Robust estimation of cancer and immune cell-type proportions from bulk tumor ATAC-Seq data

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Abstract

Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin sequencing (ATAC-Seq) is a widely used technique to explore gene regulatory mechanisms. For most ATAC-Seq data from healthy and diseased tissues such as tumors, chromatin accessibility measurement represents a mixed signal from multiple cell types. In this work, we derive reliable chromatin accessibility marker peaks and reference profiles for most non-malignant cell types frequently observed in the tumor micro-environment. We then integrate these data into the EPIC deconvolution framework (Racle *et al.*, 2017) to quantify cell-type heterogeneity in bulk ATAC-Seq data. Our EPIC-ATAC tool accurately predicts non-malignant and malignant cell fractions

25   in tumor samples. When applied to a breast cancer cohort, EPIC-ATAC accurately infers the immune

26   contexture of the main breast cancer subtypes.

Introduction

Gene regulation is a dynamic process largely determined by the physical access of chromatin-binding

factors such as transcription factors (TFs) to regulatory regions of the DNA (*e.g.,* enhancers and

promoters) (Klemm, Shipony and Greenleaf, 2019). The genome-wide landscape of chromatin

accessibility is essential in the control of cellular identity and cell fate and thus varies in different cell

types (Klemm, Shipony and Greenleaf, 2019; K. Zhang *et al.*, 2021). Over the last decade, Assay for

Transposase-Accessible Chromatin (ATAC-Seq) (Buenrostro *et al.*, 2013) has become a reference

epigenomic technique to profile chromatin accessibility and the activity of gene regulatory elements

in diverse biological contexts including cancer (Luo, Gribskov and Wang, 2022) and across large cohorts

(Corces *et al.*, 2018). Several optimized ATAC-seq protocols have been developed to improve the

quality of ATAC-Seq data and expand its usage to different tissue types. These include the OMNI-ATAC

protocol, which leads to cleaner signal and is applicable to frozen samples (Corces *et al.*, 2017; Grandi

et al., 2022), as well as the formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE)-ATAC protocol adapted to FFPE

samples (H. Zhang *et al.*, 2022). The reasonable cost and technical advantages of these protocols

foreshadow an increased usage of ATAC-Seq in cancer studies (Grandi *et al.*, 2022; Luo, Gribskov and

Wang, 2022).

Most biological tissues are composed of multiple cell types. For instance, tumors are complex

ecosystems including malignant and stromal cells as well as a large diversity of immune cells. This

cellular heterogeneity impacts tumor progression as well as response to immunotherapy (Fridman *et*

al., 2012, 2017; de Visser and Joyce, 2023). Most existing ATAC-Seq data from tumors were performed

on bulk samples, thereby mixing the signal from both cancer and non-malignant cells. Precisely

quantifying the proportions of different cell types in such samples represents a promising way to

explore the immune contexture and the composition of the tumor micro-environment (TME) across

large cohorts. Carefully assessing cell-type heterogeneity is also important to handle confounding

factors in genomic analyses in which samples with different cellular compositions are compared.

Recently, single-cell ATAC-Seq (scATAC-Seq) has been developed to explore cellular heterogeneity with

high resolution in complex biological systems (Cusanovich *et al.*, 2015; Lareau *et al.*, 2019; Satpathy *et*

al., 2019). However, the resulting data are sensitive to technical noise and such experiments require

important resources, which so far limits the use of scATAC-Seq in contrast to bulk ATAC-Seq in the

context of large cohorts.

In the past decade, computational deconvolution tools have been developed to predict the proportion

of diverse cell types from bulk genomic data obtained from tumor samples (Becht *et al.*, 2016; Racle

et al., 2017; Avila Cobos *et al.*, 2018, 2020; Finotello *et al.*, 2019; Monaco *et al.*, 2019; Newman *et al.*,

2019; Sturm *et al.*, 2019; H. Li *et al.*, 2020). Many of these tools model bulk data as a mixture of

reference profiles either coming from purified cell populations or inferred from single-cell genomic

data for each cell type. The accuracy of cell-type proportion predictions relies on the quality of these

reference profiles as well as on the specificity of cell-type markers (Avila Cobos *et al.*, 2018). A

limitation of most deconvolution algorithms is that they do not predict the proportion of cell types

that are not present in the reference profiles (hereafter referred to as 'uncharacterized' cells). In the

context of tumor samples, these uncharacterized cell populations include malignant cells whose

molecular profiles differ not only from one cancer type to another, but also from one patient to

another even within the same tumor type (Corces *et al.*, 2018). To address this limitation, a few tools

developed for bulk RNA-Seq data consider uncharacterized cells in their deconvolution framework by

using cell-type specific markers not expressed in the uncharacterized cells (Gosink, Petrie and

Tsinoremas, 2007; Clarke, Seol and Clarke, 2010; Racle *et al.*, 2017; Finotello *et al.*, 2019). These tools

include EPIC (Estimating the Proportion of Immune and Cancer cells) which simultaneously quantifies

immune, stromal, vascular as well as uncharacterized cells from bulk tumor samples (Racle *et al.*, 2017;

Racle and Gfeller, 2020).

Most deconvolution algorithms have been developed for transcriptomic data (RNA-Seq data) (Gong

and Szustakowski, 2013; Newman *et al.*, 2015, 2019; Racle *et al.*, 2017; Finotello *et al.*, 2019; Jimenez-

Sanchez, Cast and Miller, 2019; Monaco *et al.*, 2019; T. Li *et al.*, 2020). More recently they have been

proposed for other omics layers such as methylation (Aryee *et al.*, 2014; Teschendorff *et al.*, 2017,

2020; Chakravarthy *et al.*, 2018; Hicks and Irizarry, 2019; Rahmani *et al.*, 2019; Arneson, Yang and

Wang, 2020; H. Zhang *et al.*, 2021; Salas *et al.*, 2022) proteomics (Feng *et al.*, 2023) or chromatin

accessibility (H. Li *et al.*, 2020). For the latter, a specific framework called DeconPeaker (H. Li *et al.*,

2020) was developed to estimate cell-type proportions from bulk ATAC-Seq samples. Deconvolution

tools developed initially for RNA-Seq data can also be applied on ATAC-Seq. For example, the popular

deconvolution tool, CIBERSORT (Newman *et al.*, 2015), in combination with ATAC-Seq profiles, was

used to deconvolve leukemic ATAC-Seq samples (Corces *et al.*, 2016).

Other methods have been proposed to decompose ATAC-Seq bulk profiles into subpopulation-specific

profiles (Burdziak *et al.*, 2019; Zeng *et al.*, 2019) or compartments (Peng *et al.*, 2019). However, these

methods have more requisites: (i) the integration of the ATAC-Seq data with single-cell or bulk RNA-

Seq (Burdziak *et al.*, 2019; Zeng *et al.*, 2019) and HIChIP data (Zeng *et al.*, 2019) or, (ii) subsequent

feature annotation to associate compartments with cell types or biological processes (Peng *et al.*,

2019).

The application of existing bulk ATAC-Seq data deconvolution tools to solid tumors faces some

limitations. First, current computational frameworks do not quantify populations of uncharacterized

cell types. Second, ATAC-Seq based markers (*i.e.,* chromatin accessible regions called peaks) and

reference profiles generated so far have been derived in the context of hematopoietic cell mixtures

(Corces *et al.*, 2016; H. Li *et al.*, 2020). Markers and profiles for major populations of the TME (*e.g.,*

stromal and vascular cells) are thus missing. While cell-type specific markers have been identified from

scATAC-Seq data (K. Zhang *et al.*, 2021), not all TME-relevant cell types are covered (*e.g.*, lack of

scATAC-Seq data from neutrophils due to extracellular traps formation). Many of these markers have

also not been curated to fulfill the requirements of tools such as EPIC to quantify uncharacterized cells

(*i.e.*, markers of a cell-type should not be accessible in other human tissues).

In this study, we collected ATAC-Seq data from pure cell types to identify cell-type specific

marker peaks and to build reference profiles from most major non-malignant cell types typically

observed in tumors. These data were integrated in the EPIC (Racle *et al.*, 2017) framework to perform

bulk ATAC-Seq samples deconvolution (Figure 1). Applied on peripheral blood mononuclear cells

(PBMCs) and tumor samples, the EPIC-ATAC framework showed accurate predictions of the

proportions of non-malignant and malignant cells.

Figure 1: Graphical description of the identification of cell-type specific marker peaks and reference

ATAC-Seq profiles included in the EPIC-ATAC framework. *1) 564 pure ATAC-Seq data of sorted cells*

were collected to build reference profiles for non-malignant cell types observed in the tumor

microenvironment. 2) Cell-type specific marker peaks were identified using differential accessibility

analysis. 3) Markers with previously observed chromatin accessibility in human healthy tissues were

excluded. 4) For tumor bulk deconvolution, the set of remaining marker peaks was refined by selecting

markers with correlated behavior in tumor bulk samples. 5) The cell-type specific marker peaks and

reference profiles were integrated in the EPIC-ATAC framework to perform bulk ATAC-Seq

deconvolution.

Results

ATAC-Seq data from sorted cell populations reveal cell-type specific marker peaks and

reference profiles

A key determinant for accurate predictions of cell-type proportions by most deconvolution tools is the

availability of reliable cell-type specific markers and reference profiles. To identify robust chromatin

accessibility marker peaks of cell types observed in the tumor microenvironment, we collected 564

samples of sorted cell populations from twelve studies including B cells (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon

et al., 2019; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2022), CD4+ T cells (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Mumbach *et al.*, 2017; Liu *et al.*,

2020; Giles *et al.*, 2022; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2022), CD8+ T cells (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon *et al.*, 2019;

Liu *et al.*, 2020; Giles *et al.*, 2022; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2022), natural killer (NK) cells (Corces *et al.*, 2016;

Calderon *et al.*, 2019), dendritic cells (DCs) (mDCs and pDCs are grouped in this cell-type category)

(Calderon *et al.*, 2019; Leylek *et al.*, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2020), macrophages (Liu *et al.*, 2020; P. Zhang *et*

al., 2022), monocytes (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon *et al.*, 2019; Leylek *et al.*, 2020; Trizzino *et al.*,

2021; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2022), neutrophils (Perez *et al.*, 2020; Ram-Mohan *et al.*, 2021), fibroblasts (Liu

et al., 2020; Ge *et al.*, 2021) and endothelial cells (Liu *et al.*, 2020; Xin *et al.*, 2020) (Figure 1 box 1,

Figure 2A, Supplementary Table 1). To limit batch effects, the collected samples were homogeneously

processed from read alignment to peak calling. For each cell type, we derived a set of stable peaks

observed across samples and studies, *i.e.*, for each study, peaks detected in at least half of the samples

were considered, and for each cell type, only peaks detected jointly in all studies were kept (see

Materials and Methods, section 1).

These peaks were then used to perform pairwise differential analysis to identify marker peaks for each

cell type (Figure 1, box 2). To ensure that the cell-type specific marker peaks are not accessible in other

human tissues, we included in the differential analysis ATAC-Seq samples from diverse human tissues

from the ENCODE data (The ENCODE Project Consortium *et al.*, 2020; Rozowsky *et al.*, 2023)

(Supplementary Figure 1A). To select a sufficient number of peaks prior to peak filtering, the top 200

peaks recurrently differentially accessible across all cell-type pairs were selected as cell-type specific

markers (see Materials and Methods, section 2). To filter out markers that could be accessible in other

human cell types than those included in our reference profiles, we used the human atlas study (K.

Zhang *et al.*, 2021), which identified modules of open chromatin regions accessible in a comprehensive

set of human tissues, and we excluded from our marker list the markers overlapping these modules

(Figure 1, box 3, see Materials and Methods section 2). The resulting marker peaks specific only to the

immune cell types were considered for the deconvolution of PBMC samples (PBMC markers). For the

deconvolution of tumor bulk samples, the lists of marker peaks specific to fibroblasts and endothelial

cells were added to the PBMC markers. This extended set of markers was further refined based on the

correlation patterns of the markers in tumor bulk samples from the diverse solid cancer types from

The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) (Corces *et al.*, 2018), *i.e.*, markers exhibiting the highest correlation

patterns in the tumor bulk samples were selected using the *findCorrelation* function from the caret R

package (Kuhn, 2008) (Figure 1, box 4, see the Material and methods, section 2). The latter filtering

ensures the relevance of the markers in the TME context since cell-type specific TME markers are

expected to be correlated in tumor bulk ATAC-Seq measurements (Qiu *et al.*, 2021). 716 markers of

immune, fibroblasts and endothelial cell types remained after the last filtering (defined as TME

markers). Considering the difference in cell types and the different filtering steps applied on the PBMC

and TME markers, we recommend to use the TME markers and profiles to deconvolve bulk samples

from tumor samples and the PBMC markers and profiles to deconvolve PBMC samples.

To assess the quality and reproducibility of these markers, we first performed principal component

analysis (PCA) based on each set of marker peaks. Computing silhouette coefficients based on the cell-

type classification and on the study of origin showed that samples clustered by cell type and not by

study of origin (averaged silhouette coefficients above 0.45 for cell type and around 0 for study of

origin). The representation of the samples based on the first axes of the PCA confirmed this observation

(Figure 2B and Supplementary Figure 1B). These results indicate limited remaining batch effects after

data processing and marker selection.

We then used the collected samples to generate chromatin accessibility profiles by computing the

average of the normalized counts for each peak in each cell type as well as peak variability in each cell

type (see Material and methods) since EPIC uses features variability for the estimation of the cell-type

proportions (Racle *et al.*, 2017). Figure 2C represents the average chromatin accessibility of each

marker peak in each cell type of the reference dataset and highlights, as expected, the cell-type

specificity of the selected markers (see also Supplementary Tables 2 and 3), which was confirmed in

independent ATAC-Seq data from sorted cells and single-cell ATAC-Seq samples from blood and diverse

human tissues (Figure 2D and 2E, see Materials and methods).

Annotations of the marker peaks highlight their biological relevance

To characterize the different marker peaks, we annotated them using ChIPseeker (Yu, Wang and He,

2015). We observed that most of the markers are in distal and intergenic regions (Figure 2F), which is

expected considering the large proportion of distal regions in the human genome and the fact that

such regions have been previously described as highly cell-type specific (Corces *et al.*, 2016). We also

noticed that 7% of the PBMC and TME marker peaks are in promoter regions in contrast to 4% when

considering matched genomic regions randomly selected in the set of peaks identified prior to the

differential analysis (see Material and methods), which suggests enrichment in our marker peaks for

important regulatory regions.

To assess the biological relevance of the marker peaks, we associated each marker peak to its nearest

gene using ChIP-Enrich based on the "nearest transcription start site (TSS)" locus definition (Welch *et*

al., 2014) (Supplementary Tables 4 and 5). Nearest genes reported as known marker genes in public

databases of gene markers (*i.e.,* PanglaoDB (Franzén, Gan and Björkegren, 2019) and CellMarker (Hu

et al., 2023)) are listed in Table 1.

In each set of cell-type specific peaks, we observed an overrepresentation of chromatin binding

proteins (CBPs) reported in the JASPAR2022 database (Castro-Mondragon *et al.*, 2022) (using Signac

(Stuart *et al.*, 2021) and MonaLisa (Machlab *et al.*, 2022) for assessing the overrepresentation) and the

ReMap catalog (Hammal *et al.*, 2022) (using RemapEnrich, see Material and Methods).

Overrepresented CBPs also reported as known marker genes in the PanglaoDB and CellMarker

databases are listed in Table 1. Detailed peaks annotations are summarized in Supplementary Tables

4 and 5.

Based on the "nearest TSS" annotation, we tested, using ChIP-Enrich (Welch *et al.*, 2014), whether

each set of cell-type specific marker peaks was enriched for regions linked to specific biological

pathways (GO pathways). Figure 2G highlights a subset of the enriched pathways that are consistent

with prior knowledge on each cell type. Some of these pathways are known to be characteristic of

immune responses to inflammatory or tumoral environments. The complete list of enriched pathways

is listed in the Supplementary Tables 6 and 7. Overall, these analyses demonstrate that the proposed

cell-type specific marker peaks capture some of the known biological properties associated to each cell

type.

Table 1: *List of nearest genes and enriched CBPs reported in the PanglaoDB or CellMarker databases.*

Cell type	Nearest genes	Enriched CPBs
Bcells	DHTKD1 LHPP WDFY4 ARID5B HHEX SIDT2 CD82 MS4A1 FCHSD2 USP8 RHCG ATF7IP2 CIITA GGA2 SNX29P2 C16orf74 CBFA2T3 CD79B BCL2 GNG7 CD22 FCER2 FCRL1 LY9 PTPRC LAPTM5 IGLL5 VPREB3 CENPM AFF3 SP100 INPP5D DTNB CD86 RFTN1 ST6GAL1 NGLY1 OSBPL10 TLR9 CD38 SMIM14 ARHGAP24 ADAM19 EBF1 BASP1 CD83 PLEKHG1 CCR6 CCND3 HDAC9 CDCA7L BLK MTSS1 LYN PLEKHF2 MOB3B PAX5	SPIB POU2F2 TCF4 EBF1 TCF3 NFKB1 STAT1 NFKB2 IKZF1 FOXO1 FOXP1 BCL6 POU2AF1 STAT3 BACH2 IKZF3 FLI1 TBX21 JUNB MITF NKX6-2 RBPJ

CD4_Tcells	IL2RA CD6 CD5 CD4 RORA PTPRC CTLA4 ICOS SLC9A9 FHIT TCF7 FYB1 ATXN1 CD40LG	TCF7 RUNX3 SOHLH2 IRF9 GATA3 TBX21 MAF STAT3 RORA BATF CREM
CD8_Tcells	MKI67 JAML MAML2 KLRD1 NELL2 LAG3 PPP1R13B PTPRC LYST CASP8 CD8A CD8B CD96 BTLA GZMA THEMIS ETV1	ETV1 FOXP3 TBX21 FOXP1 EOMES CREM IRF4 ZEB1 ARNT JUNB TCF7
NK	PRF1 ZBTB16 KLRD1 SPN CD226 SH2D1B CD247 IL2RB CXCR4 NMUR1 GNLY ZAP70 TXK	EOMES TBX21 NFIL3 FOS JUN
DCs	C12orf75 LYZ APP CD8A RIOX2 NFKB1 QDPR ABCG2 PRELID2 DST CD36 IDO2 PCMTD1	SPIB IRF8 MYB NR4A1 REL CUX2 FOXO1 ETV6 IRF5 BATF3 RUNX2
Neutrophils	TLE3 CA4 CYP4F3 CEACAM8 PGLYRP1 FPR1 CTSS ALPL PI3 MMP9 CXCR1 DRC1 ASPRV1 LTF MGAM SLC25A37	FOS
Monocytes	VENTX GLT1D1 CLEC4E CARS2 SLC24A4 C16orf74 FFAR2 STXBP2 NLRP3 CYRIA CMTM7 TGFBI DIAPH1 VCAN MCTP1 IFNGR1 STX11 CAPZA2 CD36 MTSS1 DENND3 ASAH1 TNFRSF10B BNIP3L NACC2 MAMDC2 FBP1	CEBPA CEBPD CEBPB CEBPE SPI1 VENTX JUND RXRA TCF7L2
Macrophages	CXCL12 PSAP P2RY6 SLCO2B1 CMKLR1 MMP19 LGMN CLEC10A C5AR1 FPR3 LILRB4 RGL1 SIGLEC1 MMP9 CD80	STAT1 SPI1 FOSL2 FOS SPIC
Endothelial	FAM107B ROBO4 FLI1 ACVRL1 FLT1 DOCK9 ABCC1 S1PR1 ELOVL1 PLPP3 ASAP2 SNRK ECSCR ARAP3 LAMA4 BMP6 SERPINE1 LAMB1 DOCK4 NOS3	ETV2 ELF1 FLI1 ELK3 FOSB ETS1 ERG GATA2 ZEB1 ETS2 FOXC1 SOX18
Fibroblasts	LOX CAV1 COL15A1	FOSL2 FOSB FLI1 HIF1A PBX1

EPIC-ATAC integrates the marker peaks and profiles into EPIC to perform bulk ATAC-Seq data deconvolution

The cell-type specific marker peaks and profiles derived from the reference samples were integrated

into the EPIC deconvolution tool (Racle *et al.*, 2017; Racle and Gfeller, 2020). We will refer to this ATAC-

Seq deconvolution framework as EPIC-ATAC. To ensure the compatibility of any input bulk ATAC-Seq

dataset with the EPIC-ATAC marker peaks and reference profiles, we provide an option to lift over hg19

datasets to hg38 (using the liftOver R package) as the reference profiles are based on the hg38

reference genome. Subsequently, the features of the input bulk matrix are matched to our reference

profiles' features. To match both sets of features, we determine for each peak of the input bulk matrix

the distance to the nearest peak in the reference profiles peaks. Overlapping regions are retained and

the feature IDs are matched to their associated nearest peaks. If multiple features are matched to the

same reference peak, the counts are summed. Before the estimation of the cell-type proportions, we

transform the data following an approach similar to the transcripts per million (TPM) transformation

which has been shown to be appropriate to estimate cell fractions from bulk mixtures in RNA-Seq data

(Racle *et al.*, 2017; Sturm *et al.*, 2019). We normalize the ATAC-Seq counts by dividing counts by the

peak lengths as well as samples depth and rescaling counts so that the counts of each sample sum to

10^6. In RNA-Seq based deconvolution, EPIC uses an estimation of the amount of mRNA in each

reference cell type to derive cell proportions while correcting for cell-type-specific mRNA bias. For the

ATAC-Seq based deconvolution these values were set to 1 to give similar weights to all cell-types

quantifications. Indeed ATAC-Seq measures signal at the DNA level, hence the quantity of DNA within

each reference cell type is similar.

EPIC-ATAC accurately estimates immune cell fractions in PBMC ATAC-Seq samples

To test the accuracy of EPIC-ATAC predictions, we first collected PBMCs from five healthy donors. For

each donor, half of the cells was used to generate a bulk ATAC-Seq dataset and the other half was used

to determine the cellular composition of each sample, *i.e.,* the proportions of monocytes, B cells, CD4+

T cells, CD8+ T cells, NK cells and dendritic cells, by multiparametric flow cytometry (Figure 3A, see

Materials and methods). We then applied EPIC-ATAC to the bulk ATAC-Seq data. The predicted cell

fractions are consistent with the cell fractions obtained by flow cytometry (Figure 3B, Pearson

correlation coefficient of 0.78 and root mean squared error (RMSE) of 0.10). However, the accuracy of

the estimations is variable depending on the samples. In particular, one sample (*Sample4*, star shape

on Figure 3B) exhibits larger discrepancies between EPIC-ATAC predictions and the ground truth.

Visualizing our marker peaks in the five PBMC samples (Supplementary Figure 2) showed that this

sample might be an outlier considering that its cellular composition is similar to that of Samples 2 and

5 but this sample shows particularly high ATAC-Seq accessibility at the monocytes and dendritic marker

peaks. This could explain why EPIC-ATAC overestimates the proportions of the two populations in this

case.

As a second validation, we applied EPIC-ATAC to pseudo-bulk PBMC samples (referred to as the PBMC

pseudobulk dataset), generated using three publicly available PBMC scATAC-Seq datasets (Granja *et*

al., 2019; Satpathy *et al.*, 2019; 10x Genomics, 2021) (see Material and methods). A high correlation

(0.91) between EPIC-ATAC predictions and true cell-type proportions and a low RMSE (0.05) were

observed for this dataset (Figure 3C).

The accuracy of the predictions obtained with EPIC-ATAC was then compared with the accuracy of

other deconvolution approaches which could be used with our reference profiles and marker peaks

(Figure 3D-E). To this end, we considered both the DeconPeaker method (H. Li *et al.*, 2020) originally

developed for bulk ATAC-Seq as well as several algorithms developed for bulk RNA-Seq (CIBERSORTx

(Newman *et al.*, 2019), quanTIseq (Finotello *et al.*, 2019), ABIS (Monaco *et al.*, 2019), and MCPcounter

(Becht *et al.*, 2016)). To enable meaningful comparison across the cell types considered in this work

and use the method initially developed for bulk RNA-Seq deconvolution, the marker peaks and profiles

derived in this work were used in each of these methods (See Material and methods, section 4). As in

EPIC-ATAC, the features of the input bulk matrices were matched to our reference profiles' features.

Having reference profiles/markers and an ATAC-Seq bulk query with matched features was the only

requirement of the different deconvolution models to run on ATAC-Seq data with the default methods

parameters. DeconPeaker and CIBERSORTx also include the option to define cell-type specific markers

and profiles from a set of reference samples. We thus additionally fed our ATAC-Seq samples collection

to both algorithms and used the resulting profiles and marker peaks to perform bulk ATAC-Seq

deconvolution. The resulting predictions are referred to as DeconPeaker-Custom and CIBERSORTx-

Custom.

Many tools displayed high correlation and low RMSE values, similar to those of EPIC-ATAC, and no

single tool consistently outperformed the others (Figure 3D-E, Supplementary Figure 3A-C). The fact

that our marker peaks and reference profiles could be used with EPIC-ATAC and other existing tools

demonstrates their broad applicability.

Figure 3: EPIC-ATAC accurately estimates immune cell fractions in PBMC ATAC-Seq samples. A)

Schematic description of the experiment designed to validate the ATAC-Seq deconvolution on PBMC

samples. B) Comparison between cell-type proportions predicted by EPIC-ATAC and the true

proportions in the PBMC bulk dataset. Symbols correspond to donors. C) Comparison between the

proportions of cell-types predicted by EPIC-ATAC and the true proportions in the PBMC pseudobulk

dataset. Symbols correspond to pseudobulks. D) Pearson correlation (left) and RMSE (right) values

obtained by each deconvolution tool on the PBMC bulk dataset. The EPIC-ATAC results are highlighted

in red. E) Pearson correlation (left) and RMSE (right) values obtained by each deconvolution tool on the

PBMC pseudobulk dataset.

EPIC-ATAC accurately predicts fractions of cancer and non-malignant cells in tumor samples

We evaluated the ability of the EPIC-ATAC framework to predict not only immune and stromal cells

proportions but also the proportion of cells for which reference profiles are not available (*i.e.,*

uncharacterized cells). For this purpose, we considered two previously published scATAC-Seq datasets

containing basal cell carcinoma and gynecological cancer samples (Satpathy *et al.,* 2019; Regner *et al.,*

2021) as well as the samples from the Human Tumor Atlas Network (HTAN) single-cell multiome

dataset composed of samples from diverse cancer types (Terekhanova *et al.,* 2023). For each dataset,

we generated pseudobulks by averaging the chromatin accessibility signal across all cells of each

sample (see Material and methods, section 3). Applying EPIC-ATAC to each dataset shows that this

framework can simultaneously predict the proportions of both uncharacterized cells and immune,

stromal and vascular cells (Figure 4A). In basal cell carcinoma and gynecological cancer samples, the

proportion of uncharacterized cells can be seen as a proxy of the proportion of cancer cells. In the

HTAN dataset, some of the samples also contain cell-types that are neither immune, fibroblasts or

endothelial cells nor malignant cells. Hence, the uncharacterized cells in these samples group cancer

and normal cells from the tumor site. EPIC-ATAC, in this context, was able to not only estimate the

proportion of cell types included in the TME reference profiles but also the proportion of

uncharacterized cells in most of the cancer types (Figure 4A, Supplementary Figure 4).

As for the PBMC datasets, we compared EPIC-ATAC performances to other existing deconvolution tools

(see Materials and methods, section 4). For each dataset, EPIC-ATAC led to the highest performances

and was the only method to accurately predict the proportion of uncharacterized cells (Figure 4B,

Supplementary Figures 5, 6 and 7). Although quanTIseq also allows users to perform such predictions,

the method resulted in lower correlation and higher RMSE values when comparing the estimated and

true proportions of the uncharacterized cells (Figure 4B, Supplementary Figures 5 and 7).

In the EPIC-ATAC and quanTIseq frameworks, predictions correspond to absolute cell-type fractions

which include the proportion of uncharacterized cells, *i.e.,* proportions of all cells present in the bulk,

while the estimations obtained from the other tools correspond to relative cell fractions, *i.e.,*

proportions of cells present in the reference profiles (CIBERSORTx, DeconPeaker) or to scores with

arbitrary units (ABIS, MCPcounter) without considering the presence of uncharacterized cells. For the

latter group of tools, we fixed the uncharacterized cells estimations to 0. This approach provides a clear

and significant advantage to EPIC-ATAC and to quanTIseq (Figure 4B). For this reason, we conducted a

second benchmark excluding the predictions of uncharacterized cell fractions and rescaling both

estimations and true proportions to sum to 1 (see Material and methods, section 4). EPIC-ATAC

outperformed most of the other methods also when excluding the uncharacterized cells (Figure 4C,

 Supplementary Figures 5, 6 and 7). Note that in terms of computational resources, all the tools require

a limited amount of time and memory to run, *i.e.*, less than 20 seconds in average (Supplementary

figure 8).

Figure 4: EPIC-ATAC accurately predicts fractions of cancer and non-malignant cells in tumor

samples. A) *Comparison between cell-type proportions estimated by EPIC-ATAC and true proportions*

for the basal cell carcinoma (top), gynecological (middle) and HTAN (bottom) pseudobulk datasets.

Symbols correspond to pseudobulks. ***B)*** *Pearson's correlation and RMSE values obtained for the*

deconvolution tools included in the benchmark. EPIC-ATAC is highlighted in red. ***C)*** *Same analyses as in*

panels B, with the uncharacterized cell population excluded for the evaluation of the prediction

accuracy. The predicted and true proportions of the immune, stromal and vascular cell types were

rescaled to sum to 1.

Accuracy of ATAC-Seq deconvolution is determined by the abundance and specificity of each

cell type

To investigate the impact of cell type abundance on the accuracy of ATAC-Seq deconvolution, we

evaluated EPIC-ATAC predictions in each major cell type separately in the different benchmarking

datasets (Figure 5A). NK cells, endothelial cells, neutrophils or dendritic cells showed lower correlation

values. These values can be explained by the fact that these cell types are low-abundant in our

benchmarking datasets (Figure 5A). For the endothelial cells and dendritic cells, the RMSE values

associated to these cell types remain low. This suggests that while the predictions of EPIC-ATAC might

not be precise enough to compare these cell-type proportions between different samples, the cell-

type quantification within each sample is reliable. For the NK cells and the neutrophils, we observed

more variability with higher RMSE values in some datasets which suggests that the markers and

profiles for these cell types might be improved. Supplementary Figures 9 and 10 detail the

performances of each tool when considering each cell type separately in the PBMC and the cancer

datasets. As for EPIC-ATAC, the predictions from the other deconvolution tools are more reliable for

the frequent cell types.

To explore the accuracy of ATAC-Seq deconvolution for more related cell types, we evaluated whether

EPIC-ATAC could predict the proportions of T-cell subtypes. To this end, we considered naive and non-

naive CD8+ as well as naive, helper/memory and regulatory CD4+ T cells (Tregs). We redefined our list

of cell-type specific marker peaks and reference profiles including also these five T-cell subtypes

(Supplementary Tables 8-9, Supplementary Figure 11A) and observed that the markers were conserved

in external data (Supplementary Figure 11B). The annotations of the markers associated to the T-cell

subtypes are available in Supplementary Tables 10-13.

We capitalized on the more detailed cell-type annotation of the PBMC datasets as well as the basal cell

carcinoma dataset to evaluate the EPIC-ATAC predictions of cell-subtype fractions using these updated

markers and profiles. Overall, the correlations observed between the predictions and true proportions

of T cells decreased when considering T-cell subtypes rather than CD4+ and CD8+ cell types only (Figure

  5B). In particular, low accuracies were obtained for helper/memory CD4+ and naive T-cell subtypes

(Figure 5C). Similar results were obtained using other deconvolution tools (Supplementary Figure 12).

Figure 5: Accuracy of ATAC-Seq deconvolution is determined by the abundance and specificity of each

cell type. A) *Correlations (top) and RMSE (middle) between EPIC-ATAC predictions and true cell-type*

proportions in each cell-type. True proportions are also shown for each cell type (bottom). Colors

correspond to different datasets. ***B)*** *Comparison of the proportions estimated by EPIC-ATAC and the*

true proportions for PBMC samples (PBMC experiment and PBMC pseudobulk samples combined) (top)

and the basal cell carcinoma pseudobulks (bottom). Predictions of the proportions of CD4+ and CD8+

T-cells were obtained using the reference profiles based on the major cell types and subtypes

predictions using the reference profiles including the T-cell subtypes. **C)** *Pearson's correlation values*

obtained by EPIC-ATAC in each cell type.

EPIC-ATAC accurately infers the immune contexture in a bulk ATAC-Seq breast cancer cohort

We applied EPIC-ATAC to a breast cancer cohort of 42 breast ATAC-Seq samples including samples

from two breast cancer subtypes, *i.e.,* 35 oestrogen receptor (ER)-positive human epidermal growth

factor receptor 2 (HER2)-negative (ER+/HER2-) breast cancer samples and 7 triple negative breast

cancer (TNBC) samples (Kumegawa *et al.*, 2023). No cell sorting was performed in parallel to the

chromatin accessibility sequencing. For this reason, the authors used a set of cell-type-specific cis-

regulatory elements (CREs) identified in scATAC-Seq data from similar breast cancer samples

(Kumegawa *et al.*, 2022) and estimated the amount of infiltration of each cell type by averaging the

ATAC-Seq signal of each set of cell-type-specific CREs in their samples. We used EPIC-ATAC to estimate

the proportions of different cell types of the TME. These predictions were then compared to the metric

used by Kumegawa and colleagues in their study to infer levels of infiltration. A high correlation

between the two metrics was observed for each cell type (Pearson's correlation coefficient from 0.5

for myeloid cells to 0.94 for T cells, Figure 6A).

We observed a higher proportion of T cells, B cells and NK cells in the TNBC samples in comparison to

ER+/HER2- samples (Figure 6B). We then compared the cellular composition of ER+/HER2- subgroups

identified in the original study (clusters CA-A, CA-B and CA-C). A higher infiltration of T and B cells was

observed in cluster CA-C and higher proportions of endothelial cells and fibroblasts were observed in

cluster CA-B (Figure 6B). These differences recapitulate those reported in the Kumegawa study except

for the difference in myeloid infiltration observed in the original study between the different breast

cancer subgroups (Kumegawa *et al.*, 2023). However, when considering each myeloid cell type present

in our reference profiles separately, a higher infiltration of macrophages was observed in the TNBC

samples in comparison to the ER+/HER2- samples (Supplementary Figure 13). Also, we observed a

difference in the levels of NK cells infiltration between TNBC and ER+/HER2- samples while no NK

infiltration estimation was provided in the original paper for this cell type.

Figure 6: EPIC-ATAC accurately infers the immune contexture in a bulk ATAC-Seq breast cancer

cohort. A) *Proportions of different cell types predicted by EPIC-ATAC in each sample as a function of*

the average ATAC signal at the cell-type specific CREs used by Kumegawa et al. (Kumegawa *et al.*, 2023)

to infer the level of cell-type infiltration in the tumor samples. ***B)*** *Proportions of different cell types*

predicted by EPIC-ATAC in the samples stratified based on two breast cancer subtypes. ***C)*** *Proportions*

of different cell types predicted by EPIC-ATAC in the samples stratified based on three ER+/HER2-

subgroups. Wilcoxon test p-values are represented at the top of the boxplots.

EPIC-ATAC and EPIC RNA-seq based deconvolution have similar accuracy and can complement each other

We compared the accuracy of EPIC when applied on ATAC-Seq data and on RNA-Seq data. For this purpose, we first used single-cell multiomic data which provides for each cell both its chromatin accessibility profile and its gene expression profile. These data were retrieved from the 10X multiome PBMC dataset (10x Genomics, 2021) and the HTAN dataset (Terekhanova *et al.*, 2023) (see Material and methods section 3). We used EPIC-ATAC to perform ATAC-Seq based deconvolution on the chromatin accessibility levels of the peaks and the original EPIC tool to perform standard RNA-seq deconvolution on the gene expression levels. ATAC-Seq peaks can also be aggregated into gene activity (GA) variables as proxy for gene expression, based on peak distances to each gene. We applied the GA transformation to the pseudobulk data and performed GA-based RNA deconvolution using the original EPIC tool (See Material and methods section 5). Figures 7A and B show that EPIC-ATAC performs similarly to the EPIC RNA-seq based deconvolution and outperforms the GA-based RNA deconvolution. The lower performances of GA based RNA deconvolution could be explained by the fact that GA features, by construction, do not perfectly match the transcriptomic data.

We also applied EPIC-ATAC and the original version of EPIC (EPIC-RNA) on a bulk dataset composed of PBMC samples with matched bulk RNA-Seq, bulk ATAC-Seq and flow cytometry data (Morandini *et al.*, 2024) (Figure 7C). We compared the predictions obtained using each modality to the flow cytometry cell-type quantifications. EPIC-ATAC predictions were better correlated with the flow cytometry measures for some cell types (*e.g.*, CD8+, CD4+ T cells, NK cells) while this trend was observed with the EPIC-RNA predictions in other cell types (B cells, neutrophils, monocytes) (Figure 7C). We then tested whether the predictions obtained from both modalities could be combined to improve the accuracy of each cell-type quantification. Averaging the predictions obtained from both modalities shows a moderate improvement (Figure 7C), suggesting that the two modalities can complement each other.

Figure 7: EPIC-ATAC and EPIC RNA-seq based deconvolution have similar accuracy and can complement each other. A-B) Pearson's correlation (left) and RMSE (right) values comparing the proportions predicted by the ATAC-Seq deconvolution, the RNA-Seq deconvolution and the GA-based RNA deconvolution and true cell-type proportions in 100 pseudobulks simulated form the 10x multiome PBMC dataset (10x Genomics, 2021) *(panel A) and in the pseudobulks generated from the HTAN cohorts (panel B). Dots correspond to outlier pseudobulks. C) Left panel: Schematic description of the dataset from Morandini et al.* (Morandini *et al.*, 2024) *composed of matched bulk ATAC-Seq, RNA-Seq and flow cytometry data from PBMC samples. Right panel: Pearson's correlation (left) and RMSE values (right) obtained by EPIC-ATAC, EPIC-RNA and EPIC-ATAC/RNA (i.e., averaged predictions of EPIC-ATAC and EPIC-RNA) in each cell type separately or all cell types together (columns).*

Discussion

Bulk chromatin accessibility profiling of biological tissues like tumors represents a reliable and

affordable technology to map the activity of gene regulatory elements across multiple samples in

different conditions. Here, we collected ATAC-Seq data from pure cell populations covering major

immune and non-immune cell types found in the tumor micro-environment. This enabled us to identify

reliable cell-type specific marker peaks and chromatin accessibility profiles for both PBMC and solid

tumor sample deconvolution. We integrated these data in the EPIC deconvolution framework to

accurately predict the fraction of both malignant and non-malignant cell types from bulk tumor ATAC-

Seq samples.

In cases where specific cell types are expected in a sample but are not part of our list of

reference profiles (*e.g.,* neuronal cells in brain tumors), custom marker peaks and reference profiles

can be provided to EPIC-ATAC to perform cell-type deconvolution and we provide the code to generate

such markers and profiles based on ATAC-Seq data from sorted cells, following the approach

developed in this work (Figure 1, see Code availability).

Solid tumors contain large and heterogeneous fractions of cancer cells for which it is

challenging to build reference profiles. We show that the EPIC-ATAC framework, in contrast to other

existing tools, allows users to accurately predict the proportion of cells not included in the reference

profiles (Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure 4). These uncharacterized cells can include cancer cells

but also other non-malignant cells. Since the major cell types composing TMEs were included in our

reference profiles, the proportion of uncharacterized cells approximates the proportion of the cancer

cells in most cases.

For our benchmarking, we provided our reference profiles and markers to each tool that do

not provide the option to automatically build new profiles from a set of reference samples. While this

allowed us to run deconvolution tools previously developed on RNA-Seq data with their default

parameters, we cannot exclude that hyper parametrization could improve the performance of these

tools, and we anticipate that the cell-type specific ATAC-Seq profiles and markers curated in this work

could help improving bulk ATAC-Seq deconvolution with different tools. Also, for RNA-Seq data

deconvolution, some of the methods followed specific pre-processing steps, *e.g.,* the quanTIseq

framework removes a manually curated list of noisy genes as well as aberrant immune genes identified

in the TCGA data, and ABIS uses immune-specific housekeeping genes. Additional filtering could be

explored to improve the performance of deconvolution tools in the context of ATAC-Seq data.

The pseudobulk approach provides unique opportunities to design benchmarks with known

cell-type proportions but also comes with some limitations. Indeed, pseudobulks are generated from

single-cell data which are noisy and whose cell-type annotation is challenging in particular for closely

related cell types. These limitations might lead to chromatin accessibility profiles that deviate from

true bulk data and errors in the true cell-type proportions. The evaluation of our method on true bulk

ATAC-Seq samples from PBMCs and breast cancer samples supported the accuracy of EPIC-ATAC to

deconvolve bulk ATAC-Seq data. In the breast cancer application, the observation of similar immune

compositions in TNBC and ER+/HER2- samples as the ones identified in the original paper (Figure 6)

highlighted that the use of scATAC-Seq data, which are not always available for all cancer types, could

be avoided for the estimation of different cell-type infiltration in bulk samples.

The evaluation of the EPIC-ATAC deconvolution resulted in an average absolute error of 8%

across cell types. This number is consistent with previous observations in RNA-Seq data deconvolution

(Racle *et al.*, 2017). Considering this uncertainty, the quantification of low frequency populations

remains challenging (Jin and Liu, 2021). Comparing such estimations across samples should be

performed with care due to the uncertainty of the predictions (Figure 5A).

Another limitation of cell-type deconvolution is often reached when closely related cell types

are considered. In the reference-based methods used in this study, this limit was reached when

considering T-cell subtypes in the reference profiles (Figures 5B-C and Supplementary Figure 12). We

thus recommend to use the EPIC-ATAC framework with the markers and reference profiles based on

the major cell-type populations. We additionally provide the marker peaks of the T-cell subtypes which

could be used to build cell-type specific chromatin accessibility signatures or perform "peak set

enrichment analysis" similarly to gene set enrichment analysis (Subramanian *et al.*, 2005). Such an

application could be useful for the annotation of scATAC-Seq data, which often relies on matched RNA-

Seq data and for which there is a lack of markers at the peak level (Jiang *et al.*, 2023).

The comparison of EPIC-ATAC applied on ATAC-Seq data with EPIC applied on RNA-Seq data

has shown that both modalities led to similar performances and that they could complement each

other. Another modality that has been frequently used in the context of bulk sample deconvolution is

methylation. Methylation profiling techniques such as methylation arrays are cost effective (Kaur *et*

al., 2023) and DNA methylation signal is highly cell-type specific (Kaur *et al.*, 2023; Loyfer *et al.*, 2023).

Considering that methylation and chromatin accessibility measure different features of the

epigenome, additional analyses comparing and/or complementing ATAC-seq based deconvolution

with methylation-based deconvolution could be of interest as future datasets profiling both modalities

in the same samples become available.

Another possible application of our marker peaks relies on their annotation (Figure 2G,

Supplementary Tables 4-5), which could be used to expand the list of genes and CBPs associated to

each cell type or subtype. For example, the neutrophils marker peaks were enriched for motifs of TFs

such as SPI1 (Supplementary Table 4), which was not listed in the neutrophil genes in the databases

used for annotation but has been reported in previous studies as involved in neutrophils development

(Watt *et al.*, 2021). The annotations related to the set of major cell types and T-cell subtypes are

provided in Supplementary Tables 4-5 and 10-11. Finally, the annotation of marker peaks highlighted

pathways involved in immune responses to tumoral environments (Figure 2G). Examples of these

pathways are the toll-like receptor signaling pathway involved in pathogen-associated and recognition

of damage-associated molecular patterns in diverse cell types including B and T cells (Geng *et al.*, 2010;

Javaid and Choi, 2020), glucan metabolic processes which are known to be related to trained immunity

which can lead to anti-tumor phenotype in neutrophils (Kalafati *et al.*, 2020) or the Fc-receptor

signaling observed in NK cells (Bonnema *et al.*, 1994; Sanseviero, 2019). These observations suggest

that our marker peaks contain regulatory regions not only specific to cell types but also adapted to the

biological context of solid tumors.

Conclusion

In this work, we identified biologically relevant cell-type specific chromatin accessibility markers and

profiles for most non-malignant cell types frequently observed in the tumor micro-environment. We

capitalized on these markers and profiles to predict cell-type proportions from bulk PBMC and solid

tumor ATAC-Seq data (https://github.com/GfellerLab/EPIC-ATAC). Evaluated on diverse tissues, EPIC-

ATAC shows reliable predictions of immune, stromal, vascular and cancer cell proportions. With the

expected increase of ATAC-Seq studies in cancer, the EPIC-ATAC framework will enable researchers to

deconvolve bulk ATAC-Seq data from tumor samples to support the analysis of regulatory processes

underlying tumor development, and correlate the TME composition with clinical variables.

Materials and methods

1- Generation of an ATAC-Seq reference dataset of non-malignant cell types frequently

observed in the tumor microenvironment.

Pre-processing of the sorted ATAC-Seq datasets

We collected pure ATAC-Seq samples from 12 studies. The data include samples from (i) ten major

immune, stromal and vascular cell types (B (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon *et al.*, 2019; P. Zhang *et al.*,

2022), CD4+ (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Mumbach *et al.*, 2017; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Giles *et al.*, 2022; P. Zhang *et*

al., 2022), CD8+ (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon *et al.*, 2019; Liu *et al.*, 2020; Giles *et al.*, 2022; P. Zhang

et al., 2022), natural killer (NK) (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon *et al.*, 2019), dendritic (DCs) cells

(Calderon *et al.*, 2019; Leylek *et al.*, 2020; Liu *et al.*, 2020), macrophages (Liu *et al.*, 2020; P. Zhang *et*

al., 2022), monocytes (Corces *et al.*, 2016; Calderon *et al.*, 2019; Leylek *et al.*, 2020; Trizzino *et al.*,

2021; P. Zhang *et al.*, 2022) and neutrophils (Perez *et al.*, 2020; Ram-Mohan *et al.*, 2021) as well as

fibroblasts (Liu *et al.*, 2020; Ge *et al.*, 2021) and endothelial (Liu *et al.*, 2020; Xin *et al.*, 2020) cells (See

Figure 2A), and (ii) eight tissues from distinct organs (*i.e.* bladder, breast, colon, liver, lung, ovary,

pancreas and thyroid) from the ENCODE data (The ENCODE Project Consortium *et al.*, 2020; Rozowsky

et al., 2023). The list of the samples and their associated metadata (including cell types and accession

number of the study of origin) is provided in Supplementary Table 1. To limit batch effects, the samples

were reprocessed homogeneously from the raw data (fastq files) processing to the peak calling. For

that purpose, raw fastq files were collected from GEO using the SRA toolkit and the PEPATAC

framework (Smith *et al.*, 2021) was used to process the raw fastq files based on the following tools:

trimmomatic for adapter trimming, bowtie2 (with the PEPATAC default parameters) for reads pre-

alignment on human repeats and human mitochondrial reference genome, bowtie2 (with the default

PEPATAC parameters: *--very-sensitive -X 2000*) for alignment on the human genome (hg38), samtools

(PEPATAC default parameters: *-q 10*) for duplicates removal and MACS2 (Zhang *et al.*, 2008) (PEPATAC

default parameters: *--shift -75 --extsize 150 --nomodel --call-summits --nolambda --keep-dup all -p*

0.01) for peak calling in each sample. After alignment, reads mapping on chromosome M were

excluded. TSS enrichment scores were computed for each sample and used to filter out samples with

low quality (criteria of exclusion: TSS score < 5) (See Supplementary Table 1 containing the TSS score

of each sample). 789 samples (including 564 from our ten reference cell-types) had a TSS score > 5.

Generation of a consensus set of peaks

Peak calling was performed in each sample individually. Peaks were then iteratively collapsed to

generate a set of reproducible peaks. For each cell type, peaks collapse was performed adapting the

iterative overlap peak merging approach proposed in the PEPATAC framework. A first peaks collapse

was performed at the level of each study of origin, *i.e.,* if peaks identified in distinct samples overlapped

(minimum overlap of 1bp between peaks), only the peak with the highest peak calling score was kept.

Also, only peaks detected in at least half of the samples of each study were considered for the next

step. If a study had only two samples, only peaks detected in both samples were considered. After this

first selection, a second round of peaks collapse was performed at the cell-type level to limit batch

effects in downstream analyses. For each cell type, only peaks detected in all the studies of origin were

considered. The final list of peaks was then generated by merging each set of reproducible peaks. Peaks

located on chromosome Y were excluded from the rest of the analyses. ATAC-Seq counts were

retrieved for each sample and each peak using featureCounts (Liao, Smyth and Shi, 2014).

2- <u>Identification of cell-type specific markers</u>

Differential accessibility analysis

To identify cell-type specific markers, we split the samples collection in ten folds (created with the

create_folds function from the R package splitTools (Mayer, 2023)). For each fold, we performed

pairwise differential accessibility analysis across the ten cell types considered in the reference samples

as well as the ENCODE samples from diverse organs. The differential analysis was performed using

limma ((Ritchie *et al.*, 2015), version 3.56.2). Effective library sizes were computed using the method

of trimmed mean of M-values (TMM) from the edgeR package in R ((Robinson, McCarthy and Smyth,

2010), version 3.42.4). Due to differences of library size across all samples collected, we used voom

from the limma package (Law *et al.*, 2014) to transform the data and model the mean-variance

relationship. Finally, a linear model was fitted to the data to assess the differential accessibility of each

peak across each pair of cell types. To identify our marker peaks, all peaks with log2 fold change higher

than 0.2 were selected and ranked by their maximum adjusted *p*-value across all pairwise comparisons.

The top 200 features (with the lowest maximum adjusted *p*-value) were considered as cell-type specific

marker peaks. The marker peaks identified in at least three folds were considered in the final list of

marker peaks.

Marker peaks filtering

Modules of open chromatin regions accessible in all (universal modules) or in specific human tissues

have been identified in the study Zhang *et al.* (K. Zhang *et al.*, 2021). These regions were used to refine

the set of marker peaks and exclude peaks with residual accessibility in other cell types than those

considered for deconvolution. More precisely, for immune, endothelial and fibroblasts specific peaks,

we filtered out the peaks overlapping the universal modules as well as the tissue specific modules

except the immune (modules 8 to 25), endothelial (modules 26 to 35) and stromal related modules

(modules 41 to 49 and 139-150) respectively. As a second filtering step, we retained markers exhibiting

the highest correlation patterns in tumor bulk samples from different solid cancer types, *i.e.,* The

Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) samples (Corces *et al.*, 2018). We used the Cancer Genomics Cloud (CGC)

(Lau *et al.*, 2017) to retrieve the ATAC-Seq counts for each marker peaks in each TCGA sample (using

featureCounts). For each set of cell-type specific peaks, we identified the most correlated peaks using

the *findCorrelation* function of the caret R package ((Kuhn, 2008), version 6.0-94) with a correlation

cutoff value corresponding to the 90th percentile of pairwise Pearson correlation values.

Evaluation of the study of origin batch effect

To identify potential batch effect issues, we run principal component analysis (PCA) based on the cell-

type specific peaks after normalizing ATAC-Seq counts using full quantile normalization (FQ-FQ)

implemented in the EDASeq R package (Risso *et al.*, 2011) to correct for depth and GC biases. These

data were used to visualize the data in three dimensions using the first axes of the PCA based on the

PBMC and TME markers (Figure 2B and Supplementary Figure 1B). We also used the ten first principal

components to evaluate distances between samples and compute silhouette coefficients based on the

cell type and study of origin classifications as well as to compute the ARI metric comparing the cell-

type annotation and the clustering obtained using model based clustering.

Building the reference profiles

It has been previously demonstrated in the context of RNA-Seq based deconvolution approaches

(Racle *et al.*, 2017; Sturm *et al.*, 2019) that the transcripts per million (TPM) transformation is

appropriate to estimate cell fractions from bulk mixtures. We thus normalized the ATAC-Seq counts of

the reference samples using a TPM-like transformation, *i.e.,* dividing counts by peak length, correcting

samples counts for depth and rescaling counts so that the counts of each sample sum to 10^6. We then

computed for each peak the median of the TPM-like counts across all samples from each cell type to

build the reference profiles of the ten cell types considered in the EPIC-ATAC framework (Figure 2C).

In the EPIC algorithm, weights reflecting the variability of each feature of the reference profile can be

considered in the constrained least square optimization. We thus also computed the inter-quartile

range of the TPM-like counts for each feature in each cell type. Two ATAC-Seq reference profiles are

available in the EPIC-ATAC framework: (i) a reference profile containing profiles for B cells, CD4+ T cells,

CD8+ T cells, NK, monocytes, dendritic cells and neutrophils to deconvolve PBMC samples, and (ii) a

reference profile containing profiles for B cells, CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, NK, dendritic cells,

macrophages, neutrophils, fibroblasts and endothelial cells to deconvolve tumor samples. The

reference profiles are available in the EPICATAC R package and the reference profiles restricted to our

cell-type specific marker peaks are available in the Supplementary Tables 2 and 3.

Assessing the reproducibility of the marker peaks signal in independent samples

We evaluated the chromatin accessibility level of the marker peaks in samples that were not included

in the peak calling step. Firstly, we considered samples from two independent studies (Ucar *et al.*,

2017; Carvalho *et al.*, 2021) providing pure ATAC-Seq data for five immune cell types (*i.e.,* B, CD4+ T

cells, CD8+ T cells, Monocytes, Macrophages) (Figure 2D). To consider the other cell types, samples

that were excluded from the reference dataset due to a low TSS enrichment score were also

considered in this validation dataset (Supplementary Table 1). Secondly, we collected the data from a

single-cell atlas chromatin accessibility from human tissues and considered the cell types included in

our reference data (K. Zhang *et al.*, 2021) (Figure 2E). We used the cell-type annotations provided in

the original study (GEO accession number: GSE184462). The Signac R package ((Stuart *et al.*, 2021),

1.9.0) was used to extract fragments counts for each cell and each marker peak and the ATAC-Seq

signal of each marker peak was averaged across all cells of each cell type.

Annotation of the marker peaks

The cell-type specific markers were annotated using ChIPseeker R package ((Yu, Wang and He, 2015),

version 1.34.1) and the annotation from *TxDb.Hsapiens.UCSC.hg38.knownGene* in R to identify the

regions in which the marker peaks are (*i.e.,* promoter, intronic regions, etc.) and ChIP-Enrich to

associate each peak to the nearest gene TSS (Welch *et al.*, 2014). The nearest genes identified were

then compared to cell-type marker genes listed in the PanglaoDB (Franzén, Gan and Björkegren, 2019)

and CellMarker databases (Hu *et al.*, 2023). PanglaoDB provides an online interface to explore a large

collection on single-cell RNA-Seq data as well as a community-curated list of cell-type marker genes.

CellMarker is a database providing a large set of curated cell-type markers for more than 400 cell types

in human tissues retrieved from a large collection of single-cell studies and flow cytometry,

immunostaining or experimental studies. ChIP-Enrich was also used to perform gene set enrichment

and identify for each set of cell-type specific peaks potential biological pathways regulated by the

marker peaks. The enrichment analysis was performed using the *chipenrich* function (*genesets =*

"GOBP" , locusdef = "nearest_tss") from the chipenrich R package (v2.22.0).

Chromatin accessibility peaks can also be annotated for chromatin binding proteins (CBPs) such as

transcription factors (TFs), whose potential binding in the peak region is reported in databases. In our

study we chose the JASPAR2022 (Castro-Mondragon *et al.*, 2022) database and the ReMap database

(Hammal *et al.*, 2022).

Using the JASPAR2022 database, we assessed, for each cell type, whether the cell-type specific marker

peaks were enriched in specific TFs motifs using two TFs enrichment analysis frameworks: Signac

(Stuart *et al.*, 2021) and MonaLisa (Machlab *et al.*, 2022). For the MonaLisa analysis, the cell-types

specific markers peaks were categorized in bins of sequences, one bin per cell type (use of the

calcBinnedMotifEnrR function). To test for an enrichment of motifs, the sequences of each bin were

compared to a set of background peaks with similar average size and GC composition obtained by

randomly sampling regions in all the peaks identified from the reference dataset. The enrichment test

was based on a binomial test. For the Signac analysis, we used the *FindMotif* function to identify over-

represented TF motifs in each set of cell-type specific marker peaks (query). This function used a

hypergeometric test to compare the number of query peaks containing the motif with the total

number of peaks containing the motif in the background regions (matched to have similar GC content,

region length and dinucleotide frequencies as the query regions), corresponding in our case to the

peaks called in the reference dataset.

The ReMap database associates chromatin binding proteins (CBPs), including TFs, transcriptional

coactivators and chromatin-remodeling factors, to their DNA binding regions based on DNA-binding

experiments such as chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing (ChIP-seq). For each

association of a CBP to its binding region, the cell type in which the binding has been observed is

reported in the ReMap database (biotype). We used the ReMapEnrich R package (version 0.99) to test

if the cell-type specific marker peaks are significantly enriched in CBPs-binding regions listed in the

ReMap 2022 catalog. We considered the non-redundant peaks catalog from ReMmap 2022, containing

non-redundant binding regions for each CBP in each biotype. Similarly to the previously mentioned

enrichment methods, we chose the consensus peaks called in the reference samples as universe for

the enrichment test. Note that, for each cell type, an enrichment was retained only if the biotype in

which the CBP-regions were identified matched the correct cell-type.

3- <u>Datasets used for the evaluation of ATAC-Seq deconvolution</u>

PBMCs ATAC-Seq data from healthy donors

Peripheral blood mononuclear cell (PBMC) isolation

Venous blood from five healthy donors was collected at the local blood transfusion center of Geneva

in Switzerland, under the approval of the Geneva University Hospital's Institute Review Board, upon

written informed consent and in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki. PBMCs were freshly

isolated by Lymphoprep (Promega) centrifugation (1800 rpm, 20 minutes, without break, room

temperature). Red blood cell lysis was performed using red blood lysis buffer (Qiagen) and platelets

were removed by centrifugation (1000 rpm, 10 minutes without break, room temperature). Cells were

counted and immediately used.

Flow cytometry

Immune cell populations were identified using multiparameter flow cytometry and the following

antibodies: FITC anti-human CD45RA (HI100, Biolegend), PerCP-Cyanine5.5 anti-human CD19 (H1B19,

Biolegend), PE anti-human CD3 (SK7, Biolegend), PE-Dazzle anti-human CD14 (M0P9, BD Biosciences),

PE-Cyanine7 anti-human CD56 (HCD56, Biolegend), APC anti-human CD4 (RPA-T4, Biolgend), APC-

Cyanine7 anti-human CCR7 (G043H7, Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 421 anti-human CD8 (RPA-T8,

Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 510 anti-human CD25 (BC96, Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 711 anti-human

CD16 (3G8, Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 786 anti-human CD127 (A019D5, Biolegend), Ultra-Brilliant

Violet anti-human CD45 (HI30, BD Biosciences), FITC anti-human Celc9a (8F9, Miltenyi) , PE anti-human

XCR1 (S15046E, Biolegend), PE-Dazzle anti-human BDCA-2 (201A, Biolegend), APC anti-human BDCA-

3 (AD5-14H12, Miltenyi), Brilliant Violet 421 anti-human CD3 (UCHT1, Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 421

anti-human CD14 (M5E2, BD Pharmingen), Brilliant Violet 421 anti-human CD19 (SJ25C1, Biolegend),

Brilliant Violet 510 anti-human BDCA-1 (L161, Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 650 anti-human CD11c (3.9,

Biolegend), Brilliant Violet 711 anti-human CD11c (N418, Biolegend) and Brilliant Violet 711 anti-

human HLA-DR (L243, Biolegend). Dead cells were excluded using the Zombie UV™ Fixable Viability Kit

(Biolegend). Intracellular staining was performed after fixation and permeabilization of the cells with

the FoxP3 Transcription Factor Staining Buffer Set (00-5523-00, Invitrogen) using Alexa 700 anti-human

FoxP3 antibody (259D/C7, BD Biosciences). Data were acquired on LSRFortessa flow cytometer and

analysed using FlowJo software (v10.7.1).

Cell preparation for ATAC-Sequencing

50000 CD45+ cells were sorted from total PBMCs using anti-human Ultra-Brilliant Violet (BUV395)

CD45 (HI30, BD Biosciences) with a FACSAria II (Becton Dickinson) and were collected in PBS with 10%

Foetal Bovine Serum (FBS). Cell pellets were resuspended in cold lysis buffer (10mM Tris-Cl pH 7.4,

10mM NaCl, 3mM MgCl2, 0,1% NP40 and water) and immediately centrifuged at 600g for 30min at

4°C. Transposition reaction was performed using the Illumina Tagment DNA Enzyme and Buffer kit

(20034210, Illumina) and transposed DNA was eluted using the MinElute PCR Purification Kit (Qiagen).

Libraries were generated by PCR amplification using indexing primers and NEBNext High-Fidelity

Master Mix (New England BioLabs) and were purified using AMPure XP beads (A63880, Beckman

Coulter). Libraries were quantified by a fluorometric method (QubIT, Life Technologies) and their

quality assessed on a Fragment Analyzer (Agilent Technologies). Sequencing was performed as a paired

end 50 cycles run on an Illumina NovaSeq 6000 (v1.5 reagents) at the Genomic Technologies Facility

(GTF) in Lausanne, Switzerland. Raw sequencing data were demultiplexed using the bcl2fastq2

Conversion Software (version 2.20, Illumina).

Data processing

The same steps as for the processing of the reference ATAC-Seq samples were followed. (See Pre-

processing of the ATAC-Seq datasets).

ATAC-Seq pseudobulk data from PBMCs and cancer samples

To evaluate the accuracy of our ATAC-Seq deconvolution framework, we generated pseudo-bulk

datasets from 6 single-cell datasets:

• **PBMC pseudobulk dataset:** combination of three single-cell datasets for PBMCs.

o Dataset 1 corresponds to a scATAC-Seq dataset obtained from Satpathy et al.

(Satpathy *et al.*, 2019) (GEO accession number: GSE129785). This dataset contains

FACS-sorted populations of PBMCs. Since the cells of some cell types came from a

unique donor, all the cells of this dataset were aggregated to form one pseudobulk.

Ground truth cell fractions were obtained by dividing the number of cells in each cell

type by the total number of cells.

o Dataset 2 (included in the PBMC pseudobulk dataset) was retrieved from Granja *et al.*

(Granja *et al.*, 2019) (GEO accession number GSE139369). B cells, monocytes,

dendritic, CD8+, CD4+ T, NK cells, neutrophils from healthy donors were considered.

The neutrophil cells came from a single donor. As for dataset 1, we thus aggregated

all the cells to generate one pseudobulk. Ground truth cell fractions were obtained by

dividing the number of cells in each cell type by the total number of cells.

o Dataset 3 (included in the PBMC pseudobulk dataset) corresponds to the 10X

multiome dataset of PBMC cells (10x Genomics, 2021). Since these data come from

one donor, one pseudobulk sample was generated for this dataset. The pseudobulk

was generated by averaging the ATAC-Seq signal from all cells from the following cell

types: B cells, CD4+ T cells , CD8+ T cells, NK cells, Dendritic cells and monocytes.

• **Basal cell carcinoma dataset:** obtained from the study of Satpathy *et al.* (Satpathy *et al.*, 2019).

This dataset is a scATAC-Seq dataset composed of 13 basal cell carcinoma samples composed

of immune (B cells, plasma cells, CD4+ T cells, CD8+ T cells, NK cells, myeloid cells), stromal

(endothelial and fibroblasts) and cancer cells. Plasma cells and cancer cells were both

considered as uncharacterized cells (*i.e.,* cell types not included in the reference profiles). Cell

annotations were retrieved from the original study.

• **Gynecological cancer dataset:** obtained from the study of Regner *et al.* (Regner *et al.*, 2021)

(GEO accession number GSE173682). In this study, the authors performed scATAC-Seq on 11

gynecological cancer samples from two tumor sites (*i.e.,* endometrium and ovary) and

composed of immune (B cells, NK and T cells grouped under the same cell-type annotation,

macrophages, mast cells), stromal (fibroblast, endothelial, smooth muscle) and cancer cells.

Mast cells, smooth muscle and cancer cells were considered as uncharacterized cells. Cell

annotations were retrieved from the original study.

• **HTAN:** obtained from the study of Terekhanova et al. (Terekhanova *et al.*, 2023) from the HTAN

DCC Portal. In this study the authors generated an atlas of single-cell multiomic data (RNA-Seq

and ATAC-Seq profiling for the same cell) for diverse cancer types. We considered the

annotation provided by the HTAN consortium. This cell annotation was composed of immune

cells (B cells, T cells, dendritic cells, macrophages), fibroblasts, endothelial cells, cancer cells

and normal cells. The two latter cell groups were considered as part of the uncharacterized

cell population. For Basal cell carcinoma, Gynecological cancer and the HTAN datasets, one

pseudobulk per sample was generated and ground truth cell fractions were obtained for each

sample by dividing the number of cells in each cell type by the total number of cells in the

sample.

For each dataset, raw fragments files were downloaded from the respective GEO accession numbers

and data were preprocessed using ArchR ((Granja *et al.*, 2021), ArchR R package 1.0.2). Cells with TSS

score below four were removed. Doublets removal was performed using the *doubletsRemoval* function

from ArchR. To match as much as possible real bulk ATAC-seq data processing, peak calling was not

performed on each cell type or cell cluster as usually done in scATAC-Seq studies but using all cells for

each dataset from the PBMC pseudobulk data or grouping cells by sample for the Basal cell carcinoma,

Gynecological cancer and HTAN datasets. Peak calling was performed using MACS2 within the ArchR

framework. Fragments counts were extracted using ArchR for each peak called to generate single-cell

peak counts matrices. Note that for the HTAN dataset, in some cancer types, less than 15 peaks were

in common with our reference profiles peaks. These cancer types were thus not considered in the

analysis (GBM, UCEC, CEAD). These matrices were normalized using a TPM-like transformation, *i.e.,*

dividing counts by peak length and correcting samples counts for depth. Finally, for each peak, the

average of the normalized counts was computed across all the cells for each dataset from the PBMC

pseudobulk data and across all the cells of each sample for the Basal cell carcinoma, Gynecological

cancer and HTAN datasets. Averaged data were then rescaled so that the sum of counts of each sample

sum to 10^6.

Bulk ATAC-Seq data from a breast cancer cohort

Bulk ATAC-Seq samples from a breast cancer cohort was obtained from Kumegawa *et al.* (Kumegawa

et al., 2023). These data include 42 breast cancer samples which can be classified based on two

features: (i) the breast cancer subtype ER+/HER2- or triple negative, and (ii) the molecular classification

provided by the original study (CA-A, CA-B and CA-C). The ATAC-Seq raw counts and the samples

metadata were retrieved from figshare (Kumegawa, 2023). As for the previously mentioned datasets,

raw counts were normalized using the TPM-like transformation prior to bulk deconvolution.

4- <u>Benchmarking of the EPIC-ATAC framework against other existing deconvolution tools</u>

The performances of the EPIC-ATAC framework were benchmarked against the following

deconvolution tools:

• quanTIseq (Finotello *et al.*, 2019) is a deconvolution tool using constrained least square

regression to deconvolve RNA-Seq bulk samples. No reference profiles are available in this

framework to perform ATAC-Seq deconvolution and quanTIseq does not provide the option to

automatically build reference profiles from pure bulk samples. quanTIseq was thus run using

the reference profiles derived in this work for the EPIC-ATAC framework and the *quanTIseq*

function from the quantiseqr R package. Note that the correction for cell-type-specific mRNA

content bias was disabled for ATAC-Seq data deconvolution (parameters used in quantiseqr:

scaling set to 1 for all cell types and method set to "lsei").

• DeconPeaker (H. Li *et al.*, 2020) relies on SIMPLS, a variant of partial least square regression to

perform bulk RNA-Seq and bulk ATAC-Seq deconvolution. ATAC-Seq reference profiles are

available in this deconvolution framework however not all cell types considered in the EPIC-

ATAC framework are included in the DeconPeaker reference profiles. This tool was thus run

using different reference profiles: (i) the reference profiles derived in this work for the EPIC-

ATAC framework (corresponds to "DeconPeaker" or "DeconPeaker_ourmarkers" in our

analyses), and (ii) reference profiles automatically generated by DeconPeaker from the sorted

reference samples collected in this work (corresponds to "DeconPeaker_Custom" in our

analyses). The results of DeconPeaker obtained using its original markers and profiles are also

provided for the cell types in common with the cell types considered in this work in

Supplementary Figures 9 and 10. Deconvolution was run using the deconvolution module

deconPeaker (using findctsps with the following parameter: --lib-strategy=ATAC-Seq).

DeconPeaker outputs cell-type proportions relative to the total amount of cells from the

reference cell types.

• CIBERSORTx (Newman *et al.*, 2019) is a deconvolution algorithm based on linear support vector

regression. CIBERSORTx does not provide ATAC-Seq reference profiles, however it is possible

to automatically generate new profiles from a set of pure bulk samples. This tool was thus run

using different reference profiles: i) the reference profiles derived in this work for the EPIC-

ATAC framework (corresponds to "CIBERSORTx" or "CIBERSORTx_ourMarkers" in our

analyses), and ii) reference profiles automatically generated by CIBERSORTx from the sorted

reference samples collected in this work (corresponds to "CIBERSORTx_Custom" in our

analyses). To run CIBERSORTx, we used the docker container provided by the authors of

CIBERSORTx on their website. The algorithm was run using the default options (i.e --absolute

FALSE, --rmbatchBmode FALSE and –rmbatchSmode FALSE), which results in cell-type

proportions relative to the total amount of cells from the reference cell types.

• ABIS (Monaco *et al.*, 2019) uses robust linear modeling to estimate cell-type proportions in

bulk RNA-Seq samples. No ATAC-Seq reference profiles are available in the deconvolution

framework. ABIS was run using the EPIC-ATAC reference profiles by using the *rlm* function from

the MASS R package (as performed in the deconvolute_abis function from the immunedeconv

R package (Sturm *et al.*, 2019)) to quantify each cell type from the reference profiles. The cell-

types quantifications returned by this approach are in arbitrary units. To compare the

estimations and the true cell proportions, we scaled the estimations of each sample between

0 and 1 to obtained relative proportions.

• MCPcounter (Becht *et al.*, 2016): MCPcounter returns scores instead of cell type proportions.

The scores were obtained using the *appendSignatures* function from the MCPcounter R

package by providing the list of marker peaks specific to each cell type. The cell-type scores

are not comparable between cell type, MCPcounter was thus included only in the evaluation

of the performances in each cell type separately.

For all the tools, TPM-like data were used as input bulk samples for the deconvolution.

Since CIBERSORTx, ABIS and DeconPeaker do not predict proportions of uncharacterized cells, we

performed two benchmarking analyses: (i) including all cell types and (ii) excluding the cell types that

are absent from the reference profiles (uncharacterized cells) and rescaling the estimated and true

proportions of the immune cells, endothelial cells and fibroblasts so that their sum equals 1.

Benchmarking of the running time of each tool

We compared the running time of each tool on the different datasets considered in our benchmarking

and used the bash command *time* to retrieve the CPU time of each run. The measured running time is

composed of the following steps: i) matching the bulk features to the reference profiles' features and

ii) running the deconvolution algorithm.

5-   Comparing deconvolution based on RNA-Seq, gene activity or peaks features.

100 pseudobulks were generated from the 10X PBMC multiome dataset (10x Genomics, 2021) based

on 3000 cells for each pseudobulk. Cell fractions were defined using the *rdirichlet* function from the

gtools R package. We also considered pseudobulks built from the HTAN datasets by averaging the

signal in all cells belonging to a sample. Three sets of features were extracted from the data, *i.e.,* gene

expression features extracted from the RNA-Seq layer, ATAC-Seq peaks and gene activity derived from

the ATAC-Seq layer. The same cells was considered for each modality.

Gene activity features were extracted from the single-cell data using ArchR (1.0.2), which considers

distal elements and adjusts for large differences in gene size in the gene activity score calculation. Gene

activity pseudobulks were built by averaging the gene activity scores across all cells belonging to the

pseudobulk. For ATAC-Seq pseudobulk, peaks called using ArchR on all cells form the single-cell ATAC

data were considered (see the method section "ATAC-Seq pseudobulk data from PBMCs and cancer

samples") and counts were averaged across all cells of each pseudobulk. For RNA-Seq pseudobulks,

counts were also averaged across all cells of each pseudobulk. All aggregated data were depth

normalized across each features to 10^6. Cell-type deconvolution was performed on each pseudobulk

using EPIC-ATAC on the peak matrix using our ATAC-Seq marker peaks and reference profiles. The RNA-

Seq and gene activity pseudobulks were deconvolved with EPIC.

Bulk ATAC-Seq samples from a PBMC cohort were also obtained from Morandini *et al.* (Morandini *et*

al., 2024). These data include more than 100 samples with matched bulk RNA-Seq, bulk ATAC-Seq as

well as matched flow cytometry data. The ATAC-Seq and RNA-Seq raw counts were obtained from GEO

using the following GEO accession numbers: GSE193140 and GSE193141. As for the previously

mentioned datasets, raw counts were normalized using the TPM-like transformation prior to bulk

deconvolution. The flow cytometry data were obtained from the supplementary file 7 from the original

publication and the data were rescaled as follows: CD4+ and CD8+ T cells proportions were rescaled to

sum up to the proportion of T cells and the T cells, B cells and NK cells proportions were rescaled to

sum up to the proportion of lymphocytes. All proportions were then rescaled to sum up to 1. EPIC-

ATAC was applied on the ATAC-Seq data and EPIC to the RNA-Seq data and the performances of each

set of predictions were compared to each other.

Code availability

The code to download and preprocess publicly available ATAC-Seq samples as well as the code used to

identify our cell-type specific marker peaks and generate the reference profiles is available on GitHub

(https://github.com/GfellerLab/EPIC-ATAC_Manuscript). A README file is provided on the GitHub

repository with more details on how to use the code.

The code to perform ATAC-Seq deconvolution using the EPIC-ATAC framework is available as an R

package called EPICATAC and is available on GitHub (https://github.com/GfellerLab/EPIC-ATAC).

Data availability

The newly generated ATAC-Seq data have been deposited on Zenodo

(https://zenodo.org/records/12571947). The other data related to this work are available in the

supplementary tables and on the Zenodo deposit (https://zenodo.org/records/12571947).

Competing interests:

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors contributions:

Conceptualization: AAGG, JR, DG; Data curation: AAGG; Software: AAGG, JR; Experiments: MF, CJ;

Visualization: AAGG, JR, DG; Methodology: AAGG, JR, DG; Writing—original draft: AAGG, DG; Writing—

review and editing: all authors.

Supplementary Figures: Additional file named Supplementary_figures.pdf

Supplementary Tables:

Sup. Table 1: Metadata of the ATAC-Seq samples used in the study

Sup. Table 2: Averaged chromatin accessibility of the PBMC marker peaks in each cell-type.

Sup. Table 3: Averaged chromatin accessibility of the TME marker peaks in each cell-type.

Sup. Table 4: Annotations of the cell-type specific PBMC marker peaks

Sup. Table 5: Annotations of the cell-type specific TME marker peaks

Sup. Table 6: GO pathways enriched in each set of cell-type specific PBMC marker peaks

Sup. Table 7: GO pathways enriched in each set of cell-type specific TME marker peaks

Sup. Table 8: Averaged chromatin accessibility of the PBMC marker peaks in each cell-type (T cells

subtypes included).

Sup. Table 9: Averaged chromatin accessibility of the TME marker peaks in each cell-type (T cells

subtypes included).

Sup. Table 10: Annotations of the cell-type specific PBMC marker peaks (T cells subtypes included).

Sup. Table 11: Annotations of the cell-type specific TME marker peaks (T cells subtypes included).

Sup. Table 12: GO pathways enriched in each set of cell-type specific PBMC marker peaks (T cell

subtypes).

Sup. Table 13: GO pathways enriched in each set of cell-type specific TME marker peaks (T cell

subtypes).

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List of abbreviations:

ATAC: Assay for Transposase-Accessible chromatin

CBP(s): chromatin binding protein(s)

ChIP-seq: chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing

CRE: cis-regulatory element

DC: dendritic cells

HTAN: Human Tumor Atlas Network

NK: natural killer cells

PCA: principal component analysis

RMSE: root mean squared error

TCGA : The Cancer Genome Atlas

TF(s): transcription factor(s)

TNBC: triple negative breast cancer

TSS: transcription start site

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Robust estimation of cancer and immune cell-type proportions from bulk tumor ATAC-Seq data.

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Supplementary Figure 1: **A)** Chromatin accessibility signal of each marker peak (rows) in each reference sample and in the ENCODE samples from diverse tissues (columns). **B)** Pairwise scatterplots of the first 3 axes of the PCA run on the PBMC markers (top) and TME markers (bottom).

Supplementary Figure 2: Left panel: Proportions of each cell type in the PBMC experiment samples. Shapes match the points shapes from Figure 3B in the main text. Right panel: Chromatin accessibility signal (log scale) of the cell-type specific marker peaks (rows) in each sample (columns) of the PBMC experiment dataset.

Supplementary Figure 3: A) Comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by the different deconvolution methods included in the benchmark (y axis) and the true proportions (x axis) in the PBMC experiment samples (top panel) and in the PBMC pseudobulk samples (bottom panel). **B)** Comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by CIBERSORTx and DeconPeaker using reference profiles built by each tool using our collection of pure ATAC-Seq samples and the true proportions in the PBMC experiment samples (top panel) and in the PBMC pseudobulk samples (bottom panel). **C)** Pearson's correlation coefficient and RMSE values associated to the comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by each deconvolution tool in each cell type of the PBMC datasets, colors correspond to cell types. Note that for quanTIseq, gray dots correspond to uncharacterized cells since the prediction of an uncharacterized cell type can not be turned off using the quanTIseq function from the quantiseqr R package. *P*-values resulting from a paired wilcoxon test are represented for each pair of comparison between tools. Significance levels are represented as follows: *: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$.

Supplementary Figure 4: Comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by EPIC-ATAC (y axis) and the true proportions (x axis) in the HTAN dataset.

Supplementary Figure 5: Comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by the different deconvolution methods using our reference profiles and the true proportions in the basal cell carcinoma samples (top panel), in the gynecological cancer samples (middle panel) and in the HTAN samples (bottom panel). In each panel, the top row includes the uncharacterized cells while the bottom row excludes them.

Supplementary Figure 6: Comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by CIBERSORTx and Decon-Peaker using reference profiles built by each tool using our collection of pure ATAC-Seq samples and the true proportions in the basal cell carcinoma samples (panel A), in the gynecological cancer samples (panel B) and in the HTAN samples (panel C). In each panel, the top row includes the uncharacterized cells while the bottom row excludes them.

Supplementary Figure 7: Top panel: RMSE values associated to the comparison of the true proportions and the cell-type proportions estimated by each deconvolution tool in each cell type. For each cell type, all samples from each cancer pseudobulk dataset were considered, *i.e.*, colors correspond to cell types and shapes to datasets. *P*-values resulting from a paired wilcoxon test are represented for each pair of comparison between tools. Significance levels are represented as follows: *: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$. Bottom panel: Considering that not all deconvolution tools are able to predict the proportion of uncharacterized cells, the same analysis as in the top panel was performed without considering the uncharacterized cells predictions.

Supplementary Figure 8: CPU time in seconds needed to run each tool on the benchmarking datasets.

Supplementary Figure 9: Pearson's correlation (left panel) and RMSE values (right panel) associated to the comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by each deconvolution tool (rows) included in the benchmark and the true cell-type proportions in the PBMC samples. The comparisons were made in each cell-type (columns) separately. Significance level of the correlations are represented as follows: *: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$.

Supplementary Figure 10: Pearson's correlation (left panel) and RMSE values (right panel) associated to the comparison of the cell-type proportions estimated by each deconvolution tool (rows) included in the benchmark and the true cell-type proportions. The comparisons were made in each cell-type (columns) separately. Panel **A**, **B** and **C** are associated to the benchmark performed on the basal cell carcinoma dataset (A), the gynecological cancer dataset (B) and the HTAN dataset (C). Significance level of the correlations are represented as follows: *: $p < 0.05$, **: $p < 0.01$, ***: $p < 0.001$.

Supplementary Figure 11: **A)** Scaled averaged chromatin accessibility of each cell-type specific marker peak in each cell-type obtained based on the ATAC-Seq reference samples used to identify the marker peaks. **B)** Scaled averaged chromatin accessibility of each cell-type specific marker peak in each cell-type from the sorted samples excluded from the reference samples (See Material and Methods).

Supplementary Figure 12: Left panels: Scatter plots representing proportions estimated by the different deconvolution tools included in the benchmark (y-axis) as a function of the true proportions (x-axis) for PBMC samples (top row) and the basal cell carcinoma pseudobulks (bottom row). CD4+ and CD8+ T-cells predictions were obtained using the reference profiles based on the major cell-types and the CD4+ and CD8+ T-cell subtypes predictions using the reference profiles including the T-cells subtypes. Right panels: Barplots representing Pearson's correlation values (x-axis) obtained based on the comparison of the predictions and true proportions in each cell-type (y-axis).

Supplementary Figure 13: Top panel: Proportions of each myeloid cell type predicted by EPIC-ATAC in each sample as a function of the average ATAC signal at the myeloid specific CREs used by Kumegawa and colleagues to infer the level of infiltration in the tumor samples. Middle panel: Proportions of different cell types predicted by EPIC-ATAC in the samples stratified based on two breast cancer subtypes. Bottom panel: Proportions of different cell types predicted by EPIC-ATAC in the samples stratified based on three ER+/HER2- subgroups. Wilcoxon test p-values are represented at the top of the boxplots