

1 **Title:** Telomere length in house sparrows increases in early-life and can be paternally inherited

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3 **Running title:** Paternal inheritance of telomere length

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15 **Abstract:**

16 Offspring of older parents in many species display decreased longevity, a faster ageing rate and  
17 lower fecundity than offspring born to younger parents. Biomarkers, such as telomeres, that tend to  
18 shorten as individual age, may provide insight into the mechanisms of parental age effects. Parental  
19 age could determine telomere length either through inheritance of shortened telomeres or through  
20 indirect effects, such as variation in parental care with parent ages, which in turn might lead to  
21 variation in offspring telomere length. There is no current consensus as to the heritability of  
22 telomere length, and the direction and extent of parental age effects however. To address this, here  
23 we experimentally investigate how parental age is associated with telomere length at two time  
24 points in early life in a captive population of house sparrows (*Passer domesticus*). We  
25 experimentally separated parental age from sex effects by allowing the parent birds to only mate  
26 with young, or old partners. We found that telomere length of the offspring increased between the  
27 age of 0.5 and 3 months at the group and individual level, which has been reported previously  
28 predominantly in non-avian taxa. We further show that older fathers produced daughters with a  
29 greater early-life increase in telomere length, supporting sex-specific inheritance, and or sex-  
30 specific non-genetic effects. Overall, our results highlight the need for more studies testing early-  
31 life telomere dynamics and sex-specific heritability of telomere length.

32 **Key words:** telomere dynamics, ageing, inter-generational effects, z-linked inheritance,  
33 transgenerational effects, Lansing effect

34 ***Introduction***

35 Parent age at conception is often associated with their offspring's' life-history, with offspring of  
36 older parents commonly having reduced reproductive success and longevity (Heidinger et al., 2016;  
37 Priest et al., 2002; Schroeder et al., 2015). Moreover, in some species, offspring of older parents  
38 experience higher rates of senescence, cellular ageing, and decreased longevity compared to their  
39 older siblings (Bouwhuis et al., 2010; Broer et al., 2013; Torres et al., 2011). While some studies do  
40 not find such effects (Froy et al., 2017; Unryn et al., 2005), the associations are reported across a  
41 wide range of taxa from rotifers (King, 1983) and insects (Priest et al., 2002) to birds and mammals  
42 (Bize et al., 2009; Haussmann et al., 2003b), and is termed the Lansing effect (Lansing, 1947).

43 The relative length of telomeres, the chromosome capping structures consisting of TTAGGG base  
44 pair repeats, is associated with biological age and longevity (Heidinger et al., 2012; Mather et al.,  
45 2011; Vedder et al., 2021). Telomeres partly function to prevent DNA damage from reactive  
46 oxygen species (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008). The activity levels of telomerase, the RNA-protein  
47 complex responsible for ligating TTAGGG repeats, decline rapidly in early life and are tissue  
48 specific (Taylor and Delany, 2000). Together this leads to a gradual telomere shortening over an  
49 individual's lifetime (Aubert and Lansdorp, 2008; Finkel and Holbrook, 2000), which is why  
50 telomere length is often used as a biomarker for biological age (Mather et al., 2011; Zglinicki and  
51 Martin-Ruiz, 2005). However, whether there is a direct causal link between telomere length and an  
52 individual's age remains unclear (Boonekamp et al., 2013; Simons, 2015).

53 In birds, telomere loss is fastest in early-life and an initially longer telomere length is associated  
54 with longer subsequent lifespans in captive (Reichert et al., 2013; Wilbourn et al., 2018) and wild  
55 (Haussmann et al., 2003a; Heidinger et al., 2016; Reed et al., 2008; Richardson et al., 2001;  
56 Salomons et al., 2009; Vedder et al. 2021) bird populations. There is evidence for telomere length  
57 being heritable in birds (Vedder et al., 2021), and telomere dynamics have been associated with sex-  
58 specific parental age and telomere length (Asghar et al., 2015; Horn et al., 2011; Reichert et al.,  
59 2015; Salomons et al., 2009). This suggests that indeed, some Lansing-type effects may be inherited  
60 via telomere length. However, the direction of the association between telomere length, and  
61 maternal and paternal age varies even within bird species (Dugdale and Richardson, 2018). In birds,  
62 the offspring of older mothers may have shorter telomeres and a faster attrition rate, especially in  
63 early development (Asghar et al., 2015; Salomons et al., 2009). Conversely, negative associations  
64 between paternal age and offspring telomere length have been observed in the absence of maternal  
65 correlation (Horn et al., 2011).

66 Between taxa, studies on the heritability of telomere length are conflicting. The heritability of  
67 telomere length can be sex-specific and is often larger in the heterogametic sex; suggesting some  
68 degree of maternal inheritance in birds (Asghar et al., 2015; Horn et al., 2011; Reichert et al., 2015)  
69 and paternal inheritance in humans (Eisenberg et al., 2017; Njajou et al., 2007; Nordfjäll et al.,  
70 2009). However, homogametic inheritance of telomere length has also been found in humans (Broer  
71 et al., 2013), in some bird species (Bauch et al., 2019; Bouwhuis et al., 2018), and in lizards (Olsson  
72 et al., 2011). A sex-specific lack of heritability has also been found in several bird species (Atema et  
73 al., 2015; Heidinger et al., 2012; Kucera, 2018). Overall, parental age effects on offspring telomere  
74 length, dynamics and heritability are complex, and vary in extent and direction of impact within and  
75 between taxa.

76 Here, we test for sex-specific, age-related parental effects on offspring telomere dynamics in  
77 captive house sparrows *Passer domesticus*. By pairing different age categories of parent birds, we  
78 experimentally test the hypothesis that offspring of older parents have shorter telomeres and faster  
79 telomere attrition rates than offspring from younger parents.

## 80 **Methods:**

### 81 ***Study species and experimental design:***

82 We used captive house sparrows at the Max Planck Institute for Ornithology, Seewiesen, Germany,  
83 during the breeding season of 2014. We used 42 pairs of male and female sparrows, which were  
84 assigned to four treatments, each with an equal sex ratio and a uniform distribution of ages across  
85 both sexes to control for age-assortative mating. We experimentally bred pairs in one of four age  
86 combinations: old-female/ old-male (OO, n=8 pairs), old-female/ young-male (OM, n=11 pairs),  
87 young-female/ old-male (YO, n=13 pairs), and young-female/ young-male (YY, n=10 pairs). Young  
88 birds hatched the preceding summer. Old (O) was defined as sparrows aged 4 years and older,  
89 although most individuals were 7 years or older (Males: 8 years = 2, 9 years = 21; Females: 4 years  
90 = 1, 7 years= 10, 8 years= 4, and 9 years= 1). The difference in age distribution between females  
91 and males corresponded to that observed in the wild, where females live shorter than  
92 males (Schroeder et al., 2012). We did not use the middle aged groups because in wild house  
93 sparrows, reproductive senescence may start at 3 years for females (Schroeder et al., 2012), or 5  
94 years in males (Hsu et al. 2017). Each treatment group was replicated twice in two separate  
95 breeding groups located in separate aviaries. Each replicate aviary contained  $15.3 \pm 4.9$  (mean  $\pm$  s.d.)  
96 males and  $14.6 \pm 2.4$  females of the respective age class. Bird husbandry is described in Girndt et al.  
97 (2017).

98 Each replicate aviary was equipped with one more nest box than breeding pairs to reduce male-male  
99 competition for nest boxes. Sparrows were then allowed to naturally display, form pair bonds,  
100 choose a mate restricted by the age class present, and raise their young (Girndt et al, 2018). We  
101 systematically monitored breeding and identified the parents attending each nest box by observing  
102 the individual birds' colour ring combinations.

103 ***Blood sample collection:***

104 We took blood samples from chicks 0.5 months after they hatched (n= 75). After fledging, offspring  
105 remained in the same aviary as their parents and siblings, and 2.5 months later were blood sampled  
106 again (n=59). Blood samples were collected from the brachial vein of offspring using 1mm  
107 capillary tubes and stored in 1ml of 96% ethanol. We collected samples of 56 individuals at both  
108 0.5 and 3 months to test for within-individual changes.

109 ***DNA extraction and quantification:***

110 Following standard DNA extraction (Richardson et al., 2001), we measured the DNA concentration  
111 of the samples using a ThermoScientific NanoDrop8000 Spectrophotometer and standardised the  
112 concentration in our samples to 20-30ng/ml to ensure equal amplification of samples during qPCR.  
113 Where necessary, samples were diluted with T10E0.1 (10mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 0.1mM EDTA, pH  
114 8.0) or concentrated using a ThermoScientific Savant DNA SpeedVac Concentrator.

115 ***Estimation of telomere length:***

116 We used multiplex qPCR to determine relative telomere length. We determined 'T' as the number  
117 of telomere repeats and 'S' as the number of control gene repeats. We then used the T/S ratio as a  
118 proxy for telomere length. The four DNA primers we used are described in Criscuolo et al. (2009).  
119 We used DNA from house sparrows not included in this analysis as standards at five DNA  
120 concentrations of 80, 20, 5, 1.25 and 0.31ng/ml, on each plate. We then used these standards to  
121 produce a standard curve for all analysed samples. In each well we added 1.5µl of DNA sample,  
122 0.9µl of each primer, 10µl of Sybr®Select Master Mix and 4.9µl ddH<sub>2</sub>O. We ran each plate with an  
123 equal number of 0.5 and 3 months sample pairs from the same individual to account for any  
124 potential sample and plate effects when comparing within-individual changes in telomere length.  
125 We ran 42 samples, the five standards and a negative (with all components except a DNA sample)  
126 in duplicate on each 96-well plate. We ran the qPCR cycling conditions using QuantStudio 12kFlex  
127 Software v1.2.2 following the cycle timings given in Cawthon (2009). We analysed the software  
128 output to calculate the T/S ratio in each sample (Appendix 1.1). We altered the thresholds for the  
129 standard curve of the telomere and GAPDH primers for each plate to optimise amplification  
130 efficiencies to between a standard of 95-110. Efficiencies for each plate were between 99.3-99.7 for

131 GAPDH and 99.3-105.8 for telc and telg. The standard curve for each plate had an  $R^2$  of 0.99 and  
132 the intra- and inter-plate variation coefficients all met adequate levels (Cawthon, 2009). We also ran  
133 a melt curve to examine whether the expected two products were generated in the reaction.  
134 Additionally, we checked all plate amplification curves to see if DNA was present in the control, as  
135 this would indicate contamination. In all plates DNA was absent, or present only in very low levels  
136 in negatives, apart from very late amplification due to primer dimerization. We repeated any sample  
137 duplicates that had a standard deviation of  $>0.05$  following thresholding and used the mean T/S  
138 ratio of duplicates in our analysis. T/S ratios of offspring at 0.5 months old are referred to as T/S<sub>0.5</sub>  
139 and samples at 3 months old T/S<sub>3</sub> in our analyses. We then calculated the difference between the  
140 two measurements as  $\Delta T/S$ . All samples were analysed for telomere length at the same time and had  
141 a similar shelf time (Lieshout et al., 2020). All reagents and equipment were produced by Thermo  
142 Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts, US.

143 ***Ethical Note:***

144 The Government of Upper Bavaria, Germany, approved the care, handling and husbandry of all  
145 birds in this study and granted a license for animal experiments to JS (Nr311.5–5682.1/1-2014-  
146 024).

147 ***Statistical Analysis:***

148 Next, we tested for a change in telomere length over the 2.5 months period by running a linear  
149 mixed-effects model (LMM) with T/S as response variable, time of sampling (0.5 months or 3  
150 months) as an explanatory fixed factor, and individual chick ID as a random effect on the intercept.  
151 Then we tested whether telomere lengths in offspring were more variable at either 0.5, or 3 months  
152 using a two-tailed F-test. Next, we ran two further LMMs with the response variable T/S<sub>0.5</sub> and  
153 T/S<sub>3</sub>, respectively. For each model we tested the fixed effects of the paternal and maternal age  
154 categories (either ‘young’ or ‘old’). To test for sex-specific parental effects, we included offspring  
155 sex as a categorical variable (with ‘male’ as the reference level) and an interaction of chick sex with  
156 parental age in the T/S<sub>0.5</sub> model. Because not all chicks were sampled at exactly 3 months after  
157 hatching (mean $\pm$ s.d.= 100.8 days $\pm$ 8.4), we also tested for an effect of the exact age in days of  
158 offspring in T/S<sub>3</sub> with a LMM with T/S<sub>3</sub> as the response variable, and ‘sample age’ as an  
159 explanatory covariate. We found that ‘sample age’ did not have a statistically significant effect on  
160 T/S<sub>3</sub> (posterior mode= -0.001, 95% credible interval= -0.01, 0.001, pMCMC=0.809). Still, to  
161 account for any potential bias we retained ‘sample age’ as a fixed effect in the T/S<sub>3</sub> model.

162 As the 0.5 months samples were a mix of newly-, and already-extracted DNA samples, we also  
163 tested whether time of extraction had any effect on the calculated T/S ratio as a result of DNA

164 degradation (Madisen et al., 1987) (n samples newly-extracted= 10 out of 75). We fitted a LMM  
165 with T/S<sub>0.5</sub> as the response and the time of extraction as a fixed factor, either ‘newly-’ or ‘already-  
166 extracted’. We found no statistically significant difference between newly-, and already-extracted  
167 samples (posterior mode= -0.06, 95% credible interval= -0.20, 0.08, pMCMC=0.389).

168 We included the nest box ID and aviary ID in which chicks were born as random effects on the  
169 intercept in all models to account for variance between broods and aviaries. We also included the  
170 random term of qPCR plate ID in all models to account for between-plate variance on the intercept.  
171 All models were run using the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) method in the R package  
172 MCMCglmm v.2.29 (Hadfield, 2010).

### 173 ***Model validation:***

174 As we used a Bayesian modelling approach, we deemed fixed terms to be statistically significant if  
175 their 95% credible intervals (95CI) did not span zero, and we also report MCMC-p-values  
176 (pMCMC) (Hadfield, 2010). All terms were retained in models irrespective of their statistical  
177 significance. We directly assessed model autocorrelation for fixed and random effects to ensure the  
178 risk of type I errors was not inflated. We also inspected iteration and density plots to ensure that  
179 effects showed equal variation around a constant mode and demonstrated convergence (Gelman and  
180 Hill, 2006; Hadfield, 2010). We examined collinearity of fixed effects, as collinearity could distort  
181 model results, which did not exceed 0.7 (Dormann et al., 2013). We ran all models for 100,000  
182 iterations with a thinning interval of 10 and used default priors. All statistical analyses were carried  
183 out in R v.3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019)

### 184 ***Results:***

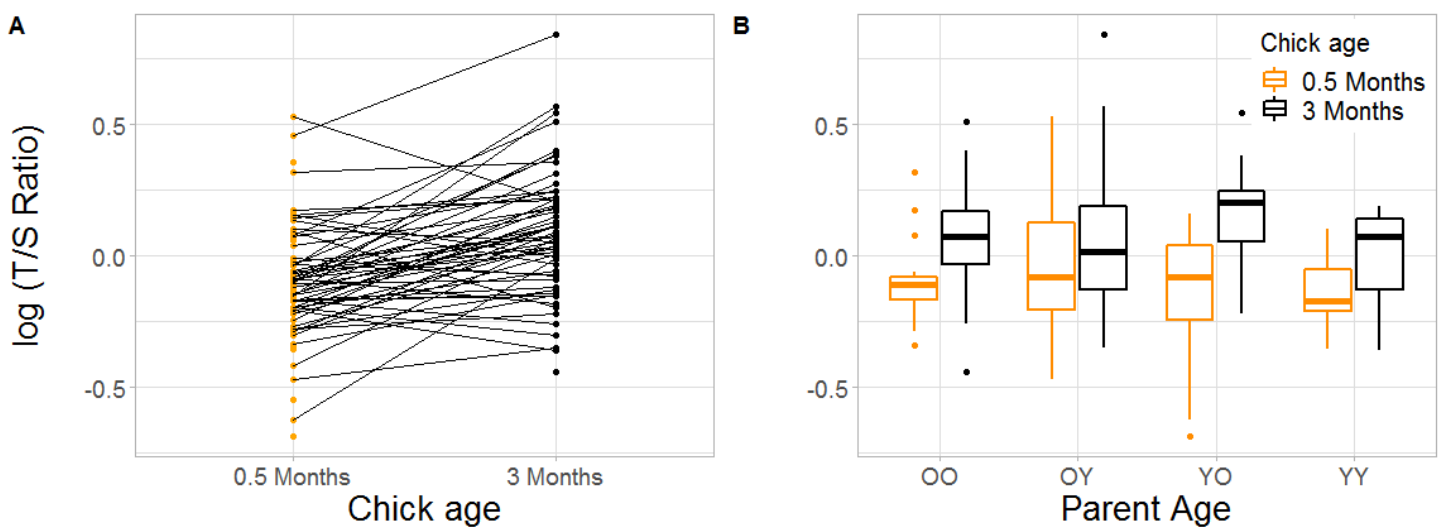
185 Unexpectedly, the telomere length for offspring increased within 80% of individuals between 0.5  
186 and 3 months of age (n = 45/56) for those where both measurements were available. On average,  
187 the difference between T/S<sub>0.5</sub> and T/S<sub>3</sub> was statistically significantly positive (Figure 1 and Table 1).  
188 Further, as chicks aged, they varied more in their telomere lengths; there was greater variance in  
189 T/S<sub>3</sub> than in T/S<sub>0.5</sub> (coefficient of variance (CV)<sub>±s.e.</sub>: 0.5 months: 0.22±0.02, n=75, 3 months:  
190 0.27±0.02, n=59; F-test: F=0.43, p<0.01).

191 **Table 1:** Results from a Bayesian MCMC linear mixed-effects model testing the difference  
192 between telomere length in house sparrow chicks at 0.5 and 3 months of age.

193

	<i>Parameter</i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>95% confidence intervals</i>	<i>pMCMC</i>
194				
195	<b><i>Intercept</i></b>	<b>0.93</b>	<b>0.84 - 0.99</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
196	<b><i>Chick age</i></b>	<b>0.19</b>	<b>0.12 - 0.26</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>
	<i>Random effects</i>			
197	<i>Chick ID</i>	0.00	0.00 - 0.01	
	<i>Nest box</i>	0.02	0.01 - 0.04	
198	<i>Aviary</i>	0.00	0.00 - 0.00	
	<i>qPCR plate ID</i>	0.00	0.00 - 0.01	
199	<i>Residual</i>	0.04	0.02 - 0.05	

200 Chick age was modelled as a binary variable of either 0.5 months or 3 months, with 0.5 months as a reference level. 0.5  
 201 months: n=75 chicks, 3 months: n=59. Estimates shown are posterior modes.



202 **Figure 1:** Change in telomere length ( $\log(T/S \text{ Ratio})$ ) within house sparrow chicks at 0.5 and 3  
 203 months of age. A) Individuals are connected by a line (n offspring with samples at 0.5 months=75,  
 204 at 3 months=59). B) Boxplots show the mean (central line) and 25<sup>th</sup> and 75<sup>th</sup> percentiles (lower and  
 205 upper box bounds respectively) of the  $\log(T/S \text{ Ratio})$  within age group of the chicks' parents (Y =  
 206 <2 years old, O > 3 years old for females and >7 years old for males). T/S Ratio is presented on a  
 207 log scale to aid visualisation. YO = young mothers, old fathers (n=19, 12). OO = both parents old  
 208 (n=18, 19). OY = old mothers, young fathers (n=17, 18). YY = both parents young (n=15, 10).

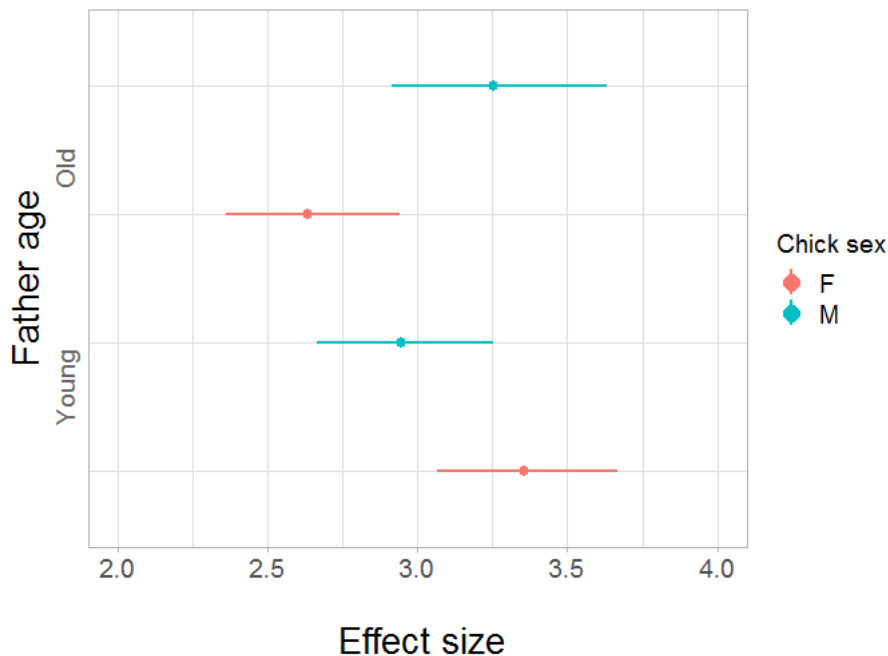
209 We did not find a statistically significant effect of parental age class on  $T/S_{0.5}$ , which is shortly  
 210 before sparrows gain independence and fledge from their nest (Table 2). However, the  $T/S_3$  model  
 211 detected statistically significant effects of paternal age, and the interaction between these two  
 212 variables. This means that daughters of young fathers had shorter telomeres than daughters of old  
 213 fathers (Table 2, Fig. 2).



214 **Table 2:** Results from two Bayesian MCMC general linear mixed-effects models with telomere  
 215 length of house sparrow chicks at age 0.5 months and 3 months as response variables, respectively.

<i>Parameter</i>	<i>T/S<sub>0.5</sub></i>			<i>T/S<sub>3</sub></i>		
	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>p<sub>MCMC</sub></i>	<i>Estimate</i>	<i>95% CI</i>	<i>p<sub>MCMC</sub></i>
<b><i>Intercept</i></b>	<b>0.97</b>	<b>0.84 - 1.10</b>	<b>&lt;0.001</b>	<b>1.57</b>	<b>0.32 - 2.71</b>	<b>0.022</b>
<i>Chick sex</i>	-0.08	-0.22 - 0.11	0.469	-0.23	-0.41 - 0.61	0.121
<i>Maternal age</i>	-0.07	-0.23 - 0.08	0.346	0.06	-0.32 - 0.21	0.711
<i>Maternal age x Chick sex</i>	0.06	-0.15 - 0.25	0.597	0.09	-0.21 - 0.43	0.573
<b><i>Paternal age</i></b>	<b>-0.03</b>	<b>-0.20 - 0.10</b>	<b>0.481</b>	<b>-0.27</b>	<b>-0.52 - 0.00</b>	<b>0.047</b>
<b><i>Paternal age x Chick sex</i></b>	<b>0.6</b>	<b>-0.07 - 0.34</b>	<b>0.168</b>	<b>-0.40</b>	<b>0.09 - 0.71</b>	<b>0.162</b>
<i>Sample day</i>				0.00	-0.01 - 0.01	0.694
<b><i>Random effects</i></b>						
<i>Nest box</i>	0.01	0.00 - 0.03		0.01	0.00 - 0.02	
<i>Aviary</i>	0.00	0.00 - 0.01		0.01	0.00 - 0.01	
<i>qPCR plate ID</i>	0.00	0.00 - 0.01		0.00	0.00 - 0.01	
<i>Residual</i>	0.08	0.03 - 0.11		0.08	0.03 - 0.11	

216 Maternal and paternal age were modelled as a binary variable of either young or old; young was <2 years old, and old  
 217 was determined as >3 years old for females and >7 years for males). 0.5 months: n=69 chicks, 3 months: n=59. The  
 218 reference level for parental ages was 'old', and the 'female' was the reference level for chick sex. Estimates shown are  
 219 posterior modes.



220  
 221 **Figure 2:** Post-hoc effect size plot from a linear mixed-effects model testing the relationship  
 222 between T/S<sub>3</sub>, father age, and sex of chicks (Table 1). Fathers were assigned an age category of  
 223 young, 'Y', or old, 'O'. A young father was <2 years old, and an old father was determined as >7  
 224 years old. Chick sex is indicated as either female, 'red', or male, 'blue'. The number of offspring in

225 each category; Y, and female=12, male=16, O, and female=16, male=15. Squares represent the  
226 model estimates effect sizes of T/S ratio for each paternal age x chick sex combination and  
227 associated lines represent 95% credible intervals (derived using the R package 'lsmeans' (Lenth,  
228 2016).

## 229 **Discussion:**

230 Individual chick telomere length increased between 0.5 and 3 months of age. This increase  
231 disagrees with much of the published literature, which generally find a decrease in telomere length  
232 in early-life (Boonekamp et al., 2014; Cerchiara et al., 2017; De Meyer et al., 2007; Hoelzl et al.,  
233 2016; Salomons et al., 2009). While a population level increase in telomere length has previously  
234 been found in some long-lived bird species (Hausmann et al., 2007; Pauliny et al., 2012), other  
235 studies have found that telomeres elongation for a proportion of chicks is more common in smaller,  
236 shorter-lived species (Brown et al., 2021; Eisenberg, 2019). For example, a study on jackdaws  
237 *Corvus monedula* found that between 5 and 30 days post-hatching, telomere lengths increased for  
238 25% of sampled offspring (Grasman et al., 2011). An increase in early-life telomere length has also  
239 been observed in non-avian taxa, including water pythons *Liasis fuscus* (Ujvari and Madsen, 2009)  
240 and European badgers *Meles meles* (van Lieshout et al., 2019). A lack of comparable published  
241 research exploring a change in telomere length using multiple time points in early life may, in part,  
242 explain the surprising nature of our observed increase in telomere length in early-life.

243 An increase in telomere length can have methodological and/or biological explanations. First, it  
244 could be due to DNA in samples degrading over time (Madisen et al., 1987; but see Seutin et al.,  
245 1991). Since we used pre-extracted DNA for the majority of 0.5 month samples, we investigated  
246 whether differential telomere degradation rates between extracted DNA and blood sample types  
247 could be a cause for the observed increase. However, we found no statistically significant difference  
248 between the telomere lengths of newly- and already-extracted samples and thus, telomere  
249 degradation is an unlikely explanation for our results.

250 Second, qPCR plates contained both 0.5 and 3 months samples, and between-plate variance was  
251 negligible in all our models, highlighting that this element of our methodology had little impact on  
252 our results. Overall, we monitored procedural efficiency throughout data collection and did not  
253 identify any other potential methodological sources of variation, and so, we are convinced that the  
254 increase in telomere length observed in our study has a biological explanation. For example,  
255 telomerase activity might have been maintained in the offspring after the first sample was taken.  
256 Indeed, two studies have shown that telomerase activity can be maintained up to five weeks post-  
257 hatching in zebra finches *Taeniopygia guttata* (Hausmann et al., 2007) and chickens *Gallus gallus*

258 (Taylor and Delany, 2000). Yet, neither of these studies assessed telomerase activity at multiple  
259 time points in the same individual's early-life post-hatching, which remains as an interesting future  
260 avenue for the field.

261 While we expected that old parents would produce offspring with shorter telomeres, as found in  
262 other short-lived bird species (Bauch et al., 2019; Criscuolo et al., 2017; Sparks et al., 2020), our  
263 experimental approach found that old fathers produced daughters with longer telomeres, but only 3  
264 months after hatching, indicating an environmental effect. Similar positive effects of parental age  
265 have also previously been found in long and short-lived bird species (Dupont et al., 2018, Asghar et  
266 al., 2015; Becker et al., 2015). Positive effects of parental age on offspring telomere length may  
267 arise from a potentially improved parental care that older individuals may be able to provide  
268 compared to inexperienced, young breeders. Again though, previous studies have found a negative  
269 effect of parental age resulting from the poorer condition of these old individuals (Bouwhuis et al.,  
270 2018; Criscuolo et al., 2017), or a lack of an effect of parental age on parental care (Nakagawa et  
271 al., 2007). Further, in some studies testing parent sex-specific effects, offspring telomere length was  
272 found to correlate only with maternal age, and only relatively soon after hatching (ten days:  
273 Reichert et al. (2015); nine days: Asghar et al. (2015)). As we found no influence of maternal age  
274 in our study, an influence of maternal age on offspring telomere length may well have been present,  
275 but already diminished below detectable levels 0.5 months after hatching.

276 While telomere lengths in offspring have been shown to be affected by an offspring's environment  
277 (Dugdale and Richardson, 2018; Lieshout et al., 2021), effects of paternal age in birds have been  
278 found to be independent of this (Bauch et al., 2019; Boonekamp et al., 2014). As such, overall, there  
279 is growing support for at least contributory paternal inheritance of telomere length in some species  
280 of birds (Bouwhuis et al., 2018; Olsson et al., 2011; this study). The combined positive effect of  
281 having an older father has been theorised to result from an upregulation of telomerase activity in  
282 sperm and a subsequent increase in gamete telomere length as males age (De Meyer et al., 2007); as  
283 such a positive association of paternal telomere length with age has also been found in humans  
284 (Kimura et al., 2008; Unryn et al., 2005). Therefore, a combination of telomerase activity in sperm  
285 in fathers, a form of Z-linked inheritance, and potential parental care benefits discussed above may  
286 explain the positive effect of increasing father age on offspring telomere lengths, with larger effects  
287 seen on daughters compared to sons as observed here.

288 However, we did not detect an effect of parental age on offspring telomere length at 0.5 months  
289 after hatching. Heidinger et al. (2016) similarly found no effect of parental age on offspring  
290 telomere length in very early-life at 25 days after hatching in European shags *Phalacrocorax*

291 *aristotelis*. Further, variation in pre-fledging telomere length may in part be explained by brood-  
292 specific additive genetic effects (Voillemot et al., 2012). As such, it may be that at later time points  
293 effects of parent age and post-fledging environmental factors appear to be more important than  
294 brood-specific effects in determining offspring telomere length. Again, there is a need for more  
295 studies investigating the relationship between paternal age and telomere dynamics to detect when  
296 and how patterns of telomere dynamics are driven.

297 In sum, our results indicate that paternal age effects are more influential on offspring telomere  
298 length than maternal age effects in our population of house sparrows, with the daughters of older  
299 fathers having longer telomeres. Future analyses of telomerase activity levels in both the sperm of  
300 adult males and the somatic tissues of offspring would yield further insights into the drivers of  
301 parental age effects on offspring telomere dynamics in early-life.

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307 No competing interests declared.

308 **Author contributions:**

309 Conceptualization: SB, JS; Methodology: SB, JS, MJPS; Validation: SB, MJPS; Formal analysis:  
310 SB, JS; Investigation: SB, AG, JS, AST; Resources: JS, MJPS, TB; Data curation: SB, JS, TB;  
311 Writing- original draft: SB; Writing- review & editing: SB, JS, AG, AST, MJPS; Visualization: SB,  
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319 **Data availability statement:**

320 The data and code are available at the Open Science Foundation through this anonymous link:  
321 [https://osf.io/6kwzh/?view\\_only=96b0d8a81ce84ba09b364e514ab0072e](https://osf.io/6kwzh/?view_only=96b0d8a81ce84ba09b364e514ab0072e). Upon acceptance of this  
322 work the data and code will be permanently hosted in a public repository and their DOI provided.

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