1 2	<u>CpG methylation frequency of TET2, GRIA2 and CDKN2A genes in the</u> <u>North Atlantic fin whale varies with age and between populations</u>
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#### ABSTRACT

Recovery rates for baleen whales that were decimated by exploitation vary 35 between species and populations. Age determination is critical for the 36 understanding of recovery trends and population structure, but determining age 37 in free-ranging individuals remains challenging. Recent research has suggested 38 that the methylation level of some genes in skin samples may provide age 39 determinations with accuracy. We selected nine CpG sites from three genes 40 41 (TET2, CDKN2A and GRIA2) and analyzed them in 40 skin samples from knownage individuals pertaining to two different populations of fin whales from the North 42 Atlantic. We observed significant correlations with age in five CpG sites. We used 43 three of these CpG sites to perform an epigenetic age estimation. Predictions had 44 a standard deviation of 2.94, but regression between observed and predicted 45 ages showed a clear underestimation for older fin whales. For further 46 development, we suggest: i) screening for new CpG sites associated with age 47 that exhibit higher variability between individuals, and ii) including older animals 48 whenever the sampling allows it. We also observed subtle, but significant 49 differences between the two populations studied in one of the CpG sites 50 (TET2 CpG+21). We attributed these differences to genetic differences or to the 51 dissimilar environments that affect both populations. 52

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KEYWORDS: cetaceans, epigenetics, marine mammals, molecular biology,
 population biology

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#### INTRODUCTION

Most baleen whale species have been subject to intense commercial exploitation 59 for hundreds of years and particularly during the 20<sup>th</sup> century, when catches 60 dramatically intensified (Clapham & Baker, 2018; Rocha et al., 2014). Whaling 61 led to the depletion of many large whale populations worldwide until the 62 International Whaling Commission (IWC) implemented management regulations 63 that eventually led to the establishment of a moratorium on commercial whaling 64 65 that started in 1985-86 (Clapham & Baker, 2018). Since then, recovery of harvested populations has been unequal among regions and species and this 66 highlighted the need for case-by-case monitoring and for a better understanding 67 of population biology. In this context, substantial efforts have been invested in 68 determining population structure and abundance, and in developing techniques 69 that, in the absence of catches, might allow the determination of the main 70 biological traits of individuals, such as sex, reproductive status, and age. 71

Age is critical to assess some basic population parameters such as somatic 72 growth rate, physical maturation, age at onset of reproductive activity, longevity, 73 74 or survival. In baleen whales, diverse techniques have been used to determine age. The one most widely applied, and considered to be the most reliable, has 75 76 been the determination of the number of laminations or growth layer groups in 77 the earplug, a structure located in the ear canal that is composed of successive depositions of wax and keratin that build up in layers over time. Early research 78 79 demonstrated that one growth layer group is formed every year in most species 80 (Lockyer, 1984). Counting of growth layer groups has been extensively used to obtain highly accurate age estimates in fin (Balaenoptera physalus) and sei 81 whales (Balaenoptera borealis), but the technique has not worked well in other 82

mysticete species such as blue (Balaenoptera musculus) or minke whales 83 84 (Balaenoptera acutorostrata) (Lockver, 1984). Other techniques, such as the degree of racemization of aspartic acid in eye globes (George et al., 1999; Olsen 85 & Sunde, 2002; Yasunaga et al., 2017), the deposition of growth layers in the 86 tympanic bullae (Christensen, 1995), or the occurrence of ridges in baleen plates 87 (Chittleborough, 1959; Lubetkin et al., 2008) have also been attempted to age 88 baleen whales but results have been uneven. In all cases the results obtained 89 had little precision or, as it occurs with baleen plate ridges, the age record was 90 limited to a short period of the whale's life-span. 91

However, all these methods require samples from internal tissues that are 92 impossible to obtain from living animals, so in recent years efforts have focused 93 on developing techniques that permit age-determination through noninvasive 94 means. Photo-identification studies have proven useful in species with easily 95 recognizable morphological traits, such as humpback whales (Megaptera 96 novaeangliae) (Barlow & Clapham, 1997), but age determination of an individual 97 is only possible when it is identified at birth and re-sighted subsequently. As a 98 99 consequence, application of this technique at the population level is only possible in studies with intensive research effort deployed for protracted periods of time. 100 Moreover, it cannot be applied to species with poor fidelity to summer or winter 101 grounds because re-sightings are sparse, or in those in which individual 102 morphological identification is difficult, conditions that apply to most species of 103 104 the Balaenoptera genus.

Biopsies collected from free-ranging individuals have since long become a ubiquitous technique used to monitor populations of cetaceans because they provide fresh skin samples with low impact on the sampled individuals (Aguilar &

Borrell, 1994; Aguilar & Nadal, 1984; Clapham & Mattila, 1993). A number of 108 109 studies have attempted to use these samples to assess age. Telomere length in skin cells correlates with age in a number of species but does not appear accurate 110 as an age predictor because telomere length at birth is highly variable between 111 individuals and, afterwards, it is affected by environmental and physiological 112 113 features (Dunshea et al., 2011; Olsen et al., 2014). The ratio between certain fatty 114 acids present in the lipids of the blubber has also been found to be correlated with age in humpback whales (Herman et al., 2009), but the precision found in 115 the age determination was low and, because lipids are to some degree 116 117 dependent on the diet of whales, its application would require calibration for each population and may vary with time. More promising was the analysis of the 118 119 methylation levels of selected genes, which in humpback whales appeared to 120 provide high accuracy in age determinations (Polanowski et al., 2014; Riekkola et al., 2018a). However, two of the three genes used in this study were later 121 investigated in Antarctic minke whales and provided dissimilar results (Goto et 122 123 al., 2020; Tanabe et al., 2020), thus suggesting differences between closely related species. 124

In vertebrates, methylation mainly occurs in the cytosines of cytosine-phosphate-125 guanine (CpG dinucleotides) and is associated with transcriptional repression of 126 127 nearby genes (Bird & Wolffe, 1999; Deaton & Bird, 2011; Klose & Bird, 2006). Methylation is not static over time, but its rate changes during development 128 (Smith & Meissner, 2013) and aging (D'Aquila et al., 2013). However, aging is not 129 the only factor that exerts modifications in methylation patterns over time. 130 Epigenetic modifications induced by the environment have been reported in many 131 132 studies and, in some of them, these modifications have been associated with

differences in gene expression (Feil & Fraga, 2012). Such environmentallyinduced changes might play a relevant role in adaptation processes, providing heterogeneity between and within populations, even if they are genetically homogenous (Flores et al., 2013). Therefore, it is not unreasonable to expect epigenetic differences driven by the environment between populations that have adapted to distinct conditions. Thus, the rate between methylation levels and age may not only be species-specific, but population-specific or even cohort-specific.

In this research we amplified and analyzed nine CpG sites of the three genes 140 previously studied in humpback whales (Polanowski et al., 2014). TET2 (ten 141 142 eleven translocation 2) is an evolutionarily conserved dioxygenase from the TET family. In humans, acquired TET2 disruption and mutations have been related to 143 hematopoietic malignancies (Mullinghan, 2009; Solary et al., 2014). CDKN2A 144 (cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A) encodes for several tumor suppressor 145 146 proteins. Mutation and silencing of CDKN2A has been linked to several types of human cancers (Foulkes et al., 1997; Zhao et al., 2016). Finally, GRIA2 147 (glutamate receptor la2/AMPA2) encodes for one of the four subunits that 148 149 compose AMPA receptors, which are glutamate receptors. Hypermethylation of these three genes have been associated with aging in humans (Grönninger et 150 al., 2010; Koch & Wagner, 2011). 151

The analyses were conducted on skin samples from fin whales from two separate populations (off West Iceland and North West Spain). Age of all individuals was determined through counts of growth layer groups in ear plugs that had been previously conducted for population biology assessments. The study had a double aim: a) establishing whether the correlation between age and methylation levels observed in the three genes of the humpback whales previously studied were maintained in fin whales, and b) examining inter-population differences
 suggestive of environmental impact on the methylation rate of these CpG sites.

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#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

162 **1. Sample collection and age determination** 

163 The skin samples analyzed for the study were collected from fin whales caught by commercial whaling operations in two feeding grounds in the North Atlantic, 164 165 which are managed as separate units by the International Whaling Commission (IWC, 2009). In the first one, located off the northwestern coast of Spain (from 166 now on, referred to as the "Spanish population"), the samples were collected at 167 168 the Caneliñas station from 20 individuals caught during the 1985 summer season. In the second, located off the western coast of Iceland (from now on, referred to 169 as the "Icelandic population"), the samples were collected at the Hvalur H/F 170 171 whaling station from 20 individuals caught during the summer of 1986. The skin samples were collected by AA and GV always from the central part of the dorsal 172 region of the body to avoid epigenetic variation due to different sampling positions 173 (Goto et al., 2020). Immediately after collection, samples were frozen at -20°C 174 175 and preserved in this condition until analysis.

The age of individuals was determined by counting the growth layers present on a longitudinal section of their ear-plug core and following the methods described by Aguilar and Lockyer (1987). Each plug was examined by at least two researchers (AA and GV among others) and, in the case of obtaining different values in the multiple readings, the average of both estimates was used. The researchers that performed the ear plug readings have more than 30 years of experience. Individuals from the Icelandic population ranged between 7 to 27 years old, while individuals from the Spanish population ranged from 0 (two fetuses) to 49 years old.

2. DNA extraction, bisulfite conversion, amplification and

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# pyrosequencing

DNA was isolated using a Speedtools Tissue DNA extraction kit (Biotools) and bisulfite converted using an EZ DNA methylation gold kit (Zymo Research, Irvine, CA, USA). Both procedures were carried out following the corresponding manufacturer's instructions.

192 The genes TET2, CDKN2A, and GRIA2 were amplified as in Polanowski et al. (2014). Since fin and humpback whales are closely-related species (Árnason et 193 al., 2018; Nikaido et al., 2006; Nishida et al., 2007; Sasaki et al., 2005), the 194 195 primers designed by Polanowski et al. (2014) were used for the amplification of the three selected genes. PCR reactions were performed in a final volume of 30 196 µl, with 0.4 µl of Immolase DNA polymerase (Bioline 5U/µl), 3µl of 10x 197 ImmoBuffer, 1.2 µl of 50mM MgCl<sub>2</sub> solution, 0.4 µl of each primer at 0.25 µM and 198 199 6 µl of 0.5 mM dNTPs. When amplifying GRIA2, 6 µl of Betaine solution (Sigma) 200 were added to the reaction to enhance the amplification. Thermocycling conditions for all three genes consisted of an initial step of 10 min at 95°C, 201 followed by 30 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 58°C and 30 s at 72°C, with a final 202 203 step of 5 min at 72°C.

All PCR products were visualized using gel electrophoresis. When weak amplification was detected in the agarose gel, samples were amplified again but the annealing temperature was set at 56°C instead of 58°C. For 31 samples, PCR
reactions were performed twice. Of these, in 7 samples PCR reactions were
performed three times. Obtaining replicates of the PCR products allowed us to
assess the potential error of the posterior pyrosequencing analysis.

PCR products were analyzed using a Pyromark Q96MD pyrosequencer (Qiagen 210 GmbH Hilden, Germany) at the PEBC platform (Bellvitge Biomedical Research 211 Institute, IDIBELL) and the percentage of cytosine methylation at each CpG site 212 was extracted using Pyro Q-CpG Software (Qiagen). To avoid confusion, the 213 same notation as Polanowski et al. (2014) has been followed from now on and 214 the position of the cytosine is indicated relative to the start codon of each gene. 215 Negative or positive values indicate distance (5' or 3', respectively) in base pairs 216 from the start codon. 217

#### **3. Statistical analysis**

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### 3.1. Preliminary analyses

For each of the cytosine sites, presence of outliers was tested graphically using 220 boxplots. To avoid a possible population effect, for each cytosine site the samples 221 from Spain and Iceland were plotted separately. All the percentage values that 222 fell outside the range of the whiskers were removed (that is, values located below 223 224 or above the Interguartile Range \* 1.5), but one exception was made when all PCR replicates of a same sample appeared as an outlier. In this case, we 225 considered that it was a biological but not a methodological outlier and all values 226 227 were maintained (Supplementary Information 1). After removal of outliers, the means and standard deviation for each sample and CpG site were calculated. 228

Data were tested for normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and homoscedasticity (Bartletttest).

#### **3.2.** Age effect

Relation between age and methylation was examined in depth for each individual position through a linear regression model (Im). In this case, models were fit considering the methylation percentage of each CpG position as the dependent variable and age as the covariate. Linear models were fitted for each population as well as for the whole set of samples. When model p-value was significant (less than 0.05), the linear regressions were plotted and, in case of having PCR replicates, standard deviations were plotted as well at each individual point.

Samples with missing data were excluded from the following analyses. All CpG
sites showing significant relationship with age were considered for being included
into a multiple regression model. Multiple linear regressions were fitted only for
combinations of CpG sites from different genes, to avoid multicollinearity issues
between the independent variables (Polanowski et al., 2014).

Precision of multiple regression models was assessed through LOOCV (Leave-One-Out Cross-Validation). The LOOCV approach trains the model using all samples but one, which is excluded to test the model obtained. This procedure is repeated for every observation, and the final result is calculated by taking the mean of all individual calculations. RMSE (Root Mean Square Error) was used to determine the average model prediction error and to decide which of the ten combinations of two or three CpG sites was the best model.

**3.3. Population and sex effect** 

To assess the effect of other biological factors (sex and population) on 252 253 methylation percentages, generalized linear models were fitted to the data. Each model was fitted considering each CpG site as the dependent variable, and sex 254 and population were included as fixed factors with interaction. In addition, for 255 TET2 CpG+21, we reanalyzed the data through a Student's t-test to determine 256 257 if differences between populations were still significant after extracting the 258 samples of the Spanish population with ages that were not overlapping those of the Icelandic population. 259

Finally, to examine in depth the population effect on the methylation percentages on the CpG sites included in the best multiple regression model, we performed a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). PCA was fitted only for samples without missing data.

Statistical analyses were carried out with the IBM SPSS 23 software package or
in R 3.5.2. (R Core Team. http:// www.R-project.org).

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#### <u>RESULTS</u>

# 267 Determination of percentage of methylation

268 In total, nine CpG sites were successfully assayed through pyrosequencing: three for TET2 (TET2 CpG+16, TET2 CpG+21, TET2 CpG+31), three for CDKN2A 269 (CDKN2A\_CpG+297, CDKN2A\_CpG+303, CDKN2A\_CpG+309), and three for 270 GRIA2 (GRIA2 CpG+202, GRIA2 CpG+188, GRIA2 CpG+183). We were not 271 able to obtain results for the fourth site of TET2 (TET2\_CpG+58) or CDKN2A 272 (CDKN2A CpG+327), but we obtained two additional sites in the GRIA2 gene 273 (GRIA2\_CpG+188 and GRIA2\_CpG+183) that have been previously analyzed in 274 minke whales (Tanabe et al., 2020). 275

We did not obtain results at each CpG site for all samples, getting results for all 40 samples only for the two last CpG sites of the gene *CDKN2A*. In the other cases, we obtained results from 36-39 samples, depending on the CpG site analyzed. Total range of variation between samples differed between genes and CpG sites. Differences between the highest and the lowest values of percentage of methylation were larger in *TET2* sites, followed by *GRIA2* and *CDKN2A* (Table 1).

For all CpG sites, we did not obtain results in all the replicates, so the number of replicates is variable depending on the gene and the CpG position analyzed (Table 1). All replicates were analyzed to calculate standard deviation (SD) and assess the reproducibility of our results. Average SD were variable between genes and CpG sites (Table 1). All CpG sites met the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity, except  $GRIA2\_CpG+183$  site.

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Table 1: Total number of samples analyzed for each CpG site. Range of 290 methylation indicates the lowest and the highest values obtained for different 291 292 samples in a given CpG site. Diff. between samples indicates the difference between the highest and the lowest value of percentage of methylation for 293 different samples in a given CpG site. Replicated samples column indicates the 294 295 number of samples that were amplified and pyrosequenced for at least one 296 additional time. Finally, SD between replicas indicates the mean standard 297 deviation between replicates for a given CpG site.

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# 299 Sources of variation in the percentage of methylation: Age

Linear regression models were fit for the whole data set and for each population separately at all CpG sites (Figure 1). When the two populations were analyzed

together, linear models showed a significant effect of age on the methylation 302 percentages in five CpG sites: three sites of CDKN2A (p < 0.05 for 303 CDKN2A\_CpG+297, CDKN2A\_CpG+303, and CDKN2A\_CpG+309), the second 304 CpG site in TET2 (p < 0.05 for TET2 CpG+21), and the second CpG site in 305 GRIA2 (p < 0.01 for GRIA2\_CpG+188). However, when each location was 306 treated as a distinct data set, significant correlations were only found for the 307 308 Spanish population in four out of five cases and for the Icelandic population in two out of five cases (Figure 1). 309

Figure 1. Linear regressions between age and % of cytosine methylation for each CpG site that showed significant correlation with age. Linear regressions were calibrated for each population and the whole data set (only those with correlations with p < 0.05 are shown). When data were available, standard deviations were plotted in their corresponding points. Adjusted R<sup>2</sup> is indicated for each regression line.

316 The 5 CpG sites with significant relationship with age were included in a multiple linear regression model. All possible combinations of two or three CpG sites were 317 assessed with Leave One Out Cross Validation (LOOCV) and compared through 318 their RMSE (Root Mean Square Error). For this comparison we chose RMSE as 319 the indicator (and not MAE, the Mean Absolute Error) because although both 320 321 MAE and RMSE express average model prediction, RMSE gives higher weight to large errors, which are highly undesirable for age predictions. Five samples had 322 missing data for some of the CpG sites and were excluded from the analyses, so 323 324 multiple regressions were initially calibrated using 35 samples.

The multiple regression model with smallest RMSE had the combination of three CpG sites: *TET2\_CpG+21, CDKN2A\_CpG+303,* and *GRIA2\_CpG+188.* After checking the normality and homoscedasticity of the residuals, we removed an additional sample from the Spanish population that was placed as outlier, so the
model was run using the 34 remaining samples (Supplementary information 2).
The RMSE of the final model was 5.91 and the MAE was 4.87.

The precision of the multiple regression model was additionally assessed by checking the differences between the observed and predicted ages (residuals), that presented a standard deviation of 2.941 and a mean absolute difference of 4.264. The 95% prediction interval for the model was 11.84 (Figure 2).

Figure 2: Regression between estimated and observed ages of the 34 samples included in the multiple regression model. Estimated ages are the results of the LOOCV analysis, which included  $TET2\_CpG+21$ ,  $CDKN2A\_CpG+303$ , and  $GRIA2\_CpG+188$  sites. 95% prediction intervals are shown. The R<sup>2</sup> of the linear regression was 0.488, and the prediction intervals 11.84.

Linear regression between known and predicted age is shown in Figure 2. The linear regression had a significant y-intercept of 6.603, indicating that our model initially overestimates young whale's age, but the slope of the regression showed that older whales' ages are highly underestimated. R<sup>2</sup> of the regression was 0.488, pointing that an important part of model's variation is due to other unknown factors.

## 346 **Sources of variation in the percentage of methylation: Populations**

Generalized linear models showed no significant effect of sex in the methylation levels of any CpG site (p > 0.05), in accordance with previous results. However, a significant effect of population was detected in one CpG site (*TET2\_CpG+21*, p < 0.001). It should be noted that the age ranges of each population are not identical (7 – 27 years for Iceland population; 0 – 49 years for Spanish population), and in this CpG site a significant effect of age was detected (p < 0.05). Hence, all samples with ages that were outside the range of the Icelandic (7 - 27) were removed before reanalyzing possible differences between both populations through a Student's *t*-test. Significant differences were detected again between the Spanish and the Icelandic samples (p < 0.001; Figure 1), suggesting that both populations were exhibiting different methylation patterns in this CpG site.

Figure 3. Boxplot distributions of the percentage of methylation in  $TET2\_CpG+21$ after the removal of outliers, using all individuals ("Full Data set") or only those with overlapping ages in both populations ("With overlapping ages"). The top and bottom boundaries of each box indicate the 75th and 25th quartile values, respectively, and lines within each box represent the 50th quartile values.

Finally, results from the PCA showed that the first two components explain most of the variation in the data, with a cumulative proportion of variance of 82.41%. For the first principal component (PC1),  $CDKN2A\_CpG+303$  contributed with 49.18% and  $GRIA2\_CpG+188$  contributed with 40.20%. For the second principal component (PC2), the most important variable was  $TET2\_CpG+21$ , which explained the 81.03% of the contribution. PC2 showed differences between the two populations, which were barely separated by PC1 (Figure 4).

Figure 4: Results from the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). Each population is shown in different colors. For the first component (PC1), shown as X axis, *CDKN2A\_CpG+303* and *GRIA2\_CpG+188* are the most important variables. For the second component (PC2), shown as Y axis, *TET2\_CpG+21* is the most important variable.

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#### 377 **DISCUSSION**

Although the exact mechanisms that drive the association between gene 378 379 methylation and age are not totally understood, this correlation is well established and several researchers have attempted to create protocols to infer human age 380 through DNA methylation markers. Most of the efforts have focused on finding 381 epigenetic markers that correlate with age in the forensically relevant tissues, 382 such as blood (Bekaert et al., 2015; Hannum et al., 2013; Naue et al., 2017; Vidal-383 384 Bralo et al., 2016; Weidner et al., 2014), saliva (Bocklandt et al., 2011; Eipel et al., 2016), semen (Lee et al., 2015), and skin (Koch & Wagner, 2011). Outcomes 385 of these studies were promising and provided high accuracy when predicting age, 386 387 and this opened thrilling perspectives for the study and monitoring of other mammals, particularly those which live in the wild and are of restricted access. 388

In recent years, driven by the emergence of new cost-effective techniques, the use of epigenetic analysis in studies of ecology and evolution has experienced a substantial increase (De Paoli-Iseppi et al., 2017; Jarman et al., 2015; Verhoeven et al., 2016). Here we have analyzed CpG sites from three genes, previously applied with dissimilar results to infer age from skin samples of humpback and minke whales (Polanowski et al., 2014; Riekkola et al., 2018; Tanabe et al., 2020; Goto et al., 2020), to study their applicability to a different whale species.

Ranges of variation observed in our study between individuals' methylation levels for each CpG site were similar to those observed in previous studies (Polanowski et al., 2014; Tanabe et al., 2020; Goto et al., 2020). For the nine sites analyzed, we detected significant correlations with age in five, a finding that reflects the conserved relation between methylation patterns and aging in mammal species (Booth & Brunet, 2016; Sen et al., 2016). It is well known that methylation and aging are tightly related, since global levels of 5-methylcytosine tend to decrease

as aging occurs (Barbot et al., 2002; Bollati et al., 2009; Fuke et al., 2004; Nilsen 403 404 et al., 2016; Singhal et al., 1987). However, this process of hypomethylation does not occur homogenously in the entire genome, and hypermethylation in 405 406 promoters of several genes and other specific regions has been reported (Fraga & Esteller, 2007; Issa, 2003). In our study, all five sites with significant results 407 showed positive trends with aging (hypermethylation), including the CpG sites 408 409 located in the gene TET2, thus producing different results than in humpbacks and minke whales but in concordance with those obtained in humans (Grönniger et 410 al., 2010). Although our results indicated significant correlations with age for 411 412 several CpG sites, trends found in fin whales were less consistent and with smaller R<sup>2</sup> values than those found in humpbacks (Polanowski et al., 2014). 413

Even though significant correlations were found in several CpG sites, there is one 414 remarkable limitation in our study that deserves discussion. Standard deviations 415 416 between PCR replicates were relatively high (mean around 2%) in some CpG sites, while the differences among individual samples hardly ever exceed 5%. 417 These differences are in accordance with the technical accuracy and 418 reproducibility of pyrosequencing when analyzing samples from different PCR 419 reactions (Kurdyukov & Bullock, 2016; Tost & Gut, 2007). Unfortunately, total 420 variation between individuals was small (Table 1), especially for those sites 421 located in CDKN2A and GRIA2. This brings forward the necessity to screen for 422 new markers associated with age that exhibit higher variability between 423 424 individuals in order to reduce the effect of the analytical error. It is likely that the use of this kind of assay in fin whales will be only practicable with reasonable 425 accuracy through the use of Next Generation Sequencing techniques to perform 426 427 a wider screening, as suggested by Goto et al. (2020).

The standard deviation of the mean difference between known and predicted 428 429 ages was 2.94, similar to the results obtained in bats (Wright et al., 2018) and humpbacks (Polanowski et al., 2014), and lower than in minke whales (Goto et 430 al., 2020). However, the y-intercept and the slope of the regression indicated that 431 our model overestimates the age of young whale's and, importantly, highly 432 underestimates the age of older fin whales, similar to the results obtained by Goto 433 434 et al. (2020). In addition, when we investigated the correlation between age and each individual CpG site, we found that this relation was not totally maintained 435 when data were split into populations. In four out of five CpG sites, correlation 436 437 with age was significant in the Spanish population, but only in two out of five CpG sites was there a significant correlation in the Icelandic population. 438

We hypothesize that both problems, the low accuracy for estimating the age of 439 older fin whales and the dissimilar results between populations, may be due to 440 441 the lack of very old individuals, especially in the Icelandic population. In fin whales, longevity has not been properly estimated, but individuals around 80 - 90 442 years old have been reported (Aguilar & García-Vernet, 2018). In order to obtain 443 robust calibrations it would be highly desirable to analyze a higher number of 444 samples from old individuals, since in our data set most of the oldest animals 445 were 25 – 30 years. Indeed, most of the animals caught both in Spain and Iceland 446 447 during the 1980's were younger than 30 years old and the most frequent age classes were 5-7 years old in Spain and 4-9 years old in Iceland (Aguilar & 448 449 Lockyer, 1987; IWC, 2009).

While some of the differences observed between the results of the two populations may be explained by the dissimilar age range in the two data sets, in the second CpG site of TET2 ( $TET2_CpG+21$ ) we detected subtle but significant

differences regardless of the age of the animals. Changes in patterns of 453 454 methylation along individuals' lifetime may not only be affected by intrinsic factors, such as genetic variants, but also by biological and extrinsic factors, such as 455 aging and environmental effects, respectively (Feil & Fraga, 2012; Fraga et al., 456 2005). In humans, for example, a number of studies have reported correlation 457 between methylation levels in different markers and environmental factors such 458 459 as sun exposure (Grönniger et al., 2020), short-term changes in diet (Jacobsen et al., 2012), exercise (Barrès et al., 2012), early-life stress factors (Naumova et 460 al., 2012), and socioeconomic status (Lam et al., 2012; Mcguiness et al., 2012). 461

With regard to ecology, epigenetics can provide an answer to rapid adaptations to the environment, promoting a high phenotypic plasticity in front of a constantly changing environment (Verhoeven et al., 2016). Therefore, methylation patterns may play an important role by linking environmental cues and phenotypes. In addition, a potential transgenerational transmission of methylation patterns may have an important role in evolutionary processes (Jablonka & Raz, 2009; Verhoeven et al., 2016).

469 Several researchers have observed correlations between methylation patterns and different environmental exposures. For example, resource availability may 470 shape differences in the epigenome of two groups of wild baboons with different 471 472 foraging strategies (Lea et al., 2016). Similarly, epigenetic differences have been 473 detected between urban and rural populations of Darwin's finches (McNew et al., 2017). Methylation patterns have been related not only to different foraging 474 475 strategies, but also to different migratory strategies (Baerwald et al., 2016). Other studies in different species have established associations between methylation 476 patterns and other environmental factors, such as contamination (Nilsen et al., 477

2016), early life stress (Moghadam et al., 2017) or domestication processes
(Koch et al., 2016). Therefore, we suggest that differences detected in *TET2\_CpG+21* between Icelandic and Spanish populations could be a result of
the distinct environmental cues affecting both populations.

In the North Atlantic Ocean, the International Whaling Commission (IWC, 2009) 482 currently considers seven fin whale stocks that have been mainly identified 483 according to the location of the feeding grounds occupied during the summer. 484 485 Since whales reproduce during the winter in different areas, it is of the highest relevance to establish the degree of mixing between animals that belong to each 486 stock. In general, low levels of genetic divergence have been detected between 487 fin whales sampled in different feeding areas (Pampoulie & Daníelsdóttir, 2013) 488 maybe reflecting some degree of mixing in the breeding grounds. However, fin 489 whales inhabiting waters off W. Iceland and N. W. Spain seem to belong to 490 491 different breeding grounds, implying a low degree of mixing between both populations. Such segregation appears to be supported by previous studies using 492 different approaches, such as internal tagging (Gunnlaugsson & Sigurjónsson, 493 1989), internal and external morphology (Jover, 1992; Lockyer, 1982; 494 Víkingsson, 1992), stable isotope analysis (Vighi et al., 2016), trace element 495 concentrations (Sanpera et al., 1996), and other miscellaneous sources of 496 information (Víkingsson & Gunnlaugsson, 2006). The stock of fin whales feeding 497 off northwestern Spain is assumed to be composed of animals reproducing in a 498 499 single breeding ground (IWC, 2009), which although of unidentified location, it may be located off eastern Africa (Vighi et al., 2016). Conversely, the stock 500 summering off western Icelandic appears to be composed of animals wintering in 501 502 either the central Atlantic (around the Azores) or off eastern Canada (IWC, 2009;

503 Silva et al., 2013). Whatever the case, more studies are needed to determine if 504 differences associated with breeding grounds and migration patterns of the two 505 groups of fin whales are associated not only to a differential genetic pool but also 506 to different environmental pressures that in turn may cause differences in their 507 epigenomic profiling. Again, we suggest that a wider screening of new CpG sites, 508 based on Next Generation Sequencing techniques, would shed some light on this 509 topic.

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522

# 523 Disclosure statement

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527

**Supplementary Information 1**: Methylation values for each CpG site were plotted for each population. Values that fell outside the range of the whiskers were considered outliers. However, when all PCR replicates of a same sample appeared as an outlier, we considered that it was a biological but not a methodological outlier and all values were maintained.

533

Supplementary Information 2: Regression diagnostic plots for the multiple 534 regression model that included TET2 CpG+21, CDKN2A CpG+303, and 535 GRIA2 CpG+188. A panel includes all data, while in B panel we eliminated one 536 outlier (sample 35). Briefly, Residuals vs Fitted plot is used to check linear 537 relationship. Normal Q-Q plot is used to check if residuals are normally 538 539 distributed. Scale-Location plot checks the homocedasticity of the residuals. 540 Finally, Residuals vs Leverage plot checks if there are influential outliers (this is, if outliers have an effect in our model). In all plots, sample 35 is placed as outlier. 541

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