

# A Statistical Framework to Identify Cell Types Whose Genetically Regulated Proportions are Associated with Complex Diseases

Hongyu Zhao (✉ [hongyu.zhao@yale.edu](mailto:hongyu.zhao@yale.edu))

Yale University <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1195-9607>

Wei Liu

Yale University <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2558-1377>

Wenxuan Deng

Yale University

Ming Chen

Yale University

Zihan Dong

Yale University

Biqing Zhu

Yale University <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7428-6297>

Zhaolong Yu

Yale University <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9585-2465>

Daiwei Tang

Yale University

Maor Sauler

Yale University <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5240-7978>

Louise Wain

University of Leicester <https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4951-1867>

Michael Cho

Brigham and Women's Hospital <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4907-1657>

Naftali Kaminski

Yale University <https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5917-4601>

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## Article

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1 **A Statistical Framework to Identify Cell Types Whose Genetically Regulated**  
2 **Proportions are Associated with Complex Diseases**

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4 Wei Liu<sup>1,#</sup>, Wenxuan Deng<sup>2,#</sup>, Ming Chen<sup>2,#</sup>, Zihan Dong<sup>2</sup>, Biqing Zhu<sup>1</sup>, Zhaolong Yu<sup>1</sup>, Daiwei  
5 Tang<sup>2</sup>, Maor Sauler<sup>3</sup>, Louise V. Wain<sup>4,5</sup>, Michael H. Cho<sup>6,7</sup>, Naftali Kaminski<sup>3</sup>, Hongyu Zhao<sup>1,2,\*</sup>

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7 <sup>1</sup> Program of Computational Biology and Bioinformatics, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA  
8 06510

9 <sup>2</sup> Department of Biostatistics, Yale School of Public Health, New Haven, CT, USA 06510

10 <sup>3</sup> Pulmonary, Critical Care and Sleep Medicine, Yale School of Medicine, New Haven, CT, USA  
11 06510

12 <sup>4</sup> Department of Health Sciences, University of Leicester, Leicester, United Kingdom

13 <sup>5</sup> National Institute for Health Research, Leicester Respiratory Biomedical Research Centre,  
14 Glenfield Hospital, Leicester, United Kingdom

15 <sup>6</sup> Channing Division of Network Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical  
16 School, Boston, MA

17 <sup>7</sup> Pulmonary and Critical Care Medicine, Brigham and Women's Hospital, Harvard Medical School,  
18 Boston, MA.

19 # These authors contributed equally to this work

20 \* To whom the correspondence should be addressed

21 Dr. Hongyu Zhao,

22 Department of Biostatistics

23 Yale School of Public Health

24 60 College Street,

25 New Haven, CT, 06520, USA

26 [hongyu.zhao@yale.edu](mailto:hongyu.zhao@yale.edu)

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29

30 **Abstract**

31 Finding disease-relevant tissues and cell types can facilitate the identification and investigation of  
32 functional genes and variants. In particular, cell type proportions can serve as potential disease  
33 predictive biomarkers. Here, we introduce a novel statistical framework, cell-type Wide  
34 Association Study (cWAS), that integrates genetic data with transcriptomics data to identify cell  
35 types whose genetically regulated proportions (GRPs) are disease/trait-associated. On simulated  
36 and real GWAS data, cWAS showed substantial statistical power with newly identified significant  
37 GRP associations in disease-associated tissues. More specifically, GRPs of endothelial and  
38 myofibroblasts in lung tissue were associated with Idiopathic Pulmonary Fibrosis and Chronic  
39 Obstructive Pulmonary Disease, respectively. For breast cancer, the GRP of blood CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells  
40 was negatively associated with breast cancer (BC) risk as well as survival. Overall, cWAS is a  
41 powerful tool to reveal cell types associated with complex diseases mediated by GRPs.

## 42 **Introduction**

43 Despite the great success of genome-wide association studies (GWAS), it has been challenging to  
44 identify disease-causing genes and variants. To better design functional studies of GWAS  
45 implicated SNPs, it is important to identify tissues and cell types most relevant to a disease. Several  
46 statistical approaches have been developed for this purpose<sup>1-3</sup>. In general, these methods aim to  
47 detect statistically significant overlap between GWAS signals and annotated functional regions in  
48 specific tissues and cell types, where the annotated functional regions are curated from other data  
49 sources, such as ENCODE and Roadmap Epigenomics data and single cell data. Although such  
50 analyses have led to novel insights on disease mechanisms<sup>1,4-7</sup>, the cell types associated with the  
51 majority of genomic regions remain to be discovered.

52

53 Several studies have found that the proportions of cell types are not only associated with disease  
54 incidence<sup>8,9</sup> but also disease prognosis<sup>10,11</sup>. Single cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) technologies have  
55 been used to identify cell type proportions that impact human diseases and traits<sup>12</sup>. However,  
56 several intrinsic characteristics of single cell data make disease-cell type proportion association  
57 analysis challenging. First, high expense and technical noise (e.g., high sparsity of gene expression)  
58 limit the number of samples analyzed and quality of cell type composition estimation, leading to  
59 low power in association analysis. Second, cell type compositions measured in single cell  
60 experiments are highly dependent on the biopsy samples and do not necessarily reflect the true cell  
61 type compositions in the corresponding tissue<sup>13</sup>. Instead of directly calculating cell type  
62 proportions from scRNA-seq data, cell type proportions can also be inferred through  
63 deconvolution of bulk RNA-sequencing (RNA-seq) data available with larger sample sizes. Many  
64 computational methods have been developed to estimate cell type proportions in bulk RNA-seq

65 data using cell type-specific gene expression signatures derived from either microarray or scRNA-  
66 seq reference<sup>12</sup>. Compared with biopsy samples in single cell analyses, tissue samples for bulk  
67 analysis might better represent the original cell type compositions<sup>8,12</sup>.

68

69 For both single cell and bulk data, cell type proportions can be affected by various factors including  
70 disease status and treatment effects. Consequently, the observed cell type proportion differences  
71 between disease and healthy individuals might be the outcome of the disease and environmental  
72 factors instead of disease causes.

73

74 Unlike assayed gene expression levels, genotypes are less likely to be affected by confounding  
75 factors and reverse causation. The same idea underlies Mendelian randomization methods to infer  
76 causal factors for different traits<sup>9,10,14</sup>. In this paper, we examined genetically regulated proportions  
77 (GRPs) of cell types. We note that cell type proportions are heritable<sup>11,15</sup>, suggesting the feasibility  
78 of inferring cell type proportions based on genotypes. Cell type proportions can vary substantially  
79 in patients with different diseases<sup>16</sup>. We introduce a new framework, cell type Wide Association  
80 Study (cWAS), to consider the GRPs of cell types as contributors to human disease. Through  
81 simulation studies and real data analyses across 55 traits in 36 tissues, cWAS showed higher  
82 statistical power in identifying disease-cell type proportion associations than typical cell-disease  
83 association identification approaches like FUMA<sup>3</sup>. In summary, cWAS offers a novel way to  
84 understand human diseases in a cell-type specific manner.

85

86

## 87 **Results**

### 88 **Model summary**

89 We propose a statistical framework to identify cell types whose GRPs are associated with diseases.  
90 The framework consists of two parts (**Figure 1**). First, under the assumption that there exist  
91 signature genes signifying specific cell types (consistent with previous methods<sup>15,17</sup>), we infer  
92 GRPs of cell types through deconvolution of the imputed tissue-specific gene expression levels  
93 based on cis-SNP genotypes from eQTL data. Second, we combine the GRPs with disease  
94 phenotype information to identify cell-type proportion associations with disease phenotypes.

95

96 In the first step, we build tissue-specific gene expression imputation models using the elastic net,  
97 similar to previous Transcriptome-wide association study (TWAS) methods<sup>18–20</sup>. With the  
98 imputation weights  $\hat{\beta}_{gt}$ , we obtain the estimation of genetically regulated tissue-level gene  
99 expression for gene  $g$  in tissue  $t$  as  $\hat{B}_{gt} = X_g \hat{\beta}_{gt}$ , where  $X_g$  is the genotype matrix of cis-SNPs  
100 around gene  $g$ . With pre-obtained cell-type specific gene expression levels for signature genes, we  
101 deconvolute the genetically imputed tissue-level expression data through the following model:

$$102 \quad \hat{B}_t = \hat{F}_t S_t^T,$$

103 where  $S_t \in R^{G \times C}$  is the cell-type specific gene expression level matrix in tissue  $t$  for  $G$  signature  
104 genes across  $C$  cell types,  $\hat{F}_t$  is the estimated GRPs for all cell types in tissue  $t$ , and  $\hat{B}_t$  is the  
105 imputed gene expression level matrix for all signature genes in tissue  $t$ . For a specific cell type  $c$ ,  
106 we assess its GRP association with phenotype  $Y$  using the following model:

$$107 \quad Y = \hat{F}_{(c),t} \gamma_c + \eta,$$

108 where  $\gamma_c$  is the effect of GRP for cell type  $c$  on the trait and  $\eta$  is noise.  $\hat{F}_{(c),t}$  is the estimated GRPs  
109 of a cell type  $c$ , which is the  $c$ th column of the  $\hat{F}_t$  matrix. However, individual-level genotype data

110 are not always available for GWAS, which makes the direct estimation of  $\gamma_c$  from the above two-  
111 step procedure unfeasible. With only summary statistics available, we propose to use the following  
112 approach to assessing the association between GRPs of a cell type  $c$  and traits

$$113 \quad z_c \approx \sum_p se(X_p) z_p \hat{\beta}_{tp} S_t (S_t^T S_t)^{-1}_{\cdot,c} / se(\hat{F}_c),$$

114 where  $se(X_p)$  is the genotype standard deviation of SNP  $p$ , calculated from a reference panel;  $z_p$   
115 is the GWAS z score for SNP  $p$ ;  $\hat{\beta}_{tp}$  is the imputed tissue-level gene expression vector of SNP  $p$   
116 across  $G$  signature genes in tissue  $t$ , and  $(\cdot)_{\cdot,c}$  stands for the  $c$ th column vector of the corresponding  
117 matrix. cWAS takes the GWAS summary statistics as the input, which provides an indirect way  
118 of estimating cell-type GRP associations with diseases that do not require individual-level data.  
119 More model details are presented in the methods section, and the cWAS framework for GWAS  
120 summary statistics is available at <https://github.com/vivid-/cWAS>.

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### 123 **Simulation studies**

124 To evaluate cWAS performance in identifying cell type proportions associated with a disease, we  
125 considered several simulation settings (**Methods**). We simulated disease phenotypes based on  
126 genetically predicted proportions of M1 macrophages in whole blood, using 10,000 individuals  
127 randomly sampled from UK Biobank<sup>21</sup>. Under moderate heritability settings, where genetic-  
128 regulated cell type proportions explain 1% to 9% of the phenotype variances, cWAS had at least  
129 98% power to identify M1 macrophages' association with the phenotype when all signature genes  
130 were known and used (**Figure 2a**, the purple dashed line). Furthermore, M1 macrophage was  
131 identified as the most significant cell type in at least 70% of 600 replicates (**Figure 2b**) when



132 heritability was 4% or higher, and the effect of M1 macrophages identified by cWAS had the same  
133 direction as that simulated in at least 90% of 600 replicates, while FUMA only identified  
134 macrophages as the significant cell type in around 15% of 600 replicates (**S Table 1**). When we  
135 simulated phenotypes independent of cell type proportions in whole blood tissue, cWAS had a  
136 well-controlled type I error rate (**Figure 2c**).

137  
138 One critical point of cWAS is the reliability of cell type specific gene expression signatures. Many  
139 cell-type deconvolution methods also depend on the accurate curation of the signature matrix, such  
140 as those from microarray data of known cell types (like the LM22 matrix used in CIBERSORT<sup>17</sup>).  
141 However, in many cases, we have to derive a signature matrix from single-cell data, which are  
142 usually highly sparse and only include cell type-specific expression levels of a subset of signature  
143 genes. Consequently, the signature genes curated from single-cell data may be incomplete  
144 compared to those from more informative data sources, such as RNA-seq assayed in known cell  
145 types. To evaluate the impact of incomplete genes in the signature matrix, we considered using a  
146 subset (50%-90%) of signature genes in cWAS. When only half of the signature genes were used,  
147 there was a significant drop in statistical power although the type I error was still well-controlled  
148 (**Figure 2d**). With an increasing proportion of signature genes used, there was improved power in  
149 identifying associated cell types (**Figure 2a**).

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## 152 **Trait-tissue association patterns**

153 To further study disease-cell type proportion associations, we applied cWAS to GWAS summary  
154 data from 55 traits (**S Table 2**, including autoimmune diseases, psychiatric disorders, and other

155 traits like lipids and height) together with scRNA-seq data from the Human Cell Landscape  
156 (HCL)<sup>22</sup>. We identified trait-associated cell types in 23 adult non-brain tissues and 13 fetal brain  
157 tissues (**S Table 3**) using eQTLs for curated signature genes (**Methods, S Fig. 1**). Consistent with  
158 findings from other methods, we found that the most significant cell types are usually present in  
159 the trait-associated tissues<sup>1,23</sup> (**Figure 3a, S Fig. 2**) supporting the validity of cWAS, e.g.,  
160 oligodendrocytes from fetal brain amygdala for autism spectrum disorder (ASD) ( $p= 3.0e-3$ ),  
161 myeloid progenitor cells from whole blood for Crohn's disease ( $p=3.6e-5$ ), and endothelial cells  
162 from a tibial artery for heart rate (HR) ( $p=4.0e-9$ ). Several traits showed global cell type proportion  
163 associations across multiple tissues, e.g., height and body mass index (BMI). This can be partly  
164 explained by large sample sizes in BMI and height GWAS, as we also observed a significant  
165 positive correlation ( $p=8.4e-4$ ,  $cor=0.88$ ) between the number of associated cell types and the  
166 sample size of BMI and height GWAS when we down-sampled the GWAS results (**Methods**).  
167 Notably, cWAS identified many cell type-trait associations in unexpected tissues. Many of them  
168 are immune cells, for example, neutrophil cells in fetal brain frontal cortex are associated with  
169 systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) ( $p=5.8e-4$ ), and macrophages from subcutaneous adipose and  
170 neutrophils from the left ventricle of the heart are associated with anxiety disorders (ADIS)  
171 ( $p=7.4e-3$  and  $1.6e-3$ , respectively).

172  
173 Since several cell types (**S Table 4**), especially immune cells, are present in multiple adult tissues,  
174 we further investigated whether those identified disease-associated immune cell types above are  
175 due to true biological process or false positives by studying tissue-tissue correlations based on  
176 shared cell types' associations with traits (**Methods**). Compared to biologically unrelated tissue  
177 pairs, the results showed a higher correlation among tissues with similar biological functions

178 (Figure 3b), such as artery tissues (tibial artery, coronary artery, and aorta artery), heart tissues  
179 (left heart ventricle and heart atrial appendage), and esophagus tissues (esophagus muscularis and  
180 esophagus mucosa). This finding suggests that cell types are more likely to be identified as trait-  
181 associated in disease-related tissues even though the same cell types may exist in multiple tissues.

182

183 We also evaluated correlations among traits based on their associations with different cell types  
184 across 23 adult non-brain tissues and 13 fetal brain tissues, respectively (S Table 5). In 23 adult  
185 non-brain tissues, we identified high correlations among many traits, e.g., autoimmune diseases  
186 including eczema and SLE; lipid traits like total cholesterol (TC), low-density lipoprotein  
187 cholesterol (LDL), and triglycerides (TG) (Figure 4a). Brain tissue associated traits have higher  
188 correlations based on estimates using fetal brain tissues (Figure 4b) compared to those from adult  
189 non-brain tissues. For example, Alzheimer's disease (AD) is clustered with autoimmune-related  
190 traits in adult non-brain tissues, whereas it is correlated with psychiatric traits like bipolar disorders  
191 (BD) and ADHD in fetal brain tissues. For some other traits, their correlations in 13 fetal brain  
192 tissues were similar to those identified in adult non-brain tissues. For example, a positive  
193 correlation between ASD and ADHD was observed for both adult tissues ( $R^2=0.33$ ,  $p=1.4e-7$ ) and  
194 fetal brain tissues ( $0.55$ ,  $p=7.9e-16$ ). Moreover, we observed correlations in different directions  
195 between fetal brain tissues and adult non-brain tissues. For example, smoking initiation (SmkInit)  
196 and asthma had a positive correlation in fetal brain tissues ( $0.35$ ,  $p=1.1e-6$ ) but a negative  
197 correlation in adult non-brain tissues ( $-0.33$ ,  $p=1.2e-7$ ). The associations identified between asthma  
198 and neuronal cells in fetal brain tissues may be supported by previous findings linking neural  
199 pathways to allergic inflammation in lungs<sup>24,25</sup>.

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**Breast cancer and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells**

To further examine the potential utility of cWAS using specific datasets, we applied cWAS to identify cell types for breast cancer and two lung diseases. For breast cancer (BC), we used European breast cancer GWAS summary data<sup>26</sup>(n=228,951, n\_case=122,977, n\_control=105,974). In whole blood, we identified a significant negative association between GRPs of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells and BC risk (**Figure 5a**) (p=8.9e-9) using the published signature gene expression matrix LM22<sup>12,17</sup>.

To explore potential biological and clinical implications of this result, we imputed genetic-regulated cell type proportions in whole blood for subjects with European ancestry in The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA) project who were diagnosed with BC (TCGA-BRCA)<sup>27</sup> (see **Methods**). We found that basal breast cancer patients with higher imputed CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell proportions had an overall better survival (**Figure 5b**, p=0.085). Results were similar but significant (p=0.034) for luminal B breast cancer patients (**Figure 5c**). We also considered an alternative approach to evaluating cell-type specific expression patterns of BC-associated genes identified using epigenetic annotations and genetic signals (T-GEN<sup>28</sup>). BC-associated genes showed no significant expression enrichment in any cell type of whole blood other than a significant depletion in dividing NK T cells (fold-change=0.79, p=1.6e-8) (**S Fig. 3a**). Furthermore, BC-associated genes identified by T-GEN did not show significantly higher expression levels in T cells or any other cell types (**S Fig. 3b**).

223 To further validate the results, we studied BC-cell type proportion association using another cell  
224 type proportion decomposition approach<sup>29</sup>. In this case, the cell type proportion association result  
225 was based on the directly measured tumor tissue transcriptome data from TCGA-BRCA. We found  
226 a similar protective effect of the CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell proportion ( $p=0.013$ ) in basal breast cancer patients  
227 (**S Fig. 4a**), but not in luminal breast cancer patients (**S Fig. 4b, 4c**).

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### 230 **Lung diseases and lung tissue**

231 Using single cell data<sup>30</sup> with better quality than HCL data to identify cell types with small  
232 proportions, we performed cWAS analysis for two lung diseases, idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis  
233 (IPF,  $n=24,589$ ,  $n_{\text{case}}=4,124$ ,  $n_{\text{control}}=20,465$ )<sup>31</sup> and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease  
234 (COPD,  $n=5,346$ ,  $n_{\text{case}}=2,812$ ,  $n_{\text{control}}=2,534$ )<sup>32</sup>. In IPF, a higher predicted proportion of  
235 myofibroblast in lung tissue was associated with an increased risk of developing the disease  
236 ( $p=5.3e-4$ , **Figure 6a**), consistent with the accumulation of myofibroblasts observed in IPF  
237 patients<sup>33</sup>. We also observed a negative association of fibroblast proportions in the development  
238 of IPF ( $p=3.5e-2$ ), which is consistent with aberrant fibroblast-to-myofibroblast<sup>34</sup> differentiation  
239 and fibroblast degeneration and myofibroblast proliferation<sup>35</sup> in IPF.

240

241 To further evaluate cell type associations with IPF, we investigated the cell type expression pattern  
242 of IPF dysregulated genes by conventional transcriptomics analysis. Using differentially expressed  
243 genes from the published<sup>36</sup> RNA-seq data of lung tissue in IPF patients ( $n=36$ ) and non-disease  
244 individuals ( $n=19$ ), we found that upregulated genes in IPF patients were significantly enriched in  
245 myofibroblasts (fold change=1.3,  $p=1.4e-3$ , **Figure 6b**). However, genes differentially expressed

246 in myofibroblasts can result either from genetic effects or disease status. We further analyzed the  
247 cell type signal based on genetic information using IPF GWAS summary statistics. Applying  
248 MAGMA (implemented in FUMA, see URLs) to the IPF GWAS results (**S Fig. 5a**), we found  
249 marginal evidence of enriched genetic signals in the fibroblasts of lung tissue ( $p=7.5e-2$ ). IPF-  
250 associated genes identified by T-GEN<sup>37</sup> did not show any significant enrichment in any cell type  
251 of lung. Therefore, though neither was significant after Bonferroni correction, both transcriptomic  
252 and gene-set based genetic analyses suggest the importance of myofibroblasts and fibroblasts  
253 consistent with cWAS.

254

255 For COPD, cWAS found higher GRPs of endothelial cells increased disease risk ( $p=2.1e-4$ , **Figure**  
256 **6c**). To further investigate the association, we applied cWAS in additional GWAS of a larger  
257 sample size with a signature matrix having more refined cell types (**Methods**). One specific  
258 endothelial cell type, vascular endothelial capillary A, was positively associated ( $p=3.9e-4$ ) with  
259 COPD based on results from another GWAS ( $N=257,811$ )<sup>38</sup>. Upregulated genes in COPD patient  
260 lung tissue<sup>36</sup> were also enriched in endothelial cells (fold change=1.4,  $p\text{-value}=1.4e-2$ ) (**Figure**  
261 **6d**). Similar to IPF analysis, we also investigated COPD genetic signal enrichment using MAGMA  
262 on mouse lung data (no human lung data available in FUMA, **S Table 6**). There was marginal  
263 evidence of signal enrichment in endothelial cells in the lung tissue ( $p=8e-2$ , **S Fig. 5b**) and lung  
264 vasculature ( $p=2.8e-2$ , **S Fig. 5c**). Similar to the results in IPF, T-GEN-identified genes in COPD  
265 did not show any enrichment in cell types of lung. Nevertheless, these results support the cWAS  
266 results indicating a role for endothelial cells in COPD.

267

268

269 We further validated the findings on IPF-myofibroblast and COPD-endothelial associations using  
270 another lung scRNA-seq dataset<sup>30</sup>. This recent study profiled 32 IPF patients, 18 COPD patients,  
271 and 28 controls, and we compared major cell type proportions across these three groups of samples  
272 (**S Fig. 6a**). In IPF patients, the myofibroblast cell type proportion was significantly increased  
273 ( $p=1.3e-3$ , **Figure 7a**) compared with other major cell types (**Figure 7b**). We also conducted  
274 pathway analysis on both up- and down-regulated genes in IPF myofibroblast cells (**Figure 7c**).  
275 The top enriched pathways of upregulated genes mostly function as the extracellular matrix<sup>39</sup>  
276 (ECM), a network playing an important role in cell adhesion and linking glycoproteins with fibrous  
277 proteins, supporting the importance of the fibroblast-to-myofibroblast migration process in IPF. In  
278 COPD, despite low endothelial cell counts and the limited sample size in the single cell data (**S**  
279 **Fig 6b**), analysis of upregulated genes in COPD endothelial cells (**Figure 7d, S Fig 6b, 6c, 6d**)  
280 suggests the involvement of DNA-binding transcription activity and higher activity of COPD  
281 endothelial cells compared to control endothelial cells.

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283

## 284 **Discussion**

285 Recent analyses have devoted great efforts to understand GWAS findings in traits and diseases.  
286 Several methods have been developed to link identified variants to genes based on genomic  
287 locations<sup>2</sup>, epigenetic annotations, or eQTL regulations<sup>18</sup>. At the cell type or tissue level, methods  
288 like LD score regression<sup>40</sup> and FUMA<sup>3</sup> either utilize annotation information or expression data to  
289 investigate the genetic enrichment pattern in cell types or tissues. Differing from previous methods,  
290 cWAS is a novel statistical framework to interpret GWAS findings in a cell type proportion manner.  
291 It helps researchers gain insights into the relationship between cell type GRPs and diseases. cWAS

292 is complementary to cell type-disease associations identified solely through genetic association or  
293 heritability enrichment, especially when genetic signals are mediated by regulating cell type  
294 proportions. Identified disease-associated cell type proportions can potentially serve as biological  
295 markers in clinical practices to identify patients with higher genetic risk<sup>41,42</sup>. Applying cWAS to  
296 GWAS summary statistics from 55 traits, we found that previously genetically correlated traits  
297 also have correlated associations with GRPs of cell types. Applications of cWAS to Breast Cancer,  
298 IPF, and COPD identified cell type proportion-trait associations, which were supported by either  
299 previous findings or our analysis of other data. Specifically, a high proportion of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells was  
300 identified as protective in breast cancer development based on both transcriptome and cWAS  
301 analyses. Survival analysis using imputed GRPs of cell types also implied a protective effect of  
302 higher CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell proportion in breast cancer prognosis. All these findings support the importance  
303 of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell proportions for both disease onset and prognosis in breast cancer.

304

305 We noted that transcriptome analyses of breast cancer patients have also identified the importance  
306 of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells. Utilizing breast tumor infiltration data, multiple published survival studies<sup>43,44</sup>  
307 found protective effects of high CD8<sup>+</sup> T cell proportions in the tumor tissue for breast cancer. In  
308 contrast to TCGA results based on observed breast tissue expression data, cWAS identifies  
309 genetically regulated cell type proportions in whole blood, which are more likely to cause the  
310 development of the disease instead of being affected by the disease status. Although the  
311 mechanisms in the prognosis and the development of breast cancer are not necessarily the same,  
312 the converging evidence from different approaches used here suggests the importance of CD8<sup>+</sup> T  
313 cells in breast cancer.

314



315 We also note that previous COPD research has already implied the importance of endothelial  
316 cells<sup>45</sup>, which are involved in both the initiation and progression of COPD as well as other lung  
317 diseases, such as asthma and emphysema. More specifically, endothelial cells play a role in the  
318 transendothelial migration (TEM), through which neutrophils move to lung tissue and respond to  
319 the residential inflammation<sup>46</sup>. Additionally, endothelial apoptosis in lung initiates and contributes  
320 to the progression of COPD disease<sup>45,47</sup>. Previous genetic research also identified the importance  
321 of endothelial cells in COPD<sup>38</sup> using ATAC-seq data and emphysema<sup>48</sup>. This further lends support  
322 to the involvement of endothelial cells in developing COPD.

323

324 Similar to many statistical methods, cWAS is also highly dependent on the data used, more  
325 specifically, the single cell data. The single cell data used in signature gene expression curation  
326 can affect cWAS performance, including the cell types included and the signature gene expression  
327 levels. More single cell databases with larger sample sizes, higher resolution and more comparable  
328 experiment pipelines across more tissues will aid in its further application and result interpretation.  
329 To mitigate the batch effects across various tissues, for trait-trait correlation analysis and multi-  
330 tissue association analysis, we used the HCL dataset to extract signature gene matrices since the  
331 test results will be comparable across tissues due to relatively small batch effects and the same cell  
332 labeling criteria in all tissues. For BC, we used the LM22 matrix, which was curated based on the  
333 Affymetrix microarray data, to extract the signature matrix in whole blood. In IPF and COPD, the  
334 signature matrix was curated using single cell data of lung from HCL, which consists of 23,878  
335 cells from 20 cell types. Notably, due to randomness of obtaining samples in experiments, cell  
336 type composition in lung single cell data can be strongly biased, with 90% of the cells being  
337 immune cells. Despite this limitation, we identified a non-immune cell population in COPD. Our

338 results based on fetal brain single cell data relied on the assumption that the genetic regulation of  
339 gene expression is the same in both adult and fetal tissues. The assumption could be violated for  
340 tissues still undergoing development in fetuses<sup>49</sup>. The accuracy of cWAS results could be further  
341 improved if matched genotype and cell type proportion data were available for identifying cell  
342 type proportion QTLs.

343  
344 Nevertheless, future work can further expand the potential of cWAS analysis. First, considering  
345 the differentiation trajectory between cell types will further better pinpoint the associated cell types  
346 or even causal cell types, but will also limit the application of cWAS since not all differentiation  
347 trajectories are known in human tissues. Second, when analyzing specific traits across tissues to  
348 identify the most signal-enriched tissue, we found that traits like BMI and height are associated  
349 with cell types in almost all tissues, even though both BMI ( $p=1.4e-13$ ) and height ( $p<2e-16$ ) has  
350 the strongest signal in whole blood tissue. The results can be affected by the comparably large  
351 sample size of BMI and height GWAS as well as the complex biological processes involved in  
352 these traits. Future work can explore the potential of jointly modeling multiple traits to identify  
353 trait-specific associations with cell type proportions.

354  
355 To conclude, different from bulk RNA-seq or scRNA-seq analysis comparing patients and healthy  
356 individuals, cWAS assesses the association between GRPs of cell types and diseases. In addition  
357 to typical genetic enrichment methods like MAGMA and LD score regression, cWAS provides a  
358 novel way to investigate the cell type-disease association. Both simulation and real data analyses  
359 have demonstrated the statistical power of cWAS in providing new insights in understanding the  
360 genetic etiology of human diseases from the cell type proportion perspective.

361

## 362 **Online Methods**

### 363 **Expression imputation model training**

364 Tissue-specific expression imputation models were trained in 44 tissues using matched individual-  
365 level RNA-seq and whole-genome sequencing data from the GTEx (v8) project. We focused on  
366 common SNPs (minor allele frequencies  $> 0.05$ ) by filtering out SNPs whose allele frequencies  
367 were smaller than 0.05. RNA-seq data were adjusted for possible confounding factors, including  
368 the first five genotype principal components (PCs) and different numbers of Probabilistic  
369 Estimation of Expression Residuals (PEER) factors. Only cis-SNPs located within 1Mb from the  
370 transcription starting site of each gene were considered for training the gene expression imputation  
371 model.

372

373 Ten-fold cross-validated elastic-net models were applied to build gene expression imputation  
374 models, with the parameter  $\alpha$  as 0.5 and the optimal  $\lambda$  selected via the function `cv.glmnet` provided  
375 in the ‘glmnet’ package. Only gene expression imputation models with  $FDR < 0.05$  were  
376 considered in the following analysis. To make the test results more robust, we only considered  
377 those models with an imputation accuracy higher than the median level in each tissue.

378

379

### 380 **Single cell datasets preprocessing**

381 All single-cell data used in this project were obtained from public repositories. In the trait  
382 association analysis, we obtained the tissue-specific signature matrices from the Human Cell  
383 Landscape (HCL)<sup>22</sup>, sequenced on the microwell-seq platform [1]. HCL provides a coherent  
384 sequencing procedure that can minimize the batch-effects to have a higher consistency, making

385 the trait-trait correlation analysis feasible. To better utilize HCL, we manually cleaned the cell type  
386 annotation across the tissues to have a consistent cell type naming rule.

387

388 We found that the curation of signature matrices might not be representative enough if they were  
389 only based on the raw counts due to the high drop-out rate of single cell data. To alleviate this  
390 problem, We applied SAVERX<sup>50</sup>, a deep Bayesian autoencoder single cell imputation tool  
391 implemented with transfer learning, on the single cell expression profile to impute drop-out events  
392 before signature matrix computation. SAVERX may distinguish the dropout and real zero  
393 expression, which helps to get a more accurate cell type-specific average expression. It is common  
394 when some single cell datasets have a rare cell population. The limited cell counts make the  
395 average expression profile across cells unstable for signature matrix. Therefore, we filtered out  
396 cell types with low counts and only kept the major cell types.

397

398 In lung disease analysis, to get the signature matrix with deeper sequencing depth and accurate  
399 cell type annotations, we used control samples in the IPF cell atlas, which contains 312,928 cells  
400 from subjects without IPF and without IPF. We partitioned the lung atlas randomly to get a smaller  
401 subset with 20,000 cells. For the signature matrix with more cell types, we include all observed  
402 cell types, while the signature matrix curated for the original two GWAS summary stats only  
403 included the main 20 cell types annotated in the IPF cell atlas.

404

405

406 **Association analysis**

407 After getting SNP weights  $\hat{\beta}_t$  on the tissue-specific gene expression imputation models, we further  
 408 combined them with published GWAS summary statistics to estimate cell-type associations with  
 409 disease phenotypes. For a specific cell type  $c$ , we consider the association between a phenotype  $Y$   
 410 and its genetically regulated cell type proportions  $\hat{F}_c$  as  $Y = \hat{F}_{(.,c),t}\gamma_c + \eta$ . From the linear  
 411 deconvolution of genetically imputed tissue-specific gene expression, we can estimate the  
 412 genetically regulated cell type proportion as follows:

$$413 \quad \hat{F}_t = \hat{B}_t S_t (S_t^T S_t)^{-1} = X \hat{\beta}_t S_t (S_t^T S_t)^{-1}$$

414 where  $\hat{F}_t$  is the cell type proportion matrix in tissue  $t$  and  $S_t$  is the expression matrix of cell-type  
 415 specific signature genes.

416

417 When the individual level data are not available, we cannot obtain the cell proportions  $\hat{F}_c$ . By  
 418 considering the genotype-phenotype association  $Y = X\omega + \eta_1$ , we can indirectly estimate the  
 419 coefficient  $\gamma_c$  as follows:

$$420 \quad \hat{\gamma}_c = \frac{\text{cov}(Y, \hat{F}_{(.,c),t})}{\text{var}(\hat{F}_{(.,c),t})} = \frac{\text{cov}(X\omega + \eta_1, X \hat{\beta}_t S_t (S_t^T S_t)^{-1})}{\text{var}(\hat{F}_{(.,c),t})}$$

$$421 \quad = \sum_p \frac{\text{var}(X_p) \omega_p M_{c,p}}{\text{var}(\hat{F}_{(.,c),t})}$$

422 where  $M_c = \hat{\beta}_t S_t A_c$  and  $A = (S_t^T S_t)^{-1}$ .

423

424 To further get the z-score statistics for each cell type  $z_c = \frac{\hat{\gamma}_c}{\text{se}(\hat{\gamma}_c)}$ , we would need to get the variance  
 425 of the estimated coefficients  $\hat{\gamma}_c$ . Based on simple linear regression, we can get:

$$426 \quad \text{var}(\hat{\gamma}_c) = \frac{\text{var}(\eta)}{n \times \text{var}(\hat{F}_{(.,c),t})} = \frac{\text{var}(Y)(1 - R_c^2)}{n \times \text{var}(\hat{F}_{(.,c),t})}$$

427 where  $R_c^2$  is the correlation between the phenotype  $Y$  and the predictor  $\hat{F}_{(c),t}$ . At the same time,  
 428 based on the phenotype-genotype association from GWAS, we would have:

$$429 \quad \text{var}(\omega_p) = \frac{\text{var}(Y)(1 - R_p^2)}{n \times \text{var}(X_p)}$$

430 where  $R_p^2$  is the correlation between the phenotype  $Y$  and the predictor  $\hat{X}_p$ . Combining the  
 431 equations above, we can get the  $z_c$  statistic formulated as follows:

$$432 \quad z_c = \sum_p \frac{\text{var}(X_p)\omega_p M_{c,p}}{\text{var}(\hat{F}_c)} / \text{se}(\hat{Y}_c)$$

$$433 \quad \approx \sum_p \text{se}(X_p)z_p M_{c,p} / \text{se}(\hat{Y}_c)$$

434 and  $z_p$  is the z-score for SNP  $p$  for GWAS summary stats for the phenotype of interest.

435

436

### 437 **Simulation**

438 In simulation studies, we randomly sampled 10,000 individuals from the UK Biobank dataset.

439 Based on their genotypes of common SNPs and gene expression imputation weights trained above,

440 we imputed their genetically regulated gene expression levels in whole blood and lung. Based on

441 the LM22 signature matrix and simple linear regression, we imputed the cell type proportions for

442 each sample in whole blood and used the signature matrix curated from the HCL database to get

443 the cell proportion for lung tissue. For power analysis, we simulated phenotypes based on the

444 imputed cell type proportion of M1 macrophages under different cis-eQTL heritability values from

445 0.01 to 0.09 by assuming the effect size of each cis-SNP follows the same normal distribution.

446 Here we defined the heritability as the phenotypic variance contributed by the imputed cell type

447 proportion of M1 macrophages. Then we used PLINK to conduct GWAS analysis to obtain the

448 GWAS summary results. Sex and first ten principal components of genotypes were adjusted. These  
449 GWAS summary results were used in the cWAS test to identify disease-cell type proportion  
450 association in whole blood. For the type-I error analysis, the disease phenotypes were simulated  
451 based on imputed proportions of basal cells in lung tissue. Similar to the analysis in the whole  
452 blood tissue, we obtained the GWAS summary statistics but the heritability we considered was  
453 0.05, 0.1, and 0.5. After getting the GWAS results, we applied cWAS to identify disease-cell type  
454 proportion associations in whole blood tissue.

455

456

#### 457 **Signature gene expression matrix curation**

458 Only protein-coding genes were considered here. We selected the signature genes by differential  
459 expression (DE) analysis, i.e., Wilcoxon rank sum test, Model-based Analysis of Single-cell  
460 Transcriptomics (MAST)<sup>51</sup>, and ANOVA. Among these methods, MAST is a DE framework that  
461 takes cell size and drop-out rates into consideration. The Wilcoxon Rank Sum test and MAST for  
462 DE analysis were conducted by the FindMarkers() command in package Seurat (3.1.5). Bonferroni  
463 correction at  $\alpha = 0.05$  was used. When a large number of DE genes were selected, we kept the DE  
464 genes which were upregulated and differential to a single cell population. We took the intersection  
465 between significant DE genes and the GTEx-V8 genes of the corresponding tissue and included  
466 them in the signature matrix. By setting different thresholds and applying appropriate DE analysis  
467 approaches for filtering, we aimed to get the signature matrices. We computed the cell type-  
468 specific gene signature matrices by the average expression levels across cells within cell  
469 populations in the final step.

470

471

## 472 **Survival analysis in TCGA data**

473 The imputation of the tissue-specific bulk RNA-seq expression for the TCGA-BRCA samples was  
474 based on individual germline genotypes and corresponding expression weights trained above. We  
475 followed the same procedure in the work of Huang et al. to process the germline genotypes<sup>27</sup> from  
476 TCGA. Missing SNPs were not considered.

477

478 After getting the imputed tissue-level gene expression, we used linear regression to estimate the  
479 genetically regulated cell type proportions for each sample. For survival analysis, we compared  
480 the disease-free survival times between groups with a high and lower percentage of genetically  
481 predicted cell type proportion of the identified cell type. More specifically, we extracted those two  
482 groups of samples with extremely high (e.g.: top 10%) or low genetically predicted cell type  
483 proportion levels. Then, we compared disease-free survival times for the samples with the top  
484 percentage of genetically regulated cell type proportion and those with a lower percentage of  
485 genetically regulated cell type proportion levels.

486

487

## 488 **Curation of GWAS summary data**

489 We collected GWAS summary data of 55 phenotypes, their detailed information can be found in  
490 supplementary table 2. We intentionally selected studies with most of the populations being  
491 European to reduce the bias due to population stratification. GWAS summary statistics were  
492 curated by first filtering out SNPs with minor allele frequencies less than 0.05. For datasets without  
493 rsID, we used the human genome reference build 37 to map to corresponding rsID. For datasets



494 without Z score or P-value, we manually obtained those columns using other available information  
495 such as beta, odds ratio, and standard error. After these steps, all GWAS summary statistics contain  
496 rsID, reference and alternative alleles, Z scores, p values, and sample sizes.

497

498 For down-sampled GWAS summary stats, we considered the z scores as  $z = \sqrt{n}\beta$ , where  $\beta$  is the  
499 reported effect sizes in GWAS results and  $n$  is the sample size. When we reduced the sample size  
500 of the GWAS summary stats, we consider the  $z_{downsample} = \frac{z_{original}}{\sqrt{R}}$ , where  $R$  is the ratio of the  
501 sample size in the original GWAS summary stats over the sample size in the down sampled GWAS  
502 summary stats. We considered  $R = 2, 3, 4, 5$  in our study here.

503

504

## 505 **MAGMA**

506 To generate annotations, gene location files using the human genome reference panel build 37  
507 were downloaded from the MAGMA software website as the input of the gene location file. The  
508 SNP location file was generated by extracting SNPs from curated GWAS summary data and  
509 mapping to genome locations using build 37. Annotations were generated with the command:  
510 `magma --annotate --snp-loc [SNPLOC_FILE] --gene-loc [GENELOC_FILE] --out`  
511 `[ANNOT_PREFIX].`

512 Next, gene analysis was performed for each phenotype using the annotation files generated from  
513 the previous step. European panels of the 1000 Genomes phase 3 data downloaded from the  
514 MAGMA software website were used as the reference. The following command was used to  
515 generate gene analysis results: `magma --bfile [REFDATA] --gene-annot`  
516 `[ANNOT_PREFIX].genes.annot --pval [PVAL_FILE] ncol=N snp-id=SNP pval=P --out`

517 [GENE\_PREFIX]. Finally, 161 processed single cell expression datasets provided by MAGMA  
518 were downloaded. To avoid duplicated cell types in multiple datasets from the same data resource,  
519 we manually selected 60 datasets (**S Table 6**) for the following analysis. MAGMA gene-property  
520 analyses (v1.07) were performed using the output of gene analysis and gene expression datasets  
521 processed as described above using the following command: magma --gene-results  
522 [GENE\_PREFIX].genes.raw --gene-covar [SCDATA] --model condition-hide=Average  
523 direction=greater --out [OUT\_PREFIX]. Bonferroni corrections were performed per dataset  
524 during the gene-property analyses to obtain significantly associated cell types.

525

526

#### 527 **Trait-cell type association analysis across tissues**

528 Using the signature gene matrix processed from the HCL database, we applied cWAS to obtain  
529 cell type association results for each trait across different tissues. To investigate trait-trait  
530 correlation, we considered the test-statistics (z scores) of all cell types in a trait as the  
531 representation vector of the trait. Then for any two traits, we computed the Pearson correlation  
532 between their two z score vectors and the corresponding p-value to quantify the similarity between  
533 these two traits with respect to cell type associations. Similarly, to consider the correlation of the  
534 effects of a shared cell type between tissues, for a specific cell type, we would treat its association  
535 z scores with all traits in one tissue as a vector  $v_1$ . We then put its association z scores with all  
536 traits in a second tissue as a vector  $v_2$ . To study the tissue-tissue correlation for the shared cell type  
537 effects, we calculated the Pearson correlation between  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ .

538

539 In the across-tissue analysis, for each trait, we firstly identified the significant cell type associations  
540 after the Bonferroni correction in each tissue. Then across all tissues, we identified the most  
541 significant cell type association signals.

542

543

#### 544 **Differentially expressed genes from bulk and cell type enrichment analysis**

545 Differentially expressed (DE) genes in IPF and COPD patients were downloaded from previous  
546 publications<sup>36,52</sup>. We curated the cell-type specific gene expression matrix in lung tissue using the  
547 published single cell data. Then for each gene, we identified the cell type with the highest  
548 expression. Then for each cell type, we analyzed the enrichment pattern of upregulated genes in  
549 patients compared to other genes in the cell type. The binomial test was used to test the significance  
550 level of the enrichment pattern and then Bonferroni correction was further applied to select the  
551 significant cell types.

552

553 The Gene Set Enrichment Analysis was conducted by the `gseGO()` command in package `clusterProfiler`  
554 (3.14.3). All the parameters were set to the defaults values, where Benjamin–Hochberg correction at  
555  $\alpha = 0.05$  was used as the cutoff.

556

557

#### 558 **URLs:**

559 Human cell landscape: <http://bis.zju.edu.cn/HCL/>

560 GTEx data: <https://gtexportal.org/home/>

561 Roadmap Epigenomics project: [https://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/web\\_portal/](https://egg2.wustl.edu/roadmap/web_portal/)

562 BC summary stats: <http://bcac.ccge.medschl.cam.ac.uk/>  
563 COPD summary stats: <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/24621683/>;  
564 <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/30804561/>  
565 IPF summary stats: <https://github.com/genomicsITER/PFgenetics>  
566 MAGMA: [https://github.com/Kyoko-wtnb/FUMA\\_scRNA\\_data](https://github.com/Kyoko-wtnb/FUMA_scRNA_data)

567

568

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576

577

## 578 **Conflicts of Interest**

579 N.K. served as a consultant to Boehringer Ingelheim, Third Rock, Pliant, Samumed, NuMedii,  
580 Theravance, LifeMax, Three Lake Partners, Optikira, Astra Zeneca, Augmanity over the last 3  
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585 GSK/British Lung Foundation Chair in Respiratory Research.

586

## 587 **Author Contributions**

588 W.L., W.D. and M.C. developed the statistical framework.

589 W.L., W.D. and M.C. performed statistical analysis.

590 Z.D. assisted in analyzing single cell data.

591 B.Z. performed pathway enrichment analysis.

592 Y.Z. assisted in analyzing GTEx data.

593 D.T. analyzed the TCGA infiltration data and cell type proportional analysis.

594 M.S., L.V.W., M.H.C., N.K., and H.Z. advised on the biology of lung diseases.

595 H.Z. advised on statistical and genetic analysis.

596 W.L. implemented the software.

597 W.L., W.D. and M.C. wrote the manuscript.

598 All authors contributed to manuscript editing and approved the manuscript.

599

600

## 601 **Figure Legends:**

### 602 **Figure 1. The schematic framework of cWAS**

603 Bulk gene expression levels are firstly imputed based on each individual's genotypes. Combined  
604 with a signature gene expression matrix for different cell types, imputed gene expression data for  
605 each tissue are used to infer cell type compositions. Comparing different genetically inferred cell

606 type compositions in case and control groups, cWAS can identify cell types whose genetic-  
607 regulated proportions are associated with a trait of interest.

608 **Figure 2. High power of cWAS in simulation studies with a controlled type I error rate**

609 Different colors indicate different proportions (0.5, 0.7, 0.9, and 1) of signature genes used in the  
610 cWAS test. The phenotypic variance explained by the genetically regulated cell type proportions  
611 (M1 macrophages) ranges from 0.01 to 0.09 for panels A and B, respectively. a) Each line  
612 represents the percentage of simulations where cWAS identified the M1 macrophages as  
613 associated with simulated phenotypes. b) This figure shows the proportion of times that the M1  
614 macrophage was identified as the most significant cell type whose proportion was associated with  
615 simulated phenotypes. The line represents the rate (top selection rate) under settings with different  
616 proportions of known signature genes. For panels c and d, we simulated phenotypes based on the  
617 genetic-regulated proportion of basal cells in lung tissue with heritability being 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5.  
618 c) All signature genes in whole blood are known when conducting the cWAS test. The red dashed  
619 line indicates the 5% type I error. The green line indicates the proportion of simulations where any  
620 cell type in whole blood was selected as associated with the simulated disease status, the orange  
621 line indicates the proportion of simulations where M1 macrophages were selected as associated  
622 with the simulated disease. d) Only 50% of signature genes in whole blood are known.

623 **Figure 3. Disease-cell type associations in multiple tissues**

624 a) Across 12 tissues, the z scores derived from the test statistics quantify the associations between  
625 genetically regulated cell type proportions and diseases. If there is no cell type significantly  
626 associated with a disease after Bonferroni correction, the corresponding entry is blank. The number  
627 in each block indicates the p-value of the most significant association between the cell type  
628 proportion of the corresponding tissue and the disease. HOMA-B: beta-cell function; SLE:

629 Systemic Lupus Erythematosus; Crohn: Crohn's disease; IBD: Inflammatory Bowel Disease;  
630 CAD: Coronary Artery Disease; FG: Fasting Glucose; LDL: LDL cholesterol; PSC: Primary  
631 Sclerosing Cholangitis; PBC: Primary Biliary Cirrhosis; HR: Resting Heart Rate; TC: Total  
632 Cholesterol; TG: Triglycerides; MDD: Major Depressive Disorder; ADs: Anxiety Disorder;  
633 Height: Height; ASD: Autism Spectrum Disorder; BD: Bipolar Disorder; BMI: Body Mass Index;  
634 DrnkWk: Drinks per Week. b) For any tissue pair, we only considered shared cell types and treated  
635 their proportion associations across 55 tissues. Tissue-tissue correlations were calculated based on  
636 the cell type-disease associations for the shared cell types. The darker color indicates a higher  
637 significance level.

#### 638 **Figure 4. Trait-trait correlation**

639 Different colors indicate the correlation level and the stars indicate the significant correlations after  
640 Bonferroni correction. a) Trait-trait correlation calculated from cell-disease associations in adult  
641 non-brain tissues. b) Trait-trait correlation based on cell-disease associations in fetal brain tissues.

#### 642 **Figure 5. CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells in breast cancer**

643 a) cWAS results of breast cancer in whole blood. The x axis is the z score of the cell type-disease  
644 association from cWAS. Negative z scores indicate negative associations between cell type  
645 proportions and diseases. The red line indicates the significance threshold (0.05) after Bonferroni  
646 correction. The star indicates significant cell types after Bonferroni correction. b) and c) show  
647 survival analysis results in breast cancer patients of TCGA. B) Considering the white basal patients  
648 with top 10% and low 10% of genetically regulated cell type proportions of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells, and the  
649 survival patterns were compared between patients in these two groups. c) shows the results of a  
650 similar analysis in white Luminal B breast cancer patients considering patients with top 40% and  
651 bottom 40% of GRPs of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells.

652 **Figure 6. cWAS association results of IPF and COPD in lung**

653 For a) and c), the red line indicates the significance threshold (0.05) after Bonferroni correction.  
654 For all figures, stars indicate significant cell types after Bonferroni correction. a) cWAS results of  
655 IPF in lung tissue. The x axis is the z score of the cell type-disease association from cWAS.  
656 Negative z scores indicate a negative association between cell type proportions and the disease. b)  
657 Cell-type specific expression enrichment pattern of upregulated genes in IPF patients. c) cWAS  
658 results of COPD in lung tissue. d) Cell-type specific expression enrichment pattern of upregulated  
659 genes in COPD patients.

660 **Figure 7. IPF myofibroblast and COPD endothelial cell type proportion validation in the**  
661 **separate scRNA-seq atlas.**

662 a) Boxplots of myofibroblast cell type proportions in 32 IPF patients and 28 controls. The vertical  
663 axis is the cell type proportion of myofibroblast. The IPF myofibroblast cell proportion is  
664 significantly higher than that in controls with p-value =  $1.3e-3$  by t-test. b) Bar plots of z scores  
665 when cell type proportions were regressed on conditions of IPF and control. The red line indicates  
666 the significance threshold (0.05) after the Bonferroni correction. The star indicates the significant  
667 cell types after Bonferroni correlation. All the cell types with z scores greater than 2 are labeled  
668 with an asterisk. Only cell types whose proportions are more than 1% are shown. Myofibroblast  
669 ranks second in these 15 major cell populations. This difference may be related to the genetically  
670 mediated regulation of cell type proportion based on the cWAS results. c) Scatterplots of Gene Set  
671 Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) results of IPF myofibroblast up-regulated genes. The dot size is the  
672 gene counts found in the pathway. The colors indicate the hypergeometric test p-values. Most top  
673 enriched pathways are related to ECM and cell adhesion. d) Scatterplots of GSEA results on COPD  
674 endothelial up-regulated genes. The dot size is the gene counts found in the pathway. The colors



675 indicate the hypergeometric test p-values. The pathways indicate a stronger DNA-binding  
676 transcription activity.

677

678 **S1 Figure. The workflow of curating gene expression signature matrix in each tissue**

679 Single cell data across multiple cell types in tissue is firstly imputed by SAVER-X and then  
680 significant differentially expressed (DE) genes are identified based on cell-type level DE analysis.  
681 Finally, for those identified DE genes, their average gene expression levels are computed within  
682 each cell type.

683 **S2 Figure. The cell type-trait associations across 55 traits identified by cWAS**

684 In 36 tissues, the significant/most-significant associated cell types are shown in the figure. Blue  
685 colors indicate the negative correlations between traits and the corresponding associated cell type  
686 proportion while red colors indicate the positive correlations.

687 **S3 Figure. Cell type expression pattern of breast cancer (BC)-associated gene identified by  
688 TWAS analysis**

689 a) As in previous figures, the star indicates the significant cell types after Bonferroni correction in  
690 whole blood. The fold indicates (x axis) the enrichment level of BC-associated genes in those  
691 genes with high expression specificity in the corresponding cell type. b) This figure shows the  
692 expression level of identified BC-associated genes in different cell types of whole blood.

693 **S4 Figure. Survival analysis results of breast cancer patients in TCGA**

694 Here we consider the cell type proportion estimated based on the assayed expression level in tumor  
695 tissues from TCGA. a) In patients of European ancestry with basal breast cancer, only patients  
696 with the top 10% and bottom 10% proportion of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells were considered. b) In Luminal A  
697 patients with European ancestry, only patients with top 8% and bottom 8% proportion of CD8<sup>+</sup> T

698 cells were considered. c) In luminal B patients of European ancestry, only patients with the top  
699 20% and bottom 20% proportion of CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells were considered.

700 **S5 Figure. MAGMA analysis results of IPF and COPD GWAS summary stats**

701 In all figures, the vertical dash line indicates the significance threshold after Bonferroni correction.  
702 The red bars indicate the corresponding cell types of interest in IPF and COPD. a) Bar plots of  
703 MAGMA cell type association results between IPF and all cell types of the MAGMA processed  
704 GSE93374\_Mouse\_Arc\_ME\_level2 dataset<sup>53</sup>. Fibroblast-related cell types are highlighted in red.  
705 The grey dashed line represents the 0.05 significance level. b) Bar plots of MAGMA cell type  
706 association results between COPD and cell types from lung tissue of the MAGMA processed  
707 TabulaMuris\_FACS\_all dataset<sup>54</sup>. Endothelial-related cell types are highlighted in red. The grey  
708 dashed line represents the 0.05 significance level. c) Bar plots of MAGMA cell type association  
709 results between COPD and all cell types from the MAGMA processed  
710 GSE99235\_Mouse\_Lung\_Vascular dataset. Endothelial-related cell types are highlighted in red.  
711 The grey dashed line represents the 0.05 significance level.

712 **S6 Figure. IPF myofibroblast and COPD endothelial cell type proportion validation in the**  
713 **separate scRNA-seq atlas.**

714 a) Boxplots of cell-type proportions comparison across IPF, COPD, and controls in lung tissue.  
715 The horizontal axis represents the major cell types. The vertical axis is the cell type proportions.  
716 The immune cells are the majority of the data. The cell type proportion has a non-negligible  
717 variance across different conditions. b) Boxplots of two endothelial subtype proportions  
718 comparison between COPD and controls. The vertical axis represents cell-type proportions. To  
719 compare the cell type proportion distributions between COPD and controls, we conducted a t-test  
720 which was not significant. However, the direction is consistent with cWAS finding for vascular

721 endothelial. We still consider these results inconclusive due to the low endothelial cell counts. c)  
722 Dot plots of GSEA on IPF myofibroblast down-regulated genes. The dot size is the gene counts  
723 found in the pathway. The colors indicate the hypergeometric test p-values. d) Dot plots of GSEA  
724 on COPD endothelial down-regulated genes. The dot size is the gene counts found in the pathway.  
725 The colors indicate the hypergeometric test p-values.

726

727

728 **S Table 1. Statistical power and type I error of FUMA in the simulation study**

729 **S Table 2. HCL tissues used in the analysis**

730 **S Table 3. GWAS summary statistics for 55 traits used in the trait-trait correlation analysis**

731 **S Table 4. Shared cell types (mainly immune cells) in all tissues**

732 **S Table 5. cWAS test results in all HCL tissues for 55 traits**

733 **S Table 6. scRNA-seq data sets used for MAGMA analysis**

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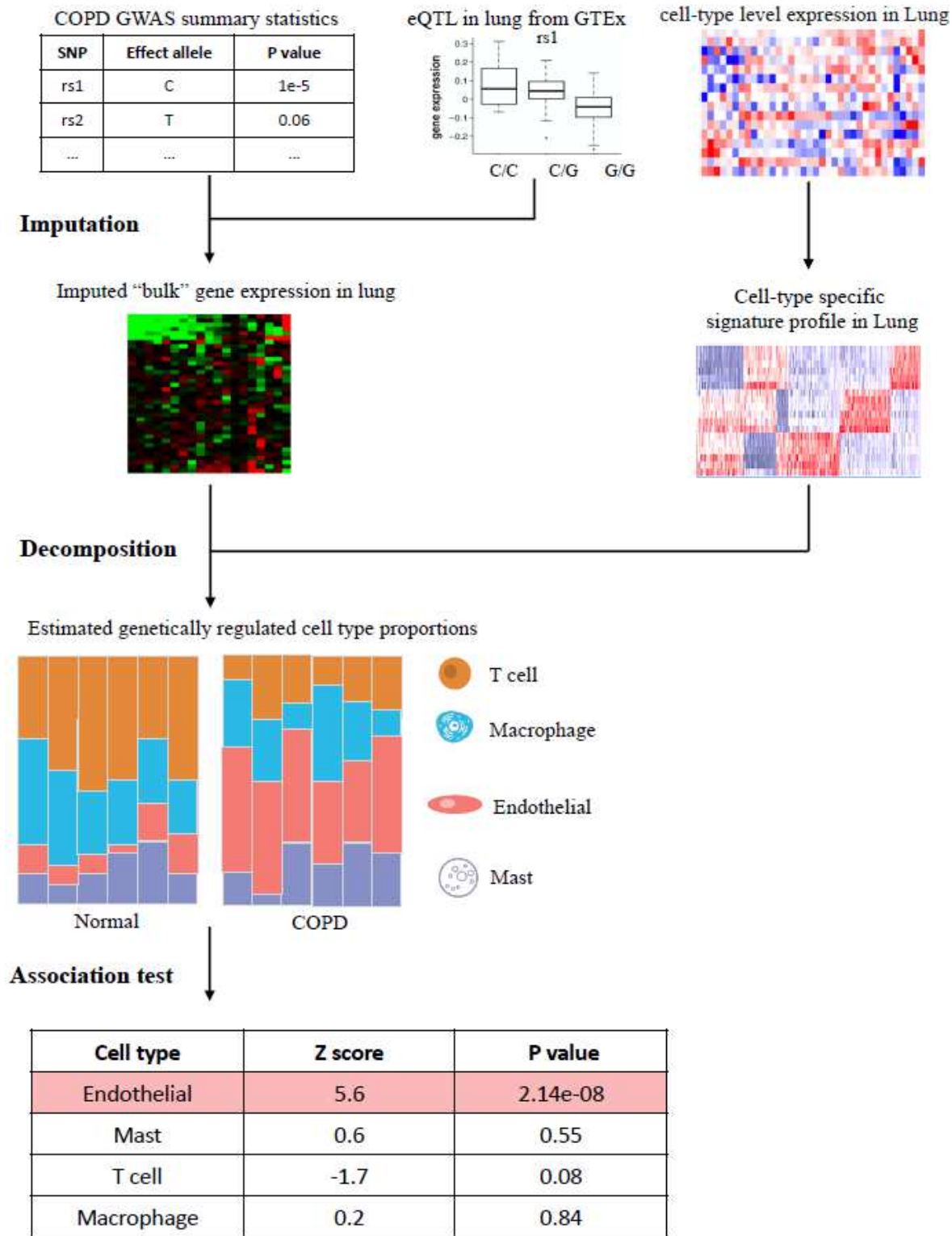
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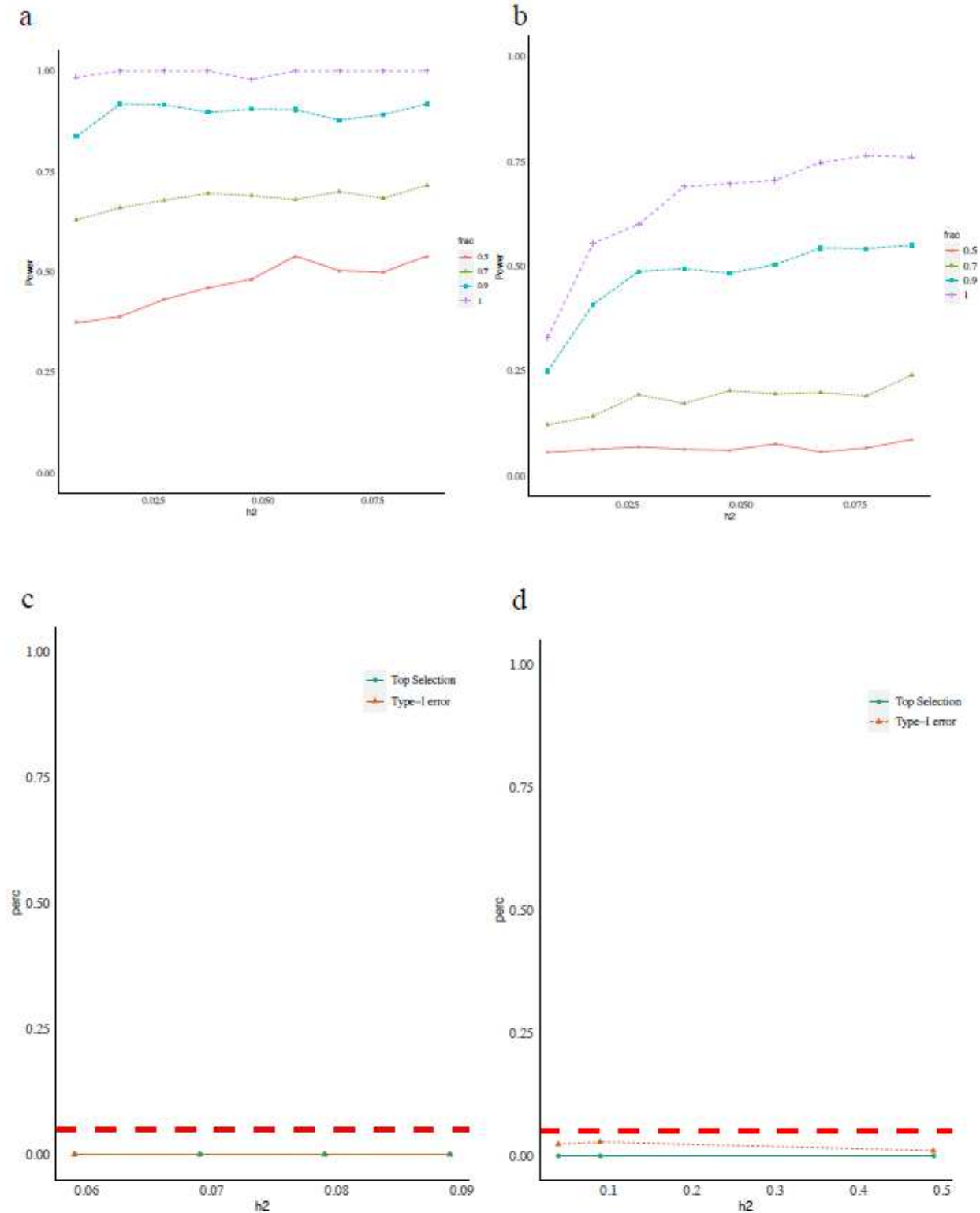
# Figures



**Figure 1**

The schematic framework of cWAS Bulk gene expression levels are firstly imputed based on each individual's genotypes. Combined with a signature gene expression matrix for different cell types, imputed gene expression data for each tissue are used to infer cell type compositions. Comparing

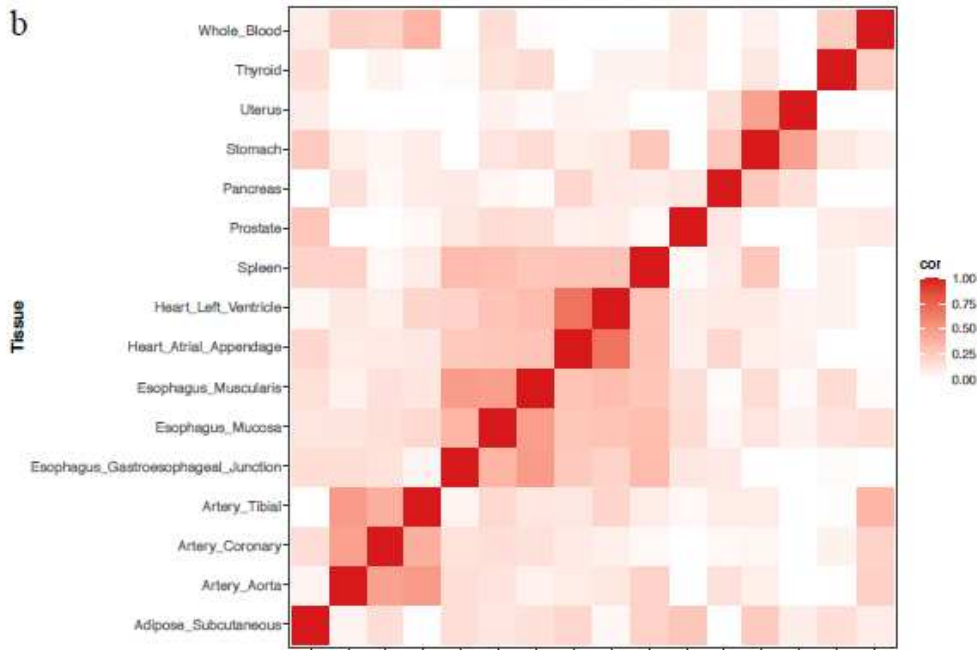
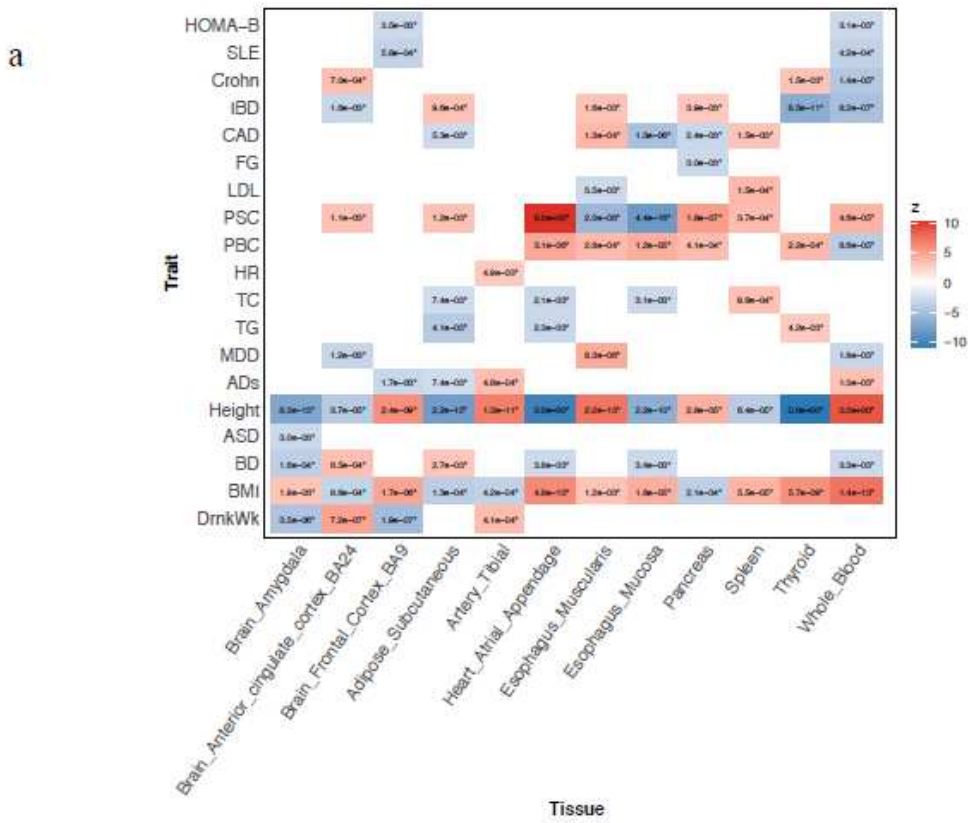
different genetically inferred cell type compositions in case and control groups, cWAS can identify cell types whose genetic regulated proportions are associated with a trait of interest.



**Figure 2**

High power of cWAS in simulation studies with a controlled type I error rate. Different colors indicate different proportions (0.5, 0.7, 0.9, and 1) of signature genes used in the cWAS test. The phenotypic variance explained by the genetically regulated cell type proportions (M1 macrophages) ranges from 0.01

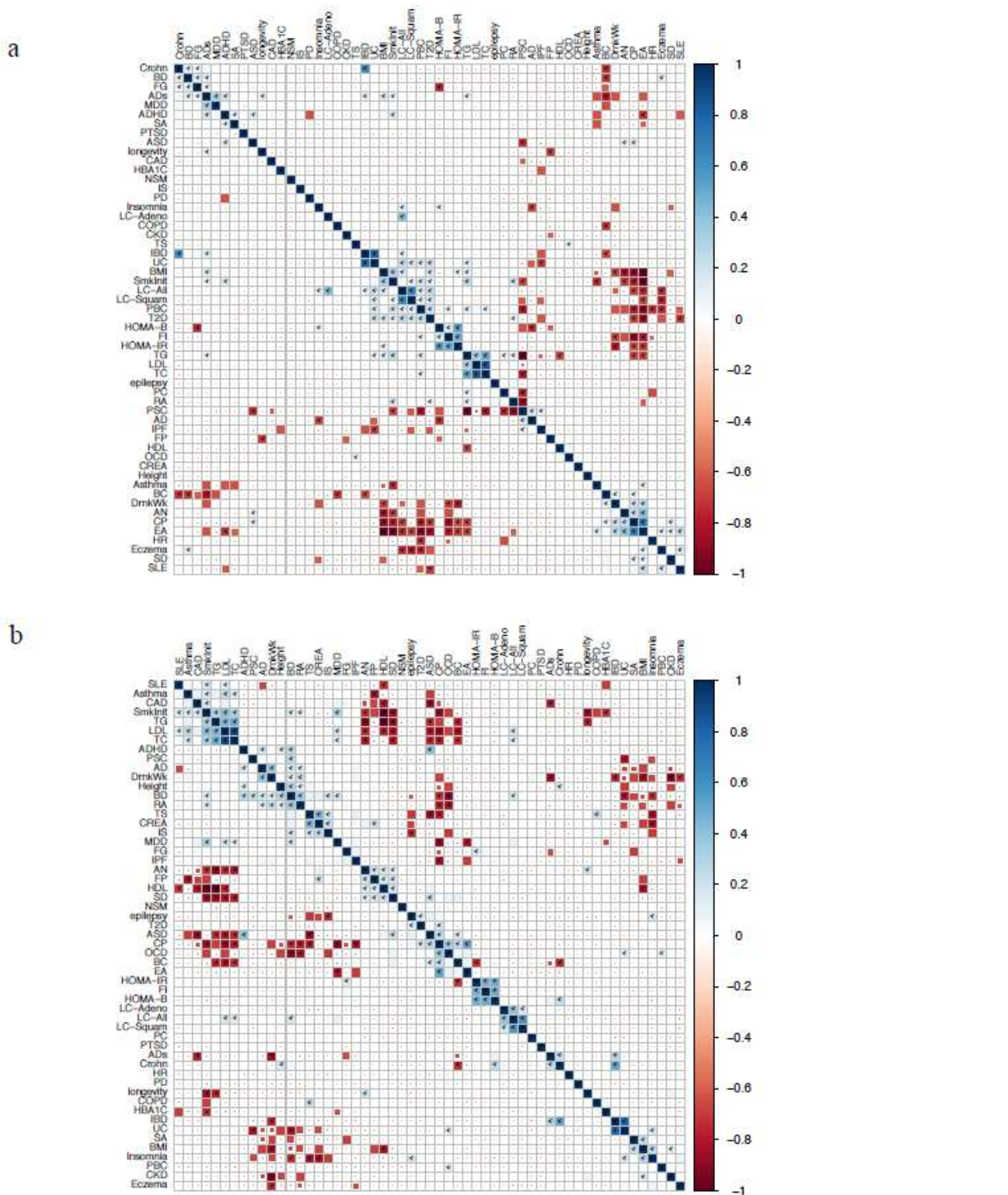
to 0.09 for panels A and B, respectively. a) Each line represents the percentage of simulations where cWAS identified the M1 macrophages as associated with simulated phenotypes. b) This figure shows the proportion of times that the M1 macrophage was identified as the most significant cell type whose proportion was associated with simulated phenotypes. The line represents the rate (top selection rate) under settings with different proportions of known signature genes. For panels c and d, we simulated phenotypes based on the genetic-regulated proportion of basal cells in lung tissue with heritability being 0.05, 0.1, or 0.5. c) All signature genes in whole blood are known when conducting the cWAS test. The red dashed line indicates the 5% type I error. The green line indicates the proportion of simulations where any cell type in whole blood was selected as associated with the simulated disease status, the orange line indicates the proportion of simulations where M1 macrophages were selected as associated with the simulated disease. d) Only 50% of signature genes in whole blood are known.



**Figure 3**

Disease-cell type associations in multiple tissues a) Across 12 tissues, the z scores derived from the test statistics quantify the associations between genetically regulated cell type proportions and diseases. If there is no cell type significantly associated with a disease after Bonferroni correction, the corresponding entry is blank. The number in each block indicates the p-value of the most significant association between the cell type proportion of the corresponding tissue and the disease. HOMA-B: beta-cell function;

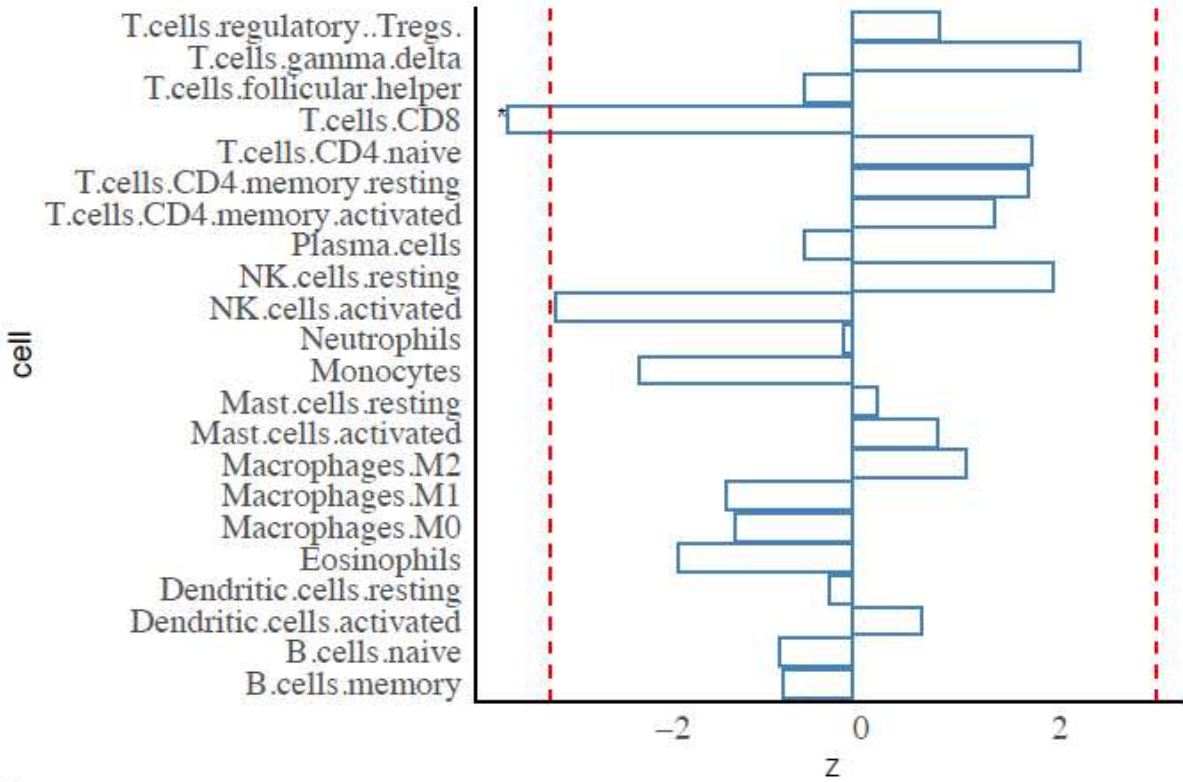
SLE: Systemic Lupus Erythematosus; Crohn: Crohn's disease; IBD: Inflammatory Bowel Disease; CAD: Coronary Artery Disease; FG: Fasting Glucose; LDL: LDL cholesterol; PSC: Primary Sclerosing Cholangitis; PBC: Primary Biliary Cirrhosis; HR: Resting Heart Rate; TC: Total Cholesterol; TG: Triglycerides; MDD: Major Depressive Disorder; ADs: Anxiety Disorder; Height: Height; ASD: Autism Spectrum Disorder; BD: Bipolar Disorder; BMI: Body Mass Index; DrnkWk: Drinks per Week. b) For any tissue pair, we only considered shared cell types and treated their proportion associations across 55 tissues. Tissue-tissue correlations were calculated based on the cell type-disease associations for the shared cell types. The darker color indicates a higher significance level.



**Figure 4**

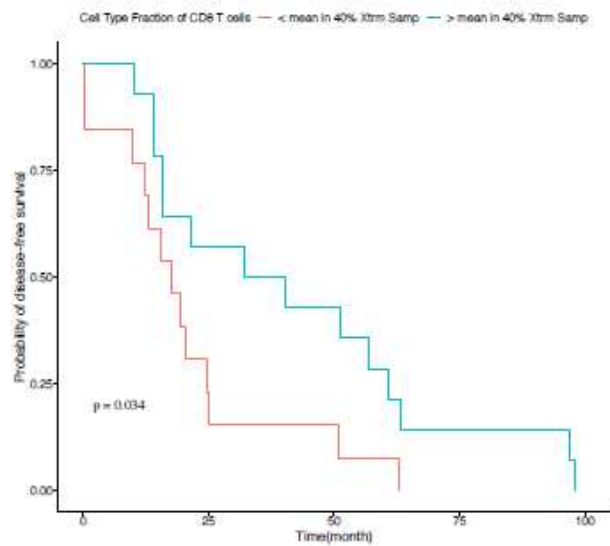
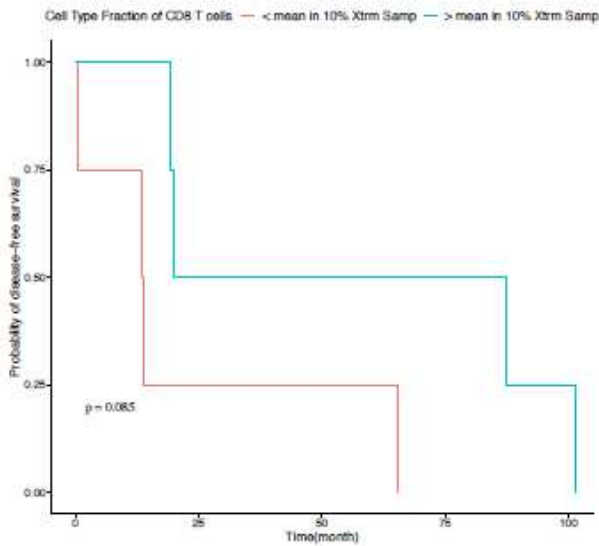
Trait-trait correlation. Different colors indicate the correlation level and the stars indicate the significant correlations after Bonferroni correction. a) Trait-trait correlation calculated from cell-disease associations in adult non-brain tissues. b) Trait-trait correlation based on cell-disease associations in fetal brain tissues.

a



b

c



**Figure 5**

CD8+ T cells in breast cancer a) cWAS results of breast cancer in whole blood. The x axis is the z score of the cell type-disease association from cWAS. Negative z scores indicate negative associations between cell type proportions and diseases. The red line indicates the significance threshold (0.05) after Bonferroni correction. The star indicates significant cell types after Bonferroni correction. b) and c) show survival analysis results in breast cancer patients of TCGA. B) Considering the white basal patients with



top 10% and low 10% of genetically regulated cell type proportions of CD8+ T cells, and the survival patterns were compared between patients in these two groups. c) shows the results of a similar analysis in white Luminal B breast cancer patients considering patients with top 40% and bottom 40% of GRPs of CD8+ T cells.

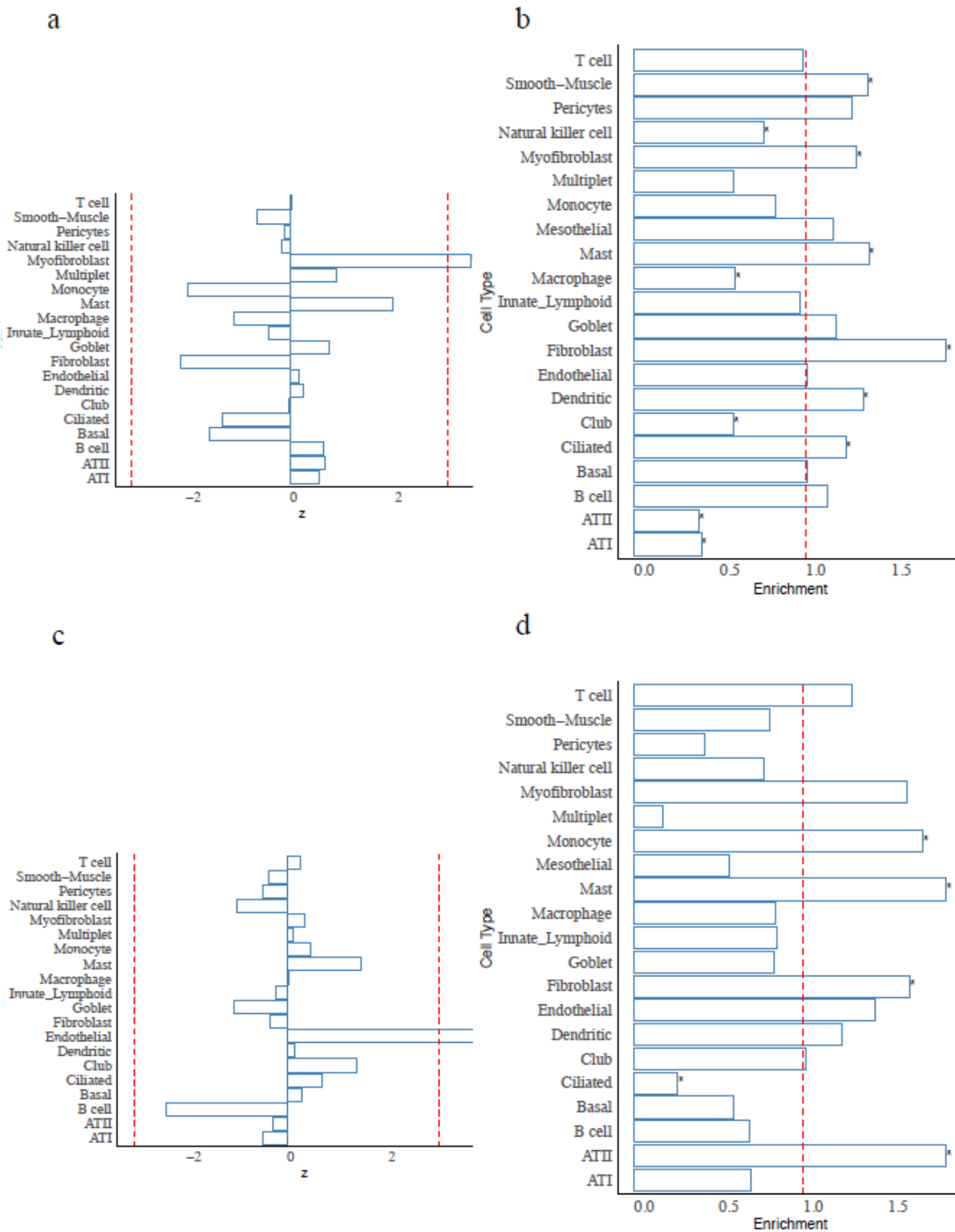
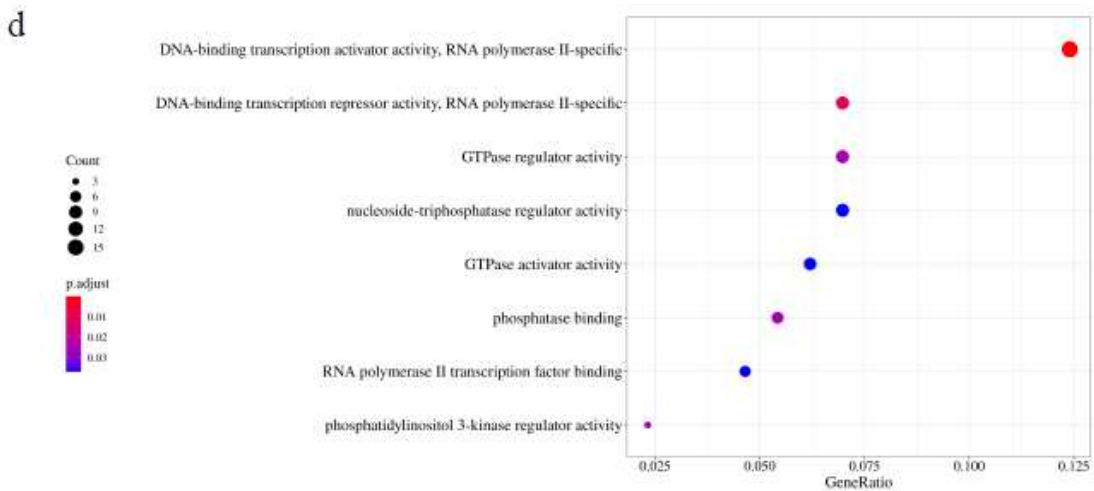
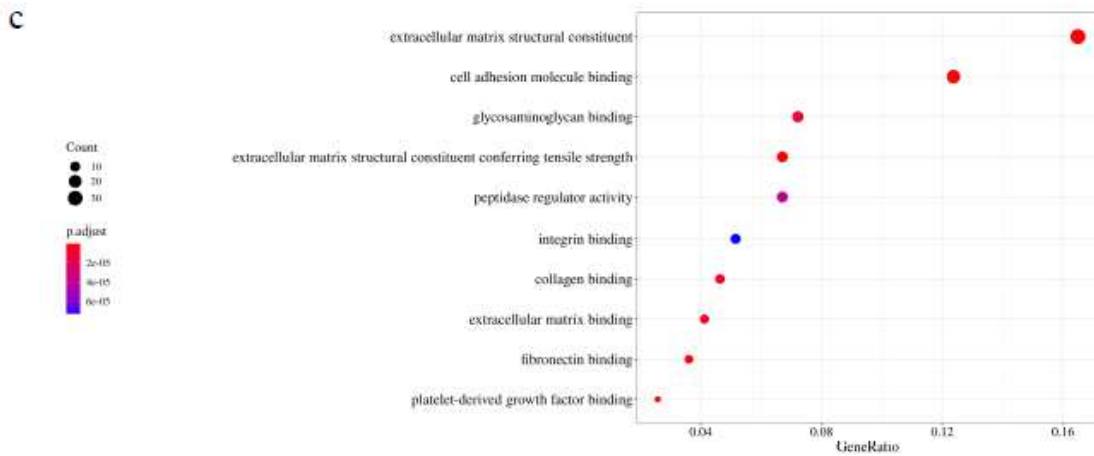
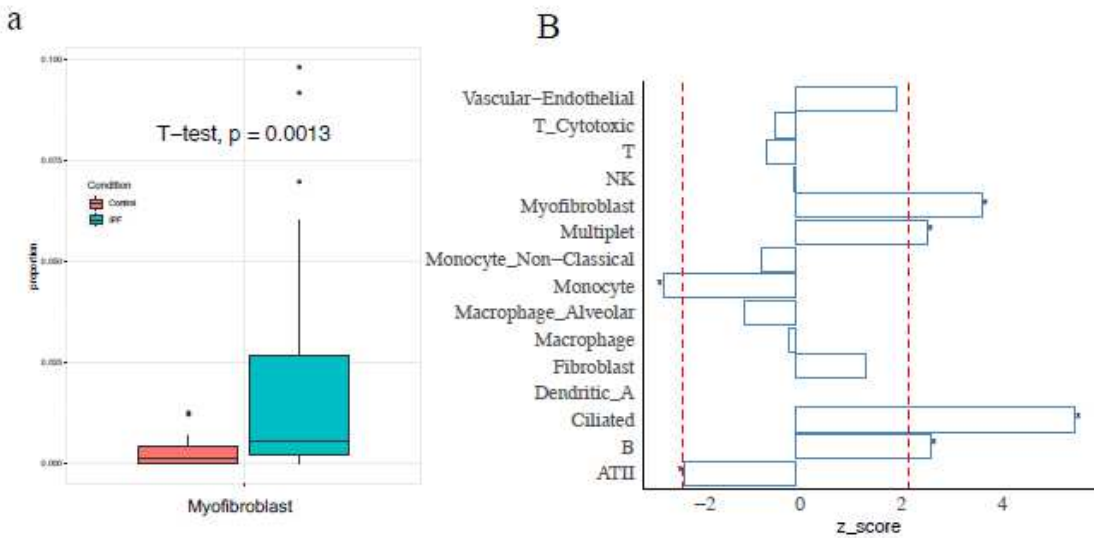


Figure 6

cWAS association results of IPF and COPD in lung For a) and c), the red line indicates the significance threshold (0.05) after Bonferroni correction. For all figures, stars indicate significant cell types after Bonferroni correction. a) cWAS results of IPF in lung tissue. The x axis is the z score of the cell type-disease association from cWAS. Negative z scores indicate a negative association between cell type proportions and the disease. b) Cell-type specific expression enrichment pattern of upregulated genes in IPF patients. c) cWAS results of COPD in lung tissue. d) Cell-type specific expression enrichment pattern of upregulated genes in COPD patients.



## Figure 7

IPF myofibroblast and COPD endothelial cell type proportion validation in the separate scRNA-seq atlas. a) Boxplots of myofibroblast cell type proportions in 32 IPF patients and 28 controls. The vertical axis is the cell type proportion of myofibroblast. The IPF myofibroblast cell proportion is significantly higher than that in controls with p-value =  $1.3e-3$  by t-test. b) Bar plots of z scores when cell type proportions were regressed on conditions of IPF and control. The red line indicates the significance threshold (0.05) after the Bonferroni correction. The star indicates the significant cell types after Bonferroni correlation. All the cell types with z scores greater than 2 are labeled with an asterisk. Only cell types whose proportions are more than 1% are shown. Myofibroblast ranks second in these 15 major cell populations. This difference may be related to the genetically mediated regulation of cell type proportion based on the cWAS results. c) Scatterplots of Gene Set Enrichment Analysis (GSEA) results of IPF myofibroblast up-regulated genes. The dot size is the gene counts found in the pathway. The colors indicate the hypergeometric test p-values. Most top enriched pathways are related to ECM and cell adhesion. d) Scatterplots of GSEA results on COPD endothelial up-regulated genes. The dot size is the gene counts found in the pathway. The colors indicate the hypergeometric test p-values. The pathways indicate a stronger DNA-binding transcription activity.

## Supplementary Files

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