Fast and Accurate Clustering of Single Cell Epigenomes Reveals *Cis*-Regulatory Elements in Rare Cell Types

Rongxin Fang[1,2], Sebastian Preissl[3], Xiaomeng Hou[3], Jacinta Lucero[4], Xinxin Wang[3], Amir Motamedi[5], Andrew K. Shiau[5], Eran A. Mukamel[6], Yanxiao Zhang[2], M. Margarita Behrens[4], Joseph Ecker[4,7], and Bing Ren[2,3,8]*

1. Bioinformatics and Systems Biology Graduate Program, University of California San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA
2. Ludwig Institute for Cancer Research, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA
3. Center for Epigenomics, Department of Cellular and Molecular Medicine, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA
4. The Salk Institute for Biological Studies, La Jolla, CA 92037, USA
5. Small Molecule Discovery Program, Ludwig Institute for Cancer Research, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA
6. Department of Cognitive Science, University of California, San Diego, La Jolla, CA 92037, USA
7. Howard Hughes Medical Institute, The Salk Institute for Biological Studies, La Jolla, CA 92037, USA
8. Molecular Medicine, Institute of Genomic Medicine, UCSD Moores Cancer Center, La Jolla, CA 92093, USA

*Correspondence to: biren@ucsd.edu

Abstract:

Mammalian tissues are composed of highly specialized cell types defined by distinct gene expression patterns. Identification of *cis*-regulatory elements responsible for cell-type specific gene expression is essential for understanding the origin of the cellular diversity. Conventional assays to map *cis*-elements via open chromatin analysis of primary tissues fail to resolve their cell type specificity and lack the sensitivity to identify *cis*-elements in rare cell types. Single nucleus analysis of transposase-accessible chromatin (ATAC-seq) can overcome this limitation, but current analysis methods begin with pre-defined genomic regions of accessibility and are therefore biased toward the dominant population of a tissue. Here we report a method, Single Nucleus Analysis Pipeline for ATAC-seq (SnapATAC), that can efficiently dissect cellular heterogeneity in an unbiased manner using single nucleus ATAC-seq datasets and identify candidate regulatory sequences in constituent cell types. We demonstrate that SnapATAC outperforms existing methods in both accuracy and scalability. We further analyze 64,795 single cell chromatin profiles from the secondary motor cortex of mouse brain, creating a chromatin landscape atlas with unprecedent resolution, including over 300,000 candidate *cis*-regulatory elements in nearly 50 distinct cell populations. These results demonstrate a systematic approach for comprehensive analysis of *cis*-regulatory sequences in the mammalian genomes.

Introduction

Mammalian tissues comprise of various cell types highly specialized to carry out distinct functions. Cellular identity and function are established and maintained through programs of gene expression that are specific to each cell type and state[1]. Gene regulation is carried out by sequence-specific transcription factors that interact with *cis*-regulatory sequences, such as promoters, enhancers and insulators[2]. Identifying *cis*-regulatory elements in the genome is an essential step towards understanding the cell type specific gene regulatory programs in mammalian tissues.

Since the activity of *cis*-elements often arises from the binding of transcription factors to accessible chromatin, approaches such as ATAC-seq (Assay for Transposase-Accessible Chromatin using sequencing)[3] and DNase-seq (DNase I hypersensitive sites sequencing)[4] that identify regions of open chromatin have been widely used to map candidate regulatory sequences in the genomes. However, these conventional assays have limited ability to resolve the diverse cell type-specific chromatin landscapes present in heterogeneous tissues, providing only an average map dominated by signals from the most common cell populations.

Recently, a number of methods have been developed for measuring chromatin accessibility in single cells. One approach involves combinatorial indexing to simultaneously process tens of thousands of cells[5]. This strategy has been successfully applied to embryonic tissues in *D. melanogaster*[6], developing mouse forebrains[7] and multiple adult mouse tissues[8]. A related method, called scTHS-seq (single-cell transposome hypersensitive site sequencing), has also been developed and used to study chromatin landscapes at single cell resolution in the adult human brains[9]. Another approach relies on isolation of single cell using microfluidic devices (Fluidigm, C1)[10] or within individually indexable wells of a nano-well array (Takara Bio, ICELL8)[11]. Whereas fewer cells are processed per experiment compared to the combinatorial indexing approach, the library complexity per single cell is considerably higher with this method[12]. Recently, 10X Genomics and Bio-Rad Laboratories have enabled single cell ATAC-seq on droplet-based microfluidic platform, producing data of similar quality to that of nano-well capture technique[12]. Despite these experimental advances,

data from single cell chromatin accessibility experiments still presents unique

computational challenges largely due to the sparsity and high-level noise of the data from

single cells.

Existing computational methods rely on pre-defined regions of transposase accessibility

identified from the aggregate signals. For instance, chromVAR[13] estimates similarity

between cells based on transcription factor occurrence frequency in the peak regions.

Alternatively, techniques developed for natural language processing have been applied to

scATAC-Seq data by treating each single cell profile as a document, composed of regions

of chromatin accessibility which play the role of words. In this framework, Latent

Semantic Analysis (LSA)[8] and Latent Dirichlet Allocation (Cis-Topic)[14] infer the

relationships between cells. A third approach, Cicero, clusters cells based on the gene

activity scores predicted by linking distal or proximal peaks to the gene[15]. Relying on gene

activity scores predicted by Cicero, a recent approach attempts to classify individual

nuclei from a scATAC-seq dataset based on a reference of transcriptomic states[16].

The use of pre-defined accessibility peaks based on bulk data has at least three key

limitations. First, it requires sufficient number of single cell profiles to create robust

aggregate signal for peak calling. Second, the cell type identification is biased toward the

most abundant cell types in the tissues. Finally, these techniques lack the ability to reveal

regulatory elements in the rare cell populations which are underrepresented in the

aggregate signal. This concern is critical, for example, in brain tissue, where key neuron

types may represent less than 1% of all cells while still playing a critical role in the neural

circuit[17].

To overcome these limitations, we developed a bioinformatic package, Single Nucleus

Analysis Pipeline for ATAC-seq (SnapATAC), for analyzing single cell ATAC-seq (scATAC-

seq) datasets. SnapATAC does not require population-level peak annotation, and instead

assembles chromatin landscapes by directly clustering cells based on the similarity of

their genome-wide accessibility profile. Using a regression-based normalization

procedure, SnapATAC adjusts for differing read depth between cells. With a fast

dimensionality reduction technique, it can easily process data from millions of cells. In a

battery of tests using simulated and published datasets, SnapATAC outperforms existing
tools in both clustering accuracy and scalability. To demonstrate the utility of SnapATAC,
we apply it to a dataset of over 60,000 single cell ATAC-seq profiles from the mouse
secondary motor cortex that we generated. We detect nearly 50 subtypes including some
rare types that account for less than 0.1% of the total population. We also uncover
337,932 candidate *cis*-elements in these different cell types, more than twice as many as
were identified from bulk analysis. These results suggest that SnapATAC, together with
scATAC-seq, can greatly enhance our ability to annotate and characterize the *cis*-
regulatory elements in the mammalian genomes.
118
Results
SnapATAC achieves a new standard for scATAC-seq analysis
A schematic diagram of SnapATAC is shown in **Fig. 1**. Briefly, after pre-processing
(**Methods**), the chromatin accessibility profile of each single cell is represented as a
binary vector, the length of which corresponds to the number of uniform-sized bins that
segmented the genome. A bin with value "1" indicates that one or more reads fall within
that bin, and the value "0" indicates otherwise. Next, the set of binary vectors from all the
cells is converted into a Jaccard index matrix, with the value of each element calculated
from fraction of overlapping bins between every two cells. Since the number of cells is
usually far smaller than the number of bins, this operation effectively reduces the
dimensions of the matrix therefore significantly improves the scalability of the pipeline
(**Methods**). Because the value of Jaccard Index can be influenced by differing sequencing
depth between cells (**Supplementary Fig. 1**), therefore, a normalization method is
developed to remove such confounding factor (**Methods**; **Supplementary Fig. 1-2**).
Next, the normalized matrix is subject to Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and the
significant components are selected to create a K-nearest neighbor (KNN) graph, with
edges drawn between cells with similar ATAC-seq profiles. The highly interconnected
'communities' (or 'clusters') of cells in the resulting graph are identified using Louvain
algorithm[18]. Cells belonging to each cluster are pooled to assemble a consensus chromatin
landscape for identification of regulatory elements *de novo*. Finally, using candidate
regulatory elements in each cluster, the master regulators for each cell cluster are inferred
by motif analysis[19] and the potential function of the cluster is predicted with Genomic

Regions Enrichment of Annotation Tool (GREAT) analysis[20]. Thus, SnapATAC provides

an end-to-end solution for analysis of single cell ATAC-seq datasets.

Figure 1. Overview of SnapATAC workflow. (a) Pre-processing: SnapATAC takes
raw sequencing reads as input and aligns them to the reference genome followed by
filtration of low-quality cells. **(b)** Cell-by-Bin Binary Matrix: the genome is segmented
into uniform-sized bins and single cell profiles are represented as a binary matrix with
"1" indicating a specific bin is accessible in a given cell and "0" denoting inaccessible

chromatin or missing data. (**c**) Feature Selection & Jaccard Index Matrix: after filtering undesirable bins, the genome-wide cell-by-bin matrix is converted into a Jaccard index matrix by estimating similarity between cells in the basis of profile overlaps. (**d**) Normalization: Jaccard similarity matrix is normalized using a regression-based method to eliminate the read depth effect. (**e**) Clustering: using normalized matrix, cells of similar accessibility profiles are clustered together and visualized using t-SNE (t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding) or UMAP (Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection for Dimensionality Reduction). (**f**) Peak Calling: cells belonging to the same cluster are aggregated to create a representation of cell-type specific regulatory landscape for identification of candidate *cis*-regulatory elements *de novo*. (**g**) Peak Occurrence Frequency Matrix: the frequency (number of cells out of the total) of a peak occurring in each cluster is calculated. (**h**) Differential Analysis: differential analysis performed to identify cell-type specific regulatory elements. (**i**) GREAT & Motif Analysis: using cell-type specific regulatory elements, GREAT (Genomic Region Enrichment of Annotation Tool) analysis performed to predict the potential function of each cluster and motif analysis to reveal candidate master regulators that controls gene expression in each cell type.

The performance of SnapATAC is benchmarked against a variety of published scATAC-seq analysis methods, including chromVAR[13], LSA[8], Cicero[15] and Cis-Topic[14]. To allow for evaluation of the clustering performance as a function of data sparsity, a set of simulated single-cell ATAC-seq datasets were generated by down sampling from 10 previously published bulk ATAC-seq datasets[21] (**Supplementary Table 1**) with varying coverages, from 10,000 reads per cell (high coverage), to 1,000 reads per cell (low coverage) (**Methods**). The performance of each method in identifying the original cell types was measured by the normalized mutual index (NMI), which ranges from 0 for a level of similarity expected by chance to 1 for perfect clustering. This analysis shows that SnapATAC is the most robust and accurate method across all ranges of data sparsity (**Fig. 2**) (Wilcoxon signed-rank test, $P < 0.01$; **Supplementary Fig. 3**; **Supplementary Table 2**).

Figure 2. Validation of SnapATAC performance relative to alternative methods on simulated datasets. Method comparison on 2,000 simulated single cell ATAC-seq data down sampled from 10 bulk ATAC-seq datasets with varying coverages. Mono: monocyte; Mega: megakaryocyte; GMPC: granulocyte monocyte progenitor cell; MPC: megakaryocyte progenitor cell; NPT: neutrophil; G1E: G1E; T cell: regulatory T cell; MEPC: megakaryocyte-erythroid progenitor cell; HSC: hematopoietic stem cell.

The superior performance of SnapATAC likely results from the fact that it considers all
reads from each cell, not just a small fraction of reads that fall within peaks identified
from aggregate signals. To test this hypothesis, the above analysis was repeated but only
using off-peak reads. Consistent with this hypothesis, all cells were clustered perfectly
(nmi=1.0; **Supplementary Fig. 4**). It is likely that these off-peak reads 1) overlap with
"weak" elements that are not identified from the aggregate signals; 2) may be enriched for
the euchromatin, which strongly correlate with active genes[22] and vary considerably
between cell types[23]. Supporting this hypothesis, the density of 70% off-peak reads
correlates strongly with compartment A defined in the particular cell types through
genome-wide chromatin conformation capture analysis (i.e. Hi-C) (**Supplementary Fig.
5**). These observations suggest that the superior performance of SnapATAC with low-
coverage datasets is, at least in part, due to that the off-peak sequencing reads in the
scATAC-seq library contribute significantly for cell clustering.

To further assess the performance of SnapATAC, it is used to analyze a series of published
single cell chromatin accessibility datasets representing a variety of sample types, and the
results are compared to the original analysis. When applied to a set of 1,452 human cells
corresponding to 10 distinct cell types[13], SnapATAC successfully uncovered distinct cell
populations with an accuracy of 0.95 (normalized mutual index) according to the cell
labels, while the original method (chromVAR) failed to fully distinguish several blood cell
subtypes (HL60, Blast, LMPP, LSC and Mono) (**Fig. 3a; Supplementary Fig. 6a**).
Interestingly, SnapATAC divided K562 cells into two sub-clusters (**Fig. 3a**) (labeled as
K562.2015, K562.2017), corresponding to the years (2015 and 2017, respectively) when
the cells were grown and profiled (**Supplementary Fig. 6b-c**). In addition, GM12878
cells were also split into two separate clusters (GM12878.a and GM12878.b)
(**Supplementary Fig. 6b**) that represent previously identified subtypes associated with
differential NF-kB activity and B cell signaling[5] (**Supplementary Fig. 6d**). Taken
together, these results indicate that SnapATAC is a sensitive and accurate method to
distinguish different cell types.

When applied to datasets from more complex tissues, SnapATAC also exhibits much
improved performance over previous methods. Reanalyzing single-cell open chromatin

profiles (scTHS-seq) from 6,008 human Occipital Lobe[9], SnapATAC uncovered two additional inhibitory neuron subpopulations and four more excitatory subtypes corresponding to different layers (**Fig. 3b**) that were previously undetectable without incorporating single cell RNA sequencing data[9]. Similarly, when applied to a sci-ATAC-seq dataset comprising ~100,000 single cells from 13 adult mouse tissues[8], SnapATAC revealed almost twice as many additional cell clusters as originally reported (**Fig. 3c, Supplementary Fig. 7-10**). For example, when applied to prefrontal cortex, SnapATAC identified 22 different populations including 12 excitatory neurons representing layer-specific subtypes, 5 inhibitory neuronal clusters including Sst, Vip, Pvalb, Sncg and Lamp5 subtypes, 1 oligodendrocyte cluster, 1 oligodendrocyte precursor cluster, 1 astrocyte cluster, 1 microglia cluster, 1 endothelial cell cluster (**Fig. 3c, Supplementary Fig. 7-8**). This improved cell-type resolution also holds true for other tissue samples tested (**Supplementary Fig. 9-10**). These results indicate that SnapATAC outperforms existing methods on complex single cell accessibility datasets.

Figure 3. Validation of SnapATAC performance relative to alternative
methods on published single cell ATAC-seq datasets. (**a**) ChromVAR (top) versus
SnapATAC (bottom) on scATAC-seq data from 11 human cell lines. Points are colored by
cell types. Blast: acute myeloid leukemia blast cells; LSC: acute myeloid leukemia
leukemic stem cells; LMPP: lymphoid-primed multipotent progenitors; Mono: monocyte;
HL60: HL-60 promyeloblast cell line; TF1: TF-1 erythroblast cell line; GM: GM12878
lymphoblastoid cell line; BJ: human fibroblast cell line; H1: H1 human embryonic stem
cell line. (**b**) POGODA2 (top) versus SnapATAC (bottom) on human Occipital Lobe
scTHS-seq. Points are colored by identified cell types. (**c**) LSA (top) versus SnapATAC
(bottom) on mouse prefrontal cortex sci-ATAC-seq dataset. Exc: excitatory neuron cells;
Inc: inhibitory neuron cells; Opc: Oligodendrocyte precursor cells; Asc: astrocyte cells;
Ogc: oligodendrocyte cells; Mgc: microglia cells. End: endothelial cells.
249
In addition to the clustering performance, SnapATAC also demonstrates high
computational efficiency and scalability. Benchmarked using simulated scATAC-seq data
sets from 1,000 to 100,000 cells, the CPU-time of SnapATAC scales linearly and at a
significantly lower slope than other methods. This difference is especially pronounced
relative to topic modeling methods such as Cis-Topic, a probabilistic method that requires
extensive parameter optimization for large dataset. Using the same computing resource,
when applied to 100,000 cells, SnapATAC is nearly 160 times faster than Cis-Topic,
reducing the time from 30 hours to 10 minutes (**Table 1**; **Supplementary Fig. 11**).
258

Table 1 | Time taken for clustering using Cis-Topic and SnapATAC, as compared for different cell number N		
N	**Cis-Topic**	**SnapATAC**
1,000	30min	6 sec
10,000	3h 16min	1min 20sec
100,000	31h 18min	11min 30sec
Tested on a machine with 5 AMD Opteron(TM) Processor 6276 CPUs		

259
260
261

A high-resolution *cis*-regulatory atlas of the secondary mouse motor cortex

The mammalian brain is composed of myriad highly specialized cell types and subtypes[17,24–27], which presents a unique challenge for single cell chromatin accessibility analysis. As part of the BRAIN Initiative Cell Census Consortium[28], we have generated single nucleus ATAC-seq profiles from >60,000 individual cells from the secondary motor cortex (MOs) in the adult mouse brain (**Fig. 4a**). To our knowledge, this represents the largest single cell chromatin accessibility dataset yet published from a single tissue type. This dataset includes 2 biological replicates (**Fig. 4b; Supplementary Table 3**), each generated from pooled tissue of at least 15 mice to prevent potential artifacts such as dissection or batch effect. The aggregate signal showed high reproducibility between biological replicates (R > 0.95**; Fig. 4b-c**, **Supplementary Fig. 12a-c**) and significant enrichment for transcription start sites (TSS) indicating a high signal-to-noise ratio (**Supplementary Fig. 12d-e**). After filtering out the poor-quality nuclei using stringent criteria (**Supplementary Fig. 13-14**), we obtained a total of 64,795 nuclear profiles with an average of ~5,000 sequencing fragments per nucleus (**Supplementary Table 4**).

SnapATAC identified and annotated the same 20 major clusters (**Fig. 4d**) from each biological replicate (**Supplementary Fig. 15**), indicating the robustness of the method. Based on gene body accessibility levels at canonical marker genes (**Fig. 4e**; **Supplementary Fig. 16-17**), the 20 clusters were classified into eight excitatory neuronal subpopulations (Snap25+, Slc17a7+, Gad1-; 50% of total nuclei), four inhibitory neuronal subpopulations (Snap25+, Slc17a7-, Gad2+; 10% of total nuclei), one oligodendrocyte subpopulation (Mog+; 9% of total nuclei), one oligodendrocyte precursor subpopulation (Pdgfra+; 5% of total nuclei), one microglia subpopulation (C1qb+; 7% of total nuclei), one astrocyte subpopulation (Apoe+; 13% of total nuclei), and additional populations of endothelial, somatic, and somatic muscle cells accounting for 6% of total nuclei.

The accuracy of these cell-type classification is supported by several lines of evidence. First, measurements of neuronal vs non-neuronal cell type abundance by Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) from the same samples are highly consistent with estimates from SnapATAC analysis (**Fig. 4f-g; Supplementary Fig. 28**). Second, the excitatory

neuron subpopulations we identify show specificity for known cortical layer-specific
marker genes and gradient transition between layers (**Fig. 4h**). Third, neuronal
classification for each of the major cell population based on snATAC-seq data was in
excellent agreement with previous annotations based on scRNA-seq[26] (**Fig. 5a**). All the
major neuronal subpopulations identified from snATAC-seq can be matched to the
scRNA-seq based classification of cell types in the mouse visual cortex. In addition, gene
body accessibility for marker genes in each cluster correlated well with expression levels
for corresponding genes and clusters (**Fig. 5b** and **Supplementary Fig. 18**). Taken
together, these data show that snATAC-seq can dissect the cellular heterogeneity of
mouse brain and classify cells in a way consistent with previous knowledge.

Notably, one rare Sst neuronal subtype previously identified from scRNA-seq (Sst-Chodl
in **Fig. 5b**) was not initially detected from snATAC-seq dataset. To examine whether
iterative analysis could help tease out this rare population, SnapATAC was applied to
1,577 Sst nuclei, finding 9 distinct sub-populations including the Sst subtype (Sst.9),
which accounts for less than 0.1% (52/64,795) of the total population profiled
(**Supplementary Fig. 19a-b**). Based on gene accessibility and analysis of enriched
transcription factor motifs (**Supplementary Fig. 19d**), Sst.9 most likely corresponds to
Nos1 type I neurons (also known as Sst-Chodl). Applying SnapATAC to each of the other
major neuronal cell types identified a total of 41 subtypes (**Supplementary Fig. 20**). To
our knowledge, this represents the highest resolution of scATAC-seq analysis of a
mammalian brain region. While the identity and function of these subtypes require
further experimental validation, our results demonstrate the exquisite sensitivity of
SnapATAC in resolving distinct neuronal subtypes with only subtle differences in
chromatin landscape and gene expression patterns.

Figure 4. A high-resolution *cis*-regulatory atlas of the mouse motor cortex.
(**a**) Illustration of secondary motor cortex (MOs) in the adult mouse brain. (**b**) Genome
browser view of snATAC-seq aggregated signals for two biological replicates. (**c**)
Reproducibility of aggregate signals for two biological replicates (rho=0.96, $P < 1e\text{-}10$).

(**d**) Two-dimensional visualization of SnapATAC clustering result. (**e**) Genome browser
view of aggregate signal for each cluster at canonical marker genes. *Mog* is expressed in
Oligodendrocyte cells; *Apoe* is expressed in Astrocyte cells; *Pdgfra* is expressed in
Oligodendrocyte precursor cells; *C1qb* is expressed in Microglia cells; *Slc17a7* is expressed
in excitatory cells; *Gad2* is expressed in inhibitory cells; *Pvalb* is strongly expressed in
inhibitory Pvalb subtype; *Vip* is primarily expressed in inhibitory Vip subtype; *Sst* is
expressed in inhibitory Sst subtype cells. *Npy* is expressed in inhibitory Lamp5 cells. (**f**)
Cellular composition of cell types according to the SnapATAC clustering results. (**g**)
Neuron versus non-neuron cell composition based on FACS sorting. (**h**) Imputed gene
body accessibility level at marker genes for layer-specific excitatory neurons. (**i**)
Dendrogram describing the taxonomy of neuronal subtypes.
337
338

Figure 5. Comparison of neuron clusters with single cell RNA-seq. (**a**) Two-dimensional visualization of single-nucleus ATAC-seq clusters of mouse secondary motor cortex. (**b**) Two-dimensional visualization of single neuron clusters from mouse frontal visual cortex using SMART-seq V4. (**c**) Comparison of imputed gene body accessibility and gene expression level at canonical marker genes. *Gad2* is highly expressed in inhibitory neurons; *Lamp5* is expressed in inhibitory Lamp5 subtype, excitatory L2/3 IT, L4 and L5 PT neurons; *Sst* is expressed in inhibitory Sst subtype; *Pvalb* is expressed in inhibitory Pvalb subtype.

SnapATAC uncovers candidate *cis*-elements active in rare cell populations

A key utility of single cell chromatin accessibility analysis is to identify regulatory sequences in the genome. By pooling reads from nuclei in each cluster, cell-type specific chromatin landscapes can be obtained (**Fig. 6a**). Focusing on the major cell types described in Figure 4d, peaks of chromatin accessibility signals were determined in each cell cluster containing at least 500 cells, resulting in a combined total of 316,257 unique candidate *cis*-elements (**Supplementary Table 5**). Most notably, 56% (190,818/337,932) of these open chromatin regions are not detected in the analysis of bulk ATAC-seq data of the same brain region (**Methods; Fig. 6b; Supplementary Table 6**). We hypothesized that these open chromatin regions not detected in the bulk ATAC-seq analysis may represent those that are only accessible in minor cell populations. Supporting this hypothesis, nearly 80% of these elements were detected from only one cell cluster (**Fig. 6c**).

Several lines of evidence support that these additional open chromatin regions are functional elements, rather than technical noises. First, these sequences showed significantly higher conservation than randomly selected genomic sequences with comparable mappability scores (**Fig. 6d**). Second, these open chromatin regions display enrichment for transcription factor binding motifs corresponding to transcription factors (TFs) that play important regulatory roles in the corresponding cell types (**Supplementary Table 7**). For example, the binding motif for Mef2c is highly enriched in novel candidate cis-elements identified from Pvalb neuronal subtype (P-value = 1e-363; **Fig. 7e-f**), consistent with previous report that Mef2c is upregulated in embryonic

precursors of Pv interneurons[29]. Similarly, the binding motif for ETS-factor PU.1, a known
transcription regulator of microglia[30], was highly enriched in the novel elements detected
from microglia (P-value = 1e-2250) (**Supplementary Table 7**). Finally, the new open
chromatin regions tend to test positive in transgenic reporter assays. Comparison to the
VISTA enhancer database[31] shows that enhancer activities of 256 of the newly identified
open chromatin regions have been previously tested using transgenic reporter assays in
e11.5 mouse embryos (**Supplementary Table 8**). 65% (167/256) of them drive
reproducible reporter expression in at least one embryonic tissue, substantially higher
than background rates (9.7%) estimated from regions in the VISTA database that lack
canonical enhancer mark (manuscript under review)[32]. Here, we displayed four examples
where elements were only present in rare population are tested positive in the brain
function associating regions (**Fig. 6g**). It is important to note that this comparison only
considers the *in vivo* enhancer function but does not validate the exact tissue-specificity
because the current data cannot exclude the possibility of a regulatory element being an
enhancer in other tissues.

Figure 6. SnapATAC uncovers novel candidate *cis*-regulatory elements in rare cell types. (**a**) Genome browser view of 20Mb region flanking gene *Vip*. Dash line highlighting five regulatory elements specific to Vip subtypes that are under-represented in the conventional bulk ATAC-seq signal. (**b**) Over fifty percent of the regulatory elements identified from 20 major cell populations are new compared to that of bulk ATAC-seq. (**c**) Eighty percent of new elements present in only one cell type. (**d**) Sequence conservation comparison between new elements and randomly chosen genomic regions. (**e**) 5,391 Pv-specific new elements are highly enriched in Pv subtypes. (**f**) Top seven

motifs enriched in Pv-specific new elements. (**g**) Four new elements are tested positive

using transgenic mouse assay according to VISTA database.

Extension of SnapATAC to other single cell epigenomics datasets

Although SnapATAC was designed to analyze single cell ATAC-seq data, it is also

applicable to other sparse single cell datasets. To demonstrate this, SnapATAC was used

to reanalyze a variety of published single cell epigenomics and transcriptomics datasets.

When applied to a set of 14,963 sparse single nucleus RNA-seq (sNuc-seq) datasets from

adult post-mortem human brain tissue[33], SnapATAC uncovered distinct clusters

corresponding to all known major cell types (**Methods**; **Fig. 7a; Supplementary Fig.**

21-22). Sub-clustering of GABAergic neurons further identified 11 subtypes with

distinct gene expression patterns (**Supplementary Fig. 23**), including two Sst, three

Pv, three Vip subtypes and three clusters enriched for Lamp5 gene expression. Similarly,

analyzing a dataset of 2,784 methylomes form single neuronal nuclei in the human frontal

cortex[27], SnapATAC identified all the major and subtypes in excellent agreement with the

previous classification (**Fig. 7b; Supplementary Fig. 24**). When applied to single cell

H3k4me2 ChIP-seq data[34], SnapATAC correctly distinguished mouse embryonic stem

cells (ESCs) from mouse embryonic fibroblasts (MEFs) cells (**Methods; Fig. 7c**). Finally,

when used to analyze multiplexing single cell Hi-C[35], SnapATAC separates HeLa S3 from

HAP1 cells (**Methods; Fig. 7d**). Taken together, these results show that SnapATAC can

be used to process other single cell epigenomics datasets.

Figure 7. Applying SnapATAC to other single cell modalities. (**a**) A two-dimensional visualization plot of 14,963 DroNc-seq single-nucleus RNA-seq from adult frozen human hippocampus and prefrontal cortex. Nuclei are color-coded by cluster membership. exPFC: glutamatergic neurons from the PFC; GABA: GABAergic interneurons; exCA1/3: pyramidal neurons from the hip CA region; exDG: granule neurons from the hip dentate gyrus region; ASC: astrocytes; MGC: microglia; OGC, oligodendrocytes; OPC, oligodendrocyte precursor cells; NSC: neuronal stem cells; SMC: smooth muscle cells; END: endothelial cells. (**b**) A two-dimensional visualization plot of 2,784 methylomes form single neuronal nuclei in the human frontal cortex. (**c**) A two-dimensional visualization of single-cell Hi-C from HeLa S3 and HAP1 cells. (**d**) A two-dimensional visualization plot of H3K4me2 single cell ChIP-seq from ESCs and MEFs.

Conclusion & Discussion

In summary, SnapATAC is a comprehensive bioinformatic solution for single cell ATAC-seq analysis. The open-source software runs on commonly available and inexpensive hardware, making it accessible to any researcher using single-cell ATAC-seq data. Through extensive benchmarking using a variety of single cell chromatin datasets, SnapATAC outperforms existing methods substantially in both clustering accuracy and scalability. Although designed for analyzing single cell ATAC-seq datasets, SnapATAC can also be used to analyze a broad range of sparse single cell epigenomics data, such as single cell Hi-C, single cell ChIP-seq and single cell methylomes.

Applying SnapATAC to a new in-house dataset including >60,000 high quality single cell
ATAC-seq profiles from mouse secondary motor cortex, led to a single cell atlas of
candidate cis regulatory elements for this mouse brain region. The cellular diversity
identified by chromatin accessibility is at an unprecedented resolution and is consistent
with mouse neurogenesis and taxonomy revealed by single cell transcriptome data.
Besides characterizing cell types, SnapATAC identifies candidate cis-regulatory
sequences in each of the major cell types and infers transcription factors that control cell-
type specific gene expression programs. Although this study primarily focused on the
major cell types, additional neuronal subtypes can be identified through sub-clustering.
To obtain a robust signal for each of the subtypes, would require substantially more cells
and, more importantly, further anatomical, physiological, and functional experimental
validation.

One of the most exciting features of SnapATAC is its ability to identify candidate *cis*
regulatory elements active only in rare cell population. A large fraction (56%) of the
candidate *cis*-elements identified using SnapATAC analysis of the mouse secondary
motor cortex are not detected in bulk analysis. Most of these elements appear to be active
in individual cell types that account for 1% or less of the total cell population. While
further experiments to thoroughly validate the function of these additional open
chromatin regions is still needed, the ability for SnapATAC to uncover *cis*-elements from
minor cell types of a complex tissue will certainly greatly expand the catalog of cis
regulatory sequences in the genome.

Data availability

Raw and processed data to support the findings of this study have been deposited to
NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus with the accession number GSE126724.

Code availability

The scripts and pipeline for the analysis can be found at
https://github.com/r3fang/SnapATAC.

Acknowledgements

Acknowledgements

We thank D. Gorkin, R. Raviram, J. Hocker and X. Zhou for proofreading and

suggestions for the manuscript. We thank S. Kuan for sequencing support. We thank O.

Poirion, C. Zhang and B. Li for Bioinformatics support. We thank F. Xie for sharing

processed single nucleus methylome data. We thank C. O'Connor and C. Fitzpatrick at

Salk Institute Flow Cytometry Core for sorting of nuclei. This study was funded by

U19MH114831.

Author Contributions

This study was conceived and designed by R.F. and B.R.; Data analysis performed by R.F.;

Tissue collection and nuclei preparation performed by J.L. and M.B.; Single nucleus

ATAC-seq experiment performed by S.P., X.H. and X.W.; Tn5 enzymes synthesized and

provided by A.M. and A.S.; Manuscript written by R.F. and B.R. with input from all

authors.

Methods

1. SnapATAC Pipeline

1.1 Barcode Demultiplexing

Using a custom python script, we first de-multicomplexed FASTQ files by integrating the cell barcode into the read name in the following format: "@" + "barcode" + ":" + "original_read_name".

1.2 Alignment & Sorting

De-multicomplexed reads were aligned to the corresponding reference genome (i.e. mm10 or hg19) using bwa[36] (0.7.13-r1126) in pair-end mode with default parameter settings. Alignments were then sorted based on the read name using samtools[37] (v1.9).

1.3 Fragmentation & Filtration

Pair-end reads were converted into fragments and only those that are 1) properly paired (according to SAM flag value); 2) uniquely mapped (MAPQ > 30); 3) with length less than 1000bp were kept.

1.4 Duplicates Removal

Sorted by barcode, fragments belonging to the same cell (or barcode) were automatically grouped together which allowed for removing PCR duplicates for each cell separately.

1.5 Snap File Generation

Next, using filtered and sorted bam file, we generated a snap-format (Single-Nucleus Accessibility Profiles) file which is hierarchically structured hdf5 file that contains the following sessions: header (HD), cell-by-bin accessibility matrix (AM), cell-by-peak matrix (PM), cell-by-gene matrix (GM), barcode (BD) and fragment (FM). HD session contains snap-file version, date, alignment and reference genome information. BD session contains all unique barcodes and corresponding meta data. AM session contains multiple cell-by-bin matrices of different resolutions (or bin sizes). PM session contains cell-by-peak count matrix. GM session contains cell-by-gene count matrix. FM session contains all usable fragments for each cell. Fragments are indexed for fast search which

allows for generation of cell-type specific chromatin landscapes after clustering. Detailed
information about snap file can be found in **Supplementary Note 1**.

1.6 Cell-by-Bin Count Matrix Generation

Using snap file, we next created cell-by-bin count matrices of different resolutions. The
genome was segmented into uniform-sized bins and single cell ATAC-seq profiles were
represented as cell-by-bin matrix with each element indicating number of open
chromatin fragments overlapping with a given bin in a certain cell. A snap file allows for
storing multiple cell-by-bin count matrices with different resolutions. For MOs snATAC-
seq, we created snap file with 1kb, 5kb and 10kb resolution.

1.7 Barcode Selection

We next identified the high-quality barcodes based on the following criteria. 1) Total
Sequencing Fragments (>1,000); 2) Mapping Ratio (>0.8); 3) Properly Paired Ratio
(>0.9); 4) Duplicate Ratio (<0.5); 5) Mitochondrial Ratio (<0.1). We abandoned the use
of reads in peak ratio as a metric for cell selection for two reasons. First, we found the
reads-in-peak ratio is highly cell type specific. For instance, according to published single
cell ATAC-seq, human fibroblast (BJ) cells have significantly higher reads in peak ratio
(40-60%) versus 20-40% for GM12878 cells. Similarly, we found Glia cells overall have
very different reads in peak ratio distribution compared to neuronal cells. We suspect this
may reflect the nucleus size or global chromatin accessibility. Second, population-defined
set of accessibility peaks are incomplete and are biased to the dominant populations. As
shown in this study, for a complex tissue such as mammalian brain, we found over 50%
of the peaks present in the rare populations are not identified from the aggregate signal
of snATAC-seq. Therefore, we abandoned the use of reads in peak ratio for cell selection.

1.8 Bin Size Selection

Using the remaining cells, we sought to determine the optimal bin size based on the
correlation between replicates. We recommend choosing the smallest bin size (or highest
resolution) whose Pearson correlation between replicates is greater than 0.95. If there are
no biological replicates available, we recommend splitting the cells into pseudo-replicates.
In this study, we use 5kb unless noted.

1.9 Matrix Binarization

After choosing the optimal bin size, we found the vast majority of the items in the cell-by-bin count matrix is "0", indicating either inaccessible (closed chromatin) or missing data. Among the non-zero elements, some items have abnormally high coverage (often > 200) perhaps due to alignment error. Therefore, we first removed the top 0.1% items of the highest coverage in the matrix before converting it into a binary matrix.

1.10 Feature Selection

We next filtered any bins overlapping with the ENCODE blacklist (http://mitra.stanford.edu/kundaje/akundaje/release/blacklists/) to prevent from any potential artifacts. Bins of exceedingly high coverage which likely represent the genomic regions that are invariable between cells such as housekeeping gene promoters were removed. We noticed that filtering bins of extremely low coverage perhaps due to random noise can also improve the robustness of the downstream clustering analysis. In detail, we calculated the coverage of each bin using the binary matrix and normalized the coverage by $\log 10(count + 1)$. We found the log-scaled coverage obey approximately a gaussian distribution (**Supplementary Fig. 25**) which is then converted into zscore. Bins with zscore beyond ± 2 were filtered before further analysis.

1.11 Jaccard Index Matrix

Next, we converted the genome-wide cell-by-bin matrix into a cell-by-cell similarity matrix by calculating the Jaccard index between every two cells in the basis of genome-wide profile overlaps. Usually, the number of cells is far smaller than number of bins, therefore, it immediately reduces the dimensionality and increase the scalability of the pipeline. However, the time for computing Jaccard matrix increases exponentially with cell number growth. To solve the problem of big data, 1) we first divided the cells into groups and calculated a sub Jaccard index matrix separately in parallel. For instance, given that there are 50,000 cells in total, we first split the cells into 10 chunks with each chunk containing 5,000 cells. Then we calculated the pairwise sub jaccard index matrix between every two chunks. Finally, we created the entire Jaccard index matrix by

combining all sub Jaccard matrices. This allows for in-parallel computing. 2) To further

speed up this process, instead of calculating a full Jaccard matrix by comparing every two

cells, we calculated a partial Jaccard matrix by estimating the similarity between N cells

with a subset of randomly chosen K cells (K << N) (k=2000 used in this study unless

noted). We found that, without sacrificing the performance (**supplementary Fig. 26**),

this can substantially improve the scalability of the pipeline, making it possible for

processing millions of cells in the future.

6.12 Normalization

Theoretically, the entries of the Jaccard matrix M_{ij}, would reflect the true similarity

between cell i and j. However, due to the differing coverage between cells, this becomes

not the case. If there is a high sequencing depth of cell i, then M_{ij} will tend to have higher

Jaccard index, regardless whether i and j is actually similar or not (**Supplementary Fig.**

1-2).

This can also be proved as below. Given 2 cells i and j and let X_i and X_j be the binary vector.

The coverage of i and j is $C_i = sum(X_i)$ and $C_j = sum(X_j)$ (C_i >0, C_j >0), then let $P_i =$

$C_i/|X_i|$ and $P_j = C_j/|X_j|$ where $|X_i|$ and $|X_j|$ is the number of bins. Then the expected

Jaccard index between cell i and j is:

$$E_{ij} = (P_i * P_j)/(P_i + P_j - P_iP_j)$$

Because $P_i * P_j > 0$, then

$$E_{ij} = 1/(1/P_i + 1/P_j - 1).$$

Now it is obvious to see that the increase of either P_i or P_j will result in an increase of E_{ij}.

Here, we propose three different approaches to normalize Jaccard matrix, namely

observed over expected (OVE), observed over neighbor (OVN) and iterative matrix

balancing (ICE).

1.12.1 OVE: we first estimated the expected Jaccard index E_{ij} as described above, assuming

cells have random profiles. We noticed that E_{ij} usually underestimates similarity for high-

coverage cells, to adjust for this, we performed linear regression between expected E and

observed M and used residuals as normalized matrix N. Residuals matrix N was then

standardized for each cell.

1.12.2 OVN: the second approach estimated the expected cell-by-cell similarity using

neighboring cells. In detail, for every pair of cells i and j, according to the coverage, we

selected two groups of cells G_i^k and G_j^k representing the k nearest neighboring cells for i

and j with closest coverage. After removing common cells shared by G_i^k and G_j^k, we next

calculated the Jaccard matrix $\text{Jaccad}(G_i^k, G_j^k)$ between these two groups of cells, the

average value of which was used as expected value to correct the bias in M_{ij}.

1.12.3 ICE: we also borrowed the idea of matrix balancing which is a technique commonly

used in Hi-C matrix normalization. We adapted "normICE" function in HiTC R package

which normalizes Hi-C matrix using matrix balancing algorithm that consists of

iteratively estimating the matrix bias using the l1 norm.

To compare the performance of different normalization methods, we performed principle

component analysis (PCA) against the normalized matrix and examined the degree of

association between the first principle component and sequencing depth. Overall, a

higher correlation indicates the dominate variance between cells is the read depth rather

than the meaningful biological variance. For all the data sets we have tested, OVN and

OVE overall shows a comparable performance (**Supplementary Fig. 2**), however, as

OVE is substantially faster at least according to our implementation, therefore, we choose

it as our final normalization method as used in this study. All the analysis is using OVE

unless noted. But all three methods are implemented in SnapATAC package.

To further demonstrate the performance of the normalization, we applied it to previously

published human scATAC-seq data from 10 cell lines[13]. The effect of normalization is

clearly evident from inspecting the heatmap. Cell types that are difficult to distinguished
in the original matrix become visibly distinct in the normalized matrix (**Supplementary**
Fig. 2a-b). Further applying linear dimensionality reduction against both matrices, we
found the first principal component of the raw matrix is strongly correlated with the
coverage (rho=-0.90, *P* < 1e-10; **Supplementary Fig. 2c**), whereas the first dimension
of the normalized matrix successfully distinguished BJ, TF from other cell types (rho=-
0.04; **Supplementary Fig. 2d**).

We next tested it against other published datasets. When applied to human Occipital Lobe
scTHS-seq[9], the first principal component of normalized matrix separates neuronal from
non-neuronal cells (**Supplementary Fig. 2e**). Similarly, when applied to the drosophila
embryo sci-ATAC-seq data[6], the first dimension now distinguished 4 major cell clades
(**Supplementary Fig. 2f**). Together, all suggest that SnapATAC is able to adjust for the
coverage bias.

6.13 Dimensionality Reduction
Like any other type of single-cell analysis, scATAC-seq contains extensive technical noise.
To overcome this challenge, we performed Principle Component Analysis (PCA) to
combine information across a correlated feature set hereby creating a mega-feature and
exclude the variance potential resulting from technical noise.

1.14 Determining Significant Principle Components
It is both critical and challenging to decide how many principle components (PCs) to
include for the downstream analysis. A variety of methods have been developed to identify
optimal number of PCs. For instance, JackStraw[38] can specify significant components for
PCA through permutation-based statistical test, however, this gets extensively time-
consuming when cell number is large. Instead, we recommend using an *ad hoc* approach
for choosing the optimal number of components. One approach as proposed by Sauret[39]
to simplify look at the variance plot and find the "elbow" point. The other heuristic
approach, we found also useful, is to plot every two pairs of PCs and simply look at the
plot and choose number of PCs that stop separating cells.

1.15 Clustering.

Using the selected significant PCs, we next calculated pairwise Euclidean distance

between every two cells, using this distance, we created a k-nearest neighbor graph in

which every cell is represented as a node and edges are drawn between cells within k

nearest neighbors. Edge weight between any two cells are refined by shared overlap in

their local neighborhoods using Jaccard similarity. Finally, we applied community finding

algorithm Louvain to identify the 'communities' in the resulting graph which represents

groups of cells sharing similar profiles, potentially originating from the same cell type.

This method is also known as 'Louvain-Jaccard'[40].

1.16 Visualization.

We next project the high-dimension data into a 2D space using BH t-SNE[41] implemented

by Rtnse package or FI-tsne[42] or UMAP[43] to visualize and explore the data. All three

methods are integrated into SnapATAC package.

1.17 Cluster Annotation.

To annotate the identified clusters, we next calculated the gene-body accessibility level

for every cell and annotated the cluster based on the marker genes identified from

previous single cell RNA sequencing. Note that clustering is unsupervised while

annotation is a supervised procedure that requires expert knowledge. Recently, a method

called Garnett[44] is developed to automatically annotate ATAC-seq clusters using single

cell RNA-seq. To further enhance the structure of data and remove the noise, we adopted

MAGIC[45] to smooth the gene accessibility signal.

1.18 Identification of Cis-Elements.

Cells belonging to the same cluster are pooled to create ensemble signal for each of the

cell type. This allows for identifying *Cis*-elements *de novo* from each of the clusters.

MACS2[46] (version 2.1.2) was used for generating signal tracks and peak calling with the

following parameters: --nomodel --qval 1e-2 -B --SPMR --call-summits.

1.19 Cell-by-Peak Accessible Matrix.

Merging peaks identified from each cluster, we create a reference list of regulatory
elements. Using this reference map, we next create a cell-by-peak count matrix.
709

710 *1.20 Motif Analysis*.
711 We performed motif discovery using homer to infer the potential master regulator that
712 control for gene expression in each of the cell types.
713

714 *1.21 GREAT Analysis*.
715 We next performed Genomic Region Enrichment Analysis (GREAT) to predict the
716 function of each cluster.
717

2. Analysis of simulated single cell ATAC-seq
First, we downloaded the alignment files (bam files) for ten bulk ATAC-seq experiment
from ENCODE (**Supplementary Table 1**). From each bam file, we simulated 200 single
cell ATAC-seq datasets by randomly down sampling to a variety of coverages ranging from
1,000 to 10,000 reads per cells. Using simulated single cell ATAC-seq datasets, we created
a cell-by-bin matrix with 5kb bin size for SnapATAC clustering. Merging peaks
downloaded from ENCODE for each experiment, we created a cell-by-peak matrix for LSA,
Cis-Topic, Cicero and chromVAR clustering. Code used in this study can be found in
Supplementary Note 2.
727

728 **3. Analysis of published single cell ATAC-seq datasets**
729 *3.1 Analysis of scATAC-seq datasets from human cell lines*.
730 We obtained scATAC-seq count matrix from GEO (GSE99172). Analysis code used in this
731 study is available in **Supplementary Note 3**.
732

733 *3.2 Analysis of scTHS-seq datasets from human Occipital Lobe*.
734 The cell-by-peak matrix was generated and shared by Aerts Lab
735 (http://scenic.aertslab.org/cisTopic/counts_Lake.Rds). Analysis code used in this study
736 is available in **Supplementary Note 4**.
737

738 *3.3 Analysis of sci-ATAC-seq datasets from mouse atlas*.

739 We downloaded processed data for each tissue from GEO (GSE111586) and generated the
740 snap file with cell-by-bin matrix at 5kb bin resolution. Analysis code used in this study is
741 available in **Supplementary Note 5**.
742

4. Tissue collection & Nuclei Perspiration

Adult C57BL/6J male mice were purchased from Jackson Laboratories. Brains were
extracted from P56-63 old mice and immediately sectioned into 0.6 mm coronal
sections, starting at the frontal pole, in ice-cold dissection media. The secondary motor
cortex (MOs) region was dissected from the first three slices along the anterior-posterior
axis according to the Allen Brain reference Atlas (http://mouse.brain-map.org/, see
Supplementary S27 for depiction of posterior view of each coronal slice; dashed line
highlights the MOs regions on each slice). Slices were kept in ice-cold dissection media
during dissection and immediately frozen in dry ice for posterior pooling and nuclei
production. For nuclei isolation, the MOs dissected regions from 15-23 animals were
pooled, and two biological replicas were processed for each slice. Nuclei were isolated as
described in previous studies[27,47], except no sucrose gradient purification was
performed. Flow cytometry analysis of brain nuclei was performed as described in Luo
et al[27].
757

5. Tn5 transposase purification & loading

Tn5 transposase was expressed as an intein chitin-binding domain fusion and purified
using an improved version of the method first described by Picelli et al[48]. T7 Express
lysY/I (C3013I, NEB) cells were transformed with the plasmid pTXB1-ecTn5 E54K L372P
(#60240, Addgene)[48]. An LB Ampicillin culture was inoculated with three colonies and
grown overnight at 37°C. The starter culture was diluted to an OD of 0.02 with fresh
media and shaken at 37°C until it reached an OD of 0.9. The culture was then immediately
chilled on ice to 10°C and expression was induced by adding 250 μM IPTG (Dioxane Free,
CI8280-13, Denville Scientific). The culture was shaken for 4 hours at 23°C after which
cells were harvested in 2 L batches by centrifugation, flash frozen in liquid nitrogen and
stored at -80°C. Cell pellets were resuspended in 20 ml of ice cold lysis buffer (20 mM
HEPES 7.2-KOH, 0.8 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10% Glycerol, 0.2% Triton X-100) with
protease inhibitors (cOmplete, EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail Tablets,

11873580001, Roche Diagnostics) and passed three times through a Microfluidizer (lining

covered with ice water, Model 110L, Microfluidics) with a 5 minute cool down interval in

between each pass. Any remaining sample was purged from the Microfluidizer with an

additional 25 ml of ice-cold lysis buffer with protease inhibitors (total lysate volume

~50ml). Samples were spun down for 20 min in an ultracentrifuge at 40K rpm (L-80XP,

45 Ti Rotor, Beckman Coulter) at 4°C. ~45 ml of supernatant was combined with 115 ml

ice cold lysis buffer with protease inhibitors in a cold beaker (total volume = 160 ml) and

stirred at 4°C. 4.2ml of 10% neutralized polyethyleneimine-HCl (pH 7.0) was then added

dropwise. Samples were spun down again for 20 min in an ultracentrifuge at 40K rpm (L-

80XP, 45 Ti Rotor, Beckman Coulter) at 4°C. The pooled supernatant was loaded onto

~10ml of fresh Chitin resin (S6651L, NEB) in a chromatography column (Econo-Column

(1.5 × 15 cm), Flow Adapter: 7380015, Bio-Rad). The column was then washed with 50-

100 ml lysis buffer. Cleavage of the fusion protein was initiated by flowing ~20ml of

freshly made elution buffer (20 mM HEPES 7.2-KOH, 0.5 M NaCl, 1 mM EDTA, 10%

glycerol, 0.02% Triton X-100, 100mM DTT) onto the column at a speed of 0.8ml/min for

25 min. After the column was incubated for 63 hrs at 4°C, the protein was recovered from

the initial elution volume and a subsequent 30 ml wash with elution buffer. Protein-

containing fractions were pooled and diluted 1:1 with buffer [20 mM HEPES 7.2-KOH,1

mM EDTA, 10% glycerol, 0.5mM TCEP) to reduce the NaCl concentration to 250mM. For

cation exchange, the sample was loaded onto a 1ml column HiTrap S HP (17115101, GE),

washed with Buffer A (10mM Tris 7.5, 280 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, 0.5mM TCEP) and

then eluted using a gradient formed using Buffer A and Buffer B (10mM Tris 7.5, 1M NaCl,

10% glycerol, 0.5mM TCEP) (0% Buffer B over 5 column volumes, 0-100% Buffer B over

50 column volumes, 100% Buffer B over 10 column volumes). Next, the protein-

containing fractions were combined, concentrated via ultrafiltration to ~1.5 mg/mL and

further purified via gel filtration (HiLoad 16/600 Superdex 75 pg column (28989333,

GE)) in Buffer GF (100mM HEPES-KOH at pH 7.2, 0.5 M NaCl, 0.2 mM EDTA, 2mM

DTT, 20% glycerol). The purest Tn5 transposase-containing fractions were pooled and 1

volume 100% glycerol was added to the preparation. Tn5 transposase was stored at -20°C.

To generate Tn5 transposomes for combinatorial barcoding assisted single nuclei

ATAC-seq, barcoded oligos were first annealed to pMENTs oligos (95 °C for 5 min,

cooled to 14 °C at a cooling rate of 0.1 °C/s) separately. Next, 1 µl barcoded transposon

(50 µM) was mixed with 7 ul Tn5 (~7 µM). The mixture was incubated on the lab bench

at room temperature for 30 min. Finally, T5 and T7 transposomes were mixed in a 1:1

ratio and diluted 1:10 with dilution buffer (50 % Glycerol, 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH=7.5),

100 mM NaCl, 0.1 mM EDTA, 0.1 % Triton X-100, 1 mM DTT). For combinatorial

barcoding, we used eight different T5 transposomes and 12 distinct T7 transposomes,

which eventually resulted in 96 Tn5 barcode combinations per sample[7]

(**Supplementary Table 9**).

6. Single-nucleus ATAC-seq data generation

Combinatorial ATAC-seq was performed as described previously with modifications[5,7].

For each sample two biological replicates were processed. Nuclei were pelleted with a

swinging bucket centrifuge (500 x g, 5 min, 4°C; 5920R, Eppendorf). Nuclei pellets were

resuspended in 1 ml nuclei permeabilization buffer (5 % BSA, 0.2 % IGEPAL-CA630, 1mM

DTT and cOmpleteTM, EDTA-free protease inhibitor cocktail (Roche) in PBS) and

pelleted again (500 x g, 5 min, 4°C; 5920R, Eppendorf). Nuclei were resuspended in

500 µL high salt tagmentation buffer (36.3 mM Tris-acetate (pH = 7.8), 72.6 mM

potassium-acetate, 11 mM Mg-acetate, 17.6% DMF) and counted using a hemocytometer.

Concentration was adjusted to 4500 nuclei/9 µl, and 4,500 nuclei were dispensed into

each well of a 96-well plate. Glycerol was added to the leftover nuclei suspension for a

final concentration of 25 % and nuclei were stored at -80°C. For tagmentation, 1 µL

barcoded Tn5 transposomes[7,48] (**Supplementary Table 9**) were added using a

BenchSmart™ 96 (Mettler Toledo), mixed five times and incubated for 60 min at 37 °C

with shaking (500 rpm). To inhibit the Tn5 reaction, 10 µL of 40 mM EDTA were added

to each well with a BenchSmart™ 96 (Mettler Toledo) and the plate was incubated at 37

°C for 15 min with shaking (500 rpm). Next, 20 µL 2 x sort buffer (2 % BSA, 2 mM EDTA

in PBS) were added using a BenchSmart™ 96 (Mettler Toledo). All wells were combined

into a FACS tube and stained with 3 µM Draq7 (Cell Signaling). Using a SH800 (Sony),

20 nuclei were sorted per well into eight 96-well plates (total of 768 wells) containing

10.5 µL EB (25 pmol primer i7, 25 pmol primer i5, 200 ng BSA (Sigma)[7]. Preparation of

sort plates and all downstream pipetting steps were performed on a Biomek i7 Automated

Workstation (Beckman Coulter). After addition of 1 µL 0.2% SDS, samples were

incubated at 55 °C for 7 min with shaking (500 rpm). We added 1 µL 12.5% Triton-X to
each well to quench the SDS and 12.5 µL NEBNext High-Fidelity 2× PCR Master Mix
(NEB). Samples were PCR-amplified (72 °C 5 min, 98 °C 30 s, (98 °C 10 s, 63 °C 30 s, 72
°C 60 s) × 12 cycles, held at 12 °C). After PCR, all wells were combined. Libraries were
purified according to the MinElute PCR Purification Kit manual (Qiagen) using a vacuum
manifold (QIAvac 24 plus, Qiagen) and size selection was performed with SPRI Beads
(Beckmann Coulter, 0.55x and 1.5x). Libraries were purified one more time with SPRI
Beads (Beckmann Coulter, 1.5x). Libraries were quantified using a Qubit fluorimeter (Life
technologies) and the nucleosomal pattern was verified using a Tapestation (High
Sensitivity D1000, Agilent). The library was sequenced on a HiSeq2500 sequencer
(Illumina) using custom sequencing primers, 25% spike-in library and following read
lengths: 50 + 43 + 40 + 50 (Read1 + Index1 + Index2 + Read2)[7].

7. Bulk ATAC-seq data generation

ATAC-seq was performed on 30,000-50,000 nuclei as described previously with
modifications[3]. Nuclei were thawed on ice and pelleted for 5 min at 500 x g at 4 °C. Nuclei
pellets were resuspended in 30 µl tagmentation buffer (36.3 mM Tris-acetate (pH = 7.8),
72.6 mM K-acetate, 11 mM Mg-acetate, 17.6 % DMF) and counted on a hemocytometer.
30,000-50,000 nuclei were used for tagmentation and the reaction volume was adjusted
to 19 µl using tagmentation buffer. After addition of 1 µl TDE1 (Illumina FC-121-1030),
tagmentation was performed at 37°C for 60 min with shaking (500 rpm). Tagmented
DNA was purified using MinElute columns (Qiagen), PCR-amplified for 8 cycles with
NEBNext® High-Fidelity 2X PCR Master Mix (NEB, 72°C 5 min, 98°C 30 s, [98°C 10 s,
63°C 30 s, 72°C 60 s] x 8 cycles, 12°C held). Amplified libraries were purified using
MinElute columns (Qiagen) and SPRI Beads (Beckmann Coulter). Sequencing was
carried out on a NextSeq500 using a 150-cycle kit (75 bp PE, Illumina).

8. Bulk ATAC-seq data analysis

ATAC-seq reads were mapped to reference genome mm10 using bowtie version 2.2.6 and
samtools version 1.2 to eliminate PCR duplicates and mitochondrial reads. The paired-
end read ends were converted to fragments. Using fragments, MACS2[46] version 2.1.2was
used for generating signal tracks and peak calling with the following parameters: -q 0.01

--nomodel -B --SPMR --keep-dup all. Library quality control for bulk ATAC-seq can be

found in Supplementary Table 10.

9. Analysis of other single cell datasets

9.1 Analysis of single nucleus RNA-seq.

We downloaded gene table from dbGaP under accession code phs000424.v8.p1.

Analysis code can be found in **Supplementary Note 6**.

9.2 Analysis of multiplexing single cell Hi-C.

The processed data is obtained from GEO with accession code GSE84920. Analysis code

used in this study can be found in **Supplementary Note 7**.

9.3 Analysis of single cell ChIP-seq.

We downloaded single cell matrix from https://pubs.broadinstitute.org/drop-chip/.

Analysis code used in this study can be found in **Supplementary Note 8**.

9.4 Analysis of single nucleus methylome-seq.

100kb-bin single nucleus methylome datasets were shared by Mukamel lab. We binarized

the data by converting the methylation level into z-score and then set the bins with z-score

less than -1.5 to 1.

REFERENCE

1. The ENCODE Project Consortium. An integrated encyclopedia of DNA elements in
the human genome. *Nature* **489**, 57–74 (2012).
2. Shen, Y. *et al.* A map of the *cis*-regulatory sequences in the mouse genome. *Nature*
488, 116–120 (2012).
3. Buenrostro, J. D., Giresi, P. G., Zaba, L. C., Chang, H. Y. & Greenleaf, W. J.
Transposition of native chromatin for fast and sensitive epigenomic profiling of open
chromatin, DNA-binding proteins and nucleosome position. *Nat. Methods* **10**, 1213–
1218 (2013).
4. Boyle, A. P. *et al.* High-Resolution Mapping and Characterization of Open
Chromatin across the Genome. *Cell* **132**, 311–322 (2008).
5. Cusanovich, D. A. *et al.* Multiplex single-cell profiling of chromatin accessibility by
combinatorial cellular indexing. *Science* **348**, 910–914 (2015).
6. Cusanovich, D. A. *et al.* The *cis*-regulatory dynamics of embryonic development at
single-cell resolution. *Nature* **555**, 538–542 (2018).
7. Preissl, S. *et al.* Single-nucleus analysis of accessible chromatin in developing mouse
forebrain reveals cell-type-specific transcriptional regulation. *Nat. Neurosci.* **21**, 432
(2018).
8. Cusanovich, D. A. *et al.* A Single-Cell Atlas of In Vivo Mammalian Chromatin
Accessibility. *Cell* **174**, 1309-1324.e18 (2018).
9. Lake, B. B. *et al.* Integrative single-cell analysis of transcriptional and epigenetic
states in the human adult brain. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **36**, 70–80 (2018).
10. Buenrostro, J. D. *et al.* Single-cell chromatin accessibility reveals principles of
regulatory variation. *Nature* **523**, 486–490 (2015).
11. Mezger, A. *et al.* High-throughput chromatin accessibility profiling at single-cell
resolution. *Nat. Commun.* **9**, 3647 (2018).
12. Klemm, S. L., Shipony, Z. & Greenleaf, W. J. Chromatin accessibility and the
regulatory epigenome. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* 1 (2019). doi:10.1038/s41576-018-0089-8
13. Schep, A. N., Wu, B., Buenrostro, J. D. & Greenleaf, W. J. chromVAR: inferring
transcription-factor-associated accessibility from single-cell epigenomic data. *Nat.*
Methods **14**, 975–978 (2017).
14. González-Blas, C. B. *et al.* Cis-topic modelling of single cell epigenomes. *bioRxiv*
370346 (2018). doi:10.1101/370346
15. Pliner, H. A. *et al.* Cicero Predicts cis-Regulatory DNA Interactions from Single-Cell
Chromatin Accessibility Data. *Mol. Cell* **71**, 858-871.e8 (2018).
16. Stuart, T. *et al.* Comprehensive integration of single cell data. *bioRxiv* 460147
(2018). doi:10.1101/460147
17. Tasic, B. *et al.* Adult mouse cortical cell taxonomy revealed by single cell
transcriptomics. *Nat. Neurosci.* **19**, 335–346 (2016).
18. Blondel, V. D., Guillaume, J.-L., Lambiotte, R. & Lefebvre, E. Fast unfolding of
communities in large networks. *J. Stat. Mech. Theory Exp.* **2008**, P10008 (2008).

19. Heinz, S. *et al.* Simple Combinations of Lineage-Determining Transcription Factors
Prime cis-Regulatory Elements Required for Macrophage and B Cell Identities. *Mol.*
Cell **38**, 576–589 (2010).
20. McLean, C. Y. *et al.* GREAT improves functional interpretation of *cis*-regulatory
regions. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **28**, 495–501 (2010).
21. Davis, C. A. *et al.* The Encyclopedia of DNA elements (ENCODE): data portal
update. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **46**, D794–D801 (2018).
22. Lieberman-Aiden, E. *et al.* Comprehensive Mapping of Long-Range Interactions
Reveals Folding Principles of the Human Genome. *Science* **326**, 289–293 (2009).
23. Dixon, J. R. *et al.* Chromatin architecture reorganization during stem cell
differentiation. *Nature* **518**, 331–336 (2015).
24. Zeisel, A. *et al.* Molecular Architecture of the Mouse Nervous System. *Cell* **174**, 999-
1014.e22 (2018).
25. Saunders, A. *et al.* Molecular Diversity and Specializations among the Cells of the
Adult Mouse Brain. *Cell* **174**, 1015-1030.e16 (2018).
26. Tasic, B. *et al.* Shared and distinct transcriptomic cell types across neocortical areas.
Nature **563**, 72 (2018).
27. Luo, C. *et al.* Single-cell methylomes identify neuronal subtypes and regulatory
elements in mammalian cortex. *Science* **357**, 600–604 (2017).
28. Ecker, J. R. *et al.* The BRAIN Initiative Cell Census Consortium: Lessons Learned
toward Generating a Comprehensive Brain Cell Atlas. *Neuron* **96**, 542–557 (2017).
29. Mayer, C. *et al.* Developmental diversification of cortical inhibitory interneurons.
Nature **555**, 457–462 (2018).
30. Gallant, S. & Gilkeson, G. ETS transcription factors and regulation of immunity.
Arch. Immunol. Ther. Exp. (Warsz.) **54**, 149–163 (2006).
31. Visel, A., Minovitsky, S., Dubchak, I. & Pennacchio, L. A. VISTA Enhancer Browser—
a database of tissue-specific human enhancers. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **35**, D88–D92
(2007).
32. Gorkin, D. *et al.* Systematic mapping of chromatin state landscapes during mouse
development. *bioRxiv* 166652 (2017). doi:10.1101/166652
33. Habib, N. *et al.* Massively parallel single-nucleus RNA-seq with DroNc-seq. *Nat.*
Methods **14**, 955–958 (2017).
34. Rotem, A. *et al.* Single-cell ChIP-seq reveals cell subpopulations defined by
chromatin state. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **33**, 1165–1172 (2015).
35. Ramani, V. *et al.* Massively multiplex single-cell Hi-C. *Nat. Methods* **14**, 263–266
(2017).
36. Li, H. & Durbin, R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows–Wheeler
transform. *Bioinformatics* **25**, 1754–1760 (2009).
37. Li, H. *et al.* The Sequence Alignment/Map format and SAMtools. *Bioinformatics* **25**,
2078–2079 (2009).

38. Chung, N. C. & Storey, J. D. Statistical significance of variables driving systematic
variation in high-dimensional data. *Bioinformatics* **31**, 545–554 (2015).
39. Satija, R., Farrell, J. A., Gennert, D., Schier, A. F. & Regev, A. Spatial reconstruction
of single-cell gene expression data. *Nat. Biotechnol.* **33**, 495–502 (2015).
40. Shekhar, K. *et al.* Comprehensive Classification of Retinal Bipolar Neurons by
Single-Cell Transcriptomics. *Cell* **166**, 1308-1323.e30 (2016).
41. Maaten, L. van der. Accelerating t-SNE using Tree-Based Algorithms. *J. Mach.*
Learn. Res. **15**, 3221–3245 (2014).
42. Linderman, G. C., Rachh, M., Hoskins, J. G., Steinerberger, S. & Kluger, Y. Efficient
Algorithms for t-distributed Stochastic Neighborhood Embedding. *ArXiv171209005*
Cs Stat (2017).
43. McInnes, L., Healy, J. & Melville, J. UMAP: Uniform Manifold Approximation and
Projection for Dimension Reduction. *ArXiv180203426 Cs Stat* (2018).
44. Pliner, H. A., Shendure, J. & Trapnell, C. Supervised classification enables rapid
annotation of cell atlases. *bioRxiv* 538652 (2019). doi:10.1101/538652
45. Dijk, D. van *et al.* Recovering Gene Interactions from Single-Cell Data Using Data
Diffusion. *Cell* **174**, 716-729.e27 (2018).
46. Zhang, Y. *et al.* Model-based Analysis of ChIP-Seq (MACS). *Genome Biol.* **9**, R137
(2008).
47. Lister, R. *et al.* Global Epigenomic Reconfiguration During Mammalian Brain
Development. *Science* **341**, 1237905 (2013).
48. Picelli, S. *et al.* Tn5 transposase and tagmentation procedures for massively scaled
sequencing projects. *Genome Res.* **24**, 2033–2040 (2014).
991
992

Supplementary Figures

Figure S1. Comparison of normalization methods.

Figure S2. SnapATAC adjusts for coverage bias.

Figure S3. Validation of SnapATAC performance relative to alternative methods on
simulated datasets.

Figure S4. SnapATAC identifies cell types using off-peak reads.

Figure S5. Off-peaks in single cell ATAC-seq library are enriched for euchromatin
regions.

Figure S6. SnapATAC identifies potential batch effects and GM subtypes.

Figure S7. Gene accessibility level for selected markers of cell types expected in the
pre-frontal cortex.

Figure S8. Sub-clustering identifies inhibitory neuronal subtypes in pre-frontal cortex
sciATAC-seq data.

Figure S9. SnapATAC identifies additional cell types from published mouse cerebellum
and kidney sci-ATAC-seq.

Figure S10. SnapATAC identifies additional cell types from LSA-defined major
clusters.

Figure S11. SnapATAC outperforms existing methods in scalability.

Figure S12. Reproducibility between two biological replicates for mouse cortex at the
level of aggregate signal.

Figure S13. Distribution of single cell quality control metrics for replicate 1.

Figure S14. Distribution of single cell quality control metrics for replicate 2.

Figure S15. Reproducibility of clustering result between two biological replicates.

Figure S16. Gene accessibility level for selected markers of major cell types expected in
the mouse motor cortex.

Figure S17. Gene accessibility level for selected markers of inhibitory neuronal
subtypes expected in the mouse motor cortex.

Figure S18. Comparison with scRNA-seq

Figure S19. Subdivision reveals rare Sst subtypes.

Figure S20. Subdivision reveals 37 neuronal subtypes.

Figure S21. Application of SnapATAC to single-nucleus RNA-seq.