Brain-synthesized estrogens regulate cortical migration

in a sexually divergent manner

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17 Abstract

18 Estrogens play an important role in the sexual dimorphisms that occur during brain 19 development, including the neural circuitry that underlies sex-typical and socio-aggressive 20 behaviors. Aromatase, the enzyme responsible for the conversion of androgens to 21 estrogens, is expressed at high levels during early development in both male and female 22 cortices, suggesting a role for brain-synthesized estrogens during corticogenesis. This study 23 investigated how the local synthesis of estrogens affects neurodevelopment of the cerebral 24 cortex, and how this differs in males and females by knockdown expression of the Cyp19a1 25 gene, which encodes aromatase, between embryonic day 14.5 and postnatal day 0 (P0). 26 The effects of Cyp19a1 knockdown on neural migration was then assessed. Aromatase was 27 expressed in the developing cortex of both sexes, but at significantly higher levels in male 28 than female mice. Under basal conditions, no obvious differences in cortical migration 29 between male and female mice were observed. However, knockdown of Cyp19a1 30 increased the number GFP-positive cells in the cortical plate, with a concurrent decrease in 31 the subventricular zone/ventricular zone in P0 male mice. The opposite effect was observed 32 in females, with a significantly reduced number of GFP-positive cells migrating to the 33 cortical plate. These findings have important implications for our understanding of the role of 34 fetal steroids for neuronal migration during cerebral cortex development. Moreover, these 35 data indicate that brain-synthesized estrogens regulate radial migration through distinct mechanisms in males and females. 36

38 Introduction

39 The unique organization and architecture of the cerebral cortex is established during 40 embryonic development. This organization is achieved in an "in-side-out" fashion, with 41 inner, or deep layers forming first, and outer, or superficial layers developing last 42 (Evsyukova et al., 2013). The development of the cortex and its laminar organization is 43 controlled in large part by the coordinated processes of neurogenesis and cell migration. 44 The process of radial neuronal migration is a multi-step process (Evsyukova et al., 2013). 45 Initially, newly born neurons, generated from neural stem cells, detach from the apical 46 surface of the germinal ventricular zone (VZ). These neurons adopt a multi-polar 47 morphology and move into the intermediate zone (IZ) (Noctor et al., 2004). Here, neurons 48 develop a bi-polar shape, and migrate along radial glia to their final position in the cortical 49 plate (CP) (Kawauchi, 2015). Once in this position, neurons can begin to form synaptic 50 connections, and thus contribute to circuit formation (Evsyukova et al., 2013).

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52 Several areas of the brain undergo sexually dimorphic development. During 53 adolescent development, the brain undergoes differential development trajectories that lead 54 to sexual dimorphism in total cerebral volume and different local grey matter nuclei volumes 55 (Kaczkurkin et al., 2019). Notably, female total cerebral volume peaks earlier in 56 adolescence than males (Lenroot et al., 2007). In addition, analysis of neural circuitry and 57 behavior reveals that different systems and regions within the brain are engaged in a sex-58 dependent manner and specific nuclei within the brain are thought to be responsible for sex-59 specific behaviors (Gillies & McArthur, 2010; Choleris et al., 2018). The hippocampus and 60 basolateral nucleus of the amygdala are necessary for sex-dependent learning (Bangasser 61 & Shors, 2007; Waddell et al., 2008). However, other regions of the brain also display

62 sexually dimorphic neural circuitry, including the bed nucleus of the stria terminalis 63 (thalamus) and the medial prefrontal cortex (frontal lobe) (Bangasser & Shors, 2007; Maeng 64 et al., 2010). Structural differences at a macroscopic level are witnessed. For example, 65 sexual dimorphism has been recorded in the preoptic area (hypothalamus), uncinate 66 nucleus (hypothalamus), olfactory bulb (rostral frontal lobe), anterior commissure (white 67 matter tract connecting hemispheres), interthalamic adhesion (thalamus), and mammillary 68 body (diencephalon) (Allen & Gorski, 1991; Garcia-Falgueras & Swaab, 2008; Savic et al., 2010; Oliveira-Pinto et al., 2014). 69

70 Estrogens, in particular 17β-estradiol (estradiol), are integral in establishing sexual 71 dimorphisms during brain development, including the neural circuitry that underlies sex-72 typical and socio-aggressive behaviors (Gillies & McArthur, 2010; McCarthy et al., 2018). 73 Sex-hormones, especially estrogens such as estradiol, have consistently shown cognitiveenhancing properties and morphological regulatory responsibilities (Gillies & McArthur, 74 75 2010; Sellers et al., 2015a; Choleris et al., 2018). By modulating spinogenesis, 76 synaptogenesis, and synaptic connectivity, estrogen enacts rapid changes to the neural 77 circuitry (Saldanha et al., 2011; Srivastava et al., 2013; Sellers et al., 2015a; Sellers et al., 78 2015b). Steroid-dependent plasticity and circulating steroid hormones impact neuronal 79 volume and numbers (Balthazart & Ball, 2006; Saldanha et al., 2011; Srivastava et al., 80 2013). Interestingly, estrogens also stimulate the proliferation and differentiation of neural 81 progenitors and neuronal populations (Brannvall et al., 2002; Okada et al., 2010; Denley et 82 al., 2018). Furthermore, estradiol has recently been shown to regulate neurite outgrowth in 83 immature cortical neurons derived from human induced pluripotent stem cells (Shum et al., 84 2015). Importantly, estrogen receptor-beta (ERB) knockout animals have been reported to 85 display abnormal neuronal migration in the neocortex (Wang et al., 2003). However,

86 whether the regulation of migration via ERβ is due to systemic or brain-synthesised 87 estradiol is unclear. Similarly, whether estradiol influences neuronal migration in male and 88 females is not known. Nevertheless, these lines of evidence indicate that estrogens play a 89 role in during the development of the cortex.

90 Aromatase, the enzyme responsible for the conversion of androgens and cholesterol 91 estrogens, is expressed across species and is highly expressed during early to 92 development in both male and female cortices, suggesting a role for brain-synthesized 93 estrogens during corticogenesis. Aromatase is believed to be the source of de novo 94 estradiol synthesis in areas such as the hippocampus and cortex (MacLusky et al., 1994; 95 Saldanha et al., 2011; Srivastava et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2019). We previously demonstrated 96 that factors involved in estrogenic signalling, including aromatase, are present during the development of the human cortex (Denley et al., 2018). In addition, aromatase-mediated 97 98 estradiol signalling is required in fear-learning regulated by the basolateral amygdala and 99 leads to sexually dimorphic plastic responses (Bender et al., 2017). In the developing 100 mammalian brain, supporting cells such as astrocytes and radial glial cells also express 101 aromatase (Martinez-Cerdeno et al., 2006; Yague et al., 2006; Yague et al., 2008). Studies 102 in zebrafish demonstrated that radial glial cells expressing aromatase divide into neurons 103 and that neural stem cells in the ventricular layer also express aromatase (Pellegrini et al., 104 2007). Taken together, these data provide strong evidence for a role for aromatase in 105 differentiation and neurogenesis.

106 The purpose of this study was to investigate how the local synthesis of estrogens 107 affects neurodevelopment of the cerebral cortex, and specifically the somatosensory cortex, 108 and how this differs in males and females. Using an shRNA-approach, we knocked-down 109 the *Cyp19a1* gene, which encodes aromatase, from an early developmental stage and

110 assessed the loss of aromatase, and thus the ability to locally synthesise estrogens had on 111 neural migration. Analysis of neural migration revealed a sex specific effect of aromatase 112 loss on neural migration. Taken together, these data contribute to the current evidence that 113 brain-synthesised estrogens play a role in the development of the cortex, and moreover, 114 add to the growing appreciation of sexually dimorphic niches in the brain.

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116 Materials and Methods

117 Plasmid construction and shRNA validation

118 Four shRNAs against Mus musculus Cyp19a1 and one control scrambled shRNA 119 were obtained from Origene (Rockville; Cat No. TG509276). These plasmids express both 120 shRNA under the control of the U6 promoter and turboGFP under the control of a CMV 121 promoter. A myc-DDK-tagged aromatase construct (pCMV6-myc-DDK-aromatase) was 122 purchased from Origene (Rockville; Cat. No. MR224509); the pCAG-eGFP has previously 123 been described (Srivastava et al., 2012b). The effectiveness of each shRNA was validated 124 by testing the ability of each construct to knockdown myc-aromatase expression in 125 hEK293T cells. Briefly, hEK293 cells were grown to 40% confluency before transfection of 126 with without shRNA constructs Lipofectamine mvc-aromatase or usina 2000 127 (Lifetechnologies, UK). Transfections were allowed to proceed for 48 hours, after which cells were lysed and prepared for western blotting as previously described (Srivastava et 128 129 *al.*, 2012a).

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131 In utero electroporation

132 In utero electroporation targeting the somatosensory cortex was preformed according 133 to previously published protocol (Niwa et al., 2010; Saito et al., 2016). All experiments were 134 performed in accordance with the institutional guidelines for animal experiments. Embryos 135 were electroporated at E14.5. Pregnant CD1 mice (obtained from Charles River) were 136 anesthetized by intraperitoneal administration of a mixed solution of Ketamine HCI (100 137 mg/kg), Xylazine HCI (7.5 mg/kg), and Buprenorphine HCI (0.05 mg/kg). The uterine sacs 138 were exposed by laparotomy. In each pregnant animal, aromatase-shRNA, scramble-139 shRNA (1 $\mu g/\mu l$) or eGFP (0.5 μg) were injected into the left ventricle of the embryo with a 140 glass micropipette made from a microcapillary tube (GD-1; Narishige). Control embryos 141 were injected eGFP (1.0 μ g/ μ l) into the right ventricle in the same manner. The head of the 142 embryo was held between the electrodes (Nepagene) placed over the posterior forebrain 143 with the positive electrode positioned above sight of injection. Electrode pulses (33V; 50 144 ms) were charged four times at intervals of 950 ms with an electroporator (CUY21EDIT; 145 Nepagene). After electroporation the uterine horn was replaced in the abdominal cavity to 146 allow the embryos to continue to develop. A total of 6-15 embryos were electroporated in 147 each of the 5 pregnant animals. Brains were extracted from P0 pups and assessed for GFP 148 expression in correct location prior to fixation. Brains were fixed by overnight immersion in 149 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 Μ phosphate buffer saline (PBS), and then 150 cryoprotected/stored at 4°C in 30% sucrose in PBS.

151

152 Genotyping

Genomic DNA extracted from tail biopsies of postnatal day 0 mice (0.5 cm of tail removed from mice under anaesthesia) was analyzed using polymerase chain reaction. The tissue was digested overnight at 55°C in lysis buffer containing 100 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.5, 5

156 mM EDTA, 0.2% SDS, 200 mM NaCl, and 0.1 mg/ml proteinase K (Roche, Basel, 157 Switzerland). Undigested material was removed by centrifugation. The pellet was re-158 suspended in nuclease-free water and the absorbance was measured using a NanoDrop ND1000 spectrophotometer (Nanodrop Technologies, Wilmington, DE, USA). 159 Sex 160 genotyping was performed using primers for Sry sex determining region of the Y-161 chromosome. Primers as follows: forward SRY Forward: TTG TCT AGA GAG CAT GGA 162 GGG CCA TGT CAA, and reverse SRY Reverse: CCA CTC CTC TGT GAC ACT TTA GCC CTC CGA. These identify a 273 base pair PCR product. The PCR reagents as follows: 2.5 163 164 µI 10× PCR buffer (Amersham Pharmacia Biotech); 0.2 mM dNTP mix; 0.25 µM forward 165 and reverse primer set 1; 1 µM forward and reverse primer set 2; 0.625 U Taq DNA 166 polymerase; and 2 µl DNA template (or 2 µl sterile PCR-grade H₂O for PCR control 167 sample); the volume was made up to 25 µl using sterile PCR-grade H₂O. PCR was 168 performed using a Peltier Thermal Cycler (PTC-200, MJ Research Inc., Watertown, MA) 169 The resulting amplicons were resolved on 1.5% agarose gels and visualized using ethidium 170 bromide staining with a GelDoc transilluminator (BioRad).

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172 Immunohistochemistry (IHC)

Brains were mounted in OCT embedding media (Bright) and cut into 14 µm sections across the coronal plane using a cryostat (Leica CM 1860 UV, Ag Protect) and collected on SuperFrost Plus microscope slides (Thermo Scientific). Immunohistochemistry (IHC) was carried out as previously described (Jones *et al.*, 2019). In brief, sections were simultaneously permeabilised and blocked in 0.1% Triton-X with 2% normal goat serum in PBS for 1 h at room temperature, in a humidified chamber. They were then incubated overnight at 4°C in a humidified chamber with primary antibodies against chicken GFP (1:1000; Abcam #ab13970) and rabbit aromatase (1:100 Abcam #ab18995). Sections were
then counterstained the appropriate secondary antibodies and counter stained with DAPI
(ThermoFischer D1306). Images were captured and analyzed as described below.

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184 Image acquisition and data analysis

185 Confocal images of IHC stained P0 sections was carried out using a Nikon Spinning 186 Disk confocal equipped with either a 20X or 40X objective. Image z-stacks were acquired at 187 z-intervals optimised for the specific objective. Images to be used for subsequent intensity-188 based analysis were acquired using identical acquisition parameters. For migration 189 analysis, cortical sub-sections were identified by DAPI staining and regions of interest 190 (ROIs) were identified in the 488 nm channel using the epifluorescence microscope. The 191 effect of knockdown of aromatase on migration was analyzed by quantitative bin analysis 192 according to previously published methods (Kubo et al., 2010). In brief, the cortex was 193 divided into ten equal sections (bins) and percentage of GFP⁺ cells within each bin was 194 determined. For each condition, a minimum of three images were collected over at least six 195 section.

196 Analysis of aromatase expression was carried out on sections immunostained for 197 aromatase and DAPI (endogenous aromatase expression) or immunostained for GFP, 198 aromatase and DAPI (assessment of aromatase knockdown). ROIs were determined either 199 as described above or limited to GFP⁺ cells. Images were background subtracted, and the 200 mean intensity of aromatase staining determined for five intendent ROIs per image; three 201 ROIs of background staining were also measured for each section. The mean intensity for 202 each section was normalised to background staining (average of 3x background ROIs + 2x 203 StDev). Between 3-4 sections per brain; 3 brains per condition was used for these analyses.

204

205 **Results**

206 Sex differences in aromatase expression but not in migration during cortex 207 development

208 During human embryonic neocortical development, aromatase expression is 209 transient but typically peaks during the last trimester and early postnatal period and then 210 drops dramatically following embryonic maturity (Montelli et al., 2012; Denley et al., 2018). 211 Similarly, estradiol has been measured in pre- and post-natal cortex of male and female rats 212 (Konkle & McCarthy, 2011). Consistent with these findings, we found that aromatase was 213 expressed in the developing cortex of mice (Figure 1A). In order to establish whether there 214 was a sex difference in the expression of aromatase in the developing cortex, we examined 215 expression of this enzyme in male and female P0 mice. Sex was established by the 216 assessment of sex-determining region Y (sry) gene expression (Figure 1B). IHC analysis 217 revealed aromatase positive cells in the SVZ/VZ, IZ and CP of male and female P0 mice 218 (Figure 1C). Aromatase could be observed in the cell body (red arrows) as well as in 219 dendrite-like processes (yellow arrow heads) of cells within the CP in both male and female 220 P0 mice (Figure 1D). In line with previous studies (Montelli et al., 2012), quantification of 221 aromatase expression revealed that aromatase expression was higher in the developing 222 cortex of male compared to female P0 mice (Figure 1E). Taken together, these data 223 indicate that aromatase is expressed in the developing cortex of male and female mice, 224 suggesting a potential role for brain-synthesised estrogens during this developmental time 225 point.

As our data indicated that aromatase is more highly expressed in males compared to females, we reasoned that this may be reflected in a difference in neuronal migration 228 between sex. Therefore, to analyze the effect of sex on neuronal migration, we in utero 229 electroporated embryos at E14.5 with a GFP expressing plasmid (pCAG-eGFP), and 230 quantified the positions of GFP-positive (GFP+) cells in P0 brains as previously described 231 (Kubo et al., 2010). Sex were again determined by assessing expression of sry. Analysis of 232 neuronal migration revealed that the differential expression of aromatase did not confer a 233 difference in the migration of GFP+ cells in either sex under these control conditions 234 (Figure 2A). This observation is confirmed by the relatively parity of GFP+ cells throughout 235 the developing P0 cortex (Figure 2B). These data indicate that there are no differences in 236 neuronal migration between male and female mice at P0.

237

238 Validation of aromatase knockdown

239 Although our data indicates that there is no difference in neuronal migration between 240 male and females under control conditions, previous studies using ER^β knockout animals 241 have suggested a role for estradiol in cortical development (Wang et al., 2003). 242 Furthermore, estradiol has been shown to regulate proliferation and differentiation of neural 243 progenitor cells (Denley et al., 2018). Therefore, we were interested in understanding 244 whether brain-synthesised estrogens may contribute to neuronal migration in either male or 245 female mice. In order to do this, we employed a short hairpin RNA interference (shRNA) 246 approach to selectively knockdown expression of Cyp19a1, the gene encoding aromatase. 247 The efficiency of four individual shRNA to knockdown aromatase was first established in 248 hEK203 cells. Myc-tagged aromatase was exogenous expressed in hEK293 cells in the 249 presence of shRNA for aromatase or a control (scramble) shRNA (Figure 3A). Of the four 250 shRNA tested shRNA_c (herein referred to as shRNA_arom) reduced myc-aromatase 251 expression by ~60% (Figure 3A and B) and was used in subsequent experiments.

252 Next, we assessed whether expression of shRNA arom in the developing cortex by 253 in utero electroporation resulted in a significant knockdown of aromatase in males and 254 females. Embryos were electroporated with shRNA_arom expression construct or control shRNA (shRNA_scram) at E14.5 (Figure 3 C and D). Corrected integrated intensity 255 256 measurements from confocal images taken of the P0 mouse cortex confirmed that 257 shRNA arom effectively reduced aromatase expression by approximately 50% compared to 258 control condition in both sexes (Figure 3C-E). These data confirm the efficacy of aromatase 259 knockdown by shRNA in vivo.

260

261 Aromatase knockdown affects cortical migration divergently in male and females

262 To determine whether brain-synthesised estrogens play a role in the migration of neocortical cells, we assessed distribution of GFP+ cells in control and aromatase 263 264 knockdown conditions (Figure 4). In P0 male mice, knockdown of aromatase resulted in an 265 increase of GFP+ cells within the upper most portion of the CP with a concurrent reduction 266 of GFP+ cells within the SVZ/VZ (Figure 4 A and B). Conversely, the opposite distribution 267 was observed in the shRNA arom condition in females; a decreased number of GFP+ was 268 observed in the CP, where as an increase was detected in the SVZ/VZ (Figure 4C and D). 269 Taken together, these data indicate that that knockdown of aromatase may accelerate 270 radial neuronal migration in male, whereas migration is impaired in the female developing 271 cortex.

272

273 Discussion

274 Aromatase is expressed in specific brain regions, where it controls the bioavailability 275 of brain-synthesized estradiol within female and male brains (Saldanha et al., 2011; 276 Srivastava et al., 2013; Lu et al., 2019). Moreover, estradiol is present at significant levels in 277 the brain of both sexes, including the developing cortex (MacLusky et al., 1986; MacLusky 278 et al., 1994; Konkle & McCarthy, 2011). However, the functions of brain-synthesized 279 estradiol during early corticogenesis development are unclear (Denley et al., 2018). Here, 280 we demonstrated that aromatase is widely expressed within the developing cortex of 281 perinatal female and male mice. Aromatase expression was higher in males compared with 282 females across the different laminae of the developing cortex. Interestingly, there were no 283 differences in the pattern of migration in female and male cortices at P0. We used a 284 knockdown approach to suppress endogenous Cyp19a1 and thus aromatase expression in 285 a subset of cortical progenitor cells destined to migrate to layer 2/3. Knockdown of 286 aromatase had opposing effects on the migration of cortical progenitor cells in female and 287 male developing brains. Specifically, loss of aromatase resulted in an increase of GFP+ 288 cells in the CP with a concurrent decrease in the SVZ/VZ, indicating a potential increase in 289 radial migration. Conversely, knockdown of aromatase in female mice resulted in a significantly decreased number of GFP+ cells in the upper layers of the developing cortex 290 291 and an accumulation of cells within the SVZ/VZ, indicating a potential decrease in neuronal 292 migration. Taken together, our data indicate that whilst there is no obvious difference in 293 migration between male and females under control conditions, the influence of brain-294 synthesized estradiol on radial migration is sexually divergent and potentially involves the 295 regulation of distinct mechanism in either sex.

The data presented in this study are consistent with a purported role for brainsynthesized estradiol in the development of the mammalian forebrain. Previous studies

298 have demonstrated that high levels of aromatase are expressed in multiple regions of the 299 brain, including the cortex (Beyer et al., 1994; Yague et al., 2008; Cisternas et al., 2015). 300 Importantly, the current results are consistent with this, but they further highlight that that 301 there is greater expression of aromatase in the male developing cortex compared with 302 females at the protein level. Although previous work implicated ERB knockdown in the 303 development of the cortex (Wang et al., 2003), the current study provides evidence that 304 brain-synthesised estradiol regulates neuronal migration in the developing cortex of both 305 female and male mice. Whether systemic estradiol also impacts neuronal migration is 306 unclear from these studies and would need to be studied further in the future.

A striking finding of this study is that the effect of aromatase knockdown on neuronal 307 308 migration in the developing cortex is opposing in female and male mice. There are two 309 possible explanations for this observation. First, estradiol could be exerting multiple effects 310 on progenitor cells, such as controlling cell proliferation and/or apoptosis, as reported 311 previously in the hypothalamus (Denley et al., 2018; McCarthy et al., 2018). Second, 312 estradiol could be modulating the migration of newly born neurons in both sexes. No 313 differences in the number of GFP+ cells were found under different conditions and between 314 sex (data not shown), which indicates that the changes observed were dues to different 315 localization of the labelled cells rather than increases or decreases in the overall number of 316 cells. Thus, these effects are more likely an effect on the migration (or lack thereof) of newly 317 born neurons. The small GTPase Rap1 mediates the migration, polarity, and establishment 318 of neuronal morphology (Jossin & Cooper, 2011; Srivastava et al., 2012b). Since we 319 previously demonstrated that estradiol controls Rap1 activity in maturing cortical neurons 320 (Srivastava et al., 2008), it is possible that brain-synthesized estradiol mediates migration 321 via a Rap1-dependent mechanism. It is also important to note that although knockdown

approach using *in utero* electroporation allows us to examine the cell-autonomous effect of aromatase in the specific time critical for radial neuronal migration. However, we should be cautious in data interpretation, as off-target effect of shRNA may be confounded in the results. Thus, it is important to investigate the effect of aromatase(*Cyp19a1*)haploinsufficiency in mouse models to elucidate aromatase-mediated mechanisms underpinning developmental phenotypes such as neuronal migration in the future.

328 The development of the cortex is fundamental for normal brain function. Interestingly, 329 multiple animal models for autism spectrum disorders aimed at understanding the 330 contribution of genetic and/or environmental risk factors to the underlying pathophysiology 331 of this disorder have revealed that disruptions in early brain development is prevalent in 332 these models. In particular, abnormalities in the development, migration, and organization of 333 the developing cortex have been reported (Fenlon et al., 2015; Varghese et al., 2017). 334 Moreover, there is accumulating evidence that elevated levels of fetal steroids, especially 335 testosterone (Baron-Cohen et al., 2015; McCarthy & Wright, 2017), are linked with autism 336 spectrum disorders. Furthermore, rare mutations in the CYP191A gene have been reported 337 in autistic patients and reduced ER^β and aromatase expression has been measured in 338 autistic post-mortem tissue (Chakrabarti et al., 2009; Sarachana et al., 2011; Crider et al., 339 2014). These lines of evidence have led to suggestions that altered steroidogenic activity 340 and/or elevated levels of fetal testosterone could contribute to the pathophysiology of 341 autism. It should be noted that knocking down Cyp19a1 will both reduce estradiol levels and 342 likely increase the levels of testosterone and other androgens within the developing cortex 343 of these animals. Therefore, the current study may not only provide an insight into how 344 reduced brain-synthesised estradiol levels impact development of the cortex, but also the 345 impact of elevated levels of fetal testosterone on corticogenesisand therefore how 346 dysregulation of fetal steroids could contribute to the emergence of neurodevelopmental347 disorders such as autism spectrum disorders.

348 In conclusion, the current study revealed that aromatase is expressed in the 349 developing cortex of both female and male mice, and at higher levels in males than 350 females. Knockdown of aromatase in cortical progenitor cells destined to migrate to layer 351 2/3, had marked sex-specific effects. Future studies focusing on understanding the mechanism underlying these effects, including investigating the potential role of Rap1, and 352 353 also identifying the receptors that are responsible for the actions of the brain-synthesized 354 estrogens (i.e., do brain-synthesized estradiols function via the classical "genomic" mode of 355 action or do they act via a "membrane initiated" mode of action) are required. Together with 356 the current work, these studies will help reveal the potential role of fetal steroids in normal 357 development and how perturbations in this system may contribute to the emergence of 358 disease.

359

360 **Conflict of Interest**

The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or
 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

363

364 Author Contributions

K.J.S., A.S., A.K. and D.P.S. designed experiments. K.J.S. M.C.S.D., A.S. and D.P.S.
performed all experiments and subsequent analysis. D.P.S. oversaw the study; K.J.S.
M.C.S.D., and D.P.S. wrote the manuscript; all authors edited manuscript drafts.

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593	Figure 1. Aromatase is differentially expressed in the developing female and male
594	cortex. (A) Western blot of lysates taken from developing cortex demonstrating aromatase
595	expression at different stages of development. (B) Representative RT-PCR analysis for sry
596	gene used to determine sex of P0 animals used in subsequent analysis. (C) Representative
597	confocal image of aromatase staining in P0 cortex of female and male. Aromatase positive
598	cells can be observed in the SVZ/VZ, IZ and CP in both female and male developing cortex.

599 Yellow dotted boxes indicate high magnification images shown in D. (D) High magnification 600 images from C. Red arrows indicate aromatase positive immunoreactivity within cell body of 601 developing neurons in either female or male P0 cortex. Yellow arrow heads indicate aromatase expression within processes of developing neurons in P0 cortex of both sexes. 602 603 (E) Quantification of relative aromatase expression throughout P0 cortex of female and 604 male. This revealed that males have a significantly higher expression of aromatase at this 605 stage of development within the cortex. Conditions were compared by Student's t test; **P<0.001; n=13-15 sections from 8 pups/sex. Data are presented as Box and Whisker 606 plots with error bars showing minimum and maximum data points; each data point 607 608 represents an individual section. Scale bars = $100 \mu m$ (C) and $20 \mu m$ (D).

609

610 Figure 2. Neuronal migration does not differ between female and male in the

611 **developing cortex. (A)** Representative confocal images of P0 cortex of female and males 612 demonstrating the distribution of GFP+ cells. **(B)** Quantification of GFP+ cells throughout 613 the developing cortex. This revealed that there was a similar distribution of GFP+ positive 614 cells the P0 cortex of female and male mice. Scale bar = 50 μ m.

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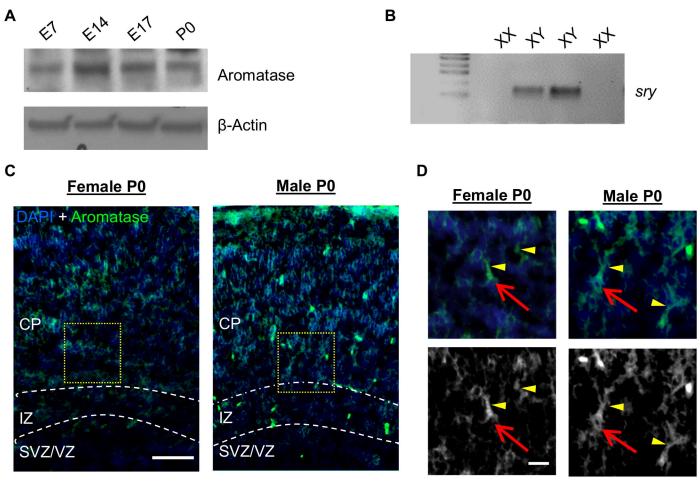
Figure 3. Optimization of *Cyp19a1* knockdown *in vivo*. (A) Western blot of cell lysates taken from hEK293 cells expressing myc-aromatase in the presence or absence of shRNA against *Cyp19a1* (shRNAa-d) or a control construct (shRNA_scram). (B) Quantification of myc-aromatase expression reveals that shRNA_c (aka shRNA_arom) produced ~60% knockdown of exogenous aromatase. Conditions were compared by one-way ANOVA; F(5,12)=7.077, p=0.003, Tukey Post Hoc, *, p < 0.05; n = 3 independent cultures. Data are 622 presented as Box and Whisker plots with error bars showing minimum and maximum data 623 points; each data point represents an individual experiment. (C and D) Representative 624 confocal images of female (C) or male (D) P0 cortex in utero electroporated at E14.5 with either control (shRNA_scram) or shRNA_arom and co-stained for aromatase and GFP. 625 GFP was used to identify cells expressing control or Cyp19a1 shRNA. (E) Quantification of 626 627 aromatae expression in GFP+ cells in control or shRNA arom conditions in female or male 628 P0 cortex. This revealed that shRNA-arom reduced endogenous aromatase expression by 629 ~ 50% in both sexes. Data are represented as a percentage of control condition. Conditions 630 were compared by two-way ANOVA; F(1,18)=95.59, p<0.0001, Bonferroni Post Hoc, ***, p 631 < 0.001; n=8-12 sections from 4-6 pups/sex. Each data point represents an individual 632 section. Scale bars = $20 \,\mu m$.

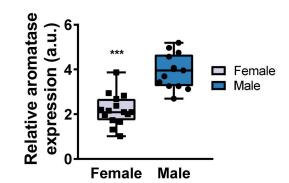
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634 Figure 4. Loss of aromatase in developing cortex has divergent effects on neuronal 635 migration in female and male cortex. (A) Representative confocal images of female P0 636 cortex in utero electroporated at E14.5 with either control (shRNA scram) or shRNA arom 637 and stained for GFP. (B) Quantification of GFP+ cells distribution throughout the developing female cortex. In conditions where Cyp19a1 had been knockdown (shRNA arom), a 638 significant more GFP+ cells were observed in the lowest bin, equating to the SVZ/VZ of the 639 640 P0 cortex. Concurrently, a decrease in the number of GFP+ cells was measured in the 641 upper most bins, equating to the upper portion of the CP. Conditions were compared by 642 two-way ANOVA; F(9,140)=5.873, p<0.0001, Bonferroni Post Hoc, **, p<0.01, ***, p < 643 0.001; n=10-12 sections from 6-8 pups/condition/sex. (C) Representative confocal images 644 of male P0 cortex in utero electroporated at E14.5 with either control (shRNA_scram) or 645 shRNA arom and stained for GFP. (D) Quantification of GFP+ cells distribution throughout

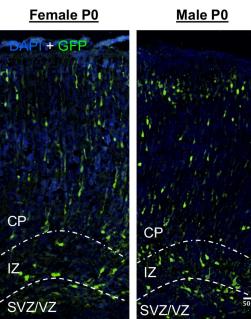
646	the developing male cortex. Loss of aromatase induced by Cyp19a1 knockdown
647	(shRNA_arom) resulted in a significant increase of GFP+ cells in the upper portion of the
648	CP. Congruent with this, a decrease in GFP+ cells was observed in the SVZ/VZ of the P0
649	male cortex. Conditions were compared by two-way ANOVA; F(9,160)=10.08, p<0.0001,
650	Bonferroni Post Hoc, *, p<0.05, ***, p < 0.001; n=7-11 sections from 5-7 pups/condition/sex.

651 Scale bars = 50 μ m.

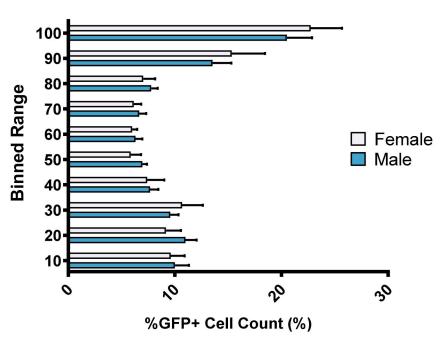




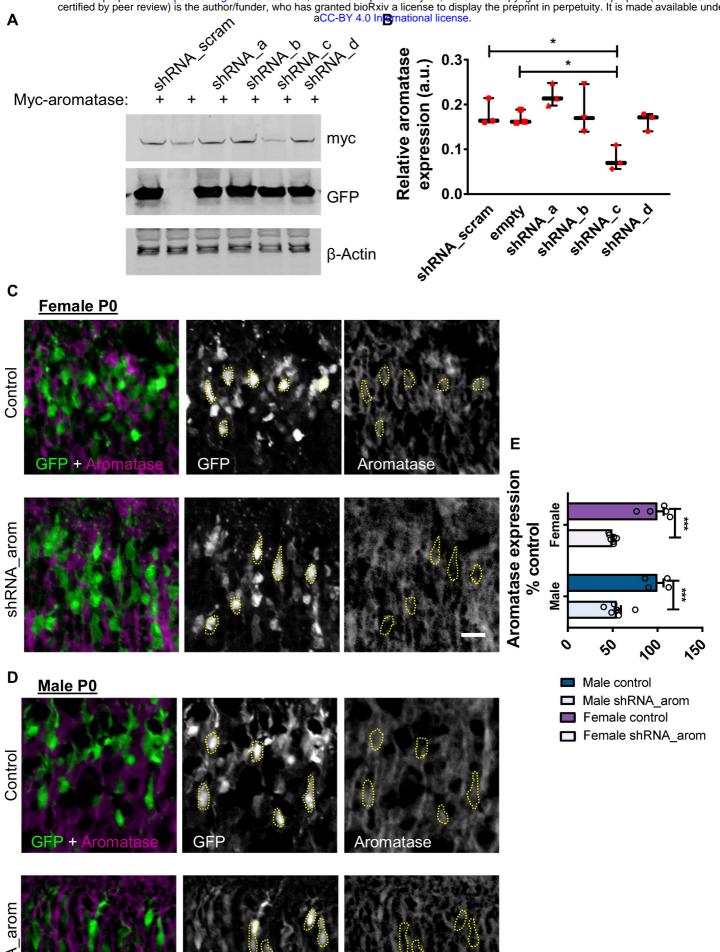




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