

1 **Title:** Liver sinusoidal endothelial transcription factors in metabolic homeostasis and disease

2 **Running title:** LSEC TFs in liver homeostasis & disease

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17 **Abstract**

18 Liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LSECs) are highly specialized endothelial cells that form the
19 liver microvasculature. LSECs maintain liver homeostasis, scavenging bloodborne molecules,
20 regulating immune response, and actively promoting hepatic stellate cell quiescence. These
21 diverse functions are underpinned by a suite of unique phenotypical attributes distinct from other
22 blood vessels. In recent years, studies have begun to reveal the specific contributions of LSECs
23 to liver metabolic homeostasis and how LSEC dysfunction associates with disease aetiology. This
24 has been particularly evident in the context of non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD), the
25 hepatic manifestation of metabolic syndrome, which is associated with loss of key LSEC
26 phenotypical characteristics and molecular identity. Comparative transcriptome studies of LSECs
27 and other endothelial cells, together with rodent knockout models have revealed that loss of LSEC
28 identity through disruption of core transcription factor activity leads to impaired metabolic
29 homeostasis and to hallmarks of liver disease. This review explores the current knowledge of
30 LSEC transcription factors, covering their roles in LSEC development and maintenance of key
31 phenotypic features, which, when disturbed, lead to disruption of liver metabolic homeostasis.

32 **Introduction**

33 Liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LSECs) represent a unique and highly specialized endothelial
34 cell (EC) population that forms the liver microvasculature, known as the hepatic sinusoids. LSECs
35 are the most abundant non-parenchymal cell type in the liver, representing 15-20% of all liver
36 cells, but only ~3% of its volume (Blouin et al., 1977, Poisson et al., 2017). In the past two
37 decades, LSECs have emerged as central players in the onset and progression of liver disease,
38 having important implications for metabolic and endocrine health. LSEC dedifferentiation is
39 associated with metabolic conditions such as insulin resistance and non-alcoholic fatty liver
40 disease (NAFLD), a progressive disease that affects ~30% of the world's population (Younossi et
41 al., 2023). In the NAFLD spectrum, non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) is characterized by
42 steatosis, liver fibrosis, hepatocellular damage, and is accompanied by metabolic and endocrine
43 dysfunction (Benedict and Zhang, 2017). NASH is the major cause of liver fibrosis and
44 significantly increases the risk for chronic liver disease complications, namely cirrhosis and
45 hepatocellular carcinoma, and is a leading cause for liver transplantation (Younossi et al., 2023,
46 Bataller and Brenner, 2005).

47 Even though LSECs were first isolated five decades ago (Wisse, 1970) and have since
48 been morphologically and functionally characterised (Poisson et al., 2017), the profiling of their
49 transcriptomic and epigenomic features has lagged behind due to difficulties in isolating enough
50 cells and their rapid dedifferentiation in culture (Géraud et al., 2010). The predominance of
51 hepatocytes within the liver tissue (~80% of its mass) has made it difficult to assess and analyse
52 LSEC-specific aspects of gene expression, chromatin accessibility, and transcription factor (TF)
53 occupancy using bulk liver tissue. With advances in cell isolation techniques and single-cell
54 sequencing, the quality and quantity of LSEC-specific data have increased in recent years, along
55 with the identification of key developmental drivers and markers of LSEC identity.

56 Important progress has also been made in identifying the alterations in the LSEC
57 transcriptome that promote LSEC dysfunction and accompany disease progression, as revealed

58 by animal models and, more recently, by single-cell gene expression profiling of both mouse and
59 human liver tissue. This now substantial body of work pinpoints specific LSEC TFs as conductors
60 of the transcriptional changes associated with the onset and progression of metabolic liver
61 disease. In this review we discuss the contribution of LSEC TF activity to maintain metabolic
62 homeostasis and how specific LSEC TFs have been implicated in liver disease. Given the intricate
63 relationship between liver metabolism and endocrine health, the relevance of LSEC TFs is
64 expected to extend to this field as well.

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66 **LSEC phenotypical properties and function in physiological conditions and disease**

67 The phenotypical features of LSECs have been extensively reviewed in the context of liver
68 physiology (Poisson et al., 2017) and are not the primary focus of the present review.
69 Nevertheless, we provide here a brief overview of their major distinctive features to contextualise
70 phenotypes observed upon ablation of LSEC TFs. Reflecting their various specialized functions,
71 LSECs lack basal lamina, and display fenestrae (large diaphragm-free pores organized into sieve
72 plates) to aid macromolecule transport towards the perisinusoidal space and subsequently
73 towards the hepatocytes (**Figure 1**) (Poisson et al., 2017). Unlike other types of vascular
74 endothelial cells, their cell junctions are loosely organized resulting in a discontinuous endothelial
75 monolayer. Another important feature of LSECs is the high concentration of scavenger receptors
76 on the cell surface (e.g. *STAB1/2*), which enable efficient metabolite clearance and tackling of
77 the viral and bacterial influx from the gut (Sørensen et al., 2015). LSECs display dynamic immune
78 functions and present antigens to CD8⁺ naïve T cells, contributing to tolerogenic response, while
79 they can also promote T cell activation and local inflammatory response when antigen
80 concentration increases (Burgdorf et al., 2007, Limmer et al., 2000). LSECs also exhibit anti-
81 thrombotic and anti-fibrotic phenotypes, and are involved in the regulation of angiogenesis and
82 vascular tone in homeostatic conditions (Lafoz et al., 2020, Poisson et al., 2017).

83 During NAFLD progression, LSECs undergo morphological changes that indicate loss of
84 their specialized phenotype and dedifferentiation. This phenomenon is called sinusoidal
85 capillarization and involves loss of fenestrae (defenestration) and formation of basal lamina
86 (Hammoutene and Rautou, 2019). The timing of sinusoidal capillarization during NAFLD
87 progression is still subject to debate. Miyao and colleagues reported that capillarization was an
88 early event during disease progression, appearing already with simple steatosis in two different
89 mouse models (the choline-deficient, L-amino acid-defined and high-fat diet models) and
90 preceding the activation of Kupffer cells and hepatic stellate cells (Miyao et al., 2015), both of
91 which are critical events in fibrosis (Hernandez-Gea and Friedman, 2011). In contrast, a more
92 recent study by Kus et al. has challenged this view, reporting that while LSECs showed
93 inflammatory response in early NAFLD pathogenesis, there was no sinusoidal capillarization, but
94 instead increased fenestrae diameter in high fat diet-induced liver steatosis with no immune
95 activation or fibrosis (Kus et al., 2019). These opposing results likely reflect differences in the
96 experimental models employed and encourage further investigation in rodent models, but also in
97 human specimens. Besides defenestration and capillarization, LSECs display regenerative
98 angiocrine signalling after acute injury, undergoing a fibrogenic switch if the injury is sustained
99 over time (Ding et al., 2014). Furthermore, during the early phase of liver regeneration after
100 hepatectomy, the downregulation of Angiopoietin-2 in LSECs leads to hepatocyte proliferation
101 through releasing the angiocrine proliferative brake. In later stages of regeneration, Angiopoietin-
102 2 expression recovers, enabling angiogenesis in the newly formed tissue (Hu et al., 2014).

103

104 **LSEC marker genes**

105 The specialized LSEC phenotype is the result of a unique transcriptional, and presumably
106 epigenomic signature. It must be noted that LSECs share some important features with other
107 ECs, like the expression of pan-endothelial TFs such as ERG (Dufton et al., 2017). Lymphatic
108 ECs in particular share salient transcriptional features with LSECs, including the expression of

109 lymphatic marker genes *LYVE1* and *VEGFR3* (Strauss et al., 2017, Inverso et al., 2021, Aizarani
110 et al., 2019), and the expression of *Maf* in both EC types (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). These
111 and other common features between LSECs and other liver ECs have made the isolation of pure
112 LSEC populations difficult in the past. Therefore, characterising the healthy LSEC transcriptional
113 profile can help identify marker genes for use in LSEC isolation. The definition of marker genes
114 differs between studies, but broadly refers to genes enriched in the cell type of interest, often
115 including genes involved in specialised cell functions. LSEC marker genes have been defined by
116 comparing LSECs to other EC types, or to other liver cell types, as is the case in single-cell
117 analysis of liver tissue. These comparisons identified different marker genes (**Figure 2**). For
118 instance, *GATA4* was not identified as a marker gene of LSECs in single-cell studies of liver tissue
119 (Guilliams et al., 2022, Aizarani et al., 2019, Ramachandran et al., 2019, Andrews et al., 2022,
120 MacParland et al., 2018), because hepatocytes also express *GATA4* at relatively high levels.
121 However, *GATA4* is typically not expressed in other ECs and has therefore been identified as an
122 LSEC marker gene in several EC-based studies (de Haan et al., 2020, Géraud et al., 2017,
123 Winkler et al., 2021). Measuring the expression of marker genes can also help to characterise the
124 loss of LSEC identity in disease models or patient biopsies and in developing better *in vitro*
125 systems to study disease. Despite the established roles of LSECs in liver physiology and disease,
126 what truly constitutes an LSEC transcriptional profile, and which are the marker genes of this cell
127 population is still the focus of active research and debate. In this section, we provide an overview
128 of the progress made in the identification of LSEC marker genes, with a focus on TFs (**Box 1**).

129

130 **Box 1: Transcription factors in a nutshell**

131 Transcription factors (TFs) are proteins that bind DNA in a sequence-specific manner and
132 regulate gene transcription. Through binding to specific target regions, which are commonly
133 located in *cis*-regulatory elements such as promoters, enhancers, or silencers, TFs can activate
134 or repress gene expression in response to regulatory cues. Such regulatory cues can be diverse

135 and include both intrinsic (e.g. developmental processes) and extrinsic signals (e.g. signalling
136 cascades activated by nutrients), making TFs centrepieces in the coordination of complex and
137 dynamic gene regulatory networks. They can either recruit other TFs and/or transcriptional
138 complexes or disable those functions by occupying target regions (Lambert et al., 2018).

139 Different TF families are characterised by a preferred DNA recognition sequence or motif.
140 The current approaches to identify the consensus motif of specific TFs involve either the analysis
141 of high-throughput binding assays or chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by sequencing
142 (ChIP-Seq). The results of these experiments have been compiled in several databases that host
143 vast collections of known TF motifs for vertebrates (e.g. JASPAR, Hocomoco, SwissRegulon).
144 However, the presence of a binding motif does not necessarily translate into TF occupancy, which
145 also depends on conditions including (1) the concentration of the TF in the nucleus, (2) the binding
146 of necessary TFs and co-factors to nearby sequences, and (3) the specificity of the TF, in other
147 words its ability to distinguish between a high versus a low affinity binding site (Zabet and Adryan,
148 2015). Most TFs also require chromatin to be accessible at their binding site, free from
149 nucleosomes and thus exposing the motif for recognition. However, a subset of TFs termed
150 pioneer TFs can induce chromatin remodelling: they modify chromatin architecture by binding
151 condensed, nucleosome-bound chromatin and displacing nucleosomes, enabling other TFs and
152 transcriptional machinery to bind to the DNA (Zaret, 2020). Pioneer TFs are particularly important
153 in development and lineage identity, with the first pioneer TFs (GATA4 and FOXA1) being
154 identified in the context of hepatic specification (Bossard and Zaret, 1998, Gualdi et al., 1996).
155 Regions of accessible chromatin may also have varying levels of activity, reflected by different
156 degrees of deposition of histone marks and DNA methylation. These chromatin features may in
157 turn affect TF binding frequency. In addition to these mechanisms, the activity of TFs is heavily
158 influenced by their post-translational modifications and by protein-protein interactions with binding
159 partners (Jolma et al., 2015). Altogether these factors contribute to the binding of one TF to the

160 DNA, but it must be noted that TFs usually work as part of an intricate system of coordinated
161 action by multiple TFs.

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163 There have been several attempts to describe the transcriptional features of LSECs,
164 particularly to pinpoint the set of LSEC lineage-determining TFs (**Figure 2**). A major challenge in
165 the study of LSECs is their rapid *in vitro* dedifferentiation. This dedifferentiation was demonstrated
166 at the transcriptional level in a comparative analysis of freshly isolated rat LSECs versus LSECs
167 cultured for 42 hours, which revealed 465 genes downregulated by culture, including the TFs
168 *Gata4*, *Tcfec*, and *Maf* (Géraud et al., 2010). In a recent study, de Haan et al. described an LSEC
169 fingerprint comprised of 27 LSEC-enriched genes, defined as genes enriched in LSECs vs heart
170 and brain ECs, plus three previously identified important genes (*LYVE1*, *STAB1*, and *LSIGN*).
171 This LSEC fingerprint included seven genes encoding TFs: *GATA4*, *TCFEC*, *MAF*, *ZEB2*, *MEIS2*,
172 *HOXB5*, and *CUX2* (de Haan et al., 2020).

173 As mentioned above, it is challenging to isolate pure LSEC populations due to overlapping
174 expression of markers across different types of ECs. de Haan et al. used a pan-endothelial
175 marker, *Tie2*, to isolate mouse liver ECs, reporting a purity of >99% for the microvascular marker
176 CD36 and low expression of lymphatic EC markers (de Haan et al., 2020). However, CD36 is less
177 abundant in central venous LSECs than in periportal LSECs (Su et al., 2021) and therefore may
178 not be an ideal total-LSEC reporter for cell sorting. Similarly, other markers used for cell isolation
179 may have varying expression along the periportal-pericentral axis, a phenomenon known as
180 zonation (Ben-Moshe and Itzkovitz, 2019) (**Box 2**), which raises an important consideration
181 around the methods used to isolate LSECs for molecular characterisation.

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Box 2: Liver zonation

The liver is structurally organised into lobules: hexagonal units in which oxygen and nutrient-rich blood enters via the portal triad, flows through the sinusoids, and exits via the central vein. As blood passes through the sinusoid, oxygen and nutrients are exported into the LSECs and liver parenchyma, while metabolism products and other cell exports enter the blood (**Figure 1**). This structure creates a gradient of oxygen, nutrients, and signalling molecules including Wnt morphogens, a phenomenon called zonation. Importantly, zonation manifests gradual changes at the gene expression level of LSECs and hepatocytes across the periportal-pericentral axis (Paris and Henderson, 2022). Although the zonation gradient is continuous, the sinusoid is often referred to as distinct periportal, midzonal and pericentral zones. It was recently estimated that 67% of LSEC-expressed genes exhibit significant zonation (Inverso et al., 2021), including genes involved in peptide hormone and xenobiotic metabolism, response to gut-derived toxins, canonical Wnt signalling, as well as the binding and uptake of ligands by scavenger receptors (recently reviewed in (Paris and Henderson, 2022)). Zonation is a mechanism essential for liver metabolic homeostasis and its loss has been linked with pathophysiological settings, including fibrosis and cirrhosis (Su et al., 2021).

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Recent years have seen the application of sequencing at single-cell resolution, including single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq), which can be used to profile a complex pool of cells and capture cell-to-cell heterogeneity. scRNA-seq can be applied to liver tissue or to pre-sorted ECs, with similar cells clustered by computational algorithms based on shared transcriptomic features. Thus far, most scRNA-seq studies of LSECs have relied on marker gene expression for EC-enrichment purposes given their small contribution to liver cell mass. These studies have identified sets of genes that distinguish LSECs from other liver cell types (Ben-Moshe and

207 Itzkovitz, 2019, Saviano et al., 2020) as well as genes with heterogeneous expression across
208 LSEC sub-populations and that are zoned (Su et al., 2021, Inverso et al., 2021).

209 Several scRNA-seq studies of the liver have highlighted TFs with enriched expression in
210 LSECs. A seminal study of healthy and cirrhotic human liver using scRNA-seq identified a cluster
211 of LSECs with high expression of TFs including *GATA3/4*, *STAT2/3*, *MEIS1*, *TBX2*, *NR5A2*,
212 *NR2F1*, *ELK1*, *ETS1*, *HIF1A*, *SREBF1*, *RARB*, *IRF1*, *ATF3*, *MLXIP*, *XBP1*, *FOXO1*, *MEF2C*,
213 *CEBPB*, *JUND*, *BACH1*, and *JUN* (Ramachandran et al., 2019). Many of these are recognised
214 core LSEC TFs, yet the lack of standardized scRNA-seq methods and the high transcriptional
215 heterogeneity of LSECs means that it is still difficult to reach a consensus list of marker genes
216 **(Figure 2)**.

217 In addition to markers of mature LSECs, some interesting results have come from the
218 application of single-cell methods to different stages of liver development. For example, the Rafii
219 team observed that LSECs constitute “the most transcriptional diverse” liver endothelial cell type
220 when comparing developmental stages (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). In this study, the authors
221 employed scRNA-seq on CD45^{neg}CD31⁺ cells to characterize the mouse liver endothelium
222 throughout embryonic (E12-E18) and postnatal (P2, P8, P15, and P30) development, describing
223 marker genes for a total of 10 LSEC clusters. The genes *Cd34*, *Pgk1*, and *Mif* were reported as
224 markers of undifferentiated LSEC; whilst *Aqp1*, *Mrc1*, *Fcgr2b*, *Clec4g*, and *Kit* were markers of
225 adult differentiated LSEC.

226 Another important angle to the identification of LSEC markers is the possibility of
227 improving the understanding of liver pathophysiological processes. Studies using the carbon
228 tetrachloride (CCl₄) liver injury model have revealed that the transcriptional profile of LSECs is
229 markedly changed during liver injury with over 7,000 differentially expressed genes (Manicardi et
230 al., 2021). The transcriptional changes included increased expression of genes encoding
231 secretory proteins (e.g. *Cxcl10*, *Inhbb*, *Tppbb*, and *Il4ra*) and decreased expression of membrane
232 and transport-related genes (Manicardi et al., 2021), possibly revealing LSEC de-differentiation

233 under stress. Single-cell transcriptomics has proved to be a powerful tool to investigate liver
234 disease states as well, revealing for instance that cirrhotic livers show a substantial depletion of
235 LSECs along with the appearance of cells with distinct transcriptional signatures, as revealed by
236 studies in both human (Ramachandran et al., 2019) and mouse liver (Su et al., 2021, Xiong et al.,
237 2019). Su et al. observed that periportal LSECs may be the most vulnerable to injury, implicating
238 in this process the TFs *Klf2* and *Klf4*, and components of the AP-1 complex, with reduced
239 expression in cirrhotic mouse LSECs (Su et al., 2021).

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241 **The transcription factors that orchestrate LSEC transcriptional identity**

242 The specialized LSEC phenotype we described above is likely the result of the orchestrated action
243 of multiple TFs (**Box 1**) that are responsible for initiating and maintaining the LSEC-specific gene
244 expression program. The sinusoidal endothelium develops from the mesenchyme of the septum
245 transversum (mesoderm) and differentiates under the transcriptional control of GATA4 and c-MAF
246 (Asahina et al., 2011, Géraud et al., 2017, Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). Interestingly, these two
247 TFs remain central to the maintenance of LSEC function and identity in adulthood. A less
248 investigated but seemingly important TF is MEIS2, which has been identified by a few studies in
249 recent years as a main regulator of LSEC fate (de Haan et al., 2020, Liang et al., 2022).
250 Overexpression of this TF triad was shown to be partially successful in promoting an LSEC-like
251 gene program in human umbilical vein endothelial cells (HUVECs), inducing the expression of a
252 number of LSEC markers, albeit with incomplete recapitulation of LSEC functionality (de Haan et
253 al., 2020). Whole transcriptome analyses were not carried out to investigate the extent to which
254 the co-expression of GATA4, c-MAF and MEIS2 induced an LSEC transcriptional profile (de Haan
255 et al., 2020). Other TFs are therefore likely required for the complete establishment of the LSEC
256 transcriptional program (Danoy et al., 2020). Plausible candidates are SPI1 and ZEB2, which
257 have been implicated in the regulation of genes related to LSEC immune and angiogenic
258 functions, respectively (De Smedt et al., 2021, de Haan et al., 2021). Besides these LSEC-

259 enriched TFs, pan-endothelial TFs also play key roles in LSEC identity and function. ERG, as the
260 better-established example of a pan-endothelial TF, is essential for LSEC homeostasis, protecting
261 from liver fibrosis (Dufton et al., 2017). In this section, we describe in more detail the TFs that
262 have been observed to drive the LSEC transcriptional machinery and discuss how they have been
263 implicated in liver metabolic disease.

264

265 **1. c-MAF**

266 MAF factors, including c-MAF, are subunits of the activator protein 1 (AP-1) transcriptional
267 complex and have a strong preference for nucleosome-depleted regions (Grossman et al., 2018).
268 c-MAF, encoded by the *MAF* gene in humans, has been identified by several studies as a TF of
269 central importance in LSEC development and function (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022, Géraud et
270 al., 2010, de Haan et al., 2020). Recently, Gómez-Salineró et al. identified c-Maf as the top-
271 enriched TF in liver ECs using publicly available scRNA-seq datasets representing multiple
272 mouse tissues (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). *Maf* was shown to increase expression continuously
273 throughout mouse liver embryonic and postnatal development by scRNA-seq analysis (Gómez-
274 Salineró et al., 2022). This contrasted with *Gata4*, which showed uniform expression across liver
275 EC types and developmental stages. Thus, despite the important roles of these two TFs, their
276 specific contributions to the regulation of LSEC homeostasis seem to be distinct. scRNA-seq
277 analysis of adult human liver ECs further revealed that *MAF* expression is higher in the liver
278 sinusoid compared to either portal or central vein ECs (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022).

279 c-Maf has a key role in regulating LSEC maturation and identity. Gómez-Salineró et al.
280 also observed increased co-expression of *Maf* with the LSEC markers *Mrc1* and *Fcgr2b*:
281 endothelial-specific ablation of *Maf* at E12-14, postnatally and in adult mice led to a reduction in
282 the expression of *Mrc1* and *Fcgr2b* (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). RNA velocity analysis revealed
283 that postnatal c-Maf deletion led to an immature EC phenotype, with decreased expression of
284 LSEC markers and overexpression of arterial genes, such as *Cd34*, *Ly6a*, *Ap1nr*, and *Cd9*, which

285 associated with the retention of liver haematopoiesis. In adult mice, deletion of c-Maf also led to
286 decreased expression of LSEC markers, but this time it associated with increased expression of
287 genes characteristic of portal vein ECs (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022).

288 c-Maf also seems to be required for phenotypical specification along the periportal-
289 pericentral axis, as its deletion during embryonic development resulted in an aberrant zonation
290 phenotype and in the appearance of EC clusters detected by scRNA-seq that were not present
291 in wild type mice (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). In adult mice, c-Maf removal resulted in a mild
292 liver zonation phenotype with expansion of hepatocytes expressing glutamine synthase, an
293 enzyme known to be exclusively expressed in the pericentral zone (Gebhardt et al., 2007), even
294 though other zonation markers such as E-cadherin or Cyp2E1 were not affected (Gómez-Salineró
295 et al., 2022). Consistent with the role of c-Maf in regulating and maintaining LSEC maturation, its
296 expression in liver ECs was diminished upon induction of fibrosis with CCl₄ for a month (Gómez-
297 Salineró et al., 2022). LSEC-specific c-Maf deletion alone did not induce fibrosis in mice, but its
298 combination with CCl₄ resulted in an exacerbation of the fibrotic phenotype (Gómez-Salineró et
299 al., 2022). These observations in murine models suggest that c-MAF loss may be a contributing
300 factor to human NASH. Furthermore, the implications of c-MAF in liver disease are likely not
301 restricted to the endothelial compartment, as c-MAF is also highly expressed in Kupffer cells and
302 scar-associated macrophages (Ramachandran et al., 2019, Guilliams et al., 2022).

303 TFs may contribute to gene regulatory programs via different mechanisms and not all TFs
304 can initiate chromatin remodelling as pioneer TFs (**Box1**). Still TFs such as c-MAF can modulate
305 the accessibility of regulatory elements and in this way promote gene programs. Two studies have
306 reported that *in vitro* overexpression of *c-MAF* in HUVECs induced a pro-sinusoidal transcriptional
307 program and the expression of sinusoidal identity genes (de Haan et al., 2020, Gómez-Salineró
308 et al., 2022). Microvascular and LSEC markers *CD36*, *CD26* and *STAB1/2* were induced at the
309 mRNA level, while *CD14* and *MRC1* induction was also observed at the protein level. RNA-seq
310 analysis of induced LSECs, identified as CD26⁺CD36⁺, recapitulated broad transcriptional

311 features of human primary LSECs. Still, the expression of a subset of sinusoidal markers,
312 including *FCGR2B*, was not induced by c-MAF overexpression (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022).

313 Until the recent studies investigating the transcriptional properties of LSECs, c-MAF was
314 primarily known as a regulator of lymphocyte differentiation and function (Imbratta et al., 2020).
315 c-MAF has been described to promote chromatin accessibility at its binding sites in subsets of
316 lymphoid cells, which is in line with its prominent developmental role (Parker et al., 2019). While
317 the function of c-MAF in directing LSEC chromatin accessibility has not been investigated, it is
318 plausible to assume it has similar functions in promoting transcriptional programs in the liver
319 endothelium.

320 The identification of TFs able to induce transcriptional remodelling, such as c-MAF, may
321 be of particular importance to develop *in vitro* models and potential sources of LSECs and other
322 liver cell types for regenerative medicine applications. Encouraging results were already observed
323 in co-cultures of induced LSECs with human primary hepatocyte aggregates, which showed
324 formation of cytoplasmic fenestration gaps in induced LSECs and sustained induction of
325 hepatocyte functionality (CYP1A2 expression and albumin secretion) for at least 28 days (Gómez-
326 Salineró et al., 2022).

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328 **2. GATA4**

329 GATA4 is a zinc-finger TF that is crucial in liver development (Watt et al., 2007) and in the
330 maintenance of a differentiated LSEC state. Like other members of the GATA TF family, GATA4
331 is capable of both activating and repressing gene expression, acting together with co-regulators
332 to assemble a transcriptional complex and recruit chromatin remodelling machinery (GATA
333 transcriptional complexes are described in detail in (Tremblay et al., 2018)). During embryonic
334 development, GATA4 primes liver-specific regulatory elements through its pioneer TF activity
335 (Bossard and Zaret, 1998). In the adult liver, *GATA4* is expressed in LSECs and hepatocytes,
336 albeit its level is lower in hepatocytes.

337 Comparing freshly isolated rat LSECs to lung microvascular endothelial cells and to
338 LSECs cultured for 42 hours, Géraud et al. identified *Gata4* as a TF that is preferentially
339 expressed in LSECs and rapidly lost upon culturing (Géraud et al., 2010). The same group later
340 demonstrated that *Gata4* expression in LSEC is essential for foetal development, with all mouse
341 embryos with LSEC-specific *Gata4* deletion showing lethality at E15.5-E17.5 (Géraud et al.,
342 2017). This severe phenotype was associated with very early sinusoidal capillarization, detected
343 at E10.5, and loss of key LSEC identity genes, including *Lyve1* and *Stab2*, as well as upregulation
344 of endothelial genes that are mainly involved in cell junction formation, such as *Cd31* (Géraud et
345 al., 2017). LSEC-specific *Gata4* deletion also led to reduced numbers of stem and progenitor cells
346 in the liver at E11.25, suggesting that *Gata4* is necessary for hematopoietic stem cell (HSC)
347 migration into the foetal liver (Géraud et al., 2017). Overexpression of GATA4 in HUVECs
348 suppressed expression of the junctional molecule VE-cadherin, suggesting that GATA4
349 decreases junctional stability in foetal LSECs and thus the permissiveness of the liver
350 parenchyma for HSCs (Géraud et al., 2017). Whether other angiocrine factors or cytokines also
351 play a role in establishing the liver HSC niche remains unknown.

352 The studies described above provide evidence that *Gata4* is essential for mouse
353 embryonic development; furthermore, other studies inform about the LSEC *Gata4* role in liver
354 metabolic homeostasis. Deletion of *Gata4* in LSECs at E17.5 using a *Clec4g*-driven Cre
355 recombinase (*Gata4*^{LSEC-KO}) resulted in impaired hepatocyte function in 3-month-old mice,
356 including elevated aspartate and alanine aminotransferase levels (Winkler et al., 2021),
357 measurements that often correlate with NAFLD in humans (Sookoian et al., 2016). Analysis of
358 livers from *Gata4*^{LSEC-KO} mice showed disruption of hepatic zonation and of major metabolic
359 functions, including metabolism of fatty acids, bile acids, and xenobiotics, as well as oxidative
360 phosphorylation. These pathophysiological alterations were accompanied by marked
361 transcriptional remodelling, showing activation of angiogenic and MYC-dependent gene programs
362 (Winkler et al., 2021). Notably, ablation of *Gata4* in LSEC led to downregulation of c-Maf, a result

363 that is consistent with the hypothesis that these two core LSEC TFs are part of the same TF
364 network (Wilkinson et al., 2017).

365 In agreement with the studies of c-Maf deletion models, the early capillarization phenotype
366 observed in *Gata4*^{LSEC-KO} mice led to the hypothesis that *Gata4* could be important in the
367 prevention of liver fibrosis (Winkler et al., 2021). LSEC-restricted deletion of *Gata4* at E10.5 was
368 associated with increased extracellular matrix (ECM) deposition, as shown by upregulation of
369 ECM-associated genes at the mRNA and protein levels (Géraud et al., 2017); while its deletion
370 at a later developmental stage also led to sinusoidal capillarization and caused perisinusoidal
371 fibrosis in adult mice, with activation and expansion of hepatic stellate cells, and increased
372 presence of infiltrating inflammatory cells (Winkler et al., 2021). Perisinusoidal fibrosis is
373 characteristic of NASH (Takahashi and Fukusato, 2014); and indeed, the LSEC transcriptional
374 profiles of *Gata4*^{LSEC-KO} mice were similar to those observed in a diet-induced liver fibrosis model
375 (Winkler et al., 2021). Further highlighting the active role of GATA4 in liver metabolic disease,
376 analysis of livers from a diet induced model of NASH showed a strong downregulation of *Gata4*,
377 which was also observed in scRNA-seq from human cirrhotic livers (Winkler et al., 2021).

378 In addition to phenotypical and transcriptomic analyses, the direct interrogation of
379 chromatin activity and TF binding has the potential to provide additional insights into the modes
380 of action of TFs. To unravel the mechanisms of GATA4 activity, Winkler et al. employed ATAC-
381 seq to identify accessible chromatin regions in LSECs from wild type and *Gata4*^{LSEC-KO} mice
382 (Winkler et al., 2021). This analysis revealed that GATA4 represses a continuous EC gene
383 program via reduction in chromatin accessibility. Integration of these results with whole liver *Gata4*
384 ChIP-seq implicated chromatin occupancy by *Gata4* at sites with reduced accessibility. For
385 instance, *Pdgfb*, which is bound by *Gata4* in liver, was upregulated and its promoter became more
386 accessible in LSECs from *Gata4*^{LSEC-KO} mice (Winkler et al., 2021). This association between
387 *Gata4* and *Pdgfb* is quite interesting since platelet derived growth factor (*PDGF*) signalling is

388 associated with stellate cell activation and fibrosis (Bataller and Brenner, 2005). *Pdgfb* is normally
389 expressed in continuous ECs but not in LSECs (Winkler et al., 2021).

390

391 **3. MEIS2**

392 MEIS2 belongs to the TF superclass TALE (three amino acid loop extension), which is a highly
393 conserved family of homeobox proteins (Bürglin, 1997). Several members of the TALE family
394 have been implicated in vertebrate embryogenesis gene programs, driving cell fate specification
395 during segmentation and in later developmental stages (Moens and Selleri, 2006). Mutant mice
396 lacking functional *Meis2* displayed embryonic lethality between E13.5-E14.5, showing
397 haemorrhaging and a small liver size compared to healthy controls (Machon et al., 2015).

398 Recent screens for lineage-determining TFs using comparative transcriptomics have
399 suggested MEIS2 to have an important role in the establishment and maintenance of an LSEC-
400 differentiated phenotype, with primary LSECs rapidly losing MEIS2 expression *in vitro* (Liang et
401 al., 2022, de Haan et al., 2020). scRNA-seq analysis indicated that *Meis2* expression and
402 regulatory activity increases along the developmental trajectory, possibly contributing to
403 sinusoidal build-up during embryonic and postnatal development (Danoy et al., 2020).
404 Transcriptomic analysis comparing human pluripotent stem cells (hiPSCs) versus hiPSC-derived
405 LSECs using nanoCAGE revealed that *MEIS2* was upregulated in hiPSC-derived LSECs, along
406 with *ERG*, *c-MAF*, *SPI1* and other known LSEC TFs (Danoy et al., 2020). In this study, the DNA-
407 binding motif of MEIS2 was identified within the top 10 most important motifs in driving the hiPSC-
408 derived LSEC transcriptional profile. Moreover, a regulatory network analysis implicated MEIS2
409 in the direct regulation of the LSEC marker gene *LYVE1* and of the vascular endothelial growth
410 factor (VEGF) signalling pathway (Danoy et al., 2020). Overexpression studies in HUVECs have
411 also shown that MEIS2 induces the expression of classic LSEC genes, including *F8*, *IL1A*,
412 *CLEC4M*, and *STAB1* (de Haan et al., 2020). Studies in other developmental contexts, namely
413 palatal bone development, suggested that modulation of *Meis2* activity associates with changes

414 in target gene accessibility at both promoter and distal regulatory regions (Machon et al., 2015).
415 It remains to be investigated if Meis2 regulates gene expression through the same mechanisms
416 during LSEC-specification.

417

418 **4. ERG**

419 The ETS-related gene (ERG) is a lineage-specific master regulator of endothelial gene expression
420 (reviewed in (Shah et al., 2016)). ERG is required during embryonic vascular development,
421 angiogenesis, and for maintenance of vascular homeostasis. ERG expression appears first in the
422 mesoderm during early development (E8.5 in mice) and is maintained throughout adulthood at
423 consistent levels in arterial, venous and microvascular endothelium (Vlaeminck-Guillem et al.,
424 2000). ERG is indispensable for vascular development: constitutive homozygous deletion of
425 endothelial *Erg* causes embryonic lethality in mice (E10.5-12.5) due to disruption of
426 cardiovascular development (Birdsey et al., 2015, Vijayaraj et al., 2012). The crucial role of ERG
427 as a lineage-determining TF is demonstrated by studies where ectopic expression of ERG
428 contributed to cell fate reprogramming. For instance, lentiviral overexpression of *Erg* in embryonic
429 or adult murine somatic fibroblasts along with hematopoietic lineage-determining TFs (GATA2,
430 LMO2, RUNX1c, and SCL) reprogrammed fibroblasts to hematopoietic progenitors (Batta et al.,
431 2014). Expression of ETS factors ERG, FLI1, and ETV2 in combination with TGF β pathway
432 inhibition was able to reprogram human amniotic cells into vascular endothelium (Ginsberg et al.,
433 2012). Moreover, ectopic expression of the pioneer factor ETV2 (Gong et al., 2022) converted
434 primary human adult skin fibroblasts into functional ECs through activation of *ERG* (Morita et al.,
435 2015). Besides pointing to the importance of ERG as a developmental TF, these studies highlight
436 the potential of combining ERG with other endothelial TFs for the generation and/or improvement
437 of *in vitro* EC models through the induction of endothelial-specific cell fate. This is exemplified by
438 the recent finding that ERG and FLI1 cooperate to activate a vascular gene expression program
439 in adult human mesenchymal stromal cells (Gomez-Salinero et al., 2022).

440 ChIP-seq analysis of HUVECs revealed ERG binding to multiple sites of accessible open
441 chromatin, including promoters and enhancers (**Box 3**) (Kalna et al., 2019). Globally, ERG binding
442 in HUVECs was greatest at active enhancers; ~67% of ERG bound sites were located at either
443 distal intergenic or intragenic regions, supporting a role for ERG-mediated transactivation of gene
444 expression through EC enhancers (Kalna et al., 2019). In line with its role as a lineage-determining
445 TF, ERG is bound at the vast majority (93%) of HUVEC super-enhancers (Kalna et al., 2019), a
446 class of enhancer clusters that are associated with genes that define cell lineage identity and
447 regulate tissue-specific functions (Hnisz et al., 2013). Notably, siRNA-mediated inhibition of *ERG*
448 in HUVECs led to changes in H3K27ac enrichment at enhancers, and to the redistribution of a
449 subset of core super-enhancers associated with essential endothelial genes (Kalna et al., 2019).

450 In agreement with many other TFs, ERG can both drive and repress gene expression.
451 Studies have shown that ERG controls transcription through either cooperation or competition
452 with other TFs. For example, ERG cooperates with the TF KLF2 to drive the expression of the
453 anticoagulant cell surface protein Thrombomodulin (TM). Interestingly, this mechanism is
454 organotypic, since it was observed in LSECs, but not aortic EC. Molecular studies showed that
455 ERG is required for KLF2 to access chromatin, by recruiting p300 and mediating H3K27ac in low
456 shear stress conditions, as found in LSECs, but is dispensable in high shear stress conditions, as
457 found in the aorta (Peghaire et al., 2019). An example of competition is the relationship between
458 ERG and SMAD3: here, ERG prevents SMAD3 binding to chromatin at genes driven by the TGF β -
459 ALK5 pathway, thus promoting homeostasis and preventing endothelial-to-mesenchymal
460 transition (EndoMT) (Dufton et al., 2017). EndoMT is characterised by the loss of endothelial
461 lineage markers, morphology, and function, and is associated with multiple chronic diseases.
462 EndoMT also contributes to LSEC capillarization and ECM production in liver fibrosis (Ruan et
463 al., 2021). In the liver, Dufton et al. showed that EC-specific (constitutive *Erg*^{cEC-Het} or inducible
464 *Pdgfb-iCreER-eGFP/Erg*^{fl/fl}) deletion of *Erg* in mice led to spontaneous EndoMT and liver
465 fibrogenesis (Dufton et al., 2017). This was associated with disrupted portal tracts and increased

466 periportal collagen deposition – features consistent with a fibrotic phenotype (Duffon et al., 2017).
467 The association between loss of ERG expression and liver fibrogenesis was further supported by
468 the observation that ERG expression is significantly downregulated in human liver fibrosis and
469 cirrhosis (Duffon et al., 2017).
470

Box 3: Enhancers

Enhancers are non-coding *cis*-regulatory elements that activate target gene expression through recruitment of TFs, cofactors (coactivators and corepressors), and basal transcriptional machinery. Enhancers are mostly intergenic or intronic regions of open chromatin that can affect target genes located distally, even a million base pairs away, in an orientation-independent manner (Panigrahi and O'Malley, 2021). Since enhancers are free from nucleosomes, they are accessible to enzymatic action. Frequently used methods to map enhancers are based on profiling chromatin accessibility by ATAC-seq or DNaseI-seq in conjunction with ChIP-seq for active histone marks (e.g. H3K27ac). The most accepted theory of enhancer mechanism is chromatin looping, during which a distal enhancer comes into physical contact with its target gene's promoter region. The activation of gene expression occurs through recruitment and binding of activating transcription factor(s) by the enhancer region, which boosts RNA polymerase II-dependent transcription at the promoter of the target gene. Genetic variants at enhancers can disrupt the binding events of TFs, leading to changed target gene expression. Interestingly, common disease variants have been shown to locate in non-coding regions, with enhancer elements being particularly enriched for them (Maurano et al., 2012). Although enhancers have been investigated for decades, several challenges still hamper the characterization of enhancer role in disease, recently reviewed by Zaugg et al. (Zaugg et al., 2022).

471

472 **5. SPI1**

473 De Smedt et al. designed a computational workflow, CenTFinder, to identify and rank TFs driving
474 lineage specification (De Smedt et al., 2021). This strategy identified SPI1 (also referred to as
475 PU.1), a member of the ETS family, as a regulator of immune response transcriptional programs
476 in LSECs. SPI1 expression is induced during the differentiation of hiPSC-derived LSECs (Danoy
477 et al., 2020); and when overexpressed in stem cells along with ETV2, SPI1 induced an LSEC-like
478 phenotype, including the expression of the LSEC markers *FCGRB2*, *LYVE1*, *MRC1*, *CRHBP*,
479 *FCN3*, and *OIT3* (De Smedt et al., 2021). Immunostaining and flow cytometry demonstrated
480 upregulation of CD32B and MRC1 in these experiments. However, marker genes that are not
481 related to immune functions, such as *STAB1/2*, *CLEC4G*, and *CLEC4M*, were not upregulated
482 (De Smedt et al., 2021). The evidence linking SPI1 to liver metabolic disease is still limited, but
483 SPI1 has already been implicated in the regulation of transcriptional changes observed in NASH
484 (Steensels et al., 2020); and the SPI1 binding motif has been reported to be enriched in NAFLD
485 genetic risk variants (Namjou et al., 2019). It remains to be investigated if these associations
486 between SPI1 activity and NAFLD pertain to LSEC and/or other liver cell types. Future studies
487 should also investigate the mechanisms by which SPI1 drives LSEC identity, although it is
488 possible that it acts as a pioneer TF, similar to its function in hematopoietic development, where
489 it opens stem cell heterochromatin (Pham et al., 2013).

490

491 **6. ZEB2**

492 ZEB2 (also called SIP1: SMAD-interacting protein 1) has only recently been shown to be enriched
493 in liver microvascular ECs (de Haan et al., 2020). However, experimental follow-up for the role of
494 ZEB2 in LSECs showed uniform expression of *Zeb2* in mouse LSECs and non-sinusoidal vessels
495 of the liver (de Haan et al., 2021). Conditional deletion of *Zeb2* in mouse ECs (*Zeb2* EC^{KO})
496 revealed that loss of *Zeb2* affected *Pdgf*-signalling and angiogenic genes, but *Lyve1* was the only
497 LSEC marker showing decreased expression. Still, the *Zeb2* EC^{KO} mice presented a denser and

498 irregularly shaped liver microvasculature. Upon CCl₄-induced fibrosis, immunostaining in *Zeb2*
499 *EC^{KO}* livers showed gain of continuous EC markers (Cd34, Cd31), loss of the LSEC marker Cd32,
500 and formation of basal lamina (de Haan et al., 2021). Considering its important role in other
501 developmental programs (Fardi et al., 2019), these studies uncover of ZEB2 as an interesting
502 candidate for future investigations in LSECs and liver disease.

503

504 **Future directions**

505 There is an unmet need to identify the drivers of LSEC transcriptional programs and cellular
506 identity to create better *in vitro* model systems, and provide therapeutic targets and biomarkers
507 for liver diseases such as NAFLD. As highlighted by the studies discussed in this review, liver
508 tissue and freshly isolated LSECs are still the gold standards for LSEC expression analysis, with
509 many studies carried out in rodent LSECs. However, this creates limitations in terms of species
510 differences and availability of this difficult-to-obtain cell type, and has important ethical
511 implications. Moreover, the development of reliable LSEC *in vitro* models may improve liver
512 organoid modelling systems and platforms for regenerative therapy. The collected evidence on
513 developmental LSEC TFs and marker genes brings us closer to the possibility of creating a TF
514 overexpression model in more readily available, less differentiated ECs, such as HUVECs.
515 Overexpression of c-MAF, GATA4 and MEIS2 in HUVECs induced partial LSEC phenotype in an
516 additive way, surpassing the level of induction achieved by either of the TFs alone (de Haan et
517 al., 2020). The combination of TF overexpression with the addition of microenvironmental
518 molecules may also be necessary to induce and maintain the LSEC signature. For instance, bone
519 morphogenic protein 9 (BMP9), a circulating endothelial quiescence factor, has been suggested
520 as a necessary maintenance factor for LSEC fenestration (David et al., 2008). *Bmp9* knockout in
521 mice reduced fenestration frequency, opposed to BMP9 treatment in cultured LSEC, which lead
522 to prolonged fenestrated phenotype (Desroches-Castan et al., 2019). *Bmp9* treatment also
523 induced c-Maf expression and has been suggested to promote LSEC identity (Desroches-Castan

524 et al., 2019, Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022). Recently, Gage et al. differentiated LSEC-like cells
525 from hiPSCs by sequentially manipulating signalling molecule levels and pathways, however,
526 some important marker levels (e.g. F8) still remained low in hiPSC-derived LSECs, demonstrating
527 incomplete conversion (Gage et al., 2020). Heterotypic interactions between LSECs and other
528 liver resident cell types are also important for the maintenance of LSEC identity *in vitro*, as it has
529 been exemplified in LSEC-hepatocyte co-culture experiments (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022) and
530 in more complex systems such as organoids and liver-on-a-chip (Rezvani et al., 2023). Future
531 work should address the completion of the LSEC model based on the overexpression of TFs
532 described in this review and looking in more detail at the cell-to-cell signalling pathways that
533 contribute to specification of the liver endothelium during embryonic and postnatal development.

534 It is clear from previous studies that the spatiotemporal expression pattern of LSEC TFs
535 is diverse. In terms of cellular specificity, c-MAF, GATA4, MEIS2 and ZEB2 are LSEC-enriched
536 TFs. We refer here to LSEC-enriched TFs in opposition to LSEC-specific because even though
537 the expression of these TFs is higher in LSECs in comparison to other ECs and/or other liver
538 cells, their expression is not exclusively detected in LSECs. As we noted previously, c-MAF is
539 expressed in LSECs, Kupffer cells and macrophages, while GATA4 is an LSEC-hepatocyte
540 shared TF. The temporal expression patterns can also differ between TFs, as illustrated when
541 comparing *Gata4* and *Maf* during embryonic development: *Gata4* expression is constant
542 throughout development, whereas *Maf* expression increases (Gómez-Salineró et al., 2022).
543 These features have implications for the potential roles of these and other TFs in liver
544 pathophysiology and suggest that dysfunction of at least some of these LSEC core TFs may lead
545 to pleotropic effects across multiple cell types.

546 This review highlights a variety of methods used to study LSECs, particularly at the
547 transcriptional level. The integration of different datasets has been important for addressing the
548 limitations of any one method – this was shown recently in the differences of single-cell
549 technologies (single-nuclei- vs. scRNA-seq) for capturing zoned LSECs (Andrews et al., 2022).

550 In addition to differential gene expression, other mechanisms may drive zoned transcriptional
551 networks. For instance, differences in translation rates or protein stability may create
552 disconnection between mRNA and protein levels for certain TFs along the periportal-pericentral
553 axis (Inverso et al., 2021). Similarly, differential DNA methylation of TF binding sites may
554 contribute to the zoned activity of LSEC TFs, as has been observed in human hepatocytes
555 (Brosch et al., 2018). Thus, future single-cell multi-omics analyses may reveal additional layers
556 of the LSEC regulome. This and other new advances, including spatial transcriptomics (Hu et al.,
557 2022), and proteomics (Inverso et al., 2021) are sure to add new dimensions to our understanding
558 of LSEC biology.

559 *Cis*-regulatory networks involve the coordinated activity of multiple TFs that bind to
560 promoters and enhancers to activate broad gene programs. The liver has been extensively
561 studied in the contexts of health and disease, particularly NAFLD, to show that there is impaired
562 hepatic TF activity in liver metabolic disease (reviewed in (Cebola, 2020)). However, as
563 mentioned above, such studies focused on bulk liver tissue analyses and did not have the
564 granularity needed to capture LSEC-specific TF activity. Thus, future studies employing a
565 combination of better *in vitro* models and single-cell omics are expected to contribute to the better
566 characterisation of the cisomes and transcriptional networks under the control of specific LSEC
567 TFs. It is equally important that we seek to understand how LSEC TFs work in a coordinated
568 fashion to promote the different LSEC phenotypical attributes, especially those implicated in
569 disease. A fundamental and still unanswered question is "How does the pan-endothelial TF ERG
570 act with LSEC-enriched TFs to drive the LSEC transcriptional profile?". Are these TFs part of a
571 single *cis*-regulatory network, whereby for instance ERG controls the expression of *GATA4*? Or
572 are these TFs part of separate transcriptional networks and thus in charge of regulating distinct
573 sets of genes in LSECs? We predict that the application of single-cell ATAC-seq (Cusanovich et
574 al., 2015) and single-cell CUT&Tag (Bartosovic et al., 2021), among other methods, will
575 accelerate such findings and provide answers to some of these questions. Finally, more efficient

576 and standardized data processing protocols along with advanced data integration methods,
577 including the application of deep learning algorithms (Ma and Xu, 2022), will further enable to new
578 discoveries into the functions of LSEC TFs and their specific contributions to liver homeostasis
579 and disease.

580 It is well established that genetic variants can contribute to a higher risk of developing
581 NAFLD and other liver metabolic diseases. Some variants may affect TF activity by altering their
582 protein sequence, which may lead for example to changes in DNA-binding affinity. A recent
583 genome-wide association study (GWAS) for NAFLD in a histology-characterised cohort, identified
584 a missense variant in the *PYGO1* gene, which encodes a TF from the canonical Wnt signalling
585 pathway (Anstee et al., 2020). Wnt signalling is essential for appropriate sinusoidal differentiation
586 (Birdsey et al., 2015) and its aberrant activation has been associated with fibrosis (Inverso et al.,
587 2021). It would therefore be interesting to characterise Wnt signalling and TF activity when
588 *PYGO1* carries the recently identified NAFLD risk allele.

589 Most common disease-associated genetic variants however do not affect protein coding
590 sequences, and are instead located within cell type-specific enhancers (Maurano et al., 2012).
591 These common variants may act through disrupting TF binding events, which could lead to
592 changes in how genes are regulated or how they respond to metabolic cues. Given the central
593 role of LSECs in regulating metabolic homeostasis, it is possible that LSECs are also key players
594 in liver disease genetic susceptibility. The assignment of such non-coding variants to their target
595 genes and thus to affected pathways remains challenging, but it is increasingly obvious that it is
596 one of the next steps in identifying disease effector genes for common pathologies. Thus, the
597 combined analysis of LSEC transcriptomic and epigenomics datasets should be considered in
598 the future investigation genetic factors of liver disease.

599

600 **Conclusions**

601 Healthy, functioning LSECs play a key role in protecting the liver from inflammation and fibrosis,
602 and even contribute to regeneration of the liver in early stages of fibrosis or in hepatectomy. In
603 this review, we collected the available evidence for the roles of six key LSEC TFs, which initiate
604 and drive LSEC development and are important for the maintenance of liver metabolic
605 homeostasis. Given the many challenges of working with primary ECs, we propose that these
606 LSEC TFs should be harnessed to develop better LSEC *in vitro* modelling systems, along with
607 other currently known LSEC marker genes (**Figure 2**) and secreted factors. There are still
608 significant gaps in our understanding of LSEC TF activity, which we envision will be tackled in
609 future studies, deploying state-of-the-art approaches such as the epigenomic profiling of complex
610 tissue samples with single-cell resolution.

611

612 **Declaration of interest**

613 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

614

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622 **Figure legends**

623 **Figure 1. Position, phenotype, and marker fingerprint of LSECs in homeostasis and**
624 **disease.** The liver's structural unit is the liver lobule (top left) where the portal triad and the central
625 vein are connected by sinusoids. Liver sinusoids are the scene for uptake of nutrients derived
626 from the intestines via the portal vein, where there is also an influx of pathogens and signalling
627 molecules from the gut bacteria (top right). Oxygen-enriched blood enters from the portal artery
628 and mixes with the portal vein blood. The mixed blood flows through the sinusoid where it is
629 filtered by the liver sinusoidal endothelial cells (LSECs) and macromolecules and nutrients are
630 transported towards the hepatocytes, while waste products from the liver parenchyma are
631 transported into the sinusoidal blood. This mechanism creates a gradient of oxygen, nutrients,
632 and signalling molecules along the periportal-pericentral axis (**Box 2**). LSECs, through their
633 unique phenotypic and functional properties, play a key role in several aspects of liver
634 homeostasis (see section ***LSEC phenotypical properties and function in physiological***
635 ***conditions and disease***). Damaged LSECs display several changes in their phenotype and
636 function (bottom right) such as loss of fenestrae, formation of basal lamina, decreased endocytic
637 activity, deposition of extracellular matrix, and activation of Kupffer cells. These changes affect
638 macromolecule transport towards the parenchyma, microbe and virus uptake, and can lead to
639 sustained inflammation and fibrosis. The bottom left pictograms highlight some important, known
640 LSEC marker genes and transcription factors, and their loss in liver disease.

641

642 **Figure 2. Marker genes of LSECs identified across eight independent studies employing**
643 **different experimental methods and/or analysis.** The summary of rodent and human datasets
644 presents genes identified by at least 4 independent studies. The genes are ranked by the number
645 of identifying studies. scRNA-seq studies were considered if they provided marker gene sets for
646 clusters defined as LSECs. Ramachandran et al. provided a pre-filtered LSEC marker list (n=80)
647 (Ramachandran et al., 2019). For the remaining scRNA-seq studies, we obtained the top 100

648 genes ranked by fold-change of LSECs vs. other liver cell types (Guilliams et al., 2022). In studies
649 that defined two (MacParland et al., 2018) or three (Aizarani et al., 2019) LSEC clusters, the final
650 list combined the top 100 genes from each of those clusters. Haan et al. identified 27 LSEC-
651 enriched genes by comparing LSECs with heart and brain ECs (de Haan et al., 2020). Géraud et
652 al. provided a 46 gene marker list based on gene expression comparison between EC groups
653 (Géraud et al., 2010). De Smedt et al. developed a computational workflow to identify TFs central
654 in differentiation and specification (CentTFinder). The application of CentTFinder to a series of
655 LSEC gene expression datasets resulted in a list of 80 putative marker genes (De Smedt et al.,
656 2021). On the right, we present scaled mean protein expression for LSECs across 4 zones (portal
657 node (PN), periportal (PP), pericentral (PC), central vein (CV)) (n=4 samples per zone) (Inverso
658 et al., 2021). Genes/proteins not reported in the datasets described are shown with a small empty
659 dot. The full list of marker genes is available in **Supplementary Table 1**.

660

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