Integrative multi-omics uncovers skeletal muscle enhancer programming of cardiorespiratory fitness

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Abstract

Cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF) is a heritable trait associated with improved metabolic health and reduced mortality. To identify regulatory mechanisms associated with CRF variation, we generated and integrated 546 transcriptomic and epigenomic (chromatin accessibility and histone marks) profiles from 128 genetically heterogeneous rats selectively bred for high and low running capacity, a model that mirrors CRF-associated traits in humans. We found that selection for high CRF led to genetic convergence in skeletal muscle regulatory regions linked to genes involved in lipid metabolism and angiogenesis. We validated thousands of these genetic effects through generation and integration of 426 genotype, gene expression, and chromatin accessibility profiles in an independent HCR×LCR F2 population (n=147). Together, these 972 omics profiles show that genetic variation reshapes the chromatin landscape to support energy metabolism and oxygen delivery in skeletal muscle and overall CRF, offering a molecular framework to identify targets that reduce cardiometabolic disease risk.

Abbreviations & Glossary of Intentionally Used Words

- AME = analysis of motif enrichment
- BCAA = branched-chain amino acid
- caQTL = chromatin accessibility quantitative trait locus
- CRF = cardiorespiratory fitness
- ETS = E26 transformation-specific
- eQTL = expression quantitative trait locus
- FDR = false discovery rate
- F_{ST} = fixation index
- HCR = high capacity runners
- LCR = low capacity runners
- LD = linkage disequilibrium
- PCA = principal component analysis
- RPM = reads per million
- SNP = single nucleotide polymorphism
- SRF = serum response factor
- TF = transcription factor
- TSS = transcription start site
- VO_2max = maximal oxygen uptake

- Modality/modalities: essentially a dataset. A modality can refer to one or multiple of ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac & additional histone modifications, chromatin states such as Strong Enhancer, and/or RNA-Seq
- Peaks: only refers to ATAC-Seq and CUT&Tag data
- Features: can collectively refer to genomic regions of one or more modality classes (genes, peaks, and/or chromatin state regions)
- Variant(s): SNP(s)

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Introduction

Physical activity is recognized for its salutary effect on human health and longevity[1,2], while sedentary time independently increases risk of cardiometabolic disease and mortality[1–3]. Cardiorespiratory fitness (CRF), measured by the maximal oxygen uptake (VO_2max) during a graded exercise test, is a strong predictor of cardiometabolic risk and mortality[4,5] even when accounting for preexisting cardiovascular disease risk factors[6,7]. CRF is a heritable trait with 50-75% of its variation being genetically determined (*intrinsic* CRF)[8–10]. Regular exercise can increase VO_2max by 8-15% and has shown particularly strong fitness and longevity effects in individuals with low intrinsic CRF[11–13]. The genetic determinants of CRF and exercise training appear to be largely distinct[14], which may explain why individuals with low CRF who exercise still face higher risks of cardiometabolic disease and premature death than their non-exercising, high CRF counterparts[12]. Because CRF is a valuable clinical metric[6,14] and behavioral interventions have limited impact on modifying it, we seek to understand how CRF-associated genetic variation is related to diverse physiological phenotypes, including longevity.

To study intrinsic CRF, we use a genetically heterogeneous rat model selectively bred for oxidative capacity, generating two divergent populations of High Capacity Runner (HCR) and Low Capacity Runner (LCR) lines[15]. This well-characterized model was developed from the N/NIH founder stock based on a run-to-exhaustion test as the metric of CRF with genetic diversity maintained through a rotational breeding paradigm[15]. This selection strategy led to persistent and heritable line-specific phenotypes that recapitulate human traits associated with divergent CRF, including sex-independent differences in physiologic measures of cardiometabolic health and longevity[16,17]. The within-line positive correlation between running capacity and longevity emphasizes the genetic underpinning of oxidative capacity and its impact on longevity[16]. HCR, compared to LCR, exhibit greater skeletal[18] and cardiac[19] muscle mass, increased skeletal muscle mitochondria[20–22] and capillary density[18,23–25], and higher type I and IIa fiber content[23,26]. These features are accompanied by enhanced energy utilization through preferential fatty acid oxidation[27] and delayed depletion of muscle glycogen during intense exercise[27] – also hallmarks of people with high oxidative capacity[27–31]. Transcriptome profiling of skeletal muscle further demonstrated an upregulation of genes involved in oxidative phosphorylation, fatty acid oxidation, and branched-chain amino acid (BCAA) metabolism, along with reduced expression of inflammatory pathways in HCR rats compared to LCR rats[28,32]. While large-scale human population studies have identified genetic variants associated with CRF[33,34], there remains a gap in knowledge about the underlying skeletal muscle molecular changes that drive oxidative capacity. The genetic variants that were selected to produce the HCR and LCR rat model provide a unique and tractable system to study the pathways shaped by selection that underlie variation in intrinsic CRF.

Approximately 90% of trait-associated common genetic variants are concentrated in noncoding regions of the genome[35] where they can modulate transcription factor (TF) binding and epigenomic activity[36] in cell-specific and trait-relevant contexts. We propose that genetic variants underlying HCR/LCR divergence act through epigenomic regulatory mechanisms that influence genes involved in oxidative capacity. To address this, we generate the first comprehensive skeletal muscle epigenomic map of CRF using 128 HCR and LCR rats by profiling chromatin accessibility via assay for transposase-accessible chromatin (ATAC-Seq)[37] and five gene expression-relevant histone modifications (H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K4me3, H3K36me3, H3K27me3) using Cleavage Under Targets and Tagmentation (CUT&Tag)[38]. We integrate these data with transcriptome profiles and genetic variation to identify regulatory mechanisms and candidate variants that link CRF-associated genetic divergence to downstream molecular pathways, including skeletal muscle regulatory elements and target genes. Our findings demonstrate that CRF-associated genetic variation concentrates in skeletal muscle epigenomic regions that influence TF and chromatin activity associated with genes involved in energy utilization, vascular remodeling, and skeletal muscle development. To validate the effects of genetic variants on epigenomic regulation and gene expression, we performed integrative analyses of ATAC-Seq (n = 132), RNA-Seq (n = 147), and genotype data collected from an HCR×LCR F2 population consisting of 491 rats[39]. Together, our results show that the epigenome serves as a molecular convergence point through which genetic selection shapes

skeletal muscle physiology related to CRF. This work nominates regulatory elements, genes, and variants as candidate molecular drivers of CRF, establishing a mechanistic framework for therapeutic strategies aimed at reducing cardiometabolic risk and promoting healthy aging.

Results

Divergent skeletal muscle epigenomic signatures associate with intrinsic cardiorespiratory fitness

To understand epigenomic and transcriptomic patterns associated with CRF, we profiled lateral gastrocnemius muscle from 128 HCR/LCR rats balanced for sex and acute exercise conditions. Briefly, half of the cohort underwent a six-week endurance training regimen with subsequent tissue collection either prior to, during, or after a near-exhaustion acute exercise bout (Figure S1A). To isolate selection driven CRF divergence between lines, all data were adjusted for sex, training, and acute exercise (Figure S4E-F). We generated a total of 546 omic profiles spanning seven modalities including chromatin accessibility (ATAC-Seq, n = 123), five histone marks (CUT&Tag, n = 59 per mark), and gene expression (RNA-Seq, n = 128) (Figure 1A). The histone marks (H3K27me3, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K4me3, and H3K36me3) alongside chromatin accessibility enable discovery of active, poised, and repressed chromatin states (Figure 1B). For example, we show the epigenomic signal from an individual sample surrounding *Gapdh*, a housekeeping gene expressed in skeletal muscle (Figure 1C). H3K4me3, ATAC-Seq, and H3K27ac signals are observed at the transcription start site (TSS), indicative of an open and active promoter region. Moderate levels of H3K36me3 signal, along with low levels of the repressive H3K27me3, reflects active transcription of the gene. Study-wide consistency of our data is exemplified by signal concordance at representative loci across modalities (Figure 1D) and principal component analysis (PCA) of genome-wide fragment counts showed clear within-modality clustering (Figure 1E). Notably, PC1 exhibited separation between repressive and active marks, while PC2 separated different classes of active marks, demonstrating the reproducibility and biological specificity of the diverse epigenomic profiles in this study.

Chromatin accessibility and histone modification profiles were uniformly integrated across each muscle sample using a single ChromHMM[40] model to derive a common set of 12 chromatin states based on the presence, combination, and signal abundance of each mark across the genome (Figure 2A), producing posterior probabilities that represent the likelihood of each chromatin state occurring at genome-wide loci. Figure 2B demonstrates the strength of this integration at a representative locus where increased ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 signal in HCR coincides with a ChromHMM-derived Strong Enhancer state, while the same genomic locus is classified as a Quiescent/Low state in LCR. The HCR/LCR differences observed across individual peaks collectively support a differential Strong Enhancer state. Processing data for gene expression, chromatin accessibility, histone modification peak abundance, and chromatin state posteriors resulted in 14,781 *genes*, 101,638 chromatin accessible *peaks*, 45k-91k histone modification *peaks*, and 97k-124k chromatin state *regions*, respectively (Figure 2C). Each of these datasets is treated as a distinct *modality* represented by a collection of genomic loci with sample-level values, collectively referred to as *feature*s.

We first asked whether epigenomic differences accompany transcriptional differences between HCR and LCR rats, interpreting HCR/LCR differences as CRF-associated changes (HCR up = high CRF; LCR up = low CRF). Using modality-specific methods (Figure 2C) that normalized for technical and experimental variables (Figure S4B), we identified thousands of differences in gene expression, chromatin accessibility, histone abundance, and chromatin state probabilities between HCR and LCR (Figure 2C). As an example, Figure 2D shows the magnitude of differences in H3K4me1 peak abundance with 3,707 HCR up and 2,560 LCR up peaks (FDR < 0.1 & $|log_2FC| > 0.5$), suggesting selection-driven alterations in enhancer elements. These results demonstrate widespread CRF-associated epigenomic divergence across active, poised, and repressed chromatin states (Figure 2C, Figure S6A-F).

Cardiorespiratory fitness-divergent epigenomic regions uncover angiogenesis and skeletal muscle remodeling pathways

To establish a transcriptional reference point for the CRF phenotype, we performed pathway enrichment analysis on the HCR/LCR differential gene expression. Genes upregulated in HCRs were predominantly enriched for mitochondrial-related processes including aerobic respiration, oxidative phosphorylation, fatty acid oxidation, and BCAA degradation (FDRs < $4.26×10^{-9}$) (Figure S7A-B), consistent with previous studies[28,32]. A distinct signal related to angiogenesis was also identified (23 gene sets, FDRs = $6.9×10^{-5}$ to $3.6×10^{-2}$, highlighted in Figure S7A). These transcriptional profiles align with known CRF phenotypes of enhanced mitochondrial function[27] and capillary density[18,23–25] in HCR, reinforcing the functional interpretability of these data to evaluate epigenomic features.

We next asked whether CRF-divergent epigenomic features recapitulate the biological pathways identified by RNA-Seq or reflect distinct biology. We assigned each differential HCR/LCR epigenomic feature (nominal *p*-value < 0.01) to genes with the nearest TSS and performed pathway enrichment analysis. Across epigenomic modalities, the 'nearest TSS' genes were enriched for between 1 and 1,004 gene sets (FDR < 0.05) that demonstrated strong internal concordance (mean kappa coefficient = 0.23), but had low overlap with the RNA-Seq enrichment (mean kappa coefficient = -0.11) (Figure 2E). For example, differential Strong Enhancer nearest TSS genes predominantly enriched for pathways involved in skeletal muscle development, structural remodeling, and muscle cell differentiation, which were largely absent in RNA-Seq enrichment (Figure 2F). Among the few shared enrichments, actin binding and ameboidal-type cell migration reflect known CRF phenotypes of increased muscle size and capillarization in HCR skeletal muscle compared to LCR[18,23–25]. This suggests that the CRF-divergent epigenome may regulate lineage-specific developmental programs, such as muscle remodeling and angiogenesis, that are complementary to CRF but only modestly captured by RNA-Seq.

On average, the epigenomic regions driving enrichment reside 51.8 kb from the nearest TSS, indicating distal enhancer activity. Enhancers frequently regulate genes that are not their nearest neighbors[41–44], making linear proximity annotation prone to misassignment. This may in part explain the limited enrichment for mitochondrial metabolism observed in the epigenomic data, despite its strong enrichment in RNA-Seq (Figure S7A). To address this limitation, we developed a correlation-based framework to directly link regulatory elements to gene expression, independent of genomic distance.

Multimodal correlation analysis identifies distal epigenomic and promoter networks linked to the expression of genes involved in mitochondrial metabolism

Functional connections between epigenomic regulatory elements and gene transcription were directly inferred by applying a peak-to-gene (Pk2G) correlation framework. We mapped positive and negative regulatory associations between gene expression and both distal (TSS ±1 Mb) and promoter (TSS -2 kb, TSS +1 kb) from ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and H3K4me3 modalities (Figure 3A). We identified 229,444 positive and 207,613 negative significant (FDR < 0.05) regulatory Pk2G links involving 88,440 peaks from open and active chromatin modalities and 10,786 genes. Consistent with our earlier findings, only 17.5% of peaks were most significantly linked to their nearest gene, whereas 50.1% were linked to genes 2-10 genes away and 32.5% to genes located more than 10 genes away, consistent with the biology that distal regulatory elements bypass nearby genes to modulate distal targets[41–43]. This map of gene regulation is illustrated at the *Decr1* locus, a mitochondrial gene involved in fatty acid beta-oxidation[45], where multiple regulatory elements show both positive and negative correlation with expression (Figure 3B). Additional examples in Figure S8 highlight the CRF-related regulatory architecture that connects chromatin activity to transcription. This Pk2G approach connects epigenomic peaks to biological function through gene expression, providing the framework to interpret how selection shaped the regulatory programs underlying the variation in CRF.

To identify biological processes potentially under primary control of the CRF-divergent epigenomic features, we performed pathway enrichment analysis on the Pk2G target genes linked to differential HCR/LCR peaks (nominal *p*-value < 0.01), ranked by the significance of correlation of the Pk2G link. Given that chromatin accessibility and histone modifications can both activate and repress transcription, we conducted four independent analyses: 1) HCR up peaks positively linked to gene targets, 2) HCR up peaks negatively linked to gene targets, 3) LCR up peaks positively linked to gene targets, and 4) LCR up peaks negatively linked to gene targets. Notably, genes positively linked to LCR up peaks enriched only for contractile fiber (boxed in Figure 3C), driven by the predominance of glycolytic type II fiber genes (*Actn3*, *Myl1*, *Casq1*), possibly reflecting the greater reliance on glucose as a fuel source during acute exercise in the LCR, resulting in lower endurance capacity[27]. In contrast, genes positively linked to HCR up peaks and negatively linked to LCR up peaks enriched for gene sets related to mitochondrial processes (aerobic respiration, fatty acid and BCAA metabolism) as well as endothelial angiogenesis (Figure 3C), mirroring RNA-Seq enrichment patterns (Figure S7A). This concordance between Pk2G and RNA-Seq derived enrichment supports the idea that selection has shaped distal epigenomic elements regulating energy metabolism and vascularization central to CRF-related phenotypes.

Among the enriched clusters with epigenomic and transcriptional concordance, we highlight the "small molecule catabolic process" cluster as it represents a set of biologically relevant genes that function in oxidative fatty acid metabolism. In this cluster, 124 HCR up peaks were positively linked to 130 target genes. Of these, 124 genes overlapped with the 463 genes that enriched this cluster from the RNA-Seq differential analysis. Comparison of the differential gene expression and Pk2G significance values highlights *Cyp2j4*, *Acadsb*, *Acad11*, *Mtm1*, and *Eci2* as top candidates under strong selection-driven epigenomic regulation (Figure 3D). Regulation of this fatty acid and BCAA metabolism gene subset may establish a metabolic framework that dictates mitochondrial efficiency through preferential fatty acid and BCAA utilization, core processes associated with CRF.

Distinct transcription factor networks in cardiorespiratory fitness associated enhancer regions regulate energy metabolism and vascularization

Having established that CRF-associated epigenomic features regulate nuclear-encoded mitochondrial genes and genes important for angiogenesis, we next asked whether distinct patterns of TF binding contribute to the divergent transcriptional and epigenomic profiles between HCR and LCR. We compared motif enrichment globally (Figure 4A) between significantly different HCR up regions and LCR up regions passing the conservative significance thresholds provided in Figure 2C, probing motifs for TFs that are expressed in the skeletal muscle based on presence in the RNA-Seq data. Applying this approach on epigenomic modalities associated with open chromatin, we identified 146 differential motifs, represented by 78 TFs (Figure 4B, Figure S9B). These results demonstrate widespread divergence in TF binding opportunity between HCR and LCR populations, independent of their expression profiles (Figure S10B).

We next characterized the epigenomic regions containing differential motifs through over-representation analysis of Pk2G target genes, stratified by modality, motif, and directionality between epigenomic marks and target gene expression. These motifs predominantly occur in differential ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 regions, highlighted by the heatmap cluster with the most abundant signal in Figure 4C. HCR up ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 peaks with greater E26 transformation-specific (ETS) family TF binding potential positively regulate genes involved in oxidative phosphorylation and mitochondrial structure (Figure 4D). Notably, HCR up H3K4me1 peaks' positive gene targets are further enriched for fatty acid oxidation, BCAA oxidation, and vascular development gene sets (Figure 4D), refining the regulatory processes identified in Figure 3C. This suggests that the ETS TF function, in coordination with the H3K4me1 mark, plays an important role in orchestrating gene expression patterns that biologically optimize oxidative phosphorylation and oxygen delivery through enhanced capillary structure. These adaptations are directly linked to increased VO₂ max and related phenotypes, including lower body weight and enhanced cardiovascular function[6,46–51]. In contrast, LCR up peaks with differential binding potential for serum response factor (SRF) family TF motifs negatively regulate genes involved in these same mitochondrial

processes. These putative repressive and activating mechanisms suggest bidirectional and orthogonal selection for epigenomic regulation occurring in CRF-associated gene enhancers.

Selection of regulatory variants coincide with epigenomic divergence in HCR/LCR

Given the heritability of CRF, we asked whether epigenomic differences between HCR and LCR align with population-level genetic differentiation between the two lines, as expected under selection for running capacity. We imputed genotypes from single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) called from RNA-Seq data, which yielded 637,713 variant sites across the genome. Differences in allele frequency between HCR and LCR were quantified by calculating per-variant fixation indices (F_{ST}), a standard metric for detecting loci under selection that ranges from 0 (no divergence) to 1 (complete fixation between HCR/LCR lines). To assess whether allele frequency divergence is more pronounced in differential epigenomic peaks, we performed linear regression between HCR/LCR epigenomic peak significance ($-\log_{10}(p$-value)) and F_{ST} values of variants residing within each peak (Figure 5A). Allele frequency divergence increased with the strength of epigenomic differences, particularly for ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 peaks (Figure 5B). These findings imply that selection of regulatory variants has contributed to chromatin remodeling at enhancers, influencing mitochondrial and angiogenic gene networks underlying CRF. Line-specific alleles within these enhancer regions may disrupt TF binding motifs, acting as regulatory pivot points that distinguish epigenomic and transcriptomic profiles based on high and low aerobic capacity.

Cardiorespiratory fitness associated allelic fixation modulates epigenomic regulation of energy metabolism via transcription factor binding

Building on our observation that fixed variants are enriched in enhancer regions associated with CRF, we next examined whether the presence of population-specific alleles directly alter TF binding affinity. We performed allele-specific differential motif enrichment analysis, testing the same epigenomic regions included in the global approach. To test the impact of fixed alleles ($F_{ST} > 0.3$) on motif recognition, we compared TF motif enrichment under two conditions for each modality: 1) HCR up regions with HCR alleles vs. HCR up regions with LCR alleles and 2) LCR up regions with LCR alleles vs. LCR up regions with HCR alleles (Figure 5C). Comparing enrichment significance across these trials, we identified 246 differentially enriched motifs that 121 TFs may bind (Figure 5D, Figure S9A). Of these, 92 motifs were unique to HCR up features, 76 to LCR up features, and 78 were shared. Importantly, 91.9% of the differentially enriched motifs do not exhibit significantly different expression of the encoded TF gene (Figure S10A), suggesting that selection acts primarily through altered TF binding potential rather than TF abundance.

Differentially enriched motifs predominantly belong to the TF families of Cys2-His2 zinc finger (zf-C2H2), ETS, Forkhead, and basic helix-loop-helix (bHLH), all with established roles in skeletal muscle identity[52–58] and mitochondrial function[59–65]. The functions of these TF families are consistent with our earlier pathway enrichment analyses in which skeletal muscle development was captured by peaks annotated to the nearest TSS (Figure 2F) and mitochondrial processes emerging from Pk2G links (Figure 3C). These TF families highlight how molecular adaptations that support enhanced aerobic capacity may be rooted in the presence of population alleles that enhance TF-mediated regulation of gene expression.

We identified 799 disrupted motifs linking allelic fixation to gene expression through epigenomic regulation. The impact of allele-specific binding on predicted TF binding affinity is illustrated by the Sp1 motif containing variant chr8:104691692 ($F_{ST} = 0.54$), where the HCR-enriched G allele (HCR allele frequency = 0.80) strengthens the motif match at position 10 compared to the LCR-enriched C allele (LCR allele frequency = 0.92, Figure 5G). Although *Sp1* is not differentially expressed between lines ($\log_2FC = -0.15$, FDR = 6.64×10^{-10}; Figure 5G), the chr8:104691692 G allele is observed alongside elevated ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and H3K4me3 profiles (Figure 5F), all of which have positive Pk2G links with *Acad11* expression (Figure 5E). *Acad11* is a fatty acid dehydrogenase[66] and is upregulated in HCR ($\log_2FC = 1.04$, FDR = 3.59×10^{-66}). The chr8:104691692 G

allele likely drives this epigenomic and transcriptomic profile but would require validation in an independent and more genetically diverse population.

To generalize our biological understanding beyond the individual Sp1 motif, we assessed the functional relevance of all disrupted motifs through over-representation analysis of Pk2G target genes. Active and repressive mechanisms were explored by combining all modalities and conducting four independent analyses: 1) HCR up peaks with HCR preferred motifs positively linked to gene targets, 2) HCR up peaks with HCR preferred motifs negatively linked to gene targets, 3) LCR up peaks with LCR preferred motifs positively linked to gene targets, and 4) LCR up peaks with LCR preferred motifs negatively linked to gene targets. Target genes positively linked to HCR preferred motifs significantly enriched for gene sets involved in fatty acid metabolism and aerobic respiration (FDR < 0.1) (Figure 5H). These results demonstrate how allelic fixation can directly influence mitochondrial and lipid gene expression and metabolism (Figure 5I), establishing a molecular mechanism by which genetic divergence shapes the physiological traits underlying CRF.

Genetic variation in an independent population validates regulatory mechanisms underlying cardiorespiratory fitness

Thus far, our results demonstrate many epigenomic differences between HCR and LCR skeletal muscle that correspond with gene expression patterns reflective of intrinsic CRF. In addition, we show a higher concentration of fixed alleles in CRF-divergent epigenomic regions and exemplify how selection may shape TF binding affinity. Assessing how genetic variants are associated with chromatin accessibility and gene expression in a separate orthogonal population would support that these variants are important in driving these differences. We performed a large-scale validation study using a HCR×LCR cross 'F2' population we created 11 generations prior to the current study, with ~13% less inbreeding than the generation 39 HCR/LCR, to conduct phenotype association studies[39] (Figure 6A).

To enable genetic association with gene expression and chromatin accessibility in the F2 population, we genotyped the F2 population and performed ATAC-Seq (n = 132) and RNA-Seq (n = 147) on gastrocnemius muscle samples. These additional data allowed us to evaluate genotypes at 1,730,238 imputed SNPs for association with the 1) expression of 14,047 genes through expression quantitative trait locus (eQTL) analysis and 2) accessibility of 120,351 ATAC-Seq peaks through chromatin accessibility quantitative trait locus (caQTL) analysis (Figure 6B). To account for linkage disequilibrium (LD), we grouped variants with $r^2 \geq 0.99$ to the most significant variant and refer to them as (e/ca)VariantClusters where appropriate. We identified 4,747 genes with a significant eQTL (eGenes, FDR < 0.05) regulated by 3,416 eVariantClusters and 10,099 peaks with a significant caQTL (caPeaks, FDR < 0.05) regulated by 5,115 caVariantClusters. Because the HCR×LCR recombination events produced an F2 population with a broad range in running capacity[39], these associations provide a framework to explore how genetic variation may contribute to transcriptional and epigenomic regulation relevant to intrinsic CRF. To further refine variant-peak interactions, we focused on caPeaks where the associated variant was within the peak or in strong LD ($r^2 > 0.8$) with the most significant caVariant. This resulted in a set of 2,535 caPeaks linked to 1,582 caVariantClusters. This map of allelic effects on the skeletal muscle epigenome and transcriptome in the F2 population serves as a robust validation framework for mechanisms identified in the HCR/LCR model.

Next, we assessed whether the variants associated with gene expression or chromatin accessibility in the F2 population also correlate, with the same direction of effect, with the gene expression and chromatin activity differences observed between the HCR/LCR lines. For example, if one allele of a genetic variant predominates in the HCR line and the other allele predominates in the LCR line, and the HCR-favored allele positively associates with ATAC-Seq peak signal in the F2 population (relative to the LCR-favored allele), then one would expect the ATAC-Seq peak to have higher signal in the HCR line relative to the LCR line (Figure 6C). When comparing the allelic effects on chromatin accessibility observed in the F2 population, for caVariants with $F_{ST} >$

0.3 between the HCR/LCR lines, with the chromatin accessibility and histone modification differences (H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K4me3) observed between the HCR/LCR lines, we found high concordance (94%) of direction of effect, strongly supporting the hypothesis that these variants exert similar regulatory effects across populations (binomial p-value = $2.17×10^{-63}$, expected = 50%, alternative = "greater"; Figure 6D).

Similarly, we assessed if F2 allelic effects on gene expression parallel HCR/LCR changes by comparing the signed $-\log_{10}(p$-value) of eGenes where a variant with $F_{ST} > 0.3$ was in strong LD with the top eVariant ($r^2 > 0.9$) to the signed $-\log_{10}(p$-value) of HCR/LCR gene expression changes. This resulted in 85% concordance (binomial p-value = $1.63×10^{-89}$, expected = 50%, alternative = "greater"; Figure 6E), indicating that variant-driven gene expression differences in F2 largely translate to the HCR/LCR population. Finally, we tested whether eQTL effects align with Pk2G links, which capture peak-gene expression relationships in the HCR/LCR data (Figure 6F). If a regulatory peak containing an eVariant functionally links to gene expression, the effect allele should show consistent impact across datasets. We observed 69% concordance (binomial p-value = $3.15×10^{-17}$, expected = 50%, alternative = "greater"), showing a significant overlap in allele-driven epigenomic modifications influencing transcription between the F2 and HCR/LCR model.

Considering the co-occurrence of variant-gene and variant-chromatin links allows us to pinpoint variants that may influence TF binding affinity, which can provide insights into the regulatory mechanisms behind physiological traits associated with innate running capacity. As an example, we show the validation of variant chr8:104691692 within the Sp1 motif (Figure 5E-G). The ATAC-Seq peak is positively correlated with *Acad11* expression in HCR and LCR (Figure 6G) and F2 (Figure 6J). In the HCR/LCR model, the presence of the C allele is positively associated with the intronic-residing ATAC-Seq peak (Figure 6H) and *Acad11* expression (Figure 6I). The F2 genotypes at variant chr8:104691692 are also significantly associated with chromatin accessibility of the overlapping ATAC-Seq peak from the HCR/LCR dataset (caQTL β = 0.47, p-value = $5.1×10^{-4}$; Figure 6K) and expression of *Acad11* (eQTL β = 1.11, p-value = $4×10^{-37}$; Figure 6L). This suggests that an increase in *Sp1* binding due to the A-allele present at variant chr8:104691692 in animals with increased running capacity leads to greater chromatin accessibility, facilitating the binding of additional transcriptional machinery, which leads to an increased expression of *Acad11*. This is one of the 293 examples validated in our study that likely contributes toward shaping the regulatory landscape in relation to the CRF phenotype.

Ultimately, the concordance between the genetic effects on chromatin accessibility/gene expression in the F2 population and the epigenomic/gene expression differences observed between the HCRs and LCRs suggests that genetic differences between the HCRs and LCRs drive many of the observed epigenomic and gene expression differences between the lines. It also lends independent support to the reliability of the differential HCR/LCR gene expression and chromatin activity analyses. Because a large fraction of genetic variants associated with complex traits likely exert their effects via gene regulation[35,67], the (e/ca)Variants we have identified in the F2 population should be of particular interest when searching for functional, CRF-associated variants in the HCR/LCR lines and their effects on chromatin accessibility and gene expression.

Discussion

Intrinsic CRF is a complex trait that serves as a determinant of cardiometabolic health and a reproducible predictor of longevity. Beyond previous genetic association[33,34] and skeletal muscle transcriptome studies[32,68,69], the molecular mechanisms underlying CRF are poorly understood. Here, we used the well-characterized HCR/LCR rat model to generate the first comprehensive skeletal muscle epigenomic map of CRF. By integrating multi-omic data and incorporating a validation study, we demonstrate that CRF-divergent genetic variants converge on skeletal muscle epigenomic loci that, in turn, shape transcriptomic signatures. These molecular signatures highlight remodeled skeletal muscle optimized for oxygen and nutrient delivery and expanded mitochondrial capacity of ATP generation to support contraction.

Focusing on understanding the underlying biology of CRF, we linked genetic variants to epigenomic features, associated epigenomic features to genes, nominated transcription factor binding events through motif enrichment, and explored how selected variants may influence complex regulatory networks (Figure S11). Our analyses discovered several notable pathways associated with CRF, including enhanced mitochondrial metabolism, fatty acid oxidation, and vascular remodeling, reflecting the phenotypes of humans with higher CRF[70–75]. To validate these discoveries, we performed a large-scale independent and orthogonal F2 population study with multi-omics profiling, and found concordant, allele-driven regulatory effects. In addition to providing a mechanistic understanding of how genetic variation shapes the skeletal muscle CRF-associated regulatory landscapes, this framework more broadly demonstrates how similar strategies can be applied to the study of other complex traits. Using this approach, we show that ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 marked enhancer regions associated with high CRF are enriched for ETS-family TF motifs, which we propose increase the expression of genes that encode for fatty acid oxidation and mitochondrial inner membrane proteins. While ETS TF regulation of mitochondrial gene expression in muscle has only been reported for a single ATP synthase beta-subunit[59], our results demonstrate broader involvement in mitochondrial programs. Notably, ETS TF expression differences are largely insignificant between HCR and LCR, indicating that genetically encoded differences in distal enhancer sites, rather than TF abundance, underlie CRF-related transcriptional differences.

Selective breeding of HCR and LCR rats gradually amplified phenotypes directly relevant to human CRF[17], with the greatest impact on skeletal muscle as observed by fewer mitochondrial differences in heart[76], liver[68], and adipose tissue[77] between the lines. The selection reshaped the skeletal muscle epigenome, specifically through ETS TF-driven enhancer networks regulating mitochondrial metabolism and angiogenesis. We propose that ETS TF-enriched regulatory elements enhance mitochondrial function in a coordinated fashion by increasing expression of trifunctional protein subunits, acyl-CoA dehydrogenases, fumarate hydratase, and genes encoding subunits of ETC complexes I-V in HCR. These epigenomic and transcriptomic patterns support streamlined electron entry and flow through Complex II, in which acyl-CoA dehydrogenases may indirectly increase electron flux, succinate dehydrogenase converts succinate into fumarate, which is subsequently metabolized to malate by fumarate hydratase ($\log_2$FC = 0.68, FDR = 1.47×10^{-257}, rank = 3). Together, these complementary regulatory mechanisms prime high CRF muscle for efficient oxidative metabolism (Figure 7).

Reduced mitochondrial fatty acid metabolism is consistent with mitochondrial 'dysfunction' observed in individuals predisposed to type 2 diabetes[78–80], where overload leads to the accumulation of diacylglycerols, ceramides, and other lipid species that promote insulin resistance and oxidative stress[81]. Additionally, short chain acyl-CoAs accumulation can influence protein modifications and impair mitochondrial function[82]. Many of the fatty acid and BCAA degrading dehydrogenases upregulated in HCR are evolutionarily ancient genes derived from α-proteobacteria with orthologs across Archaea, Bacteria, and Eukaryota[83,84], suggesting a deeply conserved central role in biology. The fine-tuning of gene expression by CRF-divergent variants in non-coding regions and preservation of coding sequences suggest that fundamental enzymatic functions of these genes have been conserved, while regulatory adaptation to selection has optimized mitochondrial metabolism. Notably, specific acyl-CoA dehydrogenase isoforms also metabolize peroxidized fatty acid metabolism, contributing to the removal of toxic lipid species[85,86]. From a modern health perspective, regulatory variants associated with high CRF may counteract the accumulation of fatty acids, reducing mitochondrial damage in skeletal muscle associated with sarcopenia, aging[87], obesity, and insulin resistance[88,89].

Selection for mitochondrial metabolism in HCR/LCR is accompanied by epigenomic regulation of angiogenic genes, also under control of ETS TFs. The parallel ETS control of angiogenesis supports both oxygen delivery and energy production under increased demand. While enhanced angiogenesis-related signal in HCR likely reflects epigenomically primed endothelial cells responding to myofibers-derived cues (*Vegfa* and *Vegfb*), several angiogenesis related genes (*Slc1a1*, *Parp14*, *Mmrn2*, and *Atp8b1*) are also linked to regulatory variants validated in the F2 cohort, suggesting allele-specific effects that prime the epigenome to regulate gene

expression in a dose-response manner (Figure 6C). This metabolic-vascular coupling likely reflects both a developmental program and an adaptive response to increased skeletal muscle energy demand, with shared transcriptional regulatory control at its core.

The HCR/LCR model provides a simple and physiologically relevant system to study CRF. We identified coordinated epigenomic tuning of skeletal muscle fatty acid metabolism, BCAA catabolism, and vascular remodeling, which are directly relevant to human cardiometabolic health. The regulatory signatures of noncoding variation that shape the chromatin landscape, TF binding, and metabolic gene expression establish a mechanistic framework for enhancing CRF through targeted intervention. As low intrinsic CRF is a strong predictor of cardiometabolic disease and reduced mortality regardless of exercise training, molecular strategies to manipulate CRF hold significant promise for improving health span, particularly in genetically susceptible individuals. Beyond CRF, our approach illustrates a generalizable strategy for dissecting the molecular architecture of complex traits through integrated multi-omic mapping and cross-population validation.

Resource Availability

Lead contact
Requests for further information and resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the lead contact, Charles Burant (burantc@umich.edu).

Materials availability
This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and code availability
- Raw (FASTQ files) and aligned (BAM files) sequencing data will be deposited on NCBI GEO upon final submission. The HCR/LCR posterior probability matrices, HCR/LCR and F2 count matrices, HCR/LCR and F2 imputed genotypes, and the F2 Affymetrix Axiom panel will be publicly available by uploading to appropriate database by the date of publication. Processed data and results referenced in this manuscript are available in a Zenodo repository (DOI https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.17245661).
- All original code will be deposited at a Zenodo repository to be publicly available by the date of publication.
- Any additional information required to reanalyze the data reported in this paper is available from the lead contact upon request.

Methods

HCR/LCR Study Design
A total of 128 rats from generation 39 of the HCR/LCR line were included in this study, including equal numbers of females and males (Figure S1A). Half of the rats, deemed the "training" group, underwent a six-week exercise regimen consisting of three days per week (M, W and F) of 30 minutes of supervised treadmill running on a 15% incline, configured as previously described[27]. The treadmill speed for each week of training was set at a constant speed at 75% of the average maximal running speed determined from a test performed the week prior. This weekly maximal running test was performed separately on a group of 3-4 rats from each line (LCR and HCR) and sex using the standard LCR/HCR test protocol, as described previously[27]. When performed, this test took the place of the normal training procedure for that group of rats on Fridays. The other half of the rats (deemed the "sedentary" group) were subjected to once-weekly treadmill acclimatization on Tuesdays for six weeks. This consisted of 5 minutes of treadmill walking at a slow pace (5m / min), followed by an additional 25 minutes of resting on a motionless treadmill, before being returned to their home cages. The training or acclimatization

process was stagger-started over the course of three weeks to allow the final bout of exercise with dissection and sample collection to be performed after a consistent 72-96 hour washout period following the last bout of training.

Once training was complete and the washout period had passed, rats from both the "trained" and "sedentary" groups were subjected to an acute ascending-effort exercise bout using the standard LCR/HCR test protocol, with variation of the endpoint to allow sample collection at four different time points relative to initiation of exercise. The "rest" timepoint was collected immediately after animals were removed from their home cage. These rats did not perform any acute exercise on the day of sample collection. "Half-max" samples were collected from a group of rats that underwent the test protocol but were removed from the treadmill at half of their predicted maximum running time, which was determined by the group-specific averages measured on the last Friday of the training bout, as already described. The "half-max" timepoints were as follows: HCR females, 40 minutes; HCR males, 35 minutes; LCR females and males, 10 minutes. Samples collected at "maximum" exercise were collected from rats run to exhaustion according to the standard LCR/HCR test protocol. Samples collected during "recovery" were collected from rats that were run to exhaustion using the standard test protocol, then returned to their cage for 1 hour prior to dissection. The actual running time and distance achieved by animals in the "maximal" and "half-max" groups were recorded for each animal. At the time designated for dissection, which was immediately after removal from the treadmill for the "half-max" and "max" groups, and as described above for "rest" and "recovery" groups, rats were placed in an anesthesia induction chamber ready with isoflurane anesthetic vapor. Once anesthesia was induced (~15 seconds) the animal was transferred to a nose-cone connected to a metered anesthetic-delivery machine and were maintained under deep anesthesia during sample collection.

Accounting for Experimental Variability in the HCR/LCR Study
This study is part of a larger effort to investigate transcriptomic and epigenomic changes in skeletal muscle as a response to exercise training and an acute exercise bout in relation to CRF, but the presented results focus on the intrinsic differences between HCR and LCR. While the six-week training regimen resulted in increased running capacity in both HCR and LCR (Figure S1D), there were minimal transcriptomic and epigenomic differences 48 hours after the last exercise bout (data not shown). However, an acute exercise bout induced considerable transcriptomic and epigenomic changes (data not shown). In this study, we included all samples when possible to maximize our power and carried out extensive QC on count data associated with RNA-Seq, ATAC-Seq, and CUT&Tag modalities. We normalized for technical and experimental variables (acute exercise, training group, and sex) to isolate HCR/LCR effect, as described in the applicable methods sections. A detailed analysis of exercise-induced experimental contrasts will be presented in future work.

Preparation of High-Throughput Sequencing Libraries

CUT&Tag Nuclei Isolation and Library Generation
Skeletal muscle nuclei were isolated from the gastrocnemius muscle of 60 HCR/LCR rats following the bulk nuclei isolation protocol published in Orchard P, 2021[90]. When isolating nuclei prior to CUT&Tag library preparation, modifications were made at the following steps: 3) a rotating plate was used to rock the samples for 3 minutes, 11 & 12) the nuclei pellet was spun at 500 x g, 13) a final concentration of 5 uM DAPI was used to count the nuclei. Throughout the protocol, CUT&Tag wash buffer was used to resuspend the sample and pre-wet the filters.

We profiled five histone modifications via CUT&Tag[38] following the "CUT&Tag-direct with CUTAC V.3" protocol[91]. To reduce batch effect across experimental contrasts, samples were randomly assigned to five batches to carry out 360 CUT&Tag reactions at the bench (Figure S1B). All antibodies were probed for a single sample in the same batch. In the case of library preparation failure, libraries were re-prepared in a later batch. A sixth preparation batch including four libraries was added to complete the library preparation. From the nuclei isolation

step, 15K nuclei were prepared for each of the six CUT&Tag reactions per sample. Primary antibodies for histone modifications probed include H3K27me3 diluted 1:100 (Cell Signaling, 9733), H3K27ac diluted 1:100 (Abcam, ab4729), H3K4me1 diluted 1:100 (Cell Signaling, 5326), H3K4me3 diluted 1:100 (Diagenode, C15410003-50), and H3K36me3 diluted 1:100 (Active Motif, 61101). A negative control where no antibody was added was included for each sample. Bioanalyzer profiles were assessed to confirm success of experiment (no DNA in the sample), confirm nucleosomal patterns of histone modification samples, and measure DNA concentration for equimolar pooling of libraries to sequence. The 300 libraries where a primary antibody was included were sequenced. Libraries were re-randomized for sequencing batches, referred to as "flowcell" for the purposes of this study. Libraries were sequenced using paired-end, 150bp reads on the NovaSeq platform at the University of Michigan Advanced Genomics Core to an average depth of 7.7M paired-end reads per sample.

Five CUT&Tag libraries from a single sample were excluded due to it being a consistent outlier in PCA across all histone modifications. At the time of experiment, the muscle tissue also appeared discolored with an unusually powdery consistency. As a result, 59 samples (295 libraries) were included in our final CUT&Tag dataset.

ATAC-Seq Nuclei Isolation and Library Generation
Flash frozen gastrocnemius muscle samples from 128 HCR/LCR rats and 149 F2 rats were processed independently. In the HCR/LCR preparation, the samples were divided into approximately 21 batches comprising six samples each representing each of the six conditions, which were then re-randomized across sequencing batches (Figure S1C). F2 samples were divided into 47 batches, with six samples in each batch. For each of the samples, tissue pieces weighing 50 mg were cut on dry ice using a frozen scalpel to prevent thawing. The samples were pulverized using liquid nitrogen and a cell crusher. Within each batch, each of the six samples was resuspended in 1 mL of ice-cold PBS to perform six different nuclei isolations. We developed a customized protocol (Supplemental Protocol S1) from the previously published ENCODE protocol, and used it to isolate nuclei, which is compatible with bulk ATAC seq. The nuclei were counted in Countess II FL Automated Cell Counter, and the appropriate volume of the suspension for 50K nuclei was spun down and used for the downstream transposition reaction (ENCODE Project Consortium 2012, 2012). The 50K nuclei were transposed, PCR amplified, and the libraries were generated in duplicate by adding appropriate sample indexes. Five HCR/LCR and eight F2 ATAC-Seq samples were excluded due to failure in pre-sequencing QC or unintentional duplication, resulting in 123 samples in the HCR/LCR and 141 samples in the F2 ATAC-Seq datasets. Libraries were sequenced using paired-end, 51 bp reads on the NovaSeq platform to an average depth of 63M paired-end reads per HCR/LCR sample (across 2-4 read groups) and 67M paired-end reads per F2 sample (across 1-4 read groups).

RNA-Seq Library Generation
Frozen gastrocnemius muscle from 128 HCR/LCR and 150 F2 samples were pulverized in liquid nitrogen. RNA was subsequently extracted using the Zymo Direct-zol kit. Stranded RNA-Seq libraries were generated using poly(A) selection and were sequenced using paired-end, 150bp reads on the HiSeq platform to an average depth of 39M paired-end reads per HCR/LCR sample and 37M paired-end reads per F2 sample.

Data Analysis

All analyses were performed using R Statistical Software (v4.3.2; 2023-10-31) and Python (v3.10.4). Commonly used R packages include tidyverse[92], GenomicRanges[93], plyranges[94], and ComplexHeatmap[95,96]. Snakemake[97] was used to create pipelines used throughout the analysis. Sequencing data was aligned to the ensembl release (v109) of the rn7 genome[98].

Processing of RNA-Seq Data
Fastq files were trimmed using the TrimmomaticPE function (Trimmomatic[99] v0.36) with the following parameters: ILLUMINACLIP:TruSeq3-PE.fa:2:30:10:2:keepBothReads SLIDINGWINDOW:5:20. Reads were aligned using STAR[100] (v2.7.6a-aekjdpr) with the parameters "-c --outSAMtype BAM SortedByCoordinate".

To create the count matrix, gene counts from QC.geneCounts.txt.gz files produced by QoRTs command QC with parameter –stranded and the same GTF file used in the alignment were used, returning 30,454 genes. The count matrix was filtered to remove non-autosomal genes and genes where all samples had 0 counts. For the HCR/LCR analysis, RNA-Seq counts were further filtered to include genes where more than 10 samples had a count value > 5, resulting in 14,781 genes in the dataset used in this analysis.

Processing of ATAC-Seq and CUT&Tag Data

Fastq file adapters were trimmed using cta version 0.1.2 (https://github.com/ ParkerLab/cta) and then aligned to the rn7 genome (ensembl file Rattus_norvegicus.mRatBN7.2.dna.toplevel.fa.gz) using the bwa[101] *mem* version 0.7.15 parameters "-I 200,200,5000" and then sorted using samtools[102] version 1.13. The bwa "-M" flag was used for aligning ATAC-Seq data only. ATAC-Seq libraries were prepared with multiple read groups, which were merged using samtools[102]. Duplicates were marked using picard[103] *MarkDuplicates* version 2.25.5 with parameters "-ASSUME_SORTED true -VALIDATION_STRINGENCY LENIENT". Properly prepared and mapped autosomal reads with high quality alignments (> 30) were retained using samtools[102] *view* with parameters "-h -f 3 -F 4 -F 8 -F 256 -F 1024 -F 2048 -q 30". Bedtools[104] version 2.30.0 was used to remove the custom blacklist regions created specifically for this data. BAM files were converted to BED files and peaks were called using the *callpeak* command from MACS2[105] version 2.2.4. Narrow peaks were called for H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and H3K4me3. Broad peaks were called for H3K27me3 and H3K36me3. Narrow and broad peaks were called for ATAC-Seq. Parameters "-g hs -B --keep-dup all -q 0.05" were included for all peak calls. H3K27me3 and H3K36me3 peak calling included the "--broad" flag. ATAC-Seq broad peaks had the added parameters, "--SPMR -f BED --nomodel --shift -100 --seed 762873 --extsize 200 --broad". ATAC-Seq narrow peak call had the added parameters, "--SPMR -f BED --nomodel --shift -37 --seed 762873 --extsize 73 --call-summits". Ataqv[106] was used to generate QC metrics used for further data normalization.

ATAC-Seq and CUT&Tag Count Matrix Construction for HCR/LCR Study

MACS2 called narrow peaks (H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K4me3), broad peaks (H3K27me3, H3K36me3), and narrow summits extended ± 150bp (ATAC-Seq) were used to create the consensus peak matrices. For each unique line + sex + acute exercise group, peaks were merged and the number of distinct samples that the peak occurred in was tallied. Peaks were retained if they were present in the majority of samples for each line + sex + acute exercise group (Figure S2A-R). Peaks present in the majority of any of the 12-16 unique groups were merged to create the master peak matrix. In R, plyranges[94] *reduce_ranges* was used create the master peak set for each modality and chromVar[107] *getCounts* with arguments "paired = FALSE, by_rg = FALSE, format = 'bam'" was used to obtain counts within the consensus peak regions from the pruned BAM file.

Custom Blacklist Creation for rn7 Genome

A widely used blacklist for the rn7 genome was not available at the time of analysis, so a blacklist custom to this dataset was created following the process outlined in Amemiya, 2019[108]. A combination of 336 CUT&Tag and ATAC-Seq libraries prepared from 56 rats were used to create this blacklist region file. Briefly, 1 kb bins with 100bp overlapping regions were created using bedtools[104] version 2.30.0 *makewindows* and the number of reads present in each bin were counted. To detect erroneous signal, quantile normalization (broman::normalize[109]) was carried out on binned count matrices, for each data modality independently. The region was included in the final blacklist based on the presence of outlier signal in all six data modalities. To consider the fact that some datasets contain sequencing information for differing areas of the genome, the region was also included in the blacklist file if the median value of the quantile normalized matrix was 0. This resulted in 278 blacklist regions with cumulative width of 848 kb.

Latent Variable Discovery for ATAC-Seq, CUT&Tag, and RNA-Seq

RUVSeq[110] was used to generate and trial 1-10 latent variables. Control peaks consisted of features with a DESeq *p*-value > 0.1 across all known experimental and technical contrasts, with the number of control peaks used ranging from 2,000-14,000+. Latent variable inclusion was determined by their ability to improve the number

of significant DESeq features (Figure S4A) and observed variability in PCA when added to the starting model (Figure S4C-D), while ensuring that the latent variable(s) show a relationship with the ataqv[106] QC attributes and minimal relationship with the binarized experimental variables (Figure S3A-G). When multiple models yielded similar results, the simpler model was preferred.

RNA-Seq, ATAC-Seq, and CUT&Tag Differential Analysis for HCR/LCR study

DESeq2[111] was used to perform differential analysis on CUT&Tag histone modification peaks (H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K4me3, H3K27me3, H3K36me3), ATAC-Seq peaks, and RNA-Seq gene counts using the model specified in Figure S4B. For the ATAC-Seq and RNA-Seq analyses, a stringent significance threshold of FDR < 0.01 and $|\log_2 FC| > 0.5$ was applied. Technical, experimental contrasts, and latent variables were included in the DESeq model. Given the smaller sample size in the CUT&Tag libraries, a more lenient cutoff of FDR < 0.1 and $|\log_2 FC| > 0.5$ was utilized for histone modifications.

Chromatin State Discovery

ChromHMM[40] was used to call chromatin states in 200bp bins across the genome. Custom rn7 files were created for chromosome sizes, coordinates, and anchor files using the R packages GenomicFeatures[93] and TxDb.Rnorvegicus.UCSC.rn7.refGene.

The 56 samples with complete ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K4me3, H3K36me3, and H3K27me3 modalities (336 total libraries) were integrated to discover chromatin states. Custom blacklist regions were removed from BAM files, which were then down sampled to the lowest read depth (> 2M) per modality. If the lowest read depth was < 2M reads within a modality, then BAM files with read depths > 2M were down sampled to 2M and BAM files with read depths < 2M were not down sampled. There were three libraries with read depths ranging from 1.5-1.7M. ChromHMM state models ranging from 2-20 were assessed to choose the 12-state model, which presented minimal change in the log likelihood of the subsequent model and was most informative, given the combination of epigenomic marks. Emission states were manually assigned the following chromatin state names (with associated abbreviations): E1 = Strong Enhancer, Low (EnhS_E1), E3 = Weak Enhancer (EnhW_E3), E4 = Strong Enhancer (EnhS_E4), E5 = Weak Promoter (PromWk_E5), E6 = Transcription Transition (TxTrans_E6), E7 = Strong Promoter (PromA_E7), E8 = Inactive/Poised Promoter (PromPois_E8), E10 = Repressed PolyComb (ReprPC_E10), E12 = Transcription Elongation (TxnElon_E12). For example, we observe greater likelihood of a Strong Enhancer chromatin state call, in comparison to other states, at promoter regions of genes (Figure S1E). Emission states E2, E9, and E11, returned states associated with low signal, were assigned the "Quiescent/Low" state and summed together into a single "Quiescent/Low", labeled as QuiesSum_EX in the results data tables.

Chromatin State Differential Analysis

ChromHMM-derived posterior probabilities were prepared for group analysis by retaining 200bp regions where any line, sex, or acute exercise group called a non-quiescent state, based on the highest initial group averaged state probability. In the case of a tie, a non-quiescent state assignment was prioritized. This was followed by summing quiescent states into one "QuiesSum" state. This produced posterior probability matrices that included 1,160,951 200bp regions. For each chromatin state, 200bp regions where the sum of posterior probabilities across samples was greater than 0 were included for differential analysis. The count of merged regions included in this analysis is provided in Figure 2C. Linear regression was applied to posterior probabilities that were inverse rank normalized (ties = "random") across samples, using the model $\sim Line + Sex + Acute\ Exercise\ Group$. P-values for the HCR/LCR line contrast were obtained and FDR-adjusted. Chromatin state regions with an FDR < 0.1 were considered significantly different. We excluded emission state E1 (labeled as "Strong Enhancer, Low") from further analyses because it showed consistently low ChromHMM posterior probabilities across samples. At most, 22/56 samples had a posterior > 0.1 for this state, and its 99th percentile posterior was 0.07. In contrast, the other states had many 200bp regions where all 56 samples returned a posterior > 0.1, with the 99th

percentiles of posteriors being 0.65 for Repressed PolyComb, 0.83 for Transcription Transition, and > 0.96 for the remaining 7 chromatin states. The prevalence of near-zero posteriors within the E1 chromatin state is unlikely to return a "group call" of this state, which is determined from the averaged posteriors from samples within the group.

Pathway Enrichment Analysis

To ensure consistency across transcriptomic and epigenomic comparisons, a custom list of gene sets to probe was created by retrieving gene sets and their associated genes (ensembl IDs) from GOBP, GOMF, GOCC, and KEGG via msigdbr[112]. Missing Ensembl or Entrez ID matches were filled in where possible using the *biomaRt*[113] package to retrieve gene information from the *rnorvegicus_gene_ensembl* v109[98] database, ensuring consistency in gene set annotations. Categories with 10 to 500 genes were probed for pathway analysis. Resulting *p*-values were FDR adjusted for each individual database using the Benjamini-Hochberg method[114]. Unless stated otherwise, categories returning an FDR < 0.05 were considered significant.

RNA-Enrich[115] and ChIP-Enrich[116] were used for pathway enrichment analysis on differential transcriptomic and epigenomic features, respectively. Pathway enrichment analysis was performed independently on all data modalities. Pathway enrichment analysis of differential gene expression data included all genes, ranked by *p*-value with direction of change provided. Custom ChIP-Enrich locus definitions were created for the rn7 genome using code published on GitHub (https://github.com/weitzela/custom-chipenrich-locus-defs, commit e6ebc23). Epigenomic pathway enrichment analysis included peaks that passed a more inclusive significance threshold to allow for an adequate number of peaks to be included in the analysis. Sequencing-based epigenomic peaks with a DESeq *p*-value < 0.05 and chromatin state regions with a linear regression *p*-value < 0.01 were included as the input for ChIP-Enrich, using the *broadenrich* test. The number of input features ranged from 5k-60k sequencing-based epigenomic peaks and 26k-63k chromatin state regions. Input features were annotated to genes with the nearest transcription start site. The number of genes annotated by each epigenomic dataset following the Broad-Enrich annotation protocol is as follows: 8,320 H3K27me3 peaks annotated to 5,591 genes, 6,747 H3K27ac peaks annotated to 4,763 genes, 27,769 H3K4me1 peaks annotated to 10,037 genes, 12,978 H3K4me3 peaks annotated to 7,526 genes, 4,960 H3K36me3 peaks annotated to 3,706 genes, 59,528 ATAC-Seq peaks annotated to 15,682 genes, 27,123 EnhS (E1) regions annotated to 8,064 genes, 45,612 EnhW (E3) regions annotated to 7,355 genes, 46,603 EnhS (E4) regions annotated to 8,488 genes, 41,584 PromWk (E5) regions annotated to 8,828 genes, 39,132 TxTrans (E6) regions annotated to 8,200 genes, 26,159 PromA (E7) regions annotated to 8,181 genes, 30,797 PromPois (E8) regions annotated to 8,042 genes, 32,917 ReprPC (E10) regions annotated to 6,690 genes, 38,313 TxElon (E12) regions annotated to 7,208 genes, and 63,960 QuiesSum (EX) regions annotated to 9,231 genes.

To assess the processes that Pk2G Link target genes were involved in, *Line* differential peaks (*p*-value < 0.05) were queried. The list of input genes was separated by direction of peak and direction of relationship between the peak and target genes. These lenient criteria were chosen to be consistent with the ChIP-Enrich analysis conducted previously. The number of input genes for each trial is as follows: HCR up peaks positively linked to 4,762 genes, HCR up peaks negatively linked to 4,849 genes, LCR up peaks positively linked to 5,039 genes, and LCR up peaks negatively linked to 4,595 genes. The fgsea function from the fgsea[117] R package was used to carry out pathway enrichment on these sets of genes, ranked by significance of correlation.

The enricher function from the ClusterProfiler[118] R package was used to carry out over-representation analysis using specified target genes and all genes expressed in the skeletal muscle as the background list. When the target genes of regions contributing to allele-specific differential motif enrichment analysis were considered, the HCR up pos trial used 330 genes, HCR up neg trial used 279 genes, LCR up pos trial used 272 genes, and LCR up neg trial used 281 genes as the target list.

In efforts to reduce redundancy and clarify comparisons across independent trials, the clustering approach described by Metascape[119] was applied. Functions created to carry out gene set reduction by kappa clustering are published on GitHub (https://github.com/weitzela/reducekappa, commit 04eb74d). Briefly, pairwise kappa values were calculated to capture the similarity of genes associated with all categories across (one or multiple) trials. Kappa scores were min/max normalized to adjust for negative values. The kappa matrix was converted to a distance matrix by subtracting the kappa scores from 1, which was then used for hierarchical clustering (method = "average"). Clusters were identified using a threshold height of 0.7. The representative category for each cluster was selected as the term with the lowest *p*-value across all trials. For comparisons across multiple modalities, values associated with the most significant category within each cluster were retained for individual trials, even if that category wasn't named the "representative" one.

Correlation of Distal Regions with Promoter Regions and Gene Expression
To expand annotation links between epigenomic features and genes, we conducted a correlation analysis utilizing RNA-Seq, ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and H3K4me3 data modalities. We extended the approach described in Currin et al.[120], detailed further here.

We used the limma::removeBatchEffect function to adjust the DESeq VST counts (blind = FALSE) for technical variables such as prep date, flowcell, and latent variables discovered/used for differential analysis. To ensure that the line effect remained when evaluating the relationship between peaks and genes, non-*Line* experimental contrasts were further adjusted for via linear regression. Promoter regions were defined as regions 2 kb upstream and 1 kb downstream of the canonical TSS. Distal regions were defined as those that spanned 1 Mb ± TSS, excluding promoter regions. Promoter peaks consisted of ATAC-Seq, H3K4me3, and H3K27ac peaks that reside in the promoter region. Distal peaks consisted of ATAC-Seq, H3K4me1, and H3K27ac peaks residing in distal regions, along with H3K4me3 peaks within 10 kb ± TSS. The following four link types were assessed: 1) promoter peak to gene, 2) distal peak to gene, 3) distal peak to promoter peak, and 4) promoter peak to promoter peak. In this analysis, 12,289 genes had at least one *promoter peak* and were included for further analysis. We conducted pairwise Spearman correlations between the variables identified in the described link types, leading to 12,481,099 unique tests. The *p*-values were adjusted using FDR (BH) within each link type and modality pair. We considered tests with an adjusted *p*-value < 0.05 to be statistically significant. 566,772 significant peak-peak or peak-gene relationships were identified where 10,786 genes are annotated via these significant correlations.

Due to variable relationships between distal peaks→promoter peaks and promoter peaks→genes, all peak→gene relationships were consolidated into "Pk2G Links" with a consensus direction assigned using a prioritized, four-tier approach, where Tier 1 represents the highest confidence. Tier 1) Assign direction based on FDR significant links, bringing in correlation coefficients with nominal pvalue < 0.05 to inform about direction where necessary. All peak:gene directions are in agreement. Tier 2) For links with relationships with conflicting direction and all links are FDR significant, the direction assigned to the link with the most significant FDR is honored. For example, if the distal peak→Gene *r* > 0, the distal peak→promoter peak *r* > 0, and promoter peak→gene *r* < 0, the distal peak→gene relationship would return a positive relationship, while the distal peak→promoter peak →→ promoter peak→gene link would return a negative relationship. In this case, the distal peak→gene and distal peak→promoter peak FDRs would be compared. If the distal peak→gene FDR < distal peak→promoter peak FDR, then the consensus direction between the peak:gene would be positive. Tier 3) For links with conflicting direction, but not all links meet FDR significance, the relationship with the most significant nominal *p*-value < 0.05 was honored following a concept similar to assignment #2. Tier 4) Direction of ambiguous peaks where the distal peak→promoter peak is FDR significant, but neither promoter peak→gene or distal peak→gene correlations have a nominal *p*-value < 0.05, was assigned based on the correlation (*p*-value < 0.05) between the distal peak and other peaks significantly (FDR < 0.05) linked to the gene. The most FDR significant peaks were prioritized. Pk2G Links with a direction confidence tier < 4 were considered when identifying target genes in motif related analyses.

SNP Calling from HCR/LCR RNA-Seq Data

Using the processed RNA-Seq BAM files, reads with an edit distance > 2 and duplicated reads were removed. Subsequently, BAM file base quality scores were recalibrated using the SplitNCigarReads, BaseRecalibrator, and ApplyBQSR commands from GATK[121] version 4.3.0.0. Recalibration detection referred to the known variants found in the 8 HCR/LCR founder strains[122]. SNPs were called using bcftools[123,124] version 1.12 *mpileup* (-Q 20 -I -a DP,AD -d 10000 -E) and *call* (-mv -a GQ) arguments. HCR and LCR line assignments were provided as the population parameter for SNP calling. Genotypes with GQ < 35 were marked as missing and variants were removed if QUAL < 20 or > 50% of the genotypes were missing. The variant sites were further filtered to retain those discovered in the founder population[122].

Genotyping of F2 Population

A custom Affymetrix Axiom panel of ~700,000 SNPs was designed to genotype the 613 F2 animals using DNA extracted from frozen liver tissue; SNPs in this panel were selected based on criteria previously described in Ren et al.[32]. These SNPs were based on the rn4 version of the rat genome assembly, then lifted over to the rn6 genome using LiftoverVcf (picard v2.8.1)[103] and then filtered against an rn6 blacklist (https://github.com/shwetaramdas/maskfiles/blob/master/rataccessibleregionsmaskfiles/strains_intersect.bed), resulting in 380,990 autosomal SNPs. The genotypes were bidirectionally lifted over from the rn6 to the rn7 genome using GATK[121] v4.3.0.0 *LiftoverVcf* (--RECOVER_SWAPPED_REF_ALT false). Variants were first assigned location-based IDs in the rn6 VCF using bcftools v1.7[124] *annotate* (-x ID --set-id +'%CHROM_%POS'), lifted to rn7, and then back to rn6. Variants that returned the same genomic position in the reverse (rn7→rn6) lift were retained using bcftools v1.7[124] *view*. This resulted in 375,220 autosomal SNPs in the rn7 VCF. Genotypes were imputed from this panel for samples that have RNA-Seq data as well (described below).

Genotype Imputation

Genetic Map Preprocessing

The rn7 genetic map published by Jong et al.[125] was used. Discrepancies throughout the file were addressed for autosomal chromosomes by the following preprocessing steps: 1) removal of sites where contig ≠ chr, 2) linear transformation of cM values for chromosomes with negative relationships between position and average cM, 3) removal of outlier cM:Position pairs, 4) sorted by position and smoothed the cM values by running mean weighted by standard deviation (bin size = 500). These steps removed 1,626 entries and resulted in a genetic map with 149,209 positions.

Genotype Imputation

IMPUTE5[126] version 1.2.0 and SHAPEIT5[127] version 5.1.1 were used to carry out genotype imputation. The reference panel published by Hermsen et al.[128], was prephased using IMPUTE5 *xcftools_static view* (-m 0.03125). Target files were prephased using SHAPEIT5[127] *phase_common_static*, providing the phased reference panel and referring to the preprocessed genetic map. Genomic regions were chunked for imputation using IMPUTE5 *imp5Chunker_v1.2.0_static*. Genotype imputation was carried out using IMPUTE5 *impute5_v1.2.0_static*, setting the effective population size to 52 and providing the phased reference panel, phased target file, preprocessed genetic map, and computed chunk and buffer regions. Post imputation, genotypes were filtered to retain sites with a minor allele count (MAC) > 10 and posterior probability > 0.97 for all samples. As a quality control measure, imputed genotypes were compared to reference alleles derived from ATAC-Seq BAM files to verify consistency between the proportions of reference and alternate alleles at both homozygous and heterozygous sites (Figure S5).

Calculation of Fixation Index for HCR/LCR

The population differentiation between HCR and LCR lines was assessed by computing the Fixation index (F_{ST})[129] to compare reference allele frequencies. The following formula was used $F_{ST} = \frac{(RAF_{HCR} - RAF_{LCR})^2}{4 \times \overline{RAF} \times (1 - \overline{RAF})}$. F_{ST} scores range from 0 to 1, where a score of 1 is interpreted as complete population differentiation. F_{ST} > 0.25 is

described as very high differentiation[129]. A conservative threshold of $F_{ST} > 0.3$ is applied to identify 163,767 that exhibited high population differentiation between HCR and LCR.

Comparison of F_{ST} to Peak Significance

We performed a linear regression using the model: $-log_{10}(p\ value)_{Feature\ DESeq:\frac{HCR}{LCR}} \sim GC\ content + FPKM + variant\ location\ (noncoding\ vs\ coding) + F_{ST}\ (inverse\ rank\ normalized)$. In instances where multiple variants reside within one epigenomic feature, the variant with the maximum F_{ST} value was retained to ensure unique epigenomic peak observations. GC content, FPKM, and variant location are included in the model to control for feature-specific artifacts.

Motif Analysis

Motif Inclusion

The MotifDb[130] R package was used to query motifs cataloged for humans and rats from cisbp, JASPAR, HOCOMOCO, and other databases. The initial 6,131 motifs were filtered to include TFs present in the RNA-Seq data. In instances of duplicate JASPAR motifs, the most recent version was kept. Redundancy was reduced by removing duplicated motifs (identical universal motif PPMs or TFBSTools::PWMSimilarity[131] = 0), keeping only one instance of the particular motif per TF. This filtering resulted in 1,962 motifs from 516 transcription factors.

Preparation of Canonical Sequences

Sequences within significantly different peaks (defined in Figure 2C) and ChromHMM regions (FDR < 0.1) were used as the input sequences for motif enrichment and PWM scans. Canonical HCR and LCR sequences were prepared for each feature set by replacing the reference allele with HCR and LCR alleles meeting the following criteria: 1) the variant site has an $F_{ST} > 0.3$ and 2) the alternate allele frequency within the given line is > 0.5. For regions where multiple SNPs fall within a close proximity (e.g., within the same feature), the one combination of ref/alt alleles that was most represented in the line was used for replacement. The rationale for this is to include relevant combinations of sites that indicate population differentiation while preventing over-representation of the input sequences in the analysis.

Haplotype-Aware PWM Scans

FIMO (v5.5.5)[132] was used to carry out PWM scans for HCR and LCR sequences that extended ± 35bp of a variant with $F_{ST} > 0.3$. Disrupted motifs are defined as those with Δ FIMO $log_{10}(p$-value) > 1.

Differential Motif Enrichment Analysis

Motif enrichment was performed, using AME (v5.5.5)[133] with the arguments --control --shuffle-- --scoring max, to specify the shuffled background model and scoring based on the maximum PWM match. The input sequences (pre-trimmed) were retrieved for each modality & direction of change (e.g., HCR up, LCR up) based on the following significance thresholds: A) ATAC-Seq peaks with FDR < 0.01 & abs(log_2FC) > 0.5; B) H3K4me3, H3K4me1, and H3K27ac peaks with FDR < 0.1 & abs(log_2FC) > 0.5; and C) ChromHMM states associated with open chromatin (EnhS_E1, EnhW_E3, EnhS_E4, PromWk_E5, PromA_E7, and PromPois_E8) with FDR < 0.1. For ChromHMM states, directionality was assigned by comparing mean posterior probabilities within significant regions between groups.

To control for differences in genomic territory associated with HCR up and LCR up regions within a given modality, we trimmed the larger set of features by removing the least significant regions until the length of sequences spanned within ~1 kb of the smaller set of features. Final sequence lengths used for enrichment analysis per modality were: ATAC-Seq (872.3 kb), H3K4me3 (870.8 kb), H3K4me1 (2.5 Mb), H3K27ac (233.2 kb), EnhS_E1 (135.5 kb), EnhW_E3 (1.4 Mb), EnhS_E4 (1.3 Mb), PromWk_E5 (590.7 kb), PromA_E7 (339.5 kb), and PromPois_E8 (351.5 kb).

Motif enrichment was carried out independently for each modality and direction of change (e.g., HCR up and LCR up). For each modality and direction of change, two AME trials were carried out using 1) HCR canonical sequences and 2) LCR canonical sequences.

Differentially enriched motifs were identified per modality using two approaches: a global comparison and an allele-specific comparison. In the global analysis, HCR sequences in HCR up regions were compared to LCR sequences in LCR up regions. For the allele-specific analysis, two comparisons took place: 1) HCR vs. LCR sequences in HCR up regions, and 2) HCR vs. LCR sequences in LCR up regions. For both global and allele-specific trials, we compared the resulting AME -log10(p-values). Motifs were considered differentially enriched if the absolute difference in -log10(p-values) ranked in the top 10% of all Δ -log10(p-values) in the comparison.

In the allele-specific analysis, we identified regions that contributed toward the differential motif enrichment and contained motifs with disrupted PWMs. Starting with the AME results, regions were initially filtered to retain those that exclusively returned a true positive and either 1) was absent from the motif match in the counter group (e.g., when assessing HCR sequences, there was not a motif match returned in the LCR sequence), or 2) the difference in the PWM scores for the assessed region was greater than 1 (target group region – counter group region). The regions were further filtered to retain those that contained a variant with an $F_{ST} > 0.3$, following the assumption that regions without SNPs are likely to produce the same or similar PWM scores across different tests. Regions with disrupted motifs were further refined by directly comparing PWM scans of HCR and LCR sequences (Methods 2.2.14.3), retaining those with Δ FIMO -$\log_{10}$(p-value) > 1.

Sample Swap Detection for F2 Analysis

QTLtools[134] (v1.2) command mbv was used to detect sample swaps, using the F2 genotypes that were bidirectionally lifted over from rn6 to rn7. The flag --filter-mapping-quality 255 was applied when processing RNA-Seq BAM files, while this flag was not used for the pruned ATAC-Seq BAM files. When assessing ATAC-Seq sample swaps, matches with *n_het_covered > 5* were considered. Samples displaying a high degree of heterozygous matches were retained and sample ID swaps were corrected where necessary. One RNA-Seq and two ATAC-Seq samples were excluded due to low heterozygous consistency (<63%) with any genotype profile.

ATAC-Seq Count Matrix Construction for F2 Analysis

In efforts to improve performance in the caQTL scan, a consensus peak matrix was uniquely prepared for the F2 samples. The peak count matrix was created by including peaks (narrow summits extended ±150bp) exhibited by at least 20% of samples in either male or female groups. High scoring regions were selected as the "candidate" region for all overlapping regions to create a non-redundant peak set.

Sample Drop Criteria for F2 Analysis

We dropped outliers in PC space prior to performing the scans. We performed DESeq2[111]-style size factor normalization of the count matrices (as implemented in pyqtl, https://github.com/broadinstitute/pyqtl), dropped features where samples all had 0 counts, filtered to features with at least 10 normalized counts in at least 10 percent of samples, filled any remaining 0s with a value equal to (½ of the minimum non-zero value for that feature), $\log_{10}$ transformed the matrix, and then performed PCA on this normalized matrix. Outliers were determined based on visual inspection of the top 10 PCs. The final sample sizes for the (e/ca)QTL scans were 147 RNA-Seq samples and 132 ATAC-Seq samples.

F2 eQTL & caQTL Analysis for Detection of eGenes and caPeaks

We performed cis-expression and chromatin accessibility quantitative trait locus scans (eQTL, caQTL) using the F2 RNA-Seq and ATAC-Seq data. We used a linear mixed model, implemented in GEMMA v. 0.98.5 (gemma -bfile $plink_prefix -n $phenotype_index -snps variants-to-test.txt -lmm -k $kinship_matrix -o $output_prefix -c covariates.txt)[135]. We computed the kinship matrix using GEMMA (gemma -bfile $plink_prefix -gk 1). For eQTL

scans we tested all gene - variant pairs where the variant was within 1 Mb of the gene TSS. For caQTL scans we tested all peak - variant pairs where the variant was within 100 kb of the peak center. We normalized the count matrix as follows prior to the scan: 1) Filter to autosomal features, 2) Perform TMM normalization, 3) Filter to features with at least 5 (unnormalized) counts in at least 30% of samples, 4) Exclude features w/o any variants within the above-specified cis window, and 5) Inverse normal transform.

As covariates we included the top N gene expression / chromatin accessibility PCs (PCs calculated on the inverse normal transformed matrix), where N was selected in order to maximize the number of eGenes / caPeaks (this was determined by running (e/ca)QTL scans with 0, 5, 10, 15, … PCs, and then determining the number of eGenes / caPeaks yielded by each scan; the final N was 20 for RNA-seq and 5 for ATAC-seq).

After testing all feature - variant pairs, we performed two levels of multiple testing adjustment. First, we adjusted for the multiple tests performed against each feature using a slightly modified version of eigenMT[136] (eigenMT was modified in order to collapse variants in perfect LD before calculating eigenvalues; this modified version is available as git commit c89bf4e at https://github.com/porchard/eigenMT, and was run with arguments eigenMT.py --cis_dist $CIS_WINDOW --var_thresh 0.99 --window 10000 --collapse-redundant-variants --CHROM $chrom --QTL qtl.txt --GEN $genotype_matrix --GENPOS $genpos --PHEPOS $phepos --OUT $output). EigenMT estimates the number of independent tests per feature; we then multiplied the most significant observed p-value for each feature by the estimated number of tests (capping the product at 1, if greater than 1) to get a feature-level p-value. We then adjusted for the multiple testing across features, performing a Benjamini-Hochberg correction[114] on the feature-level p-values to get an FDR for each feature. We then applied an FDR threshold of 5% to determine whether each gene or peak had a significant (e/ca)QTL. For each eGene / caPeak, the variant with the most significant p-value was set as the eVariant / caVariant (due to linkage disequilibrium, in many cases multiple variants had the same p-value; for downstream analyses sensitive to this, we randomly selected one of these variants to be the representative eVariant / caVariant).

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Declaration of Interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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Low & High Capacity Runners

Gene Expression · Chromatin Accessibility · 5x Histone Marks

Distal Peak · Nearest Gene · Promoter Peak · Target Gene

Distal Regulatory Networks

Population Divergence

Transcription Factor Networks

Independent Validation

F2 Population

Gene Expression · Chromatin Accessibility

caQTL · SNP · Gene · eQTL

Genotype Association

Affected Pathways

Angiogenesis

Glucose · BCAA · Fatty Acid

Substrate Oxidation

Figure 1. Study Design and Data Overview

(A) Multi-omic profiling of gastrocnemius muscle from 128 rats (equal representation of HCR/LCR and sex), including RNA-Seq, ATAC-Seq, and CUT&Tag for five histone modifications, was carried out. See also Figure S1A.

(B) Epigenomic mark key. H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and H3K4me3 are histone marks primarily located in open chromatin regions, most likely to coincide with ATAC-Seq signal. H3K27ac is associated with active enhancers and promoters, H3K4me1 has a strong presence in enhancers, H3K4me3 in promoters, H3K36me3 is present along the gene body of actively transcribed genes as it is laid down by polymerase II, and H3K27me3 is a repressive mark and associated with reduced transcription.

(C) Example signal tracks at the *Gapdh* locus in a single sample (rat R18804), showing from back to front, H3K4me3, ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, H3K36me3, and H3K27me3. *Gapdh* is transcribed on the negative strand.

(D) Signal reproducibility across the 56 samples with full epigenomic data (refer to Figure S1A for details pertaining to library generation). Sequences within each modality are represented column-wise, where six unique genomic regions are displayed as the maximum RPM within 10bp bins, smoothed using a rolling mean (bin size = 50). Each column represents a 4 kb genomic window centered around the midpoint annotated on the x-axis. Y-axis ranges are fixed within each column with a minimum value of zero and modality-specific maxima: ATAC-Seq (9.9 RPM), H3K27ac (5 RPM), H3K4me1 (10.3 RPM), H3K4me3 (15.4 RPM), H3K36me3 (6.6 RPM), and H3K27me3 (6.1 RPM). The presence and abundance of signal across genomic bins are consistent within modality.

(E) PCA of genome-wide signal within 10 kb bins (inverse rank normalized, blacklist filtered). Sequencing libraries cluster by modality, demonstrating reproducibility across samples.

Figure 2. Global Epigenomic Differences Between HCR and LCR

(A) ChromHMM emission plot showing chromatin state definitions where darker blue indicates a greater probability of mark presence in the emission state. The sum of three low signal states was used to merge into one representative, "Quiescent/Low", state for analysis.

(B) Example locus on chr14 showing normalized ATAC-Seq and CUT&Tag counts (reads per million) and ChromHMM posterior probabilities across 59 HCR (green) and LCR (purple) rats. For each sample, ATAC-Seq and CUT&Tag signal was smoothed using a rolling mean applied to the maximum signal within 10 bp bins (bin size = 5), and values were summarized by plotting the mean ± 95% CI across samples. Posterior probabilities (mean ± 95% CI) are plotted at the midpoint of each 200 bp ChromHMM window. Increased ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 signal in HCR coincides with a rise in Strong Enhancer and dip in Quiescent/Low state probability, indicating a clear chromatin state difference between HCR and LCR. *P*-values from differential analyses are printed on each panel (not shown if not tested). Notably, ATAC-Seq libraries were prepared independently from CUT&Tag libraries and show highly concordant signals across ATAC-Seq and histone marks associated with open and active chromatin, further supporting the reproducibility and validity of these data.

(C) Summary of each data modality, including modality-specific terminology applied within this study, statistical thresholds, and the number of processed and significantly different HCR/LCR features. Significance thresholds were selected based on statistical power, with a more stringent cutoff applied to RNA-Seq (n = 128) and ATAC-Seq (n = 123), which had larger sample sizes than CUT&Tag (n = 59) and ChromHMM (n = 56). A $\log_2$FC threshold was included for CUT&Tag to compensate for the more lenient FDR, and for other DESeq-based analyses to maintain consistency. A magnitude of change threshold was not applied to ChromHMM-derived states due to the inverse normal transformation applied to posterior probabilities used in the linear model, as described in the Methods.

(D) Volcano plot of H3K4me1 peaks, highlighting significantly different features between HCR (green) and LCR (magenta). Significant features are highlighted as a darker color. See also Figure S6.

(E) Cross-modality comparison of significant enrichment. Heatmap of pairwise kappa coefficients measuring the similarity of significantly enriched gene sets compared between all data modalities. A number greater than 0 represents the number of shared gene sets is greater than expected by chance, while a value less than 0 indicates that the overlap is lower than expected by chance. The annotation on the left side of the heatmap presents the count of significant gene sets (FDR < 0.05) returned by RNA-Enrich and ChIP-Enrich when epigenomic features were annotated to genes with the nearest TSS.

(F) Strong Enhancer significantly enriched gene sets ($\log_2$ odds ratio > 0 & FDR < 0.05) were collapsed into parent terms via kappa clustering of the genes (Cluster Size) and compared to additional modalities. $\log_2$ odds ratios of the most significant gene set within the collapsed term are plotted for the top 50% of the clusters, with significant clusters annotated with '•'. Rows are further hierarchically clustered based on kappa similarity of all genes collapsed into the parent term.

Figure 3. Linking Epigenomic Features to Gene Expression

(A) Correlation framework epigenomic peaks to gene expression. Distal regulatory elements (yellow) reside within 1 Mb of the gene's TSS and are correlated with promoter peaks (1, pink) and gene expression (2). Promoter peaks are correlated with one another (3) and gene expression (4).

(B) Correlation of distal (columns) and promoter (rows and ▲-marked columns) elements surrounding Decr1, with the top annotation bar indicating the directionality of the Pk2G link (red=positive, blue=negative). The subsequent heatmap plots the spearman's correlation coefficient with significant relationships (FDR < 0.05) annotated by '•'. Columns are labeled and ordered by the distance of the peak from the TSS (Dist to TSS). The signed $-\log_{10}(\text{FDR})_{\text{HCR/LCR}}$ bar provides feature-specific differential results for HCR up (green) regions and LCR up (magenta) features, with an asterisk annotating those that pass the significance threshold provided in Figure 2C. The bottom-most 'Modality' annotation bar is colored based on data origin. Nearby and overlapping peaks are indicated by '+' and 'X', alternating between distinct instances of clustered regions. See additional examples in Figure S8.

(C) Ranked gene set enrichment analysis of Pk2G targets linked to differential (p-value < 0.1) peaks for multiple trials (columns), with the number of input genes indicated in the bottom bar plot. Significant gene sets (FDR < 0.05) were kappa-reduced and the $-\log_{10}(p$-values) of the most significant category within the representative term is plotted, with '•' annotating significant clusters. The number of gene sets reduced into the cluster are annotated on the right side of the heatmap. The prominent gene sets collapsed into the two largest clusters are listed on the far-right side of the plot, with the size of the text associated with the number of times a gene set related to that term is present within the cluster. The additional comparison to the RNA-Enrich results shows concordance of links to RNA-Seq HCR/LCR differences.

(D) HCR-favored Pk2G mitochondrial metabolism genes compared to their differential expression. Comparison of the significance from the Pk2G correlation analysis included in the pathway enrichment analysis to the differential expression of the 502 genes that significantly enrich gene sets via GSEA of HCR Up, Pos gene links and RNA-Enrich differential gene expression. Y-axis shows $-\log_{10}(p$-value) from the HCR/LCR differential gene expression analysis, and the $-\log_{10}(p$-value) from the Pk2G link is plotted on the x-axis. Highly significant genes have strong relationships with epigenomic features, supporting coordinated regulation of the chromatin and gene expression.

Figure 4. Global HCR/LCR Differential Motif Enrichment Analysis

(A) Schematic of motif enrichment comparisons between HCR up features with HCR alleles and LCR up features with LCR alleles.

(B) Comparison of motif enrichment (analysis of motif enrichment (AME) -$\log_{10}$(p-values)) within H3K4me1 HCR up peaks (y-axis) and LCR up peaks (x-axis). Points further from the line of identity (slope = 1) and colored darker (green = HCR, magenta = LCR) represent motifs with strong differential enrichment, in which motifs within the top 10% Δ -$\log_{10}$(p-values) are outlined. See additional results in Figure S9.

(C) Over-representation analysis of genes linked to differentially enriched motifs outlined in panel B and Figure S9. The heatmap plots the -$\log_{10}$(p-values) across trials stratified by motif, modality, direction of peak change (HCR up or LCR up), and directionality of Pk2G links. Each row is a representative gene set cluster into which significant gene sets (FDR < 0.05) were kappa-reduced. Distinct regulatory patterns result, with the most prominent signal driven by motifs enriched in HCR up ATAC-Seq and H3K4me1 peaks, outlined in red. See panel (D) for an expanded view of this cluster.

(D) Subset of the over-representation results from panel C. The number of child gene sets within the representative cluster are annotated on the lefthand side of the heatmap. Results are compared to RNA-Enrich (left column) and the heatmap plots the -$\log_{10}$(p-value) of the most significant gene set within the cluster with '•' annotating significant clusters (FDR < 0.05). Rows are hierarchically clustered; columns are kappa clustered by significant gene inclusion. To reduce sparsity in the heatmap, rows are filtered to include terms that are FDR significant in more than 5 "motif, modality, HCR/LCR direction, and Pk2G direction" trials. TF motif version is noted within parentheses.

Figure 5. Allele-Specific Influence on HCR/LCR Epigenomic Divergence

(A) Schematic showing comparison of population differentiation (F_{ST}) and HCR/LCR epigenomic divergence carried out for each modality.

(B) Association between F_{ST} and HCR/LCR epigenomic peak significance. Linear models return a strong positive relationship between inverse rank normalized F_{ST} and HCR/LCR DESeq -$\log_{10}(p$-values) for each modality (y-axis), while controlling for technical variables and genomic location (coding vs noncoding). The signed -$\log_{10}(p$-value) for the F_{ST} term in the model is plotted on the x-axis.

(C) Schematic of allele-specific differential motif enrichment analysis to detect TF binding differences due to fixed alleles within HCR up and LCR up regions. Motif enrichment is compared between HCR up regions with HCR alleles and HCR up regions with LCR alleles (left), as well as LCR up regions with LCR alleles and LCR up regions with HCR alleles (right).

(D) Comparison of allele-specific motif enrichment (AME -$\log_{10}(p$-values)) between HCR alleles (y-axis) and LCR alleles (x-axis) within HCR up (circles) and LCR up (diamonds) H3K4me1 peaks. Points further from the line of identity (slope = 1) indicate HCR allele (green) and LCR allele (magenta) driven motif enrichment. Motifs within the 10% Δ -$\log_{10}(p$-values) are outlined. See additional allele-specific results in Figure S9.

(E) Example of a disrupted motif within differential peaks linked to *Acad11* expression. ATAC-Seq, H3K27ac, H3K4me1, and H3K4me3 peaks within the gene body of Acad11 have a positive Pk2G Link with Acad11.

(F) Peak signal at the motif-disrupted region linked to Acad11 (line = mean, shaded ± 95% CI). Signal was smoothed on a per-sample basis by applying a rolling mean (bin size = 20). The nominal *p*-value from the DESeq analysis is provided for each modality.

(G) Sequence comparison of HCR and LCR alleles within the Sp1 motif. The preferred Sp1 motif contains the G allele in HCR. 80% of the HCR population exhibit a T allele at this location, whereas 92% of the LCR population present the C allele.

(H) Over-representation analysis of genes linked to allele-disrupted motifs, when target genes specified by the column name are tested (e.g., 'HCR Up, Pos' = HCR alleles disrupt motifs within HCR up peaks that are positively linked to the gene target). Results are compared to RNA-Enrich (right column) and heatmap plots the -$\log_{10}(p$-value) from the respective tests, with '•' annotating significant gene sets (FDR < 0.1).

(I) Visual summary demonstrating how fixed alleles can disrupt TF binding and affect the expression of nuclear-encoded mitochondrial genes.

Figure 6. Orthogonal Validation of Epigenomic Findings

(A) Simplified depiction of the previously generated F2 population. The far-left panel (Founder Population) illustrates the genetic mosaic of the N/NIH heterogeneous stock, which originated from eight inbred rat strains (represented by distinct colors). This heterogeneous stock served as the founder population for the HCR and LCR lines. The center panel (Selection for Running Capacity) shows how 28 generations of artificial selection for intrinsic running capacity led to allele fixation and divergence between HCR (green) and LCR (magenta) populations. This process resulted in distinct genotypic and phenotypic profiles in each *Line*. The far-right panel (F2 Cross) illustrates the crossing scheme used to generate the genetically diverse F2 population. First, HCR and LCR lines were crossed to produce an F1 population, illustrated by heterozygous loci inherited from both parental lines. The F1 generation was then randomly intercrossed, while avoiding sibling pairs, to produce the genetically recombinant F2 population shown by a mixture of genetic variants derived from both HCR and LCR backgrounds.

(B) Overview of the validation study. F2 gastrocnemius gene expression (RNA-Seq) and chromatin accessibility (ATAC-Seq) were related to genotypes via eQTL and caQTL analyses, respectively.

(C) F2 results compared with HCR/LCR findings to validate proposed regulatory mechanisms driven by allelic convergence.

(D-F) Comparison of variant effects between HCR/LCR lines (y-axis) and F2 analysis (x-axis) including variants with ($F_{ST} \geq 0.3$). The effect allele is coded to be the one with greater frequency in the HCR line than in the LCR line. To assist with overplotting, only one occurrence of a variant with the highest r^2 with the top variant are included in the plot. Quadrants I and III are shaded to indicate concordance

(D) HCR/LCR peaks overlapped with F2 caPeaks. The $-\log_{10}(p\text{-values})$ from the caQTL analysis are signed by the caQTL slope. The $-\log_{10}(p\text{-values})$ from the HCR/LCR analysis are signed by DESeq $\log_2 FC$, where a positive value indicates greater peak signal in HCRs than in LCRs. Points are outlined if the peak compared contains a differential motif that is disrupted based on the presence of an HCR/LCR fixed allele.

(E) Comparison of the direction of allelic effect and the difference of gene expression between HCR/LCR lines. Genes with HCR/LCR DESeq FDR < 0.01 and variants with LD $r^2 > 0.9$ with the top eVariant were included for consideration. Points are colored by the biological relevance of the gene (blue = mitochondrial related, red = vasculature related, gray = other).

(F) Comparison of $-\log 10(p\text{-values})$ signed by beta (eQTL) and direction of relationship between peak and gene in the HCR/LCR analysis. The eQTL $-\log_{10}(p\text{-values})$ are signed by the beta value. The HCR/LCR $-\log_{10}(p\text{-values})$ are signed by the direction of the Pk2G link. Outlined points indicate disrupted motif presence within the peak. Points are colored by the biological relevance of the gene (blue = mitochondrial related, red = vasculature related, gray = other).

(G-I) HCR/LCR VST normalized counts adjusted for additional experimental contrasts and technical variables and (J-L) F2 plots inverse normalized expression adjusted for sex, in which the relationship between the (G,J) regulatory peak and gene, (H,K) variant and regulatory peak, and (I,L) variant and gene expression are plotted where the line represents the mean across genotype combinations.

Figure 7. ETS-mediated regulation of mitochondrial energy metabolism genes supports oxidative efficiency in high CRF muscle

Cartoon representation of ETS TF motifs in enhancer regions upregulating genes involved in fatty acid oxidation (ACADs, Hadh), TCA flux (Fh), electron transport (subunits of complexes I-V), and endothelial pathways, which all support efficient oxidative metabolism in HCR skeletal muscle. Gene symbols followed with the symbol `+` indicate that multiple genes within that family are targeted. TFP = trifunctional protein.

Figure S1. Detailed Breakdown of Study and Randomization, related to Figure 1

(A) Study design that included 128 HCR and LCR rats, balanced for sex. Half of the rats underwent a six-week training intervention while the remaining rats were sedentary for that same time period. Rats were split into four sample collection time groups and subject to an acute exercise bout. High throughput sequencing libraries were generated from gastrocnemius muscle, with the number of libraries produced per-acute exercise bout group provided. Note that CUT&Tag libraries were not produced for samples in the half-max group, and fewer CUT&Tag libraries were produced for the remaining acute exercise bout groups.

(B) Randomization schema of CUT&Tag libraries.

(C) Randomization schema of ATAC-Seq libraries.

(D) To assess the effect of the exercise training, we performed a linear regression using the formula $final\ running\ distance \sim line + sex + exercise\ training\ group$. The results showed that running distance significantly increased following training (β = 404m, p-value = 2.97×10^{-07}).

(E) QC plot from ChromHMM analysis, showing the enrichment for the Strong Promoter chromatin state at TSSs across the genome. The likeliness of ATAC-Seq and H3K4me3 presence associated with the Strong Promoter state is expected at TSSs.

Figure S2. QC Statistics for the Creation of Master Peak Matrices, related to Figure 2

(A-R) Within-group and cross-group reproducibility of peaks called by MACS2, considered when constructing the master peak matrix for each epigenomic sequencing modality.

Comparison of PCs, latent variables, and experimental variables before & after adjustment

A ATAC-Seq

B RNA-Seq

C

H3K27ac

D

H3K4me1

E

H3K4me3

F

H3K36me3

G H3K27me3

Figure S3. Comparison of PCs, Latent Variables, and Experimental Variables Before and After Adjustment of ATAC-Seq, CUT&Tag, and RNA-Seq Data, related to Figure 2

(A-G) Heatmap of correlation between binarized experimental contrasts (yellow), considered latent variables (red), and PCs before and after inclusion of latent variables (light blue), with each other and QC metrics associated with epigenomic sequencing data (dark blue).

Figure S4. Identification of Latent Variables, DESeq2 Models, and Variation of Data Before and After Adjustment, related to Figure 2

(A) Comparison of the count of significant differential peaks (y-axis) resulting between all experimental contrasts (colored) when a range of latent variables are included in the DESeq model (x-axis). The number of latent variables that we chose to include in all subsequent models (e.g., DESeq, adjusting of VST transformed counts for correlation and data visualization) for each modality is circled in red.

(B) DESeq design overview for each modality subject to differential analysis by this method.

(C) PCA plots of VST transformed counts for each modality normalized for technical variables by adjusting based on the formula printed on each plot.

(D) PCA plots of VST transformed counts for each modality normalized for technical and latent variables (formula printed on the plot). This shows how outliers are rescued, and group clustering is improved by normalizing for unknown variation. Additionally, these plots show how strong the line effect is relative to acute exercise and sex prior to the removal of this effect.

(E-F) VST transformed counts where the line effect was isolated by adjusting for additional experimental (sex, acute exercise, and training) and technical variables (prep batch, sequencing batch, latent variables) via linear regression. The linear model included the line variable to protect this effect. These plots confirm that acute exercise (e) and sex groups (f) are centered post-removal of the additional experimental and technical contrasts, exemplifying successful isolation of the HCR/LCR effect in this data. Centering of training samples are not displayed because that experimental contrast resulted in minimal molecular changes.

Figure S5. Genotype Imputation QC

Distribution plots showing the proportion of reference alleles present in ATAC-Seq data at variant sites imputed as homozygous reference (0|0), heterozygous (1|0 OR 0|1), and homozygous alternate (1|1) at varying ATAC-Seq depth thresholds. Reference alleles are predominantly observed at sites imputed as homozygous reference, and vice versa at sites imputed as homozygous alternate. For sites imputed as heterozygous, the distribution of observed genotypes is centered around 0.5.

Direction of Change   ● LCR up   ● HCR up

Figure S6. Differential Chromatin Accessibility, Histone Modification Abundance, and Gene Expression, related to Figure 2

Volcano plots created from the HCR/LCR DESeq output, with emphasis on the regions that pass the significance threshold provided in Figure 2C for each additional sequencing-based modality: (A) H3K27me3, (B) H3K27ac, (C) H3K4me3, (D) H3K36me3, (E) ATAC-Seq, (F) RNA-Seq (gene expression).

Figure S7. Differential RNA-Seq Pathway Enrichment Results, related to Figure 2

RNA-Seq pathway enrichment analysis. HCR/LCR differential gene expression significantly enriched for 342 gene sets via RNA-Enrich analysis (FDR < 0.05), which were collapsed into 149 representative clusters and plotted separately by upregulation in HCR (A) and LCR (B). The rows are hierarchically clustered based on the $\log_2$ odds ratio of the RNA-Enrich results plotted. The number of gene sets within the hierarchical cluster is annotated on the lefthand side of the heatmap. These results are compared to additional epigenomic modalities, in which '•' annotates a significant gene set cluster, where at least one of the gene sets within the cluster returned FDR < 0.05. RNA-Enrich analysis provides the direction of enrichment (e.g., HCR up and LCR up), whereas ChIP-Enrich returns gene sets as enriched or depleted. The largest cluster in panel A that returns significant pathways from the epigenomic data, mitochondrial protein-containing complex, is expanded upon to the right to show that nearest-TSS annotated epigenomic signals are not enriched for the majority of the child terms within this cluster. The sparsity of significantly enriched epigenomic gene sets in comparison to RNA-Seq is apparent.

Figure S8. Additional Pk2G Examples, related to Figure 3

Select examples of Pk2G relationships for target genes (A) Eci1, (B) Etfdh, (C) Gapdh, (D) Hadhb, (E) Ppargc1a, (F) Acadl, (G) and Mcee. Distal regions (present in columns only) are included if they have a significant correlation (FDR < 0.05) with either the gene of interest or peaks located in the gene's promoter region. Columns are ordered by peak distance to the gene's TSS. Cells displaying significant peak-to-peak and peak-to-gene correlations (FDR < 0.05) are annotated with a dot. 'Dist to TSS' annotation displays the distance of regions upstream or downstream of the TSS. Major color breaks occur at 20 kb, 100 kb, 200 kb, and 500 kb, with darker shades representing regions closer to the TSS. A white triangle is annotated in the 'Dist to TSS' bar if the region corresponds to a 'promoter' peak, which would also be included as a row. The 'Modality' annotation bar is color-coded to represent different modalities. Matching symbols within this bar indicate peaks residing within the same merged region (e.g., overlapping peaks from different modalities). The 'Log10 FDR' annotation bar is colored by the direction of change, highlighting regions with very low FDRs in darker shades, even if they do not meet the $\log_2$FC significance criteria. An asterisk is shown in this bar if the region is considered significant according to both FDR and $\log_2$FC thresholds in the differential analysis. The 'Pk2G Link' annotation bar shows the direction of relationship between the peak and the gene displayed in the heatmap. The 'Max F_{ST}' annotation bar shows the largest fixation index calculated for a variant residing in that peak.

Figure S9. Differential Motif Enrichment, related to Figure 4 and Figure 5

Comparison of motif enrichment from the (A) allele-specific and (B) global differential motif enrichment analysis across HCR up and LCR up peaks, colored in the same manner as the main-text figures.

A

LCR Up TFs | N.S. | HCR Up TFs

Allele-Specific Differential Motif Enrichment
(Δ -log₁₀(p-value)ₕ꜀ᵣ ₐₗₗₑₗₑₛ₋ₗ꜀ᵣ ₐₗₗₑₗₑₛ)

Differential Gene Expression
(HCR/LCR signed -log₁₀(p-value) from DESeq)

HCR Preferred Motifs in HCR Up Regions

LCR Preferred Motifs in LCR Up Regions

modality
ATAC-Seq   H3K27ac   Weak Promoter
H3K4me3   Weak Enhancer   Strong Promoter
H3K4me1   Strong Enhancer   Poised Promoter

|log₂FC|
0.25 0.50 0.75 1.00 1.25

B

LCR Up TFs | N.S. | HCR Up TFs

Global Differential Motif Enrichment
(Δ -log₁₀(p-value)ₕ꜀ᵣ ᵣₑ𝓰ᵢₒₙₛ₋ₗ꜀ᵣ ᵣₑ𝓰ᵢₒₙₛ)

Differential Gene Expression
(HCR/LCR signed -log₁₀(p-value) from DESeq)

Enriched Motifs in HCR Up Regions

Enriched Motifs in LCR Up Regions

modality
ATAC-Seq   H3K27ac   Weak Promoter
H3K4me3   Weak Enhancer   Strong Promoter
H3K4me1   Strong Enhancer   Poised Promoter

|log₂FC|
0.4 0.8 1.2 1.6

Figure S10. Relationship Between Differential Motifs and Transcription Factor Gene Expression, related to Figure 4 and Figure 5

Comparison of the differential motif enrichment significance (signed Δ -$\log_{10}$(AME *p*-value)) across all modalities to the significance of differential TF gene expression (HCR/LCR). The significance of differential gene expression is represented as signed -$\log_{10}$(FDR) from DESeq. TFs that are differentially enriched in multiple modalities are connected by a vertical gray line, indicating multiple AME *p*-values with consistent DESeq significance. Black vertical lines at -2 and 2 correspond to a DESeq FDR threshold of < 0.01. The fill intensity represents the magnitude of change (|$\log_2$FC|). Points with |$\log_2$FC| > 0.5 are outlined in black.

(A) Comparison specific to the allele-specific analysis

(B) Comparison specific to the global motif enrichment analysis

Figure S11. Multi-Modal Data Framework

Overview of the data modalities included in the study, categorized by whether the data used is primary or derived. Primary data modalities are sequencing libraries prepared from skeletal muscle tissue. Derived data layers were generated by utilizing the primary data modalities. The green box shows the workflow of analyzing various datasets independently and then integrated to identify variant:peak:gene links. The purple box presents the concept of the validation study.