Gene regulation modules in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

revealed by single-nucleus ATAC-seq

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Summary blurb

This study uncovers cell type-specific global gene regulation in NAFLD

progression, identifying core genes and shedding light on the disease's

molecular mechanisms.

Abstract

We investigated the progression of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)

from fatty liver to steatohepatitis using single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq on

the livers of rats fed a high-fat diet (HFD). Rats fed HFD for 4 weeks

developed fatty liver, and those fed HFD for 8 weeks further progressed to

steatohepatitis. We observed an increase in the proportion of inflammatory

macrophages, consistent with the pathological progression. Utilizing machine

learning, we divided global gene regulation into modules, wherein

transcription factors within a module could regulate genes within the same

module, reaffirming known regulatory relationships between transcription

factors and biological processes. We identified core genes—central to co-

expression and protein-protein interaction—for the biological processes

discovered. Notably, a large part of the core genes overlapped with genes

previously implicated in NAFLD. Single-nucleus ATAC-seq, combined with

data-driven statistical analysis, offers insight into *in vivo* global gene

regulation as a combination of modules and assists in identifying core genes

of relevant biological processes.

Introduction

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is a continuum of liver abnormalities ranging from non-alcoholic fatty liver (NAFL) to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH), with a global prevalence of ~25% (Friedman et al, 2018). NAFLD can gradually develop from fatty liver to steatohepatitis, cirrhosis, and eventually, hepatic cancer. There are currently no approved drugs for NAFLD, and existing biomarkers are inadequate. The liver is composed of multiple cell types, including hepatocytes, cholangiocytes, stellate cells, endothelial cells, and white blood cells, each with a distinct role in disease development. Recent single-cell RNA-seq studies have revealed cell type-specific gene expression changes in NAFLD (Ramachandran et al, 2019; Xiong et al, 2019; Chu et al, 2020).

A key upstream event in gene expression regulation is the binding of transcription factors (TFs) to DNA. ChIP-seq/Cut&Run/Cut&Tag assays can be performed on single cells but they can only measure the binding of one type of TF at a time (Salma et al, 2023). In contrast, single-nucleus ATAC-seq (snATAC-seq) detects open chromatin sites, where TFs with DNA binding motifs that match the site sequence are presumed to bind, thereby providing information on the binding of all types of TFs simultaneously. Using snATAC-seq data, recent algorithms have inferred gene regulation by TFs, forming a gene regulatory network (GRN) for individual cell types (Fleck et al, 2022; González-Blas et al, 2022; Jiang et al, 2022; Kamal et al, 2022; Kartha et al, 2022; Wang et al, 2022; Kamimoto et al, 2023). Unlike previous studies which focused on identifying the wiring of the GRN, our aim is to partition the entire GRN and extract major components that correspond to biological processes occurring in the relevant cells, such as lipid metabolism or inflammation in NAFLD. The binding of TFs to chromatin could not be analyzed in previous single-cell analyses of NAFLD, as they were all based on RNA-seq and not ATAC-seq.

The cell type composition of tissues can change during disease
development in various diseases and will impact the outcome. While cell type
counting of solid tissue has become feasible through single-cell assays, these
assays are still expensive. Instead, deconvolution, which is the statistical
inference of the cell type composition of tissue samples assayed in bulk, has
been utilized for transcriptome and DNA methylation assays (Teschendorff &
Zheng, 2017; Sturm et al, 2019). For ATAC-seq, Li and associates (Li et al,
2020) previously proposed an algorithm for deconvolution, but no
experimental validation with single-cell data has been conducted.

Aiming to understand the cell type composition and global TF
regulation in NAFLD development, we performed single-nucleus and bulk
ATAC-seq on the liver of rats fed or withdrawn from a high-fat diet (HFD). We
first analyzed the cell type composition in the liver and the gene expression
separately by cell type. Then, to investigate global TF regulation in each cell
type, we developed a novel statistical method that decomposes TF regulation
into major modules, each being characterized by biological processes. We
also developed a statistical method to detect core genes for the individual
biological processes. Taking snATAC-seq data from an *in vivo* experimental
model as input, our data-driven reductionist workflow proceeds from global
TF regulation to TF regulation modules, then to biological processes, and
finally to core genes. The core genes thus identified significantly overlap with
previously known NAFLD genes, thereby providing experimental validation for
our newly developed statistical methods.
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Results
Cell type composition of the liver
Spontaneously Hypertensive Rats (SHR) fed a HFD for 4 weeks developed
fatty liver, and those maintained on HFD for 8 weeks further developed
inflammation and premature fibrosis (steatohepatitis) (Figure 1A; Table S1).

Under the washout condition, where 4 weeks of HFD is followed by 4 weeks

of a normal diet, fatty liver was partially ameliorated. Along with control rats

fed only a normal diet, five dietary conditions were examined.

In order to catalog cell types in the liver, we performed snATAC-seq

on one animal per dietary condition, totaling five animals. We obtained a total

of 14,486 nuclei (~3000 per sample), which were grouped into 16 clusters

based on the similarity of chromatin opening. Hepatocytes (seven clusters),

endothelial cells (three clusters), stellate cells (two clusters) and white blood

cells (four clusters) were clearly separated (Figures 1B and 1C). The clusters

for white blood cells corresponded to inflammatory macrophages, non-

inflammatory macrophages, T cells and NK cells combined, and B cells.

Cholangiocytes were included in the hepatocyte clusters, while neutrophils

and Kupffer cells were grouped into the macrophage clusters.

To measure the changes in cell type population through dietary

intervention, we performed bulk ATAC-seq on four animals per condition,

totaling 20 animals. Using snATAC-seq as reference, we inferred the cell type

composition in the bulk ATAC-seq samples by deconvolution. Beforehand,

using the five samples assayed in both single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq, the

accuracy of deconvolution for ATAC-seq was validated (Figure 1D). The

difference between the inferred proportion and the true proportion counted

by snATAC-seq had a mean of zero and a standard deviation of 0.035,

indicating high accuracy. Considering that we used four animals per condition,

the standard error was calculated as 0.018. Compared to the normal diet

condition, hepatocytes significantly decreased after 8 weeks of HFD (Figure

1E). Inflammatory macrophages largely increased after 4 weeks of HFD and

further increased after 8 weeks of HFD. Non-inflammatory macrophages also

increased after 8 weeks of HFD. Additionally, B cells increased under HFD

conditions. Consistent with our findings, previous studies on HFD-induced

NAFLD animal models reported an increase in liver-resident macrophages

(Kiki et al, 2007), recruitment of monocyte-derived macrophages (Zhong et

al, 2019), and an increase in intrahepatic B cells (Zhang et al, 2016; Barrow

et al, 2021). Under the washout condition, the cell type composition reverted

to the same as the normal diet condition. Having elucidated how the quantity

of cell types changed through dietary intervention, we next investigate the

qualitative change.

Differential gene expression under HFD in each cell type

We analyzed cell type-specific differential gene expression by comparing

nuclei of the same cell type across different dietary conditions (Table S2;

Dataset S1). Hereafter, clusters for inflammatory and non-inflammatory

macrophages are combined and referred to as the macrophage cell type. T

cells, NK cells, and B cells were not included in the analysis due to the limited

number of nuclei. The expression level of a gene in a nucleus was quantified

as a score based on chromatin opening in the gene body and its vicinity. The

biological processes characteristic of the differentially expressed genes were

cell type-dependent (Figure 2). Steroid metabolism and fatty acid metabolism

genes were expressed in hepatocytes differently under HFD and washout

compared with the normal diet. As for inflammation genes, their expression

scores altered in macrophages after 4 weeks of HFD and washout.

Inflammation genes and apoptosis genes were expressed in hepatocytes

differently after 8 weeks of HFD. Genes related to the actin filament-based

process were expressed in stellate cells differently after 8 weeks of HFD.

Conventional differential gene expression analysis using bulk tissue

samples has limitations, including the difficulty of detecting 1) changes in

minor cell types, 2) changes in a cell type with low basal gene expression

relative to other cell types, and 3) concurrent changes in gene expression

and cell population that mutually cancel out, for example, downregulated

genes in a cell type that is increasing in population. We cross-checked cell

type-specific differential gene expression with bulk tissue transcriptome

analysis for the comparison between the 4 weeks of HFD and the normal diet.

We found the results to replicate under the abovementioned limitations

(Figure S1). Differential gene expression was replicated in hepatocytes, but

to a lesser degree in minor cell types. For macrophages, whose proportion

increased after 4 weeks of HFD, the upregulated genes were replicated in

bulk experiments but the downregulated genes were not.

Major modules of TF regulation and associated biological processes

To elucidate the global picture of TF regulation, we inferred the regulatory

impact of all TFs on all genes and extracted major modules from these

regulatory relationships. The genome-wide binding of a TF in a nucleus was

quantified as a score based on the enrichment of the TF's motif in the open

chromatin. Utilizing snATAC-seq, we quantified in all nuclei of each cell type

(from rats under all dietary conditions) the genome-wide binding of TFs and

the expression of genes, and inferred the regulation of the latter by the

former by applying machine learning. The inferred impact of a TF on a gene

was represented as a fractional number, corresponding to the weight of a GRN

edge connecting the TF to the gene.

The regulatory relationships were subsequently divided into modules.

A module comprises a subset of TFs and a subset of genes, such that TFs

within a module regulate genes within the same module but do not regulate

genes belonging to other modules. In hepatocytes, we identified four modules

(Figure 3A). By themselves, modules are simply a grouping of TFs/genes

detected by machine learning and carry no inherent biological meaning on

their own. We applied gene set enrichment analysis to the genes within a

module, without using the information on TFs, to identify biological processes

that characterize each module (Figure 3B). In the following, we describe the

modules for hepatocytes, endothelial cells (Figure 4), stellate cells (Figure 5),

and macrophages (Figure 6). If a biological process was assigned to a module,
we sought literature that supports the regulation of the biological process by
the TFs within the module. The discovered linkages between the TFs and
biological processes found support in the literature for five of the seven
identified modules, suggesting the validity of our module discovery algorithm.

Module 1 of hepatocytes was characterized by the binding of STAT
family TFs (namely, STAT5B, STAT4 and STAT3) and by genes for steroid
metabolism.

Module 2 of hepatocytes, Module 1 of endothelial cells, and Module 1
of macrophages were characterized by the binding of AP-1 family TFs (namely,
FOS, JUND, BACH1 and BACH2), SMARCC1 and NFKB1, along with genes for
TNFα signaling via NF-κB. AP-1 TFs respond to cytokine stimuli (Hess et al,
2004). SMARCC1 is a member of the SWI/SNF family of proteins, which
function as a helicase and interacts with NF-κB (Zinzalla, 2016).

Module 3 of hepatocytes was characterized by the binding of TCF/LEF
family TFs (namely, LEF1 and TCF7L1) and by genes in the farnesoid X
receptor pathway for bile acid synthesis and genes involved in glutamine
family amino acid biosynthesis. The liver lobule, a unit constituting the liver,
houses a central vein in its core and a portal triad (portal vein, hepatic artery,
and bile duct) in its periphery, with hepatocyte metabolism varying between
pericentral and periportal zones. The glutamine family amino acid
biosynthesis genes include *Glul* and *Ass1*, which are highly expressed in the
pericentral and periportal zones, respectively (Halpern et al, 2017). Moreover,
LEF1 TF binds to β-catenin protein, activating the Wnt signaling pathway (Sun
& Weis, 2011), and liver-specific β-catenin KO mice exhibited defective
cholesterol and bile acid metabolism in the liver (Behari et al, 2010). Wnt-
activated genes are also highly expressed in the pericentral zone, suggesting
LEF1 TF's role in regulating bile acid metabolism and zonated gene expression
in the liver.

Module 2 of endothelial cells was characterized by the DNA binding of
AHCTF1 (aka ELYS) and ZNF740 and by genes for angiogenesis. AHCTF1 is a
DNA-binding protein necessary for mitosis (Rasala et al, 2006). ZNF740
activates angiogenesis in rat pulmonary artery endothelial cells (Yu et al,
2018).

Module 1 of stellate cells was characterized by SOX9 TF binding and
genes involved in the semaphorin-plexin signaling pathway.

Module 2 of macrophages was characterized by the binding of Maf
family TFs (namely, MAFA, MAFB and MAFG) and by genes for complement
system activation. In *Mafb*-deficient macrophages of mice, C1q production
decreased (Tran et al, 2017).

Module 3 of macrophages was characterized by the binding of IRF
family TFs (namely, IRF1, IRF2 and IRF7), which regulate immune responses,
and by genes associated with angiogenesis. IRF1 contributes to the
commitment of pro-inflammatory M1 macrophages, which produce
angiogenic stimulators (Chistiakov et al, 2018).

Core genes in specific biological processes
In the previous section, we discovered major modules of TF regulation and
searched databases, such as Gene Ontology, for biological processes
characterizing these modules. We defined a biological process by its
constituent genes, terming them as a gene set (GS). A GS characterizes a
module if it overlaps significantly with the genes within that module. Here,
we aim to find "core genes" of a biological process. In preparation, we
compute the activity of a GS in individual nuclei as the "GS activity score."
The score is obtained by averaging the binding/expression scores of the
TFs/genes in the set, or, more precisely, by computing the first principal
component. In hepatocytes, regarding the biological process of TNFα
signaling via NF-κB, the GS activity score was the highest in nuclei from 8

weeks of HFD (Figure 7A, top panel).

Core genes are those central to the GS in terms of two connections:

co-expression and protein-protein interaction. For co-expression, we first

compute the correlation coefficient between the GS activity score and the

expression score of a gene (or the binding score of a TF). A core gene is

required to have a high absolute value of this correlation coefficient.

Furthermore, the total amount of protein-protein interactions between the

gene and the GS should be high. Consequently, by plotting the correlation

coefficient on the horizontal axis and the total protein-protein interactions on

the vertical axis, core genes are expected to appear in either the top left or

top right corner. This approach can be used to prioritize known genes in the

target GS (Figure 7A, middle panel), and discover novel genes not included

in the GS (Figure 7A, bottom panel). In the following, we will explore some

of the biological processes identified in the previous section.

In hepatocytes, the GS activity score for TNFα signaling via NF-κB

(Figure 7A) was the highest after 8 weeks of HFD. TFs that had positively

correlated binding scores and abundant protein-protein interactions included

FOS/JUN and NFKB1/RELA. The positively correlated core genes were *Tnf*,

Nfkb1, *Bcl2l1* and *Il1r1*. The negatively correlated core gene was *Cxcl12*.

In endothelial cells, the GS activity score for TNFα signaling via NF-

κB (Figure 7B) was higher under HFD conditions. The positively correlated

core genes were *Socs3* and *Pecam1*. The negatively correlated core genes

were *Tlr2*, *Irs2*, *Tlr4*, *Il15*, *Ccr5* and *Cxcr4* (receptor for the chemoattractant

CXCL12 (Salcedo et al, 1999)).

In macrophages, the GS activity score for TNFα signaling via NF-κB

(Figure 7C) was higher after 4 weeks of HFD. TFs that had positively

correlated binding scores and abundant protein-protein interactions included

JUN and KLF6. The positively correlated core genes were *Cd44*, *Fn1* and *Cxcr4*.

KLF6 regulates the switching of macrophages between pro- and anti-

inflammatory states (Date et al, 2014). In accordance, *Lyz2* and *Marco*,
marker genes for inflammatory and non-inflammatory macrophages,
respectively, showed a correlation of 0.39 and −0.49, with KLF6 binding in
our single-nucleus data.

In hepatocytes, the GS activity score for steroid metabolism (Figure
S2A) was the highest after 8 weeks of HFD and to a lesser degree after 4
weeks of HFD. The positively correlated core genes included *Abcg1*, *Abca1*
and *Scd*. The negatively correlated core genes included *Sqle*, *Hmgcr*, *Apoa1*,
Sult2a1, *Acox2* and *Alb*. Among the 15 cytochrome P450 genes showing a
strong negative correlation (correlation less than −0.3 and protein-protein
interactions within the top 5%), 13 were oxidoreductases of EC 1.14.14.1.
For reference, we labeled the binding of steroid sensing TFs, NR1H2/3 (aka
LXRα/β), SREBF1 and SREBF2, which were negatively correlated with the GS
expression.

To investigate lobular zonation genes in hepatocytes, the GS was
taken from the list of zonation genes in normal mice (q-value < 10^{-6} in Table
S3 in (Halpern et al, 2017)). The GS activity score showed a modest
difference between dietary conditions (Figure S2B), aligning with the concept
that zonation is a normal phenomenon unrelated to NAFLD. When classified
by the correlation with the GS activity score, the genes with a correlation
coefficient >0.3 were all pericentral and those with a correlation coefficient
<−0.3 were all periportal, showing that the GS activity score successfully
rediscovered the polarity of zonation.

In stellate cells, the GS activity score for semaphorin-plexin signaling
was higher at 8 weeks of HFD (Figure S2C). The positively correlated core
gene was *Nrp2*. The negatively correlated core genes were *Nrp1*, *Plxnd1*,
semaphorin genes (*Sema3d*, *Sema3e* and *Sema6d*) and *Ntn1*.

Discussion

By performing single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq on the liver of rats fed or withdrawn from HFD, we studied the transition in cell type composition of tissues and cell type-specific gene regulation in a rat model of NAFLD. The accuracy of ATAC-seq-based deconvolution was validated and utilized to analyze cell type composition. In accordance with the pathological progression from fatty liver to steatohepatitis that occurred between 4 and 8 weeks of the HFD intervention in our rat model, the proportion of inflammatory macrophages dramatically increased. In contrast, after 8 weeks of HFD, the proportion of hepatocytes substantially decreased. In the washout condition, where 4 weeks of HFD was followed by 4 weeks of a normal diet, the cell type composition reverted to a state similar to that of rats solely fed with the normal diet.

From the global analysis of TF binding and gene expression in single nuclei, we identified major modules of TF regulation (Figure 8), which could be shared among different cell types or be specific to certain cell types. One module shared among hepatocytes, endothelial cells, and macrophages was characterized by the binding of AP-1 TFs and a biological process of TNFα signaling via NF-κB associated with core genes that appear to be cell type-specific. For many of the modules identified, TFs within a given module were known to regulate biological processes assignable to the genes in the same module, thereby supporting the validity of our module discovery algorithm. Lastly, for the biological processes that unveiled in the TF regulation analysis, by incorporating known protein-protein interactions, we could identify core genes, many of which overlap with genes previously implicated in NAFLD (see below).

We hypothesized that the gene regulatory machinery of a cell is modular and some of the modules would become active when perturbed by HFD. For analogy, a car consists of many machinery parts, and on a cold

sunny day the engine and air conditioning are active but the wiper is not. To
discover gene regulatory modules responsive to an HFD stimulus, we
conducted an integrative analysis of TF binding and gene expression in nuclei
derived from rats subjected to varying dietary conditions. In each cell type,
we applied machine learning to decompose the global variation of TF
regulation into major modules, where the TFs within a given module appear
to regulate the genes within the same module. In the modules identified as
such, the TFs and the function of regulated genes agree with current
literature: e.g., the AP-1 TFs that regulate inflammation genes (Module 2 of
hepatocytes, Module 1 of endothelial cells and Module 1 of macrophages) are
known to respond to cytokine stimuli (Hess et al, 2004), and LEF1 that
regulates zonation (Module 3 of hepatocytes) is known to activate Wnt
signaling (Sun & Weis, 2011). Previous snATAC-seq studies have
characterized the difference between cell types (Cusanovich et al, 2018)
using TF binding. In contrast, we illustrated how TFs control the states of cells
belonging to one cell type (e.g., the hepatocytes with various degrees of
inflammation) possibly in a cell-type specific manner (e.g., a distinct set of
core genes and other target genes associated with AP-1 TFs in different cell
types).

A novel method developed in this article is the calculation of the GS
activity score in single cells to indicate the activity of a GS, as if it were the
expression of a representative gene. In experiments, gene expression can be
directly measured, but the activity of a pathway, although of interest, is not
directly measurable. One approach could be to take the average expression
of genes in that pathway, but this is suboptimal for the following reasons. A
simple average would attribute equal weight to both core and peripheral
genes in the pathway, thereby amplifying noise from the latter. Moreover,
activator and suppressor genes contribute to the pathway in opposing
directions. Rather than a simple average, we adopted the first principal

component to address these issues. The principal component approach was

adapted from the PLAGE program (Tomfohr et al, 2005), which computes

pathway activity scores in bulk tissue specimens. The GS activity score could

improve our understanding of biological processes. For example, *Abcg1* and

Sqle correlated positively and negatively, respectively, with the activity score

for the steroid metabolism pathway (Figure S2A). As this score increased

under the HFD, the GS activity represented by the score presumably functions

in response to the excess cholesterol contained in the diet. Thus, a positive

correlation of *Abcg1* (for lipid efflux) and a negative correlation of *Sqle* (for

sterol biosynthesis) are reasonable. Furthermore, the cell type-specific nature

of the GS activity score could reveal cell type-specific dynamics; the

inflammation process peaked under 4 weeks of HFD in macrophages and

under 8 weeks of HFD in hepatocytes (Figure 7). The GS activity score can

also be applied to single-cell and single-nucleus RNA-seq data.

Another novel method introduced in this article is the identification of

core genes of biological processes. Given a GS comprising known genes for

the process, we identified core genes as those exhibiting a strong correlation

with the GS activity score and possessing abundant protein-protein

interactions within the GS. Evidence for the former was derived from single-

nucleus experiment data, and for the latter from a public database. We

searched the literature for indications that core genes cause NAFLD or serve

as biomarkers for NAFLD, and found such evidence for a significant portion of

the core genes (see below): for the TNFα signaling via NF-κB process, 4 of 5

in hepatocytes, 4 of 8 in endothelial cells, and 1 of 3 in macrophages; for

steroid metabolism 3 of 9 in hepatocytes; and for semaphorin-plexin signaling

3 of 7 in stellate cells. The substantial overlap between our current findings

and known NAFLD genes serves as a proof-of-concept for our data-driven

approach, which utilizes snATAC-seq data from a rat model of dietary

intervention as input, then extracts modules, biological processes, and finally

core genes. Regarding TNFα signaling via NF-κB in hepatocytes, in animal studies, *Tnf* KO mouse was protected from NAFLD (Kakino et al, 2017), *Nfkb1* KO mouse exacerbated NAFLD (Locatelli et al, 2012), and *Il1r1* KO mouse had less hepatic triacylglycerol (Roos et al, 2009). CXCL12 (aka SDF1) induced migration of stellate cells (Sawitza et al, 2009), endothelial cells (Salcedo et al, 1999) and CD4^{+} T cells (Boujedidi et al, 2014). In human biomarker studies, higher circulating TNFα level was associated with NAFLD (Potoupni et al, 2021) and future NAFLD (Seo et al, 2013). In NAFLD patients, soluble IL1R1 was higher (Ajmera et al., 2017). Regarding TNFα signaling via NF-κB in endothelial cells, in animal studies, *Pecam1* KO mouse developed NASH (Goel et al, 2007), whereas *Tlr4* KO mouse (Zhang et al, 2020a) and *Il15* KO mouse (Cepero-Donates et al, 2016) were protected from NAFLD. *Ccr5* antagonist alleviated NAFLD in mice (Pérez-Martínez et al, 2014). Regarding TNFα signaling via NF-κB in macrophages, *Cd44* KO mouse had less liver injury under NAFLD inducing diet, and NAFLD patients had elevated serum soluble CD44 (Patouraux et al, 2017). Regarding steroid metabolism in hepatocytes, *Scd1* KO mouse exacerbated NAFLD (Li et al, 2009), and *Acox2* KO mouse developed NAFLD (Zhang et al, 2020b). NAFLD patients exhibited lower serum APOA1 (Yang et al, 2016; Chen et al, 2022). Regarding semaphorin-plexin signaling in stellate cells, in animal studies, *Nrp2* conditional KO reduced liver fibrosis in mice (Rigotti et al, 2022). *Nrp1* KO attenuated cell motility and overexpression increased motility (Cao et al, 2010). *Sema3e* KO alleviated liver fibrosis in mice (Yagai et al, 2014).

In the pursuit of potential drug targets or biomarkers for NAFLD, we sought proteins whose subcellular localization is extracellular or plasma membrane proteins (Binder et al, 2014) among the genes strongly upregulated under dietary intervention (Table S2) or the core genes positively correlated with NAFLD-related activity. Previous reports on NAFLD biomarkers in humans are cited. For hepatocytes, we identified *Il1r1* (Ajmera et al, 2017),

Il1r2 and *Tnf* (Potoupni et al, 2021). For endothelial cells, *Hgf* was found
(Koutsogiannis et al, 2010; Krawczyk et al, 2017; An et al, 2019). *Pecam1*
was listed for both endothelial and stellate cells. For stellate cells, we found
Faslg (Page et al, 2013) and *Nrp2*. For macrophages, we identified RT1-Db1,
Cd44 (Patouraux et al, 2017), *Cxcr4* and *Fn1*. We also searched DGIdb (2022-
Feb) for existing drugs that could potentially be repurposed, finding
antagonist/antibody/inhibitor of upregulated or positively correlated genes,
Bcl2l1, *Cxcr4*, *Hgf*, *Il1r1* and *Tnf*, and agonist of downregulated or negatively
correlated genes, *Ccr5*, *Cxcr4*, *Tlr2* and *Tlr4* (Table S3). *Cxcr4* was positively
correlated with TNFα signaling via NF-κB in macrophages but negatively
correlated in endothelial cells.

This study has several limitations. Firstly, it was difficult to distinguish
TFs with very similar motifs. A specific TF was presumed to bind a specific
site if the chromatin was open near the site and if the DNA sequence of the
site matched the known TF-binding motif. However, instead, a different TF
with a similar motif could have bound at that location. Secondly, the
interpretation of gene expression requires caution. Gene expression can be
quantified by the amount of either A) mRNA transcription per unit of time, B)
mRNA in the nucleus, C) mRNA in the cell, D) protein translation per unit of
time, or E) protein. Bulk tissue measurements are conducted by ATAC-seq
(A), RNA-seq (C), Ribo-seq (D), or Western blotting (E), while single
nucleus/cell measurements are performed by single-nucleus ATAC-seq (A),
single-nucleus RNA-seq (B), or single-cell RNA-seq (C). While the gene
expression score in this study, which is akin to A, might reflect the state of
gene regulation, it could differ from E, which reflects the metabolic state, and
the fold-change value would differ among these types of gene expression.
Lastly, the TF regulation might differ between rat, mouse and human.

To discover TF modules, we utilized machine learning, the
performance of which can be influenced by the selection of hyperparameters.

If a hyperparameter allows the machine learning model to be excessively
complex and flexible relative to the available data, the model may
erroneously interpret noise as a signal, leading to overfitting. We chose
hyperparameters based on previous empirical validations (for the number of
candidate regulators at each node in GENIE3) or residual error (for the
number of factors in NMF) but we did not extensively explore different
hyperparameters. We evaluated the chosen hyperparameters post hoc.
Across a range of hyperparameters, we randomly divided the hepatocytes
into two halves, performed TF module discovery in each set, and assessed
consistency. We did not observe overfitting for the hyperparameters adopted
in this study (Figure S3). Nevertheless, an assessment using data from an
independent experiment would be beneficial.

By performing single-nucleus ATAC-seq in a rat model of NAFLD and
employing novel statistical methods, we elucidated a global picture of *in vivo*
TF regulation in each cell type as a set of modules and discovered core genes
for NAFLD-relevant biological processes. The core genes can serve as novel
candidates for NAFLD causation and our statistical methods can be applied to
elucidate TF regulation in biological systems beyond NAFLD.

Materials and Methods

Animal experiment

We used male rats of the SHR/Izm strain, which is an inbred genetic model
of essential hypertension. The strain was supplied by Japan SLC. Rats were
weaned at 4 weeks after birth and placed on a normal diet (SP diet, Funabashi
Farm, Japan). According to the study design, adult rats were either
maintained on the normal diet or switched to a high-fat atherogenic diet (24%
fat, 15% protein, 5% cholesterol, 2% cholic acid). Compared to models based
on nutritional deficiencies (such as the methionine and choline-deficient diet)
or chemically-induced models (such as carbon tetrachloride), HFD models

more closely resemble human NAFLD, both pathophysiologically and

phenotypically (Herck et al, 2017). The SHR strain can mimic NAFLD under a

hypertension background. Rats were euthanized under pentobarbital

anesthesia (200 mg/kg via intraperitoneal infusion), and the organs were

excised and immediately frozen at −70 C. We used the liver's largest lobe (left

lateral lobe) for pathology imaging and the right segment of the second-

largest lobe (left median lobe) for genomics analysis. The measured

outcomes were genomic and biochemical assays of the liver, pathology

imaging of the liver, biochemical assays of the serum, organ and body weight,

and blood pressure. The experimental unit was the individual animal. No

animal was excluded during the experiment. The allocation of animals to

dietary conditions was not randomized. While we controlled the dietary

conditions, other potential confounders were not accounted for. Group

allocation was known to all experimenters except for the pathologist, who

examined unlabeled preparations. All animal experiments conformed to the

Guidelines for Animal Experiments of the National Center for Global Health

and Medicine (NCGM), and were carried out in the animal facility of NCGM.

The animal experiments and the protocol were registered and approved by

the Animal Research Committee of NCGM (permission number 21009).

Library preparation and sequencing for snATAC-seq

Nuclei were isolated from flash-frozen liver tissue according to the 10x

Genomics protocol CG000212 for samples m154207 and m154211. For

samples m167108, m167203 and m168101, we used the Minute Single

Nucleus Isolation Kit for Tissues/Cells (Invent Biotechnologies, SN-047). For

each sample, the sequencing library was prepared with the Chromium Next

GEM Single Cell ATAC Reagent Kits v1.1 (10x Genomics, CG000209) and

sequenced on the NovaSeq 6000 sequencer (Illumina).

Library preparation and sequencing for bulk tissue ATAC-seq

Bulk tissue ATAC-seq was performed according to the Omni-ATAC protocol (Corces et al, 2017) using flash-frozen liver tissue. The library was sequenced on the NextSeq sequencer (Illumina).

Measuring triglycerides in liver tissue

Triglycerides in the liver tissue were measured enzymatically using the Adipogenesis Colorimetric/Fluorometric Assay Kit (BioVision, K610-100). Tissue homogenate was obtained by dispersing 10 mg tissue in 1 ml lipid extraction solution under 2200 rpm for 1 min, using a handheld disperser (KINEMATICA, PT 1300 D). For fatty liver tissues, we prepared a 1/3 dilution of the homogenate by adding more lipid extraction solution and examined both the original homogenate and the diluted sample. Triglycerides were measured in a colorimetric assay according to the manual. The triglyceride quantity in mole units was converted to gram units by multiplying by 885.7.

Measuring total cholesterol in liver tissue

Total cholesterol in the liver tissue was measured enzymatically using the Total Cholesterol and Cholesteryl Ester Colorimetric Assay Kit II (BioVision, K623-100). Tissue homogenate was obtained by dispersing 15 mg tissue in 600 ul $CHCl_3$:IPA:NP-40 (7:11:0.1) at 2200 rpm for 1 min, using a handheld disperser (KINEMATICA, PT 1300 D). The homogenate was then centrifuged for 5 min at 15,000 g. Afterward, we transferred 200 ul of the liquid phase to a new tube, dried it with air-flow-in at 40 C for 10 min using a centrifugal concentrator (TOMY Digital Biology, CC-105), and dissolved the dried lipids with 400 ul Cholesterol Assay Buffer. Total cholesterol was measured in a colorimetric assay according to the manual.

Data cleaning for snATAC-seq

Data cleaning was conducted separately for each sample. ATAC-seq fragments were assigned to individual nuclei, and only nuclei of good quality were retained, as described below. In principle, one nucleus and one barcoded bead are contained in one droplet of the Chromium assay, thus ATAC-seq fragments originating from the same nucleus can be identified by the shared unique barcode. Using Cell Ranger ATAC software (version 2.0.0), we mapped the paired-end reads to the mRatBN7.2/rn7 rat reference genome and identified ATAC-seq fragments, which were assigned to unique barcodes.

Occasionally in the Chromium assay, more than one barcoded bead can be contained in a single droplet. In such cases, an excess of ATAC-seq fragments would be commonly assigned to the barcodes. We detected these instances and unified and renamed the barcodes using the bap2 software (version 0.6.7) (Lareau et al, 2020). In subsequent analyses, we could assume that one barcode corresponds to one droplet.

We managed the snATAC-seq data using the ArchR package (version 1.0.1) (Granja et al, 2021) of the R software (version 4.1.1). ATAC-seq fragments from the autosomes and chromosome X were retained. We kept nuclei that had abundant and enriched fragments around transcription start sites (TSS) as follows: ≥1000 fragments within 1 kb of TSS, the proportion of fragments within 1 kb of TSS being ≥7.5% (for samples m154207, m154211 and m167203) or ≥15% (for samples m167108 and m168101), and Tn5 insertions (which occur at both ends of a fragment) within 25 bp of TSS occurring ≥4 times more frequently than insertions at 1900–2000 bp from TSS.

For each nucleus, the proportion of fragment counts from a chromosome (e.g., chromosome 1) is approximately constant, being proportional to the chromosome length. However, this could deviate if a droplet is contaminated by free DNA from broken nuclei (Orchard et al, 2020).

Therefore, we represented the proportion by a matrix indexed by nuclei
(rows) and chromosomes (columns). To standardize the matrix, we
subtracted column-wise averages and divided by the standard deviation. By
taking the sum of the absolute values of a row, we defined the deviation score
of a nucleus. To exclude contaminated droplets, we discarded nuclei with a
score of ≥40.

Since Tn5 inserts less efficiently into nucleosome-associated DNA,
ATAC-seq fragment size distribution exhibits periodicity (Cusanovich et al,
2018). Using the program provided by Cusanovich et al.
(https://atlas.gs.washington.edu/mouse-atac/docs/), we computed, for each
nucleus, the spectral densities for the 100–300 bp range, which corresponds
to the pitch of nucleosomes. To exclude nuclei with aberrant chromatin states,
we discarded those with scores below the 1st or above the 99th percentile.

When two or more nuclei are contained in one droplet, known as a
multiplet, those nuclei share the same barcode, violating the one-nucleus-to-
one-barcode assumption. We removed the barcodes for multiplets in two
ways. First, we inferred the number of homologous chromosomes from which
the ATAC-seq fragments assigned to a barcode were derived. This number is
analogous to ploidy, but differs because the container is a droplet, not a cell.
By counting overlaps among the fragments, the number of homologous
chromosomes was estimated to be either $2n$, $4n$ or $\geq 6n$ using the R package
scPloidy (version 0.3.0). Since the majority of hepatocytes in rat liver are
either diploids or tetraploids (Katsuda et al, 2020) and other cell types in the
liver are diploids, droplets with $\geq 6n$ were regarded as potential multiplets and
discarded. Second, we detected doublets formed by two heterogeneous cell
types using ArchR. Droplets with a doublet enrichment score >10 were
discarded.

Chromatin accessibility peak discovery and nucleus clustering for

snATAC-seq

The Tn5 insertions observed in ATAC-seq occur at open chromatin regions,

such as promoters and enhancers, and the genome-wide profile of Tn5

insertions characterizes the distinct cell types. We performed nucleus

clustering based on the similarity of Tn5 insertions. Firstly, we represented

the Tn5 insertions in snATAC-seq as a "tile matrix": a binary matrix indexed

by tiles of 500 bp width across the genome (rows) and nuclei (columns),

coding for the presence (1) or absence (0) of Tn5 insertions. Using ArchR, we

generated a matrix with 5,230,329 rows and 14,615 columns. Subsequently,

we grouped nuclei based on the similarity of the corresponding columns (see

the following section). For each group, pseudo-bulk ATAC-seq datasets were

generated, and Tn5 insertion peaks were computed using ArchR and the

MACS2 program (version 2.1.4) (Zhang et al, 2008). We identified 599,035

chromatin accessibility peaks with a width of 501 bp. The fraction of reads in

peaks (FRiP) was 0.444 (sample m154207), 0.407 (m154211), 0.541

(m167108), 0.446 (m167203) and 0.557 (m168101). The proportion of

reads that aligned within 50bp of TSS was 0.0286 (sample m154207), 0.0224

(m154211), 0.0604 (m167108), 0.0340 (m167203) and 0.0646 (m168101).

Secondly, we represented the Tn5 insertions as a "peak matrix": a

binary matrix indexed by peaks (rows) and nuclei (columns), coding for the

presence or absence of Tn5 insertions. Again, we grouped nuclei based on

the similarity of the corresponding columns. The nucleus clustering based on

the peak matrix was used in downstream analysis, as it is likely more accurate

than the clustering based on the tile matrix.

Algorithm for dimensionality reduction and nucleus clustering

The tile and peak matrices are large binary matrices indexed by genomic

positions (rows) and nuclei (columns). Since the column vectors are

extremely high-dimensional, we employed dimensionality reduction to

effectively analyze the similarity among nuclei. We used latent semantic

indexing (Berry & Browne, 2005) and singular value decomposition (SVD) for

this purpose. Dimensionality reduction was performed on all samples

combined. As experimental conditions, including the Tn5:DNA ratio, may vary

among samples, we introduced a step for sample batch correction. We applied

the same algorithm to both the tile and peak matrices.

The input binary matrix (f_{ij}) with n columns was treated as the

term-document matrix in the latent semantic indexing literature. We defined

the inverse document frequency (IDF) as

635
$$g_i = \log_2\left(\frac{n}{\sum_j f_{ij}}\right).$$

636 For the *i*-th row of the matrix weighted by IDF, the variance becomes

637
$$g_i{}^2\left(\frac{\sum_j f_{ij}}{n}\right)\left(1 - \frac{\sum_j f_{ij}}{n}\right),$$

638 which ranges between zero and one. To limit noise, we retained rows with an

639 IDF-weighted variance >0.4 for the tile matrix and >0.1 for the peak matrix.

640 We defined the document normalization factor as

641
$$d_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sum_i f_{ij}{}^2}}.$$

We applied sample batch correction independently to the rows of the

matrix. For row i, the normalized elements $d_j \cdot f_{ij}$ vary among nuclei j, but

the average across many nuclei in a sample is anticipated to be approximately

constant. The difference in the averages among samples was regarded as a

batch effect and was corrected by scaling. For nucleus j belonging to sample

s, the correction factor is

648
$$\gamma_{ij} = \frac{\mathrm{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : 1 \le j' \le n\}\big]}{\mathrm{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : j' \text{ belongs to sample } s\}\big]}. \quad (1)$$

649 If the denominator equals zero, γ_{ij} is set as one. The above correction

650 requires no knowledge of cell types. However, if cell type classification of

651 nuclei is available, the correction can be refined. For nucleus j of cell type c

652 belonging to sample s, the correction factor becomes

653
$$\gamma_{ij} = \frac{\text{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : j' \text{ is cell type } c\}\big]}{\text{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : j' \text{ is cell type } c \text{ and belongs to sample } s\}\big]}. \quad (2)$$

As we had no prior knowledge of cell type, we first applied the batch
correction in (1) and then inferred coarse cell type classification. Using the
coarse classification, we applied the batch correction in (2). To avoid the
inflation of γ_{ij} under small denominator, for each nucleus j, we computed the
square of the third quartile of γ_{ij} divided by the second quartile, and imposed
this as the upper limit.

Dimensionality reduction and nucleus clustering were performed in
the following steps:

1. Compute the sample batch correction factor γ_{ij} using equation (1).

2. Compute the matrix $\big(g_i \cdot d_j \cdot f_{ij} \cdot \gamma_{ij}\big)$ and centralize each row by
subtracting the average.

3. Compute the truncated SVD, UDV^T, for the 30 largest singular values
using the R package irlba (version 2.3.3) (Baglama & Reichel, 2005).

4. Take the truncated SVD for the two largest singular values, project the
nuclei to the VD coordinates, and detect and discard outlier nuclei.
Outliers were detected based on the sum of the squared distance to the
five nearest neighbors.

5. Take the truncated SVD for the non-noise singular values, and project the
nuclei to the VD coordinates. In our data, as the 11th and later singular
values bottomed out and the corresponding columns of V appeared
randomly distributed, we took the ten largest singular values.

6. Identify clusters of nuclei by computing the shared nearest-neighbor
graph with the R package Seurat (version 4.0.0) (Hao et al, 2021) and
optimizing the modularity with the Leiden algorithm (version 0.8.4)
(Traag et al, 2019). By merging the clusters, define coarse clustering that
clearly separates in the VD coordinates. In our data, the coarse clusters

corresponded to hepatocytes, stellate cells, endothelial cells and white

blood cells.

7. Compute the sample batch correction factor γ_{ij} using equation (2),

incorporating the coarse clustering of nuclei.

8. Compute the matrix $\left(g_i \cdot d_j \cdot f_{ij} \cdot \gamma_{ij}\right)$ and centralize each row by

subtracting the average.

9. Compute the truncated SVD, UDV^T, for the 30 largest singular values.

10. Take the truncated SVD for the non-noise singular values, and project the

nuclei to the VD coordinates. We took the eight largest singular values.

11. Identify clusters of nuclei through shared nearest-neighbor modularity

optimization.

Cell type assignment for snATAC-seq

For each nucleus cluster obtained above, we assigned a cell type based on

chromatin accessibility at known marker genes. For each cluster, chromatin

accessibility at the TSS and gene body of the genes was visually inspected

using the browser of ArchR. We used the following marker genes in the rat:

● *Alb*, *Apoc3*, *Cyp2e1* and *Cyp2f4* for hepatocyte

● *Epcam* and *Krt19* for cholangiocyte

● *Stab2* for endothelial cell

● *Dcn*, *Des*, *Lrat* and *Acta2* for stellate cell

● *Csf3r* for granulocyte

● *Elane*, *Ly6g6c*, *Ly6g6d*, *Ly6g6e* and *Mpo* for neutrophil

● *Csf1r* for macrophage (including Kupffer cell)

● *Lyz2* for inflammatory macrophage

● *Marco* for non-inflammatory macrophage

● *Cd3g* and *Gata3* for T cell

● *Gzma* and *Prf1* for cytotoxic T cell and NK cell

● *Ebf1* for B cell

Data cleaning for bulk ATAC-seq

In accordance with the ATAC-seq data processing workflow (Reske et al, 2020), we trimmed reads, mapped reads to the reference genome, eliminated mitochondrial DNA reads, subsampled to equalize the library complexity, and removed PCR duplicates.

Inferring cell type composition of bulk tissue samples

We inferred the cell type composition of liver tissue samples by comparing their bulk ATAC-seq data with the reference data generated by snATAC-seq. As references, pseudo-bulk ATAC-seq data of pure cell types were computed from snATAC-seq results. We utilized a combination of several published deconvolution methods. Let the indices be i for a chromatin accessibility peak, j for a cell type, and k for a sample, either assayed in bulk, in single nuclei or both.

By summing the Tn5 insertion counts of snATAC-seq over a_{jk} nuclei of cell type j from sample k, we obtain Tn5 insertion count u_{ijk} at peak i. The counts across all peaks are represented as a vector $\boldsymbol{u}_{jk}$ in bold font, in which the index i is dropped. We quantile normalize the vectors $\boldsymbol{u}_{jk}$ and obtain vectors $\boldsymbol{v}_{jk}$. Although quantile normalization is not a linear transformation, we can regard the total number of nuclei in $\boldsymbol{v}_{jk}$ as

$$b_{jk} = \frac{\sum_i v_{ijk}}{\sum_i u_{ijk}} \cdot a_{jk}.$$

We factorize the number as

$$b_{jk} \approx c_j \cdot d_k,$$

where c_j represents the number of nuclei included in the normalized ATAC-seq library for pure cell type j and d_k adjusts for the experimental batch effect between samples. Specifically, we solve a linear regression whose dependent variable is the logarithm of b_{jk} and independent variables are the indicator functions of j and k, and take the exponential of the obtained

coefficients. For the solution to be unique, we set $d_1 = 1$. We denote C as the

diagonal matrix with c_j on the diagonal. The values of c_j for hepatocytes

were halved compared to the values for other cell types due to the higher

ploidy of hepatocytes.

We used the DeconPeaker software (version 1.0) (Li et al, 2020) to

select the peaks (rows) that distinguish cell types. DeconPeaker chooses

these peaks based on t-tests while minimizing the conditional number. Let

$\widetilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_{jk}$ be the vector truncated from $\boldsymbol{v}_{jk}$ accordingly. The vectors $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{v}}_{jk}$ across the

samples from the same cell type j are approximately equal, and their

average forms the reference vector $\boldsymbol{w}_j$ for chromatin accessibility:

748
$$w_{ij} = \text{mean}_k\{\tilde{v}_{ijk}\}.$$

749   W represents the matrix whose columns are $\boldsymbol{w}_j$. By regarding the samples as

750   replicates, the error variance for peak i was estimated as

751
$$e_i^2 = \text{mean}_j\left\{\text{var}_k\{\tilde{v}_{ijk}\}\right\}.$$

752   For samples assayed in snATAC-seq, we can generate pseudo-bulk

753   chromatin accessibility for mixtures based on W. For sample k, the

754   proportion of cell type j is $a_{jk}/(\sum_{j'} a_{j'k})$, and the mixture becomes

755
$$\boldsymbol{x}_k = \sum_j \frac{a_{jk}}{\left(\sum_{j'} a_{j'k}\right)} \cdot \frac{1}{c_j} \cdot \boldsymbol{w}_j.$$

Here, the vector is scaled to one nucleus (under the experimental condition

of sample $k = 1$). In other words, each element is the average count of Tn5

insertions at the site in one nucleus.

The bulk ATAC-seq results of mixture samples are quantile normalized

and represented as vector $\boldsymbol{y}_k$ for sample k. The elements y_{ik} are taken only

for the peaks i that were selected by DeconPeaker. Five samples were

assayed both in bulk and in single nuclei, yielding vectors $\boldsymbol{x}_k$ and $\boldsymbol{y}_k$.

Although, in principle, the two vectors should be proportional, the ratio y_{ik}/x_{ik}

actually varies by peaks, due to measurement differences between different

assay technologies. Correction of between-peak variability can improve

deconvolution (Jew et al, 2020). We compute the correction factor as

767
$$f_i = \exp\left(\text{mean}_k\left\{\log\left(\frac{y_{ik}}{x_{ik}}\right)\right\}\right).$$

To avoid over-correction, we cap f_i to range between $Q_1{}^2/Q_2$ and $Q_3{}^2/Q_2$,
where Q_1, Q_2, Q_3 are the quartiles of the original value. We represent by F the
diagonal matrix with f_i in the diagonal. After correction, a bulk ATAC-seq
experiment $\boldsymbol{y}_k$ becomes $F^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}_k$. Note that the vector is scaled to one nucleus.

For deconvolution of a bulk sample k, we first compute $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$ that
approximates

774
$$F^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}_k \approx W\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$$

775 under $\theta_{jk} \geq 0$. Using robust linear regression (Teschendorff et al, 2017), we
776 solve

777
$$F^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}_k = W\boldsymbol{\theta}_k + \boldsymbol{\varepsilon},$$

778
$$\varepsilon_i \sim N\left(0, e_i^2\sigma^2\right),$$

where σ^2 is the parameter for error variance. Peaks with large variability e_i^2
are allowed to have a larger variance (Wilson et al, 2019). To avoid over-
correction, we cap e_i^2 to range between $Q_1{}^2/Q_2$ and $Q_3{}^2/Q_2$, where Q_1, Q_2, Q_3
are the quartiles of the original value. The negative elements of the estimate
$\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}$ are set to zero. When computing $\boldsymbol{\theta}_k$, the independent variable $F^{-1}\boldsymbol{y}_k$ was
scaled to one nucleus, and the regressors $\boldsymbol{w}_j$ were scale to c_j nuclei. We
multiply $\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}$ by C and obtain $C\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}$, which is the fractional number of nuclei
from each cell type included per nucleus of sample k, which in spirit is the
cell type composition. Although the sum of the elements in $C\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}$ was
approximately equal to one, in order to be precise, we rescale to obtain the
cell type composition for sample k as

790
$$\frac{C\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}}{\sum_j c_j\widehat{\theta_{jk}}}.$$

Comparing cell type composition among dietary conditions
For each cell type, the imputed composition of bulk samples was compared

among dietary conditions. We performed multiple regression where the

dependent variable was the imputed composition and the independent

variables were indicators of dietary condition, with the normal diet serving as

the reference. We applied Bonferroni's correction for multiple testing of seven

cell types and three conditions (apart from the normal diet), setting the

significance level to $0.05/[7 \times 3]$.

Quantifying gene expression in snATAC-seq

For each nucleus, the expression level of a gene was inferred from the number

of Tn5 insertions in the gene body and vicinity. The targeted biological

phenomenon is the chromatin opening of the gene rather than the quantity

of mRNA in a nucleus or cell. Using ArchR, we computed the Gene Score

Matrix, which is indexed by genes (rows) and nuclei (columns) and represents

the insertion counts. As the matrix is analogous to the count matrix obtained

in single-cell RNA-seq, we applied the library size normalization of the R

package Linnorm (version 2.16.0) (Yip et al, 2017) and the imputation of the

R package SAVER (version 1.1.2) (Huang et al, 2018). Prior to imputation,

47% of the matrix elements were zero, and post-imputation, 0.2% were set

to the lowest value (0.001). We excluded low expression genes, where the

lowest value occurred in ≥1% of nuclei. We took the log2 of the matrix and

applied quantile normalization. The obtained matrix was used for inspecting

cell type marker genes. We applied SVD and subtracted the first two

components from the matrix, which captured the sample batch effect.

Although the two components also captured major cell type differences, we

anticipated that the removal would not harm downstream analysis, which

compares nuclei of the same cell type between samples.

Quantifying TF binding in snATAC-seq

If the DNA sequence of a chromatin accessibility peak includes the motif of a

TF, Tn5 insertion in the peak suggests the binding of the corresponding TF.

For each nucleus, by aggregating over all peaks, we can infer the genome-

wide binding of the TF. For each TF, the enrichment of its motif in the peaks

was quantified by the chromVAR (Schep et al, 2017) deviation z-score in

ArchR. The CIS-BP database of TF binding motifs (Weirauch et al, 2014) was

used. In the same way as we did for the Gene Score Matrix, we applied

quantile normalization to the Motif Matrix and subtracted the first two

components of SVD.

Gene set enrichment analysis of differentially expressed genes under

HFD

To seek which biological processes and/or pathways are differentially

expressed under a particular dietary intervention, we performed gene set

enrichment analysis. The target GSs were obtained from the Molecular

Signatures Database (MSigDB) (version 7.4) (Subramanian et al, 2005) using

the R package msigdbr (version 7.4.1). Among the datasets in MSigDB, we

used Gene Ontology for Biological Process, Hallmark gene sets, KEGG

pathways, Reactome pathways, and WikiPathways. Using the sample batch-

corrected Gene Score Matrix, we compared nuclei from a pair of dietary

conditions, for example, hepatocytes from 4 weeks of HFD *vs.* the normal

diet. The statistical significance of gene set enrichment was tested using the

R package PADOG (version 1.34.0) (Tarca et al, 2012) and by performing

permutations for 10,000 times or 20 times the number of GSs in a dataset,

whichever was larger. Within each dataset, the GSs that attained a false

discovery rate <0.05 were considered statistically significant. Significant GSs

were visually inspected using the EnrichmentMap App (version 3.3.3) of the

Cytoscape software (version 3.8.2).

Discovering major modules of TF regulation and assigning biological

processes

To elucidate a global picture of TF regulation, we first inferred the regulatory

impacts of all TFs on all genes and then extracted major modules of the

regulatory relationships between TFs and genes. For the GRN identification in

the first step, the relationships between TFs and genes were uncovered by

incorporating a third piece of information, chromatin accessibility observed in

snATAC-seq, as in previous algorithms(Fleck et al, 2022; González-Blas et al,

2022; Jiang et al, 2022; Kamal et al, 2022; Kartha et al, 2022; Wang et al,

2022; Kamimoto et al, 2023) (Figure 9). Compared to other GRN

identification algorithms, our TF-gene linking criterion was relatively relaxed,

yielding more biologically relevant modules (Figure S4). For each gene, we

computed its regulatory TFs using the R package GENIE3 (version 1.14.0)

(Huynh-Thu et al, 2010), which implements a random forest algorithm, thus

enabling modeling of nonlinear regulation. The algorithm aims to predict the

expression level of the gene based on the binding of TFs and dietary

conditions. As for the number of candidate regulators randomly selected at

each node of the random forests, we chose the square root of the number of

predictors, as suggested in the GENIE3 publication. GENIE3 quantified the

impacts of regulators by the proportion of explained variance. By combining

the results from all genes, we obtained a regulator-regulatee matrix, in which

the rows correspond to TFs and dietary conditions, the columns correspond

to genes, and an element represents the importance of a TF to a gene.

Next, we applied nonnegative matrix factorization implemented in the

R package NMF (version 0.23.0) (Gaujoux & Seoighe, 2010) to the regulator-

regulatee matrix. We used the Brunet algorithm (Brunet et al, 2004) with 100

random starts. The number of factors was chosen based on the data as the

inflection point of residual error (Hutchins et al, 2008). In the output of NMF,

the membership of TFs (regulators) and genes (regulatees) to a factor was

defined by nonnegative weight. We termed these factors as "modules" of TF

regulation.

We discovered biological processes that characterize a module by

applying gene set enrichment analysis to the genes belonging to the module.

For each TF regulation module, we tested if heavily weighted genes were

enriched in certain GSs. For each GS (see above section), we computed the

P-value and *t*-statistics to test if genes in the given GS had a larger weight

than other genes. To account for multiple testing by the GSs, we performed

100 trials of permuting gene names and computed family-wise error rates.

The GSs that attained a family-wise error rate of <0.05 were considered

statistically significant. The permutation test does not require the assumption

of normality.

GS activity score in single nuclei

To infer the activity of a GS in single nuclei, we computed the "average" score

of TF binding and gene expression, with regard to the TFs/genes included in

the GS. Formally, we defined the weight of TFs/genes as one if it was included

in the GS and as zero otherwise. We then performed SVD for the TF binding

and gene expression matrix incorporating the weight. In the Motif Matrix (see

above), each TF (row) was standardized by subtracting the mean and being

divided by the standard deviation and then multiplied by the weight of the TF.

Similarly, in the Gene Score Matrix (see above), each gene (row) was

standardized by subtracting the mean and being divided by the standard

deviation and then multiplied by the weight of the gene. By stacking the two

matrices, we obtained a large matrix, in which the rows correspond to TFs

and genes and the columns correspond to nuclei. Finally, SVD was applied

and the first right-singular vector was defined as the GS activity score in

single nuclei.

Although the above-mentioned activity score can always be computed,

it would be meaningless if the TFs/genes in the GS were not co-expressed.

Therefore, we conducted a statistical test to exclude such meaningless GS.

We checked whether the TFs/genes in the GS were mutually correlated more

than by chance. We computed the null distribution of the first singular value

by performing 100 trials of the SVD procedure but with the weight of TFs

permutated and the weight of genes permutated and verified whether the

actual first singular value could attain an empirical P-value of <0.05. The

permutation test does not require the assumption of normality.

The principal component approach was adapted from the PLAGE

program (Tomfohr et al, 2005) that was developed to compute the pathway

activity score of a GS in bulk tissue specimens. Instead, we applied it to nuclei.

Compared to the number of specimens in a bulk experiment, the number of

nuclei is much larger, which enabled significance testing by permutation.

Abbreviations

GS, gene set; IDF, inverse document frequency; NAFL, non-alcoholic fatty

liver; NAFLD, non-alcoholic fatty liver disease; NASH, non-alcoholic

steatohepatitis; snATAC-seq, single-nucleus ATAC-seq; SVD, singular value

decomposition; TF, transcription factor

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Data Availability

The single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq raw data generated during this study

are available at DDBJ (DRA DRA014511 and DRA014458 within BioProject

PRJDB13870). Datasets after cleaning are available at figshare (DOI

10.6084/m9.figshare.20236509). The code generated during this study is

available at GitHub https://github.com/fumi-

github/rat_singlecell_liver_ArchR

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All authors have read and approved the manuscript.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

 FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1

Cell types observed in the liver and their composition

(A) Experimental design.

(B) UMAP plot of the observed nuclei. The number of observed nuclei is shown

in parentheses.

(C) Expression score of cell type marker genes in nuclei (vertical axis) is

compared between nuclei clusters (horizonal axis) in violin plots.

(D) Validation of deconvolution based on ATAC-seq using the samples assayed

in both single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq. The true cell type proportion

counted in snATAC-seq (horizontal axis) is compared with the proportion

inferred based on bulk ATAC-seq (vertical axis).

(E) Proportion of nuclei from a specific cell type (vertical axis) compared

across dietary conditions (horizontal axis). The proportion in bulk tissue

ATAC-seq samples was imputed by deconvolution (n=4 samples per

condition). For each cell type, the difference in proportion among dietary

conditions was tested by a linear regression where the dependent variable

was the imputed composition and the independent variables were indicators

of dietary condition. Asterisks (*) indicates statistically significant changes

from normal diet under the significance level of $0.05/[7 \times 3]$, adjusted for

multiple testing.

Figure 2

Biological processes that were differentially expressed under dietary

interventions

The heatmap illustrates whether a biological process (row) was differentially

expressed in a cell type under a dietary intervention compared with the

normal diet (column). The color indicates the statistical significance of the

gene set enrichment analysis: red if significant adjusting for multiple testing,

brown if nominally significant at P < 0.01, light brown if P < 0.05, and white

otherwise.

Figure 3

Major modules of TF regulation in hepatocytes

(A) The central heatmap visualizes the regulatory impact of TF binding

(columns) on genes (rows). While the impact was computed between all TFs

and all genes, only representative TFs and genes are plotted for visibility.

Subgroups of TFs/genes demonstrating strong within-group regulation were

extracted as modules, which are highlighted by red rectangles. The heatmap

at the bottom shows the membership of TFs (columns) to modules (rows).

The heatmap on the right displays the membership of genes (rows) to

modules (columns). The heatmaps only include representative TFs/genes

with membership rankings in the top five and membership weights exceeding

half of the top.

(B) Gene set enrichment analysis for genes belonging to the modules.

Excessive overlap between genes belonging to a module and the GS for a

biological process (horizontal axis) was tested, and the P-value was plotted

(vertical axis). Bars are colored black if statistically significant, adjusting for

multiple testing, and gray otherwise. Biological processes that were

significant for at least one module are shown.

Figure 4

Major modules of TF regulation in endothelial cells

See legend in Figure 3.

Figure 5

Major modules of TF regulation in stellate cells

See legend in Figure 3.

Figure 6

Major modules of TF regulation in macrophages

See legend in Figure 3.

Figure 7

Core genes for the TNFα signaling via NF-κB processes are identified based

on correlation with GS activity score and protein-protein interaction

(A) Analysis in hepatocytes using the GS for TNFα signaling via NF-κB. In the

top panel, the GS activity score in single nuclei (vertical axis) is compared

across dietary conditions (horizontal axis) in violin plots. Box plots within the

violins indicate quartiles. The score distribution under a dietary intervention

was compared to that under the normal diet condition using the area under

the receiver operating characteristic curve: * and ** indicate larger than 0.75

and 0.9, respectively. In the remaining panels, TFs and genes are plotted by

their correlation with the GS activity score (horizontal axis) and the total

amount of protein-protein interactions with the GS (vertical axis). Points

representing TFs/genes having protein-protein interactions within the top 5%

are colored red, while others are colored blue. The TFs/genes in the GS

(middle panel) and not in the GS (bottom panel) are plotted separately; the

former exhibit more abundant protein-protein interactions. TFs are labeled in

all capital letters. The GS was taken from the MSigDB Hallmark database.

Protein-protein interactions were taken from the STRING database (version

11.0).

(B) Analysis in endothelial cells.

(C) Analysis in macrophages.

Figure 8

Modules of global TF regulation, biological processes, and core genes were

detected by the data-driven approach

See text for the full list of core genes.

Figure 9

Criteria for defining GRNs are compared across studies

In all algorithms, the link between TFs and genes is established by

incorporating the information from ATAC-seq peaks. The common

requirement is matching the TF's motif with the DNA sequence at an ATAC-

seq peak.

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Database	Gene set	Hepatocyte			Endothelial cell			Stellate cell			Macrophage		
		HFD 4w	HFD 8w	wash out	HFD 4w	HFD 8w	wash out	HFD 4w	HFD 8w	wash out	HFD 4w	HFD 8w	wash out
GOBP	STEROID_METABOLIC_PROCESS	3	3	3	2	2	2	2	0	2	0	2	0
REACTOME	CHOLESTEROL_BIOSYNTHESIS	2	0	3	2	0	1	3	0	0	0	1	0
REACTOME	REGULATION_OF_CHOLESTEROL_BIOSYNTHESIS_BY_SREBP_SREBF	2	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
GOBP	FATTY_ACID_METABOLIC_PROCESS	3	2	3	0	1	2	2	0	0	2	1	0
GOBP	LIPID_STORAGE	3	3	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	0
KEGG	PPAR_SIGNALING_PATHWAY	1	1	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
H	XENOBIOTIC_METABOLISM	2	0	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
H	TNFA_SIGNALING_VIA_NFKB	1	3	0	2	2	0	0	0	0	2	1	0
GOBP	CYTOKINE_PRODUCTION	1	3	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	3
GOBP	RESPONSE_TO_CYTOKINE	2	3	0	2	0	2	1	1	0	3	0	3
REACTOME	INTERLEUKIN_1_SIGNALING	2	3	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
REACTOME	INTERLEUKIN_10_SIGNALING	1	3	0	2	2	1	3	1	0	0	0	0
REACTOME	INFLAMMASOMES	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
GOBP	ADAPTIVE_IMMUNE_RESPONSE	0	2	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	2	3
KEGG	APOPTOSIS	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
GOBP	ACTIN_FILAMENT_BASED_PROCESS	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1	0	2
GOBP	CELL_MIGRATION	3	3	1	2	1	2	0	3	2	2	2	3
GOBP	INSULIN_LIKE_GROWTH_FACTOR_RECEPTOR_SIGNALING_PATHWAY	1	0	3	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0

Figure 3. Hepatocyte

Figure 4. Endothelial

Figure 5. Stellate

A

B

Figure 6. Macrophage

Figure 7

Figure 8

	Machine learning	Gene set enrichment analysis	Co-expression, protein-protein interaction
Global TF regulation in	Modules (TFs therein)	Biological processes	Core genes

Hepatocyte
- Module 1 (STAT family) — Steroid metabolism — *Abcg1*, *Sqle*
- Module 2 (AP-1 family) — TNFα signaling via NF-κB / Apoptosis — FOS/JUN, *Tnf* / FOS/JUN, *Bcl2l1*
- Module 3 (TCF/LEF family) — Lobular zonation — *Glul*, *Cyp7a1*
- Module 4 — Undetected

Endothelial cell
- Module 1 (AP-1 family) — TNFα signaling via NF-κB — *Socs3*, *Tlr2*
- Module 2 (AHCTF1, ZNF740) — Angiogenesis — *Pxn*
- Module 3 — Undetected

Stellate cell
- Module 1 (SOX9) — Semaphorin-plexin signaling — *Nrp1*, *Nrp2*
- Module 2 — Undetected
- Module 3 — Undetected
- Module 4 — Undetected

Macrophage
- Module 1 (AP-1 family) — TNFα signaling via NF-κB — JUN, *Cd44*
- Module 2 (Maf family) — Complement system — *C1qc*, *Fcnb*
- Module 3 (IRF family) — Angiogenesis — *Pak1*, *Kdr*
- Module 4 — Undetected

Figure 9

IReNA,
SCENIC+

Pando

FigR,
GRaNIE

CellOracle,
dictys

This article

acc. = accessibility

expr. = expression

pos. = position