Spring 2023 – Epigenetics and Systems Biology Lecture Outline (Systems Biology) Michael K. Skinner – Biol 476/576 Weeks 11 and 12 (March 2023)

Environmental Epigenetics

- Environmental Impacts on Biology
- Environment and Phenotype Variation
- Environmental Factors
- Environmental Epigenetics and Twin Studies
- Early life Exposures and Developmental Effects
- Nutrition and Epigenetics
- Environmental Toxicants and Epigenetics
- Environmental Induced Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance

Required Reading

Nilsson EE, Ben Maamar M, Skinner MK. Role of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance in generational toxicology. Environ Epigenet. 2022 Feb 16;8(1):dvac001. (PMID: 35186326)

Books (Reserve in Library)

Scott F. Gilbert and David Epel (2009) Ecological Developmental Biology. Sinauer Associates Inc. Sunderland, Massachusetts.

E-Book: Craig and Wong (2011) Epigenetics: A Reference Manual. Caister Academic Press. ISBN-13: 978-1904455882.

<u>Literature</u>

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Role of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance in generational toxicology

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Abstract

Many environmental toxicants have been shown to be associated with the transgenerational inheritance of increased disease susceptibility. This review describes the generational toxicity of some of these chemicals and their role in the induction of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of disease. Epigenetic factors include DNA methylation, histone modifications, retention of histones in sperm, changes to chromatin structure, and expression of non-coding RNAs. For toxicant-induced epigenetic transgenerational inheritance to occur, exposure to a toxicant must result in epigenetic changes to germ cells (sperm or eggs) since it is the germ cells that carry molecular information to subsequent generations. In addition, the epigenetic changes induced in transgenerational generation animals must cause alterations in gene expression in these animals' somatic cells. In some cases of generational toxicology, negligible changes are seen in the directly exposed generations, but increased disease rates are seen in transgenerational descendants. Governmental policies regulating toxicant exposure should take generational effects into account. A new approach that takes into consideration generational toxicity will be needed to protect our future populations.

Key words: epigenetics; generational toxicology; transgenerational

Introduction

Previous studies have demonstrated the ability of environmental toxicants to promote the epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of disease, which can be termed "generational toxicology." Therefore, exposure to environmental toxicants can increase disease rates in subsequent generations not directly exposed [1]. Although the field of toxicology has focused on direct exposure toxicity, generational impacts have not been previously considered due in part to the lack of continued direct exposure. This review describes the molecular processes and factors that affect the epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of disease related to ancestral chemical toxicant exposure.

The term epigenetics was originally coined by C. H. Waddington in the 1940s to refer to how an organism's genes and its environment can interact to result in non-Mendelian inheritance of phenotypes [2, 3]. In more current usage, epigenetics is defined as "the molecular factors and processes around the DNA that regulate genome activity independent of DNA sequence, and are mitotically stable" [4]. Epigenetic molecular factors include DNA methylation [5, 6], histone modifications [7], changes to chromatin structure [8], expression of non-coding RNAs (ncRNAs) [9, 10], and RNA methylation [11]. These epigenetic factors and their interactions together comprise what is termed the epigenome. Changes to epigenetic factors are a critical mechanism by which organisms respond to their environment, altering somatic cell gene expression to change physiology [12]. In addition, epigenetic changes underlie the differentiation of stem cells into the many differentiated cell types in an organism [4, 13, 14]. Therefore, cellular differentiation and cell specificity is, in large part, determined by epigenetics. Epigenetic mechanisms are a critical part of all normal biological processes, including how the environment influences biology.

Molecular Epigenetic Mechanisms

There are several epigenetic factors that act around the DNA to regulate gene expression in cells. The most studied epigenetic factor is DNA methylation. This involves the chemical addition of functional methyl groups to DNA. DNA methylation occurs primarily at cytosine bases that are adjacent to guanine, termed CpG residues, to form 5-methylcytosine (5mC) [15]. Other chemical modifications of CpG residues can also occur. The Ten-Eleven Translocation (TET) enzyme family can successively oxidize 5mC to 5-hydroxymethylcytosine (5hmC), 5-formylcytosine and 5-carboxylcytosine [16]. Typically, 5mC is thought to repress transcription, while 5hmC is thought to be permissive of transcription [17, 18]. Another important function of TET family enzymes is to remove DNA methylation during early embryonic development and cellular differentiation to help form embryonic stem cells [19-21]. DNA methylation can also occur at adenosine residues to form N(6)-methyladenine (N6-mA)

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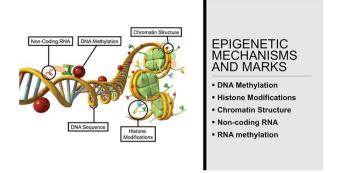


Figure 1: Schematic representation of the primary epigenetic factors and processes of non-coding RNA, DNA methylation, chromatin structure, histone modifications, and DNA structure presented. Modified from Nilsson *et al.* [1]

[22]. N(6)-mA, once thought to only occur in prokaryotic organisms, has been described to occur in mammalian embryonic stem cells. DNA methylation has a critical role in regulating gene expression and chromatin structure, which is present in all cells and organisms (Fig. 1). The optimal DNA methylation procedures use genome-wide analyses, such as methylated DNA immunoprecipitation (MeDIP) and bisulfite sequencing, compared to array technology, which assesses a few percent of the genome [23].

DNA is wrapped around histone proteins to form nucleosomes. Another epigenetic factor involves the chemical modification of nucleosome histones that act to regulate gene expression [24, 25]. These histone modifications include lysine acetylation, lysine and arginine methylation, arginine citrullination, lysine ubiquitination, lysine sumoylation, ADP-ribosylation, proline isomerization, and serine/threonine/tyrosine phosphorylation [24]. The effects of these modifications include changing chromatin structure, suppressing gene expression in areas of heterochromatin, and recruiting transcriptional cofactors [25, 26]. Additional histonerelated epigenetic factors include the use of histone variants, changes to the spacing between nucleosomes, and the positioning of chromatin within the nucleus [26]. These factors act together to regulate gene expression by controlling gene accessibility and recruitment of transcriptional cofactors [27, 28], (Fig. 1). The optimal genome-wide histone modification technology uses chromatin immunoprecipitation procedures [29]. ncRNA molecules can act as epigenetic factors [30, 31]. These are RNA sequences that do not rely on complimentary base sequences to bind and act to regulate gene expression [32]. ncRNAs have been shown to regulate embryogenesis and other developmental processes [33]. Long ncRNAs [30] and small ncRNAs regulate gene expression through DNA and protein binding to alter gene expression and are present in all cell types and organisms [30], (Fig. 1). An example includes transfer RNA-derived small tRNA fragments [34] that can influence gene expression and are present in sperm and can act on subsequent generations to alter phenotype [35, 36]. The optimal genome-wide technology used for ncRNA involves direct RNA sequencing [37].

Methylation of RNA can affect gene expression and so is considered another epigenetic factor [38]. Methylation of adenosine to form N6-mA is the most common epigenetic modification of the internal RNA sequence. This is a reversible modification and is associated with post-transcriptional regulation [39, 40]. Another modification of RNA that can occur is methylation of cytosine (m3C) in both mRNA and tRNA [41]. These epigenetic modifications of RNA all regulate RNA structure and gene expression (Fig. 1). The optimal genome-wide analysis of RNA methylation uses immunoprecipitation and RNA sequencing [42].

The three-dimensional coiling and looping of DNA and its associated proteins within the nucleus is termed chromatin structure and is itself an epigenetic factor [8]. The structure of chromatin affects the accessibility of genes to transcriptional machinery and can be affected by several of the other epigenetic factors, (Fig. 1). The best example is the compacted chromatin structure of heterochromatin that represses gene expression and that is promoted by hypermethylation of DNA versus the less compacted euchromatin that is associated with active gene expression and hypomethylation of DNA [24]. The optimal genome-wide technology for chromatin structure analysis also uses chromatin immunoprecipitation procedures [29].

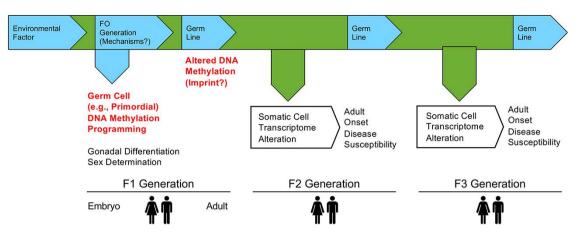
Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance

Epigenetic information can be passed from one generation to another through sperm or eggs. If an organism is exposed to an environmental factor, such as a toxicant, epigenetic changes can be induced both in the somatic cells of the individual exposed, as well as in the directly exposed germ cells of the organism (Fig. 2). When epigenetic changes due to direct exposure of germ cells are passed on to affect the subsequent generation, this is termed multigenerational epigenetic inheritance [43]. In mammals, multigenerational inheritance can occur when males or females of a founder F0 generation are exposed to an environmental factor, and their epigenetically altered germ cells go on to form the F1 generation (Fig. 3). When gestating, F0-generation females are exposed to an environmental factor, then their oocytes, and the germ cells of each developing fetus, are also directly exposed. Therefore, the F2 generation descendants of exposed pregnant females are still considered to be the result of multigenerational epigenetic inheritance (Fig. 3).

Epigenetic transgenerational inheritance is defined as "germline-mediated inheritance of epigenetic information between generations in the absence of continued direct environmental influences that leads to phenotypic variation" [4]. If males or non-pregnant females of the F0 generation are exposed to an environmental factor, then epigenetic changes seen in the unexposed F2 generation grand-offspring are an example of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance (Fig. 3). Similarly, if pregnant females are exposed, then the F3 generation great-grand-offspring are the first generation that can exhibit epigenetic transgenerational inheritance [43].

The Agouti mouse model is a well-studied example of epigenetic multigenerational inheritance. Pregnant Agouti mice that are fed a diet rich in methyl donors show increased methylation of a methylation-sensitive allele of the Agouti gene, leading to a coat color change in their F1 generation offspring [44]. This coat color change is not passed on to the F2 or the transgenerational F3 generation. Rather, the normal process of demethylation and remethylation that occurs during germline development resets the methylation state of the Agouti allele to its original level, and a more normal coat color occurs [45].

Examples of transgenerational inheritance are well established in the literature (reviewed in [1]). Early studies were performed by Conrad Waddington in the 1940s, who coined the term "epigenetic" [46]. In these studies, fruit flies (*Drosophila melanogaster*) were exposed to a heat shock that induced changes in wing structure that persisted for more than 16 generations. One of the first



ROLE OF GERM CELL IN EPIGENETIC TRANS-GENERATIONAL INHERITANCE

Figure 2: Role of germ cell in epigenetic transgenerational inheritance. The exposure of an F0 generation gestating female promotes an epigenetic alteration in the germ cell programming of the F1 generation fetus. The F1 generation adult passes the germ cell epigenetics and early embryo to alter the embryonic stem cell epigenetics and transcriptome to impact all developing somatic cell epigenetics and transcriptomes to promote cell and tissue disease susceptibility. The altered germ cell epigenetics is then transgenerationally transmitted to subsequent generations. Modified from Nilsson *et al.* [1]

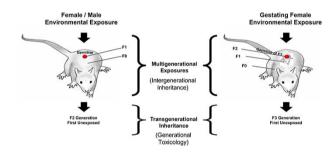


Figure 3: Environmentally induced transgenerational epigenetic inheritance: schematic of environmental exposure and affected generations for both gestating female and adult male or female. The multigenerational direct exposures are indicated in contrast to the transgenerational generation having no direct exposure. Modified from Nilsson *et al.* [1]

studies in mammals to document molecular epigenetic changes that were associated with the transgenerational inheritance of disease involved exposing pregnant rats to the agricultural fungicide and anti-androgenic endocrine disruptor vinclozolin [47]. The F3 generation descendants of the exposed pregnant rats had increased rates of reproductive abnormalities such as testicular germ cell apoptosis and decreased sperm motility. This was associated with altered DNA methylation in the F3 generation sperm. Subsequent studies showed that vinclozolin exposure resulted in the transgenerational inheritance of increased susceptibility to testis, prostate, and kidney disease, pubertal onset abnormalities, ovarian disease, mammary tumors, and an increased obesity rate in females [48-51]. Subsequently, many environmental toxicants have been shown to be associated with the transgenerational inheritance of increased disease susceptibility (Table 1). These environmental toxicants have been shown to impact a variety of different species from plants to humans (Fig. 4). This review will focus on the generational toxicity of these substances and their role in epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of disease.

Phthalates are plastics-derived endocrine disrupting compounds that have been shown to induce transgenerational effects in mice (Table 1). These effects include changes to male behaviors and to female corticosterone levels [52] and alterations in
 Table 1: Environmental toxicant induction of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance: generational toxicology

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Toxicants	References
Vinclozolin	[47–51, 84, 85, 92, 95, 98, 99, 101, 103, 104]
TCDD/dioxin	[68]
Plastics compounds (BPA, phthalates DEHP and DBP)	[52–59]
Jet fuel (JP8) (hydrocarbon mixture)	[62]
Pesticides and insect repellent (permethrin and DEET)	[67]
DDT	[61, 87, 92, 96, 104]
Methoxychlor	[66]
Chlordecone	[102]
Methylmercury	[76]
Lead	[105]
Arsenic	[63, 70–74]
Atrazine	[64, 65]
Glyphosate	[86, 93]
Decabromodiphenyl ether (BDE-209)	[88]
Tributyltin	[60]
5-azacytidine	[77]
Ethanol	[75]
Benzo[a]pyrene	[69]
Genistein	[79]

ovarian folliculogenesis and progesterone levels in females [53]. Exposure of mice to the plastics-derived compound bisphenol A (BPA) induced transgenerational changes in social behavior and in the expression of brain hormones, such as vasopressin and oxytocin [54]. Ancestral exposure to BPA also effects imprinted gene methylation and gene expression in the brains of mice [55]. Exposure of zebrafish to BPA results in a transgenerational increase in heart disorders [56]. Medaka fish ancestrally exposed to BPA or ethinylestradiol, an estrogenic environmental toxicant from birth control pills, show transgenerational reductions in fertility [57]. Exposure of pregnant rats to a mixture of BPA and phthalates was shown to increase the incidence of pubertal

ENVIRONMENTALLY INDUCED EPIGENETIC TRANSGENERATIONAL INHERITANCE: GENERATIONAL TOXICOLOGY

Environmental Toxicants

Vinclozolin (Agricultural Fungicide) Methoxychlor (Agricultural Fungicide) Dioxin/TCDD (Industrial Contaminant) Plastic Compounds (BPA & Phthalates) Methylmercury, Lead, Arsenic Jet Fuel (Hydrocarbons) Glyphosate, Atrazine Tributyltin Ethanol Genistein



Figure 4: Environmentally induced epigenetic transgenerational inheritance. Various exposures and species investigated

abnormalities, testis disease, and ovarian disease in the transgenerational F3 generation [58]. In the nematode worm *C. elegans*, exposure to nanoplastic particles resulted in a transgenerational decline in reproduction [59].

Tributyltin is an environmental toxicant and endocrine disruptor with obesogenic properties that has been shown to induce the transgenerational inheritance of obesity and hepatic steatosis in mice [60]. Other toxicants known to induce epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of obesity in rats include dichlorodiphenyltrichloroethane (DDT) [61], a mixture of BPA and phthalates [58], and jet fuel hydrocarbons [62]. In mice, exposure to arsenic was shown to transgenerationally increase adiposity in males [63].

Pesticides are environmental toxicants and induce the transgenerational inheritance of increased disease risk, (Table 1). Ancestral exposure of pregnant rats to the herbicide atrazine induced transgenerational increases in testis disease, prostate disease, kidney disease, a lean phenotype, and an altered age at puberty [64, 65]. DDT exposure increases obesity transgenerationally but also induces increased rates of testis, ovary, and kidney pathologies [61]. The pesticide methoxychlor, marketed as a replacement for DDT, in rats induced transgenerational increases in kidney disease and ovarian disease, which were primarily inherited through the female germ line [66]. A mixture of the insecticide permethrin and the insect repellent N, N-Diethylmeta-toluamide (DEET) induced transgenerational increases in pubertal abnormalities, testis disease, and ovarian disease [67].

Some industrial pollutants have been investigated for their capacity to induce transgenerational increases in disease. Ancestral exposure of rats to dioxins can lead to increased kidney disease in males, pubertal abnormalities in females, and ovarian primordial follicle loss and polycystic ovary disease in F3 generation animals [68]. Exposure of zebrafish to benzo[a]pyrene, a byproduct of combustion of organic material, results in transgenerational increases in neurobehavioral abnormalities and body mass index [69].

Zebrafish ancestrally exposed to arsenic show transgenerational alterations in motor activity and increased anxiety-like behaviors [70]. Exposure of pregnant rats to arsenic resulted in transgenerational increases in testis abnormalities, reduced sperm quality, decreased adult body weight, and genotoxicity of white blood cells [71, 72], associated with DNA methylation changes and altered transcription of the IGF2 and H19 genes in testis [72]. Arsenite exposure of the nematode worm *C. elegans* resulted in alterations in sugar metabolism for six subsequent generations [73] and with decreased reproductive brood size for three generations [74].

Increased transgenerational disease has been associated with other environmental toxicants, (Table 1). Exposure of pregnant mice to ethanol vapor induces transgenerational neurological changes in the F3 generation that resemble those of Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorders [75]. Changes include altered ectopic intraneocortical connectivity and upregulation of $Rzr\beta$ and Id2 gene expression in the neocortex. Zebrafish exposed to methylmercury have unexposed descendants (F2 generation) that exhibit hyperactivity and a visual deficit [76]. In the crustacean Daphnia magna, exposure to the toxicant 5-azacytidine results in decreased body length and reduced levels of DNA methylation in non-exposed subsequent generations [77]. Endocrine disrupting chemicals can be present as natural ingredients in foods. An example is genistein, which is an estrogenic substance found in legumes and soy [78]. Treatment of fertilized quail eggs with genistein resulted in a transgenerational change in the age of sexual maturity of birds three generations later [79].

Etiology of Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance

In order for an environmental exposure or toxicant to induce epigenetic transgenerational inheritance, two conditions must be met. First, exposure to a toxicant must result in epigenetic changes in the germ cells (sperm or eggs) since it is the germ cells that carry molecular information to subsequent generations (Fig. 2). Second, the epigenetic changes induced in transgenerational generation animals must cause changes in gene expression in these animals or else no phenotypic changes will occur.

There are two periods during normal development when DNA methylation patterns are largely erased and reset. This epigenetic reprograming of DNA methylation occurs both immediately after fertilization in the early embryo and in developing germ cells at the time of gonadal sex determination [80]. This process allows embryonic stem cells to develop by removing epigenetic constraints to pluripotency. The well-studied exception to this is the case of imprinted genes, which retain their epigenetic DNA methylation pattern in a parent-of-origin allelic manner [81, 82]. In situations where environmentally induced epigenetic changes are inherited, some retention of these DNA methylation patterns is thought to occur in an imprinted genelike manner [83] (Fig. 2). Then epigenetic changes present in germ cells can transmit an altered epigenome to all cells of the subsequent developing embryo, potentially resulting in changes to gene expression that lead to an altered phenotype and disease [84] (Fig. 2).

There are many examples of exposure to toxicants leading to transgenerational epigenetic changes in germ cells, (Fig. 4 and Table 1). Altered DNA methylation of a region of DNA is termed a Differential DNA Methylated Region (DMR). If F0 generation pregnant rats were treated with vinclozolin, then sperm from the transgenerational F3 generation has been shown to have DMRs [48, 85]. Similarly, DMRs were found in transgenerational sperm after ancestral exposure of rats to a mixture of plastic-derived compounds (phthalates and BPA) [58], the dioxin TCDD [68], jet fuel hydrocarbons (JP8) [62], the herbicides atrazine [65] and glyphosate [86], the pesticides methoxychlor [66] and DDT [61, 87], a mixture of the insecticide permethrin and the insect repellent DEET [67], and the flame retardant BDE-209 [88]. In zebrafish, transgenerational sperm DMRs are found after ancestral exposure to methylmercury [76].

Other epigenetic factors, in addition to DNA methylation, can be altered in sperm transgenerationally. During spermatogenesis, the histones around which DNA is wrapped are replaced by protamines to allow DNA to be tightly compacted into the small sperm head [89]. However, there are 1-10% of histones that are retained in the sperm of most mammals [90]. These retained histones are thought to help regulate some of the early gene expression processes in the resulting embryos [91]. Studies in rats found that additional histone retention sites were present in the F3 generation sperm after pregnant F0 generation animals were treated with vinclozolin, DDT, glyphosate, or atrazine [64, 92, 93]. Therefore, histone retention in sperm is another epigenetic mechanism for transgenerational inheritance (Fig. 2). Post-translational modification of those histones retained in sperm is another epigenetic factor that can mediate transgenerational inheritance of disease. As an example, changes to methylation of histone 3 lysine 4 (H3K4me2) in mouse sperm have been associated with a transgenerational decrease in pup survival and impaired development [94]. Exposure of pregnant rats to the toxicants vinclozolin or DDT both resulted in sites of altered methylation of lysine 27 of histone 3 (H3K27me3) in transgenerational F3 generation sperm [92, 95, 96].

The expression of ncRNAs in sperm is another epigenetic factor that can be altered after exposure to endocrine disruptors [97] (Fig. 2). In studies in rats, ancestral exposure to vinclozolin induced changes in the levels of several sperm ncRNAs, including tRNA-derived small ncRNAs, namely 5' halves of mature tRNAs, and micro-RNAs (miRNAs) [95, 98]. Similar results were found transgenerationally after ancestral exposure to DDT [96]. Transgenerational changes in ncRNA expression have been shown to occur early in germ cell development, as mice ancestrally exposed to vinclozolin have altered miRNA expression in primordial germ cells [99].

The above epigenetic factors found in sperm likely act together to pass altered phenotypes to subsequent generations [97]. Exposure to either vinclozolin or DDT induces concurrent transgenerational changes to the DNA methylation, histone retention, and ncRNA in the sperm epigenome [95, 96]. In these cases, there is evidence that RNA-directed DNA methylation and DNA methylation-directed histone retention are a part of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance [100]. The combined actions of the epigenetic factors in germ cells provide an epigenetic mechanism by which exposure to endocrine-disrupting compounds can promote the inheritance of pathologies across generations.

Epigenetic changes passed through germ cells to subsequent generations do not themselves alter phenotype. Phenotypic changes are the result of changes in gene expression. Transgenerational increases in kidney or prostate disease, or in tumor development, are the result of abnormal gene expression in the affected somatic cells. Germ cells with an altered epigenome produce embryonic stem cells that then promote epigenetic changes in all somatic cells [1, 84] (Fig. 2). These somatic cell epigenetic changes could then promote changes in gene expression that alters the phenotypes of these cells, including promoting an increased susceptibility to develop disease [101]. Therefore, in a transgenerational animal, all cell types have an altered epigenome and transcriptome. Those cell types sensitive to this alteration will have a susceptibility to develop diseases.

Several examples of transgenerational changes to gene expression following ancestral exposure to toxicants have been reported. After gestating mice were exposed to the organochlorine insecticide chlordecone, there were transgenerational changes in the transcriptome of prostates from F3 generation animals [102]. This was accompanied by an increased prostatic intraepithelial neoplasia phenotype and by histone H3K4 trimethylation (H3K4me3) and H3K27 trimethylation (H3K27me3) changes in somatic prostate cells. Similarly, ancestral exposure to vinclozolin in rats resulted in transgenerational changes to the prostate epithelial cell transcriptome and DNA methylation, associated with later-life development of prostate disease [103]. Ancestral exposure to vinclozolin also resulted in transgenerational changes to the transcriptome and epigenome of testicular Sertoli cells, associated with male infertility [84]. In female rats, both DDT and vinclozolin ancestral exposure induced transcriptome changes in the granulosa cells of the ovary, consistent with later life development of polycystic ovarian disease and reduced oocyte number [104]. This was accompanied by sites of altered DNA methylation and changes of expression of ncRNAs in the granulosa cells. In zebrafish, exposure of developing F0 generation embryos to lead resulted in F2 generation changes in brain gene expression for genes involved in physiological processes such as synaptic function and plasticity, neurogenesis, endocrine homeostasis, and epigenetic modification [105]. Ancestral exposure of zebrafish to arsenic resulted in transgenerational changes in brain-derived neurotrophic factor expression in the brain [70]. Ancestral arsenic exposure in C. elegans nematode worms decreased somatic cell mRNA expression of the LSD/KDM1 and spr-5 genes [74]. Therefore, the toxicant-induced epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of pathology is due to somatic cell epigenetic and transcriptome alterations that generate the phenotypes observed (Fig. 2).

A more comprehensive study of transgenerational alterations to gene expression was performed using F3 generation rats ancestrally exposed to vinclozolin [101]. The transcriptomes of 11 different organ tissues in male and female rats were evaluated and compared to those same organ tissues in F3 generation control rats ancestrally treated with vehicle. Transgenerational changes to gene expression were found in all tissues evaluated. There was minimal overlap in the genes affected between tissues, but there was considerable overlap in the physiological pathways affected by these gene expression changes. For example, both prostate and liver tissues were enriched for genes in transcription and focal adhesion processes, but the specific genes altered were not the same in each tissue [101]. Across the genome of these animals, it

was found that there existed statistically over-represented clusters of gene expression changes and that these regions, termed Epigenetic Control Regions (ECR), contained sites of altered DNA methylation (DMRs) and long ncRNA expression [95, 106]. The hypothesis is that the genes within an ECR are epigenetically regulated as a block [107]. Therefore, in one organ tissue, such as the liver, those genes that would normally be expressed from an ECR in liver cells would have altered expression, while in the prostate, a different set of genes from that same ECR (those normally expressed in the prostate) would have altered expression. These investigations all support the proposed mechanism of toxicantinduced transgenerational epimutations altering gene expression and ultimately leading to phenotypic effects, most importantly increased susceptibility for disease (Fig. 2).

Generational Toxicology

The existence of generational toxicological processes, in which the effects of toxicant exposures are seen several generations later, suggests regulatory decisions about toxicants in our society should now consider potential effects across generations. The current regulatory paradigm of evaluating experiments, where pregnant animals are treated and their direct offspring are evaluated for negative effects, may not go far enough. It is possible, with epigenetic transgenerational inheritance, that increases in disease are not seen until later generations. When pregnant F0 generation rats were treated with the herbicide glyphosate, no serious abnormalities were seen in the directly exposed F1 generation. However, dramatic increases in prostate disease, obesity, kidney disease, ovarian disease, and parturition (birth) abnormalities were seen in the F2 and F3 generations [86, 93]. Similarly, rats ancestrally exposed to the herbicide atrazine showed only a mild decrease in size in the F1 generation, but the F2 and F3 generations were found to have increased frequency of testis disease, mammary tumors, early onset puberty, motor hyperactivity, and a lean phenotype compared to controls [65]. The epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of abnormalities and increased incidence of disease after ancestral exposure to environmental toxicants should be of concern of the public and regulatory agencies for human health reasons [108].

In considering the experimental approach for regulatory agencies, animal studies should include breeding to the F3 generation to assess generational toxicity. An alternate approach would be to assess the epigenetic changes in the germ cells from the F1 generation animals. In the event germ cell epimutations exist, then the potential for generational toxicity is present. This would require additional generations to be obtained for epigenetic and pathology analysis. Although any epigenetic factor could be assessed, DNA methylation has been shown to be robust and one of the key epigenetic processes to assess. Genome-wide procedures such as bisulfite sequencing or MeDIP are optimal to assess germline epigenetic impacts. Therefore, the technology and previous literature demonstrate generational toxicity needs to be considered in the field of toxicology.

Conclusions

Research into environmentally induced epigenetic transgenerational inheritance has provided evidence for transgenerational inheritance of epimutations and phenotype changes in a wide variety of organisms [109, 110], (Fig. 4). Exposure to toxicants can induce epigenetic changes in germ cells that are passed to subsequent generations. When epimutations in the resulting embryo become imprinted-like and escape the normal processes of epigenetic reprogramming that occur during embryogenesis, then the epigenome of the embryonic stem cells is altered, which impacts all the cell types of the developing fetus and adult (Fig. 2). The altered epigenome, which can change gene expression and phenotype in all cell types in the body, increases disease susceptibility later in life. These epigenetic changes are passed to that organism's germ cells, which can be inherited by the subsequent generation. If epigenetic and phenotypic changes are passed to a generation that was never exposed to the toxicant, then epigenetic transgenerational inheritance has resulted in generational toxicology [1]. Epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of increased susceptibility to disease is an example of generational toxicity, in which toxicants affect non-exposed future generations. Governmental policies regulating toxicant exposure currently do not take generational effects into account. Future toxicity testing and regulations need to consider the effects of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance of disease and generational toxicology. A new approach that takes into consideration generational toxicology will be needed to protect our future populations.

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Conflict of interest statement

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	-	"Epigenetics and Systems Biology"
Spring 20	23 (Odd Years) - Co	urse Syllabus
		Graduate Course (3 Credit)
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		on Canvas/Panopto and Discussion Sessions in person and on WSU Zo
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		nner, Abelson Hall 507, 335-1524, skinner@wsu.edu
		Abelson Hall 507, 225-1835, <u>nilsson@wsu.edu</u>
		e of the course is to learn the concept and critical role of systems to understan
molecular, o	cell, development, physi	iology and evolutionary aspects of biology with a focus on the role of epigenet
in systems b	biology.	
Schedule/L	ecture Outline -	
Week 1	January 10 & 12	Systems Biology (History/ Definitions/ Theory)
Week 2	January 17 & 19	Systems Biology (Networks & Emergence)
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Week 3	January 24 & 26	Systems Biology (Components: DNA to Phenotype)
Week 5 Week 4	January 24 & 26 Jan 31 & Feb 2	Systems Biology (Components: DNA to Phenotype) Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology)
Week 4	Jan 31 & Feb 2	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology)
Week 4 Week 5	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes)
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration)
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology)
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8 Week 9	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2 March 7 & 9	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam)
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8 Week 9 Week 10	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2 March 7 & 9 March 13 – 17	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam) Spring Break
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8 Week 9 Week 10 Week 11	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2 March 7 & 9 March 13 – 17 March 21 & 23	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam) Spring Break Environmental Impact on Biology
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8 Week 9 Week 10 Week 11 Week 12	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2 March 7 & 9 March 13 – 17 March 21 & 23 March 28 & 30	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam) Spring Break Environmental Impact on Biology Environmental Epigenetics
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8 Week 9 Week 10 Week 12 Week 13	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2 March 7 & 9 March 13 – 17 March 21 & 23 March 28 & 30 April 4 & 6	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam) Spring Break Environmental Impact on Biology Environmental Epigenetics Disease Etiology
Week 4 Week 5 Week 6 Week 7 Week 8 Week 10 Week 11 Week 12 Week 13 Week 14	Jan 31 & Feb 2 February 7 & 9 February 14 & 16 February 21 & 23 Feb 28 & March 2 March 7 & 9 March 13 – 17 March 21 & 23 March 28 & 30 April 4 & 6 April 11 & 13	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam) Spring Break Environmental Impact on Biology Environmental Epigenetics Disease Etiology Epigenetics & Disease Etiology

	Spring 2023 – Epigenetics and Systems Biology Lecture Outline (Systems Biology) Michael K. Skinner – Biol 476/576 Weeks 11 and 12 (March 2023)		
Environmental Epigenetics			
	 Environmental Impacts on Biology Environment and Phenotype Variation Environmental Factors Environmental Egigenetics and Twin Studies Early life Exposures and Developmental Effects Nutrition and Epigenetics Environmental Toxicants and Epigenetics Environmental Induced Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance 		
	Required Reading		
	Nilsson EE, Ben Maamar M, Skinner MK. Role of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance in generational toxicology. Environ Epigenet. 2022 Feb 16;8(1):dvac001. (PMID: 35186326)		
	<u>Books (Reserve in Library)</u>		
	Scott F. Gilbert and David Epel (2009) Ecological Developmental Biology. Sinauer Associates Inc. Sunderland, Massachusetts.		

E-Book: Craig and Wong (2011) Epigenetics: A Reference Manual. Caister Academic Press. ISBN-13: 978-1904455882.

Spring 2023 - Epigenetics and Systems Biology Discussion Session (Environmental Epigenetics) Michael K. Skinner - Biol 476/576 Week 11 (March 23)

Environmental Epigenetics

Primary Papers

- 1. Duncan GE, et al. (2022) Sci Rep. 12(1):20166. (PMID: 36424439)
- 2. McGowan et al., (2009) Nat Neurosci. 12(3):342-8. (PMID: 19234457)
- 3. Burdge et al., (2009) J Nutr. 139(6):1054-60. (PMID: 19339705)

Discussion

Student 25 - Ref #1 above

- Why are twin studies useful for epigenetic studies?
- Does the data support an environmental impact on the human epigenome and disease?
- What is the application of these epigenetic changes?

Student 26 - Ref #2 above

- What mechanism is proposed for early life effects on brain function?
- Is NGF1 the only gene effected?
- What is the impact of these epigenetic changes?

Student 27 – Ref #3 above

- How does folic acid effect epigenetics?
- Does diet effect epigenetic programming?
- What happens if you have too much folate?

Spring 2023 - Epigenetics and Systems Biology Discussion Session (Environmental Epigenetics) Michael K. Skinner - Biol 476/576 Week 12 (March 30)

Environmental Epigenetics

Primary Papers

- 1. Ben Maamar, et al. (2018) Environmental Epigenetics 26;4(2):dvy010, 1-19. (PMID: 29732173)
- 2. Ben Maamar, et al. (2019) Developmental Biology 445: 280-293. (PMID: 30500333)
- 3. Cao N, et al. (2022) Circulation. 2022 Oct 4;146(14):1082-1095. (PMID: 36004643)

Discussion

Student 28 - Ref #1 above

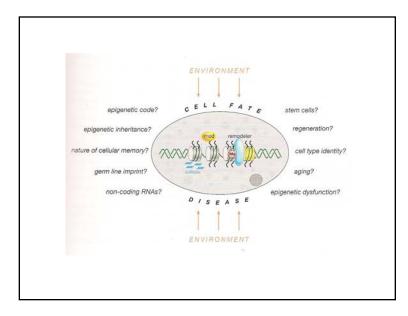
- What is the experimental design?
- What epigenetic technologies and alterations were investigated?
- · What is the primary conclusion of the study?

Student 29 - Ref #2 above

- What is the experimental design?
- What were the developmental origins of the sperm epimutations?
- What conclusions on the development of the sperm epimutations are made?

Student 30 - Ref #3 above

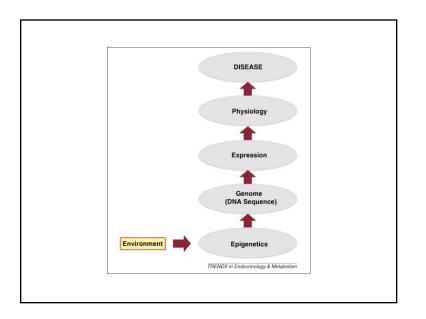
- What exposure was used?
- What transgenerational disease was observed?
- What treatment inhibited the transgenerational effect?

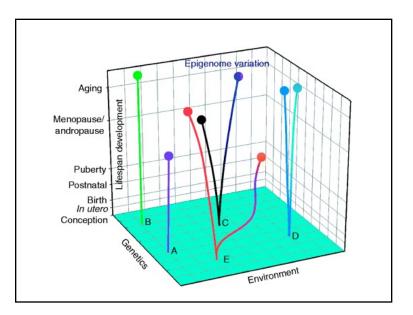


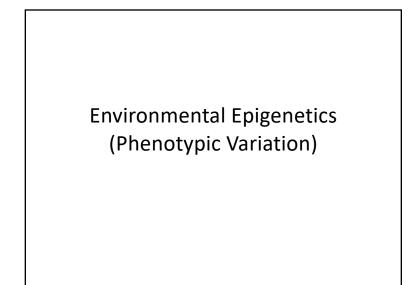
Agents of developmental plasticity

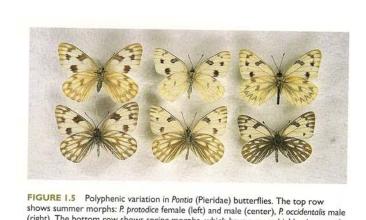
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- Temperature
- Nutrition
- Pressure and gravity
- Light
- The presence of dangerous conditions (predators or stress)
- The presence or absence of conspecifics (other members of the same species)

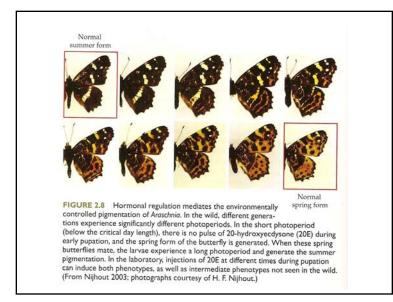


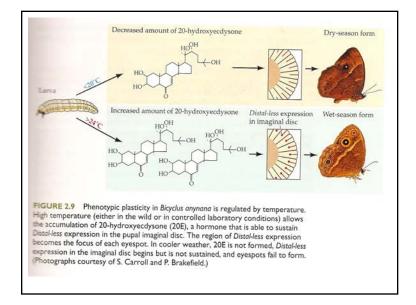


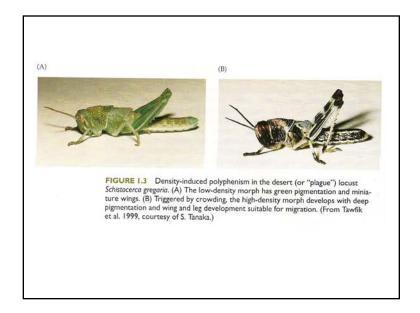


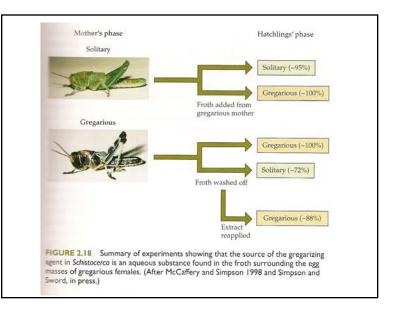


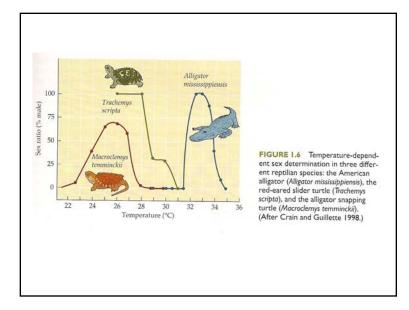
shows summer morphs: *P. protodice* female (left) and male (center), *P. occidentalis* male (right). The bottom row shows spring morphs, which have a more highly pigmented ventral hindwing: *P. protodice* female (left) and male (center), *P. occidentalis* male (right). (Photograph courtesy of T. Valente.)

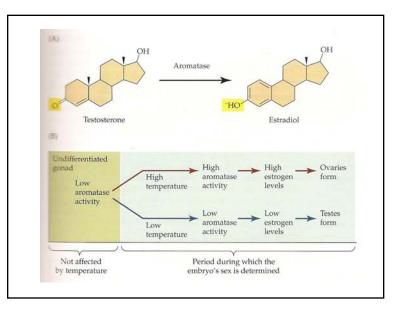


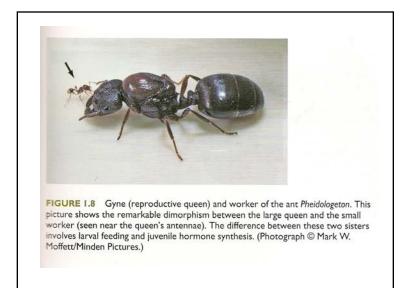


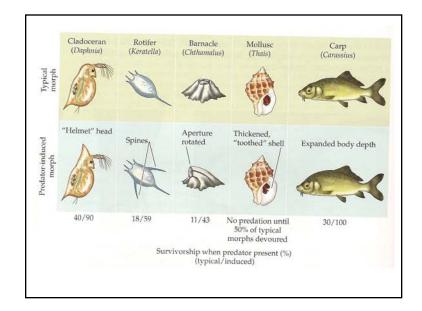


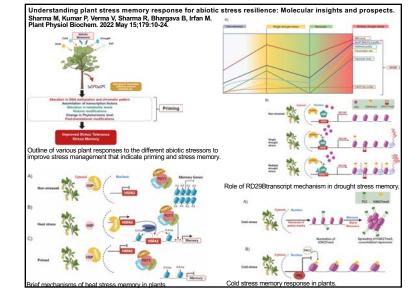


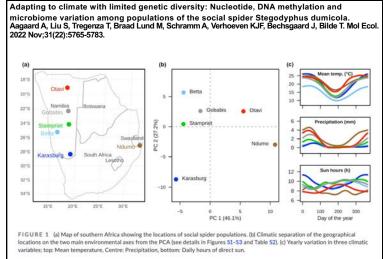














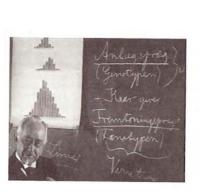
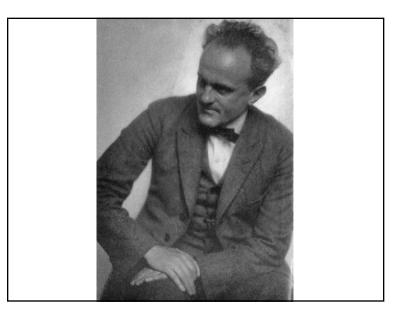
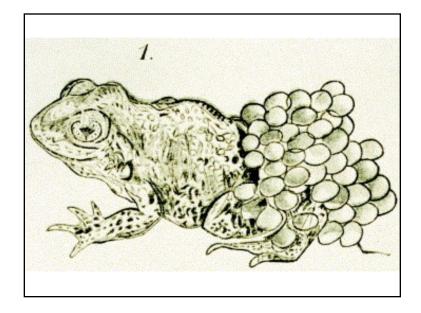
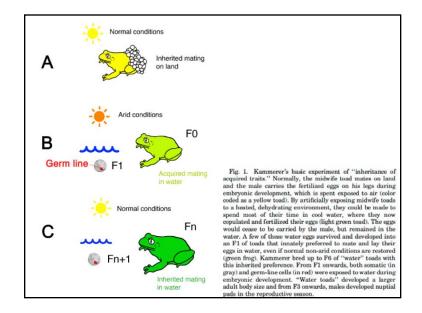


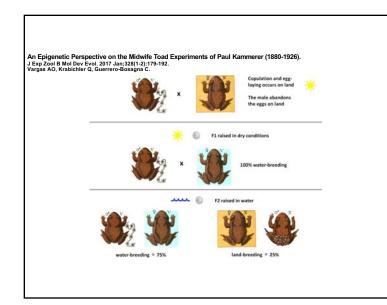
FIGURE 1.2 One hundred years ago, Wilhelm Johannsen noted that the phenotype is the product of both the genome and environmental circumstances. Here he writes on the board that Anleegspraeg (genotype) + Kaar (Danish for "conditions" or "circumstances") gives Fremtonigspraeg (phenotype). (Photograph from a movie of Professor Johannsen at http://www.wjc.ku.dk/library/video/original.avi.)

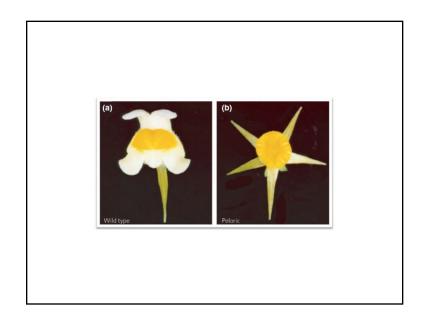
Did Paul Kammerer Discover Epigenetic Inheritance? A Modern Look at the Controversial Midwife Toad Experiments







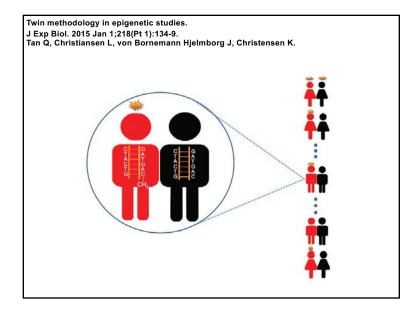


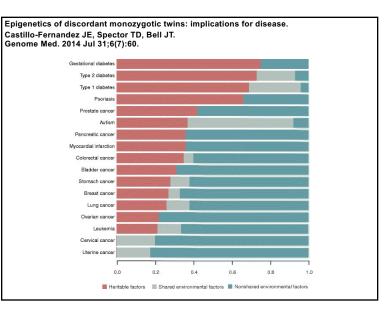


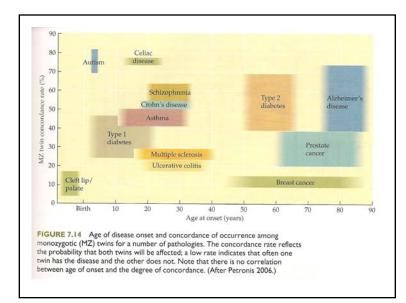
Environmental Impact on Biology

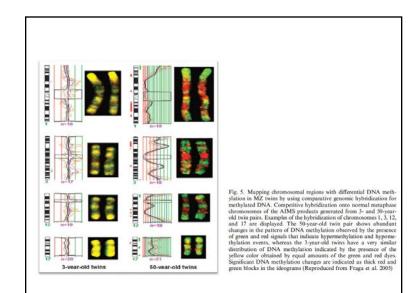
- Regional Disease Frequencies
- Low Frequency of Genetic Component of Disease (GWAS)
- Increases In Disease Frequencies
- Identical Twins and Variable Disease Frequency
- Environmental Exposures and Disease
- Evolutionary Regional Differences and Rapid Induction

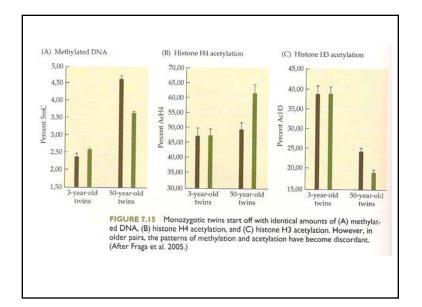
Environmental Epigenetics (Twin Studies)

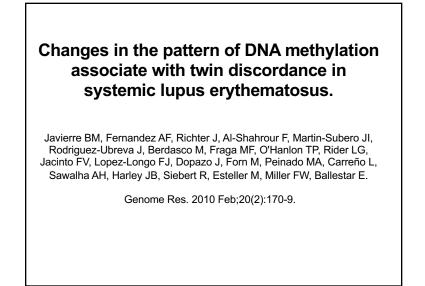


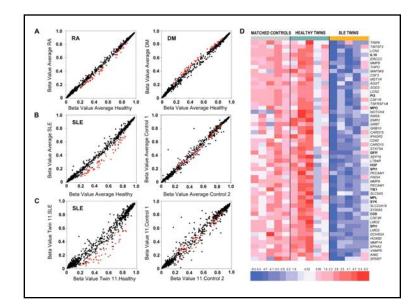










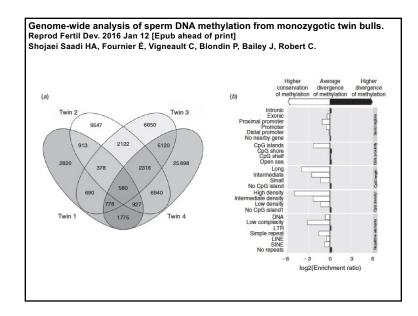


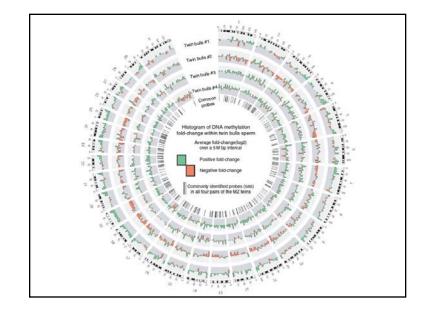
Identical twins doubly exchanged at birth: a case report of genetic and environmental influences on the adult epigenome. Segal NL, Montoya YS, Loke YJ, Craig JM. Epigenomics. 2017 Jan;9(1):5-12.

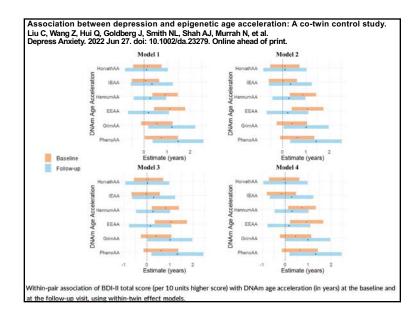
Executive summary

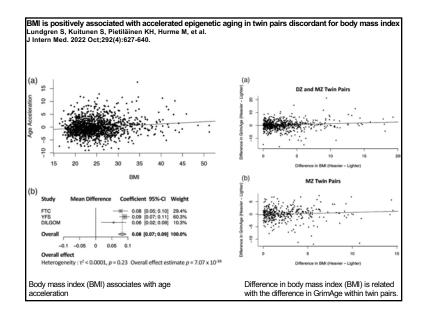
- Monozygotic twins reared apart (MZA) are good models for studying the influence of pre- and postnatal environments on epigenetics, while controlling for shared genetics.
- Genetic and intrauterine environmental factors appeared to have a stronger influence on DNA methylation
- than rearing environment, with the latter being very different for the two twin pairs.

 The largest effects of the rearing environment on DNA methylation within our two MZA pairs involve genes
- The largest effects of the rearing environment on DNA methylation within our two MZA pairs invoive gene relevant to immune response and cell death.

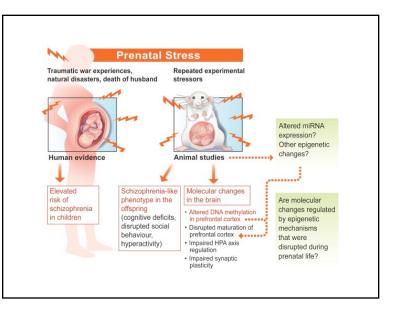


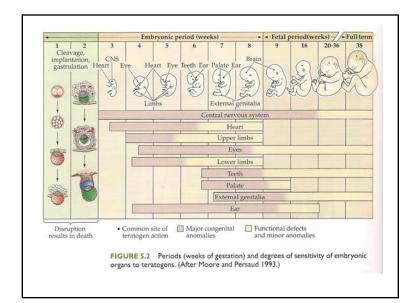




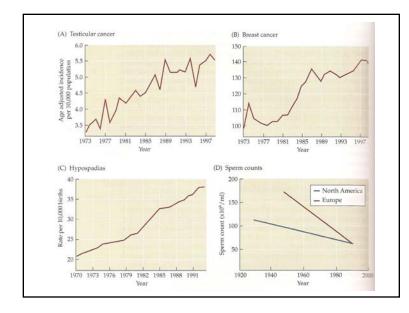


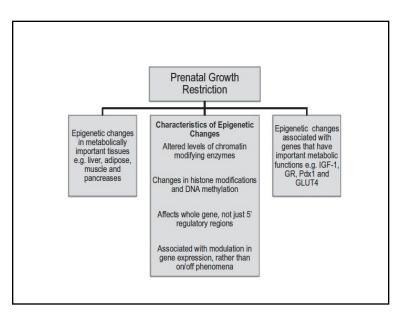
Environmental Epigenetics (Early Life History Exposures)

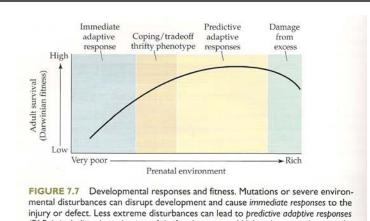




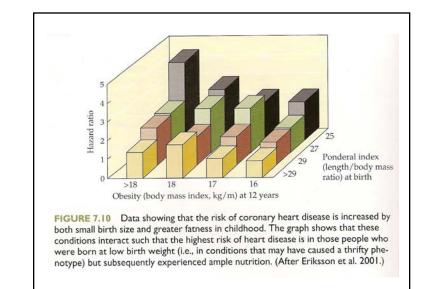
DRUGS AND CHEMICALS	IONIZING RADIATION (X-RAYS)
licohol	HYPERTHERMIA (FEVER)
minoglycosides (Gentamycin)	INFECTIOUS MICROORGANISMS
Aminopterin (DTL)	Coxsackie virus
Intithyroid agents (PTU)	Cytomegalovirus
ortisone	Herpes simplex
Tethylstilbesterol (DES)	Parvovirus
lead	Rubella (German measles)
Methylmercury	Toxoplasma gondii (toxoplasmosis)
Penicillamine	Treponema pallidum (syphilis)
ctinoic acid (Isotretinoin, Accutane)	METABOLIC CONDITIONS
Breptomycin	IN THE MOTHER
letracycline	Autoimmune disease (including
Dhalidomide	Rh incompatibility)
Inmethadione	Diabetes
Valproic acid	Dietary deficiencies, malnutrition
Warfarin	Phenylketonuria

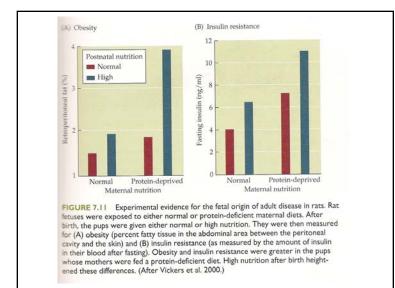


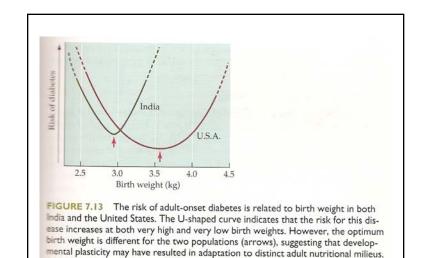




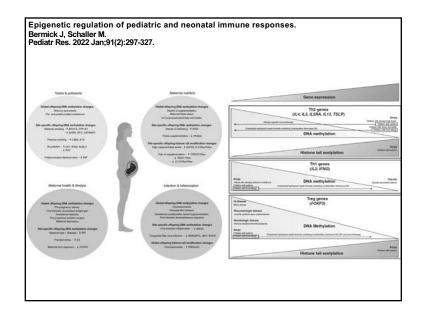
injury or defect. Less extreme disturbances can lead to predictive adaptive responses to the (PARs), including the induction of thrifty phenotypes. Within the normal range of variation, an individual's developmental trajectory will be conferred by the actions of PARs. (After Gluckman and Hanson 2006b.)

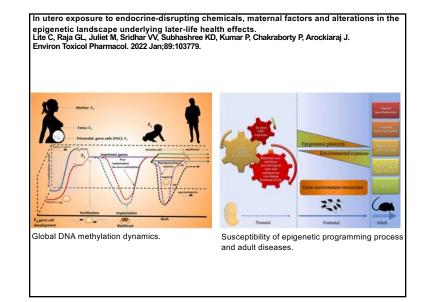




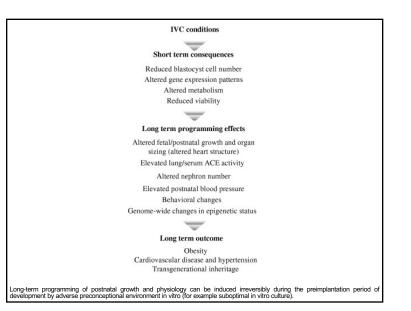


(After Gluckman and Hansen 2005.)





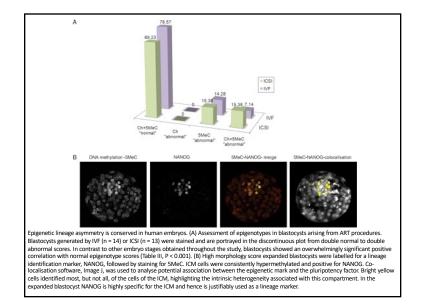
Environmental Epigenetics (Cell Culture Effects)



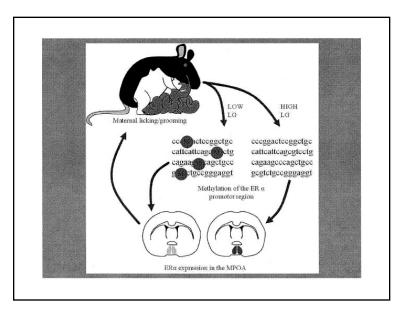
Evaluation of epigenetic marks in human embryos derived from IVF and ICSI.

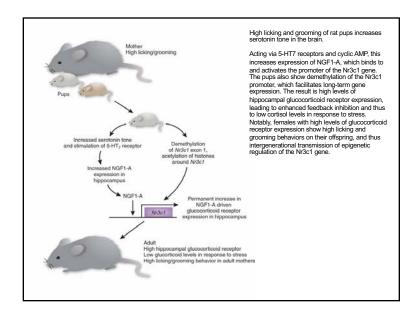
Santos F, Hyslop L, Stojkovic P, Leary C, Murdoch A, Reik W, Stojkovic M, Herbert M, Dean W.

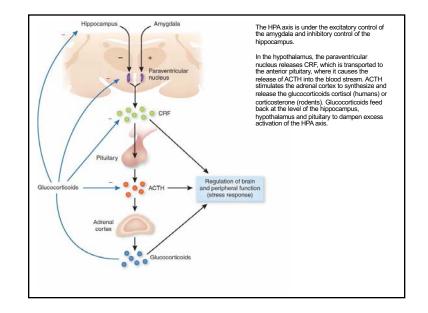
Hum Reprod. 2010 Sep;25(9):2387-95.

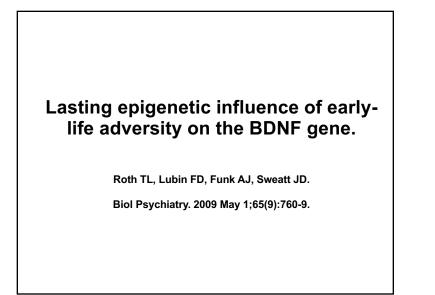


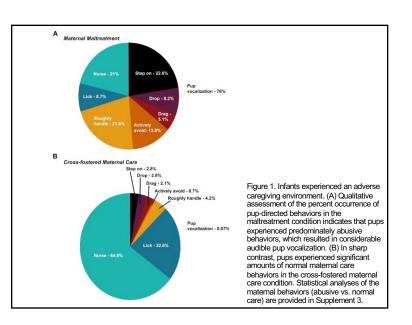
Environmental Epigenetics (Early Life History Brain Effects)

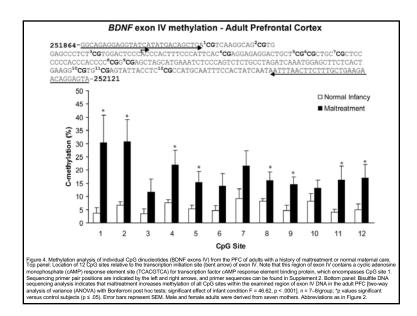


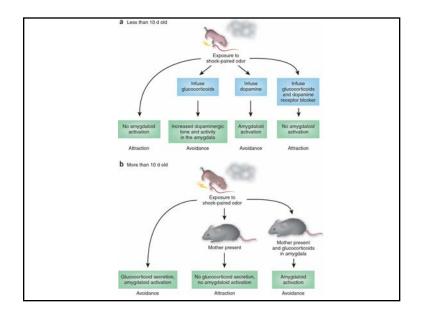












Epigenetic regulation of the glucocorticoid receptor in human brain associates with childhood abuse.

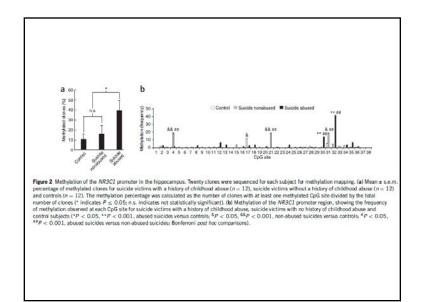
McGowan PO, Sasaki A, D'Alessio AC, Dymov S, Labonté B, Szyf M, Turecki G, Meaney MJ.

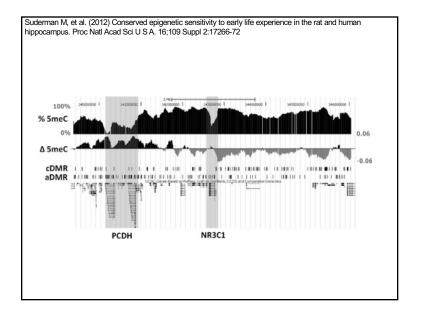
Nat Neurosci. 2009 Mar;12(3):342-8.

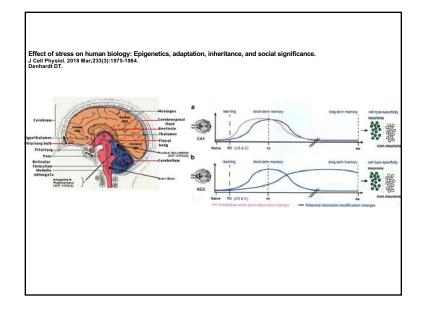
Table 1 Demographic characteristics and psychiatric diagnoses

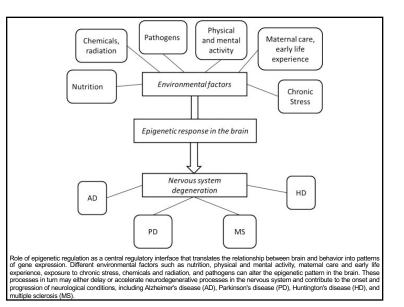
	Abused suicide	Nonabused suicide	Control
Male/female	12/0	12/0	12/0
Age (years)	34.2 ± 10	33.8 ± 11	35.8 ± 12
PMI (h)	24.6 ± 5.8	39.0 ± 25.7	23.5 ± 6.0
pН	6.3 ± 0.24	6.5 ± 0.29	6.5 ± 0.22
Childhood abuse/neglect	12/0 (100%)	0/12 (0%)	0/12 (0%)
Mood disorder	8/12 (67%)	8/12 (67%)	0/12(0%)
Alcohol/drug abuse disorder	9/12 (75%)	6/12 (50%)	5/12 (42%)

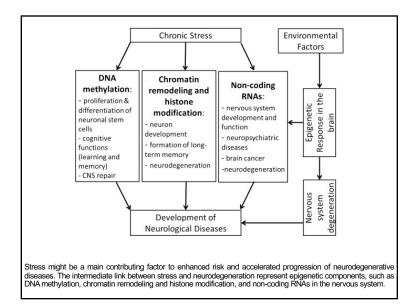
Data are presented as mean ± s.d.

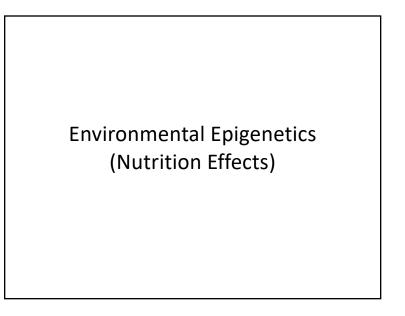


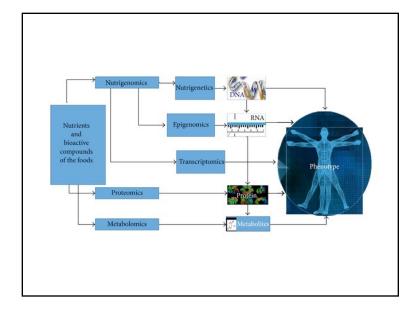


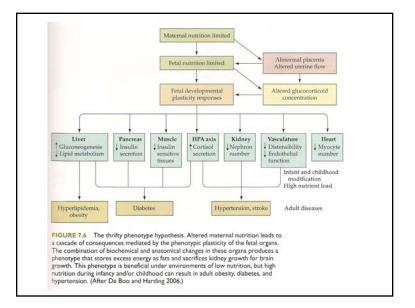




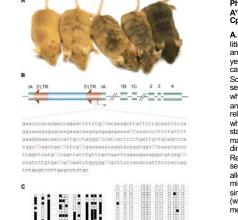






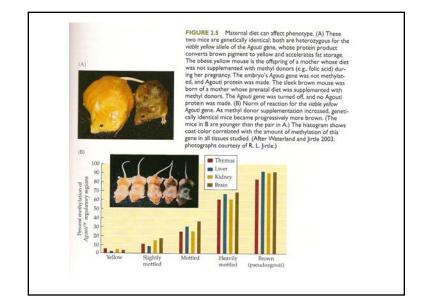


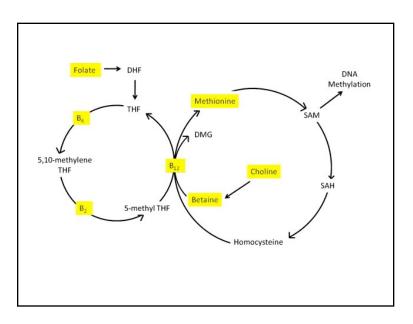
Species	fect of maternal dietary modificatio Modification during	Time winnow for the	Observations in offspring	Reference
opecies	development	modification	cosci rations in orrspring	nererene
Human	Famine (Dutch Famine cohort)	Periconceptional period	Decrease in methylation of CpG dinucleotides in the IGF2 nearly 60 years after	[35]
Human	Supplementary folic acid use	Periconceptional period	Higher methylation of the IGF2 differentially methylated region (DMR)	[62]
Rat	Maternal low protein diet (8% vs 20 %) and high fat diet (45% vs 10%) after weaning	2 weeks prior to mating – gestation – lactation	Increase in adipose tissue Igf2 mRNAs by the low protein prenatal diet	[38]
Rat	Maternal low protein diet (9% vs 19% control)	Preimplantation period	Decrease in H19 imprinted gene expression in male blastocysts; reduction in H19 and Igf2 expression in male fetal liver at day 20 of gestation	[36]
Mouse	Methyl deficiency (methionine, choline, folic acid and vitamin B12)	60-day post-weaning	Loss of imprinting of Igf2	[37]

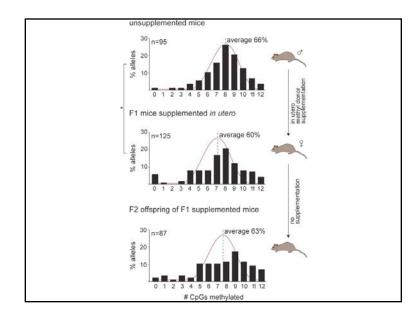


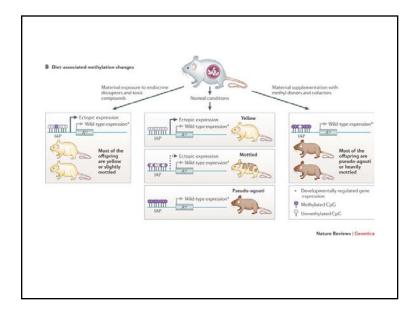
Phenotypic variation in A^{vy} mice, A^{vy} allele structure, and complex CpG methylation at the IAP.

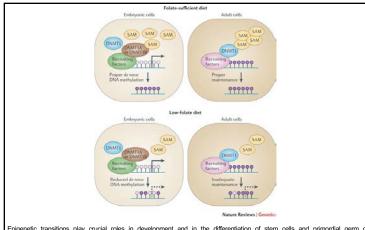
A. Phenotypes of isogenic A^w littermates range from pure yellow and obese (left) through mottled yellow/agouti to lean fully agouti, called pseudoagouti (right). B. Schematic of the A^w locus, with the sequence of the amplified region, which includes portions of the 5'LTR and pseudoexon 1A(-240 to +92 relative to the cryptic promoter, which is marked by an arrow). The start point of Avy transcription [11] is marked by an arrow. CpG dinucleotides are displayed in red. C. Representative bisulphite allelic sequencing profiles of individual alleles from yellow and pseudoagouti mice. Each single row represents a single allele, and each box a CpG (white: unmethylated; black: methylated).









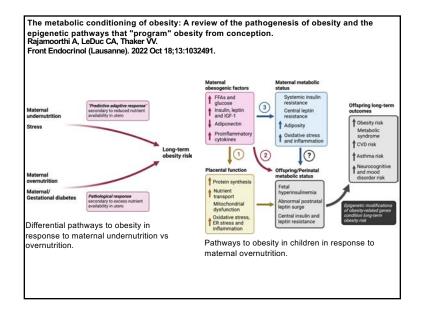


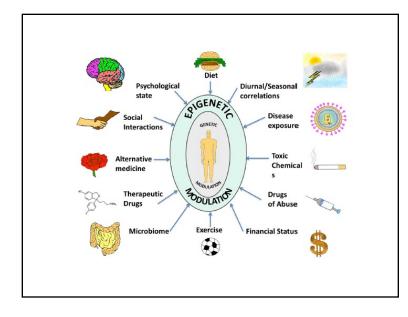
Epigenetic transitions play crucial roles in development and in the differentiation of stem cells and primordial germ cells. Concordantly, the regulating enzymes are generally highly expressed in these pluripotent cells. For example, the de novo methyltransferases, DNMT3A and DNMT3B, are highly expressed in the early embryonic cells in which de novo methylation is acquired. Low amounts of external methyl donor groups from dietary sources can reduce the concentrations of the universal methyl donor, S-adenosylmethionine (SAM), and can readily affect de novo DNA methylation. Also, aberrant gains of methylation is nearly embryonic cells owing to other external triggers. In adult cells, the maintenance of DNA methylation is performed mainly by the maintenance methyltransferase, DNMT1, in a process that seems less sensitive to diet-induced changes in the abundance of methyl donors.

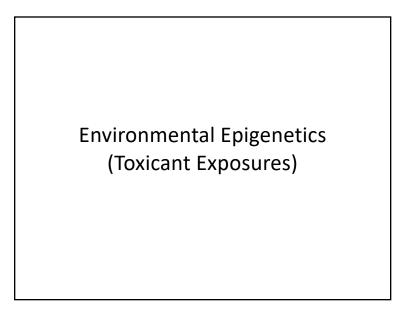
Increased cancer incidence in Holocaust survivors and the implications for survivors of other extreme events. Expert Rev Anticancer Ther. 2018 Nov;18(11):1059-1062.

3. Conclusions

Studies show unequivocally that restricted diet in lab animals reduces cancer risk. Observational studies in non-Jewish European populations yielded mixed results which may be attributed to differing study types, definitions of exposure, the selection of control subjects, the nature of the exposure etc. In contrast, most studies of Holocaust survivors clearly indicated an inverse effect despite differing methodologies. Although these findings need consolidation, there are grounds for believing that exposure to hunger and stress under extreme situations may cause a cascade of epigenetic, hormonal, and biological changes that eventually modify cancer risk. Thus, exposed individuals should be regarded as a high risk group for cancer. Holocaust survivors are one example of such a group; these conclusions may be generalized to many populations around the globe, including, for example, the survivors of the civil war in Syria.







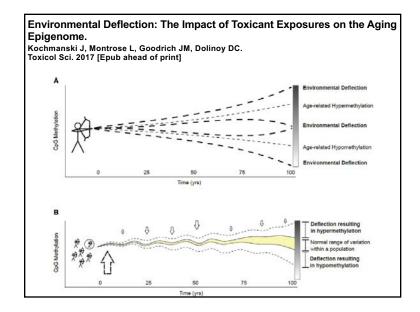
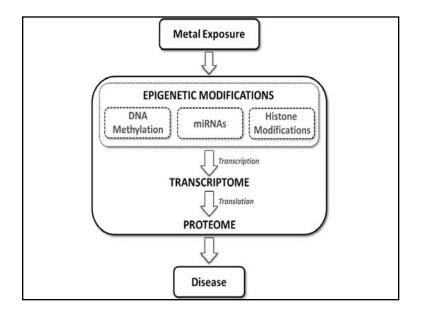


Table 1 Chemicals and pe	ollutants 1	hat affect hea	Ith and induce epigenet	tic alterations		
Compound	Species	Ontogenic stage	Epigenetic alteration	Tissues or cell types affected	Phenotypic alterations	Refs
Tobacco smoke	Human	Adult life	Locus-specific DNA methylation and histone modifications; chromatin remodelling machinery	Lung, blood	Lung cancer?	60,61,143
Particulate air pollution	Human, Mouse	Adult life	DNA methylation	Blood, sperm	Unknown	54,69
Asbestos	Human	Adult life	DNA methylation	Pleural tissues	Susceptibility to different diseases	57
Bisphenol A (BPA)	Mouse	Embryonic development	Locus-specific DNA methylation	Systemic	Coat colour distribution of agouti viable yellow (A ^{vy}) mice	99
Diethylstilbestrol (DES)	Mouse	Embryonic development	DNA methylation	Gonads	Male sexual function	144,145
Metal ions (such as chromium, cadmiun, nickel, arsenic and methylmercury)	Multiple species	Embryonic development, adult life	DNA methylation; histone modifications (for nickel)	Multiple tissues	Increased susceptibility to diseases such as cancer	Reviewed in REFS 146,147
Vinclozolin	Mouse, rat	Embryonic development	DNA methylation	Male germ cells	Altered gonad development and spermatogenesis in the male offspring	81.82
Methoxychlor	Mouse	Embryonic development, adult life	DNA methylation	Male germ cells	Altered male reproductive system	84
Silica	Human	Adult life	DNA methylation	Blood	Silicosis	148
Benzene	Human	Adult life	DNA methylation	Blood	Increased risk of AML	55
Di- and trichloroacetic acid, trichloroethylene	Mouse	Adult life	Locus-specific DNA methylation	Liver	Increased risk of hepatic cancer	Reviewed in REF. 147
AML, acute myeloid leukaemia						



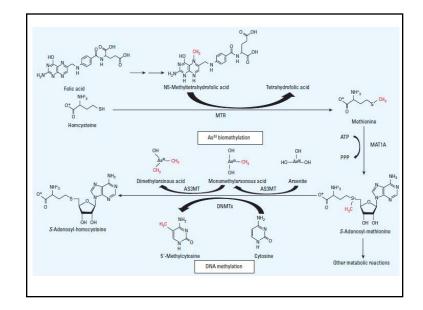
Developmental exposure to methylmercury and ADHD, a literature review of epigenetic studies. Ke T, Tinkov AA, Skalny AV, Bowman AB, Rocha JBT, Santamaria A, Aschner M. Environ Epigenet. 2021 Nov 22;7(1):dvab014. MeHg ΤH + L-DOPA Tyrosine-DDC MeHg dopamine dopamine MeHg VMAT DAT amphetamine dopamine * Potential impacts of developmental MeHg exposures on dopamine neurotransmission. The developing brain of fetus is susceptible to environmental exposure to neurotoxins. The primary pathway for dopamine synthesis involves several enzymes including TH and DDC. For the dopamine neurotransmission, MeHg exposure can alter the epigenetic regulation of the TH gene

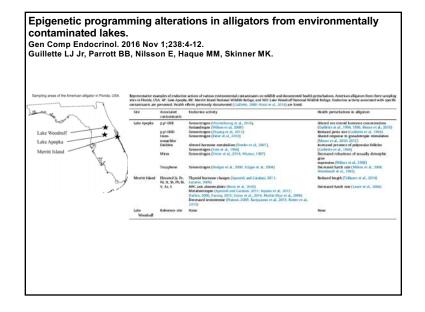
and potentiate the effect of dopamine neurotransmission agonists such as amphetamine [55–58]. TH, tyrosine hydroxylase; L-DOPA, L-3,4-dihydroxyphenylalanine; DDC, DOPA decarboxylase;

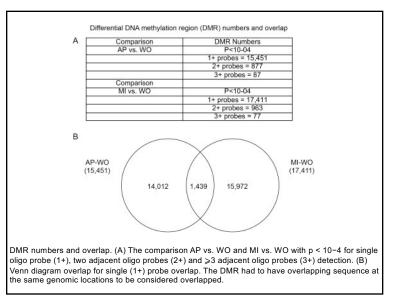
VMAT, vesicular monoamine transporter 2; DAT, dopamine transporter

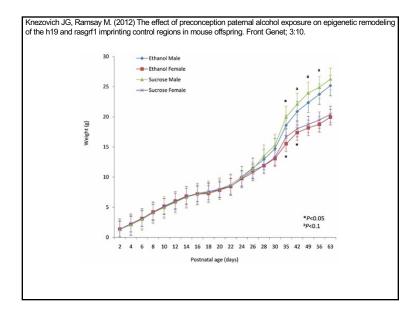
	Table 3, Su	mmary of studies	exploring epigenetic effects of mercury	
Species	Tissue/cell type	Chemical	Effect	Referen
Polar bear	Brainstem	McHg	Reduced global DNA methylation in male bears but not in female bears	[67]
Mink	Occipital cortex	McHg	Reduced global DNA methylation, reduced DNMT activity	[68]
Chicken	Cerebrum	McHg	No effect on global DNA methylation or DNMT activity	[68]
Yellow perch	Telencephalon	McHg	No effect on global DNA methylation	[68]
Earthworm	Whole	Hg	Reduced global DNA methylation	[71]
Mouse	Brain hippocampus	McHg	Suppression of the Bdnf promoter via hypermethylation, increased histone H3K27 trimethylation, and decreased histone H3 acetylation	[73]
Mouse	Embryonic stem cells	Hg	Reversible alterations to heterochromatin Hypermethylation of Rnd2 gene	[75]
Mouse	Embryonic stem cells	Hg	Reduction of total histone protein levels and H3K27 monomethylation	[74]
Rat	Liver	McHg	Reduced Dnmt1 and Dnmt3b mRNA expression, decreased CpG methylation at Cdkn2a promoter, and no effect on global DNA methylation or SAM abundance	[70]
Rat	Primary cultures of embryonic cortical neural stem cells	MeHg	Decreased global DNA methylation, and downregulation of Dramt3b mRNA	[69]
Human	Blood	Hg	Hypermethylation of the GSTM1/5 promoter	[76]
Human	Buccal cells	McHg	Hypomethylation of SEPP1 gene among males	[77]

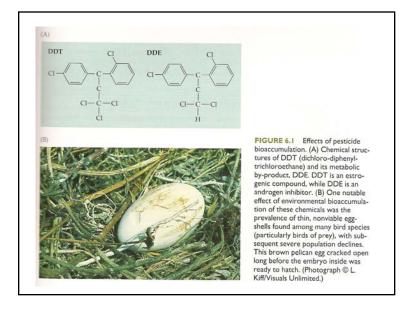
Exposure	1/1*	Modification	Туре	Tissue	References
Nickel	ŧ	Acetylation H3K9 dimethylation H2A and H2B monoubiguitination	In vitro	Liver, brain	Ke et al. [38]
	i	H4K12 acetylation	In vitro In vitro	Yeast cells Mammalian cells	Broday et al. [39]
	t	H4K4 acetylation H3K9 monomethylation and dimethylation	In vitro	G12 cell line	Chen et al. [40]
	1.	Acetylation of histone H2B H2B ubiguitination	In vitro In vitro	HAE and NRK cell lines HAEo and HPL1D cell lines	Golebiowski and Kasprzak [41] Karaczyn et al. [42]
Arsenic	ť	H3K9 dimethylation	In vitro	A549 cell line	Zhou et al. [43]
	ł	H3K27 trimethylation H3K4 trimethylation			
*Increase I	1) or dec	epithelial; NRK, normal rat kidney. zrease (i) in histone modification.			

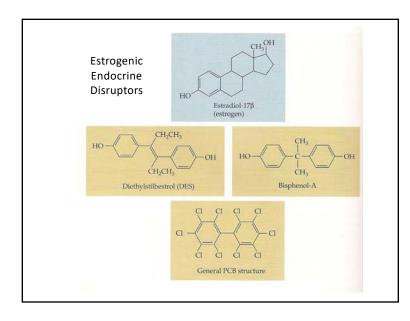


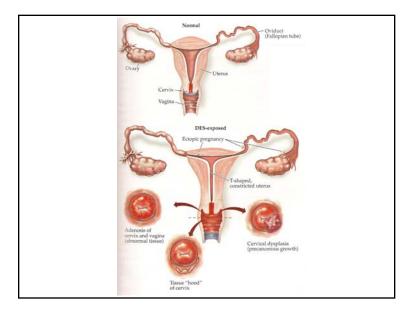


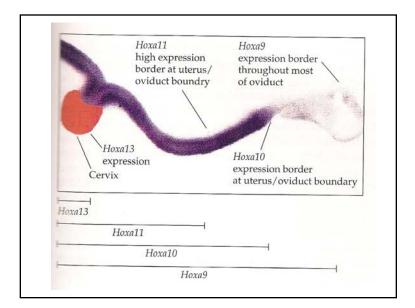


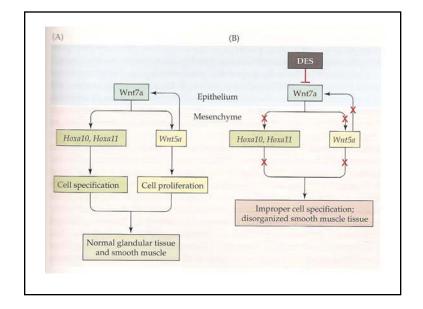


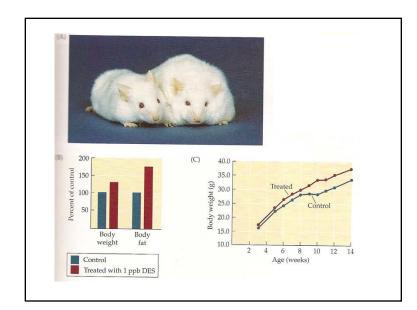


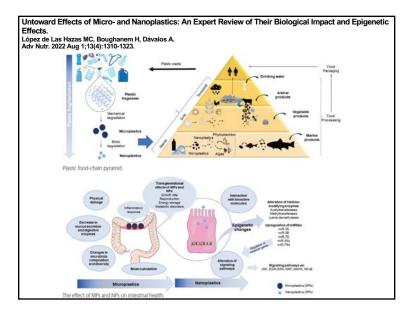


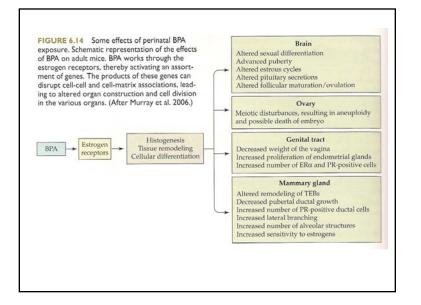


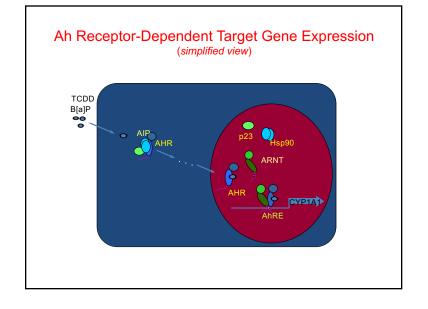












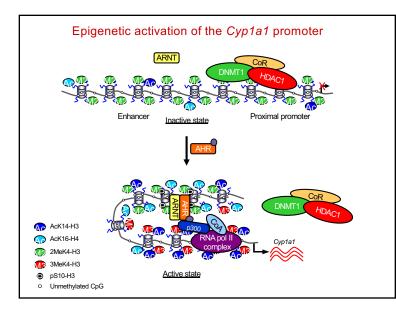
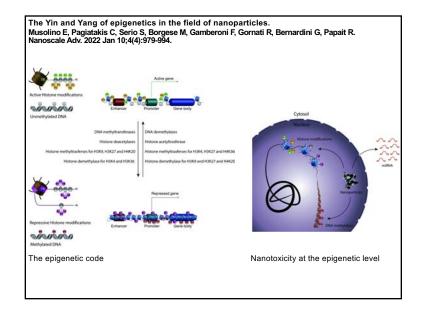
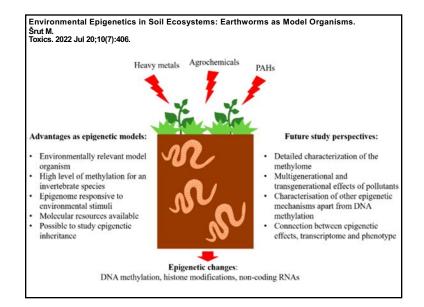
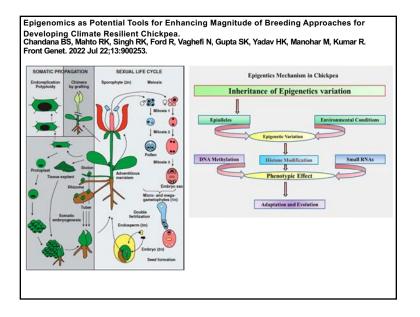
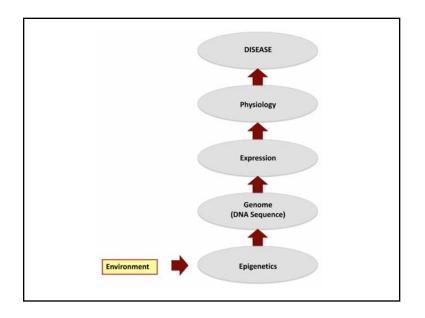


Table 1			
Studies on epigenetic effects of fine and u Study model	Particle	ipigenetic effect	Reference
DNA methylation			
Blood cells (Normative Aging Study)	PM _{2.5} , black carbon	PM2.5 and black carbon associated with hypomethylation of UNE1	Baccarelli et al. (2009)
Blood cells (Normative Aging Study)	PM _{2.5} , black carbon	Prolonged exposure to black carbon associated with hypomethylation of LINE1 and Alu	Madrigano et al. (2011)
Blood cells (Normative Aging Study)	PM ₂₅ , particle number, black carbon	Effect from air pollution (inflammation, coagulation, etc.) was stronger among subjects having higher Alu, but lower LINE-1, tissue factor (F1), or Toll-like receptor 2 (TLR-2) methylation status	llind et al. (2012)
filood cells (Steel plant workers)	PM ₁₀ , metals	PM10 associated with lower UNE1 and Alu methylation. INOS methylation was significantly lower in postexposure blood samples (after 3 working days) compared with baseline	Tarantini et al. (2009)
Buccal cells (Children's Health Study)	PM _{2.5}	Increased 7-day average PM2.5 exposure was associated with lower INOS methylation	Salam et al. (2012)
Blood cetts	Air pollution, PM2.5, PM30	Increased exposure to ambient air pollution was associated with hypermethylation of the Forp3 locus	Nadeau et al. (2010)
Blood cells (Steel plant workers)	PM10, PM1, various metals	Promoter DNA methylation levels of APC and p16 were higher in post-exposure samples compared to the levels in baseline samples. Mean levels of p53 or RASSFTA promoter methylation was decreased	Hou et al. (2011)
C57BL/CBA mice (Sperm)	Air pollution particles near steel mill and highway	Sperm DNA was hypermethylated in mice breathing air particles when compared to NEPA-Bitered air, and this change persisted following removal from the environmental exposure	Yauk et al. (2008)
BALB(c mice (CD4+ cells)	DEP	Diesel particle exposure resulted in hypermethylation of the BNG promotor and hypomethylation of I/4 promoter in CD+ cells	tiu et al. (2008)
Mice and cultured lung cells	PM _{2.5}	PM 2.5 led to increase expression of the DNA methyltransferase 1 (DNMT1), and methylation of the p16 promoter in mice and cells.	Soberanes et al. (2012)
Historie modifications			
Blood cells (Steel plant workers)	$\rm PM_{10}, \rm PM_{1}, various metals$	H3R4me2 and H3R3ac increased in association with years of employment in the steel plant. No clear relation to exposure to total mass of PM10 or PM1 but to inhalable nickel and ancenic.	Cantone et al. (2011)
A549 cell line	PMin	PM10 induced histone H4 acetylation at the IL8 promoter as well as increased IL8 expression.	Gilmour et al. (2003)
REAS-2R cells	DEP	Diesel particle exposure led to increased histone H4 acetylation at the COV2 promoter as well as increased COV2 expression.	Cao et al. (2007.)
miRVA expression Human primary bronchial epithelial cells	DEP	Diesel particle exposure led to changes in miRNA expression: miR-513, miR-404 and miR-923 were up-regulated whereas miR-96 was down-regulated	Jandim et al. (2009)









"Epigenetics and Systems	Biology"	
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Epigenetics & Disease Etiology Evolutionary Biology & Genetics

Epigenetics & Evolutionary Biology

Grant Review/ Study Section Meeting (& Final Exam)

Spring 2023 (Odd Years) Biol 476/576 Schedule/Lecture Outline -Week 1 January 10 & 12 Systems Biology (History/ Definitions/ Theory) Week 2 January 17 & 19 Systems Biology (Networks & Emergence) Week 3 January 24 & 26 Systems Biology (Components: DNA to Phenotype) Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology) Week 4 Jan 31 & Feb 2 Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes) Week 5 February 7 & 9 Week 6 February 14 & 16 Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration) Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology) Week 7 February 21 & 23 Week 8 Feb 28 & March 2 Cell & Developmental Biology Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam) March 7 & 9 Week 9 Week 10 March 13 - 17 Spring Break March 21 & 23 Environmental Impact on Biology Week 11 Week 12 March 28 & 30 Environmental Epigenetics Disease Etiology Week 13 April 4 & 6

Week 14

Week 15

Week 16

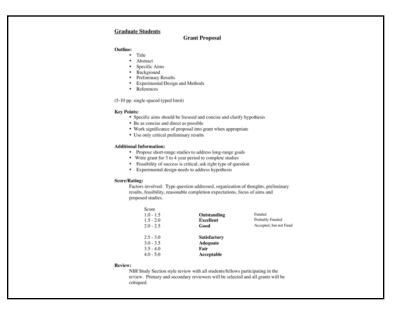
Week 17

April 11 & 13

April 18 & 20

April 25 & 27

May 2 & 4



Spring 2023 - Epigenetics and Systems Biology Lecture Outline (Systems Biology) Michael K. Skinner - Biol 476/576 Weeks 11 and 12 (March 2023)

Environmental Epigenetics

Environmental Impacts on Biology

- Environment and Phenotype Variation
- Environmental Factors
- Environmental Epigenetics and Twin Studies
- Early life Exposures and Developmental Effects
- Nutrition and Epigenetics
- Environmental Toxicants and Epigenetics
- Environmental Induced Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance

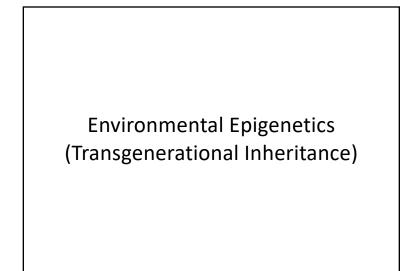
Required Reading

Nilsson EE, Ben Maamar M, Skinner MK. Role of epigenetic transgenerational inheritance in generational toxicology. Environ Epigenet. 2022 Feb 16;8(1):dvac001. (PMID: 35186326)

Books (Reserve in Library)

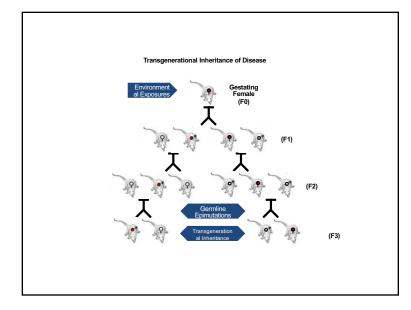
Scott F. Gilbert and David Epel (2009) Ecological Developmental Biology. Sinauer Associates Inc. Sunderland, Massachusetts.

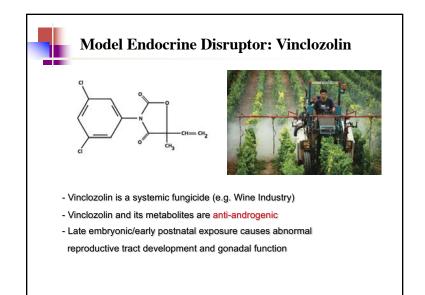
E-Book: Craig and Wong (2011) Epigenetics: A Reference Manual. Caister Academic Press. ISBN-13: 978-1904455882.

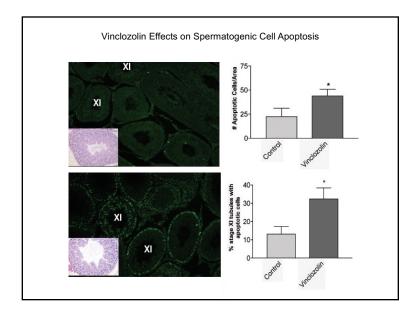


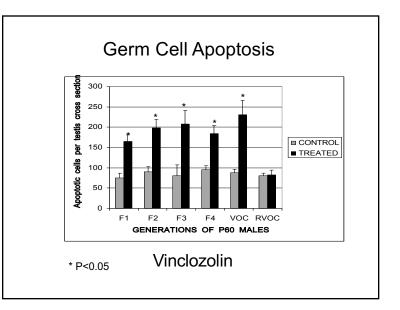
Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance Definition

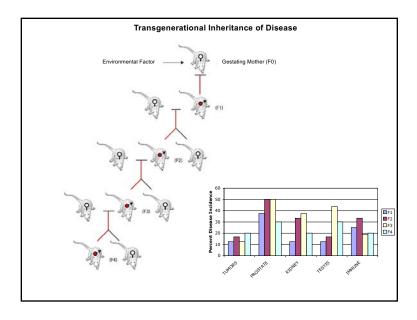
- Germ line transmission of epigenetic marks in the absence of any continued direct environmental exposure to promote the generational inheritance of disease and phenotypic variation
- Distinct from direct exposure somatic or germ line epigenetic alterations not permanently programmed in the germ line

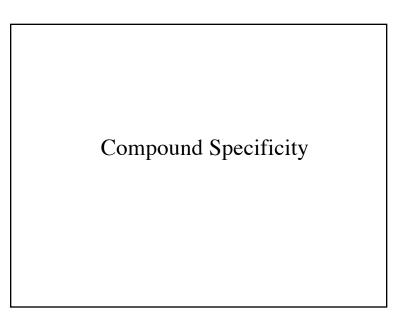




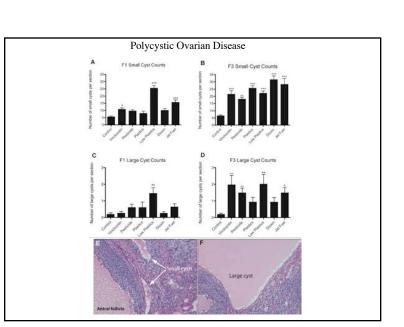


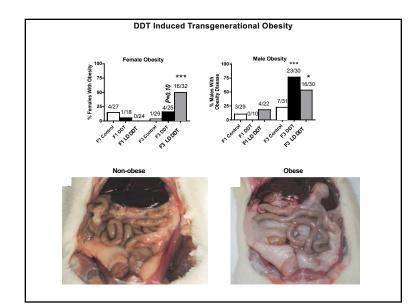


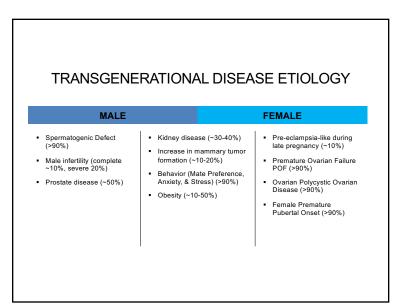




Environmental Compound Specificity					
(Exposure Groups)	(Direct) F1	F3 (Transgenerational)			
A. Vinclozolin [agricultural fungicide]	Yes	Yes			
B. Flutamide [anti-androgenic pharmaceutical]	Yes	No			
C. TCDD/Dioxin (industrial pollutant)	Yes	Yes			
D. Plastics Compounds [Bisphenol-A BPA, Phthalate-DEHP & DBP]	Yes	Yes			
E. Jet Fuel [JP8] (Hydrocarbon Mixture)	Yes	Yes			
F. Pesticide & Insect Repellent [Permethrin & DEET]	No	Yes			
G. DDT(pesticide)	Yes	Yes			
H. Methoxychlor (pesticide, replace DDT)	Yes	Yes			
I. Mercury (Industrial pollutant)	Yes	Yes			
J. Atrazine (agricultural herbicide)	No	Yes			
K. Glyphosate (pesticide herbicide)	No	Yes			



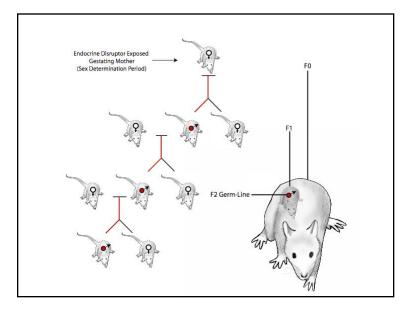


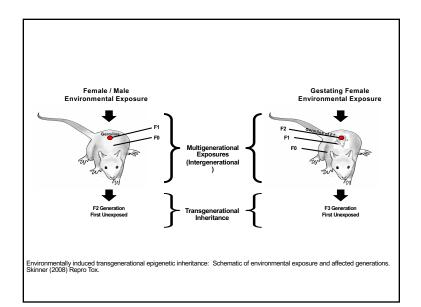


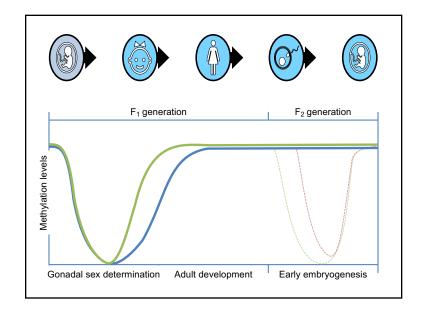


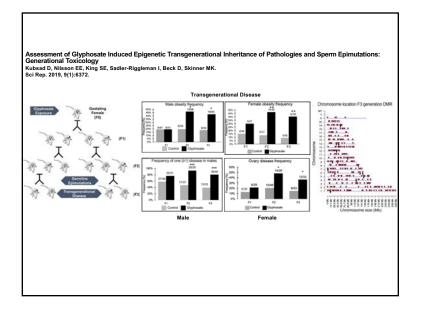
Environmental Toxicants

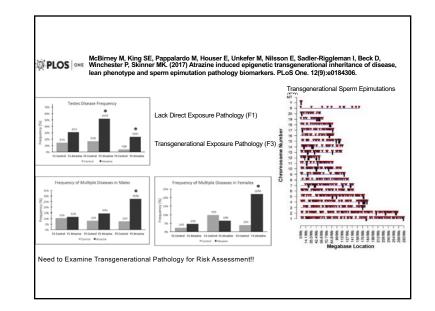
Vinclozolin (Agri	icultural Fungi	cide)		Permethrin & I	DEET (Insect Repe	llants)		
Methoxychlor (A	gricultural Pes	ticide)		DDT (Pesticide)				
Dioxin/TCDD (In	dustrial Contar	ninant)		Tributyltin (Industrial Toxicant & Biocide)				
Plastic Compou	nds (BPA & Ph	ds (BPA & Phthalates) Hydrocarbons (Jet Fuel)						
Atrazine (Herbicide)			Glyphosate (P	esticide / Herbicide	e)			
Other Type	s Exposur	es						
Nutrition (High F	at or Caloric R	estriction)		Smoking & Ald	ohol			
Temperature & Drought (Plant Health & Flowering)				Stress Trauma (Behavioral)				
		R						
Plants	Flies	Worms	Fish	Birds	Rodents	Pigs	Humans	

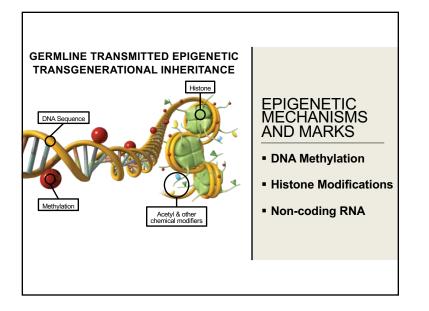


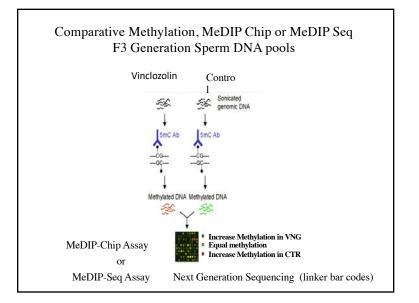


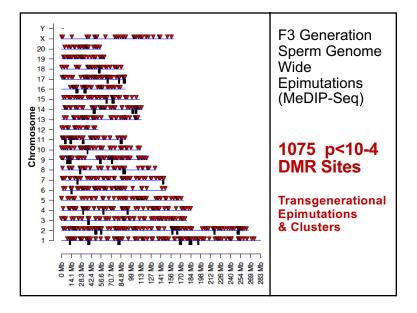


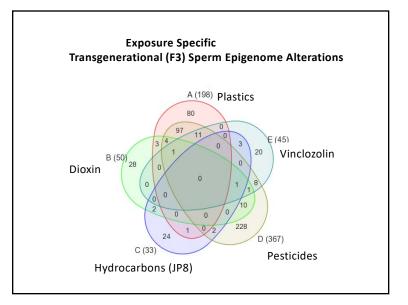


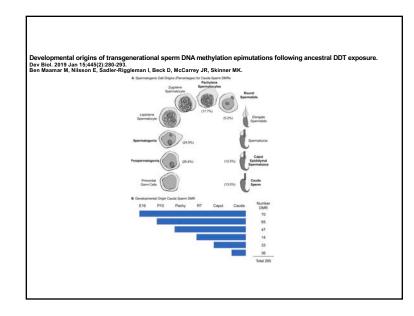


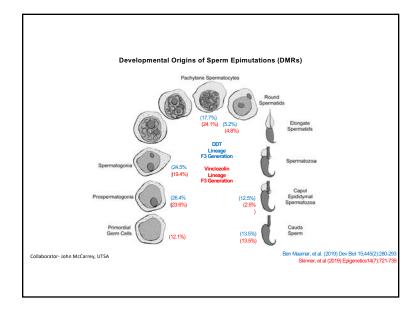


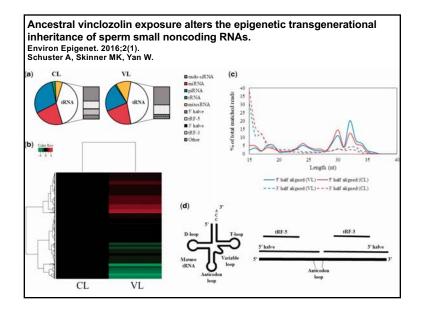


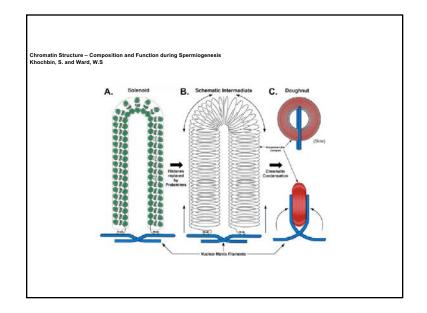


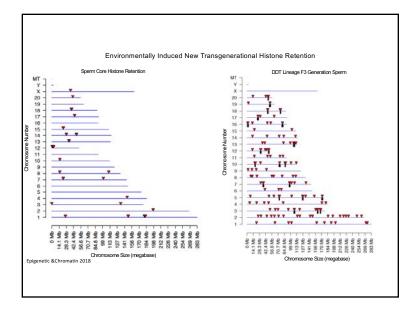


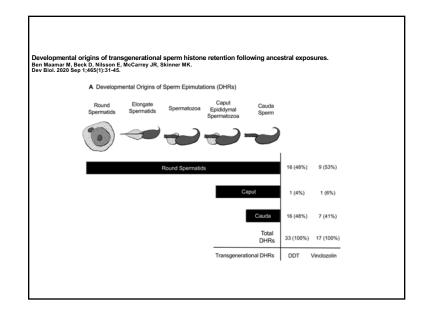


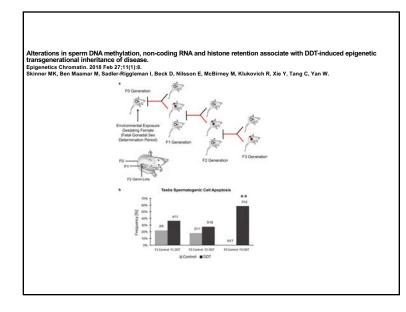


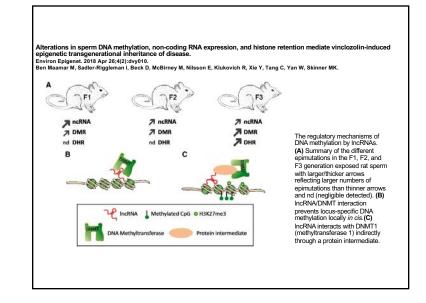


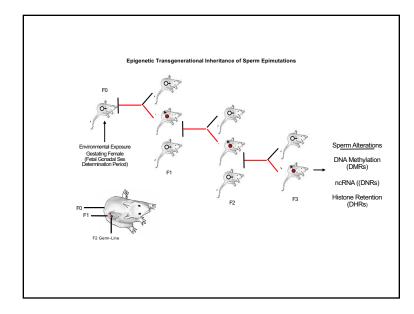


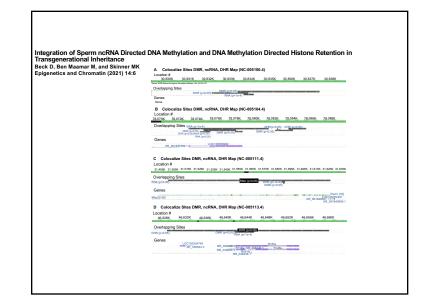


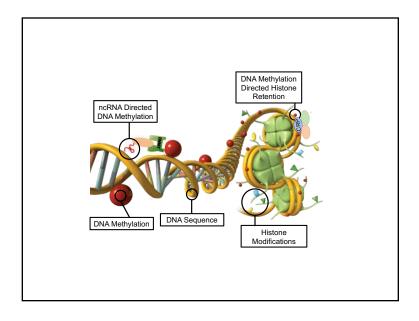


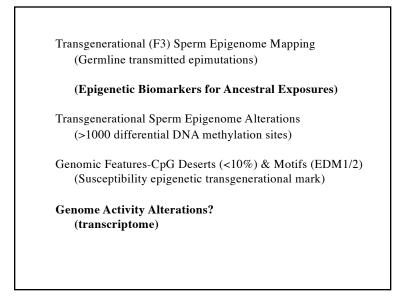


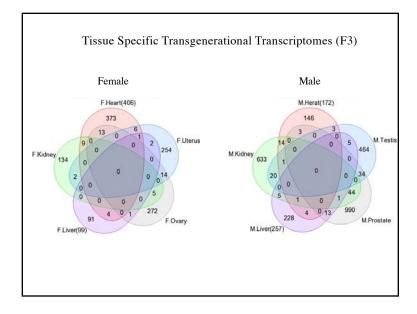


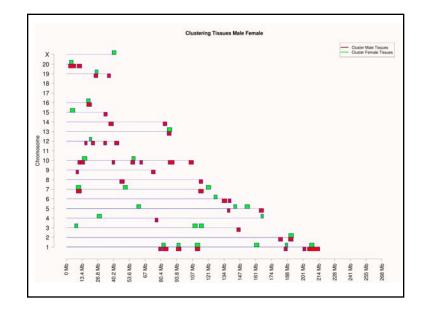


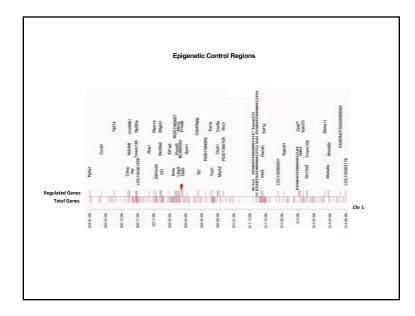


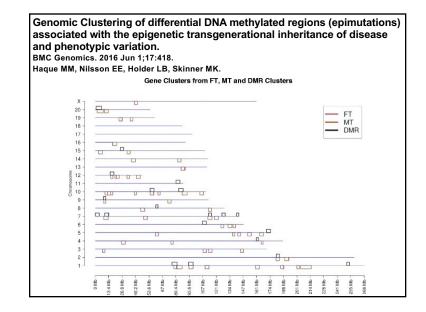


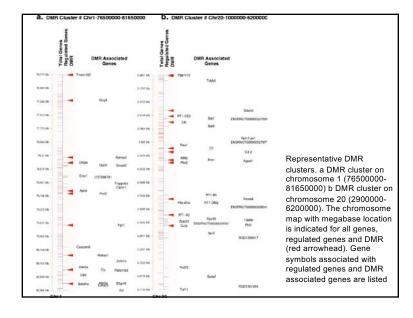


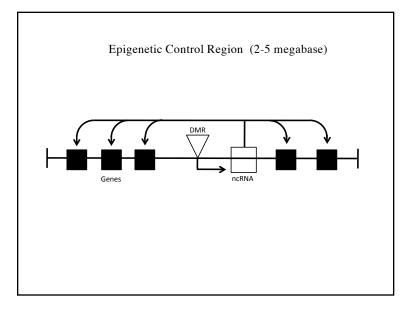


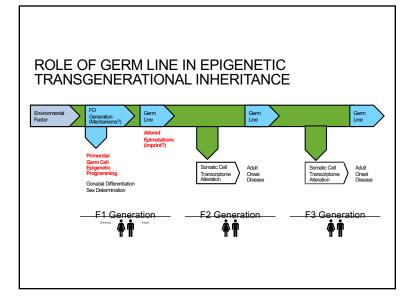


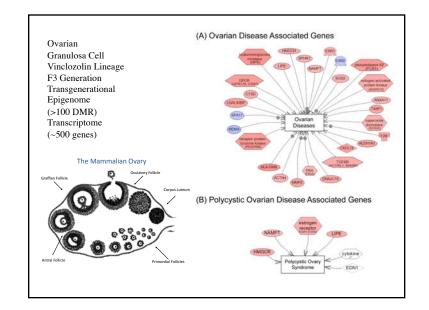


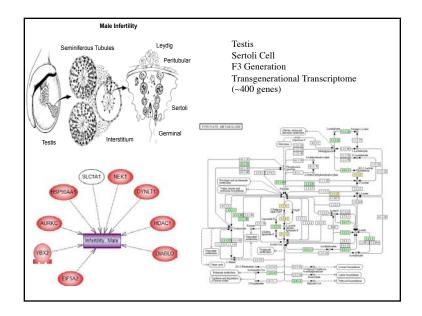


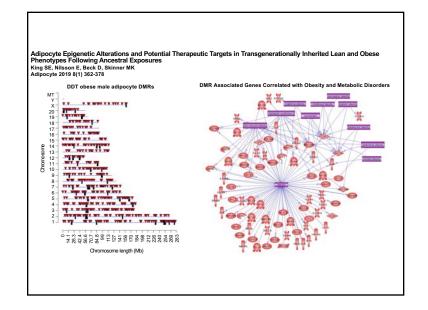


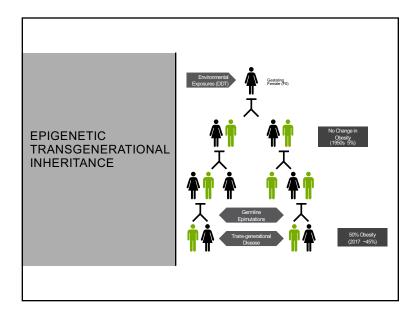




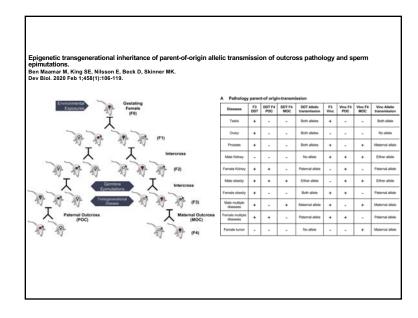


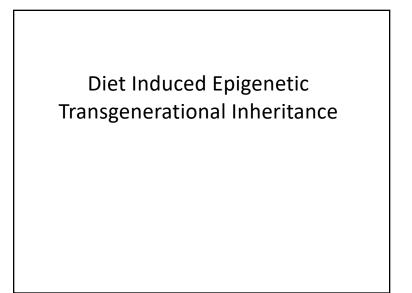


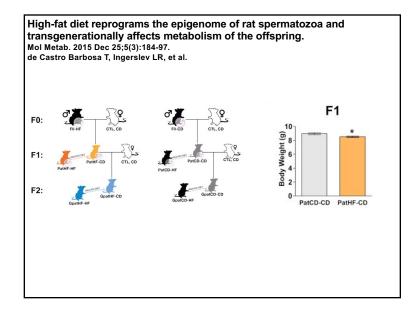


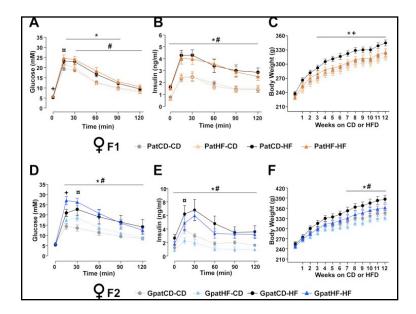


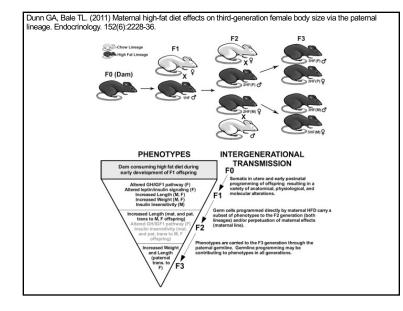
Toxicants	Reproductive disease	References
Vinclozolin	Decreased sperm count, testis apoptosis, testis abnormalities, ⁸ prostate abnormalities, oocyte loss, ovarian cysts, altered mate selection. Epigenetic changes observed.	[51, 55–57, 63, 69, 78
Methoxychlor	Ovarian cysts, Epigenetic changes observed.	[55, 75, 80]
TCDD/dioxin	Puberty onset, oocyte loss, ovarian cysts, fertility defect. ^b Epigenetic changes observed.	[72, 77, 78]
Plastics mixture (bisphenol-A, phthalate-DEHP, and DBP)	Testis abnormalities, puberty onset, oocyte loss, ovarian cysts. Epigenetic changes observed.	[67, 68]
Jet fuel (JP8)	Testis apoptosis, oocyte loss. Epigenetic changes observed.	[65, 74]
Permethrin and DEET	Testis abnormalities, puberty onset, oocyte loss, ovarian cysts. Epigenetic changes observed.	[69]
DDT	Decreased sperm count, testis apoptosis, ovarian cysts. Epigenetic changes observed.	[63, 64]
Bisphenol A	Decreased sperm count, fertility defect	[79, 89, 90]
Phthalates	Decreased sperm count, testis abnormalities, puberty onset, fertility defect	[66]
Tributyltin		[91]
Benzo[a]pyrene	Testis abnormalities	[70]
Other types exposures		
Folate (nutrition)		[92]
High-fat diet (nutrition)		[93, 94]
Caloric Restriction (nutrition)		[95-98]
Temperature and drought (plant flowering and health)	Abnormal flowering, fertility defect. Epigenetic changes observed.	[99–102]
Stress (behavioral)		[103, 104]
Smoking (health)		[105, 106]
Alcohol (health)		[107]

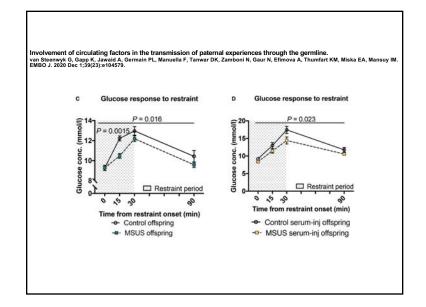


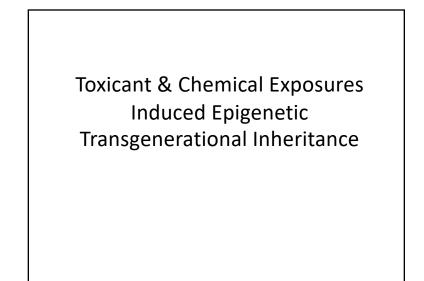




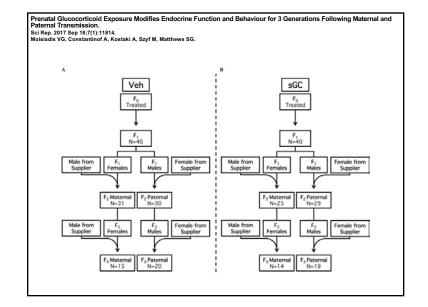








	lopmental TCDD exposure ver multiple generations.	on reproductive outco	ome in MPV-fre
Exposure	Pregnancy rate	Pregnancy outcome	
		Full-term	Preterm
Vehicle contr	olª		
conF1	10/10 (100%)	10/10 ^b	0/10
conF3	12/12 (100%)	12/12	0/12
TCDD in utero	F		
F1	11/28 (39%)	7/11	4/11
F3	8/14 (57%)	6/8	2/8
offspring (conF mice) were mat ^b Only a subs of unexposed m ^c Pregnant m	ice were exposed to corn o I mice) mated at 10–12 wee ted at a similar age, as were et of conF1–F3 offspring we nice. ice were exposed to 10 µg// offspring (F1 mice) were m	ks of age. Offspring of co the conF3 mice. The used to obtain additi kg TCDD in corn oil veh	onF1 mice (conl ional generation iicle on E15.5 ar

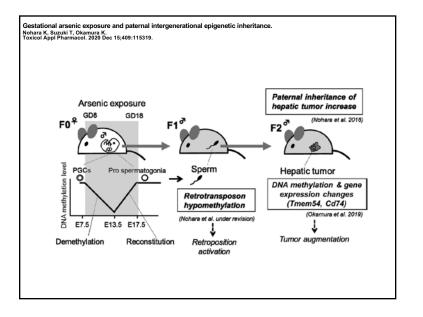


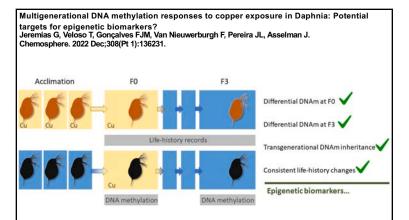
Prenatal Exposure to Environmentally-Relevant Contaminants Perturbs Male Reproductive Parameters Across Multiple Generations that are Partially Protected by Folic Acid Supplementation. Lessard M, Herst PM, Charaet PL, Navaro P, Joly-Beauparlant C, Droit A, Kimmins S, Trasler J, Benoit-Biancamano MO, MacFarlane AJ, Dalvai M, Baliey JL. Sci Rep. 2019 Sep 25:9(1):13229.

> Early-life exposure to POPs harms male reproduction across multiple generations. FA supplementation partly mitigated the impact of POPs. The two-cell embryo transcriptome is susceptible to paternal environment and could be the foundation for later pregnancy outcomes.

Association of Exposure to Diethylstilbestrol During Pregnancy With Multigenerational Neurodevelopmental Deficits. Kioumourtzoglou MA, Coull BA, O'Reilly EJ, Ascherio A, Weisskopf MG. JAMA Pediatr. 2018 Jul 1;127(3):670-677.

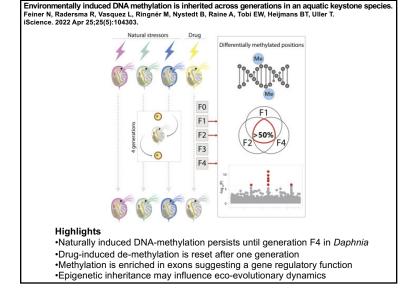
This study provides evidence that diethylstilbestrol exposure is associated with multigenerational neurodevelopmental deficits. The doses and potency level of environmental endocrine disruptors to which humans are exposed are lower than those of diethylstilbestrol, but the prevalence of such exposure and the possibility of cumulative action are potentially high and thus warrant consideration.



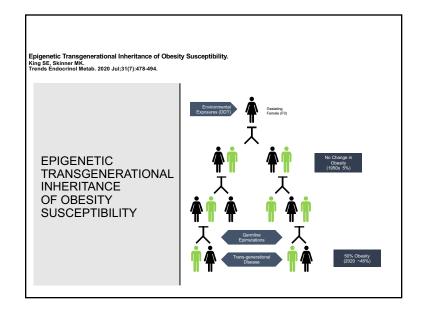


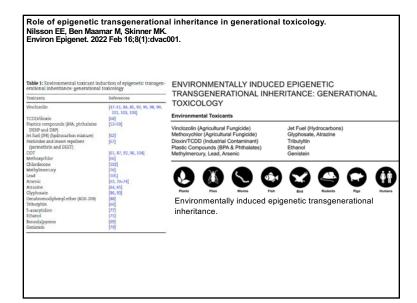
Highlights

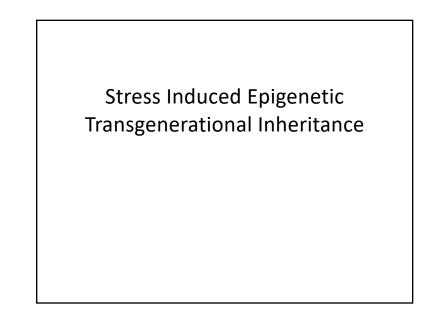
Direct and inherited effects of Cu in DNA methylation of *Daphnia* were explored.
Methylation changes targeted genes that offset metal toxicity and oxidative stress.
Distinct methylation effects noticed in daphnids differing in Cu exposure history.
Exposure history promoted transgenerational inheritance in a specific manner.

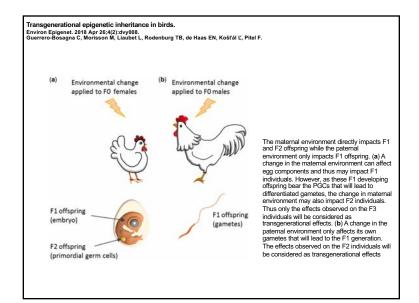


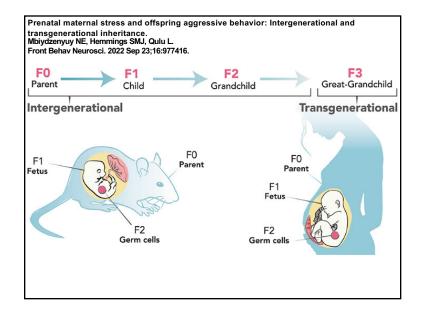
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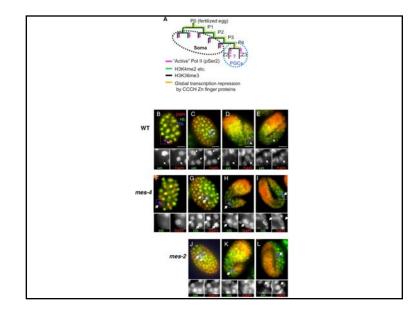


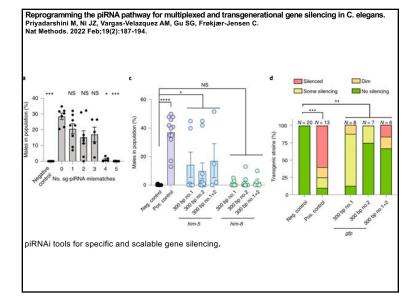


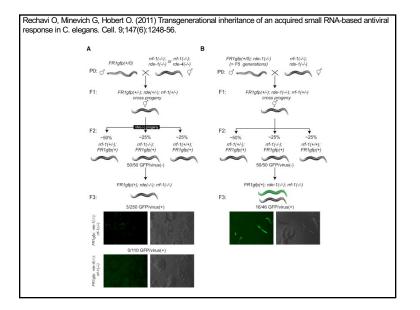
Other Inducers Epigenetic Transgenerational Inheritance Trans-generational epigenetic regulation of C. elegans primordial germ cells.

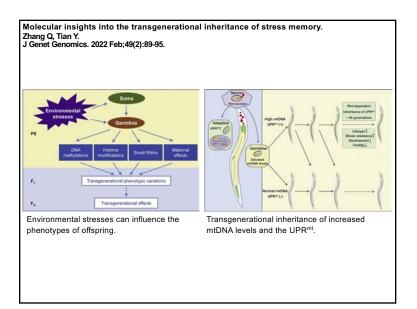
Furuhashi H, Takasaki T, Rechtsteiner A, Li T, Kimura H, Checchi PM, Strome S, Kelly WG.

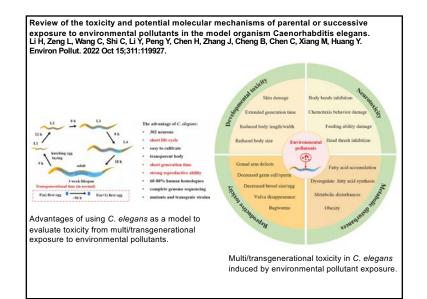
Epigenetics Chromatin. 2010 Aug 12;3(1):15.

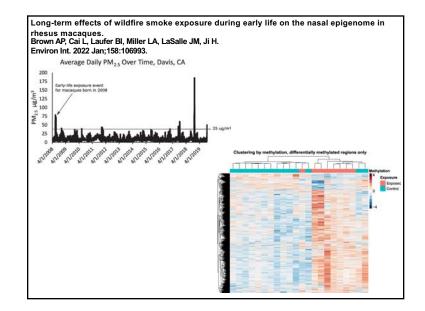


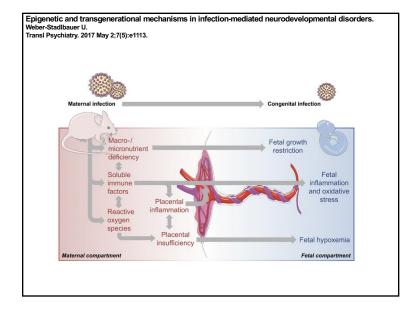


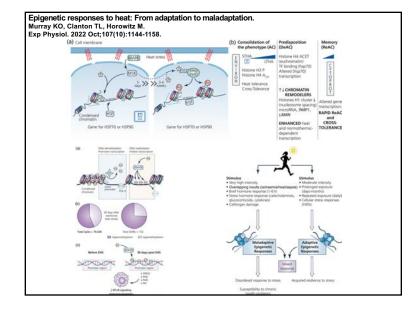


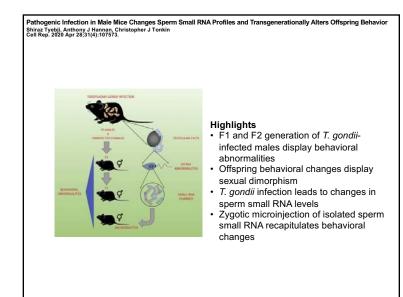












Sex-specific transgenerational effects of morphine exposure on reward and affective behaviors. Brynildsen JK, Sanchez V, Yohn NL, Carpenter MD, Blendy JA. Behav Brain Res. 2020 Oct 1;395:112422.

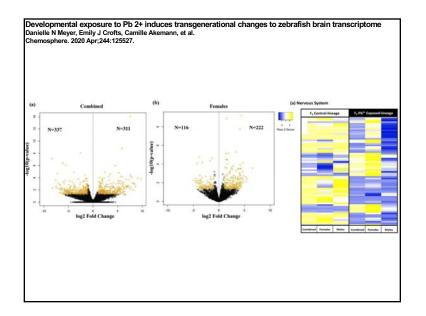
> One generation later, affective behaviors were no longer altered in F2 males but F2 females from the F0 male morphine exposure buried more marbles in the MB test. In summary, early exposure to morphine in males and females causes lineage-specific inheritance of reward and affective behaviors.

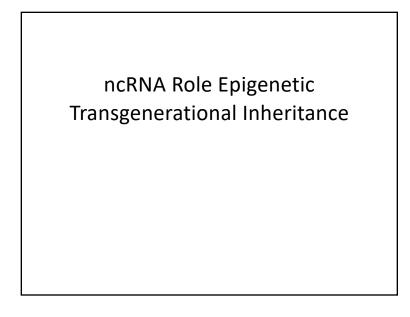
Transgenerational inheritance of fetal alcohol exposure adverse effects on immune gene interferon-Y Omkaram Gangisetty, Ajay Palagani, Dipak K Sarkar Clin Eoigenetics. 2020 May 2412(11):0.

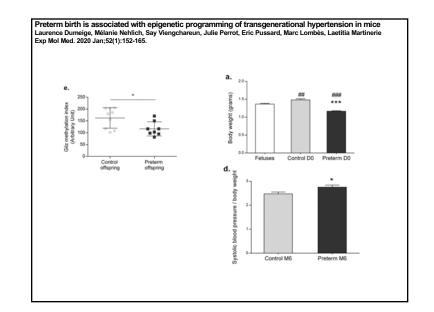
> Overall, these findings provide the evidence that fetal alcohol exposures produce an epigenetic mark on the Ifn-y gene that passes through multiple generations via the male germ line. These data provide the first evidence that the male germ line transmits fetal alcohol exposure's adverse effects on the immune system.

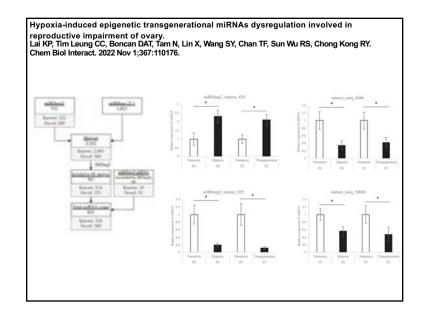
Epigenetic Responses to Temperature and Climate Beth A McCaw, Tyler J Stevenson, Lesley T Lancaster Integr Comp Biol. 2020 Dec 16;60(6):1469-1480.

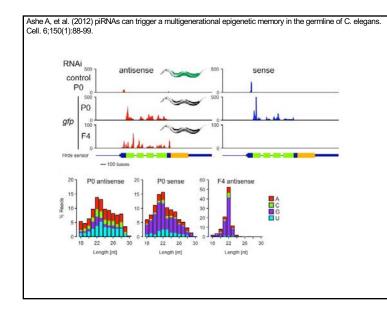
> Although the evidence points towards a conserved role of epigenetics in responding to temperature change, there appears to be an element of temperature- and species-specificity in the specific effects of temperature change on epigenetic modifications and resulting phenotypic responses. The review identifies areas of future research in epigenetic responses to environmental temperature change.

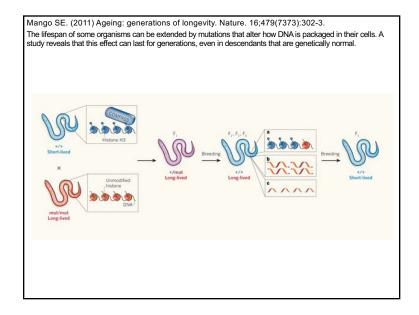


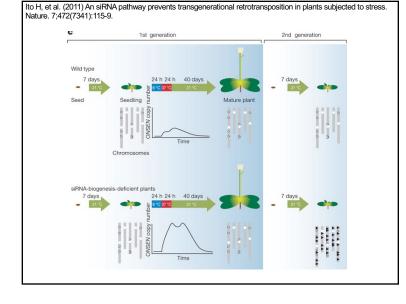








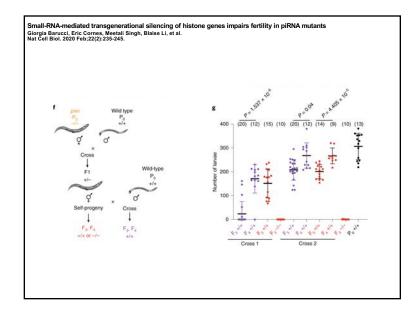




Small RNAs Reflect Grandparental Environments in Apomictic Dandelion. Mol Biol Evol. 2017 Aug 1;34(8):2035-2040. Morgado L, Priete V, Oplaat C, Anava S, Ferreira de Carvalho J, Rechavi O, Johannes F, Verhoeven KJF.

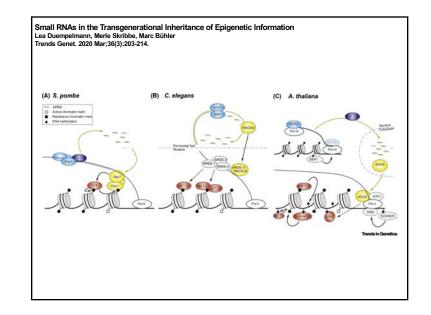
Abstract

Plants can show long-term effects of environmental stresses and in some cases a stress "memory" has been reported to persist across generations, potentially mediated by epigenetic mechanisms. However, few documented cases exist of transgenerational effects that persist for multiple generations and it remains unclear if or how epigenetic mechanisms are involved. Here, we show that the composition of small regulatory RNAs in apomicic dandelion lineages reveals a footprint of forcupht stress and salicy/cic acid treatment experienced two generations ago. Overall proportions of 21 and 24 nt RNA pools were shifted due to grandparental treatments. While individual genes did not show strong up- or downregulation of associated sRNAs, the subset of genes that showed the strongest shifts in sRNA abundance was significantly enriched for several GO terms including stress-specific functions. This suggests that a stress-induced signal was transmitted across multiple unexposed generations leading to persistent changes in epigenetic gene regulation.



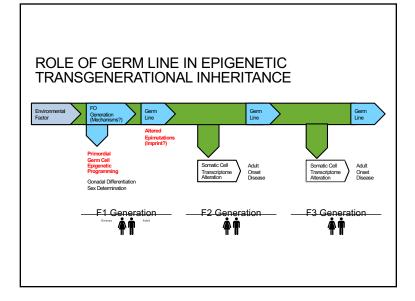
poly(UG)-tailed RNAs in genome protection and epigenetic inheritance Aditi Shukla, Jenny Yan, Daniel J Pagano, et al. Nature. 2020 Jun;582(7811):283-288. Our results show that cycles of pUG RNA-templated siRNA synthesis and siRNA-directed pUG RNA

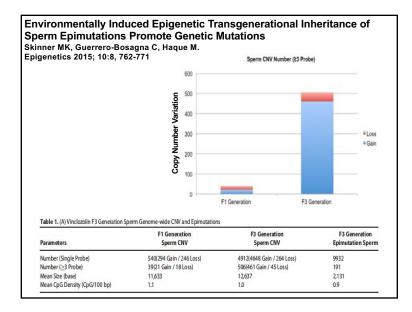
biogenesis underlie double-stranded-RNA-directed transgenerational epigenetic inheritance in the C. elegans germline. We speculate that this pUG RNAsiRNA silencing loop enables parents to inoculate progeny against the expression of unwanted or parasitic genetic elements.



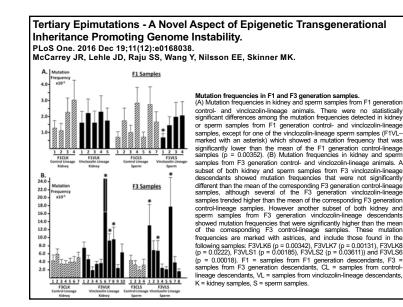
Small-RNA-mediated transgenerational silencing of histone genes impairs fertility in piRNA mutants Giorgia Barucci, Eric Cornes, Meetali Singh, et al. Nat Cell Biol. 2020 Feb;22(2):235-245.

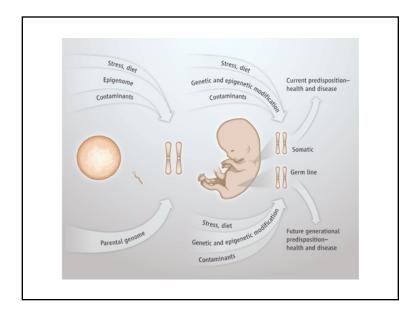
> PIWI-interacting RNAs (piRNAs) promote fertility in many animals. However, whether this is due to their conserved role in repressing repetitive elements (REs) remains unclear. Here, we show that the progressive loss of fertility in Caenorhabditis elegans lacking piRNAs is not caused by derepression of REs or other piRNA targets but, rather, is mediated by epigenetic silencing of all of the replicative histone genes. In the absence of piRNAs, downstream components of the piRNA pathway relocalize from germ granules and piRNA targets to histone mRNAs to synthesize antisense small RNAs (sRNAs) and induce transgenerational silencing. Removal of the downstream components of the piRNA pathway restores histone mRNA expression and fertility in piRNA mutants, and the inheritance of histone sRNAs in wild-type worms adversely affects their fertility for multiple generations. We conclude that sRNA-mediated silencing of histone genes impairs the fertility of piRNA mutants and may serve to maintain piRNAs across evolution.

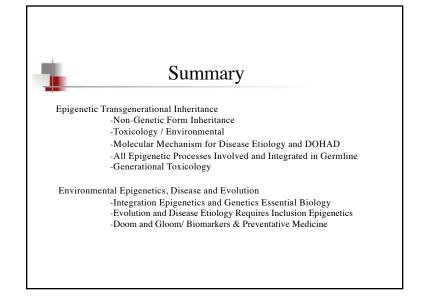


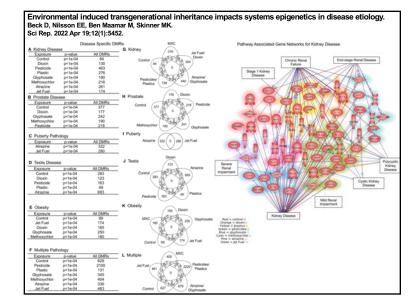


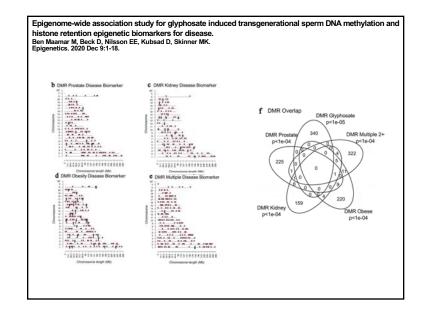
Genetic Mutation	Epigenetic Alteration	DNA Sequence Alteration
Point Mutation (SNP)	DNA Methylation (CpG)	Susceptibility C ➤ T Conversion
Copy Number Variation (CNV)	Hypomethylation (Repeats)	Susceptibility Repeat Element Alteration (CNV)
Transposon Migration	Hypomethylation DNA	Susceptibility Transposon Migration
Translocation	DNA Methylation and Histone Alterations	Susceptibility Translocation at Break Point
Telomere Length	DNA Methylation Alteration	Alteration in Telomere Length

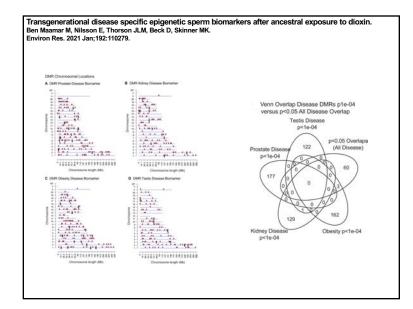


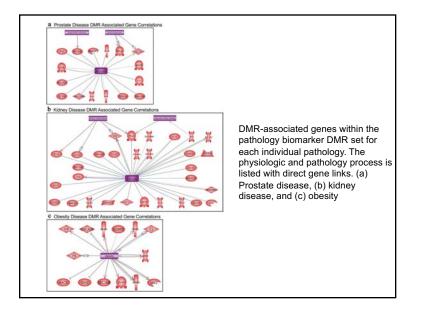


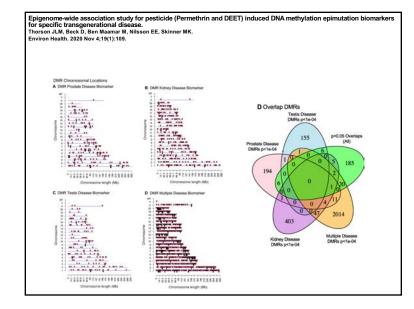


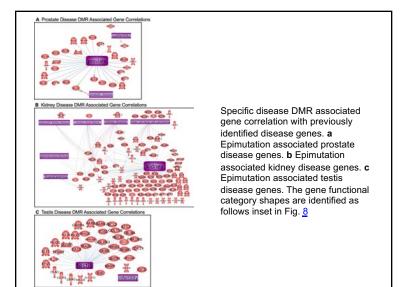


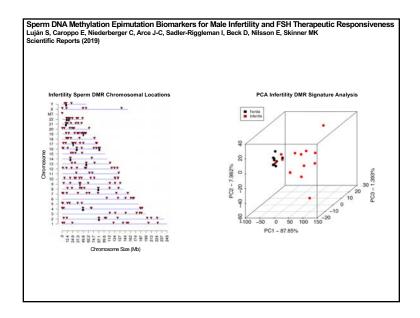












Biol 476/5	23 (Odd Years) 76 Lecture Outline –	
Week 1	January 10 & 12	Systems Biology (History/ Definitions/ Theory)
Week 2	January 17 & 19	Systems Biology (Networks & Emergence)
Week 3	January 24 & 26	Systems Biology (Components: DNA to Phenotype)
Week 4	Jan 31 & Feb 2	Systems Biology (Genomics / Technology)
Week 5	February 7 & 9	Epigenetics (History / Molecular Processes)
Week 6	February 14 & 16	Epigenetics (Molecular Processes & Integration)
Week 7	February 21 & 23	Epigenetics (Genomics and Technology)
Week 8	Feb 28 & March 2	Cell & Developmental Biology
Week 9	March 7 & 9	Epigenetics of Cell & Developmental Biology (& Midterm Exam)
Week 10	March 13 – 17	Spring Break
Week 11	March 21 & 23	Environmental Impact on Biology
Week 12	March 28 & 30	Environmental Epigenetics
Week 13	April 4 & 6	Disease Etiology
Week 14	April 11 & 13	Epigenetics & Disease Etiology
Week 15	April 18 & 20	Evolutionary Biology & Genetics
Week 16	April 25 & 27	Epigenetics & Evolutionary Biology
Week 17	May 2 & 4	Grant Review/ Study Section Meeting (& Final Exam)

