
Software	<i>Describe the software used to collect and analyze the ChIP-seq data. For custom code that has been deposited into a community repository, provide accession details.</i>

Flow Cytometry

Plots

Confirm that:

- The axis labels state the marker and fluorochrome used (e.g. CD4-FITC).
- The axis scales are clearly visible. Include numbers along axes only for bottom left plot of group (a 'group' is an analysis of identical markers).
- All plots are contour plots with outliers or pseudocolor plots.
- A numerical value for number of cells or percentage (with statistics) is provided.

Methodology

Sample preparation	<i>Describe the sample preparation, detailing the biological source of the cells and any tissue processing steps used.</i>
Instrument	<i>Identify the instrument used for data collection, specifying make and model number.</i>
Software	<i>Describe the software used to collect and analyze the flow cytometry data. For custom code that has been deposited into a community repository, provide accession details.</i>

Cell population abundance

Describe the abundance of the relevant cell populations within post-sort fractions, providing details on the purity of the samples and how it was determined.

Gating strategy

Describe the gating strategy used for all relevant experiments, specifying the preliminary FSC/SSC gates of the starting cell population, indicating where boundaries between "positive" and "negative" staining cell populations are defined.

Tick this box to confirm that a figure exemplifying the gating strategy is provided in the Supplementary Information.

Magnetic resonance imaging

Experimental design

Design type

Indicate task or resting state; event-related or block design.

Design specifications

Specify the number of blocks, trials or experimental units per session and/or subject, and specify the length of each trial or block (if trials are blocked) and interval between trials.

Behavioral performance measures

State number and/or type of variables recorded (e.g. correct button press, response time) and what statistics were used to establish that the subjects were performing the task as expected (e.g. mean, range, and/or standard deviation across subjects).

Acquisition

Imaging type(s)

Specify: functional, structural, diffusion, perfusion.

Field strength

Specify in Tesla

Sequence & imaging parameters

Specify the pulse sequence type (gradient echo, spin echo, etc.), imaging type (EPI, spiral, etc.), field of view, matrix size, slice thickness, orientation and TE/TR/flip angle.

Area of acquisition

State whether a whole brain scan was used OR define the area of acquisition, describing how the region was determined.

Diffusion MRI

 Used

 Not used

Preprocessing

Preprocessing software

Provide detail on software version and revision number and on specific parameters (model/functions, brain extraction, segmentation, smoothing kernel size, etc.).

Normalization

If data were normalized/standardized, describe the approach(es): specify linear or non-linear and define image types used for transformation OR indicate that data were not normalized and explain rationale for lack of normalization.

Normalization template

Describe the template used for normalization/transformation, specifying subject space or group standardized space (e.g. original Talairach, MNI305, ICBM152) OR indicate that the data were not normalized.

Noise and artifact removal

Describe your procedure(s) for artifact and structured noise removal, specifying motion parameters, tissue signals and physiological signals (heart rate, respiration).

Volume censoring

Define your software and/or method and criteria for volume censoring, and state the extent of such censoring.

Statistical modeling & inference

Model type and settings

Specify type (mass univariate, multivariate, RSA, predictive, etc.) and describe essential details of the model at the first and second levels (e.g. fixed, random or mixed effects; drift or auto-correlation).

Effect(s) tested

Define precise effect in terms of the task or stimulus conditions instead of psychological concepts and indicate whether ANOVA or factorial designs were used.

Specify type of analysis:

 Whole brain

 ROI-based

 Both

Statistic type for inference

Specify voxel-wise or cluster-wise and report all relevant parameters for cluster-wise methods.

(See [Eklund et al. 2016](#))

Correction

Describe the type of correction and how it is obtained for multiple comparisons (e.g. FWE, FDR, permutation or Monte Carlo).

Models & analysis

- n/a | Involved in the study
- Functional and/or effective connectivity
 - Graph analysis
 - Multivariate modeling or predictive analysis

Functional and/or effective connectivity

Report the measures of dependence used and the model details (e.g. Pearson correlation, partial correlation, mutual information).

Graph analysis

Report the dependent variable and connectivity measure, specifying weighted graph or binarized graph, subject- or group-level, and the global and/or node summaries used (e.g. clustering coefficient, efficiency, etc.).

Multivariate modeling and predictive analysis

Specify independent variables, features extraction and dimension reduction, model, training and evaluation metrics.