

Seasonal changes in the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis in birds

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SUMMARY

Seasonal reproduction in birds is the adaptation to breed at the time of the greatest survival of young. This exact moment is mainly imposed by the photoperiod which stimulates the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis and starts breeding season. This article summarizes present knowledge concerning: 1/ perception and transduction of light into the biological signal; 2/ model of the avian photoperiodic response; 3/ seasonal changes in hypothalamic secretion of gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH), vasoactive intestinal polipeptide (VIP), as well as the gonadotropin inhibitory hormone (GnIH); 4/ seasonal interactions between pituitary hormones; 5/ seasonal morphological and functional changes within the avian gonads. *Reproductive Biology 2007 7 2:99-126.*

Key words: birds, seasonal reproduction, hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal axis

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INTRODUCTION

Seasonal reproduction in birds ensures the hatching of young during the most favorable environmental conditions. Such conditions are determined by the availability of food, the ultimate factor directly affecting survival. Differentiated food demands restrict the breeding season to a species-specific time. Birds have to predict the time of rich food resources. This ability is under the control of endogenous circannual rhythm [29, 51] which is synchronized by periodically changing environmental factors. The seasonal changes in daylength is the most important signal for setting the appropriate time of the year for bird reproduction. Other signals including presence of mate, nest site, social interactions, temperature or appearance of rich food supply are important for final tuning the exact moment of reproduction [30, 31, 120, 121]. In addition to these factors, the role of memory in the prediction of breeding season is proved in some species [49].

With smaller latitudes and thus with a smaller annual variation of photoperiod, birds have to integrate more supplementary cues to predict breeding season [156]. Tropical birds rely on the local climate or light intensity which informs them about coming rainfall, always followed by a period of sufficient food [59]. However, there is evidence that tropical birds respond to even minimal changes in daylength [6]. Some transequatorial and opportunistic species can breed at any time of the year with enough accessible food. They keep their reproductive system in a state of readiness throughout most of the year and are exceptionally sensitive to environmental cues [31, 59]. In general, females are more precise in the exact beginning of breeding season as their reproduction demands more energy [17].

The hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis in birds

The integrated environmental cues activate hypothalamic gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) and vasoactive intestinal polipeptide (VIP) neurons to secrete peptides which reach gonadotrophs, specific pituitary cells, through the hypophyseal portal vessels. The gonadotrophs, controlled

by GnRH, release luteinizing hormone (LH) and follicle-stimulating hormone (FSH), while lactotrophs, stimulated by VIP, synthesize prolactin (PRL). Interestingly, GnRH and VIP can also directly affect gonads *via* the appropriate gonadal receptors [3, 63, 137].

Gonadotropins bind to their gonadal receptors and affect the functioning of the ovaries and testes. In females, FSH promotes gonadal maturation and follicular selection as well as regulates progesterone secretion by granulosa cells of prehierarchal follicles. LH controls estrogen and androgen production by mature ovarian follicles. In males, FSH stimulates gonadal growth and estrogen secretion by Sertoli cells. Luteinizing hormone, in turn, is responsible for androgen production by Leydig cells. Sex steroids maintain gonadal function, ensure the negative feedback on higher levels of the reproductive axis, evoke secondary sex characteristics (e.g. color and shape of plumage, growth of the comb) and impinge on sexual behavior [63, 70]. Prolactin receptors are also present in avian gonads [81, 141]. However, in contrast to FSH and LH, PRL inhibits steroidogenic enzyme gene expression [138] and reduces testis weight [15].

MEDIOBASAL HYPOTHALAMUS AS THE CENTER OF PHOTOPERIODISM

In the majority of temperate-zone birds, lengthening days activate the HPG axis at the beginning of each reproductive season. Birds are characterized by the ability to measure the daylength to match it with appropriate seasonal activities (photoperiodic time measurement). Measuring the daylength involves light perception followed by transduction of the light signal into an endocrine one. For many years scientists have looked for the structure that plays the crucial role in this phenomenon. Lesions within mediobasal hypothalamus (MBH) including infundibulum (IN), median eminence (ME) and inferior hypothalamic nucleus, conducted by Sharp in the late 1960s [122] eliminated the avian reproductive response to long days. Moreover, electrical stimulation of these areas resulted in LH secretion and testicular growth [98]. Since then, the MBH has been extensively examined and proved to be the brain region vital for photoperiodism in birds.

Photoperiodic clock

Generally birds, unlike mammals, do not use melatonin to convey photoperiodic information as the primary signal for the reproductive system [52, 65]. In some species (e.g. white crowned sparrow *zonotrichia leucophrys*, blackheaded bunting *Emberiza melanocephala*, house finch *Carpodacus mexicanus*), however, the photoperiodic clock is coupled to some extent with the circadian clock formed by the eye, pineal gland and suprachiasmatic nucleus [115]. The evidence of melatonin receptors within brain structures connected with light perception [18] and the melatonin influence on their metabolism [77] indicates a rather indirect way of pineal hormone involvement in the control of avian reproduction.

Unquestionably, the main mechanism responsible for the transmission of photoperiodic information in birds is the photoperiodic clock which consists of clock genes and is located in the MBH [160]. Avian clock gene expression is stable during various photoperiods and provides information about the daylength. It also enables birds to maintain a photosensitive phase which is important since light is effective in stimulating the reproductive axis only during this genetically encoded period of time [160]. The photosensitive phase determines the critical daylength (“the first long day”) triggering the beginning and termination of the breeding season.

It is of interest that continuous light is not required to evoke physiological changes leading to the start of the reproductive season. Experiments confirmed that only two pulses of light are sufficient to activate the avian photoperiodic response. The first pulse occurs at dawn which triggers the photoperiodic clock to begin the countdown to the start of the photosensitive phase. The second pulse has to be provided during the photosensitive phase, and initiates endocrine changes associated with reproduction [5].

Perception and transduction of light

After 50 years of research [153] we know that light detection involving retinal and pineal photoreceptors responsible for sense of sight and biological rhythms, in birds - contrary to mammals - is not associated with the activation

of the reproductive axis. There is evidence that in the latter vertebrates, deep brain photoreceptors are involved in this process [87]. Photopigment rhodopsin, converting photon energy into neural impulses, was found in the avian hypothalamus [45]. Light-induced degradation of rhodopsin produces opsin, whose presence was demonstrated by immunohistochemistry in cerebrospinal fluid contacting neurons of the lateral septum (LS) and IN [116, 132, 152]. Thus, the MBH is the site of light perception important for seasonal activation of reproduction in birds.

The earliest molecular events induced by light take place in the MBH. Expression of immediate-early c-Fos genes (marker of neuronal activation) within neurons in the IN [83] and the hypothalamic tuberal area as well as within glial cells in the ME precedes the first endocrine changes associated with the HPG axis activation [91]. The GnRH and VIP neurons can be activated directly or indirectly. The direct way is linked to coexpression of opsin and VIP proteins in cells of LS and tuberal area of the hypothalamus [132]. In addition, opsin neurons form synapses on GnRH neurons [117].

The indirect transfer of photic information from the MBH to GnRH neurons occurs *via* tanycytes, specialized glial cells. Photoreceptors and glial cells are adjacent to each other (fig. 1; [163]) and photo-induced

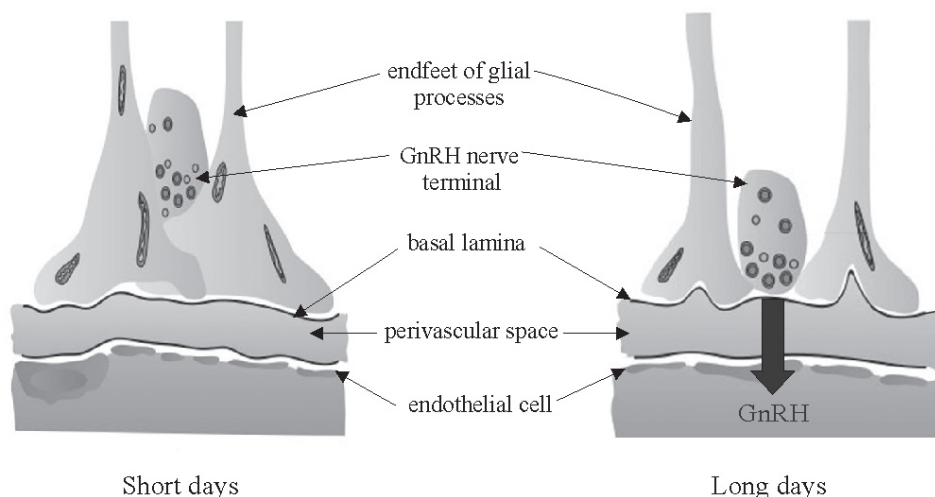


Fig. 1. Schematic morphological changes in the GnRH nerve terminals and endfeet of glial processes in the median eminence under short and long days (modified from Yoshimura [163])

reactions influence the activity of glial cells [48, 117]. Photoreceptor-activation by “the first long day” affects tanycyte transcription of two enzymes genes: it up-regulates transcription of 2 iodothyronine deiodinase (Dio2; [164]) and down-regulates 3 deiodinase (Dio3; [161]). Dio2 converts prohormone thyroxine (T4) to bioactive triiodothyronine (T3) while Dio3 turns both T3 and T4 into inactive metabolites [161]. The contradictory effects exerted by the long photoperiod on the transcription of these two genes increase the brain level of T3 about 10-fold in photostimulated birds. The locally produced T3 acts - *via* thyroid hormone receptors - on glial cells in the ME and IN. This results in a retraction of glial endfeet which enables the GnRH neuronal terminals to come closer to the perivascular space to release GnRH [159, 164]. In contrast to long days, the pattern of Dio2 and Dio3 expression during short days eliminates the high level of T3, and glial cells block the GnRH neuron connection again with the basal lamina [161].

The second, thyroid-independent, pathway for photoperiodic regulation of reproduction involves long-day induced transcription of transforming growth factor alpha (TGF α) gene within the MBH. Experiments checked that TGF α intracerebroventricular infusion conducted even during short days increased plasma LH and evoked testicular growth. This is successive evidence that TGF α is involved in the control of seasonal reproduction in birds but the exact mechanism of its action has to be elucidated [139].

Model of the photoperiodic response for avian long-day breeders

In addition to the main pathway of controlling avian seasonal reproduction, involving the photoperiodic clock described in the previous subchapter, a constant activity of genotype-dependent stimulatory input to GnRH and VIP neurons occurs in birds. The constitutive, genotype-dependent stimulation sustains only basal activity of GnRH and VIP neurons and is overridden by the stronger and photoperiodically controlled biological clock [95, 124].

As the spring progresses (fig. 2B; [124]) the length of day light reaches a critical threshold, triggering the activation of two types of inputs to GnRH and VIP neurons. The stimulatory input responds rapidly to the critical

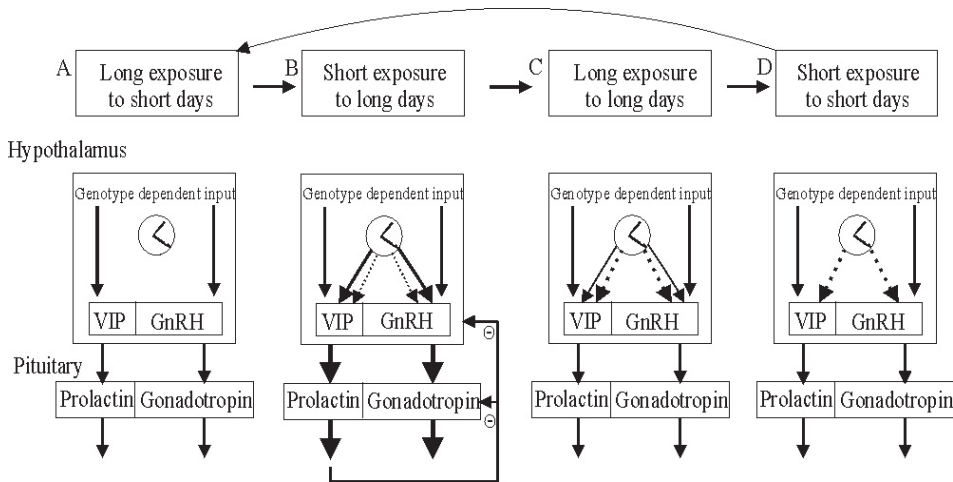


Fig. 2. Model of the avian neuroendocrine photoperiodic reproductive response for long-day breeders, incorporating a role for prolactin. The levels of inputs and outputs in the neuroendocrine system are indicated by the thickness of the lines and arrows: continuous lines-stimulation, broken lines-inhibition; for description see on pages 104–106 and 111–112 (from Sharp and Blache [124] for National Research Council Canada permission)

changes in daylength. The stimulation of the GnRH neurons (followed by a maximal activation of VIP neurons [123]) results in gonadotropin release and gonadal activation. The response to the inhibitory input develops more slowly thereby having little effect during breeding season [124].

As days get longer, the critical daylength for termination the breeding season is reached and the stimulatory input diminishes. At the same time, the inhibitory input to GnRH and VIP neurons increases and begins to predominate over the stimulatory one (fig. 2C; [124]). Despite the ongoing long photoperiod, the hypothalamus becomes refractory to light [31, 33, 34]. This dual effect of long days (stimulatory or not - depending on a time of year) controls the asymmetry of the breeding season. Such asymmetry enables birds to rear their young and molt before severe weather conditions. The majority of middle and high latitude species are absolute photorefractory because their reproductive quiescence cannot be broken by any photoperiod including constant light [30, 31, 33]. In contrast, in species exhibiting a

relative photorefractoriness e.g. Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*), the terminated reproductive activity may be restored by exposure to daylength longer than that which triggered the termination of reproduction [21].

Exposure to short days is required to overcome both types of photorefractoriness. The gradual decrease in inhibitory input occurring during short days leads to the recovery of hypothalamic photosensitivity to light (fig. 2D; [124]). During long exposure to short days, GnRH and VIP neurons are not activated by the photoperiodic clock (fig. 2A; [124]) and genotype stimulation of GnRH and VIP neurons becomes significant. The latter notion is supported by moderate increase in LH during late fall and early winter observed in domestic geese (*Anser anser f. domestica*) or house sparrows (*Passer domesticus*) [56, 60]. The LH increase results in slow gonadal activation enabling preparations for breeding season e.g. winter courtship, mating and establishment of nest sites [53, 121]. Genotype dependent stimulation is thus very important for developing optimal breeding strategies [120].

SEASONAL PLASTICITY IN THE HYPOTHALAMIC SYSTEM CONTROLLING GONADOTROPIN SECRETION

GnRH types: structure, distribution and ability to stimulate gonadotropin secretion

The GnRH is a decapeptide stimulating gonadotropin secretion which is synthesized in hypothalamic neurons. Up to now three types of GnRH (tab. 1) and two types of GnRH receptor [130, 137] have been found in the avian brain. The domestic chicken was the first vertebrate species in which two distinct forms of GnRH (cGnRH-I and cGnRH-II) were sequenced [67, 92]. First GnRH-III was demonstrated in lamprey and recently it was also found in the brain of songbirds [8]. The three GnRH types differ in structure, distribution and function.

The main population of cGnRH-I cell bodies is located in the preoptic area (POA) with fibers extending along the third ventricle and finally entering the ME, a hypothalamic area of GnRH secretion [46, 88]. The

Table 1. Amino acid sequence of avian GnRH isoforms

cGnRH-I	pGlu-His-Trp-Ser -Tyr-Gly-Leu-Gln- Pro-Gly-NH₂
cGnRH-II	pGlu-His-Trp-Ser -His-Gly-Trp-Tyr- Pro-Gly-NH₂
GnRH-III	pGlu-His-Trp-Ser -His-Asp-Trp-Lys- Pro-Gly-NH₂

Bold typing represents amino acids in the conserved NH₂- and COOH-terminals

presence of cGnRH-II in the ME and thus its involvement in the control of reproduction is controversial. Several researches reported the presence of cGnRH-II fibers in the ME [26, 143, 151] and cGnRH-II release from the ME [90], but always in a smaller amount than cGnRH-I. However, others did not confirm this information [85, 86]. Chicken GnRH-II neurons, on the other hand, are more widely distributed in other brain areas, especially in the midbrain [89]. In addition, GnRH-III neurons are also widespread in the central nervous system of birds, particularly in the telencephalon (hippocampus and song control areas; [8]).

The three forms of GnRH differ in their ability to release gonadotropins. All of them, although to different extents, stimulate secretion of LH [8, 106]. The potency of cGnRH-I and cGnRH-II was found to be either comparable to each other [58] or the GnRH types differed in their *in vitro* or *in vivo* actions [50, 69, 106, 126]. cGnRH-I is thought, however, to be the main hypophysiotropic factor stimulating the release of LH since active immunization against cGnRH-I, but not cGnRH-II, caused a decline in plasma LH and complete regression of the reproductive system [128]. On the other hand, seasonal changes in the cGnRH-II cell immunoreactivity suggest an involvement of cGnRH-II in the control of reproduction [136, 143]. The critical role of cGnRH-II in the stimulation of female courtship behavior has also been proved [79]. Moreover, the widespread brain abundance of cGnRH-II and GnRH-III suggests their functional significance. cGnRH-II may act as neurotransmitter [64] and GnRH-III as a potential mediator in transducing song-related stimuli to areas controlling gonadotropin secretion [8].

The influence of the GnRH on FSH secretion is not fully elucidated. In contrast to other researchers [42, 75, 106], Hattori and Ishi [58] found that cGnRH-I and cGnRH-II stimulate *in vitro* and *in vivo* FSH release. A constitutive release of FSH [57] and distinct localization of FSH and LH-producing cells in bird pituitaries [105] suggest that FSH secretion may not be closely associated with GnRH stimulation. Discrete regulatory mechanisms may be involved in the secretion of the two gonadotropins in birds. The photoinduced release of FSH may involve a regulatory role of ovarian follistatin and activin, which stimulates and inhibits FSH expression, respectively. The follistatin synthesis, decreased under lower GnRH pulse frequency, may be responsible for an increased FSH level [42].

Seasonal changes in GnRH-I content and secretion

Changes in the activity of hypothalamic cGnRH-I neurons are the key events in the avian seasonal neuroendocrine response [31]. The synthesis of cGnRH-I in the POA is resumed during short days i.e. when birds regain photosensitivity. However, the rate of cGnRH-I release is too low then to stimulate gonadal growth. GnRH synthesis elevates approximately three-fold as daylength increases. Subsequent higher secretion of cGnRH-I stimulates gonadal maturation [32, 36, 46]. The highest brain level of GnRH mRNA and peptide was detected during full breeding conditions [23, 35, 41, 46, 66, 93, 128, 143].

Inhibited cGnRH-I secretion is the first step towards ending reproductive activity [86]. When photorefractoriness starts, cGnRH-I synthesis is still maintained and no changes in the cGnRH-I content are observed in the POA neurons [84, 86]. At the end of the breeding season, in the relative photorefractory Japanese quail, cGnRH-I secretion stops but cGnRH-I continues to be synthesized and the peptide accumulates in the brain [47, 143]. In contrast, longer exposure to long days leads to reduced GnRH synthesis in absolute photorefractory birds [23, 34, 46, 54, 66]. At this time there is a dramatic, about 100-fold, decline in hypothalamic cGnRH-I level [35] in comparison with reproductively active birds. In the opportunistic

breeders, flexible regulation of reproduction is characterized by tonic activation of GnRH neurons which may take place even after decreased activity of the pituitary and gonads [102].

It should be emphasized that, in addition to GnRH amount, the effect of GnRH depends on receptor availability [69, 130]. It is of interest that the expression of the cGnRH-II receptor (cGnRH-IIR) increases in photostimulated birds which indicates cGnRH-IIR involvement in the control of reproduction [130].

Control of GnRH-I secretion

Photoperiod is the main regulator of the activity of GnRH neurons [124], and other cues like access to food [13, 25] or local tropical climate [39, 93] play an important though supplemental role. The combined environmental factors activate the HPG axis: the GnRH stimulates pituitary release of gonadotropin, which, in turn, increases gonadal production of steroid hormones. An increasing level of sex steroids exerts a negative feedback on the GnRH system. Gonadectomy increases hypothalamic synthesis of GnRH and pituitary release of LH [73]. Testosterone, in turn, decreases the number of immunoreactive cGnRH-I cells in the POA and cGnRH-I fibers in the ME [38, 73]. Similarly, estrogens depress cGnRH-I mRNA and peptide concentrations in the POA and cGnRH-I receptor in the pituitary of juvenile cockerels. In adult males, the inhibitory role of gonadal estrogens is replaced by brain androgen aromatization [40, 137].

Hypothalamic VIP is also thought to inhibit GnRH expression [36]. It was revealed that VIP receptor mRNA and peptide co-exist with cGnRH-I cells and fibers in the LS and caudalmost septal area [20, 144]. Furthermore, an electron microscopy study has shown synaptic connections between VIP axons and GnRH cell bodies or dendrites in the lateral septal-preoptic area [71].

The delayed, in comparison to GnRH, maximal photoperiodic activation of VIP neurons enables the VIP-ergic system to inhibit GnRH after the annual peak of the latter is reached [124]. Thus, there is an inverse relationship between VIP and GnRH peptide content in the MBH at the beginning of the photorefractoriness period [36] and it lasts as the period

progresses [112, 126]. Experimental immunoneutralization of VIP is followed by a significant increase in pituitary content of LH β and FSH β mRNAs accompanied by a decline in PRL mRNA expression [1]. PRL acts synergistically with VIP inhibiting LH by means of reduction of GnRH level in the hypothalamus [114].

A gonadotropin-inhibitory hormone (GnIH; dodecapeptide) is another factor affecting GnRH secretion [146]. Increased GnIH expression at the end of the breeding season [7, 24] is induced by elevated melatonin level during a short photoperiod. Melatonin appears to act directly since GnIH neurons are equipped with melatonin receptors [147]. Expression of GnIH receptor mRNA was found in the quail diencephalon, in the ME close to cGnRH-I fiber terminals [9] as well as in the pituitary [162]. These results suggest the existence of a second site of GnIH action i.e. pituitary. GnIH inhibited LH and FSH synthesis and release *in vitro* [24]. This was confirmed by *in vivo* GnIH injections which resulted in decreased expression of LH α and β subunit mRNAs, plasma LH, testosterone and spermatogenic activity. The decrease in the HPG axis activity led to testicular apoptosis [148]. GnIH is widely distributed in the diencephalic and mesencephalic areas which indicates it participates not only in the regulation of the neuroendocrine function but also in the regulation of behavior [149]. Centrally injected GnIH inhibited female sexual behavior possibly by inhibiting the cGnRH-II neuronal activity [9]. The ultimate suppression of the GnRH activity is derived from biological clock which triggers inhibitory input to GnRH neurons (fig. 2; [124]).

SEASONAL CHANGES IN PITUITARY HORMONES

Annual changes in gonadotropin levels

A photoperiodic threshold responsible for an increase in FSH spring secretion is reached earlier than that of LH [135]. Then the gradual increase in plasma FSH is observed. The period of elevated FSH encompasses the time of nest building, gonadal development and lasts till the end of breeding season [53, 76, 134]. Plasma FSH level is found to be higher in males than in females

and in paired birds compared to single birds [135]. Moreover, in the great tit (*Parus major*) for example, there is a second annual peak of FSH which occurs during the autumnal break of photorefractoriness [134].

The photoinduced LH increase is sudden and, compared to FSH, delayed [95, 135]. Plasma LH level peaks during the laying period [50, 56, 158]. The negative feedback of gonadal steroids plays an important role in controlling LH level during the breeding cycle. Ovariectomy results in a higher level of pituitary LH β and α subunit mRNAs and this increase is reversed by exogenous estrogens [142]. Gonadal steroids suppress basal [154] and GnRH-induced [27] plasma LH. Moreover, the estrogen negative feedback on the hypothalamus and pituitary [107, 113] was blocked in tamoxifen (antiestrogen)-treated birds. Gonadal steroid feedback, however, is insufficient to initiate a significant LH decline which coincides with the appearance of photorefractoriness [28, 96].

The LH inhibition at the onset of photorefractoriness is caused by an enhanced plasma PRL level [31, 33, 43, 80, 99]. As photorefractoriness advances the PRL level decreases and cannot be responsible for inhibition of LH [33]. Photoperiodic inhibition of GnRH neurons plays a major role in maintaining the depressed LH level during photorefractoriness [41]. In addition to short days, in the Japanese quail, a low temperature is also involved in the ultimate decline in LH β mRNA [74].

The role of PRL in photoperiodic response

The critical daylength, similar for LH and PRL release, results in their initial parallel secretion. Maximal PRL response, however, requires longer photoperiod than that of LH [129]. Additionally, during the laying phase, PRL inhibits its own secretion by decreasing hypothalamic VIP content and pituitary VIP receptors [114]. These mechanisms maintain low PRL and maximal LH level during breeding season.

When PRL photoperiodic response is maximal, PRL inhibits plasma LH which results in regression of gonads at the beginning of photorefractoriness [31, 33, 35, 43, 80, 99, 125]. The inhibitory mode of PRL action includes hypothalamus and the pituitary gland (fig. 2B). PRL injections reduced hypothalamic cGnRH-I, cGnRH-II and plasma LH [114] as well as inhibited the steroidogenic effect

of FSH and LH on the ovary [16, 138]. These findings are supported by results of *in vitro* experiments in which PRL down-regulated LH β gene expression and inhibited LH release [165]. The PRL antagonistic activity leads to the inverse ratio of LH β and PRL mRNA levels in laying and incubating birds [158].

In birds, PRL is considered to be a parental care hormone [43]. A high plasma PRL level and/or an elevated sensitivity of PRL receptors in the POA and LS are characteristic for both incubating females and males [14, 43]. PRL secretion can be enhanced by nesting behavior [43, 110] or tactile stimuli from eggs [12, 55]. The increased PRL level during egg incubation [43, 97, 140] is due to several mechanisms including photoperiod (fig. 2B; [124]) and, especially in females, estrogenic activation of VIP neurons [72].

Multiple factors are capable of influencing the VIP-ergic neuron activity. The dynorphin-serotonin-dopamine pathway contributes to VIP and consequently PRL release [168, 169, 170]. VIP enhances both transcription and stability of PRL mRNA [145]. The serotonin binding sites were increased in the anterior hypothalamus of incubating hens [78]. Dopamine (DA) acts *via* hypothalamic/pituitary D1 (stimulation of VIP/PRL secretion) and D2 receptors (inhibition of VIP/PRL secretion). In incubating birds, the up-regulation of hypothalamic D1 receptor is correlated with increased pituitary mRNA PRL expression and plasma PRL level [11, 168]. Moreover, the high PRL level during the incubating stage is also accompanied by down-regulation of hypothalamic and pituitary D2 receptors [2, 19, 119]. In addition, at this time PRL does not exert a negative feedback on hypothalamic VIP neurons and pituitary VIP receptors [114]. In incubating birds, the high VIP mRNA and peptide content [127, 166] is positively correlated with VIP mRNA receptors at the pituitary level [20].

The high PRL level found in incubating birds is associated with anatomical changes of pituitary cells. In this stage, lactotrophs recruit from mammosomatotrophs, become hypertrophic and extend from the cephalic to the caudal lobe of the pituitary [108, 109, 118]. Physical contact with chicks induces transition from incubating to brooding behavior associated with decreased PRL and increased LH secretion, rapid in the presence of precocial and slower of altricial young [111]. The definitive decline in PRL in photorefractory birds [19, 35, 43] is due to VIP-ergic neuron inhibition by the photoperiodic clock [129].

SEASONAL FLUCTUATIONS IN GONADAL MORPHOLOGY AND FUNCTIONS

Factors affecting gonadal development

In temperate latitudes, daylength is the most important factor affecting the initiation of gonadal growth, but it is not sufficient to end this process. Many supplementary cues influence later stages of gonadal maturation. They are also needed for expressing reproductive behavior and physiology. The sensitivity to these additional signals is genetically encoded and differs among particular populations of the same species [101].

Food accessibility is one of the major mediators of environmental conditions required for gonadal development and breeding commencement. Birds fed *ad libitum* had an increased number of large preovulatory ovarian follicles and full-size testis [10, 25].

Temperature, another environmental factor, appears to also modulate gonadal growth. This is especially visible in females since they put more effort in reproduction than males and have to eliminate the risk of breeding prematurely. Gonadal maturation of females is divided into two phases. The first one is controlled by photoperiod and allows the immature ovary to reach the developmental stage of 2-3 mm follicles [68]. A rapid deposition of yolk followed by ovulation and oviposition occurring during the second phase of gonadal maturation appears when environmental conditions become favorable [155].

Low temperatures can inhibit the reproductive system *via* elevated corticosterone levels [131]. Since corticosterone decreases fat accumulation and lowers body mass, its enhanced level causes delays in vernal migration of females which have to arrive at breeding grounds in their best condition [157]. On the other hand, high temperatures can accelerate gonadal growth. This is probably mediated by elevated PRL levels, whose release is known to be stimulated by high temperatures. At the beginning of breeding season, PRL may act as a progonadal factor increasing the number of gonadotropin receptors in gonads [33, 80].

In addition, social interactions in birds play crucial role for synchronizing reproductive actions between a male and a female. In ring

doves (*Streptopelia decaocto*), male courtship induces nest-coo display in females and stimulates ovarian growth by audio- and proprioceptive feedback [22]. Follicular development in the willow tit (*Parus montanus*) is also more progressive in the presence of the opposite sex [133].

Seasonal changes in gonadal steroid levels

Mature gonads secrete sex steroid hormones. Androgens, estrogens and progestagens present in circulation bind to corticosterone binding protein (CBG), a plasma transporting protein, with different affinity. Steroid binding to CBG regulates bioavailability of the hormones. Both, photoperiod and testosterone affect CBG level and control plasma amounts of free steroids [37]. Other supplementary cues, including social stimulation by a partner, can also modulate seasonal hormone fluctuations. The social stimulation induces a pronounced hormonal profile in both sexes [61].

Androgens (e.g. testosterone) produced by theca interna cells of ovarian follicles and testicular Leydig cells contribute to rapid gonadal maturation in response to photostimulation [38, 39]. Plasma testosterone (T) peak coincides with territorial behavior of males [150] and the highest quality of sperm production [100]. In both sexes, T stimulates sexual behavior and its annual maximal level is observed during the mating period [61]. After a decline in photorefractoriness at the beginning of the autumnal postrefractory period, a second T peak is observed in some species. The second T peak is a demonstration of gradual gonadal development characteristic for spontaneous sexual reactivation [56, 61, 62, 99]. In addition, T probably participates in preparing the reproductive tract for the approaching mating season. It also regulates social interactions and is important in food competition behavior.

Estrogens are produced by theca externa cells in females and by Sertoli cells in males [61]. Pairing activity is associated with elevated estrogen level. Estrogens are required for ovarian development which in turkey hens diminishes after tamoxifen treatment [107]. In female domestic geese with no offspring, in which the social status is lower than that of females with offspring, estrogens started to rise earlier in the year, displayed higher amplitude and remained elevated for a longer time compared to females

with breeding success. In the unsuccessful females, the enhanced estrogen level might help to deposit more fat and to better prepare them for the next breeding season [61]. These data support the notion concerning a relationship between social status and hormone levels.

Progesterone, the main progestagen secreted by the largest follicle, exerts a positive feedback on hypothalamus stimulating the preovulatory LH surge. The first preovulatory LH peak is followed by a breeding season with repeated cycles of ovulation and oviposition [63].

Sex steroids exert their negative feedback usually on both pituitary and hypothalamus levels [27, 40, 107, 137, 142, 154]. The inhibitory effect of steroids on the reproductive axis is insufficient in initiating the photorefractoriness [28]. The start of photorefractoriness requires a combined action of PRL and prolonged exposure to long days [31, 33, 35, 43, 80, 99, 125]. It cannot also be excluded that melatonin, due to its gonadal receptors, is another factor involved in the appearance of refractoriness and gonadal regression [4].

Gonadal regression occurs at the beginning of incubation period, when ovarian steroids act synergistically with PRL in LH depression [44, 103]. Regression of testes is mediated by apoptosis of germ and somatic (Sertoli and Leydig) cells [167]. The degenerated Leydig cells become fibroblast-like structures which in future breeding seasons turn into a new generation of juvenile interstitial cells [94]. In females, follicular atresia starts at the beginning of the egg incubation period and concerns the largest preovulatory F1 follicle first and then within the next three days extends from the F2 to F7 follicle [103].

The amplitude of annual fluctuations in gonadal function and morphology is spectacular in birds. Thanks to dramatic seasonal alterations in gonadal weight (up to a hundred-fold), birds are perfectly well adapted to the challenge of long flight migration.

CONCLUSIONS

The knowledge of avian endocrinology allows us to describe the particular steps of the bird reproductive response to changes in photoperiod: 1/ light perceived by photoreceptors in the MBH stimulates GnRH and VIP neurons

activity directly or *via* surrounding glial cells; 2/ the main hypophysiotropic GnRH-I peptide entails a cascade of physiological changes resulted in gonadal growth and expression of full breeding conditions; 3/ multiple regulatory mechanisms are involved in the inhibition of GnRH neuron activity (VIP, PRL, steroid feedback loop and increasing during short days level of GnIH); 4/ the inhibitory inputs from the biological clock finally contribute to the loss of hypothalamic sensitivity to light, which means photorefractoriness manifested in regression of gonads and molt; 5/ a period of exposure to short days leads to recovery of the hypothalamic photosensitivity to light which enables the next breeding season to be started.

However, the constant development of advanced laboratory techniques is the key to learning further details of the complicated reproductive regulatory mechanisms. The recently examined involvement of GnIH and thyroid hormones, not described in this review [82, 104], in the avian seasonal reproduction can fulfill our knowledge about it. Many interactions at all levels of the reproductive axis have to be explained to better understand the phenomenon of seasonal reproduction.

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