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Large-scale genetic association and single cell accessible chromatin mapping defines cell type-specific mechanisms of type 1 diabetes risk — Source link \square

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1 Large-scale genetic association and single cell accessible chromatin

2 mapping defines cell type-specific mechanisms of type 1 diabetes risk

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32 ABSTRACT

33 Translating genome-wide association studies (GWAS) of complex disease into mechanistic 34 insight requires a comprehensive understanding of risk variant effects on disease-relevant cell 35 types. To uncover cell type-specific mechanisms of type 1 diabetes (T1D) risk, we combined 36 genetic association mapping and single cell epigenomics. We performed the largest to-date 37 GWAS of T1D in 489,679 samples imputed into 59.2M variants, which identified 74 novel 38 association signals including several large-effect rare variants. Fine-mapping of 141 total signals 39 substantially improved resolution of causal variant credible sets, which primarily mapped to non-40 coding sequence. To annotate cell type-specific regulatory mechanisms of T1D risk variants, we 41 mapped 448,142 candidate cis-regulatory elements (cCREs) in pancreas and peripheral blood 42 mononuclear cell types using snATAC-seq of 131,554 nuclei. T1D risk variants were enriched in 43 cCREs active in CD4+ T cells as well as several additional cell types including pancreatic exocrine 44 acinar and ductal cells. High-probability T1D risk variants at multiple signals mapped to exocrine-45 specific cCREs including novel loci near CEL, GP2 and CFTR. At the CFTR locus, the likely 46 causal variant rs7795896 mapped in a ductal-specific distal cCRE which regulated CFTR and the risk allele reduced transcription factor binding, enhancer activity and CFTR expression in ductal 47 cells. These findings support a role for the exocrine pancreas in T1D pathogenesis and highlight 48 49 the power of combining large-scale GWAS and single cell epigenomics to provide insight into the cellular origins of complex disease. 50

51 **INTRODUCTION**

52 Type 1 diabetes (T1D) is a complex autoimmune disease characterized by the loss of insulin-53 producing pancreatic beta cells and subsequent hyperglycemia¹, where the triggers of 54 autoimmunity and disease onset remain poorly understood. T1D has a strong genetic component, 55 most prominently at the major histocompatibility complex (MHC) locus but including 60 additional risk loci identified in genome-wide and targeted array association studies²⁻⁶. T1D associated 56 variants at risk loci are largely non-coding, and intersection of T1D associated variants with 57 58 epigenomic data has identified an enrichment of risk variants within lymphoid enhancers². However, due to limited sample sizes, incomplete variant coverage, and the limited cell type 59 60 resolution of existing epigenomic maps, the causal variants and cellular mechanisms of action of 61 T1D risk loci are largely unresolved.

62

63 RESULTS

64 Comprehensive discovery and fine mapping of T1D risk signals

65 To discover novel risk loci and improve fine mapping of causal variants for T1D, we performed a 66 genome-wide association study (GWAS) of 18,803 T1D cases and 470,876 controls of European 67 ancestry from 9 country-of-origin and array-matched cohorts (Supplemental Table 1). After applying uniform quality-control measures (Supplemental Figure 1), where we removed low-68 69 guality genotypes, individuals of non-European ancestry, or controls with other autoimmune 70 diseases, we imputed genotypes into the TOPMed r2 panel and tested for T1D association⁷. 71 Through meta-analysis, we combined association results for 59,244,856 variants across cohorts and observed 80 loci reaching genome-wide significance (P<5×10⁻⁸), including 30 loci previously 72 73 unreported in T1D risk (Figure 1a, Supplemental Figure 2, Supplemental Table 2). Previous studies have identified independent association signals at multiple T1D loci², and we reasoned 74 75 that our increased sample size would uncover additional independent signals. Through iterative 76 conditional analyses, we discovered 52 secondary signals at locus-wide significance (P<1×10⁻⁵), 77 of which 44 were previously unknown (Supplemental Figure 3, Supplemental Table 2). Over 78 40% (36/89) of loci contained more than one independent signal; for example, the known BACH2 79 locus and novel BCL11A locus each had three signals (Figure 1b), and at the IL2RA locus we 80 identified six independent signals, three of which were novel (Supplemental Figure 3).

The TOPMed r2 panel enables more accurate imputation of rare variants over previous reference panels, and in our study, we identified five novel T1D-associated variants with minor allele

83 frequency (MAF) less than 0.005 and large effects on disease risk (Supplemental Table 2, 84 Supplemental Figure 4). Among these rare variants, rs541856133 (MAF=.0015, OR=2.97) 85 mapped to a non-coding region directly upstream of CEL, which has been implicated previously 86 as the cause of maturity-onset diabetes of the young with pancreatic exocrine dysfunction 87 (MODY8)⁸. We also identified a novel protein-coding protective variant at *IFIH1* (p.Asn160Asp, rs75671397, MAF=.002, OR=0.32), which was conditionally independent of the known protein-88 89 coding variant signals in this gene. The three additional rare T1D risk variants mapped to noncoding regions at the 16q23 (rs138099003, MAF=.0015, OR=2.29), SH2B3 (rs762349492, 90 91 MAF=.0018, OR=1.99), and TOX (rs192456638, MAF=.0045, OR=1.80) loci (Supplemental 92 Table 2, Supplemental Figure 4).

93 We next sought to fine map causal variants of T1D signals using a Bayesian approach⁹. In total 94 we considered 141 signals including 89 primary and 52 conditional signals at known and novel 95 loci excluding the MHC locus due to complex LD structure (Figure 1c). We defined linkage 96 disequilibrium (LD)-based credible sets for the 141 signals, using new index variants at known 97 loci where applicable. For each signal, we then used approximate Bayes factors⁹ to calculate the 98 posterior probability of association (PPA) for each variant and defined credible sets of variants 99 that summed up to 99% cumulative PPA (Supplemental Table 3). Compared to previous 100 efforts^{2,10}, our fine-mapping resolution was drastically improved based on two complementary 101 measures: 1) fewer number of credible set variants per signal (median 24 variants) and 2) a 102 greater number of variants with high causal probabilities (Figure 1d). At nearly half of all T1D 103 signals (49%; 69/141) the credible set contained 20 or fewer variants, and 25% (35/141) 104 contained a single variant explaining the majority of the posterior probability (>50% PPA). Among 105 credible set variants, 23 variants with PPA>1% were nonsynonymous changes, including several 106 at novel loci p.Arg471Cys in AIRE (PPA=.99), p.Val11lle in BATF3 (PPA=.081), p.Ala91Val in 107 PRF1 (PPA=0.038), and p.Val131Phe in CD3G (PPA=.028) (Supplemental Table 4).

108 Given our comprehensive genome-wide T1D genetic association and fine-mapping data, we used 109 these data to derive insight into disease pathophysiology. We therefore broadly characterized 110 relationships between T1D and other complex traits and diseases by performing genome-wide 111 genetic correlation analyses using LD score regression. As expected, T1D had significant 112 (FDR<.10) positive correlations with autoimmune diseases including rheumatoid arthritis ($r_0=0.43$). FDR=7.34×10⁻⁵), systemic lupus erythematosus (r_{α} =0.36, FDR=2.52×10⁻⁷), celiac disease 113 114 $(r_{a}=0.28, FDR=1.11\times10^{-3})$, and autoimmune vitiligo $(r_{a}=0.30, FDR=2.02\times10^{-5})$, as well as a 115 negative correlation with ulcerative colitis (r_{q} =-0.17, FDR=2.94×10⁻³) (**Supplemental Figure 5**).

Among other traits, we observed significant positive correlations with metabolic traits and diseases such as fasting proinsulin (r_g =0.18, FDR=8.91×10⁻²) and fasting insulin level, (r_g =0.18, FDR=6.85×10⁻³), coronary artery disease (r_g =0.12, FDR=6.85×10⁻³) and type 2 diabetes (r_g =0.10, FDR=4.39×10⁻³), and positive correlations with pancreatic diseases such as pancreatic cancer (r_g =0.25, FDR=7.40×10⁻²) and chronic pancreatitis (r_g =0.13, FDR=3.84×10⁻¹), although the latter estimate was not significant. These results demonstrate relationships between genetic effects on T1D risk and a diversity of traits including autoimmune, pancreatic and metabolic disease.

123 Defining cell type-specific *cis*-regulatory programs in T1D-relevant tissues

124 The large majority of T1D risk signals map to non-coding regions and likely affect gene 125 regulation². In order to annotate gene regulatory programs affected by T1D risk variants, we 126 generated a reference map of cell type-specific accessible chromatin using single nucleus ATAC-127 seq (snATAC-seq) assays of T1D-relevant tissues including peripheral mononuclear blood cells 128 (PBMC), purified pancreatic islets, and whole pancreas tissue from non-diabetic donors 129 (Supplemental Table 5). To cluster cells obtained from these assays, we used a modified version 130 of our previous pipeline¹¹ that included rigorous quality control, removal of potential doublets, and 131 removal of potential confounding effects between different donors, tissues, and technologies to 132 group 131,554 chromatin accessibility profiles into 28 clusters (Figure 2a, Supplemental Figure 133 6). We assigned cell type identity to each cluster using the chromatin accessibility profiles of gene 134 bodies for known marker genes, and identified cells representing lymphoid, myeloid, endocrine, 135 exocrine, endothelial, and stellate cell types (Figure 2a-b). Within lymphoid and myeloid cells, 136 there were clusters representing both peripheral blood cells as well as tissue resident cells in the 137 pancreas based on both marker gene accessibility and tissue-of-origin profiles (Figure 2a-b. 138 **Supplemental Figure 6**). For example, we observed accessibility at C1QB marking pancreatic 139 tissue-resident macrophages, at REG1A marking pancreatic acinar cells, and at CFTR marking 140 pancreatic ductal cells (Figure 2b). We also observed distinct patterns of chromatin accessibility 141 at marker genes between different clusters of the same cell type allowing us to further discriminate 142 specific sub-types such as FOXP3 for regulatory T cells relative to other T cells and TCL1A for 143 naïve B cells relative to memory B cells (Figure 2b).

To characterize the regulatory programs of each cell type and cell state, we aggregated reads from cells within each cluster and called accessible chromatin sites representing candidate *cis*regulatory elements (cCREs). Across all 28 clusters, we identified a total of 448,142 cCREs and an average of 77,812 cCREs per cluster (**Supplementary Data 1**). To further define regulatory programs defining the identity of each cell type, we calculated the relative accessibility of each

149 cCRE across all clusters and identified 25.436 cell type-specific cCREs with accessibility patterns 150 specific to a given cluster (Figure 2c, Supplementary Data 2). To confirm that cell type-specific 151 cCREs regulated key processes involved in cellular identity, we identified gene ontology (GO) 152 terms enriched for each set of cell type-specific cCREs using GREAT¹². GO terms significantly 153 enriched in cell type-specific cCREs represented highly specialized cellular processes, for 154 example inflammatory response for pancreatic tissue-resident macrophages (P=6.09×10⁻¹²), 155 extracellular matrix organization for activated stellate cells ($P=1.47 \times 10^{-41}$), transepithelial water 156 transport for ductal cells (P=1.26×10⁻²¹) and digestion for acinar cells (P=1.18×10⁻¹¹) (Figure 2c, 157 Supplementary Table 6).

158 We next decoded the regulatory logic underlying cCRE activity for each cell type. First, we 159 identified candidate transcription factors (TFs) regulating cCRE activity by identifying sequence motifs enriched in accessible chromatin of each cell type using chromVAR¹³. There were 290 160 161 motifs in JASPAR¹⁴ with evidence for variable enrichment across cell types (**Supplementary** 162 Table 7). Enriched motifs included TF families with lineage-specific enrichment such as SPI in 163 myeloid and B cells, ETS in T cells, and FOXA in pancreatic endocrine and exocrine cells^{15–17} 164 (Figure 2d). We also identified motifs enriched in specific cell types such as NR5A in acinar cells¹⁸, HNF1 in ductal cells¹⁹, and EBF in B cells²⁰ (**Figure 2d**), as well as motifs for TF families 165 166 enriched in specific states within a cell type, such as POU2 in memory B cells²¹, TCF7 in naïve CD4+ T cells²², and RUNX in adaptive NK cells²³ (Figure 2d). Second, we defined cell type-167 168 resolved links between distal cCREs and putative target gene promoters using co-accessibility 169 across single cells with Cicero²⁴. Considering all cell types, we observed a total of 1,028,428 links 170 between distal cCREs and gene promoters (Supplemental Data 3), where 145,138 distinct distal 171 cCREs were linked to at least one promoter. In many cases, co-accessible links were highly cell 172 type-specific; for example, multiple distal cCREs were co-accessible with the AQP1 promoter in 173 ductal cells and the CEL promoter in acinar cells, none of which were identified in other cell types 174 (Figure 2e). Together these results identify candidate transcriptional regulators and target genes 175 of distal cCREs in pancreatic and immune cell types.

176 Annotating fine-mapped T1D risk variants with cell type-specific regulatory programs

We reasoned that our cell type-resolved regulatory maps would enable deeper insight into pancreatic and blood cell types involved in T1D pathogenesis. We therefore determined enrichment of variants associated with T1D as well as other complex diseases^{25–42} and qualitative endophenotypes^{43–52} for cCREs using stratified LD score regression⁵³. For T1D, the most significant enrichment was for variants in CD4+ T cell cCREs (naïve CD4+ T Z=4.54,

FDR=1.26×10⁻³; activated CD4+ T Z=3.83, FDR=5.88×10⁻³; regulatory T Z=3.26, FDR=1.35×10⁻¹ 182 183 ²) (Figure 3a). Notably, we did not observe evidence for enrichment in resident immune cells in 184 the pancreas (pancreatic CD8+ T cell Z=0.46, FDR=0.93; pancreatic tissue-resident macrophage 185 Z=-1.02, FDR=1.0). Outside of immune cell types, pancreatic ductal cell cCREs had the strongest 186 T1D enrichment, although this estimate was not significant (ductal Z=0.46, FDR=0.93). Other 187 immune-related diseases were also enriched within lymphocyte cCREs, although Crohn's 188 disease was also enriched for monocytes and conventional dendritic cell cCREs (Figure 3a). As 189 expected, type 2 diabetes and glycemic traits were strongly enriched in pancreatic endocrine cell 190 cCREs, but interestingly, glycemic traits such as glucose levels at 2 hours post-OGTT were also 191 enriched in pancreatic acinar and ductal cell cCREs (Figure 3a). Together these results 192 demonstrate that T1D associated variants are broadly enriched for CD4+ T cell cCREs, and 193 highlight other complex traits and diseases enriched for pancreatic and immune cell type cCREs.

194 Despite the strong enrichment of T1D-associated variants in CD4+ T cells, less than half of fine-195 mapped T1D signals overlapped a CD4+ T cell cRE, suggesting that additional cell types 196 contribute to T1D risk. In order to identify additional disease-relevant cell types, we used an 197 orthogonal approach to test for enrichment of T1D variants within the subset of cCREs specific to 198 each cell type (from Figure 2c; see Methods). As expected, T1D variants genome-wide were 199 enriched in cCREs specific to CD4+ T cells (activated CD4+ T log enrich=4.14, 95% CI=0.97-200 5.37) as well as pancreatic beta cells (log enrich=3.64, 95% CI=1.23-4.90) (Figure 3b). 201 Interestingly, T1D variants were also enriched in cCREs specific to plasmacytoid dendritic cells 202 (log enrich=4.08, 95% CI=2.09-5.16), classical monocytes (log enrich=4.04, 95% CI=2.74-4.92), 203 and pancreatic acinar and ductal cells (ductal log enrich=3.43, 95% CI=1.07-4.71, acinar log 204 enrich=2.74, 95% CI=0.66-4.02) (Figure 3b). We further enumerated the contribution of these 205 cell types to T1D risk by determining the cumulative posterior probability (cPPA) of fine-mapped 206 variants overlapping cell type-specific cCREs after removing variants overlapping a more 207 probable cell type (see Methods). Among broad annotation categories, distal cCREs harbored 208 the most cumulative risk (cPPA=24.3, N_{vars}=291), followed by coding exons (cPPA=7.98, N=34) 209 and promoters (cPPA=6.63, N=55) (Figure 3c). When breaking down distal cCREs by cell type 210 categories. CD4+ T cells had the most cumulative risk (cPPA=9.7, N=112), followed by exocrine 211 cells (acinar and ductal; cPPA=6.2, N=51), monocytes (cPPA=3.1, N=54), and then endocrine 212 cells (cPPA=2.3, N=33) (Figure 3c).

213 Given insight into cell types contributing to T1D risk, we next annotated individual T1D signals in 214 cCREs for these cell types. Over 75% (109/141) of T1D signals contained at least one fine-

215 mapped variant (with PPA>.01) overlapping a cCRE, and at 83% (90/109) of these signals the 216 cCRE was further co-accessible with at least one gene promoter (Supplementary Table 8). For 217 each T1D signal, we calculated the cPPA of fine-mapped variants overlapping cCREs for disease-218 enriched cell types. At 58 T1D signals a fine-mapped variant overlapped a CD4+ T cell cCRE, 219 and signals with the highest cPPA in CD4+ T cells included the CD2, IL2RA, PRF1 and IKZF4 220 loci (Figure 3d). We also identified T1D signals with high cPPA in pancreatic acinar and ductal 221 (exocrine) cCREs and monocyte cCREs, many of which were cell type-specific (Figure 3d). For 222 example, three variants at the GP2 locus accounted for .951 of the PPA and mapped in an acinar-223 specific cCRE co-accessible with the promoter of GP2, which encodes the major membrane 224 glycoprotein of pancreatic zymogen granules (Figure 3e). Similarly, rs72802342 at the BCAR1 225 locus (PPA=.30) mapped in an acinar-specific cCRE co-accessible with the CTRB1 and CTRB2 226 promoters (Figure 3f). We observed similar predicted mechanisms in acinar cells at the RNLS 227 and COBL loci, as well as the novel CEL locus, where rs541856133 (PPA=.99) mapped in a 228 region of broad acinar-specific accessibility although not in a cCRE directly (Supplementary 229 Figure 7a-c). At CTLA4, variant rs3087243 (PPA=.99) mapped in an acinar-specific cCRE, 230 although the region around the variant was also broadly accessible in regulatory T cells, in line 231 with the specialized function of CTLA4 in regulatory T cells⁵⁴ (Supplementary Figure 7d). 232 Exocrine cCREs harboring T1D risk variants at these loci were also largely specific relative to 233 previous studies of accessible chromatin from stimulated immune cells⁵⁵ and cvtokine-stimulated 234 islets⁵⁶ except for *CTLA4* which mapped in a stimulated immune site (**Supplemental Table 8**).

235 Risk variant at novel T1D locus has pancreatic ductal cell-specific effects on CFTR

236 As another example of an exocrine-specific T1D signal, at the CFTR locus fine-mapped variant 237 rs7795896 (PPA=0.60) mapped in a distal cCRE highly specific to pancreatic ductal cells 238 upstream of the CFTR gene (Figure 4a). Furthermore, the cCRE harboring rs7795896 had ductal 239 cell-specific co-accessibility with the CFTR promoter in addition to several other genes (Figure 240 4a). Recessive mutations in CFTR cause cystic fibrosis (CF) which is often comorbid with exocrine 241 pancreas insufficiency and CF-related diabetes (CFRD)⁵⁷. Furthermore, carriers of CFTR mutations often develop chronic pancreatitis⁵⁸. As *CFTR* has not been previously implicated in 242 243 T1D, we sought to validate the mechanism of this locus. First, we determined whether rs7795896 244 had allele-specific activity using luciferase reporter and gel shift assays in Capan-1 cells, an 245 established model of ductal cell function⁵⁹. We observed both significantly reduced enhancer activity (P=3.35×10⁻², Figure 4b) and reduced protein binding for the T1D risk allele (Figure 4c). 246 247 The variant mapped in a predicted sequence motif for the ductal cell-specific transcription factor

HNF1B (Supplemental Table 6) and overlapped a HNF1B ChIP-seq site previously identified in ductal cell models (Supplemental Figure 8).

250 To determine whether the enhancer harboring rs7795896 regulated the expression of CFTR in 251 ductal cells, we used CRISPR interference (CRISPRi) to repress the activity of the enhancer (CFTR^{Enh}) in Capan-1 cells using two independent guide RNAs. As positive and negative controls, 252 253 we inactivated the CFTR promoter (CFTR^{Prom}) and used a non-targeting guide RNA, respectively. 254 RNA-seg analysis revealed a significant reduction in CFTR expression after enhancer inactivation $(CFTR^{Enh} \log_2(FC)=-0.40, P=2.41 \times 10^{-3})$, whereas expression of other genes co-accessible with 255 256 the enhancer was unchanged (Figure 4d), identifying CFTR as a target gene of this enhancer. 257 We next determined whether risk variants affected CFTR expression directly using pancreas 258 eQTL data from GTEx⁶⁰. Out of 13 genes tested by GTEx for association with these variants, only 259 CFTR had evidence for an eQTL ($P=4.31 \times 10^{-4}$), and this eQTL was statistically colocalized with 260 the T1D signal (PP_{shared}=91.4%) (Figure 4e). The T1D risk allele C was also associated with 261 decreased CFTR expression, consistent with effects on enhancer activity and TF binding. To 262 evaluate whether the CFTR eQTL signal in whole pancreas tissue was driven by ductal cells, we used MuSiC⁶¹ to estimate cell type proportions in each GTEx pancreas RNA-seq sample (Figure 263 264 4f, Supplemental Figure 9). We then re-calculated eQTL association including estimated cell 265 type proportion for each sample as an interaction term in the model, and only ductal cells had 266 significant association ($P=2.37 \times 10^{-4}$) (Figure 4g).

As *CFTR* has been implicated in risk of pancreatic cancer⁶² and pancreatitis⁶³, we finally asked 267 268 whether rs7795896 was significantly associated with these phenotypes in the UK biobank⁶⁴. FinnGen, and other GWAS²⁸⁻³¹. The T1D risk allele (C) was associated with increased risk of 269 pancreatitis (chronic pancreatitis OR=1.15, P=3.18×10⁻³; acute pancreatitis OR=1.07, P=1.15×10⁻¹ 270 271 ²), pancreatic cancer (OR=1.10, P=7.85×10⁻²), and other pancreatic diseases which includes 272 pancreatitis and pancreatic cysts (OR=1.13, P=4.72×10⁻⁵) (Figure 4h). In contrast, rs7795896 did 273 not show evidence for association with other autoimmune diseases (all P>.05), supporting that it 274 likely does not affect intrinsic immune cell function. Together our findings support a model in which 275 non-coding variants regulating the activity of genes such as CFTR in the exocrine pancreas 276 contribute to risk of T1D as well as pancreatic disease (Figure 4i).

277

278 **DISCUSSION**

Population-based association studies of complex disease are a powerful tool for genetic discoveryand, when coupled with cell type-resolved epigenome maps, can help reveal the cellular origins

281 of disease. Our results represent the largest genome-wide study of T1D genetics to date, more 282 than doubling the set of known risk signals, and provide a comprehensive resource for 283 interrogating T1D risk mechanisms. Integration of these data with cell type-specific accessible 284 chromatin maps both confirmed the prominent role of CD4+ T cells and implicated additional cell 285 types in disease risk notably pancreatic acinar and ductal cells. T1D risk variants mapped to 286 genes with specialized function in acinar and ductal cells such as CFTR, GP2 and CEL, none of 287 which have been previously implicated in T1D. Observational studies have reported exocrine 288 pancreas abnormalities in T1D at disease onset⁶⁵ as well as in autoantibody positive individuals⁶⁶ and first-degree relatives of T1D⁶⁷, but it was unknown whether this was contributing causally to 289 290 disease^{68,69}. Studies in zebrafish, mice and humans have demonstrated that reduced CFTR leads 291 to CFRD via intra-islet inflammation and immune infiltration rather than intrinsic defects of beta 292 cell function, and immune infiltration in the exocrine pancreas has been suggested to contribute to T1D pathogenesis^{70–72}. We therefore hypothesize a causal role for gene regulation in exocrine 293 294 cells in T1D, potentially mediated through immune infiltration and inflammation, which may 295 provide novel avenues for therapeutic discovery in T1D.

296

297 METHODS

Genotype quality control and imputation

299 We compiled individual-level genotype data and summary statistics of 18,803 T1D cases and 300 470,876 controls of European ancestry from public sources (Supplementary Table 1), where 301 T1D case cohorts were matched to population control cohorts based on genotyping array 302 (Affymetrix, Illumina Infinium, Illumina Omni, and Immunochip) and country of origin where 303 possible (US, British, and Ireland). For the GENIE-UK cohort, because we were unable to find a 304 matched country of origin control cohort, we used individuals of British ancestry (defined by 305 individuals within 1.5 interguartile range of CEU/GBR subpopulations on the first 4 PCs from PCA 306 with European 1000 Genomes Project samples) from the University of Michigan Health and 307 Retirement study (HRS). For non-UK Biobank cohorts, we first applied individual and variant 308 exclusion lists (where available) to remove low guality, duplicate, or non-European ancestry 309 samples and failed genotype calls for each cohort. For control cohorts, we also used phenotype 310 files (where available) to remove individuals with type 2 diabetes or autoimmune diseases.

311 We then applied a uniform processing pipeline and used PLINK⁷³ to remove variants based on (i)

low frequency (MAF<1%), (ii) missing genotypes (missing>5%), (iii) violation of Hardy-Weinberg

equilibrium (HWE $p < 1 \times 10^{-5}$ in control cohorts and HWE $p < 1 \times 10^{-10}$ in case cohorts), (iv) substantial

314 differences in allele frequency compared to the Haplotype Reference Consortium r1.1 reference panel⁷⁴, and (v) allele ambiguity (AT/GC variants with MAF>40%). We further removed individuals 315 316 based on (i) missing genotypes (missing>5%), (ii) sex mismatch with phenotype records 317 (het_{chrx}>.2 for females and het_{chrx}<.8 for males), (iii) cryptic relatedness through identity-by-318 descent (IBD>.2), and (iv) non-European ancestry through PCA with 1000 Genomes Project⁷⁵ (>3 interguartile range from 25th and 75th percentiles of European 1KGP samples on the first 4 PCs) 319 320 (Supplementary Figure 1). For the affected sib-pair (ASP) cohort genotyped on the Immunochip, 321 we retained only one T1D sample from each family selected at random. For the GRID case and 322 1958 Birth control cohorts genotyped on the Immunochip, a portion of the cases overlapped the 323 T1DGC or 1958 Birth cohorts genotyped on a genome-wide array. We thus used sample IDs from 324 the phenotype files to remove these samples from the GRID and 1958 Birth cohorts and verified 325 that no samples were duplicated between the Immunochip and genome-wide array datasets by 326 checking IBD values. We combined data for matched case and control cohorts based on 327 genotyping array and country of origin for imputation. We used the TOPMed Imputation Server^{76,77} to impute genotypes into the TOPMed r2 panel⁷ and removed variants based on low imputation 328 quality (R²<.3). Following imputation, we implemented post-imputation filters to remove variants 329 based on potential genotyping or imputation artifacts based on empirical R² (genotyped variants 330 with empirical R^2 <.5 and all imputed variants in at least low LD (r^2 >.3) with them). 331

332 For the UK Biobank cohort, we downloaded imputed genotype data from the UK Biobank v3 333 release which were imputed using a combination of the HRC and UK10K + 1000 Genomes 334 reference panels. We used phenotype data to remove individuals of non-European descent. We 335 then used a combination of ICD10 codes to define 1.458 T1D cases (T1D diagnosis and insulin 336 treatment within a year of diagnosis, no T2D diagnosis). We defined controls as 362,257 337 individuals without diabetes (no T1D, T2D, or gestational diabetes diagnosis) or other 338 autoimmune diseases (systemic lupus erythematosus, rheumatoid arthritis, juvenile arthritis, 339 Sjögren syndrome, alopecia areata, multiple sclerosis, autoimmune thyroiditis, vitiligo, celiac 340 disease, primary biliary cirrhosis, psoriasis, or ulcerative colitis). We removed variants with low imputation quality (R^2 <.3). 341

For the FinnGen cohort, we downloaded GWAS summary statistics for type 1 diabetes (E4_DM1_STRICT) from FinnGen freeze 2. This phenotype definition excluded individuals with type 2 diabetes from both cases and controls.

345 Association testing, meta-analysis, and detection of conditional signals

346 We tested low-frequency and common variants (MAF>.001%) for association to T1D with firth 347 bias reduced logistic regression using EPACTS (https://genome.sph.umich.edu/wiki/EPACTS) for 348 non-UK Biobank cohorts or SAIGE⁶⁴ for the UK Biobank, using genotype dosages adjusted for 349 sex and the first four ancestry PCs. We then combined association results across matched 350 cohorts through inverse-variance weighted meta-analysis. We used the liftOver utility to convert 351 GRCh38/hg38 into GRCh37/hg19 coordinates for all cohorts except for the UK biobank. We 352 removed variants that were unable to be converted, were duplicated after coordinate conversion, 353 or were located on different chromosomes after conversion. In total, our association data 354 contained summary statistics for 59.244.856 variants. To evaluate the extent to which genomic 355 inflation was driven by the polygenic nature of T1D or population stratification, we used LD score 356 regression to compare the LDSC intercept to lambda genomic control (GC). We observed an 357 intercept of 1.08 (SE=.03) compared to a lambda GC of 1.21, suggesting that the majority of the 358 observed inflation was driven by polygenicity rather than population stratification.

We used a threshold of P<5×10⁻⁸ to define genome-wide significance for primary signals, and we 359 360 defined novel loci as those statistically independent ($r^2 < .01$) from reported index variants from 361 previous T1D association studies. For all cohorts except for FinnGen, we performed exact 362 conditional analyses on lead index variants to identify conditionally independent signals and used a locus-wide threshold of P<1×10⁻⁵ to define significance. For genomic regions with multiple 363 364 known signals within close proximity, we conditioned on index variants from both signals. We 365 iterated through this process for each locus until there were no remaining significant signals at 366 the locus-wide threshold.

367 Fine mapping of distinct association signals

368 We constructed LD-based genetic credible sets of variants for 141 signals at 89 known and novel 369 loci excluding the MHC locus for complex LD structure and ICOSLG, for which we were unable 370 to find imputed proxy variants in our dataset. For the main signals at known loci, we defined 371 credible set variants by taking all variants in at least low LD (r^2 >.1) with newly identified index 372 variants within a 5 Mb window. For both novel and conditional signals, we used the most significant variant at the signal and the same credible set definition. We used effect size and 373 374 standard error estimates to calculate approximate Bayes factors⁹ (ABF) for each variant; at 375 signals with multiple distinct association signals, we derived values from the corresponding 376 conditional analysis. We then calculated the posterior probability of association (PPA) for each 377 variant by dividing its ABF by the sum of ABF for all variants in the signal's credible set. To derive

378 99% credible sets for each signal, we sorted variants for each signal by descending PPA and 379 retained variants that added up to a cumulative PPA>0.99. To verify that variant coverage across 380 different imputation panels did not affect fine mapping, we calculated the effective sample size for 381 all credible set variants. There were only 9 credible set variants in total with <50% of the maximum</p>

382 effective sample size, all of which had PPA<.01, and we did not further filter these variants.

383 **GWAS correlation analyses**

384 We used LD score regression (version 1.0.1) to estimate genome-wide genetic correlations between T1D and immune diseases^{25–31,41,42}, other diseases^{32–40,64,78,79}, and non-disease traits^{43–} 385 ^{50,80-88}, using European subsets of GWAS where applicable. For acute pancreatitis, chronic 386 pancreatitis, and pancreatic cancer, we used inverse variance weighted meta-analysis to combine 387 SAIGE analysis results from the UK biobank⁶⁴ (PheCodes 577.1, 577.2, and 157) and FinnGen 388 (K11 ACUTPANC, K11 CHRONPANC, C3 PANCREAS EXALLC). We used pre-computed 389 390 European 1000 Genomes LD scores to calculate correlation estimates (r_a) and standard errors. 391 We then corrected p-values for multiple tests using FDR correction, considering traits with FDR<.1 392 as significant. We also performed genetic correlation analyses using a version of the T1D meta-393 analysis excluding the Immunochip cohorts and observed highly similar results.

394 Generation of snATAC-seq libraries

395 Combinatorial indexing single cell ATAC-seq (snATAC-seq/sci-ATAC-seq). snATAC-seq was 396 performed as described previously^{89,90} with several modifications as described below. For the islet 397 samples, approximately 3,000 islet equivalents (IEQ, roughly 1,000 cells each) were resuspended 398 in 1 mL nuclei permeabilization buffer (10mM Tris-HCL (pH 7.5), 10mM NaCl, 3mM MgCl₂, 0.1% 399 Tween-20 (Sigma), 0.1% IGEPAL-CA630 (Sigma) and 0.01% Digitonin (Promega) in water) and 400 homogenized using 1mL glass dounce homogenizer with a tight-fitting pestle for 15 strokes. 401 Homogenized islets were incubated for 10 min at 4°C and filtered with 30 µm filter (CellTrics). For 402 the pancreas samples, frozen tissue was pulverized with a mortar and pestle while frozen and 403 immersed in liquid nitrogen. Approximately 22 mg of pulverized tissue was then transferred to an 404 Eppendorf tube and resuspended in 1 mL of cold permeabilization buffer for 10 minutes on a 405 rotator at 4°C. Permeabilized sample was filtered with a 30µm filter (CellTrics), and the filter was 406 washed with 300 µL of permeabilization buffer to increase nuclei recovery.

407 Once permeabilized and filtered, nuclei were pelleted with a swinging bucket centrifuge (500 x g, 408 5 min, 4°C; 5920R, Eppendorf) and resuspended in 500 μ L high salt tagmentation buffer (36.3 mM 409 Tris-acetate (pH = 7.8), 72.6 mM potassium-acetate, 11 mM Mg-acetate, 17.6% DMF) and 410 counted using a hemocytometer. Concentration was adjusted to 4500 nuclei/9 μ l, and 4,500 nuclei

411 were dispensed into each well of a 96-well plate. Glycerol was added to the leftover nuclei 412 suspension for a final concentration of 25 % and nuclei were stored at -80°C. For tagmentation, 1 µL barcoded Tn5 transposomes⁹⁰ were added using a BenchSmart[™] 96 (Mettler Toledo), 413 414 mixed five times and incubated for 60 min at 37°C with shaking (500 rpm). To inhibit the Tn5 415 reaction, 10 µL of 40 mM EDTA were added to each well with a BenchSmart[™] 96 (Mettler Toledo) 416 and the plate was incubated at 37°C for 15 min with shaking (500 rpm). Next, 20 µL 2 x sort buffer 417 (2 % BSA, 2 mM EDTA in PBS) were added using a BenchSmart[™] 96 (Mettler Toledo). All wells 418 were combined into a FACS tube and stained with 3 µM Drag7 (Cell Signaling). Using a SH800 419 (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))⁹⁰. Preparation of sort 420 421 plates and all downstream pipetting steps were performed on a Biomek i7 Automated Workstation 422 (Beckman Coulter). After addition of 1 µL 0.2% SDS, samples were incubated at 55 °C for 7 min 423 with shaking (500 rpm). We added 1 µL 12.5% Triton-X to each well to quench the SDS and 424 12.5 µL NEBNext High-Fidelity 2× PCR Master Mix (NEB). Samples were PCR-amplified (72 °C 425 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 426 wells were combined. Libraries were purified according to the MinElute PCR Purification Kit 427 manual (Qiagen) using a vacuum manifold (QIAvac 24 plus, Qiagen) and size selection was 428 performed with SPRI Beads (Beckmann Coulter, 0.55x and 1.5x). Libraries were purified one 429 more time with SPRI Beads (Beckmann Coulter, 1.5x). Libraries were quantified using a Qubit 430 fluorimeter (Life technologies) and the nucleosomal pattern was verified using a TapeStation 431 (High Sensitivity D1000, Agilent). The library was sequenced on a HiSeg2500 sequencer 432 (Illumina) using custom sequencing primers, 25% spike-in library and following read lengths: 50 433 + 43 + 40 + 50 (Read1 + Index1 + Index2 + Read2).

434 Droplet-based 10X single cell ATAC-seq (scATAC-seq). 10X scATAC-seq protocol from 10x 435 Genomics was followed: Chromium SingleCell ATAC ReagentKits UserGuide (CG000209, Rev 436 A). Cryopreserved PBMC samples were thawed in 37°C water bath for 2 min and followed 'PBMC 437 thawing protocol' in the UserGuide. After thawing cells, the pellets were resuspended again in 1 438 mL chilled PBS (with 0.04% PBS) and filtered with 50 µm CellTrics (04-0042-2317, Sysmex). The 439 cells were centrifuged (300g, 5 min, 4°C) and permeabilized with 100 µl of chilled lysis buffer 440 (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 0.1% Tween-20, 0.1% IGEPAL-CA630, 441 0.01% digitonin and 1% BSA). The samples were incubated on ice for 3 min and resuspended 442 with 1mL chilled wash buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.4, 10 mM NaCl, 3 mM MgCl2, 0.1% Tween-443 20 and 1% BSA). After centrifugation (500g, 5 min, 4°C), the pellets were resuspended in 100 µL 444 of chilled Nuclei buffer (2000153, 10x Genomics). The nuclei concentration was adjusted between

445 3.000 to 7.000 per ul and 15.300 nuclei which targets 10.000 nuclei was used for the experiment. 446 For pancreas tissue (pulverized as described above), approximately 31.7 mg of pulverized tissue 447 was transferred to a LoBind tube (Eppendorf) and resuspended in 1 mL of cold permeabilization 448 buffer (10mM Tris-HCL (pH 7.5), 10mM NaCl, 3mM MgCl₂, 0.1% Tween-20 (Sigma), 0.1% 449 IGEPAL-CA630 (Sigma), 0.01% Digitonin (Promega) and 1% BSA (Proliant 7500804) in water) 450 for 10 min on a rotator at 4°C. Permeabilized nuclei were filtered with 30 µm filter (CellTrics). 451 Filtered nuclei were pelleted with a swinging bucket centrifuge (500 x g, 5 min, 4°C; 5920R, 452 Eppendorf) and resuspended in 1 mL Wash buffer (10mM Tris-HCL (pH 7.5), 10mM NaCl, 3mM 453 MgCl₂, 0.1% Tween-20, and 1% BSA (Proliant 7500804) in molecular biology-grade water). Nuclei 454 wash was repeated once. Next, washed nuclei were resuspended in 30 µL of 1X Nuclei Buffer 455 (10X Genomics). Nuclei were counted using a hemocytometer, and finally the nuclei 456 concentration was adjusted to 3,000 nuclei/µl. 15,360 nuclei were used as input for tagmentation. 457

458 Nuclei were diluted to 5 µl with 1X Nuclei buffer (10x Genomics) and, mixed with ATAC buffer 459 (10x Genomics) and ATAC enzyme (10x Genomics) for tagmentation (60 min, 37°C). Single cell 460 ATAC-seq libraries were generated using the (Chromium Chip E Single Cell ATAC kit (10x 461 Genomics, 1000086) and indexes (Chromium i7 Multiplex Kit N, Set A, 10x Genomics, 1000084) 462 following manufacturer instructions. Final libraries were quantified using a Qubit fluorimeter (Life 463 technologies) and the nucleosomal pattern was verified using a TapeStation (High Sensitivity 464 D1000, Agilent). Libraries were sequenced on a NextSeq 500 and HiSeq4000 sequencer 465 (Illumina) with following read lengths: 50 + 8 + 16 + 50 (Read1 + Index1 + Index2 + Read2).

466

467 Single cell chromatin accessibility data processing

468 Prior to read alignment, we used trim galore (version 0.4.4) to remove adapter sequences from 469 reads using default parameters. We aligned reads to the hg19 reference genome using bwa 470 mem⁹¹ (version 0.7.17; parameters: '-M -C') and removed low mapping quality (MAPQ<30), secondary, unmapped, and mitochondrial reads using samtools⁹². To remove duplicate 471 472 sequences on a per-barcode level, we used the MarkDuplicates tool from picard (parameters: 473 'BARCODE TAG'). For each tissue and snATAC-seg technology, we used log-transformed read 474 depth distributions from each experiment to determine a threshold separating real cell barcodes 475 from background noise. We used 500 total reads (passing all filters) as the cutoff for combinatorial 476 barcoding snATAC and between 2,300 and 4,000 total reads, as well as at least 0.3 fraction of 477 reads in peaks for 10x snATAC-seq experiments (Supplemental Figure 5a).

478

479 Single cell chromatin accessibility clustering

480 We identified snATAC-seq clusters using a previously described pipeline with a few modifications. 481 For each experiment, we first constructed a counts matrix consisting of read counts in 5 kb 482 windows for each cell. Using scanpy⁹³, we normalized cells to a uniform read depth and log-483 transformed counts. We extracted highly variable (hv) windows (parameters: 'min mean=.01, 484 min disp=.25') and regressed out the total log-transformed read depth within hv windows (usable 485 counts). We then merged datasets from the same tissue and performed PCA to extract the top 486 50 PCs. We used Harmony⁹⁴ to correct the PCs for batch effects across experiments, using 487 categorical covariates such as donor-of-origin (all tissues), biological sex (PBMCs), and snATAC-488 seq assay technology (pancreas). We used the corrected components to construct a 30 nearest 489 neighbor graph using the cosine metric, which we used for UMAP dimensionality reduction 490 (parameters: 'min dist=.3') and clustering with the Leiden algorithm⁹⁵ (parameters: 491 'resolution=1.5').

492 Prior to combining cells across all tissues, we performed iterative clustering to identify and remove 493 cells with aberrant quality metrics. First, we identified and remove clusters of cells with lower 494 guality metrics (islets: 948, pancreas: 2,588, PBMCs: 5,268 cells removed total), including lower 495 usable counts or fraction of reads in peaks. Next, after removing the low-guality cells and 496 repeating the previous clustering steps, we sub-clustered the resulting main clusters at high 497 resolution (parameters: 'resolution=3.0') to identify sub-clusters containing potential doublets 498 (islets: 886, pancreas: 4,495, PBMCs: 5,844 cells removed total). We noted that these sub-499 clusters tended to have higher average usable counts, promoter usage, and accessibility at more 500 than one marker gene promoter. After removing 20.029 low-guality or potential doublet cells, we 501 performed one final round of clustering using experiments from all tissues, including tissue-of-502 origin as another covariate. We further removed 672 cells mapping to improbable cluster 503 assignments (islet or pancreatic cells in PBMC clusters or vice versa). After all filters, we ended 504 up with 131,554 cells mapping to 28 distinct clusters with consistent representation across 505 samples from the same tissue (**Supplemental Figure 5b**). We cataloged known marker genes 506 for each cell type and assessed gene accessibility (sum of read counts across each gene body) 507 to assign labels to each cluster.

508

509 Single cell chromatin accessibility analyses

510 We identified chromatin accessibility peaks with MACS2⁹⁶ by calling peaks on aggregated reads 511 from each cluster. In brief, we extracted reads from all cells within a given cluster, shifted reads 512 aligned to the positive strand by +4 bp and reads aligned to the negative strand by -5 bp, and

513 centered the reads. We then used MACS2 to call peaks (parameters: '--nomodel --keep-dup-all') 514 and removed peaks overlapping ENCODE blacklisted regions⁹⁷. We then merged peaks from all 515 28 clusters with bedtools⁹⁸ to create a consistent set of 448,142 regulatory elements for 516 subsequent analyses.

To compare accessible chromatin profiles from snATAC-seq to those from bulk ATAC-seq on FACS purified cell types, we reprocessed published ATAC-seq data from sorted pancreatic⁹⁹ and unstimulated immune cells⁵⁵. We created pseudobulk profiles from the snATAC-seq data for each donor and cluster, retaining those that contained information from at least 50 cells. We then extracted read counts in the 448,142 merged peaks for all sorted and pseudobulk profiles. We used PCA to extract the top 20 principal components and used UMAP for dimensionality reduction and visualization (parameters: 'min dist=.5, n neighbors=80').

524 To identify cluster-specific peaks, we used logistic regression models for each peak treating each 525 cell as an individual data point. For each model, we used cluster assignment and covariates such 526 as donor-of-origin and the log usable count as predictors and binary accessibility of the peak as 527 the outcome to calculate t-statistics (t-stats) for specificity. For a given cluster, we defined cluster-528 specific peaks by taking the top 1000 peaks with the highest t-stats, after first filtering out peaks which also had high t-stats for other clusters (peak t-stat>90th percentile of all t-stats for the given 529 cluster in more than 2 other clusters). We then used GREAT¹² to annotate peaks and summarize 530 531 linked genes in the form of gene ontology terms for the set of cluster-specific peaks as compared 532 to all merged peaks.

We estimated TF motif enrichment z-scores for each cell using chromVAR¹³ (version 1.5.0) by 533 534 following the steps outlined in the user manual. First, we constructed a sparse binary matrix 535 encoding read overlap with merged peaks for each cell. For each merged peak, we estimated the 536 GC content bias based on the hg19 human reference genome to obtain a set of matched 537 background peaks. To ensure a motif enrichment value for each cell, we did not apply any 538 additional filters based on total reads or the fraction of reads in peaks. Next, using 580 TF motifs within the JASPAR 2018 CORE vertebrate (non-redundant) set¹⁴, we computed GC bias-539 540 corrected enrichment z-scores (chromVAR deviation scores) for each cell. To extract highly 541 variable TF motifs, we computed the enrichment variability of each motif across all cells and used 542 the median as the cutoff. For each cluster, we then computed the average TF motif enrichment 543 z-score across all cells in the cluster.

We used Cicero²⁴ (version 1.3.3) to calculate co-accessibility scores between pairs of peaks for each cluster. As in the single cell motif enrichment analysis, we started from a sparse binary matrix. For each cluster, we only retained merged peaks that overlapped peaks from the cluster. Within each cluster, we aggregated cells based on the 50 nearest neighbors and used cicero to calculate co-accessibility scores, using a 1 Mb window size and a distance constraint of 500 kb. We then defined promoters as ±500 bp from the TSS of protein coding transcripts to annotate coaccessibility links between distal and promoter peaks.

551 GWAS enrichment analyses

We used LD score regression¹⁰⁰ to calculate genome-wide enrichment z-scores for 32 diseases 552 553 and traits including T1D. We obtained GWAS summary statistics for autoimmune and inflammatory diseases (immune-related)^{25-31,41,42}, other diseases³²⁻⁴⁰, and quantitative 554 endophenotypes⁴³⁻⁵², and where necessary, we filled in variant IDs and alleles. Using the 555 556 'munge sumstats.py' script, we converted summary statistics to the standard format for LD score 557 regression. For each cluster, we used overlap with chromatin accessibility peaks as a binary 558 annotation for variants. We also created a background annotation using merged peaks across all 559 clusters. Then, we computed annotation-specific LD scores by following the instructions for creating partitioned LD scores. We used stratified LD score regression⁵³ to estimate enrichment 560 561 coefficient z-scores for each annotation relative to the background, which we defined as merged 562 peaks across all clusters combined with the annotations in the baseline-LD model (version 2.2). 563 Based on the enrichment z-scores, we computed one-sided p-values to assess significance and 564 corrected for multiple tests using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure¹⁰¹. We also calculated GWAS enrichment z-scores for T1D using a version of the meta-analysis excluding the 565 566 Immunochip cohorts and observed highly similar enrichment results. We used fgwas to estimate 567 enrichment within cell type-specific cCREs using 2000 variants per window.

568 Annotating cell type mechanisms of variants at fine mapped signals

569 We first annotated fine mapped variants with PPA>1% using broad genomic annotations. We 570 defined "coding" as coding exons of protein coding genes, "promoter" as ±500 bp from the TSS 571 of protein coding transcripts, and "distal" as peaks in any cell type that did not overlap promoter regions. We then assigned variants to each group without replacement, in the priority 572 573 coding>promoter>distal. To then further breakdown distal variants, we assigned clusters to cell 574 type groups (CD4 T cell: naïve CD4 T, activated CD4 T, regulatory T; CD8 T cell: naïve CD8 T, 575 activated CD8 T, pancreatic CD8 T; NK cell: adaptive and cytotoxic NK; B cell: naïve and memory 576 B: monocyte/ MQ: classical and non-classical monocyte, pancreatic macrophage; dendritic:

577 conventional and plasmacytoid dendritic; other cell: megakaryocyte, endothelial, activated and 578 quiescent stellate; exocrine: acinar and ductal; endocrine: alpha, beta, delta, and gamma) and 579 created merged peak annotations for each group. We then assigned variants to each cell type 580 group without replacement, prioritizing groups in order based on their cumulative PPA.

581 Luciferase reporter assay

To test for allelic differences in enhancer activity at rs7795896, we cloned human DNA sequences (Coriell) containing the reference or alternate allele upstream of the minimal promoter in the luciferase reporter vector pGL4.23 (Promega) in the forward direction using the restriction enzymes SacI and KpnI. We then created a construct containing the alternate allele using the NEB Q5 SDM kit (New England Biolabs). The primer sequences used were:

587

588 Cloning FWD_P1 TAGCGGTACCTAATGGGAAATCATGCCAACC

589 Cloning FWD_P2 AATAGAGCTCATGTGTGTGTGCTGGGATGT

590

591 We grew Capan-1 cells (ATCC) to approximately 70% confluency in 6-well dishes according to 592 ATCC culture recommendations. We co-transfected cells with either the experimental or empty 593 vector and pRL-SV40. We then lysed cells 48 hours post transfection and assayed them using 594 the Dual-Luciferase Reporter System (Promega). We normalized Firefly activity to Renilla activity 595 and expressed normalized results as fold change compared to the luciferase activity of the empty 596 vector. We used a two-sided t-test to compare the luciferase activity between the two alleles.

597

598 Electrophoretic mobility shift assay

599 We ordered 5' biotinylated and unlabeled (cold) oligos with the reference and alternate alleles 600 from Integrated DNA Technologies. We annealed oligos with an equivalent volume of equimolar 601 complementary oligo in a binding buffer containing 10mM Tris pH 8.0, 50mM NaCl, and 1mM 602 EDTA at 95°C for 5 minutes and cooled them gradually to room temperature before further use.

603

604 C oligo: (5' biotin)CAATTAGATGTAACTCATTAACATTAGAAAAA

- 605 T oligo: (5' biotin)CAATTAGATGTAACTTATTAACATTAGAAAAA
- 606

We carried out binding reactions using the LightShift Chemiluminescent EMSA kit (Thermo Fisher) according to manufacturer's instructions with the following adjustments: 100 fmol of biotinylated probe per reaction and 20 pmol of non-biotinylated "cold" probe in competition

reactions. We used approximately 16 ug of nuclear protein extract from Capan-1 cells purified
 using NE-PER Nuclear and Cytoplasmic Extraction Reagents (Thermo Fisher) per binding
 reaction.

613

614 CRISPR inactivation of enhancer element

We maintained HEK293T cells in DMEM containing 100 units/mL penicillin and 100 mg/mL streptomycin sulfate supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). To generate CRISPRi expression vectors, we designed guide RNA sequences to target the enhancer containing rs7795896 or the *CFTR* promoter. These guides, as well as a non-targeting control, were placed downstream of the human U6 promoter in the pLV hU6-sgRNA hUbC-dCas9-KRAB-T2a-Puro backbone (Addgene, #71236). The guide RNA sequences were:

rs7795896 enhancer guide 1	GTAGTTGGCTTCCTCAGTAAG
rs7795896 enhancer guide 2	GAACAGTATGATTTACGTAA
CFTR promoter	GCGCCCGAGAGACCATGCAG
Non-targeting control	GTGACGTGCACCGCGGTGTG

621

We generated high-titer lentiviral supernatants by co-transfection of the resulting plasmid and lentiviral packaging constructs into HEK293T cells. Specifically, we co-transfected CRISPRi vectors with the pCMV-R8.74 (Addgene, #22036) and pMD2.G (Addgene, #12259) expression plasmids into HEK293T cells using a 1mg/mL PEI solution (Polysciences). We collected lentiviral supernatants at 48 hours and 72 hours after transfection and concentrated lentiviruses by ultracentrifugation for 120 minutes at 19,500 rpm using a Beckman SW28 ultracentrifuge rotor at 4°C.

629 We obtained Capan-1 pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma cell lines from ATCC and cultured them 630 using Iscove's Modified Dulbecco's Media with 20% fetal bovine serum, 100 units/mL penicillin, 631 and 100 mg/mL streptomycin sulfate. 24 hours prior to infection, we passaged cells into a 6-well 632 plate at a density of 650,000 cells per well. The following day, we added fresh media containing 633 5ug/mL polybrene and 5uL/mL concentrated CRISPRi lentivirus to each well. We incubated the 634 cells at 37°C for 30 minutes and then spun them in a centrifuge for 1 hour at 30°C at 950 × g. 6 635 hours later, we replaced viral media with fresh base culture media and left the cells to recover. 636 After 48 hours, we replaced media daily with the addition of 2ug/mL puromycin for a further 72

hours. We then harvested infected cells and isolated RNA using the RNeasy® Micro Kit (Qiagen)
according to the manufacturer instructions.

639 Differential analysis of CRISPR inactivation experiments

640 We used STAR (version 2.7.3a) to map reads to the hg19 genome using ENCODE standard 641 options (parameters: '--outFilterType BySJout --outFilterMultimapNmax 20 --alignSJoverhangMin 642 8 --alignSJDBoverhangMin 1 --outFilterMismatchNmax 999 --outFilterMismatchNoverReadLmax 643 0.04 --alignIntronMin 20 --alignIntronMax 1000000 --alignMatesGapMax 1000000'). We then used featureCounts (version 1.6.4) to count the number of uniquely mapped reads mapping to 644 645 genes in GENCODE v19 (parameters: '-Q 30 -p -B -s 2 --ignoreDup'). We used DESeg2 to 646 evaluate differential mRNA expression between either the CFTR enhancer (pooled data from both 647 guides), or promoter inactivation versus the non-targeting guide.

648 Colocalization and deconvolution of the pancreas CFTR eQTL

We obtained GTEx consortium release $v7^{60}$ eQTL summary statistics for pancreas tissue from 220 samples and used effect size and standard error estimates to calculate Bayes factors⁹ for each variant. Where a T1D-associated variant had evidence for a pancreas eQTL, we considered all variants in a 500kb window around the T1D GWAS index variant, and used the coloc¹⁰² package to calculate the probability that the variants driving T1D association and eQTL signals were shared. We considered signals as colocalized based on the probability that they were shared (PP_{shared}>.9).

656 We downloaded and re-processed a published pancreas single cell RNA-seg dataset¹⁰³ of 12 islet donors. After re-processing and generating a counts matrix with the 10x Genomics cellranger 657 (version 3.0.0) pipeline, we first used scanpy⁹³ and filtered out 1) cells with <500 genes expressed, 658 659 2) cells with >20% mitochondrial reads, or 3) genes expressed in <3 cells. To ensure clustering 660 would not be affected by read depth, we normalized the total counts per cell to 10k and 661 subsequently log-normalized the resulting counts. We identified highly variable genes (hvgs) 662 based on mean expression and dispersion with (parameters: 'min mean=.005, max mean=6, 663 min disp=.1'). We then extracted counts for hvgs and regressed out the total read count within the hvgs. After dimensionality reduction with PCA, we used harmony⁹⁴ with default parameters to 664 665 correct for batch effects due to donor. We used the top 30 corrected PCs for graph-based 666 clustering with the leiden algorithm⁹⁵ (parameters: 'resolution=1.25') and visualization on reduced dimensions with UMAP¹⁰⁴ (parameters: 'min dist=.3'). To assign cell types to each cluster, we 667 668 used well-established marker genes from literature and labelled 18,279 cells.

We used MuSiC⁶¹ to estimate the proportions of major pancreatic cell types (acinar, duct, stellate, 669 670 alpha, beta, delta, gamma) in each pancreas sample from the GTEx v7 release. As input, we 671 used raw count matrices of the islet scRNA-seg and GTEx v7 pancreas samples and cell type 672 labels from the analysis of the former dataset. For each cell type, we used the proportion as an 673 interaction term and constructed linear models of CFTR expression (TMM normalized) as a 674 function of the interaction between genotype dosage and cell type proportion, accounting for 675 covariates used by GTEx including sex, sequencing platform, 3 genotype PCs, and 28 inferred 676 PCs from the expression data. From the original 30 inferred PCs, we excluded inferred PCs 2 and 677 3 because they were highly correlated (Spearman's ρ >.7) with acinar cell proportion.

678 **Phenotype associations at CFTR variant**

679 We tested for association of the T1D index variant rs7795896 at CFTR to pancreatic and 680 autoimmune disease phenotypes. For acute pancreatitis, chronic pancreatitis, and pancreatic 681 cancer, we used inverse variance weighted meta-analysis to combine SAIGE analysis results from the UK biobank⁶⁴ (PheCodes 577.1, 577.2, and 157) and FinnGen (K11 ACUTPANC, 682 683 K11 CHRONPANC, C3 PANCREAS EXALLC). As mutations that cause cystic fibrosis (CF) 684 map to this locus, which are risk factors for pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer, we determined 685 the impact of the most common CF mutation F508del/rs199826652 on the association results for 686 rs7795896. For T1D, we tested for association of rs7795896 conditional on F508del/rs199826652 687 in all cohorts except for FinnGen and observed no evidence for a difference in T1D association. 688 For pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer, we identified F508del/rs199826652 carriers in UK 689 Biobank and repeated the association analysis for these phenotypes in UK biobank data after 690 removing these individuals and observed no evidence of a change in the effect of rs7795896.

691

692 CODE AVAILABILITY

693 Code used for processing snATAC-seq datasets and clustering cells is available at 694 <u>https://github.com/kjgaulton/pipelines/tree/master/T1D_snATAC_pipeline</u>.

695

696 DATA AVAILABILITY

697 Summary statistics and fine mapping credible sets for T1D GWAS will be available in the GWAS

698 catalog and in the T1D Knowledge Portal (http://t1d.hugeamp.org). Raw data files for snATAC-

seq will be deposited to GEO, and processed data files for snATAC-seq will be available through

the Diabetes Epigenome Atlas (https://www.diabetesepigenome.org/).

701

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822

823 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

K.J.G and J.C. designed the study and wrote the manuscript. J.C. performed the genetic
association and single cell accessible chromatin analyses. R.G., M.O. and S.Huang performed
molecular experiments of enhancer and variant function. J.Y.H and M.M. generated single cell
accessible chromatin data. P.B. and K.K. contributed to data analysis. D.U.G and S.P. supervised
the generation of single cell accessible chromatin and contributed to data interpretation and

analyses. M.S. supervised experiments related to enhancer function and contributed to datainterpretation. S.Heller and A.K. contributed to interpretation of experimental data.

831

832 FIGURE LEGENDS

833 Figure 1. Genome-wide association and fine mapping identifies novel signals for T1D risk. 834 (a) Manhattan plot showing genome-wide T1D association p-values (-log10 transformed). Novel 835 loci are colored in red and labeled based on the nearest gene, and index variants have larger 836 radii and are circled. The dotted line indicates genome-wide significance (P=5×10⁻⁸). (b) Locus 837 plots showing independent association signals at the known BACH2 locus (left) and the novel 838 BCL11A locus (right). For conditional signals, the variants used for conditional analysis are 839 indicated under the title in parentheses. Variants are colored (known=blue, novel=red) based on 840 linkage disequilibrium (r^2) with the index variant for each signal. The dotted line indicates the 841 genome-wide significance threshold ($P=5\times10^{-8}$) for the main signal and the locus wide 842 significance threshold (P=1×10⁻⁵) for the conditional signals. (c) Breakdown of 141 independent 843 T1D risk signals after conditional fine-mapping analyses. Among these were 89 main signals at 844 59 known loci (excluding the MHC region) and 30 novel loci, and 52 conditional signals including 845 43 at known loci and 9 at novel loci. (d) Breakdown of the number of signals per locus (top), 846 number of 99% credible set variants per signal from fine mapping (middle), and the number of 847 variants with posterior probability of association >1% (bottom).

848 Figure 2. Comprehensive reference map of 131,554 single cell chromatin accessibility 849 profiles from T1D-relevant tissues. (a) Clustering of accessible chromatin profiles from 131,554 850 cells from single cell experiments of peripheral blood mononuclear cells, whole pancreas tissue, 851 and purified pancreatic islets. Cells are plotted on the first two UMAP components and colored 852 based on cluster assignment. Clusters are grouped into categories of cell types, and the number 853 of cells in each cluster are shown next to its corresponding label. (b) Dot plot (top) of relative gene 854 accessibility (chromatin accessibility reads across gene bodies, averages for each cluster and 855 scaled from 0-100 across columns/clusters) showing examples of marker genes used to identify 856 cluster labels. Circle sizes are scaled according to the relative gene accessibility value. Genome 857 browser tracks (bottom) showing aggregated chromatin accessibility profiles in a 50 kb window 858 around selected marker genes. (c) Relative peak accessibility for 25,436 cluster-specific peaks 859 across all 28 clusters (left), and enriched gene ontology terms with GREAT for peaks specific to 860 pancreatic macrophages, activated stellate, ductal, and acinar cells (right). (d) Single cell motif enrichment z-scores for TFs showing specificity for cell lineage (SPI – myeloid and B cells, ETS
– T cells, FOXA – pancreatic), cell type (NR5A – acinar, HNF1 – ductal, EBF – B cells), and cell
state (POU2 – memory B, TCF7 – naïve CD4 T, RUNX – adaptive NK). The sequence logo for
the enriched motif is displayed to the left of each UMAP plot. (e) Examples of cell type-specific
co-accessibility between the promoter of AQP1 and distal sites in ductal cells (left,
chr7:30,000,000-31,100,000, scale: 0-10 CPM) and the promoter of CEL and distal sites in acinar
cells (right, chr9:135,800,000-136,000,000, scale: 0-10 CPM).

Figure 3. Cell type-specific enrichment and mechanisms of T1D risk variants. (a) Relative 868 869 LD score regression enrichment z-scores (enrichment relative to background genomic 870 annotations including a merged set of all peaks) for autoimmune and inflammatory diseases (top), 871 other diseases (middle), and non-disease guantitative endophenotypes (bottom) for cCREs active 872 in pancreatic and blood cell types and states. ***FDR<.001 **FDR<.01 *FDR<.1. (b) T1D 873 enrichment within cell type-specific cCREs. Labeled clusters have a positive enrichment estimate. 874 Points represent log-transformed fgwas enrichment estimates and lines represent 95% 875 confidence intervals. (c) Breakdown of cumulative fine mapping probability (PPA) (left) and fine 876 mapped variants (right). Variants and their probabilities are assigned without replacement to 877 annotations from top to bottom. Variants are first broken down by genomic annotations (top), and 878 variants overlapping a distal peak are further broken down by cell type groups (bottom). CD4 T 879 cell: naïve CD4 T + activated CD4 + regulatory T; exocrine: acinar + ductal; endocrine: GCG^{high} 880 alpha + GCG^{low} alpha + INS^{high} beta + INS^{low} beta + SST^{high} delta + SST^{low} delta + gamma; 881 monocyte/MΦ: classical monocyte + non-classical monocyte + pancreatic macrophage; NK cell: 882 cvtotoxic NK + adaptive NK: B cell: naïve B + memory B: CD8 T cell: naïve CD8 T + activated 883 CD8 T + pancreatic CD8 T; other cell: megakaryocytes + activated stellate + guiescent stellate + 884 endothelial; dendritic: conventional dendritic + plasmacytoid dendritic. (d) Signals with the highest 885 cumulative PPA for cell type groups with at least 2.5 cumulative PPA. (e) The GP2 signal contains 886 3 variants (rs4238595, rs8060932, and rs8060932) in a distal peak upstream of the GP2 promoter 887 (top, chr16:20,300,000-20,380,000). These variants are linked to GP2 through co-accessibility in 888 acinar cells and account for the majority of the causal probability (cumulative PPA=.98) for the 889 signal (middle). Genome browser tracks (bottom) show that chromatin accessibility at both the 890 peak and the GP2 promoter is highly specific to acinar cells. (f) The top variant at the 891 CTRB1/2/BCAR1 signal rs72802342 (middle) overlaps a distal peak co-accessible with the 892 CTRB2 and CTRB1 promoters in acinar cells (top: chr16:75,220,000-75,260,000, hg19). Genome 893 browser tracks (bottom, scale: 0-15) show that chromatin accessibility at the CTRB1 and CTRB2

promoters are highly specific to acinar cells. Fine mapped variants are colored based on linkage
disequilibrium to the index variant. Variants contained in the 99% credible set are circled in black.

896 Figure 4. Fine-mapped variant at the CFTR locus mediates T1D risk through distal 897 regulation of CFTR in pancreatic ductal cells. (a) The CFTR locus contains a single fine-898 mapped variant (rs7795896) in a distal cCRE linked to the promoter of CFTR and several other 899 genes through co-accessibility (top; region shown: chr7:116,490,000-117,860,000). The cCRE is 900 located approximately 33 kb upstream of the CFTR promoter. Zoomed-in view (chr7:117.040.000-901 117,140,000, scale: 0-5 CPM) of fine mapped variants (middle) and genome browser tracks 902 (bottom) at this locus show that the cCRE is highly specific to ductal cells. (b) Luciferase reporter 903 assay in Capan-1 cells transfected with pGL4.23 minimal promoter plasmids containing 904 rs7795896 in the forward orientation. Relative luciferase units represent Firefly: Renilla ratios 905 normalized to control cells transfected with the empty vector. P-values are from a two-tailed 906 Student's t-test. (c) Electrophoretic mobility shift assay (EMSA) with nuclear extract from Capan-907 1 cells using probes from both alleles of rs7795896. Bands with specific binding are labeled. (d) 908 CRISPR interference-mediated inactivation of the distal site containing rs7795896 (CFTR^{iEnh}; 2 909 guide RNAs; 3 replicates; n=6 total) or the CFTR promoter (CFTR^{iProm}; n=3 replicates) in CAPAN-910 1 cells. Differential analysis of genes with promoters co-accessible with the peak show that CFTR expression is significantly reduced in both CFTR^{iProm} and CFTR^{iEnh} cells. Data are shown as 911 912 transcripts per million (TPM). Error bars show 95% confidence interval and datapoints underlying 913 each boxplot are shown. (e) Bayesian colocalization showing that the T1D risk signal (top) and 914 CFTR pancreas eQTL from GTEx v7 (bottom) are likely driven by the same causal variant. 915 Variants are colored based on the linkage disequilibrium to the index variant. Variants in the 99% 916 credible set are circled in black. (f) Heatmap showing the average expression (normalized counts, 917 scaled from 0-1 across cell types) of marker genes of different pancreatic cell types from single 918 cell RNA-seq. CFTR expression is highly specific to ductal cells. (g) Deconvolution of the CFTR 919 pancreas eQTL using *in-silico* cell type proportion estimation and re-analyses of GTEx pancreas 920 data using interaction analyses shows that the eQTL signal only has a significant interaction with 921 ductal cell proportion. (h) Forest plot showing association of pancreatic disease traits in a meta-922 analysis of UK Biobank and FinnGen data for rs7795896 compared to association of autoimmune 923 traits from large European GWAS. (i) Variants regulating genes with specialized function in the 924 exocrine pancreas influence risk of type 1 diabetes. At the CFTR locus, a variant reducing ductal 925 cell enhancer activity and CFTR expression increases risk of T1D and other pancreatic disease, 926 and we hypothesize that these effects are mediated through inflammation and immune infiltration 927 in the exocrine pancreas.

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(Mb)

30.2

30.6

31.0

(Mb)

135.85

135.90

135.95

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f

monocyte/MΦ a cMono / ncMono

75.22

dendritic

other cell

■ pDC ■ cDC

endothel. MKC quies. / act. stell.

75.23

75.24

Chromosome 16 (Mb)

75.25

75.26



Alzheimer's disease
Type 2 diabetes
Chronic kidney disease
Coronary artery disease
Bipolar disorder
Major depressive disorder
Autism spectrum disorder
Anorexia nervosa
Schizophrenia







