

**Lignature provides a curated resource of ligand induced transcriptomic
signatures for signaling inference**

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Running Title: Lignature for Signaling Inference

1 **Abstract**

2 Ligand-receptor interactions mediate intercellular communication, inducing transcriptional
3 changes that regulate physiological and pathological processes. Ligand-induced
4 transcriptomic signatures can be used to infer ligand activity; however, the absence of a
5 comprehensive set of ligand-response signatures has limited their practical application in
6 predicting ligand-receptor interactions. To bridge this gap, we develop Lignature, a
7 curated database encompassing intracellular transcriptomic signatures for 362 human
8 ligands, significantly expanding the repertoire of ligands with available intracellular
9 response signatures such as CytoSig and ImmuneDictionary. Lignature compiles
10 signatures from published transcriptomic datasets, generating both gene- and pathway-
11 based signatures for each ligand. We apply Lignature to prioritize ligand-associated
12 transcriptional activity in controlled *in vitro* experiments and real-world single-cell
13 sequencing datasets. Across these settings, Lignature consistently improves the
14 prioritization of experimentally supported ligands compared with existing approaches. We
15 additionally develop a regression-based framework to model combinatorial regulation by
16 multiple ligands. These results establish Lignature as a robust platform for ligand
17 signaling inference, providing a powerful tool to explore ligand-receptor interactions
18 across diverse experimental and physiological contexts.

19

20 **Introduction**

21 Cell-cell communication is essential for coordinating biological processes in multicellular
22 organisms, with ligand-receptor (LR) interactions serving as a primary mechanism in this

23 process(Armingol et al. 2021; Armingol et al. 2024; Su et al. 2024). The rapid
24 advancement of sequencing technologies has enabled the development of numerous
25 computational methods for predicting potential LR interactions from transcriptomic data.

26 Current methods for predicting cell-cell communication, particularly LR interactions, fall
27 into three major categories. The first category identifies LR interactions based on the co-
28 expression of ligand genes in sender cells and receptor genes in receiver cells. Tools
29 such as CellPhoneDB(Efremova et al. 2020), CellChat(Jin et al. 2021),
30 SingleCellSignalR(Cabello-Aguilar et al. 2020), NATMI(Hou et al. 2020), and
31 ICELLNET(Massenet-Regad et al. 2021) exemplify this approach. While these methods
32 are effective, they often generate a high number of false positives by relying solely on
33 ligand and receptor gene expression levels.

34 To enhance accuracy, a second type of approach integrates intracellular networks to
35 model the impact of ligands on target genes in receiver cells. Tools like
36 CCCExplorer(Yeung et al. 2019), NicheNet(Browaeys et al. 2020), SoptSC(Wang et al.
37 2019), and LRLoop(Xin et al. 2022; Qian et al. 2024) predict LR interactions by comparing
38 observed transcriptional changes with predicted target genes associated with each ligand.
39 However, the incomplete and potentially noisy nature of current signaling and regulatory
40 networks leads to inaccuracies in target gene prediction. Additionally, these methods fail
41 to model the direction and magnitude of target gene expression changes in response to
42 specific ligands.

43 A third group of methods, including SpaOTsc(Cang and Nie 2020) and COMMOT(Cang
44 et al. 2023), incorporates spatial information to better account for potential signaling
45 between cells, further refining predictions of cell-cell communication. However, these

46 methods rely on spatial transcriptomics data and do not resolve the inherent challenges
47 of expression-based prediction.

48 In this work, we propose a new approach to predict the specific ligands responsible for
49 the transcriptomic changes within the receiver cells. Instead of merely modeling the target
50 genes of ligands, our method will identify the signatures of ligands by measuring the
51 transcriptomic changes derived from actual gene expression data. When cells are treated
52 with a given ligand, and their gene expression is measured before and after treatment,
53 we can then create a distinct signature unique to that particular ligand. It's worth noting
54 that the concept of ligand signatures is widely accepted in the field. Many researchers
55 have identified the “responsive genes” of the ligands(Sanda et al. 2006; Dölken et al.
56 2008; Qin et al. 2009; Sohn et al. 2010; Cecchi et al. 2015). Previous works such as
57 CytoSig(Jiang et al. 2021) and ImmuneDictionary(Cui et al. 2024) indeed collect the
58 signatures of ligands, while PROGENy leverages publicly perturbation experiments for
59 modeling oncogenic and tumor suppressor signaling footprints(Schubert et al. 2018).
60 However, they either focus exclusively on cytokines, or on tumor related pathways,
61 limiting the practical applications of their datasets to the prediction of cell-cell
62 communication. Here we provide a comprehensive ligand signature database, Lignature,
63 which contains the signatures for 362 ligands across diverse categories. Multiple
64 signatures are retained for individual ligands to capture potential cell type-specific
65 transcriptional responses induced by the same ligand. Additionally, we constructed gene-
66 and pathway-based signatures for these ligands. We validated these signatures using in
67 vitro experiments and single-cell sequencing datasets, demonstrating their reliability. The
68 accompanying R(Team 2023)-based computational tool further enables the signature-

69 based ligand–transcriptional program association and corresponding ligand-receptor
70 interaction predictions.

71

72 **Results**

73 **Overall design**

74 The transcriptomic changes induced by a specific ligand are referred to as the ligand's
75 signatures. By comparing observed gene expression changes to a comprehensive library
76 of ligand signatures, it is possible to predict which ligands are likely to induce observed
77 gene expression changes. To achieve this, we collected transcriptomic datasets where
78 gene expression profiles were measured before and after treatment with specific ligands.
79 These datasets were used to construct a library of ligand signatures based on the
80 resulting transcriptomic changes.

81 Recognizing that ligand-induced signatures can vary depending on cell types and
82 experimental conditions, we included multiple signatures for a given ligand when such
83 datasets were available. Additionally, we developed a companion software tool designed
84 to predict and visualize transcriptional program-associated ligands by leveraging this
85 curated collection of ligand signatures.

86 **Generation of the Lignature database**

87 We developed an automatic pipeline to search Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)(Edgar
88 et al. 2002) for datasets with an experimental design that would potentially contain
89 transcriptomic responses to these ligands. Starting with the metadata of all 25,868

90 platform identifiers downloaded from GEO, we collected metadata for 72,738 data-series
91 corresponding to Homo sapiens platforms and molecule type “total RNA”, “poly(A) RNA”,
92 or “nuclear RNA”, where each data-series could include multiple datasets. The curated
93 metadata of the GEO data-series was then queried with a predefined set of 859 ligands
94 based on our previous work LRLoop(Xin et al. 2022). We searched the metadata with
95 ligand genes’ full names, symbols, and aliases, together with a set of 105 experiment
96 keywords such as “ligand”, “receptor”, “treatment”, “stimulate”, “overexpress”, “block”,
97 “knockdown”, and “silence”, resulted in a list of 9,187 data-series for manual curation.
98 Finally, after carefully examining the collected data-series in GEO, we removed those that
99 were not relevant to our purpose or exhibited technical issues such as the use of non-
100 genome-wide platforms, ambiguous data description, or the lack of accessible
101 raw/processed data. This curation yielded a list of 460 data-series, containing
102 transcriptomic response data for 213 ligands that were not included in the databases
103 CytoSig(Jiang et al. 2021) and ImmuneDictionary(Cui et al. 2024) (Fig. 1A).

104 The transcriptomic datasets, including gene expression array and RNA-seq datasets,
105 were then processed for differential expression analysis (see Methods for details), vectors
106 of \log_2FC (fold change) values for expressed genes were collected as the gene-level
107 ligand signatures. For datasets with multiple treatment conditions (e.g., durations or
108 doses), a separate signature was created for each different condition. After combining the
109 data of 149 ligands from CytoSig(Jiang et al. 2021) and ImmuneDictionary(Cui et al.
110 2024), we obtain the datasets for 362 ligands (Fig. 1B). In addition to the gene-level
111 response signatures, we also calculated KEGG(Kanehisa and Goto 2000; Kanehisa 2019;
112 Kanehisa et al. 2025) pathway signatures for each ligand. Specifically, we performed

113 Gene Set Enrichment Analysis across 302 KEGG pathways (each containing 10–500
114 genes) and calculated the Normalized Enrichment Score (NES) for each pathway. The
115 resulting NES vectors were compiled as the pathway-level signatures. (Fig. 1A). For each
116 signature, we comprehensively summarized information on cell types, organisms,
117 sources of the cell type or tissue, and the conditions pertaining to the ligand treatment
118 dose and duration (Supplemental Table S1).

119 The 362 ligands with signatures in Lignature are classified into 100 groups based on the
120 HUGO Gene Nomenclature Committee categories(Seal et al. 2023), including a group
121 labeled “Other” consisting of 64 ligands that either have no gene groups, or have only
122 very generalized (such as “Receptor ligands”) or biochemical structure-focused (such as
123 “WAP four-disulfide core domain containing”) gene groups specified in HGNC. The largest
124 ligand groups include CD molecules, interleukins, neuropeptides, TNF superfamily, and
125 chemokine ligands (Fig. 1C, Supplemental Table S2). This classification also highlights
126 data source biases; CytoSig and ImmuneDictionary primarily focus on interleukins, TNF
127 superfamily, interferons, and fibroblast growth factors, while our newly curated data cover
128 a broader range, including most CD molecules, neuropeptides, Ig-like cell adhesion
129 molecules, and semaphorins.

130 Using the Lignature database as a reference, we provided a companion computational
131 tool that infers the ligands or ligand combinations responsible for transcriptomic changes
132 within receiver cells, and the corresponding cell-cell interaction networks between
133 multiple cell types or clusters. The tool provides multiple options for calculating
134 expression-based LR interaction strength, providing an intuitive summary of the predicted
135 LR activities across different conditions (Fig. 1D).

136 **Overall properties of the ligand signatures**

137 A single ligand may have multiple signatures, as it may produce different responses in
138 various cell types with diverse treatment durations and concentrations. In fact, across the
139 total of 4215 signatures corresponding to 362 ligands, the number of signatures per ligand
140 ranges from 1 to 271, with TGFB1 having the largest number of signatures (Fig. 1E). We
141 systematically compared the similarity of signatures of the same ligand with those from
142 different ligands by calculating Pearson correlation coefficients for all signature pairs (Fig.
143 2A). The mean correlation coefficients between signatures of the same ligand are 0.174,
144 0.161, and 0.064 in Lignature, CytoSig, and ImmuneDictionary, respectively. In contrast,
145 the mean correlation coefficients between signatures of different ligands are 0.003, 0.022,
146 and 0.058 for Lignature, CytoSig, and ImmuneDictionary, respectively. This analysis
147 indicates that signatures derived from the same ligand tend to exhibit higher similarity
148 than those from different ligands. Correlation analysis of five representative ligands, TNF,
149 TGFB1, SHH, IFNA (family), and IFNG, further supports this observation (Supplemental
150 Fig. S1A).

151 Although signatures generated by the same ligand exhibit higher similarity than those
152 from different ligands, the same ligand can still induce diverse responses across cell types,
153 treatment conditions, and other biological contexts. To further investigate the sources of
154 this diversity, we analyzed signature variation within individual ligands. For example,
155 TGFB1 signatures show that profiles derived from the same cell types or cell lines (e.g.,
156 fibroblasts, A549, MCF10), whether from the same or different studies, tend to cluster
157 together, whereas signatures from different cell types display substantial variation (Fig.
158 2B). Similarly, SHH has more than twenty signatures from datasets across different

159 organisms, cell types, treatment modalities, doses, durations, and platforms. Signatures
160 derived from the same cell types, such as mouse neuralized embryoid bodies or
161 medulloblastoma cells, consistently cluster together, while signatures across distinct cell
162 types show context-dependent variation (Fig. 2B). Together, these analyses indicate that
163 cell type is a major source of signature diversity for a given ligand.

164 To confirm the biological relevance of the ligand signatures, we calculated the enrichment
165 of upregulated and downregulated genes of ligand signatures in KEGG pathways. For
166 instance, the enriched pathways for the signature genes of ligand LEP (which encodes
167 leptin) include allograft rejection, intestinal immune network for IgA production, graft-
168 versus-host disease, complement and coagulation cascades. These pathways are related
169 to LEP's involvement in inflammatory processes (Molinero et al. 2016; Cui et al. 2017;
170 Scheja and Heeren 2019). Conversely, the TP53 pathway is enriched in downregulated
171 genes, consistent with leptin's inhibitory effect on cell cycle processes by decreasing the
172 key TP53 proliferation regulator (Toro et al. 2014) (Fig. 2C). Similarly, the signature genes
173 of ligand TNFSF13 shows enrichment of upregulated genes in NF- κ B signaling, apoptosis,
174 TNF signaling pathway and other pathways that are highly consistent with the known
175 cellular functions of TNFSF13 (Baert et al. 2018). It is worth noting that TNFSF13 is also
176 closely associated with allograft rejection in organ transplantation (Jo et al. 2019) (Fig. 2C,
177 for more examples, see Supplemental Fig. S1B). These enriched pathways underscore
178 the biological significance of the ligand signatures and can be used to construct pathway-
179 based signatures and predict the active ligands.

180 Finally, we examined whether ligands from the same family or with similar biological
181 functions tend to induce similar transcriptional responses. To do this, we generated a

182 merged signature for each ligand and performed hierarchical clustering based on the
183 similarity of these merged signatures. This analysis revealed several coherent groups
184 corresponding to well-established ligand families (Supplemental Fig. S1C). For example,
185 members of the TGF-beta family, including TGFB1, TGFB2, and TGFB3, and BMP2,
186 BMP4, and BMP6, clustered tightly, consistent with their convergent downstream
187 signaling pathways(Miyazono et al. 2001; Elsafadi et al. 2019; Wu et al. 2024). Likewise,
188 most interferons (IFNs) clustered together, and many interleukins (ILs) showed relatively
189 close similarity. In addition, TNF, IL1B, and CD40LG, which all regulate NF-κB signaling,
190 grouped together(Lawrence 2009; Hostager and Bishop 2013; Jiang et al. 2021). In
191 contrast, CD (cluster of differentiation) molecules, whose nomenclature is based on
192 structural or localization features rather than shared functions, were dispersed across the
193 clustering, reflecting their broad functional diversity.

194 **Assessment in signaling inference with bulk *in vitro* datasets**

195 We assessed the ability of Lignature to predict active ligands using ligand signatures. To
196 this end, we collected and processed additional transcriptomic datasets as test cases,
197 where known ligands were used to treat cell lines, and transcriptomic changes were
198 measured before and after treatment. The goal was to predict the treatment ligands based
199 on these observed transcriptomic changes. A total of 90 test datasets were used,
200 including 24 human and 66 mouse datasets, representing 27 unique treatment ligands
201 (Fig. 3A). Note that the test datasets were not included in the initial Lignature database
202 used to generate ligand signatures, and the same test datasets were used when
203 comparing Lignature with other existing methods.

204 For each test dataset, we measured the similarity between the observed transcriptomic
205 changes and signatures in the Lignature library by the Pearson correlation coefficients.
206 The signatures were ranked based on these similarities, and the ranked position of the
207 treatment ligand was examined. For example, in a dataset treated with ligand IFNG, the
208 transcriptomic changes were compared against the signatures of the ligands in Lignature.
209 Both the gene-level and pathway-level signatures for ligand IFNG exhibit high correlation
210 coefficients with the test data, accurately identifying it as an acting ligand responsible for
211 the observed transcriptomic changes (ranked number 1; Fig. 3B). Three other methods
212 for ligand activity prediction based on receiver-cell responses were compared to Lignature.
213 NicheNet ranked IFNG number 11, lower than the prediction from Lignature yet a
214 reasonably high rank for identifying IFNG as a treatment ligand. Another method iTALK
215 that predicts LR interactions based on differential expression of receptor genes alone
216 ranked IFNG much lower at number 279 and 306, respectively, when scoring each ligand
217 by the maximum or mean absolute \log_2FC values of its cognate receptors (denoted by
218 $maxRlfc$ and $meanRlfc$) (Fig. 3B).

219 Across all 90 test datasets, the median rank of treatment ligands was 3.5 and 8.5 for
220 predictions from Lignature gene- and pathway-level signatures (Fig. 3C), the median AUC
221 values of the corresponding ROC (receiver operating characteristic) curves are 0.989 and
222 0.951 (Fig. 3D), and the AUC values of the combined ROC curves from predictions for all
223 90 test datasets are 0.925 and 0.883, respectively (Fig. 3E). Applying NicheNet,
224 iTALK($maxRlfc$), and iTALK($meanRlfc$) to the same datasets yielded median ranks of 33.5,
225 64.5, and 78 for the treatment ligands (Fig. 3C), median AUC values of the corresponding
226 ROC curves 0.843, 0.817, and 0.792 (Fig. 3D), and AUC values of combined ROC curves

227 0.685, 0.749, and 0.713 (Fig. 3E). In this well-controlled *in vitro* setting, Lignature shows
228 significantly enhanced ability to prioritize experimentally supported ligand-transcriptional
229 program associations relative to existing methods.

230 We next asked whether the signatures from one species can be applied to another. Since
231 Lignature contains mostly signatures from human datasets, we compared its performance
232 on 24 human and 66 mouse test datasets to assess cross-species applicability
233 (Supplemental Fig. S2A-B). In human test datasets, the median rank of the treatment
234 ligands was 2 for both gene- and pathway-level signatures. In mouse test datasets, the
235 corresponding median ranks were 4 and 13, respectively. These comparable
236 performances indicate that transcriptional responses to homologous ligands are largely
237 conserved across species, enabling effective cross-species inference of transcriptional
238 program-associated ligands.

239 We next examined whether the number of available signatures for a ligand influenced
240 prediction performance. Our analysis revealed a weak-to-moderate negative correlation
241 (-0.39) between signature library size and prediction rank, indicating that ligands with
242 more signatures tend to achieve better prediction performance. However, this trend was
243 not absolute: ligands with only a few signatures often ranked highly, whereas some
244 ligands with large signature libraries performed only moderately (Supplemental Fig. S2C).

245 **Combinatorial regulation**

246 We next evaluated whether ligand signatures could predict combinatorial ligand effects.
247 Our analysis used 38 datasets in which cells were treated with pairs of ligands drawn
248 from 13 distinct factors, across varying doses and treatment durations. When each

249 ligand was considered independently, the signatures frequently identified either both
250 treatment ligands or one of them, with the latter likely reflecting cases where a single
251 ligand dominated the transcriptional response (Supplemental Fig. S3A–B).

252 To more directly address the challenge of deconvoluting combinatorial signaling, we
253 developed a dedicated feature that applies regularized linear regression (Ridge,
254 LASSO, or Elastic Net) to model a differential expression profile as a weighted
255 combination of multiple ligand activities. Using LASSO regression on the 38 dual-ligand
256 datasets, this combinatorial approach improved the ranking of the true treatment ligands
257 relative to individual signature matching at both the gene and pathway levels
258 (Supplemental Fig. S3A–B). These results indicate that ligand signatures can be
259 extended to predict more complex combinatorial signaling interactions.

260 **Application and assessment of Lignature with scRNA-seq datasets**

261 We then applied Lignature to two published scRNA-seq datasets that preserved more
262 natural *in vivo* conditions involving multiple cell types.

263 **Example 1: SHH-Induced Thalamic Differentiation** To investigate SHH-mediated
264 thalamic differentiation, organoids were treated with recombinant SHH, and scRNA-seq
265 was performed on samples collected on day 70 with or without SHH treatment (Kiral et al.
266 2023). Major cell clusters were identified, including excitatory neurons (ExNs), inhibitory
267 neurons (INs), astrocytes (ASs), endothelial cells (ECs), and ependymal cells (Epn) (Fig.
268 4A-B). Since SHH activation promotes the generation of INs, we focused on the IN cluster
269 from the SHH day 14–22 treatment sample compared to the untreated sample.

270 Candidate ligands in Lignature were first filtered based on the detection rate of their
271 receptors, retaining ligands with at least one receptor detected at a rate above 0.1. Using
272 Lignature (gene-level signatures), SHH was ranked as one of the top ligands (number
273 four) predicted to be transcriptional program-associated, inducing the observed
274 transcriptomic changes (green dots in Fig. 4C, Supplemental Fig. S4A). Three ligands,
275 VEGFA, IFNG, and IGF2 ranked higher than SHH. Among them, IFNG can be reasonably
276 excluded, because the expression level of *IFNG* in all cells are zero (Fig. 4C). VEGFA
277 and IGF2 are known to be the downstream regulators of SHH, which play a role in
278 neurogenesis, neuroprotection, and the processes of synaptic formation throughout
279 neural development(Lawson et al. 2002; Rosenstein et al. 2010; Mackenzie and Ruhrberg
280 2012; Alberini 2023; Pandey et al. 2023). This result suggests that Lignature captures the
281 transcriptomic response from the signaling cascade initiated by SHH. In contrast, with the
282 same set of candidate ligands and filtering criteria, NicheNet, iTALK (maxRlfc) and a
283 receptor expression-based method (maximum expression of the cognate receptors)
284 ranked SHH much lower at number 37, 114 and 126, respectively. In summary, Lignature
285 successfully prioritized SHH, an exogenously introduced ligand, as one of the active
286 ligands associated with transcriptomic changes between treated and untreated samples,
287 demonstrating improved performance relative to other methods in linking ligand activity
288 to transcriptional programs during induced IN generation.

289 **Example 2: Microglia and Müller Glia (MG) Regeneration** Microglia cells have been
290 implicated in suppressing Müller glia (MG) regeneration capacity, as microglia ablation
291 improved retinal neurogenesis from MG(Todd et al. 2020). Furthermore, treatment with
292 TNF in microglia-ablated mice suppressed the enhanced neurogenesis observed in the

293 absence of microglia(Todd et al. 2020), suggesting that microglia-originated TNF might
294 inhibit MG regeneration. scRNA-seq was performed on microglia and MG before and after
295 microglia ablation(Todd et al. 2020) (Fig. 5A-B), and we aimed to predict the ligands
296 responsible for the transcriptomic changes in MG.

297 Application of Lignature to the scRNA data in MG predicted TNF as the top ranked ligand
298 (green dots in Fig. 5C, Supplemental Fig. S4B). In contrast, when we used NicheNet to
299 assess the activities of the same ligands, TNF was positioned number 37. Several ligands
300 highly ranked by NicheNet, such as IL1A, GIP, IL17F, C5, and LIF, were assigned lower
301 rankings by Lignature. Upon examining the expression levels of these ligands in the
302 sender cells (microglia) and their receptor's expression in MG before microglia ablation,
303 we found that either the ligands or their receptors were undetectable or detected in a very
304 limited portion of the cells, indicating they are unlikely to be the major contributors to the
305 transcriptomic changes in MG. Moreover, iTALK and a receptor expression-based method
306 ranked TNF number 148 and 42, failed in ranking TNF highly as a transcriptional program-
307 associated ligand for the transcriptomic changes in MG.

308 We next used CellPhoneDB, NATMI, SingleCellSignalR, and CellChat, four well
309 established gene expression-based methods for predicting ligand-receptor interactions,
310 to identify active ligands responsible for the transcriptomic changes in MG. The ligands
311 were ranked based on their maximum interaction strength with corresponding receptors.
312 TNF was ranked 17th, 7th, 7th, and 6th by CellPhoneDB, NATMI, SingleCellSignalR, and
313 CellChat, respectively (Fig. 5D and Supplemental Fig. S4C). This analysis suggests that
314 gene expression alone might not be sufficient for the identification of transcriptional

315 program-associated ligands, while in practice, filtering the candidate ligands by the gene
316 expression levels would help reduce noises (Fig. 5D).

317 **Usage of Lignature**

318 We demonstrate the usage of Lignature by applying a scRNA-seq dataset of immune cell
319 populations in checkpoint blockade-associated colitis and control samples(Luoma et al.
320 2020). Our program takes the Seurat object, specified receiver and sender cell types, and
321 a pair of sample conditions as input. In this case study, we focused on the transcriptomic
322 changes between samples from checkpoint inhibitor treated melanoma patients with and
323 without histologically colitis, labeled “colitis” and “NC”, in myeloid, with all cell types in the
324 dataset as potential ligand sending cells (Fig. 6A-B).

325 Lignature scores the candidate ligands based on users’ choice of the similarity
326 measurement metric (e.g., Pearson correlation coefficient, Spearman’s correlation
327 coefficient, Cosine Similarity, Euclidean distance) or signature weights from combinatorial
328 analysis by regularized linear regression (Ridge, LASSO, or Elastic Net). Here we used
329 the Pearson correlation coefficient, which was set as default in Lignature. In parallel,
330 Lignature calculates the LR interaction strengths using specified methods such as
331 CellPhoneDB, SingleCellSignalR, or NATMI, which was used in this case. Transcriptional
332 program-associated ligands can be then predicted based on both Lignature score and LR
333 interaction strength (Fig. 6C). Lignature also provides options for filtering the list of LR
334 pairs by gene expression, differential expression, Lignature score, confidence score,
335 interaction strength and specificity. Finally, Lignature produces various plots displaying
336 enriched pathways, inferred ligands, and the associated LR interactions, providing
337 intuitive visualizations for the analysis (Fig. 6B-F and Supplemental Fig. S5). Through this

338 analysis, Lignature successfully identified transcriptional program-associated ligand
339 signaling to myeloid cells such as IFNG and TNF from T cells, as well as potential
340 therapeutic targets for checkpoint inhibitor-induced colitis such as TNF.

341

342 **Discussion**

343 Understanding cell-cell communication is fundamental in decoding complex biological
344 processes, and ligand-receptor interactions play a pivotal role in mediating these signals.

345 In this study, we introduced Lignature, a comprehensive database of ligand signatures
346 derived from experimental data, coupled with a predictive framework for prioritizing
347 transcriptional program-associated ligands based on observed transcriptomic changes.

348 By leveraging this resource, we address several limitations of existing computational
349 methods, such as the challenge of ligand-transcriptional program association
350 prioritization from gene expression-based approaches and biases introduced by
351 incomplete signaling network models.

352 Compared to network-based methods such as NicheNet, Lignature captures not only the
353 target genes of the ligands, but also the direction (i.e., up- and downregulation) and the
354 magnitude of the expression changes of the target genes. Furthermore, it also captures
355 cell type- and condition-specific transcriptomic changes. Our findings demonstrate that
356 Lignature consistently outperforms existing methods, including NicheNet and iTALK, in
357 prioritizing experimentally supported ligand–transcriptional program association. For
358 example, in both controlled *in vitro* datasets and more complex *in vivo* scRNA-seq

359 datasets, Lignature was able to rank the actual treatment ligands or experimentally
360 validated biologically relevant ligands at the top.

361 Ligand–receptor redundancy, where different ligands can interact with the same receptor,
362 and a single ligand can bind to multiple receptors and activate distinct pathways, is
363 prevalent in biological systems. This redundancy enables both convergent functional
364 synergies and divergent, context-specific responses. For example, lymphotoxin proteins
365 in the TNF superfamily, such as LTA and LTB, can bind TNF receptors and trigger
366 intracellular signaling cascades similar to other TNF superfamily ligands(Seleznik et al.
367 2014). Likewise, certain interleukins share convergent signaling pathways with specific
368 interferons; for instance, IL2, IL3, IL6, and IFNE, IFNK all activate the JAK-STAT signaling
369 pathway(O'Shea et al. 2015; Philips et al. 2022). Consistent with these known
370 relationships, our clustering analysis positioned LTA/B, several other TNF superfamily
371 members, interleukins, and interferons in close proximity (Supplemental Fig. S1C).
372 Conversely, some ligands, such as growth factors like EGF, can activate multiple signaling
373 pathways or pathway branches, including PI3K/Akt/mTOR, JAK-STAT, and MAPK/ERK.
374 Such versatility allows ligands to induce divergent functions depending on tissue- and
375 cell-type-specific contexts and supports our decision to retain multiple signatures for a
376 single ligand.

377 Despite the strong performance of Lignature across our analyses, several limitations
378 remain. First, a fundamental challenge in benchmarking ligand-receptor inference
379 methods is the lack of definitive ground truth and the biological complexity arising from
380 multiple ligands acting simultaneously within tissues. Accordingly, although Lignature can
381 prioritize experimentally supported ligands, other highly ranked ligands predicted by

382 alternative methods cannot be simply classified as false positives, particularly in single-
383 cell contexts where concurrent signaling is common. Second, because Lignature infers
384 activity from downstream transcriptional programs, it may prioritize ligands with
385 convergent signaling effects, even in the absence of detectable ligand expression. For
386 example, in the SHH dataset, Lignature ranked *IFNG* among the top predicted ligands,
387 despite *IFNG* expression being undetectable across cells. Therefore, Lignature is not
388 intended to function as a standalone method for definitive ligand attribution. Instead, we
389 recommend interpreting Lignature-derived activity scores in conjunction with ligand and
390 receptor expression-based methods, which can help refine and validate candidate
391 ligands, particularly in settings where specificity is critical. Third, the current version of
392 Lignature depends on condition-based comparisons to extract ligand-induced
393 transcriptional signatures and is therefore not directly applicable when matched
394 conditions are unavailable, such as in many human tissue datasets. In these cases, users
395 can still apply Lignature by defining biologically meaningful contrasts within a single
396 dataset, for example, leveraging cell type labels, clinical groupings, or positions along a
397 developmental trajectory to construct pseudo-conditions for comparison.

398 Several future directions could further strengthen Lignature's coverage and usability. First,
399 although Lignature retains predictive capability even for unseen cell types, expanding the
400 library as additional transcriptomic datasets become available across diverse tissues/cell
401 types and pathological conditions will improve the overall predictive power of the
402 database. Second, extending signatures to more species will enhance cross-species
403 generalizability. Although Lignature achieved comparable performance on human and
404 mouse datasets in benchmarking analyses, its performance was more robust on human

405 datasets, likely due to the predominance of human-derived signatures in the current
406 database. Third, incorporating non-peptide ligands, such as neurotransmitters, will
407 broaden the range of signaling activities that can be accurately inferred(Xin et al. 2025).
408 Finally, while we provide companion software with Lignature to predict ligand-
409 transcriptional program associations, Lignature can also function as a standalone
410 database, both integrate easily with other analytical tools. For example, Lignature can be
411 combined with existing spatial transcriptomics workflows. Lignature infers ligand-
412 transcriptional program associations from transcriptional changes in receiver cells,
413 whereas spatial analyses can evaluate the physical plausibility of inferred interactions
414 based on co-localization patterns.

415 In summary, Lignature represents a significant advancement in the field of cell-cell
416 communication, providing a robust, experimentally validated resource for inferring ligand-
417 transcriptional program association. Its ability to address the limitations of existing
418 computational methods while offering mechanistic insights underscores its potential as a
419 valuable tool for both basic and translational research.

420

421 **Methods**

422 **Datasets collection**

423 We collected 859 human ligands based on our previous work LRLoop(Xin et al. 2022).
424 We then developed an automatic pipeline to search Gene Expression Omnibus
425 (GEO)(Edgar et al. 2002) for datasets with an experimental design that would potentially
426 contain transcriptomic responses to each ligand.

427 Specifically, our collection of the relevant datasets includes the following three steps. We
428 started by the list of all 25,868 platform accession identifiers downloaded from GEO and
429 collected the metadata for each of them using the R package “GEOquery”(Davis and
430 Meltzer 2007), filtered the list by restricting the organism to “Homo sapiens”, and collected
431 the list of 97,693 data-series identifiers corresponding to the 6,278 filtered platforms,
432 where each data-series could include multiple datasets. Then again using GEOquery, we
433 curated metadata for the collected data-series including data “type”, “organism”,
434 “molecule”, “platform id”, “cell line”, “cell type”, “tissue”, as well as data “title”, “abstract”,
435 “url”, “geo accession”, “overall design”, “sample taxid”, “summary”, etc. The list of data-
436 series was then filtered by requiring the “molecule” entry of the corresponding metadata
437 to include the strings “total RNA”, “polyA RNA” (for poly(A) RNA) or “nuclear RNA”,
438 resulted in a list of 72,738 data-series identifiers for further systematic searching of ligand
439 and experiment keywords.

440 In order to search the curated metadata of the GEO series systematically for potential
441 ligand signatures, we collected a set of “ligand keywords” including gene full names,
442 symbols, and aliases for each ligand, as well as a set of 105 experiment keywords such
443 as “ligand”, “receptor”, “treatment”, “stimulate”, “activate”, “expose”, “block”,
444 “overexpress”, “knockout”, “knockdown”, “silence”, “inhibit” and “in the presence of”. The
445 curated metadata of the GEO series list was then queried with the ligand keywords and
446 experiment keywords. This automatic searching process reduced the number of
447 candidate data-series in the list to 9,187 for manual curation.

448 Finally, through careful manual review of the GEO data series, we excluded entries that
449 were irrelevant to our aims or presented technical limitations, such as the use of non–

450 genome-wide platforms, unclear experimental descriptions, or missing raw or processed
451 data. This curation resulted in 460 high-quality data series, providing transcriptomic
452 response profiles for 213 ligands not represented in CytoSig(Jiang et al. 2021) and
453 ImmuneDictionary(Cui et al. 2024) (Fig. 1A).

454 In addition, to create a comprehensive ligand signaling signature database, we took
455 advantage of CytoSig(Jiang et al. 2021) and ImmuneDictionary(Cui et al. 2024) by
456 including the cytokine signatures from these sources into Lignature, and included the
457 signatures of the 90 test bulk datasets after method assessment by these test datasets.

458 **Data processing**

459 We have two major data types: gene expression array and RNA-seq datasets. For
460 Affymetrix array data with raw data .cel files provided, we adopted the
461 “maEndtoEnd”(Klaus and Reisenauer 2016) workflow, which generates and
462 preprocesses expression data using the R package “Oligo”(Carvalho and Irizarry 2010)
463 and perform differential expression analysis using the “limma”(Ritchie et al. 2015)
464 package. For other forms of array data, we used processed data and performed
465 differential expression analysis by “limma”. Briefly, after RMA calibration using the
466 “oligo::rma” function, an intensity-based filtering was performed by removing transcripts
467 without intensities higher than a threshold of two in at least the number of arrays of the
468 smallest experimental group, followed by annotation of the transcript clusters with gene
469 symbols and removal of multiple mappings. Subsequently, a contrast matrix was
470 constructed using functions “model.matrix” and “makeContrasts” and used as input of a
471 standard differential expression analysis pipeline in limma, i.e., “lmFit”, “contrasts.fit”, and

472 “eBayes”. Then for each gene, the most significant ProbeSet corresponding to it with the
473 lowest adjusted p.value was identified and used as the representative of that gene.

474 RNA-seq datasets were processed with a combination of “edgeR”(Robinson et al. 2010)
475 and “limma”. In brief, a DGEList object was created using the function “DGEList” with the
476 expression count matrix, genes were annotated by gene symbols. and lowly expressed
477 genes were identified for removal by the “filterByExpr” function with default settings.
478 Following gene expression normalization through “calcNormFactors” with the “TMM”
479 method, the standard limma-voom pipeline was applied for differential expression
480 analysis.

481 After the differential expression analysis, different types of gene identifiers were converted
482 to gene symbols, and the vectors of \log_2FC values of expressed genes were collected as
483 the gene-level ligand signature. For datasets with multiple treatment conditions, e.g.,
484 durations or doses, a separate signature was created for each different treatment
485 condition.

486 In addition to the gene-level signatures, we also calculated KEGG pathway-level
487 signatures for each ligand. Specifically, we collected gene sets of 302 KEGG pathways
488 with 10 ~ 500 genes by the R package “graphite”(Sales et al. 2012). Then for each gene-
489 level signature, we pre-sorted the \log_2FC vector in descending order and performed Gene
490 Set Enrichment Analysis using the R package “FGSEA”(Korotkevich et al. 2019),
491 calculated the Normalized Enrichment Score (NES) for the KEGG pathways. The vectors
492 of NES were collected as the pathway-level signature (Fig. 1A).

493 **Prediction of active ligands based on ligand signatures**

494 Using the Lignature database as a reference for ligand signaling responses, we provided
495 a companion R (Team 2023)-based computational tool that infers the ligands responsible
496 for observed transcriptomic changes within receiver cells, and the corresponding cell-cell
497 interaction networks between multiple cell types or clusters. For a dataset of interest,
498 taking matrices resulted from differential expression analysis, or the Seurat(Hao et al.
499 2024) object of single cell RNA-seq datasets as input, Lignature scores each signature in
500 the database by the similarity compared to the input data. Options of the similarity
501 measurement metrics include Pearson correlation coefficient (default), Spearman's
502 correlation coefficient, cosine similarity, Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, and the
503 Euclidean or Manhattan distance normalized by vector lengths. In addition, Lignature
504 features the option to perform combinatorial analysis by regularized linear regression
505 (Ridge, LASSO, or Elastic Net) using R packages "caret"(Kuhn 2008) and
506 "glmnet"(Friedman et al. 2010; Tay et al. 2023).

507 While potential active ligands are ranked using the similarity scores between observed
508 gene expression changes and ligand signatures, we also provide two measures of
509 statistical significance. First, permutation-based p values are calculated, allowing users
510 to define a threshold for ligand scoring. Second, users may generate a confidence score
511 for each ligand, defined as the proportion of similarity scores in a null distribution, which
512 is constructed from comparisons between signatures of different ligands, that fall below
513 the ligand's observed score. For example, a ligand score of 0.1 with a confidence score
514 of 0.95 indicates that the score exceeds 95% of the null distribution.

515 When we perform cross-species prediction, genes from mouse datasets were converted
516 to human gene symbols using their human homologs. Furthermore, Lignature provides

517 multiple options for calculating expression-based LR interaction strength such as
518 CellPhoneDB, NATMI, and SingleCellSignalR. In addition, users are provided the choices
519 of filtering the LR-interactions by the ligand scores, confidence scores, expression or
520 differential expression of the ligands and their receptors, interaction strength and the
521 interaction-specificities. Lastly, Lignature features the options to visualize predicted ligand
522 scores, expression of the ligands and their receptors, as well as inferred strengths of LR
523 interactions leveraging R packages “ggplot2”(Wickham 2016), “pheatmap”(Kolde 2025),
524 and “circlize”(Gu et al. 2014), providing an intuitive summary of the predicted LR activities
525 across different conditions (Fig. 1D).

526 **Comparison with other methods**

527 Five other different methods of ligand activity prediction were compared to Lignature.
528 Specifically, for each test dataset, “NicheNet” ligand activities were calculated by the R
529 package “nichenetr” according to its recommended parameter settings, i.e., expressed
530 genes with $|\log_2FC| \geq 1$ and adjusted p.value < 0.1 were used as differentially expressed
531 genes; The method “iTALK [maxRlfc]” scored each ligand by the maximum absolute
532 \log_2FC value of the cognate receptors; “iTALK [meanRlfc]” scored each ligand by the
533 arithmetic mean of its receptors’ absolute \log_2FC values; “Receptor expression [max]”
534 scored each ligand by the maximum expression value of the cognate receptors; and
535 “Receptor expression [mean]” scored each ligand by the mean expression value of the
536 cognate receptors. On the other hand, with Lignature, “Lignature [gene \log_2FC]” scored
537 each ligand by the signature similarity scores with the gene-level signatures, while
538 “Lignature [pathway NES]” scored each ligand by the signature similarity scores using the

539 pathway-level signatures, with the similarities measured by the Pearson correlation
540 coefficients.

541 All methods were evaluated using the same test dataset, which consists of 90 ligand
542 treatment datasets. These datasets were originally collected and used in NicheNet and
543 were not included in the initial Lignature database. Known treatment ligands were labeled
544 “TRUE” and other candidate ligands were labeled “FALSE”. Ranks of the true treatment
545 ligands were plotted in Fig. 3C. In Fig. 3D, we present the AUC values calculated from
546 ROC curves of the methods under comparison for each test dataset separately. ROC
547 curves of the methods under comparison from combined test results of all 90 test datasets
548 are presented in Fig. 3E.

549 **Software availability**

550 Lignature database is at GitHub (<https://github.com/yingxinac/LignatureData>), and the
551 companion R package is available at GitHub (<https://github.com/yingxinac/Lignature>)
552 and as Supplemental Code.

553

554 **Competing interest statement**

555 The authors declare no competing interests.

556

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559

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564 J.Q. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

565

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730

731 **Figure 1.** Curation and overview of Lignature. (A) Flowchart of generating the Lignature database. (B)
732 Number of the ligands collected in the Lignature database from different data sources. (C) HUGO Gene
733 Nomenclature Committee categories of the ligands curated in the Lignature database. (D) Schematic
734 diagram of application of Lignature in predicting and visualizing LR interactions based on ligand signatures
735 and LR expression. (E) Distribution of the number of signatures of each ligand in Lignature.

736 **Figure 2.** Properties of ligand signatures in Lignature. (A) Distributions of Pearson correlation coefficients
737 of gene-level signatures of the same ligand and signatures from different ligands. P-values were calculated
738 using KS-test. (B) Heatmaps of sample gene-level signatures of TGFB1 and SHH (x-axis represents genes
739 in the signatures) exhibit diversity in signatures for individual ligands. (C) Examples of enriched upregulated
740 and downregulated KEGG pathways in sample ligand signatures (LEP and TNFSF13).

741 **Figure 3.** Comparison of Lignature to other methods in signaling inference with bulk *in vitro* datasets. (A) A
742 total of 90 transcriptomic datasets of ligand-treated cell lines were used as test datasets, including 24
743 human and 66 mouse datasets representing 27 unique treatment ligands. (B) Top ranked ligands (among
744 all ligands included in Lignature) and the corresponding ligand scores of an example test dataset treated
745 with IFNG, predicted from gene-level signatures, pathway-level signatures, and three other methods. (C)
746 Ranks of the actual treatment ligands among all ligands included in Lignature of 90 test datasets predicted
747 by each method. (D) AUC values of the ROC curves for predictions of the 90 test datasets from each
748 method. (E) ROC curves and the corresponding AUC values for combined predictions of all the 90 test
749 datasets from each method. In this *in vitro* setting, true positives are defined as the experimentally added
750 ligands, whereas false positives correspond to all other ligands.

751 **Figure 4.** Application and assessment of Lignature on SHH-induced thalamic differentiation scRNA-seq
752 dataset. (A-B) UMAP dimensionality reductions, example feature plots, and DotPlot of selected marker

753 genes of major cell clusters of the SHH-induced thalamic differentiation scRNA-seq dataset. (C) Top
754 predicted ligand scores obtained for the IN cells. The transcriptomes from the SHH day 14–22 treatment
755 samples were compared with untreated samples, and transcriptional program-associated ligands were
756 predicted using Lignature alongside three other methods. The first column shows the detection rates of the
757 ligands across all cells, and the second column shows the maximum detection rate of their cognate
758 receptors in IN cells.

759 **Figure 5.** Application and assessment of Lignature on microglia and Müller glia regeneration scRNA-seq
760 dataset. (A-B) UMAP dimensionality reductions of the scRNA-seq data on microglia and MG before and
761 after microglia ablation. (C) Heatmaps of top predicted ligand scores from Lignature and three other
762 methods, together with detection rate of the ligands in microglia and the maximum detection rate of their
763 cognate receptors in MG before microglia ablation. (D) LR interaction strengths were calculated by
764 CellPhoneDB and NATMI based on the expression of ligand genes in microglia and the expression of the
765 receptors in MG, and each ligand was scored by the maximum interaction strength among the LR pairs
766 between the ligand and its receptors. CellPhoneDB and NATMI-induced ligand scores, as well as gene-
767 level Lignature predicted ligand scores, zeroed out by detection rates of the ligands and their receptors at
768 0.3, were plotted in scatter plots against the detection rates of the ligands in microglia.

769 **Figure 6.** Application of Lignature on checkpoint blockade-associated colitis scRNA-seq dataset. (A) UMAP
770 dimensionality reductions show cell types identified in the scRNA-seq data of immune cell populations in
771 checkpoint blockade-associated colitis and control samples. (B) Enriched upregulated and downregulated
772 KEGG pathways in myeloid cells between colitis and NC (normal colonic mucosa endoscopically and
773 histologically) samples. (C) Scatter plot of ligand signature similarity scores predicted by Lignature (x-axis)
774 and the maximum LR interaction strengths calculated by the method NATMI across all sender cells and
775 conditions (y-axis) for all LR pairs. (D) Scatter plot of similarity scores predicted by Lignature (x-axis) and
776 the maximum average expression across all sender cells and conditions (y-axis) of the ligands, for identified
777 LR interactions (detection rate of the ligand genes above 0.25 in any cell type, detection rate of the receptor
778 genes above 0.25 in myeloid, and the ligand signature similarity scores above 0.1). (E) Heatmaps of ligand
779 signature similarity scores predicted by Lignature (middle), the average expression of the ligands in all cell

780 types identified in the colitis and NC samples (left), and the average expression of their receptors in myeloid
781 cells in the colitis and NC samples (right), for LR interactions identified by the same criteria as in (D). (F)
782 Circos plot (generated using R package "circlize"(Gu et al. 2014)) of maximum interaction strengths
783 calculated by NATMI across the colitis and NC samples, of the LR pairs from all cell types to myeloid, with
784 detection rates of both the ligand and receptor genes above 0.25, ligand signature similarity scores above
785 0.1, and ligand expression in sender cells above 75% of all cell types.

786









