1   Title: ATAC-seq of Low-Input and Cryopreserved Primordial Germ Cells Reveals Functional
2   Enhancers
3

4   Akane Kawaguchi[1,2,8†], Mao Igari[3,8] , Yasuto Murayama[2,4], Hiroko Iikawa[3], Mika Sakamoto[5],
5   Yasukazu Nakamura[2,5], Shigehiro Kuraku[1,2,], Keisuke Ishihara[6] and Daisuke Saito[7†]
6
Affiliations:
[1] Molecular Life History Laboratory, National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Japan
[2] Department of Genetics, Sokendai (Graduate University for Advanced Studies), Mishima,
Japan
[3] Graduate School of Systems Life Sciences, Kyushu University, Fukuoka, Japan
[4] Chromosome Biochemistry Laboratory, National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Japan
[5] Genome informatics Laboratory, National Institute of Genetics, Mishima, Japan
[6] Department of Computational and Systems Biology, Pittsburgh, PA, USA
[7] Graduate School of Science, Kyushu University, Fukuoka, Japan
[8] These authors equality contributed to this study
17
18   † Correspondence: akane.kawaguchi@nig.ac.jp. Yata 1111, Mishima, Shizuoka 411-8540,
19   Japan; saito.daisuke.036@m.kyushu-u.ac.jp. Moto-oka, 744, Nishi-ku, Fukuoka, Fukuoka
20   819-0395, Japan

21
Key words: PGCs enhancers, ATAC-seq, Small input and cryopreserved materials

Abstract

Cell fate specification during development is orchestrated by dynamic changes in gene

expression, driven by the accessibility of cis-regulatory elements. To profile such functional

regulatory elements at the genome-wide level, bulk ATAC-seq is a powerful method. Yet, its

application has still been technically limited in rare cell types. Here, we optimized and titrated

the ATAC-seq protocol for cultured chicken primordial germ cells (PGCs) and obtained high-

quality chromatin accessibility profiles from as few as 200 cells, even after cryopreservation.

Integrative analysis of our ATAC-seq with published RNA-seq and tissue ATAC-seq datasets

identified over 10,000 PGC-specific accessible chromatin regions (ACRs), many absent from

somatic tissues. Reporter assays demonstrated activity of selected enhancers in cultured PGCs,

while transcriptome integration revealed preferential association of PGC-specific ACRs with

genes highly expressed at embryonic day 2.5. *In vivo* transplantation confirmed that these

enhancers are active in an early-stage-specific manner, but become silenced upon gonadal

settlement. In conclusion, this streamlined method provides a practical and cost-effective

approach to the epigenomic analysis of scarce cell populations, facilitating future investigations

in developmental biology, germline research, and beyond.

Introduction

Cell fate specification and differentiation during development are governed by tightly regulated, dynamic changes in gene expression. Increasing evidence indicates that such transcriptional shifts are orchestrated through changes in chromatin accessibility at cis-regulatory elements. Therefore, capturing the chromatin landscape in a spatiotemporal manner is essential to understand and manipulate lineage decisions.

ATAC-seq (Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin using sequencing) enables genome-wide profiling of accessible chromatin with high resolution using far fewer input materials than other conventional profiling methods, such as the DNase I hypersensitivity assay (Ling and Waxman, 2013), allowing profiling from as few as 500 freshly isolated cells (Buenrostro *et al.*, 2013). The Omni-ATAC-seq protocol has further improved signal-to-noise ratios through simplified procedures and the use of additional solvents, and has successfully reduced mitochondrial DNA (mtDNA) contamination (Corces *et al.*, 2017). However, applying this method to rare embryonic cells remains challenging, as viable cell isolation is technically demanding and often yields limited material. Cells or tissue cryopreservation could address these issues (Fujiwara *et al.*, 2019; Halstead *et al.*, 2020; Peng *et al.*, 2021), but robust ATAC-seq protocols for frozen low-input samples are still underdeveloped. Although single-cell ATAC-seq offers an alternative (Buenrostro *et al.*, 2015), its cost and complexity limit its general accessibility (Pott and Lieb, 2015).

Primordial germ cells (PGCs) are an inherently small cell population in developing embryos. They originate outside the embryo proper and migrate dynamically to the gonads, where they undergo sex-specific programs of mitosis, meiosis, stem cell maintenance, and eventual differentiation into gametes (Wear, McPike and Watanabe, 2016; Yoshida, 2020; Barton *et al.*, 2024). Thus, changes in chromatin state within the germline are of broad biological interest, and substantial knowledge has been accumulated regarding DNA and histone modifications (Seki *et al.*, 2007; Nagano *et al.*, 2022). However, compared to these epigenetic marks, much less is known about the open–closed chromatin status of PGCs as revealed by ATAC-seq. Furthermore, because PGCs are known to have relatively high mitochondrial content (Motta *et al.*, 2000; Deniz Koç and Yüce, 2012), they provide an excellent benchmark model for evaluating and optimizing ATAC-seq protocols with respect to mitochondrial genome contamination—a common technical challenge in this assay.

In this study, we leveraged the unique advantages of cultured chicken PGCs and the chicken embryo model. Cultured PGCs can be expanded *in vitro* while preserving germline potential and an *in vivo*–competent migratory program, homing to the gonads via the

endogenous route after transplantation (van de Lavoir *et al.*, 2006; Whyte *et al.*, 2015;
Morimoto and Saito, 2025). These properties enable rigorous benchmarking of ATAC-seq
protocols and functional testing of cis-regulatory elements within their physiological context.

Here, we first optimized the Omni-ATAC-seq workflow for low-input and
cryopreserved chicken PGCs, demonstrating that high-confidence chromatin accessibility
profiles can be obtained from as few as 200 cells, even after freezing. This optimization also
revealed sequence biases of Tn5 insertions in the chicken genome, underscoring the need for
proper background controls. We then established an *in vitro* PGC differentiation system within
this study, enabling a reporter assay to functionally evaluate PGC-specific and stage-specific
enhancers identified from ATAC-seq data. Using transplantation into chicken embryos, we
further demonstrated that selected enhancers are active in migrating PGCs *in vivo*. Together,
these results show that our approach enables robust identification of functional cis-regulatory
elements from minimal starting material, providing a powerful framework for studying
chromatin regulation not only in germline biology but also in other developmentally dynamic
or clinically relevant rare cell types.

Results and discussions

Cryopreservation impacts mtDNA content but not overall library quality

To evaluate the impact of cell number and cryopreservation on Omni-ATAC-seq quality, we
prepared cultured chicken PGC samples with four different input sizes (200, 1,000, 5,000, and
25,000 cells), using either freshly harvested or cryopreserved cells stored at –80°C for one
week (Fig. 1A). The protocol followed the original Omni-ATAC-seq method (Corces *et al.*,
2017), which employs a combination of detergents (Tween-20, NP-40, Digitonin) for effective
membrane permeabilization, and PBS addition during tagmentation to enhance the signal-to-
noise ratio by reducing mtDNA contamination. Cryopreserved samples exhibited high cell
viability (>90%) based on trypan blue exclusion, and nuclear morphology remained
comparable to that of live cells, as assessed by nuclear staining (Fig. 1B, C). These results
indicate that both fresh and cryopreserved cells were suitable as starting materials. As a
negative control, we included a sample of purified genomic DNA subjected to tagmentation.
After library construction and sequencing, we processed fastq files through standard pre-
processing steps, including adapter trimming, filtering, genome alignment, and duplicate
removal. Cryopreserved samples exhibited higher duplication rates (19–27%) compared to live
cells (9–14%) (Fig. 1D, Supplementary Table 1), suggesting that freeze–thaw steps may
increase redundant amplification.

We next evaluated three key quality metrics of ATAC-seq data: (i) mtDNA (mtDNA)
mapping rate, (ii) unmapped read rate, and (iii) FRiP (Fraction of Reads in Peaks) score. The
mtDNA read contamination was notably higher in cryopreserved samples (50–60%) than in
fresh samples (5–15%) (Fig. 1E, F), suggesting that cryopreservation may reduce the efficiency
of mitochondrial removal during lysis. This observation is consistent with earlier reports on
ATAC-seq protocols lacking detergent-based optimization (Fujiwara *et al.*, 2019). The
proportion of unmapped reads was highest in 200-cell input samples (10–15%), regardless of
cryopreservation, while samples with ≥1,000 cells showed stable mapping rates (~5–7%) (Fig.
1G). This suggests that input cell number, rather than freeze–thaw condition, is the major
determinant of read mappability. FRiP scores, a standard measure of ATAC-seq signal quality,
exceeded 0.2 in all libraries (Fig. 1H), thereby meeting ENCODE guidelines
(https://www.encodeproject.org/atac-seq/). While FRiP scores showed a weak correlation with
input cell number, they were not significantly influenced by cryopreservation. In the end, after
removing duplicate reads and mtDNA-mapped reads, the consistent correlation signatures
obtained from the BAM files do not exhibit large differences across conditions (Fig. 1H).
Taken together, these results demonstrate that while cryopreservation increases mtDNA
contamination and duplication rates, it does not substantially compromise library quality—
even in PGC samples, which are known to contain relatively high levels of mtDNA (Motta *et*
al., 2000; Deniz Koç and Yüce, 2012). Importantly, reproducible and high-quality chromatin
accessibility profiles can be obtained from as few as 200 cells, even after cryopreservation.
128

Peak Number and Sensitivity in Low-Input Cryopreserved Samples
We next examined how variations in input cell number and cryopreservation influence the
number and quality of peaks detected by ATAC-seq. To begin, peak calling was performed
using MACS3 without normalization (–broad, q < 0.05). In live-cell libraries, the number of
identified peaks ranged from 31,018 to 48,786. In contrast, cryopreserved libraries yielded
significantly fewer peaks, between 22,737 and 38,558, with a statistically significant reduction
compared to live samples ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2A, Supplementary Table 1). Peak counts showed a
modest upward trend with increasing input cell numbers in both conditions ($P < 0.05$; Fig. 2B).
To assess whether these differences stemmed from sequencing depth, we next
normalized all libraries to 10 million valid reads using computed scaling factors
(Supplementary Table 2). After reading subsampling and re-calling peaks with identical
MACS3 parameters, peak numbers across all libraries converged, with no statistically
significant differences between groups (P > 0.05), except for the gDNA-derived negative

control (Fig. 2C). It suggests that the reduced peak counts in cryopreserved samples primarily

reflect lower sequencing depth rather than intrinsic biological differences.

We further assessed peak reproducibility by annotating all ATAC-seq peaks to genomic

features (promoter, exon, intron, intergenic, and transcription termination site regions) and

computing overlap rates. Promoter-associated peaks exhibited the highest reproducibility

across all samples, with overlap rates of 70–85%, regardless of preservation method or cell

number (Fig. 2D). Peaks located in intergenic, intronic, exonic, and TTS regions were more

variable (~65% overlap), likely due to the weaker and more heterogeneous nature of regulatory

elements in these regions (Fig. 2E, Supplementary Fig. 1A–C).

To evaluate signal robustness at key regulatory loci, we visualized the detected ACRs

at the *Nanog* promoter, a well-characterized marker of PGC identity and pluripotency (Choi *et*

al., 2021). Consistent peaks were observed across all conditions, including cryopreserved 200-

cell samples (Fig. 2F). To determine whether increased sequencing depth could restore

detection of these weak peaks, we merged the reads in which after removing mtDNA and PCR-

duplicated reads across the same conditions considered as the biological replicates (Fig. 2G).

The merged datasets effectively recovered some of the weakly accessible regions, suggesting

that deeper sequencing can mitigate the sensitivity loss associated with cryopreservation.

Lastly, we investigated potential sequence bias introduced by the Tn5 transposase using

the gDNA control library, which can be utilized as a "blacklist." Peak calling and motif

enrichment analysis of this control yielded 1,023 peaks, disproportionately enriched in

intergenic regions containing the telomeric (TTAGGG)n hexamer, likely corresponding to

interstitial telomeric sequences (ITSs) (Alejandro D. Bolzán, 2017) (Fig. 2H, Supplementary

Fig. 1D–J). The chicken genome is characterized by a distinctive karyotype comprising macro-

and micro- chromosomes, and ITSs have been recognized as genomic signatures shaped by

meiotic recombination and chromosomal rearrangements throughout its evolutionary history

(I. Nadia et al., 2002). In light of such species-specific genomic features, assessing sequence

bias using a gDNA negative control provides a valuable means to account for these intrinsic

sequence properties when interpreting ATAC-seq results. This pattern most likely reflects

inherent sequence preferences of Tn5 rather than genuine chromatin accessibility, underscoring

the importance of distinguishing biological signals from technical artifacts in ATAC-seq

datasets.

These results demonstrate that Omni-ATAC-seq applied to cryopreserved, low-input
samples results in chromatin accessibility profiles largely comparable to those of live-cell
samples, particularly in promoter regions. Nonetheless, higher sequencing depth or replicate
integration may be required to capture low-abundance or weakly accessible regulatory
elements in frozen material. Importantly, we identified technical artifacts occurring by intrinsic
sequence preferences of the Tn5, which appear to be linked to species-specific chromosomal
features such as ITSs in the chicken genome. By incorporating a gDNA-based negative control
to detect and remove such artifacts, we provide a strategy to more accurately distinguish
genuine biological signals from sequence bias. This approach is especially relevant when
working with species that possess distinctive genomic architectures, and it expands the
applicability of Omni-ATAC-seq to a wider range of rare or previously inaccessible cell
populations in developmental and comparative genomics studies.
185

Identification of PGC-Specific Accessible Chromatin Regions
We next ask whether it is possible to identify functional ACRs either PGC-specific or
developmentally stage-specific, by integrative analysis with publicly available ATAC-seq
datasets (Fig. 3A). To identify PGC-specific regulatory elements, instead of differential peak
analysis we applied a binary comparison strategy, subtracting peaks shared with multiple
somatic tissues to remove commonly accessible ACRs (Fig. 3A). We merged our datasets by
input type (live or cryopreserved), each yielding 195–247 million mapped reads, so that the
library volume became comparable to other tissue libraries (Supplementary Table 2). Peak
calling produced 55,805 overlapping peaks between live and cryopreserved PGCs (Fig. 3B).
Live-specific peaks (~30,000) were far more numerous than cryopreserved-specific peaks
(~5,759), with shared peaks mainly in promoter regions and live-specific peaks enriched in
intronic and intergenic regions, that is consistent with the previous results at figure 2 (Fig. 3C,
Supplementary Table 3).
To define PGC-specific ACRs, we compared peaks shared by live and cryopreserved
samples with a binary matrix from 30 public ATAC-seq datasets of 8 somatic tissues and
embryonic organs (Fig. 3A). This comparison resulted in 10,550 PGC-specific ACRs (Fig. 3D,
Supplementary Table 4), distributed across promoters (10.62%), exons (13.79%), introns
(49.17%), intergenic (18.36%), and TTSs (8.03%). In contrast, 16,969 ACRs shared with
somatic tissues were enriched in promoters (16.56%) and exons (39.93%), with no intergenic
contribution. Overall, ACR numbers in PGCs were comparable to somatic tissues. These
findings suggest PGC-specific expression is largely controlled by enhancers in non-coding

regions rather than promoter-proximal sites, and intergenic ACRs at housekeeping genes are

not uniformly accessible across tissues or cell types.

To identify functional PGC-specific enhancers, we selected 16 representative candidate

regions from the >10,000 ACRs uniquely identified in PGCs by ATAC-seq (Supplementary

Table 5). First, we filtered for peaks that were exclusively detected in PGCs and absent in

somatic tissue samples. Next, we selected peaks that were consistently detected across various

PGC input conditions (ranging from low to high input, including both live and frozen samples),

aiming to evaluate whether functional enhancers could be robustly captured under suboptimal

or practical experimental conditions. The selected candidates spanned a broad range of

chromatin accessibility values (as determined by q-values and fold changes from peak calling)

and were located within 2,500 bp of annotated gene bodies. Because ACRs can vary in size—

from nucleosome-free regions (<100 bp) to regions spanning two or three nucleosomes—we

excluded regions smaller than 50 bp and larger than 550 bp (approximately the width of >3

nucleosomes) to avoid excessively broad peaks that may reflect open chromatin regions

without clear enhancer activity. This filtering strategy allowed us to include a representative

range of accessibility profiles while minimizing potential artifacts. Ultimately, candidate

enhancers were prioritized not only by accessibility rank but also by genomic context and

technical feasibility, enabling a focused evaluation of their regulatory potential in PGCs.

Functional Validation of Candidate PGC-Specific ACRs in Cultured Cells

To experimentally validate the enhancer activity of the selected PGC-specific ACRs, we

performed a fluorescence-based reporter assay in cultured PGCs. Reporter constructs

containing each candidate ACR upstream of a minimal tk promoter driving EGFP (Uchikawa

et al., 2003) were co-transfected with a CAGGS-mCherry control plasmid to monitor

transfection efficiency (Fig. 3E). Of the 16 candidate ACRs prioritized as described above, 14

genomic regions were successfully amplified by genomic PCR and cloned into the reporter

vector. Two candidates could not be amplified and were excluded from further analysis

(Supplementary Table 5).

The tk-EGFP vector lacking any upstream enhancer served as a negative control and

produced only minimal EGFP signal (Fig. 3F). As a positive control, we used the Nanog

promoter, a well-characterized PGC-expressed regulatory element, which drove robust EGFP

expression (Supplementary Fig. 4), validating the sensitivity of our assay. Among the 14 tested

constructs, the majority showed EGFP fluorescence above the basal level (#1, #3, #4, #5, #6,

#8, #9, #12, #13, #14, and #15), and several candidates exhibited strong and consistent activity

comparable to the Nanog promoter (Supplementary Fig. 2). The co-expression of mCherry in

all samples confirmed successful transfection and enabled normalization of EGFP signal

intensities, excluding variation in transfection efficiency as a confounding factor. The activities

of the enhancer candidates were in strong agreement with the observation that the

corresponding peak loci exhibited robust and representative signals across PGC datasets

covering both low to high input amounts and live or frozen samples (Supplementary Fig. 3).

These results provide direct experimental evidence that a substantial fraction of the ATAC-

defined, PGC-specific ACRs, including those detectable even in frozen 200-cell datasets,

function as *bona fide* enhancers in their native germ cell context.

Loss of Enhancer Activity upon PGC Differentiation

To assess whether the enhancer activity of PGC-specific ACRs depends on the undifferentiated

state, we examined EGFP expression following *in vitro* differentiation of PGCs. In the course

of this study, we found that cultured PGCs spontaneously differentiate when transferred to a

medium lacking Activin A (Fig. 3E). Under these conditions, PGCs that typically remain in

suspension began to adhere to the culture dish and exhibited morphological changes

characteristic of differentiation. Notably, the promoter activity of established germline genes

such as *Nanog* and *DDX4* was markedly reduced in this condition, as evidenced by diminished

EGFP and mCherry fluorescence in reporter assays (Supplementary Fig. 4). To our knowledge,

this is the first report to define a culture condition that reliably induces spontaneous

differentiation of chicken PGCs *in vitro*.

Using this differentiation system, we cultured PGCs transfected with enhancer

reporter constructs in the absence of Activin A and monitored EGFP fluorescence before and

after differentiation. Strikingly, EGFP signals driven by all enhancer candidates—including

those with strong activity in undifferentiated PGCs such as #3, #4, #5, #6, #8, and #12—were

abolished following differentiation (Fig. 3F-H; Supplementary Fig. 5). In contrast, mCherry

fluorescence from the co-transfected control plasmid remained detectable in both

undifferentiated and differentiated cells, confirming that the observed loss of EGFP was not

due to differences in transfection efficiency or cell viability.

These findings indicate that the enhancer activity of the tested ACRs is tightly linked

to the undifferentiated state of PGCs and becomes silenced upon differentiation. Together,

these data support the interpretation that the tested ACRs represent germline-competent, state-
dependent regulatory elements.

PGC-Specific Enhancer Activity is Restricted to Early Development

Based on the identification of PGC-specific enhancers using ATAC-seq (Fig. 3), we next
sought to refine the selection of candidate elements by incorporating stage-specific
transcriptomic data from endogenous chicken PGCs (Fig. 4A). To determine whether stage-
specific ACRs could also be detected, we integrated our ATAC-seq data with RNA-seq
datasets from Ichikawa *et al.* (Ichikawa et al. 2022) differential gene expression analysis
(DESeq2; baseMean > 10, q<0.01, $|log_2FC|>2$) between migrating PGCs at embryonic day 2.5
(E2.5) and gonad-resident PGCs at E6 identified 525 genes significantly upregulated at E2.5
and 270 genes upregulated at E6 (Fig. 4B, Supplementary Table 6). We then examined whether
PGC-specific ACRs were located near these differentially expressed genes. Among the 21,892
filtered peaks, 434 were associated with genes highly expressed at E2.5, and 321 genes
contained PGC-specific ACRs within 2,500 bp of their gene bodies (Fig. 4C). In contrast, loci
of genes highly expressed at E6—such as *LDHA*—tended to show small, constitutive peaks
shared across all tissues, lacking PGC-specific ACRs (Fig. 4C). This pattern likely reflects the
fact that the cultured PGCs used for ATAC-seq were originally derived from E2.5 embryos.

To assess stage-specific activity during PGC development, we performed *in vivo*
transplantation of selected three candidate enhancers (#3, #4, #5) that had shown strong
enhancer activity *in vitro* (Fig. 4D). Cultured PGCs transfected with the enhancer reporter
constructs and a CAGGS-mCherry control plasmid were injected into the bloodstream of stage
E2.5 chicken embryos. Transplanted embryos were collected and analyzed at two
developmental time points: E3.5—when PGCs are migrating through the dorsal mesentery or
have just arrived at the gonadal primordium—and E6.5, by which time PGCs have stably
settled within the developing gonads. At E3.5, all tested enhancers exhibited detectable EGFP
fluorescence, indicating that their activity is maintained during the migratory phase (Fig. 4 E–
G; Supplementary Fig. 6). In contrast, at E6.5, EGFP signals were consistently absent, while
mCherry fluorescence remained detectable, confirming successful transfection and survival of
the transplanted PGCs. The peaks tested in these assays were not detected in any somatic tissue
samples, yet showed highly robust accessibility in PGC ATAC-seq data. They were located
near genes with high expression at E2 that markedly decreased by E6, providing consistent

evidence for their PGC specificity and stage-dependent activity (Fig. 4H-I). Notably, a *Nanog*

promoter construct continued to drive EGFP expression at both time points (Fig. 4E),

supporting the conclusion that the loss of enhancer activity was not due to global transcriptional

repression or cell death, but rather reflects stage-specific silencing of the tested PGC enhancers.

These results demonstrate that the activity of these enhancers is not only cell type–specific, but

also developmentally restricted—active during early migratory stages and silenced following

PGC colonization of the gonadal niche.

In summary, we establish that Omni-ATAC-seq can generate high-quality chromatin

accessibility profiles from as few as 200 cryopreserved chicken PGCs, enabling robust

identification of cis-regulatory elements even under low-input conditions. This methodological

advance removes a major technical barrier for epigenomic profiling of rare cell types and

facilitates sample storage, transport, and cross-laboratory collaboration. Beyond its technical

implications, our findings provide new opportunities to dissect the gene regulatory architecture

that underlies germline specification and developmental stage–specific transcriptional

programs in avian models. Given the unique experimental accessibility of chicken PGCs, this

approach will not only accelerate germline biology research but also open the door to

comparative and functional studies across diverse developmental systems.

Materials and Methods

Animals, staging, and animal care

Fertilized chicken (*Gallus gallus domesticus*, White leghorn) eggs were purchased from

Yamagishi poultry farm (Mie, Japan) and from Nagoya University through the National Bio-

Resource Project of the MEXT, Japan, respectively. Eggs were incubated at 38.5°C, and

embryos were staged by Hamburger and Hamilton's stage (Hamburger and Hamilton, 1951).

All animal experiments were performed with the approval of the Institutional Animal Care and

Use Committees at Kyushu University under the allowance number A25-189-1.

Establishment of chicken cultured PGCs

Circulating PGCs, along with blood cells, were harvested from blood of HH15 chicken

embryos and were cultured on non-coated (non-adhesive) plates in calcium-free DMEM

(Gibco) diluted with water, supplemented with Fibroblast Growth Factor Chimera (Wako),

Activin A (APRO Science group), and chicken serum (Biowest) (FAcs medium) according to

previously described methods (Chen *et al.*, 2019); (Whyte *et al.*, 2015)). After one month of

expansion, PGCs were cryopreserved at -80°C in Bambanker (NIPPON Genetics) until further

use in experiments.

PGC frozen stock and ATAC-seq library preparation

ATAC-seq libraries from living and cryopreserved PGC were prepared based on the Omni-

ATAC seq method with modifications as recently published ((Corces *et al.*, 2017)

; (Kawaguchi *et al.*, 2024)). Cultured PGCs were harvested, counted the cell density and

aliquoted to the desired number of cells (200, 1000, 5000 and 25000) in individual DNA low

binding tubes (Eppendolf, 0030108051). Cells were collected with centrifugation (350 G for 5

min at room temperature) (KUBOTA, 2410). For the cryopreservation, collected cells were

individually resuspended into 50 μl of Banbanker (Nihon Genetics, CS-02-001). Tubes were

slowly frozen using Mr.Frosty (Thermofisher, 5100-0001) and kept at -80°C until library

preparation. When ATAC-preparations were conducted, cryopreserved cells were thrown at

37°C for 5 min, and the cryopreserved samples were prepared together with living cultured

PGC samples. Concurrently, living cultured PGCs were harvested as described above. In the

cryopreserved and living cultured cells, 500 μl Lysis buffer 1 was added (10 mM Tris-HCl

pH7.5, 3 mM MgCl2, 2 mM NaCl, x50 Protease inhibitor), and gently mixed and harvested

(350 G for 5 min at 4°C) (KUBOTA, 2410) . The cell pellets were resuspended in 50 μl Lysis

buffer 2 (10 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 3 mM MgCl2, 2 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween-20, 0.1% NP-40,

0.01% Digitonin, x50 Protease inhibitor) and incubated on ice for 15 min. 450 ul of Lysis buffer

3 (10 mM Tris-HCl pH7.5, 3 mM MgCl2, 2 mM NaCl, 0.1% Tween-20) was added to the cells

and mixed gently. Immediately, cells were spun down (350 G for 5 min at 4°C) and pellets

were resuspended with 25 μl of Tn5 Transposase reaction for the input of 200 and 1000 cells,

and 50 μl Tn5 Transposase reaction for the input on 5000 and 25000 cells (Transposase

reaction: 12.5 μl of the 2x Transposase buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl (pH7.5), 10 mM MgCl2, 20%

DMF), 16.5 μl of PBS, 0.5 μl of 10% Tween-20 (0.1% f. c.), 0.5 μl of 1% Digitonin (0.01% f.

c.) and 2.5 μl of assembled in-house Tn5 (0.5 μg of in-house Tn5 stock was diluted in 1:10)).

Tagmentation proceeded at 37°C in water-bath for 1 hour with occasional agitation. The

reaction was stopped by adding a 5 times volume of PB (QIAGEN, 19065) and vertexing for

30 seconds. Tn5 treated DNA was purified with MinElute PCR purification Kit (QIAGEN,

28004) and eluted with 20 μl of EB buffer. 10 μl of purified DNA solution was used for library

amplification, and final amplification cycles were defined with intermediate qPCR as described

in the original ATAC-seq method (Buenrostro et al., 2013). Nonetheless, all libraries were

amplified with 9 -16 total PCR cycles in the deserved number. Final libraries were amplified

with NEBNext® High-Fidelity 2XPCR Master Mix (NEB, M0541)) with Nextera Unique Dual

index (UDI) adapter plate A (illumina, #1000000002694). After PCR amplification, the

libraries were purified with magnetic beads for DNA isolation. Removing Adapters were

prepared following the manufacturing protocol. Sequencing was performed using Nova-

seq6000 PE150 at the third party.

Computational analysis and data visualization

Reference genome and annotation versions

Throughout the analysis, the reference genome assembly bGalGal1.mat.broiler.GRCg7b

(NCBI accession; GCF_016699485.2) and gene annotation from Gallus Enriched Gene

Annotation were used as reference gene model (Degalez *et al.*, 2024) (https://gega.sigenae.org).

ATAC-seq processing and peak analysis

Trimming of Nextera adapters and filtering of low-quality reads were performed using Fastp

(v0.23.2) with the parameters (-q 15 -n 10 -t 1 -T 1 -l 20) (Chen *et al.*, 2018). Bowtie2 (v2.5.4)

(Langmead *et al.*, 2019) was used for read mapping with the parameters (--no-mixed --no-

discordant -X 1000). SAMtools (v1.17) (Danecek *et al.*, 2021) was used to convert SAM files

to BAM files, and sorting and indexing were performed with default settings. Picard (v3.0.0)

(https://broadinstitute.github.io/picard/), was used for duplicate removal and fragment size

distribution analysis with the MarkDuplicates and CollectInsertSizeMetrics tools. Duplicate-

removed BAM files were further used to assess mtDNA and unmapped reads using SAMtools

with the parameters (view -f 4). Peaks were detected with MACS3 peakcall (v3.0.0a6), and

used the --broad option to account for the nature of accessible regions spanning multiple

nucleosomes with the parameters (-f BAMPE -q 0.05 -g 1053332251 --broad) (Zhang *et al.*,

2008). Peaks were ranked based on p-values and q-values obtained from MACS3. Peak

comparisons were performed using Bedtools (v2.31.0) (Quinlan and Hall, 2010), and

annotations were carried out using annotatePeaks.pl from HOMER (v4.9.1) (Heinz et al. 2010;

http://homer.ucsd.edu/homer/). To identify potential PGC-specific ACRs, we focused on

ACRs detected in both live and cryopreserved samples. For binary comparisons, peaks across

all samples were intersected using Bedtools (v2.31.0). To exclude gDNA-derived peaks from

the PGC ATAC-seq data, overlapping peaks were identified with Bedtools intersect with the

parameters (-u -f 0.5), and subsequently subtracted. For the data visualization, generating

bigwig files, correlation heatmaps were carried out with multiBamSummary, plotCorrelation

and bamCoverage by DeepTools (v3.1.2) with the parameters (--binSize 10 --normalizeUsing

RPKM --smoothLength 30 --effectiveGenomeSize 1053332251). The upsert plot was
generated by intervene (v0.6.5) (Quinlan and Hall, 2010; Khan and Mathelier, 2017). For motif
analysis, 1,023 peaks from gDNA tagmentation and 1,023 ACRs from merged live PGC
samples (randomly selected using Bedtools) were converted to FASTA format and analyzed
for enriched motifs using MEME (Bailey *et al.*, 2015).

RNA-seq analysis
RNA-seq datasets were obtained from publicly available data from K. Ichikawa et al. (2022),
consisting of four biological replicates each of *in vivo* PGCs at E2.5 and E6. The datasets were
obtained from the Gene Expression Omnibus under accession number GSE188689. Trimming
of Nextera adapters and filtering of low-quality reads were performed using Fastp (v0.23.2)
with the parameters (-q 15 -n 10 -t 1 -T 1 -l 20 -w 16) (Chen *et al.*, 2018). Mapping and
generation of count matrices were conducted using the STAR-RSEM pipeline with default
parameter (Li and Dewey, 2011; Dobin *et al.*, 2013). Differential expression analysis was
carried out using PyDESeq2 (cutoff: baseMean >10, q>0.01) (Muzellec *et al.*, 2023). For
visualization, fastq files processed by Fastp were mapped using STAR to generate
"Aligned.toTranscriptome.bam" files. Final bigWig files were generated using deepTools
(v3.1.2) with the parameters (--binSize 10 --normalizeUsing RPKM --smoothLength 30 --
effectiveGenomeSize 1053332251).

Tn5 transposase purification and assembly
The pTXB1-Tn5 expression plasmid (Addgene, #60240) was digested with XbaI and BamHI,
and fragment of Tn5-intein-CBD was subcloned into the pE21a (+) vector (NovoPro,
V011023) as described by Sato et al., (Sato *et al.*, 2019). Tn5 was expressed and purified as
described (Picelli *et al.*, 2014; Sato *et al.*, 2019), with the following modification. The
Escherichia coli Rosetta 2 cells (DE3) carrying the Tn5 expression plasmid were grown in 3
linters (1.5 L x 2) of Luria-Broth (LB) medium containing 100 µg/mL ampicillin and 34 µg/mL
chloramphenicol at 37 °C until the optical density reached 0.9 at 600 nm. The cell cultures
were cooled to 10 ºC and further cultivated for 15 h after addition of isopropyl β-D-1-
thiogalactopyranoside (IPTG) to a final concentration of 0.25 mM to induce protein expression.
Following a further 4-hour cultivation at 23 °C, the cells were harvested by centrifugation and
resuspended in 50 mL of Lysis buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.2, 0.8 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA,
0.2% (w/v) Triton X-100, 10% (w/v) glycerol) supplemented with cOmplete protease inhibitor
cocktail (EDTA-free, Merck). The cells were disrupted by sonication and clarified by

centrifugation at 28,000 g at 4 °C for 45 min. 50 mL of the cell lysate (supernatant fraction)

was gradually mixed with 5 mL of 10% (v/v) polyethyleneimine (pH 7.5) after which the

mixture was incubated at 4 °C for 20 minutes. It was then clarified by centrifugation at 20,000

g at 4 °C for 20 min. The resulting supernatant fraction was mixed with 85 mL of Lysis buffer

containing protease inhibitor and then applied to a 17 mL bed volume of chitin resin (New

England BioLabs). The resin was then washed with 250 mL of Lysis buffer followed by 20 mL

of lysis buffer containing protease inhibitor and 100 mM dithiothreitol (DTT). The resin was

resuspended in the same buffer and incubated at 4 °C for 36 hours. The eluate was dialyzed

against D1 buffer (25 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.2, 0.2 M NaCl, 0.2 mM EDTA, 0.2% (w/v)

Triton X-100, 20% (w/v) glycerol) for 15 hours. The dialyzed fraction was applied to a 1 mL

Resource S column (Cytiva). The column was developed with a linear gradient of 0.2 to 1 M

NaCl in H buffer (20 mM HEPES-KOH pH 7.2, 0.2 mM EDTA, 20% (w/v) glycerol) totaling

15 mL. The peak fractions were collected and dialyzed against D2 buffer (100 mM HEPES-

KOH pH 7.2, 0.2 M NaCl, 0.2 mM EDTA, 10% (w/v) glycerol) at 4 °C for 15 hours and then

mixed with glycerol equivalent to 0.8 volume of the dialyzed fraction. The aliquots were snap-

frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 ºC. Oligo and Tn5 assembly was produced according

to the publication (Picelli *et al.*, 2014). Tn5 assembled with Oligo was kept at -20C up to one

month.

Plasmid constructions

pT2A-tk-EGFP

The pT2AL200R150G vector (Kawakami, 2005) was digested with XhoI and BglII. A DNA

fragment containing multiple cloning sites (MCS), the tk promoter, EGFP coding sequence,

and polyadenylation (polyA) sequence was amplified by PCR from ptkEGFP (Uchikawa *et al.*,

2003; Kawakami, 2005). This fragment was then recombined with the digested the

pT2AL200R150G vector using the In-Fusion® HD cloning kit (TAKARA).

pT2A-CAGGS-mCheery

The pT2A-CAGGS-MCS1-2A-MCS2 vector (Saito *et al.*, 2022) was digested with NotI and

MluI. A mCheery coding sequence was amplified by PCR. This fragment was ligated into the

digested the pT2A-CAGGS-MCS1-2A-MCS2 by Mighty Mix DNA Ligation Kit (TAKARA).

pT2A-Genomic fragment:tkEGFP

The genomic region of interest was isolated and amplified by PCR from the genome of BL-E

strain chickens maintained at Nagoya University. The amplified fragments were digested with

XhoI-EcoRV, XhoI, or EcoRV-BglII and subsequently ligated into XhoI-EcoRV or EcoRV-

BglII digested pT2A-tkEGFP.

pT2A-Nanog:EGFP

The pT2AL200R150G vector was digested with XhoI and BglII. A DNA fragment containing

multiple cloning sites (MCS), EGFP coding sequence, and polyadenylation (polyA) sequence

was recombined with the digested the pT2AL200R150G vector using the In-Fusion® HD

cloning kit (TAKARA), resulting in the pT2A-MCS-EGFP plasmid. A 4,000 bp upstream

region from the Nanog start codon was isolated and amplified by genomic PCR from BL-E

strain chickens. This fragment was ligated into the MluI-EcoRV site of pT2A-MCS-EGFP.

pT2A-MVH(DDX4):mCheery

The pT2AL200R150G vector was digested with XhoI and BglII. A DNA fragment containing

multiple cloning sites (MCS), mCheery coding sequence, and polyadenylation (polyA)

sequence was recombined with the digested the pT2AL200R150G vector using the In-Fusion®

HD cloning kit (TAKARA), resulting in the pT2A-MCS-mCheery plasmid. An approximately

2,000 bp upstream genomic region from the start codon of the mouse VASA homolog (MVH),

kindly provided from Dr. Bertrand Pain, was amplified and recombined with the MluI-EcoRV-

digested pT2A-MCS-mCheery vector using the In-Fusion® HD cloning kit. KOD One®

(Toyobo) was used for all PCR reactions. Primers and amplified genomic fragments are listed

in Supplementary Table 5.

Plasmid transfection

A total of 5 x 10^4 cultured PGCs were washed with OPTI-MEM (Gibco) and placed into a 96-

well coated plate containing 100 µl of FAot medium (adding Ovo-transferrin instead of chicken

serum) (Whyte *et al.*, 2015) without heparin and antibiotics (penicillin, streptomycin, and

amphotericin) for 3 hrs. A transfection mixture containing 0.2 µg of total plasmids and 0.5 µl

of Lipofectamine 2000 (ThermoFisher Scientific) in 50 µl of OPTI-MEM was then added to

the wells. The ratio of plasmid concentrations used was 3:1 for reporter vector : CAGGS-

mCherry vector, and an appropriate amount of Tol2 transposase vector (Sato *et al.*, 2007) was

co-transfected accordingly. 6 hrs after transfection, the medium was replaced with conventional

FAcs medium (maintenance medium) containing heparin and antibiotics.

Induction of PGC differentiation

After transfection, PGCs were cultured for one week in a maintenance medium. Subsequently, the cells were transferred to tissue-culture treated plates containing differentiation medium, which was prepared by omitting Activin A from the standard maintenance medium. The medium was refreshed by replacing half of the volume with fresh differentiation medium every two days.

PGC transplantation

Transfected PGCs were resuspended in Opti-MEM (Gibco) at a concentration of 5,000 cells/µl and injected into host chicken embryos at HH15-16. The embryos were incubated at 38.5°C and collected after 1 or 4 days of development, corresponding to E3.5 and E6.5, respectively.

Imaging

Fluorescence images of cultured cells were acquired using an inverted microscope (IX83, Olympus) equipped with an sCMOS camera (Zyla-4.2 plus, ANDOR) and operated with cellSens software (Olympus). Embryo images were captured using a cooled CCD camera (ORCA-R2, HAMAMATSU Photonics) mounted on a macro zoom microscope (MVX10, Olympus) and controlled by High Speed Recording (HSR) software (HAMAMATSU Photonics).

Author   contributions

AK and DS: Study design, data analysis, investigation, methodology, writing-original draft, writing-final manuscript and funding acquisition. MI: Data analysis, *in vitro* culture experiments, investigation. HI, YM, MS, YN, SK and KI: Data analysis, methodology and discussion. All authors reviewed and approved the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Acknowledgment

We thank Dr. Haruki Ochi from Kobe university for the critical reading of the manuscript and comments. Dr. Yohey Ogawa from National Institute of Genetics, and Dr. Yuya Okusaki and

Dr. Kenichi Nishijima from University of Nagoya for the fruitful discussion. This work is
supported by the following foundations, AK, DS and KI: "Strategic Research Projects" grant
from ROIS (Research Organization of Information and Systems). AK: Grant-in-Aid for
Scientific Research KAKENHI (C) 23K05798, Grant-in-Aid for Transformative Research
Areas (A) 25H02584 and The Naito Science & Engineering Foundation. DS: Grant-in-Aid for
Scientific Research KAKENHI (B) 23K23897.

Data and resource availability

All new sequence reads were deposited in the DNA Data Bank of Japan (DDBJ) Sequence
Read Archive under BioProjectID under accession PRJDB37400, in the Genome Sequence
Archive under Accession SAMD01620406-SAMD01620426. All data generated in this study
are available within the article and its Supplementary Data files.

Figure Legends

Figure 1. Quality assessments for Omni-ATAC-seq of live and frozen cultured PGCs.
(A) Schema showed the harvesting of PGCs from E2.5 chicken embryos and the workflow of
the Omni-ATAC-seq benchmarking setup. (B–C) Cell viability analysis using NucBlue
staining in live PGCs (B–B″) and frozen PGCs (C–C″). Frozen PGCs retained nuclear
morphology comparable to that of live cells. (D–H) Quality metrics across input conditions,
(D) duplication rates detected after initial quality control and adapter trimming using Fastp,
and (E) proportion of unmapped reads after alignment. (F-G) contamination rates of
mitochondrial reads. (H) FRiP score for the individual libraries. In E to I, live and frozen
samples marked with magenta and blue, respectively. (I) Heatmap comparing all Omni-ATAC-
seq libraries across a range of input cell numbers for both live and frozen conditions.

Figure 2. Omni-ATAC-seq from frozen PGCs reduced sensitivity for weak peaks in
cryopreserved samples, whereas live and frozen samples still exhibit consistent promoter
accessibility   at   strong   peaks.
(A) Number of peaks detected by MACS3 (--broad, --q 0.05) without read downscaling, across
input sizes and preservation conditions. Peak numbers were significantly lower in frozen
samples (blue) compared to live samples (magenta) (t-test, $P < 0.05$). (B) Relationship between
input cell number and peak counts (without downscaling). Slight increases in peak counts were
observed with higher input, regardless of preservation. (C) Number of peaks detected after
normalizing all libraries to 10 million valid reads using scaling factors (no significant

difference, $P > 0.05$). (D–E) Heatmaps showing pairwise peak overlaps after downscaling, for
promoter-associated peaks (D) and intergenic peaks (E). Promoter peaks were highly
concordant across all conditions, while intergenic peaks exhibited greater variability. (F) IGV
tracks at *Nanog* locus show consistent peak detection across conditions and input levels at
transcription start site (TSS) and transcription termination site (TTS), with merged replicates
enhancing signal clarity. (G) Representative genome browser views showing accessible
chromatin regions in live, frozen, and gDNA control samples. Live-specific low-intensity
peaks are reduced or absent in frozen and gDNA samples. (H) Representative genome browser
showed that frozen PGC ATAC-seq libraries fail to detect weak ACRs visible in live samples.
Peaks in gDNA samples are enriched at interstitial telomeric sequences (ITSs), reflecting
sequence preference of the Tn5 transposase.
582
Figure 3. Comparison of PGC and somatic tissue ATAC-seq samples enabled the identification
of cell-type-specific cis-regulatory elements, even from low-input frozen PGC ATAC-seq
library.
Schema of the analysis pipeline: ACRs identified in cultured PGCs were compared with
published ATAC-seq datasets from somatic tissues to define PGC-specific ACRs. (B) Venn
diagram showing the number of peaks detected in live and cryopreserved PGCs, and their
overlap. A total of 55,805 peaks were shared between conditions, with live samples
contributing a greater number of unique peaks. (C) Peak annotation of ACRs categorized by
feature (Promoter, exon, intron, intergenic, TTS). Many populations of intronic and intergenic
peaks were detected and biased in live samples. (D) Upset plot illustrating peak overlaps among
8 somatic tissue datasets. Bar plots indicate total peak numbers; pie charts show genomic
feature distributions of commonly shared ACRs (left) and PGC-specific ACRs (right). (E)
Schematic diagram of the transplantation assay with cultured PGCs. Cultured PGCs transfected
with enhancer reporter constructs, CAGGS-mCherry, and CAGGS-T2TP plasmids were co-
transfected in cultured PGCs. After the expression of EGFP was confirmed, the culture medium
containing Activin was replaced with a differentiation medium (without Activin). (F) Negative
control: tk-EGFP construct lacking an upstream enhancer (Only tk). (G) Enhancer construct
#6. (H) IgV tracks showed genomic loci at ACR candidate #6. The peak tracks were shown
ATAC-seq signals from merged live PGC (mazenta), merged frozen PGC (light blue) and
individual 8 tissues (blue).
603
Figure 4. PGC-specific ATAC peaks exhibit enhancer activity *in vitro* and are downregulated

upon differentiation.

Schematic overview of the analysis workflow. (B) Volcano plots showing transcriptome re-

analysis comparing *in vivo* PGCs at E2.5 and E6. Genes with absolute $\log_2$ fold change > 2, q-

value < 0.01, and baseMean > 10 were highlighted. Genes highly expressed at E2.5 are marked

in light orange, and those at E6 in orange. The top 50 most significantly expressed genes are

labeled. (C) IGV tracks showing genomic regions around ACR candidate #6. The top two

tracks show transcript data from E2.5 and E6, respectively. ATAC-seq signals from merged

live PGCs, merged frozen PGCs, and individual somatic tissues are displayed. The left panel

shows high expression of LOC107055200 at E2.5, while the right panel shows high expression

of LDHA at E6. (D) Schematic diagram of the transplantation assay. Cultured PGCs transfected

with enhancer reporter constructs, CAGGS-mCherry, and CAGGS-T2TP plasmids were

injected into the bloodstream of E2.5 chicken embryos. Embryos were harvested at either E3.5

or E6.5. (E-G) Fluorescence images of transplanted PGCs at E3.5 and E6.5, showing ventral

views of the regions outlined in (D). (E) Positive control: Nanog promoter–EGFP construct.

(F) Enhancer construct #4. (G) Negative control: tk-EGFP construct lacking an upstream

enhancer (Only tk). Scale bars: 50 μm. All experiments were performed with n=5 embryos per

condition. (H–I) IGV tracks showing transcripts from E2.5 and E6, along with ATAC-seq

signals from merged live PGCs and frozen PGCs across input amounts. At the Nanog locus

and INRAGALG00000002296, a highly expressed gene at E2.5, strong ATAC-seq signals

were observed around the TSS and/or TTS. Nanog transcripts were detectable in both E2.5 and

E6.

Supplementary Figure 1: Evaluation of peak overlap, sequence bias, and motif enrichment in

control and experimental samples. (A–C) Heatmaps showing the percentage of peak overlap

across samples for intronic and exonic regions, and transcription termination sites (TTS) based

on HOMER annotations. These features exhibited lower reproducibility (~60–65%) compared

to promoter peaks, regardless of input condition. (D-E) Nucleotide composition analysis of

live-cell peaks and gDNA control peaks. For the comparison, 1,023 peaks were randomly

sampled from the live-cell dataset to match the number of peaks identified in the gDNA library.

The live-cell peaks showed a mild GC bias, likely reflecting promoter enrichment. In contrast,

gDNA peaks displayed no strong nucleotide bias. (F-G) K-mer analysis (k=15) revealed strong

sequence preference in the gDNA peaks, indicative of Tn5 transposase sequence bias, which

was not observed in live-cell peaks. (H) Frequency distribution of control-biased sequences

found in gDNA peaks, confirming that gDNA libraries tend to capture non-specific, sequence-

driven Tn5 activity. (I) MEME motif analysis of gDNA-derived peaks revealed highly enriched tandem repeats of the canonical telomeric sequence (TTAGGG)n, with 6.5 – 7.8 repeats per motif. These sequences were frequently located in intergenic regions and likely correspond to interstitial telomeric sequences (ITSs), emphasizing that peaks from gDNA reflect intrinsic sequence preferences rather than chromatin accessibility. (J) In contrast, MEME analysis of live-cell ATAC-seq peaks showed no significant enrichment for repetitive telomeric motifs, further supporting that accessible chromatin profiles in live samples reflect true biological regulation.

Supplementary Figure 2: Fluorescence images of PGCs transfected with individual enhancer reporter constructs. Cultured PGCs were co-transfected with individual Tol2-based enhancer–EGFP reporter constructs, CAGGS-mCherry, and CAGGS-T2TP plasmids. Each genomic fragment was cloned upstream of a minimal tk promoter driving EGFP. Images were taken under maintenance conditions (+Activin A). For each construct, EGFP and mCherry fluorescence are shown alongside bright-field images. The tk-EGFP vector lacking an enhancer (Only tk) served as a negative control. The Nanog promoter–EGFP construct was included as a positive control. Scale bars: 20 μm. All experiments were performed with n=5 embryos per condition.

Supplementary Figure 3: Genome tracks of PGC ACRs which were validated in this study. Representative IgV tracks at the genomic loci of 14 ACR were identified as uniquely accessible in PGCs, and its absence from somatic tissue datasets. Tracks showed ATAC-seq signal intensities for live and cryopreserved PGCs (low to high input amounts), genomic DNA controls, and merged somatic tissue ATAC-seq libraries (color-coded by sample type). Gene models (bottom) indicate annotated loci near each candidate region. Each candidate region exhibits a robust accessibility peak in PGCs, with consistent signal across live and frozen conditions, and no detectable signal in somatic tissues. Scale bar: 1 Kb.

Supplementary Figure 4: Loss of Nanog- and DDX4/MVH-promoter reporter signals upon differentiation of cultured chicken PGCs. Cultured chicken PGCs were co-transfected with a Nanog promoter–EGFP reporter (Nanog:EGFP) and a DDX4 promoter–mCherry reporter (DDX4:mCherry), then maintained in maintenance medium (+Activin A) or switched to differentiation medium (−Activin A). Under maintenance conditions, both Nanog:EGFP and DDX4:mCherry signals were readily

detected, whereas under differentiation conditions both signals were abolished. Bright-field

images are shown for reference. Scale bar: 30 μm.

Supplementary Figure 5: Fluorescence images of enhancer-reporter PGCs before and after *in*

vitro differentiation. PGCs were transfected with individual Tol2-based enhancer–EGFP

reporter constructs, along with CAGGS-mCherry and CAGGS-T2TP plasmids, and cultured

under maintenance conditions (+Activin A) or differentiation conditions (−Activin A) for 3

weeks. For each construct, EGFP and mCherry fluorescence were observed and compared

between conditions. All enhancer constructs that exhibited EGFP fluorescence under

maintenance conditions showed reduced or undetectable EGFP signal upon differentiation.

mCherry signal remained detectable across both conditions. Scale bars: 25 μm. All experiments

were performed with n=5 embryos per condition.

Supplementary Figure 6: Fluorescence images of transplanted PGCs expressing individual

enhancer constructs at E3.5 and E6.5.

Cultured PGCs were transfected with individual Tol2-based enhancer–EGFP reporter

constructs, CAGGS-mCherry, and CAGGS-T2TP plasmids, and transplanted into the

bloodstream of E2.5 chicken embryos. Fluorescence images were acquired at E3.5 and E6.5,

showing ventral views of the regions where PGCs were located. For each enhancer construct,

EGFP and mCherry fluorescence are shown. Scale bars: 50 μm. All experiments were

performed with n=5 embryos per condition. Individual IGV tracks displaying the

corresponding genomic loci and ATAC-seq peaks from merged live PGCs and frozen PGCs

across a range of input amounts (low to high).

Supplementary Table 1: Details of ATAC-seq libraries prepared in this study

Supplementary Table 2: SRA data details and accession numbers utilized in the analysis

Supplementary Table 3: Annotated peak features using HOMER annotatePeaks.pl

Supplementary Table 4: Genomic location of PGC-specific ACRs

Supplementary Table 5: ACR information validated in vivo and in vitro

Supplementary Table 6: Differential expression genes in E2.5 vs E6 In vivo PGCs

References

Bailey, T.L. *et al.* (2015) 'The MEME Suite', *Nucleic acids research*, 43(W1), pp. W39–49.

Barton, L.J. *et al.* (2024) 'The journey of a generation: advances and promises in the study of
primordial germ cell migration', *Development (Cambridge, England)*, 151(7). Available at:
https://doi.org/10.1242/dev.201102.

Chen, S. *et al.* (2018) 'fastp: an ultra-fast all-in-one FASTQ preprocessor', *Bioinformatics*
(Oxford, England), 34(17), pp. i884–i890.

Chen, Y.-C. *et al.* (2019) 'In vitro culture and characterization of duck primordial germ cells',
Poultry science, 98(4), pp. 1820–1832.

Choi, H.J. *et al.* (2021) 'Differential transcriptional regulation of the NANOG gene in chicken
primordial germ cells and embryonic stem cells', *Journal of animal science and biotechnology*,
12(1), p. 40.

Corces, M.R. *et al.* (2017) 'An improved ATAC-seq protocol reduces background and enables
interrogation of frozen tissues', *Nature methods*, 14(10), pp. 959–962.

Danecek, P. *et al.* (2021) 'Twelve years of SAMtools and BCFtools', *GigaScience*, 10(2).
Available at: https://doi.org/10.1093/gigascience/giab008.

Degalez, F. *et al.* (2024) 'Enriched atlas of lncRNA and protein-coding genes for the GRCg7b
chicken assembly and its functional annotation across 47 tissues', *Scientific reports*, 14(1), p.
6588.

Deniz Koç, N. and Yüce, R. (2012) 'A light- and electron microscopic study of primordial
germ cells in the zebra fish (Danio rerio)', *Biological research*, 45(4), pp. 331–336.

Dobin, A. *et al.* (2013) 'STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner', *Bioinformatics (Oxford,*
England), 29(1), pp. 15–21.

Fujiwara, S. *et al.* (2019) 'High Quality ATAC-Seq Data Recovered from Cryopreserved
Breast Cell Lines and Tissue', *Scientific reports*, 9(1), p. 516.

Halstead, M.M. *et al.* (2020) 'Systematic alteration of ATAC-seq for profiling open chromatin
in cryopreserved nuclei preparations from livestock tissues', *Scientific reports*, 10(1), p. 5230.

Hamburger, V. and Hamilton, H.L. (1951) *A Series of Normal Stages in the Development of*
the Chick Embryo.

Kawaguchi, A. *et al.* (2024) 'A chromatin code for limb segment identity in axolotl limb
regeneration', *Developmental cell*, 59(16), pp. 2239–2253.e9.

Kawakami, K. (2005) 'Transposon tools and methods in zebrafish', *Developmental dynamics :*
an official publication of the American Association of Anatomists, 234(2), pp. 244–254.

Khan, A. and Mathelier, A. (2017) 'Intervene: a tool for intersection and visualization of
multiple gene or genomic region sets', *BMC bioinformatics*, 18(1), p. 287.

Langmead, B. *et al.* (2019) 'Scaling read aligners to hundreds of threads on general-purpose
processors', *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, 35(3), pp. 421–432.

van de Lavoir, M.-C. *et al.* (2006) 'Germline transmission of genetically modified primordial
germ cells', *Nature*, 441(7094), pp. 766–769.

Li, B. and Dewey, C.N. (2011) 'RSEM: accurate transcript quantification from RNA-Seq data
with or without a reference genome', *BMC bioinformatics*, 12, p. 323.

Ling, G. and Waxman, D.J. (2013) 'DNase I digestion of isolated nulcei for genome-wide
mapping of DNase hypersensitivity sites in chromatin', *Methods in molecular biology (Clifton,*
N.J.), 977, pp. 21–33.

Morimoto, M. and Saito, D. (2025) 'Avian primordial germ cell migration: History,
mechanisms, applications, and unanswered questions', *Protein expression and purification*,
235, p. 106788.

Motta, P.M. *et al.* (2000) 'Mitochondrial morphology in human fetal and adult female germ
cells', *Human reproduction (Oxford, England)*, 15 Suppl 2, pp. 129–147.

Muzellec, B. *et al.* (2023) 'PyDESeq2: a python package for bulk RNA-seq differential
expression analysis', *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, 39(9). Available at:
https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btad547.

Nagano, M. *et al.* (2022) 'Nucleome programming is required for the foundation of totipotency
in mammalian germline development', *The EMBO journal*, 41(13), p. e110600.

Peng, S. *et al.* (2021) 'Successful ATAC-Seq From Snap-Frozen Equine Tissues', *Frontiers in*
genetics, 12, p. 641788.

Picelli, S. *et al.* (2014) 'Tn5 transposase and tagmentation procedures for massively scaled
sequencing projects', *Genome research*, 24(12), pp. 2033–2040.

Quinlan, A.R. and Hall, I.M. (2010) 'BEDTools: a flexible suite of utilities for comparing
genomic features', *Bioinformatics (Oxford, England)*, 26(6), pp. 841–842.

Saito, D. *et al.* (2022) 'Stiffness of primordial germ cells is required for their extravasation in
avian embryos', *iScience*, 25(12), p. 105629.

Sato, S. *et al.* (2019) 'Biochemical analysis of nucleosome targeting by Tn5 transposase', *Open*
biology, 9(8), p. 190116.

Sato, Y. *et al.* (2007) 'Stable integration and conditional expression of electroporated
transgenes in chicken embryos', *Developmental biology*, 305(2), pp. 616–624.

Seki, Y. *et al.* (2007) 'Cellular dynamics associated with the genome-wide epigenetic
reprogramming in migrating primordial germ cells in mice', *Development (Cambridge,*
England), 134(14), pp. 2627–2638.

Uchikawa, M. *et al.* (2003) 'Functional analysis of chicken Sox2 enhancers highlights an array
of diverse regulatory elements that are conserved in mammals', *Developmental cell*, 4(4), pp.
509–519.

Wear, H.M., McPike, M.J. and Watanabe, K.H. (2016) 'From primordial germ cells to
primordial follicles: a review and visual representation of early ovarian development in mice',
Journal of ovarian research, 9(1), p. 36.

Whyte, J. *et al.* (2015) 'FGF, Insulin, and SMAD Signaling Cooperate for Avian Primordial
Germ Cell Self-Renewal', *Stem cell reports*, 5(6), pp. 1171–1182.

Yoshida, S. (2020) 'Mouse Spermatogenesis Reflects the Unity and Diversity of Tissue Stem
Cell Niche Systems', *Cold Spring Harbor perspectives in biology*, 12(12). Available at:
https://doi.org/10.1101/cshperspect.a036186.

Zhang, Y. *et al.* (2008) 'Model-based analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS)', *Genome biology*, 9(9),
p. R137.

Figure 1. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Figure 2. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Figure 3. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Figure 4. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Figure 4 Kawaguchi *et al.*

Supplementary Figure 1. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Supplementary Figure 2. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Supplementary Figure 3. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Maintenance (+Activin A)		
Bright Field	*Nanog:EGFP*	*DDX4:mCherry*

Differentiation (-Activin A)		
Bright Field	*Nanog:EGFP*	*DDX4:mCherry*

Supplementary Figure 4. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Supplementary Figure 5. Kawaguchi *et al.*

Supplementary Figure 6. Kawaguchi *et al.*