Endocrine disruptor-induced epimutagenesis *in vitro*: Insight into molecular mechanisms

Jake D. Lehle, Yu-Huey Lin, Amanda Gomez, Laura Chavez, and John R. McCarrey*

Department of Neuroscience, Developmental and Regenerative Biology

The University of Texas at San Antonio

*Corresponding author – John R. McCarrey, john.mccarrey@utsa.edu

Keywords: Endocrine disrupting chemicals, epigenetics, DNA methylation, epigenetic reprogramming,

transgenerational epigenetic inheritance

Abstract:

Endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) such as bisphenol S (BPS) are xenobiotic compounds that can

disrupt endocrine signaling following exposure due to steric similarities to endogenous hormones within

the body. EDCs have been shown to induce disruptions in normal epigenetic programming

(epimutations) that accompany dysregulation of normal gene expression patterns that appear to

predispose disease states. Most interestingly, the prevalence of epimutations following exposure to

many different EDCs often persists over multiple subsequent generations, even with no further

exposure to the causative EDC. Many previous studies have described both the direct and prolonged

effects of EDC exposure in animal models, but many questions remain about molecular mechanisms by

which EDCs initially induce epimutations or contribute to the propagation of EDC-induced epimutations

either within the exposed generation or to subsequent generations. Additional questions remain

regarding the extent to which there may be differences in cell type-specific susceptibilities to various

EDCs, and whether this susceptibility is correlative with expression of relevant hormone receptors

and/or the location of relevant hormone response elements (HREs) in the genome. To address these

questions, we exposed cultured mouse pluripotent (induced pluripotent stem [iPS]), somatic (Sertoli and

granulosa), and germ (primordial germ cell like [PGCLCs]) cells to BPS and measured changes in DNA

methylation levels at the epigenomic level and gene expression at the transcriptomic level. We found

that there was indeed a difference in cell type-specific susceptibility to EDC-induced epimutagenesis and

that this susceptibility correlated with differential expression of relevant hormone receptors and, in

many cases, tended to generate epimutations near relevant HREs within the genome. Additionally,

however, we also found that BPS can induce epimutations in a cell type that does not express relevant

receptors and in genomic regions that do not contain relevant HREs, suggesting that both canonical and

non-canonical signaling mechanisms can be disrupted by BPS exposure. Most interestingly, we found

that when iPS cells were exposed to BPS and then induced to differentiate into PGCLCs, the prevalence

of epimutations and differentially expressed genes (DEGs) initially induced in the iPSCs was largely

retained in the resulting PGCLCs, however, >90% of the specific epimutations and DEGs were not

conserved but were rather replaced by novel epimutations and DEGs following the iPSC to PGCLC

transition. These results suggest a unique mechanism by which an EDC-induced epimutated state may

be propagated transgenerationally following a single exposure to the causative EDC.

Introduction

It has now been more than a half-century since Roy Hertz in 1958 first proposed the notion that

certain chemicals, particularly those used in livestock feed at the time, could contaminate food sources

and bioaccumulate in humans mimicking the activity of hormones (Gassner et al., 1958). As the number

of potential chemicals that could exert these effects has grown, so too has the interest in this area to the

point that this is now a major topic of active research. The dangers of many endocrine disrupting

chemicals (EDCs) studied to date have largely been investigated utilizing animal models. A primary

example is the multi-phased Toxicant Exposures and Responses by Genomic and Epigenomic Regulators

of Transcription (TaRGET) program established to determine the contribution of environmental

exposures to disease pathogenesis as a function of epigenome perturbation in mouse models (Wang et

al., 2018). While the use of animal models has been quite informative for determining the various

systemic or organ/tissue-specific disease-related effects associated with exposure to different EDCs, the

molecular mechanisms underlying these phenomena remain poorly understood. Thus, questions persist

regarding i) the mechanisms by which exposure of cells to EDCs results in the initial formation of

epimutations defined here as any change in epigenomic programming, ii) potential cell type-specific

differential susceptibility to epimutagenesis induced by different EDCs, iii) the potential involvement of

relevant hormone receptors and/or genomic hormone response elements in EDC-induced disruption of

the epigenome, and iv) the ability of an EDC-induced epimutated state to persist inter- or

transgenerationally despite generational epigenetic reprogramming (Diaz-Castillo et al., 2019).

Questions about molecular mechanisms responsible for EDC exposure-based disruption of

normal epigenetic programming have been difficult to interpret in whole animal models due, in part, to

the inherent complexity of the intact animal including potential interactions among multiple different

organs, tissues, and cell types at the paracrine, metabolic and/or systemic levels. To circumvent this

challenge, we opted to expose homogeneous populations of specific cell types in culture to doses of the

EDC, BPS, that are below the maximum safe limit previously set by the EPA for the similar estrogen

mimetic, BPA. In this way we hoped to learn more about the manner in which direct exposure to a

specific EDC induces epimutations and differential gene expression in different individual cell types

including somatic cells, pluripotent cells, and germ cells. This approach was designed to distinguish the

direct effects of an EDC exposure *in vitro* from indirect effects that may accrue as the result of an EDC

exposure on one cell type inducing a secondary effect on a neighboring or related cell type *in vivo*.

Previous *in vitro* studies have demonstrated direct susceptibility of cultured cell types to EDC-

induced epimutagenesis, however, those studies were focused on immortalized cancer cell lines that do

not model key cell types involved in normal initial incursion or subsequent intragenerational

propagation or inter- or transgenerational transmission of environmentally-induced epimutations *in vivo*

(Deb et al., 2016; Goodman et al., 2014; Huang et al., 2019; Karaman and Ozden, 2019; Senyildiz et al.,

2017). We chose to examine direct exposure of three key types of cells relevant to environmental

exposures and subsequent propagation and transmission of induced epimutations *in vivo* – somatic cell

types known to be responsive to endocrine signaling (Sertoli cells and granulosa cells), pluripotent cells

(iPSCs) mimicking the preimplantation embryo, and germline cells (PGCLCs).

While there have been reports that have clearly indicated the ability of EDCs to disrupt classical

endocrine signaling (Henley and Korach, 2010; Kelce et al., 1995; Swedenborg et al., 2009; vom Saal and

Hughes, 2005; You et al., 1998), there exist other reports indicating EDCs can also disrupt non-classical

endocrine signaling via nuclear receptors (Ozgyin et al., 2015; Song et al., 2011), G protein-coupled

receptors (Thomas and Dong, 2006), and calcium channel signaling (Brenker et al., 2018). This has

further complicated our understanding of the mechanism(s) by which EDC exposure initially induces

epimutations, and has particularly confounded insight into the susceptibility of germ cells to EDC-

induced epimutagenesis given that germ cells are reported to lack expression of classical endocrine

receptors (Meccariello et al., 2014). This is relevant to the effort to understand mechanisms underlying

transgenerational epigenetic inheritance of EDC-induced epimutations (Anway et al., 2006; Guerrero-

Bosagna et al., 2012; Nilsson et al., 2008) which clearly implicates transmission via the germ line.

The concept of germline transmission of EDC-induced epimutations is further confounded by the

known epigenetic reprogramming events that occur in the preimplantation embryo and developing fetal

and neonatal germ line. Thus, regardless of how EDC-induced epimutations become initially manifest in

the germ line, it is not clear how they subsequently persist and are transmitted inter- or

transgenerationally given the large portion of the epigenome that undergoes genome-wide erasure and

resetting of epigenetic programming during each generation (Cantone and Fisher, 2013; Lee et al., 2014;

Santos et al., 2002; Sanz et al., 2010). *In vitro* cell culture systems afford the opportunity to focus on

individual cell types independently, including somatic cells which are likely initially exposed to most

environmental disruptive influences, pluripotent cells which represent the preimplantation embryo in

which the first major reprogramming event occurs during normal development, and early germline cells

where the second major reprogramming event is initiated in primordial germ cells (PGCs). Importantly,

in addition to the potential to study each of these cell types independently, it is possible to induce

transitions in cell fate *in vitro* that model those that occur during normal development, thereby

recapitulating normal reprogramming events in a way that can facilitate high resolution studies of the

fate of EDC-induced epimutations once they have been induced in any of these cell types.

Here we describe our study of the relative susceptibility to induction of epimutations by direct

exposure of four different cell types maintained in culture – somatic Sertoli and granulosa cells,

pluripotent iPSCs and germline PGCLCs – to BPS, followed by our analysis of the fate of epimutations

initially induced in mouse iPSCs that are then induced to transition into PGCLCs. We found that there are

cell type-specific differences in susceptibility to epimutagenesis and associated dysregulation of gene

expression patterns following exposure of these different cell types to a similar dose of BPS below the

maximum safe exposure limit established for BPA by the EPA (Ribeiro et al., 2019). We further found

that these differences correlate at least partially with differential expression of relevant hormone

receptors, although germ cells, which do not express relevant receptors, also incurred epimutations

following direct exposure to BPS, albeit less extensively than somatic or pluripotent cell types. In all cell

types tested, exposure to BPS disrupted epigenetic programming in potentially important regulatory

regions including enhancers and promoters. Beyond this, however, we found that the distribution of

many of the epimutations induced by exposure to BPS, which is an estrogen mimetic, correlated with

the genomic locations of estrogen response elements (EREs) in cell types expressing estrogen receptors,

but much less so in germ cells that do not express estrogen receptors. To address the origin of these

BPS-induced epimutations in PGCLCs, we identified G-protein coupled receptor targets that potentially

could be involved in non-canonical estrogen signaling and susceptibility to BPS exposure. Most

interestingly, we found that when iPSCs exposed to BPS were then induced to undergo a major

transition in cell fate and related epigenetic reprogramming to form PGCLCs, a similar prevalence of

epimutations and DEGs was retained throughout this transition, but very few (<10%) specific

epimutations or DEGs were conserved during this process. This suggests that the initial EDC exposure

induces a disruption of the chromatin landscape that subsequent epigenetic reprogramming is unable to

fully restore. Thus, reprogramming during a major cell fate transition involving cells exposed to BPS

appears to correct many of the initially induced epimutations, but also appears to induce many *de novo*

epimutations, and this imbalance may persist across multiple generations. This represents a novel

mechanism that may underlie continued transgenerational epigenetic inheritance of a prevalence of

EDC-induced epimutations despite ongoing generational reprogramming during succeeding generations.

Results

Dose dependent epimutagenesis response to BPS exposure in iPSCs

To initially assess the extent to which epimutations and dysregulated gene expression can be

induced in cells maintained in culture, we exposed mouse iPSCs to three doses of BPS (1, 50, and 100

μM) and measured the impact on the epigenome and transcriptome using the Illumina Infinium Mouse

Methylation BeadChip Array and RNA-seq, respectively (Figure 1). All three doses of BPS induced

individual differentially methylated CpGs (DMCs) as well as differentially methylated regions (DMRs)

(Figure 1a), and differentially expressed genes (DEGs) (Figure 1b) when compared to control mouse

iPSCs treated with vehicle (EtOH) only. The extent of this exposure-specific epimutagenesis was directly

correlated with the dose of BPS used. These results provided an initial proof of concept that exposure of

cells maintained *in vitro* to an EDC such as BPS can disrupt the epigenome and transcriptome in a dose-

dependent manner. Interestingly, exposure to 1 µM BPS induced very few DMRs, but did induce

widespread DMCs and DEGs. Because 1 µM BPS is below the FDA's suggested safe environmental level

established for BPA (Ribeiro et al., 2019), and was sufficient to induce DMCs and dysregulated gene

expression on all chromosomes, we utilized this dose and focused solely on DMCs when assessing

epimutations in all subsequent experiments.

Figure 1. Dose dependent impact of epimutagenesis measured in iPSCs exposed to 1, 50, and 100 µM
BPS. a) Ideogram plots displaying chromosomal distribution of genome-wide changes in DNA
methylation caused by BPS exposure. **b)** Mean difference (MD) plots of changes in gene expression
following exposure to increasing doses of BPS. Exposure to increasing doses of BPS induced
corresponding increases in the numbers of DMCs, DMRs, and DEGs. Blue horizontal lines =
hypomethylated DMCs, red horizontal lines = hypermethylated DMCs, black squares = DMRs.

Cell type-specific susceptibility to induction of epimutations following BPS exposure

We next sought to determine if different key cell types – somatic, pluripotent and germ – are

differentially susceptible to induction of epimutations in response to direct exposure of each to a similar

dose of BPS. Thus, we exposed pluripotent (iPSCs), somatic (Sertoli and granulosa cells), and germ

(PGCLCs) cell types to 1 µM BPS and measured changes in DNA methylation patterns. We identified

exposure-specific DMCs in each exposed cell type relative to its corresponding control (exposed to

carrier only) (Figure 2a). We observed overall differences among the different cell types in total numbers

of DMCs, with iPSCs showing the highest number of DMCs, followed by Sertoli cells and granulosa cells,

and then PGCLCs, respectively (Table 1).

Figure 2. Chromosomal distributions and annotations of BPS-induced epimutations in pluripotent,
somatic, and germ cell types. a) Ideograms illustrating chromosomal locations of DMCs induced by
exposure of each cell type to 1 µM BPS. Blue horizontal lines = hypomethylated DMCs, red horizontal
lines = hypermethylated DMCs. **b)** Enrichment plots indicating feature annotations in genomic regions
displaying prevalent BPS-induced epimutations in each cell type.

Table 1. Treatment-specific differentially methylated sites (DMCs) (treated vs. control)				
DMCs	Sertoli	Granulosa	iPSCs	PGCLCs
Hypomethylated[1]	7,385	6,444	9,651	2,315
Hypermethylated[2]	3,022	4,143	4,308	4,785
Total	10,407	10,587	13,959	7,100

[1]A CpG site that was predominantly methylated in the control samples but unmethylated in the exposed
samples.
[2]A CpG site that was predominantly unmethylated in the control samples but methylated in the exposed
samples.

Interestingly, among the exposure-specific DMCs identified in each cell type, we observed

predominantly hypomethylated DMCs in the somatic and pluripotent cell types, but predominantly

hypermethylated DMCs in PGCLCs (Table 1). These findings confirm that there are both quantitative

differences among cell types in overall susceptibility to epimutagenesis, and qualitative cell type-specific

differences in the prevalence of hypo- versus hypermethylated DMCs following exposure to BPS. The

latter likely reflects the fact that the epigenome in PGCs is naturally more hypomethylated than that in

pluripotent or somatic cell types (Hajkova, 2011), enhancing the likelihood that most changes in DNA

methylation induced in PGCLCs will necessarily involve hypermethylation.

Annotation of BPS-induced epimutations

We next analyzed annotations associated with genomic sites of BPS exposure-specific DMCs in

each cell type. We mined annotations associated with genomic regions included on the Infinium array

and found that a substantial group of exposure-specific DMCs was associated with enhancer regions in

the two somatic (Sertoli and granulosa) and one pluripotent (iPS) cell types exposed to BPS, while in

PGCLCs BPS-induced DMCs were more prevalent at promoter regions containing transcription start sites

(TSSs) and transcription factor binding sites (Figure 2b), indicative of yet another qualitative cell type-

specific difference in induction of epimutations by the same dose of BPS.

Relationship between susceptibility to BPS-induced epimutagenesis and expression of relevant

hormone receptors

As EDCs are thought to induce epimutations via disruption of classical hormonal signaling

(Henley and Korach, 2010; Kelce et al., 1995; Swedenborg et al., 2009; vom Saal and Hughes, 2005; You

et al., 1998), we next sought to determine if the differential extent of BPS induction of epimutations we

observed in different cell types was associated with differential expression of relevant hormone

receptors in each. We performed immunocytochemistry (ICC) to detect the presence of the relevant

estrogen receptors – ERα and ERβ, while co-staining for cell type-specific markers (WT1 [Sertoli cell

marker], FSHR [granulosa cell marker], FUT4 [iPSC marker], and NANOG [PGCLC or endogenous PGC

marker]) to confirm the identity of the four cultured cell types examined in this study (Sertoli cells,

granulosa cells, iPSCs and PGCLCs), as well as endogenous mouse PGCs (Figure 3a). Both somatic cell

types (Sertoli and granulosa) showed positive immunolabeling for both ERα and ERβ, whereas the

pluripotent cells showed positive immunolabeling for ERβ, but negative immunolabeling for ERα, and

the PGCLCs and endogenous PGCs showed negative immunolabeling for both ERα and ERβ. Importantly,

the latter result is consistent with previous reports of lack of expression of either ERα or ERβ at the

protein level in endogenous PGCs (Meccariello et al., 2014).

These results demonstrate cell type-specific differences in expression of hormone receptors

(ERα and ERβ) which are potentially relevant to the disruptive action of the estrogen mimetic, BPS. We

noted that expression of at least one potentially relevant hormone receptor (ERβ) in either somatic or

pluripotent cells correlated with a higher incidence of DMCs induced by exposure of somatic or

pluripotent cell types to 1 µM BPS relative to the incidence of DMCs induced by exposure of PGCLCs,

which do not express either estrogen receptor, to the same dose of BPS (Table 1). Nevertheless, we did

still observe induction of DMCs when PGCLCs were exposed to BPS, demonstrating that expression of

relevant canonical hormone receptors is not an absolute requirement for induction of epimutations in

response to an EDC. As noted above, we also observed differences in annotations of the genomic

regions in which BPS induced epimutations in germ cells relative to the other cell types tested, with ERα-

and/or ERβ-expressing somatic and pluripotent cell types showing a higher incidence of epimutations at

apparent enhancer regions while ERα-/ERβ-negative germ cells showed a higher epimutation incidence

at apparent promoter regions (900 bp upstream and 500 bp downstream from TSS) (Figure 2b). Taken

together, these results reveal cell type-specific differences in susceptibility to induction of epimutations

by exposure to the EDC, BPS.

Figure 3. Correlation between cell type-specific expression of estrogen receptors and density of genomic EREs associated with BPS-induced epimutations. a) Assessment of expression of ERα and ERβ on cell types co-stained for known cell type-specific markers. Somatic cell types express both receptors, pluripotent cells express ERβ but not ERα, and germ cells do not express either estrogen receptor. b) Motif plots displaying the full ERE consensus sequence and the more biologically relevant ERE half-site motifs found to be enriched from ERα ChIP-seq. c,d) Normalized density plots and box plots displaying the frequency of ERE half-sites identified c) within 500 bp of all BPS-induced DMCs genome-wide, or d) within 500 bp of the most enriched categories of BPS-induced DMCs in each cell type (= enhancer regions for somatic and pluripotent cell types and promoter regions in the germ cell type).

Proximity of BPS-induced epimutations to genomic EREs

The relatively higher incidence of BPS-induced epimutations in cell types expressing one or both

estrogen receptor(s) suggests BPS-induced epimutagenesis may be manifest, at least in part, through

canonical endocrine signaling pathways. If this is the case, we might expect to see elevated induction of

epimutations in genomic regions enriched for relevant HREs which, for interactions with the estrogen

mimetic, BPS, would be EREs. Previous studies have defined a full ERE consensus sequence (Bourdeau et

al., 2004), but other reports have indicated that estrogen receptors can often bind to ERE half-sites

(Mason et al., 2010) (Figure 3b). Indeed, when we mined publicly available ERα ChIP-seq peaks from the

UCSC genome browser database (Dunham et al., 2012; Myers et al., 2011; Sloan et al., 2016; Wang et

al., 2013, 2012) and performed motif enrichment, we identified two distinct ERE half-sites within regions

enriched for DMCs rather than one full sized ERE consensus sequence, with the half-sites appearing to

be more biologically relevant to interaction with estrogen or its mimetics (Figure 3b). We then plotted

the frequency of ERE half-sites in genomic regions within 500 bp of BPS-induced epimutations (Figure

3c,d). We found an increase in the frequency of ERE half-sites identified within 500 bp of BPS-induced

DMCs genome-wide in all four cell types investigated, although the frequency was notably lower in germ

cells (Figure 3c). Interestingly, this higher frequency of ERE half-sites within 500 bp of BPS-induced DMCs

was conserved in three of the four cell types – somatic (Sertoli and granulosa) and pluripotent (iPSCs)

when we focused solely on apparent enhancer regions, but not in germ cells (PGCLCs) where the

majority of DMCs occurred at apparent promoter regions (Figure 3d). We also mined the UCSC mouse

genome sequence for genome-wide prevalence of ERE half-sites and found that while these sites occur

in both promoter and enhancer regions, they are nearly four-fold more frequent in enhancers

(Supplementary file 1b). Thus, it is perhaps not surprising that BPS-induced epimutations were more

prevalent in enhancer regions in somatic and pluripotent cell types that express one or both ERs, than in

germ cells that do not express either ER.

Taken together, these results suggest a relationship between i) expression of either ERβ alone or

ERα and ERβ together, ii) elevated susceptibility to BPS-induced epimutagenesis, and iii) the occurrence

of BPS-induced DMCs in genomic regions – particularly enhancers – containing EREs. These observations

are consistent with the notion that one mechanism contributing to EDC-based induction of epimutations

involves disruption of canonical endocrine signaling pathways. However, the fact that exposure to BPS

also induced epimutations in germ cells, even in the absence of expression of estrogen-related

receptors, and generated many DMCs in regions not inclusive of EREs, suggests that disruption of

canonical endocrine signaling pathways is not the only mechanism by which exposure to an EDC can

induce epimutations.

Cell type-specific features of BPS-induced epimutations

To further interrogate cell type-specific differences in the genesis of epimutations following

exposure to BPS, we compared DNA methylation patterns detected in the control (vehicle only) samples

to identify naturally occurring, cell type-specific DMCs inherently associated with each different cell fate.

Interestingly, of the 297,415 distinct CpGs interrogated by the Illumina Infinium Mouse Methylation

BeadChip Array used for this analysis, >240,000 showed some degree of inherent differential

methylation among the four cell types tested, suggesting they are tied to cell-fate specific differential

DNA methylation (Figure 4a). We next determined the extent to which DMCs induced specifically by

exposure of each cell type to BPS occurred at CpG dinucleotides that were among these naturally

occurring cell type-specific DMCs. We found that a large majority of BPS exposure-specific epimutations

detected in each cell type occurred at CpGs that also show inherent, cell type-specific variation in DNA

methylation (>95% of BPS-induced epimutations in somatic and pluripotent cell types and ~89% in germ

cells) (Figure 4a). As with the overall pattern of BPS-induced epimutations shown in Figure 2, BPS-

induced epimutations at CpGs showing inherent cell type-specific variation were enriched in apparent

enhancer regions that occurred near EREs in somatic and pluripotent cell types, whereas those in germ

cells were found predominantly in promoter regions containing significantly fewer EREs (Figure 4b,d).

However, the low percentage of BPS-induced epimutations that occurred at CpGs that did not show

inherent cell type-specific variation in DNA methylation patterns were found to be enriched in promoter

regions lacking nearby EREs in all four cell types (Figure 4c,d). Thus, this latter group of BPS-induced

epimutations appears to represent a small core group that arises following exposure to BPS via a

mechanism that does not rely upon disruption of canonical endocrine signaling, and so is common to all

cell types, regardless of expression of relevant endocrine receptors or nearby residence of relevant HREs

within the genome.

Figure 4. Direct comparison of BPS exposure-specific and cell type-specific features between cell types. a) Assessment Venn diagrams indicating DMCs that are due either to BPS exposure (top, smaller ovals) or inherent cell type-specific differences (bottom, larger ovals). Numbers of apparent endocrine signaling-related DMCs are shown in the light orange arrow, and apparent endocrine signaling-independent DMCs are shown in the dark orange arrows. Enrichment plots indicating feature annotations in genomic regions displaying **b)** apparent endocrine signaling-related DMCs occurring predominantly in enhancer regions in somatic Sertoli and granulosa cell types or pluripotent cells

expressing one or more estrogen receptors, or **c)** a smaller set of apparent endocrine signaling-
independent DMCs occurring predominantly in promoter regions in all four cell types regardless of +/-
expression of relevant endocrine receptors. **d)** Normalized density plots and box plots displaying the
frequency of ERE half-sites identified within 500 bp of apparent endocrine signaling-related DMCs
occurring predominantly in enhancer regions and apparent endocrine signaling-independent DMCs
occurring predominantly in promoters.

Impact of BPS exposure on gene expression

We next sought to determine if the cell type-specific differential susceptibility to BPS-induced

epimutagenesis translated to a similar extent of dysregulation of gene expression in each cell type.

Somewhat surprisingly, RNA-seq analysis of gene expression patterns in each exposed cell type relative

to its corresponding control (same cell type exposed to carrier only) revealed the greatest number of

dysregulated genes in PGCLCs, despite PGCLCs being the cell type that showed the lowest number of

epimutations following exposure to BPS (Tables 1,2). iPSCs showed the second highest level of

dysregulated genes, while somatic Sertoli and granulosa cells showed very low levels of dysregulated

gene expression (Table 2). Indeed, numbers of dysregulated genes were three orders of magnitude

lower in differentiated somatic cells than in either pluripotent cells or germ cells (Table 2).

Because BPS-exposed PGCLCs showed the highest level of dysregulated genes, as well as the

highest enrichment of DMCs occurring primarily at promoters (Figure 2b), we next assessed the general

proximity between DMCs and promoter regions in each cell type to determine if DMCs in promoter

regions may be more likely to predispose dysregulated gene expression than DMCs elsewhere in the

genome (Figure 5a). Indeed, we found that in all four cell types, the smaller the median distance

between BPS-induced DMCs and neighboring promoter regions, the larger the number of BPS-induced

DEGs (Figure 5b). Thus, it appears that while PGCLCs showed the fewest BPS-induced DMCs among the

four cell types exposed to BPS, this exposure induced a higher proportion of epimutations in regions

within or adjacent to promoters in this cell type. This, and the relatively high extent of decondensed

chromatin genome-wide in fetal germ cells, appear to have contributed to the higher incidence of

dysregulated gene expression in BPS-exposed PGCLCs than that observed in the other three BPS-

exposed cell types, even though the overall numbers of BPS-induced epimutations were greater in the

other cell types.

Table 2. Exposure-specific differentially expressed genes*				
DEGs	Sertoli	Granulosa	iPSCs	PGCLCs
Down regulated	3	0	343	844
Up regulated	32	2	694	1,046
Total	35	2	1,037	1,890

*Genes showing significant differential expression following exposure of each cell type to 1µM BPS
relative to matched control cell types exposed to carrier only.

Figure 5. Correlation between the proximity of DMCs to promoters and dysregulation of gene
expression. a) Proximity plot displaying distances from exposure-specific DMCs to nearest promoter

regions. Dotted lines indicate median points of the data for each cell type. **b)** Correlation plot displaying
a negative relationship between the distance from DMCs to nearest promoters and resulting
dysregulation of gene expression within each cell type.

Potential non-canonical signaling pathways disrupted by BPS exposure

To identify potential mechanisms by which BPS exposure may induce epimutations via

disruption of non-canonical endocrine signaling pathways, we mined our RNA-seq data to identify genes

dysregulated independently of expression of relevant hormone receptors or presence of nearby EREs.

We identified a set of genes in all four cell types tested that displayed promoters enriched for apparent

endocrine-signaling independent DMCs (Supplementary file 1a). Gene ontology (GO) analysis indicated

that several of the 1,957 genes we identified were associated with ubiquitin-like protease pathways,

including 124 of 800 genes that regulate protein degradation and 5 of 9 genes involving 1-

phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase activities, linked to the PI3K/AKT signaling pathway (Figure 6a). Previous

reports have established a link between ubiquitin-like protease pathways and classical ER signaling

(Beamish and Frick, 2022; Kabir et al., 2015), suggesting that genes with promoters lacking EREs may be

regulated by factors encoded by genes with promoters containing EREs, and so could be indirectly

activated or repressed by disruption of classical ER signaling. Further, involvement of PI3K/AKT pathway

signaling has previously been linked to estrogen signaling through G-protein coupled receptors such as

GPER1, which was implicated in non-canonical estrogen signaling in ER KO mouse cell lines (Filardo et

al., 2002; Molina et al., 2017). To determine if our data support this suggestion, we performed GO

analysis on the 1,890 DEGs identified in PGCLCs in which epimutations appeared to be induced

independent of classical ER signaling. We detected no apparent involvement of pathways involving

ubiquitin-like proteases, but we did detect differential expression of 4 of 7 genes associated with a

pathway involving phosphatidylinositol-4 phosphatase signaling which intersects with the PI3K/AKT

signaling pathway (Figure 6b). Finally, while we did not detect differential expression of *Gper1*

transcripts, we did observe differential expression of genes encoding other less well studied G-protein

coupled receptors, including *Gprc5a*, *Gprc5b*, *Gpr89, Gpr107*, and *Gpr161* in all four cell types exposed

to BPS. These receptors have all been previously shown to bind either BPA or 17β-estradiol in rat models

(https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1305882,

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1563245,

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1304837,

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1310804,

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1309510) and could be potential targets of

non-canonical BPS-induced estrogen signaling (Figure 6c).

Figure 6. Potential involvement of non-canonical estrogen signaling pathways in BPS-induction of
epimutations. Relative expression of genes **a)** enriched for apparent endocrine signaling-independent
promoter-region DMCs or **b)** dysregulated in PGCLCs which lack expression of estrogen receptors. **c)**
Heatmap of relative expression of estrogen receptor genes (*Esr1* and *Esr2*) and G-coupled protein
receptors (*Gprc5a*, *Gpr107*, *Gprc5b*, *Gpr161*, and *Gpr89*) in pluripotent, somatic, and germ cell types.

Propagation of BPS-induced epimutations during transitions in cell fate

Transitions between pluripotent and germ cell fates, or vice versa, are accompanied by large-

scale epigenetic reprogramming *in vivo* (Cantone and Fisher, 2013; Lee et al., 2014; Santos et al., 2002;

Sanz et al., 2010), and these are recapitulated during similar transitions induced *in vitro* (Ishikura et al.,

2016). To determine the extent to which BPS-induced epimutations persist during a pluripotent to

germline transition *in vitro*, we first exposed iPSCs to 1 µM BPS and then differentiated the exposed

iPSCs first into epiblast-like cells (EpiLCs) and then into PGCLCs recapitulating the early germline

epigenetic reprogramming event that normally occurs *in vivo* (Kurimoto and Saitou, 2018; Ohta et al.,

2017) (Figure 7a). We then compared the numbers of exposure-specific DMCs and DEGs detected in the

PGCLCs derived from the BPS-exposed iPSCs with those in the directly exposed iPSCs and found lower,

but still substantial numbers of both (28,168 vs 38,105 DMCs, and 1,437 vs 1,637 DEGs in the derived

PGCLCs and directly exposed iPSCs, respectively) (Figure 7b,c). However, when we compared the specific

DMCs and DEGs that were detected in the BPS-exposed iPSCs with those that were detected in the

subsequently derived PGCLCs, we found that >90% of each were not conserved during the pluripotent to

germline transition in cell fate. Specifically, only 3.7% of the DMCs and 8.4% of the DEGs detected in the

BPS-exposed iPSCs were also detected in the PGCLCs derived from the exposed iPSCs. Thus, of the

38,105 DMCs and 1,637 DEGs induced by exposure of iPSCs to 1 µM BPS, 36,688 and 1,499, respectively,

did not persist during differentiation of the iPSCs to form PGCLCs and so were apparently corrected by

germline reprogramming. Simultaneously however, 26,752 novel DMCs and 1,299 novel DEGs appeared

in the PGCLCs that were not present in the BPS-exposed iPSCs, so were apparently generated *de novo*

during the germline reprogramming process. These results are consistent with the notion that germline

epigenetic reprogramming corrected many of the epimutations that were present in the BPS-exposed

pluripotent cells from which they were derived, but that exposure of cells to EDCs may disrupt the

underlying chromatin landscape in a way that then interferes with subsequent reprogramming such that

in addition to correcting many previously induced epimutations, the germline reprogramming process,

acting on a disrupted chromatin landscape, also generates many novel epimutations *de novo* during the

pluripotent to germline transition.

Figure 7. Persistence of BPS-induced epimutations through recapitulation of early germline
reprogramming *in vitro*. a) Schematic illustrating derivation of PGCLCs from iPSCs *in vitro*. iPSCs are first
induced to form EpiLCs which are then induced to form PGCLCs. iPSCs were exposed to either ethanol +
1 µM BPS or ethanol (carrier) only, then induced to undergo transitions to form EpiLCs and then PGCLCs.
b) DNA samples from BPS-exposed or control iPSCs as well as subsequently derived PGCLCs were
assessed for DNA methylation epimutations by EM-seq. BPS-treated iPSCs showed 38,105 DMCs and

subsequently derived PGCLCs showed 28,169 DMCs. Of those, only 1,417 (3.7%) of the DMCs were
conserved from the BPS-exposed iPSCs to the subsequently derived PGCLCs. **c)** RNA samples from BPS-
exposed or control iPSCs and subsequently derived PGCLCs were assessed for global gene expression
patterns by RNA-seq. BPS-treated iPSCs showed 1,637 exposure-specific DEGs and subsequently derived
PGCLCs showed 1,437 exposure-specific DEGs. Of those, only 138 (8.4%) were conserved from the BPS-
exposed iPSCs to the subsequently derived PGCLCs.

Discussion

While nearly 20 years of research on the effects of exposure of live animals to various EDCs and

other environmental disruptive influences has clearly established the potential to perturb the

epigenome in ways that can dysregulate normal gene expression patterns and predispose the

development of disease states, the molecular mechanisms underlying these phenomena have remained

largely undefined. Thus, the manner in which environmental exposures introduce biochemical changes

in epigenetic programming, how such disruptions can be propagated within a tissue or throughout the

soma of an exposed individual or enter that individual's germ line, or how these disruptions predispose

disease states in that individual, or how a resulting prevalence of epimutations can be transmitted to

multiple subsequent generations despite generational epigenetic reprogramming, are all mechanistic

questions that have remained unanswered despite more than 5,000 publications on this topic since the

early 2000s. The vast majority of those publications have described experiments in animal models –

typically rodents. While informative, such live animal studies require months to years to complete, are

cost- and animal-intensive, and have not yielded insight into the molecular mechanisms underlying the

deleterious effects of environmentally-induced epimutations.

In vitro model systems have proven to be very useful tools for deciphering molecular

mechanisms related to normal development and homeostasis, or disruptions of those processes

predisposing onset of disease. Examples include cell culture systems used to study developmental

processes such as X-chromosome inactivation in mammals (Almeida et al., 2017; Patrat et al., 2009) or

early embryogenesis (Bao et al., 2022; Lau et al., 2022), or to elucidate the cellular and molecular

etiology of many different diseases based on the now popular "disease-in-a-dish" approach (Davaapil et

al., 2020; Song et al., 2023). We assembled an *in vitro* system in which we combined the three cell types

normally involved in i) the initial exposure to disruptive environmental effects (somatic cells), ii) the first

phase of generational epigenetic reprogramming in the preimplantation embryo (pluripotent cells), and

iii) the second phase of generational reprogramming in the developing germ line (germ cells). This

system allowed us to gain insights into multiple mechanistic aspects of environmentally-induced

epimutagenesis including the initial induction of epimutations by exposure of cells to the EDC, BPS, cell

type-specific differences in susceptibility to BPS-induced epimutagenesis, factors that appear to

contribute to that differential susceptibility, and the mechanism by which an epimutated state is

transmitted across multiple generations despite generational reprogramming.

Here we have shown that exposure of homogeneous populations of cells maintained in culture

to an EDC such as BPS can induce epimutagenesis and dysregulation of gene expression, and that this

occurs in a dose-dependent manner. This afforded us the opportunity to test the relative effects of

direct exposure of different specific cell types to a similar dose of BPS with no confounding effects

imposed by interactions with other cell types or systemic effects of the sort that normally occur in the *in*

vivo context. We found that somatic, pluripotent and germ cell types do indeed show differences in

direct susceptibility to induction of epimutations following exposure to BPS, both in terms of the

quantity of epimutations induced and qualities of the resulting epimutations such as a predominance of

hyper- versus hypomethylation, and the genomic locations where such epimutations tend to occur. Our

results suggest that these differences reflect distinctions in the normal status of each cell type at the

time of exposure. Thus, somatic, pluripotent and germ cell types differ in the normal status of genome-

wide patterns of accessible versus inaccessible chromatin, global DNA methylation, and expression of

relevant endocrine receptors. Interestingly, our data suggest that all of these parameters can influence

cell type-specific susceptibility to induction of epimutations by exposure to BPS, and that different

combinations of these variables ultimately determine the quantity and quality of epimutations induced

by exposure to BPS.

Endogenous fetal germline cells (e.g. PGCs and prospermatogonia in males) normally display

lower levels of global DNA methylation and higher levels of chromatin accessibility than pluripotent or

somatic cell types (Hajkova, 2011), yet PGCLCs developed fewer epimutations following exposure to BPS

than the other cell types. This appears to be explained by the fact that germline cells do not express

either estrogen receptor whereas pluripotent and somatic cell types express one or both of the two

estrogen receptors, apparently rendering them more susceptible to induction of epimutations following

exposure to the estrogen mimetic, BPS. This is consistent with the notion that EDCs impose disruptive

effects by interfering with canonical endocrine signaling pathways, and that notion is further supported

by our observation that, in the cell types that express one or both estrogen receptors, we observed a

prevalence of BPS-induced epimutations in genomic regions containing nearby EREs, whereas in PGCLCs,

which do not express either estrogen receptor, we did not observe a correlation between the locations

of BPS-induced epimutations and genomic EREs.

Nevertheless, we did observe induction of epimutations in PGCLCs exposed to BPS, suggesting

that while cell types expressing relevant endocrine receptors may display elevated susceptibility to EDC-

induced epimutagenesis presumably based on disruption of canonical endocrine signaling, this is not the

only mechanism by which EDCs can induce epimutations. Indeed, our results support the suggestion

that there may be at least two types of epimutations induced by exposure to EDCs – one that is

independent of canonical endocrine signaling and so occurs in all cell types regardless of expression of

relevant endocrine receptors or the genomic location of relevant HREs, and another that does involve

disruption of canonical endocrine signaling and so is elevated in cell types expressing relevant endocrine

receptors and predisposes the induction of epimutations in genomic regions near relevant HREs. Beyond

this, a comparison of the quantities of BPS-induced epimutations in pluripotent and somatic cell types,

which both express one or both estrogen receptors, but which differ with respect to elevated genome-

wide chromatin accessibility in pluripotent cells compared to much more limited chromatin accessibility

in somatic cell types (Cantone and Fisher, 2013; Santos et al., 2002), suggests that chromatin

accessibility also contributes to susceptibility to EDC-induced epimutagenesis.

One of our most intriguing findings was that, in addition to estrogen-receptor expressing

somatic and pluripotent cell types developing more epimutations than non-estrogen-receptor

expressing germ cells in response to exposure to BPS, the occurrence of epimutations in the former

(somatic and pluripotent) cell types was predominantly in enhancer regions whereas that in the latter

(germ) cell type was predominantly in gene promoters. As noted above, there was a significant increase

in the occurrence of BPS-induced epimutations near EREs in somatic and pluripotent cell types

compared to germ cells. A genome wide analysis confirmed that ERE half-sites occur more frequently in

enhancer regions than in promoter regions (Supplementary file 1b) supporting our suggestion that the

higher prevalence of BPS-induced epimutations we observed in enhancer regions in somatic and

pluripotent cell types was due to disruption of canonical hormone signaling.

Our finding that PGCLCs, which do not express endocrine receptors, still accrued epimutations

following exposure to BPS indicates that in addition to inducing epimutations by disrupting canonical

endocrine signaling pathways, exposure to EDCs can induce epimutations via mechanisms that do not

involve disruption of such pathways. This notion is further supported by the occurrence of BPS-induced

epimutations in genomic regions that do not include nearby EREs, even though a prevalence of the

epimutations induced in PGCLCs were located in gene promoters. Pathway analysis of the genes in

which promoter-region epimutations were induced by exposure of PGCLCs to BPS suggests an apparent

endocrine-signaling independent group of genes that can become disrupted by exposure to an EDC via

non-canonical signaling which may occur through the PI3K/AKT pathway via G-protein coupled

receptors. While we observed expression of a number of G-protein coupled receptors known to bind to

either 17β-estradiol or BPA, further studies will be required to determine if any of these contribute to

susceptibility to BPS epimutagenesis.

As expected, disruption of normal epigenetic programming induced by exposure of cells to BPS

also led to dysregulation of gene expression. Thus, RNA-seq analysis detected differentially expressed

genes in all cell types exposed to BPS. Surprisingly, the greatest number of DEGs was detected in PGCLCs

which was the cell type that developed the lowest overall number of epimutations in response to

exposure to BPS. However, PGCLCs showed a higher prevalence of BPS-induced epimutations in gene

promoter regions than was observed in any of the other cell types, so it appears that promoter-region

epimutations impose the most direct impact on gene expression. As noted above, fetal germ cells

normally display the lowest level of global DNA methylation of any cell type at any developmental stage.

This is characteristic of the epigenetic ground state that accrues uniquely in developing germ cells

(Hajkova, 2011), and is believed to reflect a generally more accessible chromatin state genome-wide in

germ cells than in other cell types. Thus, it may be that the epigenetic ground state in developing germ

cells renders this cell type uniquely susceptible to epimutagenesis in gene promoter regions, thereby

predisposing a high level of dysregulation of gene expression in response to exposure to an EDC.

Finally, our *in vitro* system allowed us to follow the fate of BPS-induced epimutations through a

major transition in cell fate from pluripotent to germline cells during which a portion of the normal

generational germline epigenetic reprogramming process is known to occur (Kurimoto and Saitou,

2018). Thus, when we induced iPSCs previously exposed to 1 μM BPS to differentiate into PGCLCs, we

found that a substantial prevalence of epimutations persisted during this transition. However, very few

of the specific DMCs or the associated DEGs detected in the BPS-exposed iPSCs persisted in the

subsequently derived PGCLCs. Specifically, only 3.7 % of DMCs and 8.4 % of DEGs were conserved

between the BPS-exposed iPSCs and the subsequently derived PGCLCs. This suggests that exposure of

cells to EDCs has the potential to disrupt epigenetic programming in a way that then interferes with

subsequent generational reprogramming that normally accompanies either germline to pluripotent or

pluripotent to germline transitions in cell fate. Recent *in vivo* studies have suggested that exposure of

gestating female mice to the EDC tributyltin results in disruption not simply of the pattern of epigenetic

modifications but also of the underlying chromatin landscape (Chamorro-García et al., 2021; Chang et

al., 2022). In this context, our results are consistent with the suggestion that exposure of cells to EDCs

can disrupt the underlying chromatin landscape (e.g. the pattern of A and B chromatin compartments)

such that when the "normal" reprogramming machinery then acts on this disrupted landscape it

corrects many of the originally induced epimutations, but simultaneously induces many novel

epimutations *de novo*. This would predispose ongoing abnormalities in the underlying chromatin

landscape that would, in turn, lead to the recurring correction of many existing epimutations in concert

with the genesis of many novel epimutations during each subsequent generation.

Taken together, our results demonstrate the utility of an *in vitro* cell culture approach for

pursuing molecular mechanisms underlying environmentally induced disruption of normal epigenetic

programming manifest as the formation of epimutations and dysregulated gene expression. This

approach clearly affords unique potential to reveal mechanisms responsible for the initial induction of

epimutations in response to direct exposure of cells to disruptive effects such as EDCs, as well as

offering potential means to elucidate mechanisms by which environmentally induced epimutations are

then propagated within the exposed individual and then to that individual's descendants. Knowledge of

these mechanisms will afford the best opportunity to understand how these defects may, in the future,

be better diagnosed, treated, and/or prevented. With the ever-expanding catalogue of potentially

hazardous man-made compounds permeating our environment, it is increasingly important that we

recognize the potential dangers such compounds may impose and maximize our ability to protect

ourselves from those dangers.

Materials and methods

Key resources table

Reagent type (species) or resource	Designation	Source or reference	Identifiers	Additional information
Genetic reagent (*M. musculus*)	R26^{rtTA}; Col1a1$^{2lox-4F2A}$	The Jackson Laboratory	011011	
Cell line (*M. musculus*)	CF1 Mouse embryonic fibroblasts, MitC-treated	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A34959	
Chemical compound	Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium (DMEM)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	10313021	High glucose, pyruvate, no glutamine
Chemical compound	Fetal bovine serum (FBS)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	10439024	Embryonic stem-cell FBS, qualified, USDA-approved regions
Chemical compound	Leukemia inhibitory factor (LIF)	Millipore Sigma	ESG1107	ESGRO® Recombinant Mouse LIF Protein
Chemical compound	DMEM/F12	Thermo Fisher Scientific	21041025	No phenol red
Chemical compound	Insulin	Millipore Sigma	I1882	From bovine pancreas
Chemical compound	Apo-Transferrin	Millipore Sigma	T1147	From human
Chemical compound	Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	15260037	Fraction V (7.5% solution)
Chemical compound	Progesterone	Millipore Sigma	P8783	
Chemical compound	Putrescine dihydrochloride	Millipore Sigma	P5780	
Chemical compound	Sodium selenite	Millipore Sigma	S5261	
Chemical compound	Neurobasal™	Thermo Fisher		No phenol red

		Scientific		
Chemical compound	B-27™	Thermo Fisher Scientific	12587010	(50X), minus vitamin A
Chemical compound	Penicillin-streptomycin	Thermo Fisher Scientific	15070063	(5,000 U/mL)
Chemical compound	GlutaMAX™	Thermo Fisher Scientific	35050061	(100X)
Chemical compound	2-Mercaptoethanol	Thermo Fisher Scientific	21985023	(1000X)
Chemical compound	CHIR99021	BioVision	1677-5	
Chemical compound	PD0325901	Amsbio	04-0006-02	10 mM in DMSO
Chemical compound	Recombinant Human/Murine/Rat Activin A	PeproTech	120-14	Insect derived
Chemical compound	Recombinant Human FGF-Basic (FGF-2/bFGF)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	13256-029	
Chemical compound	KnockOut™ Serum	Thermo Fisher Scientific	10828028	
Chemical compound	Glasgow's MEM (GMEM)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	11710035	
Chemical compound	Recombinant human bone morphogenetic protein 4 (BMP-4)	R&D Systems	314-BP-010	
Chemical compound	Recombinant mouse stem cell factor (SCF)	R&D Systems	455-MC-010	
Chemical compound	Recombinant human epidermal growth factor (EGF), carrier free (CF)	R&D Systems	2028-EG-200	
Chemical compound	Dulbecco's phosphate-buffered saline (DPBS)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	14040133	
Chemical compound	Deoxyribonuclease I (DNaseI)	Millipore Sigma	DN25	From bovine pancreas
Chemical compound	Trypsin (2.5%)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	15090046	No phenol red
Chemical	Soybean trypsin	Thermo	17075029	

compound	inhibitor	Fisher Scientific		
Chemical compound	Collagenase type IV	Worthington	LS004188	From *Clostridium histolyticum*
Chemical compound	Sertoli Cell Medium	ScienCell Research Laboratories	4521	
Chemical compound	Ethanol (EtOH)	Fisher	BP28184	(200 Proof)
Chemical compound	BSA	Millipore Sigma	A9085	
Chemical compound	Heat inactivated (HI) FBS	Thermo Fisher Scientific	10082147	
Chemical compound	Trypsin-EDTA (0.25%)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	25200072	With phenol red
Chemical compound	Bisphenol S (BPS)	Millipore Sigma	43034-100MG	
Chemical compound	Phenol:Chloroform:Iso amyl Alcohol (25:24:1, v/v)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	15593031	
Chemical compound	TRIzol™	Thermo Fisher Scientific	15596026	
Chemical compound	Isopropanol	Thermo Fisher Scientific	327272500	
Chemical compound	Proteinase K Solution (20 mg/mL)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	25530049	
Chemical compound	MaXtract High Density	Quiagen	129046	Phase lock gel tubes
Chemical compound	Sodium Acetate Solution	Thermo Fisher Scientific	R1181	3M, pH 5.2
Chemical compound	Glycogen (5 mg/ml)	Thermo Fisher Scientific	AM9510	
Chemical compound	NaCl	Thermo Fisher Scientific	J21618.36	
Chemical compound	Tris base	Millipore Sigma	77-86-1	
Chemical compound	Ethylenediaminetetra acetic acid (EDTA)	Millipore Sigma	E9884-100G	
Chemical	Sodium dodecyl	Millipore	151-21-3	

compound	sulfate (SDS)	Sigma		
Chemical compound	Triton X-100	Thermo Fisher Scientific	85111	
Chemical compound	RQ1 DNase	Promega	M6101	
Chemical compound	Propidium iodide	BioLegend	421301	FCy 5 µL/10^6 cells
Antibody	ERα	Thermo Fisher Scientific	MA1-310	Host: mouse, ICC 1:100
Antibody	ERβ	GeneTex	GTX70174	Host: mouse, ICC 1:100
Antibody	INHA	Invitrogen	PA5-13681	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:25
Antibody	FSHR	Affinity	AF5477	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:250
Antibody	SOX9	Abcam	ab185966	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:100
Antibody	GAPDH	Novus	NB300-221	Host: mouse, ICC 1:100
Antibody	WT1	Novus	NBP2-67587	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:100
Antibody	FUT4	GeneTex	GTX34467	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:50
Antibody	NANOG	Abcam	ab80892	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:100
Antibody	POU5F1	Abcam	ab19857	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:200
Antibody	SOX2	Abcam	ab97959	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:200
Antibody	ID4	Thermo Fisher Scientific	PA5-26976	Host: rabbit, ICC 1:50
Antibody	Goat Anti Mouse Alexa 488	Abcam		Host: goat, ICC 1:1000
Antibody	Goat Anti Rabbit Alexa 647	Abcam	ab150199	Host: goat, ICC 1:200
Antibody	FUT4 (IgM, κ), brilliant violet 421	BioLegend	125614	Host: mouse, FCy 5 µL/10^6 cells
Antibody	ITGB3 (IgG), PE	BioLegend	104307	Host: hamster, FCy 1 µL/10^6 cells
Antibody	IgM, κ Isotype control, brilliant violet 421	BioLegend	562704	Host: mouse, FCy 1.25 µL/10^6 cells
Antibody	IgG Isotype control, PE	BioLegend	400907	Host: hamster, FCy 1 µL/10^6 cells
Commercial	RNA Clean &	Zymo	R1016	

assay or kit	Concentrator-5	Research		
Commercial assay or kit	Genomic DNA Clean & Concentrator-10	Zymo Research	D4011	
Commercial assay or kit	EZ DNA Methylation Kit	Zymo Research	D5001	
Commercial assay or kit	SuperScript™ III One-Step RT-PCR System with Platinum™ Taq DNA Polymerase	Thermo Fisher Scientific	12574026	
Commercial assay or kit	PowerTrack™ SYBR Green Master Mix for qPCR	Thermo Fisher Scientific	A46109	
Commercial assay or kit	Infinium Mouse Methylation BeadChip	Illumina	20041558	
Commercial assay or kit	RNA ScreenTape & Reagents	Agilent	5067-5576	
Commercial assay or kit	DNA ScreenTape & Reagents	Agilent	5067-5583	
Commercial assay or kit	Qubit dsDNA (Broad Range) BR Assay Kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Q32850	
Commercial assay or kit	Qubit RNA (high sensitivity) HS Assay Kit	Thermo Fisher Scientific	Q32855	
Commercial assay or kit	NEBNext® Ultra™ II Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina®	New England BioLabs	E7765	
Commercial assay or kit	NEBNext® Poly(A) mRNA Magnetic Isolation Module	New England BioLabs	E3370	
Software, algorithm	ZEISS ZEN Microscopy Software	https://www.zeiss.com/microscopy/en/products/software/zeiss-zen.html	ZEN 3.7	
Software, algorithm	Primer-BLAST	https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/tools/primer-blast/		
Software, algorithm	QuantSudtio™ Design & Analysis Software	https://www.thermofisher.com/us/en/home/technical-resources/so	QuantSudtio™ v1.5.1	

		ftware-downloads/ quantstudio-3-5-real-time-pcr-systems.html		
Software, algorithm	Fiji	https://fiji.sc/	Fiji v1.54f	(Schindelin et al., 2012)
Software, algorithm	Bfastq2	https://support.illumina.com/downloads/bcl2fastq-conversion-software-v2-20.html	Bcl2fastq2 v2.20	
Software, algorithm	FastQC	https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/fastqc/	FastQC 0.12.0	(Andrews et al., 2023; Smith and de Sena Brandine, 2021)
Software, algorithm	Wg-blimp	https://github.com/MarWoes/wg-blimp	Wg-blimp v0.10.0	(Lehle and McCarrey, 2023; Wöste et al., 2020)
Software, algorithm	R-Project for Statistical Computing	http://www.r-project.org/	R 4.2.1	Packages: Sesame (Ding et al., 2023; Triche et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2022, 2018), stringr (Wickham and RStudio, 2022), kintr (Xie et al., 2023), SummarizedExperiment (Morgan et al., 2023), ggrepel (Slowikowski et al., 2023), pals (Wright, 2023), wheatmap (Zhou, 2022), tidyr (Wickham et al., 2023) magrittr (Bache et al., 2022), dplyr (Wickham et al., 2023), ggplot2 (Wickham et al., 2023),

				ggvenn (Yan, 2023), RColorBrewer (Neuwirth, 2022), RIdeogram (Hao et al., 2020), AnnotationDbi (Pagès et al., 2023), Mus.musculus (Team BC, 2015), BSgenome.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10 (Team TBD, 2021), GenomicRanges (Lawrence et al., 2013), universalmotif (Tremblay, 2023), memes (Nystrom, 2023), Plyranges (Lee et al., 2019), rtracklayer (Lawrence et al., 2009), Rsubread (Liao et al., 2019), edgeR (Chen et al., 2016; McCarthy et al., 2012; Robinson et al., 2010)

Animal procedures

Mice were used as the primary source of cells for the establishment of cultures for the analysis

of differential cell type-specific susceptibility to exposure to the EDC BPS at the cellular level. All mice

were euthanized prior to dissection and isolation of the tissue or cell type to be used for experiments.

All animals were maintained in one of the UTSA on-campus vivaria and housed under controlled

temperature and humidity conditions in a fixed 12-hour light, 12-hour dark cycle with free access to

food and water. Euthanasia was performed by trained personnel using continuous CO_2 exposure at a

rate of 3L/min until one minute after breathing had stopped. Euthanasia was confirmed by cervical

dislocation. Tissue from euthanized mice was used to obtain somatic (Sertoli, granulosa, and mouse

embryonic fibroblast [MEF]) cells, and primordial germ cells [PGCs]. Both Sertoli and granulosa cells

were isolated from respective male and female mice euthanized at postnatal day 20 (P20). MEFs and

PGCs were isolated from fetuses at embryonic day 13.5 postcoitum (E13.5).

In vitro **generation and/or culture of pluripotent, somatic, and germ cells**

Pluripotent cell culture

Male mouse iPSCs were derived from a transgenic mouse line carrying the *tetO-4F2A* cassette

obtained from The Jackson Laboratories (011011) (The Jackson Laboratory, ME USA). iPSCs can be

induced from essentially any cell type carrying this reprogrammable cassette by exposure to Doxycycline

for one week as previously described (Carey et al., 2010; Hochedlinger et al., 2005). For this project,

iPSCs were reprogrammed from MEFs isolated from a single male (XY) E13.5 mouse fetus.

Reprogrammed colonies were picked and expanded via sub-passaging. Validation of reprogrammed

pluripotency was determined by positive immunocytochemical (ICC) staining for the pluripotent markers

POU5F1, SOX2, NANOG, and FUT4 (Supplementary file 1c and 1f). Karyotyping was done on each

candidate iPSC line produced to confirm normal chromosome number and XY sex chromosome

constitution of each line prior to aliquots being prepared for long-term storage in liquid nitrogen

(Supplementary file 1d). Only male (XY) iPSC lines were used for this project. Upon thawing, iPSCs were

initially maintained on CF-1 feeder cells for a minimum of three passages. Cells were cultured in DMEM

supplemented with 15% fetal bovine serum (FBS) and 1000 U/mL leukocyte inhibitory factor (LIF). Once

pluripotent cells were stabilized in culture, they were transitioned to feeder-free conditions and were

cultured in N2B27 media supplemented with 2i and LIF for two-three passages prior to use in chemical

exposure experiments. A complete list of the media components along with catalog numbers can be

found in Supplementary file 1e.

Sertoli cell culture

Primary cultures of Sertoli cells were established as previously described (Karl and Griswold,

1990). Briefly, whole testes were dissected from juvenile mice at P20. Following removal of the tunica

albuginea from each individual testis, the bundles of seminiferous tubules were physically chopped

using a sterile razor blade to break down the coiled structure of tubules increasing the surface area and

rendering them easier to digest. These shortened fragments of seminiferous tubules were then digested

in a mixture of 2.5% trypsin and 6.64 mg/ml DNaseI in DPBS for 25 minutes at 37°C. After these enzymes

were inactivated, the tubule sections were washed multiple times, then treated with a final enzymatic

mixture of collagenase IV (0.70 mg/mL) and DNaseI (6.64 mg/mL) for 10 minutes to permeabilize the

thick collagen layer on the exterior of the seminiferous tubules to allow the Sertoli cells to migrate out

away from the tubules in culture. After checking the digested tubules under a microscope to confirm the

collagen layer had been permeabilized, the digested tubules were spun down to wash away the

enzymes, and then plated in Sertoli cell media containing retinoic acid from ScienCell^{TM} (4521)

(ScienCell^{TM} Research Laboratories, CA USA). To remove contaminating germ cells from this primary

culture, the cells were treated with hypotonic shock treatment on the morning of the second day of

culture, and the enriched Sertoli cells were washed and allowed to recover with fresh media for at least

two hours. The enriched primary cultures of Sertoli cells were then ready to be used for chemical

exposure experiments. The estimated purity of the culture was > 80% based on ICC staining for the

Sertoli cell marker SOX9 and WT1 (Supplementary file 1f). A full procedure for the establishment of

primary cultures of Sertoli cells can be found in Supplementary file 1g.

Granulosa cell culture

Primary cultures of granulosa cells were established by selecting early preantral primary follicles

from enzymatically digested ovary tissue as described previously (Monti and Redi, 2016; Roy and

Greenwald, 1996), followed by breaking selected primary follicles down into a single cell suspension that

could be plated and maintained. To isolate preantral primary follicles we dissected ovaries from female

mice at P20 and then enzymatically digested the ovary using collagenase IV (560 U/pair of ovaries) for

25 minutes at 37°C with constant agitation. This digestion was stopped by addition of buffer with 0.5%

BSA and the mixture was spun down at 60xg for 5 minutes to pellet the cells. The cells were

resuspended in PBS with 0.5% BSA and transferred to a sterile petri dish under a stereomicroscope.

Primary follicles were individually picked from the solution using a glass needle with suction control and

moved into a clean droplet of PBS containing 0.5% BSA. Selected primary follicles were then spun down

at 1000xg for 5 mins. After spinning, the supernatant was removed, and the cells were finger-vortexed

to resuspend the pellet. The follicles were then digested to single cell suspension by addition of pre-

warmed (37°C) 0.25% trypsin and incubated for 5 mins with regular pipetting followed by pelleting again

at 1000xg for 5 mins. The trypsin-containing supernatant was removed, and the granulosa cells were

resuspended in DMEM supplemented with 15% FBS and plated for maintenance in culture. The oocytes

were non-adherent and were washed away on day 2 when changing the media. The estimated purity of

the culture was > 90% based on ICC staining for the granulosa cell marker FSHR and INHA

(Supplementary file 1f). The granulosa cells were then ready to be used for EDC exposure experiments.

A full procedure for the establishment of primary cultures of granulosa cells can be found in

Supplementary file 1h.

Primordial germ cell like cell culture

Mouse iPSCs were differentiated into PGCLCs as previously described (Hayashi et al., 2011).

Briefly, iPSCs maintained in N2B27 supplemented with 2i and LIF under feeder free conditions were

differentiated to EpiLCs for two days by the addition of activin A and basic fibroblast growth factor

(bFGF) to the N2B27 media. After two days the EpiLC intermediate cells were passaged to low

adherence round bottom plates for 4 days in GK15 media containing bone morphogenic protein 4

(BMP4), stem cell factor (SCF), epidermal growth factor (EGF), and LIF to induce the differentiation of a

subset of cells (2-3%) in the resulting aggregate to become PGCLCs. During this four-day period, cell

aggregates were ready for EDC exposure (see below). Following EDC exposure, cell aggregates were

removed from the low adherence round bottom plates, dissociated into a single cell suspension, and

PGCLCs were fluorescence-activated cell sorted (FACS) on a BD FACSAria[TM] II in the UTSA Cell Analysis

Core to recover cells that were double-positive for FUT4 and ITGB3. A full list of the media components

and catalog numbers for the differentiation of iPSCs to PGCLCs along with our FACS gating for double

positive FUT/ITGB3 PGCLCs can be found in Supplementary file 1e and 1i, respectively. Additional data

demonstrating validation of PGCLCs by qRT-PCR and ICC staining are shown in Supplementary file 1j.

Immunocytochemistry (ICC)

Cells were immunolabeled as previously described (Rodig, 2022) to validate the purity of cell

primary cultures using known cell specific markers (Supplementary file 1f) detect the presence or

absence of relevant endocrine receptors ERα and ERβ at the protein level. Pluripotent (iPS) and somatic

(Sertoli and granulosa) cells were grown on 13mm Thermanox® plastic coverslips (174950) prior to

fixation, permeabilization, and immunolabeling (Nalge Nunc International, NY USA). Non-adherent germ

(PGC and PGCLC) cells were spun down onto poly-L-lysine coated slides (63410-01) at 400 RPM for one

minute using a Thermo Shandon CytoSpin III Cytocentrifuge from Rakin (Electron Microscopy Sciences,

PA USA & Rakin Biomedical Corporation, MI USA). Cells were fixed with 4% formaldehyde for 10 mins at

room temp (RT) and then washed three times for five minutes each with ICC buffer (PBS containing

0.01% Triton X-100 detergent) to permeabilize the cell and nuclear membranes prior to blocking with 5%

goat serum which was added to the ICC buffer and incubated for one hour at RT. Following blocking,

primary antibodies, in ICC buffer, were added to the slides and left to incubate overnight at 4°C. The

following day, slides were washed three times with ICC buffer, and fluorescent secondary antibodies in

ICC buffer were then added to the slides and left to incubate in the dark for 1 hour. After secondary

antibody incubation, cellular nuclei were stained with DAPI at a 1:1000 dilution in ICC buffer for 7

minutes, followed by 3 final washes with ICC buffer for 5 minutes. Coverslips then were transferred to

microscope slides and mounted with 5-10 μL of VECTASHEILD Antifade Mounting Medium (H-1000) and

sealed with clear nail polish before being imaged on a Zeiss AXIO Imager.M1 Fluorescence Microscope

(Vector Laboratories Inc, CA USA & Zeiss Group, Oberkochen DE). Images were processed for contrast

and brightness enhancement and for the addition of scale bars using Fiji (Schindelin et al., 2012).

Information about the primary and secondary antibodies along with catalogue numbers and dilutions

used can be found in the Key resources table.

Quantitative RT-PCR (qRT-PCR)

Total RNA was extracted from cells as described previously (Rio et al., 2010) and treated with 1.5

U/μg total RNA RQ1 DNase1 (M6101) to remove contaminating genomic DNA (Promega^{TM} Corporation,

WI USA). 50 ng of cleaned RNA was retrotranscribed with SuperScript™ III as recommended by the

manufacturer (Invitrogen, MA USA). Primers were designed using Primer-BLAST (Ye et al., 2012) from

NCBI. A complete list of all primer sequences used in this study can be found in Supplementary file 1j.

Relative expression levels of selected genes were assessed by real-time PCR using the PowerTrack™

SYBR Green Master Mix according to the manufacturer's instructions (Applied Biosystems, MA USA)

then run on a QuantStudio™ 5 Real-Time PCR System (Thermo Fisher Scientific, MA USA) and analyzed

with QuantStudio™ Design & Analysis Software. Each sample was normalized based on constitutive

expression of the *Gusb* reference gene to obtain the ΔCt [(2-[Ctgene-CtGusb)].

BPS exposure design

Despite numerous studies illustrating the dangers of estrogenic mimetic EDCs, the EPA has

currently not published any limits concerning the maximum acceptable dose of BPS below which

exposure on a daily basis is considered to be safe. Thus for this study, we established our initial testing

range of 1 μM, 50 μM, and 100 μM of BPS based on the limit established for BPA at ≤ 4.44 μM (Ribeiro

et al., 2019) selecting 1 dose below the established safe limit and two doses that exceed that limit. For

all cell types except PGCLCs, BPS was added to media gassed with 5% CO_2, 5% O_2, and balanced N_2 and

then injected into sealed T-25 cell culture flasks and left to incubate for 24 hours (Supplementary file

1k). The media was gassed to ensure enrichment to 5% CO_2, which is normally regulated by the cell

incubator, limiting the potential for the pH to change in the media during this exposure period due to

the absorption of CO_2 by incubating cells. Following 24 hours of exposure, media containing BPS was

removed and cells were washed and allowed to recover in fresh untreated media (without BPS or EtOH)

for 24 hours prior to harvesting. PGCLCs were not suitable for this exposure paradigm as EpiLCs undergo

differentiation to PGCLCs in cell aggregates formed in low-adherence round-bottom 96 well plates and

cannot be maintained in T-25 sealed flasks. Therefore, diluted BPS was added to PGCLC media and

added to cells in round-bottom 96 well plates to incubate for 24 hours prior to a shortened wash and

"chase" period of 8 hours prior to cell sorting.

Methylation beadchip analysis

A total of 1µg of extracted genomic DNA was bisulfite-converted with the EZ DNA Methylation

Kit (D5001) and modified according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Zymo Research, CA USA &

Illumina, CA USA). These samples were run on the Infinium Mouse Methylation BeadChip Array

following the Illumina Infinium HD Methylation protocol. This beadchip array includes 297,415 cytosine

positions within the mouse genome (CpG sites, non-CpG sites, and random SNPs). The methylation score

for each CpG is represented as a β-value which is a ratio of the fluorescence intensity ranging between 0

(unmethylated) and 1 (methylated). Arrays were scanned by HiScan (Illumina, CA USA). Quality control

(Supplementary file 1m) and downstream data processing of the .idat files was using the Sensible Step-

wise Analysis of DNA Methylation BeadChips (SeSAMe) Bioconductor package (Ding et al., 2023; Triche

et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2022, 2018). DNA methylation levels of differentially methylated cytosines

(DMCs) are determined using mixed linear models. This general supervised learning framework

identifies CpG loci whose differential methylation is associated with known control vs. treated co-

variates. CpG probes on the array were defined as having differential changes that met both p-value and

FDR ≤ 0.05 significant thresholds between treatment and control samples for each cell type analyzed.

Additionally, we followed up our DNA methylation analysis of individual dCpGs by identifying

differentially methylated regions (DMRs). DMRs were created by grouping all CpGs measured on the

array into clusters using Euclidean distance (Ding et al., 2023; Triche et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2022,

2018). The p-values from the differential methylation of individual CpGs within the resulting CpG

clusters were aggregated, and clusters were then filtered selecting for regions that contained a p-value ≤

0.05 (Ding et al., 2023; Triche et al., 2013; Zhou et al., 2022, 2018).

RNA-seq

Total RNA was extracted from cells using Trizol as previously described (Rio et al., 2010).

Contaminating genomic DNA was removed by RQ1 DNase (M6101) treatment according to the

manufacturer's instructions (Promega Corporation, WI USA). RNA concentration was determined using

Qubit (Q32855) and RNA integrity (RIN) scores were determined using tape station (5067-5576)

according to the manufacturer's instructions (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc, MA USA & Agilent

Technologies, Inc CA USA). Strand-specific RNA-seq libraries were prepared with the NEBNext® Ultra™ II

Directional RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina® sequencing (E7760S) according to the manufacturer's

protocol (New England Biolabs, MA USA). Briefly, this process consisted of poly(A) RNA selection, RNA

fragmentation, and double stranded cDNA generation using random oligo(dT) priming followed by end

repair to generate blunt ends, adaptor ligation, strand selection, and polymerase chain reaction

amplification to generate the final library. Distinct index adaptors were used for multiplexing samples

across multiple sequencing lanes. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instrument

yielding sequences of paired end 2x50 base pair runs. Demultiplexing was performed with the Illumina

Bcl2fastq2 program (Illumina, CA USA).

RNA-seq expression analysis

The quality of the fastq reads was checked using FastQC (Andrews et al., 2023; Smith and de

Sena Brandine, 2021) (Supplementary file 1n). Reads were aligned to the mm10 mouse reference

genome using the Rsubreads package to produce read counts (Liao et al., 2019). These were then used

for differential gene expression analysis using the edgeR package (Chen et al., 2016; McCarthy et al.,

2012; Robinson et al., 2010). Briefly, gene counts were normalized using the trimmed mean of M-value

normalization (TMM) method before determining counts per million (CPM) values (Robinson and

Oshlack, 2010). For a gene to be classified as showing differential gene expression between BPS-treated

and EtOH vehicle-only control samples, a threshold of both a Benjamini-Hochberg adjusted p-value ≤

0.05 and a false discovery rate (FDR) ≤ 0.05 had to be met.

EM-Seq

Genomic DNA was extracted from cells as previously described (Sambrook and Russell, 2006).

Smaller fragmented DNA (≤ 10 kb) and contaminating RNA were removed by cleaning the genomic DNA

on a genomic DNA clean and concentrator^{TM}-10 column (D4011), according to the manufacturer's

instructions (Zymo Research, CA USA). DNA concentration was determined using a Qubit (Q32850) and

genomic DNA (100 ng) was sheered using a Bioruptor® and the size of the sheered DNA was determined

using a TapeStation 4200 according to the manufacturer's instructions in the UTSA Genomics Core

(Diagenode Inc, NJ USA & Agilent Technologies, Inc CA USA). Large size (470-520 bp) EM-seq libraries

were prepared with the NEBNext® Enzymatic Methyl-seq kit (E7120S) according to the manufacturer's

protocol (New England Biolabs, MA USA). Briefly, this process consisted of A-tailing, adaptor ligation,

DNA oxidation by TET2 initiated by the addition of Fe (II), strand denaturization with formamide,

deamination by APOBEC3A, polymerase chain reaction amplification, and bead selection to generate the

final libraries. Distinct index adaptors were used for multiplexing samples across multiple sequencing

lanes. Sequencing was performed on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 instrument yielding sequences of paired

end 2x150 base pair runs. Demultiplexing was performed with the Illumina Bcl2fastq2 program

(Illumina, CA USA).

EM-Seq analysis of genome-wide DNA methylation patterns

EM-seq data was processed using the comprehensive wg-blimp v10.0.0 software pipeline (Lehle

and McCarrey, 2023; Wöste et al., 2020). In brief, reads were trimmed prior to initiating the wg-blimp

pipeline using Trim Galore (https://www.bioinformatics.babraham.ac.uk/projects/trim_galore/).

Sequenced reads were aligned to the mm10 genome using gemBS (King et al., 2020; Merkel et al., 2019;

Schilbert et al., 2020). The BAM files from alignment underwent a series of QC tests including read

quality scoring by FastQC (Andrews et al., 2023), overall and per-chromosome read coverage calculation,

GC content, duplication rate, clipping profiles by Qualimap (Okonechnikov et al., 2016), and

deduplication by the Picard toolkit (https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/) (Supplementary file 1o).

Methylation calling was performed by MethylDackel (https://github.com/dpryan79/MethylDackel) and

statistically significant DMC/DMR calling was performed by the metilene (Jühling et al., 2016) and

BSmooth (Hansen et al., 2012) algorithms. Metilene uses a binary segmentation algorithm combined

with a two-dimensional statistical test that allows the detection of DMCs/DMRs in large methylation

experiments with multiple groups of samples. BSmooth uses a local-likelihood approach to estimate a

sample-specific methylation profile, then computes estimates of the mean differences and standard

errors for each CpG to form a statistic similar to that used in a t-test. Finally, potential regulatory regions

were identified through the use of MethylSeekR (Burger et al., 2013). Results from the pipeline were

displayed in the wg-blimp interactive results web browser that was built using the R Shiny local browser

hosting framework (Chang et al., 2023).

Data availability

Methylation beadchip, EM-seq, and RNA-seq data discussed in this publication can be obtained from the

SRA BioProject (PRJNA1026145).

Article and author information

Author details

1. **Jake D. Lehle**

792   •   Department of Neuroscience, Developmental and Regenerative Biology, The University

793   of Texas at San Antonio, Texas, United States of America

794   **Contribution:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Software, Formal analysis, Validation,

795   Investigation, Visualization, Methodology, Writing – original draft

796   **Competing interests:** No competing interests declared

797   **ORCiD:** 0000-0002-0833-7068

799   2. **Yu-Huey Lin**

800   •   Department of Neuroscience, Developmental and Regenerative Biology, The University

801   of Texas at San Antonio, Texas, United States of America

802   **Contribution:** Data curation, Formal analysis, Validation, Investigation, Visualization,

803   Methodology

804   **Competing interests:** No competing interests declared

805   **ORCiD:** 0009-0003-1321-0680

807   **3. Amanda Gomez**

808   • Department of Biomedical Engineering and Chemical Engineering, The University of

809   Texas at San Antonio, Texas, United States of America

810   **Contribution:** Data curation, Software, Investigation, Visualization

811   **Competing interests:** No competing interests declared

812   **ORCiD:** 0000-0002-0767-1275

814   **4. Laura Chavez**

815   • Department of Neuroscience, Developmental and Regenerative Biology, The University

816   of Texas at San Antonio, Texas, United States of America

817   **Contribution:** Data curation, Investigation, Visualization

818   **Competing interests:** No competing interests declared

819   **ORCiD:** 0000-0001-6174-0430

821   **5. John R. McCarrey**

822   • Department of Neuroscience, Developmental and Regenerative Biology, The University

823   of Texas at San Antonio, Texas, United States of America

Contribution: Conceptualization, Supervision, Funding acquisition, Project administration

For correspondence: John.McCarrey@utsa.edu

Competing interests: No competing interests declared

ORCiD: 0000-0002-5784-9318

Funding

National Institute of Health

NICHD P50 (HD98593)

• John R. McCarrey

National Institute of Health

NIDA (U01DA054179)

• John R. McCarrey

Robert J. and Helen C. Kleberg Foundation

• John R. McCarrey

Nancy Hurd Smith Foundation

• John R. McCarrey

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by grants from the NIH to JRM (HD98593 and DA054179), and gifts from the

Robert J. Kleberg, Jr. and Helen C. Kleberg Foundation and the Nancy Hurd Smith Foundation. The

authors would like to thank: Michael Klein and the Genomics Core Facility and staff at the University of

Utah for their assistance with processing the Illumina Infinium Mouse Methylation Beadchip Array

samples; Sean Vargas at the UTSA Genomics core for his expertise and supervision for utilizing

equipment to prepare sequencing libraries; Dr. Sandra Cardona at the UTSA Cell Analysis Core for her

expertise and supervision performing FACS to isolate cells; Dr. Brian Herman for use of his fluorescent

microscope for the collection of images; and Dr. Brian Bringham for biostatistics advice. This work

received computational support from UTSA's HPC cluster Arc, operated by Tech Solutions. Sequencing

data in this study was generated at the UT Health Genome Sequencing Facility, which is supported by UT

Health San Antonio, NIH-NCI P30 CA054174 (Cancer Center at UT Health San Antonio) and NIH Shared

Instrument grant S10OD030311 (S10 grant to NovaSeq 6000 System), and CPRIT Core Facility Award

(RP220662).

Ethics

All experimental procedures involving animals were approved in advance by the UTSA IACUC (Protocols

MU015 and MU016).

References:

Almeida M, Pintacuda G, Masui O, Koseki Y, Gdula M, Cerase A, Brown D, Mould A, Innocent C,

Nakayama M, Schermelleh L, Nesterova TB, Koseki H, Brockdorff N. 2017. PCGF3/5-PRC1 initiates

Polycomb recruitment in X chromosome inactivation. *Science (80-)* **356**:1081–1084.

doi:10.1126/science.aal2512

Andrews S, Krueger F, Segonds-Pichon A, Biggins L, Krueger C, Montgomery J. 2023. Babraham

Bioinformatics - FastQC A Quality Control tool for High Throughput Sequence Data.

Anway MD, Leathers C, Skinner MK. 2006. Endocrine disruptor vinclozolin induced epigenetic

transgenerational adult-onset disease. *Endocrinology* **147**:5515–5523. doi:10.1210/en.2006-0640

Bache S, Wickham H, Henry L, Rstudio. 2022. magrittr: A Forward-Pipe Operator for R.

Bao M, Cornwall-Scoones J, Sanchez-Vasquez E, Chen DY, De Jonghe J, Shadkhoo S, Hollfelder F,

Thomson M, Glover DM, Zernicka-Goetz M. 2022. Stem cell-derived synthetic embryos self-

assemble by exploiting cadherin codes and cortical tension. *Nat Cell Biol* **24**:1341–1349.

doi:10.1038/S41556-022-00984-Y

Beamish SB, Frick KM. 2022. A Putative Role for Ubiquitin-Proteasome Signaling in Estrogenic Memory

Regulation. *Front Behav Neurosci* **15**:807215. doi:10.3389/FNBEH.2021.807215/BIBTEX

Bourdeau V, Deschênes J, Métivier R, Nagai Y, Nguyen D, Bretschneider N, Gannon F, White JH, Mader S.

2004. Genome-Wide Identification of High-Affinity Estrogen Response Elements in Human and

Mouse. *Mol Endocrinol* **18**:1411–1427. doi:10.1210/ME.2003-0441

Brenker C, Rehfeld A, Schiffer C, Kierzek M, Kaupp UB, Skakkebæk NE, Strünker T. 2018. Synergistic

activation of CatSper Ca2+ channels in human sperm by oviductal ligands and endocrine disrupting

chemicals. *Hum Reprod* **33**:1915–1923. doi:10.1093/humrep/dey275

Burger L, Gaidatzis D, Schübeler D, Stadler MB. 2013. Identification of active regulatory regions from

DNA methylation data. *Nucleic Acids Res* **41**:e155–e155. doi:10.1093/NAR/GKT599

Cantone I, Fisher AG. 2013. Epigenetic programming and reprogramming during development. *Nat*

Struct Mol Biol. doi:10.1038/nsmb.2489

Carey BW, Markoulaki S, Beard C, Hanna J, Jaenisch R. 2010. Single-gene transgenic mouse strains for

reprogramming adult somatic cells. *Nat Methods* **7**:56–59. doi:10.1038/NMETH.1410

Chamorro-García R, Poupin N, Tremblay-Franco M, Canlet C, Egusquiza R, Gautier R, Jouanin I, Shoucri

BM, Blumberg B, Zalko D. 2021. Transgenerational metabolomic fingerprints in mice ancestrally

exposed to the obesogen TBT. *Environ Int* **157**. doi:10.1016/J.ENVINT.2021.106822

Chang RC, Egusquiza RJ, Huang Y, Amato AA, Joloya EM, Wheeler HB, Nguyen A, Shioda K, Odajima J,

Shioda T, Blumberg B. 2022. Heritable changes in chromatin contacts linked to transgenerational

obesity. *bioRxiv* 2022.10.27.514145. doi:10.1101/2022.10.27.514145

Chang W, Cheng J, Allaire J, Sievert C, Schloerke B, Xie Y, Allen J, McPherson J, Dipert A, Borges B,

Software P, PBC. 2023. shiny: Web Application Framework for R.

Chen Y, Lun ATL, Smyth GK, Burden CJ, Ryan DP, Khang TF, Lianoglou S. 2016. From reads to genes to

pathways: differential expression analysis of RNA-Seq experiments using Rsubread and the edgeR

quasi-likelihood pipeline. *F1000Research 2016 51438* **5**:1438. doi:10.12688/f1000research.8987.2

Davaapil H, Shetty DK, Sinha S. 2020. Aortic "Disease-in-a-Dish": Mechanistic Insights and Drug

Development Using iPSC-Based Disease Modeling. *Front Cell Dev Biol* **8**.

doi:10.3389/FCELL.2020.550504

Deb P, Bhan A, Hussain I, Ansari KI, Bobzean SA, Pandita TK, Perrotti LI, Mandal SS. 2016. Endocrine

disrupting chemical, bisphenol-A, induces breast cancer associated gene HOXB9 expression in vitro

and in vivo. *Gene* **590**:234–243. doi:10.1016/j.gene.2016.05.009

Diaz-Castillo C, Chamorro-Garcia R, Shioda T, Blumberg B. 2019. Transgenerational Self-Reconstruction

of Disrupted Chromatin Organization After Exposure To An Environmental Stressor in Mice. *Sci*

Reports 2019 91 **9**:1–15. doi:10.1038/s41598-019-49440-2

Ding W, Kaur D, Horvath S, Zhou W. 2023. Comparative epigenome analysis using Infinium DNA

methylation BeadChips. *Brief Bioinform* **24**. doi:10.1093/BIB/BBAC617

Dunham I, Kundaje A, Aldred SF, Collins PJ, Davis CA, Doyle F, Epstein CB, Frietze S, Harrow J, Kaul R,

Khatun J, Lajoie BR, Landt SG, Lee BK, Pauli F, Rosenbloom KR, Sabo P, Safi A, Sanyal A, Shoresh N,

Simon JM, Song L, Trinklein ND, Altshuler RC, Birney E, Brown JB, Cheng C, Djebali S, Dong X, Ernst

J, Furey TS, Gerstein M, Giardine B, Greven M, Hardison RC, Harris RS, Herrero J, Hoffman MM, Iyer

S, Kellis M, Kheradpour P, Lassmann T, Li Q, Lin X, Marinov GK, Merkel A, Mortazavi A, Parker SCJ,

Reddy TE, Rozowsky J, Schlesinger F, Thurman RE, Wang J, Ward LD, Whitfield TW, Wilder SP, Wu

W, Xi HS, Yip KY, Zhuang J, Bernstein BE, Green ED, Gunter C, Snyder M, Pazin MJ, Lowdon RF,

Dillon LAL, Adams LB, Kelly CJ, Zhang J, Wexler JR, Good PJ, Feingold EA, Crawford GE, Dekker J,

Elnitski L, Farnham PJ, Giddings MC, Gingeras TR, Guigó R, Hubbard TJ, Kent WJ, Lieb JD, Margulies

EH, Myers RM, Stamatoyannopoulos JA, Tenenbaum SA, Weng Z, White KP, Wold B, Yu Y, Wrobel J,

Risk BA, Gunawardena HP, Kuiper HC, Maier CW, Xie L, Chen X, Mikkelsen TS, Gillespie S, Goren A,

Ram O, Zhang X, Wang L, Issner R, Coyne MJ, Durham T, Ku M, Truong T, Eaton ML, Dobin A, Tanzer

A, Lagarde J, Lin W, Xue C, Williams BA, Zaleski C, Röder M, Kokocinski F, Abdelhamid RF, Alioto T,

Antoshechkin I, Baer MT, Batut P, Bell I, Bell K, Chakrabortty S, Chrast J, Curado J, Derrien T,

Drenkow J, Dumais E, Dumais J, Duttagupta R, Fastuca M, Fejes-Toth K, Ferreira P, Foissac S,

Fullwood MJ, Gao H, Gonzalez D, Gordon A, Howald C, Jha S, Johnson R, Kapranov P, King B,

Kingswood C, Li G, Luo OJ, Park E, Preall JB, Presaud K, Ribeca P, Robyr D, Ruan X, Sammeth M,

Sandhu KS, Schaeffer L, See LH, Shahab A, Skancke J, Suzuki AM, Takahashi H, Tilgner H, Trout D,

Walters N, Wang H, Hayashizaki Y, Reymond A, Antonarakis SE, Hannon GJ, Ruan Y, Carninci P,

Sloan CA, Learned K, Malladi VS, Wong MC, Barber GP, Cline MS, Dreszer TR, Heitner SG, Karolchik

D, Kirkup VM, Meyer LR, Long JC, Maddren M, Raney BJ, Grasfeder LL, Giresi PG, Battenhouse A,

Sheffield NC, Showers KA, London D, Bhinge AA, Shestak C, Schaner MR, Kim SK, Zhang ZZ,

Mieczkowski PA, Mieczkowska JO, Liu Z, McDaniell RM, Ni Y, Rashid NU, Kim MJ, Adar S, Zhang

Zhancheng, Wang T, Winter D, Keefe D, Iyer VR, Zheng M, Wang P, Gertz J, Vielmetter J, Partridge

EC, Varley KE, Gasper C, Bansal A, Pepke S, Jain P, Amrhein H, Bowling KM, Anaya M, Cross MK,

Muratet MA, Newberry KM, McCue K, Nesmith AS, Fisher-Aylor KI, Pusey B, DeSalvo G, Parker SL,

Balasubramanian Sreeram, Davis NS, Meadows SK, Eggleston T, Newberry JS, Levy SE, Absher DM,

Wong WH, Blow MJ, Visel A, Pennachio LA, Petrykowska HM, Abyzov A, Aken B, Barrell D, Barson

G, Berry A, Bignell A, Boychenko V, Bussotti G, Davidson C, Despacio-Reyes G, Diekhans M, Ezkurdia

I, Frankish A, Gilbert J, Gonzalez JM, Griffiths E, Harte R, Hendrix DA, Hunt T, Jungreis I, Kay M,

Khurana E, Leng J, Lin MF, Loveland J, Lu Z, Manthravadi D, Mariotti M, Mudge J, Mukherjee G,

Notredame C, Pei B, Rodriguez JM, Saunders G, Sboner A, Searle S, Sisu C, Snow C, Steward C,

Tapanari E, Tress ML, Van Baren MJ, Washietl S, Wilming L, Zadissa A, Zhang Zhengdong, Brent M,

Haussler D, Valencia A, Addleman N, Alexander RP, Auerbach RK, Balasubramanian Suganthi,

Bettinger K, Bhardwaj N, Boyle AP, Cao AR, Cayting P, Charos A, Cheng Y, Eastman C, Euskirchen G,

Fleming JD, Grubert F, Habegger L, Hariharan M, Harmanci A, Iyengar S, Jin VX, Karczewski KJ,

Kasowski M, Lacroute P, Lam H, Lamarre-Vincent N, Lian J, Lindahl-Allen M, Min R, Miotto B,

Monahan H, Moqtaderi Z, Mu XJ, O'Geen H, Ouyang Z, Patacsil D, Raha D, Ramirez L, Reed B, Shi M,

Slifer T, Witt H, Wu L, Xu X, Yan KK, Yang X, Struhl K, Weissman SM, Penalva LO, Karmakar S,

Bhanvadia RR, Choudhury A, Domanus M, Ma L, Moran J, Victorsen A, Auer T, Centanin L,

Eichenlaub M, Gruhl F, Heermann S, Hoeckendorf B, Inoue D, Kellner T, Kirchmaier S, Mueller C,

Reinhardt R, Schertel L, Schneider S, Sinn R, Wittbrodt B, Wittbrodt J, Jain G, Balasundaram G,

Bates DL, Byron R, Canfield TK, Diegel MJ, Dunn D, Ebersol AK, Frum T, Garg K, Gist E, Hansen RS,

Boatman L, Haugen E, Humbert R, Johnson AK, Johnson EM, Kutyavin T V., Lee K, Lotakis D,

Maurano MT, Neph SJ, Neri F V., Nguyen ED, Qu H, Reynolds AP, Roach V, Rynes E, Sanchez ME,

Sandstrom RS, Shafer AO, Stergachis AB, Thomas S, Vernot B, Vierstra J, Vong S, Wang Hao,

Weaver MA, Yan Y, Zhang M, Akey JM, Bender M, Dorschner MO, Groudine M, MacCoss MJ, Navas

P, Stamatoyannopoulos G, Beal K, Brazma A, Flicek P, Johnson N, Lukk M, Luscombe NM, Sobral D,

Vaquerizas JM, Batzoglou S, Sidow A, Hussami N, Kyriazopoulou-Panagiotopoulou S, Libbrecht MW,

Schaub MA, Miller W, Bickel PJ, Banfai B, Boley NP, Huang H, Li JJ, Noble WS, Bilmes JA, Buske OJ,

Sahu AD, Kharchenko P V., Park PJ, Baker D, Taylor J, Lochovsky L. 2012. An integrated

encyclopedia of DNA elements in the human genome. *Nature* **489**:57–74.

doi:10.1038/NATURE11247

Filardo EJ, Quinn JA, Raymond Frackelton A, Bland KI. 2002. Estrogen action via the G protein-coupled

receptor, GPR30: stimulation of adenylyl cyclase and cAMP-mediated attenuation of the epidermal

growth factor receptor-to-MAPK signaling axis. *Mol Endocrinol* **16**:70–84.

doi:10.1210/MEND.16.1.0758

Gassner FX, Reifenstein ECJ, Algeo JW, Mattox WE. 1958. Effects of hormones on growth, fattening, and

meat production potential of livestock - PubMed. *Recent Prog Horm Res* **14**:183–210; discussion

210-7.

Goodman M, Mandel JS, Desesso JM, Scialli AR. 2014. Atrazine and pregnancy outcomes: A systematic

review of epidemiologic evidence. *Birth Defects Res Part B - Dev Reprod Toxicol*.

doi:10.1002/bdrb.21101

Gpr107 (G protein-coupled receptor 107) - Rat Genome Database. n.d.

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1305882

Gpr161 (G protein-coupled receptor 161) - Rat Genome Database. n.d.

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1563245

Gpr89b (G protein-coupled receptor 89B) - Rat Genome Database. n.d.

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1304837

Gprc5a (G protein-coupled receptor, class C, group 5, member A) - Rat Genome Database. n.d.

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1310804

Gprc5b (G protein-coupled receptor, class C, group 5, member B) - Rat Genome Database. n.d.

https://rgd.mcw.edu/rgdweb/report/gene/main.html?id=1309510

Guerrero-Bosagna C, Covert TR, Haque MM, Settles M, Nilsson EE, Anway MD, Skinner MK. 2012.

Epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of vinclozolin induced mouse adult onset disease and

associated sperm epigenome biomarkers. *Reprod Toxicol* **34**:694–707.

doi:10.1016/j.reprotox.2012.09.005

Hajkova P. 2011. Epigenetic reprogramming in the germline: Towards the ground state of the

epigenome. *Philos Trans R Soc B Biol Sci*. doi:10.1098/rstb.2011.0042

Hansen KD, Langmead B, Irizarry RA. 2012. BSmooth: from whole genome bisulfite sequencing reads to

differentially methylated regions. doi:10.1186/gb-2012-13-10-R83

Hao Z, Lv D, Ge Y, Shi J, Dolf W, Yu G, Chen J. 2020. RIdeogram: Drawing SVG Graphics to Visualize and

Map Genome-Wide Data on Idiograms.

Hayashi K, Ohta H, Kurimoto K, Aramaki S, Saitou M. 2011. Reconstitution of the mouse germ cell

specification pathway in culture by pluripotent stem cells. *Cell* **146**:519–532.

doi:10.1016/j.cell.2011.06.052

Henley D V, Korach KS. 2010. Physiological effects and mechanisms of action of endocrine disrupting

chemicals that alter estrogen signaling. *Hormones* **9**:191–205. doi:10.14310/horm.2002.1270

Hochedlinger K, Yamada Y, Beard C, Jaenisch R. 2005. Ectopic Expression of Oct-4 Blocks Progenitor-Cell

Differentiation and Causes Dysplasia in Epithelial Tissues. *Cell* **121**:465–477.

doi:10.1016/J.CELL.2005.02.018

Huang W, Zhao C, Zhong H, Zhang S, Xia Y, Cai Z. 2019. Bisphenol S induced epigenetic and

transcriptional changes in human breast cancer cell line MCF-7. *Environ Pollut* **246**:697–703.

doi:10.1016/j.envpol.2018.12.084

Ishikura Y, Yabuta Y, Ohta H, Hayashi K, Nakamura T, Okamoto I, Yamamoto T, Kurimoto K, Shirane K,

Sasaki H, Saitou M. 2016. In Vitro Derivation and Propagation of Spermatogonial Stem Cell Activity

from Mouse Pluripotent Stem Cells. *Cell Rep* **17**:2789–2804.

Jühling F, Kretzmer H, Bernhart SH, Otto C, Stadler PF, Hoffmann S. 2016. metilene: fast and sensitive

calling of differentially methylated regions from bisulfite sequencing data. *Genome Res* **26**:256.

doi:10.1101/GR.196394.115

Kabir ER, Rahman MS, Rahman I. 2015. A review on endocrine disruptors and their possible impacts on

human health. *Environ Toxicol Pharmacol*. doi:10.1016/j.etap.2015.06.009

Karaman EF, Ozden S. 2019. Alterations in global DNA methylation and metabolism-related genes

caused by zearalenone in MCF7 and MCF10F cells. *Mycotoxin Res* **35**:309–20. doi:10.1007/s12550-

019-00358-8

Karl AF, Griswold MD. 1990. Sertoli cells of the testis: preparation of cell cultures and effects of

retinoids. *Methods Enzymol* **190**:71–75. doi:10.1016/0076-6879(90)90010-X

Kelce, William R, Stone, Christy R, Laws, Susan C, Gray, Earl. 1995. Persistent DDT metabolite p,p'-DDE is

a potent androgen receptor antagonist. *Nature* **375**:6532–581.

King DJ, Freimanis G, Lasecka-Dykes L, Asfor A, Ribeca P, Waters R, King DP, Laing E. 2020. A Systematic

Evaluation of High-Throughput Sequencing Approaches to Identify Low-Frequency Single

Nucleotide Variants in Viral Populations. *Viruses* **12**. doi:10.3390/V12101187

Kurimoto K, Saitou M. 2018. Epigenome regulation during germ cell specification and development from

pluripotent stem cells. *Curr Opin Genet Dev* **52**:57–64. doi:10.1016/J.GDE.2018.06.004

Lau KYC, Rubinstein H, Gantner CW, Hadas R, Amadei G, Stelzer Y, Zernicka-Goetz M. 2022. Mouse

embryo model derived exclusively from embryonic stem cells undergoes neurulation and heart

development. *Cell Stem Cell* **29**:1445-1458.e8. doi:10.1016/J.STEM.2022.08.013

Lawrence M, Gentleman R, Carey V. 2009. rtracklayer: an R package for interfacing with genome

browsers. *Bioinformatics* **25**:1841–1842. doi:10.1093/BIOINFORMATICS/BTP328

Lawrence M, Huber W, Pagès H, Aboyoun P, Carlson M, Gentleman R, Morgan MT, Carey VJ. 2013.

Software for Computing and Annotating Genomic Ranges. *PLOS Comput Biol* **9**:e1003118.

doi:10.1371/JOURNAL.PCBI.1003118

Lee HJ, Hore TA, Reik W. 2014. Reprogramming the methylome: erasing memory and creating diversity.

Cell Stem Cell **14**:710–9. doi:10.1016/j.stem.2014.05.008

Lee S, Cook D, Lawrence M. 2019. Plyranges: A grammar of genomic data transformation. *Genome Biol*

20:1–10. doi:10.1186/S13059-018-1597-8/FIGURES/5

Lehle JD, McCarrey JR. 2023. Accelerating the alignment processing speed of the comprehensive end-to-

end whole-genome bisulfite sequencing pipeline, wg-blimp. *Biol Methods Protoc* **8**.

doi:10.1093/BIOMETHODS/BPAD012

Liao Y, Smyth GK, Shi W. 2019. The R package Rsubread is easier, faster, cheaper and better for

alignment and quantification of RNA sequencing reads. *Nucleic Acids Res* **47**.

doi:10.1093/NAR/GKZ114

Mason CE, Shu FJ, Wang C, Session RM, Kallen RG, Sidell N, Yu T, Liu MH, Cheung E, Kallen CB. 2010.

Location analysis for the estrogen receptor-α reveals binding to diverse ERE sequences and

widespread binding within repetitive DNA elements. *Nucleic Acids Res* **38**:2355.

doi:10.1093/NAR/GKP1188

McCarthy DJ, Chen Y, Smyth GK. 2012. Differential expression analysis of multifactor RNA-Seq

experiments with respect to biological variation. *Nucleic Acids Res* **40**:4288–4297.

doi:10.1093/NAR/GKS042

Meccariello R, Chianese R, Chioccarelli T, Ciaramella V, Fasano S, Pierantoni R, Cobellis G. 2014. Intra-

testicular signals regulate germ cell progression and production of qualitatively mature

spermatozoa in vertebrates. *Front Endocrinol (Lausanne)*. doi:10.3389/fendo.2014.00069

Merkel A, Fernández-Callejo M, Casals E, Marco-Sola S, Schuyler R, Gut IG, Heath SC. 2019. gemBS: high

throughput processing for DNA methylation data from bisulfite sequencing. *Bioinformatics* **35**:737–

742. doi:10.1093/BIOINFORMATICS/BTY690

Molina L, Figueroa CD, Bhoola KD, Ehrenfeld P. 2017. GPER-1/GPR30 a novel estrogen receptor sited in

the cell membrane: therapeutic coupling to breast cancer. *Expert Opin Ther Targets* **21**:755–766.

doi:10.1080/14728222.2017.1350264

Monti M, Redi CA. 2016. Isolation and Characterization of Mouse Antral Oocytes Based on Nucleolar

Chromatin Organization. *J Vis Exp* **2016**. doi:10.3791/53616

Morgan M, Obenchain V, Hester J, Pagès H. 2023. SummarizedExperiment container.

Myers RM, Stamatoyannopoulos J, Snyder M, Dunham I, Hardison RC, Bernstein BE, Gingeras TR, Kent

WJ, Birney E, Wold B, Crawford GE, Epstein CB, Shoresh N, Ernst J, Mikkelsen TS, Kheradpour P,

Zhang X, Wang L, Issner R, Coyne MJ, Durham T, Ku M, Truong T, Ward LD, Altshuler RC, Lin MF,

Kellis M, Davis CA, Kapranov P, Dobin A, Zaleski C, Schlesinger F, Batut P, Chakrabortty S, Jha S, Lin

W, Drenkow J, Wang Huaien, Bell K, Bell I, Gao H, Dumais E, Dumais J, Antonarakis SE, Ucla C, Borel

C, Guigo R, Djebali S, Lagarde J, Kingswood C, Ribeca P, Sammeth M, Alioto T, Merkel A, Tilgner H,

Carninci P, Hayashizaki Y, Lassmann T, Takahashi H, Abdelhamid RF, Hannon G, Fejes KT, Preall J,

Gordon A, Sotirova V, Reymond A, Howald C, Graison EAY, Chrast J, Ruan Y, Ruan X, Shahab A, Poh

WT, Wei CL, Furey TS, Boyle AP, Sheffield NC, Song L, Shibata Y, Vales T, Winter D, Zhang Z, London

D, Wang Tianyuan, Keefe D, Iyer VR, Lee BK, McDaniell RM, Liu Z, Battenhouse A, Bhinge AA, Lieb

JD, Grasfeder LL, Showers KA, Giresi PG, Kim SKC, Shestak C, Pauli F, Reddy TE, Gertz J, Partridge

EC, Jain P, Sprouse RO, Bansal A, Pusey B, Muratet MA, Varley KE, Bowling KM, Newberry KM,

Nesmith AS, Dilocker JA, Parker SL, Waite LL, Thibeault K, Roberts K, Absher DM, Mortazavi A,

Williams B, Marinov G, Trout D, King B, McCue K, Kirilusha A, DeSalvo G, Fisher KA, Amrhein H,

Pepke S, Vielmetter J, Sherlock G, Sidow A, Batzoglou S, Rauch R, Kundaje A, Libbrecht M,

Margulies EH, Parker SCJ, Elnitski L, Green ED, Hubbard T, Harrow J, Searle S, Parker SCJ, Aken B,

Frankish A, Hunt T, Despacio-Reyes G, Kay M, Mukherjee G, Bignell A, Saunders G, Boychenko V,

Brent M, van Baren MJ, Brown RH, Gerstein M, Khurana E, Balasubramanian S, Lam H, Cayting P,

Robilotto R, Lu Z, Derrien T, Tanzer A, Knowles DG, Mariotti M, Haussler D, Harte R, Diekhans M,

Lin M, Valencia A, Tress M, Rodriguez JM, Raha D, Shi M, Euskirchen G, Grubert F, Kasowski M, Lian

J, Lacroute P, Xu Y, Monahan H, Patacsil D, Slifer T, Yang X, Charos A, Reed B, Wu L, Auerbach RK,

Habegger L, Hariharan M, Rozowsky J, Abyzov A, Weissman SM, Struhl K, Lamarre-Vincent N,

Lindahl-Allen M, Miotto B, Moqtaderi Z, Fleming JD, Newburger P, Farnham PJ, Frietze S, O'Geen H,

Xu X, Blahnik KR, Cao AR, Iyengar S, Kaul R, Thurman RE, Wang Hao, Navas PA, Sandstrom R, Sabo

PJ, Weaver M, Canfield T, Lee K, Neph S, Roach V, Reynolds A, Johnson A, Rynes E, Giste E, Vong S,

Neri J, Frum T, Nguyen ED, Ebersol AK, Sanchez ME, Sheffer HH, Lotakis D, Haugen E, Humbert R,

Kutyavin T, Shafer T, Noble WS, Dekker J, Lajoie BR, Sanyal A, Rosenbloom KR, Dreszer TR, Raney

BJ, Barber GP, Meyer LR, Sloan CA, Malladi VS, Cline MS, Learned K, Swing VK, Zweig AS, Rhead B,

Fujita PA, Roskin K, Karolchik D, Kuhn RM, Wilder SP, Sobral D, Herrero J, Beal K, Lukk M, Brazma A,

Vaquerizas JM, Luscombe NM, Bickel PJ, Boley N, Brown JB, Li Q, Huang H, Sboner A, Yip KY, Cheng

C, Yan KK, Bhardwaj N, Wang Jing, Lochovsky L, Jee J, Gibson T, Leng J, Du J, Harris RS, Song G,

Miller W, Suh B, Paten B, Hoffman MM, Buske OJ, Weng Z, Dong X, Wang Jie, Xi H, Tenenbaum SA,

Doyle F, Chittur S, Penalva LO, Tullius TD, White KP, Karmakar S, Victorsen A, Jameel N, Bild N,

Grossman RL, Collins PJ, Trinklein ND, Giddings MC, Khatun J, Maier C, Wang Ting, Whitfield TW,

Chen X, Yu Y, Gunawardena H, Feingold EA, Lowdon RF, Dillon LAL, Good PJ, Risk B. 2011. A user's

guide to the encyclopedia of DNA elements (ENCODE). *PLoS Biol* **9**.

doi:10.1371/JOURNAL.PBIO.1001046

Neuwirth E. 2022. RColorBrewer: ColorBrewer Palettes.

Nilsson EE, Anway MD, Stanfield J, Skinner MK. 2008. Transgenerational epigenetic effects of the

endocrine disruptor vinclozolin on pregnancies and female adult onset disease. *Reproduction*

135:713–721. doi:10.1530/REP-07-0542

Nystrom S. 2023. motif matching, comparison, and de novo discovery using the MEME Suite.

Ohta H, Kurimoto K, Okamoto I, Nakamura T, Yabuta Y, Miyauchi H, Yamamoto T, Okuno Y, Hagiwara M,

Shirane K, Sasaki H, Saitou M. 2017. In vitro expansion of mouse primordial germ cell- like cells

recapitulates an epigenetic blank slate. *EMBO J* **36**:1888–1907. doi:10.15252/embj

Okonechnikov K, Conesa A, García-Alcalde F. 2016. Qualimap 2: advanced multi-sample quality control

for high-throughput sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* **32**:292–294.

doi:10.1093/BIOINFORMATICS/BTV566

Ozgyin L, Erdos E, Bojcsuk D, Balint BL. 2015. Nuclear receptors in transgenerational epigenetic

inheritance. *Prog Biophys Mol Biol*. doi:10.1016/j.pbiomolbio.2015.02.012

Pagès H, Carlson M, Falcon S, Li N. 2023. AnnotationDbi: Manipulation of SQLite-based annotations in

Bioconductor. doi:10.18129/B9.bioc.AnnotationDbi

Patrat C, Okamoto I, Diabangouaya P, Vialon V, Le Baccon P, Chow J, Heard E. 2009. Dynamic changes in

paternal X-chromosome activity during imprinted X-chromosome inactivation in mice. *Proc Natl*

Acad Sci U S A **106**:5198–5203. doi:10.1073/pnas.0810683106

Picard Tools - By Broad Institute. n.d. https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/

Ribeiro E, Delgadinho M, Brito M. 2019. Environmentally Relevant Concentrations of Bisphenol A

Interact with Doxorubicin Transcriptional Effects in Human Cell Lines. *Toxics* **7**.

doi:10.3390/TOXICS7030043

Rio DC, Ares M, Hannon GJ, Nilsen TW. 2010. Purification of RNA using TRIzol (TRI Reagent). *Cold Spring*

Harb Protoc **5**:1–4. doi:10.1101/pdb.prot5439

Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK. 2010. edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential expression

analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics* **26**:139–140.

doi:10.1093/BIOINFORMATICS/BTP616

Robinson MD, Oshlack A. 2010. A scaling normalization method for differential expression analysis of

RNA-seq data. *Genome Biol* **11**:1–9. doi:10.1186/GB-2010-11-3-R25/FIGURES/3

Rodig SJ. 2022. Cell Staining. *Cold Spring Harb Protoc* **2022**:pdb.top099606. doi:10.1101/PDB.TOP099606

Roy SK, Greenwald GS. 1996. Methods of separation and in-vitro culture of pre-antral follicles from

mammalian ovaries. *Hum Reprod Update* **2**:236–245.

Ryan D. n.d. MethylDackel: A (mostly) universal methylation extractor for BS-seq experiments.

https://github.com/dpryan79/MethylDackel

Sambrook J, Russell DW. 2006. Purification of Nucleic Acids by Extraction with Phenol:Chloroform. *Cold*

Spring Harb Protoc **2006**. doi:10.1101/PDB.PROT4455

Santos F, Hendrich B, Reik W, Dean W. 2002. Dynamic Reprogramming of DNA Methylation in the Early

Mouse Embryo. *Dev Biol* **241**:172–82. doi:10.1006/dbio.2001.0501

Sanz LA, Kota SK, Feil R. 2010. Genome-wide DNA demethylation in mammals. *Genome Biol* **11**.

doi:10.1186/gb-2010-11-3-110

Schilbert HM, Rempel A, Pucker B. 2020. Comparison of Read Mapping and Variant Calling Tools for the

Analysis of Plant NGS Data. *Plants 2020, Vol 9, Page 439* **9**:439. doi:10.3390/PLANTS9040439

Schindelin J, Arganda-Carreras I, Frise E, Kaynig V, Longair M, Pietzsch T, Preibisch S, Rueden C, Saalfeld

S, Schmid B, Tinevez JY, White DJ, Hartenstein V, Eliceiri K, Tomancak P, Cardona A. 2012. Fiji: an

open-source platform for biological-image analysis. *Nat Methods 2012 97* **9**:676–682.

doi:10.1038/nmeth.2019

Senyildiz M, Karaman EF, Bas SS, Pirincci PA, Ozden S. 2017. Effects of BPA on global DNA methylation

and global histone 3 lysine modifications in SH-SY5Y cells: An epigenetic mechanism linking the

regulation of chromatin modifiying genes. *Toxicol Vitr* **44**:313–321. doi:10.1016/j.tiv.2017.07.028

Sloan CA, Chan ET, Davidson JM, Malladi VS, Strattan JS, Hitz BC, Gabdank I, Narayanan AK, Ho M, Lee

BT, Rowe LD, Dreszer TR, Roe G, Podduturi NR, Tanaka F, Hong EL, Cherry JM. 2016. ENCODE data

at the ENCODE portal. *Nucleic Acids Res* **44**:D726–D732. doi:10.1093/NAR/GKV1160

Slowikowski K, Schep A, Hughes S, Dang TK, Lukauskas S, Irisson J-O, Kamvar ZN, Ryan T, Christophe D,

Hiroaki Y, Gramme P, Abdol AM, Barrett M, Cannoodt R, Krassowski M, Chirico M, Aphalo P. 2023.

ggrepel: Automatically Position Non-Overlapping Text Labels with "ggplot2."

Smith AD, de Sena Brandine G. 2021. Falco: High-speed FastQC emulation for quality control of

sequencing data. *F1000Research* **8**. doi:10.12688/F1000RESEARCH.21142.2/DOI

Song A, Ona J, Osuna C, Phandthong R, Talbot P. 2023. Establishing a Disease-in-a-Dish Model to Study

SARS-CoV-2 Infection During Prenatal Development. *Curr Protoc* **3**. doi:10.1002/CPZ1.759

Song K-H, Lee K, Choi H-S. 2011. Endocrine Disrupter Bisphenol A Induces Orphan Nuclear Receptor

Nur77 Gene Expression and Steroidogenesis in Mouse Testicular Leydig Cells. *Endocrinology*

143:2208–2215. doi:10.1210/endo.143.6.8847

Swedenborg E, Rüegg J, Mäkelä S, Pongratz I. 2009. Endocrine disruptive chemicals: mechanisms of

action and involvement in metabolic disorders. *J Mol Endocrinol* **43**:1–10. doi:10.1677/jme-08-

0132

Team BC. 2015. Mus.musculus: Annotation package for the Mus.musculus object.

doi:10.18129/B9.bioc.Mus.musculus

Team TBD. 2021. BSgenome.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10: Full genome sequences for Mus musculus (UCSC

version mm10, based on GRCm38.p6). doi:10.18129/B9.bioc.BSgenome.Mmusculus.UCSC.mm10

Thomas P, Dong J. 2006. Binding and activation of the seven-transmembrane estrogen receptor GPR30

by environmental estrogens: A potential novel mechanism of endocrine disruption. *J Steroid*

Biochem Mol Biol **102**:175–179. doi:10.1016/j.jsbmb.2006.09.017

Tremblay B. 2023. universalmotif: Import, Modify, and Export Motifs with R.

Triche TJ, Weisenberger DJ, Van Den Berg D, Laird PW, Siegmund KD. 2013. Low-level processing of

Illumina Infinium DNA Methylation BeadArrays. *Nucleic Acids Res* **41**:e90–e90.

doi:10.1093/NAR/GKT090

vom Saal FS, Hughes C. 2005. An extensive new literature concerning low-dose effects of bisphenol A

shows the need for a new risk assessment. *Environ Health Perspect*. doi:10.1289/ehp.7713

Wang J, Zhuang J, Iyer S, Lin XY, Greven MC, Kim BH, Moore J, Pierce BG, Dong X, Virgil D, Birney E, Hung

JH, Weng Z. 2013. Factorbook.org: a Wiki-based database for transcription factor-binding data

generated by the ENCODE consortium. *Nucleic Acids Res* **41**:D171–D176.

doi:10.1093/NAR/GKS1221

Wang J, Zhuang J, Iyer S, Lin XY, Whitfield TW, Greven MC, Pierce BG, Dong X, Kundaje A, Cheng Y,

Rando OJ, Birney E, Myers RM, Noble WS, Snyder M, Weng Z. 2012. Sequence features and

chromatin structure around the genomic regions bound by 119 human transcription factors.

Genome Res **22**:1798–1812. doi:10.1101/GR.139105.112

Wang T, Pehrsson EC, Purushotham D, Li D, Zhuo X, Zhang B, Lawson HA, Province MA, Krapp C, Lan Y,

Coarfa C, Katz TA, Tang WY, Wang Z, Biswal S, Rajagopalan S, Colacino JA, Tsai ZTY, Sartor MA,

Neier K, Dolinoy DC, Pinto J, Hamanaka RB, Mutlu GM, Patisaul HB, Aylor DL, Crawford GE,

Wiltshire T, Chadwick LH, Duncan CG, Garton AE, McAllister KA, Bartolomei MS, Walker CL, Tyson

FL. 2018. The NIEHS TaRGET II Consortium and environmental epigenomics. *Nat Biotechnol*.

doi:10.1038/nbt.4099

Wickham H, Chang W, Henry L, Pedersen TL, Takahashi K, Wilke C, Woo K, Yutani H, Dunnington D, Posit

P. 2023a. ggplot2: Create Elegant Data Visualisations Using the Grammar of Graphics.

Wickham H, François R, Henry L, Müller K, Vaughan D, Posit Software P. 2023b. dplyr: A Grammar of

Data Manipulation.

Wickham H, RStudio. 2022. stringr: Simple, Consistent Wrappers for Common String Operations.

Wickham H, Vaughan D, Girlich M, Ushey K, Posit Software, PBC. 2023c. tidyr: Tidy Messy Data.

Wöste M, Leitão E, Laurentino S, Horsthemke B, Rahmann S, Schröder C. 2020. Wg-blimp: An end-to-end

analysis pipeline for whole genome bisulfite sequencing data. *BMC Bioinformatics* **21**:1–8.

doi:10.1186/S12859-020-3470-5/FIGURES/3

Wright K. 2023. pals: Color Palettes, Colormaps, and Tools to Evaluate Them.

Xie Y, Sarma A, Vogt A, Andrew A, Zvoleff A, Al-Zubaidi A, Simon A, Atkins A, Baumer W, Wolen A,

Manton A, Yasumoto A, Baumer B, Diggs B, Zhang B, Yapparov B, Pereira C, Dervieux C, Hall D,

Hugh-Jones D, Robinson D, Hemken D, Murdoch D, Campitelli E, Hughes E, Riederer E, Hirschmann

F, Simeon F, Fang F, Jr FEH, Aden-Buie G, Detrez G, Wickham H, Zhu H, Jeon H, Bengtsson H, Yutani

H, Lyttle I, Daniel H, Bien J, Burkhead J, Manton J, Lander J, Punyon J, Luraschi J, Arnold J, Bryan J,

Ashkenas J, Stephens J, Hester J, Cheng J, Ranke J, Honaker J, Muschelli J, Keane J, Allaire J, Toloe J,

Sidi J, Larmarange J, Barnier J, Zhong K, Slowikowski K, Forner K, Smith KK, Mueller K, Takahashi K,

Walthert L, Gallindo L, Hofert M, Modrák M, Chirico M, Friendly M, Bojanowski M, Kuhlmann M,

Patrick M, Caballero N, Salkowski N, Hansen NR, Ross N, Mahdi O, Krivitsky PN, Faria P, Li Q,

Vaidyanathan R, Cotton R, Krzyzanowski R, Copetti R, Francois R, Williamson R, Mati S, Kostyshak S,

Meyer S, Brouwer S, Bernard S de, Rousseau S, Wei T, Assus T, Lamadon T, Leeper T, Mastny T,

Torsney-Weir T, Davis T, Veitas V, Zhu W, Wu W, Foster Z, Kamvar ZN, Posit Software P. 2023. knitr:

A General-Purpose Package for Dynamic Report Generation in R.

Yan L. 2023. ggvenn: Draw Venn Diagram by "ggplot2."

Ye J, Coulouris G, Zaretskaya I, Cutcutache I, Rozen S, Madden TL. 2012. Primer-BLAST: a tool to design

target-specific primers for polymerase chain reaction. *BMC Bioinformatics* **13**:134.

doi:10.1186/1471-2105-13-134

You L, Casanova M, Archibeque-Engle S, Sar M, Fan LQ, Heck H d'A. 1998. Impaired male sexual

development in perinatal Sprague-Dawley and Long- Evans hooded rats exposed in utero and

lactationally to p,p'-DDE. *Toxicol Sci* **45**:162–173. doi:10.1006/toxs.1998.2515

Zhou W. 2022. wheatmap: Incrementally Build Complex Plots using Natural Semantics.

Zhou W, Hinoue T, Barnes B, Mitchell O, Iqbal W, Lee SM, Foy KK, Lee KH, Moyer EJ, VanderArk A,

Koeman JM, Ding W, Kalkat M, Spix NJ, Eagleson B, Pospisilik JA, Szabó PE, Bartolomei MS, Vander

Schaaf NA, Kang L, Wiseman AK, Jones PA, Krawczyk CM, Adams M, Porecha R, Chen BH, Shen H,

Laird PW. 2022. DNA methylation dynamics and dysregulation delineated by high-throughput

profiling in the mouse. *Cell genomics* **2**. doi:10.1016/J.XGEN.2022.100144

Zhou W, Triche TJ, Laird PW, Shen H. 2018. SeSAMe: reducing artifactual detection of DNA methylation

by Infinium BeadChips in genomic deletions. *Nucleic Acids Res* **46**:e123–e123.

doi:10.1093/NAR/GKY691

1232

1233

1234

1235

1236

1237

1238

1239   SUPPLEMENTAL FILES

1240

1241   **Supplementary file 1a.**

1242

1243   **Supplement figure 1. Differential expression of potential endocrine-signaling independent DMCs.**
1244   Heatmap displaying the relative expression of genes with promoters enriched for apparent endocrine-
1245   signaling independent DMCs. The majority of these genes are actively expressed in all cell types and an
1246   overall largely similar pattern of expression across all cell types.

1247

1248 **Supplementary file 1b.**

1249

1250 **Supplement figure 2. Genome-wide annotation of ERE half-sites.** Venn diagram displaying the
1251 identification of ERE half-sites localized in known genic and intergenic regions.

1252

1253 **Supplement table 1. Summary of ERE annotations**

CpG Islands	Repeat Regions	Gene Bodies	Promoters	Enhancers
25,079	2,631,743	2,448,668	172,707	468,072

1254   **Supplementary file 1c.**

1255

1256   **Supplement figure 3. ICC validation of MF5-9-1 iPSCs.** iPSCs from reprogrammed MEFs were validated
1257   for immunolabeling with known pluripotency markers along with negative control.

1258

1259   **Supplementary file 1d.**

Chromosome Analysis Report: 081055

Date Reported: Wednesday, April 1, 2020

Cell Line: 5-9-1

Passage#: 8

Date of Sample: 3/25/2020

Specimen: Mouse IPSC

Results: 40,XY

Cell Line Sex: Male

Reason for Testing: Study routine characterizaton

Investigator: Yu-Huey Lin, UT San Antonio

Nonclonal findings: 40,XY,Del(4C5)   41,XY,+11

Cell: 73

Slide: G03

Slide Type: Karyotype

Total Counted: 20

Total Analyzed: 16

Total Karyogrammed: 15

Band Resolution: >230

Interpretation:

This is a normal karyotype; no clonal abnormalities were detected at the stated band level of resolution.

There are nonclonal findings, listed above, one of which contains a chromosomal aberration (gain of chromosome 11) recurrently acquired in pluripotent stem cell cultures. Nonclonal findings may result from technical artifact, but may be due to a developing clonal abnormality or to low-level mosaicism.

Completed by: Kim Leonhard, CG(ASCP)

Reviewed and Interpreted by: Kaitlin C. Lenhart, Ph.D.

Date:_________________________ Sent By:_____ Sent To:___________________ QC Review By: _____

1260

Supplementary file 1e.

iPSC, EpiLC, and PGCLC Media Components

Stock solutions to prepare before making media.

1.   Insulin stock sol. (25 mg/mL), (Sigma I-1882):

100 mg in 4 mL (0.01 M HCl), overnight at 4C

aliquot 0.5 mL (total 8 tubes) → -20°C

1267

1268   2.   Apotransferrin stock sol. (100 mg/mL), (Sigma T-1147):

1269   500 mg in 5 mL (water), overnight at 4 C

1270   aliquot 0.5 mL (10 tubes) → -20°C

1271

1272   3.   Progesterone stock sol. (0.6 mg/mL) (Sigma P8783):

1273   10 mg in 1 mL ethanol (10 mg/mL)

1274   → 60 μL of stock (10 mg/mL) + 940 μL ethanol → filter through a 0.22 μm filter

1275   aliquot 100 μL (10 tubes) → -20°C

1276

1277   4.   Putrescine stock sol. (160 mg/mL) (Sigma P5780):

1278   320 mg in 2 mL water → 0.22 filter

1279   aliquot 60 μL (~30 tubes) → -20°C

1280

1281   5. Sodium selenite stock sol. (3mM) (Sigma S5261, 10G, MW:172.49)

1282   300 mM: 51.88 mg in 1 mL water → 0.22 filter

1283   10 µL (300 mM stock) + 990 µL water = 3 mM

1284   aliquot 50 µL (~20 tubes) → -20°C

1285

1286   6. Activin A stock sol. (50 µg/mL) (120-14, total 10 µg/vial, need more)

1287   20 µg (2 vials) + 400 µL water → 5 µL aliquot (~40 tubes) → -20°C

1288

1289   7. bFGF stock sol. (10 µg/mL) (13256-029, 10 µg/vial)

1290   10 µg (total) in 1 mL (10 mM Tris, pH 7.6 with 0.1 % BSA)

1291   → aliquot 20 µL → -20°C

1292

1293   8. Recombinant human BMP4 stock sol. (50 ug/mL) (314-BP-010)

1294   60 ug (total) + 1200 µL (4 mM HCl with 0.1% BSA)

1295   → aliquot 105 µL (12 tubes total) → -80°C

1296

1297   9. Stem Cell Factor (SCF) stock sol. (50 ug/µL) (455-MC-010)

1298   10 ug (total) + 200 µL (PBS with 0.1% BSA)

1299   → aliquot 21 µL (10 tubes total) → -80°C

1300

10. Recombinant mouse EGF stock sol. (500 ug/mL) (2028-EG-200)

200 ug (total) + 400 μL (PBS with 0.1% BSA)

→ aliquot 10 μL (60 tubes) → -80°C

iPSC media

N2B27 media for culturing iPSCs in feeder-free conditions

Supplement table 2. N2 media components (5 mL)

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
DMEM/F12	3.6 mL	21041-025	(4°C)
Insulin stock sol.	0.5 mL	I-1882	(-20°C)
Apotransferrin stock sol.	0.5 mL	T-1147	(-20°C)
7.5% BSA sol.	330 µL	15260-037	(4°C)
Progesterone stock sol.	16.5 µL	P8783	(-20°C)
Putrescine stock sol.	50 µL	P5780	(-20°C)
Sodium selenite stock sol.	5 µL	S5261	(-20°C)

1307

1308 **Supplement table 3. N2B27 media components (1 L)**

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
N2	5 mL	Table 1	(RT)
DMEM/F12	495 mL	21041-025	(4°C)
Neurobasal	480 mL	12348-017	(4°C)
B27 (50X)	10 mL	12587-010	(-20°C)
Pen/Strep	5 mL	15070063	(-20°C)
L-glutamine stock sol.	5 mL	35050061/Glutamax	(4°C)
β-ME stock sol., 50 mM	1.8 mL	21985-023	(4°C)

1309

1310 Make a 40 mL aliquot of N2B27 and store at -80°C.

1311

1312 **Supplement table 4. N2B27 2i-LIF media components (40 mL)**

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
N2B27	40 mL	Table 2	(-80°C)
CHIR99021	12 µL	1677-5	(-80°C)
PD0325901	3.2 µL	04-0006-02	(-80°C)

ESGRO	4 μL	ESG1107	(4°C)

1313

1314 Store at 4°C for up to 2 weeks.

1315

1316 **EpiLC differentiation**

1317 Plate coating solution.

1318   1. Human plasma fibronectin (1 mg/mL, store at 4C) (1 mg/mL, FC010, 1 mg total = 1 mL),

1319

1320 Working solution: For a 12-well plate: dilute 10 μL fibronectin with 600 μL PBS to obtain 16.6 μL/mL

1321 fibronectin solution. Pipet the solution into one well of a 12-well plate, incubate for at least 1hr at 37°C

1322 and then aspirate the fibronectin solution just before plating iPSCs.

1323

1324 **Supplement table 5. N2 EpiLC differentiation (~5 mL)**

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
N2B27	5 mL	Table 2	(-80°C)
Activin A stock sol.	2 μL	120-14	(-20°C)
bFGF stock sol.	6 μL	13256-029	(-20°C)
KSR	50 μL	10828-028	(-20°C)

1325

1326

1327 **PGCLC differentiation**

1328 **Supplement table 6. GK15 (10 mL)**

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
GMEM	8.082 mL	11710-035	(4°C)
KSR	1.5 mL	10828-028	(-20°C)
Non-EAA	100 µL	11140-050	(4°C)
Sodium pyruvate	100 µL	11360070	(4°C)
Pen/Strep	100 µL	15070	(4°C)
L-glutamine	100 µL	35050061/Glutamax	(4°C)
β-ME, 50 mM	18 µL	21985-023	(4°C)

1329

1330 **Supplement table 7. PGCLC differentiation media (10 mL)**

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
GK15	9.878 mL	Table 5	(4°C)
BMP4	100 µL	314-BP-010	(-80°C)
SCF	20 µL	455-MC-010	(-80°C)
LIF	1 µL	ESG1107	(-80°C)
EGF	1 µL	2028-EG-200	(-80°C)

1331

1332 **Supplement table 8. TrypLE wash media (75 mL)**

Name	Volume	Catalog Number	Storage Temp
7.5% BSA sol.	1 mL	15260-037	(4°C)
DMEM/F12	74 mL	21041-025	(4°C)

1333

1334

1335   **Supplementary file 1f.**

iPSCs

Sertoli Cells

Granulosa Cells

1336

1337   **Supplement figure 4. ICC control staining of cell type-specific markers.** Validation of immunolabeling
1338   for known pluripotent and somatic cell type markers in iPSCs, Sertoli Cells, and Granulosa cells along
1339   with negative and positive controls.

1340

1341

Supplementary file 1g.

Preparation of primary cultures of Sertoli cells from mice protocol

Materials:

500 mL DPBS   (Thermo Fisher: Cat. No. 14040133)

DNaseI. 6.64 mg/mL in DPBS   (Sigma: Cat. No. DN-25)

Trypsin 2.5% (10X Gibco)   (Gibco-BRL: Cat. No. 15090-046)

Soybean trypsin inhibitor, 3.4 mg/mL in DPBS   (Gibco-BRL: Cat. No. 17075-011)

Collagenase type IV, 0.70 mg/mL   (Worthinton: Cat. No. LS004188)

Sertoli cell media containing retinoic acid   (ScienCell^{TM}: Cat. No. 4521)

Equipment:

Pyrex Trypsinizing Flask 300 mL Standard Flask (Fisher Cat. No. 09-552-45)

Procedure: (maintain sterility throughout procedure)

A. **Preparation of testes tissue**

1. Sacrifice mice by CO_2.

2. Wipe down abdomen with 70% EtOH.

3. Make abdominal incision.

4. Remove the testes and immerse in DPBS in a 50 mL conical tube.

5. Remove tubule bundle from tunica.

1360   a. Place testes on parafilm, grasp at one end, and make a small incision in the

1361   tunica at the opposite end.

1362   b. Push the tubules out of tunica by using the side of closed scissors.

1363   c. Weigh flask with fresh DPBS (this is the DPBS volume from the first step below

1364   so you must estimate for now (W_1):__________g

1365   d. Place tubules in DPBS and weigh (W_2):____________g

1366   e. Calculate testes weight (W_T) = (W_2 - W_1):__________g.

1367

1368   B. **Preparation of Sertoli cells**

1369   1. Prepare Erlenmeyer flask by adding:

1370   a. Trypsin, 10x (2.5 x W_T) = _______mL

1371   b. DPBS (22.5 x W_T) = __________mL

1372   c. DNaseI (100 x W_T)= __________µL (Start with 100 µL of DNAse1 and then added 1

1373   mL at the 20 min mark and another 1 mL at the 25 min mark.)

1374   DNaseI is very critical, always favor more rather than less and be certain about the

1375   concentration when preparing the stock. This along with the flask could be why you

1376   are having clumping problems.

Before adding tissue place in a clean petri dish and using a clean razor blade chop downward

across the tissue and then rotate the plate 90° and chop across the tissue again until the tissue

loses its grape structure as a pre-processing step to help break up the tubules so they digest

easily.

Add tissue to the flask. Cover flask with foil, incubate at 37°C for 25-30 min, with occasional

swirling. During the last ten minutes, tissue should come apart rapidly. If after 20 min strings

seen while swirling (this is very empirical when properly digesting the tissue will break up into

pieces approx 2-3 mm in length and be independent of each other not clumped together), add

DNaseI at (50 x W_T _______µL), after an additional 5 min add DNaseI at (25 x W_T _________µL).

1386

2. When tubules are separated, move flask to sterile hood, let tubules settle for 5 mins. Then

remove and discard overlying liquid. The solution will be very sticky and the tissue will want

to come out with the supernatant. Don't lose too many cells here, if you can not get all the

supernatant off just go ahead and add the trypsin inhibitor, but use another 0.5 mL on top

of what you have figured to compensate for the increased volume.

3. Add trypsin inhibitor (2.5 x W_T)=_______ mL. Swirl and incubate for 1 min.

4. Add (25 x W_T) =______ mL fresh DPBS, swirl, allow to settle. (Wait to add this if you did not

get much of the supernatant off before, too much volume will increase the buoyancy and

not let the cells settle out.

5. Remove supernatant, add (20 x W_T)=______ mL DPBS, swirl,

allow to settle.

6.   Remove supernatant, add

1399   a. (7.5 x W_T)=_______mL DPBS

1400   b. Collagenase (2.5 x W_T)=_______ mL

1401   c. DNaseI (25 x W_T)=______ µL (Add in 1mL here of DNaseI instead if

1402   below 1 mL)

1403   7. Incubate in water bath at 37°C for 10 min. After 5 min, swirl continuously. (During the last 3

1404   min aliquots are checked by microscope to monitor the release of peritubular cells. A drop

1405   of suspension is placed on a glass slide and the tissue is viewed under a coverslip at 10x

1406   mag. The coverslip is moved slightly and as the tissue moves peritubular cells can be seen to

1407   peel off. The tissue is very fragile at this stage and must not be allowed to over digest.

1408   Digestion is complete when the surface of large fragments no longer appears smooth.

1409  8. Transfer tubules to 50 mL conical tube, wash the flask with DPBS, and centrifuge at 200xg

1410   for 2 min.

1411  9. Remove supernatant, add 30-35 mL DPBS, and centrifuge again.

1412  10. Repeat step 9.

1413  11. Remove supernatant and resuspend and plate cells in Sertoli cell media containing retinoic

1414   acid from ScienCell[TM].

1415  12. Cells are incubated at 37^oC in 5% CO_2, in a humidified chamber. Medium is changed every 48

1416   hours after 24-36 hours shock the cells with 10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 7.4 for 2 min. This will

1417   remove most of the contaminating germ cells. Make this media by dissolving 12.1g of

1418   Trisbase in 80 mL of ddH_2O and adjust the pH to 7.4 with HCl. This will make a 1M stock. To

1419   make a 10 mM solution, add 1mL of this 1M stock to 99 mL of ddH_2O and filter sterilize.

1420

Supplementary file 1h.

Preparation of primary cultures of granulosa cells from mice protocol

Materials:

70% EtOH   (Fisher: Cat. No. BP8203)

500 mL DPBS   (Thermo Fisher: Cat. No. 14040133)

BSA   (Sigma: Cat. No. A9085)

Collagenase type IV   (Worthinton: Cat. No. LS004188)

Glass Pipettes   (Fisher: Cat. No. 13-678-20A)

DMEM/F12   (Gibco Cat. No. 21041-025)

FBS   (Gibco Cat. No. 10082-147)

Penicillin/Streptomycin 100X   (Gibco Cat. No. 15140-122)

0.25% Trypsin-EDTA   (Gibco Cat. No. 25200-072)

Procedure:

A. **Preparation of media**

1. Prepare 50 mL of DPBS with 0.5% BSA by dissolving 0.25 g of lyophilized BSA powder into 50

ml of DPBS medium.

2. Collagenase type IV solution (540 U/pair of ovaries) in 3 mL of DPBS.

3. Prepare a glass pipette with a pointed tip that you can use to transfer the follicles. Set up an

alcohol flame. Holding a glass pipette from both ends place the thicker section of glass just

before the pipette tapers off over the hottest part of the flame. Rotate the tubing to make

sure it is evenly heated. Continue to heat the glass until it starts to melt and becomes

flexible. Then, with a quick motion, pull the glass so it forms a thin tube section. This will

take some trial-and-error force that will give you the size that works best. Etch the glass and

tap near the etched section to make a clean break in the tube. Finally, sterilize the tube and

remove jagged edges by quickly running the completed tube through the flame. Attach the

glass pipette to some form of controlled suctioning device (i.e. tubing connected to small

syringe)

1448

1449   4. Prepare 50 mL of DMEM/F12 with 15% FBS by adding 7.5 mL of FBS and 0.25 mL of 100X

1450   Penicillin/Streptomycin stock solution to 42.25 mL of DMEM/F12 medium.

1451

B. **Isolation of ovarian follicles from mice**

1. Sacrifice mice by CO_2.

2. Wipe down abdomen with 70% EtOH.

3. Make abdominal incision.

4. Remove the ovaries and immerse in DPBS in petri dish.

5. Decap the ovaries by resecting away fat and connective membranes that surrounds and

protect the ovary.

6. Transfer the decapped ovaries to a clean petri dish with DPBS and no BSA. This will help to

clean off any contaminating hairs, or fat and blood droplets released while decapping the

ovaries.

7. Section the ovaries into fourths by cutting them with the needle and forceps. This will help

the collagenase digest the tissue and release follicles in the next step.

8. After the ovaries have been divided into fragments add them to the activated

collagenase digest solution and let the ovaries digest for 25 mins under constant

agitation.

9. At the end of 25 mins add in DPBS containing 0.5% BSA to inactivate the collagenase then

centrifuge the tube at 60xg for 5 mins to pellet the follicles[214].

10. After the tissue digest has finished spinning remove the supernatant and resuspend in 7 mL

of DPBS with 0.5% BSA and transfer to a new petri dish to individually pick out follicles.

1471

C. **Preparation of granulosa cells**

1. Take the petri dish containing resuspended ovarian tissue and place it under

stereomicroscope.

2. Move the preantral follicles over to the clean droplet of DPBS with 0.5% BSA. It's best to

move only a few follicles over at a time as pulling up many follicles can cause them to

sediment and stick to the inside of the glass pipette if they are pulled up too far inside.

3. Once you have moved over enough follicles, set up a 1.5 mL microcentrifuge tube containing

1 mL of 0.25% activated trypsin.

4. Gently swirl the dish containing the preantral follicles to get them to clump together in the

center and collect them with a 1000 µL micropipette before transferring them to the droplet

containing the trypsin EDTA.

5. Let the follicles digest for 5 minutes. Pipette the digesting cells to help break up the follicles

during the incubation period.

6. Spin tube at 1000xg for 5 mins to pellet the granulosa and oocyte cells.

7. Remove the supernatant and resuspend pellet in DMEM/F12 supplemented with 15% FBS

and plate cells.

Supplementary file 1i.

1489

1490   **Supplement figure 5. FACS sorting for ITGB3/FUT4 enriched primordial germ cell like cells. a)** Gating
1491   for cells. **b.1-2)** Gating for singlet cells. **c)** Gating for live cells. **d.1-2)** Single color control ITGB3 positive
1492   cells. **d.3-4)** IgG isotype control. **e.1-2)** Single color control FUT4 positive cells. **f.3-4)** IgG isotype control.
1493   **g)** Sorting for PGCLC-enriched ITGB3/FUT4 double positive population (2.18% of total cells)

1494 **Supplementary file 1j.**

1495

Supplement figure 6. Relative expression of markers for PGCLC induction from iPSCs. a) ICC of
pluripotency and germ cell marker expression throughout the transition from iPSCs to PGCLCs. **b)** qRT-
PCR of pluripotency, epiblast, & germ cell markers indicating gene expression profiles during induction
of PGCLCs from iPSCs. Each gene fold expression is relative to the housekeeping gene *Gusb* using the
ΔCq method. The symbol * indicates that the expression of transcripts in the sample were either non-
existent or so low as to be undetectable by qRT-PCR.

1502

1503   **Supplement table 9. Primer designs**

Gene	Forward	Reverse	Efficiency
Pou5f1	TTCAGCCAGACCACCATCTGT	GGTTCTCATTGTTGTCGGCTTC	106.02%
Nanog	GTGCTTGCTTGTCCTTGGAG	AGCTGGCATCGGTTCATCAT	103.86%
Tfap2c	AGGCATCTCATTTCTGCGGG	CACGGACAGGCTTAGAGGTC	101.37%
Prdm1	GAAAAATGGGAGCCCCGACA	AAGACGGAAGGGGACTGTGA	92.60%
Prdm14	ACAGCCAAGCAATTTGCACTAC	TTACCTGGCATTTTCATTGCTC	104.57%
Sox2	TTGGGAGGGGTGCAAAAAGA	TTCTAGTCGGCATCACGGTT	98.20%
Sox17	CAAAGCGAAGATTGCAGGGT	TTTCCAGTCCCTGGTCAGTC	107.78%
Fgf5	TACGTGGCCCTGAACAAGAG	TGGAACAGTGACGGTGAAGG	108.72%
Dnmt3b	GCTTTGCTTCACTGGGTCTC	AACTGATGGGGTACTGACGC	98.12%
Wnt3	CCTGGACCACATGCACCTAAA	CGGAGGCACTGTCGTACTTG	95.11%
Nanos3	CACTACGGCCTAGGAGCTTGG	TGATCGCTGACAAGACTGTGG	90.56%
Dppa3	TGAACGGGACAGTGAGCCA	AGCCAGGGCAGCGTACAAT	99.12%
Itgb3	ACGGGACTTTTGAGTGTGGG	GCTGAGAGGGTCGGTAATCC	100.54%
Dnd1	AATGGGTTAAGCAGAGCCTGT	AGGGCAAGGTTCCTCACAAC	96.18%
Dazl	GCAGAGAACCTTTGTACCCAC	TAGCAAGGTGCTGTTCCAGTG	102.75%
Gusb	GCAGCCCTTCGGGACTTTAT	TCCTCAACACCACTCTCATGTC	97.17%

1504

1505

1506

1507 **Supplementary file 1k**

1508

1509

Supplement figure 7. Chemical exposure experimental workflow. 1) Cells are passaged into T-25 flasks
with filter caps. **2)** Mixed blood gas (carbon dioxide 5%, oxygen 5%, and balance nitrogen) is filtered and
bubbled into media to prepare media to be mixed with diluted chemical treatment and added to air-
tight cell culture flasks. **3)** Media is transferred into glass vials and diluted chemical is added. **4)** T-25
filter caps are replaced with air-tight caps with septums and cell media containing chemicals is added via
syringe and left for 24 hours. **5)** After 24 hours, chemical-containing media is removed and cells are
washed with buffer. **6)** T-25 air-tight septum caps are replaced with filter caps and cells are cultured for
an additional 24-hour "chase" period.

1518

1519

1520   **Supplementary file 1m.**

1521

1522   **Supplement figure 8. Quality control for Infinium Mouse Methylation BeadChip Array data. a)** Non-
1523   linear correction of dye bias removal from sample data. **b)** Background signal subtraction from samples
1524   to limit noise. **c)** Prediction of correct C57B6 mouse strain from samples included in the study based on
1525   built-in controls on Infinium Mouse Methylation BeadChip Array. **d)** Average CpG probe detection
1526   success of 97.58% percent across all samples indicating efficient bisulfite conversion of all samples.

1527

1528

1529   **Supplementary file 1n.**

1530

Supplement figure 9. Quality control for RNA-seq data. RNA-seq quality control data from a one of the
three PGCLC replicates exposed to BPS as an exemplar **a)** Base calls had high quality scores (phred scores
> 30) for all bases in reads. **b)** Reads showed equal distributions of all four bases following the initial
adaptor sequence and sufficient base complexity. **c)** Distribution of GC sequences across reads aligns
very closely with the theoretical distribution. **d)** Duplication plot indicates deduplicated libraries
contained ~67% unique sequences which indicates sufficient library complexity for subsequent
downstream data processing.

1538

1539

1540 **Supplementary file 1o**

1541 **Supplement table 10. Quality control metrics for EM-seq data.**

Sample	Insert Size (bp)	Median Coverage	Read Counts (Millions)	Aligned Reads (%)	Duplicate Reads (%)	GC (%)
iPSC_E_1	320	37 X	851.9	99.0	28.6	22
iPSC_E_2	374	33 X	752.6	99.1	26.4	22
iPSC_E_3	378	38 X	873.5	99.2	27.2	22
iPSC_BPS_1	360	28 X	626.7	99.1	23.6	22
iPSC_BPS_2	330	30 X	695.3	99.1	26.6	22
iPSC_BPS_3	338	33 X	755.8	99.1	27.7	22
PGCLC_E_1	388	32 X	707.9	99.0	25.6	23
PGCLC_E_2	374	25 X	559.4	99.0	24.0	22
PGCLC_E_3	412	30 X	673.5	99.2	24.9	22
PGCLC_BPS_1	399	31 X	672.9	99.1	25.6	22
PGCLC_BPS_2	371	32 X	753.3	99.1	28.6	22
PGCLC_BPS_3	392	27 X	599.3	99.1	23.6	22

1542

1543