

Towards a pragmatic definition of cell type

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Abstract

The concept of cell type is key for modeling biology. Recent technological advances are prompting us to rethink what we understand by cell type and how we classify them. There is currently no consensus for a definition of cell type, which makes it hard to integrate knowledge across life sciences. We propose here that a cell type should represent any class of cell that is (1) explicitly defined; (2) is identifiable within a taxon; and (3) is theoretically useful. We also specified four classes of cell types: *sensu stricto* cell types, archetypes, infratypes, and technotypes. They respectively specify cell type concepts applied to a single species, multiple species, populations below the species level, and particular experiments. The flexible and rigorous framework we propose can base annotation of single-cell omics datasets, and reconcile knowledge about cells across all different domains of science.

Introduction

One of the basic subjects in any undergraduate major in life sciences is histology. The students are required to identify cell types across various tissues and look for color and shape patterns in hematoxylin-eosin stains. Textbooks, like Junqueira's Basic Histology [1] work as manuals that perpetuate the paradigms (in the Kuhnian sense) [2] of what we know about a few hundred cell types.

Our concept of "cell type" is still based on centuries-old histochemical techniques, such as the Golgi-stains of neurons immortalized by Ramon y Cajal [3]. The

histological influence is noticeable even in the names given to cell types, such as “erythrocytes”, “eosinophils”, “basophils”, and “oxyphilic cells of the thyroid”. The concepts we use are drawn from studies of microanatomy. This connection with anatomy leads us to think about cell types as anatomical entities as if they are dissectible and fixed in an organism. The limits of resolution perpetuated by the histological-anatomical view may be why attempts to quantify cell types use the scale of “hundreds” of human cell types [4,5].

New techniques have challenged this anatomy based conceptualization. From flow cytometry to patch clamping, to single-cell RNA-seq, we saw a burst of new categories, and novel cell “subtypes” and “families” popped up in the literature. The bursting intensified in the past few years, with the rise of projects to characterize *all* human cell types, like the Human Cell Atlas and HUBMAP [4,5].

The advances in biology require us to find better answers for how to define a cell type. Such a concept might not even have a “true” meaning, in a philosophical-realistic sense. Nevertheless, we can strive to find nominal, pragmatic definitions for the real challenges of large-scale biology. Otherwise, how can we precisely label single-cell data? How can we formalize the discovery of new cell types? How can we integrate the knowledge from millions of published scientific articles?

The need for a conceptual advance is being perceived by the community [6,7,8,9,10,11,12], and new perspectives are rising. In an opinion article published in Cell Systems in 2017, the researchers presented their views on the conceptual definition of ‘cell type’ in the context of a mature organism [6]. Many of the scientists believed that cell functions have a core role in defining cell types, which is a slippery road, as the very meaning of “function” in biology is elusive [13]. The opinions were varied, and no consensus was achieved.

One core line of thought is based on the cell type as an evolutionary unit defined by a Core Regulatory Complex (CoRC) of transcription factors. That definition enables the drawing of parallels, from the evolution of other biological entities (such as genes, proteins, and species) to the evolution of cell types. Models of how multicellular life works greatly benefit from concepts such as “sister types” (cell types that diverged from a single ancestor), “cell type homology” (cell types in different species that share a common evolutionary origin), and “cell type convergence” (cell types that execute similar functions but which are not directly evolutionarily related) [14,15]

However, as much as different concepts of species coexist [16], our quest to define cell types may take various forms. The challenge of representing cell types in the context of evolution is conceptually different from the challenge of representing cell types in biomedical experimentation. In that second direction, the groundwork of the Cell Ontology [17,18,19] and of the International Workshop on Cells in

Experimental Life Sciences [20,21] are notable. Their contributions base much of the views here and will be discussed in detail throughout the article.

We chose to use the term “cell type” to emphasize the focus on types as classes (or “kinds”) in contrast to real-world objects. The similar term “cell state” is used both to describe classes (e.g. activated T-cell) and real-world observations (e.g. the current state of a specific cell). Other similar notions, such as a “cell set”, “cell population” and “cell cluster” can also reminisce of a specific, countable group of cells, frequently from the same experiment.

The term “cell class” is also used in the literature, and would be a suitable synonym for our notion of cell type, as the main goal here is to refine the human-based theoretical classes. Classes that we can instantiate, i.e. assign to an observation of any real cell, in the same way we assign the class *Homo sapiens* to each and every human. The term “cell identity” has also been suggested for avoiding the cell type/cell state dilemma [22], but the notion of identity is slightly different from the idea of class. We opted to frame our work around the term “cell type” due to its historical usage and familiarity for the life sciences community.

The conceptual quest addressed by this work is one of research synthesis and is summarized in the following question: Which cell type definition can be crafted for rigorously describing biomedical experiments?

Towards that goal, the body of the article is divided into 4 parts. In Part 1, we propose a set of rules that are necessary and sufficient for defining cell types. Part 2 offers a small set of names for differentiating the main classes of cell types. In Part 3, we address the logical consequences of the proposed definitions, while Part 4 is a discussion of the pragmatic challenges envisaged in employing such definitions.

1. A set of 3 + 1 rules for defining a cell type

Our pragmatic definition of cell type (for eukaryotic, multicellular organisms) consists of 3 + 1 simple rules (Figure 1). A cell type is a class of cells that must be:

1. Explicitly defined
2. Identifiable for a defined taxon
3. Theoretically useful

And that should be:

4. Hierarchically related to other cell types

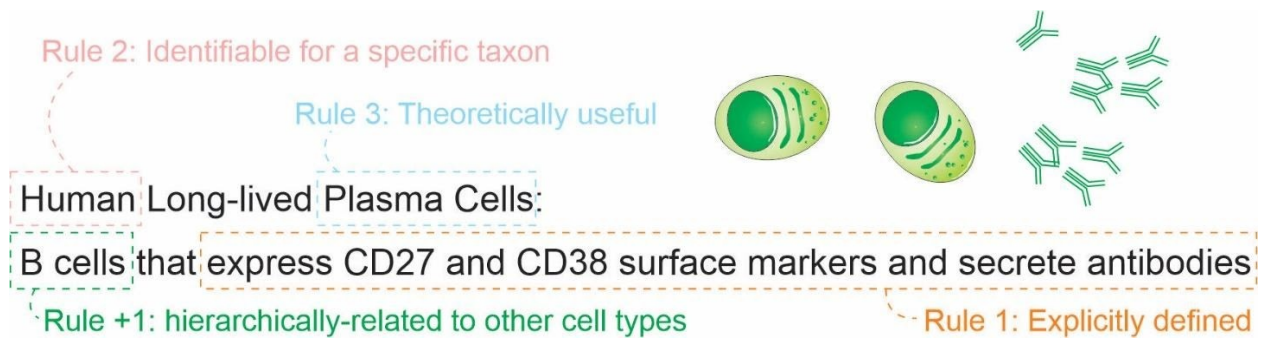


Figure 1: The set of 3 + 1 rules for defining a cell type.

Here, “must” represents an absolute requirement, whereas “should” suggests that “there may exist valid reasons in particular circumstances to ignore a particular item” (as per RFC 2119 [23]).

For rule 1, we mean that the cell type needs to be followed by a clear definition that would allow rational judgments of whether a singular cell belongs to the type or not. Such definitions should provide necessary and sufficient criteria for classification. An example is a cell type defined by “expression of the proteins CD3 and CD4, but lacking CD8.” Even though there is still some ambiguity (see [24,25] for longer discussions), it already states clear and reasonable criteria. The degree of rigorousness cannot be decided a priori, as we still do not have a rigorous framework for representing biological knowledge, but we should strive to make definitions as rigorous as possible. Other examples of what could be explicit definitions are as follows:

- “Big cell” is a class of cells that have a length of more than 50 micrometers on any axis.
- “Human cortical neuron” is a class of cells in human cortex that are capable of producing an action potential.
- “Leukocyte” is a class of cells found in animal blood which are achromatic cells.

The recognition of multiple valid characteristics to define types is not new. The first Cell Ontology article, in 2005, explicitly acknowledged criteria based on function, histology, lineage, and ploidy.[17] These features were combined in the definitions of “species-neutral” cell types[19], arguably useful for integrating databases or for teaching biology. Gradually, we are acknowledging that we might need more specific classes to characterize experimental biology, leading to the definition of species-specific types defined by granular characteristics. [18,26].

Rule 2 is an explicit criterion that must be followed while discussing cell types scientifically; we need to define the taxa for which a given cell type is expected to manifest. The cell type then needs to be discoverable in any individual of the taxon (or taxa) of interest, given the appropriate conditions (e.g., stage of life and

1 biological sex). The set of taxa covered by a cell type is called here a taxonomic
2 scope (or just scope) of the cell type. Note that, as cell types can be defined by
3 function and functions can converge, the taxonomic scope is not restricted to
4 monophyletic taxa (clades). The definition of taxon used here is liberal and applies
5 to any class of organisms that any researcher identifies explicitly as a unit.

6 Knowing the scope is important to avoid the pitfalls of extrapolation. A recurrent
7 theme is that theories corroborated by mouse experiments are valid for human cell
8 types. Such extrapolation is an instance of the classic problem of induction, which is
9 discussed thoroughly in “The Logic of Scientific Discovery” [2]. The taxonomic scope
10 allows us, researchers, to be clear regarding our claims, and better discern what we
11 claim to be true for a strain, a species or any other class of organisms.

12 Rule 3 deals with a practical concern. Rigorously, there is an infinite number of
13 explicit definitions that any scientist might come up with. One simple proof of this
14 infinitude is that size-based cell definitions (as for “big cell” above) may alone
15 consider any of the infinite real numbers. Thus, a cell type “bigger than 7.835
16 micrometers” might fit the first two rules, but will likely fail rule 3. If we, as a
17 research community, want to characterize all human cell types, it is necessary to
18 have a finite number of cell types. Rule 3 could be paraphrased as: a valid cell type
19 is a class of cells that any researcher rationally finds useful for a theoretical
20 perspective of reality. For example, a recent study used single-cell RNA-seq
21 experiments to assign 275,000 *Drosophila* cells into 200 cell types [27]. Since these
22 200 cell types were useful for Özel and colleagues when describing the world, they
23 automatically satisfied rule 3.

24 Rule 4 is a practical extension of the usefulness rule: a cell type has to be
25 hierarchically-related to other cell types for increased usefulness. This means that a
26 definition of a cell class is (for research synthesis concerns) less useful if it cannot
27 be considered a “subclass” of another cell type. For practical concerns, all
28 imaginable mammalian cell types are subclasses of a “eukaryotic cell” (defined as
29 any cell of an eukaryotic organism) and likely can be subclasses of more specific
30 cell types. The rule 4 is presented as a recommendation instead of a requirement
31 as, in practice, it might be an overhead and not strictly necessary for tasks like
32 claiming the discovery of a new cell type.

33 Ontological organization is important for integrating knowledge across studies. A
34 cell type that is based on its transcriptome is not the same as one based on its
35 electrophysiology. They can, nevertheless, be connected by a superclass that
36 matches either one or the other criterion. For example, the green-OFF bipolar cells
37 of the retina and the Syt2-/NK3R+ cells of the retina are considered to be the same
38 cell type [28].

39 However, as these features are often measured separately, we have, in fact, two
40 individual classes for which knowledge is produced. These classes, then, can be

combined in the superclass “(green-OFF) OR (Syt2-/NK3R+) cells” for the integration of claims across domains. Practically, when describing a cell type, one should make an effort to insert it into the universe of interrelated cell types, even if that implies creating new superclasses.

The consequences of this set of criteria will be discussed further in the following sections.

2. Naming classes of cell types

To facilitate communication among life scientists, we propose a set of naming conventions for different classes of cell types. Much of the literature mix cell types in one species (e.g., when dealing with a cell type as an evolutionary unit) or in multispecies (e.g., in the Cell Ontology). It is useful to distill these different concepts into names. Given the importance of the concept of species in biological classification [29], we derive a species-centric view on the naming of classes of cell types. The four classes (Figure 2) we propose are as follows:

- archetypes, for when the taxonomic scope of the type is beyond the level of species; for example, “mammal neutrophils.”
- *sensu stricto* cell types, for when the taxonomic scope of the type corresponds to a single species; for example, *Mus musculus* neutrophils.”
- infratypes, for when the taxonomic scope is below the level of species; for example, considering the mouse strain “C57BL/6J”, “neutrophils from C57BL/6J mice”.
- technotypes, for specific, experimentally defined cell types that harbor in their definition the precise conditions of the cells sampled; “2-month-old male C57BL/6J, Ly-6G+ CD11b+ M-CSF R- CD244- neutrophils”.

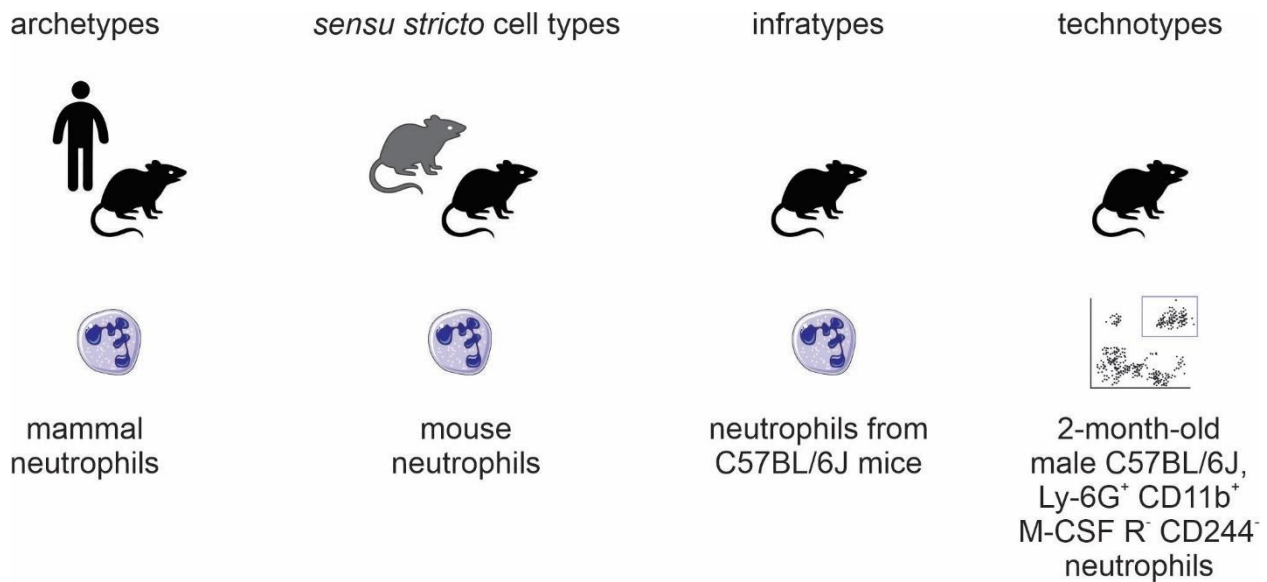


Figure 2: Names for classes of cell types.

By adopting a precise vocabulary, we can avoid misunderstandings and communicate more clearly. At the level of individual scientific experiments, scientists rarely reach the *sensu stricto* cell type level; the samples come only from a subpopulation of the species of interest and cannot be assumed to be randomly sampled from all individuals of the species. This has important practical considerations to, once again, avoid failing implicitly at the problem of induction.

Besides, in individual experiments, we work with cells of very specific classes. They are not only infratypes but very specific infratypes defined by non-random research setups and pragmatic choices. For example, we might call “CD4 T cells” what are CD3⁺, CD4⁺, CD8⁻ cells from the axillary lymph node of 2-month-old chow-fed female C57BL/6J mice from the mouse-house of the Institute of Biochemistry of the University of São Paulo collected on several mornings around 10 pm. Although quite specific, all the mentioned facets (markers, anatomical location, age, biological sex, strain, housing conditions, circadian clock, and diet) are known to alter what we know about cell types. Thus, we benefit from using a name for the experimentally-constrained cell classes: technotypes.

Even if it is specific, a technotype is still a class. Unless a study used only one single-cell, it likely contained some sampling method. Samples are from a specific population for which hypotheses are tested. This is the most granular cell type, in our considered view, for research synthesis. This is the type that can be strictly annotated in single-cell RNA-seq datasets, for example.

Single claims are made and tested for technotypes, and the claims can be logically combined in “upper” ontological levels for reaching a higher degree of universality.

1 The propagation of knowledge to upper levels cannot be implicit (see Yarkoni 2020
2 for an analogous problem in the psychological sciences [[30](#)]). As Popper defends,
3 knowledge should travel “quasi-inductionally” by fostering hypotheses with higher
4 degrees of generality, which can then be tested for the more universal class [[2](#)].

3. Logical consequences of the definition of a cell type

5 One notable logical consequence of the proposed set of criteria is that the definition
6 of a cell state is left as a subclass for cell type. For the pragmatic purpose adopted
7 here, we avoid the dissection of the differences between persistent classes of cells
8 (which we refer to as traditional cell types) or the transient, fugacious classes of
9 cells (which we refer to as traditional cell states). Even though such a distinction is
10 an important topic for theoretical research, it is not a requirement for representing
11 biomedical experiments.

12 One example of this entailment is that the class “human cells in metaphase of
13 mitosis” can be considered a cell type, as they can be explicitly defined and
14 restricted to a taxon. Even though “metaphase” itself is a biological process, we can
15 describe all cells executing this process as a singular cell class.

16 However, does a dividing fibroblast stop being a fibroblast, even if temporarily?
17 Again, we do not aim to answer this in a philosophical-ontological sense.
18 Pragmatically, if the explicit definition used for fibroblast (e.g., expression of a
19 marker) still holds during duplication, this cell can be assigned to two classes that
20 are not hierarchically related: “fibroblasts” and “doubling cells”. If cells can be
21 assigned to multiple classes that are not hierarchically related, it is not possible to
22 annotate cell types with a single identifier using a taxonomic tree, in which each
23 concept is represented by a single node with one (and only one) direct parent node.
24 This is in conflict with attempts to classify cell-types using single hierarchies in the
25 form of a tree [[31](#)] [[32](#)] [[33](#)].
26 Cell types need to be represented ontologically with multiple inheritance, which can
27 be thought of as multiple, intertwining trees that take into account different ways of
28 classifying cells (Figure [3](#)).

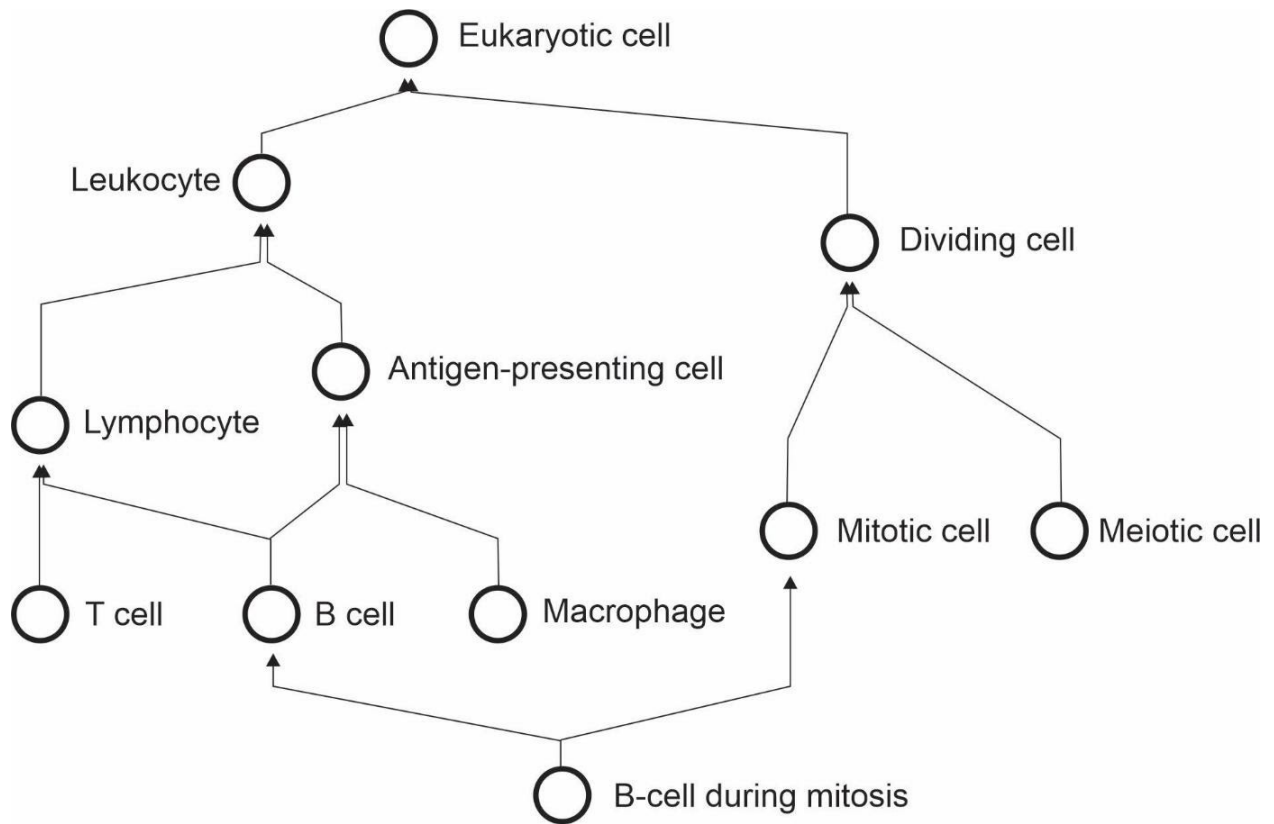


Figure 3: The cell type hierarchy is not a tree - it requires multiple inheritance for completeness.

Another logical consequence of the definition is that the concept of subtype becomes redundant with the concept of cell type. The notion of subtype, then, only makes sense when discussing classes with different degrees of universality. Thus, claims to discovery of new cell “subtypes” or “types” differ only stylistically and can be considered indistinguishable from the perspective of research synthesis.

4. Practical consequences of the definition of a cell type

In the previous section, we discussed the logical entailments of accepting the proposed rules as valid. Here, we extend the pragmatic considerations on using such a system for real-world applications. In a recent attempt to define cell types for single-cell RNA-Seq, Aevermann et al came up with a set of needs: “The minimum set of necessary and sufficient marker genes selectively expressed by the cell type”, “A parent cell class in the CL (Cell Ontology)”, and “A specimen source description (anatomic structure þ species)”. [34] Their approach has great merit in defining clear guidelines for marking a cell type. The requirement of markers is

1 reasonable for the field of single-cell RNA-seq, where marker information is
2 abundant. The Cell Ontology has used markers for defining cell types, an approach
3 employed in particular for immune cells [18,24,25].

4 The use of markers, however, leaves us with a conceptual problem – definitions of
5 cell type used by electrophysiologists, or even in the manuals of histology classes,
6 are not based on markers. Rigorously adopted, this requirement would leave aside
7 an entire segment of what we consider biomedical knowledge. Moreover, gene
8 markers are not defined for cell types that span multiple species, a problem already
9 discussed in the Cell Ontology report of 2011 [18]. Thus, our set of rules was crafted
10 to accommodate the different ways that people classify cells.

11 In fact, with so many different takes on the field, vast amounts of data, and loose
12 definitions of cell type, it becomes uncannily easy to claim a new cell type. Our set
13 of rules may contribute to formalizing cell type discovery.

14 If one explicitly claims to have discovered a new *sensu stricto* cell type, one should
15 provide enough evidence that cells from this class are identifiable across all
16 individuals of a species (given the constraints as age and biological sex). A claim of
17 an archetype would require evidence of existence in more than one species.
18 Consequently, experiments that only use a specific strain of mice have a more
19 robust claim if the expectation is limited to the infratype.

20 An example of the discovery of a new archetype is the pair of articles published in
21 Nature in 2018 [35,36] about the newly found “ionocyte”, a class of cells in the
22 trachea enriched for the expression of genes homologous to the CFTR gene. Both
23 studies displayed evidence for such a class in both mouse and human samples,
24 corroborating the existence of an archetype. This discovery of an archetype has
25 been denominated by both articles as a discovery of a new cell type.

26 Another example of cell type discovery is found in a pioneering article by Villani et
27 al [37]. The authors describe subclasses of monocytes and dendritic cells in humans
28 and pragmatically use markers for their definition. The patients were recruited from
29 “the Boston-based PhenoGenetic project (...) and the Newcastle community.”
30 Arguably, they did not have a random sample of humanity, and the observed results
31 might not hold for different populations. This discovery of infratypes has also been
32 described as the discovery of a new cell type.

33 An example from the Villani et al article is the discovery of the “AXL+ SIGLEC6+ AS
34 Dendritic cell”. This and other cell types are presented in the article as part of a
35 “Human dendritic cell atlas”, generalizing the theory for the whole of humanity. The
36 jump from technotype (which takes into consideration also descriptors like
37 “healthy” and “age between 25 and 40 years”) to infratype (“all humans in this
38 population scope”) to cell type *sensu stricto* (all humans) is depicted in Figure 4 and
39 exemplifies the logical flow in our proposed framework.

1 Of note, “dendritic cells” are one of the cell types most thoroughly modeled by the
2 Cell Ontology. [38,39] The current definition of the dendritic cell ([CL_0000451](#)) is
3 coupled to the definition of leukocyte ([CL_0000738](#)), which defines it as " An
4 achromatic cell of the myeloid or lymphoid lineages capable of ameboid
5 movement“. This definition is not reconcilable with the “dendritic cells” studied by
6 Villani et al. We have no way of knowing if the cells in their work are achromatic or
7 capable of ameboid movement. That might sound pedantic and might,
8 unfortunately, be so, but the logical requirements of computational systems lead to
9 both biocurators and computers being seen as pedantic. This high level of precision
10 is necessary to accurately depict not only the complexities of cell types but also of
11 research settings.

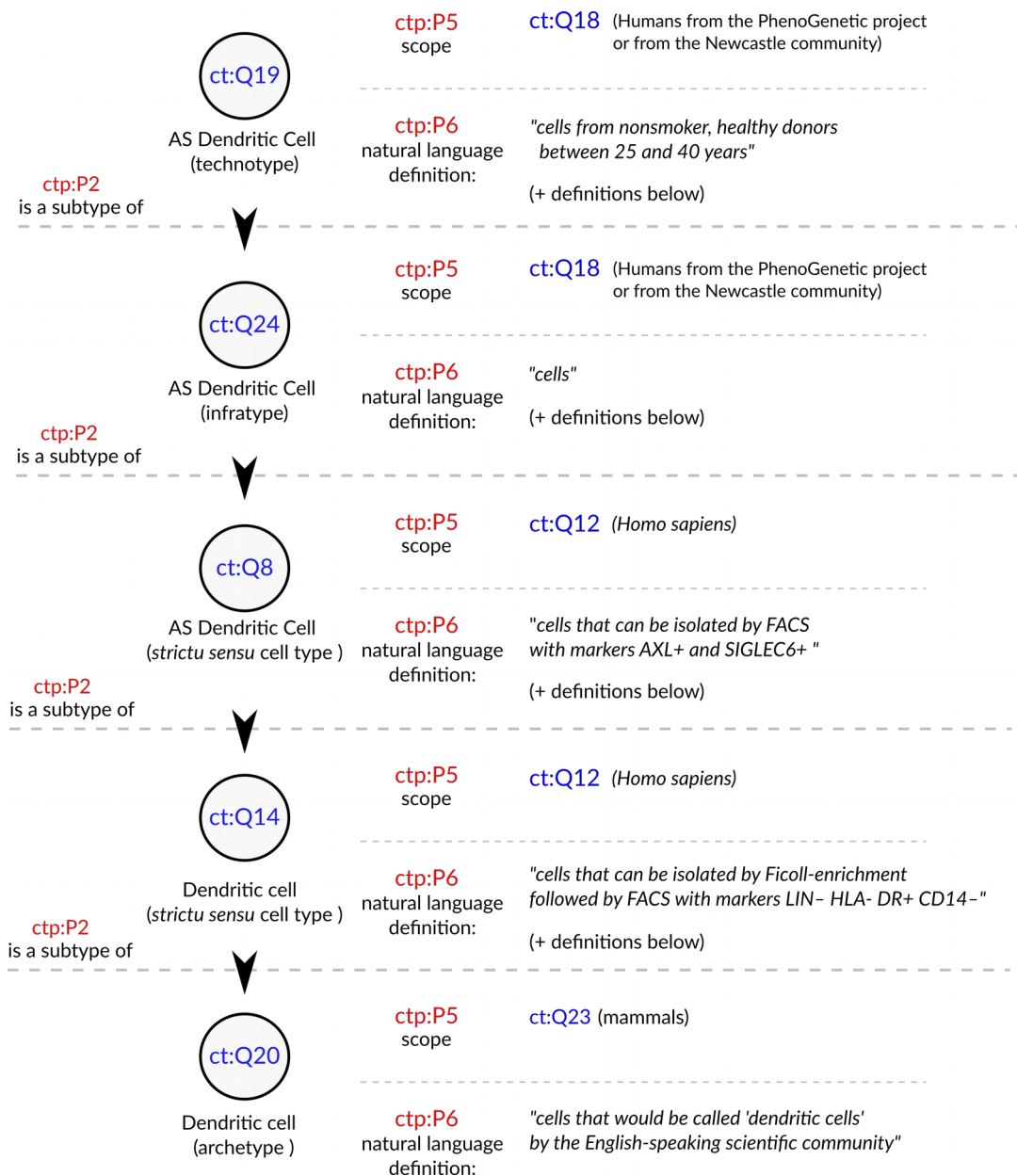


Figure 4: Conceptualization of a set of the cell types in Villani et al, 2017 [37]. The depicted cell types were manually curated from the article, where they are either implicitly or explicitly mentioned. Identifiers for cell types are written in pseudocode based on the Turtle serialization for RDF (<https://www.w3.org/TR/turtle/>) and represent valid URIs (described in the database https://celltypes.wiki.opencura.com/wiki/Main_Page). URI: Universal Resource Identifier; RDF: Resource Description Framework.

Even if we are not able to represent all the aspects that go into a cell type definition using ontologies, we can use an explicit “natural language definition” property to

1 define cell types. As David Osumi-Sutherland puts in his 2017 article about cell type
2 classification: there is a “*mismatch between quantified logic, which records*
3 *assertions about all members of a class, and the messy, noisy reality of biology and*
4 *the data we collect about it.*” [26]. Luckily, do not need to have all the biology
5 formalized before we deal with cell types. Taking the example in Figure 4, all cell
6 types treated as “dendritic cells” in the literature are valid subclasses of the
7 dendritic cell archetype (ct:Q20). Such a subclassing system might lack the power
8 to computationally check the validity of definitions. However, by the principle of
9 minimal commitment [40], it could provide a coherent scaffold for representing
10 experimental data (e.g., from single-cell transcriptomics) and allow logically robust
11 data integration.

12 The commitment to logical coherence will require us to deal with many more types
13 than we are used to. Given the variety of species on Earth, the complexity of
14 multicellular life, and the diversity of research settings, a count of cell types may far
15 exceed the mark of one million. Sabina Leonelli stated that the challenges thrown
16 up by big data in biology require the advancement of our philosophical theories
17 [41]. We agree and argue that the converse is also true: to advance the theoretical
18 foundations of modern biology, we need to harness the power of computational
19 tools. Computational ontologies provide a solution for dealing with complex
20 concepts. Classes in ontologies can have alpha-numeric identifiers. We can, thus,
21 assign each technotype a Unique Resource Identifier, a URI, similar to the Cell
22 Ontology (CL)[17,18,19] or in the knowledge graph of Wikidata [42]. The power of
23 using knowledge graphs for integrating knowledge about cell types is gaining
24 momentum [11], and they rely heavily on the precise usage of unique identifiers.

25 The classification of cells into types and the naming of cell types are parallel tasks.
26 While there has been progress on rules for naming cell types (particularly in
27 neuroscience [43,44,45]), nomenclature is outside the scope of this article. Using
28 identifiers/URIs without semantic sense already suffices for our purposes.
29 Semantically void identifiers also help us to steer away from the Aristotelian
30 essentialist view upon cell types, as discussed by Rowe and Stone in 1977 [46].
31 Identifiers can have labels that can be freely changed, while keeping a persistent
32 URI. Our effort to refine the logical aspects of cell-type definitions can be combined
33 with any commonly agreed naming/labeling system.

34 The URIs at the level of technotype allow precise labeling of cell types in real-world
35 experiments. The technotype annotation empowers researchers to craft their cell
36 type of interest, and connect this cell type to a common network of knowledge.
37 Several single-cell transcriptomics tools try to assign labels to cells. While some
38 approaches avoid ontologies [31,47], others utilize the Cell Ontology [48,49,50] or
39 MeSH IDs[49,51] to identify the most likely cell type label for each cell or cell
40 cluster. Different studies, however, almost always study different technotypes.
41 Thus, the task of finding the exact type of cells in a given experiment, algorithms

could try to find where the new technotypes should be inserted in an ontological network. For example, instead of claiming that cells from study A and study B are myeloid dendritic cells, we can claim that both cell types belong to the myeloid dendritic cell branch. By embracing these real differences between studies (and cells), the precise metadata of the study will enable a precise statement of the cell type. This will ultimately allow the coherent reuse of publicly available data.

Final remarks

In this article, we have proposed a set of three rules (rigorous description, taxon scope restriction, and theoretical usefulness) and one recommendation (hierarchical linking) to be followed when defining cell types. We have also proposed four types of naming to clarify discussions on the topic: archetypes (a class with a scope above species level), *sensu stricto* cell types (a class with scope equal to one species), infratypes (a class with scope below the species level) and technotypes (the exact cell type defined for an experimental setup). The concept of the “technotype” can be harnessed as the unit for classifying cells, in a manner analogous to how the “species” is the conventional unit for classifying organisms into higher-order taxa. We have dissected some logical entailments of such definition, which admittedly might conflict with current views on defining cell types. We do not aim to solve such conflicts or negate the other perspectives but only to propose a unique way of organizing our knowledge on cell types. This article clarifies some of the meanings and provides directions for the future development of the theoretical basis of a cell type definition. The discussion on cell types’ definition is still in its infancy, and we need human power to tackle these huge theoretical challenges. Biologists, philosophers, and computer scientists ought to distill the details of defining cell types, powering the Human Cell Atlas, and the life sciences research enterprise of this century.

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