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10	Age estimation in a long-lived seabird (Ardenna tenuirostris) using DNA
11	methylation-based biomarkers
12	
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33 *Short title:* DNA methylation age estimation in shearwater

34 *Key words:* age; birds; DNA methylation; epigenetics; DREAM;

35 Abstract

Age structure is a fundamental aspect of animal population biology. Age is strongly 36 37 related to individual physiological condition, reproductive potential and mortality rate. Currently, there are no robust molecular methods for age estimation in birds. 38 39 Instead, individuals must be ringed as chicks to establish known-age populations, 40 which is a labour intensive and expensive process. The estimation of chronological 41 age using DNA methylation is emerging as a robust approach in mammals including 42 humans, mice and some non-model species. Here we quantified DNA methylation in 43 whole blood samples from a total of 71 known-age Short-tailed shearwaters (Ardenna 44 tenuirostris) using digital restriction enzyme analysis of methylation (DREAM). The 45 DREAM method measures DNA methylation levels at thousands of CpG 46 dinucleotides throughout the genome. We identified seven CpG sites with DNA 47 methylation levels that correlated with age. A model based on these relationships 48 estimated age with a mean difference of 2.8 years to known age, based on validation 49 estimates from models created by repeated sampling of training and validation data 50 subsets. Longitudinal observation of individuals re-sampled over 1 or 2 years 51 generally showed an increase in estimated age (6/7 cases). For the first time, we have 52 shown that epigenetic changes with age can be detected in a wild bird. This approach 53 should be of broad interest to researchers studying age biomarkers in non-model 54 species and will allow identification of markers that can be assessed using targeted 55 techniques for accurate age estimation in large population studies.

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60 1 | INTRODUCTION

61 Understanding the age structure of populations is a key aspect of animal ecology and62 conservation. Age estimate information can help to determine animal mortality,

- 63 susceptibility to parasites, reproductive life history and the impact of anthropogenic
- 64 activities (Froy et al. 2013; Gianuca et al. 2017; Musick 1999; Scott 1988). However,

65 measuring the chronological age of many wild animals is a difficult task due to the 66 lack of external changes that reflect age. Some animals have quantifiable physical 67 changes as they increase in age, for example, tooth length in deer (Pérez - Barbería et al. 2014) and growth rings in fish otoliths (Buckmeier et al. 2002; Campana 2001; 68 69 Gunn et al. 2008). However, few of these can be measured without capturing or even 70 killing the animal. The impact and ethics of these interventions on animals is often the 71 subject of debate (Festa-Bianchet et al. 2002; Nelson 2002). Other animals can show 72 general changes with life stage, for example, plumage variation in some seabirds 73 (Weimerskirch et al. 1989); or larval stage of arthropods and molluscs (Cobb & 74 Wahle 1994; Ernande et al. 2003), but these often only provide age information for 75 immature individuals. This lack of accessible chronological age information limits our 76 understanding of many wild animal species and it is only through long term, 77 expensive tracking or marking studies that age data can be collected and used 78 effectively.

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80 Molecular biomarkers of age have recently been the focus of an increasing number of 81 studies (Ito et al. 2018; Maegawa et al. 2017; Wright et al. 2018). Neither telomere 82 length or DNA damage markers have been successfully used for chronological age 83 estimation in a wild animal population, so there is interest in developing alternative 84 molecular age biomarkers (Dunshea et al. 2011; Jarman et al. 2015). One promising 85 avenue is measuring epigenetic modification controlling changes in gene expression 86 that occur during animal ageing. Epigenetic regulation of gene expression can occur 87 at several different levels and can include histone modification, non-coding RNA 88 (ncRNA) and DNA methylation (DNAm). DNAm, the addition of a methyl group to a 89 cytosine followed by a guanine (CpG site), has been examined in the most detail and 90 recent evidence supports the use of this epigenetic modification for individual age 91 determination (Hannum et al. 2013; Horvath 2013; Vidal-Bralo et al. 2016).

92

Here, we refer to two types of changes in DNAm with age that could be used to

94 estimate age in wild animals. 'Epigenetic drift' generally refers to broad DNAm

95 signals at sites distributed across the genome, which in mammals, birds and fish has

96 been reported to decline with age (Gryzinska et al. 2013; Jakubczak et al. 2016;

97 Shimoda *et al.* 2014). Drift signals can also be enriched in CpG islands and enhancers

98 (Slieker et al. 2016). 'Clock-type' markers are specific CpG sites that show a strong 99 correlation with known chronological age. Correlations observed in this category can 100 be tissue specific and can involve an increase (hypermethylation), or decrease 101 (hypomethylation) with age (Horvath 2013; Slieker et al. 2018). Clock-type CpG age 102 markers have recently been referred to as "age-related DNA methylation positions" 103 (aDMPs) (Lowe et al. 2018; Slieker et al. 2018). aDMPs are generally located within 104 the promoter or first exon of a gene (Bekaert et al. 2015; Grönniger et al. 2010; 105 Horvath 2013; Sziráki et al. 2018; Zbieć-Piekarska et al. 2015). Epigenetic drift is 106 thought to occur due to a decline or imperfect replication of DNAm by an epigenetic 107 maintenance system with increasing age (Horvath 2013; Horvath & Raj 2018). 108 However, the mechanisms for specific 'clock-type' aDMP change have not yet been

- 109 characterised.
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111 Very little is known about DNAm in most non-model species, especially birds. 112 Available studies have mostly focused on model species such as the Red junglefowl 113 (Gallus gallus) (Gryzinska et al. 2013; Hu et al. 2013; Li et al. 2011) and Japanese 114 quail (Coturnix japonica) (Andraszek et al. 2014). These studies show a distribution 115 of DNAm in the genome similar to that observed in mammals. Epigenetic drift is the 116 only age-related DNAm change that has been reported in birds. Gryzinska at al. 117 (2013) observed DNAm changes between chickens aged between 1 day and 32 weeks 118 using a colorimetric immunoenzymatic based protocol. We have previously reported 119 that the DNAm status of several mammalian clock-type age-related genes were not 120 conserved in homologous regions of a seabird (De Paoli-Iseppi et al. 2017).

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122 Here, we used known age individuals from a long-term study of Short-tailed 123 shearwater (Ardenna tenuirostris) to investigate age related changes. The shearwater 124 has high breeding site and partner fidelity and is long-lived, making it an ideal species 125 in which to study population status and chronological ageing in a seabird population. 126 Fisher Island (Tasmania, Australia), is the site of a long-term banding study of this 127 species and as such can be used to collect known age blood and feather samples for 128 the investigation of DNAm and chronological age (Bradley et al. 1991). Epigenetic 129 age estimates of seabirds would be particularly valuable for use in population viability 130 analyses and could further our understanding of environmental effects on animal 131 performance or foraging (Velarde & Ezcurra 2018). For the first time, we have used

performance of foraging (velarde & Ezcurra 2018). For the first time, we have use

132 digital restriction enzyme analysis of methylation (DREAM) to assess DNAm in a

- 133 non-model vertebrate. We identified seven aDMPs in DNA extracted from 71 whole
- 134 blood samples. A model relating methylation at these aDMPs to age was made and

135 the precision evaluated using the mean absolute difference (MAD) between the

- 136 estimated and known chronological ages. Our study is the first to identify DNAm
- 137 changes with chronological age in a wild seabird and will provide a foundation for further study of age-related DNAm in non-mammalian vertebrates.
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142 2 | METHODS

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2.1 | Samples and DNA extraction 144

145 In sampling trips between 2015 – 2018, blood samples were collected from adult 146 (November - December) and chick (March) A. tenuirostris from Fisher Island (40°13'00.7"S 148°14'20.7"E) Tasmania, under Department of Primary Industries, 147 148 Parks, Water and Environment (DPIPWE) permit: FA15230 and University of 149 Tasmania (UTAS) Animal Ethics Committee permits: A14277 and A0016107. Blood 150 was collected onto Whatman FTA® Micro (WB120210) cards and stored as 151 previously described (De Paoli-Iseppi et al. 2017). DNA was extracted from a 3 mm 152 punch of immobilised blood using an Epicentre MasterPure[™] (MCD85201) DNA 153 Purification Kit according to the manufacturer's instructions. We examined blood 154 DNA in two high-throughput sequencing runs of a total of N = 71 known-age 155 individuals. Age was determined by recording the band number of birds first marked 156 as chicks, and was rounded to whole years as all sampling occurred in a short time 157 window each year. Run 1 consisted of 35 known-age animals (5 - 21) years old, mean 158 = 12.14 years). Two individuals aged 8 and 14 years old were replicated within this 159 run. Run 2 consisted of DNA from 36 additional known-age samples (6 - 21 years)160 old, mean = 14.18 years). Run 2 contained three technical replicates from Run 1 (6, 161 12 and 21 years old) and three within-run replicates aged 8, 14 and 21 years old. 162 Several birds were recaptured in sampling trips in different years allowing us to 163 perform some limited longitudinal observations (Run 2: $N = 3 \times 2$ samples and N = 4x 2 samples at 1 and 2 year resights respectively). In total, N = 63 known-age 164

- shearwater were used to calibrate the model following removal of replicates. Bird sex
- 166 was determined by *CHD-1* gene amplification in blood DNA using a previously
- 167 described method (Faux *et al.* 2014). Sample details for each age group and known
- age distribution are shown in Table 1 and Supplementary Figure 1 respectively.
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170 2.2 | Analysis of genome-wide 'CCCGGG' methylation

171 We examined DNAm at CpG sites throughout the genome using digital restriction 172 enzyme analysis of methylation (DREAM) of 71 Short-tailed shearwater whole blood 173 DNA samples (Jelinek & Madzo 2016). Briefly, genomic DNA (1 µg) extracted from 174 shearwater blood FTA samples was sequentially cut with two enzymes that recognise 175 the 'CCCGGG' sequence motif in DNA (Figure 1). Methyl-sensitive Smal first cuts 176 only unmethylated sites leaving blunt 5'-GGG ends. Then, XmaI cleaves the 177 remaining methylated sites leaving 5'-CCGGG ends. Thus, unique sequences are 178 made for methylated or unmethylated CpG sites. Following this sequential digest, 179 DNA was used to create sequencing libraries using NEBNext Multiplex Oligos for Illumina Index Primer Sets 1 - 3 and standard Illumina protocols. Blunt-end ligation 180 is done using NEBNext adaptor (10 µm) and T4 DNA ligase with hairpin loop 181 182 cleavage with USER enzyme. Dual size selection for 250 - 450 bp fragments was 183 done using AMPure XP beads. Unique barcodes were then added to DNA from 184 individual samples with 12x rounds of PCR using AmpliTaq Gold DNA Polymerase 185 (see Supplementary Table 1). Individual barcoded samples were analysed for correct library size distribution (250 – 450 bp) using high sensitivity DNA 1000 kits on the 186 187 Bioanalyzer 2100. Two microliters of each sample was also quantified using a Qubit 188 2.0 to ensure equal volumes were pooled in the final library. Libraries were run at 2 -189 4 ng/uL on the Illumina NextSeq 500 platform with a 15 – 25% PhiX control at the 190 Ramaciotti Centre for Genomics (UNSW, Sydney, AUS).

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- 192

193 **2.3** | Statistical analysis and construction of an age prediction model

- 194 Sequencing data analysis pipeline
- 195 Raw DNA sequence reads were run through an in-house data analysis pipeline in the
- 196 following steps.

- 197
 1. *Quality filtering*. Demultiplexed Fastq sequences were filtered with a
 maximum expected error (maxee) rate of 0.5 and converted to Fasta format
 (Edgar & Flyvbjerg 2015).
- 200 2. Dereplication. A database of unique reads from all samples was generated
 201 (dereplication) using trimmed sequences and the USEARCH10 command
 202 (fastx uniques' (Edgar 2010), with a min unique size = 150.
- 3. *Methylated and non-methylated motif databases*. These dereplicated
 sequences were duplicated to contain the unique sequence with either the 5'GGG or 5'-CCGGG motif, in separate databases (GG or CC databases).
- 4. *Motif database hits*. Each sample was then compared to each database using
 the 'usearch-global' command with 97% identity and required an exact match
 to the first 2 bp of the relevant motif (id_prefix = 2). Hits for each sequence
 against both methylation databases were recorded.
- 5. *DNAm level calculation*. The methylation level for each sample was then
 calculated as the count of the methylated signature divided by the total number
 of hits for a specific CpG marker and the value was recorded between 0 and 1.
 A value of 0 is unmethylated (i.e. all sequences from that site match the GG
 sequence generated by methyl-sensitive *SmaI*) and 1 is methylated (i.e. all
 sequences from that site match the CC sequence generated by *XmaI*).
- 216

Methylation scores were retained for read depths between 20 and 2000 reads. Scores 217 218 that were calculated outside of this range were converted to a 'NA'. To retain 219 potentially informative markers in the final analysis, markers with less than seven NA 220 values across all samples were imputed using the mean of the remaining non-NA 221 values for the marker. This method ensured that potential age-related markers would 222 not be omitted based on missing scores and that imputed values would have a 223 relatively small effect on any correlations observed. Since variation is required to find 224 correlations with age, we removed markers that had a DNAm standard deviation of 225 less than 5% across all samples. A small run effect was observed, so the mean DNAm 226 difference between run 1 and 2 replicates was used to adjust the score of each marker 227 in run 2.

228

229 Predictor selection and age estimation model

230 Markers that passed filtering were then used to fit penalised lasso regularisation paths 231 to each predictor using the R package 'glmnet' (Friedman *et al.* 2010). The penalty 232 value used to select coefficients, lambda 1 standard error (λ 1se), was calculated after 233 repeated runs (100x) of the default k-fold cross validation function of glmnet (cv.glmnet, 10-fold) with an alpha = 1 (lasso). This method randomly subsets the data 234 235 each cycle and assesses the linear relationship between age and DNAm. Following 236 repeated runs of this function a mean λ 1se value was generated. The λ 1se value 237 generally selects CpG sites for the simplest model with an error similar to the best 238 model (λ minimum), given the cross-validation uncertainty.

239

240 Individual markers that passed the λ 1se cut-off were inspected visually using simple linear regression and markers that had an $R^2 < 0.2$ or showed small changes in DNAm 241 242 range (< 15%) were removed from further analysis. Remaining age-related CpG sites 243 were then incorporated into a multiple linear regression model. To test the selected 244 markers, the original data set was randomly split into 75/25% training (N = 47) and 245 test (N = 16) data sets respectively. Training set DNAm values for each aDMP were 246 used to create a multiple linear regression model. The model was then tested with 247 remaining samples in the test set. This random sub-sampling method was run for 100 248 iterations. By substituting the calculated methylation values for each of the individual 249 shearwaters used in the training and test sets into the equation, we obtained the 250 predicted epigenetic age. Mean absolute difference (MAD), the uncertainty of age 251 estimates expressed in years, between the known and estimated age was then calculated. The 77 bp sequence following the CG motif was analysed by BLASTn 252 253 searches of bird genomes available on the NCBI database to identify any regions 254 conserved between species (Altschul et al. 1990).

255

256 2.4 | Global DNA methylation analyses

alle.

- 257 Global analysis of 2338 CpG sites using DREAM
- 258 The mean DNAm of 2338 CpG sites identified using DREAM were analysed by age
- group in years as follows: Chicks: 0.12 0.15 (N = 2), Young breeder: 5 9 (N = 16),
- 260 Middle: 10 18 (N = 39), Old: 19 + (N = 6). CpGs were analysed using a one-way
- ANOVA followed by post-test for multiple comparisons (Tukey's HSD). Mean
- 262 DNAm differences were calculated in both the chick and young breeder context and
- analysed as above. Significance was set at P < 0.05.

264

265 Colorimetric DNA methylation analysis

266 We also measured epigenetic drift in global DNAm using a commercially available

267 methylated DNA quantification assay for relative 5-mC content (Abcam,

268 Colorimetric, ab117128). Briefly, 42 shearwater blood DNA samples (chicks, 5 – 21

269 years old, mean = 10.9 years) were analysed in duplicate, alongside the supplied

270 positive (5 ng) and negative controls. Methylated DNA was captured and detected

- using diluted (1:1000, 1:2000) 5-mC antibodies. Following the addition of a
- developing solution, colour change was monitored and quantified at 450 nm (Tecan
- 273 Spark). Using the mean absorbance values of the duplicates, relative 5-mC for each

sample was calculated as follows: (((Sample OD – Negative control OD) / DNA input

- 275 (ng)) / (((Positive control OD Negative control OD) x 2) / Positive control input (5
- 276 ng))) * 100. Analysis of duplicate colorimetric data was done using a one-way
- ANOVA with Šidák correction for multiple comparisons for each age group in yearsas above.
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282 **3 | RESULTS**

283 **3.1 | Sequencing metrics**

284 Quality analysis of DREAM libraries showed bands in the expected post clean-up range, (range = 194 - 974 bp, mean = 451 bp; Bioanalyzer gel and electropherogram 285 traces are shown in Supplementary Figure 2A – D). A total of 125 million sequences 286 287 (mean of 1761622 per sample) passed initial bioinformatic QC (maxee = 0.5 and 288 matched restriction site motif; Supplementary Table 2). The sum of reads from sequences with a mean high read depth (> 2000x) represented approximately 6% 289 290 (mean = 84518 reads) of the total mean sequences per sample. Following filtering and 291 dereplication, we identified 93884 unique sequences that were used to create a 292 database of reference sequences (i.e. markers for specific CpG sites) for sample 293 matching (Supplementary Figure 3). Following the pipeline filtering described, a total 294 of 2338 unique CpGs were used for lasso analysis (glmnet).

295

3.2 | Development and testing of an age prediction model in the Short-tailed shearwater

298 DNAm data from seven CpG sites obtained using DREAM were included in the age 299 prediction model based on our selection criteria (Figure 2A – G). Information on removed CpG sites with weaker age correlations is provided in Supplementary Table 300 3 (e.g. just below our mean λ 1se cut-off of 1.2; see Supplementary Figure 4). To 301 302 investigate potential sex-related DNAm effects in the seven aDMPs used in the age 303 prediction model, separate linear regressions were done for each sex (Supplementary 304 Figure 5A-G). Sex had a significant effect on DNAm age correlation in a single 305 aDMP in isolation (M1801, P = 0.0031, Bonferroni corrected), with males driving the 306 association (Supplementary Figure 5C). However, there was no sex-specific effect 307 when the methylation scores for all seven aDMPs were then used to create the age 308 estimation model (Figure 3, sex regression slopes and diagnostics are shown in 309 Supplementary Figures 5H and 6 respectively). Read depth had a mean of 51x for 310 these CpG sites (Supplementary Figure 7). The MAD between the known and 311 estimated age reports the uncertainty in age estimates expressed in years. Following 312 repeated cross-validation, the seven aDMP age assay provided epigenetic age estimates in training subsamples with a MAD of 2.34 ± 1.73 (SD) years (mean R² = 313 314 .605, range: 0.46 - 0.72) (Supplementary Figure 8A). In the validation test subsamples, the age estimates had an increased error; across all age estimates MAD = 315 2.81 ± 2.08 years (mean R² = .404, range: 0.03 – 0.80) (Supplementary Figure 8B). 316 The significant y-intercept of 5.13 indicated that the predicted ages were 317 318 overestimated for chicks and young birds and underestimated for older individuals, 319 and may indicate a non-linear relationship. The training set MAD ranged from 1.17 – 320 6.25 years, whilst in the test set MAD ranged from 1.58 – 7.86 years. The MADs for 321 each year and grouped age, as described in the methods, are shown in Figure 4. 322 Between run replicates for seven age-related CpG sites showed a mean DNAm score 323 difference of 11.29% (range: 3.79 – 12.80%) and 6.83% (range: 4.21 – 11.04%) pre-324 and post-run adjustment respectively (Supplementary Table 4). Within run replicates 325 showed a mean absolute difference in DNAm of 8.65% (range: 5.18 – 11.91%) for the 326 age-related markers.

327

328 **3.3** | Biomarker sequence and gene conservation

329 The seven aDMPs we identified were used to search for conserved regions in 330 available bird genomes and scaffolds using BLASTn. Of these seven markers, four 331 had low E values and > 50% query cover indicating a reasonable match with a known 332 sequence in the available avian databases (Table 2). Marker 1071 matched with the G3BP1 region in the Zebra finch (*Taeniopygia guttata*) genome, however the query 333 cover was only slightly above 50%. Marker 1934 had a 100% query cover match with 334 335 an uncharacterised locus in the Mallard (Anas platvrhvnchos) genome. Marker 2083 336 matched against scaffold 4695 in the North Island brown kiwi (Apteryx australis 337 mantelli) genome. Finally, marker 3169 had a 100% query cover match to the DHH 338 gene in several species with the top hit to the Eurasian blue tit (*Cyanistes caeruleus*) 339 genome.

340

341 **3.4** | Longitudinal observations of DNA methylation in resighted individuals

342 We observed that 6/7 (85%) age estimates for resignted individuals sampled 1 or 2 343 years apart showed the expected positive increase in predicted age relative to their 344 known age from leg bands (Figure 5). At many individual aDMPs the longitudinal 345 samples did not follow the expected DNAm trend (Supplementary Figure 9A-B). 346 However, when combined into the model, only one individual showed a negative 347 change in estimated age from two samples taken at 15 and 17 years of age. The mean 348 absolute difference between estimated and known age for 2-year resights was 0.74 349 years (N = 8) and 0.87 years (N = 6) for 1-year resignts.

350

351 3.5 | DNA methylation of 2338 CpGs using DREAM assay

- 352 We show that a large proportion of the 2338 CpG sites that passed the filtering cut off 353 are highly methylated, with 50.2% of CpGs showing DNAm levels greater than 80% 354 across all ages (Figure 6A). We also observed a small, but non-significant linear 355 change in DNAm from young animals to old. The mean DNAm was .712, .724, .725 356 and .729, for chicks, young breeders, middle and old birds respectively (Figure 6B). 357 The difference in mean DNAm, relative to chick levels, for each individual CpG site 358 is shown in Figure 6C. This shows that relative to older birds, chicks are less 359 methylated at low DNAm levels (approximately < 10%) and more methylated at high 360 DNAm levels (approximately > 90%).
- 361

362 **3.6** | Global 5-mC using colorimetric assay

363 Relative 5-mC was quantified against the supplied 5 ng positive control. Global blood

364 DNAm levels of the Short-tailed shearwater were combined into age groups as

365 described in the methods. Chicks and young breeders showed similar relative 5-mC

levels, (mean = 0.725, N = 4 and mean = 0.727, N = 15 respectively). Both of these

367 groups had slightly higher relative 5-mC than that observed in middle-aged birds

368 (mean = 0.614, N = 17) and old birds (mean = 0.498, N = 5). Following adjustment 369 for multiple comparisons, no significant differences were observed between the age

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372

373 4 | DISCUSSION

groups (Figure 7).

374

375 Seabirds exhibit little or no external physical changes with age and there are currently 376 no reliable biomarkers of chronological age in most long-lived seabirds beyond 377 fledging. The identification of an accurate age biomarker would be a substantial 378 advance in our ability to understand seabird age-related demographics. Seabird age 379 estimation using molecular methods is currently not possible. DNAm changes with 380 age have been reported for both wild and model mammalian species in several tissues, 381 indicating that DNAm age biomarkers may be useful in birds. In this study, we 382 quantified the DNAm profile of known-age Short-tailed shearwaters using digital 383 restriction enzyme analysis of methylation (DREAM). We present evidence for 384 DNAm changes with chronological age in seven CpG sites.

385

386 4.1 | Age related biomarkers in birds

387

Previous bird ageing research has focused primarily on telomere length assays and pentosidine accumulation in collagen. Studies of terminal telomere restriction fragments (TRFs) have shown that telomere length can shorten with increasing age and that the rate of change corresponds to lifespan in several species (Bize *et al.* 2009; Juola *et al.* 2006; Tricola *et al.* 2018). However, this trend is not consistent amongst all birds, with some species showing increases in TRF with age, as in the Leach's storm-petrel (*Oceanodroma leucorhoa*) (Haussmann *et al.* 2003), and no decline in

length, or both as reported for the Magellanic penguin (*Spheniscus magellanicus*)

(Cerchiara *et al.* 2017). For individuals in some avian species, change in telomere
length can be tracked longitudinally and correlate with reproductive timing, however
the use of TRF for cross-sectional analysis of age has yet to be demonstrated (Bauer *et al.* 2018).

400

401 Pentosidine is a less frequently studied age biomarker for birds. It forms cross-links 402 between amino acid residues in collagen and accumulates with age in birds (Fallon et 403 al. 2006; Iqbal et al. 1999). Pentosidine has been shown to accumulate in a linear 404 fashion in terrestrial birds and some seabirds including California gulls (Larus 405 californicus) (Chaney Jr et al. 2003) and Double-crested cormorants (Phalocrocorax 406 auritus) (Fallon et al. 2006). This technique has yielded age estimates with a precision 407 of 2 – 4 years in wild birds (Chaney Jr et al. 2003; Fallon et al. 2006; Rattiste et al. 408 2015). However, in a study of another long-lived seabird, the Bridled tern 409 (Onychoprion anaethetus), no correlation between pentosidine levels and age was 410 found (Labbé 2017). It is not known how pentosidine levels may respond to the 411 effects of changing biological age or environmental stressors. As a result of the 412 limited success in age estimation by these methods, our research aimed to build upon 413 recent successes in mammals by assessing DNAm estimates of age in the Short-tailed 414 shearwater.

415

We previously established that specific aDMPs from mammals were not conserved in 416 417 the shearwater (De Paoli-Iseppi et al. 2017). We therefore sought to identify birdspecific aDMPs or a global DNAm signature associated with age using DREAM of 418 419 whole blood samples. This is the first epigenetic age assay developed for use in a 420 seabird, and one of the few used in a wild species. Using the DREAM method, we 421 identified seven novel aDMPs in shearwaters. Following repeated cross-validation of 422 our known-age samples to train and test the age-estimation model, we reported a test-423 set MAD for all ages of 2.81 ± 2.08 years. The linear relationship with age in these 424 CpG sites is not as strong as those reported for whales (Polanowski et al. 2014) or 425 dogs (Thompson et al. 2017), but was similar to that reported for a bat species 426 (Wright et al. 2018). We also observed variation in MAD for different age classes, 427 with birds aged 5-9 years and 19+ providing less accurate age estimates compared to 428 other groups (Figure 4A). Additionally, the significant Y-intercept in our model 429 (Figure 3) causes an overestimation of age in younger individuals. A single marker

- 430 (M1801) showed evidence for male driven DNAm age correlation. Due to the reduced
- 431 sample size when comparing by sex only, more known-age samples would be
- 432 required to confirm the lack of association in females and ideally, whole genome
- 433 information could determine if this marker is located on a sex chromosome.
- 434

435 However, the biggest limitation in developing our model was the low number of 436 young non-breeding bird samples that we could capture in the field, which hinders our 437 understanding of the rate of DNAm change between chicks and early breeders (5-9)438 years), and with more samples, this may be correctable in future. The shearwaters 439 studied here typically do not return to their island of birth until their first year of 440 breeding at age five (Bradley et al. 1991; Bradley et al. 1989). However, for unknown 441 reasons we did not recover many individuals in the 5-9 early breeder age range. The 442 larger DNAm variability in these young animals could be due to the stressful effects 443 of the first year of breeding. Shearwaters lay one of the largest eggs relative to body 444 mass of all seabirds, and individuals face challenges including incubatory fasting and 445 intermittent foraging (Wooller et al. 1990). Additionally, both migration and 446 parenthood can reduce body condition, and evidence suggests that these birds may 447 undergo intermittent breeding if an individual determines its body condition is too low (Bradley et al. 2000). 448

449

450 Despite some uncertainty in ages estimated with our model, this approach could 451 discriminate between relevant age classes (e.g. young and old adults). These 452 epigenetic age estimates, in combination with other parameters including sex and 453 weight, could be used to examine the effect of climate change on population viability 454 (Lee 2017). Recent studies also highlight other areas in which estimated age data 455 could be informative, including post-pest eradication monitoring of island-breeding 456 seabird populations (Brooke et al. 2018), parasite load in the Blue tit (Aguilar et al. 457 2016) and modelling the impacts of longline fisheries on effective population size (Cortés et al. 2018; Mills & Ryan 2005). 458

459

460 Obtaining a broad age range of samples from long-lived, known-age birds is difficult
461 as extensive banding studies are rare. Whilst the Fisher Island shearwater population

- has been followed for several decades, the youngest and oldest adult individuals we
- 463 recovered were 5 and 21 years old respectively. The oldest individual, at 21 years old,

464 represents a little over half of the maximum reported lifespan for this species of 39 465 years. However, research on age dependent survival on Fisher Island birds shows few 466 animals living beyond 25 years post first breeding, which would place our oldest 467 individual at closer to 70% of the expected lifespan of approximately 30 years (Baylis 468 et al. 2018; Bradley et al. 1989). The relationship we have observed with age should 469 be investigated further for older individuals, however previous studies in mammals 470 have primarily shown linear correlations with age (Maegawa et al. 2010; Polanowski 471 et al. 2014; Spiers et al. 2016). Although no recaptures were made within the 1-4472 year age range, as these non-breeding birds are not at the nesting sites, the 473 relationship of adults to the DNAm level of the chicks suggest birds at these ages will 474 have a similar trend to the rest of the calibration range.

475

476 We quantified 'epigenetic drift' in DNAm levels observed across all 2338 CpG sites 477 included in our analysis. We did not identify a significant trend with chronological age. However, we did observe some interesting differences between young and old 478 479 age groups at the lower and upper limits of DNAm. In contrast to mammalian and the 480 only other bird study, we found no clear trend of DNA hypomethylation in older 481 animals compared to that in younger individuals (Gaudet et al. 2003; Gryzinska et al. 482 2016; Portela & Esteller 2010). The lack of statistical significance could be due to the 483 analysis of this relatively small subset of total CpGs in the bird genome. 484 Immunoenzymatic analyses of chicken 5-mC levels have shown decreased global 485 methylation with age (Gryzinska et al. 2013). Using the same method, we found no 486 relationship between relative 5-mC levels and age in 42 known-age shearwater whole 487 bloods. However, we observed a non-significant trend towards decreasing 488 methylation across age groups. Our study of age-related global DNAm in shearwaters 489 is only the second of this phenomenon in birds and further work will be required to 490 determine if this approach could be suitable for age estimation in other bird species. 491

492 4.2 | Measuring methylation in non-model organisms

493

494 Despite the identification of several thousand unique CpG sites using the DREAM

495 method, the 20x read depth requirement for DNAm calculation resulted in the

496 exclusion of many sites from further analysis. A small percentage of the total reads

497 was also lost to repetitive elements. There is little doubt that as technologies improve 498 sequencing depths will increase, and direct analysis of CpG DNAm will be possible, 499 (Rand et al. 2017; Slatko et al. 2018). Improvements in bioinformatics will also help 500 to validate DNAm markers and predict age in large data sets (Vidaki et al. 2017). The 501 DREAM technique has been used previously to identify DNAm changes following 502 compound exposure in zebrafish embryos (Bouwmeester et al. 2016) and caloric 503 restriction in mice (Maegawa et al. 2017). A similar method, EpiRADSeq, also uses a 504 methylation sensitive restriction enzyme (*HpaII*) and NGS to quantify DNAm in CpG 505 sites (Schield et al. 2016). This technique differs from DREAM in that only a single 506 methylation sensitive enzyme is used in combination with a frequent cutter (PstI). 507 *HpaII* recognises a 'CCGG' motif, which is likely to lead to higher genomic coverage 508 of CpG sites due to increased cut frequency. However, DNAm scores generated using 509 this method are relative to the count of unmethylated EpiRADSeq reads only. This is 510 avoided when using a dual methylation sensitive digest as in DREAM, as reads are 511 generated for both methylated and unmethylated CpGs (Jelinek & Madzo 2016). 512 Reduced representation bisulphite sequencing (RRBS) can also be used to quantify 513 CpG DNAm, but does require a higher quantity of initial genomic DNA (Meissner et 514 al. 2005). The output of these various techniques depends upon several molecular, 515 platform and bioinformatic factors and choices, which is discussed in detail elsewhere 516 (O'Leary et al. 2018). Our results now show that the DREAM method can also be 517 used to quantify global DNAm and screen for aDMPs in non-model animals. The 518 primary limitation in applying this method is the high read depth required per CpG 519 site, particularly in organisms with relatively high quantities of repetitive DNA. This 520 makes it cost-prohibitive as a method for applying to population-wide samples, but 521 certainly effective as a screening method for identifying aDMPs. Once aDMPs are 522 identified by DREAM, targeted DNAm scoring assays could be developed to reduce 523 costs for high-throughput applications.

524

An additional limitation to the simple analysis of shearwater DREAM and indeed most non-model NGS data, is the limited genomic resources available for further analyses. Multiplex restriction site PCR (mRS-PCR) could be used to obtain both up and downstream sequence around an aDMP of interest (Sarkar *et al.* 1993; Weber *et al.* 1998). This method can generate larger reference sequences for use in targeted bisulphite assays such as EpiTYPER, pyrosequencing or other NGS based techniques (Ehrich *et al.* 2005). More sequence information may also result in more accurate 532 comparative genomic analyses against bird genomes that are currently undergoing 533 scaffold alignment. The genes DHH and G3BP1 were identified as conserved age-534 related sequences from our data and these could be used in future as part of a targeted 535 gene assay in shearwater (Table 2, M1071 and M3169). Whilst we cannot comment on any potential functional effects of DNAm, DHH and G3BP1 encode for signalling 536 537 molecules in cell morphogenesis and a DNA-unwinding enzyme, respectively. Two 538 other markers also showed high conservation with other bird species, however these 539 hits were either unassigned (M2083) or uncharacterised (M1934). These factors limit 540 our ability to identify biomarkers that have the potential to be used in closely related 541 species, and design a cost-effective, targeted age assay.

542 543

544 5 | CONCLUSIONS

545

546 This study demonstrates that seabird age estimates can be generated from a DNA 547 methylation age assay. This minimally invasive method could be used to produce age 548 estimates for Short-tailed shearwaters from chicks to 21 years old. This is the first 549 time an epigenetic assay has been applied to a wild seabird and could be used in 550 future to estimate population age structure. Further refinement of this method could 551 result in the identification, validation and use of target genes, similar to that in 552 mammals, for related seabird species and see wider use for monitoring and conservation. 553

554

555 Data and code availability

556 DREAM count data, adjusted DNAm values for 2338 CpGs, fasta pipeline and
557 variable selection R scripts used in this publication have been deposited in the
558 Dryad Digital Repository at [doi: 10.5061/dryad.n4h3672]. Sample details and
559 raw Illumina sequence data (FASTQ) are available from NCBI/SRA using
560 accession:
561 PRJNA507458, <u>https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/bioproject/PRJNA507458</u>.
562
563

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572	
573	Author contributions
574	All authors conceived the ideas and designed methodology; RDP, AMP, CRM and
575	MAH collected samples; RDP and AMP did the genetics laboratory work; RDP, BED
576	and SNJ analysed the data; RDP led manuscript writing. All authors contributed to
577	drafts and gave final approval for publication.
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