

# 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
2	two protocols of differentiation of human induced pluripotent stem
3	cells into hepatocytes
4	

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#### 33 Abstract:

34 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, 35 hiPSC differentiation remains a major challenge due to immaturity of the hepatocytes 36 obtained and the high cost of differentiation protocols currently proposed. Here, we 37 studied the efficacy of new protocol, with reduction of growth factors, for the 38 generation of hepatocyte-like cells from hiPSC. We performed metabolomic and 39 40 mRNA analysis by RTqPCR and nanoCAGE processing to identify and understand 41 key metabolisms during differentiation. By reducing the change frequency of the culture medium in the new protocol, we successfully generated hepatocyte-like cells 42 producing albumin, urea, and CYP3A4 positive. The metabolomic analysis 43 successfully extracted both signatures, common and specific, for each differentiation 44 step. Integrating the metabolomic data with transcriptomic contributed to explaining 45 the kinetics of carbohydrate, lipid and nitrogen metabolism throughout differentiation. 46 47 The information extracted during differentiation showed that the cells moved from an 48 aerobic-like respiration pattern to a mitochondrial oxidative respiration pattern in both protocols. Reducing culture medium renewal led to reduced glucose consumption, 49 followed by fructose production and significant extracellular lipogenesis throughout 50 51 differentiation. We believe that the overall dataset can provide information on the 52 sequence of process.

53

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

58 **1. Introduction** 

59

The maturation of induced pluripotent stem cells (iPSC) into hepatocytes is 60 one of the technological challenges for producing adult cells with functions 61 comparable to primary tissues. Several protocols are proposed in the literature to 62 derive iPSC (and more generally stem cells, including embryonic) into hepatocyte-63 like cells. It is thus possible to generate liver-like tissue with albumin-secreting cells 64 and positive CYP450 tissue [1-6]. However, even if CYP450 activities have been 65 achieved, the CYP450 functionality is still limited when compared to in vivo levels [7-66 9]. In addition, iPSC displayed genomic instability and wide variability in the results 67 depending of the choice of cell lines and differentiation protocols [10]. Furthermore, 68 the choice of certain basic and fundamental culture parameters, such as the initial 69 70 cell density for differentiation and the sequence of growth factors, are still unclear [11, 71 12].

72

73 In this context, several genomic, proteomic and metabolomic profiles were 74 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 75 76 contribute to the knowledge of hepatic maturation, we proposed a first protocol 77 consisting of a step-by-step differentiation process from definitive endoderm, to hepatic specification, followed by a hepatic progenitor step and finally reaching 78 hepatic-like cells (based on Si Tayeb et al., protocol [4]). The step-by-step 79 80 transcriptomic and gene promoter analysis illustrated the passage from the epithelial-81 mesenchymal transition (EMT) state to the mesenchymal-epithelial transition (MET) state throughout differentiation (Tauran et al., submitted). It also extracted specific 82

83 networks involving complex sequences on extracellular matrix reorganization, BMP signaling, and EGF signaling with hepatic development markers (Tauran et al., 84 submitted). These findings were consistent with other analyses, showing the 85 importance of FGF2, BMP2, CDK1, HNF4A and EGF [13]. In parallel, using a 86 metabolomic dataset we demonstrated that IPS cells, from their definitive endoderm 87 status to their final hepatocyte-like cells, followed a switch from glycolytic to oxidative 88 phosphorylation respiration. Furthermore, we found a switch in the lipid metabolism, 89 90 leading to high glycerol levels and low palmitoleic, azelaic, elaidic and lauric acids in 91 hepatocyte-like cells when compared to definitive endoderm cells. We also monitored 92 the kinetic signature of urea and nitrogen metabolism (Jellali et al., submitted).

93

94 In order to reduce the cost of hepatocyte-like cell production, it is important to 95 find economically sustainable cell differentiation protocols. In this context, we investigated a second protocol in which we tried to reduce the quantity of growth 96 97 factor during the differentiation sequence [12]. Growth factors such as activine A, 98 OSM, HGFand BMP4 were reduced by 40%. As the protocol inspired from Si Tayeb 99 work [4], this protocol led to albumin secreting cells and to immunostaining positive 100 CYP3A4 tissue. Furthermore, both protocols led to activation of HNF1A and HNF1B 101 promoters and to specific modulation of WT1, MTF1, HCFC1, and PGCα1 regulation. 102 However, higher functionality and expression of hepatic genes were found in second 103 protocol (although primary hepatocytes levels were not yet achieved). The 104 comparison also revealed a modulation of targets involved in glucose homeostasis 105 and lipid pathways [12].

107	In the present paper, in order to refine and extend those analyses, we propose
108	integrating and comparing the metabolomic and transcriptomic profiles of both
109	protocols. The aim is to confirm the potential of each protocol but also to understand
110	the key events involved in the production process of hepatocyte-like cells.
111	
112	2. Material and methods
113	
114	2.1. hiPSC differentiation
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116	TkDN-4M human iPS cells were obtained from the stem cell bank of the
117	Institute of Medical Science of the University of Tokyo [18]. Cells were cultivated on
118	standard tissue culture polystyrene (TCPS) dishes following two protocols: protocol 1
119	(P1) previously published by Si Tayeb et al., [4] and protocol 2 (P2) derived from the
120	literature [5]. The two protocols differ in the frequency of culture medium renewal,
121	which was reduced in protocol 2 to decrease the amount of growth factors needed for
122	the differentiation of hiPS cells into hepatocytes. The protocol 1 and 2 sequences are
123	presented in Fig. 1. The details of the protocol are given in our previous work and in
124	supplementary file 1 [12].

125

## 126 **2.2. Metabolomic analysis**

127

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

132 metabolite extraction were performed according to our previous work [19, 20]. All 133 steps in the GC-MS analyses were carried out as described in Fiehn et al., [21, 22]. 134 The datafiles obtained were analyzed with AMDIS software 135 (http://chemdata.nist.gov/mass- spc/amdis/). Peak areas were determined with the 136 Masshunter Quantitative Analysis (Agilent) and normalized to ribitol. Metabolite 137 contents are expressed in arbitrary units. The complete protocol for the metabolomic 138 analysis is detailed in supplementary file 1.

139

140 The metabolomic multivariate data analysis performed using was 141 XLSTAT.2016 software (Addinsoft) and MetaboAnalyst [23, 24]. Supervised Partial Least Squares-Discriminant Analysis (PLS-DA) was carried out in order to discover 142 143 significant variations between the groups. Discriminating metabolites were identified 144 using the Variable Importance for the Projection (VIP) scores. Univariate statistics 145 was performed with Student's t-test, and a P value of less than 0.01 was considered 146 statistically significant. Metabolites with significant changes in the groups (P value < 147 0.01 and VIP > 1) were selected as biomarkers. Pathway analysis of potential 148 biomarkers was performed using MetaboAnalyst [23, 24].

149

### 150 **2.3. CAGE analysis**

151

152 NanoCAGE libraries were generated and sequenced as previously described 153 by Poulain et al. [25] using pseudo-random primers to reduce the amount of 154 sequencing reads mapping to ribosomal DNA [26]. Total RNA extractions, library 155 preparation steps and sequencing were performed as detailed in Lereau-Bernier et al. 156 [12].

157 NanoCAGE sequencing data were processed for CAGEscan analysis as detailed in Lereau-Bernier et al. [12]. Custom R scripts using the CAGEr package 158 159 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 160 161 [27, 28]. Datasets deposited at Zenodo (FASTQ files were DOI: 162 10.5281/zenodo.1014009 and MOIRAI output DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.1017276).

163

164 **2.4. RT-qPCR** 

165

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.

170

### 171 **2.5. Albumin measurements**

172

173 Albumin production was quantified by ELISA sandwich assays using anti-174 Human Albumin IgG (Bethyl, Japan, capture antibody) and anti-Human Albumin IgG 175 coupled with peroxidase (Bethyl, Japan, detection antibody) [12]. After peroxidase 176 revelation by  $H_2O_2/OPD$  mixture, the plate was read at 490 nm using an iMark 177 Microplate reader (Bio-Rad).

178

179

180

## 182 **2.6. CYP3A4 immunostaining**

183

184 CYP3A4 immunostaining was performed as described by Danoy et al., [29]. The 185 primary and secondary antibodies used were anti-cytochrome P450 3A4/CYP3A4 186 antibody (rabbit, ab135813, abcam) and anti-rabbit Alexa Fluor 647 (goat, ab150129, 187 abcam), respectively. Observations were made with an Olympus IX-81 confocal 188 laser-scanning microscope.

189

190 **3. Results** 

191

#### **3.1. Cell differentiation into hepatocyte-like cells**

193

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).

200

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 207 undifferentiated iPSC. Furthermore, these genes were more highly expressed in 208 protocol 2 (when compared with protocol 1). The expression of *OCT3/4* was clearly 209 downregulated at the end of differentiation in protocols 1 and 2 (Fig. 2C). This overall 210 set of data confirmed the success of the differentiation into a hepatocyte-like cell 211 lineage.

- 212
- 213 **3.2. Metabolomics analysis**
- 214

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

217

218 The metabolomic treatment led to the identification of 105 metabolites in the 219 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 220 221 compound (using the level of each compound in the basal culture media, the basal 222 media being the control media without cell exposure). The PLS-DA analysis applied 223 to the overall dataset led to several separate steps in different clusters, as shown in 224 Fig. 3A. We found a clear separation between the steps 1 in each protocol, indicating 225 distinct metabolic profiles. In addition, both steps 4 were clustered in the same area 226 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 227 228 of steps 2 and 3, for both protocols, were almost superimposed.

229

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.

236

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.

244

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.

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251 3.2.2. Differential analysis of step 1

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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 257 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 258 259 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-260 261 related compounds such as 3 phosphoglycreic acid, lactic acid and gluconic acid. 262 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 263 264 (supplementary file 1) also summarizes the fold change in 56 significant metabolites, in comparison with the initial basal media (for both protocols). 265

266

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).

272

### 273 3.2.3. Differential analysis of steps 2 and 3

274

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).

286

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).

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3.2.4. Differential analysis of step 4
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296 The two protocols were distinguished in step 4 as two distinct clusters were 297 formed to group each protocol (PLS-DA score plot in Fig.5G). However, step 4 was 298 still characterized by a low number of metabolites significantly modulated between 299 protocols 1 and 2 (12 metabolites with a P value of less than 0.01; Fig.5H and 300 supplementary file 3). It included fatty acids and lipids such as caprylic acid, 301 palmitoleic acid, and carbohydrates such as fructose, glucose and galacturonic acid. 302 All these metabolites were higher in protocol 2 (Fig.5I). We also found higher levels 303 of pyroglutamic acid in protocol 2, whereas urea was higher in protocol 1. The top 20 304 metabolites (with a P value of less than 0.05) are presented in the heatmap in Fig.S4 305 (supplementary file 1). Of them, we monitored higher levels of azelaic acid, Ophosphocolamine and cholesterol in protocol 2, and higher levels of uracil and 306

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).

311

### 312 **3.3. Transcriptomic characterization**

313

314 In order to complete the metabolomic profiling, we integrated genomics 315 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 316 analyzed by RTqPCR at the end of the step in both protocols. As shown in Fig.6A, 317 318 RTqPCR confirmed higher levels of glycolytic genes in protocol 1 at the end of step 1 319 for PFKM, PGAM, ENO1, G6PD and LDHA genes. The levels of IDH2 (TCA) were 320 also higher in protocol 1. ACLY (lipogenesis) and HIF1A (hypoxia) mRNA levels 321 remained similar in both protocols.

322

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.

331 The pathway analysis, run with an FDR of 0.2, using the KEGG database, extracted the glycolysis/gluconeogenesis, the metabolism of various carbohydrates 332 333 (fructose, mannose, galactose), ferroptosis (iron metabolism), HIF signaling and 334 arginine-proline metabolism among the top modulated pathways (Fig.6C). The full 335 figures and modulated genes are given in supplementary file 5. The GO molecular 336 function also illustrated phospholipid- and steroid-related pathways, and cellular 337 remodeling and modulations (via integrin binding, cadherin binding and cell adhesion 338 binding activities; Fig.S7 in supplementary file 1). A selective list of lipid genes 339 (APOA2, HMGCR, HMGCS1, ACLY, SCD, SQLE) and carbohydrate genes (ENO1, PGK1, GAPDH, GPI, HK2, LDHA, PKM, ALDOA) are presented in Table 1. All these 340 341 genes were downregulated in protocol 2 when compared with protocol 1. We also 342 included the mRNA ratio of HIF obtained by RTqPCR, which was found to be 343 upregulated by 4.5 times in protocol 2.

344

345 Using the STRING protein database clustering tool, with the Kmeans method 346 applied to the 270 genes, we extracted 8 typical interconnected networks with 106 347 genes (Fig.S8 in supplementary file 1). Those networks were related to ECM and 348 tissue remodeling (via genes such as LUM, COL1A1, COL4A5, COL14A1, COL3A1, 349 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 350 351 (via genes such as APOA2, HMGCR, HMGCS1, ACLY, SCD and SQLE), some transporters (SLC1A3, SLC16A1, SLC2A3 and VDAC2), and ribosomal, RNA and 352 DNA processing (RPL3, RPS3, EIF5 and EEF2). Furthermore, specific liver 353 354 progenitor markers were extracted (ALB, NR3C2, TF, CK19 and RBP4). In those networks, the important nodes appeared to be the genes ACLY, APOA2, HSP90AA1, 355

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

359

### **360 3.4. Metabolomic and transcriptomic integration of step 4 data**

361

362 The 270 genes and the top 20 metabolites from step 4 were integrated into 363 metaboanalyst software. The list of enriched pathways and the corresponding genes 364 and metabolites are given in supplementary files 6 and 7. The integration principally 365 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 366 367 metabolism (5 hits). The network explorer option connected 7 metabolites (glycine, glutamic acid, aspartic acid, Palmitoleic acid, citric acid, 4 hydroxybenzoic acid and 368 369 N-acethyl-L aspartic acid) and 10 genes (ANPEP, EEF2, CACNA2D1, GRID2, MITF, 370 PAICS, FDPS, SND1, ACLY, FST). The network map is provided in Fig.S9 in 371 supplementary file 1.

372

- 373 Discussion
- 374

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.

387

388 During protocol 1, the culture medium sequence was changed every day. We 389 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 390 391 were reported as leading to glycolytic respiration (in contrast to oxidative 392 phosphorylation respiration in mature and differentiated tissue) [30]. When comparing 393 the two protocols, metabolomic profiling revealed significant and very complex 394 modulation of the cell signature at the end of step 1. More particularly, the two 395 protocols differed in terms of the high levels of lipids such as palmitoleic, caprylic and 396 hexanoic acids in protocol 2, revealing lower consumption of fatty acids. However, 397 the ACLY gene (lipogenesis process) was not significantly modulated between the 398 two protocols. Furthermore, glucose levels were higher in protocol 2 and lactate 399 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 400 401 glycolysis. This was consistent with the activation of the TCA cycle in protocol 1 as 402 demonstrated by high levels of typical intermediates such as succinic, malic, fumaric 403 and citric acids. At the mRNA levels, these results were accompanied by higher 404 mRNA levels of glycolytic and TCA genes in protocol 1. In protocol 2, the medium 405 was not changed every day leading to the creation of a potential glucose shortage.

406 Consistently, it has been reported in the literature that starvation results in lower 407 levels of glycolytic genes [31]. In addition, in the present study, this downregulation 408 was independent of the *HIF* mRNA levels in step 1, which remained closed to each 409 other for both protocols (*HIF* being involved in glycolysis and lipid regulation) [32, 33].

410

411 Lipolysis is reported to be one source of carbohydrates in a starvation state 412 [34]. As a result, we expected lower lipid levels in protocol 2, which was not the case 413 in step 1. Furthermore, high levels of fructose are said to induce lipogenesis and only 414 limited amounts of lipids can be used to generate glucose [35, 36],. These results 415 may reflect the behavior observed in protocol 2, in which high lipid levels were 416 correlated with high levels of fructose. A second alternative source of glucose during 417 starvation is amino acids (amino acids are usually extracted from protein degradation 418 in muscle). As we observed higher levels of amino acids in protocol 2, including 419 isoleucine, cystine, serine, lysine, tyrosine and tryptophan, additional analysis is 420 required if we are to identify whether or not protocol 2 led to reduced amino acid 421 consumption or to amino acid production as a result of protein degradation for 422 generating glucose.

423

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 431 (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. 432 433 Interestingly, L-kynurenine is said to decrease cell membrane fluidity (in liver cells) 434 and to reduce linoleic acid incorporation into phospholipids [37]. It led in parallel to an 435 increase in cholesterol levels, which appeared consistent with our findings [37]. A 436 slight difference in vitamin B6 metabolism was finally extracted in step 2 (higher 437 levels of pyridoxine in protocol 2). Vitamin B6 deficiency is linked to an altered fatty 438 acid profile and impaired fatty acid synthesis, which may also be the illustration of 439 overall complex crosstalk in the fatty acid metabolism in steps 2 and 3 [38].

440

A difference in both protocols was detected concerning lipid and fatty acid 441 442 levels in step 4. The high levels of palmitoleic, caprylic and azelaic acids in protocol 2 443 revealed a difference in the lipolysis/lipogenesis processes (and consistently with 444 their kinetics from steps 1 to 3) when compared to protocol 1. These high levels of 445 lipids were correlated with high levels of fructose and glucose in protocol 2 (as in step 446 1). In addition, the transcriptomic analysis confirmed modulation at the gene level of 447 lipid and steroid metabolisms (in protocol 2, downregulation of APOA2, HMGCR, HMGCS1, ACLY, SCD, SQLE), glycolysis and carbohydrate metabolism (in protocol 448 449 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). 450

451

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 456 glycolysis and also increased glucose uptake [32]. In parallel, it is said to induce fatty 457 acid uptake and lipid storage, but HIF-1 also inhibits de novo fatty acid synthesis in 458 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 459 460 phosphorylation to anaerobic glycolysis in hypoxic conditions [32]. In our study, we 461 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 462 463 not face a HIF signaling governing process in step 4 of protocol 2. The process in 464 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 465 466 was closer in step 4 between both protocols (8 metabolites with a P value of 0.01 467 compared to 65 in step 1), it also appeared that the predominance of this 468 phenomenon could be attenuated when compared to the situation in step 1. Although 469 we can postulate that liver-like cells start to play their role in metabolism homeostasis, 470 additional analysis is needed to clarify the status of the situation in protocol 2.

471

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*.

478

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

481 process is consistent with other iPSC differentiation reports presenting a switch from 482 ATP production via glycolysis in the pluripotent stem stage, to mitochondrial oxidative 483 phosphorylation (OXPHOS) respiration, which leads to an increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS) levels (ROS are produced by OXPHOS) [30, 39]. 484 Pyroglutamic acid production illustrates the activation of glutathione metabolism in 485 486 order to detoxify the ROS produced by OXPHOS. Glutathione metabolism activation was also illustrated by the consumption of the main glutathione precursors in step 4 487 488 of both protocols (glycine, cysteine and glutamic acid; fold change between 0.4 and 489 0.9 when compared to basal culture media) [38].

490

491 The results presented in this work demonstrate that the reduction of growth 492 factors by 40% (protocol 2) efficiently generate hepatocyte-like cells similar to those 493 generated by the classical protocol (protocol 1). Integration of metabolomic and 494 transcriptomic data highlighted several key metabolic pathways during differentiation 495 process and contributed to identify the effect of frequency of the culture medium 496 renewal and growth factors reduction on iPSC metabolism. However, additional 497 analysis such as the repetition of those protocols of differentiation on other iPSC 498 sources, evaluation of the protocol stability and their key events, cell sorting to 499 quantify the population heterogeneity, proteomic characterisation, and benchmark 500 with both fetal and primary hepatocyte cultures, are required (i) to clarify the real 501 benefit of our protocols (ii) to understand the metabolic effects observed. In addition, 502 precise hepatocyte quantification would be required to normalise the hepatocytes 503 productions/consumptions regarding the overall tissue. Nevertheless, we believe that 504 those results provide knowledge on the behavior of iPSC during hepatic 505 differentiation.

506 **Conclusion** 

507

We compared the metabolomic and transcriptomic signatures of human 508 509 induced pluripotent stem cells during their differentiation into hepatocyte-like cells. 510 Two differentiation protocols were tested. By reducing the frequency of culture 511 medium change in one protocol, we managed to produce hepatocyte-like cells producing albumin and urea. The metabolomic signature demonstrated a major 512 513 difference at the start of differentiation, leading to 65 differentially-expressed 514 metabolites. The difference became weaker once the differentiation reached hepatic 515 specification. At the end of both protocols, only 8 metabolites remained differentially-516 expressed (including fructose, palmitoleic and caprylic acid). During the process as a 517 whole, the reduction in culture medium change led to a metabolic signature with high 518 levels of fructose and lipids in the culture medium. This was accompanied by 519 downregulation of glycolytic genes. The present study clearly reveals the potential of 520 our new protocol to generate hepatocyte like-cells from hiPSC, with a reduced cost. 521 Our analysis could also contribute to a better understanding of differentiation and 522 suggest novel targets to improve iPSC maturation into functional hepatocytes.

523

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525

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- 532 **Conflict of interest**
- 533

534 The authors declare no conflict of interests

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- 536 **References**
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