

Physiological Features of Male Gonads in the Postnatal Period

Saidov Akmal Abdullaevich

Bukhara State Medical Institute

Abstract: A feature of spermatogenesis in multicellular animals is the presence of cytoplasmic bridges between dividing spermatogenic cells, due to which synchronous development of germ cells is achieved [11]. Spermatogenesis, by analogy with oogenesis, can be divided into four periods: the reproductive period; the growth period during which there is a noticeable increase in the size of the germ cells; the maturation period including meiosis; the period of formation that ends with the appearance of sperm [12]. However, in modern literature it is more common to divide spermatogenesis into three stages, since the growth of male germ cells during spermatogenesis is poorly expressed [13].

Keywords: spermatogenesis, testis, germ cells, Leydig cells.

After the birth of a mammal, the testis is an immature organ that gains the ability to fully perform its functions only during puberty. The acquisition of maturity by the testes is expressed in a number of morphological changes at the tissue, cellular and ultrastructural levels [1]. The testis of a newborn differs little in structure from the testis of a fetus in the last months of development. By the time of birth, the weight of the testicle reaches 0.8 g. The testicle of a newborn child is characterized by a lobed structure, a loose arrangement of interstitial tissue, which strongly resembles mesenchyme. The interstitial tissue contains a small number of small Leydig cells. However, during the first weeks and months after birth, the processes of programmed death of endocrinocytes are most active, followed by a period of “rest”, when there are practically no mature Leydig cells in the population and the proliferative activity of their precursors is not expressed [2]. In human seminiferous convoluted tubules there is no lumen until the age of 4 years. The first type A spermatogonia appear at 5-6 years of age. At 7 years of age, the first spermatocytes are formed, and the lumens of the seminiferous convoluted tubules increase [3]. Significant changes in the structure of the testis occur during puberty. According to modern ideas, this process is triggered by leptin, a hormone synthesized by white adipose tissue cells. Animal experiments have shown that leptin injections promote puberty by stimulating the production of estrogen [4]. In humans, leptin levels also increase before the onset of puberty [5]. During this period, the formation of the blood-testis barrier (BTB) is completed, when sustentocytes (its main structural elements) stop dividing and form closing connections [6]. In this case, the barrier acquires a classical structure and includes such structures as a continuous basement membrane of the endothelium, capillary endothelium, which has pronounced phagocytic activity of pericytes, layers of interstitial connective tissue with macrophages capable of destroying toxic substances and xenobiotics, as well as the membranes of the convoluted seminiferous tubule and its basement membrane [7].

Other researchers argue that the barrier is formed already in the early stages of embryogenesis, separating blood cells from the cells of the reproductive system, thereby preventing the development of autoimmune reactions [8]. Puberty marks the peak of proliferation and differentiation of Leydig cells in all mammals [9]. Also at this stage, proliferation processes begin, but full spermatogenesis is established only by 20-22 years of age [10]. The result of the processes occurring during puberty is the formation of mature testes, in which the processes of spermatogenesis and steroidogenesis fully occur. A feature of spermatogenesis in multicellular animals is the presence of cytoplasmic bridges between dividing spermatogenic cells, due to which synchronous development of germ cells is achieved [11]. Spermatogenesis, by analogy with oogenesis, can be divided into four periods: the reproductive period; the growth period during which there is a noticeable increase in the size of the germ cells; the maturation period including meiosis; the period of formation that ends with the appearance of sperm [12]. However, in modern literature it is more common to divide spermatogenesis into three stages, since the growth of male germ cells during spermatogenesis is poorly expressed [13]. According to this

concept [14], the first stage of spermatogenesis is spermatocytogenesis. At this stage, spermatogonia multiply. The proliferation of spermatogonia is accompanied by the formation of a number of generations, with each subsequent generation becoming more differentiated than the previous one. These cells are located on the basement membrane of the seminiferous convoluted tubules. Their total number in the human testis is about 1 billion [15]. From a morphological point of view, spermatogonia are round or oval-shaped cells with ER, Golgi apparatus, as well as a large number of ribosomes and polysomes [16].

A characteristic feature of spermatogonia is the presence of sexual determinants (germ plasm). A number of studies indicate that the mitochondrial matrix takes part in the formation of this substance [17]. For mammals, there is a clear classification of spermatogonia depending on the morphology of the nuclei [18], however, in different groups of mammals, the number of groups into which the entire population of spermatogonia can be divided will differ. Thus, in rodents, spermatogonia are divided into 3 populations: A - immature, B-mature and intermediate type spermatogonia (In). In addition, immature spermatogonia form 4 subpopulations (A1–4) [19]. In addition to spermatogonia, stem spermatogenic cells (A0) are in contact with the basal membrane of the seminiferous convoluted tubules in rodents, which are morphologically indistinguishable from spermatogonia A, and the only feature by which they can be identified is the absence of neighboring cells within a radius of 25 μm [20]. An important feature of cells that have embarked on the path of differentiation is the presence of cytoplasmic bridges between them due to incomplete cytotomy. Such cells are designated as Apr (paired) if a bridge connects 2 cells, or Aal (grouped) if a clone of 4-8 or 16 cells is formed. These cells, despite being committed, proliferate but do not differentiate, being virtually no different from stem cells, except that they are part of a syncytial structure. It is due to cell divisions of Apr and Aal that the population of spermatogenic cells in rodents is maintained at a normal level [22]. In primates, including humans, the population of spermatogonia looks different: morphologically, the cells are divided into 2 populations: A and B, and type A spermatogonia, in turn, are divided according to the degree of chromatin condensation into dark and light cells (Apale and Adark). In this case, Apale spermatogonia differentiate into type B spermatogonia without intermediate stages. In addition, they are able to maintain their population through mitosis, and Adark spermatogonia are reserve cells and, like A0 stem cells, divide only under conditions of depletion of the spermatogonia cell pool [23].

The division of type B spermatogonia in all mammals leads to the formation of primary spermatocytes [24]. The next stage of spermatogenesis is meiosis. This process includes chromosome pairing, crossing over, as well as two successive divisions of spermatocytes, resulting in the formation of spermatids with a haploid set of chromosomes. Primary spermatocytes have the same set of organelles as spermatogonia and are also similar in size, but in their cytoplasm the material of sex determinants is present only in residual quantities [13]. The processes of sustentocytes penetrate between the basement membrane and spermatocytes and displace the cells, as a result of which the spermatocytes begin to move towards the lumen. By the end of interphase, the amount of DNA in first-order spermatocytes doubles [8]. The prophase of meiotic division consists of four phases: leptotene, zygotene, pachytene and diplotene. Leptotene spermatocytes no longer come into contact with their own membrane of the seminiferous convoluted tubules and have a nucleus that contains chromosomes, which look like thin filaments. The mitochondria of these cells also undergo changes: the cristae look swollen and lose their parallel arrangement. The mitochondria themselves begin to branch, which indicates their division [10]. Small vesicles of smooth ER are found in the cytoplasm. Spermatocytes at the zygotene stage are characterized by an increase in the size of the nuclei; thread-like chromosomes in them are collected in pairs. In this case, synaptonemal complexes are formed, located between the conjugating chromosomes, holding them near each other and facilitating the crossing over process [6]. The presence of synaptonemal complexes in the cytoplasm is the main feature that allows the identification of primary spermatocytes [11]. The volume of the nuclei of pachytene spermatocytes increases, a large spherical nucleolus appears in them, and the chromosomes become thick and short. During diplotene and diakinesis, chromosomes become as short as possible and synaptonemal complexes disappear, and by the end of meiotic prophase the nuclear membrane disappears. During the metaphase of the first

division of maturation, tetrads of chromatids are located in the region of the equatorial plate. In the anaphase of the first division of maturation, the centromeres of each pair of homologous chromosomes begin to move to opposite poles of the cell, carrying dyads of chromatids with them. Anaphase I and telophase I quickly complete, resulting in the formation of secondary spermatocytes. They quickly go through the second division of maturation, resulting in the formation of spermatids. The morphological transformation during which spermatids turn into spermatozoa is called spermiogenesis. This process has been studied in detail in rats [13].

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