

# Down-regulating the stress axis: Living in the present while preparing for the future

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# 1 Down-regulating the stress axis: living in the present while preparing for

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#### Abstract

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The measurement of glucocorticoid (GC) hormones provides us with a window into the stress physiology of vertebrates and the adaptative responses they use to cope with predictable and unpredictable changes in the environment. Baseline GCs inform us about the metabolic demands they are subject to at that point in their yearly life-history stage, whereas GC changes (often increases) in response to acute challenges inform us on their capacity to cope with more immediate environmental challenges. However, baseline GC levels and the kinetics of GC responses to acute stressors can vary substantially among and within species, depending on individual characteristics (age, sex, condition, life-history stage). In addition, a thorough understanding of the stress status of an animal requires moving beyond the measurement of GCs alone by focusing on downstream measures of metabolic activation, such as oxidative stress. Here, we evaluated the changes in blood cortisol and oxidative stress markers in wild adult Columbian ground squirrels (Urocitellus columbianus), following a 30-min capturehandling stress performed in mid-late June. Measurements were taken when males were postreproductive and preparing for hibernation and adult females were weaning litters. We found three key results. First, the time-course of GC increase was markedly slower (by an order of magnitude) than what is currently reported in the literature for most species of mammals, birds and reptiles. Second, there were marked differences in the male and female response, linked to differences in life-history stage: females close to weaning had abolished GC responses, whereas post-reproductive males did not. Third, there were mild to moderate increases in oxidative damage and decreases in oxidative defenses in response to our short-term challenge, consistent with the idea that short-term acute metabolic activation may carry physiological costs. However, these changes were not correlated to the changes in GCs, a novel result suggesting a disconnect of hormonal stress response and oxidative damage.

**Keywords:** aging, HPA axis, mammal, oxidative stress, rodent, sciurid, stress response

# Introduction

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The hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis is a key feature of adaptation allowing vertebrates to respond to predictable and unpredictable changes in their environment (Boonstra, 2004; Boonstra et al., 2014; Crespi et al., 2013; Wingfield and Romero, 2011). In response to internal and external stressors, activation of the HPA axis ultimately results in the secretion of glucocorticoid hormones (GCs) into the blood stream. These target a wide range of tissues, regulating the expression of some 10% of the genome and control major functions related to metabolism, growth, repair, immunity, reproduction, and the management of energy balance and resource allocation (Le et al., 2005). Thus unsurprisingly, a large body of literature has focused on GCs as central mediators of the relationship between vertebrates and their environment (Boonstra, 2004; Harris, 2020; Sapolsky et al., 2000; Wingfield and Romero, 2011). On one hand, studies have considered increased baseline levels as indicative of periods of increased organism workload or solicitation (Landys et al., 2006), such as during reproduction (Bonier et al., 2009, 2011; Boonstra et al., 2001b; Delehanty and Boonstra, 2011), in years or situations of high predation pressure (Boonstra, 2004; Boonstra et al., 1998; Clinchy et al., 2013), periods of low resource availability (Kitaysky et al., 2007, 1999), or times of intra- and interspecific competition (e.g. situations of peer-pressure or social challenge) (Creel et al., 2013; Lemonnier et al., 2022). On the other, studies have used acute increases in GCs in response to unpredictable environmental changes as indicative of individuals' capacity to cope with change while maintaining homeostasis (Breuner et al., 1999; Delehanty and Boonstra, 2009; Sapolsky et al., 2000; Wingfield et al., 1992). Whether evaluated at baseline and or when stress-induced, GCs measured in blood have several key advantages compared to other matrices (reviewed in Sheriff et al., 2011). First, GCs in blood directly reflect their production by the adrenal cortex, which is not the case when estimated from breakdown products such as fecal cortisol metabolites, for which prior validation studies need to be conducted (Touma and Palme, 2005). Second, blood allows simultaneously measurement of other physiological indicators (glucose levels, free fatty acids, hematocrit, oxidative stress, immune profiles) which might vary with individual condition, life-history stage, or in response to a stressor (Boonstra et al., 1998; Clinchy et al., 2004; Davis et al., 2008; Majer et al., 2019; Viblanc et al., 2018b). Finally, using blood allows for the detailed study of the kinetics and inter-individual variation of GCs changes (onset and termination of the response) to unpredictable disturbances, providing us with a window into how GC responses may be adaptively fine-tuned to environmental stochasticity (Angelier and Wingfield, 2013).

A central problem in measuring GCs from blood – especially in wild vertebrates (Sheriff et al., 2011) – is being able to assess true baseline levels, since any measurement of GCs is likely to be confounded by the stress of capture and handling. Two common methodologies are typically used to deal with the problem. The first involves a hormonalchallenge: circulating GC levels are initially reduced to their minimum levels by the experimental injection of dexamethasone – a synthetic GC agonist that inhibits GC secretion through negative feedback on the HPA axis and reduction of ACTH (adrenocorticotropic hormone) release from the pituitary – and subsequently increased to their maximal levels through the experimental injection of ACTH (Boonstra et al., 1998, 2001b; Gist and Kaplan, 1976; Rich and Romero, 2005; Smith and Bubenik, 1990). However, many species are naturally resistant to dexamethasone during parts of their life cycles and/or show hypo- or hyper-GC responses to ACTH stimulation (Boonstra et al., 1998; Boonstra and McColl, 2000; Chrousos et al., 1982; Harlow et al., 1992; Keightley and Fuller, 1996; McDonald et al., 1986; Sapolsky and Altmann, 1991; Taymans et al., 1997). The second methodology uses the actual disturbance caused by capture to assess its impact on the HPA axis response (Kenagy and Place, 2000; Place and Kenagy, 2000). Initial blood samples are acquired as rapidly as possible and subsequent blood samples are performed at discreet time intervals on the same or different animals. The kinetics of increase in blood GCs is then examined. Whereas this approach may not capture "true" baseline GC levels, initial sampling approximates "near-baseline" levels (Romero and Reed, 2005), as indicated by significant increases from initial sampling that can be observed in subsequent time steps. However, studies that used this approach found blood GC levels to increase significantly anywhere between <1 and 5 minutes of initial sampling (Boonstra et al., 2001a; Boonstra and Singleton, 1993; Dawson and Howe, 1983; Mizrahi et al., 2001; Müller et al., 2006; Romero et al., 2008; Romero and Reed, 2005; Viblanc et al., 2018a; Wada et al., 2007), indicating that species-specific validations of the course of increase of GCs in the blood stream are required to design field protocols and interpret data.

We applied this approach to a 30-min acute capture stress protocol in a wild mammal, the Columbian ground squirrel (*Urocitellus columbianus*). Columbian ground squirrels are sciurid rodents that hibernate approximately 8-9 months of the year, and exhibit a brief period of activity (from mid- to late-April until late-July to mid-August) during which reproduction, molt and fattening for subsequent hibernation occur (Dobson et al., 1992; Dobson and Murie, 1987). We sampled animals during the month of June after the mating period had passed, during which males were post-reproductive and females were weaning litters. Our study had three objectives.

First, we aimed to characterize the kinetics of ground squirrel plasma GC response to acute stress. Specifically, we wished to determine the time-course over which plasma GC increased following an acute stress, and the timing at which GCs differed from near-baseline levels. In addition to total cortisol levels (the main GC in Columbian ground squirrel; Bosson et al., 2009), we measured changes in corticosteroid binding globulin (CBG) and estimated changes in free cortisol levels. About 90% of blood GCs are bound to CBG in vertebrates

(Delehanty et al., 2020, 2015; Desantis et al., 2013) and only free GCs are thought to be biologically active (Breuner et al., 2013; Perogamvros et al., 2012).

Second, we wished to explore inter-individual variation in GC responses in regards to individual sex, mass, and age. We expected to find sex and mass-specific differences in baseline and capture-induced GCs levels, given the different energy requirements of post-reproductive males and lactating females at that time. Females around weaning were expected to sustain higher circulating levels of GCs due to the high energy demands of reproduction at that time (Crespi et al., 2013; Haase et al., 2016; Kenagy and Place, 2000), the requirements of GCs for offspring development (Edwards et al., 2021; Edwards and Boonstra, 2018), or on the contrary, might have buffered high levels of GCs to limit offspring exposure to GCs (Brunton et al., 2008; Thoman et al., 1970). In addition, several studies have shown GC levels to increase with age (including in fecal signatures of Columbian ground squirrels; Sosa et al., 2020), either as a reflection of increased reproductive and metabolic demands (Crespi et al., 2013), or as a reflection of a senescing HPA axis and a deterioration of negative feedback control (Gupta and Morley, 2014; Sapolsky and Altmann, 1991).

Third, we moved beyond the HPA-axis alone in characterizing the consequences of an acute capture on stress physiology. For this, we focused on oxidative stress, which arises as a consequence of the imbalance between pro-oxidant molecules (mostly due to the by-production of reactive oxygen species (ROS) during mitochondrial respiration; Metcalfe and Alonso-Alvarez, 2010) and the body's antioxidant defenses. Interactions among the HPA-axis, the mitochondria, and ROS (Du et al., 2009; Manoli et al., 2007; Picard et al., 2014) make oxidative stress an appealing candidate mechanism to consider in addition to GC responses in the study of vertebrate "stress status" and "stress responses" to changing environments. Increased oxidative stress has been associated with increased GCs in vertebrates at baseline levels (Costantini et al., 2011), and GCs have been shown to down-regulate antioxidant defenses in

some studies (Briehl and Baker, 1996; McIntosh et al., 1998). However, while some studies have considered the dynamics of oxidative stress in relation to acute challenges in vertebrates (Djordjevic et al., 2010; Haussmann et al., 2012; Huber et al., 2017; Jacobs et al., 2021; Nadeem et al., 2006), only a handful of such studies have been conducted in the wild (Cohen et al., 2007; Costantini et al., 2012; Stier et al., 2019), primarily on birds, and results have been conflicting. Thus, we considered markers of plasma oxidative damage and antioxidant defense, and their relation to the GC response, to further our understanding of the time course of changes in oxidative stress that occur during responses to acute challenges in wild mammals.

# Methods

#### Study population

We studied Columbian ground squirrel responses to acute stress in a population intensively monitored from 1992 to the present in Sheep River Provincial Park, Alberta, Canada (50° 38′ 10.73″ N; 114° 39′ 56.52″ W; 1524 m; 2.3 ha). Ground squirrels were marked with numbered metal ear tags (National Band and Tag Company, Newport, KY) when weaned (or at first capture for immigrants) and a unique black mark on the pelage using human hair dye (Clairol® Hydrience, Clairol Inc., New York, USA) was applied annually to allow individual recognition in the field. The entire population was trapped annually using peanut butter bait and live-traps (chipmunk size, Tomahawk Live Trap, Hazelhurst, WI, USA), first at spring emergence (in April), and monitored subsequently throughout the breeding season until weaning of the young in late-June to early July.

#### Capture and standardized stress protocol

During June 2022, we subjected 23 ground squirrels (12 males, 11 females) to a standardized capture stress protocol. All males were post-reproductive and females were weaning litters. All

means below are given  $\pm$  1 S.E. Males in our study were aged 2.6  $\pm$  0.2 years ([min – max] = [2 – 4]), whereas females averaged 6.3  $\pm$  0.9 years ([2 – 10]).

Individuals were identified from a distance in the field using binoculars, and a single baited trap was deployed on the focal animal's typical home range close to the burrow opening where it was seen entering upon approach of the experimenter. We then waited for the individual to exit the burrow and enter the trap. As soon as the trap door shut, we started a stopwatch, and timed the duration taken to acquire the initial blood sample, always under 3 minutes  $(2.11 \pm 0.07 \text{ min}; [1.67 - 2.67]; \text{ N} = 22)$ . The animal was then loosely hand-held, secured in a denim-cloth bag that covered its eyes, during the 30-minute duration of the stress protocol. Subsequent blood samples were acquired at 5  $(5.79 \pm 0.09; [5.15 - 6.92]; \text{ N} = 22)$ , 10  $(10.82 \pm 0.11; [9.92 - 12.18]; \text{ N} = 21)$ , 20  $(20.79 \pm 0.14; [19.63 - 22.40]; \text{ N} = 23)$  and 30  $(31.90 \pm 0.43; [30.30 - 38.25]; \text{ N} = 22)$  minutes following capture. For simplicity, we refer to those timings as T<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>5</sub>, T<sub>10</sub>, T<sub>20</sub> and T<sub>30</sub> time points. We acquired blood  $(100 \mu\text{L})$  or less each time) from the saphenous veins of the animal (both legs) using a 27G needle fitted to an 0.5 mL heparinized syringe. Not all bleeds were successful, explaining the slight variation in sample sizes. Sampling was carried out throughout the day between 10:00 and 20:00 and balanced between males (9:54 - 18:49) and females (10:29 - 19:58).

Following the 30-min capture, we recorded the mass of the animal to the nearest g (using a Pesola spring-slide scale; Pesola Ag, Baar, Switzerland), before releasing the animals. Males averaged  $590.8 \pm 17.9$  g ([485 – 695]), and females averaged  $523.2 \pm 15.3$  g ([460 – 600]).

#### Cortisol measurements

Individuals' HPA response to the standardized capture were evaluated by measuring plasma levels of total cortisol, corticosteroid-binding globulin (CBG) and free cortisol. Total cortisol

levels were measured by radioimmunoassay (RIA) using a commercially available kit (ImmuChem<sup>TM</sup> Coated Tube Cortisol <sup>125</sup>I RIA Kit; MP Biomedicals, LLC, Orangeburg, NY, USA). Details on the method for Columbian ground squirrels are provided in Roth et al. (2022). Samples were run together and the mean intra-assay coefficient of variation was < 5%.

Corticosteroid-binding globulin (CBG) was measured for each sample as the maximum corticosteroid-binding capacity (MCBC) with the saturated ligand method described in McDonald et al. (1981) (see Delehanty and Boonstra, 2009; Roth et al., 2022; for details on ground squirrels). The intra- and inter-assay coefficients of variation based on the pools were 7.58% and 6.81%, respectively.

Free cortisol was calculated based on the measurement of MCBC in each sample, the CBG equilibrium dissociation constant (Kd), and a value for albumin. For this calculation we used the formula of Barsano and Baumann (1989). Cortisol is bound with high affinity to CBG (a protein specific for binding cortisol) and low affinity to albumin (Westphal 1986, Peters 1996, Perogamvros et al. 2012). Cortisol affinity is the major determinant of the bioavailable, free fraction. Though albumin has high capacity for cortisol and other blood components, it is thus nonspecific for them, acting as a temporary reservoir and, in the case of cortisol, rapidly releases it. We used a Kd value of 5.1 nM calculated for Columbian ground squirrels (Delehanty et al., 2015). We assumed the albumin concentration and proportion of cortisol bound to albumin were comparable to the values calculated for Arctic ground squirrels (2.54 g albumin/100 mL plasma; proportion bound = 0.19; Boonstra and McColl, 2000).

#### Oxidative stress measurements

Individuals' oxidative stress response to the standardized capture was assessed through global measures of oxidative damage (d-ROMs test) and antioxidant defences (OXY adsorbent test)

occurring in plasma (Diacron International, Grosseto, Italy), as previously done in this species (for details see Roth et al., 2019; Viblanc et al., 2018b). All sample measurements were duplicates. Intra-plate variation was 4.37% and 5.58% for ROMs and OXY, respectively. Interplate variation based on a standard sample repeated over plates was 8.81% and 13.17% for ROMs and OXY, respectively.

#### Statistical analyses

All analyses were run in R v 4.1.2 (R Core Team; R Foundation for Statistical Computing, 2021). First, we tested whether total cortisol, MCBC and free cortisol at baseline levels (< 3 min - T<sub>3</sub>) (dependent variables in separate linear models, LM) differed with individual sex, age and mass (independent covariates). We then tested whether individual baseline levels (T<sub>3</sub>) of total cortisol, MCBC and free cortisol, affected the magnitude of the HPA response calculated as the difference between T<sub>30</sub> and T<sub>3</sub> levels ( $\Delta_{T_{30}-T_3}$ ), or as the area under (or above) the curve (AUC) calculated from T<sub>3</sub> for each response (see Online Supplementary Materials), using linear models.

Second, we analyzed the kinetics of all HPA measures (total cortisol, MCBC, free cortisol) and oxidative stress (ROM and OXY) responses to capture stress using Linear Mixed Models (LMMs, 'lme4' package v.1.1-27.1 in R; Bates et al., 2015). We specified total cortisol, MCBC, free cortisol, ROM and OXY levels as dependent variables in separate LMMs, and sampling timing (T<sub>3</sub>, T<sub>5</sub>, T<sub>10</sub>, T<sub>20</sub>, T<sub>30</sub> minutes) as the independent factor of interest. We included individual sex, age, and mass at capture as covariates in the models, to account for potential condition and age effects on the HPA and oxidative stress responses to acute stress. We also included the interactions between *sex\*sampling timing*, *mass\*sampling timing*, and *age\*sampling timing* to test for potentially different kinetics in physiological responses to acute capture stress, but removed these from the final models if not significant. Significant contrasts

among time points were evaluated using post-hoc Tukey Honest Significant Difference (HSD) tests ('multcomp' package v.1.4-18 in R; Hothorn et al., 2008), and percentage point differences (magnitude of effect sizes) between time points are given based on the least-square means obtained for each separate time point using the 'lsmeans' package v.2.30-0 in R (Lenth, 2016).

Thirdly, we tested the correlations (*r*; Pearson correlation test) between HPA (total cortisol, MCBC, free cortisol) and oxidative (ROM, OXY) responses focusing on the correlations between baseline (T<sub>3</sub>) levels on one hand, and correlations between AUCs on the other.

Model residuals inspection using Q-Q plots ('fitdistrplus' package v.1.1-6 in R; Delignette-Muller and Dutang, 2015) indicated no substantial departures from normality. Sample sizes varied depending on success at drawing blood or depending on laboratory analyses (minimum volume), and are indicated for each analysis as the total number of data points (nobs) and the total number of individuals concerned (NID). Values presented in text are means ± 1 SE unless otherwise indicated.

#### **Ethics**

Authorizations for conducting research and collecting samples in Sheep River Provincial Park were obtained from Alberta Environment and Parks and Alberta Tourism, Parks, and Recreation. Animal care was carried out in accordance with Auburn University IACUC protocols, with additional approvals from the University of Calgary.

#### Results

#### Baseline cortisol and relationship to cortisol increase

Average baseline (T<sub>3</sub>) total cortisol levels, MCBC and free cortisol levels were not affected by individual age or mass (LMs; all F < 1.76; all P > 0.20). However, whereas total

cortisol levels did not differ between males and females ( $F_{1,17} = 1.12$ ; P = 0.305; Fig. 1A) MCBC levels in males were 43% higher than females ( $F_{1,17} = 2.55$ ; P = 0.021; Fig. 1B). This resulted in free cortisol levels being 103% higher in females ( $F_{1,17} = 6.19$ ; P = 0.023; Fig. 1C). Baseline levels of total cortisol and MCBC were negatively related to the  $\Delta_{T_{30}-T_3}$ responses (LM; total cortisol: slope =  $-0.72 \pm 0.21$ ;  $F_{1,19} = 11.68$ ; P = 0.003; MCBC: slope =  $-0.72 \pm 0.21$ ;  $F_{1,19} = 11.68$ ; P = 0.003; MCBC: slope = -0.003; MCBC: slope = -0.003 $0.37 \pm 0.15$ ;  $F_{1,18} = 6.17$ ; P = 0.023) and overall AUC responses (total cortisol: slope = -0.72 ± 2.49;  $F_{1,19} = 14.07$ ; P = 0.001; MCBC: slope =  $-0.97 \pm 0.40$ ;  $F_{1,19} = -2.41$ ; P = 0.026; see Online Supplementary Materials). Baseline levels of free cortisol did not significantly affect the  $\Delta_{T_{30}-T_3}$  (slope = -0.51 ± 0.31;  $F_{1,18}$  = 2.72; P = 0.117) response, but unsurprisingly were significantly related to the overall AUC (slope = -2.03  $\pm$  0.79;  $F_{1,19}$  = 6.55; P = 0.019), suggesting that animals with higher baseline levels expressed less of a cortisol response over the entire 30-minute period.

#### HPA activity in response to capture

Males and females differed markedly in their total cortisol increases in response to capture (LMM; *time x sex*:  $F_{4,78.20} = 13.88$ ; P < 0.0001;  $n_{obs} = 109$ ;  $N_{ID} = 23$ ; Fig 2A), but neither was influenced by individual age ( $F_{1,18.52} = 0.30$ ; P = 0.59) nor mass ( $F_{1,18.58} = 0.42$ ; P = 0.52). The increase in total cortisol levels was not significantly different from baseline ( $T_{3}$ ) values before 10 min in males and 20 min in females (see Tukey HSD tests; Fig 2A), and appeared to plateau as soon as 10 minutes in males and 20 minutes in females. In males, total cortisol reached maximal values (149% over baseline) after 20 minutes of capture. In contrast, in females, maximal values (31% over baseline) were reached after 30 minutes.

MCBC showed no significant change over the 30-minute capture, handling, and bleeding challenge in males and females (LMM; *time*:  $F_{4,73.93} = 0.57$ ; P = 0.684; *time x sex*:  $F_{4,73.93} = 0.25$ ; P = 0.906;  $n_{obs} = 107$ ;  $N_{ID} = 23$ ; Fig 2B), nor was it influenced by age ( $F_{1,15.25} = 0.906$ ).

2.19; P = 0.160) or mass ( $F_{1,15.40} = 2.08$ ; P = 0.169). Males, on average, had markedly higher (+ 46%) MCBC levels than females ( $F_{1,15.24} = 13.69$ ; P = 0.002; Fig 2B).

As a result, the kinetics of plasma free cortisol closely followed that of plasma total cortisol, but the difference between males and females was markedly less for free than for total cortisol levels (LMM; *time x sex*:  $F_{4,75.34} = 6.21$ ; P = 0.0002;  $n_{obs} = 107$ ;  $N_{ID} = 23$ ; Fig 2C). Again, it was not influenced by age ( $F_{1,17.63} = 0.00$ ; P = 0.964) or mass ( $F_{1,17.72} = 0.03$ ; P = 0.874). In males, free cortisol levels reached 720% over baseline levels at  $F_{30}$ ; the increase in free cortisol could be detected at  $F_{10}$  and plateaued as of 20 minutes post-capture (Tukey HSD; Fig 2C). In females, the increase in free cortisol levels reached 80% over baseline values after 30 minutes, and were only different from baseline values at  $F_{30}$  (levels at  $F_{20}$  and  $F_{30}$ ), were not different; Tukey HSD; Fig 2C). Although average responses indicated a general increase in cortisol levels with different dynamics in males and females, there were marked interindividual differences in total cortisol, MCBC and free cortisol responses to capture, but those did not appear to be explained by age or mass (see Online Supplementary Materials).

#### Oxidative stress response to captures

Changes in reactive oxygen metabolites (ROM) exhibited similar kinetics in males and females (LMM; *time x sex*:  $F_{4,69.68} = 0.50$ ; P = 0.734,  $n_{obs} = 108$ ;  $N_{ID} = 23$ ). When interactions were removed from the model, ROM increased slightly over the 30-minute capture, but only  $T_{20}$  levels differed from  $T_3$  levels (Tukey HSD; z = 2.86; P = 0.035) and marginally from  $T_{10}$  levels (Tukey HSD; z = 2.76; P = 0.046) (Fig 3A), being 13.3 and 12.7 % higher. This appeared to be due to a few individuals showing a pattern of increased ROM levels at  $T_{20}$  (see Online Supplementary Materials). ROM levels were not significantly affected by sex ( $F_{1,18.73} = 0.03$ ; P = 0.859), mass ( $F_{1,18.86} = 0.98$ ; P = 0.334), but tended to decrease with age (LMM; age:

323 estimate =  $-4.30 \pm 2.26$ ;  $F_{1,18.70} = 3.62$ ; P = 0.072). The effect of age became significant if sex was removed from the model (estimate =  $-4.58 \pm 1.57$ ;  $F_{1,19.84} = 8.47$ ; P = 0.009, Fig 4). 324

Changes in total antioxidant capacity (OXY) did not differ between males and females (LMM; time x sex:  $F_{4,69.39} = 1.11$ ; P = 0.358,  $n_{obs} = 108$ ;  $N_{ID} = 23$ ). When interactions were removed from the model, OXY varied marginally over the 30-min capture (LMM;  $F_{4,81.86}$  = 2.18; P = 0.079;  $n_{obs} = 104$ ;  $N_{ID} = 23$ ) with a 7% decrease in OXY levels between  $T_3$  and  $T_5$ (Tukey HSD; z=-2.91; P=0.029; Fig 3B). OXY levels were not affected by sex ( $F_{1,18.56}=$ 1.88; P = 0.187), mass ( $F_{1,18.67} = 0.61$ ; P = 0.444), or age ( $F_{1,18.54} = 2.30$ ; P = 0.147), and removing those variables from the model did not change the results. There were marked interindividual differences in ROM and OXY responses to capture at an individual level, but that did not appear to be explained by age or mass (See Online Supplementary Materials).

At baseline (T<sub>3</sub>) levels, ROM were not related to total (r = 0.19, t = -0.85, df = 19, P = 0.408)

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## Correlations between oxidative stress and cortisol responses to captures

- 337 or free (r = -0.16, t = -0.69, df = 19, P = 0.498) cortisol levels, but were positively related to MCBC levels (r = 0.60, t = 3.27, df = 19, P = 0.004). OXY were not related to total cortisol (r = 0.60, t = 3.27, t = 0.004). 338 = 0.19, t = 0.86, df = 19, P = 0.401), or MCBC (r = -0.21, t = -0.95, df = 19, P = 0.357) levels 339 at T<sub>3</sub>, but were positively related to free cortisol levels (r = 0.46, t = 2.25, df = 19, P = 0.037). 340 Because individual HPA and oxidative stress responses varied widely among 341 342 individuals, the areas under the curves (AUC) calculated for total cortisol (303.62  $\pm$  66.73, [-243.46 - 879.30], MCBC (-30.20 ± 26.50, [-270.40 - 290.24], free cortisol (78.41 ± 18.48, [-343
- null (no significant change). ROM AUCs were not related to total cortisol (r = -0.02, t = -0.06, 346

59.48 - 248.56]), ROM (47.26 ± 16.19, [-142.96 - 169.53]), and OXY (-66.43 ± 25.89, [-

237.09 – 135.11]) were either positive (significant increase), negative (significant decrease), or

t = -0.52, df = 18, P = 0.610) AUCs. Similarly, OXY AUCs were not related to total cortisol (r = 0.31, t = 1.39, df = 18, P = 0.182;), MCBC (r = -0.145, t = -0.62, P = 0.542), or free cortisol (r = 0.29, t = 1.82, df = 18, P = 0.086) AUCs.

#### **Discussion**

Our initial objective was to determine the kinetics of HPA responses to acute stress and time thresholds below which cortisol levels could be considered near baseline (*i.e.*, unstressed) values in this species. Studies have typically found blood GC levels to increase significantly anywhere between <1 and 5 minutes of initial sampling (Boonstra et al., 2001a; Boonstra and Singleton, 1993; Hare et al., 2014; Romero and Reed, 2005), suggesting that initial sampling under 3 minutes may be a safe guideline (Romero and Reed, 2005). In Columbian ground squirrels, free plasma cortisol levels did not increase substantially in magnitude before at least 5 minutes, only becoming significantly different from baseline (T<sub>3</sub>) levels at 10 minutes at the earliest (males) and 30 minutes at the latest (females). These results show that, in mammals, species-, sex- and breeding-stage-specific validations are required to correctly identify maximal times for obtaining near-baseline cortisol levels in the field: in our case 3 minutes may not necessarily be required, if trapping the animal is complicated by field conditions.

The HPA axis response to acute capture stress differed markedly between the sexes. First, baseline (T<sub>3</sub>) (all within 3 min of capture) total cortisol, MCBC and free cortisol were, respectively, higher, lower, and higher, in females than males. Higher baseline free cortisol (103% higher than males) suggests that female metabolic demands in mid-late June were higher than males. The same pattern was found in Arctic ground squirrels, *Urocitellus parryii* (Boonstra et al., 2001a). This makes sense as females were nearing the end of lactation, the period of highest energy demand for small mammals (Speakman, 2008). High free cortisol levels would ensure continuous mobilization of energy stores (Viblanc et al., 2018a) to meet

higher metabolic demands around the time of weaning (for cortisol-metabolic rate associations, see Haase et al., 2016; for higher metabolic rates with reproductive investment in Columbian ground squirrels, see Skibiel et al., 2013), and may be critical for offspring programming and development (Dantzer et al., 2013; Edwards et al., 2021; Edwards and Boonstra, 2018). In contrast, males had 43% higher MCBC levels than females, resulting in free cortisol levels being very low ( $3.32 \pm 1.52 \text{ ng/mL}$ ). Thus, the male HPA axis appeared geared towards minimal glucocorticoid secretion and energy savings at a period of time when reproduction has passed, aggression subsided (Murie and Harris, 1988), and stocking-up to survive the pending winter hibernation is important. MCBC did not appear to vary significantly over the 30-min capture, which is consistent with observations that in many species CBG levels respond to acute stress over the course of hours, rather than minutes (Delehanty & Boonstra 2009, 2011; Fletcher & Boonstra 2006; Edwards et al. 2022).

The HPA response to acute stress was marked in males, but virtually non-existent in females. One explanation is that HPA responses to stressors in females were suppressed to favor reproduction close to the period of weaning. Attenuated HPA responses to acute stress may be selected to avoid increased energy investments in self-maintenance at a time when reproductive demands are high, which would entail favoring reproduction over survival. Seasonal mammals with short active seasons have been suggested to resist acute stress in favor of reproduction (Boonstra et al., 2001b; Wingfield and Sapolsky, 2003). For instance, in Arctic ground squirrels, female levels of free cortisol were found to be low during pregnancy and lactation, though this study investigated baseline rather than cortisol responses to acute stressors (Edwards and Boonstra, 2016). Preventing high levels of cortisol in the milk of lactating females would safeguard their nursing of offspring from potentially negative, programming effects of cortisol at an important time in their development (Stead et al., 2022).

A high commitment to offspring is similarly found in several bird species suggested to fine-tune acute stress responses according to the reproductive value of their brood, down-regulating stress responses when brood value is high (Bókony et al., 2009; Lendvai et al., 2007; Viblanc et al., 2016). However, this explanation is somewhat at odds with previous findings of female Columbian ground squirrels favoring self-maintenance over reproduction (e.g. skipping breeding when spring condition is low; Rubach et al., 2016), and suggests that the trade-off between investments in current and future reproduction is complex and may depend on the time within the breeding season at which it is measured. Further, baseline free cortisol and MCBC levels, but not total cortisol levels, were negatively and significantly related to the magnitude of cortisol responses in our study, suggesting that individuals with higher baseline levels mounted lower acute stress responses. Given that females maintained higher baseline cortisol levels than males, it is perhaps not surprising that the responses they mounted to acute captures were lower than males. At a very basic level, cortisol increases appetitive behavior (Dallman et al., 1993), at a stage where energy demands on mothers are highest.

Studies on oxidative responses to acute stress vary, with some studies showing either an upregulation in antioxidant enzymatic activity with no change (or slight decreases) in oxidative damage markers (Stier et al., 2019), or increased oxidative damage and decreased antioxidant defenses (Haussmann et al., 2012; Majer et al., 2019; Treidel et al., 2013). Our results appear to conform to the latter pattern, though caution is suggested by the small effect sizes that we detected. ROM levels appeared to increase moderately (some 13%) after 20 minutes of capture, and OXY levels decreased by 7% within the first minutes of capture.

ROM levels and age were negatively related in our study. This was unexpected, since most of senescence theory rests on the free-radical theory of ageing (Beckman and Ames, 1998; Kirkwood and Kowald, 2012), with increasing accumulating damage as organisms age (but see (Speakman and Selman, 2011), and our previous studies on oxidative stress dynamics failed to

document age effects on ROM (Viblanc et al., 2018b). However, the effect was small and only significant when other variables were removed from the model, and should be considered with caution. Interestingly, we did not detect a signature of HPA axis deterioration with age in our study. This is consistent with a recent comparative study across five ground-squirrel species, concluding that a functional, integrated stress axis is a prerequisite for life that does not undergo senescence (Delehanty and Boonstra, 2023). However, this explanation cannot account for the age-related increase in fecal cortisol metabolites we found in a previous study of Columbian ground squirrels (Sosa et al., 2020). This suggests that fecal and plasma GCs do not always tell the same story (Sheriff et al., 2010), even when species-specific validations of hormone levels are conducted in both matrices as is the case in our species (Bosson et al., 2009).

While a previous study on Japanese quail (Coturnix japonica) showed causal effects of experimentally increased glucocorticoids on oxidative stress (increase in ROM levels; Majer et al. 2019), there was no evidence in our study that increased cortisol during captures was associated with increased ROM or decreased OXY levels. We found positive correlations between ROM and MCBC levels (r = 0.60) and between OXY and free cortisol levels at baseline values (r = 0.46), which contrast with studies documenting higher ROM levels with increased baseline glucocorticoids (Costantini et al., 2011), though many of these studies examined oxidative damage in response to experimentally increased – and not naturally occurring – levels of glucocorticoids. Perhaps one explanation to our results is that the increased levels of MCBC with ROM occur as a response to buffer the effects of elevated circulating GCs on oxidative stress (Spiers et al. 2015), which would be consistent with the observation that OXY levels also increased with free cortisol levels. However, this would not explain why we found no relationship between ROM levels and total cortisol. Alternatively, hepatic synthesis of CBG may itself be a cause of increased oxidative stress, which remains to be tested. Thus, while there is an intuitive appeal in considering the relationship between the

glucocorticoid response and the oxidative stress response to acute stress, it is clear that the link between these is not straightforward. Future studies should aim at better understanding the interplay between the HPA and oxidative stress, especially since these relationships may be bidirectional, oxidative stress in the brain possibly being an early trigger of HPA activation (see Lemonnier et al., 2022; Li and Xia, 2020).

Taken together, our results highlight the critical need to determine and interpret the time course of changes in total cortisol, MCBC and free cortisol in other mammals, since responses are likely to vary widely depending on species-specific ecology, life history and previous experience with capture. For instance, long-term studies such as ours may also have shaped ground squirrel HPA responses to hand-held captures through habituation (Cyr and Romero, 2009). Where validation studies or the acquisition of samples close to capture can not be performed (e.g. capture of larger mammals in winter or far the the site of processing), a standardization approach should be taken, or alternative tissues considered (Sheriff et al., 2011). In any case, a proper interpretation of data will require knowledge on the biological state of the monitored individuals (e.g., age, sex, breeding status).

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# Figure captions

Fig. 1. Sex differences in plasma baseline (sampled under 3 minutes) levels (ng/ml) of (A) total cortisol, (B) maximum corticosteroid binding globulin (MCBC) and (C) free cortisol in Columbian ground squirrels.

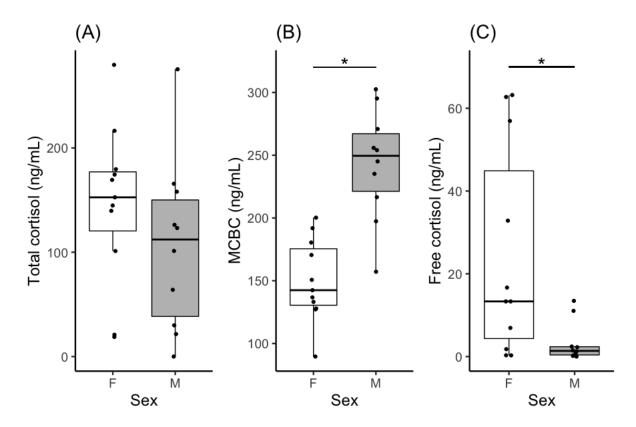
Fig. 2. Kinetics of plasma levels (ng/ml) of (A) total cortisol, (B) maximum corticosteroid binding globulin (MCBC) and (C) free cortisol over a 30-minute capture stress in Columbian ground squirrels. Sampling time points were under 3 minutes (mean ± s.e. = 2.11 ± 0.07), at 5 (5.79 ± 0.09), 10 (10.82 ± 0.11), 20 (20.79 ± 0.14) and 30 (31.90 ± 0.43) minutes. Boxplots show the median (bold line) and first and third quartiles. Raw data points are overlaid. Boxplots not sharing the same letter are significantly different at P < 0.05 (Tukey HSD). The letters

compare timepoints for males (uppercase) and females (lowercase).

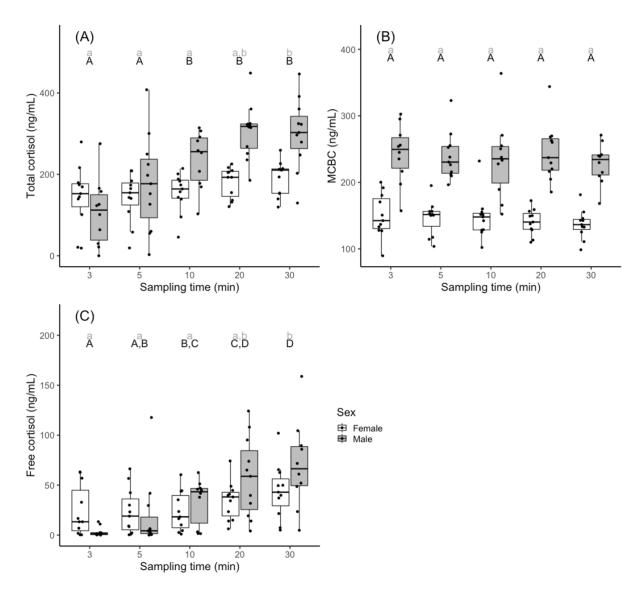
**Fig. 3.** Kinetics of plasma levels of (A) reactive oxygen metabolites (ROM; mg H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>/dL), and (B) total antioxidant capacity (OXY;  $\mu$ mol HCL/mL) over a 30-minute capture stress in Columbian ground squirrels. Sampling time points were under 3 minutes (mean  $\pm$  s.e. = 2.11  $\pm$  0.07), at 5 (5.79  $\pm$  0.09), 10 (10.82  $\pm$  0.11), 20 (20.79  $\pm$  0.14) and 30 (31.90  $\pm$  0.43) minutes. Box plots show the median (bold line) and first and third quartiles. Raw data points are overlaid. Significantly differences between boxplots at P < 0.05 (Tukey HSD) are indicated by an asterisk.

Fig. 4. Relationship between reactive oxygen metabolites (ROM; mg H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> /dL) levels and individual age. The predicted line and 95% CI of a linear mixed model with sampling timing, age, and mass at capture specified as independent variables, and ID as a random factor, are given (see Results). Note that overlapping data points appear darker.

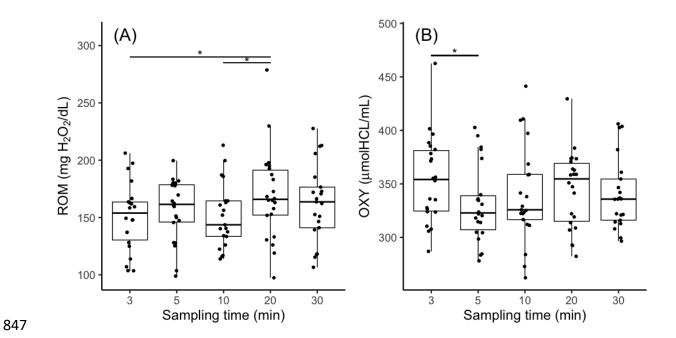
# 839 Figures



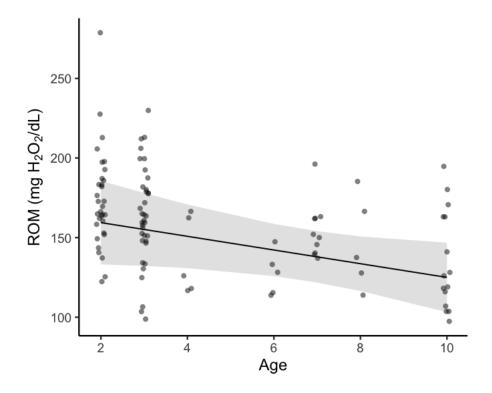
842 Fig. 1



845 Fig. 2



**Fig. 3** 



853 Fig. 4