

## The First and Current Checklist of the Animal Species Bearing Lampbrush Chromosomes

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**Abstract:** In virtually all animal species, egg cells exhibit a notable size disparity compared to somatic cells in order to support the production of an embryo. The rapid and voluminous production of eggs, often in abundance, necessitates specialized mechanisms. One of these mechanisms is diplotene arrest, a stage characterized by nuclear expansion and heightened chromosomal transcriptional activity, resulting in the formation of distinct lampbrush chromosomes. Lampbrush chromosomes, which are remarkably long, have been best studied in amphibians and birds due to their ease of isolation from the nucleus. A thorough review of scientific literature conducted until March 2025 across electronic databases unveiled the presence of lampbrush chromosomes in a total of 197 animal species, encompassing 31 invertebrates and 166 vertebrates. The widespread occurrence of lampbrush chromosomes across such a diverse array of animal species suggests an ancient evolutionary origin for this mechanism of egg growth.

**Keywords:** Diploten arrest, egg growth, invertebrates, oogenesis, vertebrates.

## Lamba Fırçası Kromozomları Taşıyan Hayvan Türlerinin İlk ve Güncel Listesi

**Öz:** Hemen hemen tüm hayvan türlerinde, yumurta hücreleri embriyo oluşumunu desteklemek amacıyla somatik hücrelere kıyasla belirgin bir boyut farkı gösterir. Yumurtaların hızlı ve bol miktarda üretilmesi genellikle özel mekanizmalar gerektirir. Bu mekanizmalardan biri, çekirdek hacmi ve kromozomlarda transkripsiyon aktivitesi artışı ile karakterize edilen diploten arrestidir; bu süreçte, belirgin lamba fırçası kromozomları ortaya çıkar. Oldukça uzun yapıya sahip olan lamba fırçası kromozomları, çekirdektен izole edilmelerinin kolay olması nedeniyle en iyi amfibilerde ve kuşlarda incelenmiştir. Mart 2025'e kadar elektronik veri tabanları taranarak yapılan kapsamlı bilimsel literatür incelemesi, 31'i omurgasız ve 166'sı omurgalı olmak üzere toplamda 197 hayvan türünde lamba fırçası kromozomlarının varlığını ortaya koymustur. Bu kromozomların böylesine geniş ve çeşitli hayvan türlerinde görülmesi, yumurta büyümesi için bu mekanizmanın eski bir evrimsel kökene sahip olduğunu düşündürmektedir.

**Anahtar kelimeler:** Diploten arresti, omurgalılar, omurgasızlar, ovogenez, yumurta büyümeli.

## INTRODUCTION

A distinctive feature of the egg cell in all animal species is that it is much larger than the somatic cells of the organism to which it belongs. This size of the egg cell ensures the necessary number of cells for the embryo, stores nutrients that enhance the embryo's survival probability and

adaptation success, and makes it easier for the sperm to find the egg, thus increasing the likelihood of fertilization. Animals produce their eggs, which reach large volumes in a short time and can be in large numbers, by using some special mechanisms. One of these mechanisms is diplotene arrest. Developing oocytes enter a waiting stage called diplotene arrest during the prophase of the first meiotic

division (prophase I) (Masui, 2001). This waiting stage can last for hours, days, weeks, months, or years depending on the species: in *Clytia hemisphaerica* (Cnidaria, Hydrozoa) it lasts 13-15 hours, in mice it lasts for months, in frogs (*Xenopus*) 2.5-3 years, and in humans, it can last for years (Jessus et al., 2020; Wang and Pepling, 2021). During the diplotene arrest, the nucleus increases in volume, and the chromosomes take on a dense transcriptional activity, forming a characteristic brush-like appearance seen in some vertebrates and invertebrates except mammals, hence termed as lampbrush chromosomes (LBCs). The nucleus in this stage is called the germinal vesicle. The number of nucleoli increases within the germinal vesicle (Coimbra and Azevedo, 1984; Guraya, 1989), excluding adult birds (Koshel et al., 2016), and synthesized histones are stored within it (Jessus et al., 2020).

**Brief history:** Detailed history of LBCs from their discovery towards mid-1985 can be found in the first chapter of the comprehensive and authoritative book by Professor Harold Garnet Callan (1917-1993). As summarized from this chapter, the history of the discovery and naming of these structures is as follows. LBCs were first observed by the German biologist Walther Flemming (1843-1905), considered the founder of cytogenetics. While studying the egg development of *Siredon pisciformis* (*Ambystoma mexicanum*) with his student, Flemming noticed peculiar, delicate structures in the nuclei of young oocytes in stained preparations. These elongated structures were arranged perpendicular to the long axis and consisted of thin ribbons extending in all directions from the axis. He published these observations in 1882. Flemming later reported similar structures in the nuclei of young oocytes of other salamanders and frogs in his subsequent studies. Carl Rabl (1853-1917), who was an Austrian anatomist, embryologist, and cytologist, observed these structures in the nuclei of *Proteus*, a species of salamander, in 1885, while Moritz Holl (1852-1920), an Austrian anatomist observed them in chicken oocytes in 1890. The German anatomist Johannes Rückert (1854-1923) identified these structures as chromosomes in 1892. During his study on the ovary of *Pristiurus* (*Pristiurus sauteri* or *Pristurus sauteri* valid as *Galeus sauteri*), a shark species, Rückert likened these chromosomes he observed in the nuclei of developing oocytes in sections to brushes used to clean gas lamp glass (similar to brushes used today for cleaning glassware such as test tubes, beakers, and bottles) and named them lampbrush chromosomes (Callan, 1986).

**An overview:** LBCs are bivalents (tetrads); in each bivalent, two homologous chromosomes (maternal and paternal) are connected at chiasmata points, and thousands of loops extend from the chromatids of each chromosome, one on each side. These loops, due to the accumulation of ribonucleoproteins (RNA polymerases and transcripts), are

thicker than the 30 nm thick chromatin fiber, making them easily visible under a light microscope (Sumner, 2003). Loops are sites of intense RNA synthesis. Transcription of genes encoding histones, ribosomal proteins, RNA polymerases, heat shock proteins (hsp70 and hsc90), nuclear lamins, actin, tubulin, calmodulin, metallothionein, DNA polymerase, DNA ligase, enolase, fibronectin, ATP-ADP carrier proteins, nucleophilic proteins N1 and N2, nucleoplasmic proteins, and proteins binding to snRNAs (small nuclear RNAs), as well as genes for ribosomal and transfer RNAs, occurs on loops of various lengths (Macgregor, 1984; Davidson, 1986; Angelier et al., 1996).

LBCs are remarkably long chromosomes; in urodele amphibians such as *Salamandra salamandra* and *Lissotriton vulgaris* (*Triturus vulgaris*), the largest metaphase chromosome adopts a lampbrush form and can reach approximately 700 µm in length. Due to their ease of isolation from the nucleus, LBCs have been best studied in amphibians and birds (Zlotina et al., 2017).

In oogenesis, the duration of chromosomes remaining in the lampbrush form during the diplotene stage varies among species. This duration is a few weeks in *Petromyzon* (Chordata, Petromyzontida), seven months in *Triturus* (Amphibia, Urodela), three months to two years in *Xenopus* frogs (Anura, *Xenopus*), one to one and a half months in *Engystomops* frogs (Anura, *Engystomops*), several months to slightly over a year in lizards (Squamata), three weeks in chickens (*Gallus gallus*), and about three months in grasshoppers (Orthoptera) (Davidson, 1986). For a comprehensive information on both structure and biological role of these gorgeous chromosomes, refer to the review by Saifitdinova et al. (2021), which includes several relevant monographs and a series of review articles.

**Cytogenetical significance of LBCs:** LBCs have proven to be a crucial tool in cytogenetics due to their unique structural features, with significant applications in cytogenetics, taxonomy, and phylogeny (Macgregor et al., 1990). These features, including lateral loops with unusual morphology, complex organization, associated spherical bodies (Cajal bodies), nucleoli, and distinctive chromomere patterns, serve as marker structures. They allow for the precise identification and mapping of individual chromosomes and specific genome regions, which can be challenging using standard metaphase chromosomes, especially in species with complex karyotypes such as amphibians, birds and reptiles (Dedukh et al., 2013). For example, amphibian chromosomes often lack informative banding patterns, and birds possess small genomes with karyotypes that include a few large macrochromosomes and numerous indistinguishable microchromosomes (Zlotina et al., 2017). As a result, traditional cytogenetic methods, particularly those relying on compact metaphase

chromosomes, are often inadequate for studying the karyotypes of these animals.

Moreover, LBC analysis enables the construction of comprehensive cytological maps, providing a high-resolution framework for fluorescence in situ hybridization (FISH) mapping of genomic fragments. This makes LBCs a powerful tool for high-resolution karyotype analysis. In addition, inter- and intrachromosomal rearrangements such as inversions, fusions, and translocations can be detected through the analysis of orthologous LBCs (Dedukh et al., 2013; Zlotina et al., 2017). In bird and reptile species with complex karyotypes, especially those enriched with repetitive elements, LBC analysis helps reveal the order of cytological markers, shedding light on chromosomal evolution, including the differentiation of sex chromosomes (Keinath et al., 2021). It should be also noted that LBCs are a unique model object for the cyto-molecular analysis of transcription and co-transcriptional processing of synthesized RNA (Saifitdinova et al., 2021).

LBCs are not only valuable for mapping individual chromosomes but also for studying evolutionary relationships between species. The positions and distribution of various landmark loops on LBCs often correlate with phylogenetic relationships, with closely related species exhibiting similar landmark patterns. This has enabled researchers to explore phylogenetic connections among species such as urodeles and anurans. However, the analysis of more distantly related species remains challenging with this method (Macgregor et al., 1990; Ohtani, 1990; Zlotina et al., 2017).

In addition to interspecies analysis, LBCs can be used to investigate intraspecies genetic polymorphisms. Variability in the landmark structures of LBCs in animals from isolated populations suggests the accumulation of polymorphisms, which is a key factor in the early stages of allopatric speciation. Furthermore, the analysis of chiasmata distribution on LBCs aids in identifying sex chromosomes, particularly when they are indistinguishable at metaphase (Bucci et al., 1990; Zlotina et al., 2017).

The application of LBCs extends to high-resolution physical gene mapping, allowing for the precise localization of individual genes or tandem repeat families on specific chromatides or lateral loops. FISH techniques can be employed to map these genetic elements, providing insights into the patterns of DNA/DNA and DNA/RNA hybridization. Additionally, LBCs facilitate the investigation of epigenetic modifications within both decondensed (lateral loops) and condensed (chromatides) chromatin domains, further enhancing their value in cytogenetic research (Kulikova et al., 2020).

In conclusion, LBCs represent an invaluable tool for cytogenetic and cytological studies, offering high-resolution insights into genome structure, chromosomal

evolution, and species relationships. Their applications span various fields, from taxonomy and phylogeny to the study of genetic polymorphisms and chromosomal rearrangements.

**Checklist:** As of the beginning of March 2025, animal species in which LBCs have been detected in their oocytes during oogenesis are listed in Tables 1 and 2, following the completion of a comprehensive literature search through electronic databases for pertinent scientific articles. As can be seen from the accompanying tables, a total of 197 animal species, comprising 31 invertebrates (Table 1) and 166 vertebrates (Table 2), possess these chromosomes. The earliest articles reporting lampbrush chromosome studies in the relevant animal species have been cited in the tables, excluding more recent ones reporting the same species. Additionally, the taxon names mentioned in the cited articles have been used. The tables are annually updated by us and can be accessed through the page <http://spass-sci.ru/lbc/supplementary.htm>, originally launched by the late Professor Herbert Macgregor (1933–2018), currently maintained by the Saint Petersburg Lampbrushology Scientific School (Russia) and are available to the general public.

**Table 1.** The invertebrate species in which LBCs have been reported from their oocytes during oogenesis.

Taxa	Species	References*
Cnidaria: Anthozoa	<i>Nematostella vectensis</i>	Moiseeva et al., 2017
Crustacea: Isopoda	<i>Anilocra physodes</i>	Callan, 1957
Crustacea: Decapoda	<i>Macrobrachium amazonicum</i>	Paschoal and Zara, 2023
	<i>Calliprora erythrocephala</i>	Dävring, 1983
Insecta: Diptera	<i>Drosophila melanogaster</i>	
	<i>Drosophila hydei</i>	Dävring and Sunner, 1982
	<i>Drosophila funebris</i>	
	<i>Locusta migratoria</i>	Kunz, 1967a
	<i>Homorocoryphus nitidulus</i>	
Insecta: Orthoptera	<i>Acris bicolor</i>	Kunz, 1967b
	<i>Decticus albifrons</i>	
	<i>Gryllus domesticus</i>	
	( <i>Acheta domesticus</i> )	Kunz, 1969
Insecta: Dictyoptera	<i>Blattella germanica</i>	Bier et al., 1967
	<i>Carabus granulatus</i>	
Insecta: Coleoptera	<i>Carabus nemoralis</i>	Bier et al., 1967; Callan, 1986
	<i>Pterostichus vulgaris</i>	
	<i>Pterostichus niger</i>	
	<i>Abax ater</i>	
Insecta: Hymenoptera	<i>Diplopeltis rosae</i>	Stille and Dävring, 1980
Insecta: Lepidoptera	<i>Ephesia kuehniella</i>	Weith and Traut, 1980
Insecta: Zygentoma	<i>Thermobia domestica</i>	Tworzydlo et al., 2017
Arachnida: Trombidiformes	<i>Trombidium latum</i>	Derdak et al., 2024
Mollusca: Gastropoda	<i>Bitinbia tentaculata</i>	Bottke, 1973
Mollusca: Cephalopoda	<i>Sepia officinalis</i>	Callan, 1957
	<i>Ferossigitta ferox</i>	
	<i>Flaccisigitta hexaptera</i>	
Chaetognatha: Sagittoidea	<i>Sagitta bipunctata</i>	Mishin, 1980
	<i>Sagitta elegans</i>	
	<i>Sagitta maxima</i>	
	<i>Sagitta pulchra</i>	
Echinodermata: Asteroidea	<i>Echinaster sepositus</i>	Delobel & Delavault, 1971

\* Although there is more than one related article, the earliest one was included.

## CONCLUSION

The almost universal presence of LBCs in such a diverse range of animal species suggests that this mechanism of egg growth likely has a very ancient evolutionary origin. This checklist, the first of its kind, aims to serve as a valuable database for researchers new to the study of LBCs, providing information on their occurrence in nature along with essential introductory details about these fascinating and evolutionarily significant chromosomes.

**Table 2.** The vertebrate species in which LBCs have been reported from their oocytes during oogenesis.

Taxa	Species	References**
Cyclostomata	<i>Petromyzon marinus</i> *	Davidson, 1986
	<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>	Callan, 1957
	<i>Pristiurus melanostomus</i> *	
Pisces: Chondrichthyes	<i>Squalus suckleyi</i> *	Callan, 1986
	<i>Torpedo</i> *	
	<i>Callorhinus callorynchus</i>	Fuentes et al., 2023
	<i>Scyliorhinus canicula</i>	Porceddu et al., 2024
	<i>Brachydanio rerio</i>	Baumeister, 1973
	<i>Gasterosteus aculeatus</i> *	Callan, 1986
	<i>Trigla hirundo</i> *	
	<i>Heterandria formosa</i>	Uribe and Grier, 2011
	<i>Cyprinodon variegatus</i>	Wallace & Selman, 1981
	<i>Scomber scomber</i>	Bara, 1960
	<i>Micropterus salmoides</i>	Żelazowska & Halajian, 2019
	<i>Labeobarbus marequensis</i>	Żelazowska & Halajian, 2020
	<i>Cobitis elongatoides</i>	Marta et al., 2020
	<i>Cobitis taenia</i>	
	<i>Sander lucioperca</i>	Żelazowska & Kujawa, 2022
	<i>Mullus surmuletus</i>	Berthelin et al., 2022
Pisces: Osteichthyes	<i>Poecilia mexicana</i>	Dedukh et al., 2022
	<i>Poecilia formosa</i>	
	<i>Acipenser ruthenus</i>	Igorova et al., 2022
	<i>Pleuronectes platessa</i>	Sauger et al., 2023
	<i>Cyprinodon artifrons</i>	Omar, 2024
	<i>Garmanella pulchra</i>	
	<i>Cobitis hankugensis</i>	Dedukh et al., 2024a
	<i>Iksookimia longicorpa</i>	
	<i>Gymnocorymbus ternetzi</i>	Domínguez-Castanedo et al., 2024
	<i>Lepidorhombus whiffiagonis</i>	Kellner et al., 2024a
	<i>Lepidorhombus boscii</i>	Kellner et al., 2024b
	<i>Silonia silondia</i>	Akhi et al., 2024
	Hybrids between <i>Clarias macrocephalus</i> and <i>Clarias gariepinus</i>	Dedukh et al., 2024b
	<i>Danio rerio</i>	Dedukh et al., 2025
	<i>Ambystoma jeffersonianum</i>	Macgregor & Uzzell, 1964; Bi & Bogart, 2010
	<i>Ambystoma laterale</i>	
	<i>Ambystoma macractylum</i>	
	<i>Ambystoma gracile</i>	Kezer et al., 1980
	<i>Ambystoma tremblayi</i>	
	<i>Ambystoma mexicanum</i>	Callan, 1966
	<i>Ambystoma tigrinum</i>	Gall, 1954
Amphibia: Urodela	<i>Ambystoma texanum</i>	Bogart, 2003
	<i>Amphiuma means</i> *	Callan, 1986
	<i>Bolitoglossa subpalmata</i>	Macgregor, 1980
	<i>Euproctus montanus</i> *	Nardi et al., 1972
	<i>Euproctus platycephalus</i> *	
	<i>Hynobius quelpaertensis</i>	Ikebe et al., 2005
	<i>Necturus maculatus (maculosus)</i>	Lafontaine & Ris, 1958
	<i>Pseudotriton montanus</i>	

**Table 2.** (Continued)

Taxa	Species	References**
	<i>Plethodon cinereus cinereus</i>	
	<i>Plethodon cinereus polycentratus</i>	
	<i>Plethodon nettingi hubrichti</i>	
	<i>Plethodon richmondi</i>	
	<i>Plethodon dorsalis</i>	Kezer & Macgregor, 1973
	<i>Plethodon diurni</i>	
	<i>Plethodon vehiculum</i>	
	<i>Eurycea bislineata bislineata</i>	
	<i>Eurycea lucifuga</i>	
	<i>Pleurodeles poireti</i>	Lacroix, 1968
	<i>Pleurodeles waltlili (waltl)</i>	
	<i>Proteus anguineus*</i>	Callan, 1986
Amphibia: Urodela	<i>Salamandra salamandra</i>	Mancino et al., 1969
	<i>Siren intermedia</i>	Leon and Kezer, 1974
	<i>Taricha granulosa</i>	Fabergé, 1970
	<i>Taricha torosa*</i>	Callan, 1986
	<i>Notophthalmus (Triturus) viridescens</i>	Gall, 1954
	<i>Triturus carnifex</i>	
	<i>Triturus cristatus</i>	Callan & Lloyd, 1960
	<i>Triturus dobrogicus (danubialis)</i>	
	<i>Triturus karelinii</i>	
	<i>Triturus helveticus</i>	Mancino & Barsacchi, 1966
	<i>Triturus italicus</i>	Mancino & Barsacchi, 1969
	<i>Triturus vulgaris meridionalis</i>	Barsacchi et al., 1970
	<i>Triturus alpestris apuanus</i>	Raghianti et al., 1972
	<i>Triturus marmoratus</i>	Nardi et al., 1972
	<i>Triturus montandoni</i>	Raghianti et al., 1978
	<i>Triturus boscai</i>	Bucci-Innocenti et al., 1983
	<i>Triturus vittatus ophryticus</i>	
	<i>Cynops (Triturus) pyrrhogaster</i>	Imoh, 1981
	<i>Ascaphus truei</i>	Macgregor & Kezer, 1970
	<i>Bombina variegata</i>	
	<i>Bufo bufo</i>	Ullerich, 1970
	<i>Bufo calamita</i>	
	<i>Bufo viridis</i>	
	<i>Bufo lentiginosus</i>	King, 1908
	<i>Feltonotus pygmaeus</i>	Macgregor & del Pino, 1982
	<i>Agalychnis callidryas</i>	
Amphibia: Anura	<i>Bufo marinus</i>	
	<i>Bufo typhonius</i>	
	<i>Colostethus inguinalis</i>	
	<i>Dendrobates auratus</i>	Davidson & Hough, 1969
	<i>Engystomops pustulosus</i>	
	<i>Hyla ebraccata</i>	
	<i>Hyla rosenbergi</i>	
	<i>Leptodactylus pentadactylus</i>	
	<i>Pelophylax (Rana) lessonae</i>	Dedukh et al., 2013
	<i>Pelophylax (Rana) ridibundus</i>	

**Table 2.** (Continued)

Taxa	Species	References**
	<i>Rana catesbeiana</i> ( <i>Lithobates catesbeianus</i> )	Wu et al., 1986
	<i>Rana (Euphlyctis) cyanophlyctis</i>	Srivastava & Bhatnagar, 1962
	<i>Rana epeirotica</i>	Guerrini et al., 1997
	<i>Rana shqiperica</i>	
	<i>Rana esculenta</i>	Giorgi & Galleni, 1972
	<i>Rana fusca</i> *	Callan, 1986
	<i>Rana pipiens</i>	Rogers & Browder, 1977
	<i>Rana temporaria</i>	Tsvetkov & Parfenov, 1994
Amphibia: Anura	<i>Rana nigromaculata</i>	
	<i>Rana brevipoda</i>	Ohtani, 1990
	<i>Rana plancyi chosenia</i>	
	<i>Rana plancyi fukienensis</i>	
	<i>Rana porosa</i>	Ohtani, 1995
	<i>Rana rugosa</i>	Miura et al., 1996
	<i>Xenopus laevis</i>	Müller, 1974
	<i>Xenopus tropicalis</i>	Penrad-Mobayed et al., 2009
	<i>Rhinella schneideri</i>	Montezol et al., 2018
	<i>Pelophylax perezi</i>	Dudzik et al., 2023
	<i>Hoplodactylus maculatus</i> ( <i>Woodworthia maculatus</i> )	Boyd, 1940
	<i>Platydactylus muralis</i> ( <i>Platydactylus fascicularis</i> , <i>Tarentola mauritanica</i> )*	
	<i>Anguis fragilis</i> *	
	<i>Testudo hermanni</i> *	
	<i>Crocodylus niloticus</i> *	
	<i>Lacerta muralis</i> *	Callan, 1986
	<i>Lacerta stirpium</i> *	
	<i>Lacerta viridis</i> *	
	<i>Lacerta vivipara</i> *	
	<i>Uromastix achanthinurus</i> *	
Reptilia	<i>Lacerta armeniaca</i>	
	<i>Lacerta rostombekovi</i>	
	<i>Lacerta dahli</i>	
	<i>Lacerta saxicola</i> ( <i>L. s. defilippii</i> , <i>L. s. portschinskii</i> , <i>L. s. valentini</i> )	
	<i>Eremias velox</i>	Arronet, 1973
	<i>Eremias strauchi</i>	
	<i>Ophisops elegans</i>	
	<i>Agama caucasica</i>	
	<i>Phrynocephalus helioscopus</i>	
	<i>Phrynocephalus reticulatus</i>	
	<i>Bipes biporus</i>	Macgregor & Klosterman, 1979
	<i>Bipes canaliculatus</i>	
	<i>Cistudo europea</i> *	Callebaut et al., 1997
	<i>Pseudemys scripta elegans</i>	
	<i>Darevskia armeniaca</i>	
	<i>Lacerta agilis</i>	Lukina, 1994
	<i>Podarcis tauricus</i>	
	<i>Zootoca vivipara</i>	

**Table 2.** (Continued)

Taxa	Species	References**
Reptilia	<i>Pelodieseus sinensis</i>	Hei et al., 2010
	<i>Trachemys scripta</i>	Davidian et al., 2021
	<i>Chalcides ocellatus</i>	Ibrahim & Wilson, 1989
	<i>Sceloporus torquatus torquatus</i>	Uribe et al., 1995
	<i>Mabuya brachypoda</i>	Hernández-Franyutti et al., 2005
	<i>Hemidactylus flaviviridis</i>	Al-Amri, 2012
	<i>Salvator merianae</i>	García-Valdez et al., 2019
	<i>Alligator mississippiensis</i>	Uribe & Guillette, 2000
	<i>Caiman latirostris</i>	Machado-Santos et al., 2015
	<i>Zootoca vivipara</i>	Kupriyanova & Safronova, 2023
Aves	<i>Alligator sinensis</i>	Nie et al., 2023
	<i>Apus apus</i>	
	<i>Fringilla montifringilla</i>	
	<i>Caprodaca erythrinus</i>	
	<i>Spinus spinus</i>	
	<i>Anthus trivialis</i>	
	<i>Turdus iliacus</i>	
	<i>Gallus gallus domesticus</i>	Gaginskaya, 1972; Solovei et al., 1993
	<i>Coturnix coturnix japonica</i>	
	<i>Meleagris gallopavo</i>	
	<i>Columba livia</i>	
	<i>Passer domesticus</i>	
	<i>Fringilla coelebs</i>	
	<i>Taenioptygia guttata</i>	Torgasheva et al., 2019

\* The articles of these species could not be found, but they were attributed in the relevant cited reference.

\*\* Although there is more than one related article, the earliest one was included.

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