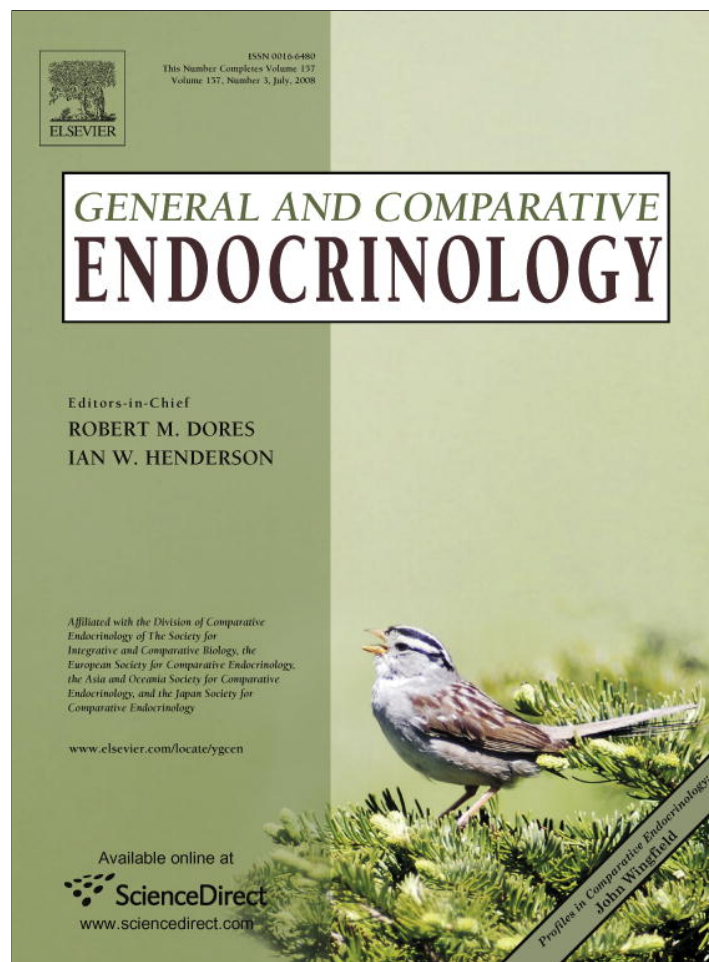


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Minireview

Tropical field endocrinology: Ecology and evolution of testosterone concentrations in male birds

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ABSTRACT

Comparative research on natural populations of vertebrates, in particular avian species, has been instrumental in documenting the existence of interspecific variation in the hormonal regulation of behavior. Studies on tropical birds, which tend to experience ecological conditions that diverge from those of higher latitude birds, have been invaluable in showcasing such variation. Here we review recent advances in tropical avian field endocrinology, focusing on male circulating testosterone concentrations during the breeding season. We summarize the evidence for a decrease in male circulating testosterone concentrations from high towards low latitudes. We revisit both established and recently proposed ecological hypotheses that attempt to explain the existence of this pattern, as well as the variation in testosterone concentrations and dynamics within tropical populations of birds. We highlight additional social and life history variables that may need to be considered if we aim at gaining an integrated understanding of the ultimate factors that influence the relationship between hormonal signals and behavioral traits in natural populations. Understanding the ecological factors that influence circulating hormone concentrations will be an important first step in our understanding of the evolutionary processes that are at the basis of variations in hormone–behavior connections. Such findings should be supplemented by studies on functional aspects of the testosterone signal at the organismal and cellular level.

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1. Introduction

Animal species display vastly divergent behaviors. A central question in ecological and evolutionary endocrinology is whether the hormonal mechanisms that control behavior have diverged accordingly or whether they have remained conserved across species (Ketterson et al., 1996; Ketterson and Nolan, 1999; Hau, 2007; Adkins-Regan, 2008; Hahn and MacDougall-Shackleton, 2008; Lessells, 2008; McGlothlin and Ketterson, 2008). Answering such questions requires comparative studies that incorporate species from a wide range of ecological conditions and evolutionary histories. Birds have proven to be outstanding model systems for such research. However, though some progress has been made, avian behavioral endocrinology—like many other fields—is still biased towards northern latitude organisms (Levin and Wingfield, 1992; Stutchbury and Morton, 2001; Hau, 2001; Astheimer and Buttemer, 2002; Hau et al., 2008), largely neglecting the huge biodiversity found in the tropics (i.e., the latitudes within 23° of the

equator) as well as in the southern hemisphere (e.g., Ricklefs, 2006; Hawkins et al., 2007). Ecological conditions can differ dramatically between tropical, southern hemisphere and northern latitude habitats, and populations from each region have often adopted specialized life styles and life histories. For example, many avian species from tropical and also southern hemisphere habitats are sedentary, have high survival rates and small clutch sizes, among many other characteristics (e.g., Skutch, 1949; Martin, 1996; Ricklefs, 2000). Particular avian clades diversified in the tropics (e.g., suboscine passerines), whereas others did so in temperate regions (e.g., oscine passerines; Barker et al., 2004; Hawkins et al., 2007), which might have influenced the evolution of their respective physiological organization. Hence, studying species that live outside northern latitudes allows behavioral endocrinologists to make use of an existing 'natural laboratory' to understand the ecology and evolution of endocrine control mechanisms.

Here, we will discuss recent advances in avian tropical endocrinology, specifically in our understanding of variations in seasonal patterns and maximal levels in circulating concentrations of the sex steroid testosterone. Testosterone regulates—as well as responds to—reproductive and aggressive behaviors in male vertebrates, and in many northern latitude bird species circulating concentrations of this hormone are greatly elevated during the

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Table 1
Environmental, social and life history variables and associated selection pressures that may contribute to low testosterone concentrations in tropical birds

Environmental/social/life history	Selection pressures
Long breeding season	Low mate competition due to low between pair synchrony
Social stability	Low rates of social conflict
Year-round territoriality	Low frequency of territorial competition
Monogamous mating system	Low reproductive competition
Long-term pair bonds	Low reproductive competition; low advertisement frequency
Low population density	Low intraspecific competition
Cooperative breeding	Low within-group aggression
Extended male paternal care	Low aggression towards offspring
Slow life history	Low reproductive rates; long life span

breeding season when males display such behaviors (Wingfield and Farner, 1993). However, the seminal work of John Wingfield has documented considerable interspecific variation in avian testosterone profiles across latitudes (summaries in Wingfield and Farner, 1993; Wingfield et al., 1997, 2000, 2001, 2006; Wingfield and Silverin, 2002). Identifying the ecological factors that determine circulating hormone concentrations is critical for understanding the evolution of hormone–behavior connections, because once in the circulation hormones can have systemic effects on various parts of the organism. Recently, studies have begun to investigate interspecific variation in responses of tissues (in particular the brain) to hormonal signals, as determined by processes such as receptor distributions sensitivities and dynamics, hormone metabolism and various other components of the hormone signaling cascade (e.g., Brenowitz, 1997; Metzdorf et al., 1999; Silverin et al., 2000; Fusani et al., 2001; Gahr, 2001; Schlinger et al., 2001; Ball et al., 2002; Soma et al., 2002; Tsutsui and Schlinger, 2002; Meddle et al., 2003; Auger, 2004; Charlier and Balthazart, 2005; Balthazart and Ball, 2006). These studies will provide important complementary information, but are still too few to put into a broader comparative framework.

In the following sections, we will review the evidence regarding a latitudinal decrease in testosterone concentrations, examine ecological factors that may account for variation in testosterone concentrations across latitudes and within the tropics, and suggest additional ecological factors that ought to be examined to increase our understanding of the selection pressures that shape hormone signals (Table 1). We will include southern hemisphere species only opportunistically as data are just beginning to accumulate (e.g., Cockrem, 1995; Buttemer and Astheimer, 2000; McDonald et al., 2001; Peters et al., 2001; Astheimer and Buttemer, 2002; Pryke et al., 2007). Furthermore, we will focus on seasonal patterns in testosterone, and not its modulation by social factors because—again—not enough is known yet about the latter in tropical species (but see, Wingfield and Lewis, 1993; Wikelski et al., 1999; Hau et al., 2004; Moore et al., 2004a; Fedy and Stutchbury, 2006; Canoine et al., 2007; Gill et al., 2008; Goymann et al., 2008). Selection pressures may differentially influence seasonally versus socially modulated secretion rates of testosterone and further study of these effects will provide additional insight into the ecology and evolution of testosterone concentrations in birds (e.g., Jawor et al., 2006, 2007; McGlothlin et al., 2007).

2. Testosterone concentrations in tropical birds

Pioneering work on afro- and neotropical birds found that males of such species have lower peak concentrations and lack the dramatic seasonal fluctuations in testosterone shown by males

from northern latitudes (Dittami and Gwinner, 1985, 1990; Dittami, 1986, 1987; Dittami and Knauer, 1986; Reyer et al., 1986; Wingfield et al., 1991, 1992; Levin and Wingfield, 1992; Wingfield and Lewis, 1993; see also Krishnaprasadan et al., 1988; Narasimhacharya et al., 1988 for Asian (sub)tropical species). Recently, a comparative study that included all available data thus far confirmed the existence of a striking decrease in maximal male testosterone concentrations from high towards low latitudes (Goymann et al., 2004; Fig. 1). Males of several neotropical lowland rainforest species exemplify this finding by exhibiting almost no seasonal fluctuations in testosterone and having breeding season testosterone concentrations that are almost one order of magnitude lower than those of temperate zone species (Fig. 2a, c, and e; see also Wikelski et al., 2000; Fedy and Stutchbury, 2006; Gill et al., 2008).

Intriguingly, this comparative study (Goymann et al., 2004) also highlighted the existence of interspecific variation in peak testosterone concentrations among tropical bird species. A number of tropical species show peak concentrations of testosterone well within the range of northern latitude birds (summary in Goymann et al., 2004; see also Moore et al., 2002; Goymann and Wingfield, 2004; Chastel et al., 2005; Canoine et al., 2007; Fusani et al., 2007; see also Fig. 2b, d, and f). For example, neotropical rufous-collared sparrows (*Zonotrichia capensis*) have testosterone concentrations that are indistinguishable from those of congeneric arctic-breeding Gambel's white-crowned sparrows (*Z. leucophrys gambelii*) and north temperate Puget Sound white-crowned sparrows (*Z. leucophrys pugetensis*; Moore et al., 2002). Moreover, equatorial rufous-collared sparrows actually show a stronger response in testosterone secretion following pharmacological stimulation with gonadotropin-releasing hormone (GnRH) than the temperate congeners (Moore et al., 2002). Similarly, although afro-tropical stonechats (*Saxicola torquata axillaris*) have lower testosterone concentrations than north temperate stonechats (*S. t. rubicola*) in almost all life-cycle stages, during egg-laying peak testosterone concentrations are higher than those of their northern temperate relatives (Fig. 3a; Goymann et al., 2006; see Rödl et al., 2004 for similar results on captive stonechats).

Hence, although a latitudinal cline exists in breeding season testosterone concentrations among avian species, considerable variation is also evident even within tropical species. As a result, a simplistic interpretation that all tropical birds have low levels of testosterone does not hold as a general rule (Goymann et al., 2004). In the following section, we discuss possible explanations for the diversity of testosterone levels observed in tropical species. Some of these factors have already been considered in statistical

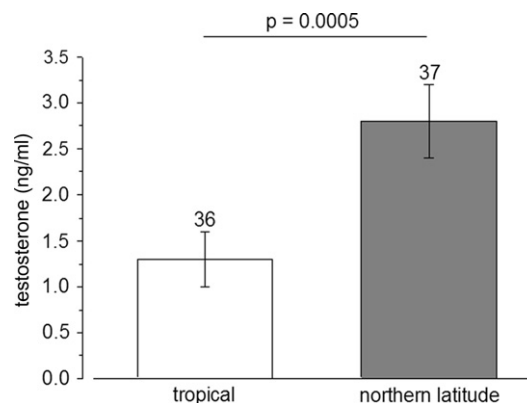


Fig. 1. Males of tropical bird species (open bar) have lower circulating concentrations of testosterone (means \pm 1 SEM) during the breeding season than males of northern latitude species (filled bar; data and statistics from Goymann et al., 2004, *p*-value from phylogenetically corrected analyses). Numbers above bars refer to number of species included.

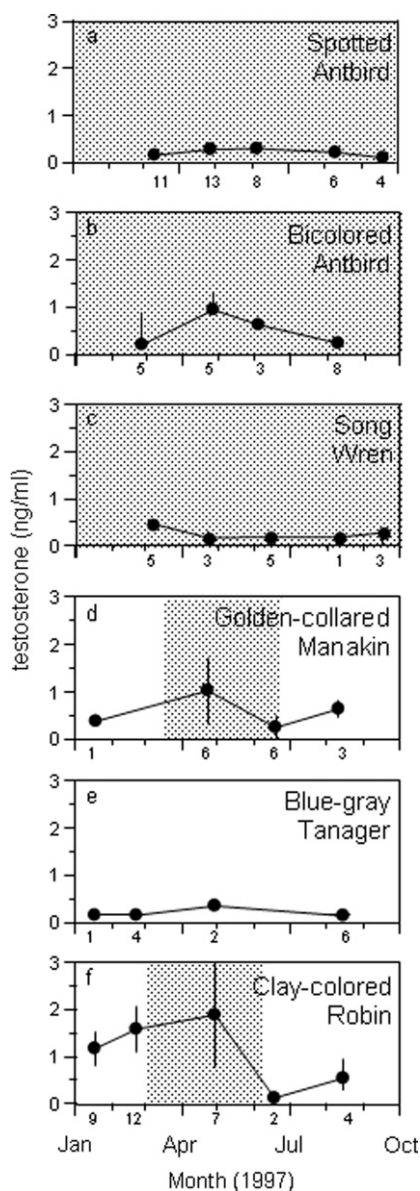


Fig. 2. Seasonal testosterone profiles (means \pm SEM) of free-living males from seven bird species from central Panama (9°N), all living within about a 10-km radius. Stippled area indicates period of territoriality (modified from Wikelski et al., 2003).

analyses (Goymann et al., 2004) while others still await their inclusion in observational and experimental studies.

3. Why do male testosterone concentrations vary between latitudes, and within the tropics?

3.1. Seasonality

Often, the tropics are described as relatively stable and benign environments with little if any seasonality. This notion may be true for a few tropical ecosystems such as lowland tropical rainforests, but even the most constant tropical environments show some degree of seasonality (Baker et al., 1940). Such seasonality can be manifested in variations of climate, food abundance, predation and many other factors (e.g., Leigh et al., 1996). Seasonality may be a key ecological factor in determining testosterone concentrations: tropical species that experience pronounced seasonality exhibit peak testosterone levels similar to northern

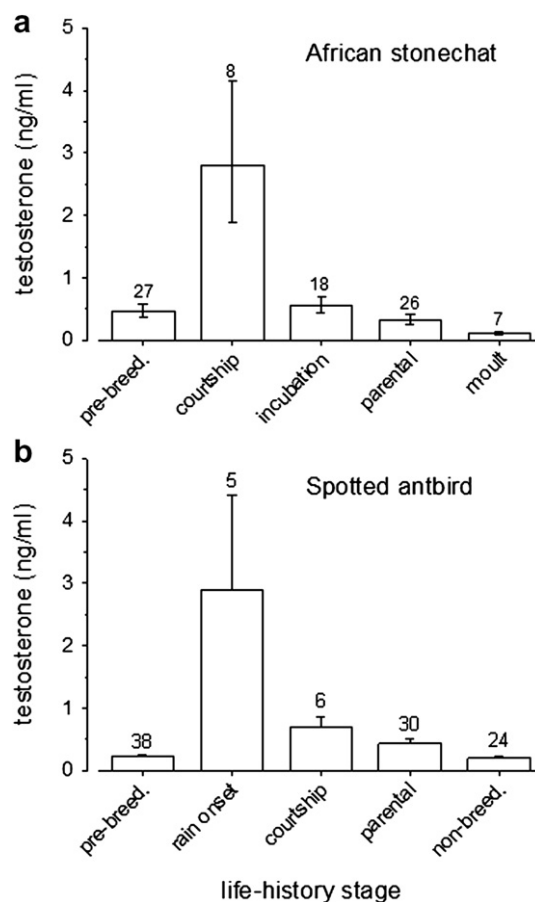


Fig. 3. Mean (\pm SEM) testosterone concentrations of male (a) afrotropical stonechats and (b) neotropical spotted antbirds across reproductive stages. In stonechats, testosterone concentrations were significantly higher during nest-building and egg-laying than during four other life-cycle stages ($p < 0.02$ from general linear model followed by bonferroni post hoc comparisons; data compiled from Goymann et al., 2006). In spotted antbirds, testosterone concentrations were highest at the onset of the rainy season (data compiled from Wikelski et al., 2000; Canoine et al., 2007). Numbers above bars indicate sample sizes.

latitude species. Indeed, the length of the breeding season, which is strongly determined by seasonality, is the main predictor of testosterone levels in tropical birds according to phylogenetically controlled analyses: the shorter the breeding season the higher the testosterone concentrations of a given species (Goymann et al., 2004). Without phylogenetic control, two factors in addition to breeding season length emerged: birds that breed at high altitude have higher concentrations of testosterone than birds breeding at low altitude, and birds that establish a seasonal territory have higher concentrations of testosterone than year-round territorial or colonial species (Goymann et al., 2004). This difference in results from phylogenetically controlled versus conventional analyses is possibly due to sample size limitations, with seasonally territorial birds mainly being represented by the closely related *Fringillidae* and *Passeridae* taxa, and colonial birds mainly being represented by closely related seabird taxa. In any case, these comparisons suggest that seasonality is an important ecological variable: when tropical birds experience pronounced seasonality (short breeding seasons, breeding at higher elevations or seasonal territoriality) they show peak testosterone levels similar to northern latitude species (for example rufous-collared sparrows; Moore et al., 2002). When breeding seasons are prolonged, peak testosterone levels of tropical birds are low (Goymann et al., 2004; but see Chastel et al., 2005 for an exception to this pattern).

3.2. Population dynamics/social stability

The 'challenge hypothesis' (Wingfield et al., 1990) predicts that testosterone concentrations are most likely elevated during times of social instability, i.e., when territory boundaries are being disputed or dominance hierarchies established. In northern latitude species, social instability occurs mainly during spring when males arrive on breeding grounds following migration and establish breeding territories, leading in many species to seasonal elevations in testosterone. By contrast, in the tropics sedentariness combined with year-round territoriality is more typical (Stutchbury and Morton, 2001). In year-round territorial species, territorial competition is much less frequent and not tied to a specific season, because stable neighbor-relationships are established and may persist over several years (e.g., Freed, 1987; Greenberg and Gradwohl, 1997). Accordingly, those species may have no need to hormonally regulate territoriality and territorial advertisement but instead may express this behavior independently of circulating hormones (e.g., Adkins-Regan, 2005). Indeed, in spotted antbirds (*Hylophylax n. naevioides*; Fig. 2a), a year-round territorial species from neotropical lowland rainforests, males have low circulating concentrations of testosterone during most of the year (Wikelski et al., 1999, 2000; see also Dittami and Gwinner, 1990; Wiley and Goldizen, 2003; Fedy and Stutchbury, 2006; Gill et al., 2008).

However, even though basic territoriality may be displayed independently of testosterone in year-round territorial species, testosterone might still function to further boost aggressive behavior whenever males engage in intense territorial interactions. For example, testosterone concentrations in male spotted antbirds are generally low year-round and it has been suggested that androgen metabolism has primarily been sequestered to the brain, which could explain its low systemic concentrations (Hau et al., 2004; Canoine et al., 2007). Nevertheless, male plasma concentrations increase during high-intensity male–male encounters of long duration and manipulation of testosterone's concentrations and biological actions influence male aggressive behavior (Wikelski et al., 1999; Hau et al., 2000). Hence, in this species, testosterone may have biological effects on acute territorial aggression that are qualitatively similar to those in temperate zone species, but the temporal dynamics of its secretion and sites of metabolism and action have been altered to minimize circulating testosterone in the absence of direct challenge (Canoine et al., 2007).

The data on spotted antbirds emphasize that caution is required when trying to infer the biological actions of testosterone from seasonal patterns in circulating concentrations without further experimental studies (see also Section 1, and Goymann et al., 2007). Along the same lines, seasonally territorial high-altitude equatorial rufous-collared sparrows have generally high testosterone concentrations during the breeding season but territorial aggression seems not being modulated by testosterone: testosterone concentrations do not increase after aggressive interactions, and neither experimental testosterone administration nor the pharmacological blockage of its actions alter aggressive behavior (Moore et al., 2004a,b).

3.3. Mating system/pair bonds

In the challenge hypothesis, Wingfield and co-authors not only predicted low levels of testosterone in species with decreased male–male competition for territories, but also for species with low competition for mates (Wingfield et al., 1987, 1990). In their comparative analysis Goymann et al. (2004) suggested that many sedentary and colonial tropical species have low concentrations of testosterone because mate competition among males is relaxed due to the establishment of long-term pair bonds. Long-term pair bonds may be more common among tropical than among northern

latitude species (Kunkel, 1974; Freed, 1987; Gill and Stutchbury, 2006), hence mating system dynamics may be another important factor selecting for low peak levels of testosterone in many tropical birds. In support of this idea, males of tropical species that establish long-term pair bonds have low testosterone (Wingfield et al., 1987; Goymann et al., 2004; Gill et al., 2008; Fig. 4). By contrast, males of tropical golden-collared manakins (*Manacus vitellinus*; Fig. 2d) and colonial frigatebirds (*Fregata magnificens*) compete for new mates in a lek-like system during each breeding season and show high concentrations of circulating testosterone (Wikelski et al., 2003; Chastel et al., 2005; Fusani et al., 2007). Similarly, during periods of mate advertisement following mate loss or divorce, testosterone could become elevated in species that establish long-term pair bonds, although this still needs to be tested.

3.4. Stimulation from receptive females

The slight seasonal changes in testosterone concentrations that are observed in some year-round territorial species (Wikelski et al., 2003) may not be due to competition with other males, but instead be related to male reproductive state or stimulation from receptive females (Goymann et al., 2007). Equatorial stonechats represent a good example: testosterone levels in males are low throughout the year suggesting that territorial behavior is not dependent on increases in testosterone. During the time females are most fertile, however, testosterone levels peak (Goymann et al., 2006; Fig. 3a, see also Fig. 3b). Similarly, some lekking species show testosterone peaks only during periods of courtship (Chastel et al., 2005), although in golden-collared manakins (*Manacus vitellinus*) testosterone declined within the first month after the onset of lekking even though courtship behavior remained unchanged (Fusani et al., 2007).

3.5. Sociality

Many cooperatively breeding (i.e., family living) species are found in tropical and subtropical areas (Arnold and Owens, 1999). Hormonal studies of cooperative breeders with a purely tropical distribution are rare, but the few existing studies suggest that breeding males may have lower testosterone concentrations during the breeding season compared to pair-breeding temperate species (Fig. 4; Reyer et al., 1986; Wingfield et al., 1991; H. Gwinner, unpubl. data). Low androgen concentrations have been suggested to be a mechanism to decrease male–male aggression within social groups (Levin and Wingfield, 1992; Poiani and Fletcher, 1994), with small changes in testosterone being sufficient to al-

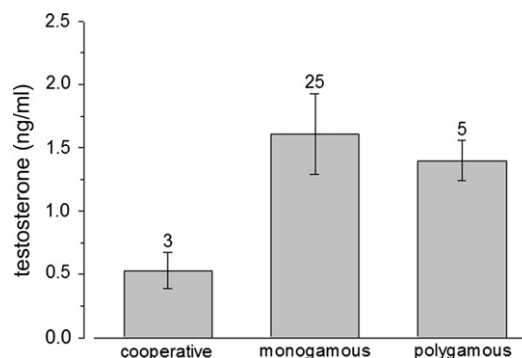


Fig. 4. Mean (± 1 SEM) circulating testosterone concentrations in males of tropical bird species with cooperative, monogamous and polygamous mating systems. Numbers above bars refer to number of species included. Data were taken from Goymann et al. (2004), complemented with additional data from Chastel et al. (2005) and Fedy and Stutchbury (2006). Cooperative breeders are represented by white-browed sparrow weavers, Galapagos mockingbirds, and pied kingfishers (Reyer et al., 1986; Wingfield et al., 1991; and H. Gwinner, unpublished).

low individuals to finely adjust their responses to interactions with other males with which they have established, long-term relationships (Peters et al., 2001).

Indeed, social interactions within cooperative groups appear to influence seasonal peak testosterone concentrations. Competition between unrelated helpers and breeders for matings with breeding females results in elevated testosterone in male breeders relative to unrelated male helpers, in unrelated male helpers compared with related male helpers, and in breeding males with helpers compared with those without helpers (Reyer et al., 1986; Khan et al., 2001; Wingfield et al., 1991; Poiani and Fletcher, 1994; Vleck and Brown, 1999; Peters et al., 2001; but see Mays et al., 1991). Thus, social conflict within groups is an important determinant of testosterone concentrations. By contrast, male testosterone does not become elevated in family-living species following aggressive interactions with individuals from other social groups (Wingfield et al., 1992; Wingfield and Lewis, 1993; Gill et al., 2008). Few cooperatively breeding species have been studied so far, thus further work is needed to understand the effects of social organization on circulating testosterone concentrations.

3.6. Parental care

The challenge hypothesis proposed that testosterone levels in males of monogamous species with extensive parental care should decline when males are caring for young (Wingfield et al., 1990). Indeed in a large number of socially monogamous species from various latitudes, males show the expected seasonal decline (e.g., Silverin, 1993; Wingfield and Farner, 1993; Ketterson and Nolan, 1994; Astheimer et al., 2000; Lynn et al., 2002; Meddle et al., 2002; Van Roo et al., 2003; Van Duyse et al., 2004; see also Hirschhauser et al., 2003). In many tropical birds, males provide considerable paternal care by incubating eggs as much as females (e.g., Auer et al., 2007), provisioning nestlings at a rate similar to females (e.g., Gill and Stutchbury, 2005), and continuing to care for young once they have fledged (Langen, 2000; Russell et al., 2004). Furthermore, a number of tropical species show periods of parental care that extend far beyond the period of offspring dependence (Willis, 1972; Langen, 2000; Russell et al., 2004; Styrsky et al., 2005). Low testosterone concentrations may be important in facilitating prolonged tolerance of males toward fledged offspring, but experimental manipulations of testosterone are needed to test this idea.

3.7. Life history/pace-of-life

Testosterone has been suggested to represent a crucial part of the physiological machinery that underlies life history strategies by mediating the trade-off between reproduction and survival (Folstad and Karter, 1992; Ketterson and Nolan, 1992; Ketterson et al., 1996; Wingfield et al., 2001; Ricklefs and Wikelski, 2002; Hau, 2007). Specifically, testosterone is known to increase male reproductive effort across vertebrate species (see Section 1), but it might do so at the expense of life span as increased circulating testosterone concentrations can decrease survival rates, immune function and other self-maintenance processes in some bird species (e.g., Dufty, 1989; Folstad and Karter, 1992; Casto et al., 2001; Wingfield et al., 2001; Reed et al., 2006; but see Roberts et al., 2004). If testosterone mediates such trade-offs, species that lie at the slow end of the 'pace-of-life continuum' with long life spans, slow development rates and low reproductive rates (for example some lowland rainforest species; Brawn et al., 1995) could be expected to have low breeding season testosterone concentrations to maximize longevity. Conversely, species with a fast pace-of-life might be able to afford higher testosterone concentrations (Hau, 2007), and may derive adaptive benefits from its per-

formance-enhancing actions, for example on sexual and aggressive behaviors.

These ideas have not yet been explicitly tested, although comparative analyses of male testosterone concentrations in temperate and tropical species across a life history gradient are currently under way (Hau, Wikelski, Ricklefs, Lee, and Brawn, in preparation). However, experimental studies in which testosterone is administered to species exhibiting a range of life histories are needed to distinguish the above-mentioned hypothesis that testosterone mediates this trade-off across species ('evolutionary constraint hypothesis') from the alternative 'evolutionary potential hypothesis' which proposes that the actions of testosterone may vary predictably among species depending on their life history strategy (Hau, 2007). The latter hypothesis suggests that long-lived species may have evolutionarily minimized the costs of testosterone, for example by reducing (or even eliminating) the presence of androgen receptors in immune tissues, or by sequestering androgenic regulation of traits to brain tissues to avoid high systemic concentrations of testosterone (see Canoine et al., 2007). In contrast, in short-lived species testosterone might be immunosuppressive as an adaptive means to ensure the allocation of limited body resources primarily into reproductive effort instead of into self-maintenance processes (Hau, 2007). Experimental studies of testosterone-mediated trade-offs in tropical birds are currently lacking, although testosterone administration has variable effects on immune function in the few wild subtropical species studied so far (e.g., Peters, 2000; Buttemer and Astheimer, 2000; Singh and Haldar, 2005). Also, testosterone does not inhibit molt, another important self-maintenance process, in a subtropical species (Astheimer and Buttemer, 1999; although it did slow down molt in golden-collared manakins, Day et al., 2006). Interestingly, in male subtropical superb fairy wrens (*Malurus cyaneus*) testosterone even promotes prenuptial molt (Peters et al., 2000).

3.8. Probability of detection/sampling issues

Even if they exist, detecting seasonal peaks of testosterone in tropical birds may be challenging. This might be particularly true in species with prolonged breeding seasons and year-round territoriality in which breeding is much less synchronous than in seasonal species (Stutchbury and Morton, 2001). Unless the exact breeding stage of each individual bird is known, the probability of sampling males when testosterone concentrations are maximal is likely to be low. For example, male spotted antbirds have been described as having low levels of testosterone during the breeding season (Wikelski et al., 2000). Recently however, Canoine et al. (2007) found high levels of testosterone in spotted antbirds caught at the onset of the rainy season, possibly caused by a highly synchronous start of the breeding season after a prolonged dry season in that particular year (see Fig. 3b). Likewise, other tropical species have high concentrations of testosterone only for a brief period at the onset of the reproductive period (Fig. 3a; Wiley and Goldizen, 2003; Chastel et al., 2005; Goymann et al., 2006; Fusani et al., 2007). Collectively these data suggest that in a number of tropical bird species under certain circumstances the testes are capable of releasing testosterone at comparable rates than in temperate zone species. Asynchronous breeding, prolonged breeding seasons and brief transient peaks of testosterone may make it more difficult to detect the presence of high concentrations of testosterone in tropical birds compared to northern latitude species.

3.9. Phylogeny

Phylogenetic origin may contribute to seasonal patterns and maximal concentrations of testosterone in tropical birds. The extent to which phylogeny determines testosterone concentrations

likely depends on the existence and strength of constraints on evolutionary changes in the testosterone production cascade (see below). If strong constraints exist, testosterone concentrations may differ predictably between major avian clades such as passerines and non-passerines or sub-oscine and oscine passerines independent of other environmental, social or life history attributes.

4. Outlook: Ecology and evolution of circulating testosterone concentrations in male birds

Because their ecologies and evolutionary histories are often different from those of higher latitude species, tropical birds are excellent models with which to further our understanding of the ecological and evolutionary factors that are at the basis of interspecific variation in circulating hormone concentrations. A latitudinal decrease in male breeding season testosterone concentrations towards low latitudes has been identified, but also the existence of considerable variation in testosterone dynamics and functions within tropical species (Goymann et al., 2004), generating ample material for future experiments.

How are low levels of testosterone physiologically accomplished in tropical birds? Or more generally, how does interspecific variation in testosterone concentrations and biological function arise on a mechanistic level? Before tackling this question one might want to consider the evolutionary histories of avian taxa. For example, within passerines suboscine and oscine clades are thought to have diverged more than 65 million years ago, with more basal clades like suboscines being more prevalent in the tropics than the derived oscines (Barker et al., 2004; Hawkins et al., 2007). This raises the possibility that such questions ought to be turned around to ask instead how northern latitude species evolved seasonally elevated circulating testosterone concentrations? Endocrine signaling pathways consist of complex cascades, with brain areas controlling the secretory activity of glands, enzymes activating or deactivating precursors or active molecules, and receptor dynamics establishing the responses of target tissues, among many other factors (Adkins-Regan, 2005, 2008). Circulating testosterone concentrations could conceivably vary interspecifically through changes in GnRH release from the hypothalamus, LH release from the pituitary, testosterone synthesis in the testes (or in other steroidogenic tissues), negative feedback of testosterone or LH on the hypothalamus, corticosterone-binding globulin availability and other possible ways (Adkins-Regan, 2005, 2008; Hau, 2007). Alternatively, temperate and tropical species might not differ in the testosterone synthesis pathway *per se*, but instead in temporal patterns of testosterone secretion (e.g., the speed of transduction of social signals, the threshold at which those signals trigger a hormonal response, the rate and pathways of hormone metabolism, etc.). This appears to be the case in several tropical species as summarized above.

Intra- and interspecific variation in steps of the testosterone-synthesis cascade is beginning to be documented (e.g., Jawor et al., 2006, 2007; Kralj-Fiser et al., 2007; Kempnaers et al., 2008), and it is this variation on which selection operates to shape circulating hormone concentrations in free-living birds. Recent research also has begun to identify possible selection pressures, responses to artificial selection, heritabilities and genetic bases of components of the testosterone production cascade (e.g., Partecke et al., 2005; Adkins-Regan, 2008; McGlothlin and Ketterson, 2008). A crucial complementary step is to understand the biological functions of testosterone signals in a similar comparative way as the hormonal signal itself, which is influenced by receptor types and dynamics, co-factors, binding globulins, and numerous other factors that mediate the cellular and organismal responses to testosterone (see Section 1). However, the fact that predictable patterns

in circulating testosterone concentrations exist which can be mapped onto ecological, social and life-history variables suggest that selection does act on hormone production pathways.

Further comparative work both in the field and laboratory will be necessary to determine whether the variation in testosterone concentrations that we observe across latitudes and within the tropics is the result of exposure to different environmental or social conditions (i.e., phenotypic plasticity), phylogenetic history, evolutionary divergence and adaptation, or a combination of some or all of these factors (Hahn and MacDougall-Shackleton, 2008). Understanding the ecology and evolution of endocrine traits will be important for assessing whether populations can adapt their behaviors and life histories fast enough to cope with the rapid changes in their environment that are currently under way (Visser, 2008).

Acknowledgments

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