Title:

Comparative genomics reveals signatures of distinct metabolic

strategies and gene loss associated with *Hydra* immortality

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Abstract

Hydra is a freshwater cnidarian genus that provides a unique comparative model for aging research, contrasting the immortal *H. vulgaris* with the aging-inducible *H. oligactis.* Here, we report a high-quality, chromosome-level genome assembly of *H. vulgaris* strain AEP.JNIG. Our assembly is comparable in quality to existing resources, facilitating the analysis of genomic diversity across laboratory strains. Epigenomic profiling revealed that gene-body hypermethylation correlates with transcriptional stability and the suppression of spurious transcription in evolutionary conserved genes, suggesting an epigenetic mechanism for genomic integrity. Furthermore, comparative genomics demonstrated that while *Hydra* conserves fundamental *Hallmarks of Aging* pathways, the immortal *H. vulgaris* paradoxically lacks canonical anti-aging genes (e.g., Klotho, NAMPT) found in the aging-inducible *H. oligactis*. Instead, *H. vulgaris* exhibits a distinct metabolic signature related to mitochondrial energy production and NTP synthesis. Collectively, our comparative genomics results suggest multiple potential mechanisms associated with the *H. vulgaris* immortality and the aging traits of *H. oligactis*, providing novel targets for future functional studies.

Introduction

Hydra is a freshwater cnidarian that can be maintained in the laboratory in mass culture [1–3]. Based on its distinctive traits including potent regenerative capacity and both sexual and asexual modes of reproduction, *Hydra* has been widely studied in fields such as stem cell biology, regeneration, and aging [4–6]. In particular, *Hydra vulgaris* is one of the few organisms in which negligible senescence has been demonstrated by long-term population monitoring of mortality and fertility [7,8]. Aging organisms exhibit progressive decline in physiological function and accumulation of pathological changes over time, characterized by an increase in mortality rate (Gompertz curve) [9,10]. On the other hand, *H. vulgaris* maintains a flat Gompertz curve [8], suggesting its immortality. This remarkable trait is thought to be supported by the continuous self-renewal capacity of its stem cell populations, regulated by genes including FoxO and TCF/β-catenin [11–13]. Interestingly, *H. oligactis*, another species within the *Hydra* genus, shows increased mortality and physiological deterioration after sexual reproduction when transferred to 10 °C [14]. This inducible aging phenotype has been attributed to the depletion of interstitial stem cells (ISCs) [15,16].

Hydra also constitutes an apparent exception to evolutionary theories of aging. These theories generally propose that organismal aging reflects an evolutionary trade-off that favors an energy-saving strategy, in which ensuring germline accuracy is essential, whereas maintaining somatic cell integrity is often a dispensable expenditure [17,18]. Therefore, whereas many long-lived species delay reproduction until later developmental stages, a pattern consistent with such theoretical predictions, *Hydra* attains sexual maturity early in life yet retains an extended lifespan [8].

What might be the origin of these unique aging traits in *Hydra*? While organismal aging is generally considered a complex process involving both genetic and environmental factors,

empirical evidence suggests that genetic components represent the primary determinant.

Multiple findings support this proposition. First, maximum lifespan and aging patterns

described by Gompertz curves show species-specific differences [10]. Second, multiple aging-

related genes and pathways have been identified, such as Klotho, progeroid syndrome-related

genes including DNA repair and nuclear integrity, and NAD^+-related pathways [22]. The

Hallmarks of aging provides a comprehensive framework that summarizes genes and

biological processes in aging [21]. Third, tissue and organismal aging is closely associated

with the resilience of tissue stem cells, which is also determined by genomic information [22].

Lastly, a recent study demonstrated that the heritability of intrinsic life span is approximately

50%, suggesting that genetic control over longevity is comparable to other complex traits [23].

Therefore, comparative genomic analysis may provide critical insights into the genetic

elements underlying the immortality observed in *H. vulgaris.*

While high-quality whole-genome assembly for the *H. vulgaris* strain AEP (North American

strain) [24], originally established in North America [25], provides useful references for

comparative genomics, they do not capture the full extent of intra-species genomic variation.

Such variation may arise from spontaneously occurring mutants in laboratory cultures. Indeed,

independent maintenance of laboratory populations or colonies can generally lead to genomic

divergence across species [26,27]. In *H. vulgaris* 105 (formerly *H. magnipapillata*) maintained

by asexual budding, the stem cells have accumulated mutations at even slightly higher rates

than those in mammals, with some under positive selection [28]. Distinct types of transposable

elements, such as the CR1 LINE element, are inserted into stem cell genomes, further

contributing to genomic divergence [29,30]. These suggest that the *Hydra* genome can change

over long-term cultures in laboratories, even when the animals reproduce asexually.

To avoid risks of overlooking population-specific variants that can affect phenotypic traits, at

least two high-quality reference genomes from independently maintained *H. vulgaris*

populations are desirable. To address this, we sequenced and assembled a

chromosome-level genome for the *H. vulgaris* AEP strain maintained at the National Institute

of Genetics, Mishima, Japan (hereafter *H. vulgaris* strain AEP.JNIG) [31], thereby expanding

available genomic resources for this species. We verified that *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG forms a

monophyletic group with other *H. vulgaris* strains, including AEP and 105, and is the most

closely related to AEP, while chromosomal analyses revealed substantial structural

differences, confirming genome-level divergence among populations. Building on these data,

we conducted a comparative analysis of aging-related genes and pathways using the

genomes of three *H. vulgaris* strains and the aging species *H. oligactis* [24]. By comparing

signaling pathways and genes tied to the *Hallmarks of Aging* [21], we identified gene sets that

differ between aging and non-aging species. From these comparisons, we characterized

genomic differences between *H. vulgaris* and representative aging animals, including *H.*

oligactis, and identified candidate genes potentially associated with *H. vulgaris* immortality.

Results

Chromosome-level genome assembly of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG

The *H. vulgaris* population maintained at the National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Japan (*H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG, Fig 1A) was investigated. We independently sequenced and assembled the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genome as part of the Japanese *Hydra* resource; during the course of our work, a genome assembly of an *H. vulgaris* AEP strain maintained in the US was published [24]. The availability of both assemblies allowed us to evaluate the quality of the AEP.JNIG genome and to perform population-level comparisons of genomic variation.

The whole genome sequence of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genome was initially collected as the assemblies of Illumina paired-end reads and Nanopore long reads. We obtained 82,804,328,738 bp of paired-end short reads and 168,380,136,564 bp of Nanopore long reads with an N50 read length of 3,493 bp (Table 1). *De novo* assembly was performed using these sequences with Phased Error Correction and Assembly Tool (PECAT) [32] (see Materials and Methods for details). The initial genome assembly had a total size of 954,340,183 bp, consisting of 248 contigs. The longest contig was 61,504,050 bp, the contig N50 was 9,577,232 bp, the contig L50 was 30, and the GC content was 27.94%. (Table 2).

To construct a chromosome-level genome assembly, 398,191,666 Hi-C read pairs were generated from the same clone. We scaffolded the initial genome assembly using the Hi-C reads with HiC-pro [33] and YaHS [34] (see Materials and Methods for details). Fifteen chromosome-level scaffolds were obtained, each showing strong intra-chromosomal contact signals in the Hi-C contact map (Fig 1B). The total size of the final assembly was 922,069,947 bp, the largest scaffold was 86,117,336 bp, scaffold N50 was 63,895,935 bp, the contig L50 was 7, and the GC content was 27.88% (Table 2).

We evaluated the accuracy and completeness of the final genome assembly by searching for

sets of BUSCO (v 5.8.3) [35] using the metazoa odb10 database [36]. We identified 904

complete BUSCO genes out of 954 (94.7%), consisting of 879 single-copy genes (92.1%) and

25 duplicated genes (2.6%). 11 BUSCO genes were identified as fragmented (1.2%), and 39

BUSCO genes were missing (4.1%) (Fig 1C and Table 3). These assembly results are

comparable to those for the *H. vulgaris* AEP genome [24] (Tables 2 and 3), supporting the

sufficient quality of our genome assembly dataset. We further created gene models based on

this chromosome-level assembly and the transcriptome using BREAKER2 [37] and evaluated

BUSCO scores. This analysis identified 891 complete BUSCO genes out of 954 (93.4%),

consisting of 772 single-copy genes (80.9%) and 119 duplicated genes (12.5%). 14 BUSCO

genes were fragmented (1.5%), and 49 BUSCO genes were missing (5.1%). Again, these

results are also comparable to those for the AEP genome [24] (Table 4).

To further confirm the chromosome-level integrity of our AEP strain, we also performed

karyotyping (Fig 1D-F). Our microscopic observations predominantly indicate the karyotype of

2n = 30, with a few exceptions likely due to artifacts during sample preparations (Fig 1E, S1

Fig). Importantly, the absence of any karyotypes with 2n > 32 strongly suggests that *H. vulgaris*

AEP.JNIG does not possess extra chromosome pairs compared to other *H. vulgaris* strains.

Therefore, we conclude that the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG has a karyotype of 2n = 30 (Fig 1F).

170   Comparison of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genome with AEP genome

171   revealed overall conservation of chromosomal structure

To determine the phylogenetic relationship between our strain and the other *Hydra* strains,

we performed species tree reconstruction using a large-scale phylogenomic dataset (a

multiple sequence alignment of 981,632 amino acid positions from 954 proteins) from 31

metazoan organisms including those of two other *H. vulgaris* strains and 2 holozoan protists

[24,29,38] (see Materials and Methods for details) (Fig 2A). The resulting species tree robustly

placed *H. vugaris* AEP.JNIG as the closest relative of the *H. vulgaris* AEP strain. Furthermore,

in order to see whether there is any strain closer to AEP.JNIG than AEP, we extracted four

genes (*COI*, *COII*, *EF1α*, *Cnnos1*) from the AEP.JNIG genome and made a phylogenetic tree

with other strains using a dataset previously published [31]. In all cases, *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG

formed a monophyletic group with *H. vulgaris* AEP (S2 Fig), further corroborating a close

phylogenetic relationship between *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG and *H. vulgaris* AEP.

To characterize the degree of genetic divergence between AEP and AEP.JNIG, we compared

their genomes using D-GENIES [39] and GENESPACE [40] (Fig 2B and 2C). The dot plot

from the genome alignment between these two genome sequences by D-GENIES revealed

prominent diagonal lines, indicating a high degree of collinearity between them (Fig 2B). The

ribbon plot from the gene syntenic analysis result by the GENESPACE demonstrated overall

correspondence at the chromosomal level (Fig 2C). We then used plotsr [41] and SyRI [42]

to visualize the detailed genomic structural variations such as inversions, translocations, and

duplications, and to quantify both structural and sequence-level differences including SNPs

and indels. In total, 954 syntenic regions were identified, covering 796 Mb of the AEP

assembly and 789 Mb of the AEP.JNIG assembly. In addition, 360 inversions (31.5 Mb) and

660 translocations (31.5 Mb) were also detected, along with numerous duplication events

(239 in the AEP and 2,073 in the AEP.JNIG) (Fig 2D and S3A Fig). At the sequence level,

1,833,472 SNPs, 648,211 insertions (5.4 Mb in total), and 261,207 deletions (4.7 Mb in total)

were identified (S3A Fig). Together, these results indicate that overall chromosomal

organization is largely conserved between the two strains, despite substantial accumulation

of sequence-level variation. Although we observed structural variations between the AEP and

AEP.JNIG assemblies, we cannot entirely rule out the possibility that some of these

differences arise from misassemblies in either genome. However, given the strong signals

observed in the Hi-C contact maps for both assemblies, such artifacts are likely minimal.

We also examined the transposable element (TE) landscape of the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG

assembly using Earl Grey (v6.3.3) [43]. Repetitive elements comprised 78.4% of the total

genome (Table 5). DNA transposons were the most abundant class, representing 35.8% of

the genome, and LINEs accounted for 15.2%. By contrast, LTR and Rolling-circle elements

were relatively rare (1.0% and 1.0%, respectively). For direct comparison, we applied the

same analysis to the *H. vulgaris* AEP assembly. The overall repeat content (77.7%) and

element composition were similar between the two populations, although LINEs and

Peneopes were slightly more abundant in AEP.JNIG (Table 6), indicating general consistency

between the two assemblies. Despite slight differences in subfamily composition, TE

landscape comparisons between the AEP.JNIG and AEP assemblies showed overall

consistency (S3B and S3C Figs).

DNA Methylation within gene bodies contributes to transcriptional

stability (homeostasis) of conserved genes in *H. vulgaris*

Leveraging the methylation signal in the Nanopore reads, we examined genome-wide mCpG

distribution in *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG using Dorado (v0.7.1) and Modkit (v0.4.3) (see Materials

and Methods). A mosaic methylation pattern was observed across the genome, with stably

methylated and unmethylated regions interspersed. Centromeric regions identified by

quarTeT (v1.2.5) [44] had low DNA methylation (Fig 3A).

We next compared methylation levels across genomic features. DNA methylation levels in

promoters, exons, introns, and intergenic regions exhibited bimodal distributions, with distinct

peaks corresponding to highly and weakly methylated regions. The methylation levels within

gene regions were higher on average than those within promoter and intergenic regions (Fig

3B and S4A Fig). Repetitive elements also exhibited a bimodal methylation pattern. Among

repeat classes, LINEs and LTRs tended to be more highly methylated, a trend that is clearer

in the boxplots (Fig 3C and S4B Fig).

We further analyzed the relationship between DNA methylation and gene expression in our

dataset. We focused on conserved genes, defined as orthologs shared across the 33

holozoans (see Materials and Methods), because conserved genes have been reported to be

hypermethylated in multiple species, including cnidarians [45,46]. Consistent with these

reports, conserved genes in our data showed higher methylation than other genes (Fig 3D).

Conserved genes tended to be more highly expressed and exhibited less variation in

expression levels (Fig 3E and 3F), suggesting a link between methylation and stable gene

regulation. Finally, the ratio of transcription levels between exon 1 and downstream exons, a

measure of potential spurious transcription [47], was negatively correlated with exon

methylation, and this correlation was more pronounced for conserved genes than for other

genes (Fig 3G).

These results suggest that genomic methylation, particularly within gene bodies, may help

stabilize higher expression levels and suppress spurious transcription, especially in conserved

genes. This observation is consistent with findings in other cnidarians, such as coral [47].

Aging-related orthologs are conserved in *Hydra* comparable to other

aging model species

We then investigated aging-related orthologs in immortal *H. vulgaris* strains (105 [38], AEP

[24], and AEP.JNIG (this study)) and the aging species *H. oligactis* [24] in comparison with

other model organisms, including *Homo sapiens*, *Mus musculus*, *Drosophila melanogaster*,

and *Caenorhabditis elegans*. To reduce the impact of incomplete genome assemblies or gene

annotations, we integrated orthogroup information across three *H. vulgaris* strains, treating an

orthogroup as present when it was detected in any one of the strains.

First, we manually compiled a list of aging-related genes based on the *Hallmarks of Aging*

framework [21]. Specifically, genes explicitly mentioned in the original paper were directly

included. For hallmarks described at the level of signaling pathways rather than individual

genes, constituent genes were identified primarily using the KEGG Pathway database [48].

When pathways were not clearly defined or fully represented in KEGG, additional genes were

identified using the Gene Ontology (GO) database and relevant literature. The complete list of

genes is summarized in S1 Table. Subsequently, we used OrthoFinder [49] to construct

orthogroups based on predicted protein sequences derived from genome assemblies,

supplementing the analysis with BLAST searches. Finally, we examined the orthogroups

annotated with these aging-related genes. The presence of a sequence from a given species

within an orthogroup was taken as evidence that the species possesses the corresponding

gene.

Our analysis revealed that *Hydra* (both *H. vulgaris* and *H. oligactis*) conserve a substantial

proportion of genes associated with key aging-related pathways, such as autophagy,

proteostasis, DNA damage repair, mitochondrial quality control, stem cell regulation, insulin

receptor signaling, NAD signaling, and cGAS-STING signaling (Fig 4A and S5 Fig). For

instance, approximately 93% of the genes in the KEGG autophagy pathway (107/115) and

93% in the base excision repair pathway (39/42) were identified in *H. vulgaris* (see S2 Table

for details). These findings are consistent with previous reports [50–52] and suggest that the

fundamental mechanisms of aging mediated by these genes are likely conserved across

species, including the immortal *H. vulgaris* (Fig 4A).

Furthermore, a cross-species comparison of the total number of aging-related orthologs

revealed that *Hydra* shares a larger number of conserved orthologs with humans than do *D.*

melanogaster and *C. elegans* (Fig 4B). This indicates that *Hydra* has retained a highly

conserved repertoire of aging-related genes, despite its significant evolutionary distance from

traditional model organisms. Our results are supported by previous work using Reciprocal

Best Hit (RBH) analysis, which similarly showed that *H. vulgaris* possesses a greater number

of human orthologs than either *D. melanogaster* or *C. elegans* [53].

Therefore, these results substantiate the potential of *Hydra* as a model organism for aging

research, offering a unique opportunity to investigate conserved mechanisms of organismal

aging across the metazoan tree of life.

Comparative Analysis between *H. vulgaris* and *H. oligactis* reveals aging-related orthologs

Finally, we conducted a comparative orthogroup analysis between *H. vulgaris* and *H. oligactis*,

particularly aiming at the identification of gene sets related to their aging or immortal traits. As

was in Fig 4, we used the integrated dataset for *H. vulgaris* orthogroups. To confirm the

absence of these orthogroups in each species, a BLAST search [54] was performed (see

Materials and Methods). This analysis revealed that *H. vulgaris* possessed 33 unique

orthogroups that were not detected in *H. oligactis*, while *H. oligactis* contained 65 unique

orthogroups (Fig 5A and 5B; S3 Table).

To explore their biological functions, we performed Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment, KEGG

pathway, and Reactome pathway analyses using clusterProfiler (v4.16.0) [55] (Figs 5C and

5D; S6 Fig; S4 Table). Intriguingly, terms related to oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) were

enriched in both species (e.g., adjusted p-value = 4.60E-5 for *H. oligactis* and 9.72E-4 for *H.*

vulgaris in GO-biological processes (GO-BP); S4 Table). However, the specific genes

contributing to these terms are contrasted. Unique genes identified in the *H. oligactis* GO-BP

terms included α-synuclein (SNCA), mitochondrial deoxyguanosine kinase (DGUOK), and

components of complexes I (NDUFA10, MT-ND3), III (MT-CYB), IV (MT-CO2/CO3), and V

(MT-ATP6). In contrast, *H. vulgaris* uniquely possessed different components of complexes I

(NDUFA3/B7), III (UQCR10/11), and V (ATP5F1E). The analysis also revealed species-

specific terms regarding nucleic acid metabolic processes. For instance, *H. oligactis*-specific

orthogroups were enriched for GO-BP terms such as "purine deoxyribonucleoside

monophosphate metabolic process" (adjusted p-value = 8.29E-7), "purine nucleotide

metabolic process" (adjusted p-value = 2.99E-6), and "amide metabolic process" (adjusted p-

value = 3.71E-5) (Fig 5C and S4 Table). Conversely, in *H. vulgaris*, major GO-BP terms related

to NTP synthesis were enriched, such as "ATP biosynthetic process" (adjusted p-value =

9.72E-4) and "purine nucleoside triphosphate biosynthetic process" (adjusted p-value = 1.10E-

3) (Fig 5D and S4 Table). These contrasting results suggest species-specific characteristics

in energy production and metabolic processes.

We further narrowed our analysis to aging-related genes and pathways unique to each species.

By intersecting the species-specific orthogroups with the aging-related genes associated with

the *Hallmarks of Aging* (Fig 4 and S1 Table), we identified twelve [SNCA, FUT1/2, NAMPT,

BLVRB, SCD/SCD5, DPT, RBP3, IRG family (IRGC, IRGM), MPG, POLR2L, CD14, Klotho

family (KLB, LCT, LCTL, KL, GBA3)] and five [MON1A/1B, TOMM7, SS18 family (SS18,

SS18L1/2), PCLAF, RPS29] unique orthogroups for *H. oligactis* and *H. vulgaris*, respectively

(Fig 5B). Extending our comparative analysis to 29 other holozoan species revealed that the

twelve aging-related orthogroups identified in *H. oligactis* are largely conserved across these

taxa. Notably, both humans and mice possess the complete set of these twelve orthogroups

(Fig 5E). Conversely, the five orthogroups initially identified as unique to the immortal *H.*

vulgaris were found to be present in the other 29 species (Fig 5E). This suggests that these

orthogroups are unlikely to be the primary drivers of the immortal phenotype. Consequently,

we focused our subsequent investigation on the twelve *H. oligactis*-specific orthogroups.

These twelve orthogroups possess well-known functions in aging processes. α-synuclein

(SNCA) is a key molecule implicated in Parkinson's disease and mitochondrial oxidative

phosphorylation (OXPHOS) deficiency [56]. Nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD) is

widely recognized for its association with aging [57,58], and upregulation of genes involved in

NAD^+ biosynthesis accompanies lifespan extension [59]. Nicotinamide

phosphoribosyltransferase (NAMPT) functions as a rate-limiting enzyme in NAD^+ biosynthesis,

while biliverdin reductase B (BLVRB) is an NAD(P)H-dependent reductase involved in

antioxidant defense. Stearoyl-CoA desaturase (SCD/SCD5) has been linked to brain aging in

humans and mouse models of Alzheimer's disease through its role in the synthesis of

unsaturated fatty acids [60,61]. N-methylpurine DNA glycosylase (MPG) is involved in the

base excision repair (BER) pathway, potentially contributing to the DNA damage response

associated with aging, and is known to be upregulated in long-lived mammals [59,62]. The

presence of RNA polymerase II, I, and III subunit L (POLR2L) may be related to aging-

associated changes in transcriptional integrity [63,64]. Finally, it is intriguing that Klotho family

molecules are absent in *H. vulgaris*. *Klotho* is a well-known anti-aging gene whose knockout

in mice causes premature aging [65]. Although the absence of Klotho in the immortal *H.*

vulgaris appears inconsistent with the findings in mice, it suggests that the dependence on

Klotho-mediated pathways, such as phosphate and vitamin D metabolism, may be essential

for conferring the aging traits.

Collectively, these comparative analyses offer insights to address fundamental biological

questions: specifically, how *H. vulgaris* acquired the immortal trait (or conversely, lost the

aging trait) and what constitutes the essential genes and pathways underlying organismal

aging.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to establish a chromosome-level genome assembly and accompanying epigenomic resources for *H. vulgaris* strain AEP.JNIG and offer insights into *H. vulgaris* immortality through comparative genome analysis.

We established a chromosome-level genome assembly for *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG with quality metrics comparable to the previously reported AEP strain (BUSCO: 94.7%; Scaffold N50: 63.9 Mb). Using the new high-quality genome assembly and accompanying gene annotations, we clarified the relationship of our strain to other *H. vulgaris* strains. Our analyses demonstrate that *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG forms a monophyletic group with *H. vulgaris* AEP. This close relationship was consistently supported by both a phylogenomic dataset including multiple *H. vulgaris* strains as well as single-gene analyses incorporating a broader taxonomic sampling of *Hydra* laboratory strains and natural isolates.

Despite the phylogenetic proximity of the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG and *H. vulgaris* AEP, through detailed comparison between the two genomes, we detected a substantial accumulation of SNPs and indels, along with numerous inversions and duplications. These genomic variations likely reflect "laboratory drift" driven by long-term asexual reproduction, consistent with recent findings that asexual lineages accumulate somatic mutations at high rates [28,66] and undergo structural changes such as Robertsonian translocations [29]. Together, these findings highlight substantial genomic diversity within the species, establishing the AEP.JNIG assembly as a crucial resource that complements the existing *H. vulgaris* genomes.

In addition to the genome assembly, we provide foundational resources for epigenomic analyses, including single-nucleotide 5-methylcytosine (5mC) calls and transposable element (TE) annotations. Our Nanopore signal-based analysis identified a global methylation level of

19%, which is lower than the 27% previously estimated by bisulfite sequencing [67]. This

difference likely reflects the improved accuracy of signal-based detection, which is particularly

advantageous for analyzing repeat-rich genomes like *Hydra* [68]. We confirmed that the *H.*

vulgaris genome exhibits a characteristic methylation feature of invertebrates [69], where gene

bodies are hypermethylated while promoters and putative centromeres remain

hypomethylated. Further, we found the potential functional link between DNA methylation and

transcriptional stability. We observed that hypermethylation within gene bodies, particularly in

evolutionary conserved genes, correlates with high expression levels and low transcriptional

noise (spurious transcription). This finding suggests that gene body methylation serves as a

mechanism to maintain transcriptional fidelity and homeostasis in *Hydra*, aligning with findings

in other cnidarians such as corals [47,70]. The robust methylation-based stabilization of the

transcriptome, together with the loss of an RNA polymerase component (POLR2L) (Fig 5),

may represent a key machinery for *Hydra*'s negligible senescence. Given that epigenetic

alterations relates to the progress of aging, and that species-specific epigenetic signatures

have recently been shown to determine maximum lifespan in mammals [71], *Hydra* serves as

a unique model for investigating how an organism can escape these epigenetic constraints.

Finally, to interrogate the genetic basis of *Hydra* immortality, we employed a comparative

genomics approach contrasting the immortal *H. vulgaris* with the aging-inducible *H. oligactis*,

consistent with recent frameworks emphasizing comparisons between exceptional species

and related controls [72]. Our orthology analysis confirmed that *Hydra* shares a larger

repertoire of aging-related orthologs with humans than do traditional invertebrate models [53]

and highly conserves genes associated with the *Hallmarks of Aging*. This supports the view

that aging mechanisms are ancestral [73], suggesting *Hydra* achieves immortality by robustly

regulating these pathways rather than lacking them.

Intriguingly, however, we identified a counter-intuitive divergence: potential anti-aging genes

(e.g., Klotho, NAMPT, MPG) are unique to the aging *H. oligactis* and absent in the immortal

H. vulgaris. Additionally, metabolic signatures differed, with *H. vulgaris* enriched for ATP

synthesis pathways and *H. oligactis* for amide/purine metabolism pathways. We hypothesize

that *H. vulgaris*, inhabiting thermally stable environments [74], has optimized an efficient

energy metabolism that minimizes cellular damage, such as the synthesis of reactive oxygen

species. In contrast, the presence of metabolic regulators like Klotho in *H. oligactis*, living in a

cooler environment and sensitive to heat [74,75], implies complexity and trade-offs in the

metabolic system, consistent with an evolutionary aging theories such as antagonistic

pleiotropy [73]. Thus, *H. vulgaris* may maintain immortality by relying on a simpler homeostatic

system that avoids dependence on signaling pathways prone to age-dependent deterioration

and damage accumulation. From the viewpoint of evolutionary aging theories, it would be

intriguing to investigate mechanisms by which sexual reproduction triggers senescence in *H.*

oligactis, particularly within the context of the metabolic trade-offs imposed by its distinct

genetic background.

Several limitations of this study should be noted. First, our comparative analysis relies on

orthology with human aging-related genes defined by the *Hallmarks of Aging*. This approach

may overlook lineage-specific aging mechanisms unique to cnidarians. Additionally, despite

rigorous BLAST validation (e-value $< 10^{-5}$), the large evolutionary distance may lead to

potential undetected orthologs due to sequence divergence. Second, and most importantly,

the functional roles of the identified candidate genes (e.g., *H. oligactis*-specific genes) and the

causal link between DNA methylation and transcriptional stability remain to be experimentally

verified. Future studies employing functional assays, such as gene knockdown or transgenic

approaches, are essential to confirm the biological significance of these genomic findings for

Hydra aging and immortal traits.

In conclusion, our study provides an additional genomic resource comprising a new high-

quality, chromosome-level assembly of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG, which facilitates the analysis of

genomic variation across independent laboratory populations. We also present a robust DNA

methylation profile derived from Nanopore sequencing signals, offering a foundation for future

epigenetic studies in cnidarians. Furthermore, through comparative genomics, we offer novel

insights into the potential genomic origins of *H. vulgaris* immortality, highlighting distinct

metabolic strategies and the evolutionary trade-offs associated with anti-aging genes.

Collectively, these resources and findings further establish *Hydra* as a robust and unique

model for advancing the comparative biology of aging. To fully interrogate the questions

regarding immortality in *Hydra*, more extensive analyses are required, including investigations

into individual gene functions, the system-level input-output characteristics of entire pathways,

and genetic loss- and gain-of-function assays.

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COI disclosure

There is no COI of all the authors regarding this study.

Data Availability

The genome assembly of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG has been deposited in NCBI with BioProject ID: PRJNA1413991 and BioSample accession: SAMN54890366.

Author contributions

E.A.S., K.N., K.K., and A.S. conceived and directed the study. H.S. maintained and provided *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG resource. A.S. prepared the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genomic DNA and RNA samples for sequencing. K.A. performed the Hi-C sequencing and analysis. K.K., T.K., K.K-N., and K.A. assembled the genome data. K.N. and K.K. performed the genomic comparison between AEP.JNIG and AEP, whole-genome methylation analysis, and comparative genome analysis. K.K. performed the karyotyping experiment. E.A.S., T.K., and K.A. acquired funding. E.A.S., K.N., and K.K. mainly wrote the manuscript. All authors discussed the results and commented on the manuscript.

Materials and Methods

Hydra strain and culture

A *Hydra vulgaris* strain maintained as AEP at the Japan National Institute of Genetics (JNIG) was acquired and cultured at Juntendo University using standard procedures. Briefly, the animals were kept at 20ºC in the *Hydra* medium (1 mM Tris-HCl pH7.6, 1 mM $CaCl_2$, 1 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM KCl, 0.1 mM $MgSO_4$) and were fed brine shrimp (*Artemia franciscana*) three times a week.

Genome and RNA-Seq sequencing

For clean genomic DNA extraction, 100 polyps of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG polyps were starved for 10 days in the presence of antibiotics (50 µg/mL of ampicillin, rifampicin, neomycin, and streptomycin) and herbicide (3-(3,4-dichlorophenyl)-1,1-dimethylurea (DCMU), 5 µM) to eliminate possible algal contaminants. Whole genomic DNA was then extracted using WiZard HMW DNA Extraction Kit (Promega, Cat. No. A2920) and sent for sequencing.

Nanopore sequencing was done using the instrument PromethION with the flowcell version R.9.4.1. The basecalling was done using Guppy version 5.0 (https://nanoporetech.com/ja/software/other/guppy/). The qualities of the reads were assessed using NanoPlot (https://github.com/wdecoster/NanoPlot) [76]. Short-read genome sequencing libraries were also prepared from the extracted genomic DNA using the Truseq DNA PCR-Free kit and 150 bp paired-end reads were sequenced on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 platform.

The Hi-C sequencing library was prepared from 100 polyps of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG with EpiTect Hi-C Kit (Qiagen) according to manufacturer's instructions and was sequenced on NovaSeq X Plus (Illumina) as 150 bp paired-end reads.

Karyotyping

Karyotyping was performed with minor modifications to a previously described protocol for
various invertebrates [77]. To increase the number of proliferating cells [78], *H. vulgaris*
AEP.JNIG polyps were heavily fed in the morning and, 12 hours later, treated with 0.1%
nocodazole for 1 hour at room temperature. The organisms were then fixed in Carnoy's fixative
(methanol : acetic acid = 3 : 1) for 30 minutes on ice. Fixed *Hydra* bodies were transferred to
glass slides and incubated with a few drops (~30 µL) of 60% acetic acid for 5 minutes at room
temperature. Siliconized coverslips prepared with Sigmacote (Sigma-Aldrich, Cat. No. SL2-
25ML) were placed on top of the specimens, and the tissues were gently squashed by applying
constant pressure for approximately 3 seconds to obtain a single layer of nuclei [77]. Slides
were incubated overnight at 4 °C and subsequently chilled on dry ice for 10 minutes.
Coverslips were removed using a blade while the slides remained on dry ice. After returning
to room temperature, slides were gently rinsed twice with 1x phosphate-buffered saline (PBS),
stained with 1 µg/mL 4′,6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) for 5 minutes at room temperature,
rinsed again with PBS, and mounted using ProLong Diamond (Invitrogen, Cat. No. P36965).
Samples were imaged using an in-house spinning-disk confocal microscope (Nikon Eclipse
Ti2-E equipped with a spinning-disk scanner with 100-µm-wide pinholes aligned with a Nipkow
disk (CSU-MPφ100; Yokogawa Electric) [79] and an oil-immersion lens (SR HP Apo TIRF
100XC Oil, numerical aperture [NA] = 1.49, Nikon)).

Genome assembly and annotation

The fastq files were assembled using the Phased Error Correction and Assembly Tool
(PECAT) [32] with medaka (https://github.com/nanoporetech/medaka) as a polishing tool in
the final phase of assembly.

For Hi-C scaffolding in *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG basecalled and demultiplexed reads totaling 119

Gbp were first filtered using fastp v0.19.4 [80] with -c and -g options, and the filtered reads

were processed with HiC Pro v3.1.0 [33]. Qualified reads were used to scaffold the assembly

using YAHS v1.2 [34] with default parameters. Scaffolds with length over 10 kbp were retained.

Contact map was generated using Juicer 2.20 pipeline [81]. The Hi-C contact map was curated

using the Juicebox v1.11.08 [81]. The final Hi-C contact map and genome assembly were

generated using the 'run-asm-pipeline-post-review.sh' script from the 3D-DNA pipeline [82].

The completeness of filtered genome assembly was evaluated by BUSCO v5.7.1 [35] with the

metazoa_odb10 dataset.

Prior to gene annotation, we soft-masked the assembled genome using RepeatModeler v2.0.2

and RepeatMasker v4.1.1 [83]. The soft-masked genomes were used to annotate protein-

coding genes using BRAKER v2.1.6 [37]. We used *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG whole-body RNA-

seq datasets as hints for annotation, mapped with HISAT2 v.2.2.1 [84].

The gene models annotated for the initial genome assembly were transferred to the final

assembly using Liftoff v1.6.3 [85]. Nine transcripts that were not transferred properly with the

initial Liftoff run were manually mapped to the new assembly using minimap2 [86] with the

splice mode, and the ORFs were predicted using Transdecoder [87].

Phylogenetic tree reconstruction

We constructed a proteome dataset of 31 metazoan and 2 unicellular holozoan organisms. A

workflow of constructing multiple sequence alignments based on the one described in [88]

was followed. Briefly, BUSCO v.5.8.0 [35] [35]was performed against each proteome using

metazoa_odb10. Single-copy genes were extracted from the BUSCO output of each species

and collected into individual FASTA files. These FASTA files were filtered first by the number

of species present in the dataset, with the threshold being 23 (i.e., less than 10 missing

species). PREQUAL v1.02 [89] was run with a posterior probability threshold of 0.95. Then

MAFFT v7.525 [90] was used with the "-linsi" mode, without any other optional parameters.

Divvier v1.01 [91] was used to remove regions of uncertain alignment (with the "-mincol 4 -

divvygap" option), followed by trimming using trimAl v1.5 [92] (with the "-automated1" option).

All the individual alignments were concatenated to create the final supermatrix used for the

subsequent phylogenetic analyses. A maximum-likelihood phylogenetic tree was

reconstructed using IQ-TREE2 v2.3.6 [93] under the "LG+C60+F+G" model, with branch

support assessed by the ultrafast bootstrap method (1,000 replicates).

Molecular phylogenetic trees of *Hydra* strains based on mitochondrial and nuclear genes (*COI*,

COII, *EF1α*, and *Cnnos1*) were reconstructed using the dataset used in [31]. Corresponding

genes were retrieved from the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG and the *H. vulgaris* AEP genomes and

added to the original dataset. All trees were reconstructed with IQ-TREE2 under the best-

fitting substitution models selected by ModelFinder (MFP option), with branch support

assessed using the ultrafast bootstrap method.

Detection and visualization of genomic rearrangements between *H.*

vulgaris AEP.JNIG and AEP assemblies

A dot plot was generated with D-GENIES [39] using the genomes of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG

and *H. vulgaris* AEP. Gene synteny plot was created using GENESPACE [40]. Structural

rearrangements between the two assemblies were then detected by SyRI v1.7.1 [42] using *H.*

vulgaris AEP as the reference and *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG as the query, and the results were

visualized with plotsr [41]. Gene density was calculated based on *H. vulgaris* AEP gene

models. Centromere positions were estimated from the repeat annotations identified by EDTA

v2.2.2 [94] and processed with quarTeT (v1.2.5) [44], while repeat density was calculated

using the output from Earl Grey (v6.3.3) [43].

Transposable element prediction

Transposable elements (TEs) in the *H. vulgaris* AEP and AEP. JNIG genomes were identified using Earl Grey v6.3.3 [43].

Methylation landscape analysis

The distribution of DNA methylation (mCpG) was detected from Nanopore raw signal data using Dorado (v0.7.1) (Oxford Nanopore Technologies: Dorado. https://github.com/nanoporetech/dorado.) and Modkit (v0.4.3) (Oxford Nanopore Technologies: Modkit. https://github.com/nanoporetech/modkit.). In Fig 3A the methylation frequency values output by Modkit were visualized using karyoploteR v1.32.0 [95]. Based on the gene model of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG and the genomic locations of each TE class detected by Earl Grey v6.3.3 [43], mCpG/CpG ratios calculated for each genomic region using the "modkit stats" command in Fig 3B and 3C. Promoter regions were defined as the 2,000 bp upstream of the transcription start site (TSS), and regions that were neither within genes nor promoters were defined as intergenic regions. In Fig 3D and 3E, conserved genes were defined as orthologs shared across 33 species based on the output from Orthofinder. Fig 3F displays a scatter plot in which the x-axis represents the gene body–specific mCpG/CpG ratios obtained from "modkit stats", and the y-axis shows the corresponding RNA-seq expression levels (logTPM). The conserved genes shown in Fig 3E correspond to orthologs shared among all 33 species analyzed in Fig 5.

Spurious transcription analysis

Paired-end RNA-seq reads were aligned to the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genome using HISAT2 v2.2.1 [84] with default parameters. The resulting SAM files were converted to BAM format and sorted using SAMtools v1.23 [96]. Base-level read coverage across the genome was calculated using bedtools2 v2.31.1 [97] with the command "bedtools genomecov -d". Exon-level mean coverage was then calculated by mapping the exon BED file to the per-base

coverage BED file using "bedtools map -o mean". For each gene, exon-level coverage values

were normalized by dividing by the coverage of the first exon (exon 1) of the same gene, ratios

were log-transformed using the natural logarithm for downstream comparisons. Exons with

zero or undefined coverage values were excluded. Genes were further annotated based on

two criteria: DNA methylation status and evolutionary conservation. Methylated genes were

defined as genes with mCpG/CpG ratios greater than 60%, whereas conserved genes were

defined as genes belonging to orthogroups shared across all 33 species. This produced four

groups: conserved–hypermethylated,   conserved–hypomethylated,   nonconserved–

hypermethylated, and nonconserved–hypomethylated. For each exon position (exons 1–6),

the mean log-transformed coverage ratio was calculated separately for each of the four gene

groups.

Conservation of aging related orthologous comparative Analysis of Orthologous Groups in *Hydra oligactis* and *Hydra vulgaris*

Orthologs were identified using OrthoFinder(v2.5.5) [49]. Protein sequences from 33 species

were used as input data, and the topology of the phylogenetic tree was based on the study by

[98,99], which was then confirmed by our own phylogenomic analysis. Details are provided on

the official GitHub repository (https://github.com/nojiruko/H_vulgaris_AEP.JNIG). Each

orthogroup was annotated using human protein sequences as references, and the

correspondence table of gene name and Protein stable ID obtained from Ensembl BioMart

(https://www.ensembl.org/info/data/biomart/index.html) was used. Additionally, we compared

the presence or absence of orthogroups between *Hydra oligactis* and *Hydra vulgaris, made a*

list of ortholog groups differentially present, and performed GO, KEGG, and Reactome

enrichment analyses. Enrichment analyses were conducted using ClusterProfiler v4.14.4 [55]

and ReactomePA v1.50.0 [100], with the human database referenced from org.Hs.eg.db

v3.20.0 [101].

Genes involved in aging-related pathways were determined based on López-Otín, C. *et al*.

(2023) [21]. First, we manually compiled a list of aging-related genes based on the *Hallmarks*

of Aging framework [21]. Specifically, genes explicitly mentioned in the original paper were

directly included. For hallmarks described at the level of signaling pathways rather than

individual genes, constituent genes were identified primarily using the KEGG Pathway

database [48]. When pathways were not clearly defined or fully represented in KEGG,

additional genes were identified using the Gene Ontology (GO) database and relevant

literature. The complete list of genes is summarized in S1 Table. For orthogroups showing

differential conservation between *H. oligactis* and *H. vulgaris*, we performed BLASTP (protein

query vs protein database) searches to verify whether homologous sequences were present

in the proteome of the other species, using an e-value threshold of 10^{-5}. Specifically, for

orthogroups identified in *H. oligactis* but absent in *H. vulgaris*, *H. oligactis* protein sequences

were used as BLASTP queries against the locally created proteome databases of *H. vulgaris*

AEP and *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG. Conversely, for ortholog groups found in *H. vulgaris* but

absent in *H.oligactis*, *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG protein sequences were queried against the locally

created proteome database of *H. oligactis*. Orthogroups present in at least one *H. vulgaris*

strain but not detected in *H. oligactis* were defined as *H. vulgaris*-unique. Orthogroups absent

from all three *H. vulgaris* strains but present in *H. oligactis* were defined as *H. oligactis*-unique.

 # Figure legends

Figure 1. Chromosome-level genome assembly of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG.

(A) Picture of cultured *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG. Scale bar: 1 mm.

(B) Hi-C contact map, showing the 15 chromosome-level scaffolds of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG.

Darker red indicates genomic regions with higher contact frequencies, reflecting closer spatial

proximity.

(C) Snail plot demonstrating the quality of our genome assembly.

(D) A representative image of metaphase chromosomes in *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG stained with

DAPI and observed with a scanning disk confocal microscope. Scale bar: 5 μm.

(E) Histogram of karyotypes observed in this study. Chromosome counts show a distinct peak

at 2n = 30. The absence of nuclei with 2n > 32 supports a chromosome number of 30,

consistent with our and other genome assembly data.

(F) Karyogram of *Hydra vulgaris* AEP.JNIG showing 15 chromosomes.

Figure 2. Comparison of *H. vulgaris* AEP and *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genome assemblies

(A) Maximum likelihood phylogenetic analysis of a phylogenomic dataset constructed from 33

holozoan proteomes shows that *H. vulgaris* AEP and *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG form a

monophyletic clade. Nodes marked with black dots (●) indicate 100% ultrafast bootstrap

support, while other nodes were labelled with their corresponding ultrafast bootstrap support

values. The scale bar represents 0.5 amino acid substitutions per site.

(B) A dot-plot created with D-GENIES shows that the genome of *H. vulgaris* JNIG (on the y-

axis) aligns well with that of *H. vulgaris* AEP genome [24] (on the x-axis, indicating a high

genomic similarity between the two strains. The color indicates the identity score as shown in

the legend on the right.

(C) Gene synteny plot generated by GENESPACE showing conserved synteny of orthologous

genes between the AEP and AEP.JNIG genomes. The AEP.JNIG chromosomes are shown

at the top and the AEP chromosomes at the bottom. Chromosome numbering and sequence

strand orientation were standardized to match previously published genome assemblies.

(D) Visualization of syntenic regions and structural rearrangements between chromosomes

from *H. vulgaris* AEP and *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genomes. Annotation tracks for four genomic

features (number of SNPs, genes, repetitive regions and centromeres) were included using

optional parameters above the lines showing the chromosomes of each strain. In the

annotation tracks, higher values indicate greater density.

Figure 3. DNA Methylation within Gene Bodies Contributes to Transcriptional Stability

(Homeostasis) of Conserved Genes in *H. vulgaris*

(A) Global pattern of DNA methylation in *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG genome showed that

centromeric regions had low DNA methylation. The top track shows the methylation frequency

(the probability that each base is methylated). The second track indicates the predicted

centromere positions in red, which was identified by quarTeT (v 1.2.5) [44] .

(B) Methylation level across each genomic region. The gene region was further analyzed by

dividing exon and intron regions.

(C) Methylation level of each repetitive region. The colors correspond to those used in Fig 3A.

(D) Boxplots of gene-body methylation levels in conserved (purple) and other (gray) genes.

Differences were significant (Mann-Whitney U test, $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$).

(E) Boxplots showing expression levels in the conserved (purple) and the other (gray) genes.

Differences were significant (Mann-Whitney U test, $p < 1 \times 10^{-4}$).

(F) Relationship between DNA methylation levels in gene bodies and gene expression. Purple

dots indicate conserved genes, and gray dots indicate other genes. Values indicate the

coefficient variation of each group's logTPM.

(G) Spurious transcription in gene bodies is significantly lower in the conserved and highly

methylated genes (normalized by exon length for the logFC). The y axis shows the natural

logarithm of the coverage fold change (FC) of exons 1 to 6 versus exon 1, with lower values

meaning less spurious transcription.

Figure 4. Conservation of aging-related orthologs in *Hydra*

(A) Conservation of orthologs related to the *Hallmarks of Aging*. The vertical axis lists

representative aging-related pathways (defined as KEGG terms). Each pathway was

extracted from the 12 hallmarks of aging proposed in 2023 [21]. Genes including each pathway

were listed as described in the Materials and Methods and summarized in S4 Table. Numbers

inside the circles indicate the number of conserved orthologs, and the circle size corresponds

to the number of conserved orthologs. The *Hydra* genus is highlighted in purple.

(**B**) Bar plot showing the total number of conserved aging-related orthologs identified in each

species. The y-axis represents the number of orthogroups. The *Hydra* genus is highlighted in

purple.

Figure 5. Comparative Analysis between *H. vulgaris* and *H. oligactis*

(**A**) Schematic diagram illustrating the method used to identify *H. vulgaris*- and *H. oligactis*-

specific aging-related genes. A part of figure materials was prepared using biorender.com

(permission No. JK2989SSUB).

(B) Twelve genes are present in *H. oligactis* but absent in *H. vulgaris*, whereas five genes are

present in *H. vulgaris* but not in *H. oligactis*. A total of 7,684 genes is shared between the two

species. Note that only genes annotated based on homology to human genes were included

in this analysis. We referred to the original article [21] for the factors of *Hallmarks of Aging*.

Icons for the analyzed species were referred to from PhyloPic (https://www.phylopic.org/)

under Creative Commons license.

(C) Gene Ontology (GO) enrichment analysis for biological processes was performed using

65 orthogroups present in *H. oligactis* but absent in *H. vulgaris*. The y-axis shows the top 13

significantly enriched GO terms. The x-axis represents the gene ratio, defined as the

proportion of input genes associated with each term. The color intensity of the bars indicates

the adjusted p-value (p.adj), with darker colors representing higher statistical significance.

(D) The same analysis was performed for 33 orthogroups present in *H. vulgaris* but absent in

H. oligactis.

(E) Orthogroups specific to *H. oligactis* (65 OGs) and *H. vulgaris* (33 OGs) were screened

across 33 species to identify those involved in aging-related pathways defined in this study

based on the *Hallmarks of Aging*. The final list of genes is shown on the x-axis. The y-axis

represents the species included in this analysis, ordered by phylogeny. Dots indicate the

presence of the corresponding gene in each species, while blanks indicate absence. The

colors at the top represent the *Hallmarks of Aging* categories assigned to each gene. The

names of each category and the specific terms included in them are shown on the right.

Table 1. Summary of the genome sequencing

Table 2. Assembly statistics of the *H. vulgaris* genome.

Table 3. BUSCO score from the genome assembly

Table 4. BUSCO score from the gene model

Table 5. Composition of TEs identified by Earl Grey in the genomes of *H. vulgaris* AEP.

JNIG.

Table 6. Composition of TEs identified by Earl Grey in the genomes of *H. vulgaris* AEP.

Supplementary figure legends

Figure S1. Karyotyping Data

Karyotype of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG. A total of 30 nuclei samples were examined, and the number of chromosomes were counted. The number in yellow indicates the karyotype (2n) of the corresponding image. Scale Bar = 5 µm.

Figure S2. Molecular phylogenetic trees of *Hydra* strains based on mitochondrial and nuclear genes.

Trees were reconstructed using IQ-TREE2 with best-fitting models selected by ModelFinder (MFP option). Branch support was evaluated using the ultrafast bootstrap method. *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG and *H. vulgaris* AEP sequences are shown in red and blue, respectively. *H. vulgaris* AEP sequences from [31] ("*Hydra vulgaris* AEP") and those derived from the *H. vulgaris* AEP genome [24] ("*Hydra vulgaris* AEP_genome") [24]are indicated by distinct labels. Numbers at nodes represent ultrafast bootstrap support values. Scale bars represent 0.05 nucleotide substitutions per site.

(A) A molecular phylogenetic tree based on *COI*.

(B) A molecular phylogenetic tree based on *COII*.

(C) A molecular phylogenetic tree based on *EF1α*.

(D) A molecular phylogenetic tree based on *Cnnos1*.

Figure S3. Comparison of the transposable elements between AEP.JNIG and AEP

(A) Quantitatively assessed structural and sequence variation identified by SyRI. Structural and sequence variations were identified using SyRI with the AEP assembly as the reference and the AEP.JNIG assembly as the query. Sequence lengths are shown in megabases (Mb).

(B) Transposable elements (TEs) landscape showing the distribution of repetitive elements in the genome based on Kimura distance. The x-axis represents the Kimura 2-Parameter

distance, where lower scores indicate more recent insertions into the genome, while higher

scores correspond to older insertions. The y-axis shows the total number of base pairs

contributed by each class of transposable elements at each divergence level. The pie chart

shows the components and proportions of repetitive sequences in the *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG

genome.

(C) Transposable elements (TEs) landscape of *H. vulgaris* AEP, as in B.

Figure S4. The methylation level of *H. vulgaris* AEP depicted as box plots, related to Fig 3B

and 3C.

(A) The box plot of the methylation level across each genomic region, corresponding to Fig

3B.

(B) The box plot of the methylation level of each repetitive region, corresponding to Fig 3C.

Figure S5. Conservation of aging-related orthologs in *Hydra*, related to Fig 4.

Conservation of orthologs related to the *Hallmarks of Aging*, as in Fig 4A. The vertical axis

lists representative aging-related pathways (defined as GO terms).

Figure S6. Enrichment analysis results of *H. oligactis*-specific and *H. vulgaris*-specific

orthogroups using multiple annotation databases.

(A) Results of Gene Ontology – Cellular Component (GO-CC) terms.

(B) Results of Gene Ontology – Molecular Function (GO-MF) terms.

(C) Results of KEGG pathway terms.

(D) Results of Reactome pathway terms.

In each panel, *H. oligactis*-specific orthogroups are shown on the left, whereas *H. vulgaris*-

specific orthogroups are shown on the right.

Table S1. Complete list of aging-related genes included in this study. This table provides the

full list of aging-related genes identified in this study. For each gene, the second column

indicates the associated aging-related pathways, and the third column classifies the gene

according to the *Hallmarks of Aging*.

Table S2. Summary of the conservation of aging-related genes for each pathway, related to

Fig 4 and Fig S5.

This table provides an overview of the conservation of aging-related genes identified through

GO, KEGG and literature-based searches based on the *Hallmarks of Aging* [21]. The first

column lists aging-related pathways, and the subsequent columns show the number of

conserved orthogroups in each species.

Table S3. Lists of orthogroups specific to *H. oligactis* (65 OGs) and *H. vulgaris* (33 OGs).

Each row corresponds to one orthogroup. The second column shows annotations with the

corresponding human genes. The third column shows the pathway annotation for each

aging-related gene.

Table S4. Enrichment analysis of the 33 *H. vulgaris* specific orthogroups and 65 *H. oligactis*

specific orthogroups. Significantly enriched terms (adjusted p-value < 0.05) are shown. Ten

files are provided, corresponding to all combinations of species-specific gene sets (*H.*

oligactis-specific and *H. vulgaris*-specific) and annotation databases (GO biological process,

GO cellular component, GO molecular function, KEGG, and Reactome).

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Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure 1

Nojiri, Kin *et al.* Figure 2

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure 3

A

B

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure 4

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure 5

Table 1. Summary statistics of the genome sequencing

	Total read	Total base	Read length (N50)
WGS (Illumina)	548,373,038	82,804,238,738	2x150
WGS (Nanopore)	63,239,530	168,380,136,564	3493.0
Hi-C (Illumina)	796,383,332	119,457,499,800	2x150

Table 2. Assembly statistics of the *H. vulgaris* genomes

QUAST v5.3.0	Initial assembly AEP.JNIG	Final Assembly AEP.JNIG	Published Assembly AEP (Cazet *et al*. 2023)
Total length	954,340,183	922,069,947	900,935,055
Scaffolds	248	15	15
Longest scaffold	61,504,050	86,117,336	85,887,368
N50	9,577,232	63,895,935	59,555,380
L50	30	7	7
GC content	27.94	27.88	27.77

Table 3. BUSCO scores of the *H. vulgaris* genome assemblies

BUSCO v5.8.3	Initial assembly AEP.JNIG	Final assmbly AEP.JNIG	Published Assembly AEP (Cazet *et al*. 2023)
Complete BUSCOs	889 (93.2%)	904 (94.7%)	906 (95%)
Complete and single-copy BUSCOs	820 (86.0%)	879 (92.1%)	893 (93.6%)
Complete and duplicated BUSCOs	69 (7.2%)	25 (2.6%)	13 (1.4%)
Fragmented BUSCOs	26 (2.7%)	11 (1.2%)	11 (1.2%)
Missing BUSCOs	39 (4.1%)	39 (4.1%)	37 (3.9%)
Total BUSCO group searched	954	954	954

Table 4. BUSCO scores of the gene models based on the chromosome-level genome assemblies

BUSCO v5.8.3	Final assmbly AEP.JNIG	Published Assembly AEP (Cazet *et al*. 2023)
Complete BUSCOs	891 (93.4%)	905 (94.9%)
Complete and single-copy BUSCOs	772 (80.9%)	705 (73.9%)
Complete and duplicated BUSCOs	119 (12.5%)	200 (21.0%)
Fragmented BUSCOs	14 (1.5%)	14 (1.5%)
Missing BUSCOs	49 (5.1%)	35 (3.7%)
Total BUSCO group searched	954	954

Table 5. Composition of TEs identified by Earl Grey in the genome of *H. vulgaris* AEP.JNIG

TE Classification	Coverage (bp)	Copy number	% Genome coverage	Genome size	TE family count
DNA	330,098,105	597,308	35.8	922,069,947	597,307
Rolling Circle	8,793,916	19,836	0.954	922,069,947	19,836
Penelope	23,760,322	68,248	2.58	922,069,947	68,248
LINE	140,003,727	267,317	15.2	922,069,947	267,317
LTR	9,088,772	10,622	0.986	922,069,947	10,622
Other (Simple Repeat, Microsatellite, RNA)	54,617,458	421,636	5.92	922,069,947	421,636
Unclassified	156,717,139	504,751	17.0	922,069,947	504,750
Repeat	723,079,439	NA	78.4	922,069,947	NA
Non-Repeat	198,990,508	NA	21.6	922,069,947	NA

Table 6. Composition of TEs identified by Earl Grey in the genome of *H. vulgaris* AEP

TE Classification	Coverage (bp)	Copy number	% Genome coverage	Genome size	TE family count
DNA	325,041,912	583,293	36.1	900,935,055	583,293
Rolling Circle	8,786,864	18,840	0.975	900,935,055	18,840
Penelope	20,973,039	55,171	2.33	900,935,055	55,171
LINE	138,121,823	244,363	15.3	900,935,055	244,363
LTR	9,180,297	12,122	1.02	900,935,055	12,122
Other (Simple Repeat, Microsatellite, RNA)	51,236,873	418,879	5.69	900,935,055	418,877
Unclassified	146,461,074	459,730	16.3	900,935,055	459,730
Repeat	699,801,882	NA	77.7	900,935,055	NA
Non-Repeat	201,133,173	NA	22.3	900,935,055	NA

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Tables

Nojiri, Kin *et al.***, Figure S1**

Nojiri, Kin *et al.* **Figure S2**

A

Structual annotations

Variation type	Counts	Length_ref	Length_qry
Syntenic regions	954	795720877	788696964
Inversions	360	31484124	33524687
Translocations	660	31504935	32468566
Duplications (reference)	239	5965793	-
Duplications (query)	2073	-	14204764
Not aligned (reference)	1591	60624245	-
Not aligned (query)	3516	-	57781185

Sequence annotations

Variation type	Counts	Length_ref	Length_qry
SNPs	1833472	1833472	1833472
Insertions	648211	-	5429694
Deletions	261207	4662625	-
Copy gains	119	-	2375861
Copy losses	129	1112463	-
Highly diverged	27555	125424357	119430308
Tandem repeats	369	87143	77078

B

C

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure S3

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure S4

GO term	H. sapiens	M. musculus	D. melanogasater	C. elegans	H. oligactis	H. vulgaris
GO:0004402 histone acetyltransferase activity	29	29	27	26	28	28
GO:0004407 histone deacetylase activity	11	11	11	10	11	11
GO:0005125 cytokine activity	134	133	24	30	36	35
GO:0005840 ribosome	206	206	200	191	189	189
GO:0006338 chromatin remodeling	434	434	378	335	392	393
GO:0008286 insulin receptor signaling pathway	61	61	58	55	58	56
GO:0008459 chondroitin 6-sulfotransferase activity	1	1	1	0	1	1
GO:0009008 DNA-methyltransferase activity	4	4	4	3	4	4
GO:0019985 translesion synthesis	23	23	19	18	21	22
GO:0030968 endoplasmic reticulum unfolded protein response	59	59	52	49	55	54
GO:0031012 extracellular matrix	237	237	174	169	189	187
GO:0031445 regulation of heterochromatin formation	9	9	8	8	9	9
GO:0031577 spindle checkpoint signaling	29	29	22	23	28	28
GO:0031931 TORC1 complex	6	6	6	5	6	6
GO:0032200 telomere organization	101	101	82	72	92	92
GO:0032452 histone demethylase activity	13	13	13	11	13	13
GO:0038084 vascular endothelial growth factor signaling pathway	13	13	13	10	13	13
GO:0040029 epigenetic regulation of gene expression	200	200	169	147	175	175
GO:0042054 histone methyltransferase activity	35	35	33	32	34	34
GO:0045814 negative regulation of gene expression	128	128	107	94	113	113
GO:0046902 regulation of mitochondrial membrane permeability	43	43	34	31	36	36
GO:0097472 cyclin dependent protein kinase activity	12	12	12	12	12	12
GO:0140807 NAD protein glutamate ADP ribosyltransferase activity	6	6	6	5	6	6
GO:0140896 cGAS STING signaling pathway	28	28	26	26	26	26
GO:0141137 positive regulation of gene expression	48	48	44	38	44	44
GO:1900225 regulation of NLRP3 inflammasome complex assembly	45	45	37	38	39	38

Nojiri, Kin *et al*. Figure S5

H. oligactis specifc orthogroups

H. vulgaris specifc orthogroups

A

B

C

D