Title:

Rtf1-dependent transcriptional pausing regulates cardiogenesis

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Abstract:

During heart development, a well-characterized network of transcription factors initiates cardiac

gene expression and defines the precise timing and location of cardiac progenitor specification.

However, our understanding of the post-initiation transcriptional events that regulate cardiac

gene expression is still incomplete. The PAF1C component Rtf1 is a transcription regulatory

protein that modulates pausing and elongation of RNA Pol II, as well as cotranscriptional

histone modifications. Here we report that Rtf1 is essential for cardiogenesis in fish and

mammals, and that in the absence of Rtf1 activity, cardiac progenitors arrest in an immature

state. We found that Rtf1's Plus3 domain, which confers interaction with the transcriptional

pausing and elongation regulator Spt5, was necessary for cardiac progenitor formation. ChIP-

seq analysis further revealed changes in the occupancy of RNA Pol II around the transcription

start site (TSS) of cardiac genes in *rtf1* morphants reflecting a reduction in transcriptional

pausing. Intriguingly, inhibition of pause release in *rtf1* morphants and mutants restored the

formation of cardiac cells and improved Pol II occupancy at the TSS of key cardiac genes. Our

findings highlight the crucial role that transcriptional pausing plays in promoting normal gene

expression levels in a cardiac developmental context.

Keywords:

cardiogenesis, lateral plate mesoderm, transcription regulation, promoter-proximal pausing,

Rtf1, PAF1 complex, PAF1C

Introduction:

Embryonic heart development is directed by an evolutionarily conserved network of transcription

factors. Notably, members of the GATA, NK-2 homeobox, TBX, HAND, and MEF2 transcription

factor families play crucial, conserved, and well characterized roles in specifying cardiac cells

from the mesoderm[1-4]. Through a careful balance of positive and negative regulatory signals,

the cardiac transcription regulatory network coordinates with other transcriptional networks to

ensure that the appropriate number of cardiac progenitors are specified. In zebrafish, this

activity partitions the anterior lateral plate mesoderm (LPM) into multiple fates including the

cardiac mesoderm, which is bounded anteriorly by blood and endothelial progenitors and

posteriorly by pectoral fin progenitors[5-8].

Chromatin remodeling and epigenetic modifications provide an additional level of transcriptional

control at cardiac genes by regulating the binding of transcription factors and the binding and

elongation rate of RNA Polymerase II (RNA Pol II). For example, the BAF (Brg1/Brm-associated

factor) complex, an ATP-dependent chromatin remodeling complex that actively positions

nucleosomes, is critical for normal vertebrate cardiogenesis[9,10]. The BAF complex directly

interacts with cardiac transcription factors including Tbx5, Nkx2-5, and Gata4[11] and controls

temporal changes in chromatin accessibility during cardiac differentiation[9]. Intriguingly,

transplanted cells overexpressing the BAF component Baf60c/Smarca3b and Gata5

preferentially contribute to the embryonic zebrafish heart[12]. Similarly, forced expression of

Baf60c along with Tbx5/Nkx2-5/Gata4 can induce cardiac differentiation from non-cardiac

mesoderm[13], suggesting that nucleosomal positioning and chromatin accessibility are key

mechanisms regulating the transcription of cardiac genes.

Accumulating evidence suggests that cardiac gene expression is also highly sensitive to the

activity of transcriptional pausing and elongation factors. Spt6 (Suppressor of Ty 6) is a histone

chaperone that promotes RNA Polymerase II elongation and co-transcriptionally modulates

chromatin structure[14,15]. In zebrafish, loss of function of Spt6 disrupts cardiomyocyte

differentiation and interacts genetically with the transcriptional pausing/elongation factor Spt5

(Suppressor of Ty 5) to support Nkx2.5+ cardiac progenitor specification[16]. While both Spt6 and

Spt5 promote transcription elongation, they likely do so via distinct mechanisms. Spt5 directly

interacts with Spt4 to form the DSIF (DRB Sensitivity Inducing Factor) complex, which has both

inhibitory and stimulatory roles in transcription[17]. Unphosphorylated Spt5 fosters promoter-

proximal pausing of RNA Polymerase II, but phosphorylation of Spt5's C-terminal repeat region

by Cdk9 (cyclin dependent kinase 9) produces a binding site for the Polymerase Associated

Factor 1 complex (PAF1C) component Rtf1, promotes transcriptional pause release, and

converts DSIF into an elongation-promoting factor[18-20]. How the transcription regulatory

activities of these elongation and pausing factors facilitate cardiac development is not yet

understood.

We have previously shown that Rtf1 and other PAF1C members differentially regulate

cardiogenesis[21]. The PAF1C consists of five core proteins, Paf1, Ctr9, Cdc73, Rtf1, and Leo1,

and plays wide-ranging transcription regulatory roles including promoting co-transcriptional

epigenetic modification of histones, supporting both pausing and elongation of RNA Polymerase

II, influencing mRNA 3' end formation, and serving as a bridge between specific transcription

factors and RNA Polymerase II[22-24]. In zebrafish, Leo1 is dispensable for the specification of

cardiomyocytes, but is required for differentiation of the atrioventricular boundary and

maturation of the cardiac chambers[25]. Embryos lacking Ctr9, Cdc73, or Paf1, on the other

hand, exhibit a deficiency of cardiomyocytes and only form small, dysmorphic hearts.

Intriguingly, loss of the Rtf1 subunit of the PAF1C results in the most dramatic defects in

cardiogenesis. Rtf1 deficient embryos have severe reduction in *nkx2.5+* cardiac progenitors

and fail to generate any cardiomyocytes[21]. Given the numerous roles played by the PAF1C in

transcription regulation, it remains an open question how PAF1C members mechanistically

regulate cardiogenesis.

In this study, we investigated the molecular mechanisms of Rtf1-dependent cardiac progenitor

formation. Using CRISPR mutagenesis we showed that zygotic Rtf1 mutants, like *rtf1*

morphants, lack expression of most cardiac progenitor marker genes and produce no

cardiomyocytes. In addition, knockout of Rtf1 in the cardiogenic mesoderm of mouse embryos

and knockdown of Rtf1 in mouse ESCs reduced the formation of cardiac tissue, indicating that

the role of Rtf1 in specification of the cardiac lineage is conserved among vertebrates. Using

FACS and single cell sequencing-based approaches, we show that differentiation of the LPM

into cardiac precursors requires Rtf1 activity. We investigated which of Rtf1's functional

domains participated in cardiac development and found that its Plus3 domain is critical for

cardiac progenitor formation, while its HMD (Histone modification domain) is dispensable.

Consistent with the Plus3 domain's function as an interaction point between Rtf1 and the DSIF

component Spt5, Rtf1 deficient embryos display a genome-wide decrease in promoter-proximal

pausing of RNA Polymerase II. Excitingly, chemical and morpholino inhibition of pause release

improved pausing at cardiac genes and restored cardiac progenitor formation to Rtf1-deficient

embryos. Together, our findings suggest that during development, Rtf1's primary function in

cardiac gene regulation is to support promoter proximal pausing, and that normal levels of

pausing facilitate expression of many genes, including key members of the cardiac transcription

program.

Results:

Rtf1 is essential for heart development in zebrafish

Morpholino knockdown of *rtf1* abolishes cardiac progenitor formation in zebrafish, indicating an

essential role for Rtf1 in cardiogenesis[21]. To genetically corroborate this finding, we used

CRISPR/Cas9 to generate stable *rtf1* mutant lines. We identified two independent lines

(*rtf1*[LA2678] and *rtf1*[LA2679]) with small deletions in exon 3 of the *rtf1* gene that are predicted to result

in frameshifts and early stop codons and which nearly eliminate the production of Rtf1 protein

(Fig 1A-C). Like *rtf1* morphants, both *rtf1*[LA2678] and *rtf1*[LA2679] mutants display no cardiac tissue at

24 hours post fertilization (hpf) and lack the *nkx2.5+* cardiac progenitor population (Figure

2A,B,E,F). Rtf1 deficient embryos also fail to express normal levels of other cardiac

transcription factors including *mef2ca* and *tbx5a* (Fig 2C,D,G,H), and exhibit reduced expression

of *tbx20*, a key regulator of cardiac cell number that demarcates the anterior lateral plate

mesoderm (ALPM) at the 8-somite stage (Fig 2I,J)[26]. Knockdown and knockout of Rtf1 activity

produced comparable changes in cardiac gene expression (Fig 2A-J), demonstrating that

morpholino knockdown faithfully recapitulates the *rtf1* mutant phenotype. Together, these data

show that Rtf1 activity is required for the expression of multiple cardiac transcription factors and

suggest that the absence of cardiomyocytes in Rtf1 deficient embryos is likely a result of this

dramatic gene expression defect.

Conserved role of Rtf1 in mammalian cardiac development

The sequence of the Rtf1 protein is highly conserved among vertebrates (83% identity at the

amino acid level between fish and humans) indicating that it is likely playing a fundamental role

in biology. To examine whether Rtf1 activity is also needed for cardiogenesis in mammals, we

expressed Cre-recombinase under the control of the Mesp1 promoter in Rtf1-flox mouse

embryos (Fig 3A)[27]. The Mesp1 promoter drives expression of Cre in the early cardiogenic

mesoderm (E6.25)[28], allowing for knockout of Rtf1 activity prior to the onset of heart

development. Rtf1 Mesp1-Cre knockout embryos die prior to birth, suggesting that Rtf1 function

in the cardiogenic mesoderm is essential for survival. We next examined the developing hearts

of Rtf1 Mesp1-Cre knockouts and their wild type siblings by in situ hybridization using *Nkx2.5*

and *Tbx20* as cardiac markers and found that while Cre+;Rtf1flox/+ and Cre- embryos display a

heart tube undergoing looping at E8.5, Rtf1 Mesp1-Cre knockouts have little or no expression of

these markers (Fig 3B). Cardiac muscle, marked by expression of *MLC2v* at E9.5, was also

dramatically reduced in Mesp1-Cre Rtf1 knockouts (Fig 3B). These data suggest a conservation

of the critical role of Rtf1 in differentiation of the cardiac lineage from the mesoderm.

To further investigate Rtf1's role in cardiac differentiation, we knocked down Rtf1 activity in

mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) using short hairpin RNA (Fig 4A,B). Unmanipulated

embryoid bodies (EBs) derived from mESCs are capable of differentiating into lineages

representing all three germ layers, as evidenced by temporally dynamic expression of

Brachyury (mesoderm), *Afp* (endoderm), and *Ncam1* (ectoderm) (Fig 4E-G). Similarly, we found

that Rtf1 shRNA mESCs induce expression of *Brachyury*, *Afp*, and *Ncam1* in a temporally

appropriate manner, indicating that Rtf1 activity is dispensable for germ layer formation (Fig 4E-

G). However, EBs derived from Rtf1-deficient mESCs produced significantly fewer beating

patches (~67% reduction) and also displayed a dramatic reduction in cardiac genes like *Myh6*,

Nkx2.5, and *ANF/Nppa* (Figure 4C,D). Together, these data demonstrate that Rtf1 is essential

for differentiation of the cardiac lineage from mesoderm in mammals, and reveal a conservation

of Rtf1's function in cardiogenesis between fish and mammals.

Rtf1 is required for expression of genes associated with the progression of cardiac precursor

formation

We previously found that loss of Rtf1 activity does not disrupt expression of the LPM marker

hand2[21]. To better understand how Rtf1 directs cardiac differentiation from multipotent

mesoderm cells, we took advantage of a hand2:GFP zebrafish transgenic reporter line to isolate

LPM cells from wild type and Rtf1 deficient embryos for transcriptomic analysis (Fig 5A-C,

Supplementary Figure 1). Compared to wild type control samples, the *rtf1* morphant LPM

displayed 1420 significantly downregulated and 1185 significantly upregulated genes (adjusted

p-value < 0.05) at the 10-12 somite stage when cardiac progenitor formation is underway in the

LPM (Supplementary Data File 1). We examined the most significantly differentially expressed

genes and observed that many of the significantly downregulated genes, including *nkx2.5*,

rbfox1l, *atp2a2a*, *tnnt2a*, *isl2b*, *mef2ca*, *mef2cb* and *wnt2bb*, are cardiac-lineage markers or

have critical known roles in cardiac development (Fig 5D). Indeed, the most significantly

downregulated genes were highly enriched for gene ontologies related to cardiac development,

embryonic heart morphogenesis, and muscle cell development (Fig 5E). These data show that

Rtf1 activity is required for expression of a broad cardiac gene program in the LPM that is likely

under the control of multiple cardiac transcription factors.

To further analyze the deployment of the cardiac gene program during cardiac progenitor

formation from the ALPM, we performed Single Cell Multiome sequencing of control and *rtf1*

morphant embryos at the 11-12 somite stage. Clustering of control and *rtf1* morphant cells

based on gene expression and chromatin accessibility resolved 39 cell types corresponding to

expected major cell lineages (Supplementary Data File 2, Supplementary Figures 2 & 3).

Interestingly, while *rtf1* morphant cells of each cell type were present, the frequencies of cell

types differed significantly between controls and *rtf1* morphants (Supplementary Figure 4).

Notably, we also observed that while *rtf1* morphant cells expressing the precardiac mesoderm

marker *mef2cb* were present, they failed to express other cardiac marker genes including *ryr2b*

and *tnni1b* (Supplementary Figure 3).

To examine developmental trajectories within the ALPM, we reclustered ALPM cells

(*sema3e*+/*gata5*+ LPM) and ALPM derivatives (putative precardiac mesoderm, endothelial

precursors, rostral blood precursors) (Figure 6A,B). We next calculated pseudotime trajectories

based on the assumption that undifferentiated ALPM, intermediates, and more highly

differentiated derivatives are present at this developmental timepoint (Figure 6C). In support of

this notion, we observed a gradual increase in the expression levels of cardiac markers

including *ttn.2*, *mef2cb*, *tnnt2a*, *ryr2b*, and *myh7bb* along the ALPM-cardiac developmental

trajectory in control embryos (Fig 6D,E). Interestingly, Rtf1 deficient embryos properly

downregulate expression of the ALPM marker *sema3e*, maintain the expression of *gata5* in

cardiac precursors, and initiate expression of the early cardiac lineage genes *bmp6*, *ttn.2*, and

mef2cb (Fig 6D-G). However, loss of Rtf1 activity prevented the activation of cardiac lineage-

restricted markers that are normally expressed later in the ALPM-cardiac trajectory including

tnnt2a, *ryr2b*, and *myh7bb* (Fig 6D-G). Taken together, these data suggest that Rtf1 activity is

required for gene expression changes associated with the progression of cardiac precursors

into a more mature state, and that Rtf1-deficient cardiac precursors are arresting in an immature

state rather than transfating to a different cell lineage.

Rtf1's Plus3 functional domain is necessary for cardiac progenitor formation

The Rtf1 protein is a multifunctional platform for transcription regulation: it consists of several

defined functional domains that mediate its interaction with other transcription regulatory

proteins and serve as additional points of contact for these proteins with the transcription

apparatus (Figures 1A, 7A)[29,30]. The N-terminal half of Rtf1 notably contains its Histone

Modification Domain (HMD), which mediates its interaction with E2 ubiquitin-conjugating

enzymes and supports the ubiquitylation of histone H2B K120[31-33]. Rtf1's C-terminus contains

the Plus3 domain, which interacts with the C-terminal repeat region of the pausing and

elongation factor Spt5[18,19,34], a Pol II-interaction domain that allosterically stimulates

transcription elongation[30], and a PAF1C interaction domain.

We found that injection of *rtf1* mRNA with 8 silent mutations that render it morpholino resistant

(Rtf1 wt) into *rtf1* morphant embryos was able to robustly rescue the knockdown phenotype and

support normal formation of the embryonic heart tube (Figure 7C). This knockdown-rescue

assay provides an in vivo platform to test whether Rtf1's HMD and Plus3 domains are required

for the formation of cardiac progenitors during development. We generated expression

constructs for mutant versions of Rtf1 lacking these functional domains and tested whether they

could support cardiogenesis in an *rtf1* morphant background. Mutant FLAG-tagged Rtf1

proteins lacking the HMD or Plus3 domain were expressed at levels comparable to Rtf1 wt and

properly localized to the nucleus demonstrating that the activity of these proteins was not

compromised by instability or mislocalization (Fig 7B). Interestingly, we found that Rtf1's HMD

was dispensable for its role in cardiac progenitor formation (100% of Rtf1 wt injected *rtf1*

morphants with *nkx2.5* signal, n=25 vs. 100% of Rtf1 ΔHMD *rtf1* morphants with *nkx2.5* signal,

n=25) (Figure 7C). On the other hand, Rtf1's Plus3 domain was essential for supporting the

formation of cardiac progenitors (0% of Rtf1 ΔPlus3 *rtf1* morphants with *nkx2.5* signal, n=25)

(Figure 7C). These data suggest that Rtf1's domains function in a modular fashion for

regulating cardiac gene expression and point to potential specific effects on transcriptional

pausing and elongation in cardiogenesis.

Rtf1 deficiency disrupts promoter-proximal transcriptional pausing

Given the critical role of Rtf1's Plus3 domain in cardiac progenitor formation, we hypothesized

that Rtf1 deficiency may impact the transcriptional activity of RNA Pol II at cardiac genes. We

then examined the occupancy of RNA Pol II by performing ChIP-seq on embryos at the 10-12

somite stage, when cardiac progenitors are arising from the lateral plate mesoderm. We

compared the occupancy of Pol II between uninjected control and *rtf1* morphant embryos and

found that Pol II was substantially diminished at the transcription start site (TSS) of many genes

compared to the remainder of the gene body (Figure 8D-I and data not shown). Pausing of

RNA Pol II at the TSS is a normal aspect of transcription in vertebrates and has been

hypothesized to regulate both the timing and expression level of genes[35,36]. To quantify

transcriptional pausing at each gene, we calculated the Pause Release Ratio (PRR), a ratio of

Pol II occupancy in the promoter proximal region of a gene (-300 to +300) to the occupancy in

the downstream region (+301 to +1301). A higher PRR indicates increased pausing of Pol II

near the transcription start site (TSS), while a lower PRR signifies that a gene is in a less

paused state. We found that on a global scale, pausing is diminished upon loss of Rtf1 activity

during embryonic development (Figure 8A,B). Out of 6,078 genes with substantial Pol II ChIP

signal that were analyzed, 5,799 displayed a significantly decreased PRR (Benjamini–Hochberg

false discovery rate of 10%) in Rtf1-deficient embryos compared to 37 genes that displayed a

significantly increased PRR (Figure 8B). The median PRR in control embryos was 3.34, while

95% (5,793/6,078) of genes had a PRR of less than 3.34 in Rtf1-deficient embryos (Figure 8A),

reflecting a widespread decrease in promoter proximally paused Pol II. These changes in PRR

suggest that Rtf1 is critical for normal levels of pausing at transcriptionally active genes during

the developmental window when cardiac progenitor cells arise from the lateral plate mesoderm.

Attenuation of pause release permits cardiogenesis in an Rtf1-deficient background

The transition between the pausing and elongation phases of transcription is regulated by

PTEF-b, a complex consisting of a cyclin (T1, T2a, or T2b) and the kinase Cdk9[37-

39]. Phosphorylation of the negative elongation factor (NELF) complex, the pausing/elongation

factor Spt5, and the C-terminal tail of RNA Pol II by Cdk9 promotes changes in the factors

associated with RNA Pol II and triggers a switch to processive elongation[40]. Pharmacological

inhibition of Cdk9 with the small molecule flavopiridol can prevent or attenuate pause release,

leading to genome-wide increases in pausing at most genes[41]. We explored the effects of Cdk9

inhibition on Rtf1-dependent transcription by performing ChIP-seq for RNA Pol II in flavopiridol-

treated *rtf1* morphant embryos at the 10-12 somite stage. Flavopiridol treatment caused a small

but highly significant increase in promoter-proximal pausing in an Rtf1 deficient background (Fig

8A), with 87.1% of genes with significantly altered PRR values displaying an increase in PRR in

flavopiridol-treated *rtf1* morphants compared to untreated *rtf1* morphants (Figure 8C).

Furthermore, we found that critical LPM and cardiac genes including *hand2*, *gata5*, *aplnrb*,

bmp4, *nkx2.7*, and *rbfox1l* exhibited reduced promoter-proximal pausing in Rtf1 deficient

embryos that was partially rescued by treatment with flavopiridol (Figure 8D-I).

If diminished promoter-proximal pausing at genes crucial for cardiogenesis is responsible for the

absence of cardiac progenitor formation in Rtf1-deficient embryos, then we would predict that

reducing pause release may restore cardiogenesis in an Rtf1-deficient background. We

examined expression of the cardiomyocyte marker *myl7* in wild type, *rtf1* mutant, and

flavopiridol-treated *rtf1* mutant embryos and found that partial attenuation of Cdk9 activity (5

ug/ml dosage) potently restored cardiomyocyte formation in Rtf1-deficient embryos (Figure

8J,K). Similarly, we found that knockdown of Cdk9 by injection of antisense morpholino

oligonucleotides[42,43] also restored the formation of *myl7*+ cardiomyocytes in an Rtf1-deficient

background (Figure 8L,M), confirming that decreased activity of the Cdk9 kinase is responsible

for rescuing the *rtf1* cardiac phenotype. These dramatic results suggest that the primary role of

Rtf1 in cardiac progenitor formation is regulating promoter-proximal pausing of critical members

of the cardiac gene program. Altogether, our data support a model in which loss of Rtf1 causes

excessive pause release, a dysregulation of the cardiac transcription program, and an arrest in

the developmental trajectory of cardiac progenitors prior to the formation of mature

cardiomyocytes.

Discussion:

In this study we investigated the molecular mechanism of the PAF1C member Rtf1's role in

cardiac progenitor formation. We found that Rtf1 plays a critical and conserved role in

cardiogenesis and cardiac gene expression in vertebrate and mammalian models. Zebrafish

rtf1 mutants and mouse Rtf1 cardiac mesoderm *Rtf1* conditional knockouts do not properly

initiate expression of cardiac transcription factors in the LPM and fail to generate mature

cardiomyocytes. Using single cell sequencing, we found that Rtf1 deficient embryos do

generate immature cardiac progenitors, but that these progenitors fail to express genes

associated with progression to a more mature state. Excitingly, we also showed that the Rtf1

protein can function in a modular fashion and that its Plus3 domain, a site of interaction with the

pausing/elongation factor Spt5, is essential for supporting cardiac development. In line with this

finding, we showed that loss of Rtf1 diminishes promoter-proximal pausing of RNA Polymerase

II, and that partially restoring normal pausing by chemical inhibition of pause release can

support cardiogenesis in an Rtf1-deficient background.

Despite having a nearly genome-wide decrease in promoter-proximal pausing of RNA

Polymerase II, Rtf1-deficient embryos display many upregulated and downregulated genes.

How exactly pausing regulates gene expression is not fully understood and likely involves both

general and gene/locus-specific mechanisms[35,44]. By limiting the release of RNA Polymerase II

into the elongation phase of transcription, pausing can restrain gene expression. This inhibitory

role of pausing on transcription allows for another layer of transcription regulation and has been

shown to modulate the expression of heat shock and immune stimulus-induced genes[45-47].

Pausing-dependent restraint of gene expression is also important for the timing of gene

expression in a developmental context. Supporting this notion, Spt5 and NELF-deficient

zebrafish embryos exhibit aberrant upregulation of TGFβ signaling and a resulting inhibition of

hematopoiesis[43]. Intriguingly, the PAF1C has also been shown in mammalian cells to restrain

transcription from a subset of promoters by inhibiting nearby enhancer activation[48].

On the other hand, pausing also positively regulates gene expression in some contexts. At

genes where nucleosome formation is favored in promoter regions, pausing of RNA Polymerase

II can promote a chromatin architecture that is permissive to transcription by competing with

nucleosomes for promoter occupancy[49,50]. This mechanism has been suggested to support

expression of the IFN-gamma pathway during zebrafish development[43]. Pausing may also

positively regulate gene expression during neural crest development. Loss of Paf1 activity

disrupts neural crest differentiation, but this defect can be partially rescued by inactivation of

Cdk9. Interestingly, zygotic loss of Cdk9 alone is sufficient to expand the neural crest

population in zebrafish embryos, suggesting that promoter-proximal pausing promotes the

neural crest gene program[51].

Recent work using a rapid protein degradation system in human cell culture has shed light on

the mechanisms by which the PAF1C regulates transcriptional pausing and gene expression

outputs[52]. In DLD-1 cells, acute depletion of PAF1 destabilizes the PAF1C and stimulates

pause release. Loss of PAF1 also decreases chromatin recruitment of INTS11, a component of

the Integrator-PP2A complex (INTAC) which interacts with PAF1C and counteracts the activity

of P-TEFb. This disruption in the balance of INTAC and P-TEFb activities at transcribed genes

results in hyperphosphorylation of SPT5 and likely explains the increase in pause release

caused by PAF1 depletion. Similar to our finding that Rtf1-deficiency positively and negatively

regulates gene expression, depletion of PAF1 resulted in both upregulation and downregulation

of many genes. Intriguingly, the gene expression changes caused by PAF1 depletion correlated

with the release frequency and processivity of RNA Polymerase II at a given gene, with genes

exhibiting low levels of release frequency tending to display decreases in their expression level.

These observations suggest that the combined regulatory functions of pausing and elongation

determine the transcriptional output of PAF1C-regulated genes.

In conclusion, our study reveals that the cardiac gene program is highly sensitive to loss of

promoter-proximal pausing. Future studies focused on the chromatin architecture of cardiac

gene promoters and other regulatory regions, and the dynamics of pause release and

elongation at cardiac genes are needed to provide a complete picture of the manner by which

promoter-proximal pausing fosters their expression.

Materials and Methods:

Zebrafish

Zebrafish colonies were cared for and bred under standard conditions[53]. Developmental stages

of zebrafish embryos were determined based on somite number or hours of development post

fertilization at 28.5 °C [53]. Fish husbandry and experiments were performed according to the

Institutional Approval for Appropriate Care and Use of Laboratory Animals by the UCLA

Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocols ARC-2000-051-TR-001 and BUA-2018-

195-002-CR).

CRISPR mutagenesis

Template DNA for *rtf1* exon 3 guideRNA (rtf1-e3 gRNA) synthesis was amplified with KOD

polymerase (MilliporeSigma) using the pXTW-gRNA plasmid and the primers rtf1-e3-F (5'-

TAATACGACTCACTATAGGAAGAAGGGGAAACCGAGCAAGTTTTAGAGCTAGAAATAGC-3')

and gRNA-R (5'-AAAAAAAGCACCGACTCGGTGCCAC-3'). rtf1-e3 gRNA (target sequence: 5'-

GGAAGAAGGGGAAACCGAGCAA-3') was synthesized using the MEGAshortscript T7

Transcription Kit (ThermoFisher Scientific) and purified using the RNeasy Mini Kit (Qiagen).

Zebrafish embryos were injected at the 1-cell stage with 300 pg of Cas9 mRNA and 200 pg of

rtf1-e3 gRNA. Injected embryos were raised to adulthood and then outcrossed to wild type AB

fish to establish lines carrying specific *rtf1* mutations.

Mice

All mice were maintained according to the Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals

published by the US National Institute of Health. Housing and experiments were performed

according to the Institutional Approval for Appropriate Care and Use of Laboratory Animals by

the UCLA Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocols ARC-2020-045-TR-001 and

ARC-2020-043-TR-001). ES cells were obtained from KOMP and used to rederive the

Rtf1[tm1a(KOMP)Wtsi] mouse line. This line was then crossed to a ROSA26::FLPe strain[54] (The

Jackson Laboratory, JAX stock #009086) to create an Rtf1 conditional knockout allele where

exon 3 of Rtf1 is flanked by two loxP sites (Rtf1[flox]). These mice were crossed into the

Mesp1[tm2(cre)Ysa] background[28] to produce a strain capable of generating Mesp-Cre[+];Rtf1[flox/flox]

offspring.

Whole mount in situ hybridization

Whole-mount in situ hybridization was performed as described previously[55]. Embryos for in situ

hybridization were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde in 1xPBS. After a brief proteinase K digestion,

embryos were incubated with digoxigenin-labeled antisense RNA probes overnight at 65-70°C.

Probes were detected using an anti-digoxigenin antibody conjugated with alkaline phosphatase

(Roche 11093274910). The zebrafish antisense RNA probes used in this study include *myl7*,

nkx2.5, *mef2ca*, *tbx20*, and *tbx5a*. The mouse probes used include *MLC2v*, *Tbx20*, and *Nkx2.5*.

Genotypes of zebrafish embryos were confirmed by PCR with primers:

rtf1-e3-F: 5'-TACAGTGACATCCACCATGCTG-3'

rtf1-e3-R: 5'-GTAAATAGGGGAGAAACTAATTGAAG-3'.

Genotypes of mouse embryos were confirmed by PCR with primers:

Rtf1-loxP-F: 5'-GACTGAGAAGGGAAATCTTTGAAAC-3'

Rtf1-loxP-R: 5'-CTAGTCCTTGAACAAGTTCAGCT-3'

Cre-F: 5'-GTAGCTGATGATCCGAATAACTAC-3'

Cre-R: 5'-ATCCAGGTTACGGATATAGT-3'.

Constructs

To prevent complementarity between *rtf1* morpholino and mRNA sequences, PCR was used to

introduce 8 silent mutations to the morpholino target sequence using pCS2/3XFLAG-rtf1 as a

template[21]. The morpholino-resistant wild type *rtf1* sequence was cloned into pCS2/3XFLAG to

produce an N-terminally FLAG-tagged morpholino-resistant rtf1 construct (pCS2/3XFLAG-rtf1-

mr). Rtf1 deletion mutant sequences were amplified from pCS2/3XFLAG-rtf1-mr by SOE-PCR

to produce Rtf1ΔHMD (missing a.a. 126-211 of Rtf1) and Rtf1ΔPlus3 (missing a.a. 319-450 of

Rtf1), which were subsequently cloned into pCS2/3XFLAG to produce N-terminally tagged

constructs.

Microinjections

0.5 ng of *rtf1* morpholino (rtf1MO; 5'-CTTTCCGTTTCTTTACATTCACCAT-3') was injected at

the 1-cell stage[21,56] along with 1 ng of *p53* morpholino (5'-GCGCCATTGCTTTGCAAGAATTG-

3') to prevent p53-dependent apoptosis[57]. For *cdk9* knockdown rescue experiments, 5 ng of

cdk9 morpholino (cdk9MO; 5'-ACACACAAACATCAAATACTCACCC-3')[42,43] was injected into an

incross of *rtf1^LA2679^* heterozygotes at the 1-cell stage. 150-200 pg of *rtf1* or *rtf1* deletion mutant

mRNAs were co-injected with *rtf1* and *p53* morpholinos at the 1-cell stage for mRNA rescue

experiments.

Mouse ESC culture and differentiation

E14TG2a mESCs (ATCC) were cultured on 0.1% gelatin covered plates without feeder cells.

The feeder-free mESCs were maintained in Dulbecco's modified Eagle's medium (Invitrogen)

supplemented with 15% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Invitrogen, USA), 1% non-essential amino

acids (Invitrogen), 0.1 mM β-mercaptoethanol (Sigma-Aldrich), 1% (v/v) penicillin-streptomycin-

Glutamine (ThermoFisher Scientific), and 10 μg/μl recombinant mouse leukemia inhibitory factor

(LIF; Sigma-Aldrich) in a 5% CO2 incubator at 37°C. The ESC culture medium was changed

every two days. mESCs were subcultured every 3 days using 0.25% trypsin-EDTA (Invitrogen).

mESCs were differentiated in hanging drops (600 cells/20 μL) without LIF under non-adherent

conditions. Day 5 embryoid bodies (EBs) were plated onto 0.1% gelatin covered plates. Media

was changed every two days during adherent culture.

Lentivirus transduction

To knockdown Rtf1 activity in mESCs, Rtf1 or NT (non-target) shRNA lentivirus harboring

puromycin resistance were purchased from Sigma-Aldrich. mESCs were transduced with the

indicated virus at a multiplicity of infection of 1 and selected in 1.2 μg/ml puromycin. Rtf1 shRNA

knockdown efficacy was tested by Western blotting analysis that detected Rtf1 protein level.

Antibodies used were anti-Rtf1 (Bethyl Labs A301-329A) and anti-β-actin (Sigma A1978).

Relative protein levels were determined by densitometry measurements using Adobe

Photoshop.

Quantitative RT-PCR

Total RNA from NT and shRNA transduced EBs was extracted using TRIzol RNA isolation

reagents (ThermoFisher Scientific). cDNA was synthesized using iScript cDNA Synthesis Kit

from Bio-Rad. Real-time quantitative PCR was carried out using the Roche LightCycler 480

Real-Time PCR System. Primers for qPCR are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Antibody staining

Embryos injected with mRNA encoding FLAG-tagged zebrafish Rtf1 constructs were fixed in 4%

PFA in PBS at 75% epiboly. The fixed embryos were incubated in primary antibody (1:50 mouse

anti-FLAG M2, F1804, Sigma) in blocking solution (10% goat serum in PBT) for 2 hours at room

temperature followed by detection with fluorescent secondary antibody (1:200 anti-mouse IgG-

Alexa Fluor 555, A-31570). Nuclei were stained with DAPI and embryos were embedded in 1%

low-melt agarose and imaged on a Zeiss LSM800 confocal microscope.

Western Blotting

Embryos were lysed in Rubinfeld's Lysis Buffer at 1 day post fertilization as previously

described[21]. Two embryo equivalents were loaded per lane of a 8% polyacrylamide gel.

Following electrophoresis, proteins were transferred to a nitrocellulose membrane and detected

with antibodies against Rtf1 (Bethyl Labs A301-329A, 1:4000) and beta-actin (Sigma A1978,

1:5000). ImageJ was used to perform densitometry comparing the levels of Rtf1 protein

between samples using beta-actin as the control.

Chemical treatment

Flavopiridol (Cayman Chemicals) was dissolved in DMSO at a stock concentration of 10 mg/ml.

Zebrafish embryos were treated with 1.375 – 5 ug/ml flavopiridol diluted in E3 buffer beginning

at 60-70% epiboly. For *rtf1* mutant rescue experiments, genotypes were confirmed using the

primers rtf1-e3-F and rtf1-e3-R.

FACS

10-12 somite stage TgBAC(hand2:EGFP)[pd24] uninjected and *rtf1* morpholino-injected zebrafish

embryos[58] were nutated in 10 mg/ml protease (Protease from *Bacillus licheniformis*, Sigma

P5380) in DMEM/F12 media for 30 minutes at 4°C and pipetted to dissociate cells. Debris was

removed by filtering through a 40 um cell strainer and cells were then pelleted by centrifugation

at 300 rcf for 5 minutes at 4°C. Cells were resuspended in cold FACS buffer (1xPBS, 2% FBS,

1mM EDTA) and refiltered immediately prior to sorting on a BD FACSAria II using a 100 um

nozzle. Dead cells were excluded by staining with 0.1 µg/ml DAPI. Cells from batches of 100

embryos were sorted directly into a mixture of 350 ul Buffer RA1 and 3.5 ul 2-mercaptoethanol

from the NucleoSpin RNA kit (Machery-Nagel) for RNA isolation.

mRNA-seq

RNA was purified from FACS-sorted cells with the NucleoSpin RNA kit (Machery Nagel).

Approximately 5-10 ng of input RNA was used to produce libraries with the NEBNext Single

Cell/Low Input RNA Library Prep Kit for Illumina (NEB) which were sequenced on an Illumina

HiSeq 3000 to produce 50 bp single-end reads. Reads from triplicate samples were mapped to

the danRer7 genome using Tophat v2.1.1[59] using default parameters. Mapped reads were

counted with FeatureCounts v2.0.0[60] and differential expression analysis was carried out with

DESeq2 v1.32.0[61]. Gene ontology enrichment was examined using the R package

clusterProfiler[62] in R v4.1.0. For gene ontology analysis, the most significantly downregulated

genes in *rtf1* morphant LPM were selected as those genes that were downregulated among the

300 most significantly differentially expressed genes based on adjusted *p*-value.

ChIP-seq

Embryos for ChIP were dissociated with 4 mg/ml Collagenase Type IV and 0.25% Trypsin at

room temperature with intermittent pipetting. Dissociation was stopped with 10% FBS in DMEM

and cells were washed once with PBS. Fixation and preparation of chromatin was carried out

using the Covaris truChIP Chromatin Shearing Kit and 7 minutes of sonication in a Covaris

E220 ultrasonicator using the recommended settings. Immunoprecipitations were carried out as

previously described[63] on approximately 5 ug of chromatin (minimum 2.5 ug, maximum 8.8 ug)

using 5 ul of total RNA Pol II antibody (Cell Signaling D8L4Y). Libraries were prepared using

the NEBNext Ultra II DNA Library Kit for Illumina (NEB) and sequenced with an Illumina

Novaseq 6000 system to produce 50 bp paired-end reads. Reads from triplicate samples were

mapped to the danRer11 genome using bowtie2 v2.4.2[64] (options: --local -X 1000) and read

densities of UCSC RefSeq gene regions were quantified using the package csaw v1.24.3[65,66] in

R v4.0.3. For our pausing analyses, we defined the transcription start site (TSS) region as -300

bp to +300 bp surrounding the TSS. RNA Pol II ChIP-seq read densities for the TSS regions of

genes displayed a bimodal distribution which was assumed to be two partially overlapping

distributions of genes with high and low RNA Pol II TSS signal. We examined those genes with

a substantial level of RNA Pol II signal in the TSS region of control samples, defined as those

genes present in the upper mode of the distribution of log-transformed TSS read densities

based on a cutoff for type-I error of 10% using the R cutoff package v0.1.0

(https://github.com/choisy/cutoff). The read density in the TSS region was divided by the read

density in the region extending from +301 to +1301 bp with respect to the TSS to calculate the

pause release ratio (PRR). ChIP-seq data was visualized in Python 3.10.0 using the plotting

tool SparK v2.6.2[67].

Nuclei isolation for single cell sequencing

Nuclei were isolated from 200 11-12 somite stage zebrafish embryos for 10x Genomics

Multiome sequencing using recommended procedures with slight modifications. Embryos were

deyolked in Deyolking buffer (55 mM NaCl, 1.8 mM KCl, 1.25 mM NaHCO3) and then

embryonic cells were partially dissociated by pipetting in DMEM/F12 media (Gibco 21041025).

Cells were pelleted and then lysed on ice for 5 minutes in 100 µl of chilled 0.1X Lysis buffer (10

mM Tris pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.01% Tween-20, 0.01% IGEPAL CA-630, 0.001%

digitonin, 1% BSA, 1 mM DTT). 1 ml of Wash buffer (10 mM Tris pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM

$MgCl_2$, 0.1% Tween-20, 1% BSA, 1 mM DTT, 0.1 U/µl Sigma Protector RNase Inhibitor) was

then added to the cell lysis and the nuclei were pelleted by centrifuging at 500xg for 5 minutes

at 4°C. Two more washes with 1 ml of Wash buffer were performed. Nuclei were then

resuspended in 50 µl of Nuclei Dilution Buffer (1X 10x Genomics Single Cell Multiome Nuclei

Buffer, 1 mM DTT, 1 U/µl Sigma Protector RNase Inhibitor) and filtered with a 40 µm Flowmi cell

strainer. Approximately 10,000 nuclei per sample were targeted for capture with the 10x

Chromium Single Cell Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression system by the UCLA Technology

Center for Genomics & Bioinformatics.

Single cell sequencing analysis

10x Chromium Single Cell Multiome ATAC + Gene Expression libraries were prepared by the

UCLA Technology Center for Genomics & Bioinformatics following the manufacturer's

recommended protocols and sequenced with an Illumina Novaseq 6000 system. Reads from

RNA-seq and ATAC-seq assays were aligned to the zebrafish GRCz11 genome with the

Lawson laboratory's improved transcriptome annotation[68] using 10x Genomics' Cell Ranger

ARC software v2.0.0 with default parameters. Mapped reads from single cell RNA-seq and

ATAC-seq assays were analyzed in R v4.2.2 using Seurat v4.3.0[69]. Good quality cells were

retained by filtering using Seurat with the following thresholds: 15000 > RNA UMI > 2000,

Genes > 1500, 20000 > ATAC UMI > 5000, TSS enrichment score > 3.5. Filtered control and

rtf1 morphant cell datasets were integrated using Harmony v0.1.1[70], and preliminary

dimensional reduction, cell clustering, and marker gene identification were carried out in Seurat.

Clusters of cells that exhibited enriched expression of mitochondrial and ribosomal transcript

expression levels but lacked enrichment for other genes were considered abnormal cells and

were manually removed from the dataset. Following manual filtering, a final dataset of 14340

control and 13839 *rtf1* morphant cells was again integrated with Harmony and multimodal

dimensional reduction (weighted-nearest neighbor method with RNA and ATAC assays), cell

clustering, and marker gene identification were carried out in Seurat. Cluster cell number

proportions and gene expression levels were visualized with Seurat and with published code[71].

Based on marker gene expression, cells that were members of clusters corresponding to

anterior lateral plate mesoderm (*sema3e*+), endothelium (*flt4*+), cardiac precursor (*mef2cb*+),

and rostral blood (*spi1b*+) were extracted, independently integrated with Harmony, and

dimensional reduction (RNA assay only), cell clustering, and marker gene identification were

carried out in Seurat. Pseudotime analysis of Harmony/Seurat cell embeddings and plotting of

gene expression over pseudotime was performed with Monocle v3.0[72].

Statistical analysis

Statistical significance of gene expression changes in qPCR analyses was determined based on

2 (for *Nkx2-5* and *Afp* expression) or 3 (for *Myh6*, *Nppa*, *Brachyury*, and *Ncam1* expression)

independent experiments using a two-tailed Student's *t*-test with a *p*-value of less than 0.05

considered to be significant. Statistical significance of the difference between beating

cardiomyocyte cluster formation in control and Rtf1 shRNA mESCs was determined based on 4

independent experiments using a two-tailed Student's *t*-test with a *p*-value of less than 0.05

considered to be significant. To compare PRR means between uninjected, *rtf1* morphant, and

flavopiridol-treated *rtf1* morphant embryos, mean PRR values were first log-transformed (log10)

and then a Welch's paired two-tailed *t*-test was carried out with a *p*-value of less than 0.05

considered to be significant. Significantly changed PRRs for individual genes were determined

based on 3 independent replicates per condition using the rowttests function in the R package

genefilter v1.72.1 to perform two-tailed *t*-tests. The p.adjust function in the R stats package

v4.0.3 using a Benjamini and Hochberg (false discovery rate) correction for multiple

comparisons was then applied with adjusted *p*-values of less than 0.1 considered to be

significant.

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Author Contributions

A.D.L.: study design, data acquisition, analysis, and interpretation, manuscript writing. F.L.:

study design, data acquisition, analysis, and interpretation. L.T.: data acquisition. Z.Y.S.H.: data

acquisition. B.K.: data acquisition. Z.T.: data acquisition. A.E.: data acquisition. M.P.: data

analysis. H.N.: study design and data interpretation. A.N.: study design and data interpretation.

J.-N.C.: study design, data interpretation, manuscript writing. All authors approved the final

manuscript.

Competing Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Data Availability Statement

The RNA-seq, ChIP-seq, and single cell-seq data presented in this study are available in the

NCBI SRA (BioProject PRJNA1015262).

Figure 1. Generation of zebrafish *rtf1* null mutants with CRISPR/Cas9. (a) Schematic of

CRISPR/Cas9 mutagenesis of the *rtf1* gene. Two mutant alleles, *rtf1^LA2678^* and *rtf1^LA2679^*, were

recovered after targeting of *rtf1* exon 3. Both alleles are predicted to disrupt translation of the

Rtf1 protein and eliminate the HMD, Plus3, Pol II interaction, and PAF1C interaction domains.

(b) Agarose gel electrophoresis results of genotyping *rtf1* mutants by PCR. Deletions in

*rtf1^LA2678^* and *rtf1^LA2679^* alleles can be distinguished from wild type allele using primers rtf1-e3-F

and rtf1-e3-R. (c) Western blot detecting Rtf1 and β-actin (loading control) proteins in lysates of

wild type and *rtf1* mutant embryos. Image is representative of two independent experiments.

Figure 2. Characterization of early cardiac development in Rtf1 deficient embryos. (a)

Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *myl7* expression in 24 hpf

zebrafish embryos. (b) Quantification of *myl7* signal intensity in control and Rtf1 deficient

embryos at 24 hpf. Numbers on bars indicate the number of embryos analyzed. (c)

Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *mef2ca* expression in 8 somite

stage zebrafish embryos. (d) Quantification of *mef2ca* signal intensity in control and Rtf1

deficient embryos at the 8 somite stage. Numbers on bars indicate the number of embryos

analyzed. (e) Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *nkx2.5* expression in

8 somite stage zebrafish embryos. (f) Quantification of *nkx2.5* signal intensity in control and Rtf1

deficient embryos at the 8 somite stage. Numbers on bars indicate the number of embryos

analyzed. (g) Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *tbx5a* expression in

8 somite stage zebrafish embryos. (h) Quantification of *tbx5a* signal intensity in control and Rtf1

deficient embryos at the 8 somite stage. Numbers on bars indicate the number of embryos

analyzed. (i) Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *tbx20* expression in 8

somite stage zebrafish embryos. (j) Quantification of *tbx20* signal intensity in control and Rtf1

deficient embryos at the 8 somite stage. Numbers on bars indicate the number of embryos

analyzed. Scale bars in a, c, e, g, and i represent 0.1 mm.

Figure 3. Failure of cardiac differentiation upon loss of Rtf1 in the mammalian cardiac

mesoderm. (a) Diagram of generation of cardiac mesoderm-specific Rtf1 knockout mouse

embryos. A Mesp1: Cre insertion allele was bred into an Rtf1 exon 3 floxed background.

Heterozygous Rtf1 floxed male mice with Mesp1:Cre were bred to homozygous Rtf1 floxed

females, resulting in one quarter of embryos lacking Rtf1 activity in the cardiac mesoderm. (b)

Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *Nkx2.5* (wild type n = 7, Rtf1 CKO

n = 5), *Tbx20* (wild type n = 16, Rtf1 CKO n = 4), and *MLC2v* (wild type n = 1, Rtf1 CKO n = 1)

gene expression in Cre-negative (wild type siblings) and Cre-positive homozygous Rtf1 floxed

(Rtf1 CKO) embryos at E8.5 or E9.5.

Figure 4. Failure of cardiac differentiation from Rtf1 knockdown mouse embryonic stem

cells. (a) Diagram of shRNA knockdown of Rtf1 in mouse embryonic stem cells (mESCs) and

differentiation of plated EBs. mESCs were transduced with non-target control or Rtf1 shRNA

lentivirus and selected with puromycin. Transduced mESCs were grown into embryoid bodies

(EBs) using the hanging drop method which were then plated to examine differentiation into cell

types including beating cardiomyocyte clusters. (b) Western blot verifying reduction of Rtf1

protein in Rtf1 shRNA mESCs (~70% reduced based on densitometry) compared to unchanged

level of the loading control protein β-actin. Image is representative of three independent

experiments. (c) qPCR analysis of *Myh6*, *Nkx2-5*, and *Nppa* expression in non-target control

(NT) and Rtf1 shRNA plated EBs. Data are normalized to the mean expression level in NT

shRNA samples and error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. (d) Mean percentage (±

standard error) of plated EBs exhibiting beating cardiomyocyte differentiation (cEBs) in NT and

Rtf1 shRNA plated EBs. (e) qPCR analysis of *Brachyury* expression in non-target control (NT)

and Rtf1 shRNA plated EBs. (f) qPCR analysis of *Afp* expression in non-target control (NT) and

Rtf1 shRNA plated EBs. (g) qPCR analysis of *Ncam1* expression in non-target control (NT) and

Rtf1 shRNA plated EBs. Data in e, f, and g are normalized to the mean expression level in NT

shRNA samples at day 0 (D0) and error bars indicate the standard error of the mean. *: $p <$

0.05, ***: $p < 0.001$.

Figure 5. Dysregulation of cardiac gene expression in the Rtf1 deficient lateral plate mesoderm. (a,b) Projections of confocal z-stacks of hand2:GFP signal in 11 somite stage uninjected control (a) and *rtf1* morphant (b) embryos. Scale bars represent 100 μm. (c) Diagram of lateral plate mesoderm (LPM) FACS RNA-seq experiment. Transgenic hand2:GFP embryos were injected at the 1-cell stage with *rtf1* morpholino and grown to the 10-12 somite stage prior to dissociation and sorting based on GFP expression. RNA isolated from GFP-positive LPM cells was subjected to RNA-seq and compared to RNA from uninjected embryo LPM cells. (d) Heatmap of scaled expression levels of the top 40 genes most significantly differentially expressed (based on *p*-value) between uninjected control and *rtf1* morphant

770   hand2:GFP-positive LPM. High and low z-scores represent high and low gene expression,

771   respectively. (e) Hierarchical clustering of Biological Process gene ontology (GO) terms based

772   on semantic similarity for the genes most significantly downregulated in the *rtf1* morphant

773   hand2:GFP-positive LPM.

Figure 6. Rtf1 is required for transcriptional progression of cardiac precursors to a more mature state. (a-c) UMAP plots of anterior lateral plate mesoderm (ALPM) and derivatives from merged and integrated single cell RNA-seq datasets of 11-12 somite stage uninjected control and *rtf1* morphant embryos. Cells in plots are colored by cell type (a), sample (b), and

801   pseudotime (c). (d,f) Expression dynamics plots displaying expression levels (y-axis) for

802   selected genes in uninjected control (d) and *rtf1* morphant (f) cells over the pseudotime

803   trajectory (x-axis) from ALPM (root) to cardiac precursor state shown in c. (e,g) UMAP plots of

804   uninjected control (e) and *rtf1* morphant (g) cells colored by gene expression levels.

Figure 7. Rtf1's Plus3 domain is necessary for cardiac progenitor formation. (a)

Schematics of Rtf1 wildtype (wt) and Rtf1 mutant constructs (ΔHMD and ΔPlus3). Domains are

indicated by colored boxes (HMD: red, Plus3: blue, PolII and PAF1C interaction: grey). Deleted

regions are represented by lines. Numbers refer to the amino acid positions in wildtype Rtf1. (b)

Projections of confocal z-stacks of whole mount immunostaining detecting N-terminal FLAG-

tagged Rtf1 constructs (red) expressed in 75% epiboly zebrafish embryos. Nuclei are labeled

by DAPI staining (blue). Scale bars represent 20 μm. (c) Representative images of RNA in situ

hybridization detecting *nkx2.5* expression in 10 somite stage (10S) zebrafish embryos

coinjected with *rtf1* morpholino and mRNA encoding Rtf1 wildtype or mutant proteins. Scale

bars represent 0.1 mm.

Figure 8. Rtf1-dependent transcriptional pausing regulates cardiogenesis. (a) Cumulative

frequency plot of pause release ratios (PRRs) of 6,078 genes with substantial RNA Pol II signal.

PRRs in control (red) and flavopiridol treated *rtf1* morphant (light blue) samples differed

significantly from untreated *rtf1* morphant PRRs (blue). ***: $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; Welch's paired two-

tailed *t*-test. The median PRR of control samples is indicated by a vertical grey dashed line. (b)

Dot plot comparing PRRs in controls and *rtf1* morphants. Each dot represents the PRR values

for a single gene that differ significantly (colored point) or are not significantly different (grey

point) between controls and *rtf1* morphants. (c) Dot plot comparing PRRs in *rtf1* morphants and

flavopiridol-treated *rtf1* morphants. Each dot represents the PRR values for a single gene that

differ significantly (colored point) or are not significantly different (grey point) between *rtf1*

morphants and flavopiridol-treated *rtf1* morphants. Dot colors in b and c are based on the

density of points, with lighter colors indicating more dense points. (d-i) Representative ChIP-seq

tracks displaying RNA Pol II read densities (y-axis) for control (red), *rtf1* morphant (blue), and

flavopiridol-treated *rtf1* morphant (light blue) embryos at cardiac mesoderm-related genes

including *hand2* (d), *gata5* (e), *aplnrb* (f), *bmp4* (g), *nkx2.7* (h), and *rbfox1l* (i). (j)

Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting *myl7* expression in 24 hpf control

and Rtf1 deficient (± flavopiridol) zebrafish embryos. (k) Quantification of *myl7* signal intensity in

control and Rtf1 deficient (± flavopiridol) embryos at 24 hpf. Numbers on bars indicate the

number of embryos analyzed. (l) Representative images of RNA in situ hybridization detecting

myl7 expression in 24 hpf control and Rtf1 deficient (± *cdk9* morpholino) zebrafish embryos. (m)

Quantification of *myl7* signal intensity in control and Rtf1 deficient (± *cdk9* morpholino) embryos

at 24 hpf. Numbers on bars indicate the number of embryos analyzed.

Supplementary Data

Supplementary Table 1. Sequences of primers used for quantitative real-time PCR analysis of

gene expression in mouse embryonic stem cells.

Supplementary Figure 1. Gating strategy for 10-12 somite stage zebrafish hand2:GFP FACS.

Abnormal cells or multiplets were excluded by gating out events with high side scatter (SSC)

and forward scatter (FSC). Live hand2:GFP-positive cells (pink cells in panel d) were sorted

based on high GFP and low DAPI signal. (a) Gating control experiment using unstained cells

from non-transgenic embryos. (b) Gating control experiment using unstained cells from

hand2:GFP transgenic embryos. (c) Gating control experiment using DAPI-stained cells from

non-transgenic embryos. (d) Gating of sorting sample for analysis using DAPI-stained cells from

hand2:GFP transgenic embryos. 0.6% of the total cells were sorted as live GFP-positive cells.

Plots are representative of 3 independent experiments.

Supplementary Figure 2. UMAP plots of 11-12 somite stage control and *rtf1* morphant embryo

integrated multimodal (ATAC + Gene Expression) single cell sequencing datasets split based

on sample (control on left vs. *rtf1* morphant on right). Cells are colored based on Seurat cluster.

Supplementary Figure 3. Clustered dot plot displaying expression of marker genes in cells

belonging to each Seurat cluster for the dataset displayed in Supplementary Figure 2. Each

cluster is further split by sample (control vs. *rtf1* morphant).

Supplementary Figure 4. Comparison of proportions of cells belonging to each Seurat cluster

in control and *rtf1* morphant samples for the dataset displayed in Supplementary Figure 2.

Predicted identities of each cell type based on marker gene expression are displayed to the left

of the Seurat cluster IDs. Cell type names are colored based on whether they are significantly

expanded (pink) or significantly reduced (light blue) in *rtf1* morphants based on Fisher's exact

test with an adjusted *p*-value cutoff of 0.05.

Supplementary Data File 1. DESeq2 results file containing differential gene expression

analysis data comparing FACS-isolated hand2:GFP-positive LPM from control and *rtf1*

morphant 10-12 somite stage embryos.

Supplementary Data File 2. Significantly restricted marker genes for Seurat cell clusters from

integrated multimodal (ATAC + Gene Expression) single cell sequencing dataset from control

and *rtf1* morphant embryos at the 11-12 somite stage.

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