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1	Female HPA axis displays heightened sensitivity to pre-pubertal stress
2	Running title: Pre-pubertal stress and adult HPA axis
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22 Abstract

Early life stress (ELS) is a risk factor in the development of psychiatric disorders. The underlying 23 24 biological mechanisms governing this phenomenon are not fully understood, but dysregulation of 25 stress responses is likely to play a key role. Males and females differ in their propensity to develop 26 psychiatric disorders, with far higher rates of anxiety, major depressive disorder, affective disorders 27 and post-traumatic stress disorder found in women. We hypothesised that sex differences in response 28 to ELS may play a crucial role in differential vulnerability between the sexes. To test this, we evaluated 29 the consequences of pre-pubertal stress (PPS) on the HPA axis in adult female and male Lister Hooded 30 rats. PPS animals were exposed to swim, restraint and elevated platform stress on postnatal days 25-31 27, controls remained in their home cage. Once adult, animals were either a) sacrificed directly and 32 brains collected or b) sacrificed 20 minutes or 1 week after a social test and trunk blood collected. In 33 the female hippocampal formation, PPS increased expression of FKBP5 and AVPR1a. In the female prefrontal cortex, PPS resulted in increased glucocorticoid receptor expression, increased 34 35 glucocorticoid:mineralocorticoid (GR:MR) receptor expression ratio and decreased AVPR1a 36 expression. Females exposed to PPS did not show the normal rise in blood corticosterone levels 37 following a social interaction test. In contrast, PPS did not alter the expression of oxytocin or oxytocin 38 receptors, and no effects of PPS were seen in males. However, striking sex differences were found. 39 Females had higher oxytocin receptor expression in the prefrontal cortex and AVPR1a and oxytocin 40 expression in the hypothalamus, whereas males demonstrated higher expression of GR, MR, GR:MR, 41 *FKBP5* and oxytocin receptor in the hypothalamus. These results demonstrate heightened reactivity 42 of the female HPA axis to PPS and may help explain why in humans females display an increased 43 susceptibility to certain stress-related psychopathologies.

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47	Lay Summary
48	Women are at greater risk of developing several psychiatric illnesses. Using a rodent model, we show
49	that the female stress system is more reactive to the lasting effects of early life stress. This heightened
50	reactivity of the female stress response may help explain why women are at a greater risk of
51	developing psychiatric disorders.
52	Keywords: pre-pubertal stress, HPA axis, sex differences, GR, MR, FKBP5
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68 Introduction

69 Adverse experiences early in life are linked with an increased risk of developing psychiatric disorders 70 later in life(Heim & Nemeroff, 2001; Juruena, Baes, Menezes, & Graeff, 2015; Teicher & Samson, 2016; 71 Teicher, Samson, Anderson, & Ohashi, 2016). Dysregulation of the stress response is a potential 72 mechanism through which early life stress (ELS) increases vulnerability to illness. Prolonged or 73 excessive stress may lead to a maladaptive stress response, and when experienced early in life could 74 also alter brain development, increasing vulnerability to psychiatric disorders. Stress results in several 75 adaptive physiological and behavioural responses, a major mediator of this is the hypothalamic-76 pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis.

77 Both psychological and physical stressors result in the release of corticotrophin releasing 78 hormone (CRH) and arginine vasopressin (AVP) from the paraventricular nucleus (PVN) of the 79 hypothalamus. These neuropeptides act on the pituitary, stimulating the release of 80 adrenocorticotrophic hormone (ACTH) which in turn causes the release of glucocorticoid stress 81 hormones (corticosterone in rodents, cortisol in humans (CORT)) from the adrenal cortex(de Kloet, 82 Joels, & Holsboer, 2005). Glucocorticoids cross the blood brain barrier and bind to corticosteroid 83 receptors (CR: glucocorticoid (GR) and mineralocorticoid (MR) receptors) distributed throughout the 84 brain. Feedback mechanisms then ensure the response is terminated in a healthy system. In contrast to AVP, the closely related neuropeptide oxytocin (OXT) inhibits the activity of the HPA axis(Neumann 85 & Landgraf, 2019). HPA axis dysfunction is prevalent in psychiatric illness, for example HPA axis 86 87 hyperactivity is often found in major depression and bipolar disorder, and increased or decreased HPA 88 axis activity may be a direct consequence of ELS(Juruena, Cleare, & Young 2018; Murri et al., 2016; 89 Zorn et al., 2017).

Long-term effects of ELS on the HPA axis differ between the sexes. Early trauma is associated
with a more severely blunted cortisol response to social stress in women, and fewer stressful events
early in life are required to trigger liability to PTSD in women. Conversely, lower levels of recent stress

93 are capable of provoking major depression in men than women(Bunea, Szentagotai-Tatar, & Miu, 94 2017; McLaughlin, Conron, Koenen, & Gilman, 2010). Furthermore, women display 2-3 times higher 95 rates of anxiety, affective disorders, major depressive disorder and post-traumatic stress disorder 96 (PTSD)(Christiansen & Hansen, 2015; Kessler et al., 2003; Kessler, Chiu, Demler, Merikangas, & 97 Walters, 2005; Kessler, McGonagle, Swartz, Blazer, & Nelson, 1993; Remes, Brayne, van der Linde, & 98 Lafortune, 2016). These differences are not purely attributable to sex-specific life experiences; studies 99 controlling for stressful life events and sex-specific risk factors still find higher prevalence in 100 women(Tiwari & Gonzalez, 2018). Sex differences in HPA axis function may underlie this. Basal 101 secretion of CORT from the adrenal gland is higher in females than males, and this is attributed to sex-102 differences in gonadal hormones, with estrogen sensitising and testosterone dampening the HPA-103 axis(Heck & Handa, 2019; Seale et al., 2004).

104 Animal studies demonstrate that ELS has profound implications for later HPA axis function. 105 Prenatal and early post-natal stressors alter basal and stress-induced corticosterone release from the 106 adrenal glands, brain corticosteroid receptor (GR and MR) expression, as well as expression of AVP 107 and OXT in a timing and sometimes sex-specific manner(Llorente et al., 2011; Lupien, McEwen, 108 Gunnar, & Heim, 2009; Neumann & Landgraf, 2019; Schroeder, Notaras, Du, & Hill, 2018; Tobon, 109 Newport, & Nemeroff, 2018). However, despite well-established sex differences in the HPA axis, 110 comparatively few preclinical studies include male and female animals. Compared to the prenatal and 111 post-natal periods, less is known about the effects of stress experienced in the post-weaning, pre-112 pubertal phase (PPS), a time-point suggested as more akin to human childhood(Brydges, 2016). The 113 limbic system and prefrontal cortex are undergoing maturation during this period, areas which are 114 crucial for cognition and emotion and are extremely stress reactive due to high densities of CR, 115 particularly in the hippocampal formation (Herman, 1993).

116 The present study investigated the effects of PPS on long-term neurochemical and molecular 117 alterations in the adult HPA axis in male and female animals by measuring the brain regional 118 expression of CR (GR and MR), AVP, OXT and their receptors (AVP receptor 1a (AVPR1a) and oxytocin 119 receptor (OXTR)) and FKBP5. FKBP5 encodes the FK506 binding protein 51 co-chaperone protein of 120 the GR complex, and is extremely responsive to stress (Wochnik et al., 2005). When FKBP5 is bound to 121 the GR complex, CORT binds with lower affinity and nuclear translocation of the receptor is less 122 efficient, decreasing negative feedback regulation of the HPA axis(Wochnik et al., 2005). There is 123 evidence that genetic modifications in FKBP5 interact with childhood, but not adulthood stress to 124 increase risk for several psychiatric disorders (Matosin, Halldorsdottir, & Binder, 2018). We also 125 measured plasma corticosterone following a social test in adult rats as a behavioural measure of 126 altered HPA axis function. Altered social function is a core component of several adult psychiatric 127 illnesses and ELS has been shown to impact on social behaviour and functioning in both animal and 128 human studies(Nicol, Pope, Romaniuk, & Hall, 2015; Palmier-Claus et al., 2016; Sandi & Haller, 2015). 129 Furthermore, early life trauma is associated with blunted cortisol responses to social stress in humans, 130 particularly in women(Bunea et al., 2017). For this reason, we elected to focus on corticosterone 131 rather than other components of the HPA axis, such as ACTH. Further studies are need to determine 132 whether ACTH reflects the sex differences we observed in corticosterone.

We hypothesised that PPS would alter the expression of *GR*, *MR*, *GR:MR* ratio, *AVPR1a*, *AVP* and *OXT* in the rodent brain, and the direction of change would be region and receptor/neuropeptide specific. Given their higher vulnerability to stress-related psychiatric illnesses, we hypothesised dysregulation resulting from PPS would be more pronounced in females. We also hypothesised that corticosterone responses to social stress would be blunted in both males and females, but more exaggerated in females, as early life trauma is often associated with a more pronounced blunting of the corticosterone response in females(Bunea et al., 2017; McLaughlin et al., 2010).

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141 Methods

142 Animals. Male and female Lister Hooded rats were bred at Cardiff University from 16 adult pairs 143 (Charles River). Females were primiparous. Litters ranged between 11 and 18 animals, with an average 144 of 14.5, and an average sex-ratio of 6.2 males to 8.3 females. All litters were used and weaning from 145 the birth dams took place on postnatal day (PND) 21, and offspring were housed in groups of 2-4 in 146 same litter, same sex cages (32cm x 50cm x 21cm) lined with wood shavings. Light was maintained on 147 12:12 hour light/dark cycle, a wooden stick, nesting material and cardboard tube were provided for enrichment and food and water provided ad libitum. All experiments were approved by Cardiff 148 149 University's Animal Welfare and Ethical Review Body and adhered to the UK Home Office Animals 150 (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986 and European regulations on animal experimentation.

151 Pre-pubertal stress (PPS). Half of the offspring (8 litters) were pseudo-randomly allocated to a PPS 152 protocol(Jacobson-Pick & Richter-Levin, 2010) on PND 25-27 such that litters and sexes were equally 153 distributed between treatment groups (PPS/control, male/female). PPS took place in a designated 154 room separate to the holding room, with regular room lighting. On PND 25, animals were placed into 155 an opaque swim tank (25cm high, 34cm diameter) filled with 6L of 25±1°C water for a 10 minute swim 156 stress. On PND26 the rats were restrained in plastic restraint tubes (15cm length 5cm diameter) for 157 3x30 minute sessions (separated by 30 minute breaks in the home cage) and lastly on PND27 they 158 were exposed to elevated platforms (15x15cm, 115cm high) for 3x30 minute sessions (separated by 159 60 minute breaks in the home cage). Animals were observed by the experimenter during all stress 160 procedures, and males and females reacted in a similar manner to each stressor. Following PPS, 161 animals were left undisturbed until adulthood aside from weekly cage cleaning. Control animals were 162 left undisturbed from weaning until adulthood, aside from weekly cage cleaning.

RT-q*PCR*. Forty rats (male: 12 control, 10 PPS; female: 8 control, 10 PPS) were sacrificed at PND 60-70
 using a rising concentration of CO₂. Brains were removed, dissected and stored at -80°C until analysis.
 Total cell RNA was extracted from hippocampal formation, prefrontal cortex and hypothalamus using
 the Qiagen RNeasy Kit (Qiagen, Manchester, UK) and DNAse treated in accordance with the supplied

167 protocols. RNA was used to create cDNA for analysis using RNA to cDNA Easy Premix (Clontech 168 Laboratories, France), heated at 42°C for 75 minutes, followed by 80°C for 15 minutes. Sample was 169 then diluted 1:15 in nuclease-free water. 96-well plates were loaded, each well containing a total of 170 15µl reaction mixture (1.9µl sterile RNAase free water, 0.3µl 10µM forward primer, 0.3µl 10µM 171 reverse primer, 7.5µl SensiMix (Bioline) and 5µl cDNA). Gapdh and Hprt1 primers (Sigma) were used 172 as housekeeping controls and all results were normalised from these values. After loading, plates were 173 spun down at 3,000 rpm for approximately 10-20 seconds before being transferred to Real-Time PCR 174 instrument (Applied Biosystems®) and run for 45 cycles (95°C for 20s, 60°C for 20s, 72°C for 20s). The 175 expression of GR, MR, AVP, OXT, AVPR1a, OXTR and FKBP5 was measured (see Table 1 for primers).

176 Social test. Sixty-two animals (females: 22 control, 18 PPS; male: 12 control, 10 PPS) were given a social 177 test in same-sex pairs in adulthood (PND 60-67). Three hours before testing animals were single 178 housed in the holding room, and one hour before testing transferred to the testing room. All animals 179 were given an intraperitoneal injection of a vehicle (15%DMSO, 2% Tween 80 in 0.9% saline) 30 180 minutes before testing as part of a design to measure the effect of PPS on social behaviour directly, 181 an experiment which included a drug treated group. PPS had a significant effect on social interaction, 182 and this behavioural data is reported elsewhere (*Brydges et al. under review*). Animals were weighed on the day of testing and placed in weight-matched pairs (weight difference did not exceed 20g) into 183 184 a clear acrylic arena (65cmx65cmx40cm high) on the floor in the middle of a dimly lit room (45lux) for 15 minutes. Animal pairs were from the same group, control or PPS, but different litters so were 185 186 strangers to each other.

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188 *Corticosterone ELISA*. One animal from each pair was sacrificed 20 minutes after the social test to 189 investigate corticosterone responses to social interaction, the other sacrificed one week later for 190 baseline analysis. Animals were decapitated and trunk blood was collected using EDTA microvette 191 collection tubes (Sarstedt, Germany). Blood was spun at 1500 x g for 10 minutes, plasma was removed and stored at -20°C until analysis. Cortiscosterone was analysed by ELISA, according to the manufacturer's instructions (Abcam, UK, ab108821). The sensitivity of this ELISA is 0.28ng/ml and the intra-assay coefficient of variation is 5.3%. Samples were run in triplicate on several plates, counterbalancing between groups.

196

197 Data analysis

198 JMP statistical software (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA) was used to run generalised linear models. For 199 mRNA analysis, group (control/PPS), sex and group*sex were fitted as factors and mRNA expression 200 (normalised to GAPDH & Hprt1) as response. For corticosterone, group (control/PPS), time of sacrifice 201 (baseline vs 20 mins post social testing), sex and all two and three way interactions were fitted as 202 factors, corticosterone level as response. For all models, litter was nested within group and fitted as 203 a random factor to account for the use of multiple animals per litter. Data were checked for normality 204 and homogeneity of variance. Post-hoc t-tests were used when significant interactions were found. 205 The most relevant statistics are reported below, please see Table 2 for a full statistical summary.

206

207 <u>Results</u>

208 mRNA – Hippocampal formation. *FKBP5* (group*sex: F_{1,29.85}=4.33, p=0.04, Fig. 1a) and *AVPR1a* 209 (group*sex: F_{1,26.64}=4.47, p=0.04, Fig 1b) expression was significantly higher in the female hippocampal 210 formation following PPS, whereas *GR* (group: F_{1,7.63}=0.01, p=0.92), *MR* (group: F_{1,9.44}=0.86, p=0.38), 211 *GR:MR* (group: F_{1,8.06}=0.88, p=0.38), *AVP* (group: F_{1,10.93}=0.62, p=0.45), *OXT* (group: F_{1,9.56}=0.26, p=0.62) 212 and *OXTR* (group: F_{1,9.84}=0.02, p=0.9) were unchanged in males and females.

PFC. In the female PFC, PPS resulted in significantly higher *GR* expression (group*sex: $F_{1,24.94}=7.17$, p=0.01, Fig. 2a), a higher *GR:MR* ratio (group*sex: $F_{1,25.37}=4.97$, p=0.03, Fig. 2b) and reduced *AVPR1a* expression (group*sex: $F_{1,23.17}=6.94$, p=0.01, Fig. 2c) when compared to control females. *MR* (group: F_{1,8.81}=0.14, p=0.72), *AVP* (group: F_{1,9.77}=0.87, p=0.37), *OXT* (group: F_{1,10.34}=0.17, p=0.68), OXTR (group:
F_{1,10.39}=0.16, p=0.7) and *FKPB5* (group: F_{1,9.23}=1.43, p=0.26) were unchanged in male and female PFC
following PPS, but *OXTR* expression was higher in females than males (sex: F_{1,27.9}=28.65, p<0.0001, Fig.
2d).

220 Hypothalamus. In the hypothalamus, *GR* (sex: F_{1,30.7}=13.68, p<0.001), *MR* (sex: F_{1,25.52}=63.73, p<0.0001), GR:MR (sex: F_{1,28.33}=8.93, p<0.01), FKBP5 (sex: F_{1,26.23}=43.7, p<0.0001) and OXTR (sex: 221 222 F_{1,29.24}=118.81, p<0.0001) were lower in females than males regardless of treatment (Fig 3a-e), 223 whereas AVPR1a (sex: F_{1,25.55}=27.06, p<0.0001) and OXT (sex: F_{1,26.76}=42.06, p<0.0001, Fig. 3f-g) were higher in females. There was no effect of PPS on GR (group: F_{1,10.79}=0.08, p=0.78), MR (group: F_{1,9}=0.53, 224 225 p=0.49), GR:MR (group: F_{1,11.03}=0.15, p=0.71), AVP (group: F_{1,7.69}=0.86, p=0.38), AVPR1a (group: 226 F_{1,10.42}=0.04, p=0.84), OXT (group: F_{1,10.33}=0.4, p=0.54), OXTR (group: F_{1,10.84}=0.43, p=0.53) or FKBP5 227 (group: $F_{1,10.64}$ =0.63, p=0.44), expression. See Table 3 for summary of regional gene expression 228 changes.

229 *Corticosterone.* There was no effect of PPS on baseline expression of plasma corticosterone, but 20 230 minutes after a social interaction test PPS blunted the normal corticosterone rise in females 231 (group*sex*time of sacrifice: $F_{7,37.77}$ =3.53, p=0.0052, Fig. 4., Table 3).

232

233 Discussion

PPS altered the expression of receptors and neuropeptides involved in HPA axis function in the hippocampal formation and PFC, but not hypothalamus of adult females, whereas in males the expression of major HPA axis components were unaffected in all brain regions studied. In the female prefrontal cortex, PPS increased *GR* and *GR:MR* receptor ratio and reduced *AVPR1a* expression. In the female hippocampal formation, PPS increased expression of *FKBP5* and *AVPR1a*. In the periphery, females exposed to PPS did not show the normal rise in blood corticosterone levels following a social interaction test. We also found sex differences in baseline gene expression, particularly in thehypothalamus.

242 GR and MR are nuclear receptors/transcription factors which mediate the actions of 243 glucocorticoid stress hormones, playing a key role in the stress response and also regulation of brain 244 development and neuronal plasticity(Liston & Gan, 2011). These corticosteroid receptors (CR) act 245 through delayed, long-lasting transcription-dependent mechanisms, but also exert more rapid effects 246 which dampen the activated HPA axis in a negative feedback, transcription-independent 247 manner(Gjerstad, Lightman, & Spiga, 2018; Tasker & Herman, 2011). Distributed throughout the brain, 248 CR expression is highest in the limbic system (Herman, 1993). We found that PPS had no effect on GR 249 or MR expression in male or female hippocampal formation. In contrast, stressors applied at earlier 250 time points (e.g. prenatal stress and maternal separation) generally decrease hippocampal CR 251 expression in males and females (although precise effects can vary depending on nature of the stress) 252 (Aisa, Tordera, Lasheras, Del Rio, & Ramirez, 2008; Brunton & Russell, 2010; Kapoor, Dunn, Kostaki, Andrews, & Matthews, 2006; Levitt, Lindsay, Holmes, & Seckl, 1996; Maccari et al., 1995; Plotsky & 253 254 Meaney, 1993; van Bodegom, Homberg, & Henckens, 2017; Welberg, Seckl, & Holmes, 2001). 255 Stressors at later time points produce different effects, with chronic variable stress in adolescence 256 decreasing GR in the male hippocampus, and increasing/decreasing MR in male/female hippocampus 257 respectively(Isgor, Kabbaj, Akil, & Watson, 2004; Llorente et al., 2011). One study using mice found 258 that PPS increased MR and decreased GR:MR ratio in the hippocampus of adult male and female 259 animals(Brydges et al., 2014). Although PPS did not alter hippocampal CR expression directly in the 260 present study, we did find evidence of altered CR activity following PPS in females through increased 261 expression of FKBP5. FKBP5 is a co-chaperone of heat shock protein 90 (hsp90) which regulates GR 262 sensitivity. Activation of GR leads to increased expression of FKBP5, creating an ultrashort negative 263 feedback loop which inhibits GR signalling(Wochnik et al., 2005; Zannas, Wiechmann, Gassen, & 264 Binder, 2016). Therefore, increased FKBP5 likely indicates increased GR activity. Indeed, increased 265 expression of FKBP5 in the limbic system (hippocampus and amygdala) is associated with increased

stress responsiveness (anxiety) and decreased stress coping behaviours, whereas experimental
reduction of *FKBP5* has opposite effects(Touma et al., 2011; Zannas et al., 2016).

268 The brain undergoes significant development postnatally, and the PFC is one of the last brain 269 regions to mature, undergoing synaptic remodelling in childhood and adolescence(Barfield & Gourley, 270 2018). Therefore pre-pubertal and adolescent stress may be particularly detrimental for the PFC, yet little is known of the effects of early life stress (ELS) on CR expression in this region(Patel, Katz, Karssen, 271 272 & Lyons, 2008). In agreement with a previous study, we found that PPS did not impact GR or MR 273 expression in the male PFC(Fuentes, Carrasco, Armario, & Nadal, 2014). However, PPS did increase GR 274 and GR:MR ratio in the female PFC. Stress at an earlier timepoint, between PND 7-14, increased GR 275 expression in the PFC of female and male rats, again highlighting the importance of timing and 276 sex(Alteba, Korem, & Akirav, 2016). We found no evidence of altered FKBP5 in the PFC following PPS, 277 but prenatal stress and maternal separation in rats decreases FKBP5 expression in the male PFC with 278 no effects in the hippocampus, whereas chronic unpredictable stress in adolescence increases FKBP5 279 in the male hippocampus, PFC and amygdala(Szymanska et al., 2009; van der Doelen et al., 2014; Xu 280 et al., 2017; Xu et al., 2019). Overall our results suggest that PPS alters CR function in the adult 281 hippocampus and PFC, and this effect is specific to females.

282 PPS did not impact baseline corticosterone in males or females in agreement with the majority 283 of previous rodent research(Fuentes et al., 2014; Grigoryan, Ardi, Albrecht, Richter-Levin, & Segal, 284 2015; Jacobson-Pick & Richter-Levin, 2010). In humans, studies have found increased, decreased and 285 no change in basal cortisol following ELS(Agorastos, Pervanidou, Chrousos, & Baker, 2019; Lupien et 286 al., 2009). Differences are likely attributable to variation in the nature and timing of stress as well as 287 genetics, factors which are rarely considered in human studies. In the present study, exposure to social 288 interaction with a stranger resulted in elevated corticosterone in the plasma of control females and 289 all males, but this response was blunted in females with experience of PPS. Note that the increases in 290 corticosterone are not an acute response to systemic vehicle administration but are a result of the

291 social interaction, since all animals, both baseline and socially experienced rats, received vehicle 292 injections. Furthermore, the injection occurred sixty-five minutes before sacrifice, so any acute 293 corticosterone rise resulting from this would no longer be detectable. In contrast to the results 294 presented here, mild prenatal stress results in *heightened* corticosterone response to restraint stress 295 in adult females (Aisa et al., 2008). Interestingly, more prolonged prenatal stress is necessary to induce 296 the same effects in males(Gobinath, Mahmoud, & Galea, 2015). Maternal separation elevates or 297 blunts male and female corticosterone responses to restraint stress, depending on the 298 study(Desbonnet, Garrett, Daly, McDermott, & Dinan, 2008; Lehmann, Russig, Feldon, & Pryce, 2002; 299 Roman, Gustafsson, Berg, & Nylander, 2006), and chronic variable adolescent stress between PND 45-300 58/37-49 blunted corticosterone responses to a stressor in adult females but not males (Bourke & 301 Neigh, 2011; Wulsin, Wick-Carlson, Packard, Morano, & Herman, 2016). This again suggests that the 302 female HPA axis is more sensitive to ELS, although specific outcomes are mediated by exact timing of 303 stress and adult testing paradigm (e.g. social vs restraint). An adaptive stress response is characterised 304 by a rapid corticosterone or cortisol (CORT) increase, followed by a progressive decline. Excessive or 305 repeated activation of the HPA axis and release of CORT can lead to blunted CORT secretion in 306 response to acute stress(Kinlein, Wilson, & Karatsoreos, 2015). A healthy CORT response is necessary 307 for appropriate behaviour and survival, therefore a blunted CORT response to acute stress may be 308 considered a maladaptive phenotype.

309 PPS increased expression of AVPR1a in the female hippocampal formation and decreased it in 310 the PFC. No changes were observed in the hypothalamus. OXT and AVP are closely related 311 neuropeptides that exert opposite effects on the HPA axis. Stress results in the release of 312 hypothalamic AVP, which stimulates the release of adrenocorticotrophic hormone from the pituitary 313 and eventual production of CORT(de Kloet et al., 2005). In contrast, OXT dampens the HPA 314 axis(Neumann & Landgraf, 2019). Both AVP and OXT exert effects on behaviour through OXTR and 315 AVPR1a/AVPR1b situated in the brain(Song & Albers, 2018). Effects of prenatal stress on AVP/OXT 316 systems are mixed, with some studies finding decreased OXT/AVP expression in the male

317 hypothalamus, others no changes in males or females (Desbonnet et al., 2008; Lee, Brady, Shapiro, 318 Dorsa, & Koenig, 2007; Schmidt et al., 2018). Poor maternal care in rodents decreases OXT and OXTR 319 expression centrally (hypothalamus and amygdala) and peripherally (blood plasma) in female 320 animals(Francis, Young, Meaney, & Insel, 2002; Tobon, Jeffrey, & Nemeroff, 2018), whereas maternal 321 separation increases hypothalamic AVP and alters OXT expression and OXT/AVP receptor binding in 322 an age and sex-specific manner(Lukas, Bredewold, Neumann, & Veenema, 2010; Murgatroyd et al., 323 2009; Veenema, Bredewold, & Neumann, 2007; Veenema & Neumann, 2009). Our previous work 324 found PPS increased protein levels of AVP in the supraoptic (but not paraventricular) nucleus of the 325 hypothalamus and blood plasma in male and female rats (Brydges et al. in Review). In the present 326 study, the hypothalamus was analysed as a whole, it is possible differences may have been found if 327 the supraoptic and paraventricular nuclei had been analysed separately. Alternatively, PPS may alter 328 translation rather than transcription of AVP in this region. Considering their opposing effects on 329 behaviour (AVP exerts anxiogenic and depressive-like effects, whereas OXT is an endogenous 330 anxiolytic), the balance of AVP and OXT in the brain is thought crucial for appropriate emotional 331 behaviours(Mak, Broussard, Vacy, & Broadbear, 2012; Neumann & Landgraf, 2012). In the present 332 study, we find altered AVPR1a expression in the female limbic system in the absence of altered 333 OXT/OXTR expression. This indicates a dysregulated HPA axis which may predispose towards anxiety 334 or depressive phenotypes following stress(Lesse, Rether, Groger, Braun, & Bock, 2017; Neumann & 335 Slattery, 2016; Nowacka-Chmielewska, Kasprowska-Liskiewicz, Barski, Obuchowicz, & Malecki, 2017).

PPS increased *AVPR1a* expression in the female hippocampal formation, yet decreased expression in the PFC. Bi-directional projections exist between the hippocampus and hypothalamus (production site of AVP): the hippocampus is a target of AVP and is capable of decreasing AVP expression in the hypothalamus(Nettles, Pesold, & Goldman, 2000; Zhang & Hernandez, 2013). PPS leads to increased AVP (*Brydges et al. under review*), therefore increased *AVPR1a* expression in the hippocampal formation may be a compensatory mechanism, enhancing the sensitivity to and subsequent inhibitory effects of the hippocampus on hypothalamic AVP secretion. The PFC is also thought to exert inhibitory effects over the hypothalamus, but direct connections between these two
structures are lacking, and it is hypothesised that the PFC may act via other structures to exert this
influence(Spencer, Buller, & Day, 2005). Whether the decreased *AVPR1a* expression following PPS in
this region is due to adaptation or pathology remains to be elucidated.

347 Striking sex differences were seen regardless of PPS. GR, MR, GR:MR, FKBP5 and OXTR 348 expression were significantly higher in male than female hypothalamus, whereas AVPR1a and OXT 349 showed the opposite pattern. OXTR expression was higher in female PFC. These findings are consistent 350 with previous studies finding AVPR1a expression is higher in female vs male rodents, and GR, MR and 351 OXTR expression higher in the male hypothalamus (although species, age and region studied can all 352 affect direction of difference)(Albers, 2015; Bale & Dorsa, 1995; Dumais, Bredewold, Mayer, & 353 Veenema, 2013; Smith et al., 2017; Turner, 1990). One study investigating binding in 35 different 354 rodent brains regions similarly found sex differences in OXTR and AVPR1a expression 355 (increased/decreased depending on region)(Smith et al., 2017), but less is known about FKBP5. These 356 sex differences may confer a natural heightened reactivity to stress in females which may underlie the 357 greater vulnerability of the female HPA axis to ELS.

358 The balance between MR and GR functioning is thought crucial for appropriate HPA axis 359 function, and dysregulation and imbalance between CR is suggested as a candidate mechanism 360 underlying psychiatric disorders such as major depression, a disorder which has been repeatedly associated with hyperactive HPA axis function(de Kloet et al., 2005; Juruena et al., 2015; Oitzl, 361 362 Champagne, van der Veen, & de Kloet, 2010). Polymorphisms associated with enhanced expression of 363 FKBP5 following GR activation are overrepresented in major depression, bipolar and PTSD(Binder, 364 2009; Matosin et al., 2018). FKBP5 is implicated in a number psychiatric disorders, particularly in 365 combination with early life stress(Wang, Shelton, & Dwivedi, 2018). In humans, there is an interaction 366 between FKBP5 (FK506 binding protein 5) variability and childhood trauma on psychosis, paranoia, 367 social stress appraisal and prefrontal cortex function(Harms et al., 2017; Misiak et al., 2018; Wang et al., 2018). Our results suggest that PPS plays a role in altered FKBP5 functioning in females, a key
 regulator of the HPA axis. Also in agreement with our findings, the human literature shows early
 trauma is associated with blunted CORT responses to social stimuli, particularly in women.

371

372 <u>Conclusions</u>

373 We found the adult female HPA axis was sensitive to PPS, with changes seen throughout the system. 374 This highlights the pre-pubertal phase as a particularly sensitive time for re-programming of the 375 female HPA axis by stress. In contrast, the male HPA axis was unaffected. This sex-specific vulnerability 376 may underlie the greater propensity for women to develop psychiatric disorders including depression, 377 anxiety and PTSD, disorders which are frequently associated with HPA axis dysregulation. Although 378 we found greater effects in females in the present study, males are not immune to the effects of PPS. 379 For example, in previous studies we found that PPS significantly impaired hippocampal-dependent 380 behaviour and hippocampal neurogenesis in males but not females, and social behaviour is equally 381 affected in both sexes(Brydges et al., 2018, Brydges et al. in review). Furthermore, others have found 382 several behavioural and neurobiological effects of PPS in male animals(Albrecht et al., 2017; Brydges, 383 2016). This suggests males and females differ in their responses to PPS, potentially resulting in sex-384 specific vulnerabilities to certain disorders. This strengthens the argument for including both sexes in 385 preclinical and clinical studies.

386

387 Figure Legends

Figure 1. *Hippocampal formation*. PPS increased expression of a) FKBP5 and b) AVPR1a in the female
hippocampal formation. Con=control, PPS=pre-pubertal stress, F=female, M=male. Male: 12 control,
10 PPS; female: 8 control, 10 PPS. *=p<0.05. Error bars represent 1 S.E. and bars joined by a line and
asterisk are significantly different to one another.

Figure 2. PFC. PPS increased a) GR and b) GR:MR ratio and decreased c) AVPR1a in the female PFC.
OXTR expression was higher in female than male PFC. Con=control, PPS=pre-pubertal stress,
F=female, M=male. Male: 12 control, 10 PPS; female: 8 control, 10 PPS. *=p<0.05, **p<0.01,
***p<0.0001. Error bars represent 1 S.E. and bars joined by a line and asterisk are significantly
different to one another.

Figure 3. *Hypothalamus.* a) GR, b) MR, c) GR:MR, d) FKBP5 and e) OXTR were higher in male than
female hypothalamus, whereas f) AVPR1a and g) OXT were higher in female hypothalamus.
Con=control, PPS=pre-pubertal stress, F=female, M=male. Male: 12 control, 10 PPS; female: 8 control,
10 PPS. **p<0.01, ***p<0.0001. Error bars represent 1 S.E. and bars joined by a line and asterisk are
significantly different to one another.

Figure 4. *Corticosterone.* Social interaction significantly elevated corticosterone above baseline in
 control animals and PPS males. This response was blunted in PPS females. Con=control, PPS=pre pubertal stress, F=female, M=male. Females: 22 control, 18 PPS; male: 12 control, 10 PPS *=p<0.05.
 Error bars represent 1 S.E. and bars joined by a line and asterisk are significantly different to one
 another.

407

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413

414 **Declaration of interest**

415 The authors declare no competing interest.

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