Single-nucleus ATAC-seq elucidates major modules of gene regulation in the development of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease

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Abstract

Background: Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) develops from fatty liver to steatohepatitis during which multiple cell types may play different roles. Aiming to understand tissue composition of cell types, their gene expression and global gene regulation in the development of NAFLD, we performed single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq on the liver of rats fed with a high-fat diet.

Results: By machine learning, we divided global gene expression into modules, such that transcription factors in a module regulate a set of genes in the same module. Consequently, many of the modules rediscovered known regulatory relationship between the transcription factors and biological processes. For the discovered biological processes, we searched core genes, which were defined as genes central regarding co-expression and protein-protein interaction. A large part of the core genes overlapped with previously implicated NAFLD genes.

Conclusions: Single-nucleus ATAC-seq combined with data-driven statistical analysis help elucidate the global gene regulation *in vivo* as a combination of modules and discover core genes of the relevant biological processes.

Keywords

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease, single-nucleus ATAC-seq, transcription factor, gene regulation

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

Background

Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD) is a continuum of liver abnormalities ranging from non-alcoholic fatty liver (NAFL) to non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH). It has a global prevalence of ~25% [1]. NAFLD can gradually develop from fatty liver, steatohepatitis and cirrhosis to hepatic cancer. No approved drugs are available for NAFLD, and biomarkers are currently insufficient. The liver is composed of multiple cell types, including hepatocytes, cholangiocytes, stellate cells, endothelial cells, and white blood cells, each of which plays a different role in disease development. Recent single-cell RNA-seq studies have uncovered cell type-specific gene expression changes in NAFLD [2].

A key upstream event in gene expression regulation is transcription factors (TFs) binding to DNA. The conventional ChIP-seq assay has a methodological weak point since it is limited to measuring the binding of one TF to bulk of cells. In contrast, single-nucleus ATAC-seq (snATAC-seq) realized simultaneously measuring the binding of all TFs in single cells. In ATAC-seq, open chromatin sites are observable and indicate 1) TF binding at the nearby motifs on the genome and 2) expression of a gene located close to the site. Since previous single-cell analyses of NAFLD were not ATAC-seq but all RNA-seq, TFs binding to chromatin could not be measured.

Tissue composition of cell types changes during disease development in various diseases and affects the outcome. Cell type counting of solid tissue became feasible through the single-cell assay, which is still expensive. Instead, deconvolution, the statistical inference of cell type composition of tissue samples assayed in bulk, has been used for transcriptome and DNA methylation assays [3,4]. For ATAC-seq, Li and associates [5] previously proposed an algorithm for deconvolution but no experimental validation has been done with single-cell data.

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 composition of cell types in the liver and the gene

expression separately by cell type, followed by experimental validation of

ATAC-seq-based deconvolution. Then, to explore global TF regulation in each

cell type, we developed a new statistical method, identifying major modules

with each characterized by a set of biological processes. We also developed a

statistical method to detect core genes for the individual biological processes.

Taking snATAC-seq data of an *in vivo* experimental model as the input, our

data-driven workflow proceeds top-down from global TF regulation to gene,

i.e., step-wise search of major TF regulation modules, biological processes

and core genes. The core genes thus identified overlapped well with the

previously known NAFLD genes, providing experimental validation to our

newly developed statistical methods.

Results

Cell type composition of the liver

Spontaneously Hypertensive Rats (SHR) fed HFD for 4 weeks developed fatty

liver, and those fed 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 rats only fed 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. We obtained a total of 14,486 nuclei

(~3000 per sample), which were grouped into 16 clusters by the similarity of

chromatin opening. Hepatocytes (seven clusters), endothelial cells (three

clusters), stellate cells (two clusters) and white blood cells (four clusters)

separated clearly (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, and neutrophils and Kupffer cells were

included in the macrophage clusters.

To measure the changes in cell type population through dietary

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

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 of the

inferred proportion from the true proportion counted by snATAC-seq had

average of zero and standard deviation of 0.035, indicating high accuracy.

Compared with 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. In

addition, B cells increased under HFD conditions. In accordance, previous

studies of HFD-induced NAFLD animal models reported an increase in liver-

resident macrophages [6], recruitment of monocyte-derived macrophages

[7], and an increase in intrahepatic B cells [8,9]. Under the washout condition,

the cell type composition returned to the same as the normal diet condition.

Here, we elucidated how the quantity of cell types changed through dietary

intervention, and 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 the

nuclei of the same cell type between dietary conditions (Table S2; Dataset

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

are combined and regarded as the macrophage cell type. T cells, NK cells,

and B cells were not analyzed because the number of nuclei was limited. 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 of inflammation genes, the expression

altered in macrophages after 4 weeks of HFD and washout. The inflammation

genes and apoptosis genes were expressed in hepatocytes differently after 8

weeks of HFD. Genes for 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 was limited in detecting 1) changes in minor cell types, 2) changes

in a cell type with a low basal expression of the gene relative to other cell

types, and 3) concurrent changes in gene expression and cell population that

mutually cancel, for example, downregulated genes in a cell type that is

increasing in population. For the comparison between the 4 weeks of HFD and

the normal diet, cell type-specific differential gene expression was cross-

checked with bulk tissue transcriptome analysis, and results were found to

replicate under the limitations mentioned above (Figure S1). The 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 of the regulatory

relation. By snATAC-seq, we measured in all nuclei of each cell type 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

regulatory relation was divided into modules. A module comprises a subset

of TFs and a subset of genes, such that TFs belonging to a module regulate

genes belonging to the same module but do not regulate genes belonging to

other modules. In hepatocytes we obtained four modules (Figure 3A).

Modules are simply a grouping of TFs/genes detected by machine learning

and have no biological meaning by themselves. By applying gene set

enrichment analysis to the genes belonging to a module, but not using the

information on TFs, we searched for biological processes that characterize the

module (Figure 3B). In the following, we describe 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 the literature

that supports the regulation of the biological process by the TFs belonging to

the module. Among five of the seven modules, there was support for the

discovered linkage between the TFs and biological processes, suggesting the

validity of the 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, and by genes for

TNFα signaling via NF-κB. The AP-1 TFs respond to cytokine stimuli [10].

SMARCC1 is a member of the SWI/SNF family of proteins, which function as

a helicase and interacts with NF-κB [11].

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 for the glutamine family

amino acid biosynthesis. Within the liver lobule, a unit that assembles to form

the liver, a central vein is located in the center, the portal triad (portal vein,

hepatic artery, and bile duct) is located in the periphery, and the metabolism

of hepatocyte in between differs between the 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 [12]. In addition, the LEF1 TF binds to β-catenin protein and

activates Wnt signaling pathway [13], and liver-specific β-catenin KO mice

exhibited defective cholesterol and bile acid metabolism in the liver [14].

Moreover, Wnt-activated genes are highly expressed in the pericentral zone.

Thus, LEF1 TF presumably regulates 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 that is required in mitosis [15]. ZNF740 activates

angiogenesis in pulmonary artery endothelial cells of rats [16].

Module 1 of stellate cells was characterized by SOX9 TF binding and

genes 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 [17].

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 for angiogenesis. IRF1 contributes to the commitment of pro-

inflammatory M1 macrophages, which produce angiogenic stimulators [18].

Core genes in specific biological processes

In the previous section we discovered major modules of TF regulation and

then searched across databases, such as Gene Ontology, for biological

processes that characterize the modules. We equated a biological process

with its comprising genes, and defined them as a gene set (GS). A GS

characterizes a module if it significantly overlaps with the genes of the module.
Here, we aim to find "core genes" of a biological process. In preparation, we
computed the activity of a GS in single nuclei as the "GS activity score" by
taking the average binding/expression level of TFs/genes in the set or, more
precisely, the first principal component. In hepatocytes, regarding the
biological process of TNFα signaling via NF-κB, its GS activity score was the
highest among nuclei from 8 weeks of HFD (Figure 7A, top panel).

Core genes are the genes central regarding two connections of the
GS, co-expression and protein-protein interaction. For co-expression, we first
compute the correlation coefficient between the GS activity score and the
expression level of a gene (or the binding of a TF). The absolute value of the
correlation coefficient is required to be large for a core gene. Moreover, the
total amount of protein-protein interactions between the gene and the GS is
required to be large. Therefore, 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 the top left or top right corner. This
approach can be used to prioritize the known genes in the target GS (Figure
7A, middle panel) and to discover novel genes not included in the GS (Figure
7A, bottom panel). In the following, we inspect some of the biological
processes that appeared 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. TF binding that was
positively correlated and had 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 [19]).

In macrophages, the GS activity score for TNFα signaling via NF-κB
(Figure 7C) was higher after 4 weeks of HFD. TF binding that was positively
correlated and had 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
[20]. In accordance, *Lyz2* and *Marco*, the marker genes for inflammatory and
non-inflammatory macrophages, showed a correlation of 0.39 and −0.49,
respectively, 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 smaller than −0.3 and protein-protein
interactions within the top 5%), 13 were oxidoreductase 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 [12]). The GS activity score showed a modest difference between
dietary conditions (Figure S2B), which agrees with zonation being a normal
phenomenon unrelated to NAFLD. When classified by the correlation with the
GS activity score, the genes with correlation coefficient > 0.3 were all
pericentral and those with correlation coefficient < −0.3 were all periportal,
showing that the GS activity score rediscovered 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 the HFD, we studied the transition in tissue composition of

cell types and cell type-specific gene regulation in a rat model of NAFLD. The

accuracy of ATAC-seq-based deconvolution was validated and used for

analyzing cell type composition. In accordance with the pathological

progression from fatty liver to steatohepatitis that could have 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 largely decreased. In the

washout condition, where 4 weeks of HFD was followed by 4 weeks of normal

diet, the cell type composition returned similar to rats only 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 between 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. For many of the discovered modules, TFs in a given

module were known to regulate biological processes assignable to a set of

genes in the same module, suggesting the validity of our module discovery

algorithm. Finally, for the biological processes that emerged in TF regulation

analysis, by incorporating known protein-protein interactions, we could

identify core genes, many of which overlap with previously implicated NAFLD

genes (see below).

In each cell type, we can decompose the global variation of TF

regulation into major modules, where the TFs belonging to a given module

appear to regulate a set of genes that belong to the same module. Using the

data for TF binding and gene expression measured over nuclei, we extract

modules by applying the machine learning technique. In the discovered

modules, the TFs and the function of regulated genes agree with the

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 [10], and LEF1 that regulates zonation

(Module 3 of hepatocytes) is also known to activate Wnt signaling [13].

Previous snATAC-seq studies have characterized the difference between cell

types [21] using TF binding. In contrast, we illustrated how TFs control the

variation of cells within one cell type, for example, the hepatocytes with

various degrees of inflammation.

One novel method developed in this article is the computation of the

GS activity score in single cells to indicate the activity of GS, as if it was the

expression of a specific gene. In experiments, gene expressions can be

directly measured. The activity of a pathway is of interest but not directly

measurable. One way would be to take the average expression of genes in

that pathway, but this is not optimal for the following reasons. A simple

average would give equal weight to both core and periphery genes in the

pathway, increasing noise from the latter. Moreover, there are activator and

suppressor genes that contribute to the pathway in opposite directions.

Instead of simple average, we used the first principal component to deal with

these issues. The principal component approach was adapted from the PLAGE

program [22], which is used to compute pathway activity scores in bulk tissue

specimens. The GS activity score could improve the 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 became higher under the HFD, the GS

activity represented by the score presumably works in response to the

overdose of 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. Moreover, the cell type-specific nature of the

GS activity score could unravel 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 in this article is finding the core genes of

biological processes. Given a GS comprising known genes for the process, we

identified core genes as those that show strong correlation with the GS

activity score as well as abundant protein-protein interactions with the GS.

We obtained evidence supporting the former from single-nucleus experiment

data and the latter from a public database. We sought literature indicating

that core genes cause NAFLD or serve as biomarkers for NAFLD and found

indications for a large part 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; for

semaphorin-plexin signaling 3 of 7 in stellate cells. The overlap with known

NAFLD genes suggests the biological validity of our data-driven approach,

using snATAC-seq data from a rat model of dietary intervention as input,

extracting modules, biological processes, and then core genes. The non-

overlapping genes can be candidates for future functional study of NAFLD.

Regarding TNFα signaling via NF-κB in hepatocytes, in animal studies, *Tnf* KO

mouse was protected from NAFLD [23], *Nfkb1* KO mouse exacerbated NAFLD

[24], and *Il1r1* KO mouse had less hepatic triacylglycerol [25]. CXCL12 (aka

SDF1) induced migration of stellate cells [26], endothelial cells [19] and CD4^{+}

T cell [27]. In human biomarker studies, higher circulating TNFα level was

associated with NAFLD [28] and future NAFLD [29]. 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 [30], whereas *Tlr4* KO mouse [31] and *Il15* KO mouse [32] were

protected from NAFLD. *Ccr5* antagonist eased NAFLD in mice [33]. 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 [34]. Regarding steroid metabolism in hepatocytes, *Scd1* KO

mouse exacerbated NAFLD [35], and *Acox2* KO mouse developed NAFLD [36].

NAFLD patients had lower serum APOA1 [37,38]. Regarding semaphorin-

plexin signaling in stellate cells, in animal studies, *Nrp2* conditional KO

reduced liver fibrosis in mice [39]. *Nrp1* KO attenuated cell motility and

overexpression increased motility [40]. *Sema3e* KO eased liver fibrosis in

mice [41].

In search of drug targets or biomarkers of NAFLD, we looked up

proteins whose subcellular localization is extracellular or plasma membrane

proteins [42] among the genes strongly upregulated under a dietary

intervention (Table S2) or the core genes positively correlated with a NAFLD-

related activity. A number of genes have been reported as NAFLD biomarkers

in humans. For hepatocytes, we found *Il1r1* [43], *Il1r2* and *Tnf* [28]. For

endothelial cells, there was *Hgf* [44–46]. *Pecam1* was listed for both

endothelial and stellate cells. For stellate cells, there were *Faslg* [47] and

Nrp2. For macrophages, there were RT1-Db1, *Cd44* [34], *Cxcr4* and *Fn1*.

This study has several limitations. Firstly, it was difficult to distinguish

TFs with very similar motifs. A specific TF was regarded to bind a specific site

if the chromatin was open near the site and if the DNA sequence of the site

matched with the known TF-binding motif. However, instead, a different TF

with a similar motif could have bound there. Secondly, the interpretation of

gene expression requires caution. Gene expression can be quantified by the

amount of either A) mRNA transcription per time, B) mRNA in the nucleus,

C) mRNA in the cell, D) protein translation per time, or E) protein.

Measurement for bulk tissue is conducted by ATAC-seq (A), RNA-seq (C),

Ribo-seq (D), or Western blotting (E), and measurement for single

nucleus/cell is performed by single-nucleus ATAC-seq (A), single-nucleus

RNA-seq (B), or single-cell RNA-seq (C). While our measurement, A, could

reflect the state of gene regulation, it could differ from E, which reflects the

state of metabolism, and the fold-change value would differ among the types

of gene expression.

Conclusions

By performing single-nucleus and bulk ATAC-seq, we analyzed the transition

of cell type composition and cell type-specific gene expression in a rat model

of NAFLD. Using 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

candidates for novel NAFLD genes and our statistical methods can be applied

to elucidate the TF regulation in other biological systems.

Methods

Animal experiment

Male SHR/Izm strain rats were fed a normal diet (SP diet, Funabashi Farm,

Japan) or a high-fat atherogenic diet (24% fat, 15% protein, 5% cholesterol,

2% cholic acid). Compared to models based on nutritional deficiency (such

as methionine and choline-deficient diet) or chemical-induced models (such

as carbon tetrachloride), HFD models resemble more human NAFLD, both

pathophysiologically and phenotypically [48]. SHR can mimic NAFLD under a

hypertension background. 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. All animal experiments conformed to the

Guidelines for Animal Experiments of the National Center for Global Health

and Medicine (NCGM) and were 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 (samples m154207 and m154211) or using the

Minute Single Nucleus Isolation Kit for Tissues/Cells SN-047 (samples

m167108, m167203 and m168101). For each sample, the sequencing library

was prepared using the Chromium Next GEM Single Cell ATAC Reagent Kits

v1.1 and sequenced using the Novaseq 6000 sequencer.

Library preparation and sequencing for bulk tissue ATAC-seq

Bulk tissue ATAC-seq was performed according to the Omni-ATAC protocol

[49] using flash-frozen liver tissue. The library was sequenced using the

NextSeq sequencer.

Measuring triglycerides in liver tissue

Triglyceride in liver tissue was 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 1/3 dilution of
the homogenate by adding lipid extraction solution and examined both the
original and the dilution. The triglyceride was measured in a colorimetric
assay according to the manual. Triglyceride quantity in mol unit was
converted to g unit by multiplying 885.7.

Measuring total cholesterol in liver tissue

Total cholesterol in 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. Thereafter, we transferred 200 ul of the liquid phase
to a new tube, dried 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 by samples. ATAC-seq fragments
were assigned to single nuclei, and 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
from the same nucleus are identifiable by the shared unique barcode. Using

the 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 single barcodes.

Occasionally in the Chromium assay, more than one barcoded beads

are contained in one droplet, in which case, excessive ATAC-seq fragments

would be assigned in common to the barcodes. Such cases were detected,

and the barcodes were unified and renamed using the bap2 software (version

0.6.7) [50]. In the downstream analysis, we can assume that one barcode

corresponds to one droplet.

We managed the snATAC-seq data using the ArchR package (version

1.0.1) [51] of the R software (version 4.1.1). ATAC-seq fragments from the

autosomes and chromosome X were retained. We retained nuclei that had

abundant and enriched fragments around transcription start sites (TSS) as

follows: ≥1000 fragments within 1 kb to TSS, the proportion of fragments

within 1 kb to TSS being ≥7.5% (samples m154207, m154211 and m167203)

or ≥15% (samples m167108 and m168101), and Tn5 insertions (which occur

at both ends of a fragment) within 25 bp to TSS occurring ≥4 times frequently

than the 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, but could deviate if a droplet is

contaminated by free DNA from broken nuclei [52]. 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. In

order to omit contaminated droplets, we discarded nuclei with a score ≥40.

Since Tn5 inserts less efficiently into nucleosome-associated DNA,

ATAC-seq fragment size distribution shows periodicity [21]. Using the

program provided by Cusanovich et al.

(https://atlas.gs.washington.edu/mouse-atac/docs/), for each nucleus, we

computed the spectral densities for the 100-300 bp range, which is the pitch

of nucleosomes. In order to omit nuclei with an aberrant chromatin state, we

discarded nuclei below the 1st or above the 99th percentile in this score.

When two or more nuclei are contained in one droplet, called 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, for the set of ATAC-seq fragments assigned to a barcode, we

inferred the number of homologous chromosomes from which the fragments

were derived. The number is analogous to ploidy, but differs because the

container is not a cell, but a droplet. By counting overlaps among the

fragments, the number of homologous chromosomes was inferred either $2n$,

$4n$ or $\geq 6n$. Since the majority of hepatocytes in rat liver are diploids or

tetraploids [53] and other cell types in liver are diploids, $\geq 6n$ droplets were

regarded as possible multiplets and discarded. Second, we detected doublets

formed by two heterogeneous cell types using ArchR. Droplets with 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 types of cells. We clustered the nucleus 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 the occurrence

(1) or non-occurrence (0) of Tn5 insertions. Using ArchR, we obtained a

matrix with 5,230,329 rows and 14,615 columns. We then grouped the nuclei

according to the similarity of corresponding columns (see next 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) [54]. We obtained 599,035 chromatin accessibility peaks of width 501 bp.

Secondly, we represented the Tn5 insertions as a "peak matrix": a binary matrix indexed by peaks (rows) and nuclei (columns), coding the occurrence or non-occurrence of Tn5 insertions. Again, we grouped the nuclei according to the similarity of corresponding columns. The nuclei clustering based on the peak matrix was used in downstream analysis, as it would be 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 need to reduce the dimensions in order to properly analyze the similarity among nuclei. For dimensionality reduction, we used latent semantic indexing [55] and singular value decomposition (SVD). The dimensionality reduction was performed for all samples combined. Since experimental conditions, including Tn5:DNA ratio, could differ among the samples, we introduced a sample batch correction step. We applied the same algorithm to 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

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

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

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

559   and ranges between zero and one. In order to restrict noise, we retained rows

560   with IDF-weighted variance >0.4 of the tile matrix and >0.1 of the peak

561   matrix. We defined the document normalization factor as

562
$$d_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\sum_i f_{ij}^2}}.$$

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 the nucleus j belonging to the

sample s, the correction factor is

569
$$\gamma_{ij} = \frac{\text{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : 1 \le j' \le n\}\big]}{\text{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : j' \text{ belongs to sample } s\}\big]}. \quad (1)$$

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

571   requires no knowledge of cell types. If cell type classification of nuclei is

572   available, the correction can be refined. For the nucleus j of cell type c

573   belonging to sample s, the correction factor becomes

574
$$\gamma_{ij} = \frac{\text{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : j' \text{ is cell type } c\}\big]}{\text{Mean}\big[\{d_{j'} \cdot f_{ij'} : j' \text{ is cell type } c \text{ and belongs to sample } s\}\big]}. \quad (2)$$

Since we had no knowledge of cell type in advance, 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 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

upper limit.

Dimensionality reduction and nucleus clustering were performed in

the following steps:

1. Compute sample batch correction factor γ_{ij} in (1).

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

subtracting the average.

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

the R package irlba (version 2.3.3) [56].

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

nuclei to the VD coordinates. As the 11th and later singular values

bottomed out and the corresponding columns of V appeared randomly

distributed in our data, 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) [57] and optimizing

modularity with the Leiden algorithm (version 0.8.4) [58]. 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 sample batch correction factor γ_{ij} in (2) by 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 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 by the shared nearest neighbor modularity

optimization.

Cell type assignment for snATAC-seq

For each nuclei 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 were 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

According to the ATAC-seq data processing workflow [59], we trimmed reads,

mapped reads to the reference genome, removed mitochondrial DNA reads,

subsampled to equate 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 combined 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 adding 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 count as

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

where c_j represents how many nuclei are included in the normalized ATAC-

seq library for pure cell type j and d_k adjusts for 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 represent by C the diagonal

matrix with c_j in the diagonal. The values of c_j for hepatocytes were half the

values for other cell types due to higher ploidy of hepatocytes.

We used the DeconPeaker software (version 1.0) [5] to select the

peaks (rows) that discriminate cell types. DeconPeaker selects discriminating

peaks based on t-tests while minimizing the conditional number. Let $\tilde{v}_{jk}$ be

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

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

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

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

We represent by W the matrix whose columns are $\boldsymbol{w}_j$. By regarding the

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

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

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

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

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

672
$$x_k = \sum_j \frac{a_{jk}}{(\sum_{j'} a_{j'k})} \cdot \frac{1}{c_j} \cdot w_j.$$

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 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, for which we have vectors x_k and

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 [60]. We compute the correction factor

684
$$f_i = \exp\left(\text{mean}_k\left\{\log\left(\frac{y_{ik}}{x_{ik}}\right)\right\}\right).$$

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. A bulk ATAC-seq experiment y_k after

correction becomes $F^{-1}y_k$. Notice that the vector is scaled to one nucleus.

For deconvolution of a bulk sample k, we first compute θ_k that

approximates

691
$$F^{-1}y_k \approx W\theta_k$$

692   under $\theta_{jk} \geq 0$. Using robust linear regression [61], we solve

693
$$F^{-1}y_k = W\theta_k + \varepsilon,$$

694
$$\varepsilon_i \sim N(0, e_i^2 \sigma^2),$$

where σ^2 is the parameter for error variance. Peaks with large variability e_i^2

are allowed to have a larger variance [62]. 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 $\widehat{\theta_k}$ 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 types

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

706
$$\frac{C\widehat{\boldsymbol{\theta}_k}}{\sum_j c_j \widehat{\theta_{jk}}}.$$

Comparing cell type composition among dietary conditions

For each cell type, the imputed composition in bulk samples was compared

among dietary conditions. We performed multiple regression where the

dependent variable was the composition and independent variables were

indicators of dietary condition, with the normal diet being the reference. Using

Bonferroni's correction for multiple testing of seven cell types and three

conditions (apart from normal diet), the significance level was set 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 amount 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 library size normalization of the R package

Linnorm (version 2.16.0) [63] and imputation of the R package SAVER

(version 1.1.2) [64]. Before imputation, 47% of the matrix elements were

zero, and after 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 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. This is obtained as the chromVAR [65] deviation z-

score in ArchR. The CIS-BP database of TF binding motifs [66] 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 GS's were obtained from the Molecular

Signatures Database (MSigDB) (version 7.4) [67] 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, the 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) [68] and by performing permutation for 10,000
times or 20 times the number of GS's in a dataset, whichever was larger.
Within each dataset, the GS's that attained a false discover rate <0.05 were
considered statistically significant. Significant GS's 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 inferred the regulatory
impacts of all TFs on all genes and then extracted major modules of the
regulatory relationship between TFs and genes. For each gene, we computed
its regulatory TFs using the R package GENIE3 (version 1.14.0) [69], which
implements a random forest algorithm and thus can model nonlinear
regulation. The algorithm aimed to predict the expression level of the gene
based on the binding of TFs and dietary conditions. 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 the nonnegative matrix factorization implemented in
the R package NMF (version 0.23.0) [70] to the regulator-regulatee matrix.
We used the Brunet algorithm [71] with 100 random starts. The number of
factors was chosen based on data as the inflection point of residual error [72].
In the output of NMF, the membership of TFs (regulators) and genes
(regulatees) to a factor was defined by nonnegative weight. We called the

factors as "modules" of TF regulation.

We discovered biological processes that characterize a module by
applying gene set enrichment analysis to genes belonging to the module. For
each module of TF regulation, we tested if heavily weighted genes were
enriched in some GS. 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 GS's, we performed 100
trials of shuffling gene names and computed family-wise error rates. The GS's
that attained a family-wise error rate of <0.05 were considered statistically
significant.

GS activity score in single nuclei

To infer the activity of a GS in single nuclei, we computed the "average" level
of TF binding and gene expression, with regards 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 normalized 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
normalized 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 abovementioned 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 principal component approach was adapted from the PLAGE

program [22] that was developed to compute the pathway activity score of a

GS in bulk tissue specimens. Instead, we applied to nuclei. Compared with

the number of specimens, the large number of nuclei enabled significance

testing by permutation.

Availability of data and materials

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

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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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 level 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) is compared

between dietary conditions (horizontal axis). The proportion was measured

by bulk tissue ATAC-seq (n=4 samples per condition).

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Figure 2

Biological processes that were differentially expressed under dietary

interventions

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

expressed in a cell type under a dietary intervention compared to the normal

diet (column). The coloring indicates statistical significance of 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.

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Figure 3

Major modules of TF regulation in hepatocytes

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

on genes (rows). Major modules are highlighted by red rectangles. The

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

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

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

membership ranking in the top five and membership weight more than 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.

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1084 **Figure 4**

1085 Major modules of TF regulation in endothelial cells

1086 See legend in Figure 3.

1087

1088 **Figure 5**

1089 Major modules of TF regulation in stellate cells

1090 See legend in Figure 3.

1091

1092 **Figure 6**

1093 Major modules of TF regulation in macrophages

1094 See legend in Figure 3.

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Figure 7

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

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

the violins indicate quartiles. The score distribution under a diet intervention

was compared with that under normal diet condition by 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

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

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

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

colored red, and others are colored blue. The TFs/genes in the GS (middle

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

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1117   **Figure 8**

1118   Modules of global TF regulation, biological processes, and core genes were

1119   detected by the data-driven approach

1120   See text for the full list of core genes.

1121

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

- log10(P)

Module 1
Module 2
Module 3
Module 4

SEMAPHORIN PLEXIN
SIGNALING PATHWAY

Figure 6. Macrophage

Figure 7

A Hepatocyte
TNFA SIGNALING
VIA NFKB

B Endothelial cell
TNFA SIGNALING
VIA NFKB

C Macrophage
TNFA SIGNALING
VIA NFKB

Figure 8