

Telomere dynamic in humans and animals: Review and perspectives in environmental toxicology

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1	Telomere dynamic in humans and animals: review and perspectives in
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Abstract

Telomeres (TLs) play major roles in stabilizing the genome and are usually shortened with ageing. The maintenance of TLs is ensured by two mechanisms involving telomerase (TA) enzyme and alternative lengthening telomeres (ALT). TL shortening and/or TA inhibition have been related to health effects on organisms (leading to reduced reproductive lifespan and survival), suggesting that they could be key processes in toxicity mechanisms (at molecular and cellular levels) and relevant as an early warning of exposure and effect of chemicals on human health and animal population dynamics. Consequently, a critical analysis of knowledge about relationships between TL dynamic and environmental pollution is essential to highlight the relevance of TL measurement in environmental toxicology.

The first objective of this review is to provide a survey on the basic knowledge about TL structure, roles, maintenance mechanisms and causes of shortening in both vertebrates (including humans) and invertebrates. Overall, TL length decreases with ageing but some unexpected exceptions are reported (e.g., in species with different lifespans, such as the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans or the crustacean Homarus americanus). Inconsistent results reported in various biological groups or even between species of the same genus (e.g., the microcrustacean Daphnia sp.) indicate that the relation usually proposed between TL shortening and a decrease in TA activity cannot be generalized and depends on the species, stage of development or lifespan. Although the scientific literature provides evidence of the effect of ageing on TL shortening, much less information on the relationships between shortening, maintenance of TLs, influence of other endogenous and environmental drivers, including exposure to chemical pollutants, is available, especially in invertebrates.

The second objective of this review is to connect knowledge on TL dynamic and exposure to contaminants. Most of the studies published on humans rely on correlative

epidemiological approaches and few *in vitro* experiments. They have shown TL attrition when exposed to contaminants, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), pesticides and metallic elements (ME). In other vertebrates, the studies we found deals mainly with birds and, overall, report a disturbance of TL dynamic consecutively to exposure to chemicals, including metals and organic compounds. In invertebrates, no data are available and the potential of TL dynamic in environmental risk assessment remains to be explored.

On the basis of the main gaps identified some research perspectives (*e.g.*, impact of endogenous and environmental drivers, dose response effects, link between TL length, TA activity, longevity and ageing) are proposed to better understand the potential of TL and TA measurements in humans and animals in environmental toxicology.

1. Introduction

Telomeres (TLs) are repetitive, non-coding DNA sequences located at the ends of chromosomes. TLs were identified in the 1930s by McClintock (1941) and Müller (1938), who described their potential functions in maintaining chromosome stability by observing the chromosomes of corn and drosophila. It was postulated that cells were not able to divide themselves into "infinity" (Weismann, 1889). This theory was confirmed in the 1960s (Hayflick and Moorhead, 1961; Hayflick, 1965) on a human foetal cell culture (division ability between 40 and 60 times before entrance in a senescence phase). Olovnikov theorized the *Hayflick limit*, which postulates that somatic cells have a limited number of divisions in connection with the loss of DNA sequences at the extremities of chromosomes, *i.e.*, TLs. When this limit is exceeded, cells enter senescence (Olovnikov, 1971). The popularity of TLs grown over the last four decades since the discovery of a repeated sequence of six telomeric

nucleotides of a ciliated protozoan, Tetrahymena thermophila (CCCCAA), and of the protective role of this sequence against chromosome degradation (Yao et al., 1981; Szostak and Blackburn, 1982; Shampay et al., 1984). TLs are mainly known to protect and stabilize DNA by protecting chromosomes from degradation (end-to-end fusion and erosion), stabilizing broken chromosome ends, modulating the DNA repair machinery of double strand break (DSB) damage with non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ), counting the number of cell divisions (replicative potential of cells), participating in mitotic and meiotic chromosome segregation and the attachment of chromosomes to the nuclear envelope (Haber, 1999; de Lange, 2005; Oeseburg et al., 2010; Grach, 2013). For humans, TL length decreases with ageing (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008) and TL attrition is recognized as a biomarker of the nine hallmarks of ageing (Lopez-Otin et al., 2013). Mechanisms of TL maintenance limit fast TL attrition and are closely associated with the activities of some enzymes, the most well known being telomerase, or TA (Greider and Blackburn, 1985; Greider and Blackburn, 1989). If TL attrition occurs naturally, some studies report that it can be accelerated by various biological (e.g., infections) and environmental (e.g., chemical substances) stressors known for their toxicological effects. However, there is a lack of knowledge of various stressors (e.g., contaminants, biotic and abiotic factors) and species, including invertebrates. Furthermore, data regarding the actions of these stressors on TL maintenance pathways that are key to protecting and stabilizing the genome against various stressors, including pollutants, are lacking. Based on data showing that chemicals are able to induce human premature ageing and decrease lifespan (Chen et al., 2013; Puri et al., 2017), it appears relevant to investigate on TL dynamic to search for bridges between molecular and cellular effects (impact on TL length and/or TL maintenance), health effects (e.g., survival, reproductive lifespan) and

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consequences on populations (e.g., density, growth).

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The aim of this review is to identify research questions on TL dynamic in vertebrates and invertebrates in relation to ageing, lifespan and environmental toxicology. The main question concerns the potential use of TL measurement as a relevant biomarker, especially in the framework of the One Health concept, to assess the effects of multiple stressors at the human-animal-ecosystem interface (Destoumieux-Garzón et al., 2018). Thus, the first objective of this review is to report basic knowledge about the structure, roles and maintenance mechanisms of TLs and causes of TL shortening in the animal kingdom. On the basis of this premise, the second objective is to connect knowledge on TL dynamic and exposure to contaminants. Finally, based on the lack of knowledge of TL dynamic in environmental toxicology, some perspectives are proposed.

2. Structure variability of telomeres in the animal kingdom

In animals, TL sequences (TTAGGG)_n are highly conserved (Meyne et al., 1989; Traut et al., 2007), with slight variations in phyla such as Arthropoda (Gomes et al., 2010). Sequence conservation results, for example, in similar TL sequences for a heterothermic invertebrate (the snail *Cantareus aspersus*) and a homeothermic vertebrate (*Homo sapiens*), while most insects possess a pentameric motif (TTAGG), with the exception of Coleoptera (Frydrichovà et al., 2004; Vitkovà et al., 2005; Gomes et al., 2011). TL sequences have been determined in various species (*Table 1*), among which some are used as bioindicators in environmental toxicology (*e.g.*, *Daphnia pulex*, *Eisenia foetida*, *C. aspersus*). The repetition number of TL sequences is variable according to species or age and can frequently reach several thousands of nucleotides in Metazoa. For instance, in human lymphocytes, the size ranges between 2.5 to 15 kilo base pairs (kbp) depending on the patient (O'Callaghan and Fenech, 2011).

The end of the TL is commonly called a loop because it looks like a hairpin structure (Griffith et al., 1999). Loops are formed by double-stranded TL repeats, the T-loop and the D-loop (Greider, 1999). The terminal region of the TL is a single-stranded overhang that is 3' G-

rich and is known as the G-tail (guanine-rich hairpin tail). This region forms G-quadruplexes, where each guanine base participates in hydrogen bond formation (Lipps and Rhodes, 2009) in a square planar arrangement that is stabilized by central cations (Williamson et al., 1989; Moye et al., 2015). TL functions are dependent on G-quadruplexes that are associated with proteins (Paeschke et al., 2005). In humans, TLs bear a protein complex, the shelterin complex, which is mainly composed of six different proteins: TRF1, TRF2, RAP1, TIN2, TPP1 and POT1 (Palm and de Lange, 2008; Oeseburg et al., 2010) (Figure 1). This DNA-protein complex is essential to protect TLs by the implication of TL maintenance machinery, as it avoids the inhibition of various DNA damage response (DDR) and DNA repair machinery (de Lange, 2009; Lu et al., 2013). Some proteins in humans associated with the shelterin complex have also been found in several animal species, such as POT1 in Caenorhabditis elegans (Ferreira et al., 2013) or in Daphnia sp (Schumpert et al., 2015). All these proteins play various roles in TL maintenance (Martinez and Blasco, 2010) and are summarized in Table 2.

Although the structure presented in *Figure 1* is accepted as the most commonly found in animal kingdom, some studies have shown that it is not ubiquitous, notably for insects, such as, *Chironomus sp.*, *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Bombyx mori* (Louis, 2002; Fujiwara et al., 2005; George et al., 2006; Mason et al., 2008; Pardue and DeBaryshe, 2008). For *D. melanogaster*, the shelterin complex is replaced by a same architecture, the terminin complex (Raffa et al., 2013), composed by five proteins (HOAP, HIPHOP, MOI, VER and TEA) and the function of terminin for diptera is mainly to protect telomere from fusion events or DNA damage response (Raffa et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Cicconi et al., 2017).

3. Maintenance of telomeres (TLs)

Various mechanisms operate to limit TL attrition (*i.e.*, TA, ALT) and/or to repair TLs when they are damaged.

3.1. Roles of telomerase (TA)

Telomerases are a group of enzymes coupled to RNA that synthesize *de novo* the extremities of the TL to limit its fast attrition in proliferative cell types (Greider and Blackburn, 1985; Greider and Blackburn, 1989). For example, a single TA enzyme able to synthesize 74 telomeric nucleotides per minute *in vitro* has been described in the ciliated protozoan *Tetrahymena thermophila* (Greider, 1991). To synthetize TLs, TA uses a catalytic component, TERT (telomerase reverse transcriptase; Nakamura et al., 1997), that has been characterized in many animals (*e.g.*, *Xenopus laevis* and *Bombyx mori*) (Kuramoto et al., 2001; Osanai et al., 2006). The activation of TERT requires its binding with two proteins of the shelterin complex, TPP1 and POT1 (Sandin and Rhodes, 2014). Then, TERT fosters the *de novo* synthesis of TLs by using the second subunit of TA, an RNA template (TERC or telomerase RNA component). In addition, TA can interact with G-quadruplexes to allow TL extension (Moye et al., 2015).

TA stability and activity can be reduced by the actions of hormone (*e.g.*, corticosterone; Gopalakrishnan et al., 2013; Angelier et al., 2018) and/or altered genes (*e.g.*, DKC1, dyskerin pseudouridine synthase 1; Bertuch, 2016). The instability and inactivity of TA are a cause of diseases such as dyskeratosis congenita (Zinsser-Cole-Engman syndrome), a telomeropathy leading to premature ageing (Drachtman and Alter, 1992; Vulliamy et al., 2001; Armanios and Blackburn, 2012; Armanios et al., 2013). If TA limits the shortening of TLs by adding small repeated segments of DNA at the ends of chromosomes at each cell division, their overexpression can be detrimental to individuals by causing diseases, such as cancer. In 80% to 90% of all cancers, cancer cells often have high TA activity (Jafri et al., 2016) due to mutations in the core promoter region of TERT (Horn et al., 2013; Grüner et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2018) which is considered a key factor for tumour development.

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3.2. Roles of alternative lengthening telomeres (ALT)

The ALT pathway, an alternative pathway used to synthetize TLs, has been reported in immortal human cell lines (Bryan et al., 1995; Bryan et al., 1997). The ALT pathway can be activated after epigenetic aberrations and mutations in genes encoding proteins involved in chromatin remodelling at TLs and other genomic sites or tumour suppressors, such as p53 (Chung et al., 2012; Cesare and Reddel, 2013; Conomos et al., 2013; Naderlinger and Holzmann, 2017). There are various mechanisms involved in the ALT pathway (e.g., TL elongation performed by homologous recombination) (Natarajan and McEachern, 2002; Natarajan et al., 2003; Topcu et al., 2005; Cesare and Reddel, 2010; Cesare and Reddel, 2013; Conomos et al., 2013). Some proteins are associated with the ALT pathway and are involved in the restart of telomeric DNA replication, such as HR protein complexes (MRN, MRE11, RAD50, NSB1, NBN), proteins located on chromosome 5 for the structural maintenance of TLs (SMC5, SMC6), Fanconi anaemia proteins (FANDCD2, FANCA) and endonucleases (FEN1) (Cesare and Reddel, 2010). The ALT pathway was evidenced in human somatic cells (especially those that lose tumour protein 53 (TP53), which are genetically unstable) and promotes proliferative cancer cells in humans (15% of cancers) (Henson et al., 2002; Cesare et al., 2009; Lovejoy et al., 2012; Conomos et al., 2013; Neumann et al., 2013; Roake and Artendi, 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Min et al., 2017).

3.3. DNA repair of telomeres

The maintenance of functional TLs is critical for genome stability. When damages affect TL extremities, TA or the ALT pathway is recruited for maintenance. However, damage (*e.g.*, breaks, oxidation of nucleotides, alkylations) can also take place at various locations in the TL sequence. In this case, other mechanisms, *i.e.*, DNA repair pathways are mobilized. These

pathways are the same as those that watch over the rest of the genome, such as base excision repair (BER), nucleotide excision repair (NER), homologous recombination (HR), non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ) and mismatch repair (MMR) (Webb et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2015). The DNA BER pathway involves endonucleases (such as APE1) and is a major way to protect genomes from oxidative stress in association with the shelterin complex through, for instance, interaction with TRF2 to stabilize telomeric DNA (Madlner et al., 2013). Moreover, DNA repair mechanisms are also essential when damage occurs in genes encoding proteins involved in TL dynamic (*e.g.*, TERT, POT1, MRN).

4. Causes and consequences of telomere attrition

4.1. Ageing

Several causes of TL shortening have been identified (*Figure 2*). The main one, ageing is natural and is due to cell division (Blackburn, 2005), because at each division, chromosomes lose telomeric patterns. TLs have a critical minimal size that, when reached, induces an inhibition of cell division cycles and cellular senescence processes (Harley et al., 1990; Blackburn, 1991; Amanions and Blackburn, 2012; Reichert et al., 2017). In various animal groups, it has been reported that TLs shorten with ageing (*Table 3*). The relation between ageing and shortened TLs has been evidenced mainly for vertebrates (*i.e.*, mammals, fish and birds), for example in cats (McKevitt et al., 2003) and rodents (Coviello-McLaughlin et al., 1997). However, for some vertebrates (*e.g.*, long-lived species like the bird, *Oceanodroma leucorhoa*, or the water python, *Liasis fuscus*), no relationship between the age of individuals and TL length has been highlighted, probably due to reduced oxidative damage (Haussman et al., 2003) or high TA activity stimulated by hormones notably estrogens (Ujvari and Masden, 2009). *Table 3* shows a lack of knowledge on TL dynamic as a function of age in

invertebrates and the mechanism of ageing. Based on the few data available with a sufficient number of individuals by age group, three patterns can be identified regarding relationships between TLs, TA and ageing: increase, decrease and no variation. In the Baikal gastropod Kobeltocochlea martensiana, an enlargement of TLs with ageing has been demonstrated (Maximova et al., 2017). Studies on the planaria Schmidtea mediterranea, which has an apparently limitless regenerative capacity, showed that TLs decrease with age in sexual animals, while asexual planaria can maintain TL length during fission or regeneration (Tan et al., 2012). In the aquatic arthropod *Daphnia sp.*, no relationship between age and TL length was found in D. pulex while D. pulicaria, whose life cycle is twice as long as that of D. pulex, showed TL attrition with ageing (Schumpert et al., 2015). In both species, TL dynamic appears to be correlated with TA activity. These different patterns underline that phylogenetic proximity does not mean similar patterns between TLs or TA responses and ageing. For the nematode Caenorhabditis elegans (which can be described as a short-lived species with a temperature-dependent lifespan between 5 and 100 days), no correlation between ageing and TL length was detected (Raices et al., 2005). The same observation was made for the longlived arthropod, Homarus americanus (lifespan from 50 and 100 years), which was unexpected regarding its special longevity in an optimal environment. Ageing phenomena are absent in this species, and mortality is often caused by the increased weight of individuals that preclude moult (Klapper et al., 1998; Krupp et al., 2000). In humans (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008) and mice (Rudolph et al., 1999; Tomas-Loba et

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In humans (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008) and mice (Rudolph et al., 1999; Tomas-Loba et al., 2008), TL attrition is considered one of the nine hallmarks of ageing (Lopez-Otin et al., 2013) and is a marker of cellular senescence (Bernadotte et al., 2016). A relationship between the shortening of TLs in human leukocytes and all causes of death has been demonstrated (Boonekamp et al., 2013; Opresko et al., 2017). However, according to Farzaneh-Far et al. (2008), death cannot be predicted with a simple measure of TL length, and depends also on

disease advancements or genotype. For example, it has been found that in humans, the heterozygous genotype for some genes, including SERPINE, is associated with a longer TL length, a longer lifespan (7 or more years on average), better cardiovascular capabilities, lower fasting insulin levels, and a lower incidence of diabetes mellitus (Khan et al., 2017).

Hence, although a correlation between TL attrition, decrease in TA activity and ageing has been often reported, it does not seem to be generalizable throughout the animal kingdom.

4.2. Other causes

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Various mechanisms (e.g., genotoxicity, oxidative stress) can impact TL length (Figure 2). DNA damage such as a single strand break (SSB) or a double strand break (DSB) can be a source of TL attrition (Pottier et al., 2013; Grach, 2013), notably when the DNA repair machinery is inefficient (Webb et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2015). Deficiencies in enzymes supported by the BER pathway (e.g., OGG1 and UNG) can contribute to TL shortening by altered TL sister chromatid exchanges, an increased number of SSBs and DSBs, preferential TL G-strand losses, accumulation of uracil on TLs, increased TL fragility and aberrant TL recombination (Oikawa and Kawanishi, 1999; Wang et al., 2010; Vallabhaneni et al., 2013; Webb et al., 2013; An et al., 2015; Jia et al., 2015; Vallabhaneni et al., 2015). Telomeric DNA is highly susceptible to oxidative-induced DNA damage because of its high guanine content (Kawanishi and Oikawa, 2004). Among oxidative lesion bases at TLs, 8-oxo-dG is the most frequent (Zhou et al., 2017). Therefore, TLs can also be indirectly altered by mutagenicity when reactive oxygen species (ROS) induce mutations (e.g., 8-oxo-dG induces a transversion G:C to A:T) in genes coding for TL structure and maintenance or the DNA repair of TLs (Wood et al., 1990; Henle et al., 1999; von Zglinicki, 2002; Chang et al., 2003; Vasseur and Cossu-Leguille, 2003; Houben et al., 2008; Coluzzi et al., 2017; Stauffer et al., 2018). A disorder in protein recruitment in the TL complex shelterin can also be the cause of TL

attrition because the T-loop cannot be easily formed, making the end of the chromosome unprotected. This phenomenon can also be at the origin of apoptosis or senescence via activation of the p53 or p16link4a pathways (Oeseburg et al., 2010). In addition, the absence or deficiency of TA may also be a cause of premature TL shortening (Ziegler et al., 2017).

TL shortening in human populations is related to psychological stress, diseases, infections, diets and lifestyles including smoking, as reported for example by Valdes et al. (2005), Lansdorp (2009), Mirabello et al. (2009), and Gomes et al. (2012). Similar studies have been performed on mammals (Illmonen et al., 2008), showing that repeated infection by Salmonella enterica can cause TL attrition in house mice (Mus musculus). Many biotic and abiotic factors, such as nutrient (e.g., folate and selenium) deprivation, can accelerate TL attrition. Indeed, the antioxidant activity of these nutrients has a protective effect against oxidative DNA telomeric damage (Liu et al., 2004; Boccardi et al., 2013). Among other factors that can influence TL dynamic, food availability, number of breeding events and antioxidant capabilities have been described in birds (Hall et al., 2004; Foote et al., 2011; Heidinger et al., 2012; Bebbington et al., 2016; Sletten et al., 2016; Angelier et al., 2018).

4.3. Consequences of TL attrition on organism and population

Telomere shortening and short TL length is associated with various diseases including diabetes (Sampson et al., 2006; Uziel et al., 2007), cardiovascular diseases (Fitzpatrick et al., 2007), obesity (Valdes et al., 2005), cancers (Srinivas et al., 2019) and pathologies of the female reproductive tract (Kalmbach et al., 2013). These studies focusing on humans support that TL length alteration can affect individual fitness in relation to a reduced lifespan reduced for various animal species (Monaghan and Haussman, 2006). Interspecies comparisons provide additional information to understand relations between TL dynamic and lifespan. Higher rates of TL loss are associated with a shorter lifespan when comparing different bird

(Tricola et al., 2018) or mammal species. For instance, in humans, the rate of TL loss is 20-40 bp/year for a lifespan of 75 years while, it is 360 bp/year in dogs with a lifespan of 12 years (Unryn et al., 2015). Generally, in vertebrates, TL length is inversely correlated with the lifespan of a species (Gomes et al., 2011).

If TLs length is predictive of the longevity of individuals of species as demonstrated for *Acrocephalus arundinaceus* or *Daphnia pulicaria* (Asghar et al., 2015; Schumpert et al., 2015), an accelerated attrition of TLs within a population may cause a decrease of the mean reproductive lifespan and of individual fitness, so reduce fertility rate, which should lead to changes in population dynamics (Reichert, 2013). However, if theoretical links between TL dynamic, individual life-history traits and population dynamic seems obvious, the published literature dealing with the ecological repercussion of accelerated TL shortening remains very limited.

5. Contaminants and effects on telomere dynamic

Besides ageing and the other factors influencing TL dynamic we listed above, effects of toxic contaminants released by anthropogenic activities on individual health, life-history traits and population dynamic have been widely reported in the scientific literature. The interactions between a toxic compound and a biological system occurred first at the molecular and cellular levels. Then, ecological processes may also act, for instance when a predator suffers a decrease in prey availability because of poisoning. According to the mechanism(s) of action and depending on the sensitivity of the exposed species, this usually involves that the compound reaches one (or several) molecular target(s) and/or induces oxidative stress to express its toxicity at higher levels of biological organization. As reported above, TL dynamic is related to life-history traits and potentially to population dynamic. Thus, it can be assume that changes in TL dynamic is among the key processes linking toxic compounds,

molecular/cellular disturbances and consequences on individual health, fitness and population.

5.1. In humans

Currently, most of the studies questioning the impact of contaminants on TL length and TA activity concern humans, especially leukocytes. The general trend is that TL length and TA activity decrease concomitantly when cells or humans are exposed to contaminants (*Table* 4). This premise fits well with the commonly proposed hypothesis that exposure to pollutants causes cell damage together with a decrease in TL length and TA activity.

Exposure to metallic elements (ME) has been related to TL length changes, two patterns can be distinguished: decrease or increase (*Table 4*). For example, cadmium (Cd) can cause TL attrition, as shown in placenta from newborns (Lin et al., 2013), in saliva from adolescents (Fillman et al., 2016) and in leukocytes from adults (Zota et al., 2015; Patel et al., 2017). Similar trends were reported for lead (Pb) (Pottier et al., 2013; Pawlas et al., 2015; Pawlas et al., 2016), arsenic (As) (Ferrario et al., 2009; Srinivas et al., 2019) and the combination of As, Cd and/or tungsten (W) (Wai et al., 2018; Grau-Perez et al., 2019). Organic chemicals, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE) and air pollutants (*e.g.*, benzene, toluene and fuel smoke) can lead to TL attrition (*Table 4*). Some PCBs and PBDEs induced a decrease in TL length, TA activity and the expression of fundamental genes implicated in TL maintenance and stability (Xin et al., 2016; Ziegler et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2018).

Toxicologists have also paid special attention to carcinogenic compounds such as ME (e.g., As), some persistent organic pollutant (POP) or air contaminants (NO_x, NO₂, PM_{2.5} and

PM₁₀) (Dioni et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2015; Joyce and Hou, 2015; Mitro et al., 2016; Jimenez Villarreal et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2018). A study conducted by Gao et al. (2015) on leukocytes from 167 participants demonstrated that a higher As urinary concentration was associated with increased TL length, overexpression of WRN (a gene involved in the ALT pathway), and decreased expression of TERF2, TERF2IP (shelterin complex), DKC1 (upregulation of TA), and OBFC1 (upregulation of TA). A similar trend was reported on leukocytes that presented an elongation of TL and an increase of the level of two proteins of the shelterin complex (TRF1 and TRF2) following As exposure (Chatterjee et al. 2015). As previously stated, abnormal TL elongation should not necessarily be considered as positive, since strong activities of TA or ALT can be related to tumour development. In the study of Gao et al. (2015), the WRN gene, implicated in ALT pathway, was up-regulated in leukocytes and TL were lengthened after exposure to As. Moreover, it was demonstrated that methylation of CHK1 or PML genes may activate ALT pathway in human or mouse (Naderlinger and Holzmann, 2017), especially after exposure by PCBs and PCDEs (Yuan et al., 2018). Therefore, for carcinogenic contaminants, a possible mechanism of action could be an increase in TL length caused by TA and/or ALT upregulation rather than TL attrition (Finnon et al., 2000; Jafri et al., 2016; Dagg et al., 2017). A pathway explaining an overactivation of the ALT pathway could be epigenetic alterations, such as methylations, induced by some contaminants (Reichard and Puga, 2010; Nica et al., 2017).

5.2. <u>In animals</u>

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There is a growing interest in ecology to measure TLs in various organisms, including vertebrates and invertebrates, with approximately five publications in 1995 vs one hundred in 2015 (Angelier et al., 2018). However, in ecotoxicology, studies are limited to vertebrates and mainly birds (*Table 5*), but no studies on invertebrates has been published. In some of the few

studies that assessed with the impact of contaminants on TLs or TA in animals, TL attrition was related to high exposure. Stauffer et al. (2017) showed inconsistent trends when investigating the interaction between exposure to ME, oxidative stress and TL length in wild populations of two birds (*Parus major* and *Ficedula hypoleuca*). They demonstrated that great tit nestlings exposed to ME had shorter TLs than those living in unpolluted areas. However, this correlation was not found when investigating pied flycatcher nestlings or adult females of two species. The authors investigated whether the redox status that varied among species and age groups may explain these differences but no link with TL length was found. For Rissa tridactyla, an arctic seabird species, Blévin et al. (2016) showed that TL attrition was higher in wild adult females exposed to the major metabolite of chlordane mixture (oxychlordane) than in males. More expectedly, oxidative stress could accelerate TL attrition, as shown experimentally in wild-caught house mice (Mus musculus musculus), for which an inhibition of superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was related to TL attrition (Stauffer et al., 2018). A study on the fish Epinephelus coiodes showed a concomitant decrease in TA activity with high exposure to benzo(a)pyrene (a PAH) (Peterson et al., 2015). As reported in Figure 2, potential relationships between TL attrition and increases of DNA damages has been shown on Ctenomys torquatus exposed to PAH and ME from coal (Matzenbacher et al., 2019). All these studies show that TL length and TA activity can be altered by contaminants in various vertebrate species, including birds, fishes and mammals.

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However, other studies have not revealed that TL attrition is associated with chemical exposure. White-tailed eagle (*Haliaeetus albicilla*) nestlings sampled from a site contaminated by organohalogenated compounds did not exhibit TL shortening or reduced SOD activity (Sletten et al., 2015). Blévin et al. (2017) measured an increase in TL length in both sexes of *Rissa tridactyla* (Black-legged kittiwake) exposed to perfluoroalkyl substances (PFAs).

The impact of pollutants on TLs and TA is still a new field of research in environmental toxicology; on the basis of the recent data published, it remains difficult to identify general trends. This could be partly due to a lack of knowledge about the influence of various individual (e.g., gender, age, species) and/or environmental (e.g., weather conditions, food availability, pathogens, pollutions) factors on TL dynamic. In the following section, we propose several lines of research to improve knowledge on the impact of pollutants on TLs and TA in environmental toxicology for humans and animals (mainly those used as bioindicators for ecotoxicological purposes).

6. Perspectives for the assessment of telomere dynamic in environmental toxicology

Environmental toxicology concerns the toxic effects of environmental contaminants on living organisms in their environments. Gaining more knowledge on the impact of contaminants on TL dynamic could be relevant to understand these effects and possibly to propose adverse outcome pathways (AOP), which would impact life traits and population, as recommended by the OECD (2018). This review showed that the level of knowledge on TLs, in general and particularly in environmental toxicology, is quite different for humans, vertebrates and invertebrates. Thus, perspectives for the possible use of TL length and TA activity as biomarkers in environmental toxicology depend on the considered group; they will be briefly developed for each of these groups of organisms, before moving to more specific consideration (either technical or biological).

For humans, although TLs are already used as biomarkers (*Table 4*), further studies are necessary to better fulfil some specifications (*e.g.*, the link between TL variation and biological consequence or between TL lengthening and exposure to compounds with carcinogenic properties). For other vertebrates (*Table 5*), with the possible exception of birds, the use of TL length and TA activity as biomarkers appears far from ready in routine use for

ecotoxicological purposes. This review highlights a lack of knowledge on TL dynamic in almost all bioindicator species: for the majority, the relation between ageing and TL length remains to be characterized, as well as the influence of many endogenous and environmental factors (acting possibly in interactions) on TL dynamic. This is also true for invertebrates, for which this area of research is virtually untouched.

The basic question here is whether early TL shortening could be a biomarker to reveal the impact of stress (physical, chemical and biological) on premature ageing and thus organism health and longevity. For this purpose, TL length and TA activity must satisfy some specifications: good sensitivity, knowledge about biological consequences for interpreting the responses of the biomarker, feasibility, field application, knowledge about variations in the amplitudes of responses, and the identification of confounding factors (*i.e.*, capacities to discriminate variations that could be caused by pollutants or environmental factors) (Garric et al., 2010). According to these specifications, many technical and biological issues must be better considered for reliable TL length and TA activity assessments in environmental toxicology:

The choice of analytical technique to assess TL length and TA activity. Currently, many methods exist to measure TLs (qPCR, flow-fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH), qFISH, single TL length analysis (STELA), terminal restriction fragment by southern blot or in-gel hybridization, dot blot) and detect TA activity (ddPCR). The choice of methods depends on scientific questions and technical considerations (see, for example, the reviews of Montpetit et al., 2014 and Nussey et al., 2014). For example, for the same sample, qPCR provides an estimate of the average TL length in a DNA extract but the diversity of the TL size for each cells cannot be determined. Molecular biology kits exist and have often

used (e.g., by Schumpert et al. (2015) to measure TA activity on two Daphnia sp).
For reasons related to quickness, simplicity, robustness and cost, the qPCR TL
measurement technique seems well appropriate and is widely used (Cawthon et al.,
2002; Shay and Wright, 2019), even if the results are semiquantitative (but
sufficient to identify variations between various exposures to contaminants).

- Influence of the quality of DNA extraction. In terms of measurement techniques and TL size, different kits can be preferred. It is important to use the same extraction method during all the studies (Nussey et al., 2014; Raschenberger et al., 2016).
- Influence of storage conditions of the sample that can impact measurements. For example, FTA cards (*Flinders Technology Associates cards*) are not recommended for long-term storage (Reichert et al., 2017) and repeated cycles of freezing/thawing can cause DNA alterations.
- Influence of the choice of biological tissue or cell type (Gardner et al., 2007; Kesäniemi et al., 2019) according to physiological characteristics (*i.e.*: TA activity, ALT, cell division properties) and toxicological characteristics (*i.e.*: target, storage or metabolism of xenobiotics) is important to be considered. For example, Yip et al. (2017) chose to measure TLs on Medaka fish liver cells because of the regulatory functions of metabolism and homeostasis. For small organisms (*e.g.*, arthropods) the recourse of pools and whole body may be relevant.
- Experiments must use of a sufficient number of individuals by age and/or environmental condition class to make reliable statistical comparisons to account for interindividual variations.

The link between TL length, TA activity, longevity and ageing needs to be investigated in a wide range of animals, including invertebrates (notably those commonly used in ecotoxicological risk assessment, *e.g.*, crustacean, earthworms and mollusks, for which no data are available). Indeed, interspecific comparison to estimate variation of TL length or TA activity with ageing for species for which the dynamic of TLs is unknown is difficult because various patterns have been demonstrated for phylogenetically close species (*e.g.*, between various bird species). For example, a relation between TL length and ageing for *Daphnia pulicaria* has been evidenced (Schumpert et al., 2015) and suggests that it could be interesting to assess the sublethal effects of contaminants or other stressors on this taxon with TL length measurements. However, this relation is not the same for *Daphnia pulex* where TL length does not evolve with ageing. Understanding the reason for the differences observed in phylogenetically close species, offers an exciting challenge.

- Many studies concerning the impact of contaminants on TL dynamic are correlative. To better evaluate the relevance of TL dynamic studies in environmental toxicology and to highlight by which mechanisms TL changes are related to exposure to chemicals, it is essential to develop more laboratory approaches. Some experiments conducted under controlled conditions should address the following questions:
 - What is the influence of environmental and individual factors on TL dynamic such as, gender, hormones, food source, crowding, disturbance, noise, infection, pathogens, parasites, and climatic factors, as described by Angelier et al. (2018)? For example, in female Medaka fish, oestradiol may be involved in TL maintenance by i) increasing TA activity (TERT mRNA).

upregulation, TERT phosphorylation) and ii) limiting oxidative DNA damage at the level of TLs (antioxidant gene upregulation) (Yip et al., 2017).

- What are the consequences of TL attrition on survival or reproductive abilities and consequently on population dynamic?
- What is the pattern(s) of the relationship between TL length and contaminant exposure? This question is supported by the fact that some carcinogenic compounds could lead to an elongation of TLs and because dose-reponse relationships have not been established even for the most prevalent pollutants either single or in mixture. This should be done considering acute but also subchronic and chronic exposure scenario.
- What are the main mechanisms, including direct (DNA damages) and indirect ones (modulation of maintenance processes, oxidative stress...), linking chemical exposure and the alteration of the natural TL dynamic?

7. Conclusion

TLs are highly conserved in the animal kingdom, ubiquitous and appear "universal" in living organisms. However, many studies are still needed, as noted in the present review, before TLs can be used as a relevant biomarker (in species belonging to many biological groups) to predict the effects of various stressors (*e.g.*, chemical contaminants) on health for humans and animal populations in the wild. More data on TL dynamic could help build new AOP for chemical risk assessment based on mechanistic reasoning. TL dynamic studies could improve environmental monitoring and our understanding of the impact of disrupted anthropic ecosystems (on the health status, lifespans and dynamic of populations) and could reduce disciplinary borders in the One Health concept, because epidemiologists,

- 508 ecotoxicologists, veterinarians and economists look for universal information concerning an
- organism's health.

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516 **Authors**

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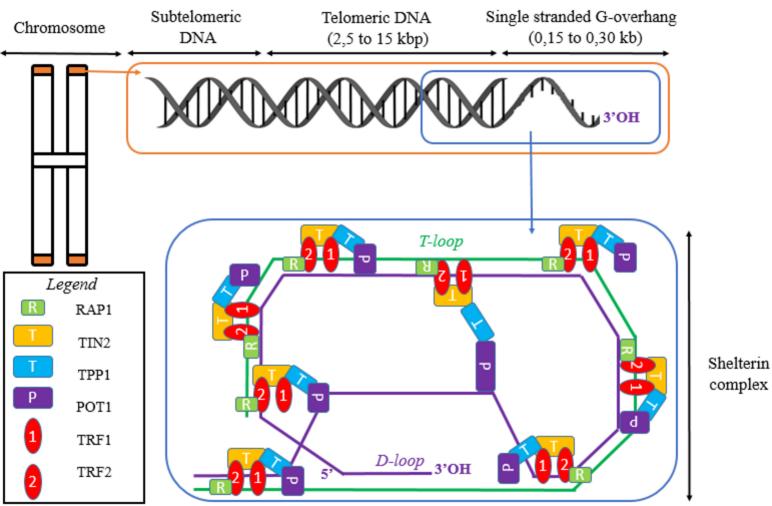
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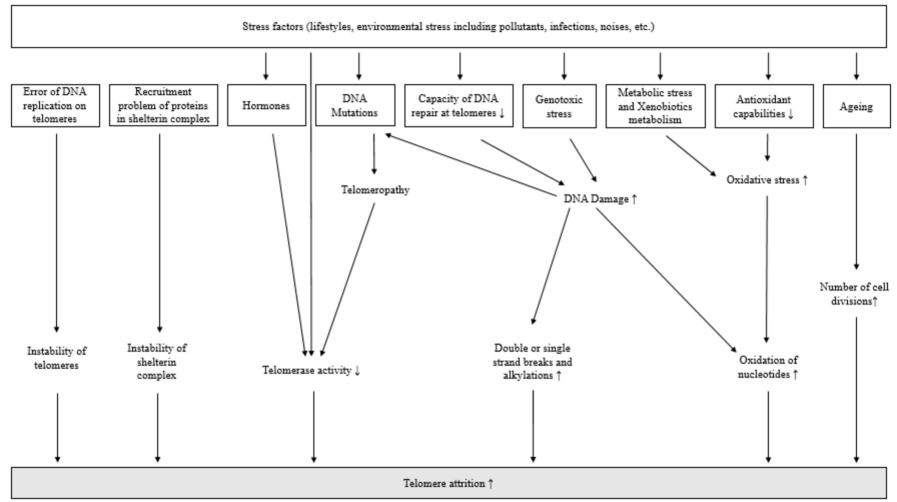
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Table 1: No-exhaustiv list of telomere sequences of bioindicator taxons in environmental

toxicology

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	SEQUENCES	SPECIES	SOURCES
	(TTAGGG) _N	Vertebrates (Fishs, Birds, Mammals, Amphibians), Invertebrates (Snails as <i>Cantareus aspersus</i> , Earthworms as <i>Eisenia foetida</i> , Planaria)	Meyne et al., 1989, Vitturi et al., 2000, Vitturi et al., 2005, Koroleva et al., 2013, Tasaka et al., 2013.
	(TTAGG) _N	Invertebrates (Daphnia sp., Chironomus sp., Bombyx mori)	Okazaki et al., 1993, Rosen et Edstrom, 2000, Schumpert et al., 2015
30	(TTAGGC) _N	Invertebrates (Nematod, Caenorhabditis elegans)	Wicky et al., 1996
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48	Table 2: Rol	es of the six telomere binding proteins: TRF1, T	TRF2, RAP1, TPP1, TIN2, POT1
49	(adapted fron	ı Iwano et al., 2004, Okamoto et al., 2008, Mai	rtinez and Blasco, 2010)

PROTEINS ROLES	TIN2	RAP1	TPP1	TRF2	TRF1	POT1
BRIDGING SHELTERIN	X		X			
CAPPING SHELTERIN			X	X	X	
G-STRAND PROTECTION						Х
INTERACTIONS WITH DNA DAMAGE RESPONSE (DDR)		X		X	X	х
INTERACTIONS WITH MITOSIS REGULATIONS					X	
PREVENTION OF TELOMERE FRAGILITY		X	X		X	
PREVENTION OF TELOMERE RECOMBINATION AND END-TO-END FUSION		X		Х		х
STIMULATING SUBTELOMERIC SILENCING		X				
ALLOWS TA RECRUITMENT			X			
TL ACCESSIBILITY FOR TA INHIBITION						х
TELOMERIC LOCALIZATION OF OTHER SHELTERIN COMPONENTS REGULATION	X				X	

Table 3: Links between telomere shortening and ageing with others biologicals markers in various biological groups of animals.

BIOLOGICAL SPECIES	STUDIED AGES	N	BIOLOGICAL TISSUES	EFFECTS OF AGEING ON TELOMERE DYNAMICS INVERTEBRATES	EFFECTS OF AGEING ON OTHERS BIOLOGICALS MARKERS	SOURCES
Strongylocentrotus franciscanus (Sea urchin)	4 to > 100 years	?	Some tissues (Aristotle's lantern muscle, ampullae,	↓ telomere lengths, O telomerase activity	↑ body size	Francis et al., 2006
Lytechnius variegatus (Sea urchin)	> 3 years	?	esophagus, intestine, gonad)	↓ telomere lengths, O telomerase activity	↑ body size	Francis et al., 2006
Schmidtea mediterranea (Planaria)	7 days to 3 years	73 (min. 7 per ages)	Somatic cells	↓ telomere lengths	-	Tan et al., 2012
Daphnia pulex (Daphnia)	Embryos, 1, 2 and 3 weeks	25 to 30 individuals in pools/age	Body	O telomere lengths, ↑ telomerase activity	↑ mortality	Schumpert et al., 2015
Daphnia pulicaria (Daphnia)	Embryos, 1, 4 and 8 weeks	25 to 30 individuals in pools/age	Body	telomere lengths, ↓ telomerase activity	↑ mortality	Schumpert et al., 2015
Drosophila melanogaster (Vinegar fly)	0 to 100 days	2000 (100 per 5 days)	Body	O telomere lengths	↓ fecundity, ↓ fertility	Walter et al., 2007
Benedictia fragilis (Baikal gastropods)	0 to 8 years	95	Foot	↓ telomere lengths	-	Maximova et al., 2017
Benedictia baicalensis (Baikal gastropods)	0 to 8 years	121	Foot	† telomere lengths	-	Maximova et al., 2017
Kobeltocochlea martensiana (Baikal gastropods)	0 to 8 years	111	Foot	↑ telomere lengths	-	Maximova et al., 2017
				FISHS		
Oryzias melastigma (Medaka)	4, 8, 12 months	15 (5/age)	Liver	, ↓ telomere lengths, Δ telomerase activity, Δ TERT mRNA expression in liver,	In liver: \uparrow 8-OH-dG level, \uparrow protein carbonyl level, Δ omER α mRNA expression, in plasma: Δ testosterone (T) and Δ estrogen (E2) levels	Yip et al., 2017
Danio rerio (Zebrafish)	8 days to 24 months	140 (~5/age, ~100 at 8 days)	Some tissues (testis, gut, head kidney, muscle, skin)	\downarrow telomere lengths, \uparrow/\downarrow telomerase activity (Δ f(tissues))	-	Henriques et al., 2013, Henriques et al., 2017
				REPTILES		
Alligator sinensis (Chinese alligator)	3 to 10 years	30	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Xu et al., 2009
Alligator mississippiensis (American Alligator)	0 to 7 years	34	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	↑ body size	Scott et al., 2006
Liasis fuscus (Water python)	0 to 20 years	70	Erythrocytes	↑ telomere lengths	-	Ujvari et Masden, 2009
	1 . 5			BIRDS		** **
Taeniopygia guttata (Zebra finch)	1 to 7 years	99	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Heidinger et al., 2012
Taeniopygia guttata	0 to 8 years	25	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Haussman et al., 2003
Tachycineta bicolor (Tree swallow)	0 to 7 years	42	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Haussman et al., 2003

Pygoscelis adeliae (Adélie penguin)	1 to 14 years	22	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Haussman et al., 2003
Sterna hirundo (Common tern)	0 to 25 years	41	Erythrocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Haussman et al., 2003
Oceanodroma leucorhoa (Leach's petrel)	0 to 35 years	33	Erythrocytes	↑ telomere lengths	-	Haussman et al., 2003
Phalacrocorax aristolelis (European shag)	0 to 20 years	144	Whole blood (chicks), erythrocytes (adults)	↓ telomere lengths	-	Hall et al., 2004
Diomedea exulans (Wandering albatross)	0 to 42 years	92	Whole blood (chicks), erythrocytes (adults)	↓ telomere lengths	-	Hall et al., 2004
Branta leucopsis (Barnacle goose)	2 to 26 years	30	Whole blood	↓ telomere lengths	-	Pauliny et al., 2012
Acrocephalus arundinaceus (Great reed warbler)	0 to 6 years	174	Whole blood	↓ telomere lengths	-	Asghar et al., 2015
				MAMMALS		
Canis lupus familiaris (Dogs)	0 to 15 years	175	Whole blood	↓ telomere lengths	↑ probability of death from cardiovascular disease	Fick et al., 2012
Felis catus (Cats)	cohort	32	Whole blood	↓ telomere lengths	-	McKevitt et al., 2003
Mus spretus (Western Mediterranean mouse)	0 to 2,5 years	20	Some tissues (testes, kidney, liver, spleen, brain)	↓ telomere lengths	-	Coviello- McLaughlin et al., 1997
Homo sapiens (Humans)	0 to 82 years	72	Leukocytes	↓ telomere lengths	-	Frenck et al., 1998
Homo sapiens	cohort	193	Leukocytes	↓ telomere lengths	↓ pulse wave velocity, pulse pression	Benetos et al., 2001

Legends: Δ = variations, \uparrow = increasing, \downarrow = decreasing, O = no effects

Table 4: Relationship between telomere dynamics and environmental contamination by contaminants in humans

BIOLOGICAL MATERIALS	EXPERIMENTALS CONDITIONS	CONTAMINANTS	EFFECTS ON TELOMERE DYNAMICS	OTHERS BIOLOGICALS EFFECTS AND ASSOCIATIONS WITH INTERNAL CONCENTRATIONS	SOURCES
			IN VITRO STUDIES		
HL-60 cells	6 and 30 days in vitro	PCB126 and PCB153 (5 μM)	↓ Telomere length, ↓ Telomerase activity, ↓ hTERT, ↓ hTR, \triangle POT1, \triangle TRF1, \triangle TRF2 expressions	↑ phases G0/G1 cells	Xin et al., 2016
Primary cultured lymphocytes	2, 7, 42 and 70 days <i>in vitro</i>	3-OH-CB28 (metabolite of PCB28) (1-50 µM)	↓ Telomere length, ↓ Telomerase activity, ↓ Telomerase genes expressions	O lymphocytes numbers, O TREC (T-cell receptor excision circle) levels	Ziegler et al., 2017
Cells of umbilical cord blood (huUCB)	30 minutes – 14 days	As inorganic (0,1 nM, 1 and 10 μM)	↓ Telomere length, ↓ hTERT expression	↑ ROS	Ferrario et al., 2009
Cells of carcinoma cell line (Clone B3, EJ30 bladder cell)	1 day	$Pb(NO_3)_2 (0-1000 \mu M)$	↓ Telomere length	↑ chromosomal abnormalities	Pottier et al., 2013
			STUDIES ON COHORTS OR ON PATIENTS		
			METALLIC ELEMENTS		
Placenta from 320 newborns	patients	Placental Cd and Pb concentration	↓ Telomere length	Association with [Cd] placental	Lin et al., 2013
Leukocytes from 6796 adults	cohort	Cd and Pb in blood and urines	↓ Telomere length	Association with [Cd] _{blood}	Zota et al., 2015, Patel et al., 2017
Leukocytes from 334 smealters	cohort	Cd and Pb in blood (occupational exposure by air)	↓ Telomere length	Association with [Pb] _{blood}	Pawlas et al., 2016
Leukocytes from 365 children	cohort	Pb in blood	↓ Telomere length	Association with [Pb] _{blood}	Pawlas et al., 2015
Salivary cells from adolescents (12-16 years olds, n=351)	patients	As and Cd in urines	↓ Telomere length	Association with [Cd] _{urinary}	Fillman et al., 2016
Leukocytes from 73 female university students	cohort	Cd in urines	O Telomere length	-	Mizuno et al., 2019

Umbilical cord blood leukocytes from 410 mother-newborn pairs	cohort	Cd in urines	↓ Telomere length	Association with [Cd] _{urinary}	Zhang et al., 2019
Leukocytes from 167 participants	patients	As in urines	↑ Telomere length, ↑ Expression of WRN (ALT), ↓ Expressions of genes including TERF2 (shelterin complex), DKC1 (up-regulation of telomerase), TERF2IP (sheltering complex), OBFC1 (up- regulation of telomerase) Association with [As]urinary		Gao et al., 2015
Leukocytes from 188 male participants (76 exposed in drinking water > 10 μg.L ⁻¹ , 112 control group	cohort	As in urines	↑ Telomere length	Association with [As] _{drinking water} and [As] _{urinary}	Jimenez Villarreal et al., 2018
Leukocytes from 1061 patiens (528 with skin cancers, 533 hospital- based controls aged 30- 79 years)	patients	As in urines	↓ Telomere length	Association with [As] _{urinary} and skin cancer	Srinivas et al., 2019
Leukocytes from 180 participants (60 unexposed, 120 exposed)	cohort	As in urines	↑ Telomere length, O telomerase activity, ↑ levels of TRF1 and TRF2 (shelterin complex)	Association with [As] _{urinary} , ↑ percentage of senescent cells, ↑ expression of cytokines (IL-6 and IL-8), ↑ expression of metalloproteases (MMP-1 and MMP-3), ↑ levels of p21 and p53, ↓ p16 level	Chatterjee et al., 2015
Leukocytes from 120 children (5 to 15 years) participants (68 exposed in drinking water > 10 μg.L ⁻¹ , 52 control group)	cohort	As in drinking water and in urines	O Telomere length	Association with [As] _{urinary} , ↑ micronucleus in buccal, urothelial cells and lymphocytes,	Chatterjee et al., 2018
Leukocytes from 1380 participants	cohort	As in urines	O/↓ Telomere length	Association with [As] _{urinary} /greater risk of subsequent skin lesion	Zhang et al., 2018
Leukocytes from 460 newborn	cohort	As, Cd and Pb in maternal urines	↓ Telomere length	Association with [As] or [Cd]urinary	Wai et al., 2018
Leukocytes from 1702 participants	cohort	As, Cd and W in urines	↓ Telomere length	Association [As], [Cd] and [W] _{urinary}	Grau-Perez et al., 2019
			ALCOHOL		
Leukocytes from 404	patients	Alcohol	↓ Telomere length	Association with alcohol abusers	Pavanello et al., 2011

participants

ATMOSPHERIC POLLUTION

Leukocytes from 333 schoolchildren	cohort	NO_x , NO_2 , $PM_{2.5}$, PM_{10}	↑ Telomere length	Association with annual air pollution exposure	Walton et al., 2016
Leukocytes from 120 truck drivers and 120 office workers	cohort	NO _x , NO ₂ , PM _{2.5} , PM ₁₀	↑ Telomere length	Association with PM _{2.5} , PM ₁₀	Hou et al., 2012
Leukocytes from 63 steel workers (3 days postexposure during 1 day)	cohort	PM_1, PM_{10}	↑ Telomere length, ↓ hTERT mRNA	Association with PM ₁ and PM ₁₀	Dioni et al., 2011
Leukocytes from 264 patients	patients	Solid fuel combustion	↓ Telomere length	Association with solid fuel combustion for three decades	Lin et al., 2017
Leukocytes from 101 welders and 127 controls	patients	Respirable dust (between 1,2 mg/m³ to 3,3 mg/m³, control: 0,1 mg/m³)	O/↓ telomere length	O 8-oxodG levels, O/↓ DNA methylation	Li et al., 2015
Leukocytes from 50 prengnant women living in polluted area vs 50 in a non-polluted area	cohort	Atmospheric pollution and intense environmental pressure due to wastes	↓ Telomere length, ↓ hTERT mRNA	Association with polluted area	De Felice et al., 2012
Buccal cells and placenta cells from 233 patients	cohort	Residential traffic exposure	↓ Telomere length	Association with residential traffic exposure	Bijnens et al., 2017
Leukocytes from workers (77 street traffic officers and 57 office workers (referents))	cohort	Personal airborne benzene exposure (0 to 300 µg/m³) and toluene exposure (12.5 to 1000 µg/m³)	↓ Telomere length	Association with benzene and toluene exposure	Hoxha et al., 2009
Leukocytes from workers (43 and 43 in controls)	cohort	Workers exposed to benzene (31 ppm in 5 days)	↑ Telomere length	Association with benzene exposure (> 31 ppm in 5 days)	Bassig et al., 2014
Leukocytes from 157 rubber workers	cohort	Workers exposed to pyrene and nitrosamines	↓ Telomere length	Association with nitrosamines exposure	Li et al., 2011

Cells of cord blood on 255 newborns	patients	РАН	↓ Telomere length	Association with PAH-DNA adducts	Perera et al., 2018
Leukocytes from 14 children	patients	РАН	↓ Telomere length	Association with PAH exposure	Lee et al., 2017
Leukocytes from 1330 adults	cohort	18 PCBs, 7 dioxins, 9 furans	↑ Telomere length	Association with TEQ (Toxic Equivalency)	Mitro et al., 2015
Leukocytes from 452 adults (136 in controls, 316 exposed)	controls, cohort 25 PCBs and 11 mu		↓ Telomere length, ↑ frequences of telomere loss and multiple separate telomere at the ends of chromosomes, ↑ ALT activities,	↑ [PCBs] _{lipids} , ↑ [PBDEs] _{lipids} , ↑ abortion, stillborn, hypertension, diabetes and autoimmune diseases, ↑ relative expression of p53 and Rb in plasma, ↑ p16ink4a and p14-arf level in plasma, ↑ interleukines levels in plasma (IL-2, IL-6, IL-10),	Yuan et al., 2018
			PESTICIDES		
Leukocytes from 30 farmers and 30 townsfolk	patients	17 pesticides	O Telomere length	↑ micronuclei, ↑ nucleoplasmic bridges (correlation with [pesticides])	Zeljezic et al., 2015
Leukocytes from 568 cancer-free male farmers	cohort	57 pesticides	↓ Telomere length	Association with exposure of 2,4-D, diazinon, butuylate, malathion (except for alachlor it's opposite)	Andreotti et al., 2015

Legends: Δ = variations, \uparrow = increasing, \downarrow = decreasing, O = no effects

 Table 5: Relationship between telomere dynamics and environmental contamination by contaminants in animal

BIOLOGICAL	EXPERIMENTALS	CONTAMINANTS	EFFECTS ON TELOMERE DYNAMICS	OTHERS BIOLOGICALS	SOURCES
MATERIALS	CONDITIONS	CONTAMINANTS	EFFECTS ON TELOWIERE DINAMICS	EFFECTS	SOURCES

FISHS

Epinephelus coioides (Orange-spotted grouper) Muscle (n=5)	Bio-assays	B[a]P: 12 μg/g de poissons/j since 1, 2 and 4 weeks	↓ telomerase activity	Association with B[a]p exposure	Peterson et al., 2015
		BIRDS			
Haliaeetus albicilla (White-tailed eagle) nestlings Red blood cells (n=35)	Biomonitoring in situ (Troms County, Northern Norway)	9 PCBs, p,p'DDE, HCB, oxy-chlordane, cis-chlordane, trans-nonachlor, cis-nonachlor	O Telomere length	\downarrow SOD activity, Δ IgY levels	Sletten et al., 2016
Parus major (Great tit) nestlings and adults females Livers cells (n=24 and n=21)	Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Cu/Ni smelter in Harjavalta, Finland)	ME (Cu, Ni, As, Pb, Cd maj.)	↓ Telomere length (nestlings), O Telomere length (adults females)	↑ [As, Pb], ↓ SOD activity (nestlings), ↑ GPx activity, ↑ [Ca], ↓ lipoperoxidation	Stauffer et al., 2017
Ficedula hypoleuca (European pied flycatcher) nestlings and adults females Livers cells (n=22 and n=23)	Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Cu/Ni smelter in Harjavalta, Finland)	ME (Cu, Ni, As, Pb, Cd maj.)	O Telomere length	↑ [As, Pb], ↓ Gr and GST activities, ↓ lipoperoxidation (nestlings),	Stauffer et al., 2017
Rissa tridactyla (Black-legged kittiwake) Red blood cells (n=38)	Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Krvkkiefiellet colony of Kongsfjorden, Svalbard)	PCBs, p,p'DDE, HCB, cis-nonachlor, trans-nonachlor,[Oxychlordane] between 2000 to 7000 pg/g ww	↓ Telomere length (adults females), O Telomere length (adults males)	Association with [oxychlordane]	Blévin et al., 2016
Rissa tridactyla Red blood cells (n=55)	Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Krvkkiefiellet colony of Kongsfjorden, Svalbard)	PFAs	↑ Telomere length (in both sexes)	Association with [PFAs]	Blévin et al., 2017
		MAMMAL	S		
Rattus norvergicus (Sprague-Dawley rats) Fibroblast-type cell line (ADIPO-P2)	18h to 15 days in vitro	Sodium citrate (20 mM) and Streptozotocin (2 mM)	↓ Telomere length, ↑ Telomere duplication, ↑ Translocation of telomeric sequences, ↑ Additional telomeric FISH signals, ↑ extra- chromosomal telomeric FISH signals	Association with chromosomic aberrations	Paviolo et al., 2015
Ctenomys torquatus (Collared tuco-tuco) kidney, muscle and skin tissues (n=30 control, n=36 exposed)	Biomonitoring <i>in situ</i> (Butia, Candiota and Pelotas in Brazil)	Coal (PAH, ME)	↓ Telomere length	↑ DNA damage, O global DNA methylation	Matzenbacher et al., 2019

Legends: Δ = variations, \uparrow = increasing, \downarrow = decreasing, O = no effects