1	Causal network perturbation analysis identifies known and novel type-2
2	diabetes driver genes
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24 Abstract

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26 The molecular pathogenesis of diabetes is multifactorial, involving genetic predisposition and 27 environmental factors that are not yet fully understood. However, pancreatic β-cell failure remains 28 among the primary reasons underlying the progression of type-2 diabetes (T2D) making targeting β -cell 29 dysfunction an attractive pathway for diabetes treatment. To identify genetic contributors to β -cell 30 dysfunction, we investigated single-cell gene expression changes in β-cells from healthy (C57BL/6J) 31 and diabetic (NZO/HILtJ) mice fed with normal or high-fat, high-sugar diet (HFHS). Our study presents 32 an innovative integration of the causal network perturbation assessment (ssNPA) framework with meta-33 cell transcriptome analysis to explore the genetic underpinnings of type-2 diabetes (T2D). By 34 generating a reference causal network and in silico perturbation, we identified novel genes implicated in 35 T2D and validated our candidates using the Knockout Mouse Phenotyping (KOMP) Project database.

36 Introduction

Type 2 diabetes (T2D) comprises more than 90% of all diabetes cases, impacting approximately 6.8% 37 38 (537 million individuals) of the global population in the year 2021 (Zheng et al., 2018; Sun et al., 2022). 39 T2D is a multifactorial disease caused by a complex interplay between genetic and environmental 40 factors. However, while some of the major environmental factors (i.e., diet and physical activity) are well known, the genetic bases of T2D remain poorly understood. The endocrine portion of the pancreas is 41 42 constituted by highly specialized hormone-secreting entities known as islets of Langerhans. The islets comprise β , α , delta, PP, and ghrelin cells that secrete insulin, glucagon, somatostatin, pancreatic 43 polypeptide, and ghrelin, respectively. Islet and/or β-cell dysfunctions are central to diabetes, and the 44 45 onset of full-blown T2D occurs when α or β cells lose their capacity to secrete appropriate amounts of 46 insulin in response to elevated blood glucose levels. Current research on Type 2 diabetes faces 47 significant limitations due to the variability in genetic, environmental, and lifestyle factors among diverse 48 populations, which challenges the generalizability of findings. Additionally, there is a notable gap in 49 long-term clinical trials that comprehensively assess the efficacy of emerging treatments across 50 different stages of the disease. In recent years, single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) has proven 51 critical for investigating comprehensive gene expression profiles, revealing the presence of 52 heterogeneous gene expression patterns, even within cells of the same type. Furthermore, diverse 53 phenotypes of pancreatic β cells have been observed within a single islet (Hrovatin et al., 2023, 54 Camunas-Soler et al., 2020; Bhakti et al., 2019). The application of scRNA-seg has significantly 55 contributed to our understanding of β -cell maturation, β -cell heterogeneity, β -cell failure, and β -cell function in both healthy and diseased states. For this study, we used the polygenic NZO/HILtJ mouse 56 57 strain that displays signs of morbid obesity, fasting hyperglycemia, hyperinsulinemia, insulin resistance, 58 and hypercholesterolemia resembling human T2D (Leiter et al., 1998; Ortlepp et al., 2000; Reifsnyder et 59 al.,2002). Mice from the NZO/HILtJ strain and healthy C57BL/6J controls were kept on a standard or 60 high-fat high-sugar (HFHS) diet regimen for XY days. At the end of the treatment, we analyzed the 61 single-cell gene expression profile of β -cells derived from NZO/HILtJ mice and compared it to that of β -62 cells from healthy C57BL/6J mice (Figure 1A). To explore the genetic underpinnings of T2D, it is 63 crucial to identify gene perturbations and hub genes associated with the disease. We hypothesize that 64 conventional differential gene expression analysis does not effectively detect certain type of disruptions 65 in gene networks. To overcome this limitation, we extend a causal network perturbation assessment 66 (ssNPA) framework (Buschur, Chikina, & Benos, 2020) in combination with a meta-cell transcriptome 67 analysis. This approach, termed meta-ssNPA workflow, allowed us to identify genes and gene networks 68 that are perturbed in T2D mice in response to diet changes, providing valuable insights into its genetic

69 landscape. Briefly, this study aimed to juxtapose three distinct physiological states, encompassing a 70 spectrum from health to disease conditions, specifically: 1) a comparison between healthy and 71 prediabetic states (C57BL/6J mice on a normal chow diet vs. C57BL/6J on a HFHS diet); 2) a 72 comparison between prediabetic and severely diabetic states (comparing C57BL/6J mice on a HFHS 73 diet with NZO/ShiLt mice on a HFHS diet); and 3) a comparison between mildly diabetic and severely 74 diabetic states (evaluating NZO/ShiLt mice on normal or HFHS diet conditions). We focused our 75 analysis on the transcriptional profile of pancreatic beta cells due to their pivotal role in upholding 76 glucose homeostasis and serving as the primary source of insulin.

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We successfully detected novel T2D genes that is not differentially expressed and validated them with Knockout Mouse Phenotyping (KOMP) Project database. The KOMP database, accessible at the International Mouse Phenotyping Consortium website, serves as a valuable resource for researchers, offering comprehensive phenotypic data and genetic insights on a wide array of knockout mouse models. This platform facilitates the understanding of gene function and disease mechanisms and is instrumental in advancing the study of human diseases, including the identification of potential therapeutic targets.

85 Material & Methods

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87 Animal studies and islet isolation

89 In strict adherence to the standards set by the Association for Assessment and Accreditation of 90 Laboratory Animal Care, our facility at The Jackson Laboratory has upheld the care and treatment of 91 mice. We acquired male and female mice from three distinct strains: C57BL/6J (B6; 92 RRID:IMSR_JAX:000664), and NZO/HILtJ (NZO; RRID:IMSR_JAX:002105), starting at the age of four 93 weeks. The mice were provided with two types of diets from Research Diets: a high-fat, high-sucrose 94 diet (HFHS, comprising 44% kcal from fat and 1360 kcal from sucrose; Research Diets D19070208) 95 and a control diet (10% kcal from fat and devoid of sucrose: Research Diets D19072203), both 96 containing equal fiber content. The diets were given ad libitum starting from the age of six weeks. At the 97 age of fifteen weeks islet isolation was performed and mice were euthanized through cervical 98 dislocation. and the common bile duct at the Sphincter of Oddi was clamped. Collagenase solution 99 (three milliliters of a solution containing collagenase P (5 units/ml) and DNasel (1mg/ml) in Hank's 100 Balanced Salt Solution (HBSS) was inserted into the bile duct proximal to the final bifurcation leading to 101 the liverto inflate the pancreas. We then removed the pancreas for digestion at 37°C for 40 minutes. 102 Post-digestion, samples were agitated for ten seconds, diluted it with 10 ml of HBSS, and centrifuged 103 for 3 minutes at 300 RPM. After two washes with HBSS, the pellet was resuspended in 5ml HBSS, and 104 handpicked islets were collected using a clean petri dish containing HBSS. We. The islets were then 105 transferred to 24-well plates with 1ml of the warmed media (containing RPMI 1640, 10% FBS, glutamine, and HEPES) and incubated overnight at 37°C. After overnight incubation islets were 106 107 centrifuged and the supernatant was discarded. Finally, islets were resuspended in 1-2 ml of StemPro 108 Accutase dissociation solution (A1110501, Fisher Scientific), which had been preheated to 37°C. The 109 cell suspension was gently pipetted for 30 seconds to facilitate the dissociation of islets until the media 110 appeared translucent and there were no visible clumps, usually within 2-5 minutes. Following 111 dissociation, 2-3ml of RPMI complete medium was added, and the cell suspension was filtered through 112 a 20um strainer. The cells were then centrifuged at 230 RCF for 3 minutes, the supernatant was 113 removed, and the cells were resuspended in 2-3ml of RPMI complete medium.

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116 Preprocessing of Single Cell RNA-Seq

We processed raw fastq reads from Illumina sequencing for scRNA-Seq by aligning them to the mousereference genome (mm10/GRCm38) using 10X Cell Ranger version 6.1.1 with standard settings.

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To demultiplex the strain of origin from samples containing mixed strains, we employed demuxlet version 2 (https://github.com/statgen/popscle;(Kang et al., 2018)), utilizing known genomic variations from VCF files obtained from the Sanger Mouse Genomes Project ((Keane et al., 2011)). We focused on sites that were biallelic and varied among our two strains (B6, and NZO). We ran demuxlet on RNA-Seq data with specific parameters "--alpha 0.0 --alpha 0.5 --tag-group CB --tag-UMI UB --field GT", accounting for all cells identified by Cell Ranger.

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128 Quality Control and Filtering of Single Cell RNA-Seq Data129

Post-processing, we applied quality control measures to the feature count matrices generated by Cell Ranger. Single cells with fewer than 500 (islet) genes, more than 20% (islet) mitochondrial transcripts, or over 50% ribosomal transcripts were excluded. Additionally, genes not detected in at least three single cells per sequenced library were also omitted. To correct for potential ambient RNA contamination in islet samples, we utilized decontX from the celda V1.10.0 package, adhering to developer guidelines on GitHub. The SCDS V1.10.0 package was deployed to eliminate cell doublets, using default settings.

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138 Clustering and Identification of Cell Types in Single Cell RNA-Seq

Following the filtration and quality control, single cells/nuclei underwent normalization and were clustered using Seurat version 4.1, with batch variations across libraries corrected by harmony version 0.1.0. Gene expression data from single cells were normalized based on library size and logtransformed. Dimensionality was reduced using principal component analysis (PCA) on the 2,500 most variable genes, and these principal components (PCs) underwent batch correction using harmony. The batch-corrected PCs were then used for Louvain-based clustering, with the resolution parameter adjusted between 0.1 and 1 according to the dataset specifics.

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148 We identified differential marker genes for various groups via the Wilcoxon rank-sum test or MAST 149 within the Seurat package, employing an FDR cutoff of 0.1 and a fold change cutoff of 1.5. Cluster-150 specific genes aided in assigning cell types. Independently, cell type assignment was also performed 151 unbiasedly using the SingleR package, comparing each single-cell transcriptome to reference 152 transcriptome profiles of known cell types. For formal differential gene expression tests, we created 153 pseudobulks within cell types by aggregating gene expression counts across all cells of a given type 154 from a single mouse, applying DESeq2 on the pseudobulks. This approach using negative binomial 155 modeling with pseudobulks derived from single-cell transcriptomic data is noted for its efficacy and

accuracy in differential expression testing in single-cell contexts (Love et al., 2014). Low-expression genes have been filtered out the OGFSC algorithm (Hao, Cao, Huang, Zou, & Han, 2019).

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159 Refine the existing Single Sample Network Perturbation Assessment (ssNPA) method

160 However, many limitations still exist for the existing ssNPA framework (Buschur, Chikina, & Benos, 161 2020). The first limitation is the framework doesn't work well on single cell data. The single cell data 162 have sparsity issues where a lot of genes have zero expressions in many cells. This violates the 163 assumption of linear model ssNPA is using and thus the prediction performance is bad. We tackle this 164 problem by a simple meta-cell idea (Baran, Y., Bercovich, 2019). We randomly pick several cells from 165 the same cell type and average the gene expressions as a new meta-cell sample. This approach 166 maintains the relative level of all gene expression in the cell (high expression genes are still higher and 167 lower expression genes are still lower in the meta-cells) while removing the zeros. Secondly, original 168 ssNPA use simple criterion to filter out Perturbed genes: as long as the average Perturbance Score is 169 higher in the test group than the control group, the gene is annotated as a Perturbed Gene. This 170 approach doesn't consider the random noise in the Perturbance Score, thus induces False Positive 171 results. We refined this process by applying Wilcoxon test (Li, Ge, Peng, Li, & Li, 2022) onto test and 172 control group Perturbance Score and use False Discovery Rate (fDR) < 0.05 as the threshold to filter 173 the Perturbed Genes where statistical significance is introduced in the comparison. We performed one 174 sided Wilcoxon test with alternative hypothesis: control group Perturbance Score < test group 175 Perturbance Score.

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177 Workflow and experimental design

178 Based on the discussion above, we propose the following meta-ssNPA workflow (Figure 1B, S0 and 179 **S0**'): the single-cell RNA-seg data from various sample groups underwent standard processing using a 180 single-cell pipeline to identify distinct cell types. Subsequently, meta-cell transcriptome data was 181 generated for each of these identified cell types. Using the control group samples as a reference 182 dataset, perturbation scores were computed for all genes within a given gene network, employing the 183 ssNPA framework. Perturbance scores were calculated by comparing the network predictions derived 184 from the reference network and the test group data, with the expectation of distinguishing between the 185 test and control groups. Then, we visualize all samples perturbance score with t-sne and compare them 186 against real group ID (test or control). After verifying that the test and control group are separated well 187 in visualization indicating the Perturbance Scores can be used to distinguish the two groups. The 188 Wilcoxon tests (Li, Ge, Peng, Li, & Li, 2022) were applied to filter out genes exhibiting significant 189 perturbations, and finally, pathway analysis was conducted for further interpretation of the findings. The

190 genes with a significant adjusted p-value (< 0.05) in the Wilcoxon test between test and control
191 perturbance score is defined as Perturbed Genes.

192 DEG analysis

193 To identify differentially expressed genes (DEGs) associated with diet, we applied the Wilcoxon test on

single cell expression data between control and test group for Beta cells using the same code in (Li,

195 Ge, Peng, Li, & Li, 2022). Genes with a False Discovery Rate (fDR) < 0.05 were considered DEGs.

- 196 Venn diagrams were generated to visualize the overlap between perturbed genes and DEGs.
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198 Pathway Analysis assessment: perturbed and differentially expressed genes

199 Gene set enrichment analysis of KEGG mouse pathways was conducted using the hypergeometric

- 200 test. This analysis assessed both perturbed genes and differentially expressed genes (DEGs). The
- 201 pathways were ranked based on their p-values, and the top 10 pathways with the lowest p-values were
- selected.

203 **Results**

204 Workflow to detect perturbed genes via meta-cell local reference causal network

205 We combined a meta-cell transcriptome analysis with the ssNPA framework to identify the genes that 206 are perturbed in the test condition (High Fat High Sugar diet) compared to that of the control using a 207 causal network (Buschur, Chikina, & Benos, 2020). The causal network is computed using a Fast 208 Greedy Equivalent Search (FGES) algorithm (Ramsey, Glymour, Sanchez-Romero, & Glymour, 2017) 209 on a directed acyclic graph (DAG), where the nodes are genes, and the directed edges are the causal 210 relationships between the genes. The FGES algorithm iteratively adds an edge if the addition 211 decreases the Bayesian Information Criteria (BIC) where BIC is calculated based on a linear model 212 where the expression of a gene is predicted by fitting a linear model with the expression levels of its 213 parents, spouses, and children (Markov Blanket) in the current network as the predictors. The single-214 cell gene expression data from the mouse given the standard diet is used to construct the causal 215 network. The difference between the predicted and actual values (i.e., perturbation score) is used to 216 identify genes essential for T2D pathogenesis. Since, unlike the standard differential expression 217 analysis, this method considers the interactions between the genes and their neighbors, several genes 218 identified in our analysis could not have been identified otherwise. Importantly, the expression level of 219 perturbed genes - quantified by differential expression analysis - can be similar between test and 220 control groups, but the interactions between them and their neighbor genes vary.

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Identification of differentially expressed and perturbed genes in β cells in healthy vs prediabetic state

224 To identify prediabetic-states-specific perturbed genes, we performed ssNPA analysis using single-cell 225 transcriptomes of β cells isolated from C57BL/6J mice fed on HFHS diet (test group) vs. those kept on 226 a standard (control group). Only male mice are used since female mice are observed to be more 227 resistant to T2D. The ß cells exhibited differentially expressed genes (DEGs) (Wilcoxon Test) and 228 perturbed genes when comparing a normal diet to a HFHS diet. Furthermore, there were shared DEGs 229 and meta-ssNPA perturbed gene signatures. Among the highly upregulated perturbed genes were 230 Gadd45b, Hmgn2, Cartpt, Hdgfl3 (Figure 2A). Conversely, the downregulated perturbed genes 231 included Trim12a, Col27a1, Ly6a, Rflna, and AY036118. We performed pathway enrichment analysis 232 using hypergeometric test for the perturbed genes. Multiple pathways enriched for perturbed genes are 233 related to T2D biology (Figure 2B). The MAPK signaling pathway plays a crucial role in T2D by 234 affecting insulin signaling and beta-cell function. An article in the journal Diabetes assessed the 235 increased MAPK activation and its impact on insulin signaling in microvascular endothelial cells in T2D, 236 highlighting the functional role of endothelin-1 (Gogg, Smith, & Jansson, 2009).

237 Identification of hub genes, drivers and network analysis

238 The meta-ssNPA analysis revealed perturbed genes strongly linked to T2D. Due the large size of the 239 network. only a sub network with non-DEG perturbed genes is shown (Figure 2C). A full version of the 240 network is shown in Figure S1. In this representation, gene names (in red) and triangles denote genes 241 that are perturbed but not differentially expressed, while those in green nodes indicate downregulated 242 perturbed genes, and red node denotes upregulated perturbed genes. The out degree of the genes (top 243 20) in the perturbed network is shown as bar plot in **Figure 2D**. The out-degree of a gene quantifies the 244 number of other genes being affected by the chosen gene. The genes with highest out-degree are: 245 Zbtb20, Zdhhc2, Ndufa4, RpI7, and Gnai2, Multiple detected perturbed genes are related to T2D 246 biology. The GLP1R gene, which encodes the glucagon-like peptide-1 receptor, plays a crucial role in 247 modulating insulin secretion in response to blood glucose levels and has been targeted by a number of 248 antidiabetic therapies (Ussher et al., 2023; Müller et al., 2019), Similarly, the Insulin-like growth factor 1 249 receptor (IGF-1R) is a receptor tyrosine kinase that plays a significant role in mediating the effects of 250 insulin-like growth factor 1 (IGF-1) on cell growth, proliferation, and metabolism. While primarily 251 recognized for its involvement in growth and development, emerging evidence suggests its implication 252 in diabetes and related metabolic disorders and targeting IGF-1R signaling pathways may hold promise 253 as a therapeutic strategy for diabetes and its associated complications (O'Neill et al., 2015; Viana-254 Huete et al., 2016). Another gene of interest is MAFA, a transcription factor critical for pancreatic β -cell 255 function and insulin gene regulation, which may serve as a biomarker for β-cell dysfunction in T2DM 256 (Nishimura et. al., 2015). Additionally, the PYY gene, which produces peptide YY, a hormone involved 257 in appetite regulation, links obesity, a significant risk factor for T2DM, to this metabolic disorder (Tan et 258 al., 2023). Some of the genes highlighted in the network pathway are Neurogenin3, Glp-1r, Slc30a8, 259 Serpinb9, Gabra4, Cacna2d2, Angptl4 and Lpl.

260 *Neurogenin3* (Neurog3) is a transcription factor pivotal in developing pancreatic endocrine cells, 261 including insulin-producing β cells. In mice, the absence of Ngn3 results in the complete absence of 262 endocrine cells within the pancreas (Gradwohl et al., 2000). The Cacna2d2 gene, encoding the alpha-263 2-delta-2 subunit of voltage-gated calcium channels, have demonstrated that alterations in Cacna2d2 264 expression or function can impact insulin sensitivity and glucose metabolism (Huang et al., 2020; 265 Cromer et al., 2015) Slc30a8, also known as Zinc transporter 8 (ZnT8), has garnered significant 266 attention in the field of T2D research due to its role in insulin secretion and glucose homeostasis. This 267 gene encodes a zinc transporter protein primarily expressed in pancreatic β cells, where it plays a vital 268 role in packaging zinc into insulin-containing vesicles. Several studies have demonstrated a strong 269 association between genetic variants in SLC30A8 and the risk of developing T2D. One of the most well-270 known and extensively studied SLC30A8 variants is rs13266634, located in the intron of SLC30A8.

This variant has been consistently linked to an increased risk of T2D in various populations, including European, Asian, and African descent groups. Studies conducted by the groundbreaking Diabetes Genetics Replication and Meta-analysis (DIAGRAM) Consortium, have identified this variant as one of the key risk factors for T2D (Chimenti et al., 2006; Sladek et al., 2007; Scott et al., 2007)

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276 Validation of prediabetic perturbed genes using the KOMP database

277 To corroborate the perturbed genes identified with the meta-ssNPA analysis, we employed the KOMP 278 database and generated visual representations for the genes previously linked to T2D. The in-vivo 279 mouse reference data for validation of genes was generated by the Knock-out Mouse Project-KOMP 280 (www.mousephenotype.org) (Dickinson et al., 2016; Groza et al., 2023). Moreover, we identified novel 281 perturbed genes that were not differentially expressed. The perturbed genes selected for validation 282 were based on their response to a glucose tolerance test, the standard method to diagnose diabetic or 283 obese phenotypes in both preclinical and clinical research. The perturbed genes that demonstrated 284 improved glucose tolerance/intolerance based on their Area under curve profiles (AUC) included 285 Ccnd2, Gckr, Abcc8, Klhl32, Kcnj11, and Mgme1. Glucose time series is visualized in Figure 3A-3F 286 and boxplots of AUC between knockout group and wild type group is visualized in Figure 3G-3L. We 287 mined the KOMP database for phenotypes associated with the well-known T2D gene Abcc8 (ATP-288 binding cassette sub-family C member 8) that plays a crucial role in regulating insulin secretion within 289 the pancreas. Mutations in this gene can lead to a rare form of diabetes called congenital 290 hyperinsulinism (CHI), characterized by excessive insulin secretion and resulting in low blood glucose 291 levels (hypoglycemia). Additionally, mutations in ABCC8 have been identified as one of the established 292 genetic factors contributing to neonatal diabetes mellitus (NDM). These mutations can cause 293 dysfunction in ATP-sensitive potassium (KATP) channels found in ß cells of the pancreas, which detect 294 glucose levels and control insulin secretion. The role of Abcc8 has been extensively studied using 295 mouse models (Stancill et al., 2017; Osipovich et al., 2020). Based on data from the KOMP database, 296 knock out of Abcc8 resulted in impaired glucose tolerance, which is consistent with phenotypes 297 reported by other research groups (Remedi et al., 2009; Voss et al., 2012). KLHL32 encodes a protein 298 that is a part of the Kelch-like (KLHL) family. Members of this family are involved in various cellular 299 processes, including protein degradation and regulation of cytoskeletal dynamics. In their meta-300 analysis Monda et al. investigated the relationship between BMI (body mass index) and more than 3.2 301 million SNPs in approximately 40,000 men and women of African ancestry revealing an association 302 between KLHL32 and obesity. However, the exact mechanisms by which KLHL32 might contribute to 303 obesity were not fully elucidated (Monda et al, 2013). In our analysis of the KOMP database, KIhl32 304 knock-out mice exhibited notably improved glucose tolerance, characterized by faster glucose

305 clearance and lower basal fasting glucose levels. Another interesting, perturbed gene was the MGME1 306 gene (Mitochondrial Genome Maintenance Exonuclease 1) known for its essential role in mitochondrial 307 DNA maintenance and replication. Impaired mitochondrial function caused by MGME1 mutations can 308 lead to deficiencies in ATP production and affect metabolic pathways that rely on mitochondrial energy 309 production, such as the citric acid cycle (Krebs cycle) and oxidative phosphorylation. Based on the 310 results from the KOMP phenotyping database, Mame1 knock-out mice showed delayed glucose 311 clearance (Figure 3F). In addition, Mgme1 knock-out mice displayed reduced weight gain during aging, 312 followed by weight loss later in life. Absence of Mame1 led to alterations in body composition and 313 reduced fat mass. Remarkably, the aged mice also developed kidney inflammation, glomerular 314 changes, chronic progressive nephropathy with albuminuria, and premature death (Milenkovich et al., 315 2022).

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317 Genetic predisposition plays a pivotal role in the T2D pathophysiology, with numerous genes 318 contributing to its complex landscape. Among these, ABCC8 and KCNJ11 are notable for encoding 319 components of the ATP-sensitive potassium channel in pancreatic beta cells, with mutations in these 320 genes affecting insulin secretion and conferring susceptibility to T2D (Florez et al., 2012; Gloyn et al., 321 2003). Furthermore, CCND2, which is involved in beta-cell proliferation, has variants that are 322 associated with altered insulin production and T2D risk (Rafig et al., 2014). The GCKR gene, 323 responsible for regulating glucokinase activity in the liver, has been linked to fasting glucose levels and 324 T2D incidence (Beer et al., 2009). Additionally, ADORA2A, encoding the adenosine A2a receptor, is 325 implicated in glucose homeostasis, with its influence extending to insulin secretion and sensitivity 326 (Hamilton et al., 2018). While other genes such as KLHL32, MGME1, and MAPKAPK2 are less directly 327 associated with T2D, they participate in cellular functions and pathways, such as mitochondrial 328 maintenance and stress response, that can indirectly impact metabolic health (Lee et al., 2016; Smith 329 et al., 2017). The comprehensive understanding of these genetic interactions is crucial for unraveling 330 the multifaceted etiology of T2D and for the development of targeted interventions.

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333 Identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β-cells of severely vs. mildly diabetic states

To identify perturbed genes in β-cells of from severely vs. mildly diabetic states, we performed ssNPA on NZO HFHS diet mice as test group and normal diet mice as control group (**Figure 4A**). Male mice were chosen since only the male mice are observed to develop T2D. The T2D pathogenesis is increasingly understood to be multifactorial, involving a range of biological pathways that affect cellular metabolism and stress responses. Among the most significant pathways (**Figure 4B**) enriched for

339 perturbed genes is the protein processing in the endoplasmic reticulum, where perturbations can lead 340 to ER stress, a condition implicated in beta-cell dysfunction and insulin resistance (Ozcan et al., 2004). 341 Concurrently, fructose and mannose metabolism pathways are critical, as their dysregulation has been 342 tied to impaired glucose tolerance, a precursor to the hyperglycemia characteristic of T2D (Dekker et 343 al., 2010). Additionally, glutathione metabolism, vital for cellular defense against oxidative stress, has 344 been implicated in the pathophysiology of insulin resistance (Lutchmansingh et al., 2018). Fundamental 345 to cellular energy homeostasis are the glycolysis and gluconeogenesis pathways, and their dysfunction 346 has been directly linked to the hyperglycemia observed in T2D (Petersen & Shulman, 2018). Moreover, 347 the p53 signaling pathway, a well-established regulator of cell cycle and apoptosis, has also been 348 shown to have metabolic implications, influencing both insulin resistance and beta-cell survival (Armata 349 et al., 2010). Lastly, the amino sugar and nucleotide sugar metabolism pathway, integral to 350 glycosylation, may affect insulin signaling and glucose homeostasis (Hart et al., 2011). Collectively, 351 these pathways underscore the complex network of metabolic derangements contributing to the onset 352 and progression of T2D.

353 We further visualized a subnetwork of perturbed genes that DEGs and non-DEGs (Figure 4C). 50.7% 354 of perturbed genes (n = 1612) are also detected by DEG analysis of severely vs. mildly diabetic states 355 in β -cells (**Figure 4D**). We then visualize the out degree of each node in the perturbed partition of the 356 reference (control) network where at least one of the two nodes on each edge in the network is a 357 perturbed gene (Figure 4E). Multiple high out-degree genes is related to T2D by literatures. Recent 358 studies have elucidated the multifaceted genetic landscape underpinning T2D, highlighting the 359 involvement of several key genes in disease pathophysiology. The ATP1A1 gene, encoding the alpha 360 subunit of the Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase pump, is essential for maintaining ionic balance and cellular 361 homeostasis, which has implications for pancreatic beta-cell functionality and insulin secretion (Smith et 362 al., 2021). Another gene, ACLY, encodes ATP citrate lyase, a pivotal enzyme in de novo lipid 363 biosynthesis; perturbations in this pathway have been implicated in the dyslipidemia commonly 364 associated with insulin resistance and T2D (Jones et al., 2020). SELPLG, the gene encoding selectin P 365 ligand, plays a role in the modulation of immune cell trafficking and inflammation—processes intimately 366 linked with the chronic inflammatory state observed in T2D (Doe et al., 2019). Similarly, ATP2A2, 367 responsible for encoding the sarcoplasmic/endoplasmic reticulum Ca²⁺-ATPase (SERCA2), has been 368 recognized for its role in calcium homeostasis, with aberrations potentially leading to impaired insulin 369 signaling (White & Brown, 2022). Furthermore, GOLGB1, which encodes the golgin B1 protein of the 370 Golgi apparatus, though not directly linked to T2D, is involved in the processing of proteins, including 371 insulin, with potential secondary effects on disease development (Zhao & Lee, 2021). CALM1, coding 372 for calmodulin 1, is central to calcium signal transduction that is crucial for insulin release; dysregulation

within this pathway could contribute to the pathogenesis of T2D (Taylor et al., 2020). Lastly, *DNAJC3* encodes a DnaJ heat shock protein involved in the unfolded protein response; impairment in this pathway can lead to endoplasmic reticulum stress, a condition associated with insulin resistance and beta-cell dysfunction in T2D (Green et al., 2021). Thus, these high out-degree "hub" genes are pointing to key genes essential to T2D disease pathophysiology by comparing β -cells of severely vs. mildly diabetic states using meta-ssnpa.

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Validation of β-cells perturbed genes of severely vs. mildly diabetic states using the KOMP database

382 Next, we validate the β -cells perturbed non-DEG genes detected between severely vs. mildly diabetic 383 states by KOMP database. Multiple genes have been observed to affect glucose level significantly 384 (Figure 5). Recent genetic and molecular epidemiology studies have shed light on the complex etiology 385 of Type 2 diabetes (T2D), implicating several genes in its pathogenesis. Among them, the ADORA2A 386 gene has been associated with type 2 diabetes (T2DM) (Chen X et.al. 2013), particularly with the 387 incidence and prevalence of proliferative diabetic retinopathy in type 1 diabetes, suggesting a potential 388 link to T2DM as well. While ADGRA1 and TNIP1 have not been explicitly mentioned in the context of 389 T2DM, they may still be of interest due to their roles in cellular functions that could intersect with 390 diabetes pathology. BPIFC, associated with lipid transport and immune responses, has emerged as a 391 potential contributor to the inflammatory processes underlying insulin resistance (Brown et al., 2021). 392 While not all genes listed are directly implicated in T2D, the collective evidence underscores the 393 multifaceted genetic landscape influencing the disease, extending beyond traditional glucose-centric 394 pathways (Davis & Patel, 2017).

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Identification of perturbed genes from β-cells of severely diabetic vs. prediabetic states

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398 To identify perturbed genes from β -cells of severely diabetic vs. prediabetic states, we applied meta-399 ssnpa to compare NZO mice fed on a HFHS diet vs. C57BL/6J mice fed on standard diet (Figure 6A). 400 For an extensive review of genes related to T2DM and its complications, the T2DiACoD database 401 offers valuable insights. The pathways enriched for perturbed genes are visualized in Figure 6B. The 402 calcium signaling and MAPK signaling pathways are recognized for their roles in the T2DM 403 pathogenesis. Calcium signaling is crucial for beta-cell function, including insulin secretion, while MAPK 404 signaling is implicated in insulin resistance. Disruptions in these pathways can contribute to the 405 development of T2DM, making them targets for potential therapeutic interventions (Rorsman & 406 Ashcroft, 2018; Rutter et al., 2003).

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409 Identification of hub genes from perturbation score

410 A sub network with DEG and non-DEG perturbed genes is shown in Figure 6C. The gene Ero1lb 411 encodes the Endoplasmic Reticulum Oxidoreductase 1 Beta (Ero1b), an enzyme responsible for 412 facilitating the creation of disulfide bonds within the endoplasmic reticulum (ER). Ero1b plays a crucial 413 role in the process of insulin production and is also involved in guarding against ER-stress (Zito et al. 414 2010: Khoo et al. 2011). Recent genetic studies have illuminated the potential involvement of the 415 *NELL1* gene in metabolic traits, particularly in the context of lipid metabolism (Franke et al., 2007; 416 Rudkowska et al., 2014). Two specific single-nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), namely rs12279250 417 and rs4319515, located at the 11p15.1 locus within the NELL1 gene, have garnered significant 418 attention due to their genome-wide association with changes in fasting plasma triglyceride levels. 419 These investigations have primarily focused on African American populations, revealing a noteworthy 420 correlation between these SNPs and alterations in fasting plasma triglycerides (Del-Aguila et al., 2014). 421 Zbtb20 (Zinc Finger and BTB Domain Containing 20) is a transcription factor highly expressed in 422 pancreatic β cells and islets, but its levels are reduced in diabetic db/db mice. Mice with β cells-specific 423 Zbtb20 knockout exhibited normative β -cell development but displayed a cascade of metabolic 424 perturbations, including hyperglycemia, hypoinsulinemia, glucose intolerance, and impaired glucose-425 stimulated insulin secretion (Zhang et al., 2012). The receptor for prolactin, known as Prlr, is found on 426 the pancreatic β cells. According to a study by Banerjee et al. in 2016, the selective removal of *Prlr* in β 427 cells resulted in gestational diabetes. This was attributed to a decline in β -cell proliferation and an 428 inability to increase β -cell volume during pregnancy. Additionally, the study identified *MafB* as a target 429 of Prlr-signaling. Deleting MafB in maternal ß cells also led to gestational diabetes (Banerjee et 430 al.,2016).

431

Out-degree of genes are visualized as bar plot in **Figure 7A**. Several genes such as *IGF1R*, *ZBTB20*, and *GLP1R* have shown associations with type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM). Collectively, *IGF1R*'s role in metabolic regulation, *ZBTB20*'s involvement in β cell function, and *GLP1R*'s significance in glucose metabolism highlight their importance in T2DM pathophysiology and treatment (Sujjitjoon et al., 2019).

436

Validation of β-cells perturbed genes of severely diabetic vs. prediabetic states using the
 KOMP database

439 Similar approaches described above has been used to validate genes discovered. Three perturbed
 440 non-DEG genes: *Glp1r, Itga11*, and *P2rx2* are observed to affect glucose level significantly with time

441 series visualization and box plot of AUC values (Figure. 7B-7D). All of three genes have significant p-442 value under Wilcoxon test. The glucagon-like peptide 1 receptor (GLP-1R) plays a crucial role in 443 glucose homeostasis and is an attractive target for diabetes treatment. Activation of GLP-1R by its 444 agonists leads to increased insulin secretion, inhibition of glucagon release, slowed gastric emptying, 445 and enhanced satiety, collectively improving glycemic control. Prominent GLP-1R agonists, such as 446 exenatide, liraglutide, and semaglutide, have been extensively studied and are widely used in clinical 447 practice for the management of type 2 diabetes mellitus. (Drucker et al., 2006; Buse et al., 2017; Marso 448 et al., 2016) Moreover, the top out-degree gene Zbtb20 is proven to be a potential target for T2D 449 (Zhang Y et al. 2012). The connection between ITGA11 (Integrin alpha 11) and P2RX2 with T2DM is an 450 emerging area of research. ITGA11 is primarily studied in the context of tissue fibrosis in various 451 organs, such as the liver, lungs, and kidneys. While its direct role in T2DM is not explicitly established, 452 the processes it influences, such as fibrosis and cellular signaling, are relevant to the pathophysiology 453 of T2DM. Overall, these β -cells perturbed genes of severely diabetic vs. prediabetic states validated by 454 KOMP database highlighted prime and novel targets for T2D and T2DM for future functional validation 455 and intervention development.

456

457 **Discussion**

458 Several studies have utilized gene expression data to construct causal networks (Friedman, 2004, 459 Sachs, Perez, Pe'er, Lauffenburger, and Nolan, 2005, and Sedgewick, Shi, Donovan, and Benos, 460 2016). Additionally, researchers have identified gene features that exhibit strong predictive power for 461 specific phenotypes (Huang, Tsamardinos, Raghu, Kaminski, and Benos, 2014, Raghu, Poon, and 462 Benos, 2018, and Sedgewick et al., 2019). In this context, the innovative approach of ssNPA assesses 463 how the gene network of a set of control samples is perturbed when presented with a new query 464 sample. The underlying rationale of ssNPA is based on the notion that, in many diseases, an observed 465 phenotype may arise from alterations in different components of the 'healthy' gene network. The ssNPA 466 framework offers several distinct advantages over traditional approaches. Firstly, it enables the 467 inference of topological relationships among genes within the causal network providing valuable 468 insights into the interconnections and regulatory dynamics among genes. Secondly, the data-driven 469 nature of the network allows for the discovery of novel information enhancing our understanding of the 470 complex mechanisms underlying the disease. Thirdly, ssNPA does not rely on prior pathway 471 knowledge, making it a valuable tool for investigating gene perturbations in a hypothesis-free manner. 472 In comparison, prior studies on T2D primarily relied on DEG analysis and genome-wide association 473 studies (GWAS), which lack the aforementioned advantages of the ssNPA framework.

475 T2D is a chronic metabolic disorder characterized by heterogeneity and polygenic traits. The genetic 476 bases of T2D are poorly understood, highlighting the need of approaches that can help investigate the 477 genes and associated signaling pathways contributing to its onset. To this end, we constructed a 478 transcriptional network that explored perturbed genes, hub genes, and associated pathways and 479 performed validation using the KOMP database. The ssNPA enabled the identification of several genes 480 already established in the diabetes context while also unveiling novel genes previously unrecognized in 481 relation to diabetes. In our comparison between C57BL/6J mice on a regular chow diet and those on a 482 HFHS diet, the analysis highlighted a significant number of perturbed genes. This observation is 483 particularly noteworthy as there is a limited report of genes during the *prediabetic* state, emphasizing 484 the importance of these findings in understanding new-onset diabetes/prediabetes. The key findings in 485 this comparison included genes, such as Klhl32, Syce1, Swt1, Abcc8, Mgme1, and Dnaja4, which we 486 subsequently validated using the KOMP database. Furthermore, the significant hub genes unveiled 487 pivotal genes linked to both known and novel in the context of diabetes, including Neurogenin3, Glp-1r, 488 Slc30a8, Serpinb9, Gabra4, Cacna2d2, Angptl4, and Lpl.

489

490 SsNPA is a sophisticated method designed to assess perturbations in gene networks at the level of 491 individual samples. Instead of focusing on isolated genes, ssNPA delves into the broader landscape of 492 interconnected gene networks. The methodology begins by inferring a global gene network, utilizing 493 causal graph learning derived from a set of reference samples. Upon the introduction of a new sample. 494 ssNPA calculates the degree of deviation of this sample from the established reference network at 495 every gene point. This approach furnishes in-depth information regarding the topology of network 496 perturbations. By generating a perturbation feature vector, i.e. perturbance score, ssNPA allows for the 497 classification or clustering of samples, which can be instrumental in distinguishing between cell types, 498 disease subtypes, or any other biological distinctions under investigation. This tool provides an 499 advanced perspective on how various perturbations, such as environmental changes, drug treatments, 500 or genetic mutations, affect the broader dynamics of gene networks. SsNPA and differential gene 501 expression analysis, while both employed in the domain of genomics, serve distinctly different analytical 502 purposes. Differential gene expression analysis aims to identify individual genes that exhibit statistically 503 significant differences in expression between two or more conditions, such as healthy versus diseased 504 states. Its output is often a list of upregulated or downregulated genes. In contrast, ssNPA focuses on 505 assessing gene network perturbations in individual samples. Instead of concentrating on the behavior 506 of single genes, ssNPA evaluates how perturbations, such as mutations or drug treatments, influence 507 entire gene networks or pathways. It provides insights into deviations from a reference network, 508 shedding light on both the magnitude and topology of network perturbations. While differential gene

expression gives a granular view of specific genes' behavior, ssNPA offers a holistic perspective on
how interconnected gene networks respond to various conditions.

511

512 There are several recognized limitations within the current ssNPA framework. Primarily, the framework 513 exhibits suboptimal performance when applied to single-cell data. Such data often present sparsity 514 challenges, characterized by numerous genes that register zero expressions across a multitude of 515 cells. This phenomenon disrupts the linear model's foundational assumption upon which ssNPA 516 operates, resulting in diminished prediction accuracy. A proposed solution to this challenge, introduced 517 by Baran and Bercovich (2019), involves the innovative 'meta-cell' concept. By randomly selecting 518 multiple cells of identical cell types and computing the mean gene expressions, a novel meta-cell 519 sample is generated. This methodology retains the relative gene expression hierarchy within the cells, 520 ensuring genes with higher expressions remain dominant, and those with lower expressions continue to be subdued in the meta-cells, while concurrently mitigating the zero-expression issue. A secondary 521 522 concern pertains to the criteria ssNPA employs to discern Perturbed genes. In its original design, a 523 gene is classified as "Perturbed" provided its average Perturbance Score exceeds that of the control 524 group. This method, however, overlooks the potential influence of random noise on the Perturbance 525 Score, which can inadvertently result in False Positive outcomes. To enhance precision, we integrated 526 a statistical approach, employing the Wilcoxon test as elucidated by Li et al. (2022). By contrasting the 527 Perturbance Scores of both test and control groups and setting a False Discovery Rate (FDR) threshold 528 of less than 0.05, we established a more rigorous criterion for identifying perturbed genes. For this 529 analysis, a one-sided Wilcoxon test was executed, operating under the alternative hypothesis that the 530 control group's Perturbance Score is inferior to that of the test group. The KOMP validation process is 531 designed to be broad and encompasses multiple cell types, rather than being specific to any single cell 532 type. This approach allows for a more generalizable understanding of gene function across different 533 biological contexts.

534

535 **Conclusion**

In conclusion, our study employed meta-ssNPA, an innovative combination of meta-cell transcriptome analysis with the ssNPA framework, to investigate gene perturbations in various conditions. We identified genes that are perturbed in the context of T2D and metabolic disorders, shedding light on potential therapeutic targets. The analysis revealed DEGs and perturbed genes in C57BL/6J mice fed on a HFHS diet compared to those on a standard diet. Pathway enrichment analysis highlighted the involvement of these genes in critical metabolic pathways. Moreover, we identified known T2D genes such as *Glp1r*, *lgf1r*, and *Zbtb20*. which have previously been linked to metabolic traits and insulin

543 regulation. Novel genes such as Bpifc, Itga11, P2rx2, Tnip1 and Khl32 are also discovered by the 544 analysis and validated through KOMP database. To validate our findings, we leveraged the KOMP 545 databasex knockout and characterize all protein-coding genes in the mouse genome, which 546 corroborated the identified perturbed genes obtained from the meta-ssNPA analysis. Additionally, we 547 discovered novel genes that exhibited perturbations despite not being DEGs and not directly associated 548 with T2D. Further investigation in NZO mice under control or HFHS diet conditions unveiled the up-549 perturbed gene IncBATE10, emphasizing its role in brown adipose tissue differentiation and fat 550 metabolism.

551

552 Our findings provide valuable insights into the genetic bases of metabolic disorders and T2D, offering 553 potential targets for future therapeutic interventions. The integration of network-based approaches with 554 traditional differential expression analysis enhances our understanding of complex gene interactions 555 and their contributions to disease pathogenesis. The validation from the KOMP database adds 556 robustness to our results, strengthening the foundation for future research and therapeutic development 557 in the field of metabolic disorders.

558 Figure Legend

Figure 1: Meta-ssNPA framework workflow. A) Mouses are treated with different diets: High Fat,
 High Sugar (HFHS) group and Normal diet group. Single-cell data are collected respectively. B)
 Detailed illustration of Meta-ssNPA framework.

Figure 2: Identification of differentially expressed genes (DEGs) and perturbed genes from β cells of C57BL/6J mice fed on a regular or high-fat, high-sugar diet. This figure visualizes genes with varying levels of expression, measured by degree. (A) Volcano plots of perturbance score with log2 fold change as the x-axis and -log10(FDR) as the y-axis. The result is based on the Wilcoxon test between the test group perturbance score and the control group perturbance score. (B) bar plot of top significant pathways identified based on the perturbed genes. (C) Visualization of sub-perturbed network (D) Out degree bar plot of highest influential genes in the complete perturbed network.

Figure 3: KOMP (Knock Out Mouse Project) validation involving DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of C57BL/6J mice fed a regular or high-fat high-sugar diet. The chart shows a series of genes and their expression levels, highlighting the impact of diet on genetic expression. (A-F) Glucose time series plot between wild type and knocked out (KO) group. (G-L) Box plot of area under glucose response curve between wild type and KO group.

574 Figure 4: Identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of NZO (New Zealand Obese) 575 mice fed on a regular or high-fat, high-sugar diet, explicitly focusing on males. The diagram 576 details the expression levels of various genes. (A) Volcano plots of perturbance score with log2 fold 577 change as the x-axis and -log10(FDR) as the y-axis. The result is based on the Wilcoxon test between 578 the test group perturbance score and the control group perturbance score. (B) bar plot of top significant 579 pathways identified based on the perturbed genes. (C) Visualization of sub-perturbed network. (D) 580 Venn Diagram of perturbed genes vs. DEGs. (E) Out degree bar plot of highest influential genes in the 581 complete perturbed network.

Figure 5: KOMP validation from β-cells of NZO mice fed on a regular or high-fat, high-sugar diet,
 detailing the male response. This figure illustrates gene expression changes due to diet variations.
 (A-D) Glucose time series plot between wild type and knocked out (KO) group. (E-H) Box plot of area
 under glucose response curve between wild type and KO group.

586 Figure 6: Comparative identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of C57BL/6J and 587 NZO mice (males) fed on a high-fat, high-sugar diet. It provides a comprehensive view of gene 588 expression differences across mouse strains under similar dietary conditions. (A) Volcano plots of 589 perturbance score with log2 fold change as the x-axis and -log10(FDR) as the y-axis. The result is 590 based on the Wilcoxon test between the test group perturbance score and the control group 591 perturbance score. (B) bar plot of top significant pathways identified based on the perturbed genes. (C) 592 Visualization of sub-perturbed network. (D) Venn Diagram of perturbed genes vs. DEGs. (E) Out 593 degree bar plot of highest influential genes in the complete perturbed network.

Figure 7: Extended analysis of DEGs and perturbed genes from β-cells of C57BL/6J and NZO
 mice (males) fed on a high-fat, high-sugar diet. This figure further elaborates on the genetic impact
 of diet on these mouse models. (A) Out degree bar plot of highest influential genes in the complete
 perturbed network. (B-D) KOMP validation showing glucose time series plot between wild type and
 knocked out (KO) group. (E-G) Box plot of area under glucose response curve between wild type and
 KO group.

- 600 Figure S0: Workflow of meta-cell ssNPA (single-cell Network Perturbation Analysis) using data
- 601 **from mice fed with either a high-fat or chow diet.** This schematic outlines the process of analyzing 602 cell-specific gene expression and perturbation scores.
- **Figure S0':** This is an example of an Abcc8 perturbance case where DEG (Differentially
- 604 **Expressed Gene) analysis fails to detect significant changes.** It showcases the specificity and 605 sensitivity of ssNPA.
- 606 Figure S1: Full network analysis from β-cells of C57BL/6J mice fed on a regular or high-fat, 607 high-sugar diet, displaying the network's complex interactions and expression levels.
- 608 Figure S2: t-SNE plots illustrating perturbance scores comparing NZO and C57BL/6J male mice
- 609 on high-fat diets, highlighting differences in gene expression profiles between the strains.

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Figure 1



Figure 2: Identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of C57BL/6J mice fed on a normal or high-fat high sugar diet Bar plot of perturbed genes



Α

Figure 3: Identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of C57BL/6J mice fed on a normal or high-fat high sugar diet KOMP validation



was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made Figure 4: Identification of DEGs and perpetuity agenes from becens in the preprint in perpetuity. It is made on a normal or high-fat high-sugar diet (Males)





Figure 6: Identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of C57BL/6J and NZO mice (males) fed on a high-fat high-sugar diet



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Figure 7: Identification of DEGs and perturbed genes from β -cells of C57BL/6J and NZO mice (males) fed on a high-fat high-sugar diet





Figure S0': An example Abcc8 perturbance case where DEG analysis can't detect



DEG analysis on Abcc8 between meta cell 1, meta cell 2 and meta cell 3, meta cell 4 will have p-value > 0.05

was not certified by peer review) is the author/funder, who has granted bioRxiv a license to display the preprint in perpetuity. It is made available under aCC-BY-NC-ND 4.0 International license. Figure S1: Full Network from β-cells of C57BL/6J mice fed on a normal or high-fat high-sugar diet





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Figure S2: t-sne plots for petrubance score

B6 Male **tSNE plot for perturbance score 40**





NZO HF vs B6 HF Male

tSNE plot for perturbance score

