

Classification of ovarian cancer cell lines using transcriptional profiles defines the five major pathological subtypes

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1 **Abstract**

2 Epithelial ovarian cancer (EOC) is a heterogenous disease consisting of five major
3 pathologically distinct subtypes: High-grade serous ovarian carcinoma (HGSOC), low-grade serous
4 (LGS), endometrioid, clear cell and mucinous carcinoma. Although HGSOC is the most prevalent
5 subtype, representing approximately 75% of cases, a 2013 landmark study from Domcke *et al.*,
6 found that many frequently used ovarian cancer cell lines were not genetically representative of
7 HGSOC tissue samples from The Cancer Genome Atlas. Although this work subsequently identified
8 several rarely used cell lines to be highly suitable as HGSOC models, cell line selection for ovarian
9 cancer research does not appear to have altered substantially in recent years. Here, we find that
10 application of non-negative matrix factorisation (NMF) to the transcriptional profiles of 45 commonly
11 used ovarian cancer cell lines exquisitely clusters them into five distinct classes, representative of
12 the five main subtypes of EOC. This methodology was in strong agreement with Domcke *et al.*, in
13 identification of cell lines most representative of HGSOC. Furthermore, this robust classification of
14 cell lines, including some previously not annotated or miss-annotated in the literature, now informs
15 selection of the most appropriate models for all five pathological subtypes of ovarian cancer.
16 Furthermore, using machine learning algorithms trained using the classification of the current cell
17 lines, we are able provide a methodology for future classification of novel EOC cell lines.

18 Introduction

19 Ovarian cancer is the most common cause of gynaecological-related cancer death in Europe
20 and North America (Bray et al., 2018). Epithelial ovarian cancer (EOC), which accounts for 80% of
21 all ovarian tumours, is now considered to be a heterogeneous disease consisting of five main
22 histological subtypes characterised by different clinical and molecular features (Lheureux et al.,
23 2019). High-grade serous ovarian carcinoma (HGSOC) is the most prevalent group, accounting for
24 approximately 75% of cases, while the remaining 25% are made up of low-grade serous (LGS),
25 endometrioid, clear cell and mucinous carcinoma (Kurman et al., 2014). Endometrioid and mucinous
26 carcinoma are further sub-classified into well, moderately and poorly differentiated tumours (grade
27 1 to 3, respectively) (Kurman et al., 2014). Diagnosis of each subtype of EOC involves histological
28 examination in combination with immunohistochemistry analysis, which is considered gold standard
29 (Kurman et al., 2014).

30 Expansion of next generation sequencing has enabled closer inspection of the unique
31 genomes of each subtype of EOC. HGSOC are characterised by near-ubiquitous *TP53* mutation
32 and genome-wide copy-number variation (CNV), with germline or somatic *BRCA1/2* variants present
33 in ~ 20% of cases (Bell et al., 2011; Ciriello et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2018). LGS less frequently
34 shows *TP53* mutation, and instead variants in the MAPK signalling pathway are observed (e.g.
35 *KRAS*, *NRAS*, *BRAF*) (Etemadmoghadam et al., 2017; Fernandez et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2012).
36 Clear cell carcinomas and well-differentiated (i.e., grade 1) endometrioid carcinomas are commonly
37 associated with endometriosis and *ARID-1A* variants (Jones et al., 2010; Wiegand et al., 2010).
38 Finally, mucinous ovarian carcinoma is associated with *KRAS* variants and *ERBB2* amplifications
39 (Cheasley et al., 2019).

40 Cancer cell lines are often used as model systems to study cancer; however, most were
41 established many years ago and have either genetically drifted from the original patient cells and/or
42 lack sufficient clinical data to allow robust tumour type classification. For example, much of ovarian
43 cancer research has been based on the SKOV-3 cell line, however an in-depth analysis of copy-
44 number changes, mutations and microarray-based mRNA expression profiles revealed that this cell
45 line and others are actually atypical, bearing few hallmarks of the most common type of ovarian
46 cancer, HGSOC, as defined by comparison with patient samples from The Cancer Genome Atlas
47 (Bell et al., 2011; Domcke et al., 2013). Indeed, this analysis by Domcke *et al.* represented a
48 landmark in the field, identifying a number of Cancer Cell Line Encyclopaedia (CCLE) cell lines that
49 better reflect the genomic and mRNA expression landscapes of HGSOC.

50 This raises a key question: without directly associated clinical and/or histopathological
51 annotation, how does one determine which of the subtypes any given cell line or patient biopsy
52 reflects? Here we set out to address this question by asking whether it is possible to distinguish EOC
53 subtypes based on molecular fingerprints, in particular one derived from RNA-sequencing (RNAseq).
54 While the utility of RNAseq as a tool for developing prognostic biomarkers is still in its infancy, the
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55 technique is tried and tested, has the potential to provide a wealth of information by interrogating the
56 expression levels of tens of thousands of genes and is gradually becoming more accessible and less
57 costly. The challenge is in the distilling of robust signatures that correlate with specific phenotypes
58 from these complex datasets.

59 One approach to reducing the complexity of RNAseq data is non-negative matrix factorisation
60 (NMF), which has been utilised to reduce the dimensionality of transcriptional profiles from
61 thousands of genes to a subset of important metagenes, concurrently providing meaningful class
62 discovery (Brunet et al., 2004). Here, we apply NMF to the gene expression profiles of 45 EOC cell
63 lines sequenced as part of the CCLE. We demonstrate the decomposition of this panel of EOC cell
64 lines into five robust clusters that recapitulate the characteristics of the different pathological
65 histotypes. In turn, this allows reclassification of several cell lines that were previously not annotated
66 or possibly miss-annotated. Our results align well with the analysis by Domcke et al., which was
67 based on CCLE's earlier microarray gene expression dataset. Our analysis further facilitates
68 selection of cell lines appropriate for research of HGSOE, and in addition identifies cell lines
69 representing the other four EOC subtypes. We also provide a methodology for future classification
70 of novel cell lines using a K-nearest neighbour (KNN) classifier trained on the CCLE cell lines.

71 **Results and Discussion**

72 **Most frequently utilised CCLE lines are unlikely to be representative of HGSOC**

73 The analyses by Domcke *et al.* represents an important milestone in the field, ranking 47
74 ovarian cancer cell lines according to their genetic and gene expression resemblance to HGSOC. In
75 the intervening seven years, additional data has become available, in particular RNAseq data. We
76 therefore set out to revisit this issue. Our aim was to determine whether the next generation of gene
77 expression profiling clusters EOC cell lines into the different histotypes by NMF, and evaluate the
78 ability of common machine learning algorithms, KNN, random forest and support vector machine
79 (SVM), trained to identify the NMF-assigned class.

80 Firstly, we performed an extensive literature search to collate all annotations related to the
81 47 CCLE cell lines with site of origin indicated to be the ovary (with available RNAseq data). This
82 identified 44 cell lines of EOC origin, eliminating 3 representing the non-epithelial Brenner and
83 granulosa tumour types, and an engineered/immortalised cell line. Information gathered included
84 reported histotype, specimen site, pre-biopsy treatment, the HGSOC likelihood score (as determined
85 by Domcke *et al.*) and any other relevant information, for example, age and clinical course (Table
86 S1). We also determined cell line usage in research by PubMed search (see Table S2 for search
87 terms, including aliases for each cell line). Interestingly cell line selection has not substantially altered
88 in recent years, despite publication of Domcke's landmark study in 2013. Seven cell lines (ranked
89 by most highly used: SKOV-3, A2780, OVCAR-3, IGROV-1, CAO-3, 59M and OVCAR-8)
90 collectively constitute almost 90% of the total PubMed citations (Fig. 1). Of these 7, only three
91 received a 'HGSOC-likely' score in the analysis by Domcke *et al.* (OVCAR-3, CAO-3 and 59M).
92 Strikingly, seven cell lines scoring highly as 'HGSOC-likely', KURAMOCHI, OVSAHO, SNU-119,
93 COV362, OVCAR-4, COV318 and JHOS-4, only constitute 1.07% of PubMed usages of the 44 EOC
94 cell lines included in the CCLE. Furthermore, as late as 2019, SKOV-3 and A2780 remain the first
95 and second most highly studied cell lines in ovarian cancer research, respectively, despite their
96 purported unsuitability as HGSOC cell line models.

97

98 **Cancer cell lines cluster into classes representative of the five EOC histotypes**

99 Next we obtained from the European Nucleotide Archive the raw RNAseq files for the 44
100 EOC cell lines analysed by the recent CCLE project (Ghandi *et al.*, 2019) and mapped reads to the
101 GRCh38 human genome assembly with gene annotations from Gencode v32. The most important
102 parameter to estimate in any clustering method is the optimum number of clusters (k) for the data.
103 The consensus matrix methodology by Monti *et al.* (2003) is frequently used in the evaluation of
104 clustering, where the entries of the consensus map are coloured from 0 to 1, reflecting the probability
105 of clustering of two samples together across multiple runs of NMF (see Fig. S1 for consensus maps
106 of all NMF models from k of 2 to 7).

107 Many quality metrics have been proposed to assess the optimum value of k (Fig. 2A): briefly,
108 Brunet et al. (2004) proposed the cophenetic correlation coefficient, Kim and Park (2007) proposed
109 the dispersion coefficient, Rousseeuw *et al.* (1987) proposed the silhouette width. In each instance,
110 the value of k that results in maximum of the coefficient is chosen as optimum. Additionally, Hutchins
111 et al (2008) utilised the variation of the residual sums of squares (RSS) between the original data
112 and estimated data (not shown). The value of k at which the plot of RSS for each value of k shows
113 an inflection point can be chosen as the optimum. Plotting these metrics for 2 to 10 clusters revealed
114 that both two and five clusters fitted the dataset well (Fig. 1A). However, at a factorisation rank of
115 two, no biologically interpretable clustering was apparent, with cell lines reported as individual
116 subtypes split across the two clusters (Fig. S1a). We backwards annotated each cell line with the
117 cluster assignment from the NMF run using 5 clusters, and performed consensus clustering on the
118 result of the NMF run using just two clusters (not shown). There was no readily observable
119 stratification of the five clusters, or combination thereof, with each of the five clusters split across the
120 two clusters. We inferred, therefore, that there were no nested structures present within the data as
121 k was increased from 2 to 5, as was observed previously in the classification of leukaemia samples
122 using NMF (Brunet et al., 2004). Brunet *et al.* found that at a factorisation rank of 2, ALL and AML
123 samples clustered separately. As the factorisation rank was increased from 2 to 3, the ALL cluster
124 divided into the T-cell and B-cell distinctions. Thus, NMF has been reported to reveal hierarchical
125 structure when it exists, without forcing such structure on the data (as other clustering models may),
126 highlighting the strengths of NMF over other methods (Brunet et al., 2004).

127 In the CCLE EOC dataset, NMF together with consensus clustering gave strong evidence
128 for a five-class split with clear block diagonal patterns and correspondingly high-quality metrics, with
129 $k=5$ cophenetic and silhouette width scores second only to $k=2$ (Fig. 2A). However, the dispersion
130 score was highest for $k=5$ (Fig. 2A), and the RSS curve shows an inflection point at $k=5$ (not shown),
131 tying $k=2$ and $k=5$ as the optimum. We then examined the subtype assigned by the primary literature
132 source for each cell line (where available; Table S1). Interestingly, this showed a clear
133 overrepresentation of cell lines from a given subtype contained within each cluster, suggesting that
134 the clusters identified by NMF are representative of the major EOC subtypes of ovarian cancer (Fig.
135 1B).

136

137 **High grade serous ovarian carcinoma**

138 We begin our discussion of the five clusters with the top left of the consensus map (Fig. 2B;
139 dark purple). Of the cell lines in this cluster, 8 of 16 were assigned 'serous' in their primary literature
140 annotation. Of the remaining 8 cell lines, 1 was reported as endometrioid (COV362) and the subtype
141 of the remaining 7 was not specified in the literature. Given the putative identification of this cluster
142 as representing HGSOC-derived cell lines, we wanted to align our results with the likelihood scores
143 of these cell lines determined in the analysis by Domcke *et al.* (Fig. 1B; blue/green graduated track).

144 In fact, all 16 cell lines that fall within this cluster were within the top 20 scoring cell lines in the
145 previous analysis, providing remarkable confirmation of the methodology used here and by Domcke
146 *et al.* for annotating cell lines as representative of HGSOC. Of the cell lines not placed into the
147 HGSOC cluster, but ranked in the top 20 of Domcke *et al.*, TYK-nu and 59M were designated 'likely
148 HGS' and JHOM-2B and ES2 'possibly HGSOC'. We discuss these cell lines in the context of their
149 assigned cluster in the relevant sections below. Therefore, clustering, confirmed several cell lines
150 without specified subtype in their primary literature source, to represent good models of HGSOC,
151 including KURAMOCHI, OVCAR-4, Caov-4, OAW28, Caov-3, ONCO-DG-1, and OVCAR-3. The cell
152 lines OVSAHO, SNU-119, COV318, JHOS-4, JHOS-2, OVKATE, FU-OV-1 and SNU-8 retained their
153 literature classification as 'HGSOC' in our analysis.

154 COV362 was initially annotated as endometrioid in the literature, however here we find it
155 clusters with the cell lines representing HGSOC. This line has a *TP53* mutation and a *BRCA2*
156 mutation, lesions characteristic of HGSOC, supporting the placement of COV362 as HGSOC.
157 However, it should be noted that SNU8 and, to a lesser extent, COV362, show disparate clustering
158 across 200 runs of NMF with random initialisation points. COV362 also clustered 25% of the time
159 into cluster 3 (low grade serous), suggesting that it may share some characteristics of these cell
160 lines. Importantly, it does not cluster in any of the NMF runs with other cell lines reported as
161 endometrioid, further suggesting that this designation may be incorrect. SNU8 also clustered in
162 approx. 42% of NMF runs with cluster 3 (low grade serous) and in 14% with cluster 4 (mucinous)

163

164 **Clear cell**

165 In the next cluster (second from the left; green), there is an enrichment of cell lines which
166 were defined as clear cell in their primary literature source. In fact, of the 10 cells lines, 6 were
167 annotated as clear cell in the original publication, 2 were annotated as serous, 1 mixed and 1 was
168 not specified. No cell lines annotated primarily as clear cell in the literature fell into any other cluster.
169 The two samples previously annotated as serous were EFO21 and OAW42. Indeed, both of these
170 cell lines received relatively low HGSOC likelihood scores in the analysis by Domcke *et al.*,
171 suggesting they are poor HGSOC models. Unlike almost all HGSOC, OAW42 has wild-type *TP53*.
172 However, it does harbour two separate frameshift mutations within *ARID1A*, supporting its
173 designation here as clear cell (Wiegand et al., 2010). Although EFO21 has mutated *TP53*, and no
174 *ARID1A* mutation, these cells have amplification of *PIK3CA*, showing resultant mRNA expression
175 levels within the 93rd percentile of CCLE cell lines. The most common mutations identified by
176 sequencing of a 46 gene panel using pure clear cell samples included mutations in *PIK3CA* (50.0%;
177 52 of 104 cases tested), *TP53* (18.1%; 19/105), and *KRAS* (12.4%; 13/105) (Friedlander et al.,
178 2016). Our analysis therefore also supports EFO21 classification as a clear cell line.

179 The most heavily used ovarian cancer cell line, SKOV-3, also falls within this cluster. Despite
180 its extensive use, the primary literature source does not designate SKOV-3 to any particular subtype.
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181 Interestingly, SKOV-3 may actually be one of the most typical examples of clear cell as they harbour
182 aberrations of three of the most commonly mutated proteins in clear cell ovarian cancer: *PIK3CA*,
183 *ARID1A* and *TP53*. Therefore, designation here as clear cell is most likely an accurate representation
184 of this cell line.

185

186 ***Low grade serous***

187 In our analysis TYK-nu and 59M cluster together in cluster 3, which we believe to represent
188 LGS. The CCLE/broad institute report TYK-nu as having a *TP53* mutation, which molecular studies
189 of LGS suggest are less common in this subtype (8% in LGS versus 96% in HGSOC) (Bell et al.,
190 2011; Singer et al., 2005). However, LGS is also characterized by activation of the mitogen-activated
191 protein kinase (MAPK) pathway. Mutations affecting this pathway are seen in *KRAS*, *NRAS* and
192 *BRAF* genes, in addition to multiple alterations affecting other genes related to this pathway
193 (Etemadmoghadam et al., 2017; Fernandez et al., 2019; Jones et al., 2012). In addition, copy
194 number alterations and mutations affecting 61 MAPK-related genes were recently identified in 14
195 LGS cell lines (Fernandez et al., 2019). In this vein, TYK-nu have two mutations within *NRAS*, a
196 member of the RAS/RAF pathway not included within Domcke's scoring schema. Furthermore, TYK-
197 nu is derived from a 38-year-old patient in line with reports that LGS affects women at a younger
198 age than HGSOC, with a median age at diagnosis for LGS of between 43 and 47 years (Gershenson,
199 2016; Gershenson et al., 2015). 59M, while also harbouring a *TP53* mutation, has three mutations
200 in proteins in the MAPK pathway (Ghandi et al., 2019), and is therefore characteristic of LGS
201 (previously annotated as endometrioid). (Wilson et al., 1996)

202 The group of Coscia *et al.* used a proteomic signature to stratify putative HGSOC cell lines
203 into three distinct groups (Coscia et al., 2016). Although the majority of cell lines with a high genetic
204 fidelity to HGSOC were classified as group I and bore a more epithelial proteome, the two cell lines
205 that clustered in group III with a more mesenchymal proteome were 59M and TYK-nu. While there
206 was a striking concordance between the proteomic signature of group I cell lines and HGSOC patient
207 samples, as well as cultured fallopian tube epithelial cells, group III cell lines resembled the signature
208 of immortalized ovarian surface epithelial cells. Although the authors suggest that heterogeneity
209 exists in the proteome of HGSOC based on disparate sites of origin (Coscia et al., 2016), it could be
210 argued that these differences actually represent the differences between HGSOC and LGS-derived
211 cell lines.

212 Collectively, this suggests TYK-nu and 59M form part of a cluster of 8 LGS cell lines (Fig.
213 1B; light purple). As LGS represents a fairly recent descriptor, it is difficult to infer this annotation
214 from primary literature annotations of cells lines. Here we identify 4 cell lines, TYK-nu, HeyA8, ES2,
215 and OVCAR8, which were previously unspecified in the literature, to be representative of LGS. In
216 addition, JHOM-1 also clusters here, which was initially annotated as mucinous in its primary
217 literature source.

218

219 **Mucinous**

220 Of five cancer cell lines annotated in their primary reference as mucinous, four of them fall into cluster
221 number 4. These are MCAS, RMUG-S, COV644 and JHOM-2B. Of the cell lines determined to be
222 in the top 20 of HGSOC likely cell lines by Domcke *et al.*, JHOM-2B is reported in the literature as
223 mucinous and our NMF also clusters it with the majority of other mucinous cell lines, suggesting its
224 original classification is correct. In fact, Domcke *et al.* ranked JHOM-2B as 19th, close to the
225 threshold for designation as 'possibly HGS'. Indeed, this cell line does harbour a *TP53* mutation,
226 which may disproportionately influence its standing in the analysis by Domcke *et al.* However, while
227 *TP53* mutations are almost ubiquitous in HGSOC ovarian cancer, around 16% of mucinous tumours
228 show mutated *TP53* (Schuijjer & Berns, 2003). The fifth cell line reported as mucinous in its original
229 publication is JHOM-1, falls into the cluster we tentatively class as LGS (discussed previously).

230 The cell line OV-90 also clusters with the mucinous cell line, which originally was not designated a
231 subtype in the original articles. In support of its mucinous designation, it harbours *ERB2* amplification
232 and *BRAF* mutation which have been demonstrated in mucinous ovarian cancer (Cheasley *et al.*,
233 2019; Friedlander *et al.*, 2015).

234

235 **Endometrioid**

236 Finally, the fifth cluster, designated endometrioid, is constituted of two cell lines that were
237 annotated as such in their primary reference, namely TOV112D and OVK18. Two other cell lines
238 annotated as endometrioid in their primary reference fall into cluster 3 (which we tentatively label as
239 the LGS cluster; 59M) and cluster 1 (HGSOC cluster; COV362), and their suitability to fit these
240 clusters has been discussed previously. Two further cell lines that cluster as endometrioid here,
241 A2780 and OC314, were not assigned a subtype in their primary literature source and are therefore
242 newly annotated as potential models of endometrioid ovarian cancer.

243 Lastly, EFO-27 also clusters within the endometrioid cluster. Although this cell line was
244 originally classified as serous in the literature, it received a poor HGS-likelihood score in the work by
245 Domcke *et al.*, giving initial evidence of its unsuitability as a HGSOC model cell line. EFO27 cells
246 harbour a missense mutation in *PPP2R1A*, which has previously been found to be mutated in 12.2%
247 (5/41) of endometrioid ovarian cancers, but not in 50 high-grade and 12 low-grade serous
248 carcinomas (McConechy *et al.*, 2011). More recent genetic screens of endometrioid ovarian cancer
249 identified similar driver mutations to endometrial carcinoma, including *PTEN*, *CTNNB1*, *PIK3CA*,
250 *ARID1A*, *TP53*, *KMT2D*, *KMT2B* and *PIK3R1* (Pierson *et al.*, 2020). Indeed, with the exception of
251 *CTNNB1*, EFO-27 have mutations in all these genes (Ghandi *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, the genetic
252 similarities between EFO-27 and endometrioid ovarian cancer support it representing a better model
253 of this type of ovarian cancer, than of HGSOC. However, it should be noted that this cell line has a

254 poor silhouette score in our consensus map (Fig. 2B), clustering with other endometrioid cell lines
255 58% of the time, and with cluster 4 (the mucinous cluster) in the other NMF runs. Of the genetic
256 lesions associated with mucinous ovarian cancer (Friedlander et al., 2015), EFO-27 harbours *PTEN*
257 and *PIK3CA*. This cell line does not harbour *KRAS* mutation or *ERBB2* amplification, however, which
258 have been shown to be mutated in mucinous ovarian cancer (Cheasley et al., 2019).

259

260 **Evaluating machine learning algorithms to classify ovarian cancer subtypes**

261 We next sought to determine whether the NMF class given to each cell line could be used to
262 train a machine learning model to predict the subtype of a 'hold-out' set. Genes whose expression
263 levels were characteristic for each cluster were extracted with each cluster containing between 23
264 and 82 such metagenes. The largest number of metagenes was associated with the putative
265 HGSOC cluster (82), followed by, endometrioid (40), LGS (35), mucinous (28) and clear cell (23)
266 (Fig. 3A). We next evaluated the classification potential of several common machine learning
267 algorithms: KNN, random forests and SVM. The 45 cell lines were randomly partitioned into four
268 groups, such that each group had an even representation of cell lines from each subtype. Then,
269 each model was trained to each successive set of 3 groups, and model performance tested on the
270 omitted group. This meant that each sample had an opportunity to be both trained and tested on.
271 The per-subtype specificity and sensitivity metrics were compared across KNN, random forest and
272 SVM algorithms (Fig. 3B). As can be seen, all models predicted the HGSOC subtype well, achieving
273 balanced accuracy scores of 1 (KNN), 0.935275 (RF) and 0.984375 (SVM) for this class. This
274 presumably reflects the larger number of samples labelled HGSOC and the number of metagenes
275 present to predict this subtype versus the others. Therefore, additional samples representative of
276 non-HGSOC ovarian cancer would greatly aid the training of a classifier. This is especially true in
277 the case of endometrioid ovarian cancer cell lines, which was represented by only 4 of the 44 cell
278 lines analysed in this study. Nevertheless, the overall kappa values achieved for each model was
279 0.918 (KNN), 0.78905 (RF) and 0.878 (SVM). This suggests that NMF coupled with KNN may be a
280 powerful tool for ovarian cancer cell line subtype classification.

281

282 **Conclusion**

283 The EOC subtype from which commonly used ovarian cancer cell lines were derived has
284 remained a controversial topic for many years (Anglesio et al., 2013; Beaufort et al., 2014; Coscia
285 et al., 2016; Domcke et al., 2013). We sought to determine whether recently released RNAseq data
286 from the CCLE could shed light on this subject. Previous studies have sought to define an
287 immunohistochemical, genetic or combinatorial panel, and determine the suitability of cells to fit this
288 mould. Here we have not imposed any prior knowledge or structure onto the data, instead opting to
289 use NMF, a clustering algorithm that has been used not only in gene expression studies, but other
290 pattern-recognition problems such as facial recognition and deciphering the meaning of words
291 (Brunet et al., 2004; Lee & Seung, 1999). Our NMF clustering allowed cell lines to cluster with others
292 that they most closely resembled at the transcriptional level, revealing novel subtype classifications
293 for some cell lines. Inclusion of additional cell lines would improve the predictive utility of our
294 machine-learning based classifier, especially subtypes that are underrepresented in the CCLE
295 dataset, namely endometrioid and mucinous. Future work, therefore, could relate to the integration
296 of multiple different sources of transcriptional profiles. Additionally, datasets containing patient-
297 derived cell lines could be utilised to further evaluate the performance of any classifier, including the
298 recently published living ovarian biobank and others (Fernandez et al., 2019; Nelson et al., 2020).

299 **Materials and Methods**

300 **Literature search**

301 We performed an extensive PubMed literature search to determine the usage of
302 CCLE ovarian cancer cell lines. The list of search queries used is supplied in table S2,
303 demonstrating the different aliases used for the different cell lines. It should be noted that these
304 search queries only count the number of articles where the cell line name was specified in the title
305 and/or abstract, therefore missing some articles that only specify within article the cell lines used.
306 This will be especially true for larger studies that utilize many of these cell lines where it is not
307 possible to list them in an abstract.

308 **RNAseq data**

309 Forty five cell lines representative of the major ovarian cancer subtypes analysed by RNA-
310 sequencing as part of the Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE) project (Ghandi et al., 2019) were
311 identified (table S1). Raw sequence files in FASTQ format were obtained from the European
312 Nucleotide Archive (ENA; <http://www.ebi.ac.uk/ena/>). STAR (v2.7.2a) (Dobin et al., 2013) was used
313 to map reads to the GRCh38 human genome assembly with gene annotations from Gencode v32.
314 The number of reads per gene were counted using --quantMode GeneCounts within the STAR
315 command.

316 **Non-negative matrix factorisation**

317 Data analyses in R was performed using v3.6.2 and in Bioconductor v3.10. The DESeq2
318 (v1.26.0) (Love et al., 2014) package was used to apply a variance stabilizing transformation to the
319 assembled read count matrix. Transcripts with a median absolute deviation ≥ 1.5 were selected,
320 and this list of 6,796 genes was used as input for clustering analysis using the NMF package
321 (Gaujoux & Seoighe, 2010). To estimate the factorisation rank (k), NMF was performed for a k of 2
322 to 10 using 50 random initiations. Quality measures were computed for each factorisation rank,
323 including the cophenetic coefficients, silhouette and RSS. Inspection of the computed quality
324 metrics revealed 5 clusters fitted the data. Next, 200 iterative runs of NMF were performed from a
325 fixed random initial condition with a k value of 5. Using annotations given in the primary literature
326 source for each cell line (table S1), we inferred the likely ovarian cancer histotype of each cluster.
327 Gene scoring schema was applied to extract genes characteristic of the five identified clusters
328 (Kim & Park, 2007). Metagene lists were combined, and this was used as input for machine
329 learning algorithms.

330 **Machine Learning Algorithms for Classification**

331 A plethora of classification algorithms have become available. Here, we explore the utility of
332 three common classification algorithms: KNN, RF and SVM. We used the R package caret (v6.0-
333 86) for model training and evaluation. The specific modules used were base::knn, randomForest
334 (v4.6-14) and kernlab (v0.9-29), respectively. The cell lines with their subtype classifications

335 outputted from our NMF analysis were partitioned into 4 random subsets, such that each set
336 contained approximately equal proportions of each subtype. Models were trained using each
337 combination of partitions, leaving one group out for testing of model performance in each instance.
338 Metrics compared between models were the per-class (ability to predict each subtype, e.g.
339 HGSOC, LGS etc.) sensitivity, specificity and balanced accuracy calculations. Overall model
340 performance was compared using Cohen's kappa, which compares observed accuracy with
341 the expected accuracy (subtypes predicted by a random classifier).

342 ***K-nearest neighbours***

343 K-nearest neighbours is a non-parametric method proposed by Thomas Cover used for
344 classification. A cell line within the held-out test set is classified by majority vote of its k-neighbours
345 from the training set (although no explicit training step is required). K is typically a small positive
346 integer, and usually of an odd number to avoid 'tied' decisions. A large k reduces the impact of
347 variance caused by random error. However, this may miss the small but important patterns within
348 the data (Zhang, 2016).

349 ***Random Forrest***

350 Random forest is a learning method for classification, regression and other tasks. The
351 forest is built from the construction of many different decision trees at training time. The power of
352 the algorithm stems from the low-correlation between decision trees, which may cancel out the
353 individual errors of any one tree. Each tree decides the subtype of a test-set cell line and the
354 majority vote becomes the model's prediction. While some trees may be wrong, many other trees
355 will be right, so as a group the trees are able to provide a more powerful prediction.

356 ***SVM***

357 Support vector machine is a supervised machine learning algorithm that can be employed
358 for both classification and regression purposes. SVM works by finding the decision boundary (the
359 "hyperplane") that separates the classes of the supplied data, in our case the different subtypes of
360 EOC. During training, the margins of the hyperplanes are maximised, while the cell lines remain on
361 the correct side of the subtype boundaries. Intuitively, when the subtype of the test is predicted, we
362 can be more confident that the prediction is correct if the cell lines lies further from the boundaries.
363 Likewise, doubt is cast on the prediction of a cell line that sits close to the boundaries.

364 **Genetic background and copy number variation of CCLE cell lines**

365 The genetic background of the CCLE cell lines is extensively referred to throughout this
366 manuscript. We direct the reader to the mutation and copy number variation datasets generated by
367 this project. The datasets were originally presented in Ghandi et al (2019) and recommend the use
368 of the cBioPortal for Cancer Genomics (<https://www.cbioportal.org/>) that enables interactive
369 exploration of multidimensional cancer genomics data sets (Cerami et al., 2012; Gao et al., 2013).

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374

375 **Author contributions**

376 Methodology, Investigation, Validation and Formal Analysis, B.B., L.N., A.T. and R.D.M.;
377 Conceptualisation, B.B. and R.D.M; Writing, B.B., R.D.M., J.M. and S.S.T.; Funding and Supervision
378 S.S.T.

379

380 **Declaration of interests**

381 The authors declare no competing interests.

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Figure legends

Figure 1. Cell line usage based on PubMed citations. Top, total number of PubMed usages of each of the epithelial ovarian cancer cell lines for which RNAseq data is available within the CCLE. Bottom, HGSOc-likelihood scores as determined by Domcke et al. analysis of ovarian cancer cell lines correlated with The Cancer Genome Atlas HGSOc patient samples. Cell lines are separated along the x-axis based on the year of their first usage. Cell lines are coloured by the subtype of epithelial ovarian cancer reported in their primary literature source. Green, clear cell; red, endometrioid; orange, mucinous; purple, serous; dark grey, mixed; light grey, not specified (NS).

Figure 2. Ovarian cancer cell lines can be divided into five clusters that recapitulate the histological subtypes based on transcriptional profiles. (A) Selected quality metrics describing the performance of non-negative matrix factorisation for 2 to 10 clusters. From left, the cophenetic correlation, dispersion and silhouette coefficients. Colours indicate the type of measure plotted. (B) Consensus map showing cell line clustering for 200 iterative runs of NMF using 5 clusters. The blocks of the consensus map are coloured by the probability of two samples clustering together, where red, 1; white, 0.5 and blue, 0. The annotation track atop the heatmap indicates (top) the HGSOc-likelihood score of a cell line determined by Domcke et al. Where darker shades represent a higher score. The pure white blocks indicate the cell line was not included in this analysis. Middle track, the ovarian cancer subtype provided in the cell line's original literature source where green, clear cell; red, endometrioid; orange, mucinous; purple, serous; dark grey, mixed; light grey, not specified (NS). Bottom track, the consensus cluster assignment across 200 NMF runs where dark purple, cluster 1; green, cluster 2; light purple, cluster 3; orange, cluster 4 and red, cluster 5.

Figure 3. A k-nearest neighbour classifies accurately predicts subtype of ovarian cancer cell lines. (A) Metagenes for which high expression is informative of each cluster were extracted using gene scoring scheme as per Kim and Park (2005). Colours represent the strength of the association between that gene and the cluster, where red, 1 and white, 0. The track above the heatmap indicates cluster number, as per Fig. 2, where dark purple, cluster 1; green, cluster 2; light purple, cluster 3; orange, cluster 4 and red, cluster 5. (B) Evaluation of three machine learning algorithms for ovarian cancer cell line subtype classification, k-nearest neighbour (KNN), random forest (RF) and support vector machine (SVM). Cell lines were designated the subtype indicated by NMF clustering, and partitioned into 4 subsets. Three subsets were used to train each of the machine learning algorithms, with the fourth set held out as a test set. The four subsets were rotated such that each sample had the opportunity to be trained and tested upon. The average per-class sensitivity and specificity scores across the four tested sets is shown where dark purple, HGSOc; green, clear cell; light purple, LGS; orange, mucinous and red, endometrioid.

Figure S1 consensus cluster maps for NMF at different values of k. (A-F) consensus cluster maps (in order of increasing k) from 2 to 7 clusters. The blocks of the consensus map are coloured by the probability of two samples clustering together, where red, 1; white, 0.5 and blue, 0. The annotation tracks atop the heatmap indicate the ovarian cancer subtype provided in the cell line's original literature source where green, clear cell; red, endometrioid; orange, mucinous; purple, serous; dark grey, mixed; light grey, not specified (NS). Middle track, the consensus cluster assignment across 50 NMF runs. The cluster numbers and the colours assigned are shown in the legends to the right of each of the heatmaps. Bottom track, silhouette width for each sample pair where dark green indicates a silhouette width of 1 (perfect clustering).

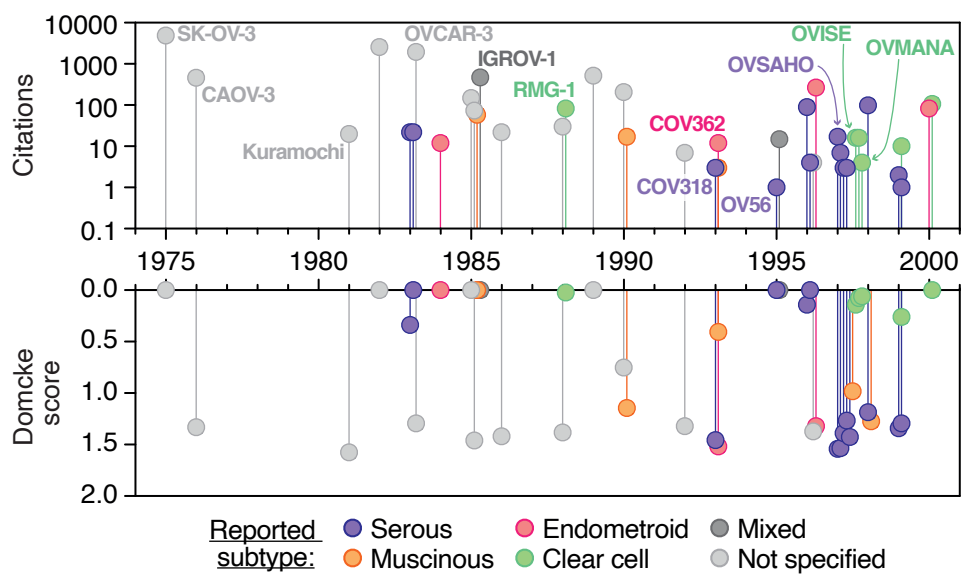


Figure 1

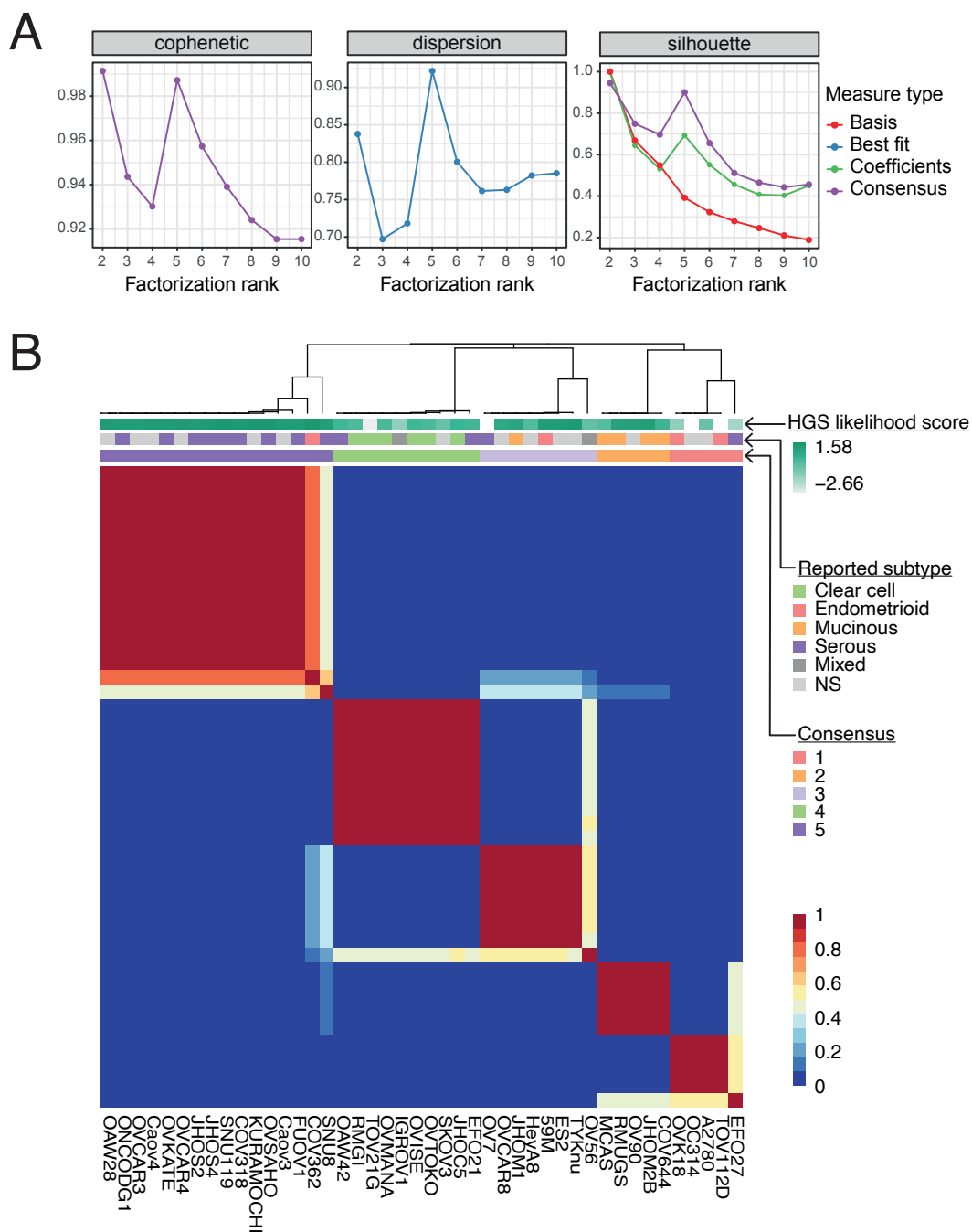


Figure 2

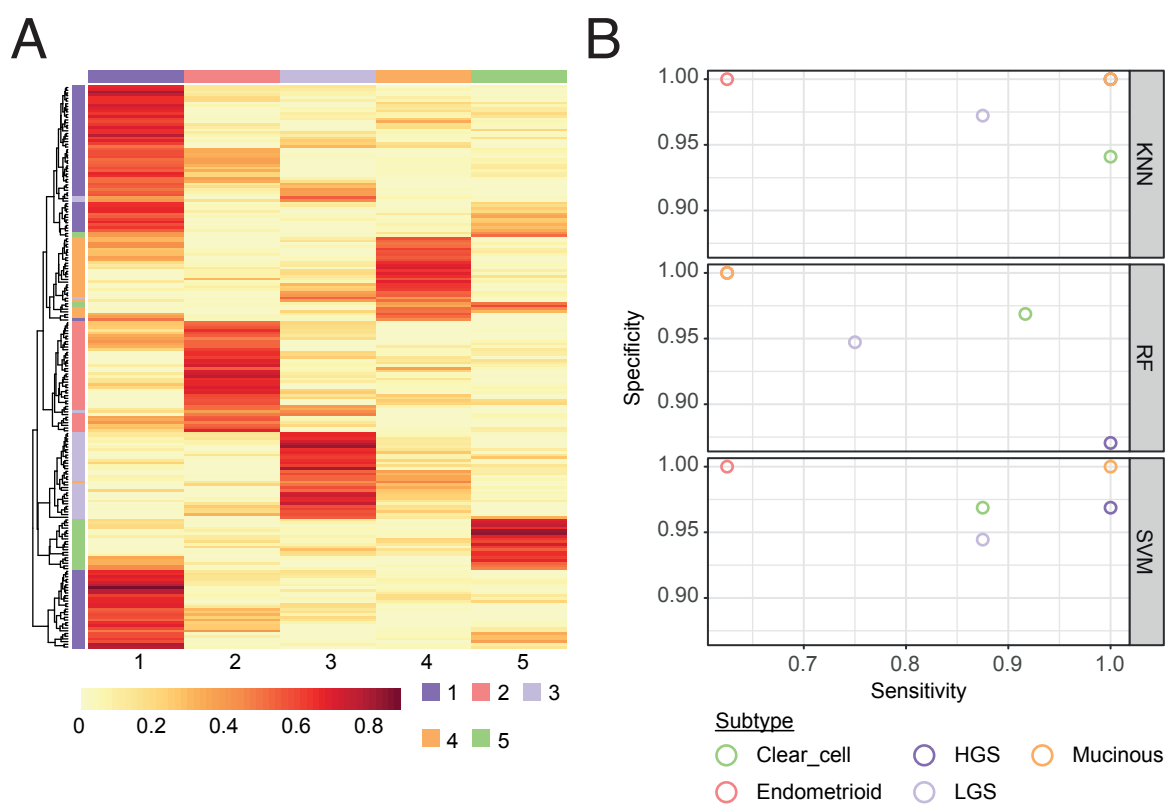


Figure 3

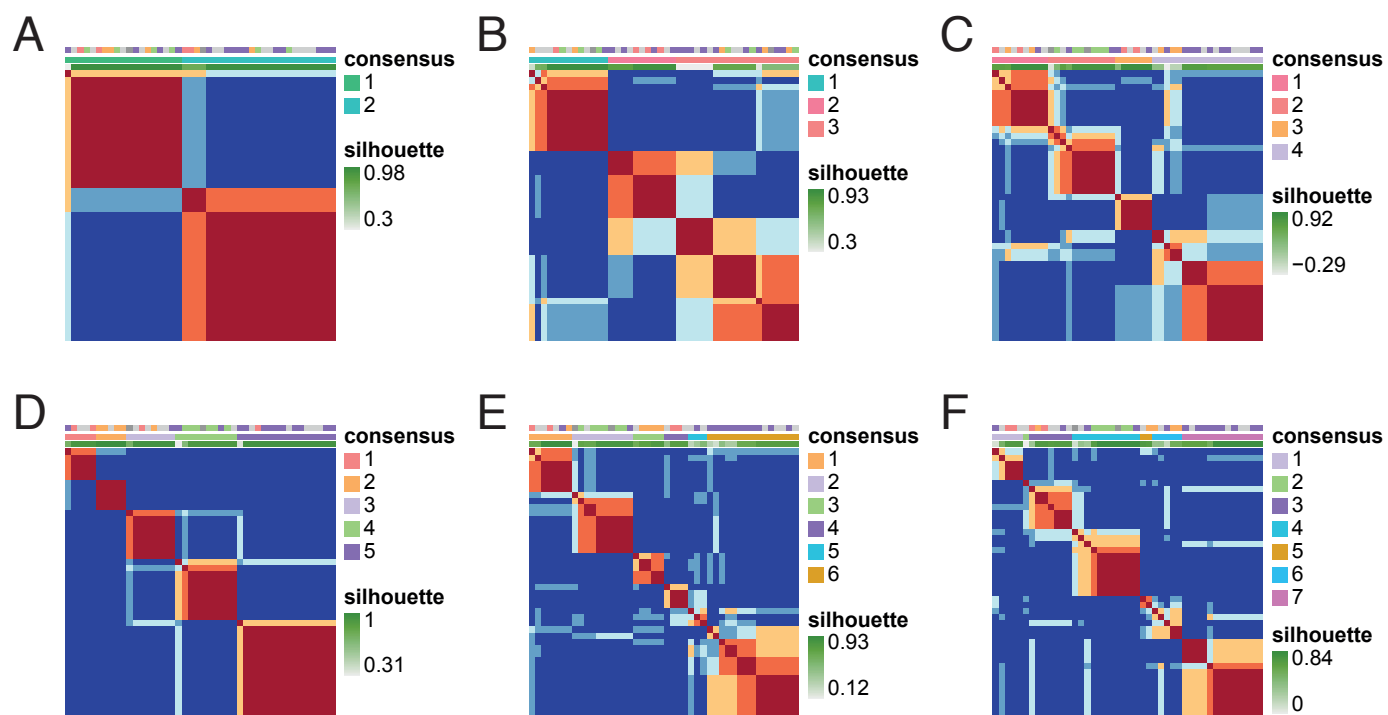


Figure S1