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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, SAN DIEGO

Histone demethylase LSD1: Connecting developmental signals, chromatin, and cell response

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of
Philosophy

in

Biomedical Sciences

by

Nicholas Kyle Vinckier

Committee in charge:

Professor Maïke Sander, Chair
Professor Sylvia Evans
Professor Lawrence Goldstein
Professor Karl Willert
Professor Eugene Yeo

2017

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Chair

University of California, San Diego

2017

DEDICATION

I would first like to dedicate this dissertation to my incredible wife, Gwendolyn, who has been impossibly patient during my studies and in all aspects of our lives together.

I truly would not have been able to do this without your unwavering support.

Thank you for believing in me, especially when my confidence faltered.

You are my world.

To Mom and Dad, thank you for raising me to be a scientist and for always letting me ask questions, even when it annoyed you, you hid it well.

To my sister, Erin, the first Dr. Vinckier, thank you for putting up with me growing up and for the awesome nephew and niece. I hope science helps make the world better for Joey and Sami.

To all my friends, thank you for keeping me grounded and helping me balance work and play; and to my crazy dog, Moose, whose smile never failed to brighten my day.

And to Dan, whose infectious love of science instilled within me a renewed passion for research.

We miss you, buddy.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AA	Activin A
Cre	Cre-recombinase
CreER TM	Cre-recombinase-Estrogen receptor fusion protein
DE	Definitive endoderm
DNA	Deoxyribonucleic acid
LSD1 ^{early}	Early LSD1 inhibition
PP1	Early pancreatic progenitors
EN	Endocrine cell stage
EGF	Epidermal growth factor
FSC-A	Forward scatter area
GFP	Green fluorescent protein
HOXA1	Homeobox A1
HOXB1	Homeobox B1
HOXC4	Homeobox C4
hESC	Human embryonic stem cell
hPSC	Human pluripotent stem cell
ITS	Insulin-transferrin-selenium
KGF	Keratinocyte growth factor
LSD1 ^{late}	Late LSD1 inhibition
PP2	Late pancreatic progenitors
LSD1	Lysine-specific demethylase 1
NGN3	Neurogenin-3
NKX6.1	NKX homeobox 1
ncRNA	Non-coding RNA
PDX1	Pancreatic and duodenal homeobox 1
PGK	Phosphoglycerate kinase

GT	Primitive gut tube
RA	Retinoic acid
RAR	Retinoic acid receptor
RARB	Retinoic acid receptor β
RXR	Retinoid X receptor
RNA	Ribonucleic acid
shRNA	Short-hairpin RNA
SOX9	SRY-Box 9
TGFBi	TGF β R1 kinase inhibitor
TTS	Transcription termination site
UTR	Untranslated region

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Chapter 2 includes material of which the dissertation author was the primary investigator and author. This work was supported by funds granted to MS from the National Institutes of Health, Pediatrics Diabetes Research Consortium and the California Institute for Regenerative Medicine. In addition to these sources, NKV was also supported, in part, by the UCSD institutional Cancer Cell Biology training grant, from the National Institutes of Health.

Appendix, in full, is a reprint of material as it appears in Vinckier, Nicholas; Jinzhao, Wang and Sander, Maike. "Pancreatic Differentiation from Human Pluripotent Stem Cells." *Working with Stem Cells*. Ed. Henning Ulrich, Ed. Priscilla Davidson Negraes. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing, 2016. 257-275. The dissertation author was the primary investigator and author of this material.

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2010 – 2017. *University of California at San Diego*

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- Dissecting the role of the chromatin modifying enzyme LSD1 during human pancreatic endocrine development using in vitro differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells to pancreatic lineages.
- Investigation of the spatial and temporal role of neurogenin3 in proper pancreatic endocrine development.
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- Isolation of enzyme from over-expressing *E. coli* cell cultures using affinity chromatography.
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- Maintained chemical and laboratory supplies and general cleanliness of the laboratory.
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- Chromatin immunoprecipitation of DNA-associated proteins for deep sequencing (ChIP-seq).
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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Histone demethylase LSD1: Connecting developmental signals, chromatin, and cell response

by

Nicholas Kyle Vinckier

Doctor of Philosophy in Biomedical Sciences

University of California, San Diego, 2017

Professor Maïke Sander, Chair

Over the course of development, regulation of gene transcription is the main mechanism by which pluripotent stem cells become restricted to the various distinct cell types found in the mature organism. Among the many different processes that regulate gene transcription, is the control of physical access to DNA and the genes for which it codes. DNA wound around histone proteins forms chromatin and the enzymes that modify the landscape of that chromatin control which regulatory elements, like promoters and enhancers, are active. This process confers different developmental competencies in cells, enabling them to respond uniquely to similar environmental and developmental signals, regulating gene transcription in turn. The study of these processes during in vitro differentiation of stem cells has enabled us and others to draw links between

chromatin remodelers, transcription factors and cellular response to inductive cues during human development.

In Chapter 1, I explore the role of the lysine-specific demethylase (LSD1) during human pancreatic development using an in vitro system to differentiate human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) to the pancreatic endocrine lineage. Removal of LSD1 activity during a specific early time window of pancreatic development prevents endocrine formation. Investigation into enhancer regions occupied by LSD1 during this critical time window provided results that support a model in which LSD1-mediated decommissioning renders these enhancers insensitive to activation by external retinoic acid signaling.

In Chapter 2, I report my previous work dissecting the role of the transcription factor neurogenin-3 (NGN3) during human pancreatic development. Using the aforementioned hESC-based in vitro differentiation system, gain and loss-of-function studies showed that NGN3 is both necessary and sufficient to induce endocrine formation in human cells.

A final supplemental chapter provides an example of a hESC-based pancreatic differentiation protocol similar to the one employed for the studies outlined in Chapters 1 and 2 and discusses the importance of such model systems in dissecting the myriad mechanisms of human disease and development.

INTRODUCTION

The human genome is vast, both in the seemingly infinite versions of various traits for which it codes, and its cumulative physical length. Each copy of the human genome contains over three billion base pairs coding for over 19,000 genes (Morton 1991, Kent, Sugnet et al. 2002, Annunziato 2008). The sequences coding for these genes are interspersed throughout the genome, separated by non-coding intra- and intergenic regions. Many of the non-coding regions contain regulatory sequences that recruit various proteins and function to promote, inhibit, insulate and enhance transcription of protein coding genes (Wolffe and Pruss 1996). The highly complex string of DNA bases contained within a single cell, if arranged end-to-end, would cover a distance of 2 meters (Annunziato 2008). To accommodate this great length within the nucleus of a cell, chromosomal DNA is coiled around histone protein complexes forming units called nucleosomes. These repeating nucleosome units form a “beads on a string” structure that tightly condenses the DNA inside the cell nucleus. Nucleosome complexes of histones and DNA and other associated proteins are commonly referred to as chromatin (Wolffe and Pruss 1996, Wolffe 2000, Annunziato 2008). In addition to tightly packaging the genome into the cell nucleus, this chromatin plays an important role in regulating gene expression by controlling the physical accessibility of genes and their regulatory sequences to transcriptional machinery (Lee, Hayes et al. 1993, Garcia-Ramirez, Rocchini et al. 1995, Wolffe and Pruss 1996, Koch, Andrews et al. 2007, Rossetto, Avvakumov et al. 2012, Thurman, Rynes et al. 2012). Rearrangement of histones along a DNA strand can regulate transcription of genes by exposing or sequestering these regulatory regions and actual gene coding sequences as well (Rossetto, Avvakumov et al. 2012, Shen, Yue et al. 2012). These rearrangements are facilitated by covalent post-translation modifications on the tails of histones (Garcia-Ramirez, Rocchini et al. 1995, Wolffe and Pruss 1996, Ernst, Kheradpour et al. 2011, Tan, Luo et al. 2011). A classic example of this process is the acetylation of lysine 27 on histone H3 (H3K27ac). The H3K27ac modification is associated with active regulatory elements such as promoters and gene-distal regulatory elements called enhancers (Wolffe and Pruss 1996, Creighton, Cheng et al. 2010, Ernst, Kheradpour et al. 2011). At enhancers, the H3K27ac

modification aids in driving transcription of target genes by making DNA accessible to TFs and other DNA-binding protein complexes involved in gene transcription (Wolffe and Pruss 1996, Grunstein 1997, Koch, Andrews et al. 2007, Shlyueva, Stampfel et al. 2014). Increasingly, research demonstrates the importance of regulatory regions like enhancers and their chromatin state and the vital roles they play in proper cell differentiation and function (Rada-Iglesias, Bajpai et al. 2011, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Wang, Yue et al. 2015).

CHAPTER 1 - THE ROLE OF LSD1 IN CONNECTING TRANSIENT DEVELOPMENTAL SIGNALS AND CELL RESPONSE VIA CHROMATIN REMODELING

ABSTRACT

The question of how pluripotent stem cells with identical genomes can develop into the various different cell types within a mature organism remains largely unanswered. Many methods of gene regulation exist, which ensure proper differentiation of stem cells to their respective cell fates. The role of chromatin and the enzymes that remodel it have been increasingly implicated in controlling how cells respond to developmental signals and the downstream effect on gene transcription during development. The lysine-specific demethylase (LSD1) is one such chromatin remodeling enzyme that has been shown to play a vital role in stem cell maintenance and differentiation. Here, we investigate the role of LSD1 during human pancreatic development using an in vitro system to differentiate human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) to the pancreatic endocrine lineage. We find that removal of LSD1 activity during a specific early time window of pancreatic development prevents endocrine formation in both humans and mice. Exploration into the genomic regions where LSD1 acts during this time window provided evidence for a mechanism wherein LSD1 decommissions retinoic acid (RA)-induced enhancers, rendering them insensitive to further activation by RA signals, ensuring proper timing of down-regulation of target genes. Here, we show the utility of in vitro differentiation systems in studying human development and provide data supporting a model in which the chromatin remodeler LSD1 reshapes the chromatin landscape altering the developmental competence of differentiating cells. These results provide an example of the crucial link between chromatin state and cellular response to developmental signals.

INTRODUCTION

For multicellular organisms, such as humans, to develop properly, stem cells must differentiate into multiple specialized cells. Stem cells by definition are capable of becoming any one of the many cell types of the human body (Jaenisch and Young 2008, Hanna, Saha et al. 2010,

Rada-Iglesias and Wysocka 2011). Each of the unique and highly specialized cell types within an individual contain identical genomic DNA sequences within their respective nuclei (Ernst, Kheradpour et al. 2011). This raises the question of how stem cells, indistinguishable from one another, can go down such divergent paths to become distinct cell types with completely different functional roles. Lineage-determining transcription factors (TFs) play a major role in controlling the fates of these multipotent cells by binding to regulatory elements such as gene promoters and distal regulatory elements called enhancers to promote target gene transcription (Jaenisch and Young 2008, Heinz, Benner et al. 2010, Ernst, Kheradpour et al. 2011, Shen, Yue et al. 2012). However, the presence of lineage-specific TFs alone cannot account for the various distinct cell types that emerge from a common multipotent progenitor pool. To give rise to the numerous types of terminally differentiated cells, stem cells, and the lineage intermediates stemming from them, must respond to a range of inductive cues throughout embryonic development (Schuldiner, Yanuka et al. 2000, Linker and Stern 2004, Heinz, Benner et al. 2010). The timing, duration and localization of TF activity and other inductive signals is crucial to proper differentiation, but is not enough to explain how and why cells can respond differently to those signals. Increasingly, research into this question implicates the chromatin landscape as a major gatekeeper capable of controlling cellular response to inductive cues (Shogren-Knaak, Ishii et al. 2006, Heintzman, Hon et al. 2009, Heinz and Glass 2012, Pham, Minderjahn et al. 2013, Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Heinz, Romanoski et al. 2015, Wang, Yue et al. 2015).

In addition to the aforementioned H3K27ac modification and its role in aiding transcription, another example of a histone modification that can modulate target gene expression is the mono-, di- and tri-methylation of lysine 4 on histone H3 (H3K4me1/me2/me3). Along with H3K27ac, the H3K4me3 modification is associated with active promoters (Bernstein, Mikkelsen et al. 2006, Kim and Shiekhhattar 2015) whereas the H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 marks are more frequently associated with enhancers (Creighton, Cheng et al. 2010, Heinz, Benner et al. 2010, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Concurrent H3K27ac and H3K4me1/me2 marks are indicative of active enhancers (Heinz and Glass 2012, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Wang, Yue et al. 2015), while enhancers presenting the

H3K4me1/me2 modifications alone, are said to be in a “poised” state, ready to be activated upon H3K27ac addition (Heinz, Benner et al. 2010, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Histone modifications such as these are mediated by chromatin modifying enzymes that can add or remove acetyl groups, methyl groups, phosphates, and ubiquitin on histones (Ernst, Kheradpour et al. 2011, Tan, Luo et al. 2011, Thurman, Rynes et al. 2012). It is likely that these chromatin remodelers are critical to the cell’s acquisition of developmental competence, the ability of multipotent cells respond appropriately to inductive signals from their environment. One chromatin remodeling enzyme that has been shown to play an important role in embryonic development is the histone demethylase LSD1 (Wang, Hevi et al. 2009, Foster, Dovey et al. 2010, Nair, Ge et al. 2012, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). LSD1 is a lysine-specific demethylase capable of removing mono- and di-methylation modifications from histone H3 (Shi, Lan et al. 2004, Wang, Lu et al. 2011, Laurent, Ruitu et al. 2015). Knockout of *Lsd1* in mice results in embryonic lethality (Wang, Scully et al. 2007) and its activity has been shown to be vital for proper maintenance and differentiation of numerous pluripotent cells types from both mice and humans, including embryonic, neural, and hematopoietic stem cells (Forneris, Binda et al. 2006, Su, Ying et al. 2009, Sun, Alzayady et al. 2010, Zibetti, Adamo et al. 2010, Adamo, Sese et al. 2011, Nair, Ge et al. 2012, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Kerényi, Shao et al. 2013, Laurent, Ruitu et al. 2015).

Research into possible mechanisms through which LSD1 controls cell differentiation has identified several roles, including removal of repressive H3K9 mono- and di-methylation marks (Metzger, Wissmann et al. 2005, Sun, Alzayady et al. 2010) as well as removal of H3K4 mono- and di-methylation at certain enhancers, a process referred to as “decommissioning” (Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Kerényi, Shao et al. 2013). Whyte and colleagues posited that LSD1-mediated decommissioning of certain enhancers, is required to fully suppress genes associated with those enhancers. Indeed, when LSD1 was inhibited in stem cells a retention of H3K4 mono- and di-methylation at LSD1-bound enhancers was observed, which coincided with a failure to fully downregulate expression of genes associated with those enhancers (Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012). The subsequent disruption of stem cell maintenance and differentiation was attributed to the failure

to decommission these enhancers as a result of LSD1 inhibition. These studies have demonstrated a clear link between LSD1-mediated modifications of the chromatin state within a variety of cell types, and the ability of those cells to properly function and differentiate. In addition, because LSD1 activity has been implicated in the proper differentiation of multiple cell lineages, including neurons, muscle, blood and adipocytes (Peng, Yerle et al. 2009, Li, Sun et al. 2012, Nair, Ge et al. 2012, Xiong, Wang et al. 2016) it is likely that LSD1 plays critical roles in other developmental contexts, such as pancreas development. It has been shown that lineage-specific chromatin states confer developmental competence in lineage intermediates during pancreatic endocrine differentiation (Wang, Yue et al. 2015). This process is critical for proper differentiation and is precisely controlled by myriad chromatin modifying enzymes. Previous research has suggested that, in addition to the activation and deactivation (addition and removal of H3K27ac) of enhancers, the poising and decommissioning (addition and removal of H3K4me1 and H3K4me2) of enhancers plays a vital role in ensuring lineage intermediates acquire the developmental competence to become properly differentiated cells (Mercer, Lin et al. 2011, Rada-Iglesias and Wysocka 2011, Kaikkonen, Spann et al. 2013, Heinz, Romanoski et al. 2015, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Because LSD1 is known to decommission enhancers (Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012), and is important for development of a wide variety of cell types and tissues, it seemed likely that LSD1 could be one of the chromatin modifiers responsible for proper differentiation to the pancreatic endocrine fate. Here, we investigate the chromatin remodeling enzyme LSD1 and its role in reshaping the chromatin landscape during human pancreatic endocrine development.

In order to investigate the complexities of human development and disease, researchers have turned to the rapidly advancing field of in vitro differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs) (Avior, Sagi et al. 2016). With the ability to generate hPSCs from adult somatic cells, it is becoming commonplace to differentiate hPSCs derived from individuals with a particular disease and assess how those cells behave differently from hPSCs derived from unaffected individuals (Takahashi and Yamanaka 2006, Yamanaka 2007, Yamanaka and Blau 2010, Papp and Plath 2013). With the use of increasingly sophisticated gene editing technologies, researchers can now

correct mutations in diseased hPSCs and observe the reversal of the disease state (Xie, Ye et al. 2014, Hockemeyer and Jaenisch 2016, Zhang, Schmid et al. 2017). Moreover, mutations relevant to a disease can be introduced into healthy hESCs and those modified cells can then be differentiated to determine how a specific mutation contributes to a particular disease. Individuals afflicted by the disease diabetes mellitus stand to benefit greatly from such hPSC-based differentiation protocols. Diabetes is characterized by the inability to regulate blood glucose homeostasis and is caused by the loss or dysfunction of the insulin-secreting beta cell within the islets of Langerhans in the pancreas. Cadaveric islet transplantations have been shown to reverse diabetes (Shapiro, Ricordi et al. 2006), which, together with the fact that diabetes typically results from the dysfunction of a single cell type, makes the disease a prime candidate for cell-replacement therapies. clinical trials for which are currently ongoing (Motte, Szepessy et al. 2014, Schulz 2015). Although animal models of diabetes have proven invaluable resources for increasing our understanding of pancreas development and diabetes pathogenesis in vivo, hPSC-based in vitro pancreatic differentiation systems provide the unique ability to dissect the earliest stages of development and can provide virtually limitless material for analysis (Keller 2005). Moreover, the ability to generate functional beta cells from hESCs entirely in vitro (Russ, Sintov et al. 2011, Pagliuca, Millman et al. 2014, Rezania, Bruin et al. 2014), provides an ideal model system to study the proper differentiation and function of the human beta cell. In order to reap the many benefits promised by in vitro modeling of diseases like diabetes, it is necessary to first understand how healthy cells differentiate and function under normal conditions. The advent of robust hPSC-based in vitro differentiation systems has provided researchers with the tools necessary to study any number of human diseases and developmental processes entirely in vitro. These systems allow for extremely high-resolution spatiotemporal assays of the cell state, enabling the study of complex and intricate mechanisms of cellular differentiation on a scale not possible in any other model system. By employing one such system, capable of efficiently generating pancreatic endocrine cells from human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) (Schulz, Young et al. 2012, Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Wang, Yue et al. 2015), we investigated the role of LSD1 in the context of human pancreatic

endocrine development, and have begun to dissect the mechanisms by which LSD1 modulates developmental competence of cells through remodeling of the chromatin landscape.

RESULTS

Human Endocrine Cell Development Requires LSD1 Activity during a Narrow Time Window early in Pancreas Development

To investigate if LSD1 plays a role during human pancreatic endocrine development, we first determined whether LSD1 is expressed during normal human pancreas development. We observed high levels of LSD1 expression in human fetal donor (55 days post-conception; dpc) pancreatic progenitor cells identified by co-expression of SOX9 and PDX1 (Figure 1A). Additionally, co-expression of LSD1 and the endocrine cell marker chromogranin A (CHGA) was observed in both human fetal donor (94 dpc) endocrine progenitors and human adult donor (22 years old) islets of Langerhans (Figure 1A). LSD1 expression was also observed in multiple endocrine subtypes within human adult donor islets, including insulin (INS) expressing beta cells, glucagon (GCG) expressing alpha cells, and somatostatin (SST) expressing delta cells (Figure S1A). Using an in vitro system to differentiate human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) in a stepwise manner toward the pancreatic endocrine cell fate (Schulz, Young et al. 2012, Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Wang, Yue et al. 2015), we also observed robust LSD1 expression throughout all stages of pancreatic differentiation (Figure S1B-S1C).

Given our observation of LSD1 expression during pancreas development both in vivo and in vitro, and the known requirement for LSD1 in proper stem cell differentiation in other contexts (Sun, Alzayady et al. 2010, Zibetti, Adamo et al. 2010, Adamo, Sese et al. 2011, Wang, Lu et al. 2011, Li, Sun et al. 2012, Nair, Ge et al. 2012, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Laurent, Ruitu et al. 2015, Duteil, Tomic et al. 2016), we hypothesized that LSD1 could play a critical role in human pancreatic endocrine formation. To assess this, we used the irreversible LSD1 inhibitor tranylcypromine (TCP) to block LSD1 activity during directed differentiation of hESCs to pancreatic endocrine cells (Figure 1B). Initial attempts to knockdown LSD1 at the ES stage prevented progression to the later stages and often resulted in cell death, precluding any study of the role(s) of LSD1 at later stages of endocrine differentiation (data not shown). Previous reports have similarly shown that LSD1 inhibition in stem cells prevents proper exit from the stem cell state (Sun,

Alzayady et al. 2010, Adamo, Sese et al. 2011, Nair, Ge et al. 2012, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012). We were therefore prompted to disrupt LSD1 activity during the later stages of differentiation, particularly during the formation of pancreatic progenitor and endocrine cells. We first inhibited LSD1 during the transition from early (PP1) to late (PP2) pancreatic progenitor stages (LSD1^{i^{early}}; Figure 1B) to determine whether LSD1 is required for proper formation of PP2. Expression of key progenitor marker proteins NKX6.1 and PDX1 were largely unaffected in LSD1^{i^{early}} PP2 cells (Figure S1D-S1E). When LSD1^{i^{early}} cells were further differentiated to the endocrine (EN) stage, NKX6.1 and PDX1 expression were again largely unaffected, however no hormone expression was observed (Figure 1C-1E), indicating that LSD1 inhibition at this early stage blocked formation of endocrine cells. Interestingly, later inhibition of LSD1 during the transition from PP2 to EN cells (LSD1^{i^{late}}; Figure 1B) had no effect on EN cell formation, evidenced by the expression of the pancreatic hormones INS, GCG, and SST (Figure 1C-1E). The proteins NKX6.1 and PDX1, which continue to be expressed in cells past the progenitor stage and in mature beta cells, were also unaffected by the later LSD1 inhibition (LSD1^{i^{late}}) (Figure 1C-1E). These data indicate that inhibition of LSD1 activity is required during the PP1 to PP2 transition to properly form endocrine cells, but its activity during the PP2 to EN transition is dispensable for endocrine formation. This suggests there is a critical time window in which LSD1 activity is required for generation of endocrine cells from hESCs.

LSD1 Inhibition Prevents Enhancer Decommissioning

To understand why endocrine cell formation requires LSD1 activity during the earlier PP1 to PP2 transition, but not the later PP2 to EN transition, we performed chromatin immunoprecipitation sequencing (ChIP-seq) for LSD1 at the PP1 stage to identify regions in the genome where LSD1 could be acting during this stage of differentiation. We identified 15,084 LSD1-bound peaks (Table S1) throughout the genome (Figure S2A). Of these, 3,285 were proximal (< 3 kb) to a transcription start site (TSS) and 11,799 were distal (> 3kb) to any TSS (Tables S2 and S3, respectively). Because LSD1 is known to associate with and modify enhancers (Whyte,

Bilodeau et al. 2012, Kerenyi, Shao et al. 2013) and cell type-specific enhancers are known to determine cell lineages (Heintzman, Hon et al. 2009, Heinz and Glass 2012, Heinz, Romanoski et al. 2015, Romanoski, Link et al. 2015, Wang, Yue et al. 2015), we investigated the distal regions bound by LSD1, which comprise the majority (~78%) of LSD1 peaks at the PP1 stage.

To begin to characterize the chromatin states during the PP1 to PP2 transition, we performed ChIP-seq for H3K27ac at the PP1 and PP2 stages. Because the H3K27ac modification has been widely shown to be a faithful indicator of active enhancers (Heintzman, Hon et al. 2009, Creighton, Cheng et al. 2010, Zentner, Tesar et al. 2011, Zentner and Scacheri 2012), we used it here to categorize distal LSD1 peaks at PP1 into one of three enhancer groups (Figure 2A). The enhancer groups were defined as follows: Group 1 (G1) consists of LSD1-bound regions where H3K27ac decreases ≥ 2 -fold from PP1 to PP2; Group 2 (G2) consists of LSD1-bound regions where H3K27ac does not change more than 2-fold (either increase or decrease) from PP1 to PP2; Group 3 (G3) consists of LSD1-bound regions where H3K27ac increases ≥ 2 -fold from PP1 to PP2 (Figure 2A and Tables S4-S6). In essence, G1 enhancers deactivate from PP1 to PP2, G2 enhancers remain active from PP1 to PP2, and G3 enhancers become active from PP1 to PP2. LSD1 ChIP-seq revealed that LSD1 binding remains unchanged from PP1 to PP2 at G2 and G3 enhancer regions, but is largely decreased at G1 enhancers during this transition (Figure 2B). To further characterize the groups of LSD1-bound enhancers we next performed ChIP-seq for H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 at the PP1 and PP2 stages. Along with the H3K27ac mark, H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 are very often observed at active enhancers (Heinz and Glass 2012, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Heinz, Romanoski et al. 2015, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Enhancers that possess these marks, but lack H3K27ac are said to be in a “poised” state; ready to be activated following H3K27ac addition, or decommissioned through removal of methylation from H3K4 (Creighton, Cheng et al. 2010, Rada-Iglesias, Bajpai et al. 2011, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Furthermore, LSD1 is known to demethylate both H3K4me1 and H3K4me2, and although H3K9 mono- and di-methylation are substrates of LSD1 (Metzger, Wissmann et al. 2005, Wissmann, Yin et al. 2007, Zibetti, Adamo et al. 2010, Laurent, Ruitu et al. 2015), we observed no expression of

the transcript encoding the H3K9 demethylating isoform of LSD1 (LSD1+8a) (data not shown). We therefore specifically assayed for mono- and di-methylation of H3K4 and not H3K9. Both H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 levels are significantly decreased from PP1 to PP2 at G1 enhancers (Figure 2C), further evidence this group can be classified as “deactivating” during this transition. Similarly, changes in H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 from PP1 to PP2 at G2 and G3 enhancers support their classifications of “remaining active” and “activating”, respectively. To determine if the normal demethylation of H3K4 seen in G1 enhancers was dependent upon LSD1 activity, we next performed ChIP-seq for H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 in LSD1^{early} PP2 cells. Indeed, when LSD1 was inhibited at PP1 there was a failure to remove both H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 marks in G1 (Figure 2D; compare blue and red plot lines). These data suggest that, during the PP1 to PP2 transition, LSD1 acts to decommission G1 enhancers, but not G2 and G3 enhancers, through removal of H3K4 mono- and di-methylation before vacating those regions. Interestingly, H3K27ac ChIP-seq in LSD1^{early} PP2 cells revealed that the deactivation of G1 enhancers (H3K27ac removal) was not disrupted by LSD1 inhibition (Figure 2D), suggesting that the deactivation of these enhancers can be decoupled from their decommissioning. This evidence supports models from previous reports that proposed enhancer deactivation and decommissioning as two separate events, each with an important role in enhancer regulation (Koch, Andrews et al. 2007, Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012). A similar decoupling of H3K27ac and H3K4 methylation states was also seen in G2 and G3 enhancers (Figure S2B). All together these results suggest the existence of a set of LSD1-bound enhancers that are typically deactivated and decommissioned during the PP1 to PP2 transition under normal differentiation conditions (G1 enhancers). When LSD1 is inhibited during this transition the deactivation events still occur at G1 enhancers, but the subsequent decommissioning is blocked, leaving the enhancers in a poised state (Figure 2E). We therefore hypothesized that maintenance of G1 enhancers in a poised state at PP2 as a result of LSD1 inhibition at PP1 could affect the expression of genes associated with these enhancers.

LSD1 Represses Transiently Expressed, Retinoic Acid-Dependent Genes

To better comprehend the nature of G1 enhancers and their role in controlling target gene expression, we first annotated transcription factor (TF) binding motifs at LSD1 bound enhancers. Motif enrichment analysis was performed with HOMER (Heinz, Benner et al. 2010) using the combined set of G2 and G3 enhancers as the background over which enrichment was calculated. We found that the motif for retinoic acid receptor (RAR) and retinoid X receptor (RXR) heterodimer (RAR/RXR) was highly enriched in G1 enhancers (Figure 3A). When retinoic acid binds to RAR, the RAR/RXR heterodimer associates with coactivating proteins, which, in turn, effect RA-induced events within the nucleus, including transcription of target genes and enhancer activation (Mahony, Mazzoni et al. 2011, Rhinn and Dolle 2012, Cunningham and Duester 2015). Because there are multiple isoforms of RAR that can heterodimerize with multiple isoforms of RXR, we used a pan-RXR binding antibody to perform ChIP-seq for RXR in PP1 cells to identify all regions where RA might be able to elicit a response by binding to one of the various isoforms of RAR within a RAR/RXR heterodimer. We found that 45.5% of G1 enhancers were co-occupied by RXR (612/1345; compared to an expected 5.6% by random chance), within \pm 10kb of the center of the corresponding LSD1 peak, at the PP1 stage (Figure 3B and Table 1). We also found overlapping RXR binding with G2 and G3 enhancers to be higher than expected by random chance; however, the amount of overlap with G1 enhancers was significantly higher than that observed in G2 and G3 enhancers (Figure S3A). We further analyzed the RXR-bound G1 enhancers and found that this subset of enhancers normally undergoes a sharp increase in H3K27ac during the gut tube (GT) to PP1 transition, followed by an equally abrupt decrease in H3K27ac from PP1 to PP2 (Figure 3C). This acute acetylation and deacetylation of RXR-bound G1 enhancers coincides precisely with the addition and removal of exogenous RA in the cell culture media, as part of the normal differentiation protocol (Figure 3C) (D'Amour, Bang et al. 2006, Kroon, Martinson et al. 2008, Schulz, Young et al. 2012). This suggests that these enhancers follow an RA-dependent activation pattern. Notably, the large decrease in H3K27ac from PP1 to PP2 also occurs when LSD1 is inhibited at PP1 (LSD1^{early}) (Figure 3C) indicating this specific subset of G1 enhancers is still being deactivated during this transition, as was seen for G1 as a whole (Figure 2D). Additionally, as occurred at all

G1 enhancers, LSD1 inhibition likewise prevented removal of H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 at RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Figure S3B).

Our analysis identified 612 RXR-bound G1 enhancers, which we used with the Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool (GREAT) (McLean, Bristor et al. 2010) to identify 634 potential target genes (Table 2). To better understand how these RXR-bound G1 enhancers might affect target gene expression we performed RNA-seq on GT, PP1, and PP2 control and LSD1^{early} cells. The RNA-seq data was then analyzed to obtain normalized gene expression levels (fragments per kilobase per million mapped reads; FPKM) for each of the genes across the time course, from GT to PP1 to PP2 \pm LSD1^{early}. We next performed k-means cluster analysis on all 634 genes, based on their expression changes across the GT, PP1, and PP2 differentiation stages, to isolate groups of genes that share common expression patterns over this time course. This revealed several categories of genes including one group consisting of 95 genes with increased expression from GT to PP1 followed by a sharp decrease in expression from PP1 to PP2 (Figure 3D; yellow bounding box). This expression pattern showed a striking resemblance to the H3K27ac pattern observed for the 612 RXR-bound G1 enhancers, and included within it enhancers of several genes well-known to be induced by RA, such as *HOXA1*, *HOXB1*, *RARB*, and *DHRS3* (Balmer and Blomhoff 2002, Balmer and Blomhoff 2005, Kam, Shi et al. 2013). We then queried the entire set of 634 genes to identify all genes that exhibited this same RA-dependent expression pattern. Specifically, we selected genes with FPKM ≥ 1 at PP1, ≥ 2 -fold increase from GT to PP1, and ≥ 2 -fold decrease from PP1 to PP2. Of the 634 genes, 74 met all three criteria (Table 3) of which 74.3% (55 of 74) were also included in the group of 95 genes identified through cluster analysis. Interestingly, when LSD1 is inhibited at PP1 (LSD1^{early}) there is a significant failure to down-regulate many of the 74 genes (Figure 3F), including several known to be induced by RA (Figure S3C). During the PP1 to PP2 transition, LSD1 inhibition does not disrupt the removal of H3K27ac from the RXR-bound G1 enhancers associated with these genes, including known RA-induced genes like *HOXA1*, *HOXC4*, *GATA4*, and *DHRS3* (Figures 3G and S3D), thus allowing deactivation of the enhancers. However, when LSD1 is inhibited removal of H3K4me2 is blocked, preventing

the decommissioning of these enhancers and leaving them in a poised state (Figures 3G and S3D). Taken together, these results suggest that LSD1-mediated decommissioning of RXR-bound G1 enhancers is required to fully repress expression of their target genes.

Prolonged Exposure of early Pancreatic Progenitors to Retinoic Acid Phenocopies LSD1 Inhibition

Our data indicate that LSD1 is required to convert RXR-bound G1 enhancers from a poised to a decommissioned state and that LSD1 inhibition during this transition (LSD1^{early}) disrupts that process, allowing for continued expression of target genes. Because LSD1 inhibition locks these enhancers in a poised state, it is possible they remain receptive activating RA signals, which, in turn, could prevent repression of genes that must be silenced after PP1 for proper endocrine formation to occur. With this in mind, we hypothesized that prolonged exposure of differentiating cells to RA signaling through the PP1 stage (Figure 4A) would be sufficient to prevent repression of these same genes and ultimately prevent downstream endocrine formation, mimicking the LSD1^{early} phenotype. The extended treatment of PP1 cells with RA (RA^{extended}) resulted in an overall failure to downregulate the 74 genes within the previously identified group associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers. The significantly higher expression of these genes as a whole in RA^{extended} PP2 cells mimics the gene dysregulation observed in LSD1^{early} PP2 cells. Of the 74 PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers, 48 (~65%) failed to be repressed in PP2 cells when RA exposure was extended through the PP1 to PP2 transition (RA^{extended}), including several of the previously identified genes known to be induced by RA (Figure 4B, 4C and 4SA). Remarkably, when RA^{extended} cells were differentiated to the EN stage, almost no expression of pancreatic hormone proteins or mRNA was observed (Figures 4D, 4E and S4B). Protein expression of NKX6.1 and PDX1 at the EN stage were unaffected by extended RA treatment (Figure 4E and S4C). This phenotype was nearly identical to that observed when LSD1 was inhibited in early (PP1) pancreatic progenitors (LSD1^{early}). The observed phenocopy of LSD1^{early} as a result of extended RA treatment (RA^{extended}) and the identification of RXR-bound enhancers that are remodeled by LSD1, provide evidence in support of the existence of a link between LSD1-mediated

decommissioning of RXR-bound G1 enhancers and the cells ability to respond to external RA signals. Together, these results suggest the possibility that the mechanism by which *LSD1^{early}* prevents the formation of endocrine cells could be mediated by the failure to decommission RXR-bound G1 enhancers, thus leaving them in a poised state in which they remain susceptible to RA signals. This, in turn, prevents the repression of target genes necessary for proper endocrine formation. However, there remains the possibility that aberrant RA signaling alone could disrupt endocrine formation, in a manner independent of the chromatin state at RXR-bound G1 enhancers.

LSD1 Prevents Aberrant Reactivation of Transient early Retinoic Acid-dependent Genes

To determine if cells in which G1 enhancers have already been decommissioned are still susceptible to RA-induced blockage of endocrine formation, we reintroduced RA into the differentiation media during the PP2 to EN transition (*RA^{late}*; Figure 5A). Unlike the phenotype observed in *RA^{extended}* EN cells, formation of pancreatic endocrine cells was unperturbed in *RA^{late}* EN cells (Figure 5B). Expression of NKX6.1 and PDX1 was also unaffected (Figures 5C and S5A), and although mRNA levels for the pancreatic hormones INS, GCG and SST decreased as a result of *RA^{late}* (Figure S5B), respective protein expression appeared similar to controls (Figures 5B and 5C). In contrast to the up-regulation of PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers observed in *LSD1^{early}* and *RA^{extended}* PP2 cells, no significant change was seen for these 74 genes in *RA^{late}* EN cells (Figures 5D and S5C). Surprisingly, several of the previously identified genes shown to be induced by RA remained unchanged in *RA^{late}* EN cells (Figure 5E). Moreover, some of the genes that were increased in *RA^{extended}* PP2 cells, including *DHRS3* and *SHH* were actually decreased in *RA^{late}* EN cells (Figure 5E). This indicates that whereas extended RA treatment through the PP1 to PP2 transition, the late addition of RA (*RA^{late}*) was not sufficient to induce the same upregulation of these genes. These data suggest that at different stages of differentiation cells respond differently to the same RA signaling molecule, signifying shifts in the cellular contexts as cells transition from one lineage intermediate to the next.

This change in developmental competence was further demonstrated when RA was reintroduced to $LSD1^{i^{early}}$ cells during the PP2 to EN transition ($LSD1^{i^{early}} + RA^{late}$). In this case, many of the PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers were up-regulated compared to $LSD1^{i^{early}}$ EN cells (Figure 5H and S5E/I). Perhaps unsurprisingly, late addition of RA to $LSD1^{i^{early}}$ PP2 cells ($LSD1^{i^{early}} + RA^{late}$) resulted in a lack of endocrine cells at the EN stage, similar to $LSD1^{i^{early}}$ alone (Figure 5G). Interestingly, however, while $LSD1^{i^{early}}$ alone tended to result in upregulation of many of 74 PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers, the late addition of RA in $LSD1^{i^{early}}$ PP2 cells ($LSD1^{i^{early}} + RA^{late}$) caused even further upregulation of several of these genes (Figure 5E). These results indicate that late addition of RA to PP2 cells (RA^{late}) causes increased expression of many of the PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers, if LSD1 has been previously inhibited during the transition from PP1 to PP2 ($LSD1^{i^{early}}$). Without prior LSD1 inhibition, this same up-regulation of genes was not observed in RA^{late} EN cells. Together, these data suggest that LSD1 activity during the PP1 to PP2 transition is required to prevent reactivation of RA-dependent genes at later stages of differentiation.

Requirement for Lsd1 in Endocrine Cell Formation during a Short Window in early Pancreatic Development in mice

To confirm the phenotype observed during pancreatic differentiation of hESCs in an in vivo setting, we mimicked the removal of LSD1 activity using a genetic knockout approach in mice. To determine if *Lsd1* plays a role in mouse pancreas development, similar to that observed in human differentiation, we first analyzed its expression pattern in the developing and adult mouse pancreas. We found that, as in humans, *Lsd1* is expressed in the early multipotent pancreatic progenitors (marked by *Pdx1/Sox9* co-expression) in the developing mouse embryo, as well as in embryonic and adult endocrine cells. (Figure S6A). Robust *Lsd1* expression was also observed in multiple endocrine subtypes in adult mouse islets (Figure S6B). To explore the function of *Lsd1* during mouse pancreas development, we selectively inactivated *Lsd1* in early pancreatic progenitor cells by generating *Pdx1Cre;Lsd1^{flox/flox}* (*Lsd1^{Δpan}*) mice (Figure 6A). In *Lsd1^{Δpan}* embryos, key aspects of

early pancreatic development, such as the induction of early pancreatic markers and outgrowth of the tissue buds, were unperturbed (Figure 6B, 6C and S6C). Furthermore, expression of acinar and ductal markers, and cell survival were unaffected by *Lsd1* deletion (Figure S6C and S6D). However, by embryonic day (e) 15.5, when widespread endocrine cell differentiation is evident in control mice, *Lsd1*^{Δpan} embryos exhibited a complete lack of endocrine cells (Figure 6B), which remained apparent at birth (Figure 6D). These findings revealed that, as in humans, *Lsd1* inactivation during pancreas development in mice prevents endocrine formation. This suggests that *Lsd1* is required for endocrine lineage specification in mice.

To determine if a critical time window exists during which *Lsd1* expression is critical for proper mouse pancreatic endocrine formation, as was observed during differentiation of hESCs, we crossed *Lsd1*^{flox/flox} and *Pdx1CreER*TM mice, allowing for time-specific inactivation of *Lsd1* in pancreatic progenitors via tamoxifen administration (Figure 6E). Tamoxifen injection at e12.5 (*Lsd1*^{Δlate}) targeted the multipotent pancreatic progenitor domain shortly before endocrine cell differentiation (Seymour and Sander 2011) and did not affect endocrine cell formation, as evidenced by the presence of LSD1-deficient hormone⁺ cell clusters in LSD1 (Figure 6F and S6E). By contrast, tamoxifen administration at e10.5 (*Lsd1*^{Δearly}) resulted in almost complete loss of endocrine cells, phenocopying *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice (Figure 6F and S6E). Given the delay between tamoxifen administration and gene deletion (Nakamura, Nguyen et al. 2006), these results indicate a time window between e11 and e13 during which *Lsd1* deletion prevents endocrine formation. This suggests that *Lsd1* activity is required during a specific early time window of mouse pancreas development, after which it is dispensable, for proper endocrine cell differentiation. These data provide in vivo confirmation of the phenotype observed when LSD1 is inhibited during in vitro differentiation of hESCs to the pancreatic endocrine lineage.

Of the 74 PP1-specific genes associated with RXR- bound enhancers identified in hESC-based LSD1 inhibition studies, 51 were expressed in either control or *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mutant mice at e13.5. Overall, expression of these genes was increased in *Lsd1*^{Δpan} compared to controls (Figure 6G and S6F). Among these 51 genes several showed significant up-regulation in *Lsd1*^{Δpan}

compared to control, including *Hoxa1*, *Hoxc4* and *Cadm3* (Figure 6H). All of these were similarly found to be up-regulated during LSD1 inhibition and induced by RA treatment in pancreatic differentiation of hESCs (Figures S3C, 4C and 5E/I). This indicates that, in addition to blocking endocrine formation, *Lsd1* knockout in early mouse embryos causes up-regulation of several genes previously shown to be induced by RA in during pancreatic differentiation of hESCs. This suggests that *Lsd1* may act in a similar capacity during mouse pancreas development as it does during human pancreatic differentiation; wherein, *Lsd1* deletion, prevents *Lsd1*-mediated decommissioning of associated RA-responsive enhancers. Without *Lsd1* present to decommission these enhancers they remain susceptible to activation by circulating RA, which ultimately prevents the normal repression of target genes that is required for proper endocrine formation.

These results not only confirm the phenotype observed in hESCs, but also lend credence to the utility of hPSC-based in vitro systems in studying and dissecting processes of human development. With an in vitro differentiation system however, signaling factors such as RA can simply be withdrawn from the differentiation media at specific times to prevent further influence on the differentiating cells. In contrast, during in vivo development, many of these signaling molecules persist constitutively and the cellular response to these signals must be altered in precise spatiotemporal manner in order for multipotent progenitors to respond appropriately and differentiate into the correct cell types, thus ensuring proper development of fully functional organs. Altogether, these results support a model wherein LSD1-mediated decommissioning of enhancers functions to render cells insensitive to external developmental cues, effectively altering the developmental competence of the cells by reshaping the chromatin landscape.

DISCUSSION

Here, we have identified a specific time window during early pancreatic development in both human and mouse, in which LSD1 activity is required for pancreatic endocrine formation. We found that during this time window, LSD1 is localized to different classes of enhancers (Figure 2A). One of those LSD1-bound enhancers groups (G1) normally undergoes deactivation and decommissioning. Upon inhibition of LSD1 those enhancers are still deactivated (H3K27ac

removal), but decommissioning (H3K4me1/H3K4me2 removal) is disrupted (Figure 2D). Genomic regions within the G1 enhancer group were enriched for RXR binding motif; and indeed, nearly half of G1 enhancers were co-bound by RXR during this time window (Figure 3A). The inclusion of RA in the differentiation media during the transition prior to this critical time window is coincident with the activation of these enhancers (Figure 3D). Together these results indicate these enhancers may be responsive to the RA in the differentiation media and suggest they are first activated by RA, and later decommissioned by LSD1 when the enhancer needs to be fully repressed and prevented from future reactivation. Previous models of LSD1 control of enhancers suggest that LSD1-mediated demethylation of H3K4 at enhancers is required to properly decommission the enhancers and repress target genes (Whyte, Bilodeau et al. 2012). Consistent with this model, our results indicates LSD1 is required to convert these enhancers from a poised to a decommissioned state. This, along with the observed concomitant failure to down-regulate many of the genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers, suggest that LSD1 inhibition during this transition (LSD1^{early}) disrupts decommissioning of RA-activated enhancers and allows for continued expression of target genes.

Our findings provide evidence that suggests proper modulation of chromatin landscape is vital to ensuring cells respond appropriately to external inductive signals. The results presented here provide evidence in support of a model in which LSD1 occupies a group of RA-responsive enhancers that become active following exposure to RA during the GT to PP1 transition. During the transition to PP2 these enhancers are deactivated and LSD1 decommissions them, rendering them insensitive to external RA signals. This, in turn, allows for appropriate repression of target genes, even in the event the cells are re-exposed to RA. However, when LSD1-mediated decommissioning of these enhancers is blocked during the PP1 to PP2 transition these enhancers are left in a poised state. The poised enhancers remain susceptible to reactivation when exposed to RA signals, which, in turn, induces aberrant reactivation of target genes. A prime example of this was observed in the regulation of the gene *DUSP9*. During normal differentiation *DUSP9* expression increases from GT to PP1, where it peaks, before being downregulated in PP2. *DUSP9*

is known to be activated by RA (Simandi, Balint et al. 2010), but it was not up regulated in *LSD1^{early}* PP2 cells. However, it is up-regulated at the EN stage when RA is added late (*RA^{late}*) to PP2 cells, but only if LSD1 was previously inhibited at the PP1 stage (*LSD1^{early}*). This finding supports the model wherein the failure of LSD1 to decommission enhancers may not cause immediate up-regulation of potential target genes, but rather leaves the enhancers in a poised state, providing a permissive environment for enhancer reactivation. In fact, although *LSD1^{early}* does not cause an upregulation of *DUSP9* at the PP2 stage, when measured at the later EN stage, *DUSP9* expression is elevated in *LSD1^{early}* cells compared to EN controls. It is therefore possible that this gene, and others like it, are normally down-regulated after LSD1-mediated decommissioning of their associated enhancers; and, when those enhancers are not properly decommissioned, as a result of removal of LSD1 activity, they remain poised and susceptible to future reactivation, given the right inductive cues. The data shown here highlight the role of LSD1 as an important chromatin remodeler during development, and suggest that its ability to reshape the chromatin landscape of differentiating cells can alter the developmental competence of those cells, influencing their responses to developmental signals.

Developmental signals like RA are extremely important for development of a variety of tissues, including neurons, lung and pancreas (Durstion, Timmermans et al. 1989, Avantaggiato, Acampora et al. 1996, Bibel, Richter et al. 2004, Plachta, Bibel et al. 2004, Mark, Ghyselinck et al. 2009). The importance of RA in pancreas development has been well established (Chen, Pan et al. 2004, Martin, Gallego-Llamas et al. 2005, Molotkov, Molotkova et al. 2005). These and other studies have demonstrated that for proper development to occur, different lineage intermediates must be exposed to RA at different times and concentrations and for different durations; and that each of these aspects are vary between, and are specific to each individual cell type. During in vitro differentiation of cells it is trivial to supply signaling factors at specific times and concentrations and durations, as needed. This is, in fact, one of the great benefits to these systems that allows for precise control of the signaling environment and the generation of highly pure populations consisting of a single cell type. However, during in vivo development many cells remain exposed

to these signaling factors before and after they must respond to them, raises the question of how these cells can modulate their responses to these developmental cues.

Using our in vitro model system, we gathered evidence that establishes a link between modification of the chromatin landscape by LSD1 during differentiation and the resulting changes in cellular response to external developmental signals. Here we have presented results that begin to explain one possible mechanism of how seemingly identical stem cells, with identical genomes, can respond to the same cues in very different ways and give rise to the wide variety of specialized cell types observed in the human body

METHODS

Chromatin immunoprecipitation followed by massively parallel multiplexed sequencing (ChIP-seq)

ChIP-seq was performed using the ChIP-IT High-Sensitivity kit (Active Motif) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, for each cell stage and condition analyzed, $5-10 \times 10^6$ cells were harvested and fixed for 15 min in an 11.1% formaldehyde solution. Cells were lysed and homogenized using a Dounce homogenizer and the lysate was sonicated in a Bioruptor® Plus (Diagenode), on high for 3 x 5 min (30 sec on, 30 sec off). Between 10 and 30 μ g of the resulting sheared chromatin was used for each immunoprecipitation. Equal quantities of sheared chromatin from each sample were used for immunoprecipitations carried out at the same time. 4 μ g of antibody against LSD1 (Abcam, ab17721), H3K4me1 (Abcam, ab8895), H3K4me2 (Millipore, 07-030), H3K27ac (Active Motif, 39133) and RXR (Santa Cruz, sc-831) were used for each respective ChIP-seq assay. Chromatin was incubated with primary antibodies overnight at 4 °C on a rotator followed by incubation with Protein G agarose beads for 3 hours at 4 °C on a rotator. Reversal of crosslinks and DNA purification were performed according to the ChIP-IT High-Sensitivity instructions, with the modification of incubation at 65 °C for 2-3 hours, rather than at 80 °C for 2 hours during crosslink reversal. Sequencing libraries were constructed using KAPA DNA Library Preparation Kits for Illumina® (Kapa Biosystems) and library sequencing was performed on a HiSeq 4000 System (Illumina®). Both library construction and sequencing were performed by the Institute

for Genomic Medicine (IGM) core research facility at the University of California at San Diego (UCSD).

Chromatin mapping and data quality control

Sequencing data was released from the UCSD IGM core facility after passing internal quality controls and certain benchmarks set forth by the FastQC analysis software (Andrews 2010), including total sequence reads, sequence quality and length distribution scores. Upon receipt of raw sequencing data (FASTA format), several downstream analyses were performed to ensure quality of sequencing data. First, all ChIP-seq data was mapped to the human genome utilizing the most recent consensus build (hg19/GRCh37) of the human genome available at the time of this study (Kent, Sugnet et al. 2002). Bowtie 2, v2.2.7 (Langmead and Salzberg 2012) was used to map data to the genome using the parameters defined in Table 4. Next, further quality control steps to confirm the sequence data was of acceptable quality were performed post-mapping using the Samtools v1.3.1 (Li, Handsaker et al. 2009) and HOMER v4.9 (Heinz, Benner et al. 2010) software suites (see Table 4). Various attributes of each sequence file were assessed to ensure the sequence reads met certain criteria. The number of reads not mapped to the genome build had to be within a reasonable range (1 - 2%) of the total mapped reads. *Note:* Because we mapped to a consensus reference genome, it is possible that unmapped reads represent real portions of the genome from the cells being analyzed, but that these sequences are for one reason or another not contained within the reference genome. However, for the purposes of this study, unmapped reads were discarded. A high percentage of unmapped reads could indicate an experimental problem with the immunoprecipitation itself, contaminating DNA from non-human sources or an issue with library preparation, such as the amplification of indexing primer dimers (O'Geen, Echipare et al. 2011, Head, Komori et al. 2014).

Another important quality control metric is the number of exact duplicate reads within a sequence file. Due to the nature of ChIP-seq, it is somewhat unlikely that two reads will have exactly the same sequence and length (Storvall, Ramskold et al. 2013). A high number of exact duplicates

could indicate a problem arising from the library preparation and sequencing. However, it is not always the case that a duplicate is an artifact and visualization of the data on a genome browser might help to distinguish between artifacts and true data. One last key metric is that of the multimapping read. Those reads that map to > 1 genomic region cannot effectively be used as their true position cannot be determined via the ChIP-seq method. The methods used here to align sequence reads to the genome were not based on perfect 1:1 matches, but rather allowed for certain degrees of freedom each time a read was mapped to account for potential sequencing errors and/or DNA bases that are reported as low confidence by the sequencing platform. With this in mind, we relied on the mapping quotient (MAPQ) scores assigned to each read during alignment to the genome. A certain level of confidence that a read is correctly mapped and only maps to one location is provided by the MAPQ score. If the probability that a read is incorrectly matched is equal to P and P is a value between 0 and 1 (0 to 100% probability), then the MAPQ score is generated by $-10 \times \log_{10}(P)$. A MAPQ score of 0 means the fragment definitely maps to > 1 place. If the estimate that a read maps to > 1 region is 100% then $P = 1$ and $\text{MAPQ} = -10 \times \log_{10}(1) = 0$. Conversely, if the probability that a fragment matches exactly one genomic region is 99.9% or 0.999, then the probability of a mismatch is $P = 1 - 0.999 = 0.001$ and the $\text{MAPQ} = -10 \times \log_{10}(0.001) = 30$. So, anything with a MAPQ score > 30 has an estimated chance of improper matching of less than 0.1%. For the purposes of this study, all reads with $\text{MAPQ} > 0$ were used. Ultimately, a sufficient amount of uniquely mapped reads from each ChIP-seq experiment are required and previous standards have been set by consortia like ENCODE (Encode Project Consortium 2012), which required ≥ 10 and 20 million uniquely mapped reads for TF and histone modification ChIP-seq experiments, respectively. All ChIP-seq experiments in this study meet or exceed these requirements.

After confirming sufficient reads of acceptable quality were mapped to the genome, we next measured the overall GC content of the uniquely mapped sequences to ensure it fell within expected ranges. This value can vary widely across all samples, but should be closely reproduced in biological replicates of the same cell, condition and protein immunoprecipitated. Our major

concern was to ensure that, within a single ChIP-seq experiment, the distribution of GC content was somewhat normal (Gaussian), or skewed high or low. If the experiment exhibits a bimodal distribution of GC content, with high percentages of both high and low GC content sequences, this could indicate a problem with the experiment, such as contamination of the immunoprecipitated DNA or library preparation (Head, Komori et al. 2014).

Peak calling and visualization of ChIP-seq data

Mapped ChIP-seq data served as inputs to generate tag directories using HOMER (Heinz, Benner et al. 2010). Tag directories take all mapped reads from the input and generates a "tag" spanning the appropriate chromosomal coordinates. The tags "stack" on one another to eventually generate piles of reads over certain locations which can then be called as peaks, as was done here using the findPeaks program within the HOMER software suite. Stage- and condition-matched input DNA controls were used as background when calling peaks. The Bedtools v2.17.0 (Quinlan and Hall 2010) suite of programs was used to quickly analyze whether certain peaks overlapped with other peaks or modified histone regions. For example, windowBed was used for initial in silico pilot experiments to classify enhancers based on H3K27ac states from PP1 to PP2. This was a simple binary call using the peak files generated in HOMER to determine whether a peak in PP1 was within ± 1000 bp of a peak in PP2. This was the initial method used to generate the different classifications of enhancers (i.e. active in PP1 and inactive in PP2). This served as a fast initial screen to identify interesting patterns in the ChIP-seq data. However, the binary nature of these methods were generally too restrictive to detect certain phenomena that could be biologically relevant, such as subtle changes in H3K4 methylation between two stages or conditions. For this reason, after our initial screenings we then used the getDifferentialPeaks program within HOMER, which probes for peak intensity changes between different conditions. This program allows the user to set the fold increase or decrease that must be observed to be considered a differential peak (see comments in Table 4). Differential peak analysis performed in this way allowed for the identification of things like enhancers that were in the process of being deactivated from PP1 to PP2, but not

necessarily completely devoid of H3K27ac at PP2. Table 4 lists the commands and parameters used to classify the different groups (G1, G2 and G3) of enhancers and how we identified PP1 LSD1 peaks near each of the groups.

RNA isolation and sequencing and qRT-PCR

RNA was isolated from cell samples using the RNeasy[®] Micro Kit (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer instructions. For each cell stage and condition analyzed between 0.1 and 1 x 10⁶ cells were collected for RNA extraction. For qRT-PCR, cDNA synthesis was first performed using the iScript[™] cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad) and 500 ng of isolated RNA per reaction. qRT-PCR reactions were performed in triplicate with 10 ng of template cDNA per reaction using a CFX96[™] Real-Time PCR Detection System and the iQ[™] SYBR[®] Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). PCR of the TATA binding protein (TBP) coding sequence was used as an internal control and relative expression was quantified via double delta C_T analysis. For RNA sequencing (RNA-seq), stranded, single-end sequencing libraries were constructed from isolated RNA using the TruSeq[®] Stranded mRNA Library Prep Kit (Illumina[®]) and library sequencing was performed on a HiSeq 4000 System (Illumina[®]). Both library construction and sequencing were performed by the IGM core research facility at UCSD. Sequence files were mapped to the human genome (hg19/GRCh37) using the Spliced Transcripts Alignment to a Reference (STAR) aligner (Dobin, Davis et al. 2013). Tag directories were constructed from STAR outputs and normalized gene expression (fragments per kilobase per million mapped reads; FPKM) for each sequence file were determined using HOMER (Heinz, Benner et al. 2010). HOMER was used to annotate all RefSeq genes with FPKM values and to invoke the R packages edgeR (Robinson, McCarthy et al. 2010, McCarthy, Chen et al. 2012) and DESeq2 (Love, Huber et al. 2014) for various differential expression analyses. At least two biological replicates (n = 2) were analyzed for every stage and condition unless noted otherwise. For k-means clustering, normalized FPKM values for each gene were normalized to the time point with maximum expression, which was set to 1. This generated a table of genes with values ranging from 0 to 1 across the GT to PP1 to PP2 time course. Data transformed in this manner was used

to generate heatmaps as well as for k-means clustering. K-means clustering was performed in R to identify groups of genes with similar expression patterns across the time course, regardless of absolute expression values. 8 clusters were requested and clustering was performed starting from random points in the data (100 iterations). This was repeated over 10 times to ensure the same genes were reproducibly clustered together.

Primers used for RT-qPCR are as follows:

INS-F: 5'-AAGAGGCCATCAAGCAGATCA

INS-R: 5'-CAGGAGGCGCATCCACA

GCG-F: 5'-AAGCATTTACTTTGTGGCTGGATT

GCG-R: 5'-TGATCTGGATTTCTCCTCTGTGTCT

HOXA1-F: 5'-CGGAACTGGAGAAGGAGTTC

HOXA1-R: 5'-TTCAC TTGGGTCTCGTTGAG

SST-F: 5'-CCCCAGACTCCGTCAGTTTC

SST-R: 5'-TCCGTCTGGTTGGGTTTCAG

TBP-F: 5'-ATTAAGGGAGGGAGTGCCAC

TBP-R: 5'-GCTTTGCTTCCCTTTCCCAA

Assignment of enhancer target genes and Motif enrichment analysis

Target genes were assigned using the Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool (GREAT) (<http://bejerano.stanford.edu/great/public/html/>; (McLean, Bristor et al. 2010), using the following parameters: basal plus extension, 5kb upstream, 1kb downstream and plus distal 200kb regions. HOMER (Heinz, Benner et al. 2010) was used to identify transcription factor (TF) binding motifs enriched in the G1 enhancer group over the G2 and G3 groups. G2 and G3 enhancer peak files were merged and set as the background using the appropriate option in the findMotifsGenome.pl program. G1 enhancers associated with one or more genes with FPKM ≥ 1 at the PP1 stage were used for motif analysis.

Immunofluorescence analysis.

Cell aggregates derived from hESCs were allowed to settle in microcentrifuge tubes and washed twice with PBS before fixation with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min at room temperature. Fixed cells were washed twice with PBS and incubated overnight at 4 °C in 30% (w/v) sucrose in PBS. Cell aggregates were then loaded into disposable embedding molds (VWR), covered in Tissue-Tek® O.C.T. Sakura® Finetek compound (VWR) and flash frozen on dry ice to prepare frozen blocks. The blocks were sectioned at 10 µm and sections were placed on Superfrost Plus® (Thermo Fisher) microscope slides and washed with PBS for 10 min. Slide-mounted cell sections were permeabilized and blocked with blocking buffer, consisting of 0.15% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma) and 1% (v/v) normal donkey serum (Jackson Immuno Research Laboratories) in PBS, for 1 hour at room temperature. Slides were then incubated overnight at 4 °C with primary antibody solutions. The following day slides were washed five times with PBS and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with secondary antibody solutions. Cells were washed five times with PBS before coverslips were applied. All antibodies were diluted in blocking buffer at the ratios indicated below. Primary antibodies used were: sheep anti-NGN3 (1:300, R&D Systems); rabbit anti-SOX9 (1:1000 dilution, Millipore); goat anti-PDX1 (1:500 dilution, Abcam); mouse anti-NKX6.1 (1:300 dilution, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank); rabbit anti-CHGA (1:1000, DAKO); guinea pig anti-INS (1:500, DAKO), mouse anti-GCG (1:500, Sigma), rabbit anti-SST (1:500, DAKO). Secondary antibodies against sheep, rabbit, goat, mouse and guinea pig were Alexa488-, Cy3- and Cy5-conjugated donkey antibodies and were used at dilutions of 1:1000, 1:2000, and 1:250, respectively (Jackson Immuno Research Laboratories). Representative images were obtained with a Zeiss Axio-Observer-Z1 microscope equipped with a Zeiss ApoTome and AxioCam digital camera. Figures were prepared in Adobe Creative Suite 5.

Human tissue

Human fetal pancreas donor tissue was obtained from the Birth Defects Research Laboratory of the University of Washington. Cadaveric adult pancreata used in this study were from

non-diabetic donors and were acquired through the Network for Pancreatic Organ Donors with Diabetes (nPOD) (Campbell-Thompson, Wasserfall et al. 2012). Protein expression was analyzed in nPOD donors: LSD1 and GCG in #6140 (38 year old male); LSD1 and CHGA in #6160 (22 year old male); LSD1 and SST in 6178 (25 year old female); and LSD1, INS and GCG in 6179 (21 year old female).

Mice

Pdx1-Cre, *Pdx1-CreER*TM (Gu, Dubauskaite et al. 2002) and *Lsd1*^{fl^{ox}} (Wang, Scully et al. 2007) mouse strains have been described previously. *Lsd1*^{Apan} knockouts were generated by crossing *Pdx1-Cre* and *Lsd1*^{fl^{ox}} mice. Conditional *Lsd1* knockouts were generated by crossing *Pdx1-CreER*TM and *Lsd1*^{fl^{ox}} mice. Tamoxifen (Sigma) was dissolved in corn oil (Sigma) at 10 mg/mL, and a single dose of 3.5 mg/40 g or 4.5 mg/40 g body weight was administered by intraperitoneal injection at embryonic day (e) 10.5 or e12.5, respectively. Control mice were *LSD1*^{+/+} littermates carrying *Pdx1-Cre* transgene. Midday on the day of vaginal plug appearance was considered e0.5.

FIGURES

Figure 1. Endocrine cell formation requires LSD1 activity during a short window in early pancreatic development.

(A) Immunofluorescent staining of pancreatic sections for LSD1 with the pancreatic progenitor markers PDX1 and SOX9 (55 days post-conception (dpc) fetal pancreas) or the pan-endocrine marker chromogranin A (CHGA) (94 dpc and adult pancreas). Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(B) Schematic of the human embryonic stem cell (hESC) differentiation protocol to the endocrine cell stage (EN) and experimental plan for LSD1 inhibition.

(C) Immunofluorescent staining for pancreatic hormones insulin (INS), glucagon (GCG) and somatostatin (SST) or PDX1 and NKX6.1 in control EN cells compared to EN cells with early (LSD1^{i^{early}}) and late (LSD1^{i^{late}}) LSD1 inhibition. Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(D) qRT-PCR analysis for *INS*, *GCG* and *SST* in control, LSD1^{i^{early}} and LSD1^{i^{late}} EN cells. Data are shown as mean \pm S.E.M (n = 2 biological replicates). *p < 0.001.

(E) Flow cytometry analysis at EN stage for NKX6.1, PDX1 and INS comparing control, LSD1^{i^{early}} and LSD1^{i^{late}} cells. Isotype control for each antibody is shown in red and target protein staining in green. Percentage of cells expressing each protein is indicated.

AA, activin A; ITS, insulin-transferrin-selenium; TGF β i, TGF β R1 kinase inhibitor; KGF, keratinocyte growth factor; RA, retinoic acid; EGF, epidermal growth factor; ES, embryonic stem cell; DE, definitive endoderm; GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors; EN, endocrine cell stage; FSC-A, forward scatter area.

See also Figure S1.

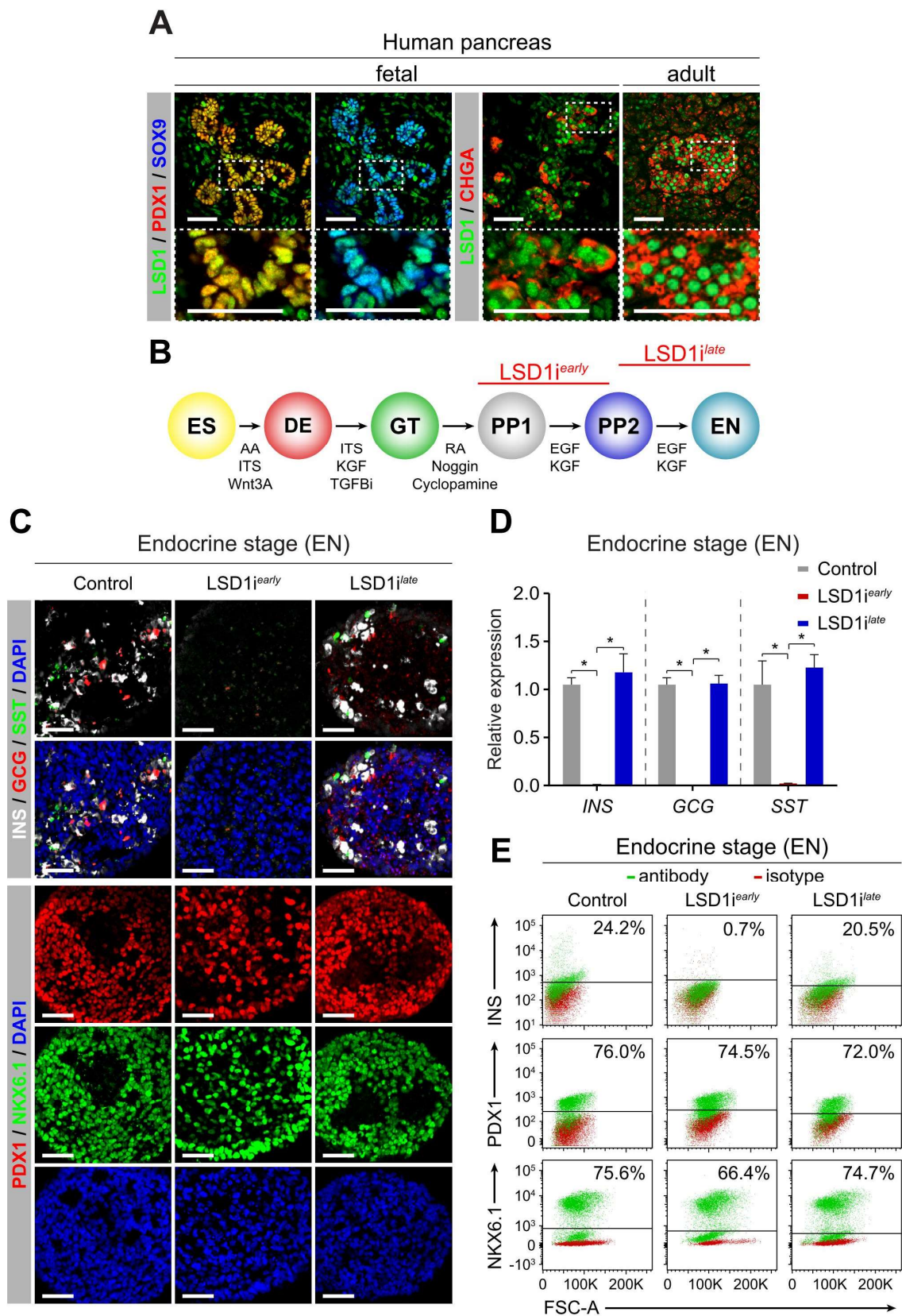


Figure 2. LSD1 inhibition prevents decommissioning of transiently active early pancreatic enhancers.

(A) Heatmap showing density of ChIP-seq reads for LSD1 and H3K27ac centered on LSD1 peaks, spanning 10 kb. G1, G2 and G3 groups of LSD1-bound enhancers are deactivated (G1), remain active (G2), or are deactivated (G3) from PP1 to PP2.

(B) Tag density plots displaying LSD1 tag distribution at G1, G2 and G3 enhancers at PP1 and PP2 stages, centered on PP1 LSD1 peaks.

(C) Box plots of H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 ChIP-seq counts at G1, G2 and G3 enhancers at PP1 and PP2 stages. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 5e-12$; *** $< 2.2e-16$.

(D) Tag density plots for G1 enhancers displaying H3K27ac, H3K4me2 and H3K4me1 tag distribution at PP1 stage and PP2 stage with and without early LSD1 inhibition (LSD1^{early}). Plots are centered on PP1 LSD1 peaks.

(E) Model for LSD1-dependent enhancer decommissioning. Enhancer deactivation by removal of acetylation from H3K27 occurs independent of LSD1 activity. LSD1 subsequently mediates enhancer decommissioning by removal of H3K4me2 marks.

PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

See also Figure S2 and Tables S1-S6.

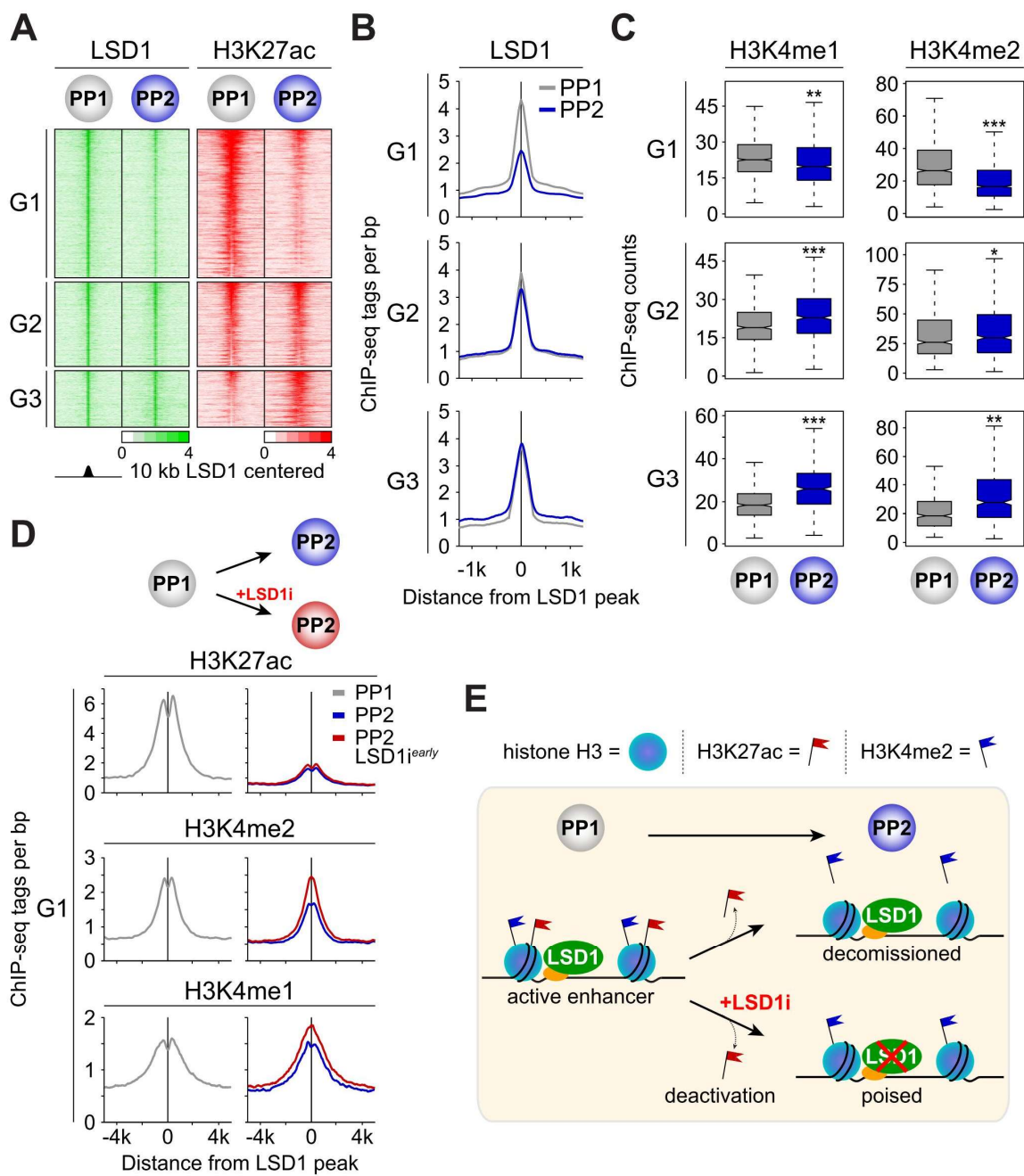


Figure 3. LSD1 activity is necessary for down-regulation of transiently expressed retinoic acid-dependent genes.

(A) Enriched transcription factor (TF) binding motifs with associated p-values for G1 enhancers compared to G2 and G3 enhancers.

(B) Percentage of G1 enhancers versus random genomic regions bound by RXR within ± 10 kb of LSD1 peak at the PP1 stage. $**p < 2.5e-8$, chi-square.

(C) Schematic showing timing and duration of retinoic acid (RA) addition (top) and coincident changes in H3K27ac levels at RXR-bound G1 enhancers (bottom) during hESC differentiation toward endocrine (EN) cells with and without LSD1 inhibition from PP1 to PP2 (LSD1i^{early}). $***p < 2.2e-16$, Wilcoxon.

(D) K-means clustering of genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Table 2) based on mRNA expression (FPKM) (n=3). Genes were assigned to enhancers using the Genomic Regions Enrichment of Annotations Tool (GREAT) within a 200kb window. mRNA levels shown as relative to maximum per gene across time course. Yellow box highlights gene cluster exhibiting RA-dependent (PP1-specific) expression pattern.

(E) Heatmap of gene expression for PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers across GT, PP1, and PP2 (n=74) with and without LSD1 inhibition (LSD1i^{early}). Gene set defined by FPKM at PP1 ≥ 1 and PP1 mRNA levels ≥ 2 -fold compared to GT and PP2. mRNA levels (FPKM) shown as relative to maximum per gene across time course.

(F) Box plots of mRNA levels for genes shown in E. $*p < 0.005$, Wilcoxon.

(G) LSD1, RXR, H3K4me2, and H3K27ac ChIP-seq profiles at enhancers near HOXA1 and HOXC4.

GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

See also Figure S3 and Tables 1-3.

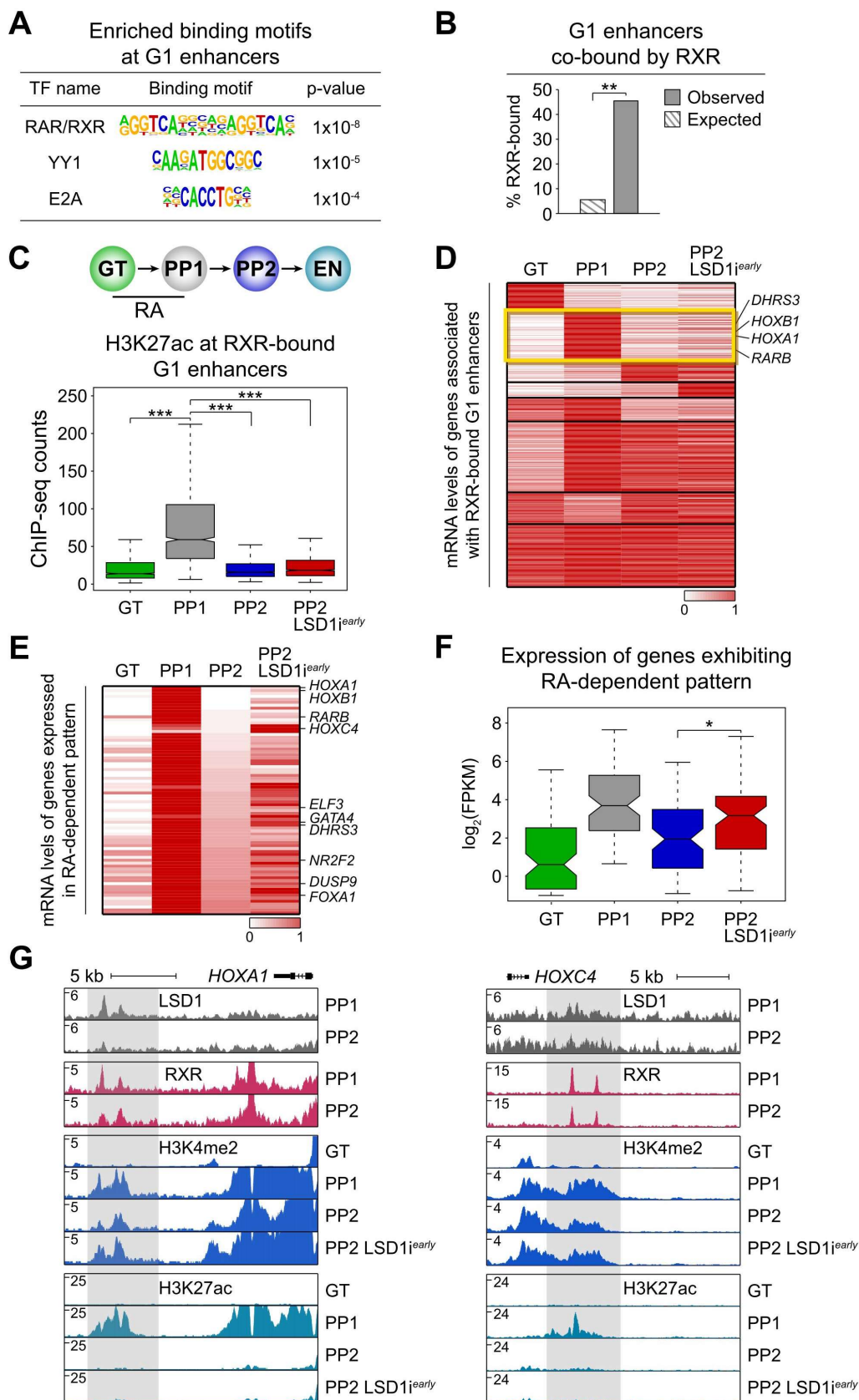


Figure 4. Prolonged retinoic acid exposure of early pancreatic progenitor cells phenocopies LSD1 inhibition.

(A) Experimental plan to extend retinoic acid (RA) exposure through the PP1 to PP2 transition (RAextended) during hESC differentiation to the endocrine cell stage (EN).

(B) Heatmap of gene expression for the 74 PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Table 3) at PP2 with and without extended RA treatment (RA^{extended}).

(C) Relative normalized expression of select genes from group in (B) at PP2 with and without extended RA treatment (RA^{extended}). Data shown as mean \pm S.E.M. relative to control values (blue bars), which were set to 1. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.0005$, DESeq2 output.

(D) Immunofluorescent staining for insulin (INS), glucagon (GCG) and somatostatin (SST) in control EN cells compared to EN cells with extended RA treatment (RA^{extended}). Scale bar, 50 μm .

(E) Flow cytometry analysis at EN stage for NKX6.1, PDX1 and INS comparing control and RAextended cultures. Isotype control for each antibody is shown in red and target protein staining in green. Percentage of cells expressing each protein is indicated.

GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

See also Figure S4.

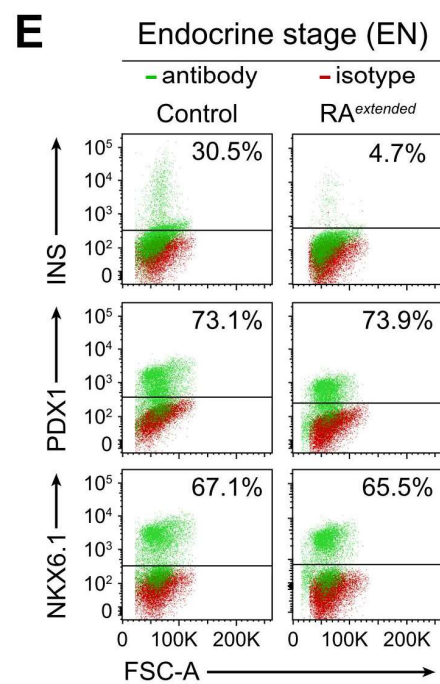
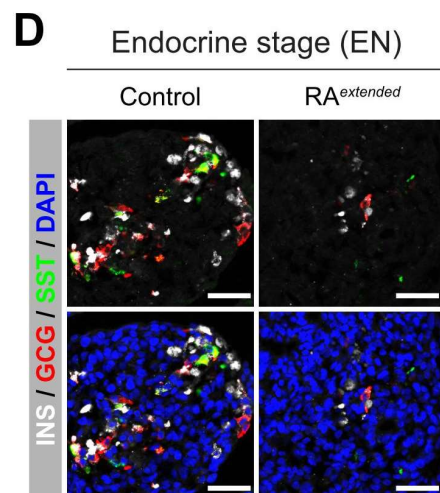
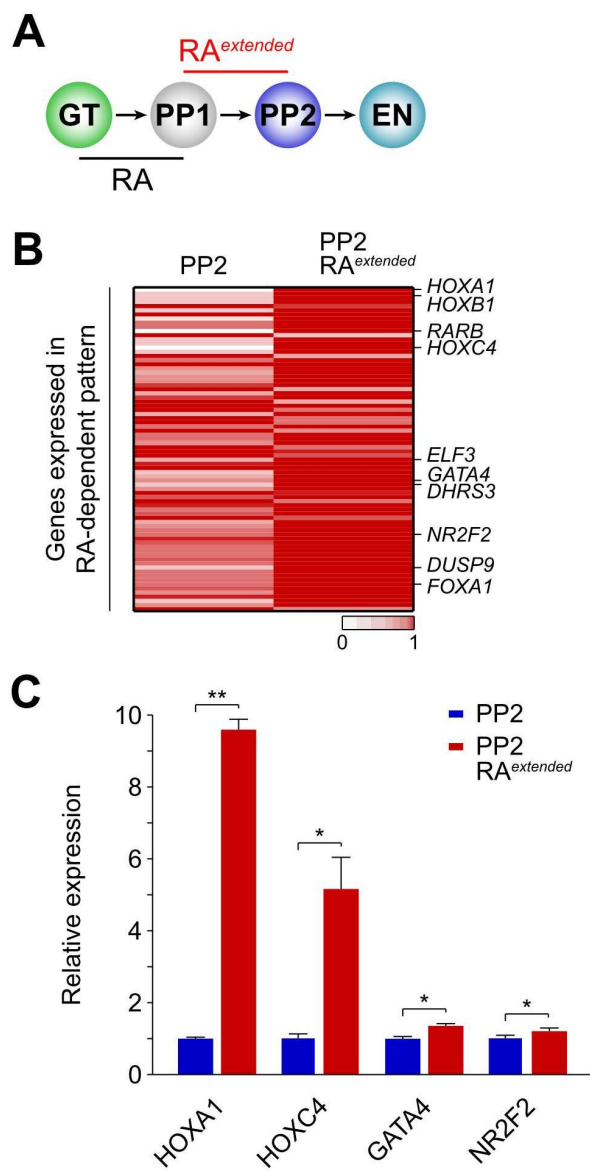


Figure 5. LSD1 prevents aberrant reactivation of transient early retinoic acid-dependent genes.

(A) Experimental plan to re-introduce retinoic acid (RA) during the PP2 to endocrine (EN) transition (RA^{late}) of hESC differentiation.

(B) Immunofluorescent staining for insulin (INS), glucagon (GCG) and somatostatin (SST) in control EN cells compared to EN cells with late RA treatment (RA^{late}). Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(C) Flow cytometry analysis at EN stage for NKX6.1, PDX1 and INS comparing control and RA^{late} cells. Isotype control for each antibody is shown in red and target protein staining in green. Percentage of cells expressing each protein is indicated.

(D) Heatmap of gene expression for the 74 PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Table 3) at EN stage with and without late RA treatment (RA^{late}).

(E) Relative normalized expression of select genes from group in (D) at EN stage with and without late RA treatment (RA^{late}). Data shown as mean \pm S.E.M. relative to control values (blue bars), which were set to 1. n.s., not significant; DESeq2 output.

(F) Experimental plan to re-introduce RA during the PP2 to EN transition (RA^{late}) after early inhibition of LSD1 ($LSD1^{early}$).

(G) Immunofluorescent staining for INS, GCG and SST in control EN cells compared to $LSD1^{early}$ EN cells with and without late RA treatment (RA^{late}). Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(H) Heatmap of gene expression for the 74 PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Table 3) at EN stage with $LSD1^{early}$ alone and $LSD1^{early}$ plus late RA treatment (RA^{late}).

(I) Relative normalized expression of select genes from group in (H) at EN stage with $LSD1^{early}$ alone and $LSD1^{early}$ plus late RA treatment (RA^{late}). Data shown as mean \pm S.E.M. relative to $LSD1^{early}$ values (blue bars), which were set to 1. * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.005$, *** $p < 1e-17$. DESeq2 output.

GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

See also Figure S5.

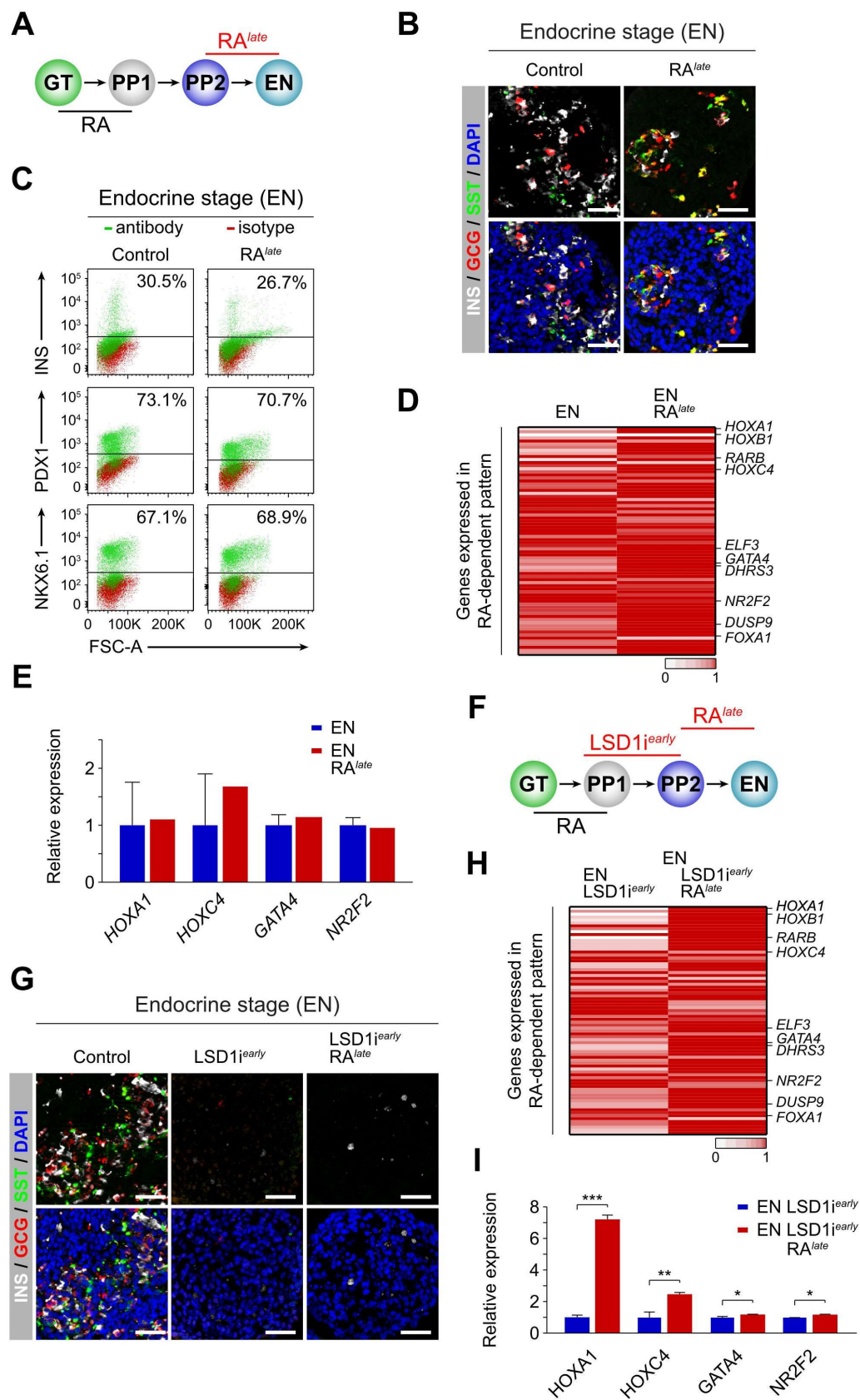


Figure 6. Selective requirement for *Lsd1* in endocrine cell formation during a short window in early pancreatic development of mice.

(A) Strategy for conditional *Lsd1* deletion in embryonic pancreatic progenitors of mice (*Lsd1*^{Δpan}). Yellow boxes: exons; green triangles: *loxP* sites.

(B) Immunofluorescent staining for Pdx1 at embryonic day (e) 12.5 and *Lsd1*, insulin (*Ins*) and glucagon (*Gcg*) at postnatal day (P) 0 in control and *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice. Boxed areas are shown in higher magnification. Scale bar, 50 μm.

(C) Quantification of pancreatic epithelial area at e12.5 and e15.5. Data shown as means ± SEM (n = 3 biological replicates). n.s., not significant, Student t-test.

(D) Immunofluorescent staining for *Ins* with somatostatin (*Sst*), pancreatic polypeptide (*Ppy*) and ghrelin (*Ghrl*) at P0 in control and *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice. Scale bar, 25 μm.

(E) Strategy for tamoxifen-inducible *Lsd1* deletion in embryonic pancreatic progenitors of mice at e10.5 (*Lsd1*^{Δearly}) and e12.5 (*Lsd1*^{Δlate}). Yellow boxes: exons; green triangles: *loxP* sites.

(F) Immunofluorescent staining for *Lsd1*, *Ins* and *Gcg* at e18.5 in control, *Lsd1*^{Δearly} and *Lsd1*^{Δlate} mice. Boxed areas are shown in higher magnification. Scale bar, 50 μm.

(G) Heatmap of gene expression in dissected pancreata from control and *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice at e13.5. Shown are PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Table 3).

(H) Relative normalized expression of select genes from group in (G) in *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice at e13.5. Data shown as mean ± S.E.M. relative to control values (blue bars), which were set to 1. *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01; ***p < 5e-5; n.s., not significant, DESeq2 output.

See also Figure S6.

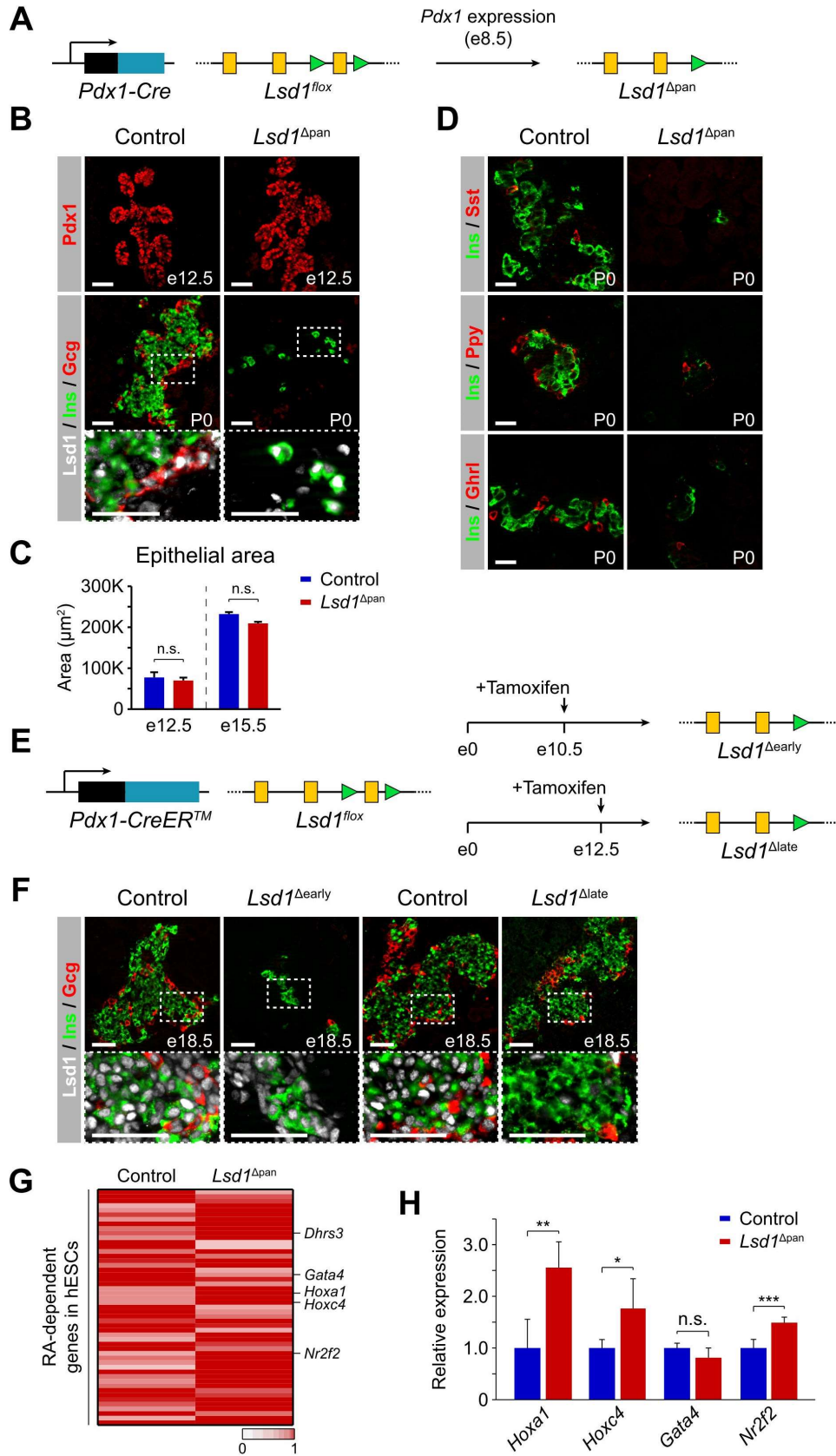


Figure S1. Related to Figure 1. Characterization of LSD1 expression and effects of LSD1 inhibition on pancreatic progenitor cells.

(A) Immunofluorescent staining for LSD1 with insulin (INS), glucagon (GCG) and somatostatin (SST) in adult human pancreas. Scale bar, 10 μm .

(B) *LSD1* mRNA expression at each stage of differentiation determined by RNA-seq, measured in fragments per kilobase per million fragments mapped (FPKM). Values shown as $\log_2(\text{FPKM})$.

(C) Immunofluorescent staining for LSD1 at each stage of hESC differentiation. Scale bar, 25 μm .

(D) Immunofluorescent staining for NKX6.1 and PDX1 in control and *LSD1^{early}* PP2 cells. Scale bar, 50 μm .

(E) Flow cytometry analysis for NKX6.1 and PDX1 comparing control and *LSD1^{early}* PP2 cells.
ES, embryonic stem cell; DE, definitive endoderm; GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors; EN, endocrine cell stage; FSC-A, forward scatter area.

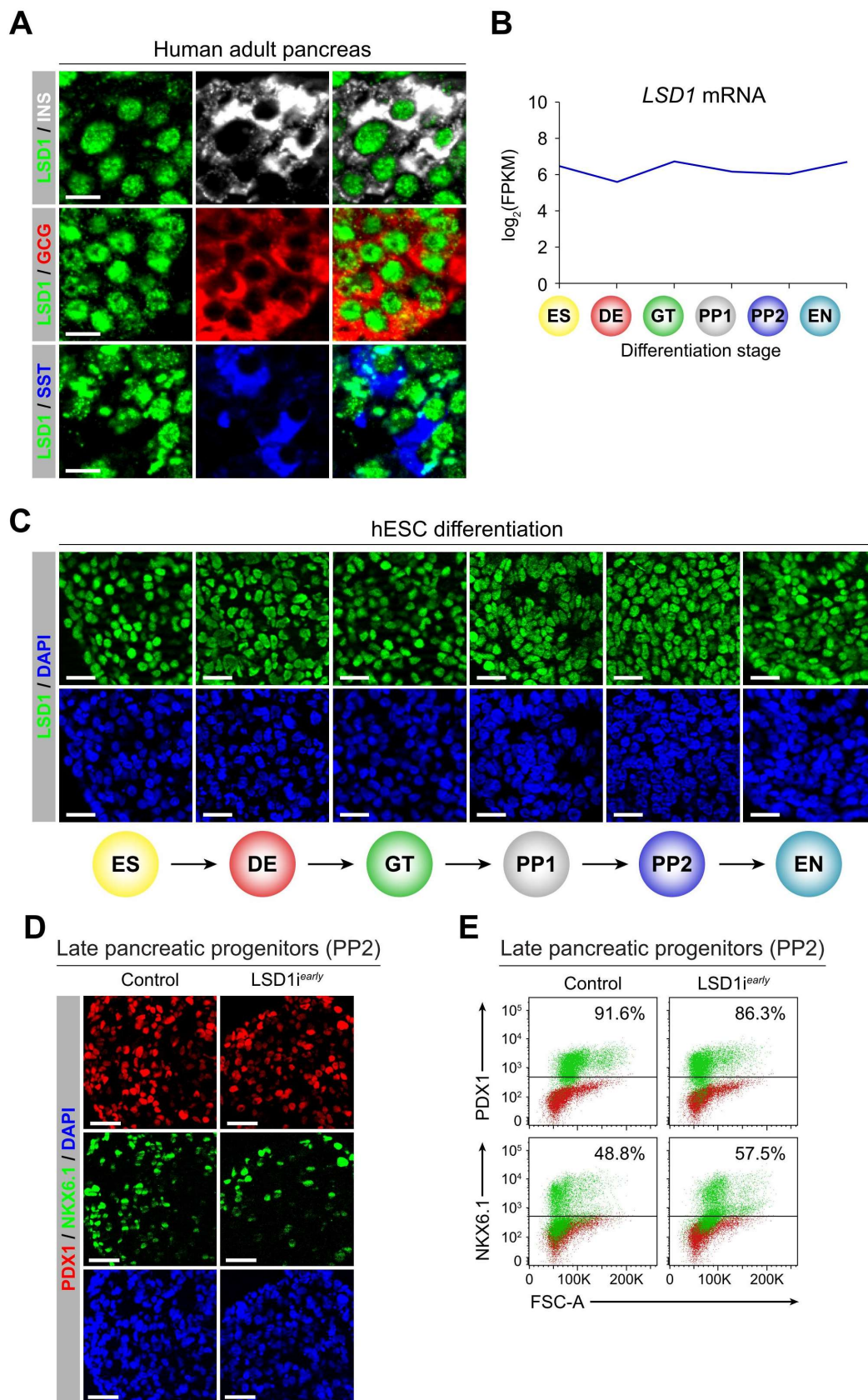


Figure S2. Related to Figure 2. Characterization of LSD1-bound genomic regions.

(A) LSD1 peak localization across the genome relative to transcriptional start sites (TSSs). 15,084 total LSD1 peaks identified in PP1. 3,285 peaks are proximal (within 3kb of a TSS) and 11,799 distal (> 3kb from a TSS).

(B) Tag density plots for G2 and G3 enhancers displaying H3K27ac, H3K4me2 and H3K4me1 tag distribution at P1 stage and PP2 stage with and without early LSD1 inhibition (LSD1i^{early}). Plots are centered on PP1 LSD1 peaks.

UTR, untranslated region; TTS, transcription termination site; ncRNA, non-coding RNA; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

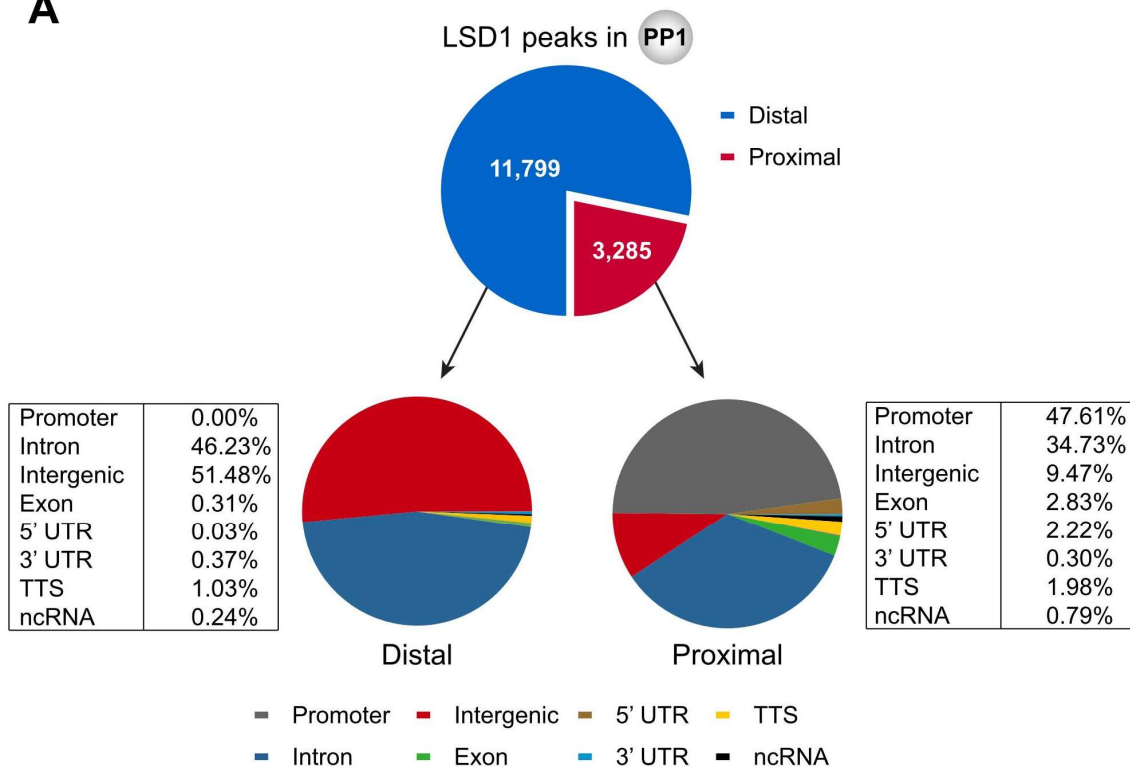
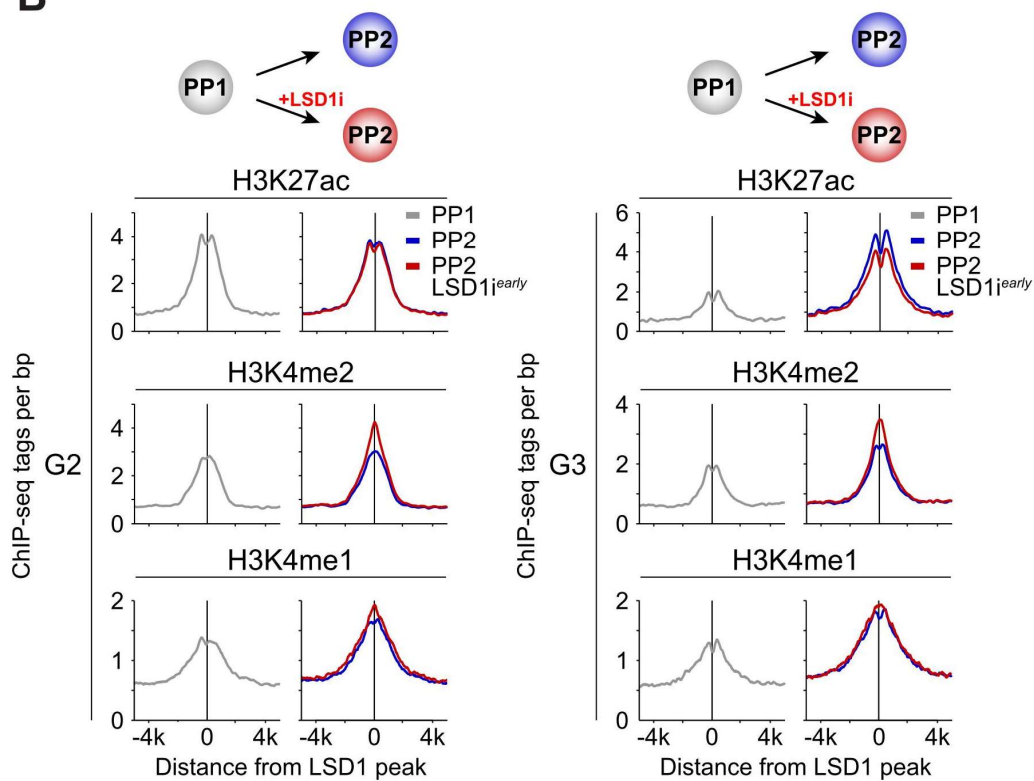
A**B**

Figure S3. Related to Figure 3. G1 enhancers exhibit greater enrichment for RXR binding than G2 and G3 enhancers.

(A) Percentage of G1, G2 and G3 enhancers versus random genomic regions bound by RXR within ± 10 kb of LSD1 peak at the PP1 stage. Significantly higher enrichment in G1 enhancers than in G2 and G3 enhancers. $**p < 5e-4$, chi-square.

(B) Changes in H3K4me1 and H3K4me2 levels at RXR-bound G1 enhancers during human embryonic stem cell differentiation with and without LSD1 inhibition (LSD1^{early}). $*p < 0.005$; $***p < 2.2e-16$; n.s., not significant, Wilcoxon.

(C) Relative normalized gene expression at the PP2 stage with and without early LSD1 inhibition (LSD1^{early}). Genes were selected from group of 74 genes exhibiting RA-dependent expression (Fig. 3E; Table 3). Data shown as mean \pm S.E.M. relative to control values (blue bars), which were set to 1. $*p < 0.005$; $**p < 5e-4$, DESeq2 output.

(D) LSD1, RXR, H3K4me2, and H3K27ac ChIP-seq profiles at enhancers near *GATA4* and *DHRS3*.

GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

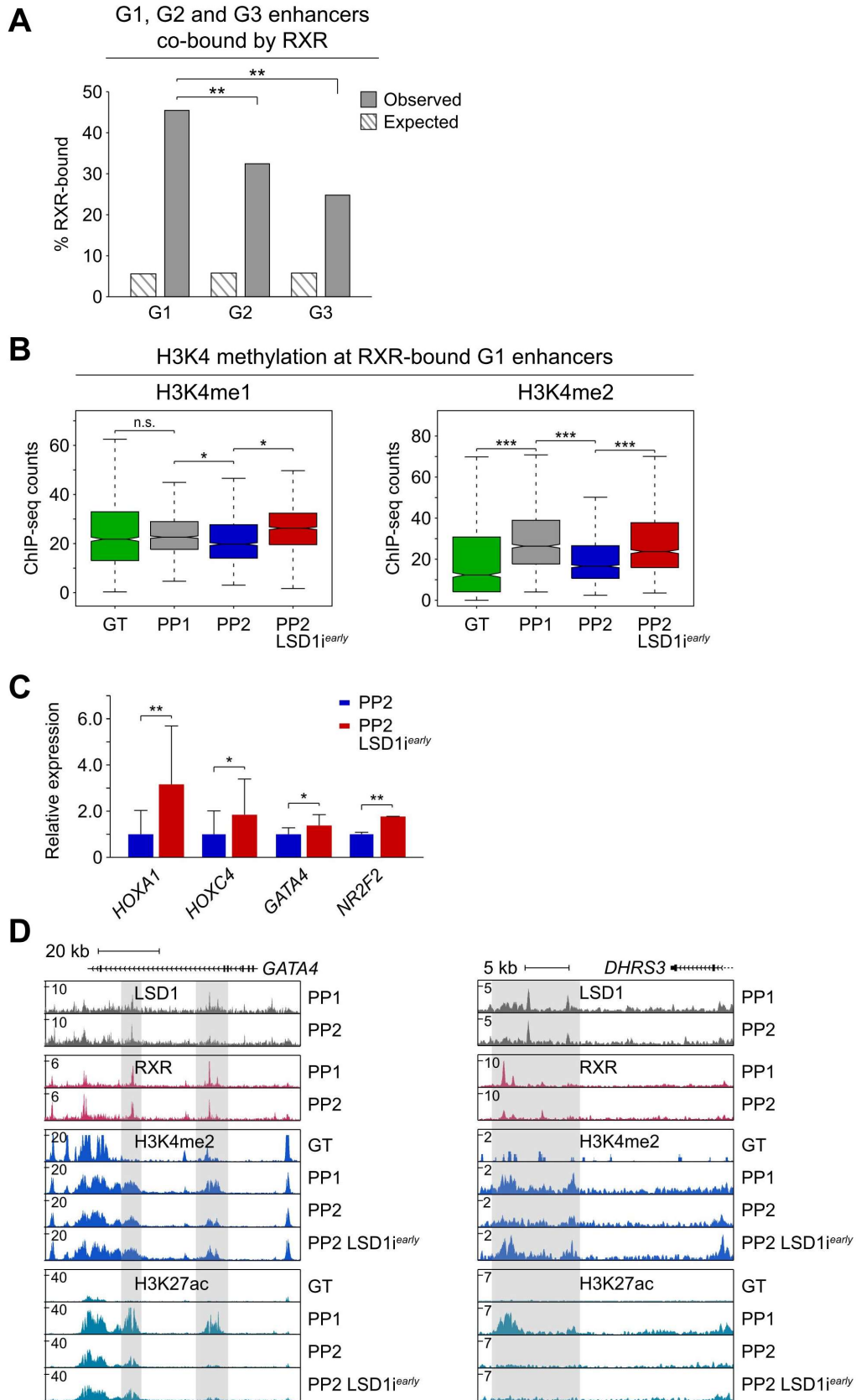


Figure S4. Related to Figure 4. Effects of prolonged retinoic acid treatment on pancreatic progenitor and endocrine cell phenotypes.

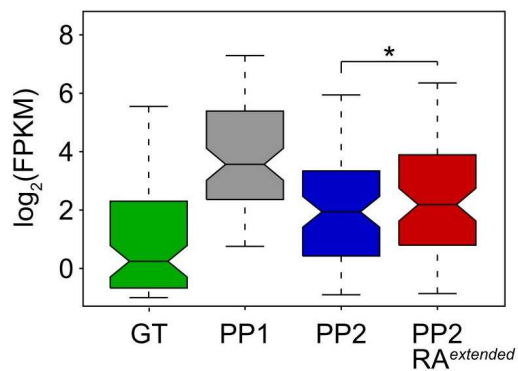
(A) Box plot of mRNA levels for genes exhibiting retinoic acid (RA)-dependent pattern (Table 3) comparing control and RA^{extended} PP2 cells. *p < 0.01, Wilcoxon.

(B) qRT-PCR analysis for *insulin* (*INS*), *glucagon* (*GCG*) and *somatostatin* (*SST*) in control and RA^{extended} EN cells. Data are shown as average ± S.E.M (n = 2 biological replicates). **p < 0.001, Student t-test.

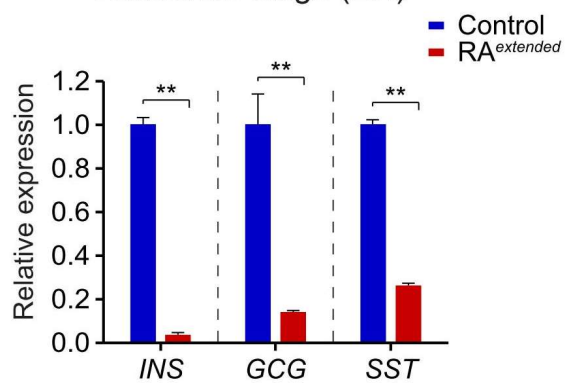
(C) Immunofluorescent staining for PDX1 and NKX6.1 in control endocrine stage cells (EN) compared to EN cells with extended RA treatment (RA^{extended}). Scale bar, 50 μm.

GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors.

A Expression of genes exhibiting RA-dependent pattern



B Endocrine stage (EN)



C Endocrine stage (EN)

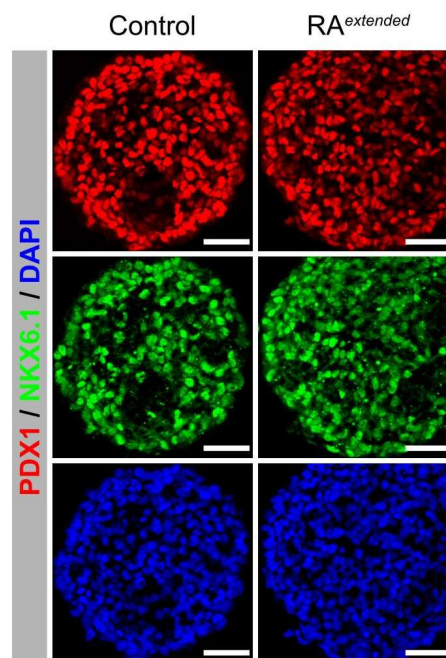


Figure S5. Related to Figure 5. Effects of re-introducing retinoic acid during endocrine cell differentiation with and without prior LSD1 inhibition.

(A) Immunofluorescent staining for PDX1 and NKX6.1 in control endocrine stage cells (EN) compared to EN cells with late retinoic acid (RA) treatment (RA^{late}). Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(B) qRT-PCR analysis for *INS*, *GCG* and *SST* in control and RA^{late} EN cells. Data are shown as average \pm S.E.M (n = 2 biological replicates).

(C) Box plot of mRNA levels for genes exhibiting RA-dependent pattern (Table 3) comparing control and RA^{late} EN cells. n.s., not significant.

(D) Flow cytometry analysis at EN stage for NKX6.1, PDX1 and INS comparing control EN cells to LSD1^{early} EN cells with and without late RA treatment (RA^{late}). Isotype control for each antibody is shown in red and target protein staining in green. Percentage of cells expressing each protein is indicated.

(E) Box plot of mRNA levels for genes exhibiting RA-dependent pattern (Table 3) comparing EN cells treated with LSD1^{early} alone and LSD1^{early} plus RA^{late}. *p < 0.005, Wilcoxon.

(F) Tag density plots displaying RXR tag distribution at RXR-bound G1 enhancers at the PP1 stage and PP2 stage with and without LSD1 inhibition (LSD1^{early}). Plots are centered on PP1 LSD1 peaks.

GT, primitive gut tube; PP1, early pancreatic progenitors; PP2, late pancreatic progenitors; EN, endocrine stage; FSC-A, forward scatter area.

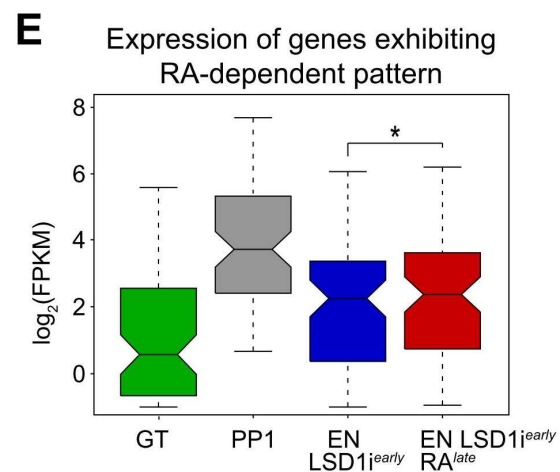
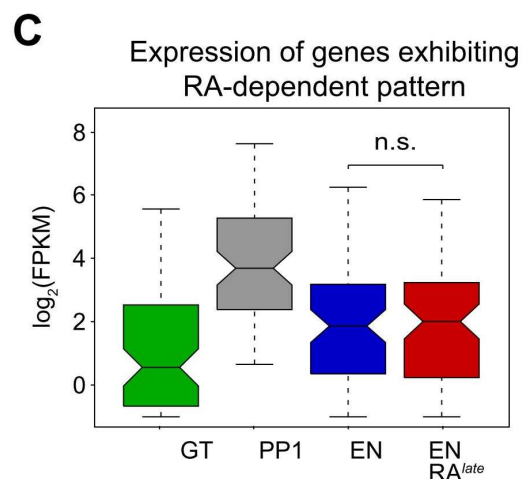
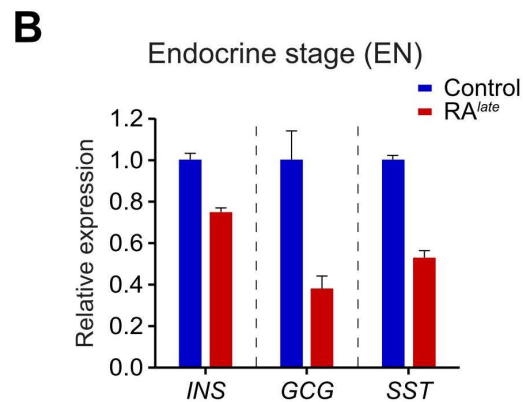
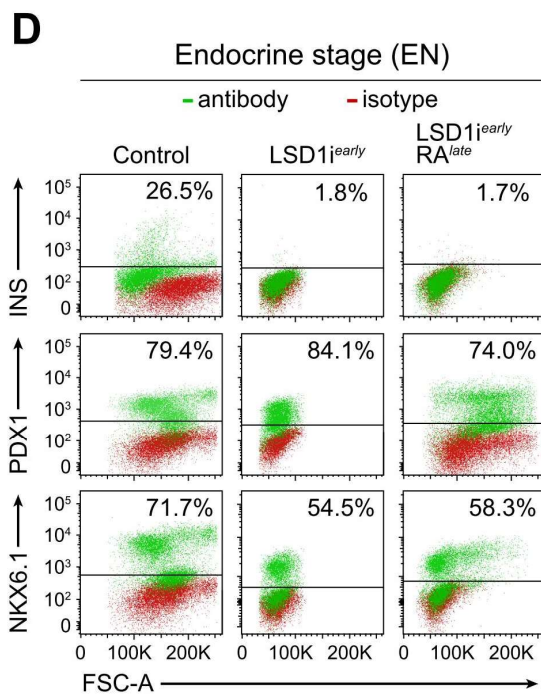
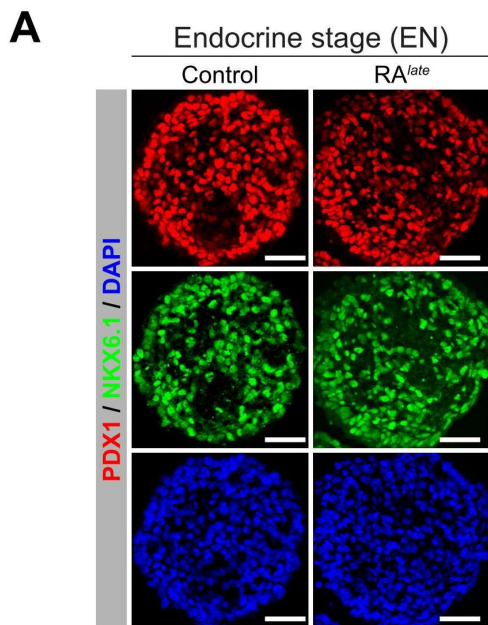


Figure S6. Related to Figure 6. Phenotypic characterization of *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice.

(A) Immunofluorescent staining of embryonic (e) and neonatal (P0) mouse pancreas for *Lsd1* with the pancreatic progenitor markers *Pdx1* and *Sox9*, the acinar marker carboxypeptidase 1 (*Cpa1*) or insulin (*Ins*) and glucagon (*Gcg*). Boxed areas are shown in higher magnification. Scale bar, 50 μ m.

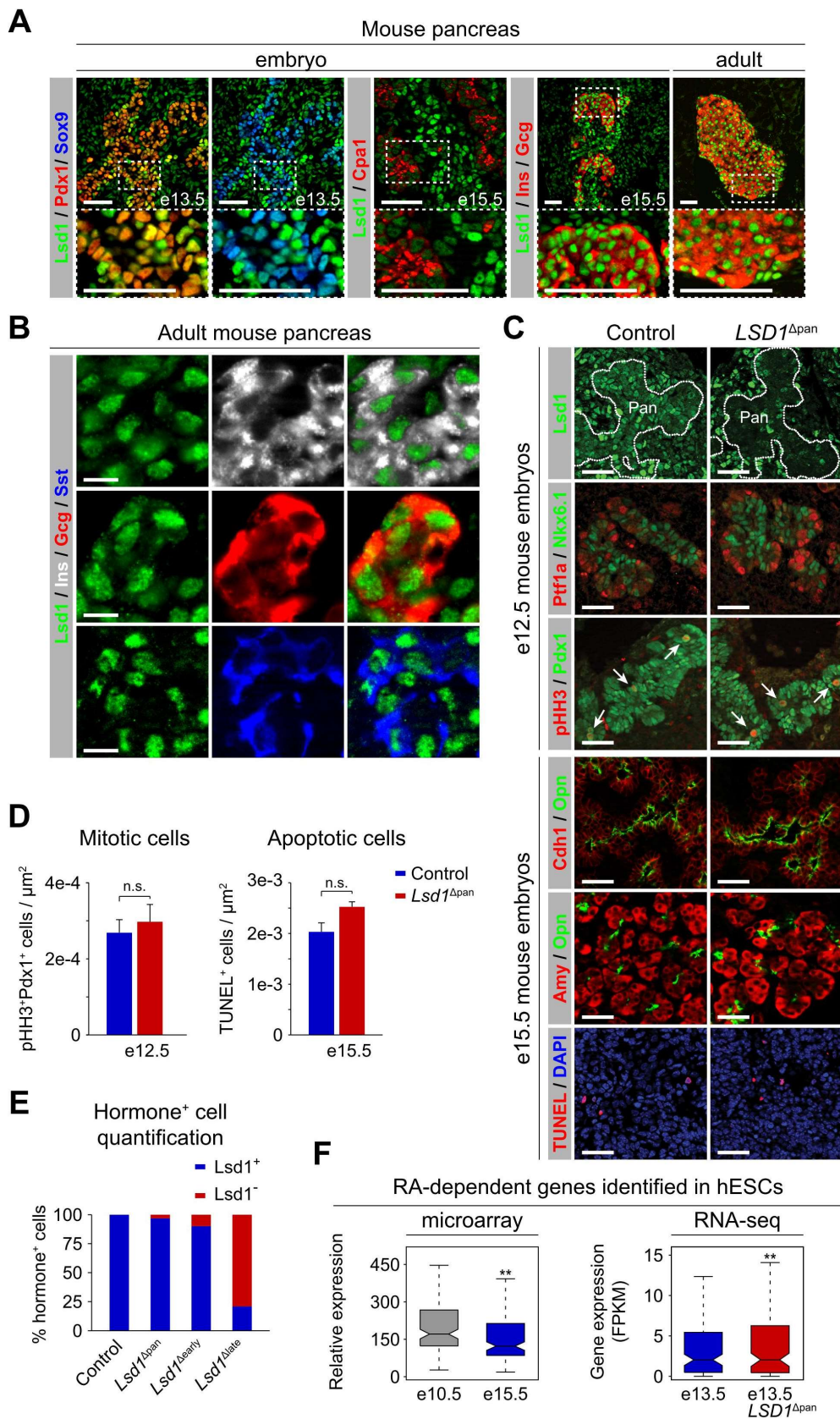
(B) Immunofluorescent staining for *Lsd1* with *Ins*, *Gcg* and *Sst* in mice at P0. Scale bar, 10 μ m.

(C) Immunofluorescent staining of pancreas (Pan) from control and *Lsd1*^{Δpan} embryos for *Lsd1*, *Ptf1a*, *Nkx6.1*, phospho histone H3 (pHH3), *Pdx1*, E-cadherin (*Cdh1*), osteopontin (*Opn*), amylase (*Amy*), and TUNEL. The nuclear counterstain, 4',6-diamidino-2-phenylindole (DAPI) is shown together with TUNEL staining. Scale bar, 50 μ m.

(D) Quantification of pHH3⁺ cells at e12.5 and apoptotic cells (TUNEL⁺) at e15.5 relative to pancreatic epithelial area. Data are shown means \pm SEM (n = 3 biological replicates). n.s, not significant, Student t-test.

(E) Quantification of hormone⁺ cells staining positive for *Lsd1* in control, *Lsd1*^{Δpan}, *Lsd1*^{Δearly}, and *Lsd1*^{Δlate} mice at P0. A total of 189-1057 hormone⁺ cells (insulin⁺ or glucagon⁺) were analyzed per genotype and set as 100% (n = 3 per genotype).

(F) Box plots of mRNA levels in mouse pancreas for PP1-specific genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers (Table 3). Relative gene expression determined by microarray analysis of sorted Sox9⁺ pancreatic progenitor cells at e10.5 and e15.5 (left). Gene expression determined by RNA-seq of dissected pancreata from control and *Lsd1*^{Δpan} mice at e13.5 (right) (n = 3 biological replicates).



TABLES

Table 1. Chromosomal coordinates of 612 RXR-bound G1 enhancers identified in the early pancreatic progenitor (PP1) stage of pancreatic differentiation of hESCs.

Table with 16 columns: chr, start, end, PeakID, chr, start, end, PeakID, chr, start, end, PeakID, chr, start, end, PeakID, chr, start, end, PeakID. The table lists genomic coordinates for 612 RXR-bound G1 enhancers across various chromosomes (chr1-22, X, Y).

Table 2. 634 genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers. Associated PeakID(s) and their distances from the nearest TSS are provided. Genes were assigned using GREAT version 3.0.0 (McLean, Bristol et al. 2010). Species assembly: hg19. Association rule: Basal+extension: 5000 bp upstream, 1000 bp downstream, 200000 bp max extension, curated regulatory domains included.

Table 3. Subset of 74 genes from the 634 genes associated with RXR-bound G1 enhancers. That exhibited RA-dependent gene expression patterns across the gut tube (GT), early (PP1) and late (PP2) pancreatic progenitor stages of pancreatic differentiation of hESCs.

Gene Names				
ABCA8	DHRS3	GLT8D2	MKRN3	RNF182
ADM	DNAH7	GPR37L1	MUC20	ROS1
AGO1	DUSP9	HMCN1	MYOF	SHH
ANO1	EHF	HOXA1	NEDD4L	SLC6A12
ASTN1	ELF3	HOXB1	NR2F2	SMOC1
ATP10B	EPHB3	HOXC4	PAQR7	STC2
B4GALNT1	ETS2	HSD17B14	PBX1	TMC6
C8orf49	FAM129A	IQGAP2	PLTP	TMEM110
CADM3	FANCE	ITGA11	POPDC3	TMEM44
CDC42EP1	FOXA1	ITGA6	PPARD	TRABD2B
CDHR3	GADD45G	ITPR3	PRKAB2	TTC30A
CHST15	GADL1	KCNJ4	PRKCDBP	VEGFA
CLIC6	GATA4	LNX1	PRR15	VILL
COLGALT1	GFRA1	LYST	PTGIS	ZNF703
CSF3R	GIP	MECOM	RARB	

Table 4. Example commands and software packages used for ChIP- and RNA-seq data analysis workflow.

Command	Comments	Software package
<code>bowtie2 -t --very-sensitive -x <hg19> input.fastq > output.sam</code>	Map ChIP-seq data to the human genome. The option "--very-sensitive" sets multiple parameters. Specifically, it is equivalent to setting all the following options: -D 20 -R 3 -N 0 -L 20 -i S,1,0.50	Bowtie 2 v2.2.7
<code>samtools view -bhu output.sam > output.bam</code>	Convert SAM file format to BAM in order to sort.	Samtools v1.3.1
<code>samtools sort output.bam > sorted_output.bam</code>	Sort BAM file in order to remove duplicates.	Samtools v1.3.1
<code>samtools rmdup -s sorted_output.bam rmdup_output.bam</code>	Remove exact duplicate read sequences.	Samtools v1.3.1
<code>makeTagDirectory rmdup_output_tagDir/ rmdup_output.bam -genome hg19 -checkGC</code>	Generate tag directories for downstream analyses and analyze GC content of sequencing results.	HOMER v4.9
<code>makeUCSCfile rmdup_output_tagDir/ -o auto -bigWig ~/chrom.sizes -fsize 1e20 > rmdup_output.trackInfo.txt</code>	Generate a file for data visualization on a genome browser.	HOMER v4.9
<code>getDifferentialPeaks PP1_H3K27ac_regions PP1_H3K27ac_tag_directory/ PP1_H3K27ac_tag_directory/ -F 2</code>	Uses tag directories to analyze for differential peak intensity between samples. The -F 2 option designates ≥ 2 -fold difference in peak intensity is a considered differential peak.	HOMER v4.9
<code>windowBed -a distal_PP1_LSD1_peaks -b deactivating_enhancers_PP1_to_P2 -w 1000 -u</code>	Identify peaks in file "-a" that are near peaks/regions from file "-b". The -w 1000 option looks for overlap ± 1000 bp of the peak.	Bedtools v2.17.0

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Chapter 1 includes material that is currently being prepared for submission for publication, Vinckier, Nicholas; Patel, Nisha; Wang, Allen; Wang, Jinzhao; Carrano, Andrea; Benner, Christopher and Sander, Maïke. "LSD1-mediated Decommissioning of Developmental Enhancers is Required for Proper Pancreatic Endocrine Formation". The dissertation author was the primary investigator and author of this material. This work was supported by funds granted to MS from the National Institutes of Health, Pediatrics Diabetes Research Consortium and the California Institute for Regenerative Medicine.

CHAPTER 2 - DISSECTING THE ROLE OF NEUROGENIN-3 IN HUMAN ENDOCRINE DEVELOPMENT

ABSTRACT

Diabetes mellitus is a widespread pancreatic disease that is characterized by the loss or dysfunction of insulin-producing beta-cells. One method of treating diabetes is the transplantation of beta cells from cadaver donors to diabetic patients. However, the lack of donor material and the need for lifelong immunosuppression has precluded widespread use of this therapy. Generation of functional beta-cells from human embryonic stem cells (hESCs) would not only provide an attractive and renewable cell-replacement therapy, but would also greatly increase our ability to understand human pancreas endocrine development and the pathogenesis of related diseases. Current in vitro pancreatic differentiation protocols exist that can generate properly specified hESC-derived pancreatic progenitors which are capable of becoming functional beta-cells in vivo after engraftment into mice. Recent advances in the field have progressed the state of the art such that functional, glucose-responsive, insulin-secreting cells can now be generated entirely in vitro. However, these hESC-derived beta cells often secrete low levels of insulin in a manner that is reminiscent of immature fetal beta cells (Russ, Sintov et al. 2011, Pagliuca, Millman et al. 2014, Reznika, Bruin et al. 2014). Moreover, the time required to reach this stage, beginning from the hESC state, can be a month or longer (Russ, Sintov et al. 2011, Pagliuca, Millman et al. 2014, Reznika, Bruin et al. 2014). Thus, as they exist now, these cells are not yet suitable as beta-cell replacements. While this shows it is possible to make beta-cells from hESCs, there remains a great desire to more rapidly produce fully functional and mature beta-cells entirely in vitro. Understanding the events that dictate cell fate decisions during pancreas development is critical to improving current protocols to rapidly generate functional beta cells in vitro. To achieve this goal, a greater understanding of the transcriptional events that specify proper human endocrine formation is required.

INTRODUCTION

The pancreas is a vital organ composed of three main compartments: acinar, ductal and endocrine. The endocrine cells are localized together forming the islets of Langerhans. Within these islets are five endocrine cell subtypes: alpha, beta, delta, epsilon and PP cells, which produce the hormones glucagon, insulin, somatostatin, ghrelin and pancreatic polypeptide, respectively (Shih, Wang et al. 2013). The insulin-producing beta cells are responsible for maintaining blood glucose homeostasis and their dysfunction results in diabetes. The need for better treatments and understanding of this incredibly prevalent disease has instigated a massive effort to generate beta cells *in vitro* (Schulz 2015). The many advances that have been made in the development of *in vitro* pancreatic differentiation protocols have been inspired by lessons learned from the mouse. During early murine development, the pancreas emerges from the early embryonic structure called the posterior foregut (Seymour and Sander 2011, Shih, Wang et al. 2013). At this stage the nascent pancreatic buds consist entirely of multipotent progenitor cells (MPCs) marked by the transcription factors PDX1, SOX9, PTF1A and NKX6.1 (Seymour and Sander 2011, Arda, Benitez et al. 2013, Shih, Wang et al. 2013). These MPC's subsequently undergo a series of morphogenetic changes and cell fate decisions which result in generation of the diverse cell types and complex structure of the mature pancreas. The first fate decision undergone by MPCs determines whether the cells will be restricted to the tip domain (acinar cells) or trunk domain (ductal and endocrine cells). The transcription factors PTF1A and NKX6.1 act as master regulators of this decision, where PTF1A specifies tip identity, while NKX6.1 specifies trunk identity. Although they are co-expressed in early MPCs, mutual repression between PTF1A and NKX6.1 ensures complete segregation of the two domains giving rise to PTF1A⁺ acinar cells and NKX6.1⁺ bipotent trunk progenitors (Schaffer, Freude et al. 2010, Shih, Wang et al. 2013). These trunk progenitors can become either ductal or endocrine cells. The basic helix-loop-helix transcription factor neurogenin-3 (NGN3) is the major driver of the endocrine cell fate. In mice, deletion of *Ngn3* results in a total absence of endocrine cells, whereas ectopic expression in early MPCs induces premature differentiation to endocrine cells (Gradwohl, Dierich et al. 2000, Johansson, Dursun et al. 2007). *Ngn3* is expressed for a short

time window in a subset of the bipotent trunk progenitors, during which it initiates cell-cycle exit and promotes terminal differentiation toward the endocrine fate (Schwitzgebel, Scheel et al. 2000, Gu, Dubauskaite et al. 2002, Gasa, Mrejen et al. 2004, Rukstalis and Habener 2009). Immunohistology of human embryonic tissue shows NGN3 follows a similar expression pattern to that observed in mice. Therefore, it is widely believed that NGN3 plays the same role in humans as it does in mice. However, studies of *NGN3* mutations, identified in non-diabetic humans, have raised some controversy over whether NGN3 is strictly required for human endocrine development.

In addition to the requirement of *Ngn3* for endocrine development in mice, the timing of its expression is critical for proper development of endocrine subtypes. Genetic experiments in mice have shown that premature expression of *Ngn3* in the developing embryo results in the production of polyhormonal endocrine cells (Apelqvist, Li et al. 1999, Schwitzgebel, Scheel et al. 2000, Johansson, Dursun et al. 2007). In addition, through slight alterations of the timing of *Ngn3* expression during development in a *Ngn3*-null background, it was shown that different endocrine subtypes were produced depending on when *Ngn3* was expressed (Johansson, Dursun et al. 2007). For example, when *Ngn3* was reconstituted at a time prior to the onset of endogenous *Ngn3* expression the majority of cells formed were glucagon⁺ (Johansson, Dursun et al. 2007). While many of these cells appeared to be normal alpha cells, a large proportion (~30%) co-expressed hormones other than glucagon. Conversely, when *Ngn3* was reconstituted at a time coincident with endogenous *Ngn3* expression, the majority of cells formed were insulin⁺. In this case, the insulin⁺ cells obtained were fully functional beta cells, virtually indistinguishable from wild-type beta cells. Moreover, there was a complete absence of any polyhormonal cells in the resulting endocrine population. These studies indicate that the timing of *Ngn3* expression is crucial not only for proper endocrine differentiation, but also in determining the subtype of endocrine cells produced.

Our lab employed a step-wise hESC differentiation protocol that mimics early endodermal and pancreatic development as shown by the correct induction of specific pancreatic markers, such as PDX1. This protocol reliably and efficiently generates pancreatic progenitors and endocrine cells *in vitro*. The resulting pancreatic progenitors are functional, as they are capable of further

differentiating into functional beta cells in vivo, following implantation into mice for 3-4 months (D'Amour, Bang et al. 2006, Kroon, Martinson et al. 2008, Schulz, Young et al. 2012). At the time of this study, however, the in vitro-derived endocrine cells were non-functional, characterized by the expression of multiple hormones, lack of true beta cell markers (NKX6.1, PDX1, MAFA), and the inability to secrete insulin in response to glucose stimulation. These endocrine cells are strikingly similar to the polyhormonal cells that result from early expression of Ngn3 in the aforementioned mice studies (Johansson, Dursun et al. 2007). Perhaps unsurprisingly, NGN3 is expressed too early during in vitro differentiation, preceding the appearance of the trunk progenitor markers SOX9, PDX1 and NKX6.1d. Based on mouse studies as well as our own observations, we hypothesized that this premature expression of NGN3, during the in vitro differentiation, induces endocrine formation in cells that have not been properly restricted to one subtype, causing them to express multiple hormones. Furthermore, we speculated that suppression of NGN3 expression until after the emergence of pancreatic progenitors could provide the cells sufficient time to become restricted to a single potential subtype. In this study, we examined the results of forced misexpression of NGN3 during pancreatic differentiation of human embryonic stem cells. Using lentiviral overexpression and shRNA knockdown strategies, we studied the role of NGN3 expression in pancreatic progenitors and demonstrated that NGN3 knockdown prevents endocrine formation while its overexpression induces differentiation to the endocrine stage. Our results provide direct evidence that, as in mice, NGN3 expression is necessary and sufficient for endocrine specification in human cells.

RESULTS

Knockdown of NGN3 in hESCs results in a decrease of endocrine cells.

To study human pancreatic endocrine development, our lab uses a step-wise differentiation protocol in which hESCs are aggregated in non-adherent conditions and differentiated to pancreatic progenitors and polyhormonal endocrine cells. These non-functional endocrine cells typically emerge by D13, which marks the end of the differentiation (Figure 7A). To determine whether

NGN3 is necessary for endocrine specification in our hESC differentiation system, we performed specific knockdown of *NGN3* in hESCs using lentiviral short hairpin RNAs (shRNAs). To do this, we used four lentiviral constructs, each containing a constitutively expressed shRNA sequence targeting a different region of the endogenous human *NGN3* transcript. Lentiviruses were constructed using our 2nd generation lentiviral assembly protocol and hESCs were transduced with a mixture of the four viruses. A scrambled shRNA construct was used to generate cell lines to be used as a negative control. A puromycin resistance gene within the construct allowed for selection of cells that had efficiently integrated the viral payload. Following expansion under puromycin selection, cells were passaged into non-adherent culture conditions and prepared for pancreatic differentiation. During normal differentiation, endogenous *NGN3* expression peaks at day 8 (D8) (Figure 7B). Quantitative PCR (qPCR) of both *NGN3* knockdown (*NGN3* KD) and control cells at D8 showed only about a 50% reduction in expression (Figure 8A). Although *NGN3* was only reduced by half, expression of *NEUROD1*, a direct target of *NGN3*, was reduced by about 75%. Immunofluorescence and qPCR analysis of D13 *NGN3* KD cells showed a drastic reduction of insulin and glucagon protein and mRNA levels, respectively (Figure 8B). This finding suggests that *NGN3* is necessary for human endocrine development. Moreover, nearly all *NGN3* KD cells expressed pancreatic progenitor markers, suggesting *NGN3* is dispensable for progenitor formation *in vitro* (Figure 8C). These observations are in agreement with results from studies of *Ngn3*^{-/-} mice (Gradwohl, Dierich et al. 2000), which showed a complete lack of endocrine cells without *Ngn3*. However, because RNA knockdown did not fully abolish *NGN3* expression, and endocrine cells were still made, it became clear that a full knockout of *NGN3* in hESCs would be necessary to conclusively determine its necessity for human endocrine formation.

Overexpression of NGN3 in differentiating cells results in an increase of hormone expression.

To determine whether *NGN3* is sufficient to induce endocrine formation, we constructed a lentiviral transfer vector comprised of the human cDNA sequence for *NGN3* preceded by the constitutive phosphoglycerate kinase (PGK) promoter. An identical construct expressing GFP was

used as a control. hESCs were differentiated in aggregate form to D7, dissociated and transduced with either the NGN3 overexpression (*NGN3* OE) or GFP lentivirus. Cells were allowed to re-aggregate and differentiation was continued normally to D13. 24 hours after transduction, samples were analyzed for expression of NGN3 by qPCR and immunofluorescence. While a robust increase in both endogenous and transgenic mRNA was observed, no significant change in NGN3 protein levels was detected (Figure 9A and data not shown). 3 days after transduction (D10) NGN3 protein expression appeared was slightly increased over controls, while qPCR analysis revealed *NGN3* transcript levels remained much higher than controls (Figure 9A and data not shown). By D13, *NGN3* mRNA levels were still very high compared to controls, but only a few NGN3⁺ cells were observed by immunofluorescence (Figure 9A and 9B). Analysis of *NGN3* OE cells at D10 and D13 showed little to no increase in insulin and glucagon protein expression, while qPCR showed slightly elevated levels of hormone transcripts at D13 (Figure 9B). These results suggest that forced expression of NGN3 does not induce endocrine formation. This was most likely due to the lack of protein overexpression, despite clearly elevated levels of *NGN3* mRNA.

Due to the discrepancy between mRNA and protein expression, we suspected complex regulation of NGN3 was at play. Literature searches revealed abundant biochemical and *in vivo* evidence showing that NGN3, and the related NGN2, are heavily regulated at both the post-transcriptional and post-translational levels (Vosper, Fiore-Herichie et al. 2007, Vosper, McDowell et al. 2009, McDowell, Kucerova et al. 2010, Ali, Hindley et al. 2011, Hindley, Ali et al. 2012). Reasoning that the negative regulation of NGN3 might be brought on by its own expression, we sought to overexpress NGN3 at a later time to escape this regulation. we therefore overexpressed NGN3 at D10, when endogenous *NGN3* transcript has largely disappeared (Figure 7B). 3 days after transduction (D13) a significant increase in NGN3 protein expression was seen in *NGN3* OE cells but not in controls (Figure 9C). Insulin and glucagon mRNA levels were drastically increased in D13 *NGN3* OE cells compared to controls. In addition, immunofluorescence staining showed slightly more glucagon⁺ cells in *NGN3* OE conditions compared to controls (Figure 9C). These results suggest NGN3 may be sufficient to induce endocrine specification in human cells.

During normal differentiation, a large proportion of cells express pancreatic progenitor markers by D10. However, many hormone⁺ endocrine cells, as well as those destined to become endocrine cells, also exist at this stage. This is likely due to the endogenous wave of NGN3 expression observed around D8. As this endogenous expression preceded the transgenic overexpression at D10, it is possible that *NGN3* OE simply caused an increase in hormone expression in the endocrine/pre-endocrine cells rather than inducing pancreatic progenitors to become endocrine cells. In order to conclusively determine if NGN3 is sufficient to drive pancreatic progenitors to the endocrine fate, we induced NGN3 overexpression in sorted pancreatic progenitors prior to the premature wave of NGN3.

Overexpression of NGN3 in sorted hESC-derived progenitors induces the endocrine fate.

As previously stated, the in vitro protocol we use generates both pancreatic progenitors and polyhormonal endocrine cells. The heterogeneity of the differentiated cells has precluded our efforts to determine whether NGN3 can induce endocrine formation from hESC-derived pancreatic progenitors. In order to answer this question, we require a method to isolate the progenitors from the endocrine cells. Prior research by ViaCyte Inc. identified CD142 and CD200, as cell surface markers expressed on pancreatic progenitors or polyhormonal endocrine cells, respectively (Kelly, Chan et al. 2011). Fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS) using these markers allows for efficient separation of the two cell types (Kelly, Chan et al. 2011). Low cell viability following FACS precluded ViaCyte Inc.'s efforts to perform transplant experiments with purified progenitors. However, by employing a gentler method of magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS), they showed that CD142⁺ progenitors are capable of becoming functional beta-cells following transplantation, while CD200⁺ endocrine cells are not (Kelly, Chan et al. 2011). We recently optimized a similar MACS method for use in our hESC differentiation system allowing for longer cell survival in culture.

Using the optimized MACS protocol, we were able to isolate a highly pure population of CD142⁺ pancreatic progenitors at D13. To determine if NGN3 expression is sufficient to drive these progenitors to the endocrine fate, we transduced them with *NGN3* OE lentivirus, re-aggregated the

cells and continued culturing them for 9 days (D22). Immunofluorescence analysis showed robust NGN3 protein expression that was sustained to D22 (Figure 10A). Additionally, more hormone⁺ cells, marked by the pan-endocrine protein chromogranin A (CHGA), were seen in *NGN3* OE cells compared to controls (Figure 10A). This result suggests NGN3 expression is sufficient to drive endocrine differentiation from pancreatic progenitors. To assess whether forced NGN3 expression in D13 progenitors made more monohormonal cells than cells expressing NGN3 earlier, we analyzed expression of the individual hormones insulin and glucagon in the endocrine cells produced (Figure 10B). The clear segregation of insulin and glucagon expression in those endocrine cells suggests the later progenitors, upon NGN3 expression, are capable of becoming monohormonal cells *in vitro* (Figure 10B). However, further characterization of these cells is necessary to ensure other pancreatic hormones are not co-expressed. Many of the *NGN3* OE cells that were insulin⁺ also expressed the beta-cell marker NKX6.1 (Figure 10C), a characteristic lacking in the polyhormonal cells generated during normal differentiation. In contrast, the single insulin⁺ cell identified in control cells did not co-express NKX6.1 (Figure 10C). Previous work from our lab has highlighted the extreme importance of NKX6.1 expression for both the differentiation to, and maintenance of, functional beta-cells *in vivo* (Sander, Sussel et al. 2000, Taylor, Liu et al. 2013). Up to this point, we had not observed robust NKX6.1 expression in any hormone⁺ cells generated *in vitro*. While these results are encouraging, more work is required to fully assess the whether these hormone⁺ cells generated via NGN3 overexpression in hESC-derived pancreatic progenitors can function as beta cells and secrete insulin in response to glucose stimulation.

DISCUSSION

The results presented here suggest that NGN3 is both necessary and sufficient to drive pancreatic endocrine formation in human cells, as it is in mice. In recent years, conclusive evidence in support of these conclusions has been published (McGrath, Watson et al. 2015). To continue to dissect the role of NGN3 in pancreatic endocrine specification and build upon this research, experiments in which NGN3 expression is rescued at different times during differentiation of *NGN3*-

null hESCs could determine whether timing and duration of NGN3 expression dictates the pancreatic endocrine subtypes that are formed. Aside from filling a knowledge gap in how NGN3 controls pancreatic endocrine formation, these experiments could ultimately pave the way for researchers to begin to generate whole human islets, complete with all endocrine subtypes, entirely in vitro. Although the topic of a cell replacement therapy for diabetes often solely focuses on the beta cell, there is evidence that other endocrine subtypes such as the glucagon-producing alpha cells may be vital for maintaining proper beta cell function (Rodriguez-Diaz, Dando et al. 2011). Therefore, generating whole pancreatic islets from hESCs may, someday become the gold standard of cell replacement therapies for diabetes.

A comprehensive understanding of the importance of proper spatial and temporal expression of transcription factors, like NGN3, during differentiation is crucial to advancing the state of the art of in vitro generation of hESC-based cell and organ replacement therapies (Trounson and DeWitt 2016). As the knowledge of the scientific community grows, one can envision a future in which generation of various different cell types from hESCs can be achieved entirely through precise manipulation of external signals, without the need for viral transductions or transfections of exogenous DNA or RNA. These methods could eventually be applied to patient-derived induced pluripotent cells to generate patient-specific replacement cells that are safe and effective and do not require immunosuppression, providing a virtually limitless source of “self-donor” material for patients who suffer from any number of ailments.

METHODS

Human embryonic stem cell (hESC) culture and expansion.

CyT49 human embryonic stem cells (NIH registration number: 0041) were maintained as previously described (Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Briefly, expansion of hESCs was achieved by passing cells every 3 days and culturing in sterile T-75 culture flasks (Corning®). Accutase™ (Innovative Cell Technologies) was used for cell dissociation and flasks were coated with a 10% (vol/vol) solution of human AB serum (Valley Biomedical). Flasks were seeded with 4 x

10⁶ hESCs for 3 days of culture before passaging. Fresh maintenance media was supplied for hESCs each day and consisted of DMEM/F12 (Life Technologies) supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) KnockOut™ Serum Replacement XenoFree (Life Technologies), 0.1 mM MEM non-essential amino acids (Mediatech), 1X GlutaMAX™ (Life Technologies), 1% (vol/vol) penicillin/streptomycin (Life Technologies), 0.1 mM 2-mercaptoethanol (Life Technologies), 10 ng/mL Activin A (R&D Systems), and 10 ng/mL Heregulin-β1 (PeproTech).

Pancreatic differentiation of hESCs.

Pancreatic differentiation was performed as previously described (Schulz, Young et al. 2012, Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Wang, Yue et al. 2015). Briefly, we used a suspension-based culture format to differentiate cells in aggregate form. Undifferentiated aggregates of hESCs were formed by re-suspending dissociated cells in hESC maintenance media at a concentration of 1 x 10⁶ cells/mL and plating 5.5 mL per well of the cell suspension in 6-well ultra-low attachment plates (Costar). The cells were cultured overnight on an orbital rotator (Innova2000, New Brunswick Scientific) at 95 rpm. After 24 hours the undifferentiated aggregates were washed once with RPMI media and supplied with 5.5 mL of Day 0 differentiation media. Thereafter, cells were supplied with the fresh media for the appropriate day of differentiation (see below). Cells were continually rotated at 95 rpm, or 105 rpm on days 4 through 8 and no media change was performed on Day10. Both RPMI (Mediatech) and DMEM High Glucose (HyClone) media were supplemented with 1X GlutaMAX™ and 1% penicillin/streptomycin. Human activin A, mouse Wnt3a, human KGF, human Noggin, and human EGF were purchased from R&D systems. Other added components included FBS (HyClone), B-27® supplement (Life Technologies), Insulin-Transferrin-Selenium (ITS; Life Technologies), TGFβ R1 kinase inhibitor IV (EMD Bioscience), KAAD-Cyclopamine (KC; Toronto Research Chemicals), and the retinoic receptor agonist TTNPB (RA; Sigma Aldrich). Day-specific media differentiation media formulations were as follows: Days 0 and 1: RPMI + 0.2% (v/v) FBS, 100 ng/mL Activin, 50 ng/mL mouse Wnt3a, 1:5000 ITS. Days 1 and 2: RPMI + 0.2% (v/v) FBS, 100ng/mL Activin, 1:5000 ITS. Days 2 and 3: RPMI + 0.2% (v/v) FBS, 2.5 mM TGFβ R1 kinase

inhibitor IV, 25 ng/mL KGF, 1:1000 ITS. Days 3 – 5: RPMI + 0.2% (v/v) FBS, 25 ng/mL KGF, 1:1000 ITS. Days 5 – 8: DMEM + 0.5X B-27® Supplement, 3 nM TTNPB, 0.25 mM Cyclopamine, 50 ng/mL Noggin. Days 8 – 12: DMEM/B27, 50 ng/mL KGF, 50 ng/mL EGF.

Design and construction of overexpression and knockdown lentiviruses.

Overexpression lentivirus was constructed using the pRRLSIN.cPPT.PGK-GFP.WPRE payload vector backbone. The GFP cassette was replaced by human *NGN3* cDNA through standard restriction digest and ligation cloning. *NGN3* cDNA was generated from hESC genomic DNA using the following primers: *NGN3*-F 5'- ATGACGCCTCAACCCTCG-3' and *NGN3*-R 5'- TCACAGAAAATCTGAGAAAGCC-3'. Knockdown lentivirus was constructed using payload vectors containing shRNA sequences targeting *NGN3* that have been previously described (McGrath, Watson et al. 2015). Lentiviruses were assembled via co-transfection of HEK293T cells with either overexpression or knockdown vectors, along with pCMV R8.74 and pMD.G helper plasmids. Viral supernatant was collected and concentrated by ultracentrifugation at 19,400 rpm for 2 hours using an Optima L-80 XP Ultracentrifuge (Beckman Coulter). To generate *NGN3* knockdown cell lines, undifferentiated hESCs were transduced with lentiviruses containing shRNAs targeting *NGN3* and maintained as described above, with the addition of 2 µg/mL puromycin to select for cells expressing the shRNA. Cells were maintained under antibiotic selection throughout expansion prior to seeding for differentiation. In order to overexpress *NGN3* during differentiation aggregated cells were first dissociated into single cells using Accutase™ and supplied with fresh differentiation media for the appropriate day, with 50 µL of viral concentrate added to the media. Plates were then placed back on the orbital rotator at 95 rpm at 37 °C overnight, to induce re-aggregation. Either GFP overexpression or scrambled shRNA viruses served as controls.

Magnetic sorting of pancreatic progenitors

Magnetic-activated cell sorting (MACS) to isolate pancreatic progenitors from polyhormonal cells was performed using the MACS® Cell Separation kit (Miltenyi Biotec). At Day

10 of differentiation, hESC-derived cell aggregates were dissociated using the reagents included with the MACS[®] Cell Suspension kit. This and all subsequent steps were carried out according to the manufacturer instructions. Primary antibodies targeting the cell-surface proteins used to distinguish progenitors from endocrine cells were CD200-APC and CD142-PE (1:10, BD Biosciences). Separated cells were collected in wells of new 6-well Ultra-low attachment plates and supplied with fresh Day 10 media. For *NGN3* overexpression experiments, sorted CD142⁺ cells were transduced with *NGN3* overexpression virus prior to placing plates were back on the orbital rotator at 95 rpm at 37 °C overnight, to induce re-aggregation, and differentiation was continued normally.

Immunofluorescence analysis.

Cell aggregates derived from hESCs were allowed to settle in microcentrifuge tubes and washed twice with PBS before fixation with 4% paraformaldehyde for 30 min at room temperature. Fixed cells were washed twice with PBS and incubated overnight at 4 °C in 30% (w/v) sucrose in PBS. Cell aggregates were then loaded into disposable embedding molds (VWR), covered in Tissue-Tek[®] O.C.T. Sakura[®] Finetek compound (VWR) and flash frozen on dry ice to prepare frozen blocks. The blocks were sectioned at 10 µm and sections were placed on Superfrost Plus[®] (Thermo Fisher) microscope slides and washed with PBS for 10 min. Slide-mounted cell sections were permeabilized and blocked with blocking buffer, consisting of 0.15% (v/v) Triton X-100 (Sigma) and 1% (v/v) normal donkey serum (Jackson Immuno Research Laboratories) in PBS, for 1 hour at room temperature. Slides were then incubated overnight at 4 °C with primary antibody solutions. The following day slides were washed five times with PBS and incubated for 1 hour at room temperature with secondary antibody solutions. Cells were washed five times with PBS before coverslips were applied. All antibodies were diluted in blocking buffer at the ratios indicated below. Primary antibodies used were: sheep anti-NGN3 (1:300, R&D Systems); rabbit anti-SOX9 (1:1000 dilution, Millipore); goat anti-PDX1 (1:500 dilution, Abcam); mouse anti-NKX6.1 (1:300 dilution, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank); rabbit anti-CHGA (1:1000, DAKO); guinea pig anti-INS

(1:500, DAKO), mouse anti-GCG (1:500, Sigma), rabbit anti-SST (1:500, DAKO). Secondary antibodies against sheep, rabbit, goat, mouse and guinea pig were Alexa488-, Cy3- and Cy5-conjugated donkey antibodies and were used at dilutions of 1:1000, 1:2000, and 1:250, respectively (Jackson Immuno Research Laboratories). Representative images were obtained with a Zeiss Axio-Observer-Z1 microscope equipped with a Zeiss ApoTome and AxioCam digital camera. Figures were prepared in Adobe Creative Suite 5.

Reverse Transcription and Quantitative PCR (RT-qPCR) analysis.

Total RNA was isolated from hESC-derived cell aggregates using the RNeasy® Micro Kit (Qiagen). Synthesis of cDNA was performed using the iScript™ cDNA Synthesis Kit (Bio-Rad) and 500 ng of isolated RNA per reaction. PCR reactions were performed in triplicate with 10 ng of template cDNA per reaction using a CFX96™ Real-Time PCR Detection System and the iQ™ SYBR® Green Supermix (Bio-Rad). PCR of the TATA binding protein (TBP) coding sequence was used as an internal control and relative expression was quantified via double delta C_T analysis.

Primers used for RT-qPCR are as follows:

INS-F: 5'-AAGAGGCCATCAAGCAGATCA

INS-R: 5'-CAGGAGGCGCATCCACA

GCG-F: 5'-AAGCATTACTTTGTGGCTGGATT

GCG-R: 5'-TGATCTGGATTTCTCCTCTGTGTCT

SST-F: 5'-CCCCAGACTCCGTCAGTTTC

SST-R: 5'-TCCGTCTGGTTGGGTTTCAG

NGN3-F: 5'-ACTGTCCAAGTGACCCGTGA

NGN3-R: 5'-TCAGTGCCAACTCGCTCTTAG

TBP-F: 5'-ATTAAGGGAGGGAGTGGCAC

TBP-R: 5'-GCTTTGCTTCCCTTTCCCAA

FIGURES

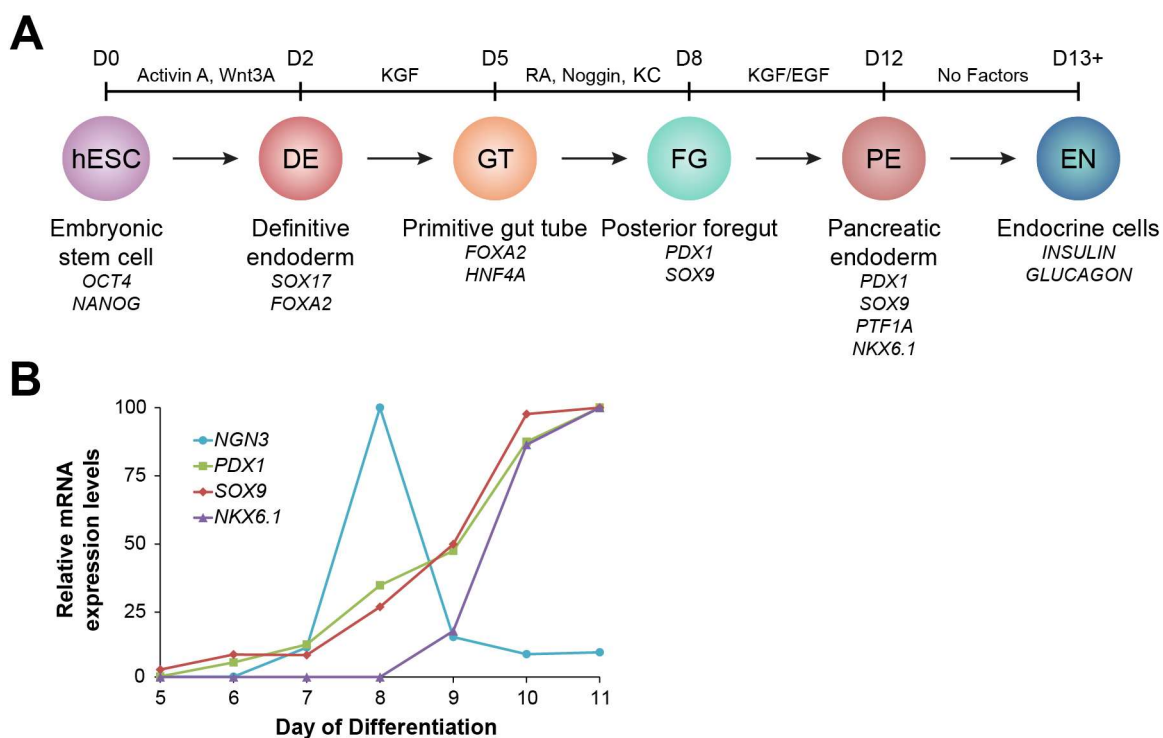


Figure 7. Pancreatic Differentiation of hESCs. **(A)** Schematic of directed differentiation protocol from human embryonic stem cells (hESCs), through lineage intermediates, to hormone⁺ cells. Timing of expression for key stage-specific protein markers shown below stage names. Exogenous differentiation factors added to media are listed for the appropriate stages. **(B)** Relative mRNA levels during differentiation show peak activation of *NGN3* before that of the trunk progenitor markers *NKX6.1*, *PDX1* and *SOX9*. Relative expression values shown as percentages (0 – 100) of each gene's maximum expression across the differentiation time course.

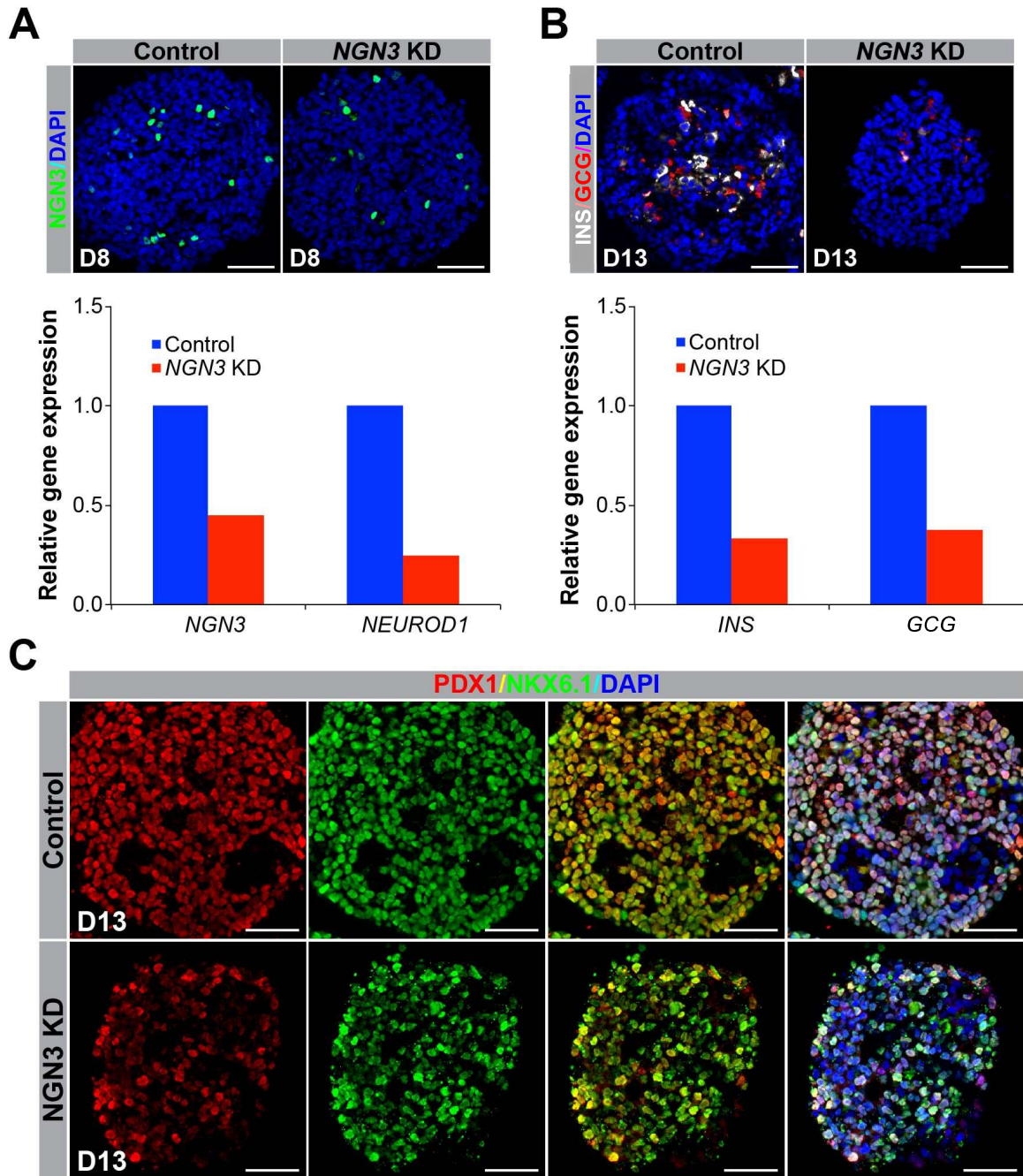


Figure 8. Knockdown of *NGN3* Prevents Formation of hESC-derived Pancreatic Endocrine Cells. (A) Immunofluorescence analysis for *NGN3* expression (top) and RT-qPCR analysis of mRNA levels for *NGN3* and its downstream target, *NEUROD1* at D8 of differentiation. (B) End-stage analysis for insulin and glucagon show diminished expression of both hormones in *NGN3* KD cells. (C) *NGN3* KD cells still express the pancreatic trunk progenitor markers *NKX6.1* and *PDX1*. Scale bars, 50 μ M.

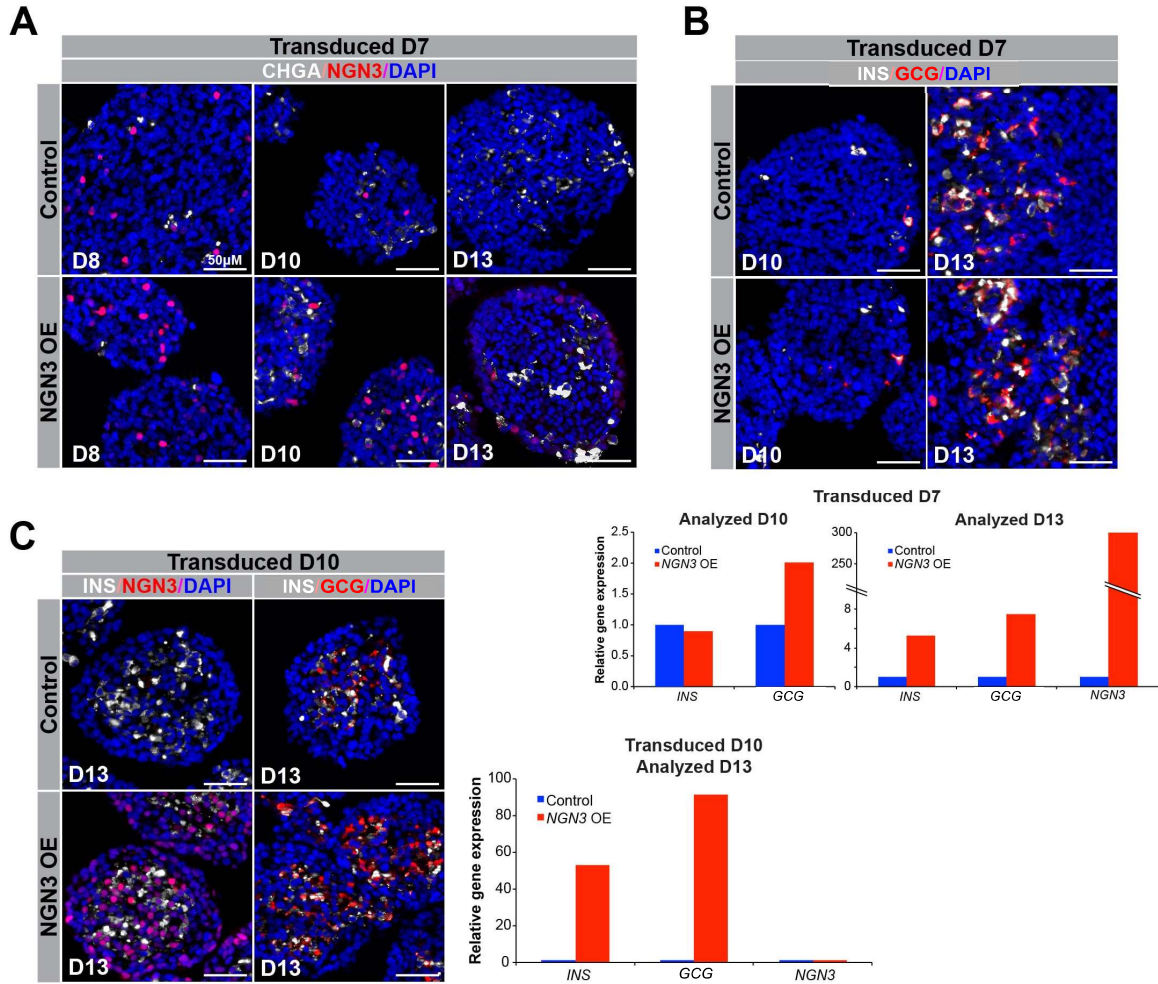


Figure 9. Overexpression of NGN3 at Different Times During Pancreatic Differentiation of hESCs. (A) Immunofluorescence analysis for NGN3 and chromogranin A (CHGA) 1, 3 and 5 days after D7 transduction of NGN3 OE. (B) Immunofluorescence (above) and RT-qPCR (below) analysis for insulin and glucagon 3 and 6 days after D7 transduction. End-stage RT-qPCR analysis for *NGN3* also shown (below). (C) Immunofluorescence (left) and RT-qPCR (right) analysis for NGN3, insulin and glucagon 3 days after D10 transduction. End-stage RT-qPCR analysis for *NGN3* also shown (right). Scale bars, 50 μ M.

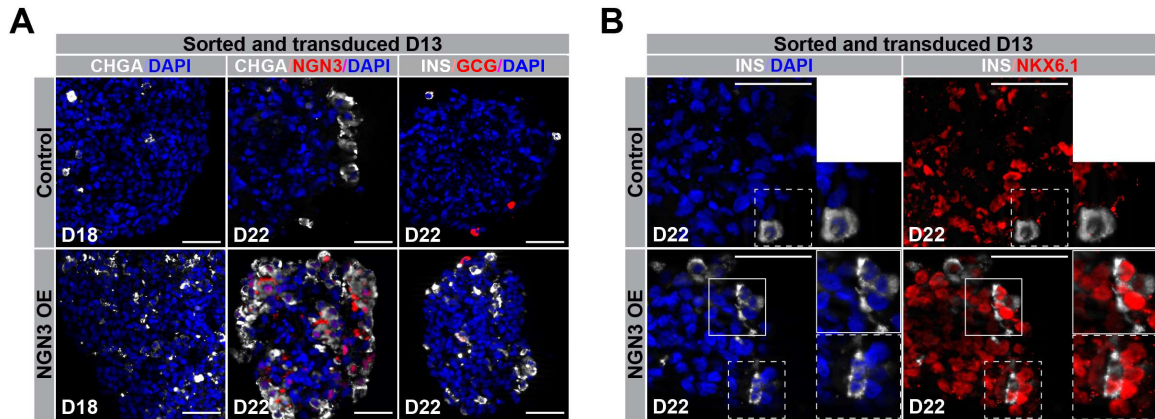


Figure 10. Overexpression of NGN3 in Magnetically Sorted CD142⁺ Pancreatic Progenitors. **(A)** Immunofluorescence analysis for CHGA, NGN3, insulin and glucagon 5 and 9 days after transduction of NGN3 OE in CD142⁺ D13 progenitors isolated by MACS. **(B)** Immunofluorescence analysis for insulin and NKX6.1 9 days after transduction of NGN3 OE in CD142⁺ D13 progenitors. Individual insulin⁺ cells highlighted (white boxes) and magnified. Scale bars, 50 μ M.

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CONCLUSION

From neurons and heart muscle to liver and pancreas and everything in between, each of these specialized cell types stems from pluripotent cells containing genomes identical to one another. How then can these highly distinct cell types arise from cells that all contain the exact same genes? This is one of the most important, unanswered questions of developmental biology. Research into this question has identified that modulation of the three-dimensional structure of DNA within the nucleus as a major component influencing gene expression (Shogren-Knaak, Ishii et al. 2006, Martino, Kueng et al. 2009). The reshaping of chromatin in a cell type-specific manner instills different developmental competencies in different cells, allowing them to navigate through various lineage intermediates of their respective cell fates even while exposed to the same inductive cues (Xie, Everett et al. 2013, Wang, Yue et al. 2015).

While in vivo animal studies have provided incredible insights into development and disease, and still serve as important models, hPSC-based in vitro differentiation systems provide the unique ability to dissect such developmental mechanisms, on a molecular level often not feasible in animal models. Indeed, the sheer amount of cellular material required for certain assays like mapping the chromatin landscape throughout embryonic development would require a staggering number animal sacrifices and the associated costs quickly make these kinds of studies in animals impractical. Fortunately, in vitro models like the hESC-based in vitro pancreatic differentiation system employed here, have provided us and others with the tools required for systematic and meticulous examination of the various mechanisms involved in cell differentiation and development.

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Chapter 15

Pancreatic Differentiation from Human Pluripotent Stem Cells

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Abstract The ability to produce human pancreatic cells *in vitro* would open new possibilities for developing improved therapies through cell transplantation, disease modeling, and drug screening. Of particular medical importance are the insulin-producing beta cells of the pancreas, which are lost or dysfunctional in diabetes. Furthermore, an *in vitro* model of human exocrine cells could help devise new therapies for pancreatic exocrine disease, most notably pancreatic cancer. In the past decade much progress has been made in developing protocols to generate multipotent pancreatic progenitor cells from human pluripotent stem cells (hPSCs) that are capable of differentiating into both endocrine and exocrine cells. The sole approach that has proven successful is to reproduce essential steps of *in vivo* development *in vitro* through directed step-wise differentiation of hPSCs. The directed differentiation entails sequential exposure of hPSCs to different signaling factors, thereby moving cells through several developmental intermediates towards the pancreatic fate. Upon implantation into mice, hPSC-derived pancreatic progenitor cells spontaneously differentiate into endocrine and exocrine cells. Here, we describe a detailed protocol for the generation of pancreatic progenitor cells from hPSCs. We provide methods for the directed differentiation as well as the characterization of pancreatic progenitor cells and lineage intermediates by immunofluorescence staining and flow cytometry. With recently developed protocols, these pancreatic progenitor cells can be further differentiated *in vitro* into beta-like cells that functionally resemble immature human beta cells.

Keywords Human pluripotent stem cell (hPSC) • Human embryonic stem cell (hESC) • Definitive endoderm (DE) • Gut tube (GT) • Posterior foregut (FG) • Pancreatic endoderm (PE) • SOX17 • HNF4A • PDX1 • SOX9

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15.1 Introduction

The development of protocols for deriving mature cell types from hPSCs has opened opportunities for modeling human disease *ex vivo* as well as for discovery of novel drugs (Merkle and Eggan 2013). In addition, functional cell types derived from hPSCs could provide an unlimited source to replace tissue cells lost in disease through cell transplantation. hPSC-based cell models are particularly promising in the context of diseases where a single cell type is affected. One such example is diabetes, which is characterized by loss or dysfunction of the insulin-producing beta cells in the pancreas (Nathan 2015). There are two major forms of diabetes, type 1 and type 2 diabetes. While the causes of both types of diabetes are distinct, the manifestation is similar: insufficient production of insulin results in inadequate glucose uptake by peripheral tissues, which in turn leads to elevated blood glucose levels. Type 1 diabetes is caused by autoimmune-mediated beta cell destruction and comprises 5% of diabetes cases (Cnop et al. 2005). The remaining 95% of diabetes cases are classified as type 2, and arise due to a combination of insufficient insulin production by the beta cells and insulin resistance of insulin target tissues (Johnson and Luciani 2010; Kahn et al. 2006; Stumvoll et al. 2005). Because both type 1 and type 2 diabetes eventually result in beta cell loss, transplantation of beta cells produced *in vitro* from hPSCs could help normalize blood glucose levels in patients with diabetes. In the pancreas, beta cells reside in so-called islets of Langerhans, where beta cells form functional units with other hormone-producing cells involved in blood glucose regulation, most notably the glucagon-producing alpha cells and somatostatin-producing delta cells. Since there is paracrine signaling between the endocrine cell types within the islet (Caicedo 2013), transplantation of functional islets might be clinically more beneficial than transplanting beta cells alone. There is already precedence that transplantation of cadaveric islets can be curative for diabetes, at least in the short term (Meloche 2007; Robertson et al. 2000). hPSC-derived beta cells or islets could obviate both the limited supply of cadaveric islets and the need for immunosuppression owing to the allogeneic origin of cadaveric islets. In fact, the first clinical trial to determine the safety and efficacy of a hPSC-based islet cell replacement therapy is currently ongoing (ViaCyte 2014). The current clinical trial involves encapsulation of human embryonic stem cell (hESC)-derived multipotent pancreatic progenitor cells in small devices that are implanted subcutaneously. Animal studies have provided proof-of principle that these pancreatic progenitor cells will further differentiate into islet-like structures containing all endocrine cell types when implanted under the skin (Kelly et al. 2011; Kroon et al. 2008; Nostro et al. 2015; Reznia et al. 2012; Schulz et al. 2012; Xie et al. 2013).

While beta cell loss is the hallmark of type 1 diabetes, type 2 diabetes, at least in its early stages, is characterized by beta cell dysfunction rather than destruction. Type 2 diabetes has a strong genetic component; yet how genetic risk factors cause beta cell dysfunction remains largely unknown. While mouse models have provided important insight into the regulation of insulin production and secretion, comparisons between mouse models of diabetes and the human disease have also revealed species differences. One condition that exemplifies such differences is a monogenetic

form of type 2 diabetes, called maturity onset diabetes of the young (MODY). In humans, inheritance of one mutant allele is sufficient to cause MODY, whereas mice carrying the same heterozygous mutation do not acquire the disease (Haumaitre et al. 2006; Lee et al. 1998; Mayer et al. 2008; Yamagata et al. 1996). *In vitro*-generated beta cells and their precursors would provide a powerful model to study how MODY-associated gene mutations cause diabetes. With recent breakthroughs in genome editing technologies, known mutations, like those seen in MODY, could be introduced into hPSCs and beta cell differentiation and function could be analyzed *in vitro*. Alternatively, induced hPSCs could be derived from MODY patients to create patient-specific disease models. Similar strategies could be implemented to determine how genetic variants, identified via genome-wide association studies, affect beta cell development and/or function and cause disease.

A scalable differentiation system for human beta cells or islets would also provide an ideal drug-screening platform. In addition to enabling new drug discovery, such a system could help customize diabetes treatment in a patient-specific manner. It is known that not all patients with type 2 diabetes respond similarly to existing anti-diabetic drugs (Standl and Fuchtenbusch 2003). Responsiveness to different drugs could be tested by deriving induced hPSCs from patients and producing patient-specific beta cells or islets *in vitro*. In the long term, the collective data from such experiments might allow us to predict drug responsiveness based on the absence or presence of specific genetic markers, as already used to predict responsiveness to cancer therapy.

The past decade has seen remarkable progress in the development of protocols to generate pancreatic cells from hPSCs (Mfopou et al. 2010; Pagliuca and Melton 2013). Multiple differentiation protocols aimed at deriving pancreatic progenitors and beta cells have been published with mounting levels of success. The underlying principle of all successful approaches is to closely mimic embryonic development *in vitro*. Efficacious protocols have taken a step-wise approach in which cells are guided through defined developmental stages by sequential exposure to the growth factors that are also relevant during *in vivo* development. Earlier protocols yielded insulin-expressing cells *in vitro* that were not functional, expressed multiple hormones, and failed to restore blood glucose levels when implanted into diabetic mice (D'Amour et al. 2006; Kelly et al. 2011; Kroon et al. 2008; Nostro et al. 2011; Rezanian et al. 2012). In contrast, when pancreatic progenitor cells were implanted into mice, the implants rescued diabetes within ~16 weeks after implantation (Kroon et al. 2008; Nostro et al. 2015; Rezanian et al. 2012; Schulz et al. 2012). During this time, the progenitors differentiate into islet-like structures, containing mature functional beta cells as well as other endocrine cell types. A small fraction of pancreatic progenitors also differentiates into exocrine acinar and ductal cells after implantation (Kroon et al. 2008; Xie et al. 2013).

Here, we present a step-wise protocol for the generation of pancreatic progenitor cells by directed differentiation of hESCs. The protocol was adapted from several previously published protocols (Schulz et al. 2012; Rezanian et al. 2013, 2014). The protocol is optimized for the H1 hESC line from WiCell (WiCell Research Institute, WA01) and employs a planar culture system in which the cells are adhered to Matrigel-coated tissue culture plates throughout differentiation. Recently, protocols have been published

that report strategies to further differentiate hPSC-derived pancreatic progenitor cells into functional beta-like cells entirely *in vitro* (Pagliuca et al. 2014; Reznick et al. 2014; Russ et al. 2015). After implantation into diabetic mice, these beta-like cells lead to normalization of blood glucose levels within 2 weeks.

15.2 Materials

15.2.1 Cell Culture Supplies and Equipment

- Biological safety cabinet.
- CO₂ incubator capable of maintaining 5% CO₂ and >95% humidity at 37 °C.
- 37 °C water bath.
- Sterile plastic tissue culture treated cell culture dishes:
 - 6-Well plate; 9.5 cm² cell growth area (Corning, Cat. No. 3516).
 - 12-Well plate; 3.8 cm² cell growth area (Corning, Cat. No. 3513).
 - 10 cm plate; 56.5 cm² cell growth area (Corning, Cat. No. 351029).
- Sterile ultra-low attachment 6-well plates (Corning, Cat. No. 3471), for alternative suspension culture (see *Sect. 15.3.5* and *Note 5*).
- Cell lifter/scrapper (VWR, Cat. No. 3008).
- Hemocytometer or other cell counting tool.
- Sterile 15 ml conical tubes.
- Benchtop centrifuge capable of spinning 15 ml conical tubes.
- Sterile 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes.
- Benchtop microcentrifuge capable of spinning 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes.
- Serological pipette controller and 10 ml sterile pipettes.
- 2, 20, 200, and 1000 µl pipettes and accompanying sterile pipette tips.
- Stericup-GP, 0.22 µm, polyethersulfone, 500 ml, radio-sterilized vacuum filters (Millipore, SCGPU05RE).
- Falcon 5 ml round bottom polystyrene test tube with cell strainer snap cap (Corning, Cat. No. 352235).
- Inverted light microscope (Zeiss Axio Vert or equivalent).
- Inverted fluorescence microscope (Zeiss Axio Observer or equivalent).
- Flow cytometer (BD FACSCanto™ or equivalent).

15.2.2 Reagents

- Matrigel Growth Factor Reduced Basement Membrane Matrix (Corning, Cat. No. 356231).
- RHO/ROCK Pathway Inhibitor Y-27632 (StemCell, Cat. No. 72307).
- TrypLE™ Express Enzyme (Life Technologies, Cat. No. 12604-021).

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- Accutase (eBioscience, Cat. No. 00-4555-56).
- Sterile DPBS (Dulbecco's Phosphate Buffered Saline) without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (VWR, Cat. No. 45000-434).
- DMEM/F12 50:50 mix without glutamine (VWR, Cat. No. 45000-346).
- Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA) Fraction V (7.5 % solution) (Life Technologies, Cat. No. 15260-037), for alternative suspension culture (see *Sect. 15.3.5* and *Note 6*).
- Reagent Grade BSA—pH 7.0, >98 % purity (Lampire Biological Laboratories, Cat. No. 7500804), for use in differentiation media.
- H1 hESC line (WiCell Research Institute, WA01). Other hPSC lines may be used, but may require further optimization.
- Essential 8 (E8) pluripotency maintenance medium (Life Technologies, Cat. No. A1517001). The E8 culture medium is a xeno-free pluripotency maintenance medium (Chen et al. 2011) used here for feeder-free growth and expansion of hESCs.
- MCDB 131 cell culture medium (Life Technologies, Cat. No. 10372-019). The MCDB 131 medium is used here as the base medium throughout differentiation and is supplemented with different components and factors depending on the stage of differentiation. See *Sect. 15.2.3* for proper stage-specific base-medium formulations and Table 15.1 for additional factors to be added on each day of differentiation.
- Supplements and factors used for endocrine differentiation:
 - Sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO_3) (Sigma, Cat. No. S6297).
 - Recombinant Activin A (AA) (R&D Systems, Cat. No. 338-AC/CF).
 - Recombinant Wnt-3a (R&D Systems, Cat. No. 1324-WN/CF).
 - GlutaMAX (Life Technologies, Cat. No. 35050061).
 - BSA (Fisher, Cat. No. 7500804).
 - L-Ascorbic Acid (Vitamin C, VIT-C) (Sigma, Cat. No. A4544).
 - Recombinant KGF/FGF-7 (R&D Systems, Cat. No. 251-KG/CF).
 - D-Glucose (Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. D161).
 - Retinoic Acid (RA) (Sigma, Cat. No. R2625).
 - LDN193189 (Stemgent, Cat. No. 04-0074).
 - ITS-X (Life Technologies, Cat. No. 51500056).
 - SANT-1 (Sigma, Cat. No. S4572).
 - TPB (EMD Millipore, Cat. No. 565740).
- Cell fixation solution for immunofluorescence (IF) analysis: 4 % paraformaldehyde (PFA) (96 % extra pure, Acros Organics, Cat. No. 41678) in DPBS.
- Cell permeabilization and blocking buffer for IF analysis: 0.15 % Triton X-100 (Fisher, Cat. No. BP151) and 1 % donkey serum (Gemini Bio-Products, Cat. No. 100-151) in DPBS.
- Superfrost Plus microscope slides (Fisher Scientific, Cat. No. 12-550-15).
- VECTASHIELD Antifade mounting medium (Vector Laboratories, Cat. No. H-1000).
- FACS buffer: 0.2 % (w/v) BSA (Lampire, Cat. No. 7500804) in DPBS, keep at 2–8 °C.
- BD fixation/permeabilization solution (BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 554714) for flow cytometry analysis, keep at 2–8 °C.

Table 15.1 Medium formulations used for each day of differentiation. See *Sect. 15.2.3* for stage-specific base-medium formulations

Day	Base medium	Added factors
1	Stage 1 medium	100 ng/ml activin A 25 ng/ml Wnt-3a
2–3	Stage 1 medium	100 ng/ml activin A
4–5	Stage 2 medium	0.25 mM VIT-C 50 ng/ml FGF7
6–7	Stage 3 medium	0.25 mM VIT-C 50 ng/ml FGF7 0.25 μ M SANT-1 1 μ M retinoic acid 100 nM LDN193189 1:200 ITS-X 200 nM TPB
8–10	Stage 4 medium	0.25 mM VIT-C 2 ng/ μ l FGF7 0.25 μ M SANT-1 0.1 μ M retinoic acid 200 nM LDN193189 1:200 ITS-X 100 nM TPB

The same base media formulations and factors are used for either adherent cultures or suspension cultures

- BD perm/wash buffer (BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 554723) for flow cytometry analysis, keep at 2–8 °C.

15.2.3 Stage-Specific Medium Formulations

The supplements listed below are stable in the MCDB 131 medium for 1 month if kept at 2–8 °C. Because sodium bicarbonate (NaHCO₃) and BSA are supplied as a non-sterile powder, the medium must be sterile filtered (0.22 μ m vacuum filter) after NaHCO₃ and BSA are added.

Stage 1 Medium

- MCDB 131 medium.
- 1.5 g/l NaHCO₃.
- 1 \times GlutaMAX.
- 10 mM D-Glucose (final concentration; MCDB 131 already contains 5.55 mM).
- 0.5% BSA.

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Stage 2 Medium

- MCDB 131 medium.
- 1.5 g/l NaHCO₃.
- 1× GlutaMAX.
- 10 mM D-Glucose (final concentration; MCDB 131 already contains 5.55 mM).
- 0.5 % BSA.

Stage 3/4 Medium

- MCDB 131 medium.
- 2.5 g/l NaHCO₃.
- 1× GlutaMAX.
- 10 mM D-glucose (final concentration; MCDB 131 already contains 5.55 mM).
- 2 % BSA.

15.2.4 Antibodies Used for Cell Characterization

Primary Antibodies for Flow Cytometry

- Mouse anti-SOX17-PE (1:20, BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 561591).
- Mouse anti-PDX1-PE (1:20, BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 562161).
- Mouse anti-NKX6.1-Alexa Fluor 647 (1:20, BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 563338).
- Rabbit anti-SOX9 (1:50, Millipore, Cat. No. AB5535).
- Mouse anti-IgG1, κ-PE isotype control (1:20, BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 556650).
- Mouse anti-IgG1, κ-Alexa Fluor 647 isotype control (1:20, BD Biosciences, Cat. No. 557732).

Secondary Antibodies for Flow Cytometry

- Donkey anti-rabbit IgG-PE (1:20, eBioscience, Cat. No. 12-4739-81).

Primary Antibodies for Immunofluorescence

- Goat anti-SOX17 (1:1000, R&D Systems, Cat. No. AF1924).
- Rabbit anti-OCT4 (1:1000, Cell Signaling Technology, Cat. No. 2840).
- Rabbit anti-HNF4A (1:500, Santa Cruz, Cat. No. SC-6556).
- Rabbit anti-SOX9 (1:1000, Millipore, Cat. No. AB5535).
- Goat anti-PDX1 (1:500, Abcam, Cat. No. ab47383).
- Mouse anti-NKX6.1 (1:300, Developmental Studies Hybridoma Bank, Cat. No. F55A10).

Secondary Antibodies for Immunofluorescence

- Donkey anti-goat Cy3 (1:1000, Jackson Immuno, Cat. No. 705-165-147).
- Donkey anti-rabbit Cy3 (1:1000, Jackson Immuno, Cat. No. 711-165-152).
- Donkey anti-goat Alexa Fluor 488 (1:1000, Jackson Immuno, Cat. No. 705-545-147).

15.3 Methods

Cell culture and passaging of hESCs

Proper handling and preparation of hESCs is important to ensure successful and efficient differentiation. The protocol is optimized for H1 cells, which can be obtained from WiCell Research Institute (WA01). Below are the recommended methods for proper culture and expansion of H1 cells prior to differentiation.

15.3.1 Preparation of Matrigel-Coated Tissue Culture Dishes

Expansion is performed in 6-well plates and differentiation in 12-well plates. If different sizes of culture dishes are desired, adjust volumes as necessary.

1. Thaw Matrigel on ice and keep cold at all times;
2. Following the manufacturer's instructions dilute Matrigel in the appropriate volume of cold DMEM/F12 medium and keep on ice. The dilution used in this protocol is 1:100, but may vary from lot to lot. Unused diluted Matrigel can be stored at 2–8 °C, but should be used within 2 weeks from the time of dilution;
3. Load diluted Matrigel into each well of the tissue culture plate to be used. Ensure there is sufficient volume to completely cover the entire well surface (~2 ml per well of a 6-well plate and ~1 ml per well of a 12-well plate);
4. Incubate the plate at 37 °C for 30 min before use.

15.3.2 Culturing hESCs

1. Aspirate excess Matrigel from pre-coated plates before seeding cells;
2. Thaw frozen cells in 37 °C water bath until just a small amount of ice is left in the vial;
3. Wash cells by resuspending in ~5 ml of E8 medium and spin at 200 × g for 4 min at room temperature;
4. Aspirate supernatant carefully to not disrupt the cell pellet;
5. Resuspend cells in E8 medium (~5 × 10⁵ cells/ml) containing freshly added ROCK inhibitor (10 μM);
6. Add 2 ml cell suspension per well of the Matrigel-coated 6-well plate and place in a 37 °C incubator at 5% CO₂;
7. Replace medium with fresh E8 medium (w/o ROCK inhibitor) every 24 h;
8. Cells are passaged at ~80% confluency.

15.3.3 Passaging hESCs with TrypLE

1. Aspirate medium from wells and wash with DPBS without Ca²⁺ and Mg²⁺;
2. Aspirate DPBS and load 0.5–1 ml of room temperature TrypLE in each well and incubate at 37 °C for 1 min;

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3. After 1 min examine cells under a microscope to ensure sufficient detachment from plate. Cells should appear balled up at the edges of colonies, but not free-floating. If more time is required for cell detachment, place cells back in 37 °C and examine under microscope every 1 min until cells are sufficiently detached (see *Note 1*);
4. Stop enzymatic reaction by adding 4 volumes of E8 medium;
5. Use a cell scraper to lift cell clusters off plate;
6. Use a serological pipette to transfer the cell suspension into sterile 15 ml conical tubes;
7. Centrifuge for 4 min at 200×g to pellet cells;
8. Aspirate media and resuspend cells in appropriate volume of E8 medium containing 10 μM ROCK inhibitor (Y-27632) to achieve desired dilution (see *Note 2*);
9. Add 2 ml of cell suspension per well of a Matrigel-coated 6-well plate;
10. Replace medium with fresh E8 medium (w/o ROCK inhibitor) every 24 h.

15.3.4 Cell Differentiation

We describe a step-wise protocol for the directed differentiation of H1 hESCs into pancreatic progenitor cells, which we refer to as pancreatic endoderm (Fig. 15.1). During *in vitro* differentiation, the cells progress through different lineage intermediates, resembling cell populations found in the developing embryo. The first step is the differentiation to definitive endoderm, from which endodermal organs, such as liver, lungs, thymus, intestine, and pancreas are derived (Wells and Melton 1999). In subsequent steps, definitive endoderm cells are directed to acquire primitive gut tube, posterior foregut, and finally pancreatic endoderm identity. Expression of early pancreatic transcription factors, such as PDX1 and SOX9, is observed as early as the end of the

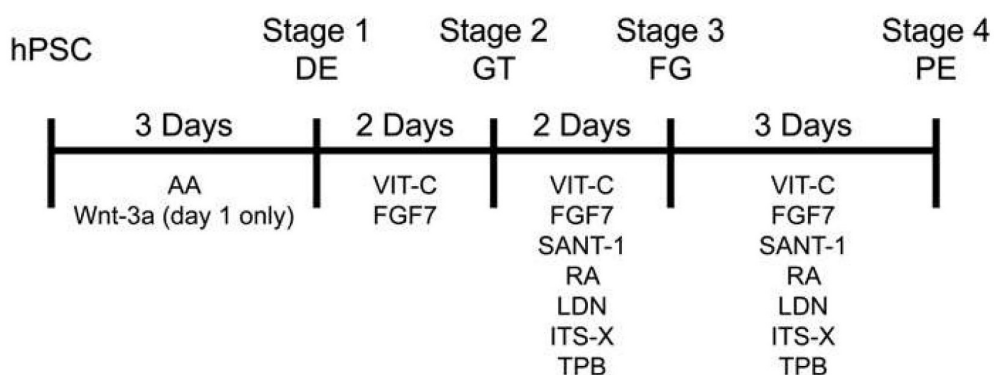


Fig. 15.1 Schematic outlining the protocol for differentiation of human pluripotent stem cells into pancreatic progenitor cells (pancreatic endoderm). The duration of each differentiation step and the required factors are depicted. Exact concentrations of factors and medium composition can be found in *Sects. 15.2.2* and *15.2.3*. *hPSC* human pluripotent stem cell, *DE* definitive endoderm, *GT* primitive gut tube, *FG* posterior foregut, *PE* pancreatic endoderm, *AA* activin A, *VIT-C* vitamin C, *RA* retinoic acid

posterior foregut stage. When implanted subcutaneously or under the kidney capsule into mice, pancreatic endoderm differentiates into fully functional beta cells, other endocrine cell types, as well as a small percentage of pancreatic ductal cells (Kelly et al. 2011; Kroon et al. 2008; Rezanian et al. 2013; Schulz et al. 2012; Xie et al. 2013). The *in vivo* differentiation and maturation process of implanted pancreatic endoderm takes ~16 weeks, regardless of the protocol and cell line used to generate pancreatic endoderm. Although the application of the protocol we describe is not limited to H1 hESCs, when other hPSC lines are used, the protocol needs to be adapted to achieve similar differentiation efficiencies as observed with H1 hESCs. Key variables include the concentration of the factors and the duration of each differentiation step.

15.3.4.1 Preparation of Coverslips for Culturing hESCs

Optional: If analysis will be performed later, it is necessary to load coverslips into the culture dish wells prior to coating with Matrigel. To prepare coverslips for culturing hESCs follow the procedure below, otherwise continue with the next Section.

1. Put coverslips into a sterile 10 cm petri dish with lid;
2. Pour enough 70 % ethanol into the dish to completely submerge all coverslips and place the lid on the petri dish;
3. Allow coverslips to soak in 70 % ethanol overnight;
4. The following day, aspirate 70 % ethanol and replace it with 100 % ethanol, ensuring all coverslips are submerged;
5. Allow coverslips to soak for 5 min;
6. Aspirate 100 % ethanol and replace it with fresh 100 % ethanol, again submerging all coverslips;
7. Allow coverslips to soak for 5 min;
8. Place petri dish lid upside down inside the biological safety cabinet;
9. Using sterilized tweezers, remove coverslips from 100 % ethanol and place inside the inverted lid;
10. Lean each coverslip against the inside wall of the lid at an angle so that both sides of the coverslip are exposed to air;
11. Allow the coverslips to dry completely;
12. Once coverslips have dried, using sterilized tweezers, place one coverslip on the bottom of each well of the 12-well culture dish;
13. Proceed to coat the now sterilized coverslips with Matrigel as previously explained.

15.3.4.2 Seeding hESCs for Differentiation

H1 cells must be plated at an appropriate density before beginning *in vitro* differentiation. Proper starting density will ensure efficient and reproducible differentiations. After expanding cells to reach the desired cell numbers, the cells are passaged

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and plated on Matrigel-coated 12-well plates. To allow for accurate counting, the cells must be dissociated into a single cell suspension before seeding wells to prepare for the *in vitro* differentiation.

1. Aspirate medium from wells and rinse with DPBS without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (~2 ml);
2. Place 0.5–1 ml of room temperature TrypLE in each well and incubate at 37 °C for 3–5 min;
3. After the first 2 min, examine cells under a microscope to ensure sufficient detachment from plate (see *Note 3*);
4. Continue to incubate cells at 37 °C and examine under microscope every 1 min until cells appear balled and many are free-floating;
5. Stop enzymatic reaction by adding 4 volumes of E8 medium;
6. Use a 1 ml pipette to triturate the detached cells several times to break up remaining clumps, leaving a single-cell suspension (see *Note 4*);
7. Use a serological pipette to transfer the cell suspension into sterile 15 ml conical tubes;
8. Reserve a small aliquot of cell suspension for cell counting;
9. Centrifuge for 4 min at 200×g to pellet cells and count cells during centrifugation;
10. Aspirate media and resuspend cells in E8 medium (~3 × 10⁵ cells/ml) containing freshly added ROCK inhibitor (10 μM);
11. Add 1.5 ml of cell suspension per well of a Matrigel-coated 12-well plate;
12. After 24–48 h cells should be roughly 90% confluent and ready to begin *in vitro* differentiation.

15.3.5 Differentiation to Pancreatic Endoderm (Adherent Culture)

Figure 15.1 outlines the step-wise differentiation process and key factors contained in the differentiation medium at each stage of differentiation. Once cells have reached 90% confluency (Fig. 15.2a), the differentiation process can be started. Figure 15.2b shows an example of cells that need to be expanded further before differentiation can be initiated. Stage-specific base-media are stable at 2–8 °C for up to 1 month and can therefore be mixed ahead of time. The formulations for stage-specific base-media are listed in *Sect. 15.2.3*. Table 15.1 shows the final concentrations of the added factors at each day of differentiation. *These factors are not stable at 2–8 °C for long periods of time and must be added to stage-specific base-medium immediately prior to warming the medium on each day of differentiation.*

Described here is a method in which the cells are adhered to 12-well plates in planar culture. However, this protocol can also be performed in suspension culture (Fig. 15.2c), as previously described in detail (Schulz et al. 2012). Suspension culture requires scaling up medium volumes and cell numbers, as well as orbital rotation (see *Notes 5 and 6*).

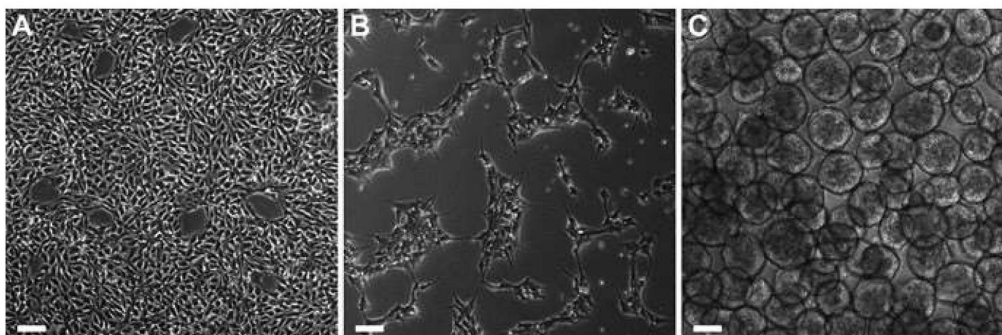


Fig. 15.2 Brightfield images of H1 human embryonic stem cells. H1 cells cultured under adherent conditions (**A**, **B**) or as suspension aggregates (**C**). (**A**) Image showing adherent H1 cells at the correct density to initiate *in vitro* differentiation. (**B**) Image showing cells that are of insufficient density to initiate differentiation. (**C**) Image showing aggregated H1 cells prior to induction of directed differentiation. Scale bars = 50 μm in **A**, **B** and 100 μm in **C**

- **Day 1:** Aspirate E8 medium and wash cells with DPBS without Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} .
- To each well add 1.5 ml of prewarmed Stage 1 Medium with freshly added Activin A (100 ng/ml) and Wnt-3a (25 ng/ml);
- **Day 2:** Aspirate medium and replace with 1.5 ml of prewarmed Stage 1 Medium with freshly added Activin A (100 ng/ml);
- **Day 3:** Repeat the previous step. At this point (or the following day) it is recommended to analyze the cells for differentiation efficiency to the definitive endoderm (DE) stage. The success of downstream differentiation is largely dependent upon highly efficient DE induction. Figure 15.3a provides an example of efficient DE induction (data generated using protocols in *Sect. 15.3.6.1*);
- **Day 4:** Aspirate Stage 1 Medium and wash cells with MCDB 131 base medium without added supplements or factors. To each well add 1.5 ml of prewarmed Stage 2 Medium with freshly added L-Ascorbic Acid (VIT-C) (0.25 mM) and FGF7 (50 ng/ml);
- **Day 5:** Repeat the previous step;
- **Day 6:** Aspirate medium and replace with 1.5 ml of fresh, prewarmed Stage 3 Medium with freshly added L-Ascorbic Acid (VIT-C) (0.25 mM), FGF7 (50 ng/ml), SANT-1 (0.25 μM), Retinoic Acid (1 μM), LDN193189 (100 nM), ITS-X (1:200) and TPB (200 nM);
- **Day 7:** Repeat the previous step;
- **Day 8:** Aspirate medium and replace with 1.5 ml of fresh, prewarmed Stage 4 Medium with freshly added L-Ascorbic Acid (VIT-C) (0.25 mM), FGF7 (2 ng/ml), SANT-1 (0.25 μM), Retinoic Acid (0.1 μM), LDN193189 (200 nM), ITS-X (1:200) and TPB (100 nM);
- **Day 9:** Repeat the previous step;
- **Day 10:** Repeat the previous step (same as *Day 8*).

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At the end of the differentiation protocol the cells have adopted characteristics of pancreatic progenitor cells. A recent report by Rezania et al. describes a method to further differentiate these H1-derived pancreatic endoderm cells into beta-like cells *in vitro* (Rezania et al. 2014). The method involves culturing the cells in a liquid-air interface after the pancreatic endoderm stage. An alternative method to the liquid-air interface culture is to perform the differentiation into beta-like cells in suspension culture. However, the differentiation efficiency is reported to be lower in suspension culture than in liquid-air interface culture (Rezania et al. 2014). Two other recent reports utilized suspension culture methods to derive beta-like cells, similar to the ones reported by Rezania et al. from hPSC-derived pancreatic endoderm (Pagliuca et al. 2014; Russ et al. 2015).

15.3.6 Cell Characterization

15.3.6.1 Characterization of Cells by Flow Cytometry and Immunofluorescence Analysis

To ensure efficient differentiation, it is important to characterize the cells at various stages throughout the differentiation. Flow cytometry analysis and IF staining for stage-specific proteins are the hallmark methods to assess differentiation efficiencies. Figure 15.3 shows example images of IF analysis as well as flow cytometry plots of stage-specific markers from a successful differentiation. For a complete list of antibodies used for flow cytometry and IF analysis see *Sect. 15.2.4*. Below are recommended protocols for both flow cytometry and IF analysis.

Flow cytometry analysis protocol

1. Thaw Accutase at room temperature or 2–8 °C prior to use;
2. Aspirate medium from each well to be analyzed;
3. Wash cells with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate) and aspirate;
4. Add enough Accutase® to cover the surface of each well (0.3–0.5 ml per well of 12-well plate);
5. Incubate at 37 °C for 5 min, then check briefly under microscope to ensure cells appear balled up and many are detached. If needed, place back at 37 °C and check every 1 min for good detachment (see *Note 7*);
6. Add ~1 ml cold FACS buffer (0.2% BSA in DPBS) to each well (final volume ~1.5 ml) to stop Accutase activity;
7. Using a 1000 µl pipette triturate cells to break up any clumps and obtain a single cell suspension;
8. Label a 5 ml polystyrene tube with cell strainer cap for each sample and add ~250 µl FACS buffer to each cap to pre-wet the cell strainer. Ensure the buffer flows through the cap into the tube;
9. Load each sample into the cap of the appropriately labeled tube and allow the entire suspension to flow through the cell strainer. This will ensure good cell

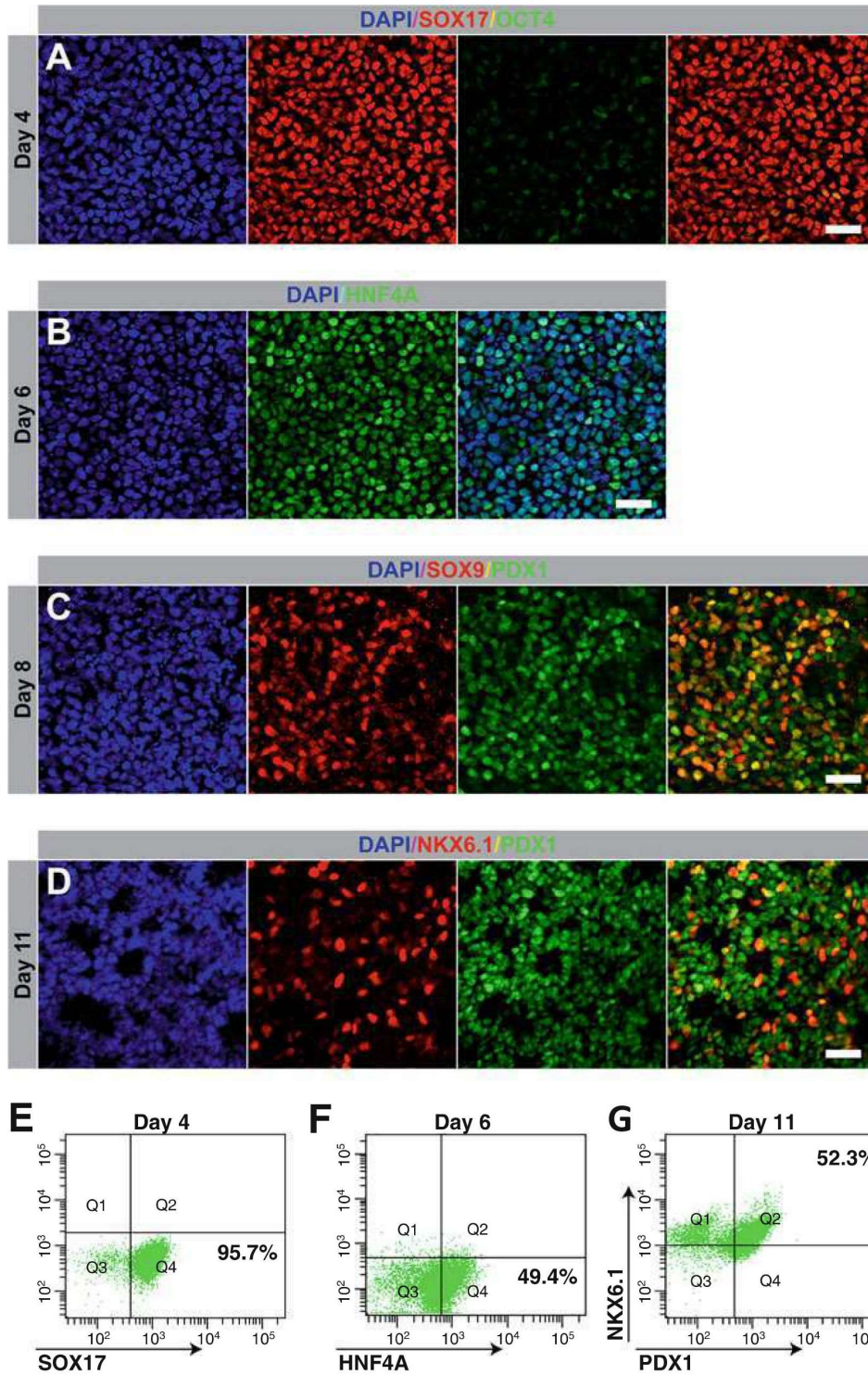


Fig. 15.3 Immunofluorescence staining and flow cytometry analysis of H1 cells throughout pancreatic differentiation. Immunofluorescent staining (A–D) or flow cytometry analysis (E–G) for stage-restricted transcription factors in H1 cells at different days of differentiation toward pancreatic endoderm. Day 4 represents definitive endoderm; day 6 primitive gut tube; day 8 posterior foregut; and day 11 pancreatic endoderm. Scale bars = 50 μ m

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- separation, which will provide better flow cytometry results. If the suspension does not easily flow through the cell strainer it may be necessary to pull the sample through. To do so, place the tip of a 1000 μ l pipette on the underside of the cell strainer cap containing the sample. Slowly release the pipette plunger to gently pull the sample through the filter top. Carefully eject the sample from the 1000 μ l pipette into the bottom of the tube;
10. Transfer the strained cells into new 1.5 ml microcentrifuge tubes and centrifuge at room temperature and $200\times g$ for 5 min;
 11. Resuspend each cell pellet with cold BD fixation/permeabilization solution (300 μ l per tube);
 12. Incubate cells for 20 min at 2–8 °C (i.e. refrigerate—*do not place on ice*);
 13. Wash cells by adding ~1.1 ml cold 1 \times BD Perm/Wash™ Buffer to each tube following fixation/permeabilization (1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate) and centrifuge at 10 °C and $200\times g$ for 5 min;
 14. Aspirate supernatant and repeat *step 11*;
 15. Aspirate supernatant and resuspend cells in 50 μ l cold 1 \times BD Perm/Wash Buffer for each staining and isotype control to be used (e.g. add 150 μ l total for two different staining samples and one isotype control sample);
 16. Aliquot 50 μ l of cell suspension into separate microcentrifuge tubes for each individual reaction. Co-staining with PE and AlexaFluor 647 conjugated antibodies can be performed together in one 50 μ l aliquot;
 17. For analysis of SOX17 expression (DE marker) load 2.5 μ l SOX17-PE antibody into one 50 μ l cell suspension aliquot. Load 2.5 μ l PE isotype into a separate 50 μ l cell suspension aliquot to serve as a control;
 18. For analysis of PDX1 expression (pancreatic endoderm marker) load 2.5 μ l PDX1-PE antibody into one 50 μ l cell suspension aliquot. Load 2.5 μ l PE isotype into a separate 50 μ l cell suspension aliquot to serve as a control;
 19. For analysis of NKX6.1 expression (pancreatic endoderm marker) load 2.5 μ l NKX6.1-AlexaFluor 647 antibody into one 50 μ l cell suspension aliquot. Load 2.5 μ l AlexaFluor 647 isotype into a separate 50 μ l cell suspension aliquot to serve as a control;
 20. After the antibodies and matching isotypes have been loaded into cell suspensions, incubate cells in the dark for 1 h at 2–8 °C (i.e. refrigerate—*do not place on ice*);
 21. Wash cells by adding 1.25 ml cold 1 \times BD Wash Buffer to each tube and centrifuge at room temperature and $200\times g$ for 5 min;
 22. Aspirate supernatant and resuspend each sample in 300 μ l cold FACS buffer;
 23. The samples are now stained and ready for analysis on a flow cytometer, such as the FACSCanto used to generate the plots in Fig. 15.3.

Immunofluorescence analysis protocol

1. Aspirate medium from each well to be analyzed;
2. Wash cells with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate) and aspirate;
3. Repeat *step 2*;
4. Add 1 ml of 4% PFA to each well and incubate at 2–8 °C overnight;
5. The following day, aspirate PFA and wash with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate);

6. Aspirate DPBS and add 1 ml of blocking buffer (0.15% Triton X-100, 1% normal donkey serum in DPBS) and incubate at room temperature for 1 h;
7. Prepare primary antibody solutions by mixing appropriate volumes of each antibody in blocking buffer (1 ml per well of a 12 well plate) and vortex gently. See *Sect. 15.2.4* for appropriate working dilutions. For example, to analyze SOX17 expression, add 1 μ l of goat anti-SOX17 antibody to 1 ml of blocking buffer;
8. Aspirate buffer from each well and load 1 ml of pre-mixed primary antibody solution to the appropriate wells and incubate at 2–8 °C overnight;
9. The following day, aspirate antibody solution and wash with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate);
10. Aspirate DPBS and repeat *step 9* three times;
11. Prepare secondary antibody solutions by mixing appropriate volumes of each antibody in blocking buffer (1 ml per well of 12 well plate) and vortex gently. See *Sect. 15.2.4* for appropriate working dilutions;
12. Aspirate DPBS from each well and add 1 ml of pre-mixed secondary antibody solution to the appropriate wells and incubate at room temperature for 1 h in the dark;
13. Aspirate antibody solution and wash with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate);
14. Prepare nuclear staining solution by mixing Hoescht 33342 in DPBS (1:3000, 1 ml per well of 12-well plate);
15. Aspirate DPBS from each well and add 1 ml of nuclear staining solution and incubate at room temperature for 5 min in the dark;
16. Aspirate nuclear staining solution and wash with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate);
17. Aspirate DPBS and wash once more with DPBS (~1.5 ml per well of 12-well plate);
18. The coverslips containing stained cells are now ready to be mounted on slides. Gently remove coverslips with tweezers and rinse by briefly dipping each coverslip into distilled water;
19. Allow fluid to run off the coverslip and remove excess fluid by blotting the edge of the coverslip with a paper towel. Capillary action should help remove the excess;
20. Place one drop of VECTASHIELD Antifade Mounting Medium (or desired mounting solution) on the coverslip on the side containing the cells;
21. Gently invert coverslip while placing it cell side down on a slide. Be careful to avoid any air bubbles between the slide and coverslip;
22. Seal the edges of the coverslip to the slide with clear nail polish and allow it to fully dry in the dark before analyzing the slides. The nail polish prevents the slides from drying out if stored for extended periods of time;
23. The slide containing the coverslip with the stained cells is now ready to be analyzed on an inverted fluorescent microscope, such as the Zeiss Axio Observer used to generate the images in Fig. 15.3;
24. Slides can be stored at 4 °C for short periods of time and at –20 °C for extended periods of time.

15.4 Notes

1. During expansion of H1 cells it is better to passage cells as clusters rather than as a single cell suspension. This will enhance health and survival of the cells.
2. Typical passaging dilutions for expanding H1 cells is 1:6 (i.e. 1 well split into 6 wells).
3. Avoid incubating with TrypLE for longer than necessary as this can reduce cell viability.
4. Avoid excessive pipetting as this can reduce cell viability.
5. *Performing differentiation in suspension culture*—To culture cells in suspension, use ultra-low attachment 6-well plates and rotate on an orbital shaker at 100 rpm. This ensures proper cell aggregation, which is necessary for cell survival and differentiation (Fig. 15.2c). The culture volume is 5.5 ml/well and base media formulations and concentrations of factors are the same as used for differentiation in adherent cultures (Table 15.1). Following expansion and dissociation of hESCs with TrypLE, seed wells with 1×10^6 cells/ml, which is a total of 5.5×10^6 cells/well. Add 10 μ M ROCK inhibitor to medium when seeding cells to promote cell survival and aggregation. 48 h following cell seeding the now aggregated cells (Fig. 15.2c) are ready to initiate the *in vitro* differentiation. The differentiation protocol is the same as described for adherent culture, but the volume of culture medium has to be adjusted.
6. *Handling cell aggregates in suspension culture*—A solution of 0.2% BSA in DPBS should be used to coat pipettes in order to prevent aggregates from adhering to plastic surfaces during medium exchanges. To properly exchange culture medium, draw PBS/BSA solution into the pipette and eject the solution. Swirl the 6-well plate in a circular motion to bring all aggregates to the center. Tilt the plate and draw medium off the side of each well with the pre-coated pipette, removing most of the medium. Leave a very small amount of medium to ensure no aggregates are removed. Load each well with 5.5 ml of the appropriate culture medium for that day. Place the plate back on the orbital shaker at 100 rpm inside a 37 °C incubator.
7. Avoid prolonged exposure to Accutase. Detachment of monolayer H1 cells should occur after 5 min, however if the Accutase has started to become inactive, more time may be necessary. To ensure swift cell detachment use freshly thawed Accutase.

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