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Multi-omic latent variable data integration reveals multicellular structure pathways associated with resistance to tuberculin skin test (TST)/interferon gamma release assay (IGRA) conversion in Uganda

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Abstract

Understanding the mechanisms of early clearance of *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb) may illuminate new therapeutic strategies for tuberculosis (TB). We previously found genetic, epigenetic, and transcriptomic signatures associated with resistance (resister, RSTR) to tuberculin skin test (TST)/interferon gamma release assay (IGRA) conversion among highly exposed TB contacts. We hypothesized that integration of these datasets with multi-omic latent factor methods would detect pathways differentiating RSTR patients from those with asymptomatic TB infection (TBI, also known as latent TB infection or LTBI) that were not detected in individual dataset analyses. We pre-filtered and scaled features with the largest change between TBI and RSTR groups for 126 patients with data in at least two of five data modalities: single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNP), monocyte RNAseq (baseline and Mtb-stimulated conditions), and monocyte epigenetics (methylation and ATAC-seq). Using multiomic latent factor analysis (MOFA), we generated ten latent factors on the subset of 33 patients with all five datasets available, four of which differed by RSTR status (FDR < 0.1). Factor 4 showed the greatest difference between RSTR and TBI groups (FDR < 0.001). Three additional latent factor integration methods also distinguished the RSTR and TBI groups and identified overlapping features with MOFA. Using pathway analysis and a cluster-based enrichment method, we identified functions associated with latent factors and found that MOFA Factors 2–4 include functions related to cell-cell adhesion, cell shape, and multicellular structure development. In summary, latent variable integration methods uncovered signatures associated with resistance to TST/IGRA conversion that were not detected by individual dataset analyses and included pathways associated with cellular interactions and multicellular structures.

Keywords Multi-omics, Genetics, Transcriptomics, Epigenetics, *Mycobacterium tuberculosis*, MOFA, Integration, Resister, MadRich

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Introduction

Tuberculosis (TB) is a leading cause of global mortality including 1.3 million deaths among 10.6 million cases reported in 2022 [1]. Following heavy exposure to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* (Mtb), a range of outcomes occurs including TB disease, asymptomatic or latent TB infection (TBI) defined clinically as a positive tuberculin skin test (TST) or IFN γ release assay (IGRA), and resistance to TST/IGRA conversion (RSTR) that may represent clearance of infection through IFN γ -independent mechanisms [2–4].

Immunologic and genetic mechanisms of resistance to Mtb infection following close contact have been investigated in several cohorts [3, 5–8] including a long-term household contacts study in Uganda [2, 4], a country with a high incidence of Mtb infection [9]. Genetic [10, 11], epigenetic [12], and transcriptional [13, 14] signatures differentiating TBI and RSTR subjects have been described in monocyte-derived data from this cohort, pointing to several possible mechanisms of resistance within the inflammatory response including TNF responses [11, 13] and lipid metabolism [12, 14]. However, there is little agreement across these data modalities in terms of specific genes or pathways that might be investigated as potential therapeutic targets. An integrated analysis of these datasets may help to further identify pathways and features that differentiate TBI and RSTR subjects, generating new lines of inquiry for investigation into the mechanisms underlying resistance to Mtb infection [15, 16].

In this work, we utilize several multi-omic latent variable integration methods to identify driving sources of variation across data modalities. The primary integration method used is MOFA+, an unsupervised factor analysis method [17]. MOFA+ and similar integrative computational methods can provide mechanistic insights above and beyond traditional -omic data analyses by revealing functional pathways whose regulation may span across more than one step in the cascade from chromosome to protein or metabolite. These methods have aided in novel biomarker identification, classification of disease subtypes, and discovery of candidate drug targets in various diseases with complex mechanisms [18, 19]. By integrating genetics with monocyte-derived methylation, chromatin accessibility, and transcriptomic datasets from the Uganda resister cohort, we explored mechanisms of resistance to TST/IGRA conversion that were not detected in the previous analyses of each independent dataset.

Methods

Cohort

Patients with culture-positive pulmonary tuberculosis (TB) were recruited as part of the Kawempe Community Health Study from 2002 to 2012 in Kampala, Uganda

[4]. All participants were at least 15 years old at the time of retracing, HIV-negative, and gave written, informed consent, approved by the institutional review boards of their associated institutions. Household contacts of index TB cases were then enrolled and followed for 2 years by tuberculin skin tests (TST). A subset of TST-negative and matched TST-positive individuals were retraced from 2014 to 2017 and re-assessed by TST as well as IFN γ release assays (IGRA) for an additional 2 years [2]. Latent tuberculosis infection (TBI) was defined as individuals with fully concordant positive TST and IGRA tests. Resisters (RSTR) were defined as concordant negative TST and IGRA. Previously generated data include genetic association studies with single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) [11], as well as chromatin accessibility (ATAC-seq) [12], methylation [12], and transcriptional responses (RNA-seq) [13, 14] in monocytes.

Kinship

Genotypes were determined using the Illumina MEGA^{EX} array containing 2 million single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) probes or Infinium OmniExpress Bead-Chip containing 710,000 probes as previously reported [11]. SNPs were filtered for minor allele frequency (MAF > 0.05), call rate (> 0.95), Hardy-Weinberg Equilibrium ($P < 1 \times 10^{-6}$), and linkage disequilibrium ($R^2 < 0.1$ in 50 bp windows with a 5 bp slide) in PLINK2 [20]. This yielded 63,812 filtered SNPs for kinship calculation. Pairwise kinship was calculated using the robust King method for identity-by-descent (IBD, SNPRelate v1.22.0) [21] and a genetic relationship matrix (GRM, GENESIS v2.18.0 [22]).

Data preprocessing

To examine integrated profiles that distinguish RSTR and TBI clinical groups with MOFA, we selected five previously published datasets: monocyte RNA-seq [13, 14] (media condition and Mtb-stimulated), monocyte methylation [12] (media condition), monocyte ATAC-seq [12] (media condition), and SNPs [11]. The study design including data processing and analysis is summarized in Fig. 1. Collectively, these SNPs, methylation probes, ATAC-seq peaks, and RNA-seq genes are referred to as features for integration. Features not annotated to a known gene (GRCh38) [23] were omitted. In the methylation data, outliers > 4 SD from the overall mean were rescaled to 4 SD. In the continuous datasets (RNA-seq [media and Mtb-stimulated], ATAC-seq, methylation), log2 fold changes were calculated for RSTR vs. TBI across the 126-patient dataset including patients with at least 2 data modalities. For ordinal SNP data, fold changes in minor allele frequencies were calculated by for RSTR/TBI. For the larger datasets (features > 1×10^5), the top 1% of features with the greatest absolute log2 fold change

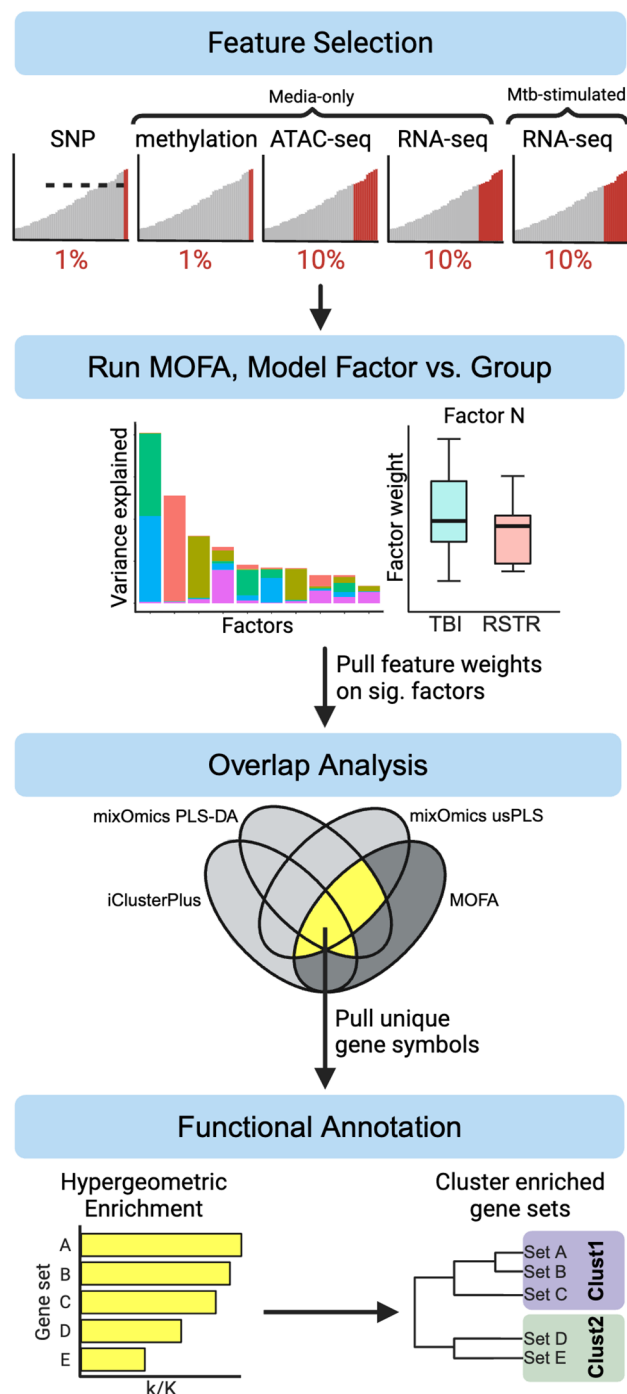


Fig. 1 Data processing and analysis workflow for multi-omics integration in the Uganda RSTR cohort. This analysis consisted of four major parts: (1) input feature selection, (2) creation of the MOFA factors, (3) comparison of top-weighted features on significant factors with those from other latent variable integration methods and selection of features highlighted by MOFA and at least two additional methods, (4) and factor annotation based on functional enrichment of those reduced feature lists and summary of enrichment results by gene set clustering. Created in <https://BioRender.com>

were selected for downstream analysis (SNPs = 6609, methylation = 5349). For the smaller datasets (features $< 1 \times 10^5$), the features in the top 10% by greatest absolute log2 fold change were selected (RNA-seq = 1398, ATAC-seq = 2466). Subjects missing any of the five integrated datasets were omitted in integrative analyses. This resulted in 33 subjects and 1.7×10^4 total features for integration. Data completeness for the full cohort of 126 patients is summarized in Supplemental Fig. 1.

MOFA implementation

MOFA infers a set of latent factors to capture sources of variability across and within data modalities with different underlying data structures and distributions [17]. Factor generation in MOFA is unsupervised and results in matrices of factor loadings by feature for each of the integrated datasets, as well as factor loadings by subject. From the 5 datasets filtered from 33 subjects, ten latent factors were generated using the MOFA + package [17] in R v4.2.3 [24] using default parameters apart from scale_views being set to TRUE to allow for the different datasets to be scaled to equal variance and the function-internal random seed being set to improve reproducibility. RSTR and TBI MOFA factor values were compared using a mixed effects models corrected for age, sex, and genetic kinship in kinma [25]. Functional annotation was performed on factors that differed between RSTR and TBI (FDR < 0.2). Data sets that explained $> 5\%$ of variance on a factor were considered for functional characterization of that factor. The top five features by MOFA weight in each dataset were subjected to hypergeometric enrichment against MSigDB databases [26] as described below.

Additional latent variable integration methods

To reduce the feature lists to more specifically characterize functions represented by MOFA factors, an overlap analysis was performed with several alternative multi-omic latent variable integration methods. Three non-MOFA methods were implemented. The first was a multiblock unsupervised partial-least-squares analysis performed using the mixOmics::block.pls function in the canonical mode with Mtb-stimulated RNA-seq designated as the response dataset [27]. The design matrix included zeroes on the diagonal and 0.1 on the off-diagonal; two latent variables were generated. Like MOFA, this is an unsupervised method that generates latent factors naïve to sample group. Second, a multiblock partial-least-squares discriminant analysis was performed with the same structure of the design matrix using the mixOmics::block.plsda function to generate two latent variables [27]. This is a supervised method that creates factors that best separate TBI and RSTR groups. Lastly, the unsupervised, graph-based method iClusterPlus was used to generate three latent variables with the function

iClusterBayes [28, 29]. Model tuning was performed using the function `tune.iClusterBayes`, and the final model was built with default parameters for the Markov Chain Monte Carlo sampling apart from: number of burn-in iterations set to 18,000, number of draws set to 12,000, and prior gamma probability set to 0.5 for all five input datasets.

Multi-method feature selection

Models were generated with `kimma` to compare `mixOmics` and `iClusterPlus` latent factors by TBI/RSTR sample group with sex, age, and kinship correction [25]. The most extreme 10% of features on each of the significant latent variables ($FDR < 0.2$) from each of the five datasets were selected to look for overlap with the top MOFA features on RSTR significant factors.

Top MOFA features were selected from datasets explaining at least 5% of variance on factors that significantly differed in RSTR and TBI. A proportion of the most extreme features were selected equal to $(0.25 * P_d)$, where P_d is the proportion of variance explained by the dataset on that factor. Features were selected from this reduced MOFA feature list that also occurred in the extreme feature list for at least two out of three of the non-MOFA integration methods (Fig. 1). The gene annotations associated with these overlapping features were subjected to hypergeometric enrichment using MSigDB as described below.

Comparison with individual data set analyses

MOFA reduced feature lists for each factor were compared to results from the individual analyses of the integrated datasets. For RNA-seq data, expression was modeled with respect to Mtb stimulation (media-only and Mtb-stimulated) and RSTR status. Features significant for the interaction term (Mtb: RSTR) of that model ($FDR < 0.2$) were selected for comparison with the MOFA reduced feature lists [13]. For the ATAC-seq data, the two peaks that differed ($FDR < 0.2$) between TBI and RSTR were used [12]. Methylation was assessed both as differentially methylated probes and probes within differentially methylated regions previously defined by DMRcate. For this analysis, methylation features significant under either scheme were included ($FDR < 0.2$) [12]. SNPs from the reduced feature lists were queried from the GWAS dataset and compared with the 40 SNPs that passed the 5×10^{-5} significance threshold for that analysis [11].

Functional enrichment

Hypergeometric enrichment of protein-coding genes in top-weighted MOFA feature lists and gene lists generated in the overlap analysis were performed using the `SEARChways` package in R [30]. For MOFA Factors 1 and 2, the `flexEnrich` function was used. For MOFA

Factors 3 and 4, there were a number of features with more than one gene annotation, necessitating the use of the `iterEnrich` function to account for annotation of features to multiple HGNC symbols with random sub-sampling. Enrichment was tested against the Hallmark [26], C2 curated gene sets (Canonical Processes), and C5 gene ontology gene sets (Biological Processes) [31, 32] databases from the Molecular Signatures Database. In all cases, a minimum overlap threshold of three was imposed between the query and pathway gene lists. Additionally, within each analysis the minimum gene set size considered was 10, and the maximum was three standard deviations over the mean gene set size for each database (Hallmark = 386.6, C2 CP = 361.7, C5 GO: BP = 786.2).

In order to summarize pathway enrichment results, significant gene sets ($FDR < 0.2$) were subjected to hierarchical clustering based on the overlap coefficient [33] calculated on pathway gene membership. Clusters were generated using a tree-cut height of 0.8. Cluster annotation was based on a combination of the largest gene set within each cluster and word cloud diagrams built on member gene set names and descriptions [34].

Results

To identify new biologic signatures that distinguish RSTR and TBI phenotypes, we integrated five data sets previously generated from monocytes from household contacts of Mtb cases in Uganda (media-only and Mtb-stimulated RNAseq [13, 14], ATACseq [12], methylation [12], SNPs [11], Fig. 1). Data from 18 RSTR (mean age 23 at sample collection) and 15 TBI cases (mean age 21.5 at sample collection) were used in this integrated analysis (Table 1). Multi-omic factor analysis was applied, creating latent factors that describe axes of heterogeneity that can span across input data modalities. Once these factors were identified, features with the high absolute weight on the factors were used to relate them to etiology.

Dataset selection and preprocessing

While factor analysis allows for integration of differing data modalities with variable sizes, performance is improved through upstream feature selection. Here, we apply a semi-supervised approach to better balance data set size and enrich for RSTR/TBI signal. The total number of raw features across all five datasets was 1,526,259 with 1,250,370 annotated to known genes. Seven methylation values fell $> 4SD$ from the mean of all methylation data and were rescaled. Data was pre-filtered to the features with the largest difference between TBI and RSTR groups per dataset for 126 patients with data in at least two of the five data modalities. The final dataset contained 1,398 genes for each of the media-only and Mtb-stimulated RNA-seq datasets, 5,349 methylation probes, 2,466 ATAC-seq peaks, and 6,609 SNPs for a total of

Table 1 Demographic data and group membership of subjects in input datasets

	TBI	RSTR	p-value ^A
N subjects	15	18	
Median Age at Enrollment (IQR)	15 (8.5)	12.5 (7.5)	0.277
Median Age at Sample Collection (IQR)	23 (4)	21.5 (7.5)	0.293
Sex, % Male (n/N)	66% (10/15)	39% (7/18)	0.215
Median BMI (IQR) ^B	23.6 (4.0)	21.2 (6.6)	0.546
Median Exposure Score at Enrollment (IQR)	6 (1.5)	6 (1.0)	0.690
BCG scar, % Yes (n/N) ^B	60% (9/15)	61% (11/18)	0.981
% HIV+	0	0	
Relatedness Within Phenotype			
Mean 3° or Closer Per Person (SD)	0.53 (0.52)	0.33 (0.49)	0.263
Mean 1° or Closer Per Person (SD)	0.13 (0.35)	0 (0)	0.126

^A P-values calculated by Wilcoxon rank-sum tests for continuous variables and Pearson's chi-squared tests for categorical variables

^B NA values were present in these variables. For BMI, the one NA value was in the RSTR group and was excluded from summary statistics. In % BCG scar, the 9 NA values across groups (RSTR=5, TBI=4) were treated as a third group in addition to "Yes" and "No" for the statistical test

17,220 features across all data types (Table 2). MOFA factors were then generated on the subset of patients with all five datasets available (Table 2, $n = 33$).

MOFA latent factors distinguish RSTR and TBI groups

To enrich for signal, features from each dataset were pre-filtered to those with the greatest fold-change difference between TBI and RSTR. Using this filtered feature list, we generated ten latent factors in MOFA (Supplemental Figs. 2 & 3), four of which were different between TBI and RSTR (Fig. 2, Supplemental Table 1, $FDR < 0.1$). Variance on Factor 1 was primarily explained by features from the two RNA-seq datasets, Factor 2 from the ATAC-seq dataset, and Factor 3 from the methylation

and SNP datasets. In contrast, Factor 4 better integrated the input datasets, with >5% variance explained by each of the SNP, methylation, Mtb-stimulated RNA-seq, and ATAC-seq datasets. Strikingly, Factor 4 showed near perfect discrimination between RSTR and TBI groups, with the TBI group associated with negative values on the factor and the RSTR group with positive values on the factor ($FDR < 0.001$). Together, these analyses suggest that MOFA identified factors which differentiate the RSTR and TBI groups with features from multiple datasets, thus providing opportunities for novel insights beyond individual data set analyses (Supplemental Figs. 4 & 5).

Overlap analysis with additional latent variable integration methods

We next validated MOFA findings using alternative data integration methods. Three additional data integrations were performed including both unsupervised and supervised approaches: two methods from the mixOmics package yielded two latent variables each, and the iClusterPlus package yielded three latent variables (Supplemental Fig. 6). All four latent variables generated by the mixOmics methods and two of three generated in iClusterPlus significantly differed between TBI and RSTR groups ($FDR < 0.1$, Supplemental Table 1). High-weighted features on each MOFA factor were selected proportional to the size and dataset contribution to total variance for each modality explaining >5% of variance on the factor. High-importance features on the latent factors generated in the non-MOFA methods were also compiled by selecting features with the top 10% absolute value on each significant latent variable, and features implicated in MOFA and at least two of the three additional methods were selected for functional enrichment (Table 3, Supplemental Tables 2 & 3). This overlap-based feature selection resulted in 111, 94, 379, and 307 unique HGNC gene symbols for Factors 1 through 4, respectively (Supplemental Table 4). These reduced lists represent features whose relationship to RSTR status is robust to data integration method and thus, more likely to provide reproducible biological insights.

Table 2 Summary of features used in data integration

Category	Dataset	Number of features passing dataset QC	Number of features annotated to a known gene	Percent of features selected in preprocessing	Number of features in integrated dataset
Media-only	RNA-seq	1.4×10^4	1.4×10^4	10%	1398
	Methylation	7.3×10^5	5.2×10^5	1%	5349
	ATAC-seq	4.2×10^4	2.5×10^4	10%	2466
Mtb-stimulated	RNA-seq	1.4×10^4	1.4×10^4	10%	1398
Host-dependent	SNP	7.3×10^5	6.7×10^5	1%	6609
	Total	1.5×10^6	1.3×10^6		1.7×10^4

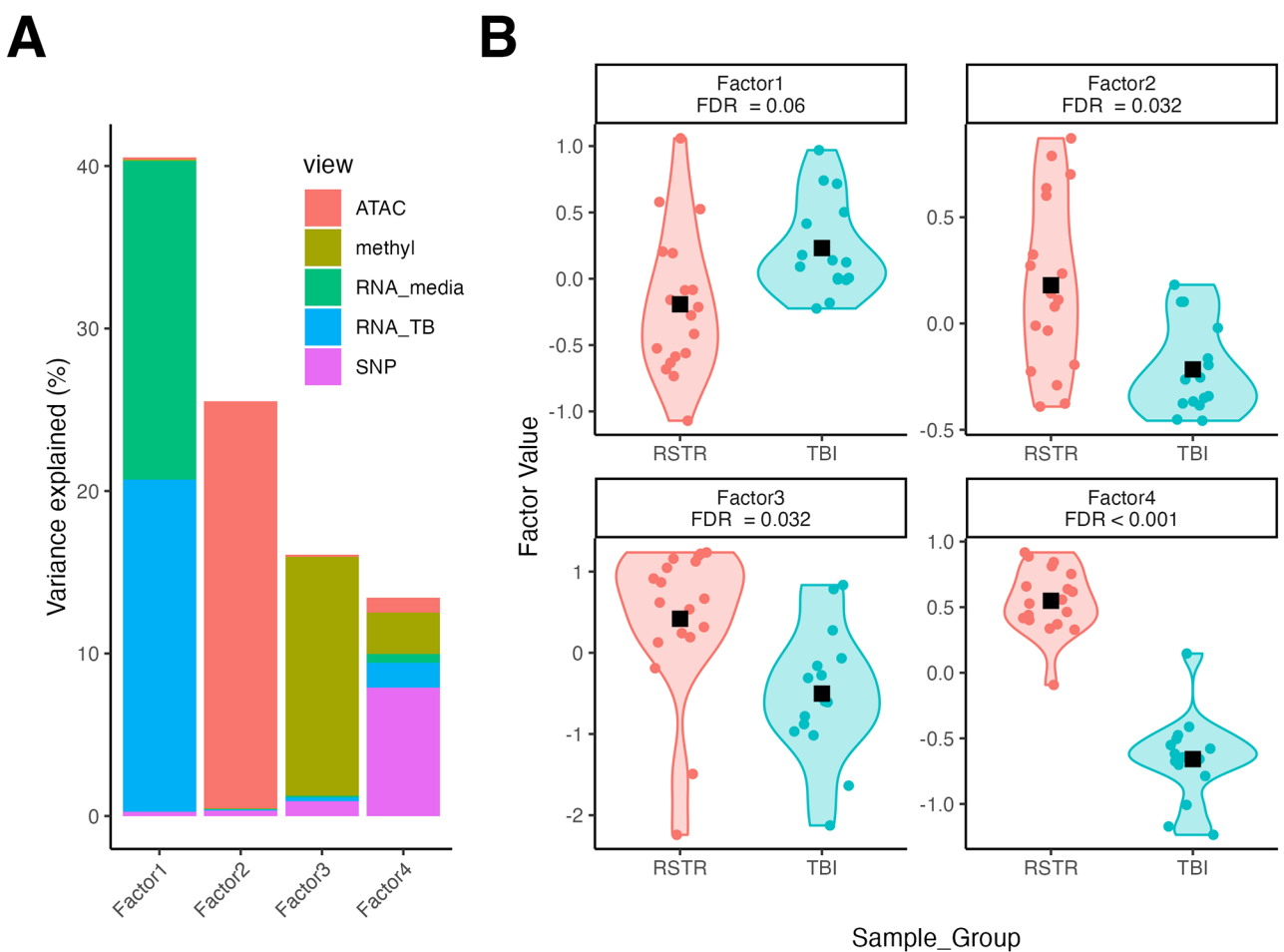


Fig. 2 Four MOFA factors differ between RSTR and TBI. **(A)** The variance explained by each dataset on each of the first four latent factors generated in MOFA. Bar colors represent the input dataset (ATAC-seq = coral, methylation = green, media-only RNA-seq = turquoise, Mtb-stimulated RNA-seq = blue, SNP = fuschia). **(B)** Sample weights on the first four MOFA factors were tested for RSTR vs. TBI using a linear mixed effects model corrected for age, sex and genetic kinship (FDR < 0.1). Black squares indicate groupwise means

Table 3 Summary of select high-weight MOFA features with high loadings on latent variables generated in at least two out of three alternative data integration methods

MOFA factor	Dataset (% variance explained on factor)	Number of select MOFA features	Number of features also identified in 2/3 non-MOFA methods (%)	Number of unique protein coding HGNC symbols
Factor 1	RNA Mtb (50%)	177	41 (23%)	40
	RNA media (48%)	169	84 (50%)	83
	Total (98%)	346	113 (32%)	111
Factor 2	ATAC-seq (98%)	605	132 (22%)	94
Factor 3	Methylation (91%)	1198	372 (31%)	345
	SNP (6%)	94	77 (82%)	35
	Total (97%)	1292	449 (35%)	379
Factor 4	SNP (59%)	973	334 (34%)	173
	Methylation (19%)	249	114 (46%)	106
	RNA Mtb (11%)	40	22 (55%)	20
	ATAC-seq (7%)	41	13 (32%)	11
	Total (96%)	1303	483 (37%)	307

Agreement with individual analysis of integrated datasets

To assess the extent of agreement between the individual analyses of these data and the high-importance features identified with MOFA, the reduced feature lists were compared with the individual analyses dataset results (Fig. 3, Supplemental Table 5). Two genes in the reduced Factor 1 MOFA feature list (NLRP3, IFNG) and five genes in the reduced Factor 4 feature list (FCAR, IRF1, IRF8, MXD1, SECTM1) were also among the genes found to be significant for the interaction between Mtb stimulation and TBI/RSTR status in the previous RNA-seq only analysis(13). For Factor 4, five methylation probes in the MOFA reduced feature list were also implicated in the individual analyses of the methylation dataset. One of these probes was annotated to a region with 13 overlapping protocadherin genes, and another was annotated to two nearest genes (AC006077.3 and PCBD2). The other three were annotated to BRDT, ABLIM1, and PKD1L2. Overall, these results suggest that some lead findings

from individual datasets were retained in the MOFA analysis, but that we are also able to identify novel signatures through the integration.

MOFA factors are enriched for numerous and diverse functional pathways

We used pathway analysis to assess whether features within the MOFA factors were associated with biologic processes. Hypergeometric enrichment revealed hundreds of significantly enriched gene sets across the four factors, with many sharing common themes. Across Hallmark, canonical pathway, and gene ontology databases, there were 597, 44, 180, and 183 significantly enriched gene sets for Factors 1 through 4, respectively (FDR < 0.2, Supplemental Table 6, Supplemental Fig. 7).

Significantly enriched gene sets were subjected to hierarchical clustering using the overlap coefficient to generate clusters of gene sets with similar gene membership (FDR < 0.2, Supplemental Table 7) and compared



Fig. 3 Features shared between MOFA reduced feature lists and results of individual analyses. Common features between reduced MOFA feature lists for Factors 1–4 (green) and significant features from individual analyses of the integrated datasets (purple; SNP: $P < 5e-5$; methylation: FDR < 0.2 in either probe list or list of probes in differentially methylated regions; ATAC-seq & RNA-seq: FDR < 0.2). Where there are overlapping features (orange), the unique HGNC symbols for the features are provided. In the case of methylation probes, some probes were annotated to more than one nearest gene. Inner circle color indicates the MOFA factor

to clusters generated in GO terms using the commonly employed semantic similarity method (Supplemental Fig. 8, used by the *rrvgo* package [35]). The clusters generated on the overlap coefficient were thematically very similar to those generated on semantic similarity. However, our overlap coefficient method allowed for clustering beyond GO to include Hallmark and canonical pathways as well.

The media-only and Mtb-stimulated RNA-seq datasets contributed roughly equally to the list of features used in the Factor 1 enrichment. The largest cluster in the Factor 1 enrichment, Cluster F1-6, consisted of 136 gene sets primarily related to immune function (Supplemental Table 6). This cluster included the GO interferon gamma production pathway, which relates to the clinical definition of TBI vs. RSTR. The six genes overlapping between this gene set and the MOFA reduced feature list (CD2, CD3E, CD96, GATA3, KLRK1, and NLRP6) were contributed by ten unique features from the media-only and Mtb-stimulated RNA seq datasets. In all cases, and in the case of IFN- γ itself, expression of these genes was higher in the TBI subjects relative to the RSTR subjects (Fig. 4). Cluster F1-1 (36 gene sets) also related primarily to immune function, particularly to T-cell activation and inflammatory responses. Thus, Factor 1 appears to represent well described immune signatures of TB and provides several potential gene-level targets for further investigation.

In contrast, Factors 2 through 4 contained signals less well-described in TB disease. The largest clusters in Factors 2 and 3 included those related to cell-cell adhesion (F2-2, F2-4, F3-1) and cytoskeletal processes (F2-2, F3-2). Factor 4 had multiple enrichment themes with clusters containing at least 5 gene sets summarized in Table 4 and the member gene sets for the four largest clusters displayed in Fig. 5. The largest cluster, Cluster F4-4 (21 gene sets), as well as Clusters F4-30 (9 gene sets) and F4-20 (8 gene sets) contained gene sets with functions related to signal transduction, particularly G-protein signaling. Clusters F4-26 (14 gene sets) and F4-5 (9 gene sets) contained pathways related to cell-cell adhesion, similar to Factors 2 and 3. Cluster F4-7 related to cell morphogenesis, and Cluster F4-8 related to structure- and tissue-level developmental pathways (both 13 gene sets). Thus, Factor 4 represents several distinct but potentially interacting biological processes with implications in infectious disease.

A handful of genes were highly prevalent (in >50% of sets) within more than one gene set cluster for Factor 4. SRC had >50% prevalence in five of these largest clusters. Three genes were prevalent in three of the summarized clusters (VAV2, GNA12, EPHB2) and four were in at least two clusters (HCK, BLK, DSCAM, PRKCZ) (Table 5). Taken together, these results suggest that MOFA Factors 2–4 are representing somewhat overlapping biological

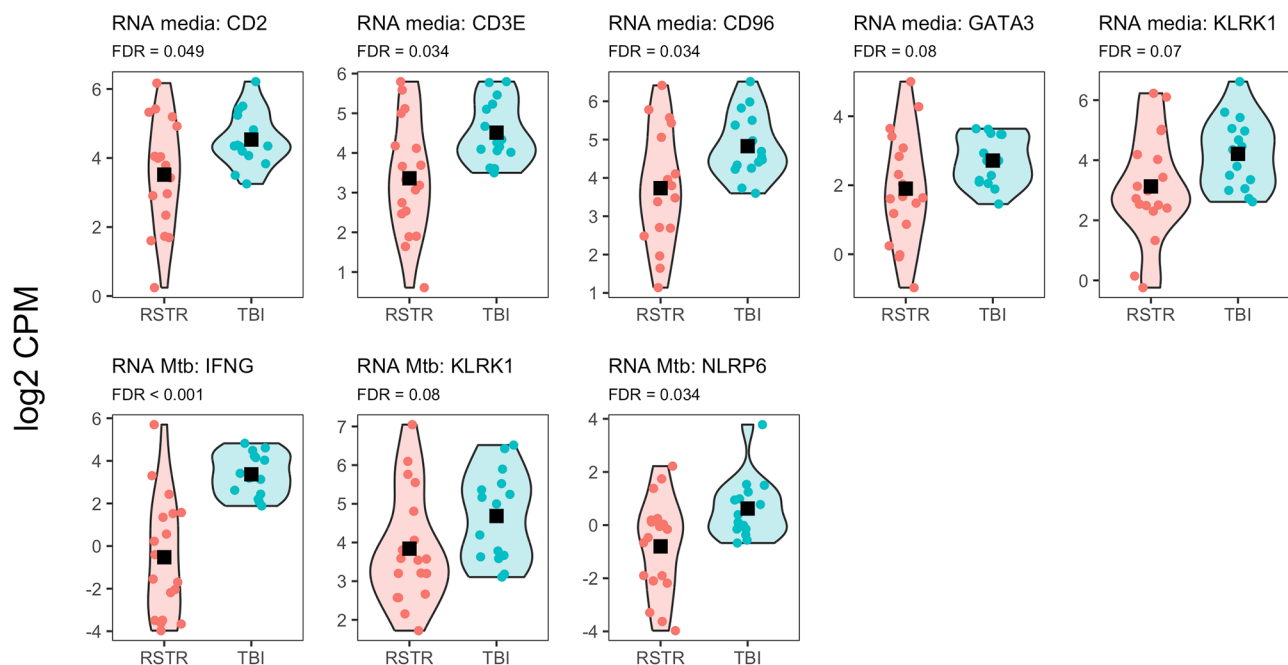


Fig. 4 Expression of IFN γ -related genes is greater in TBI than RSTR. Features in the Factor 1 reduced MOFA feature list belonging to the GO IFN γ production pathway are shown, in addition to IFN γ itself. IFN γ and NLRP6 are represented in the reduced feature list as part of the the Mtb-stimulated RNAseq dataset. KLRK1 is contributed by the both the Mtb-stimulated and media-only RNA-seq datasets, and CD2, CD3E, CD96, and GATA3 are contributed by the media-only RNA-seq dataset. For all features in both datasets, expression is greater in TBI than RSTR (FDR < 0.1). Group differences tested by ANOVA; black squares represent groupwise means

Table 4 Summary of hypergeometric enrichment of select features on factor 4 (FDR < 0.2, clusters with > 4 gene sets)

Cluster	N gene sets	Cluster description	Genes in > 50% of gene sets	median k/K	median FDR
F4-4	21	Signal transduction	SRC, BLK, HCK	0.078	0.123
F4-26	14	Cell-cell adhesion & cell cycle	SRC, VAV2	0.053	0.107
F4-7	13	Cell morphogenesis	EPHB2, CNTN4, DSCAM	0.041	0.148
F4-8	13	Structure & tissue-level development	BMP5, CHD7	0.059	0.165
F4-3	10	Innate immune response	HCK, SRC, FCN1	0.073	0.163
F4-5	9	Cell-cell adhesion	CDH18, CDH5, DSCAM, SLITRK1	0.039	0.162
F4-30	9	Signal transduction	GNA15, SRC, GNA12	0.067	0.079
F4-20	8	GTPase signaling, especially Ras-family signaling	ARHGEF18, ARHGEF3, VAV2, CDC42EP4, GNA12	0.050	0.140
F4-13	7	Epithelial cell differentiation	ALOX15B, AQP3, REG3G, ZBED2, HEY2, PALLD, PLEC, ST14	0.049	0.148
F4-19	6	Protein localization to plasma membrane	DPP10, EPHA3, EPHB2, SPTBN1, GBP1, NHLRC1, PRKCZ	0.049	0.167
F4-6	5	Immune cell activation	PRKCZ, BCL6, IRF1, RSAD2, EBI3, PRKCQ	0.044	0.194
F4-12	5	Smooth muscle contraction	GUCY1A1, GUCY1A2	0.056	0.151
F4-14	5	Hemostasis	SRC, ADRA2B, BLK, PRKCQ, TXK, VAV2, EPHB2, GNA12, JMJD1C, ST3GAL4	0.044	0.156
F4-15	5	Synaptic signaling	SYT10	0.054	0.169

functions, primarily related to cell-cell adhesion, cell shape, and development of multicellular structures.

Discussion

Mechanisms of resistance to *Mycobacterium tuberculosis* infection are not well understood. MOFA integration of SNP [11], methylation [12], chromatin accessibility [12], and transcriptomic datasets [13, 14] derived from a Uganda resister cohort reveals four nascent factors that differentiate subjects based on TST/IGRA status following TB exposure. High-importance features on Factor 1 were primarily enriched for pathways related to immune function, particularly inflammation, T cell responses, and interferon gamma responses. Factor 4 nearly perfectly discriminates RSTR from TBI subjects and has meaningful contribution from four of the five integrated datasets. This factor was enriched for several pathways related to cell-cell adhesion, cell morphogenesis, and development of multicellular structures. Enrichments on Factors 2 and 3 showed similar themes, with top pathways relating to cell-cell adhesion and cytoskeletal processes. With this integrated dataset, the rigorous selection of important features through multi-integration overlap, and the functional enrichments performed on those features, our study provides a resource for hypothesis generation and a point of comparison for future investigations on the molecular mechanisms of Mtb resistance.

The two largest gene set clusters on Factor 1 were related to immune function, including pathways related to interferon gamma production. The Factor 1 MOFA reduced feature list was enriched for pathways including interferon gamma production, adaptive immune cell surface receptor production [36–39], regulation of NK cell surface receptors [39] involved in creating the immune

synapse, and T cell differentiation [40–42]. Expression of genes within these pathways was higher in TBI relative to RSTR subjects in either or both of the RNA-seq datasets. Given that Factor 1 is weighted for the two transcriptomic datasets, it is likely this factor captures groupwise differences in expression of immune pathways in response to Mtb, particularly expression of adhesion molecules on adaptive immune cells. The definition of the RSTR phenotype is lack of TST/IGRA conversion following Mtb exposure, so this factor probably describes sources of variance in the canonical response that defines the clinical phenotype.

Factors 2, 3, and 4 contained functional enrichment of pathways related to cell adhesion, multicellular structures, and signaling. One possible interpretation of these results points to a relationship between Mtb resistance and cell-cell interactions such as in the early stages of the formation of the granuloma, a multicellular structure created through the aggregation and adhesion of immune cells which surround Mtb. This complex and dynamic structure is a hallmark pathologic feature of TB and represents the interface of host-pathogen interactions that define the outcome of host protection or progression of infection [43–46]. Crucial to the early formation of this structure is the implementation of an epithelialization program involving recruitment of macrophages, changes in cell shape, and cell-cell adhesion [43]. Additionally, a number of genes with a known role in early granuloma formation appear in the Factor 4 reduced MOFA feature list. SLC11A1 has been identified as one of seven genes with increased expression in TB granulomas relative to those formed in sarcoidosis, a non-infectious granulomatous disease [44]. This gene encodes a divalent cation transporter involved in macrophage activation and

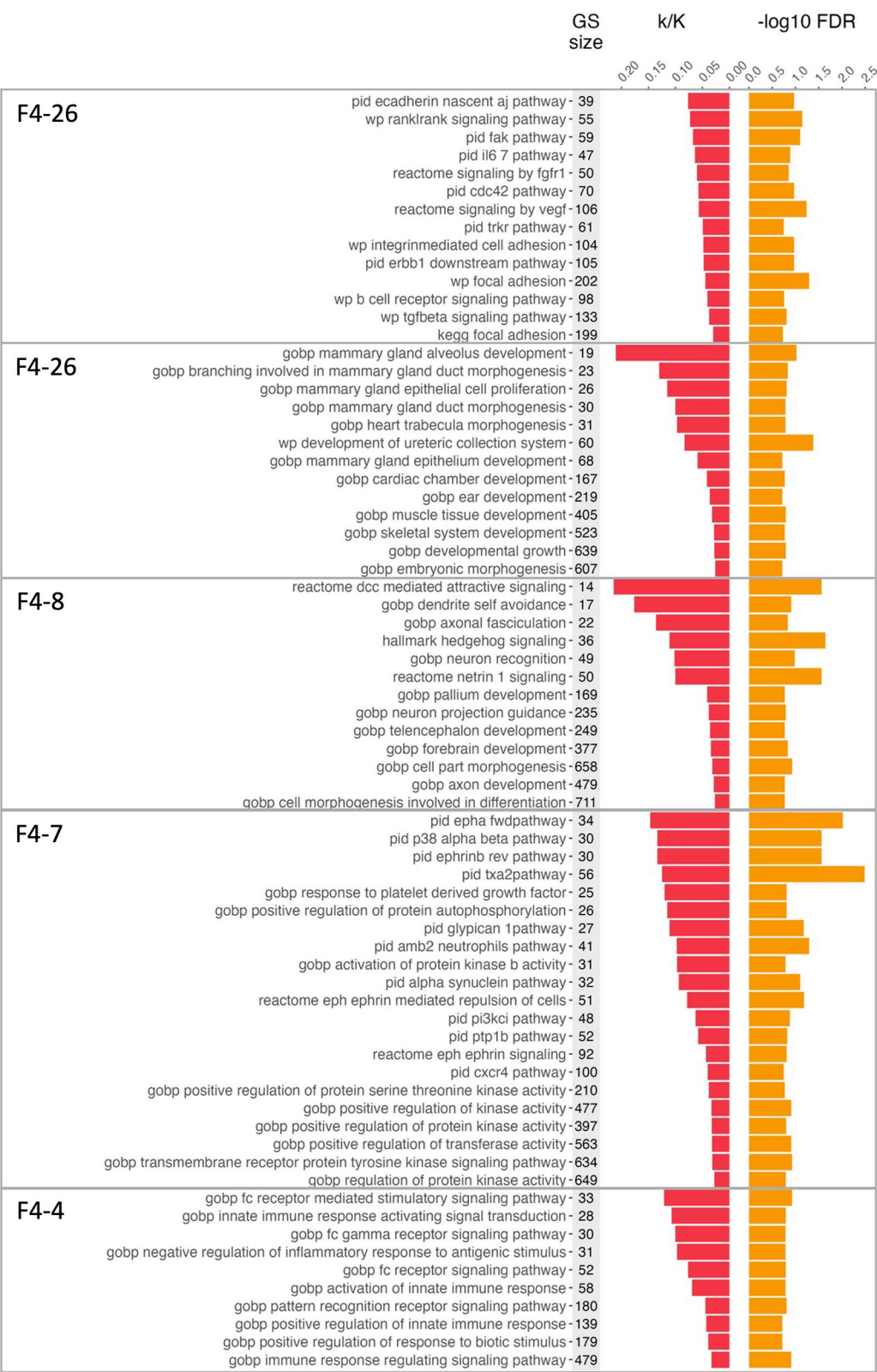


Fig. 5 Significantly enriched gene sets in the largest clusters on Factor 4. Gene set names and sizes, and accompanying statistics for the four largest clusters of significantly enriched gene sets (FDR<0.2) from hypergeometric testing of the Factor 4 reduced feature list. Colored boxes indicate cluster membership from the four largest gene set clusters generated via hierarchical clustering on the overlap coefficient

Table 5 Genes with high prevalence across more than one large gene set cluster in factor 4

Gene	Clusters	Dataset	Feature ID	MOFA Weight	Groupwise Statistics ^A		P-value
					TBI	RSTR	
SRC	F4-4, F4-26, F4-3, F4-30, F4-14	SNP	rs12329503	0.529	00:12	00:04	0.003
					01:03	01:11	
					02:00	02:03	
			rs6018088	0.493	00:10	00:04	0.011
					01:05	01:08	
					02:00	02:06	
			rs6018148	0.465	00:10	00:04	0.018
					01:05	01:10	
					02:00	02:04	
			rs6018257	0.662	00:12	00:04	0.002
					01:01	01:10	
					02:01	02:04	
HCK	F4-4, F4-3	SNP	rs4561724	0.459	00:09	00:03	0.025
					01:06	01:13	
					02:00	02:02	
BLK	F4-4, F4-14	SNP	rs2248932	0.558	00:07	00:04	0.037
					01:08	01:08	
					02:00	02:06	
DSCAM	F4-7, F4-5	SNP	rs1012854	0.964	00:08	00:01	< 0.001
					01:07	01:07	
					02:00	02:10	
			rs11700509	0.677	00:08	00:02	0.031
					01:04	01:10	
					02:03	02:06	
PRKCZ	F4-19, F4-6	SNP	rs2803310	0.597	00:10	00:02	0.002
					01:05	01:10	
					02:00	02:06	
VAV2	F4-26, F4-20, F4-14	Methylation	cg21223341	-0.293	4.015 ± 0.122	3.554 ± 0.154	0.029
EPHB2	F4-7, F4-19, F4-14	Methylation	cg13102231	-0.237	2.759 ± 0.101	2.767 ± 0.170	0.97
GNA12	F4-30, F4-20, F4-14	ATAC-seq	ID_chr7_2742848_2743374	-0.112	2.152 ± 0.236	0.834 ± 0.233	< 0.001

^A Groupwise summary statistics are calculated as count by genotype for SNP data and means ± SE for all other data types. P-values represent chi-squared tests for SNP features and ANOVAs for other data types

has been implicated in TB pathogenesis in mouse and human studies [44, 47–49]. The highest weighted feature on the Factor 4 reduced feature list was a SNP annotated to DSCAM. This gene encodes a cell adhesion molecule expressed in the fetal brain. While the mechanism is not known, this gene has been previously associated with TB susceptibility [50]. Several other SNPs in the reduced feature list for this factor were annotated to the tyrosine kinase-coding gene SRC. SRC and related tyrosine kinases (including BLK, HCK) have been investigated as possible drug targets for TB treatment [51] and have been specifically implicated in the regulation of granuloma formation [52]. VAV2 encodes a guanine nucleotide exchange factor involved in cytoskeletal rearrangement. Granulomas are classically observed at later stages of disease pathogenesis when biopsy samples are obtained from individuals presenting with signs or symptoms of TB. Histopathology data from those who resist TST/IGRA conversion are not available to assess whether

there are granuloma-equivalents or other types of multicellular structures. Taken together, these results point to possible differences in multicellular structures, early granuloma formation, or recruitment of cells to inflammatory foci in differentiating RSTR and TBI subjects.

Biologic interpretation of these MOFA feature lists proved challenging due to the high number of enriched pathways. Hypergeometric enrichment of the reduced MOFA feature lists resulted in hundreds of significantly overrepresented gene sets across the four factors. To summarize, identify, and interpret major themes from these results, we developed madRich: a method for cross-database gene set clustering and annotation using hierarchical clustering on the overlap coefficient(34). Other packages exist for clustering output from pathway analyses, but these often rely on network-based methods which may be slower, more computationally demanding to implement, and more difficult to interpret [53, 54]. For all methods, an underlying distance metric is required to

generate a useful clustering result. Some methods make use of semantic similarity as a distance metric, which performs very well in hierarchically-structured reference databases as seen in Gene Ontology gene sets [35, 55]. However, this metric cannot be used to summarize enrichment results from non-GO reference databases or results concatenated from enrichments against more than one database. Another commonly used metric for sparse binary clustering is Jaccard similarity [54, 56], but this metric performs poorly on gene set data, because it punishes highly disparate set sizes, even if the smaller set is entirely nested within the larger. Instead, we utilized the overlap coefficient in our clustering algorithm. The overlap coefficient is the proportion of shared elements between two sets divided by the size of the smaller set. Clustering on this coefficient will result in better grouping of child gene sets with parents relative to the Jaccard coefficient in the case of hierarchical databases and allows compositionally similar gene sets to be grouped across databases. For our largest gene set clusters on Factor 4, madRich clustering of GO terms overlapped largely with rrvgo clustering, with madRich combining some rrvgo clusters (like rrvgo “wound healing” and “regulation of body fluid levels” combined into madRich “hemostasis”) and splitting others (like rrvgo “ear development” and “heart trabecula development” being split between madRich “structure and tissue development” and “cell morphogenesis”). But largely, the same themes emerged from the study of both sets of gene set clusters from the Factor 4 enrichment result. One advantage of rrvgo is the automation of cluster annotation. But as with the rrvgo cluster specifically annotated to “ear development,” which contains several multicellular structural morphogenesis pathways not exclusive to the ear, manual curation of these annotations is often necessary. Provided that some prefiltering is done to remove very large, broad gene sets, hierarchical clustering on the overlap coefficient is an effective way to summarize a complex enrichment result and glean relevant biological insights and has advantages over rrvgo, a commonly used alternative.

There are several limitations to the current work. First, the small sample size of 33 individuals is small and limits power. Although MOFA can interpolate missing datasets, these results are highly skewed when entire datasets are missing as opposed to individual features within an otherwise complete dataset. Additionally, the other integration methods used in the selection of top features do not allow for the interpolation of entire missing datasets for a subject. For these reasons, we decided to focus on the subset of subjects with complete data across the five integrated input datasets. Future work could investigate the extent to which these findings are generalizable to the full Uganda resister cohort or other TB cohorts. Second, when selecting top features for comparison across

integration methods and downstream functional enrichment, cutoffs are imposed that are necessarily arbitrary. We selected cutoffs to include enough features to have an interpretable enrichment across all four significant factors and to have a reasonable contribution of features from the smaller RNA-seq and ATAC-seq datasets in comparison to the larger methylation and genetic datasets. We mitigated the arbitrary nature of this feature selection by using generous statistical cutoffs for the MOFA feature lists coupled with assessment with multiple integration methods. Finally, because of the different underlying data structures, the biologic directionality of relationships between clinical groups and functionally enriched gene sets are difficult to ascertain.

In summary, multi-omic factor analysis identified four latent variables with significant relationships to RSTR status. Feature lists derived from these variables showed functional enrichment for hundreds of gene sets across commonly used gene set databases including insights not derived from the individual datasets. We also provided a method of summarizing, visualizing, and annotating complex, cross-database functional enrichment results. In the future, comparisons might be drawn from -omics datasets from other populations with high Mtb transmission risk, either individual or integrated across modalities. These could include the modalities explored here, or additional protein-resolution data types such as proteomics or phosphoproteomics. Investigation of new modalities such as metabolomics could provide validation via orthogonal platforms. Additionally, the individual features identified in our multi-integration approach could be validated with experimental investigations to understand mechanisms of disease resistance or provide biomarkers to predictors of disease.

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-025-11407-1>.

Supplementary Material 1
Supplementary Material 2
Supplementary Material 3
Supplementary Material 4

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Author contributions

M.S.C. wrote the manuscript text and prepared all figures. M.S.C. and K.A.D.M. contributed to the bioinformatic methodology. M.S.C., K.A.D.M., J.D.S., and P.B. performed the formal analysis. M.S.C., K.A.D.M., P.B., and C.M.S. contributed to

data curation. H.M.K., W.H.B., C.M.S., and T.R.H. provided project supervision. Project conceptualization by M.S.C., K.A.D.M., J.D.S., P.B., H.M.K., W.H.B., C.M.S., T.R.H. Manuscript was reviewed by all authors.

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Data availability

Preprocessing and analysis code will be made available in GitHub upon publication at https://github.com/hawn-lab/Uganda_RSTR_integration. Raw data are available through the NCBI database of Genotypes and Phenotypes (dbGaP) Data Browser (<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/gap/>) under accession phs002445.v3.p1 but first must be approved by the data access committee (DAC) for the study site (see Supplemental Methods in [13]).

Declarations

Ethical approval

Informed, written consent was obtained in writing from all individuals in the study. Protocols were reviewed and approved by the National AIDS Research Committee, The Uganda National Council on Science and Technology (IRB no. ARC 014), and the institutional review board at University Hospitals Cleveland Medical Center (IRB no. 10-01-25).

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

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