1	Correlation in telomere lengths between feathers and blood cells in
2	pied flycatchers
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Abstract. The length of telomeres (i.e. the protective non-coding DNA repeat sequences capping the end of eukaryotic chromosomes) is drawing an increasing attention in ecology and evolution as a biomarker of individual state and fate. Bird erythrocytes are nucleated and telomere measurements using blood derived DNA has become the gold standard in avian biology. However, blood sampling is not trivial and not achievable under all field conditions. We investigated whether feather DNA could be used as an alternative or complementary approach to blood DNA when assessing telomere length with the quantitative PCR method. Indeed, investigating telomere length in different tissues may provide more detailed information regarding both the determinants and the importance of telomere length for avian life histories. We collected tertiary feathers on the same day as a blood sample in adult and 12-day-old nestling pied flycatchers (Ficedula hypoleuca). Our results show a positive but moderate relationship between telomere length measured using DNA derived from blood and feather samples. This relationship was stronger in nestlings than in adults. Nestlings had longer telomeres in blood than in feathers while no significant difference was observed in adults. Hence, our study demonstrates that feathers can provide a complementary approach to blood for telomere measurements in wild birds, and we discuss further methodological considerations when using feathers for telomere measures. Telomeres seem to show faster erosion with age in blood than feathers, which may account for the lower correlation in telomere lengths between the two tissues in adults.

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Keywords telomeres, ageing, conservation physiology, blood sampling, stress

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Introduction

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Ecologists and evolutionary biologists are showing a growing interest for the study of telomeres since telomere length or rate of erosion might provide an integrative view on individual life history trajectories by linking together development, reproduction and life expectancy (Young 2018). Telomeres are highly conserved non-coding DNA repeat sequences that cap the ends of eukaryotic chromosomes, and their main role is to protect genome integrity (Blackburn 2005). Because DNA polymerase is unable to copy the ends of chromosomes during replication (the so-called 'end replication problem'), one key aspect of telomere biology in somatic tissues is that they are shortening at each cell division (Blackburn 2005). Additionally, oxidative stress can damage telomeres, thereby accelerating their shortening (Reichert and Stier 2017). When telomeres reach a critical size they trigger cell replicative senescence (Blackburn 2005). Hence, telomere dynamics has been suggested to mirror organismal ageing, and in turn individual state, as well as to predict, at least partially, individual life expectancy or fate (Wilbourn et al. 2018, Young 2018). Accordingly, evidence is accumulating in captive and wild bird populations from various species that individuals with long telomeres have higher survival and are longer lived (Haussmann et al. 2005, Wilbourn et al. 2018, Eastwood et al. 2019). Because telomere shortening can be hasten in response to harsh environmental conditions (Angelier et al. 2018, Chatelain et al. 2020), telomere length is not only shaped by genetic factors but also by environmental factors (Voillemot et al. 2012, Stier et al. 2016, Kärkkäinen et al. 2019). Hence, telomere dynamics might also account, to some degree, for the links between development, lifestyle and lifespan (Monaghan 2010).

In the last decade, there have been numerous progresses in the measurement of telomere length, one important step being the development of a quantitative polymerase

chain reaction (qPCR)-based method that allow specific amplification of the telomere sequence (Cawthon 2002, Criscuolo et al. 2009). This technique has the advantage of allowing a fast quantification of telomere length from small amount of DNA, and is less sensitive to DNA integrity (Aviv et al. 2011). Blood derived DNA is the gold standard in avian studies of telomeres whatever the method retained for telomere quantification: telomere terminal restriction fragment (TRF) or qPCR (Stier et al. 2015). Although bird erythrocytes are nucleated (Stier et al. 2015), which provide a reliable source of DNA, blood sampling is not trivial and not achievable under all field conditions (Bush et al. 2005). Drawing blood requires a well-trained and competent person, and this approach might not be suitable for instance for endangered species. Furthermore, blood samples are often best-stored frozen (-20°C to -80°C) which requires field-based infrastructures (Reichert et al. 2017). To circumvent those problems, there are growing efforts to develop and validate alternative sampling techniques (Bush et al. 2005). Accordingly, Taberlet and Bouvet (1991) have already shown in birds that a single plucked feather could be an alternative to blood as a source of DNA for genetic studies and molecular sexing. Feathers have the advantage to be easily and quickly collected, to be stored at room temperature in a dry, dark place, and that one feather can yield enough DNA for PCR measurement (see also McDonald and Griffith 2011, and Katzner et al. 2012 for an exhaustive discussion of pros and cons of feather use in ornithological studies). Feather sampling is also less invasive than blood sampling, in turn being often a non-regulated procedure. Currently, we are aware of only one published study using feathers for telomere analysis, which demonstrated a positive relationship between parental age and chick telomere length in a long-lived seabird species (Dupont et al. 2018). However, there is currently no information on whether telomere length measured from feather derived DNA provides similar results than blood derived DNA. Previous studies in mammals have shown correlation in telomere length

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among DNA samples from blood cells and different tissues (Takubo et al. 2002, Okuda et al. 2002, Benetos et al. 2011, Daniali et al. 2013, Laubenthal et al. 2016). In non-model vertebrates, one study in zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*) and one in painted dragon (*Ctenophorus pictus*) showed that telomere length from blood cells significantly correlates with telomere length in some tissues, but not all (Reichert et al. 2013, Rollings et al. 2019, but see Parolini et al. 2019 for lack of relationship between different somatic tissues excluding blood). Noteworthy, it has also been suggested that the correlation in telomere length between tissues might depend on the life-stage at sampling (Schmidt et al. 2016), with a weakening correlation between tissues with increasing age. Currently we are lacking information on correlation in telomere length between blood and feather samples, and whether this correlation changes across life-stages (*e.g.* nestlings versus adulthood).

Hence, the aim of this study was to determine whether feather sampling could be used as an alternative or complementary approach to blood sampling when assessing telomere length with the qPCR method. To address this objective, we collected feather and blood samples from adult and 12-day-old nestling pied flycatchers (*Ficedula hypoleuca*) and tested for relationships between telomere length derived from blood and feather samples.

Materials and methods

Study species and study site

The pied flycatcher is a small European passerine that produces one clutch per year consisting of 5 to 7 eggs. Nestlings leave their nest 14 to 16 days after hatching (Lundberg and Alatalo 1992). Fieldwork was performed in summer 2018 in a population of pied flycatchers breeding in Ruissalo Island (Finland).

Tissue sampling and genomic DNA extraction

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We plucked the second innermost tertiary feather from each wing of 24 adults (12 females and 12 males) and 24 12-day-old chicks on the same day as we drew blood from the brachial vein with non-heparinized capillary tubes. We chose to pluck tertiary rather than body contour feathers to ensure comparison of the same feathers across individuals. Since previous studies using feathers as a source of DNA stored them dry and protected from light in an envelope at ambient temperature (e.g. Harvey et al. 2006) and that such conditions are likely to reflect field conditions in many cases where blood sampling is not an option, we chose to store our feather samples under the same conditions until later analyses in the laboratory. Blood samples were diluted into PBS and stored in cold bags while in the field before being stored at -80°C at the end of the day until later analyses. Genomic DNA was extracted from whole blood samples and feather samples (tip of the calamus from each feather) within three months after collection using salt extraction alcohol precipitation method (Aljanabi and Martinez 1997). Extracted DNA was diluted in elution buffer BE (Macherey-Nagel, Düren, Germany) for DNA preservation. DNA quantification and quality check (i.e. based on the 260/280 ratio, see Table 1) was performed using ND-1000-Spectrophotometer (NanoDrop Technologies, Wilmington, USA). DNA integrity was assessed using gel electrophoresis (50 ng of DNA, 0.8 % agarose gel at 100 mV for 60 min) and DNA staining with Midori Green (see ESM1 for a representative gel).

Quantitative PCR measurements of telomere length

Telomere length was quantified using a real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR) developed to measure relative telomere length in humans (Cawthon 2002) and later validated in birds (Criscuolo et al. 2009). This technique estimates relative telomere length by determining the ratio (T/S) of

telomere repeat copy number (T) to a single copy gene (SCG). Here, we used RAG1 as a SCG (verified as single copy using a BLAST analysis on the collared flycatcher Ficedula albicollis) 5′genome. Forward and telomere primers reverse were CGGTTTGTTTGGGTTTGGGTTTGGGTTTGGGTT-3' (Tel-1b) and 5′-GGCTTGCCTTACCCTTACCCTTACCCTTACCCTTACCCT-3' (Tel-2b), respectively, and forward and 5'reverse RAG1 primers 5'-GCAGATGAACTGGAGGCTATAA-3' and were CAGCTGAGAAACGTGTTGATTC-3'. Both primers were used at a concentration of 200 nM. qPCR primers also amplify non-telomeric (TTAGGG)n sequences, such as interstitial telomeric sequences which are common in birds (Foote et al. 2013). However, we showed previously a strong correlation (r = 0.74, p = 0.004) between telomere lengths measured with qPCR and in-gel TRF (telomere terminal restriction fragment method, which measures only the terminal telomeric sequences), therefore validating the use of qPCR in the pied flycatcher (Kärkkäinen et al. 2019). For the qPCR assay, we used 5 ng of DNA per reaction in a total volume of 10 μl (8 μl of master mix + 2 μ l of DNA). The master mix contained 0.1 μ l of each primer, 2.8 μ l of water and 5 μ l of SensiFAST SYBR Lo-ROX master mix (Bioline, London, UK) per reaction. Our qPCR conditions were: an initial denaturation (1 cycle of 3 minutes at 95°C), 40 cycles with first step of 10 seconds at 95°C, second step of 15 seconds at 58°C and third step of 10 seconds at 72°C, with melting curve analysis in the end. qPCR measurements were performed using QuantStudio™ 12K Flex Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher) using 384-well plates. Telomere and RAG1 amplifications were performed in triplicates adjacent to each other on the same plate and each plate contained three internal standards and one negative control. We used LinRegPCR (Ruijter et al. 2009) to determine the baseline fluorescence, the qPCR efficiencies (efficiencies per age class and sample type based on well-specific efficiencies are reported in Table 1) and the quantification cycle (Cq) values. Telomere lengths were calculated based on plate-specific

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efficiencies (average [min, max] efficiencies for telomere and SCG reactions were, respectively, 2.07 [1.99, 2.15] and 1.98 [1.93, 2.01]) using the mathematical model presented in Pfaffl et al. (2001). Technical repeatability based on triplicate measurements of telomere length was 0.857 (95% CI [0.830, 0.877], p < 0.001), and inter-plate repeatability based on samples measured on more than one plate was 0.882 (95% CI [0.808, 0.930], p < 0.001). Repeatability is considered to be an informative estimate of measurement error, while the traditionally used coefficient of variation (CV) is deemed to be misleading for qPCR derived telomere data (Verhulst et al. 2015).

Statistical analyses

First, we analysed the relationship between blood and feather telomere length using a general linear model (GLM) with feather telomere length as the dependent variable and blood telomere length, age class (chicks vs. adults), sex and the interactions between feather telomere length and age class as fixed factors. As a complementary approach, we also analysed the between-tissue repeatability in telomere length using the *rptR* package in *R* (Stoffel et al. 2017), with telomere length as the dependent variable, tissue as a fixed factor to account for between-tissues differences in telomere length and bird ID as the random effect. We ran this model on the overall dataset and then subsequently for chicks and adults separately. Finally, we analysed the differences between tissues and age classes using a generalized estimating equation (GEE) following a Gaussian distribution, with telomere length as the dependent variable, age class, tissue, sex and their interactions as fixed factors, as well as bird ID as a random effect. Non-significant interactions were removed from final models and p-values < 0.05 were considered as significant. Statistical analyses were conducted using *SPSS* 24.0 and *R* 3.5.3.

Results

DNA integrity gels revealed that while blood-derived DNA was well preserved, feather-derived DNA from both adult and chicks showed moderate signs of degradation (see ESM Figure 1).

Feather telomere length was significantly associated with blood telomere length (p=0.001; Table 2). The non-significant (p = 0.23) interaction between age class and feather telomere length indicates that the relationship between blood and feather telomere length does not differ significantly between 12-day-old chicks and adults (Figure 1A, Table 2). Yet, while the between-tissue repeatability was overall significant and of medium effect size (0.43, CI [0.17, 0.62], p < 0.001 Figure 1B), the between-tissue repeatability in chicks was significant and of large effect size (0.55, [0.23, 0.77], p = 0.002; Figure 1B) while adults only showed a non-significant trend associated with a small effect size (0.26, [0.00, 0.60], p = 0.09; Figure 1B).

Overall telomere length was influenced by the age class of the bird and the tissue type, but also by the interaction between age class and tissue (Figure 1C, Table 3). Post-hoc tests revealed that chicks had longer telomeres in blood than feathers, while there was no

Discussion

1C).

Despite signs of moderate DNA degradation in feather samples, we found that telomere

significant difference between adult blood and feather telomere length (Figure 1C). Chicks

also had longer telomeres than adults in blood cells, while the difference between chick

feather telomere length and adult telomere length did not reach statistical significance (Figure

length measured from feather samples is significantly positively correlated with telomere

length measured in blood cells, thereby suggesting that such relationship is robust. Relationship in telomere length across various tissues has been well characterised in humans and other mammals (Takubo et al. 2002, Okuda et al. 2002, Benetos et al. 2011, Daniali et al. 2013, Laubenthal et al. 2016), but only to a lesser extent in birds (Reichert et al. 2013, Schmidt et al. 2016, Parolini et al. 2019). Previous studies in birds have investigated telomere correlation between erythrocytes, bone marrow, spleen, muscle, heart, liver and brain in adult zebra finches (Reichert et al. 2013), blood, heart and liver in embryonic and juvenile Franklins' gulls, Leucophaeus pipixcan (Schmidt et al. 2016) and heart, pectoral muscle, liver and brain in embryonic yellow-legged gulls, Larus michahellis (Parolini et al. 2019). These studies showed that telomere length from blood samples correlate with telomere length in several other tissues while correlations among other tissues were less evident. Here, we add to these studies information about the relationship between telomere length measured in blood and feather samples, in both nestling and adult birds. Our results provide additional support to the idea that telomere length from blood, which has become the golden standard in avian biology, could be a suitable proxy of telomere length measured in other tissues, such as feathers.

However, telomeres are likely to shorten at different rates in different tissues, and thus the correlation in telomere length between tissues is likely to decrease with increasing age. For example, blood telomere length was found to significantly correlate with heart and muscle telomere lengths (r = 0.47 and r = 0.42, respectively) at late-stage embryo but not at the end of the chick post-natal development in the Franklin's gull (Schmidt et al. 2016). Similar results were found in humans: comparison in telomere length across various tissues show strong correlations in new-borns (r = 0.89 to 0.97; Okuda et al. 2002) and moderate to strong correlations among tissues collected in adult subjects (r = 0.38 to 0.84; Takubo et al. 2002, Daniali et al. 2013). Accordingly, in the pied flycatcher we found a stronger correlation

between blood and feather telomere length in nestlings than adults. Although this result supports the idea that telomere correlation between tissues weakens with increasing age, three alternative hypotheses may also at least partially account for this result. Firstly, feathers are vascularised during their growth only. Therefore, some blood could be enclosed in the rachis when feathers are collected during their growth (i.e. nestling stage or moulting period in adults). Since, feathers were collected at the end of the growth in nestlings, but outside the moulting period in adults, it is not excluded that some blood DNA was extracted from the feathers in nestlings, which in turn could lead to higher correlation in nestlings than adults. However, we did not notice the typical coloration of red blood cells during DNA extraction from feather tips. Secondly, since in our study the time period elapsed between feather formation and blood sampling was much greater in adults (i.e. several months between premigration moult and chick-rearing) than in chicks (i.e. feathers still growing at the time of blood sampling), this could also lead to a lower correlation between blood and feather in adults than nestlings. Finally, we have to note that DNA extraction from adult feathers gave relatively low amount of DNA of moderate quality (Table 1), which could also contribute to explain the lower correlation we obtained here for adult birds. Noteworthy, this difference in correlation does not seem to be related to DNA degradation as both adult and nestling feather samples showed moderate signs of degradation (ESM1), and qPCR has been suggested to be less sensitive than other methods to DNA degradation (Aviv et al. 2011). Hence, future studies are needed to test whether alternative storage methods could help in obtaining high-quality DNA from feather samples, and whether this might affect the magnitude of the correlation found here between blood and feather.

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In the present study, we also found that nestlings had longer telomeres in blood than in feathers while telomere lengths in adults were similar in both tissues. Shorter telomeres in

nestling feathers than in blood may be caused by faster shortening during post-natal development (*i.e.* before nestlings' day 12 when the first feathers are produced) or alternatively, telomere length in feather might be initially shorter than telomere length in blood cells. Notably, the expected age difference in telomere length between chicks and adults was pronounced in blood cells, while not being strong enough to reach statistical significance in feathers. Yet, again, we have to be careful regarding the results for adult feathers due to the moderate quality of the DNA extracted from this sample type. Additionally, comparing telomere length between feathers and blood using a technique allowing the characterization of telomere length distribution (*i.e.* TRF) would allow to better explore the similarities and differences in telomere length and dynamics between these two tissues.

While considering our results as a whole, it appears that measuring telomere length from feathers should be considered more as a complementary approach (*i.e.* in addition to blood or when blood sampling is not possible) rather than a universal alternative to blood. Indeed, telomere length and age-related changes differed between tissues, correlations between tissues were only moderate, and DNA from feathers showed moderate signs of degradation. Yet, the use of feathers to measure telomere length could provide three main advantages. Firstly, just as blood it is a proliferative tissue with feathers being regularly regrown during a bird lifetime, but unlike blood its proliferation is restricted to short and well-defined time periods (*i.e.* nestling period and pre- or post-breeding moulting periods at adulthood for most bird species). Hence, feather sampling at particular time periods, such as fledgling or post-breeding moult, might help collecting standardised measurements of telomere length and, in turn, help in reducing unwanted variance when exploring interindividual variation in telomere length. Secondly, because detectable amounts of stress hormone (*i.e.* corticosterone; Bortolotti et al. 2008) and pollutants (Jaspers et al. 2019) can be

deposited in growing feathers, this tissue is increasingly used for long-term, integrated measures of avian stress physiology and exposure to pollutants. Thus, coupling the measures of corticosterone and pollutants together with measures of telomere length within the same feathers will allow truly integrative studies based on a minimally invasive sampling approach. Finally, conversely, to blood sampling, feather collection does not require a large amount of training and competences and feathers can be collected from living or dead birds. However, long-term storage might affect DNA integrity and therefore its effects on telomere length should be further investigated.

To conclude, the present finding of a positive and significant correlation between telomere length measured in blood and feathers is important for three reasons. Firstly, it demonstrates a significant relationship in telomere length between two different tissues in wild animals. Secondly, it opens the opportunity to measure telomere length in more than one single tissue type in a minimally invasive manner, which is important to evaluate effects at the whole-organism level, and potential tissue-specific effects. Finally, it opens the opportunity of using feathers as an alternative approach, at least in chicks, for measuring telomeres when sampling/storing blood is not possible.

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Data availability. Dataset used in this study will be publicly accessible on Figshare providing acceptance of the manuscript (private link: https://figshare.com/s/dffa03e1e91c2e57dc13).

Author's contribution. PB initiated this study, TK collected the samples and performed laboratory work, AS analysed the data and supervised TK. All authors wrote the manuscript.

Permits. Blood sampling was approved by Animal Experiment Board in Finland (authorization)

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<u>Table 1:</u> Descriptive (Mean ± SE) information on DNA extracted from blood and feather samples, and associated qPCR efficiencies.

	<u>Chicks</u>	day 12	<u>Adults</u>		
	Blood (N=24)	Blood (N=24) Feather (N=24) B		Feather (N=24)	
[DNA] ng/ μl	321.42 ± 28.1	677.41 ± 59.0	294.44 ± 42.4	56.86 ± 40.9	
260/280 ratio	1.97 ± 0.01	2.16 ± 0.1	1.91 ± 0.01	1.65 ± 0.05	
260/230 ratio	2.17 ± 0.03	2.21 ± 0.01	2.19 ± 0.04	1.54 ± 0.19	
qPCR efficiency: Telomere	2.04 ± 0.02	2.02 ± 0.02	2.10 ± 0.02	2.07 ± 0.03	
qPCR efficiency: SCG	1.96 ± 0.01	2.05 ± 0.03	2.01 ± 0.01	2.01 ± 0.03	

<u>Table 2</u>: Summary of the GLM model testing the relationship between telomere length in blood and feather samples while accounting for age and sex effects. Estimates are given for adults (Age class) and for females (Sex). Significant factors are presented in bold and the non-significant interactions have been removed from the final model.

Feather telomere length	Estimate	SE	df	F	p-value
Intercept	1.52	0.35	1, 44	31.4	< 0.001
Age class (Adults)	0.10	0.19	1, 44	0.3	0.62
Blood telomere length	0.34	0.10	1, 44	11.5	0.001
Sex (Females)	0.19	0.17	1, 44	1.2	0.28
Age class x Feather TL					ns (p = 0.23)

<u>Table 3</u>: Summary of the most parsimonious GEE model testing the effects of tissue type (blood vs. feathers) and age class (day 12 chicks vs. adults) and sex on relative telomere length. Estimates for fixed factors are given for the following levels: Age class = adults, Tissue type = blood, Sex = Female. Significant factors are presented in bold. Non-significant interactions have been removed from the final model, but their p-values from the full model are presented between brackets.

Relative telomere length	Estimate	SE	df	Wald-χ²	p-value
Intercept	2.63	0.15	1	820.9	< 0.001
Age class (Adults)	-0.20	0.19	1	8.9	0.003
Tissue (Blood)	0.60	0.16	1	4.6	0.033
Sex (Female)	0.18	0.19	1	0.9	0.35
Age class x Tissue	-0.71	0.23	1	9.6	0.002
Age class x Sex					<i>ns</i> (p = 0.06)
Tissue x Sex					<i>ns</i> (p = 0.69)
Age class x Tissue x Sex					<i>ns</i> (p = 0.91)

Figure 1: (A) Relationships between blood and feather relative telomere length according to age class. Dotted lines represent age-specific relationships, and the solid line the overall significant relationship. (B) Between-tissues adjusted repeatability of relative telomere length. Repeatability estimates are presented for the overall dataset as well as for each age class, and are presented with their 95% confidence interval. Significant repeatability estimates are presented in black and non-significant ones in grey. (C) Interaction between tissue type and age class in determining relative telomere length. Details of statistical tests are given in the text and in Tables 2 and 3.

Figure 1





