

Integration of metabolomic and transcriptomic profiling to compare two protocols of differentiation of human induced pluripotent stem cells into hepatocytes

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1	integration of metabolomic and transcriptomic profiling to compare
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Abstract:

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Human hepatocyte-like cells derived from human induced pluripotent stem cells (hiPSC) may provide an unlimited supply of cells for in vitro liver models. However, hiPSC differentiation remains a major challenge due to immaturity of the hepatocytes obtained and the high cost of differentiation protocols currently proposed. Here, we studied the efficacy of new protocol, with reduction of growth factors, for the generation of hepatocyte-like cells from hiPSC. We performed metabolomic and mRNA analysis by RTqPCR and nanoCAGE processing to identify and understand key metabolisms during differentiation. By reducing the change frequency of the culture medium in the new protocol, we successfully generated hepatocyte-like cells producing albumin, urea, and CYP3A4 positive. The metabolomic analysis successfully extracted both signatures, common and specific, for each differentiation step. Integrating the metabolomic data with transcriptomic contributed to explaining the kinetics of carbohydrate, lipid and nitrogen metabolism throughout differentiation. The information extracted during differentiation showed that the cells moved from an aerobic-like respiration pattern to a mitochondrial oxidative respiration pattern in both protocols. Reducing culture medium renewal led to reduced glucose consumption, followed by fructose production and significant extracellular lipogenesis throughout differentiation. We believe that the overall dataset can provide information on the sequence of process.

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Keywords: metabolomic, nanoCAGE, hepatocyte-like cells, induced pluripotent stem

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1. Introduction

The maturation of induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) into hepatocytes is one of the technological challenges for producing adult cells with functions comparable to primary tissues. Several protocols are proposed in the literature to derive iPSC (and more generally stem cells, including embryonic) into hepatocyte-like cells. It is thus possible to generate liver-like tissue with albumin-secreting cells and positive CYP450 tissue [1-6]. However, even if CYP450 activities have been achieved, the CYP450 functionality is still limited when compared to *in vivo* levels [7-9]. In addition, iPSC displayed genomic instability and wide variability in the results depending of the choice of cell lines and differentiation protocols [10]. Furthermore, the choice of certain basic and fundamental culture parameters, such as the initial cell density for differentiation and the sequence of growth factors, are still unclear [11, 12].

In this context, several genomic, proteomic and metabolomic profiles were generated to understand the behavior of iPSC and hepatocyte-like cells when compared either to human primary cells or various iPSC lines [10, 13-17]. In order to contribute to the knowledge of hepatic maturation, we proposed a first protocol consisting of a step-by-step differentiation process from definitive endoderm, to hepatic specification, followed by a hepatic progenitor step and finally reaching hepatic-like cells (based on Si Tayeb et al., protocol [4]). The step-by-step transcriptomic and gene promoter analysis illustrated the passage from the epithelial-mesenchymal transition (EMT) state to the mesenchymal-epithelial transition (MET) state throughout differentiation (Tauran et al., submitted). It also extracted specific

networks involving complex sequences on extracellular matrix reorganization, BMP signaling, and EGF signaling with hepatic development markers (Tauran et al., submitted). These findings were consistent with other analyses, showing the importance of *FGF2*, *BMP2*, *CDK1*, *HNF4A* and *EGF* [13]. In parallel, using a metabolomic dataset we demonstrated that IPS cells, from their definitive endoderm status to their final hepatocyte-like cells, followed a switch from glycolytic to oxidative phosphorylation respiration. Furthermore, we found a switch in the lipid metabolism, leading to high glycerol levels and low palmitoleic, azelaic, elaidic and lauric acids in hepatocyte-like cells when compared to definitive endoderm cells. We also monitored the kinetic signature of urea and nitrogen metabolism (Jellali et al., submitted).

In order to reduce the cost of hepatocyte-like cell production, it is important to find economically sustainable cell differentiation protocols. In this context, we investigated a second protocol in which we tried to reduce the quantity of growth factor during the differentiation sequence [12]. Growth factors such as activine A, OSM, HGFand BMP4 were reduced by 40%. As the protocol inspired from Si Tayeb work [4], this protocol led to albumin secreting cells and to immunostaining positive *CYP3A4* tissue. Furthermore, both protocols led to activation of *HNF1A* and *HNF1B* promoters and to specific modulation of *WT1*, *MTF1*, *HCFC1*, and *PGCa1* regulation. However, higher functionality and expression of hepatic genes were found in second protocol (although primary hepatocytes levels were not yet achieved). The comparison also revealed a modulation of targets involved in glucose homeostasis and lipid pathways [12].

In the present paper, in order to refine and extend those analyses, we propose integrating and comparing the metabolomic and transcriptomic profiles of both protocols. The aim is to confirm the potential of each protocol but also to understand the key events involved in the production process of hepatocyte-like cells.

2. Material and methods

2.1. hiPSC differentiation

TkDN-4M human iPS cells were obtained from the stem cell bank of the Institute of Medical Science of the University of Tokyo [18]. Cells were cultivated on standard tissue culture polystyrene (TCPS) dishes following two protocols: protocol 1 (P1) previously published by Si Tayeb et al., [4] and protocol 2 (P2) derived from the literature [5]. The two protocols differ in the frequency of culture medium renewal, which was reduced in protocol 2 to decrease the amount of growth factors needed for the differentiation of hiPS cells into hepatocytes. The protocol 1 and 2 sequences are presented in Fig. 1. The details of the protocol are given in our previous work and in supplementary file 1 [12].

2.2. Metabolomic analysis

Metabolomic analysis was performed with culture medium collected at the end of each step using gas chromatography (Agilent 7890B) coupled with mass spectrometry (Agilent 5977A, GC-MS). The column was an Rxi-5SilMS from Restek (30 m with 10 m Integra-Guard column - ref 13623-127). Sample preparation and

metabolite extraction were performed according to our previous work [19, 20]. All steps in the GC-MS analyses were carried out as described in Fiehn et al., [21, 22]. The datafiles obtained were analyzed with AMDIS software (http://chemdata.nist.gov/mass- spc/amdis/). Peak areas were determined with the Masshunter Quantitative Analysis (Agilent) and normalized to ribitol. Metabolite contents are expressed in arbitrary units. The complete protocol for the metabolomic analysis is detailed in supplementary file 1.

The metabolomic multivariate data analysis was performed using XLSTAT.2016 software (Addinsoft) and MetaboAnalyst [23, 24]. Supervised Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) was carried out in order to discover significant variations between the groups. Discriminating metabolites were identified using the Variable Importance for the Projection (VIP) scores. Univariate statistics was performed with Student's t-test, and a *P* value of less than 0.01 was considered statistically significant. Metabolites with significant changes in the groups (*P* value < 0.01 and VIP > 1) were selected as biomarkers. Pathway analysis of potential biomarkers was performed using MetaboAnalyst [23, 24].

2.3. CAGE analysis

NanoCAGE libraries were generated and sequenced as previously described by Poulain et al. [25] using pseudo-random primers to reduce the amount of sequencing reads mapping to ribosomal DNA [26]. Total RNA extractions, library preparation steps and sequencing were performed as detailed in Lereau-Bernier et al. [12].

NanoCAGE sequencing data were processed for CAGEscan analysis as detailed in Lereau-Bernier et al. [12]. Custom R scripts using the CAGEr package were used to produce expression tables that were uploaded on the iDEP server (http://ge-lab.org:3838/idep/) for differential gene expression and pathway analysis [27, 28]. Datasets were deposited at Zenodo (FASTQ files DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1014009 and MOIRAI output DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1017276).

2.4. RT-qPCR

RT-qPCR experiments were performed as previously described [12]. The primer sequences used in this study are shown in Table S1 (supplementary file 1). ACTB (β -Actin) was used as the reference gene and undifferentiated hiPS cells as the reference sample for the normalization of gene expression data.

2.5. Albumin measurements

Albumin production was quantified by ELISA sandwich assays using anti-Human Albumin IgG (Bethyl, Japan, capture antibody) and anti-Human Albumin IgG coupled with peroxidase (Bethyl, Japan, detection antibody) [12]. After peroxidase revelation by H_2O_2/OPD mixture, the plate was read at 490 nm using an iMark Microplate reader (Bio-Rad).

2.6. CYP3A4 immunostaining

CYP3A4 immunostaining was performed as described by Danoy et al., [29]. The primary and secondary antibodies used were anti-cytochrome P450 3A4/CYP3A4 antibody (rabbit, ab135813, abcam) and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 647 (goat, ab150129, abcam), respectively. Observations were made with an Olympus IX-81 confocal laser-scanning microscope.

3. Results

3.1. Cell differentiation into hepatocyte-like cells

The differentiation into hepatocyte-like cells was confirmed in both protocols. The morphologies at the end of the differentiation are shown in Fig. 2A. The hepatic phenotype was illustrated by the presence of albumin in the culture at the end of differentiation (Fig. 2D). The immunostaining revealed the presence of a *CYP3A4* positive subpopulation in both protocols (Fig. 2B). Interestingly, we found higher numbers of cells positive to CYP3A4 in protocol 2 than in protocol 1 (Fig. 2B).

To determine whether iPSC-derived hepatocytes in both protocols displayed the mature characteristics of a hepatic lineage, we measured the gene expression of OCT3/4 (pluripotency marker) and various hepatic markers (ALB, AFP, FOXA2, CYP3A4 and HNF4A) by means of RTqPCR analysis. As shown in Fig. 2C, mRNA levels measured for the ALB, AFP, CYP3A4, FOXA2 and HNF4A genes in both protocols were significantly higher in the iPSC-derived hepatocytes than in

undifferentiated iPSC. Furthermore, these genes were more highly expressed in protocol 2 (when compared with protocol 1). The expression of *OCT3/4* was clearly downregulated at the end of differentiation in protocols 1 and 2 (Fig. 2C). This overall set of data confirmed the success of the differentiation into a hepatocyte-like cell lineage.

3.2. Metabolomics analysis

215 3.2.1. Multivariate metabolomics contribute to extracting common metabolite 216 signatures at each differentiation step

The metabolomic treatment led to the identification of 105 metabolites in the culture medium (supplementary file 2). As the culture media were not the same in the different steps, especially in step 4, we performed a normalization for each compound (using the level of each compound in the basal culture media, the basal media being the control media without cell exposure). The PLS-DA analysis applied to the overall dataset led to several separate steps in different clusters, as shown in Fig. 3A. We found a clear separation between the steps 1 in each protocol, indicating distinct metabolic profiles. In addition, both steps 4 were clustered in the same area of the PLDS-DA, but still separately. These results were confirmed by PLS-DA performed with samples from step 1 and step 4 only (Fig. 3B). However, the clusters of steps 2 and 3, for both protocols, were almost superimposed.

The heatmap of the top 25 metabolites in this analysis is provided in Fig. 3C. In step 1, we found common signatures in both protocols, including high levels of

glyceric, palmitoleic and aspartic acids, spermidine, and O-phosphocolamine when compared to basal culture medium. In parallel, the specificity of each protocol was illustrated in protocol 1 by high levels of 3 phosphoglyceric and malic acids, and by high levels of glucose and galacturonic acid in protocol 2.

The heatmap also contributed to extracting common patterns characterizing steps 2 to 4 in protocols 1 and 2. Step 2 was characterized by high levels of ketoisocaproic, citric and gluconic acids, histidine and O-phosphocolamine. Concerning step 3, we observed high levels of histidine, ketoisocaproic acid, glucose and galacturonic acid. Finally, both steps 4 were characterized by high levels of uracil, urea, glycerol, putrescine, glutamine, phosphoric, oxalic, pyroglutamic and threonic acids.

This general analysis demonstrated that both protocols led globally to the similar metabolic profiles after the end of step 2. In order to characterize the difference in the kinetics of each protocol more specifically, and to refine the difference in the differentiation process more particularly, we then ran a step-by-step differential analysis.

3.2.2. Differential analysis of step 1

PLS-DA analysis contributed to clearly distinguishing the two protocols in step 1 of differentiation, as shown in Fig. 4A. More particularly, the differential analysis contributed to extracting 56 metabolites differentially expressed between the two protocols in step 1, with a *P* value of less than 0.01 (Fig. 4B and supplementary file

3). The heatmap of the 25 most significant metabolites at the end of step 1 is shown in Fig. 4C. The levels of carbohydrates such as glucose, fructose and galacturonic acid appeared higher in the second protocol. The first protocol exhibited high levels of Krebs cycle intermediates (fumaric, citric, succinic and malic acids) and glycolysis-related compounds such as 3 phosphoglycreic acid, lactic acid and gluconic acid. Extended to the top 50 metabolites, we found higher levels of hexanoic, palmitoleic, caprylic and pyroglutamic acids in protocol 2 (supplementary file 3). Table S2 (supplementary file 1) also summarizes the fold change in 56 significant metabolites, in comparison with the initial basal media (for both protocols).

The metabolite set enrichment using MetabolAnalyst with those 56 compounds (P value < 0.01) revealed that the Warburg effect, urea cycle, gluconeogenesis, glutamate metabolism and ammonia recycling were the top 5 modulated pathways. Of the top 10 pathways, we also found glycine-serine metabolism and the glycose alanine cycle (Fig.S1, supplementary file 1).

3.2.3. Differential analysis of steps 2 and 3

PLS-DA treatments performed with step 2 and step 3 samples contributed to distinguishing protocol 1 from protocol 2 for each step (Fig. 5A and D). However, only a few metabolites were differentially expressed in step 2 when compared to the step 1 situation. In fact, only 8 compounds with a *P* value of less than 0.01 were extracted (Fig.5B and C). Nevertheless, we found 23 metabolites modulated between both protocols, with a *P* value of less than 0.05 (volcano plot in Fig. 5B and supplementary file 3). The variations in these metabolites (fold change) in comparison with basal

culture media are presented in Table S2 (supplementary file 1). The metabolite enrichment pathway in MetaboAnalyst (using 23 metabolites with a P value < 0.05) highlighted the glycerol phosphate shuttle, beta oxidation of fatty acids, vitamin B6 metabolism and glutathione metabolism (Fig.S2, supplementary file 1).

Similarly, in step 3, we found only five metabolites differentially expressed between both protocols, with a *P* value of less than 0.01 (13 metabolites with a *P* value of less than 0.05; Fig.5E and F). Using these 13 metabolites for pathway analysis with MetaboAnalyst software, we found that the pathways modulated significantly were related to propanoate metabolism, glycerol phosphate shuttle, beta oxidation of fatty acids and linoleic acid metabolism (Fig.S3, supplementary file 1).

3.2.4. Differential analysis of step 4

The two protocols were distinguished in step 4 as two distinct clusters were formed to group each protocol (PLS-DA score plot in Fig.5G). However, step 4 was still characterized by a low number of metabolites significantly modulated between protocols 1 and 2 (12 metabolites with a P value of less than 0.01; Fig.5H and supplementary file 3). It included fatty acids and lipids such as caprylic acid, palmitoleic acid, and carbohydrates such as fructose, glucose and galacturonic acid. All these metabolites were higher in protocol 2 (Fig.5I). We also found higher levels of pyroglutamic acid in protocol 2, whereas urea was higher in protocol 1. The top 20 metabolites (with a P value of less than 0.05) are presented in the heatmap in Fig.S4 (supplementary file 1). Of them, we monitored higher levels of azelaic acid, O-phosphocolamine and cholesterol in protocol 2, and higher levels of uracil and

aspartic acid in the first protocol. The metabolite set enrichment with these 20 top molecules revealed the modulation of glutathione metabolism, the transfer of acetyl groups into mitochondria and nitrogen metabolism (urea cycle, ammonia recycling, arginine-proline metabolism), as shown in Fig.S5 (supplementary file 1).

3.3. Transcriptomic characterization

In order to complete the metabolomic profiling, we integrated genomics analysis of the cells. We focused particularly on steps 1 and 4 of differentiation as a starting and end point, respectively. For step 1, a selection of target genes was analyzed by RTqPCR at the end of the step in both protocols. As shown in Fig.6A, RTqPCR confirmed higher levels of glycolytic genes in protocol 1 at the end of step 1 for *PFKM*, *PGAM*, *ENO1*, *G6PD* and *LDHA* genes. The levels of *IDH2* (TCA) were also higher in protocol 1. *ACLY* (lipogenesis) and *HIF1A* (hypoxia) mRNA levels remained similar in both protocols.

Concerning step 4, we used transcriptomics data obtained from nanoCAGE sequencing of the cells at the end of the differentiation protocol (step 4). For that purpose, we firstly post processed the transcriptomic data with a false discovery rate (FDR) of 0.1 and a fold change of 1.1 using iDEP software (version 8.1). This led to the extraction of 270 genes differentially modulated between both protocols (Fig.6B and Fig.S6 in supplementary file 1). The full list of differentially expressed genes is provided in supplementary file 4.

The pathway analysis, run with an FDR of 0.2, using the KEGG database, extracted the glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, the metabolism of various carbohydrates (fructose, mannose, galactose), ferroptosis (iron metabolism), HIF signaling and arginine-proline metabolism among the top modulated pathways (Fig.6C). The full figures and modulated genes are given in supplementary file 5. The GO molecular function also illustrated phospholipid- and steroid-related pathways, and cellular remodeling and modulations (via integrin binding, cadherin binding and cell adhesion binding activities; Fig.S7 in supplementary file 1). A selective list of lipid genes (APOA2, HMGCR, HMGCS1, ACLY, SCD, SQLE) and carbohydrate genes (ENO1, PGK1, GAPDH, GPI, HK2, LDHA, PKM, ALDOA) are presented in Table 1. All these genes were downregulated in protocol 2 when compared with protocol 1. We also included the mRNA ratio of HIF obtained by RTqPCR, which was found to be upregulated by 4.5 times in protocol 2.

Using the STRING protein database clustering tool, with the Kmeans method applied to the 270 genes, we extracted 8 typical interconnected networks with 106 genes (Fig.S8 in supplementary file 1). Those networks were related to ECM and tissue remodeling (via genes such as LUM, COL1A1, COL4A5, COL14A1, COL3A1, ACTB, CTNNA3 and VIL1), the glycolytic pathway (via genes such as ENO1, PGK1, GAPDH, GPI, HK2, LDHA, PKM and ALDOA), lipid- and steroid-related metabolisms (via genes such as APOA2, HMGCR, HMGCS1, ACLY, SCD and SQLE), some transporters (SLC1A3, SLC16A1, SLC2A3 and VDAC2), and ribosomal, RNA and DNA processing (RPL3, RPS3, EIF5 and EEF2). Furthermore, specific liver progenitor markers were extracted (ALB, NR3C2, TF, CK19 and RBP4). In those networks, the important nodes appeared to be the genes ACLY, APOA2, HSP90AA1,

EEF2, RPL3, RPS3, GADPH and TPI1 linking the subnetworks. We also found the presence of chaperone protein-related genes, such as CCT2, and calcium-dependent genes (CALU, CADM1 and RYR2).

3.4. Metabolomic and transcriptomic integration of step 4 data

The 270 genes and the top 20 metabolites from step 4 were integrated into metaboanalyst software. The list of enriched pathways and the corresponding genes and metabolites are given in supplementary files 6 and 7. The integration principally identified glycolysis and gluconeogenesis as the main enriched pathway (9 hits). Of the others, we also found the metabolism of nitrogen (5 hits) and gluthatione metabolism (5 hits). The network explorer option connected 7 metabolites (glycine, glutamic acid, aspartic acid, Palmitoleic acid, citric acid, 4 hydroxybenzoic acid and N-acethyl-L aspartic acid) and 10 genes (ANPEP, EEF2, CACNA2D1, GRID2, MITF, PAICS, FDPS, SND1, ACLY, FST). The network map is provided in Fig.S9 in supplementary file 1.

Discussion

In the present work, we investigated metabolomic and transcriptomic signatures of hiPS cells during their differentiation using two culture protocols. The first protocol is the conventional protocol adapted from Si-Tayeb et al. [4]. In protocol 2, the quantity of growth factors used was reduced by 40% (when compared to the first protocol). Our aim was to confirm the potential of each protocol to generate hepatocyte-like cells, and to obtain a better understanding of the key events involved

in hiPSC differentiation. The hepatic phenotype was confirmed at the end of differentiation in both protocols by albumin and urea production, and positive immunostaining for CYP3A4. We also demonstrated that hepatocyte-like cells derived through these two protocols express markers of hepatocytes such as *ALB*, *AFP*, *CYP3A4*, *FOXA2* and *HNF4A*. Further studies would be required to confirm those results on other iPSC sources.

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During protocol 1, the culture medium sequence was changed every day. We expected an adequate supply of nutrients to the tissue, such as glucose or fatty acids as potential sources of energy. In non-differentiated iPSC, the respiration patterns were reported as leading to glycolytic respiration (in contrast to oxidative phosphorylation respiration in mature and differentiated tissue) [30]. When comparing the two protocols, metabolomic profiling revealed significant and very complex modulation of the cell signature at the end of step 1. More particularly, the two protocols differed in terms of the high levels of lipids such as palmitoleic, caprylic and hexanoic acids in protocol 2, revealing lower consumption of fatty acids. However, the ACLY gene (lipogenesis process) was not significantly modulated between the two protocols. Furthermore, glucose levels were higher in protocol 2 and lactate levels higher in protocol 1 at the end of step 1. These tendencies illustrated intense energy demand in protocol 1 and probable higher fatty acid beta oxidation and glycolysis. This was consistent with the activation of the TCA cycle in protocol 1 as demonstrated by high levels of typical intermediates such as succinic, malic, fumaric and citric acids. At the mRNA levels, these results were accompanied by higher mRNA levels of glycolytic and TCA genes in protocol 1. In protocol 2, the medium was not changed every day leading to the creation of a potential glucose shortage.

Consistently, it has been reported in the literature that starvation results in lower levels of glycolytic genes [31]. In addition, in the present study, this downregulation was independent of the *HIF* mRNA levels in step 1, which remained closed to each other for both protocols (*HIF* being involved in glycolysis and lipid regulation) [32, 33].

Lipolysis is reported to be one source of carbohydrates in a starvation state [34]. As a result, we expected lower lipid levels in protocol 2, which was not the case in step 1. Furthermore, high levels of fructose are said to induce lipogenesis and only limited amounts of lipids can be used to generate glucose [35, 36],. These results may reflect the behavior observed in protocol 2, in which high lipid levels were correlated with high levels of fructose. A second alternative source of glucose during starvation is amino acids (amino acids are usually extracted from protein degradation in muscle). As we observed higher levels of amino acids in protocol 2, including isoleucine, cystine, serine, lysine, tyrosine and tryptophan, additional analysis is required if we are to identify whether or not protocol 2 led to reduced amino acid consumption or to amino acid production as a result of protein degradation for generating glucose.

After step 1, the metabolomic profiles were very similar in steps 2 and 3 for both protocols. Nevertheless, small differences appeared when considering *P* values of less than 0.05. In step 2, it was mainly fatty acid, glycerol and lipid metabolisms that were highlighted due to lower levels of heptadecanoic acid and moderately higher levels of glycerol-1 phosphate, cholesterol, phosphoric, capric and caprylic acids in protocol 2 (fold change of 0.62, 1.13, 1.16, 1.06, 1.06 and 1.16 respectively). This tendency was also observed in step 3, in which we observed higher lipid levels

(linoleic, lauric and elaidic acids) in the culture medium of protocol 2. In parallel, for both steps, we detected high levels of kynurenine and low levels of tryptophan. Interestingly, L-kynurenine is said to decrease cell membrane fluidity (in liver cells) and to reduce linoleic acid incorporation into phospholipids [37]. It led in parallel to an increase in cholesterol levels, which appeared consistent with our findings [37]. A slight difference in vitamin B6 metabolism was finally extracted in step 2 (higher levels of pyridoxine in protocol 2). Vitamin B6 deficiency is linked to an altered fatty acid profile and impaired fatty acid synthesis, which may also be the illustration of overall complex crosstalk in the fatty acid metabolism in steps 2 and 3 [38].

A difference in both protocols was detected concerning lipid and fatty acid levels in step 4. The high levels of palmitoleic, caprylic and azelaic acids in protocol 2 revealed a difference in the lipolysis/lipogenesis processes (and consistently with their kinetics from steps 1 to 3) when compared to protocol 1. These high levels of lipids were correlated with high levels of fructose and glucose in protocol 2 (as in step 1). In addition, the transcriptomic analysis confirmed modulation at the gene level of lipid and steroid metabolisms (in protocol 2, downregulation of *APOA2*, *HMGCR*, *HMGCS1*, *ACLY*, *SCD*, *SQLE*), glycolysis and carbohydrate metabolism (in protocol 2, downregulation of *ENO1*, *PGK1*, *GAPDH*, *GPI*, *HK2*, *LDHA*, *PKM*, *ALDOA*, as in step 1) and modulation of HIF levels (upregulation of *HIF* by RTqPCR in protocol 2).

A potential underlying mechanism and transcription factor could thus be the hypoxia and HIF-related signaling, given that several upstream and downstream targets were modulated in our study. mRNA levels of HIF1A in step 4 confirmed significant upregulation of HIF1A in protocol 2. Under hypoxia, HIF1A induced

glycolysis and also increased glucose uptake [32]. In parallel, it is said to induce fatty acid uptake and lipid storage, but HIF-1 also inhibits de novo fatty acid synthesis in the liver [32, 33]. HIF, as a pivotal lipid glucose compound in energy metabolism, is also reported, mainly by triggering a switch from mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation to anaerobic glycolysis in hypoxic conditions [32]. In our study, we found higher levels of glucose and lipids in the culture medium of protocol 2. In addition, the glycolytic genes were not upregulated. As a result, it seems that we did not face a HIF signaling governing process in step 4 of protocol 2. The process in step 4 appeared similar to step 1, in which fructose- and starvation-like dependent control seemed to govern the phenomena. However, as the metabolomic signature was closer in step 4 between both protocols (8 metabolites with a *P* value of 0.01 compared to 65 in step 1), it also appeared that the predominance of this phenomenon could be attenuated when compared to the situation in step 1. Although we can postulate that liver-like cells start to play their role in metabolism homeostasis, additional analysis is needed to clarify the status of the situation in protocol 2.

Finally, step 4 was characterized by a common signature, illustrating liver differentiation, as shown by the level of urea in both protocols when compared to step 1. Although urea and glutamine were produced in both protocols in step 4, the urea, glutamic acid and aspartic acid levels were higher in protocol 1. At the transcriptomic level, it was related to moderate upregulation, in protocol 1, of typical urea cycle genes such as *ARG1*, *ARG2*, *GOT1*, *GOT2* and *OAT*.

We also observed high levels of pyroglutamic acid for both protocols, illustrating greater oxidative phosphorylation in step 4 when compared to step 1. This

process is consistent with other iPSC differentiation reports presenting a switch from ATP production via glycolysis in the pluripotent stem stage, to mitochondrial oxidative phosphorylation (OXPHOS) respiration, which leads to an increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels (ROS are produced by OXPHOS) [30, 39]. Pyroglutamic acid production illustrates the activation of glutathione metabolism in order to detoxify the ROS produced by OXPHOS. Glutathione metabolism activation was also illustrated by the consumption of the main glutathione precursors in step 4 of both protocols (glycine, cysteine and glutamic acid; fold change between 0.4 and 0.9 when compared to basal culture media) [38].

The results presented in this work demonstrate that the reduction of growth factors by 40% (protocol 2) efficiently generate hepatocyte-like cells similar to those generated by the classical protocol (protocol 1). Integration of metabolomic and transcriptomic data highlighted several key metabolic pathways during differentiation process and contributed to identify the effect of frequency of the culture medium renewal and growth factors reduction on iPSC metabolism. However, additional analysis such as the repetition of those protocols of differentiation on other iPSC sources, evaluation of the protocol stability and their key events, cell sorting to quantify the population heterogeneity, proteomic characterisation, and benchmark with both fetal and primary hepatocyte cultures, are required (i) to clarify the real benefit of our protocols (ii) to understand the metabolic effects observed. In addition, precise hepatocyte quantification would be required to normalise the hepatocytes productions/consumptions regarding the overall tissue. Nevertheless, we believe that those results provide knowledge on the behavior of iPSC during hepatic differentiation.

Conclusion

We compared the metabolomic and transcriptomic signatures of human induced pluripotent stem cells during their differentiation into hepatocyte-like cells. Two differentiation protocols were tested. By reducing the frequency of culture medium change in one protocol, we managed to produce hepatocyte-like cells producing albumin and urea. The metabolomic signature demonstrated a major difference at the start of differentiation, leading to 65 differentially-expressed metabolites. The difference became weaker once the differentiation reached hepatic specification. At the end of both protocols, only 8 metabolites remained differentially-expressed (including fructose, palmitoleic and caprylic acid). During the process as a whole, the reduction in culture medium change led to a metabolic signature with high levels of fructose and lipids in the culture medium. This was accompanied by downregulation of glycolytic genes. The present study clearly reveals the potential of our new protocol to generate hepatocyte like-cells from hiPSC, with a reduced cost. Our analysis could also contribute to a better understanding of differentiation and suggest novel targets to improve iPSC maturation into functional hepatocytes.

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532 Conflict of interest

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534 The authors declare no conflict of interests

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