

1 Inconsistent findings of ageing across different feather-quality indices in a wild passerine

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3

4 Abstract

5 In most animals, individuals tend to decline in performance in later life, known as ageing. In birds,
6 studies of ageing have traditionally concentrated on metrics of survival and reproductive success,
7 whereas morphological traits have received comparatively little attention. Feather quality is a key
8 morphological trait for passerines as it contributes to flight performance, camouflage and
9 thermoregulation, and is, therefore, important for survival. However, there are, as of yet, very few
10 studies on how feather quality changes with age. In this study, we use a closely monitored natural
11 population of long-lived Seychelles warblers to investigate whether and how three different indices
12 of feather quality change with age within individuals. We found that feather mass-to-length ratio
13 increased with age (indicating improving quality with age), while rachis width declined with age
14 (indicating declining quality), and barbule density showed no ageing pattern. All feather quality
15 indices showed no sex differences in ageing rates. The inconsistent findings of ageing across the
16 three feather quality indices may suggest that life history trade-offs between feather quality and
17 survival or reproduction are not as strong, and feather quality may not be a costly trait to maintain.
18 Age-related improvements of mass-to-length ratio but not the other indices may also suggest that
19 certain aspects of feather quality are more important than others to maintain. Opposite patterns of
20 ageing in rachis width and mass-to-length ratio may also suggest possible trade-offs between
21 different feather quality metrics. Our study highlights the need for further investigation on energetic
22 trade-offs between maintenance of different phenotypic traits and fitness.

23

24 Keywords: Ageing, Feather quality, Somatic maintenance, Fitness, Disposable soma theory, Energy
25 trade-offs, Selective disappearance.

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34

35 Introduction

36 Ageing, i.e. age related changes in traits have increasingly been documented across a range of taxa
37 in natural populations (e.g. Froy et al., 2013; Nussey et al., 2011). Many ageing studies in various
38 taxa focus on measuring changes in life-history traits (Jones et al., 2014; Lemaître & Gaillard, 2017),
39 yet it is clear declines in function begin before survival and reproductive senescence in many
40 organisms (e.g. Bansal et al., 2015; Yashin et al., 2007). To better understand these functional
41 declines and mechanisms underlying actuarial senescence, we have to study ageing patterns in a
42 wider range of traits outside of fitness traits. Morphological traits historically have received less
43 attention despite playing an important role in survival and fitness (Nussey et al., 2011). For instance,
44 body mass – often used as measure of condition - is a predictor of survival in many species (Haramis
45 et al., 1986; Ronget et al., 2018). Accordingly, declines in body mass were associated with increased
46 mortality risk in older ages (Nussey et al., 2011), highlighting the potential contribution of
47 morphological trait ageing towards actuarial senescence. Understanding the ageing patterns of
48 morphological traits that are key to survival and reproduction, will provide insight to functional
49 declines that cause the uncoupling of healthspan and lifespan and subsequent demographic declines
50 (Nussey et al., 2011).

51

52 Feathers are a defining feature of all birds, and are key to their health and survival, influencing flight
53 ability, foraging, camouflage, sexual selection and insulation (Terrill & Shultz, 2023). Wing and tail
54 feather condition can affect flight performance and maneuverability (Swaddle et al., 1996)
55 (Matyjasiak et al., 2018), and may thus impair escape from predators (Møller & Nielsen, 2018),
56 increase foraging energetic costs (Echeverry-Galvis & Hau, 2013; Swaddle & Witter, 1997), or impact
57 offspring provisioning rate (Frankish, Manica & Phillips, 2020). Additionally, feather quality may
58 influence fitness and selection as feathers often serve as secondary sexual characteristics (Aparicio,
59 Bonal & Cordero, 2003; Adámková, Tomášek & Albrecht, 2022). Lower quality feathers may cause
60 lower attractiveness (Daunt et al., 2007; Kose & Møller, 1999; Adámková, Tomášek & Albrecht,
61 2022). Further, birds with feathers of poor quality may have inferior plumage patterns, leading to
62 increased predation risk through poorer camouflage (Camacho et al., 2022; Gluckman & Cardoso,
63 2010; Solonen, 2021). Poorer plumage quality or structure can also lead to reduced insulation,
64 decreasing over-winter survival (Dawson et al., 2000; Nilsson & Svensson, 1997). Finally, feathers of
65 higher quality are stronger and more durable, thus lasting over a longer period of time until the next
66 moult (Kiat & Sapir, 2018). As a consequence of all of the above, ageing or senescence of feather
67 quality can lead to lower survival and reproductive success. Therefore, understanding how feather

68 quality deteriorates with age may provide us with insight into mechanistic explanations of avian
69 senescence.

70

71 To the best of our knowledge, there are very few studies on within-individual age-related declines in
72 feather quality. In captive zebra finches (*Taeniopygia guttata*) primary wing feather length and
73 feather mass declined with age (Śliż, 2022), while in alpine swifts (*Tachymarptis melba*) tail length
74 showed strong decline with age in both sexes, and there was selective disappearance of males with
75 longer tails in swifts and in barn swallows (*Hirundo rustica*) (Moullec, Reichert & Bize, 2023,
76 Adámková, Tomášek & Albrecht, 2022; Balbontín & Møller, 2015). In contrast, sand martins (*Riparia*
77 *riparia*) demonstrated improvements in a range of tail feather quality indices with age (Szép et al.,
78 2019). Two of the studies above use feather length, with little studies using a range of feather
79 quality indices (Szép et al., 2019; Śliż, 2022). As a result, whether patterns of feather quality ageing
80 are uniform across multiple indices remains unknown since the studies above that measured ageing
81 across multiple feather quality indices within individuals showed contrasting findings. Furthermore,
82 most studies on feather quality ageing were conducted on migratory species. Migratory birds may
83 allocate different amounts of energy in maintaining flight apparatus compared to sedentary birds
84 (De La Hera, Pérez-Tris & Tellería, 2009), which may lead to different ageing patterns. Finally, few
85 studies investigate how feather quality declines with age in bird species where moult timing and
86 reproduction overlap, where there may be stronger trade-offs in resource allocation (Foster, 1975).
87 The lack of studies in sedentary species presents a gap in our understanding of how feather quality
88 ageing leads to avian senescence.

89

90 The Seychelles warbler (*Acrocephalus sechellensis*) population on Cousin Island provides an excellent
91 longitudinal study system in which to investigate ageing. As this is a closed population with almost
92 non-existent inter-island dispersal (<0.1%; Komdeur et al., 2004), intense biannual monitoring of the
93 population from 1997 onwards provides accurate survival and reproductive success data (Hammers
94 et al., 2013). We obtain repeated measures of the same individuals across their lifespan, which
95 allows us to disentangle within and between individual effects of ageing (Nussey et al., 2013).
96 Seychelles warblers have low extrinsic mortality (Komdeur, 1996), high annual survival probability
97 (0.84 ± 0.04 in adults, 0.61 ± 0.09 in juveniles - (Brouwer et al., 2006)), and – with a mean lifespan of
98 c.a. 4 years and maximum lifespan of 19 years are relatively long-lived compared to other passerine
99 species (Hammers & Brouwer, 2017). Past studies have shown that warblers demonstrate

100 reproductive senescence at ages 6 and 7.8 for males and females respectively (Hammers et al., 2012;
101 Raj Pant et al., 2020), and survival senescence at age 6 (Hammers et al., 2013).

102

103 In this study we specifically investigate whether three indices of feather quality: mass-to-length
104 ratio, rachis width and barbule density, which indicate feather durability, stiffness and insulation
105 property (Kiat & Sapir, 2018). As moulting is one of the most energetically expensive events for birds
106 (Dietz, Daan & Masman, 1992; Murphy & King, 1992), we expect all measures of feather quality to
107 initially increase until prime age, then decline with age in later life similarly due to life-history trade-
108 offs associated with moulting.

109

110 **Methods**

111 *Study system*

112 The Seychelles warbler is a facultatively cooperative passerine endemic to the Seychelles
113 archipelago. The population on Cousin Island (29 ha; 04°20'S, 55°40'E) has been monitored as part of
114 a long-term study since 1985 (Komdeur, 1992), and more than 96% have been ringed and DNA-
115 sampled since 1997 (Richardson et al., 2001; Lee et al., 2026). The island has a carrying capacity of
116 ~300 adult individuals, and is split into c.a. 110 territories each containing one breeding group that
117 includes a dominant breeding pair, and can include helper or non-helper adult subordinates of either
118 sex, and offspring (Richardson, Burke & Komdeur, 2002).

119

120 Fieldwork was carried out twice a year during the minor and major breeding seasons (January-March
121 and June-October). New birds were caught either as chicks in the nest or as dependent fledglings on
122 their natal territory using mistnets and song playback and ringed with a British Trust for Ornithology
123 metal ring (BTO rings) and a unique combination of three colour rings. These individuals were aged
124 according to a combination of behaviour, eye colour (based on (Komdeur, Bullock & Rands, 1991)),
125 and nest date if known, thus allowing the exact age of all birds in the population to be accurately
126 monitored. Also, as many as possible ringed birds of known age were recaptured each breeding
127 season using mist nets and playback.

128

129 For all birds caught between 2014-2023 (except for the minor breeding season 2017-2019 and 2022)
130 we sampled the right-most tail feather (rectrix). This feather was chosen to reduce the loss of
131 maneuverability from reduction in lifting surface of bird tails (Carbonell & Tellería, 1999; Grubb,
132 1989; de la Hera, Perez-Tris & Telleria, 2009). These were individually stored in paper envelopes at

133 room temperature until measurements in the laboratory were taken. Feather samples from
134 fledglings and damaged feathers (feathers missing tips or half of the feather vane) were removed
135 from the analysis. Morphological measurements including body mass and tarsus length were
136 measured at the same time as feather sampling. We also scored the presence/absence of tail moult.

137

138 Individual territories were visited every two weeks to carry out a population census and to check for
139 breeding activity and occupants. As a result of intense monitoring and very low inter-island dispersal
140 (Komdeur et al., 2004), individual resighting probability per season on Cousin Island is very high
141 (0.92 ± 0.02 in the first 2 years of life, 0.98 ± 0.01 for older birds, (Brouwer et al., 2010)) therefore
142 we can assume that individuals not seen for two consecutive seasons were dead (Hammers et al.,
143 2013). We determined breeding status (dominant breeder, helper, subordinate) of birds via
144 observations of behavioural interactions and conducting nest watches during breeding seasons
145 (Hammers et al., 2021). Dominant breeders were defined as the primary pair-bonded male and
146 female in a territory. Helpers were defined as resident birds seen helping the primary pair breed,
147 while subordinates were non-helping residents (van Boheemen et al., 2019).

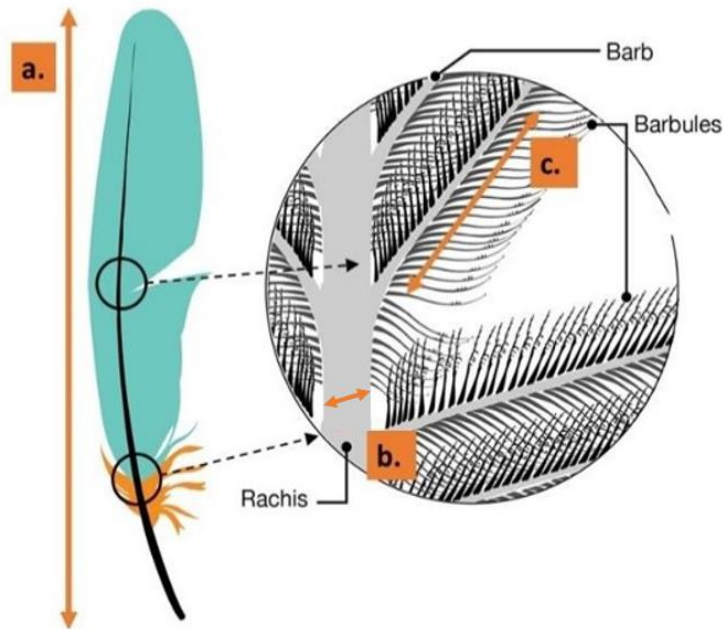
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149 Seychelles warblers are insectivorous and obtain prey from the undersides of leaves (Komdeur,
150 2006). To determine seasonal food availability, we assessed monthly insect abundance by counting
151 the number of insects on the undersides of 50 leaves of the most abundant plant species from 14
152 fixed locations on the island (Komdeur, Bullock & Rands, 1991; Spurgin et al., 2018). The monthly
153 insect abundance was then averaged across the locations and over the duration of the breeding
154 season to obtain food abundance estimates across the season (Spurgin et al., 2018).

155

156 *Feather quality measures*

157 We measured three indicators of feather quality: feather mass-to-length ratio, rachis width, and
158 barbule density. Mass-to-length ratio serves as a proxy for feather quality and durability (Carbonell
159 & Tellería, 1999). This metric reflects feather bending stiffness and resistance to wear (Kiat & Sapir,
160 2018), and it is positively correlated with barbule density and rachis width. Feathers were weighed
161 using a Mettler Toledo AG-245 digital balance (instrumental repeatability: $0.01 \text{ mg} \pm 0.02 \text{ mg}$)
162 (Carbonell & Tellería, 1999; de la Hera, Perez-Tris & Telleria, 2009). Total length of the feather
163 (distance from the calamus base to the distal feather tip; Figure 1, arrow a) was measured using a
164 digital caliper ($\pm 0.01 \text{ mm}$). The ratio was then calculated by dividing the mass of the feather by the
165 length of the feather.



166

167 Figure 1. The three metrics of feather structure used in this study: a) length, b) rachis width and c)
 168 barbule density.

169

170 Rachis width is positively related to stiffness and hardness of the feather structure, on which both
 171 durability and aerodynamic properties depend (Dawson et al., 2000). To quantify this, we measured
 172 the maximum dorsiventral width of the rachis at the base of the feather vane (Aparicio, Bonal &
 173 Cordero, 2003; Dawson et al., 2000) with a digital caliper (± 0.01 mm Figure 1, arrow b.).

174

175 Barbule density is positively correlated with the strength, durability and aerodynamic properties of
 176 the feather vane (DesRochers et al., 2009). Barbule density also determines the amount of air
 177 feathers can trap, determining insulation property (Broggi et al., 2011). Barbule density was
 178 examined using a microscope (x40 magnification), counting the number of feather barbules (Pap et
 179 al., 2020) across three barbs, 10 repetitions of a 0.375mm section along the barb (Figure 1, arrow c.).
 180 As we developed this protocol, we tested the repeatability of the measurement method using the
 181 package *rptR v 0.9.23* (Stoffel, Nakagawa & Schielzeth, 2017). The protocol repeatability was 0.738,
 182 95%, CI 0.517-0.866, $p < 0.01$.

183

184 We measured the rachis width and mass-to-length ratio of 395 tail feathers from 219 adult birds.
 185 Barbule density was measured in a subset of the tail feathers and the sample size for barbule density
 186 was 128 feathers across 58 individuals. All measurements for rachis width and mass-to-length ratio
 187 were carried out by one observer (EL). For the barbule density, to account for observer effects (two
 188 observers used: EL & FN), the measurements were scaled to the means for each observer.

189

190 *Statistical analyses*

191 All statistical analyses were completed in R 4.4.1 (R Core Team, 2024). We used Linear Mixed-effects
192 Models (LMMs) to analyse whether feather quality varied with age. We fitted a model per feather
193 quality trait including linear and squared age terms. For the rachis width and mass-to-length ratio
194 models, we controlled for selective disappearance by fitting lifespan as a fixed effect and individual
195 bird identity as a random effect (Nussey et al., 2008; van de Pol & Verhulst, 2006). As most
196 individuals included in the barbule density dataset were still alive at the time of the analysis, and so
197 did not have a value for lifespan, we accounted for selective disappearance using the within and
198 between individual centering method of van de Pol & Wright (2009; see also Fay, Martin & Plard,
199 2022). To account for any sex differences in ageing, we fitted sex as a fixed effect and an interaction
200 term for both sex by linear and squared age.

201

202 Individual differences in resource availability and allocation trade-offs may influence ageing rates
203 (Kirkwood, 1977), therefore we fitted the following variables, as fixed effects to account for this:
204 body mass to tarsus ratio to control for differences in body condition, as birds in better condition
205 may be able to produce higher quality feathers (Vágási et al., 2012); reproductive status (classed into
206 dominant breeders, helpers and non-breeding subordinates) to control for variation in feather
207 length caused by energetic differences resulting from differing reproductive investment; Food
208 abundance, as it corresponds to energy acquisition in the warblers (Hammers et al., 2012), and birds
209 with food shortages grow poorer quality feathers (Hammers et al., 2012; Murphy, King & Lu, 1988);
210 presence of tail moult (1 and 0), to account the effect of moult stage on feather quality. Finally, birth
211 year was fitted as a random effect to account for cohort effects in ageing. Bird identity was included
212 in all models to account for individual variation in feather quality and selective disappearance.

213

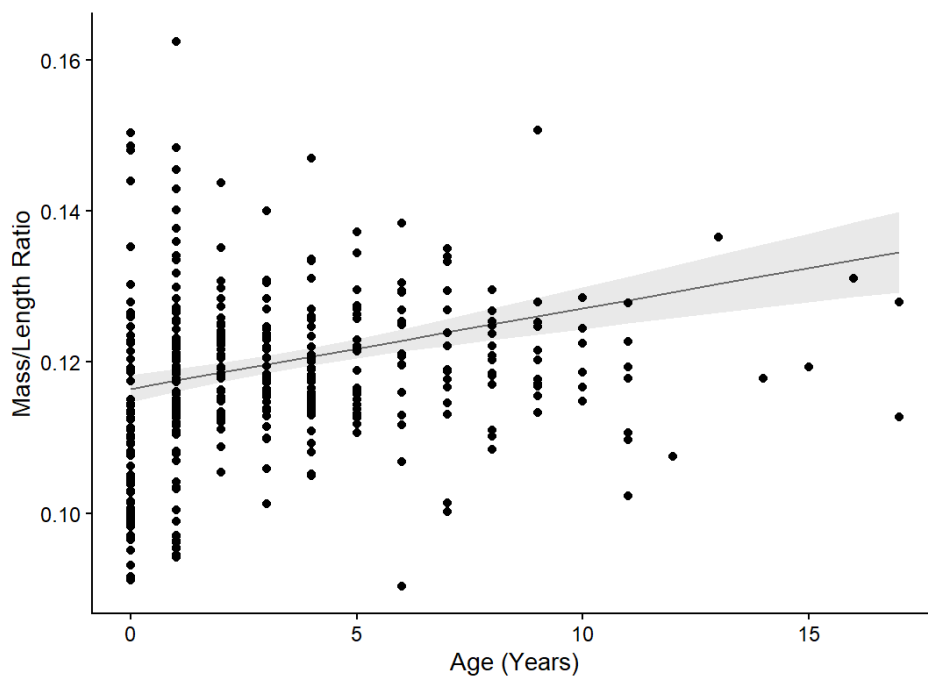
214 We removed interactions and square terms that were not significant from the model in a negative
215 stepwise order to test for the first-order effect of age with feather quality. All models were tested
216 for collinearity, ensuring that $VIF < 4$ (Kalnins & Praitis Hill, 2025). The fit of the final models were
217 checked via inspecting the residual plots generated using *DHARMA* 0.4.6 (Hartig & Hartig, 2017).

218

219 **Results**

220 Feather mass-to-length ratio increased with age within-individual, albeit with a small effect size
221 (table 1 & Figure 1). Males had a higher tail feather mass-to-length ratio than females (table 1).

222 Rachis width decreased with age (Table 2 & Figure 2). We observed selective disappearance of
 223 individuals for mass-to-length ratio from the lifespan term (table 1), and selective appearance of
 224 individuals with rachis width (table 2). However, the effect sizes of the selective disappearance
 225 terms for both feather quality indices are very small (Tables 1 & 2), suggesting low biological
 226 significance. Males had a higher rachis width overall (Table 2) and a marginally higher mass-to-length
 227 ratio (table 1) than females. While both rachis width and mass-to-length ratio differed by sex, there
 228 were no sex differences in how these traits changed with age (Tables S1 & S2). Barbule density did
 229 not show significant age nor sex differences (table 3).
 230



231
 232 Figure 2. Within-individual changes of tail feather mass-to-length ratio with age (in years) in the
 233 Seychelles warbler. Black points correspond to individual data points. The best fit line was plotted
 234 from the model estimates using ggpredict and 95% confidence intervals are represented by the grey
 235 shaded area.

236
 237 Table 1. Summary of the Generalized linear mixed model testing the effect of age (years) on tail
 238 feather mass-to-length ratio with age in the Seychelles warbler.

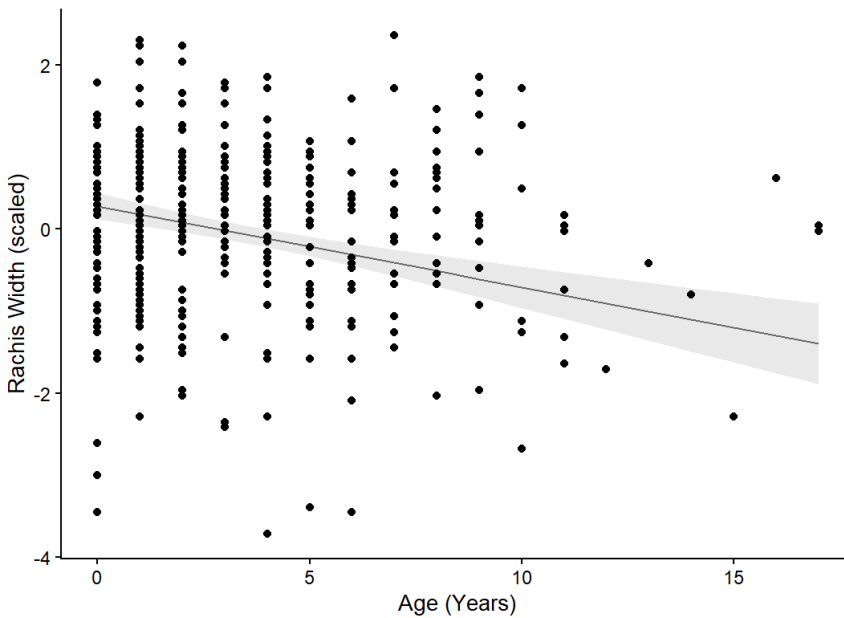
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Mass-to-length ratio			
Predictors	Estimates	95% CI	p
Intercept	0.0853	0.0613 – 0.1094	< 0.001
Age	0.0011	0.0003 – 0.0018	0.006
Lifespan	-0.0000	-0.0000 – -0.0000	0.034
Sex estimate	0.0049	0.0016 – 0.0082	0.004

Body mass/tarsus	0.0559	0.0155 – 0.0964	0.007
Reproductive status (Helper)	-0.0045	-0.0098 – 0.0008	0.098
Reproductive status (Subordinate)	-0.0036	-0.0076 – 0.0004	0.077
Insect availability	-0.0006	-0.0011 – 0.0000	0.063
Tail moult presence	0.0008	-0.0024 – 0.0040	0.632
Rachis width (centred)	-0.0006	-0.0021 – 0.0009	0.436
Random Effects			
σ^2	0.00		
τ_{00} BirdID	0.00		
τ_{00} BirthYear	0.00		
N _{BirdID}	116		
N _{BirthYear}	19		
Observations	209		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.228 / NA		

240

241



242

243 Figure 3. Within individual relationship of tail feather rachis width with age in the Seychelles warbler
 244 plotted from model predictions using the package *ggpredict*. The raw individual data is represented
 245 by black points, and the grey areas correspond to the 95% confidence intervals

246

247 Table 2. Generalized linear mixed model (GLMM) summary for the final model for ageing in tail
 248 feather rachis width in the Seychelles warbler. The 95% CI is given in the table. P-value for significant
 249 terms are in bold.

Rachis Width (Centred)			
Predictors	Estimates	CI	p
Intercept	-1.4528	-3.8992 – 0.9936	0.243
Age	-0.0989	-0.1686 – -0.0293	0.006
Lifespan	0.0002	0.0000 – 0.0003	0.031

Sex estimate	0.5882	0.2923 – 0.8841	<0.001
Body mass/tarsus	3.0020	-0.7383 – 6.7423	0.115
Reproductive status (Helper)	-0.5067	-0.9907 – -0.0226	0.040
Reproductive status (Subordinate)	0.0268	-0.3402 – 0.3938	0.886
Invertebrate availability	-0.0150	-0.0690 – 0.0390	0.583
Mass-to-length ratio	-5.0503	-17.8117 – 7.7111	0.436
Tail moult presence	-0.4527	-0.7405 – -0.1648	0.002
Random Effects			
σ^2	0.88		
τ_{00} BirdID	0.00		
τ_{00} BirthYear	0.00		
N _{BirdID}	116		
N _{BirthYear}	19		
Observations	209		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.178 / NA		

250

251

252 Aside from age, other factors influenced feather quality in the Seychelles warbler. Birds with a higher
 253 body mass to tarsus ratio, had a higher feather mass-to-length ratio (Table 1). Rachis width was
 254 influenced by reproductive status (table 2): helpers had a lower rachis width compared to dominant
 255 breeders (table 2), however non-helping subordinates did not differ in rachis width from dominant
 256 breeders (table 2). The presence of tail moult was negatively related to rachis width (table 2).

257

258 Table 3 Summary of the generalized linear mixed model testing the effect of age (years) on tail
 259 feather barbule density in the Seychelles warbler. ‘Within age’ represents the within-individual
 260 ageing component, while ‘between age’ is the among-individual component. The 95% CI is reported
 261 in the table. Significant terms have p-values in bold (p<0.05).

262

263

Centred Barbule Count

Predictors	Estimates	95% CI	p
(Intercept)	-0.56	-3.73 – 2.62	0.73
Within age	0.01	-0.09 – 0.11	0.83
Between age	-0.0002	-0.07 – 0.07	0.99
Sex estimate	0.22	-0.22 – 0.67	0.32
Body mass/ tarsus	0.63	-4.48 – 5.75	0.81
Reproductive status (Helper)	0.17	-0.71 – 1.06	0.70
Reproductive status (Subordinate)	-0.21	-0.73 – 0.29	0.39
Invertebrate availability	-0.01	-0.17 – 0.14	0.85
Tail moult presence	0.13	-0.26 – 0.53	0.51
Random Effects			

σ^2	0.79
τ_{00} BirdID	0.18
τ_{00} BirthYear	0.02
ICC	0.21
N _{BirdID}	58
N _{BirthYear}	15
Observations	128
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.034 / 0.236

264

265

266 Discussion

267 We investigated how three tail feather quality indices (rachis width, mass-to-length ratio and
268 barbule density) changed with age in a closed population of Seychelles warblers. We found that the
269 patterns of change with age across the three feather quality indices were not consistent. Within-
270 individual age-related increases in mass-to-length ratio suggested birds produced feathers with
271 higher quality as they grow older, since higher mass-to-length ratio is associated with feathers that
272 are more resistant to wear and have better bending stiffness (Kiat & Sapir, 2018; Muñoz, Aparicio &
273 Bonal, 2011). In contrast to mass-to-length ratio, rachis width showed within-individual reduction
274 with age, suggesting that feather quality declined with age. Finally, barbule density was not
275 observed to improve or decline with age. Together, these contrasting patterns suggest that different
276 components of feather quality may age differently, and there is no unified pattern of ageing in tail
277 feather quality in the Seychelles warblers.

278

279 When compared to existing research, our results both aligned and differed from existing patterns in
280 the literature. The majority of studies found age-related declines in feather length or mass,
281 suggesting deterioration in feather quality with age (tail feather: Moullec, Reichert & Bize, 2023;
282 Adámková, Tomášek & Albrecht, 2022; Balbontín & Møller, 2015; wing feather Šliž, 2022), while
283 only one study found increases of tail feather length with age (Szép et al., 2019). Compared to the
284 aforementioned studies, our study differs by using mass-to-length ratio, a more direct indicator of
285 feather quality than either feather mass or feather length. Thus, may present a more accurate
286 measure of feather quality than those used in the prior studies. There are very few studies on rachis
287 width ageing. The only study using rachis width to our knowledge found that increases in rachis
288 width arises from selective appearance than within-individual ageing (Szép et al., 2019). Evidence for
289 age-related changes in barbule density remains limited and inconsistent. House sparrows (*Passer*
290 *domesticus*) and ten species of new world warblers displayed age related improvements in barbule
291 density due to trade-offs with growth before fledging (Butler, Rohwer & Speidel, 2008; Vágási et al.,
292 2011). Our lack of trend in barbule density could be due to the much lower sample size compared to

293 the other two metrics in our study, and thus lower statistical power. However, compared to our
294 study, inferences for late life changes in barbule density are limited for the prior studies, as both did
295 not investigate older age declines but rather compared between juvenile and adult age classes.

296

297 Additionally, the opposite ageing patterns of mass-to-length ratio and rachis width (Figure 2 & 3)
298 were unexpected, as mass-to-length ratio is expected to be positively correlated with rachis width
299 and barbule density (Kiat & Sapir, 2018). These inconsistent patterns may indicate potential trade-
300 offs between different feather quality aspects, or that certain aspects of feather quality are more
301 important for flight and feather function in the warbler. As Seychelles warblers demonstrate moult
302 breeding overlap (De Ruyck & Koper, 2025), and we do not have constant year round data collection,
303 we could not control for the amount of feather wear and time since previous moult. As feather wear
304 increases with feather age and use, this may have impacted the measurement of feather quality
305 (Kiat et al., 2025), and may have caused noise or variation in the measurements. Without
306 investigating how direct flight performance correlates with age, it is difficult to understand the
307 combined impact of the age-dependent changes in the feather quality indices we observe. Overall,
308 the lack of consistent ageing pattern across our results and past studies makes it difficult to conclude
309 whether age-related changes in feather quality is a potential mechanistic explanation for
310 reproductive and survival senescence in the warbler, and whether they influence flight ability.

311

312 Other variables apart from age were observed to affect feather quality in the Seychelles warbler.
313 Warblers in better body condition produced feathers with higher mass-to-length ratio (Table 1).
314 Similarly, the only study to our knowledge on House sparrows found that mass-to-length ratio was
315 condition dependent (Vágási et al., 2012). However, we did not find this to be true for both rachis
316 width and barbule density in the warbler. Additionally, barbule density might be a better quality
317 indicator in body feathers than in tail feathers since feather density is shown to be an important
318 factor to insulation (Pap et al., 2017), thus may be less important to maintain in tail feathers. This
319 may indicate that feather mass-to-length ratio may be more costly to maintain than the other
320 metrics, or mass-to-length ratio may be more instrumental to good feather quality, thus warblers
321 invest more energy into improving mass-to-length ratio than rachis width and barbule density.

322

323 In the Seychelles warbler, while males tended to have higher feather quality (Table 1 & 2), we did
324 not find sex specific ageing patterns in any of the feather quality measures (Table S1-3). Likewise,
325 the only study to our knowledge on alpine swifts did not observe sex specific patterns for ageing in
326 tail length, but rather sex differences in selective disappearance (Moullec, Reichert & Bize, 2023).

327 While sex differences in ageing are well documented in many species (Clutton-Brock & Isvaran,
328 2007), warblers do not demonstrate sex specific differences in survival senescence (Hammers et al.,
329 2013), thus we may also expect no sex differences in feather quality ageing.

330

331 One possible reason for the lack of ageing in tail feather quality may be a potential low cost of moult
332 in the Seychelles warbler. Flight apparatus may be less costly to maintain in the sedentary Seychelles
333 warblers compared to long-distance migratory bird species. Although the flight apparatus of
334 Seychelles warbler does not differ from other migratory Acrocephalus warblers (Komdeur et al.,
335 2004), Seychelles warblers do not undertake long flights nor migrate, but rather only use flights for
336 foraging, fighting, or gathering nest material. These usually involve short flights, as warblers are
337 territorial and are mostly active within their territories. The warblers also live in an environment
338 with little to no predation on adults (Hammers et al., 2015; Komdeur, 1996), potentially signifying
339 that flight ability is less important for escaping predation. If warblers rely less on flight ability,
340 survival may not be affected by poorer flight apparatus, thus they may be able to invest less energy
341 in moulting compared to species flying longer distances. Most past studies demonstrating feather
342 quality declines were conducted were on migratory species, where the energetic trade-offs between
343 molting and survival or reproduction may be more pronounced and lead to production of poorer
344 feathers or faster ageing of feather quality (de la Hera, Perez-Tris & Telleria, 2009). Finally, moulting
345 is very energetically costly. Birds with overlapping breeding and moulting produced poorer quality
346 feathers than individuals just moulting (Echeverry-Galvis & Hau, 2013; Tsuru & Tonra, 2026). Thus
347 bird species in general avoid breeding and moulting at the same time (De Ruyck & Koper, 2025).
348 However, Seychelles warblers demonstrate moult-breeding overlap (Komdeur, 1994), further
349 supporting a potential low cost of moult and maintaining feather quality in the warbler.

350

351 An alternative explanation to moulting not being of high cost to SW, is birds may be able to trade-off
352 keeping high quality feathers with other life-history traits (Podlaszczuk et al., 2016). The limited
353 evidence for feather quality ageing in the warblers may indicate that given that feathers are vital for
354 bird survival, a bird may allocate more energy to produce high quality feathers instead of investing in
355 other functions or traits. A similar conclusion was drawn by a study on a different trait in common
356 gulls (*Larus canus*), which found that individuals prioritize maintaining an important trait over
357 reproduction in older age where increased lifespan correlates positively with lifetime fitness
358 (Brommer & Rattiste, 2008; Urvik et al., 2019). Great tits (*Parus major*) in lower quality urban areas
359 were also not seen to show differences in tail feather structure compared to great tits in higher

360 quality rural areas, suggesting birds may invest more in tail feather quality to maximize flight and
361 maneuverability (Sándor et al. 2022).

362

363 This paper tested for ageing in a feather quality, a morphological trait essential to survival and
364 fitness in birds. To our knowledge, this is the first study investigating ageing in this trait in a tropical,
365 non-migratory wild bird. While we expected ageing in this trait, the lack of consistent ageing
366 patterns across feather quality indices in the Seychelles warbler, and indeed the lack of consensus in
367 feather quality ageing across species, suggests we have limited understanding of processes
368 underlying feather quality ageing such as energy demands and trade-offs involved in plumage
369 maintenance in birds. Our results highlights the need for further research on how energetic trade-
370 offs between morphological traits and life history traits contributes to ageing.

371

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379 sampling.

380

381 **Author contributions**

382 CLST designed the study with input from HLD. CLST compiled data, performed analysis and wrote the
383 manuscript. HLD, DSR, JK and TAB acquired funding. DSR and HLD provided feedback on the analysis.
384 All authors provided critical feedback and edited the manuscript. DSR, JK, TB and HLD coordinated
385 the long term study.

386

387 **Ethics statement**

388 Fieldwork was carried out in accordance with local ethical regulations and agreements (UEA ethics
389 approval ID ETH2223-0186). Fieldwork and export of samples were approved by the Seychelles
390 Department of Environment and the Seychelles Bureau of Standards.

391

392 **Conflict of interest statement**

393 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

394

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401

402 **Data Availability Statement**

403 All data and code are available on the github repository: <https://github.com/ClairetIs/feather-proj>

404

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615

616

617 **Supplementary material**

618 Table S1 Summary statistics for Generalized linear mixed models for mass-to-length ratio with age of tail feathers in the Seychelles warbler. The leftmost is
 619 the full model, then the model removing the square interaction, and finally removing both interactions on the rightmost. The reference level for
 620 reproductive status is dominant breeders and females for sex.

Predictors	Mass-to-length ratio								
	Estimates	95% CI	p	Estimates	95% CI	p	Estimates	95% CI	p
(Intercept)	0.0874	0.0628 – 0.1121	< 0.001	0.0868	0.0623 – 0.1113	< 0.001	0.0865	0.0624 – 0.1106	< 0.001
Age	0.0014	-0.0008 – 0.0036	0.219	0.0018	0.0002 – 0.0035	0.027	0.0019	0.0003 – 0.0034	0.021
Sex Estimate (Males)	0.0042	-0.0009 – 0.0092	0.105	0.0049	0.0007 – 0.0092	0.024	0.0052	0.0018 – 0.0085	0.002
Age ²	-0.0000	-0.0002 – 0.0001	0.822	-0.0001	-0.0002 – 0.0000	0.251	-0.0001	-0.0002 – 0.0000	0.254
Lifespan	-0.0000	-0.0000 – -0.0000	0.043	-0.0000	-0.0000 – -0.0000	0.046	-0.0000	-0.0000 – -0.0000	0.046
Body mass /tarsus	0.0500	0.0080 – 0.0920	0.020	0.0497	0.0078 – 0.0917	0.020	0.0500	0.0084 – 0.0917	0.019
Rachis width (centred)	-0.0005	-0.0021 – 0.0010	0.510	-0.0005	-0.0021 – 0.0010	0.486	-0.0005	-0.0021 – 0.0010	0.483
Reproductive status (helper)	-0.0029	-0.0093 – 0.0035	0.375	-0.0026	-0.0089 – 0.0037	0.421	-0.0025	-0.0088 – 0.0037	0.425
Reproductive status (subordinate)	-0.0023	-0.0070 – 0.0023	0.327	-0.0022	-0.0069 – 0.0024	0.347	-0.0022	-0.0069 – 0.0024	0.341
Insect availability	-0.0005	-0.0011 – 0.0001	0.075	-0.0005	-0.0011 – 0.0001	0.081	-0.0005	-0.0011 – 0.0001	0.077
Tail moult presence	0.0007	-0.0026 – 0.0039	0.687	0.0007	-0.0025 – 0.0040	0.650	0.0007	-0.0025 – 0.0040	0.647
Age × Sex estimate	0.0007	-0.0016 – 0.0029	0.561	0.0001	-0.0008 – 0.0009	0.878			
Sex estimate × Age ²	-0.0001	-0.0002 – 0.0001	0.572						
Random Effects									
σ^2	0.00			0.00			0.00		
τ_{00}	0.00	BirdID		0.00	BirdID		0.00	BirdID	
	0.00	BirthYear		0.00	BirthYear		0.00	BirthYear	
N	116	BirdID		116	BirdID		116	BirdID	
	19	BirthYear		19	BirthYear		19	BirthYear	
Observations	209			209			209		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.231 / NA			0.231 / NA			0.232 / NA		

621 Table S2 Summary statistics table for 3 Rachis width models. Leftmost model corresponds to the full model with both age and age squared terms and
622 corresponding sex interactions, the middle panel corresponds to the model for removing the non significant sex * age squared interaction, and the third
623 model with both interactions removed. The reference level for reproductive status is dominant breeders and females for sex.

Rachis Width

Predictors	Estimates	95% CI	p	Estimates	95% CI	p	Estimates	95% CI	p
Intercept	-1.7014	-4.2062 – 0.8034	0.182	-1.5985	-4.0912 – 0.8942	0.207	-1.5709	-4.0328 – 0.8909	0.210
Age	-0.0908	-0.2956 – 0.1141	0.383	-0.1533	-0.3026 – -0.0040	0.044	-0.1560	-0.3009 – -0.0112	0.035
Sex (Males)	0.6908	0.2359 – 1.1458	0.003	0.5852	0.1970 – 0.9734	0.003	0.5659	0.2657 – 0.8660	<0.001
Age squared	-0.0014	-0.0168 – 0.0140	0.860	0.0042	-0.0050 – 0.0133	0.371	0.0041	-0.0050 – 0.0131	0.376
Lifespan	0.0002	0.0000 – 0.0003	0.036	0.0002	0.0000 – 0.0003	0.041	0.0002	0.0000 – 0.0003	0.040
Body Mass/Tarsus	3.3439	-0.5231 – 7.2109	0.090	3.4100	-0.4518 – 7.2718	0.083	3.3832	-0.4540 – 7.2204	0.084
Reproductive Status (Helper)	-0.5895	-1.1706 – -0.0084	0.047	-0.6363	-1.2075 – -0.0651	0.029	-0.6400	-1.2078 – -0.0721	0.027
Reproductive Status (Subordinate)	-0.0537	-0.4807 – 0.3733	0.804	-0.0699	-0.4951 – 0.3553	0.746	-0.0681	-0.4916 – 0.3554	0.752
Invertebrate availability	-0.0147	-0.0694 – 0.0399	0.596	-0.0170	-0.0714 – 0.0375	0.539	-0.0167	-0.0708 – 0.0375	0.545
Mass-to-length ratio	-4.3019	-17.1693 – 8.5655	0.510	-4.5518	-17.3992 – 8.2956	0.486	-4.5634	-17.3779 – 8.2511	0.483
Tail moult presence	-0.4353	-0.7259 – -0.1447	0.004	-0.4483	-0.7372 – -0.1593	0.003	-0.4487	-0.7368 – -0.1606	0.002
Age × Sex estimate	-0.0892	-0.2907 – 0.1122	0.383	-0.0060	-0.0822 – 0.0702	0.877			
Age ² × Sex estimate	0.0073	-0.0090 – 0.0235	0.380						
Random Effects									
σ^2	0.88			0.88			0.88		
τ_{00}	0.00	BirdID		0.00	BirdID		0.00	BirdID	
	0.00	BirthYear		0.00	BirthYear		0.00	BirthYear	
N	116	BirdID		116	BirdID		116	BirdID	
	19	BirthYear		19	BirthYear		19	BirthYear	
Observations	209			209			209		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.182 / NA			0.180 / NA			0.181 / NA		

625 Table S3. Summary statistics for the generalized linear mixed models for barbule density with age. Leftmost model corresponds to the full model with both
 626 age and age squared terms and corresponding sex interactions, the middle panel corresponds to the model for removing the non significant sex * age
 627 squared interaction, and the third model with both interactions removed. The reference level for reproductive status is dominant breeders and females for
 628 sex.

Centred Barbule Count

Predictors	Estimates	95% CI	p	Estimates	95% CI	p	Estimates	95% CI	p
(Intercept)	-0.3560	-3.5071 – 2.7951	0.823	-0.3695	-3.5229 – 2.7839	0.817	-0.3636	-3.4986 – 2.7715	0.819
Within age	-0.4441	-1.0300 – 0.1419	0.136	-0.2442	-0.6174 – 0.1291	0.198	-0.2358	-0.5127 – 0.0412	0.094
Sex estimate (Males)	0.2035	-0.2375 – 0.6445	0.363	0.1684	-0.2658 – 0.6027	0.444	0.1685	-0.2649 – 0.6018	0.443
Within age ²	0.0541	-0.0180 – 0.1262	0.140	0.0246	-0.0020 – 0.0511	0.069	0.0246	-0.0013 – 0.0506	0.063
Average age	-0.0122	-0.0793 – 0.0548	0.718	-0.0107	-0.0776 – 0.0563	0.753	-0.0105	-0.0772 – 0.0562	0.756
Body mass/tarsus	0.5343	-4.5334 – 5.6020	0.835	0.5846	-4.4867 – 5.6559	0.820	0.5713	-4.4623 – 5.6050	0.823
Reproductive status (Helper)	-0.2651	-1.2230 – 0.6928	0.585	-0.1914	-1.1395 – 0.7568	0.690	-0.1836	-1.1236 – 0.7565	0.700
Reproductive status (Subordinate)	-0.3540	-0.8706 – 0.1627	0.177	-0.3225	-0.8359 – 0.1908	0.216	-0.3195	-0.8293 – 0.1902	0.217
Insect availability	-0.0331	-0.1861 – 0.1198	0.669	-0.0368	-0.1894 – 0.1158	0.634	-0.0369	-0.1888 – 0.1150	0.631
Tail moult presence	0.1537	-0.2475 – 0.5549	0.449	0.1577	-0.2428 – 0.5581	0.437	0.1584	-0.2376 – 0.5543	0.430
WithinAge × Sex estimate	0.2402	-0.3737 – 0.8540	0.440	0.0094	-0.3064 – 0.3252	0.953			
SexEstimate × WithinAge ²	-0.0331	-0.1086 – 0.0424	0.387						
Random Effects									
σ^2	0.81			0.80			0.79		
τ_{00}	0.14	BirdID		0.15	BirdID		0.15	BirdID	
	0.02	BirthYear		0.02	BirthYear		0.02	BirthYear	
ICC	0.17			0.17			0.18		
N	58	BirdID		58	BirdID		58	BirdID	
	15	BirthYear		15	BirthYear		15	BirthYear	
Observations	128			128			128		
Marginal R ² / Conditional R ²	0.071 / 0.227			0.068 / 0.231			0.068 / 0.235		

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