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Title: Rewiring of 3D Chromatin Topology Orchestrates Transcriptional Reprogramming and the Development of Human Dilated Cardiomyopathy

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Rewiring of 3D Chromatin Topology Orchestrates Transcriptional Reprogramming and the Development of Human Dilated Cardiomyopathy

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Abstract

Background: Transcriptional reconfiguration is central to heart failure, the common cause of which is dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM). However, the impact of three-dimensional (3D) chromatin topology on transcription dysregulation and pathogenesis in human DCM remains elusive.

Methods and results: We generated a compendium of 3D-epigenome and transcriptome maps from 101 biobanked human DCM and non-failing heart tissues through HiChIP (H3K27ac), *in situ* Hi-C, ChIP-seq, ATAC-seq and RNA-seq profiling. We discovered that the active regulatory elements (H3K27ac peaks) and their connectome (H3K27ac loops) were extensively reprogrammed in DCM hearts and contributed to transcription dysregulation implicated for DCM development. For example, we identified that non-transcribing *NPPA-AS1* promoter functions as an enhancer and physically interacts with the *NPPA* and *NPPB* promoters, leading to the co-transcription of *NPPA* and *NPPB* in DCM hearts. Interestingly, by incorporating GWAS data, we showed that DCM-related SNPs are preferentially enriched in the DCM-enriched loop anchors, highlighting their functional roles. Unexpectedly, we uncovered that DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops largely reside in pre-established high-order chromatin architectures (Compartments, Topologically Associating Domains) and pre-accessible chromatin sites. These findings provide novel insights into the mechanistic hierarchies among higher-order chromatin structures, *cis*-regulatory elements and chromatin accessibilities in DCM, suggesting, in turn, the importance of sequence-specific transcription factors acting on pre-accessible enhancer/promoter to regulate chromatin looping. Intriguingly, we discovered that the DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors exhibited a strong enrichment for *Heart and Neural Crest Derivatives Expressed 1* (*HAND1*), a key transcription factor involved in early cardiogenesis. In line with this, its protein expression was upregulated in human DCM and mouse failing hearts. To further validate whether *HAND1* is a causal driver for 3D epigenome reprogramming in DCM hearts, we performed

comprehensive 3D epigenome mappings in human iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CM). We found that forced overexpression of *HAND1* in hiPSC-CM induced a distinct gain of enhancer/promoter connectivity and, correspondingly, increased the expression of their connected genes implicated in DCM etiology, thus recapitulating the transcriptional signature in human DCM hearts. Functional analyses by ectopic overexpression of *HAND1* in hiPSC-CM induced abnormal calcium handling. Moreover, cardiomyocyte-specific overexpression of *Hand1* in the mouse hearts resulted in a dilated cardiac remodeling with impaired contractility and Ca^{2+} handling in cardiomyocytes and increased ratio of heart weight/body weight and cardiac dysfunction, which were ascribed to recapitulation of transcriptional reprogramming in DCM.

Conclusions: This study provided novel chromatin topology insights into DCM pathogenesis and illustrated a model whereby a single transcription factor (HAND1) reprograms the genome-wide enhancer/promoter connectome to drive DCM pathogenesis.

Clinical Perspective

What Is New?

- High-resolution 3D-epigenomic mapping and comprehensive computational analyses were performed in human DCM hearts.
- Enhancer-promoter connectomes are extensively rewired in human DCM, which reside in conserved high-order chromatin architectures and pre-accessible chromatin sites.
- HAND1 drives the rewiring of enhancer-promoter connectome to induce DCM pathogenesis.

What Are the Clinical Implications?

- DCM-enriched enhancer-promoter loops identified in this study could be developed as novel 3D genomic biomarkers for DCM.
- Targeting HAND1 might be used as a novel approach for therapeutic intervention of DCM.

1 Introduction

2
3 Heart failure is the leading cause of death worldwide and affects over 37.7 million individuals
4 globally¹. In particular, dilated cardiomyopathy (DCM) is the most commonly diagnosed type of
5 systolic heart failure¹. Currently, no effective treatment can prevent the progression of DCM to
6 heart failure. Heart transplantation is the last resort for DCM patients, but it is hampered by
7 limited donors and staggering medical and economic burdens². Thus, studies are urgently
8 needed to demystify its etiology and develop effective management strategies.

9
10 DCM is characterized by pathogenic structural remodeling of the left ventricle (i.e., enlargement
11 of the chamber and a thin ventricular wall) and poor contractility. Previous studies indicated that
12 genetic variation in protein-coding genes (e.g., sarcomeric and cytoskeletal genes) contributed
13 to the pathogenesis of DCM in a minority of cases³, suggesting that nongenetic (epigenetic)
14 mechanisms may play a crucial role in DCM development⁴. As cell identity is primarily
15 determined by coordinated gene transcription, novel insights into the mechanisms by which the
16 DCM transcriptome is controlled will enable us to develop novel strategies to diagnose and treat
17 DCM.

18
19 Gene transcription is regulated by a variety of determinants, and *cis*-regulatory elements
20 (CREs), such as enhancers and promoters, are being recognized as the key determinants that
21 shape gene expression⁵. Dysregulation of CREs has been implicated in the pathogenesis of
22 human diseases, such as thalassemia, polydactyly and various types of cancers⁶. A previous
23 study revealed that deletion of a predicted enhancer reduced *MYH7* (cardiomyopathy marker)
24 and increases *MYH6* (normal cardiomyocyte marker) expression, leading to faster contraction in
25 human engineered heart tissues⁷. To identify the potential CREs in heart failure, Cap Analysis of
26 Gene Expression (CAGE)-seq was performed in 3 healthy and 4 failed human left ventricles to

1 map the initiation sites of both capped coding and noncoding RNAs⁸. This study identified the
2 transcribing promoters and the first intronic enhancer in failed ventricles. However, most distal
3 enhancers (e.g. intergenic enhancers) or non-transcribing promoters in heart failure are largely
4 unknown. Particularly in DCM, the *cis*-regulome specifically implicated in disease pathogenesis
5 remains elusive. Moreover, in many cases, enhancers regulate transcription via long-range
6 interactions with target gene promoters, but not nearby gene promoters⁹. Thus, it is incorrect to
7 assign the enhancer-promoter pair based on only the distance between the enhancer and
8 promoter on the linear genome. Standard methods that map the enhancer-promoter interactome
9 at high resolution (kilobase) require a large number of cells/tissue samples and an extremely
10 deep sequencing depth (billion reads per sample). New approaches to protein-mediated
11 chromatin interactions (e.g., H3K27ac HiChIP¹⁰⁻¹², PLAC-seq^{13, 14}, and *in situ* ChIA-PET¹⁵) have
12 recently been developed to enable the generation of high-resolution chromatin contact maps for
13 CREs with substantially reduced cell numbers and sequencing depth and can thus be applied to
14 clinical samples, such as human DCM tissues, with high resolution.

15
16 Furthermore, the enhancer-promoter interactome is embedded in topologically associated
17 domains (TADs), which further aggregate into large-scale nuclear architectures called A/B
18 compartments¹⁶. In recent years, reorganization of higher-order chromatin architectures have
19 been implicated in aberrant enhancer-promoter interactions in human diseases (e.g.,
20 abnormalities in limb development¹⁷ and gastrointestinal stromal tumors¹⁸) and transcriptional
21 derepression during cardiac lineage specification¹⁹. However, the enhancer-promoter
22 interactome and its link to higher higher-order chromatin architectures in DCM remains
23 unexplored.

24
25 In this study, we aimed to develop the 3D epigenomic maps of DCM hearts and determine the
26 main factors driving pathological gene transcription in DCM. We leveraged these datasets to a)

map the differential active CREs in DCM and NF hearts; b) identify the differential active CREs interactome and determine how the components are linked to transcriptional changes in DCM; c) investigate whether the formation of DCM-enriched CREs interactome is related to higher-order chromatin structure (TADs and compartments) or chromatin accessibility; and d) uncover the key transcription factor that facilitates DCM-enriched CREs interactions and how it drives the pathogenesis of DCM.

Methods

The data, analytic methods, and study materials will be/have been made available to other researchers for purposes of reproducing the results or replicating the procedure. 3D epigenome mapping, bioinformatic analysis, hiPSC-CMs, mouse models, and all experimental approaches are detailed in the **Supplementary Materials and Methods**.

Animal studies

All research protocols conformed to the Guidelines for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals published by the National Institutes of Health (National Academies Press, eighth edition, 2011). All animal use protocols and experiments were performed according to the guidelines approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Guangdong Provincial People's Hospital, South China University of Technology, and University of Cincinnati.

Human studies

Acquisition of 101 human heart samples was approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the protection of human subjects at Duke University in US. De-identified frozen human heart samples with pathological characterization were provided by the Duke Human Heart Repository (DHHR), Department of Surgery at Duke University School of Medicine. In brief, the left

ventricular (LV) heart samples were collected from DCM patients during surgery and the LV tissues were immediately dissected and snap frozen in liquid nitrogen. The LV samples from non-failing (NF) donor hearts were served as controls. The heart sample characteristics are provided in **Supplementary Table 1**.

Statistical Analysis

Hypergeometric test was used to detect significant chromatin interactions in HiChIP data. Negative binomial generalized log-linear model was used to model read counts in sequencing data and quasi-likelihood (QL) F-test was used to identify differentially abundant features (chromatin interactions, expressed genes, transcription factor binding peaks, etc). Statistical analysis was performed with R version 3.5.1 or Prism 7.0 (GraphPad Inc). The statistical tests performed for each statistical graph were listed in the individual figure legends. For further details, see **Supplementary Materials and Methods**.

Results

Genome-Wide Identification of the Active CREs in DCM and NF Hearts

We used 50 human DCM and 51 non-failing (NF) biobanked heart tissues (**Supplementary Table 1**) to uncover novel mechanisms that regulate DCM pathogenesis by integrative analysis of multi-layered 3D epigenomic features: transcriptome, epigenome and 3D chromatin connectome. To accomplish this, we performed RNA-seq (n=101), ChIP-seq (H3K27ac) (n=20), HiChIP (H3K27ac) (n=20), *in situ* Hi-C (n=4) and ATAC-seq (n=20) mapping (**Figure 1A**). Principal component analysis (PCA) from RNA-seq data depicted a separation between DCM and NF hearts, suggesting that the transcriptome of DCM is globally reconfigured compared to NF (**Supplementary Figure 1A**). As CREs have been recognized as essential sequences for cell-specific transcription, we performed H3K27ac ChIP-seq^{20, 21} on 10 DCM and 10 NF human

1 heart samples (left ventricle) to annotate active CREs. Similarly, PCA analysis showed a
2 separation between the DCM and NF samples (**Supplementary Figure 1B**), indicating that the
3 active CREs were differentially used in DCM and NF hearts.

4
5 Since H3K27ac is associated with both promoters and distal enhancers²¹, we then separated
6 H3K27ac peaks into promoter proximal peaks and enhancer peaks based on their distances (+/-
7 2.5 kb) to known transcription start sites (TSSs). Among the promoter regions, we identified
8 4,446 DCM-enriched H3K27ac peaks (e.g., promoters of the cardiac hypertrophy marker genes
9 *NPPA* and *NPPB*²²), 1,292 NF-enriched H3K27ac peaks (e.g., promoters of the normal cardiac
10 marker gene *MYH6*²³ and the cytoskeleton marker gene *TUBA3D*²⁴), and 11,451 H3K27ac
11 peaks common to both DCM and NF hearts (**Figure 1B**). By integrating the RNA-seq data for
12 those samples, we found that the expression of genes with DCM-enriched H3K27ac peaks on
13 their promoters was significantly upregulated in DCM hearts compared to NF hearts, while the
14 expression of genes with NF-enriched H3K27ac peaks was significantly downregulated, and the
15 expression of genes with common H3K27ac peaks was unchanged (**Figure 1C**). We further
16 corroborated these results by analyzing the expression of *NPPA*, *NPPB*, *MYH6* and *TUBA3D* in
17 human DCM and NF heart tissues. *NPPA* and *NPPB* were significantly upregulated (**Figure 1D**),
18 whereas *MYH6* and *TUBA3D* were significantly downregulated in DCM compared to NF hearts
19 (**Supplementary Figure 1C**). These trends are consistent with the roles of H3K27ac in active
20 transcription. Interestingly, the expression levels of *NPPA* and *NPPB* were highly correlated
21 (Pearson correlation coefficient=0.751) (**Supplementary Figure 1D**), suggesting that they are
22 co-regulated at the transcriptional level and may share common regulatory elements.

23
24 Next, we identified 4,204 DCM-enriched enhancers, 1,626 NF-enriched enhancers (**Figure 1E**)
25 and 38,018 common enhancers present in both DCM and NF hearts (**Supplementary Figure**
26 **1E**). By integrating 507 H3K27ac ChIP-seq data derived from different cells/tissues from the

1 ENCODE project, we further validated that the 4,204 DCM-enriched enhancers displayed high
2 cell specificity compared to 38,018 common enhancers (**Figure 1F, Supplementary Table 2**).
3 In addition, we split the H3K27ac ChIP-seq data into cardiac (n=18) and non-cardiac (n=489)
4 cell types and found that H3K27ac peak regions in cardiac-cell types overlapped significantly
5 more DCM-enriched enhancers compared to non-cardiac cell types (**Supplementary Figure**
6 **1F**). These results suggested that DCM-enriched enhancers could play a role in orchestrating
7 cell-type-specific regulatory activity in DCM hearts. In line with this, GREAT analysis showed
8 that DCM-enriched enhancers are located near genes essential for decreased muscle
9 contractility, dilated cardiomyopathy, abnormal myocardial fiber morphology etc. (**Figure 1G**),
10 suggesting the regulatory potential of these genes in DCM pathogenesis. DCM-enriched CREs
11 can be exemplified by a genomic region on chromosome 1 (**Figure 1H**). This region contained a
12 DCM-enriched enhancer near the coding gene *NPPB*. In addition, the *NPPA-AS1*, *NPPA*, and
13 *NPPB* promoters had specific H3K27ac peaks. Previous study demonstrated a *cis*-regulatory
14 role for *NPPA-AS1* transcript in the repression of *NPPA* expression in atria²⁵. However, *NPPA*-
15 *AS1* was transcriptionally inactive, as shown from RNA-seq data, suggesting that this promoter
16 may function in *trans* to regulate the transcription of other genes in DCM ventricle.

17
18 Taken together, the above results highlight that gene expression in DCM hearts is regulated by
19 CREs and suggest that their interactions will bring to light the functions and target genes of
20 these regulatory elements.

21 22 **Characterization of the 3D Chromatin Organization in DCM and NF Hearts**

23 The 3D connectome brings together regulatory chromatin regions and hence can potentially
24 contribute to the regulation of gene expression. To map the high-resolution chromatin contact
25 maps of active CREs, we performed H3K27ac HiChIP on 10 DCM and 10 NF samples. We
26 obtained ~45 million high-quality paired-end reads (i.e. Unique valid interaction pairs) on

average from the HiChIP libraries (**Supplementary Table 3**). For the HiChIP data, we found that the inter-group variation was greater than intra-group variation (**Supplementary Figure 2**). HiChIP data contain both 1D (binding sites of the targeted proteins) and 3D (chromatin interactions between binding sites) information^{10, 11}. We found that the 1D signal of the HiChIP data was comparable to that of the H3K27ac ChIP-seq datasets (**Supplementary Figure 3A**). Inspection of the combined interaction matrix at different resolutions showed typical compartments (500 kb resolution), TADs (25 kb resolution) and focal loops (5 kb resolution) for both DCM and NF hearts, similar to those reported in previous HiChIP data^{10, 11} (**Figure 2A**). We then identified high-confidence chromatin interactions among gene promoters and distal enhancers in DCM and NF hearts (**Figure 2B**). We found that 13,562 promoters and 11,308 enhancers were involved in chromatin interactions in DCM and that anchor genes had significantly higher expression than that of non-anchor genes (**Figure 2C**), suggesting that chromatin interactions may play a role in transcriptional activation.

We then constructed chromatin interaction networks for DCM and NF hearts separately, as genome-wide chromatin interactions are organized into giant, modular interaction networks²⁶. Promoters and enhancers were organized into chromatin interaction domains (**Figure 2D**) across the genomes of both DCM and NF hearts; in addition, those interaction domains spanned similar genomic distances (**Supplementary Figure 3B**) and contained most of the active promoters and enhancers (**Supplementary Figure 3C and D**). The numbers of connected enhancers were positively correlated with increase in expression levels of their connected genes (**Supplementary Figure 3E**). Chromatin interactions within the domains can first be classified as promoter-enhancer interactions, i.e., gene promoters regulated by one or multiple enhancers. For example, the promoter of *PDLIM5*, a gene involved in actin cytoskeleton organization and DCM²⁷, was regulated by an enhancer embedded in its intron

(**Figure 2E**). Second, these chromatin interactions may be classified as promoter-promoter interactions. For example, both the *NPPA* and *NPPB* promoters have strong interactions with the *NPPA-AS1* promoter as shown by paired-end tags (PETs)(**Figure 2F**), a finding that supports the conclusion that *NPPA* and *NPPB* may be co-regulated by *NPPA-AS1* promoter. *NPPA-AS1* transcript is shown to have an inhibitory effect on *NPPA* expression in atria²⁵, but our RNA-seq revealed that the *NPPA-AS1* gene is transcriptionally repressed in DCM ventricle. Interestingly, recent study showed that non-transcribing promoter can have enhancer activity to regulate other gene transcription via chromatin looping²⁸, in line with previous identification of enhancer-like promoters²⁹⁻³¹. To test whether *NPPA-AS1* promoter can function as an enhancer to regulate *NPPA* and *NPPB* expression, we performed luciferase reporter assays, a commonly used method for promoter and enhancer characterization³² (**Supplementary Figure 3F**). *NPPA* or *NPPB* promoter fragment was cloned upstream of the luciferase gene as the driving promoter, and the *NPPA-AS1* promoter was cloned downstream of the luciferase gene as a presumed enhancer, as enhancers generally function in a manner independent of orientation. The analysis of transfection and luciferase activity was performed in an *in vitro* cardiac hypertrophy model induced by endothelin-1 (10 nM, 48 hours) in human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CMs). We found that the *NPPA-AS1* promoter alone was not able to activate luciferase gene expression. However, the *NPPA-AS1* promoter could act in concert with *NPPA/NPPB* promoter to significantly enhance the luciferase activity compared to *NPPA/NPPB* promoter alone (**Supplementary Figure 3G and H**). This result indicated that the *NPPA-AS1* promoter could function as an enhancer to regulate *NPPA/NPPB* transcription. Overall, we identified the interactome of active CREs in DCM and NF in high resolution and uncovered that active promoters and enhancers were organized by multiple types of chromatin loops.

Specific Enhancer-Promoter Connectome Regulates DCM-Specific Transcription

To dissect how CRE interactions contribute to DCM-specific transcription, we performed differential analysis of HiChIP loops. Two classes of differential loops were identified based on H3K27ac signal on loop anchors: Class I (change of H3K27ac signal on loop anchors) and Class II (no change of H3K27ac signal on loop anchors). For Class I, we identified 670 DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops (DCM-enriched anchors) and 1,035 NF-enriched H3K27ac loops (NF-enriched anchors) (**Figure 3A, Supplementary Table 4**). We found that these DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop-connected genes were significantly upregulated in DCM hearts (**Figure 3B**), while the NF-enriched H3K27ac loop-connected genes were significantly downregulated in DCM hearts (**Figure 3C**). For Class II, we identified 4,883 DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops (Common anchors) and 3,712 NF-enriched H3K27ac loops (Common anchors) (**Supplementary Figure 4A, Supplementary Table 4**). However, these differential loops have less interaction intensity (PET counts) compared to their counterparts in Class I (**Supplementary Figure 4B**) and their connected genes are not significantly linked to transcription change (**Supplementary Figure 4C, D**). Hence, in downstream analysis, we focus on Class I loops to explore the transcription regulation in DCM.

To understand the functional implications of the genes regulated by DCM/NF-enriched H3K27ac loops, we represent their functional enrichment network³³ (**Figure 3D, Supplementary Figure 4E**). For DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops, the most highly represented GO terms included (1) molecular functions related to cytoskeletal protein binding and actin binding and (2) biological processes related to heart development, cardiac muscle development, adrenergic receptor signaling pathway, cardiac muscle hypertrophy, regulation of the force of heart contraction, response to insulin, muscle structure development, and striated muscle and differentiation. Pathway terms included cGMP-PKG signaling pathway, the IGF-1 receptor and longevity. Disease terms included, for example, cardiomyopathy (dilated), familial dilated cardiomyopathy, primary dilated cardiomyopathy, cardiomyopathy (familial idiopathic), and conduction disorder of

1 the heart. These results suggested that specific enhancer/promoter connectome regulated
2 specific transcription programs implicated in DCM development.

3
4 We uncovered specific examples of DCM-enriched E-P interactions. *TBX5* is a gene crucial for
5 proper cardiac development³⁴, and we found that its promoter interacted with an activated
6 enhancer embedded in its 7th intron in DCM hearts (**Figure 3E**). *ADRB1* encodes the β 1-
7 receptor, which acts as a key driver of heart failure by mediating the proapoptotic signaling
8 pathway³⁵. An activated enhancer embedded in the 5th intron of *NHLRC2* skipped the *NHLRC2*
9 promoter and interacted with the promoter of *ADRB1* (**Figure 3F**). *MYOZ2* encodes a protein
10 from a sarcomeric protein family and is associated with cardiac hypertrophy³⁶. We found that an
11 activated enhancer embedded in its 2nd intron interacted with its promoter (**Figure 3G**). *VCL* is a
12 DCM marker gene³⁷, while an activated enhancer in the *VCL* intron has specific interactions with
13 the promoter of *VCL* (**Figure 3H**). We also validated these specific examples of DCM-enriched
14 E-P interactions by 3C-qPCR (**Supplementary Figure 4F**). Collectively, these findings indicate
15 that DCM-enriched E-P interactions regulate genes involved in abnormal cardiac function. In
16 addition to DCM-enriched E-P interactions, we also examined NF-enriched E-P interactions. A
17 previous study showed that knockdown of *Notch1* mRNA exacerbates cardiac injury following
18 ischemic reperfusion in mouse³⁸ and that inhibition of NOTCH1 led to neonatal DCM³⁹. The
19 intronic enhancer in *NOTCH1* was activated in NF hearts and interacted with its promoter.
20 However, this E-P interaction was lost in DCM hearts (**Supplementary Figure 4G**).
21 Furthermore, a recent study employing integrated multiomics approaches like RNA-seq and
22 methylation assays identified *MTSS1* as one of the key genes associated with left ventricular
23 systolic function⁴⁰. We found that enhancer connectome associated with *MTSS1* promoter was
24 lost in DCM as compared to NF (**Supplementary Figure 4H**), thus indicating its possible
25 association with cardiac dysfunction in DCM.

1 Since genetic variants account for a portion of DCM cases⁴¹, it is important to see whether
2 genetic and 3D epigenomic changes affect the same genes or not. We called genetic variants
3 using our RNA-seq data and filtered for genetic variants within exons⁴². We identified 259 genes
4 harboring genetic variants within exons, which rarely overlapped with the genes with DCM-
5 enriched H3K27ac loops (**Supplementary Figure 4I**), indicating that genetics and 3D
6 epigenome affect different genes in DCM.

7
8 However, functional annotation showed that the 259 genes harboring genetic variants within
9 exons are implicated in cardiac muscle contraction (**Supplementary Figure 4J**), implying that
10 genetics and 3D epigenome may converge, in part, on the same functional pathways to drive
11 DCM pathogenesis.

12
13 In addition to the genetic variations within the coding regions of genes mentioned above, we
14 also curated a list of GWAS SNPs associated with DCM and another three cardiovascular
15 diseases (aortic aneurysm, diabetes, hypertension). Using the workflow described in
16 **Supplementary Figure 4K**, we compiled a list of disease-related SNPs from the GWAS
17 Catalog for each disease. Interestingly, we found that DCM-enriched anchors harbor DCM-
18 related SNPs, rather than other diseases (**Supplementary Figure 4L**). In addition, DCM-related
19 SNPs are more enriched in DCM-enriched loop anchors compared to NF-enriched loop anchors
20 (**Supplementary Figure 4M**). Collectively, these data supported the idea of using HiChIP to link
21 disease-specific functional SNPs to targeted genes and also underscored that a subset of DCM-
22 related SNPs may potentially regulate DCM pathogenesis through modulating
23 enhancer/promoter interactions.

Hence, our data suggested that specific long-range interactions of CREs regulate DCM-enriched transcription, further highlighting the importance of high-resolution 3D chromatin maps for the identification of target genes and the function of enhancers/GWAS SNPs.

DCM-Enriched Enhancer/Promoter Connectome Largely Resides in Conserved Higher-Order Chromatin Architectures and Pre-Accessible Chromatin Sites Bound by Reactivated HAND1

Next, to investigate whether the altered H3K27ac looping in DCM is associated with changes in higher-order chromatin structures, we performed *in situ* Hi-C on DCM and NF heart tissue samples (left ventricles) (**Supplementary Table 3, Supplementary Figure 5**). *In situ* Hi-C can capture the multilevel chromatin architecture, including the A and B compartments and TADs. We found that both the DCM and NF heart genomes were partitioned into A and B compartments (**Figure 4A**). We compared the A and B compartments in the genomes of NF and DCM hearts; overall, only a small fraction (A-to-B, 13.3%; B-to-A, 9.4%) of the genome switched compartments from NF to DCM hearts (**Figure 4B**). Gene expression was reduced for the genes that switched from the A-to-B compartment, while expression was increased for the genes that switched from the B-to-A compartment (**Figure 4C**); these results agree with previous findings showing that the A compartment corresponds to active transcription and that the B compartment corresponds to repressed transcription¹⁶.

Then, we examined the TAD distribution and identified 1,428 DCM-specific TADs, 1,114 NF-specific TADs, and 4,803 common TADs (**Figure 4D, Supplementary Table 4**). Comparison of genome-wide insulation scores suggested that TADs were highly conserved between DCM and NF hearts (correlation coefficient = 0.97)(**Figure 4E**) and presented similar insulation profiles (**Figure 4F**). Hence, the overall higher-order chromatin structures remain largely invariant from NF to DCM hearts. Moreover, we found that the A and B compartments occupied similar

portions of the genome, with TADs distributed evenly in the A and B compartments in both DCM and NF hearts, while H3K27ac loops located mostly in the A compartment, suggesting that H3K27ac-associated chromatin interactions are involved in active transcription (**Supplementary Figure 6 A,B**).

Furthermore, we aimed to determine the distributions of enriched H3K27ac loops in altered compartments and TADs in DCM and NF hearts. We found that only 1.3% of DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops (**Supplementary Figure 6C**) and 5.8% of NF heart-enriched H3K27ac loops (**Supplementary Figure 6D**) were in switched compartments. In addition, 9.4% of DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops (**Supplementary Figure 6E**) and 15.5% of NF-enriched H3K27ac loops (**Supplementary Figure 6F**) were in changed TADs. The small percentage of specific loops within altered compartments and TADs suggested that factors other than higher-order chromatin structures might underlie the formation of specific H3K27ac loops in DCM.

As chromatin accessibility is essential for the function and interaction of CREs⁵, we aimed to test whether DCM/NF-enriched H3K27ac loop formation could be explained solely by chromatin accessibility. To this end, we developed an optimized ATAC-seq protocol⁴³ for frozen heart tissues (see **Supplementary Materials and Methods**) and performed the experiments on the same 20 DCM/NF heart tissues described above (**Supplementary Figure 6G**). Compared to NF hearts, DCM hearts had decreased chromatin accessibility for the NF-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors (**Supplementary Figure 6H**). However, chromatin accessibility was equivalent for the DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors in DCM and NF hearts (**Figure 4G**). These results suggested that DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops were formed on pre-accessible chromatin regions.

Because transcription factors are key determinants shaping the 3D genome⁴⁴, we scanned the transcription factor motifs on the DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors that overlapped with

1 their ATAC-seq peaks. The motifs for the transcription factors SMAD3⁴⁵ and MEF⁴⁶, known to be
2 involved in heart failure or DCM, were among the 20 most significantly enriched motifs (ranked
3 No. 15 and No. 19, respectively) (**Supplementary Figure 6I**). The most significantly enriched
4 transcription factor motif on the DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors was HAND1 (**Figure 4H**),
5 which is not enriched in NF-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors (**Supplementary Figure 6J**).
6 HAND1 is a basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH) transcription factor that is highly expressed in the
7 embryonic heart and essential for heart development and homeostasis. In humans and rodents,
8 *HAND1* transcription in the adult heart is maintained at a much lower level than that in the
9 embryonic heart⁴⁷. Recently, a report identified a heterozygous *HAND1* mutation in the blood
10 DNA from some Chinese familial DCM patients⁴⁸. However, the functional roles of HAND1 in
11 3D epigenome reprogramming and transcription regulation within DCM hearts remains
12 unexplored.

13
14 To further uncover the link of HAND1 with DCM-enriched H3K27ac looping, we performed
15 HAND1 ChIP-seq (**Supplementary Figure 6K**). We found that HAND1 binding was preferably
16 enriched on DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors (**Figure 4I**) in DCM hearts compared to
17 randomly permuted regions (**Supplementary Figure 6L**), NF-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors
18 (**Supplementary Figure 6M**) or NF/DCM-all loop anchors (**Supplementary Figure 6N**).
19 Although we demonstrated no significant difference of *HAND1* RNA expression between human
20 DCM and NF hearts (**Supplementary Figure 6O**), HAND1 protein expression in human DCM
21 hearts was significantly upregulated compared to that in NF hearts (**Figure 4J, L**), suggesting
22 post-transcriptional/post-translational modifications of HAND1 in DCM. To further analyze
23 HAND1 protein expression in mouse failing hearts, we constructed transverse aortic constriction
24 (TAC) model and isolated cardiomyocytes (CMs) and cardiac fibroblasts (CFs) at 8 weeks after
25 TAC. We found that HAND1 protein expression was significantly upregulated in TAC-CMs but
26 not in TAC-CFs as compared to Sham controls (**Figure 4K and M**). These data suggested that

HAND1 might be the potential transcription factor linked to the DCM-enriched CREs interactions in cardiomyocytes.

HAND1 Rewires Enhancer/Promoter Connectome in Concordance with Transcriptional Changes Associated with DCM Etiology in Human iPSC-Derived Cardiomyocytes

To dissect the functionality of HAND1 in organizing enhancer/promoter connectome of human cardiomyocytes, we transduced Ctrl and HAND1-overexpressing ($HAND1^{OE}$) adenovirus into human iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CM) for 72 hrs, which have emerged as invaluable platforms for disease modeling and therapeutic screening in DCM⁴⁹. Subsequently, we performed 3D epigenome mapping (H3K27ac HiChIP, H3K27ac ChIP-seq, HAND1 ChIP-seq and RNA-seq) (**Figure 5A, Supplementary Figure 7A-C**) in these cells. HAND1-overexpression induced extensive rewiring of enhancer/promoter connectome with more gained H3K27ac HiChIP loops (N=5,456, 73%) compared to lost loops (N=1,968, 23%)(**Figure 5B**; global view of gained loops are demonstrated in **Supplementary Figure 7D**). By integrating HAND1 ChIP-seq data, we found that 85% of the gained loops were bound by HAND1 on one or both anchors in $HAND1^{OE}$ hiPSC-CM (**Figure 5C**). In addition, HAND1 binding intensity is significantly higher in those gained loop anchors of $HAND1^{OE}$ compared to Ctrl hiPSC-CM (**Figure 5D**). However, HAND1 binding intensity is minimal on permuted regions (**Supplementary Figure 7E**) while equivalent on common loop anchors (**Supplementary Figure 7F**), and subtly less on lost loops (**Supplementary Figure 7G**) in $HAND1^{OE}$ compared to control hiPSC-CM, which further supported that gained loops are attributed to specific HAND1 binding on the loop anchors. Moreover, HAND1 binding intensity on the gained loop anchors is moderately correlated with loop intensity (**Figure 5E**). Taken together, these data indicated that the induced enhancer/promoter rewiring is a direct effect of the upregulation of HAND1.

By integrating RNA-seq data, we found that genes within the gained and lost loops were significantly up- and downregulated, respectively (*HAND1*^{OE} compared with Ctrl hiPSC-CM) (**Figure 5F**). In addition, in gained loops, the numbers of enhancers connected to promoters were significantly correlated with expression level (**Figure 5G**). Functional annotation analysis indicated that gained loops-associated genes recapitulated the transcriptional signatures in public human DCM RNA-seq data (**Figure 5H**) and functionally implicated in decreased survival, abnormal myocardial fiber, and abnormal muscle physiology/contractility (**Figure 5I**). Gene Ontology for this gene set showed significant enrichment in biological processes associated with embryonic heart tube development, regulation of ventricular cardiac cell action potential, cardiac muscle hypertrophy, cardiac muscle contractility, and regulation of cardiac muscle contraction by regulating the release of sequestered calcium ion (**Figure 5J**), further validating that some *HAND1* functions through activating chromatin looping and gene transcription involved in these processes during DCM pathogenesis. Examples of gained loops involving the well-established DCM driver gene *PDE1C*⁵⁰ and unexplored genes *FREM2*, *SLC16A2*, *GAS1* are shown in **Figure 5K, L, M, N**. These results demonstrate that the upregulation of *HAND1* in hiPSC-CM results in the genome-wide gain of enhancer/promoter contacts and concordant transcriptional activation of connected genes implicated in DCM development.

HAND1 Drives DCM Pathology in Human iPSC-CM and Mouse Models

To test the pathological effects of *HAND1* in DCM, we performed systematic *in vitro* and *in vivo* functional assays (**Figure 6A**). For *in vitro* study, we investigated the effect of *HAND1* overexpression on human cardiac morphology and function using adenoviral vectors to overexpress *HAND1* in hiPSC-CMs. At 72 hrs after transduction, we found a significant higher percentage of *HAND1* overexpressing hiPSC-CMs (hiPSC-CM^{HAND1OE}) were larger than null adenovirus transfected hiPSC-CMs (hiPSC-CM^{Null}) (**Supplementary Figure 8A**). Furthermore, overexpression of *HAND1* (hiPSC-CM^{HAND1OE}) resulted in significant increases in Ca²⁺ transient

1 amplitude (**Figure 6B**), cell shortening, and relaxation velocity respectively, compared to hiPSC-
2 CM^{Null} (**Supplementary Figure 8B-D**). These results indicated acute overexpression of *HAND1*
3 induced hiPSC-CM hypertrophy development with associated alteration in Ca²⁺-handling and
4 contractility, which might be a compensation to maintain cardiomyocyte contraction⁵¹⁻⁵³.

5
6 To validate these results *in vivo*, we engineered an AAV9 vector with the *cTNT* promoter to
7 drive cardiac-specific overexpression of *Hand1* in mouse CMs (AAV9-*cTNT-Hand1*-EGFP)
8 (**Figure 6C**). To assess the specificity and potency of the *cTNT* promoter, AAV9 virus lacking
9 *Hand1* (AAV9-*cTNT*-EGFP) was delivered to adult wild-type (WT) mice (8 weeks old)
10 (**Supplementary Figure 8E**) at 3 different doses (5×10¹¹, 1×10¹², and 5×10¹² viral genomes (vg)
11 by intraperitoneal injection), and the mice receiving AAV9 were defined as Low, Medium, and
12 High groups, respectively. The mice that received the same volume of saline were defined as
13 the negative control group (designated as the Saline group). Mice injected with the AAV9-*cTNT*-
14 EGFP viral vector exhibited robust expression of the GFP signal in the CMs (**Supplementary**
15 **Figure 8F and G**). As expected, no GFP signal was observed in saline-treated hearts. Although
16 the AAV dosage was positively correlated with the number of GFP⁺ CMs, no difference in the
17 GFP protein level was observed between the Medium and High groups (**Supplementary Figure**
18 **8F**). These data indicate that one systemic dose of 1×10¹² vg yields highly efficient transduction
19 in the majority of CMs. We then used the selected dosage to intraperitoneally inject WT adult
20 mice with AAV9-*cTNT-Hand1*-EGFP (designated as the *Hand1*^{OE} group) or AAV9-*cTNT*-EGFP
21 (designated as the Null group). AAV9 transduction in *Hand1*^{OE} hearts (**Figure 6D**) resulted in
22 significant upregulation of *HAND1*, as determined by Western blotting (**Figure 6E**). To
23 interrogate the functional effect of *Hand1* on heart failure progression, contractile mechanics,
24 amplitude and kinetics of intracellular Ca²⁺ transients were measured in freshly isolated mouse
25 CMs (mCMs) from *Hand1*^{OE} hearts and Null hearts after AAV9 treatment for 4 weeks *in vivo*. In
26 contrast to acute overexpression of *HAND1* in hiPSC-CM, chronic overexpression of *Hand1*

1 resulted in significant decreases in cell shortening and relaxation velocity respectively,
2 compared with the Null CMs (**Figure 6F-H**). Although assessment of Ca^{2+} amplitude (peak h)
3 revealed an increase in *Hand1*^{OE} CMs, the Tau was significantly prolonged as compared to Null
4 CMs (**Figure 6I-K**), suggesting impaired Ca^{2+} handling. These results indicated the regulatory
5 effect of *Hand1* on CM dysfunction progression, as evidenced by a decline in contractile
6 function and abnormal Ca^{2+} handling.

7
8 Accordingly, compared with the Null hearts, the explanted *Hand1*^{OE} hearts were markedly
9 enlarged (**Figure 6L**). In addition, the heart-to-body weight ratios (HW/BW) were higher in
10 *Hand1*^{OE} mice than in Null mice, indicating a significant increase in heart mass (**Figure 6M**).
11 Using wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) staining, we also found that the *Hand1*^{OE} CMs were
12 significantly larger than the Null CMs (**Figure 6N**), implying that cardiac hypertrophy was
13 developed in the *Hand1*^{OE} CMs. These effects were not the result of AAV9-induced toxicity
14 since no changes in CM size were observed in mice transduced with AAV9 without *Hand1*
15 (AAV9-*cTNT*-GFP) or in Saline control mice (**Supplementary Figure 8H and I**). Next, cardiac
16 function analysis was examined in *Hand1*^{OE} mice and Null mice by echocardiography (**Figure**
17 **6O**); compared to the Null mice, the *Hand1*^{OE} mice showed significant reductions in left
18 ventricular (LV) ejection fraction (EF) and fractional shortening (FS) (**Figure 6P and Q**), which
19 are key parameters of cardiac contractile functions. Cardiac remodeling was also significantly
20 increased in *Hand1*^{OE} mice, with increased LV end-diastolic diameter (LVDd), and LV end-
21 systolic diameter (LVDs) (**Figure 6R and S**). In order to interrogate underlying mechanisms for
22 HAND1-induced cardiac dysfunction, we performed RNA-seq in the cardiomyocytes isolated
23 from Null and *Hand1*^{OE} mice (**Supplementary Figure 8J**). Differential analysis showed that
24 HAND1 induced drastic transcriptome reprogramming in *Hand1*^{OE} cardiomyocytes
25 (**Supplementary 8K**). Functional enrichment network analysis for the upregulated genes in
26 *Hand1*^{OE} cardiomyocytes further showed that the most highly represented GO terms included

1 dilated cardiomyopathy, decreased cardiac muscle contractility, abnormal impulse conducting
2 system conduction, cardiac hypertrophy, increased heart weight etc. (**Figure 6T**), which are in
3 line with our observations in functional studies.

4
5 These data indicated that overexpression of *Hand1* in the adult heart provokes impaired
6 contractility, Ca^{2+} mishandling, CM hypertrophy, cardiac dilation and dysfunction. Taken
7 together, our functional and mechanistic data uncovered HAND1 as a novel factor in the
8 development of DCM that could also serve as a therapeutic target for this heart disease.

10 **Discussion**

11 Although one-dimensional epigenome mapping techniques (e.g., ATAC-seq and H3K27ac
12 ChIP-seq) can identify CREs in the genome, they do not indicate the connectivity of CREs for
13 transcription regulation. In contrast, high-resolution 3D genome techniques (e.g., H3K27ac
14 HiChIP) can identify the connectome of active CREs, which is crucial since enhancers can skip
15 their nearby promoters to regulate distal promoters.

16
17 In this study, we dissected, for the first time, the 3D chromatin architecture in human DCM at
18 high-resolution and unraveled how this reorganization dictates transcriptional deregulation and
19 its pathogenesis (**Figure 7**). We generated the DCM-enriched enhancer/promoter connectome,
20 which is largely dependent on pre-existing chromatin accessibility and higher-order chromatin
21 architecture, possibly priming their connected genes for rapid transcription in response to
22 cardiac stress.

23
24 We discovered that DCM-enriched H3K27ac looping is characterized by binding of HAND1, a
25 transcription factor essential for cardiac development and downregulated in adult hearts⁴⁷. This
26 suggests a mistimed activation of this early developmental factor in the cardiac tissue and could

connect DCM to a reactivation of an earlier mesodermal-cardiac developmental program or a deregulated tissue repair program. The precise timing of developmental transcription factor expression is important not only for cardiovascular development but also postnatally in tissue repair and regeneration⁵⁴⁻⁵⁶. However, the mistiming of the expression of developmental transcription factors could lead to pathological changes in adult tissue functioning. HAND1 has previously not been investigated for a role in mediating long-range chromatin interactions. In order to test whether HAND1 could causally reprogram enhancer/promoter connectome and transcription, we performed extensive 3D epigenome mapping in hiPSC-CM. We found that HAND1 induces a genome-wide gain of distinct H3K27ac HiChIP loops. In addition, we showed that most of the gained loop anchors are characterized by increased HAND1 binding, indicating the direct effect of HAND1-induced chromatin looping. Moreover, the gained enhancer/promoter connections increase the expression of their associated genes implicated for DCM, suggesting a direct functional connection with the disease. Furthermore, we showed that reactivation of HAND1 in hiPSC-CM and mouse heart drives DCM phenotype and cardiac dysfunction, indicating that the precise temporal regulation of HAND1 is critical for cardiac homeostasis. Although the 3D epigenome mapping indicates differential chromatin architectures in DCM compared to NF, these datasets have some limitations. These are bulk sequencing data which were obtained from hearts at the end-stage of the disease at transplantation. As such, it is difficult to determine which of the many observed changes are disease casual, disease compensatory, or non-specific changes that accompany any form of heart failure. Such insight is particularly challenging to obtain in humans due to ethical limitations. Nevertheless, the identification of HAND1 as transcription factor regulating the 3D chromatin connectomes, gene expression in DCM as well as in mouse cardiomyocytes highlights the importance of this factor and its effects in playing an important causal role in this disease.

1 Interestingly, while we identified the essential roles of HAND1 in chromatin looping, we also
2 noticed that HAND1 binding is not always sufficient for loop formation and gene activation in
3 iPSC-CM, as some enhancers/promoters have strong HAND1 binding, but are not involved in
4 chromatin looping, suggesting that additional factors (e.g., architectural proteins /transcription
5 co-factors or chromatin-associated RNA) are required to facilitate HAND1-mediated
6 enhancer/promoter looping. Regarding this hypothesis, *in-situ* capture of chromatin interactions
7 by biotinylated dCas9 in iPSC-CM, followed by proteomics and RNA-seq⁵⁷, could identify
8 HAND1-interacting proteins/RNAs involved in chromatin looping. In addition, how HAND1 and
9 its associated factors work together to regulate 3D chromatin contact (e.g., via phase-separated
10 nuclear condensates⁵⁸) should be addressed in the future. Moreover, future work could be
11 performed to compare the effect of HAND1 with other transcription factors (e.g. NFIB, NFIC and
12 ZN563) which we explored from motif scan, and investigate whether they cooperate with
13 HAND1 in regulating 3D genome organization in DCM.

14
15 An intriguing aspect is the possibility of using our discoveries for predicting the risk for
16 developing DCM. A reactivation of HAND1 protein in DCM could indicate the early activation of
17 signaling pathways involved in mesodermal-cardiac differentiation and HAND1 protein induction.
18 Additionally, the unique HAND1-mediated H3K27ac looping of genes is likely to play a central
19 role in DCM. This could open novel therapeutic strategies for DCM. For example, signaling
20 pathways blocking HAND1 protein levels (i.e., the E3 ligase Fbxo25 for HAND1⁵⁹) or chemical
21 inhibitors that prevent HAND1 from reprogramming the enhancer-promoter connectomes
22 leading to DCM could be attractive targets for therapeutic intervention. Our RNA-sequencing
23 analysis of loop-specific genes uncovered several candidate pathways, such as EZH2 and
24 TGF β , that could be studied further for their therapeutic potential in the hiPSC-CM model.

In sum, based on comprehensive 3D epigenome mapping and functional analysis in human DCM hearts, iPSC-CM platform and mouse adult cardiomyocytes, complemented by data from *in vivo* studies of *Hand1*-induced cardiomyocyte hypertrophy, cardiac dilation and dysfunction, our study represents a significant advance in the understanding of DCM etiology from a new view (chromatin topology) and points to HAND1 as a novel therapeutic target.

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Figure Legend

Figure 1. Genome-Wide Identification of Active CREs in DCM and NF Hearts.

A. Schematic representation of 3D epigenome and transcriptome mapping for 50 DCM and 51 NF left ventricle heart tissue samples (left panel). *In situ* Hi-C was performed to examine the active A compartment and B compartment and topologically associating domains (TADs) (middle panel). HiChIP (H3K27ac) was performed to map the interactome of the active CREs, which was annotated by H3K27ac ChIP-seq. ATAC-seq was used to identify chromatin accessibility on the CREs. RNA-seq was used to measure transcription output (right panel).

B. Volcano plot showing NF-enriched (n=1,292), DCM-enriched (n=4,446) and common (n=11,451) H3K27ac ChIP-seq peaks in promoter regions (within ± 2.5 kb of known transcription start sites (TSSs)) of DCM and NF hearts. Cardiac hypertrophy marker genes (*NPPA*, *NPPB*), normal cardiac marker gene (*MYH6*) and the cytoskeleton marker gene (*TUBA3D*) are labeled in yellow.

C. Violin plot showing expression bias for genes exhibiting specific H3K27ac peaks in promoter regions (n=4,446 DCM-enriched H3K27ac peaks, n=1,292 NF heart-enriched H3K27ac peaks and n=11,451 common H3K27ac peaks). Data were analyzed by Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction.

D. Expression values (\log_2 (normalized counts)) for *NPPA* and *NPPB* in 50 DCM and 51 NF heart RNA-seq datasets. Data were analyzed by Wald test.

E. Heatmap of DCM-enriched (n=4,204) and NF-enriched (n=1,626) H3K27ac ChIP-Seq peaks on enhancer regions in 10 DCM and 10 NF heart samples (rows represent peaks, and columns represent samples).

F. Enhancer breadth (number of cells/tissues in which an enhancer is activated) of DCM-enriched and common enhancers. DCM-enriched enhancers (red) are significantly more represented as tissue-enriched than common enhancers (grey). Data were analyzed by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

G. Bar chart showing the top 10 Ontology terms (Mouse Phenotype, from GREAT analysis) enriched for genes associated with DCM-enriched enhancers (ontology terms were ranked by negative $\log_{10}(\text{FDR})$ from smallest to largest).

H. Genome browser view of the genes *NPPA* and *NPPB* and their associated promoters and enhancers in DCM and NF hearts. Enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

Figure 2. Characterization of the 3D Chromatin Organization of the Active CREs by H3K27ac HiChIP in DCM and NF Hearts.

A. Knight–Ruiz (KR) matrix–balanced interaction maps of merged DCM (top) and NF (bottom) HiChIP valid interaction pairs of typical compartments at 500 kb resolution (left), TADs at 25 kb resolution (middle) and focal loops at 5 kb resolution (right).

B. Summary for the number of chromatin interactions between promoters (P) and enhancers (E) in DCM (upper) and NF (lower) hearts.

C. Violin plot of expression levels for anchor genes (n=19,951), basal promoter (BP) genes (n=7,343) and non-promoter (NP) genes (n=13,756) in DCM. Data were analyzed by Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction.

D. Genome browser view of CREs interactions in chr1:209,197,638-220,102,351. The top two rows represent the CREs interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks are shown for each.

E. Genome browser view of promoter-enhancer interactions for *PDLIM3* (chr4:186,412,307-186,524,847). The top two rows represent the interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks are shown for each. The enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while the promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

F. Genome browser view of promoter-promoter interaction for *NPPA-AS-1*, *NPPA* and *NPPB*. The top two rows represent the interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks are shown for each. Enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

Figure 3. DCM-Enriched Enhancer/Promoter Connectome Contributes to DCM-Specific Transcription.

A. Heatmap showing the intensity of differential H3K27ac loops with differential loop anchors (H3K27ac signal) among 10 DCM and 10 NF heart samples.

B. Normalized expression values of the genes with DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops (DCM-enriched anchors). Data were analyzed by Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction.

C. Normalized expression values of the genes with NF-enriched H3K27ac loops (NF-enriched anchors). Data were analyzed by Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction.

D. Network representation of functional enrichment of the genes with DCM-enriched H3K27ac loops (DCM-enriched anchors). Functional enrichment was done using the ToppFun application. Orange nodes represent DCM-enriched genes, while the different colored rectangles represent enriched terms. Only select enriched terms are shown here. Network was generated using the Cytoscape application.

E. Browser screenshot showing *TBX5* with DCM-enriched E-P interactions (chr12:114,796,944-114,849,663). The top two rows represent the interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks are shown for each. Enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

F. Browser screenshot showing *NHLRC2* with DCM-enriched E-P interactions (chr10:115,599,298-115,881,882). The top two rows represent the interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks

are shown for each. Enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

G. Browser screenshot showing *MYOZ2* with DCM-enriched E-P interactions (chr4:120,044,243-120,139,568). The top two rows represent the interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks are shown for each. Enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

H. Browser screenshot showing *VCL* with DCM-enriched E-P interactions (chr10:75,750,513-75,829,130). The top two rows represent the interactions in DCM hearts, and the bottom two rows represent those in NF hearts. The HiChIP loops and ChIP-seq peaks are shown for each. Enhancer is highlighted in the green box, while promoter is highlighted in the orange box.

Figure 4. DCM-Enriched Enhancer/Promoter Connectome Largely Resides in Conserved Higher-Order Chromatin Architectures and Pre-accessible Chromatin Sites Bound by Reactivated HAND1.

A. Knight–Ruiz (KR) matrix–balanced interaction maps of merged DCM (top) and NF (bottom) *in situ* Hi-C valid pairs for DCM and NF hearts at 250 kb and 25 kb resolution. The top tracks indicate the A (yellow) and B (blue) compartments.

B. Proportion of genome switching between the A and B compartments (A-to-B (13.3%), B-to-A (9.4%), stable A (39.7%), and stable B (36.3%)) from NF to DCM hearts.

C. Expression bias in A-to-B and B-to-A compartment-switched genomes in DCM hearts normalized to expression in NF hearts. Data were analyzed by Mann-Whitney U test.

D. Venn diagram showing the number of TADs in DCM hearts (n=1,428) and NF hearts (n=1,114) and in both (n=4,803).

E. Correlation of insulation scores for DCM and NF hearts; the Pearson correlation coefficient (R) is indicated (r=0.97).

1 **F.** A/B compartment, Hi-C contact map (heatmap) and corresponding insulation profiles for
2 DCM and NF hearts in the genomic region (ch14:96,701,308-105,921,602).

3 **G.** Aggregation plot of DCM (n=20) and NF (n=20) normalized ATAC-seq signals \pm 3 kb
4 centered on ATAC-seq peaks overlapped with DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors. Data
5 were analyzed by Mann-Whitney U test. $p=0.55$.

6 **H.** Transcription factor motif scan for DCM-enriched loop anchors. The top 5 transcription
7 factors are shown along with their motifs, p-values and percentage of regions.

8 **I.** Aggregation plot of normalized HAND1 ChIP-seq signals \pm 3 kb centered on the ATAC-seq
9 peaks overlapping with the DCM-enriched H3K27ac loop anchors in DCM (n=4) and NF (n=4)
10 hearts. Data were analyzed by Mann-Whitney U test.

11 **J.** Evaluation of HAND1 expression (normalized to H3 expression) in human non-failing (NF)
12 hearts and failing hearts (DCM) by Western blot analysis.

13 **K.** Evaluation of HAND1 expression (normalized to H3 expression) in mouse cardiomyocytes
14 (CMs) and cardiac fibroblasts (CF) obtained from non-failing hearts (Sham) and failing hearts (8
15 weeks post-transverse aortic constriction (TAC)) by Western blot analysis.

16 **L.** Quantification of HAND1 expression in human NF and DCM hearts. Data were analyzed by
17 Student's *t* test.

18 **M.** Quantification of HAND1 expression in mouse CMs and CFs isolated from Sham and TAC
19 hearts. Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test.

20

21 **Figure 5. Overexpression of *HAND1* Rewires Long-Range Enhancer/Promoter**
22 **Connectome and Transcriptome in Human iPSC-Derived Cardiomyocytes.**

23 **A.** Schematic illustration of the experimental system and strategy to examine the roles of
24 HAND1 in 3D chromatin organization and transcriptional control in human iPSC-derived
25 cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CM).

1 **B.** Venn diagram showing the number of H3K27ac HiChIP loops gained, lost and constant in
2 *HAND1*-overexpressing (*HAND1*^{OE}) versus Ctrl hiPSC-CM.

3 **C.** Percentage of gained H3K27ac HiChIP loops, the anchors of which do or do not overlap with
4 *HAND1* ChIP-seq peaks in *HAND1*^{OE} hiPSC-CM.

5 **D.** Aggregation plot and heatmap showing the intensity of *HAND1* ChIP-seq peaks on the
6 gained H3K27ac HiChIP loop anchors (*HAND1*^{OE} versus Ctrl hiPSC-CM).

7 **E.** Correlation of the intensity of *HAND1* ChIP-seq peaks and the intensity of gained H3K27ac
8 HiChIP loops in *HAND1*^{OE} hiPSC-CM.

9 **F.** Expression of genes with H3K27ac HiChIP loops gained, lost and constant in *HAND1*-
10 overexpressing (*HAND1*^{OE}) versus Ctrl hiPSC-CM. Data were analyzed by Wilcoxon rank sum
11 test with continuity correction.

12 **G.** Normalized expression values for genes with gained H3K27ac HiChIP loops in *HAND1*^{OE}
13 hiPSC-CM, the promoter anchors of which connect with different numbers of enhancers. Data
14 were analyzed by Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction.

15 **H.** Functional annotation (RNA-Seq_Disease_Gene_and_Drug_Signatures_from_GEO) for the
16 genes with gained H3K27ac HiChIP loops.

17 **I.** Functional annotation (Mammalian phenotypes) for genes with gained H3K27ac HiChIP loops.

18 **J.** Functional annotation (GO-Biological Process) for genes with gained H3K27ac HiChIP loops.

19 **K-N.** Examples of H3K27ac gained interactions (identified by H3K27ac HiChIP and ChIP-seq),
20 *HAND1* binding (identified by *HAND1* ChIP-seq) and transcription (identified by RNA-seq) in
21 *HAND1*^{OE} versus Ctrl hiPSC-CM.

22

23 **Figure 6. *HAND1* Induces DCM Phenotypes in Human iPSC-Derived Cardiomyocytes and**
24 **Mouse Hearts.**

25 **A.** Experimental scheme for assessing *Hand1* pathogenicity in both human and mouse models
26 with hiPSC-CMs and mouse hearts, respectively.

B. Representative calcium imaging recording traces and calcium transients to electrical pacing at 1 Hz. HiPSC-CMs were transduced with adenoviruses carrying the CMV promoter driving *HAND1* (hiPSC-CM^{HAND1}) or adenoviruses carrying the CMV promoter only (hiPSC-CM^{Null}). F/F₀, peak amplitude relative to baseline fluorescence. Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test. *p<0.05.

C. Experimental scheme for evaluating AAV9-driven *Hand1* overexpression in cardiac morphology and function. *Hand1* under the control of the *cTNT* promoter was cloned into an AAV9 backbone with an EGFP reporter (AAV9-*cTNT-Hand1*-EGFP). Animals were injected intraperitoneally and subsequently analyzed 28 days later.

D. Representative images of CMs isolated from AAV treated hearts under light microscopy and fluorescence microscopy. The mice receiving injection of AAV9-*cTNT*-EGFP were designated as Null and the mice receiving AAV9-*cTNT-Hand1*-EGFP injection were designated as *Hand1*^{OE}.

E. Western blot assay for HAND1 protein expression in Null and *Hand1*^{OE} hearts. Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test.

F-H. Contractility mechanic assay of mouse CMs isolated from Null and *Hand1*^{OE} hearts. (F) Representative images of sarcomere shortening tracing. (G) Cell shortening (%) at 0.5 Hz. (H) Relaxation velocity of sarcomere at 0.5 Hz. Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test.

I-K. Ca²⁺ kinetics of mouse CMs isolated from Null and *Hand1*^{OE} hearts. (I) Representative images of Ca²⁺ transient tracing. (J) Ca²⁺ transient amplitude (Peak h) as indicated by Fura-2 ratio (340/380 nm) at 0.5 Hz. (K) Ca²⁺-decay time (Tau) at 0.5 Hz. Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test.

L. Gross morphology (first row), Masson's trichrome staining of gross morphology (second row), Masson trichrome staining of CMs (third row) and wheat germ agglutinin (WGA) staining (bottom panel) of Null and *Hand1*^{OE} hearts.

M-N. Measurement of heart weight (HW)-to-body weight (BW) ratio (M) and CM size (N) in Null and *Hand1*^{OE} mice. Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test.

O-S. Heart function was analyzed by echocardiography in Null and *Hand1*^{OE} mice. Representative images of M-mode and long axis 2D views (O). Quantifications of left ventricular (LV) ejection fraction (EF)(P), fraction shortening (FS)(Q), LV end-diastolic diameter (LVDd)(R), and LV end-systolic diameter (LVDs)(S). Data were analyzed by Student's *t* test.

T. Network representation of functional enrichment of the upregulated genes in *Hand1*^{OE} cardiomyocytes (vs Null). Functional enrichment was done using the ToppFun application. Orange nodes represent DCM-enriched genes, while the grey colored rectangles represent enriched terms. Top10 enriched terms are shown here. Network was generated using the Cytoscape application.

Figure 7. Model Illustrating 3D Epigenome Organization in Human DCM and How HAND1 Rewires Enhancer/Promoter Connectome to Contribute to Transcriptome Reprogramming and DCM Pathogenesis.

DCM-enriched enhancer/promoter connectome largely resides in pre-established, high-order chromatin architectures and pre-accessible chromatin sites bound by reactivated HAND1. Ectopic expression of *HAND1* in human iPSC-derived cardiomyocytes (hiPSC-CM) and DCM hearts induces a distinct gain of enhancer/promoter connectivity and increases the expression of their associated genes implicated for DCM etiology, subsequently leading to abnormal cardiomyocyte electrophysiology/morphology, cardiac dilation and dysfunction. This illustrates a model whereby a single transcription factor rewires genome-wide enhancer/promoter connectome to drive DCM pathogenesis.

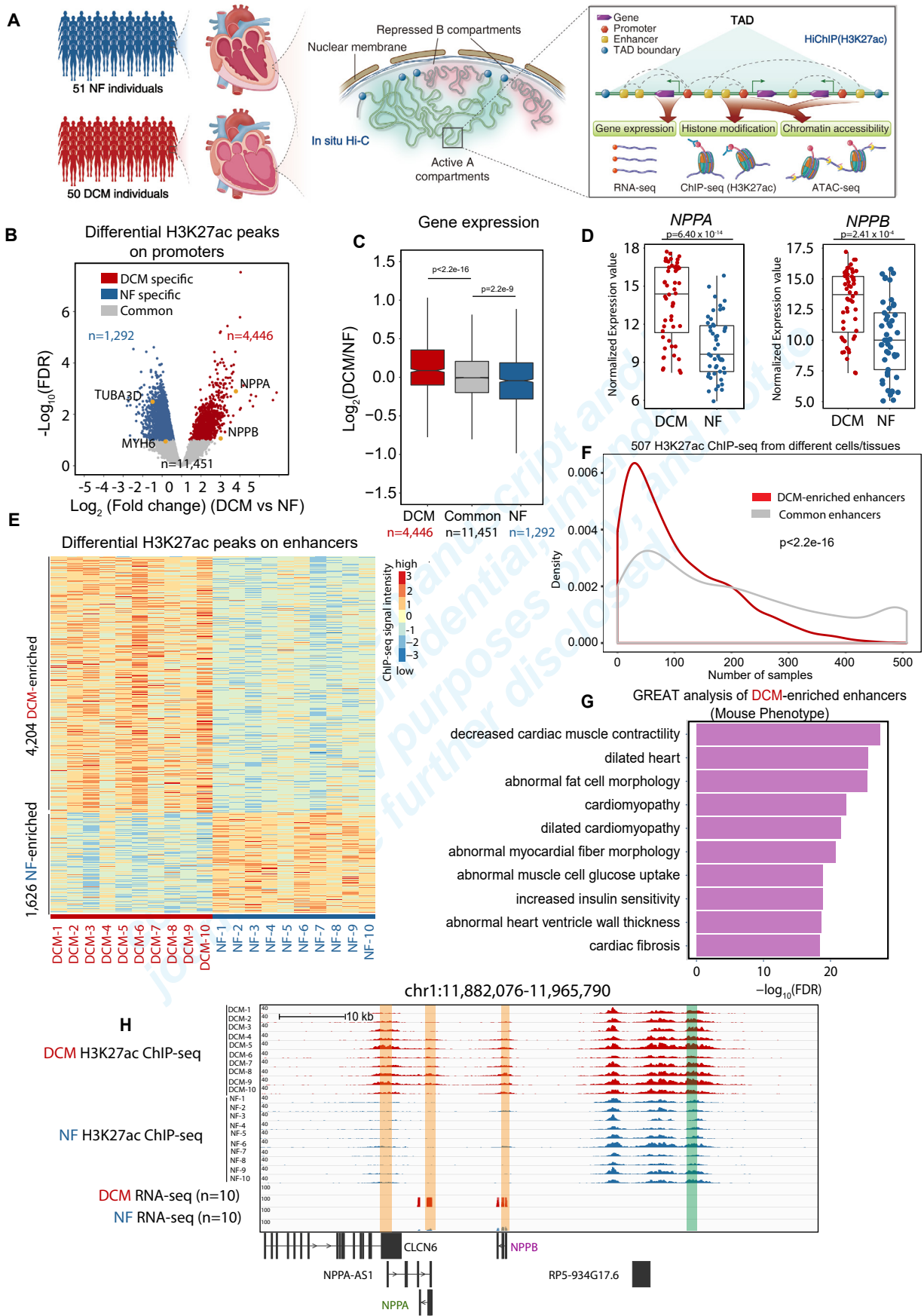
Figure 1

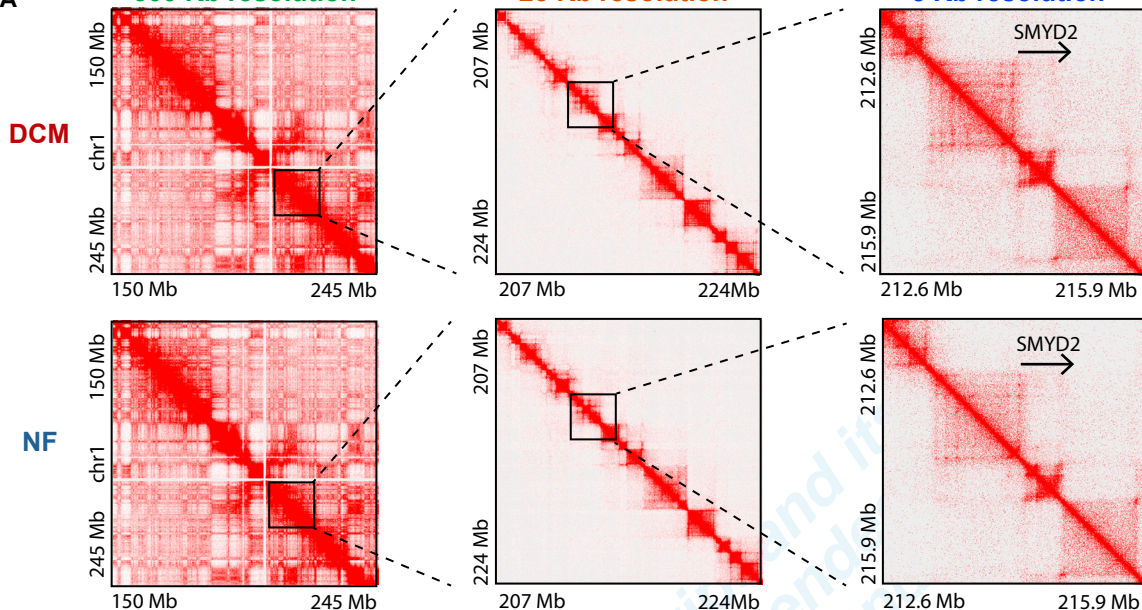
Figure 2

A

500 Kb resolution

25 Kb resolution

5 Kb resolution

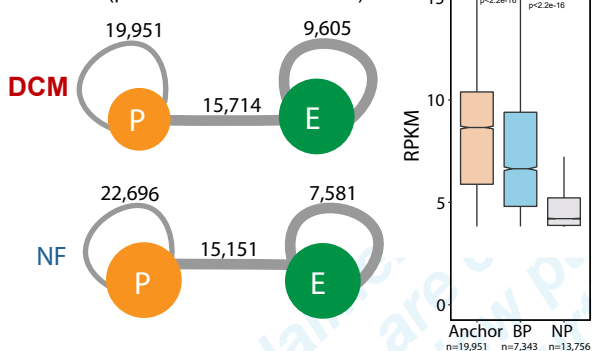


B

Statistics of chromatin interaction (promoters and enhancers)

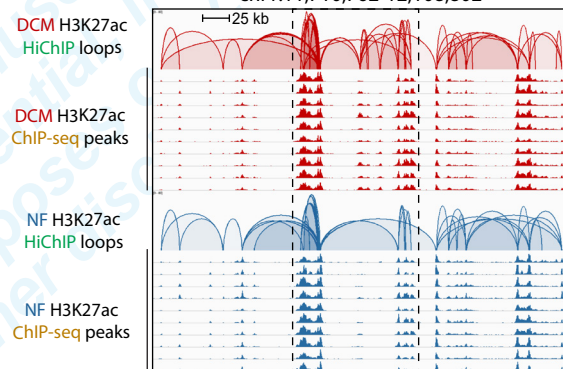
C

Gene expression



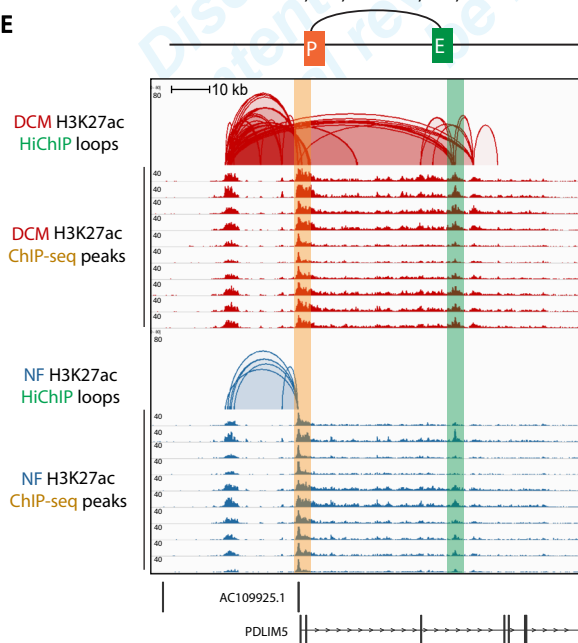
D

chr1:11,710,762-12,108,802



E

chr4:186,412,307-186,524,847

**F**

chr1:11,837,765-11,956,680

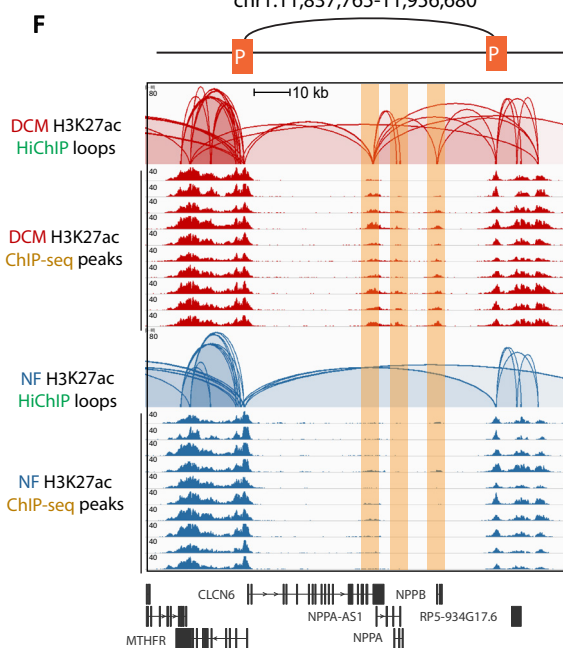


Figure 3

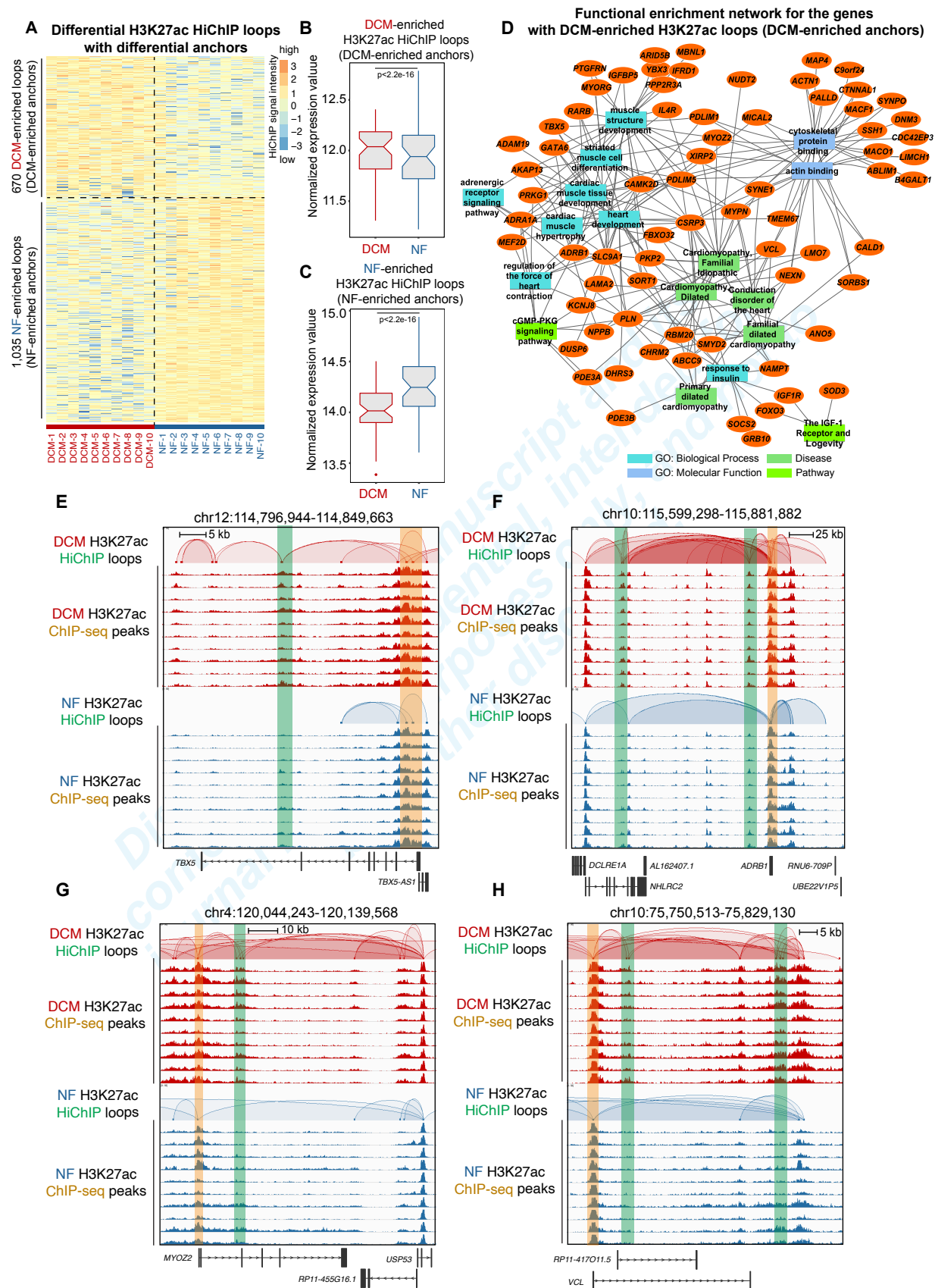


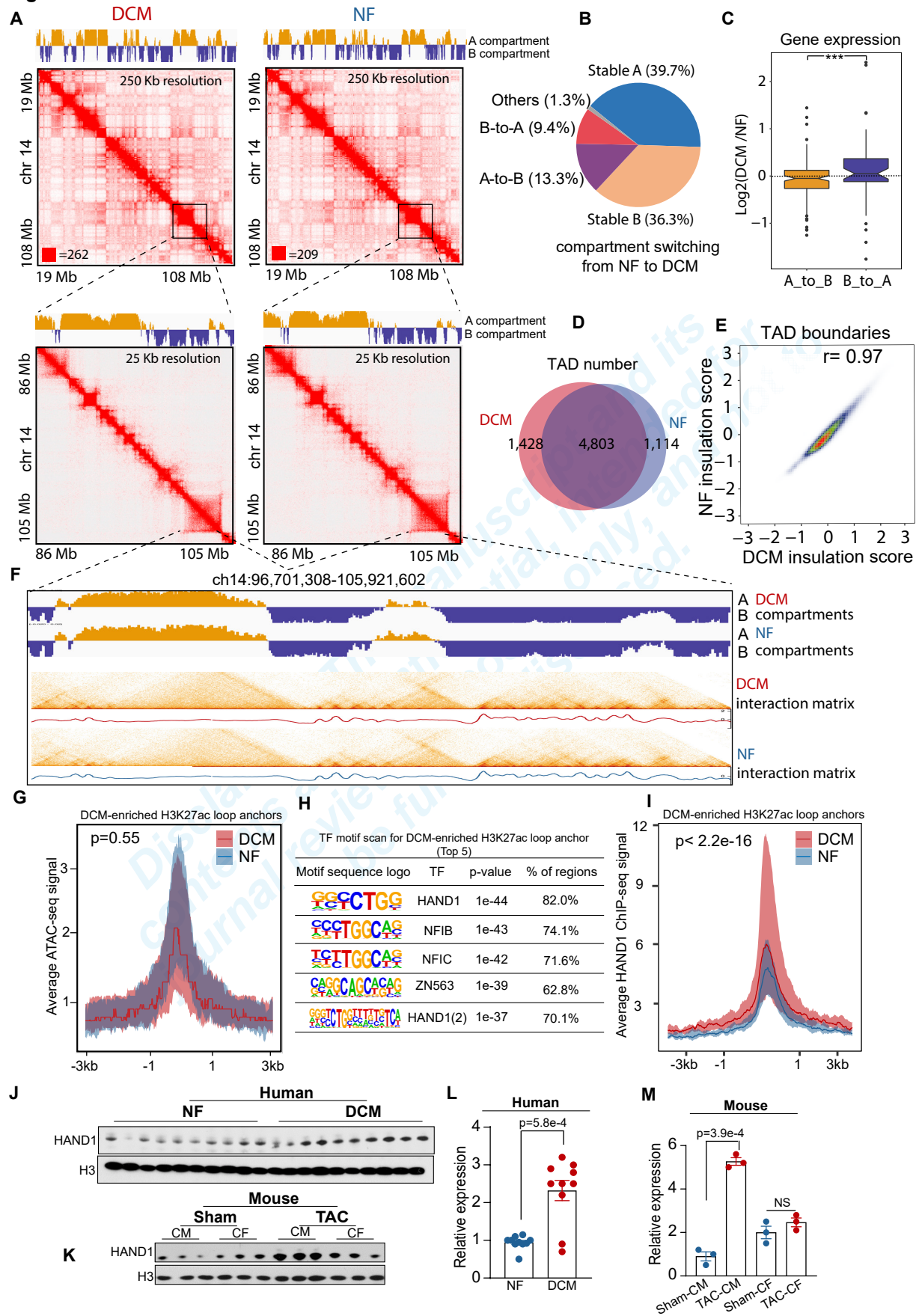
Figure 4

Figure 5

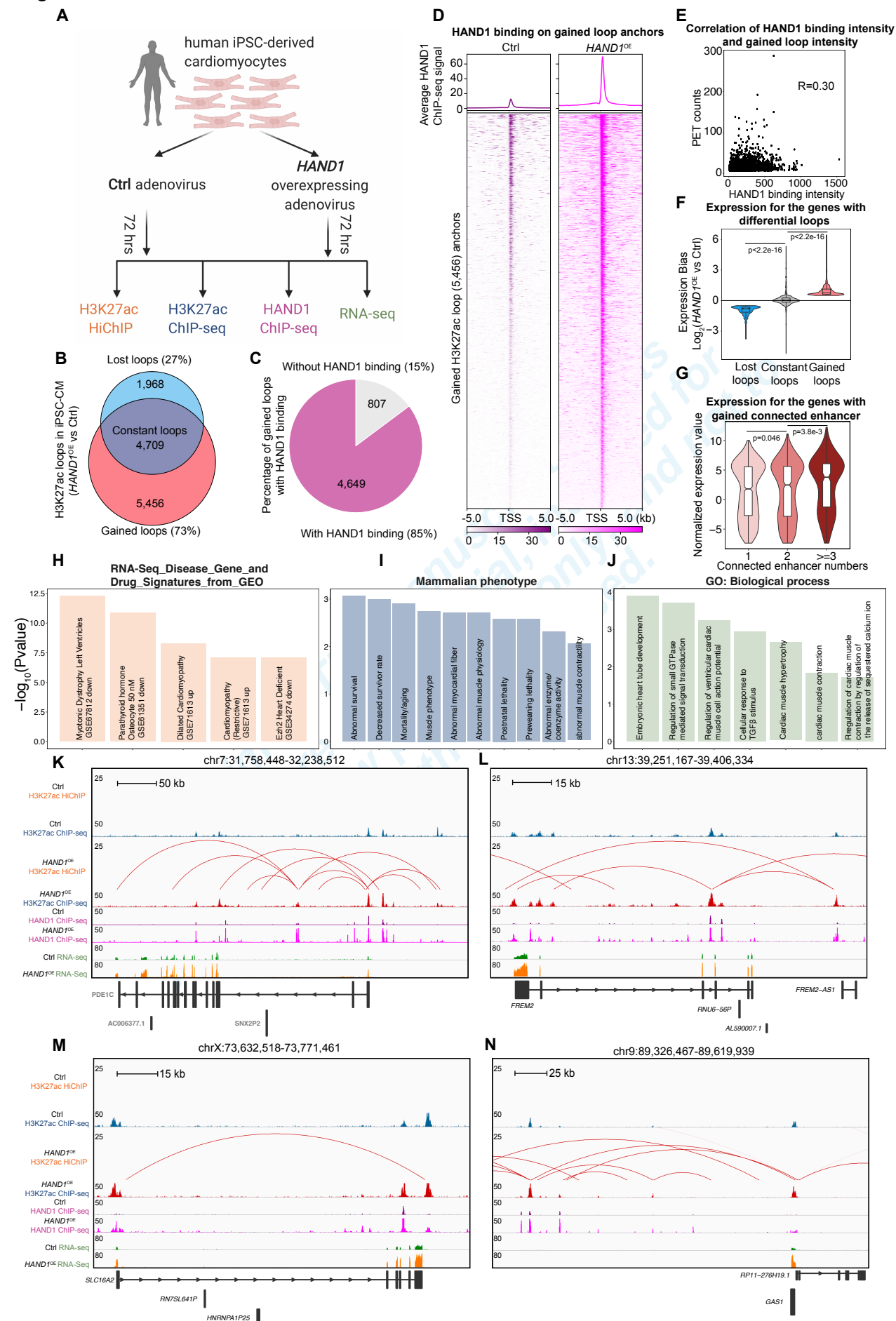


Figure 6

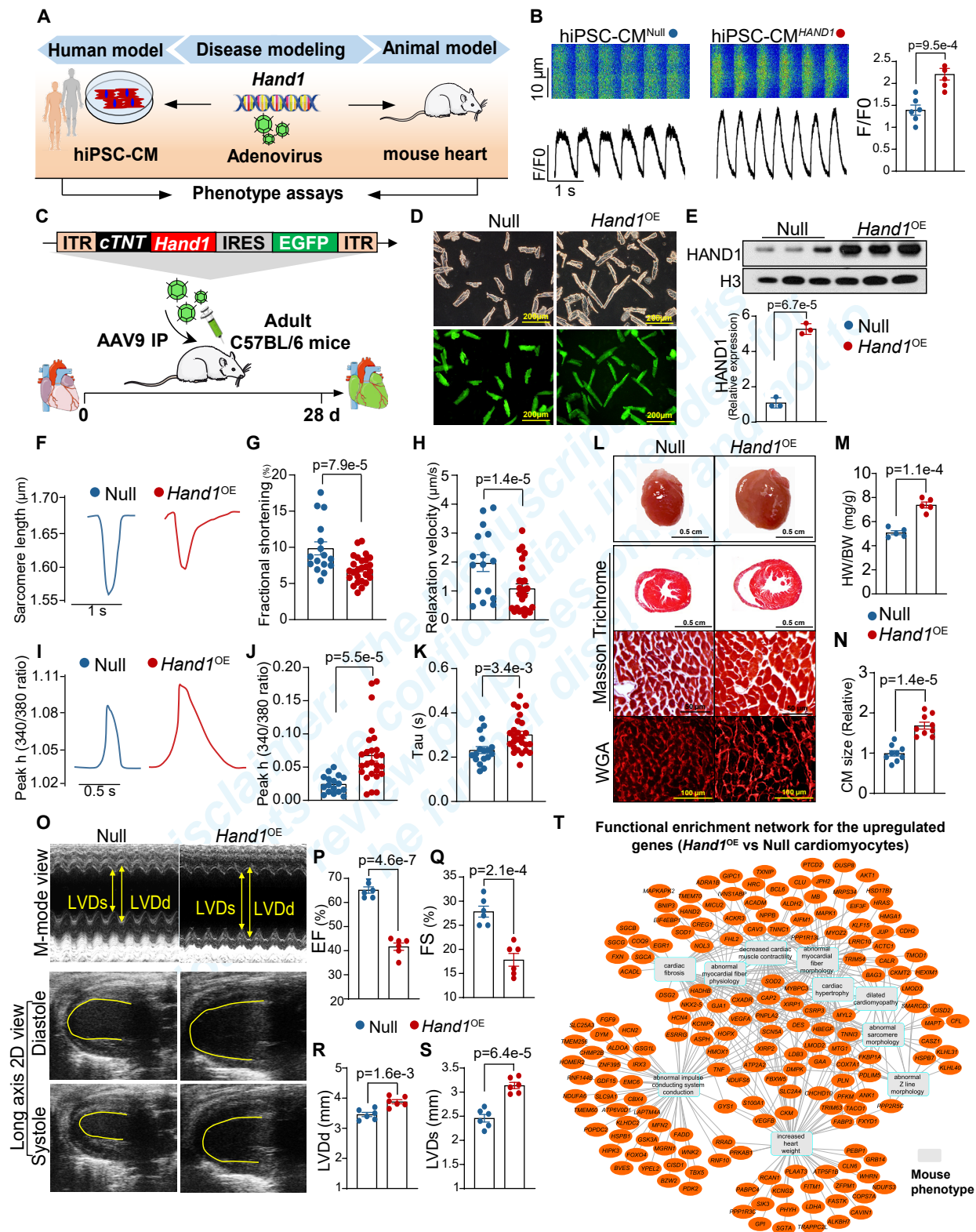


Figure 7

