Autoencoder based local T cell repertoire density can be used to classify samples and T cell receptors

T cell repertoire density estimate

Shirit Dvorkin[1], Yoram Louzoun[1, +]

1. Department of Mathematics, Bar Ilan University, Ramat Gan, Israel.

+ To whom correspondence and requests should be sent: louzouy@math.biu.ac.il

Abstract

Recent advances in T cell repertoire (TCR) sequencing allow for characterization of repertoire properties, as well as the frequency and sharing of specific TCR. However, there is no good measure for the local density of a given TCR. TCRs are often described using their Complementary Determining region 3 (CDR3) sequences, V/J usage, and clone size. We here show that the local repertoire density can be estimated using a combined representation of these components through distance conserving autoencoders and Kernel Density Estimates (KDE).

We present ELATE – an Encoder based LocAl Tcr dEnsity and show that the resulting density of a sample can be used as a novel measure to study repertoire properties. The cross-density between two samples can be used as a similarity matrix to fully characterize samples from the same host. Finally, the same projection in combination with machine learning algorithms can be used to predict TCR-peptide binding through the local density of known TCRs binding a specific target.

Keywords: T cell receptor, Local density, Autoencoder, Distance conserving, Machine learning

Introduction

T-cell receptor (TCR) repertoire formation results from two major procedures: Rearrangements of the TCR α and β chains gene segments (V (D) and J) and formation of the junctions between them [1]. During segments joining, nucleotides are inserted and deleted at the junctions between pairs of rearranging genes, forming the highly variable complementarity determining region 3 (CDR3) that is directly implicated in antigen recognition, and further augmenting diversity [1, 2].

Repertoire next-generation immune-sequencing methods (often denoted rep-seq)[3] supply detailed measures of T cell clone frequencies in samples[4-8]. At the broad level, Rep-Seq methods have three main usages: A) Descriptive - general statistics of the repertoire, including clone size distribution, V, D and J usages, CDR3 length, descriptions of alleles and haplotypes, and in B cells also properties of somatic hypermutations and clonal trees[3, 9]. B) Comparative - comparison between different hosts or different compartments within the same host and the sharing of clones between such compartments, comparison between repertoires in different conditions (e.g. patients with specific diseases), and even comparisons between B and T cells[10, 11]. C) Predictions and Machine learning, including prediction of receptor targets, and prediction of compartments using CDR3 composition or V gene usage [12, 13].

Often, the full sequence of T cells is typically not studied. Instead, sequences are characterized by their V and J genes, their observed clone size, and CDR3 sequence[14]. This analysis is mostly focused on the beta chain since it has been assumed the repertoire diversity and its binding to target MHC-peptide are determined more by the beta chain than the alpha chain[15]. However, ELATE can be equally applied to the alpha chain. The CDR3 sequence, the VH usage and the clone size distribution are usually analyzed as distinct features of the repertoire[2, 16, 17]. The separation between these components is mainly the result of the different representations (categorical for V(D)J usage, CDR3 sequence, and counts for clone size). There is currently no efficient framework to unify them into a single coherent representation.

Moreover, while there are standard methods to compare V(D)J usage (e.g. Kullback Leibler divergence on the distributions [18] or the clone size distribution (e.g. entropy or Simpson index [16]), there is currently no efficient measure to define CDR3 based density, except for edit distance or similar sequence-based methods that are prohibitively expensive for large samples.

Estimating the TCR local density in the receptor space has important applications, including the comparison of densities of different TCR groups, estimating the cross density of different repertoires (i.e. the density of one TCR from one repertoire around TCRs from a different repertoire), and characterization of the TCR distribution properties. We here propose that through autoencoders, CDR3 sequence, V/J gene and clone size can be unified to provide a computationally efficient description of the repertoire, and the local density in receptor space around each TCR can be properly defined.

Autoencoders are typically used for dimensionality reduction[19]. An autoencoder is an encoder-decoder combination where the output of the decoder is simply the input to the encoder, and the goal is to minimize the difference between the two. Autoencoders are used to learn efficient data representation. Encoders project an input vector to a lower dimension. The decoder projects the low-dimensional vector back to the original dimension. In neural nets based autoencoders, during the training process, the autoencoder minimizes the difference between the input of the encoder and the output of the decoder. The low-dimensional projection is then used as an efficient representation of the input vector.

We propose the following outline for repertoire characterization using ELATE (Encoder based LocAl Tcr dEnsity), with each step further explained in the Results and Methods sections:

A) Use an autoencoder (either distance maintaining or not) to project each CDR3 sequence into a Z dimensional real space.

B) Project all samples using a constant number of clones from each sample.

C) Define cross/self repertoire local density in this Z-dimensional space using KDE methods[20].

A previous variational autoencoder (VAE) has been proposed in the literature - DeepTCR[12]. 76

The autoencoder used here is different than the VAE used in DeepTCR. The main differences 77

between ELATE and DeepTCR are that in ELATE all CDR3 sequences are converted to one- 78

hot vectors as opposed to DeepTCR, where the sequences are converted to vectors using a 79

trainable embedding layer. Given, the wide CDR3 length distribution, ELATE uses right zero- 80

padding to combine different lengths, and a novel loss function to optimize the projection. 81

Finally, and most crucially, ELATE conserves distances, in contrast with all existing methods, 82

allowing for the usage of KDE methods on the projection. At the technical level, ELATE uses 83

only fully connected layers, while DeepTCR uses convolutional layers. 84

Results 85

ELATE can produce accurate reconstruction and also accurate distances. 86

To test the possibility of estimating the local density of T cell receptor sequences as defined by 87

their CDR3 sequence, their V gene, and their clone size, we developed the ELATE encoder. 88

ELATE projects the CDR3 sequence and optionally the V gene. The clone size is not directly 89

used in the encoder, but it is used for the density estimates. For the CDR3 sequences, a constant 90

length representation was used. Each AA was represented as a one-hot vector with an extra 91

position for the stop sequence (21 dimensions per AA), and the vector was right zero-padded 92

(see Methods and Fig. 1). An LSTM[21] based approach to handle different lengths was also 93

tested but had a lower decoder accuracy. The decoder predicts the entire input vector, including 94

the stop signal and what comes after it. All values after the predicted stop signal are then zeroed. 95

The AE was trained using a Mean Squared Error (MSE) loss. To evaluate the performance of 96

the AE, we used the percentage of sequences successfully reconstructed with up to *K* errors, 97

where a mismatch in length was defined as an error for all *K*s. 98

Fig. 1. *Autoencoder description. The autoencoder is composed of two models: encoder* 99
and decoder. Encoder's input: a vector of n dimensions of concatenated one-hot (oh) 100
vectors, representing a CDR3 sequence. Encoder's output (decoder's input): the 101
embedded representation with 30 dimensions. Decoder's output: the reconstructed 102
vector. The autoencoder is trained by minimizing the reconstruction MSE (Mean 103
Squared Error). The classifier is a combination of the encoder (with fixed weights) and 104

4 more fully connected layers. The classifier is trained by minimizing the BCE loss (Binary Cross Entropy). 105
106

In all the observed datasets, very few pairs of CDR3 sequences differ by less than 2 AA one from each other (more precisely have an edit distance of less than 2). Indeed, when the distribution of edit distance between every pair of sequences from pairs of random samples is calculated, the distributions are consistently normal, with practically no values below 2 (see a representing example in Fig.2B). Thus, even an AE producing 1 or 2 errors would lead to a representation closer to the original CDR3 than any other sequence in a different sample. We thus report the fraction of sequences successfully reconstructed with 0, 1, or 2 errors (Fig. 2). 107

Fig 2. A. Edit distances distribution. Histogram of edit distances between all pairs of CDR3 sequences from two samples. Few sequences have 2 or fewer mismatches. B. Encoder's accuracies. All accuracies of AE for the different datasets with no mismatches (fully matched, red), 1 mismatch (orange), and 2 mismatches (blue). C. Encoder's accuracy combined with distances. All accuracies of AE+DIS for the different datasets. D. Encoder and CDR3 distances correlation. Pairwise Euclidean distances in the set of CDR3 one-hot vectors (Xs) in the x axis and pairwise Euclidean distances in the embedded set (Zs) predicted by AE in the y axis. The legend contains the Spearman correlation between the axes. E. Encoder's distances correlation when combined with distances. Pairwise Euclidean distances in the set of CDR3 one-hot vectors (Xs) in the x axis and pairwise Euclidean distances in the embedded set (Zs) predicted by AE+V in the y axis. F. Encoder's accuracy combined with V. All accuracies of AE+V for the different datasets (except for datasets without Vs). G. Encoder's accuracy combined with V and distances. All accuracies of AE+DIS+V for the different datasets. 114

To test the applicability of the AE, several previously published datasets with different categories were used in this analysis. The first set studied was the GLIPH dataset which is composed of seven TCR samples, where all TCRs in a sample share a specificity to the same peptide[22]. Two more datasets of tumor-bearing mice from ImmunoMap and TILs[23] were used. The first had two categories: CD8 T cells responding to TRP2, a shared self-peptide tumor antigen and SIY, a model foreign-antigen. The second is composed of samples taken from mice treated with RT and 9H10 immunotherapies and a combination of both. Also, a set of sorted naïve and memory cells, CD4+ and CD8+ from alpha and beta chains of three donors was collected[24]. To explore variations over time, we used the response to the yellow fever vaccine from different time-points in three pairs of identical twins[25]. Finally, a collection of TCRs 129

with one sample from each host with any type of cancer and samples from healthy donors were 139

collected from the Immune Epitope Database (IEDB). The GLIPH and Benny Chain datasets 140

do not contain V usage in their repertoire and the GLIPH dataset has no frequencies of clones. 141

While ELATE can quite precisely encode the CDR3 distribution (Fig. 2C, D), it fails to 142

reproduce the distance between TCRs (Fig. 2E). To handle that, we produced a novel distance 143

maintaining encoder (AE+DIS). In this framework, besides minimizing the reconstruction 144

error. An embedding loss ($loss_{DIS}$) of the sum over pairs of TCRs of the difference between the 145

Euclidean distance between the embeddings and the original Euclidean distance between the 146

CDR3 one-hot vectors is added at the hidden layer. When the V gene of each TCR was 147

provided, a V gene-specific AE was also concatenated to the CDR3 encoder. The V based 148

encoder can be used with or without the embedding loss. 149

The accuracies with zero, one, and two mismatches for all four models (AE, AE+V, AE+DIS, 150

AE+DIS+V) are shown for all datasets (except for GLIPH and Benny Chain when analyzing 151

V) in Figures 2CD,GH. The accuracy of AE is consistently much higher than the AE+DIS, with 152

or without V, with high accuracy of >90% in most of the data sets for 2 mismatch accuracy. 153

The models with the additional embedding constraints 154 have

be further shown, the encoding with the embedding is better for multiple applications. To test 155

whether the addition of the distances loss does maintain the distance distribution, the pairwise 156

edit distances of the input one-hot vectors of the CDR3s in the original set and the all distances 157

in the new representations set were compared (Fig. 2EF). The correlation is higher in the 158

constrained model with a Spearman correlation of 0.9 (p<1.e-100), compared with the regular 159

AE (correlation of 0.5). 160

ELATE can be used to detect features of single clones. 161

To highlight the importance of the encoding, we first tested whether the encoder reveals the 162

reported selection against specific AA in CDR3 sequences[26]. Samples composed of 100 TCR 163

per sample from the Benny Chain dataset were projected using the AE. To properly visualize 164

the projection, TSNE was used to lower the dimensions to 2 (Fig. 3A). One can see that   165

although we used TCR from different samples, consistently, TCRs with Cysteines (red color)   166

were projected to the periphery. Moreover, CDR3 sequences containing a Cysteine, Proline, or   167

Glycine have lower densities than other CDR3 sequences (Fig 3G). Cysteines form disulfide   168

bonds, an important feature that contributes to the stability of proteins, yet in CDR3, such bonds   169

deform the CDR3 surface. Therefore, most CDR3 sequences do not contain Cysteines.   170

Fig. 3. *A. Encoder's projection TSNE (Naive-memory dataset). TCRs with cysteine are*   172
colored in red. B. Encoder's projection TSNE (Benny Chain dataset). Colored by   173
CDR3 length. C. Radius vs Publicity (Naive memory dataset). The x axis is the number   174
of samples containing this TCR clone and the y axis is the distance from the center of   175
all projections. The Spearman correlation is in the legend. D. Self-density vs Publicity   176
(Benny Chain dataset). Axes: y- The KDE between a TCR clone and its sample, x-   177
number of samples that contain this TCR clone. E. Encoder's projection TSNE   178
(GLIPH). TCRs with specificity to TRPVTGGGAM peptide are colored in red. The   179
other groups are colored in grey. F. Encoder's projection TSNE (cancer dataset). TCRs   180
from hosts with cancer are colored in red and TCRs from samples collected from   181
healthy hosts are colored in grey. G. Average self-density per feature. The average self-   182
density of all 7 peptides in GLIPH *data set and for TCRs with a specific number of G*   183
*(Glycine), C (Cysteine) and P (Proline). The p-value of t-test is shown as * (<0.1), ***   184
*(<0.05), *** (< 0.01).*   185

Next, we tested whether the AE captures the CDR3 length distribution of the repertoire. Indeed,   187

if distances are maintained, similar length CDR sequences should have close projections.   188

Moreover, too long or short CDR3 should be again projected to the periphery, as they are also   189

less frequent and selected against[26, 27]. Again, the AE projects the mid-length CDR3   190

sequences to the center of the distribution and the long and short CDR3 sequences to the   191

periphery (Fig. 3B, where each color is a different length).   192

Public TCRs have been described in a variety of immune responses[28]. A public clone is a   193

clone shared by different donors. Again, if the encoded projections represent the functionality   194

of the repertoire, one would expect public clones to be more central. We calculated the radius   195

from the center of mass of all projected TCRs in Naïve-and memory datasets. Note that such   196

an analysis is only possible following the translation to real-valued representations. We computed the radius of TCRs vs their publicity, where the publicity of each sequence is defined as the number of samples containing it, out of 56 samples (Fig. 3C). Indeed, public clones are more central (spearman correlation, $p < 0.001$). We further tested if public clones are in denser regions of the projection, where the self-density was defined as the density of other TCR projections from the sample around the clone. Density was estimated using a Kernel Density Estimation (KDE). Again public clones reside in denser regions than private clones (spearman correlation, $p < 0.001$) (Fig. 3D).

Finally, we checked the overall characterization of the TCR repertoire as a possible biomarker for different diseases[29], for example, a biomarker for cervical cancer[11]. We expect TCR repertoires in such conditions to show distinct projections compared with random repertoires. To evaluate the scattering of different categories in the embedded space, we used the AE projections in two disease state datasets. Again, the vectors were projected to 2 dimensions using TSNE to visualize their positions. When analysing the GLIPH data set, all of the clones in the TPRVTGGGAM peptide are significantly clustered together (Fig. 3E). In the cancer data set, when projecting the Cancer vectors to 2 dimensions, a clear separation between TIL and naïve TCRs emerged (Fig. 3F, and t-test with the x-axis position $p < 0.001$). One can now use this density to estimate whether peptide-specific TCRs are in denser regions than random peptides from the same sample. For almost all targets, TCRs specific for this target have a higher density than random TCRs, not defined to bind a known target. This could be a sampling bias or a real difference, but the current method is the first that allows for such a measurement (Fig 3G).

ELATE with KDE can be used to cluster samples.

The autoencoder can be used to compare samples and not only to compare TCRs within a sample. Again, we used a constant sample size (100 here) to avoid sample size bias. We then defined a similarity between samples and tested whether this similarity can be used to detect

220
221
222

which sample comes from the same host. The similarity was defined using the AE, the 223

Kullback- Leibler (KL) divergence of the V gene usage on the sample, or the edit distance (ED) 224

between CDR3 of different samples. The ED distance between each sequence from one sample 225

and each sequence from the other was computed. The distance between the two samples was 226

defined as the average of all minimum ED values (see Methods). For the AE based distance, 227

the similarity between samples A and B is defined as the average KDE based density of sample 228

A points based on the points of sample B. The distance was computed for different variants of 229

the AE, including the basic autoencoder (AE), the autoencoder combined with V (AE+V) or 230

with CDR3 distances (AE+DIS) and combined with both (AE+DIS+V). The KDE was 231

performed twice, one time with the original set of vectors, and again when the clones frequency 232

was incorporated (see Methods). We analyzed the vaccine dataset. This dataset contained 233

samples from three pairs of identical tweens. The samples were taken at six different time points 234

before and after the yellow fever vaccination. Hierarchical clustering was performed using the 235

distance/similarity definitions above. The clustering that best reproduces the division to hosts 236

is AE+V (Fig. 4A). Moreover, twins are closer to each other in the hierarchy than unrelated 237

donors. When computing the distances using only the V usage (KL distance), the clusters are 238

much more shuffled, with some distinction of twins but no clear separation of hosts (Fig. 4B). 239

To quantify the distance method that best characterizes hosts, we tested the hierarchical clusters 240

host ID frequency and time-points entropies for each method (Fig. 4C). All AEs produce a 241

better detection of hosts (lower entropy) than ED and KL methods, and the basic autoencoder 242

combined with V (AE+V) without the frequencies is the best method among all models. 243

However, interestingly, none of the methods separates samples by time-points (Fig. 4D). 244

Fig. 4 A. KDE dendogram. Hierarchical clustering distances computed on the KDE 245
distance matrix (without the clone frequencies) of the vectors samples predicted by the 246
autoencoder combined with Vs (AE+V). Samples are colored by hosts and twins are 247
colored is similar colors (P1 and P2: blue and light blue, S1 and S2: red and salmon, 248
Q1 and Q2: spring green and lawn green). B. KL dendogram. Hierarchical clustering 249
distances computed on the KL distance matrix. C. Clusters entropies by hosts. All hosts 250
(P1, P2, S1, S2, Q1 and Q2) entropies through the different methods (labeled with a 251
combination of: E- AE, EM- AE+DIS, V- with v, F- frequencies). D. Clusters entropies 252

by time-points. All time-points (7 D pre, 0 D post, 7 D post, 15 D post, 45 D post and 2 253
Y post-vaccination) entropies through the different methods. 254

ELATE with KDE can be used for supervised sequence classification. 255

Another important application of AE is sequence classification. A classifier was built on top of 256

the AE. The classifier is a combination of the encoder with three fully connected layers, which 257

replace the decoder (Fig. 1). After the autoencoder was trained to predict the vector 258

representation of the CDR3 set, the classifier layers are trained using a binary cross-entropy 259

loss on the class detection problem. Such a classifier was built and trained for each of our four 260

autoencoders. Each classifier was trained as one vs all classifier (i.e. for each class, this class 261

vs all others), for each of the categories (Table 1). All test set AUC values are shown in Table 262

2. 263

Table 1. *Description of each category.* 264

DATA SET	TAGS	Description
GLIPH	CTELKLSDY	TCRs with shared specificity to CTELKLSDY peptide
	VTEHDTLLY	TCRs with shared specificity to VTEHDTLLY peptide
	GLCTLVAML	TCRs with shared specificity to GLCTLVAML peptide
	GILGFVFTL	TCRs with shared specificity to GILGFVFTL peptide
	TPRVTGGGAM	TCRs with shared specificity to TPRVTGGGAM peptide
	NLVPMVATV	TCRs with shared specificity to NLVPMVATV peptide
	LPRRSGAAGA	TCRs with shared specificity to LPRRSGAAGA peptide
ImmunoMap	TRP2	TCRs responding to TRP2 immunotherapy in tumor-bearing mice
	SIY	TCRs responding to SIY immunotherapy in tumor-bearing mice
Benny Chain	Memory	TCR samples from memory cells
	Naive	TCR samples from naïve cells
Vaccine	7 D Pre	TCR samples collected 7 days before immunization
	0 D Post	TCR samples collected in the day of immunization
	7 D Post	TCR samples collected 7 days after immunization
	15 D Post	TCR samples collected 15 days after immunization
	45 D Post	TCR samples collected 45 days after immunization
	2 Y Post	TCR samples collected 2 years after immunization
Cancer	Healthy	TCRs collected from healthy hosts
	Cancer	TCRs collected from hosts with different types of cancers

Table 2. *AUC values for each category for our four models (AE, AE+V, AE+DIS, AE+DIS+V) and DeepTCR.*

DATASET	CATEGORY	AE AUC	AE+V AUC	AE+DIS AUC	AE+DIS+V AUC	Deep-TCR
GLIPH	CTELKLSDY	0.4	x	0.47	x	**0.5**
	VTEHDTLLY	0.58		0.6		**0.7**
	GLCTLVAML	**0.64**		**0.64**		0.6
	GILGFVFTL	0.61		**0.67**		0.65
	TPRVTGGGAM	0.81		0.54		**0.83**
	NLVPMVATV	0.65		0.56		**0.73**
	LPRRSGAAGA	**0.58**		0.47		**0.58**
	Average	0.61		0.56		**0.65**
ImmunoMap	TRP2	0.78	0.74	0.74	**0.8**	0.71
	SIY	0.68	0.79	0.78	**0.82**	0.71
	Average	0.73	0.765	0.76	**0.81**	0.71
Benny Chain	Memory	**0.58**	x	0.57	x	x
	Naive	**0.57**		0.57		
	Average	**0.575**		0.57		
Vaccine	15 D Post	**0.54**	0.53	0.52	0.52	x
	7 D Post	**0.5**	0.49	0.48	0.48	
	2 Y Post	0.6	0.63	**0.64**	0.62	
	0 D Post	**0.49**	**0.49**	**0.49**	0.48	
	7 D Pre	**0.51**	**0.51**	0.49	0.5	
	45 D Post	0.49	**0.51**	0.5	0.48	
	Average	**0.52**	**0.52**	**0.52**	0.51	
Cancer	Healthy	0.87	0.91	**0.93**	0.91	x
	Cancer	**0.94**	**0.94**	0.86	0.91	
	Average	0.9	**0.925**	0.895	0.91	

We compared the first two datasets with DeepTCR results for a single sequence classifier. When analyzing GLIPH and Benny Chain datasets, no Vs are provided, so there are no models with the combination of V. As for the last three datasets (naïve\memory, vaccine and cancer), we have no comparison since there are no previous classifications for these repertoires. Deep-TCR's based classifiers typically outperform ELATE on GLIPH. However, ELATE based classifier outperforms the Deep-TCR's sequence classifier when classifying TRP2 and SIY samples (ImmunoMap) with an average AUC of 0.81 vs 0.71. ELATE also performs best when

handling TCR samples taken from healthy hosts and hosts with cancer, with an average AUC   276

of 0.925. Here, different combinations of the autoencoder show different results in different   277

datasets and there is no clear pattern of which model is better.   278

Self-density estimate using ELATE   279

Finally, we checked whether the AE can be used to determine how dense is a given sample.   280

This can be defined by the average similarity between TCR in a dataset, or alternatively the   281

frequency of other TCRs from the same dataset around each TCR. We analyzed again the   282

Benny Chain data set of TCR repertoires, and compared alpha to beta chains, naïve to memory   283

and CD4 to CD8 cells self-densities. The self-density of a given sample S is formally defined   284

as the KDE based density between S and itself, where each TCR is ignored for the computation   285

of the density at its own projection. The average density of all groups was normalized to 0 over   286

all projections for the ease of presentation (Figure 5).   287

*Fig. 5. Encoders' self-density (Naive-memory dataset). **A.** Average KDE density within   288
the set of vectors predicted by the basic autoencoder (AE). **B.** Average KDE density   289
within the set of vectors predicted by the basic autoencoder (AE) combined with the   290
clone frequencies. **C.** Average KDE density within the set of vectors predicted by the   291
autoencoder combined with the CDR3 distances (AE+DIS). **D.** Average KDE density   292
within the set of vectors predicted by the autoencoder combined with the CDR3   293
distances (AE+DIS) and the clone frequencies.*   294

When looking at the log of all self KDE values among all samples for the two autoencoders   296

(AE, AE+DIS), with or without the frequencies, alpha chains have a lower self-density than   297

beta chains. This is highly surprising given the theoretically much larger beta repertoire. When   298

the embedding is used, a clear hierarchy can be observed alpha is less dense than beta, CD4 is   299

on average less dense than CD8 and naïve are slightly less dense than memory. In the encoder   300

or when the clone size is used, the same order is kept, but with a much noisier separation. Thus,   301

again the embedding seems to be the method to represent receptors as real-valued vectors.   302

Discussion

Characterization of the repertoire can serve as an indicator for immune monitoring and prognosis assessment for different diseases[11]. Next-generation sequencing (NGS) allows massive analysis of the TCR repertoire with high-throughput and provides descriptive and comparative analysis for million TCRs. The repertoire can analyzed through different features such as the CDR3 set or V gene usage and more. However, current methods of analyzing the repertoire are focused on one measure or another. We have here proposed ELATE a method to integrate them. ELATE, is a projection of TCRs that combines different aspects of the repertoire into a coherent real-valued representation of each clone. ELATE conserves important features of the repertoire. It can be used with unsupervised and supervised methods to distinguish different groups and assign a sequence to a group. ELATE is highly efficient and can be applied to repertoires with millions of clones using standard hardware.

Representing clones as vectors in real space has many advantages, including the possibility of measuring the repertoire density to detect sparse vs dense regions, computing the similarity between repertoires, using clones for machine learning applications, which are often based on real-valued input and visualizations. We have here shown that ELATE can indeed perform these different tasks, and provide important insight on the repertoire, including among many others:

A) The effect of amino acids in the CDR3 region on the repertoire density (with a decreasing density as a function of the number of Glycines or Cysteins), or the increased density around TCR recognizing cognate antigens.

B) The possibility of classifying single clones to specific cognate antigens or specific compartments.

C) The estimate of the repertoire density and the difference between the density of the repertoire in naïve and memory compartments.

D) The similarity between repertoire and showing that samples from different 328
compartments and time points of the same donor are much more similar to other 329
samples from the same donor than to any other sample. Samples of twins are much 330
more similar than samples of non-twins. 331

While we have shown some typical applications of ELATE, the range of possible applications 332
is much greater. Each flavor of ELATE has advantages and limitations. Distance maintaining 333
versions are better for density estimates but produce worse sequence reproduction. Adding the 334
V gene to the encoder improves the quality of clone classification but further reduces the 335
reproduction accuracy. Incorporating the clone frequency helps to distinguish between the 336
average density of some compartments, but often ruins the distance definition between 337
compartments. Thus, for each application of ELATE, one must consider which element should 338
be introduced. 339

We have here used standard parameters for ELATE to ensure optimal reconstruction in the 340
vanilla flavor of ELATE (AE). One may further improve the accuracy of different tasks by 341
tuning the projection parameters for this specific task. However, we suggest that using a 342
uniform projection within and between experiments is important to allow for a consistent 343
method to compare repertoires among different settings. 344

Methods 345

Studied Samples 346

Six previously published datasets with different categories were collected to test ELATE (Table 347
3): 348

- GLIPH (Glanville) [22]. TCR sequences were taken from T-cell binding to 7 different 349
target peptides. Each peptide has one sample of TCRs with a high probability of sharing 350
specificity to it. The TCRs from different individuals were clustered using the GLIPH 351
algorithm. 352

- <u>ImmunoMap (Sidhom)</u> [23]**.** CD8 T cells responding to Kb-TRP2, a shared self-peptide   353

  tumor antigen, and Kb-SIY, a model foreign-antigen, in naïve and tumor-bearing B6   354

  mice.   355

- <u>TILs (Tumor-infiltrating lymphocytes) Immunotherapies (Rudqvist)</u> [30]**.** Samples   356

  were taken from cohorts of tumor-bearing mice treated with radiotherapy (RT), anti–   357

  CTLA-4 (9H10) and a combination of them.   358

- <u>Benny Chain</u>[24]. Peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) of three donors were   359

  sorted into memory (central memory, CM; effector memory, EM; effector memory   360

  RA-expressing revertants, EMRA) and naïve CD4+ and CD8+ populations, alpha and   361

  beta chains.   362

- <u>RF Vaccine</u>[25]. Yellow fever vaccine (YFV) responding TCRs in three pairs of   363

  identical twin donors (P1, P2, Q1, Q2, S1, S2) at different time-points.   364

- <u>Cancer</u>[31]. A collection of TCRs from human hosts with any cancer and healthy hosts   365

  downloaded from the Immune Epitope Database (IEDB)**.**   366

- Not all datasets contain resolved Vs or clone frequencies. All categories, number of   367

  samples, and whether V and frequencies are available are summarized in Table 3 All   368

  datasets are available at https://github.com/louzounlab/Autoencoder.   369

Table 3. *The table contains the dataset name, the categories in each dataset, the*   370

number of sequenced libraries for each category, the number of clones in each   371

category, whether the dataset contains V gene usage, and whether the dataset   372

details the clone frequencies.   373

Dataset	Category	Samples	Clones	Number of different V genes	Frequencies
GLIPH	CTELKLSDY	1	25		
	VTEHDTLLY	1	271	X	X
	GLCTLVAML	1	739		

	GILGFVFTL	1	586		
	TPRVTGGGAM	1	65		
	NLVPMVATV	1	166		
	LPRRSGAAGA	1	214		
ImmunoMap	TRP2	3	488	36	V
	SIY	4	1,106		
TILs Immunotherapies	9H10	5	3,643	27	V
	RT	5	6,707		
	9H10+RT	5	7,826		
	Control	5	3,643		
Benny Chain	Memory	36	675,146	X	V
	Naive	20	1,557,365		
Vaccine	7 D Pre	17	16,786	56	V
	0 D Post	28	27,781		
	7 D Post	24	23,700		
	15 D Post	23	22,320		
	45 D Post	30	29,646		
	2 Y Post	3	2,260		
Cancer	Healthy	1	7,342	82	V
	Cancer	1	409		

Data Curation 375

TCR sequencing files were collected from the sources above. The samples were parsed to 376
compositions of CDR3 Amino Acid sequences and when available the V usage and the 377
frequency per clone. Sequences with non-IUPAC letters (X, *, _, #) were ignored. For each 378
dataset, we used the pre-processing performed in the original manuscript. The J usage was 379
ignored here for the sake of clarity. It can be incorporated the same way as V. 380

Glossary 381

Following is a detailed glossary of all technical terms used in the analysis: 382

Table 4. Glossary of terms used for the current analysis. 383

l	Length of CDR3 sequence
m	Maximal length of CDR3 sequence in an analyzed repertoire
n	Dimension of one-hot representation
n_V	Number of possible Vs in a repertoire

N	Size of the training set
b	Batch size
D_N	Distance matrix of the all Euclidean distances in the training set
D_b	Distance matrix of the all Euclidean distances in a batch
x	Encoder's input vector
z	Encoder's output vector- embedded vector
Z	Length of z
s	The sequence form of x
x'	Reconstructed vector from the decoder's output vector-
s'	The sequence form of x'
V	Set of all different V genes
R	Number of randomly sampled clones
E	R by R edit distance matrix

Data Preprocessing

Since TCRs have varying lengths of CDR3 sequences, right zero-padding was added to all TCRs to generate a constant length representation. A stop signal (!) was first added at the right end of each sequence of length l. The sequence was then converted to a one-hot vector. Each character had a corresponding 21 dimensions one-hot vector (for 20 possible amino acids (AA) and an additional position for the stop signal). The one hot was right zero-padded to produce a constant length representation (Fig. 1).

When combining V usage with the CDR3 sequences, the V genes were represented as n_V dimensional one-hot vectors, where n_V is the number of all possible Vs in a given dataset (each dataset has a different number of different recognized Vs based on the algorithm used for the clone analysis and the sequencing length). The CDR3 and V one-hot vectors were then concatenated. The final representation is the concatenated one-hot vectors in this order: AA_1, AA_2, …., AA_l, stop codon, zero-padding, and (optionally) V.

Autoencoder (AE) training

The AE of ELATE has three internal fully connected symmetric encoder and decoder layers of 300, 100, and 30 nodes. Each layer has a dropout rate of 0.1 and an 'Elu' activation function. Beyond that, there are three additional layers in the decoder (Fig. 1):

A) A reshape layer (to n/21 x 21) that only changes the output vector to a matrix, where each row represents a position in the CDR3, or the V gene (Technically, the V is represented as different vectors, since it has a different dimension than the AA).

B) A fully connected layer with 'softmax' activation function on each row separately

C) Another reshape layer (back to nx1 dimensions).

The AE was trained with an 'Adam' optimizer with a learning rate of 0.0001 and a Mean Square Error (MSE) loss (Eq. 1). The number of epochs for the training varied for different datasets, where N is the number of samples in the training set.

$$1. loss_{MSE} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

Training AE to maintain the distance

To combine the original CDR3s distances in the training process, we first computed the NxN size distance matrix D_N of all Euclidean distances among all pairs of one-hot representation of TCRs from all samples in the training set. Then, batches of b samples were generated from the training set along with their corresponding b size distances matrices D_b produced from D_N.

Then, to conserve the distances in the embedded space, the Euclidean distances between pairs of projections and the original Euclidean distance between the original pairs in the input set (Eq. 2). was added to the loss function ($loss_{DIS}$).

$$2. loss_{DIS} = \sum_{i \in b} (\sqrt{\sum_{j > i \in b} (z_i - z_j)^2} - D_{ij})^2$$

where z_i and z_j are the embedded vectors of x_i and x_j and D_{ij} is the Euclidean distance between x_i and x_j.

Autoencoder accuracy

To test the AE prediction, we used the fraction of sequences properly reconstructed, instead of

the loss function used for the learning process. The reconstructed sequence was produced by

replacing the softmax by a rigid max in layer B above, and a translation of the one-hot back to

a sequence, stopping at the leftmost stop signal or at the end of the CDR3. If the length of the

reconstructed vector was different than the length of the original vector, the entire

reconstruction was defined as an error. Otherwise, the error level was defined as the number of

positions differing between the original and reconstructed sequence. Thus an error rate of 15 %

for one mismatch implies that 15 % of all sequences either had a wrong length or the proper

length and one mismatch.

Training Classifier

The classifier is composed of the previously described encoder, combined with four fully

connected layers with 30, 15, 10 and 1 dimensions, with a dropout of 0.1 after the second and

third layers, and a *Tanh* activation-function except for the last layer, where we use a sigmoid.

The classifier is trained with similar parameters as the encoder and a cross-entropy loss (Eq. 3)

(Fig. 1). When the classifier was trained, the encoder weights were fixed. For multi-class, the

encoder was trained as one vs all.

$$3. loss_{BinaryCrossentropy} = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i \log(p(y_i)) + (1 - y_i)\log(1 - p(y_i))$$

The classifier was trained as one vs all classifier, for each of the categories in the various

datasets.

KL Similarity

When analyzing only V gene usage, the V-gene distributions were computed for a random set

of *R* clones from each sample. Then, the distance between the distribution of a pair of samples

p and q was defined to be their KL divergence [32] (Eq. 4).

$$4.\, D(p \| q) = \sum_{v_i \in V} p(v_i) \log(\frac{p(v_i)}{q(v_i)})$$

ED Similarity

A two-sample edit distance was determined as the average of all minimum values per row in *E*,

where *E* is a *RXR* distance matrix of the edit distances (Levenshtein distance) of R random

clones in both samples. Levenshtein distance represents the number of insertions, deletions, and

substitutions required to change one word to another[29]. When computing the self-distance, the

diagonal values were ignored. Note that the edit distance is different than the one-hot distance.

KDE Similarity

Given two of projections of samples, S1={x_1, x_2, ..., x_R} and S2={y_1, y_2, ..., y_R} (or a single

projection if S1 and S2 are the same), we estimated the local density using a Kernel Density

Estimator KDE[20]. However, in contrast with standard KDE, we here found the density of

each projection in S1 with respect to the projections in S2 (Eq. 5).

$$5.\, f_h(x) = \frac{1}{Rh} \sum_{i=1}^{R} K(\frac{x - y_i}{h})$$

where K is the kernel, and *h> 0* is a smoothing parameter called the *bandwidth*. x is the

projection of a TCR in sample S1, while y are all projections in sample S2

We can define the average density of the projections S1 in S2 as the average of densities for all

vectors in S1. When measuring the density of samples in S1 vs S2 in combination with the

frequencies, each TCR clone was multiplied by its clone size (Eq. 6).

$$6.\, f_h(x) = \frac{1}{Rh} \sum_{i=1}^{R} freq_{x_i} K(\frac{x - x_i}{h})$$

Also, the new representation of the data allowed us to define for the first time the average self-

density of a given repertoire, as the density when S1 and S2 are the same, and ignoring for each

projected sequence its own contribution to its density. Here, we used Gaussian kernel and h =

1.06*STD(S)*len(S)**(-1/5) [33].

Statistical analysis 468

The difference between the various methods in our analysis was tested using two-way 469

ANOVA[34],and Tukey's test. An ANOVA test was performed with all autoencoder models. 470

Then, Tukey's test was performed between all methods and categories pairs in order to find 471

which are significantly different. The clustering of samples was done using Hierarchical cluster 472

analysis (HCA) [35] using average linkage on the KL, ED and KDE distances matrices. 473

Visualization with TSNE 474

T-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (TSNE)[36] is a nonlinear dimensionality 475

reduction technique well-suited for embedding high-dimensional data for visualization in a 476

low-dimensional space of two or three dimensions. Specifically, it models each high- 477

dimensional object by a two- or three-dimensional point in such a way that similar objects are 478

modeled by nearby points and dissimilar objects are modeled by distant points with high 479

probability. We here use TSNE to visualize the embedded vectors of 30 dimensions in two 480

dimensions. 481

References 483

1.   Bassing CH, Swat W, Alt FW. The Mechanism and Regulation of Chromosomal V (D) 484
J Recombination. Cell. 2002;109(D):45-55. 485
2.   Benichou JIC, van Heijst JWJ, Glanville J, Louzoun Y. Converging evolution leads to near 486
maximal junction diversity through parallel mechanisms in B and T cell receptors. Physical 487
Biology. 2017;14(4):045003-. doi: 10.1088/1478-3975/aa7366. 488
3.   Benichou J, Ben-Hamo R, Louzoun Y, Efroni S. Rep-Seq: uncovering the immunological 489
repertoire through next-generation sequencing. Immunology. 2012;135(3):183-91. doi: 490
10.1111/j.1365-2567.2011.03527.x. 491
4.   Heather JM, Ismail M, Oakes T, Chain B. High-throughput sequencing of the T-cell 492
receptor repertoire: pitfalls and opportunities. Briefings in bioinformatics. 2018;19(4):554-65. 493
doi: 10.1093/bib/bbw138. 494
5.   Muraro PA, Robins H, Malhotra S, Howell M, Phippard D, Desmarais C, et al. T cell 495
repertoire following autologous stem cell transplantation for multiple sclerosis. The Journal 496
of clinical investigation. 2014;124(3):1168-72. doi: 10.1172/JCI71691. 497
6.   Kedzierska K, Izraelson M, Tatiana O, Egorov ES, Kasatskaya SA, Ekaterina V, et al. 498
Origin and evolution of the T cell repertoire after posttransplantation cyclophosphamide. 499
2016;9(June):133-44. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2018.01453. 500

7.   Pogorelyy MV, Fedorova AD, McLaren JE, Ladell K, Bagaev DV, Eliseev AV, et al.   501
Exploring the pre-immune landscape of antigen-specific T cells. Genome Medicine.   502
2018;10(1):68-82.   503
8.   Gerlinger M, Quezada SA, Peggs KS, Furness AJS, Fisher R, Marafioti T, et al. Ultra-   504
deep T cell receptor sequencing reveals the complexity and intratumour heterogeneity of T   505
cell clones in renal cell carcinomas. The Journal of pathology. 2013;231(4):424-32. doi: 506
10.1002/path.4284.   507
9.   Rosati E, Dowds CM, Liaskou E, Henriksen EKK, Karlsen TH, Franke A. Overview of   508
methodologies for T-cell receptor repertoire analysis. BMC Biotechnology. 2017;17(1). doi: 509
10.1186/s12896-017-0379-9.   510
10.   Alves Sousa AdP, Johnson KR, Ohayon J, Zhu J, Muraro PA, Jacobson S. Comprehensive   511
Analysis of TCR-β Repertoire in Patients with Neurological Immune-mediated Disorders.   512
Scientific Reports. 2019;9(1). doi: 10.1038/s41598-018-36274-7.   513
11.   Cui JH, Lin KR, Yuan SH, Jin YB, Chen XP, Su XK, et al. TCR repertoire as a novel indicator   514
for immune monitoring and prognosis assessment of patients with cervical cancer. Frontiers   515
in Immunology. 2018;9(NOV). doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2018.02729.   516
12.   Sidhom J-W, Larman HB, Pardoll DM, Baras AS. DeepTCR: a deep learning framework   517
for revealing structural concepts within TCR Repertoire. bioRxiv. 2018:464107-. doi: 518
10.1101/464107.   519
13.   Springer I, Besser H, Tickotsky-Moskovitz N, Dvorkin S, Louzoun Y. Prediction of   520
specific TCR-peptide binding from large dictionaries of TCR-peptide pairs. bioRxiv.   521
2019:650861-. doi: 10.1101/650861.   522
14.   Farmanbar A, Kneller R, Firouzi S. RNA sequencing identifies clonal structure of T-cell   523
repertoires in patients with adult T-cell leukemia/lymphoma. npj Genomic Medicine.   524
2019;4(1). doi: 10.1038/s41525-019-0084-9.   525
15.   Schrama D, Ritter C, Becker JC. T cell receptor repertoire usage in cancer as a surrogate   526
marker for immune responses. Seminars in immunopathology. 2017;39(3):255-68. doi: 527
10.1007/s00281-016-0614-9.   528
16.   Kaplinsky J, Arnaout R. Robust estimates of overall immune-repertoire diversity from   529
high-throughput measurements on samples. Nature Communications. 2016;7. doi: 530
10.1038/ncomms11881.   531
17.   Sethna Z, Elhanati Y, Callan CG, Walczak AM, Mora T. OLGA: fast computation of   532
generation probabilities of B- and T-cell receptor amino acid sequences and motifs.   533
Bioinformatics. 2019. doi: 10.1093/bioinformatics/btz035.   534
18.   Tickotsky-Moskovitz N, Dvorkin S, Rotkopf A, Kuperman AA, Efroni S, Louzoun Y. CDR3   535
and V- genes show distinct reconstitution patterns in T-cell repertoire post allogenic bone   536
marrow   transplantation.   bioRxiv.   2020:2020.03.05.977900-2020.03.05.   doi: 537
10.1101/2020.03.05.977900.   538
19.   Hinton GE, Salakhutdinov RR. Reducing the dimensionality of data with neural   539
networks. Science. 2006;313(5786):504-7. doi: 10.1126/science.1127647.   540
20.   Parzen E. On Estimation of a Probability Density Function and Mode. The Annals of   541
Mathematical Statistics. 1962;33(3):1065-76. doi: 10.1214/aoms/1177704472.   542
21.   Hochreiter S, Schmidhuber J. Long Short-Term Memory. Neural Computation.   543
1997;9(8):1735-80. doi: 10.1162/neco.1997.9.8.1735.   544
22.   Glanville J, Huang H, Nau A, Hatton O, Wagar LE, Rubelt F, et al. Identifying specificity   545
groups in the T cell receptor repertoire. Nature. 2017;547(7661):94-8. doi: 546
10.1038/nature22976.   547
23.   Sidhom J-W, Bessell CA, Havel JJ, Kosmides A, Chan TA, Schneck JP. ImmunoMap: A   548
Bioinformatics Tool for T-cell Repertoire Analysis. Cancer immunology research.   549
2018;6(2):151-62. doi: 10.1158/2326-6066.CIR-17-0114.   550

24.   Oakes T, Heather JM, Best K, Byng-Maddick R, Husovsky C, Ismail M, et al. Quantitative Characterization of the T Cell Receptor Repertoire of Naïve and Memory Subsets Using an Integrated Experimental and Computational Pipeline Which Is Robust, Economical, and Versatile. Frontiers in immunology. 2017;8:1267-. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2017.01267.

25.   Pogorelyy MV, Minervina AA, Touzel MP, Sycheva AL, Komech EA, Kovalenko EI, et al. Precise tracking of vaccine-responding T cell clones reveals convergent and personalized response in identical twins. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America. 2018;115(50):12704-9. doi: 10.1073/pnas.1809642115.

26.   Toledano A, Elhanati Y, Benichou JIC, Walczak AM, Mora T, Louzoun Y. Evidence for Shaping of Light Chain Repertoire by Structural Selection. Frontiers in Immunology. 2018;9:1307-. doi: 10.3389/fimmu.2018.01307.

27.   Pickman Y, Dunn-Walters D, Mehr R. BCR CDR3 length distributions differ between blood and spleen and between old and young patients, and TCR distributions can be used to detect myelodysplastic syndrome. Physical biology. 2013;10(5):056001-. doi: 10.1088/1478-3975/10/5/056001.

28.   Elhanati Y, Sethna Z, Callan CG, Mora T, Walczak AM. Predicting the spectrum of TCR repertoire sharing with a data-driven model of recombination. Immunological reviews. 2018;284(1):167-79. doi: 10.1111/imr.12665.

29.   Postow MA, Manuel M, Wong P, Yuan J, Dong Z, Liu C, et al. Peripheral T cell receptor diversity is associated with clinical outcomes following ipilimumab treatment in metastatic melanoma. Journal for ImmunoTherapy of Cancer. 2015;3(1). doi: 10.1186/s40425-015-0070-4.

30.   Rudqvist N-P, Pilones KA, Lhuillier C, Wennerberg E, Sidhom J-W, Emerson RO, et al. Radiotherapy and CTLA-4 Blockade Shape the TCR Repertoire of Tumor-Infiltrating T Cells. Cancer immunology research. 2018;6(2):139-50. doi: 10.1158/2326-6066.CIR-17-0134.

31.   Dvorkin S. Autoencoder/cancer data IEDB at master · shiritdvir/Autoencoder · GitHub. 2020.

32.   Kullback S, Leibler RA. On Information and Sufficiency. The Annals of Mathematical Statistics. 1951;22(1):79-86. doi: 10.1214/aoms/1177729694.

33.   Silverman BW. Density estimation for statistics and data analysis: CRC press; 1986.

34.   Sawyer SF. Analysis of Variance: The Fundamental Concepts. Journal of Manual & Manipulative Therapy. 2009;17(2):27E-38E. doi: 10.1179/jmt.2009.17.2.27e.

35.   Johnson SC. Hierarchical clustering schemes. Psychometrika. 1967;32(3):241-54. doi: 10.1007/BF02289588.

36.   Maaten Lvd, Hinton G. Visualizing data using t-SNE. Journal of machine learning research. 2008;9(Nov):2579-605.

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5