

1 **Prenatal Bisphenol A Exposure in Mice Induces Multi-tissue Multi-omics**
2 **Disruptions Linking to Cardiometabolic Disorders**

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20 **Abstract**

21 The health impacts of endocrine disrupting chemicals (EDCs) remain debated and their tissue and molecular
22 targets are poorly understood. Here we leveraged systems biology approaches to assess the target tissues,
23 molecular pathways, and gene regulatory networks associated with prenatal exposure to the model EDC
24 Bisphenol A (BPA). Prenatal BPA exposure led to scores of transcriptomic and methylomic alterations in the
25 adipose, hypothalamus, and liver tissues in mouse offspring, with cross-tissue perturbations in lipid metabolism as
26 well as tissue-specific alterations in histone subunits, glucose metabolism and extracellular matrix. Network
27 modeling prioritized main molecular targets of BPA, including *Pparg*, *Hnf4a*, *Esr1*, and *Fasn*. Lastly, integrative
28 analyses identified the association of BPA molecular signatures with cardiometabolic phenotypes in mouse and
29 human. Our multi-tissue, multi-omics investigation provides strong evidence that BPA perturbs diverse molecular
30 networks in central and peripheral tissues, and offers insights into the molecular targets that link BPA to human
31 cardiometabolic disorders.

32

33

34 **Author summary**

35 The inability to pinpoint the mechanistic underpinnings of environmentally-induced diseases likely stems from
36 the pleiotropic effects of chemicals such as BPA on diverse tissues and molecular space (transcriptome,
37 epigenome, etc.). This makes it challenging to fully dissect their health impact and merits a call for modern big
38 data approaches to examine environmental factors. Our data-driven study is the first unbiased, multi-tissue multi-
39 omic systems biology investigation of the molecular circuitry and mechanisms underlying offspring response to
40 prenatal BPA exposure. Importantly, the incorporation of network-based modeling allows us to capture novel
41 players in the regulation of BPA activities *in vivo*, and the integration with human disease association datasets

42 helps bridge the molecular pathways affected by BPA with diverse human diseases. In doing so, our study
43 provides compelling molecular evidence that developmental BPA exposure significantly perturbs metabolic and
44 endocrine systems in the offspring, and supports BPA as one of the environmental factors involved in the
45 developmental origins of health and disease (DOHaD).

46 **Introduction**

47 A central concept in the Developmental Origins of Health and Disease (DOHaD) states that adverse
48 environmental exposure during early developmental stages is an important determinant for later onset adverse
49 health outcomes, even in the absence of continuous exposure in adulthood [1-3]. BPA is one of the most
50 influential environmental metabolic disruptors identified to date with widespread exposure in human populations
51 and likely plays a role in DOHaD. BPA is used in the production of synthetic polymers, including epoxy resins
52 and polycarbonates [4]. The advantageous mechanical properties of BPA have resulted in its ubiquitous use in
53 everyday goods such as plastic bottles and inner coating of canned foods [5,6]. BPA exposure has been confirmed
54 in the majority of human populations [7] and has been linked to body weight, obesity, insulin resistance, diabetes,
55 metabolic syndrome (MetS), and cardiovascular diseases in both human epidemiologic and animal studies [8-15].
56 Importantly, it has been suggested that the developing fetus is particularly vulnerable to BPA exposure [8,16].
57 Intrauterine growth retardation (IUGR) has been consistently observed after developmental BPA exposure at
58 intake doses below the suggested human safety level and has been associated with low birth weight, elevated
59 adult fat weight and altered glucose homeostasis [8,17-20]. As a result, BPA has been banned from baby products
60 in Europe, Canada, and the US. However, BPA is still in use in non-baby products, posing continuous exposure to
61 adults. Additionally, BPA has been associated with a transgenerational influence on obesity and MetS [21-23],
62 contributing to a lingering effect of BPA exposure on future generations even under usage restriction. Together
63 these lines of evidence support an intriguing hypothesis that BPA may have been playing an important role in the
64 rise of MetS and cardiometabolic diseases worldwide in the past decades [24-26].

65 Despite numerous findings connecting BPA with adverse health outcomes, there remain ample conflicting data, as
66 summarized by the European Food Safety Agency [27] and the BPA Joint Emerging Science Working Group of
67 the US FDA. Although inconsistencies across studies might be attributable to non-monotonic dose response,
68 exposure window difference, and varying susceptibility between testing models [13,28], there are also several

69 additional layers of complexity and challenges hindering the full dissection of the biological effects of BPA. First,
70 previous studies examining BPA in various cell types and tissues suggest a broad impact on biological systems
71 [23,29-31]. Second, BPA has been found to modulate multidimensional molecular events, such as gene
72 expression and epigenetic changes, that are functionally important for processes such as metabolism and immune
73 response [32-37]. However, due to most studies being designed to focus on one factor at a time as well as non-
74 comparable study designs, it is difficult to directly compare effects across tissues or types of molecular data to
75 derive the molecular rules of sensitivity to BPA exposures. In a recent National Toxicology Program report,
76 CLARITY-BPA, where multiple organs were examined, evidence of weight gain and cardiac dysfunctions were
77 observed, however, the study was designed to be solely descriptive and no mechanism of action was proposed.
78 These research gaps in our understanding of the pleiotropy of EDCs and toxicant biological actions necessitated
79 the establishment of the NIEHS TaRGET consortium and a more recent call for the research community to
80 systemically interrogate multiple omics in multiple tissues to accelerate the discovery of key biological
81 fingerprints of environmental exposure [38].

82 Here we present a multi-tissue, multi-omics systems biology study to examine the systems level influence of
83 prenatal BPA exposure using modern integrative genomics and network modeling approaches in a mouse model.
84 We first utilized next-generation sequencing technologies to characterize perturbations in both the transcriptome
85 and the epigenome across three tissues (white adipose tissue, hypothalamus, liver) in mouse offspring who had
86 experienced *in utero* exposure to BPA. Based on mounting evidence that genes operate in highly complex tissue-
87 specific regulatory networks, we hypothesized that prenatal BPA exposure induces genomic and epigenomic
88 reprogramming in the offspring by affecting the organization and function of tissue-specific gene networks [39-
89 42]. Using both transcription factor (TF) networks and Bayesian networks, we modeled the dynamics of
90 transcriptomic and epigenomic signatures and predicted potential regulators that govern the actions of BPA.
91 Furthermore, the transcriptome, epigenome, and network information was layered upon metabolic phenotypes
92 such as body weight, adiposity, circulating lipids, and glucose levels in the mouse offspring to evaluate disease

93 association. Lastly, to assess the relevance of the BPA molecular targets identified in our mouse model for human
94 diseases, we applied integrative genomics to bridge the mouse molecular signatures and genetic disease
95 association data from human studies. Our study represents a comprehensive data-driven, systems-level
96 investigation of the molecular and health impact of BPA.

97

98 **Methods**

99 **Ethics statement**

100 All animal experiments were performed in accordance with the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee
101 (IACUC) guidelines. Animal studies and procedures were approved by the Chancellor's Animal Research
102 Committee of the University of California, Los Angeles (Protocol #2012-059-21).

103 **Overall study design**

104 As shown in **Fig 1A**, pregnant C57BL/6 mice were exposed to BPA during gestation via oral gavage at the dosage
105 of 5mg/kg/day, situated below most reported no-observed-adverse-effect-level (NOAEL) according to toxicity
106 testing (<https://comptox.epa.gov/dashboard/dsstoxdb/results?search=Bisphenol+A>). This dosage was typically
107 used in previous studies [23,43-45], and was chosen as a proof-of-concept for our systems biology study design
108 and to facilitate comparison with previous studies. Male and female offspring (n = 9 for control and n = 11 for
109 BPA in male; n = 9 for control and n = 13 for BPA in female) of weaning age (3-weeks) were examined for a
110 spectrum of metabolic phenotypes (detailed below), and euthanized to collect key metabolic tissues including
111 white adipose tissue, hypothalamus, and liver. We chose the weaning age in order to investigate early molecular
112 and phenotypic changes in the offspring, which may predispose the offspring to late onset diseases. At the
113 molecular level, we conducted RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) to evaluate transcriptomic alterations, and
114 investigated perturbed biological pathways. We also used reduced representation bisulfite sequencing (RRBS) to

115 uncover the epigenomic impact of prenatal BPA exposure at millions of methylation sites and analyzed the
116 connection of the epigenomic alterations to changes in the transcriptome. We then integrated the transcriptomic
117 and epigenomic signatures with two types of regulatory networks, namely, transcription factor networks to
118 identify perturbed TF hotspots, and gene regulatory networks to identify non-TF regulatory genes. Finally, we
119 interrogated the associations of the transcriptomic and epigenomic signatures of BPA obtained from our study
120 with metabolic phenotypes in our mouse offspring by correlative analysis, and with human diseases by querying
121 top reported candidate genes as well as full summary statistics from existing publicly available genome-wide
122 association studies (GWAS).

123 **Mouse model of prenatal BPA exposure**

124 Inbred C57BL/6 mice were maintained on a special diet 5V01 (LabDiet), certified to contain less than 150ppm
125 estrogenic isoflavones, and housed under standard housing conditions (room temperature 22–24°C) with 12:12 hr
126 light:dark cycle before mating at 8-10 weeks of age. Upon mating, female mice were randomly assigned to either
127 the BPA treatment group or the control group. From 1-day post-conception (dpc) to 20 dpc, BPA (Sigma-Aldrich,
128 St. Louis, MO) dissolved in corn oil was administered to pregnant female mice via oral gavage (mimicking
129 common exposure route in humans) at 5mg/kg/day on a daily basis. Control mice were fed the same amount of
130 empty vehicle. BPA exposure was restricted to experimental manipulation through the use of polycarbonate-free
131 water bottles and cages. Offspring from each treatment were maintained on a standard chow diet (Newco
132 Distributors Inc, Rancho Cucamonga, CA). Offspring in the vehicle- and BPA-treated groups were derived from 3
133 and 4 litters by different dams, respectively, to help assess and adjust for litter effects.

134 **Characterization of cardiometabolic phenotypes and tissue collection**

135 Body weight of offspring was measured daily from postnatal day 5 up to the weaning age of 3 weeks. Mice were
136 fasted overnight before sacrifice, and plasma samples were collected through retro-orbital bleeding. Serum lipid
137 and glucose traits including total cholesterol, high density lipoprotein cholesterol (HDL), un-esterified cholesterol

138 (UC), triglyceride (TG), free fatty acid (FFA), and glucose were measured by enzymatic colorimetric assays at
139 UCLA GTM Mouse Transfer Core as previously described [40]. Gonadal white adipose tissue, hypothalamus, and
140 liver tissues were collected from each animal, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at -80°C . For white
141 adipose tissue, we chose the gonadal depot mainly due to its similarity to abdominal fat, established relevance to
142 cardiometabolic risks, tissue abundance, and the fact that it is the most well-studied adipose tissue in mouse
143 models. All mouse experiments were conducted in accordance with and approved by the Institutional Animal
144 Care and Use Committee at University of California, Los Angeles.

145 **RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) and data analysis**

146 A total of 18 RNA samples were isolated from gonadal adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissues ($n = 3$ per group
147 per tissue; for each group, mice were randomly selected from litters of different dams in independent cages) from
148 male offspring using the AllPrep DNA/RNA Mini Kit (QIAGEN GmbH, Hilden, Germany). We focused on
149 profiling male tissues because of stronger phenotypes observed in males (**Fig 1B-E**). Samples were processed for
150 library preparation using TruSeq RNA Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA) for poly-A selection,
151 fragmentation, and reverse transcription using random hexamer-primers to generate first-strand cDNA. Second-
152 strand cDNA was generated using RNase H and DNA polymerases, and sequencing adapters were ligated using
153 the Illumina Paired-End sample prep kit. Library products of 250-400bp fragments were isolated, amplified, and
154 sequenced with Illumina HiSeq2500 System. After quality control using FastQC [46], the HISAT-StringTie
155 pipeline [47] was used for sequence alignment and transcript assembly. Identification of differentially expressed
156 genes (DEGs) were conducted using DEseq2 [48]. To account for multiple testing, we used the q-value method
157 [49]. After excluding genes with extremely low expression levels ($\text{FPKM} < 1$), only DEGs demonstrating
158 differential expression comparing the BPA and control groups per tissue at a false discovery rate ($\text{FDR} < 5\%$)
159 were used for biological pathway analysis, network analysis, and phenotypic data integration, as described below.

160 **Reduced representation bisulfite sequencing (RRBS) and data analysis**

161 We constructed RRBS libraries for 18 DNA samples from adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissues from male
162 offspring (n = 3 per group per tissue from the same set of tissues chosen for transcriptome analysis described
163 above). The DNA samples were quantified using the dsDNA BR assay (Qubit, Waltham, MA) and 100ng of DNA
164 was used for library preparation. After digestion of the DNA with the MspI enzyme, samples underwent an end-
165 repair and adenylation process, followed by adapter ligation using the Truseq barcode adapter (Illumina, San
166 Diego, CA), size selection using AMPure Beads (Beckman Coulter, Brea, CA), and bisulfite treatment using the
167 Epitect Kit (Qiagen, Germantown, MD). Bisulfite-treated DNA was then amplified using the Truseq Library Prep
168 Kit (Illumina, San Diego, CA) and sequenced with the Illumina Hiseq2500 System. Bisulfite-converted reads
169 were processed and aligned to the reference mouse genome (GRCm38/mm10 build) using the bisulfite aligner
170 BSMAP [50]. We then used MOAB [51] for methylation ratio calling and identification of differentially
171 methylated CpGs (DMCs). FDR was estimated using the q-value approach. Loci with methylation level changes
172 of > 5% between BPA and control groups and FDR < 0.05 for each tissue were considered statistically significant
173 DMCs. To annotate the locations of the identified DMCs in relation to gene regions and repetitive DNA elements
174 accessed from UCSC genome browser, we used the Bioconductor package “annotatr” [52]. Specifically, gene
175 regions were categorized into 1) 1-5kb upstream of the transcription start site (TSS), 2) promoter (< 1kb upstream
176 of the TSS), 3) 5' untranslated region (UTR), 4) exons, 5) introns, and 6) 3'UTR. The “annotatr” package was
177 also used to annotate DMCs for known long non-coding RNAs (lncRNAs) based on GENCODE Release M16.
178 Over-representation of DMCs within each category was calculated using Fisher's exact test. We further evaluated
179 the link between DEGs and their local DMCs (DMCs annotated as any of the 6 above mentioned gene regions) by
180 correlating the methylation ratio of DMCs with the expression level of DEGs.

181 **Pathway, network, and disease association analyses of DEGs and DMCs using the Mergeomics R**
182 **package**

183 To investigate the functional connections among the BPA-associated DEGs or DMCs (collectively referred to as
184 molecular signatures of BPAs) and to assess the potential association of BPA affected genes with diseases in
185 human populations, we utilized the Mergeomics package [53], an open-source bioconductor package
186 (<https://bioconductor.org/packages/devel/bioc/html/Mergeomics.html>) designed to perform various integrative
187 analyses in multi-omics studies. Mergeomics consists of two main libraries, Marker Set Enrichment Analysis
188 (MSEA) and Weighted Key Driver Analysis (wKDA). In the current study, we used MSEA to assess 1) whether
189 known biological processes, pathways or transcription factor targets were enriched for BPA molecular signatures
190 as a means to annotate the potential functions or regulators of the molecular signatures, and 2) whether the BPA
191 signatures demonstrate enrichment for disease associations identified in human genome-wide association studies
192 (GWAS) of various complex diseases (**S1 Fig**). wKDA leverages gene network topology (interactions or
193 regulatory relations among genes) and edge weight (strength or reliability of interactions and regulatory relations)
194 information of graphical gene networks to predict potential key regulators of a given group of genes, in this case,
195 the BPA-associated DEGs (**S2 Fig**). Both MSEA and wKDA were built around a chi-square like statistics (**S1**
196 **Text**) that yields robust findings that have been experimentally validated [41,42,53]. Details of each usage of the
197 Mergeomics package are discussed below.

198 **Functional annotation of DEGs and DMCs**

199 To infer the functions of the DEGs and DMCs affected by BPA, we used MSEA to annotate the DEGs or local
200 genes adjacent to the DMCs with known biological pathways curated from the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and
201 Genomes (KEGG) [54] and Reactome [55]. In brief, we extracted the differential expression p-values of genes in
202 each pathway from the differential expression or methylation analyses and compared these p-values against the
203 null distribution of p-values from random gene sets with matching gene numbers. If genes in a given pathway

204 collectively show more significant differential expression or differential methylation p-values compared to
205 random genes based on a chi-square like statistic, we annotate the DEGs or DMCs using that pathway (**S1 Text**).
206 DEGs and DMCs can have multiple over-represented pathways.

207 **Identification of transcription factor (TF) hotspots perturbed by BPA**

208 To dissect the regulatory cascades of BPA, we first assessed whether BPA-associated DEGs were downstream
209 targets of specific transcription factors. The hypothesis behind this analysis is that BPA first affects TFs which in
210 turn regulate the expression of downstream genes. We used TF regulatory networks for adipose, brain, and liver
211 tissue retrieved from the FANTOM5 database [56]. Note that only a whole brain (instead of hypothalamus) TF
212 network was available, which may only partially represent hypothalamic gene regulation. Each TF network was
213 processed to keep the edges with high confidence (**S1 Text**). To identify TFs whose targets were perturbed by
214 BPA, the downstream nodes of each TF in the network were pooled as the target genes for that TF. We then
215 assessed the enrichment for BPA exposure related DEGs among the target genes of each TF using MSEA. TFs
216 with $FDR < 5\%$ were considered statistically significant. Cytoscape software was used for TF network
217 visualization [57].

218 **Bayesian network and Weighted Key Driver Analysis (wKDA) to identify potential non-TF** 219 **regulators**

220 To further identify non-TF regulators that sense BPA and then perturb downstream genes, we used Bayesian
221 networks (BN) of adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissues constructed from genetic and transcriptomic data from
222 several large-scale mouse and human studies (**S1 Text and S1 Table**). wKDA was used to identify network key
223 drivers (KDs), which are defined as network nodes whose neighboring subnetworks are significantly enriched for
224 BPA-associated DEGs. Briefly, wKDA takes gene set G (i.e. BPA DEGs) and directional gene network N (i.e.
225 BNs) as inputs. For every gene K in network N , neighboring genes within 1-edge distance were tested for

226 enrichment of genes in G using a chi-square like statistics followed by FDR assessment by permutation (**S1 Text**
227 **and S2 Fig**). Network genes that reached $FDR < 0.05$ were reported as potential KDs.

228 **Association of BPA DEGs and DMCs with mouse phenotypes and human diseases/traits**

229 To assess whether the BPA molecular signatures were related to phenotypes examined in the mouse offspring, we
230 calculated the Pearson correlation coefficient among expression level of DEGs, methylation ratio of DMCs, and
231 the measurement of metabolic traits. For human diseases or traits, we accessed the GWAS catalog database [58]
232 and collected the lists of candidate genes reported to be associated with 161 human traits/diseases ($P < 1e-5$).
233 These genes were tested for enrichment of the BPA DEGs and DMCs in our mouse study using MSEA. We
234 further curated all publicly available full summary statistics for 61 human traits/diseases from various public
235 repositories (**S1 Text and S2 Table**). This allowed us to apply MSEA to comprehensively assess the enrichment
236 for human disease association among BPA transcriptomic signatures using the full-spectrum of large-scale human
237 GWAS. For each tissue-specific gene signature, we used the SNPs within a 50kb chromosomal distance as the
238 representing SNPs for that gene. The trait/disease association p-values of the SNPs were then extracted from each
239 GWAS and compared to the p-values of SNPs of random sets of genes to assess whether the BPA signatures were
240 more likely to show stronger disease association in human GWAS (**S1 Text and S1 Fig**). This strategy has been
241 successfully used in our previous animal model studies to assess the connection of genes affected by
242 environmental perturbations such as diets and trauma to various human diseases [40,59].

243

244 **Results**

245 **Prenatal BPA exposure induces intrauterine growth retardation (IUGR) and alterations in** 246 **cardiometabolic phenotypes**

247 We exposed pregnant C57BL/6 mice to BPA during gestation (day 1 to day 20 post-conception) at the dosage of
248 5mg/kg/day, and observed alterations in various metabolic phenotypes in the male and female offspring with
249 prenatal BPA exposure at the weaning age. Compared with the control group, both male and female offspring
250 from the BPA group showed significantly lower body weight, indicative of IUGR, a trait that is strongly
251 associated with later life insulin resistance and obesity risk (**Fig 1B, D**). There were also significant decreases in
252 serum lipid parameters and an increase in serum glucose level in males (**Fig 1C**), but not in females (**Fig 1E**). The
253 decreases in the lipid parameters at this early developmental stage likely reflect the growth retardation phenotype
254 observed and may provide feedback signals to predispose the exposed offspring to lipid dysregulation later in life.
255 The phenotypic differences between BPA and control groups are not the results of litter effect, as offspring from
256 different dams in each group showed similar patterns (**S3 Fig**).

257

258 **Prenatal BPA exposure induces tissue-specific transcriptomic alterations in male weaning** 259 **offspring**

260 To explore the molecular basis underlying the potential health impact of prenatal BPA exposure, we collected
261 three core tissues important for metabolism from male offspring at 3 weeks. We focus on males due to the
262 stronger phenotypes observed. Hypothalamus is the central regulator of endocrine and metabolic systems,
263 whereas liver and white adipose tissues are critical for energy and metabolic homeostasis. We used RNA-seq to
264 profile the transcriptome, and identified 86, 93, and 855 differentially expressed genes (DEGs) in the adipose
265 tissue, hypothalamus, and liver tissue respectively, at $FDR < 0.05$ (**Fig 2A, S3 Table**). This supports the ability of

266 prenatal BPA exposure to induce large-scale transcriptomic disruptions in offspring, with the impact appearing to
267 be more prominent in liver. The DEGs were highly tissue-specific, with only 12 out of the 86 adipose DEGs and
268 16 out of the 93 hypothalamus DEGs being found in liver. Interestingly, the hypothalamic DEGs are
269 predominantly up-regulated in the BPA group whereas the other two tissues did not show such direction bias (**S4**
270 **Table**). Only one gene, *Cyp51* (sterol 14-alpha demethylase), was shared across all three tissues but with different
271 directional changes (upregulated in hypothalamus and liver, downregulated in adipose) (**Fig 2B**). The Cyp51
272 protein catalyzes metabolic reactions including cholesterol and steroid biosynthesis and biological oxidation [60].
273 Previously, this gene was also found to be critical regulator for testicular spermatogenesis [61]. The consistent
274 alteration of *Cyp51* across tissues suggests that this gene is a general target of BPA, with the potential to alter
275 functions related to cholesterol, hormone, and energy metabolism.

276

277 **Functional annotation of DEGs in adipose, hypothalamus, and liver tissues**

278 To better understand the biological implications of the BPA exposure related DEGs in individual tissues, we
279 evaluated the enrichment of DEGs for known biological pathways and functional categories (**Fig 2C-E**, full
280 results in **S5 Table**). We observed strong enrichment for pathways related to lipid metabolism (lipid transport,
281 fatty acid metabolism, cholesterol biosynthesis) and energy metabolism (biological oxidation, TCA cycle) across
282 all three tissues. Most of these pathways appeared to be upregulated in all three tissues, with the exception of
283 downregulation of genes involved in biological oxidation in adipose tissue (**Fig 2C-E**). Individual tissues also
284 showed perturbations of unique pathways: PPAR signaling and arachidonic acid pathways were altered in liver;
285 extracellular matrix related processes were enriched among hypothalamic DEGs; core histone genes were
286 upregulated in adipose DEGs (**Fig 2C-E**). In addition, triglyceride biosynthesis and glucose metabolism pathways
287 were also moderately enriched among adipose DEGs, whereas few changes were seen for genes involved in
288 adipocyte differentiation (**S4 Fig**).

289

290 **Prenatal BPA exposure induces tissue-specific epigenetic alterations in male weaning offspring**

291 Consistent with the observed gene expression disruptions at the transcriptomic level, we observed numerous
292 methylomic alterations using RRBS, which characterizes DNA methylation states of millions of potential
293 epigenetic sites at single base resolution. At FDR < 5%, 5136, 104, and 476 differentially methylated CpGs
294 (DMCs) were found in adipose, hypothalamus, and liver tissues, respectively (**Fig 3A, S6 Table**). Interestingly,
295 BPA induced local methylation changes in *Gm26917* and *Yam1*, two lncRNAs with no previously known link to
296 BPA, consistently across three tissues (**Fig 3B**). The majority of the DMCs are located in intergenic regions (32%
297 - 38%), followed by introns (31% - 37%) and exons (13% - 15%), but there is a paucity of DMCs in the promoter
298 region (3% - 5%) (**S5 Fig**). Contrary to predictions that promoter regions may be more prone to epigenetic
299 changes, we found that within-gene and intergenic methylation alterations in DNA methylation are more
300 prevalent, a pattern consistently observed in previous epigenomic studies [40,62]. In addition, 5.0%, 8.6%, and
301 8.1% DMCs overlap with repetitive DNA elements in adipose, hypothalamus, and liver, respectively,
302 recapitulating previous report of the interaction between BPA and repetitive DNA [63].

303 For DMCs that are located within or adjacent to genes, we further tested whether the local genes adjacent to those
304 DMCs show enrichment for known functional categories. Unlike DEGs, top processes enriched for DMCs
305 concentrated on intra- and extra-cellular communication and signaling related pathways such as axon guidance,
306 extracellular matrix organization and NGF signaling (**Fig 3C, full results in S7 Table**). The affected genes in
307 these processes are related to cellular structure, cell adhesion, and cell migration, indicating that these functions
308 may be particularly vulnerable to BPA induced epigenetic modulation.

309

310 **Potential regulatory role of DMCs in transcriptional regulation of BPA induced DEGs**

311 To explore the role of DMCs in regulating DEGs, we evaluated the connection between transcriptome and
312 methylome by correlating the expression level of DEGs with the methylation ratio of their local DMCs. For the
313 DEGs in adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissue, we identified 42, 36, and 278 local DMCs whose methylation
314 ratios were significantly correlated with the gene expression. At a global level, compared to non-DEGs, DEGs are
315 more likely to contain local correlated DMCs (**S6 Fig**). A closer look into the expression-methylation correlation
316 by different chromosomal regions further revealed a context dependent correlation pattern (**Fig 3D**). In adipose
317 and liver, the 3-5% of DMCs in promoter regions tend to show significant enrichment for negative correlation
318 with DEGs, whereas gene body methylations for DEGs are more likely to show significant enrichment for
319 positive correlation with gene expression. In hypothalamus, however, positive correlations between DEGs and
320 DMCs are more prevalent across different gene regions. In addition, liver DMCs within lncRNAs were uniquely
321 enriched for negative correlation with lncRNA expression, although the lack of a reliable mouse lncRNA target
322 database prevented us from further investigating whether downstream targets of the lncRNAs were enriched in the
323 DEGs. Specific examples of DEGs showing significant correlation with local DMCs include adipose DEG
324 *Slc25a1* (Solute Carrier Family 25 Member 1, involved in triglyceride biosynthesis), hypothalamic DEG *Mvk*
325 (Mevalonate Kinase, involved in cholesterol biosynthesis), and liver DEG *Gm20319* (a lncRNA with unknown
326 function) (**S7 Fig and S8 Table**). These results support a role of BPA-induced differential methylation in altering
327 the expression levels of adjacent genes.

328

329 **Pervasive influence of prenatal BPA exposure on the liver transcription factor network**

330 BPA is known to bind to diverse types of nuclear receptors such as estrogen receptors and peroxisome
331 proliferator-activated (PPAR) receptors that function as transcription factors (TFs), thus influencing the action of
332 downstream genes [64,65]. *PPARg* in particular has been shown to be a target of BPA in mouse and human and

333 mechanistically linking BPA exposure with its associated effect on weight gain and increased adipogenesis [66-
334 68]. To explore the TF regulatory landscape underlying BPA exposure based on our genome-wide data, we
335 leveraged tissue-specific TF regulatory networks from the FANTOM5 project [56] and integrated it with our BPA
336 transcriptome profiling data. No TF was found to be differentially expressed in adipose tissue, whereas 1 TF
337 (Pou3f1) and 14 TFs (such as Esrra, Hnf1a, Pparg, Tcf21, Srebf1) were found to be differentially expressed in
338 hypothalamus and liver, respectively. Due to the temporal nature of TF action, changes in TF levels may precede
339 the downstream target genes and not be reflected in the transcriptomic profiles measured at the time of sacrifice.
340 Therefore, we further curated the target genes of TFs from FANTOM5 networks and tested the enrichment for the
341 target genes of each TF among our tissue-specific DEGs (**S9 Table**). This analysis confirmed that BPA perturbs
342 the activity of the downstream targets for estrogen receptors Esrrg ($p = 1.4e-3$, FDR = 1.9%) and Esrra ($p = 0.03$,
343 FDR = 13%) in liver, as well as Esr1 in both adipose ($p = 7.2e-3$, FDR = 10.6%) and liver ($p = 7.2e-3$, FDR =
344 4.7%). Targets of Pparg were also perturbed in liver ($p = 4.1e-3$, FDR = 3.8%). Therefore, we demonstrated that
345 our data-driven network modeling is able to not only recapitulate results from previous *in-vitro* and *in-vivo* studies
346 showing that BPA influences estrogen signaling and PPAR signaling [65], but also uniquely point to the tissue
347 specificity of these BPA target TFs.

348 In addition to these expected TFs, we identified 14 adipose TFs and 61 liver TFs whose target genes were
349 significantly enriched for BPA DEGs at FDR < 5%. Many of these TFs showed much stronger enrichment for
350 BPA DEGs among their downstream targets than the estrogen receptors (**S9 Table**). The adipose TFs include
351 nuclear transcription factor Y subunit alpha (Nfya) and fatty acid synthase (Fasn), both implicated in the
352 adipocyte energy metabolism [69]. The liver TFs include multiple genes from the hepatocyte nuclear factors
353 (HNF) family and the CCAAT-enhancer-binding proteins (CEBP) family, which are critical for liver development
354 and function, suggesting a pervasive influence of BPA on liver TF regulation.

355 We further extracted the subnetwork containing 89 unique downstream targets of the significant liver TFs that are
356 also liver DEGs. This subnetwork showed significant enrichment for genes involved in metabolic pathways such

357 as steroid hormone biosynthesis and fatty acid metabolism. The regulatory subnetwork for the top liver TFs (FDR
358 < 5%) revealed a highly interconnected TF subnetwork that potentially senses BPA exposure and in turn governs
359 the expression levels of their targets (**Fig 4A**), with *Pparg* and *Hnf4* among the core TFs. Some of the TFs in this
360 network, including *Esr1*, *Esrrg*, *Foxp1*, and *Tcf7l1*, also had local DMCs identified in our study, indicating that
361 BPA may perturb this liver TF subnetwork via local modification of DNA methylation of key TFs.

362

363 **Identification of potential non-TF regulators governing BPA induced molecular perturbations**

364 To further identify regulatory genes that mediate the action of BPA on downstream targets through non-TF
365 mechanisms, we leveraged data-driven tissue-specific Bayesian networks (BNs) generated from multiple
366 independent human and mouse studies (**S1 Table**). These data-driven networks are complementary to the TF
367 networks used above and have proven valuable for accurately predicting gene-gene regulatory relationships and
368 novel key drivers (KDs) [39-42,70]. KDs were defined as network nodes whose surrounding subnetworks are
369 significantly enriched for BPA exposure related DEGs. At FDR < 1%, we identified 21, 1, and 100 KDs in
370 adipose, hypothalamus, and liver, respectively (**S10 Table**). The top KDs in adipose (top 5 KDs *Acss2*, *Pc*,
371 *Agpat2*, *Slc25a1*, *Acly*), hypothalamus (*Fa2h*) and liver (top 5 KDs *Dhcr7*, *Aldh3a2*, *Fdft1*, *Mtmr11*, *Hmgcr*) were
372 involved in cholesterol, fatty acid and glucose metabolism processes. In addition, three KDs, *Acss2* (Acetyl-
373 Coenzyme A Synthetase 2), *Acat2* (Acetyl-CoA Acetyltransferase 2), and *Fasn* (Fatty Acid Synthase), were
374 involved in the upregulation of DEGs in both adipose and liver, despite the fact that few DEG signatures overlap
375 across tissues (**Fig 4B**). These KDs are consistent with the observed increased expression of several genes
376 implicated in lipogenesis, including *Fasn*, and help explain the liver accumulation of triglycerides when mice are
377 exposed to BPA [71]. Together, these results indicate that BPA may engage certain common regulators which
378 have tissue-specific targets. The distinct upregulatory pattern within the subnetworks of individual KDs supports
379 the potential functional importance of KDs in orchestrating the action of downstream genes. These KDs, along

380 with the newly identified TFs from the above analysis, may represent novel regulatory targets which transmit the
381 *in vivo* biological effects of BPA.

382

383 **BPA transcriptomic and methylomic signatures are related to metabolic traits in mice**

384 To assess the relationship between the BPA molecular signatures and metabolic traits in the mouse model, the
385 DEGs and DMCs from individual tissues were tested for correlation with the measured metabolic traits: body
386 weight, free fatty acids, total cholesterol, high density lipoprotein cholesterol, triglycerides and blood glucose. At
387 $p < 0.05$, over two thirds of tissue-specific DEGs and over 60% DMCs were identified to be correlated with at
388 least one metabolic trait (**Fig 5A, B**). Notably, liver DEGs exhibited stronger correlation with free fatty acid and
389 triglycerides, whereas adipose DEGs were uniquely associated with glucose level, which is consistent with the
390 pathway annotation results for these tissues. On the other hand, liver DMCs showed stronger correlations with
391 metabolic traits than those from adipose and hypothalamus tissues.

392 Cross-examination of correlation across gene expression, DNA methylation, and metabolic traits revealed 35
393 consistent DEG-DMC-trait associations (3 in adipose, 4 in hypothalamus, and 28 in liver) (**S11 Table**). For
394 example, in adipose tissue, *Fasn* (also a perturbed TF hotspot in adipose, and a shared KD in adipose and liver)
395 was correlated with its exonic DMC at chr11:120816457, and both were correlated with triglyceride level; in
396 hypothalamus, *Igflr* (Insulin Like Growth Factor 1 Receptor) was correlated with its intronic DMC at
397 chr7:68072768, and both were correlated with blood glucose level; in liver, *Adh1* (Alcohol Dehydrogenase 1A)
398 was correlated with its intronic DMC at chr3:138287690, and both were correlated with body weight (**Fig 5C**).

399 These results suggest that BPA alters local DMCs of certain genes to regulate gene expression, which may in turn
400 regulate distinct metabolic traits.

401

402 **Relevance of BPA signature to human complex traits/diseases**

403 Human observational studies have associated developmental BPA exposure with a wide variety of human
404 diseases ranging from cardiometabolic diseases to neuropsychiatric disorders [14,15,72]. Large-scale human
405 genome-wide association studies offer an unbiased view of the genetic architecture for various human
406 traits/diseases, and intersections of the molecular footprints of BPA in our mouse study with human disease risk
407 genes can help infer the potential disease-causing properties of BPA in humans. From the GWAS Catalog [58],
408 we collected associated genes for 161 human traits/diseases (traits with fewer than 50 associated genes were
409 excluded), and evaluated the enrichment for the trait associated genes among DEG and DMC signatures. At FDR
410 $< 5\%$, no trait was found to be significantly enriched for BPA DEGs. Surprisingly, despite the difference between
411 tissue-specific DMCs (**Fig 3B**), 19 out the 161 traits showed consistently strong enrichment for DMCs across all
412 three tissues at FDR $< 1\%$. The top traits include body mass index (BMI) and type 2 diabetes (**Table 1**). As DNA
413 methylation status is known to determine long-term gene expression pattern instead of immediate dynamic gene
414 regulation, the BMI and diabetes associated genes may be under long-term programming by BPA-induced
415 differential methylation, thereby affecting later disease risks.

416 The above analysis involving the GWAS catalog focused only on small sets of the top candidate genes for various
417 diseases and may have limited statistical power. To improve the statistical power, we curated the full summary
418 statistics from 61 human GWAS that are publicly available (covering millions of SNP-trait associations in each
419 GWAS), which enabled us to extend the assessment of disease association by considering additional human
420 disease genes with moderate to low effect sizes (**Methods**). This analysis showed that DEGs from all three tissues
421 exhibited consistent enrichment for genes associated with lipid traits such as triglycerides, LDL, and HDL (**Fig**
422 **6A-C**). Interestingly, enrichment for birth weight and birth length was also observed for hypothalamus and liver
423 signatures, respectively. Liver DEGs were also significantly associated with coronary artery disease,
424 inflammatory bowel disease, Alzheimer's disease, and schizophrenia. Top DEGs driving the inflammatory bowel
425 disease association involve immune and inflammatory response genes (*PSMB9*, *TAP1*, *TNF*), whereas association

426 with Alzheimer's disease and schizophrenia involve genes related to cholesterol homeostasis (*APOA4*, *ABCG8*,
427 *SOAT2*) and mitochondrial function (*GCDH*, *PDPR*, *SHMT2*), respectively. These results suggest that tissue-
428 specific targets of BPA are connected to diverse human complex diseases through both the central nervous system
429 and peripheral tissues.

430

431 **Discussion**

432 This multi-tissue, multi-omics integrative study represents one of the first systems biology investigations of
433 prenatal BPA exposure. By integrating systematic profiling of the transcriptome and methylome of multiple
434 metabolic tissues with phenotypic trait measurements, large-scale human association datasets, and network
435 analysis, we uncovered insights into the molecular regulatory mechanisms underlying the health effect of prenatal
436 BPA exposure. Specifically, we identified tens to hundreds of tissue-specific DEGs and DMCs involved in
437 diverse biological functions such as metabolic pathways (oxidative phosphorylation/TCA cycle, fatty acid,
438 cholesterol, glucose metabolism, and PPAR signaling), extracellular matrix, focal adhesion, and inflammation
439 (arachidonic acid), with DMCs partially explaining the regulation of DEGs. Network analysis helped reveal
440 potential regulatory circuits post BPA exposure and pinpointed both tissue-specific and cross-tissue regulators of
441 BPA activities, including TFs such as estrogen receptors, *PPARg*, and *HNF1A*, and non-TF key drivers such as
442 *FASN*. Furthermore, the BPA gene signatures and the predicted regulators were found to be linked to a wide
443 spectrum of disease-related traits in both mouse and human.

444 The large-scale disruption we observed in the transcriptome and methylome in adipose and liver was consistent
445 with previous reports [32,35,73,74]. For instance, comparison of our liver DEGs with the liver signatures
446 identified from meta-analysis of available GEO datasets showed significant overlap ($P = 8.2e-3$ by Fisher's exact
447 test, **See S1 Text**). However, our unique study design of examining multi-omics in multiple tissues in parallel
448 yields higher comparability when integrating the results between data types and across tissues, as they were from

449 the same set of animals and were profiled in the same conditions. Furthermore, our advanced multidimensional
450 integrative approach provides deeper insights into the regulatory cascades within and across tissues. Across all
451 three tissues at the transcriptome level, we found that lipid metabolism and energy homeostasis related processes
452 were consistently perturbed, with the scale of perturbation being strongest in liver. This aligns well with the
453 significant changes in the plasma lipid profiles we observed in the offspring, the reported perturbation of lipid
454 metabolism in fetal murine liver [74], and the reported susceptibility for nonalcoholic fatty liver diseases
455 following BPA exposure [75-77]. The only shared gene across tissues, *Cyp51*, is involved in cholesterol and sterol
456 biosynthesis and beta oxidation, again supporting that metabolism is a central target of BPA. At the methylome
457 level, we are able to replicate 5 out of 7 peak hypomethylated genes, and 6 out of 9 peak hypermethylated genes
458 from a study focusing on the gonadal adipose tissue [35]. We also revealed an intriguing link between BPA and
459 lncRNAs across tissues, whose functional importance in developmental processes, disease progression, and
460 response to BPA exposure was increasingly recognized yet underexplored [78]. Our molecular data provides
461 intriguing lncRNA candidates such as *Gm20319*, *Gm26917*, and *Yam1* for future in-depth functional analyses.

462 For adipose tissue, clusters of genes responsible for core histones were found to be uniquely altered. Along with
463 the strong adipose-specific differential methylation status, our results revealed gonadal adipose tissues as an
464 especially vulnerable site for BPA induced epigenetic reprogramming. Besides, developmental BPA exposure has
465 been previously suggested to influence white adipocyte differentiation [79-81]. However, the adipocyte
466 differentiation pathway was not significantly enriched in our study. This is consistent with the report by Angel et
467 al. [81], where increased adipocyte number is only found in mouse offspring with prenatal BPA exposure at
468 5ug/kg/day and 500ug/kg/day, but not 5mg/kg/day. Additionally, we found significant changes in triglyceride
469 biosynthesis and glucose metabolism genes, suggesting that prenatal BPA exposure affects fat storage and glucose
470 homeostasis in the adipose tissue. Although here we mainly investigate gonadal adipose tissue as a surrogate for
471 abdominal fat in the context of metabolic disorders, the information may be useful for exploring the relationship
472 between this fat depot and the gonad.

473 With regards to the hypothalamus, our study is the first to investigate the effect of BPA on the hypothalamic
474 transcriptome and DNA methylome. Hypothalamus is an essential brain region that regulates the endocrine
475 system, peripheral metabolism, and numerous brain functions. We identified BPA-induced DEGs and DMCs that
476 were enriched for extracellular matrix related processes such as axon guidance, focal adhesion, and various
477 metabolic processes. These hypothalamic pathways have been previously associated with metabolic [40,41] and
478 neurodegenerative diseases [40,82], and they could underlie the reported disruption of hypothalamic melanocortin
479 circuitry after BPA exposure [83]. Our study highlights the hypothalamus as another critical yet under-recognized
480 target for BPA.

481 By interrogating both the transcriptome and DNA methylome in matching tissues, we were able to directly assess
482 both global and specific correlative relationships between DEGs and DMCs (**S6 Fig, Fig 3D**). Specifically, we
483 found that DEGs are more likely to have correlated DMCs in the matching tissue, a trend that persists in non-
484 promoter regions. Our results corroborate previous findings regarding the importance of gene body methylation in
485 disease etiology [84,85]. Given that over 90% of DMCs were found in non-promoter regions, closer investigation
486 of the regulatory circuits involving these regions may unveil new insights into BPA response [62].

487 Known as an endocrine disrupting chemical, BPA has been speculated to exert its primary biological action by
488 modifying the activity of hormone receptors, including estrogen receptors, PPAR γ and glucocorticoid receptors
489 [65]. Indeed, the activity for the downstream targets of Pparg and three estrogen and estrogen-related receptors
490 were found to be disrupted in liver by prenatal BPA exposure. More importantly, our unbiased data-driven
491 analysis revealed many novel transcription factors and non-TF regulatory genes that also likely mediate BPA
492 effects. In fact, many of the newly identified TF targets of BPA, such as Fasn and several hepatic nuclear factors,
493 showed much higher ranking in our regulator prediction analyses. In liver, a tightly inter-connected TF
494 subnetwork was highly concentrated with BPA affected genes involved in metabolic processes such as
495 cytochrome P450 system (*Cyp3a25*, *Cyp2a12*, *Cyp1a2*), lipid (*Apoa4*, *Abcg5*, *Soat2*) and glucose (*Hnf1a*,
496 *Adra1b*, *Gck*) regulation, with extensive footprints of altered methylation status in the TFs and other subnetwork

497 genes (**Fig 4A**). Therefore, our results support a widespread impact of BPA on liver transcriptional regulation, and
498 the convergence of differential methylation and gene expression in this TF subnetwork implies that BPA perturbs
499 this subnetwork via epigenetic regulation of the TFs, which in turn trigger transcriptomic alterations in
500 downstream genes. In adipose, we discovered a regulatory axis governed by *Nfya* and *Fasn* that are known
501 regulators of fatty acid metabolism and adipogenesis. NF-YA is a histone-fold domain protein that binds to the
502 inverted CCAAT element in the *Fasn* promoter [69,86], and both *Nfya* and *Fasn* were found to significantly
503 perturbed by BPA in our study. Moreover, *Fasn* also serves as a cross-tissue KD, governing distinct groups of up-
504 regulated lipid metabolism genes in adipose and liver post-BPA exposure (**Fig 4B**), supporting its role in
505 mediating the BPA-induced lipid dysregulation at the systemic level. The significant correlation of gene
506 expression and methylation for *Fasn* with triglyceride level furthers implicates its role as a network-level
507 regulator and biomarker for BPA induced lipid dysregulation. Our observation of *Fasn* is consistent with
508 evidences suggesting its susceptibility to methylation perturbation under obesogenic feeding [87] and its causal
509 functional importance for fatty liver diseases [42,88]. These novel regulators warrant future experimental testing
510 of their causal regulatory role in BPA activities via genetic manipulation studies, such as knocking down or
511 overexpressing *Fasn* to examine the modulation of BPA activities.

512 One unique aspect of this study is the linking of the molecular landscape of prenatal BPA exposure to
513 traits/diseases in both mouse and human. In our mouse study, the observed changes in body weight, lipid profiles,
514 and glucose level are highly concordant with the functions of the molecular targets. For instance, prenatal BPA
515 exposure perturbs both the expression levels and the local DNA methylation status of *Fasn*, *Igf1r*, and *Adh1*.
516 These DEGs and their local DMCs also significantly correlate with phenotypic outcomes, thus serving as
517 examples of how DNA methylation and gene regulation bridge the gap between BPA exposure and phenotypic
518 manifestation. To further enhance the translatability of our findings from mouse to human, we searched for
519 human diseases linked to the BPA-affected genes. An intriguing discovery is the prominent overrepresentation of
520 differential methylation signals in adipose, hypothalamus, and liver within known genes related to obesity and

521 type 2 diabetes, supporting that BPA may impact obesity and diabetes risk through systemic reprogramming of
522 DNA methylation. More sophisticated analysis incorporating the BPA differential gene expression and the full
523 statistics of human genome-wide association studies corroborated the observed connection between prenatal BPA
524 exposure and lipid homeostasis [89], birth weight [90], and coronary artery disease [14] reported in observational
525 studies. Moreover, our findings suggest the involvement of prenatal BPA exposure in the development of
526 inflammatory bowel syndrome, schizophrenia, and Alzheimer's disease. These associations warrant future
527 investigations.

528 One limitation of our work is the restriction of study scope to weaning age male mice with *in utero* BPA exposure
529 below the NOAEL (5mg/kg/d) as a proof-of-concept for our systems biology framework. Considering that the
530 effects of early-life exposure to BPA is highly variable and dependent on factors such as the dose, window, route,
531 and frequency of exposure as well as genetic background, age, and sex [13], future studies testing these additional
532 variables are necessary to generate a comprehensive understandings of BPA risks under various exposure
533 conditions.

534 **Conclusions**

535 Our study represents the first multi-tissue, multi-omics integrative investigation of prenatal BPA exposure. The
536 systems biology framework we applied revealed how BPA triggers cascades of regulatory circuits involving
537 numerous transcription factors and non-TF regulators that coordinate diverse molecular processes within and
538 across core metabolic tissues, thereby highlighting that BPA exerts its biological functions via much more diverse
539 targets than previously thought. As such, our findings offer a comprehensive systems-level understanding of
540 tissue sensitivity and molecular perturbations elicited by prenatal BPA exposure, and offer promising novel
541 candidates for targeted mechanistic investigation as well as much-needed network-level biomarkers of prior BPA
542 exposure. The strong influence of BPA on metabolic pathways and cardiometabolic phenotypes merits its
543 characterization as a general metabolic disruptor posing systemic health risks.

544

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550 **Competing interests**

551 The authors declare that they have no competing interest.

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753 **Supporting information captions**

754 S1 Text. Supplemental Methods.

755 S1 Fig. Schematic illustration of MSEA

756 S2 Fig. Schematic illustration (A) and key driver identification algorithms (B) of wKDA.

757 S3 Fig. Body weight of male and female offspring mice at weaning age by litters. Red arrows indicate offspring
758 male mice selected for molecular profiling.

759 S4 Fig. Prenatal BPA exposure induced expression change for genes from the adipocyte differentiation,
760 triglyceride biosynthesis, glucose metabolism, and core histone genes in the adipose tissue. P-values for
761 enrichment of pathway genes among DEGs (shown in parenthesis in each panel heading) were determined by
762 MSEA. * $p < 0.05$ in differential expression tests for individual genes by DEseq2; **FDR < 5% in differential
763 expression tests for individual genes by DEseq2.

764 S5 Fig. Gene body location distribution for hyper- and hypo- methylated DMC s in adipose, hypothalamus, and
765 liver.

766 S6 Fig. Quantile-quantile plots for the absolute Pearson correlation with local DMC for DEGs and Non DEGs in
767 adipose, hypothalamus, and liver tissue. Statistical difference of the distribution of correlation value between
768 DEGs (FDR < 5%) and non DEGs is determined by the Kolmogorov–Smirnov test.

769 S7 Fig. Scatter plots of correlations between DEG expression levels and DMC methylation ratios for *Slc25a1* in
770 adipose, *Mvk* in hypothalamus, and *Gm20319* in liver.

771 S1 Table. Data resources and references for the construction of Bayesian gene-gene regulatory networks.

772 S2 Table. Source of publicly available full summary-level statistics from human genome-wide association studies.

773 S3 Table. List of DEGs with $p < 0.05$ in adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissue following prenatal exposure to
774 BPA.

775 S4 Table. Count of DEGs in adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissue following prenatal exposure to BPA.

776 S5 Table. Results of functional annotation of DEGs in in adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissue following
777 prenatal exposure to BPA

778 S6 Table. Count of differentially methylated regions in hypothalamus and liver tissue following prenatal exposure
779 to BPA.

780 S7 Table. Results of functional annotation of DMCs in in adipose, hypothalamus and liver tissue following
781 prenatal exposure to BPA.

782 S8 Table. List of pairs of DEGs and local DMCs with significant correlation ($p < 0.05$) in expression level and
783 methylation ratio

784 S9 Table. List of transcription factors whose downstream targets were significantly enriched for DEGs ($p < 0.05$).

785 S10 Table. List of tissue-specific key drivers with $FDR < 1\%$

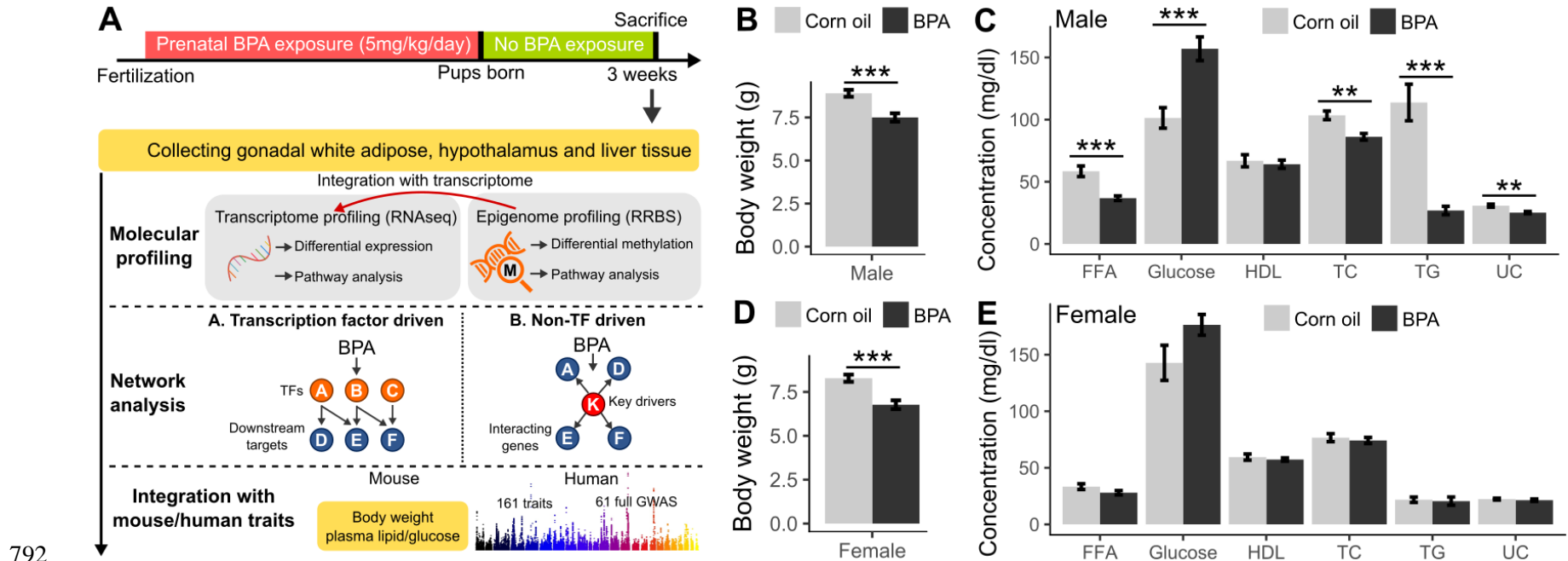
786 S11 Table. List of DEGs with significant correlation between expression level, methylation ratio of local DMCs,
787 and cardiometabolic traits ($p < 0.05$).

788 **Tables**

789 Table 1. Top 5 human traits whose associated genes in genome-wide association studies are enriched for
 790 differentially methylated CpGs (DMCs) across adipose, hypothalamus and liver at FDR < 1% in MSEA.

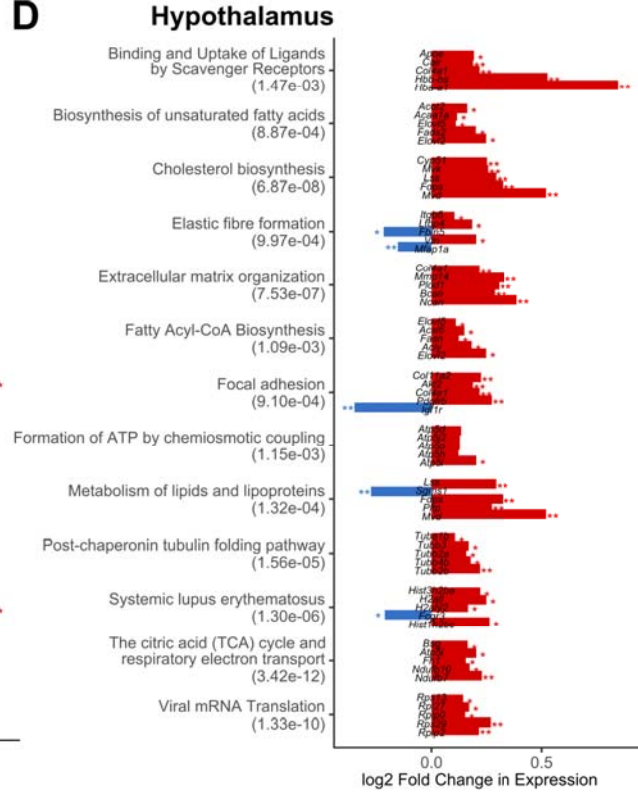
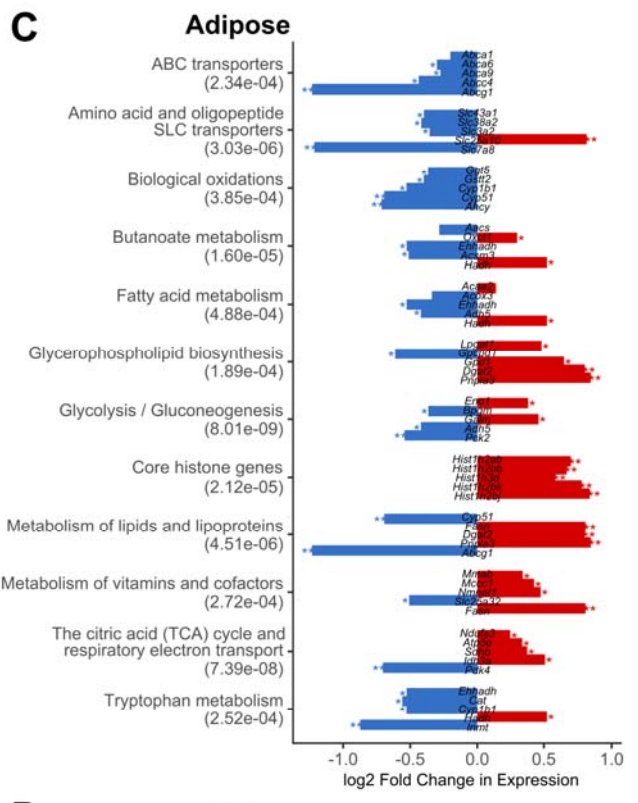
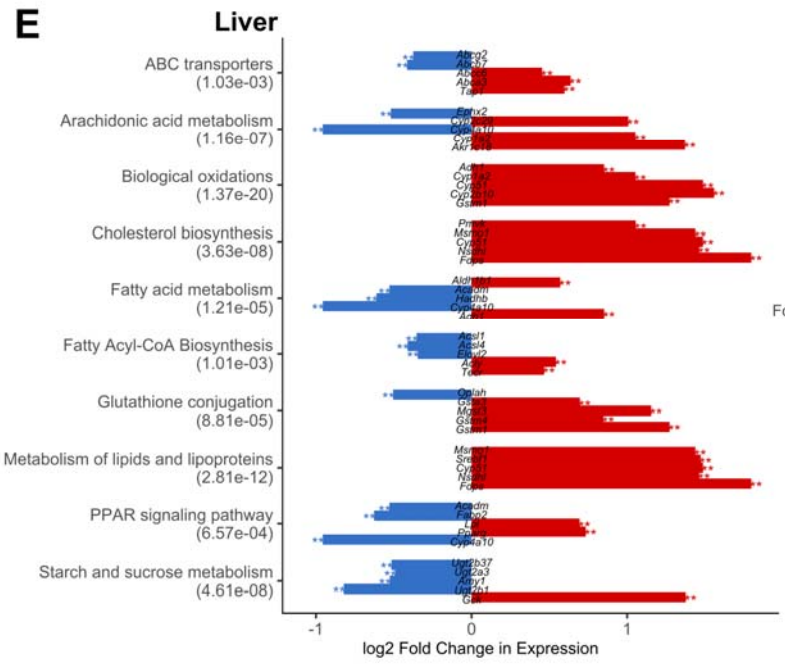
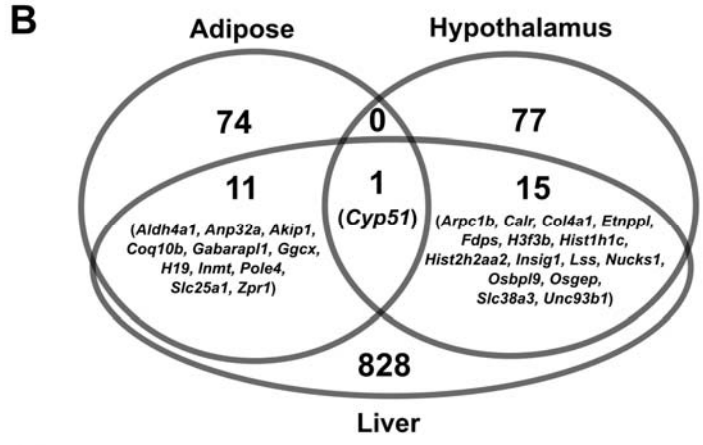
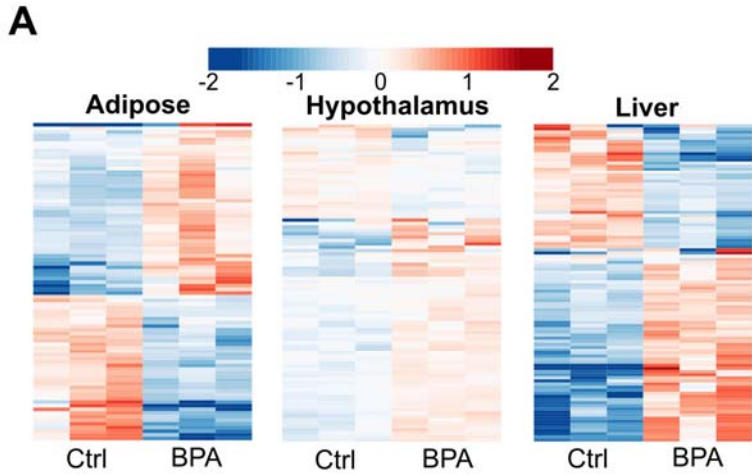
Human trait	Adipose		Hypothalamus		Liver	
	P	FDR	P	FDR	P	FDR
Obesity-related traits	1.28E-16	0.00%	3.03E-15	0.00%	2.71E-19	0.00%
Body mass index	1.30E-13	0.00%	3.74E-07	0.00%	9.66E-12	0.00%
Post bronchodilator FEV1/FVC ratio	8.17E-09	0.00%	1.45E-08	0.00%	3.67E-07	0.00%
Type 2 diabetes	1.21E-05	0.03%	8.97E-09	0.00%	0.001243	0.92%
Platelet distribution width	8.16E-08	0.00%	7.62E-05	0.16%	5.20E-05	0.12%

791 **Figures**

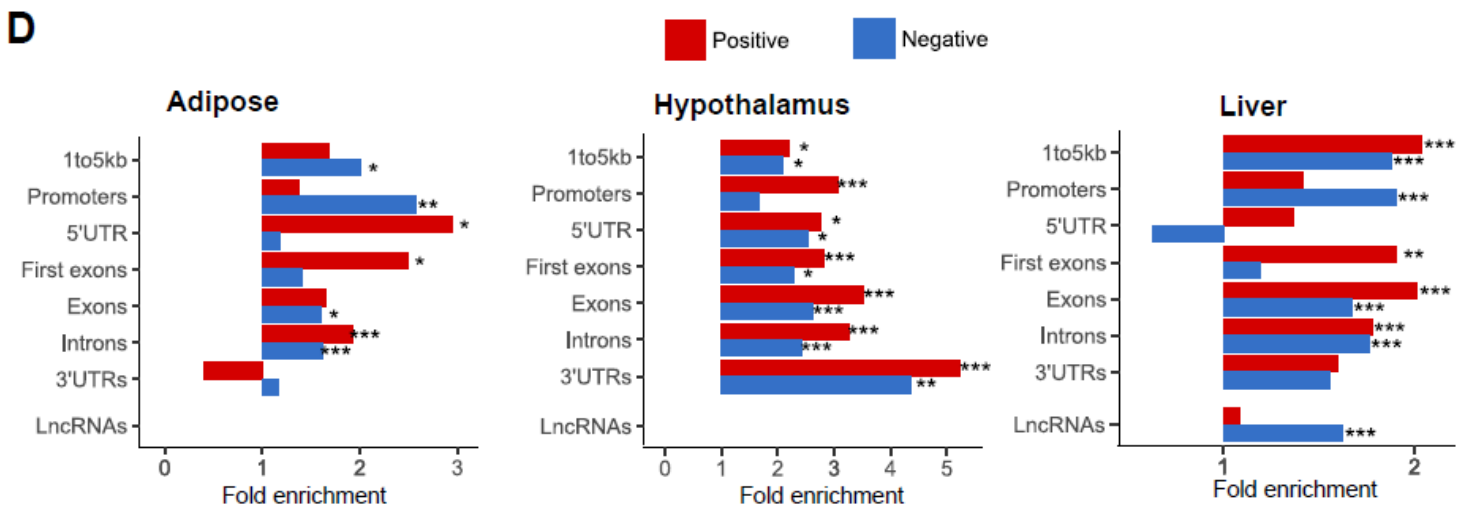
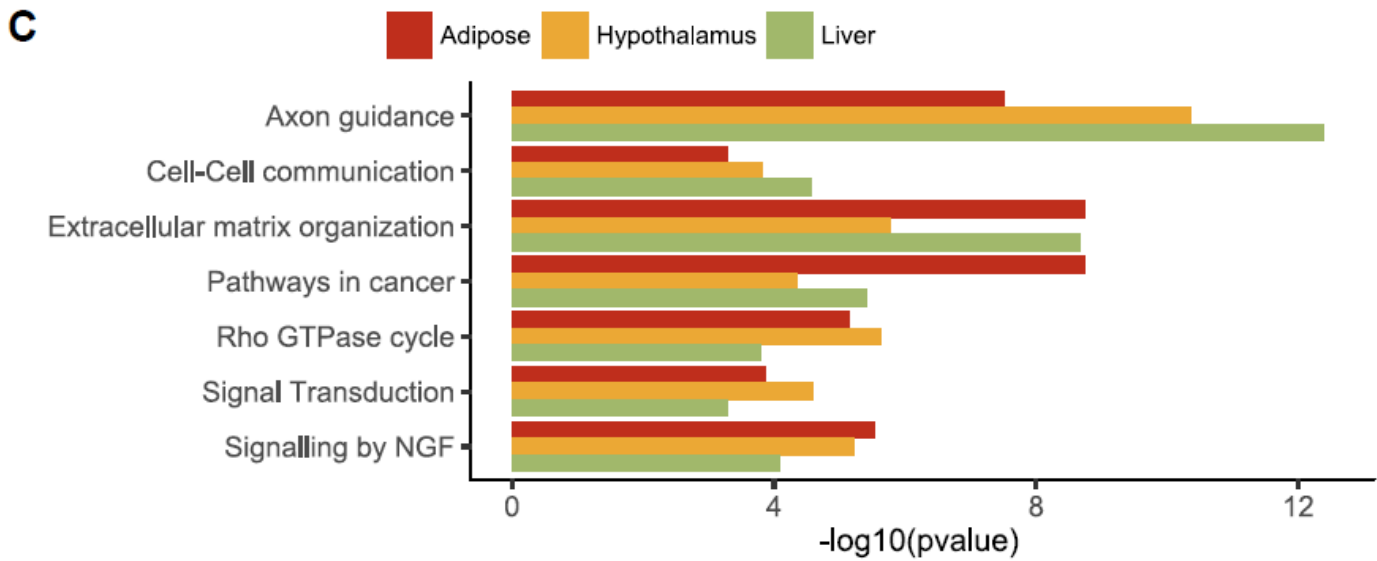
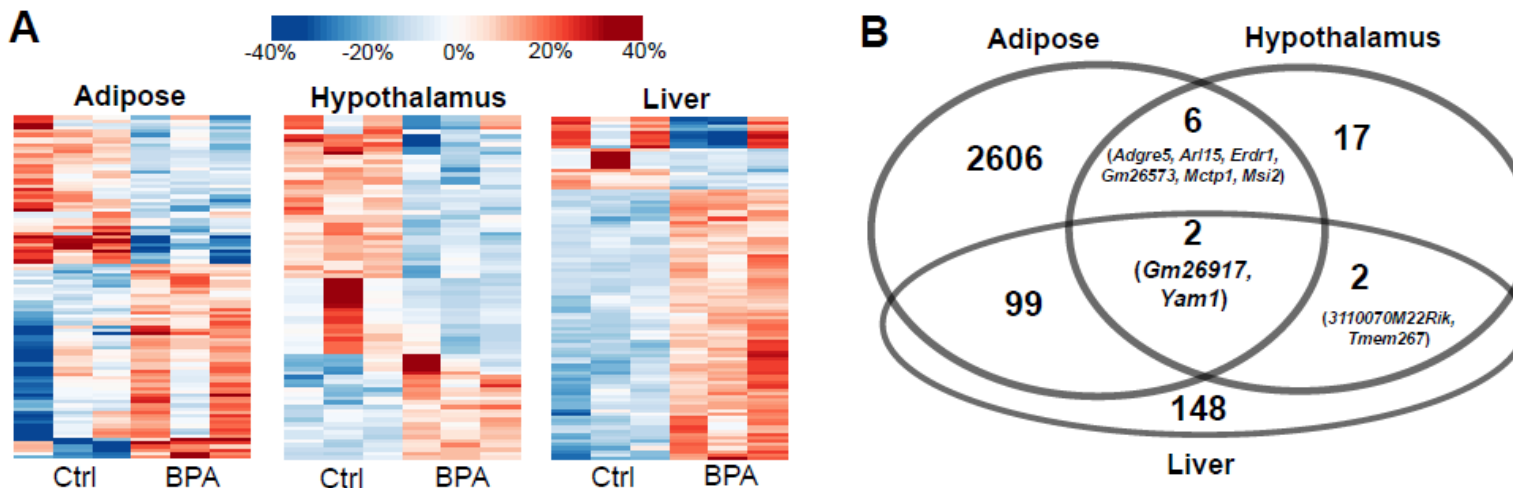


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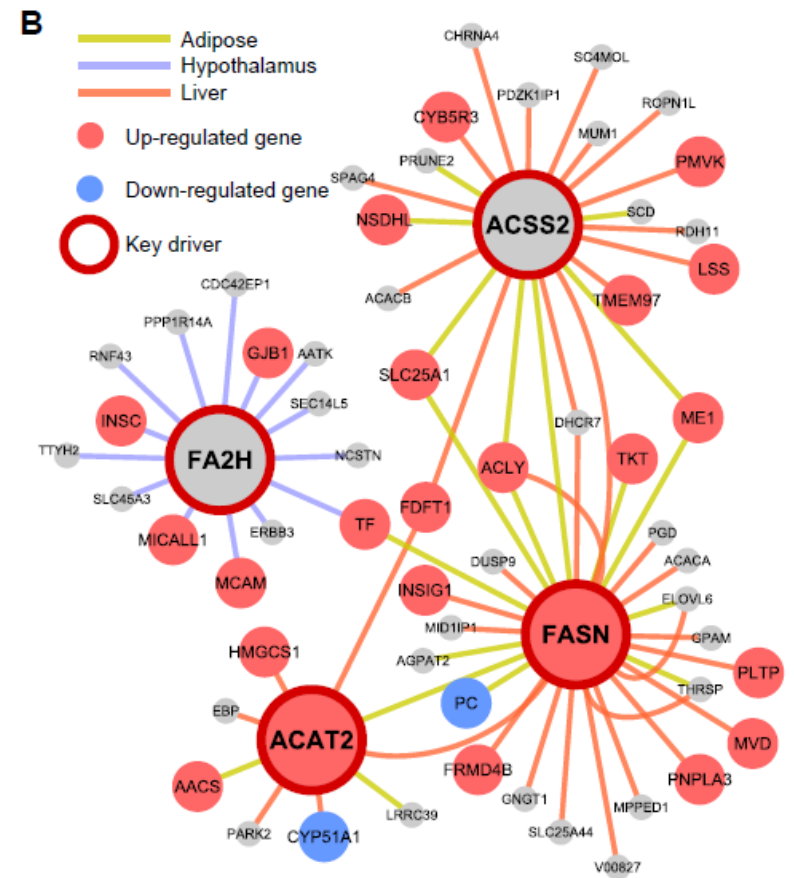
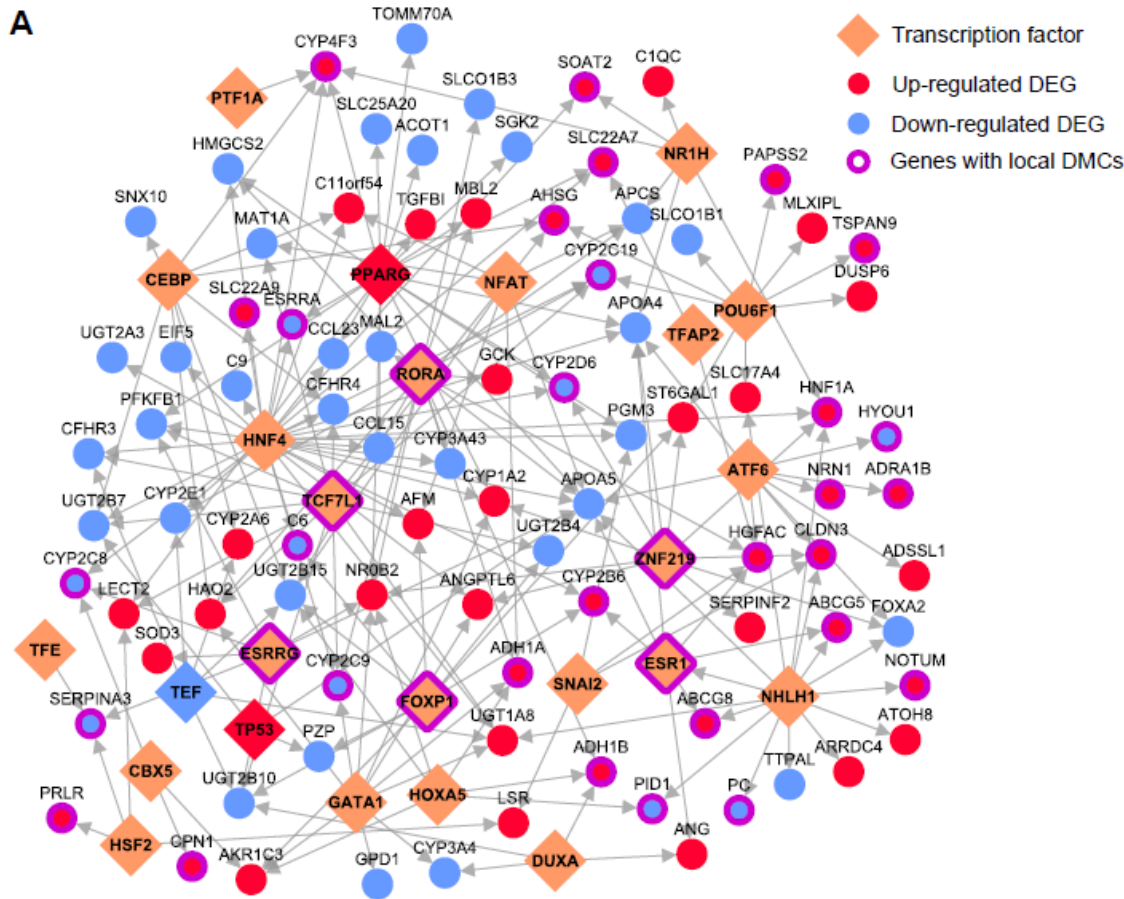
793 **Fig 1. Overall study design and the measurements of metabolic traits in male and female offspring.** (A) Framework of multi-omics
 794 approaches to investigate the impact of prenatal BPA exposure. B-C) Comparison of body weight, serum lipids and glucose level in male mice at
 795 weaning age. D-E) Comparison of body weight, serum lipids and glucose level in female mice at weaning age. FFA: free fatty acid; HDL: high-
 796 density lipoprotein cholesterol; TC: total cholesterol; TG: triglyceride; UC: unesterified cholesterol. * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$ by two-
 797 sided Student's T-test. N=9-13 mice/group.



799 **Fig 2. Prenatal BPA exposure induced transcriptomic alterations in adipose, hypothalamus and liver.** (A)
800 Heatmap of expression changes in adipose, hypothalamus and liver for the top 100 differentially expressed genes
801 (DEGs) affected by BPA. Color indicates fold change of expression, with red and blue indicating upregulation
802 and downregulation by BPA. (B) Venn Diagram demonstrating tissue-specific and shared DEGs between tissues.
803 (C-E) Significantly enriched pathways (FDR < 5%) among DEGs from each tissue. Enrichment p-value (shown in
804 parenthesis following the name of functional annotation) is determined by MSEA. The fold change and statistical
805 significance for the top 5 differentially expressed genes in each pathway are shown. *, $p < 0.05$; **, FDR < 5% in
806 differential expression analysis using DEseq2.

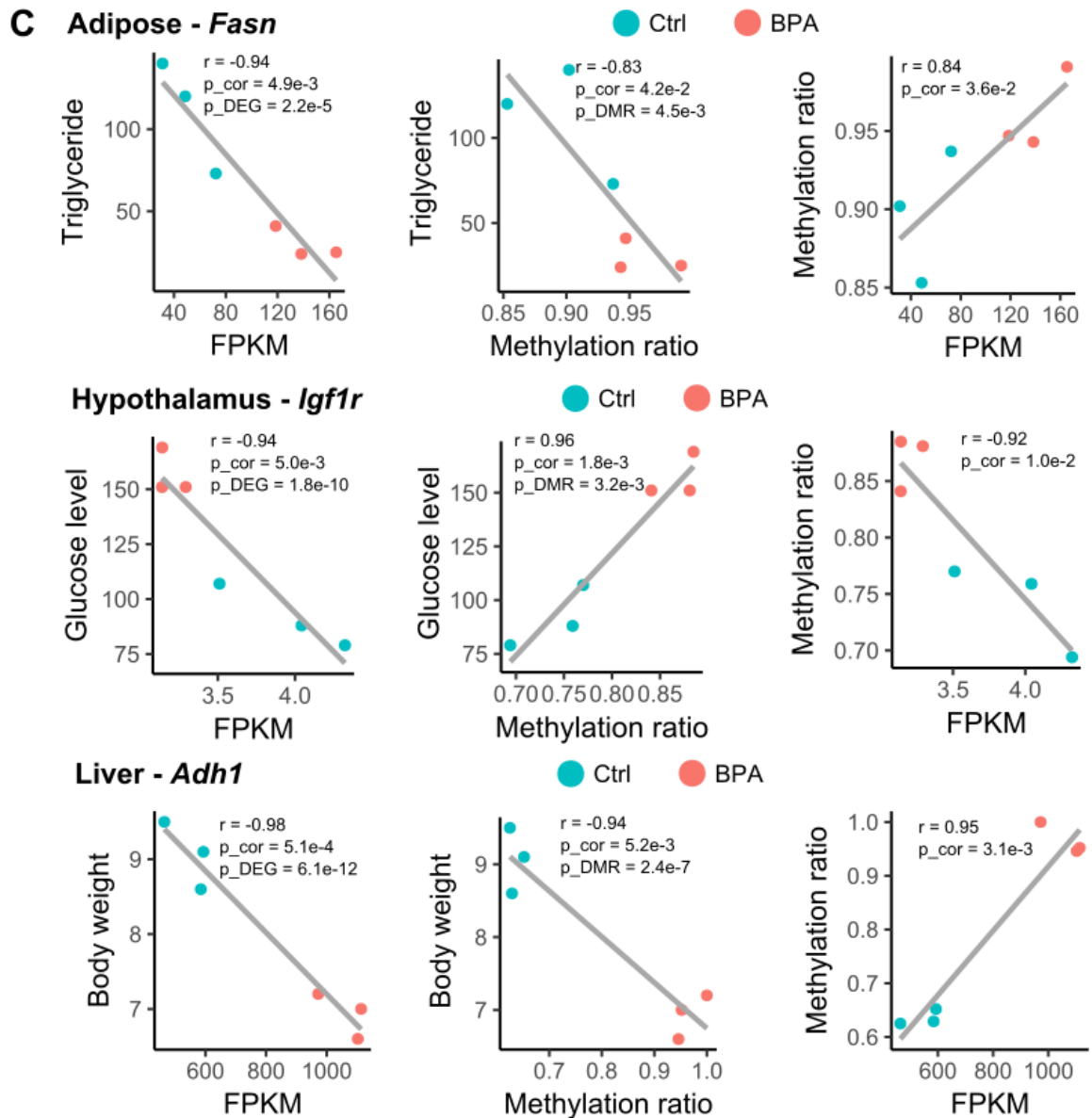
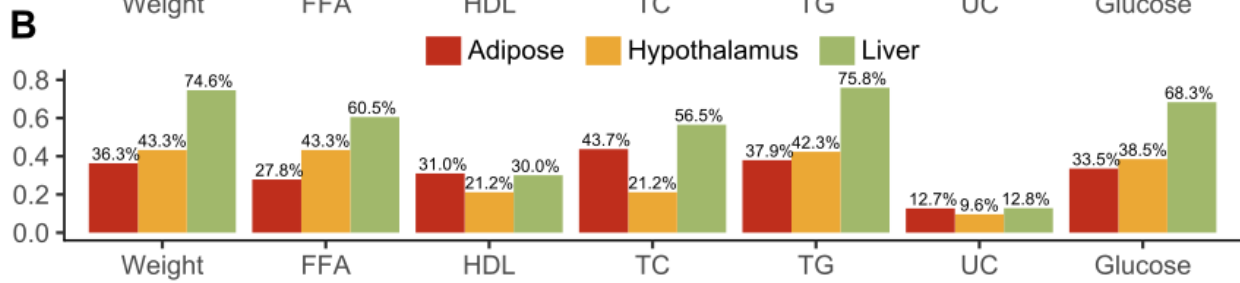
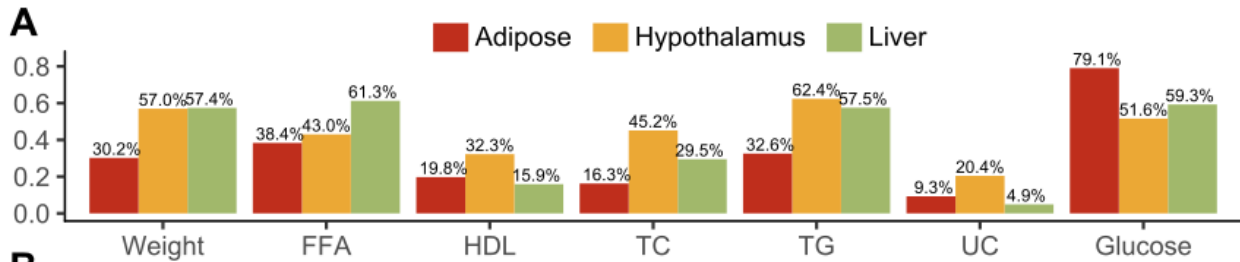


808 **Fig 3. Prenatal BPA exposure induced methylomic level alteration in adipose, hypothalamus and liver.** (A)
809 Heatmap of methylation level changes for the top 100 differentially methylated CpGs (DMCs). Color indicates
810 change in methylation ratio, with red and blue indicating upregulation and downregulation by BPA. (B) Venn
811 Diagram of genes with local DMCs between tissues shows tissue-specific and shared genes mapped to DMCs. (C)
812 Significantly enriched pathways that satisfied $FDR < 1\%$ across DMCs from adipose, hypothalamus, and liver
813 tissues. Enrichment p-value is determined by MSEA. (D) Fold enrichment for positive correlations (red bars) or
814 negatively correlations (blue bars) between DMCs and local DEGs, assessed by different gene regions. *, $p <$
815 0.05 ; **, $p < 0.01$; ***, $p < 0.0001$; enrichment p-values were determined using Fisher's exact test.

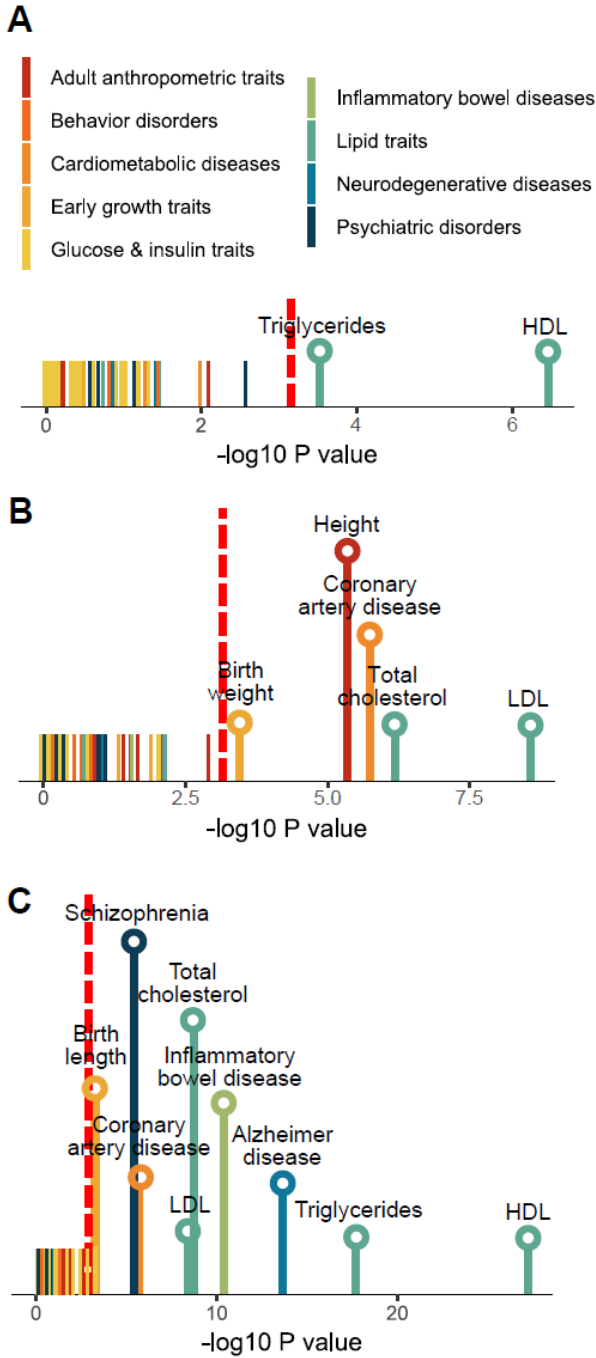


816 **Fig 4. Transcription factors and key drivers orchestrate BPA induced gene expression level changes.** (A) Liver transcription factor
 817 regulatory networks for the top ranked transcription factors (FDR < 5%) based on enrichment of liver DEGs among TF downstream targets.
 818 Network topology was based on FANTOM5. For TFs with > 20% overlapping downstream targets, only the TF with the lowest FDR is shown. (B)
 819 Gene-gene regulatory subnetworks (Bayesian networks) for cross-tissue key drivers. Network topology was based on Bayesian network modeling

820 of each tissue using genetic and transcriptome datasets from mouse and human populations. For each tissue, if ≥ 2 datasets were available for a
821 given tissue, a network for each dataset was constructed and a consensus network was derived by keeping only the high confidence network edges
822 between genes (edges appearing in ≥ 2 studies).



824 **Fig 5. Correlation between gene expression, methylation and metabolic traits.** (A) Percentage of tissue-
825 specific DEGs that are correlated with metabolic traits ($p < 0.05$). (B) Percentage of tissue-specific DMCs that are
826 correlated with metabolic traits ($p < 0.05$). (A-B) p-values were determined using Pearson correlation test. (C)
827 Pair-wise correlation between expression level, methylation ratio and metabolic profiles (triglyceride, glucose
828 level, body weight) for *Fasn*, *Igf1r* and *Adh1*. P_{cor} , p-value was determined using Pearson correction test;
829 P_{DEG} was determined using differential expression test; P_{DMC} was determined using differential methylation
830 test.



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Fig 6. Association of differential expression signatures from adipose (A), hypothalamus (B) and liver (C) with 61 human traits/diseases, color coded into nine primary categories. P-values are determined using MSEA. Red dashed line indicates the cutoff for Bonferroni-corrected $p = 0.05$. Names of traits/diseases whose p-values didn't pass Bonferroni-corrected cutoff were not shown.