1	In vivo identification and validation of novel potential predictors for human
2	cardiovascular diseases
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12	Running title (40 char): Validating understudied GWAS heart genes
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16	Final character count (with spaces): 19,306

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Abstract Genetics crucially contributes to cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), the global leading cause of death. Since the majority of CVDs can be prevented by early intervention there is a high demand for predictive markers. While genome wide association studies (GWAS) correlate genes and CVDs after diagnosis and provide a valuable resource for such markers, preferentially those with preassigned function are addressed further. To tackle the unaddressed blind spot of understudied genes, we particularly focused on the validation of heart GWAS candidates with little or no apparent connection to cardiac function. Building on the high conservation of basic heart function and underlying genetics from fish to human we combined CRISPR/Cas9 genome editing of the orthologs of human GWAS candidates in isogenic medaka with automated high-throughput heart rate analysis. Our functional analyses of understudied human candidates uncovered a prominent fraction of heart rate associated genes from adult human patients displaying a heart rate effect in embryonic medaka already in the injected generation. Following this pipeline, we identified 16 GWAS candidates with potential diagnostic and predictive power for human CVDs. Keywords: CRISPR / gene validation / GWAS / heart rate / high throughput analysis 2

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Introduction Genetics crucially contributes to the development and progression of cardiovascular diseases (CVDs), the global leading cause of death (Kathiresan & Srivastava 2012; Cambien & Tiret 2007). Elevated resting heart rate in humans has been widely considered as a potential, modifiable risk factor of cardiovascular and all-cause mortality (Beere et al. 1984; DYER et al. 1980; MD et al. 2010; Gillum et al. 1991). Since the majority of CVDs can be prevented by early intervention (McGill et al. 2008) there is a high demand for diagnostic and predictive CVD markers. Genome wide association studies (GWAS) on human patients correlate genes and CVDs after diagnosis and provide a valuable resource for those putative markers (Eicher et al. 2015). However, genes with pre-assigned cardiac functions are usually more likely to be addressed further, while uncharacterized genes or those with no pre-existing evidence to the heart are often neglected. This is likely due to the lack of experimental pipelines for the rapid and robust validation of such markers with implications for heart function. Recently, we demonstrated the power of targeted genome editing in the small animal model system medaka (Oryzias latipes) to validate trabeculation-associated genes (Meyer et al. 2020). The ease of manipulation combined with robust acquisition and analysis pipelines highlight the power of using fish embryos in high-throughput applications (Gierten et al. 3

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2020; Shankaran et al. 2018; Lessman 2011; Oxendine et al. 2006). Embryos of fish model systems undergo extrauterine development in a transparent egg. This allows to monitor heart development and heart rate non-invasively in live undisturbed embryos for an extended period of time. Heart development, function and physiology in fish, though simpler, is comparable to mammals (Nemtsas et al. 2010; Yonekura et al. 2018; Gut et al. 2017). Here we combined targeted genome editing via CRISPR/Cas9 (Stemmer et al. 2015) with automated high-throughput imaging and heart rate analysis in isogenic medaka embryos (Gierten et al. 2020) to enable functional analyses directly in the injected generation. We tested the performance our assay with a positive control (nkx2-5), evaluated the random discovery rate and analyzed 40 heart associated genes identified from human GWAS. Our assay uncovered that 57% of candidates assigned to human heart rate in GWAS also affected heart rate in fish embryos. We have thus experimentally validated understudied human GWAS candidates, identifying 16 genes with potential diagnostic and predictive power for human CVDs. Results For the straight forward functional validation of GWAS candidates we aimed at combining CRISPR/Cas9-mediated targeted gene inactivation in the injected 4

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generation of medaka embryos with high content screening approaches to validate the impact of the loss-of-function on the heart rate (Fig 1A). As a positive control, we used the cardiac-specific homeobox-containing transcription factor NKX2-5. In human patients, a single amino acid mutation in the homeodomain (R141C) was previously associated with atrial septal defect (ASD) and shown to cause delayed heart morphogenesis in adult mice (Zakariyah et al. 2017). To test our high-throughput imaging and heart rate analysis pipeline for functional in vivo gene validation in the injected generation, we targeted the region orthologous to R141C in medaka embryos using the CRISPR/Cas9 system (Stemmer et al. 2015). As a negative control, we targeted the oculocutaneous albinism 2 locus (oca2) (Fukamachi et al. 2004) as a heartunrelated pigmentation gene. The apparent loss of eye pigmentation phenotype (and degree of mosaicism) was used as a measure for the knock-out efficacy (Lischik et al. 2019; Hammouda et al. 2019). Injections into medaka embryos were performed at the 1-cell stage, resulting in CRISPR/Cas9-mediated mutantions exhibiting a degree of genetic mosaicism in the injected embryos hereafter referred to as crispants. To address the impact on the heart rate we raised the medaka crispants until cardiac function was fully developed and the heart rate had reached a plateau at 4 days post fertilization (Gierten et al. 2020) (4 dpf; developmental stage ~31-32 (Iwamatsu 2004)). 5

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To assess changes in mean heart rate with statistical significance, we took advantage of a 96-well plate format, and imaged multiple biological replicates of crispant embryos (3 rows; n=36 per condition) as well as of GFP mRNA mockinjected siblings as internal plate control (2 rows; n=24) (Fig S1A). To assess heart function under different environmental conditions, embryos were imaged at two different temperatures (21 and 28°C, respectively). Heart rates of all embryos were quantitatively determined from the imaging data using the *HeartBeat* software and randomly selected embryos were genotyped to correlate CRISPR/Cas9 targeting (Hammouda et al. 2019). While mock injected embryos did not show phenotypes, crispants of the positive control nkx2-5 displayed a variety thereof. These ranged from global severe developmental delays to local cardiac malformations morphologically resembling the phenotypes previously observed in zebrafish nkx2-5 mutants such as enlarged heart chambers (Fig 1B) (Targoff et al. 2013). Notably, in the negative control (*oca2* crispants) neither cardiac nor developmental phenotypes were observed (Fig 1B), indicating that genome targeting of oca2 as well as injection and handling of the embryos did not impact on heart and general development per se. Quantitative comparison of cardiac function revealed an overall elevation in the mean heart rate of nkx2-5 crispants (21°C 99.7 bpm, 28°C 166 bpm) compared to mock control siblings (21°C 96.1 bpm, 28°C 164 6

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bpm) with a significant (p = 0.0074) difference at 21°C (Fig 1C; left panel). Notably, independent experimental replicates targeting the same nkx2-5 exon with two different sgRNAs robustly yielded a significant heart rate phenotype at 21°C (Fig S1B-C). In contrast, the mean heart rate in *oca2* crispants was indifferent from mock control at either temperature (21°C 96.4 bpm, 28°C 165 bpm), validating *oca2* as bona fide negative control. To avoid severe developmental delays in nkx2-5 crispants to potentially skew heart rate comparisons, we further applied a developmental focusing filter. Only embryos having developed beyond stage 28 (Iwamatsu 2004), at which cardiac function was previously shown to have reached a functional plateau (Gierten et al. 2020), were chosen for statistical analysis. Developmental focusing, only excluded three embryos from the nkx2-5 group which did not impact on the results (Fig 1C; right panel). These results underline the robustness of our pipeline and demonstrate its sensitivity to detect mild heart rate phenotypes reflecting cardiac function already at embryonic stages of medaka development. Next, we determined the baseline probability of heart rate phenotypes by targeting a set of randomly selected genes with CRISPR/Cas9. From a total of 23622 annotated medaka coding genes in Ensembl (Yates et al. 2020), we used a random number generator to select 10 genes (Table 1). For each gene, a random 7

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exon was chosen for targeting via CRISPR/Cas9. As before, we used 96-well plates to test two target genes per plate. To control for potential heart rate fluctuations in embryos within and across different experiments, we included mock-injected siblings as internal plate control. Heart rates of target gene crispants and control siblings were scored and the means were compared before and after developmental focusing. Comparative heart rate analysis of the randomly selected genes revealed a heart rate phenotype in two out of ten genes at both temperatures measured (Fig 2, and Fig S2). Remarkably, both genes, the oxoglutarate dehydrogenase (ogdh) and the cell division control protein 42 homolog (cdc42) have been previously associated with heart phenotypes in human (GWAS) or were shown to play a role in heart function, respectively (Thanassoulis et al. 2013; Qian et al. 2011; Li et al. 2017). These results confirm the reliability of our assay to identify genes of a given set that affect cardiac function. Of note, repeated rounds of random gene selection revealed a similar mean baseline of 10-20% of selected genes being related to the heart in GWAS or previous experimental reports. We next applied our pipeline to interrogate a larger, targeted selection of genes associated with cardiovascular diseases in human GWAS. We used GRASP (Eicher et al. 2015), the genome-wide repository of associations between single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) and phenotypes, to compile a list of 40 8

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candidate genes from human GWAS with a coding association to heart phenotypes (hGWAS genes; Table 2). We focused on genes with no prior experimental link to heart function, while including few known heart genes as additional positive controls. To address the specificity of our approach, the selected candidate genes were categorized according to their association into general heart related (n=17) or related specifically to heart rate (n=23; Table 2). Heart rates of candidate gene crispants and control injected siblings were scored and compared before (Fig S4) and after developmental focusing (Fig 3A and Figure S3). Across the hGWAS set of 40 genes, comparative heart rate analysis showed statistically significant heart rate phenotypes in a total of 16 genes (Fig 3B). The five positive controls, known to play key roles in heart functions such as cardiac contraction (TTN and NACA) and heart rate regulation (CASQ2, KCNH2 and SCN5A) (Itoh-Satoh et al. 2002; Park et al. 2010; Faggioni & Knollmann 2012; Gianulis & Trudeau 2011; Zaklyazminskaya & Dzemeshkevich 2016; Huttner et al. 2013) clearly responded in the assay. Beyond known cardiac genes, we revealed new genes linked to various biological functions (CCDC141, GIGYF1, HOMEZ, MYRF, SMG6, CMYA5, CNOT1, SLC17A3, TRAPPC12, SSPO and PADI4) which up to now, had little to no experimental evidence in cardiac function (Rathjens et al. 2020; Benson et al. 2017; Yamaguchi et al. 2018; Elmen et al. 2020). 9

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When analyzing the candidates according to their GWAS association ("heart rate" and "non-heart rate" phenotypes), we observed a strong positive correlation between the respective phenotypes observed in medaka crispants and the associated phenotype in adult human GWAS. The proportion of heart rateassociated genes in hGWAS that yield a heart rate phenotype in medaka (13/23) was elevated compared to the proportion of non-heart rate-associated genes yielding a heart rate phenotype (3/17). Even when considering the entire group, we observed a higher proportion of genes with an effect on heart rate in our targeted hGWAS gene set (16/40) compared to our randomly selected gene set (2/10) (Fig 3C). Taken together, phenotypes in early medaka embryos likely reflect risk factors in human adults, thus we uncovered functionally relevant heart rate phenotypes in previously uncharacterized genes. Interestingly, analysis of scn4ab crispants displayed a bimodal heart rate distribution, with a population displaying roughly half the average heart rate at both recorded temperatures (Fig 4A). Visual inspection of the *scn4ab* embryos revealed an arrhythmic heart anomaly previously reported in zebrafish mutants (Huttner et al. 2013), i.e. an atrio-ventricular block (AV-block), characterized by a delay or disruption of impulse transmission from the atrium to the ventricle. Scoring the beat frequency of both heart chambers separately in individual 10

embryos exposed the impaired rhythm of atrial to ventricular contractions, which resulted in a delay or even skipping of ventricular beats in the scn4ab crispants but not in control siblings (Fig 4B). scn4ab crispants displayed various severities of the AV-block from mild (regular heart beats with occasional beat skipping), to moderate (consistent 2:1 atrial to ventricular contraction; Movie S1), to severe (3:1 or more; Movie S2). Still heavily affected scn4ab crispants survived until hatching. Impressively, the prevalence of the arrhythmia phenotype in scn4ab crispants was markedly high, exceeding 90% of the injected embryos, reflecting the high efficiency of the Cas9 and the high penetrance of the mutations introduced. These results further underscore the efficacy of using medaka crispant embryo analysis as a rapid validation tool to identify genes with a functional link to human cardiac diseases. Discussion Most cardiovascular diseases can be prevented if diagnosed and treated early. Previous studies have shown the importance of the resting heart rate as a vital risk factor both in terms of prediction and prevention of CVDs (DYER et al. 1980; MD et al. 2010; Eppinga et al. 2016). An increase of 5 beats per minute correlates with a 20% increase in risk of mortality (Eppinga et al. 2016), and

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reducing the resting heart rate has proven to improve the clinical outcomes of various CVDs (Beere et al. 1984; MD et al. 2010). Human GWAS have been performed in search of genetic determinants of CVDs, and although a wide array of candidate genes with various functions are being associated to heart phenotypes in human GWAS, further focus is usually turned to those few genes with pre-existing indication of cardiac function. Other associated genes with an unknown function or without a pre-existing functional link to the heart are often neglected and not pursued further, pushing all those into a blind spot, resulting in a negative loop of discovery. Thus, it is important to address the role of such genes in heart function through experimental validation in model organisms, in pursuit of novel markers for CVD diagnosis. We address this blind spot of discovery by applying a high-throughput heart rate imaging and analysis pipeline coupled to a reverse genetic validation approach via CRISPR/Cas9 mediated mutagenesis in a genetically suited vertebrate model (Fig 1A). F0 mutagenesis screens are becoming more and more popular (Teboul 2017; Shankaran et al. 2018; Wu et al. 2018; Heyde et al. 2020), largely due to the improvements in CRISPR/Cas9 gene targeting efficiency. Overall, gene targeting in medaka using CRISPR/Cas9 has proven to be highly efficient, as shown by the prominent loss of eye-pigmentation in the oca2 crispants (Fig 1B 12

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and Fig S1A), as well as in previous studies (Lischik et al. 2019; Hammouda et al. 2019). A similarly high penetrance was also observed in the scn4ab crispants, where we detected and quantified severe arrhythmia phenotypes such as AVblock with our assay (Fig 4, Movies S1 and S2). A 90 % prevalence of the arrhythmia phenotype and an absence of global phenotypes further reflect the specificity of this phenotype. Targeting some of the genes in our assays (e.g. nkx2-5, smg6, naca, ttn.2, abcb4) however, yielded a rather broad range of global developmental phenotypes, potentially reflecting their essential roles in embryonic development. To address this un-avoidable outcome when tackling genes with broader function (e.g. transcription factors or essential genes), we applied a developmental focusing filter in the analysis phase. Doing so, we avoid a biased assessment of the heart rate by ensuring the comparability of the embryo crispants on a global developmental scale, which in turn allows emphasizing cardiac-specific effects. Interestingly however, developmental focusing, although deemed important, in only few cases significantly altered the outcome of the analysis (Fig. S4). This reflects the robustness of the assay and the homogeneity of CRISPR/Cas9-induced phenotypes in the isogenic background of the medaka line used. In a set of ten randomly chosen genes we observed a baseline occurrence of heart-affecting genes of about 20 % (Fig 2, and Fig S2). Relevantly, both genes 13

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were implicated in heart functions, further reflecting the reliability of our model and approach. For *cdc42*, there is *a priori* evidence of its human orthologue in heart development as well as in regulating heart function across species (Qian et al. 2011; Li et al. 2017). Surprisingly, we did not find any associations (coding or non-coding) of *CDC42* to heart phenotypes in human GWAS according to the GRASP database (Eicher et al. 2015). As for ogdh, no experimental evidence in cardiac function has been previously reported, but a polymorphism located on one of its exons has been associated to heart phenotypes in human GWAS (Thanassoulis et al. 2013). Except for *duox*, which has been reported as having an indirect role in cardiac regeneration in zebrafish (Han et al. 2014), none of the other randomly selected genes were, to our knowledge, ever connected with cardiac function. In summary, from our random selection of genes, the only ones showing an effect (ogdh and cdc42) are connected to cardiac function by prior evidence. All but one positive (HCN4) controls among the hGWAS candidates resulted in a pronounced heart rate phenotype in our assay, reflecting their role in cardiac contraction (TTN and NACA), cardiac conduction and heart rate regulation (CASQ2, KCNH2 and SCN5A) (Itoh-Satoh et al. 2002; Park et al. 2010; Faggioni & Knollmann 2012; Gianulis & Trudeau 2011; Zaklyazminskaya & Dzemeshkevich 2016; Huttner et al. 2013). For hcn4, we suspect compensation by the other medaka paralog *hcn4l*. 14

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For eleven hGWAS candidate genes, our analysis provided the first experimental evidence validating a cardiac function. The identified genes represent new targets for future in-depth characterization and as candidates for predicting heart diseases prior to their onset. This is impressively substantiated by the emerging studies on the CCR4-NOT (CNOT1) complex in heart structure and function (Yamaguchi et al. 2018; Elmen et al. 2020). Grouping the candidate genes according to their heart GWAS association into heart rate and non-heart rate-related phenotypes further exposed the prominent positive correlation between the associated human phenotype and the observed phenotype in medaka (Fig 3C). Medaka's isogenic background, a product of inbreeding over multiple generations (Wittbrodt et al. 2002), enabled the detection of subtle changes in heart rate immediately in F0 crispants. This accelerated the analysis and avoided the necessity to analyze homozygous offspring in the second and third generation after CRISPR targeting. It is noteworthy that despite the evolutionary distance from fish to humans the medaka phenotypes match the class of hGWAS effects. This is even more relevant since the roles of the genes in medaka were validated in embryos, suggesting that the validated marker genes have predictive power in humans. This deep functional conservation emphasizes the potential of our approach for 15

the identification and validation of novel predictive genetic markers for cardiovascular diseases in humans. We have showcased a highly versatile, sensitive and robust high-throughput reverse genetic validation assay to address the pool of understudied, neglected putative candidates. In the future, the combination of genetic validation and drug screening in a single platform building on our assay will facilitate the simultaneous identification of novel genetic players and interacting small molecules with rescuing power. Materials and Methods **Ethics Statement** All fish are maintained in closed stocks at Heidelberg University. Medaka (Oryzias latipes) husbandry (permit number 35–9185.64/BH Wittbrodt, Regierungspräsidium Karlsruhe) was performed according to local animal welfare standards (Tierschutzgesetz §11, Abs. 1, Nr. 1) in accordance with European Union animal welfare guidelines (Bert et al., 2016). The fish facility is under the supervision of the local representative of the animal welfare agency. Medaka embryos of the wildtype Cab strain were used at stages prior to stage 42. Medaka were raised and maintained as described previously (Köster et al., 1997).

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Candidate gene selection For the unbiased gene targeting, an online random number generator was used to generate 10 numbers between 1 and 23622, corresponding to the number of annotated medaka coding genes in Ensembl (Yates et al. 2020) (Table 1). The number of exons for each gene was counted and a random number was generated to select the exon for CRISPR/Cas9 targeting. For the targeted human heart-GWAS (hGWAS) gene selection, the genome-wide repository of associations between SNPs and phenotypes (GRASP v2.0) was used (Eicher et al. 2015). In the search field, "Heart" and "Heart rate" were chosen as the respective categories for all heart- and heart rate-related phenotypes associated in human GWAS, only coding SNPs (i.e. SNP functional class = exons) were searched for. List of resulting genes was extracted (Table 2), and candidate genes for the functional validation assay were chosen. The focus was on uncharacterized genes, or genes with no prior experimental link to heart function, yet some known heart genes were included as proof of concept. For each hGWAS candidate gene, the corresponding medaka ortholog was extracted using Ensembl (Yates et al. 2020). For the few genes which did not have an annotated medaka ortholog, the human protein sequence was BLASTed using the "tblastn" function of the NCBI BLAST (https://blast.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/Blast.cgi) and Ensemble 17

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(http://www.ensembl.org/Multi/Tools/Blast) online tools to obtain a target medaka locus. Using Geneious 8.1.9 (https://www.geneious.com), regions of interest (ROI) on medaka orthologous genes for CRISPR targeting were primarily chosen based on the corresponding location of human SNP when aligning the medaka and human protein sequences. sgRNA target sites selection and in vitro transcription All sgRNA target sites used in this study are listed in Table S1. sgRNAs were designed with CCTop as described in Stemmer et al. (Stemmer et al. 2015). sgRNA target sites were selected based on number of potential off-target sites and their corresponding mismatches. Preferably, sgRNAs selected had no offtarget site or at least 3 nucleotide mismatches. sgRNAs for oca2 were the same as in Lischik et al. (Lischik et al. 2019). Cloning of sgRNA templates and in vitro transcription was performed as detailed in Stemmer, et al. (Stemmer et al. 2015). All sgRNAs were initially tested after synthesis for *in vivo* targeting via injections into medaka embryos, followed by genotyping using our filter-in-tips protocol (Hammouda et al. 2019), in brief terms, by PCR amplification of target locus followed by T7 Endonuclease I assay (New England Biolabs). *Microinjection* 18

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Medaka one-cell stage embryos were injected in the cytoplasm as previously described (Stemmer et al. 2015). Injection solutions for CRISPR targeting comprised: 150 ng/µl Cas9 mRNA, 15 ng/µl respective sgRNA and 10 ng/µl GFP mRNA as injection tracer. Control siblings were injected with of 10 ng/µl GFP mRNA only. Injected embryos were incubated at 28 °C in embryo rearing medium (ERM), screened for GFP expression at 1 dpf and transferred to methylene blue-containing ERM and incubated at 28 °C until analysis (4 dpf). Sample preparation and Imaging One day prior to imaging, medaka embryos were transferred from methylene blue-containing ERM into plain ERM and incubated at 28 °C. On day of imaging (4 dpf), individual medaka embryos (36 per sgRNA and 24 control injected) were administered to a 96 U-well microtiter plate (Nunc, Thermofisher #268152) containing 200 µl ERM per well and sealed using gas-permeable adhesive foil (4titude, Wotton, UK, 4ti-0516/96). Plates were automatically imaged using an ACQUIFER Imaging Machine (DITABIS AG, Pforzheim, Germany) at 21 and 28 °C with a 30-minute equilibration period before each measurement. Images were acquired in brightfield using 130 z-slices (dz = 0um) and a 2x Plan UW N.A. 0.06 objective (Nikon, Düsseldorf, Germany) to capture the centered embryo. Integration times were fixed with 80 % relative 19

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white LED intensity and 10 ms exposure time. Therefore, the whole 96-well plate was captured, with image sequences (videos) of entire microwells of approx. 10 seconds with 13 frames per second (fps). More details can be found in Gierten, et al. (Gierten et al. 2020). *HeartBeat* detection and data analysis Image optimizations prior to analysis, as well as heart rate analysis using the HeartBeat software were performed as previously described (Gierten et al. 2020). In some instances, heart rates could not be scored due to inconvenient embryo orientations shielding the view of the heart. For scn4ab crispants with cardiac arrhythmias, atrium and ventricle for individual embryos were separately segmented, and the respective beating frequency for each chamber was measured. Data plots were generated using ggplot2 package (Wickham 2016) in R 3.6.1 (R Core Team, 2019) and R-studio 1.2.1335 (RStudio Team, 2018). Statistical analysis for heart rate comparisons were computed in R. Significant differences were determined by two-tailed Student's t-test. Significant p-values are indicated with asterisks (*) with *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001 and ns (not significant). Embryo genotyping 20

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Nucleic acid extraction and genotyping of embryos was done as previously described (Hammouda et al. 2019). Briefly, after imaging, embryos in 96-well plate were lysed in 50 µl Milli-Q water + 50 µl Fin-Clip lysis buffer each (0.4 M Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 5 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 0.15 M NaCl, 0.1 % SDS in Milli-Q water) using a custom 96-well mortar. The mortar was pre-cleaned by incubation in hypochlorite solution (1:10 dilution of commercial bleach reagent) for at least 15 minutes followed by 5 minutes incubation in Milli-Q water. Plates containing lysed embryos were stored at 4 °C until genotyping. To confirm CRISPR on-target activity, per experimental plate, 2 embryos per condition were chosen at random for genotyping by PCR amplification of target locus using our filter-in-tips approach (Hammouda et al. 2019), followed by T7 Endonuclease I Assay (New England Biolabs). 30 PCR cycles were run in all samples, all primers used for PCR are listed in Table S2. Annealing temperatures were calculated using the online NEB Tm calculator (https://tmcalculator.neb.com/). Acknowledgments We thank J. Gierten, V. Weinhardt, E. Tsingos and all members of the Wittbrodt lab for their critical, constructive feedback on the procedure and the manuscript, F. Loosli and S. Lemke for their constructive feedback towards the project as 21

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well as J. Backs and E. Furlong for an outside perspective. We thank T. Kellner for excellent technical support. We acknowledge the excellent fish husbandry of E. Leist, M. Majewsky and A. Saraceno. We thank J. Gehrig (ACQUIFER Imaging GmbH) for supporting us with the Imaging machine. This research was funded through DFG CRC-1324 TP B4 and NIH 5R01ES029917 – 03, KiyosuTox. O.T.H. is a member of the Heidelberg Biosciences International Graduate School (HBIGS) and was supported by a fellowship of the Deutsches Zentrum für Herz-Kreislauf-Forschung (DZHK). Author contributions O.T.H., T.T. and J.W. designed the study and implemented the methodology. O.T.H., V.K. and M.Y.W. synthesized the guides. O.T.H. performed experiments. O.T.H. analyzed the data with contributions by M.Y.W. and V.K.. O.T.H. visualized data. O.T.H. and J.W. wrote the first draft of the manuscript. O.T.H., T.T., and J.W. finalized the manuscript. J.W. provided resources and supervised this work. Conflict of interest All authors declare no competing interests. 22

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- Main Figure Legends
- Figure 1 Medaka *nkx2-5* embryo crispants show heart rate phenotypes
- A Schematic overview of functional gene validation pipeline: position of human
- coding SNP mapped to medaka orthologous gene to define region of interest for

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CRISPR/Cas9 gene targeting (double strand break; DSB). 96-well plate layout of embryo crispants (Target Gene 1 and 2) separated by GFP mRNA mockinjected siblings. Embryos are subjected to high-throughput imaging followed by automated heart detection (blue area) and heart rate quantification (graphical output; *HeartBeat* software (Gierten et al. 2020). **B** Comparison of the atrium (A, dotted red line) and ventricle (V, dotted yellow line) in GFP-injected (mock) and nkx2-5 and oca2 crispant embryos (stage 40). Note: nkx2-5 crispant shows dilated heart chambers while mock injected and oca2 crispant embryos are indistinguishable. Loss of eye pigmentation in oca2 crispants reflects high efficiency of knock-out rate in the injected generation. C Heart rate measurements (beats per minute, bpm) of GFP-injected (mock; dark grey), nkx2-5 and oca2 embryo crispants (4 dpf) at 21 and 28°C, before (left) and after (right) exclusion of severely affected embryos (developmental focusing) reveal elevation of mean heart rates in nkx2-5 targeted embryos, significant at 21°C (red). Significance was determined by two-tailed Student's ttest; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ns (not significant; light grey). For biological replicates see Source Data Fig 1C. Figure 2 - Baseline probability of heart rate phenotype assessed via in vivo targeting of randomly selected genes 29

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A Heart rate measurements (beats per minute, bpm) of GFP-injected (mock) and corresponding sibling embryo crispants at 21 and 28°C after developmental focusing. Different experimental plates are represented by breaks on the x-axis. Significant differences in mean heart rates were determined between each embryo crispant group and its corresponding sibling control group by two-tailed Student's t-test; *p < 0.05, ***p < 0.001, ns (not significant). Crispants showing significant heart rate phenotype (red), GFP-injected controls (mock; dark grey), crispants showing no significant heart rate phenotype (light grey). **B** Heatmap quantitative representation of the data shown in (A); for each measured temperature, the percent change in mean heart rate (HR % Change) between crispants and their corresponding control sibling, flanked by the statistical significance (p-value) of the observed change calculated by two-tailed Student's t-test on the full distribution in (A). Genes showing significant heart rate phenotypes are indicated in bold. For biological replicates see Source Data Fig S2. Figure 3 - Targeted human heart-GWAS validations reveal new genes affecting heart rate A Heatmap quantitative representation of the comparative heart rate analysis between each embryo crispant group and its corresponding control sibling group 30

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after developmental focusing (also see plots in Fig S3); for each measured temperature, the percent change in mean heart rate (HR % Change) between crispants and their corresponding control sibling, flanked by the statistical significance (p-value) of the observed change calculated by two-tailed Student's t-test on the full distribution (Fig S3). Genes showing significant heart rate phenotypes are indicated in bold. For biological replicates see Source Data Fig S3. **B** Venn diagram summarizing the genes with significantly different heart rate (HR) phenotypes only at 21°C, only at 28°C or at both temperatures (dark grey). C Stacked plots representing percentage of genes showing a significant heart rate phenotype (dark grey) in each group. Number of genes for each group is denoted (n). hGWAS corresponds to the selection of genes associated to heart phenotypes in human GWAS. Figure 4 - AV-block type arrhythmia in medaka *scn4ab* embryo crispants A Heart rate measurements (beats per minute, bpm) of GFP-injected (mock; dark grey) and scn4ab crispant (red) embryos at 21 and 28°C; note the bimodal distribution in *scn4ab* crispants. **B** Paired plots showing heart rate scores for each chamber separately (atrium in blue; ventricle in red) in individual embryos at both temperatures. 31

676 677 Tables and their legends 678 Table 1. List of randomly selected genes 679 Medaka Ensembl gene names and codes, as well as orthologous human genes as annotated in the 95th Ensembl release. 680 681 682 Table 2. List of candidate genes extracted from Human GWAS using GRASP 2.0 683 Database 684 Human genes are categorized according to their association into "heart rate" 685 (bold) and "non-heart rate" (non-bold) related phenotypes in human GWAS. 686 687 Table S1. List of sgRNAs used sgRNA target sites given in 5'-3' direction, protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) 688 689 in square brackets. 690 691 Table S2. List of primers used for genotyping by PCR 692 Source Data Fig 1C. Biological replicates for Fig 1C 693 Source Data Fig S1. Biological replicates for Fig S1 B-C 694 Source Data Fig S2. Biological replicates for Fig 2 and S2 695 Source Data Fig S3. Biological replicates for Fig 3A, S3 and S4 32

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Supplementary Figure legends Figure S1: Consistent heart rate phenotype observed in medaka *nkx2-5* crispants A Overview of 96-well plate with embryos injected with sgRNA against nkx2-5 or oca2, as well as embryos mock injected with gfp mRNA (Fig 1C). Note the loss of eye pigmentation in *oca2* crispant embryos. **B-C** Heart rate measurements of *GFP*-injected (mock; dark grey) and *nkx2-5* embryo crispants (**B**: second replicate of nxk2-5_T4; **C**: different sgRNA nkx2-5 T5 targeting same region of interest) at 21 and 28°C, before and after exclusion of severely affected embryos (< stage 28; developmental focusing). Significant differences are shown in red and were determined by two-tailed Student's t-test; p < 0.05, p < 0.01, ns (not significant; light grey). For biological replicates see Source Data Fig S1. Figure S2: Developmental focusing does not alter analysis outcome of random gene selection Heatmap quantitative representation of the comparative heart rate analysis between each embryo crispant group and its corresponding control sibling group before and after developmental focusing; for each measured temperature, the percent change in mean heart rate (HR % Change) between crispants and their 33

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corresponding control sibling, flanked by the statistical significance (p-value) of the observed change calculated by two-tailed Student's t-test on the full distribution. Genes showing significant heart rate phenotypes are indicated in bold. For biological replicates see Source Data Fig S2. Figure S3: Comparative analysis of mean heart rates in targeted hGWAS gene selection Heart rate measurements (beats per minute, bpm) of GFP-injected (mock; dark grey) and corresponding sibling embryo crispants at 21 and 28°C after developmental focusing (also see heatmap representation of the data in Fig 3A). Different experimental plates are represented by breaks on the x-axis. Significant differences in mean heart rates were determined between each embryo crispant group and its corresponding sibling control group by two-tailed Student's t-test; *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001, ns (not significant). Red groups correspond to crispants showing significant heart rate phenotypes, and light grey groups correspond to crispants showing no significant heart rate phenotype. For biological replicates see Source Data Fig S3. Fig S4: Developmental focusing does not alter analysis outcome of targeted hGWAS genes 34

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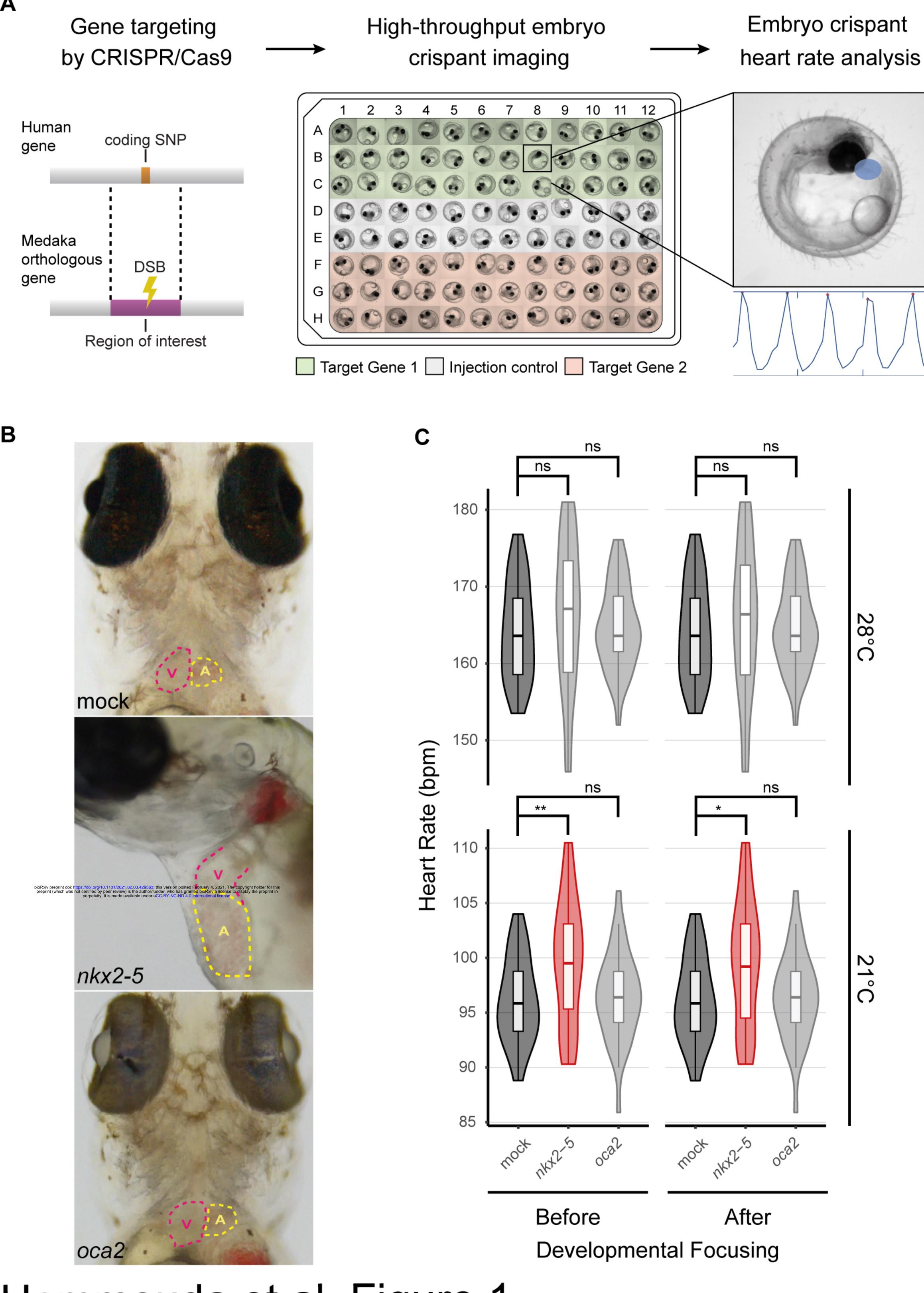
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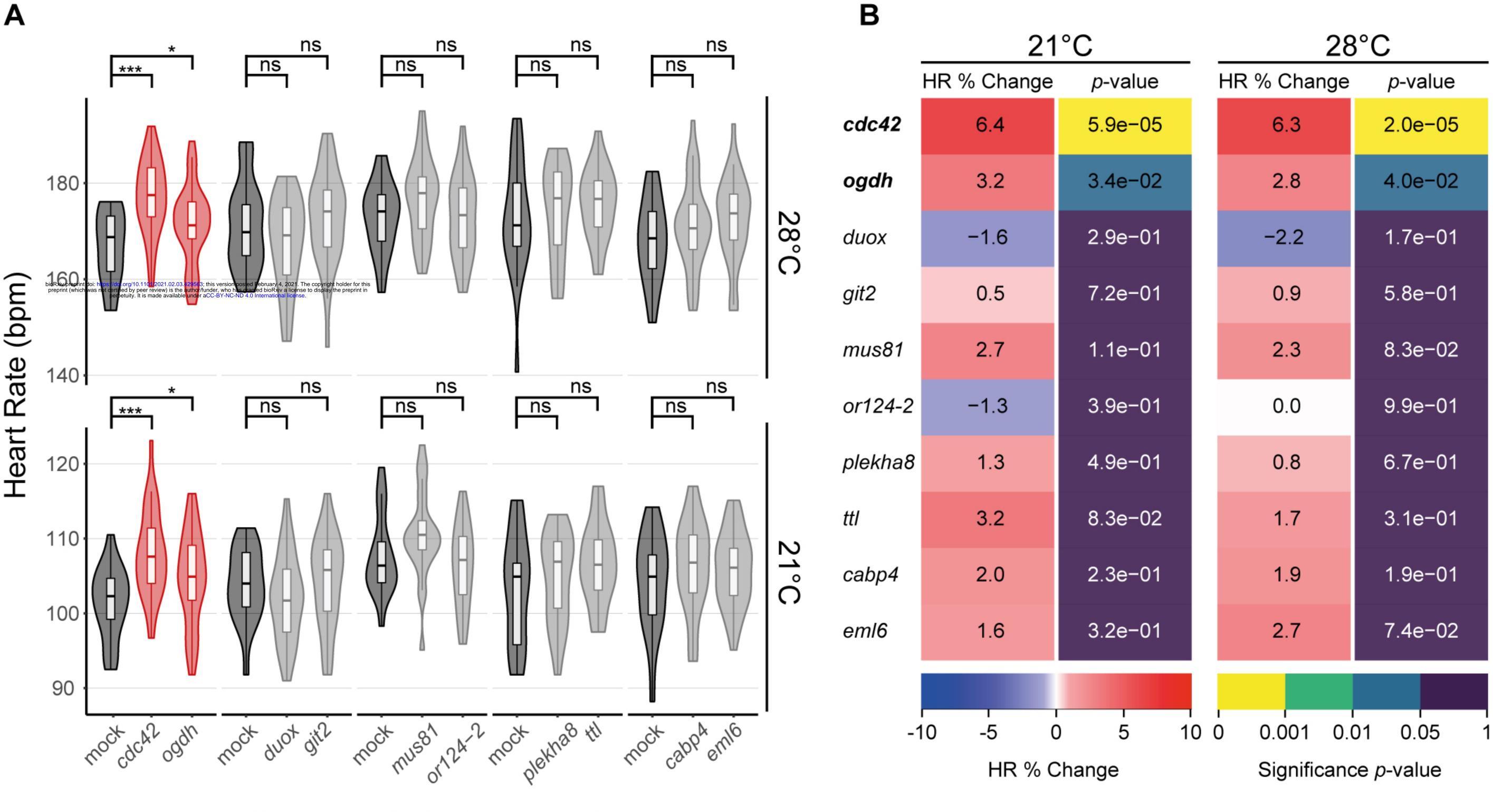
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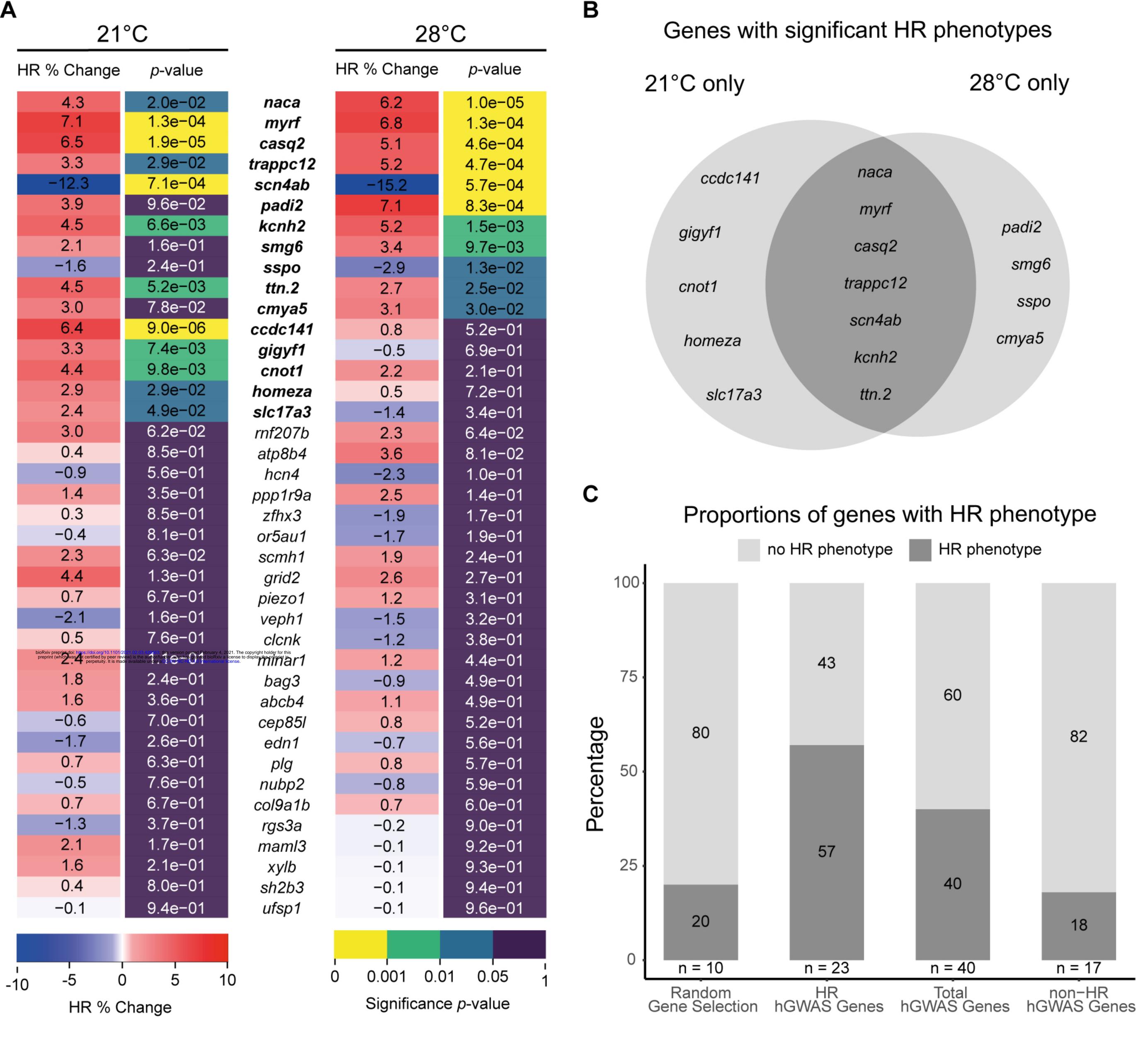
Heatmap quantitative representation of the comparative heart rate analysis between each embryo crispant group and its corresponding control sibling group before and after developmental focusing; for each measured temperature, the percent change in mean heart rate (HR % Change) between crispants and their corresponding control siblings, flanked by the statistical significance (p-value) of the observed change, calculated by two-tailed Student's t-test on the full distribution. Genes showing significantly different heart rate phenotypes are indicated in bold. For biological replicates see Source Data Fig S3. Movie S1: Moderate AV-block arrhythmia observed in medaka *scn4ab* crispants Side by side comparison of rhythmic heartbeat of GFP-injected (mock; left) and arrhythmic scn4ab crispants displaying 2:1 AV-block phenotype (right). Videos of medaka embryos (stage 36) were acquired using a stereomicroscope under bright field illumination. Movie S2: Severe AV-block arrhythmia observed in medaka *scn4ab* crispants Side by side comparison of rhythmic heartbeat of GFP-injected (mock; left) and arrhythmic scn4ab crispants displaying severe AV-block phenotype (right). Videos of medaka embryos (stage 40) were acquired using a stereomicroscope under bright field illumination. 35



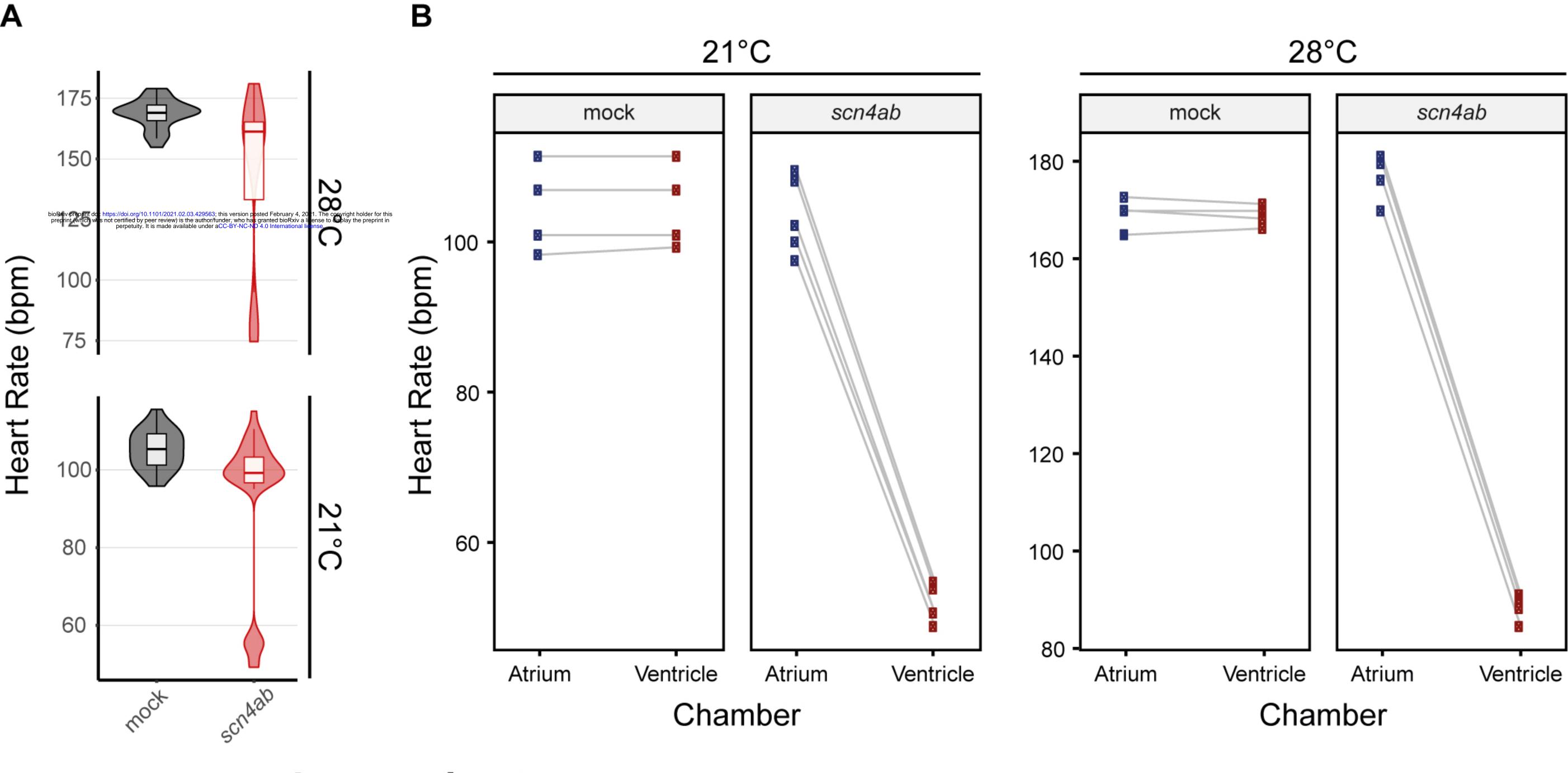
Hammouda et al. Figure 1



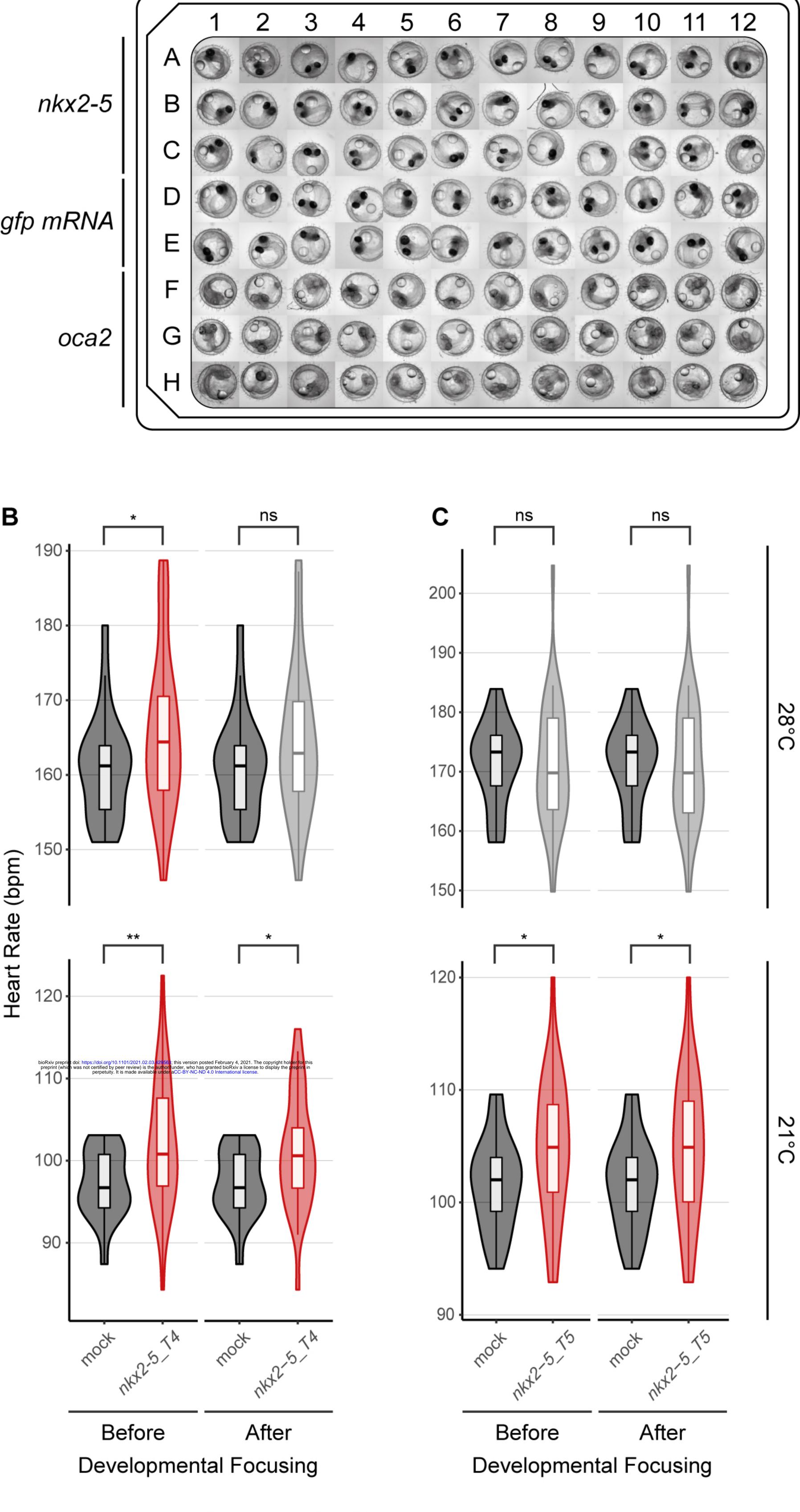
Hammouda et al. Figure 2



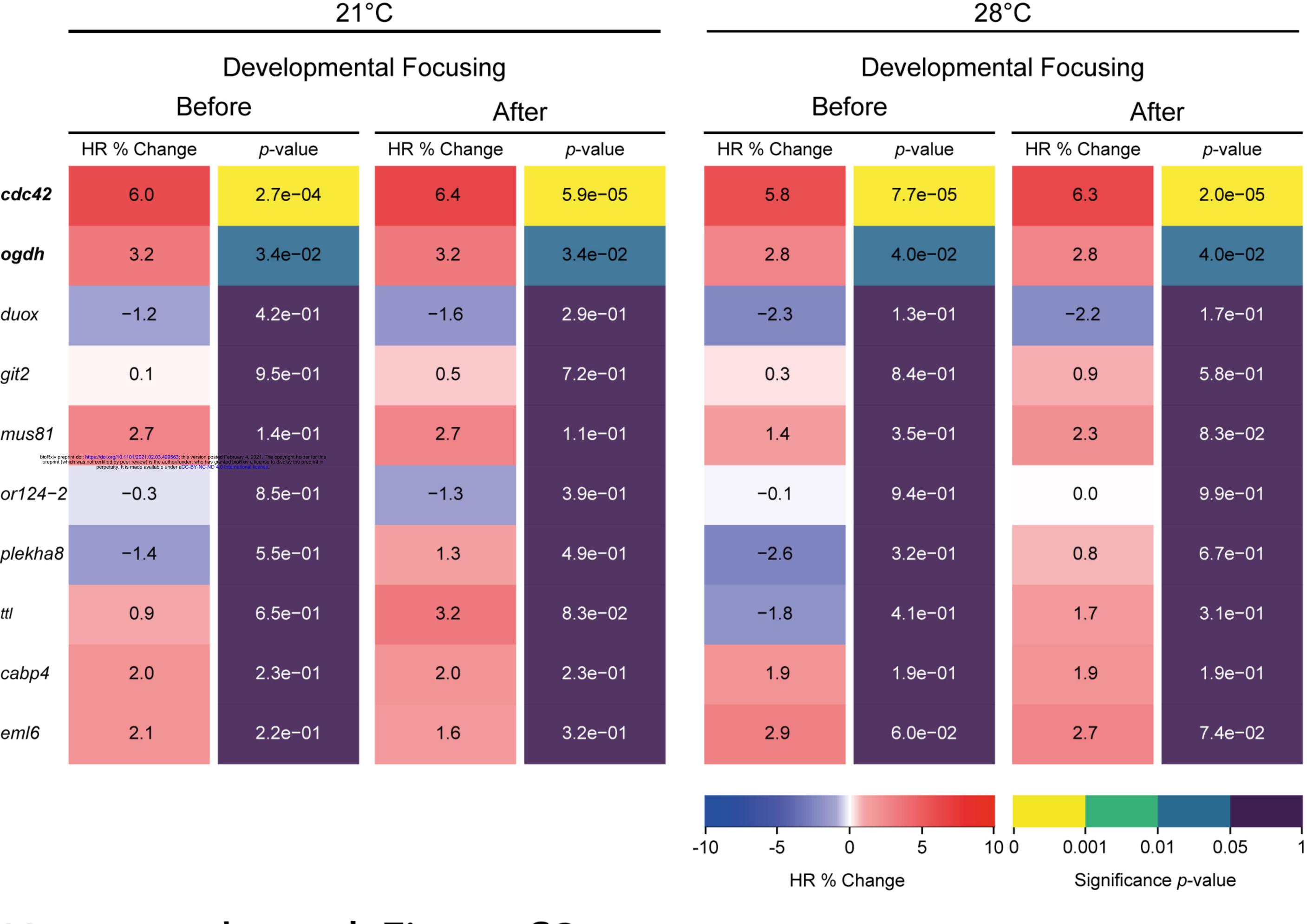
Hammouda et al. Figure 3



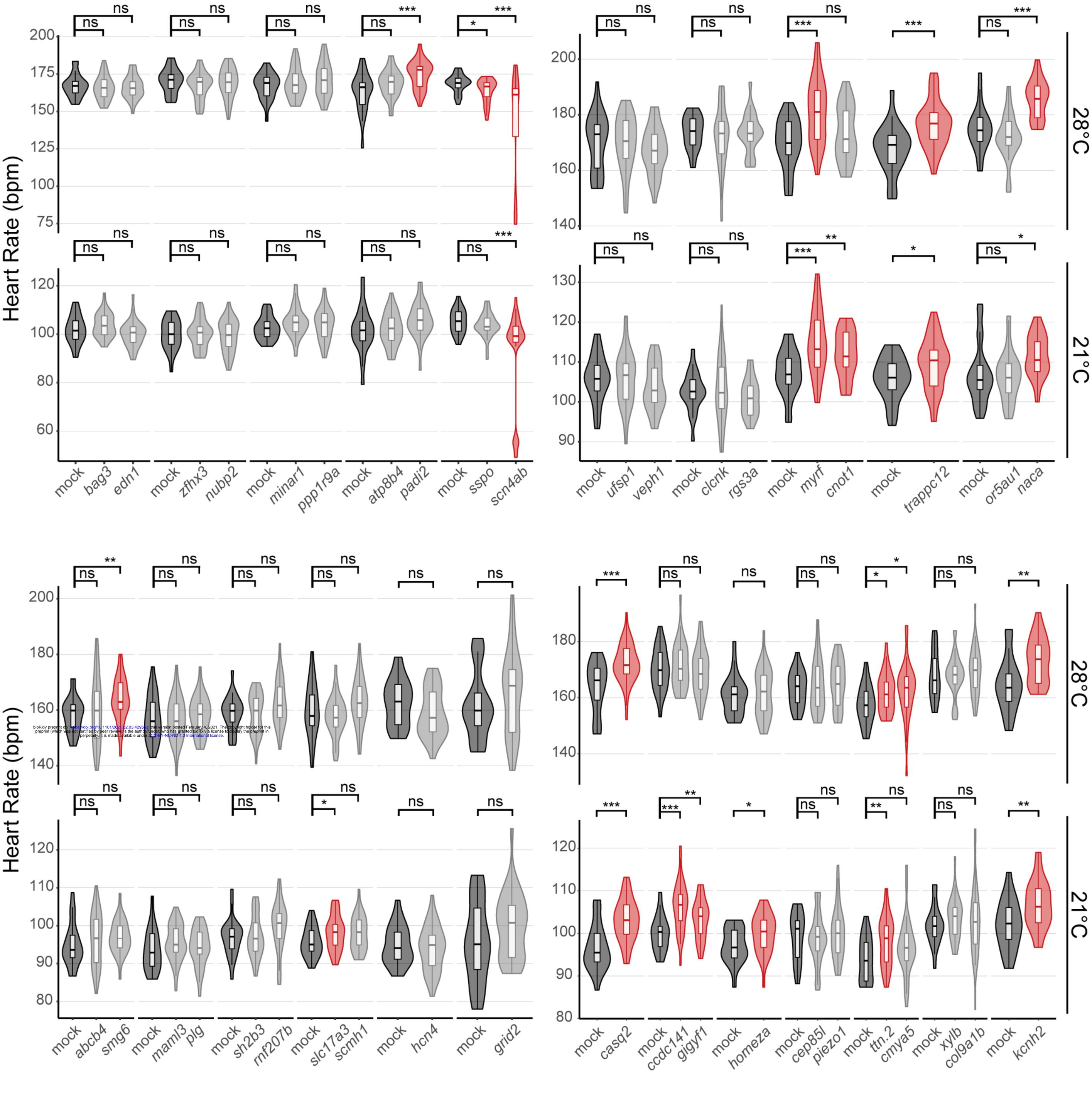
Hammouda et al. Figure 4



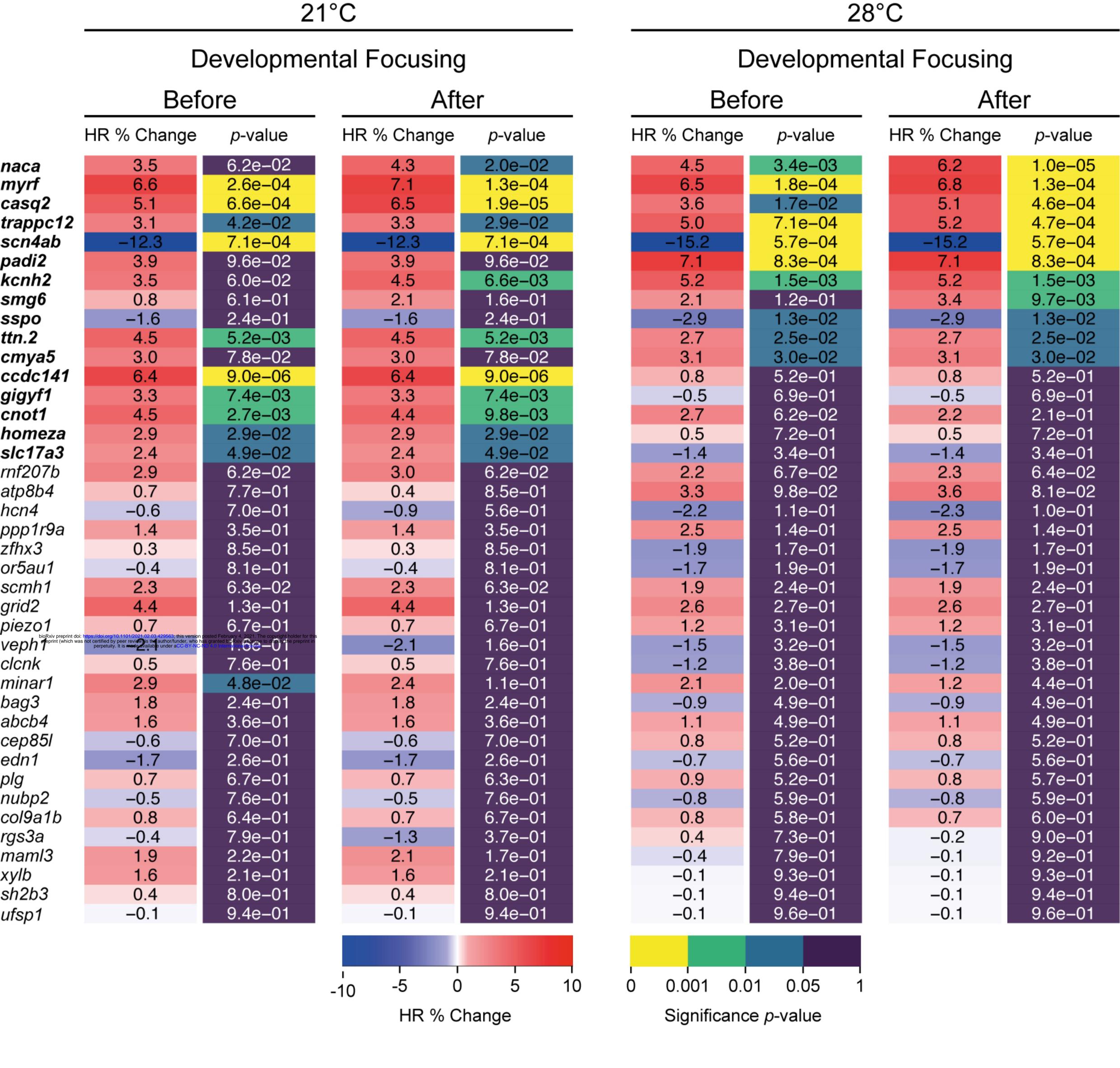
Hammouda et al. Figure S1



Hammouda et al. Figure S2



Hammouda et al. Figure S3



Hammouda et al. Figure S4

Table S1. List of sgRNAs used

Protospacer adjacent motif (PAM) in target sequence enclosed in square brackets "[]"

sgRNA	Target sequence [PAM]		
abcb4_T7	ATGTCCCTGAGTGTGAAGAG[TGG]		
atp8b4_T2	TAAGTTCTACGATAACACCC[TGG]		
bag3_T1	GAGCAGGCGCCGTTCACCC[GGG]		
cabp4_T9	GAATTTGACTACGATGCAGA[TGG]		
casq2_T1	TGTTGTCTGGGATGGGTTCG[TGG]		
ccdc141_T1	CCAGGAACCTGAAGGTTGTC[AGG]		
cdc42_T2	AGAGCGGAGAGAAACTGGCT[CGG]		
cep85l _T5	AACCCAGGACTTCTCAGATA[GGG]		
clcnk_T10	TTCTCCACTGGAGTAGTTTT[TGG]		
cmya5_T1	GTAGAACAGGTAATTCTCGT[TGG]		
cnot1_T5	GCCAAGTGTTGACAATACTG[AGG]		
col9a1b_T2	GACGGACGCGTAGGCATTCC[AGG]		
duox_T3	CATTCGGCACGCTTTCTCTA[AGG]		
edn1_T4	GCCGACGGAGTCTGCGCGGA[GGG]		
eml6_T2	CTGCGCTGTTCGCACGCTAA[AGG]		
gigyf1_T3	GAATGAACCGGCATGAACGC[CGG]		
git2_T3	TAAACGCCTTCGAAACACGG[AGG]		
grid2_T8	AAAGGCTACGGCTAAGGGTC[TGG]		
hcn4_T5	AAACTCCCTTCGAACTTGTG[AGG]		
homeza_T1	GCTACCAGCAGGTGCGAGAT[TGG]		
kcnh2_T1	CATCACTGCTGGGAGAACCG[GGG]		
maml3_T19	TCATGTAAGGTGTCATCATA[GGG]		
minar1_T1	GTTGCCGTCGGCGACGCGTA[GGG]		
mus81_T7	AAGAGGATGGACGACCTCTG[TGG]		
myrf_T1	CCTTATTGGAGTCCATATTG[TGG]		
naca_T1	TTGGTCTTAGGCAAGTAACG[GGG]		
nkx2-5_T4	GCCGCGGGTCCTCTTCTCCC[AGG]		
nkx2-5_T5	CGGACAGACCCAAGCCCCGG[AGG]		
nubp2_T4	GAACTGAATGTGGCACTGTT[AGG]		
oca2_T3	TTGCAGGAATCATTCTGTGT[GGG]		
ogdh_T4	CAAAGCTGGACTTGGCCTCA[GGG]		
or124-2_T1	GCCCACGTGGTCTCGTACGC[CGG]		
or5au1_T2	GTCATGGACTCTTGCCTGTA[TGG]		
padi2_T4	AGACTGGTATTACGGTTAAG[AGG]		
piezo1_T1	TTGGGAGCCCGGATGTAGTT[AGG]		
plekha8_T9	GCGGTGAAGCTTTCATAACA[CGG]		
plg_T1	GGCAACGGGGCCAATTATCG[AGG]		
ppp1r9a_T7	TGGTTCTTAGGAGATTCGGG[TGG]		
rgs3a_T6	GATCAAGTCACAGTCCAAGA[TGG]		

rnf207b_T2	TAGACTTGTTTGTACTGATC[TGG]
scmh1_T2	TCTGACCTGCGCTGTACGAG[TGG]
scn4ab_T2	TTAGGCTTAGCAATCCGCAA[CGG]
sh2b3_T1	AAGAAGTCCGTCGCTGCAAT[CGG]
slc17a3_T5	GTCTTGGCGCCGATTGTGAC[AGG]
smg6_T2	AAAGATAAAACCAAGGGCGT[AGG]
sspo_T4	GTGCACCAAGTCATGTGGTT[GGG]
trappc12_T2	CAACACGCAGTGCCTCAAGC[TGG]
ttl_T1	GCTGGTAAATTACTACAGAG[GGG]
ttn.2_T1	GAGCTAGCTGTCAAAGCCAT[GGG]
ufsp1_T1	GCTGGAGAGCATCGCAGTCC[AGG]
veph1_T1	GGCTCTGGTGGAGGTGTCCC[AGG]
xylb_T1	TTTCCAGTGTCAGTACCTAC[AGG]
zfhx3_T1	AGCTGAGCGCACCCTGCCTG[AGG]

Table S2. List of primers used for genotyping by PCR

sgRNA	Primers (5' – 3' direction)				
abcb4 Lf	CCTCTGCAGAAGCTGGATGG				
abcb4 Lr	TTTGCGATGGCGTGTGAGCG				
atp8b4 Lf	ACCTACAGTCAAAGGGAAATGAGC				
atp8b4 Lr	ACGCTGCCTCGTCTGGTGAC				
bag3 Lf	CTTCGCTTAGGAGCCAGTCC				
bag3 Lr	CAGTATGGTCTGAACCCGCC				
cabp4 Lf	GTGCCATCTTGCCATGCTGC				
cabp4 Lr	ATCCTGCTGCTCCTGGTCCC				
casq2 Lf	CGAACAGGTCAAACCGTGTG				
casq2 Lr	GGAACTTGCACAAACGGACC				
ccdc141 Lf	GGCTACGGATGAAGGAGCTC				
ccdc141 Lr	TCCTGGCTAAGTGAAGCAGC				
cdc42 Lf	TCCAGAGCTGCGAGGATGGC				
cdc42 Lr	CCAGCCGCTCTGTTCTGGGC				
cep85l Lf	AGGAGTGAGCTGAGGATGGG				
cep85l Lr	GCATCCTCACTCTAGCCGGG				
clcnk Lf	GATTCATGCTGTGTTCCCGC				
clcnk Lr	CCACTGAGTTGGTCGCTTTG				
cmya5 Lf	TTTGTGGGAGCTCGTCTGGG				
cmya5 Lr	GCCACGCTGAGATGGAGCCC				
cnot1 Lf	CCGGTTGTGGCGCCTTGAGG				
cnot1 Lr	GCTTTGGGTCTGGCACTGCG				
col9a1b Lf	AGGGACTCACTTACCGGAAGCCC				
col9a1b Lr	CTGGTCCTCAGGGAGTGGCAGG				
duox Lf	GACGCTGTCAGCTCGCACTG				
duox Lr	GGTCCACTCATCGCTCCCTC				
edn1 Lf	TCTCCGTGCTGTCAGTGTTC				
edn1 Lr	ATGCTGGTTGCCATGGAGTC				
eml6 Lf	ACGCCACGGACAGCATGGTC				
eml6 Lr	TCACTGACAGCTTTGAAGGTTGACG				
gigyfl Lf	ACAGGAGATAGCAGCAG				
gigyf1 Lr	CGTCCCTGATTGTAGATTTGCG				
git2 Lf	TTGCTGTCGCCGCTGCTCTG				
git2 Lr	GGGCTCATGGGACCTTATGTTGG				
grid2 Lf	ACCTACAGACCTGTAACTCCTTCGC				
grid2 Lr	ACCTGGAGCACCTACACCACAGG				
hcn4 Lf	GACCCGTCAAGTGCCACAGG				
hcn4 Lr	CACACCCTCCTTGTCCCTTG				
homeza Lf	GCCAAGGAAGACCAAAGAGC				

homeza Lr	TCACAAACCTCGCTCTAGGC
kcnh2 Lf	TCGCCCAGGCAAGTCCAACG
kcnh2 Lr	ACCTCATCGCCACTTGAGTGTG
maml3 Lf	CGGCAGCCATGTTGTCGTAC
maml3 Lr	AAGCGGGTTATGTGTGCTGC
minar1 Lf	CGGTCAGCATGAACTAAGCTTCGG
minar1 Lr	TGGAGACGGACAGTGATTCCAGTGG
mus81 Lf	GAAGACGACGAGACGGCCGG
mus81 Lr	TGACCCGAACAGTACCTTTGTG
myrf Lf	GGTCCACCAACCGCCTGCC
myrf Lr	AGCATCCTAGCATTGCAGCC
naca Lf	TCGCTCTCCTGTACTGTAGGG
naca Ľr	TCTGAGTCTACTGAAGCCAGCC
nkx2-5 lf	TAGCTTTGAGGCCTGCAGAC
nkx2-5 lr	CGCATAGTTCGTGTTGCAGG
nubp2 Lf	ACTGATGAGCCAGCCAACCC
nubp2 Lr	TGGTCTGTGGCCACATGGTG
oca2 Lf	GTTAAAACAGTTTCTTAAAAAGAACAGGA
oca2 Lr	AGCAGAAGAAATGACTCAACATTTTG
ogdh Lf	GAACACTCGTCTGGCCGGCC
ogdh Lr	TACAGCAAGTCCCGCCCACG
or124-2 Lf	TGAGGCTCAGACCCTCCTGG
or124-2 Lr	ATGCGGTCCGGATGAGCTGG
or5au1 Lf	GCATTCAGCAGTTCTTCTGTCTTC
or5au1 Lr	GGCTTTGATAGATCTGTGTGGAAGC
padi2 Lf	GCATGACACTACCTGAGAATGAAAC
padi2 Lr	AGCCTCAGTCATCTCAGTAAAGC
piezo1 Lf	GCAGCAGCAGGAAGGTCAGG
piezo1 Lr	CCGCTGCATTAGACCACTGC
plekha8 Lf	CTGGCACCTTCCTGTCCAGC
plekha8 Lr	ACGGAAGTCGCCCAAGTCCG
plg Lf	CACAAACACAGCCGCACGCC
plg Lr	GTGGGCGTGTCCGAGTCGAC
ppp1r9a Lf	CGAGGTCCAACCGAGGCAGC
ppp1r9a Lr	TCTCTGTCAGATCTGAGCCGGG
rgs3a Lf	TGAGCTGTTCGCCCACTC
rgs3a Lr	GGAGGGCTTCAACTGTGAGG
rnf207b Lf	GCAGAAGCCTCCCATTGACG
rnf207b Lr	CCTCTGGCTGACCGCTCCTG
scmh1 Lf	ACTCTGTTCGAGCGCCTCCC
scmh1 Lr	AGGCGCATCCTGCAGCTTCC
scn4ab Lf	TCACCACTTCTGCAGGATGG
scn4ab Lr	GAGGCGTAGTGATCTGACGG

sh2b3 Lf	TTTCTGCCGGCATCTGCTCC
sh2b3 Lr	CCTGCTGGTCGTTGTCCGTC
slc17a3 Lf	CCGCTGTGCCCAGGAGCAAG
slc17a3 Lr	AGGAAACGACCCGTGACCAC
smg6 Lf	CCCAGCATCAGTGGAGGTGC
smg6 Lr	CCCTGAGCCTCAGTCCCAGC
sspo Lf	TGCAGTCGAGGGTCAGTGGTCG
sspo Lr	CACAGGATCGCGGGCAAGAAGG
trappc12 Lf	GTGCCTGCTGTACCTGGGCC
trappc12 Lr	ACCACCACCTCTCTCCCAGC
ttl Lf	CCGGGCGGACCAACAACTG
ttl Lr	GGAGTCAGACAGCTCTGGGC
ttn.2 Lf	CAGAGCTGGACGGACATCGG
ttn.2 Lr	GGAGCGCTGACGTCTGCCTC
ufsp1 Lf	TGGGAAAGGACTAGAGGAGGG
ufsp1 Lr	GACACTCGCTTCCAGGACAC
veph1 Lf	TCTGTCAGAGCGGATGCAAG
veph1 Lr	AGTCTCTGATCGGGATGCAAC
xylb Lf	CCTGCAGCAACATGGCAGTGTG
xylb Lr	ACCATCACTGTGGTCAATGGCTGC
zfhx3 Lf	GGCTGGGTGGTGTCAG
zfhx3 Lr	TGTGCGGCTAGGTGGTGGAC
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Table 1. List of randomly selected genes.

Medaka Ensembl gene names and codes, as well as orthologous human genes as annotated in the 95th Ensembl release.

Ensembl ID	Medaka Gene	Orthologous Human Gene	
ENSORLG00000006335	novel gene - cdc42 (cell division control protein 42 homolog)	na (CDC42 by name)	
ENSORLG00000000979	novel gene - ogdh (2-oxoglutarate dehydrogenase)	OGDH	
ENSORLG00000005268	duox (dual oxidase 1)	DUOXI	
ENSORLG00000007310	git2 (GIT ArfGAP2)	GIT2	
ENSORLG00000003492	mus 81 (MUS81 Structure-Specific Endonuclease Subunit)	MUS81	
ENSORLG00000020766	or124-2 (odorant receptor, family E 124, member 2)	na	
ENSORLG00000007400	plekha8 (pleckstrin homology domain containing A8)	PLEKHA8	
ENSORLG00000022757	ttl (tubulin tyrosine ligase)	TTL	
ENSORLG00000005922	cabp4 (calcium binding protein 4)	CABP2	
ENSORLG00000023106	novel gene - eml6 (echinoderm microtubule-associated protein-like 6)	EML6	

Table 2. List of candidate genes extracted from Human GWAS using GRASP 2.0 Database Human genes are categorized according to their association into "heart rate" (**bold**) and "non-heart rate" (non bold) related phenotypes in human GWAS.

Human Gene	Coding SNP ID	Associated heart phenotype	Association Reference	Medaka orthologue gene (Ensembl release)	Ensembl Gene Code
ATP8B4	rs2452524	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	atp8b4 (98)	ENSORLG00000005106
CASQ2	rs4074536	QRS interval	(Sotoodehnia et al. 2010)	casq2 (89)	ENSORLG00000017885
CCDC141	rs17362588	Heart rate	(Hoed et al. 2013)	na (89) (TBLASTN=ccdc141)	TBLASTN = ENSORLG00000030409
CEP85L	rs3734381	QRS interval	(Sotoodehnia et al. 2010)	cep85l (91)	ENSORLG00000015455
CMYA5	rs10942901	Heart rate	(Hoed et al. 2013)	cmya5 (91)	ENSORLG00000008983
COL9A1	rs592121	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	col9a1b (98)	ENSORLG00000010431
GIGYF1	rs221794	Heart rate	(Hoed et al. 2013)	gigyf1 (89)	ENSORLG00000003655
GRID2	rs1385405	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	grid2 (98)	ENSORLG00000024663
HOMEZ	rs1055061	Sick sinus syndrome	(Holm et al. 2011)	homeza (89)	ENSORLG00000012220
KCNH2	rs1805123	QT interval	(Pfeufer et al. 2009)	kcnh2 (98)	ENSORLG00000004137
MINAR1	rs2297773	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	minar1 (98)	ENSORLG00000016707
MYRF	rs174535	RR interval	(Eijgelsheim et al. 2010)	myrf (91)	ENSORLG00000006459
NACA	rs2926743	Heart rate	(Hoed et al. 2013)	naca (98)	ENSORLG00000012246
OR5AU1	rs4982419	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	na (98) (TBLASTN=no name)	TBLASTN = ENSORLG00000024679
PADI4	rs2240335	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	na (98) (TBLASTN=padi2)	TBLASTN = ENSORLG00000007539
PPP1R9A	rs854524	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	ppp1r9a (98)	ENSORLG00000004418
RNF207	rs846111	QT interval	(Newton-Cheh et al. 2009)	rnf207b (91)	ENSORLG00000017207
SCN5A	rs1805126	QRS interval	(Ritchie et al. 2013)	na (89) (TBLASTN=scn4ab)	TBLASTN = ENSORLG00000003273
SSPO	rs10261977	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	sspo (98)	ENSORLG00000004121
TRAPPC12	rs6767	Pulse rate	(Hiura et al. 2010)	trappc12 (98)	ENSORLG00000017859
TTN	rs12476289	QT interval	(Marroni et al. 2009)	ttn.2 (91)	ENSORLG00000018144
UFSP1	rs12666989	RR interval	(Eijgelsheim et al. 2010)	na (89) (TBLASTN=ufsp1)	TBLASTN = ENSORLG00000022928
XYLB	rs17118	PR interval	(Smith et al. 2009)	xylb (91)	ENSORLG00000003755
ABCB1	rs1128503	Drug response CVD	(Paré et al. 2013)	abcb4 (91)	ENSORLG00000009269
BAG3	rs3858340	Sporadic dilated cardiomyopathy	(Villard et al. 2011)	bag3 (89)	ENSORLG00000013813
CLCNKA	rs1805152	Sporadic dilated cardiomyopathy	(Villard et al. 2011)	clcnk (89)	ENSORLG00000018693
CNOT1	rs11866002	Aortic valve calcium	(Thanassoulis et al. 2013)	cnot1 (91)	ENSORLG00000013734

EDN1	rs150035515	Aortic valve calcium	(Matsa et al. 2014)	edn1 (89)	ENSORLG00000009276
HCN4	rs529004	Aortic valve calcium	(Thanassoulis et al. 2013)	hcn4 (91)	ENSORLG00000013180
MAML3	rs11729794	Congenital heart malformations	(Hu et al. 2013)	na (91) (TBLASTN=maml3)	TBLASTN = NCBI Ref Seq: XM_023954746.1
NUBP2	rs344359	LV systolic dysfunction	(Vasan et al. 2009)	nubp2 (91)	ENSORLG00000007228
PIEZO1	rs2290902	Bicuspid aortic valve	(Wooten et al. 2010)	piezo1 (91)	ENSORLG00000000402
PLG	rs13231	Aortic valve calcium	(Thanassoulis et al. 2013)	plg (91)	ENSORLG00000020532
RGS3	rs12341266	Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy	(Wooten et al. 2013)	rgs3a (91)	ENSORLG00000006823
SCMH1	rs10489520	Ischemic stroke	(Ikram et al. 2009)	scmh1 (91)	ENSORLG00000014207
SH2B3	rs3184504	Tetrology of fallot	(Cordell et al. 2013)	sh2b3 (91)	ENSORLG00000003569
SLC17A3	rs942379	Bicuspid aortic valve	(Wooten et al. 2010)	si:ch1073-513e17.1 (91)	ENSORLG00000007671
SMG6	rs216193	Aortic root size	(Vasan et al. 2009)	smg6 (91)	ENSORLG00000003317
VEPH1	rs1378796	Sporadic dilated cardiomyopathy	(Villard et al. 2011)	veph1 (89)	ENSORLG00000012452
ZFHX3	rs2228200	Aortic valve calcium	(Thanassoulis et al. 2013)	<i>zfhx3</i> (91)	ENSORLG00000007874