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Telomere dynamic in humans and animals: review and perspectives in environmental toxicology 4 Maxime Louzon¹, Michael Coeurdassier¹, Frédéric Gimbert¹, Benjamin Pauget², Annette de 5 Vaufleury^{1*} ¹ Department Chrono-Environnement, UMR UFC/CNRS 6249 USC INRA University of Bourgogne Franche-Comté, 16 route de Gray, 25000 Besançon, France. ² TESORA, Le Visium, 22 avenue Aristide Briand, 94110 Arcueil, France. ***Corresponding author: annette.devaufleury@univ-fcomte.fr Keywords** 11 telomeres, attrition, vertebrates, invertebrates, ageing, pollutants

21 **Abstract**

22 Telomeres (TLs) play major roles in stabilizing the genome and are usually shortened 23 with ageing. The maintenance of TLs is ensured by two mechanisms involving telomerase 24 (TA) enzyme and alternative lengthening telomeres (ALT). TL shortening and/or TA 25 inhibition have been related to health effects on organisms (leading to reduced reproductive 26 lifespan and survival), suggesting that they could be key processes in toxicity mechanisms (at 27 molecular and cellular levels) and relevant as an early warning of exposure and effect of 28 chemicals on human health and animal population dynamics. Consequently, a critical analysis 29 of knowledge about relationships between TL dynamic and environmental pollution is 30 essential to highlight the relevance of TL measurement in environmental toxicology.

31 The first objective of this review is to provide a survey on the basic knowledge about 32 TL structure, roles, maintenance mechanisms and causes of shortening in both vertebrates 33 (including humans) and invertebrates. Overall, TL length decreases with ageing but some 34 unexpected exceptions are reported (*e.g.*, in species with different lifespans, such as the 35 nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* or the crustacean *Homarus americanus*). Inconsistent 36 results reported in various biological groups or even between species of the same genus (*e.g.,* 37 the microcrustacean *Daphnia sp.*) indicate that the relation usually proposed between TL 38 shortening and a decrease in TA activity cannot be generalized and depends on the species, 39 stage of development or lifespan. Although the scientific literature provides evidence of the 40 effect of ageing on TL shortening, much less information on the relationships between 41 shortening, maintenance of TLs, influence of other endogenous and environmental drivers, 42 including exposure to chemical pollutants, is available, especially in invertebrates.

43 The second objective of this review is to connect knowledge on TL dynamic and 44 exposure to contaminants. Most of the studies published on humans rely on correlative 45 epidemiological approaches and few *in vitro* experiments. They have shown TL attrition 46 when exposed to contaminants, such as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), 47 polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), pesticides and metallic elements (ME). In other vertebrates, 48 the studies we found deals mainly with birds and, overall, report a disturbance of TL dynamic 49 consecutively to exposure to chemicals, including metals and organic compounds. In 50 invertebrates, no data are available and the potential of TL dynamic in environmental risk 51 assessment remains to be explored.

52 On the basis of the main gaps identified some research perspectives (*e.g.,* impact of 53 endogenous and environmental drivers, dose response effects, link between TL length, TA 54 activity, longevity and ageing) are proposed to better understand the potential of TL and TA 55 measurements in humans and animals in environmental toxicology.

56

57 **1. Introduction**

58 Telomeres (TLs) are repetitive, non-coding DNA sequences located at the ends of 59 chromosomes. TLs were identified in the 1930s by McClintock (1941) and Müller (1938), 60 who described their potential functions in maintaining chromosome stability by observing the 61 chromosomes of corn and drosophila. It was postulated that cells were not able to divide 62 themselves into "infinity" (Weismann, 1889). This theory was confirmed in the 1960s 63 (Hayflick and Moorhead, 1961; Hayflick, 1965) on a human foetal cell culture (division 64 ability between 40 and 60 times before entrance in a senescence phase). Olovnikov theorized 65 the *Hayflick limit*, which postulates that somatic cells have a limited number of divisions in 66 connection with the loss of DNA sequences at the extremities of chromosomes, *i.e.*, TLs. 67 When this limit is exceeded, cells enter senescence (Olovnikov, 1971). The popularity of TLs 68 grown over the last four decades since the discovery of a repeated sequence of six telomeric 69 nucleotides of a ciliated protozoan, *Tetrahymena thermophila* (CCCCAA), and of the 70 protective role of this sequence against chromosome degradation (Yao et al., 1981; Szostak 71 and Blackburn, 1982; Shampay et al., 1984). TLs are mainly known to protect and stabilize 72 DNA by protecting chromosomes from degradation (end-to-end fusion and erosion), 73 stabilizing broken chromosome ends, modulating the DNA repair machinery of double strand 74 break (DSB) damage with non-homologous end-joining (NHEJ), counting the number of cell 75 divisions (replicative potential of cells), participating in mitotic and meiotic chromosome 76 segregation and the attachment of chromosomes to the nuclear envelope (Haber, 1999; de 77 Lange, 2005; Oeseburg et al., 2010; Grach, 2013). For humans, TL length decreases with 78 ageing (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008) and TL attrition is recognized as a biomarker of the nine 79 hallmarks of ageing (Lopez-Otin et al., 2013). Mechanisms of TL maintenance limit fast TL 80 attrition and are closely associated with the activities of some enzymes, the most well known 81 being telomerase, or TA (Greider and Blackburn, 1985; Greider and Blackburn, 1989).

82 If TL attrition occurs naturally, some studies report that it can be accelerated by various 83 biological (*e.g.,* infections) and environmental (*e.g.,* chemical substances) stressors known for 84 their toxicological effects. However, there is a lack of knowledge of various stressors (*e.g.,* 85 contaminants, biotic and abiotic factors) and species, including invertebrates. Furthermore, 86 data regarding the actions of these stressors on TL maintenance pathways that are key to 87 protecting and stabilizing the genome against various stressors, including pollutants, are 88 lacking. Based on data showing that chemicals are able to induce human premature ageing 89 and decrease lifespan (Chen et al., 2013; Puri et al., 2017), it appears relevant to investigate 90 on TL dynamic to search for bridges between molecular and cellular effects (impact on TL 91 length and/or TL maintenance), health effects (*e.g.,* survival, reproductive lifespan) and 92 consequences on populations (*e.g.,* density, growth).

93

94 The aim of this review is to identify research questions on TL dynamic in vertebrates and 95 invertebrates in relation to ageing, lifespan and environmental toxicology. The main question 96 concerns the potential use of TL measurement as a relevant biomarker, especially in the 97 framework of the One Health concept, to assess the effects of multiple stressors at the human-98 animal-ecosystem interface (Destoumieux-Garzón et al., 2018). Thus, the first objective of 99 this review is to report basic knowledge about the structure, roles and maintenance 100 mechanisms of TLs and causes of TL shortening in the animal kingdom. On the basis of this 101 premise, the second objective is to connect knowledge on TL dynamic and exposure to 102 contaminants. Finally, based on the lack of knowledge of TL dynamic in environmental 103 toxicology, some perspectives are proposed.

104 **2. Structure variability of telomeres in the animal kingdom**

105 In animals, TL sequences (TTAGGG)_n are highly conserved (Meyne et al., 1989; Traut et 106 al., 2007), with slight variations in phyla such as Arthropoda (Gomes et al., 2010). Sequence 107 conservation results, for example, in similar TL sequences for a heterothermic invertebrate 108 (the snail *Cantareus aspersus*) and a homeothermic vertebrate (*Homo sapiens*), while most 109 insects possess a pentameric motif (TTAGG), with the exception of Coleoptera (Frydrichovà 110 et al., 2004; Vitkovà et al., 2005; Gomes et al., 2011). TL sequences have been determined in 111 various species (*Table 1*), among which some are used as bioindicators in environmental 112 toxicology (*e.g., Daphnia pulex*, *Eisenia foetida*, *C. aspersus*). The repetition number of TL 113 sequences is variable according to species or age and can frequently reach several thousands 114 of nucleotides in Metazoa. For instance, in human lymphocytes, the size ranges between 2.5 115 to 15 kilo base pairs (kbp) depending on the patient (O'Callaghan and Fenech, 2011).

116 The end of the TL is commonly called a loop because it looks like a hairpin structure 117 (Griffith et al., 1999). Loops are formed by double-stranded TL repeats, the T-loop and the D-118 loop (Greider, 1999). The terminal region of the TL is a single-stranded overhang that is 3' G-

119 rich and is known as the G-tail (guanine-rich hairpin tail). This region forms G-quadruplexes, 120 where each guanine base participates in hydrogen bond formation (Lipps and Rhodes, 2009) 121 in a square planar arrangement that is stabilized by central cations (Williamson et al., 1989; 122 Moye et al., 2015). TL functions are dependent on G-quadruplexes that are associated with 123 proteins (Paeschke et al., 2005). In humans, TLs bear a protein complex, the shelterin 124 complex, which is mainly composed of six different proteins: TRF1, TRF2, RAP1, TIN2, 125 TPP1 and POT1 (Palm and de Lange, 2008; Oeseburg et al., 2010) (*Figure 1*). This DNA-126 protein complex is essential to protect TLs by the implication of TL maintenance machinery, 127 as it avoids the inhibition of various DNA damage response (DDR) and DNA repair 128 machinery (de Lange, 2009; Lu et al., 2013). Some proteins in humans associated with the 129 shelterin complex have also been found in several animal species, such as POT1 in 130 *Caenorhabditis elegans* (Ferreira et al., 2013) or in *Daphnia sp* (Schumpert et al., 2015). All 131 these proteins play various roles in TL maintenance (Martinez and Blasco, 2010*)* and are 132 summarized in *Table 2*.

133 Although the structure presented in *Figure 1* is accepted as the most commonly found in 134 animal kingdom, some studies have shown that it is not ubiquitous, notably for insects, such 135 as, *Chironomus sp.*, *Drosophila melanogaster* and *Bombyx mori* (Louis, 2002; Fujiwara et al., 136 2005; George et al., 2006; Mason et al., 2008; Pardue and DeBaryshe, 2008). For *D.* 137 *melanogaster*, the shelterin complex is replaced by a same architecture, the terminin complex 138 (Raffa et al., 2013), composed by five proteins (HOAP, HIPHOP, MOI, VER and TEA) and 139 the function of terminin for diptera is mainly to protect telomere from fusion events or DNA 140 damage response (Raffa et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Cicconi et al., 2017).

141 **3. Maintenance of telomeres (TLs)**

142 Various mechanisms operate to limit TL attrition (*i.e.,* TA, ALT) and/or to repair TLs 143 when they are damaged.

144

145 **3.1. Roles of telomerase (TA)**

146 Telomerases are a group of enzymes coupled to RNA that synthesize *de novo* the 147 extremities of the TL to limit its fast attrition in proliferative cell types (Greider and 148 Blackburn, 1985; Greider and Blackburn, 1989). For example, a single TA enzyme able to 149 synthesize 74 telomeric nucleotides per minute *in vitro* has been described in the ciliated 150 protozoan *Tetrahymena thermophila* (Greider, 1991). To synthetize TLs, TA uses a catalytic 151 component, TERT (telomerase reverse transcriptase; Nakamura et al., 1997), that has been 152 characterized in many animals (*e.g.*, *Xenopus laevis* and *Bombyx mori*) (Kuramoto et al., 153 2001; Osanai et al., 2006). The activation of TERT requires its binding with two proteins of 154 the shelterin complex, TPP1 and POT1 (Sandin and Rhodes, 2014). Then, TERT fosters the 155 *de novo* synthesis of TLs by using the second subunit of TA, an RNA template (TERC or 156 telomerase RNA component). In addition, TA can interact with G-quadruplexes to allow TL 157 extension (Moye et al., 2015).

158 TA stability and activity can be reduced by the actions of hormone (*e.g.,* corticosterone; 159 Gopalakrishnan et al., 2013; Angelier et al., 2018) and/or altered genes (*e.g.,* DKC1, dyskerin 160 pseudouridine synthase 1; Bertuch, 2016). The instability and inactivity of TA are a cause of 161 diseases such as dyskeratosis congenita (Zinsser-Cole-Engman syndrome), a telomeropathy 162 leading to premature ageing (Drachtman and Alter, 1992; Vulliamy et al., 2001; Armanios 163 and Blackburn, 2012; Armanios et al., 2013). If TA limits the shortening of TLs by adding 164 small repeated segments of DNA at the ends of chromosomes at each cell division, their 165 overexpression can be detrimental to individuals by causing diseases, such as cancer. In 80% 166 to 90% of all cancers, cancer cells often have high TA activity (Jafri et al., 2016) due to 167 mutations in the core promoter region of TERT (Horn et al., 2013; Grüner et al., 2018; Liu et 168 al., 2018) which is considered a key factor for tumour development.

169

170 **3.2. Roles of alternative lengthening telomeres (ALT)**

171 The ALT pathway, an alternative pathway used to synthetize TLs, has been reported in 172 immortal human cell lines (Bryan et al., 1995; Bryan et al., 1997). The ALT pathway can be 173 activated after epigenetic aberrations and mutations in genes encoding proteins involved in 174 chromatin remodelling at TLs and other genomic sites or tumour suppressors, such as p53 175 (Chung et al., 2012; Cesare and Reddel, 2013; Conomos et al., 2013; Naderlinger and 176 Holzmann, 2017). There are various mechanisms involved in the ALT pathway (*e.g.,* TL 177 elongation performed by homologous recombination) (Natarajan and McEachern, 2002; 178 Natarajan et al., 2003; Topcu et al., 2005; Cesare and Reddel, 2010; Cesare and Reddel, 2013; 179 Conomos et al., 2013). Some proteins are associated with the ALT pathway and are involved 180 in the restart of telomeric DNA replication, such as HR protein complexes (MRN, MRE11, 181 RAD50, NSB1, NBN), proteins located on chromosome 5 for the structural maintenance of 182 TLs (SMC5, SMC6), Fanconi anaemia proteins (FANDCD2, FANCA) and endonucleases 183 (FEN1) (Cesare and Reddel, 2010). The ALT pathway was evidenced in human somatic cells 184 (especially those that lose tumour protein 53 (TP53), which are genetically unstable) and 185 promotes proliferative cancer cells in humans (15% of cancers) (Henson et al., 2002; Cesare 186 et al., 2009; Lovejoy et al., 2012; Conomos et al., 2013; Neumann et al., 2013; Roake and 187 Artendi, 2016; Chen et al., 2017; Min et al., 2017).

188 **3.3. DNA repair of telomeres**

189 The maintenance of functional TLs is critical for genome stability. When damages affect 190 TL extremities, TA or the ALT pathway is recruited for maintenance. However, damage (*e.g.,* 191 breaks, oxidation of nucleotides, alkylations) can also take place at various locations in the TL 192 sequence. In this case, other mechanisms, *i.e.,* DNA repair pathways are mobilized. These

193 pathways are the same as those that watch over the rest of the genome, such as base excision 194 repair (BER), nucleotide excision repair (NER), homologous recombination (HR), non-195 homologous end-joining (NHEJ) and mismatch repair (MMR) (Webb et al., 2013; Jia et al., 196 2015). The DNA BER pathway involves endonucleases (such as APE1) and is a major way to 197 protect genomes from oxidative stress in association with the shelterin complex through, for 198 instance, interaction with TRF2 to stabilize telomeric DNA (Madlner et al., 2013). Moreover, 199 DNA repair mechanisms are also essential when damage occurs in genes encoding proteins 200 involved in TL dynamic (*e.g.,* TERT, POT1, MRN).

201

202 **4. Causes and consequences of telomere attrition**

203 **4.1. Ageing**

204 Several causes of TL shortening have been identified (*Figure 2*). The main one, ageing is 205 natural and is due to cell division (Blackburn, 2005), because at each division, chromosomes 206 lose telomeric patterns. TLs have a critical minimal size that, when reached, induces an 207 inhibition of cell division cycles and cellular senescence processes (Harley et al., 1990; 208 Blackburn, 1991; Amanions and Blackburn, 2012; Reichert et al., 2017). In various animal 209 groups, it has been reported that TLs shorten with ageing (*Table 3*). The relation between 210 ageing and shortened TLs has been evidenced mainly for vertebrates (*i.e.,* mammals, fish and 211 birds), for example in cats (McKevitt et al., 2003) and rodents (Coviello-McLaughlin et al., 212 1997). However, for some vertebrates (*e.g.,* long-lived species like the bird, *Oceanodroma* 213 *leucorhoa*, or the water python, *Liasis fuscus*), no relationship between the age of individuals 214 and TL length has been highlighted, probably due to reduced oxidative damage (Haussman et 215 al., 2003) or high TA activity stimulated by hormones notably estrogens (Ujvari and Masden, 216 2009). *Table 3* shows a lack of knowledge on TL dynamic as a function of age in 217 invertebrates and the mechanism of ageing. Based on the few data available with a sufficient 218 number of individuals by age group, three patterns can be identified regarding relationships 219 between TLs, TA and ageing: increase, decrease and no variation. In the Baikal gastropod 220 *Kobeltocochlea martensiana*, an enlargement of TLs with ageing has been demonstrated 221 (Maximova et al., 2017). Studies on the planaria *Schmidtea mediterranea*, which has an 222 apparently limitless regenerative capacity, showed that TLs decrease with age in sexual 223 animals, while asexual planaria can maintain TL length during fission or regeneration (Tan et 224 al., 2012). In the aquatic arthropod *Daphnia sp.*, no relationship between age and TL length 225 was found in *D. pulex* while *D. pulicaria*, whose life cycle is twice as long as that of *D. pulex*, 226 showed TL attrition with ageing (Schumpert et al., 2015). In both species, TL dynamic 227 appears to be correlated with TA activity. These different patterns underline that phylogenetic 228 proximity does not mean similar patterns between TLs or TA responses and ageing. For the 229 nematode *Caenorhabditis elegans* (which can be described as a short-lived species with a 230 temperature-dependent lifespan between 5 and 100 days), no correlation between ageing and 231 TL length was detected (Raices et al., 2005). The same observation was made for the long-232 lived arthropod, *Homarus americanus* (lifespan from 50 and 100 years), which was 233 unexpected regarding its special longevity in an optimal environment. Ageing phenomena are 234 absent in this species, and mortality is often caused by the increased weight of individuals that 235 preclude moult (Klapper et al., 1998; Krupp et al., 2000).

236 In humans (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008) and mice (Rudolph et al., 1999; Tomas-Loba et 237 al., 2008), TL attrition is considered one of the nine hallmarks of ageing (Lopez-Otin et al., 238 2013) and is a marker of cellular senescence (Bernadotte et al., 2016). A relationship between 239 the shortening of TLs in human leukocytes and all causes of death has been demonstrated 240 (Boonekamp et al., 2013; Opresko et al., 2017). However, according to Farzaneh-Far et al. 241 (2008), death cannot be predicted with a simple measure of TL length, and depends also on 242 disease advancements or genotype. For example, it has been found that in humans, the 243 heterozygous genotype for some genes, including SERPINE, is associated with a longer TL 244 length, a longer lifespan (7 or more years on average), better cardiovascular capabilities, 245 lower fasting insulin levels, and a lower incidence of diabetes mellitus (Khan et al., 2017).

246 Hence, although a correlation between TL attrition, decrease in TA activity and ageing has 247 been often reported, it does not seem to be generalizable throughout the animal kingdom.

248 **4.2. Other causes**

249 Various mechanisms (*e.g.,* genotoxicity, oxidative stress) can impact TL length (*Figure* 250 *2*). DNA damage such as a single strand break (SSB) or a double strand break (DSB) can be a 251 source of TL attrition (Pottier et al., 2013; Grach, 2013), notably when the DNA repair 252 machinery is inefficient (Webb et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2015). Deficiencies in enzymes 253 supported by the BER pathway (*e.g.,* OGG1 and UNG) can contribute to TL shortening by 254 altered TL sister chromatid exchanges, an increased number of SSBs and DSBs, preferential 255 TL G-strand losses, accumulation of uracil on TLs, increased TL fragility and aberrant TL 256 recombination (Oikawa and Kawanishi, 1999; Wang et al., 2010; Vallabhaneni et al., 2013; 257 Webb et al., 2013; An et al., 2015; Jia et al., 2015; Vallabhaneni et al., 2015). Telomeric DNA 258 is highly susceptible to oxidative-induced DNA damage because of its high guanine content 259 (Kawanishi and Oikawa, 2004). Among oxidative lesion bases at TLs, 8-oxo-dG is the most 260 frequent (Zhou et al., 2017). Therefore, TLs can also be indirectly altered by mutagenicity 261 when reactive oxygen species (ROS) induce mutations (*e.g.,* 8-oxo-dG induces a transversion 262 G:C to A:T) in genes coding for TL structure and maintenance or the DNA repair of TLs 263 (Wood et al., 1990; Henle et al., 1999; von Zglinicki, 2002; Chang et al., 2003; Vasseur and 264 Cossu-Leguille, 2003; Houben et al., 2008; Coluzzi et al., 2017; Stauffer et al., 2018). A 265 disorder in protein recruitment in the TL complex shelterin can also be the cause of TL 266 attrition because the T-loop cannot be easily formed, making the end of the chromosome 267 unprotected. This phenomenon can also be at the origin of apoptosis or senescence via 268 activation of the p53 or p16link4a pathways (Oeseburg et al., 2010). In addition, the absence 269 or deficiency of TA may also be a cause of premature TL shortening (Ziegler et al., 2017).

270 TL shortening in human populations is related to psychological stress, diseases, infections, 271 diets and lifestyles including smoking, as reported for example by Valdes et al. (2005), 272 Lansdorp (2009), Mirabello et al. (2009), and Gomes et al. (2012). Similar studies have been 273 performed on mammals (Illmonen et al., 2008), showing that repeated infection by 274 *Salmonella enterica* can cause TL attrition in house mice (*Mus musculus*). Many biotic and 275 abiotic factors, such as nutrient (*e.g.,* folate and selenium) deprivation, can accelerate TL 276 attrition. Indeed, the antioxidant activity of these nutrients has a protective effect against 277 oxidative DNA telomeric damage (Liu et al., 2004; Boccardi et al., 2013). Among other 278 factors that can influence TL dynamic, food availability, number of breeding events and 279 antioxidant capabilities have been described in birds (Hall et al., 2004; Foote et al., 2011; 280 Heidinger et al., 2012; Bebbington et al., 2016; Sletten et al., 2016; Angelier et al., 2018).

281 **4.3. Consequences of TL attrition on organism and population**

282 Telomere shortening and short TL length is associated with various diseases including 283 diabetes (Sampson et al., 2006; Uziel et al., 2007), cardiovascular diseases (Fitzpatrick et al., 284 2007), obesity (Valdes et al., 2005), cancers (Srinivas et al., 2019) and pathologies of the 285 female reproductive tract (Kalmbach et al., 2013). These studies focusing on humans support 286 that TL length alteration can affect individual fitness in relation to a reduced lifespan reduced 287 for various animal species (Monaghan and Haussman, 2006). Interspecies comparisons 288 provide additional information to understand relations between TL dynamic and lifespan. 289 Higher rates of TL loss are associated with a shorter lifespan when comparing different bird 290 (Tricola et al., 2018) or mammal species. For instance, in humans, the rate of TL loss is 20-40 291 bp/year for a lifespan of 75 years while, it is 360 bp/year in dogs with a lifespan of 12 years 292 (Unryn et al., 2015). Generally, in vertebrates, TL length is inversely correlated with the 293 lifespan of a species (Gomes et al., 2011).

294 If TLs length is predictive of the longevity of individuals of species as demonstrated for 295 *Acrocephalus arundinaceus* or *Daphnia pulicaria* (Asghar et al., 2015; Schumpert et al., 296 2015), an accelerated attrition of TLs within a population may cause a decrease of the mean 297 reproductive lifespan and of individual fitness, so reduce fertility rate, which should lead to 298 changes in population dynamics (Reichert, 2013). However, if theoretical links between TL 299 dynamic, individual life-history traits and population dynamic seems obvious, the published 300 literature dealing with the ecological repercussion of accelerated TL shortening remains very 301 limited.

302 **5. Contaminants and effects on telomere dynamic**

303 Besides ageing and the other factors influencing TL dynamic we listed above, effects of 304 toxic contaminants released by anthropogenic activities on individual health, life-history traits 305 and population dynamic have been widely reported in the scientific literature. The interactions 306 between a toxic compound and a biological system occurred first at the molecular and cellular 307 levels. Then, ecological processes may also act, for instance when a predator suffers a 308 decrease in prey availability because of poisoning. According to the mechanism(s) of action 309 and depending on the sensitivity of the exposed species, this usually involves that the 310 compound reaches one (or several) molecular target(s) and/or induces oxidative stress to 311 express its toxicity at higher levels of biological organization. As reported above, TL dynamic 312 is related to life-history traits and potentially to population dynamic. Thus, it can be assume 313 that changes in TL dynamic is among the key processes linking toxic compounds,

314 molecular/cellular disturbances and consequences on individual health, fitness and 315 population.

316

317 **5.1. In humans**

318 Currently, most of the studies questioning the impact of contaminants on TL length and 319 TA activity concern humans, especially leukocytes. The general trend is that TL length and 320 TA activity decrease concomitantly when cells or humans are exposed to contaminants (*Table* 321 *4*). This premise fits well with the commonly proposed hypothesis that exposure to pollutants 322 causes cell damage together with a decrease in TL length and TA activity.

323 Exposure to metallic elements (ME) has been related to TL length changes, two patterns 324 can be distinguished: decrease or increase (*Table 4*). For example, cadmium (Cd) can cause 325 TL attrition, as shown in placenta from newborns (Lin et al., 2013), in saliva from adolescents 326 (Fillman et al., 2016) and in leukocytes from adults (Zota et al., 2015; Patel et al., 2017). 327 Similar trends were reported for lead (Pb) (Pottier et al., 2013; Pawlas et al., 2015; Pawlas et 328 al., 2016), arsenic (As) (Ferrario et al., 2009; Srinivas et al., 2019) and the combination of As, 329 Cd and/or tungsten (W) (Wai et al., 2018; Grau-Perez et al., 2019). Organic chemicals, such 330 as polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons (PAH), polychlorinated biphenyls (PCB), 331 polybrominated diphenyl ethers (PBDE) and air pollutants (*e.g.,* benzene, toluene and fuel 332 smoke) can lead to TL attrition (*Table 4*). Some PCBs and PBDEs induced a decrease in TL 333 length, TA activity and the expression of fundamental genes implicated in TL maintenance 334 and stability (Xin et al., 2016; Ziegler et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2018).

335 Toxicologists have also paid special attention to carcinogenic compounds such as ME 336 (*e.g.,* As), some persistent organic pollutant (POP) or air contaminants (NOx, NO2, PM2.5 and 337 PM10) (Dioni et al., 2011; Gao et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2015; Joyce and Hou, 2015; Mitro et 338 al., 2016; Jimenez Villarreal et al., 2018; Zhao et al., 2018). A study conducted by Gao et al. 339 (2015) on leukocytes from 167 participants demonstrated that a higher As urinary 340 concentration was associated with increased TL length, overexpression of WRN (a gene 341 involved in the ALT pathway), and decreased expression of TERF2, TERF2IP (shelterin 342 complex), DKC1 (upregulation of TA**)**, and OBFC1 (upregulation of TA). A similar trend 343 was reported on leukocytes that presented an elongation of TL and an increase of the level of 344 two proteins of the shelterin complex (TRF1 and TRF2) following As exposure (Chatterjee et 345 al. 2015). As previously stated, abnormal TL elongation should not necessarily be considered 346 as positive, since strong activities of TA or ALT can be related to tumour development. In the 347 study of Gao et al. (2015), the WRN gene, implicated in ALT pathway, was up-regulated in 348 leukocytes and TL were lengthened after exposure to As. Moreover, it was demonstrated that 349 methylation of CHK1 or PML genes may activate ALT pathway in human or mouse 350 (Naderlinger and Holzmann, 2017), especially after exposure by PCBs and PCDEs (Yuan et 351 al., 2018). Therefore, for carcinogenic contaminants, a possible mechanism of action could be 352 an increase in TL length caused by TA and/or ALT upregulation rather than TL attrition 353 (Finnon et al., 2000; Jafri et al., 2016; Dagg et al., 2017). A pathway explaining an 354 overactivation of the ALT pathway could be epigenetic alterations, such as methylations, 355 induced by some contaminants (Reichard and Puga, 2010; Nica et al., 2017).

356 **5.2. In animals**

357 There is a growing interest in ecology to measure TLs in various organisms, including 358 vertebrates and invertebrates, with approximately five publications in 1995 vs one hundred in 359 2015 (Angelier et al., 2018). However, in ecotoxicology, studies are limited to vertebrates and 360 mainly birds (*Table 5*), but no studies on invertebrates has been published. In some of the few 361 studies that assessed with the impact of contaminants on TLs or TA in animals, TL attrition 362 was related to high exposure. Stauffer et al. (2017) showed inconsistent trends when 363 investigating the interaction between exposure to ME, oxidative stress and TL length in wild 364 populations of two birds (*Parus major* and *Ficedula hypoleuca*). They demonstrated that great 365 tit nestlings exposed to ME had shorter TLs than those living in unpolluted areas. However, 366 this correlation was not found when investigating pied flycatcher nestlings or adult females of 367 two species. The authors investigated whether the redox status that varied among species and 368 age groups may explain these differences but no link with TL length was found. For *Rissa* 369 *tridactyla¸* an arctic seabird species, Blévin et al. (2016) showed that TL attrition was higher 370 in wild adult females exposed to the major metabolite of chlordane mixture (oxychlordane) 371 than in males. More expectedly, oxidative stress could accelerate TL attrition, as shown 372 experimentally in wild-caught house mice (*Mus musculus musculus*), for which an inhibition 373 of superoxide dismutase (SOD) activity was related to TL attrition (Stauffer et al., 2018). A 374 study on the fish *Epinephelus coiodes* showed a concomitant decrease in TA activity with 375 high exposure to benzo(a)pyrene (a PAH) (Peterson et al., 2015). As reported in *Figure 2*, 376 potential relationships between TL attrition and increases of DNA damages has been shown 377 on *Ctenomys torquatus* exposed to PAH and ME from coal (Matzenbacher et al., 2019). All 378 these studies show that TL length and TA activity can be altered by contaminants in various 379 vertebrate species, including birds, fishes and mammals.

380 However, other studies have not revealed that TL attrition is associated with chemical 381 exposure. White-tailed eagle (*Haliaeetus albicilla*) nestlings sampled from a site 382 contaminated by organohalogenated compounds did not exhibit TL shortening or reduced 383 SOD activity (Sletten et al., 2015). Blévin et al. (2017) measured an increase in TL length in 384 both sexes of *Rissa tridactyla* (Black-legged kittiwake) exposed to perfluoroalkyl substances 385 (PFAs).

386 The impact of pollutants on TLs and TA is still a new field of research in environmental 387 toxicology; on the basis of the recent data published, it remains difficult to identify general 388 trends. This could be partly due to a lack of knowledge about the influence of various 389 individual (*e.g.,* gender, age, species) and/or environmental (*e.g.,* weather conditions, food 390 availability, pathogens, pollutions) factors on TL dynamic. In the following section, we 391 propose several lines of research to improve knowledge on the impact of pollutants on TLs 392 and TA in environmental toxicology for humans and animals (mainly those used as 393 bioindicators for ecotoxicological purposes).

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

395 Environmental toxicology concerns the toxic effects of environmental contaminants on 396 living organisms in their environments. Gaining more knowledge on the impact of 397 contaminants on TL dynamic could be relevant to understand these effects and possibly to 398 propose adverse outcome pathways (AOP), which would impact life traits and population, as 399 recommended by the OECD (2018). This review showed that the level of knowledge on TLs, 400 in general and particularly in environmental toxicology, is quite different for humans, 401 vertebrates and invertebrates. Thus, perspectives for the possible use of TL length and TA 402 activity as biomarkers in environmental toxicology depend on the considered group; they will 403 be briefly developed for each of these groups of organisms, before moving to more specific 404 consideration (either technical or biological).

405 For humans, although TLs are already used as biomarkers (*Table 4*), further studies are 406 necessary to better fulfil some specifications (*e.g.,* the link between TL variation and 407 biological consequence or between TL lengthening and exposure to compounds with 408 carcinogenic properties). For other vertebrates (*Table 5*), with the possible exception of birds, 409 the use of TL length and TA activity as biomarkers appears far from ready in routine use for 410 ecotoxicological purposes. This review highlights a lack of knowledge on TL dynamic in 411 almost all bioindicator species: for the majority, the relation between ageing and TL length 412 remains to be characterized, as well as the influence of many endogenous and environmental 413 factors (acting possibly in interactions) on TL dynamic. This is also true for invertebrates, for 414 which this area of research is virtually untouched.

415 The basic question here is whether early TL shortening could be a biomarker to reveal the 416 impact of stress (physical, chemical and biological) on premature ageing and thus organism 417 health and longevity. For this purpose, TL length and TA activity must satisfy some 418 specifications: good sensitivity, knowledge about biological consequences for interpreting the 419 responses of the biomarker, feasibility, field application, knowledge about variations in the 420 amplitudes of responses, and the identification of confounding factors (*i.e.,* capacities to 421 discriminate variations that could be caused by pollutants or environmental factors) (Garric et 422 al., 2010). According to these specifications, many technical and biological issues must be 423 better considered for reliable TL length and TA activity assessments in environmental 424 toxicology:

425 • The choice of analytical technique to assess TL length and TA activity. Currently, 426 many methods exist to measure TLs (qPCR, flow-fluorescence *in situ* 427 hybridization (FISH), qFISH, single TL length analysis (STELA), terminal 428 restriction fragment by southern blot or in-gel hybridization, dot blot) and detect 429 TA activity (ddPCR). The choice of methods depends on scientific questions and 430 technical considerations (see, for example, the reviews of Montpetit et al., 2014 431 and Nussey et al., 2014). For example, for the same sample, qPCR provides an 432 estimate of the average TL length in a DNA extract but the diversity of the TL size 433 for each cells cannot be determined. Molecular biology kits exist and have often 434 used (*e.g.,* by Schumpert et al. (2015) to measure TA activity on two *Daphnia sp*). 435 For reasons related to quickness, simplicity, robustness and cost, the qPCR TL 436 measurement technique seems well appropriate and is widely used (Cawthon et al., 437 2002; Shay and Wright, 2019), even if the results are semiquantitative (but 438 sufficient to identify variations between various exposures to contaminants).

- 439 Influence of the quality of DNA extraction. In terms of measurement techniques 440 and TL size, different kits can be preferred. It is important to use the same 441 extraction method during all the studies (Nussey et al., 2014; Raschenberger et al., 442 2016).
- 443 Influence of storage conditions of the sample that can impact measurements. For 444 example, FTA cards (*Flinders Technology Associates cards*) are not recommended 445 for long-term storage (Reichert et al., 2017) and repeated cycles of 446 freezing/thawing can cause DNA alterations.
- 447 Influence of the choice of biological tissue or cell type (Gardner et al., 2007; 448 Kesäniemi et al., 2019) according to physiological characteristics (*i.e.*: TA 449 activity, ALT, cell division properties) and toxicological characteristics (*i.e.*: 450 target, storage or metabolism of xenobiotics) is important to be considered. For 451 example, Yip et al. (2017) chose to measure TLs on Medaka fish liver cells 452 because of the regulatory functions of metabolism and homeostasis. For small 453 organisms (*e.g.,* arthropods) the recourse of pools and whole body may be 454 relevant.
- 455 Experiments must use of a sufficient number of individuals by age and/or 456 environmental condition class to make reliable statistical comparisons to account 457 for interindividual variations.

458 • The link between TL length, TA activity, longevity and ageing needs to be 459 investigated in a wide range of animals, including invertebrates (notably those 460 commonly used in ecotoxicological risk assessment, *e.g.,* crustacean, earthworms 461 and mollusks, for which no data are available). Indeed, interspecific comparison to 462 estimate variation of TL length or TA activity with ageing for species for which 463 the dynamic of TLs is unknown is difficult because various patterns have been 464 demonstrated for phylogenetically close species (*e.g.,* between various bird 465 species). For example, a relation between TL length and ageing for *Daphnia* 466 *pulicaria* has been evidenced (Schumpert et al., 2015) and suggests that it could be 467 interesting to assess the sublethal effects of contaminants or other stressors on this 468 taxon with TL length measurements. However, this relation is not the same for 469 *Daphnia pulex* where TL length does not evolve with ageing. Understanding the 470 reason for the differences observed in phylogenetically close species, offers an 471 exciting challenge.

472 • Many studies concerning the impact of contaminants on TL dynamic are 473 correlative. To better evaluate the relevance of TL dynamic studies in 474 environmental toxicology and to highlight by which mechanisms TL changes are 475 related to exposure to chemicals, it is essential to develop more laboratory 476 approaches. Some experiments conducted under controlled conditions should 477 address the following questions:

478 o What is the influence of environmental and individual factors on TL 479 dynamic such as, gender, hormones, food source, crowding, disturbance, 480 noise, infection, pathogens, parasites, and climatic factors, as described by 481 Angelier et al. (2018)? For example, in female Medaka fish, oestradiol may 482 be involved in TL maintenance by i) increasing TA activity (TERT mRNA 483 upregulation, TERT phosphorylation) and ii) limiting oxidative DNA 484 damage at the level of TLs (antioxidant gene upregulation) (Yip et al., 485 2017).

- 486 o What are the consequences of TL attrition on survival or reproductive 487 abilities and consequently on population dynamic?
- 488 o What is the pattern(s) of the relationship between TL length and 489 contaminant exposure? This question is supported by the fact that some 490 carcinogenic compounds could lead to an elongation of TLs and because 491 dose-reponse relationships have not been established even for the most 492 prevalent pollutants either single or in mixture. This should be done 493 considering acute but also subchronic and chronic exposure scenario.
- 494 o What are the main mechanisms, including direct (DNA damages) and 495 indirect ones (modulation of maintenance processes, oxidative stress…), 496 linking chemical exposure and the alteration of the natural TL dynamic?
- 497

498 **7. Conclusion**

499 TLs are highly conserved in the animal kingdom, ubiquitous and appear "universal" in 500 living organisms. However, many studies are still needed, as noted in the present review, 501 before TLs can be used as a relevant biomarker (in species belonging to many biological 502 groups) to predict the effects of various stressors (*e.g.,* chemical contaminants) on health for 503 humans and animal populations in the wild. More data on TL dynamic could help build new 504 AOP for chemical risk assessment based on mechanistic reasoning. TL dynamic studies could 505 improve environmental monitoring and our understanding of the impact of disrupted 506 anthropic ecosystems (on the health status, lifespans and dynamic of populations) and could 507 reduce disciplinary borders in the One Health concept, because epidemiologists,

508 ecotoxicologists, veterinarians and economists look for universal information concerning an 509 organism's health.

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515 The authors declare no disclosures of interest.

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

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

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

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

participants

ATMOSPHERIC POLLUTION

PAH, PCB and PBDE

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

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

BIOLOGICAL MATERIALS

EXPERIMENTALS

CONDITIONS CONTAMINANTS EFFECTS ON TELOMERE DYNAMICS OTHERS BIOLOGICALS EFFECTS SOURCES

FISHS

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