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**Is microevolution the only emergency exit in a warming world?**

**Temperature influences egg laying but not its underlying mechanisms in great tits**

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32 **Abstract**

33

34 Many bird species have advanced their seasonal timing in response to global warming, but  
35 we still know little about the causal effect of temperature. We carried out experiments in  
36 climate-controlled aviaries to investigate how temperature affects luteinizing hormone,  
37 prolactin, gonadal development, timing of egg laying and onset of moult in male and  
38 female great tits. We used both natural and artificial temperature patterns to identify the  
39 temperature characteristics that matter for birds. Our results show that temperature has a  
40 direct, causal effect on onset of egg-laying, and in particular, that it is the pattern of  
41 increase rather than the absolute temperature that birds use. Surprisingly, the pre-breeding  
42 increases in plasma LH, prolactin and in gonadal size are not affected by increasing  
43 temperature, nor do they correlate with the onset of laying. This suggests that the decision  
44 to start breeding and its regulatory mechanisms are fine-tuned by different factors. We also  
45 found similarities between siblings in the timing of both the onset of reproduction and  
46 associated changes in plasma LH, prolactin and gonadal development. In conclusion, while  
47 temperature affects the timing of egg laying, the neuroendocrine system does not seem to  
48 be regulated by moderate temperature changes. This lack of responsiveness may restrain  
49 the advance in the timing of breeding in response to climate change. But as there is  
50 heritable genetic variation on which natural selection can act, microevolution can take  
51 place, and may represent the only way to adapt to a warming world.

52

53 **Introduction**

54

55 Matching the timing of breeding with the local peak of food abundance is of critical  
56 importance for many animals such as insectivorous birds that rely on external food sources  
57 for feeding their nestlings [1,28,66]. Any deviation from this favorable period has dramatic  
58 consequences in terms of energy expenditure, reproductive success and for the survival of  
59 both the parents and the offspring [55,58,68]. Because the time at which the local food  
60 peak occurs varies from year to year, and because the decision to start breeding is taken  
61 weeks in advance of the period of maximal food demand from the offspring, birds must use  
62 predictive environmental cues to try to match the annual optimal breeding period. These  
63 cues include photoperiod, temperature, vegetation development and/or social interactions  
64 (e.g. opposite-sex behaviors have been shown to enhance gonadal development and/or  
65 advance laying in a variety of species [2,29,35,75]). While photoperiod plays an important  
66 role in seasonal timing [17,22], it cannot account for the year to year variation in optimal  
67 timing. As a consequence, in most geographic zones of the world, birds have to use  
68 additional cues that allow fine-tuning the best moment to start breeding within the broad  
69 time-window opened by the stimulatory effect of increasing photoperiod on the  
70 reproductive system. In the temperate zone ambient temperature is the environmental  
71 variable that generally best correlates with this variation in seasonal timing: many  
72 observational field studies have shown robust correlations between mean population timing  
73 of reproduction and ambient temperature [15,18].

74

75 In recent years, the observation that the world's climate is changing at an unprecedented  
76 rate has induced a clear upsurge of interest in the influence of temperature on ecological  
77 mechanisms. One of the best-documented impacts of global warming on living organisms  
78 is on phenology (i.e. seasonal timing). Clear phenological shifts have been observed in all  
79 taxonomic groups in terrestrial, aquatic and marine environments over time [14,38,43,54].  
80 However, the rate at which different species change their phenology is highly variable,  
81 causing phenological mismatches in food chains [42,62,64]. These mismatches can  
82 influence population viability and can lead to natural selection on the mechanisms  
83 underlying timing, especially on the intensity with which ambient temperature affects  
84 timing. Establishing the causal effect of temperature on phenology is thus critical if we  
85 want to predict the maximum rate of temperature increase organisms can cope with, or  
86 adapt to in the coming decades [26]. At present, this causal effect of temperature on

87 seasonal timing and the underlying physiological basis of temperature integration in birds  
88 and mammals is still poorly understood.

89

90 The first experiments investigating the effect of temperature on birds' reproduction date  
91 back to 1937 [53] and since then many more studies have addressed this question  
92 [16,19,20,30,39,49,50,69,70,72-74]. Very few studies have looked at the effect of  
93 temperature on timing of reproduction directly, by obtaining laying dates under controlled  
94 conditions [34,44]. Most experiments used temporal patterns of hormone concentration or  
95 gonadal growth, generally in males [6], as proxies for timing of reproduction. No clear  
96 pattern emerges from these studies: there is variation both among species and between  
97 populations of the same species on how temperatures affect the timing of reproductive  
98 development. There are moreover potential problems with using proxies for timing of  
99 breeding as their relationship with laying dates is not always straightforward (see below)  
100 [46].

101

102 Temperature can affect seasonal timing of reproduction in two ways. Particularly low or  
103 high ambient temperatures can lead to an unfavorable energy balance and thus no energy  
104 can be allocated to breeding. In these cases temperature may constrain reproduction  
105 [40,52,60]. Alternatively, temperature may be a source of information. In that case, the  
106 effect of temperature on timing is that temperature acts as a cue predicting future  
107 environmental conditions, i.e. the optimal period for breeding to take place, and by using  
108 this predictive value of temperature, animals increase their fitness [75]. It should be noted  
109 that this predictive character of temperature may sometimes only be indirect, via a third  
110 variable such as vegetation phenology or food abundance. If temperature acts as a  
111 constraint or as an indirect predictive cue, birds would not need to directly sense and  
112 interpret temperature information to adapt to a changing climate. In addition, we would not  
113 only need to incorporate the relationship between temperature and timing in the models  
114 predicting the future consequences of global warming, but we would also need to take the  
115 effects of temperature on the third variable into account. As a consequence, one critical  
116 question for understanding and predicting the consequences of climate change is whether  
117 temperature has a direct signaling effect on seasonal timing of reproduction in birds.

118

119 **Temperature has a direct effect on timing of breeding in great tits**

120

121 Demonstrating a direct effect of ambient temperature on timing requires experiments under  
122 controlled conditions in the laboratory [48]. In 1999 we started a research program that  
123 aims at deciphering the possible causal relationships between temperature and breeding  
124 phenology in great tits (*Parus major*). This research program makes use of 36 climate-  
125 controlled aviaries, in which single pairs of great tits are housed. During the first 6 years,  
126 birds were exposed to a slowly increasing photoperiod and to temperature patterns  
127 mimicking the actual temperature variation of a year when great tits bred respectively very  
128 early (1998, the "warm" treatment) and very late (1986, the "cold" treatment) in the wild  
129 [65] (Fig. 1A). In this set-up, the two temperature profiles to which birds were exposed  
130 varied in many different aspects, but the average temperature difference between the  
131 treatments was only 4°C. Although there was large between-year variation in the effect of  
132 temperature on the onset of laying in aviaries, on average birds exposed to the warm  
133 treatment did start laying earlier than birds exposed to the cold treatment. Temperatures  
134 over a 3-week period prior to mean egg-laying date were the best predictor of variation in  
135 timing of breeding [65]. As birds were fed *ad libitum* and were maintained under artificial  
136 conditions that limit the array of environmental cues available, these results demonstrated  
137 that temperature does have a direct, causal effect on the onset of breeding in great tits.  
138 Furthermore, for a number of individual females, we had laying dates both from the  
139 aviaries and from the wild (either from the year(s) before they were brought into captivity  
140 or the year(s) after they were released at the end of the experiment). Overall those females  
141 laid later in captivity than in the wild, but there was a strong correlation between the laying  
142 dates recorded in the two kinds of environments: females that laid early in captivity also  
143 laid early in the wild [65]. This result helped validate investigations of reproduction of wild  
144 birds in captivity.

145

#### 146 **An increasing temperature is the critical cue**

147

148 At the time when the direct influence of ambient temperature on timing of breeding in  
149 great tits was demonstrated, the precise characteristics of the seasonal temperature profiles  
150 modulating a bird's decision to lay was still unknown. Most observational and  
151 experimental studies on the effect of temperature on reproduction use the mean value of  
152 temperature in their analyses. Correlational studies conducted in the wild generally  
153 calculate the average temperature or "warmth sums" of daily minimal, mean or maximal  
154 temperatures over fixed periods of time, and relate these temperature values with the

155 phenotypic traits of interest [3,4,12,32,57]. Experimental studies in captivity generally use  
156 temperatures that do not vary in time and are therefore set to remain constant around an  
157 average value [e.g. 30,50,72]. As a consequence, we first experimentally tested whether it  
158 is the mean absolute value of ambient temperature that Dutch great tits use to time their  
159 breeding period. Pairs of birds were exposed to two temperature treatments that increased  
160 stepwise by 0.65°C per week throughout the spring but constantly differed by 4°C between  
161 the two groups (the same overall temperature difference that allowed the demonstration of  
162 a direct effect of temperature in the earlier experiment) (Fig. 1B). In this experiment, the  
163 laying dates did not differ between the two groups, suggesting that the average temperature  
164 value is not the critical temperature characteristic for the onset of egg laying in great tits.  
165 However, the birds terminated laying and started molting earlier when exposed to warm  
166 temperatures. A similar early shutting down of the reproductive machinery under warm  
167 temperatures was shown in European starlings (*Sturnus vulgaris*) [16] and other  
168 populations of great tits [50]. Although the evolutionary significance of such an effect  
169 remains to be discovered, it suggests that in a warmer climate, birds' breeding seasons  
170 might become shorter, resulting in fewer offspring produced [25].

171

172 In addition to the absolute temperature not playing a role, the daily amplitude of  
173 temperature variation also does not seem to be used as a cue for breeding. In temperate  
174 zones, the difference between daily minimum and maximum temperatures increases  
175 progressively during spring. Sensing this variation in daily amplitude could thus be a  
176 relevant time-cue for seasonally breeding birds. We exposed great tits to temperatures that  
177 presented either a high or a low daily fluctuation around two different mean temperatures  
178 (Fig. 1C). The temperature profiles remained the same throughout spring, i.e. no seasonal  
179 variation in temperature. Such temperature treatments did not influence when birds  
180 initiated and terminated laying, suggesting that the daily variation in temperature is not  
181 relevant for predicting the annual optimal breeding window [47].

182

183 The relevant temperature information that female great tits use to time their breeding  
184 period seems to reside in the pattern of increase in temperature. From the different  
185 experiments in which great tits were exposed to artificial patterns of temperature variation,  
186 it appeared that females started laying earlier when they were exposed to a temperature  
187 increase at specific times during their pre-breeding period. A sharp temperature increase  
188 around 15 and 45 days prior to laying (black and blue lines on Fig. 1D) did significantly

189 advance the laying of the first egg compared to no increase at all (dashed-red and -grey on  
190 Fig. 1D). A moderate and progressive increase one month before laying (red and light-blue  
191 lines on Fig. 1E) was more influential than increases occurring earlier in the pre-breeding  
192 season (orange and dark-blue lines on Fig. 1E). How the temperature rise influenced the  
193 onset of laying was also highly dependent on the genetic background of the females (see  
194 below). The importance of a temperature increase relatively close to breeding resembles  
195 findings by Meijer et al [34], who observed that pairs of starlings started laying as soon as  
196 one week after a 5°C temperature increase at different dates in April.

197

### 198 **No effect of temperature on pre-breeding physiology**

199

200 Reproduction is preceded by a cascade of neuro-endocrine reactions triggered by the  
201 stimulatory effects of various environmental cues that forecast the optimal timing for  
202 breeding. When the environment changes, one could thus predict that it is not so much the  
203 trait value itself (i.e. onset and termination of breeding) that natural selection acts on, but  
204 rather the neuro-endocrine response mechanisms underlying the phenotype [63]. The effect  
205 of temperature that we observe on timing of reproduction would thus be mediated through  
206 its influence on the hypothalamo-pituitary-gonadal (HPG) axis, and the selective pressures  
207 of a warming climate would operate on its components.

208

209 Demonstrating an effect of ambient temperature on the activity of the HPG axis in great  
210 tits has proven difficult. In most of the experiments described earlier, monthly  
211 measurements of luteinizing hormone (LH), prolactin (PRL) and/or gonadal size (male  
212 testis and female follicle volumes) were performed. Overall, no convincing effect of  
213 temperature was found on any of these physiological mechanisms preceding breeding,  
214 even in the cases where temperature had been shown to influence the onset of laying [47]  
215 or the basal metabolic rates [11]. The only temperature effects that were found on the HPG  
216 axis were on the mechanisms associated with termination of breeding: in some  
217 experiments, warm temperatures (especially when held constant) were shown to accelerate  
218 testis regression and LH level decrease [47,67] in a similar fashion as previously described  
219 in other studies [16,49,50].

220

221 Thus, although ambient temperature does influence the onset of breeding, it does not seem  
222 to reliably impact the underlying physiological mechanisms. This suggests that the



223 decision of when to start breeding and the neuro-endocrine pathways that lead to breeding  
224 are modulated by different environmental cues. The temperature information that is  
225 perceived and integrated by the central nervous system would influence the laying decision  
226 without affecting the HPG axis. In contrast, the seasonal recrudescence of the HPG axis  
227 activity would be regulated by other environmental cues, such as photoperiod and  
228 maintained in a close-to-ready state until the decision of when to start laying is taken and  
229 the final maturation of the female follicles takes place. This hypothesis was supported by  
230 studies in blue tits that have shown a disconnection between the spring activation of the  
231 reproductive system and the actual breeding period [8,9]. Alternatively, temperature might  
232 affect components of the HPG axis that were not measured here. It has for example  
233 recently been hypothesized that the physiological regulation of reproduction could lie at  
234 the level of the gonads, particularly at the level of the female ovary [7,71], where receptors  
235 for GnRH and GnIH have been identified [56]. The temperature influence on timing of  
236 breeding might thus be mediated via a pathway that directly connects the temperature  
237 perception and integration at the brain level to the female ovary. This hypothesis and more  
238 generally, the pathways linking temperature to seasonal timing, still need to be tested [10].  
239 However, in great tits temperature does not seem to affect gonadal development in males  
240 and females, and gonadal growth is hardly related to timing of breeding (see below). How  
241 the environment controls the HPG axis has mostly been studied in relation to photoperiod,  
242 and we urgently need to better understand how other, non-photoc cues such as temperature  
243 influence the pre-breeding physiology [e.g. 51,75,76].

244

#### 245 **No link between pre-breeding physiology and timing of breeding**

246

247 Given that ambient temperature was found to modulate the onset of egg-laying, but not its  
248 underlying mechanisms (gonadal size, hormonal concentrations, etc.), one could argue that  
249 these mechanisms do not reliably predict the onset of reproduction. Most physiological  
250 studies on avian reproduction do not measure timing of breeding directly but rather  
251 measure the underlying mechanisms, generally in males [5,6], assuming that they mirror  
252 the successive breeding stages [46]. Few attempts have been made to validate these  
253 physiological proxies against the actual breeding dates [24,37,45,63]. Using the data we  
254 collected in great tits breeding in captivity, we have tried to validate some of these proxies,  
255 and found very few reliable correlations with the onset of laying [46]. Figure 2 illustrates  
256 the relationship between follicle size and laying dates from 28 individual females that were

257 used in an experiment testing for the effect of different absolute temperature values on the  
258 onset of breeding (see Fig. 1B). Individual laying dates did not correlate with the overall  
259 size of the largest follicles (i.e. intercept on Fig. 2B), nor with the rate of follicle  
260 development (i.e. slope on Fig. 2C), meaning that females that have large or fast growing  
261 follicles are not necessarily the first to initiate laying. On very few occasions, the different  
262 physiological measurements were found to correlate with each other or with laying dates at  
263 one particular sampling period, but overall no robust trend was described, meaning that  
264 laying dates can hardly be predicted based on these commonly used physiological proxies [  
265 but see 37,46]. Recording laying dates in the wild and in captivity thus seems to be  
266 necessary in studies investigating the physiological orchestration of breeding.

267

### 268 **Genetic effects on timing of breeding and the HPG axis**

269

270 Both in the wild and in captivity, the observed variation in timing of breeding in response  
271 to variation in temperature is largely due to individual phenotypic plasticity: the same  
272 individual starts breeding at different times under different climatic conditions [41]. In  
273 response to global warming, birds have often been shown to use their phenotypic plasticity  
274 to adjust to the new environmental conditions [12,31]. However, there are also consistent  
275 differences among individual birds, some individuals always breed earlier than others  
276 and/or advance breeding more when spring is warmer [36]. These individual differences  
277 reflect genetic variation in the energetic costs associated with laying [13,40] or in the way  
278 they respond to environmental cues [36]. Such genetic variation is a necessary substrate for  
279 natural selection to operate and micro-evolution to occur, in response to a changing  
280 environment [61]. To estimate the rate of micro-evolution under climate change, we need  
281 to understand to what extent individuals consistently differ in their timing of reproduction  
282 and where the genetic variation lies within the neuro-endocrine cascade that mediates  
283 timing [33,63]. The importance of micro-evolutionary responses of physiological  
284 mechanisms is starting to be acknowledged, and recent years have seen an upsurge of  
285 interest for studies addressing that question [21,27,33,59].

286

287 Most of the experiments that we performed to test for an effect of temperature on seasonal  
288 timing of reproduction in great tits used animals of known genetic background, including  
289 siblings, that were allocated across the different treatments. By comparing the pre-breeding  
290 physiology and laying dates between birds exposed to different temperatures, but with *ad*

291 *libitum* food (to exclude potential genetic variation in the energetic costs of laying), we  
292 could determine if birds differed genetically in cue sensitivity or in the way these cues are  
293 transduced in physiological pathways. We found clear differences between families of  
294 birds (each year we collected whole broods of chicks in the wild from early- or late-laying  
295 maternal lines, and we compared those siblings in captivity, see [47,67] for details) in the  
296 onset and termination of breeding, as well as in the underlying physiological mechanisms.  
297 For example, females that have mothers that lay early in the wild laid early themselves in  
298 the aviaries, and some families of males had larger testis volumes than others. Overall, and  
299 even if the results were not always consistent across successive experiments and traits, we  
300 found some genetic effects in all the physiological measures that we performed: LH, PRL,  
301 testis and follicle volumes [47,67, unpub. data]. Interestingly, some of these effects were  
302 influenced by the temperature treatments to which the birds were exposed. For instance,  
303 the effect of a temperature increase on the advancement of laying was mostly visible in  
304 females originating from genetically early families, demonstrating genetic differences in  
305 how birds perceive or respond to temperature variation [47].

306

### 307 **Is microevolution the only emergency exit in a warming world?**

308

309 In conclusion, temperature has a direct effect on timing of breeding [34,65], which in itself  
310 is an important step towards assessing the implication of climate change on seasonal  
311 timing. In addition, we showed that the most important temperature characteristic that great  
312 tits use to time their reproduction is its pattern of increase [47]. Originally we thought that  
313 this effect of temperature on timing would be mediated via the HPG axis, meaning that a  
314 temperature increase in spring would elevate the concentrations of the gonadotropins in the  
315 blood and stimulate the growth of the gonads. Temperature does however not seem to  
316 influence these commonly studied mechanisms [16,39,47,67], and we found no convincing  
317 evidence for a relationship between the development of the HPG axis and the onset of  
318 laying [46]. This suggests that the effector pathways by which temperature acts on timing  
319 by-pass some major components of the reproductive system, and that timing of breeding  
320 and its underlying mechanisms are regulated by different environmental cues. It implies  
321 that, under global warming, great tits could use temperature information to adequately  
322 advance their laying period, but that this advancement of phenology might at some point  
323 become constrained by the lack of responsiveness of the HPG axis to an increasing  
324 temperature.

325

326 However, we found some genetic variation both in the onset and termination of laying, and  
327 in the underlying mechanisms, sometimes in interaction with temperature [47,67, unpub.  
328 data]. This suggests that some families of birds will be able to respond more quickly than  
329 others to the increasing temperature, which will lead to difference in fitness between  
330 families [36]. Such heritable genetic variation in cue sensitivity (this could be temperature  
331 or photoperiod) will allow natural selection to modulate a bird's response to the  
332 information coming from its environment. In the case of birds breeding too late in an  
333 advancing season, this should lead to an increase in their sensitivity to these cues, i.e. they  
334 would start breeding under shorter photoperiods or cooler temperatures. And if phenotypic  
335 plasticity becomes insufficient to face the changes, which has already been observed in  
336 some populations [31], the only way birds might be able to restore the synchrony between  
337 their timing of breeding and the changing optimal period for rearing chicks, would be via  
338 microevolution. But microevolution is generally a slow process and the pivotal question  
339 now is whether adaptation will be fast enough [23,61].

340

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342

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351

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353

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560 **Figure captions**

561

562 *Figure 1:* Temperature profiles used during experiments conducted in climate-controlled  
563 aviaries. **A:** Temperature fluctuations mimicking actual patterns of a "warm" (red line) and  
564 a "cold" spring (blue line) during which wild great tits respectively bred exceptionally  
565 early (1998) and late (1986). On average the two treatments differed by 4°C. **B-E:**  
566 Artificial patterns of temperature variation. **B:** Stepwise increase of temperature throughout  
567 spring (increase of 0.65°C per week) with a constant 4°C difference between the two  
568 treatments. **C:** Variation in the daily amplitude of temperature. Birds were exposed to one  
569 of four temperature treatments, each composed of a high or low mean temperature (14 vs.  
570 8°C) with either a high or low day-night amplitude (6 vs. 2°C). Note that the x-axis only  
571 ranges over 24h, i.e. there was no seasonal variation. **D:** Variation in the onset and  
572 termination of a cold period. Birds were kept at 15°C from December onwards. One group  
573 remained at 15°C for the whole spring (dashed red), while the other three groups were  
574 temporarily exposed to a lower temperature (7°C) in February (black), March (light blue)  
575 or April (dashed grey). This latter group remained at 7°C until laying. **E:** Variation in the  
576 onset and the rate of increase of temperature. Four groups of birds were exposed to two  
577 consecutive temperature increases. A first increase occurred either in early (orange and  
578 red), or late (light and dark blue) February. A second increase occurred either in early (red  
579 and light blue) or late (orange and dark blue) March. Temperatures increased at different  
580 rates in February, but not in March. A day-night fluctuation of 2°C was superimposed to  
581 each of the four temperature profiles. Adapted from [46,47,65,67].

582

583 *Figure 2:* Relationship between female ovarian follicle size and onset of laying in captive  
584 great tits. **A:** Individual ovarian follicle growth profiles of 28 females. Each line represents  
585 the regression obtained based on the laparotomy data collected on four different occasions  
586 (once per month). **B:** Relationship between the size of the follicles and the onset of laying.  
587 The y-axis represents the elevation (calculated at the middle point of each regression line)  
588 of the regression lines in panel A, each point represent one individual female. Females that  
589 have large follicles (high elevations) do not necessarily lay earlier (i.e. no correlation  
590 between the variables). **C:** Relationship between the rate of follicle growth and the onset of  
591 laying. The y-axis represents the slopes of the regression lines in panel A, each point  
592 represent one individual female. Females that have fast growing follicles (steep slopes) do  
593 not necessarily lay earlier (i.e. no correlation between the variables).

Figure 1



