

Parental Conflicting Role Mediates Regulation of The Chromatin Structure in The Mouse Zygote

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Article

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1 **Parental conflicting role mediates regulation of**
2 **the chromatin structure in the mouse zygote**

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15
16 **Keywords**

17 zygotes, parental asymmetry, zygotic relaxed chromatin structure, spermiogenesis,
18 spermatozoa, round spermatid, chromatin compaction, chromatin relaxation,
19 intracytoplasmic sperm injection, round spermatid injection

22 **Abstract**

23 Parental pronuclei (PN) are asymmetrical in several points but the underlying
24 mechanism for this is still unclear. Recently, a theory has been become broadly accepted
25 that sperm are more than mere vehicles to carry the paternal haploid genome into oocytes.
26 Here, in order to reveal the formation mechanisms for parental asymmetrically relaxed
27 chromatin structure in zygotes, we investigated histone mobility in parthenogenetic-,
28 androgenic-, ROSI-, ELSI-, tICSI-, and ICSI-zygotes with several numbers of PNs with
29 the use of zygotic fluorescence recovery after photobleaching, a method previous
30 established by our group. The results showed that sperm played a role to cause chromatin
31 compaction in both parental PNs. Interestingly, during spermiogenesis, male germ cells
32 acquired this ability and its resistance. On the other hand, oocytes harbored chromatin
33 relaxation ability. Furthermore, the chromatin relaxation factor was competed for
34 between PNs. Thus, these results indicated that the parental asymmetrically relaxed
35 chromatin structure was established as a result of a competition between the PNs for the
36 chromatin relaxation factor that opposed the chromatin compaction effect by sperm.
37 Together, it was suggested that parental germ cells cooperated for their just arisen
38 newborn zygotes by playing a distinct role in the regulation of chromatin structure.

39

40 **Introduction**

41 During fertilization, parental pronuclei (PN) are formed from the genomes of
42 the sperm and oocyte. Although co-existing in the cytoplasm of the zygote, the PNs are
43 separated before the first mitotic cell cycle and then the two haplotypes fuse to form the
44 new individual genome. There are many differential points in epigenetic factors (e, g
45 histone modifications, histone variants and chromatin relaxation) between PNs before
46 fusion. However, the mechanisms underlying parental asymmetry remain unclear and
47 even less is known about how it is controlled by the interactions between the parental
48 PNs.

49 The results of our previous study revealed that the chromatin of the male PN
50 derived from the sperm (sp-mPN) was comparatively more relaxed during the
51 preimplantation embryonic stages (Ooga et al., 2016). Interestingly, the chromatin of the
52 female PN (fPN) is significantly less relaxed than that of the sp-mPN. Thus, the relaxation
53 of the zygotic parental chromatin structure is asymmetrical in regard to size ($\sigma^{\text{♂}} > \sigma^{\text{♀}}$)
54 (Adenot et al., 1997), transcriptional regulation and activity ($\sigma^{\text{♂}} > \sigma^{\text{♀}}$) (Aoki et al., 1997),
55 epigenetic active and repressive of histone markers ($\sigma^{\text{♂}} < \sigma^{\text{♀}}$) (Burton et al., 2008) and
56 the amounts of reprogramming factors ($\sigma^{\text{♂}} > \sigma^{\text{♀}}$) (Liu et al., 2014). Round spermatid are
57 haploid precursor cells present during the spermatogenetic stage soon after meiosis.
58 Importantly, round spermatid injection (ROSI) and delay of intracytoplasmic sperm
59 injection (ICSI) can result in improper PN formation and subsequent developmental
60 failure during the preimplantation stage (Kishigami et al., 2004b), suggesting that the
61 importance of parental asymmetry. However, the mechanism underlying parental
62 asymmetry has not yet been elucidated. In addition, it is unknown whether relaxation of

63 the asymmetrical parental chromatin is due to an acquisition of greater extent of
64 relaxation of the chromatin of the sp-mPN or compaction of the fPN. Furthermore, the
65 molecules involved in relaxation of the asymmetrical parental chromatin have not yet
66 been identified.

67 It has recently become clear that the spermatozoon also plays a role in the
68 regulation of the embryonic chromatin structure. For example, sperm carry epigenetic
69 factors responsible for the highly complex organization of the genome (Brykczynska et
70 al., 2010; Hammoud et al., 2009; Paradowska et al., 2012) and DNA/histone modification
71 and RNA in the zygote (Yamaguchi et al., 2018; Sharma et al., 2016), which were thought
72 to be involved in the regulation of the establishment of the zygotic chromatin structure
73 and contribute to the control of embryonic development (Trigg et al., 2019; Teperek et
74 al., 2016; Brykczynska et al., 2010; Chen et al., 2021; Sharma et al., 2016). Although the
75 contribution of spermatozoa to the establishment of the zygotic chromatin structure has
76 been widely investigated, it remains unknown not only whether the molecular properties
77 of sperm are involved in establishing the extremely relaxed structure of the sp-mPN
78 chromatin and but also whether these factors are actively involved in establishing the
79 asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin after fertilization.

80 Therefore, the aim of the present study was to investigate the mechanisms
81 underlying the asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin. The results of this study
82 revealed that sp-mPN harbored the ability to further compact the chromatin of the fPN,
83 resulting in asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin structures. In addition to the
84 ability of the sperm to further compact the chromatin, our results indicated that the
85 parental PNs compete to relax the chromatin. Thus, the chromatin structure of the zygote
86 is regulated by the chromatin compaction effect derived from the sperm and the chromatin

87 relaxation effect derived from oocytes in opposition to the sperm-derived compaction
88 effect. Hence, the asymmetrical chromatin relaxation of the zygotic is established by
89 interactions between the parental germ cells.

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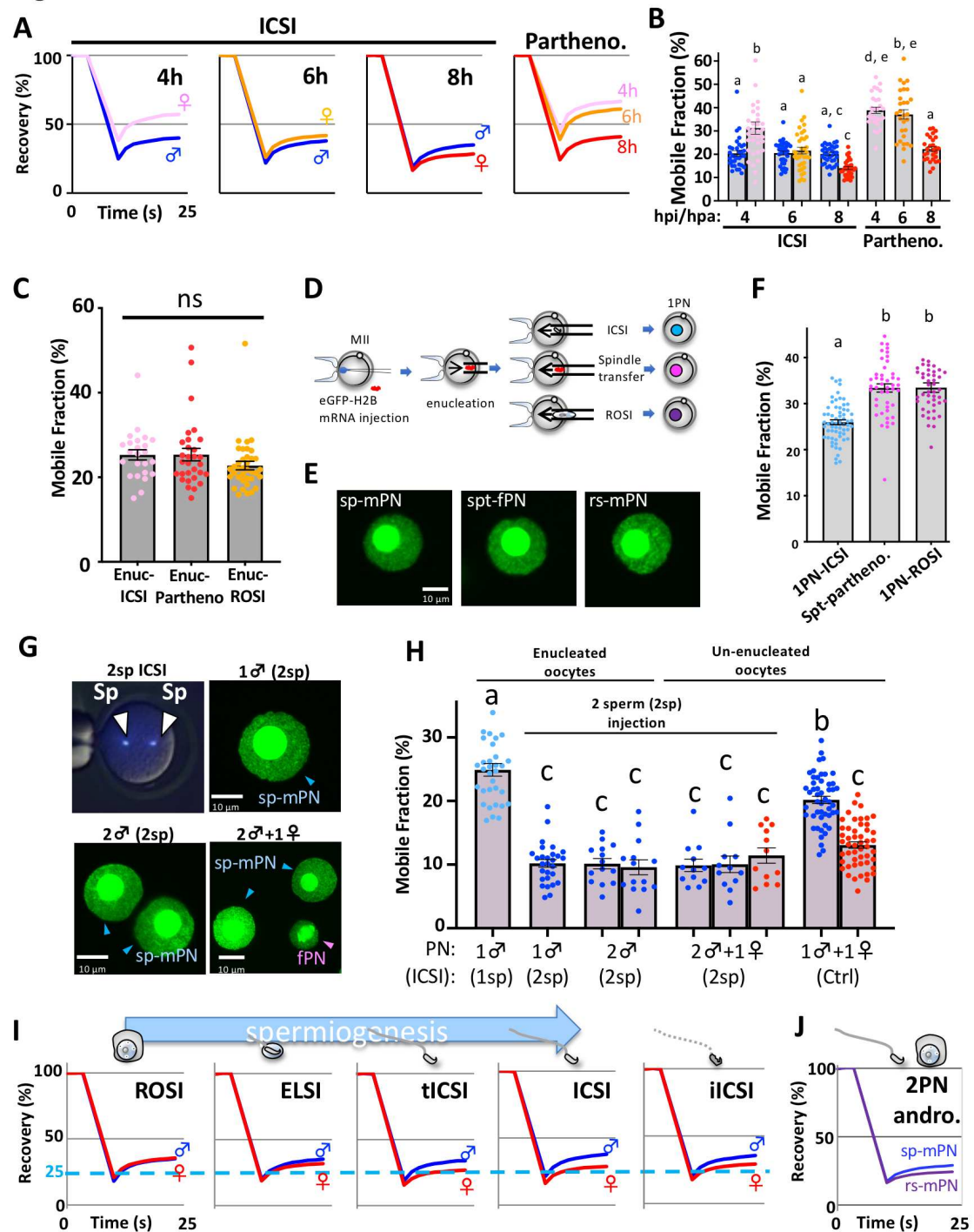
93 **Results**

94 *Sperm causes compaction of both parental chromatin structures*

95 We previously reported that asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin
96 was established in the late zygotic stage of the embryo at 10–12 hours post insemination
97 (hpi) (Ooga et al., 2016). First, we confirmed the reproducibility of asymmetric relaxation
98 of the parental chromatin ($\sigma > \varphi$) in zygotes obtained by in vitro fertilization (IVF) (**Fig.**
99 **S1**) and ICSI. In addition, the mechanisms causing the parental asymmetric pattern were
100 investigated by determining whether sp-mPN acquired the highly relaxed or fPN obtained
101 the compacted chromatin structure. To this end, the dynamics of chromatin relaxation
102 during the early to mid-zygotic stages were examined with the use of parthenogenetically
103 activated- and ICSI-derived zygotes. Although the chromatin of the fPN was gradually
104 compacted along with the development of the zygote, there was no significant change in
105 the chromatin of the sp-mPN (**Fig. 1A and B**). Importantly, in the presence of sperm/sp-
106 mPN, the chromatin of the fPN was further compacted. As a result, the parental
107 asymmetric pattern ($\sigma > \varphi$) was established by 8 hpi. The dependency of fPN
108 compaction on sp-mPN was confirmed by enucleation of the sp-mPN followed by
109 immuno-staining of histone 3 lysine 9 trimethylation (H3K9me3) as a marker of the fPN
110 (**Fig. 1C and S2**). Collectively, these findings suggest that the asymmetrical structure of
111 the parental chromatin was established via acquisition of the compacted chromatin
112 structure of the fPN by a mechanism dependent on the sperm/sp-mPN.

113 Next, in order to determine whether the mechanisms underlying sp-mPN-
114 dependent chromatin compaction were also activated in the sp-mPN itself, 1PN-ICSI
115 were constructed by ICSI with enucleated MII oocytes (**Fig. 1D**). The chromatin of a

Fig. 1



116

117 **Fig. 1. Sperm causes compaction of both parental chromatin structures**

118 (A and B) Dynamics of chromatin relaxation during the early and mid-stages of ICSI

119 and parthenogenetically activated zygotes. zFRAP analysis was performed at 4, 6, and 8

120 hpi or hpa. A recovery curve indicating the average fluorescence recovery rate is shown

121 (A). The average mobile fraction (MF) is shown as a gray bar (B). Single dots indicate
122 the MF score of each male and female pronuclei (mPN, fPN), respectively. Blue, mPN;
123 pink, fPN-4h; orange, fPN-6h; and red, fPN-8h. For parthenogenetic (partheno)-zygotes
124 with 2PN, the average MF score is shown. Error bar indicates the standard error (SE). (C)
125 mPN was enucleated at 4 hpi/hpa from ICSI- and ROSI-zygotes. Two PN partheno-
126 zygotes were prepared as controls. The remaining fPN was subjected to zFRAP analysis
127 at 8 hpi/hpa. (D) Illustration of the preparation of 1PN-zygotes (E) Fluorescence images
128 of each single PN: sperm-derived mPN (sp-mPN), spindle transfer-derived fPN (spt-fPN),
129 and round spermatid-derived mPN (rs-mPN) (F) Average MF scores of 1PN-ICSI, -ROSI,
130 and spt-partheno. (G) Two sperm were injected into enucleated MII oocytes (upper-left).
131 Sperm (sp) were stained with Hoechst 33342. Fluorescence images of PN: “1 ♂ (2sp)”
132 and “2 ♂ (2sp)” indicate the one and two male PN-zygotes injected with two sperm (2sp),
133 respectively (upper right and lower left). Two sperm injected into un-enucleated MII
134 oocytes (2 ♂ + 1 ♀; lower right). (H) Average MF scores of the zygotes as shown in (G).
135 As a control, one sperm was injected into enucleated MII- (same as 1PN-ICSI in Fig. 1
136 F; “1 ♂ (1sp)”) and normal ICSI-zygotes (1 ♂ + 1 ♀). Blue and red dots indicated mPN
137 and fPN, respectively. (I) Recovery curve of ROSI-, ELSI-, tICSI-, ICSI-, and iICSI-
138 zygotes. (J) Recovery curve of androgenic zygotes prepared by co-injection of sperm and
139 round spermatid.

140 single sp-mPN was more compact than a single fPN of parthenogenetic zygotes, although
141 both appeared similar, suggesting that the chromatin compaction mechanism of sp-mPN
142 worked on its own (**Fig. 1E, F and S3**). Further confirmation by ICSI was conducted with
143 the use of enucleated MII oocytes fertilized with two sperm (2sp) (i.e., “1♂ (2sp)” and
144 “2♂ (2sp)” in **Fig. 1G, H and S4**), which showed that the additional sperm resulted in
145 further chromatin compaction in each sp-mPN, as the chromatin of zygotes formed by
146 ICSI with two sperm and an enucleated MII oocyte was more compact than that of the
147 zygotes formed by one sperm (“1♂ (1sp),” light blue in **Fig. 1F and H**). In zygotes
148 formed by ICSI with two sp-mPNs and an “un-enucleated” oocyte (“2♂ + 1♀”), two sp-
149 mPNs were comparable to one fPN and disruption of the parental asymmetric pattern
150 ($\sigma \rightleftharpoons \text{♀}$). Importantly, there was no significant difference between the fPNs of 2♂+1♀
151 and that of 1♂+1♀ (ctrl), indicating that the chromatin of the fPNs was already
152 compacted to almost the possible limit even in the presence of only one sperm. On the
153 other hand, to compact the chromatin of sp-mPN to this level, at least two sperm were
154 needed. Thus, the sp-mPN exhibited innate resistance to chromatin compaction. Together,
155 these results suggest that although the chromatin compaction effect works on the
156 chromatin of both parental PNs, asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin was
157 established due to differences in sensitivity to this effect. The zygotes harboring two fPNs
158 with a single sp-mPN (“1♂ + 2♀”) still exhibited the parental asymmetric pattern (**Fig.**
159 **S5**). Thus, the additional chromatin from the fPN failed to disrupt the parental asymmetric
160 pattern.

161 To examine where the ability for the chromatin compaction in both
162 parental PNs was acquired among the stages during spermiogenesis, zygotic

163 fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (zFRAP) analysis of zygotes fertilized by
164 various micro-insemination methods (ROSI, ELSI, tICSI, and ICSI) was performed at 8
165 hpi or hours post micro-activation (hpa). All male PNs of zygotes obtained by ROSI and
166 ICSI exhibited similar levels of chromatin relaxation (**Fig. 1I and Fig. S6A**). By contrast,
167 the extent of chromatin relaxation of the fPNs of these zygotes was decreased along with
168 the maturity of the male germ cells. Thus, the maturity of spermatogenic cells is correlated
169 with the asymmetric structure of the parental chromatin. The asymmetric structure of the
170 parental chromatin in zygotes obtained by ICSI with the use of inactivated sperm (iICSI-
171 zygotes) was only slightly decreased as compared to that of the ICSI-zygotes (**Fig. 1I and**
172 **Fig. S6B**), indicating that asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin acquired
173 during spermiogenesis could not be explained by the activation capacity of the oocyte.
174 Taken together, these results suggest that sperm has the ability to compact the chromatin
175 of both parental PNs and resistance to compaction leads to parental asymmetrically
176 relaxed chromatin structure during spermiogenesis. Correct discrimination of parental
177 chromatin in ROSI-zygotes was confirmed by zFRAP analysis with paternal PNs from
178 enucleated zygotes followed by immunocytochemical analysis of H3K9me3 as a marker
179 of the fPNs (**Fig. S7**). The inability of round spermatid to compact chromatin was
180 confirmed by 1PN-ROSI, which showed a comparable level of chromatin relaxation of
181 1PN-parthenogenetic zygotes (**Fig. 1F**, purple). In addition, 2PN androgenic zygotes
182 formed by sp-mPN, with comparatively greater chromatin relaxation, and round
183 spermatid-derived from the male PN (rs-mPN), with relatively less chromatin relaxation
184 (**Fig. 1J and S8**), indicated that the round spermatid had not yet acquired resistance to
185 chromatin compaction. Furthermore, in the presence of sp-mPN, the chromatin of the rs-
186 mPN was condensed to the same level as that of the fPN (**Fig. S9**). These findings were

187 consistent with the disruption of the asymmetric structure of the parental chromatin in
188 zygotes obtained by ROSI.

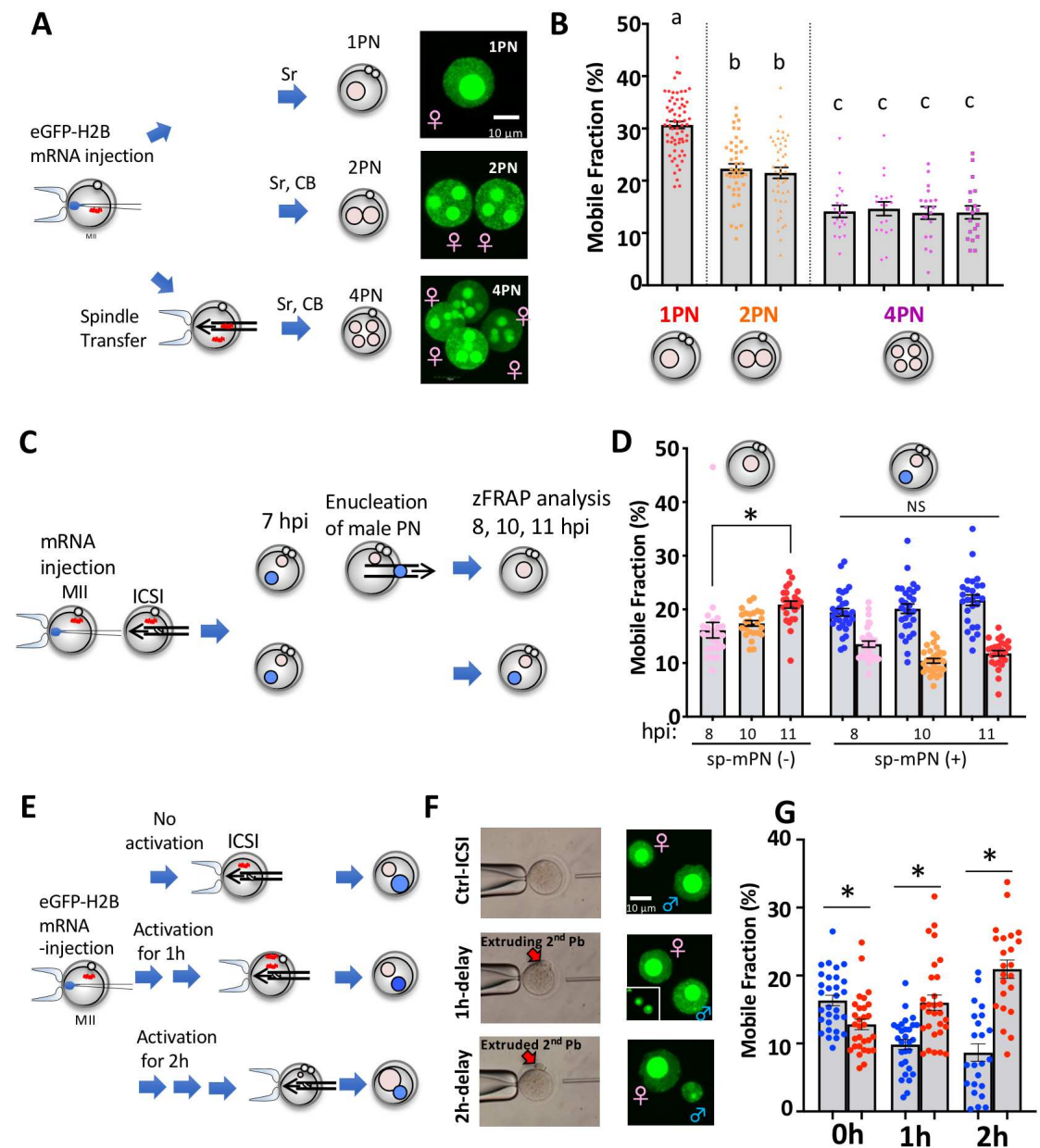
189

190 *Parental PNs compete for chromatin relaxation factors*

191 As shown in **Fig. 1F** and **H**, the chromatin of 1PN-zygotes and even 1PN ICSI-
192 zygotes, was extremely relaxed as compared to that of ICSI-zygotes with two parental
193 PNs (1♂ (1sp) vs. 1♂ + 1♀ (1sp)). The results of our previous study revealed that
194 oocytes harbored highly loosened chromatin structures and chromodomain helicase DNA
195 binding protein 9 (CHD9), which regulates chromatin remodeling, participated in the
196 regulation of the chromatin relaxation (Ooga et al., 2018b). Furthermore, in another
197 previous study, the transferred somatic cell nuclei into enucleated oocytes acquired a
198 relaxed chromatin structure, indicating the presence of factors promoting chromatin
199 relaxation in oocytes and zygotes (Ooga et al., 2016). These findings prompted the
200 hypothesis that the concentration of factors promoting chromatin relaxation into a single
201 PN led to the extremely relaxed chromatin structure. At the same time, such factors were
202 distributed to the parental PNs. To examine this possibility, parthenogenetically activated
203 oocytes were constructed with various numbers of fPNs (1, 2, and 4 fPNs; **Fig. 2A**), which
204 enabled exclusion of the sp-mPN-derived chromatin compaction effect. As expected, the
205 extent of chromatin relaxation decreased along with the increase in the number of PNs
206 and the fPNs in the same zygotes showed similar level of chromatin relaxation (**Fig. 2B**
207 **and S10**). These results suggest that the chromatin relaxation factors are present in the
208 zygotes and at least, in parthenogenetic zygotes, the fPNs competed for these factors.

209 If the parental PNs compete for factors that promote chromatin relaxation, the
210 lack of one parental PN should cause excess chromatin relaxation in another. Therefore,

Fig. 2



211

212 **Fig. 2. Parental PNs compete for chromatin relaxation factors**

213 (A) Illustration of the preparation of 1, 2, and 4PN partheno-zygotes and fluorescence

214 images of the fPNs (B) Average MF scores of the partheno-zygotes prepared as shown in

215 (A). (C) Illustration of the preparation of sp-mPN-enucleated partheno-zygotes. (D)

216 Average MF scores of the zygotes prepared as shown in (C). Blue, mPN; pink, fPN-8h;

217 orange, fPN-10h; and red, fPN-11h). Asterisks indicate significant differences. (E)

218 Illustration of the preparation of delay ICSI-zygotes. “Sr” indicates strontium. (F) Control
219 and delay ICSI are shown. The second polar body is indicated with a red arrow.
220 Fluorescence images of the mPN and fPN. The inset shows lower magnification images
221 of the second polar body near the fPN. (G) Average MF scores of the delay ICSI-zygotes
222 prepared as shown in (E, F).
223

224 the potential of excess chromatin relaxation in fPN was investigated with the use of
225 enucleation of sp-mPNs. In sp-mPN-enucleated-zygotes, chromatin relaxation of the fPN
226 gradually increased along with the progression of zygotic development (**Fig. 2C and D**).
227 In contrast, zFRAP analysis of ICSI-zygotes at 8, 10, and 11 hpi showed that the extent
228 of chromatin relaxation was maintained in both parental PNs. Thus, the parental PNs
229 competed for the chromatin relaxing factors. Next, the effect of delayed PN formation
230 (Kishigami et al., 2004b) on parental asymmetry was investigated. To this end, delayed-
231 ICSI zygotes were constructed and then analyzed by zFRAP (**Fig. 2E**). Observation of
232 PN formation of delayed-ICSI zygotes revealed the reversal of PN size, larger or smaller,
233 between parental PNs (**Fig. 2F**). zFRAP analysis revealed that asymmetric relaxation of
234 the parental chromatin was compromised along with an increased delay time of ICSI (**Fig.**
235 **2G and S11**). Particularly, almost all of the 2 h-delayed-ICSI zygotes showed a reversed
236 parental asymmetric pattern ($\sigma^{\text{♂}} < \sigma^{\text{♀}}$). A delay of only 1 h resulted in a considerable
237 change in PN size and the chromatin of the fPN was more relaxed than that of the sp-
238 mPN. Collectively, these results indicate that parental PNs compete for chromatin
239 relaxing factors and the state of the zygotic chromatin is regulated by an antagonistic
240 balance between the chromatin compaction effects derived from the sperm and the
241 relaxation effect from the oocyte. Furthermore, it is possible that the sp-mPN might have
242 obtained more such relaxation factors than the fPN, resulting in self resistance to the
243 chromatin compaction effect.

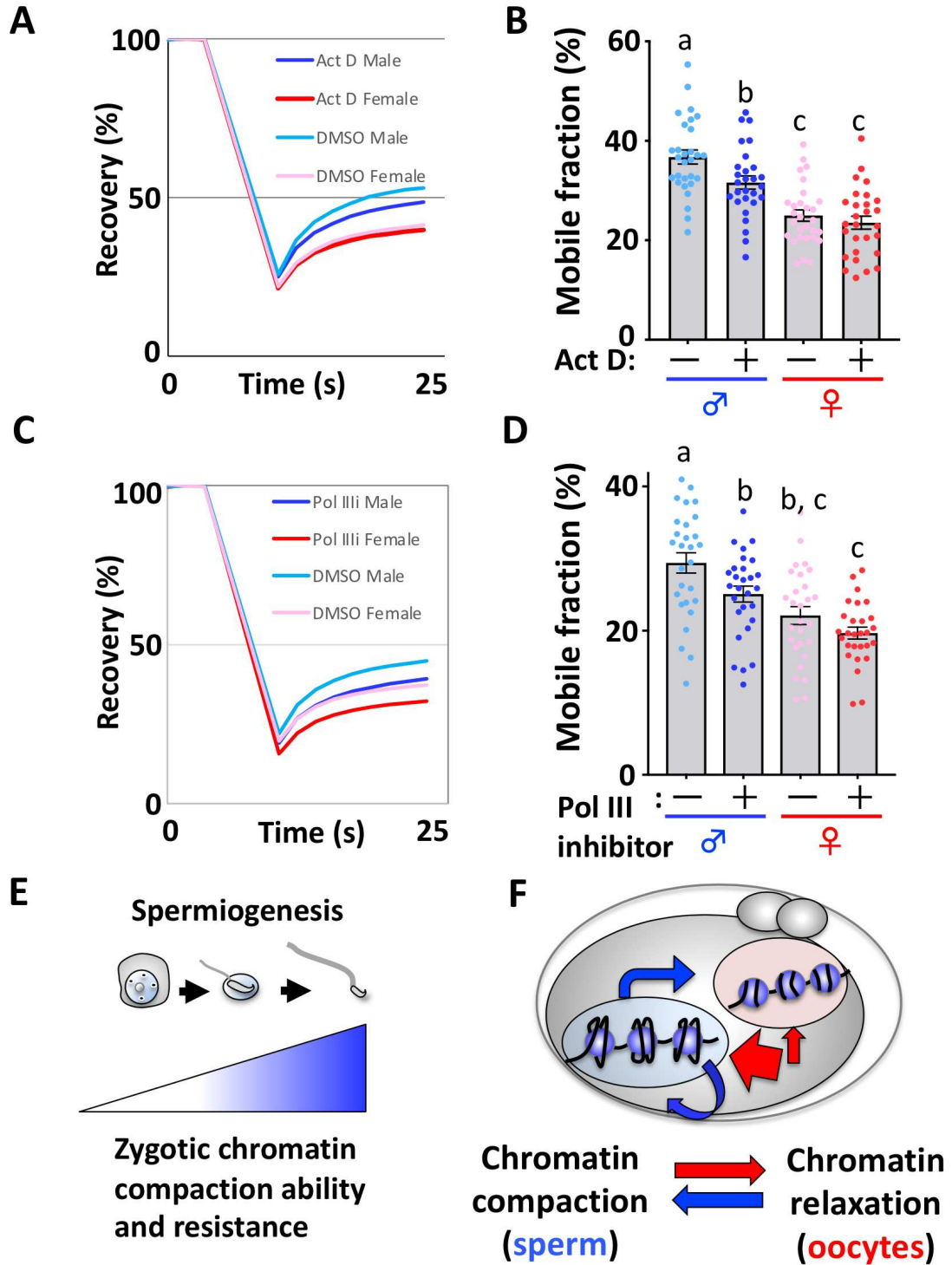
244

245 ***More chromatin relaxer was utilized in sp-mPN than fPN.***

246 Finally, three types of RNA polymerase inhibitors (i.e., actinomycin D (“Act
247 D”; Pol I inhibitor), alpha-amanitin (“Ama”; Pol II inhibitor), and Pol III inhibitor (Pol

248 Illi) were employed to determine whether chromatin relaxation factors are produced by
249 zygotic transcription. Ams slightly, but not significantly, increased the extent of
250 chromatin relaxation (**Fig. S12**), indicating that the chromatin relaxation factors were not
251 derived from Pol II-transcribed mRNA. However, both Act D (**Fig. 3A and B**) and Pol
252 Illi (**Fig. 3C and D**) caused significant compaction of the chromatin in the only sp-mPN.
253 Thus, relaxation of the chromatin of the sp-mPN was more sensitive to these inhibitors
254 than that of the fPN, suggesting that more chromatin relaxation factors were utilized there
255 in sp-mPN. Furthermore, since Pol I and III produce RNA that is involved in translation,
256 it is possible that chromatin relaxation factors are proteins, such as H1foo (Funaya et al.,
257 2018), presumably also supplied by zygotic translation of maternally stored mRNA.
258
259

Fig. 3



260

261 Fig. 3. More chromatin relaxer was utilized in sp-mPN than fPN

262 (A) Recovery curve of IVF zygotes treated with 0.1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ Act D. Control zygotes were
263 treated with 1% dimethyl sulfoxide (DMSO). (B) Average MF scores of IVF zygotes
264 treated with Act D and DMSO. (C) Recovery curve of IVF-zygotes treated with 20 μM
265 Pol IIIi. Control zygotes were treated with 0.1% DMSO. (D) Average MF scores of IVF
266 zygotes treated with Pol IIIi and 0.1% DMSO. (E) Schematic illustration indicating that
267 male germ cells acquire the ability to compact chromatin and resistance during
268 spermiogenesis. (F) In the zygotes, the sperm-derived chromatin compaction effect and
269 oocyte-derived chromatin relaxation factors are antagonistic. Probably, more chromatin
270 relaxation factors caused a more relaxed state and conferred resistance to chromatin
271 compaction in the sp-mPN.
272

273 **Discussion**

274 In this study, the mechanisms underlying asymmetric relaxation of the parental
275 chromatin were investigated, which revealed that sperm have the ability to compact the
276 chromatin of both parental PNs (**Fig. 1A–H**). Interestingly, the abilities to promote and
277 resist chromatin compaction are acquired during spermiogenesis (**Fig. 1I, J and 3E**). In
278 addition to the ability to compact chromatin, zygotes also harbor factors that promote
279 chromatin relaxation, which the parental PNs compete for (**Fig. 2A–G**) and are
280 presumably dependent on zygotic translation of maternally pooled mRNA (**Fig. 3A–D**).
281 Thus, asymmetrically relaxed chromatin of the zygote is established via the mature male
282 and female germ cells (**Fig. 3F**), and is possibly determined by a balance between them.
283 Hereafter, this power balance is referred to as “parental epigenetic competition.”

284 In 1PN-ICSI zygotes, the sp-mPN demonstrated less chromatin relaxation than
285 that of the 1PN-ROSI and spindle-transferred haploid-parthenogenetically activated
286 oocytes (**Fig. 1F and S3**). This result indicated that sperm actively condense the
287 chromatin structure. In **Fig. 1I and S6**, although NaOH-treated inactivated sperm lost the
288 ability to activate the oocyte, the ability to compact the chromatin was retained, indicating
289 that the unidentified sperm-derived chromatin condensing factors are not associated with
290 the sperm surface. A recent broadly accepted theory states that sperm are more than mere
291 vehicles to carry the paternal haploid genome into the oocyte. Indeed, sperm carried huge
292 kinds of RNA into oocytes at fertilization. several studies showed during epididymal
293 transit from testis to cauda epididymis, sperm obtained small RNA payload (Sharma
294 2019; Trigg et al., 2019). Since tICSI-zygotes, which have no such RNA payload, exhibit
295 asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin, the RNA payload of the mature sperm
296 might not be involved in compaction of the zygotic chromatin. However, the possibility

297 that sperm RNA is involved in compaction of the chromatin compaction must still be
298 considered. Reportedly, sperm RNA is deeply embedded in the sperm head (Yan et al.,
299 2008). Such RNA is not easy to extract and NaOH treatment did not completely dissolve
300 the sperm head, indicating that the RNA was not eliminated (Schuster et al., 2016). In
301 addition to the embedded RNA, proteins are possibly the responsible factors. Following
302 the initiation of spermiogenesis, during which there is no transcription, specific stored
303 RNAs were translated to proteins (Rathke et al., 2014). Since our results indicated that
304 the ability of sperm to compact chromatin is acquired after the initiation of
305 spermiogenesis, it is also possible that newly synthesized proteins at this phase are
306 responsible for chromatin compaction. To understand the importance and mechanisms of
307 parental epigenetic competition, further studies are needed to test this hypothesis and to
308 identify the RNA and/or protein molecules responsible for zygotic chromatin compaction.

309 It is possible that there are differences in the dynamics of PN formation
310 involved in the regulation of parental epigenetic competition. The establishment of the
311 chromatin structure of the sp-mPN is very distinct from that of the fPN. Within 1 h after
312 fertilization, maternally pooled histone proteins are rapidly incorporated into the sp-mPN,
313 resulting in the sperm head becoming decondensed and expanded ²¹. On the other hand,
314 at this phase, maternal genetic materials still form completely condensed meiotic
315 chromosomes, which are located in the cytoplasm or the going to be extruded second
316 polar body (**Fig. 2F**; Ooga et al., 2008). Also, it is widely thought that the transcription
317 factors and chromatin remodeling factors dissociate from the condensed chromosomes
318 and are re-recruited to the re-organized chromatin structure after chromosome
319 segregation ²³. Therefore, it is likely that maternal factors were first taken up by the sp-
320 mPN and then later by the fPN. In 1 h-delayed-ICSI-zygotes, the asymmetric relaxation

321 of the parental chromatin structure was reversed (**Fig. 2G and S11**). This experiment was
322 designed to collapse the competition for the maternally supplied factors from the ooplasm
323 and resulted in reversal of the parental asymmetry. Thus, it is possible that more
324 maternally pooled or newly produced zygotic factors were incorporated into the sp-mPN
325 than the fPN in normally fertilized zygotes. Indeed, more reprogramming factors that
326 confer totipotency to the somatic cell nuclei are reportedly incorporated into the sp-mPN
327 than the fPN (Liu et al., 2014). Accordingly, it is plausible that more maternally supplied
328 chromatin relaxation factors could be incorporated into the sp-mPN than the fPN,
329 resulting in asymmetric relaxation of the parental chromatin.

330 Round spermatids do not harbor the ability to compact the chromatin (**Fig. 1F**
331 **and S3**). Moreover, when compared, in 1PN-zygotes, rs-mPNs and fPNs, which are
332 derived from transferred meiotic spindles, exhibited the same level of chromatin
333 relaxation. However, there was significant asymmetric relaxation of the parental
334 chromatin in ROSI-zygotes (**Fig. 1I, S6**). Our ROSI-zygote production strategy employed
335 a “post-activation protocol” (Kishigami et al., 2004a) to improve the rate of 2PN
336 formation (Kishigami et al., 2004b). In this protocol, the oocytes injected with round
337 spermatids were activated within 30 min after ROSI. As a result, the round spermatid
338 genome was able to avoid premature chromatin condensation followed by extrusion of
339 the pseudo polar body. Thus, chromosome condensation and incorporation of maternal
340 factor did not seem to be equal between the rs-mPN and fPN, suggesting the possibility
341 that the rs-mPN harbored more chromatin relaxation factors than the fPN (**Fig. S13**).
342 Collectively, these findings suggest that it is probable that the differences in dynamics
343 during PN formation contribute to the parental epigenetic competition.

344 The results of this study indicated that the sperm or sp-mPN exerted chromatin
345 compaction effects in both parental PNs. This finding raises the question of the biological
346 significance of zygotic chromatin compaction by sperm. Bui et al. reported that sperm
347 have the ability to regulate transcriptional activity (Bui et al., 2011). Thus, sperm play an
348 important role in the regulation of zygotic genome activation (ZGA). Chromatin
349 compaction by sperm might be involved in regulation of ZGA. It was thought that
350 promiscuous transcription occurs during minor ZGA and correlates with extensive
351 chromatin relaxation by FRAP (Abe et al., 2018). Our results demonstrated that sperm-
352 derived chromatin compaction factors condense the paternal chromatin structure in the
353 sp-mPN and then the extent of chromatin relaxation becomes comparable to that of the
354 rs-mPN, indicating that in the absence of sperm-derived chromatin condensing factors,
355 the paternal chromatin structure derived from the sperm should be extremely relaxed.
356 Then, it is possible that such an extreme chromatin structure will cause abnormalities to
357 the transcriptome during ZGA. To assess this possibility, the chromatin compaction
358 factors must be identified with the use of a knockdown/knockout experimental system,
359 which was not possible in the current study.

360 We also observed abnormal chromatin relaxation in the ROSI-zygotes.
361 Therefore, it would be beneficial to analyze the transcriptome of ROSI-derived embryos
362 to understand biological role of chromatin relaxation. The results of this study confirmed
363 that that sperm actively participate in the regulation of asymmetric relaxation of the
364 parental chromatin structure. However, the reason why the chromatin of the mPN is more
365 relaxed than that of the fPN remains unclear. Hence, comparative analysis with RNA-seq
366 of control- and 1 h-delay-ICSI-zygotes is warranted. Nonetheless, further investigations
367 are needed to understand the significance of parental epigenetic competition.

368 **Materials and methods**

369

370 *Animals*

371 Eight to 12-week-old female B6D2F1 (C57BL/6 × DBA2) (n = 102) and 10–
372 14-week-old male ICR (n = 42) mice (SLC, Shizuoka, Japan) were used as oocyte and
373 spermatozoa donors, respectively. All animal experiments were approved by the Ethics
374 Committee of the University of Yamanashi (reference number: A29-24) and conducted
375 in accordance with Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and the ARRIVE
376 guidelines. All mice were housed under specific pathogen-free conditions at a constant
377 temperature of 25°C, relative humidity of 50%, and a 14/10-h light/dark period with ad
378 libitum access to a commercial diet and distilled water. In this study, body weight was not
379 measured because the body weight of young mice has no effect on embryo quality.

380

381 *ICSI and ROSI*

382 Obtained cumulus cells and oocyte complexes were treated with hyaluronidase
383 for 10 min and the denuded oocytes were collected. For ICSI, spermatozoa were obtained
384 from the cauda epididymis and then cultured in human tubal fluid²⁷ for capacitation. Prior
385 to cytosolic injection of the denuded oocytes, the sperm tails were eliminated with a Piezo
386 drive micromanipulator (Prime Tech Ltd., Ibaraki, Japan) in CZB-HEPES medium
387 supplemented with 10% PVP (10% PVP-CZB-HEPES) (Chatot et al., 1990). The zona
388 pellucida and cytosolic membranes were also disrupted with a Piezo drive
389 micromanipulator. For ROSI, ELSI, and testicular ICSI, the harvested testes were minced
390 with scissors, sieved through a Mini Cell Strainer, and then re-suspended in 10% PVP-
391 CZB-HEPES. The nucleus of each round spermatid was collected with a narrow pipette

392 with a diameter of 7–8 μm . The zona pellucida and cytosolic membrane were disrupted
393 in the same manner as for ICSI. The oocytes injected with round spermatid were activated
394 by culturing in Ca^{2+} -free CZB medium containing 5 mM SrCl_2 for 1–2 h. The tails of the
395 testicular sperm were also cut with a Piezo drive micromanipulator as with ICSI.

396

397 *Enucleation and injection of the nuclei of oocytes*

398 Freshly collected oocytes were transferred into 5 $\mu\text{g}/\mu\text{l}$ of cytochalasin B (CB)
399 containing HEPES-buffered CZB. After 10 min, the nuclei were aspirated with a glass
400 capillary tube (Wakayama et al., 2019). After enucleation, the ooplasm was washed and
401 cultured in CZB until micro-insemination. In some experiments, the aspirated nuclei were
402 injected into enucleated ooplasm or un-enucleated MII oocytes in CB containing
403 HEPES-buffered CZB (Konno et al., 2020).

404

405 *Enucleation of male PN*

406 Before enucleation, the zygotes with two PNs at 7 hpi were cultured in KSOM
407 (Lawitts et al., 1993) containing CB for 20 min. The zygotes were then transferred into
408 CB containing HEPES-buffered CZB. The larger PN and furthest away from the second
409 polar body was deemed the mPN, which was aspirated from the zygote. The enucleated
410 zygotes were washed and cultured in KSOM.

411

412 *Delay ICSI*

413 Collected oocytes were subjected to parthenogenetic activation in Ca^{2+} -free
414 CZB medium containing 5 mM SrCl_2 . After 1 h, the activated oocytes with extruding
415 second polar bodies were collected for micro-insemination with capacitated spermatozoa.

416 At 2 h after activation, the zygotes with an obvious extruded second polar body were used
417 for micro-insemination.

418

419 *In vitro fertilization*

420 Spermatozoa were obtained from ICR mice. For capacitation, the spermatozoa
421 were cultured for 1 h before insemination. Cumulus cells and oocyte complexes were
422 obtained from super-ovulated BDF1 female mice by injection of 7.5 IU of equine
423 chorionic gonadotropin (ASKA Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd., Tokyo, Japan) and human
424 chorionic gonadotropin (ASKA Pharmaceutical) at 46–50-h intervals. Cumulus cells and
425 oocyte complexes were inseminated with capacitated sperm in human tubal fluid medium
426 supplemented with bovine serum albumin (BSA; Sigma-Aldrich Corporation, St. Louis,
427 MO, USA) at 3 mg/ml. At 1-2 h post-insemination, the zygotes were washed and cultured
428 in KSOM medium under humidified atmosphere of 5% CO₂/95% air at 38°C.

429

430 *Synthesis of mRNA*

431 The plasmid “pTOPO eGFP-H2B” (Ooga et al., 2016) encoding enhanced
432 green fluorescent protein (eGFP)-fused histone H2B was linearized by *Not1* overnight.
433 Afterward, the plasmid was purified with phenol/chloroform and then precipitated with
434 ethanol. Purified DNA was dissolved in nuclease-free water as template DNA for
435 subsequent in vitro transcription with using mMESSAGE MACHINE sp6 kit (Thermo
436 Fisher Scientific, MA, USA). Synthesized mRNA was then processed with a poly A
437 tailing kit (Thermo Fisher Scientific). The mRNA with a poly A tail was purified and
438 precipitated with lithium chloride precipitation solution, dissolved, and stored at 500
439 ng/μl and –80°C until use.

440

441 *Zygotic fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (zFRAP) analysis*

442 mRNA encoding eGFP-H2B (250 ng/μl) was prepared as shown above and
443 injected into the cytoplasm of unfertilized MII oocytes or zygotes at 1–2 h after
444 insemination. mRNA-injected MII oocytes were then micro-inseminated with a round
445 spermatid, elongated spermatid, or spermatozoa. At 8 h post-insemination or -activation,
446 the zygotes were collected for zFRAP analysis, which was performed as described
447 previously (Ooga and Wakayama 2017; Ooga et al., 2018a), and observed under a
448 confocal microscope (FV1200; Olympus Corporation, Tokyo, Japan). The mobile
449 fraction was assessed as described in our previous study.

450

451 *Immuno-staining*

452 After zFRAP analysis and observation, the zygotes were fixed with 4%
453 paraformaldehyde containing 0.2% Triton X-100 for 20 min. After washing three times
454 with PBS containing 1% BSA and 0.2% Tween 20, the zygotes were incubated with
455 primary antibodies against H3K9me3 (ab8898; Abcam, Cambridge, MA, USA) diluted
456 in PBS containing 1% BSA and 0.1% Triton X-100 at 4°C overnight. After washing three
457 times with PBS containing 1% BSA and 0.2% Tween 20, the zygotes were incubated with
458 a secondary antibody (Alexa 568 conjugated anti rabbit IgG mouse IgG). The stained
459 zygotes were mounted on PBS containing 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole.

460

461 *Statistical analysis*

462 All statistical analyses were performed using Prism 9 software (GraphPad
463 Software, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) with one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA)

464 followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons test or the paired *t*-test (for parental
465 asymmetry analysis). A probability (*p*) value of <0.05 was considered statistically
466 significant.

467

468

469 **Competing interest statement**

470 The authors have no competing interests to declare.

471

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479

480 **Author contributions.**

481 M.O and T.W conceived and designed this study. M.O. performed most of the
482 experiments and R.I., S.W. and S.K. performed some of the experiments. M.O., R.I.,
483 S.W., S.K., and T.W. analyzed all data. M.O. and T.W. wrote the manuscript. All
484 authors read and edited the manuscript.

485

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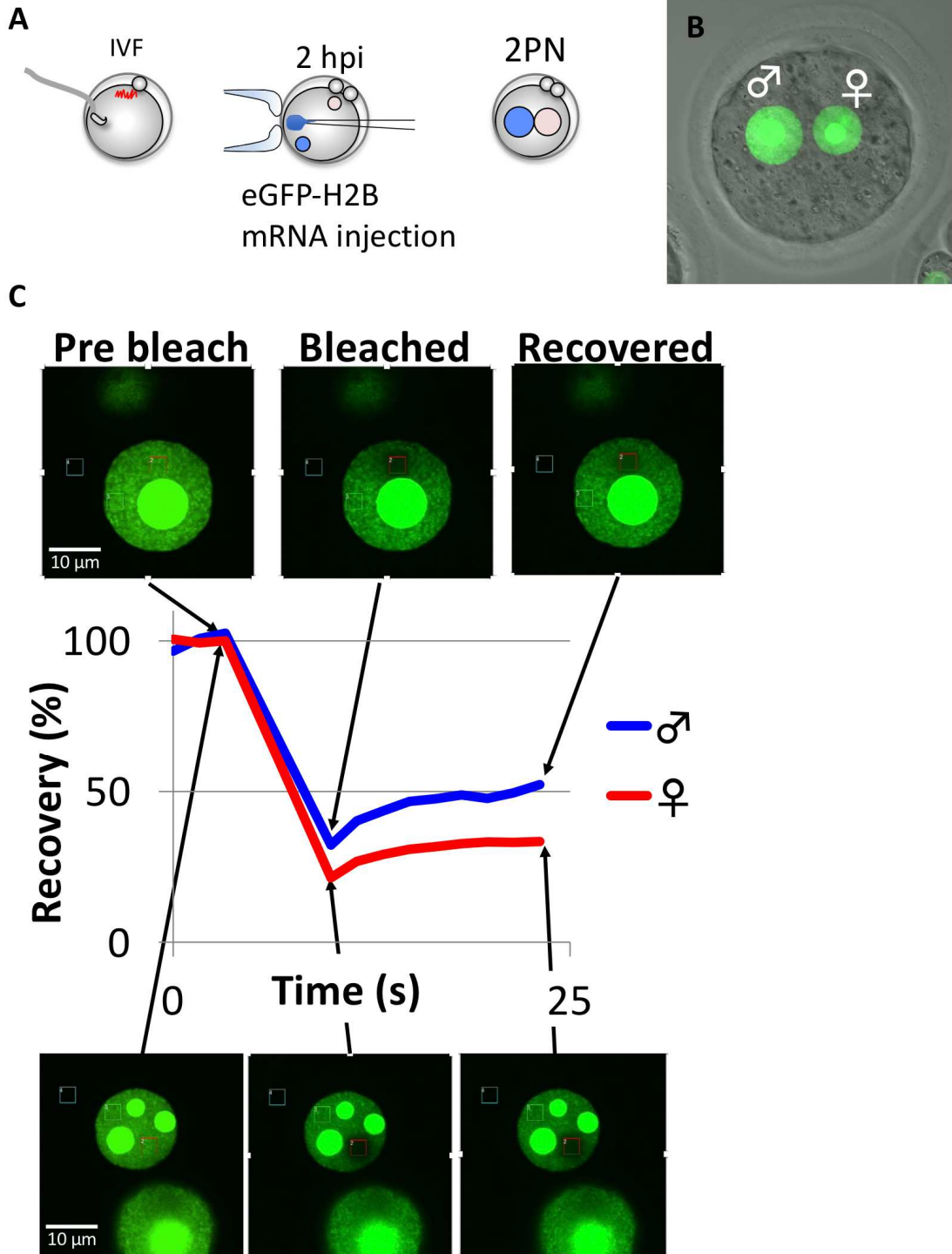
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574 development. *J. Vis. Exp.*, (2018).
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- 577

Supplemental Fig. 1



579

580 Supplemental Fig. 1

581 *zFRAP analysis*

582 (A) In our previous study, IVF-derived zygotes were microinjected with mRNA at 2 hpi.

583 (B) At 8 hpi, parental PNs were easily distinguished by size, as a male PN is larger than

584 a female PN. Sufficient expression of eGFP-H2B was confirmed. (C) For zFRAP analysis,

585 a specific region of interest (ROI) in the PNs was selected and bleached. Red rectangle

586 indicates bleached ROI, green is reference, and light blue is background. Compared to

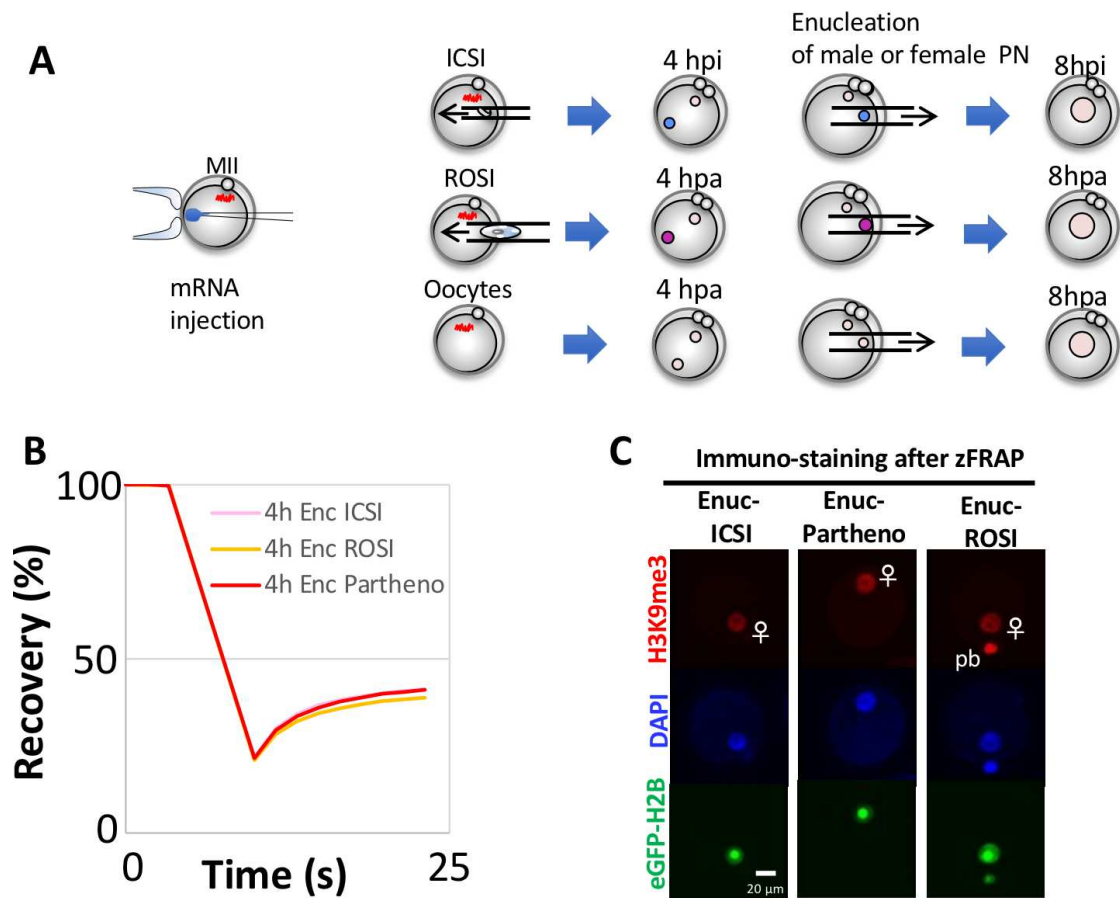
587 pre-bleaching, the fluorescence level drastically decreased after bleaching and then

588 gradually recovered. Male PNs always exhibited greater fluorescence than the female

589 PNs. Fluorescence levels at several points were plotted as a “recovery curve.”

590

Supplemental Fig. 2



591

592 **Supplemental Fig. 2**

593 *Dependency of chromatin compaction of fPN on sp-mPN*

594 (A) Illustration of the preparation of mPN-enucleated partheno-zygotes at 4 hpi (B)

595 Recovery curve of mPN-enucleated partheno-zygotes. (C) In order to confirm correct PN

596 selection, after zFRAP analysis, the zygotes were subjected immuno-staining of

597 H3K9me3, as a fPN marker.

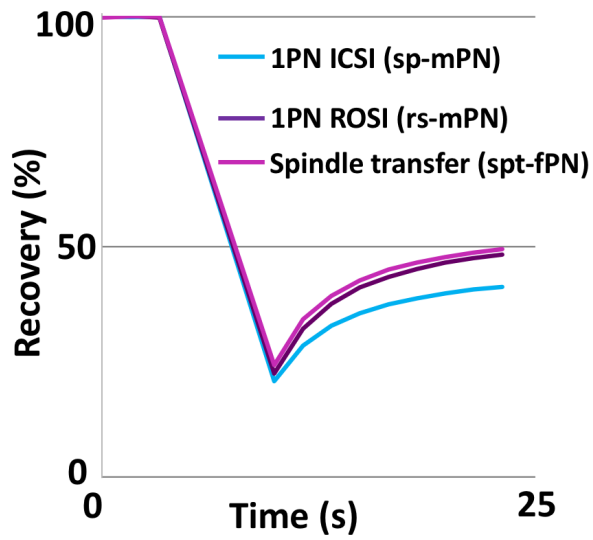
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Supplemental Fig. 3



602

603 **Supplemental Fig. 3**

604 *Sperm-derived chromatin compaction ability functions to sp-mPN itself.*

605 Recovery curve of 1PN-zygotes. 1PN ICSI have only sp-mPN (sperm-derived mPN),

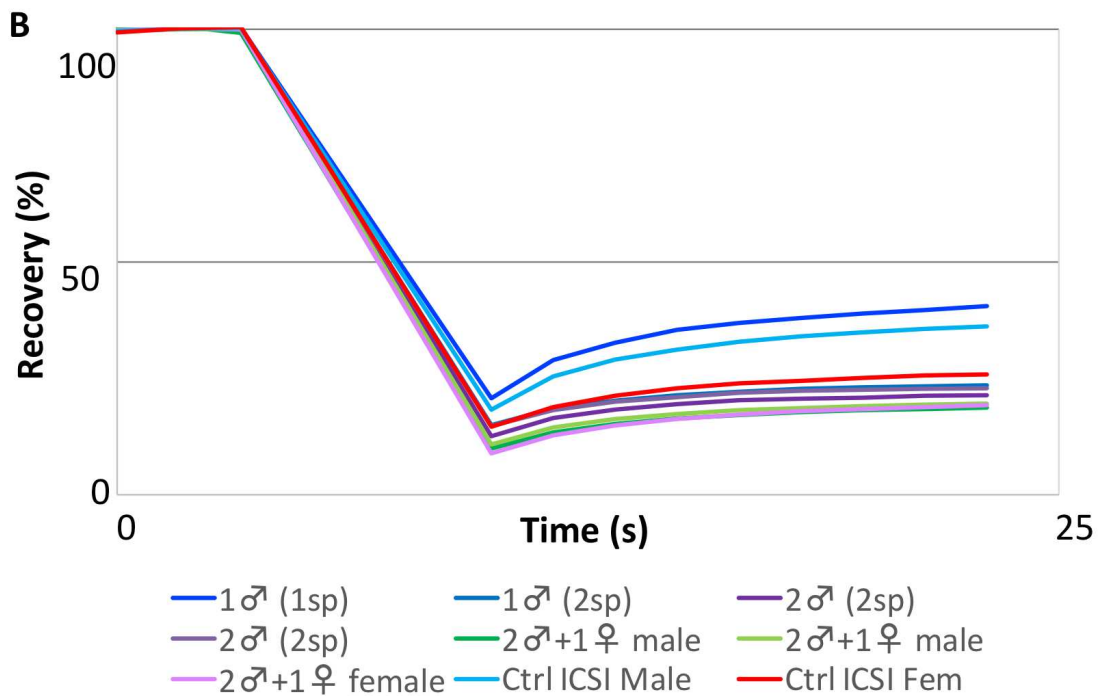
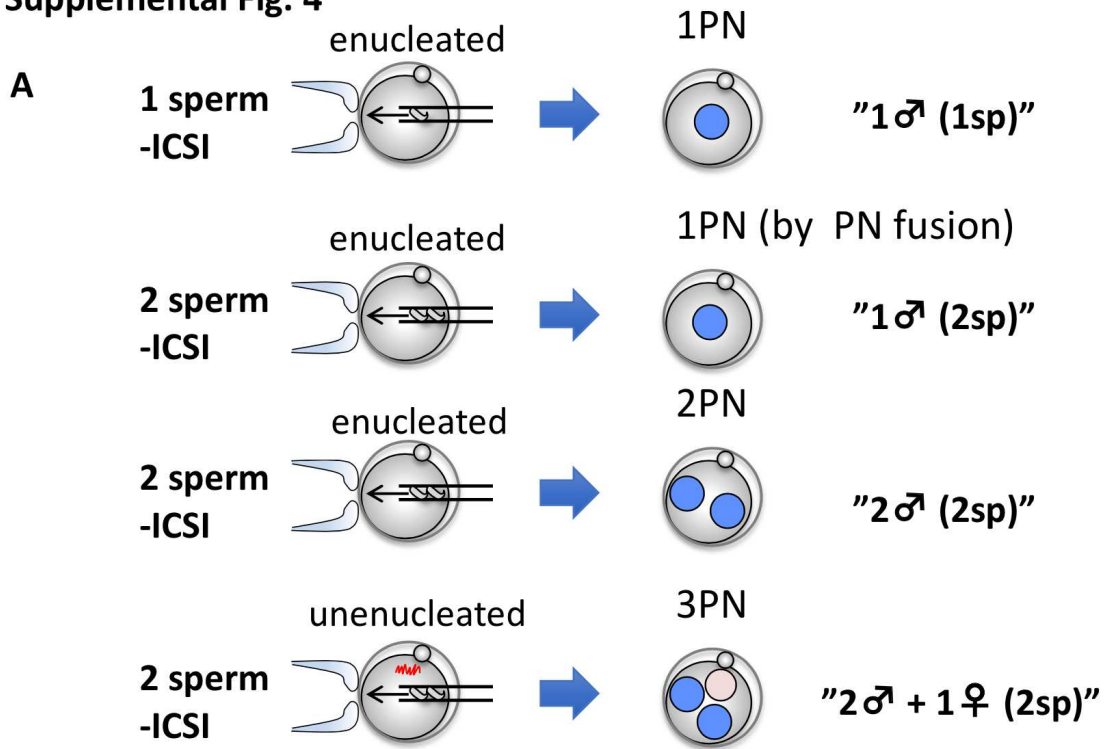
606 1PN ROSI have only rs-mPN (round spermatid-derived mPN), and spindle transfer have

607 only spt-fPN (spindle transfer-derived fPN).

608

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Supplemental Fig. 4



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611 Supplemental Fig. 4

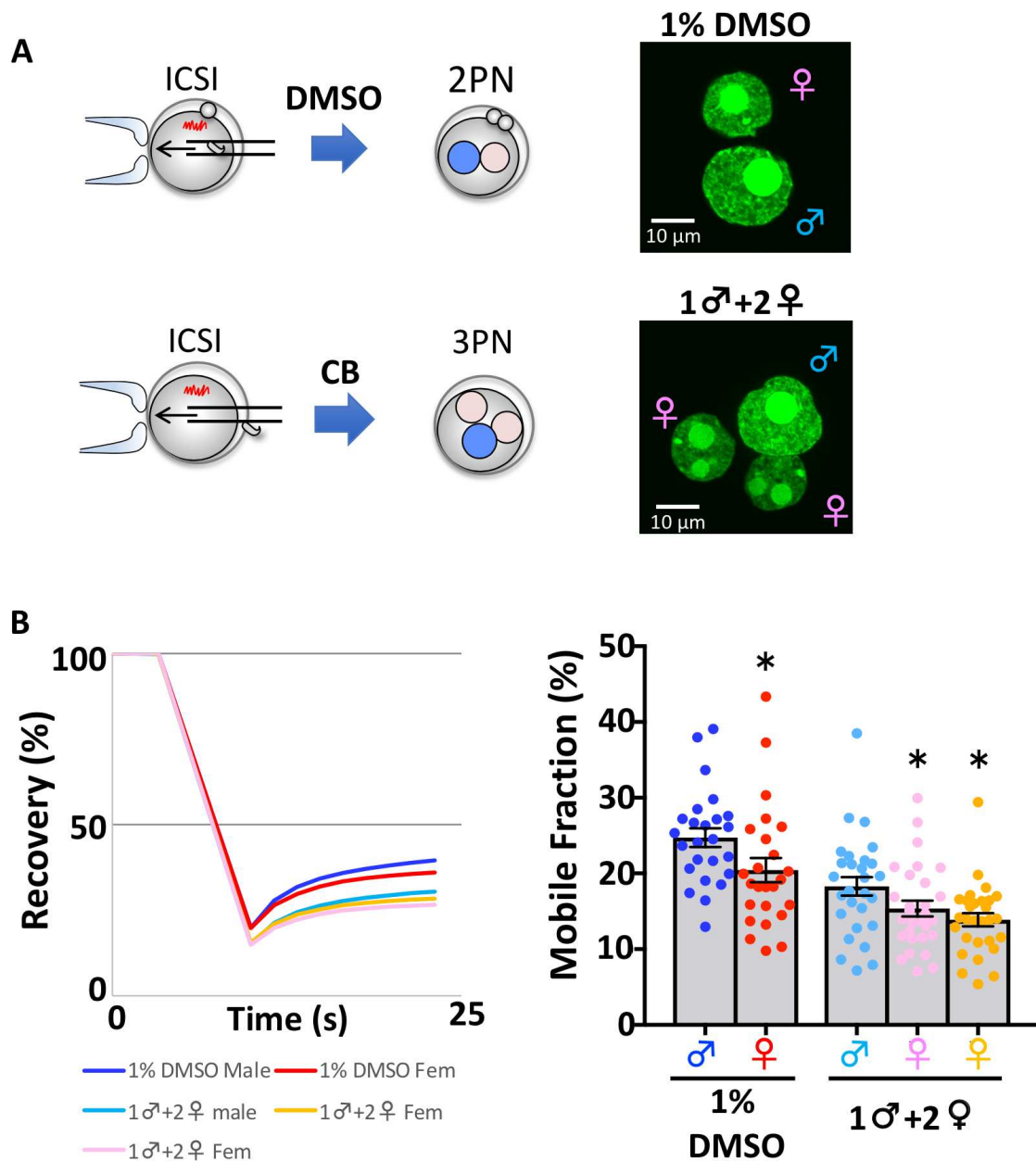
612 *Chromatin compaction is dependent on the number of microinjected sperm*

613 (A) Schematic illustration of the preparation of zygotes of “1 ♂ (1sp),” “1 ♂ (2sp),” “2 ♂
614 (2sp)” and “2 ♂ + 1 ♀ (2sp).” One or two sperm were microinjected into enucleated or
615 un-enucleated MII oocytes. “1 ♂ (1sp)” indicates that one sperm was injected, which
616 resulted in the formation of a single sp-mPN. (B) Recovery curves of ICSI-zygotes
617 microinjected with one or two sperm.

618

619

Supplemental Fig. 5



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621 Supplemental Fig. 5

622 *Increases of fPN did not disrupt parental asymmetric pattern.*

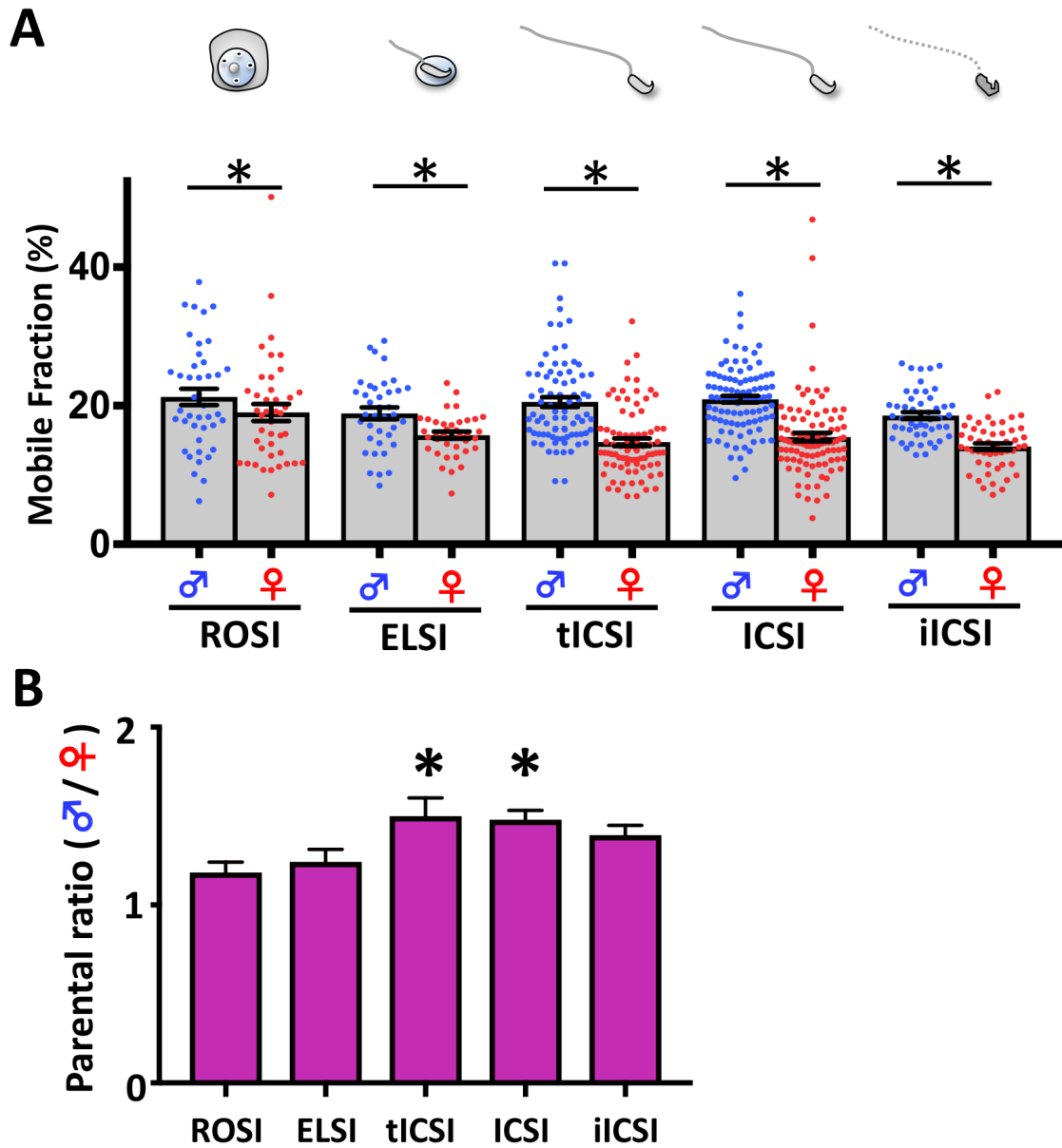
623 (A) Schematic illustration of the preparation of zygotes of “1♂ + 2♀.” CB is an inhibitor

624 of cytokinesis, which increases the fPN in the treated zygotes. Fluorescence images of

625 the zygotes are shown. Two fPNs are shown. (B) Recovery curve and average MF scores

626 of “1 ♂ + 2 ♀” and control zygotes are shown. Blue, red, light blue, pink, and orange dots
627 are MF scores of sp-mPN, fPN in control zygotes, and sp-mPN and two fPNs in CB
628 treated-zygotes, respectively.
629
630

Supplemental Fig. 6



631

632 Supplemental Fig. 6

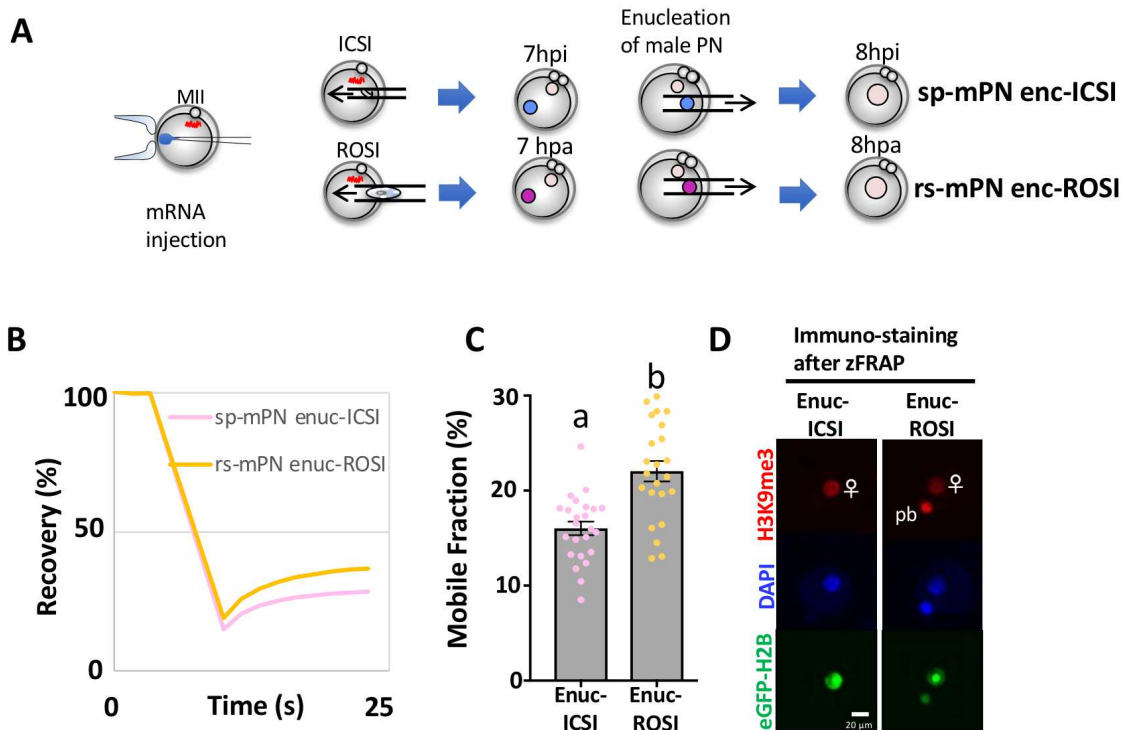
633 Male germ cells acquired the ability to compact chromatin and resistance during
634 spermiogenesis

635 (A) zFRAP analysis with ROSI, ELSI, tICSI, ICSI, and ICSI with inactivated sperm

636 (iICSI) was performed. The average MF scores of the zygotes are shown. Blue and red

637 dots are the MF scores of the mPN and fPN, respectively. **(B)** Bar graph of the average
638 MF score of the mPN/fPN ratio. The asterisks indicate significant differences as
639 compared with ROSI by one-way ANOVA followed by Tukey's multiple comparisons
640 test.
641
642

Supplemental Fig. 7



643

644 **Supplemental Fig. 7**

645 *Round spermatid did not harbor chromatin compaction ability*

646 (A) Schematic illustration of the preparation of ICSI- and ROSI-zygotes without mPN.

647 (B) Recovery curve of mPN-enucleated ICSI-(sp-mPN enc-ICSI) and ROSI(rs-mPN

648 enc-ROSI)-zygotes. (C) The average MF scores are shown. Pink and orange dots

649 indicate the MF score of each fPN of the zygotes. (D) Immuno-staining of H3K9me3 in

650 zygotes after zFRAP analysis. H3K9me3 signals indicating correct discrimination of

651 parental PN during the enucleation process.

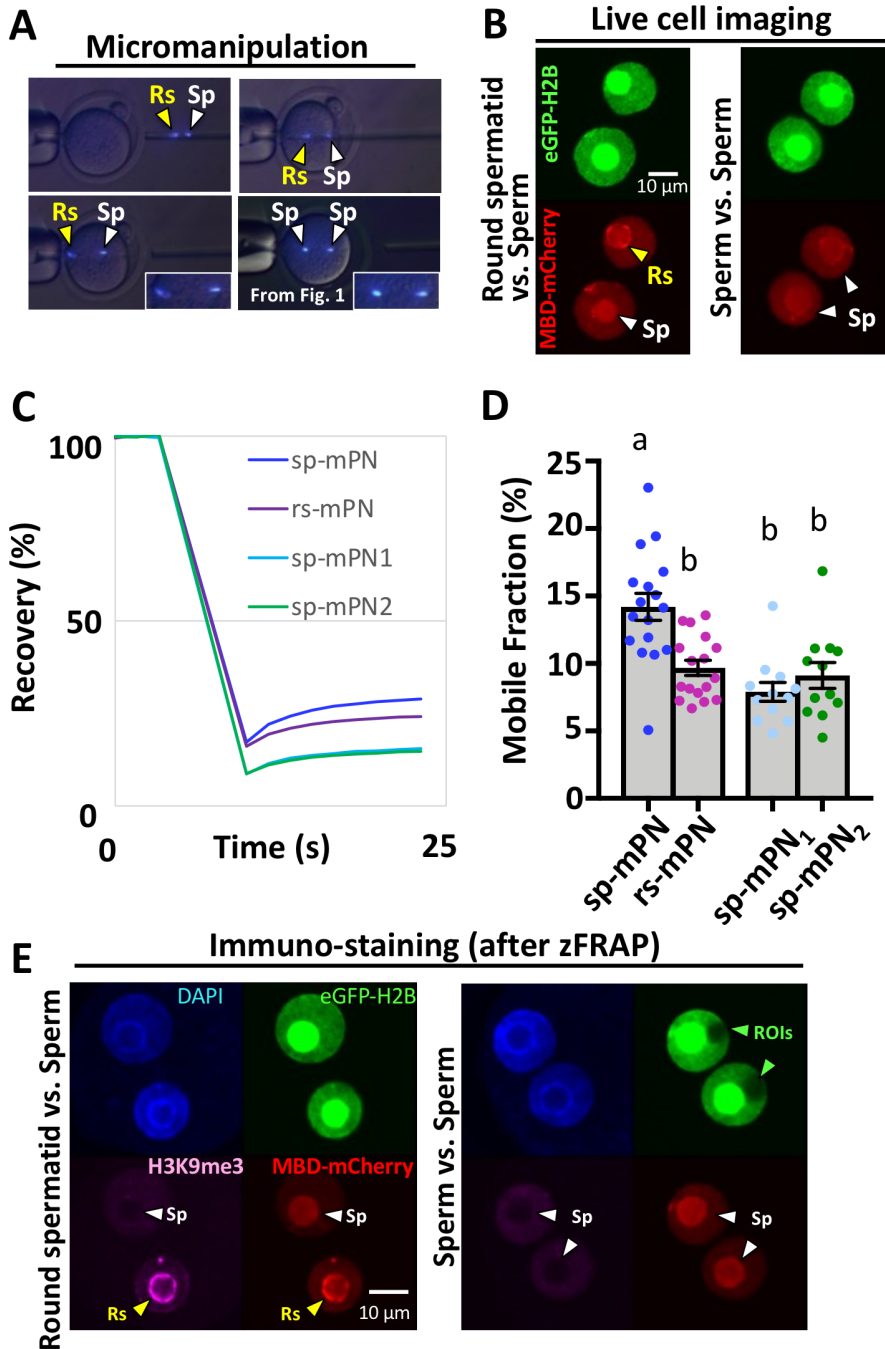
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Supplemental Fig. 8



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657 Supplemental Fig. 8

658 *Round spermatids were not resistant to the chromatin compaction effect of sperm*

659 (A) “Sperm head and round spermatid” or “sperm head and sperm head” were co-injected

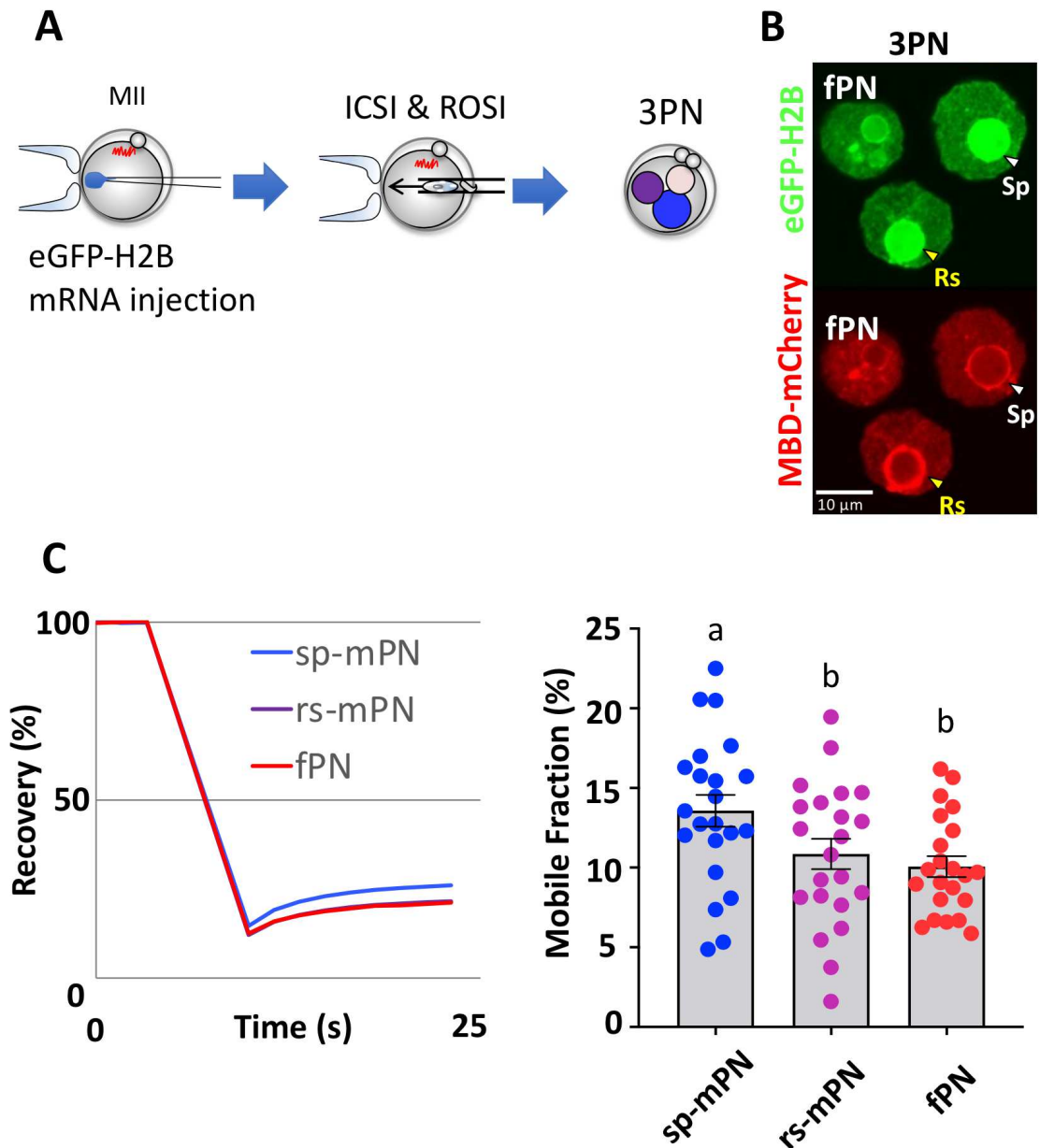
660 into the enucleated oocytes at the same time. Yellow “Rs” and white “Sp” indicate round

661 spermatid and sperm, respectively. The insets are images at higher magnification. DNA
662 was stained with Hoechst. **(B)** MBD-mCherry expression in the live zygotes during
663 zFRAP analysis. Upper panel is eGFP-H2B expression. Lower red panel indicates MBD-
664 mCherry expression. Triangle indicates the perinucleolar ring where MBD-mCherry was
665 enriched in male PNs derived from round spermatid but not sperm. **(C)** Recovery curve
666 indicating the average fluorescence recovery rate. sp-mPN, rs-mPN, sp-mPN#1, and sp-
667 mPN#2 indicate the score of male PN derived from round spermatid and spermatozoa,
668 and co-injected spermatozoon, respectively. **(D)** MF scores of 2PN androgenic zygotes
669 are shown. Gray bar graph of average MF values. Single dots indicate the mobile fraction
670 score obtained from either mPN derived from round spermatid or sperm. Different
671 characters indicate significant differences ($p < 0.05$, by one-way ANOVA and Tukey's
672 multi comparisons test). Error bar indicates the SE.

673 **(E)** Immunocytochemical analysis with antibody against H3K9me3. To confirm
674 discrimination of the derivation of male PNs using MBD-mCherry, since the marker for
675 male PN derived from round spermatid, H3K9me3, was stained. Purple indicates immuno-
676 staining of H3K9me3, which only male PNs derived from round spermatid showed.
677 Green triangle indicates the ROIs that were bleached during zFRAP analysis.

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Supplemental Fig. 9



685

686 Supplemental Fig. 9

687 Chromatin derived from round spermatid could be condensed to the same level as fPN

688 (A) Schematic illustration of the preparation of zygotes with sp-mPN, rs-mPN, and fPN.

689 Sperm and round spermatids were co-injected into un-enucleated MII oocytes. (B)

690 Fluorescence image of zygotes harboring the 3PN. MBD-mCherry showed preferential

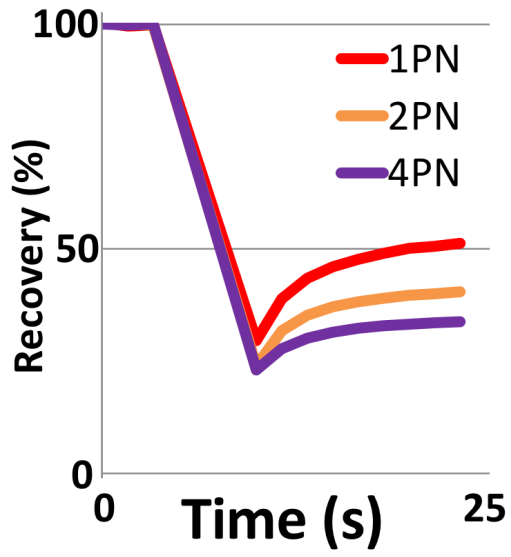
691 localization to the nucleolar ring of rs-mPN to distinguish the derivation of mPNs. (C),

692 (D) Recovery curve and MF scores of sp-mPN, rs-mPN, and fPN in 3PN-zygotes.

693

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Supplemental Fig. 10



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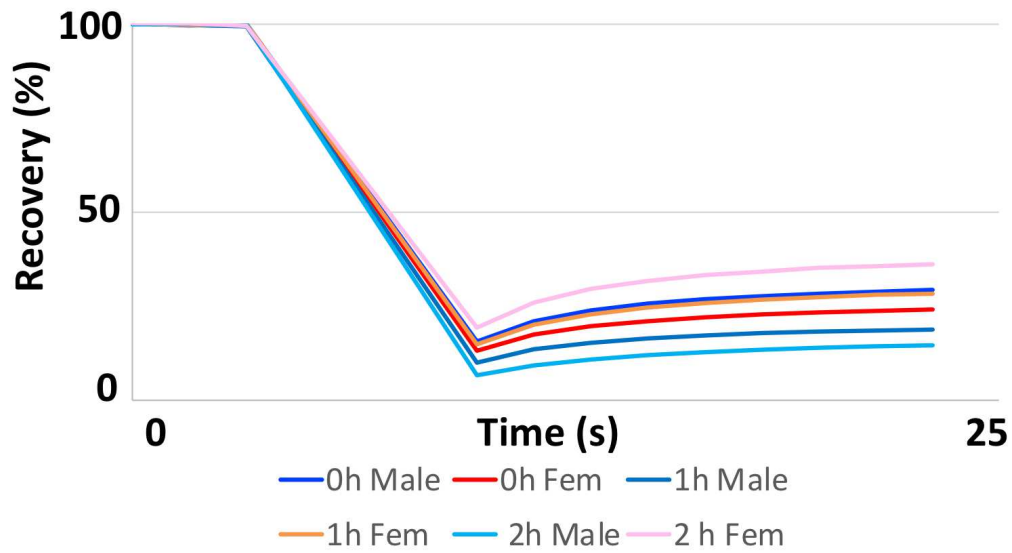
696 Supplemental Fig. 10

697 Recovery curve of 1, 2, and 4PN parthenogenetic zygotes.

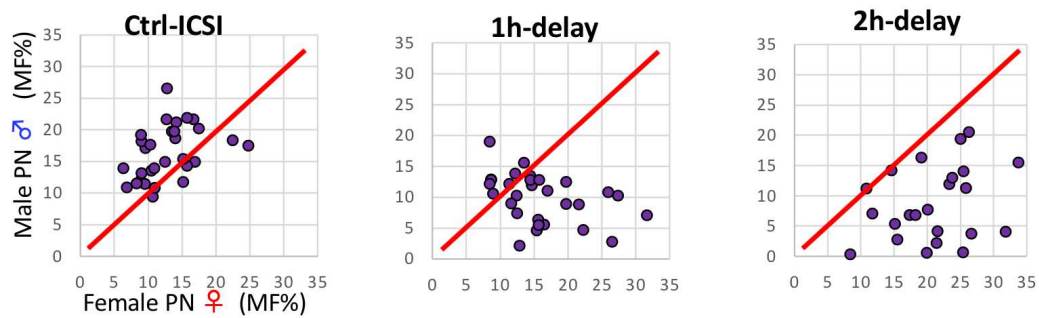
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Supplemental Fig. 11

A



B



699

700 **Supplemental Fig. 11**

701 (A) Recovery curve of control and 1, 2 h-delay ICSI zygotes.

702 (B) Purple single dots indicate MF scores of parental individual pronuclei. Red line

703 indicates the $\sigma = \text{♀}$ border line. Left side: $\sigma > \text{♀}$, right side: $\sigma < \text{♀}$.

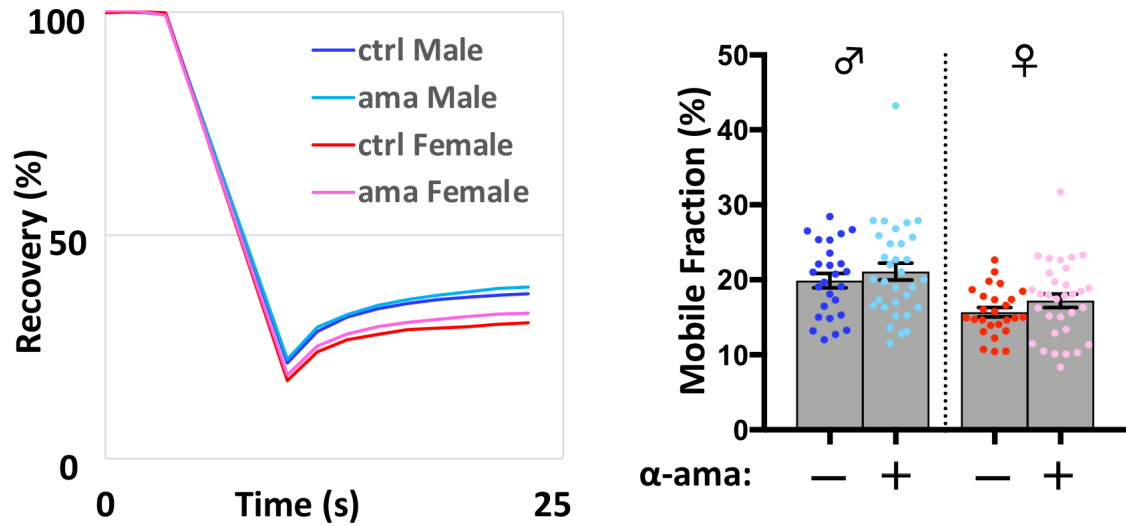
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Supplemental Fig. 12



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709 Supplemental Fig. 12

710 (A) Recovery curve of control and alpha-amanitin (RNA pol II inhibitor, α -ama) treated

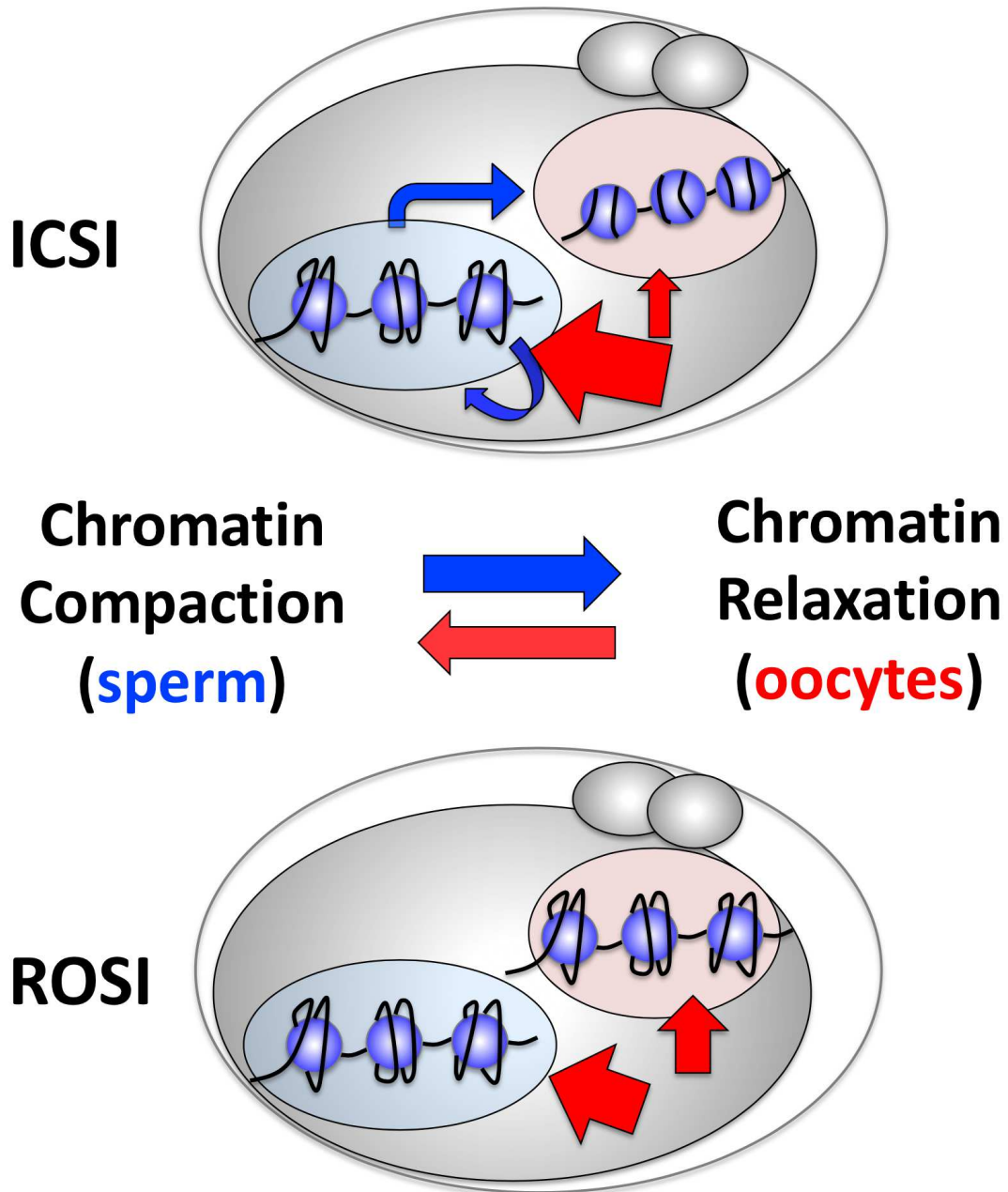
711 IVF-zygotes. Ctrl indicates non-treated zygotes. (B) The MF scores of the zygotes are

712 shown in the bar graph.

713

714

Supplemental Fig. 13



715

716 Supplemental Fig. 13

717 Schematic illustration of the hypothetical model in this study. In ROSI-zygotes, since

718 round spermatids lack the ability to compact chromatin, fPN could avoid chromatin

719 compaction. However, as described in the Discussion section, an rs-mPN may be able to

720 incorporate more maternal factors (including chromatin relaxer) from the cytoplasm,

721 resulting in a slightly more relaxed chromatin structure in an rs-mPN than a fPN.

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