Decoding multicellular niche formation in the tumour microenvironment from nonspatial single-cell expression data

Chengxin Yu[1, 2], Michael J Geuenich[1, 2], Sabrina Ge[3, 8], Gun-Ho Jang[6], Tan Tiak Ju[1, 2], Amy Zhang[6], Grainne M O'Kane[6, 8, 9], Faiyaz Notta[3, 6, 8], Kieran R Campbell[1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, *]

[1] Lunenfeld-Tanenbaum Research Institute, Sinai Health System, Toronto, ON M5G 1X5, Canada

[2] Department of Molecular Genetics, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5S 1A8, Canada

[3] Department of Medical Biophysics, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5G 1L7, Canada

[4] Department of Statistical Sciences, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5S 3G3, Canada

[5] Department of Computer Science, University of Toronto, Toronto, ON M5T 3A1, Canada

[6] Ontario Institute of Cancer Research, Toronto, ON M5G 1M1, Canada

[7] Vector Institute, Toronto, ON M5G 1M1, Canada

[8] Princess Margaret Cancer Centre, Toronto, ON M5G 2M9, Canada

[9] Department of Medical Oncology, St. Vincents University Hospital and University College,Dublin

[*] Correspondence: kierancampbell@lunenfeld.ca

Accurate inference of granular cell states that co-occur within the tumour microenvironment (TME) is central to defining pro- and anti-tumour environments. However, to reliably identify recurrent coexisting cell populations it is fundamental to analyze datasets encompassing a substantial number of tumour samples with a resolution sufficient to capture granular cell states. Here, we leverage eight scRNA-seq datasets of pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) in a unique discovery-validation setup and find reproducible cell states, gene programs, and cellular niches that are predictive of specific clinical outcomes. Across tumours, we show highly consistent co-occurrence of cell states within and between lineages, including those reflecting known and *de novo* cellular interactions alongside the formation of multi-cellular clusters such as tertiary lymphoid structures. In addition, we develop a novel probabilistic model to quantify multi-cellular communities directly from atlas-scale scRNA-seq datasets. This model identified cellular niches predictive of clinical outcomes including communities associated with response to therapy and with specific KRAS mutations. Together, this work lays the foundation for inferring reproducible multicellular niches directly from large nonspatial scRNA-seq atlases and linking their presence in individual patients to prognosis and therapy response.

Introduction

Recent advances in expression profiling technologies have significantly accelerated our ability
to quantify cellular phenotypes at single-cell and spatial resolutions. Single cell RNA-seq[1,2]
(scRNA-seq) enables transcriptome-wide gene expression measurements at single cell
resolution and has led to multiple discoveries of cell types and transcriptional states associated
with patient outcomes and therapy response[3–8]. In tandem, spatial expression profiling
technologies[9–12] that quantify gene or protein expression at (sub-) cellular resolution while
retaining the spatial location of each measurement have led to multiple studies that associate
tumour spatial architecture with patient outcomes[4,5,13,14]. Of note, significant attention has been
given to using these technologies for the *de novo* identification of cell types and states that co-
occur within tissues[15] and form multi-cellular communities (or niches)[16–18]. These niches form
multi-cellular networks whose presence in tissues has been linked to clinical outcomes such as
treatment response across a range of pathologies[13,19]. Importantly, much of our understanding
of tissue dynamics leading to target discovery comes from reasoning about cellular co-
occurrence within the tumour microenvironment. For example, cell states believed to be
responsible for an immunosuppressive microenvironment will co-occur with exhausted cytotoxic
T cells[4,20,21], thereby providing a first list of potential therapeutic targets directly from patient data
to convert the TME into an immunogenic state and improve patient outcomes.

However, reliable quantification of cell state co-occurrence within individual tumours leading to
cellular niches remains challenging. In particular, the ability to robustly identify recurrent
coexisting cell states or gene programs in specific clinical scenarios relies on having sufficient
independent samples, particularly for rare or transient cell states. Spatial protein technologies
such as Imaging Mass Cytometry[9] and Multiplexed Ion Beam Imaging[22] are sufficiently cost-
efficient to profile the required number of tissue samples, but can only quantify 40-60 markers
simultaneously, limiting the ability to infer granular cell states and signaling pathways. On the
other hand, spatial transcriptomic technologies such as Nanostring CosMx and 10X Genomics
Xenium can measure 100s of mRNA species simultaneously, but are currently too expensive to
profile at scale; therefore, despite the potential of spatial approaches, obtaining a sufficient
number of samples to confidently identify true co-occurring cell states remains a significant
limiting factor. Moreover, whole-transcriptome technologies like the 10X Genomics Visium
platform do not quantify true single-cell measurements and often suffer contamination caused
by spot swapping[23]. In contrast, scRNA-seq can quantify single-cell whole transcriptome
expression measurements with quantified cell state abundance largely reflecting tissue
composition[24–26]. While scRNA-seq nominally suffers from the same expense per sample as
spatial transcriptomics technologies, the push by the community over the past decade through
initiatives such as the Human Cell Atlas[27] and Human Tumour Analysis Network[28] has resulted
in unprecedented data sizes, comprising more than 12 tumour atlases[4,29–34] by mid-2024 alone.

This leads to the tantalizing possibility of quantifying cell state co-occurrence and cellular niches
directly from large multi-cohort scRNA-seq cancer atlases. However, whether this can lead to
reproducible, clinically relevant insights remains largely unknown.
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To help answer this question, we focus on pancreatic ductal adenocarcinoma (PDAC) – a
malignant neoplasm of the pancreas – due to both the availability of multiple independent
primary tumour scRNA-seq datasets studies[4,35–41], combined with its complex microenvironment
that is characteristically difficult to target. For example, targets in the PDAC TME that achieved
strong preclinical validation in mouse models[42] ultimately performed worse than standard of
care when tested in human clinical trials[43], highlighting the need to understand immune
dynamics directly in patient tissues.
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Existing studies of the PDAC TME have highlighted diverse cellular heterogeneity across all
lineages[44–48]. Additionally, single-cell profiling of PDAC tumours has highlighted previous
underappreciated heterogeneity within individual tumours cells themselves, with existence of the
basal/classical Moffitt subtypes[49] and later basal A/B, classical A/B, and hybrid subtypes[35] being
shown to co-exist within single tumours[50,51]. Despite this, few efforts have sought to explicitly
quantify the co-occurrence of granular cell states within single tumours. Oh et al. curated
scRNA-seq PDAC from four studies to infer cell type co-occurrence using clustering and
interactome analysis[50], but due to having relatively few samples did not include validation or
highly granular cell states. In contrast, Luca et al. built a machine learning framework EcoTyper
to discover multicellular communities across solid tumours from bulk RNA-seq data, which is
well-powered at the patient level but may lack the ability to uncover granular cell states *de novo*.
Therefore, there is an outstanding question for whether granular PDAC cell states can be
robustly inferred and validated across patient cohorts, and whether cell state co-occurrence
provides insights into the immune dynamics in tumours.
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In this work, we present a comprehensive platform to dissect the extent to which cell state co-
occurrence and cellular niches can be reproducibly inferred in the PDAC tumour
microenvironment from atlas-scale scRNA-seq (**Fig. 1A**). We leverage the vast quantity of
PDAC scRNA-seq generated by the community to collate eight independent datasets
encompassing >150 samples and >500,000 cells to create a unique dataset-level discovery-
validation setup. In doing so, the existence of known and *de novo* granular cell states in the
TME can be independently verified, along with their ability to co-occur within and across cell
types and form reproducible cellular niches. We map 60 lineage-specific cell state gene
programs across 8 cell types and confirm the existence of known cell states such as exhausted
cytotoxic T cell while discovering novel cellular variation such as multiple reproducible
inflammatory cancer associated fibroblast (CAF) subtypes. Next, we evaluate the extent to
which co-occurrence of these granular cell state programs is reproducible within and between

cell types, finding highly consistent co-occurrence across all major lineages. We subsequently

formalize a novel probabilistic model for quantifying cellular niches from atlas-scale scRNA-seq

and find these are both significantly reproducible between our discovery and validation datasets

and may represent continuous niche-driven microenvironment remodeling with disease

progression. Finally, we map the discovered gene programs and niches to two bulk datasets to

associate these TME dynamics with survival rates, and found that the presence of certain

niches are associated with poorer or more favorable outcomes along with specific KRAS

mutations. A reproducible Snakemake pipeline for this analysis along with STAN code

implementing the probabilistic niche model is available on GitHub at https://github.com/camlab-

bioml/PDAC_cellular_niche_analyses.

Results

Curation of PDAC scRNA-seq discovery-validation cell state resource

To systematically quantify cell states from the PDAC tumour microenvironment, we compiled 8

previously generated scRNA-seq datasets (**Fig. 1B** and **Methods**, **Supplementary Table 1**)[4,35–

40,52] comprising 578,000 total cells. To exclude possible technology-induced bias, all selected

scRNA-seq data were generated using the 10X Genomics platform. We selected primary PDAC

tumour samples from each cohort and split the datasets into a discovery group (4 datasets,

n=74 tumour samples) and a validation group (4 datasets, n=89 tumour samples). Starting with

raw counts, quality control and normalization were performed in line with previous studies

(**Supplementary Fig. 1A**, **Methods**). We developed an automated workflow to systematically

annotate single cells using a previously generated multi-cohort PDAC atlas as reference

(**Supplementary Fig. 1B** and **Methods**)[7]. Eight major cell type lineages were identified in our

curated dataset (**Fig. 1C**) with all present in both the discovery and validation groups as

expected (**Fig. 1D**). We also noted that cell type proportion variations exist between the

discovery group and the validation group, highlighting possible sampling biases in different

patient cohorts. Our gene program extraction and validation workflow were carefully designed to

handle such biases and preserve intra-tumour heterogeneity (**Methods**). Specifically, our

workflow extracted and validated cell state gene programs in each cell lineage independently,

which ensured adequate number of programs were allocated to relatively rare cell lineages such

as B cells. To validate the automatically assigned cell type labels, we examined known marker

expression in each group to confirm cell identity (**Fig. 1E**). The workflow we present here could

be readily applied to identify and validate rare and fine-grained cell states when comparing

datasets from multiple sources, despite the presence of batch effects and sampling biases.

Figure 1: Overview of analytical workflow and discovery-validation datasets. A, Overview of discovery-validation platform for identifying co-occurrence and niches of granular cell states

in the PDAC TME. **B**, Dataset and QC metrics for discovery (top) and validation (bottom)
datasets. **C**, UMAP representations for the discovery (top) and validation (bottom) datasets
colored by dataset (left) and major annotated cell type (right). mDC, Myeloid Dendritic Cells. **D**,
Overview of cell type composition for samples (in rows) in the Discovery group (top) and in the
Validation group (bottom). **E**, Overview of selected lineage marker expression in each annotated
cell type population for discovery (left) and validation (right).
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Cell lineage specific gene programs capture cell state heterogeneity in the PDAC TME

To quantify granular cell states in the tumour micro-environment, we extracted cell lineage-
specific gene expression programs independently for the discovery and the validation datasets.
Specifically, we applied integrative non-negative matrix factorization (iNMF)[53] that learns a set of
gene programs defined by the expression pattern of a set of genes along with their activities in
each single-cell (**Supplementary Fig. 2A**, **Methods**). Our use of NMF rather than sub-
clustering was motivated by the inherent plasticity of the cells of the tumour
microenvironment[5,35,54,55], which is well-modelled by each cell having a continuous activation of
multiple gene programs compared to clustering approaches that force each cell to belong to a
distinct cluster. A similar computational approach to interpretable gene program discovery has
been introduced by SPECTRA[56], which demonstrated the capability for T cell state
deconvolution.
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To identify whether specific cell types consistently activate certain gene programs across PDAC
samples, we set out to identify a subset of lineage-specific high-confidence gene programs
found in both our discovery and validation datasets. We first employed the Hungarian
algorithm[57] on the gene program similarity matrix to match gene programs between the
discovery and validation groups. For example, in fibroblasts, nine out of ten candidate gene
programs were reproducible between discovery and validation, with strong consensus for the
top weighted genes (**Fig. 2A** and **Supplementary Fig. 2B**). Next, to remove redundant
programs, we merged validated reproducible gene programs with highly similar gene weights
(**Methods: Program extraction, Program validation, Program merge**). For example, we
merged two gene programs in B cells that were highly transcriptionally similar, both showing
high expression of *CD37* and *CD52* (**Supplementary Figure 2C**). Following this, we updated
gene program weights in single cells by fitting a linear relationship between the expression
explained by the gene programs before merging and the average program gene weights after
merging (**Methods**) and removed any gene programs likely corresponding to ambient RNA
programs contaminating[58] by examination of the top program markers (**Methods**). After applying
this procedure, we obtained 10 high-confidence gene programs present in both discovery and
validation in each of B cells, CD4 T cells, CD8 T/NK cells, fibroblasts, and myeloid dendritic
cells (mDCs), 20 in each of epithelial cells and macrophages/monocytes, and 5 in endothelial

cells (**Fig. 2B**). In total, we obtained 60 cell-lineage-specific gene programs that capture both the overall tumour microenvironment landscape and the granular phenotypic heterogeneity (**Fig. 2C**). Overall, our approach allowed us to discover and validate recurrent cell states in PDAC TMEs encompassing immune, epithelial, fibroblast and endothelial cells with high statistical confidence.

Fig. 2: Cell-lineage-specific gene programs reveal granular cell states present across PDAC samples. A, Gene weights correlations and Manhattan distances between candidate fibroblast specific gene programs extracted from the discovery group and the validation group. Columns (validation gene programs) are ordered according to best matching discovery-validation gene program pairs. **B,** Overview of numbers of candidate gene programs extracted from the discovery group (orange), numbers of gene programs validated between discovery and validation (blue), and numbers of consolidated gene programs after merging the redundant ones (green) in each cell lineage. **C,** Consolidated gene program sample-level loading weights. Each row is a different patient tumour sample; the left bar indicates patient cohort. The samples are grouped by discovery/validation. Each column is a cell lineage specific gene program labeled

according to cell state interpretation; the top bar and the third bar indicate sample-level gene

program loading variance means in discovery and validation respectively; the second bar and

the bottom bar indicate gene program loading mean variance between samples in discovery

and validation respectively (**Methods**). The heatmap denotes scaled loadings of each gene

program for each tumour sample, grouped by cell lineage indicated on the top. **D-F,** Heatmaps

showing weights of top ranked genes in selected gene programs from epithelial cells (**D**),

fibroblasts (**E**), and CD8 T/NK cells (**F**).

Interpretation of reproducible cell-lineage-specific programs as cellular states in

the PDAC microenvironment

To identify cell states positively associated with pro-tumorigenic or immune-suppressive TME

states, and distinguish new cell states from known ones, we contextualized the high-confidence

lineage-specific gene programs. For this we took a multi-faceted approach including manual

marker inspection, gene set enrichment analysis, and over-enrichment analysis (**Methods**).

Importantly, our unique discovery-validation setup that independently discovered reproducible

cell lineage-specific gene programs in multiple datasets confers high confidence on their

manifestation in patients.

In the epithelial compartment, we found gene programs that captured the refined existing PDAC

gene expression tumour subtypes (**Fig. 2D**). We found two distinct gene programs

corresponding to the Basal-like-B subtype, which from previous bulk analysis has been

considered a distinct subtype[35]. While enrichment analysis showed both Basal-like-B programs

upregulated epithelial-to-mesenchymal transition (EMT) genes (**Supplementary Fig. 3A-B**),

one program ("Basal-like-B - IL32") exhibited upregulation of *IL32*[59] which has previously been

found to be upregulated at the invasive tumour front. In contrast, the second Basal-B program

("Basal-like-B - EMT") showed high regulation of *S100A14*[60,61] that is linked to gemcitabine

resistance in mouse models of PDAC[60]. Importantly, these two Basal-B programs are present in

distinct subpopulations of tumour cells (**Supplementary Fig. 3C**). Interestingly, a MYC-targets

program, which links to metastasis and chemoresistance[62,63], was present in cells that were

different from those of the Basal-like related programs (**Supplementary Fig. 3D-F**), though

MYC-target genes are usually enriched in Basal-like tumours. We further found one novel

epithelial program marked by the long-noncoding gene *ZFAS1* (**Fig. 2D**).

We next examined the fibroblast compartment where multiple previous studies have separated

cells into distinct inflammatory and myofibroblastic cancer associated fibroblast populations

(iCAF and myCAF respectively). Here, we identified two inflammatory cancer associated

fibroblast (iCAF) cell states and two myofibroblastic CAF (myCAF) cell states for the first time

(**Fig. 2E**). One iCAF program ("classical pathway (CCP) iCAF") was showed strong upregulation

of the terminal mediator of the complement system, *C7*, and the classical pathway genes *C1S*

and *C1R*. Interestingly, the CCP-iCAF program was enriched for a neurotropic gene set

previously described in PDAC[5] (**Supplementary Fig. 4A**), which is linked to tumour growth,

stress adaptation, and metastasis[64]. The second iCAF gene program ("adhesive iCAF") was

highly enriched for an adhesion gene signature including strong upregulation of the gene

SERPINE1 that encodes for the protein plasminogen activator inhibitor-1 (*PAI-1*) (**Fig. 2E**). The

ACSL3-PAI-1 signaling axis was found to support PDAC progression, linked to fibrosis and

immunosuppression, and have prognostic value[65]. Indeed, we found the CCP iCAF program

and the adhesive iCAF program to be present in a mutually exclusive pattern across patients

within the dataset (**Supplementary Fig. 4C**). Two myCAF programs were identified based on

CAF subtype gene loadings in fibroblast gene programs (**Supplementary Fig. 4B**). The *TPM2*+

myCAF-1 program was highlighted by the high loading of *MIF*[55] (**Fig. 2E**). The *VMP1*+ myCAF-2

program was further identified in addition to the myCAF-1 program. Although VMP1 has been

associated with PanIN formation[66] and patient survival in pancreatic neuroendocrine tumours[67],

its role in PDAC CAFs is still unclear.

Given the emerging importance of T cell dynamics in the immune response to PDAC[68,69], we

next examined the CD8 T/NK cell compartment where we identified multiple cell states reflecting

known T and NK cell heterogeneity and sub-lineage gene programs. For example, we found a

CTLA4+/*CXCL13*+ exhaustion cell state, a GZMK+/CD27+ memory/transitional exhausted

program, and a PRF1+/FCGR3A+ effector cell state (**Fig. 2F**). Notably, loadings of the

CTLA4+/*CXCL13*+ exhaustion program and the effector program with low exhaustion marker

loadings in CD8 T cells were mutually exclusive (**Supplementary Fig. 5B**), suggesting

heterogeneity in the degree of anti-tumour immune effector function and exhaustion across

PDAC tumours.

Next we examined how known and *de* novo macrophage phenotypes were captured by distinct

gene expression programs. We identified two alternatively activated macrophage gene

programs. One alternative activated program showed high loading of *APOE* (**Supplementary**

Fig. 5C). It was shown in mouse model that *ApoE* induced *Cxcl1* and *Cxcl5* expression in

pancreatic tumour cells, promoting immune suppression[70]. Notably, lysosomal genes *CTSD*,

PSAP and *LIPA*, and phagocytosis/apoptotic cell-clearance gene *GPNMB* were some of the top

markers for this gene program, linking efferocytosis to immune suppression[71]. The other

alternatively activated program was marked by M2 genes *CD163*, *STAB1*, and *FOLR2*

(**Supplementary Fig. 5C**). An inflammation related macrophage program marked by high *IL1B*

and *NFKB1* loading was identified. While traditionally denoted as the M1 macrophages, recent

research has revealed a new role in pathogenetic inflammation and poor patient prognosis for

IL1B+ macrophages[46]. We also found an *SPP1*+ macrophage program, which has been

previously described to play an important role in angiogenesis, a much needed function in the

hypoxic PDAC TME[72–74]. One macrophage program enriched for *ISG15* and *MX1* was identified

as the interferon response program and had high loadings in a small population of cells
(**Supplementary Fig. 5C-E**). In a recent mouse model study, the dynamics of the interferon
pathway in PDAC is closely related to *CXCL13* production in macrophage, which affects B cell
and NK cell recruitment[75]. In short, our gene programs comprehensively captured the
transcriptional heterogeneity of the macrophage/monocyte lineage, encompassing classic
(M1/M2) and novel functional annotations.
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We obtained three notable gene programs in the B cell lineage. The germinal center (GC)
program is characterized by the specific and high loading of *BCL6* (**Supplementary Fig. 6A**), a
transcription factor critical for proliferation and the maintenance of the GC phenotype[76–78]. The B
cell activation program saw intermediate loading of *IL-6* and high loading activation marker
CD69 (**Supplementary Fig. 6A**). The MHC class I genes (*HLA-A*, *HLA-B*, and *HLA-C*)
specifically and heavily loaded in the antigen presentation (AP) program, while the MHC class II
genes (*HLA-DP*, *HLA-DQ*, and *HLA-DR*) were heavily loaded in both the AP program and the
GC program (**Supplementary Fig. 6B**). We did not find distinct loading pattern of plasma
markers (*IRF4*, *XBP1*, *PRDM1*, *MZB1*)[78] in any B cell program (**Supplementary Fig. 6C**),
suggesting fully differentiated plasma cells are relatively rare in the PDAC TME. Lastly, there
was no B cell lineage gene program showing specific or high loading of regulatory B cell
markers such as *IL-35* (*EBI3*)[77,79] (**Supplementary Fig. 6A**).
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Within the endothelial lineage, we identified a high endothelial venule (HEV) gene program, an
angiogenesis program, and an arterial gene program. The HEV program had specific and high
loadings of MHC class II genes[80] and vein-specifying transcription factor *NR2F2*[81]
(**Supplementary Fig. 6D, E**). The angiogenesis program had specific and high loadings of
ANGPTL2, *INSR*, and *TIE1*[82] (**Supplementary Fig. 6D**). The arterial program had high and/or
specific loadings of *CXCL12*[83], *VEGFC*, *HEY1*[84], arterial marker *EFNB2*, *DLL4*[85] and notch
signaling gene *NOTCH4*[86] (**Supplementary Fig. 6D, F**).
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In all cell lineages except for endothelial cells and mDCs, we detected a stress response
program marked by upregulated heat shock response proteins (**Supplementary Table 2**).
Stress response gene sets have traditionally been linked to low quality cells in scRNA-seq.
However, in a recent pan cancer study, Chu et. al.[87] identified a unique stress response state in
the tumour microenvironment of multiple cancer types, highlighted by heat shock response
protein *HSPA1A* and *HSPA1A* expression, which was enriched in nonresponsive tumours after
ICB treatment. This result suggests more analysis is needed to fully understand the biological
meaning of stress responses in the tumour microenvironment. Our programs recapitulated the
epithelial basal and classical subtypes[35,49], the macrophage activation heterogeneity[37,74], and
the diverging CAF subtypes[5,88]. The presence of previously described cell populations reinforces
our confidence in the newly identified cell state programs, particularly the CCP-iCAF program,

the B cell GC phenotype program, and epithelial *ZFAS1* program, which might have a role in
treatment response and clinical outcomes.
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Intra- and inter-tumoural heterogeneity in gene programs is highly consistent
Since intra- and inter-tumour heterogeneity is closely coupled with treatment resistance and
therapy response across cancers[6,33,89,90], we next investigated whether heterogeneity in the
granular cell states depicted by our gene programs was conserved between our discovery and
validation datasets. We calculated gene program inter-patient heterogeneity by taking the
variances for each program's single-cell loading medians in tumour samples. We summarized
gene program intra-patient heterogeneity by averaging loading variances in tumour samples for
each program. We found inter- and intra-patient program loading heterogeneity varied greatly
across cell types and within cell types (**Fig. 3A, B**). Gene programs of CD4 T cells, CD8 T/NK
cells, epithelial cells, and macrophages showed wide ranges of intra-patient heterogeneity
across patient cohorts (**Fig. 3B**). On the other hand, fibroblast, B cell, and mDC programs
showed more variable loadings in the tumours from the discovery datasets compared to those
from the validation datasets (**Fig. 3B**). Of note, endothelial cell programs were consistently and
highly variably loaded in tumours, suggesting the endothelial cell states are clearly
distinguished. Across cell types, we found inter-patient heterogeneity tended to agree between
the discovery and the validation datasets, except for CD4 T cell programs and macrophage
programs (**Fig. 3B**). In short, we showed in single-cell data for the first time that both intra- and
inter-patient cell state heterogeneity is highly conserved between discovery datasets and
validation datasets (intra-patient heterogeneity: ρ = 0.67, p = 1x10^{-08}, inter-patient heterogeneity:
ρ = 0.44, p = 0.00053). This suggests that the abundance of granular cell states within the TME
can serve as a robust estimate of heterogeneity and help guide target discovery efforts that
specifically attempt to cover the entire phenotypic space.
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Figure 3: Heterogeneity of gene program loading is highly consistent between and within individual patients. A, Spearman correlations of overall gene program loading heterogeneity. Each dot is one cell type specific program. Inter-patient heterogeneity (left) was calculated by first getting the program loading means in each sample, then computing the variance of sample level loading means in Discovery and Validation, respectively. Intra-patient heterogeneity (right) was calculated by first computing the program loading variances in each sample, then getting the mean of sample level loading variances in discovery and validation, respectively. **B**, Spearman correlations of gene program loading heterogeneity grouped by cell lineage. Each dot is one gene program.

Figure 4: Pairwise co-occurrences of cell states are highly reproducible across PDAC samples. A, Two examples of cell state program co-occurrence patterns. The program co-occurrence scores for each program pair are calculated in the discovery and the validation group separately for comparison between datasets. **B**, Program co-occurrence agreement between discovery and validation. Each dot denotes one gene program pair. Co-occurrence per program pair was measured as Spearman correlations between sample level loading means. **C**, Within cell type gene program co-occurrence agreement between discovery and validation. **D**, Across cell type gene program co-occurrence agreement between discovery and validation. **E-H,** Tumour sample level loading mean correlations between the adhesive iCAF gene program and other programs (**E**). Tumour sample level loading mean correlations between the CD8 T cell activation program and other programs (**F**). Tumour sample level loading mean correlations between the CD4 regulatory T cell gene program and other programs (**G**). Tumour sample level loading mean correlations between the GC B cell activation program and other programs (**H**). **I**, Gene programs ranked by co-occurrence agreement between discovery and validation. Programs whose co-occurrence patterns are more similar between discovery and validation have higher correlation of co-occurrence between discovery and validation. Asterisk signs denote gene programs whose co-occurrence with other programs is significantly correlated between discovery and validation.

Co-occurring granular cell states are highly reproducible in PDAC datasets

Next, to understand if granular cell-state co-occurrence can be robustly estimated from scRNA-
seq of the TME, we evaluated the extent to which both between and within cell type gene
program co-occurrence within individual tumours could be reproducibly quantified. We
computed co-occurrence of all possible gene program pairs at the patient level (N=1770 total,
Methods) using Spearman correlation separately in the discovery and the validation groups
(**Fig. 4A**). We quantified how consistent this co-occurrence by comparing the co-occurrence (i.e.
correlation in gene program presence) in discovery and validation settings, finding highly
concordant estimates (ρ=0.46, $p<2\times10^{-16}$) both gene programs within and between cell lineages
(**Fig. 4B**).

Next, we examined to what extent the reproducibility of cell state co-occurrence varies within
and between major cell lineages. We sought to compare co-occurrence of a cell state program
pair between discovery and validation. By filtering down to program pairs that are from the same
lineage or from different lineages, we were able to obtain an overview for the reproducibility
landscape. We found highest agreement between discovery-validation on within lineage co-
occurrence in fibroblasts (ρ=0.77) followed by monocyte/macrophage gene programs (ρ=0.59)
(**Fig. 4C**). Gene program co-occurrence within T cells, mDCs, and epithelial cells exhibited
lower but still highly significant co-occurrence between discovery and validation (ρ=0.37 to 0.5),
while endothelial cells and B cells lower (ρ=0.086 and 0.22 respectively). However, we noted
that while B cells showed lower correlation (ρ=0.22, p=0.54) between discovery and validation
patient cohorts, they both exhibited positive correlation in discovery (ρ=0.2-0.81) and validation
(ρ=0.38-0.8), demonstrating that the overall effect size was consistent (**Fig. 4C**).

Next, we examined the reproducibility of the co-occurrence of cell states across different cell
lineages. For example, for a given B cell gene program, we compute the average per patient,
and quantify the co-occurrence of this with the average-per-patient for a gene program in a
different lineage such as CD8 T cells. We found gene programs across all cell types exhibit
significantly reproducible co-occurrence, most notably once again in Fibroblasts (ρ=0.47),
Monocyte/Macrophage (ρ=0.49), and CD8 T cells (ρ=0.44) (**Fig. 4D**). Indeed, on a program-by-
program basis we found most have significantly reproducible inter-cell type co-occurrence
relationships (**Fig. 4I**).

We next focused on the co-occurrence of specific cell states that are either significantly
reproducible between discovery and validation or *a priori* known to hold clinical significance. The
co-occurrence of regulatory CD4 T cells and exhausted CD8 T cells in the PDAC
microenvironment was well known from mouse studies[69], but is yet to be elucidated in humans.

We show here for the first time that the CD4 T_{reg} program consistently and strongly co-occurred

with the CD8 T cell exhaustion program in patient tumours (**Fig. 4G**). Also, the CD4 T_{reg}

program co-occurred with the *CD163*+ alternatively activated macrophage program and the

endothelial angiogenesis state program marked by *TIE1*, *INSR*, and *NOTCH4*. This

angiogenesis program has been found to be an ECM remodeling and angiogenic signature in

lung and breast cancers[91,92] and likely interact with TAMs and regulatory T cells in breast cancer

to promote an immunosuppressive phenotype in the microenvironment[92]. This T_{reg}-T_{exh}-Mac_{alt}

co-occurrence pattern is spatially confirmed in multiple cancers[93], suggesting our cell state

program co-occurrence may be associated with spatial relationships in the PDAC.

The adhesive iCAF program significantly co-occurred with the endothelial HEV state and the

arterial state programs, as well as the CD8 T cell activation state program in the

microenvironment (**Fig. 4E**). We also found co-occurrence of the CCP iCAF program and the

MHC class II/cytokine program with the adhesive iCAF program. Together, this result suggests

multiple cell types in different states participate in the recruitment and activation of CD8 T cells

in the tumour (**Fig. 4F**). We further noted that the Naïve and memory CD4 T cell programs also

co-occurred with the adhesive iCAF program.

Finally, we investigated whether known multi-cellular structures in the TME were consistent with

our co-occurrence results. Specifically, we focused on Tertiary lymphoid structures (TLSs)

clusters of immune cells in the TME that when mature can lead to production of tumour-specific

antibodies and facilitate anti-tumour immune response. TLSs in PDAC are usually composed of

proliferating, activated, germinal center (GC) B cells, antigen presenting cells such as mature

dendritic cells, and T cells and have previously shown to be predictive of patient survival[77].

Therefore, we examined the co-occurrence pattern for our germinal center B cell program.

Indeed, we found the B cell activated and cycling programs are among the top within-lineage

programs that co-occur with the GC program (**Fig. 4H**). In addition, we found significant co-

occurrence ($\rho=0.3$ in the validation group) of the activation and memory program of CD8 T cell

programs with the GC B cells both in discovery and validation, along with mature and

plasmacytoid dendritic cells ($\rho=0.45$). These results suggest that in both our discovery and

validation datasets, TLS presence and phenotype could be read out from scRNA-seq.

Examination of the patient sample level loadings of the TLS related cell state programs

suggests variable presence of TLS in PDAC tumours (**Supplementary Fig. 7B, D**).

Overall, our results imply co-occurrence of granular cell states from scRNA-seq can be

meaningfully quantified from large scale atlases, and complex immune cell clusters can be

identified and characterized without the need for additional spatial transcriptomics or

proteomics.

A novel probabilistic model can infer recurrent cellular niches in PDAC microenvironments

Beyond the pairwise co-occurrence of cell states, cell niches play a fundamental role in the tumor microenvironment, as these multicellular populations often act in concert, and their function is highly synergistic[94]. For this reason, we asked whether it was possible to infer niches reproducibly from scRNA-seq. However, there are no existing computational tools to infer niches from scRNA-seq using a set of NMF factors with interpretations as input. Therefore, we developed a novel probabilistic model (see **Methods**) that can take annotated NMF factors representing cell states and infer a pre-defined number of niches, reporting each both in terms of the cell states that co-occur as well as the niche abundance within each patient sample. Importantly, our model carefully decouples the fact that cell states can co-vary within the same cell (intrinsic variation) but also between cells (extrinsic variation) (**Fig. 5A**). Using maximum a posteriori inference (**Methods**), we fitted the niche model separately on the discovery and validation groups using all the 60 cell state programs. We quantified n=4 niches, though found stable performance varying the number of niches from 2-5.

We first contrasted the niches found in the discovery and validation datasets to both validate the overall methodology and generalizability of the findings. We found significant positive correlation in 3/4 niches between discovery and validation (**Supplementary Fig. 7A**) and subsequently renamed the validated niche pairs as niches 1-3. Next, we interpreted the validated niches by examination of the abundance of cell states within each (**Fig. 5B**). Niche 1 contained an over-representation of Classical A and ductal epithelial programs, along with HEV, arterial, and angiogenesis endothelial cell state programs, the CCP and adhesive iCAF programs, the proliferation, resident, and *CD163*+ alternatively activated macrophage programs, and the memory CD8 T cell program, (**Fig. 5B**). Niche 2 is a Basal-like subtype related niche. Notable core members of Niche 2 include the myCAF-1 program, the epithelial MYC targets program, the epithelial Basal-like-A/EMT and Basal-like-B/EMT program, the *APOE*+ alternatively activated macrophage program, and the *SPP1*+ macrophage program (**Fig. 5B**). The *LAMP3*+ mature dendritic cell program was likely a core member of Niche 2 as well, albeit being slightly higher in the validation group. Niche 3 represented an immune activated niche, including an over-representation of cell states corresponding to classical monocytes, granulocytes, follicular mDCs, antigen presentation B cells, *CCR7*+ naïve/memory CD4 T cells, and CD8 effector T cells (**Fig. 5B**). Notably, the TLS related cell state programs discussed above were over-represented in Niche 3 as well.

We next examined whether niches corresponding to the basal/classical transcriptional subtypes showed overall mutual-exclusivity. We found the presence of classical and basal-like niches in individual tumour samples were significantly anti-correlated in both discovery and validation cohorts (ρ= -0.28 and -0.56 respectively) (**Fig. 5C**). We then scored 174 bulk RNA-seq PDAC

primary tumour samples from the Chan cohort[35] for our validated niches (**Methods**). The
presence of the Classical and the Basal-like niches were likewise anti-correlated in this sample
(ρ=-0.14, p=0.065) (**Fig. 5D**), though to a lesser degree likely reflecting the difficulty of scoring
bulk samples for niches of granular cell states. Notably, this anti-correlation was not simply
driven by basal-classical bulk calls (**Fig. 5D**). Together, these results hint at a gradual re-
modelling of the tumour microenvironment in line with disease progression, in later stage PDAC
the balance of expression subtypes converts towards basal[35].
504
Microenvironments from PDAC carrying specific KRAS mutations are associated with
distinct immunological niches
KRAS mutation is commonly used as a molecular marker to subdivide PDAC types. PDAC
carrying *KRAS*-G12D mutations are associated with poorer prognosis when circulating tumour
DNA is detected in patient blood[95], and strategies targeting specific *KRAS* neoantigens are
being developed[96]. However, the mechanisms through which different mutations affect the
microenvironment in human PDAC remains unclear. We investigated whether genomic driver
mutation status was associated with TME niche. We obtained *KRAS* variant calls for the HTAN
Zhou (WUSTL) patient dataset[4] in our validation cohort and fitted a linear mixed model between
niche presence and *KRAS* variant status (**Methods**). We found that compared to *KRAS*-G12D,
tumours with a *KRAS*-G12V/G12R mutations had a significantly higher presence of the immune
activated niche, while tumours with *KRAS*-G12R mutations had a reduced presence of the
basal-like niche (**Fig. 5E**). Importantly, we retrieved similar *KRAS* variant calls in the bulk Chan
patient cohort[35] and found consistent effect sizes for all associations (**Supplementary Fig. 7C**,
Supplementary Table 3), validating the overall findings. The decreased presence of the
immune activated niche in *KRAS*-G12D PDAC compared to other *KRAS* variants suggests
differences in anti-tumour immune response may underlie prognosis and effectiveness of
immunotherapy[95,96]. Together, these results suggest that the specific driver mutations in PDAC
have a significant effect on the phenotypes and cell communities in the tumour
microenvironment.

Figure 5: Novel cellular niches identified by a probabilistic model are associated with PDAC subtypes. A, Schematic of the Bayesian model for identifying multi-cell state niches in the tumour microenvironment and taking within-cell intrinsic cell state program covariance into consideration. The loss function includes an niche covariance term to encourage discovery of distinct niches. **B**, Cell state program loadings in niches identified in the discovery group and the validation group. The program loadings in the heatmap are normalized. **C**, Loadings of the Basal-like subtype related niche vs. loadings of the Classical subtype related niche in discovery (light blue) and validation (red). **D**, Niche enrichment scores in the RNA-seq samples of the Chan cohort. Each dot is one patient sample, colored by Moffitt subtypes. **E**, The relationships between KRAS variants and niche loadings in tumours.

Specific PDAC TME cell states and niches are correlated with clinical outcomes

After validating that cell states, gene programs and multicellular populations (niches) co-occur frequently across PDAC samples, we sought to investigate whether certain combinations of co-occurrent populations were more likely to be present in patients with positive or negative outcomes. To examine whether there was an association between our discovered cell states and niches with clinical covariates, we curated clinical and metadata for two cohorts of PDAC tumour samples with paired bulk RNA-seq data, which we refer to as the Chan cohort[35] (N=183 patients) and TCGA pancreatic cancer cohort[97] (N=151 patients). We scored each sample in each cohort by using gene set enrichment analysis on cell state program gene sets (**Methods**)[98] and subsequently associated each clinical variable (**Supplementary Table 4**) with the presence of each cell state in each patient.

We first confirmed that cell states corresponding to Basal-like and Classical expression subtypes were associated with their related niches (**Fig. 6A**). We further confirmed the Basal-like-A epithelial cell state and the Classical-A and Classical-A/B epithelial cell states were associated with the Basal-like and Classical subtypes[99] respectively (**Methods**) in both the Chan cohort and the TCGA cohort, with p < 0.001 (**Fig. 6E**).

In the Chan cohort, the B cell antigen presentation program, most T cell programs except the naïve and activation programs, alternatively activated macrophage programs, as well as the CAF programs, were significantly associated with higher histological grade (**Fig. 6E**). Such associations were however less clear in the TCGA cohort. In the epithelial lineage, we noted the Basal-like programs were linked to liver metastasis in TCGA, while the Basal-like-A/EMT program was associated with higher tumour grade in both TCGA and Chan. We further found that the Classical programs were associated with more differentiated tumours in Chan, while strongly negatively associated with liver metastasis in TCGA.

Next, we examined cell state program association with clinical outcomes. In the Chan cohort, the Basal-like-A/B/EMT programs, the myCAF-1/2 programs, the adhesive iCAF program, and the macrophage *SPP1+* program conferred significant survival risk (HR>1, p < 0.05). In the TCGA cohort, a previously undescribed epithelial program upregulating *ZFAS1*, *P4HA1*, and *EIF4A2*, the macrophage *SPP1+* program, and Basal-like-B/EMT and G2M epithelial programs conferred significant survival risk (HR>1, p<0.05) (**Fig. 6E**). Upon closer examination, the novel *ZFAS1/P4HA1* epithelial program predicted patient survival in both the TCGA cohort and the Chan cohort (**Fig. 6B**). The long non-coding RNA *ZFAS1* had been found to regulate EMT in colon adenocarcinoma[100] and promote metastasis and tumour cell proliferation in pancreatic cancer[101]. In breast cancer, *P4HA1* was shown to modulate cancer cell stemness and promote chemoresistance[102]. This novel epithelial cell state program had lower correlation with the

Basal-like niche (ρ =0.29, **Fig. 6C**) compared to the Basal-like-A program, while better

dichotomizing patient in terms of survival compared to the expression subtypes (**Fig. 6D**).

Finally, using the cell state program enrichment scores, we computed weighted enrichment

scores for the niches by summing the program scores weighted by respective program loading

in each niche. As both the Chan and the TCGA cohort recorded patient response to adjuvant

therapy, we examined the relationships between our niches and therapy responses.

Interestingly, the Basal-like niche was positively associated with progressive disease after

adjuvant therapy in both the Chan cohort (p<0.01) and the TCGA cohort (**Fig. 6E**), and more

associated with progressive disease than any individual cell state including all Basal related

tumour epithelial states. Similarly, the Basal-like niche was associated with higher tumour grade

in both patient cohorts. On the other hand, the immune activation niche was associated with

complete and partial remission in the TCGA cohort, as well as lower tumour grade and lower

likelihood for distant metastasis (**Fig. 6E**). Overall, we show that large scRNA-seq datasets can

be employed to not only identify cell populations and cell niches with high confidence, but that

these have profound biological and clinical significance, as the frequency of co-occurrence of

certain cell states and the presence of certain cell niches are associated with patient survival

rates. These analyses suggest that in the future, scRNA-seq datasets will be used to study the

broad interplay among pro-tumorigenic cell populations in the tumour microenvironment. This

approach may eventually expand the clinical usability of single cell data, offering a new lens to

develop innovative therapeutic strategies targeting PDAC.

Figure 6: A novel epithelial program predicts shorter survival time. A, Niche vs. cell state program enrichment scores in tumour RNA-seq samples. Correlation coefficients were calculated by patient cohort. **B**, The *ZFAS1*/*P4HA1* epithelial program dichotomized patients in the Chan cohort (left) and the TCGA cohort (right). Program associations to clinical variables in the Toronto patient cohort and the TCGA cohort. **C**, Enrichment scores of the *ZFAS1*/*P4HA1* epithelial program vs. the Basal-like niche in Chan patients. **D**, Dichotomization of patient survival by expression subtypes in the TCGA PDAC cohort. **E**, Clinical associations of the lineage specific cell state programs and the niches. The two leftmost columns of the heatmap show (Hazard Ratio – 1) in the Chan and the TCGA cohort respectively for each program and niche from fitting univariate CoxPH models. The other columns of the heatmap show fitted coefficients for each program and niche using linear regression. '*': p-value < 0.05; '**': p-value < 0.01, '***': p-value < 0.001 (all Benjamini-Hochberg FDR corrected).

Discussion

Transcriptome profiling of tumour samples has historically been used to identify molecular markers that could facilitate cancer diagnosis, prognosis prediction and identification of molecular candidates to target therapeutically[103–106]. The advent of single cell technologies has

facilitated the identification of the relative distribution of cell populations specific for certain

cancer types, predicting clinical outcomes and uncovering specific cellular subtypes as

targets[107–110]. However, it is becoming increasingly clear that focusing on the expression pattern

of a handful of genes or the presence/absence of certain cell populations is not sufficiently

informative to gain useful biological insights into the whole tumour microenvironments, even

though this information could be leveraged to design targeted therapies aimed at tackling the

combined action of multiple cell types. In this context, spatial information is extremely useful to

identify co-localization of different cell types, whose crosstalk requires a certain three-

dimensional organization to synergistically alter tumour growth and survival. However, a

substantial number of samples are needed to robustly identify co-occurrence of interacting cells

across patients, especially considering that the cell states of interest are potentially rare.

Therefore, the current cost and/or limitations of spatial transcriptomics and proteomics limit the

identification of reproducible co-existing cell states with prognostic value[23]. By contrast, the

number of scRNAseq datasets from tumor microenvironments that contain transcriptome-wide

expression quantification at single-cell resolution is increasing exponentially, allowing, in theory,

to identify co-occurrence of granular cell states and associate them with clinical outcomes.

Here we have undertaken a unique discovery-validation analysis on the largest PDAC scRNA-

seq atlas to-date to quantify the extent to which granular cell states and cellular niches can be

reliably inferred. Our 60 reproducible cell lineage specific cell states captured previously known

heterogeneity such as classical and basal tumour transcriptional but also novel cell states such

as two iCAF subtypes as well as a novel *ZFAS1*/*P4HA1* epithelial cell state significantly

associated with survival. We further revealed for the first time that co-occurrence of granular cell

states can be reproducibly quantified from large scRNA-seq datasets. We further identified a

TLS pattern centered around the GC B cell program, recapitulating a spatial structure important

for anti-tumour immune response in multiple cancers including PDAC[111]. Finally, we introduced

a new model for inferring niches in TME and found reproducible niches associated with both

driver gene status as well as patient response to therapy.

Despite these findings, our study had multiple limitations. The lack of paired spatial proteomic

data prevented association of the inferred cell type co-occurrence with specific spatial tumour

architectures that have previously been shown to be predictive of survival in other cancer

types[13,19,112]. We are confident that future technological advances in proteomics and

transcriptomics[113] will lead to an increase in spatially profiled samples with high resolution that

will first be used to validate our approach based on scRNAseq data, and will then serve as

discovery platforms. In addition, while our discovery group was well balanced between four

datasets, the validation cohort was heavily weighted towards one patient cohort, which may

have limited the cell state program validation process though we note that, since there was no

overlap in samples, it still functions as a well-powered validation cohort. Our pipeline would

anyway accommodate for the inclusion of additional scRNAseq atlases of PDAC samples in the
future that could be used as discovery or validation cohorts. Finally, the lack of well-
standardized and curated clinical metadata across the single-cell cohorts limited the ability to
directly associate cell states and niches with clinical covariates, instead necessitating mapping
them to bulk datasets with standardized metadata.
661

Moving forward, we identified several venues to extend the project. Future spatial profiling of the
PDAC microenvironment at cellular resolution in large cohorts will help to create a more
comprehensive understanding of the cell state co-occurrence related to therapy resistance and
disease progression. Integrating T cell receptor (TCR) or B cell receptor (BCR) sequencing
analysis will help to delineate relationships between lymphocyte clonality with functional cell
states, potentially revealing specific anti-tumour T cell clones and effects of therapy on the
tumour immune cell population. In the long term, our analysis workflow may be adapted to
multiple cancer types, leveraging the ever-increasing tumour single-cell data space to create a
pan-cancer microenvironment cell state atlas, and identifying clinically relevant cell states
across cancers. The increasing characterization of the tumour microenvironment at single-cell
level will enable the identification of concomitant presence of multicellular niches in various
types of cancer. Our approach unlocks a new way to analyse scRNAseq data that will not only
facilitate prognosis and assessment of therapeutic response, but will provide valuable
information to design specific therapies aimed at rewiring the milieu compatible with the co-
existence of pro-tumorigenic cell states and niches.
677

Methods

Data curation

A total of 8 publicly available PDAC single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) datasets, which include 214 samples, were curated[4,35–40,52]. Most datasets were available for downloading through the Gene Expression Omnibus database. One dataset was available on author consent, in which case we contacted the authors for permission. Each dataset contains varying types of samples. We excluded samples which are of the following nature: metastasis, normal pancreas, peripheral blood, and adjacent normal tissue. In total, 163 samples labeled as primary PDAC tumour were retained for downstream analysis.

After sample filtering, we performed in house pre-processing and quality control given all datasets were available in the CellRanger output format. Doublet scores for single cells were calculated and their doublet status was called using doubletFinder_v3 from DoubletFinder v.2.0.3[114]. Cells labeled as doublets were removed from each sample. After doublet removal, cells with mitochondrial RNA content percentage greater than 20%, detected number of genes lower than 500, and total transcript counts lower than 1000 were removed as low quality cells. Finally, the UMI counts were normalized by per-cell size factor and log2-transformed with logNormCounts from scuttle v.1.8.4[115].

Cell annotation unification

We performed re-annotation to unify the cell annotation in each patient cohort in our curated dataset. First, we obtained a single-cell PDAC atlas built from divergent and heterogeneous datasets[7]. The 'celltype2' annotation from the atlas was selected as the reference labels after comparison of resolution and quality of all annotation levels in the atlas. Then, we performed unbiased cell type recognition at the single cell level using SingleR from SingleR v.2.0.0[116]. Briefly, SingleR first trains a classifier on the PDAC atlas reference dataset with reference labels by leveraging differential expression between labels, then the labels were assigned to each single cell in the query dataset using the classifier combined with iterative fine-tuning. We ran SingleR for each patient cohort in the curated dataset independently with the following settings: excluding ribosomal and mitochondrial genes in the reference, selecting top $500 * (2/3)^{log_2(N)}$ (N = # unique genes) DE genes with ranking by log-fold change, aggregating the reference into pseudo-bulk samples with default settings, and enabling fine-tuning with default settings. After annotation by SingleR, quality checks were performed by examining the SingleR predicted scores for each label in single cells in each cohort, the distribution of delta between assigned label score and median score across labels, and the distribution of scores for each label (**Supplementary Fig. 1C**). Final validation was done by examining known cell type marker expressions in each assigned cell type. Finally, the SingleR pruned.label column was selected and cell type labels were assigned as the unified annotation for single cells. To facilitate

716 downstream analysis, endocrine cells and neural cells were removed from the curated dataset,
717 and acinar and ductal cells were both labeled as epithelial cells. The eight consolidated cell type
718 labels were then shortened for readability.
719

Discovery-Validation data split

We first subset the full curated dataset by cell annotation, splitting it into eight cell type subsets:
Epithelial cell, Endothelial cell, Fibroblast, Monocyte/Macrophage, mDC, CD4 T cell, CD8 T/NK
cell, and B cell. We then split each cell type subset into two 4-cohort groups, one as the
discovery group and the other as the validation group. The discovery group contained 74
samples from the Peng, Steele, Werba, and Chan patient cohorts, while the validation group
contains 89 samples from the Chen, Lee, Lin, and Zhou patient cohorts. In total, the discovery-
validation split resulted in eight discovery-validation pairs of cell type subsets, with each pair
containing single cells assigned to one cell type.
729

Reproducible analysis pipeline

731 We built a comprehensive analysis pipeline to generate reproducible results from our curated
732 dataset and reduce human-introduced variations in analyses across the cell types and between
733 the discovery group and the validation group. We used Snakemake v.7.25.0[117] for parameter
734 and input-output control for all analysis scripts and visualization steps.
735

Defining a set of robust lineage-specific cell state gene programs

We carried out integrative NMF (iNMF) using LIGER[53] for the discovery and validation group of
patient cohorts across cell types independently to generate cell lineage-specific gene programs
that capture the phenotypic heterogeneity within each cell type in the PDAC microenvironment.
LIGER runs iNMF to decompose the expression matrices from multiple batches (patient
cohorts) and remove batch effect at the same time by maximizing a basis matrix shared
between cohorts while minimizing the multiple cohort-specific basis matrices that represent
patient cohort level biases. We defined the batches to be patient cohorts to focus on capturing
heterogeneity present across tumours through cell lineage-specific programs. We followed the
suggested workflow of LIGER to perform iNMF. Importantly, the following steps were performed
after the discovery-validation split as well as an 8-way cell type split within the discovery and the
validation group, leading to 16 independent gene program extraction steps, 8 independent
program validation steps, and 8 independent program merging steps.
749

Program extraction

First, we selected variable genes from non-ribosomal/mitochondrial protein-coding genes using
selectGenes from rliger v.1.0.0[53] with default settings. We then created a liger object using the
raw counts matrix, removed genes with zero expression, and normalized and scaled gene
expression following suggested workflow from rliger documentation before performing a subset

to the variable genes. Finally, after subsetting variable genes, we fitted iNMF on the expression

matrix using optimizeALS. We set rank (k) to 20, 10, 5, 10, 10, 20, 10, and 10 for program

extraction from epithelial cell, fibroblast, endothelial cell, CD4 T cell, CD8 T/NK cell,

monocyte/macrophage, mDC, and B cell respectively. We set lambda to 5 for all cell types as

we did not find it to be a major factor affecting extraction results. The gene loadings in each

program were obtained as the W matrix from the fitted liger object, and the program loadings in

single-cells were obtained as the H.norm matrix from the fitted liger object.

Program validation

Our program validation process was performed between discovery and validation for each cell

type. To start, we transformed the discovery and validation gene loading (W) matrix with log1p

in R. We then computed the spearman correlation and Minkowski distance (with p = 1) between

all possible pairs of discovery and validation programs within the cell type. The Hungarian

algorithm was used to generate a one-to-one relationship between discovery and validation

programs by permuting the rows of the distance and correlation matrices to minimize and

maximize the trace of the matrices respectively. After assigning the one-to-one partner of each

discovery program, we rejected any discovery programs whose gene loading correlation with

their validation program partner was below 0.5, or if the gene loading distance with their

validation program partner was above 25,000. We further confirm validated programs by

permutation test. Gene loadings in each validated program were permuted to generate a 1000-

sample test set and the correlation and distance to the validation program partner were

calculated for fitting a null distribution. A discovery program is finalized as a validated program if

the real distance and correlation are laid beyond 1% of the null distribution.

Program merge

We collapsed validated programs which were too similar to each other given NMF does not

guarantee orthogonality between the extracted factors. We looked at all possible pairs of

validated programs within each cell type and marked any pair whose gene loading correlation

was above 0.4 for merging. The merging step leveraged simple linear models. For a pair of

validated programs, e.g. sig-1 and sig-2, marked for merging, we first computed their explained

expression y by multiplying program loading in cell and gene loading in program respectively.

Then, we obtained the merged program's gene loading x by taking the mean of gene loadings in

sig-1 and sig-2. Finally, the single-cell loading of the merged program was obtained by fitting

$lm(y \sim 0 + x)$ and pulling the coefficients. After merging, the newly merged program was

included for downstream analysis while sig-1 and sig-2 were excluded.

Program rescoring in the validation group

Using the robust set of validated and merged cell type specific programs, we rescored the

validation group single cells to get single-cell program loadings that can be compared with

program loadings in the discovery group in downstream analysis. The rescoring step was
performed for each cell type and each patient cohort independently, leading to 32 rescoring
steps.
797
To start, gene expression in a validation group patient cohort was normalized using
runSeuratNormalizeData from singleCellTK v.2.8.0[118] with default settings. Then, for rescoring
for programs of, for example, cell type A, we subset an expression matrix to cells annotated as
cell type A and variable genes used in the program extraction step. Finally, we performed non-
negative least squares to fit a simple linear model to the subset validation expression with cell
type A program gene loadings, and pulled out the estimated optimal coefficient matrix as the
rescored program loading in single-cells in validation. We used fcnnls from NMF v.0.26[119] with
default settings for this step.
806

Program contextualization with known cell states
We combined multiple approaches to get a comprehensive understanding of the biological
meaning of our validated cell type-specific programs. We curated multiple PDAC focused
malignant, stromal, and immune cell state marker lists from literature (**Supplementary Table 4**).
To associate the programs with the known cell states, we selected the top 50 loaded genes of
each program and performed a hypergeometric test with the cell state marker lists from its
respective cell type, using GeneOverlap v.1.34.0[120] in R. The human reference hg19 genome[121]
was used as the background for significance testing. We made a preliminary biological
interpretation of the programs based on significance (P-value < 1e-3) and high Jaccard index
with cell state marker lists. Then, the programs were further subjected to GO and KEGG
overrepresentation analysis using the clusterProfiler v.4.6.2 package[122]. Specifically, the
biological process subcategory of GO and KEGG PATHWAY gene sets were chosen for the
analysis. The top ten enriched gene sets in each category were used to help correct or confirm
our initial program interpretation. After the first correction, we also applied GSEA to the
programs with gene sets mined from the Curated Cancer Cell Atlas (3CA)[123] to resolve any
remaining uncertainty. We ran fgsea from fgsea v.1.24.0[124] with default settings, while setting
nPermSimple to 10,000, as suggested by the documentation. We used the top 10 positively
enriched 3CA gene programs to guide a second program interpretation correction step.
Programs that were not associated with known cell states previously were further characterized
after this analysis. Finally, we completed a manual check across programs by looking at the top
10 loaded genes, focusing on the programs that were yet to be contextualized and searching in
the literature for novel evidence of their biological meaning in PDAC. Any novel programs
remained were named by their top loaded genes.
830

Ambient RNA program removal

Due to technical limitation of droplet-based single-cell RNA-seq experiments, some reads associated with a cell barcode may originate from ambient RNA[58], contributing to background noises that are picked up by the granular cell state gene programs. Therefore, we denoted gene programs in a cell lineage that are marked by lineage markers from other lineages to be ambient RNA programs and removed such ambient programs from downstream analysis.

Cell state co-occurrence

To study co-occurrence between programs in the PDAC microenvironment, we constructed sample level program loading profiles by averaging program loadings across single-cells. We then calculated the correlation across samples between programs both within cell type and across cell types. By comparing program loading correlations between the discovery group and the validation group, we define program pairs whose loading correlation was above 0.4 and differed by less than 0.25 in discovery and validation as high confidence pairs that tend to co-occur with each other.

Scoring RNA-seq samples for cell state programs and niches

To score bulk PDAC tumour samples for our cell state gene programs, we performed gene set variation analysis (GSVA) on each bulk sample using gsva from GSVA[125] ver. 1.46.0, with the top-50 loaded genes in each gene programs, and used the program enrichment scores or downstream analysis. To score bulk PDAC tumour samples for our niches, we performed multiplication between the sample-by-program enrichment score matrix and the program-by-niche niche abundance matrix, to obtain a sample-by-niche enrichment score matrix.

Association between niches and KRAS variants

KRAS variant information was obtained from published data and from collaborators. To account for the patient-repeated measurements in the Chan cohort, we fitted a linear mixed model with the *lmerTest* package in R with the KRAS mutation status as the fixed effect and the patient as the random effect. For the TCGA cohort to estimate effect of KRAS variant on niche enrichment scores we used a simple linear model while controlling for the expression subtype (Basal-like or Classical) of the tumour.

Cell state co-occurrence niches discovery model

To further dissect the relationships between programs, we created a statistical model to deconvolve program co-occurrence and discover multi-cellular population niches.

When considering why programs are (anti-) correlated in single-cells, there can be two reasons. Firstly, within single cells, programs may be correlated due to gene regulation, epigenetics, etc.

We defined correlations resulting from these mechanisms cell intrinsic program correlations.

Secondly, within patients, cells with a high program of one type may be present with (or

exclude) cells with a different program. This could be due to paracrine signaling. We defined

these correlations cell extrinsic program correlations. If, for example, there is positive correlation

between loading of two programs only at the patient level, but not at the single cell level, then

the correlation is dominated by cell extrinsic program correlation, and vice versa for cell intrinsic

program correlation. We note that in both scenarios, the overall correlation between the

programs is the same, even if the mechanisms and interpretation are different. So, it is

important to distinguish the two types of correlation in our model.

Model data definition

We start by defining L as the number of niches we want to get, C as the number of cell types, N

as the total number of cells, K as the total number of cell state programs, and P as the total

number of patient samples. Therefore, we have:

$$\text{The set of all cell types: } \boldsymbol{C} = \{C_1, C_2, C_3, \dots, C_c\}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{C} K_{C_i} = K$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{C} N_{C_i} = N$$

$$\text{The set of all patients: } \boldsymbol{P} = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, P\}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{C} P_{C_i} = P$$

$$0 < P_{C_i} < P \quad \forall\, C_i \in \boldsymbol{C}$$

Then, for each cell type C_i, we have K_{C_i} programs across N_{C_i} single-cells, and each single-cell

belongs to one of P_{C_i} patients.

Next, we define some cell-type-specific variables. For each cell type C_i, we have a matrix $\boldsymbol{Y}_{C_i}$

storing the cell state program loadings in single-cells:

894
$$\boldsymbol{Y}_{C_i} = \begin{pmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} & \cdots & y_{1K_{C_i}} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} & \cdots & y_{2K_{C_i}} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ y_{N_{C_i}1} & y_{N_{C_i}2} & \cdots & y_{N_{C_i}K_{C_i}} \end{pmatrix}$$

896   In $\boldsymbol{Y}_{C_i}$ each row represent one K_{C_i}-dimensional vector for a single-cell. This vector stores the

897   loadings of each cell state program for cell type C_i in the cell. Of note, each single-cell is

898   assigned to one cell type only, and thus only shows up in one of the $\boldsymbol{Y}_{C_i}$ matrices.

900   To further indicate the patient sample each single-cell belongs to, we introduce a sample

901   indicator vector for each cell type C_i:

902
$$\boldsymbol{x}_{C_i} = \left(x_1, x_2, x_3, \ldots, x_{N_{C_i}}\right) \text{ where } x_i \in \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, P_{C_i}\} \ \forall i \in \{1, 2, 3, \ldots, N_{C_i}\}$$

Model parameter definition

We first introduce the niche parameters by defining:

1. The niche loading matrix $\boldsymbol{H} = (h_{ij})_{P \times L}$

2. The niche basis matrix $\boldsymbol{W} = (w_{ij})_{L \times K}$

3. The patient level program loading estimate matrix considering extrinsic covariance $\boldsymbol{\Phi} =$

$(\phi_{ij})_{P \times K} = \boldsymbol{H} \times \boldsymbol{W}$

Where each row w_l of $\boldsymbol{W}$ is a K-dimensional vector of program weights in niche l, and each row

h_p of $\boldsymbol{H}$ is an L-dimensional vector of niche weights in sample p.

With the niche related parameters defined, we introduce:

1. The patient level program loading estimate matrix considering intrinsic + extrinsic

covariance $\boldsymbol{M} = (\mu_{ij})_{P \times K}$

2. The cell-type-specific patient level program loading sub-matrices $\boldsymbol{M}_{C_i} = \boldsymbol{M}_{1:P, j_{C_i} : j_{C_i} + K_{C_i}}$

Where j_{C_i} is the index for the first program of cell type C_i in $\boldsymbol{M}$, specifically:

918
$$j_{C_1} = 0$$

919
$$j_{C_i} = j_{C_{i-1}} + K_{C_{i-1}} \ \forall i \in \{2, 3, 4, \ldots, C\}$$

921   We lastly explicitly define, for each cell type C_i, the cell intrinsic program covariance matrix as:

922
$$\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{intrinsic_{C_i}} = \begin{pmatrix} Var(program_1) & \cdots & Cov(program_1, program_{K_{C_i}}) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ Cov(program_{K_{C_i}}, program_1) & \cdots & Var(program_{K_{C_i}}) \end{pmatrix}$$

Model definition

926   First, we let

927
$$\boldsymbol{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) \quad where$$

928
$$\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^k, \boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^k, \boldsymbol{\Sigma} = (\sigma_{ij})_{k \times k}$$

929   We then consider cell extrinsic and intrinsic program correlations separately.

931   Cell extrinsic program correlations are correlations in the means of the program loadings for

932   each patient. We thus introduce P mean vectors $\boldsymbol{\mu}_p$ (one $\boldsymbol{\mu}_p$ per patient) that are each K-

933   dimensional and encode the mean program loading of patient p. Of note, Then, we can write:

934
$$\boldsymbol{\mu}_p \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_p, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{extrinsic})$$

Here, $\boldsymbol{\phi}_p$ is the prior on the patient mean program loading, and $\Sigma_{extrinsic}$ is the program by

program $K \times K$ covariance matrix of cell extrinsic program correlations.

Cell intrinsic program correlations are the correlation of the programs conditioned on the mean

program loadings of each patient. We thus introduce N cell level program loading vectors $\boldsymbol{y}_{n_{C_i}}$

that are each K_{C_i}-dimensional and encode the program loadings for cell n_{C_i} where $C_i \in \boldsymbol{C}$.

Therefore, we can write:

$$\boldsymbol{y}_{n_{C_i}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{x_{n_{C_i}}}, \Sigma_{intrinsic_{C_i}})$$

Here, $x_{n_{C_i}}$ selects the patient sample corresponding to cell n, so $\boldsymbol{\mu}_{x_{n_{C_i}}}$ corresponds to the mean

program loadings of the patient corresponding to cell n_{C_i}. $\Sigma_{intrinsic_{C_i}}$ is the $K \times K$ covariance

matrix that denotes the program correlation after conditioning on the patient means. Using

Gaussians allows us to interpret the total covariance as the sum of the intrinsic and extrinsic

covariance, i.e. $\Sigma_{total_{C_i}} = \Sigma_{extrinsic} + \Sigma_{intrinsic_{C_i}}$.

Together, we can write the hierarchical model:

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}_p \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 10) \; \forall p \in \boldsymbol{P}$$

951 $$\Sigma_{intrinsic_{C_i}} \sim InverseWishart(\cdot) \; \forall C_i \in \boldsymbol{C}$$

952 $$\Sigma_{extrinsic} \sim InverseWishart(\cdot)$$

953 $$\boldsymbol{\mu}_p \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\phi}_p, \Sigma_{extrinsic})$$

954 $$\boldsymbol{y}_{n_{C_i}} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}_{x_{n_{C_i}}}, \Sigma_{intrinsic_{C_i}})$$

955 Here,

$$\boldsymbol{\Phi} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\phi}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\phi}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\phi}_P \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\mu}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\mu}_P \end{bmatrix} \quad \boldsymbol{Y}_{C_i} = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{y}_1 \\ \boldsymbol{y}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{y}_{n_{C_i}} \end{bmatrix}$$

Target function

The target function of the model:

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Phi}, \boldsymbol{M} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}) \propto \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{H}, \boldsymbol{M}, \Sigma \mid \boldsymbol{Y}) \propto \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{Y} \mid \boldsymbol{M}, \Sigma) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{M} \mid \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{H}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{W}) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{H}) \mathbb{P}(\Sigma)$$

The joint posterior is then:

$$\mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{\Phi}, \boldsymbol{M} \mid \boldsymbol{Y}) \propto \left(\prod_{i=1}^{C} \mathbb{P}(\Sigma_i) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{Y}_i \mid \boldsymbol{M}, \Sigma_i) \right) \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^{P} \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{M} \mid \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{H}_i) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{H}_i) \right) \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^{L} \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{W}_i) \right) \propto$$

$$\left(\prod_{i=1}^{C} \prod_{n=1}^{N_i} \mathbb{P}(\Sigma_i) \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{Y}_n \mid \boldsymbol{M}_{x_n}, \Sigma_i) \right) \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^{P} \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{M} \mid \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{H}_i) \cdot \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{H}_i) \right) \cdot \left(\prod_{i=1}^{L} \mathbb{P}(\boldsymbol{W}_i) \right)$$

To encourage the model to find more distinct niches, we add an orthogonality term to the model
target function. The upper triangular matrix of the transpose cross product of the niche basis
matrix W is used to calculate a mean as a proxy for niche similarity. This term is weighted by a
hyperparameter λ and minimized in the target function. Therefore, using maximum a posteriori
inference, we maximize the new target function including the log joint posterior and the
orthogonality term:

971
$$\sum_{i=1}^{C}\left(log\mathbb{P}(\Sigma_i) + \sum_{n=1}^{N_i} log\mathbb{P}(Y_n \mid M_{x_n}, \Sigma_i)\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{P}(log\mathbb{P}(M \mid W, H_i) + log\mathbb{P}(H_i)) + \sum_{i=1}^{L} log\mathbb{P}(W_i) +$$

972
$$\lambda \cdot Mean(upper\_tri(W^\top W))$$

Data preparation for the niche discovery model

975 To increase the power of our model, we removed patient samples which contained fewer than
976 20 single-cells. To speed up the inference process, we sampled down each patient sample to
977 1500 single-cells. For each cell state programs, we scaled the program loadings in single-cells
978 across all cells to get z-scores as input to the model.

Model initialization and optimization

We coded the niche discovery model using the statistical programing language Stan. We used
cmdstan_model from the R package cmdStanR ver. 0.5.3[126] to compile the model. Then, we
used optimize from cmdStanR to initialize and fit the model to our data, with settings:
algorithm="lbfgs", tol_param=1e^{-7}, and iter=8000. The model parameters were initialized as
specified below.

Model initialization was provided for $\Sigma_{intrinsic}$ for each cell type and for W and H. We performed
NMF on the sample level cell state program loading mean matrix with rank=L to obtain the initial
values of the niche matrices. Covariance between program loadings within respective cell types
were input as the initial values of $\Sigma_{intrinsic}$.

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Data and code availability

All data and code required to reproduce this study can be found at
https://zenodo.org/records/13332977 and https://github.com/camlab-
bioml/PDAC_cellular_niche_analyses.

Contributions

Project conception: CY, KC. Data curation: CY, SG, TTJ, AZ. Data analysis and coding: CY,
MG, SG, GHJ, TTJ, AZ. Result interpretation and manuscript writing: CY, KC. Project direction:
GO, FN, KC.

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Supplemental figures

Supplementary Figure 1. A, Bar plots showing the number of cells in each primary tumour
sample before quality control (blue), after doublet removal (green), and after doublet removal
and quality filtering (red). Each panel shows samples in one patient cohort. **B**, Cell type

1020 information fields in the PDAC single cell atlas used as reference for in house annotation. **C**,
1021 Violin plots showing score distributions for each cell type label in the Steele patient cohort.
1022

1023
1024 **Supplementary Figure 2. A**, Cell lineage specific gene programs extraction by iNMF. The
1025 schematic shows the extraction process. **B**, Top 10 loaded genes in the discovery and
1026 validation fibroblast programs. **C**, Top 10 loaded genes in the validated B cell programs
1027 extracted from B cells in the discovery group.
1028

1029

1030 **Supplementary Figure 3. A**, GSEA of 3CA gene programs in the epithelial cell gene program
1031 characterized as Basal-like-A/EMT. **B**, GO enrichment analysis in the epithelial cell gene
1032 program characterized as Basal-like-A/EMT. **C**, Raw loadings of epithelial gene programs in
1033 single cells in the discovery group. **D-F**, Loadings of selected epithelial cell state programs in
1034 single-cells from the discovery group.

1035

1036

1037　**Supplementary Figure 4. A**, Gene set overlap analysis between the top 50 genes of fibroblast

1038　programs and published fibroblast cell state marker gene lists for PDAC. **B**, Selected gene

1039　weights in fibroblast programs. **C**, Raw loadings of fibroblast gene programs in single cells in the

1040　Discovery group.

1041

1042

1043　**Supplementary Figure 5. A**, GSEA of 3CA gene programs in the CD8 T cell gene program

1044　characterized as exhaustion/interferon response. **B**, Program loadings in the CD8 T cells. **C**,

1045　Loadings of the top 10 weighted genes in each macrophage program. **D**, Raw loadings of

1046　macrophage gene programs in single cells in the Discovery group. **E**, Selected gene weights in

1047　macrophage programs.

1048

1049
1050 **Supplementary Figure 6. A-C**, Selected gene weights in B cell programs. **D-F**, Selected gene
1051 weights in endothelial cell programs.
1052

Supplementary Figure 7. A, Correlations between the program weights in each niche between
the discovery and the validation. Each cell shows the correlation between the niche pair. The
dotted lines in each cell denote 0 correlation. The boxes in each cell shows the correlation
(middle line) and 95% confidence interval (top and bottom of box). **B and D**, Loadings of the
TLS related programs in the discovery patient samples (**B**) and in the validation patient samples
(**D**). **C**, T-statistics from linear regression models fitting relationships between KRAS variants
and niche loadings in bulk RNA-seq tumour samples.

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