Reduced TBX5 dosage undermines developmental control of atrial cardiomyocyte identity in a model of human atrial disease

Irfan S. Kathiriya[1], Kavitha S. Rao[1,2], Alexander P. Clark[3], Kevin M. Hu[1,2,10], Zoe L. Grant[2], Megan N. Matthews[1], Zhe Chen[2], Jeffrey J. Saucerman[3,4], Swetansu K. Hota[2,11], Benoit G. Bruneau[2,5,6,7,8]

[1]Department of Anesthesia and Perioperative Care, University of California, San Francisco, USA, [2]Gladstone Institutes, USA, [3]Department of Biomedical Engineering, University of Virginia, USA;, [4]Robert M. Berne Cardiovascular Research Center, University of Virginia, USA;, [5]Roddenberry Center for Stem Cell Biology and Medicine, Gladstone Institutes, USA, [6]Cardiovascular Research Institute, University of California, San Francisco, USA, [7]Department of Pediatrics, University of California, San Francisco, [8]Institute of Human Genetics, University of California, San Francisco, 11 University of California, San Francisco [10]Current address: Creighton University School of Medicine, USA, [11]Current address: Herman B. Wells Center for Pediatric Research, Indiana University School of Medicine, USA

Correspondence to I.S.K irfan.kathiriya@ucsf.edu or B.G.B. benoit.bruneau@gladstone.ucsf.edu

Abstract

There is evidence for a shared genetic basis of atrial septal defects (ASDs) and atrial fibrillation (AF), but it remains unclear how genetic susceptibility leads to these distinct human atrial diseases. Here, we used directed differentiation of human induced pluripotent stem cell to ventricular or atrial cardiomyocytes (CMs) to define gene regulatory networks (GRNs) of human ventricular or atrial CM identity. In ventricular, atrial, or both types of CMs, we uncovered accessible chromatin regions, transcription factor motifs and key regulatory nodes, including the transcription factor *TBX5*, which is linked to ASDs and AF in humans. Complete *TBX5* loss resulted in a near absence of atrial CMs with a concomitant increase in abundance of other cell types. Reduced dosage of TBX5 in human atrial CMs caused cellular, electrophysiologic and molecular phenotypes consistent with features of atrial CM dysfunction. This included dose-dependent aberrant accessibility of many chromatin regions leading to perturbed TBX5-sensitive gene regulatory networks of atrial CM identity. These results suggest that genetic susceptibility to some human atrial diseases may impair developmental gene regulation for proper atrial CM identity.

Introduction.

Thin-walled atria are distinct from thick-walled ventricles in their developmental origin and function. Atria serve to collect blood in the heart, initiate and propagate an electrical signal for coordinated cardiac contraction, and respond to physiologic changes such as heart failure by secreting hormones. These functions are reflected in atrial cell type abundance and phenotype. For example, atrial fibroblasts display a greater response to pathologic stimuli than ventricular fibroblasts (Burstein et al., 2008). Atrial cardiomyocytes (CMs) display distinct electrophysiologic characteristics, calcium handling and contractile proteins, cell-cell coupling and energy metabolism, which is reflected in human atrial gene expression *in vivo* (Dobrev et al., 2019).

Atrial disease is common and increases cardiovascular and cerebrovascular risk. Developmental defects of the atria include cor triatriatum, atrial aneurysms, patent foramen ovale (PFO) and atrial septal defects (ASDs). ASDs are one of the most common forms of congenital heart defects (CHDs), estimated at 25% in the CHD population (Hoffman and Kaplan, 2002). Some larger ASDs can lead to heart failure and require surgical repair. With aging, atrial tissue can manifest with chaotic electrical activity, known as atrial fibrillation (AF). AF is the most common arrhythmia and a leading cause of heart failure, stroke and sudden cardiac death (Kornej et al., 2020). Moreover, there is an increasing prevalence of AF in adults with CHDs, and AF risk is higher in patients with ASDs than in the non-CHD population (Miguel and Ávila, 2021). Moreover, a molecular basis of ASDs and AF remains poorly understood, and critical insights are needed to develop new diagnostic and therapeutic approaches.

There is ample evidence for a shared genetic basis of atrial diseases. ASDs are caused by inherited dominant mutations in genes of the sarcomere (Ching et al., 2005; Matsson et al., 2008; Postma et al., 2011), chromatin modifying enzymes (Boniel et al., 2021) and transcription factors (Basson et al., 1997; Garg et al., 2003; Kirk et al., 2007; Li et al., 1997; Posch et al., 2010; Schott et al., 1998; Yuan et al., 2013). Atrial fibrillation is associated with inherited mutations or variants in genes of potassium channels (Chen et al., 2003; Hong et al., 2005; Olson et al., 2006; Xia et al., 2005; Yang et al., 2004), the sarcomere (Choi et al., 2018; Gudbjartsson et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2018), atrial natriuretic peptide (Hodgson-Zingman et al., 2008) and transcription factors (Guo et al., 2016; Ma et al., 2016; Roselli et al., 2018; Xie et al., 2013). Thus, some categories of genes associated with ASDs and AF share functional overlap, but the mechanisms underlying or linking the two atrial diseases are unclear.

To model human atrial disease *in vitro*, multiple groups have developed methods to promote atrial CM differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells, garnering important insights into the pathways involved (Cyganek et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2019). These

protocols have been used in wildtype cells for cell type-specific drug screening, and for inducing

AF by electrical stimulation (Goldfracht et al., 2019) or with drugs that increase the risk of AF

(Shafaattalab et al., 2019). However, human cellular models of genetic susceptibility to atrial

disease have not yet been reported.

Heterozygous mutations of the transcription factor *TBX5* cause Holt-Oram syndrome, a

developmental disorder that often includes ASDs in humans (Basson 1997,Li 1997) and in mice

(Bruneau et al., 2001). Conditional loss of *Tbx5* in the endocardium (Nadeau et al., 2010) or dorsal

mesenchymal protrusion (Xie et al., 2012) leads to ASDs, suggesting an essential role for TBX5

in atrial septal development. Post-natal deletion of *Tbx5* in atrial CMs leads to AF via a calcium

transport mechanism (Dai et al., 2019; Nadadur et al., 2016), and *Tbx5* was shown to be essential

for the maintenance of an atrial gene expression program (Sweat et al., 2023). Some inherited

TBX5 mutations cause both ASDs and AF in the same individuals (Bever et al., 1996; Postma et

al., 2008). As TBX5 is broadly associated with atrial gene regulation, ASDs and AF, understanding

TBX5 function presents an opportunity to decipher generalizable rules of gene regulation from

atrial development and disease.

Here, we deployed a recently developed induced pluripotent stem cell (iPSC) model of

Holt-Oram Syndrome (Kathiriya et al., 2021) to study genetic susceptibility to human atrial

diseases. We observed disease-relevant cellular, electrophysiologic and molecular deficits of

atrial CMs. Many deficits showed more profound disturbances to cell physiology and

developmental gene expression than in ventricular CMs (Kathiriya et al., 2021). Notably, atrial CM

specification failed from complete loss of *TBX5,* and atrial CM identity was hindered by

heterozygous loss of *TBX5*. Further, we discovered gene regulatory networks (GRNs) for atrial

CM identity that were sensitive to reduced or absent TBX5 dosage, and we defined disruptions to

key nodes, including ASD- and AF-risk genes, in atrial disease-relevant networks.

Results.

<u>Modeling chamber-specific atrial CM identity from human iPSCs.</u> As an initial step to model atrial

differentiation and disease, we used two distinct protocols to differentiate wildtype (WT) iPSCs

(WTC11 parental line) (Miyaoka et al., 2014) to either atrial or ventricular CMs to validate atrial

CM-specific characteristics compared to ventricular CMs. Immunostaining showed ANP, a well-

known atrial marker, to be enriched in atrial CMs (Fig. 1A-G). By contrast, MLC2V, a ventricular

marker, was nearly absent among atrial CMs compared to ventricular CMs (Fig. 1H-N).

Multielectrode array (MEA) assays revealed a faster beat rate among atrial CMs and shorter rate-

adjusted local extracellular action potentials (LEAP), consistent with atrial CM electrophysiology

(Fig. 1O, P)(Nerbonne and Kass, 2005), consistent with iPSC-derived atrial CMs derived by

another protocol (Cyganek et al., 2018).

We performed single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA seq) on atrial differentiation at day 20

and merged it with previously generated scRNA seq data of ventricular differentiation at day 23

(Fig. S1A, B) (Kathiriya et al., 2021). Differential expression analysis confirmed that atrial CMs

were enriched for genes including *TBX5* and *NPPA*, along with other atrial-specific genes

(*NR2F2, HEY1, HAMP, MYH6*), while devoid of ventricular-specific genes (*MYL2*, *IRX4*, *HEY2,*

HAND1, MYH7) (Fig. 1Q) (Supp. Data 1).

Distinct epigenomic features in human iPSC-derived atrial CMs. We next compared accessible

chromatin regions among differentiations to ventricular or atrial CMs using single nucleus ATAC

sequencing (snATAC seq) (Fig. S1C, D, Supp. Data 2). We annotated cell type clusters by ArchR

gene score (Granja et al., 2020), and defined *MYL2*-gene score$^+$ clusters as ventricular CMs and

MYH6-gene score$^+$ clusters as atrial CMs (Fig. S1E). In a *TNNT2*-gene score$^+$ CM subset of

ventricular and atrial CMs (Fig. S1F, G), we found that accessible chromatin regions among

clusters of ventricular or atrial CMs were distributed across promoters, introns, exons and distal

regions to a similar degree (Fig. S1H). By genomic coordinates, about one-quarter of accessible

regions (42,108 regions) overlapped between ventricular and atrial CMs at the stages assessed.

Likewise, 56,301 ventricular CM-specific and 63,173 atrial CM-specific regions were identified

(Fig. 1R). Based on fold change differences, we also identified 465 differentially accessible

regions (DAR) among ventricular or atrial CMs (Fig. S1I). Thus, although several accessible

regions may be common to ventricular and atrial CMs, the degree of accessibility may be different

among ventricular or atrial CMs. Among DARs, transcription factor (TF) motifs enriched among

ventricular CMs included MADS-box/MEF2 (Desjardins and Naya, 2016; Medrano and Naya,

2017; Naya et al., 2002), TEAD (Gise et al., 2012; Lin et al., 2016) and NFAT (Bushdid et al.,

2003) motifs (Fig. 1S). Interestingly, HOX motifs were also enriched in iPSC-derived ventricular

CMs, implying a HOX factor may have potential as an important regulatory TF during human

ventricular development. Atrial CMs were enriched for NKX, NR2F2, GATA and TBX/MEIS motifs

(Fig. 1S). Notably, TF motifs of TGIF, a TALE homeodomain protein associated with

holoprosencephaly that inhibits retinoic acid signaling (Bartholin et al., 2006) and represses Smad

signaling (Nakashima et al., 2018) were observed. However, a role for TGIF or TGIF-like factors

in atrial development has not yet been described.

<u>Gene regulatory networks of atrial cardiomyocyte (CM) identity.</u> Gene regulatory networks (GRNs) can reveal nodes—TFs that are important for establishment and maintenance of transcriptional programs—beyond changes to gene expression. To uncover GRNs of human ventricular or atrial CM identity, we applied CellOracle, a machine learning-based approach to build cell type-specific GRNs using both gene expression and chromatin accessibility data (Supp. Data 3) (Kamimoto et al., 2023). We calculated metrics of 'betweenness" (i.e., metric of information flow through each node) and 'degree out' (i.e., count of outgoing edge each node) centrality of each node (Fig. S1J, K). We observed that canonical TFs such as *HEY2*, *HAND1*, *HES4* as predominant nodes in ventricular CMs, and *NR2F2* and *HEY1* in atrial CMs. We also identified TFs that are lesser known in the developing heart as nodes, including *E2F1* in ventricular CMs and *NR2F1* and *PLAGL1* in atrial CMs. Of note, some TFs (e.g. *HEY2*, *HEY1*, *TBX5*) displayed connections in both ventricular and atrial CM GRNs, although the nature of their connections changed, reflecting ventricular or atrial CM contexts (Fig. 1T, U). For example, ventricular-enriched *HEY2* displayed predominant betweenness centrality and degree out in ventricular CMs (Fig. S1J, K). In ventricular CMs, ventricular-enriched *HEY2* displayed connections with a positive correlation (i.e. directly proportional between the TF and a target gene known as an edge), suggesting that *HEY2* positively regulates some ventricular CM genes. Some atrial CM-specific connections of *HEY2* reflected negative correlations (i.e. inversely proportional between the TF and an edge), suggesting *HEY2* may negatively regulate some atrial CM genes (Fig. S1L, M). Notably, atrial-enriched *HEY1* displayed predominant betweenness centrality and enriched degree out in atrial CMs (Fig. S1J, K). Interestingly, atrial-enriched *HEY1* showed most connections reflecting positive correlations in ventricular CMs, while many connections in atrial CMs reflected negative correlations, suggesting that the relationship of *HEY1* to gene expression is more complex in the atrial CM context (Fig. S1N, O). Notably, although there are more direct connections to *TBX5* in ventricular CMs, *TBX5* showed connections with positive correlations in both atrial and ventricular CMs, some of which were overlapping, implying some shared roles in both ventricular and atrial CM networks (Fig. 1V, W).

As variants in *TBX5* are associated with ASDs and AF, we predicted that *TBX5* likely plays a central regulatory role in human atrial CMs. We used CellOracle (Kamimoto et al., 2023) to perform *in silico* perturbation of *TBX5* in atrial CM differentiation. In the normal condition, WTC11 cells generate mostly $MYH6^+$ atrial CMs, some $MYH7^+$ ventricular-like CMs and $TNNT2^+$ $COL3A1^+$ CMs, which express extracellular matrix genes (CMEs). CellOracle analysis predicted that complete loss of *TBX5* would hinder specification of atrial CM identity and instead lead toward other CM sub-types, such as CMEs (Fig. 1X, Y).

Human cell model of genetic susceptibility to atrial diseases. To test this prediction, we leveraged a human disease model of *TBX5* haploinsufficiency (Kathiriya et al., 2021) to study genetic susceptibility to atrial diseases. We deployed a commercial protocol (StemCell Technologies) for atrial CM differentiation of iPSCs with heterozygous (*TBX5*$^{in/+}$) or homozygous (*TBX5*$^{in/del}$) *TBX5* loss of function (LOF) mutation, or their wild-type parental line (WTC11) (Kathiriya et al., 2021). Western blot confirmed reduced levels of TBX5 in *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ cells and absence of TBX5 in *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ cells at day 20 of atrial CM differentiation (Fig. S2A, B). While *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ cells differentiated to beating atrial CMs, *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ cells often had compromised CM differentiation efficiency and rarely produced beating CMs (Fig. 2A). Further, *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ atrial CMs could not be recovered beyond day 20, indicating a more severe phenotype than homozygous *TBX5* mutant ventricular CMs (Kathiriya et al., 2021).

Dosage-sensitive sarcomere disarray and increased cell size were observed in both *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ and *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ atrial CMs at day 20 of differentiation (Fig. 2B-F), indicating atrial CM dysfunction. Notably, increased cell size in *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ atrial CMs was not observed previously in *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ ventricular CMs (Kathiriya et al., 2021), suggesting that some cellular phenotypes are more susceptible to reduced TBX5 dosage in atrial CMs. Upon replating *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ cells for micro-electrode array (MEA), we observed a prolonged local extracellular action potentials (LEAPs) with a broader plateau phase (Fig. 2G-J), reminiscent of ventricular-like CMs. This prolonged action potential was consistent with observations from mouse *Tbx5*$^{-/-}$ atrial CMs (Yang et al., 2017) and human *TBX5* heterozygous mutant ventricular CMs (Bersell et al., 2023; Kathiriya et al., 2021), albeit using different methods.

Disrupted specification of atrial CMs from complete loss of *TBX5.* To determine the gene expression changes that underlie these functional differences in *TBX5*-deficient atrial CMs, we performed scRNA-seq on these cells at day 20 of atrial CM differentiation (Supp. Data 4). A high-level annotation of cell type clusters included *TNNT2*$^{+}$ CMs (WT 60.6% *TNNT2*, *TBX5*$^{in/+}$ 59% and *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ 0.4%), *DLK1*$^{+}$ or *DCN*$^{+}$ fibroblast-like cells, *EPCAM*$^{+}$ epithelial-like cells, *SERPINA1*$^{+}$ or *TTR*$^{+}$ endodermal population, *TOP2A*$^{+}$ dividing cells and *NEFM*$^{+}$ neural-like cells (Fig. 2K-M). Using a generalized linear mixed effects model, we tested genotype-specific differences in cluster memberships. Indeed, *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ cells were significantly enriched in non-CM clusters of fibroblasts and epithelial-like cells, with a concomitant loss of CMs (Fig. 2N, S2C). As cluster assignments can change with UMAP resolution, we also employed Milo, a program that tests differential abundance by assigning cells to partially overlapping neighborhoods on a k-nearest neighbor

204 graph (Dann et al., 2022). This method also showed a statistically significant change in the
205 abundance of CMs, fibroblasts, epithelial and neural-like cells for $TBX5^{in/del}$ (Fig. 2O, P). In
206 contrast, cell type abundance among $TBX5^{in/+}$ cells was generally similar to WT at this resolution.
207

<u>TBX5-sensitive perturbations to atrial CM identity.</u>

Next, we evaluated $TNNT2^+$ clusters and defined CM subtypes (Fig. 3A-C). In WT CMs,
we identified CM subtypes that were enriched for $MYH6^+$ expression, such as $PITX2^+$ left atrial
(LA)-like CMs, $HAMP^+$ right atrial (RA)-like CMs, $NPPA^+$ CMs, $RSPO3^+$ atrioventricular (AV) CMs
and a cluster lacking expression of LA- or RA-like markers, which we inferred as atrial precursor-
like CMs by pseudotime analysis with Monocle 3 (Cao et al., 2019) (Fig. 3D). Other clusters that
had relatively lower $MYH6^+$ expression included $MYH7^+$ ventricular-like CMs expressing
ventricular-enriched genes (e.g. *IRX4, HEY2*), $COL3A1^+$ clusters expressing fibroblast genes
(e.g. *COL1A1*, *FN*, *SOX4*, *TGFB2*), resembling CMs expressing extracellular matrix genes
(CMEs) in developing mouse hearts (DeLaughter et al., 2016). We also observed a small HBD^+
hematopoietic-like cluster.

While similar numbers of total $TNNT2^+$ CMs were observed for WTC11 (9823 cells) and
$TBX5^{in/+}$ (9311 cells), only 59 $TNNT2^+$ CMs were observed in $TBX5^{in/del}$, indicating severely
impaired atrial CM differentiation. $TBX5^{in/del}$ CMs were devoid of $NPPA^+$ CMs and RA-like CMs
but were observed in CME and AV CM clusters. Further, only two atrial precursor-like CMs were
observed in $TBX5^{in/del}$, indicating an absence of proper atrial CM specification, consistent with *in*
silico predictions (Fig. 1X, Y).

Although $TBX5^{in/+}$ cells were among RA-like, LA-like and $NPPA^+$ CM clusters, $TBX5^{in/+}$
cells were significantly reduced in numbers, implicating a deficiency of proper atrial CM identity
(Fig. 3E). Concomitantly, $TBX5^{in/+}$ cells were significantly enriched for CMEs and AV CMs. These
observations imply a spectrum of phenotypes from *TBX5* heterozygous mutant cells, with some
TBX5 heterozygous mutant cells remaining similar to WT cells, while others were found in a *TBX5*
heterozygous-predominant cluster (e.g. CME-1) (Fig. S3A). Such variability in cellular phenotypes
may be of interest, as many affected members of multi-generational families of Holt-Oram
Syndrome, and genetically-determined CHDs in general, express variations in cardiac
phenotypes (Basson et al., 1994; Benson et al., 1998; Benson et al., 2003; Garg et al., 2003;
Garg et al., 2005).

<u>ASD- and AF-risk genes are vulnerable to reduced TBX5 dosage.</u> Complete loss of *TBX5* in atrial
CMs led to reduced expression of 243 genes and increased expression of 340 genes (Fig. 3E,

Supp. Data 4). Heterozygous loss of *TBX5* resulted in reduced expression of 283 genes and
increased expression of 279 genes (Fig. 3F). Differentially expressed genes were significantly
enriched for known AF-, ASD-, or CHD-risk or causative genes (Fig. 3H-I, Supp. Data 5). In *TBX5*
heterozygous mutant cells, susceptible genes included 8 ASD- (e.g. *TBX20, FGFR2, GLI3,*
KAT6B, PBX1), 80 AF (e.g. *DES, CAMK2D, ID1, VCAM1*) and 4 ASD and AF- (e.g. *PITX2,*
ACTC1, MYH7) risk genes (Fig. 3K). Further, dose-dependent genes dysregulated in both *TBX5*
mutant genotypes included atrial-specific genes (e.g. *NR2F2, HEY1, HAMP*), sarcomere genes
(e.g. *TNNC1, TNNT2*), ECM genes (e.g. *COL3A1, FN1*) and AV canal markers (e.g. *RSPO3,*
BMP2). Many genes could be further categorized as risk genes for ASDs (e.g. *NR2F2, JAG1*)
(Ching et al., 2005; McElhinney et al., 2002; Turki et al., 2014), AF (e.g. *NPPA, TECRL, TTN)*
(Choi et al., 2018; Devalla et al., 2016; Hodgson-Zingman et al., 2008; Lee et al., 2018), or both
ASDs and AF (e.g. *MYH6*) (Ching et al., 2005; Lee et al., 2018; Postma et al., 2008; Postma et
al., 2011; Roselli et al., 2018; Vad et al., 2020; Yuan et al., 2013).
Many previously characterized TBX5 targets (e.g. *NPPA, MYH6, PITX2, DES*) (Bruneau
et al., 2001; Garg et al., 2003; Kathiriya et al., 2021; Ouwerkerk et al., 2021) displayed TBX5
dose-dependent dysregulation. We also discovered new putative TBX5 downstream genes,
genes such as *ANGPT1, NR2F1* and *MEG3* (Fig. 3E-L). Notably, *ANGPT1*, with known roles in
cardiac jelly homeostasis during atrial chamber morphogenesis (Kim et al., 2018), was
downregulated in *TBX5* mutant CMs, whereas *MEG3*, a positive regulator of cardiac fibrosis
(Piccoli et al., 2017) was downregulated in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* and upregulated in *TBX5$^{in/del}$* CMs. We
confirmed altered mRNA expression of *NR2F1, DES, ANGPT1* and *MEG3* in *TBX5* mutant atrial
CMs by fluorescent *in situ* hybridization (Fig. 4 A-M).
To determine if disturbances to atrial CM identity from reduced TBX5 are exacerbated
later in atrial CM differentiation, we performed scRNA-seq at a later time point, at day 45, of
TBX5$^{in/+}$ atrial cells. Although both high level-cell type annotations as well as CM subtypes at day
45 were similar to those observed at day 20, fewer *TNNT2$^+$* CMs and more *POSTN$^+$* fibroblasts
were observed among *TBX5$^{in/+}$* at day 45 (Fig. S4A-D). Among CM sub-types at day 45, *HAMP$^+$*
RA-like, and *PITX2$^+$* LA-like CMs were reduced, while CME-2s and *MYH7$^+$* ventricular-like CMs
were enriched (Fig. S4E-H). These results indicated that *TBX5$^{in/+}$* cells failed to differentiate to
RA- and LA-like atrial CMs with a deviation towards CMEs and ventricular-like CMs, similar to
TBX5$^{in/del}$ at day 20 and analogous to the *in silico* predictions. At day 45, 244 differentially
expressed genes were upregulated and 144 genes were downregulated in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* CMs (Fig.
S4I). These included 6 ASD- , 72 AF, and 5 ASD and AF- risk genes (Fig. S4J). A significant
overlap with CHD- and AF-risk genes at day 45 were observed (Fig. S5A, B), including 3 ASD-

(e.g. *NR2F2, GPC3, MEIS2*), 17 AF- (e.g. *ANGPT1, NPPA, TNNT2, TNNI3*) and 2 ASD and AF-

(e.g. *MYH7, ACTC1*) risk genes (Fig. S5C-E).

<u>Dosage-sensitive perturbations to chromatin accessibility in atrial CMs.</u> To evaluate the degree

to which altered chromatin accessibility could help explain disturbances to gene expression by

reduced TBX5 dosage in atrial CMs, we performed single nucleus (sn) ATAC-seq analysis of WT

and *TBX5* mutant cells at day 20 of atrial CM differentiation (Fig. 5A, B, Fig. S6A, Supp. Data 6).

Among *TNNT2* gene score$^+$ clusters, cluster C5 was enriched for *TBX5$^{in/del}$* cells, which showed

reduced gene scores for *MYH6, PITX2, HAMP* and *NPPA,* and increased gene scores for

COL3A1, indicating disrupted chromatin accessibility of CMs from complete *TBX5* loss. In

contrast, cluster C6 was enriched for *TBX5$^{in/+}$* cells and displayed reduced gene scores for *PITX2*,

HAMP and *NPPA*, consistent with disturbed chromatin accessibility of atrial CMs from

heterozygous loss of *TBX5* (Fig. 5C, D, Fig. S6B).

We analyzed differentially accessible regions (DARs) from reduced TBX5 dosage for TF

motif loss or enrichment. Among *TBX5$^{in/del}$*, we found a loss of atrial-enriched NKX, TBX/MEIS

and TFIG motifs between WT-enriched and *TBX5$^{in/del}$*-enriched clusters. Similarly, in *TBX5$^{in/+}$*, we

observed a loss of NKX, TBX/MEIS, GATA, NR2F2 and TGIF between WT-enriched and *TBX5$^{in/+}$*-

enriched clusters (Fig. 5E, F, S6C-E). These TF motifs suggested a broadly disturbed deployment

of cardiac TFs for atrial CM identity in *TBX5* mutants. In contrast, TF motifs gained in in *TBX5$^{in/del}$*

atrial CMs included non-heart associated NFIA, NFIB, NFIX, right ventricular and outflow tract-

associated HAND, and BMP-responsive SMAD motifs (Fig. 5E, F). In *TBX5$^{in/+}$*, motifs for the

epicardial-associated WT1 were gained (Fig. 5E, F). These changes to TF motifs suggested

gained accessibility by non-atrial CM TFs, consistent with ectopic expression of non-atrial CM

genes.

As TBX and MEIS motifs share sequence similarity, we evaluated DARs with predicted

TBX/MEIS motifs. We observed that approximately 40% of regions less accessible in *TBX5*

mutant CMs contained TBX/MEIS motifs compared to about 20% of regions more accessible in

TBX5 mutant CMs (Fig. 5G). Further, in *TBX5* mutants, we overlaid TBX5 occupancy in WT cells

(Grant et al., 2025) and found that 40-60% of less accessible regions overlapped with TBX5

binding, compared to 5% or less of more accessible regions (Fig. 56G'), suggesting that proper

TBX5 dosage was essential for open chromatin in atrial CMs, rather than closed chromatin.

Evaluation of chromatin accessibility near differentially-expressed genes showed correlations

between gene expression and chromatin accessibility (Fig S6F-K). Some examples of DARs

across genotype-enriched clusters included the proximal promoter of the AF-linked gene *NPPA*

(Horsthuis et al., 2008), the nearby *NPPA-NPPB* super enhancer (Man et al., 2021) (Fig. 5H), as

well as at the promoter of the novel TBX5-dependent atrial CM target *NR2F1* (Fig. 5I).

Network disruptions to disease-related connections in atrial CMs from reduced TBX5 dosage. We

used CellOracle (Kamimoto et al., 2023) to infer GRNs of atrial CMs by *TBX5* genotype and to

understand how reduced TBX5 dosage perturbs network connections for human atrial CM identity

(Fig. 6, Supp. Data 7). We observed a reduced number of total nodes with decreasing TBX5

dosage (1106 in WT; 1028 in *TBX5$^{in/}$*; 941 in *TBX5$^{in/del}$*) (Fig. S7A), with a concomitant increase

in condition-specific edges (i.e., those present only in one condition and absent in the others) (900

in WT, 1436 in *TBX5$^{in/+}$*, 1625 in *TBX5$^{in/del}$*) (Fig. S7B). Many network connections displayed shifts

from positive correlations (i.e. directly proportional changes between TF and edge) to negative

correlations (i.e. inversely proportional between TF and edge) (e.g. *NR2F1*, *NKX2-5*, *HEY1,*

TCF21) (Fig. 6A-C, Fig. S7C-F). Furthermore, a network comprised of TF sources to TBX5 (i.e.

upstream TFs connected to TBX5) or CHD-, ASD- and AF-risk TFs susceptible to reduced TBX5

dosage showed fewer unique edges (61 in WT, 47 in *TBX5$^{in/+}$,* 36 in *TBX5$^{in/del}$*) and total nodes

(27 in WT, 25 in *TBX5$^{in/+}$,* 19 in *TBX5$^{in/del}$*) (e.g. ASD-risk *SMC3* lost in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* and *TBX5$^{in/del}$*,

MEF2A lost in *TBX5$^{in/+}$*) (Fig. 6D-F). These results indicated that these networks are less complex

when TBX5 dosage is reduced, implying a loss to a TBX5-dependent atrial CM program.

Moreover, centrality of selected TFs were sensitive to reduced *TBX5*. *TBX5* showed an

absence of significant network connections in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* and *TBX5$^{in/del}$* by betweenness or degree

out centrality (Fig. 6G, H). This included loss of all 25 connections, including with the highest

correlated gene *PGAM1*, along with *BMP5,* AF-risk *NPPA*, and ASD- and AF-risk *MYH7* (Fig. 6I),

consistent with profound disturbances to *TBX5* connections, even from disease-associated

heterozygous loss of *TBX5* in atrial CMs.

Several TFs showed consistency of betweenness and degree out centrality (e.g.

ventricular-enriched *E2F1*, atrial-enriched *PLAGL1*, fibroblast-enriched *TCF12*), while other TFs

showed discordance between centrality metrics (e.g. *NR2F1, TCF21*) (Fig. 6G, H). For example,

NR2F1 showed a dosage-sensitive step-wise decrease in betweenness centrality with a complete

loss in *TBX5$^{in/del}$* (Fig. 6G). In contrast, degree out of *NR2F1* was generally maintained in *TBX5$^{in/+}$*

and completely lost in *TBX5$^{in/del}$* (Figure 6H, J). Although the number of degree out connections

of *NR2F1* in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* was somewhat maintained, the strength of correlations, but not direction of

correlations, were altered in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* (e.g. AF-risk *ANGPT1*, *MYL7, ASD-risk NR2F2, SELENOP*)

(Fig. 6J). Some *NR2F1* connections were lost (e.g. *NDUFB9*, *NDUFS7, ETFA, ARHGAP5,*

CDC42EP3) or gained (e.g. *NES, PPP1R12B, KDELR, APOA1, CNN3*), consistent with a

reconfiguration of *NR2F1* connections in response to reduced TBX5. In contrast, betweenness
centrality of fibroblast-associated *TCF21* was not apparent in all three *TBX5* genotypes (Fig. 6G),
suggesting that *TCF21* may not be part of the core CM network. However, the few *TCF21*
connections by degree out in WTC11 were dramatically increased in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* and *TBX5$^{in/del}$* (Fig.
S7E)*,* suggesting that abnormal connections of *TCF21* may reflect an ectopic fibroblast-like
network in *TBX5* mutants, potentially in conjunction with an increase in degree out connections
of the fibroblast-associated *TCF12* (Fig. S7F). In sum, we found that reduced TBX5 dosage
results in a reconfiguration of atrial CM networks, including disruptions to connections of ASD-
and AF-risk genes.

DISCUSSION.

This study describes a human cellular model of TBX5-associated atrial disease and
reveals dosage-sensitive disruptions to atrial CM GRNs. Our findings uncover vulnerabilities in
atrial CM identity and provide further evidence for a shared molecular basis of ASDs and AF.
These insights advance our understanding of genetic susceptibility to atrial diseases and provide
new potential avenues for therapeutic development.

Using human differentiation systems to CMs, we discern epigenetic differences between
two closely related cell types, ventricular and atrial CMs. These results provide further support
that these approaches may be useful to model cardiac diseases *in vitro* that affect one cell type
versus the other. For example, iPSC-derived ventricular CMs have been valuable to model
susceptibility to ventricular-specific diseases, such as hypertrophic or dilated cardiomyopathy,
ventricular arrhythmias, or congenital heart defect networks (Briganti et al., 2020; Friedman et al.,
2024; Hinson et al., 2015; Hnatiuk et al., 2021; Kathiriya et al., 2021; Knollmann, 2013; Lan et al.,
2013; Seeger et al., 2019; Sinnecker et al., 2013; Smith et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2012). Whereas
atrial CMs are distinct, human iPSC-derived atrial CMs can be leveraged for disease modeling of
AF, ASDs or other atrial diseases, to uncover atrial-relevant disturbances to GRNs and cellular
physiology. Likewise, human cellular models of atrial disease could be used for drug screening
for therapeutic potential, teratogenicity or atrial arrhythmia risk.

From our data, modeling GRNs of atrial or ventricular CM identity predicted key nodes
that could be critical for disrupting atrial GRNs. One of these key nodes is *TBX5*, which we and
others have studied (Bersell et al., 2023; Karakikes et al., 2017; Kathiriya et al., 2021). Here, we
have modeled reduced dosage, including absolute deficiency of *TBX5 in silico* and *in vitro*, in
human atrial cells. Based on changes in gene expression and chromatin accessibility, we have
inferred exquisitely sensitive GRNs that are important for atrial function and identity. It is

particularly striking that direct connections of multiple key nodes, such as *NR2F1* and ASD-risk

NR2F2, are affected within these dosage-vulnerable networks even from partial loss of *TBX5*,

leading to a cascading effect on susceptible downstream genes related to atrial CM identity.

Conversely, the gain of connections of fibroblast-associated *TCF21* and *TCF12* may reflect a

change in CM cell identity to CMEs, which express some fibroblast-like genes. In the setting of

genetic susceptibility to AF, for example, this perturbation of cell identity may contribute to an

atrial fibrosis-like state associated with AF (Platonov, 2017). Some of these nodes are genetically

associated with AF and/or ASDs, indicating that a broad disease network may underly their

pathologies.

The disrupted networks point to new TBX5-sensitive candidate genes, such as *NR2F1*,

ANGPT1 and *MEG3*, and their biological processes as possible leads for therapeutic potential.

Moreover, targeting to revert perturbed dosage-sensitive GRNs may offer therapeutic

opportunities to restore proper atrial identity in patients with genetic or acquired atrial conditions,

as demonstrated in another cardiovascular disease context (Theodoris et al., 2020). By combining

computational modeling with analysis of this cellular disease model, predictions to enhance TBX5

activity or improve disturbed atrial GRNs could be tested to mitigate atrial disease susceptibility

by small molecules or gene editing.

In conclusion, our discovery of a broad disruption to the GRNs underlying atrial identity in

the setting of genetic susceptibility suggests that some atrial diseases, such as ASDs or AF, may

not only arise from disturbances of certain functional proteins, such as ion channels or

extracellular matrix components. Rather, some atrial diseases may be caused by a fundamental

disruption of atrial CM identity. More generally, we propose the notion that perturbations to cell

identity may serve as a basis for genetic susceptibility underlying some human diseases.

STUDY LIMITATIONS. Several limitations of this study should be considered. Although this

human cellular model mimics certain disease phenotypes, ASDs and AF manifest in a 3-

dimensional tissue and cannot be fully recapitulated in a 2-dimensional model system. Moreover,

certain *in vivo* cell types may be missing or represented poorly *in vitro*. Likewise, contributions

from the spatial organization of cells *in vitro* or heart tissue *in vivo* are not captured. Given that

there are several sub-categories of ASDs (e.g. primum ASD, secundum ASD, sinus venosus

ASD, or coronary sinus ASD) or AF (e.g. persistent AF, paroxysmal AF, or post-operative AF), it

remains to be determined how well this cellular disease model may reflect these conditions.

Further, by using scRNA-seq and snATAC-seq separately, this single cell approach uncovers

correlations between gene expression and chromatin accessibility, rather than directly linking

gene expression to chromatin accessibility in the same cell.

METHODS.

iPSC culture and atrial cardiomyocyte differentiation. Human iPSCs (WTC11, $TBX5^{in/+}$ and

$TBX5^{in/del}$) (Kathiriya et al., 2021) were maintained in mTESR Plus medium (Stemcell

Technologies, 100-0276). For directed differentiations, iPSCs were passaged on to GFR Matrigel-

coated 6-well plates until 70% confluency and then differentiated according to manufacturer's

instructions using the Stemdiff Atrial Cardiomyocyte Differentiation Kit (StemCell Technologies,

100-0215).

Immunostaining. Differentiated cells at day 20 from WTC11, $TBX5^{in/+}$ and $TBX5^{in/del}$ iPSCs were

dissociated using 0.25% trypsin and quenched with cardiomyocyte maintenance medium

containing 10% FBS. Cells were resuspended in cardiomyocyte maintenance medium with 10µM

ROCK inhibitor (StemCell Technologies, Y-27632), counted and plated onto growth factor-

reduced basement membrane matrix (GFR) Matrigel (Corning, 356231) coated-chambered slides

(Ibidi, 80381). Medium was replaced after 24 hours with fresh cardiomyocyte maintenance

medium. On the following day, cells were fixed in 4% formaldehyde for 15 minutes and washed

with PBS. Cells were then incubated in blocking buffer containing 5% goat serum and 0.1% Triton

X-100 in PBS for 1 hour at room temperature. Primary antibodies (alpha actinin, Sigma, A7811;

1:200 MLC2-V, Abcam, ab79935; ANP, GeneTex, GTX109255; 1:500 cTNT, Thermo, MS-295-

P) in blocking buffer were incubated with cells for 2 hours at room temperature. Following washes

in blocking buffer, cells were incubated in secondary antibodies at 1:200 dilution (goat anti mouse

Alexa Fluor 488, ThermoFisher, A11029, goat anti mouse Alexa Fluor 594, ThermoFisher,

A11005). Cells were then washed with blocking buffer and stained with DAPI at a 1:1000 dilution

for 2 minutes. Images were acquired using an Olympus FV3000RS and processed with ImageJ.

Evaluations of sarcomere disarray or cell size was performed as described previously (Kathiriya

et al., 2021) at day 20.

Replating for multi-electrode array (MEA). iPSC-cardiomyocytes were harvested as described

above. An 8uL droplet of GFR Matrigel in KO DMEM was placed in the center of each well of a

BioCircuit MEA Plate (Axion Biosystems, M384-BIO-24) and incubated for 2 hrs at 37C. GFR was

gently removed and approximately 50,000 cells in 8-10ul droplets was placed in the center of

each well and incubated for 1 hr at 37C. After incubation, additional StemDiff maintenance media

with ROCKi was added to each well and incubated for 24 hrs at 37C. Subsequent media changes

were performed every other day with StemDiff maintenance media. MEA recordings were

acquired after at least 7 days of maintenance.

MEA Electrophysiology. Electrophysiological data was recorded on the Maestro Edge Micro

Electrode Array device (Axion Biosystems). Live recordings of iPSC-cardiomyocyte field

potentials and local extracellular action potentials (LEAPs) were acquired using the Cardiac

module in the AxIS Navigator Tool. Representative field potential and LEAP tracings from

recordings were acquired using the Axion Biosystems Cardiac Analysis Tool. Data collection and

analysis was performed using the MEA software (Axion Biosystems) according to manufacturer

instructions.

Fluorescent *in-situ* hybridization. iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes were harvested as described

above. Approximately 100,000 cells were then plated on to 3-well chambered slides with

removable silicone (Ibidi 80381). Cells were then fixed with 10% neutral buffered formalin for 30

minutes at room temperature, followed by washes with 1X PBS. Serial dehydration with 50%,

70% and 100% ethanol was performed, and slides were stored in 100% ethanol at -20C. On the

day of staining, cells were serially rehydrated and pretreated with hydrogen peroxide for 10

minutes and protease III for 10 minutes at a 1:5 dilution ratio. RNAscope Multiplex Fluorescent

Reagent Kit v2 (Advanced Cell Diagnostics, 323100) was used to detect *TNNT2* (518991),

ANGPT1 (482901-C2), *DES* (403041-C2), *MEG3* (400821) and *NR2F1* (583751). Finally, silicone

chambers were removed from slides, and a coverslip was mounted using Prolong Gold anti-fade

mountant. Slides were imaged at 40X magnification on an Olympus FV3000RS confocal

microscope and analyzed using FIJI.

Harvesting cells for single-cell RNA and ATAC sequencing. Human iPSCs from WTC11,

TBX5$^{in/+}$ and *TBX5$^{in/del}$* were differentiated using the Stemdiff Atrial Cardiomyocyte Differentiation

Kit (Stemcell Technologies 100-0215) or the Stemdiff Ventricular Cardiomyocyte Differentiation

Kit (Stemcell Technologies 05010). For atrial differentiations, cells were harvested from all three

genotypes at day 20 for scRNA- and snATAC-sequencing, and from WTC11 and *TBX5$^{in/+}$* at day

45 for scRNA-sequencing, according to manufacturer instructions (10X Genomics). For

ventricular differentiations, cells were harvested from all three genotypes at day 23 for snATAC-

sequencing. Two replicates of 10,000 cells per genotype were collected for each timepoint, in two

experimental batches. Cells were dissociated using 0.25% trypsin, quenched with cardiomyocyte

maintenance medium containing 10% FBS and then counted. Cell suspensions were processed

for single-cell RNA sequencing using Chromium Next GEM Single Cell 3' GEM, Library & Gel

Bead Kit v3.1 (10X Genomics). For single nuclei ATAC-sequencing, nuclei were harvested and

processed according to manufacturer's instructions using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell

ATAC Library & Gel Bead Kit v1.1 (10X Genomics). Libraries were sequenced on an Illumina

Novaseq6000 S4 or Novaseq X.

Analysis of single-cell RNA sequencing data. Fastq files were processed using Cellranger

count (v6.1.1). Counts from samples from a single timepoint were aggregated using Cellranger

aggr without read-depth normalization. Seurat (v4.4) (Hao et al., 2021) was used to analyze the

data. Cells with low UMI count plus a high percentage of mitochondrial reads were considered

dying and removed. Potential doublets with aberrantly high gene counts were also removed.

Normalization was performed using SCTransform and batch effects were corrected using the

SeuratWrapper function RunHarmony. After annotating major cell types, $TNNT2^+$ clusters were

subset and further analyzed. Differentially expressed genes with an adjusted p<0.05 from

Wilcoxon rank-sum test were reported.

In Figure 1, single cell RNA sequencing data from WT atrial differentiation was merged

and analyzed with previously generated data from WT ventricular differentiation (Kathiriya et al.,

2021). Differentially expressed genes were obtained by comparing atrial CM clusters with

ventricular CM clusters. In Figure 3, WT cells from clusters highly enriched for *MYH6* were

compared to $TBX5^{in/+}$ or $TBX5^{in/del}$ cells from other clusters with *MYH6*, similar to the Monocle

partitions in Figure 3D.

Volcano plots were generated using the EnhancedVolcano package. Differential genes

were intersected with curated lists containing CHD-associated genes, atrial fibrillation-risk genes

and genes associated with atrial septal defects. CHD-associated gene list includes our previously

curated list from Kathiriya et al., 2021, and genes from the CHDgene database

(http://chdgene.victorchang.edu.au/) (Yang et al., 2022). Atrial fibrillation-risk genes were

gathered from the Harmonizome database (https://maayanlab.cloud/Harmonizome/), and

(Ouwerkerk et al., 2019; Ouwerkerk et al., 2020; Roselli et al., 2018) (Supp. Data 5). The MiloR

package (v2.0.0) (Dann et al., 2022) was used for differential cell type abundance testing. The

precomputed KNN graph from Seurat was imported using the buildFromAdjacency function. The

number of nearest neighbors k was set to 40. Differential abundance results were visualized by

setting alpha = 0.05. Monocle 3 (v1.3.7) (Cao et al., 2019) was used for pseudotime analysis.

Cells in the atrial precursor-like clusters were chosen as root cells for each Monocle 3 partition

using the "order_cells" function. Pseudotime was visualized on the UMAP using the "plot_cells"

function.

Cell abundance testing. A Generalized Linear Mixed Effects Model (GLMM) was implemented

in the lme4 (version 1.1-37) R package (Bates et al., 2015) and was used to estimate the

associations between cell type-annotations and *Tbx5* genotype (WT, Het or Hom). These models

were run separately for each cluster of cells identified within the full data or within subtypes of

CMs. The family argument was set to the binomial probability distribution for the GLMM model fit.

Cluster membership of cells by sample was modeled as a response variable by a two-dimensional

vector representing the number of cells from the given sample belonging to and not belonging to

the cluster under consideration. The corresponding sample ID from which the cell was derived

was the random effect variable, and the genotype was included as the fixed variable. The resulting

P values for the significance estimated log odds ratios were adjusted for multiple testing using the

Benjamini–Hochberg method (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995).

Analysis of single-cell ATAC sequencing data. Fastq files were processed using Cellranger

ATAC count (v2.0). Data was analyzed by following the tutorial for ArchR (v1.0.2) (Granja et al.,

2021). Pseudobulk replicates for each genotype in each cluster were generated with a minimum

of 500 and maximum of 1000 cells for each replicate. Peaks were called with MACS2 by setting

reproducibility to 2. Volcano plots show differential peaks with FDR < 0.1 and log2FC >0.25. Motif

annotations were added from CIS-BP repository using the addMotifAnnotations function and motif

enrichment in differential peaks was performed using the peakAnnoEnrichment function with FDR

<0.1 and log2FC >0.25. Overlapping ATAC (this manuscript) and TBX5 ChIP peaks (Grant et al.,

2025) were attained using findOverlaps from the Genomic ranges package. Browser tracks were

generated using IGV Desktop application. In Figure 1, differentially accessible regions were

reported between atrial CM clusters and ventricular CM clusters. In Figure 5, differentially

accessible regions were reported between WT cells in WT-enriched (C2+C3) clusters and

TBX5$^{in/+}$ cells in *TBX5*$^{in/+}$-enriched (C6) clusters or *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ cells in *TBX5*$^{in/del}$ -enriched (C5)

clusters.

Gene regulatory network analysis. Gene regulatory network analysis was performed using the

CellOracle (v0.18.0) package (Kamimoto et al., 2023). Default parameters were used according

to the documentation, unless specified otherwise. For wildtype atrial CM- and ventricular CM-

specific GRNs, base GRNs were constructed using scATAC-seq data at day 20 from WTC11

atrial CM and ventricular CM subsets, respectively (Supp. Data 3). Cell type-specific GRNs were

then constructed by setting alpha = 1000. For *TBX5* genotype-specific GRNs, base GRNs were

constructed using scATAC-seq data at day 20 from WTC11 cells (Supp. Data 7). The apparent

upregulation of *TBX5* mRNA presumably from non-mutated exons (Kathiriya 2021) in *TBX5*

heterozygous mutants was manually corrected by halving the raw counts in *Tbx5$^{in/+}$* and setting

the raw counts to zero in *Tbx5 $^{in/del}$* cells, consistent with Western blot data (Fig S1A, B). Cell type-

specific GRNs were then constructed by setting alpha = 1000.

Inferred GRNs were filtered to include only the 12,000 edges with largest absolute

coefficient values. Centrality calculations for the 12,000 edge networks were calculated using

CellOracle's links.get_network_score() function. PyVis (Perrone et al., 2020) was used to

visualize subnetworks. The large nodes in these networks were manually selected TFs and small

nodes are the direct targets in the 12,000-edge networks. The edge color was selected to indicate

whether a TF activated (grey) or inhibited (red) a target, and edge thickness was scaled based

on absolute coefficient magnitude. For networks in (Fig 1T, U), we chose canonical atrial or

ventricular TFs, along with some novel TFs - *TBX5, NR2F2*, *MEF2C*, *NKX2-5*, *MEIS2*, *GATA4*,

HAND1, *IRX4*, *HEY2*, *PLAGL1*, *NR2F1*, *HES4*, *E2F1*, and *HEY1*. For networks in Fig 6A-C, the

manually selected TFs included *TBX5, NR2F2, MEF2C, NKX2-5, MEIS2, GATA4, HAND1, IRX4,*

HEY2, PLAGL1, NR2F1, HES4, E2F1, HEY1, TCF21, TEAD1, and *TCF12.* For Fig 6D-F, we

identified TFs that had source or target connections to TBX5 (Supp. Data 7) and prioritized ones

that displayed dose-dependent change in centrality by *TBX5* genotype and are CHD- or AF- risk

genes. These networks exclude the TFs and only show direct connections between prioritized

genes. Wheel diagrams that display direct interactions between TFs and their targets were

developed using Python's NetworkX package (Hagberg et al., 2008), with a circular layout and

edge widths scaled by coefficient values.

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587

588 **DATA AND RESOURCE AVAILABILITY.** Cell lines are available under a material transfer
589 agreement. All relevant data is available on NCBI GEO (Accession GSE285168 and GSE285169)
590 and details of the code are available at GitHub (apclarkva/kathiriya-rao-2025).
591

Fig. 1. Features of gene expression and chromatin accessibility in human iPSC-derived
atrial cardiomyocytes (CMs) predict TBX5-sensitive atrial CM identity. Directed
differentiations of human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) to ventricular or atrial cells were
assessed by immunostaining of (A-G) ANP or (H-N) MLC2V (****$p<0.0001$ by Fisher's exact test).
(O,P) Normalized local extracellular action potential (LEAP) by cell type. (Q) Violin plot of
ventricular- or atrial-enriched CM genes. (R) Overlapping chromatin accessible regions. Bar plot
shows number of common accessible regions by less than 90% overlap or greater than or equal
to 90% overlap. (S) Motifs enriched in differentially accessible regions (DARs) (FDR<0.1). Gene
regulatory networks of (T) ventricular or (U) atrial CMs. Wheel diagrams for *TBX5* show a shift in
significant direct connections between (V) ventricular and (W) atrial CMs. Based on input of UMAP
of atrial CM cell types in (X) wildtype, *in silico* prediction by CellOracle infers the states of
individual cells from atrial cardiomyotyces (CMs) to CMs expressing extracellular matrix genes
(CMEs) by complete *TBX5* loss (*TBX5*=0)(Y).
605

606 **Fig. S1. Gene expression, chromatin accessibility and GRN analyses in ventricular or atrial**
607 **CMs.** UMAPs of scRNA-seq annotated by (A) cell types or by (B) differentiation to ventricular or
608 atrial cells. (C) UMAP of snATAC-seq by inferred cell type from gene score, or by (D)
609 differentiation. (E) UMAP of gene scores from snATAC-seq for *MYL2* (ventricular CM-enriched)

and *MYH6* (atrial CM-enriched). UMAP of snRNA-seq subset of $TNNT2^+$-gene score$^+$ cells inferred as CMs from ventricular or atrial differentiation (F) or by Louvain cell clustering (G). (H) Bar plot of snATAC-seq peak distribution in the genome by cell cluster. (I) Volcano plot of differential accessible regions enriched in ventricular or atrial CMs (FDR<0.1). Centrality scores of TFs by (J) betweenness or (K) degree out. Wheel diagrams of *HEY2* (L, M) or *HEY1* (N, O) direct connections in ventricular or atrial CMs.

Fig. S2. Analysis of a human cellular model of atrial disease. (A) Western blot and (B) quantification of TBX5 by *TBX5* genotype (*p<0.05 by Welch's T-test). (C) Bar plot shows cell types at day 20 by *TBX5* genotypes.

Fig. 2. Modeling genetic susceptibility to reduced TBX5 in human atrial cells. (A) Differentiation efficiency by flow cytometry of cTNT (**p<0.01, ***p<0.001 by Student's T-test). (B-E) cTNT immunostaining shows sarcomeric disarray in *TBX5* mutant atrial CMs (*p<0.05, ****p<0.0001 by Fisher's exact test). (F) Average cell area is significantly increased in *TBX5* mutant atrial CMs (*p<0.05, ****p<0.0001 by Student's T-test). (G, H) Typical action potential traces by MEA. (I-J) Field potential and normalized local extracellular action potential durations at 90% (APD_{90}) are increased in *TBX5* heterozygous mutant atrial CMs (****p<0.0001 by Welch's T-test). (K) UMAP displays scRNA-seq data at day 20 by (K) *TBX5* genotype or (L) cell type labels. (M) Dot plot of genes used to define cell types. (N) Distribution of cell types by *TBX5* genotypes shows reduced CMs and increased fibroblasts and epithelial-like cells in *TBX5$^{in/del}$* (***adj. p<0.001 by linear regression). *TBX5$^{in/+}$* remains largely similar to WT. (O,P) Milo analysis showed a statistically significant difference in the abundance of CMs, fibroblasts, epithelial and neural-like cells for *TBX5$^{in/del}$* (FDR<0.05).

Fig. 3. Atrial CM identity by gene expression is vulnerable to reduced TBX5 dosage. UMAP of *TNNT2*+ cells colored by (A) genotype, (B) cell type markers or (C) cell type labels. (D) Monocole 3 analysis shows the predominant pseudotime paths (i.e., in pseudocolor, represented by the arrows) in two partitions affected in *TBX5$^{in/del}$*. Specifically, in partition 1, fewer WT cells reach the end of the path to CME-3, compared to *TBX5$^{in/del}$*. In partition 2, fewer *TBX5$^{in/del}$* cells reach the end of the pseudotime path to $NPPA^+$ CMs. (E) Cell numbers of many atrial CM cell types are significantly reduced in *TBX5* mutants. (*adj. p<0.05 **adj. p<0.01, ***adj. p<0.001 by linear regression). (E, F) Volcano plots show differentially expressed genes in *TBX5* mutants (adj. p-value by Wilcoxan rank sum). (G) Categories of down- and up-regulated genes in *TBX5$^{in/+}$* or

TBX5^{in/del} (adj. p<0.05 by Wilcoxan rank sum). (H-J) AF- and CHD-risk genes are enriched among

differentially expressed TBX5-sensitive genes (p-value by hypergeometric test). Dot plots of

differentially-expressed CHD, ASD (in green) and AF genes in (K) *TBX5^{in/+}* or (L) in both *TBX5^{in/+}*

and *TBX5^{in/del}* (adj. p<0.05 by Wilcoxan rank sum).

Fig. S3. Analysis of CMs in a human cellular model of atrial disease. (A) Bar plot shows CM

sub-types at day 20 by *TBX5* genotypes.

Fig. 4. Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization of TBX5-dependent genes. Gene expression in WT

or *TBX5* mutants of *TNNT2* and *NR2F1* (A-C), *DES* (D-F), *MEG3* (G-J), and *ANGPT1* (K-N)

(***p<0.001 by Fisher's exact test).

Fig. S4. *TBX5* heterozygous mutants at day 45 by scRNA-seq. UMAP by (A) genotype or (B)

cell type label at day 45. (C) Feature plots of marker genes for cell type labels. (D) Bar plot shows

distribution of cell types in WT or *TBX5^{in/+}*, including a reduction in CMs in *TBX5* mutants (*adj.

p<0.05, ***adj. p<0.001 by linear regression)*. UMAP of CM sub-types by (E) genotype or (F) CM

sub-type labels. (G) Feature plot of marker genes for CM sub-type labels. (H) Bar plot shows

distribution of CM sub-types in WT or *TBX5^{in/+}*, including alterations to several CM sub-types

(**adj. p<0.01, ***adj. p<0.001 by linear regression). (I) Volcano plot shows diferentially expressed

genes (adj. p-value by Wilcoxan rank sum). Dot plots of differentially-expressed CHD, ASD (in

green) and AF genes in (J) *TBX5^{in/+}* (adj. p<0.05 by Wilcoxan rank sum).

Fig. S5. Comparison of *TBX5* heterozygous mutants at day 20 and day 45. Venn diagrams

of altered genes for (A) CHD-risk or (B) AF-risk (p-value by hypergeometric test). UMAP of CM

sub-types in merged data of day 20 and day 45 by (C) *TBX5* genotype and (D) CM sub-type

labels. (E) Dot plots of differentially-expressed CHD, ASD (in green) and AF genes in *TBX5^{in/+}* in

merged data of day 20 and day 45 (adj. p-value<0.05 by Wilcoxan rank sum).

Fig. 5. TBX5 dosage-sensitive chromatin accessibility in human atrial cells. UMAP of all

atrial cells colored by (A) *TBX5* genotype or (B) cluster. UMAP of *TNNT2^+*-gene score cells

colored by (C) *TBX5* genotype or (D) cluster. (E-F) Motifs enriched in differentially accessible

regions (DARs) in (E) *TBX5^{in/del}* or (F) *TBX5^{in/+}* (FDR<0.1). DARs with (G) predicted TBX/MEIS

motifs or (G') with TBX5 occupancy. Browser track showing scATAC peaks near (H) NPPA-NPPB

or (I) NR2F1. Gray shading indicates DARs. TBX5 occupancy in WT cells by TBX5 ChIP-seq

(Grant et al. 2024).

Fig. S6. Analysis of chromatin accessibility in *TBX5* mutant atrial cells. (A) Feature plots of

gene scores identify putative cell types from chromatin accessibility. (B) Feature plots of gene

scores identify putative CM sub-types from chromatin accessibility. (C) Genomic distribution of

peaks by cluster. Differentially accessible peaks in (D) *TBX5$^{in/+}$* or (E) *TBX5$^{in/del}$*. (F-I) Overlap of

genes near DARs and differential gene expression in *TBX5* mutants. (J, K) Overlap of DARs in

TBX5$^{in/+}$ and *TBX5$^{in/del}$*.

Fig. 6. Proper TBX5 dosage controls disease-linked atrial CM gene regulatory networks

(GRNs). (A-C) GRNs of atrial CMs with selected TFs by *TBX5* genotype. Grey lines indicate

positive correlations. Red lines depict negative correlations. Genes that are edges are unlabeled

for simplicity of diagram. (D-F) Priority networks of atrial CMs shows TF sources to TBX5 or CHD-

, ASD- (in green) or AF-risk genes in *TBX5* mutants. (G) Betweenness or (H) degree out centrality

of selected TFs in GRNs. Wheel diagrams of (I) *TBX5* or (J) *NR2F1*. Strength of black arrows

depicts strength of positive correlation, while strength of red arrows depicts strength of negative

correlations.

Fig. S7. Network analysis of *TBX5* mutants in human atrial CMs. Venn diagrams show overlap

of (A) nodes or (B) edges in the same direction in *TBX5* mutants. Wheel diagrams of (E) ASD-

and AF-risk *NKX2-5*, (F) ASD-risk *NR2F2*, (G) fibroblast-associated TCF21, and (H) fibroblast-

associated TCF12. Strength of black arrows depicts strength of positive correlation, while strength

of red arrows depicts strength of negative correlations.

Supplementary Data 1. Table of differentially expressed genes between an *MYH6^{+}*-enriched

cluster of atrial CMs and an *MYL2^{+}*-enriched cluster of ventricular CMs.

Supplementary Data 2. Table of differentially accessible regions between *MYH6*-gene score^{+}

atrial CM and *MYL2*-gene score^{+} ventricular CM clusters.

Supplementary Data 3. Table of sources and targets in networks for atrial CM or ventricular CM

clusters.

Supplementary Data 4. Table of differentially expressed genes among *TNNT2*^{+} clusters by TBX5

genotype.

Supplementary Data 5. Lists of disease-risk genes for CHDs, ASDs, AF, and ASDs and AF.

Supplementary Data 6. Table of differentially accessible regions of *TNNT2*-gene score[+] CM

clusters by *TBX5* genotype.

Supplementary Data 7. Table of sources and targets in networks for CM clusters from atrial CM

differentiation by *TBX5* genotype.

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Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 1

Supplementary Figure 2

Figure 2

Figure 3

Supplementary Figure 3

Figure 4

Fig. S4

Fig. S5

A CHD-risk genes — Genes altered in *TBX5*^{in/+} at day 45

411 | 39 | 351

8.1-fold enrichment
p < 8.472e-24

B AF-risk genes — Genes altered in *TBX5*^{in/+} at day 45

1524 | 85 | 305

5-fold enrichment
p < 3.492e-35

C Merged CM subset (day 20 & 45)

day 20-WT
day 20-*TBX5*^{in/+}
day 20-*TBX5*^{in/del}
day 45-WT
day 45-*TBX5*^{in/+}

D

NPPA⁺ CMs
Vent-like
Atrial Precursors
Pacemaker
RA-like
LA-like
AVCMs
CMEs-1
CMEs-2
CMEs-3
Undetermined

E

day 20-WT, day 45-WT, day 20-*TBX5*^{in/+}, day 45-*TBX5*^{in/+}

CHD Genes: SAMD11, CFC1, COL2A1, COL5A2, ANKRD1, ACTB, NR2F2, GPC3, VCAN, CDKN1C, MEIS2, PBX1

CHD & AF genes: MYH7, COL1A1, PRKAG2, ACTA2, ACTC1, IGFBP7

AF Genes: ANGPT1, NPPA, TNNT2, ATP1A2, EIF4EBP1, KCNQ1OT1, TAGLN, TNNI3, MYOZ2, FABP3, SERPINI1, LGALS3, MYL4, CKM, ID1, FN1, PLAT

% Expressed: 25, 50, 75, 100
Average Expression: 1.0, 0.0, -1.0

Figure 5

Supplementary Figure 6

Figure 6

Supplementary Figure 7

A Total shared nodes in same direction

B Total shared edges in same direction

C NKX2-5

D NR2F2

E TCF21

F TCF12