Revealing the Key Regulators of Cell Identity in the Human Adult Pancreas

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HIGHLIGHTS

- Reconstruction of gene regulatory networks for human adult pancreatic cell types
- An interactive resource to explore and visualize gene expression and regulatory states
- Predicting putative transcription factors driving pancreatic cell identity
- HEYL and JUND as candidate regulators of acinar and alpha cell identity, respectively

SUMMARY

Cellular identity during development is under the control of transcription factors that form gene regulatory networks. However, the transcription factors and gene regulatory networks underlying cellular identity in the human adult pancreas remain largely unexplored. Here, we integrate multiple single-cell RNA sequencing datasets of the human adult pancreas, totaling 7393 cells, and comprehensively reconstruct gene regulatory networks. We show that a network of 142 transcription factors forms distinct regulatory modules that characterize pancreatic cell types. We present evidence that our approach identifies key regulators of cell identity in the human adult pancreas. We predict that HEYL and JUND are active in acinar and alpha cells, respectively, and show that these proteins are present in the human adult pancreas as well as in human induced pluripotent stem cell-derived pancreatic cells. The comprehensive gene regulatory network atlas can be explored interactively online. We anticipate our analysis to be the starting point for a more sophisticated dissection of how transcription factors regulate cell identity in the human adult pancreas. Furthermore, given that transcription factors are major regulators of embryo development and are often

perturbed in diseases, a comprehensive understanding of how transcription factors work will be relevant in development and disease biology.

INTRODUCTION

A fundamental question in biology is how a single genome gives rise to the great diversity of cell types that make up organs and tissues. A key goal is to map all cell types of developing and mature organs such as the pancreas, an essential organ at the basis of multiple human disorders including diabetes and cancer (Kahn, Cooper and Del Prato, 2014; Kamisawa *et al.*, 2016; Han *et al.*, 2020). Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) provides a powerful tool to resolve cellular heterogeneity, identify cell types and capture high-resolution snapshots of gene expression in individual cells (Grün *et al.*, 2016). With the advent of single-cell transcriptomics, great progress has been made toward the creation of a reference cell atlas of the pancreas (Baron *et al.*, 2016; Segerstolpe *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2016; Xin *et al.*, 2016; Enge *et al.*, 2017; Lawlor *et al.*, 2017; Augsornworawat and Millman, 2020; Han *et al.*, 2020). Work from several groups provided cellular atlases of the pancreas during mouse development (Stanescu *et al.*, 2017; Byrnes *et al.*, 2018; Scavuzzo *et al.*, 2018), in adult mice (Muraro *et al.*, 2016) and in human fetal and adult pancreas (Liu *et al.*, 2014; Baron *et al.*, 2016; Muraro *et al.*, 2016; Segerstolpe *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2016; Enge *et al.*, 2017; Han *et al.*, 2020). Efforts have also been made to map cellular identity during pancreas development starting from human pluripotent stem cells (Rezania *et al.*, 2014; Hrvatin *et al.*, 2014; Zhu *et al.*, 2016; Han *et al.*, 2020; Hogrebe *et al.*, 2020; Peterson *et al.*, 2020). Taken together, these studies provide an opportunity to better understand the maintenance and establishment of cellular identity among different pancreatic cell types.

Work over the past decades indicated that cellular identity is established by combinations of transcription factors (TFs) that recognize and interact with cis-regulatory elements in the genome. These transcription factors, together with chromatin modifiers, give rise to gene expression programs. A small number of core TFs are thought to be sufficient for the establishment and maintenance of gene expression programs that define cellular identity during and after development (Ohno, 1979). Studies conducted in both mouse and human have successfully identified TFs that are pivotal for the acquisition and maintenance of pancreatic cell fates (Dassaye, Naidoo and Cerf, 2016). These include PDX1 (Zhou *et al.*, 2008; Shih *et al.*, 2015), MAFA (Nishimura, Takahashi and Yasuda, 2015), NGN3 (Gradwohl *et al.*, 2000), NKX2.2 (Sussel *et al.*, 1998), PAX4 (Sosa-Pineda *et al.*, 1997), NKX6.1, NEUROD1 (Mastracci *et al.*, 2013), ARX (Collombat *et al.*, 2003), MAFB (Artner *et al.*, 2006), RFX6 (Smith *et al.*, 2010), GATA4 (Ketola *et al.*, 2004), FOXA2 (Lee *et al.*, 2019) and SOX9 (Shroff *et al.*, 2014; Shih *et al.*, 2015). Conditional deletion of TFs such as FOXA2 and PDX1 in adult beta cells results in the loss of cellular identity and function (Sund *et al.*, 2001; Gao *et al.*, 2014). Genetic evidence for the role of these TFs in establishing human pancreatic cell identity is provided by the identification of TF loss-of-function mutations that cause pancreatic agenesis (Stoffers *et al.*, 1997; Sellick *et al.*, 2004; Allen *et al.*, 2012; Shaw-Smith *et al.*, 2014; De Franco *et al.*, 2019) or neonatal

or young-onset diabetes (Senée *et al.*, 2006; Solomon *et al.*, 2009; Rubio-Cabezas *et al.*, 2010, 2011; Smith *et al.*, 2010; Bonnefond *et al.*, 2013; Flanagan *et al.*, 2014). In addition, TF overexpression can reprogram somatic cells to adopt alternative identities (Takahashi and Yamanaka, 2006; Zhou *et al.*, 2008; Vierbuchen *et al.*, 2010; Lima *et al.*, 2016). For example, the induced expression of *Ngn3*, *Pdx1*, and *Mafa* was shown to reprogram mouse alpha cells into beta-like cells *in vivo* (Zhou *et al.*, 2008). However, how key TFs underlie the maintenance of cellular identity in the human pancreas remains incompletely understood.

Over the past decade, multiple approaches to reconstruct gene regulatory networks (GRNs) from bulk and single-cell omics data have been developed (Ghazanfar *et al.*, 2016; Lim *et al.*, 2016; Matsumoto *et al.*, 2017; Fiers *et al.*, 2018). In particular, it is now possible to combine single-cell transcriptomic data with cis-regulatory information to infer GRNs (Janky *et al.*, 2014; Aibar *et al.*, 2017; Van de Sande *et al.*, 2020). Because TFs recognize DNA motifs in the genome, one can measure if inferred target genes are expressed within single cells, and therefore quantify the activity of TFs. Such approaches have revealed the regulatory programs in distinct systems including the *Drosophila* brain (Davie *et al.*, 2018), cancer (Wouters *et al.*, 2020), during early mouse embryonic development (Peng *et al.*, 2019), in a mouse cell atlas (Suo *et al.*, 2018) and a human cell atlas (Han *et al.*, 2020).

Analysis of GRNs in the human adult pancreas has identified distinct endocrine and exocrine regulatory states with multiple stable cell states for alpha, beta and ductal cells (Kumar and Vinod, 2019). Type 2 diabetes and body mass index (BMI) were shown not to impact GRN activity of alpha and beta cells (Kumar and Vinod, 2019). Previous data shows that type 2 diabetic (Faerch *et al.*, 2015; Dennis *et al.*, 2019; Dybala and Hara, 2019; Zaharia *et al.*, 2019) and non-diabetic human islet preparations vary greatly depending on age (Enge *et al.*, 2017; Westacott *et al.*, 2017) and BMI (Henquin, 2018) warranting the exploration of GRNs in larger cohorts. Hence, it remains unclear whether previous GRN findings can be extrapolated to a broader, highly heterogeneous non-diabetic and type 2 diabetes patient population. The development of integration methods provides an opportunity to analyze multiple scRNA-seq studies from multiple laboratories and patients (Butler *et al.*, 2018; Luecken *et al.*, 2020). Additional knowledge on how GRNs maintain cellular identity in the human adult pancreas may further the understanding of disease states as well as improve efforts to convert patient cells into functional, mature beta cells for diabetes treatment.

Here, we build an integrated human pancreas gene regulatory atlas. In this resource, we use single-cell transcriptomes of the human adult pancreas, taking advantage of integration strategies and computational tools to reconstruct GRNs. Our analysis identifies the GRN landscape and candidate regulators that are critical for cellular identity in the human adult pancreas.

RESULTS

Integrated Analysis of scRNA-seq Data Identifies 12 Human Adult Pancreatic Cell Types.

Integrating multiple human adult pancreas scRNA-seq datasets can further improve the power of scRNA-seq analyses to create a human adult pancreas cell atlas. We set out to analyse and integrate five publicly available datasets covering a total of 35 non-diabetic, 15 type 2 diabetic and 1 type 1 diabetic individuals using Seurat v3.0 CCA integration tools (**Figure 1A**, detailed donor information can be found in **Table S1**) (Segerstolpe *et al.*, 2016; Wang *et al.*, 2016; Xin *et al.*, 2016; Enge *et al.*, 2017; Lawlor *et al.*, 2017; Hafemeister and Satija, 2019; Stuart *et al.*, 2019). After filtering out low quality transcriptomes and data integration, uniform manifold approximation and projection for dimension reduction (UMAP) visualisation revealed that 7393 cells localize into distinct clusters (**Figure 1B**). Cells from each original dataset localize together suggesting that the location of cells on the UMAP is not driven by the dataset of origin (**Figure 1C**).

We next sought to identify pancreatic cell types (**Figure 1D**). Clustering analyses based on the expression of well-established cell type specific markers led to the identification of eight cell types in the human adult pancreas: beta, alpha, gamma, delta, acinar, ductal, stellate and endothelial cells (**Figure 1B**, **Table S2**). UMAP visualization allowed for the segregation of endocrine, exocrine and other lineages (**Figure S1A**). Beta cells grouped together, away from other clusters and were marked by INS expression (**Figure 1E**). Other distinct clusters corresponded to alpha, gamma and delta cells based on global transcriptional similarity and elevated expression of GCG, PPY and SST, respectively, and other markers (**Figure 1E**, **Table S2**). Using a similar approach, we reliably detected other, previously described, major pancreatic cell types (acinar, ductal, endothelial and stellate, **Figure 1B**). All cell types were detected in both non-diabetic and type 2 diabetic pancreases (**Figure 1F**). An additional four rare cell populations, that cannot be robustly identified through clustering analyses, were identified manually by assessing the expression of GHRL (epsilon cells), TPS1AB (schwann cells), CD86 (mast cells) and SOX10 (Major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class 2 cells) (Wierup *et al.*, 2002; Segerstolpe *et al.*, 2016) (**Figure 1G**). These rare cell types often cluster with other common cell types. Importantly, our annotation recapitulated previous annotations to a large extent (**Figure S1B-C**). In summary, we reconstructed an integrated single-cell atlas of the human adult pancreas, and annotated 12 pancreatic cell types.

Reconstruction of Gene Regulatory Networks in the Human Adult Pancreas

Next, we set out to comprehensively reconstruct GRNs for all pancreatic cell types from single-cell transcriptomic data, applying single-cell regulatory network inference and clustering (pySCENIC) (Aibar *et al.*, 2017; Van de Sande *et al.*, 2020). PySCENIC links *cis*-regulatory sequence information together with single-cell transcriptomes in three sequential steps by 1) co-expression analysis, 2) target gene motif and ChIP-seq track enrichment analysis, and 3) regulon activity evaluation (**Figure 2A**). Each regulon consists of a TF with its predicted target genes (co-expressed genes with an enriched TF motif), altogether forming a regulon. pySCENIC identified 142 regulons that characterize the GRNs of the human adult pancreas

(Figure 2B/C, Table S3). Multiple regulons identified here as active in the pancreas correspond to TF binding motifs enriched in accessible chromatin in the pancreas (assessed by ATAC-seq in FACS-purified pancreatic cells, (Arda *et al.*, 2018)), supporting the validity of the approach **(Figure S2A).**

UMAP visualization based on the activity of 142 regulons in non-diabetic and type 2 diabetic pancreata revealed groups of cells that differ from one another based on their regulatory activity **(Figure 2B-C)**. In particular, there are distinct regulatory states for exocrine and endocrine pancreatic lineages, stellate and endothelial cells **(Figure 2B/C)**. Endocrine cell types clustered together, indicating shared regulatory states, while exocrine cell types formed two distinct clusters. Stellate and endothelial cells differed most from other cell types in their regulatory states. These results are consistent with previous analyses (Baron, Veres, Samuel L. Wolock, *et al.*, 2016; Lawlor *et al.*, 2017; Kumar and Vinod, 2019) and are also in line with our findings above based on gene expression analysis **(Figure 1D)**. As expected, regulons active in endocrine cell types include RFX6, PAX6 and NEUROD1 **(Figure 2D-G)**. These TFs have reported roles in endocrine cell fate commitment and maintenance of cell identity throughout adult life (Smith *et al.*, 2010; Hart *et al.*, 2013; Mastracci *et al.*, 2013). Using iRegulon for visualization, many of the NEUROD1 target genes identified here have been previously linked to beta cell survival and function, such as SNAP25, TSPAN2, ELAVL4, PLCXD3 and NRNX1 (Mosedale *et al.*, 2012; Hwang *et al.*, 2016; Daraio *et al.*, 2017; Juan-Mateu *et al.*, 2017; Aljaibei *et al.*, 2019) **(Figure S2B)**. Interestingly, other NEUROD1 target genes are reported to be involved in cell fate specification during endocrine pancreas development such as PAX6, NKX2.2, INSM1 and HDAC6, suggesting an overlap in NEUROD1 target genes in adult life and embryonic development (Gierl *et al.*, 2006; Haumaitre *et al.*, 2008; Hart *et al.*, 2013; Churchill *et al.*, 2017). Clustering all cells based on the activity of all regulons identifies regulatory modules **(Figure 2D, red squares)**. In the exocrine pancreas, one regulatory module, containing NR5A2, was shared between acinar and ductal cells, although with a tendency for increased regulon activity in ductal cells **(Figure 2D/H)**. Other exocrine regulons included ONECUT1, REST and HNF1B with reported roles in exocrine development (Nissim *et al.*, 2016; Kropp, Zhu and Gannon, 2019) and the adult exocrine pancreas (Quilichini *et al.*, 2019; Bray *et al.*, 2020) **(Figure 2D)**. In summary, this analysis confirms the expected separation of exocrine and endocrine cells with distinct gene regulatory programs, and identifies known and novel candidate regulators of pancreas cell states.

Several regulatory modules are shared between different cell types within the endocrine and exocrine pancreas. Additionally, each cell type is defined by cell-type specific regulatory modules **(Figure 1D)**. In the endocrine pancreas, alpha and beta cells shared endocrine regulons (MAFB, MEIS2), whereas we observed distinct activities for ARX and IRX2 regulons in alpha cells and RXRG and PDX1 in beta cells **(Figure 2D/H)**, expanding previous findings (Kumar and Vinod, 2019). Using iRegulon for visualization, PDX1 target genes include SLC6A17, PDIA6 and ABHD3, which have been reported to control insulin release (Thomas, Brown and Brown, 2014; Eletto *et al.*, 2016; Rorsman and Ashcroft, 2018) **(Figure S2C)**.

Interestingly, gamma and delta cells overlapped with alpha and beta cells, respectively, suggesting a shared regulatory state (**Figure 2C/D**). This includes shared regulon activity for ARX in gamma and alpha and PDX1 in beta and delta cells (**Figure 2D/H**), consistent with their reported expression in published scRNA-seq studies (Baron *et al.*, 2016; Segerstolpe *et al.*, 2016; Lawlor *et al.*, 2017). GATA4 and RBPJL, known acinar-specific TFs, were highly active in acinar cells (Masui *et al.*, 2010; Carrasco *et al.*, 2012) (**Figure 2H**). Similarly, ductal cells were characterised by highly active SOX9 and POU2F3 regulons, in line with previous literature (Shroff *et al.*, 2014; Yamashita *et al.*, 2017) (**Figure 2H**). In sum, this analysis confirms that alpha, beta, acinar and ductal cells are defined by the activity of distinct TF combinations that form gene regulatory modules.

In conclusion, the network approach recovers many of the expected regulators of pancreatic cellular identity allowing for the comprehensive characterisation of the gene regulatory state of all major human adult pancreatic cell types.

Prediction of Regulators of Endocrine Cell Identity in the Human Adult Pancreas

A comprehensive network analysis provides an opportunity to predict and identify critical regulators of cell identity. To identify regulons with highly cell type-specific activities within the human adult non-diabetic pancreas, we calculated regulon specificity scores (RSS) (a complete list of RSSs can be found in **Table S4**) (Suo *et al.*, 2018). The RSS utilises Jensen–Shannon divergence to measure the similarity between the probability distribution of the regulon's enrichment score and cell type annotation wherein outliers receive a higher RSS and are therefore considered cell type-specific (Suo *et al.*, 2018). It can therefore be used to rank the activity of TFs within specific cell types.

Among the top regulons identified in alpha cells, we recover well known regulators of alpha and endocrine cell fate such as ARX, IRX2, PAX6, MAFB, NEUROD1 and RFX6 (**Figure 3A/B**) (Collombat *et al.*, 2003; Artner *et al.*, 2006; Delporte *et al.*, 2008; Smith *et al.*, 2010; Dorrell *et al.*, 2011; Mastracci *et al.*, 2013). In addition, we identified JUND, EGR4, SREBF1 and STAT4, which have not yet been implicated in alpha cell identity. EGR1 (but not EGR4) has been shown to transcriptionally regulate glucagon expression (Leung-Theung-Long *et al.*, 2005) as well as the PDX1 promoter in beta cells (Eto, Kaur and Thomas, 2007). STAT4 and JUND have been described in pancreatic tissue in general and beta cells, respectively, but not in alpha cells (Yu and Kim, 2012; Good *et al.*, 2019) (**Figure 3B/C**). These TFs respond to the JNK and EGFR signalling pathways and may have important physiological functions. Both JUND and the JUND/JNK signaling pathway have been implicated in pancreatic cancer (Shin *et al.*, 2009; Recio-Boiles *et al.*, 2016). Immunocytochemistry of the human adult pancreas confirmed the presence of nuclear JUND in islets (**Figure 3Di**). We also detected nuclear JUND protein in a subset of human induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSCs) subjected to beta cell differentiation (**Figure 3E/F**). Surprisingly, we also detected JUND protein in ductal cells, despite lower JUND regulon activity in this cell type (**Figures 3C, 3Dii**). Thus, protein

expression does not always predict regulatory activity. Nevertheless, these results show that JUND is present and active in a subset of pancreatic cell types in the human adult pancreas and human pluripotent stem cell derived islet cells. Altogether, this analysis predicts TFs active in human alpha cells, recovering known as well as new candidate TFs.

Among the top regulons identified in beta cells, we retrieved well-known as well as new candidate regulators of beta and endocrine cell identity. Known TFs include RXRG, PDX1, NEUROD1, PAX6 and RFX6 (Zhou *et al.*, 2008; Miyazaki *et al.*, 2010; Smith *et al.*, 2010; Mastracci and Sussel, 2012; Hart *et al.*, 2013) (**Figure 3G/H**). In addition, we found that ZNF705D, ASCL2 and HOXD13 were highly ranked regulons (**Figure 3H/I**). HOXD13 and BHLHE41 have been shown to be present in the exocrine pancreas (Cantile *et al.*, 2009; Sato *et al.*, 2012). Interestingly, ASCL2 has been reported to interact with β -catenin of the Wnt pathway, the latter has an established role in endocrine fate specification during *in vitro* differentiation (Schuijers *et al.*, 2015; Sharon *et al.*, 2019; Vethe *et al.*, 2019). Many putative target genes of ASCL2 including PDX1, INS, ABCC8, FOXA1, KCNK16, FXYD2 are directly related to glucose sensing and beta cell identity, in line with the beta cell-specific regulatory activity of ASCL2 (**Figure S3A**) (Gao *et al.*, 2010; Arystarkhova *et al.*, 2013; Vierra *et al.*, 2015; Park, Lee and Park, 2016). FXYD2 γ a, a regulatory subunit of the Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase, is a transcript exclusively expressed in human beta cells (Flamez *et al.*, 2010). Immunohistochemistry of human adult pancreas sections showed that ASCL2 is expressed in INS⁺ beta and islet cells (**Figure 3J**). Surprisingly, ASCL2 was mainly localized to the cytoplasm (**Figure 3J**), which is unexpected for TFs which tend to localize to the nucleus (Baranek, Sock and Wegner, 2005). Cytoplasmic localization of ASCL2 has been reported in the context of colon and breast cancer (Zhu *et al.*, 2012; Xu *et al.*, 2017). These results implicate additional TFs including ASCL2 in the regulation of beta cell identity. They also illustrate the value of network analyses to increase our understanding of the biology of the human pancreas.

In summary, GRN analysis and regulon ranking allowed us to pinpoint both known and novel candidate regulators of pancreatic endocrine cell identity, providing a resource for further investigation of their roles in cellular identity and function.

Prediction of Regulators of Exocrine Cell Identity in the Human Adult Pancreas

Similarly, the comprehensive network analysis provides an opportunity to predict and identify critical regulators of exocrine cell identity.

We also identify known and new TFs in acinar cells. Among the top acinar-specific regulons, we recovered well known regulators of acinar and exocrine cell identity such as PTF1A, RBPJL, GATA4 and NR5A2 (Ketola *et al.*, 2004; Masui *et al.*, 2010; Nissim *et al.*, 2016; Sakikubo *et al.*, 2018) (**Figure 4A/B**). These findings are in line with a recent study that used single-nucleus RNA-seq on pancreatic acinar tissue (Tosti

et al., 2019). Furthermore, we identified MECOM, HEYL and TGIF1 as highly ranked regulons (**Figure 4B/C**). Interestingly, aberrant *Mecom* expression has been linked to the induction of gastric genes in acinar cells, which disrupts acinar cell identity and increases susceptibility to malignancy (Hoang *et al.*, 2016). The loss of TGIF1 has been linked to pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma progression making further exploration of these regulons interesting in the context of cancer biology (Weng *et al.*, 2019). Ectopic expression of Tgif2 (but not Tgif1) reprograms mouse liver cells towards a pancreas progenitor state (Cerdá-Esteban *et al.*, 2017). HEYL is a reported Notch signalling target gene in NGN3⁺ exocrine cells (Gomez *et al.*, 2015). We confirmed nuclear expression of HEYL in human acinar and islet cells (**Figure 4Di/ii**, detailed donor information can be found in **Table S1**) by immunohistochemistry, in agreement with elevated HEYL regulon activity in acinar cells (**Figure 3C**).

Top ranked regulons in ductal cells included well known regulators of ductal and exocrine cell identity such as POU2F3, NR5A2 and HNF1B (Nissim *et al.*, 2016; Yamashita *et al.*, 2017; Quilichini *et al.*, 2019) (**Figure 3E/F**). In addition, we observed CDX2 and PPARD as highly specific ductal regulons (**Figure 3F/G**). Both PPARD and CDX2 have been reported to be involved in human pancreatic ductal carcinoma, warranting further functional studies in the healthy pancreatic context (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2004; Coleman *et al.*, 2013).

In summary, GRN analysis and regulon ranking allowed us to pinpoint both known and novel candidate regulators of pancreatic exocrine cell identity. Specifically, we identified HEYL as a candidate TF that might be important for acinar cell identity, warranting further investigation.

An Interactive Online Resource for Visualization of the Human Adult Pancreas Cell Network Atlas

To enable users to easily navigate the human pancreatic cell network atlas, we provide a loom file that allows for the visualisation and exploration of the data using the web-based portal SCoPe (Davie *et al.*, 2018) (.loom file and tutorial available at http://scope.aertslab.org/#/PancreasAtlas/*/welcome and <https://github.com/pasquelab/scPancreasAtlas>). Features such as cell type annotation as defined in this paper, gene expression and regulon activity can be explored on the regulon and gene expression based UMAP. This resource enables users to select and visualize up to three genes or regulons simultaneously and select subsets of cells for downstream analyses. For example, the expression of COVID-19 related genes can be interactively explored (Yang *et al.*, 2020). Target genes of a specific regulon can be downloaded to facilitate further exploration, for example in iRegulon or gene ontology analysis (Janky *et al.*, 2014). A list of predicted target genes of all 142 regulons can also be found in **Table S5**. Furthermore, a list of target genes can be manually defined to compute the activity of a custom regulon. This resource can be used to further study cell identity and gene regulation in the context of the pancreas, diabetes and cancer.

DISCUSSION

In this resource, we take advantage of integration strategies and new computational tools to reconstruct an integrated cell and GRN atlas of the human adult pancreas from single-cell transcriptome data. This approach provides a comprehensive analysis of the gene regulatory logic underlying cellular identity in the human adult pancreas in a broad range of individuals, limiting the influence of inter-donor variability. We recovered known regulators of pancreatic cell identity and uncovered novel candidate regulators of cell identity that can be further investigated for their roles in cellular identity and function. By validating regulon analyses and creating an easily accessible interactive online resource which allows for the exploration of the gene regulatory state of 7393 cells from 51 individuals, this approach extends beyond previous gene regulatory studies in the human adult pancreas (Augsornworawat and Millman, 2020).

The present analysis identified regulators of pancreatic development, function and survival that are known to be critical in humans because loss-of-gene function causes pancreatic agenesis or young onset diabetes. For example, PTF1A (Sellick *et al.*, 2004; Weedon *et al.*, 2014) and GATA4 (Shaw-Smith *et al.*, 2014), whose loss of function are linked to pancreatic agenesis and neonatal diabetes, were among the top acinar-specific regulons (**Figure 3**). In addition, monogenic diabetes related genes PDX1 (Nicolino *et al.*, 2010), NEUROD1 (Rubio-Cabezas *et al.*, 2010), PAX6 (Solomon *et al.*, 2009), RFX6 (Smith *et al.*, 2010; Patel *et al.*, 2017) and GLIS3 (Senée *et al.*, 2006) were among the top beta cell-specific regulons (**Figure 3 and Table S4**).

Several top regulons in endocrine but not in exocrine cells are TFs involved in endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress signalling (**Table S4**). CREB3 and CREB3L2 are non-canonical ER stress transducers that are induced in human islets and clonal beta cells upon exposure to the saturated fatty acid palmitate (Cnop *et al.*, 2014). Interestingly, SREBF1 and -2 undergo similar ER exit and proteolytic processing in the Golgi as these ER stress transducers, but they do so in response to changes in ER cholesterol content; both also have high regulon activity in alpha and beta cells. XBP1 is abundantly expressed in the exocrine and endocrine pancreas (Cnop *et al.*, 2017), but the XBP1 regulon has its highest specificity in beta cells. ATF3 and ATF4 are TFs that are activated upon eIF2 α phosphorylation, an ER stress response pathway to which no less than 5 monogenic forms of diabetes belong (Eizirik, Pasquali and Cnop, 2020). Our data underscores the importance of these TFs for endocrine pancreatic cell identity.

Given that we predict novel regulators of cell identity in the human pancreas, it will be interesting to also expand this analysis to pancreas embryonic development. Our work may also be beneficial in guiding improvements of and better understanding the *in vitro* derivation of pancreatic cell types. For example, the emergence of SST-positive cells together with beta-like cells at the end of *in vitro* differentiation could be explained by the overlap in regulatory states between beta and delta cells (Baron *et al.*, 2016). GRN analyses are particularly interesting for *in vitro* derived beta cells since a better understanding of the

regulatory logic underlying control of beta cell fate may improve or facilitate future applications in regenerative medicine (Pagliuca *et al.*, 2014; Rezania *et al.*, 2014; Nostro *et al.*, 2015; Russ *et al.*, 2015; Baeyens *et al.*, 2018). Alternatively, many observed GRNs such as ASCL2, MECOM, PPARG, GATA6 and CDX2 are linked to pancreatic cancer making the additional exploration of GRNs interesting in the context of cancer biology (Matsumoto *et al.*, 2004; Zhu *et al.*, 2012; Coleman *et al.*, 2013; Hoang *et al.*, 2016; Xu *et al.*, 2017; Weng *et al.*, 2019; Brunton *et al.*, 2020). Finally, recent reports have stratified type 2 diabetes patients based on age at diagnosis, BMI, HbA1c and insulin secretion and sensitivity, and identified subtypes with different genetic predisposition, treatment response, disease progression and complication rates (Ahlgqvist *et al.*, 2018). Hence, it would be interesting to assess differences in gene regulatory state and gene expression profiles of alpha and beta cells between different type 2 diabetic subgroups.

Limitations of the study

It is important to note that pySCENIC is a stochastic algorithm that does not produce precisely the same regulons for repeated applications, limiting reproducibility when comparing different datasets (Huynh-Thu *et al.*, 2010; Van de Sande *et al.*, 2020). To mitigate this uncertainty, we ran the full pySCENIC pipeline five times and only kept consistent regulons with the highest regulon activity. The performance of pySCENIC, and other GRN inference methods, suffers due to the large amount of drop-out events in scRNA-seq data warranting caution when interpreting results (Chen and Mar, 2018). This could explain the absence of well-established pancreas TFs such as MAFA (Olbro *et al.*, 2002), MNX1 (Flanagan *et al.*, 2014), NEUROG3 (Krentz *et al.*, 2017), FOXA2 (Lee *et al.*, 2002) and NKX2-2 (Mastracci *et al.*, 2011) in this analysis. Nevertheless, in support of the validity of our findings, ATAC-seq, literature and immunohistochemistry of human pancreas sections corroborate several pySCENIC predictions. Chen and colleagues underline the importance of using large sample sizes to derive the most accurate network inference possible (Chen and Mar, 2018), highlighting the importance of dataset integration to increase the number of cells analysed. In the future, it will be interesting to extend our analyses to include many more cells and patients. In spite of current caveats, GRN analysis has enabled the capture of biological relevant information (Butte *et al.*, 2000).

One additional limitation of this study is the assumption that all TFs bind their binding motifs in the promoters of expressed genes. However, TF binding can be restricted to a subset of TF motifs in the genome due to influence of chromatin processes including the presence of nucleosomes as well as DNA methylation. Therefore, additional approaches such as single cell multi-omics that capture additional layers of genome regulation will be helpful to increase our understanding of gene regulation in the context of the human pancreas.

Taken together, our GRN atlas, containing 51 individuals, provides a valuable resource for future studies in the human pancreas development, donor variability, homeostasis and disease including type 2 diabetes

and pancreatic cancer. Finally, our results provide new insights into the activity of TFs and gene regulation in the human adult pancreas from a gene regulatory perspective.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

Conceived project, VP, LV. Performed experiments, AAS, MVH. Analyses, AAS, MVH, TH, TR. scRNA-seq analyses, LV, AJ, JC. ATAC-seq analysis, LV. Wrote manuscript, LV, VP and MC with input from all authors. Supervision, VP.

DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.

METHODS

Key Resources Table

REAGENT OR RESOURCE	SOURCE	IDENTIFIER
Antibodies		
Monoclonal mouse anti-human ASCL2	Cat# MAB4418, clone 7E2	Millipore, RRID:AB_10561764
Rabbit anti-human JUND	Cat# HPA063029	Atlas Antibodies, RRID:AB_2684925
Rabbit anti-human HEYL	Cat# HPA076960	Atlas Antibodies, RRID:AB_2732326
Guinea pig anti-human INS	Cat# IR002	Agilent, RRID:AB_2800361
Monoclonal mouse anti-human GCG	Cat# G2654	Sigma-Aldrich, RRID:AB_259852

Goat Anti-Guinea Pig IgG Alexa Fluor 568	Cat# A-11075	Thermo Fisher Scientific, RRID:AB_2534119
Donkey anti-Rabbit IgG Alexa Fluor 488	Cat# A-21206	Thermo Fisher Scientific, RRID:AB_2535792
Donkey Anti-Mouse IgG Alexa Fluor 647	Cat# A-31571	Thermo Fisher Scientific, RRID:AB_162542
Experimental Models: Cell Lines		
Control iPSC line HEL115.6	(Cosentino <i>et al.</i> , 2018)	
Biological Samples		
Human pancreas sections	Biobank of the University Hospital Leuven (Belgium)	
Software and Algorithms		
SRA toolkit	v2.9.4	
STAR	v2.5.3a	RRID:SCR_015899
Rsubread	v1.5.2	RRID:SCR_016945
ENCODE ATAC-seq pipeline		(Lee, 2016)
HOMER	v4.10.4	RRID:SCR_010881
Integrative Genomics Viewer	V2.8.0	RRID:SCR_011793
Seurat	v3.1.1	RRID:SCR_007322
seaborn	v0.9.0	RRID:SCR_018132
py SCENIC	v0.9.15	RRID:SCR_017247
Cytoscape	v3.7.1	RRID:SCR_003032
iRegulon (Cytoscape plugin)	v1.3	(Janky <i>et al.</i> , 2014)
MATLAB	R2019b	MathWorks
ggplot2	v3.1.1	RRID:SCR_014601
LoomPy	v2.0.17	RRID:SCR_016666
R	v3.6.1	RRID:SCR_001905
Python	3.6.9	RRID:SCR_008394
Deposited Data		
Reanalyzed human pancreatic scRNA-seq dataset	GEO	GEO: GSE86469
Reanalyzed human pancreatic scRNA-seq dataset	GEO	GEO: GSE81608

Reanalyzed human pancreatic scRNA-seq dataset	GEO	GEO: GSE83139
Reanalyzed human pancreatic scRNA-seq dataset	GEO	GEO: GSE81547
Reanalyzed human pancreatic scRNA-seq dataset	ArrayExpress	ArrayExpress: E-MTAB-5061
Reanalyzed human pancreatic bulk ATAC-seq dataset of FACS sorted beta, alpha, ductal and acinar cell populations	GEO	GEO: GSE79468
.loom file containing regulon and gene expression data	GEO	GEO: GSE156490

Resource availability

Lead Contact

Further information and requests for resources should be directed to and will be fulfilled by the Lead Contact, Vincent Pasque (vincent.pasque@kuleuven.be).

Materials Availability

This study did not generate new unique reagents.

Data and Code Availability

This study did not generate any new datasets. Regulon data, raw and integrated gene expression matrices and the .loom file are available in the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) repository under accession code GSE156490 [<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE156490>]. A SCoPe tutorial is available at <https://github.com/pasquelab/scPancreasAtlas>. This study did not generate any new software; questions about data analysis should be directed to the Lead Contact, Vincent Pasque (vincent.pasque@kuleuven.be). The reviewer tokens for this GEO repository is cfsjciumfferjkd.

Method Details

Motif discovery of bulk ATAC-seq data

Paired-end raw reads for bulk ATAC-seq (see Key Resource Table) were downloaded from SRA using SRA toolkit (v2.9.4). Reads were aligned and further analyzed using the ENCODE ATAC-seq pipeline with default parameters using the ENCODE human reference genome GRCh38.15 (Lee, 2016). Bed files containing the global open chromatin landscape of Adult Alpha (Alpha_1; EA4 and Alpha_2; EA28), Beta (Beta_1; EA5 and Beta_2; EA29), Acinar (Acinar_1; EA7 and Acinar_2; EA27) and ductal (EA11) cells or cell type specific differentially accessible regions were used as input for motif discovery by HOMER (v4.10.4) using the 'findMotifsGenome.pl' with options using hg38 with size given (Heinz *et al.*, 2010). The

TFs whose motifs identified by HOMER correspond with TFs identified by pySCENIC are visualized in Figure S2A.

Analysis of publicly available scRNA-seq data

Raw reads for five publicly available scRNA-seq datasets (see Key Resource Table) were downloaded from SRA using SRA toolkit (v2.9.4). Afterwards, reads were aligned to the human reference genome GRCh38.95 using STAR (v2.5.3a) with default parameters followed by the conversion to the coordinate sorted BAM format. Next, the featureCounts command from the “Rsubread” (v1.5.2) package in R (v3.6.1) was used to assign mapped reads to genomic features. Low quality transcriptomes with a mitochondrial contamination greater than 5% and less than 200 expressed genes per cell were excluded from subsequent analyses. The resulting raw count matrix was batch corrected using the FindIntegrationAnchors and IntegrateData functions from the “Seurat” package (v3.1.1) after which subsequent analyses were carried out in the R package “Seurat” (v3.1.4). Gene expression was used to cluster all 7393 cells with UMAP, using Seurat’s function RunUMAP.

Clusters for cell type annotation were defined using Seurat’s shared nearest neighbour algorithm FindClusters function after which differential expression analysis was performed using Wilcoxon’s rank sum test with a minimum cutoff of 0.25 average log fold change and min.pct of 0.25.

pySCENIC

GRNs were inferred using pySCENIC (python implementation of SCENIC, v0.9.15) in Python version 3.6.9 (Aibar *et al.*, 2017). Integrated read counts were used as input to run GENIE3 (Huynh-Thu *et al.*, 2010) which is part of arboreto (v0.1.5). GRNs were subsequently inferred using pySCENIC with the hg38_refseq-r80 motif database and default settings. To control for the stochasticity, which is inherent to pySCENIC, a consensus GRN was generated by merging results from five repeat pySCENIC runs. If regulons were identified in multiple pySCENIC runs, only the regulon with the highest AUC value was retained. Regulon activity represented by AUCell values was used to cluster all 7393 cells with UMAP, using Seurat’s RunUMAP function.

All 142 regulons within non-diabetic cell types were visualized using the ‘clustermap’ function of the Python package “seaborn” (v0.9.0). The z-score for each regulon across all cells was calculated using the z-score parameter of the seaborn ‘clustermap’ function.

Extended analysis of the target genes of specific regulons was conducted in Cytoscape (v3.7.1) using the iRegulon application (v1.3). The list of target genes of a specific regulon was downloaded from the loom file through the SCoPe platform (<https://github.com/pasquelab/scPancreasAtlas>) (Davie *et al.*, 2018).

Regulon ranking

To quantify the cell-type specificity of a regulon, we utilized an entropy-based strategy as described previously (Suo *et al.*, 2018) using the AUCell matrix as input in MATLAB R2019b. The top 10 most specific regulons were subsequently visualized using the R package ggplot2 (v3.1.1). The complete regulon ranking list is available in Table S2.

Beta cell differentiation and immunocytochemistry

Control iPSC line HEL115.6 (Cosentino *et al.*, 2018) was differentiated into beta cells using a previously published 7-step protocol (Cosentino *et al.*, 2018). At the end of the stage 4, cells were seeded into 24-well Aggrewell 400 microwell plates (Stem Cell Technologies) at a density of $0.9 \cdot 10^6$ cells per well after which differentiation was carried out as described previously (Cosentino *et al.*, 2018).

Stage 7 differentiated beta cells were washed twice with PBS containing 0.5 mM EDTA and incubated in Accumax (SIGMA #A7089) for 8 min at 37 °C after which 50% volume of KnockOut Serum Replacement (ThermoFisher #10828028) was added to stop the reaction. After centrifugation at 400 g for 5 min at room temperature, cells were resuspended in 1 mL HAM's F-10 medium, supplemented as indicated before (Demine *et al.*, 2020). 75,000 cells in 500 μ L medium were seeded per square of a Nunc Lab-Tek II ICC chamber (ThermoFisher).

Immunohistochemistry analyses were carried out largely as described previously (Demine *et al.*, 2020), using primary antibodies against the following proteins: INS (Dako (Agilent), IR002, Ready to use solution), GCG (Sigma-Aldrich, G2654, 1/1000) and JUND (Atlas Antibodies, HPA063029, 1/100) and the following secondary antibodies (ThermoFisher, A-11075, A-21206, A-31571, 1/500). Pictures were taken using an Axiovert fluorescence microscope (Zeiss).

Immunohistochemistry

Briefly, 4 μ m tissue sections were retrieved from 4% formalin-fixed, paraffin-embedded tissue blocks of normal pancreas tissue (68 year old male, 59 year old male and 64 year old female) from the biobank of the University Hospital in Leuven (Belgium). Two pathologists (M.V.H. and T.R.) separately evaluated all histological sections. This study was approved by the ethical committee of the University Hospital in Leuven (Belgium) (S32980).

Immunohistochemistry analyses were carried out largely as described previously (Ceulemans *et al.*, 2017), using primary antibodies against the following proteins: ASCL2 (Merck, MAB4418, clone 7E2, 1/5000), JUND (Atlas Antibodies, HPA063029, 1/50), HEYL (Atlas Antibodies, HPA076960, 1/200) and INS (Agilent, IR002, 1/100). Pictures were taken using a Leica DMLB (Leica Microsystems).

SCope

The integrated single-cell RNA-seq data and pySCENIC results can be explored interactively in SCoPe (Davie *et al.*, 2018). Loompy (v2.0.17) (Linnarsson Lab., 2015) was used to create the loom files which were uploaded to SCoPe. The embedding of the regulon and integrated gene expression based UMAP clustering, as seen in this article, were added to the loom file.

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Figure 1. Integrated Analysis of scRNA-seq Identifies 12 Pancreatic Cell Types.

(A) Schematic of workflow used in this paper. Cells from five public datasets were processed uniformly from raw SRA files and integrated, resulting in one dataset of 7393 cells of 51 individuals. **(B)** Integrated gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells annotated by cell type. **(C)** Gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells annotated by dataset of origin. **(D)** Schematic overview of diverse cell types in the human adult pancreas. Created with BioRender.com **(E)** Gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells colored by non-integrated INS, GCG, PPY and SST expression. **(F)** Integrated gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells annotated by disease status. **(G)** Bubble plot showing the expression of various known marker genes across all annotated cell types. The bubble size is proportional to the percentage of cells that express a specific marker gene with the colour scale representing the average non-integrated scaled gene expression within the specific cell population.

MHC: major histocompatibility complex

Figure 2. Reconstruction of Gene Regulatory Networks in the Human Adult Pancreas

(A) Schematic overview of the pySCENIC workflow used in this study. (B-C) Regulon activity based UMAP of 7393 single cells colored by pancreatic lineage (B) and cell type annotation (C). Endocrine cells include alpha, beta, epsilon, gamma and delta cells. Exocrine cells include acinar and ductal cells. Other cells represent schwann, MHC class 2, mast, stellate and endothelial cells. (D) Heatmap based on unsupervised clustering of all 142 regulons (rows) for 4795 non-diabetic cells (columns). Color scaling is based on a z-score calculated based on the activity of each regulon. (E-G) Regulon activity based UMAP colored by the regulon activity of RFX6 (E), PAX6 (F), NEUROD1 (G). (H) Regulon activity based UMAP colored by the regulon activity of NR5A2, ARX, MAFB, PDX1, RXRG, GATA4, RBPJL and SOX9.

Figure 4. Prediction of Regulators of Exocrine Cell Identity in the Human Adult Pancreas

(A) Regulon activity based UMAP of 7393 single cells with the acinar cell population highlighted. (B) Top 10 ranked regulons in non-diabetic acinar cells based on regulon specificity score (RSS). Known cell type specific regulons are colored green. (C) Regulon activity based UMAP colored by the regulon activity of TGIF1 and HEYL showing the cell type specificity of regulons. (D) Immunohistochemical evaluation of HEYL in healthy human adult pancreata showing nuclear HEYL expression in acinar (i) and islet (ii) cells. Representative images are shown (n = 3 patients), Scale bar: 50 μ m. (E) Regulon activity based UMAP of 7393 single cells with the ductal cell population highlighted. (F) Top 10 ranked regulons in non-diabetic beta cells based on regulon specificity score (RSS). Known cell type specific regulons are colored green. (G) Regulon activity based UMAP colored by the regulon activity of CDX2 and PPARD showing the cell type specificity of regulons.

Figure S1. Integrated Analysis of scRNA-seq Identifies 12 Pancreatic Cell Types

(A) Gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells colored by pancreatic lineage. Endocrine cells include alpha, beta, epsilon, gamma and delta cells. Exocrine cells include acinar and ductal cells. Other cells represent schwann, MHC class 2, mast, stellate and endothelial cells. **(B)** Gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells showing the large degree of overlap of novel and original cell type annotation. Cells were annotated as matching when the novel cell type annotation corresponded with the original annotation from each paper. **(C)** Gene expression based UMAP of 7393 single cells annotated by the original cell type annotation defined in the individual papers.

Figure S2. Reconstruction of Gene Regulatory Networks in the Human Pancreas Predicts a Small Set of Essential Regulators for Each Cell Type

(A) Bubble plot summarizing the enrichment of pySCENIC related transcription factor motifs. Bulk ATAC-seq data of FACS sorted alpha, beta, ductal and acinar cells from (Arda et al., 2018) was downloaded and analysed after which motif discovery by HOMER based motif discovery was performed on the global open chromatin landscape. Significantly enriched motifs, with logarithmic p-values below -10, are represented in green. TF motifs with logarithmic p-values above -10 were considered not significant and are represented in purple. **(B)** Extended analysis of putative NEUROD1 target genes. NEUROD1 is colored green. Target genes are color coded (purple/blue) based on whether they are part or not of the network as defined by iRegulon. **(C)** Extended analysis of putative PDX1 target genes. PDX1 is colored green. Target genes are color coded (purple/blue) based on whether they are part or not of the network as defined by iRegulon.

Figure S3. ASCL2 Target Genes can be Linked to Beta Cell Functioning

(A) Extended analysis of the target genes of the ASCL2 regulon by iRegulon. ASCL2 is colored green. Target genes are color coded (purple/blue) based on whether they are part of a network.

SUPPLEMENTARY TABLES AND FILES

Table S1. Overview of donor information and number of cell types identified for each donor.

This table is related to Figure 1, 2, 3 and 4.

Table S2. Overview of marker genes used to annotate cell populations.

This table is related to Figure 1.

Table S3. Overview of all 142 regulons.

This table is related to Figure 2, 3 and 4.

Table S4. Overview of regulon ranking.

List of regulon specificity scores for all 142 regulons of non-diabetic alpha, beta, acinar and ductal cells.

This table is related to Figure 3 and 4.

Table S5. List of putative target genes for each regulon.

List of putative target genes for each regulon. This table is related to Figure 2, 3 and 4.