

# IST-editing: Infinite spatial transcriptomic editing in a generated gigapixel mouse pup

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## Abstract

Advanced spatial transcriptomics (ST) techniques provide comprehensive insights into complex organisms across multiple scales, while simultaneously posing challenges in biomedical image analysis. The spatial co-profiling of biological tissues by gigapixel whole slide images (WSI) and gene expression arrays motivates the development of innovative and efficient algorithmic approaches. Using Generative Adversarial Nets (GAN), we introduce Infinite Spatial Transcriptomic editing (IST-editing) and establish gene expression-guided editing in a generated gigapixel mouse pup. Trained with patch-wise high-plex gene expression (input) and matched image data (output), IST-editing enables the seamless synthesis of arbitrarily large bioimages at inference, *e.g.*, with a  $106496 \times 53248$  resolution. After feeding gene expression values to the trained model, we simulate cell-, tissue- and animal-level morphological transitions in the generated mouse pup. Lastly, we discuss and evaluate editing effects on interpretable morphological features. The code and generated WSIs are publicly accessible via <https://github.com/CTPLab/IST-editing>.

**Keywords:** Gene expression editing, spatial transcriptomics, GAN, WSI, mouse pup

## 1. Introduction

Recent advances in multi-omics technologies (*e.g.*, spatial transcriptomics (ST) (Moses and Pachter, 2022)) and generative artificial intelligence (AI) have the potential to revolutionize biomedical image analysis (Royer, 2023). Leveraging spatial co-profiling of high-plex mRNA transcripts (acting as proxies for gene expression) and high-resolution biomedical images, researchers possess unprecedented opportunities to model the complex spatial organization of an entire organism.

Concurrently, generative AI (Bermano et al., 2022; Croitoru et al., 2023) has showcased remarkable progress in creating high-quality visual content, paving the way towards novel applications in the biomedical domain. Trained with Hematoxylin and Eosin (H&E)-stained or (immuno)fluorescence images, prior studies (Carrillo-Perez et al., 2023; Lamiable et al., 2023; Wu and Koelzer, 2023) have achieved impressive results of bioimage generation and manipulation using GAN approaches. Recently, researchers (Wu and Koelzer, 2024) further demonstrated the algorithmic editability on ST data and simulated cellular morphological transitions by shifting gene expression distributions. Notably, these studies were carried out at cell- or tissue-level and the generated bioimage resolution is usually smaller than  $256 \times 256$ . Due to scalability limitations and violation of the translation equivariance property, the generative competence of such algorithmic methods cannot be extended to the entirety of a WSI without inducing visible stitching artifacts, which can be partially mitigated by employing more hardware resources. A series of StyleGAN studies (Karras et al., 2020, 2021) first

41 showed the feasibility of training  $1024 \times 1024$  images on 8 V100 GPUs. In a recent paper, a GAN-  
 42 based approach (Kang et al., 2023) has accomplished  $4096 \times 4096$  image generation with remarkably  
 43 fine details. Critically, this achievement was made possible by training a scaled GAN model on  
 44 96-128 A100 GPUs. Despite impressive breakthroughs in generating megapixel-resolution images,  
 45 the hardware requirements for synthesizing WSIs at the gigapixel scale can be computationally  
 46 intractable, making the model application prohibitively expensive in biomedical research.

47 To extend the model applicability to arbitrarily large images, Single GAN (SinGAN) (Shaham  
 48 et al., 2019) and Single Denoising Diffusion Model (SinDDM) (Kulikov et al., 2023) were proposed  
 49 to learn the internal statistics of a given training image. Their shared coarse-to-fine architectural  
 50 design enables the generation of image samples of any desired dimensions. Differing from single-  
 51 image training, InfinityGAN (Lin et al., 2022) re-introduced large-scale training on patch-wise  
 52 image data using low computational resources. Tailored for high-resolution natural scene creation,  
 53 strong coordinate priors, such as vertical rapid saturation and horizontal repetitive patterns of sky,  
 54 land, or ocean, were imposed within the structure and texture synthesizer of InfinityGAN.

55 In bioimage generation, the utility of coordinate priors is nonetheless undesirable. This is because  
 56 the arrangement of biological structures is not dictated by a rigid coordinate system, but rather by  
 57 the intricate interplay between genetic, epigenetic, and gene expression variability that leads to the  
 58 phenotype of a living system (Haniffa et al., 2021). Here, we propose Infinite Spatial Transcriptomic  
 59 editing (IST-editing) in a generated gigapixel mouse pup. To the best of our knowledge, we are the  
 60 first to introduce algorithmic gene expression editing at the scale of an entire organism:

- 61 • Taken gene expression data as the input, we achieve the seamless generation of  $106496 \times 53248$   
 62 WSIs of a whole mouse pup.
- 63 • By gene expression-guided editing, we simulate cell-, tissue- and animal-level morphological  
 64 transitions, measured with interpretable morphological features.
- 65 • Importantly, the model training and inference can be efficiently executed on a single consumer-  
 66 grade GPU, *e.g.*, GeForce RTX 3090 Ti.

## 67 2. The proposed IST-editing

68 To efficiently process the paired transcript count array and biomedical image with matched gigapixel  
 69 resolutions, we develop IST-editing upon the StyleGAN (Karras et al., 2020, 2021) framework. This  
 70 is motivated by recent GAN studies (Sauer et al., 2022, 2023; Kang et al., 2023) in response to the  
 71 remarkable advances made by diffusion models. While being orders of magnitude faster at inference  
 72 time, these methods, built upon advanced GAN architectures such as StyleGAN, exhibit superior  
 73 generation and editing performance that remain competitive with their diffusion counterparts.

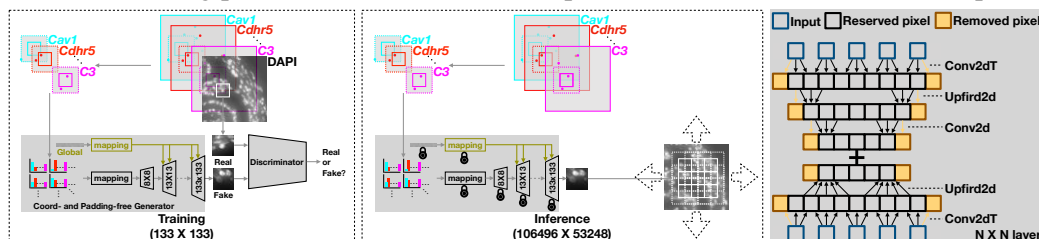


Figure 1: Conceptual illustrations of the proposed model.

## 74 2.1. ST data

75 **Spatial gene expression as the input and representation:** In the natural image domain, previous  
 76 generative models (Shaham et al., 2019; Kulikov et al., 2023) typically utilize (spatial) noise input for  
 77 unconditional image generation. In addition, learned textural representations (Radford et al., 2021)  
 78 can be incorporated into the model to guide the image alterations (Bermano et al., 2022). However,  
 79 semantic ambiguity often occurs in interpreting a single latent code and qualitative analysis is mostly  
 80 made possible for a subset of representations (Härkönen et al., 2020). Given the well-established  
 81 biological understanding of many individual genes, we utilize gene expression as both the **input**  
 82 **data** and **interpretable representation** for bioimage generation and editing.

83 **Training data pair:** As shown in Fig. 1 (left), we take the patch-wise spatial gene expression (input)  
 84 and biomedical image (output) as the training data pair. During the training, we randomly and densely  
 85 crop  $2n \times 2n$  gene expression arrays that are center-aligned on the paired  $n \times n$  image. With a  $2\times$   
 86 higher resolution than the associated image, these gene arrays will eventually allow the construction  
 87 of a spatial grid that imposes seamless WSI generation at inference. To strike a balance between the  
 88 generation quality and training efficiency, we employ the paired  $256 \times 256$  gene array and  $128 \times 128$   
 89 image in the experiments. To ensure boundary consistency between neighboring generated images,  
 90 every boundary pixel at  $(x, y)$  of the image tile is obtained using gene expression values located at  
 91  $(x', y')$ , where  $|x' - x| \leq 64$  and  $|y' - y| \leq 64$ . A larger  $256 \times 256$  gene array, containing all these  
 92 values, is thus necessary to generate a  $128 \times 128$  image tile. Due to the sparse spatial presence of  
 93 gene expression, we down-scale the sampled gene array to  $8 \times 8$  by sum reduction, such that more  
 94 densely distributed gene expression values are aggregated in the format of a smaller 3D array.

## 95 2.2. Training

96 **Coordinate- and padding-free generator  $G$ :** Instead of relying on strong coordinate-based priors  
 97 including the vertical saturation and horizontal repetition of natural scenes, the design of our generator  
 98 is driven by the intricate interaction between genes (causative factors) and phenotypes (observable  
 99 characteristics). To model the directed linkage from gene expression to the biomedical image, we  
 100 propose a straightforward coordinate-free generator, which is constructed using a series of padding-  
 101 free and translation equivariant StyledConv layers (Fig. 1). No external prior knowledge, aside from  
 102 gene expression data, is incorporated into the output images. In all padding-free layers, we discard  
 103 pixel values that are padded at both spatial ends of the output. Consider  $i = 1, 2, \dots, l$ , we then  
 104 have the intermediate output with  $(2^{i+2} + 5) \times (2^{i+2} + 5)$  spatial resolutions for the  $i$ -th layer. After  
 105 discarding 5 boundary pixels of the last layer output, we obtain the generated patch-wise image.  
 106 Leveraging the consistent  $2\times$  increase of image resolution, our model can be easily adapted to output  
 107 patches with  $256 \times 256$  or  $512 \times 512$  resolutions.

108 **Cell-subtype conditioned discriminator  $D$ :** Inspired by conditional generations of well-characterized  
 109 normal and cancer cellular images (Wu and Koelzer, 2024), we integrate cell subtype information  
 110 into the discriminator to adversarially and conditionally train the generator. Concretely, we project  
 111 cell label embeddings into  $D$  and train both models with the conditional adversarial loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{adc}}$ . Along  
 112 with the  $R_1$  regulation  $\mathcal{L}_{R_1}$  and path length regulation loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{path}}$  (Karras et al., 2020), we have the  
 113 loss function  $\min_G((\max_D \mathcal{L}_{\text{adc}}) + \alpha_{R_1} \mathcal{L}_{R_1} + \alpha_{\text{path}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{path}})$ , where  $\alpha_{R_1}$  and  $\alpha_{\text{path}}$  are hyperparameters  
 114 and are determined to be 10 and 2 based on the prior study (Wu and Koelzer, 2024). Then, we  
 115 train the GAN model for 800k iterations with a batch size of 16. Eventually, the optimal model  
 116 performance is determined using Fréchet Inception Distance ( $d_{\text{FID}}$ ) (Heusel et al., 2017) and high

117 Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR). For the former, we use a more efficient implementation (Wu  
 118 and Koelzer, 2022) and robust CLIP features (Radford et al., 2021; Kynkäänniemi et al., 2022) to  
 119 carry out the computation.

### 120 2.3. Inference

121 **Spatial gene expression grid:** We employ a divide-and-conquer strategy at inference, breaking  
 122 down the WSI generation into parallelizable subtasks of patch-wise image generation. To guarantee  
 123 the boundary consistency of neighboring patches and as shown in Fig. 1 (middle), we use the spatial  
 124 gene expression grid (dotted lines) that is overlaid on the image grid (solid lines). This grid is formed  
 125 and merged with  $2n \times 2n$  gene expression arrays center-aligned on  $n \times n$  images, in which the stride  
 126 size of array shift is  $n \times n$ . Together with the padding-free layer design (Fig. 1 (right)), we generate  
 127 arbitrarily large WSIs given gene expression data as the input. Using a single GeForce RTX 3090 Ti,  
 128 it takes  $\sim 30$  mins to synthesize  $106496 \times 53248$  WSIs, which are accessible via our GitHub [repo](#)  
 129 and can be thoroughly examined by open-source software such as QuPath (Bankhead et al., 2017).

## 130 3. Experiments

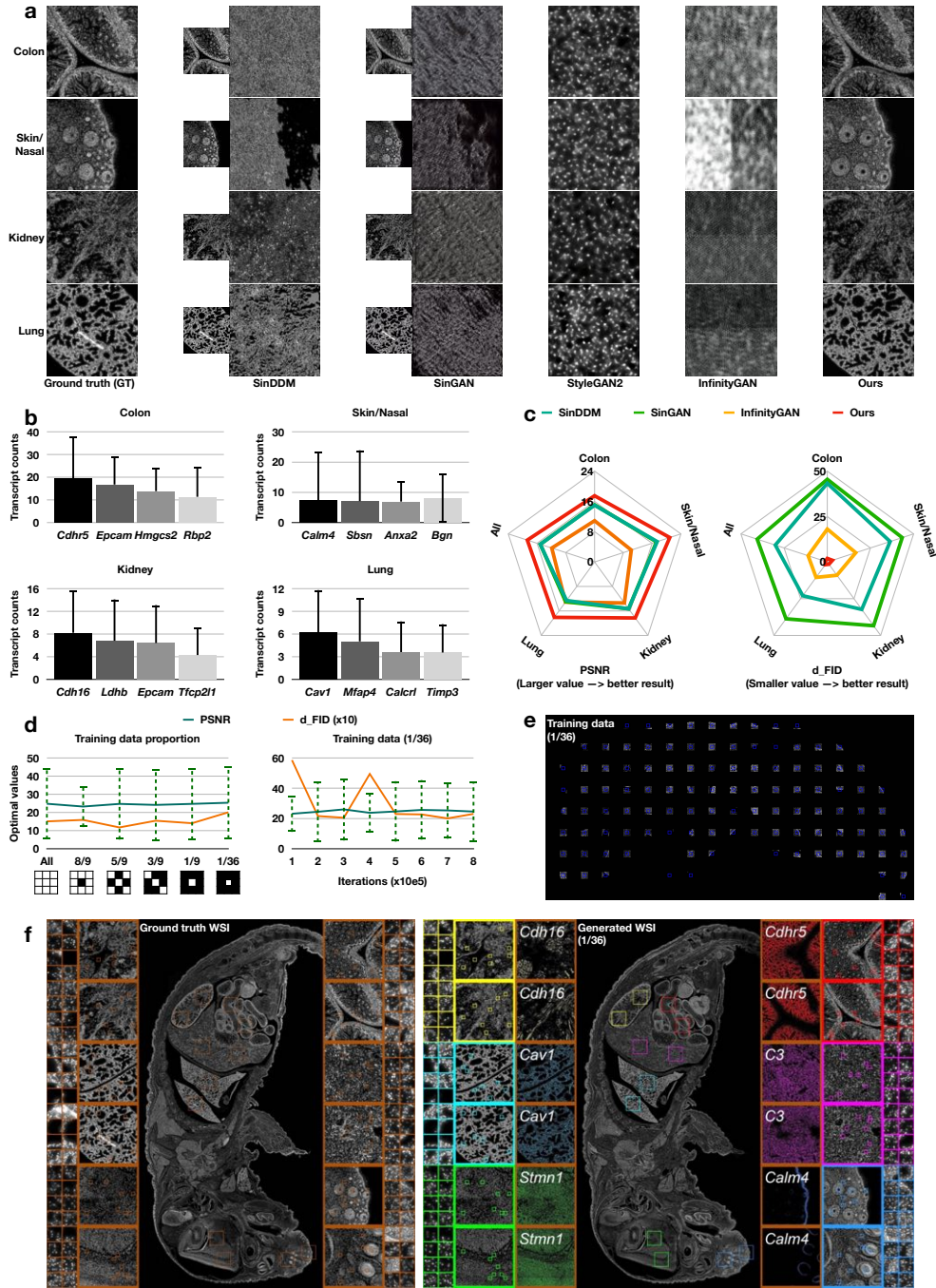
131 We test IST-editing on the public Xenium (Janesick et al., 2022) ST dataset of a one-day mouse  
 132 pup. This gigapixel-resolution dataset<sup>1</sup> provides a well-curated sparse 3D array of 379-plex gene  
 133 transcript counts (App. Fig. 4) and the spatially matched DAPI-stained WSI at the identical resolution,  
 134 offering a comprehensive morpho-molecular landscape of the whole organism. In the absence of  
 135 clear cell-level annotations in the Xenium dataset, we conducted a careful evaluation of the WSI and  
 136 cell-level clustering<sup>2</sup> within the context of tissue organizations. Instructed by domain biomedical  
 137 experts, we confirmed the accuracy of subtype assignments derived from the ‘kmeans\_10\_clusters’  
 138 results in the raw data. Depending on the majority vote of cell subtypes presented in the sampled  
 139 training data, we assign the label of the predominant subtype to each image tile.

### 140 3.1. Evaluation of generation results

141 We benchmark IST-editing against state-of-the-art diffusion- and GAN-based models such as Infinity-  
 142 GAN. Consistent with the IST-editing approach, we feed all the models with patch-wise spatial gene  
 143 expression data (input) and DAPI images (output) for systematic and fair comparisons. Following  
 144 the single-image training paradigm, we train SinGAN (Shaham et al., 2019) and SinDDM (Kulikov  
 145 et al., 2023) on individual tissue-level images (*e.g.*,  $4096 \times 4096$ ) and generate high-resolution  
 146 images for direct comparison with the IST-editing results. In contrast, StyleGAN2, InfinityGAN,  
 147 and IST-editing are trained on patch-wise data pairs extracted from the entire WSI. As shown in  
 148 Fig. 2 (a), SinGAN and SinDDM can recreate low-resolution images (small inset, left) including  
 149 texture similarities to the original tissue such as the alveolar pattern observed in samples from the  
 150 lung region. However, the image generation cannot be consistently scaled to a higher resolution: Only  
 151 basic and biologically meaningless tissue textures remain. StyleGAN2 preserved a pattern resembling  
 152 cell nuclei in generated high-resolution images. Nevertheless, the tissue structure corresponding to

1. The download link is [https://s3-us-west-2.amazonaws.com/10x.files/samples/xenium/1.6.0/Xenium\\_V1\\_mouse\\_pup/Xenium\\_V1\\_mouse\\_pup\\_outs.zip](https://s3-us-west-2.amazonaws.com/10x.files/samples/xenium/1.6.0/Xenium_V1_mouse_pup/Xenium_V1_mouse_pup_outs.zip)

2. Please see also the 10x Genomics data summary provided at [https://cf.10xgenomics.com/samples/xenium/1.6.0/Xenium\\_V1\\_mouse\\_pup/Xenium\\_V1\\_mouse\\_pup\\_analysis\\_summary.html](https://cf.10xgenomics.com/samples/xenium/1.6.0/Xenium_V1_mouse_pup/Xenium_V1_mouse_pup_analysis_summary.html).



**Figure 2: Experimental results of the WSI generation.** **a.** The visual comparison of tissue-level ( $4096 \times 4096$ ) synthesized images obtained by training with 100% of the available data using SinGAN (Shaham et al., 2019), SinDDM (Kulikov et al., 2023), StyleGAN2 (Karras et al., 2020) and InfinityGAN (Lin et al., 2022) as compared to IST-editing. Using the coarse-to-fine upscaling technique introduced by SinGAN and SinDDM, we present unsatisfactory upscaling results ( $4096 \times 4096$ , right plots) next to the faithful generation of low-resolution input images (left subplots) for a clear side-by-side comparison. **b.** The mean and standard deviation of transcript counts of the highly expressed genes (per cell) *w.r.t.* individual tissue regions. **c.** The comparison of tissue-level generation results between the compared methods by PSNR (left) and  $d_{FID}$  (right). **d.** The comparison of PSNR and  $d_{FID}$  scores obtained by training IST-editing on progressively smaller subsets of available data (left) and at different numbers of iterations for training with 3% of the available data (right). For these experiments, subsets of the available data are sampled following the ‘checkerboard’ patterns, as illustrated underneath the ‘Training data proportion’ plot. **e.** The visual illustration of 3% of available training data. **f.** The cell-, tissue- and animal-level visualization of ground-truth (left) and generated (right) mouse pup WSI. To visualize the spatial pattern of leading gene expression in the right plot, we first downscale the resolution of gene expression array using sum reduction and then shift the gene expression level to  $[0, 255]$ .

153 the individual organ regions is lost, as is evident from the ‘StyleGAN2’ column of Fig. 2 (a). Owing  
 154 to undesired coordinate priors for bioimage generation, we observed horizontal lines and repetitive  
 155 patterns in images generated by InfinityGAN and clearly identifiable tissue structures are not present  
 156 in these image examples. After inputting the 379-plex gene expression data (*e.g.*, see Fig. 2 (b) and  
 157 App. Fig. 4), our approach successfully generates tissue-level images at the scale of  $4096 \times 4096$   
 158 resolution, with biologically meaningful details (Fig. 2 (a), right). The generated images show a high  
 159 level of similarity both in tissue organization, texture and cell-level detail to the biological prior, as  
 160 supported by expert pathologist interpretation. Quantitatively illustrated in Fig. 2 (c), IST-editing  
 161 outperforms compared methods in terms of low  $d_{\text{FID}}$  and high PSNR score. Using the padding-free  
 162 StyledConv operations and spatial gene expression grid, IST-editing achieved the WSI generation  
 163 with a  $106496 \times 53248$  pixel resolution. Please see also App. Fig. 5 for more elaborated visualization.  
 164 **Training data utility (100% - 3%):** Next, we evaluate the generation robustness of the proposed  
 165 approach under conditions of increasing data scarcity. For this purpose, we utilize progressively  
 166 smaller subsets of the available data for training. As depicted in Fig. 2 (d, left), the optimal  $d_{\text{FID}}$   
 167 and PSNR scores remain consistent as the amount of available data decreases. Only when reducing  
 168 the training data to 1/36 of the original size (Fig. 2 (e)) do we start to observe a mild degradation  
 169 in quantitative performance by  $d_{\text{FID}}$ . Upon comparing the cell-, tissue- and animal-level generation  
 170 quality achieved by training on the entire dataset (App. Fig. 5 (a, b)) and 3% (Fig. 2 (f, right))  
 171 of the available data, the visual discrepancy between the two gigapixel-resolution WSIs appears  
 172 marginal, substantiating the adaptability of IST-editing to limited data scenarios, requiring the  
 173 seamless synthesis of more than 97% of the unseen data.

### 174 3.2. Evaluation of editing effects

175 We investigate gene expression-guided editing of WSI data by three distinct strategies. Experiments  
 176 are performed on the generated ‘in-silico mouse pup’ which contains co-profiled ST and WSI data of  
 177 all major mammalian organ systems.

178 **(1) Direct scaling of gene expression:** Organized structures of diverse tissue regions emerge when  
 179 progressively scaling the expression levels of the top four genes by a factor of 0.5, 1 (baseline), and 2  
 180 (Fig. 3 (b, left and middle)), while remaining gene expression values are zeroed out. Such targeted  
 181 editing is driven by the observable dominant impact on the morphological generation of the top  
 182 four leading expressed genes (Fig. 2 (b)). Interestingly, the editing effects exhibited biologically  
 183 explainable heterogeneity across the different regions. In the colon section, we observe the emergence  
 184 of crypt epithelial structures orchestrated by the upscaling of leading genes including Epithelial Cell  
 185 Adhesion Molecule, *EPCAM*. As muscle-specific genes are not represented in the top colon gene sets,  
 186 the outer muscle layer remains absent in the reconstruction. In other examples, the clear structures  
 187 and organizations of the lung region have been recovered by our approach, closely resembling the  
 188 GT lung image, and image artifacts (*e.g.*, white fluff on GT WSI scan) are effectively eliminated  
 189 in the reconstruction. Calculated on the proportional ratio between edited and GT tissue regions  
 190 highlighted in the bounding boxes (Fig. 3 (d)), the radar charts in Fig. 3 (b, right) demonstrate a  
 191 consistent increase in cell-level metrics approaching the GT with the up-scaling coefficients.

192 **(2) Indirect scaling of gene expression:** Similar to the cell-level manipulation study (Wu and  
 193 Koelzer, 2024), we perform algorithmic editing on the sample covariance matrix (SCM) and scale  
 194 the leading eigenvalues by 0.1, 0.5, and 1 (baseline). Consider the SCM  $\frac{1}{n}G^T G = O\lambda O^T$ , where  $G$   
 195 is the collection of  $n$  379-plex gene expression data from a given tissue region,  $O_i$  is the  $379 \times 379$



196 eigenbasis and  $\lambda$  is the (sorted) diagonal eigenvalues derived from eigenvalue decomposition. Then,  
 197 we control  $\lambda$  for indirectly conducting gene expression-guided editing. As illustrated in Fig. 3 (c),  
 198 there exists a rather homogeneous transition of tissue structures across the various regions of interest.  
 199 On the contrary to the results described above using the leading genes, the muscle layer of the  
 200 colon tissue as well as global architectural features of lung and skin are already observed at the  
 201 scale of 0.1 when using all genes as an input. After examining the editing effects with up-scaling of  
 202 the eigenvalues, we witness a further increase in DAPI pixel intensity and increased sharpening of  
 203 architectural details closely resembling the GT image. This is reflected by the quantitative analysis  
 204 of the interpretable morphological features Fig. 3 (c, right), where we observe an expected increase  
 205 in the cellular region and DAPI signals.

206 **(3) Interpolation between unorganized and well-organized gene expression:** To simulate mor-  
 207 phological transitions at the scale of a whole ‘in-silico mouse pup’, we conduct linear interpolation  
 208 between randomly sampled and ground truth spatial gene expression, generating WSI results at  
 209 coefficients of 0 (noise), 0.5, and 1 (mouse pup). The resulting WSIs exhibit a gradual progression  
 210 from chaotic cellular organization - as reflected through the appearance of ‘random noise’ across the  
 211 entire sample - to the highly organized structure of the one-day mouse pup. We thus demonstrate the  
 212 versatility of IST-editing in simulating biological processes across multiple scales.

### 213 3.3. Evaluation of model limitations

214 **Training data utility (0.1%):** Pushing the limits further, we conduct extreme stress tests on the  
 215 proposed approach for reconstructing the whole mouse pup. This is carried out by training on a  
 216 single 2048×2048 resolution image extracted from individual tissue regions such as kidney, lung, and  
 217 brain. Though the overall outline and structure of the mouse pup are retained, IST-editing struggles  
 218 to recreate the WSI with fine biological-aware details, as illustrated in App. Fig. 7. Remarkably,  
 219 heterogeneous generation patterns for different organs arise when training solely on one single image.  
 220 For instance, the training of the gut region image leads to the generation of blank space in the mouse  
 221 brain. This can be explained by the non-overlapping highly expressed genes between the gut (*e.g.*,  
 222 *Cdh16, Ldhb, Epcam, Tfcp2l1*) and brain (*e.g.*, *Stmn1, Gap43, Nnat, Tubb3*) region, as presented in  
 223 Fig. 3 (a) and App. Fig. 4. When utilizing an ‘almost black’ image with a mere fragment of mouse  
 224 skin (App. Fig. 7), the overall structure of the mouse pup remains preserved, though the cellular and  
 225 tissue generation tends to exhibit a preference for mimicking skin epithelial morphology, suggesting  
 226 a bias towards replicating trained cellular subtypes. To resolve the limitation of training and testing  
 227 on the same WSI of the mouse pup, we reported generalization results on different brain sections  
 228 from two mice (App. Fig. 9, 10) using the synergistic ST data of mouse brain atlas (Yao et al., 2023).

## 229 4. Discussion and Conclusion

230 This proof-of-concept study showcased the generative ability and editability in an in-silico mouse pup  
 231 with DAPI nuclear staining and linked ST data. Notably, IST-editing can be readily extended to other  
 232 broadly established staining techniques to visualize cellular detail, as exemplified by the first H&E  
 233 generation results of the same mouse pup (App. Fig. 8). In-silico modeling holds great potential  
 234 for the Replacement, Reduction, and Refinement of animal research and extends beyond animal  
 235 modeling. In future applications, IST-editing could enable the simulated intervention on biological  
 236 samples from human pathology with reduced ethical, legal, and regulatory risks and provide a novel  
 237 perspective to investigate the linkage between genotype and phenotype in human diseases.



## 238 **Author contributions statement**

239 J.W. and V.H.K. conceived the research idea. J.W. implemented the algorithm and carried out the  
 240 experiments. J.W., I.B. and V.H.K. analyzed the results. J.W. and V.H.K. drafted the manuscript. I.B.  
 241 critically reviewed the manuscript and supplied biological interpretations. V.H.K. supervised the  
 242 project.

## 243 **Competing interests**

244 J.W. declares no competing interests. V.H.K. declares project-based research funding from Roche  
 245 and the Image Analysis Group outside to the submitted work. V.H.K. is on an advisory board of  
 246 Takeda has served as an invited speaker on behalf of Indica Labs and for Sharing Progress in Cancer  
 247 Care, an independent nonprofit organization, outside of the submitted work.

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 251 University Hospital and University of Zurich.

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326 Appendix A. The overall gene expression profiles

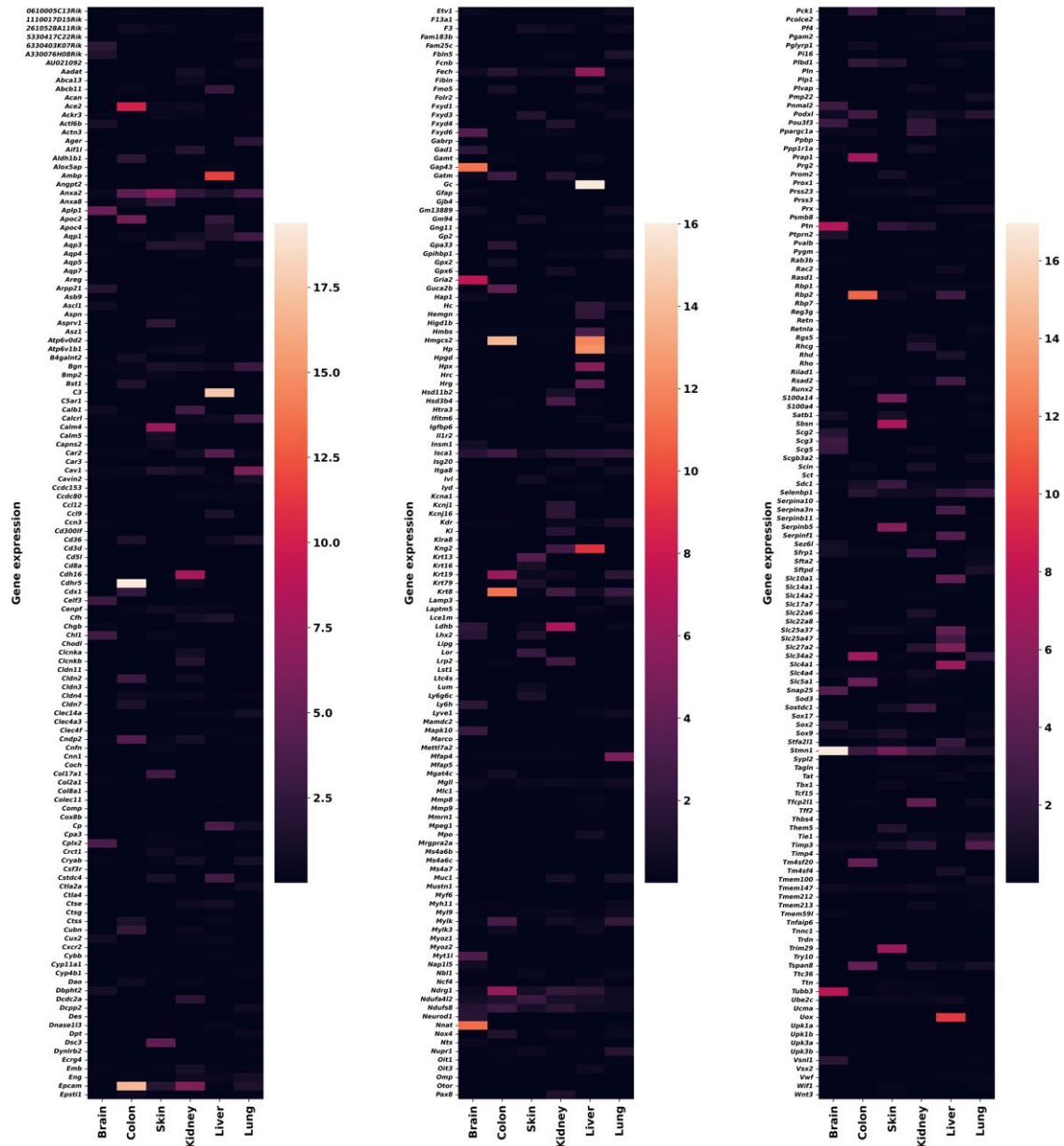


Figure 4: The heatmap of 379-plex gene expression values (average per cell) *w.r.t.* different tissue regions.

327 Appendix B. The experimental results for the DAPI-stained WSI

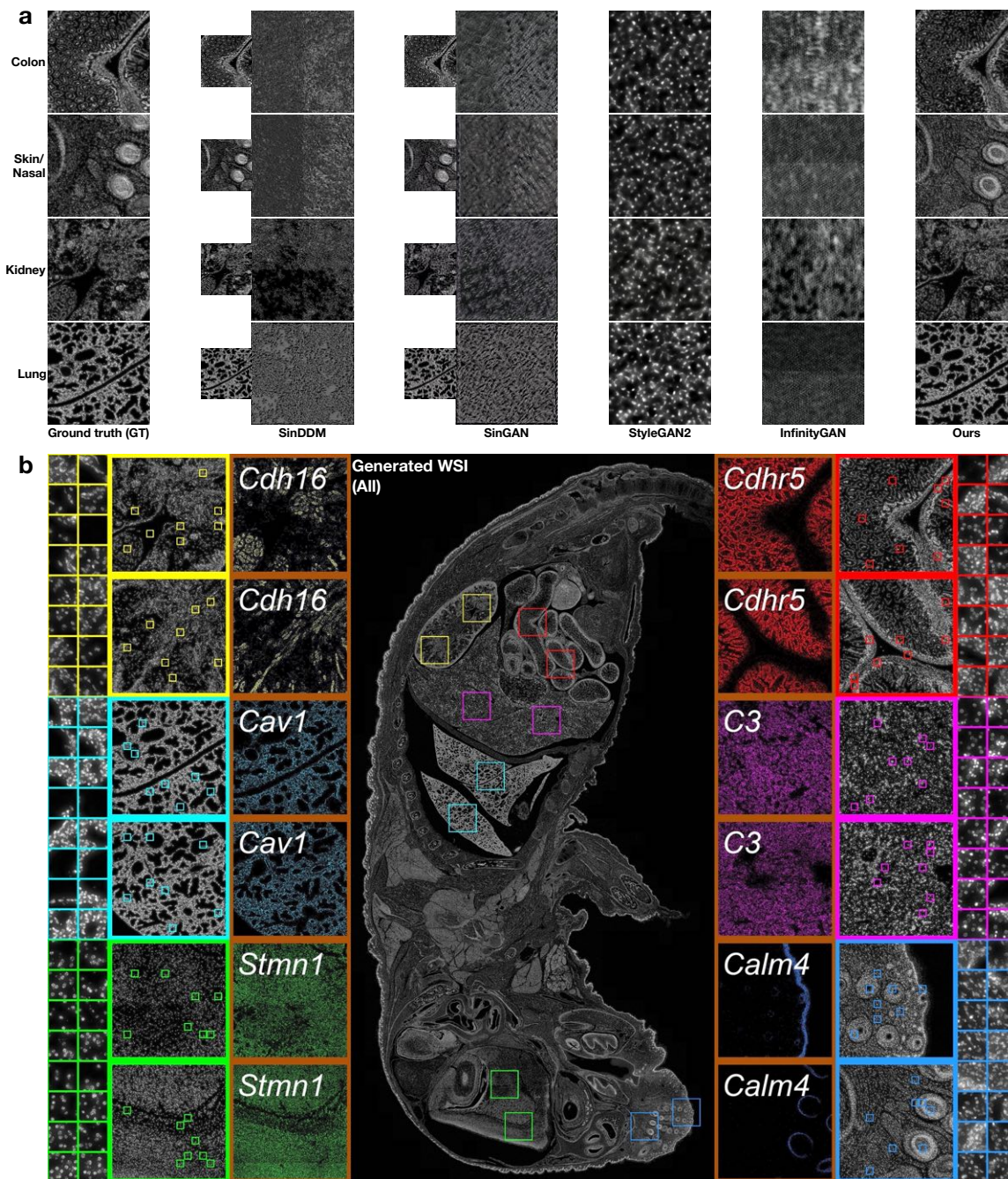


Figure 5: The generation results of tissue region images (a) and WSI (b).

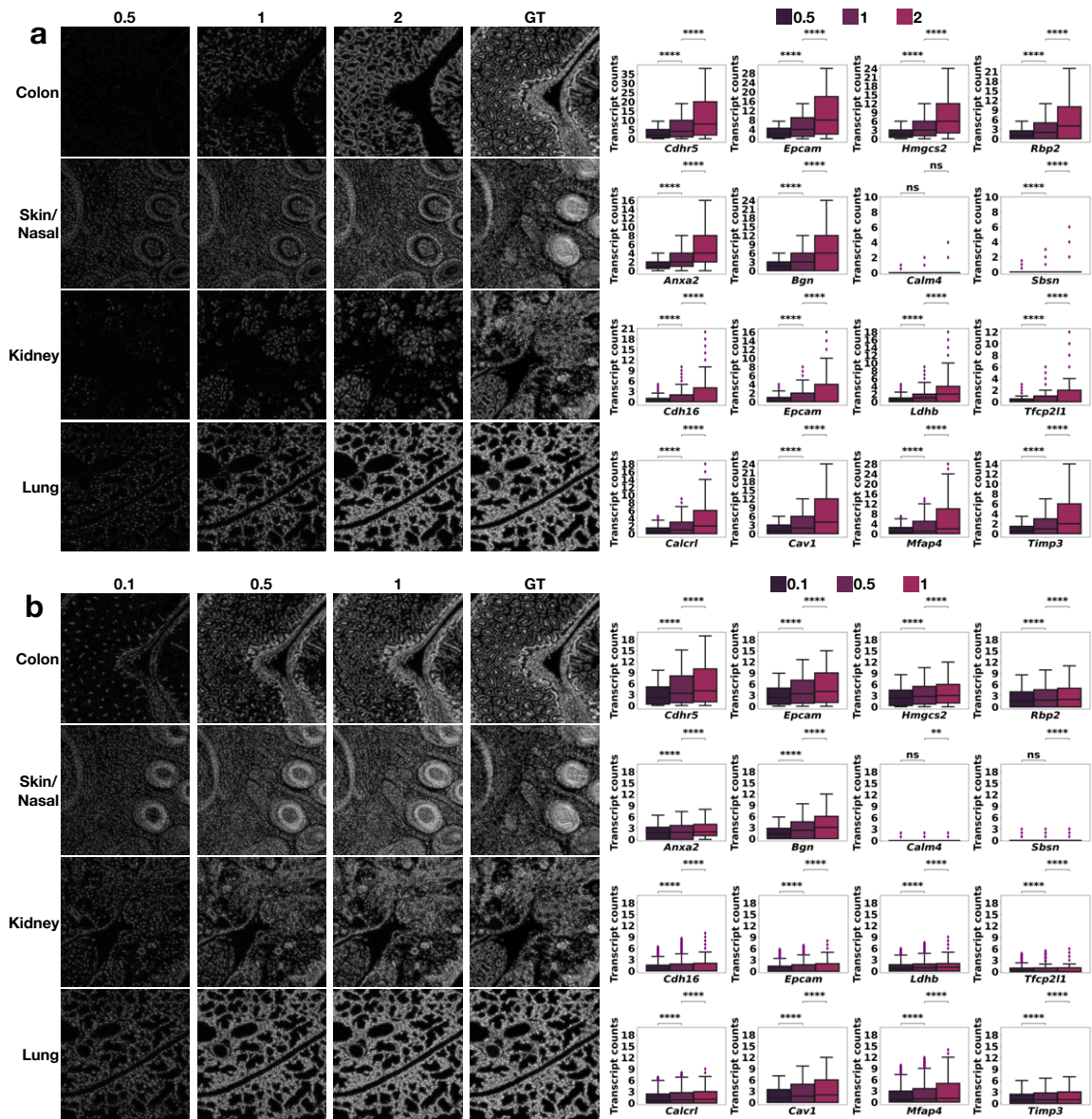


Figure 6: **The experimental results of diverse editing effects.** **a.** The visual (left) and quantitative (right) editing effects on various tissue regions by scaling the leading gene expression group (middle) while zeroing out the rest of gene expression values. **b.** The visual (left) and quantitative (right) editing effects by scaling the leading eigenvalues of the sample covariance matrix (SCM) of individual tissue regions.

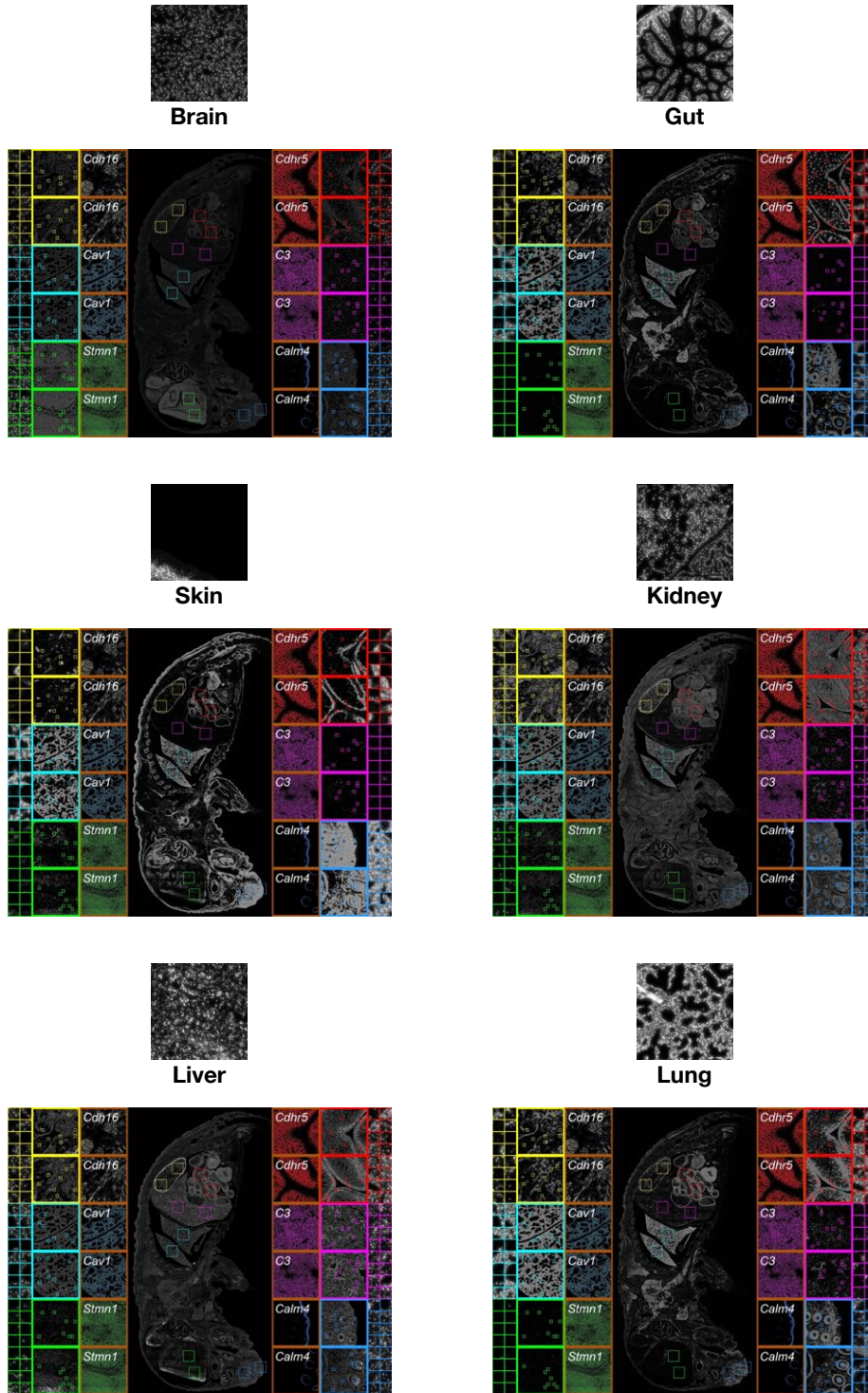


Figure 7: The failure cases of WSI generation brought by training on a single  $2048 \times 2048$  image extracted from individual tissue regions.

328 Appendix C. The first results for the H&E-stained WSI

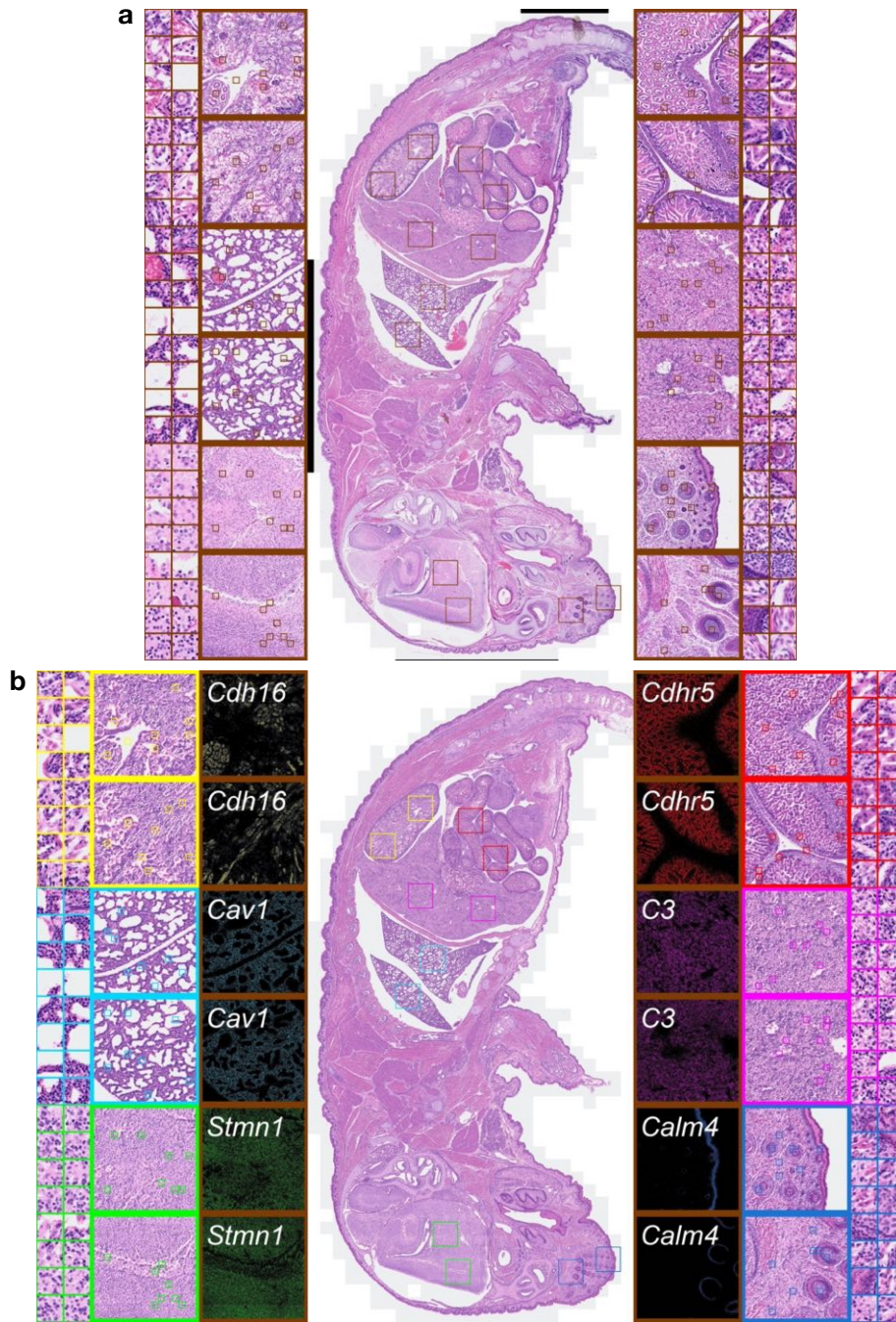


Figure 8: The ground truth (a) and generated (b) H&E-stained WSIs.



## 329 Appendix D. The generalization results for coronal brain sections (Yao et al., 2023)

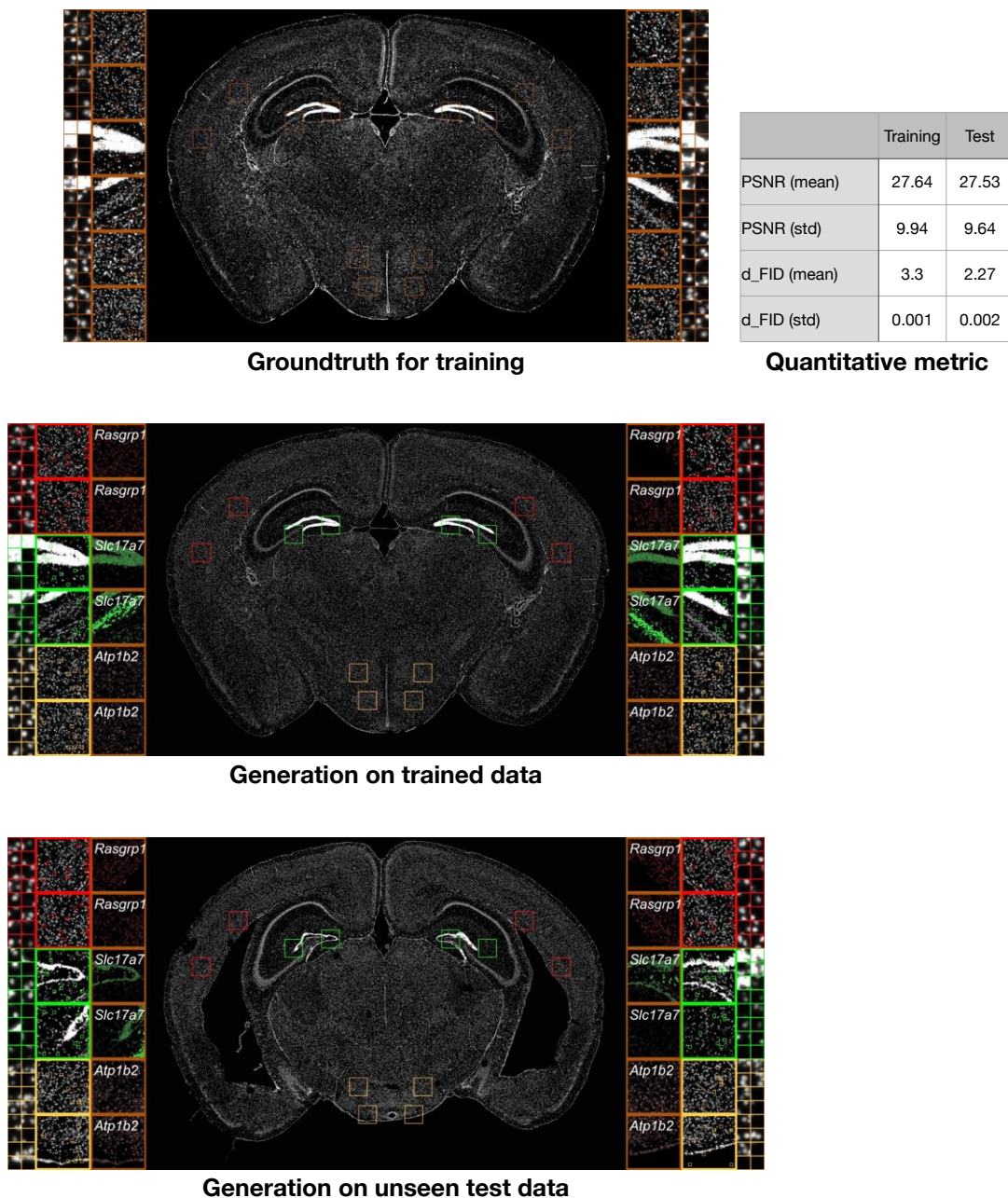


Figure 9: The ground truth (a) and generation result of the trained (b) and test (c) WSIs. Here, the training brain section comes from the female mouse (ID: 609882, file: 1198980117) and the test section comes from the male mouse (ID: 609889, file: 1198980478), where both ST datasets have been generated with the same gene panel. By tile-wise quantitatively comparing the generated and ground truth WSIs, we report the mean and standard deviation of PSNR and  $d_{\text{FID}}$  for both training and unseen test data. Same as the results reported in the main manuscript, we here use a more efficient implementation (Wu and Koelzer, 2022) and robust CLIP features (Radford et al., 2021; Kynkäänniemi et al., 2022) to carry out the  $d_{\text{FID}}$  computation. To visualize the spatial pattern of leading gene expression values in the middle and bottom plots, we first downscale the resolution of the gene expression array using sum reduction and then shift the gene expression level to  $[0, 255]$ .

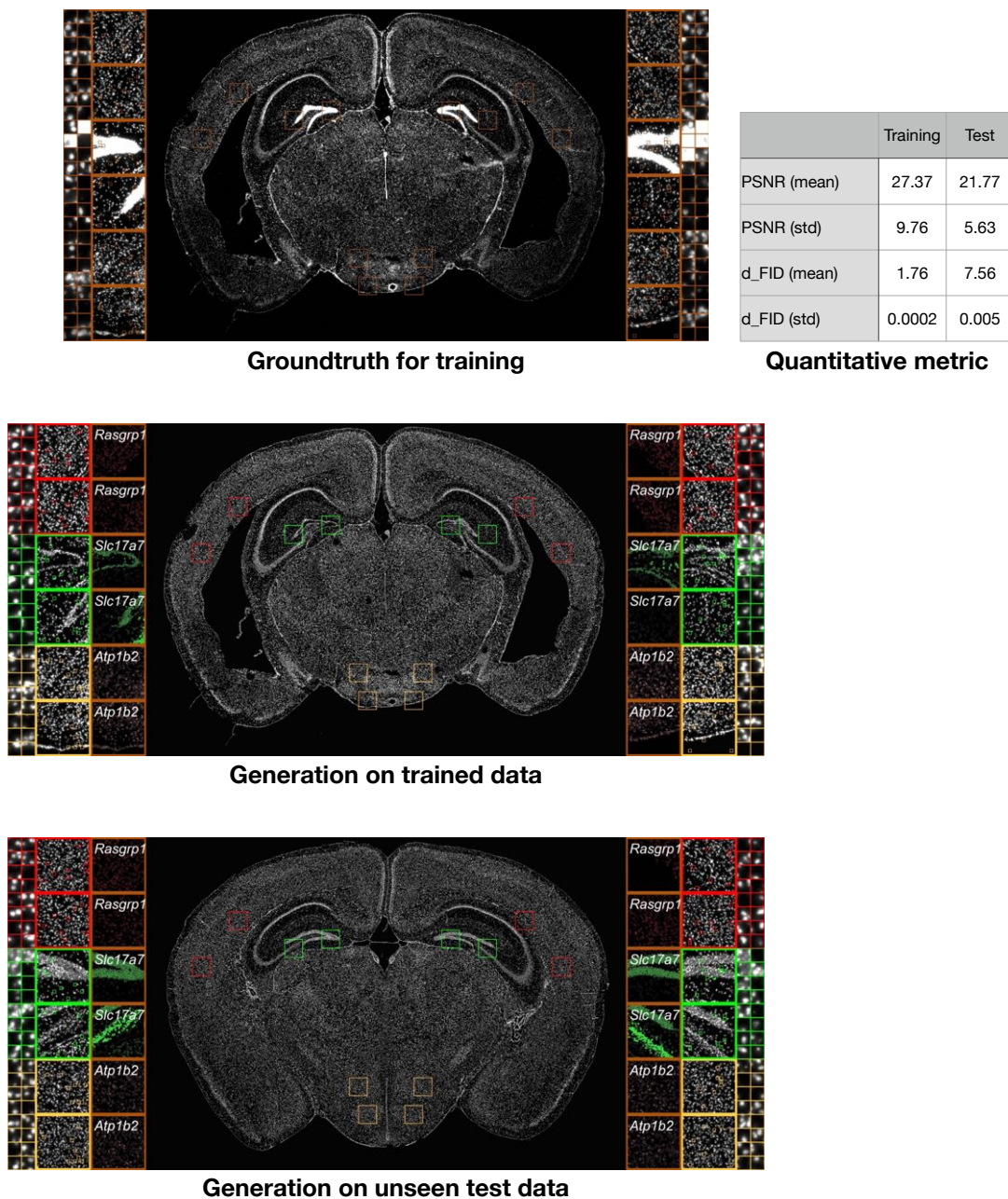


Figure 10: **The ground truth (a) and generation result of the trained (b) and test (c) WSIs.** Here, the training brain section comes from the male mouse (ID: 609889, file: 1198980478) and the test section comes from the female mouse (ID: 609882, file: 1198980117). By tile-wise quantitatively comparing the generated and ground truth WSIs, we report the mean and standard deviation of PSNR and  $d_{\text{FID}}$  for both training and unseen test data. Same as the results reported in the main manuscript, we here use a more efficient implementation (Wu and Koelzer, 2022) and robust CLIP features (Radford et al., 2021; Kynkäänniemi et al., 2022) to carry out the  $d_{\text{FID}}$  computation. To visualize the spatial pattern of leading gene expression values in the middle and bottom plots, we first downscale the resolution of the gene expression array using sum reduction and then shift the gene expression level to  $[0, 255]$ .