1 SIX1 cooperates with RUNX1 and SMAD4 in cell fate commitment of Müllerian duct epithelium.

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3 Abstract

4 During female mammal reproductive tract development, epithelial cells of the lower Müllerian duct are committed to become stratified squamous epithelium of vagina and ectocervix, when the expression 5 6 of $\Delta Np63$ transcription factor is induced by mesenchymal cells. The absence of $\Delta Np63$ expression 7 leads to adenosis, the putative precursor of vaginal adenocarcinoma. Our previous studies with 8 genetically engineered mouse models have established that fibroblast growth factor (FGF)/mitogen-9 activated protein kinase (MAPK), bone morphogenetic protein (BMP)/SMAD, and activin A/runt 10 related transcription factor 1 (RUNX1) signaling pathways are independently required for ΔNp63 expression in Müllerian duct epithelium (MDE). Here we report that sine oculis homeobox homolog 1 11 (SIX1) plays a critical role in the activation of $\Delta Np63$ locus in MDE as a downstream transcription 12 13 factor of mesenchymal signals. In mouse developing reproductive tract, SIX1 expression was 14 restricted to MDE of the future cervix and vagina. SIX1 expression was totally absent in SMAD4 null MDE and was reduced in RUNX1 null and FGFR2 null MDE, indicating that SIX1 is under the control 15 of vaginal mesenchymal factors, BMP4, activin A and FGF7/10. Furthermore, Six1, Runx1 and 16 17 Smad4 gene-dose-dependently activated $\Delta Np63$ expression in MDE within vaginal fornix. Using a 18 mouse model of diethylstilbestrol (DES)-associated vaginal adenosis, we found DES action through 19 epithelial estrogen receptor α (ESR1) down-regulates SIX1 and RUNX1 in MDE within the vaginal fornix. This study establishes that the vaginal/ectocervical cell fate of MDE is regulated by a 20 21 collaboration of multiple transcription factors including SMAD4, SIX1 and RUNX1, and the down-22 regulation of these key transcription factors leads to vaginal adenosis.

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24 Author Summary

In embryogenesis, differentiation fate of cells is specified through constant communication between neighboring cells. In this study, we investigated the molecular mechanism of epithelial cell fate commitment in the lower female reproductive organs utilizing mouse genetic models. The cell fate of epithelial cells in the uterus, cervix and vagina is directed by signaling from mesenchymal cells. We 29 demonstrated that within the epithelial cells of the developing vagina, signals from mesenchymal cells are integrated into activities of transcription factors including SMAD4, RUNX1 and SIX1, which dose-30 31 dependently co-operate in the determination of vaginal epithelial cell fate. Disruption of these 32 processes alters the cell fate from vaginal to uterine epithelium, resulting in a condition called vaginal 33 adenosis, a putative precursor of vaginal adenocarcinoma. Women exposed to diethylstilbestrol (DES) in the womb have about 40 times the risk of developing vaginal adenocarcinoma. We 34 35 determined that developmental exposure to DES induces vaginal adenosis by repressing SIX1 and RUNX1 through ESR1 in the epithelial cells. This discovery enhances the understanding of how early-36 37 life events, such as exposure to endocrine disruptors, causes vaginal adenosis, and thus may 38 contribute to the prevention and therapeutic treatment of idiopathic vaginal adenocarcinoma.

40 INTRODUCTION

In mammals, the majority of female reproductive tract (FRT) develops from the Müllerian ducts (MDs) 41 [1-3]. During embryogenesis, the MDs undergo a dynamic transformation from simple tubes 42 43 consisting of homogeneous epithelium and mesenchyme into distinct organs, namely the oviduct, uterus, cervix and vagina [2, 4]. Classic tissue recombination studies have established that organ-44 specific mesenchyme induces the differentiation of MD epithelium (MDE) into epithelia with unique 45 morphology and functions [5-7]. In the lower MD, epithelial cells are committed to become stratified 46 47 squamous epithelium of ectocervix and vagina (together referred to as "vagina" hereafter), as the expression of $\Delta Np63$ transcription factor is induced by vaginal mesenchyme [8-10]. In MDE of the 48 49 developing vagina, the expression of $\Delta Np63$ is activated by mesenchymal paracrine factors: bone 50 morphogenetic protein (BMP) 4, activin A (ActA) and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) 7 or 10 [11, 12]. 51 SMAD4 is essential for the activation of $\Delta Np63$ in MDE, and this transcription factor binds on the 5' sequence adjacent to the transcription start site (TSS) of $\Delta Np63$ in future vaginal epithelium (VgE) but 52 not in future uterine epithelium (UtE) [12]. This SMAD-dependent activation of the ΔNp63 locus 53 requires runt-related transcription factor 1 (RUNX1), a co-transcription factor of SMADs. In MDE, the 54 55 expression of RUNX1 is activated by ActA through a SMAD-independent mechanism [11]. In addition, activation of the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway by FGF7/10-FGF receptor 2 IIIb 56 57 (FGFR2IIIb) is essential for the activation of ΔNp63 locus in MDE [11]. BMP4-SMADs, ActA-RUNX1 58 and FGF7/10-MAPK pathways are independently required for the vaginal cell fate commitment of 59 MDE, as inactivation of Smad4, Runx1 or Fafr2 in MDE results in uterine epithelial differentiation of 60 MDE within the vagina, which is a congenital epithelial lesion called vaginal adenosis [11, 12]. 61 Nevertheless, once the $\Delta Np63$ locus is activated in MDE, the transcriptional activity of the $\Delta Np63$ locus is cell-autonomously maintained by $\Delta Np63$ protein itself [12]. Hence, the identity of VgE is 62 63 maintained independent of mesenchymal factors [7, 8].

In this study, we investigated the role of sine oculis homeobox homolog 1 (SIX1) in the cell fate commitment of VgE. In mammals, *SIX1* and other five *SIX* genes (*SIX2–6*) synergistically regulate the

66 developmental process in multiple organs, including inner ear, salivary gland, kidney, lung, and 67 trachea [13, 14]. In mouse FRTs, Six1 is enriched in the vagina compared to the uterus [12, 15]. However, its biological function in FRT remains unclear. Our current mouse genetic study reveals that 68 69 SIX1 co-operates with RUNX1 and SMAD4 in the activation of the ANp63 locus in MDE as a 70 downstream transcription factor of BMP4, ActA and FGF7/10 in MDE. The etiology of vaginal adenosis, the putative precursor to vaginal adenocarcinoma (VAC) is commonly associated with 71 72 intrauterine exposure to estrogenic compounds, including diethylstilbestrol (DES) [16]. Our previous studies established that DES induces vaginal adenosis through inhibition of $\Delta Np63$ expression in 73 74 MDE. Our current study provides evidence that DES blocks the activation of $\Delta Np63$ locus in future VgE by repressing SIX1 and RUNX1 through epithelial estrogen receptor α (ESR1). Such discoveries 75 76 from our models may contribute to the prevention and therapeutic treatment of VACs, the etiology of 77 which is currently unknown.

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79 RESULTS

80 Expression patterns of SIX1 in neonatal FRTs.

 $\Delta Np63\alpha$ is the dominant isoform of the transcription factor encoded by *Trp63/TP63* in mouse/human 81 82 VgE [10, 12]. To identify molecules that control epithelial cell fate in the lower FRT, we conducted 83 microarray analysis of neonatal vagina and uterus from MDE-specific conditional KO (cKO) and 84 conditional heterozygous (cHet, control) mice of *Trp63* [12]. In the analysis, *Six1* was more enriched in vaginae than uteri (1.02 Log2 fold-change, p = 0.0013) at postnatal day 2 (PD2), when induction of 85 $\Delta Np63$ expression is in progress in the vagina (Fig 1A). The expression level of Six1 transcripts was 86 87 not significantly different between Trp63 cKO and cHET mice (Log2 cHET/cKO = -0.176, p = 0.23) 88 (GSE44697) [12], indicating that SIX1 is not the target of TRP63. Immunoblotting confirmed the results of microarray: SIX1 protein was detected in vaginae but not in uteri and ovaries from PD2 89 90 C57BL/6J mice (Fig 1B).

91 Similarly to the expression of $\Delta Np63$ in developing vagina, SIX1 expression progressed from posterior 92 to anterior. At birth, SIX1 was expressed in the MDE of the lower vagina but not in the upper vagina and cervix, where RUNX1 already highlighted the future VgE (Fig 1C). By PD2, SIX1 expression 93 94 extended to the cervix (Fig 1D), thus SIX1 and RUNX1 were co-expressed in the future VgE. There 95 were substantial differences in the expression patterns of SIX1 and RUNX1 in neonatal FRTs. RUNX1 96 was concentrated in the MDE in the cervical canal and the upper-portion of vagina, and the 97 expression was reduced in the posterior portion from the outer-wall of the fornix (Fig 1D, outer-wall of fornix is marked with white dotted-line), whereas SIX1 was expressed at a similar level in both inner 98 99 and outer walls of the fornix (Fig 1D). In addition, RUNX1 in MDE was down-regulated upon 100 expression of $\Delta Np63$ (Fig 1E, white arrow) [12], whereas SIX1 expression persisted in $\Delta Np63$ positive cells (Fig 1E, yellow arrow). 101

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103 SIX1 is a downstream transcription factor of SMAD4.

SIX1 was expressed in the fornices of Δ Np63 cKO and cHET mice [12] at PD14, confirming that expression of SIX1 is independent of Δ Np63 (Fig 2A). In contrast, expression of SIX was SMAD4 dependent: *Smad4* cKO mice [12] completely lacked the expression of SIX1 in the entire MDE as assessed at PD2 (n = 5) (Fig 2B).

The absence of SIX1 in Smad4 cKO mice suggested that SIX1 is the downstream transcription factor 108 109 of BMP4-SMAD pathway. Therefore, Bmp4 was knocked out in vaginal mesenchyme utilizing Twist2^{Cre} [17], and the effect on the expression of SIX1 in the lower Müllerian duct was assessed. 110 111 Mesenchyme-specific Bmp4 conditional KO (ms-cKO) was embryonic lethal. Hence, we collected pelvic organs from Bmp4 conditional ms-cKO and ms-cHET mice at embryonic day 15.5, when most 112 Bmp4 ms-cKO embryos exhibited normal growth. At embryonic day 15.5 (Fig 2C), RUNX1 expression 113 114 highlighted the anterior portion of MDE in both *Bmp4* ms-cKO and ms-cHET mice. On the other hand, 115 SIX1 expression in MDE was low and mostly cytoplasmic at this age. Nevertheless, the SIX1 signal in MDE was higher in *Bmp4* ms-cHET mice compared to *Bmp4* ms-cKO mice (n=3 each, Fig 2D), 116

suggesting that BMP4 is a factor regulating SIX1 expression in FRT. However, the effect of loss of BMP4 on SIX1 expression was not comparable to the loss of SMAD4. This might be due to incomplete deletion of *Bmp4* or compensation by other BMP family members, as phosphorylation of SMAD1/5/9 was still present in the MDE of *Bmp4* cKO mice (Fig 2C).

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122 ActA-RUNX1 and FGF7/10-MAPK pathways positively regulate SIX1 in MDE

Although SIX was expressed throughout the VgE in Runx1 cKO mice [12] (Fig 3A), the expression of 123 SIX1 in the fornix was significantly reduced compared to Runx1 cHET mice (Fig 3B and 3C). Thus, 124 125 the expression level of SIX1 in MDE is positively regulated by ActA-RUNX1 signaling activity. Similarly, SIX1 expression was slightly reduced in the fornix of Fafr2 cKO mice [11] (Fig 3D). However, SIX1 126 expression in the fornix was uniformly up-regulated when the vaginal defect of Fgfr2 cKO MDE was 127 corrected with the expression of a constitutively active MAP2K1 (MAP2K1^{DD}) [11] (Fig 3D and 3E), 128 129 suggesting that MAPK activity modulates the expression level of SIX1 protein in the vaginal fornix. Accordingly, we tested the effect of BMP4, ActA and FGF10 on SIX1 expression in uterine organ 130 culture assay. ActA and FGF10 had minimal to no effect on SIX1 expression in the epithelium of 131 132 uterine explants (not shown). BMP4 slightly increased SIX1 in UtE, but the nuclear expression was mostly absent (Fig 3F). Even when all 3 factors were combined, nuclear SIX1 expression was 133 detected only in portions of UtE showing $\Delta Np63$ expression, suggesting that SIX1 promotes $\Delta Np63$ 134 135 expression in MDE. In the uterine organ culture, growth factors in the medium must diffuse through 136 the mesenchymal layers to act on UtE. Diffusion of FGF10 within connective tissues is limited 137 because of its high affinity to heparan sulfate [18]. Accordingly, we replaced FGF10 with the expression of MAP2K1^{DD}, which itself did not induce expression of △Np63, RUNX1 and SIX1 [11]. 138 ActA and BMP4 efficiently induced SIX1 as well as $\Delta Np63$ in *Map2k1^{DD}* transgenic UtE (Fig 3F and 139 140 3G) indicating that SIX1 is the downstream transcription factor of BMP4-SMAD, ActA-RUNX1 and 141 FGF7/10-MAPK in MDE.

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143 Six1 and Runx1 dose-dependently promote ΔNp63 expression in MDE

Since Six1 null mice die before vaginal epithelial differentiation occurs [19], the role of SIX1 in VgE 144 differentiation was assessed by genetically inactivating Six1 in MDE by Wnt7a-Cre [20]. Six1 cKO 145 146 mice were born with the expected Mendelian ratio demonstrating no gross abnormality. However, loss 147 of SIX1 in MDE affected the formation of $\Delta Np63$ -positive basal epithelial layer in the vaginal fornix, 148 and a substantial area of epithelium was negative for $\Delta Np63$ -positive cells at PD4 (Fig 4A). Thus, SIX1 is one of key transcription factors that mediate the paracrine mesenchymal signaling in the 149 vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE. Nevertheless, the defect of Six1 cKO vagina was relatively 150 151 minor, and a continuous $\Delta Np63$ positive layer formed in the fornix by PD14, as the lateral growth of 152 Δ Np63 positive cells filled the gaps (not shown). The distinctive vaginal phenotypes of Six1 cKO mice from Smad4, Runx1 and Fgfr2 cKO mice indicate that SIX1 is only one of many downstream factors 153 mediating signaling from mesenchymal cells in MDE. While Smad4, Runx1 and Fgfr2 cKO mice lost 154 155 Δ Np63 expression in MDE within the entire (*Smad4*, and *Fqfr2* cKO) or upper (*Runx1* cKO) vagina. the vaginal defect of Six1 cKO mice was restricted to the epithelium on the outer-wall of vaginal fornix, 156 where the expression of RUNX1 is reduced (Fig 1D). Meanwhile, RUNX1 expression in the vaginal 157 158 fornix was not affected in Six1 cKO mice (Fig 4A). Hence, we generated the compound conditional mutant mice of Six1 and Runx1 to assess if SIX1 and RUNX1 collaborate in the $\Delta Np63$ expression of 159 MDE in the outer-wall of vaginal fornix. Monoallelic loss of Runx1 in MDE exaggerated the effect of 160 161 Six1 alleleic loss on Δ Np63 expression: While monoallelic loss (cHET) of Six1 or Runx1 alone had no 162 evident effect on the formation of $\Delta Np63$ -positive basal layer, the Six1:Runx1 double cHET mice had 163 a significantly reduced number of Δ Np63-positive basal cells in the outer-wall of fornix (Fig 4B and 4C). The Δ Np63-negative epithelial area expanded further to the inner wall of fornix when biallelic loss 164 (cKO) of Six1 was combined with monoallelic loss of Runx1 (Fig 4B and 4C). The differentiation of 165 166 MDE itself was not retarded in the mutant mice, as ΔNp63 negative MDE expressed progesterone 167 receptor (PGR), indicating uterine cell fate commitment [21] (Fig 4D).

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169 Gene-dose-dependent function of Six1, Runx1 and Smad4 in activation of ΔNp63 locus in MDE. The distinctive vaginal phenotypes of Six1 cKO and Smad4 cKO mice indicate that SMAD4 works 170 independent of SIX1 in vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE. Accordingly, we assessed if the efficacy 171 172 of SIX1 and RUNX1 in the activation ΔNp63 expression in MDE is affected by monoallelic loss of 173 Smad4 gene, which alone does not block the formation of $\Delta Np63$ -positive basal layer in VgE [12]. 174 Six1; Smad4 double cHET mice expressed Δ Np63 throughout the vagina at PD4. However, the 175 density of basal cells on the outer-wall of the fornix was reduced (Fig 5). The synergy between Six1 and Smad4 alleles became more prominent when an additional Six1 allele was inactivated (Fig 5). 176 177 Similarly, monoallelic loss of Smad4 and Runx1 synergistically affected the density of $\Delta Np63$ in the 178 fornix. Accordingly, Six1:Smad4:Runx1 triple cHET mice demonstrated gaps in the Δ Np63-positive basal layer throughout the vaginal fornix (Fig 5). The effect of monoallelic Smad4 loss on the density 179 of TRP63 positive cells was statistically significant in mice with certain genotypes (Table 1). For 180 181 instance, TRP63-positive cell density in the outer and inner fornix walls of Six1 cHET mice was not 182 significantly different from that in WT mice. However, the TRP63-positive cell density in Six1 cHET mice became significantly lower with the monoallelic loss of Smad4 (Six1 cHET; Smad4 cHET) 183 compared to WT mice (Fig 5 B and C). 184

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Table 1. One-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparison test of TRP63-posittive cell density in the outer and inner vaginal fornix walls of *Six1*, *Runx1*, *Smad4* compound mutant mice.

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Outer wall			Smad4 WT							Smad4 HET				
			Runx1 WT			Runx1 HET			Runx1 KO	Runx1 WT			Runx1 HET	
		Six1	WТ	HET	ко	wт	HET	ко	WТ	wт	HET	ко	WТ	HET
	Runx1 WT	WТ		NS	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01
		HET			NS	NS	p<0.05	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	NS	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01
		ко				NS	NS	NS	p<0.01	NS	NS	NS	NS	p<0.01
Smad4 WT	Runx1 HET	WТ					p<0.05	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	NS	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01
VV 1		HET						NS	p<0.05	p<0.01	NS	NS	NS	NS
		ко							NS	p<0.01	NS	NS	NS	NS
	Runx1 KO	wт								p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01	NS
	Runx1 WT	WТ									NS	p<0.01	p<0.05	p<0.01
		HET										NS	NS	p<0.01
Smad4 HET		ко											NS	NS
	<i>Runx1</i> HET	wт												p<0.01
		HET												

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Inner wall			Smad4 WT							Smad4 HET				
			Runx1 WT			Runx1 HET			Runx1 KO	Runx1 WT			Runx1 HET	
		Six1	WT	HET	ко	WT	HET	ко	WТ	WТ	HET	ко	WT	HET
	Runx1 WT	wт		NS	NS	NS	p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	p<0.01
		HET			NS	NS	NS	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	NS	NS	NS	p<0.01
		ко				NS	NS	p<0.05	p<0.01	NS	NS	NS	NS	p<0.05
Smad4 WT	Runx1 HET	wт					NS	p<0.01	p<0.01	NS	NS	p<0.05	NS	p<0.01
VVI		HET						NS	p<0.01	NS	NS	NS	NS	NS
		ко							p<0.01	p<0.05	NS	NS	p<0.05	NS
	Runx1 KO	wт								p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01	p<0.01
	Runx1 WT	wт									NS	NS	NS	p<0.01
Smad4 HET		HET										NS	NS	NS
		ко											NS	NS
	<i>Runx1</i> HET	wт												p<0.01
		HET												

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NS: not significant

191 Regulatory elements of ΔNp63

The gene-dose-dependent effect of Six1, Runx1 and Smad4 on $\Delta Np63$ activation suggests 192 collaboration between these transcription factors in the vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE. The 193 194 analysis of evolutionally conserved regions by ECR browser [22] identified numerous numbers of 195 putative enhancer elements within TP63/Trp63 locus. Many of these conserved sequences near ΔNp63 TSS contained binding sites for SMADs, RUNX1 as well as SIX1 (S1 Fig). The 5' sequence 196 197 proximal to $\Delta Np63$ TSS, to which SMAD4 binds in VgE but not UtE, also contained binding sites of SMAD4, RUNX1 and SIX1 (S2A Fig). Thus, we genetically tested if the putative 5' proximal enhancer 198 199 and the promoter (mm10 Chr16: 25801055-25802045) are sufficient to replicate the expression patterns of $\Delta Np63$ by generating transgenic mice (S2 Fig). However, the transgene (Cre-ires-EGFP) 200 was not expressed in any tissues of 5 founders of transgenic mice. Furthermore, the progenies of the 201 founders carrying $ROSA^{mT-mE}$ [23] and $\Delta Np63$ -Cre-ires-EGFP alleles were also totally negative for 202 203 EGFP/mEGFP (not shown), indicating the insufficiency of the sequence by itself to replicate the expression patterns of $\Delta Np63$ in MDE. Surprisingly, $\Delta Np63$ -Cre knock-in (KI) mice, in which the 204 coding sequence in the first exon of $\Delta Np63$ was replaced with Cre [24] also failed to express the Cre 205 transgene in VgE: When $\Delta Np63$ -Cre KI mice were crossed with $ROSA^{mT-mE}$ reporter mice, the most 206 epithelial cells in vagina of $ROSA^{mT-mE}$; $\Delta Np63$ -Cre KI double-transgenic mice were negative for 207 mEGFP (n=3, S2C Fig). ConTra v3 analysis [25] identified conserved binding sites of SMAD1. 208 209 SMAD4 and RUNX1 in the sequence deleted in the genome of $\Delta Np63$ -Cre KI mice (S1E Fig). Thus, 210 the efficient activation of $\Delta Np63$ locus in MDE appeared to require cooperation of multiple regulatory 211 elements including the protein coding sequence within exon 1. Notably, conserved binding sites of 212 SIX1, RUNX1 and SMADs were not always clustered together, suggesting that these transcription factors may independently act on different enhancer elements. Thus, the gene-dose effects of Six1, 213 214 Runx1 and Smad4 on Δ Np63 activation may reflect the number of active enhancer-like elements that 215 cooperate in the remodeling of $\Delta Np63$ locus.

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Diethylstilbestrol (DES) inhibits activation of ΔNp63 locus in MDE through down-regulation of RUNX1 and SIX1.

Previously, we demonstrated that down-regulation of RUNX1 is involved in the pathogenesis of DES-219 220 associated vaginal adenosis. DES down-regulated RUNX1 in MDE of vaginal fornix within 24 hours 221 (Fig 6A). However, the effect of 24-hour DES-treatment was more prominent on SIX1 than RUNX1: 222 Nuclear expression of SIX1 disappeared from the MDE in the vaginal fornix and the cervical canal of DES-treated mice (Fig 6A and 6B). DES slightly reduced pSMAD1/5/9 in the vaginal mesenchyme, 223 while DES had no evident effect on the epithelial pSMAD1/5/9 (Fig 6C). In contrast, DES-treatment 224 225 consistently increased MAPK1/3 activity in vaginal epithelium and mesenchyme (Fig 6C). Hence, the 226 down-regulation of SIX1 was not likely due to the repression of BMP4 or FGF7/10 activity in MDE by DES. 227

Our previous tissue recombination study has established that DES blocks expression of ΔNp63 in 228 229 MDE through estrogen receptor α (ESR1) within epithelial cells [4, 8]. The expression patterns of SIX1, RUNX1 and $\Delta Np63$ in the fornix of *Esr1* cKO mice were indistinguishable from these in wild type mice 230 231 at PD3 (Fig 7A). In agreement with the tissue recombination study, DES did not block the induction of 232 ΔNp63 in the VgE when *Esr1* was deleted in MDE by *Wnt7a-Cre* (*Esr1* cKO mice) (Fig 7B). Moreover, DES exposure promoted the expression of $\Delta Np63$ in VgE in *Esr1* cKO mice (Fig 7B), forming a 233 continuous layer of $\Delta Np63$ -positive cells by PD3, ≥ 1 day earlier than normal development. Therefore, 234 235 ESR1 in epithelium and mesenchyme has the opposite effect on the induction of $\Delta Np63$ (S3 Fig). In 236 fact, DES-treatment induced RUNX1 and SIX1 in the UtE of Esr1 cKO mice by PD3 (not shown).

237 DES-ESR1 activity attenuates the expression of SIX1 and RUNX1 in MDE cell-autonomously, as the 238 expression of SIX1 and RUNX1 was maintained in the vaginal fornices of *Esr1* cKO mice (Fig 7C). 239 Interestingly, the effect of DES on MAPK1/3 activity in MDE and mesenchyme was exaggerated in the 240 vagina of *Esr1* cKO mice (Fig 7C), indicating that epithelial ESR1 repressed the FGF7/10-MAPK1/3 241 signaling pathway in both vaginal epithelium and mesenchyme. A continuous layer of Δ Np63-positive 242 basal cells formed by PD3 on the outer wall of vaginal fornix in MAP2K1^{DD} conditional transgenic mice

(Fig 7D, control), suggesting that DES promotes vaginal differentiation of MDE by activating the
 MAPK pathway. Nevertheless, DES repressed the expression of SIX1 and ΔNp63 in MDE expressing
 MAP2K1^{DD} (Fig 7D, DES). Thus, the activation of MAPK pathway alone did not protect MDE from
 DES-induced vaginal adenosis.

247

248 **DISCUSSION**

It has long been known that the differentiation of MDE into distinctive epithelia of uterus and vagina is 249 under the control of organ-specific mesenchyme [5]. Through a series of studies with genetically 250 251 engineered mice, our group has established that $\Delta Np63$ is the master regulator of vaginal epithelial 252 differentiation in MDE [8], and that the expression of $\Delta Np63$ is induced by mesenchymal paracrine factors, BMP4, ActA and FGF7/10 [11, 12]. Within MDE, the signals from underlying mesenchyme are 253 transduced by BMP4-SMADs, ActA-RUNX1 and FGFs-MAPKs. Since mouse vaginal mesenchyme 254 255 can induce $\Delta Np63$ and squamous differentiation in human MDE, the molecules that mediate the communication between mesenchyme and epithelium in the commitment of MDE to vaginal cell fate 256 must be common between these two species [26]. 257

258 In this study, we identified SIX1 as a key transcription factor that mediates the mesenchymal signals 259 in the activation of $\Delta Np63$ locus during vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE. Subsequently, we propose that vaginal mesenchymal factors induce MDE to commit to vaginal epithelial cell fate by 260 261 activating $\Delta Np63$ locus through cooperation of multiple enhancer elements, which are activated by 262 SMADs, RUNX1 and/or SIX1 (Fig. 8). An enhancer is a genomic region of few hundred base pairs 263 that contains clustered binding-sites for multiple transcription factors. Although many transcription 264 factors cannot bind their target site in the context of nucleosomal DNA, enhancer-mediated simultaneous-binding of multiple transcription factors can overcome the nucleosome barrier [27]. Thus, 265 266 enhancers integrate multiple signaling pathways through binding of downstream effectors [28, 29]. In 267 cell fate commitment of MDE to VgE, BMP, ActA and FGF pathways are integrated to prime VgEspecific gene expression programs in MDE through the simultaneous binding of SMADs, RUNX1 and 268

269 SIX1 to $\Delta Np63$ enhancers (Fig. 8). Approximately 80% of all characterized mouse enhancers show 270 tissue-specific expression [30]. In this regard, the enhancers that regulate $\Delta Np63$ expression in MDE must be distinctive from those in the skin because Six1 null [19] and Runx1 null [31] mice do not 271 272 exhibit the deformation of skin and appendages observed in ANp63 mutant mice [32]. The 273 identification of key regulator elements of $\Delta Np63$ in MDE is imperative to fully appreciate the 274 pathogenesis of vaginal adenosis, which is a result of faulty cell fate commitment of VgE. However, 275 enhancers can regulate the expression of genes that are mega-bases apart [30, 33]. Therefore, the identification of key regulator elements of $\Delta Np63$ in MDE requires genome-wide screening of 276 277 transcription factor binding sites by chromatin immunoprecipitation-sequencing (ChIP-seq). However, 278 the usage of $\Delta Np63$ enhancers must be unique between different regions of MDE as demonstrated by the difference in the requirement of SMAD4, RUNX1 and SIX1 for Δ Np63 expression in mouse 279 genetic studies. Given the heterogeneity of the cell population, the narrow developmental time window, 280 281 and the small tissue amount of MDE, the identification of $\Delta Np63$ regulatory elements in MDE by 282 current standard techniques is challenging.

Most vaginal adenocarcinomas (VACs) are believed to arise from vaginal adenosis because of the 283 284 presence of adenosis lesions at the primary site of VACs. Hence, better understanding in etiology of vaginal adenosis is particularly crucial in order to develop preventive and therapeutic approaches for 285 VACs. In the past, in utero DES-exposure was the primary cause of vaginal adenosis and VAC. Since 286 287 the expression patterns of Δ Np63 and RUNX1 as well as the effect of DES on the expression of these 288 transcription factors are identical between human and mouse MDE [1, 10, 26, 34], the molecular 289 model established in mice (Fig 8) should explain the etiology of vaginal adenosis in DES-exposed 290 women. However, VACs occur in women who have no history of DES exposure [16, 35]. Because the 291 expression of $\Delta Np63$ in the lower MDE occurs during the first trimester in human fetus [10, 34], the 292 pathogenesis of non-DES-associated VACs should still involve an in utero event that disturbs the 293 vaginal epithelial cell fate commitment in MDE. In this regard, exposure to a compound that inhibits 294 any pathways/molecules described in Fig 8 can lead to vaginal adenosis. As cell fate commitment of

295 mouse VgE occurs in the first week of postnatal development [3, 10], neonatal mice would be useful 296 to screen medical and environmental chemicals that interfere $\Delta Np63$ expression in VgE.

Some studies suggest the *de novo* formation of adenosis in the vagina of adult women associated with medical treatments [36-38]. However, given the low detection sensitivity of routine colposcopy and cytology screenings for adenosis, adenosis cases that appear to be *de novo* are likely due to an increased visibility of previously imperceptible adenosis lesions enlarged by a reactive change to medical treatments.

In addition to vaginal adenosis, perinatal DES exposure of female mice induces uterine squamous 302 303 metaplasia [39], a formation of squamous epithelium within the simple columnar UtE. Interestingly, the 304 gene expression pattern of uterine squamous metaplasia lesions is identical to that of normal VgE [4, 8], indicating that uterine squamous metaplasia is vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE within the 305 uterus. Thus, developmental DES exposure elicits opposite effects on the cell fate commitment of 306 307 MDE in developing uterus versus vagina. This intriguing dual-effect of DES is explained by the opposite functions of epithelial versus mesenchymal ESR1. As shown in our current study, DES 308 action through epithelial ESR1 interferes the activation of Δ Np63 locus whereas DES action through 309 310 mesenchymal ESR1 promotes $\Delta Np63$ expression (S3 Fig). When ESR1 is expressed in both epithelium and mesenchyme, DES effects via epithelial ESR1 are dominant. In developing uterus and 311 vagina, ESR1 is initially expressed only in mesenchymal cells, and ESR1 expression in MDE occurs 312 313 at the posterior end and gradually progresses anterior [7, 34]. DES exposure most efficiently induces 314 vaginal adenosis at the first trimester of human fetuses and the postnatal day 1-5 in neonatal mice. 315 when ESR1 is expressed in the MDE of the vagina but not the uterus. Accordingly, DES blocks Δ Np63 activation in the vagina through epithelial ESR1 and activates Δ Np63 in the uterus through 316 mesenchymal ESR1. Our current study predicts that DES induces expression of BMPs, FGFs and 317 318 Activin/TGF β through ESR1 in the uterine mesenchyme. On the other hand, molecular mechanisms 319 through which DES represses RUNX1 and SIX1 in MDE remain unclear. Elucidating the underlying

molecular pathogenesis of DES-associated adenosis will help identify etiology of non-DES-associated
 vaginal adenosis and VAC.

322

323

324 METHODS

325 Mouse models

326 All animal procedures were approved by the Animal Care and Use Committee in the Ohio State University. The mouse strains carrying the following alleles were utilized: Six1^{flox} [Six1^{tm2.1Mair}] [40], 327 $Trp63^{flox}$ [$Trp63^{tm3.2Brd}$] [41], $\Delta Np63$ -EGFP knock-in ($Trp63^{\Delta Np63-EGFP-KI}$) [32], $Runx1^{flox}$ [$Runx1^{tm1Tani}$] 328 Fgfr2^{flox} [43], ROSA^{mT-mE} [Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm4(ACTB-tdTomato,-EGFP)Luo}/Л [Fafr2^{tm1Dor}/J] 329 [42]. [23]. ROSA^{MAP2K1DD} [Gt(ROSA)26Sor^{tm8(Map2k1*,EGFP)Rsky}/J] [44], Smad4^{flox} (Smad4^{tm2.1Cxd}/J) [45], Esr1^{flox} [46], 330 Bmp4^{flox} [Bmp4^{tm1Jfm}] [47], Twist2^{Cre} [Twist2^{tm1.1(cre)Dor}] [17], Pax2-Cre [Tg(Pax2-cre)1Akg] (MMRRC) 331 [48], Wnt7a-Cre [20] and ΔNp63-Cre [Trp63^{tm1.1(cre)Ssig}/J] [24]. C57BL/6J mice were purchased from 332 333 Jackson Laboratory (Bar Harbor, ME). MDE-specific conditional knockout (cKO) and conditional heterozygous (cHET) mice were generated by crossing lines carrying floxed alleles with Wnt7a-Cre 334 mice, except for Trp63^{flox} mice, which were crossed with Pax2-Cre. Twist2^{Cre} mice were used for 335 336 mesenchyme-specific deletion of *Bmp4*. The day of birth was count as PD1.

337

338 Neonatal DES treatment

A ~40 µg DES slow-release pellet was prepared as previously described [12]. The ~0.04 mg/mm DES
filled tubing was cut into 1 mm length and subcutaneously injected into newborn mice using a 19
gauge trocar.

342

343 Immunofluorescence (IF) and immunohistochemistry (IHC)

344 IF and IHC assays were performed as previously described [49]. Briefly, tissues were fixed with Modified Davidson's fixative solution (Electron Microscopy Sciences, Hatfield, PA), processed into 345 paraffin, and sectioned at 5 µm. The sections were heated in 10 mM sodium citrate buffer (pH 6.0) 346 347 containing 0.05% Tween-20 for 35 min in an Electric Pressure Cooker. The following primary 348 antibodies were used at the indicated dilutions: anti-CTNNB1 (CAT-5H10) (1:100, 13-8400) from 349 ThermoFisher (Waltham, MA); anti-TRP63 (4A4) (1:200, 790-4509) from Ventana Medical Systems (Tucson, AZ); anti- Δ Np63 (1:2,000, PC373) from Millipore (Billerica, MA); anti-PGR (1:200, A0098) 350 from Agilent Technologies (Santa Clara, CA); anti-RUNX1 (2593-1, 1:400) from Epitomics 351 352 (Burlingame, CA); anti-phospho (p)-MAPK1/3 (p-T202/Y201, 1:30, #4370) and anti-pSMAD1/5/9 (1:50, #9511) from Cell Signaling Technology (Danvers, MA); anti-GFP (1:100, ab6673) from Abcam 353 (Cambridge, MA); anti-SIX1 (1:800, HPA001893) from Sigma-Aldrich (St. Louis, MO); anti-ESR1 354 (1:100, RM-9101) from Lab Vision (Fremont, CA). For IF assay, Alexa-Fluor594 anti-mouse IgG (H+L) 355 356 (1:1,000, 715-586-150) and Alexa-Fluor488 anti-rabbit IgG (H+L) (1:1,000, 711-546-152) from 357 Jackson ImmunoResearch (West Grove, PA) were used for the secondary antibodies, and bisbenzimide H 33258 (Hoechst 33258, 1:10,000, Sigma-Aldrich) was used for nuclear staining. For 358 359 IHC with DAB (3,3'-diaminobenzidine, Sigma-Aldrich), biotinylated anti-rat IgG (H+L) (1:800, 712-066-153) was used in conjunction with streptavidin-horseradish peroxidase (1:400, 016-030-084, Jackson 360 ImmunoResearch). Micrographs were captured using a BZ-9000 microscope (Kevence, Osaka, 361 362 Japan) under identical conditions between samples for each antibody. The contrast of images was 363 adjusted by applying identical parameters to the images for each antibody with the batch-process 364 function of Adobe Photoshop CS6 (Adobe, CA, San Jose, CA, USA). To capture a wide area in a single image, tissue sections were scanned in multiple frames, and the images were automatically 365 merged together utilizing the Image Stitching function of image analysis tool. 366

367

368 Morphometric analysis

The methods for the quantitative analysis on the squamous transformation of MDE [12] and the IF signal [50] were previously described. We adapted these methods with some modifications. The length of epithelium at the basal lamina was measured in the outer-wall of vaginal fornix in at least 2 sections per animal in TRP63 immunostained sections. The proportion of epithelium with Δ Np63psotive basal layer was calculated by "length of epithelial basement membrane associated with TRP63-positive cells" ÷ "total epithelial basement membrane length" x 100, for each mouse.

375 Basal cell density in the outer and inner fornix walls was calculated by number of TRP63-positive 376 pixels per epithelial basement membrane length. In tissue sections of vaginal fornices stained for TRP63, epithelial areas were manually selected, and the pixels positive for TRP63 signal within the 377 378 epithelium were selected by adjusting the lower threshold for positivity to exclude background noise. 379 Epithelial basement membrane was manually marked on the IF images, and the p63-positive area 380 and the basement membrane length were measured utilizing Image J (NIH, Bethesda, MD). Analysis was performed on \geq 4 fornice from \geq 3 mice per group. The value in each fornix was considered as a 381 Statistical significance was analyzed by One-way ANOVA with post-hoc 382 single measurement. 383 Tukey's HSD Test.

384

385 SIX1 IF analysis

Quantitative IF assay was performed as previously described with modifications [50]. Tissue sections 386 for an analysis were stained together, and images were captured at the same time under the identical 387 388 conditions. Images of \geq 4 tissue sections from n \geq 3 independent animals were analyzed for each group. Epithelial areas were manually selected, and the signal intensity per pixel within the epithelial 389 390 area was measured by Image J. In all experiments, approximately equivalent areas were analyzed in 391 each sample, and there was no significant intragroup difference in the average signal intensity. Thus, 392 all samples in each group were plotted together, and the distributions of signals were compared between groups by the Mann–Whitney U test with continuity correction. 393

394

395 Immunoblot analysis

Ovaries, uteri and vaginae from PD2 mice (5-6 mice per blot) were homogenized with a minipestle in 396 397 ice-cold lysis buffer containing protease (cOmplete Protease Inhibitor Cocktail,Roche) and phosphatase (phoSTOP, Roche) inhibitors and loaded onto NuPAGE 4-12% Bis-Tris precast SDS-398 399 PAGE gel. Proteins were transferred to a PVDF membrane (Millipore Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA). The membrane was incubated with anti-RUNX1 antibody (1: 2000, Epitomics), anti-SIX1 antibody 400 401 (1:1,000, Millipore Sigma) and GAPDH (1: 2000, G8795, Millipore Sigma) in the OdysseyR Blocking buffer (TBS) (from LI-COR Biosciences, NE, USA) overnight at 4 °C. IRDye® 800CW Donkey anti-402 403 rabbit IgG, IRDye® 680LT Donkey anti-rabbit IgG and IRDye® 680LT Donkey anti-mouse IgG were 404 used for the secondary antibodies. The signal was detected using Odyssey CLx Imaging System (LI-405 COR Biosciences, NE, USA). The analysis was repeated 3 times with independent samples.

406

407 Uterine organ culture

408 Uterine hanging drop organ culture was performed as previously described with minor modifications [11]. Briefly, uteri were dissected from PD1 mice, cleaned by removing connective tissues, and cut 409 into 3 pieces per uterine-horn in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle Medium/Nutrient Mixture F-12 410 (DMEM/F12, 11039, Life Technologies) containing 10 nM ICI 182,780 (Sigma-Aldrich). The uterine 411 412 pieces were then placed in autoclaved PCR tube caps (AXYGEN, Union City, CA) with basal medium (10 nM ICI 182,780 DMEM/F12 with Insulin-Transferrin-Selenium and Antibiotic-Antimycotic) 413 with/without 20 ng/ml human recombinant BMP4, ActA and/or FGF10 (Life Technologies), inverted, 414 and incubated. Uterine pieces were cultured up to 3 days with daily medium change, fixed with 415 416 Modified Davidson's fixative, and processed for histological analysis.

417

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584 Figure legends

585 Fig 1. Expression patterns of SIX1 in developing female reproductive tract.

(A) Volcano plot displaying differential expressed genes in mouse PD2 uterus and vagina. Genes 586 significantly enriched in vagina and uterus in microarray analysis [12] are marked in red and green. 587 respectively. (B) Immunoblot analysis of SIX1 and RUNX1 expression in PD2 mouse FRT. The vagina 588 589 was divided into upper and lower half. (C-E) Immunofluorescence assay for RUNX1, SIX1 (green) and TRP63 (red) in the lower FRT of PD1 (C) and PD2 (D, E) mice. Outer-wall of fornix is marker with 590 dotted line (D). In the vaginal fornix (E), RUNX1 is down-regulated in MDE upon expression of TRP63 591 (white arrows), whereas TRP63 and SIX1 are co-expressed (yellow arrows). Bar = 100 µm (C and D), 592 593 $= 50 \, \mu m$ (E).

594

595 Fig 2. SIX1 is a down-stream transcription factor of BMP4-SMAD pathway.

In all figures, outer-wall of fornix is shown on the right side. (A) SIX1 expression is maintained in the vaginal fornix of Δ Np63 cKO mice (PD14) (n ≥ 4). Bar = 50 µm. (B) SIX1 expression in MDE is SMAD4 dependent. At PD2, SIX1 is totally absent in the MDE of *Smad4* cKO mice, which normally express RUNX1 in MDE. Bar = 100 µm. (C) Deletion of *Bmp4* in mesenchymal cells reduces SIX1 in MDE. (D) Violin plot of SIX1 immunostaining signals in the lower MDE of *Bmp4* ms-cHET and ms-

601 cKO mice (n = 3 each). The signal distributions of two groups are significantly different (p<0.01). Bar 602 = $100 \mu m$.

603

Fig 3. RUNX1 and FGFR2 modulate expression levels of SIX1 in MDE.

605 (A) Expression of RUNX1 and SIX1 in the lower FTR of PD2 Runx1 cHET and cKO mice. RUNX1 null vaginal/cervical epithelium is outlined by doted lines. Nuclear expression of SIX1 expression is 606 reduced in the fornices of Runx1 cKO mice. (B) SIX1 expression patterns in the vaginal fornices of 607 Runx1 cHET and cKO mice at PD2 and PD4. In the fornix of Runx1 cKO mice, nuclear expression of 608 609 SIX1 increases from PD2 to PD4, but the overall expression level of SIX1 in MDE remains low and uneven. (C) Violin plot of SIX1 IF signal distribution in the fornix of PD2 Runx1 cHET and cKO mice (n 610 \geq 4 per group). The signal distributions of two groups are significantly different (p<0.01). (D) 611 Expression of SIX1 in the vaginal fornix of Fgfr2 mutant mice. SIX1 is reduced in the fornix of Fgfr2 612 cKO mice, but the SIX1 expression level is restored by expression of MAP2K1^{DD}. (E) Violin plot of 613 SIX1 IF signal distribution in the fornix of PD2 Fgfr2 cHET, Fgfr2 cKO and Fgfr2 cKO with MAP2K1^{DD} 614 (cKO+MK) mice (n = 4 per group). The signal distributions are significantly different among 3 groups 615 616 (p<0.01). (F) Regulation of SIX1 in cultured uterine explants. 20 ng/ml BMP4 has a weak effect on the expression of SIX1 in UtE. The combination of BMP4 (B), ActA (A) and FGF10 (F) (20 ng/ml each) 617 induced nuclear expression of SIX1 and $\Delta Np63$ in restricted regions of UtE. Replacement of FGF10 618 with Map2k1^{DD} transgene (MK) efficiently induced SIX1 and ΔNp63 in UtE. (G) Violin plot of SIX1 IF 619 620 signal distribution in the UtE of cultured uterine explants ($n \ge 4$ per group). The signal distributions are 621 significantly different among groups (p<0.01). Bars = $100 \mu m$.

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Fig 4. SIX1 and RUNX1 collaborate in the activation of Δ Np63 locus in MDE.

(A) Six1 cKO mice showed minor defects in Δ Np63 expression in the outer-wall (ow) of vaginal fornix. The Δ Np63 negative epithelial regions are indicated by arrows. (B-D) Gene-does effect of *Six1* and *Runx1* on vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE in the vaginal fornix. The outer fornix wall is on the

right side. (B) Expression of Δ Np63 (red) and RUNX1 (green). (C) Proportion of MDE lined with Δ Np63-psotive basal layer on the outer-wall of vaginal fornix. (D) Expression of uterine epithelial marker (PGR, green). The epithelium is highlighted with cytokeratin (red). Bars = 100 µm.

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Fig 5. Dose-dependent function of *Six1*, *Runx1* and *Smad4* in the activation of Δ Np63 locus.

632 (A) Monoallelic loss of Smad4 exaggerates effects of Six1 and Runx1 null alleles on $\Delta Np63$ expression (green) in MDE. The outer fornix wall is shown on the right side. Breaks in the $\Delta Np63$ -633 positive basal layer in the inner fornix wall are marked by arrowheads. Bar = 50 µm. (B and C) Basal 634 cell density (TRP63-positive nuclear area per epithelial basement membrane length) in the outer and 635 636 inner fornix walls of Six1, Runx1 and Smad4 compound mutant mice. The sample number in each group is marker on the bars. The result is demonstrated by average means ± SD. The comparisons 637 that become significantly different by monoallelic Smad4 loss are marked with lines, and the groups 638 639 with significantly higher value are marked with asterisks. * p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01.

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Fig 6. DES inhibits expression of SIX1 and RUNX1 in the vaginal fornix.

(A-C) IF analysis for DES-effects on essential factors in the activation of Δ Np63 locus in MDE. mes; mesenchyme. FRTs are collected from PD2 female mice with/without DES treatment (24 hours after DES-pellet injection). (A) IF assay of SIX1 and RUNX1. (B) Violin plot presentation of SIX1 IF signals in the outer and inner fornix walls of control and DES-treated PD2 mice (n=4 each). SIX1 IF signals in MDE were significantly higher (*** p< 0.01) in control than DES-treated mice in both outer and inner fornix walls. (C) IF assay of pSMAD1/5/9 and pMAPK1/3.

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Fig 7. Epithelial ESR1 mediates DES effects on Δ Np63 in developing vagina.

(A) Expression patterns of ESR1, RUNX1 and SIX1 in *Esr1* cKO mice (PD3) are indistinguishable
from wild type mice. (B and C) Effect of DES on the FRT of *Esr1* cHET and cKO mice (PD3): (B) IF
assay of ESR1 (green) and TRP63 (red), (C) IF assay of RUNX1 and pMAPK1/3. (D) Effect of DES

on the expression of SIX1 (green) and TRP63 (red) in the fornix of $Map2k1^{DD}$ conditional transgenic mice (PD3). The outer-wall (ow) of fornix is marked with dotted lines. Bars = 100 µm.

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656

Fig 8. Model of vaginal epithelial cell fate commitment in MDE. Signals of vaginal mesenchymal factors are transduced to down-stream transcription factors, and the transcription factors dosedependently activate enhancers of Δ Np63 in MDE. Upon differentiation of VgE, Δ Np63 itself maintains the transcriptional activity of Δ Np63 locus in VgE fate in dependent of vaginal mesenchymal factors. DES-ESR1 activity within MDE causes vaginal adenosis by blocking the vaginal cell fate commitment of MDE interfering the signal transduction. Meanwhile, DES-ESR1 activity in vaginal mesenchymal cells promote activation of Δ Np63 locus in MDE through paracrine mechanisms.

665 Supporting information captions

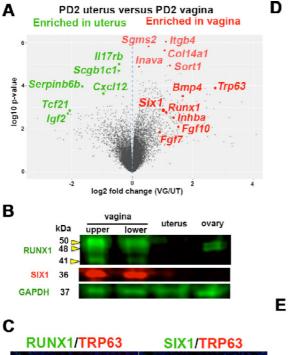
S1 Fig. (A-C) ECR browser view of *Homo sapiens TRP63*. (D) Contrav 3 analysis. Conserved SMADs:RUNX1 binding sites in the coding region in Δ Np63 exon 1. A boxed region with a colored line in each panel is enlarged in the next panel. (E) The sequence is deleted in the Δ Np63-Cre KI mouse genome.

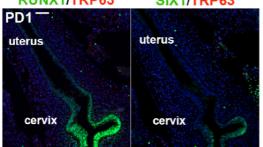
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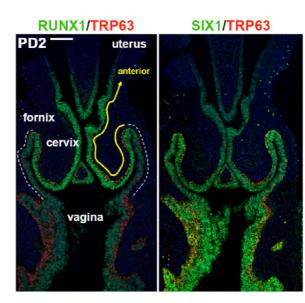
671 S2 Fig. Structure of ΔNp63-iCre-IRES-EGFP transgene. (A) Contra V3 analysis of the putative 5' 672 proximal enhancer (based sequence: mm10 chr16:25801055-25802045). (B) Vector maps of the 673 Δ Np63-iCre-IRES-EGFP transgene (linearized and circular form). (C) Distribution of cells expressed 674 Δ Np63-Cre in the lower FRT of PD21 mice. mEGFP reporter (brown) is detected by IHC.

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676 S3 Fig. Model: Effect of DES exposure on the signaling pathways in developing vagina.

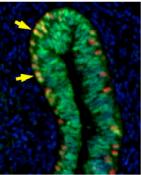


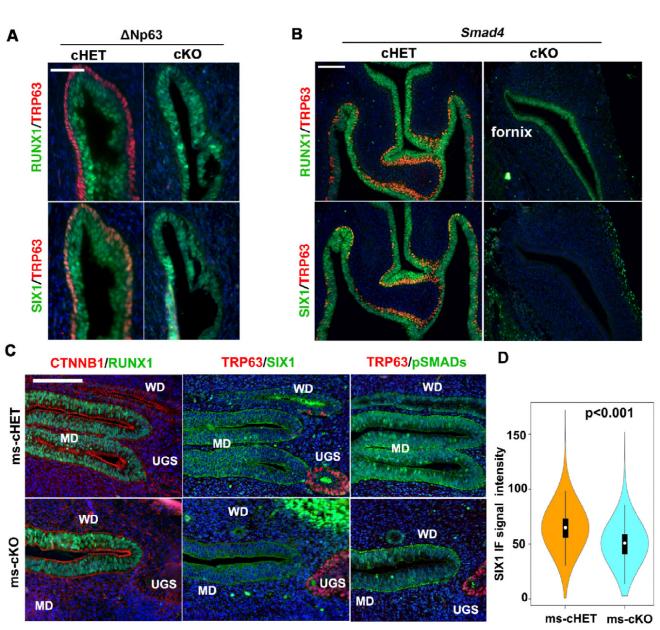


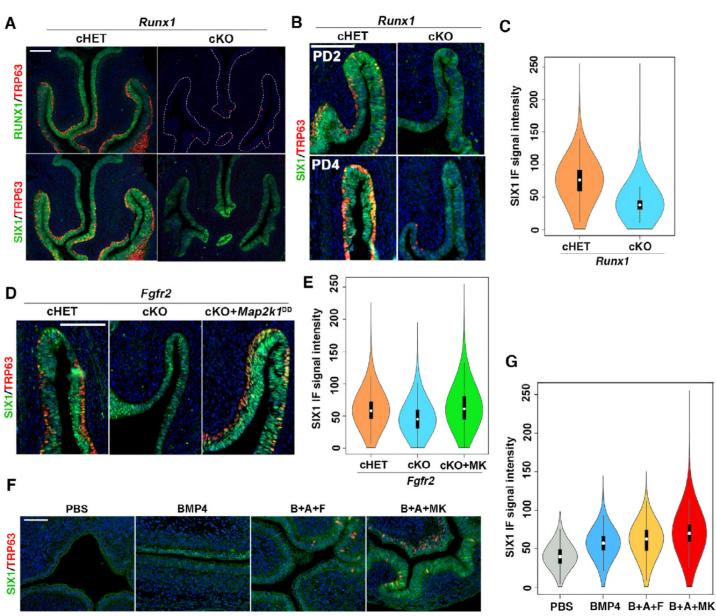


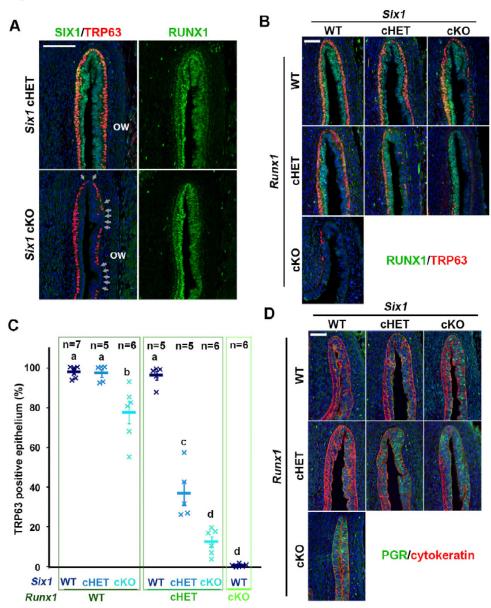
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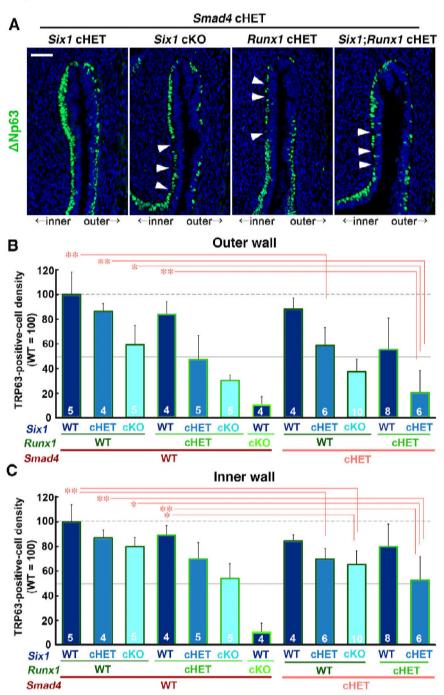
SIX1/TRP63

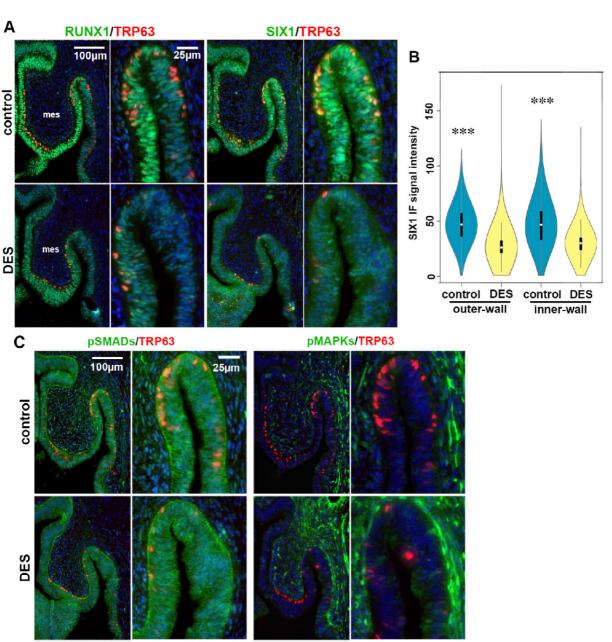


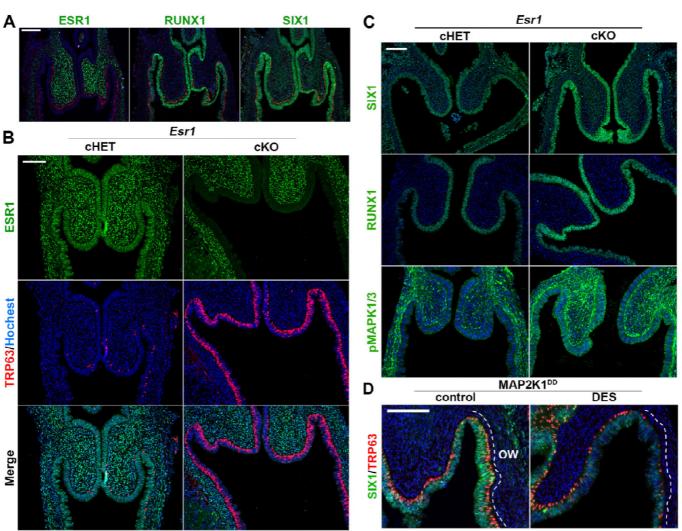


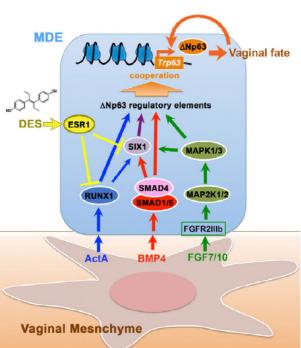










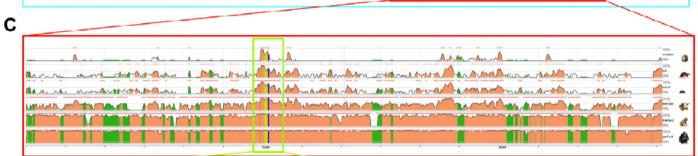


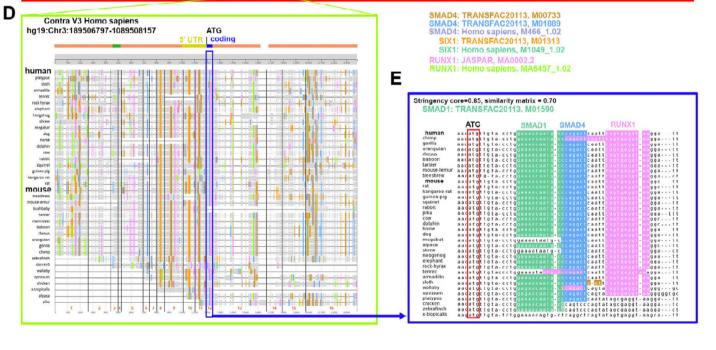
S1 Figure

A ECR browser on Human (hg19) TP63 locus

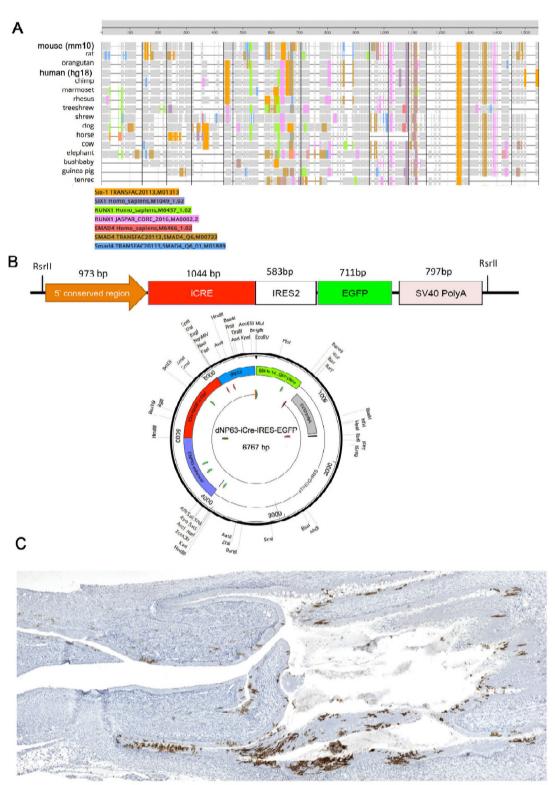
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