1   **Title:**

2   **Epigenetic landscape of pancreatic neuroendocrine tumours reveals distinct cells of origin and**

3   **means of tumour progression**

4

5   **Authors:** Annunziata Di Domenico[+, 1], Christodoulos P. Pipinikas[‡], Renaud Sylvain Maire[+],

6   Konstantin Bräutigam[+], Cedric Simillion[†], Matthias S. Dettmer[+], Erik Vassella[+], Christina Thirlwell[‡],

7   Aurel Perren[+] and Ilaria Marinoni[+]*

8

9   + Institute of Pathology, University of Bern, Murtenstrasse 31, 3008 Bern Switzerland

10   1 Graduate School for Cellular and Biomedical Sciences, University of Bern, 3010 Bern

11   ‡ UCL Cancer Institute, 72, Huntley Street, London. WC1E 6JD

12   † Bioinformatics and Computational Biology, University of Bern, Baltzerstrasse6, 3012 Bern

13

14   **Keywords (5):** PanNET, DNA methylation, α-cell, β-cell, origin.

15

19

20   **Correspondence:**

21   Ilaria Marinoni; Institute of Pathology, University of Bern, Murtenstrasse 31, 3008 Bern (CH), Tel

22   +41316324991, Fax +41316324995, Email: ilaria.marinoni@pathology.unibe.ch

23 **ABSTRACT**

24 Recent data suggest that Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumours (PanNETs) originate from α- or β-cells of

25 the islets of Langerhans. The majority of PanNETs are non-functional and do not express cell-type

26 specific hormones. We examined whether tumour DNA methylation (DNAme) profiling combined with

27 genomic data could identify cell of origin and reveal pathways involved in PanNET progression. We

28 analysed genome-wide DNAme data of 125 PanNETs and sorted α- and β-cells. To confirm cell identity,

29 we investigated ARX and PDX1 expression. Based on epigenetic similarities, PanNETs clustered in α-

30 like, β-like and intermediate tumours. The epigenetic similarity to α-cells progressively decreased in the

31 intermediate tumours, which presented unclear differentiation. Specific transcription factor methylation

32 and expression varied in the respective α/β-tumour groups. Depending on DNAme similarity to α/β-

33 cells, PanNETs have different mutational spectra, stage of the disease and prognosis, indicating potential

34 means of PanNET progression.

35 **Keywords:** cell of origin, alpha, beta, methylation, expression, epigenetic, neuroendocrine, progression,

36 pancreatic, tumour

Introduction

Pancreatic neuroendocrine tumours (PanNETs) are tumours of the islets of Langerhans. The cell of origin is unclear, and mechanisms associated with progression are largely unknown. Surgery is currently the only curative option; however, 5-year disease free survival is approximately 50% in patients following an R0 resection[1]. To date, there is no validated risk prediction tool to accurately guide follow up and select patients at high risk of recurrence who might benefit from adjuvant therapy[2]. PanNETs are clinically and genetically heterogeneous; ~40% of patients present with mutations in either *DAXX* or *ATRX* and *MEN1*, which encode for proteins involved in epigenetic regulation[3]. PanNET with mutations in *DAXX* or *ATRX* have a shorter disease free survival compared to wild type tumours[4].

The islets of Langerhans include five different cell types producing specific hormones: glucagon is produced by α-cells, insulin by β-cells, somatostatin by δ-cells, ghrelin by ε-cells and pancreatic polypeptide by PP-cells. Only a minority of PanNETs are functional, leading to clinical syndromes due to inadequate hormone secretion. The majority of functional PanNETs are insulinomas. Whether functional tumours and non-functional tumours originate from the same cell type remains uncertain.

Recent studies of gene expression and master regulator analysis alongside investigation of super-enhancer signatures have suggested both α- and β-cells as two possible cells of origin for non-functioning (NF)-PanNETs[5–8]. On the other hand, Sadanandam *et al*. reported that a group of aggressive PanNET, namely, "metastasis-like primary", have a phenotype characterised by "stemness" transcripts compared to well differentiated tumours, also suggesting a common progenitor cell origin[5]. Similarly, based on the identification of master regulator proteins, de-differentiation and acquisition of stem cell characteristics seem to be one of the pathways associated with tumour progression[6].

The cell of origin in cancer refers to the normal cell that acquires the initial cancer-promoting genetic hit(s). During development, cell lineage fate is determined by cell-type specific transcription factor (TF) expression, which in turn is dependent on the type of epigenetic markers that are located at the relative regulatory regions (e.g. super-enhancer activation)[9]. The five endocrine cell types derive from a common endocrine precursor, which has segregated from a ducto-endocrine bipotent cell population[10]. The TFs, *Pax4* (Paired Box 4) and *Arx* (Aristaless Related Homeobox), are required for β- and α-cell fates, respectively. Lineage decision is determined via cross-inhibitory interactions[11]. *Pdx1* (Pancreatic And Duodenal Homeobox 1) expression becomes restricted to cells at the stage of initiating insulin expression and, in the pancreatic islets of Langerhans, remains up-regulated exclusively in β-cells[12]. Integrative analysis of human epigenomes including histone modification patterns, DNA accessibility, DNA methylation and RNA expression has revealed that disease- and trait-associated genetic variants are enriched in tissue-specific epigenomic marks[13]. In the context of tumour biology, epigenetic states of cell lineages shape the vulnerability for specific genetic alterations and thereby reveal a distinct class of lineage-associated cancer genes[14–16]. Therefore, determining the cell of origin is crucial to understand tumour specific carcinogenesis and progression[17]. Cancer DNA methylation profiles have been utilised to determine the cell of origin of several tumour types[18,19]. In this study, we set out to determine the

74   putative cell of origin of PanNETs through DNA methylation analysis. We also identified genetic driver

75   mutations specific to different cells of origin which are related to clinical outcome. Based on our findings

76   we propose a new model of PanNET origin and progression.

77   **Results**

78

79   **DNA methylation signature of PanNETs showed similarities to α- and β-cells**

80   We analysed the methylomes of 125 PanNETs and of isolated normal α- and β-cells[20] to determine

81   which of these is the cell of origin (cohort details are summarised in table 1 and reported in table S1). A

82   flow chart of the analysis performed is provided in figure S1. The comparison between sorted normal

83   α- (n=2) and β-cells (n=2) resulted in 2703 differentially methylated CpG sites (adj. p-value<0.001 and

84   more than 20% difference between the mean β-values of each group - $|\Delta\beta|>0.2$, table S2), 2131 of them

85   were retained, after filtering and normalization, in the tumour DNA methylation matrix. Phyloepigenetic

86   analysis of the 2131 identified CpG sites using either normal β- or normal α-cells as roots, indicated

87   clear hierarchical relationships between normal cells and tumour specimens (Fig. 1A and S2A). We

88   defined PanNETs that grouped together with normal α- or β-cells as α-like or β-like PanNETs,

89   respectively (Fig. 1A and table S1). We compared these phyloepigenetic groups to cell type similarity

90   obtained from cell-type deconvolution analysis. We assigned each PanNET sample a degree of

91   methylome similarity to each of the following cell types: α, β, acinar, ductal[20], fibroblastic pancreatic

92   cells[21] and hematopoietic cells[22] (Fig. S2B). Notably, phyloepigenies that were close to normal α/β-cells

93   showed similarity >65% and an average of 72% and 73% of similarity to α and β-cells, respectively

94   (SD for α-like ±15% and for β-like ±9%, table S1). T-distributed stochastic neighbour embedding (*t*-

95   SNE) analysis, using the identified 2131 CpGs and including normal cells and PanNET samples, showed

96   a consistent segregation, according to the groups defined via similarity scores and phyloepigeny analysis

97   (Fig. S2C). These results showed at least two groups of tumours with clear and high similarity to either

98   α- or β-cells (Fig. 1A, S2A and S2C). The majority of tumours, however, revealed an intermediate

99   differentiation profile. Intermediate tumours clustered between α- and β-cells and showed weak

100   similarities to α- (as average 51 ±20 % of similarity) and very weak similarity to β-cells (as average 14

101   ±16 % of similarity), respectively.

102

103   **Regulatory sites of α- and β-cell specific transcription factors were differentially methylated**

104   We used previously published data to select 10 α- and 10 β-cell-type associated TFs[23–25] (table 2).

105   As methylation of enhancers and regulatory states are important elements of epigenetic guidance of cell

106   states, these regions were selected based on integrated ChIP-seq, DNA methylation and ATAC-seq

107   experiments of normal islets[26]. This analysis resulted in 49 CpGs for the α-cell TFs and 51 CpGs for the

108   β-cell TFs. Consensus clustering of the 125 PanNETs according to each cell-specific TF signature (k-

109   means = 2, reflecting one cell-type enriched cluster and one non-specific cluster) showed clear and

110   consistent cluster formation. The β-specific cluster separated very clearly and included all the β-like

111   tumours. Interestingly, the α-specific cluster showed a broader inclusion of tumours. While the α-like

112   (phyloepigenies with >65% of similarities to alpha cells) tumours clustered mainly close to each other

113   on one extreme, intermediate PanNETs were included to this group as well but progressively distant

114   from the α-like tumours (Fig. 1B).

115

116   **Alpha-, intermediate and β- like PanNETs have distinct genetic aberrations**

117   Within the β-like PanNETs 13 of 14 were *MEN1/DAXX/ATRX* wild type. Alpha-like PanNETs

118   were enriched for *MEN1* only mutations (11/19), 8/19 α-like PanNETs were *MEN1/DAXX/ATRX* wild

119   type and none harboured *MEN1/DAXX/ATRX* mutations (Fig. 1A and table S1). Sixty-seven percent

120   (62/92) of intermediate PanNETs harboured mutations in *MEN1* and/or *DAXX/ATRX* genes

121   (intermediate-ADM) while the rest were wild type (intermediate-WT) (Fig. 1A and table S1).

122   Inferred copy number aberrations (CNAs) from HM450 signal intensities stratified the tumours into

123   3 subtypes (Fig. S3E). Copy number aberration (CNA) group 1 had few copy number events. Group 2

124   included samples with gains and losses. CNA group 3 showed the largest number of CNAs,

125   predominantly with loss of multiple chromosomes (Fig. S3E). Notably, α- and β-like tumours presented

126   few copy number events while the intermediate PanNETs showed increasingly copy number events (Fig.

127   1A).

128

DNA methylation signatures associated with cell of origin correlated with expression of hormones and transcription factors

131   To confirm the methylation-based cell lineage similarity, we performed immunostaining for ARX,

132   PDX1, insulin and glucagon on a subset of samples for which formalin fixed paraffin-embedded tissue

133   was available (n=39, table S1). Nuclear positivity for ARX and PDX1 was present in the expected

134   distribution in normal islets (Fig. S4). We identified ARX positivity in 28/39 PanNETs, 6 of them also

135   produced glucagon (table S1 and Fig. 1C). As expected, all of the insulin producing PanNETs expressed

136   PDX1, except the single malignant insulinoma, which showed nuclear positivity for ARX but not for

137   PDX1 (table S1 and Fig. 1C). None of the 39 tumours were double positive and only 4 PanNETs were

138   double negative (table S1 and Fig. 1C).

139   Immunohistochemistry confirmed the same group segregation as was determined by the methylation

140   analysis: 1) α-like tumours expressed ARX, a subset produced glucagon (2/3, 67%), 2), β-like tumours

141   expressed both PDX1 and insulin, with only 1 sample positive for ARX and PDX1 negative (Fig. 1C),

142   3) 24/29 (83%) intermediate PanNETs were positive for ARX and rarely produced glucagon (4/22,

143   18%). A minority of intermediate tumours (4/29, 14%) were negative for both PDX1 and ARX and only

144   one intermediate PanNET expressed PDX1 and insulin (Fig. 1C, table S1).

145   These results indicate that cell type assigned by DNA methylation, corresponded to the cell type

146   assigned by TF expression.

147

148   **PDX1 and ARX immunopositivity correlates with mutation spectrum of PanNETs in an**

149   **independent cohort**

150   To validate the correlation of putative cell of origin to mutational status, we performed

151   immunostaining for ARX, PDX1, insulin, glucagon and DAXX/ATRX on an independent cohort of 65

152   G1/G2 PanNETs (cohort details are summarised in table 3 and reported in table S3). We scored nuclear

153   positivity for ARX in 34 samples (52%), for PDX1 in 21 samples (32%), 3 tumours (5%) showed strong

154   double positivity and 13 (20%) were negative for both TFs (Fig2A and 2B). Notably, all the

155   DAXX/ATRX negative samples expressed ARX, confirming the α-like tumour susceptibility for these

156   mutations (Fig. 1A and 2C). While only a subset of ARX$^+$ tumours secreted glucagon (n=7, 20% of all

157   the ARX$^+$ tumours, Fig. 2C), almost all the PDX1$^+$ tumours produced insulin (n=18, 95% of all PDX1$^+$

158   tumours, Fig. 2C).

159   We observed that advanced stage PanNETs either expressed ARX or none of the TFs and often

160   showed DAXX/ATRX loss (Fig. 2C, S5A and table S3). Tumours positive for PDX1 had the lowest

161   risk of relapse (Fig. S5B and C). However, DAXX/ATRX status did not improve stratification of ARX$^+$

162   samples for risk of relapse (Fig. S5B).

163

164   **Epigenetic differentiation status determines clinical outcome of PanNETs**

165   In order to determine clinical utility, we reviewed clinical outcome and prognosis for α-like, β-like

166   and intermediate tumours. Fourteen of 19 α-like PanNETs were G1 and 14/18 (1 without data) were of

167   low stage (T1 or T2, Fig. 1A and table S1). Similarly, 8/14 β-like PanNETs were G1 and 9/11 (3 without

168   data) were T1 or T2 (Fig. 1A and table S1). Only one patient with an α-like tumour had relapse and

169   none of the patients with a β-like tumour (median follow-up time 37.2 months, table S1 and Fig. 3A).

170   Tumours that belonged to the intermediate phyloepigenies, were instead enriched for high stage (63/88

171   were T3 or T4, 4 without data) and higher grade (65/92 are G2) PanNETs had increased relapse risk

172   (37/70, 22 had not available data - Fig. 1A, 3A and table S1). Disease free survival in intermediate

173   tumours was significantly shorter than in α-like and β-like tumours (p<0.001, Fig. 3A). To assess if

174   epigenetic profile can stratify patients better than TF and DAXX/ATRX expression we performed

175   disease free survival analysis on all samples where DNA methylation and TF expression data were

176   available. We determined time to relapse, using either expression of ARX, PDX1 and DAXX/ATRX or

177   the epigenetic status as discriminant (Fig. 3B and C). Epigenetic profiles could predict more accurately

178   the risk of relapse as shown in figures 3B and C.

179   Further, to identify a tumour dependent signature, suitable for stratification in clinical practice, we

180   have compared the three cell-type specific clusters, α-like, β-like and intermediate. The comparison

181   revealed 6364 unique differentially methylated sites (tables S4-S6; adj. p-value<0.001 and |Δβ|>0.2).

182   Consensus clustering of the 6364 CpG sites showed the maximal stability for k=4 (Fig. S6A). The

183   existence of α-like and β-like clusters was confirmed (Fig. 3D and tableS1). The intermediate subgroup

184   was divided into 2 further groups, one enriched for *DAXX/ATRX/MEN1* mutations, intermediate-ADM,

185   (61/76 had mutations in at least 1 of the 3 genes; Fig. 3D and tableS1) and the other enriched for

186   *DAXX/ATRX/MEN1* wild type samples, intermediate-WT (15/16, only 1 *DAXX/ATRX* mutated;, Fig.

187   3D and tableS1). PanNETs included in the intermediate-ADM and intermediate-WT showed

188   comparable risk to relapse (Fig. S6B). To prove the stability of the signature, we repeated the analysis

189   including 32 new G1/G2 PanNETs, for which DNA methylation data were public available[7] (table S7).

190   After filtering and normalization processes, 6359/6364 of the previously identified differentially

191   methylated sites were used in the consensus clustering algorithm. The results confirmed the 4 PanNET

192   subgroups with risks to relapse similar to previous analysis (Fig. S6 C-E).

Discussion

This study identified at least two cells of origin for PanNETs (α-like / β-like) and demonstrated that DNA methylation analysis can discriminate α-like, β-like and intermediate (-ADM and -WT) PanNETs. Additionally, this study identified that relapses and metastases occurred most commonly in the intermediate (-ADM and -WT) PanNET groups.

Phyloepigenetic analysis of PanNETs, according to differentially methylated CpG sites between normal α- and β-cells, showed two clusters around normal α- and β- cells, which we named α-like and β-like. PanNET sample segregation was consistent in the *t*-SNE analysis. Using a similar approach, in a recent study, methylation-based subclasses of colorectal cancer were explained as clonal amplifications of one specific epigenotype, confirmed by enrichment of different mutations in the peculiar subtypes and by the investigation of methylation signatures in serial tumour xenografts and derived spheroids[18]. Similarly, in medulloblastoma subtypes with distinct developmental origin, DNA methylation signatures were able to stratify the tumours according to the specific subtype and partially resemble the cell of origin as well as acquired epigenetic changes during tumour progression[14,27,28]. Even if in the aforementioned studies tumours were not directly compared to the putative normal cells of origin, the epigenetic and mutational landscape of the malignancies reflected the tumour classes and cells of origin defined via *in vivo* studies. Altogether the data confirm the valuable use of DNA methylation profiles for the identification of tumour cells of origin.

Cell-type deconvolution analysis of methylome data from ductal, acinar, inflammatory and pancreatic stromal cells together with α- and β- cells found that α-like and β-like PanNETs are largely similar (at ~73%) to α- and β- cells, respectively. This figure is comparable to other studies: Houseman and Ince[29] demonstrated the application of their algorithm to estimate normal cell proportions in breast cancer heterogeneous tissues. Similarly, cell type deconvolution analysis based on DNA methylation for mantel cell lymphoma (MCL), showed a minimum of similarity between MCL and B cell samples of 40%[30]. When a similar algorithm (L1-regularized logistic regression) is used to classify cancers of unknown origin (CUPs) based on DNA methylation, a probability >30% was used to ascribe CUPs to a specific tumour type[31]. The deconvolution of the methylation estimates for PanNETs identified two important aspects of the tumour methylomes: that the results were not influenced by the composition of non-tumoral cells within the PanNET samples (Fig. S2B) and that the composition of early stage α-like and β-like PanNETs is abundant for either α- or β-cells (Fig. 1A).

Analysis of methylation status of specific TFs regulating α and β differentiation might help to better identify the intermediate groups of PanNET. While β-like samples separated very clearly according to β-cell TF methylation sites, α-cell similarity decreased gradually among the remaining samples. Seventy of seventy-six intermediate-ADM PanNETs clustered together with the α-like tumours (table S1). Twelve of sixteen intermediate-WT PanNETs did cluster neither with α-like nor with β-like tumours

228   (table S1). Additionally, intermediate-ADM PanNETs were on average more similar to α- (53±17%)

229   than β-cells (12±13%). Ninety-two percent of the intermediate-ADM tumours were positive for ARX

230   (23/25) and none for PDX1. This might indicate that intermediate-ADM PanNETs are more related to

231   α-cells rather than β-cells. The PanNET methylation sub-groups that we have identified reflect the

232   groups A (tumours that most likely originate form α-cells), B (tumours that most likely originate form

233   β-cells) and C (tumours with intermediate phenotype) recently described by Cejas *et al.*, via the analysis

234   of super-enhancer signatures[8]. Comparable to our study, the analysis of TF expression via IHC

235   performed by Cejas *et al.* revealed mutually exclusive expression of either ARX or PDX1 in the majority

236   of the cases. Additionally, while PDX1 expression appears to be specific for benign and low stage

237   tumours, ARX expression is retained at early and at advanced stages and only DAXX/ATRX status

238   provide more information about stage and risk of disease progression[8].

239   We identified a clear correlation between driver mutation status and epigenetic profiles across all

240   PanNETs. Alpha-like PanNETs and intermediate-ADM PanNETs harboured *MEN1* mutations, this is

241   supported by the results of Chan *et al.* and Cejas *et al.*[7,8]. Fifty-eight percent of the clinically indolent

242   α-like PanNETs were characterized by *MEN1* mutations only. *MEN1* inactivation, is an early event in

243   PanNET progression[32,33], which enhances endocrine cell proliferation[34], hence it might be a tumour

244   initiating event for the α-like PanNETs and for the intermediate-ADM. In turn Intermediate-ADM

245   PanNETs might progress upon acquisition of DAXX/ATRX inactivation. In addition, CNA increased

246   from α-like and β-like PanNETs to intermediate-ADM tumours. All these data together suggest a

247   potential progression from α-like to intermediate-ADM PanNET. We cannot exclude, however, that the

248   two intermediate PanNET clusters might originate from putative endocrine precursor cells.

249   During islet cell development, ARX is already expressed in endocrine precursors[11], furthermore

250   different endocrine cell types, as α- and γ-cells share ARX expression[23,24]. Conversely PDX1 expression

251   is restricted to differentiated β-cells, within the endocrine lineages[12]. Of the intermediate-WT tumours

252   for which IHC data were available (n=4), one was positive for PDX1, one for ARX and 2 were negative

253   for both TFs. Additionally, similarly to the β-like tumours, intermediate-WT PanNETs showed only few

254   copy number events (group 1, table S1). Currently our data only weakly support progression from β-

255   like to intermediate-WT PanNETs, nevertheless this possibility cannot be excluded.

256   While the vast majority of β-like PanNETs expressed PDX1 and insulin, the two malignant (N1

257   and/or M1) insulinomas of our cohort, showed one intermediate-ADM (*DAXX/ATRX* mutated) and one

258   α-like (*DAXX/ATRX* wild type) methylation signatures (table S1). Only for the intermediate-ADM

259   insulinoma, data on PDX1 and ARX were available; it resulted positive for ARX, and negative for PDX1

260   expression. Accordingly, the only malignant insulinoma of the Chan *et al.* cohort was mutated for *ATRX*

261   and clustered with the intermediate-ADM tumours. In line with this observation, a recent study including

262   37 sporadic insulinomas (35 primary and 2 liver metastases) showed that all the five insulinomas which

263   metastasized were ARX positive and 4/5 had ALT activation (3 primary and 2 liver metastases)[33]. These

264   data suggest that malignant insulinomas may arise from α-cells or stem-cells rather than β-cells. Under

265   certain conditions and stimuli α-cells are able to trans-differentiate into β-cells[35–39]. Additionally, α-cell

266   specific *Men1* knockout in mice leads to the development of glucagonomas which evolve into mixed

267   glucagonoma/insulinoma to ultimately become insulinomas, possibly via trans-differentiation of the

268   *Men1*-deleted α-cells[40,41]. Beta-like and/or PDX1 positive tumours are strongly enriched for benign

269   insulinomas in both the first and second cohort. They generally show no mutations in any of the most

270   commonly mutated genes for PanNETs (*DAXX*, *ATRX* and *MEN1*). These data confirmed the genetic

271   difference between non-functioning tumours and insulinomas[5,42–44]. Of the thirteen wild type PanNETs

272   obtained from Chan *et al.*[7], five were included in the β-like cluster (2 insulinomas and 3 NF-PanNETs),

273   6 in the intermediate-WT cluster and only 2 in the intermediate-ADM cluster. All the ADM-mutant

274   PanNETs were included in the intermediate-ADM cluster (table S7). These data and the few β-like NF-

275   PanNETs included in the cohort 1, demonstrate that occasionally also NF-PanNETs might originate

276   from β-cells.

277   Our methylation data supports the possibility of two evolutionary pathways for PanNET

278   development, originating from α- and β-cells (Fig. 3D). Beta-like PanNETs usually manifest as

279   insulinomas. The α-like PanNETs are susceptible to *MEN1* mutations in early tumorigenesis. Tumour

280   progression occurs upon *DAXX/ATRX* mutations, coupled with ALT activation and a characteristic CNA

281   profile[4,45–47]. Progressive loss of differentiation might further predispose the tumours to enhanced

282   proliferation and higher cell plasticity (Fig. 3D). Alternatively or additionally to this dedifferentiation

283   model, potential endocrine progenitor cells might be the cell of origin of intermediate tumours (Fig. 3D).

284   We acknowledge that our study is based on static observations taken at one timepoint in each

285   tumour's development. Sequential sampling or *in vivo* experiments would be able to determine real time

286   tumour evolution and would be able to address the unanswered questions we propose here.

287   Clinically α-like, β-like and intermediate tumours have different outcomes. While α-like and β-like

288   tumours are indolent, intermediate tumours (-ADM and -WT) have high risk of relapse. Interestingly,

289   DAXX/ATRX status alone is not sufficient to discriminate between ARX$^+$ with high and low risk of

290   relapse. Indeed, in the intermediate-WT group we observed the presence of ARX$^+$ tumours, with high

291   risk of relapse. Only the DNA methylation profile is able to separate ARX$^+$ PanNET with low risk from

292   high risk of relapse. The intermediate groups of PanNET are characterized by high risk of relapse but

293   are molecularly different (ADM and WT) (Fig. 3D and S6D). Further work is needed to assess whether

294   intermediate-ADM and intermediate-WT aggressive PanNETs have different origins or respond

295   differently to therapies.

296   DNA methylation analysis clearly bears advantages over ChIPseq assays, it is easily performed on

297   diagnostic routine FFPE specimens. We foresee a potential clinical use of epigenetic profiling for

298   PanNETs similar to CNS tumor classification, able to define clinically relevant groups[28,48,49]. In addition,

299   DNA methylation remains stable in circulating tumor cells (CTCs) and cell-free DNA (cfDNA)

300   (reviewed in [50]), hence might be applied to monitor progression in individual patients in a non-invasive

301   liquid biopsy.

302   In conclusion DNA methylation analysis could be easily implemented in clinical practice to identify

303   patients with high relapse risk and those which might benefit from adjuvant therapy.

304 **Methods**

305 **Patient cohorts**

306 A cohort of primary PanNETs was assembled from two international centres; 19 samples previously
307 analyzed[51] from UCL Cancer Institute (London, UK) and 26 from Institute of Pathology (Bern,
308 Switzerland). All cases were classified according to WHO 2017 criteria[52]. TNM staging is based on the
309 8th edition UICC/AJCC. Inclusion criteria were histopathologic diagnosis of well-differentiated G1/G2
310 PanNETs, availability of tissue material and sufficient tumour purity (>70%). Seventeen of 45 tumour
311 samples (38%) were classified as G1, 28/45 (62%) as G2 (table 1). Two samples derived from MEN1-
312 patients. Median follow-up time is 51.5 months. All analyses were performed on Formalin-Fixed
313 Paraffin-Embedded (FFPE) tissue specimens obtained from routine pathological work-up. Additional
314 clinico-pathological characteristics are reported in table S1. The study on this cohort was approved by
315 the local ethics committees (Bern: number 105/2015; London: number 09/H0722/27).

316 Clinical and molecular data of 80 PanNETs were provided by the International Cancer Genome
317 Consortium (ICGC, https://icgc.org/, projects: PAEN-AU and PAEN-IT). Cohort features are
318 summarised in table 1 and table S1. Genomic and molecular analysis of the samples were performed
319 within Scarpa *et al.* study[45].

320 As immunohistochemical validation cohort, 65 PanNET samples were assembled at the Institute of
321 Pathology (Bern, Switzerland). All cases were reclassified according to WHO 2017 criteria[52]. TNM
322 staging is based on the 8th edition UICC/AJCC[53]. As for the previous cohorts, only well-differentiated
323 G1/G2 PanNETs were included. Cohort features are summarised in table 3 and extensively reported in
324 table S3.

325 A flow chart of the analysis performed on the 2 cohorts is provided in figure S1.

326

327 **Immunohistochemistry (IHC) and Telomeric-Fluorescence In Situ Hybridization (Telo-FISH)**

328 All samples were assessed for DAXX and ATRX expression via IHC and ALT activation via Telo-FISH
329 on 2.5 μm sections prepared from a tissue microarray (TMA - Bern cohort and validation cohort) or
330 whole block sections (London cohort) as previously described[4].

331 Similarly, 2.5 μm sections from TMAs or whole blocks were used for ARX (1:1500, R&D Systems,
332 sheep, AF7068), PDX1 (1:100, R&D Systems, mouse, MAB2419), insulin (1:12000, Sigma Aldrich,
333 mouse, I-2018) and glucagon (1:20000, Sigma Aldrich, mouse, G-2654) immunostainings. The
334 immunostaining for all antigens was performed on an automated staining system (Leica Bond RX; Leica
335 Biosystems, Nunningen, Switzerland). Antigen retrieval was performed by heating Tris30 buffer at 95°
336 for 30 minutes. The primary antibody was incubated for 30 minutes at the specified dilutions.

337   Visualization was performed using Bond Polymer Refine Detection kit, using DAB as chromogen (3,3'-
338   Diaminobenzidine).

339   Samples showing single cell positivity of any of the TFs were finally scored as negative, most of the
340   cases were indeed strong positive for one of the two TFs with only few exceptions (single cell positivity
341   is reported for each sample in tables S1 and S3). Only strong positivity for insulin and glucagon was
342   considered for classification of the tumours as hormone producing PanNETs. Nuclear positivity for
343   ARX and PDX1 was first assessed on normal islets, proving the selectivity for endocrine α- and β-cells
344   (Fig. S4).

345

346   **DNA methylation analysis**

347   We extracted DNA from FFPE tissues according to manufacturer recommendations (QIAamp DNA
348   minikit, Qiagen). Serial sections were cut and macrodissected using a razor blade upon histological
349   evaluation (5 x 6µm), to make sure to achieve >70% tumour purity. We assessed DNA quality using the
350   Illumina FFPE QC Kit. Ligation of FFPE DNA and bisulphite conversion were performed as
351   described[54]. Efficiency of bisulphite conversion was confirmed by quantitative PCR as previously
352   shown[54]. Converted DNA was processed on the HumMeth450 BeadChip (Illumina HM450). We
353   analysed all the DNA methylation data included in this study using the ChAMP pipeline (v2.12.4, minfi
354   method was used for raw data loading)[55–57]. Filtering was performed as implemented in the ChAMP
355   pipeline[58]. Batch correction was performed using the ComBat algorithm as part of the ChAMP
356   pipeline[59,60].

357   We identified differentially methylated sites between normal α− and β−cells according to the ChAMP
358   pipeline[61,62]. To build phyloepigenetic trees, distances between samples were calculated according to
359   pearson correlation and the neighbour-joining tree estimation was used within the ape (v5.3) R
360   package[63]. The tSNE approach was performed as implemented in the R package tsne using the following
361   parameters: perplexity=50, max_iter=5,000.

362   We used the RnBeads pipeline[64] for calculating cell type contribution according to the Houseman *et al.*
363   method[65]. Sorted normal hematopoietic cell type data (granulocytes, CD4+ and CD8+ T cells, CD14+
364   monocytes, CD19+ B cells, CD56+ natural killer cells, neutrophils and eosinophils) were downloaded
365   from Reinius *et al.*[22] (Gene Expression Omnibus, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/, accession number:
366   GSE35069). Sorted acinar, duct, alpha and beta pancreatic cell DNA methylation profiles were
367   downloaded from Jäkel *et al.*[20] (European Genome-Phenome Archive, https://ega-archive.org/,
368   accession number: EGAS00001002533). DNA methylation data for sorted normal pancreatic fibroblast
369   cells were downloaded from Xiao *et al.*[21] (Gene Expression Omnibus,
370   http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/, accession number: GSE80369). Marker selection was performed by

371 screening 10 000 CpG positions and the final number of selected cell type markers was set to 500 (as

372 for default).

373 Consensus clustering was performed following the ConsensusClusterPlus pipeline[66], samples were

374 clustered according to the hierarchical clustering algorithm, ward.D2 method was used for inner linkage

375 and average method was used for the final linkage.

376 Based on genomic position, the 450K probes were annotated with the chromatin state, as assigned to

377 normal pancreatic islets (obtained from the integration of ATAC-Seq, DNAme and ChIP-seq data)[26].

378 Probes associated with the cell specific transcription factors (TFs) and associated to the epigenetic states

379 "closed weak enhancer", "lowly-methylated weak enhancer", "open weak enhancer", "closed strong

380 enhancer", "open strong enhancer", "genic enhancer", "insulator" and "polycomb repressed states" were

381 included for looking at the specific TF methylation. Enhancer regions were associated to the nearest

382 gene in the genome using the GenomicRanges R package[67].

383

384 **Next Generation Sequencing**

385 We sequenced *MEN1, DAXX* and *ATRX* genes by semi-conductive sequencing using two Ion Torrent

386 AmpliSeq NGS custom made panels (Life Technologies), one for *ATRX* and one for *MEN1* and *DAXX,*

387 covering whole protein coding exons. Protein-coding exons were amplified by multiplex polymerase

388 chain reaction using 2 pools designed by the Ion AmpliSeq Designer and the Ion AmpliSeq Library kit

389 2.0 according to the manufacturer's recommendations (Life Technologies). Template preparation was

390 performed using the Ion Chef System. Sequencing was performed using the Ion S5. The Torrent Suite

391 5.10 platform was used for sequence alignment with the hg19 human genome reference. Variant calling

392 was performed with the variant caller and the IonReporter 5.10 software (Life Technologies). The

393 coverage depth was sufficient (quality criteria for a sample to be analysed was minimum 500 reads).

394 The 80 ICGC samples were sequenced by whole-genome sequencing (WGS) within the Scarpa *et al.*

395 study[45].

396

397 **Copy-number aberration analysis**

398 Genome-wide CNAs were inferred from HM450 signal intensities using the Conumee R package[68].

399 Chromosome bins and segments were measured (bin size: 50,000 to 5,000,000 bp; minimum number of

400 probes per bin: 15). CNA profile zero-threshold was manually adjusted according to FISH results for

401 the UB-UCL cohort (FISH for chr4 and chr17 was performed for detecting gains, FISH for MEN1 and

402 chr11 was used for detecting losses; see supplementary materials and Fig. S3A-D). Zero-threshold of

403 the CNA profiles obtained from the ICGC cohort was manually adjusted according to the results

404 obtained from Scarpa *et al.*[45]. Copy number (CN) of each chromosomal arm for each tumour was

405   obtained calculating the median of the relative copy number bins. Arm level copy number data were

406   clustered using Ward's method, Euclidian distance.

407

Statistical analysis and graphic representation

409   Statistical analysis and graphical representations were performed within the R environment (v. 3.5.0)[69].

410   Specific packages used in the study and parameters selected are mentioned in the relative method

411   chapters. For disease free survival analysis, the "survival" and "survminer" packages were used[70,71].

412

Data availability

414   The authors declare that all data supporting the findings of this study are available within the article

415   and its Supplementary data and figures. The datasets generated during the current study (UB-UCL

416   cohort) are available in the ArrayExpress repository (EMBL-EBI, https://www.ebi.ac.uk/arrayexpress/,

417   accession number: E-MTAB-7924). The datasets analysed during the current study (ICGC cohort) are

418   available in the ICGC repository (ICGC, https://icgc.org/, projects: PAEN-AU and PAEN-IT). The

419   datasets of sorted normal hematopoietic cells are available in the GEO repository (Gene Expression

420   Omnibus, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/, accession number: GSE35069). The datasets of sorted

421   acinar, duct, alpha and beta pancreatic cells are available in the EGA repository (European Genome-

422   Phenome Archive, https://ega-archive.org/, accession number: EGAS00001002533). The datasets of

423   sorted normal pancreatic fibroblastic cells are available in the GEO repository (Gene Expression

424   Omnibus, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/, accession number: GSE80369). Chan *et al.*[7] dataset is

425   available in the GEO repository (Gene Expression Omnibus, http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/,

426   accession number: GSE117852).

427   **Table 1: Patient cohort used for methylome analysis**

	UniBern cohort	**UCL cohort**	**ICGC cohort**	**Total**
Total number of patients	26	19	80	125
Sex				
Females	10	12	31	53
Males	16	7	49	72
Grade (WHO 2010)				
G1	7	10	32	49
G2	19	9	48	76
Tumour Stage (AJCC 8th ed.)				
T1	3	3	10	16
T2	8	6	18	32
T3	15	2	26	43
T4	0	0	26	26
No data	0	8	0	8
N stage				
N0	10	5	42	57
N1	13	3	36	52
No data	3	11	2	16
M stage				
M0	12	1	67	80
M1	10	1	13	24
No data	4	17	0	21
DAXX/ATRX				
Wild Type	8	11	53	72
Mutated	18	7	27	52
Not applicable	0	1	0	1
ALT				
Negative	8	11	42	61
Positive	16	3	29	48
Not Applicable	2	5	9	16
MEN1 (somatic mutations)				
Wild Type	12	13	49	74
Mutated	14	6	31	51
Hormone functionality				
F-PanNETs	8	2	12	22
NF-PanNETs	18	0	68	86
Not Applicable	0	17	0	17
Syndromic –MEN1	0	2	3	5

428

429   **Table 2: Specific cell-type transcription factors**

Alpha TFs	Beta TFs
ARX	MA
FEV	PDX1
HMGB3	SMAD9
IRX2	CDKN1C
LDB2	TFCP2L1
MAFB	SIX3
PGR	SIX2
PTGER3	MNX1
RFX6	BMP5
SMARCA1	PIR

432 **Table 3: Validation cohort**

	Patient cohort
Total number of patients	65
Sex	
Females	28
Males	31
No data	6
Grade (WHO 2017)	
G1	34
G2	25
No data	6
Tumour Stage (AJCC 8th ed.)	
T1	29
T2	11
T3	15
T4	1
No data	9
N stage	
N0	30
N1	15
No data	20
M stage	
M0	40
M1	11
No data	14
DAXX/ATRX	
Positive	51
Negative	12
Not applicable	2
Hormone functionality	
F-PanNETs	20
NF-PanNETs	44
Syndromic –MEN1	1
ARX	
Positive	34
Negative	31
PDX1	
Positive	21
Negative	44

433

434
435

436   **Figure legends**

437

438   **Figure 1. PanNET methylomes resemble distinct endocrine cell lineages. A.** Phyloepigenetic

439   analysis of PanNET and normal α- and β-cell samples. A rooted tree was created with an arbitrary chosen

440   β-sample as the root and selecting the differentially methylated CpGs between sorted normal α- and β-

441   cell samples (n=2131, adj. p-value<0.001 and |Δβ|>0.2). Blue and orange scales show the degree of

442   similarity of each PanNET sample to α- and β-cells, respectively. The degree of similarity was

443   calculated via DNA methylation cell-type deconvolution comparing tumour methylomes to sorted

444   normal α- and β-cell methylomes. Each line represents a patient. Clinical and molecular features for

445   each sample are indicated. **B.** Consensus clustering of the 125 PanNETs according to the α- and β-cell

446   specific TF methylation sites (49 CpGs for β-cells and 51 CpGs for α-cells). The k mean value was set

447   to 2. Consensus cluster correlation is indicated according to the blue scale as depicted. Fractions of

448   similarity to α- and β-cells for each sample are reported at the bottom of each matrix as well as the cell-

449   type specific tumour groups. **C.** Schematic overview of the PanNET subtypes. Doughnut chart for all

450   samples showing cell specific PanNET subtypes, ARX and PDX1 expression, hormone production,

451   *MEN1* mutations and DAXX/ATRX loss.

452

453   **Figure 2. Expression of ARX, PDX1, insulin and glucagon can be used as surrogate for defining**

454   **tumour cell-type specificity. A.** Immunostaining for the different subtypes of PanNETs. From the top

455   to the bottom: tumour positive for ARX and glucagon; tumour positive for ARX; double positive tumour

456   for PDX1 and ARX; double negative tumour for ARX and PDX1; β-like tumour positive for PDX1 and

457   insulin. For the TFs only nuclear staining was considered for scoring. **B.** Venn diagram displaying the

458   total number of samples positive for ARX and/or PDX1or negative for both the transcription factors. **C.**

459   Schematic overview of the PanNET subtypes in cohort 2. Doughnut chart for all samples showing

460   glucagon, insulin, PDX1 and ARX positivity as well as loss of DAXX/ATRX.

461

462   **Figure 3. Epigenetic differentiation status defines clinically different PanNETs and draws two**

463   **possible ways of PanNET evolution. A.** Kaplan-Meier disease free survival of 98 patients (cohort 1)

464   stratified according to cell type specific methylation groups. Intermediate tumours have higher risk of

465   relapse compare to α- and β-like tumours (p-value = 0.00013). In **B** and **C** disease free survival of a

466   subset of patients of cohort 1 (n=35) with available data for both DNA methylation profile and PDX1,

467   ARX and DAXX/ATRX IHC. In **B** patient stratification according to cell type specific methylation

468   groups and in **C** according to PDX1, ARX and DAXX/ATRX IHC **D.** Consensus clustering of the 125

469   PanNETs according to the 6364 differentially methylated sites between α-like, β-like and intermediate

470   tumours (adj. p-value<0.001 and |Δβ|>0.2). Cluster stability was reached for *k*=4 (see Fig. S6 A).

471   Consensus cluster correlation is indicated according to the blue scale as depicted. Each column

472   represents one PanNET sample. Tumour mutations and cell type subgroups are indicated according to

473   the reported colours. **E.** Progression model hypothesis based on epigenetic and genetic evolution: α-like

474   tumours originate from α-cells upon *MEN1* inactivation, the progression is enhanced by secondary

475   events, including loss of DAXX/ATRX and chromosomal instability with recurrent LOH and activation

476   of ALT. These events are associated to a gradual loss of differentiation. On the other hand, intermediate

477   tumours may originate directly from a common unknown progenitor cell. Beta-like tumours originate

478   from β-cells upon different genetic event and they are mainly insulinoma, usually indolent.

References

1. Boninsegna, L. *et al.* Malignant pancreatic neuroendocrine tumour: Lymph node ratio and Ki67 are predictors of recurrence after curative resections. *European Journal of Cancer* **48**, 1608–1615 (2012).

2. Falconi, M. *et al.* ENETS Consensus Guidelines Update for the Management of Patients with Functional Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors and Non-Functional Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors. *Neuroendocrinology* **103**, 153–171 (2016).

3. Di Domenico, A., Wiedmer, T., Marinoni, I. & Perren, A. Genetic and epigenetic drivers of neuroendocrine tumours (NET). *Endocr. Relat. Cancer* **24**, R315–R334 (2017).

4. Marinoni, I. *et al.* Loss of DAXX and ATRX are associated with chromosome instability and reduced survival of patients with pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors. *Gastroenterology* **146**, 453-460.e5 (2014).

5. Sadanandam, A. *et al.* A Cross-Species Analysis in Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors Reveals Molecular Subtypes with Distinctive Clinical, Metastatic, Developmental, and Metabolic Characteristics. *Cancer Discov* **5**, 1296–1313 (2015).

6. Alvarez, M. J. *et al.* A precision oncology approach to the pharmacological targeting of mechanistic dependencies in neuroendocrine tumors. *Nat Genet* **50**, 979–989 (2018).

7. Chan, C. S. *et al.* ATRX, DAXX or MEN1 mutant pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors are a distinct alpha-cell signature subgroup. *Nat Commun* **9**, 4158 (2018).

8. Cejas, P. *et al.* Enhancer signatures stratify and predict outcomes of non-functional pancreatic neuroendocrine tumors. *Nat. Med.* **25**, 1260–1265 (2019).

9. Hnisz, D. *et al.* Super-enhancers in the control of cell identity and disease. *Cell* **155**, 934–947 (2013).

10. Jennings, R. E. *et al.* Development of the human pancreas from foregut to endocrine commitment. *Diabetes* **62**, 3514–3522 (2013).

11. Napolitano, T. *et al.* Pax4 acts as a key player in pancreas development and plasticity. *Seminars in Cell & Developmental Biology* **44**, 107–114 (2015).

506   12. Guz, Y. *et al.* Expression of murine STF-1, a putative insulin gene transcription factor, in beta cells

507   of pancreas, duodenal epithelium and pancreatic exocrine and endocrine progenitors during

508   ontogeny. *Development* **121**, 11–18 (1995).

509   13. Kundaje, A. *et al.* Integrative analysis of 111 reference human epigenomes. *Nature* **518**, 317–330

510   (2015).

511   14. Gibson, P. *et al.* Subtypes of medulloblastoma have distinct developmental origins. *Nature* **468**,

512   1095–1099 (2010).

513   15. Northcott, P. A. *et al.* The whole-genome landscape of medulloblastoma subtypes. *Nature* **547**,

514   311–317 (2017).

515   16. Azzarelli, R., Simons, B. D. & Philpott, A. The developmental origin of brain tumours: a cellular

516   and molecular framework. *Development* **145**, (2018).

517   17. Visvader, J. E. Cells of origin in cancer. *Nature* **469**, 314–322 (2011).

518   18. Bormann, F. *et al.* Cell-of-Origin DNA Methylation Signatures Are Maintained during Colorectal

519   Carcinogenesis. *Cell Reports* **23**, 3407–3418 (2018).

520   19. Gaiti, F. *et al.* Epigenetic evolution and lineage histories of chronic lymphocytic leukaemia.

521   *Nature* **569**, 576–580 (2019).

522   20. Jäkel, C. *et al.* Genome-wide genetic and epigenetic analyses of pancreatic acinar cell carcinomas

523   reveal aberrations in genome stability. *Nat Commun* **8**, 1–10 (2017).

524   21. Xiao, Q. *et al.* Cancer-Associated Fibroblasts in Pancreatic Cancer Are Reprogrammed by Tumor-

525   Induced Alterations in Genomic DNA Methylation. *Cancer Res.* **76**, 5395–5404 (2016).

526   22. Reinius, L. E. *et al.* Differential DNA Methylation in Purified Human Blood Cells: Implications for

527   Cell Lineage and Studies on Disease Susceptibility. *PLOS ONE* **7**, e41361 (2012).

528   23. Muraro, M. J. *et al.* A Single-Cell Transcriptome Atlas of the Human Pancreas. *Cell Systems* **3**,

529   385-394.e3 (2016).

530   24. Segerstolpe, Å. *et al.* Single-Cell Transcriptome Profiling of Human Pancreatic Islets in Health and

531   Type 2 Diabetes. *Cell Metabolism* **24**, 593–607 (2016).

532   25. Ramond, C. *et al.* Reconstructing human pancreatic differentiation by mapping specific cell

533   populations during development. *eLife* **6**, e27564 (2017).

534   26. Thurner, M. *et al.* Integration of human pancreatic islet genomic data refines regulatory

535   mechanisms at Type 2 Diabetes susceptibility loci. *eLife* **7**, e31977 (2018).

536   27. Hovestadt, V. *et al.* Decoding the regulatory landscape of medulloblastoma using DNA

537   methylation sequencing. *Nature* **510**, 537–541 (2014).

538   28. Capper, D. *et al.* DNA methylation-based classification of central nervous system tumours.

539   *Nature* **555**, 469–474 (2018).

540   29. Houseman, E. A. & Ince, T. A. Normal Cell-Type Epigenetics and Breast Cancer Classification: A

541   Case Study of Cell Mixture–Adjusted Analysis of DNA Methylation Data from Tumors. *Cancer*

542   *Inform* **13**, 53–64 (2014).

543   30. Queirós, A. C. *et al.* Decoding the DNA Methylome of Mantle Cell Lymphoma in the Light of the

544   Entire B Cell Lineage. *Cancer Cell* **30**, 806–821 (2016).

545   31. Fernandez, A. F. *et al.* A DNA methylation fingerprint of 1628 human samples. *Genome Res.* **22**,

546   407–419 (2012).

547   32. Perren, A. *et al.* Multiple Endocrine Neoplasia Type 1 (MEN1): Loss of One MEN1 Allele in Tumors

548   and Monohormonal Endocrine Cell Clusters But Not in Islet Hyperplasia of the Pancreas. *J Clin*

549   *Endocrinol Metab* **92**, 1118–1128 (2007).

550   33. Hackeng, W. M. *et al.* Aberrant Menin expression is an early event in pancreatic neuroendocrine

551   tumorigenesis. *Hum. Pathol.* **56**, 93–100 (2016).

552   34. Karnik, S. K. *et al.* Menin regulates pancreatic islet growth by promoting histone methylation and

553   expression of genes encoding p27Kip1 and p18INK4c. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A.* **102**, 14659–

554   14664 (2005).

555   35. Thorel, F. *et al.* Conversion of adult pancreatic alpha-cells to beta-cells after extreme beta-cell

556   loss. *Nature* **464**, 1149–1154 (2010).

557   36. Bramswig, N. C. *et al.* Epigenomic plasticity enables human pancreatic α to β cell reprogramming.

558   *J Clin Invest* **123**, 1275–1284 (2013).

559   37. Chakravarthy, H. *et al.* Converting adult pancreatic islet α-cells into β-cells by targeting both

560   Dnmt1 and Arx. *Cell Metab* **25**, 622–634 (2017).

561   38. Xiao, X. *et al.* Endogenous Reprogramming of Alpha Cells into Beta Cells Induced by Viral Gene

562   Therapy Reverses Autoimmune Diabetes. *Cell Stem Cell* **22**, 78-90.e4 (2018).

563   39. Zhang, Z. *et al.* A New Way for Beta Cell Neogenesis: Transdifferentiation from Alpha Cells

564   Induced by Glucagon-Like Peptide 1. *Journal of Diabetes Research*

565   https://www.hindawi.com/journals/jdr/2019/2583047/ (2019)

566   doi:https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/2583047.

567   40. Lu, J. *et al.* Alpha cell-specific Men1 ablation triggers the transdifferentiation of glucagon-

568   expressing cells and insulinoma development. *Gastroenterology* **138**, 1954–1965 (2010).

569   41. Shen, H.-C. J. *et al.* Multiple endocrine neoplasia type 1 deletion in pancreatic alpha-cells leads to

570   development of insulinomas in mice. *Endocrinology* **151**, 4024–4030 (2010).

571   42. Cao, Y. *et al.* Whole exome sequencing of insulinoma reveals recurrent T372R mutations in YY1.

572   *Nature Communications* **4**, 1–6 (2013).

573   43. Lichtenauer, U. D. *et al.* Frequency and clinical correlates of somatic Ying Yang 1 mutations in

574   sporadic insulinomas. *J. Clin. Endocrinol. Metab.* **100**, E776-782 (2015).

575   44. Hong, X. *et al.* Whole-genome sequencing reveals distinct genetic bases for insulinomas and non-

576   functional pancreatic neuroendocrine tumours: leading to a new classification system. *Gut*

577   (2019) doi:10.1136/gutjnl-2018-317233.

578   45. Scarpa, A. *et al.* Whole-genome landscape of pancreatic neuroendocrine tumours. *Nature* **543**,

579   65–71 (2017).

580   46. Lawrence, B. *et al.* Recurrent loss of heterozygosity correlates with clinical outcome in pancreatic

581   neuroendocrine cancer. *NPJ Genom Med* **3**, 18 (2018).

582   47. Pea, A. *et al.* Genetic Analysis of Small Well-differentiated Pancreatic Neuroendocrine Tumors

583   Identifies Subgroups With Differing Risks of Liver Metastases. *Ann. Surg.* (2018)

584   doi:10.1097/SLA.0000000000003022.

585   48. Sturm, D. *et al.* Hotspot Mutations in H3F3A and IDH1 Define Distinct Epigenetic and Biological

586   Subgroups of Glioblastoma. *Cancer Cell* **22**, 425–437 (2012).

587   49. Ceccarelli, M. *et al.* Molecular Profiling Reveals Biologically Discrete Subsets and Pathways of

588   Progression in Diffuse Glioma. *Cell* **164**, 550–563 (2016).

589   50. Pixberg, C. F., Schulz, W. A., Stoecklein, N. H. & Neves, R. P. L. Characterization of DNA

590   Methylation in Circulating Tumor Cells. *Genes (Basel)* **6**, 1053–1075 (2015).

591   51. Pipinikas, C. P. *et al.* Epigenetic dysregulation and poorer prognosis in DAXX-deficient pancreatic

592   neuroendocrine tumours. *Endocr. Relat. Cancer* **22**, L13-18 (2015).

593   52. RV, L., RY, O., G, K. & J, R. *WHO Classification of Tumours of Endocrine Organs*.

594   53. *AJCC Cancer Staging Manual*. (Springer International Publishing, 2017).

595   54. Thirlwell, C. *et al.* Genome-wide DNA methylation analysis of archival formalin-fixed paraffin-

596   embedded tissue using the Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation27 BeadChip. *Methods* **52**, 248–

597   254 (2010).

598   55. Morris, T. J. *et al.* ChAMP: 450k Chip Analysis Methylation Pipeline. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 428–430

599   (2014).

600   56. Aryee, M. J. *et al.* Minfi: a flexible and comprehensive Bioconductor package for the analysis of

601   Infinium DNA methylation microarrays. *Bioinformatics* **30**, 1363–1369 (2014).

602   57. Maksimovic, J., Gordon, L. & Oshlack, A. SWAN: Subset-quantile Within Array Normalization for

603   Illumina Infinium HumanMethylation450 BeadChips. *Genome Biology* **13**, R44 (2012).

604   58. Zhou, W., Laird, P. W. & Shen, H. Comprehensive characterization, annotation and innovative use

605   of Infinium DNA methylation BeadChip probes. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **45**, e22 (2017).

606   59. Johnson, W. E., Li, C. & Rabinovic, A. Adjusting batch effects in microarray expression data using

607   empirical Bayes methods. *Biostatistics* **8**, 118–127 (2007).

608   60. Leek, J. T., Johnson, W. E., Parker, H. S., Jaffe, A. E. & Storey, J. D. The sva package for removing

609   batch effects and other unwanted variation in high-throughput experiments. *Bioinformatics* **28**,

610   882–883 (2012).

611   61. Smyth, G. K. Linear models and empirical bayes methods for assessing differential expression in

612   microarray experiments. *Stat Appl Genet Mol Biol* **3**, Article3 (2004).

613   62. Peters, T. J. *et al.* De novo identification of differentially methylated regions in the human

614   genome. *Epigenetics Chromatin* **8**, 6 (2015).

615   63. Paradis, E. & Schliep, K. ape 5.0: an environment for modern phylogenetics and evolutionary

616   analyses in R. *Bioinformatics* **35**, 526–528 (2019).

617   64. Assenov, Y. *et al.* Comprehensive analysis of DNA methylation data with RnBeads. *Nat. Methods*

618   **11**, 1138–1140 (2014).

619   65. Houseman, E. A. *et al.* DNA methylation arrays as surrogate measures of cell mixture

620   distribution. *BMC Bioinformatics* **13**, 86 (2012).

621   66. Wilkerson, M. D. & Hayes, D. N. ConsensusClusterPlus: a class discovery tool with confidence

622   assessments and item tracking. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 1572–1573 (2010).

623   67. Lawrence, M. *et al.* Software for Computing and Annotating Genomic Ranges. *PLOS*

624   *Computational Biology* **9**, e1003118 (2013).

625   68. Hovestadt, V. & Zapatka, M. conumee: Enhanced copy-number variation analysis using Illumina

626   DNA methylation arrays. (2017) doi:10.18129/B9.bioc.conumee.

627   69. Team RC. R: The R Project for Statistical Computing. https://www.r-project.org/.

628   70. Kassambara, A., Kosinski, M., Biecek, P. & Fabian, S. *survminer: Drawing Survival Curves using*

629   *'ggplot2'*. (2019).

630   71. Therneau, T. M., until 2009), T. L. (original S.->R port and R. maintainer, Elizabeth, A. & Cynthia,

631   C. *survival: Survival Analysis*. (2020).

632

633

639   **Author Contributions**

640   A.D.D. was involved in the study design, was responsible for generation, assembly and analysis of the
641   data and writing of the manuscript. C.P.P. contributed data acquisition and supported in DNA
642   methylation analysis. M.R.S. gave technical support. K.B., M.D. and A.P. revised pathological data.
643   C.S. provided bioinformatic support. E.V. performed NGS analysis. C.T. contributed acquisition of
644   clinical and pathological data, provided PanNET methylation data from UCL cases and supported in
645   DNA methylation analysis. C.P.P., K.B., C.S., M.D. and C.T. contributed critical revision of the
646   manuscript for important intellectual content. A.P. and I.M. contributed concept and design of the study,
647   generation, assembly and analysis of the data, writing of the manuscript. C.P.P., C.T, A.P. and I.M.
648   obtained funding.

649

650   All the authors have read and approved the final manuscript.

651   The authors declare no potential conflict of interest.

652

653   **Financial Disclosures:** the authors have nothing to disclose.
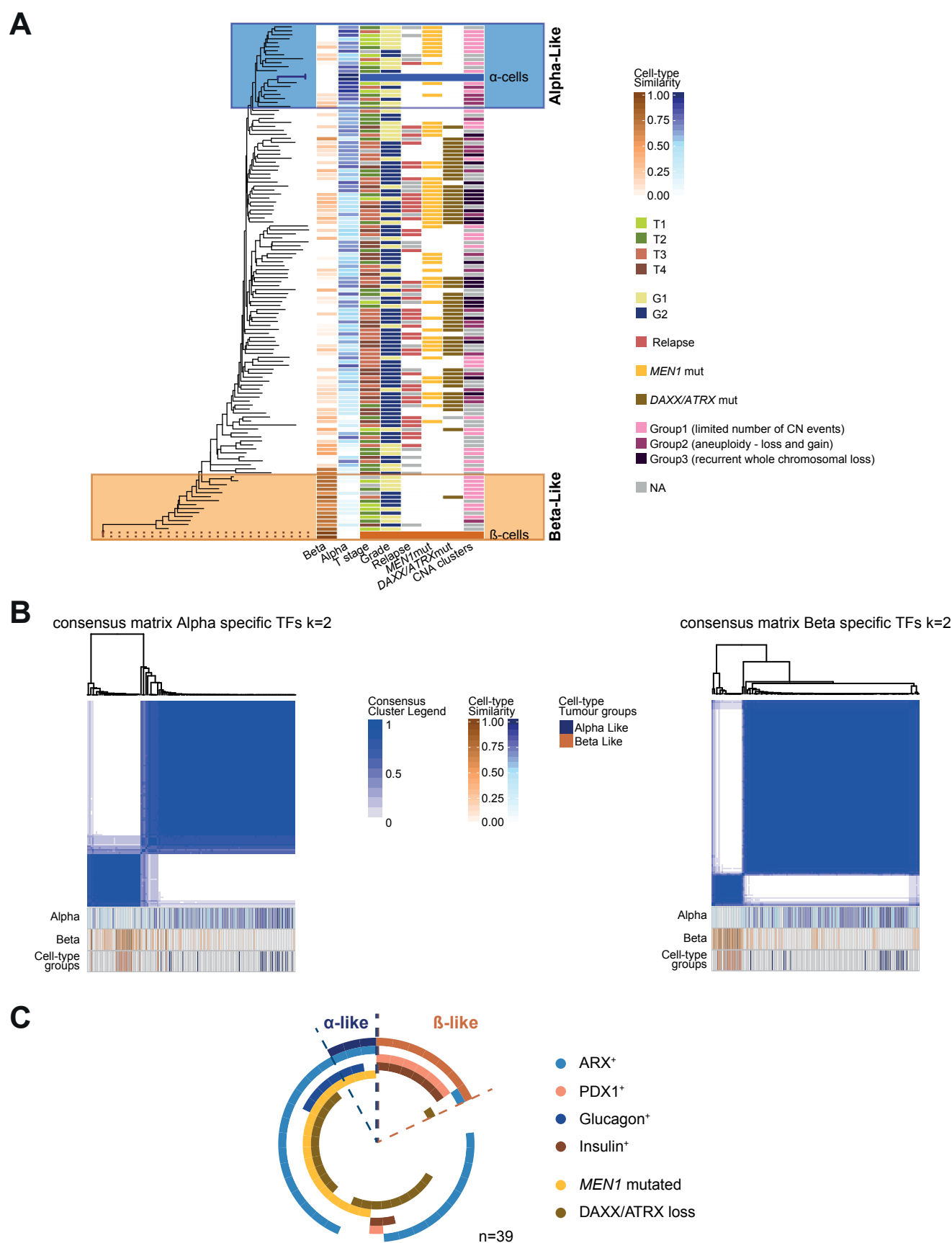
654

655   **Writing Assistance:** none

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3