Identification of type 2 diabetes- and obesity-associated human β-cells using deep transfer learning

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ABSTRACT

Diabetes affects >10% of adults worldwide and is caused by impaired production or response to insulin, resulting in chronic hyperglycemia. Pancreatic islet β-cells are the sole source of endogenous insulin and our understanding of β-cell dysfunction and death in type 2 diabetes (T2D) is incomplete. Single-cell RNA-seq data supports heterogeneity as an important factor in β-cell function and survival. However, it is difficult to identify which β-cell phenotypes are critical for T2D etiology and progression. Our goal was to prioritize specific disease-related β-cell subpopulations to better understand T2D pathogenesis and identify relevant genes for targeted therapeutics. To address this, we applied a deep transfer learning tool, DEGAS, which maps disease associations onto single-cell RNA-seq data from bulk expression data. Independent runs of DEGAS using T2D or obesity status identified distinct β-cell subpopulations. A singular cluster of T2D-associated β-cells was identified; however, β-cells with high obese-DEGAS scores contained two subpopulations derived largely from either non-diabetic or T2D donors. The obesity-associated non-diabetic cells were enriched for translation and

unfolded protein response genes compared to T2D cells. We selected CDKN1C and DLK1 for validation by immunostaining in human pancreas sections from healthy and T2D donors. Both CDKN1C and DLK1 were heterogeneously expressed among β-cells. CDKN1C was increased in β-cells from T2D donors, in agreement with the DEGAS predictions, while DLK1 appeared depleted from T2D islets of some donors. In conclusion, DEGAS has the potential to advance our holistic understanding of the β-cell transcriptomic phenotypes, including features that distinguish β-cells in obese non-diabetic or lean T2D states. Future work will expand this approach to additional human islet omics datasets to reveal the complex multicellular interactions driving T2D.

KEYWORDS: β-cells, ER stress, unfolded protein response, heterogeneity, single-cell RNA-seq, machine learning, deep transfer learning, diabetes, computational biology

BACKGROUND

The advent of high-throughput single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) has enabled the generation of an array of single-cell atlases from pancreatic islets. These findings have expanded our understanding of the major cell types of the pancreas along with how they are implicated in both type 1 diabetes (T1D) and type 2 diabetes (T2D). Notably, these studies have: 1) identified multiple reliable transcriptomic markers for endocrine and exocrine pancreatic cell types; 2) provided insight into novel subtypes of cells; and 3) generated large cellular atlases spurring innovation in the development of single cell methods and analysis. scRNA-seq analysis has enabled a more robust characterization of islet cell heterogeneity which may underlie diversity in diabetes risk and drug response [1-5]. In published comparisons between the islet single-cell transcriptomes of humans versus mice and pigs, differences were observed in the relative proportion of major cell types as well as in many cell type-specific genes [6]. These findings further support a focus on integrating human islet transcriptomic data to delineate disease processes and identify therapeutic targets and biomarkers.

As bulk RNA-seq and scRNA-seq human islet datasets have become increasingly available, so too has the need for new computational tools to integrate the transcriptomics and donor metadata. Some sets of islet scRNA-

seq data have been combined and made searchable through web portals to browse datasets and compare cell

types and marker genes [6-9]. To further utilize these types of integrated transcriptomic data and donor metadata,

we previously developed DEGAS as a flexible deep transfer learning framework that can be used to overlay

disease status, survival hazard, drug response, and other clinical information directly onto single cells. Machine

learning tools like DEGAS have been primarily used in cancer datasets, but not in human pancreatic islets until

now.

The reasons why some obese individuals succumb to T2D while other do not likely involves both genetic and

environmental factors, but the factors that underlie this transition are incompletely understood[10]. Analyses of

human genomics and islet transcriptomics indicate many β-cell genes have causal roles in T2D [11-15]. Subsets of

β-cells which are more resilient or susceptible to failure under the secretory pressure of insulin resistance may

be uncovered by combining transcriptomics with machine learning approaches like DEGAS. Here we have

implemented DEGAS to predict T2D- and obesity-associated subclusters of human pancreatic islet β-cells using

a combination of publicly available scRNA-seq and bulk RNA-seq human islet data and associated donor

metadata. Through this analysis we sought to identify genes implicated in T2D and obesity which were up- or

down-regulated in subpopulations of β-cells identified by DEGAS and to validate our findings at the protein level

using immunohistochemistry of pancreas tissue from non-diabetic and T2D organ donors. Our findings applying

DEGAS to islet data have implications for β-cell heterogeneity in T2D and obesity.

METHODS

Human islet bulk transcriptomic dataset acquisition, processing, and analysis – In this study, human

islet bulk RNA-seq raw count data (aligned to GRCh38) and donor metadata from Marselli, et al. GSE159984

was downloaded from the Gene Expression Omnibus [16] (**Table S1**). The rationale for using this dataset was its

large sample size of both non-diabetic and T2D samples and the agreement of differentially-expressed genes

between the GSE159984 dataset and a similarly large independent dataset[17]. All genes in the read count data

were filtered based on the one-to-one identifier correspondences between gene symbol, Entrez gene identifier,

and Ensembl identifier from the Matched Annotation from NCBI and EBI table (MANE GRCh38 v1.1) [18].

Sample data were labeled and grouped by their RRID and disease status (ND, non-diabetes vs. T2D, type 2

diabetes). After filtering, the GSE159984 read count table contained 19,058 genes from N = 27 T2D samples

and N = 58 non-diabetes samples (**Fig 1A**). Differential gene expression analysis between ND and T2D groups

was performed using the edgeR likelihood ratio test and cutoffs were FDR < 0.05 and |$\log_2$ fold-change| ≥ 0.58.

The processed and filtered read count table and edgeR results are provided in **Table S2** and the R script used

for processing is available on GitHub (https://github.com/kalwatlab/Islet_DEGAS_v1). Selected individual

genes are shown in Fig 1H as box plots to illustrate the quartiles across all donor samples.

Human islet single-cell data acquisition, filtering, and integration – We obtained read count tables for five

single-cell human islet datasets (GSE84133; GSE85241; E-MTAB-5061; GSE81608; GSE86469 (**Table S1**))

which were realigned to GRCh38.p5 (hg38) [8] (**Fig 1B**). Metadata were downloaded from GEO or obtained from

the supplemental information of the respective publications. These five datasets were previously integrated and

analyzed [8]. To prepare the data for our machine learning analyses, we repeated the integration and analysis of

these datasets in R using Seurat to exclude cells with low expressed genes and cells with over 20% mitochondrial

gene expression (low viability). The upper and lower limits varied between the datasets to account for differences

in library preparation and sequencing platform following guidelines in the Seurat documentation.

Datasets were integrated into a single dataset using Seurat version 4.1.3, the Seurat objects were normalized

using regularized negative binomial regression (SCTransform) to correct for batch effect and clustered using

default settings. The most variable features were used to identify integration anchors which are passed to the

IntegrateData function to return a Seurat object containing an integrated expression matrix of all cells.

The clusters were visualized using UMAP and expression of pancreatic hormone genes INS, GCG, SST,

PPY, GHRL were used to annotate β, α, delta, γ and ε cell clusters, respectively. Clustering analysis used the

Louvain algorithm [19] and labelling was performed to identify different cell types because our integrated dataset

contained a mixture of cells from pancreatic islets. In total, 22 clusters were identified from 17,273 pancreatic

cells and the clusters were classified into endocrine and non-endocrine cell types based on cell-specific marker

expression (**Fig 2A**). R scripts are available on GitHub (https://github.com/kalwatlab/Islet_DEGAS_v1). The

Seurat object containing all read count matrices and merged data and metadata is available on Mendeley[20].

Transfer learning using DEGAS on human islet transcriptomic data – The integrated single cell and bulk

datasets were processed with the DEGAS (v1.0) pipeline (https://github.com/tsteelejohnson91/DEGAS) [21] to

calculate disease risk scores associated with T2D status or BMI status. The bulk expression data were scaled

and normalized prior to DEGAS analysis using the *preprocessCounts* function. The merged scRNA-seq

expression matrix, the bulk expression matrix, and donor sample labels (matched with the bulk samples) were

used as input. The intersection of highly variable genes between scRNA-seq and bulk expression data were

used for further analysis. The DEGAS model was trained and predicted on the formatted data. Updated scripts

and instructions for running DEGAS are available on GitHub (version 1.0)

(https://github.com/tsteelejohnson91/DEGAS). DEGAS for T2D and BMI were run independently.

In DEGAS for T2D, the donor labels were "normal" vs "T2D." In DEGAS for BMI metadata, donors from bulk

RNA-seq were categorized and labeled as "lean" (<25 BMI), "overweight" (25-30 BMI) and "obese" (>30 BMI)

according to CDC guidelines. The models were trained to calculate T2D-association scores and BMI-association

scores for each of the respective categories. We identified differentially-expressed genes using *FindMarkers*

function in β-cells with high vs low T2D-association scores ($\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$) or high obesity scores ($\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$) among

healthy or T2D donor single-cells.

Subclustering of β-cells and post-DEGAS scRNA-seq analysis – We isolated the β-cell cluster using *subset*

function and reclustered them seperately from the other islet cell types. The β-cells were further classified by

different thresholding parameters including median and quantiles. For quantile and median thresholds, we

generated high, medium and low, as well upper 50% and lower 50% of median. We used the *FindMarkers*

function to identify differentially-expressed genes in high vs. low (**Fig 4D**), high vs. medium+low, and median

(upper 50% vs lower 50%) **(Table S3)**.

Pathway analysis – To analyze differentially-expressed genes that were either up- or down-regulated between

clusters, enrichment analyses and plot generation were completed using ClusterProfiler, EnhancedVolcano, and

ggplot2 R packages in R version 4.2.2 and RStudio. Enrichment of gene sets within the the Biological Process

GO terms are shown and cluster profiler outputs are provided in **Table S4**. Venn diagrams for comparing DEGAS and RePACT hit genes (**Table S5**) were created using https://molbiotools.com/listcompare.php. Gene set enrichment analysis was run using GSEA software [22, 23] downloaded from www.gsea-msigdb.org/gsea and the MSigDB Hallmark Gene Set [24] from the Broad Institute. For bulk RNA-seq analysis, the edgeR results containing all expressed genes was used as input to run standard GSEA. For GSEA analysis of comparisons between subpopluations of β-cells from scRNA-seq data, a ranked list based on $\log_2$fold-change was generated without a cutoff for adjusted P value. GSEAPreranked mode used the 'classic' enrichnment statistic for 1000 permutations.

Human pancreas tissue staining and microscopy – Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) de-identified human pancreas tissue were obtained through the Integrated Islet Distribution Program (IIDP) and the National Disease Research Interchange (NDRI) (**Table S6**). IIDP provided 5 µm tissue sections on slides and NDRI tissue blocks were processed into 5 µm sections and mounted on glass slides by the Indiana University School of Medicine Histology Lab Service Core. Slides were deparaffinized by xylene and ethanol washes. Antigen retrieval was performed by heating for 40 min in an Epitope Retrieval Steamer with slides submerged in Epitope Retrieval Solution (IHC-Tek). Subsequently, slides were placed onto disposable immunostaining coverplates and inserted into the Sequenza slide rack (Ted Pella / EMS) for washing, blocking, and antibody incubations. After three 10 min washes in IHC wash buffer (0.1% Triton X-100 and 0.01% sodium azide in PBS pH 7.4), slides were blocked for 1 h at room temperature in normal donkey serum (NDS) block solution (5% donkey serum, 1% bovine serum albumin, 0.3% Triton X-100, 0.05% Tween-20, and 0.05% sodium azide in PBS pH 7.4). Slides were then incubated overnight at 4°C with primary antibodies diluted in NDS block solution (**Table S7**). After three washes in IHC wash buffer 200 µL each), slides were incubated in secondary antibodies in NDS block solution for 1 h at room temperature, followed by DAPI staining for 10 min and three additional washes. The washed slides were mounted in polyvinyl alcohol (PVA) mounting medium (5% PVA, 10% glycerol, 50mM Tris pH 9.0, 0.01% sodium azide) or Prolong Gold and imaged on Zeiss LSM710 confocal microscope equipped with a Plan-Apochromat 20x/0.8 objective (#420650-9901). Images were processed in the Zeiss Zen software to add scale bars, set coloration for channels, and generate merged images. Scale bars indicate 50 µm. Distribution of

DLK1 intensity within INS[+] areas and CDKN1C^{+} β-cell nuclei were quantified using CellProfiler (v4.2.7). Data

were processed in R and plotted in GraphPad prism.

Statistical Analysis – In edgeR bulk RNAseq differential gene expression analysis, the likelihood ratio test

was applied. In the FindMarkers function in Seurat the default Wilcoxon Rank Sum test was used for

differential gene expression analysis. Cut-offs for signifcant differentially expressed genes were set at |$\log_2$fold-

change| > 0.58 and adjusted p-value < 0.05.

RESULTS

Differentially expressed genes from T2D bulk RNA-seq human islets show inflammatory signature and

correlate with independent islet datasets – We selected bulk RNA-seq data from Marselli, et al. 2020

(GSE159984) which contains 58 non-diabetic and 27 T2D samples with associated metadata for BMI, age, and

sex [16] (**Fig 1A-C**). To determine the suitability of this data for DEGAS, we reanalyzed the read count matrix

from GSE159984 using the edgeR likelihood ratio test to identify up- and down-regulated genes, visualized in

both volcano (**Fig 1D**) and MD plot (**Fig 1E**) formats to highlight fold-change versus significance and versus

overall expression levels, respectively (**Table S2**). We observed altered expression of genes well-known to be

dysregulated in T2D, including *IAPP* [25, 26], *PAX4* [27, 28], *SLC2A2* [29], *FFAR4*[30], and *ENTPD3* [31, 32] (**Fig 1D-E**).

Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) indicated that the gene expression profile of T2D human islets from this

dataset was associated with an inflammatory response phenotype (**Fig 1F**). To compare our analysis of

Marselli, et al. with an independent cohort, we selected a bulk RNA-seq human islet transcriptomic analysis

from Asplund et al. [17]. We compared the published supplementary table of $\log_2$-fold changes for differentially

expressed genes and to the Marselli dataset (**Fig 1G**) (**Table S2**). Significant differentially expressed genes

from both Marselli and Asplund data included up-regulation of *SFRP4* and *PODN* (**Fig S1A-B**), and down-

regulation of *UNC5D* and *FFAR4* (**Fig S1C-D**). We also found substantial agreement in the directional changes

of most other differentially expressed genes from both datasets, indicating that the Marselli islet data

represents a suitable cohort for DEGAS analysis. Finally, we compared up- and down-regulated genes from

T2D islets in the Marselli dataset with T2D effector genes from the T2D Knowledge Portal [33]. Down-regulated

genes *PAX4* and *SLC2A2* and up-regulated genes *APOE* each have evidence of a strong or causal role in T2D

at the genetic level, while *CYTIP* was up-regulated in T2D islets and has intron variant SNPs associated with

T2D (e.g. rs13384965) [34] (**Fig 1H**).

DEGAS revealed T2D- and obesity-associated β-cells and marker genes within integrated human islet

scRNA-seq data – We obtained five realigned scRNA-seq datasets [8] including Baron (GSE84133), Muraro

(GSE85241), Segerstolpe (E-MTAB-5061), Lawlor (GSE86469), and Xin (GSE81608), and integrated them

using Seurat 4.3.0 to subtype each of the major cell types for use with DEGAS. All five datasets were

successfully integrated resulting in 17,273 cells (**Fig 2A-B**). Different cell types were clearly stratified from the

scRNA-seq data, as indicated by distinct clusters of cell types enriched for their respective markers including

β-cells (*INS*), α-cells (*GCG*), δ-cells (*SST*), ε-cells (*GHRL*), PP-cells (*PPY*), acinar cells (*REG1A*, *PRSS1*),

ductal cells (*KRT19*, *CFTR*), stellate cells (*COL6A1*), endothelial cells (*PLVAP*), and mesenchymal cells

(*CD44*) (**Fig 2C**). Other parameters including sex, BMI, age, and T2D status were represented in the merged

dataset (**Fig 2D-G**). Markers of T2D vs. ND for all cells and for only β-cells were also extracted for downstream

comparisons (**Fig S2A-B**). There was limited overlap between the differentially expressed genes in Marselli, et

al. compared to T2D vs. ND for all single cells, but included *IAPP*, *ENTPD3* and *FFAR4*.

Next, we implemented DEGAS [21], a unique tool that leverages the increased sequencing depth, larger

number of clinical covariates and sample sizes of bulk sequencing data. We used the deep learning

architecture within DEGAS to project bulk islet sequencing data into the same latent representation as single

cell islet data via domain adaptation. From this common latent representation, clinical covariates from the bulk

sequencing data (e.g. T2D status and BMI) were projected onto single cells in a process called transfer

learning. This process generates unitless disease-association scores for each single cell. In parallel, we

applied DEGAS to the merged scRNAseq data using either T2D or obesity as the scoring feature.

T2D-DEGAS: First, we next mapped the T2D-association scores onto the single cells (**Fig 3A**). β-cells had

a wide distribution of scores, possibly reflecting β-cell heterogeneity or altered β-cell gene expression after

onset of T2D (**Fig 3B**) [35]. We focused on differential T2D-association scores only among β-cells by subsetting

them based on *INS* expression and superimposed the T2D-association scores onto each β-cell in the UMAP

plot (**Fig 4A**). β-cells with higher scores (pink coloration) transcriptionally associate with human islet T2D

expression profiles more than the lower scoring (black) β-cells. Next, we explored median and quantile

thresholds for the β-cell T2D-association scores (**Fig S3A-B**) and continued our analysis with the cells grouped

into high (upper 20%), medium and low (lower 20%) categories (**Fig 4B**). We compared the high versus low

$\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ groups to genes enriched in either subset of β-cells **(Fig 4C, Table S3)**. High-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells

had elevated expression of *CDKN1C* (p57^{Kip2}) which binds and inhibits G1 cyclin/CDK complexes and is also

involved in cellular sensescence [36] [37], and reduced expression of *IAPP*, consistent with results from bulk T2D

islet expression data (**Fig 1G**). These findings show that the DEGAS can successfully identify diabetes-

relevant genes enriched in specific subclusters.

   As an additional way to highlight genes that were identified by DEGAS, we excluded genes that were

differentially expressed between all non-diabetic (ND) and T2D β-cells (based on the merged scRNA-seq

donor metadata **Fig S4D, Table S3**). This process left over 90% of significant differentially expressed genes

remaining which were only identified through DEGAS analysis **(Fig 4D).** This emphasized the advantage of

using DEGAS to generate continuous variables (disease-association scores) which enable thresholding and

prioritizing cellular subpopulations. Gene ontology (GO) analysis on high-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells showed

enrichment in biological process categories including neutrophil degranulation, cell growth, and negative

regulation of cell development (**Fig 4E, Table S4**). These categories were driven in part by immune-related

genes (e.g. *HLA-B*, *PSAP*) and cell cycle regulator *BTG1*. Conversely, GO analysis on low-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$

cells showed enrichment of categories primarily related membrane protein targeting, translation, and

mitochondrial electron transport (**Fig 4F, Table S4**). The top six enriched GO categories were driven largely by

RPS/RPL genes. We also performed ranked-list GSEA on these same high- vs. low-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$

subpopulations which largely agreed with the GO analysis (**Fig 4G**). We observed significant positive

enrichment for hypoxia, TNFα signaling, estrogen response, and glycolysis (**Fig S3C**), while significant

negative enriched pathways included overlapping genes in oxidative phosphorylation and Myc-target pathways

(**Fig S3D**). Examples of genes that drive the GO and GSEA categories are shown (**Fig 4H**) and heterogeneity

in the expression in a selection of these genes can be seen in β-cell UMAP plots (**Fig S3E**).

Obese-DEGAS: Second, we applied DEGAS using obesity as the disease feature. Obesity and T2D are related, but not mutually inclusive. We surmised that obesity-association scores in β-cells may highlight unique subpopulations compared to the $β^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells. Therefore, we categorized bulk RNA-seq donors by BMI (lean, <25; overweight, 25-30; obese >30) and ran the DEGAS analysis based on these categories to calculate BMI-association scores similar to our approach with T2D. Overlaying the BMI-DEGAS scores onto the islet single-cell data showed a distinct pattern of cell labeling betwee **Fig S4A-B**). The cell types with the highest obesity-association scores were β-cells, acinar cells, and stellate cells (**Fig 5B**).

We next reclustered β-cells with overlaid lean, overweight, and obesity-association scores (**Fig S4C-D, 6A**). It is notable that the subpopulation of $β^{lean-DEGAS}$ cells appear to overlap with the subpopulation of low-scoring $β^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells ( ), suggesting that single β-cells share features of low BMI and potentially lower T2D association. $β^{overweight-DEGAS}$ scores did not highlight any subpopulation of β-cells (**Fig S4D**). However, we observed two subpopulations of high-scoring $β^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 6A**), a feature that did not occur with $β^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 4B**). We observed that a distinguishing difference between these two groups of obesity-associated β-cells was the donor diabetes status (ND vs T2D) from within the single-cell metadata. We applied a median quantile threshold to extract these two subpopulations (**Fig S4E**) and classified the cell clusters based on their donor diabetes status (**Fig 6B, Fig S4F**) to create ND-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ and T2D-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ subpopulations (**Fig 6C**). We next determined differentially expressed genes between the ND-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ and T2D-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 6D**). Gene ontology analysis of genes upregulated in the ND-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ cluster indicated an enrichment for unfolded protein response (UPR) processes like vesicle transport, translation, and protein folding and stability (**Fig 6E**). Specifically, the ND-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ cluster was enriched for expression of adaptive (e.g. *MANF* and *HSPA5*) and maladaptive (e.g. *TRIB3*, *DDIT3*) UPR genes, as well as genes involved in ER-associated degradation (e.g. *SEL1L*, *DERL2*, and *SDF2L1*). Gene ontology analysis of genes upregulated in the T2D-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ cluster showed enrichment for hormone transport and secretion pathways (e.g. *IGFBP5*, *UCN3*, *G6PC2*) and inflammatory/immune-related pathways (e.g., *HLA-A/B/E*, *STAT3*) (**Fig 6F**). In parallel, we performed ranked-list GSEA on the ND- and T2D-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ subpopulations which was largely consistent with gene ontology results (**Fig 6G**). Significantly enriched pathways for ND-$β^{obese-DEGAS}$ included the

UPR and proliferation (E2F and MTORC signaling hallmarks) (**Fig S4G**), while T2D-β$^{obese- DEGAS}$ enriched

pathways were similar to that of high-scoring β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells and included hypoxia and glycolysis (**Fig S4H**).

Examples of genes driving the GO and GSEA categories are shown, as well as *CDKN1C* and *DLK1*, given

their differential enrichment in both β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ and T2D-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 6H**).

Combined, our results applying DEGAS using T2D and obesity as disease features support the idea that

the identified genes and pathways may underlie heterogeneity in β-cell resilience or susceptibility to obesity-

related stress in the context of T2D development. In particular, *DLK1* and *CDKN1C* ranked highly in both T2D-

DEGAS and obese-DEGAS analyses (**Fig S4I**), making them reasonable candidates for validation of this

approach.

Heterogeneous expression of DLK1 and CDKN1C in human pancreatic islets from diabetic and non-

diabetic donors with lean, overweight, or obese BMI. – To support the DEGAS approach for identifying true

markers of β-cell subpopulations or heterogeneity associated with diabetes, we selected DLK1 and CDKN1C

as candidate genes for immunostaining in FFPE human pancreas sections from non-diabetic and T2D donors.

We chose Delta-Like 1 Homolog (DLK1) because of its strong associations with T1D [38] and T2D [39]. *DLK1*

expression overlapped with high scoring β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 7A**) and with T2D-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 7B**).

DLK1 immunostaining primarily colocalized with β- cells in non-diabetic human pancreas and exhibited

heterogeneity in its expression intensity (**Fig 7C, S5**). Some islets had DLK1/INS co-staining in many β-cells

while others only a few DLK1$^+$ β-cells and this pattern did not appear to be associated with BMI. In T2D

pancreas, DLK1 expression appeared to be reduced in some donors, however an analysis of the distribution of

DLK1 staining intensity across INS$^+$ cells indicated that there was no major difference between ND and T2D

(**Fig 7D**). We chose our second candidate, Cyclin-Dependent Kinase inhibitor 1C (CDKN1C), because it has

been linked to β-cell replication [40]. CDKN1C expression also overlapped with high scoring β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig**

7E) and with T2D-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells (**Fig 7F**). CDKN1C staining was primarily nuclear and was heterogeneous

across β-cells in non-diabetic human pancreas (**Fig 7G**). In agreement with the DEGAS results, CDKN1C

staining was increased in β-cell nuclei from T2D donors as quantified by CellProfiler analysis (**Fig 7H**). BMI

status did not appear to correlate with CDKN1C expression in either non-diabetic or T2D donors.

DISCUSSION

Deep transfer learning is a useful approach to identify disease-associated genes in subsets of heterogeneous islet cells – The rapid advancement of deep learning has unveiled new opportunities in diabetes research, specifically the ability to merge and analyze the large amount of publicly available omics data. The DEGAS deep transfer learning framework provides an extremely powerful and versatile tool allowing for time to event outcomes and classification outcomes to be transferred to individual cells. Notably, this direct transfer to single cells avoids the cluster resolution problems that arise using deconvolution approaches, allowing for subsets of cells within a cluster to be assigned different associations with clinical outcomes. In this way, DEGAS allows the definition of essentially new cell subpopulations that would not necessarily be identified by standard clustering algorithms and these subpopulations are rationally selected based on assigned disease association scores. A key point from our study is that the disease-associated single cells identified by DEGAS are those cells whose transcriptomic signature share complex patterns with patient transcriptomics that have known clinical and metabolic attributes. Because of this, the genes identified as up- or down-regulated in subsets of β-cells may be: 1) altered independent of disease due to genetic background of donors; 2) altered downstream of the obese or diabetic states; or 3) representative of resilient or dysfunctional β-cells in the face of metabolic syndrome. Through careful cohort inclusion criteria and batch effect removal, our analyses aim to limit these caveats when possible.

Various deconvolution methods enable estimating relative proportions of cell types in bulk samples using scRNA-seq data (e.g. BSEQ-sc [1], MuSiC [41], CIBERSORT [42], and DWLS [43]). These methods have been instrumental in identifying changes to relative quantity of cell types within normal and disease tissues; however, they do not provide detailed information about subsets of cell types which may be related to disease and are limited to the resolution of the predefined cell types through clustering. Early attempts to address this include unsupervised learning algorithms (e.g. RaceID) [44]. Now, there are multiple advanced computational approaches to identify subsets of cells related to disease status, survival, drug response, and other disease metrics. These tools can be broadly categorized as 'cell prioritization algorithms' and include: DEGAS [21], scAB [45], Scissor [46],

and scDEAL [47]. Scissor and scAB can assign survival or clinical information from bulk expression data to disparate scRNA-seq datasets using regression and matrix factorization, respectively. scDEAL is a deep learning framework specifically designed for the assignment of drug response information from bulk expression data to subsets of single cells. The major advantages of DEGAS are 1) the ability to select subsets of β-cells at an individual cell resolution based on their disease association; 2) unique qualities of the highly non-linear DEGAS technology vs. linear models of other tools to detect complex molecular programs; and 3) speed and scalability based on efficient implementation. DEGAS has the potential to be used on datasets containing well over 1 million cells, unlike other methods.

Nevertheless, certain linear model-based approaches, like RePACT (regressing principal components for the assembly of continuous trajectory), have successfully uncovered genes associated with β-cell heterogeneity in T2D and obesity [5]. In that study, T2D and obesity 'trajectory' genes were identified. We compared the genes enriched in our high-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ and in our T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells with the corresponding T2D and obesity trajectory genes from Fang et al., respectively (**Fig S6**, **Table S5**). We noted substantial agreement between DEGAS and RePACT, for example the transcription factor *SIX3* was enriched in T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells and in Fang et al.'s obese trajectory β-cells [5]. *SIX3* has been implicated as a diabetes risk gene and is important for β-cell function [48, 49]. Additionally, both approaches highlighted the association of *DLK1* with obesity, but only DEGAS identified *DLK1* association with T2D. Overall, the directionality of T2D or obesity gene associations agreed between DEGAS and RePACT results. However, not all the same genes were identified by both approaches, for example, *FXYD2* was identified via RePACT, but not in DEGAS, although *FXYD2* is a down-regulated gene in T2D in Marselli et al. and Asplund et al. (**Fig 1G**). Interestingly, *FXYD2* has was recently shown to be a downstream effector gene of *HNF1A* in single human β-cells [50]. Down-regulation of *HNF1A* in T2D β-cells, and reduced *FXYD2* expression as a result, may contribute to membrane hyperpolarization and reduced function [50]. Distinct from the application of RePACT in Fang, et al.[5], we did not observe any differences in *HNF1A* expression in our DEGAS analyses and *FXYD2* was slightly enriched, but not significantly altered, in T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells. Taken together, it is necessary to apply multiple approaches to merged sets of publicly available data because each approach will likely uncover unique and important subsets of β-cells or specific genes.

Differences between high- and low-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS subpopulations – High-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS cells had enrichment of pathways like hypoxia and TNFα signaling which contain some overlapping genes like *BTG1*, *BTG2*, and *BHLHE40*. *BHLHE40* was recently shown to cause hypoxia-induced β-cell dysfuction via interfering with *MAFA* expression [51]. *BTG1* and *BTG2* are known as anti-proliferation factors. Given the expression of both *BTG1* and *CDKN1C* in high-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS cells, it is possible these cells have altered proliferative potential, even in the context of β-cells which are well-known to have low proliferation. Although some genes like *CDKN1C* can be identified as differentially expressed in simple comparisons of all T2D vs ND donor β-cells in scRNA-seq data, DEGAS has the advantage of prioritization or ranking of candidates. For example, *CDKN1C* is within the top ten enriched candidates (by adjusted P value and fold-change) in the β^T2D-DEGAS cluster but is 286th when simply comparing all T2D vs ND single β-cells (**Table S3**). Additionally, deletion of *CDKN1C* has been shown to improve human islet function [40] and gain-of-function mutants are associated with diabetes development and hyperinsulinism [52, 53]. In agreement with our results, we found CDKN1C was significantly increased in β-cells from T2D donors (**Fig 7H**). From our analysis we cannot determine whether this is a response to the diabetic milieu in those donors or if CDKN1C is increased early and prevents β-cell compensation, further contributing to T2D pathogenesis. Understanding the differences between CDKN1C^+ and CDKN1C^- human β-cells would be of interest in future work to provide insights into the regulation of β-cell replication.

The low-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS cells were enriched in pathways involving oxidative phosphorylation and Myc targets. We also noted enrichment of many small and large ribosomal genes (*RPS*/*RPL*) in this subpopulation. *RPS*/*RPL* ribosomal genes are known to be highly expressed in primary human β-cells [54], and glucose stimulation induced translation of over 50 different *RPS*/*RPL* genes in human β-cell line EndoC-βH2 [55]. This suggest that low-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS cells may have relatively increased translation and metabolic activity. Taken together, high-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS cells may be reflective of dysfunctional β-cells in either a pre-T2D or T2D-onset state, while low-scoring β^T2D-DEGAS cells could potentially represent more resilient β-cells.

Differences between ND-β^obese-DEGAS and T2D-β^obese-DEGAS subsets of β-cells – Our understanding of why some individuals with obesity develop T2D while others do not is incomplete. A 2021 NHANES report indicated

a 41.9% prevalence for obesity in US adults aged 20 and over, with a 14.8% prevalence for diabetes [56], in line

with CDC reports [57]. This suggests that many individuals with obesity have either not progressed, or may never

progress, to T2D. This phenomenon may be related to those individuals categorized as metabolically healthy

obese as compared to metabolically unhealthy obese [58]. Expanded work with DEGAS may uncover specific

genes that underly this relationship. In our analysis we were able to stratify based on T2D status of the single

cell donors and overlay the relative obesity-association scores from DEGAS. That analysis allowed us to set

rational thresholds for grouping subsets of β-cells to compare ND- and T2D-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells. Perhaps

counterintuitively, UPR genes were highly enriched in the ND-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells as opposed to the T2D-β$^{obese\text{-}}$

^{DEGAS} cells. It is possible these ND-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells are in a stressed pre-diabetic state on the path to T2D.

Dominguez-Gutierrez et al. analyzed islet scRNA-seq data using pseudotime analysis and identified three major

β-cell states which were defined by their insulin expression and UPR level [59]. The authors speculate that β-cells

periodically pass through these states, which in scRNA-seq are visualized as subpopulations of cells. Previously,

a *FTH1* subpopulation of β-cells was identified with implications in the UPR [60]. In agreement with those results,

we found *FTH1* was upregulated in ND-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells. Therefore, another possibility is that the UPR induced

in ND-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells marks a population with lower functionality but higher proliferative potential to combat the

insulin resistant obese state, and the relatively lower UPR in T2D-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells possibly correlates with

enhanced functionality in established T2D. Concordantly, T2D-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells had enrichment of hormone

secretion genes (e.g. *SYT7, G6PC2, NEUROD1, UCN3, FFAR1*) in our pathway analysis (**Fig 6F**). In a study of

human, mouse, and pig islet scRNA-seq data, subpopulations of 'stressed' β-cells were identified that exhibited

enriched hallmark pathways similar to what we observe in ND-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$ cells [6]. Thus, multiple studies including

our current analysis support the existence of subpopulations of stressed β-cells, whether transient or stable, that

could in principle be targeted by therapeutics.

We also looked for enrichment of potential secreted biomarkers in high-scoring β$^{T2D\text{-}DEGAS}$ and T2D-β$^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$

cells and identified *LRPAP1* and *C1QL1*. *LRPAP1* encodes the LDL receptor-related protein-associated protein

1 (LRPAP) and is enriched in this subpopulation. LRPAP is ubiquitously expressed and is predicted to be an ER

resident protein [61]. LRPAP appears to be heterogeneously expressed among islet cells and was detected in

human plasma in the in the Human Protein Atlas [62]. *C1QL1* encodes a secreted peptide that is highly-expressed

in human islets [63] and was enriched in $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells, although little else is known about its role in β-cells. Increased C1QL1 release could potentially signal through its GPCR BAI3 to suppress insulin secretion of surrounding β-cells, as has been shown for C1QL3 [64].

Potential for DEGAS in identifying β-cell heterogeneity markers – Subsets or subpopulations of β-cells are an emergent property of β-cell heterogeneity. Two of the most widely used scRNA-seq datasets have also identified significant heterogeneity within pancreatic cell types, notably β-cells [7, 60]. Various markers have been identified to define these β-cell subpopulations, including expression of ST8SIA1 and CD9 [65] or Flattop expression [66]. Additionally, UCN3 marks mature β cells [67] and RBP4$^+$ β-cells correlated with reduced function [68]. Functional heterogeneity has also been described as in the case of leader/first-responder β cells [69, 70] or hub β cells [71], and has been linked to transcription factors including PDX1 [72] and HNF1A [50]. Nevertheless, cellular heterogeneity within a single cell type is complicated and there is uncertainty in the single cell analytics field about what constitutes a stable cell type versus a transient cell state [73]. Tying transcriptionally distinct clusters to function or morphology may be key to making this distinction [74]. By inferring disease outcomes in high resolution cellular subtypes, application of DEGAS can help to inform this debate.

In our analysis, the expression of *DLK1* and *CDKN1C* was enriched in high-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ and in T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells. Recent *in vitro* work has also highlighted DLK1 and CDKN1C as having increased expression in human pancreatic islets treated with 30mM glucose for 48 h [75]. In agreement with scRNAseq data, we also observed heterogeneous DLK1 and CDKN1C immunostaining of β-cells from human pancreas sections. *DLK1* was previously noted to be enriched in subpopulations of β-cells [1, 2, 4, 8, 76], however its heterogeneity in transcript and protein abundance in non-diabetic versus T2D human islet β-cells had not been described until now. DLK1 is a maternally-imprinted gene[77] with described roles in Notch signaling[78-80] and glucose homeostasis[81]. Supporting an active role β-cell disease, a recent preprint reported DLK1 was required for proper maturation, function, and stress resilience of β-like cells differentiated from human embryonic stem cells [82]. Our results combined with the published and available preprint data suggest the role of DLK1 in β-cell development and function may be nuanced, given that we did not observe a consistent up or down regulation

at the protein level in human islets. However, DLK1 may serve as a surface marker of, or be released from, stressed or at-risk β-cells, but increased sample sizes and in-depth analyses of human islet samples will be required to better describe these possible roles. Our DEGAS results were confirmed however with CDKN1C expression being increased in T2D β-cells. Other work has shown that suppression of CDKN1C expression in hyperglycemic, immunodeficient mice increased β-cell replication by three fold and those newly replicated cells retained mature β-cell functionality, indicating that manipulating CDKN1C expression can cause B-cell expansion in T2D patients [40]. Additionally, loss-of-function mutations in CDKN1C can cause focal congenital hyperinsulinism, wherein increased β-cell proliferation and IGF-II expression are observed [83].

Applying tools like DEGAS to publicly available data will increase our understanding of the underlying β-cell features associated with progression to T2D or with an obese non-T2D state. Expanded DEGAS analyses will be needed to include scRNA-seq data from islets subjected to various models of T1D/T2D (e.g. cytokines, glucolipotoxicity). Major questions include whether the gene candidates identified by DEGAS are protective, disease-causing, or simply markers in β-cell subpopulations. In the future, these questions may be addressed by functional validation studies or observations in genome-wide association studies.

Limitations of the study and future directions – We think the approach of joining islet omics data to deep learning and artificial intelligence is an area in need of increased attention; however, we appreciate that our current study has limitations. First, our analysis utilized a single bulk RNA-seq human islet dataset, although the Marselli study contains a relatively large number of islet donors compared to most available datasets. Second, we merged only five scRNA-seq human islet datasets for this application of DEGAS. The datasets were chosen because of the extensive meta-analyses to which they have already been subjected [8], and their use as benchmarking data in many scRNA-seq analysis tools [84-86]. scRNA-seq has a limitation on the number of detectable genes in each cell, as compared to bulk RNA-seq samples. While these limitations may eventually be mitigated by improved technologies, we can begin to overcome these by merging a larger number of human islet bulk and scRNA-seq studies which contain more donors. Increased sample sizes and study variables come with their own challenges, however the future gene candidates identified by DEGAS will be of even higher

confidence. Additionally, scRNA-seq is a snapshot in time and it may be tenuous to claim that a particular cell

state is transient or persistent. To support a claim that a given subset/subtype of β-cells represents an actual

stable population in scRNA-seq data requires at least finding that the cells comprising the candidate population

occur across multiple individual donors. In future studies, our use of the diabetes field's considerable investment

in islet transcriptomics data and state-of-the-art cell prioritization tools will enable simultaneous identification of

disease-associated cellular subtypes and associated biomarkers of function and dysfunction. Additionally,

increasing the number of human pancreas donor tissue samples for high-content image analysis will improve

confidence in candidate gene validation.

CONCLUSIONS

DEGAS has the potential to be applied to even larger mergers of single cell data (> 1 million cells) using the

newly developed DEGAS atlas implementations. A vast amount of human (and other species) islet single cell

transcriptomics data is publicly available, but often requires substantial reformatting of metadata and realigning

of reads to be harmonized. As our endeavors and those of others proceed, DEGAS will lead to even higher

confidence predictions of β-cell subpopulations. It is also apparent from our DEGAS analyses that other non-β-

cells are highlighted in the islet single cell map for associations with T2D and obesity. Although outside the

scope of this work, further exploration of our current DEGAS analyses, or of analyses using larger single cell

integrations, will have implications for the other major islet and pancreas cell types, including α-cells, δ-cells

and PP-cells. For example, PP cells have been shown to have a role in pancreatogenic diabetes as opposed

to T2D [87], and there appear to be subpopulations of high and low scoring PP$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cells within the DEGAS

analysis (**Fig 3A**). Our successful application of deep transfer learning in human islet data opens the possibility

of predicting subtypes of β-cells in other diseases, like T1D and congenital hyperinsulinism, to find potential

biomarkers and therapeutic candidates. In some rare diseases, like congenital hyperinsulinism, single cell data

is not available, however spatial transcriptomics (ST) could be applied to FFPE sections. DEGAS has already

been implemented to analyze ST data in prostate cancer and diabetic pancreas [88-90], and will be increasingly

applicable to human pancreas samples as ST technology continues to advance. It is important to note that

DEGAS is just one of many machine learning approaches to analyze transcriptomic data. It will be important to

include DEGAS in combination with both linear and other non-linear models to capture as many relevant gene

candidates as possible.

List of abbreviations

Abbreviation	Definition
ND	non-diabetic
T1D	type 1 diabetes
T2D	type 2 diabetes
RNA-seq	RNA sequencing
scRNA-seq	single cell RNA sequencing
FFPE	formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded
DEGAS	Diagnostic Evidence GAuge of Single cells
DLK1	Delta Like Non-Canonical Notch Ligand 1
MANE	Matched Annotation from NCBI and EBI
RRID	Research Resource identifer
GSEA	gene set enrichment analysis
MSigDB	Molecular signatures database
BMI	body mass index
UMAP	uniform manifold approximation and projection
$\beta^{T2D\text{-}DEGAS}$	T2D-DEGAS disease assocation score for beta cells
$\beta^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$	obese-DEGAS disease assocation score for beta cells
ND-$\beta^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$	obese-DEGAS disease assocation score for beta cells from ND donors
T2D-$\beta^{obese\text{-}DEGAS}$	obese-DEGAS disease assocation score for beta cells from T2D donors
GO	gene ontology
RePACT	regressing principle components for the assembly of continuous trajectory
NDS	normal donkey serum
PBS	phosphate buffered saline

DECLARATIONS

Consent for publication

Human islet transcriptomic data used in this project are all published datasets and the donors are deidentified.

Human pancreatic tissue sections were obtained from NDRI and were deidentified. Studies on deidentified

human tissue or publicly available human transcriptomics datasets do not constitute human research as

defined in 45 CFR 46.102(f).

DATA AVAILABILITY

The raw data sets supporting the results of this article are available in the NCBI GEO and the ArrayExpress

repositories under the following persistent identifiers (also shown in **Table S1**): bulk RNA-seq: GSE159984;

scRNA-seq: GSE84133, GSE85241, GSE86469, E-MTAB-5061, GSE81608.

AVAILABILITY OF SOURCE CODE AND REQUIREMENTS

- Project name: Islet DEGAS

- Project home page: https://github.com/kalwatlab/Islet_DEGAS_v1

- Operating system(s): Platform independent

- Programming language: R and Python

- Other requirements: not applicable

- License: ©

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

G.R., R.S., O.L., S.R., S.D.M., A.M.M., T.S.J., and M.A.K. performed data analyses. G.R. and D.R. performed

experiments. M.A.K. and T.S.J. conceived and initiated this project. M.A.K. and T.S.J. supervised the project.

A.M.M. provided processed data files. G.R., T.S.J. and M.A.K. wrote the manuscript. All authors read and

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FIGURES AND LEGENDS

Figure 1. Data acquisition and workflow to train DEGAS using human pancreatic islet transcriptomic data for prediction of T2D-associated cells. A) Read count data for human islet bulk RNA-seq from GSE138748 was downloaded, processed, and matched with donor metadata. The dataset included 58 non-diabetic and 27 type 2 diabetic (T2D) samples. **B)** Human islet single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) count matrices were generated by realignment of reads and the datasets were integrated in Seurat. **C)** DEGAS transfers the bulk donor expression data and clinical trait information to individual cells in the single cell matrix for the purpose of prioritizing cells. This allows cells to be assigned scores which can then be thresholded for downstream analysis. **D,E)** Bulk RNA-seq data from Marselli et al. was analyzed by edgeR and displayed as both (**D**) volcano plot and (E) MA plot. Differentially expressed genes (DEGs) are those with $p<0.05$ and >1.5-fold changed and are highlighted in red. The MA plot in (**E**) provides a sense of relative transcript abundance among DEGs. **F)** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) results for Hallmark_Inflammatory_Response show an enrichment for DEGs in T2D human islets. **G)** A simple comparison of up- and down-regulated genes in T2D human islets in RNA-seq data between Marselli et al. and Asplund et al. shows consistent findings. Significant DEGs from Marselli et al are outlined in black. **H)** Selected significant genes from panel **1D** that were also found on the Type 2 Diabetes Knowledge Portal database of known diabetes effector genes. The data for selected genes across all donors are displayed in box and whiskers plots. Whiskers extend to 1.5 times the interquartile range.

Figure 2. Validation of merged scRNA-seq datasets from five human islet studies. A) Seurat clustering of merged human islet scRNA-seq data from Fig 1B. **B)** Study identifiers overlaid on single cell plot. **C)** Gene expression plots for the major endocrine and exocrine pancreas genes to demonstrate successful clustering of specific cell types. Metadata was overlaid onto single cell UMAP plots for sex (**D**), BMI (**E**), age (**F**), and diabetes status (**G**).

Figure 3. DEGAS analysis based on T2D status. A) DEGAS T2D association scores (T2D-DEGAS) for each cell was overlaid onto the single cell UMAP plot. Higher scores in pink/red indicate a strong positive association and negative scores in darker black indicate a negative association of those cells with T2D. **B)** Violin plot displaying the aggregate T2D-DEGAS scores per cell type.

Figure 4. Identification of differentially-expressed genes in high- and low-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ cell populations. . **A)** DEGAS scores for T2D association ($\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$) were overlaid onto the cell plot. **B)** β-cells were classified as low, medium and high-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ subpopulations for downstream analysis. **C)** Differential expression analysis of high vs. low $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ scores. Genes with p<0.05 and >1.5-fold change are highlighted in red. **D)** Genes from (**C**) were filtered to remove DEGs that could be identified by comparing β-cells of T2D vs non-diabetic donors in the single cell data (**Fig S2B**). Gene ontology (GO) analysis of genes enriched in the high (**E**) and low (**F**) scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ subpopulations. **G)** GSEA results for high- vs. low-scoring $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ subpopulations. **H)** Bubble plot highlighting genes driving GO and GSEA categories.

Figure 5. DEGAS analysis based on obesity status. A) DEGAS obesity association scores (obese-DEGAS) for each cell was overlaid onto the single cell UMAP plot. Higher scores in pink/red indicate a strong positive association and negative scores in darker black indicate a negative association of those cells with obesity. **B)** Violin plot displaying the aggregate obese -DEGAS scores per cell type.

Figure 6. Two subpopulations of high $\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells defined by underlying single cell donor T2D status uncovers stress signature in non-diabetic high-scoring obese-DEGAS β-cells. A) β-cells were subsetted from Fig 5A based on *INS* expression and obese-DEGAS scores overlaid onto the single cells. **B)** Donor diabetes status overlaid onto the β-cells. **C)** β-cells were further subsetted based on both their high obese-DEGAS scores and by the underlying T2D status of the single cell donors, leading to two major subpopulations, ND-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ and T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells. **D)** Differential expression analysis comparing ND-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ and T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ subpopulations. Genes with p<0.05 and >1.5-fold change are highlighted in red. Gene ontology (GO) analysis of genes enriched in the ND-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ (**E**) and T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ (**F**)

subpopulations. **G)** Gene set enrichment analysis (GSEA) of ND- vs. T2D-$\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ subpopulations. **H)** Bubble plot highlighting genes driving GO and GSEA categories.

Figure 7. DLK1 is a β-cell gene heterogeneously expressed between cells and islets of non-diabetic and T2D humans. A) DLK1 expression and $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ scores overlaid onto the β-cell cluster. Yellow dots indicate cells with high DLK1 expression and high $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ score, as shown in the adjacent overlay heatmap. **B)** DLK1 expression and $\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ scores overlaid onto the β-cell cluster. Yellow dots indicate cells with high DLK1 expression and high $\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ score. **C)** Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) sections of human pancreas from non-diabetic (ND) and T2D donors were stained for INS and DLK1. Representative images are shown from three different ND and T2D donors. **D)** CellProfiler analysis showing distribution of DLK1 in ND vs T2D donors. UMAP plot overlaying CDKN1C expression and $\beta^{T2D-DEGAS}$ **(E)** or $\beta^{obese-DEGAS}$ **(F)** scores. **G)** Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) sections of human pancreas from non-diabetic (ND) and T2D donors were stained for INS and CDKN1C. Representative images are shown from three different ND and T2D donors. **H)** Increased CDKN1C expression observed in β-cells from T2D patients. *, $P < 0.05$ by Student's T-test.

Supplemental Information

Figure S1. Islet Gene View results of DEGs found in both Marselli et al. and Asplund et al. *SFRP4* (**A**), *PODN* (**B**), *FFAR4* (**C**), and *UNC5D* (**D**) were each significantly regulated in T2D vs. non-T2D human islet RNA-seq data in Marselli et al. and Asplund et al. Plots shown were generated using Islet Gene View browser (https://mae.crc.med.lu.se/IsletGeneView/). *FFAR4* and *UCN5D* were both down-regulated in T2D and *SFRP4* and *PODN* were both up-regulated.

Figure S2. Human islet single cell RNA-seq clusters and diabetes marker genes for all cells and β-cells. A) FindClusterMarkers between all single cells from T2D donors vs. non-diabetic (ND) donors. **B)** β-cells reclustered and **(C)** labeled based on donor T2D status. **D)** FindClusterMarkers between β-cells from T2D vs. ND donor single cell data.

Figure S3. Thresholding analysis for β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ scores and differential gene expression analysis and plots. A) Quantile thresholding and volcano plot comparing the upper 20% of β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ scores to the lower 80%. **B)** Median thresholding and volcano plot comparing the upper 50% vs lower 50% of β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ scoring cells. **C)** GSEA results for high βT2D-DEGAS scoring cells. **D)** GSEA results of low-scoring β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ scoring cells. **E)** Gene expression overlays on β-cells of selected genes that drive enrichment of GO terms and GSEA categories.

Figure S4. Score overlay on all islet cells for β$^{lean-DEGAS}$ **(A)** and β$^{overweight-DEGAS}$ **(B). C,D)** Similar score overlays are also shown for β-cells alone. **E)** Median thresholding of β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ score. **F)** Subsetting highest-scoring cells based on β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ score. **G)** GSEA results for ND-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells. **H)** GSEA results for T2D-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ cells. **I)** Venn diagram showing number of genes in β$^{T2D-DEGAS}$ and β$^{obese-DEGAS}$.

Figure S5. Formalin-fixed paraffin-embedded (FFPE) sections of human pancreas from non-diabetic (ND) and T2D donors were stained for INS and DLK1. Representative images are shown from two different ND and T2D donors.

Figure S6. **Overlap of RePACT trajectory genes with genes identified by DEGAS in human islet scRNA-seq data.** Genes from βT2D-DEGAS (**A**), or ND-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ and T2D-β$^{obese-DEGAS}$ (**B**) that had adjusted p-values < 0.05 and |log$_2$fold-changed| > 0.58 were selected for comparison to Fang et al. **Table S5** T2D and obesity trajectory genes, respectively.

Additional Files

Table S1. List of bulk and single cell transcriptomic datasets.
Table S2. Bulk RNA-seq metadata, analysis, and comparisons to publicly-available datasets.
Table S3. Differential gene expression in DEGAS-identified β-cell subpopulations.
Table S4. Pathway analysis results.
Table S5. Comparison of DEGAS T2D and obesity genes to Fang et al. RePACT trajectory genes..
Table S6. FFPE human pancreas metadata.
Table S7. Antibodies.

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This potential conflict of interest has been reviewed and managed by OHSU. The remaining

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Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

A

DEGAS: T2D-association score

Figure 4

A

DEGAS:
obese-association score

α

endothelial

PP (γ)

stellate

DEGAS score

0.5
0.0
-0.5

δ

acinar

β

ductal

B

Alpha cells
Beta cells
Acinar cells
Delta cells
Ductal cells
Gamma+Ghrelin cells
Stellate+Mesenchymal cells
Mast+Endothelial cells
Ductal+Acinar cells
Mast cells

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure S1

Figure S2

A

Markers of T2D vs ND donors for all cells

B

Markers of T2D vs ND donors for β cells

Figure S3

A

Quantile thresholding

low vs mid+high β^{T2D-DEGAS} score

B

Median thresholding

median threshold β^{T2D-DEGAS} score

C

Enriched in high β^{T2D-DEGAS} score

D

Enriched in low β^{T2D-DEGAS} score

E

Figure S4

Figure S5

Figure S6

A   Fang et al. RePACT Trajectory   Roy et al. DEGAS disease-association

B