

1 **Common biomarkers of vertebrate senescence**  
2 **respond to age variation in the invertebrate**  
3 ***Armadillidium vulgare***

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21

22 **Abstract**

23 Senescence, the decline of physiological parameters with increasing age, is a quasi-  
24 ubiquitous phenomenon in the living world. However, the observed patterns of senescence can  
25 markedly differ between across species and populations, between sexes and even among

26 individuals. To identify the drivers of this variation in senescence, experimental approaches are  
27 essential and involve the development of tools and new study models. In fact, current  
28 knowledge of the senescence process is mostly based on studies on vertebrates and principal  
29 informations about senescence in invertebrates is mostly limited to model organisms such as  
30 *Caenorhabditis elegans* or *Drosophila melanogaster*. In this context, we tested whether  
31 biomarkers of vertebrate aging could be used to study senescence in a very promising  
32 invertebrate model of aging: the common woodlouse *Armadillidium vulgare*. More specifically,  
33 we looked for the effect of age in woodlouse on three well established physiological biomarkers  
34 of aging in vertebrates: immune cells (cell size, density and viability),  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity,  
35 and Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase (TERT) (essential subunit of the telomerase protein)  
36 gene expression. We found that the size of immune cells was higher in older individuals,  
37 whereas their density and viability decreased, and that the  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity increased  
38 with age, whereas the Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase (TERT) gene expression decreased.  
39 These findings demonstrate that woodlouse display age-related changes in biomarkers of  
40 vertebrate senescence, with different patterns depending on gender. Thus, the tools used in  
41 studies of vertebrate senescence can be successfully used in studies of senescence of  
42 invertebrates such as the woodlouse. The application of commonly used tools to new biological  
43 models offers a promising approach to assess the diversity of senescence patterns across the  
44 tree of life.

45

## 46 **Keywords**

47 *Armadillidium vulgare*, cellular senescence, immunosenescence, invertebrates,  
48 Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase (TERT),  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity.

49

## 50 **1. Introduction**

51 Many theories have tried to explain why senescence is a quasi-ubiquitous phenomenon  
52 in the living organisms. For instance, the disposable soma theory proposed the senescence  
53 process as a result of damages accumulation over time. These damages are strongly influenced  
54 by the environment, leading to trade-offs between the different functions (e.g. between  
55 reproduction and somatic maintenance) and shaping a high diversity of senescence patterns  
56 across species and populations, among individuals, and between sexes. One current challenge  
57 is to understand the selective forces and mechanisms driving this diversity of senescence  
58 patterns.

59 At the cellular level, senescence corresponds to the cellular deterioration leading to stop  
60 the cellular cycle (Campisi and di Fagagna, 2007). As ageing is associated with cellular  
61 senescence (Herbig et al., 2006; Lawless et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2009), many biomolecular  
62 parameters potentially inform about senescence and can therefore be valuable tools for studying  
63 this process (de Jesus and Blasco, 2012). For example, the evolution of the integrity and  
64 efficiency of immune cells is particularly relevant to study cellular senescence because a  
65 diminution of the number of effective immune cells with increasing age takes place in both  
66 vertebrates (e.g. Cheynel et al., 2017) and invertebrates (e.g. Park et al., 2011). Another marker  
67 used to study cellular senescence is the enzymatic activity of the  $\beta$ -galactosidase. This enzyme  
68 is a hydrolase that transforms polysaccharides in monosaccharides. The lysosomal activity of  
69 this enzyme is increased when the cell enters in senescence (Dimri et al., 1995; Itahana et al.,  
70 2007). This phenomenon occurs in senescent cells of many organisms ranging from humans  
71 (Gary and Kindell, 2005) to honeybees (Hsieh and Hsu, 2011). Another protein linked to the  
72 cellular senescence process is the telomerase, a ribonucleo protein complex composed by two  
73 essential components, the telomerase reverse transcriptase (TERT) and the telomerase RNA  
74 (TR) and other accessorial proteins (Podlevsky et al., 2007). Telomerase lengthens the ends of  
75 telomeres (i.e. DNA sequences located at the end of chromosomes that protect chromosome

76 integrity and shorten after each cell division). Cell senescence arises when the telomere length  
77 becomes critically short (Chiu and Harley, 1997; Shay and Wright, 2005). The telomerase  
78 activity depends on organism, age and also tissues (e.g. Gomes et al., 2010). For instance,  
79 telomerase is active during the development before birth and after only in stem and germ cells  
80 in humans (Liu et al., 2007; Morgan, 2013) while in the *Daphnia pulicaria*, the telomerase  
81 activity in all tissues of the body decreases with increasing age (Schumpert et al., 2015). The  
82 TERT is essential in the telomerase protein complex and has been shown to be related to cell  
83 survival in humans (Cao et al., 2002). The TERT has also been detected in numerous species  
84 including vertebrates, fungi, ciliates and insects (Podlevsky et al., 2007; Robertson and Gordon,  
85 2006).

86 As patterns of senescence are strongly diversified within the living world, it seems  
87 essential to study organisms displaying markedly different life histories strategies to understand  
88 the causes and mechanisms underlying this diversity. Thus, invertebrates are increasingly used  
89 in experimental studies of senescence (Ram and Costa, 2018; Stanley, 2012). In addition to  
90 share similarities with vertebrates in terms of senescence, they can be manipulated  
91 experimentally and they are easier to be monitored throughout their entire lifetime (Ram and  
92 Costa, 2018). These advantages make them models of choice for studying senescence. Here,  
93 we propose the common woodlouse *A. vulgare* as a promising new model for studying  
94 senescence. Woodlouse can live beyond three years and display sex-specific senescence  
95 patterns in natural populations (Paris and Pitelka, 1962). In addition, one study has already  
96 reported evidence of immuno senescence in this species (Sicard et al., 2010).

97  
98 In this context, we tested the suitability of  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity, immune cell  
99 parameters and the TERT gene expression to cause age-specific responses in the common  
100 woodlouse *Armadillidium vulgare*. According to the literature, we expected an increase in  $\beta$ -

101 galactosidase activity, and a decrease of both TERT gene expression and immune cell viability  
102 and density in *A. vulgare*. As males have higher adult survival than females (Paris and Pitelka,  
103 1962), cellular senescence patterns are also expected to be sex-specific in *A. vulgare*.

104

## 105 **2. Materials & Methods**

### 106 ***2.1. Biological model***

107 *A. vulgare* individuals used in the following experiments were derived from a wild  
108 population collected in Denmark in 1982. These animals have been maintained on moistened  
109 soil under the natural photoperiod of Poitiers (France 46.58°N, 0.34°E, 20°C) at 20°C fed *ad*  
110 *libitum* with dried linden leaves and carrots. Crosses were monitored to control and promote  
111 genetic diversity. For each clutch obtained, individuals were sexed, and brothers and sisters  
112 were separated to ensure virginity. In common woodlouse, individuals molt throughout their  
113 lives, with approximately one molt per month. During this process all the cells of the concerned  
114 tissues are renewed at 20°C (Steel, 1980). However, the brain, the nerve cord and gonads are  
115 not renewed during molting and are therefore relevant candidates for tissue-specific study of  
116 senescence in this species. Males and females were tested separately to assess the impact of  
117 sex.

118

### 119 ***2.2 Measure of $\beta$ -galactosidase activity***

#### 120 **Animals**

121 To test the impact of age on the on  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity, 180 individuals were used:  
122 90 young (i.e. 6-months-old, 45 males and 45 females) and 90 old (2-years-old, 45 males and  
123 45 females) individuals.

#### 124 **Protocol**

125 Individuals were dissected separately in Ringer solution (Sodium Chloride 394 mM,  
126 Potassium Chloride 2 mM, Calcium Chloride 2 mM, Sodium Bicarbonate 2 mM) and nerve  
127 cord was removed. To obtain a sufficient amount of protein, we made pools of five nerve cords  
128 (from five different individuals of the same age). The five nerve cords were filed in 500  $\mu$ L of  
129 Lyse Buffer 1X (CHAPS 5 mM, Citric acid 40 mM, Sodium Phosphate 40 mM, Benzamidine  
130 0.5 mM, PMSF 0.25 mM, pH = 6) (Gary and Kindell, 2005), and then were centrifuged at  
131 15000g at 4°C for 30 minutes. The supernatant was taken and kept at -80°C until its utilization.  
132 The protein concentration was determined by the BCA assay (Thermofisher) and was  
133 homogenized at 0.1 mg/mL. The  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity was measured as described by Gary  
134 and Kindell (2005). Briefly, 100  $\mu$ L of extracted protein at the concentration of 0.1 mg/mL were  
135 added to 100  $\mu$ L of reactive 4-methylumbelliferyl-D-galactopyranoside (MUG) solution in a  
136 96 well-microplate. The MUG reactive, in contact to  $\beta$ -galactosidase, leads by hydrolysis to the  
137 synthesis of 4-methylumbelliferone (4-MU), which is detectable using fluorescent  
138 measurements. Measures were performed by the multimode microplate reader Mithras (LB940  
139 HTS III, Berthold; excitation filter: 120 nm, emission filter 460 nm) for 120 minutes. Two  
140 technical replicates were measured for each pool.

141

## 142 ***2.3 Measure of immune cell parameters***

### 143 **Animals**

144 To test the impact of age on the immune cell parameters (i.e. density, viability, and size)  
145 in *A. vulgare*, 60 mature individuals were used: 30 young (i.e. 1-year-old, 15 males and 15  
146 females) and 30 old (3-years-old, 15 males and 15 females) individuals.

### 147 **Protocol**

148 To study the impact of age on the immune parameters, a hole was bored in the middle  
149 of the 6<sup>th</sup> segment and 3  $\mu$ L of haemolymph were collected (per individual) with an eyedropper

150 and deposited promptly in 15  $\mu$ L of anticoagulant solution(MAS-EDTA (EDTA 9 mM,  
151 Trisodium citrate 27 mM, NaCl 336 mM, Glucose 115 mM, pH 7, (Rodriguez et al., 1995))).  
152 Then, 6  $\mu$ L of Trypan blue at 0.4% (Invitrogen) were added to color the dead cells. Thereafter,  
153 10  $\mu$ L of this solution were deposited in counting slide (Invitrogen Countess®, Thermofisher).  
154 The immune cell density, the immune cell viability and the immune cell size were evaluated  
155 using an automated Cell Counter (Invitrogen Countess®).

156

## 157 ***2.4 Measure of TERT gene expression***

158 The identification of the Telomerase Reverse Transcriptase (TERT)gene was firstly  
159 performed from the *A. vulgare* genome (Chebbi et al., 2019). In order to check whether this  
160 gene was present and preserved in crustaceans, phylogenetic analyses were carried out upstream  
161 (see Supplementary materials 1, 2, 3 and 4). This gene has been found in crustacean  
162 transcriptomes and the topology of the TERT gene tree follows the phylogenetic relationships  
163 between the involved species(Supplementary material 3), suggesting a conserved role of the  
164 TERT gene.

165

### 166 ***2.4.1 Gene expression***

#### 167 **Animals**

168 We tested the effect of age on the expression of TERT gene within 4 different age  
169 groups: (1) 4-months-old, (2) 1-year-old, (3) 2-years-old and (4) 3-years-old. Females and  
170 males were tested separately by pools of 5 individuals in 1-, 2-, 3-years-old groups and by pools  
171 of 7 individuals in 4-months-old group. All conditions require 4 replicates for each sex. 176  
172 individuals were used for this experiment. For each group we tested the expression level of the  
173 TERT gene in two different tissues: the nerve cord (somatic line) and gonads (germinal line).

#### 174 **Protocol**

175           Animals were washed by immersion for 30s in a 30% sodium hypochlorite solution  
176 followed by two 30s immersion in distilled water. Tissues were dissected in Ringer solution  
177 (Sodium Chloride 394 mM, Potassium Chloride 2 mM, Calcium Chloride 2 mM, Sodium  
178 Bicarbonate 2 mM) and deposited by specific tissues pools of 5 on TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen)  
179 to extract RNA according to the manufacturer's protocol after a cell disintegration using a Vibra  
180 Cell 75,185 sonicator (amplitude of 30%). Total RNA was quantified by NanoDrop technology  
181 and was stored at -80°C until use. Reverse transcriptions (RT) were made from 500ng of RNA  
182 previously extracted and using the kit SuperScript™ IV Reverse Transcriptase (Thermo Fisher  
183 Scientific) according to the supplier's instructions. Primers were designed using the identified  
184 gene: primer TERT\_F: 5'-AGGGAAAACGATGCACAACC-3' and primer TERT\_R: 5'-  
185 GTTCGCCAAATGTTCGCAAC- 3' (see Supplementary material 1). Quantitative RT-PCR  
186 was performed using 0.6 µl of each primer (10 µM), 2.4 µl of nuclease-free water and 1.5 µl of  
187 cDNA template and the LightCycler LC480 system (Roche) with the following program: 10 min  
188 at 95 °C, 45 cycles of 10 s at 95 °C, 10 s at 60 °C, and 20 s at 72 °C. Expression levels of target  
189 genes were normalized based on the expression level of two reference genes previously  
190 established: the Ribosomal Protein L8 (RbL8) and the Elongation Factor 2 (EF2) (Chevalier et  
191 al., 2011).

192

### 193           **Statistics**

194           All statistical analyses were performed using the R software (R. Core Team, 2016). The  
195 β-galactosidase activity was analyzed with linear mixed effect models using the package lme4  
196 (Bates et al., 2014). As two technical replicates were measured for each pool, the model  
197 including the pools fitted as a random effect, age and sex and their two-way interaction as fixed  
198 factors.



199 Concerning the immune parameters, linear models with Gaussian distribution were  
200 fitted to analyze variation in the cell size and viability. For the cell density, a linear model of  
201 the cell number (log-transformed, (Ives and Freckleton Robert, 2015)) was fitted.

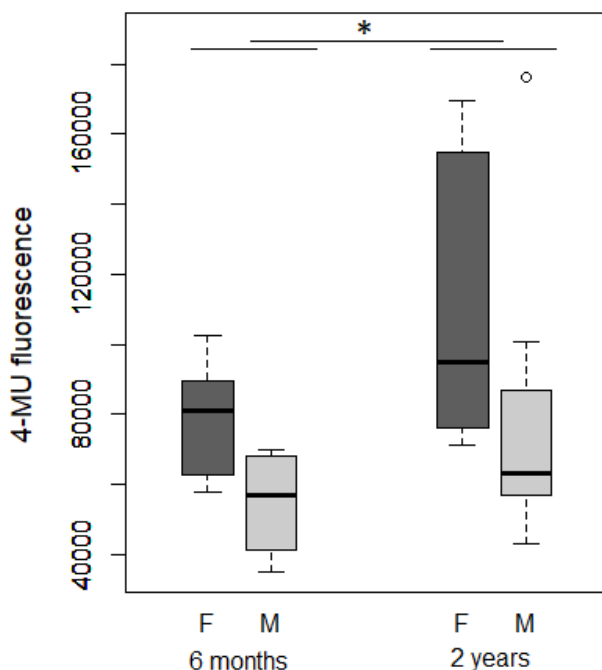
202 The level of TERT expression according to age in the two different tissues were  
203 compared by a Kruskal–Wallis rank sum test in combination with Nemenyi’s post hoc multiple  
204 comparison test with the Tuckey correction using R package PMCMR.

205

### 206 **3. Results**

#### 207 **$\beta$ -galactosidase activity**

208 The  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity was higher in old (i.e. 2-years-old) than in young (i.e. 6-  
209 months-old) individuals ( $\chi^2_1=6.15$ ,  $p=0.013$ , Figure 1). We also detected a higher  $\beta$ -  
210 galactosidase activity in females than in males ( $\chi^2_1=7.26$ ,  $p=0.007$ , Figure 1).



211

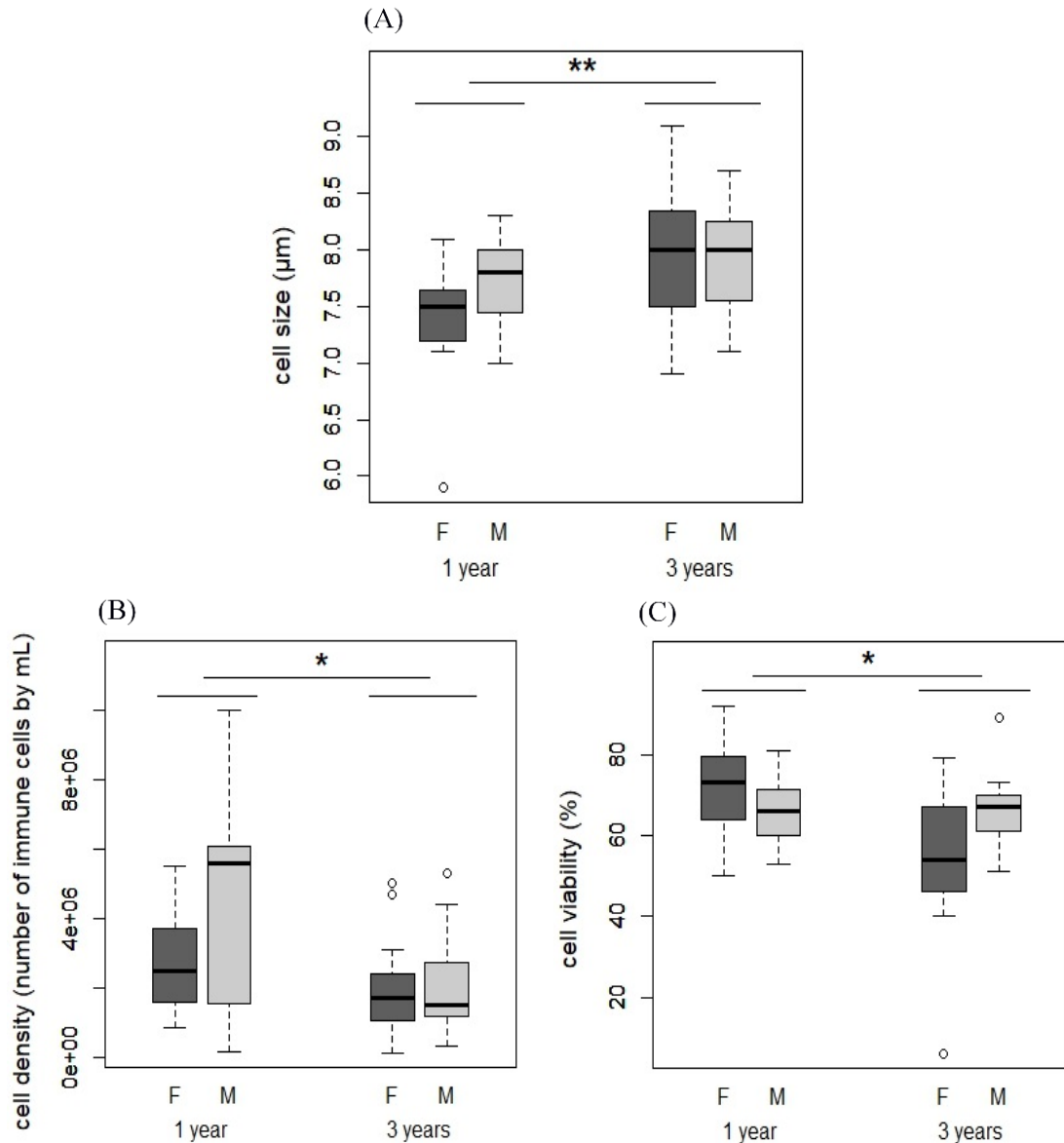
212 *Figure 1:  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity according to age and sex in A. vulgare (F=females, M=males)*

213 The thick line depicts the median, the box the interquartile range, and the whisker are bounded to the most extreme  
214 data point within 1.5 the interquartile range. The outliers outside this range are displayed as open circles. N= 24  
215 pools of 5 individuals. \* denotes  $p < 0.05$

216

### 217 **Immune cells parameters**

218 Cell size was larger in 3-years-old than in 1-year-old individuals ( $F_{1,58}=8.54$ ,  $p=0.005$ , Figure  
219 2A). Conversely, the cell density was higher in 1-year-old than in 3-years-old individuals ( $F_{1,58}$   
220  $=4.33$ ,  $p=0.01$ , Figure 2B). Concerning the immune cell viability, a statistically significant  
221 interaction occurred between age and sex, with a relatively lower immune cell viability in 3-  
222 years-old females ( $F_{3,56}=6.85$ ,  $p=0.01$ , Figure 2C). No sex effect was detected on cell size  
223 ( $F_{2,57}=0.76$ ,  $p=0.38$ , Figure 2A) or cell density ( $F_{2,57}=0.32$ ,  $p=0.57$ , Figure 2B).



224

225 **Figure 2: Immune cell size (A), density (B) and viability (C) according to age and sex in *A. vulgare* (F=females,**  
226 **M=males)**

227 The thick line depicts the median, the box the interquartile range, and the whisker are bounded to the most extreme

228 data point within 1.5 the interquartile range. The outliers outside this range are displayed as open circles. N= 60

229 individuals: 15 1-year-old females, 15 1-year-old males, 15 3-years-old females and 15 3-years-old males. \*

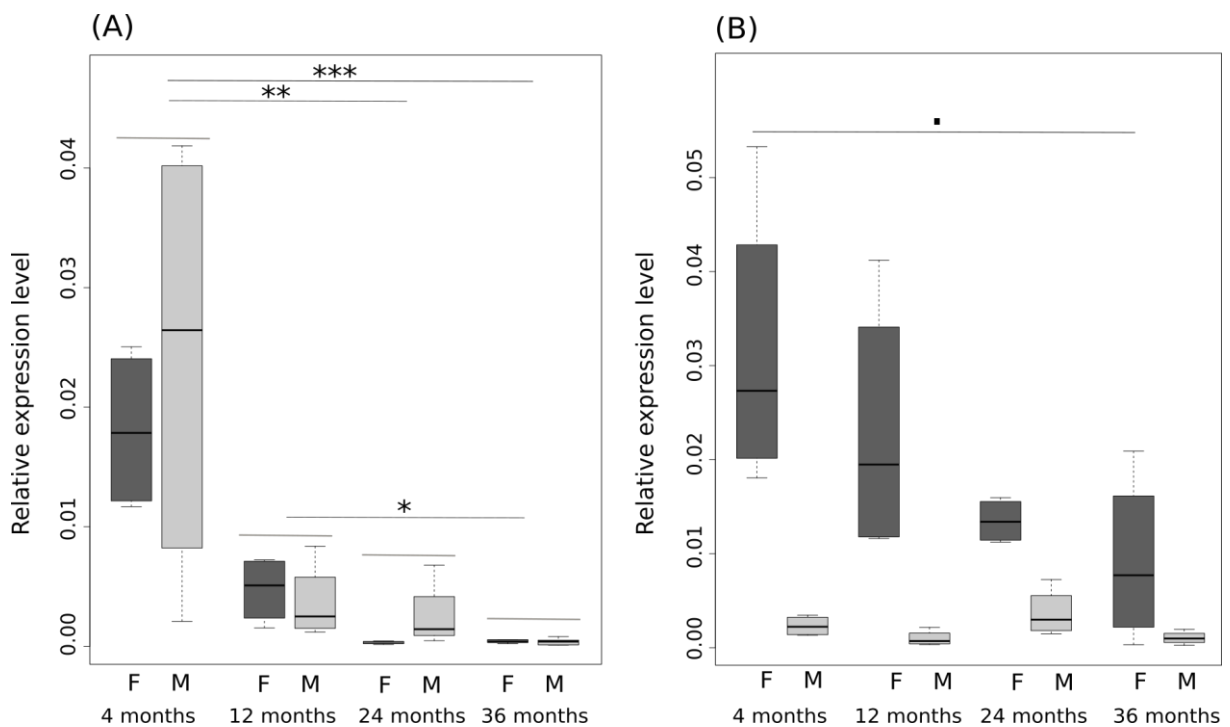
230 denotes  $p < 0.05$  and \*\* denotes  $p < 0.01$

231

232

### 233 **TERT gene expression**

234 The TERT gene expression decreased with increasing age in nerve cords ( $\chi^2_3=23.30$ ,  
235  $p<0.001$ , Figure 3A). More precisely, the TERT gene expression was higher in 4-months-old  
236 individuals compared to 2-years-old and 3-years-old individuals ( $p=0.001$  in both cases) and in  
237 1-year-old individuals compared to 3-years-old individuals ( $p=0.038$ ), without any detectable  
238 sex effect ( $\chi^2_1=0.14$ ,  $p=0.70$ , Figure 3A). In gonads, the TERT gene expression was much  
239 higher in females ( $\chi^2_1=17.81$ ,  $p<0.001$ , Figure 3B) and tended to decrease with increasing age  
240 ( $\chi^2_3=7.5$ ,  $p=0.057$ , Figure 3B) as the TERT gene expression tended to be higher in 4-months-  
241 old females compared to 3-years-old females ( $p=0.054$ ). In males, a general tendency was also  
242 observed ( $\chi^2_1=7.34$ ,  $p=0.061$ , Figure 3B), the TERT gene expression tending to be higher in 2-  
243 years-old individuals compared to 1-year-old and 3-years-old individuals ( $p=0.14$  and  $p=0.12$ ,  
244 respectively, Figure 3B).



245

246 **Figure 3: Relative expression level of TERT in (A) nerve cords and (B) in gonads in *A. vulgare* (F=females,**  
247 **M=males).**

248 Expression of each gene was normalized based on the expression of Ribosomal Protein L8 (RbL8) and Elongation  
249 Factor 2 (EF2) as reference genes. The thick line depicts the median, the box the interquartile range, and the whisker  
250 are bounded to the most extreme data point within 1.5 the interquartile range. N= 176 individuals: 284-months-old  
251 females, 28 4-months-old males, 20 1-year-old females, 20 1-year-old males, 20 2-years-old females, 20 2-years-old  
252 males, 20 3-years-old females, 20 3-years-old males. . denotes  $p < 0.10$ , \*\* denotes  $p < 0.01$

253

## 254 **4. Discussion**

255 In this study, we tested several effective physiological biomarkers of vertebrate  
256 senescence to assess whether they could also be used in invertebrates such as the common  
257 woodlouse. Immune cells showed an increase in their size and a decrease in their density and  
258 viability with increasing age. In nerve cords, the activity of the  $\beta$ -galactosidase enzyme  
259 increased, whereas the TERT gene expression decreased with increasing age. These results  
260 support the presence of increasing cellular senescence in *A. vulgare* with chronological age. In  
261 contrast, in the gonads, the TERT gene expression was too low in males and was not sufficiently  
262 variable between sexes to provide information on the cellular senescence status in this tissue.

263 Our study is in line with previous studies that have already revealed the possibility of  
264 using vertebrate biomarkers in invertebrates (Hsieh and Hsu, 2011; Park et al., 2011; Schumpert  
265 et al., 2015). By testing a set of different physiological biomarkers of vertebrate senescence,  
266 often studied independently, our study supports both ideas that routinely used biomarkers in  
267 vertebrates can be adapted in invertebrates and that the senescence process is quasi-ubiquitous  
268 in the living world and can be expressed in a similar way in very different organisms.

269 Previous studies have shown that the probabilities to survive decrease with increasing  
270 age in *A. vulgare* (Paris and Pitelka, 1962). The cellular damages accumulated during the  
271 animal's life could be the cause of cell senescence and therefore the driving force behind  
272 actuarial senescence. (Barja, 2000; Barja and Herrero, 2000; Finkel and Holbrook, 2000;  
273 Harman, 1956). In *A. vulgare*, the 2- and 3-years-old individuals could have therefore

274 accumulated more cellular damages during their lifetime, leading to the cellular senescence we  
275 report.

276 Our study also revealed a strong difference between sexes on the response of biomarkers  
277 to age changes. At a given age, females display higher  $\beta$ -galactosidase activity and lower  
278 immune cell viability than males. Between-sex differences in lifespan have been reported in *A.*  
279 *vulgare* with a longer lifespan in males than in females (Geiser, 1934; Paris and Pitelka, 1962).  
280 Exact differences in actuarial senescence patterns (i.e. age-specific changes in survival  
281 probabilities) remain to be quantified in *A. vulgare* but such differences are quite common both  
282 in vertebrates and invertebrates (Marais et al., 2018; Tidière et al., 2015). One of the main  
283 theory proposed to explain sex differences in longevity or senescence patterns relies on different  
284 resource allocation strategies between sexes (Bonduriansky et al., 2008; Vinogradov,  
285 1998). The shorter lifespan in females *A. vulgare*, that allocate more energy to reproduction than  
286 males (Paris and Pitelka, 1962) because they carry their offspring in their marsupium during  
287 one month giving nutrients and protection, supports a role of differential sex allocation.

288 Sex differences in resource allocation strategies could also be driven by environmental  
289 conditions (Shertzer and Ellner, 2002). Our physiological biomarkers of vertebrate senescence  
290 revealed sex differences, and as supported in Depeux et al., 2019, they could constitute useful  
291 tools to identify other factors involved in variations in senescence patterns, such as  
292 environmental stressors. Moreover, if these biomarkers seem to predict better the physiological  
293 age than chronological age notably in terms of survival and reproduction, they could correspond  
294 to biomarkers of senescence in woodlouse (Baker and Sprott, 1988; Simm et al., 2008; Sprott,  
295 2010).

296 Our present study demonstrated that the physiological biomarkers of vertebrate  
297 senescence respond to age changes in the common woodlouse, a new invertebrate model of  
298 aging. These parameters that predict the chronological age of woodlouse individuals might offer

299 reliable biomarkers, especially if their measurements are related to both reproductive and  
300 survival prospects more than to the chronological age of individuals. In this context, and more  
301 broadly in the study of senescence and of the factors involved in its diversity, the woodlouse  
302 model, which has physiological similarities with other invertebrates, could be a model of choice  
303 to study sex-specific actuarial and cellular senescence.

304

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