Ether Lipid Biosynthesis Promotes Lifespan Extension and Enables Diverse Prolongevity Paradigms

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Abstract

Biguanides, including the world's most commonly prescribed drug for type 2 diabetes, metformin, not only lower blood sugar, but also promote longevity in preclinical models. Epidemiologic studies in humans parallel these findings, indicating favorable effects of metformin on longevity and on reducing the incidence and morbidity associated with aging-related diseases, such as cancer. In spite of these promising observations, the full spectrum of the molecular effectors responsible for these health benefits remains elusive. Through unbiased genetic screening in *C. elegans*, we uncovered a novel role for genes necessary

for ether lipid biosynthesis in the favorable effects of biguanides. We demonstrate that biguanides govern lifespan extension via a complex effect on the ether lipid landscape requires enzymes responsible for both ether lipid biogenesis and polyunsaturated fatty acid synthesis. Remarkably, loss of the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery also mitigates lifespan extension attributable to dietary restriction, target of rapamycin (TOR) inhibition, and mitochondrial electron transport chain inhibition. Furthermore, overexpression of a single, key ether lipid biosynthetic enzyme, *fard-1*/FAR1, is sufficient to promote lifespan extension. These findings illuminate the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery as a novel therapeutic target to promote healthy aging.

Significance Statement

Metformin is the most widely used drug to treat patients with type 2 diabetes and extends lifespan in multiple species, yet the molecular targets responsible for these longevity benefits remain incompletely understood. To this end, we demonstrate that a subset of lipids, known as ether lipids, are necessary for biguanides' anti-aging effects and various other paradigms of lifespan extension. Strikingly, modulation of the machinery responsible for ether lipid biosynthesis is sufficient to stimulate lifespan extension, illuminating the possibility of using these lipids as therapeutic targets to promote healthy aging.

Main Text

Introduction

Metformin is the first line therapy for type 2 diabetes and the most frequently prescribed oral hypoglycemic medication worldwide (1). Human epidemiologic studies note an association between metformin use and decreased incidence of cancer (2, 3). In addition, metformin extends lifespan in invertebrate and vertebrate models (4-6), and therefore may reduce aging-related diseases in humans (7). Nonetheless, our understanding of the molecular pathways governing the health-promoting effects of metformin is only just beginning to emerge. Our previous work identified a conserved signaling axis connecting mitochondria, the nuclear pore complex, and mTORC1 inhibition that is required for metformin-mediated extension of lifespan in *C. elegans* and inhibition of growth in worms and human cancer cells (8). The energy sensor AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) is not necessary for metformin-induced growth inhibition in *C. elegans* but is required for the drug's longevity effects (4, 6, 9). Thus, the mechanisms by which metformin exerts its beneficial effects on health are likely to be branching and complex.

The importance of ether lipids, a major structural component of cell membranes, to aging and longevity is not well established. Ether lipids are involved in the maintenance of general membrane fluidity and in the formation of lipid rafts within microdomains, which are important for promotion of membrane fusion and cellular signaling (10-12). Ether lipids have broad roles in the regulation of cell

differentiation (13-16), cellular signaling (17, 18), and reduction of oxidative stress through their action as antioxidants (19-22). Humans deficient in ether lipid biogenesis suffer from rhizomelic chondrodysplasia punctata (RCDP), a rare genetic disorder, which results in skeletal and facial abnormalities, psychomotor retardation, and is uniformly fatal typically before patients hit their teens (23). Thus, evidence linking alterations in ether lipid levels to aging and longevity in humans is strictly correlative (24, 25).

Ether lipids, which are structurally distinct from canonical phospholipids, have a unique biosynthetic pathway through which a fatty alcohol is conjugated to the glycerol backbone at the sn-1 position via an ether linkage. Ether lipid precursors are first synthesized by enzymes associated with the membranes of peroxisomes (26-28). The main enzymes involved in ether lipid biosynthesis within the peroxisomal matrix are glyceronephosphate O-acyltransferase (GNPAT) and alkylglycerone phosphate synthase (AGPS). The peroxisomal membrane-associated fatty acyl-CoA reductase 1 (FAR1) supplies most of the fatty alcohols used to generate the ether linkage in the precursor, 1-O-alkyl-glycerol-3-phosphate. This precursor is then trafficked to the endoplasmic reticulum (ER) for unique acyl chain remodeling to produce various ether lipid products (29). In *C. elegans*, loss-of-function mutations of any of the three main enzymes involved in human ether lipid biosynthesis, *acl-7*/GNPAT, *ads-1*/AGPS, and *fard-1*/FAR1, results in an inability to produce ether linked lipids, as in humans (30). Worms and human cells deficient in ether lipids exhibit compensatory changes in phospholipid species, including increases in phosphatidylethanolamines and phosphatidylcholines containing saturated fatty acids (15, 31). However, in contrast to humans, ether lipid deficient nematodes develop normally, providing an opportunity to determine the biological roles of ether lipids in aging and longevity without developmental pleiotropies.

Here, we show that the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery underlies healthy aging in *C. elegans*. Ether lipids are necessary for lifespan extension stimulated by metformin or the related biguanide phenformin. Metabolomic analysis indicates that phenformin treatment leads to changes in multiple ether lipids, primarily those with elongated and desaturated fatty acids in the sn-2 position. Interestingly, requirement for the ether lipid biosynthetic genes extends to multiple genetic paradigms used to study lifespan including defective mitochondrial electron transport function (*isp-1*), defective pharyngeal pumping/ caloric restriction (*eat-2*), and compromises in mTOR complex 1 activation (*raga-1*). Importantly, lack of ether lipid genes does not impact lifespan extension due to loss of function in the insulin receptor homolog *daf-2*, indicating that reductions in ether lipids does not simply cause non-specific sickness. Finally, overexpressing *fard-1*, the enzyme that supplies all the fatty alcohols for ether lipid biogenesis in *C. elegans*, extends lifespan, suggesting that an increase in ether lipids alone is sufficient to promote healthy aging.

Results

Genes Responsible for Ether Lipid Biosynthesis are Necessary for Biguanide-Induced Lifespan Extension. From a previous RNAi screen of ~1000 metabolic genes for knockdowns that interfere with the growth-inhibitory properties of metformin in *C. elegans* (8), we identified several genes required for ether lipid biosynthesis. Ether lipids are distinguished from canonical phospholipids as the latter contain exclusively fatty acids conjugated to glycerol, whereas ether lipids contain a fatty alcohol conjugated to the glycerol backbone at the sn-1 position via an ether linkage (Fig. 1A). Confirming our screen results, RNAi knockdown of two genes involved in ether lipid biosynthesis, *fard-1* and *acl-7*, results in significant resistance to biguanide induced growth inhibition (Fig. S1A). Our lab has previously demonstrated that biguanide effects on growth in *C. elegans* share significant overlap mechanistically with the machinery by which metformin extends lifespan in the worm (8). Indeed, loss-of-function mutations in any of three genes encoding enzymes required for ether lipid biosynthesis, *fard-1*, *acl-7* or *ads-1*, significantly suppresses lifespan extension induced by both metformin and the related biguanide phenformin (Fig. 1 B-G, Dataset S1 for tabular survival statistics and biological replicates). Confirming that these mutations confer resistance to metformin by compromising ether lipid synthetic capacity, RNAi knockdowns of *fard-1* and *acl-7* also partially impair lifespan extension promoted by phenformin (Fig. S1 B and C). Studies from this point forward are presented predominantly with phenformin because 1) phenformin is known to be more readily absorbed without need for a specific transporter, unlike metformin, (8, 32, 33) and 2) our experience indicates more consistent lifespan extension with phenformin in *C. elegans*.

Because ether lipids are a major structural component of cell membranes, one possibility is that deficiencies in ether lipid synthesis compromises drug action by reducing biguanide bioavailability in the worm. To test this, we compared the relative levels of biguanides present in vehicle- and biguanide- treated wild type to the three ether lipid synthesis mutants by LC-MS/MS. A comparison of normalized concentrations of phenformin across all four strains shows that phenformin abundance is significantly higher in phenformin-treated samples relative to the corresponding vehicle-treated controls, and that phenformin levels are similar across wild type and all three ether lipid mutant strains (Fig. 1H and Fig. S1D). Similar results were obtained when comparing levels of metformin wild type and ether lipid mutant animals (Fig. 1I and Fig. S1E). Thus, deficiency in ether lipid synthesis does not significantly impact uptake or clearance of biguanides in *C. elegans*.

Phenformin Induces Changes in Ether Lipid Metabolite Levels. We reasoned that if biguanides require ether lipid biosynthesis to promote lifespan extension that phenformin may promote changes in abundance of one or several ether lipids. To

investigate the impact of biguanides on ether lipids at a high level, we first utilized gas chromatography-mass spectrometry (GC-MS) analysis. GC-MS recapitulates the observation that *fard-1* mutants show absence of 18-carbon containing alkenyl ether lipids (also known as plasmalogens) and an accumulation of stearic acid (18:0) relative to wild type controls (Fig. 2 A and B). We then asked if phenformin impacts the levels of stearic acid and 18-carbon alkenyl ether lipids in wild type animals and if those corresponding changes are absent in *fard-1* mutants. Strikingly, phenformin-treated wildtype worms display a significant increase in 18-carbon alkenyl ether lipids (also known as plasmalogens, as in Fig. 1A) versus vehicle, whereas no such increase is evident in drug treated *fard-1* worms (Fig. 2C). In addition, relative proportions of stearic acid levels within the total fatty acid pool are significantly increased in *fard-1* mutants treated with phenformin versus vehicle treated *fard-1* controls. In comparison, the relative proportion of stearic acid does not rise in phenformin treated wild type animals, suggesting that stearate is being utilized for ether lipid production (Fig. 2D). We conclude that phenformin treatment leads to an overall increase of ether lipid levels in *C. elegans*.

To investigate changes across the entire landscape of alkyl and alkenyl ether lipids in response to phenformin, we utilized LC-MS/MS lipidomics. This method detected 270 alkyl and alkenyl ether lipids (Fig. 2E, and Dataset S2). After filtering for ether lipids significantly altered in abundance in response to phenformin, we implemented a spectral clustering model to visualize the difference of the average normalized value in wild type as compared to the three ether lipid mutants *fard-1*, *acl-7*, and *ads-1*. Two clusters of ether lipids have a significant change in metabolite concentrations in wild type worms but not *fard-1*, *acl-7*, and *ads-1* mutants treated with phenformin compared to vehicle (Fig. 2E and Table S1, clusters 1 and 3). As an orthogonal strategy, we utilized a linear model to identify ether lipids with a significant change in abundance between vehicle and biguanide treatment in wild type animals, without a corresponding change in the ether lipid deficient mutants (Fig. 2F). These two independent models 1) had strong overlap among ether lipids increased in response to phenformin (of 14 ether lipids from cluster 1 spectral clustering (Fig. 2E) and 13 increased from the linear model (Fig. 2F), 12 are overlapping, Table S1) and 2) indicate an ether lipid metabolite signature of phenformin treatment that is prevented in ether lipid biosynthetic mutants.

Three important features are evident from analysis of the lipidomics data. First, classic ether lipids containing non-oxidized fatty alcohols that significantly increase in response to phenformin treatment are far more abundant than ether lipids decreased in abundance (by mass counts, Fig. 2F and Dataset S2). In particular, the most increased ether lipid, phosphatidylglycerol(P-18:0/18:2(9Z,12Z)), is more abundant following phenformin treatment than all of the other ether lipids decreased in abundance in aggregate (8.2 million mass counts versus 4.4 million, respectively). Second, 11 of the 15 ether lipids increased in abundance from both analyses are alkenyl-type (plasmalogen) ether lipids, including those most abundant by mass counts. This data agrees with our GC/MS

data (Fig. 2C) indicating an increase in plasmalogen-type ether lipid types in response to phenformin. Third, examination of the molecular identities of the ether lipids increased in response to phenformin indicates that 9 of 15 harbor elongated, polyunsaturated fatty acids in the sn-2 position, suggesting a potential role for the enzymes implicated in the biogenesis of these fatty acids in metformin action.

Phenformin Stimulates Peroxisomal Localization of FARD-1. In order to begin to understand the governance of ether lipid biosynthesis by biguanides, we generated *C. elegans* expressing a FARD-1::RFP translational reporter from an extrachromosomal array under its own promoter (Fig. S2A). Imaging of these worms reveals that FARD-1 is expressed in intestine and appears to localize nearby structures resembling lipid droplets (Fig. S2B). Given that ether lipid biogenesis is reported to occur in peroxisomes, we crossed the FARD-1::RFP reporter to an animal bearing a GFP reporter that illuminates peroxisomes in intestine (GFP fused to a C-terminal peroxisomal targeting sequence 1(PTS1)). FARD-1::RFP fluorescence partially overlaps with peroxisomally-targeted GFP in intestine (Fig. S2C). Compellingly, treatment with phenformin leads to an increase in overlap between FARD-1::RFP and GFP::PTS1 (Pearson's R value=0.84) relative to vehicle treated controls (Pearson's R value=0.73) (Fig. S2C). The same trend is present in another biological replicate where the Pearson's correlation value for the overlap between GFP and RFP in the phenformin treated transgenic is R= 0.57 versus R= 0.39 in vehicle. These results suggest that biguanides may govern ether lipid biosynthesis by recruiting greater amounts of FARD-1 to peroxisomes.

Curiously, expression of mRNAs encoding FARD-1, ACL-7, and ADS-1 are all decreased or unchanged in abundance upon treatment with biguanide via quantitative real time RT-PCR (Fig. S2 D-I). A parallel decrease in overall levels of the FARD-1::RFP transgene was seen with phenformin treatment (Fig. S2J). These seemingly paradoxical data are consistent with the possibility that biguanides increase activity of ether lipid biosynthetic pathways post-translationally given that ether lipids have been previously reported to exert negative feedback on protein levels of FARD-1 (Honsho et al., 2010).

We surmised that if ether lipid synthesis is occurring principally in the peroxisome and that peroxisomal localization of FARD-1 was required for the longevity response to biguanides, that disruption of peroxisomal protein targeting should also impair phenformin-stimulated lifespan extension. Indeed, either *prx-5* or *prx-19* RNAi impair lifespan extension prompted by phenformin fully or partially, respectively (Fig. 3 A and B). PRX-5 is involved in protein import into the peroxisome matrix and PRX-19 is involved in proper sorting of proteins for peroxisomal biogenesis. Thus, either disruption of ether lipid biosynthetic machinery or of a principal site of ether lipid biosynthesis impairs phenformin's longevity benefit.

Functional Genomics Implicates Fatty Acid Elongases and Desaturases in Biguanide-Mediated Lifespan Extension. Analysis of specific ether lipids significantly altered in abundance in response to phenformin (Fig. 2F) indicated 13 ether lipids with long and/or polyunsaturated fatty acids at the sn-2 position. These types of fatty acids are largely synthesized endogenously in *C. elegans* by fatty acid desaturases and fatty acid elongases (34, 35) (Fig. 3C). We reasoned that these desaturases and elongases may also contribute mechanistically to biguanide mediated lifespan extension. Indeed, RNAi knockdown of three fatty acid desaturases and two fatty acid elongases in phenformin-treated *C. elegans* blunted phenformin-stimulated lifespan extension relative to empty vector controls (Fig. 3 D-H). Notably, these five genes all contribute to the production of fatty acids 18-20 carbons in length with three or more double bonds. Although knockdown of fatty acid desaturases and elongases in *C. elegans* results in inherent lifespan extension on vehicle relative to wild type controls on empty vector RNAi as has been previously reported (36, 37), these RNAi knockdown completely mitigate phenformin-driven lifespan extension (Fig. 3 D-H). These results suggest that fatty acid desaturases and elongases promote biguanide-mediated lifespan extension through contribution of long and polyunsaturated fatty acids to the synthesis of ether lipids.

Genes Involved in Ether Lipid Biosynthesis Are Required in Multiple Longevity Paradigms. Given the critical role of ether lipids in the response to biguanides, we next endeavored to determine whether these molecules also play a broader role in diverse longevity paradigms involving metabolic or nutrient-sensing pathways. *C. elegans* mutant strains that exhibit 1) reduced mitochondrial function (*isp-1*), 2) disrupted mTORC1 signaling (*raga-1*), 3) abnormal pharyngeal pumping (*eat-2*), or 4) inhibition of insulin/insulin-like growth factor-1 signaling (*daf-2*), all result in extension of lifespan (38-41). To determine whether requirement for the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery in aging generalizes to other lifespan extension paradigms, we knocked down all three ether lipid biosynthetic enzymes by RNAi in wild type *C. elegans* and four long-lived genetic mutants: *raga-1*, *isp-1*, *eat-2*, and *daf-2*. Knockdown of *fard-1*, *acl-7*, and *ads-1* by RNAi results in suppression of lifespan extension in *isp-1*, *raga-1*, and *eat-2* mutants (Fig. 4 A-C). However, knockdown of ether lipid synthesis genes by RNAi did not impact lifespan extension in *daf-2* mutants (Fig. S3A). Thus, the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery plays a broad role in lifespan extension, and, importantly, does not simply cause non-selective sickness.

Overexpression of FARD-1 is Sufficient to Promote Lifespan Extension. To determine whether stimulation of ether lipid biosynthesis is sufficient to prompt lifespan extension, we tested the effect of *fard-1* overexpression (*oe*) on *C. elegans* lifespan. Strikingly, *fard-1(oe)* alone results in significant lifespan extension (Fig. 4D). This result is similar between two independent *fard-1(oe)* transgenic lines (Fig. 4E). To confirm that *fard-1(oe)* lifespan extension is dependent upon ether lipid

biosynthesis, we knocked down *fard-1*, *acl-7*, and *ads-1* by RNAi in the *fard-1(oe)*. As predicted, knockdown of three ether lipid biosynthetic enzymes leads to significant suppression of *fard-1(oe)* lifespan extension (Fig. 4F and Fig. S3 B and C).

To determine the lifespan extension attributable to *fard-1* overexpression shares any genetic dependencies of biguanide-mediated longevity, we independently knocked down *skn-1/Nrf2*, *aak-2/AMPK* and *daf-16/FoxO* by RNAi in a *fard-1(oe)* background. While *skn-1/Nrf2* and *aak-2/AMPK* have previously been demonstrated to be necessary for metformin-stimulated lifespan extension, *daf-16/FoxO* has not (6, 42). Lifespan extension attributable to *fard-1(oe)* is suppressed by these three gene knockdowns (Fig. 4 G-I), indicating that it is mechanistically similar but not identical to biguanide-mediated lifespan extension (4, 6). In aggregate, these results support the notion that ether lipids are an important requirement in multiple, diverse longevity paradigms, and further that *fard-1(oe)* is a genetically distinct lifespan extension paradigm in *C. elegans*.

Discussion

In an unbiased RNAi screen of ~1000 metabolic genes, we identified ether lipid biosynthesis as critical to the longevity-promoting effects of metformin in *C. elegans*. Our results show that the biguanides metformin and phenformin promote lifespan extension through complex effects on the landscape of ether lipids, an effect that may be mediated by governance of peroxisomal localization of the sole enzyme capable of synthesizing fatty alcohols, FARD-1. Two observations demonstrate the broad importance of these findings: 1) the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery is also required for multiple, diverse paradigms of lifespan extension, and 2) *fard-1* overexpression alone is sufficient to promote lifespan extension. Thus, ether lipids form a heretofore unappreciated dimension of lifespan modulation, and are sufficient to support healthy aging through multiple, central longevity effectors.

Differences in ether lipid abundance and composition are correlated with diseases of aging. The uniform lethality associated with human genetic ether lipid deficiency, as in the case of patients diagnosed with RCDP and Zellweger syndrome, has made it difficult to study the role of ether lipids in aging and aging-associated diseases (43-46). Nonetheless, observational studies suggest decreases in certain plasmalogen species in Alzheimer's Disease, suggesting a link between ether lipids and aging-related pathologies (47-49). Ether lipids have conflicting roles in cancer; while loss of the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery profits renal and ovarian cancer cell survival by enhancing resistance to ferroptosis (50), in other contexts, ether lipid deficiency results in impaired pathogenicity in breast and ovarian cancer cells (31). Cancer cells generally have higher levels of ether lipids compared to normal cells, leading others to suggest that ether lipids confer pro-survival benefit (31, 51, 52). However, certain ether lipid species have also been reported to have anti-tumor properties (53, 54). Thus, akin to the results

we present here, it is critical to understand ether lipids in context, and the impact of specific ether lipid species rather than the whole class *en masse* to understand which may play a beneficial versus detrimental role in health.

Studies in long-lived animal models suggest there is an association between ether lipid content and animal longevity, such as in the naked mole-rat (*Heterocephalus glaber*) (55) and the mud clam *Arctica islandica* (56). Higher plasmalogen levels in naked mole-rat tissues versus mice, are speculated to contribute to protection of cellular membranes via a reduction of oxidative stress (55). Similarly, exceptionally long-lived humans harbor higher levels of phosphatidylcholine-derived, short chained alkyl ether lipids and a lower levels of phosphatidylethanolamine-derived longer chained plasmalogens (25), but these associations are of unclear functional significance. Although it is clear that ether lipid deficiency in *C. elegans* both prevents normal lifespan (30) and longevity downstream of mitochondrial dysfunction, mTOR deficiency, caloric restriction, and biguanides alike, the precise molecular species conferring this activity remains unclear. Each of these longevity paradigms have features of nutrient deficiency or the response to nutrient deficiency, so it is possible that ether lipids are at least part of the common effector arm conferring benefit in aging to various forms of metabolic stress.

Our results suggest that ether lipids containing long and/or desaturated fatty acids at the sn-2 position may be essential to the health promoting effects of biguanides. Although we see major shifts in abundance of alkenyl ether lipids, genetic evidence of necessity of ether lipids, and requirement for the synthesis of mono- and poly-unsaturated fatty acids in biguanide-induced longevity, determination of the specific lipids necessary for promoting healthy aging awaits the ability to modulate the level of specific ether lipid species. Further, disruption of ether lipid biosynthesis has been shown to increase the proportion of stearate (18:0) and other saturated fatty acids (30), and our own data show that some ether lipids increase in abundance while others decrease in response to phenformin. Thus, at this time, we cannot rule out the possibility that biguanide-stimulated alterations in ether lipid biosynthesis serves to divert accumulation of more “toxic” lipid species that are detrimental to lifespan. This will require a deeper understanding of the regulation of specific steps dictating the synthesis and modification of ether lipids of different fatty alcohol and fatty acid composition.

Our data are the first to suggest that peroxisomal trafficking of the fatty alcohol reductase FARD-1 could be a mechanism for regulation of favorable ether lipids in aging. Indeed, our observation that FARD-1 mRNA and protein levels are decreased by biguanides is consistent with the suggestion that 1) biguanides promote ether lipid biogenesis by promoting post-translational FARD-1 activation and 2) previous work demonstrating that higher levels of ether lipids promotes proteasomal degradation of peroxisomal Far1 protein (57). Modulation of the peroxisomal localization of FARD-1 may provide the first clue to identify the precise ether lipids necessary to promote longevity.

In aggregate, data presented here indicate that ether lipid biosynthesis plays a broader role in aging than previously described. The necessity of the ether lipid machinery in metformin- and phenformin-stimulated lifespan extension and in multiple longevity paradigms indicates that ether lipids serve as a lynchpin through which lifespan is modulated (Fig 4J). Our demonstration that overexpression of FARD-1 alone results in lifespan extension provides an exciting opportunity to identify ether lipids that promote health and the effector mechanisms through which they act. Finally, these results support the exciting possibility that modulation of ether lipids pharmacologically or even dietarily may provide a new potential therapeutic target in aging and aging-related diseases.

Materials and Methods

C. elegans genetics. Strains were maintained at 20°C. The following strains were used in this study: N2 (wild-type strain), BX275 *fard-1(wa28)*, BX259 *acl-7(wa20)*, BX10 *ads-1(wa3)*, CB1370 *daf-2(e1370)*, MQ989 *isp-1(qm150)*, VC533 *raga-1(ok701)*, DA465 *eat-2(da465)*, MGH48 *mgls43[ges-1p::GFP::PTS1]*. For *fard-1* overexpression, the following strains were generated: MGH471 *alxEx122[fard-1p::FARD-1::mRFP::HA myo-2p::GFP]* (*fard-1 oe1*), MGH472 *alxEx124[fard-1p::FARD-1::mRFP::HA myo-2p::GFP]* (*fard-1 oe2*).

Statistical analysis of metabolomics data. Mass integration for 270 ether lipids was extracted from scan mode LC-MS/MS. Non-variant lipids were excluded from subsequent analyses. We performed one-way ANOVA analysis using the *anova* function from the *stats* package to test the hypothesis that drug uptake was similar in wildtype (N2) and ether lipid mutants. Shapiro-Wilk test (*shapiro.test*) and *bptest* functions from the *stats* package were used to check normality of data and homoscedasticity of the residuals, respectively. To explore whether the drug was entering the samples, we used a linear model to estimate the drug uptake (with corresponding confidence intervals) for wild type and ether lipid mutants as follows,

$$\text{compound_concentration} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 * \text{sample group} + \varepsilon$$

where:

β_0 = intercept

β_1 = group effect

ε = noise

Next, we identified phenformin signatures that were induced by the drug and prevented in the lipid mutants using spectral clustering, which is a machine-learning algorithm to identify groups of compounds with similar concentration profiles. After selecting for 270 ether lipids, spectral clustering was performed using the *SNFtool* package (version 2.3.0) with $k = 6$ based on the difference between average log-normalized values of phenformin treated samples and the

vehicle. We further estimated the effect size and significance of the ether lipids in the phenformin treated wild type and mutant samples compared to the vehicle using the *limma* package (version 3.44.3).

Generation of *fard-1* *C. elegans* transgenic lines. For FARD-1 expression, the entire genomic sequence of the *fard-1* locus (3659 bp), including introns and exons, plus 4910 bp of promoter were amplified and cloned into a modified Fire vector driving *fard-1* fused to mRFP and a HA epitope tag at the C-terminus. The following cloning primers were used:

forward: 5'- TGCATGCCTGCAGGTGCGACTTTGACAAAAGTTCTGTTGCCG -3'
and
reverse:
5'- TTTGGGTCCTTTGGCCAATCGCTTTTTTGAAGATACCGAGAATAATCC -3'.

The FARD-1 overexpression construct was injected at 10 ng/uL (alxEx122) and 18 ng/uL (alxEx124) into the gonad of wild type adult animals with salmon sperm DNA as a carrier and 1.5 ng/uL *myo-2p::GFP* as a co-injection marker.

Longevity assays. Lifespan analysis was conducted at 20°C, as previously described (58). Briefly, synchronized L1 animals were seeded onto NGM (for mutant treatment) or RNAi plates (for RNAi) and allowed to grow until the L4-young adult (YA) stage. On day 0 of adulthood as indexed in the figure legend, ~50-60 L4/YA worms per plate (unless otherwise noted) were transferred onto fresh NGM or RNAi plates. These NGM and RNAi plates were supplemented with 30 µM and 100 µM 5-fluorodeoxyuridine (FUdR) to suppress progeny production, respectively. For biguanide treatment, about ~55-60 synchronized L1 animals (unless otherwise noted) were seeded onto plates containing 50 mM metformin or 4.5 mM phenformin. At the L4/YA stage, these worms were transferred to plates containing biguanide treatment and FUdR for the remainder of their life. Dead worms were counted every other day. Statistical analysis was performed with online OASIS2 resources (59).

RNA interference (RNAi) assays. RNAi clones were isolated from a genome-wide *E. coli* RNAi library, sequence verified, and fed to animals as described (60). RNAi feeding plates (6 cm) were prepared using a standard NGM recipe with 5 mM isopropyl-B-D-thiogalactopyranoside and 200 µg/ml carbenicillin. RNAi clones were grown for 15 hours in Luria Broth (LB) containing 100 µg/ml carbenicillin with shaking at 37°C. The stationary phase culture was then collected, concentrated through centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded, and the pellet was resuspended in LB to 20% of the original culture volume; 250 µl of each RNAi clone concentrate was added to RNAi plates and allowed to dry at least 24 hours prior to adding biguanide. Drug treatment was added to seeded RNAi plates and allowed to dry at least 3 hours before adding worms.

Quantification and statistical analysis. Statistical analyses were performed using Prism (GraphPad Software). The statistical differences between control and experimental groups were determined by two-tailed students *t*-test (two groups), one-way ANOVA (more than two groups), or two-way ANOVA (two independent experimental variables), with corrected *P* values < 0.05 considered significant. The log rank test was used to determine significance in lifespan analyses using online OASIS2.

GC/MS lipidomics. Lipid extraction and GC/MS of extracted, acid-methanol-derivatized lipids was performed as described previously (61, 62). Briefly, 5000 synchronous mid-L4 animals were sonicated with a probe sonicator on high intensity in a microfuge tube in 100-250 microliters total volume. Following sonication, lipids are extracted in 3:1 methanol: methylene chloride following the addition of acetyl chloride in sealed borosilicate glass tubes, which were then incubated in a 75°C water bath for 1 hour. Derivatized fatty acids and fatty alcohols were neutralized with 7% potassium carbonate, extracted with hexane, and washed with acetonitrile prior to evaporation under nitrogen. Lipids were resuspended in 200 microliters of hexane and analyzed on an Agilent GC/MS equipped with a Supelcowax-10 column as previously described (61). Fatty acids and alcohols were indicated as the normalized peak area of the total of derivatized fatty acids and alcohols detected in the sample.

LC/MS-MS lipidomics. Wildtype, *fard-1*, *acl-7*, and *ads-1* worm mutants were collected using conditions that enabled our reported longevity phenotypes. Briefly, collection for LC/MS-MS processing comprised of 3 replicates of these 4 strains that were independently treated with vehicle (ddH₂O), 50mM metformin, and 4.5mM phenformin on 10cm NGM plates. A set of untreated worms were included for optimization of LC-MS/MS processing, for a total of 39 samples. A total of ~6,000 animals (2 x 10cmM plates, 3,000 worms per plate) were utilized per sample. These worms were washed with M9 (4x), concentrated into 200uL of M9, and then flash frozen with liquid nitrogen in 1.5mL Eppendorf microcentrifuge tubes. Worm pellets were transferred to 2 mL impact resistant homogenization tubes containing 300 mg of 1 mm zirconium beads and 1 mL of 90:10 ethanol:water. Using a Precellys 24 tissue homogenizer, samples were homogenized in three 10 second cycles at 6400 Hz followed by 2 minutes of sonication. Samples were then placed at -20 °C for one hour to facilitate protein precipitation. Samples were transferred to 1.5 mL microfuge tubes and centrifuged at 14,000 g for 10 minutes at 4 °C. After centrifugation, 120 µL of supernatant was dried *in vacuo* and resuspended in 120 µL of 80:20 methanol:water containing internal standards 1 ng/µL CUDA and 1 ng/µL MAPCHO-12-d38. Lipidomic data was acquired by injecting 20 µL of sample onto a Phenomenex Kinetex F5 2.6 µm (2.1 x 100 mm) column at 40 °C and flowing at 0.35 mL/min. Metabolites were eluted using (A) water containing 0.1% formic acid and (B) acetonitrile:isopropanol

(50:50) containing 0.1% formic acid using the following gradient: 0% B from 0-1 min, 0-50% B from 1-6 mins, 50-100% B from 6 to 17 minutes and 100% B hold from 17- 20 mins. Compounds were detected using a Thermo Scientific QExactive Orbitrap mass spectrometer equipped with a heated electrospray ionization (HESI) source operating in positive and negative ion mode with the following source parameters: sheath gas flow of 40 units, aux gas flow of 15 units, sweep gas flow of 2 units, spray voltage of +/-3.5 kV, capillary temperature of 265°C, aux gas temp of 350°C, S-lens RF at 45. Data was collected using an MS1 scan event followed by 4 DDA scan events using an isolation window of 1.0 m/z and a normalized collision energy of 30 arbitrary units. For MS1 scan events, scan range of m/z 100-1500, mass resolution of 17.5k, AGC of 1e⁶ and inject time of 50 ms was used. For tandem MS acquisition, mass resolution of 17.5 k, AGC 5e⁵ and inject time of 80 ms was used. Data was collected using Thermo Xcalibur software (version 4.1.31.9) and analyzed using Thermo QualBrowser (version 4.1.31.9) as well as MZmine 2.36.

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Figures and Tables

Figure 1. Genes responsible for ether lipid biosynthesis are necessary for

biguanide-induced lifespan extension. Ether lipid synthesis is catalyzed by three enzymes: fatty acyl reductase FARD-1, acyltransferase ACL-7 and alkylglycerone phosphate synthase ADS-1 (A). The latter two are localized to the peroxisomal lumen. *Missense* mutations in *fard-1* (B), *acl-7* (C), and *ads-1* (D) in *C. elegans* suppress phenformin-induced lifespan extension. A deficiency of ether lipid synthesis in *fard-1* (E), *acl-7* (F), and *ads-1* (G) worm mutants blunts metformin-induced lifespan extension. Results are representative of 3 biological replicates. *, $P < 0.05$; **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$ by log-rank analysis. See also Figure S1 and refer to Dataset S1 for tabular survival data and biological replicates. Normalized concentrations of phenformin (H) and metformin (I) in vehicle, 4.5mM phenformin, or 50 mM metformin treated wild type *C. elegans* versus *fard-1*, *acl-7*, and *ads-1* mutants. n= 3 biological replicates; ***, $P < 0.001$ by two-tailed students *t*-test. Box represents 75th/25th percentiles, while whisker represents higher/lower hinge +/- [1.5 * interquartile range (IQR)].

Figure 2. Phenformin induces an ether lipid metabolite signature that is blunted in ether lipid biosynthesis mutants. Loss-of-function *fard-1* mutants have significant reduction in 18:0 fatty alcohol derivatized from 18-carbon containing alkenyl ether lipids (also known as plasmalogens) by GC/MS (A) and corresponding accumulation of the fatty acid stearate (18:0, B). Wild type worms treated with 4.5 mM phenformin display a significant increase in 18:0 fatty alcohol derivatized from alkenyl ether lipids relative to vehicle control, with levels remaining essentially undetectable in *fard-1* mutants on vehicle or drug (C). Phenformin 4.5mM treatment does not impact stearate levels in wild type worms, however it does result in a greater accumulation of stearate in *fard-1* mutants (D). For A-D, **, $P < 0.01$; ****, $P < 0.0001$, by two-way ANOVA, $n = 3$ biological replicates. Cluster analysis of ether lipids significantly altered in response to phenformin (E). Cluster 1 denotes a set of ether lipids that increased significantly in phenformin treated wild type worms but are unaffected in ether lipid mutants *fard-1*, *acl-7* and *ads-1*. Cluster 3 represents a set of ether lipids that decreased significantly in phenformin treated wild type worms but unaffected in ether lipid mutants. $n=3$ biological replicates; adj. P -value < 0.05 . See Table S2 and S3 for raw mass

769 spectrometry data and identity of metabolites in clusters, respectively. Heat map
 770 of 26 ether lipids identified by linear modeling with significant fold change in
 771 abundance between vehicle and 4.5mM phenformin treatment in the wildtype
 772 background that do not show significant differences between vehicle and drug
 773 treated ether lipid deficient mutant (*F*). 10 of 13 ether lipids increased in abundance
 774 are alkenyl-type (plasmalogen, indicated by “P” in their name prior to the fatty
 775 alcohol designation) ether lipids, versus alkyl-type (indicated by “O” in their name
 776 prior to fatty alcohol designation). Twelve ether lipids (bold and underlined) harbor
 777 very long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids at the sn-2 position. n=3 biological
 778 replicates; adj. $P < 0.05$. PG, phosphatidyl glycerol; PE phosphatidyl ethanolamine;
 779 PC phosphatidyl choline; PI, phosphatidyl inositol; PA, phosphatidic acid.
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Figure 3. Fatty acid elongases and desaturases are required for the pro-longevity effects of biguanides. Knockdown of *prx-5* (A) and *prx-19* (B) by RNAi significantly suppresses phenformin-mediated lifespan extension. Schematic representation of the polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) synthesis pathway in *C. elegans* (C). RNAi of three fatty acid desaturases (D-F) and two fatty acid elongases (G and H) involved in the synthesis of 18- and 20-carbon polyunsaturated fatty acids blunt phenformin-mediated lifespan extension in wild type worms. For A, B and D-H, results are representative of 2-3 biological replicates. **, $P < 0.01$; ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$ by log-rank analysis; see also Dataset S1 for tabular survival data and biological replicates.

Figure 4. Genes involved in ether lipid biosynthesis are required in multiple longevity paradigms and FARD-1 overexpression is sufficient to extend lifespan. *isp-1*, *raga-1*, and *eat-2* mutants display extended lifespan relative to wild type animals that is suppressed by knockdown of any of the three members of the ether lipid biosynthetic pathway (A-C). Two independently-generated *fard-1* overexpression (*oe*) transgenic strains exhibit lifespan extension that is not further extended by concomitant phenformin treatment (D-E). RNAi knockdown of *ads-1* suppresses *fard-1* (*oe*) lifespan extension, indicating that the *fard-1* (*oe*)-mediated lifespan extension is dependent upon ether lipid synthesis (F). RNAi of *skn-1* (G), *aak-2* (H), and *daf-16* (I) suppress *fard-1* (*oe*)-mediated lifespan extension. For A-

804 *I*, results are representative of 2-3 biological replicates. *, $P < 0.05$, **, $P < 0.01$;
 805 ***, $P < 0.001$; ****, $P < 0.0001$ by log-rank analysis. See also Figure S3 and
 806 Dataset S1 for tabular survival data and biological replicates. Model for the role of
 807 the ether lipid biosynthetic machinery in biguanide-mediated lifespan extension (J).