Title

Extensive, transient, and long-lasting gene regulation in a song-controlling brain area during

testosterone-induced song development in adult female canaries

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Abstract

Like other canary reproductive behaviors, song production occurs seasonally and can be triggered by

gonadal hormones. Adult female canaries treated with testosterone sing first songs after four days and

progressively develop towards typical canary song structure over several weeks, a behavior that

females otherwise rarely or never show. We compared gene regulatory networks in the song-

controlling brain area HVC after 1 hour (h), 3 h, 8 h, 3 days (d), 7d, and 14d testosterone treatment

with placebo-treated control females, paralleling HVC and song development. Rapid onset (1 h or less)

of extensive transcriptional changes (2,700 genes) preceded the onset of song production by four days.

The highest level of differential gene expression occurred at 14 days when song structure was most

elaborate, and song activity was highest. The transcriptomes changed massively several times during

the two-week of song production. A total of 9,710 genes were differentially expressed, corresponding

to about 60% of the known protein-coding genes of the canary genome. Most (99%) of the

differentially expressed genes were regulated only at specific stages. The differentially expressed

genes were associated with diverse biological functions, of which cellular level occurring early and

nervous system level occurring primarily after prolonged testosterone treatment. Thus, the

development of adult songs requires restructuring the entire HVC, including most HVC cell types, rather than altering only neuronal subpopulations or cellular components. Parallel regulation directly by androgen and estrogen receptors and by other hub genes such as the transcription factor SP8, which are under steroidogenic control, lead to massive transcriptomic and neural changes in the specific behavior-controlling brain areas and gradual seasonal occurrence of singing behavior.

Introduction

Adult socio-sexual behaviors of vertebrates emerge seasonally or otherwise transiently in most vertebrate species. They are under the control of gonadal hormones (androgens and estrogens), which increase and decrease due to phasic neuroendocrine regulation of the gonadal activity triggered by environmental conditions (Ball and Balthazart, 2002; Guh et al., 2019; Weems et al., 2015). In addition, seasonal changes in brain areas' sensitivities for gonadal hormones are important for the seasonal occurrence of reproductive behaviors (Quispe et al., 2015; Riters et al., 2000; Schlinger et al., 1984; Sharp et al., 1986; Watts, 2020). This seasonality of behaviors and underlying sensory and motoric brain functions seems to be due to gonadal hormone-dependent activation of existing neural circuits of adult individuals, and, in some cases, changed configuration of neural circuits (Celec et al., 2015; Forlano et al., 2015; Jennings and de Lecea, 2020; Migaud et al., 2015; Schwartz and Andrews, 2013; Zornik and Kelley, 2011). A prominent latter example is the seasonal singing of some songbird species, which coincides with a seasonal change of morphology of song controlling brain regions (Alliende et al., 2017; Apfelbeck et al., 2012; Ball et al., 2004; de Bournonville et al., 2021; Gahr, 2004; Gahr, 2020; Nottebohm, 1981). However, even in such examples, not all cell populations behave seasonal, hence the neuronal seasonal plasticity seems to be limited to certain cells (Gahr, 1990b; Gahr and Metzdorf, 1997; Leitner et al., 2001).

Binding of androgens and estrogens to their respective receptors (the androgen receptor (AR), the estrogen receptor α/ß (ESR1/2)) triggers transcription of a gene cascade or exerts non-genomic

actions by activating intracellular second messenger pathways (Celec et al., 2015; Fuentes and Silveyra, 2019). During differentiation processes, the androgen and estrogens seem to activate a few tissue-specific hub-genes, and subsequently initiate tissue-specific cascades, which regulate several tens or hundreds of genes in a given tissue and determine the tissue's function (Pihlajamaa et al., 2015). In adults, while the gonadal hormones might affect several regions of a neural circuit, the affected gene cascades of a particular brain region seem limited (Bao et al., 2019; Peterson et al., 2013; Schwartz et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2021). However, it is particularly unclear what such gonadal hormone-triggered cascades might be if the induced behavior emerges slowly over many days to weeks, which is typical for seasonal behaviors such as the singing of canaries (Nottebohm et al., 1986; Voigt and Leitner, 2008). The dynamic interplay between hormones, gene expression, brain structure, and behavior is challenging to study.

Singing behavior is a complex behavior that involves intensive integration of sensory inputs and motor outputs (Wild, 2004). Songbirds use their songs in various reproductive contexts, including mate attraction (Byers et al., 2010; Drăgănoiu et al., 2002), pair bond formation (Wickler and Seibt, 1980), and territorial defense (Catchpole and Slater, 2018; Snijders et al., 2017). In many North temperate species, this sexually motivated singing behavior concerns only the males and is sensitive to testosterone and its androgenic and estrogenic metabolites (Gahr, 2014). In some species, females can sing in a sexual context however females sing frequently in a non-breeding context (Gahr, 2020; Riebel et al., 2019). Nevertheless, in adult males and females of most bird species, including those in which the function of female singing is unclear, testosterone treatment increased the singing rates and/or changed the species-specific song pattern (Dittrich et al., 2014; Gahr, 2020; Hausberger et al., 1995).

The neural song control system of songbirds (Nottebohm et al., 1976; Wild, 2004) is a target of testosterone due to the abundant expression of androgen and estrogen receptors (Gahr, 1990b; Johnson and Bottjer, 1995; Metzdorf et al., 1999). The premotor forebrain nucleus HVC is a

sensorimotor integration center of the song system (Hahnloser et al., 2002; Yu and Margoliash, 1996) that controls the temporal pattern of singing (Hahnloser et al., 2002; Long and Fee, 2008). It is the only song control nucleus that expresses both androgen and estrogen receptors (Frankl-Vilches and Gahr, 2017; Gahr, 2001), suggesting extensive hormonal regulation of various organizational levels of the HVC. For example, previous studies have shown that angiogenesis occurs in the HVC of adult female canaries within one week of testosterone treatment and is mediated by a testosterone metabolite, 17β-estradiol (Louissaint et al., 2002), testosterone induces gap junctions in the HVC (Gahr and Garcia-Segura, 1996) and androgens induce the pruning of spines of HVC neurons (Vellema et al., 2019). A handful of studies documented the endpoint of transcriptomic changes in songbird brains in response to several weeks of testosterone treatment (Dittrich et al., 2014; Frankl-Vilches et al., 2015; Larson et al., 2015; Peterson et al., 2013; Thompson et al., 2012). However, the transcriptomic effects at the onset of testosterone-driven singing and the progression of gene expression cascades associated with anatomical changes in the song control system and the development of singing behavior are not studied

Female canaries (*Serinus canaria*) rarely sing (Hartley et al., 1997; Herrick and Harris, 1957; Ko et al., 2020; Pesch and Güttinger, 1985), and the complexity of spontaneous female canary songs is different from that of male songs (Ko et al., 2020). However, non-singing female canaries begin to sing simple songs after testosterone treatment, and the song structure improves during the weeks of testosterone treatment (Hartog et al., 2009; Ko et al., 2020; Shoemaker, 1939; Vallet et al., 1996; Vellema et al., 2019), similar to the seasonal emergence of singing in male birds. The administration of testosterone induces differentiation of brain nuclei involved in song control in adult female canaries, which is considered crucial for song development (Fusani et al., 2003; Madison et al., 2015; Nottebohm, 1980). Thus, testosterone-treated female canaries are an excellent model to monitor the transcriptional cascades in parallel with differentiation of the song control system and the progressing song development.

Here, we examine the short- and long-term responses of HVC gene expression after

testosterone treatment. We implanted adult female canaries with testosterone over six time periods (1

hour (h) [T1h], 3 h [T3h], 8 h [T8h], 3 days (d) [T3d], 7 d [T7d], and 14 d [T14d]; Fig. 1A-B and Table

1) and monitored their vocal activity. We quantified gene expression and linked the transcriptomic

data to neuroanatomical and behavioral measurements of the implanted birds to identify the key

molecular players in testosterone-driven song development. In contrast to our expectation that

testosterone regulates only a small number of genes at the beginning of implantation and then gradually

recruits more and more genes, our results show that testosterone rapidly alters adult HVC gene

expression in a very strong and gene-dependent, dynamic, or constant manner. After an initial fast

change in transcription (1 hour) which concerned already 2,652 genes, the differential gene expression

changes dynamically and is boosted after about 14 days of testosterone treatment altering the

expression of 7,702 genes including 730 transcription factors. Our study demonstrates the progression

of cellular and network-level events in the HVC that seem required for the initiation and development

of singing behavior.

Results

We selected non-singing females to obtain a homogenous baseline for testosterone-induced song

development in all experimental animals and observed song activity after hormone implantation to

determine the timing of testosterone-induced song development (Fig. 1). After testosterone

implantation, birds in groups T1h, T3h, T8h, and T3d either called or were silent and did not sing

whereas five of six birds in group T7d and all birds in group T14d sang (Supplementary Fig. 1 and

Supplementary Table 1). On average, the first recognizable subsongs were uttered 4.1 ± 1.6 (mean ±

SD) days after implantation, similar to previous reports (Vellema et al., 2019) and similar to the time

required for male canaries to sing in the nonbreeding season when implanted with testosterone (Sartor

et al., 2005). One female of the T14 group sang already one day after testosterone treatment. Singing

activity increased significantly after day 2 and day 10 of testosterone treatment; there was no statistical

difference in singing activity between day 2 to day 9 (Fig. 1C, Supplementary Table 2, and

Supplementary Table 3).

Testosterone-induced progressive song development.

At the onset of song development, the songs showed a large inter- and intra-individual variability

(Supplementary Fig. **2** and Supplementary Table 1). Testosterone significantly increased the song

lengths daily until day 7, and further increased the song lengths from day 11 (Fig. 1D, Supplementary

Table 2, and Supplementary Table 3). Similarly, the number of syllables per song also increased daily

after implantation (Fig. 1E). Testosterone implantation significantly increased syllable repetition rate

in two steps, first on day 2 and then on day 9 (Fig. 1F). The maximum syllable repetition rate of all

songs was 26 Hz, which is consistent with a previous study (Fusani et al., 2003).

Testosterone increased HVC volume after two weeks.

HVC volumes were significantly greater in T14d birds than in controls (Fig. 1G, CON: 0.103 ± 0.039

mm^3 (mean $\pm$ SD); T14d: 0.253 ± 0.087 mm3, Kruskal-Wallis followed by Dunn post hoc test, $\chi^2 =$

16.55, df = 6, Holm-adjusted P-value = 0.020). The HVC volumes of T7d were not significantly

different from those of controls (T7d: 0.146 ± 0.073 mm3, Holm-adjusted P-value = 1.00) and were

not different from those of T14d because of the wide variation in HVC volumes of T7d (Holm-adjusted

P-value = 0.732). Testosterone-treated birds were not significantly different from controls in terms of

brain weight, body weight, and oviduct weight (Supplementary Fig. 4A-C). HVC volumes normalized

with respect to brain weight yielded the same results as those without normalization (Kruskal-Wallis

followed by Dunn post hoc test, $\chi^2 = 17.86$, df = 6, Supplementary Fig. 4D). The HVC development

observed is consistent with previous findings that systemic administration of testosterone results in

detectable HVCs in female canaries (Cornez et al., 2020; Fusani et al., 2003; Hartog et al., 2009;

Madison et al., 2015; Nottebohm, 1980; Rasika et al., 1994).

Testosterone dramatically altered transcriptomes of the HVC.

To investigate the effect of testosterone on gene regulation of the HVC, we performed microarray

analyses and examined the different gene expression profiles of the six testosterone-treated groups

compared with controls. We used microarrays for the transcriptome analysis to cope with the small

amounts of mRNA that is available from the HVCs of an individual female. The effect of testosterone

on transcription was evident as early as 1 hour after implantation (T1h, Fig. 3A), when plasma

androgen levels were significantly elevated (Fig. 1B; see Methods). The expression levels of 2,652

genes were significantly different between T1h and controls; 1,539 genes were upregulated and 1,113

were downregulated, including 141 up-regulated transcription factors (TFs) and 80 down-regulated

TFs (Fig. 3A). The number of differentially expressed genes fluctuated during testosterone treatment

and increased dramatically after 14 days (T14d, Fig. 3A). At 14 days, 5,632 genes were upregulated

and 2,070 downregulated, including 525 upregulated and 205 downregulated TFs. These 7,702 genes

represent 49% of all currently known protein-coding genes of the canary genome (Frankl-Vilches et

al., 2015). Overall, testosterone treatment affected the expression of 9,710 genes across all time points

combined, corresponding to approximately 60% of all canary protein-coding genes (Frankl-Vilches et

al., 2015).

The vast majority of testosterone-induced genes were only transiently affected.

To gain insight into the temporal dynamics of gene expression altered by testosterone, we classified

the differentially expressed genes into four classes: 1) constantly upregulated (at all six time points),

2) constantly downregulated, 3) dynamically regulated genes that the direction of regulation varied

between time points, and 4) transiently regulated genes whose expression was altered at least at one

but not all time points (Fig. 3B). In contrast to our expectation that testosterone regulates a small

number of genes at the beginning of implantation and gradually recruits more and more genes, we

observed a rapid and massive effect in a nonlinear dynamic regulatory style. The majority of genes

differentially expressed after testosterone treatment were transiently regulated genes (9,557 genes). In

contrast, the abundance of genes in the constant-regulated classes was much lower, with approximately

50 genes in each class (Fig. 3B). Constantly upregulated genes included pluripotent genes such as the

transcription factors *FLII* (FLII actin remodeling protein) and *NOTCH1* (notch receptor 1), which are

associated with a variety of cellular processes such as morphogenesis of anatomical structures

(Limbourg et al., 2005) (Supplementary Table 4). Constantly downregulated genes included genes

associated with apoptosis, such as *CASP8AP2* (caspase 8-associated protein 2) and *MAPK14* (mitogen-

activated protein kinase 14) (Jia et al., 2009) (Supplementary Table 4).

Parallel direct and indirect regulation of many genes by nuclear steroid receptors.

To evaluate the possibility of widespread parallel regulation of the expression of the many

testosterone-influenced genes by the nuclear gonadal steroid receptors (AR, ESR1, and ESR2), we

screened the promoter sequences of the upregulated genes for androgen and estrogen response

elements (AREs and EREs, respectively) using the Genomatix-overrepresented TFBS tool. If many

promoter sequences of testosterone-regulated genes contained AREs or EREs, nuclear steroid

receptors could directly regulate such genes in parallel and rapidly cause extensive changes in the HVC

transcriptome. Indeed, both AREs (V$ARE.04) and EREs (V$ER.02, V$ER.03, V$ER.04, and

V$ESR2.01) were overrepresented in the promoter sequences of genes that were upregulated within 1

hour of testosterone treatment (Supplementary Table 5), which concerned 83.7 % of 962 differentially

expressed genes with available promoter sequences. AREs were identified in 45.9% (442), ERE in

7.4% (71) and both ARE and ERE in 30.4% (292) of the promoter sequences of differentially expressed

genes. In addition, approximately 9% of the genes upregulated in T1h are transcription factors (141

genes, Fig. 3A); the MatInspector tool of the Genomatix software suite identified AREs and/or EREs

in the 31 promoters of the 38 transcription factors whose promoter sequences we were able to obtain (see Supplementary Table 6).

After 14 days, when differential gene expression increased massively, the number of differentially transcribed transcription factors was much higher in T14d transcriptomes compared to all other time points (Fig. 3A). Overall, however, the frequency of genes with ARE (48.2%), ERE (7.6%), or both (26.3%) (total 82.1%) among 2941 promoter-sequence-available differentially expressed genes in T14d-HVCs was similar to that in T1d-HVCs. Therefore, testosterone-controlled hub genes such as transcription factor SP8 (see below), in addition to androgen and estrogen receptors, may have caused strongly increased transcriptional regulation in the HVC at 14 days of song development.

Testosterone affected steroid homeostasis and steroid receptor expression in the HVC.

Testosterone can be converted by aromatase (CYP19A1) to the major estrogen 17β-estradiol, by 5α-reductase (SRD5A2) to the active androgen 5α-dihydrotestosterone (5α-DHT), or by 5β-reductase (AKR1D1) to the inactive androgen 5β-dihydrotestosterone (5β-DHT) (Michels and Hoppe, 2008). The active forms of androgens and estrogens can trigger transcription via nuclear androgen and estrogen receptors.

One hour after implantation, the HVC cells appear to act to lower local testosterone and estradiol levels. For example, *AKR1D*1 was upregulated, possibly reducing active androgen levels by promoting the conversion of testosterone to inactive 5β-DHT (Fig. 2E). In addition, upregulation of UDP-glucuronosyltransferase 1A (*UGT1A1* and *UGT1A9*) could reduce the toxicity of 17β-estradiol through conjugation of hydrophilic glucuronides (Guillemette, 2003; Ouzzine et al., 2014). In contrast, the HVC appears to have adjusted to elevated testosterone levels eight hours after implantation: *AKR1D1* and *UGT1A1* were downregulated again, and *SRD5A2* was upregulated instead (Fig. 2C, 2D, and 2E). In addition, *ESR1* (estrogen receptor α) was now upregulated.

After two weeks of treatment, many genes encoding enzymes involved in steroidogenesis and steroid activity were up-regulated, including *HSD3B2*, *CYP17A1*, *SRD5A2*, *CYP19A1*, *ARK1D1* (except for the down-regulation of *HSD17B12*), the nuclear steroid receptors (*AR* and *ESR2*) as well as the membrane-associated androgen receptor *GPRC6A* (Pi et al., 2010) (Fig. 2E). The up-regulation of many steroidogenesis enzymes and receptors suggests potentially active biosynthesis of various steroidogenesis metabolites capable of triggering hormone signaling cascades. This might contribute to the high number of differentially expressed genes at T14d.

Testosterone-induced genes were first associated with cellular changes and at later stages associated with neural system changes.

We performed Gene Ontology (GO) term enrichment analysis to predict potential biological processes of the HVC affected by testosterone implantation at different time points (Fig. 3C and Supplementary Table 7). After one hour of testosterone treatment, genes associated with processes such as circulatory system development (GO:0072359), cell development (GO:0048468), and neuron development (GO:0048666) were enriched, and genes associated with neurogenesis (GO:0022008) were enriched after three hours. Many processes associated with cellular anatomical changes showed continuous enrichment from T1h to T14d. We refined the above enrichment analyses with the foci on HVC cell types, neuronal protrusions, and neuronal activities. In cell type analysis, we observed enrichment for genes associated with "oligodendrocytes" and "endothelial cells" at two specific time points (T3h and T7d, Fig. 3D, Supplementary Table 8 and Supplementary Table 9). In contrast, genes associated with "projection neurons" were enriched at almost all time points examined, with both upregulated and downregulated genes. Genes associated with "interneurons" and "microglia" were not enriched in the testosterone-regulated ones. However, since testosterone changed the transcription of genes involved in GABA signaling (see below), interneurons, too, were affected. For testosterone-sensitive genes related to neuronal morphology, we found that genes associated with "axon," "myelin," "dendrites," and "spine" were enriched as early as one hour after testosterone treatment and at all later time points

examined. We further investigated whether testosterone regulates electrical or chemical synapses and thus influences neuronal activities by evaluating additional search terms, including gap junction, eight different neurotransmitters, their receptors, and genes involved in the biosynthesis of those neurotransmitters (Fig. 3). We found no enrichment of "gap junction" in the time window of our experiment. Among the eight neurotransmitters examined, only the genes associated with "glutamate" and "GABA" showed enrichment. Genes downregulated by testosterone were enriched for glutamate at T3h, T8h, and T14d (Supplementary Table 9). The genes associated with the inhibitory neurotransmitter GABA were enriched in the upregulated genes at T3d and in the downregulated genes at T14d (Supplementary Table 9).

At T14d, the composition of the biological processes to which the differentially expressed genes contribute changed dramatically. In addition to the processes involving neuronal development, cellular differentiation, and cellular communication that were already active at earlier time points (see above), biological functions involving organ formation and system development such as embryo morphogenesis (GO:0048598) and animal organ development (GO:0048513) now occurred. This means that testosterone treatment causes a reorganization of the entire HVC (equivalent to an organ) after about 14 days of treatment. The only process at the system/organ level that was triggered early, immediately after the start of testosterone treatment, and continued throughout HVC development was the development of the circulatory system (GO:0072359). This again underlines the importance of the blood system both for the differentiation of cells/neurons and for the differentiation of the entire HVC system. Among genes associated with ion transport (GO:0006811), which was enriched only at T14d, genes encoded potassium ion channels especially those responsible for inward rectifying (such as *KCNAB1*, *KCNJ3*, *KCNJ5*, *KCNJ8*, *KCNK10*, *KCNK16*, and *KCNK17*) were only upregulated at this time point. Such genes are highly differentially expressed in the HVC of male zebra finches (Lovell et al., 2013).

Identification of key genes and gene networks for testosterone-induced anatomical and behavioral changes.

We used WGCNA (weighted gene correlation network analysis) (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008, 2012), an unbiased clustering method, to identify functional units of gene co-expression networks relevant to testosterone-induced morphological and behavioral changes. We constructed an overall gene network composed of the HVC transcriptomes of testosterone-treated animals (Table 1). In the network, 12,360 genes were clustered into 14 modules by the WGCNA procedure (Fig. 4A and Supplementary Fig. 5). After module identification, WGCNA integrates gene expression data with morphological (HVC volume) and behavioral (song parameters) data to find modules that correlate strongly with the given parameters.

The "turquoise" module (an arbitrary name given by the "WGCNA" R package) was significantly and positively correlated with duration of testosterone implantation, HVC volume, song rate, song length, and the number of syllables in a song (Fig. 4A and Supplementary Table 10). Seven other modules were enriched for neuronal properties (Fig. 4B and Supplementary Table 11) and were significantly correlated with at least two song-related parameters. For example, the member genes of the "brown" module were enriched for "projection neuron", "myelin", "dendrite", and "spine", and this module was negatively correlated with song length, the number of syllables per song, and syllable repetition rate

The "turquoise" module was the biggest module with 6,480 member genes (Supplementary Table 10) and with the greatest average intramodular connectivity among the 14 modules, meaning members of this module are more likely to co-express than members of other modules (Supplementary Fig. 5). GO-term enrichment analysis showed it was highly associated with anatomical structure morphogenesis (GO:0009653, Bonferroni-adjusted P-value = 8.2×10^{-17}). Many genes of the "turquoise" module have been associated with testosterone-induced angiogenesis and neuron recruitment of HVC (Hartog et al., 2009; Kim et al., 2008; Louissaint et al., 2002; Rasika et al., 1999;

Rasika et al., 1994), including brain-derived neurotrophic factor (*BDNF*), vascular endothelial growth

factor (*VEGFA* and *VEGFC*) and VEGF receptors (*KDR, FLT1, FLT4*), insulin-like growth factor 1

(*IGF1*), and matrix metallopeptidases (*MMP2* and *MMP9*) (Fig. 4C and Fig. 2E). Chondroitin sulfate

proteoglycan 4 (*CSPG4*), the main component of perineuronal nets, has been associated with the

closure of the sensitive period of song development (Cornez et al., 2020). In addition, 20

steroidogenesis enzymes were members of this module, such as hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase

(*HSD3B2*), 17α-hydroxylase (*CYP17A1*), 17β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (*HSD17B12*),

aromatase (*CYP19A1*) and 5α reductases 2 (*SRD5A2*), as well as steroid receptors such as estrogen

receptors (*ESR1* and *ESR2*), androgen receptor (*AR*), and G protein-coupled receptor family C group

6 member A (*GPRC6A*), which might mediate the non-genomic effects of androgens (Pi et al., 2010).

Thus, the unbiased clustering method, which integrates the transcriptomes with behavioral and

anatomical measurements under the influence of testosterone, was able to assign functionally relevant

genes into a module, even though most of the genes were transiently regulated. The very many genes

of the turquoise module were likely expressed in different cell types of HVC, including projection

neurons and interneurons, although the "turquoise" module failed to pass the threshold for cell-type

enrichment analysis (Fig. 4B).

Transcription factor Sp8, a hub-gene.

Transcription factors are among the top 10 most connected genes in 10 of the 14 modules. Of the

turquoise module, approximately 10% of the most connected genes (intramodular connectivity higher

than the 90th percentile) were transcription factors, and the most connected gene was *SP8*, a zinc-

finger transcription factor of the SP/KLF family. It is required for the survival of pallial progenitor

cells during corticogenesis (Limame et al., 2014; Zembrzycki et al., 2007), crucial in angiogenesis

(Safe and Kim, 2008), CNS development (Bell et al., 2003; Gaborieau et al., 2018), as well as adult

neurogenesis in mice (Waclaw et al., 2006). *SP8* was up-regulated after two weeks of testosterone

treatment, a time point when the regulated genes were highly associated with anatomical changes at

systemic levels (Fig. 2E and Fig. 3C).

To evaluate the probability of whether SP8 can directly regulate transcription of its fellow

members in the "turquoise" module, we assessed the presence of SP8 binding sites (V$SP1F) in the

promoter sequences of 1,151 genes with high intramodular connectivity with *SP8* (adjacency > 0.5)

using the "Genomatix-overrepresented TFBS tool". SP8 binding sites are enriched in the input

sequences and potentially exist in the promoter sequences of 625 genes, including *VEGFA* and *ESR2*

(Supplementary Table 12). Given that transcription factors can regulate gene expression in a

combinatorial fashion (Reményi et al., 2004), we proceeded to identify the potential interacting

partners of SP8 protein among the 1,151 genes with high intramodular connectivity with *SP8* using

the Search Tool for the Retrieval of Interacting Genes/Proteins (STRING) database. The database

identified 11 proteins that might physically interact with SP8 based on bioinformatics evidence

(Supplementary Fig. 6), including two transcription cofactors EED and SIN3A, and four transcription

factors; three of the four belong to the GATA family (*GATA2*, *GATA3,* and *GATA4*). We subsequently

evaluated the probability that SP8 forms a transcription factor complex with GATA using the

"Genomatix-overrepresented TFBS tool" module search function. Binding sites for complex

V$GATA-V$SP1F were enriched in the promoter sequences of the 1,151 genes and were potentially

present in 169 submitted genes, including *VEGFA* and *ESR2* (Supplementary Table 13).

The SP family plays an important role in estradiol-dependent gene regulation in breast cancer

cell lines (Safe and Kim, 2008) and the presence of estrogen receptors enhanced the binding of the SP

family (Fuentes and Silveyra, 2019). We thus investigated the promoter sequence of *SP8* for the

possibility of direct modulation of nuclear steroid receptors. The MatInspector tool of the Genomatix

software suite identified two potential EREs (V$ESR2.01) in the promoter of *SP8*, indicating the

possibility of direct modulation of ESR2. We observed colocalization of *SP8* and *ESR2* mRNA in

SLC17A6 positive (glutamatergic) and some *SLC17A6* negative HVC cells (Fig. 5) by performing a

RNAScope® fluorescent multiplex assay in the HVC of T14d birds, a time point when *SP8* and *ESR2*

mRNA were both up-regulated detected by microarray (Fig. 2E). Ninety-six percent of *SP8* positive

cells were also *ESR2* positive; conversely, 97% of *ESR2* positive cells were *SP8* positive. *ESR2* has

not previously been found in the HVC of songbirds (Bernard et al., 1999), which may be due to its

transient expression after testosterone treatment. The fact that the two genes were expressed nearby in

the same cell may indicate physical interactions between the gene pair and warrant further

investigation into the nature of their relationship.

Discussion

We examined at several time points during testosterone-induced song development the progression of

transcriptomic changes in the song control nucleus HVC, in parallel with changes in HVC volume and

song in female canaries. The number of differentially expressed genes in the HVC of testosterone-song

induced female canaries is unprecedented compared to other brain areas of adult vertebrates. We found

that the HVC responded to testosterone within 1 hour with extensive changes in gene expression (2,652

genes) that preceded the earliest changes in song development. The genes that were differentially

expressed from T1h to T3d were mainly related to neuronal and cellular differentiation, including

angiogenesis. While gene regulation of neuronal/cellular processes continued throughout song

development, the extent of testosterone-related gene regulation extended slightly to nervous system

development at T7d (2,472 differentially expressed genes) and expanded massively to organ/system

(HVC) development at T14d (7,702 differentially expressed genes), consistent with the larger

delineable HVC and the organized song pattern at this stage. Intriguing, most extensive changes in

transcription occurred at the stage (T14d) when song pattern and HVC phenotype became most similar

to those of singing male canaries. Only 1.6% (153 genes) of the total 9,710 differentially expressed

genes were regulated at all time points from T1h to T14d, suggesting that the different developmental

stages of HVC and song differentiation require time-specific gene networks. The large number of

genes that could be directly regulated by androgen and estrogen receptors based on the sequence of

potential promoters, the presence of androgen and/or estrogen receptors in about 60-70% of all HVC

neurons (see below), as well as the increase in the expression of these receptors at T14d, speaks for

massive, parallel regulation of very many genes, including other transcription factors, in the HVC by

androgen and estrogen receptors.

379 Fast, transient, and long-term constant regulation of large transcriptomes after

380 testosterone treatment.

The HVC is a medium-sized brain area consisting of 30,000 to 50,000 cells, including neurons, glia,

and endothelial cells, expressing over 10,000 genes, accounting for about two-thirds of the (currently

known) protein-coding genes in the canary genome (Frankl-Vilches et al., 2015). In the canary HVC,

about 55% of cells express androgen receptors and about 25% express estrogen receptors (Gahr, 1990a,

b; Johnson and Bottjer, 1993, 1995), and some express both receptor types (Gahr, 1990b), which

suggest that about 60-70% of the HVC cells express androgen and/or estrogen receptors, making these

cell types direct targets for the action of testosterone and its metabolites. Local conversion of

testosterone to 5α-DHT and 17β-estradiol is possible due to the expression of 5α-reductase and

aromatase in HVC (this study; (Metzdorf et al., 1999)). Although we expected testosterone and its

metabolites to affect multiple gene networks with diverse cellular and biological functions, we were

surprised by the extensive transcriptional regulation and its rapidity. Based on previous

autoradiographic studies (Arnold et al., 1976; Marynick et al., 1976), testosterone takes about 30

minutes to reach the HVC after implantation. Thus, it is even more surprising that testosterone altered

the expression of more than 2,700 genes in an hour or less. This already large number of differentially

expressed genes after testosterone treatment remained at this level until about 14 days after treatment

when the number roughly tripled to 7,702 (Fig. 3A). Interestingly, the down-regulated genes increased

by 23.5% between the 7 and 14 days, while the up-regulated genes increased by 604.9%.

This rapid and extensive regulation of gene expression affecting many functions makes the hypothesis of avalanche-like gene regulation in which androgen and estrogen receptors modulate the expression of a few hub genes in many cells, which in turn regulate most other genes, improbable. *In silico* analyses showed that androgen and estrogen binding sites are enriched in the promoter sequences of T1h testosterone-sensitive genes, supporting the possibility of fast massive parallel gene regulation by androgen and estrogen receptors. Chromatin immunoprecipitation studies found that the binding sites occupied by androgen and estrogen receptors could be located up to 10 kb from the transcription start sites, which is outside the genomic range we studied (Bourdeau et al., 2004; Takayama et al., 2007; Wilson et al., 2016). Therefore, direct control of genes by androgen and estrogen receptors may be even more extensive than suggested here. Nevertheless, androgen and estrogen receptors regulate transcription factors within 1 hour that might amplify the androgen and estrogen receptor-mediated testosterone-induced effects (**Fig. 3**A). This indirect control of gene expression by testosterone could be very pronounced after 14 days of testosterone treatment when the expression of a large number (730) of transcription factors changed. However, promoter analysis showed that genes with ARE and ERE were similarly enriched in the transcriptomes of T1h and T14d (83.7 and 82.1 % of differentially expressed genes, respectively) and affected about 25 % more genes at both time points than in randomly selected gene pools of control HVCs. Single-cell transcriptomes would help clarify whether and how testosterone regulates gene expression in cell types expressing or lacking androgen and/or estrogen receptors.

The majority (52.3%) of the testosterone-sensitive HVC genes (4,798 of 9,710) were regulated only at a single time point after testosterone administration, i.e. in a time-limited manner. This suggests that certain gene networks are regulated by androgen and/or estrogen receptors at different time points or are induced by previously regulated networks and no longer require testosterone. We did not explicitly investigate the latter possibility. However, song development succumbs when testosterone implants are removed (Vellema et al., 2019), implying that the presence of testosterone or its

metabolites is required for gene regulation throughout the song development. Because androgen- and

estrogen-receptor binding to DNA is highly tissue- and context-specific (Pihlajamaa et al., 2015;

Pihlajamaa et al., 2014), androgens and estrogens could regulate the expression of different genes at

different time points during HVC differentiation. Over 61% of the top ten GO terms across the sixtime

points examined are active as early as one hour after testosterone administration (Fig. 3C), suggesting

that although testosterone regulates certain cellular and biological functions more long-lasting, it

transiently determines the expression of most genes involved in these functions (Fig. 3B). The dynamic

and transient nature of HVC transcriptomes during song development reflects the observation that

different anatomical features of HVC neurons, glial cells, and vessels change in parallel with song

features at different time points ((Hartog et al., 2009; Louissaint et al., 2002; Nottebohm, 1980; Rasika

et al., 1994; Vellema et al., 2019) and this study) (see below).

The diverse and very extensive effects of testosterone on gene expression in HVC cells were

unexpected. Comparable studies of transcriptomic changes following testosterone treatment or

associated with seasonal phenotypes in birds, mammals, amphibians, and fish reported much less

differentially expressed genes, both in peripheral tissues (Cheviron and Swanson, 2017; Dopico et al.,

2015; Faber-Hammond et al., 2015; Morey et al., 2016; Sharma et al., 2019) and vertebrate brain areas

(Bao et al., 2019; Peterson et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2016; Zhao et al., 2021). A comparably large

effect was only reported for seasonal changes in the testes (Tian et al., 2019). For most peripheral

tissues, this much smaller number of affected genes could be explained by a smaller number of cell

types that make up the organ compared to brain areas such as the HVC, which comprise a larger

number of different cell types (Colquitt et al., 2021). Alternatively, the enormous effect of testosterone

on the HVC transcriptome could be due to the expression of androgen and/or estrogen receptors in

about 60 to 70% of HVC neurons (Gahr, 1990a, b; Johnson and Bottjer, 1993, 1995) which should

include most HVC neuron types. The large number of testosterone-induced differentially expressed

genes in the adult canary HVC, especially at later stages (T14d) of song development, is reminiscent

of embryonic organ formation, which has also emerged as a central biological function in the GO

analysis (Fig. 3). This suggests that the testosterone (or estrogen)-triggered induction of adult

behaviors, such as parental behavior and courtship, requires a much more extensive reorganization of

the transcriptome and the associated biological functions of the brain areas involved than previously

thought. In this context, it should be noted that the HVC, although a central component, is only one

component of the song control system, and that singing requires the functionality of at least three brain

areas of the descending song motor system (Wild, 2004). Since these brain areas and the sound-

producing organ, too, express androgen receptors (Gahr and Wild, 1997; Godsave et al., 2002),

testosterone orchestrates the regulation of a large part of the canary gene pool to achieve singing.

Testosterone-driven transcriptomic changes, neural changes, and song differentiation.

The onset of singing was about 4 days. Then singing evolved from early sub-songs to late sub-songs

to plastic songs with increasing stereotypy of syllables, increasing syllable repetition rate, and

increasing total number of syllables strung together in a song (Fig. 1 and Supplementary Fig. **1**). There

is some individual variability in the transitions from early sub-songs to late sub-songs and plastic songs,

but songs uttered after 14 days resembled a typical canary song much more than songs uttered at earlier

time points after the start of testosterone treatment. Our experiment ended after 14 days with plastic

songs, already showing most of the characteristics of typical canary songs (long sequences, high

repetition rates, several different syllables in one song passage, short inter-syllable pauses). The

transcriptional changes on days 1 and 3, likely, prepare the HVC to produce early subsongs, those on

day 7 likely are relevant for singing late subsongs and contribute to differentiation processes of HVC

circuits required for the production of plastic songs, and transcriptional changes on day 14 are relevant

for the production of plastic songs, or for differentiation processes that lead to fully stereotyped songs

that emerge in general between 14 days to weeks of testosterone treatment (Vellema et al., 2019).

Most interesting, gene regulations related to certain functional processes are initiated fast after testosterone treatment and last throughout the studied song development, while others show a late-onset. Although this rapid transcriptional change at T1h produced homeostatic responses to reduce the activity of testosterone, it also activated many genes of many different cellular and biological functions - as shown in Gene Ontology (GO) analysis - that are involved in cellular plasticity, such as cytoskeletal organization and in cellular morphogenesis (Fig. 3C). Next to targeting permanent neuron populations of HVC (Gahr, 1990b), testosterone seems to affect angiogenesis, neurogenesis, and gliogenesis (Goldman and Nottebohm, 1983; Louissaint et al., 2002). Concerning neuronal development, the differentially expressed genes associated with "dendrites," "axon," and "spine" were enriched after one hour of treatment, indicating the fast onset of neuronal differentiation (Fig. 3C, 3D). In addition, the balanced activity of excitatory and inhibitory neurons in the HVC might be important for HVC networks to become active in song control. Accordingly, we observed an enrichment of genes associated with "glutamate" (downregulated) at early time points (T3h and T8h) and enrichment of genes associated with "GABA" at T3d, when the first songs occurred (Fig. 3D). At the earliest stage, the only system-level process that was initiated was vascular system development. The vascular endothelial growth factor (*VEGF*) receptors, *KDR* and *FLT4*, were expressed at higher levels in T1h animals than in controls (Fig. 2E). In addition, *FLT1* (another VEGF receptor) was upregulated at T8h and *VEGFA* and *VEGFC* at T3d. At the system level, GO term analysis showed that differentially expressed genes related to circulatory system development (GO:0072359) were enriched at all time points starting at T1h while system (organ) development (GO:0048731, GO:0048513) concerning the entire HVC was massively regulated at 14 days of treatment (Fig. 3C). Our results are consistent with the previous finding that testosterone triggers the development of the vasculature in the HVC (Hartog et al., 2009; Louissaint et al., 2002) and suggest that processes such as an expanded vasculature are important for neuronal differentiation and increased neuronal activity. These cellular differentiation processes, which begin in the first days of testosterone treatment, may contribute to the onset of song

pattern generation and precede the extensive systemic changes in the HVC of female canaries treated

with testosterone over an extended period (T14d).

In T7d when the canaries were just about to change from subsong to plastic song, i.e. song stereotypy increased and more HVC typical functions such as syllable sequencing emerged, transcription of genes associated with "endothelial cells" was enriched (Fig. 3D). Testosterone metabolite 17β-estradiol (but not 5α-DHT) induces HVC endothelial cells to secrete VEGF, which activates the VEGF signaling pathway and angiogenesis and releases BDNF (Louissaint et al., 2002). BDNF mediates the recruitment and survival of adult-born neurons (Rasika et al., 1999) and was upregulated at the T7d transcriptome. Genes related to neuronal differentiation are still differentially expressed at T7d. In relation, the anatomy of the HVC is probably subject to continuous but subtle morphological changes after testosterone levels are increased (see above), contributing to the phenotype of the HVC. However, the resulting volume change in the T7d animals was statistically indistinguishable from the control animals; only three T7d birds had an increased HVC volume comparable to the T14d animals (Fig. 1F). It needs to be investigated which electrophysiological properties of which HVC neurons change at this stage of song development.

In T14d, the anatomical appearance of the HVC has changed, making the HVC recognizable in histological sections, resulting in an apparent enlargement of the HVC (Fig. 1F) (Gahr, 1990a; Gahr and Metzdorf, 1997). The HVC volume of T14d birds was comparable to published data in which female canaries were implanted with testosterone for three weeks or longer (Fusani et al., 2003; Hartog et al., 2009; Madison et al., 2015; Nottebohm, 1980; Rasika et al., 1994). This change of phenotype of the entire HVC correlates with massive changes in gene expression occurring during the second week of testosterone treatment when approximately three times as many genes were differentially expressed as at time T7d. Which neuroanatomical changes in detail contribute to the change in HVC phenotype need to be seen but might involve many different processes as suggested by the massive increase in differentially expressed genes and the stark increase of systems-level GO-terms. Concerning neuronal

differentiations relevant to the interconnection of neurons, the down-regulation of genes seems to be

more relevant than the up-regulation after 14 days of testosterone; genes associated with "spikes" were

even downregulated at all time points in our experiment (Fig. 3D) A recent study showed that dendritic

spine density in the HVC decreased after testosterone implantation, suggesting that synaptic pruning

occurs in the HVC and contributes to crystallization of the female canary song (Vellema et al., 2019).

The upregulation of ion channel genes such as inward rectifying potassium channels at 14 days of

treatment might stabilize the electrical properties of HVC neurons, which could reduce variability in

neuronal networks and therefore, result in the observed increased stability of song pattern at that stage.

The differentiation of HVC at the cellular and system levels at T14d is consistent with the marked

increase in song length and syllable rate between days 7 and 14. Longer songs mean that a greater

number of syllables are uttered sequentially without long pauses; a higher syllable rate means that

more syllables are sung per time, which requires a reduction in pauses between syllables and/or the

exclusion of long syllables. These song parameters reflect the sequential temporal organization of

syllables, which is a major function of HVC circuitry (Basista et al., 2014; Goldin et al., 2013;

Hahnloser et al., 2002). Alternatively, but not excluding the possibility, the enormous expansion of the

differentially expressed transcriptome of the HVC could be due to the increased singing activity of

T14d females. Singing increases the expression of the immediate early gene ZENK in canary HVC

(Jarvis and Nottebohm, 1997), which may regulate further gene cascades. Since ZENK expression

does not differ between T7d and T14d birds, we favor the hypothesis that the strong increase in

differentially expressed genes and thus biological processes in the HVC of T14d birds is related to

song differentiation processes rather than song activity.

Conclusions.

Testosterone treatment rapidly triggered extensive transcriptional changes in the HVC of female

canaries and dramatically altered song. After the rapid onset (1 hour or less) of the transcriptional

changes, the transcriptomes changed very extensively several times during the two-week evolution of

song. This progression of transcriptomes shows that most genes were regulated only at specific stages

of HVC and song development. The differentially expressed genes are associated with many different

biological functions, with systemic functions emerging primarily after prolonged testosterone

treatment. This suggests that adult song development requires a restructuring of the entire HVC,

including most HVC cell types, and not just a change in some neuronal populations or cellular

components. These changes seem driven by parallel direct regulation of thousands of genes by

androgen and estrogen receptors, as well as by other hub genes such as *SP8* that are themselves under

steroidogenic control. Our study identified vast gene networks that correlate highly with behavioral

and neuroanatomical changes during the song development of adult birds.

Materials and Methods

Animals.

Forty-seven adult female canaries were used in this study (see Table 1). Forty-two of these birds were

planned for microarray analysis, however, three of these birds were excluded since the RNA amount

or quality was not sufficient for the microarray hybridization. Adult female canaries (*Serinus canaria*,

at least one-year-old) were bred in the animal facility of the Max Planck Institute for Ornithology,

Seewiesen, Germany. Housing and welfare of the animals followed the European Directives for the

protection of animals used for scientific purposes (2010/63/EU), and protocols were approved by the

Government of Upper Bavaria under AZ-No. 55.2/54-2531-68/12. The sex of the animals was

confirmed by PCR using primers P2 and P8 for the CHD genes (Griffiths et al., 1998) and by visual

inspection of the female reproductive system after killing. Food and water were provided ad libitum at

all times. Birds were kept under local light conditions. Six to eight weeks before the experiment started

(beginning in September at the earliest), the light schedule was gradually changed to short-day

conditions (light: dark = 9:15 hours). After the birds became accustomed to the short-day light cycle, singing was monitored. Birds were divided into a control group and six experimental groups; the numbers of birds per group are summarized in Table 1. Testosterone was implanted into the experimental groups for different periods (T1h, T3h, T8h, T3d, T7d, T14d, see Method: Testosterone Implantation).

Song monitoring.

About 5% of female canaries sing spontaneously without hormone manipulation (Ko et al., 2020). To ensure that vocal activity in our experiment was indeed triggered by testosterone implantation, birds used in this study were housed alone in sound-attenuated boxes ($70 \times 50 \times 50$ cm) and all vocalizations were recorded continuously for two weeks before testosterone implantation and until killing. The microphone (TC20, Earthworks, Milford, New Hampshire) in each silenced box was connected to a PR8E amplifier (SM Pro Audio, Melbourne, Australia) that fed into an Edirol USB audio recording device (Edirol UA 1000, Roland, Los Angeles, California) connected to a computer. Vocalizations were recorded at a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz and a resolution of 16 bits using Sound Analysis Pro 2011 software (Tchernichovski et al., 2000).

Song analysis.

Birds treated with testosterone began singing unstable so-called subsongs on average on day 4. Therefore, song data refer to animals in the T7d and T14d groups. Nine hours of recordings were analyzed per day. We analyzed all recordings from day 0 until the birds were killed (until the seventh or fourteenth day). For the analysis of songs and song activity for the first 7 days, we combined data from T7d and T14d birds because their songs did not differ significantly (Supplementary Fig. 3, Supplementary Table 2, and Supplementary Table 3). Song analysis was performed using Multi_Channel_Analyser (MCA), a custom program with a graphical user interface written in MATLAB (version R2016b, Mathworks), as described previously (Ko et al., 2020) and available to the public (https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.1489098). Briefly, MCA loads song

files and generates sound spectrograms using the fast Fourier transform with a sliding time window of

294 samples and an overlap of 128 samples between adjacent sections. These settings result in a

spectrogram with a resolution of 150 Hz on the frequency axis and a resolution of 3.76 milliseconds

on the time axis. Due to background noise, syllable recognition was performed in three steps. First,

sound segments (songs and calls) were manually selected by visual inspection. Second, song segments

were selected if the sound segment was longer than 2 seconds. Third, syllables within the selected

segments were automatically detected using MCA by setting the following parameters in MCA: "High-

pass filter" to 2.0 kHz, "Threshold_wave_amplitude" to 0.001, and "Threshold_syllable_freq" to 50

Hz. Sounds shorter than 5 milliseconds (ms) were removed.

Digital samples of the recognized syllables were exported and used to calculate sound features.

As in the previous study (Ko et al., 2020), four song-level and four syllable-level parameters were

considered. Song-level parameters included three temporal features: Song length, number of syllables

in a song, syllable repetition rate, and a spectral feature, the slope coefficient (α) (Gardner, 1978;

Gisiger, 2001; Voss and Clarke, 1975). Syllable-level parameters include two temporal features,

syllable length and syllable spacing, and two spectral features, peak frequency, and Wiener entropy.

Song length was calculated by subtracting the timestamp at the end of the last syllable and the

timestamp at the beginning of the first syllable of a song. The syllable repetition rate was defined as

the number of syllables in the song divided by the song length in seconds. Syllable length was

calculated by subtracting the timestamp at the end of the syllable and the beginning of the syllable.

The interval between syllables was calculated by subtracting the timestamp at the beginning of the

following syllable and the end of the syllable. The peak frequency was the frequency at which the

power in the spectrogram of a syllable was highest. Wiener entropy is a unitless measure of signal

noise that provides a measure of the width and uniformity of the power spectrum. To obtain a broader

range, we used the log-transformed Wiener entropy. In this case, a Wiener entropy of 0 represents

white noise and the value infinity represents pure tone (Tchernichovski et al., 2000).

Testosterone implantation.

We custom-made the testosterone implants by packing testosterone (86500, Sigma-Aldrich, Saint Louis, Missouri) into a 7-mm-long SilasticTM tube (Dow Corning, Midland, Michigan; 1.47 mm inner diameter, 1.96 mm outer diameter, 0.23 mm thickness). Both ends of the SilasticTM tube were sealed with silicone elastomer (3140, Dow Corning). After sealing, the implants were cleaned with 100% ethanol to remove any testosterone particles. To ensure that no leakage occurred, the implants were placed in ethanol in a fume hood overnight. Implants that were moist were discarded. One day before implantation, implants were incubated overnight in 0.1 M phosphate-buffered saline (PBS) to ensure the immediate release of testosterone upon implantation (Rasika et al., 1994). We started subcutaneous implantation immediately after turning on the light at 8:30 am, with an interval of 20 minutes between each bird, considering the time needed on the day of euthanasia. Control animals were implanted with empty 7-mm silicone tubes that were also sealed with silicone elastomer. After the designated implantation period (1h, 3h, 8h, 3d, 7d, or 14d, Table 1), the birds were killed with an overdose of isoflurane, body weight was recorded, and the brains and oviducts were dissected, weighed, frozen on dry ice, and stored at -80°C until further use. The testosterone implants were all present at the time of euthanasia and held testosterone.

Radioimmunoassay of plasma androgens.

To confirm that systemic hormone manipulation increases circulating androgen levels, we performed a radioimmunoassay on blood samples collected before and after testosterone implantation (Fig. 1A). During the experiment, blood samples (approximately 100 μl) were collected twice from the wing vein for testosterone analyses, once approximately 4 days before testosterone implantation, and once immediately before killing. All blood samples were collected between 8 and 11 am, and within 3 min to avoid handling effects (Wingfield et al., 1982). Blood samples were centrifuged (5,000 rpm, 10 min) to separate plasma from blood cells. Testosterone metabolites in plasma were measured by radioimmunoassay using a commercial antiserum to testosterone (T3-125, Endocrine Sciences,

Tarzana, California), as described previously (Goymann et al., 2002). Standard curves and sample

concentrations were calculated with Immunofit 3.0 (Beckman Inc. Fullerton, California) using a four-

parameter logistic curve fit and corrected for individual recoveries.

The testosterone concentrations were assayed in duplicates in four separate assays. The mean

extraction efficiency for plasma testosterone was $84.0 \pm 6.8\%$ (mean $\pm$ SD, N = 120). The lower

detection limits of the testosterone assays were 0.35, 0.34, 0.44, and 0.32 pg per tube, and all the

samples were above the detection limit. The intra-assay coefficients of variation of a chicken plasma

pool were 4.4%, 4.1%, 9.8%, and 2.6%. The inter-assay coefficient of variation as determined by the

variation of the chicken plasma pool between all the assays was 4.3%. The testosterone antibody used

shows significant cross-reactions with 5α-dihydrotestosterone (44%), our measurement might include

a fraction of 5α-DHT and thus we referred to the measurement as plasma androgen level.

Testosterone implants increased plasma androgen levels in all testosterone-treated groups

(Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table 3). In contrast, pre-implantation levels were

statistically similar in all groups (159 ± 449 pg/ml, mean $\pm$ standard deviation (SD)). Implantation

increased plasma androgen levels by at least 28-fold above baseline (range: 17 to 88 ng/ml) after only

one hour. Plasma androgen levels after implantation for all testosterone-treated groups were not

statistically different from each other (plasma androgen levels after implantation for each group: CON

0.0472 ± 0.0240; T1h 46.9 ± 28.2; T3h 53.9 ± 14.8; T8h 35.6 ± 24.0; T3d 20.4 ± 4.47; T7d $14.8 \pm$

3.29; T14d 9.31 ± 2.94 ng/ml).

Brain sectioning.

Brains were sagittal sectioned using a cryostat (Jung CM3000, Leica, Wetzlar, Germany) in either 40

μm × 4 + 20 μm × 2 (N = 17) or 50 μm × 4 + 14 μm × 3 (N = 33) sections. The thick sections (40 or

50 μm) were mounted on glass slides for subsequent microdissection of the tissue for microarray

analysis, whereas the thin sections (20 or 14 μm) were mounted on RNase-free Thermo Scientific™

SuperFrost Plus™ slides (J1800AMNZ, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, Massachusetts) for Nissl

staining or RNAscope® in situ hybridization assay (Wang et al., 2012). All sections were stored at -

80 °C until further processing.

Measurement of the HVC volume.

674 A set of thin serial sections (20 or 14 μm) were Nissl-stained (0.1% thionine solution) and covered

675 with Roti-Histokitt II embedding medium (Roth). HVC areas were measured using ImageJ2 (Rueden

676 et al., 2017) (Fiji distribution (Schindelin et al., 2012)). All brains were coded so that the evaluators

677 had no information about the identity of individual brains and sections. Volumes were derived from

678 summed-area measurements multiplied by section thickness and section spacing.

RNAScope® *in situ* **hybridization assay.**

For RNAScope® *in situ* hybridization, three birds were used for a given probe at a given time point (3

slices for each bird). *In situ* hybridization for mRNA expression of *ALDH1A1*, *AR*, *HSD17B12*,

SRD5A2, and *UTS2B* was performed on sections (20 or 14 μm thick) using the RNAScope ®2.0 HD

Detection Kit (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, Newark, California) (Wang et al., 2012) according to the

protocols indicated by the manufacturer. Stained tissue sections were imaged using a Leica DM6000

B microscope (Leica). Quantification was performed using ImageJ2 (Fiji Distribution (Rueden et al.,

2017; Schindelin et al., 2012)). We measured the area of accumulated chromogenic particles in the

stained HVC sections for all probes and normalized the values using the area of the HVC region of the

same section. We used the Color Threshold function (color space: RGB; red channel: 0 to 47; green

channel: 0 to 165; blue channel: 0 to 160) to select the accumulated chromogenic particles and the

Analyze Particles function (minimum size = 8 μm^2) to count the number of accumulated chromogenic

particles and the area occupied by the chromogenic particles (user-defined macro file: "Marco_

quantify_density_singleProbes_quantify.ijm"). Our macro files are available at

https://github.com/maggieMCKO/TimeLapseTestoFemaleCanary/tree/main/RNAscopeQuantificatio

n.

RNAScope® fluorescent multiplex assay (Advanced Cell Diagnostics) was used to visualize mRNA expression of *SP8*, *ESR2*, and *SLC17A6* following the protocols provided by the manufacturer. Probes were conjugated to Atto 550 (*SP8*), Alexa 488 (*ESR2*), and Atto 647 (*SLC17A6*) fluorophores, respectively. Sections were counterstained with DAPI. The stained tissue sections were imaged using a Leica DM6000 B microscope.

Microarray procedures and annotation.

Thirty-nine adult female canaries were used for microarray analysis (see Table 1). The procedure was described in (Ko et al., 2021). Briefly, for total RNA extraction, we dissected the HVC from the abovementioned thick sections (40 or 50 μm), typically 24-32 slices per HVC, under a stereomicroscope and transferred the tissue into an Eppendorf tube containing 340 μl of RLT buffer mixture (containing DTT, Qiagen, Valencia, California). We used these rather thin sections for dissection of HVC to avoid contamination of the samples with non-HVC tissues. RNA was then extracted using the RNeasy® Micro Kit (Qiagen) with the optional DNase digest step. The RNA quality was assessed using the Agilent Model 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, California) and the RNA concentrations were assessed using a Nanodrop 1000 spectrometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The RNA quality of all samples was of good quality (RNA integrity numbers (RIN) > 7). The purified total RNA samples (at least 100 ng per sample) were subsequently processed and hybridized using the Ambion WT Expression Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and the Affymetrix WT Terminal Labeling and Controls Kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The resulting cDNA was hybridized to the Custom Affymetrix Gene Chip® MPIO-ZF1s520811 Exon Array, which has been used and validated in successfully cross-species (zebra finches and canaries) hybridization studies (Dittrich et al., 2014; Frankl-Vilches et al., 2015). Hybridization was performed for 16 hours at 45°C and 60 rpm in the GeneChip Hybridization Oven 640. The arrays were washed, stained, and scanned using the Affymetrix GeneChip Fluidics Station 450 and Affymetrix GeneChip scanner 3000 7G. The CEL files were generated using Affymetrix GeneChip Command Console® Software (AGCC), and for quality

control, the success of individual hybridizations was assessed using the Affymetrix Expression Console™ software. The 5.7 million male zebra finch-specific probes spotted on our custom array correspond to approximately 4,711,133 probe sets and hence to 25,816 transcripts published in public databases (NCBI and Ensembl) (Warren et al., 2010). We annotated more than 90% of the transcripts to 12,729 human orthologous genes using publicly available databases (Ensembl, GenBank, UniProt, and DAVID (Benson et al., 2005; Consortium, 2015; Flicek et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2008, 2009; Yates et al., 2016)), as well as commercial databases (v 21 El Dorado, Genomatix, Precigen Bioinformatics Germany GmbH (PBG), Munich, Germany). The microarray data generated in this study have been deposited in NCBI's Gene Expression Omnibus (Edgar et al., 2002) and are accessible through the GEO Series accession number GSE118522.

Analysis of differentially expressed genes.

ChipInspector software (v21, El Dorado Database vE28R1306, (Genomatix), Precigen Bioinformatics Germany GmbH (PBG)) was used to calculate differential expression between each experimental group and the control group. ChipInspector is a single probe-based analysis tool for microarray data that increase sensitivity compared to conventional probe-set-based analyses, such as robust multi-array analysis (Cohen et al., 2008; Tusher et al., 2001). We used the following parameters in ChipInspector: group-wise exhaustive comparison: Delta threshold (controlling false positive rate) was set at 0; the minimum coverage for each transcript was set at 10 significant probes; the minimum differential expression was $|\log_2(\text{fold change})| \geq 0.5$. The significantly differentially expressed transcripts obtained were annotated to human orthologous genes as described above. For transcripts belonging to the same genes, the average expression was calculated if all transcripts were regulated in the same way (e.g., all up-regulated or all down-regulated). If a gene contains both up- or down-regulated transcripts, transcripts of the minority direction were discarded (<40% of the total transcripts), and the average expression was instead calculated from the remaining transcripts (60% or more). Transcripts without human orthologous gene annotation were removed before subsequent analyses.

The differential analysis results agree with the published data at the overlapping time point

(T14d, Fig. 2E): after two weeks of testosterone implantation, elevated mRNA levels of a vascular

endothelial growth factor receptor (*KDR*) and brain-derived neurotrophic factor (*BDNF*) were reported

(Louissaint et al., 2002). For further verification of the microarray results, we conducted RNAScope[®]

in situ hybridization assay for several genes involved in testosterone metabolism, including androgen

receptor (*AR*), 17β-hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase (*HSD17B12*), 5α reductases 2 (*SRD5A2*), and

aldehyde dehydrogenase 1 family member A2 (*ALDH1A2*) (Wang et al., 2012). The quantifications

were congruent with the microarray results (Fig. 2).

Analysis of overrepresented transcription factor binding sites.

We extracted 1,000 bp of genomic sequence upstream of the putative transcription start site as the

promoter sequence of a given gene from the canary genome (Frankl-Vilches et al., 2015; http://public-

genomes-ngs.molgen.mpg.de/cgi-bin/hgGateway?db=serCan1). We used the "Toolbox for

Overrepresented Transcription Factor Binding Sites" of the Genomatix software suite from Precigen

Bioinformatics Germany GmbH (Cartharius et al., 2005; Genomatix; Quandt et al., 1995; Sui et al.,

2005) to search for transcription factor binding sites (TFBSs) and determine whether individual TFBSs

(or TFBS pairs) were overrepresented in the input sequences against a user-defined background

(Genomatix). For each analysis, we drew a random sample of canary promoter sequences with the

number corresponding to the input and used the random sample as the user-defined background. For

the analysis of androgen and estrogen response elements (AREs and EREs), we extracted the promoter

sequences of the testosterone upregulated genes and the promoter sequences of the direct neighbors of

SP8 identified by WGCNA (adjacency > 0.5). To assess the likelihood that SP8 forms a transcription

factor complex with GATA (the TF binding sites within 10 to 50 bp (center to center) of each other),

we used the module search function of the TFBS-Genomatix toolbox above. This analysis was

performed using zebra finch promoters as background because the option of using a custom

background (an equivalent size to the samples described above) was not available.

Enrichment analysis of Gene Ontology (GO)-terms.

We used ClueGO v2.5.0, an application developed under the Cytoscape environment v3.5.1 (Bindea et al., 2009; Shannon et al., 2003), to predict the putative biological functions of genes of interest. This software performs hierarchical analyses of GO term enrichment and fuses GO terms of similar functions. Enrichment was determined with a right-sided test and corrected with the Bonferroni step method considering multiple comparisons. Results were plotted using the R package ggplot2 (Wickham, 2009).

Enrichment analysis of genes related to cell types, neuronal processes, and neurotransmitters.

We searched 33 terms associated with cell types, neuronal protrusion types, and biosynthesis of neurotransmitters and neurotransmitter receptors and downloaded the gene lists associated with each search term (Supplementary Table 8), using the "Genes and gene products" tool of the AmiGO 2 database (v2.4.26, release date 2017-07-05 (Ashburner et al., 2000; Consortium, 2017)). Subsequently, we used the Fisher's exact test ("Fisher-Test", alternative hypothesis set to "greater") to determine whether enrichment of a search term (genes associated with the term) is observed in the list of differentially expressed genes of a given time point. We used the 15,609 protein-coding genes of the canary as the universe in the Fisher's exact test (https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genome/ annotation_euk/Serinus_canaria/101/#FeatureCountsStats). The P-values were adjusted for multiple comparisons by Bonferroni's method using the "p.adjust" function. We performed the calculations in R (Team, 2020) and visualized the results using the ggplot2 R package (Wickham, 2009).

Weighted gene co-expression network analysis (WGCNA).

WGCNA R package v1.51 (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008, 2012) was used to identify functional units of gene co-expression network that are relevant for the testosterone-induced morphological and behavioral changes (traits, Fig. 4A). WGCNA calculates the network adjacency matrix based on the

correlation of gene expression data and assigns genes into modules (sub-networks within the overall network) based on the topological overlap matrix from a given network adjacency matrix. The adjacency value can be seen as a proximate indicator for connection strengths among the nodes (genes) in the network: a pair of highly correlated genes have an adjacency value of 1, indicating the pair is likely co-expressed at a given time. After module identification, WGCNA integrates the gene expression data with the morphological and behavioral data to identify modules strongly correlated with specific parameters. A total of 32 traits were included in this study, and median and inter-quartile range (Iqr) were calculated for each trait at the bird level. In co-expression networks, genes are seen as "nodes" and "edges" (or connection strengths) between nodes are determined by the pairwise correlations between gene expression profiles.

Before network construction, we calculated the normalized expression of the (Genomatix) CEL files using the "justRMA" function in the "affy" R package v1.66.0 (Gautier et al., 2004). We followed the suggestion of the authors of the WGCNA R package using the "collapseRows" function in the WGCNA R package to aggregate gene expression data to gene level (Miller et al., 2011). We constructed a signed hybrid network composed of all HVC samples (n = 39, Table 1) using the "adjacency" function (type: "signed hybrid"). The soft thresholding power for the construction of the adjacency matrix was set at 6 judging from the fitted curves calculated by the "pickSoftThreshold" function. The adjacency value has a range from zero to one. The calculated adjacency matrix was fed to the "TOMsimilarity" function to calculate the topological overlap matrix. Then, we used the "cutreeDynamic" function to cluster genes into modules (sub-networks within the overall network) based on the topological overlap matrix (the "TOMsimilarity" function). We used a minimum module size of 100 genes and the "deepSplit" was set to four. We merged similar modules using the "mergeCloseModules" function ("cutHeight" was set to 20%). Module Eigengenes is the first principal component of a module's gene expression profile, a method of summarizing an entire module in one vector (Burkett et al., 2018; Langfelder and Horvath, 2008, 2012). We calculated Module Eigengenes

using the "moduleEigengenes" function and calculated the correlation matrix between the Module

Eigengenes and the traits using the "cor" function (Pearson) in R (Team, 2020). Gene significance is

the Pearson correlation between a gene's expression profile and the traits (Burkett et al., 2018;

Langfelder and Horvath, 2008, 2012). The overall network connectivity, intramodular, and

intermodular connectivity were calculated using the "intramodularConnectivity" function in the

WGCNA package. The adjacency matrix was exported using the "exportNetworkToCytoscape"

function with a cutoff of 0.5 and was used for extracting the direct neighbors of *SP8*. The interactions

between *SP8* and its direct neighbors were evaluated using the Search Tool for the Retrieval of

Interacting Genes/Proteins database (STRING, v10.5 (Szklarczyk et al., 2015)). The interactions with

moderate confidence were retained (combined score greater than 0.4) and were visualized using

Cytoscape environment v3.5.1 (Bindea et al., 2009; Shannon et al., 2003).

Experimental design and statistical analysis.

All statistical analyses were performed in R (Team, 2020). For statistical comparisons of plasma

androgen levels, song features, and quantification of RNAScope® *in situ* hybridization, we used linear

mixed-effect models to analyze the fixed effects using the packages 'lme4' (Bates et al., 2014) and

'arm' (Gelman and Su, 2018) in a Bayesian framework with non-informative priors. We assumed a

Gaussian error distribution and confirmed that model assumptions were met by visual inspection of

model residuals. Plasma androgen levels, daily song rate, song length, and syllable repetition rate were

log-transformed, while the normalized stained HVC areas (RNAScope®) were square root

transformed. Subsequently, we simulated 10,000 times the estimates from the joint posterior

distribution of the model parameters using the 'sim' function and extracted the 95% credible intervals

(CrI) of the mean of the simulated values, which represent the uncertainty of the estimates (Gelman

and Hill, 2006). We considered an effect to be statistically meaningful when the estimated CrI did not

include zero or when the posterior probability of the mean of the difference between compared

estimates was higher than 0.95 (for more details on statistical inference see (Korner-Nievergelt et al.,

2015)). Linear mixed-effect models, model estimates, and posterior probability of comparisons were

given in Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table 3. For visualization, we plotted the

predicted estimate from the models, the 2.5% and 97.5% CrI, as well as the raw data. Statistically

meaningful differences between compared groups can be inferred if the CrI of one group does not

overlap with the mean estimate of the other.

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Competing interests

The authors declare no competing financial interests.

Figure legends

Fig. 1. Testosterone implantation increased blood androgen levels, affects the HVC morphology,

and affects the song syntax of adult female canaries. A, illustration of experimental procedures.

One blood sample was taken from each bird before implantation (blue shaded box) and one at the time

of sacrifice (orange vertical bars). CON: birds treated with empty implants; T: birds treated with

testosterone-filled implants for 1 hour (T1h), 3hours (T3h), eight hours (T8h), 3 days (T3d), seven

days (T7d), and fourteen days (T14d). **B**, testosterone implantation increased the androgen

concentrations in blood plasma significantly at all time points. Each color-coded dot represents one

measurement, before (blue) and after (orange) implantation. The black dots indicate the predicted

estimates of the linear mixed-effects models, and the vertical orange bars indicate the 95% credibility

intervals (CrI) of the predicted estimates. See Supplementary Tables 2 and 3 for the values of the linear

mixed-effects models and posterior probabilities. **C**, the daily singing activity of T7d and T14d groups

(measured by the percentage of time spent singing within nine hours in a day) significantly increased

twice on day 2 and day 10 (see also Supplementary Fig. 3). Each grey dot is one bird. **D**, Song length

in seconds (s) of T7d and T14d groups. Song length significantly increased daily until day 7 and further

increased on day 11. **E**, the number of syllables per song of the T7d and T14d groups increased

significantly daily after implantation. **F**, syllable repetition rate as syllables per second (sys/s) of the

T7d and T14d groups significantly increased on day 2 and day 9. In D-F, each gray dot represents a

measurement originating from one song. In C-F, black dots indicate the predicted estimates of the

linear mixed-effects models, and vertical orange bars indicate the 95% credibility intervals (CrI) of the

predicted estimates. See Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table 3 for the estimates of the

linear mixed-effects models and the posterior probabilities. **G**, HVC volumes of T14d were

significantly different from that of control, T 3h, and T8h groups. The boxes indicate the

25th/50th/75th percentiles (bottom/middle/top bar), and the extent of the whiskers indicates the most

extreme values within 1.5 times of the inter-quartile range (IQR) of the hinge. Outliers are labeled in

red. *: Holm-adjusted P-value <0.05 (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test followed by Dunn's post hoc test).

Fig. 2. Validation of mRNA expression of five genes differentially expressed in the microarrays

using RNAScope® *in situ* hybridizations of HVC sections. A, schematic of the songbird brain with

song control areas (white) including the HVC. **B** and **C**, representative photomicrographs of *in situ*

hybridizations of androgen receptor (*AR*) mRNA in B and 5α-reductase (*SRD5A2*) mRNA in C from

controls (CON) and testosterone-treated (T8h resp. T14d) birds. *AR* mRNA expression is increased in

the HVC of T14d (B, arrowheads) and *SRD5A2* mRNA is increased in the HVC of T8h animals (C,

arrowheads). **D**, testosterone increased the expression of genes in the HVC compared with controls

(e.g., *AR*, *SRD5A2*, *UTS2B*), and the expression of many genes differed between time points after

testosterone treatment started (e.g., *ALDH1A2*, *HSD17B12*). The *in situ* hybridization data of the five

depicted genes confirmed the statistical differences (Supplementary Table 2 and Supplementary Table

3) observed in the microarray-derived expression measurements (see Fig. 2E). Data represent the

proportion of the labeled HVC area (RNAscope staining of gene mRNA, see B and C) relative to the

total HVC area of that section. Each gray dot represents the value of one HVC section. Black dots

indicate the predicted estimates of the linear mixed-effects models, and vertical orange bars indicate

the 95% confidence intervals (CrI) of the predicted estimates. N = 3 birds per group. *ALDH1A2*:

aldehyde dehydrogenase 1 family member A2; *AR*: androgen receptor; *HSD17B12*: 17β-

hydroxysteroid dehydrogenase; *SRD5A2*: 5α-reductases 2; *UTS2B*: urotensin 2B. **E**, a heat map

showing the expression levels of selected groups of genes during testosterone treatment as compared

to the control HVCs ($\log_2$ fold change): genes of gonadal steroid receptor genes (blue), genes with

known functions in steroidogenesis (gray), genes involved in testosterone-induced angiogenesis (red),

genes involved in neuronal recruitment (green), and the gene encoding transcription factor *SP8*

(yellow).

 Fig. 3. Testosterone rapidly and persistently altered gene expression patterns in the HVC. A,

number of differentially expressed genes in the HVC of testosterone-treated birds compared with

controls. The proportions of transcription factors (TF) were indicated in darker orange (upregulated

genes) and darker purple (downregulated genes). Already within one hour (T1h) more than 2,500 genes

were up- or down-regulated. A massive increase in gene regulation occurred 14 days (T14d) after

testosterone implantation. **B**, Only a small number of genes (1.6%) were differentially expressed at all

time points. We classified the differentially expressed genes into four classes based on their temporal

regulation patterns: 1) genes that are constantly upregulated, 2) genes that are constantly

downregulated, 3) dynamically regulated genes that are upregulated or downregulated at all six time

points, and 4) genes that are altered in expression at least at one but not at all time points compared

with controls (see Supplementary Table 4). **C**, GO term enrichment analysis of biological processes

involving differentially expressed genes during progressive testosterone action on HVC. The ten most

likely GO terms (based on Bonferroni-adjusted P-values) were displayed for each time point and

classified into six functional categories. The number of genes observed (cumulative across time points)

was presented in a stacked bar graph (see Supplementary Table 7 for full results). Biological processes

at the cell and neuron level occur early (1 hour), whereas those at the organs/system level, such as the

HVC as a network, occur late (14 days). **D**, enrichment analyses focusing on genes associated with

brain cell types (upper panels) and genes associated with neuronal features (types of neuronal

protrusions, genes involved in neurotransmitter biosynthesis, and genes encoding neurotransmitter

receptors, lower panels). Gray-filled cells were not significant (Fisher's exact test, P-values corrected

by FDR method). Full results are shown in Supplementary Table 8.

Fig. 4. Identification of key genes relevant for testosterone-driven changes. A, the unsupervised clustering method WGCNA classified testosterone-regulated genes into 14 modules (named as color; the number indicated the number of genes of each module) and associated these modules with physiological traits (plasma testosterone concentration (T), body weight in g, brain weight in mg, oviduct weight in mg, HVC volume in mm^3) and song measurements (song rate, song length, syllables per song, syllable repetition rate, syllable length, syllable interval, maximum frequency, Wiener entropy, and song slope. Note that certain gene modules are mainly positively correlated (red cells), while other modules are mainly negatively correlated with physiological and behavioral parameters. Pearson's r is given in a diagram cell (upper value) if the correlation was significant; the lower value is the Bonferroni-adjusted P-value. The numbers next to the module names are the numbers of genes included in the modules. **B**, analysis of gene enrichment in the 14 modules related to cell types (oligodendrocyte, projection neuron) and neuronal parameters (axon, myelin, dendrite, spine) show that eight modules are associated with neuronal properties. Gray-filled cells were not significant (Fisher's exact test, P-values corrected by FDR method). See Supplementary Table 11 for full results. **C**, a circos plot illustrates the entire WGCNA gene coexpression network by placing the 14 modules (color-coded) at the outer edge of the circle. Intramodular connectivity is shown in gray; the coexpression network of *SP8*, a zinc finger transcription factor, is shown in blue. *SP8* was the gene with the highest number of coexpressed genes in the "turquoise" module. The genes of each module were sorted in descending order by the number of neighbors of each gene (the height of the light orange lines between the outer edge and the inner circle of intramodular connectivity).

Fig. 5. The transcription factor *SP8* gene is frequently coexpressed with the estrogen receptor ß gene (*ESR2*) in HVC cells. Photomicrographs of RNAScope® fluorescence multiplex *in situ* hybridizations of the HVC from T14d animals. Colocalization of *SP8* mRNA and *ESR2* mRNA in both *SLC17A6* expressing (glutamatergic) neurons (A_1 to A_5) and *SLC17A6* negative neurons (B_1 to B_3). Ninety-six percent of *SP8* positive cells were also *ESR2* positive; among SP8 and ESR2 double-labeled cells, 60% were in *SLC17A6* expressing neurons. Scale bars in both top and bottom panels correspond to 50 µm. *SLC17A6*: Solute Carrier Family 17 Member 6, formerly known as vGluT2.

Fig. 6. The timeline of the differentiation of organizational levels of HVC derived from transcriptome data, HVC morphology measured as volume, and song activity and song syntax measurements after testosterone treatment. The intensities of colors indicate the abundance of the features. Note that the abundance of biological processes related to the circulatory system and neuron development precedes that related to the nervous system development of HVC and precedes the emergence of song. The emergence of a canary typical song pattern coincides with the system development of HVC. HVC morphology (volume) matured only after about 2 weeks of treatment, coinciding with the most differentiated song patterns uttered by the canaries.

Figures

972   **Fig. 1.**

975 **Fig. 2.**

Fig. 3

Fig. 5

990 **Fig. 6**

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1371 **Tables**

1372 **Table 1. Experimental groups and sample sizes.**

Group	Sex	Singing	Tissue sampled	Sample size (n)			
				HVC volume	Microarray	Brain weight	Blood plasma testosterone, body weight, and oviduct weight
CON	Female	No	HVC	6	5	6	6
T1h	Female	No	HVC	6	6	6	6
T3h	Female	No	HVC	5	5	5	5
T8h	Female	No	HVC	9	5	8	9
T3d	Female	No	HVC	6	6	9	9
T7d	Female	Yes	HVC	6	6	6	6
T14d	Female	Yes	HVC	6	6	6	6

1373 CON: control birds treated with empty implants; HVC: used as a proper name. Testosterone treatments:

1374 1 hour (h) [T1h], 3 h [T3h], 8 h [T8h], 3 days (d) [T3d], 7 d [T7d], and 14 d [T14d].

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 Supplementary Figures and Legends

1378 **Supplementary Fig. 1. Representative song spectrograms of the song development of three T14d**

1379 **birds.** Note that the song length, syllable repetitions, and amplitude (the intensity of the spectrogram)

1380 of the three birds increased over time. Bird 9 developed the most male-typical song patterns.

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Supplementary Fig. 2. Inter- and intra-individual variability of daily singing activity (A), song length (B), syllable repetition rate (C) and number of syllables per song (D) during song development. Each dot represents a measurement of a day in A and represents a song in B-D. Bird 1 to 6 belong to T7d and bird 7 to 12 belongs to T14d.

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Supplementary Fig. 3. Song parameters quantified during the first seven days after testosterone implantation of female canaries. A, Daily singing activity as measured by the percentage of time spent singing within nine hours per day; **B**, song length in seconds (s); **C**, syllable repetition rate in syllables per second (sys/s); **D**, number of syllables in a song. Each gray dot represents the value per day of a bird in the T7d and T14d groups from day 1 to day 7 after testosterone implantation. The black dots indicate the predicted estimates of the linear mixed-effects models, and the vertical orange bars indicate the 95% credibility intervals (CrI) of the predicted estimates. There are no statistical differences between birds in these two groups, as can be seen from the overlapping 95% CRIs. See also Supplemental Table 2 and supplemental Table 3 for the linear mixed-effect model estimates and posterior probability.

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Supplementary Fig. 4. Physiological measurements of testosterone-implanted female canaries.

A, no significant differences between control and testosterone-implanted groups in body weight

(Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, $\chi^2 = 7.66$, df = 6, P-value = 0.26). **B**, no significant differences between

control and testosterone-implanted groups in brain weight (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, $\chi^2 = 17.99$,

df = 6, P-value = 0.0063. Dunn's post hoc test, P-value adjusted by Holm' method detected no

significantly different pairs). **C**, no significant differences between control and testosterone-implanted

groups in oviduct weight (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, $\chi^2 = 10.07$, df = 6, P-value = 0.12). **D**,

normalized HVC volume (against brain weight) of T14d were significantly different from that of

control (CON), T1h, and T8h groups (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, $\chi^2 = 17.86$, df = 6, P-value =

0.0065; Holm-adjusted P-value: CON vs. T14d 0.049; T1h vs. T14d 0.0056; T8h vs. T14d 0.016). The

boxes indicate the 25th/50th/75th percentiles (bottom/middle/top bar), and the extent of the whiskers

indicates the most extreme values that are within 1.5 times of the inter-quartile range (IQR) of the

hinge. Outliers are labeled in red. *: Holm-adjusted P-value <0.05 (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test

followed by Dunn's post hoc test using the "Holm" method).

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Supplementary Fig. 5. The unsupervised clustering method WGCNA classified differentially expressed genes into coexpression modules and grouped similar modules into 14 modules. A, WGCNA calculated the gene significance (GS) between the expression level of each gene and physiological traits (plasma androgen level (T), body weight, brain weight, oviduct weight, and HVC volume) and song measurements (song rate, song length, syllables per song, syllable repetition rate, syllable slope, syllable length, syllable interval, maximum frequency, entropy) by calculating the Pearson correlation matrix. Genes with positive gene significance are shown in red, while genes with negative are shown in blue. Iqr: inter-quartile range. Modules ranked by **B**, overall **C**, differential, **D**, intramodular, and **E**, intermodular connectivity. A module with high differential connectivity indicates that genes are more densely connected within the module than with the genes from other modules.

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Supplementary Fig. 6. Proteins that might interact with transcription factor SP8 to regulate gene
expression in the HVC. Orange circles: transcription factors (TF); green: kinases; blue: actins. The
widths of the connections represent the confidence levels (with a minimum of 0.4) given by the
STRING database.

Supplementary Tables and Legends.

Supplementary Table 1. Summary table for measured song parameters (mean ± SD).

Supplementary Table 2. Estimates of fixed and random effects of linear mixed effect models. We present fixed (β) and random (σ2) parameters with their 95% credible intervals (CrI). A statistically meaningful effect of a fixed factor can be assumed if zero is not included within the 95% CrI, and was labeled with *.

Supplementary Table 3. The posterior probability of a mean difference between compared factors of linear mixed effect models. Comparisons with statistically meaningful differences, defined by posterior probability > 0.95, were indicated with *.

Supplementary Table 4. List of constantly regulated genes.

Supplementary Table 5. Over-representation of AREs and EREs in the promoter sequences of testosterone up-regulated genes. Reported values are Z-scores of over-representation against the matching numbers of randomly sampled promoter sequences as the user-defined background.

Supplementary Table 6. MatInspector identified AREs and EREs in the promoter sequences of T1h up-regulated transcription factors.

Supplementary Table 7. GO-term enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes of each time point.

Supplementary Table 8. Enrichment analysis of search terms using Fisher's exact test. P-values were corrected using the "FDR" method.

Supplementary Table 9. Expression levels of genes associated with particular cell types.

Supplementary Table 10. Connectivity and gene significance of genes assigned to the "turquoise" module by WGCNA. Overall connectivity (kTotal); Intramodular connectivity (kWithin); Intermodular connectivity (kOut); Differential connectivity (kDiff). GS: gene significance.

Supplementary Table 11. Enrichment analysis of search terms of each WGCNA module. P-values were corrected using the "FDR" method.

1456 **Supplementary Table 12. List of genes (625) contains SP8 binding sites in proximal promoter**

1457 **sequences.**

1458 **Supplementary Table 13. List of genes (169) contains SP8 and GATA binding sites in proximal**

1459 **promoter sequences.**