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Facultad de Medicina, Universidad de Oviedo

Tel. 34-985-104201; Fax: 34-985-103564

33006 Oviedo-SPAIN

#### Healthspan and lifespan extension by fecal microbiota transplantation 2 3 into progeroid mice 4 Clea Bárcena<sup>1</sup>, Rafael Valdés-Mas<sup>1</sup>, Pablo Mayoral<sup>1</sup>, Cecilia Garabaya<sup>1</sup>, Sylvère Durand<sup>2,3,4,5</sup>, Francisco Rodríguez<sup>1</sup>, María Teresa Fernández-García<sup>6</sup>, Nuria Salazar<sup>7,8</sup>, Alicja M. Nogacka<sup>7,8</sup>, 5 6 Nuria Garatachea<sup>9,10</sup>, Noélie Bossut<sup>2,3,4,5</sup>, Fanny Aprahamian<sup>2,3,4,5</sup>, Alejandro Lucia<sup>11,12</sup>, Guido Kroemer<sup>2,3,4,5,13,14,15</sup>, José M. P. Freije<sup>1,16</sup>, Pedro M. Quirós<sup>1,16\*</sup>, and Carlos López-Otín<sup>1,16\*</sup> 7 8 9 <sup>1</sup>Departamento de Bioquímica y Biología Molecular, Facultad de Medicina, Instituto Universitario de 10 Oncología (IUOPA), Universidad de Oviedo, Oviedo, Spain; <sup>2</sup>Cell Biology and Metabolomics platforms, 11 Gustave Roussy Cancer Campus; Villejuif, France; <sup>3</sup>Equipe 11 labellisée par la Ligue contre le Cancer, 12 Centre de Recherche des Cordeliers, Paris, France; <sup>4</sup>INSERM, U1138, Paris, France; <sup>5</sup>Université Paris 13 Descartes, Sorbonne Paris Cité; Paris, France; <sup>6</sup>Unidad de histopatología molecular, IUOPA, Universidad 14 de Oviedo, Oviedo, Spain; <sup>7</sup>Department of Microbiology and Biochemistry of Dairy Products, Instituto de 15 Productos Lácteos de Asturias, Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (IPLA-CSIC), Villaviciosa, 16 Spain; <sup>8</sup>Diet, Microbiota and Health Group, Instituto de Investigación Sanitaria del Principado de Asturias 17 (ISPA); <sup>9</sup>Faculty of Health and Sport Sciences, Department of Physiatry and Nursing, University of 18 Zaragoza, Huesca, Spain; <sup>10</sup>GENUD (Growth, Exercise, NUtrition and Development) Research Group, 19 University of Zaragoza, Zaragoza, Spain; 11 Faculty of Sport Science, Universidad Europea de Madrid, 20 Madrid, Spain; <sup>12</sup>Instituto de Investigación Hospital 12 de Octubre (i+12) y Centro de Investigación 21 Biomédica en Red de Fragilidad y Enjevecimiento Saludable (CIBERFES), Spain; 13 Université Pierre et 22 23 Marie Curie, Paris, France; <sup>14</sup>Pôle de Biologie, Hôpital Européen Georges Pompidou, AP-HP; Paris, France; 15 Karolinska Institute, Department of Women's and Children's Health, Karolinska University 24 Hospital, Stockholm, Sweden; <sup>16</sup>Centro de Investigación Biomédica en Red de Cáncer (CIBERONC), Spain. 25 26 27 28 29 30 31 \*Send correspondence to: 32 Carlos López-Otín (clo@uniovi.es) or Pedro M. Quirós (pmquiros@gmail.com) 33 Departamento de Bioquímica y Biología Molecular

The gut microbiome is emerging as a key regulator of several metabolic, immune and neuroendocrine pathways<sup>1,2</sup>. Gut microbiome deregulation has been implicated in major conditions such as obesity, type-2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, non-alcoholic fatty acid liver disease and cancer<sup>3-6</sup>, but its precise role in aging remains to be elucidated. Here, we find that two different mouse models of progeria are characterized by intestinal dysbiosis with alterations that include an increase in the abundance of proteobacteria and cyanobacteria, and a decrease in the abundance of verrucomicrobia. Consistent with these findings, we found that human progeria patients also display intestinal dysbiosis and that long-lived humans (i.e., centenarians) exhibit a substantial increase in verrucomicrobia and a reduction in proteobacteria. Fecal microbiota transplantation from wild-type mice enhanced healthspan and lifespan in both progeroid mouse models and transplantation with the verrucomicrobia Akkermansia muciniphila was sufficient to exert beneficial effects. Moreover, metabolomic analysis of ileal content points to the restoration of secondary bile acids as a possible mechanism for the beneficial effects of reestablishing a healthy microbiome. Our results demonstrate that correction of the accelerated agingassociated intestinal dysbiosis is beneficial, suggesting the existence of a link between aging and the gut microbiota that provides a rationale for microbiome-based interventions against age-related diseases.

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- **Keywords:** aging, centenarians, fecal transplants, dysbiosis, longevity, metagenomics,
- 59 microbiome, progeria.

Traditionally seen as detrimental, the pathophysiological implications of the microbiota have considerably expanded in the last years. It is now known that the microbiota has essential metabolic and immunological functions conserved from worms<sup>7</sup> to humans<sup>1,2</sup>. In mammals, the gut microbiota is involved in food processing, activation of satiety pathways, protection against pathogens, and production of metabolites including vitamins, short chain fatty acids and secondary bile acids<sup>8-10</sup>. The gut microbiota also signals to distant organs, contributing to the maintenance of host physiology<sup>11</sup>. Intestinal microbiota alterations are associated with major conditions like obesity, type-2 diabetes, cardiovascular disease, non-alcoholic fatty acid liver disease, cancer, and the response to antineoplastic therapy<sup>3-6</sup>.

Although some works have explored the microbiome profile of long-lived humans <sup>12,13</sup>, no alterations have been described in accelerated aging syndromes. In this work, we studied the gut microbiome of two mouse models of Hutchinson-Gilford progeria syndrome (HGPS), patients with HGPS <sup>14</sup> and Nestor-Guillermo progeria syndrome (NGPS) <sup>15</sup>, as well as human centenarians and their controls. We found intestinal dysbiosis in both mouse models and progeria patients. In turn, the microbiota of centenarians is characterized by the presence of both pathological- and health-associated bacterial genera. We show that fecal microbiota transplantation (FMT) from wild-type (WT) donors to progeroid recipients attenuates the accelerated-aging phenotype and increases survival, whereas FMT from progeroid donors to WT recipients induces metabolic alterations. Analysis of centenarians and progeria mouse models point to a beneficial role for the genus *Akkermansia*, as oral gavage of *Akkermansia muciniphila* extends the lifespan of progeroid mice.

To explore the relevance of microbiome in progeria, we first studied the gut metagenome profile of the  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mouse model of HGPS<sup>16</sup>, by comparing WT

and Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice at three different ages: 1 month (WT 1mo and Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 1mo), 4 months – when *Lmna* <sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice exhibit a progeroid phenotype – (WT 4mo and Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 4mo), and 22 months (for WT mice only; WT 22mo; Extended Data Fig. 1a). To assess how progeria affects the gut microbial community structure, we studied the alpha- and beta-diversity associated with each genotype, and compared the microbial diversity within and between communities. Alpha-diversity was analyzed by calculating the Chao1 (a proxy for community richness) and Shannon's index (a proxy for diversity, taking into account both richness and evenness). We did not observe differences in bacterial diversity or richness within any of the mouse groups (Extended Data Fig. 1b,c and Supplementary Table 1). Next, we evaluated the beta-diversity across mouse groups, identifying a differential clustering of Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 4mo mice in a principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (qualitative measure) (Fig 1a) and the Jaccard distances (quantitative measure) (Extended Data Fig. 1d). Similar differences were revealed by hierarchical clustering, where *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 4mo mice were grouped together and separated from all other groups (Extended Data Fig. 1e,f).

Next, we calculated the percentage of bacterial taxa in each group (Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 2a), applying a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) method (see Methods; Supplementary Table 2). We noted a similar profile for WT and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice at 1 month of age (Fig. 1b and Extended Data Fig. 2a), observing solely an increment in the genera *Allobaculum* from the family Erysipelotrichaceae, Desulfovibrio (class deltaproteobacteria) and Clostridiales of the families Ruminococcaceae and Lachnospiraceae, in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  1mo (Extended Data Fig. 2b). As WT mice aged (from 1 to 4 months), we noted an increment in genera such as *Allobaculum*, *Ruminococcus*, *Coprococcus*, *Turicibacter* or *Parabacteroides* (Extended

Data Fig. 2c); however, the changes from 1 to 4 months were more profound in progeroid mice, displaying a loss in Akkermansia and Dehalobacterium and an enrichment in Parabacteroides, Prevotella and the Enterobacteriaceae, among other differences (Extended Data Fig. 2d). When comparing WT and progeroid mice at 4 months of age, the pattern was substantially different (Fig. 1b,c and Extended Data Fig. 2a), in agreement with the progression of the aging phenotype. The main differences were a reduction in abundance of Erysipelotrichales (phylum Firmicutes), Burkholderiales (class Betaproteobacteria) and Verrucomicrobiales (phylum Verrucomicrobia) in progeroid mice, together with an increase in Bacteroidales (phylum Bacteroidetes), Deferribacterales (phylum Deferribacteres), YS2 (phylum Cyanobacteria) and the proteobacteria Enterobacteriales and Pseudomonadales (class Gammaproteobacteria) (Fig. 1c and Supplementary Table 2). At a lower taxonomical level, *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 4mo mice showed a loss in Clostridiaceae, Allobaculum, Sutterella, Dehalobacterium, Rikenella and Akkermansia (Fig. 1d). Of note, high abundance of Akkermansia has been associated with improved immunomodulation and metabolic homeostasis, reduced inflammation, and protection against atherosclerosis 17-19. By contrast, Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 4mo exhibited an increment in Mucispirillum, Enterococcus, Acinetobacter, Staphylococcus, Parabacteroides, Bacteroides, Prevotella and Enterobacteriaceae, which contains the genus Escherichia and has been associated with dysbiosis and intestinal inflammation<sup>20</sup> (Fig. 1d). Changes in *Escherichia* and *Akkermansia* were validated afterwards at the species level by qPCR in a second, independent group of Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice (Fig. 1e). The gut microbiome of a fraction of WT 22mo exhibited a tendency towards intestinal dysbiosis (Extended Data Fig. 2a); however, the only significant shift consisted in the loss in Rikenella (Extended Data Fig. 2e), a change also found when comparing Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> 4mo to WT 4mo mice (Fig. 1d). To explore the

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functional implications of the microbiome shift in progeroid mice, we then investigated the metagenome data with PICRUSt and HUMAnN2 (see Methods). LEfSe analysis detected an increase in KEGG pathways related to pathological bacteria such as 'Bacterial invasion of epithelial cells' (ko05100) and 'Flagellar assembly' (ko02040), and a differential enrichment in multiple metabolic pathways (Extended Data Fig. 2f and Supplemental Table S3).

To confirm the association of gut dysbiosis with progeria, we analyzed the gut microbiota of a different progeria model,  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  mice<sup>21</sup> (Extended Data Fig. 3a). Although  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  mice showed no differences in bacterial diversity (Extended Data Fig. 3b), they exhibited higher bacterial richness (Extended Data Fig. 3c). Like  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice,  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  animals showed differences in beta diversity at the quantitative (Fig. 1f) and qualitative level (Extended Data Fig. 3d), clustering differently from WT mice, and exhibited signs of dysbiosis (Fig. 1g, Extended Data Fig. 3e) with a high abundance of Proteobacteria (class Alphaproteobacteria) and Cyanobacteria (Fig. 1g, Extended Data Fig. 3e and Supplementary Table 2).  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  mice also showed a tendency to a lower amount of Verrucomicrobia (Extended Data Fig. 3e), although this trend was less marked than in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  animals, perhaps due to the later onset of the progeroid phenotype in  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  mice. At a lower taxonomic level, we found, among other differences, an enrichment in the order YS2 (phylum Cyanobacteria) and the genera Bacteroides, Parabacteroides and Prevotella (Fig. 1h), similarly to  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  4mo mice.

To investigate the possible existence of gut dysbiosis in human progeria, we obtained fecal samples from four children with HGPS and their healthy siblings, as well as from a patient with NGPS and his healthy sibling and mother (Extended Data Fig. 4a). When comparing progeria patients with their healthy controls, we found no differences

in alpha-diversity (Extended Data Fig. 4b,c) or beta-diversity indices (Fig. 2a and Extended Data Fig. 4d). However, when samples were compared by geographical location (*i.e.*, comparing families), a differential clustering was observed at the quantitative (Fig. 2b) and qualitative levels (Extended Data Fig. 4e). Despite the low number of samples, these results suggest that the environment has more influence on the gut microbiome than the pathological condition, which is in accordance with recent findings<sup>22,23</sup>. Yet, in each of the studied families, the progeria patients had a different profile compared to their healthy siblings. This was particularly evident in families where more than one healthy member was studied (Extended Data Fig. 4f). LEfSe analysis pointed to a loss in *Gemmiger* –family Ruminococcaceae– and an enrichment in *Clostridium* from families Erysipelotrichaceae and Lachnospiraceae in progeria patients (Fig. 2c).

Considering the gut microbiome alterations observed in mice and progeria patients, we hypothesized that individuals with exceptionally long lifespans (*i.e.*, centenarians) might possess a health-promoting microbiome. Therefore, we performed a metagenomic analysis of a centenarian cohort and ethnically-matched healthy adult controls (Extended Data Fig. 5a). Centenarians showed lower alpha-diversity compared to their controls (Extended Data Fig. 5b), and a considerably lower bacterial richness (Extended Data Fig. 5c). Also, both groups clustered differentially, based on quantitative (Fig. 2d) and qualitative (Extended Data Fig. 5d) beta-diversity indexes, indicating that centenarians had a different microbial community structure than controls. Indeed, we encountered distinct microbial profiles in both groups (Fig. 2e and Extended Data Fig. 5e). LEfSe analysis showed that centenarians presented less Betaproteobacteria and more Synergistia and Verrucomicrobiae, among others (Fig. 2e and Supplementary Table 2).

Desulfovibrionaceae, Lachnospiraceae and Erysipelotrichaceae – the last two enriched in progeria patients – and *Prevotella*, *Sutterella*, *Roseburia*, *or Butyricicoccus*, among other differences (Fig. 2f). Notably, centenarians exhibited a higher abundance of Enterobacteriaceae, Ruminococcaceae and Christensenellaceae and the genera *Klebsiella*, *Lactobacillus*, *Parabacteroides* and *Akkermansia* (Fig. 2f). These results are in line with previous studies reporting high levels of *Akkermansia* and Christensenellaceae and low levels of *Roseburia* in centenarians <sup>12,24</sup>.

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Based on the aforementioned results, we hypothesized that changes in the gut microbiota might accompany the accelerated aging of HGPS mice. To explore this possibility, we performed FMT in four different mouse groups. First, we used WT control mice as microbiota donors (herein referred to as WTmic, WT microbiota) and Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice as recipients. We also transplanted Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice with microbiota from older  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice, that is, progeroid mice with a more advanced phenotype (oG609Gmic, old Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> microbiota) (Fig. 3a). FMT effectiveness was evaluated by comparing the gut metagenomic profiles of control, transplanted and donor mice, showing that transplanted progeroid mice acquired the donor microbiota (Extended Data Fig. 6a,b). Additionally, we performed microbiome ablation and shamtransplanted Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice (herein referred to as EmptyT, empty transplant) (Fig. 3a). Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic manifested a delayed loss of body weight and temperature (Fig. 3b,c). Phenotype-dependent hypoglycemia was avoided and renal perivascular fibrosis was attenuated in Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic (Fig. 3d,e). Spleen weight, typically reduced in progeroid mice, was similar in Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic and Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> controls, but lower in Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-oG609Gmic (Extended Data Fig. 6c). We also noted an increase in intestinal inflammation markers in Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice that was recovered in Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic (Extended Data Fig. 6d). Surprisingly, some

markers were also decreased in Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-oG609Gmic, pointing to a possible beneficial effect of the FMT protocol per se (Extended Data Fig. 6d). Most importantly, *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic showed improved survival compared to control *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice (P = 0.0029), with a 13.5% increase in median lifespan (160 vs 141 days, respectively) (Fig. 3f). Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic also exhibited an extended maximal survival (9% increment, P = 0.04) (Fig. 3f and Extended Data Fig. 6e). In contrast, Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-oG609Gmic showed reduced survival compared to  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice (P = 0.045), with a reduction in median lifespan (129 days) (Fig. 3f). Lmna<sup>G609G/G609</sup>-EmptyT did not show survival differences when compared to control Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice (Extended Data Fig. 6f). Lastly, to evaluate the potential pathogenicity of progeroid microbiota, we also performed FMT from old Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> donors into WT mice (WT-oG609Gmic). Effective gut colonization was validated by comparing the metagenomic profiles of control, transplanted and donor mice (Extended Data Fig. 6a,b). We did not observe progeria-related features in WT-oG609Gmic mice. However, this maneuver caused metabolic alterations, including a higher body weight, higher glucose levels, lower O<sub>2</sub> consumption, lower CO<sub>2</sub> production and reduced energy expenditure (Fig. 3g-k and Extended Data Fig. 7a-d). To validate these results, we also performed FMT in Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> mice using microbiota from WT mice (Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup>-WTmic). This manipulation caused Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> mice to manifest a less pronounced cervicothoracic lordokyphosis, larger body size and maintained grooming (Fig. 31). Body weight loss (Fig. 3m and Extended Data Fig. 8a) and hypoglycemia (Fig. 3n) were avoided in Zmpste24-/-WTmic mice. Like Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice transplanted with WT microbiota, Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup>-WTmic mice also

exhibited enhanced survival (P = 0.0092), with a median lifespan increase of 13.4% (279)

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vs 246 days) (Fig. 3o). Maximum survival was increased by almost 8% (P = 0.09) (Fig. 3o and Extended Data Fig. 8b).

The results above in both human and murine gut metagenomic profiles described a lost in *A. muciniphila* in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  4mo mice and an increase in centenarians' samples. Since this bacterium exerts beneficial effects in other models<sup>17,19,25,26</sup>, we tested if external supply of *A. muciniphila* to  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice would improve their healthspan or lifespan. By supplementing  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice with *A. muciniphila* through oral gavage, we obtained a modest lifespan extension (P = 0.016) (Fig. 4a), suggesting a protective role of this microorganism against accelerated aging manifestations. As previously described<sup>19</sup>, *A. muciniphila* supplementation induced ileal expression of Reg3g (Fig. 4b) and favored the thickening of the intestinal mucosa layer (Fig. 4c).  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice receiving *A. muciniphila* also showed an increment in the intestinal trefoil factor Tff3 (Fig. 4b), which might promote wound healing and repair of the mucosa layer<sup>27</sup>.

Finally, to investigate the potential mechanisms accounting for the healthspan and lifespan extension of  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice after FMT, we performed metabolome profiling of ileal content from WT,  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic mice. Significant changes were analyzed by metabolite set enrichment analysis using KEGG pathways, detecting an enrichment in 'secondary bile acid biosynthesis' (Fig. 4d). As recently described<sup>28</sup>, different bile acids were decreased in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  compared to WT mice, and recovered in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic (Fig. 4e). Moreover,  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice ileal content exhibited a depletion of the monosaccharides arabinose and ribose, the nucleoside inosine, and the ether-phospholipid PCae (18:0) that was reversed upon FMT with WT microbiota (Fig. 4f).

FMT might modulate obesity and metabolism in humans and mice<sup>29,30</sup>, ameliorate metabolic syndrome in patients<sup>31</sup>, and contribute to the treatment of refractory immune checkpoint inhibitor (ICI)-associated colitis<sup>32</sup> and recurrent infections by Clostridium difficile<sup>33</sup>. The promising in vivo results obtained in this study suggest that therapeutic interventions on the intestinal microbiome may lead to healthspan end even lifespan improvements. In this regard, we show that A. muciniphila administration lead to a lifespan enhancement in progeria, thus extending previous findings on pro-health activities of Akkermansia spp. in the intestinal tract of mammals<sup>17-19</sup> and in aged mice<sup>34</sup>. Previous studies have described that successful FMT treatment of recurrent infection by C. difficile relies on restoration of correct bile acid metabolism<sup>35,36</sup>, and that antibioticinduced microbiome depletion reduces the secondary bile acid pool<sup>37</sup>. Of note, secondary bile acids are produced by the gut microbiota<sup>38</sup> and positively correlate with Akkermansia levels in mice<sup>39</sup>. Considering that bile acids regulate metabolism and anti-inflammatory signals<sup>40</sup> and that they are depleted in *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice<sup>28</sup>, the restoration of secondary bile acids – and other metabolites (arabinose, ribose, inosine) – by FMT might contribute to extend healthspan and lifespan in progeroid mice (Fig. 4g). Future work might identify the functional mechanisms by which some bacterial species and metabolites are responsible for the healthspan and lifespan extension conferred by FMT, and explore the applicability of FMT in normal or accelerated aging.

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318 **Competing interests statement.** GK is one of the scientific co-founders of everImmune.

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#### 422 Figure legends

Figure 1. Gut dysbiosis in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  and  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  progeroid mice. (a) 423 424 Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA) of beta-diversity using the Bray-Curtis 425 dissimilarity metric among samples of the five groups of mice analyzed (P = 0.001; 426 PERMANOVA). G609G 4mo mice show statistical differences with each of the other 427 groups (see Supplementary Table 1). Each dot represents an individual mouse. PCo1 428 and PCo2 represent the percentage of variance explained by each coordinate (WT 1mo, n = 6; G609G 1mo, n = 5; WT 4mo, n = 8; G609G 4mo, n = 9; WT 22mo, n = 8). (b) 429 430 Average relative abundance of prevalent microbiota at the class level in the 5 groups studied: 1-month-old wild-type (WT 1mo, n = 6), 1-month-old  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  (G609G) 431 1mo, n = 5), adult 4-month-old wild-type (WT 4mo, n = 8), 4-month-old  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ 432 433 (G609G 4mo, n = 9) and 22-month-old wild-type (WT 22mo, n = 8). The low abundance 434 bacteria group includes all bacterial classes with less than 0.5% of total abundance. (c) 435 Taxonomic cladogram obtained from LEfSe analysis showing bacterial taxa (phylum, 436 class and order) that were differentially abundant in progeroid and WT mice at 4 months 437 of age. Red indicates increased abundance in progeroid mice, grey indicates increased 438 abundance in WT mice. Def: Deferribacteres (phylum), Deferribacteres (order), 439 Deferribacterales (class); Cya: Cyanobacteria (phylum); Pseudo: Pseudomonadales; 440 Entero: Enterobacteriales; Burkho: Burkholderiales. (d) Results of LEfSe analysis 441 showing bacterial taxa that were significantly different in abundance between G609G and 442 WT mice at 4 months of age. For c and d: WT 4mo, n = 8; G609G 4mo, n = 9. (e) 443 Validation using qPCR of the differences in abundance of E. coli (W = 6, P = 0.0046) 444 and A. muciniphila (W = 52, P = 0.03) between WT (n = 8) and G609G mice (n = 8) at 445 10 weeks of age. Two-tailed unpaired Wilcoxon rank-sum test. Each dot represents an 446 individual mouse. In the box plots, upper and lower hinges correspond to the first and 447 third quartiles, center line represents the median, whiskers indicate the highest and lowest 448 values that are within 1.5 \* IQR, and data beyond the end of the whiskers are outliers and 449 plotted as points. (f) PCoA of beta-diversity using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric between  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  and WT mice (P = 0.003, PERMANOVA). Each dot represents an 450 451 individual mouse. PCo1 and PCo2 represent the percentage of variance explained by each 452 coordinate. (g) Average relative abundance of prevalent microbiota at the class level in WT and Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> mice. (h). LEfSe analysis showing bacterial classes that were 453 significantly different in abundance between Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> and WT mice. For f-h: 4-month-454

old WT mice, n = 8 (same as panel a-d); 4-month-old *Zmpste24*-/- mice, n = 4. p: phylum; c: class; o: order; f: family; g: genus.

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Figure 2. Alterations in the gut microbiome in progeria patients and long-lived humans. (a,b) PCoA of beta-diversity using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric among fecal samples analyzed by (a) health status (P = 0.5, PERMANOVA) (Control, n = 9individuals; Progeria, n = 5 individuals) and (b) family (P = 0.001, PERMANOVA) (Family A, n = 3; Family B, n = 3; Family C, n = 3; Family D, n = 2; Family E, n = 3). Each dot represents one person. PCo1 and PCo2 represent the percentage of variance explained by each coordinate. (c). Results of LEfSe analysis showing bacterial genera whose abundance significantly differed between progeria patients and their healthy siblings (Control=9 individuals; Progeria=5 individuals). (d) PCoA of beta-diversity using the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity metric of healthy controls (HC; n = 14 individuals) and centenarians (Ce; n = 17 individuals) (P = 0.001, PERMANOVA). Each dot represents one person. (e) Average relative abundance of prevalent microbiota at the class level in centenarians (Ce; n = 17 individuals) and healthy controls (HC; n = 14individuals). The low abundance bacteria group includes all bacterial classes with less than 0.5% of total abundance. (f) Results of LEfSe analysis showing bacteria, at the lowest taxonomic level, that were significantly different in abundance in centenarians (Ce; n = 17 individuals) vs healthy controls (HC; n = 14 individuals). p: phylum; c: class; o: order; f: family; g: genus.

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## Figure 3. Effects of fecal microbiota transplantation in progeroid and WT mice (a)

- 478 Scheme of the experimental design, in which the effects of FMT were assessed using 4
- different groups of progeroid mice: control untransplanted  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice (n = 11),
- 480  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice transplanted with fecal microbiota from WT mice ( $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -
- WTmic; n = 11),  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice transplanted with microbiota from older
- 482  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice ( $Lmna^{G609G}$ -oG609Gmic; n = 11) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice
- subjected to ablation of their own microbiota and transplanted with empty buffer
- 484 ( $Lmna^{G609G}$ -EmptyT; n = 8). Transplants were carried on at ~8-10 weeks of age, using as
- donors 4 months-old WT and 4 months-old *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice. (b) Comparison of the
- 486 percentage of initial body weight between  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  (n = 11) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -
- WTmic (n = 11) mice over the indicated time period. Differences in body weight over

488 time were assessed with a linear mixed model and analyzed with an Anova Type II Wald 489 Chi-square test ( $X^2 = 8.06$ , df = 1, P = 0.0045). Data are presented as mean  $\pm$  SEM. (c) 490 Box plots showing differences in the body temperature between WT (n = 4),  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  (n = 6) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic (n = 5) mice. One-way ANOVA 491 492 with Tukey's correction (F = 20.45, df = 2, P = 0.0001). Exact adjusted p-values are reported within the plot. (d) Comparison of the glucose levels between  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ 493 (n = 6) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic (n = 5) mice over the indicated time period. Unpaired 494 495 two-tailed Student's t-test (for week 5: t = 2.74, df = 36, P = 0.009). (e) Representative 496 histological images of renal vasculature, showing increased perivascular fibrosis in  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice (n = 10) (blue staining indicated with an arrow) compared to WT 497 (n = 10) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice transplanted with WT microbiota ( $Lmna^{G609G}$ -WTmic; 498 499 n = 8). Renal fibrosis scores were analyzed with a Kruskall-Wallis test with Dunn's 500 correction. Exact adjusted p-values are reported within the plot. Each dot represents a 501 single mouse. The horizontal line represents the mean  $\pm$  95% of confidence interval (CI). Scale bar = 100  $\mu$ m. (f) Percentage survival of  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  (n = 11),  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -502 WTmic (n = 11) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice transplanted with old  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ 503 microbiota ( $Lmna^{G609G}$ -oG609Gmic; n = 11). Differences were analyzed with the Log-504 505 rank Mantel-Cox test and BH correction was applied after pairwise comparisons between 506 all experimental groups, including Empty transplant (Extended Data Fig. 6f). Hazard ratio (HR) was calculated using a Cox proportional model. For Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup>-WTmic vs 507  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ , HR of 0.2 [95% confidence interval (CI) 0.07–0.53], P = 0.0012; for 508  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -oG609Gmic vs  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ , HR of 4.1 [95% CI 1.5–11.1], P =509 510 0.005. Median and maximal survival, percentage of median and maximal lifespan 511 extension and log-rank test adjusted p-values are indicated in the Kaplan-Meier plot. 512 Transplantation was performed starting at ~8-10 weeks of age. (g) Comparison of body 513 weight between male WT mice transplanted with progeroid microbiota (WT-514 oG609Gmic; n = 7) and male WT controls (n = 7) over the indicated time period. 515 Differences of body weight over time were assessed with a linear mixed model and analyzed with an Anova Type II Wald Chi-square test ( $X^2 = 5.49$ , df = 1, P = 0.019). Data 516 517 is presented as mean  $\pm$  SEM. (h) Blood glucose levels of WT mice (n = 14; 7 males and 518 7 females) and WT-oG609Gmic (n = 14; 7 males and 7 females). Unpaired two-tailed 519 Student's t-test (t = 4.56, df = 26, P = 0.0001). Each dot represents a single mouse. The 520 horizontal line represents the mean  $\pm$  95% CI. (i-k) Metabolic parameters, measured with

521 an Oxymax system, of WT (n = 14; 7 males and 7 females) and WT-oG609Gmic (n = 14; 522 7 males and 7 females) mice. Differences were analyzed with an unpaired two-tailed 523 Welch's t-test. (i) Volume of  $O_2$  consumed (VO<sub>2</sub>) (t = 2.71, df = 28, P = 0.011). (j) 524 Volume of CO<sub>2</sub> produced (VCO<sub>2</sub>) (t = 3.94, df = 23, P = 0.0006). (**k**) Energy expenditure (EE) (t = 3.15, df = 25, P = 0.0043). (I) Representative pictures of control  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$ 525 526 mice and Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> mice transplanted with WT microbiota (Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup>-WTmic). 527 Transplanted mice appear to be healthier, as manifested by an ameliorated cervicothoracic 528 lordokyphosis, a larger size and better grooming. (m) Body weight at 35 weeks of life of  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  mice (n = 4) and  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$ -WTmic mice (n = 6). Unpaired two-tailed 529 530 Student's t-test (t = 4.31, df = 8, P = 0.0026). (n) Blood glucose levels of  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  mice 531 (n = 5) and  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$ -WTmic mice (n = 7) at 30 weeks. Unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test (t = 5.47, df = 11, P = 0.0002). (o) Percentage survival of  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$  (n = 7) and 532  $Zmpste24^{-/-}$ -WTmic female mice (n = 7). Differences were performed with the Log-rank 533 534 Mantel-Cox test (P = 0.0092). HR of 0.15 [95% CI 0.03-0.75], P = 0.021. Median and 535 maximal survival, percentage of median and maximal lifespan extension and exact p-536 value are indicated in the Kaplan-Meier plot. Transplantation was performed starting at 537 ~7-10 weeks of age. For c, d, i-k, m and n: box plots show upper and lower hinges 538 corresponding to the first and third quartiles, center line represents the median, whiskers 539 indicate the highest and lowest values that are within 1.5 \* IQR, and data beyond the end 540 of the whiskers are outliers and plotted as points. Each dot represents a single mouse.

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542 Figure 4. Akkermansia muciniphila supplementation in progeroid mice and metabolomic analysis of ileal content. (a) Percent survival of Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice 543 receiving A. muciniphila by oral gavage (AKK; n = 9) compared to  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  mice 544 545 (G609G; n = 12). A. muciniphila transplantation was performed starting at 7-8 weeks of 546 age. Differences in survival were analyzed with Log-rank Mantel-Cox test (P = 0.0163). 547 Hazard ratio (HR) was calculated using a Cox proportional model (HR of 0.31 [95%] 548 confidence interval (CI) 0.11–0.86], P = 0.0244). (b) Relative expression levels of Reg3g 549 and Tff3 in G609G (n = 8) and AKK (n = 7) mice. Differences were analyzed with an 550 unpaired two-tailed Student's t-test. For Reg3g, t = 2.33, df = 13, P = 0.0365; for Tff3, t = 13, t =551 = 2.42, df = 13, P = 0.0306. Data are represented as dots (one per mouse) with mean  $\pm$ 552 95% of CI. (c) Left, representative histological images of the intestinal mucosa layer of 553 G609G and AKK mice. Arrow indicates the thickness of the mucosa layer. Scale bar =

554 100 μm. Right, comparison of mucosa layer thickness of G609G (n = 8) and AKK (n = 555 7) mice. Differences were calculated using an unpaired two-tailed Welch's t-test (t = 2.72, 556 df = 12, P = 0.018). Data are represented as dots (one per mouse) with mean  $\pm 95\%$  of 557 CI. For b and c, G609G group was composed by 4 males and 4 females, and AKK group 558 was composed by 4 males and 3 females. (d) Metabolic set enrichment analysis of all 559 metabolites with statistically significant differences between the three groups: WT (n = 8),  $Lmna^{G609G/G609}$  (n = 8) and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic (n = 8), using all annotated KEGG 560 pathways (see Methods). (e) Box plots showing the relative levels of different bile acids 561 in WT (n = 8),  $Lmna^{G609G/G609}$  (n = 8), and  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic (n = 8). CA: cholic 562 563 acid; CDCA: chenodeoxycholic acid; βMCA: beta-muricholic acid; DCA: deoxycholic 564 acid; HCA: hyocholic acid; ωMCA: omega-muricholic acid; UDCA: ursodeoxycholic 565 acid; 12-KCDCA: 12-ketochenodeoxycholic acid. (f) Box plots showing the relative levels of selected metabolites between WT (n = 8),  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$  (n = 8) and 566 567  $Lmna^{G609G/G609G}$ -WTmic (n = 8). For e and f, each group of 8 mice was composed by 4 568 males and 4 females. In both panels, differences were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA with multiple comparison test with one-side relative to control Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice. 569 570 Exact adjusted p-values are reported in each plot. In the box plots, upper and lower hinges 571 correspond to the first and third quartiles, center line represents the median, whiskers 572 indicate the highest and lowest values that are within 1.5 \* IQR, and data beyond the end 573 of the whiskers are outliers and plotted as points. Each dot represents a single mouse. (g) 574 Schematic representation of the model proposed in this work. WT mice are characterized 575 by a gut symbiosis in which bacterial metabolites participate in systemic homeostasis. By 576 contrast, progeroid mice are characterized by a gut dysbiosis, leading to decreased bile 577 acid levels and a reduced healthspan and lifespan. FMT with WT microbiota (WT mic) 578 into progeroid mice raises bile acids levels and improves healthspan and lifespan.

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#### Methods

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#### Mouse models

Both Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> and Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> mice were generated by crossing Lmna<sup>G609G/+</sup> and Zmpste24<sup>+/-</sup> mice and genotyped in our laboratory as previously described<sup>16,21</sup>. All mice used in this study were in C57BL/6N background. Mice were caged separately by sex and transplantation group and checked daily for water and food availability, as well as for good physical condition. Mice were housed in cages with solid floors, sawdust and nests. Mice in all groups were given every day pellets of food previously softened in water for 1–2 hours to facilitate the feeding of progeroid mice. All components of the cages, including food, had been previously autoclaved. For glucose determination, blood samples were obtained from the tail vein and measured with Accu-Chek glucometer (Roche Diagnostics; Mannheim, Germany). Body temperature was measured by rectal probe (Acorn® Temp TC Thermocouple Thermometer, Fisher Scientific; Hampton, NH). Transplantation experiments in progeroid mice began at ~6-10 weeks of age. In the *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> survival experiments, 11 mice were analyzed in control (7 males and 4 females), transplanted with WT (5 males and 6 females) and transplanted with Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> groups (5 males and 6 females), whereas 8 mice (3 males and 5 females) were analyzed in the empty transplant group. Zmpste24<sup>-/-</sup> transplantation experiments were performed with 7 females per group. In the WT transplantation experiments, 14 animals per group were used (7 males and 7 females). In the WT and Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> validation experiment, 8 mice (4 males and 4 females) were used in each group of transplanted mice, and pooled samples from 12 WT (6 males and 6 females) and 15 Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice (8 males and 7 females) were used as donors. Survival curves were analyzed with Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test. Maximum survival was analyzed by Fisher's exact test at 80<sup>th</sup> percentile<sup>41</sup>. All animal experiments were approved by the Committee for Animal Experimentation of the Universidad de Oviedo (Spain) and performed in accordance with the European and Spanish legislative and regulatory guidelines (European convention ETS 1 2 3, on the use and protection of vertebrate mammals in experimentation and for other scientific purposes, and Spanish Law 6/2013, and R.D. 53/2013 on the protection and use of animals in scientific research), making every effort to minimize mouse discomfort.

#### Human samples

We obtained samples from four HGPS families and one NGPS family that include individuals affected with progeria and their healthy siblings. Additionally, we collected samples from a Spanish cohort composed by 17 centenarians, independently of their health status, and 14 healthy ethnically-matched adults, aged 30–50 years and with no history of any major disease. Research involving humans was approved by the Ethical Committee of Regional Clinical Research of the Principality of Asturias, project no.105/16. All participants read and signed an informed consent.

## Preparation of 16S DNA for metagenome profiling

Mouse feces were collected for 4 h and immediately kept at -80 °C until DNA extraction. For human studies, samples were picked and stored at -20 °C in OmniGene Gut kits (Ref. OMR-200, DNA Genotek; Ora Sure Techonologies; Bethlehem, PN). In all cases (mice and human samples), DNA was extracted using the PowerSoil DNA Isolation kit (MO BIO Laboratories, Quiagen N.V.; Hilden, Germany). DNA quality and quantification were assessed with Qubit fluorometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific; Waltham, MA). Libraries were prepared following the 16S Metagenomic Sequencing Library Preparation protocol from Illumina. Briefly, the region V3-V4 from 16S rRNA was amplified using the primers 341F/805R to which Illumina Sequencing adapters and dual-

630 XTindex barcodes of the added (FWD 5'-Nextera kit were 631 TCGTCGGCAGCGTCAGATGTGTATAAG AGACAGCCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG-632 3° **REV** 5'-GTCTCGTGGGCTCGGAGA and 633 TGTGTATAAGAGACAGGACTACHVGGGTATCTAATCC-3'). Sequencing was 634 performed in a MiSeq platform (IMEGEN, Valencia, Spain) using 2 x 300 bp-end 635 protocol.

#### Metagenome profiling

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Raw paired-end reads were processed with QIIME 2 (version 2018.6.0). Sequence quality controls were performed with DADA2 (giime dada2 denoise-paired, with a number of expected errors higher than 6): reads were filtered, trimmed, denoised, dereplicated, forward and reverse sequences were merged, and chimeras were removed. Taxonomy was assigned using a pre-trained Naïve Bayes classifier, with a trimmed version of Greengenes 13\_8 99% OTUs, which includes the V3-V4 regions, bounded by the 341F/805R primer pair. For Lmna<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> model, we obtained 3,071,354 pairedend reads of 300 nucleotides each, with 1,084 OTUs identified after quality filtering (Extended Data Fig 1a), and for Zmpste24-/- model, we obtained 1,149,187 paired-end reads of 300 nucleotides each, with 882 OTUs identified after quality-filtering (Extended Data Fig 3a). 4-month-old C57BL/6N WT mice in experiments from Figure 1 where used as controls for both *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> and *Zmpste24*-/- mice. For human samples in progeria patients, we obtained 1,709,578 paired-end reads of 300 nucleotides each, with 691 OTUs identified after quality filtering (Extended Data Fig 4a), whereas for centenarians and healthy controls we obtained 6,196,891 paired-end reads of 300 nucleotides each, with 1,761 OTUs identified after quality-filtering (Extended Data Fig 5a). For validating FMT experiments 8 mice per group and condition were used, obtaining 8,761,200 paired-end reads of 300 nucleotides each, with 18,402 OTUs identified after quality filtering. Alpha diversity and statistical analysis were calculated based on different metrics (shannon, chao1). Beta diversity was measured using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and Jaccard similarity index (braycurtis, jaccard). Samples were hierarchical clustered with the Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean (UPGMA) method and using different beta diversity metrics (braycurtis, jaccard). Differences in bacteria abundance were calculated using LEfSe<sup>42</sup>. Metagenome functional content prediction was performed using PICRUSt<sup>43</sup> and HUMAnN2 (v0.11.1)<sup>44</sup>, and analyzed with LEfSe.

#### Microbiome transplants

Prior to transplantation, mice were treated for three consecutive days with 200 μL of an antibiotic-cocktail (with each daily dose being administered by oral gavage after a 6-hour fast) which contained 1 g/L ampicillin, 0.5 g/L neomycin, 0.5 g/L vancomycin and 1 g/L metronidazole. Thereafter mice were given 100 μL of the microbiome suspension twice a week for 2 weeks, starting the first day after the antibiotic cycle. After this 2-week period mice received the microbiome suspension once a week until natural death or sacrifice. For the microbiome suspension preparation, 2-5 fresh feces pellets (80-100 mg) were resuspended with a vortex in 600 μL of reduced PBS (PBS with 0.5 g/L cysteine and 0.2 g/L Na<sub>2</sub>S). After resuspension, tubes containing the feces in reduced PBS were centrifuged at 2,500 rpm (500 g) for 1 min to remove insolubilized material, and 100 μL of supernatant were administered to the mice by oral gavage. Empty transplant group received the same antibiotics treatment and were transplanted only with reduced PBS.

#### Calorimetry measurements

Metabolic parameters (oxygen consumption, carbon dioxide production and total energy expenditure), were obtained using the comprehensive lab animal monitoring system (Oxymax CLAMS, Columbus Instruments; Columbus, OH) and analyzed

following the manufacturer's instructions. Mice were monitored for 48 h and the first 24 h were discarded in the analysis, considering them as acclimation period.

## Akkermansia muciniphila culture and oral supplementation

Cultures of the strain *Akkermansia muciniphila* CIP107961 grown for 24 h in GAM medium (Nissui Pharmaceutical Co; Tokyo, Japan) supplemented with 0.25% (w/v) L-cysteine (Sigma Chemical Co.; St. Louis, MO) (GAMc) in anaerobic conditions were used to inoculate (2% v/v) fresh pre-reduced GAMc broth which was incubated for 24 h. Afterwards, cultures were washed with PBS and concentrated in anaerobic PBS that included 25% (v/v) glycerol to a concentration of about 1x10<sup>10</sup> cfu/mL under strict anaerobic conditions and stored at −80 °C until use. To test the viability of glycerol stocks, serial dilutions in PBS were made and deep plated on agar-GAMc. Plates were incubated under anaerobic conditions for 5 days to determine the *Akkermansia* counts (cfu/ml). Before administration by oral gavage, the glycerol stocks were thawed under anaerobic conditions and diluted with anaerobic PBS to a final concentration of 2x10<sup>8</sup> viable cfu/0.1 mL. *Lmna*<sup>G609G/G609G</sup> mice were treated by oral gavage with 100 μL of either *Akkermansia* suspension (AKK group, n = 9) or anaerobic PBS (control group, n=12) three days a week beginning at 12 weeks of age and until decease.

#### Quantitative polymerase chain reaction

For RNA expression analysis, total RNA from about 30 mg of frozen ileon samples was extracted using Trizol (Life Technologies) and resuspended in nuclease-free water (Life Technologies). 1–2 µg of total RNA was used for reverse transcription using the QuantiTect Reverse Transcription kit (Quiagen N.V.). 10× diluted cDNA was used for quantitative polymerase chain reaction (qPCR) using Power SYBR Green PCR Master Mix (Life Technologies; Carlsbad, CA) and Real-Time PCR (7300 HT, Applied

Biosystems; Foster City, CA). Gene expression was normalized to the GAPDH expression. For bacterial quantification, DNA from mouse feces was extracted as described above. 1-4 ng of DNA were used for qPCR reactions using specific primers to amplify bacterial 16S rDNA. Bacterial abundance was assessed by normalizing with the abundance of total bacteria in feces using the conserved eubacterial 16S rDNA primer pair UniF340/UniR514. Results are represented as relative quantification using RQ value  $(RQ=2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct})$ . Primer sets for qPCR analyses are shown in Supplementary Table 4.

#### Metabolomic analysis

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Prior to sacrifice for sample collection, mice were starved overnight and thereafter allowed to eat for 4 h. 30 mg of ileum content for each condition were first weighted and solubilized into 1 mL polypropylene Precellys lysis tubes, with 1 mL of cold lysate buffer (MeOH/Water/Chloroform, 9/1/1, -20 °C). After being vortexed for 10 min, samples were centrifuged (10 min at 15,000 g, 4 °C), and the upper phase was collected and split in two parts: the first 270 µL used for the Gas Chromatography coupled to Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) and 250 µL used for the Ultra High Pressure Liquid Chromatography coupled to Mass Spectrometry (UHPLC-MS). For GC-MS measurements, 150 µL from the aliquot were transferred to a glass tube and evaporated. Then, 50 µL of methoxyamine (20 mg/mL in pyridine) was added to dried extracts and samples were then stored at room temperature in the dark for 16 h. The day after, 80 µL of MSTFA was added and final derivatization carried out at 40 °C during 30 min. Samples were then transferred in vials and directly injected into GC-MS. For LC-MS measurements, the collected supernatant was evaporated in microcentrifuge tubes at 40 °C in a pneumatically-assisted concentrator (Techne DB3, Techne; Staffordshire, UK). Dried extracts were solubilized with 450 µL of MilliQ water and aliquoted in 3 microcentrifuge tubes (100 µL) for each LC method and one microcentrifuge tube for safety. Aliquots were transferred to LC vials and injected into LC-MS or kept at -80 °C until injection. A daily qualification of the instrumentation was set up with automatic tune and calibration processes. These qualifications were completed with double injections of standards mixes, at the beginning and at the end of the run, as for a blank extracted sample to control the background impurities. Mixtures were adapted for each chromatographic method. After the extraction, fractions of each biological sample were pooled to create a Quality Control (QC) sample, use to passivate the column before the analysis with the proper biological matrix. This QC sample was re-injected in each batch to monitor and correct analytical bias. Analytical methods and data processing were performed as previously described<sup>45</sup>. Results were represented as the normalized area of the MS picks in log2 scale using arbitrary units. Normalization was performed by correcting the area of the MS picks across the batches using the QC pooled samples and by centering their values around the mean of the QC areas. Standard reagents (acetonitrile, methanol, chloroform, acetic acid and dibutylamine acetate concentrate) were acquired from Sigma Aldrich (Saint Luis, MO). Differentially expressed metabolites in each condition were identified using moderate t-statistic implemented in the R/Bioconductor package limma<sup>46</sup>, using sex as a covariate. Metabolites with a nominal P-value < 0.05 and q-value < 0.25 were selected for metabolic set enrichment analysis using one-sided Fisher's exact test against all metabolites annotated in each KEGG pathway. Metabolomic results are provided in Supplementary Table 5.

## Histological analysis

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Kidneys and intestines were fixed in 4% paraformal dehyde in PBS and stored in 50% ethanol. Fixed tissues were embedded in paraffin by standard procedures. Blocks were sectioned (5  $\mu$ m) and stained with hematoxylin and eosin and Masson trichrome (H&E, MT, kidney) and periodic acid Schiff-alcian blue (PAS-AB, intestine). Renal perivascular fibrosis was analyzed/graded from 0 to 4, by using a histology damage score (0: no lesion; 1: focal lesion; 2: multifocal mild lesion; 3: multifocal moderate lesion; 4: diffuse, moderate or severe damage). Five fields were scored from each slide.

### Statistical analysis

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Number of mice allocated per group was based on previous experiments and their distribution was randomized, being indicated in each Figure legend. Comparisons between two groups following normal distribution were performed using a two-tailed Student's t-test, while one-factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used for comparisons of three or more groups. Unless specified in the Figure legends, adjusted pvalues were obtained using Tukey's correction. For non-parametric distributions, the Wilcoxon rank-sum and Kruskal-Wallis test (the latter followed by the Dunnett post-hoc test) were performed for comparisons between two groups or three or more groups, respectively. Survival analysis was performed by using the Kaplan-Meier method and statistical differences were analyzed with the Log-rank (Mantel-Cox) test (GraphPad Prism 6.0 and survival R package). Body weight curves were analyzed using a linearmixed effect model (lme4 R package). The hazard ratio was calculated using a Cox proportional hazards regression model (survival R package). Sample sizes for lifespan experiments were chosen with a power of 80%, based on our previous studies 16,28,47. Maximal survival was calculated using Fisher's test at 80th percentile. Plots were generated with GraphPad Prism 6.0 and RStudio (using ggplot2 R package), and edited with Illustrator CC (21.0.0). Statistical analysis was performed using RStudio and GraphPad Prism 6.0. Exact P-values are indicated in each figure.

# Reporting summary

776 Further information on research design is available in the Nature Research Life 777 Sciences Reporting Summary linked to this article. 778 779 **Data availability statement** 

780 Sequence data supporting these findings have been deposited in EGA under with 781 accession number EGAS00001003656. Metabolomics data are provided in the 782 Supplementary Table 5. Any additional data generated and analyzed in this study are 783 available from the corresponding authors upon reasonable request.

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