A single cell atlas of the cycling murine ovary

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Abstract

The estrous cycle is regulated by rhythmic endocrine interactions of the nervous and reproductive systems,

which coordinate the hormonal and ovulatory functions of the ovary. Folliculogenesis and follicle

progression require the orchestrated response of a variety of cell types to allow the maturation of the follicle

and its sequela, ovulation, corpus luteum (CL) formation, and ovulatory wound repair. Little is known about

the cell state dynamics of the ovary during the estrous cycle, and the paracrine factors that help coordinate

this process. Herein we used single-cell RNA sequencing to evaluate the transcriptome of > 34,000 cells

of the adult mouse ovary and describe the transcriptional changes that occur across the normal estrous

cycle and other reproductive states to build a comprehensive dynamic atlas of murine ovarian cell types

and states.

Introduction

The ovary is composed of a variety of cell types which govern the dynamic functions of the ovary as both

an endocrine organ capable of producing hormones such as sex steroids, and a reproductive organ

orchestrating follicular development, from a quiescent follicle until its ultimate ovulation. This process

necessitates precise coordination of germ cells and several different somatic cell types, including granulosa

cells, thecal cells, and stromal cells to support the growth of oocytes and their release, to produce the

necessary hormonal cues, as well as coordinate the profound tissue remodeling to accommodate these

dynamic developing structures. Furthermore, the state of each of these cells changes over the course of

the estrous cycle in a coordinated fashion to regulate waves of follicle growth and maturation, to time

ovulation precisely, and to provide hormonal support of potential pregnancy.

Single cell RNA sequencing has been used in a variety of tissues to obtain an in-depth understanding of

gene expression and cellular diversity. In the ovary, this technique has allowed us and others to explore

various physiologic processes during early ovarian development and ovarian aging (Zhao et al. 2020;

Stévant et al. 2019; Wagner et al. 2020; Niu and Spradling 2020; Jevitt et al. 2020; Man et al. 2020;

Meinsohn et al. 2021; Fan et al. 2019; Si Wang et al. 2020). For example, Fan et al. catalogued the

transcriptomic changes that occur during follicular development and regression and mapped the cell types

of the human ovary using surgical specimens (Fan et al. 2019). A primate model has been used to

investigate changes in cell types and states that occur in the ovary with aging (Si Wang et al. 2020) . Zhao

et al. looked at the development of the follicle during early embryonic ovarian development to discern the

relationship of oocytes to their support cells in formation of follicles (Zhao et al. 2020). We have used

scRNAseq to identify inhibitory pathways regulated by AMH during the first wave of follicular growth in the

murine ovary (Meinsohn et al. 2021). While all these studies have helped to establish a framework to

understand the major cell types in the ovary, it is important to describe the dynamic nature of cell states

across the estrous cycle at the single cell level.

To understand more fully the effect of cyclic endocrine, autocrine, and paracrine signals on ovarian cell

states we performed high-throughput single cell RNA sequencing of ovaries from adult mice across a

physiological spectrum of reproductive states. Ovaries were harvested from mice in the four phases of the

normal estrous cycle: proestrus, estrus, metestrus, and diestrus. Additionally, ovaries were evaluated from

mice that were lactating or non-lactating 10 days postpartum mice, and from randomly cycling adult mice.

Herein, we describe the somatic cell types of the ovary and their cycling states using single-cell

transcriptomics. Furthermore, we uncovered previously unrecognized complexity in the cellular subtypes

and their cyclic expression states which allowed us to identify secreted factors that vary across the estrous

cycle and therefore represent potential marker for staging.

Methods

Mice

Animal experiments were carried out in 6-8 weeks old C57BL/6 mice obtained from Charles River

Laboratory, approved by the National Institute of Health and Harvard Medical School Institutional Animal

Care and Use Committee, and performed in accordance with experimental protocols 2009N000033 and

2014N000275 approved by the Massachusetts General Hospital Institutional Animal Care and Use

Committee.

For the analysis of transcriptional changes in ovaries of cycling mice, animals were housed in standard

conditions (12/12 hours light/dark non-inverting cycle with food and water *ad libitum*) in groups of 5 with

added bedding from a cage that previously housed an adult male mouse to encourage cycling. Estrous

stage was determined by observation of the vaginal opening and by vaginal swabs done at the same time

daily, as previously described (Kano et al. 2017). Each mouse was monitored for a minimum of 2 weeks

to ensure its cyclicity. Four mice were sacrificed in each of the 4 phases of the estrous cycle and labeled

69   An additional 8 mice were included in the analysis and labeled

70   Four of these mice were lactating at day 10 postpartum and

four were 10 days postpartum with pups removed at delivery. Four additional mice were not monitored for

cycling and included to increase sample diversity.

Additional mice were monitored throughout the estrous cycle, to collect ovaries at each stage (groups of

N=5 for proestrus, estrus, metestrus, diestrus) for gene validation. Pairs of dissected ovaries were used to

extract mRNA for qPCR for one while the other was fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde for RNAish (RNAscope)

or immunohistochemistry to validate gene expression.

Superovulation

To stimulate superovulation, mature female mice (6-9 weeks C57BL/6) were injected IP with 5 IU of

pregnant mare serum gonadotropin (PMSG) (Calbiochem, San Diego, CA), followed 48 hours later by 5 IU

of human chorionic gonadotropin (hCG; Millipore Sigma, St. Louis, MO). The mice were euthanized 8 hours

after hCG treatment and ovaries harvested.

Staging of estrous cycle by vaginal cytology

As previously described (Byers et al. 2012; Kano et al. 2017), staging of mice was performed using a wet

cotton swab, introduced into the vaginal orifice then smeared onto a glass slide which was air-dried, stained

with Giemsa, and scored for cytology by two independent observers. Briefly, proestrus was determined if

the smear showed a preponderance of nucleated epithelial cells as well as leukocytes. Estrous was marked

by an abundance of cornified epithelial cells, while metestrous smears contained a mixture of cornified

epithelial cells and leukocytes. Finally, diestrus was characterized by abundant leukocytes with low

numbers of cornified epithelium or nucleated epithelial cells.

Generation of single cell suspension

Single cell suspension from mouse ovaries were obtained as previously described with uterine enzymatic

dissociation (Saatcioglu et al. 2019). Briefly, ovaries were incubated for 30min at 34C in dissociation

medium (82 mM Na_2SO_4, 30 mM K_2SO_4, 10 mM Glucose, 10 mM HEPES, and 5 mM $MgCL_2$, pH 7.4)

containing 15 mg of Protease XXIII (Worthington), 100 U Papain, with 5 mm L-Cysteine, 2.5 mM EDTA

(Worthington) and 1333 U of DNase 1 (Worthington). The reaction was then stopped in cold medium, and

samples were mechanically dissociated, filtrated, and spun down three times before being resuspended to

a concentration of 150,000 cells/mL in 20% Optiprep (Sigma) for inDrop sorting.

Single-cell RNA sequencing (inDrops)

Fluidic sorting was performed using the inDrop platform at the Single Cell Core facility at Harvard Medical

School as previously described (Klein et al., 2015, Macosko et al., 2015). We generated libraries of

approximately 1500 cells per animal which were sequenced using the NextSeq500 (Illumina) platform.

Transcripts were processed according to a previously published pipeline (Klein et al., 2015) used to build a

custom transcriptome from the Ensemble GRCm38 genome and GRCm38.84 annotation using Bowtie

1.1.1. Unique molecular identifiers (UMIs) were used to reference sequence reads back to individual

captured molecules, referred to as UMIFM counts. All steps of the pipeline were run using default

parameters unless explicitly specified.

Single-cell RNAseq data analysis

Data processing

The initial Seurat object was created using thresholds to identify putative cells (unique cell barcodes) with

the following parameters: 1000-20000 unique molecular identifiers, 500-5000 genes, and less than 15%

mitochondrial genes. The final merged dataset contained ~70000 cells which were clustered based on

expression of marker genes. These were further processed in several ways to exclude low-quality data

and potential doublets. Markers for each level of cluster were identified using MAST in Seurat.

Volcano Plots

Highly differentially expressed genes between different estrous cycles were identified using the function

FindMarkers in Seurat. Volcano plots were generated using ggplot2 package in R.

Pathway Enrichment Analysis

Differentially expressed genes with at least two-fold changes between contiguous estrous stages were used

as input for Gene Ontology Enrichment Analysis by clusterProfiler. Enrichplot package was used for

visualization. Biological process sub-ontology was chosen for this analysis.

Pseudotime analysis

Subsets of the granulosa cluster from preantral to corpus luteum (CL) stages and mesenchyme cluter were

extracted and a CellDataSet object was constructed by Monocle (version 2.14.0) (Trapnell et al. 2014). The

ordering genes were selected using differentially expressed markers between clusters, obtained by

125   following steps of reducing data

developmental stages. Heatmap representing the transcriptomic progression of dynamic genes in

the cell lineages of mesenchyme and granulosa clusters through the pseudotime was constructed

including early cells common to both lineages are located in the center (Prebranch) of the map,

with divergence to two different cell fates to the sides.

Principal component analysis (PCA)

PCA was used to identify common patterns of gene expression across stages of the cycle. For each

Level0 cluster object, cycling cells were extracted and genes that were expressed in more than 5% of

cells were identified. The expression of these genes in the cycling cells were scaled (set to mean zero,

standard deviation 1) and averaged across each of the 4 cycle stages. PCA was run (prcomp) on the

average scaled expression data.

In situ hybridization and immunohistochemistry

In situ hybridizations were done using kits from ACDBio as per   and previously

described (Saatcioglu et al., 2019). Briefly, RNAish was performed with the RNAscope® 2.5 HD Reagent

Kit (RED, ACD Bio, # 322350; Duplex, ACD Bio, # 322500). Following deparaffinization in xylene,

dehydration, peroxidase blocking, and heat-induced epitope retrieval by the target retrieval and protease

plus reagents (ACD bio, #322330), tissue sections were hybridized with probes for the target genes (see

Table S1 for accession number, target region, and catalog number of each gene) in the HybEZ hybridization

oven (ACD Bio) for 2 hours at 40°C. The slides were then processed for standard signal amplification steps,

and chromogen development. Slides were counterstained in 50% hematoxylin (Dako, #S2302), air dried,

and cover slipped with EcoMount. In addition to cycling and noncycling mice, superovulated mice were

used in some circumstances to specify transcripts from follicles associated with LH surge response and

from pre-ovulatory follicles at the estrous stage.

To combine RNAish staining with immunohistochemistry to identify smooth muscle actin protein, we first

processed the tissue section for RNAscope as described above, including deparafinazation, antigen

retrieval, hybridization and chromogen development. Sections were then blocked in 3% bovine serum

albumin (BSA) in Tris-buffered solution (TBS) for 1 hr. Following 3 washes with TBS, the sections were

incubated with a smooth muscle actin primary antibody (SMA) (1:300, Abcam) overnight at 4°C and

developed with Dako EnVision + System horseradish peroxidase (HRP). Labeled Polymer Anti-Rabbit was

used as the secondary antibody, and the HRP signal was detected using the DAKO detection system.

Slides were then counterstained in hematoxylin and mounted as described above.

RT-qPCR

Mice were monitored through the estrous cycle and sacrificed at specific stage/time-points as described

above. Ovaries were dissected and total RNA was extracted using the Qiagen RNA extraction kit (Qiagen,

74106). A cDNA library was synthesized from 500 ng total RNA using SuperScript III First-Strand

Synthesis System for RT-

051). The primers used for this study are described in **Table S2**. Expression levels were normalized to the

ELISA

Blood was collected from mice by facial vein puncture, incubated at RT until spontaneously clotted,

centrifuged at 8000rpm for 5min to collect the serum layer, and diluted 1/10 in each ELISA kit according to

the manufacturing protocol; Mouse CNP/NPPC ELISA kit (ref: NBP2-75790); Mouse serine protease

inactive 35 (PRSS35) ELISA kit (ref: MBS9717242); Mouse TINAGL1 / Lipocalin 7 ELISA kit (ref: LS-

F49684); and Human/Mouse/Rat Activin A Quantikine ELISA Kit (ref: DAC00B).

Results:

scRNA-seq of adult mouse ovaries across reproductive states

For single cell RNA sequencing we isolated the ovaries of 4 mice per group representing a range of

physiological reproductive states of sexually mature females including cycling (proestrus, estrus, metestrus,

diestrus), post-partum (day 10 post-partum non-lactating), lactating (day 10 postpartum lactating), and non-

monitored mice to increase sample diversity. Following enzymatic digestion of those ovaries, we generated

a single cell suspension and sorted by microfluidics with the inDROP methodology (Klein et al. 2015),

targeting 1500 cells per animal, and resulting libraries were indexed, combined, and sequenced together
(**Fig 1A**).

Following dimensionality reduction and clustering we identified multiple clusters which could be combined
to represent the major cell categories of the ovary (**Fig 1B**). To assign cell type identity we used cluster-
specific markers which were previously described in other studies or newly identified makers later validated
by RNA in situ (**Table S3**). The major clusters were composed of granulosa (N=17627 cells) and
mesenchymal cells composing the ovarian stroma (N=10825 cells). Many other minor cell types were
identified including endothelial cells (N= 3501 cells), ovarian surface epithelial cells (N=1088 cells), immune
cells (N=1649 cells), and oocytes (N=22 cells). The latter were poorly represented in the dataset possibly
due to cell size exclusion limitations of the technique, thus they are likely limited to small oocytes of
primordial follicles (**Fig 1B**). The heatmap of marker gene expression across the major categories of cell
types and states is represented in **Fig 1C**.

Single cell sequencing reveals heterogeneity within granulosa and mesenchymal cell clusters

Mesenchyme

The mesenchymal cluster is the second largest identified in our analysis after the granulosa cell cluster.
Based on prior studies (Fan et al. 2019; Si Wang et al. 2020a) we were able to further subcluster these
mesenchymal cells into three groups of theca: theca 1 (17%), theca 2 (16%), and thecal smooth muscle
cells (9%). Furthermore, we identified two stromal groups: stroma 1 (12%) and stroma 2 (31%), in addition
to pericytes (6%), and dividing mesenchyme (8%) as seen in **Fig 2A,** with the top 20 expressed markers of
each cluster described in **Table S4.**

Distinct transcriptional signatures were identified in the mesenchymal subclusters (**Fig 2B**), from which we
prioritized positive markers to validate based on highest fold-change expression, highest differential percent
expression, and lowest P-value **(Fig 2C)**.

Theca 1 cells could be defined by their expression of Small Cell Lung Carcinoma Cluster 4 Antigen (*Cd24a)*
and Hedgehog Interacting Protein (*Hhip);* meanwhile, theca 2 cells were identified by their expression of

Cytochrome P450 Family 17 Subfamily A Member 1 *(Cyp17a1)* suggesting they correspond to mature

steroidogenic theca. Theca externa was confirmed to express Microfibril Associated Protein 5 (*Mfap5)*

specifically by RNA in situ hybridization (**Fig 2C**). Furthermore, we observed co-localization of *Mfap5* and

Actin Alpha 2 (*Acta2,* also known as smooth muscle actin) in theca externa whereas *Hhip* was expressed

in theca interna and immature theca (**Fig S2A, B**). Stroma 1 and stroma 2 compartments were validated

by their expression of Ectonucleotide Pyrophosphatase/Phosphodiesterase 2 (*Enpp2)* and Potassium Two

Pore Domain Channel Subfamily K Member 2 (*Kcnk2)*, respectively, and overlapped in distribution in both

cortical and medullary regions of the ovarian stroma (**Fig 2C**).

Granulosa

To explore further the cellular heterogeneity of developing follicles, we investigated the granulosa cell

compartment. Consistent with previous reports, we could distinguish granulosa cells of follicles based on

their stage of development (Gallardo et al. 2007; Fan et al. 2019; Zhao et al. 2020). Granulosa cells could

be subdivided into 8 main categories: pre-antral/cumulus (27%), antral/mural (25%), periovulatory (5%),

atretic (17%), mitotic (16%), and three clusters of corpus luteum: CL1 (2%), CL2 (4%), and CL3 (4%) (**Fig**

3A). Table S5 lists the top twenty markers for each of these clusters. Distinctive gene expression programs

were identified in the granulosa cell subclusters, as visualized in the heatmap (**Fig 3B**), from which we

selected potential markers for validation.

Early pre-antral granulosa cells, and those constituting the cumulus of antral follicles, could be defined by

their shared expression of markers such as potassium channel tetramerization domain (Kctd14) (**Fig 3C**).

In contrast, expression of *Male-specific Transcription in the developing Reproductive Organs* (MRO) was

found specifically in mural granulosa cells of antral follicles (**Fig 3C**). Periovulatory follicles could be

characterized by their specific expression of the RUNX1 family transcription factor 1 (*Runx1*) (**Fig 3C**).

Furthermore, we identified three different clusters that we speculate represent cells/states of the corpus

luteum, CL-1, CL-2, CL-3, which all expressed One Cut Homeobox 2 (*Onecut2). *Finally, two relatively

abundant granulosa cell states could be identified based on marker expression, namely mitotic granulosa

cells expressing topoisomerase 2a (*Top2a*), and putative atretic cells expressing markers consistent with

follicular atresia including expression of the growth hormone receptor (*Ghr*) **(Fig3 C)**.

Pseudotime analysis reveals differentiation lineages in mesenchyme and granulosa cell subtypes

To examine the relationship between subpopulations of granulosa and mesenchyme cells, we performed pseudotime trajectory analysis using the Monocle algorithm (Trapnell et al. 2014). In the mesenchyme we included the theca 1 & 2, stroma 1&2, and smooth muscle clusters **(Fig4 A, B, C),** but omitted the pericytes. For granulosa cells we included preantral/cumulus, antral/mural, periovulatory, and corpus luteum clusters CL1-3, (**Fig 4 D, E, F**), but omitted the mitotic and atretic clusters. In both cases, the analysis revealed 3 states and 1 branch point (**Fig 4**). In the me

both stroma 1&2 clusters. At the branch point, stromal cells were ordered in one branch while both theca clusters and smooth muscle were ordered on other branches **(Fig 4 A, B)** suggesting these are distinct and non-overlapping differentiation programs that may be activated in either stroma 1 or stroma 2 and supporting the notion that theca 1 (immature) represents a precursor to theca 2 (steroidogenic) **(Fig 4C)**. For the granulosa cell subclusters of preantral granulosa, and at the branching point, there we two cell fates: either cumulus and antral/mural granulosa ordered on one branch or the three different corpus luteum clusters (CL1-3) and the periovulatory cluster ordered on another branch **(Fig 4 D ,E).** This branching pattern supports the notion that the cumulus state is a continuation of the early preantral granulosa program, while the distinct branching fate of periovulatory and CL2 represents a continuum of differentiation states corresponding to the LH-response in granulosa cells and induction of the luteinizing program **(Fig 4F)**. Heatmaps were constructed to represent the transcriptomic progression of dynamic genes in the cell lineage of mesenchyme **(Fig S4 A)** and granulosa cells **(Fig S4B)** clusters through pseudotime.

Granulosa cells transcriptome varies most between proestrous and estrous stages

We then focused on the granulosa cell cluster to identify the cell states associated with the stage of the estrous cycle. When comparing the composition of granulosa cell subclusters by estrous stage, we found that some clusters were dominated by cells from either the proestrous and estrous ovaries, particularly the (**Fig 5A**). A volcano plot analysis confirmed that the transition between these two stages was characterized by 22 significantly

upregulated and 4 significantly downregulated markers (**Fig 5B**), which represent a bigger population of

differentially regulated genes than those found at any other stage transition i.e., estrus to metestrus,

metestrus to diestrus, and diestrus to proestrus (**Fig S5A, B, C**). Gene ontology analysis revealed that the

most significantly differentially regulated pathways between the proestrous and estrous states were ovarian

matrix remodeling related processes and steroidogenesis and hormones production (**Fig 5C**). Whole ovary

qPCR validated these significant changes in expression at the proestrus to estrus transition in markers

involved in steroidogenesis, such as, Cytochrome P450 Family 19 Subfamily A Member 1 (*Cyp19a1*,

p=0.0029, proestrus to estrus*)*, Steroidogenic Acute Regulatory Protein (*Star,* p=0.0187, proestrus to

estrus) or Prosaposin (*Psap*, p=0.0026, proestrus to estrus*),* as well as matrix remodeling processes such

as Regulator Of Cell Cycle (*Rgcc*, p=0.0441, proestrus to estrus), Glutamate-Ammonia Ligase *(Glul)* and

Inhibitor Of DNA Binding 2 *(Id2,* p=0.0032, proestrus to metestrus*)* (**Fig 5D**), and immediate early genes,

Fos Proto-Oncogene (*Fos*), Jun Proto-Oncogene (*Jun*, p=0.0022, proestrus to estrus), Jun Proto-

Oncogene B (*Junb*, p=0.0069, proestrus to diestrus) and Early Growth Response 1 (*Egr1*, p=0.0504 estrus

to diestrus), involved in wound repair following ovulation **(Fig S5D)**.

Identification and validation of secreted biomarkers varying throughout the estrous cycle

To identify new biomarkers varying as a function of the estrous cycle that could be used for staging in

assisted reproduction and other applications in reproductive medicine, we focused on secreted factors that

could be therefore readily detectable in the blood and expressed mostly in the granulosa cell or ovarian

mesenchyme clusters to provide tissue specificity. We confirmed our ability to detect gene expression

changes during the cycle using whole ovary qPCR analysis in a sperate set of staged mice (N=4 per group),

with the well-described markers, Luteinizing Hormone/Choriogonadotropin Receptor (*Lhcgr*, p=0.0281

etrus to metestrus) and progesterone receptor (*Pgr,* p=0.0096, proestrus to estrus) (**Fig 6A**). Most

prominently we identified within our scRNAseq dataset, natriuretic peptide C (*Nppc*) and Inhibin A *(Inhba),*

as secreted markers that were significantly upregulated in the proestrous stage compared to the estrous

stage in the scRNAseq dataset (**Fig 6B**), which we validated by qPCR (*Nppc*, p=0.0022 proestrus to estrus,

Inhba, p= 0.0067, proestrus to estrus) (**Fig 6A**). Similarly, Tubulointerstitial Nephritis Antigen Like 1

(*Tinagl1*) and Serine Protease 35 (*Prss35*) were secreted markers significantly upregulated in estrous

compared to their level of transcription in proestrus in the scRNAseq dataset (**Fig 6B**), and by qPCR

(*Tinagl1* p=0.0081 proestrus to estrus, *Prss35* p=0.0008 proestrus to estrus) (**Fig 6A**). In situ RNA

hybridization showed, as expected, that these markers were mostly expressed in mural granulosa cells of

antral follicles, while *Nppc* was expressed in both mural and cumulus cells (**Fig 6C**). Finally, we sought to

quantify the abundance of secreted PRSS35, NPPCC, TINAGL1 and ACTIVIN A proteins in the serum of

staged mice by ELISA (**Fig 6D**). We found that ACTIVIN A concentration in serum was significantly

increased between the diestrous and proestrous stages (p=0.0312) and peaked at the proestrous stage

(**Fig 6D**), similar to the *Inhba* transcript which encodes for the ACTIVIN A beta subunit (**Fig 6A**), although

unlike the mRNA the protein remained elevated during the estrous stage (**Fig 6D**). Circulating PRSS35

levels were lowest at the metestrous stage and were significantly increased during the transition to diestrus

(p=0.0009) and remained significantly elevated until the proestrus (**Fig 6D**), which contrasts with the Prss35

transcript which was significantly induced at estrus (**Fig 6A**). The serum concentrations of TINAGL1 which

was lowest at the diestrous and proestrous stages, was significantly increased during the transition between

proestrus and metestrus, peaking in estrus (p=0.0142) (**Fig 6D**)*,* which coincided with the transcriptional

pattern observed by qPCR and scRNAseq (**Fig 6A, 6B**). We observed a trend for serum protein

concentrations of NPPC to be lowest at the proestrous and estrous stages and increase during the

metestrous and diestrous stages (**Fig 6D**), although the differences were not statistically significant

(p=0.0889, estrus to metestrus). Importantly, these four markers could help identify the four different stages

of the estrous cycle when measured in conjunction in the blood (**Fig 6E**).

Discussion

Single cell RNA sequencing has been used to catalog the transcriptomes of a variety of tissues in several

species, across different physiological states (Hwang, Lee, and Bang 2018). Herein, we used scRNAseq

to catalog the cellular diversity and the changing cell states of the mouse ovary across the estrous cycle

and other reproductive states. In particular, we described the diversity of cell types and cell states of the

ovarian granulosa and mesenchymal cell subtypes, identified marker genes and cycling states for these

cells, and evaluated secreted markers for assessment of cyclic stages which may have utility for assisted

reproduction.

Given our focus on estrous cycle states, and the importance of granulosa cells in cyclic follicle maturation

and hormone production, it is unsurprising that this cluster was the most variable in gene expression and

contained the highest subclustering complexity. Some of this subclustering reflected transcriptomic

changes associated with estrous cycling; indeed, while most of the granulosa subclusters contained similar

amounts of cells from the proestrus, metestrus, and diestrus samples, o   -ovulatory

been previously reported to be involved in the ovulatory process and regulated by the LH surge, including

markers of terminal differentiation and steroidogenesis such as Smarca1 (Lazzaro et al. 2006), Cyp11a1

(H. F. Irving-Rodgers et al. 2009) and Mt1 and Mt2 (Shujuan Wang et al. 2018). Other genes enriched in

this subcluster such as Prss35 (Wahlberg et al. 2008) and Adamts1(Lussier et al. 2017; Sayasith, Lussier,

and Sirois 2013) had been previously identified as involved in follicular rupture which is a process necessary

for ovulation during estrus.

While the ovulatory antral follicle is unique to the estrous stage, most other follicle types can be found at all

estrous cycle stages, albeit in varying numbers. Early pre-antral follicles numbers are relatively stable

across the estrous cycle (Deb et al. 2013), given that they are largely unresponsive to gonadotropins (J. S.

Richards 1980), in contrast antral follicle numbers and size are more variable (Deb et al. 2013). Some

markers were unique to preantral follicles, as previously noted by others, including Col18a1 (Melo et al.

2017; Helen F. Irving-Rodgers et al. 2010; Diaz, Sugiura, and Eppig 2008) and Wnt4 (Hsieh et al. 2002).

The antral granulosa subcluster could be identified by its expression of Inha as previously described (Chen

et al. 2009; Wigglesworth et al. 2015). By comparing clustering of preantral and antral granulosa cells by

single cell transcriptomics to the expression of these markers by RNAscope, we found interesting parallels

between granulosa cells of preantral follicles and cumulus cells of antral follicles which shared many

markers that were absent from mural granulosa cells. These differences between preantral and antral

follicle mural granulosa cells were reflected in pseudotime trajectory analysis, suggesting that the preantral

granulosa cell states are conserved in the cumulus cells of antral follicles while the mural granulosa cells

of antral follicles are further differentiated and form a separate branch in the pseudotime trajectory. An

example of shared marker expression between preantral and cumulus granulosa is Kctd14, a member of

the Potassium Channel Tetramerisation Domain Containing family in granulosa cells expressed during the

initial growth of early pre-antral follicles, which we had previously shown to be regulated by AMH (Meinsohn

et al., 2021). RNAscope analysis of Kctd14 expression identified a group of cells present in preantral

follicles directly adjacent to the oocyte that were destined to differentiate into cumulus cells of large antral

follicles. To date the function of KCTD14 in the ovary remains unknown.

The cluster designated as corpus luteum could be divided into three subclusters (CL_1-3), which we

speculate might represent different life stages of the developing corpus luteum. Supporting this

interpretation, pseudotime analysis of granulosa cell trajectories found that the CL_2 cluster was closer to

the periovularory granulosa cells, suggesting it may be composed of early differentiating luteal cells

characterized by their transcriptional response to the LH surge. The gene expression signature of the CL_2

cluster confirms that these cells are involved in active steroid production, as evidenced by the high

expression of Star (Kiriakidou et al., 1996), and Hsd17b7, (Stocco et al., 2007). The CL_3 cluster was

comprised of luteal cells expressing markers such as the Nuclear Paraspeckle Assembly Transcript 1

(Neat1), which has been shown to be involved in the successful formation of the corpus luteum, as most of

the Neat1 KO mice fail to establish corpora lutea leading to successful pregnancies due to low levels of

progesterone (Nakagawa et al. 2014). The CL_1 cluster which the pseudotime profile places in proximity

to CL_3, appears to share features of both CL_2 and CL_3. Future studies will be needed to further define

these corpus luteum expression signatures and determine if they represent cell states corresponding to the

natural progression of the CL from formation to regression (periovulatory>CL_2>CL_1>CL_3) or distinct

luteal cell subtypes reflecting different cellular origins or distinct functions.

The final two granulosa subclusters can be identified as mitotic and atretic cells based on their expression

of previously validated markers. Indeed, transcripts enriched in the latter are consistent with markers of

atretic follicles including Caldesmon 1 (Cald1) (Hatzirodos et al. 2014), Phosphoinositide-3-Kinase

Interacting Protein 1(Pik3ip1) (Piersanti et al. 2019), Thrombospondin 1 (Thbs1) (Thomas et al. 2008;

Garside et al. 2010; Zhu et al. 2019), and SRY-Box Transcription Factor 4 (Sox4) (Terenina et al. 2017;

Fan et al. 2019). While markers found in mitotic granulosa cells are universally characteristic of dividing

cells (**Table S5**).

The mesenchymal cluster was also surprisingly complex and somewhat variable across the estrous cycle,

reflecting its physiological and temporal function to accommodate the dynamic tissue remodeling

associated with follicle growth, steroid hormone production, and ovulation. The ovarian stroma adjacent to

the developing follicle is thought to differentiate into the theca, which is responsible for steroid hormone

biosynthesis and therefore underlies the cyclic hormone production of the ovary (RYAN and PETRO 1966).

Here we identified two theca clusters, designated as Theca 1 and 2. Theca 1, defined by markers such as

Hhip (Hummitzsch et al. 2019; JoAnne S. Richards et al. 2018), Mesoderm Specific Transcript (Mest) (Fan

et al. 2019), and Patched 1 (Ptch1) (JoAnne S. Richards et al. 2018; Fan, et al. 2019), was presumed to

be immature theca. As the follicle matures and the antrum forms, this layer becomes vascularized and

differentiates into theca interna, which is steroidogenic. This steroidogenic theca cluster (Theca 2), was

readily identifiable through its expression of Hydroxy-Delta-5-Steroid Dehydrogenase, 3 Beta- and Steroid

Delta-Isomerase 1 (Hsd3b1), Cyp17a1, Cyp11a1 (Fan, et al. 2019), Fdx1 (Fan et al. 2019) and Prolactin

receptor (Prlr) (Grosdemouge et al. 2003). Theca externa, which plays a structural role in the follicle, is

comprised of smooth muscle cells, and was identified by its expression of structural proteins such as Myosin

Heavy Chain 11 (Myh11), Transgelin (Tagln), and Smooth Muscle Actin (Sma or Acta2) (Zhao et al. 2020).

Interestingly Fan et al. (2019) also identified a smooth muscle cluster remarkable for its high expression of

structural genes such as Collagen Type I Alpha 1 Chain (Col1a1), Collagen Type I Alpha 2 Chain (Col1a2),

Collagen Type 6 Alpha 1 Chain (Col6a1) and Collagen Type 6 Alpha 2 Chain (Col6a2) (Fan et al. 2019).

In our dataset these genes were expressed in the smooth muscle, theca 1, and both stromal 1&2 clusters

(Fan et al. 2019). Another difference was their report of Aldehyde Dehydrogenase 1 Family Member A1

(Aldh1a1) expression in theca externa which we found primarily in the cluster theca 2 in our dataset. These

differences could be attributable to clustering resolution and species variation.

The rest of the ovarian mesenchyme was subdivided into two stromal clusters, labelled stroma 1 and stroma

2. It is tempting to speculate that stroma 1 and 2 may represent two distinct populations of stromal cells

which differ in abundance according to their position in the cortex or medulla or their proximity to follicles,

but our RNAscope analysis could not conclusively distinguish any unique histology or spatial mapping. The

genes enriched in these clusters were consistent with previous work, including extracellular matrix and cell

adhesion (e.g. Decorin (Dcn), Lumican (Lum), Col1a1), transcriptional machinery (e.g. SRY-Box

Transcription Factor 4 (Sox4), GATA Binding Protein 6 (Gata6)), and TGFB signaling (e.g. Latent

Transforming Growth Factor Beta Binding Protein 4 (Ltbp4), HtrA Serine Peptidase 3 (Htra3)) markers

(Kinnear et al. 2020).

The ovarian surface epithelium (OSE) is a simple mesothelial cell layer covering the ovarian stroma which

is disrupted during ovulation and dynamically expands and contracts with cyclic ovarian changes (Hartanti

et al. 2019; Xu et al. 2011). The OSE was represented by fewer than 3% of all cells (845 cells) in our

dataset and could be identified based on well-established markers such as keratin (Krt) 7, 8 and 18

(Kenngott et al. 2014), Metallothioneins Mt1 (Iwata et al. 1999) and Mt2 (Iwata et al. 1999), Cysteine Rich

Protein 1 (Crip1) (Gava et al. 2008), and Insulin Like Growth Factor Binding Protein 5 (Igfbp5) (H. Wang et

al. 2006; Gava et al. 2008) which we validated herein. Despite their function in ovulatory wound repair, the

OSE gene expression was not drastically altered between the different stages of the estrous cycle, perhaps

due the small relative proportion of OSE participating in ovulation and subsequent wound repair and their

relatively low representation in the dataset. Nevertheless, we found genes previously associated to wound

healing such as Galectin 1 (Lgals1) (Lin et al. 2015), which were significantly upregulated in estrus when

compared to proestrus and metestrus. Interestingly, the Lgals1 knockout mice have delayed cutaneous

wound healing compared to their wild type counterparts (Hsieh et al. 2002). Similarly, the expression of the

immediate-early genes Fos, Jun, Junb, and Egr1 was variable during the estrous cycle, following a common

pattern of strong downregulation at estrous compared to the other stages. A potential explanation may be

the role of this gene family in stromal ovulatory wound repair, which would be consistent with previous

reports showing that mice with fibroblast overexpressing Egr1 exhibit exuberant tissue repair (Wu et al.

2009), while Jun, Fos and Fosb are in turn induced at different time points during corneal epithelial wound

healing (Okada et al. 1996).

The other cell types such as endothelial, immune cells and oocytes were found in the dataset but given

their relatively low representation, at 10%, 5% and 0.05% of all cells respectively, were not included in the

analysis of cyclic states. Other methodologies that include specific enrichment of these cell types should

be used to study their role in cyclic ovarian function.

Finally, to take advantage of this rich dataset, we sought to identify secreted markers which vary in

abundance during the estrous cycle and could thus be used as biomarkers in assisted reproduction. We

identified and prioritized four secreted biomarkers which varied significantly during different transitions of

the estrous cycle, namely Inhba, Prss35, Nppc, and Tinagl1.

Activin A is a secreted protein homodimer translated from the Inhba transcript that is a crucial modulator of

diverse ovarian functions including steroidogenesis and extracellular matrix remodeling, whose expression

level depends highly on the stage of the estrous cycle (Chang and Leung 2018). RNAscope analysis

confirmed that the transcript was mostly expressed by mural granulosa cells of antral follicles while qPCR

quantification found it to be highest in proestrus and quickly and significantly downregulated in estrous. In

contrast we found that the Activin A protein remained elevated in the blood in both proestrus and estrus,

which is consistent with studies in other species such as ewes   . We speculate that

this pattern may reflect a delay between transcription and translation, a buildup of the Activin A protein in

the circulation, and the incorporation of the Inhba product into other dimers such as Inhibin A (Gedeon and

Bokes 2012).

The serine protease 35 transcript was expressed in the theca layers of preantral follicles and induced in

granulosa cells of preovulatory follicles and all stages of the corpora lutea, peaking at the estrous stage

according to qPCR, leading us to speculate that it may be involved tissue remodeling during ovulation and

corpus luteum formation (Wahlberg et al. 2008). In contrast, the PRSS35 protein levels were highest in the

diestrus and proestrus stages as determined by ELISA, suggesting perhaps there may be other extra-

ovarian sources of PRSS35 that are also cyclic.

The natriuretic peptide precursor C (NPPC) protein is a peptide hormone encoded by the Npcc gene. Nppc

has been reported to be expressed by mural granulosa cells while its receptor Npr2 is expressed by

cumulus cells. The pair acts on developing follicles by increasing the production of intracellular cyclic

guanosine monophosphate and maintains oocyte meiotic arrest while it matures; upon downregulation, the

oocyte can escape meiotic arrest and ovulate (Celik et al. 2019). This mechanism makes Nppc an

interesting marker to predict ovulation. Herein, qPCR analysis revealed that Nppc was highest in the ovary

at proestrus, and was quickly and significantly downregulated at estrous, probably in response to the

increased levels of LH which inhibits the Nppc/Npr2 system (Celik et al. 2015). In contrast there was a trend

for the circulating NPCC peptide to be highest in metestrus and diestrus, albeit not in a statistically

significant way.

Finally, we evaluated the level of transcription and protein expression of the matricellular factor Tinagl1. We

found both the Tinagl1 transcript and the circulating TINAGL1 protein in the blood to be highest during

estrous, thus coinciding with ovulation, with a pattern of expression consistent with mural granulosa cells

of antral follicles. While its role in the ovary has not been extensively investigated, it was associated with a

delayed decrease in the number of ovulated oocytes in aging Tinagl1 knock out mice due to delayed ovarian

collagen deposition (Akaiwa, Fukui, and Matsumoto 2020), Tinagl1 is known to be expressed in the uterus

in the decidual endometrium post implantation, and the Tinagl1 knockout mouse displays impaired fertility

characterized by the incapacity to carry pregnancy to term and perinatal lethality (Takahashi et al. 2016).

Recently, Tinagl1 was also shown to be involved in myofibroblast-mediated wound healing (Bergmeier et

al. 2018).

These potential cyclic biomarkers provide a proof of concept that a deeper understanding of changes at the

single cell transcriptomics may have useful applications in assisted reproduction. It will be of interest to

follow up the findings of cyclic expression of ACTIVIN A, PRSS35, NPPC, and TINAGL1, particularly in

combination as an index, for use in humans and other species for the purpose of assisted reproduction.

In summary, this study outlines dynamic mRNA expression in murine ovaries across the estrous cycle and

other reproductive states and extends our understanding of the diversity of cell types in the adult ovary. We

identified herein novel biomarkers of the estrous cycle that can be readily measured in the blood and may

have utility, in combination, to predict staging for assisted reproduction. This rich dataset will provide a

hypothesis-generating framework of cell states across the cycle with which to elucidate the complex cellular

interactions that are required for ovarian homeostasis.

Legends

Figure 1 - Single cell RNA sequencing of mouse cycling ovaries. A. Schematic of the pipeline applied to

single cell sequencing experiment. B. T-SNE plot featuring the different cell clusters of the ovary. C.

Heatmap presenting the top 10 markers of each cluster.

Figure 2 - Identification of the different cell types in the mesenchyme cluster A. T-SNE plot featuring the

different cell subclusters belonging to the mesenchyme cluster. B. Heatmap presenting the top 5 markers

of each cluster. C. Confirmation of each mesenchyme cluster with t-SNE-plots and RNA in situ hybridization

Figure 3 - Identification of the different cell types in granulosa cluster A. T-SNE plot featuring the different

cell subclusters belonging to the granulosa cluster. B. Heatmap presenting the top 5 markers of each

cluster. C. Confirmation of each granulosa cell cluster with RNA in situ hybridization

Figure 4 - Constructing single cell resolution trajectory of mesenchyme (A-C) and granulosa

clusters (D-F). A-C) Pseudo-temporal trajectory colored by cell types (A) and the splitting of each

group on the trajectory (B) of mesenchyme cluster, illustrated by a diagram of their developmental

progression (C). D-F) Pseudo-temporal trajectory colored by cell types (D) and the splitting of

each group on the trajectory (E) of granulosa cluster, illustrated by a diagram of their

developmental progression (F).

Figure 5 - Figure 4: Granulosa cell expressed genes vary in an estrous cycle dependent manner A. T-SNE

plot featuring the different estrous cycle stages in granulosa cell cluster. B. Volcano plot showing the genes

differentially expressed between proestrus and estrous stages. C. Left - Pathway analysis reveals enriched

pathways of differentially expressed genes (DEG) between the different stages of the estrous cycle. The x-

dot size, represents the number of genes enriched in a GO term and dot color represents the adjusted p

values. Right   Gene networks of selected pathways are shown. Node size represents the number of genes

or downregulated. GO, Gene ontology; BP, Biological Process. D. QPCR validation of matrix remodeling

and steroidogenesis related markers (n=5 per group, mean ± SEM, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.005,

****P<0.001).

Figure 6 - Figure 5: New secreted markers estrous cycle dependent. A. qPCR showing significant up and

downregulation of ovarian secreted markers depending on the stage of the estrous cycle (n=5 per group,

mean ± SEM, *P<0.05, **P<0.01, ***P<0.005). B. Expression levels and percentages of ovary secreted

markers in granulosa cells based on the different stages of the estrous cycle. C. In situ hybridization

(RNAscope) of the same markers. D. Quantification of blood circulating proteins by ELISA (n=5 per group,

mean ± SEM, *P<0.05, ***P<0.005). E. Summary of the ELISA results.

Figure S2 - Co-localization of smooth muscle marker Acta2 with Hhip and Mfap5

Feature plots (A.) showing colocalization of Acta2 and Hhip in the smooth muscle cluster and

expression of Mfap5 localized in the cluster theca 2, both confirmed by in situ hybridization/

IHC (B.)

Figure S4 - Heatmap representing the transcriptomic progression of dynamic genes in the cell

lineages of mesenchyme (A) and granulosa (B) clusters through the pseudotime. Early cells

common to both lineages are located in the center (Prebranch) of the map, with divergence to

two different cell fates to the sides.

Figure S5 - Estrus to Proestrus transition shows more genes dysregulated that any other stages A. Volcano

plot showing the genes differentially expressed between estrous and metestrous stages. B. Volcano plot

showing the genes differentially expressed between metestrous and diestrous stages. C. Volcano plot

showing the genes differentially expressed between diestrous and proestrous stages. D. T-SNE plot

featuring the ovarian surface epithelium (OSE) cells depending on the stage of the estrous cycle. E. QPCR

validation of ovarian surface epithelium expressed markers (n=5 per group, mean ± SEM, *P<0.05,

**P<0.01, ****P<0.001).

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Figure 1

Figure 2

A.

B.

C.

Smooth muscle-*Mfap5*

Stroma 1-*Enpp2*

Stroma 2-*Kcnk2*

Theca 1-*Cd24a*

Theca 1-*Hhip*

Theca 2-*Cyp17a1*

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

Figure 6

Figure S2

Figure S4

Figure S5