1

Title: Evolution of imprinting via lineage-specific insertion of retroviral promoters

Authors: Aaron B. Bogutz[1*], Julie Brind'Amour[1*], Hisato Kobayashi[2*], Kristoffer N. Jensen[1], Kazuhiko

Nakabayashi[3], Hiroo Imai[4], Matthew C. Lorincz[1#], and Louis Lefebvre[1#]

Author affiliations: [1]Department of Medical Genetics, Molecular Epigenetics Group, Life Sciences

Institute, University of British Columbia, Vancouver, BC V6T 1Z3, Canada. [2]Department of

Embryology, Nara Medical University, Kashihara, Nara 634-8521, Japan. [3]Division of Developmental

Genomics, Research Institute, National Center for Child Health and Development, Setagaya, Tokyo,

157-8535, Japan. [4]Molecular Biology Section, Department of Cellular and Molecular Biology, Primate

Research Institute, Kyoto University, Inuyama, Aichi, 484-8506, Japan.

22 * These authors contributed equally to this work.

23 # Authors for correspondence (matthew.lorincz@ubc.ca, louis.lefebvre@ubc.ca)

Summary

Imprinted genes are expressed from a single parental allele. In mammals, this unusual mode of transcription generally depends on the epigenetic silencing of one allele by DNA methylation (DNAme) established in the germline. While many species-specific imprinted orthologues have been documented in eutherians, the molecular mechanisms underlying the evolutionary switch from biallelic to imprinted expression are currently unknown. During mouse oogenesis, gametic differentially methylated regions (gDMRs) acquire DNAme in a process guided by transcription. Here we show that transcription initiating in proximal lineage-specific endogenous retroviruses (ERVs) is likely responsible for DNAme established in oocytes at 4/6 mouse-specific and 17/110 human-specific maternal imprinted gDMRs (igDMRs). The latter can be further divided into Catarrhini (Old World monkeys and apes)- or Hominoidea (ape)-specific igDMRs, which are embedded within transcription units initiating in ERVs specific to these primate lineages. Using CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis, we deleted the relevant murine-specific ERVs upstream of the maternally methylated genes *Impact* and *Slc38a4*. Strikingly, imprinting at these genes was lost in the offspring of females harboring these deletions and biallelic expression was observed. Our work reveals a novel evolutionary mechanism whereby maternally silenced genes arise from biallelically expressed progenitors.

During postnatal oocyte growth in mammals, transcribed genomic regions acquire two characteristic epigenetic marks: transcription-coupled trimethylation at lysine 36 of histone H3 (H3K36me3)[1] and DNAme[2-5]. In both human and mouse female germline, the overall levels of CpG methylation increase from less than 5% in post-migratory primordial germ cells (PGCs) to ~40-50% in fully-grown, germinal vesicle oocytes (GVOs)[4,6-8]Kobayashi:2013ia}. In growing murine oocytes, 85-90% of this DNAme is deposited over H3K36me3-marked transcribed regions of the genome[3]. Notably, we recently demonstrated that SETD2-dependent deposition of H3K36me3 is required for *de novo*

DNAme of transcribed gene bodies in mouse oocytes[9]. Such transcription-coupled *de novo* DNAme is

also responsible for the establishment of regions of differential DNAme between the mature gametes

(gametic differentially methylated regions, gDMRs), a subset of which are maintained throughout

preimplantation development. This unique class of gDMRs, the imprinted gDMRs (igDMRs), can

direct imprinted paternal allele-specific expression of the gene(s) under their regulation, the imprinted

genes[3,10,11]. Importantly, transcription initiating within upstream oocyte-specific promoters has been

reported to play a critical role in *de novo* DNAme at the maternal igDMRs of a number of mouse

imprinted genes[3,12-16], but the evolutionary origin of such promoters remains unexplored.

Specific families of ERVs, also known as long terminal repeat (LTR) retrotransposons, are

highly transcribed in mouse oocytes[3,17]. Such LTRs function as oocyte-specific promoters for both

novel protein-coding genes and non-coding transcripts, the latter of which are widely distributed in

intergenic regions[3,17,18]. We recently identified numerous LTR-initiated transcription units (LITs) in

mouse oocytes associated with H3K36me3-coupled *de novo* DNAme[19]. Notably, CpG islands (CGIs)

embedded within such LITs also become hypermethylated by *de novo* DNAme in oocytes[19] and the

majority of maternal igDMRs associated with paternally expressed genes in both mice and humans

overlap with CGIs[14,20]. Since ERVs are highly variable among mammalian species and *de novo*

DNAme at maternal igDMRs is transcription-coupled, we hypothesized that active LTRs and their

associated LITs may have played an important role in the genesis of lineage-specific maternal

imprinting in mammals.

LITs and the establishment of species-specific imprints

To investigate the contribution of LITs in maternal gametic imprinting in humans and mice, we first

curated a list that includes well characterized and putative maternally methylated igDMRs[21-27] by

interrogating published whole genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS) data from gametes, placenta and

somatic tissues (detailed in **Supplementary Table 1**). In total, we identified 21 mouse and 125 human

igDMRs that were previously validated through Sanger bisulfite sequencing, pyrosequencing or whole

genome bisulfite sequencing (WGBS, see **Methods** and **Supplementary Table 2**). Amongst these, 6

and 110 maternal igDMRs are restricted to the mouse or the human lineage, respectively, while only 15

are conserved between the two species (**Fig. 1a**). We next applied *de novo* transcriptome assembly[28] to

published human[29] and mouse[19] oocyte RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) datasets and identified the

transcript(s) and transcription start site (TSS) likely responsible for transcription-coupled deposition of

DNAme over 20/21 mouse and 90/125 human igDMRs (**Supplementary Table 2** and **Supplementary**

Fig. 1a; identified using LIONS or *de novo* transcript assembly, see **Methods**)[28,30,31]. Amongst these, 4

mouse and 17 human maternal igDMRs, all of which are specific to the mouse or human genome,

respectively, are embedded within or immediately downstream of LITs (**Fig. 1a**, **Supplementary Fig.**

1a-b and **Supplementary Table 2**). Thus, the presence of a lineage-specific proximal LTR that

initiates a transcript in oocytes that overlaps with a genic gDMR is associated exclusively with genes

showing evidence of a species-specific igDMR.

Notably, of the 17 LITs associated with human-specific igDMRs, 12 initiate within primate

(Hominoidea or Catarrhini)-specific ERV families (**Fig. 1a** and **Supplementary Fig. 1c**). Moreover,

the 4 LITs apparently responsible for transcription-coupled *de novo* DNAme of the mouse-specific

igDMRs, namely at *retro-Coro1c* (also known as *2010001K21Rik* and *AK008011*), *Cdh15*[26], *Slc38a4*

(also known as *Ata3*)[32,33] and *Impact*[34], all initiate in rodent-specific ERVs (**Fig. 1a** and

Supplementary Fig. 1c). While several such lineage-specific LTR families (i.e. LTR12C/MER51E or

MTC/RMER19B) are actively transcribed in oocytes[18,19], others are generally expressed at low levels

(**Supplementary Fig. 1d-e**), indicating that igDMR-coupled LITs do not necessarily initiate from LTR

families that are widely expressed in oocytes. As hypothesized, the igDMRs associated with lineage-

specific LITs also show species-specific hypermethylation in oocytes, which is retained (>35%

DNAme) in the blastocyst[8], the placenta[25] or at least one somatic tissue surveyed, indicating that these

genomic regions are indeed likely to carry imprinted DNAme marks (**Fig. 1b** and **Supplementary**

Table 2). In accordance with previous reports of preferential maintenance of maternal germline-

derived DNAme in human placenta[21,22,24,25,35], most of the LIT-associated human igDMRs retain

DNAme in purified cytotrophoblast (CT; cells isolated from first-trimester human placenta)[25] but are

hypomethylated in adult tissues (**Fig. 1b**). The remaining 5/17 human-specific maternal igDMRs are

associated with LITs driven by LTR families that colonized the common ancestor of the

Euarchontoglires (i.e. rodents and primates). These specific LTR insertions, however, are not detected

at the syntenic loci of the mouse genome and only 1/5 of the regions is methylated in mouse oocytes

(the region syntenic to the human igDMR at *HTR5A*) which may be due to a distinct non-LTR initiated

transcript (**Fig. 1b**, **Supplementary Fig. 1b** and **Supplementary Table 2**).

This species-specific pattern of transcription initiation from an upstream LTR element leading

to transcription-coupled establishment of a DNAme domain that includes the downstream igDMR/CGI

can be visualized in a genome-browser view of orthologous regions. Note that we observe both sense

and antisense configurations of the relevant LITs, driven by LTRs located either upstream or

downstream (within an intron or 3') of the regulated gene, respectively (**Supplementary Fig. 2a**). Of

the 17 LITs putatively implicated in the induction of human igDMRs, 12 are in the 5' sense

configuration and 5 in an antisense configuration (**Supplementary Table 3**). At the *RHOBTB3/*

Rhobtb3 locus for example, transcription in human oocytes initiates within an unmethylated primate-

specific MSTA element located ~25 kb upstream of the promoter CGI/igDMR, forming a chimeric

transcript that splices to the downstream genic exons of *RHOBTB3* (**Fig. 1c**). Coincident with this LIT,

a large block of DNAme is deposited in oocytes over the promoter CGI and overlapping igDMR.

Importantly, these regions are hypomethylated in human female 11-week gonadal PGCs[7] and in sperm.

As previously documented for many human igDMRs[21,22,35], this imprint is maintained in the blastocyst

and cytotrophoblast[25], but is hypomethylated (< 2% DNAme) in adult tissues (**Fig. 1b-c** and

Supplementary Table 2). Notably, *RHOBTB3* is expressed predominantly from the paternal allele in

human placenta[23,25,36,37]. In contrast, in mouse oocytes, *Rhobtb3* transcription initiates at the promoter

CGI, which is unmethylated in oocytes, placenta and adult tissues (**Fig. 1b-c**). Similarly, at the *SCIN*

locus*,* a LIT initiates in an unmethylated LTR12C element ~14 kb upstream of the igDMR in human

oocytes and extends into the gene, concomitant with *de novo* DNAme of this region between the PGC

and mature oocyte stages (**Fig. 1d**). While the *SCIN* igDMR shows ~50% DNAme in human blastocyst

and placenta (CT), the syntenic region in mice, including the *Scin* CGI promoter, is hypomethylated in

each of these cell types and no upstream initiating transcript is observed in mouse oocytes (**Fig. 1b, d**).

Consistent with the DNAme status of the locus in each species, *SCIN/Scin* is expressed exclusively

from the paternal allele in human but not in mouse placenta[23,38]. Importantly, unlike in oocytes, 8 of the

9 genes that are associated with igDMRs and expressed in purified human cytotrophoblast (CT) show

no evidence of transcription initiating from the proximal LTR in this cell type. Rather, for all 6 genes

(*GLIS3*, *MCCC1*, *RHOBTB3*, *ZFP90*, *CLDN23*, *ZC3H12C*) that show clear paternally-biased

expression (>70%) in CT (**Supplementary Table 3**), transcription initiates predominantly within the

unmethylated igDMR promoter (**Supplementary Fig. 2b, 3**). Thus, imprinted expression of these

genes in the placenta is correlated with LIT-associated deposition of DNAme over the igDMR in the

oocyte and concomitant silencing of the maternal allele in the extraembryonic trophoblast lineage in the

offspring.

Conservation of LTRs, LITs and igDMRs in apes versus old world monkeys

Excluding the *SVOPL* igDMR, which is unmethylated in cytotrophoblast, we focused on the 16 human

loci with evidence for maintenance of the maternal igDMRs in this placental lineage (**Fig. 1b**).

Intriguingly, 5 of these, including *SCIN*, initiate in human ERV (HERV) families which colonized the

common ancestor of the Hominoidea[39] (LTR12C or LTR12E), while 7 of them initiate within families

that colonized the primate lineage, including the common ancestors of the Catarrhini. The remaining 4

initiate in more ancient elements derived from LTR families common to both primates and rodents

(Euarchontoglires) (**Fig. 2a** and **Supplementary Fig. 1c**). To characterize the relationship between

LITs and the imprinting status of these gDMRs in non-human primates, we first determined whether

the specific LTR insertions associated with these human placental igDMRs are annotated in the

genomes of chimpanzees (*Pan troglodytes*; Hominoidea lineage) and rhesus macaques (*Macaca*

mulatta; Catarrhini lineage). All 16 relevant LTR insertions are present in the chimpanzee genome. As

expected, all 4 insertions from LTR families that colonized the Euarchontoglires common ancestor and

6/7 LTR insertions from families that colonized the common ancestor of the Catarrhini are also present

in the orthologous loci in macaque. Similarly, the Hominoidea-specific LTR12C and LTR12E families,

which include LTRs driving transcripts overlapping the *ST8SIA1*, *SCIN*, *ZFP90*, *COL26A1* and *SORD*

igDMRs in human oocytes, are absent from the macaque genome (**Fig. 2a** and **Supplementary Fig.**

1c).

To assess the conservation of LITs and DNA methylation of associated gDMRs in macaque

oocytes, we analyzed published RNA-sequencing[40] and genome wide DNA methylome data[41]. As

expected from the phylogeny of LTR12C elements, no LITs overlapping the region orthologous to the

human igDMRs at the *ST8SIA1*, *SCIN*, or *COL26A1* loci were detected in macaque oocytes, and their

CGIs remain hypomethylated (**Fig. 2a-c** and **Supplementary Fig. 4a**). Intriguingly, despite the absence

of an LTR12E element, the region syntenic to the human *SORD* igDMR exhibits high levels of

DNAme in macaque oocytes. Inspection of oocyte transcripts around the macaque *SORD* CGI reveals

the presence of a highly transcribed LTR12F element oriented towards the putative igDMR, which may

be responsible for deposition of DNAme at this locus (**Supplementary Fig. 4a, b**).

In contrast, LITs initiating in older LTR families that colonized the common ancestor of the

Catarrhini or Euarchontoglire lineages show greater conservation between human and macaque

oocytes, with 8/13 of such LTR insertions also transcriptionally active in macaque oocytes, a subset of

which display similar splicing events in both species (**Fig. 2b**). Remarkably, at least 6 of the associated

CGIs are also hypermethylated in macaque oocytes (**Supplementary Fig. 4a**). For example, *de novo*

methylation of the *RHOBTB3* CGI promoter/gDMR in both human and macaque oocytes appears to be

the result of a conserved LIT initiating in a MSTA situated >20 kb upstream of the promoter, which

clearly splices into the gene in both species (**Fig. 2d**). Other examples of LITs apparently conserved

between the human and macaque lineages include those associated with the *HECW1* (LTR12F),

DNAH7 (THE1C), *HTR5A* (LTR53B), *AGBL3* (MER50) and *ZC3H12C* (MLT1A) putative igDMRs.

In contrast, no LITs were detected at 4/11 loci despite the presence of a conserved LTR insertion in the

orthologous macaque locus **(Supplementary Figs. 4-5)**. For example, while the igDMR at the 5' end

of *GLIS3* is embedded within a LIT initiating in an active upstream MSTA in human oocytes, no LIT is

detected in the orthologous region in the macaque locus nor is any RNA-seq coverage detected over the

MSTA itself (**Supplementary Fig. 5a-b**).

The lineage-specific expression of orthologous LTRs may be explained by the accumulation

over evolutionary time of indels and/or base substitutions that impact their promoter and/or splice

donor activity. Indeed, sequence alignment of the orthologous MSTA insertions reveals a number of

small deletions and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) which may impact transcription of the

macaque LTR (**Supplementary Fig. 5c**). Similarly, despite the presence of a MER51E upstream of the

MCCC1 gene, no transcript initiating in this LTR is detected in macaque oocytes and no RNA-seq

coverage is detected over the element itself (**Supplementary Fig. 5d-e**). Closer inspection of the

MER51E insertions in the macaque locus reveals a number of SNPs and short INDELs relative to the

orthologous MER51E in chimp and human, including mutations that likely disrupt an otherwise

conserved PBX3 binding site that may render the LTR in the former inactive (**Supplementary Fig. 5f**).

Taken together, these data indicate that the establishment of DNAme in oocytes at the igDMRs of a

number of Hominoid- and primate-specific maternal igDMRs is likely induced by LITs originating in

proximal lineage-specific LTR elements actively transcribed during oogenesis.

Oocyte LITs predict imprinting in primate placenta

To establish the imprinting status of these gDMRs in chimp and macaque placenta, we determined their

methylation using a targeted high-throughput sodium bisulfite sequencing approach. We focused

initially on the *ST8SIA1* gene, shown previously to be maternally methylated and paternally expressed

in human placenta[23]. The genomic region in chimp syntenic to the human *ST8SIA1* igDMR is

hypomethylated in adult tissues (**Supplementary Fig. 4a**), but shows a bimodal distribution of

hypermethylated and hypomethylated sequenced reads in the placenta (**Fig. 2e** and **Supplementary**

Fig. 6a), indicative of conserved placental-specific *ST8SIA1* imprinting within the Hominoidea. In

contrast, the syntenic CGI in macaque, as in mouse, is hypomethylated in the placenta (**Fig. 2a, c, e**).

Therefore, the presence of an active LTR12C element ~40 kb upstream of the gDMR and its associated

LIT are correlated with the imprinting status of the *ST8SIA1* promoter. *SCIN*, which is imprinted and

paternally expressed in human placenta[23], also shows a bimodal distribution of DNAme in the

orthologous region in chimp placenta. In contrast, in the absence of an LTR12C insertion or a LIT, the

orthologous region in macaque placenta is hypomethylated (**Supplementary Fig. 6a**). On the other

hand, despite the presence of a proximal LTR12C element in the chimp (as in the human genome), the

regions syntenic to the human igDMRs at the *ZFP90* and *COL26A1* genes are unmethylated in chimp

placenta (**Fig. 2a**), suggesting that, similar to the LTR insertions proximal to the *GLIS3* and *MCCC1*

CGI in macaques, these orthologous LTR may be transcriptionally inert in chimp oocytes. This remains

to be determined, however, as RNA-seq data from chimp oocytes is currently not available. The

regions syntenic to the human *SORD* igDMR show bimodal DNAme in chimp as well as macaque,

consistent with the presence of proximal active LTRs in human and macaque oocytes. While the

methylation of the macaque *SORD* locus is likely explained by the alternative LTR12F-initiated

transcript described above (**Supplementary Fig. 4b**), it remains to be determined whether an antisense

LTR12E-initiated LIT orthologous to that observed in human oocytes is responsible for depositing

DNAme over the promoter CGI of this locus in chimpanzees.

As predicted by the presence of an orthologous LTR12F insertion oriented towards the *HECW1*

gene in both the chimp and macaque loci, the genomic region of shared synteny to the human *HECW1*

igDMR shows a clear bimodal distribution of hypermethylated and hypomethylated reads in the

placentae of both species, indicative of conservation of LIT-associated *HECW1* imprinting in

Catarrhines (**Fig. 2e** and **Supplementary Fig. 4c**). Moreover, exploiting a single SNP within the

HECW1 CGI, we observed clear allelic methylation (**Fig. 2f** and **Supplementary Fig. 6b**), confirming

maternal allele-specific DNAme at the orthologous igDMR. Similarly, analysis of the chimp and

macaque genomes in the regions syntenic to the *RHOBTB3* igDMR, which is embedded within an

MSTA-initiated transcript in both human and macaque oocytes (**Fig. 2d**), reveals that the orthologous

locus is also likely imprinted in these species (**Fig. 2e**). Furthermore, analysis of DNAme data from

informative trios also reveals maternal-specific DNAme of the igDMRs at the *GLIS3* and *MCCC1*

genes in the chimp placenta (**Fig. 2e-f** and **Supplementary Fig. 6b**). In agreement with the cognate

LTR insertions being transcriptionally inactive in macaque oocytes (**Supplementary Fig. 5**), the

genomic regions orthologous to the human and chimp igDMRs at both of these loci are

hypomethylated in macaque placentae. Taken together, these observations reveal that transcription

initiating within lineage-specific LTR elements in the oocytes of primates likely plays a critical role in

the establishment of DNAme at proximal CGIs. The persistence of this oocyte-derived imprint in the

placenta of their progeny yields maternal igDMRs that can potentially direct imprinted expression in

this extraembryonic tissue, as shown for several human genes.

Muroidea-specific LTRs and maternal igDMRs

If the LTRs upstream of the "mouse-specific" igDMRs shown in **Fig. 1** are indeed responsible for the

establishment of maternal imprinting at these loci, then the orthologous genes should also be imprinted

in those species harboring the same active LTR insertions. As the *retro-Coro1c* retrogene is absent

from rats and more distantly related rodents (**Supplementary Fig. 7a**), we focused on the remaining

three genes, namely *Cdh15, Slc38a4* and *Impact* and their associated LTRs: MTD, MT2A, and MTC,

respectively. All three are present in the orthologous regions of the rat (*Rattus norvegicus*) genome

(**Fig. 3a**), consistent with the fact that these LTR families colonized the common ancestor of the

Muroidea (**Supplementary Fig. 1c, 7**)[18]. In contrast, while the relevant MTD and MT2A elements are

also present at the orthologous *Cdh15* and *Slc38a4* loci in the golden hamster (*Mesocricetus auratus)*,

the MTC element upstream of *Impact* is absent.

To assess whether the LITs identified at these imprinted loci in mice are also present in rat and

golden hamster, we mined published oocyte RNA-seq data[18,19]. Notably, LITs emanating from the

relevant LTRs were clearly detected at *Cdh15* and *Slc38a4* genes in rat oocytes, while in hamster, a

LIT was detected only at the *Slc38a4* locus (**Fig. 3a and Supplementary Fig. 7b-d**). In rat, as in

mouse[19], the *Slc38a4* LIT overlaps the DNAme block that extends into the 5' end of the gene. In

hamster, the MT2A-initiated LIT upstream of *Slc38a4* splices into exon 2 of the gene, creating a

chimaeric transcript covering the entire gene, including the region syntenic to the mouse igDMR

(**Supplementary Fig. 7c**). In contrast, in human oocytes, the *SLC38A4* locus is not transcribed and the

5' CGI is unmethylated (**Fig. 3b**). In the case of *Impact*, a LIT initiating in a co-oriented upstream

MTC element encompasses the entire annotated gene in mouse and demarcates a hypermethylated

domain, including the igDMR (**Fig. 3b**). Intriguingly, while the syntenic *Impact* CGI is

hypermethylated in rat oocytes, the orthologous rat MTC insertion is apparently oriented on the

opposite strand relative to the *Impact* gene (**Supplementary Fig. 7d**)[42]. Closer analysis of the locus

reveals that a transcript encompassing the *Impact* CGI may originate from a distinct (non-LTR)

upstream start site in rat oocytes, but a gap in the reference genomic sequence precludes detailed

analysis of the upstream transcript at this locus (**Supplementary Fig. 7d**). Regardless, as in the mouse,

Impact is expressed from the paternal allele in rat brain[42], consistent with epigenetic imprinting of its

CGI and imprinted expression. Given the probable conservation of imprinting at *Slc38a4* and *Impact* in

the Muroidea lineage, and the location of the intragenic igDMRs near their 5' ends, we focused on

these genes for further functional experiments in the mouse.

An MT2A is required for *Slc38a4* imprinting

In mouse oocytes, transcription over the *Slc38a4* igDMR originates in an H3K4me3 marked MT2A

LTR located ~14 kb upstream of the gene, in a sense configuration. The 5' end of the locus is

embedded within the LIT, enriched for H3K36me3, and overlaps with a *de novo* DNAme block that

encompasses the igDMR (**Fig. 3b**). In addition, our ChIP-seq analysis of RNA pol II in mouse GVOs

reveals enrichment consistent with transcription extending from the MT2A through intron 1 of *Slc38a4*

(**Fig. 3b**). Notably, MT2A elements are not generally transcribed at high levels in mouse oocytes, and

analysis of all insertions > 450 bp (1,458 in total) indicates that only 16 initiate transcripts in GVOs at

detectable levels (**Fig. 3c** and **Supplementary Fig. 1e**). As the MT2A upstream of *Slc38a4* has

significantly diverged from the consensus sequence of this relatively old LTR family (**Fig. 3d**) and this

LTR is not closely related to the few other MT2A elements active in oocytes (**Supplementary Fig. 8**),

its transcriptional activity in the female germline may be due to the acquisition of novel transcription

factor binding sites.

To test directly the role of the upstream MT2A insertion in *Slc38a4* imprinting, we generated a

638-bp deletion of the MT2A LTR in C57BL/6N (B6) embryonic stem cells using CRISPR-Cas9 and

flanking guide RNAs (**Fig. 4a**, Δ; **Supplementary Fig. 9a**). Germline transmission from male

chimeras allowed us to establish the *Slc38a4[MT2AKO]* mutant mouse line on a pure B6 background.

Heterozygous and homozygous animals were normal and fertile under standard husbandry conditions.

In reciprocal crosses involving a wild-type and a heterozygous parent, heterozygotes were recovered at

the expected frequency (**Supplementary Table 5**). We first assessed the effect of the MT2A deletion

on DNAme at the *Slc38a4* igDMR in fully-grown oocytes using sodium bisulfite sequencing of 11

CpG sites within the igDMR located at the beginning of intron 1 (**Fig. 4a**). Notably, whereas these sites

are hypermethylated in wild-type oocytes, they remain unmethylated in oocytes from females

homozygous for the MT2A deletion (**Fig. 4b**). To test for allele-specific transcription, we generated F1

progeny from reciprocal crosses with CAST/EiJ (CAST) mice, a hybrid strain background in which

Slc38a4 was previously shown to be imprinted[33]. Sodium bisulfite analysis confirmed that the oocyte-

derived DNAme mark is absent in F1 embryos (E13.5) upon maternal transmission of the

Slc38a4[MT2AKO] allele (**Fig. 4c**). Consistent with the absence of maternal DNAme, *Slc38a4* is expressed

from both alleles in E13.5 placenta when the deletion is maternally inherited, while monoallelic

imprinted expression from the paternal allele is maintained in paternal heterozygotes (**Fig. 4d-f**).

Slc38a4 codes for an amino acid transporter (ATA3) highly expressed in the mouse placenta[33],

suggesting that variations in its overall expression levels might lead to placental and/or growth

abnormalities, as described for other imprinted genes. However, we did not observe either phenotype in

maternal heterozygotes (**Supplementary Fig. 9c-f**), despite the fact that *Slc38a4* mRNA levels increase

~5-fold from E8.5 to E18.5 in wild-type placenta (**Fig. 4g**). Consistent with the absence of placental or

embryonic growth abnormalities, we found that loss of imprinting and biallelic expression at *Slc38a4* is

not accompanied by an increase in total mRNA levels in maternal heterozygotes (**Fig. 4g**). These

results, in accord with previously published findings[43], suggest that *Slc38a4* levels are normalized by

transcriptional or post-transcriptional mechanisms in the placenta. Nevertheless, the possibility that a

decrease in *Slc38a4* mRNA would bring its levels within the dosage-sensitive zone in which imprinting

of the locus might provide a selective advantage is supported by the abnormal embryonic growth

phenotype observed in *Slc38a4*-null conceptuses (Gavin Kelsey and Miguel Constancia, personal

communication).

An upstream MTC directs imprinting at *Impact*

In mouse oocytes, the *Impact* gene is transcribed from an unmethylated upstream MTC element in the

sense configuration. This LIT splices onto canonical exon 2 of *Impact*, as supported by RNA-seq

data[3,19] and a 5' RACE product from GVOs[14] (**Fig. 3b**). As seen at the *Slc38a4* locus, the MTC itself is

marked by H3K4me3[44], and RNA pol II, H3K36me3 and DNAme are enriched over the transcribed

region, which encompasses the entire *Impact* locus, including its igDMR and intronic CGI. Using a

CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis approach similar to the one described for the MT2A at *Slc38a4*, we

generated a mouse line in which a ~3 kb region upstream of the *Impact* gene, including the full-length

MTC element, was deleted to generate the *Impact*[MTCKO] allele (**Fig. 5a, Δ; Supplementary Fig. 9b**).

Following germline transmission through male chimeras, heterozygous males and females were bred to

wild-type B6 mice and heterozygotes were recovered at the expected Mendelian ratios

(**Supplementary Table 5**). Maternal and paternal heterozygotes, as well as homozygous mice of both

sexes, appear normal and are fertile. As we observed for the MT2A deletion at *Slc38a4*, the igDMR at

Impact fails to acquire *de novo* DNAme in mature oocytes from *Impact*[MTCKO/MTCKO] homozygous

females (**Fig. 5b**).

To study the effect of the MTC deletion on imprinting of the downstream *Impact* gene,

reciprocal crosses were performed between *Impact*[+/MTCKO] and CAST mice and embryos were collected

at E13.5. DNAme analysis of the *Impact* igDMR confirmed that DNAme is absent in embryos carrying

a maternally-inherited KO allele (*Impact*[MTCKO/+] , **Fig. 5c**). Futhermore, allele-specific RT-PCR of head

cDNA generated from the same E13.5 F1 progeny revealed that *Impact* is paternally expressed in all

samples analyzed, with the exception of embryos in which the MTCKO allele is maternally inherited,

in which *Impact* is expressed from both parental alleles (**Fig. 5d-f**). Consistent with biallelic expression

in these *Impact*$^{MTCKO/C+}$ embryos, quantitative analysis of total expression levels reveals that *Impact*

mRNA levels are nearly doubled relative to those measured in wild-type controls (**Fig. 5g**). To

determine whether this loss of imprinting at *Impact* influences the growth of mutant mice, we

measured the weights of males and female wild-type and *Impact*$^{MTCKO/+}$progeny. No significant weight

difference was detected through postnatal week 60 (**Supplementary Fig. 9g**), indicating that under

standard husbandry conditions, increased *Impact* levels do not affect intrauterine or postnatal growth.

Regardless, our analyses clearly reveal that DNAme and expression imprinting of the *Impact* gene in

mice is dependent upon the presence of the upstream MTC element.

Discussion

Genomic imprinting is an epigenetic mechanism required for normal development and postnatal

survival in mammals. Although more than a hundred imprinted genes have been identified and much

has been learned about the epigenetic mechanisms regulating their monoallelic expression, it is still

unknown how an ancestral gene, expressed from both alleles, acquires an imprinted expression pattern

during evolution. Previous work has shown that through retrotransposition new retrogenes can acquire

a maternal igDMR and show paternal allele-specific expression when inserted within a host gene

expressed during oogenesis[45]. Although a number of such examples have been described in

mammals[46], this phenomenon involves the creation of a new gene. Thus, it does not provide a model

for the evolutionary switch from biallelic to imprinted expression manifest at species-specific imprinted

genes, as explored in this study.

Here, we uncovered a novel mechanism whereby lineage-specific insertions of LTR

retrotransposons, transcriptionally active during oocyte growth, can drive *de novo* DNAme and

imprinting at a nearby gene. CRISPR-Cas9 mutagenesis at two mouse-specific imprinted genes, *Impact*

and *Slc38a4*, confirmed the key role played by LTR-promoted transcription in guiding imprinting at

these two mouse loci. Interestingly, *Slc38a4* was previously reported to be imprinted in mouse

preimplantation embryos and early extraembryonic tissues in an H3K27me3-dependent manner[47].

However, the broad intragenic domain of H3K27me3 observed in oocytes and on the maternal *Slc38a4*

allele in early embryos[47] is mutually exclusive of the upstream H3K36me3- and DNAme-marked

domain described here (**Supplementary Fig. 10**). This observation is consistent with a previous report

showing that H3K36me3 inhibits PRC2 activity[48]. Thus, as with canonical imprinted genes, the

Slc38a4 igDMR in mice, which overlaps with an annotated TSS of this gene, is enriched for DNAme

but devoid of H3K27me3. In addition to our results on the MT2A deletion allele, the importance of the

LIT-induced igDMR for allelic usage is also supported by the observation of imprinted expression at

Slc38a4 in embryonic and adult epiblast-derived tissues in which the igDMR, but not the intragenic

H3K27me3 domain, is present (**Supplementary Fig. 10**)[33,49]. The paradoxical critical role of two

different maternal epigenetic marks laid down in two different regions of the *Slc38a4* locus may be

reconciled by the fact that an alternative annotated TSS of the *Slc38a4* gene is located downstream of

the igDMR and is embedded within the intragenic region enriched for H3K27me3 described by Inoue

and colleagues[47]. This alternative TSS is used in adult liver, the tissue showing the highest *Slc38a4*

expression levels after placenta (**Supplementary Fig. 10**). Although the igDMR is present in adult

liver, *Slc38a4* expression is biallelic in this tissue, suggesting that tissue-specific loss of imprinted

expression occurs via promoter switching[33]. Thus, depending on the tissue, imprinted expression of this

gene likely requires one or the other epigenetic mark. Further studies are required to address this

intriguing possibility and to determine whether establishment or maintenance of the igDMR at *Slc38a4*

requires maternal H3K27me3. Notably, although preimplantation maintenance of the maternal DNAme

imprint at *Impact* requires the protective action of the KRAB-zinc finger proteins ZFP57 and ZFP445,

the igDMR at *Slc38a4* does not[50]. This observation is consistent with a report showing that DNAme at

the *Slc38a4* igDMR in postimplantation embryos is sensitive to loss of the H3K9 methyltransferase EHMT2/G9A[51].

Our observation that 15.5% (17/110) of human-specific and 66.7% (4/6) of mouse-specific maternal igDMRs are potentially induced by ERV promoters highlights the importance of this mechanism and its impact on the evolution of species-specific imprinted genes in mammalian species. Furthermore, our analysis also revealed evidence for convergent evolution of imprinting, where a distinct LTR may be responsible for imprinting in different species (LTR12E/F at the *SORD* locus in human/macaque for example). Further studies, such as those applied here in the mouse, will be required to determine whether alternative LTRs play a role in the imprinting of such loci in other species. Those species-specific maternal igDMRs not associated with a LIT are likely methylated as a consequence of transcription initiating in novel, single-copy, TSSs active in oocytes (as seen at the rat *Impact* locus).

While disruption of imprinting at some maternally silenced genes is associated with severe phenotypic outcomes, consistent with our observations at *Slc38a4* and *Impact*, loss of imprinting and biallelic expression of imprinted genes is not necessarily associated with obvious abnormal phenotypes. Previous studies of the paternally expressed genes *Plagl1*[3], *Peg3*[16], and *Zrsr1*[15] for example, revealed only subtle impacts on reproductive fitness following loss of imprinting, although detailed analyses of potential growth-related phenotypes have not always been reported.

Although the role of active transcription in guiding DNAme of the oocyte genome, including at maternal igDMRs, is well established, the molecular mechanism involved still remains to be elucidated. We recently found that transcription-coupled deposition of H3K36me3 by SETD2 plays a critical role in this process, as DNAme at all maternal igDMRs, including at *Impact* and *Slc38a4*, is lost in mouse oocytes in which *Setd2* is deleted[9]. Thus, transcription-coupled H3K36me3 deposition is likely the

critical common feature for the establishment of DNAme at maternal igDMRs in mammalian oocytes,

including at igDMRs embedded within lineage-specific active LTR-initiated transcription units and the

novel igDMRs created via retrotransposition within transcribed genes.

A link between genomic imprinting and repetitive elements was explored previously by several

authors, who proposed that the function of DNAme as a host defense mechanism might have been co-

opted for allelic silencing at imprinted genes[52-55]. However, this hypothesis is inconsistent with our

current understanding of *de novo* DNAme in the female germline, a process that is intimately

associated with transcribed regions, which include imprinted gDMRs. Indeed, the mechanism we

uncover here explains the establishment of DNAme imprints at single-copy CpG-rich regions that are

unremarkable with respect to their repetitive element content. Rather, deposition of DNAme is

dependent upon the transcriptional activity of nearby ERVs that evade silencing, a key aspect

mechanistically opposite to the one central to the host defense hypothesis. Furthermore, once the

specific requirements for post-fertilization imprint maintenance are met, active ERVs, which propagate

via retrotransposition, can theoretically induce imprinting of any downstream gene, with the

prerequisite that the LTR be active in growing oocytes, when DNAme is established *de novo* by the

DNMT3A/3L complex.

Methods

Data reporting. No statistical methods were used to predetermine sample size. The experiments were not randomized and the investigators were not blinded to allocation during experiments and outcome assessment.

Validation of previously identified mouse and human maternally methylated igDMRs. To validate previously identified maternally methylated imprinted gDMRs (igDMRs) [21-24], we interrogated DNAme profiles from published whole genome bisulfite sequencing data from gametes, placenta and somatic tissues (**Supplementary Table 1**) [56]. Specifically, we identified regions that are hypermethylated (> 70% DNAme) in oocytes, hypomethylated (< 30% DNAme) in sperm, retain DNAme (>25%) in the blastocyst, and show 35-65% DNAme in placenta (purified first-trimester cytotrophoblast; CT) or at least one adult somatic tissue[4,5,7,8,18,19,29,40,41,44,47,49,57-69]. We further validated and refined this list by only including gDMRs harboring either reported maternal, monoallelic or bimodal DNAme in the placenta and/or at least one somatic tissue. A "bimodal" DNAme pattern is a specific class of sequences methylated at ~50% for which individual DNA sequencing strands from WGBS datasets, although not overlapping a SNP with known parental origin, are either fully- (hyper) methylated or un- (hypo-) methylated. If the DNA sequence analyzed also encompasses a SNP, the bimodal pattern can be described as "allelic" when all hypo- or all hyper-methylated strands contain the same variant at the SNP: only one of the parental alleles is methylated. Only when the parental origin of the sequence variants of this SNP is known in a given sample, can the allelic DMR be referred to as imprinted (maternally or paternally methylated). In total, 125 human igDMRs (46 of which are associated with reported paternal-biased transcription of the nearby gene) and 21 mouse igDMRs (all with reported paternal-biased transcription) are presented and analyzed in **Supplementary Table 2**. Syntenic regions between the mouse (mm10) and human (hg19), as well as chimpanzee (panTro4),

macaque (rheMac8), rat (rn6) and golden hamster (mesAur1) genomes were obtained using the

Liftover tool from the UCSC Genome Browser (http://genome.ucsc.edu/){Haeussler:2019jw}.

Identification of LTR transcripts overlapping igDMRs.

Oocyte RNA-seq libraries (see **Supplementary Table 1**) were aligned to the mm10 (mouse), hg19

(human), rhemac8 (macaque), mesAur1 (golden hamster) and rn6 (rat) assemblies using STAR

v.2.4.0.i42[70]. *De novo* transcriptome assemblies were produced using Stringtie v.1.3.5 (mouse, human,

golden hamster and rat) [31] or Cufflinks v.2.1.121 (macaque) [28] with default parameters. All *de novo*

transcripts overlapping or in proximity of putative imprinted gDMRs were identified, and their

transcription initiation site was confirmed by visual inspection of splice sites. Transcripts initiating in

transposable elements were identified as described previously using LIONS [19,30] The 5' ends of *de novo*

assembled transcripts were classified based on overlaps with UCSC Repeat Masker annotation and our

putative igDMR list, and transcripts with the Up or UpEdge classification (per LIONS raw output)

were taken into consideration. For manual inspection of LITs over specific CGI promoters, LITs were

either identified by manually validating transcripts with EInside transposable element contribution in

the LIONS raw output or by intersecting *de novo* transcripts with the boundaries of hypermethylated

domains.

Evolutionary tree of LTR families. Phylogenetic tree of species shown was generated from TimeTree

(http://timetreebeta.igem.temple.edu/). Integration of LTR families was imputed based on the presence

or absence of the family in the species investigated, and colonization time is indicated at the root of

those species in which it was found in common. For examining the evolutionary history of MT2A

family, including the MT2A apparently responsible for *de novo* methylation of the *Slc38a4* igDMR in

mouse oocytes, we identified all annotated (UCSC RepeatMasker) MT2A elements > 450 bp (the

MT2A consensus sequence is 533 bp). Multiple sequence analysis and phylogenetic tree construction

were carried out with MEGA X[71]using MUSCLE UPMGA algorithm and by Neighbour-Joining

method, respectively. Visualization and annotation of the tree were carried out with iTOL

(https://itol.embl.de/)[72].

Ethical approval for animal work. All mouse experiments were performed under certificates A15-

0291, and A15-0181 from the UBC Animal Care Committee and complied with the national Canadian

Council on Animal Care guidelines for the ethical care and use of experimental animals. All primate

experiments were approved by the animal experiment committee of Primate Research Institute (PRI) of

Kyoto University (Approval No: 2018-004). Three rhesus macaque (Macaca mulatta) placentas and

their parental blood DNA were collected and stored at -80°C before use. Three chimpanzee (Pan

troglodytes verus) placentas and their parental blood DNA were provided from Kumamoto Zoo and

Kumamoto Sanctuary via Great Ape Information Network (GAIN).

SNP genotyping and targeted bisulfite analysis in primates. Regions orthologous to human

placental igDMR were PCR-amplified with TaKaRa EX Taq HS (TaKaRa Bio) with primers specific

for chimpanzee and rhesus macaque CGIs (**Supplementary Table 4**). PCR were performed under the

following conditions: 1 min at 94 °C, then 40 cycles of 30 sec at 94 °C, 30 sec at 57 °C, 30 sec at 72

°C, and 5 min final elongation at 72 °C. PCR products were purified with QIAquick PCR Purification

Kit (Qiagen). Sanger sequencing was carried out for each amplicon using the BigDye Terminator v3.1

Cycle Sequencing Kit and the ABI 3130xl DNA Analyzer (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The sequencing

data were assembled using ATGC sequence assembly software (bundled with GENETYX Ver. 14,

Genetyx Corporation) to identify SNPs at a given loci and determine the genotypes for each individual

samples (**Supplementary Table 4**). Genomic DNA (100 ng per sample) was treated with sodium

bisulfite using the DNA Methylation Gold Kit (Zymo Research). The bisulfite-treated DNA was PCR-

amplified with TaKaRa EpiTaq HS (TaKaRa Bio) with primers specific for chimpanzee and rhesus

macaque CGIs (**Supplementary Table 4**). PCR were performed under the following conditions: 1 min

at 94 °C, then 35-37 cycles of 30 sec at 94 °C, 30 sec at 57 °C, 30 sec at 72 °C, and 5 min final

elongation at 72 °C. PCR products were purified with QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen).

Amplicons were tagged using NEB Next Ultra II DNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB) with 5

thermal cycles for amplification and subjected to paired-end sequencing on a MiSeq platform using

MiSeq Reagent Nano Kit v2, 300 Cycles (Illumina). We used the QUMA website

(http://quma.cdb.riken.jp/top/index.html) to quantify CpG methylation levels of each CGI. From each

sequence data (fastq files), the top 400 forward reads (R1) were extracted and mapped to each CGI

with QUMA's default conditions and uniquely mapped reads were used to calculate DNA methylation

level per CpG dinucleotide site. Due to mappability issues, 20 mismatches were allowed for mapping

the amplicons over the chimpanzee *ZNF396* gDMR locus. When SNPs were available, reads perfectly

matching each parental genome were extracted and aligned separately for allele-specific analyses.

ChIP-sequencing in mouse oocytes. Germinal vesicle oocytes (GVOs) were isolated from 7-10

weeks-old C57BL/6J females. The zona pellucida was dissolved by passaging the oocytes through an

acid Tyrode's solution, followed by neutralization in M2 media. The oocytes were re-suspended in

nuclear isolation buffer (Sigma), flash-frozen in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80°C until usage. RNA

polymerase II ChIP-seq libraries were prepared from ~200 GVOs using a modified version of ULI-

NChIP-seq{Brindamour:2015kr} . Briefly, chromatin was fragmented with MNase (NEB), diluted in

native ChIP buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0; 2 mM EDTA; 150 mM NaCl; 0.1% Triton X-100)

containing 1 mM PMSF (Sigma) and EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche), and incubated

overnight at 4°C with 0.1 μg of anti-RNA polymerase II monoclonal antibodies (Abcam ab817 -

8WG16-) and 5 μl of protein A: protein G 1:1 Dynabeads (Thermofisher). Antibody-bond chromatin

was washed four times in low salt buffer (20 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0; 2 mM EDTA; 150 mM NaCl; 1%

Triton X-100; 0.1% SDS) and eluted at 65°C for 1 hour in elution buffer (0.1 nM NaCO3; 1% SDS).

DNA was then extracted using phenol:chloroform and precipitated in 75% ethanol, followed by paired-

end library construction. Libraries were sequenced (75 bp paired-end) on a NextSeq 500 according to

manufacturer's protocols.

ERV deletions using CRISPR-Cas9. The ERVs at *Slc38a4* and *Impact* were deleted in mouse ESCs

using transient delivery of sgRNAs and Cas9 from an expression vector similar to pX330-U6-

Chimeric_BB-CBh-hSpCas9 (Addgene #42230) [73]. Plasmid phU6-gRNA-CBh-hCas9 was obtained

from Rupesh Amin and Mark Groudine and first modified by insertion of the PGK-puro-pA selectable

marker from pPGKpuro (Addgene #11349) [74] to obtain pPuro2-hU6-gRNA-CBh-Cas9. Individual

sgRNAs were designed from http://crispr.mit.edu/ and incorporated on a single forward oligonucleotide

(IDT) including a 5' SapI site and a 29-bp region of complementarity to a universal reverse primer

containing an XbaI site. All primer sequences are shown in **Supplementary Table 4**. For each

sgRNA, 10 pmoles of forward and universal reverse primers were annealed and extended with Q5

high-fidelity DNA polymerase (NEB) according to the recommended conditions and with the following

program: 3 min/96°C, 3 cycles of 3 sec/96°C-30 sec/50°C-3 min/72°C, and final extension for 5

min/72°C. The PCR reaction was cleaned with the QIAquick PCR Purification Kit (QIAGEN), and

cloned as a ~110-bp SapI-XbaI fragment into pPuro2-hU6-gRNA-CBh-Cas9. For each deletion, we

designed 4 different sgRNAs, 2 targeting each side of the ERV (Supplementary Fig. 9), and tested the

efficiency of each individual guide using an endonuclease assay. For these assays, 1 µg of each

sgRNA plasmid were transfected in C57BL/6N C2 ESCs[75] by lipofection (Lipofectamine 2000,

ThermoFisher). After 16 hours, puromycin selection (4 µg/ml) was started and continued for 48 hours,

after which the cells were grown without selection for 5 days. Whole cell populations were collected

and prepared for PCR by HotSHOT[76]. Genomic PCR was performed with primers flanking the sgRNA

site (**Supplementary Table 4**) and purified amplicons were melted, reannealed, and then digested

using T4 Endonuclease I (NEB). Cut/uncut ratios were calculated following agarose gel electrophoresis

and the most efficient sgRNA pairs were chosen for subsequent use. For each deletion, sgRNA plasmid

pairs (total of ~ 10 μg) were electroporated into C2 cells as previously described[75]. After 48h of

puromycin selection, cells were grown in ESM for 7 days. Single colonies were picked and expanded,

then screened for full-length LTR deletion by PCR, Sanger sequencing, and chromosome contents.

Euploid lines containing full-length deletion were selected for aggregation chimera production.

Aggregation chimera production. Blastocysts were collected at E3.5 from female albino C57Bl/6J-

TyrC2J mice following natural mating, and placed in a 200ul drop of KSOM overlaid with embryo-

tested mineral oil and incubated at 37°C until ready for injection. Pooled clones of *Slc38a4* LTR KO

(#1, #2 and #10) or *Impact* LTR KO (#3 and #5) ESCs were suspended in injection media (DMEM

with HEPS + 25% KO ES media without LIF/2i), and blastocysts were injected with 8-10 ES cells per

embryo. After injection, 10-20 embryos were implanted into E2.5 pseudo pregnant mice via uterine

transfer. In total, 28 and 7 chimeric pups were born for the *Slc38a4*^{MT2AKO} and *Impact*^{MTCKO} mutant

ESCs, respectively. From these, at least three chimeric males per line transmitted a deletion allele.

Transgenic mice were bred and maintained in the Centre for Disease Modelling, Life Sciences Institute,

University of British Columbia, under pathogen-free conditions. In all heterozygous genotypes, the

maternally-inherited allele is always presented first.

Allele-specific expression analysis. E13.5 embryos and placentae were dissected from reciprocal F1

crosses between heterozygous LTR KO animals on the C57BL/6 background and WT CAST mice.

Embryonic heads for the *Impact* MTCKO and placentae for the *Slc38a4* MT2AKO crosses were used

for RNA extraction using Trizol (ThermoFisher). RNA was DNase I-treated (Fisher) at 37 °C for 1 h,

then heat inactivated at 65 °C for 15 min. cDNA was synthesized with MMLV-RT (ThermoFisher)

using N15 oligonucleotides. RT-PCR was performed with primers described in Supplementary Table 4,

and purified PCR products were subjected to restriction enzyme digestion (PvuII for *Slc38a4* or MluCI

for *Impact*) and resolved on a 2% agarose gel. Uncut PCR products were sent for Sanger sequencing,

and .ab1 files were analyzed using the PHRED software

(http://www.phrap.org/phredphrapconsed.html).

Bisulfite sequencing. E13.5 embryos and placentae were dissected from reciprocal F1 crosses between

heterozygous LTR KO animals on the C57BL/6 background and wild-type CAST/EiJ mice obtained

from the Jackson Laboratory (stock number 000735). Bodies were minced and gDNA was extracted by

proteinase K digestion followed by Phenol:Chloroform extraction. 100ng of gDNA was vortexed to

shear the DNA, denatured in 0.2M NaOH, bisulfite converted in 0.225M NaOH; 0.0125%

hydroquinone; 4M $NaHSO_3$ overnight at 50°C, cleaned using the Wizard DNA cleanup kit (Promega)

and desulfonated in 0.3M NaOH at 37°C for 30 minutes. Oocytes were harvested from females of the

appropriate genotype at 21-28 days of age. GVOs were isolated by passing dissected ovaries through a

100μm filter using a blunt tool, applying the filtrate to a 35μm filter, then backwashing the trapped

GVOs from the filter. GVOs were further purified by manual collection. >200 Oocytes were pooled

from multiple females (typically 4-5 females total). Oocyte DNA was harvested by incubation in 0.1%

SDS 1 μg/μl Proteinase K in the presence of 1μg lambda DNA at 37°C for 60 minutes followed by

98°C for 15 minutes. DNA was converted using EZ DNA Methylation Gold Kit (Zymo) per

manufacturer's protocols. 3 biological replicates for oocytes and 3 independent SBS conversions for

embryos were amplified using semi-nested primers, using touchdown-PCR conditions. Purified PCR

products were TA-cloned into pGEM-T (Promega), and sequenced at the McGill/Genome Quebec

Innovation Centre. Sequences were analyzed using BiQ Software (https://biq-analyzer.bioinf.mpi-

inf.mpg.de/). Informative SNPs were identified in final sequences and used to identify individual

C57BL/6 or CAST strands.

Quantitative RT-PCR. To measure total levels of expression, quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) was

performed on cDNA (described above) using Eva Green (Biotium) on a Step-One Plus Real time PCR

system (Applied Biosystems). All reactions were run as follows: 2 min at 95 °C, then 40 cycles of 30

sec at 95 °C, 30 sec at 60 °C, 30 sec at 72 °C, and fluorescence was read at 80 °C. Ct values of six

biological replicates from two litters for each stage were averaged and used to calculate relative

amounts of transcripts, normalized to levels of the housekeeping gene *Ppia*. Primer sequences are

available in **Supplementary Table 4**.

Data Availability. Data generated for this manuscript were deposited at GEO datasets under the

accession GSE126363. Tracks for oocyte data analyzed here can be accessed through the data hub

https://datahub-d85hei26.udes.genap.ca/NatComm2019/hub.txt. Datasets analyzed for this manuscript

are detailed in **Supplementary Table 1**.

Acknowledgements

We thank Rupesh Amin and Mark Groudine for their CRISPR-Cas9 vector, Hiromi Kamura, Prof.

Kenichiro Hata (National Center for Child Health and Development), Tomoya Takashima, Dr. Keisuke

Tanaka, and Prof. Tomohiro Kono (Tokyo University of Agriculture) for their technical assistance with

targeted bisulfite sequencing analysis, Julien Richard Albert and Amanda Ha for technical assistance,

and Dixie Mager and Carolyn Brown for helpful discussions. M.C.L. is supported by CIHR Grant

MOP-133417 and NSERC Discovery Grant 2015-05228. L.L is supported by CIHR Grant MOP-

119357 and NSERC Discovery Grant 386979-12 H.K. is supported by MEXT KAKENHI Grant

Numbers 15H05579 and JP18H05553. H.I is supported by MEXT KAKENHI Grant Numbers

15H05242 and 18H04005. A portion of primate samples were provided through the Great Ape

Information Network (supported by The Cooperative Research Programs of the Genome Research for

BioResource, NODAI Genome Research Center, Tokyo University of Agriculture, and Primate

Research Institute and Wildlife Research Center, Kyoto University). A portion of primate samples were

provided through the Great Ape Information Network. H.K. and H.I. are supported by The Cooperative

Research Programs of the Genome Research for BioResource, NODAI Genome Research Center,

Tokyo University of Agriculture, and Primate Research Institute and Wildlife Research Center, Kyoto

University.

Author Contributions

650 L.L., M.C.L., H.K., J.B., and A.B.B. conceived the project and designed the experiments. L.L., A.B.B.,

651 K.N.J., and J.B. performed murine experiments. H.K., K.N., and H.I. performed primate experiments.

652 A.B.B., J.B., and H.K. performed data analyses. L.L., M.C.L., H.K., J.B., and A.B.B. wrote the

653 manuscript.

Author Information

657 The authors declare no competing interests. Correspondence and requests for materials should be

658 addressed to L.L (louis.lefebvre@ubc.ca) or M.C.L. (matthew.lorincz@ubc.ca).

References

1. Stewart, K. R. *et al.* Dynamic changes in histone modifications precede de novo DNA methylation in oocytes. *Genes Dev.* **29,** 2449–2462 (2015).

2. Gahurova, L. *et al.* Transcription and chromatin determinants of de novo DNA methylation timing in oocytes. *Epigenetics Chromatin* **10,** 25 (2017).

3. Veselovska, L. *et al.* Deep sequencing and de novo assembly of the mouse oocyte transcriptome define the contribution of transcription to the DNA methylation landscape. *Genome Biol.* **16,** 209 (2015).

4. Shirane, K. *et al.* Mouse oocyte methylomes at base resolution reveal genome-wide accumulation of non-CpG methylation and role of DNA methyltransferases. *PLoS Genet.* **9,** e1003439 (2013).

5. Kobayashi, H. *et al.* Contribution of intragenic DNA methylation in mouse gametic DNA methylomes to establish oocyte-specific heritable marks. *PLoS Genet.* **8,** e1002440 (2012).

6. Tang, W. W. C. *et al.* A Unique Gene Regulatory Network Resets the Human Germline Epigenome for Development. *Cell* **161,** 1453–1467 (2015).

7. Guo, F. *et al.* The Transcriptome and DNA Methylome Landscapes of Human Primordial Germ Cells. *Cell* **161,** 1437–1452 (2015).

8. Okae, H. *et al.* Genome-wide analysis of DNA methylation dynamics during early human development. *PLoS Genet.* **10,** e1004868 (2014).

9. Xu, Q. *et al.* SETD2 regulates the maternal epigenome, genomic imprinting and embryonic development. *Nat. Genet.* **51,** 844–856 (2019).

10. Smallwood, S. A. *et al.* Dynamic CpG island methylation landscape in oocytes and preimplantation embryos. *Nat. Genet.* **43,** 811–814 (2011).

11. Hiura, H., Obata, Y., Komiyama, J., Shirai, M. & Kono, T. Oocyte growth-dependent progression of maternal imprinting in mice. *Genes Cells* **11,** 353–361 (2006).

12. Singh, V. B. *et al.* Blocked transcription through KvDMR1 results in absence of methylation and gene silencing resembling Beckwith-Wiedemann syndrome. *Development* **144,** 1820–1830 (2017).

13. Smith, E. Y., Futtner, C. R., Chamberlain, S. J., Johnstone, K. A. & Resnick, J. L. Transcription is required to establish maternal imprinting at the Prader-Willi syndrome and Angelman syndrome locus. *PLoS Genet.* **7,** e1002422 (2011).

14.   Chotalia, M. *et al.* Transcription is required for establishment of germline methylation marks at
imprinted genes. *Genes Dev.* **23,** 105–117 (2009).

15.   Joh, K. *et al.* Growing oocyte-specific transcription-dependent de novo DNA methylation at the
imprinted Zrsr1-DMR. *Epigenetics Chromatin* **11,** 28 (2018).

16.   Bretz, C. L. & Kim, J. Transcription-driven DNA methylation setting on the mouse Peg3 locus.
Epigenetics **12,** 945–952 (2017).

17.   Peaston, A. E. *et al.* Retrotransposons regulate host genes in mouse oocytes and preimplantation
embryos. *Dev. Cell* **7,** 597–606 (2004).

18.   Franke, V. *et al.* Long terminal repeats power evolution of genes and gene expression programs
in mammalian oocytes and zygotes. *Genome Res.* **27,** 1384–1394 (2017).

19.   Brind'Amour, J. *et al.* LTR retrotransposons transcribed in oocytes drive species-specific and
heritable changes in DNA methylation. *Nature Communications* **9,** 3331–3344 (2018).

20.   Schulz, R. *et al.* The parental non-equivalence of imprinting control regions during mammalian
development and evolution. *PLoS Genet.* **6,** e1001214 (2010).

21.   Hanna, C. W. *et al.* Pervasive polymorphic imprinted methylation in the human placenta.
Genome Res. **26,** 756–767 (2016).

22.   Court, F. *et al.* Genome-wide parent-of-origin DNA methylation analysis reveals the intricacies
of human imprinting and suggests a germline methylation-independent mechanism of
establishment. *Genome Res.* **24,** 554–569 (2014).

23.   Sanchez-Delgado, M. *et al.* Absence of Maternal Methylation in Biparental Hydatidiform Moles
from Women with NLRP7 Maternal-Effect Mutations Reveals Widespread Placenta-Specific
Imprinting. *PLoS Genet.* **11,** e1005644 (2015).

24.   Cuellar Partida, G. *et al.* Genome-wide survey of parent-of-origin effects on DNA methylation
identifies candidate imprinted loci in humans. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **27,** 2927–2939 (2018).

25.   Hamada, H. *et al.* Allele-Specific Methylome and Transcriptome Analysis Reveals Widespread
Imprinting in the Human Placenta. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* **99,** 1045–1058 (2016).

26.   Proudhon, C. *et al.* Protection against de novo methylation is instrumental in maintaining parent-
of-origin methylation inherited from the gametes. *Mol Cell* **47,** 909–920 (2012).

27.   Wang, L. *et al.* Programming and inheritance of parental DNA methylomes in mammals. *Cell*
157, 979–991 (2014).

28.   Trapnell, C. *et al.* Transcript assembly and quantification by RNA-Seq reveals unannotated
transcripts and isoform switching during cell differentiation. *Nat Biotech* **28,** 511–515 (2010).

29. Hendrickson, P. G. *et al.* Conserved roles of mouse DUX and human DUX4 in activating
cleavage-stage genes and MERVL/HERVL retrotransposons. *Nat. Genet.* **487,** 57 (2017).

30. Babaian, A. *et al.* LIONS: Analysis Suite for Detecting and Quantifying Transposable Element
Initiated Transcription from RNA-seq. *Bioinformatics* **7,** 24. (2019).

31. Pertea, M. *et al.* StringTie enables improved reconstruction of a transcriptome from RNA-seq
reads. *Nat Biotech* **33,** 290–295 (2015).

32. Mizuno, Y. *et al.* Asb4, Ata3, and Dcn are novel imprinted genes identified by high-throughput
screening using RIKEN cDNA microarray. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun* **290,** 1499–1505
(2002).

33. Smith, R. J., Dean, W., Konfortova, G. & Kelsey, G. Identification of novel imprinted genes in a
genome-wide screen for maternal methylation. *Genome Res.* **13,** 558–569 (2003).

34. Hagiwara, Y. *et al.* Screening for imprinted genes by allelic message display: identification of a
paternally expressed gene impact on mouse chromosome 18. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **94,** 9249–
9254 (1997).

35. Sanchez-Delgado, M., Vidal, E., PLoS, J. M.2016. Human oocyte-derived methylation
differences persist in the placenta revealing widespread transient imprinting. *PLoS Genet.* **12,**
e1006427 (2016).

36. Metsalu, T. *et al.* Using RNA sequencing for identifying gene imprinting and random
monoallelic expression in human placenta. *Epigenetics* **9,** 1397–1409 (2014).

37. Yuen, R. K., Jiang, R., Peñaherrera, M. S., Mcfadden, D. E. & Robinson, W. P. Genome-wide
mapping of imprinted differentially methylated regions by DNA methylation profiling of human
placentas from triploidies. *Epigenetics Chromatin* **4,** 10 (2011).

38. Okae, H. *et al.* Re-investigation and RNA sequencing-based identification of genes with
placenta-specific imprinted expression. *Hum. Mol. Genet.* **21,** 548–558 (2012).

39. Bao, W., Kojima, K. K. & Kohany, O. Repbase Update, a database of repetitive elements in
eukaryotic genomes. *Mob DNA* **6,** 11 (2015).

40. Ruebel, M. L. *et al.* Transcriptome analysis of rhesus monkey failed-to-mature oocytes:
deficiencies in transcriptional regulation and cytoplasmic maturation of the oocyte mRNA
population. *Molecular Human Reproduction* **24,** 478–494 (2018).

41. Gao, F. *et al.* De novo DNA methylation during monkey pre-implantation embryogenesis. *Cell
Res* **27,** 526–539 (2017).

42.   Okamura, K., Sakaki, Y. & Ito, T. Comparative genomics approach toward critical determinants
for the imprinting of an evolutionarily conserved gene Impact. *Biochem Biophys Res Commun*
329, 824–830 (2005).

43.   Okae, H. *et al.* RNA sequencing-based identification of aberrant imprinting in cloned mice.
Hum. Mol. Genet. **23,** 992–1001 (2014).

44.   Hanna, C. W. *et al.* MLL2 conveys transcription-independent H3K4 trimethylation in oocytes.
Nat Struct Mol Biol **25,** 73–82 (2018).

45.   Wood, A. J. *et al.* A screen for retrotransposed imprinted genes reveals an association between X
chromosome homology and maternal germ-line methylation. *PLoS Genet.* **3,** e20 (2007).

46.   Cowley, M. & Oakey, R. J. Retrotransposition and genomic imprinting. *Brief Funct Genomics* **9,**
340–346 (2010).

47.   Inoue, A., Jiang, L., Lu, F., Suzuki, T. & Zhang, Y. Maternal H3K27me3 controls DNA
methylation-independent imprinting. *Nature* **547,** 419–424 (2017).

48.   Schmitges, F. W. *et al.* Histone methylation by PRC2 is inhibited by active chromatin marks.
Mol Cell **42,** 330–341 (2011).

49.   Matoba, S. *et al.* Loss of H3K27me3 Imprinting in Somatic Cell Nuclear Transfer Embryos
Disrupts Post-Implantation Development. *Cell Stem Cell* **23,** 343–354.e5 (2018).

50.   Takahashi, N. *et al.* ZNF445 is a primary regulator of genomic imprinting. *Genes Dev.* **33,** 49–
54 (2019).

51.   Auclair, G. *et al.* EHMT2 directs DNA methylation for efficient gene silencing in mouse
embryos. *Genome Res.* **26,** 192–202 (2016).

52.   Barlow, D. P. Methylation and imprinting: from host defense to gene regulation? *Science* **260,**
309–310 (1993).

53.   Yoder, J. A., Walsh, C. P. & Bestor, T. H. Cytosine methylation and the ecology of intragenomic
parasites. *Trends Genet* **13,** 335–340 (1997).

54.   McDonald, J. F., Matzke, M. A. & Matzke, A. J. Host defenses to transposable elements and the
evolution of genomic imprinting. *Cytogenet Genome Res* **110,** 242–249 (2005).

55.   Pask, A. J. *et al.* Analysis of the platypus genome suggests a transposon origin for mammalian
imprinting. *Genome Biol.* **10,** R1 (2009).

56.   Song, Q. *et al.* A reference methylome database and analysis pipeline to facilitate integrative and
comparative epigenomics. *PLoS ONE* **8,** e81148 (2013).

57.   ENCODE Project Consortium. An integrated encyclopedia of DNA elements in the human
genome. *Nature* **489,** 57–74 (2012).

58.   Hahn, O. *et al.* Dietary restriction protects from age-associated DNA methylation and induces
epigenetic reprogramming of lipid metabolism. *Genome Biol.* **18,** 56 (2017).

59.   Harten, S. K. *et al.* The recently identified modifier of murine metastable epialleles, Rearranged
L-Myc Fusion, is involved in maintaining epigenetic marks at CpG island shores and enhancers.
BMC Biol **13,** 21 (2015).

60.   Hodges, E. *et al.* Directional DNA methylation changes and complex intermediate states
accompany lineage specificity in the adult hematopoietic compartment. *Mol Cell* **44,** 17–28
(2011).

61.   Hon, G. C. *et al.* Epigenetic memory at embryonic enhancers identified in DNA methylation
maps from adult mouse tissues. *Nat. Genet.* **45,** 1198–1206 (2013).

62.   Mendizabal, I. *et al.* Comparative Methylome Analyses Identify Epigenetic Regulatory Loci of
Human Brain Evolution. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **33,** 2947–2959 (2016).

63.   Molaro, A. *et al.* Sperm methylation profiles reveal features of epigenetic inheritance and
evolution in primates. *Cell* **146,** 1029–1041 (2011).

64.   Okae, H. *et al.* Derivation of Human Trophoblast Stem Cells. *Cell Stem Cell* **22,** 50–63.e6
(2018).

65.   Roadmap Epigenomics Consortium *et al.* Integrative analysis of 111 reference human
epigenomes. *Nature* **518,** 317–330 (2015).

66.   Schroeder, D. I. *et al.* Early Developmental and Evolutionary Origins of Gene Body DNA
Methylation Patterns in Mammalian Placentas. *PLoS Genet.* **11,** e1005442 (2015).

67.   Schroeder, D. I., Lott, P., Korf, I. & LaSalle, J. M. Large-scale methylation domains mark a
functional subset of neuronally expressed genes. *Genome Res.* **21,** 1583–1591 (2011).

68.   Tung, J. *et al.* Social environment is associated with gene regulatory variation in the rhesus
macaque immune system. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* **109,** 6490–6495 (2012).

69.   Zeng, J. *et al.* Divergent whole-genome methylation maps of human and chimpanzee brains
reveal epigenetic basis of human regulatory evolution. *Am J Hum Genet* **91,** 455–465 (2012).

70.   Dobin, A. *et al.* STAR: ultrafast universal RNA-seq aligner. *Bioinformatics* **29,** 15–21 (2012).

71.   Kumar, S., Stecher, G., Li, M., Knyaz, C. & Tamura, K. MEGA X: Molecular Evolutionary
Genetics Analysis across Computing Platforms. *Molecular Biology and Evolution* **35,** 1547–
1549 (2018).

72.   Letunic, I. & Bork, P. Interactive tree of life (iTOL) v3: an online tool for the display and
annotation of phylogenetic and other trees. *Nucleic Acids Res* **44,** W242–W245 (2016).

73.   Cong, L. *et al.* Multiplex genome engineering using CRISPR/Cas systems. *Science* **339,** 819–
823 (2013).

74.   Tucker, K. L. *et al.* Germ-line passage is required for establishment of methylation and
expression patterns of imprinted but not of nonimprinted genes. *Genes Dev.* **10,** 1008–1020
(1996).

75.   Gertsenstein, M. *et al.* Efficient Generation of Germ Line Transmitting Chimeras from
C57BL/6N ES Cells by Aggregation with Outbred Host Embryos. *PLoS ONE* **5,** e11260 (2010).

76.   Truett, G. E. *et al.* Preparation of PCR-quality mouse genomic DNA with hot sodium hydroxide
and tris (HotSHOT). *Biotech.* **29,** 52–54 (2000).

Figure legends

Figure 1. Identification of human and mouse maternal igDMRs embedded within lineage-specific
LITs. a, Venn diagram showing the intersection of known maternal igDMRs in mouse and human,
along with the subset of igDMRs in each species embedded within a LIT. For each LIT-associated
igDMR, the family of the LTR in which transcription initiates in oocytes is shown on the right. The
presence of each LTR family in relevant mammalian lineages is color-coded as in Supplementary Fig.
1c. **b**, List of imprinted genes/igDMRs associated with LITs. Maternal igDMRs unique to mouse (4) or
human (17) are shown, along with DNAme levels (heat map) for each igDMR in syntenic regions in
the gametes, blastocyst, placenta and adult tissues in human and mouse. The retrogene *retro-Coro1c* is
absent in the syntenic human region on chromosome 6p22.3 (*no orthologue*). *ZNF396* does not have a
syntenic CGI in mice (*no synteny*). CT: cytotrophoblast; PBMC: peripheral blood mononuclear cell. **c-**
d, Screenshots of the human and mouse *RHOBTB3*/*Rhobtb3* and *SCIN*/*Scin* loci, including locations of
annotated genes, LTR retrotransposons, and regions of syntenic homology. The relevant CGI, igDMR,
and upstream LTR in human are highlighted in green, blue, and red respectively. For each species,
RNA-seq data from GVOs are shown, along with assembled transcripts, including LITs and their 5'
LTR exons (red) for the human genes. DNAme levels in gametes, blastocyst, placenta, and liver are
shown across each locus in both species. For the human DNAme data, profiles from female 11-week
primordial germs cells are also shown (11W PGC) and oocyte DNAme is from a mixture of GVO and
MII oocytes. Details of all the datasets used in this study are presented in Supplementary Table 1.

Figure 2. Conservation of oocyte LTR-initiated transcription and gametic imprinting in

primates. a, Table of 16 human genes with igDMRs embedded within LITs active in oocytes and

showing maternal/allelic DNAme in blastocyst and cytotrophoblast. The family of the initiating LTR is

shown on the left, color-coded according to the phylogenetic distribution of the ERV family (top), as in

Fig. 1a. For each species, the presence of the initiating LTR at each locus is indicated by a matching

colored box and the igDMR DNAme status in human or the syntenic region in chimp, macaque and

mouse placenta is shown. An empty box indicates no data. Arrows indicate genes for which evidence

of allelic transcription has been published (Supplementary Table 2). Gene names in bold were analyzed

in greater detail. **b**, Conservation of LITs in human and macaque oocytes for the 18 igDMRs from

panel **a**. Solid boxes indicate LITs discovered by LIONS, boxed hatches indicate LITs with evidence of

splicing from the LTR over the igDMR, and unboxed hatches indicate evidence of transcription from

the LTR. Dashes indicate LTRs from which no transcription is seen, and loci for which the relevant

LTR is absent from the macaque genome are also shown (X: No LTR). *: An LTR12F may initiate a

LIT in macaque oocytes (Supplementary Fig. 3a). **c**, Screenshot of the human *ST8SIA1* locus, showing

its CGI promoter (green), annotated gene (blue), oocyte LIT (red), and DNAme in human and macaque

oocytes (black). Highlighted are the location of the upstream LTR12C in human and chimp (red) and

the human igDMR (blue). **d**, Screenshot of the human *RHOBTB3* locus annotated as in **c** and

highlighting the upstream MSTA LTR promoter (pink). **e**, Violin plots of the distribution of mean

DNAme levels in placenta for individual bisulphite-sequencing reads covering the igDMRs of the

orthologous chimp and macaque *ST8SIA1*, *HECW1*, *RHOBTB3* and *MCCC1* genes. Coloured boxes

indicate the presence of the proximal LTR. For each gene, the mean DNAme level at each of the CpGs

surveyed is shown below. Symbols for DNAme are as in **a**. Note that the MER51E in the macaque

MCCC1 locus is transcriptionally inert, likely due to macaque-specific SNPs rendering it

transcriptionally inactive (Supplementary Fig. 4d-f). **f**, Placental DNAme data at the *HECW1*, *GLIS3,*

and *MCCC1* loci for informative samples heterozygous at SNPs of known parental origin, are shown

for the species indicated.

Figure 3. Phylogenetic relationship between LTR, LIT, and maternal DNAme at mouse-specific

igDMRs. a, The presence or absence of a LIT overlapping the CGI at *Cdh15*, *Slc38a4*, and *Impact* are

indicated with closed boxes and dashes, respectively. X: species in which the LTR is absent. **b**,

Screenshots of *Slc38a4*/*SLC38A4* and *Impact*/*IMPACT* loci showing GVO RNA-seq data (and the

associated *de novo* Cufflinks transcript assembly), DNAme profiles in NGO, GVO and sperm, and

H3K4me3, PolII, and H3K36me3 ChIP-seq tracks for mouse GVO. Highlighted are the upstream

initiating LTR (red), CGI promoter (green), and mouse igDMR (blue). The syntenic region in human is

also shown, including GVO RNA-seq and DNAme from oocytes and sperm. A 5' RACE gene model

initiating within the MTC element at the *Impact* locus is included in the right panel[14]. **c**, Scatter plot of

oocyte H3K4me3 and transcription levels for all mouse MT2A elements, with those acting as

transcription start sites in oocytes highlighted in blue. The remaining transcribed elements reflect

exonization events. The MT2A element initiating the LIT at *Slc38a4* (red) is amongst the most active

elements of this family. **d**, Histogram of the distribution of mouse MT2A LTRs as a function of

divergence from the consensus sequence. The LTR driving expression at *Slc38a4* is amongst the most

highly diverged.

Figure 4. Loss of imprinting at *Slc38a4* upon maternal transmission of the MT2A KO allele. a,

Genome browser screenshot of the mouse *Slc38a4* promoter and upstream region, including the MT2A

LTR (red), annotated *Slc38a4* exon 1, CGI (green), and igDMR (blue). GVO RNA-seq as well as RNA

pol II, H3K4me3 and H3K36me3 ChIP-seq tracks are shown, along with DNAme data for GVO, sperm

and adult liver. The region within the igDMR analyzed by sodium bisulfite sequencing (SBS), which

includes 11 CpG sites, is shown at the bottom. Δ: extent of the MT2AKO deletion allele. **b**, DNAme of

the *Slc38a4* igDMR in GVO from wild-type and *Slc38a4*[MT2AKO/MT2AKO] females determined by SBS. **c**,

DNAme of the *Slc38a4* igDMR in E13.5 (*Slc38a4*[+/MT2AKO] × CAST)F1 embryos determined by SBS. Data

for control (+/+[c]) and heterozygous (KO/+[c]) littermates with a maternally inherited MT2AKO are

shown. +[c]: wild-type CAST allele; KO: *Slc38a4*[MT2AKO]. A polymorphic insertion in the amplified region

allows for discrimination of maternal (Mat) and paternal (Pat) strands. Allele-specific expression

analyses of F1 E13.5 placental RNA by (**d**) RT-PCR followed by PvuII RFLP analysis (RT: reverse

transcriptase), and (**e-f**) Sanger sequencing of a T↔C transition in the 3'UTR of the *Slc38a4* cDNA

(maternal B6: T allele; and paternal CAST: C allele). Each bar in **f** shows the mean of individual

samples, and error bars show S.D. of two SNPs analyzed. **g**, Total *Slc38a4* mRNA levels in E8.5,

E13.5, E16.5 and E18.5 placentae, as determined by RT-qPCR (n=6 for each datapoint). Expression

levels are relative to the housekeeping gene *Ppia*. Graph shows mean ± S.D.

Figure 5. Loss of imprinting at *Impact* upon maternal transmission of the MTC KO allele.

a, Genome browser screenshot of the mouse *Impact* locus, including the upstream MTC LTR (red),

CGI (green), and igDMR (blue). GVO RNA-seq as well as RNA pol II, H3K4me3, and H3K36me3

ChIP-seq tracks are shown, along with DNAme data for GVO, sperm, and adult liver. The region

within the igDMR analyzed by sodium bisulfite sequencing (SBS), which includes 10 CpG sites, is

shown at the bottom. Δ: extent of the upstream MTCKO deletion allele. **b**, DNAme of the *Impact*

igDMR in GVO from wildtype and *Impact*^MTCKO/MTCKO^ females determined by SBS. **c**, DNAme of the *Impact*

igDMR in E13.5 (*Impact*^+/MTCKO^ × CAST)F1 embryos determined by SBS. Data for control (+/+^{c}) and

heterozygous (KO/+^{c}) littermates with a maternally inherited MTCKO are shown. +^{c}: wild-type CAST

allele; KO: *Impact*^MTCKO^. A polymorphic insertion and a SNP in the amplified region allow for

discrimination of maternal (Mat) and paternal (Pat) strands. **d-e**, Allele-specific expression analysis of

F1 E13.5 embryonic head RNA by (**d**) RT-PCR followed by MluCI RFLP analysis, and (**e**) Sanger

sequencing of a A↔G transition in the 3'UTR of the *Impact* mRNA (maternal B6: A allele; and

paternal CAST: G allele). RT: reverse transcriptase. **f**, Quantification of relative levels of expression

from the paternal *Impact* allele based on the analysis of embryos as in **e**. Graph shows mean ±S.D of

three SNPs. **g**, *Impact* mRNA levels analyzed by RT-qPCR on E13.5 embryonic RNA, from six

embryos of each genotype from two litters. Expression levels are relative to those for the wild-type

allele. Graph shows mean ± S.E.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5