

TITLE: Determinants of telomere length across human tissues

AUTHORS: Kathryn Demanelis¹, Farzana Jasmine¹, Lin S. Chen¹, Meytal Chernoff¹, Lin Tong¹, Justin Shinkle¹, Mekala Sabarinathan¹, Hannah Lin¹, Eduardo Ramirez¹, Meritxell Oliva^{1,2}, Sarah Kim-Hellmuth^{3,4,5}, Barbara E. Stranger², Kristin G. Ardlie⁶, François Aguet⁶, Habibul Ahsan^{1,7,8,9}, GTEx Consortium, Jennifer Doherty¹⁰, Muhammad G. Kibriya¹, and Brandon L. Pierce^{1,7,8*}

AFFILIATIONS:

¹Department of Public Health Sciences, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA.

²Section of Genetic Medicine, Department of Medicine, Institute for Genomics and Systems Biology, Center for Data Intensive Science, University of Chicago, Chicago, USA.

³New York Genome Center, New York, NY, USA.

⁴Statistical Genetics, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, Germany.

⁵Department of Systems Biology, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA.

⁶The Broad Institute of Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University, Cambridge, MA, USA.

⁷Department of Human Genetics, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA.

⁸University of Chicago Comprehensive Cancer Center, Chicago, IL, USA.

⁹Department of Medicine, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA.

¹⁰Huntsman Cancer Institute, University of Utah, Salt Lake City, UT, USA.

*Corresponding Author. Email: brandonpierce@uchicago.edu (B.L.P)

ABSTRACT

Telomere shortening is a hallmark of aging. Telomere length (TL) in blood cells has been studied extensively as a biomarker of human aging and disease; however, little is known regarding variability in TL in non-blood, disease-relevant tissue types. Here we characterize variability in TL measurements for 6,391 tissue samples, representing >20 tissue types and 952 individuals from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project. We describe differences across tissue types, positive correlation among tissue types, and associations with age and ancestry. We show that genetic variation impacts TL in multiple tissue types, and that TL can mediate the effect of age on gene expression. Our results provide the foundational knowledge regarding TL in healthy tissues that is needed to interpret epidemiological studies of TL and human health.

ONE SENTENCE SUMMARY

Telomere length varies by tissue type but is generally correlated among tissue types (positively) and with age (negatively).

MAIN TEXT

Telomeres are DNA-protein complexes located at the end of chromosomes that protect chromosome ends from degradation and fusion (1). The length of the DNA component of telomeres shortens as cells divide (2) with short telomeres eventually triggering cellular senescence (3, 4). In most human tissues, TL gradually shortens over the life course, and TL shortening is considered a hallmark (and a potential underlying cause) of human aging (5). In human studies, short TL measured in leukocytes is associated with increased risk of aging-related diseases including cardiovascular disease (6) and type II diabetes (7) as well as all-cause mortality (8). However, long TL may increase risk for some types of cancer (9-11). Leukocyte TL is influenced by inherited genetic variation (single nucleotide polymorphisms [SNPs]), some of which reside near genes with roles in telomere maintenance (12-15). Leukocyte TL is also associated with lifestyle factors (e.g., obesity) and exposures (e.g., cigarette smoking) (16, 17).

Epidemiologic studies of TL predominantly use blood (occasionally saliva) as a DNA source. Thus, our understanding of variation in TL, its determinants (e.g., demographic, lifestyle, and genetic factors), and its associations with disease phenotypes is based almost entirely on TL measured in leukocytes from whole blood. Few prior studies have compared TL in leukocytes to TL in other human tissue types; these prior studies are relatively small (<100 participants; <5 tissue types) but provide evidence that TL differs across tissue types and that TL measurements from different tissue types are correlated (18, 19). However, larger studies of many additional tissue types are needed to gain a comprehensive understanding of variation in TL and its determinants within and across a wide range of human tissues and cell types. In order to address these gaps in our understanding of TL and its role as a biomarker of aging and disease risk, we measured TL in > 6,000 unique tissue samples, representing >20 distinct tissue types and > 950 individual donors from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project (see **Methods**) (20). In this paper we (1) characterize sources of variation in TL, (2) evaluate leukocyte TL as a proxy for TL in other disease-relevant tissues, (3) describe the relationship between age and TL across tissue types, and (4) describe biological determinants and correlates of TL.

We attempted measurement of relative TL (telomere repeat abundance relative to a standard/reference DNA sample [RTL]) for 7,234 tissue samples from 962 GTEx donors using a Luminex-based assay [see **Methods**]. After removing 836 samples with failed RTL measurements and seven RTL measures that were within-tissue outliers, our analytic dataset included 6,391 tissue-specific RTL measurements from 952 donors, with 24 different tissue types having ≥ 25 RTL measurements (**Table S1**). On average, each donor had RTL measured in seven different tissue types (range: 1-26 tissue types) (**Figure S1**). The median donor age was 55 (range: 20-70) years, there were more males (67%) than females, and participants were primarily white (85%) (**Table S1**).

TL varies across (and correlates among) human tissues types. We estimated the contribution of tissue type to the variation in RTL using linear mixed models (LMMs) that were adjusted for fixed effect covariates (age, sex, BMI, race/ethnicity, donor ischemic time, and technical factors [DNA concentration and sample plate]) and random effects of tissue type and donor (see **Methods** and **Table S2**). On average, RTL was the shortest in whole blood (WB) and longest in testis, with testis being a clear outlier ($p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$ compared to all other tissues) (**Figure 1A**). Tissue type explained 24.3% of the variation in RTL across all tissues but only 11.5% when testis was excluded. We examined pairwise correlations (Pearson) in RTL among tissue types with tissue pairs from same donor, restricting to 20 tissue types with TL data for ≥ 75 samples (**Figure 1B**). Forty tissue-pair correlations passed a Bonferroni p -value threshold ($p < 3 \times 10^{-4}$) and all correlations were positive (**Data Table S1**). All tissue pairs from the same organ were among the stronger correlations observed: sun exposed and non-exposed skin ($r=0.24$, $p=9 \times 10^{-3}$, $n=112$), transverse and sigmoid colon ($r=0.40$, $p=8 \times 10^{-7}$, $n=139$), and esophagus mucosa (EM) and gastric junction (EGJ) ($r=0.22$, $p=3 \times 10^{-3}$, $n=188$). Applying hierarchical clustering to these pairwise correlations using average linkage, tissue RTL separated into three clusters (**Figure 1B** and **Figure S2**). Two clusters were characterized by common developmental origin: 1) mesodermal and ectodermal (e.g., muscle and skin) and 2) endodermal origin tissues (e.g., stomach and lung). Thyroid and brain cerebellum formed the

third cluster. Similar clustering patterns among tissue types were observed for females (**Figure S3**) and males (**Figure S4**), where testis was also an outlying tissue type and clustered with thyroid. The positive correlations observed among most tissue types are most likely due to the fact that the initial TL in the zygote impacts TL in all adult tissues through mitotic inheritance; while differences among tissue types are likely attributable to variability in both intrinsic (e.g., cell division rate/history, telomere maintenance) and extrinsic (e.g., response to environmental exposures) factors across tissues (**Figure 1D**).

Whole blood TL is a proxy for TL in other tissues. WB RTL was positively correlated ($p < 0.05$) with tissue-specific RTL measures from 15 out of 23 tissue types (each with $n \geq 25$), with Pearson correlations ranging from 0.15 to 0.37 (**Figure 1C**). These results demonstrate that WB RTL can serve as a proxy for TL in many tissue types. WB RTL captured between 2% (testis) and 14% (tibial nerve) of the variation in RTL measured in other tissue types. Adjustment for age, sex, body mass index (BMI), and donor ischemic time did not have a major impact the associations observed between WB RTL and tissue RTL for our 23 tissue types (**Figure S5**).

RTL measures have inherent measurement error (21), including our Luminex assay (22), so we simulated data to determine the extent to which measurement error (i.e., random, non-differential error) is expected to impact the observed correlation (r) estimates. We simulated data representing TL measures from two tissue types, and varied the value of the true Pearson correlation (r) between TL measures from those tissues and the amount of error present in the RTL measurement (see **Methods**). An inverse linear relationship was observed between the proportion of variation that measurement error accounted for in the RTL measure and the observed r value (**Figure S6**). When measurement error accounted for 50% of the variation in both RTL measurements (most extreme scenario tested), the observed r between the two tissues decreased by ~50% compared to the true r , and the correlation between an error-prone measure and the true TL (in another tissue) decreased by ~25%. Thus, the correlations we observe between WB RTL and RTL in other tissue types are likely underestimates of the true correlations.

Previously we have shown the Luminex-based TL method to have a correlation (r) of ~0.7 (a r^2 of ~0.5) with the Southern blot analysis of terminal restriction fragment lengths method for TL measurement (in a blinded comparison study) (22). The Southern blot method is a more expensive and labor-intensive approach for TL measurement with much higher DNA input requirements. If we consider Southern blot to be the gold standard for TL measurement, thereby assuming that 50% of the variation in our Luminex-based measure is random error, then the correlations observed in this study are ~50% lower than the true correlations (based on **Figure S6**).

TL varies among individuals and by participant characteristics. TL varied across individuals (donors) (**Figure 2A** [top]), explaining 8.7% of variation in RTL across all tissues and 11.2% with testis excluded (based on estimates from adjusted LMM) (**Table S2**). Adjusting for tissue type and donor (as random effects), age explained 3.3% (among all tissues) and 4.4% (excluding testis) of variation in RTL while BMI, TL-associated SNPs, and race/ethnicity each explained less than 1% of the variation across all tissues (marginal R^2 , $p < 0.001$) (**Figure 2B** [top]). We observed no association between sex and RTL across all tissues (**Table S2**), and sex showed very little evidence of association with RTL in tissue-specific analyses (**Table S3**). We conducted a principal component (PC) analysis of RTL from eleven non-reproductive tissue types (each with $n \geq 200$ samples) from 750 participants (see **Methods**) and generated a composite measure of TL based on the first PC that explains 51% of the variation in TL among these tissue types (**Figure 2A** [bottom]). We observed that age and BMI were associated with shorter composite RTL and explained 13.7% and 1.3%, respectively, of the variation in this composite TL measure (**Figure 2B** [bottom]). Race/ethnicity was associated with longer composite TL in African Americans compared to white individuals and explained 1.6% of the variation in composite TL. This composite TL likely reflects the TL in the zygote (and in tissues during early development) that is mitotically inherited by cells in adult tissues.

TL is longer in genomes of African Ancestry. To further explore differences in TL by race/ethnicity, we first confirmed that PCs derived from genome-wide SNP data ($n=831$ donors), representing genetic ancestry, showed clear clustering by reported race/ethnicity among donors (**Figure 2C** [upper left]). Genetic ancestry (European vs. African) explained 0.6% of the variation in RTL across all tissues (marginal R^2 , $p=1 \times 10^{-5}$) after adjusting for tissue type and donor as random effects and 2.3% of the variation in the composite RTL measure ($p=7 \times 10^{-5}$). After including adjustments for age, sex, donor ischemic time, technical factors (DNA concentration and sample plate) and random effects of tissue type and donor, RTL was longer among individuals of African ancestry compared to individuals of European ancestry in analyses of all tissue types combined ($p=0.007$), consistent with prior studies of leukocyte TL (23-26). The adjusted association between African ancestry and RTL was positive for 17 out of 20 tissues tested, with p -values < 0.05 for brain cerebellum ($p=0.03$), thyroid ($p=0.02$), prostate ($p=0.03$), lung ($p=0.02$), and whole blood ($p=0.005$) (**Figure 2C** and **Table S4**). The observation that individuals of African ancestry have longer TL in many tissue types is consistent with the hypothesis that ancestry-based differences in TL are present early in development (27) and potentially in germ cells (pre-conception). In other words, our results suggest that offspring (zygotes) inherit telomeres from germ cells that vary in TL due to ancestry, and these ancestry-based differences in TL are mitotically transmitted to daughter cells, and eventually to cells in many adult tissue types. This “direct transmission” of TL from parent to offspring (28) would result in the observed ancestry-based differences across many tissue types (summarized in **Figure 2D**). One likely cause of this ancestry-based difference is natural selection on SNPs known to impact TL (29), although selection on TL itself could also contribute.

TL is correlated with age in most tissues. Of 24 tissues with ≥ 25 samples, RTL was negatively correlated ($r < 0$) with age in 21 tissue types ($p < 0.05$ in 14 tissue types) (**Figure 3A**, **Figure S7**), supporting the hypothesis that age-related TL shortening occurs in most tissue types. The strongest correlations with age were observed for WB ($r=-0.35$, $p=2 \times 10^{-19}$, $n=637$) and stomach ($r=-0.37$, $p=7 \times 10^{-15}$, $n=420$) (**Table S5**). Age explained more of the variation in RTL for tissues with shorter mean RTL ($r^2=0.23$, $p=0.02$) (**Figure 3B**). Among tissue types in which RTLs did not have a clear correlation with age ($p > 0.05$), we examined whether RTL differed among 5-year age groups, but we observed no differences in RTL among 5-year age groups for testis, ovary, cerebellum, vagina, skeletal muscle, thyroid, and EGJ. While prior studies have observed longer TL in sperm from older men (30), we did not observe a clear increasing (or decreasing) trend for testis RTL with increasing age (**Figure S8**).

Among tissue types for which RTL was associated with age ($p < 0.05$), the strength of association varied across tissue types (**Figure 3C** and **Table S5**). To further explore the hypothesis that TL shortens at different rates in different tissue types, we calculated the difference in RTL (Δ RTL) between all pairs of tissue types available for each donor. We constructed 155 Δ RTL variables restricting to tissue pairs with complete data for ≥ 50 donors. The Pearson correlation between Δ RTL and age was estimated for each tissue type pair to determine if the Δ RTL varies with age (**Figure S9**). Forty-two of the 155 Δ RTL variables were correlated with age ($p < 0.05$), and the absolute values of these correlations ranged from 0.12 to 0.38 (**Data Table S2**). Four of the Δ RTLs surpassed Bonferroni p -value of 3×10^{-4} : EGJ and stomach ($r=0.32$, $p=1 \times 10^{-5}$, $n=176$), WB and thyroid ($r=0.30$, $p=3 \times 10^{-5}$, $n=182$), EM and stomach ($r=0.25$, $p=3 \times 10^{-5}$, $n=276$), and WB and ovary ($r=0.33$, $p=2 \times 10^{-4}$, $n=120$). Our results indicate that age explains up to 14% of the variation in the difference in RTL between pairs of tissue types. A prior study of 87 adults reported that the age rate of TL shortening was similar for muscle, leukocytes, fat, and skin (i.e. no association between age and Δ RTLs), concluding that age-related TL loss within stem cells is consistent across adult tissue types (18). When we examined these tissue types among our Δ RTL pairs ($n \geq 50$), age was correlated with Δ RTL for skeletal muscle and blood ($r=0.37$, $p=2 \times 10^{-3}$, $n=68$) but less for skin (unexposed) and blood ($r=0.09$, $p=0.2$, $n=197$) and skin (exposed) and blood ($r=0.08$, $p=0.24$, $n=200$).

Leukocyte TL-associated genetic variants and TL in other tissues. Prior genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have identified SNPs associated with leukocyte TL (12-15). We constructed a weighted

polygenic SNP score for each donor using nine leukocyte TL-associated SNPs, with higher score reflecting longer TL (see **Methods** and **Table S6**) (31). We examined the association between this polygenic SNP score and RTL for tissue types with ≥ 100 samples. After adjustment for age, sex, genotyping PCs, donor ischemic time, and technical factors (DNA concentration and sample plate) as a random effect, an association with the SNP score ($p < 0.05$) was observed for WB RTL ($p=0.007$) (**Figure S10**), cerebellum RTL ($p=0.03$), pancreas RTL ($p=0.04$), and transverse colon RTL ($p=0.02$) (**Figure 4A**, **Figure S11**, and **Table S7**). Among all 18 tissue types, 16 had positive association estimates (binomial test [$p_0=0.5$], $p=0.001$). In analyses of all tissue types, RTL was positively associated with this SNP score ($p=0.01$) after adjustment for age, sex, genotyping PCs, donor ischemic time, and technical factors (DNA concentration and sample plate) and random effects of tissue type and donor. These results indicate that at least some of the genetic variants (or regions) that impact leukocyte TL also impact TL in other tissue types.

TL-associated variants influence local gene expression. Among the nine regions known to harbor SNPs associated with leukocyte TL, we examined whether these loci also affected local gene expression in GTEx tissue types and cell lines (see **Methods**). We used co-localization analysis to estimate the probability that a common causal variant underlies association signals for leukocyte TL (from GWAS) (12-14) and *cis*-eQTL (expression quantitative trait loci) association signals from GTEx (v8) analyses (GTEx Consortium 2019 [GTEx main paper]). Co-localization results indicated that at least six of the nine TL-associated regions shared a common causal variant with a *cis*-eQTL in at least one tissue type, based on a posterior probability of co-localization of $\geq 80\%$ across all three sets of priors tested (see **Methods**) (**Figure 4B**, **Figure 4C**, **Figure S12**, and **Data Table S3**). The association signal for TL on chromosome 19 (represented by rs8105767) showed strong evidence of co-localization with an eQTL affecting expression of *ZNF257* in eight tissue types, including skin (sun exposed), transverse colon, and stomach (**Figure 4B**). The association signal for TL on chromosome 10 (represented by rs9420907) co-localized with an eQTL affecting expression of *STN1* in seven tissue types, including skin (sun exposed), transverse colon, and EM (**Figure 4C**). Additional TL-associated loci showed co-localization with GTEx eQTLs for *NAF1*, *MYNN*, *RP11-109N23.6*, and *TSPYL6* (**Figure S12** and **Data Table S3**). These results suggest that TL-associated loci influence TL within human tissues via regulation of the expression of genes known to be involved in telomere maintenance (e.g., *STN1*, *NAF1*) (12), as well as genes whose role in telomere maintenance is unclear (e.g., *ZNF257*). Notably, we observed very little evidence of co-localization of the *TERT* or *TERC* TL-associated regions with any *cis*-eQTLs, likely because *TERT* and *TERC* have low or undetectable expression in a majority of adult GTEx tissue samples (**Figure 5A**). This suggests that eQTL studies of cells from stem and/or developmental tissues may be needed to understand the mechanisms underlying genetic regulation of *TERT* and *TERC* expression.

TL is associated with telomerase subunit expression across tissues. The telomerase enzyme can extend the telomere repeat sequence, typically in stem and/or progenitor cells, to compensate for TL shortening. The protein products of *TERT*, *TERC*, and *DKC1* comprise the telomerase catalytic subunit. We examined the association between RTL and expression of these genes using 3,885 GTEx tissue samples with both RTL and RNAseq (v8) gene expression data. *TERT* and *TERC* expression was detectable (i.e., transcripts per million [TPM] > 0.1) in 28% ($n=1089$) and 20% ($n=783$) of these samples (**Table S8** and **Table S9**), respectively, but *DKC1* was ubiquitously expressed ($n=3,885$) in all samples (**Table S10**). While *DKC1* showed correlation with both *TERT* ($r=0.30$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $n=1089$) and *TERC* ($r=0.23$, $p=3 \times 10^{-11}$, $n=783$) across all samples, the correlation between *TERT* and *TERC* expression across samples was stronger ($r=0.49$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $n=364$) (**Figure S13**). Testis had substantially higher mean expression of *TERT* and *TERC* compared to all other tissues ($p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$) (**Table S8** and **Table S9**), but there was no association between testis RTL and *TERT* or *TERC* expression. Across all tissues, RTL was positively correlated with *TERT* ($r=0.58$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $n=1089$), *TERC* ($r=0.33$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $n=783$), and *DKC1* ($r=0.29$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $n=3,885$) (**Figure 5A**). When testis was removed, the correlation decreased substantially for both *TERT* ($r=0.14$, $p=4 \times 10^{-5}$, $n=890$) and *DKC1* ($r=0.23$, $p < 2 \times 10^{-16}$, $n=3,686$) and disappeared for *TERC* ($r=0.02$,

$p=0.63$, $n=617$). After adjustment for covariates and random effect of tissue type, RTL showed a positive association with increasing quartiles of *TERT* expression ($p=0.005$ including testis and $p=0.002$ excluding testis) and of *DKC1* expression ($p=0.001$ including testis and $p=3 \times 10^{-4}$ excluding testis) across all tissues. Overall these results support the following: (1) high telomerase activity in testis (i.e., spermatocytes) likely contributes to longer TL observed in that tissue and (2) GTEx tissue samples consist primarily of differentiated cells, which typically have little to no telomerase activity, resulting in minimal detectable association between telomerase activity in those cells and the observed TL (32, 33).

TL mediates the effect of age on gene expression. Aging affects gene expression, and we sought to examine whether TL mediates the association between age and expression of age-associated genes. We analyzed the association between age and RNAseq-based gene expression levels among tissues with ≥ 150 samples, and selected three tissue types with $>1,000$ age-associated genes (FDR of 0.05) (see **Methods**): WB ($n=5,153$), lung ($n=1,355$), and EM ($n=5,581$) (**Figure 5B**). Using mediation analysis (34), we estimated the proportion of the effect of age on expression that was mediated by TL for each age-associated gene. For each tissue type, we observed substantially more positive than negative estimates of the “proportion mediated” (**Figure 5B**), as expected under the hypothesis that TL is a mediator (an equal number of positive and negative estimates are expected under the hypothesis of no mediation). We observed evidence that RTL mediated the effect of age on expression for 598 genes (12%) in WB, 224 genes (17%) in lung, and 1,108 (20%) in EM (based on $p_{\text{mediation}} < 0.05$ and proportion mediated > 0) (**Data Tables 4-6**). In these tissue types, RTL mediated between 4-32% of the effect of age on expression of individual genes; however, full mediation will be detected as partial mediation in the presence of measurement error (for either the mediator or the outcome) (35). We evaluated the enrichment of these RTL mediating genes in Gene Ontology (GO) terms (threshold $p_{\text{enrichment}} < 10^{-3}$), and enriched GO terms were identified for lung (22 terms), WB (147 terms), and EM (104 terms) (**Data Tables 7-9**). Four terms were common to both WB and EM, and these were related to translation initiation and cellular adhesion. Six terms were common to lung and EM, and these were related to regulation of cell communication, regulation of signaling, calcium ion binding, cell periphery, and intrinsic and integral component of membrane. Among the 147 enriched GO-terms in WB, several terms related to apoptosis and cell death were identified.

Tissue-level stem cell features are associated with TL and TERT expression. After extracting tissue-specific estimates of the number of division per stem cell (per year) and the proportion of stem cells (among all cells) for specific tissue types from Tomasetti and Vogelstein et al. (36, 37), we examined their relationship with mean RTL and mean *TERT* expression among non-reproductive GTEx tissue types ($n=12$, **Table S11**). No associations were identified between mean *TERC* and *DKC1* expression and these stem cell features. Mean RTL was positively correlated with estimated proportion of stem cells within a tissue type ($r^2=0.50$, $p=0.01$) (**Figure 6** [top, left panel]), and this association persisted after adjustment for number of divisions per stem cell ($p=0.02$) and mean *TERT* expression ($p=0.02$). We did not observe a clear association between mean *TERT* expression and the estimated proportion of stem cells within a tissue type (**Figure 6** [top, right panel]). These results suggest that tissue types with a higher proportion of stem cells in their cellular composition may have longer TL measurements in bulk tissues as a consequence.

We observed a positive correlation between mean *TERT* expression and the number of divisions per stem cell ($r^2=0.58$, $p=0.004$) (**Figure 6** [bottom, right panel]). This association persisted after adjustment for the proportion of stem cells within a tissue type ($p=0.007$) and mean RTL ($p=0.01$). Mean RTL showed suggestive evidence of correlation with the number of divisions per stem cell ($r^2=0.15$, $p=0.21$) (**Figure 6** [bottom, left panel]), and when we restricted to non-blood tissue types, mean RTL was positively correlated with number of divisions per stem cell ($r^2=0.42$, $p=0.03$). This finding suggests that tissue types that undergo more cellular turnover and replacement, such as colon, may have higher telomerase expression in order to maintain TL in the stem cell compartments.

Cell type composition is associated with TL within tissues. To determine whether TL varies among the cell types within a given tissue sample, we examined the association between RTL and estimated cell type enrichment scores (CTES) (generated using RNAseq data and the xCell software (38)). Seven CTES (for adipocytes, epithelial cells, hepatocytes, keratinocytes, myocytes, neurons, and neutrophils) were benchmarked by the GTEx consortium (Kim-Hellmuth et al 2019 [GTEx cell type paper]), and we examined the association between these 7 CTES and RTL in tissue types with ≥ 100 samples ($n=16$ tissue types). After removing cell types that were not detected within a tissue type ($n=37$ total CTES across 16 tissue types) and adjusting for age and sex, we identified eight associations ($p < 0.05$) between CTES and RTL among 37 associations tested (**Figure S14**). In exploratory analyses, we examined all 64 CTES provided by xCell that had a detection p -value < 0.05 for $>90\%$ samples within a tissue type. Restricting to tissue types with ≥ 300 samples that had both CTES and RTL data (WB, lung, and EM), there were 27, 24, and 17 CTES detected in each tissue, respectively (**Figure S15**). EM and lung had 13 and 14 CTES that were associated with RTL, after adjustment for age and sex ($p < 0.05$). RTL was positively associated with epithelial cell, smooth muscle cell, keratinocyte, and sebocytes CTES in both lung and EM ($p < 0.05$). Notably, five CTES were inversely associated with RTL ($p < 0.05$) in both lung and EM, including fibroblasts and endothelial cells. In WB, lymphoid and myeloid cell CTESs accounted for 70% of the CTES detected, and eight CTES were associated with RTL, respectively ($p < 0.05$). Neutrophil CTES were positively associated with RTL. Both CD8+ T-cell CTES were inversely associated with RTL, consistent with prior work examining cell types and TL in blood (39). These results provide evidence that TL varies across cell types within a given tissue, and consequently, cell type composition can affect TL measurement in human tissues.

TL across all tissues is associated with age-related chronic disease status. Using medical history data from GTEx donors, we examined the association between common age-related chronic diseases and RTL within and across tissues. A history of Type II diabetes (22% of donors) was associated with shorter RTL across all tissues ($p=0.02$), as well as, shorter pancreas RTL ($p=0.07$) and coronary artery RTL ($p=0.01$) (**Figure S16**). Among all donors, 50% had no history of any chronic disease, and 30%, 14%, and 6% had a history of one, two, and three (or more) chronic diseases, respectively. Chronic disease burden (sum of chronic diseases from 0-5) was associated with shorter RTL across all tissues ($p=0.008$) and in testis ($p=0.03$), coronary artery ($p=0.03$), kidney cortex ($p=0.04$), and cerebellum ($p=0.009$). When we excluded cancer from the chronic disease burden, these associations persisted across all tissues ($p=0.02$) and in all tissues listed above except for kidney cortex ($p=0.09$). These observations suggest that TL may capture some aspect of the biologic age-related health decline across tissues.

We did not observe any associations between RTL and history of cancer; however, to test the hypothesis that normal tissues with relatively short (or long) TL are also short (or long) in tumors occurring in that tissue, we compared the mean tissue-to-WB TL ratio for each GTEx tissue to the mean tumor-to-WB TL ratio in corresponding cancer types from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) (see **Methods**) (40). Mean cancer TL ratio from TCGA and normal TL ratio from GTEx were positively correlated ($r=0.44$, $p=0.03$, $n=23$) (**Figure S17**), providing support for this hypothesis.

Discussion. This study provides an unprecedented view of the substantial variation in human TL that exists across human tissue types and among individuals. We show that TL is generally positively correlated across human tissue types, and that whole blood TL can serve as a proxy for tissue-specific TL for many tissues, a finding that may support the use of blood TL as a proxy for TL in some tissues in large epidemiological studies. TL was negatively associated with age in the majority of tissues studied, confirming the hypothesis of pervasive age-related telomere shortening in most human tissues. However, the rate of shortening varied across tissues, and age explained more variation in TL in tissues with shorter mean TL. *TERT* and *TERC* expression were low or undetectable in most tissues and were not associated with TL within any tissue, likely because progenitor cells, which express telomerase, are not present in large numbers in adult tissues, which consist primarily of differentiated cells. Notably, testicular TL was ~ 1.5 - 2.5 -fold longer than TL in any other tissue type, and *TERT* was expressed in 100% of these samples

and at higher levels than any other tissue, consistent with predominance of spermatogenic cells in testis (i.e., cells developing from germ cells into spermatozoa) which have high telomerase activity (33).

RTL measured in a tissue sample is an average of the TL among all chromosomes within a heterogeneous population of cell types with different cell division rates/history, stem cell composition, and oxidative and inflammatory environments. In order to characterize variation in TL within specific cell types, cell type-specific and single-cell TL studies are needed. A large proportion of the variation in RTL was unexplained across all tissue types, potentially attributed to sources such as cell type composition (e.g., stem and progenitor cells), measurement error, and lifestyle and environmental factors with variable effects across tissues. From our simulation-based analysis of the impact of TL measurement error on our results, we show that random measurement error biases our estimate of the true correlation in TL between two tissues towards zero, suggesting that the correlations presented in this study are attenuated compared to the true correlations. We lack detailed monitoring to exposure data (e.g., smoking and alcohol use) for GTEx donors; studies that can link human tissue samples to environmental and lifestyle histories are needed to better understand environmental determinants of TL across different tissues and cell types. Currently, all TL-associated SNPs have been identified in genome-wide association studies of leukocyte TL (12-15); our study suggests some of these effects are also present in other tissue types, but larger studies of tissue-specific TL measurements are needed to characterize how these effects vary across tissues and cell types. Identifying variants that impact TL in all or most cell types (e.g., variants with effects on TL that may be present during development or in stem cells in multiple tissue types) may be ideal for evaluating the causal impact of TL on risk for a wide array of diseases (occurring in diverse tissues or cell types) using Mendelian randomization. Future studies should also evaluate the relationship between TL and other biologic and cellular aging processes and biomarkers of aging within and across tissues in order to further characterize the role TL in human aging.

REFERENCES

1. E. H. Blackburn, E. S. Epel, J. Lin, Human telomere biology: A contributory and interactive factor in aging, disease risks, and protection. *Science* **350**, 1193-1198 (2015).
2. C. B. Harley, A. B. Futcher, C. W. Greider, Telomeres shorten during ageing of human fibroblasts. *Nature* **345**, 458-460 (1990).
3. Y. Zou, A. Sfeir, S. M. Gryaznov, J. W. Shay, W. E. Wright, Does a sentinel or a subset of short telomeres determine replicative senescence? *Mol Biol Cell* **15**, 3709-3718 (2004).
4. J. W. Shay, Role of Telomeres and Telomerase in Aging and Cancer. *Cancer Discov* **6**, 584-593 (2016).
5. C. Lopez-Otin, M. A. Blasco, L. Partridge, M. Serrano, G. Kroemer, The hallmarks of aging. *Cell* **153**, 1194-1217 (2013).
6. P. C. Haycock et al., Leucocyte telomere length and risk of cardiovascular disease: systematic review and meta-analysis. *BMJ* **349**, g4227 (2014).
7. P. Willeit et al., Leucocyte telomere length and risk of type 2 diabetes mellitus: new prospective cohort study and literature-based meta-analysis. *PLoS One* **9**, e112483 (2014).
8. U. Mons et al., Leukocyte Telomere Length and All-Cause, Cardiovascular Disease, and Cancer Mortality: Results From Individual-Participant-Data Meta-Analysis of 2 Large Prospective Cohort Studies. *Am J Epidemiol* **185**, 1317-1326 (2017).
9. A. Scheller Madrid, L. Rode, B. G. Nordestgaard, S. E. Bojesen, Short Telomere Length and Ischemic Heart Disease: Observational and Genetic Studies in 290 022 Individuals. *Clin Chem* **62**, 1140-1149 (2016).
10. Telomeres Mendelian Randomization Collaboration., Association Between Telomere Length and Risk of Cancer and Non-Neoplastic Diseases: A Mendelian Randomization Study. *JAMA Oncol* **5**, 636-651 (2017).
11. C. Zhang et al., Genetic determinants of telomere length and risk of common cancers: a Mendelian randomization study. *Hum Mol Genet* **24**, 5356-5366 (2015).
12. V. Codd et al., Identification of seven loci affecting mean telomere length and their association with disease. *Nat Genet* **45**, 422-427, 427e1-2 (2013).
13. M. Mangino et al., DCAF4, a novel gene associated with leucocyte telomere length. *J Med Genet* **52**, 157-162 (2015).
14. M. Mangino et al., Genome-wide meta-analysis points to CTC1 and ZNF676 as genes regulating telomere homeostasis in humans. *Hum Mol Genet* **21**, 5385-5394 (2012).
15. D. A. Delgado et al., Genome-wide association study of telomere length among South Asians identifies a second RTEL1 association signal. *J Med Genet* **55**, 64-71 (2018).
16. C. J. Patel, A. K. Manrai, E. Corona, I. S. Kohane, Systematic correlation of environmental exposure and physiological and self-reported behaviour factors with leukocyte telomere length. *Int J Epidemiol* **46**, 44-56 (2017).
17. D. H. Rehkopf et al., Leukocyte Telomere Length in Relation to 17 Biomarkers of Cardiovascular Disease Risk: A Cross-Sectional Study of US Adults. *PLoS Med* **13**, e1002188 (2016).
18. L. Daniali et al., Telomeres shorten at equivalent rates in somatic tissues of adults. *Nat Commun* **4**, 1597 (2013).
19. S. Sabharwal et al., Telomere length dynamics in early life: the blood-and-muscle model. *FASEB J* **32**, 529-534 (2017).
20. GTEx Consortium., The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) pilot analysis: multitissue gene regulation in humans. *Science* **348**, 648-660 (2015).
21. J. H. Barrett, M. M. Iles, A. M. Dunning, K. A. Pooley, Telomere length and common disease: study design and analytical challenges. *Hum Genet* **134**, 679-689 (2015).
22. B. L. Pierce et al., Telomere length measurement by a novel Luminex-based assay: a blinded comparison to Southern blot. *Int J Mol Epidemiol Genet* **7**, 18-23 (2016).

23. C. L. Carty et al., Leukocyte Telomere Length and Risks of Incident Coronary Heart Disease and Mortality in a Racially Diverse Population of Postmenopausal Women. *Arterioscler Thromb Vasc Biol* **35**, 2225-2231 (2015).
24. C. C. Elbers et al., Comparison between southern blots and qPCR analysis of leukocyte telomere length in the health ABC study. *J Gerontol A Biol Sci Med Sci* **69**, 527-531 (2014).
25. S. C. Hunt et al., Leukocyte telomeres are longer in African Americans than in whites: the National Heart, Lung, and Blood Institute Family Heart Study and the Bogalusa Heart Study. *Aging Cell* **7**, 451-458 (2008).
26. S. M. Lynch et al., Race, Ethnicity, Psychosocial Factors, and Telomere Length in a Multicenter Setting. *PLoS One* **11**, e0146723 (2016).
27. M. Rewak et al., Race-related health disparities and biological aging: does rate of telomere shortening differ across blacks and whites? *Biol Psychol* **99**, 92-99 (2014).
28. D. A. Delgado et al., The contribution of parent-to-offspring transmission of telomeres to the heritability of telomere length in humans. *Hum Genet* **138**, 49-60 (2019).
29. M. E. Hansen et al., Shorter telomere length in Europeans than in Africans due to polygenic adaptation. *Hum Mol Genet* **25**, 2324-2330 (2016).
30. K. I. Aston et al., Divergence of sperm and leukocyte age-dependent telomere dynamics: implications for male-driven evolution of telomere length in humans. *Mol Hum Reprod* **18**, 517-522 (2012).
31. L. Rode, B. G. Nordestgaard, S. E. Bojesen, Peripheral blood leukocyte telomere length and mortality among 64,637 individuals from the general population. *J Natl Cancer Inst* **107**, djv074 (2015).
32. C. Gunes, K. L. Rudolph, The role of telomeres in stem cells and cancer. *Cell* **152**, 390-393 (2013).
33. S. Ozturk, Telomerase activity and telomere length in male germ cells. *Biol Reprod* **92**, 53 (2015).
34. D. Tingley, T. Yamamoto, K. Hirose, L. Keele, K. Imai, mediation: R Package for Causal Mediation Analysis. *Journal of Statistical Software* **59**, 1-38 (2014).
35. B. L. Pierce et al., Mediation analysis demonstrates that trans-eQTLs are often explained by cis-mediation: a genome-wide analysis among 1,800 South Asians. *PLoS Genet* **10**, e1004818 (2014).
36. C. Tomasetti, B. Vogelstein, Cancer etiology. Variation in cancer risk among tissues can be explained by the number of stem cell divisions. *Science* **347**, 78-81 (2015).
37. C. Tomasetti et al., Role of stem-cell divisions in cancer risk. *Nature* **548**, E13-E14 (2017).
38. D. Aran, Z. Hu, A. J. Butte, xCell: digitally portraying the tissue cellular heterogeneity landscape. *Genome Biol* **18**, 220 (2017).
39. J. Lin et al., Analyses and comparisons of telomerase activity and telomere length in human T and B cells: insights for epidemiology of telomere maintenance. *J Immunol Methods* **352**, 71-80 (2010).
40. F. P. Barthel et al., Systematic analysis of telomere length and somatic alterations in 31 cancer types. *Nat Genet* **49**, 349-357 (2017).
41. L. J. Carithers, H. M. Moore, The Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project. *Biopreserv Biobank* **13**, 307-308 (2015).
42. L. A. Siminoff et al., Confidentiality in Biobanking Research: A Comparison of Donor and Nondonor Families' Understanding of Risks. *Genet Test Mol Biomarkers* **21**, 171-177 (2017).
43. F. Jasmine et al., A novel pooled-sample multiplex luminex assay for high-throughput measurement of relative telomere length. *Am J Hum Biol* **30**, e23118 (2018).
44. M. G. Kibriya, F. Jasmine, S. Roy, H. Ahsan, B. Pierce, Measurement of telomere length: a new assay using QuantiGene chemistry on a Luminex platform. *Cancer Epidemiol Biomarkers Prev* **23**, 2667-2672 (2014).
45. M. G. Kibriya, F. Jasmine, S. Roy, H. Ahsan, B. L. Pierce, Novel Luminex Assay for Telomere Repeat Mass Does Not Show Well Position Effects Like qPCR. *PLoS One* **11**, e0155548 (2016).
46. Z. Ding et al., Estimating telomere length from whole genome sequence data. *Nucleic Acids Res* **42**, e75 (2014).

47. S. Nakagawa, H. Schielzeth, R. B. O'Hara, A general and simple method for obtaining R^2 from generalized linear mixed-effects models. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **4**, 133-142 (2013).
48. B. Everitt, Cluster analysis. Wiley series in probability and statistics (Wiley, Chichester, West Sussex, U.K., ed. 5th, 2011), pp. xii, 330 p.
49. C. Giambartolomei et al., Bayesian test for colocalisation between pairs of genetic association studies using summary statistics. *PLoS Genet* **10**, e1004383 (2014).
50. M. Mele et al., Human genomics. The human transcriptome across tissues and individuals. *Science* **348**, 660-665 (2015).
51. D. S. DeLuca et al., RNA-SeQC: RNA-seq metrics for quality control and process optimization. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 1530-1532 (2012).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We would like to acknowledge the GTEx donors and families for their generous participation in and contribution to the GTEx consortium. We thank A. Aviv for his helpful comment and review of the manuscript. **Funding:** Supported by the National Institute of Aging Specialized Demography and Economics of Aging Training Program (T32AG000243) and NIH Research Supplement to Promote Diversity in Health-Related Research (R35ES028379-02S1) (K.D.), Marie-Skłodowska Curie Fellowship H2020 Grant 706636 (S.K.-H.), active and past National Institute of Health grants (R35ES028379, R01ES020506, and U01HG007601) (B.L.P) and (R01CA107431) (H.A.), and by the GTEx LDACC (HHSN268201000029C). **Author contributions:** K.D., J.D., L.S.C., M.G.K, H.A., B.L.P. conceived and designed the study. F.J., J.S., M.S., M.G.K. conducted Luminex assays on all samples. K.D., L.S.C., M.C., L.T., H.L., E.R., B.L.P. contributed to the statistical analyses in the study. K.A. and F.A. were responsible for the generation of GTEx v8 RNAseq and genotyping data for the GTEx consortium. M.O., S.K.H., B.E.S., generated the GTEx cell type estimates for the v8 release. K.D. and B.L.P. wrote the manuscript. All authors contributed to the revision and review of the manuscript. **Competing interests:** None to declare. **Data and materials availability:** All data will be available on the GTEx Portal (www.gtexportal.org) and deposited on dbGap for future research use.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS

Materials and Methods

Figures S1-S19

Tables S1- S11

Data Tables S1- S9

GTEx Consortium

Laboratory and Data Analysis Coordinating Center (LDACC): François Aguet¹, Shankara Anand¹, Kristin G Ardlie¹, Stacey Gabriel¹, Gad Getz^{1,2}, Aaron Graubert¹, Kane Hadley¹, Robert E Handsaker^{3,4,5}, Katherine H Huang¹, Seva Kashin^{3,4,5}, Xiao Li¹, Daniel G MacArthur^{4,6}, Samuel R Meier¹, Jared L Nedzel¹, Duyen Y Nguyen¹, Ayellet V Segrè^{1,7}, Ellen Todres¹

Analysis Working Group (funded by GTEx project grants): François Aguet¹, Shankara Anand¹, Kristin G Ardlie¹, Brunilda Balliu⁸, Alvaro N Barbeira⁹, Alexis Battle^{10,11}, Rodrigo Bonazzola⁹, Andrew Brown^{12,13}, Christopher D Brown¹⁴, Stephane E Castel^{15,16}, Don Conrad^{17,18}, Daniel J Cotter¹⁹, Nancy Cox²⁰, Sayantan Das²¹, Olivia M de Goede¹⁹, Emmanouil T Dermitzakis^{12,22,23}, Barbara E Engelhardt^{24,25}, Eleazar Eskin²⁶, Tiffany Y Eulalio²⁷, Nicole M Ferraro²⁷, Elise Flynn^{15,16}, Laure Fresard²⁸, Eric R Gamazon^{29,30,31,20}, Diego Garrido-Martín³², Nicole R Gay¹⁹, Gad Getz^{1,2}, Aaron Graubert¹, Roderic Guigó^{32,33}, Kane Hadley¹, Andrew R Hamel^{7,1}, Robert E Handsaker^{3,4,5}, Yuan He¹⁰, Paul J Hoffman¹⁵, Farhad Hormozdizadeh^{34,1}, Lei Hou^{35,1}, Katherine H Huang¹, Hae Kyung Im⁹, Brian Jo^{24,25}, Silva Kasela^{15,16}, Seva Kashin^{3,4,5}, Manolis Kellis^{35,1}, Sarah Kim-Hellmuth^{15,16,36}, Alan Kwong²¹, Tuuli Lappalainen^{15,16}, Xiao Li¹, Xin Li²⁸, Yanyu Liang⁹, Daniel G MacArthur^{4,6}, Serghei Mangul^{26,37}, Samuel R Meier¹, Pejman Mohammadi^{15,16,38,39}, Stephen B Montgomery^{28,19}, Manuel Muñoz-Aguirre^{32,40}, Daniel C Nachun²⁸, Jared L Nedzel¹, Duyen Y Nguyen¹, Andrew B Nobel⁴¹, Meritxell Oliva^{9,42}, YoSon Park^{14,43}, Yongjin Park^{35,1}, Princy Parsana¹¹, Ferran Reverter⁴⁴, John M Rouhana^{7,1}, Chiara Sabatti⁴⁵, Ashis Saha¹¹, Ayellet V Segrè^{1,7}, Andrew D Skol^{9,46}, Matthew Stephens⁴⁷, Barbara E Stranger^{9,48}, Benjamin J Strober¹⁰, Nicole A Teran²⁸, Ellen Todres¹, Ana Viñuela^{49,12,22,23}, Gao Wang⁴⁷, Xiaoquan Wen²¹, Fred Wright⁵⁰, Valentin Wucher³², Yuxin Zou⁵¹

Analysis Working Group (not funded by GTEx project grants): Pedro G Ferreira^{52,53,54}, Gen Li⁵⁵, Marta Melé⁵⁶, Esti Yeger-Lotem^{57,58}

Leidos Biomedical - Project Management: Mary E Barcus⁵⁹, Debra Bradbury⁶⁰, Tanya Krubit⁶⁰, Jeffrey A McLean⁶⁰, Liqun Qi⁶⁰, Karna Robinson⁶⁰, Nancy V Roche⁶⁰, Anna M Smith⁶⁰, Leslie Sobin⁶⁰, David E Tabor⁶⁰, Anita Undale⁶⁰

Biospecimen collection source sites: Jason Bridge⁶¹, Lori E Brigham⁶², Barbara A Foster⁶³, Bryan M Gillard⁶³, Richard Hasz⁶⁴, Marcus Hunter⁶⁵, Christopher Johns⁶⁶, Mark Johnson⁶⁷, Ellen Karasik⁶³, Gene Kopen⁶⁸, William F Leinweber⁶⁸, Alisa McDonald⁶⁸, Michael T Moser⁶³, Kevin Myer⁶⁵, Kimberley D Ramsey⁶³, Brian Roe⁶⁵, Saboor Shad⁶⁸, Jeffrey A Thomas^{68,67}, Gary Walters⁶⁷, Michael Washington⁶⁷, Joseph Wheeler⁶⁶

Biospecimen core resource: Scott D Jewell⁶⁹, Daniel C Rohrer⁶⁹, Dana R Valley⁶⁹

Brain bank repository: David A Davis⁷⁰, Deborah C Mash⁷⁰

Pathology: Mary E Barcus⁵⁹, Philip A Branton⁷¹, Leslie Sobin⁶⁰

ELSI study: Laura K Barker⁷², Heather M Gardiner⁷², Maghboeba Mosavel⁷³, Laura A Siminoff⁷²

Genome Browser Data Integration & Visualization: Paul Flicek⁷⁴, Maximilian Haeussler⁷⁵, Thomas Juettemann⁷⁴, W James Kent⁷⁵, Christopher M Lee⁷⁵, Conner C Powell⁷⁵, Kate R Rosenbloom⁷⁵, Magali Ruffier⁷⁴, Dan Sheppard⁷⁴, Kieron Taylor⁷⁴, Stephen J Trevanion⁷⁴, Daniel R Zerbino⁷⁴

eGTE groups: Nathan S Abell¹⁹, Joshua Akey⁷⁶, Lin Chen⁴², Kathryn Demanelis⁴², Jennifer A Doherty⁷⁷, Andrew P Feinberg⁷⁸, Kasper D Hansen⁷⁹, Peter F Hickey⁸⁰, Lei Hou^{35,1}, Farzana Jasmine⁴², Lihua Jiang¹⁹, Rajinder Kaul^{81,82}, Manolis Kellis^{35,1}, Muhammad G Kibriya⁴², Jin Billy Li¹⁹, Qin Li¹⁹, Shin Lin⁸³, Sandra E Linder¹⁹, Stephen B Montgomery^{28,19}, Meritxell Oliva^{9,42}, Yongjin Park^{35,1}, Brandon L Pierce⁴², Lindsay F Rizzardi⁸⁴, Andrew D Skol^{9,46}, Kevin S Smith²⁸, Michael Snyder¹⁹, John Stamatoyannopoulos^{81,85}, Barbara E Stranger^{9,48}, Hua Tang¹⁹, Meng Wang¹⁹

NIH program management: Philip A Branton⁷¹, Latarsha J Carithers^{71,86}, Ping Guan⁷¹, Susan E Koester⁸⁷, A. Roger Little⁸⁸, Helen M Moore⁷¹, Concepcion R Nierras⁸⁹, Abhi K Rao⁷¹, Jimmie B Vaught⁷¹, Simona Volpi⁹⁰

Affiliations

1. The Broad Institute of MIT and Harvard, Cambridge, MA, USA
2. Cancer Center and Department of Pathology, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA
3. Department of Genetics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA
4. Program in Medical and Population Genetics, The Broad Institute of Massachusetts Institute of Technology and Harvard University, Cambridge, MA, USA
5. Stanley Center for Psychiatric Research, Broad Institute, Cambridge, MA, USA
6. Analytic and Translational Genetics Unit, Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston, MA, USA
7. Ocular Genomics Institute, Massachusetts Eye and Ear, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA
8. Department of Biomathematics, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA
9. Section of Genetic Medicine, Department of Medicine, The University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA
10. Department of Biomedical Engineering, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA
11. Department of Computer Science, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA
12. Department of Genetic Medicine and Development, University of Geneva Medical School, Geneva, Switzerland
13. Population Health and Genomics, University of Dundee, Dundee, Scotland, UK
14. Department of Genetics, University of Pennsylvania, Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, PA, USA
15. New York Genome Center, New York, NY, USA
16. Department of Systems Biology, Columbia University, New York, NY, USA
17. Department of Genetics, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
18. Department of Pathology & Immunology, Washington University School of Medicine, St. Louis, Missouri, USA
19. Department of Genetics, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA
20. Division of Genetic Medicine, Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt University Medical Center, Nashville, TN, USA
21. Department of Biostatistics, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI, USA
22. Institute for Genetics and Genomics in Geneva (iGE3), University of Geneva, Geneva, Switzerland
23. Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics, Geneva, Switzerland
24. Department of Computer Science, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA

25. Center for Statistics and Machine Learning, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA
26. Department of Computer Science, University of California, Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA, USA
27. Program in Biomedical Informatics, Stanford University School of Medicine, Stanford, CA, USA
28. Department of Pathology, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA
29. Data Science Institute, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, TN, USA
30. Clare Hall, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
31. MRC Epidemiology Unit, University of Cambridge, Cambridge, UK
32. Centre for Genomic Regulation (CRG), The Barcelona Institute for Science and Technology, Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain
33. Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain
34. Department of Epidemiology, Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health, Boston, MA, USA
35. Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence Laboratory, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, MA, USA
36. Statistical Genetics, Max Planck Institute of Psychiatry, Munich, Germany
37. Department of Clinical Pharmacy, School of Pharmacy, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA, USA
38. Scripps Research Translational Institute, La Jolla, CA, USA
39. Department of Integrative Structural and Computational Biology, The Scripps Research Institute, La Jolla, CA, USA
40. Department of Statistics and Operations Research, Universitat Politècnica de Catalunya (UPC), Barcelona, Catalonia, Spain
41. Department of Statistics and Operations Research and Department of Biostatistics, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, NC, USA
42. Department of Public Health Sciences, The University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA
43. Department of Systems Pharmacology and Translational Therapeutics, University of Pennsylvania, Perelman School of Medicine, Philadelphia, PA, USA
44. Department of Genetics, Microbiology and Statistics, University of Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain.
45. Departments of Biomedical Data Science and Statistics, Stanford University, Stanford, CA, USA
46. Department of Pathology and Laboratory Medicine, Ann & Robert H. Lurie Children's Hospital of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA
47. Department of Human Genetics, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA
48. Center for Genetic Medicine, Department of Pharmacology, Northwestern University, Feinberg School of Medicine, Chicago, IL, USA
49. Department of Twin Research and Genetic Epidemiology, King's College London, London, UK
50. Bioinformatics Research Center and Departments of Statistics and Biological Sciences, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC, USA
51. Department of Statistics, University of Chicago, Chicago, IL, USA
52. Department of Computer Sciences, Faculty of Sciences, University of Porto, Porto, Portugal
53. Instituto de Investigação e Inovação em Saúde, Universidade do Porto, Porto, Portugal
54. Institute of Molecular Pathology and Immunology, University of Porto, Porto, Portugal
55. Columbia University Mailman School of Public Health, New York, NY, USA
56. Life Sciences Department, Barcelona Supercomputing Center, Barcelona, Spain
57. Department of Clinical Biochemistry and Pharmacology, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, Beer-Sheva, Israel

58. National Institute for Biotechnology in the Negev, Beer-Sheva, Israel
59. Leidos Biomedical, Frederick, MD, USA
60. Leidos Biomedical, Rockville, MD, USA
61. UNYTS, Buffalo, NY, USA
62. Washington Regional Transplant Community, Annandale, VA, USA
63. Therapeutics, Roswell Park Comprehensive Cancer Center, Buffalo, NY, USA
64. Gift of Life Donor Program, Philadelphia, PA, USA
65. LifeGift, Houston, TX, USA
66. Center for Organ Recovery and Education, Pittsburgh, PA, USA
67. LifeNet Health, Virginia Beach, VA, USA
68. National Disease Research Interchange, Philadelphia, PA, USA
69. Van Andel Research Institute, Grand Rapids, MI, USA
70. Department of Neurology, University of Miami Miller School of Medicine, Miami, FL, USA
71. Biorepositories and Biospecimen Research Branch, Division of Cancer Treatment and Diagnosis, National Cancer Institute, Bethesda, MD, USA
72. Temple University, Philadelphia, PA, USA
73. Virginia Commonwealth University, Richmond, VA, USA
74. European Molecular Biology Laboratory, European Bioinformatics Institute, Hinxton, United Kingdom
75. Genomics Institute, UC Santa Cruz, Santa Cruz, CA, USA
76. Carl Icahn Laboratory, Princeton University, Princeton, NJ, USA
77. Department of Population Health Sciences, The University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah, USA
78. Schools of Medicine, Engineering, and Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA
79. Department of Biostatistics, Bloomberg School of Public Health, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, MD, USA
80. Department of Medical Biology, The Walter and Eliza Hall Institute of Medical Research, Parkville, Victoria, Australia
81. Altius Institute for Biomedical Sciences, Seattle, WA, USA
82. Division of Genetics, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA
83. Department of Cardiology, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA
84. HudsonAlpha Institute for Biotechnology, Huntsville, AL, USA
85. Genome Sciences, University of Washington, Seattle, WA, USA
86. National Institute of Dental and Craniofacial Research, Bethesda, MD, USA
87. Division of Neuroscience and Basic Behavioral Science, National Institute of Mental Health, National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD, USA
88. National Institute on Drug Abuse, Bethesda, MD, USA
89. Office of Strategic Coordination, Division of Program Coordination, Planning and Strategic Initiatives, Office of the Director, National Institutes of Health, Rockville, MD, USA
90. Division of Genomic Medicine, National Human Genome Research Institute, Bethesda, MD, USA

Funding

The consortium was funded by GTEx program grants: HHSN268201000029C (F.A., K.G.A., A.V.S., X.Li., E.T., S.G., A.G., S.A., K.H.H., D.Y.N., K.H., S.R.M., J.L.N.), 5U41HG009494 (F.A., K.G.A.), 10XS170 (Subcontract to Leidos Biomedical) (W.F.L., J.A.T., G.K., A.M., S.S., R.H., G.Wa., M.J., M.Wa., L.E.B., C.J., J.W., B.R., M.Hu., K.M., L.A.S., H.M.G., M.Mo., L.K.B.), 10XS171 (Subcontract to Leidos Biomedical) (B.A.F., M.T.M., E.K., B.M.G., K.D.R., J.B.), 10ST1035 (Subcontract to Leidos Biomedical) (S.D.J., D.C.R., D.R.V.), R01DA006227-17 (D.C.M., D.A.D.), Supplement to University of Miami grant DA006227. (D.C.M., D.A.D.), HHSN261200800001E (A.M.S., D.E.T., N.V.R., J.A.M., L.S., M.E.B., L.Q., T.K., D.B., K.R., A.U.), R01MH101814 (M.M-A., V.W., S.B.M., R.G., E.T.D., D.G-M., A.V.), U01HG007593 (S.B.M.), R01MH101822 (C.D.B.), U01HG007598 (M.O., B.E.S.).

COI

F.A. is an inventor on a patent application related to TensorQTL; S.E.C. is a co-founder, chief technology officer and stock owner at Variant Bio; E.R.G. is on the Editorial Board of Circulation Research, and does consulting for the City of Hope / Beckman Research Institut; E.T.D. is chairman and member of the board of Hybridstat LTD.; B.E.E. is on the scientific advisory boards of Celsius Therapeutics and Freenome; G.G. receives research funds from IBM and Pharmacyclics, and is an inventor on patent applications related to MuTect, ABSOLUTE, MutSig, POLYSOLVER and TensorQTL; S.B.M. is on the scientific advisory board of Prime Genomics Inc.; D.G.M. is a co-founder with equity in Goldfinch Bio, and has received research support from AbbVie, Astellas, Biogen, BioMarin, Eisai, Merck, Pfizer, and Sanofi-Genzyme; H.K.I. has received speaker honoraria from GSK and AbbVie.; T.L. is a scientific advisory board member of Variant Bio with equity and Goldfinch Bio. P.F. is member of the scientific advisory boards of Fabric Genomics, Inc., and Eagle Genomes, Ltd. P.G.F. is a partner of Bioinf2Bio.

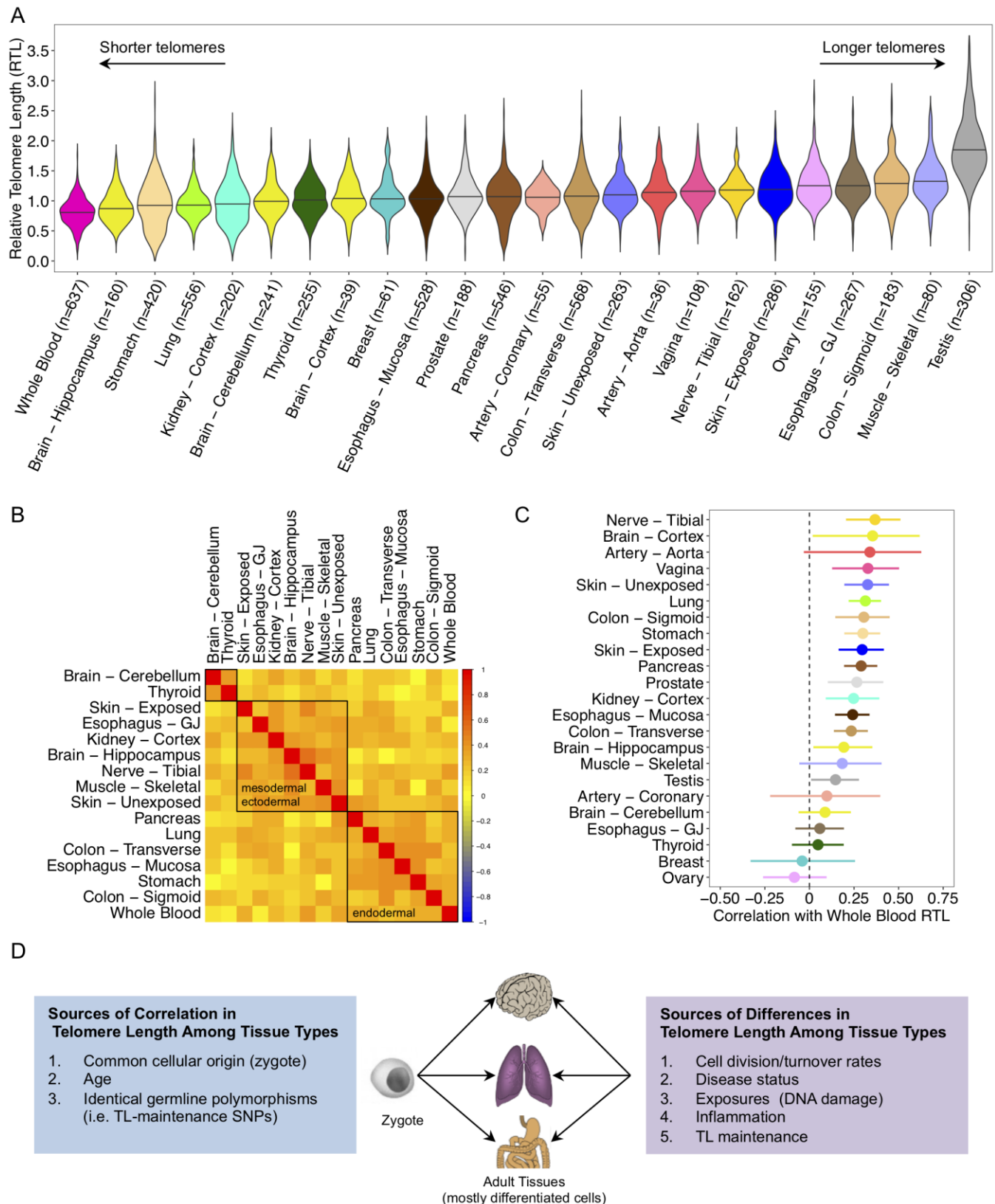


Figure 1. *Telomere lengths differ across human tissue types but are correlated among tissues types.* A) Distribution of RTL across 24 GTEx tissue types (ordered by median RTL). B) Pearson (r) correlations between RTL measures from different tissue types. Tissues included have ≥ 75 samples and were not sex-specific. Red, yellow, and blue correspond $r=1$, $r=0$, and $r=-1$, respectively. Black boxes are results from hierarchical clustering for $k=3$ clusters (exact correlations are in **Data Table S1**). C) Pearson correlations between whole blood RTL and tissue-specific RTL measures (with 95% confidence intervals). D) Theoretical framework describing determinants of telomere length across human tissue types.

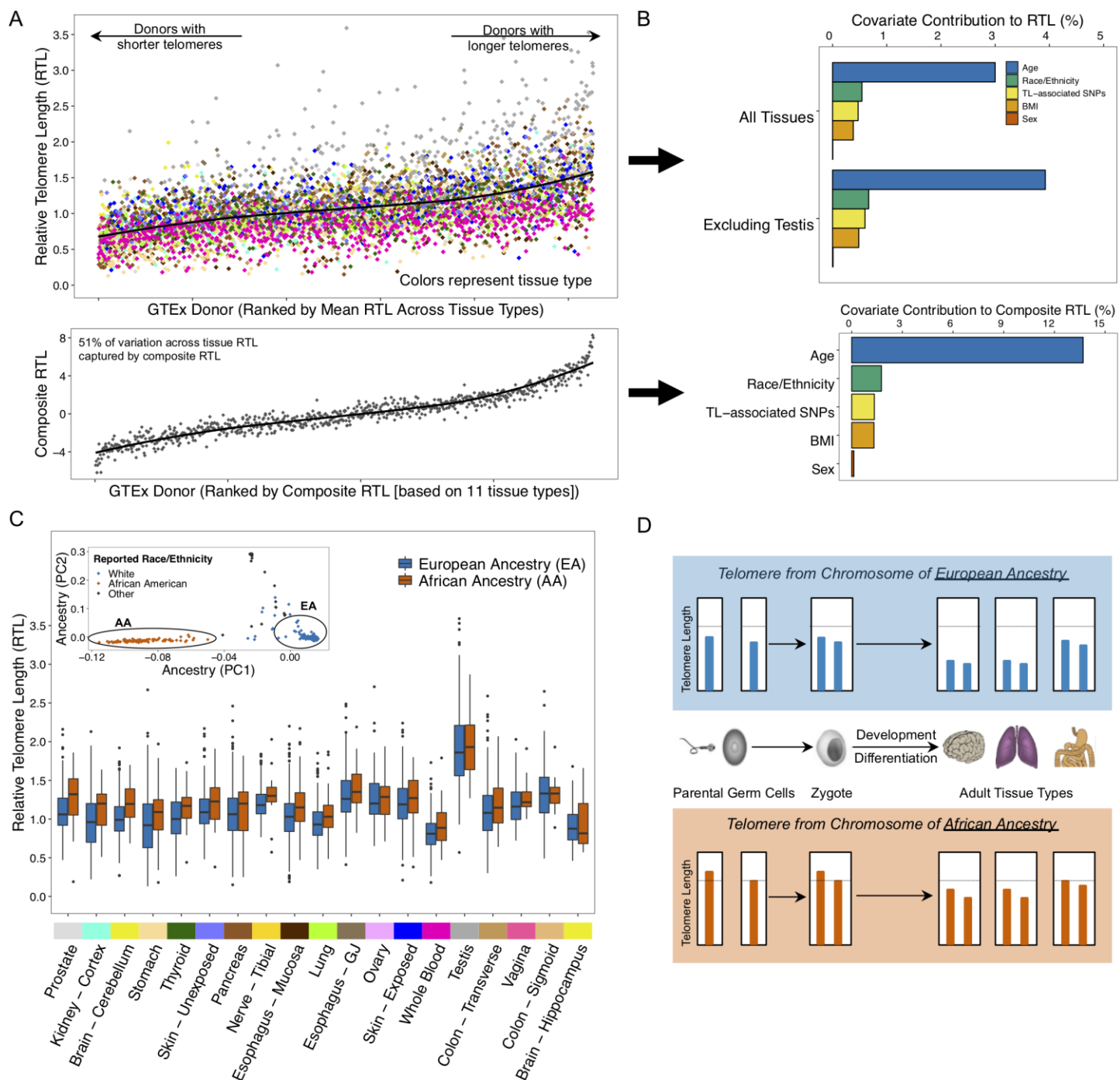


Figure 2. Telomere length varies among individuals and by ancestry. A) Distribution of RTL across GTEx donors ranked by donors' mean RTL across all measured tissue types (top panel). Bottom panel shows distribution of a "composite RTL" measure, estimated based on the first principal component from an analysis of 11 tissue types (see **Methods**). Colors correspond to GTEx tissue type. B) Contribution of selected covariates to variability in RTL across all tissues (top) and composite RTL (bottom). For the analysis across all tissues, estimates were extracted as marginal R^2 values from linear mixed models adjusted for tissue type and donor as random effects. C) Distribution of RTL measures for individuals of European and African ancestry. Tissue types are ranked by largest difference between median RTL between the two ancestry groups. Interior panel shows genotyping principal components (PCs), demonstrating consistent clustering of individuals by genetically predicted ancestry. Associations between African ancestry and RTL are presented in **Table S4**. D) Schematic describing the direct inheritance of TL from parental germ cells and expected relationship to TL across adult tissue types for individuals of African and European ancestry. Genetic (and reported race/ethnicity) ancestry was color coded for African (red) and European (blue) in panels C and D.

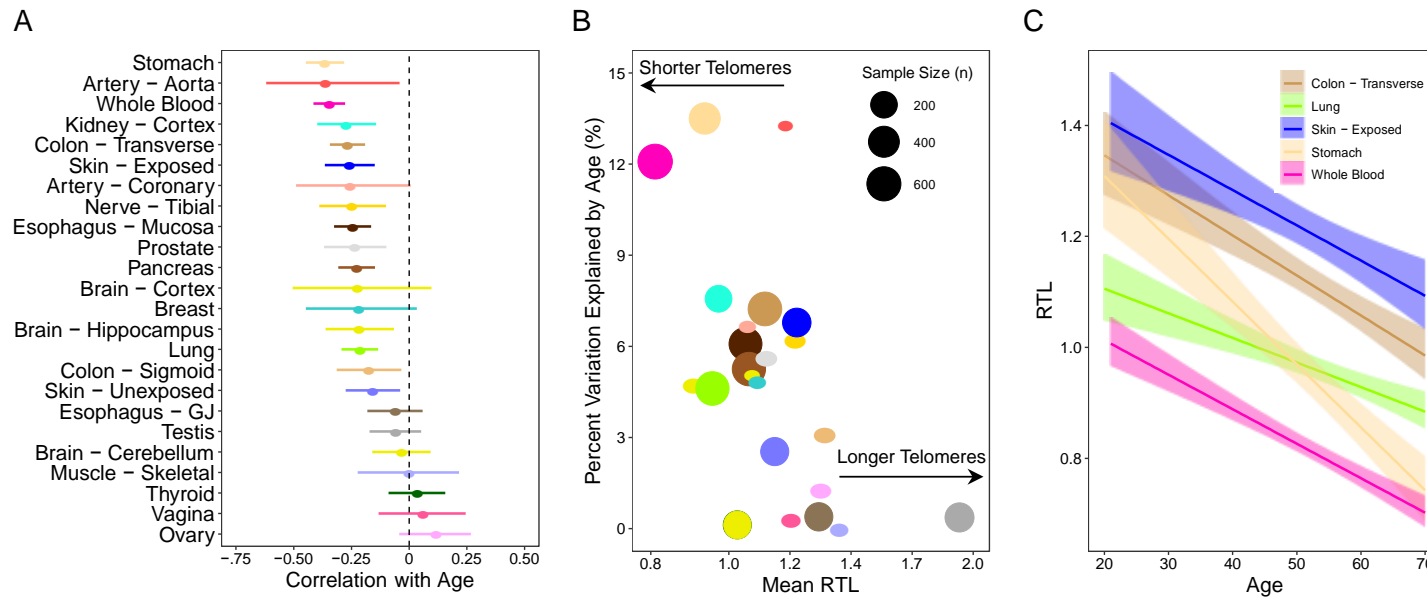


Figure 3. Age is negatively correlated with telomere length in most tissues, and correlation is strongest in tissues with shorter telomeres. A) Pearson correlations between age and tissue-specific RTL measures. B) Scatterplot of mean RTL for each tissue versus the percent variation explained by age (r^2) for each tissue. The size of each point is proportional to sample size for that tissue type. C) Relationship between RTL and age for five selected tissue types (whole blood, lung, stomach, transverse colon, and skin [exposed]). For all plots, colors correspond to tissue type.

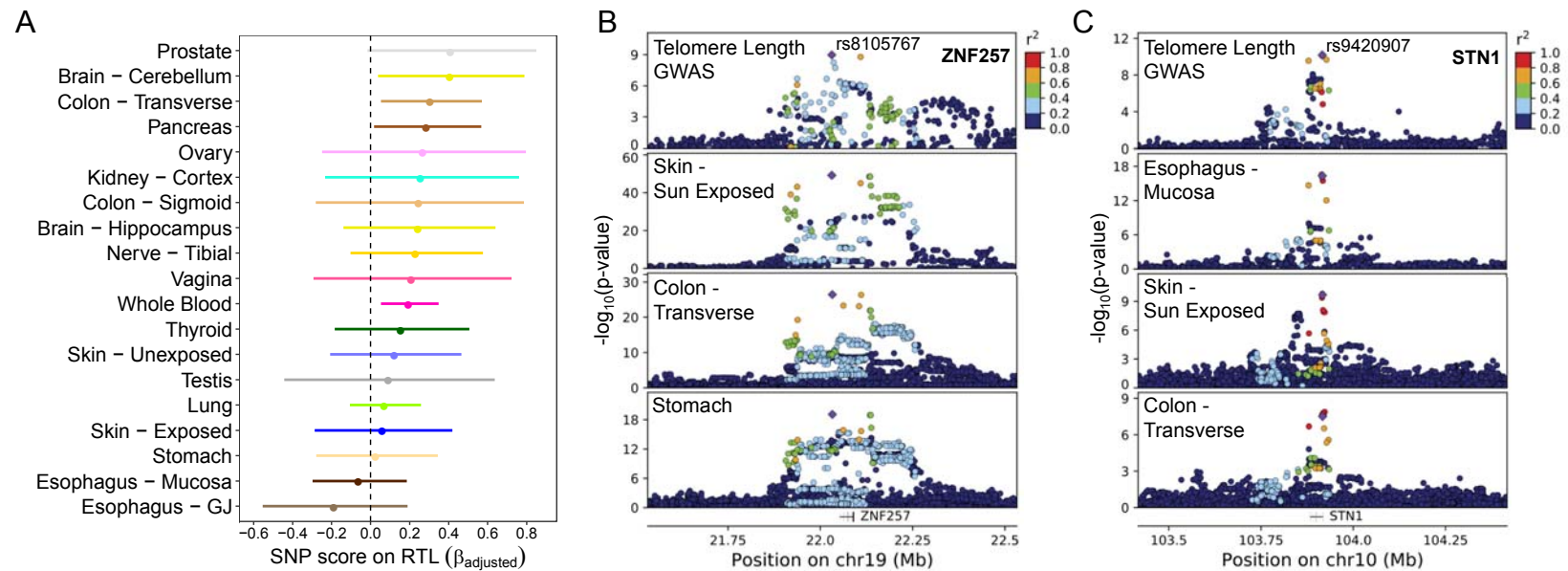


Figure 4. Genetic determinants of leukocyte telomere length impact telomere length in other tissue types and expression of nearby genes. A) Associations between a polygenic SNP score for leukocyte TL and tissue-specific RTL measures. Colors correspond to tissue type. B) Leukocyte TL association signal co-localizes with a *cis*-eQTL (expression quantitative trait locus) for *ZNF257* (~40 kb upstream of *ZNF208*). Top plot shows results from the ENGAGE consortium GWAS of leukocyte TL, and bottom three plots correspond to *cis*-eQTL results from GTEx tissues: skin sun exposed, colon – transverse, and stomach. C) Leukocyte TL association signal co-localizes with a *cis*-eQTL for *STN1* (a.k.a., *OBFC1* in hg19). Top plot corresponds to results from the ENGAGE consortium GWAS of leukocyte TL, and bottom three plots correspond to *cis*-eQTL results from GTEx tissues: skin sun exposed, esophagus - mucosa (EM), and colon – transverse.

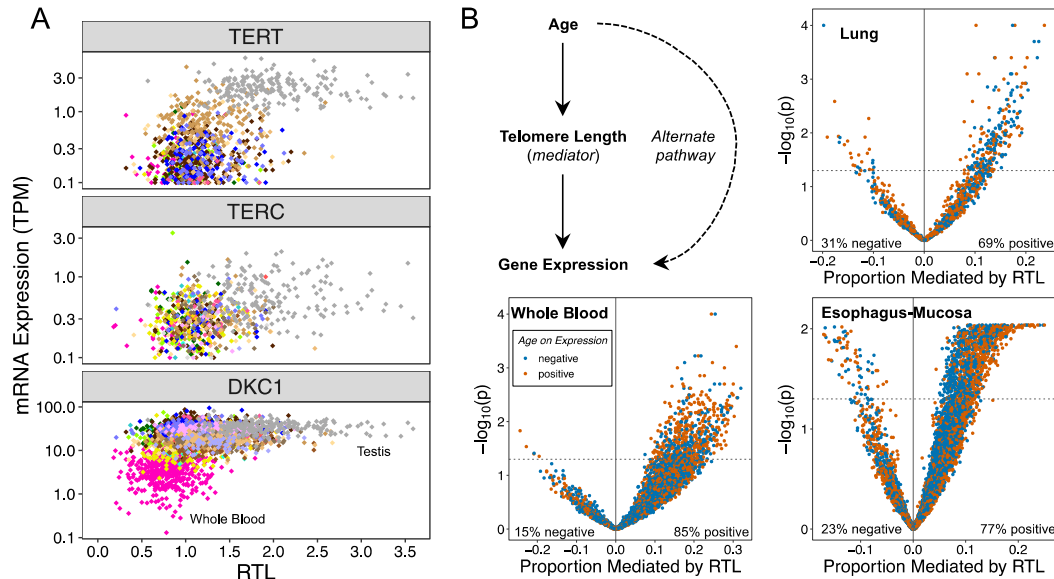


Figure 5. Telomere length is associated with telomerase subunit gene expression and mediates the effect of age on gene expression. A) RTL plotted against *TERC*, *TERT*, or *DKC1* expression across tissue types. Colors correspond to GTEx tissue types. B) Analyses addressing the hypothesis that TL mediates the effect of age on expression of specific genes. Scatterplots show estimates of the proportion of the effect of age on gene expression mediated by RTL (for each gene) and the $-\log_{10}(p)$ -value corresponding to the average causal mediation effect of RTL (for each gene). Results are presented for all age-associated genes in each of the three selected tissue types (whole blood, lung, and esophagus-mucosa [EM]). The mediation p -value was obtained using a nonparametric bootstrapping approach (n=10,000 bootstraps).

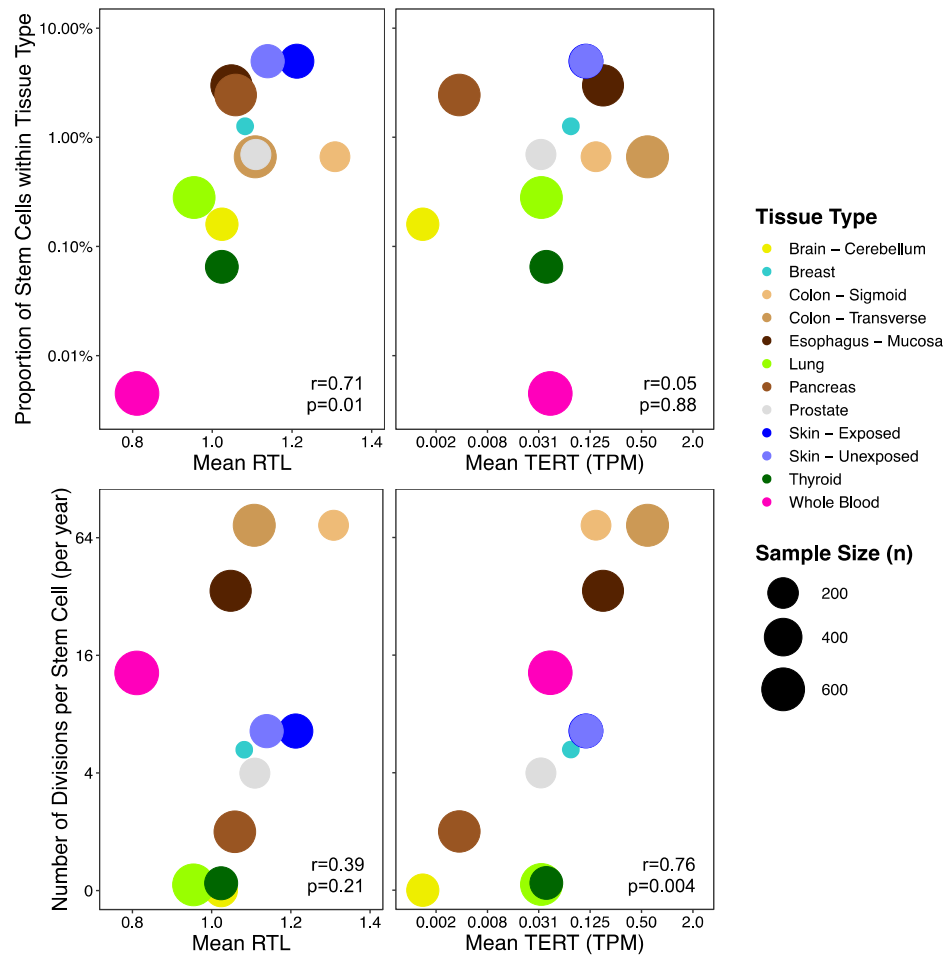


Figure 6. *Telomere length and TERT expression are associated with estimated stem cell features.* Estimated proportion of stem cells within tissues and its relationship between mean RTL (left) and mean *TERT* expression (right) are presented in top panel. Estimated number of divisions per stem cell (per year) within tissues and its relationship between mean RTL (left) and mean *TERT* expression (right) are presented in bottom panel. Colors correspond to GTEx tissue types, and size of points reflects sample size of tissue type. Pearson correlations and corresponding *p*-values are reported. Results are shown for non-reproductive tissues only.