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1	Age-related response to an acute innate immune challenge in mice: proteomics reveals a
2	telomere maintenance-related cost.
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17 Abstract

18 Ageing is characterized by the impairment of the acute innate immune response and the up-regulation 19 of low-grade inflammation, i.e. inflammaging. At the cellular level, telomeres are considered as a 20 marker of biological ageing as their length is progressively eroded in the absence of repair mechanisms. 21 However, the link between telomeres and inflammaging remains underexplored. We aimed to identify 22 proteins that are differentially expressed between age classes in response to an acute inflammatory 23 challenge. We challenged young (2 months) and old (12 months) C57BL/6 mice using bacterial 24 lipopolysaccharide (LPS) and measured telomere length and proteomic profiles in splenocytes. 233 out 25 of the 1966 proteins we quantified differed among experimental groups. A hierarchical clustering 26 analysis revealed that nine of those 233 proteins highly affected experimental groups differentiations. 27 Young mice responded to LPS by increasing the expression of proteins involved in the innate immune 28 response, and interestingly, in telomere length maintenance. However, this regulation was impaired 29 at older ages. These results are in accord with the assumption that the strength of selection declines 30 with age, potentially explaining the maintenance of costly, dysregulated, immune responses at old age. 31 We establish that the immune response is competing with telomere maintenance process, highlighting 32 how telomeres reflect quality of ageing even in a species where telomere length is not related to lifespan. 33

35 Introduction

36 The immune system is usually depicted as a two edged sword, with confering benefits but also 37 generating costs. While the benefits of immune protection are obvious [1], the immune response has 38 been shown to incur energy-dependent and independent costs. Constitutive and induced immune 39 responses draw host resources away from other physiological functions and this can generate trade-40 offs between immunity and life-history traits such as growth or reproduction [2, 3]. In addition to these 41 resource-based trade-offs, immunity can incur costs if immune effectors target host tissues and organs 42 [4]. These costs are referred to as immunopathology. Although immune-mediated diseases have been 43 identified for quite a long time, the importance of immunopathology in the context of the ecology and 44 evolution of host-parasite interactions has emerged as a new concept during the last two decades [5]. 45 The risk of immune-induced damage is particularly strong during the process of acute and chronic 46 inflammation. Broadly speaking, infection induces the activation of innate immunity effectors within 47 minutes to hours [6]. Such rapid response and the associated local inflammation then favours 48 mounting of the adaptive immune response (*i.e.* via lymphocyte recruitment, [7]) within days and 49 weeks. Innate and adaptive responses not only differ in terms of rapidity, but also in terms of 50 specificity. While adaptive response is highly specific, innate immunity is essentially based on the 51 recognition of conserved pathogen molecular patterns such as structural components of the bacterial 52 wall (lipopolysaccharide in gram-negative bacteria or peptidoglycan in gram-positive bacteria), by 53 pattern recognition receptors (such as Toll-like receptors) and the induction of cytotoxic effectors 54 (oxidative burst) [7, 8]. By their inherent function/nature, these effectors cannot discriminate invading 55 pathogens from host cells and tissues and therefore can induce substantial damage if they get out from 56 control [9].

57 Failure in the resolution of acute and chronic inflammation can induce life-threatening 58 diseases [10, 11]. Indeed, inflammation and activation of oxidative attacks on intruders may have many 59 collateral negative impacts on the host itself, including ultimate costs on life history traits [12]. Ageing 60 has been shown to be associated with the up-regulation of low grade inflammation, i.e. inflammaging [13, 14], which makes elderly more susceptible to many degenerative age-associated pathologies such as cancer, diabetes, cardio-vascular diseases [15], and ultimately impairs lifespan of individuals. Old individuals have also been shown to pay disproportionately high costs of inflammatory activation when regulatory mechanisms are experimentally broken-down, suggesting that ageing individuals are more prone to immunopathology [16]. In a companion study, we notably reported that LPS-induced oxidative stress in the liver induces immunopathology costs in old mice [17]. Accumulation of senescent cells in old organisms may be one of the mechanisms leading to chronic inflammation [18].

68 Telomeres, which are repeated DNA sequences that protect chromosome extremity, are one 69 of the structures sensitive to the mechanisms involved in the inflammatory process. Telomeres. The 70 length of these repeated motifs are supposed to reflect biological age, since cellular replication and 71 stress erodes them (although mechanisms that restore telomere caps exist) [19]. Telomere length is 72 thus used as a marker of cell senescence [20] as well as the whole organism's survival [21-24]. 73 Telomeres have been previously linked with the immune cell response to pathogens [25]. They are 74 particularly susceptible to erosion during infection and the associated inflammatory response. This was 75 shown for instance in a wild passerine, where a mild malaria infection over life induces an accelerated 76 erosion of blood cell telomere, resulting in a subsequent significant reduction in lifetime reproduction 77 output and adult lifespan [26]. It is therefore possible that up-regulated chronic inflammation at old 78 age (inflammaging) and the lower ability of old individuals to cope with acute inflammatory responses 79 are accelerating factors promoting telomere attrition [27], leading to a vicious circle between telomere 80 attrition, emergence of senescent cells and inflammaging.

The aim of this study was twofold. First, we wished to explore if an acute inflammatory challenge induces age-dependent variation in protein expression in an immune organ, the spleen, using a quantitative proteomic approach. Second, we investigated whether telomere length differed with age and whether the proteomic profile activated by the immune challenge could reveal mechanisms involved in telomere attrition. In doing so, we wanted to test if the cost of an immune challenge is mirrored in telomere malfunction even in a species were telomerase is active at adulthood.

88 Materials and methods

89 Ethical statement

90 The present experiment has been conducted under the permit n° AL/05/34/12/12 delivered 91 by the 'Comité Régional d'Ethique en Matière d'Expérimentation Animale de Strasbourg'. Animals 92 were maintained in captivity within the IPHC-DEPE animal husbandry (French Department of 93 Veterinary Services n° E67-482-18) and under standardized rearing conditions previously indicated in 94 [17]. F. Criscuolo is the holder of an animal experimentation licence granted by French authorities (no. 95 67-78).

96 Experimental design

97 The experiment was conducted on 26 C57BL/6J male mice from our own colony and originated 98 from Elevage-Janvier laboratory [12 mice were 2 months old (hereafter young), and 14 mice were 12 99 months old (hereafter old)], reared in age-separated cages of 6-7 animals in our laboratory under 100 constant temperature (24 ± 2 °C), humidity (50-55%) and photoperiod (13:11 L:D cycle) and fed ad 101 libitum on a standard diet (SAFE A03). Mice in each age class were randomly allocated to the two 102 experimental groups: 6 young and 8 old mice received an intraperitoneal injection of 25 μ g/kg body 103 mass of lipopolysaccharide [LPS; Escherichia coli, Sigma Aldrich, a non-lethal dose based on a previous 104 study [17]], and the other mice were kept as controls and injected with sterile phosphate buffered 105 solution (PBS). LPS is a TLR4 ligand that stimulates neutrophils and macrophages, induces the release 106 of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, IFN- γ , TNF- α , IL-1 β), cytotoxic reactive oxygen and reactive 107 nitrogen species (ROS, RNS) (e.g. [28]). As previously observed, the LPS-injected mice stopped eating 108 and remained motionless for up-to 24h after injection, after what they started gaining body mass [17] 109 One old mouse died in the LPS group, reducing the sample size of this group to seven.

110 Twenty-four hours post-challenge, all mice were euthanized by cervical dislocation and two 111 aliquots of the spleen were immediately snap-frozen in liquid nitrogen before storage at -80°C, until 112 telomere length measurements by qPCR, proteomic and Western blot analyses (Methodological details are available in the electronic supplementary material, ESM 1). Body mass (± 0.1 g) was also measured just before the intraperitoneal injection and 24h post-challenge (ESM3). We chose this short-term measurements (and age classes) based on previous LPS-injection experiments conducted on the same mouse line [17] showing that body mass loss and oxidative costs was maximal at that time (i.e. the putative cost being easier to measure at the telomere level) and will not be compensated by the triggering of telomerase activity during recovery.

119 Statistical analyses

120 We selected a three-step analysis for the proteomic and molecular data obtained on spleen 121 tissues. As we did in previous studies [17, 29], we first sorted the significant effects of age (young and 122 old) and treatment (PBS and LPS) as fixed factors using ANOVA for each of the 1966 quantified proteins 123 (Electronic Supplementary Material, Table S2). We thus selected the 233 proteins for which i) ANOVA 124 p-values were below 0.05, and ii) the post-hoc Tukey test p-value (with Bonferroni correction) was 125 below 0.05 and the absolute fold change was > 1.5 fold for at least one pairwise comparison. In a 126 second step, we used this subsample to run a hierarchical clustering on principal component analysis 127 (PCA) to obtain a dendrogram that assembles proteins based on similarities of variation according to 128 experimental groups [30]. This second step was done to further reduce the number of variables to 129 avoid multicollinearity among a too large number of variables. We chose to set-up the hierarchical 130 clustering analysis with four clusters, based on inertia gain choice (4 clusters explained a total of 82% 131 of the total variance while 3 clusters explained 74%), and because two of these clusters (3 and 4) 132 explained a large fraction of the total variance in both axes (81.1% and 6.1%, respectively figure 1). These clusters (3 and 4) encompassed 9 proteins. The final step of analysis consisted of merging the 133 134 proteomic variables so far selected (9 proteins) and the physiological and molecular data (body mass 135 and telomere length) to run a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with varimax rotation (determinant 136 of 0.001). PCA resulted in three axes (PCA1, PCA2 and PCA3) explaining 36.2%, 24.4% and 13.9% of the 137 variance, respectively (total 74.5%). Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was of 0.66 and Bartlett's test of 138 sphericity confirmed an adequate correlation among variables for PCA (χ^2 (55) = 140.9, P < 0.001). Given

139 the number of variables, only components of the axis with an eigenvalue over 0.4 were retained 140 (Kaiser's criterion). PCA scores of each individual were then used as the dependent variable in a 141 Generalized Linear Model (GLM) with age (young vs. old), immune challenge (LPS vs. PBS) and their 142 interaction. To confirm the significance of the relationship between individual telomere length and the 143 protein signals, we chose to run an additional analysis on the raw values (not on the PCA values). To 144 do so, we finally investigated the association between telomere length and the 9 proteins (among 145 which some were previously known to be involved in telomere dynamics, *e.g.* chitinase-like protein 3) 146 using a model selection after testing for absence of multicollinearity using variance inflation factor 147 (minimum Tolerance index > 0.19). For western-blot analysis of shelterin proteins, we performed one-148 way ANOVA with Tukey posthoc tests. Adjustment of p values was done according to Bonferroni–Holm 149 (p < 0.05), after checking for normality distribution (Shapiro–Wilk test) and homoscedasticity (Bartlett 150 test). All statistics were run on the program R using RStudio (version 1.1.414). Hierarchical clustering 151 and PCA were conducted using FactoMineR R package [31]. We used the dredge function of the MuMIn 152 package (version 1.15.1) to run model selection. Normality of the residuals was checked suing QQ plots and Kolmogorow-Smirnov tests. Significance threshold used is $P \le 0.05$. 153

154

155 Results

156 The proteomics analysis yielded the robust identification of 2788 proteins, of which 1966 157 fulfilled the criteria for quantification (ESM 2, table S2). A total of 285 proteins were differentially 158 expressed as they exhibited ANOVA p-values below 0.05, and this number dropped to 233 when 159 considering Tukey p-values below 0.05 and absolute fold changes above 1.5 for at least one pairwise 160 comparison. Hierarchical clustering pointed to nine of these proteins as major contributors belonging 161 to two different clusters (3 and 4) that explained most of the variation on both axes of the dendrogram 162 (figure 1A) and which are well characterizing the young PBS and young LPS groups (figure 1B). To test 163 how these proteomic data, once added to biological variables, vary with age and treatment, we used 164 these nine proteins, changes in body mass during the 24h post-challenge and telomere length to run 165 a principal component analysis. The contribution of the different variables to the three principal 166 components (PCA1, 2 and 3) are reported in table 1. PCA1 (36.2% of variance explained) positively 167 loaded with protein S100-A9, lysozyme C-2, and annexin A1; PCA2 (24.4% of variance explained) had 168 positive loads with coronin 1A and RAS-C3, and negative loads with endoplasmin HSP90b1, GRP-78, 169 carbonic-anhydrase 1, and changes in body mass; finally PCA3 (13.9% of variance explained) positively 170 loaded with endoplasmin HSP90b1, GRP-78 and chitinase-like protein 3, and negatively with telomere 171 length. Based on Gene Ontology annotations and literature analysis, the three principal component 172 axes may be attributed to the following biological functions: Immune response and inflammation 173 (PCA1), response to stress and ageing (PCA2) and stress and telomere function/length regulation 174 (PCA3).

We then used the individual PCA values on each of the three axes as the dependent variables in a general linear model to investigate how these values varied as a function of age and immune treatment. The results showed that PCA1 was significantly affected by the interaction age x immune treatment. In particular, young LPS-treated mice had higher PCA1 values compared to the other experimental groups, suggesting an up-regulated expression of protein S100, annexin A1 and lysozyme (table 2). Old mice had similar PCA1 values, whatever their immune treatment (LPS vs. PBS; estimates 0.267 ±0.317, NS.).

The PCA2 axis was only affected by age (table 2), with old mice having lower values than young mice. This suggests an age-dependent up-regulation of carbonic-anhydrase 1, GRP 70 kDa and Hsp 90, and a down-regulation of Coronin 1A and RAS-C3.

As for PCA1, the PCA3 axis was also affected by the interaction between age and the immune treatment (table 2): while young mice significantly increased their PCA3 values in response to LPS, old mice presented unchanged PCA3 values after the immune treatment (and had mean overall higher values throughout the study). This suggests an up-regulated expression of GRP 70 kDa, Hsp 90 and chitinase-like protein 3, and shorter telomeres in old mice compared to young mice. 190 Given that chitinase-like protein 3 and Hsp 90 (over-expressed in old mice), and the protein 191 S100-A9 (over-expressed in young mice in the LPS group) have been shown to have a function in the 192 regulation of telomere length, we further investigate the relationship between telomere length and 193 the proteomic profile at the individual level. Model selection indicates that chitinase-like protein 3 and 194 Hsp 90 proteins were the best predictors of telomere length independently of the treatment or age 195 (table 3). In addition, we found that chitinase-like protein 3 was negatively correlated with telomere 196 length, both when the regression was conducted using the entire dataset or separated by treatments 197 (PBS and LPS, figure 2). The regression was not significant when the dataset is separated by age (young 198 mice only, r = 0.373, $r^2 = 0.139$, $F_{1, 11} = 1.619$, P = 0.232 and old mice only r = 0.530, $r^2 = 0.281$, $F_{1, 11} = 0.281$, $F_{1, 11} = 0.232$ 3.903, P = 0.076). 199

Finally, of the different shelterin proteins implicated in telomere length regulation, westernblot analysis highlighted that only TRF1-interacting nuclear factor 2 (TIN2) expression levels exhibited significant differences among mice groups: a non-significant increase following LPS injection was observed especially in young mice, and there was a significantly higher level of expression for LPSinjected younger mice compared to old ones (figure 3, see ESM4 for statistics and ESM5 for additional representative blots).

206

207 Discussion

Our results show that the induction of an acute inflammatory response produced agedependent changes in the proteomic profile of mouse splenocytes. LPS challenge induced an upregulated expression of protein S100-A9, lysozyme C-2 and annexin A1 in young mice compared to the other groups, while in old mice, this proteomic profile of did not change in relation to LPS.. Similarly, over the whole experiment old mice presented a significantly higher level of expression of proteins associated with immune response and oxidative stress, as well as shorter telomeres compared to young individuals. 215 Analysis of the PCA1 axis which contained protein S100-A9, lysozyme and annexin A1 showed 216 higher values in LPS treated young mice compared to control mice. These proteins play key roles as 217 anti-bacterial effectors and in the regulation of the inflammatory response. For instance, lysozyme 218 degrades the membrane of gram positive bacteria [32], and protein S100-A9, released by apoptotic 219 neutrophils, favors the resolution of the inflammatory response by promoting their elimination by 220 macrophages, and down-regulate pro-inflammatory signals [33]. Similarly, annexin A1, a protein 221 expressed in innate immune cells, has an anti-inflammatory effect [34] and mice that do not express 222 annexin A1 (KO) suffer from fatal septic shock following a LPS injection [35]. Therefore, young mice 223 challenged with LPS had a proteomic signature in splenocytes indicating both the up-regulation of anti-224 bacterial effectors, and proteins involved in the fine-tuned control of the acute inflammatory response. 225 In a companion study, we showed that the liver proteome of C57BL/6 old mice, exposed to a 226 24h-LPS challenge, was characterized by the up-regulation of proteins involved in the oxidative balance 227 compared to young mice; in the same study, the expression of proteins with specific anti-bacterial 228 functions was not affected by the immune challenge [17]. Using spleen tissue, we found a comparable 229 pattern of variation for PCA2, old mice being similar in their protein profiles before and after injection, 230 but being different from young mice in that they expressed more HSP90, HSP70 (GRP-78 kDa) and 231 carbonic anhydrase 1. Carbonic anhydrase 1 has been previously reported to be over-expressed in old 232 mice [36]. Of particular interest is the up-regulated expression of HSP90 and HSP70 in old mice, 233 because these proteins have pleiotropic functions, with both protective [37] and potentially damaging 234 properties [38-40]. Compared to young mice, old mice also had a lower expression of RAS3 and coronin 235 1A. These proteins are involved in the regulation of the stress response [41] and immunodeficiency 236 [42].

237 Telomere maintenance as a cost of innate immunity

238 Mice have highly active telomerase [43, 44], and as a consequence, it is generally assumed that 239 telomere length does not decrease with age in laboratory mice [45]. However, this does not mean that 240 mice are not exposed to telomere erosion when facing stressful events, *i.e.* when telomerase activity 241 is potentially inhibited for instance by increased corticosterone levels [46]. Since marginal telomere 242 shortening with age in some mice tissue has been reported (see [43]), we do know that telomere 243 shortening over generations in telomerase knock-out mice does negatively affect organ functioning 244 and lifespan [47]. This particularly affects highly proliferative tissues which are lined by the 245 hematopoietic cells [48]. In agreement with this, our finding that old mice had shorter telomeres 246 compared to young mice (see ESM, Table S3) could be explained by a transient inhibition of telomerase 247 activity due to the trade-off between telomere maintenance and the immune response. This is in 248 accordance with the recent idea that telomere maintenance per se could be energy costly [49]. 249 Telomere shortening in old mice was concomitant with over-expression of HSP90, HSP70, and 250 chitinase-like protein 3. Interestingly, HSP90 binds to the catalytic subunit of the telomerase, allowing 251 the assembly of the whole enzyme and maintenance of its activity [50]. Immune cells are guite diverse 252 in function, from hematopoietic stem cells to peripheral blood cells, all which have different 253 proliferation capacities and telomerase activity [51]. The dynamics of telomere length in white blood 254 cells during infection and particularly after mitogen and LPS injections was previously studied [52]. 255 Subsequent results provided evidence for an increased telomerase activity in response to infection, 256 mostly restricted to lymphocyte cell lines. However, mice lacking the telomerase catalytic subunit 257 TERC^{-/-} also showed higher inflammation responses [53] and we detected the chitinase-like protein 3 258 in mice spleen, which is highly expressed in activated macrophages [54]. This suggests that (i) 259 macrophages may indeed be largely present in our sampled cell population, and (ii) in old mice, HSP90 260 expression may be linked to an (unsuccessful) response to save telomeres via telomerase activity. 261 Chitinase-like protein 3 has a dual key role for the immune system (i) by inducing macrophage 262 activation via the degradation of bacterial chitin, which triggers pro-inflammatory cytokine secretion, 263 and (ii) by insuring a negative feedback loop on the inflammation process necessary to the remodeling 264 of injured tissues [55]. The fact that chitinase-like protein 3 is more highly expressed in old mice as well 265 as in young mice after LPS injection is in accordance with a lower capacity to control inflammation at 266 old ages. In addition, chitinase-like protein 3 expression and telomere ends and telomerase 267 dysfunction have been previously linked [56, 57], suggesting that chitinase-like protein 3 is a robust 268 ageing biomarker. Again, our results are in accordance with a direct or indirect implication of chitinase-269 like protein 3 in telomere maintenance, since we highlighted that chitinase-like protein 3 expression 270 levels are negatively linked with telomere lengths irrespectively of age but in relation to LPS treatment 271 (figure 3). As a consequence, chitinase-like protein 3 may be an element explaining the immune trade-272 off faced by young mice injected with LPS, independently of previously suggested pathways (e.g. 273 collateral direct oxidative stress). Chitinase-like protein 3 may be one of the links between 274 inflammatory reaction and telomere shortening. Although the nature of such a mechanism remains to 275 be established, macrophages functioning is likely to be implicated. Another pathway that may be 276 implicated concerns the shelterin TIN2 expression, which clearly tended to be up-regulated in young-277 LPS mice. TIN2 is regulating the access of telomerase to telomere ends and is necessary for telomere 278 maintenance and telomere end adequate functioning [58, 59]. In addition, TIN2 has been shown to 279 insure cell viability independently of any telomere length regulation [60], underlying that its expression 280 may also participate to the mitigation of negative side-effects of inflammation.

Previous studies suggested that telomere length is involved in the capacity of individuals to respond to infection [61, 62]. Based on our data, we hypothesize here, using a proteomic exploratory approach, that the age-related costs of the innate response to LPS implies at least partly a telomere and/or telomerase-related pathway. In mice, even if telomere length is not related to lifespan [63], transient telomere shortening may be the outcome of life-history trade-offs *via* the direct competition for energy of telomere maintenance pathways or due to the indirect effect of stress hormones.

287

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291 Competing interests

292 We declare no competing interests.

293 Author contributions

- 294 F.C. conceived the study and carried out the experimental work, F.B. and M. B.-D. conducted proteomic
- and Western Blot analyses while S.Z. conducted telomere length measurements, F.C. ran the statistical
- analyses and F.C., G.S., F.B. and B.F. drafted the manuscript. All authors gave final approval for
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303 Data accessibility

Raw data are given in the supplementary material files (table S3).

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- 474

477 Figure legends

478 Figure 1

A. Hierarchical dendogram built on the 233 proteins detected in mice spleen (n=24). The number of
protein clusters selected (k = 4, indicated by the arrow in dots) was chosen because it increased the
percentage of total variance explained by the classification by 7.4% and then thereafter only by 4%.
Among the four clusters thereby selected, two were explaining more the total variation of axes 1 and
2 (cluster 3 and 4 indicated in shadow), which gathered 9 proteins (cluster 3, ID 2156, 1548, 277, 2242,
656; cluster 4, ID 928, 471, 132,546). Numbers refer to identification N° in Table S2. Height represents
the numbers of mice present in each cluster.

B. Hierarchical dendrogram built using mice spleen proteomic profiles (based on the 233 proteins quantified), showing mice' distribution (n=24) among clusters (k = 3, separating old mice, and young PBS (dark shadow) and young LPS (grey shadow) groups. Setting the number of clusters to 4 or more did not show any sharp increase in the total variance explained (9% for 4 clusters, and 8% for 5 clusters...). Clusters of mice correspond to the protein clusters represented in figure 1A. Height represents the numbers of proteins present in each cluster.

492

493 Figure 2

Regression checking for linear relationship between individual telomere length and proteomic levels of expression of the chitinase-like 3 protein. Lines represent 95% confidence interval. Log10 (T/S ratio) $= 0.10 - 7.95 \times 10^{-10}$ (*chitinase-like 3 protein*), r = 0.636, r² = 0.404, F_{1, 23} = 14.934, P = 0.001. Dispersion of the experimental groups is shown by different colors, filled circles indicate young-PBS mice, open circles indicate young-LPS mice, dark-grey circles indicate old-PBS mice and light-grey circles indicate old-LPS mice. Regressions tested by treatment are also both significant (PBS: r = 0.635, r² = 0.403, F_{1, 11} = 6.763, P = 0.026, LPS: r = 0.623, r² = 0.389, F_{1, 11} = 6.357, P = 0.030).

502 Figure 3

503 TIN2 protein levels in mice spleen.

504 Representative western blots for protein levels of TERF1-interacting nuclear factor 2 (TIN2) in the

spleen of mice are shown in the upper-panel. Fold changes in young mice injected with LPS and old

- 506 mice injected with PBS or LPS relative to the mean value in young mice injected with PBS (which was
- arbitrarily set to 1) are shown in the lower-panel. Values that do not share the same superscript letter
- 508 are significantly different (see ESM4 and ESM5).

511 Figures

512 Figure 1A



Axe 1

513 514











529 Tables

530 Table 1

		PCA1	PCA2	PCA 3
Proteomic signals	ID N°			
Protein S100-A9	2156	0.922		
Lysozyme C-2	1548	0.819		
Annexin A1	277	0.882		
Endoplasmin Hsp90b1	928		-0.441	0.742
GRP-78 kDa	132		-0.463	0.588
Carbonic-anhydrase 1	471		-0.853	
Coronin 1A	656		0.865	
RAS-C3	2242		0.817	
Chitinase-like protein 3	546			0.818
Physiological signals				
Body mass loss			-0.535	
Telomere length				-0.892
% variance explained		36.2	24.4	13.9

Nature of the variables forming the main axes (PCA1, PCA2 and PCA3) of the Principal Components Analysis conducted on proteomic and physiological variables describing spleen cellular responses to an immune challenge (LPS) among old and young mice. Only eigenvalues over 0.4 were taken into account and are indicated (see text for details). Total variance explained by the model: 74.5%. ID N° refers to "Identification N°" of proteins that are listed in Table S2.

537 Table 2

Variables : physiological and proteomic signals	Estimates	D.F	F	Р		
(a) PCA1						
Age (Old vs. young)	0.319 ± 0.317	1, 23	7.208	0.007		
Immune Treatment (LPS vs. PBS)	2.110 ± 0.317	1, 23	28.047	<0.001		
Age x Immune Treatment		1, 23	16.867	<0.001		
Young LPS vs. Old LPS	1.524 ± 0.317			<0.001		
vs. Old PBS	1.791 ± 0.408			<0.001		
vs. Young PBS	2.110 ± 0.419			<0.001		
(b) PCA2						
Age (Old vs. young)	-1.172 ± 0.466	1, 23	10.846	0.001		
Immune Treatment (LPS vs. PBS)	-0.276 ± 0.386	1, 23	0.332	0.565		
Age x Immune Treatment		1, 23	0.068	0.794		
(c) PCA3						
Age (Old vs. young)	1.900 ± 0.368	1, 23	27.656	<0.001		
Immune Treatment (LPS vs. PBS)	0.780 ± 0.517	1, 23	0.907	0.341		
Age x Immune Treatment		1, 23	4.217	0.040		
Young LPS vs. Old PBS	-1.119 ± 0.368			0.014		
vs. Young PBS	0.781 ± 0.370			0.034		
Young PBS vs. Old PBS	-1.614 ± 0.408			<0.001		
vs. Old LPS	-1.190 ± 0.419			<0.001		

Generalized linear models explaining the variability in the components axes (PC1, PC2, PC3) of proteomic and physiological signals in old and young mice challenged with PBS or LPS (n=6 in each group). Generalized linear model analysis separated by treatment (a) was used to assess Interaction Age x Immune treatment differences among groups (indicated in bold). Estimates and mean values are given ± SE and only significant differences among Age x Treatment interactions are indicated (using Bonferroni correction). Residuals of each models followed a normal distribution (checked using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and QQ plot).

545 Table 3

Fixed effect	Estimates	Standard	z-value	P-value
		error		
Intercept	0.105	0.089	1.130	0.259
Chitinase-like protein 3	- 7.926 ⁻¹⁰	2.535 ⁻¹⁰	2.967	0.003
Annexin A1	7.587 -10	5.000 ⁻¹⁰	1.439	0.150
Lysozyme C-2	-1.238 ⁻⁹	8.560-10	1.380	0.168
Endoplasmin Hsp90b1	-1.087 ⁻⁹	8.788-10	1.194	0.232
Protein S100-A9	1.051 ⁻⁹	<i>9.059</i> ⁻¹⁰	1.160	0.250
Carbonic-anhydrase 1	3.030-10	<i>3.610⁻¹⁰</i>	0.915	0.360
RAS-C3	-3.124 ⁻¹⁰	7.753 ⁻¹⁰	0.403	0.687
GRP-78 kDa	3.365 ⁻¹⁰	6.524 ⁻¹⁰	0.490	0.624
Coronin 1A	-1.344 ⁻¹⁰	6.473-10	0.196	0.845

546 Model of the relationship between (i) the spleen proteomic expression levels of 9 proteins and (ii) the spleen 547 telomere length (log-transformed). The estimates and *P*-values for the fixed effects are averaged over the 7 548 best general linear models for which the Δ AIC < 2 in comparison to the best model (AIC=-47.6, which used 549 Annexin A1 and chitinase-like 3 as fixed factors (indicated in bold)). Fixed factors used in those 7 best models 550 are indicated in italic.