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Developmental pathways during *in vitro* **progression of human islet neogenesis**

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Abstract

Islet neogenesis, or the differentiation of islet cells from precursor cells, is seen *in vitro* and *in vivo* both embryonically and after birth. However, little is known about the differentiation pathways during embryonic development for human pancreas. Our previously reported *in vitro* generation of islets from human pancreatic tissue provides a unique system to identify potential markers of neogenesis and to determine the molecular mechanisms underlying this process. To this end, we analyzed the gene expression profiles of three different stages during *in vitro* islet generation: the Initial Adherent-, Expanded-, and Differentiated- stages. Samples from four human pancreases were hybridized to Affymetrix U95A GeneChips, and data analyzed using GeneSpring 7.0/9.0 software. Using Scatter plots we selected genes with a 2-fold or greater differential expression.. Of the 12,000 genes/ESTs present on these arrays, 295 genes including 38 acinar–enriched genes were selectively lost during the progression from the Initially Adherent stage to the Expanded stage; 468 genes were increased in this progression to Expanded tissue; and 529 genes had a two-fold greater expression in the Differentiated-stage than in the Expanded tissue. Besides the expected increases in insulin, glucagon and duct markers (mucin 6, aquaporin 1 and 5), the beta cell auto-antigen IA-2/phogrin was increased 5-fold in Differentiated. In addition developmentally important pathways, including Notch/jagged, Wnt/Frizzled, TGFβ superfamily (follistatin, BMPs and SMADs), retinoic acid (COUP-TFI, CRABP1, 2 and RAIG1) were differentially regulated during the expansion/ differentiation. Two putative markers for islet precursor cells, UCHL1/PGP9.5 and DMBT1, were enhanced during the progression to differentiated cells, but only the latter could be a marker of islet precursor cells. We suggest that appropriate manipulation of these differentiation-associated pathways will enhance the efficiency of differentiation of insulin-producing beta cells in this *in vitro* model.

Introduction

During the last five years the interest in finding islet precursor/cells has increased dramatically. The evidence that such precursors exists is based on experimentally induced islet neogenesis (Bonner-Weir et al., 1983;Bonner-Weir et al., 1993;Boquist and Edstrom, 1970;Gu and Sarvetnick, 1993;Hultquist et al., 1979). Even though there is no conclusive evidence of a pancreatic stem cell, many studies favor the hypothesis that there are islet progenitor within the ducts in the adult pancreas (Bonner-Weir et al., 1993;Gu and Sarvetnick, 1993;Rafaeloff

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et al., 1996;Stoffers et al., 2000;Wang et al., 1993;Weaver et al., 1985;Xu et al., 1999;Yamamoto et al., 2000). Using an *in vitro* model, we earlier demonstrated that isletdepleted human pancreatic tissue, remaining after islet isolation, can differentiate into glucoseresponsive insulin-producing cells (Bonner-Weir et al., 2000). Digested pancreatic tissue that was normally discarded after human islet isolation was cultured under conditions that allowed expansion of the ductal cells as a monolayer whereupon the cells were overlaid with a thin layer of Matrigel. With this manipulation, the monolayer of epithelial cells formed 3 dimensional structures of ductal cysts from which budded islet-like clusters of pancreatic endocrine cells. Over 3–4 weeks *in vitro*, the insulin content increased 10–15 folds as the DNA content increased up to 7 fold. The cultivated human islet buds were shown to consist of cytokeratin-19 positive duct cells and hormone-positive islet cells. When challenged with glucose going from basal 5 mM glucose to stimulatory 20 mM glucose, these buds had a 2.3 fold increase in secreted insulin. Thus, ductal tissue from human pancreas can be expanded in culture and be directed to differentiate into glucose-responsive islet tissue (Bonner-Weir et al., 2000;Gao et al., 2003). This *in vitro* model provides an excellent opportunity to investigate the molecular events regulating islet neogenesis from adult human pancreatic cells. *In vitro* neogenesis may recapitulate development of the embryonic pancreas, so it would be of interest if known developmental pathways, such as wnt/frizzled, TGF-β and notch/delta, were involved in this process. In addition, knowledge of relevant pathways may allow their manipulation to increase the efficiency of islet differentiation.

Wnt proteins, the mammalian analogs of *wingless* initially discovered in *Drosophila*, constitute a family of cysteine-rich glycoproteins involved in intercellular signaling during vertebrate development. Wnt signaling is believed to activate genes that promote stem cell fate and inhibit the cellular differentiation (De Boer et al., 2004). Secreted Wnt-proteins are involved in epithelial-mesenchymal interactions (Kengaku et al., 1997). The Wnt-pathway has been implicated in growth of the pancreas during development (Papadopoulou and Edlund, 2005) and in the specific development of endocrine cells in the chick (Pedersen and Heller, 2005).

Many members of the TGF-β pathway are expressed in embryonic pancreas. Dichmann et al. using multiplex PCR to screen TGF-β superfamily genes contributing to murine pancreatic endocrine formation found that TGF-β, Activin, BMP 4, 5 and 7 were expressed (Dichmann et al., 2003). BMP 4, 5 and 6 treatment of dissociated fetal mouse pancreatic cells grown on the extracellular matrix protein laminin-1 resulted in epithelial cysts with insulin and glucagonpositive cells (Jiang et al., 2002). Follistatin, an inhibitor of TGF-β signaling, was found in adult pancreatic rat islets (Ogawa et al., 1993) and to regulate embryonic endocrine development (Miralles et al., 1998). Following reduction of β-cell mass (Zhang et al., 2002) follistatin inhibited activin signaling and promoted expansion of pancreatic progenitor cells (Zhang et al., 2004).

Notch signaling has also been proposed to be involved in pancreatic endocrine and exocrine cell fate (Apelqvist et al., 1999;Jensen et al., 2000;Lammert et al., 2000). Jensen and coworkers, using a multiplex RT-PCR approach on dissected embryonic gut, demonstrated expression of Notch1, 2 and 3 in pancreas, stomach and gut and that of ligands Jagged1, Jagged2, Dll1 and Dll3 and downstream target, Hes1, in the pancreas. These results first suggested a role of the Notch pathway in pancreatic development in mammals (Jensen et al., 2000). In developing mouse and zebrafish pancreas Notch has been shown to inhibit acinar cell differentiation and to drive an acinar-to-ductal phenotypic change. Recently, Notch signaling was suggested to act downstream of FGF10 in maintaining the proliferative potential of pancreatic precursor cells during development (Miralles et al., 2006).

Inflammatory-response and mucosal-defense related genes have roles in regeneration and, perhaps development in other systems. Mucosal defense genes encoding Trefoil factor (TFF)

1, 2 and 3, deleted in malignant brain tumor 1 (DMBT1), surfactant proteins (SP) A and D have been implicated during growth and repair of the liver and intestine (Bisgaard et al., 2002;Leung et al., 2002;Tino and Wright, 1999). Chemokines, CSF-1 and eotaxin, members of the inflammatory response, influence branching morphogenesis in the mammary gland (Gouon-Evans et al., 2000).

In this study, we have examined the gene expression profiles at three well-defined time points of adult human pancreatic tissue during the *in vitro* progression to new islet formation. Four distinct clusters based on expression pattern were found. Additionally we found that genes of the developmentally important Wnt/frizzled, Notch/Delta and the TGF-β superfamily pathways were differentially expressed, suggesting that the *in vitro* differentiation of human adult pancreatic ductal tissue may, in part, recapitulate embryonic pancreatic development. Two putative markers for endocrine precursors, Protein Gene Product 9.5 (PGP9.5)/UCHL1, a member of the ubiquitin family of hydrolases, and deleted in malignant brain tumor 1 (DMBT1), were expressed during this *in vitro* islet differentiation. We further examined whether either could be used as markers of in vitro/in vivo differentiation.

Research design and methods

Cell expansion and differentiation

Human islets were isolated according to the Edmonton protocol (Shapiro et al., 2000). After purification on a continuous Ficoll gradient, the islet-depleted pellet fraction was cultured as previously described (Bonner-Weir et al, 2000). In brief, immediately following islet isolation, the remaining tissue (0.25ml tissue/50ml) was cultured in CMRL 1066 (5.5mM glucose) media plus 10% fetal bovine serum and 1% penicillin/streptomycin in Falcon non-treated T-75 flasks (#3012 Becton Dickinson). As previously reported (Bonner-Weir et al, 2000) after 2–3 days, about 10 % of the tissue had adhered and the remaining floating tissue was removed; we had found that this adherent tissue was selectively ductal with most of the acinar tissue having either died or lost its phenotype by the time the tissue was adherent. The islet contamination of the starting material was usually less than 1% of the tissue with the adherent tissue having less than 11% of the insulin content of the starting tissue. The adherent tissue was the first studied time point, the Initially Adherent stage. After an additional 4–7 days of culture, the tissue had expanded by proliferation and covered more than 80 % of the surface; this was the second time point, the Expanded stage. The media was then changed to serum-free DMEM/ F12 (glucose 9mM) with 10 uM nicotinamide, insulin/transferrin/selenium (ITS), keratinocyte growth factor (FGF7) and penicillin/streptomycin and the tissue was overlaid with a thin coat of Matrigel (BD Biosciences, NJ, USA) a commercially available murine basement membrane. The third time point, the Differentiated stage, was 2 weeks later.

Gene Profiling

Total RNA from four pancreatic preparations was isolated using Trizol reagent (Life Technologies, Gaithersburg, MD, USA) at the above three time points: Initially Adherent, Expanded and Differentiated stage. RNA was not pooled, so there were four replicas at three different time points giving us a total of 12 samples. Total RNA was converted to cDNA following the manufacturer's instructions (Superscript Choice cDNA); cDNA were transcribed into cRNA following the manufacturer's protocol (IVT, Enzo), and hybridized to Affymetrix Human genome U95Av2 GeneChip® (Affymetrix, Santa Clara, CA, USA) by the Joslin DERC Genomics Core. Primary data were processed using Affymetrix Microarray Suite 4.0 software to determine the average difference value and assess signal intensity for each probe set. Affymetrix GCOS (gene chip operating software) were used to globally scale (all probe sets) the data to a target intensity of 1500 using the MAS 5.0 algorithm. Further analysis used GeneSpring 7.0 (Silicon Genetics, Redwood CA) software and GeneSpring 9.0 (Heat Map).

Heatmap were used to visualize the apparent differential expression for genes across treatments for each sample and Scatter Plots were used to identify genes with a 2-fold or greater differential expression between time points. Student's unpaired t-test was used to obtain p-value of selected genes between two time points (e.g. Initially Adherent versus Expanded Stage) not considering all three stages. This statistical test could only be used as guidance to search for interesting genes. When performing Bonferroni Hochberg across all stages only 172 genes pasted testing. With 12000+ genes a p-value from ANOVA or t-test would have to be corrected for false discovery rate. However we still feel confident that the study brings value to the field and we therefore continued with testing specific genes in PCR, genes that were picked from the fold changes and statistical testing.

PCR

Total RNA was diluted to a concentration of 0.2 μg/μl and transcribed to cDNA using Superscript II reverse transcriptase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA).

Reverse Transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) was performed using *Taq* polymerase (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). The optimal PCR conditions for correct amplification of cDNAs were determined as previously described (Jonas et al., 1999). Radio-labeled PCR products were resolved on 6 % acrylamide-gels, dried gels were exposed on PhosphoImager screen, and band intensities were quantified using ImageQuant Software (Amersham Biosciences Corp. Pennsylvania).

Quantative PCR (q-PCR) was performed using 10 ng of total cDNA per well (TaqMan Applied Biosystems); in addition to some of the samples used for microarray, samples from other pancreases were used; each stage had samples from 4 pancreases, with 2 Initially Adherent from each pancreas. Primers used in RT-PCR and q-PCR are listed in Table 6.

Immunohistochemistry

Immunohistochemistry were performed on sections of frozen human pancreas and paraffin embedded rat pancreas. Tissue for cryostat was embedded in OCT (Tissue-Tek®, Sakura, USA) and immersed in chilled isopentane. Frozen sections were air-dried and fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde (PFA) for 20 min, and then washed in phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). For UCHL1/PGP9.5, microwaving in citrate-buffer was used for antigen retrieval, followed by rabbit anti-human PGP9.5 (Chemicon, 1:600) overnight at 4°C, goat anti-rabbit-biotin-IgG (1:50) 30 min at room temperature, and ABC development (Vector Labs). For DMBT1/gp340 on frozen human pancreas, mouse anti-human-DMBT1/gp340 (1:200, kind gift of Dr. Uffe Holmskov, University of Odense, Denmark) was incubated overnight at 4°C, followed by goat anti-mouse-biotin-IgG (1:50) 30 min at room temperature, and ABC kit development; for paraffin embedded rat pancreas, the same primary antibody, dilution and incubation time was used, followed by Texas Red-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgG (1:100) as secondary antibody for 30 min at room temperature.

Results

To have a better understanding of the mechanisms involved during this *in vitro* islet generation we analyzed the gene expression profiles at different stages of the expansion/differentiation of these pancreatic cells: the Initial Adherent time point, the Expansion before changing to serumfree media and the final Differentiation stage at 4 weeks of culture (2 weeks after Matrigel) (Figure 1). The two time points that are the most interesting are the Expanded and Differentiated stages. As we reported previously, the Expanded stage is characterized by an almost confluent monolayer of epithelial cells that express CK19 and Pdx-1 with a minor component of small, triangular stromal cells. By the Differentiated stage, the epithelial cells have coalesced into

thickened plaques and 3-dimensional structures of ductal cysts and budding islet-like structures. Between these structures, stromal cells have formed a near-confluent lawn. The tissue of a whole flask was taken for each sample, so the gene expression must be taken as of the whole system rather than of individual cells.

Presentation of Gene Expression data as a *Scatter Plot and Heat Map*

In Figure 2, genes are organized into Scatter Plot (Figure 2A, top and bottom) and Heat Map (Figure 2B) according to expression level. In the Heatmap, the genes (across) are shown as normalized log scale values for each sample (down). In Scatter Plots, each dot represents the normalized average expression for one gene (The average expression of the four replicas, one from each pancreas). The diagonal lines represent the fold changes between the two stages, with the center diagonal line representing one fold change and the two outer diagonal lines either 2-fold increased or decreased. From the Scatter Plot four different scenarios were investigated: A: genes that lost expression from Initially Adherent to Expanded stage, B: genes with an increased expression with progression from the Initially Adherent though Expanded stage; C: genes that lose expression from the Expanded stage through the Differentiated stage; and D: genes that are more than 2-fold increased in Differentiated stage compared to Expanded stage. The following Tables do not list all of these genes but rather some of the more interesting ones with the p-value from t-test and fold change. The complete lists of differentially expressed genes with fold changes are given in the Supplementary data. The complete data sets have been deposited and can be accessed at

http://www.cbil.upenn.edu/RAD/php/displayStudy.php?study_id=710&&download=1. As shown in Table 1, 1061 genes were more than 2 fold down regulated from Initially Adherent to Expanded stage. Similarly the table shows the overall genes present in the 3 other scenarios; lists of these genes are in Tables (2–5).

LIST A: Genes turned-off upon initial culturing—Table 2 or List A presents a selection of 151 genes that are down regulated more than 2-fold from the Initially Adherent (after 2–3 days of culture) to the Expanded stage (after 10–14 days of culture). Highly expressed acinarenriched enzymes, such as *amylase, elastase, lipase* and *chymotrypsin,* have very dramatic decreases in expression often more than 20-fold. Such decrease is consistent with the loss in culture of acinar cells both by apoptosis and loss of their differentiation. A number of isletassociated genes such as *insulin, glucagon, NeuroD1, Ipf-1, IRS1, GATA6, and IGF2* were more moderately decreased. List A also includes other genes with a similar profile to the acinarenriched enzymes but these are not prototypical acinar genes such as *kallikrein1, notch, mucin1, endothelin, TGFβ1, sFRP1* and *reg1b*.

LIST B: Genes associated with expansion of the tissue—In contrast to LIST A, which is mainly comprised of genes encoding acinar-enriched enzymes, the genes in LIST B (Table 3) all have an increase in expression during expansion of the ductal epithelium (Expanded compared to the Initially Adherent stage). Genes regulating cell cycle progression such as *CyclinD1, cyclin dependent kinases and cyclin dependent kinase inhibitors* as well as numerous extracellular matrix genes (collagens and laminins), are present in this list. Genes of the TGFβ superfamily, such as *TGFβ2*, BMP and its antagonist *gremlin, Smad 3 and 6*, and members of Wnt family are also in this list. One genes of interest, DMBT-1 (deleted in malignant brain tumor 1), had greater than 5-fold increase in Expanded compared to the Initially Adherent stage. This gene encodes the protein for which a role in liver repair and recruitment of oval cells (liver stem cells) has been suggested (Bisgaard et al., 2002). We confirmed its expression in human pancreatic tissue by semi-quantitative RT-PCR (Figure 3) and by immunostaining. On frozen sections of human pancreas, DMBT-1 protein was only immunolocalized to scattered cells of the main duct and smaller peripheral ducts (Fig 4). In rat pancreas DMBT protein was only found in the epithelium of the small proliferating ductules

of the newly forming lobes of regenerating rat pancreas (3 days after partial pancreatectomy) (Figure 5).

LIST C Genes down-regulated as differentiation progresses—List C (Table 4) reports a broad range of genes that showed reduction in expression during the changes from expanded monolayer into the three-dimensional structures in the Differentiated stage. Several of these genes are present in both List B and C; as being up-regulated and activated during expansion but then turned off in response to differentiation these include BMP 1, 2 and Wnt7A. In this list we also find several collagens and laminins as in List B, growth factor related proteins, members of TGF-β superfamily and Wnt/frizzled pathway, retinoic acid related proteins retinoic acid binding genes, retinoic acid induced and retinoic acid receptor, and *notch3, jagged 1 and 2*, members of Notch/delta family

LIST D Genes activated during Differentiation—The final list (Table 5), List D, include those genes that are up-regulated during the Differentiated stage. As expected, the list includes genes encoding markers of terminally differentiated cells of the pancreas such as *glucagon, insulin, IA2/phogrin* and *CFTR, mucin6 and 9* (ducts). Both glucagon and insulin were expressed at the Initially Adherent stage unlike the other members of the cluster, but their expressions decreased by Expanded stage before a more than 2-fold (re)induction by Differentiated stage. Interesting genes of this list include differentiation factors such as TGFβ superfamily member *Gremlin, TGFβ1, BMP4 and 6,* Wnt/frizzled genes *Frizzled 1,2* and *7,* Homeobox genes and the transcription factor *c-maf* known to play a role in differentiation β and α-cells. One gene of note PGP9.5/UHCL1, an ubiquitin carboxyl-terminal hydrolase, is a known neuronal marker and has been suggested to be a marker for islet precursor cells. PGP9.5 is expressed as early as E11.5 during development of the growing murine pancreas and later in adult islets (Yokoyama-Hayashi et al., 2002). Its expression was increased (more than 15-fold) from Expanded stage to the Differentiated stage. Semi-quantitative RT-PCR was performed using human PGP9.5 primers to confirm the array data (Figure 3). Similarly, immunohistochemical analysis was used to confirm the presence of PGP9.5 protein in both normal human and regenerating rat pancreas. Staining of cryostat sections of human pancreas revealed that islets and the epithelia of both small and large ducts were PGP9.5 positive (Figure 6). Additionally, the buds of endocrine tissue in the *in vitro* generated islet buds were positive (Figure 6C), and by double immunostaining, the expression of PGP9.5 was shown to be in the insulin positive cells (Figure 6D) rather than the glucagon positive cells (Figure 6E). In the rat regeneration model of 90 % partial pancreatectomy $(Px + 3 \text{ days})$, PGP9.5 positive cells included most, if not all, islet cells, scattered cells in large ducts and in the pre-existing acini (possibly centroacinar cells) (Figure 7). In the newly forming lobes (Figure 7D, E), many of the epithelial cells in the small ductules were PGP9.5 positive.

Developmental important pathways

During development many important pathways have been found to regulate proliferation and subsequent differentiation. During progression of the *in vitro* neogenesis as seen in this study, multiple members of two of these pathways, TGF-β Superfamily and the Wnt/Frizzled, were differentially expressed (Figure 8 and 9 respectively) suggesting that the pathways are important during *in vitro* islet formation from human pancreatic tissue. Selected genes in these pathways were confirmed with q-PCR: BMP1, BMP2A, FZD2, Gremlin and TGFB1. In addition FZD3, also a member of Wnt/frizzled pathway, which were not present on the genearray, showed a similar and interesting profile when using q-PCR (Figure 10).

Discussion

We have used microarray technology to profile gene expression during *in vitro* human islet neogenesis. Three time points that represented major stages in the progression were compared. Initially Adherent stage, after a 1–4 day culture, was the tissue that differentially adhered to the flasks and just started to spread. This tissue was preferentially exocrine (ductal and acinar) with almost no endocrine contamination. Without lineage tracing for human tissue, we cannot estimate what percent of the acinar cells dedifferentiated and regained a ductal phenotype. Even so, the initial proportion of ductal tissue is much higher in the human pancreas, being 40–50 % of the human pancreas than the 10% found in rodent pancreas (Bouwens L and DG Pipeleers, Diabetolgia 1998, 41:629–33). The Expanded stage, after 7–11 days of culture, represented the expansion of cells with ductal phenotype, with only a minor contamination of stromal cells at this time. Finally, the Differentiated stage, after 4 weeks of culture with the last two weeks with an overlay of Matrigel, consisted of ductal cysts with buds of endocrine cells and a "feeder-like" layer of stromal cells.

List A consisted of 30+ genes that decreased dramatically from the Initially Adherent stage towards the Expanded stage. Most of these genes encode acinar-enriched enzymes suggesting that acinar phenotype was lost within the first 7 days of culture. We have previously found that amylase gene expression was lost after only 2–3 days culture (data not shown). Such a loss of acinar-enriched genes could occur by the death of acinar cells and/or by a dedifferentiation of acinar cells to a more ductal phenotype as has been suggested by the group of Bouwens (Rooman et al., 2000). Genes of List A are consistent with the 50 most abundant transcripts identified in the exocrine HEXO1 library by Cras-Meneur et al (Cras-Meneur et al., 2004). We also found endocrine-related genes such as those encoding insulin and glucagon suggesting that any initial contaminating endocrine cells do not survive through expansion. It is unlikely that they had expanded sufficiently in the first seven days to lose their insulin gene expression as suggested by Gershengorn et al (Wei et al., 2006).

In lists B and C we find genes that have their highest expression in the Expanded stage compared to the Initially Adherent or Differentiated stages. At this stage, the predominant cell has a ductal epithelial phenotype and has rapidly expanded; the differential genes include those involved in proliferation, migration and cell-cell interactions. Many of the genes in this list represent genes that interact with another gene in the list (e.g., gene and its target). For example, the activity of the cell cycle regulator cyclin D1 is enhanced by galectins (Lin et al., 2002), and both genes are in List B. Since precursors are likely to expand before differentiating, this cluster is most likely one to include markers of such an expanding precursor population. One such putative marker, DMBT-1, has been implicated in recruitment of oval liver stem cells during liver regeneration (Bisgaard et al., 2002). Furthermore, induction of terminal differentiation of a renal intercalated cell line requires the polymerization of hensin, a DMBT1 homologue, by galectin 3 (Hikita et al., 2000). The last list, List D, represents the differentiation process during which precursor cells differentiated into mature duct and hormone-expressing endocrine phenotypes; genes here include insulin and glucagon for islets and CFTR and aquaporin 1 for ducts. This list also includes IA2/Phogrin, an auto-antigen in type 1 diabetes, present during development and later in adult islets (Roberts et al., 2001) and the endocrine-associated transcription factor c-Maf (Nishimura et al., 2006).

Of considerable interest is the differential expression of members of several developmentally important pathways: Wnt/Frizzled- and the TGF-β pathways. Induction of these pathways in our *in vitro* neogenesis model could suggest that these pathways play an important role in inducing expansion of ductal tissue and/or the differentiation into ductal cysts and islet buds. The regulation of these pathways during *in vitro* neogenesis is important for our understanding of the process of islet differentiation. The Wnt pathway, one means of activating the beta-

catenin/TCF4 transcription factor complex involved in cell proliferation and differentiation, has a critical role in pancreas development (Heller et al., 2002). Two of the receptors, Frizzled-7 and Frizzled 2, are induced and differentially expressed. A secreted frizzled-related gene, also in List D, has an inhibitory function since it competes with membrane-bound frizzled for Wnt binding. The TGF-β superfamily has three major groups of genes (TGFβs, activins and BMPs) that all signal through a family of transmembrane serine/threonine kinase receptors classified as type I or type II receptors (Massague, 1998). The Smad family is involved in intracellular signaling of this superfamily (Wrana and Attisano, 2000). Many members of the TGF-β superfamily are found in embryonic pancreatic epithelium and mesenchyme. Transgenic mice with a targeted mutation within the activin receptor have hypoplasia of the pancreatic islets (Yamaoka et al., 1998). Dissociated fetal mouse pancreatic cells cultured in the presence of Laminin-1 and BMP 4, 5 and 6 formed cystic epithelial colonies with insulin and glucagon positive cells; both TGF-β and activin antagonized this effect and inhibited colony formation (Jiang et al., 2002). In our human pancreatic cultures, many of the superfamily members are differentially expressed: BMP2A with a high expression at the Expanded stage, Gremlin (a BMP antagonist) and BMP2B with a high expression at the Differentiated stage. TGF β 1, as confirmed by q-PCR, and follistatin, a regulator of endocrine development (Miralles et al., 1998), are highly expressed at the Differentiated stage.

In summary our gene expression analysis demonstrates that culturing exocrine cells is accompanied by a loss of acinar phenotype, proliferation and expansion of ductal tissue, and differentiation toward mature endocrine cells. Gene profiling of the different stages of *in vitro* generation of islets provides a framework of pathways involved in the development of human islets. While further studies will be necessary to fully understand the process, the identification of these developmentally important pathways in *in vitro* neogenesis suggests that manipulating these pathways may enhance the differentiation of islet tissue.

Potential markers of islet precursor cells

Gene expression profiling during *in vitro* islet neogenesis also permitted identification of potential markers for islet precursors. Two genes, PGP9.5 and DMBT1, previously suggested as putative markers of precursor cells (Bisgaard et al., 2002;Yokoyama-Hayashi et al., 2002), were differentially expressed in our gene-profiling study and so were studied further with RT-PCR and immunolocalization.

PGP9.5/UCHL1, a member of the ubiquitin family of hydrolases, has been implicated as a marker of differentiation by its induction during *in vitro* differentiation of human acute lymphoblastic leukemia cell line (al-Katib et al., 1995) and human neuronal cell lines (Satoh and Kuroda, 2001). During rat embryonic pancreas development, PGP9.5 is expressed in E11.5 epithelial buds with declining expression in the epithelial cells after birth; it becomes restricted to islets in adults (Yokoyama-Hayashi et al., 2002). However, in the rat duct ligation model, PGP9.5 is expressed in ducts during islet neogenesis, suggesting it might be a marker for islet precursor cells. In our analysis, PGP9.5 had one of the highest fold changes from Expanded to Differentiated Stages, differential expression confirmed by RT-PCR. In adult rat pancreas we could confirm by immunostaining PGP9.5 protein in islets (α- and β-cells), centroacinar cells and in proliferating ductules of the regenerating pancreas with no presence in normal adult ducts. In normal adult human pancreas PGP9.5 protein was localized in the islets and most epithelial cells of both large and small ducts and in the *in vitro* generated human islet buds PGP9.5 seemed to only co-localize with insulin positive cells, whereas epithelial cells and acells were negative. Thus, in human pancreas PGP9.5 appears to be a marker only for differentiated cells rather than of precursor cells as suggested for rats.

The second candidate precursor marking gene, human DMBT1, has been implicated in numerous tissues. DMBT1 has several homologues (hensin, gp-340, CRP-ductin) due to

alternative splicing of a single gene (Holmskov et al., 1999). Its role in epithelial differentiation was first suggested in the rabbit kidney in which hensin regulated terminal differentiation of epithelial cells through interactions with galectin 3 (Al Awqati et al., 1999). This interaction was also found to initiate differentiation both of skin epithelial cells (Mollenhauer et al., 2003) and renal intercalated epithelial cell line (Hikita et al., 2000). The homologue CRPductin was found in the stem cell niche of the mouse intestinal crypts as well as in pancreatic and hepatic ducts (Cheng et al., 1996) and as a receptor for trefoil factors (TFF) (Thim and Mortz, 2000). In a liver regeneration model, DMBT1 mRNA and protein expression increased as oval cells were recruited (Bisgaard et al., 2002), suggesting it as a marker for oval (liver bipotential stem) cells. In our human data, DMBT1 expression peaked at the Expanded stage. The Expanded stage is likely to have increased precursor cells that have yet to differentiate as well as cells in early stages of pancreatic differentiation. Consistent with its expression in a precursor population, immunohistochemical localization demonstrates its presence in only a few ductal cells in the adult human pancreas but in many ductal cells in the regions of regeneration after partial pancreatectomy in the rat. Thus, our results suggest that DMBT1 is a likely candidate marker of precursor cells or cells in early stages of endocrine differentiation in the pancreas.

Our previously reported *in vitro* generation of islets from islet depleted human pancreatic tissue provides a unique system to identify the differentiation pathways important for islet neogenesis. With gene profiling analysis, we report differential gene expression of pathways, normally known to be important in embryonic pancreatic development, present in this *in vitro* system. Further characterization of these pathways should lead to identification of steps that may be manipulated to improve the efficiency of islet differentiation.

Supplementary Material

Refer to Web version on PubMed Central for supplementary material.

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Figure 1.

Figure 2.

Figure 3.

Figure 4.

Figure 5.

Figure 6.

Figure 7.

Figure 8.

Expanded versus Initially Adherent

Figure 9.

Figure 10.

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