1   **Autosomal monoallelic genes are differentially regulated based on parental origin**

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Abstract

The mammalian diploid nucleus contains two copies of its genome, one copy derived from

each parent and thus each autosomal gene is represented by two alleles. A small number of recent

studies have emphasized sex-biased gene expression and chromosomal arrangement in mammals[1-

4]. Yet, no insights have been made to explore allele-specific regulatory mechanisms of autosomes.

Here we used allele-specific single cell transcriptomic analysis to elucidate the establishment of

monoallelic gene expression in the cardiac lineage. We revealed that pluripotent and cardiac

lineage specific monoallelically expressed genes are regulated by different epigenetic mechanisms

based upon their genetic background and parental origin. In addition, we observed epigenetic

differences between deterministic and random autosomal monoallelic genes. Deterministic

monoallelic genes are highly enriched in processes of cardiac musculature and cell physiology,

whereas random autosomal monoallelic genes encode basic cellular processes. Moreover, we also

found a greater contribution of the maternal versus paternal allele to the development and

homeostasis of cardiac tissue and in cardiac health, highlighting the importance of maternal

influence in male cardiac tissue homeostasis. Our findings emphasize the significance of allele-

specific insights into gene regulation in development, homeostasis and disease.

Main

The diploid eucaryotic genome requires precise spatial-temporal regulation during

development and homeostasis. Autosomal gene transcription can be carried out in three states; bi-

allelic, deterministic monoallelic (DeMA – the allele selection is predetermined. e.g. imprinted

genes), and random autosomal monoallelic (RaMA – the allele selection is not predetermined. e.g.

each allele has an equal chance to become the active or the inactive allele). Alteration to the

homeostatic expression from the selected DeMA or RaMA gene may result in allele heterogeneity,

thus may partly explain the variable penetrance of disease-associated mutations caused by

monoallelic genes. Hence, extensive investigation into the establishment and mechanism of

monoallelic gene expression can provide insights into development, homeostasis, and disease.

RaMA gene expression is widely established in early mammalian development[5-9]. This gene

expression paradigm has been explored using bulk cell transcriptomic data generated from *in vitro*

F1 mouse embryonic stem cell (mESCs) derived neural progenitor cells[6,7], however, it has not

been extensively investigated in cells or tissues committed to different lineage differentiation

paradigms at single cell resolution. Sex-biased autosomal gene expression has been recently

reported, but allele-exclusive expression has not yet received much attention[3,4]. The regulatory

bias based on the alleles' origin and alleles' genetic background in autosomal monoallelic genes

has been overlooked, as dogma implies that there is no dissimilarity between maternal and paternal

alleles based on the commonality of the nucleic acid chemistry. Thus, here we sought to investigate

the allele-specific expression profiles of monoallelic genes in cardiac lineage cells.

Parental bias of DeMA gene expression

The establishment of monoallelically expressed genes in cardiac lineage cell types is

currently unknown. We initially implemented an allele-specific bulk-RNA-seq approach on highly

morphogenic (C57Bl/6J-maternal x CAST/EiJ-paternal) male F1 mouse embryonic stem cells

(mESC) derived from three blastocysts and *in vitro* derived heterogenous cardiac precursor cell

cultures (CPCCs) from those three F1 mESC clones. CPCCs are predominantly enriched with

cardiac stem cells (CSCs) and cardiac progenitor cells (CPCs) (Fig.1a & Extended data Fig.1a-c),

but also contain an additional three cell types, including *Mef2c* positive cardiac precursor cells

(Fig.2c & Extended data Fig.2b). Since the CPCCs cultures contain lineage committed naive and

fully differentiated CSCs and CPCs, these cultures exhibit a transcriptional profile similar to

mESCs and a transcriptional profile specific to cardiac lineage cells (Fig.1b & Extended data

Fig.1c, d). To examine the parental origin of the transcripts, we systematically implemented a

rigorous allele-specific gene filtering algorithm[10] then the significantly expressed autosomal genes

from each parental background were identified as deterministic maternal (mat-mono),

deterministic paternal (pat-mono) and bi-allelically expressed gene cohorts (Fig.1c, d, Extended

data Fig.1e). In this rigorous filtering approach, we only consider a gene to be a DeMA gene if it

is solely expressed from one parental background in all three clonal biological replicates. The

intersect of all mESC and CPCCs mat-mono and pat-mono genes showed no allele switching of

expressed genes between the cell types (except for three outliers) (Fig.1e). Interestingly, during

mESC to CPCC differentiation, we observed that the 994 monoallelically expressed genes in

mESCs had changed their expression to biallelic status and the 468 biallelic genes in ESCs had

changed to monoallelic status (Extended data Fig. 1f, g). The newly identified 266 genes out of

1496 monoallelic genes in CPCCs function in biological processes relevant to cardiac lineage cells

(Extended data Fig. 1h) indicating the biological relevance in the establishment of DeMA genes

in cardiac lineage cells.

To investigate whether distinct maternal versus paternal DeMA gene expression is due to

the parent-of-origin of the alleles or the alleles' genetic background, we re-analyzed five publicly

available RNA-seq data sets (two mESC bulk RNA-seq (GSM2405897), one bulk RNA-seq from

32-cells blastocysts (GSE152103) and two data sets from scRNA-seq, one from 32 cell and the

other from 64 cell blastocysts (GSE80810)) generated from C57Bl/6J x CAST/EiJ reciprocal

crosses. Though the number of genes expressed in the same cell types in the reciprocal crosses is

the same, we found that the divergence of the imbalance of DeMA gene expression from maternal

and paternal alleles is due to the genetic background of the parental alleles. The C57Bl/6J allele is

preferentially expressed, which to our knowledge, was not previously reported in any studies using

cross genetic backgrounds (Extended data Fig.1i-m).

97   We observed that in mESCs and CPCCs, the number of mat-mono genes expressed was

5.5-fold and 5.0-fold higher than the number of pat-mono genes, respectively (Fig.1f). To test

whether this imbalanced allelic expression can be explained by differential transcription bursting

frequencies in each genetic background, we assessed the active transcription status of the maternal

and paternal alleles in our RNA-seq data *in silico*. We observed in both mESCs and CPCCs that

the number of actively transcribed mat-mono genes is lower than the total mat-mono gene number

(Fig.1f) and that no nascent transcripts were detected for a subset of mature mat-mono mRNAs

(ESCs: 88.2% and CPCCs: 85.7% from the total RNAs) (Fig.1g, h), perhaps due to those genes'

longer time-lag between transcription bursts. Conversely, a significant number of mat-mono and

pat-mono actively transcribing genes were lacking or exhibited a significantly reduced number of

mature transcripts (ESCs: 79.5% and CPCCs:79.3% from the total active RNAs) (Fig.1g, h). To

validate this unexpected observation, we performed nascent and mature RNA specific qRT-PCR

for several candidate genes (Fig.1i). qRT-PCR results were in accordance with our *in-silico*

observation and thus we suggest this is possibly due to delayed pre-mRNA processing or rapid

mRNA decay[11,12], or a yet unknown nascent mRNA perpetuation mechanism of those mRNA

species.

Parental biased DeMA gene expression in lineage commitment

To investigate the persistence of distinctive parental origin biased DeMA gene expression

further in lineage committed and in terminally differentiated somatic cardiac cells, we conducted

allele-specific scRNA-seq analysis in mESCs (215-cells) and cells from *in vitro* derived CPCCs

(175-cells) and cardiac bodies (CBs, 232-cells) (Extended Fig.1a & Video-1). Pseudo-time

trajectory analysis confirmed the linear-lineage correlation of the mESCs, CPCCs and CBs

(Fig.2a). Next, the cellular heterogeneity of each point was defined by a systematic cell-cluster

analysis approach (Fig.2b-d, Extended data Fig.2a-c). From those cell-clusters we investigated

allele-specific expression in seven known cell types (G1/S-mESCs, CSCs, CPCs, CF-cardiac

fibroblasts, CM-cardiomyocytes, EC- endocardium cells, and PE-pericardial cells. Cardiac lineage

cell-clusters did not further sub-cluster in cell cycle analysis). In agreement with the observation

in bulk-RNA-seq data, allele-specific scRNA-seq analysis confirmed that the distinctive DeMA

gene expression pattern from parental genomes remains preserved between mESCs and six cardiac

lineage cell types (Fig.2e, Extended Data Fig.2d). In addition, active mat-mono and pat-mono

genes exhibit imbalanced allelic expression frequencies, either higher in pat-mono genes (e.g.CSC,

CPC, EC and PE) or higher in mat-mono genes (e.g., ESCs, CF, CM) (Extended Data Fig.2e).

Further, a higher proportion of mat-mono genes are shared between cardiac cell types than pat-

mono genes and they rarely exhibit allele-switching (Fig.2f).

Further, to validate our data sets, we investigated whether known monoallelic genes

expressed in the heart were included in our CM specific DeMA gene set. We observed the allele-

specific expression of several known imprinted genes including *H19*, *Snrpn*, *Cobl* and *Dlk1*

agreeing with our data set, but some imprinted genes, such as *Peg10*[13], was observed to be

biallelically expressed in CMs. It has been shown that some of the imprinted monoallelic genes

show clustered gene expression. Although it was previously demonstrated that *Ubea3a* exhibited

clustered gene expression with *Snrpn*, we did not see *Ubea3a* expressed in our single-cell CMs

specific gene set. Instead, we detected that *Snurf,* which is within the *Snrpn* cluster*,* is also

maternally expressed. As previously reported, we also observed the maternally expressed *Begain*,

which is positioned at the Chr12 centromeric boundary, physically distanced ~383 kb to the *Dlk1*

imprinted gene at the *Dlk1-Meg3* imprinted cluster[14-16]. However, we saw no *Meg3* expression in

CMs perhaps due to the cell type specific gene expression of *Meg3* in the heart. Some of the

dissimilarities we detect between our DeMA genes and others may be due to the different technical

approaches we used (e.g., single cell vs bulk tissue).

DeMA genes contain distinctive epigenetic marks

Allele-specific gene expression may be explained by the distinctive epigenetic status of the

alleles[17,18]. However, the histone signatures of cardiac monoallelic genes have been largely

unexplored. Previous studies suggest that H3K27me3 and H3K36me3 are the primary histone

signatures of monoallelic genes[19-21], but the signatures of the active versus silent allele were not

individually examined. To address the allele-specific histone signatures of DeMA genes, we

compiled all the mat-mono and pat-mono gene candidates identified in the seven cell types with

ENCODE histone modification data to probe their common histone signatures (Supplementary

Table-1). This analysis revealed that the maternal and paternal monoallelic alleles are enriched for

different and unique histone signatures (Fig.2g, Extended Data Fig.2f). H3ac, H3K79me2/3,

H3K4me3, H3K27ac and H3K9ac are the signatures significantly enriched on mat-mono genes.

H3K27ac marks the active gene enhancers[22,23]. Bivalent enrichment of H3K4me3 and H3K9ac

and; H3K27ac and H3K79me2 signatures occupy highly active gene promoters. In contrast, the

same promoters contain H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 histone marks (lowly abundant in our data,

Extended Data Table-1) when those same genes become transcriptionally silent in

cardiomyocytes[24], suggesting the possibility of H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 silent histone

signatures marks the silent paternal alleles of maternally expressed genes. In our pat-mono genes,

the most significant signature is H3K27me3, a silent gene histone signature at the promoter or

downstream of the transcription start sites (TSSs). H3K4me1 (enhancer mark) is also present (less

significance: combined score = 0.33) in our pat-mono genes, suggesting a model where H3K4me1

and H3K27me3 perhaps bivalently occupy the poised enhancers[25] and H3K4me1, the unimodal

histone mark, occupies the poised promoter of the active paternal allele. Heterochromatin

associated H3K9me3 and H3K36me3 histone marks are lowly abundant in our pat-mono genes

(Extended Data Table 1). We speculate that the repressed maternal alleles of pat-mono genes are

either marked by H3K27me3 and H3K9me3 at the promoter regions simultaneously with

H3K36me3 in the genes' body, or the enhancer/promoters maintain their silent state, perhaps by

another mechanism such as miRNA, siRNA or DNA secondary structures[26,27]. We also observed

that the average transcription levels were higher in mat-mono genes than in the pat-mono genes in

mESCs, CFs and CMs (Extended data Fig.2e), but in the CSCs, CPCs, ECs and PEs, the average

transcription levels were higher in pat-mono genes than mat-mono genes. This may be the result

of the enhancer/promoter association of different chromatin signatures in different cell types,

which means for our data that in mESCs, CFs and CMs, the enhancer associated H3K27ac mark

may promote a higher rate of mat-mono gene transcription, while in pat-mono genes H3K4me1

poised promoters may drive steady transcription, resulting in a lower transcription levels[28,29]. In

contrast, in CSCs, CPCs, ECs and PEs, unimodal H3K4me1 signatures on promoters (proximal to

TSS) may result in higher pat-mono gene transcription, a muscle cell development gene specific

epigenetic mechanism[30]. For the most part, allele specificity of monoallelic genes does not change

between cardiac cell types although a few outliers exhibit a switch of the parental origin but

remained monoallelic (Fig.2f). This tightly regulated mechanism, in part in mat-mono genes, may

be driven by H3K79me2/3, which may permanently 'bookmark' active alleles through mitosis[31]

as the H3K79me2/3 mark occupies active gene bodies through mitosis but is not involved in gene

activation[24,32-34]. Taken together, we propose an allele-specific histone signature model for DeMA

genes as illustrated in Fig.2h.

To experimentally validate the histone signatures in our proposed model, as a proof of

principle, we next assessed the six allele specific histone signatures in mESCs (Extended data

Fig.2g) using a CUT&Tag assay. As expected, we detected strong H3K4me3 and H3K27ac

signals around the TSS of the genes (Extended data Fig.2h). However, when we assessed the allele-

specific enrichment (Extended data Fig.2i, j), we noticed that two peaks were present upstream

and downstream of the TSSs, probably indicating proximal enhancers/promoters at the 5' of the

TSSs and at the promoters 3' of the TSSs. H3K4me1, the only enhancer that mark on the paternal

alleles in mESCs was noticeably enriched upstream of the TSSs as well as in the gene bodies,

probably at intergenic enhancers. H3K79me2 and H3K79me3 known to mark gene bodies, was

also observed at the TSSs, suggesting that those signatures may be involved in assisting the

enhancer-promoter interactions of actively transcribing genes[35,36]. Moreover, we found that

H3K36me3, a signature of actively transcribing gene bodies, was enriched at the promoter regions

(Extended data Fig.2g), but was not strongly present at DeMA gene promoters, matching to the

histone signatures we modeled for mESC (Extended data Fig.2g) DeMA genes (Extended data

Fig.2i, j).

Next, to validate the histone signature model we proposed for RaMA genes, we assessed

our mESCs' maternal and paternal gene cohorts from bulk-RNA-seq data in allele-specific histone

signatures from the CUT&Tag assay. We found 78.4% of our maternal DeMA genes fell within

the maternal-specific histone signatures (Fig.2i & k). However, the less probabilistically

significant (P=0.03) predicted paternal allele-specific histone signatures (Extended data Fig.2f –

lower panel) only matched with 21% of the genes we gathered in our CUT&Tag assay (Fig.3j &

l). Therefore, our histone signature model, at least in part, is supported by the histone signatures

associated with the maternal DeMA genes.

Context dependent RaMA gene expression

RaMA genes stochastically select the expressed and repressed alleles. To assess whether

RaMA genes share the same regulatory mechanism as DeMA genes, we first identified RaMA

genes in seven cell types using a rigorous gene filtering method (Extended Data Fig.3a). In line

with previous reports, we observed that RaMA genes are not clustered, rather they are randomly

positioned in the genome[6-8,37] (Fig.3a). An increased number of RaMA genes has been reported in

in vitro cell differentiation paradigms[6,7]. To determine whether an increase in RaMA expression

occurs in the cardiac lineage, we first evaluated bulk RNA-seq data from mESCs and CPCCs

(Extended data Fig.3b). Although the number of RaMA genes in the two cohorts is comparable,

the gene sets are distinctive. The mESCs and CPCCs are heterogenous (Fig.2b, c), thus making it

difficult to accurately assess RaMA gene expression. Therefore, to investigate RaMA

establishment in homogenous cell populations, we next evaluated scRNA-seq data of mESCs,

CSCs and CPCs. Contrary to bulk-RNA-seq data, we observed modest increased establishment

(1.44%, 2.8%, 2.65%, respectively) of RaMA gene expression within the total expressed genes in

mESCs, CSCs and CPCs (Fig.3b). Further, except for CMs, other cardiac cells also exhibit an

increase in the number of RaMA genes. This is perhaps because the mouse CMs are multinucleated

and therefore, when analyzing the CMs at the single cell level but not on the single nuclei level,

the true representation of RaMA genes in CMs has not been captured. Next, we assessed whether

RaMA gene establishment in CSCs and CPCs is required for establishing DeMA genes in more

differentiated cells of the cardiac lineage. However, we found that these two instances are

independent processes (Extended Data Fig.3c) and that RaMA genes are mostly cell type specific,

thus RaMA gene establishment may not directly correlate with lineage commitment (Extended

data Fig.3d).

RaMA gene regulation is distinctive

Expression from a single allele is common to both RaMA and DeMA genes. Therefore, we

speculated that the active and inactive alleles of these two gene cohorts may share similar histone

signatures. Active RaMA gene alleles are primarily marked by H3ac, H3K27ac, H3K4me3,

H3K79me2/3 and H3K9ac histone signatures (Fig.3c, Extended Data Table 2). H3K27ac is known

to mark active gene enhancers[22,23]. H3K4me3 and H3K9ac and; HeK27ac and H3K79me2

bivalently occupy highly active gene promoters[24]. It has been hypothesized that once established,

active alleles and silent alleles are 'bookmarked' in a clonal cell population[38]. H3K79me2/3 is

known to establish at active gene-bodies in an *in vitro* and *in vivo* CM differentiation paradigm[39].

The levels of H3K79me2 are known to fluctuate but are not erased during mitosis[40,41], thus

H3K79me2/3 may serve as a 'bookmark' of the active allele of a RaMA gene. H3K36me3 is the

only signature associated with heterochromatin for our RaMA genes (Extended Data Table 2),

although enriched with low significance in our gene set, and which recruits HDAC to prevent

redundant run-off RNA Pol II transcription[42,43]. Thus, a loose-interplay between H3K36me3 and

H3K79me2 in the allele body may explain a role in orchestrating alleles to gain their active or

silent signatures in a clonal cell population. Further, H3K36me3 and H3K79me2 marks have been

shown to be present in nucleosomes and H3K36me3 is enriched within exons, which has been

suggested to inhibit pre-mRNA splicing[44-46]. We found that most of the RaMA genes express five

to six alternatively spliced transcripts on average (Fig.3d), however, 64% to 74% of these genes

result in a single identified protein coding transcript (Fig.3e), suggesting a possible histone model

in which H3K36me3 may safeguard the unnecessary splicing events in the single protein coding

transcripts of the RaMA genes (Fig.3f). Interestingly, ENCODE histone modification data for our

RaMA gene set from the six cell types we studied reveals greater similarity to maternal DeMA

genes, but is distinctive from pat-mono histone signatures (Extended Data Table 1 & 2). However,

at this point, we are unable to provide an explanation for this observation, as ours or others'

published data do not lead to any avenue to explore the above observation.

To investigate whether the histone signature model we proposed for RaMA genes by in-

silico analysis could be validated by experimental evidence, we evaluated our CUT&Tag data for

a RaMA gene histone signature. Because the number of RaMA genes we observed in our bulk-

RNA-seq data from mESCs was low (13 genes), we used the RaMA genes from scRNA-seq data

in mESCs. We found 85.6% of the RaMA genes agreed with the enriched promoter and gene body

histone signatures in our CUT&Tag data (Extended Data Fig. 3e-g), indicating the validity of the

histone signature model we proposed for RaMA genes.

DeMA genes' critical impact on the heart

Some DeMA genes are common to CSCs and CPCs, but some are unique to each cell type (Fig.4a). Because of the lineage relationship of these cells, we sought to assess the significance of common and unique monoallelic genes in heart development. Surprisingly, unique pat-mono alleles in CPCs have exclusive transcription factor (TF) binding profiles and as such are regulated by 10 TFs (Extended Data Table 3); among this group five are Zinc finger proteins (Zfps) - (Fig.4b, Extended Data Fig.4a) and those 10 TFs are involved in muscle and heart cell homeostasis (Fig.4c, Extended Data Table 4). Uniquely expressed mat-mono and pat-mono gene cohorts in CSCs and CPCs are significantly enriched in unique processes in heart development (Supplementary Table-4); noticeably, mat-mono genes contribute to embryonic heart development and young and adult heart cell physiology (e.g., MGS206: P=2.04E-10, MGS210: P=5.92E-10 - Fig.4d, Extended Data Fig.4b), while pat-mono genes are involved in young and neonates' heart musculature (e.g., MGS844: P=0.01, MGS766: P=0.037 - Fig.4e). The genes common in CSCs and CPCs in pat-mono and mat-mono cohorts exhibit diverse and broad functional profiles (Extended Data Fig.4c, d); mat-mono genes are significantly involved in cardiomyocyte physiology (e.g., MGS320: P=3.78E-18, MGS328: P=3.74E-17), whereas pat-mono genes (e.g., Kcnd3 - cardiac repolarization) participate in heart and skeletal muscle physiology (e.g., MGS1392: P=0.014, MGS414: P=0.015) (Extended Data Fig.4e, f, Extended Data Table 4). The number of mat-mono genes that were common in four cell types from CBs was notably higher than the number of pat-mono genes (Fig.4f, g) and some (e.g., *Coa5*, *Ndufs1*, *Ndufa10*) were critical for known cardiac related human disease phenotypes (e.g., Hypertrophic cardiomyopathy-HP:0001639 – Padj= 9.942×10^{-4}) (Fig.4h), whereas pat-mono genes were not (Extended Data Table 4). CMs are the most specialized cell type in the heart and perform rhythmic beating, the primary function of the

heart. We assessed the importance of the unique DeMA genes in CMs in disease causation. Unique

mat-mono and pat-mono genes exhibited a wide functional profile (Extended Data Fig.4g, h,

Extended Data Table 3). However, the significantly higher TF functional profile for unique mat-

mono genes compared to pat-mono genes suggests that the mat-mono genes hold greater risk

factors for heart disease in males (Fig.4i, Extended Data Fig.4i-k, Supplementary Table 3).

Conversely, unique pat-mono genes in CMs do not provide insight into known human disease

related phenotype or physiological relevance.

To gain insight into DeMA and RaMA genes' functional relevance in CMs, we then

assessed the functional profiles of these two gene classes. Gene ontology profiles showed that the

DeMA genes were enriched in processes contributing to CM cell composition (85 - GO:CC terms),

whereas RaMA genes exhibit no association with CM structure (Extended data Fig.4l, m). Further,

only the DeMA genes exhibit enrichment in molecular function (62 - GO:MF terms), biological

processes (259 - GO:BP terms) and transcription factor (639 - GO:TF terms) GO terms in regard

to CMs. Moreover, from the total DeMA genes in CMs, 718 genes homologous to human were

known to cause abnormalities in human heart musculature (GO:HP - HP0003011) (Extended Data

table 5). Interestingly, we also found that, out of 718 genes, 69.1% of genes were included in

autosomal recessive inheritance genes in human (HP:0000007), confirming the significance of

DeMA genes in heart musculature. However, there was no evidence of the involvement of RaMA

genes in the establishment of cardiac musculature. RaMA genes were generally related to basic

cellular housekeeping processes, for example *Smug1*: base excision repair and *Lig3*: heart

conduction disease (Extended data Fig. 4n, o, Extended Data table 6). We further investigated

whether there was any known clinical information associated with DeMA genes. By compiling

our DeMA gene set (6284 genes) in 'Jensen DISEASE', an algorithm for clinical literature data

mining, we found that 28 genes are included out of 62 clinically known congenital heart disease

related genes (Extended data Fig. 4p, q, Extended Data table 7 and 8).

Discussion

Monoallelic gene expression by imprinting is a well studied phenomenon and contributed

to our understanding of gene expression in development and disease[39,47,48]. However, it has also

been shown that, for some genes, monoallelic gene expression could be explained by non-

imprinting mechanisms[49], for example establishment of recessive and dominant alleles[50] of which

the molecular mechanism is poorly understood. Also, imprinted status of some genes may not be

stable across multiple tissues, which could arise from the tissue context[51,52] -

https://www.geneimprint.com/site/genes-by-species. In this study, using our data from mESCs and

publicly available data from mESCs and mouse blastocysts, we identified a role for genetic

background to influence monoallelic gene expression, which possibly may follow the Mendelian

genetics of establishment of dominant and recessive alleles because of the higher polymorphism

between two genomes. mESCs and cells in blastocysts are naïve cells and contain unique genetic

and epigenetic marks, for example gene imprinting is less abundant in those two cell types

compared to lineage committed cells. Therefore, the genetic background of the parental allele's

influence of deterministic genes' allele selection is perhaps due to these cells' unique and pre-

mature genetic and epigenetic status and may not follow the "rules of stable monoallelic gene

establishment" as in lineage committed cells. To support this idea, we showed that the parental

allele identity of the known imprinted genes (*Snrpn*, *Cobl*, *Dlk1*, *Meg3* and *Ubea3a*) match with

our CMs DeMA data. This observation suggests that, imprinted genes may not be strongly

influenced by the genetic background of the parental alleles, but the non-imprinted monoalleleic

genes that are established by other mechanisums, for an example dominant and recessive gene

establishment, may change the origin-of-the active allele depending on the genetic background.

Therefore, we intentionally avoided categorizing the DeMA genes identified in this study as

imprinted genes, but rather broadly acknowledge them as deterministic monoallelic genes.

Although we were not able to address this finding further as it is beyond our study scope, it will

be worth pursuing in future studies using the lineage committed cardiac cells from reciprocal

crosses at single cell resolution.

Our data demonstrates the potential distinctive gene regulatory mechanisms in autosomal

monoallelic maternal and paternal genomes in cardiac lineage cells, emphasizing an alleles'

parental origin of expression and the potential effects this could have in development and disease.

An interesting and unexpected outcome of our study is the disease susceptibility based on the

exclusive expression of the maternal or paternal allele. When a critical gene is expressed solely

from the maternal single allele, males are at a disadvantage in acquiring variable penetrance of

disease (e.g., Fig.4i – e.g., HP:0003215 – Discarboxylic aciduria). It is known that males are more

susceptible to heart-related disease[53-55]. We observed that the maternally expressed set of genes in

our cardiomyocyte's DeMA cohort, which are homologous to human genes (GO term: HP0000007

- *AUH, DNAJC19, OPA3*), are linked to the male specific 3-Methylglutaconic aciduria type 2

(BTHS syndrome) disease - https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/medgen/107893. Therefore, our study

provides insightful genetic evidence of maternally expressed monoallelic genes potentially being

causative of male heart-related diseases. Further, exclusively expressed paternal deterministic

monoallelic genes (in CPCs) primarily showed a contribution to neonatal and adult heart

physiology and ~~we~~ this gene cohort was exclusively regulated by TFs (e.g., *Esr1*, *SP1*, *Klf4*), and

are known to be involved in preventing heart attack and cardiac hypertrophy[24,32]. Further, the

DeMA genes are scattered throughout the genome, however, some showed clustering, and thus

may be susceptible to disease caused by allele heterogeneity[56]. In summary, in this study we

emphasize the importance of parental origin-specific gene expression in development, homeostasis

and disease and provide a comprehensive identification of deterministic monoallelic genes in

unique cardiac cell types.

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Fig.1| Allelic expression of autosomal monoallelic genes. a, F1 mESCs grown in 2i medium and

in vitro derived CPCCs cultures. **b**, Hierarchical cluster heat map of F1 mESC and CPCCs. Gene

wise dispersion by conditional maximum likelihood (Log$_2$(CPM)) was assessed using EdgeR

pipeline setting the cut-off z-score at four. Bulk-RNA-Seq performed with biological triplicates.

c,d, Volcano-plot showing maternally and paternally expressed genes in mESCs and CPCCs. Log$_2$

fold changes of the (-)X axis coordinates are deterministic mat-mono genes (red dotted line area)

and the (+)X axis coordinates are deterministic pat-mono genes (blue dotted line area). Differential

gene expression analysis was performed using EdgeR pipeline. **e,** Intersects of mESC and CPCCs

monoallelic genes. Allele-specific monoallelic genes: Some are common between mESCs and

CPCCs, the remainder are unique to each cell type and do not switch alleles (except three outliers).

f, Mat-mono and pat-mono establishment is imbalanced in both mESCs and CPCCs. The number

of actively transcribing versus mature transcripts differ. **g**,**h,** Intersects of actively transcribing

genes versus genes with mature transcripts. Higher proportion of genes contain either only the

mature transcripts or only the nascent transcripts. **i**, qRT-PCR analysis for representative actively

transcribing monoallelic genes lacking mature transcripts. Nascent and mature transcripts were

assessed using a Click-iT™ assay and mature transcript–control was assessed on total RNA used

in the Click-iT™ assay (n=3). Nascent transcripts expressed were normalized to nascent *Actb*

transcripts expressed and the mature transcripts expressed were normalized to mature *Actb*

transcripts expressed.

ID	Source	Term ID	Term Name	p_adj (query_1)
1	GO:BP	GO:0007275	multicellular organism development	1.754×10^{-9}
2	GO:BP	GO:0009888	tissue development	1.258×10^{-6}
3	GO:BP	GO:0009653	anatomical structure morphogenesis	2.243×10^{-5}
4	GO:BP	GO:0009887	animal organ morphogenesis	1.097×10^{-3}
5	GO:BP	GO:0007507	heart development	4.683×10^{-4}
6	GO:BP	GO:0014706	striated muscle tissue development	9.588×10^{-3}
7	GO:BP	GO:0001944	vasculature development	1.672×10^{-6}
8	GO:BP	GO:0001568	blood vessel development	3.208×10^{-5}
9	GO:BP	GO:0003007	heart morphogenesis	9.984×10^{-3}
10	GO:BP	GO:0032502	developmental process	9.758×10^{-6}
11	GO:BP	GO:0048514	blood vessel morphogenesis	5.740×10^{-4}
12	GO:BP	GO:0048729	tissue morphogenesis	2.266×10^{-3}
13	GO:BP	GO:0061061	muscle structure development	1.778×10^{-3}
14	GO:BP	GO:0060537	muscle tissue development	6.429×10^{-4}

Extended Data Fig.1| Allelic expression of autosomal monoallelic genes. a, Schematic of in vitro cell differentiation protocol of cardiac lineage cell types. Cardiac intermediate cultures at day 7 are highly heterogenous cell cultures. CSC and CPC enriched cultures were obtained passaging these intermediate cultures three times in enrichment medium before harvesting for RNA-seq experiments. At 9-10 days post ascorbic acid treatment, detached embryonic bodies start

rhythmically beating and become cardiac bodies. Picked floating-beating cardiac bodies were used

in scRNA-seq experiments. **b**, Unsupervised Principal Component Analysis (PCA) of mESCs and

CPCCs bulk-RNA-seq data. **c**, Expression levels of known mESC and CSC-CPC marker genes. **d**,

Differential gene expression in mESCs and CPCCs. Differentially expressed mESC and CPCCs

genes are uniquely enriched in each cell type. -Log2(2) CPM was uses as the cut off. **e**, Schematic

of the deterministic monoallelic gene selection criteria. Genes are categorized as: not-expressed,

maternal-allele only expressed, paternal-allele only expressed and bi-allelically expressed. To be

categorized as a monoallelic gene (1), the gene must be expressed in all biological triplicates, and

(2) the gene must be exclusively expressed from only one parental background. **f**,**g**, Relation of

monoallelic gene establishment between mESCs and CPCCs. Maternal and Paternal DeMA genes

in mESCs and CPCCs were assessed among the total CPCCs genes (**f**) and the total mESCs (**g**).

Venn diagrams show 994 monoallelically expressed DeMA genes in mESCs changed to biallelic

expression in CPCCs and 468 biallelically expressed genes in mESCs changed to monoalleleic

expression. **h**, Functional analysis of newly established DeMA genes in CPCCs. GO:BP terms

clearly indicate the cardiac lineage specific functional relevance of several new monoallelic genes.

i-m, Venn diagrams illustrating the effect of genetic background of the alleles in DeMA gene

biased maternal and paternal expression. All the analyses show the switch of the DeMA genes

depending on the genetic background of the allele. Maternal is abbreviated to "Mat" and paternal

is abbreviated to "Pat". CB: cells from CASTEiJ x C57Bl6J crosses and BC: cells from C57Bl6J

x CASTEiJ crosses. Either in CB or BC, "C" is for CASTEiJ and "B" is for C57Bl6J and the first

letter indicates the maternal background. GSM2405897: male and female RNA-seq data was

generated from mESC bulk cell samples. GSE152103: male and female RNA-seq data was

 generated from total cells in 3.5 dpc blastocycts. GSE80810: male and female RNA-seq data was

 generated from single cells of 32-cell and 64-cell blastocyct.

Fig.2| Allele expression in cardiac cell types and differential epigenetic regulation of maternally and paternally expressed monoallelic genes. **a**, Pseudo time trajectory analysis for mESCs, CPCCs and CBs scRNA-Seq data. Trajectory shows the linear-lineage correlation of three experimental points. State 1: mainly mESCs, State 2,3 and 4: mainly CPCCs, State 5: mainly CBs. Nodes of the trajectory indicate the terminating points between the experimental points. **b**-**d**, Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection (UMAP) based systematic cell cluster analysis for mESC, CPCCs and CBs scRNA-Seq data points. UMAP plots show three clusters for mESC, five for CPCCs (Cluster 0: CSC, Cluster 2: CPC) and four for CBs (Cluster 0: CF, Cluster 1: CM, Cluster 2: EC, Cluster 3: PE). **e**, Number of bi-allelic and DeMA genes expressed in seven cell types. For each cell type, the number of bi-allelic and DeMA genes expressed are shown for two transcript categories: mature transcripts and nascent transcripts. **f**, Intersects of all maternal and paternal monoallelic genes in cardiac lineage cell types. Significantly higher number of mat-mono genes are shared between all cardiac cell types than pat-mono genes. Allele switching less

601 commonly occurred between maternal and paternal backgrounds; 100 intersects are shown. Nodes

602 show the intersected gene size and the line shows the cell types that are sharing the intersected

603 genes. **g**, Histone signatures of mat-mono genes. Histone marks enrichment represented as

604 Combined score, $-\text{Log}_{10}(_{adj}\text{P-value})$, $-\text{Log}_{10}(\text{P-value})$ (see methods) for each signature. **h,**

605 Schematic representation of the extrapolation of the histone mark association for DeMA gene

606 alleles. Maternal allele: Purple colored. Paternal alleles: Blue colored. **i,j**, Allele specific histone

607 signatures in F1 mESCs from CUT&Tag assay compared with maternal and paternal DeMA genes.

608 **i**, Histone signatures in promoters (H3Kme3, H3K27ac and H3K79me2) and gene bodies

609 (H3K79me2, H3K79me3 and H3K36me3) of maternal allele comparison with maternal DeMA

610 genes (DeMA-Mat) in RNA-seq data from bulk ESCs. From the total maternal DeMA genes,

611 78.4% of maternal DeMA genes are exclusively enriched in maternal allele histone signatures. **j**,

612 As *in silico* predicted in ENCODE data (at the low probability p=0.03, compared to maternal

613 genes), the paternal DeMA genes (DeMA-Pat) from bulk RNA-seq data from mESCs do not show

614 higher correlation (21%) with enhancer (H3K4me1) or gene body (H3K36me3-form Fig.2h)

615 association in CUT&Tag data. **k**, Illustration of five allele-specific histone associations in maternal

616 DeMA genes in mESCs. *Nanog*, *Klf4* and *Lefty2*, known pluripotent associated genes. Red dotted

617 lines indicate the enhancer/promoter regions and green dotted lines indicate the gene body region

618 and histone association. For example, H3K4me3, H3K79me3 and H3K36me3 histone association

619 in ~ +5 kb region of Nanog TSS in maternal allele is shown (*Nanog* is maternaly expressed in our

620 study model). **i**, In paternally expressed *Gata2*, *Zfp964* and *Rind1* genes, only the paternal alleles

621 indicate the enhancer and gene body histone signatures.

Extended Data Fig.2| Allele expression in cardiac cell types and differential epigenetic regulation of maternal and paternal monoallelic genes. a, mESC cell clustering and cell cycle gene enrichment analysis. Gene expression levels and UMAP plots show high enrichment of *Pou5fa* and *Nanog* in three mESC clusters. Cell cycle transcriptomic analysis project the three cell clusters from three cell cycle stages: Cluster 0: G1/S, Cluster 1: G2/M, Cluster 2: M. Radar-plot showing the gene enrichment in different stem cell types (bottom-left) and key pluripotent transcription factor enrichment in G1/S cluster (bottom-right). **b**, Cell type specific gene enrichment and gene clustering (UMAP-cluster graphs) for CSC, CPC and pre-CSC cells from CPCCs cultures. **c**, Cell type specific gene enrichment and gene clustering (UMAP) for CF, CM,

EC and PE in cells from CBs. **d**, Multiple Venn diagram showing the number of genes in two

transcript categories, mature (Total) transcripts and nascent (Act) transcripts, for seven cell types

studied. Except in mESCs and CMs, the actively expressed number of pat-mono genes is greater

than the number of mat-mono actively transcribing genes. Mat-mono genes are lacking their

nascent transcripts more often than pat-mono genes. **e**, Average (Fragment Per Million-FPM)

maternal and paternal active gene expression for mESCs, CSCs, CPCs, CFs, CMs, ECs and PEs.

Data point at the X- axis represent genes. In mESC, CFs and CMs, the transcription rates are higher

in mat-mono genes and in CSCs, CPCs, ECs and PEs, the transcription rate is higher in pat-mono

genes. **f**, Histone signatures of pat-mono genes. Histone marks enrichment plotted for Combined

score, -$\text{Log}_{10}(_{\text{adj}}\text{P-value})$, -$\text{Log}_{10}(\text{P-value})$ (see methods for statistics used). **g**, In-silico analysis of

maternal and paternal DeMA genes in F1 mESCs bulk and scRNA-seq data using ENCODE

histone data. For maternal genes the curated histone signatures are highly probabilistic, while for

the paternal gene the probability of the histone marks curated are comparatively low p=0.03 and

p=0.09). **h**, Histone signatures' distribution throughout a hypothetical gene and intergenic regions.

i & j, Allele specific histone association for the histone marks used in CUT&Tag assay (i-maternal

and j-paternal). H3K4me3, a promoter signature indicating the presence of two peaks, a

predominant one at the -TSS and a weak peak at the +TSS, most probably an indication of proximal

promoters. H3K27ac and H3K4me1, enhancer signatures also indicate two peaks beside the TSS,

which may also be associated with proximal enhancers at the region 5' of the TSS. Lower number

of gene's 5' and 3' of TSS reagions are marked by the H3K79me2, H3K79me3 and H3K36me3

exhibiting active gene promoter association, but the majority of the enrichment is widespread

across the gene bodies.

Fig.3| RaMA genes exhibit lineage specificity and expression is regulated by distinct histone

modifications to monoallelic genes. a, Spatial arrangement of CSC, CPC, CF and EC RaMA

genes in the autosomes. Columns in each circle represent the gene positions. **b**, Percentages and

the fold changes of RaMA genes upon ESC differentiation (scRNA-seq). Percentages are

calculated to non-monoallelic genes and the fold changes are with reference to RaMA gene number

in mESCs. **c**, Histone signatures of RaMA genes from seven cell types. Thirty terms and 60 RaMA

genes with the highest significance (Combined score) are shown. Enriched terms are columns

(column order is the sum) and the input genes are the rows. **d**, Number of transcripts in RaMA

genes in seven cell types. Unpaired *t*-test was performed and the error bars presents the standard

deviations of the mean values. **e**, The number of known protein coding transcripts per gene in

protein coding RaMA genes in seven cell types. Only experimentally validated proteins matched

to merged Ensembl/Havana transcripts were considered as protein coding transcripts. **f,** Schematic

representation of the extrapolation of the histone mark association for expressed RaMA gene

alleles.

Extended Data Fig.3| RaMA genes exhibit lineage specificity and expression is regulated by

distinct histone modifications of monoallelic genes. a, Schematic of RaMA gene selection

criteria. Genes fit into the selection criteria 'A' is considered as RaMA genes. **b**, Percentages and

the fold changes of the expressed RaMA genes (bulk-RNA-seq). Percentages of the RaMA genes

in each cells type were calculated over the total genes expressed and the fold change of the

expressed RaMA genes in CPCCs was calculated over the RaMA genes from mESCs. **c**, UpSet

diagram illustriong the intersects of unique and common RaMA genes in cardiac lineage cell

types. RaMA genes are preferentially unique to cell types but shared less between cell types. **d**,

Intersects between CSC and CPC RaMA genes and monoallelic genes of four cell types in CBs.

Nodes show the intersected gene size and the lines connecting the nodes shows the cell types that

are sharing the intersected genes. **e-g**, Assesment of RaMA gene's association with gene enriched

for histone marks identified in CUT&Tag assay. 85.6% of RaMA genes (from mESCs scRNA-seq

data) are associated with in-silico modeled histone signatures for promoters and gene bodies (**e**).

Venn diagrams showing individual promoter histone signature (**f**) and gene body (**g**) association

with RaMA genes.

Fig.4| Critical cardiac genes are DeMA. a, Intersects of mat-mono and pat-mono genes in CPC and CSC cells. **b**, Functional profiles of CPC pat-mono genes. 588 out of 592 CPC pat-mono genes are only enriched in TF functional profile enrichment category. Data precented as combined scores (x axis) and p-value for each term. **c**-**e**, Unique CSC and CPC maternal and paternal monoallelic genes enrichment in known cardiac muscle development gene sets. Each unique monoallelic gene set was compiled with SysMyo muscle gene data and data is presented as combined scores. The length of the bars represents the combined score for each enrichment term. **f,g**, Intersects of mat-mono (**f**) and pat-mono (**g**) genes in cells from CBs. Greater number of mat-mono genes are shared between all the cell types. **h**, Functional profiles of mat-mono genes common in four cell types in CBs. Highest enrichment scored for TFs. Only the cardiac specific human phenotype IDs are shown. **i,** Disease causality with CMs' unique mat-mono genes in the heart. Disease corelations were curated from Clin Var 2019 data. Data precented as combined scores.

i OMIM disease

j Rare Disease GeneRIF ARCHS4 Predictions

k Rare Disease AutoRIF ARCHS4 Predictions

Extended Data Fig.4| Critical cardiac genes are DeMA. a, Transcription factor binding motif enrichment of pat-mono genes in CPCs. GOSt profiles shows only TF binding functional profiles for CPC mat-mono genes. **b,** Unique CSC maternal monoallelic genes enrichment in known cardiac muscle development gene sets. **c,d**, GOSt functional profiles of CSCs' and CPCs, common mat-mono (**c**) and common pat-mono (**d**) genes. MF, BP, CC and TF shows significantly higher GOSt profiles for mat-mono genes than pat-mono genes. **e,f**, Enrichment of CSCs, and CPCs, common mat-mono (**e**) and pat-mono (**f**) genes in SysMyo muscle data. Data indicates higher enrichment of common monoallelic genes in embryonic, neonatal and adult heart. **g,h**, Functional profiles of unique maternal and paternal monoallelic genes in CMs. Only one TF (TF:M08998) was enriched for 135 pat-mono genes. **i-k**, CMs' mat-mono genes' involvement in different rare disease categories. Significant involvements were curated from OMIM disease, Rare disease . Bars represent combined scores. **l,m**, Functional profile analysis of DeMA and RaMA genes in CMs. DeMA genes exhibi broader functional profile (**l**) than the RaMA genes (**m**) and DeMA genes are included in 85 cellular component GO terms in which there are processes included for cardiac cell composition build. Among the total DeMA gene set 718 genes (out of 1201 query size) are included in the 'Abnormality of the musculature' human phenotypes. **n,o**, Volcano plot showing enrichment of total DeMA gene and RaMA genes in CMs in 'Sysmyo muscle data'. DeMA genes are significantly involved in cardiac cell composition related processes (**n**) while RaMA genes are involving in cellular housekeeping processes (**o**). **p,q**, UMAP plots showing DeMA and RaMA gene's known clinical relevance. The gene sets were compiled with 'Jensen DISEASE', a clinical literature data mining algorithm. DeMA genes are significantly (p=2.658e-2) enriched in clinical congenital heart disease.

Methods:

Generation of C57BL6J-CASTEiJ F1 Hybrid mESCs

Four week old C57BL6J female and four week old CAST/EiJ male mice were purchased from

Jackson Laboratories. C57BL/6J female mice were hormone treated and paired (five pairs) with

the male CAST/EiJ mice (two females per male) and the plug rate was 30% from the matings. At

3.5 dpc, blastocysts were collected from three plugged CAST/EiJ females. In total 37 blastocysts

were placed onto feeder (Applied Stem Cell, Cat. No. ASF-1014) monolayer cultures (2i medium

- 15% FBS (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-009-B), 1X Glutamine (Millipore, Cat. No. TMS-002-C), 1X

Non-Essential AA (Millipore, Cat. No. TMS-001-C), 0.15 mM 2-Mercaptoethanol (Millipore, Cat.

No. ES-007-E), 100 U/ml Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco, Cat. No.15140-122), 100 U/ml Lif

(Millipore, Cat. No. ESG 1107), 1 μM PD0325901 (Sigma Aldrich, Cat. No. 444968), 3 μM

CHIR99021 (Sigma Aldrich, Cat. No. 361571) in Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No. 10829-018)

in 96-well plates. Cultures were maintained for 14 days to establish hybrid F1 mouse embryonic

stem cells (mESCs). From 37 cultures, eight mESC-like lines were selected and transferred into

feeder free 2i+LIF cultures. Cells were passaged twice and *Zfp-1* expression (fwd:5'-CTCA

TGCTGGGACTTTGTGT-3', rev:5'-TGTGTTCTGCTTTCTTGGTG-3') in each clone was

assessed prior to selecting positive (male) clones. Further, from the selected three male mESC

clones (sexes were further verified in RNA-seq analysis), three single cell derived clones were

established for further experiments. Preliminary, mESCs were characterized by qRT-PCR for

Pou5f1 (fwd:5'-TGTGGACCTCAGGTTGGACT, rev:5'-CTTCTGCAGGGCTTTCATGT),

Nanog (fwd:5'-CAGATAGGCTGATTTGGTTGGTGT, rev:5'-

CATCTTCTGCTTCCTGGCAA) and *Gata6* (negative control, fwd:5'-

CAGCCCACGTTACGATGAACG, rev:5'-AAAATGCAGACATAAC

ATTCC). By performing RNA-Seq analysis, the mESCs clones were re-confirmed as mESCs.

Moreover, by performing the qRT-PCR followed by Sanger Sequencing using primers which

cover known single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) in CAST/EiJ strains, the mESCs were further

confirmed for hybrid genome. Allele specific analysis of the RNA-Seq data reported, on average,

5-6 SNPs per transcript.

F1 mESC *in vitro* culture

Male mESCs were used in all the experiments. Plastic-bottom tissue culture dishes were coated

with 300 μl 0.1% gelatin (Millipore, Cat.no. ES-006-B) and incubated for at least 5 minutes at 37°

C prior to cell seeding. Cells were plated at 1 x 10^5 per well in a 6-well plate (FALCON, Cat.no.

353046) clonal density in 2i culture medium (15% FBS (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-009-B), 1X

Glutamine (Millipore, Cat. No. TMS-002-C), 1X Non-Essential AA (Millipore, Cat. No. TMS-

001-C), 0.15 mM 2-Mercaptoethanol (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-007-E), 100 U/ml Penicillin-

Streptomycin (Gibco, Cat. No.15140-122), 100 U/ml Lif (Millipore, Cat. No. ESG 1107), 1 μM

PD0325901 (Sigma Aldrich, Cat. No. 444968), 3 μM CHIR99021 (Sigma Aldrich, Cat. No.

361571) in Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No. 10829-018)). Cells were passaged when the

cultures were 70-80% confluent. The cells were washed twice with 1X PBS (Thermo Fisher, Cat.

No. 14190-250) and incubated for 3 minutes at a 37° C humidified incubator with 200 μl of

TrypLE Express Enzyme (Thermo Fisher. Cat. No. 12605028). The enzyme was neutralized by

adding 3 ml of 10% FBS (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-009-B) in Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No.

10829-018) and centrifuged at 1010 rpm for 5 minutes at room temperature to remove the

supernatant. The cell pellets were replated in 2.5 ml 2i per well (6-well plates). To cryo-freeze F1

mESCs, 70% - 80% confluent cells from one well of a 6-well plate were dissociated to obtain

single cell suspension and then resuspended in freezing medium (10% DMSO (Sigma Aldrich,

Cat. No. D2650), 20% FBS (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-009-B) in Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No.

10829-018)) and frozen and stored at -80° C.

Cardiac lineage cell differentiation

Male mESC cells were resuspended in differentiation medium containing 15% FBS (Millipore,

Cat. No.ES-009-B), 1X Glutamax (Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. 35050061), 1X Nonessential AA

(Millipore, Cat. No. TMS-001-C), 0.15 mM 2-Mercaptoethanol (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-007-E),

100 U/ml Penicillin-Streptomycin (Gibco, Cat. No. 15140-122) in Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat.

No. 10829-018) at the 5×10^4 cells/ml density. 20 μl drops of cell suspension (~1000 cells/ drop)

were placed on 10 cm sterile petri dish lids and turned gently upside down onto a 10 ml 1x PBS

(Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. 14190-250) containing cell culture dish so that hanging drops are formed.

Cells in the hanging drops were then cultured for 48 hours at 37° C, 5% CO_2 cell culture incubator

to form cell-aggregates. At 48 hours post-seeding, cell-aggregates were gently rinsed into a 15 ml

conical bottomed FALCON tube with 10 ml of differentiation medium and the cell-aggregates

were allowed to settle down at the bottom of the tube. 1 ml of direct cardiac lineage differentiation

medium (differentiation medium supplemented with 0.1 mg/ml L-Ascorbic acid (Sigma Aldrich,

Cat. No. A7506) – DCLDM) was gently added and then the cell-aggregates were transferred to a

tissue culture petri dishe containing 14 ml of DCLDM to form embryonic bodies (EBs) (always

used tipped-off P1000 filter tips for cell-aggregates transfer). Plates with floating EBs were gently

shaken twice a day to avoid EBs attaching to the plate bottoms. At 72 hours post cell-aggregate

plating, EBs started expressing cardiac stem cell and mesoderm lineage markers (*Nkx2.5* (fwd:5'-

CCCCCAAGTGCTCTCCTG, rew:5'-CATCCGTCTCGGCTTTGT), *Gata4* (fwd: 5'-

GCAGCAGCAGTGAAGAGATG, rew:5'-GCGATGTCTGAGTGACAGGA)).

Establishment of cardiac precursor cell culture (CPCCs)

EBs at 72 hours post cell-aggregate plating were collected into 15 ml FALCON tubes, washed

three times with 10 ml of 1x PBS each, without disturbing the EBs. To harvest, the EBs were

allowed to settle at the bottom of the tubes. Cells in the EBs were dissociated by adding 200 μl of

TrypLE Express Enzyme (Thermo Fisher. Cat. No. 12605028), incubated at 37° C, 5% CO_2 cell

culture incubator for 2 minutes, added 3 ml of 10% FBS (Millipore, Cat. No. ES-009-B) in

Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No. 10829-018) and then mechanically dissociated by forced

pipetting; up-down with P1000 pipette. Another 7 ml of 10% FBS (Millipore, Cat. No.ES-009-B)

containing Knockout DMEM (Gibco, Cat. No. 10829-018) medium was added and then

centrifuged at 1010 rpm for 5 minutes at room temperature. Cell pellets were then resuspended

(we used EBs from one plate) in differentiation medium containing 10 ng/ml EGF (Peprotech, Cat.

No. AF-100-15) and 10 ng/ml Fgf2 (Peprotech, Cat. No. 450-33) (cardiac stem cell enrichment

medium – CSCEM) and plated on 0.1% gelatin (Millipore. Cat. No. ES-006-B) coated wells in

12-wells (we used EB cells from one plate per one well in a 12-well plate) plate. Cells were

passaged every other day for three passages to enrich for the CPCCs. In every passaging step

we used 40% of the cells from the dissociated harvested cells to re-plate. Cells from the fourth

passage were used in downstream applications.

Cardiac body (CBs) culture

48 hours post seeded cell-aggregates were cultured in DCLDM medium in a sterile petri dish for

five to six days gently shaking the dishes twice a day. We combined cell aggregates from three 10

cm plates into one 10 cm plate with 20 ml DCLDM medium. DCLDM medium was refreshed

every other day. Rhythmically beating non-attached cardiac bodies (CBs) could be observed by

five to six days post cell-aggregate plating and were viable and functional for another four to five

days (the maximum time point we tested). For the scRNA-seq experiment, beating CBs were

picked by pipets using a tipped-off P1000 filter tip under a light microscope. CBs were washed

twice with 1x PBS (Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. 14190-250) and then incubated with the combination

of 1:1 TrypLE Express Enzyme (Thermo Fisher. Cat. No. 12605028) and Trypsin (VWR, Cat. No.

45000-666) for 5 minutes at 37° C, at the 5% CO_2 cell culture incubator and then the CBs were

mechanically dissociated by pipetting up-down (P1000 pipet) followed by another 2 minutes of

incubation period. Finally, the EBs were dissociated into single cell suspensions by rigorous

pipetting with a p200 pipette. The cell suspensions were further filtered through cell strainers

(CellTrics-Partec, Cat. No. 04-004-2326) to remove the clumps.

Single cell RNA-seq – sample preparation

The diameters of the cells from mESCs, CPCCs and CBs single cell suspensions were measured

using Countess™ ll FL Automated Cell Counter (Invitrogen, Cat. No. A27974). The sizes are

mESC – 17 μm, CPCCs – 16 μm, CBs – 13 μm. We observed cells from CBs sized (measured in

microscopic images) between 20 μm to 25 μm in *in vitro* cultures, but they shrank when

dissociated into single cells. cDNAs from single cells were synthesized using C1TM Single-Cell

Reagent Kit for mRNA Seq (Fluidigm, Cat. No. 100-6201). In brief, we used 96-well C1TM

Single-Cell mRNA Seq IFC-10-17 (Fluidigm, Cat. No. 100-5760) IFCs to load the cells. Once the

cells were harvested cell suspensions were filtered through cell strainers (CellTrics-Partec, Cat.

No. 04-004-2326) to avoid possible cell-aggregates before the cells were loaded into integrated

fluidic circuits (IFCs). Approximately 750 cells were loaded onto an IFC each time and as a control

External RNA Control Consortium (ERCC- Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. 4456740) RNA spike-ins

were added to the lysis buffer to obtain 1:20,000 dilutions of the final cDNA samples. Cells in

IFCs were processed using the Fluidigm C1™ Single-Cell Auto Prep System. After single cells

were primed into compartments, cell numbers (single or multiple cells) and the quality (debris or

healthy) of the cells were observed using a light microscope and recorded corresponding to each

compartment. Typical total RNAs in a mammalian cell ranged from 10-30 pg. cDNAs from low

yield polyA+ RNA was synthesized using SMART-Seq® v4 Ultra® Low Input RNA Kit for the

Fluidigm® C1™ System (Clontech, Cat. No. 635026), SMARTer-seq® chemistry (**S**witching

Mechanism **a**t 5' End of **R**NA **T**emplate and Locked Nucleic acid technology), compatible for

Fluidigm C1™ Single-Cell Auto Prep System. cDNA from each cell was quantified using Quant-

IT™ PicoGreen® dsDNA Assay Kit (Thermo Fisher, Cat No. P11496). We used 0.3 ng of dsDNA

per cell, only from the high-quality cells in library preparation. Indexed libraries were generated

using Illumina Nextera XT DNA Library preparation Index Kit (Illumina, Cat No. FC-131-1096

and CF-131-1002), which is capable of multiplexing (up to 96 available indexes). Indexed libraries

generated for each sample from one experiment (from one IFC) were pooled together. We finally

obtained 9-pooled libraries and compressed those libraries again to 8-pooled libraries. Libraries

were cleaned up using Agencourt AMPure XP beads (Beckman Coulter, Cat. No. A63880) and

library quality and quantities were assessed by Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer using high sensitivity

DNA Analysis chips (Agilent, Cat. No. 5067-4626). All our libraries fell within 500 bp average

size and concentration ranging from 6.5 nM to 12 nM. In total we obtained 215 libraries for ESC,

175 libraries for CPC and 232 libraries for CM and cardiac smooth muscle cells. We performed

125 nt paired end sequencing for these 8-pooled libraries (one pooled library per lane) in Illumina

HiSeq2500 – V4 flow cell platform at the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Genome Center.

Bulk RNA-seq – Sample preparation

Cells from three mESC and CPCCs biological replicates were used. Total RNAs from each sample

were extracted using RNAeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat. No. 74104) including the DNA digest step

according to the manufacturer's guidelines. All the replicates were processed in parallel at each

step. 0.5 µg of total RNA from each sample was used to synthesize cDNAs from polyA+ RNA

using Clontech SMART-Seq® v4 Ultra® Low Input RNA Kit for the Fluidigm® C1™ System

(Clontech, Cat. No. 635026) following the manufacturer's guidelines. Quality and quantity of

cDNA from each replicate was assessed using the Agilent 2100 bioanalyzer using high sensitivity

DNA Analysis chips (Agilent, Cat. No. 5067-4626). All the libraries fell within 500 bp average

size. We used 0.3 ng of dsDNA per replicate for library preparation. Indexed libraries were

generated using Illumina Nextera XT DNA Library preparation Index Kit (Illumina, Cat No. FC-

131-1096 and CF-131-1002). We performed 125 nt paired end sequencing for each library

independently on the same chip (one library per lane) in Illumina HiSeq2500 – V4 flow cell

platform at the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory Genome Center.

Single cell analysis

Sequencing data from each single cell library from each experimental point was aligned to

GRCm38_v97 (mm10) mouse reference genome using STAR 2.7 aligner embedded in Partek

Flow software (trial version - https://www.partek.com/partek-flow/) following the guidelines to

obtain gene count tables. For the trajectory analysis, we used ASAP v1 software suite[57]. Single

gene count tables of 622 scRNA-seq libraries were processed using the DDRTree reduction

method. For cluster analysis, we used separate gene count tables from three independent

timepoints. Gene count tables were then used in the Seurat 3.1.0 (SeuratV3) single cell data

analysis package embedded in Nucleic Acid Sequence Analysis Resource[58], a web-based portal

for cell clustering. In brief, for each experiment the gene expression was normalized by

"LogNormalize", setting the scale factor to 10000 to obtain the log-transformed data. To detect

the variable genes across the single cells in each experimental point per se and to calculate the

average expression and depression for each gene, we applied the recommended generic settings

(Mean function-ExpMean, Dispersion function-LogVMR, X Low Cut-off value: 0.0125, X High

cut-off value: 3 and Y cut-off value: 0.5) to mask the outliers. To regress out the variant caused by

technical noise, batch effects and biological source of variations, which would affect the clustering,

we relied on the nCount_RNA feature embedded in Seurat 3.1.0 package. After computing the

linear dimensional reduction to determine the statistically significant PCs, we used supervised

Elbow methods and performed cell clustering with the resolution set-up at the 0.6 in default. Then,

the non-linear dimension reduction was proceeded with UMAP. Each cell cluster (CPC, CSC, CF,

CM, EC and PE) was then defined by using the known cell type specific markers[59-62]. Identification

numbers (IDs) of each cell in each cluster was then matched with the single cell library IDs in the

original '.fastq' file library IDs in order to isolate the single cell libraries into relevant cell types.

Cell cycle analysis was performed in StemChecker web-portal (http://stemchecker.sysbiolab.eu).

Deterministic monoallelic and RaMA genes positioning in the genome were performed using Circa

software (https://omgenomics.com/circa/).

Bulk RNA-seq analysis

Bulk RNA-seq analysis

Differential gene expression of mESCs and CPCCs bulk-seq data was assessed with DeSeq2, an

R package for "Differential gene expression analysis based on the negative binomial distribution"

embedded in the NASQAR web-portal[58].

Allele specific scRNA-seq and bulk-RNA-seq analysis

To assess the allele-specific single cell and bulk cell analysis, we used MEA pipeline[10] because of

MEA pipelines' usage of indels together with the SNPs in the genome to call the parental

background of the transcriptomic data. We manually implemented the pipeline with all its

dependencies using the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory computing cluster. In brief, mm10 reference

genome (mgp.v5.merged.snps_all.dbSNP142.vcf.gz) and genetic variants (.vcf) including SNPs

and INDELs (mgp.v5.merged.indels.dbSNP142.normed.vcf.gz) were downloaded from the

Ensemble genome bowser (https://useast.ensembl.org/info/data/ftp/index.html) and in silico

diploid genome for C57BL/6j and CAST/EiJ was reconstructed utilizing SHAPEIT2. We then

aligned each RNA-seq read file (.fastq) to the in silico genome using STAR aligner (STAR-

2.5.4b). Aligned '.sam' output files were then converted into '.bam' files using SAMtools-

0.1.19[63]. This process generated two .bam files each for C57BL/6j and CAST/EiJ per single cell.

We then assembled all the '.bam' files from a cell cluster into two separate data sets each for

C57BL/6J and CAST/EiJ strains. Those two '.bam' files data sets were then used for differential

gene expression analysis using EdgeR pipeline embedded in SeqMonk bio-informatics web-portal

(https://www.bioinformatic.babraham.ac.uk/projects/seqmonk/). The gene count-tables were then

filtered through a custom written R script to filter in the deterministic monoallelic (Extended Data

Fig.1e) and RaMA (Extended Data Fig.3a) genes. For bulk-RNA-seq, each experimental-data

point was processed in the same way as above. Graphs and diagrams were generated using the

InteractiVenn[64], Intervene shinyapp[65] and GraphPad PRISM (version 7.04).

Transcript number and functional protein coding gene analysis

The BioMart data mining tool (https://www.ensembl.org/biomart/martview) in the Ensembl

genome browser was used to assess the number of transcripts per RaMA gene and the number of

protein coding transcripts per RaMA gene. The protein coding transcripts were cross examined in

the Uniprot database (https://www.uniprot.org/uniprot).

Gene functional profile and enrichment analysis

<u>Gene functional analysis</u> was performed by using g:Profiler (version e102_eg49_p15_7a9b4d6)[66].

Numeric IDs were put in as ENTREZGENE_ACC for the only annotated genes. For multiple testing

correction the g:SCS threshold was used as the recommended method implementing 0.05 as the

threshold cut-off margin. Together with Gene Ontology analysis (Molecular Function (MF), Cellular

Component (CC), Biological Process (BP)), Biological pathways (KEGG, Reactome (REAC),

WikiPathway (WP), regulatory motif in DNA (TRANSFAC (TF), miRTarBase (MIRNA), protein

databases (CORUM) and the Human phenotype ontology (HP) were included in the analysis.

<u>Gene enrichment analysis</u> was performed using Enricher web-portal developed by the Ma'ayan lab

at the Data Coordination and Integration Center at Icahn School of Medicine at Mount Sinai[67,68].

Gene set enrichment was performed compiling the gene list with SysMyo Muscle Gene sets (created

by the Duddy lab https://www.sys-myo.com/muscle_gene_sets/) embedded in Enricher. Histone

association data was obtained by compiling gene sets in ENCODE histone modification 2015

database embedded in Enricher. Results were presented in a bar chart with -Log_{10}(P-values), -

$\text{Log}_{10}(_{\text{adj}}\text{P-values})$ and combined scores (log of the P-value from the Fisher exact test and multiplying

that by the z-score of the deviation from the expected rank [67,68]). Disease relevance for gene sets was

assessed with ClinVar 2019, OMIM Disease, Rare Disease AutoRIF ARCHS4 Predictions and Rare

Disease GeneRIF ARCHS4 Predictions data bases. Results were presented with combined scores.

Nascent RNA and mature RNA analysis

We used the Click-iT™ Nascent RNA Capture Kit (Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. C10365) for nascent

RNA capture. Triplicates of mESCs cultured on 6-well Plates were pulsed with 0.5 mM 5-ethynyl

uridine (EU) for 0.5 hours in a 37° C, 5% CO_2 incubator. Single cell suspensions were obtained

by dissociating cells with TrypLE and cell counts were performed using the Countess™ ll FL

Automated Cell Counter (Invitrogen, Cat. No. A27974). 1×10^7 cells from each replicate were

used to extract RNAs. Total RNAs were extracted using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen, Cat. No.

74104), including the DNA digesting step. 10 µg of total RNAs from each replicate was used as

entry material in the protocol and EU incorporated RNA was precipitated overnight at -75° C. One

microgram of biotinylated RNAs with 50 ml of Dynabeads® MyOne™ Streptavidin T1 magnetic

beads was used to capture biotinylated RNAs per replicate and suspended the bead-RNA complex

in 50 µl of wash buffer 2 and immediately processed for cDNA synthesis. We used SuperScript®

VILO™ cDNS synthesis kit (Thermo Fisher, Cat. No. 11754-050) as recommended in the Click-

iT™ Nascent RNA Capture protocol. Two microliters of the undiluted cDNA was used per qRT-

PCR reaction. qRT-PCR was performed with PowerUp SYBER Green Master Mix (Life

Technologies, Cat.no. A25743). One microgram of the total RNA from the EU pulsed RNA

samples was used to synthesize control cDNA for each replicate. Nascent RNA detection primers

were designed over the intron-exon boundaries, avoiding capturing transcripts with retaining

introns or processed transcripts. Mature RNA detection primers were designed to expand the

product over the neighboring exon-exon where the intron between is greater than 1.5 kb. Primers

used were: Thbs4-mature (fwd:5'-AGGGGAACATCTCCGAAACT, rev:5'- AAAAGCGCACC

CTGATGTAG), Thbs4-nascent (fwd:5'-GTGGACACCTGTGCTCTCTG, rev:5'- GTTGCAGC

GGTACTTGAGGT), Ccdc80-mature (fwd:5'-ATGTTCCTCAGTTCCGATGG, rev:5'-TCCTC

TCCAACACCCAAAAG), Ccdc80-nascent (fwd:5'-TGAAATTCATCGGTTGTCAG, rev:5'-

ACTCCTCCAACTTCCTCTCC), Bicd2-mature (fwd:5'-AAGCTACGGAACGAGCTCAA,

rev:5'-CCATGCGCAACAGAGAGTTA), Bicd2-nascent (fwd:5'-CTCAGGCTCCAGGAGAG

ATG, rev:5'-CCATGCGCAACAGAGAGTTA), Hsbp1l1-mature (fwd:5'-GAACGCGGCTGA

GAATCTAC, rev:5'-CATGAGGTCATCCACGTTTC), Hsbp1l1-nascent (fwd:5'-CAGCCGTA

CTCCCTCAGTGT, rev:5'-CGACTTCCCATCTCTTCCAG), 4932435O22Rik-mature (fwd:5'-

CTGAGGCTCTTTGGCACTTT, rev:5'-CCACAGCAGTCCTCCTAAGC), 4932435O22Rik-

nascent (fwd:5'-AGCCAGCCAGCTGAACTATC, rev:5'-ATTAC CGAAGTGTCCGATGC),

Mob1b-mature (fwd:5'-TCCATTCCCGAAGAATTTCA, rev:5'-GTGC CAACTCTCGTCTGT

CA), Mob1b-nascent (fwd:5'-GCATCAGGGGAGCTTAAGTG, rev:5'-GTG CCAACTCTCGT

CTGTCA), Tbx3-mature (fwd:5'-CCTTCCACCTCCAACAACAC, rev:5'-GCAT GCTGTTCA

AATTGAGG), Tbx3-nascent (fwd:5'-CCTCCACTCCTCCAAAACAG, rev:5'-GCAG CCATG

TATGTGTAGGG), Kif17-mature (fwd:5'- GCAACTACTTCCGCTCCAAG, rev:5'-CTCA CC

ACCGAAGCTGTTTT), Kif17-nascent (fwd:5'-CCAGGAGTCATGGGAGTGAC, rev:5'- GCT

TGGAGCGGAAGTAGTTG).

1024

CUT&Tag assay

To assess the allele-specific chromatin accessibilty of maternal and paternal genes in F1 mESCs,

we used CUT&Tag-IT™ assay kit (Cat. No. 53160) from Active Motif®. mESCs were cultured in

2i medium and at 70% confluency, cells were harvested using TrypLE Express Enzyme (Thermo

Fisher. Cat. No. 12605028). Cells from three wells of a 6-well plate (FALCON, Cat.no. 353046)

were combined and filtered through cell strainers (CellTrics-Partec, Cat. No. 04-004-2326) to

remove cell clumps. For each histone mark, 400,000 cells were used. We followed the protocol

according to the assay kit manual, excluding the magnetic bead capture steps. Instead, we used

centrifugation (five minutes at 600 g at room temperature per centrifuging step) to pellet the cells.

Antibodies used: H3K36me3 (Active Motif - Cat. No.61102), H3K4me1 (Active Motif - Cat.

No.39298), H2K27ac (Active Motif - Cat. No.39134), H3K4me3 (Active Motif - Cat. No.39160),

H3K79me2 (Active Motif - Cat. No.39144), H3K79me3 (Novus Biologicals - Cat. No.NB21-

1383SS). Guinea Pig anti-rabbit antibody provided with the kit was used as the secondary antibody

as well as the IgG control. We obtained ~200,000 nuclei in the final cell suspention in every sample

and the all the nuclei were used for DNA extraction. Total fragmented DNA extracted in each

sample was used to construct sequencing libraries using Illumina index primers provided with the

kit. Sequencing libreries were pooled (including the other two libraries from the same experiment)

and sequenced in one lane using a MiSeq PE 300 V3 kit at the Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory

Genome Center.

1044

CUT&Tag data analysis

Allele-specific and non-allele-specific data analysis was carried out using the data anlysis webtool

provided by Active Motif®. Brifly, peak calling was performed using SEACR (Sparse Enrichment

Analysis for CUT&RUN) analysis strategy which uses the globle distribution of background signal

to caliberate a simple threshold for peak calling[69]. Motif calling was performed with the Homer

algorithm. For allele-specific read calling we used the MEA pipeline[10] as previously described.

Microscopy

Rhythmically beating cardiac body brightfield movies were taken using a Zeiss Observer Z1 inverted fluorescence microscope using a 10X objective.

Supplementary References:

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