Chronic Stress effects on Immune-Neuroendocrine matrix in *Coturnix coturnix,* analyses from

an ontogenetic perspective

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Abstract

In avian models (quail, *Coturnix coturnix*; hens, *Gallus gallus*), individuals cluster in three

subgroups associated to three INPs: the Lewis-like (pro-inflammatory polarization), the

Fischer-like (anti-inflammatory polarization), and an intermediate INP, most represented in the

population. This study assesses changes in individuals' physiological configuration, translated

in INPs stability/alteration throughout ontogeny (juvenile and adult stages) and evaluates

whether an unpredictable and diverse chronic stress (UDCS) modifies this configuration in

adults and if this modification persists until senescence. We evaluated corticosterone, pro-

(IFN-γ and IL-1β) and anti-inflammatory cytokines (IL-13, IL-4), PHA-P lymphoproliferative

response, anti-sheep red blood cells antibody (Ab SRBC) response and leukocyte distribution

frequency. Individuals expressing Lewis- or Fischer-like profile increased, after UDCS exposure.

This trend persisted until senescence. Females showed higher frequency of the Fischer-like

INP, while males presented a greater prevalence of the Lewis-like. The variation in the

frequency of INPs after UDCS could obey differences in coping strategy, mainly among

individuals with intermediate configurations. The distribution after the disruptive event,

displaying greater homogeneity among INPs, provides the population with a greater advantage

to confronting potential environmental challenges to come.

Introduction

During an organism's lifetime, there are compromises in resource allocation among competing

traits known as trade-offs [1,2]. Such trade-offs may lead to individual differences within a

population causing immediate or delayed effects on fitness that can lead to changes in

individuals' phenotype [1,3]. Coping with a dynamic environment requires the mobilization of the

so called allostatic mediators, i.e., glucocorticoids and cytokines, that regulate a variety of

processes to ensure the individual's survival by operating at different concentrations in

accordance with organism's demands [4]. Allostatic mediators work coordinating responses

among metabolic pathways which trigger physiological changes in several systems in response

to both internal and environmental keys [3,5]. Certain alterations are linked to natural processes

in an animal's life cycle such as sexual maturation, reproduction, or growth which are

energetically demanding mechanisms that require changes in resource allocation [6,7]. There are

other stimuli known as stressors that can disrupt homeostasis and trigger emergency

adjustments in animals' physiology and behavior, such as loss of social rank, severe weather,

habitat destruction, extreme climatic events and even human disturbance [8]. Therefore, stress

coping induces an emergency life history state that directly impacts energy allocation, thereby

reducing the energy available for other essential physiological functions, such as reproduction

or growth [9,10].

When the exposure to stressors is prolonged, animals develop a particular and potentially

persistent state of physiological imbalance, known as chronic stress (CS). In this state, the

physiological response either persists long after the stressor has ceased, or is repeatedly

activated [8,11]. CS implies heightened exposure of the organism to glucocorticoids and other

allostatic mediators, each with the potentiality to impact several physiological variables such

as white blood cell proliferation, cytokine secretion, antibody production, and cytolytic activity, among others [12–15]. Consequently, CS can deplete an organism's available resources, reducing its ability to cope with future stressors. Alternatively, CS may provide information to deal with subsequent challenges influencing fitness critical variables like survival or reproductive success [16] that can extend beyond the individual, with transgenerational effects that impact subsequent generations [17–20]. Even so, coping with challenges will be conditioned by the individual's specific phenotype and its capacity to adaptively shape its response to the environment [3,21].

Differences among sexes can also influence immune and neuroendocrine responses due to the effect of estrogens and testosterone and even some aspects of life history can be related [22,23]. It is widely accepted that females tend to allocate more resources to reproduction than males, given the demands of egg development and parental care [24]. As a result, females exhibit a Th2-biased immune response, with lower costs in terms of energy budget [24,25]. On the contrary, the highest reproduction investment in males is located on mate attraction thus, they have more energy available for an Th1 biased immunological response, i.e., cell mediated response [24,26]. Also, in birds, an anatomical difference is in accordance with this physiological observations, males tend to have a smaller spleen than females [27]. This organ is the main leucocytes producer in avians, therefore, differences in size between sexes can be related to variation in parasites sensitivity [27]. Additionally, males tend to have a higher corticosterone response than females, which can influence their survival rate [28].

Ontogeny is another relevant factor to be considered when studying coping mechanisms and its effect will be logically influenced according to the individual's life stage. In general, when juveniles face some kind of challenge this can cause changes in the reaction norm of certain physiological responses causing permanent changes in the phenotype configuration [21,29]. On the contrary, facing challenges during adulthood may lead to less permanent responses, for

that reason is considered that adults acquire a "reversible state effect" in which they will be

able to switch among phenotypes acquiring new configurations in response to the

environment [1,30]. To differentiate permanent transformation in the reaction norm that happen

when challenges occur in juvenile stages from those reversible in response to the environment

during adulthood, Piersma and Drent (2003) proposed the name "phenotypic flexibility" to the

second ones. This name refers to changes that occur when environmental conditions vary

rapidly and over shorter timescales than a lifetime. The ability of changing and acquiring a

"reversible state effect" may turn into an evolutionary advantage because the bigger the

diversity of traits in a population, the more prepared it will be to face future unknown

challenges [31].

Modifying phenotype configuration may lead to a reorganization in resource allocation that

can have an influence on fitness [32,33]. In some cases, these effects will be immediate and in

others will not, driving to carry-over effects that can influence on individual's performance to

future situations [34] and impact on processes at the population level such as survival rate [35,36]. In

some cases, carry-over effects are not seen until the next generation and the price that

individuals pay for facing a challenge are evident in their descendance [1,20]. Therefore,

understanding how ontogeny and potential carry-over effects influence alterations in their

immune and neuroendocrine configuration is crucial. This information is valuable for assessing

the impact of challenges in both the short and long term, both at the individual and population

levels.

In the last decades, immune neuroendocrine phenotypes (INPs) have been described in

mammalians including humans [37], and related species like rodents [38]. Later on, in

representatives of different evolutionary histories such as avian species like hens (*Gallus*

gallus; Nazar *et al.*, 2017), or quail (*Coturnix coturnix*; Nazar, 2015). INPs are a set of

characteristics that identify individuals in their neuro-hormonal and immunological responses,

similar among them but different from another group within the same animal population

(Sternberg *et al.*, 1989; Elenkov *et al.*, 2008; Ashley and Demas, 2017). As a consequence, INPs

provide a valuable framework for assessing population responses to chronic and stressful

environmental challenges (Sternberg *et al.*, 1989; Nazar *et al.*, 2017). INPs are characterized by

neuroendocrine mediator concentrations, activity and expression of hormonal receptors, and

cytokine belonging to pro or anti-inflammatory profiles. In quail and hens three INPs have

been described (i) the Lewis-like phenotype characterized by low corticosterone (CORT) levels,

high proinflammatory mediators' levels (IFN-γ and IL-1β), high lymphoproliferative response to

Phytohemagglutinin-p (PHA-P), high antibody response against to sheep red blood cells (SRBC),

low innate : acquired immunity relationship evaluated by the frequency of leukocyte

distribution (FLD) and anti-inflammatory mediators' response (IL-13, IL-4); (ii) the Fischer-like

phenotype, characterized by high CORT levels, high levels of anti-inflammatory mediators (IL-4

and IL-13), high FLD, and low lymphoproliferative response to PHA-P, Ab SRBC, and

proinflammatory response [42]; and (iii) the intermediate phenotype, in between these two

extreme phenotypes (Fig. 1).

Fig. 1: Schematic conceptual representation of INPs in Coturnix coturnix (Nazar et al. 2015). The variables set to
determine the existence of avian INPs are represented at the side of each bird. The size of the variable indicates if
the animals show high or low responses in each of the parameters in the INPs. LYMPH: lymphoproliferative response
to PHA-P; Ab SRBC: antibody response against SRBC; FLD: frequency of leukocyte distribution; level of expression of

The ability of individuals to deal with a disease will be related to the INP presented (Sternberg

et al., 1989; Wei *et al.*, 2003; Nazar *et al.*, 2015, 2017). As a consequence INPs frequencies in a

population can affect its ability to cope with immune neuroendocrine challenges because a

new and differential response will be given to the presence of parasites, and/or other

pathogens affecting individuals within the population [15,43]. Also, INPs imply an underlying

differential INE response, i.e., of the hypothalamus pituitary adrenal axis (HPA), Fischer-like

individuals have a higher corticosterone response than Lewis-like individuals [15,42]. This

differential response to corticosterone will impact various other life-history traits, such as

metabolic rate (Jimeno et al., 2018b), and the behaviors of the animals [44]. Consequently, INE

configuration (either synthesized or not in the concept of an INP) could be an indicator of the

population's substrate to cope with environmental challenges.

As stated before, in stressful situations, the frequency of INPs changes [15]. However, the

contribution of each phenotype to this new configuration is still not clear. We are not certain

whether the majority of individuals altering their phenotype belong to the intermediate INP

category, or if those from one extreme phenotype transition to the opposite extreme, or any

other potential combination. Understanding the dynamics of change at the individual level can

illuminate phenomena even at the population level. It offers complementary information that

is currently lacking regarding individuals' physiological integration of environmental and

ontogenetic challenges. In this context, we studied INPs configuration during different

ontogenetic stages in Japanese quail as an avian model (juveniles and adults). As adults, we

conducted further studies to address whether exposure to a disruptive challenging event,

characterized by unpredictable and diverse chronic stressor exposures (UCSE), could modify

the configuration of INPs at both the individual and population levels, and whether these

changes could persist until senescence. We hypothesized that at a population level, INPs will

be modulated by UDCS acting as a disruptive force that alters the frequency of the phenotypes

within the population. We expect that CS will have effects on the variables that integrate the

INE interface, modifying INPs' expression at the population level due to individual's quail

adjustments.

Results

The three groups identified by the cluster analysis are represented in the PCA plots (Fig.3),

using biplots as a graphical strategy to represent the phenomena as previously mentioned.

Cluster analyses was performed as previously described [15]. Briefly K-means analysis distributed

the birds in 3 main dissimilar groups during the four experimental stages studied. In the first

two experimental stages (juveniles and adults pre-stress) the number of individuals belonging

to the intermediate phenotype is higher than the number of individuals belonging to extreme

phenotypes, i.e., Fischer-like and Lewis-like, as it can be seen in the PCA plots (Fig. 2a and b).

After the stress protocol the number of individuals with Fischer and Lewis like phenotypes

increased and this change in the representation of individuals with extreme phenotypes

remained until senescence (Fig. 2b and c). The three groups, as separate corpus of birds,

remained differentiated along the four stages of this experiment.

Fig. 2: Principal component analysis plots exploring data variability and clustering procedure. Each dot represents one bird and each variable is represented by an arrow. Each plot represents the INP during one stage of the experiment.

LDA was used to identify the parameters that are more important to recognize INPs during each stage of this study. The results indicated a high influence of corticosterone predictive power during the four stages (Fig. 4). This variable seems to be the main indicator of the variability of the three phenotypes, and it had a negative displacement among canonical axis 2. In juveniles, canonical axis 1 explained 84.46 % of the variability (Fig 4a). In pre-stress adults, 85.86 % of the variability is explained by canonical axis 1 (Fig. 4b). In post-stress adults, 94.36% of the variability is explained by the canonical axis 1. Finally, 85.98% of the variability of senescent individuals is explained by canonical axis 1. Also, in senescent individuals, testosterone was a variable with a high coefficient of linear discriminant (canonical axis 1: 0.88, canonical axis 2: -1.49). The complete information of linear discriminant coefficients can be seen in supplementary table S2. Models' predictive power was at least 90% in all the cases (Table S2).

The frequency of the INPs indicated that, in the population studied, the prevailing phenotype during the two first experimental stages (juveniles and adults pre-stress), was the intermediate one, characterized by immune-neuroendocrine responses of intermediate magnitude. After stress, the frequency of the extreme phenotypes Lewis-like and Fischer-like increased significantly (Fig. 3, Table 3; p-value=0.0093 for Lewis-like and p-value = 0.03 for Fischer-like). Also, a reduction in the proportion of individuals with intermediate phenotype was observed in this experimental stage (p-value=0.00005). During senescence, frequencies of the extreme phenotypes seemed to sustain a uniform distribution without significant changes compared to the previous stage (adults post-stress) (Fig. 3). Table 1 shows the results of the Proportion test comparing transitions among phenotypes. A significant increase in the proportion of extreme phenotypes and a reduction of the intermediate phenotype was observed only in the transition from adults' pre-stress to adults' post-stress (Indicated in bold). In all the other transitions, no significant differences were found.

203 **Table 1**: Proportion analysis to assess differences among phenotypes in the three ontogenetic transitions studied.

	Juveniles	pre-stress adults	p-value
Fischer-like	0.19	0.18	0.5
Intermediate	0.55	0.63	0.67
Lewis-like	0.22	0.20	0.43
	pre-stress adults	post-stress adults	p-value
Fischer-like	**0.18**	**0.31**	**0.03**
Intermediate	**0.63**	**0.32**	**0.00005**
Lewis-like	**0.2**	**0.37**	**0.0093**
	post-stress adults	Senescent	p-value
Fischer-like	0.31	0.28	0.5
Intermediate	0.32	0.43	0.5
Lewis-like	0.37	0.32	0.67

Fig. 4: Phenotype frequency distribution during the four stages of the experiment. Each plot represents the INPs frequency during one stage of the experiment.

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The proportion analysis comparing the phenotypes among sexes within the same experimental

stage (Table 2) indicated that the proportion of females showing a Fischer-like phenotype was

significatively higher than males with this INP in adults pre-stress (p-value= 0.00005), in adults

post-stress (p-value = 0.001141), and in senescent quail (p-value=0.000003). On the contrary,

the proportion of males presenting a Lewis-like INP was significantly higher than the

proportion of females in the adults' pre-stress (p-value=0.00135), and in the senescent

experimental stages (p-value=0.000000009). In addition, the frequency of males with an

intermediate phenotype was significantly higher than the proportion of females in the adults'

post-stress experimental stage (p-value=0.00006). Only a trend for females showing a reduced

proportion of Lewis-like phenotype compared than males was found during the juvenile

assessment (Table 2).

Table 2: Proportion analysis comparing differences among sexes during the four experimental stages: juveniles,
adults pre-stress, adults post-stress and senescent. Significative differences are indicated in bold.

Experimental Stage	Phenotype	Males	Females	p-value
Juveniles	Lewis-like	0.65	0.35	0.05692
	Intermediate	0.45	0.55	0.2186
	Fischer-like	0.41	0.59	0.25
Adults pre-stress	**Lewis-like**	**0.78**	**0.22**	**0.00135**
	Intermediate	0.54	0.46	0.2268
	Fischer-like	**0.13**	**0.86**	**0.00005**
Adults post-stress	Lewis-like	0.48	0.52	0.5
	Intermediate	**0.78**	**0.22**	**0.00006**
	Fischer-like	**0.27**	**0.73**	**0.001141**
Senescent	**Lewis-like**	**0.89**	**0.11**	**0.000000009**
	Intermediate	0.51	0.51	0.5
	Fischer-like	**0.16**	**0.84**	**0.000003**

The probability of an individual changing its phenotype from one experimental stage to the

next one or the probability of remaining in their original phenotype was evaluated using a

DTMC analysis (Table 3). As shown, during the transition of juveniles to adults, the probability

of changing from Lewis-like or Fischer-like phenotypes to the intermediate was the highest in

both cases (0.55 and 0.75 respectively). In addition, most of the individuals belonging to the

intermediate type remained in that state (0.64; Table 3; Fig. 5). After the stress protocol, the

probability of individuals changing from Lewis-like (0.33) or Fischer-like (0.07) phenotypes to

the intermediate phenotypes decreased (Table 3; Fig. 5), and the probability of individuals to

change from intermediate phenotype to a Lewis-like (0.29) or a Fischer-like (0.29) increased.

Moreover, the probability of Lewis-like individuals changing their phenotype to Fischer-like

and vice versa (0.43 and 0.27 respectively) also increased in this transition. Finally, during the

transition from post-stress adults to senescence (Table 3; Fig.5), the probability of individuals

changing from an intermediate phenotype to a Lewis-like (0.31) remained high. The probability

of an individual changing from a Lewis-like to Fischer-like or inversely (0.33 and 0.20

respectively) decreased compared to the transition from pre-stress adults and post-stress

adults.

Table 3: Transition matrices estimating the probability of an individual changing its phenotype from one
experimental stage to the other or the probability of remaining in their original phenotype. On the left are
represented the number (in absolute values) of individuals that belong to a determined INP and remained there in
the next stage or had a different INP during the next stage. On the right is represented the transitions probabilities
matrix created with data on the left. Transitions represented: from juveniles to adults pre-stress, from adults pre-
stress to adults post-stress, and adults post-stress to senescence. Note that for DTMC analysis probabilities were
calculated considering the partial totals for each phenotype in each stage.

		Absolute values				Probabilities			
		Adults pre-stress							
		Fischer-like	Lewis-like	Intermediate	Total	Fischer-like	Lewis-like	Intermediate	Total probabilities
Juveniles	Fischer-like	3	1	12	16	0.19	0.06	0.75	1.00
	Lewis-like	1	8	11	20	0.05	0.40	0.55	1.00
	Intermediate	11	7	33	51	0.22	0.14	0.64	1.00
		Adults post-stress							
Adults pre-	Fischer-like	7	6	1	15	0.50	0.43	0.07	1.00
	Lewis-like	4	6	5	15	0.27	0.40	0.33	1.00
	Intermediate	15	15	21	51	0.29	0.29	0.42	1.00
		Senescent							
Adults post-	Fischer	9	5	11	25	0.36	0.20	0.44	1.00
	Lewis	9	11	7	27	0.33	0.41	0.26	1.00
	Intermediate	4	8	14	26	0.15	0.31	0.54	1.00

Fig. 5: Plot of transition probabilities. Arrows indicate changes from one phenotype to the other or the permanence
in that INP. Transition probabilities are indicated on the lines.

Discussion

This study assesses changes in INE variables that lead to the configuration of INPs throughout

ontogeny (juvenile and adult stages) evaluating also whether a significant disruptive event can

modify previous adult configuration and whether this alteration persists when aging into

senescence. In particular, we analyzed whether a chronic unpredictable stress disturbance at

the INE level influences INPs proportions, their distributions at the population level and the

probability of change (INP assessments in adults pre- and post-stress). It is of outmost

importance to highlight that INPs are not considered here a fixed entity, but rather the array of

INE responses that a particular individual can deploy in a certain moment of its ontogeny.

Thus, each of the evaluated stages provide differential and complementary information. The

two first stages i.e., juveniles and adults (Fig. 2), are related to physiological changes

associated with regular life processes such as sexual maturation and growth [3]. Lastly, and using

the second stage as an adult (non-disturbed) baseline, the third and fourth stages i.e., adults

after a stress protocol and senescent individuals (Fig. 2), are related to the ability of individuals

to cope with external challenges (post-stress sampling) and how challenged individuals reach

senescence (last sampling).

Findings showed that it is possible to identify three different INPs in the population during the

whole study and the stages evaluated (Fig. 3). Corticosterone was determined as one of the

most important predictors of INPs during the four stages studied. Nevertheless, LDAs showed

that the relationship among the variables also changed along the stages (Fig. 3) which may be,

at least in part, related to the reorganization in resource allocation due to ontogenetic

variations [1,3]. Indeed, findings are consistent with the idea that, throughout their lives,

individuals undergo processes influenced by the costs of living, resulting in changes in the

relationships between immune and neuroendocrine factors and their respective significance

[6,7].

Some authors proposed that the stress response is influenced by both the life history traits of

the species [45] and the response potential of different tissues [46]. Furthermore the INPs as a

partially new factor to be considered and included in these equations has been suggested [37–

39,41,47]. Fischer-like individuals might be more related to anti-inflammatory and antibody-

mediated immune responses than Lewis-like individuals [15,42,48]. Therefore, individuals

expressing either one of or other of these two extreme phenotypes would have different

abilities to cope with diverse environmental conditions, and, as a consequence, they may show

distinct environmental sensitivity to stressors understanding them as challenges [49]. Changes in

INP configuration from one life stage to the other would imply a variation at the very individual

level in the ability to cope with a variety of challenges [15,38,42,47]. For example, and from a

theoretical point of view, if one individual with an intermediate INP before stress switches to a

Lewis-like after a chronic stress disturbance, its ability to develop robust inflammatory

responses will be increased, and therefore also their potential to deal with certain types of

pathogens [15,37,38]. On the contrary, if an individual acquires a Fischer-like configuration, the

outcome of its response to infections would be opposite to that of a Lewis-like configuration

[15,37,38]. These examples are just based on some of the shifts observed and, it is worth

highlighting, that these and any other shift in INP needs to be understood as a synthesis of a

change in the components of the INE system being integrated for analysis.

In juvenile and adult pre-stress, the frequency of extreme phenotypes was low, and the

frequency of the intermediate phenotype was notoriously higher (Fig. 4), which might

resemble a Gaussian distribution. Even so, no significant increase in the frequencies of the

transition from juveniles to adults was observed (Table 1). On the contrary, after the chronic

stress protocol, the population acquired a new distribution, more uniform, with a significant

increase in the proportion of the two extremes phenotypes and reduction of the intermediate

representatives during the transition from pre-stress to post- stress adults (Table 1). It is

relevant to recall that the stress protocol included not just a variety of different stressors but

also a strong unpredictable nature. Hence, as individuals confront pathogens by developing

the most effective response allowed by their immunological potential [33], shifting the

population to a better-balanced representation of INPs can be viewed as a highly efficient

strategy to deal with a broader range of immune challenges. This new distribution may imply

different possibilities to deal with environmental challenges, whereas a population "over-

expressing" only one INP may find this possibility limited [31,42]. Remarkably, this new

distribution remained until senescence (Fig. 4) without significant changes in the proportion of

individuals belonging to one or other INP (Table 1). These results suggest that the INP induced

changes, and therefore the population ability to deal with future unpredictable challenges,

have long lasting carry-over effects [1,15,50].

Additionally, the proportion of females expressing Fischer-like phenotype was significantly

higher than the proportion of males during adults pre-stress, adults post-stress and senescent

stages. On the contrary, males expressed a higher frequency of Lewis-like phenotype during

the same stages. These results may provide us with information on how both sexes cope with

challenges. Our results seem to be clear in indicating that some kind of polarization in the

expression of INPs occurs in the population, with males expressing more frequently a Th1

response than females, being more prepared for intracellular infections [51]. Possibly, this

polarization would be related to different energetic request in males and female in

reproduction investment: males tend to invest more energy in matte attraction reducing their

investment in immunological response to parasites [24,26]. Additionally, studies done in zebra

finches and broilers, indicated that males have a higher corticosterone response to stress [52]

and a lower survival rate after a stress induction than females [28]. Considering that Lewis-like

individuals will have lower basal corticosterone than Fischer-like or intermediate individuals,

increasing the number of males with this phenotype might represent an advantage, because

these individuals might be less responsive to future challenges increasing their probability of

survival. This proposal requires further study, and the relation between INPs and sex is a factor

that should be considered in future research.

From the individual's perspective, during the four stages studied, most quail acquired different

INPs configuration during the experiment, even without environmental challenges (Fig. 5).

Changes in INPs might be related to phenotypic flexibility meaning that some individuals would

display a variable expression of INPs within their lifespan [21]. Changes in the phenotype along

an individual's life can progress linearly, affecting the outcome of the next developmental step

mainly during juveniles stages, or can occur in a more flexible manner during adulthood when

individuals may change adaptively and repeatedly in response to environmental conditions [1,6].

The ability to vary INP in response to the environment will represent an immunological

advantage in some cases but, would this change worst the pain? Possibly it would depend on

the crosstalk of ontogenetic demands, individuals' energy budget and environmental

challenges [3,53,54]. Even if in our experiment, individuals were fed all in the same manner and

had water *ad libitum*, this does not mean that the use of energy is identical by all of them but

at least the access was similar. Some individuals will have a greater capacity to distribute

energy to all aspects of their life than others, and they will be able to intake, digest and utilize

greater amounts of energy than their conspecifics [33,55]. Therefore, ontogenetic variations like

sexual maturation and reproduction, might influence other physiological, i.e., INE systems such

as the immune system or the very HPA axis leading to variations in INPs throughout life [7,56] and

acting as endogenous disruptors that influence at the individual level without having a

notorious impact on the population global arrangement.

INP changes may synthesize a shift in INE responses and potential. This may then imply a

trade-off in energy allocation [3] and would be limited in its possibilities and scope by how much

energy individuals can efficiently use at any given moment [9,33,57]. Therefore, considering that

we do not know when individuals will pay the cost of an energetic demand, possibly some

individuals would express the effect of chronic stress immediately after the experiment is

finished and others would show carry-over effects by responding later to the challenge [1]. Even

so, since all the probabilities of transition seem to increase after the stress protocol, this may

indicate that individuals would be more flexible after the stress protocol, or at least changing

their INP would be less expensive in terms of energy budget, which would represent an extra

advantage to deal with environmental complexity[58]. In the recent years, questionings have

arisen about how individuals will cope with, for instance, weather variations related to climate

change and its consequences at different scales[30,59]. Possibly, an increased plasticity in the

immune neuroendocrine interplay response might represent an advantage to cope with

environmental variability and more flexible individuals might increase their probability of

survival due to their greater adaptability to different and challenging situations[60]. Moreover, as

variations in temperature may also imply changes in pathogens richness and burden the higher

flexibility underlying a change in an INP would lead to an increased ability to cope with them

[61]. The previous interpretation of our results in the context of global warming would also be

valid for a variety of scenarios to come: pollution, alteration of husbandry procedures due to

new regulations, and even selective processes could be analyzed in this frame, if we can

dissect how each challenge is integrated at the individual level. The consecutive integration of

the responses of the group of individuals defining the population, will complement the

information with a new perspective as previously shown.

In summary, our research provides new insights into understanding how species respond to

the passage of time and face environmental challenges across different scales of analysis. Even

in highly selected species like quail, it appears that individuals retain their vital ability to adapt

their physiological capabilities over lifespan due to internal physiological changes, such as

sexual maturation or aging. However, when integrated, these changes seem to be less relevant

at the population scale, as seen in the case of INPs. On the contrary, external challenges would

act as disruptive events causing changes at the population scale but having a slight effect on

the individuals.

Materials and Methods

Animals and husbandry

The present study used adult Japanese quail because they are recognized as an useful

laboratory model because of their physiology, small size, short life cycle, and low maintenance

cost [62]. The quail were raised as described elsewhere [63,64]. Animal care was provided in

adherence to Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee guidelines. The experiment

procedures were approved by the ethical committee at Instituto de Investigaciones Biológicas

y Tecnológicas (IIByT) in compliance with the legislation regarding the use of animals for

experimental and other scientific purposes (ACTA CICUAL N° 27, 09/04/2015) and are in

accordance with ARRIVE guidelines.

Briefly, from the first day of age (DA), quail were housed in enriched rearing boxes measuring

90x90x60 cm (length x width x height) in mixed groups of 40 individuals. A wire-mesh floor (1

cm grid) was raised 5 cm to allow excreta passage, and 50% of the total surface was covered

with corrugated cardboard. Each box had a feeder arranged in the front, 16 automatic drinkers

("nipple" type), and a cover lid to prevent the escape of the birds and the loss of heat. The

breeding temperature was lowered gradually and weekly from hatching to 28 DA, starting

from an initial temperature of 37ºC until reaching 24ºC [65]. The ambient relative humidity

recorded ranged between 50 and 60%. The quail were kept in a daily cycle of 14 h of light (330-

350 lx) and 10 h of dark (14:10 L:D) during the study, turning on the lights at 06:00 h. At 28 DA,

quail were sexed using breast plumage coloration and wing banded for later identification. At

35 DA, 48 male-female pairs were randomly re-housed in 39x19x25 cm (length x width x

height) pedigree enclosures. The environmental enrichment program included corrugated

cardboard and plastic grass on the floor, and rough plastic sheets and wooden boards as

enrichment elements that were alternated weekly to minimize the habituation and to avoid

the disturbance of a more frequent change [66]. Quail starter diet (24% crude protein; 2900 kcal

metabolizable energy kg−1) was used for the first 4 weeks of life. A laying diet was provided

afterward (21% protein, 2750 kcal ME kg−1). The supply of water and food was *ad libitum*.

Experimental design:

The experiment consisted in evaluating selected INE representative variables (previously

associated with INPs, see below) in four target stages of analysis (Fig. 6). 1) juvenile quail (6

wks of age); 2) adult quail (15 wks of age), when birds evidenced full maturity (fully active

foam gland in males and females peaking egg production (~one egg per day) and prior to birds′

exposure to a chronic disruptive event (UCSE protocol, supplementary table S1); 3) After the

UCSE ended (17 wks of age) and 4) during senescence (27 wks of age).

410
Fig. 6: Summary of the experimental protocol followed in this research. INPs were assessed in a group of 96 quail

during four experimental stages: 1) juveniles, 2) adults before an unpredictable chronic stress protocol, 3) adults
after an unpredictable chronic stress protocol, 4) senescent. Abrreviations: wk. (weeks), UCSE (Unpredictable Chronic
Stress Exposure)

Variables tested: The set of variables evaluated for characterizing INPs in every individual are

briefly described as fully descriptions are provided elsewhere [14,15,42].

Response to PHA-P injection: this is a measure pro-inflammatory potential of the birds. Briefly,

after measuring with a caliper the wing web thickness, a 0.05 ml. intradermal injection of a 1

mg/ml solution of PHA-P in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) was administered in the wing web

area. On the following day (24 h post-PHA-P), the dermal swelling response was measured as

the percentage of increase in wing web thickness at the injection site. Measurements were

recorded to the nearest 0.01 mm using a mechanical micrometer [67].

Antibody response to SRBC: this parameter was used to evaluate the induced humoral immune

response. The antibody titer was assessed with a micro agglutination assay [66]. 20 μl of

complement-inactivated plasma (through heating to 56°C) were serially diluted in 20 μl of PBS

(1:2, 1:4, 1:8, up to 1:512). Next, 20 μl of a 2% suspension of SRBC in PBS were added to all

wells. Microplates were incubated at 40°C for 1 h and hemagglutination of the test plasma

samples was compared to the blank (PBS only) and negative controls (wells with no SRBC

suspension). Antibody titers were reported as $\log_2$ of the highest dilution yielding significant

agglutination. The results represent the average of two duplicates for each animal.

Corticosterone and testosterone analyses: Plasma samples were extracted with diethylether

(10 times the volume). Afterwards, the ether phase was transferred into a new vial,

evaporated and dissolved in assay buffer [68]. Aliquots (in duplicate) were quantified in a

corticosterone and testosterone enzyme immunoassay (EIA). Details of the EIAs, including

cross-reactivities of the antibody, are given in Palme and Möstl (1997)[69] and Auer et al.

(2020)[70]. Steroid concentrations are expressed as nanograms of hormone per ml of plasma

(ng/ml).

Frequency of leukocyte subpopulation distribution (FLD): First, cell count was done by flow

cytometry. To do this, 40 µl of total blood were stained with a fluorescent lipophilic dye (3, 3`-

dyhexiloxacarbocyanine iodide; DiOC6, Molecular Probes) to obtain absolute counts of

erythrocytes, lymphocytes, monocytes, thrombocytes and granulocytes as described

elsewhere [71]. Then, the FLD number was calculated using the following formula: FLD = number

of granulocytes/(number of lymphocytes + number of monocytes) and is an indicator of the

innate: acquired immunity ratio.

Cytokines: To determine cytokine mRNA expression levels, peripheral lymphocytes were

isolated and total RNA was extracted from cells according to the manufacturer's instructions

and as previously described [72]. Then, total RNA was reverse-transcribed. The resulting cDNA

was stored at -80℃ until used for real-time PCR. For quantitative real-time PCR assays, specific

primers for quail IL-1β, IL- 4, IL-13, and IFN-γ genes were used as previously reported [73]. β-actin

was used as a reference housekeeping gene. Real-time PCR was performed with a Step One

Plus Detection System (Real-Time PCR System- Thermo Fisher Scientific). The results represent

the average from three technical replicates for each analyzed animal. The level of expression

of each target gene was calculated using the formula: Gene Level = 2-(Target Gene Ct – β-Actin

Ct). The value obtained was used to compare the level of expression of each molecule [42].

Statistical analysis:

INPs were formerly described using cluster analysis in order to explore the degree of similarity

among the birds in the study on the bases of the analyzed variables. Particularly, with the aim

of identifying the best partition of the birds, described by the best orthogonal linear

combinations of the factors according to the least-squares criterion, a K-means analysis was

performed. The following 9 standardized variables were used in the analysis: plasma

corticosterone, testosterone, IFN-γ and IL-4, IL-1β, IL-13, skin-swelling response to PHA-P,

antibody response against SRBC and FLD ratio. Based on the theoretical framework previously

exposed, the clustering was performed with a K value of 3 (2 subgroups with representatives

of potential extreme INPs and 1 intermediate subgroup). Euclidean metrics were used for

computing the distance between points and cluster centers. To graphically represent the

results of the clustering in a multivariate manner, a Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was

used with the clustering variables as explanatory variables [15,74]. Also, on the data from each

stage of the experiment, we performed a linear discriminant analysis (LDA) to characterize

variation in the population [74]. LDA was used to recognize the parameters that are more

important to identify INPs during each stage of this study. Due to autocorrelation, two of the

four cytokines were removed to do LDA analysis. We chose IL-4 as representative of the anti-

inflammatory response and IFN-γ as representative of the pro-inflammatory response. To

adjust the model, we randomly selected 75% of the data of each experimental stage, and then

we tested its predictive power with the remaining 25% of the data. To compare the variation in

the frequency of INPs from one experimental stage to the other, we did a proportion analysis.

We also compared the proportion of males and females belonging to each phenotype.

We evaluated the transition probability from one INP to the others during the four

experimental stages using discrete-time Markov chains (DTMC; Spedicato and Signorelli, 2014).

This kind of analysis is adequate to evaluate changes in individuals at successive points in time.

To do this, we built transition matrices among the four stages of the experiment (Table 3): first

a matrix between juveniles and adults, second, a matrix between adults pre-stress and post-

stress, and third a matrix between adult post-stress and senescent individuals [76]. Transition

matrices estimate the probability of an individual changing its phenotype. For example, if at

the juvenile stage, 16 individuals show a Fischer-like phenotype, we intended to know how

many of those individuals remained Fischer-like when they reach adulthood and how many

changed to Lewis-like or the intermediate phenotype. We also evaluated the number of

individuals that remained in the same phenotype. To estimate probabilities, we divided the

number of individuals that had changed by the total of individuals of each phenotype in the

previous state (see Table 3 of the results section) [75]. Since in some cases, the INP could not be

established during the four stages, the total number of individuals in each transition may be

variable but in the three transitions studied the sample was always more than 70 individuals,

thus the results can be considered representative of INPs configuration in the species and of

changes during the experiment.

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Authors Contributions:

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Statistical Analysis and figures preparation: A.M; Original draft writing: A.M., F.N.N. Manuscript

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Data Availability: Data is available on reasonable request. Contact e-mail:

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Figure legends

Fig. 2: Schematic conceptual representation of INPs in Coturnix coturnix (Nazar et al. 2015).

The variables set to determine the existence of avian INPs are represented at the side of each

bird. The size of the variable indicates if the animals show high or low responses in each of the

parameters in the INPs. LYMPH: lymphoproliferative response to PHA-P; Ab SRBC: antibody

response against SRBC; FLD: frequency of leukocyte distribution; level of expression of

mediators: IFN-γ and IL-1β (pro-inflammatory); and IL-4 and 13 (anti-inflammatory). "Fischer-

like" quail with high CORT levels also manifest high FLD and IL- 13, but low Lymph, Ab SRBC,

IFN-γ and IL-1β levels. "Lewis-like" counterparts have low CORT as well as low FLD and IL-13

responses, but high Lymph, Ab SRBC, IFN-γ and IL-1β responses. These two extreme groups of

birds do not differ in their IL-4 levels.

Fig. 2: Principal component analysis plots exploring data variability and clustering procedure.

Each dot represents one bird and each variable is represented by an arrow. Each plot

represents the INP during one stage of the experiment.

Fig. 3: Linear discriminant analysis plots. Each plot represents the INP during one stage of the

experiment. The variables Limph, Testosterone, AbSRBC, IFN-G and IL.4 showed similar

canonical axis 1 and canonical axis 2 values and therefore appear overlapped in the center of

the graph. In the adults post stress graph, also corticosterone had a similar canonical axis

displacement.

Fig. 4: Phenotype frequency distribution during the four stages of the experiment. Each plot

represents the INPs frequency during one stage of the experiment.

Fig. 5: Plot of transition probabilities. Arrows indicate changes from one phenotype to the

other or the permanence in that INP. Transition probabilities are indicated on the lines.

Fig. 6: Summary of the experimental protocol followed in this research. INPs were assessed in

a group of 96 quail during four experimental stages: 1) juveniles, 2) adults before an

unpredictable chronic stress protocol, 3) adults after an unpredictable chronic stress protocol,

4) senescent. Abrreviations: wk. (weeks), UCSE (Unpredictable Chronic Stress Exposure)