Benchmarking single cell transcriptome matching methods for incremental growth of cell
atlases

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Abstract

Background: The advancement of single cell technologies has driven significant progress in
constructing a multiscale, pan-organ Human Reference Atlas for healthy human cells. Many
multi-faceted cell atlases for different organs, species, and diseases now exist, though
challenges remain in harmonizing cell types and unifying nomenclature among respective cell
atlases. Multiple machine learning and artificial intelligence methods, including models pre-
trained on large-scale cell atlas datasets, are publicly available for single cell community users
to computationally map their cell clusters to the cell atlases.

Results: This study benchmarks seven computational tools for cell type matching and label
transfer – Azimuth, CellTypist, CellHint, FR-Match, scArches, scPred, and singleR – in ten
organ systems. Using healthy lung as an exemplary organ, when matching the well-annotated
cell types in two atlases – the Human Lung Cell Atlas (HLCA) and the LungMAP Single-Cell
Reference (CellRef), variations in the matching accuracy were observed, especially in rare cell
types, underlining the need for a consensus strategy using a selective set of computational
methods. In the meta-analysis, the benchmarked methods were used to incrementally integrate
61 cell types from HLCA and 48 from CellRef, resulting in a cell meta-atlas of 41 matched, 20
HLCA-, and 7 CellRef-specific cell types. Similar approach revealed 25 matched cell types
existed in two independent kidney atlases. Generalizability of the benchmarking performances
were further demonstrated in a variety of organ systems.

Conclusion: This study reveals complementing strengths of the benchmarked methods and
presents a framework for incremental growth of cell types in cell atlases.

Keywords

Single cell transcriptomics, cell atlases, cell types, machine learning, meta-analysis,
benchmarking, Human Reference Atlas

Introduction

The advancement of single cell transcriptomic technologies has led to the rapid growth of single cell/nucleus RNA-seq (sc/snRNA-seq) datasets. Several large international consortia have made these data publicly available to accelerate the cellular characterization of complex tissues. As of March 2026, the CZ CellxGene Discover platform [1] (https://cellxgene.cziscience.com) has a data corpus of 149 million unique cells from 2,076 datasets; the Human BioMolecular Atlas Program (HuBMAP) [2] data portal (https://portal.hubmapconsortium.org) contains 5,640 datasets for 31 organs; the Single Cell Portal [3] (https://singlecell.broadinstitute.org) features 972 studies of ~74 million cells. These efforts have contributed to the ongoing endeavors to build comprehensive reference cell atlases for human tissues (e.g., the Human Cell Atlas (HCA) [4] and Human Reference Atlas (HRA) [5, 6]) at single cell resolution. One of the goals of these atlasing projects is to achieve a community-driven consensus of cell phenotypes (cell types and cell states) in the human body. While there is a growing consensus on gene names and anatomical structures, there is less agreement on the nomenclature of cell phenotypes and their defining characteristics, making the harmonization of cell types between datasets, technologies, and atlases challenging.

The review by Hemberg et al. highlights achievements and challenges in the field of single cell biology, including the need to benchmark the rapidly expanding set of computational tools and to conduct meaningful meta-analyses for biological insights [7]. Over the past few years, numerous computational methods have been developed for cell type integration based on batch correction and label transfer approaches. Batch correction methods, such as Harmony [8] , BBKNN [9], and scVI [10], aim to eliminate experimental batch effects and technical noises while preserving true biological variation. Label transfer methods, such as Seurat [11], LIGER [12], and scANVI [13] aim to jointly model heterogeneous cells across datasets, modalities, and conditions to form a shared latent space for nearest neighbor search. Luecken et al. [14] benchmarked 16 batch correction and label transfer methods and revealed complementing properties of these methods. Combining the strengths of these methods, the first versions of cell atlases were constructed by integrating data from selected high-quality studies and refining cell type annotation with expert curation. For example, scVI and scANVI-based methods, suggested by Luecken et al., were optimized to build the integrated Human Lung Cell Atlas (HLCA) v1.0 [15] using 14 published and unpublished datasets by the computational and domain experts from the HCA Lung Network, where dataset-specific batch effects were removed and consensus cell type annotations were defined after correcting mislabeled and underlabeled cells. Following a similar strategy, the Human CellCards Multi-Study CellRef 1.0 Atlas [16] was built by the LungMAP Consortium. Similarly for kidney, the Human Kidney Atlas 1.0 (HKA) [17] was built by cross-consortia efforts, including Kidney Precision Medicine Project (KPMP), HuBMAP, and HCA. The multimodal benchmarking dataset for renal cortex (mBDRC) [18] was generated as part of the CZI Seed Networks for HCA. These data-driven and well-curated cell atlases form the foundation for building a cell phenotype knowledgebase that covers all healthy cell types and generalizes to data from future disease-related studies.

So far, there is not a preferred strategy to update a cell atlas when new data become available or when merging two overlapping cell atlases. The current strategy, which requires data integration and joint clustering, is problematic for two reasons. First, every update will require a re-analysis of all cells, including the cells that are already in the atlas. Re-analysis will introduce slightly different groupings of cells, so that studies which used an old version of the atlas will not be reproducible with an updated version, contradicting the reproducibility desired for reference cell atlases. Second, the joint clustering and manual annotation procedure is not efficient for the

growing size of integrated datasets, as those computationally derived cell clusters will need to
be re-annotated using marker genes and domain knowledge, which require manual curation to
identify rare and/or novel cell types in the rapidly growing datasets.

To support the reproducibility of reference cell atlases and to construct a sustainable cell type
knowledgebase, we propose a strategy for "incremental" growth of the cell types across cell
atlases. This approach compares cell types between the query and reference datasets, so
common cell types are merged, and novel cell types are added to the cell type knowledgebase.
This strategy requires computational methods to perform comparative pattern matching at the
cell type/cluster level. As an alternative to the cell-level label transfer methods, cell type/cluster-
level matching methods, such as FR-Match [19, 20] and CellHint [21], will complement and
potentially improve the long-term atlas building.

In this study, we present a framework for constructing a meta-atlas of healthy human cell types
using benchmarked computational methods for incremental cell type knowledge growth (**Figure**
1) using lung as an exemplary organ. Similar analysis was applied to two kidney atlases and
eight additional community-contributed atlases to illustrate the generalizability of the framework.
For the healthy adult human lung, we harmonize cell types identified in two highly-recognized
lung atlases – the Human Lung Cell Atlas (HLCA) [16] and the LungMAP Single-Cell Reference
(CellRef) [15]. Evaluating all available methods is not feasible due to time and resource
constraints. Instead, seven widely used methods were selected to cover different categories of
cell type matching and label transfer approaches (**Figure 1A-B**). These seven include: pre-
trained methods – Azimuth [22], CellTypist [23], CellHint [21], and scArches [24], and
standalone methods – scPred [25], singleR [26], and FR-Match [19, 20]. Based on the initial
benchmarking results, five methods were then used to integrate the 61 cell types identified in
the HLCA with the 48 cell types identified in the CellRef.

To use Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches, models pre-trained on the same reference dataset
(i.e., HLCA) are publicly available. One potential shortcoming of these models is that they may
not explicitly recognize novel cell types that are not in the reference during the pre-training
process. To complement these pre-trained models, standalone methods were used for further
evaluating the matching performance with potential candidates for dataset-specific cell types. All
cell-based methods were used to match cell types from CellRef as the query dataset to HLCA
as the reference dataset (i.e., CellRef → HLCA).

FR-Match has two matching options: cell-to-cluster and cluster-to-cluster. The cluster-based
matching takes both datasets as query and reference, allowing for reciprocal two-way matching
(HLCA ←→ CellRef). The one-way (CellRef → HLCA) FR-Match cell-to-cluster matching was
benchmarked with other cell-based methods. The two-way FR-Match cluster-to-cluster matching
was benchmarked against CellHint – a CellTypist method that is designed for cluster-level cell
type harmonization. To construct a meta-atlas of lung cell types, the cell-level matching results
were summarized into cluster-level results, and the cell meta-atlas (i.e., matched cell types and
dataset-specific cell types) was curated by examining all matching results and their data
visualizations.

Results

Characteristics of methods and key datasets

In this study, we introduce the notions of unsupervised and supervised cell type matching and
cell-based and cluster-based matching for describing the different matching methods. **Figure**
1A illustrates the unsupervised and supervised cell type matching scenarios. The setup of the
cell type matching problem is to compare a query dataset to a reference dataset. The reference
dataset is always an annotated dataset with clusters labeled by cell type names (visualized as
colored dots on UMAP or tSNE plots). If the query dataset is unannotated (visualized as
uncolored dots, but the grouping of cells can be obtained from the standard single cell analysis
workflow), we refer the matching as unsupervised cell type matching. If the query dataset is also
annotated, we refer the matching as supervised cell type matching. One advantage of the
supervised matching is that matching direction can be two-way, i.e., query → reference and
reference → query. Supervised matching is useful when matching cell types between two well-
annotated cell atlases.

Key datasets used in this study are summarized in **Table 1**. Detailed description of key datasets
is in **Methods**.

Table 1. Summary of healthy adult human lung and kidney atlases.

Dataset	Version (Year)	Organ	Consortium	# cells/ nuclei	# genes	# cell types	Platform	Sample type
HLCA core	1.0 (2023)	Lung	HCA	584,944	28,024	61	10x 3' v1/v2/v3, 10x 5' v1/v2	Cells & nuclei
CellRef human	1.0 (2023)	Lung	LungMAP	347,970	32,284	48	10x 3' v2/v3, 10x 5' v1	Cells & nuclei
HKA normal	1.0 (2023)	Kidney	KPMP, HuBMAP, HCA	107,701	33,826	75	10x 3' v3	Cells & nuclei
mBDRC	preprint (2025)	Kidney	HCA	97,125	36,972	36	10x 3' v3, 10x 5' v1,10x multiome	Cells & nuclei

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We benchmark two major categories of methods: cell-based matching and cluster-based
matching (**Figure 1B**). One criterion used to select the cell-based methods is that the method
must output a quantitative metric that reflects the matching confidence, i.e., "confidence score"
(**Methods**). The confidence score provides the evidence for assigning a match (i.e., high
confidence score = match, low confidence score = no match) and allows techniques such as
ROC analysis to systematically evaluate the model performance across the spectrum of varying
confidence threshold values. Based on this criterion, we selected the machine learning
classification-based method, scPred [25], correlation-based method, singleR [26], the cell-to-
cluster version of the graph-based method FR-Match [17] and pre-trained models: Azimuth [22],
CellTypist [23], and scArches [24]. Azimuth and CellTypist provide multiple organ-specific
models; the corresponding lung models pre-trained using the HLCA reference were used for
benchmarking. ScArches is a pre-trained scvi-tools-based model that was used to build the joint
embedding of the HLCA reference by the original authors. The pre-trained part of these models
are the latent space embeddings and pre-tuned algorithms trained using the chosen reference,
so that the input query data will be projected to the pre-trained latent space and annotated to

the reference cell types by the pre-tuned algorithm. Despite the different underlying algorithms,
these methods all perform cell-based matching (i.e., assigning each query cell to a reference
cell type). The pre-trained models require minimal user input as no tuning of the algorithm is
needed and no clustering is needed to prepare the query data. The downsides of pre-trained
models are that the results are constrained to the reference dataset used for the pre-training
and it is difficult for the users to directly assess the result quality, as only latent space
embeddings are available in the pre-trained models.

The second category of methods is the cluster-based matching approach used in CellHint cell
type harmonization [19] and FR-Match cluster-to-cluster two-way matching [16]. CellHint allows
automatic cell type harmonization using predictive clustering tree and tree splitting algorithms.
FR-Match utilizes a reduced feature marker gene space determined by the NS-Forest marker
gene selection algorithm [27, 28], as a data-driven way to represent reference cell types in a
maximally informative reduced dimensional space. For the query dataset, these methods utilize
the upstream clustering results that group similar query cells together, making use of the
aggregated properties of similar cells. When the query dataset is optimally clustered, cluster-
based matching methods can be used to perform supervised matching between the query and
reference datasets.

The cell-based methods were first benchmarked in a cross-validation setting using the HLCA
dataset. Then, top performing cell-based methods and cluster-based methods were used to
perform cell type matching between HLCA and CellRef. All results are cross-compared at the
cluster-level after the cell-based matching results were summarized to the cluster-level.
Differences in the matching results were closely examined in the HLCA and CellRef UMAPs to
resolve any discrepancies. Following this procedure, a collection of 68 cell types (41 matched
cell types, 20 HLCA-specific cell types, and 7 CellRef-specific cell types) was collated into the
resulting lung meta-atlas.

Last, we present a lung meta-atlas after integrating the cell types between HLCA and CellRef.
We propose a strategy for incrementally growing the meta-atlas by adding new cell types from
future studies while preserving the knowledge and cell types in the original atlases (**Figure 1C**).
The incremental knowledge growth strategy will take advantage of the high-quality, community-
approved v1 cell atlases with relatively coherent and validated cell type annotations. By
performing meta-analysis comparison of the cell atlases, the meta-atlas can serve as a baseline
for continued updating of the cell type collection from new single cell datasets and for adding
new terms to the Cell Ontology [29-32] when there is sufficient evidence.

Benchmarking of the cell-based methods on the HLCA dataset

The performance of Azimuth, CellTypist, scArches, scPred, singleR, and FR-Match cell-to-
cluster matching methods were first benchmarked on the HLCA reference using cross-validation
setting, where the HLCA cells were randomly split into 10 subsets (folds) within each cluster.
Each fold was then used as a query dataset to be assigned with the predicted annotations. After
matching all folds, the predicted annotations of all cells were pooled and compared with the true
annotations in the HLCA dataset (**Supplementary Figure 1**).

In the HLCA dataset, the abundances of the 61 cell types varied, with the alveolar macrophages
being the most abundant cell type (68,487 cells) and the lymphatic EC proliferating cell being
the least abundant (28 cells) (**Figure 2A**). Notably, 55% of cells are contained within the top 7
most abundant cell types, highlighting the large variation in cell abundances (cluster sizes)

among the cell types. Potential effects of unequal cluster sizes when evaluating the matching
performance are worth noting. For example, if training a model to perform perfect classification
for the top 7 most abundant cell types in HLCA, the overall accuracy will be 0.55 (i.e., all cells in
the top 7 cell types get correct classification), even if the remaining 54 out of 61 cell types all get
misclassified. To mitigate the impact of the largely unequal cluster sizes, both overall
performance metrics and per cluster performance metrics were calculated in the benchmarking
comparison.

For benchmarking, each of the 10 folds of data was considered as the query set iteratively for
predicting cell type annotations using the six cell-based methods. After pooling results for all
cells by each method, the overall metrics in **Figure 2B(i)**, indicate that all methods achieved
high overall precision (above 0.8) and five methods also had high recall and F1 scores. (SingleR
was not benchmarkable with the other methods since it includes a fine-tuning step after running
correlation analysis on all annotations, which disassociate the correlation-based confidence
scores with predictions.) When these results were evaluated per cluster (i.e. grouped by each
true HLCA cell type), the performance metrics showed variable patterns (**Figure 2B(ii)**). In
contrast to the high overall F1-scores, the median F1-score when calculated per cluster for
singleR (0.630), scPred (0.700), CellTypist (0.758), Azimuth (0.815), and scArches (0.841) were
much lower than FR-Match (0.952); similar patterns were observed in precision and recall. The
box plots of the per-cluster metrics for scPred, singleR, Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches also
showed wider ranges, suggesting more inconsistency in the cluster-level performance. The long
whiskers and outliers in these box plots indicate that while the overall F1-score is high, certain
clusters are low performing.

The variation of the cluster-level performance is further illustrated by the bar plots in **Figure 2C**
which depict the proportion of correct-to-incorrect annotations made for each cell type, ordered
by cluster size. FR-Match achieved the highest average accuracy (96.7%), followed by
scArches (71.7%), singleR (70.6%), Azimuth (69.3%), scPred (62.5%), and CellTypist (60.9%).
Looking at the trend with cluster sizes, scPred, Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches follow similar
patterns where larger clusters tended to have higher proportions of correct annotations and
smaller clusters tended to have higher proportions of incorrect annotations. SingleR and FR-
Match follows a reverse trend where larger clusters tended to have relatively higher proportion
of incorrect annotations than smaller clusters, while the ratio of correct annotations for smaller
clusters were remarkably better than the other methods. The relationship observed suggests
that the discrepancy between the overall results and the cluster-level results in **Figure 2B** may
be attributed to the high performance of larger clusters masking the low performance of smaller
clusters for some methods. Therefore, when selecting the most appropriate metrics to evaluate
the cell type annotation methods, it is important to not only evaluate overall performance but
also to consider the method's effectiveness in accurately identifying rarer cell types.

Utilizing the confidence scores produced by each of the methods, receiver operating
characteristic (ROC) analysis was conducted in this cross-validation setting. Each of the six
methods employs their own methodology for producing a confidence score to quantify a
prediction's certainty. Details about these methodologies are provided in the **Methods** section.
The underlying assumption of a confidence score is that a method would assign higher
confidence to the correct predictions and lower confidence to the incorrect ones, which can be
used to construct ROC curves to assess the trade-offs between true positive rate and false
positive rate at various confidence thresholds. FR-Match exhibited the highest performance with
an area under the curve (AUC) score of 0.934, followed by Azimuth (AUC = 0.905), scArches
(AUC = 0.877), CellTypist (AUC = 0.799), singleR (AUC = 0.705), and scPred (AUC = 0.57)

(**Figure 2D**). To further understand the ROC results, colorized ROC curves are shown in
Supplementary Figure 2 and heatmaps of confidence scores are shown in **Supplementary**
Figure 3. See **Methods** for more details. As an alternative to Figure 2C, the variation of cluster-
level performance can also be viewed in **Supplementary Figure 4**, as heatmaps of the cell
type–to–cell type confusion matrices for each method. The heatmaps in **Supplementary**
Figure 3-4 complement each other revealing the misclassification patterns between closely
related cell types.

In summary, we found that (1) although almost all methods achieved high overall cell-based
performance, the cluster-level performance varied from method to method, with lower
performance on smaller clusters obscured in the overall evaluation; and (2) the ROC analysis
demonstrated that method performance was driven and could be diagnosed by the confidence
scores calculated in each method. Based on the cross-validation and ROC analysis, four of the
cell-based methods – Azimuth, CellTypist, scArches, and FR-Match – were selected for further
study.

Performance on rare cell types

In **Figure 2C**, some rare cell types were well-resolved by many methods, e.g., ionocyte,
plasmacytoid DCs, and SMG mucous, and some showed varying performance across methods,
e.g., mesothelium and neuroendocrine. To understand the potential reasons, the feature spaces
and cluster quality metrics were examined in **Supplementary Figure 5.** The unsupervised
models follow the general steps of finding highly variable genes (HVG) and constructing latent
spaces based on the HVGs for dimensionality reduction, whereas FR-Match uses the
supervised feature space (i.e., gene space defined by NS-Forest, see **Methods**). Among the
pre-trained models, only Azimuth has made its HVGs accessible in the reference data object.
Supplementary Figure 5A shows the 427 overlapping genes between the 3000 HVGs used by
Azimuth and the 610 features (top 10 binary genes per cluster) used by FR-Match. It is
expected that more features are selected as HVGs for larger clusters (i.e., cells from the larger
clusters contribute more to the variance calculation) and significantly fewer features are
selected as HVGs for smaller clusters (p-value = 0 by Spearman correlation test). This suggests
that the HVG-derived latent space would unequally over-represent information in the larger
clusters and down-represent information in the smaller clusters, thus, poorer performance in the
rare cell types following the unsupervised HVG selection. **Supplementary Figure 5B** shows the
average binary scores for the 10 binary genes used by FR-Match per cluster. Binary score is a
metric that quantifies the on-and-off binary expression pattern of a gene in the target cluster and
off-target clusters [27, 28], ranging from 0 to 1. The numerical difference of the binary scores
among clusters is small, with an overall average score of 0.97. The rank-based correlation test
with cluster size showed significance and the negative correlation value indicates consistently
higher scores for rare cell types. The use of per-cluster binary scores for feature selection
ensures a strong and fair representation of all cell types in the feature space used by FR-Match.
Supplementary Figure 5C-D are metrics that could be used to understand the cluster quality
and **Supplementary Figure 5E** shows the relationship between the two metrics. The F-beta
score is a classification metric that quantifies the accuracy of its marker genes for the target
cluster, ranging from 0 to 1, and the silhouette score is a widely used metric to evaluate the
quality of clustering, taking values from −1 to 1. Considering both metrics, a well-resolved cell
cluster would be expected to have good classification markers and a well-segregated cluster
boundary in the UMAP visualization or an equivalent embedding. **Supplementary Figure 5C-D**
show these two metrics are not impacted by cluster size. **Supplementary Figure 5E** shows
there is no significant correlation between the two metrics, suggesting multiple independent

measures should be considered when evaluating the cluster qualities. The highlighted clusters,
however, had both high F-beta score and high silhouette score, which are rare cell types that
had good performance in Azimuth but varying performance in CellTypist and scArches, among
selected methods. In summary, this additional analysis suggests the potential reasons for why
FR-Match showed better performance in the rare cell types and indicative metrics (such as F-
beta score and silhouette score) that could partially explain the Azimuth performance in rare cell
types but not the other methods. Future studies are needed to identify the root cause of the
performance differences among the clusters with respect to cluster sizes in different methods.

Benchmarking of the cell-based methods across datasets

The four selected cell-based methods were then used for matching of the CellRef dataset as
query to the HLCA reference (CellRef → HLCA). Each query cell was assigned to a reference
cell type or "unassigned" (see **Methods**), resulting in cell-level predictions for the 347,970
CellRef cells with corresponding confidence scores for each method (**Supplementary Table 1**).

Again, cluster sizes had an impact on the matching results. In CellRef, there are 48 cell types,
whose cluster sizes are shown in **Figure 3A**. The most abundant cell type is alveolar
macrophage with 101,380 cells and the least abundant cell type is chondrocyte with only 6 cells.
Due to inconsistent nomenclatures used to annotate cell types in the two studies, instead of
validating the predicted HLCA-derived labels with the original CellRef labels, each cell's
prediction by one method was cross-compared with its corresponding predictions from the other
three methods. An agreement score of 4 is given to a cell where all four methods gave the same
prediction, 3 where three methods agreed upon the prediction, and so forth. In **Figure 3B**, 76.7%
of cell predictions were agreed upon by all four methods, and an additional 14.7% showed a
majority 3 out of 4 agreement. 8.4% of annotations were agreed between only two methods,
and 0.2% had no agreement at all. While agreement among methods does not necessarily
confirm the accuracy of the predictions, the high level of agreement across methods suggests
that the predictions for most cells are probably correct.

As observed above, it would be informative to look at the prediction agreement at the cluster-
level. As expected, when looking at the agreement levels for individual clusters, there was a
trend where larger clusters had higher agreement, and smaller clusters had lower agreement
(**Figure 3C**). In this figure, cells are grouped by their original CellRef labels. Looking at the most
abundant cluster, 91.56% of alveolar macrophage cells' predictions had majority agreement
among all four methods (score of 4 or 3). As this cluster consists of 29.13% of the dataset,
alveolar macrophage and other large, high agreement clusters may have biased the overall cell-
level results. Similarly, all four methods assigned the same predictions for almost all cells in
abundant alveolar type 2 cell and alveolar type 1 cell clusters (98.38% and 97.51% of cells had
a score of 4, respectively). In contrast, there was no majority agreement (score of 2 or 1) in
clusters such as megakaryocyte/platelet and chondrocyte. Although the 0.2% of cell-level
predictions that had no method agreement (score of 1) is a low number, most of those
predictions are found within the megakaryocyte/platelet and chondrocyte clusters (containing 41
and 6 cells respectively). Both clusters, although small, have high proportions of little-to-no
method agreement (score of 2 or 1) for its predictions (97.56% and 100% respectively), which
further points out the difficulties in accurately predicting rare cell types.

Assessing the pairwise agreement between methods revealed additional insights into the
performance for individual methods (**Figure 3D**). Overall, a general trend between cluster size
and prediction agreement was observed for each pair, where the larger clusters tended to have

more agreements. While there was a higher proportion of disagreement (red) towards the right of these plots, there was also low agreement for some moderate sized clusters. Some disagreement could be attributed to certain methods. For example, Azimuth showed a high disagreement with all other methods about predictions for respiratory airway secretory cell and secretory cell; in contrast, the other method pairs have high agreement on the prediction for these two cell types. Thus, there is no agreement score of 4 in **Figure 3C** for these two types. While we cannot tell from these plots whether Azimuth correctly predicted for these two cell types while other methods were incorrect, or vice versa, this example demonstrates how even among similarly performing algorithms, methods may still vary in their ability to predict specific cell types, regardless of how well the clusters are represented in the dataset. In the case of basal cell and intestinal macrophage types, which have sufficient cells (12,989 and 6,437 cells respectively), relatively low and variable agreement was observed between method pairs, especially in the pairs of FR-Match and others, resulting in an agreement score of 4 with only 17.92% and 7.49% of cells (**Figure 3C**). The matching results of basal cell and intestinal macrophage types will be further explored in the next section. Interestingly, the highest overall agreement achieved in this pairwise comparison are the pair of Azimuth and scArches (0.745), and the pair of CellTypist and FR-Match (0.745), suggesting some similarity in these pairs of methods.

Cell-based matching results of the lung cell atlases

Cell-based matching of CellRef as query and HLCA as reference results in each CellRef cell being assigned with an HLCA cell type label prediction. **Figure 4A** shows UMAP plots in which CellRef cells in the CellRef UMAP coordinates are colored by the HLCA label predictions by each method. Overall, Azimuth predicted 54 cell types out of the 61 HLCA cell types; CellTypist predicted 47; scArches predicted 61; and FR-Match predicted 49. While the original CellRef contains 48 cell types of its own annotation, the predictions to all 61 HLCA cell types by scArches may suggest that the scArches model is overfitted as it was trained by the HLCA team. Indeed, some of the cell types reported in the HLCA dataset were exclusively derived from the nasal swab specimens, which were not used in the CellRef study. While a global evaluation of these UMAPs (i)-(iv) suggest that the matching results are very similar (**Figure 4A**), since 76.7% of cells had agreed predictions by all four methods (**Figure 3B**), the differences between the methods require more careful examinations.

Two regions where major differences were observed are highlighted in **Figure 4A** and shown in detail in **Figure 4B-C**, where the original CellRef labels and the predictions are compared. One region is the interstitial macrophage ("IM") region in CellRef (**Figure 4B**), where the well-segregated IM cluster is matched to a mixture of HLCA cell types by Azimuth and scArches, to two HLCA cell types split into roughly equal sizes by CellTypist, and to one HLCA cell type uniformly colored by FR-Match. The FR-Match result supports the well-segregated shape of the query cluster (interstitial macrophage in CellRef) and suggests a uniform matching to the interstitial Mph perivascular in HLCA. The CellTypist result is also interesting, where the beige color in the predictions is the monocyte-derived Mph in HLCA, suggesting a transitional state of cell types from the inflammatory monocyte (iMON) to interstitial macrophage (IM) in CellRef.

The other region showing major differences is the "basal" region in CellRef (**Figure 4C**), where there is a separation of suprabasal and basal in the CellRef original labels, but spillover of suprabasal (cyan color) into the "basal" region (yellow color) in the predictions. The FR-Match result had the least spillover of the cyan color because those spillover cells were likely of low confidence, thus were "unassigned" using FR-Match (**Supplementary Figures 6 and 7**). All

predicted labels as well as the original CellRef and HLCA labels for the "IM" and "basal" regions
are in **Supplementary Figure 6**, where the "unassigned" cells in FR-Match are colored white,
implying a clean-up of the low confidence cells.

In **Supplementary Figure 7A**, cells in the UMAP plots are colored by their confidence scores
by each method. While most of the cells had high confidence scores in each plot, all methods
produced weakly matched cells spread over many clusters. FR-Match produced some regions
packed with very low confidence cells (i.e., dark islands in the plot), including the spillover "basal"
region, where many of the spillover cells are "unassigned" (**Supplementary Figure 7B**).
Labeling the spillover cells as "unassigned", reflecting the low matching confidence, is more
informative than a fuzzy matching to a similar label, e.g., suprabasal. Another "unassigned"
pattern in the FR-Match plot (**Supplementary Figure 7B**) is highlighted by the black arrows
where the "unassigned" cells form an entire cluster that is isolated from others, suggesting
CellRef cell types that are not in the HLCA reference. Lastly, due to a different version of HLCA
annotations being used in the Azimuth training model, the Azimuth-only labels had decent
confidence scores (**Supplementary Figure 7A-B**), suggesting an update is needed for the
Azimuth lung model to be consistent with the cell type annotation in the HLCA literature.

Cluster-level analysis of the cell-based matching results

As previously shown, the cluster-level pairwise prediction agreement varied a lot among clusters
(**Figure 3D**). By aggregating the cell-level predictions per query cluster, **Figure 5** shows the
proportion of CellRef cells matched between a pair of the original CellRef cell type (horizontal
axis) and the predicted HLCA cell type (vertical axis) for each method. The HLCA cell types are
ordered by the hierarchical clustering such that similar clusters are grouped next to each other
according to their gene expression profiles (**Methods**). The CellRef cell types are ordered
accordingly so that the highest matched proportions would ideally align along the diagonal.
These results are also visualized in **Supplementary Figure 8**, as heatmaps of the cell type–to–
cell type confusion matrices.

In **Figure 5**, FR-Match showed the cleanest aggregated cluster-level matching pattern with the
lowest off-diagonal proportions. Two examples are highlighted to reveal the different matching
patterns among the methods. In the highlighted box (A), the three dendritic cell (DC) types of
CellRef are matched differently by all methods. Azimuth matched all three types to DC2 in
HLCA; CellTypist clearly matched classical DC subset 2 to DC2 but not the other two types;
scArches showed relatively smaller proportions of matched cells, with some matched to other
DC types and some matched to non-DC types; and FR-Match identified unique 1-to-1 matches
for each of the three types.

The highlighted box (B) illustrates the matching pattern for an "unassigned" cell type by FR-
Match. For the megakaryoctye/platelet type in CellRef, it was matched poorly to many cell types
in HLCA by Azimuth and scArches and was matched to the HLCA mast cells by CellTypist. Only
FR-Match determined that those poorly matched cells should be "unassigned". The
disagreement among Azimuth, CellTypist and scArches also indicates that there is no
consistent match to the megakaryoctye/platelet type and should be "unassigned". These
examples suggest that further refinements are needed to fine tune the pre-trained models of
Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches for more accurate matching (e.g., for the DC types) and to
address the scenario where weakly matched cells are forced to match to some cell type in the
reference.

Cluster-based matching of cell types using FR-Match and CellHint

FR-Match also performs cluster-to-cluster matching, which allows two-way matching (i.e., from CellRef as query to HLCA as reference and vice versa, denoted as CellRef $\leftrightarrow$ HLCA), by utilizing the cell type annotations in both datasets. The two-way matching results are shown in **Figure 6A**, and results of each direction are shown in **Supplementary Figure 9**. The two-way matches indicate that the pair of the matched CellRef and HLCA clusters are found by using both the CellRef as reference and the HLCA as reference. In **Figure 6A**, the two-way matches found by the FR-Match cluster-to-cluster matching strategy exhibit a very clean matching pattern, where most of the two-way matches are 1-to-1 matches and only a few are 1-to-2 or 2-to-1 matches. The cluster-to-cluster results are easier to interpret and not impacted by the varying cluster sizes as each cluster is assessed as a whole in the cluster-based method. Although it is possible to have one-to-many or many-to-one matches, there are fewer of these in the cluster-based results than in the cell-based results. It is worth noting that the "unassigned" row at the bottom also shows two-way matches, suggesting that these cell types are only found in the CellRef atlas. Similarly, the empty rows in the figure indicate the cell types that are only found in the HLCA atlas.

CellHint, a sister method to CellTypist, conducts guided cell type harmonization across cell atlas datasets [21]. **Figure 6B** shows the CellHint matches for the CellRef and HLCA harmonization, visualized analogous to **Figure 6A** to ease comparison, converted from CellHint's tree plot visualization in **Figure 6C**. Differences between the FR-Match and CellHint results are highlighted in the cyan boxes. **Figure 6D** summarizes the total match and unassigned counts and their disagreements between the two methods. CellHint tends to result in more matches than FR-Match. The two methods had 41 agreed matches and 2 agreed unassigned types (myoepithelial cell and megakaryocyte/platelet, both of which are rare cell types in CellRef). The agreement between the two methods is substantial (87% of the FR-Match matches and 80% of the CellHint matches). Some of the disagreements could help disambiguate the 1-to-2 or 2-to-1 matches, reciprocally. For example, the reciprocal results suggests that the unique 1-to-1 match of CellRef alveolar macrophage and HLCA alveolar macrophages is correct, thus ruling out the other match in the 1-to-2 matching patterns in each other's matching results. Compared to the cell-based matching approach, the cluster-based matching approach can produce more concise results, which are much easier to compare and interpret, focusing on the cluster as a whole instead of the individual cells, while the later might be prone to the clustering uncertainty to various degrees.

Recommended matching for the lung cell type meta-atlas across CellRef and HLCA

For the lung cell atlases, a comprehensive meta-analysis of benchmarked cell-based matching results (**Figure 5**) and the cluster-based results (**Figure 6**) was conducted to construct a meta-atlas of lung cell types across CellRef and HLCA. For the cell-based results, a computational strategy was applied to determine high confidence matches based on the matching proportions (**Methods**), so that all cell-based results could be uniformly processed into a binary "match" (Y) or "no match" (N) format between the cell types. Then, the two-way cluster-to-cluster matches from FR-Match and cell type harmonization from CellHint were combined with the high confidence matches from the cell-based matching results to provide evidence for determining the recommended matching in the meta-atlas. **Figure 7** shows the cross-comparison table for the recommended matching of the cell types between CellRef and HLCA. Candidates of "HLCA2CellRef_Match" are suggested by the agreement of the cluster-based matching method and at least one cell-based matching method; the remaining are candidates for atlas-specific

cell types. All candidate pairs and any match to the atlas-specific candidates by a single method
were carefully examined by looking at their marker gene expression patterns using the marker
gene selection algorithm NS-Forest [27, 28] (**Methods**) before determining the final matching
recommendation. 28 matches were identified by all methods with all Y's; the remaining were
determined by majority voting and examination on the marker gene expression pattern. The
complete matching table with characterizing marker genes is in **Supplementary Table 2**.
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Figure 8 shows the use of NS-Forest marker genes to disambiguate potential matches. The
NS-Forest marker gene combinations form unique "barcode" (i.e., on-and-off) patterns to
characterize different cell types in a scRNA-seq dataset. **Figure 8A** are the "barcode" plots of
the HLCA AT0 and pre-TB secretory types and the CellRef respiratory airway secretory cell and
secretory cell types. The four cell types form three pairs of matches in both FR-Match and
CellHint cluster-based matching results (**Figure 6A-B**). Using the "barcode" plots, the
expression combination of the three marker genes – *SCGB3A2*, *SCGB1A1*, and *SFTPB* can
clearly delineate the recommended matching pair – HLCA pre-TB secretory and CellRef
respiratory airway secretory cell – from the other two types. The matched pair have high
expression in all three markers (i.e., $SCGB3A2^{high}SCGB1A1^{high}SFTPB^{high}$), whereas the HLCA
AT0 is $SCGB3A2^{high}SCGB1A1^{low}SFTPB^{high}$, and the CellRef secretory cell is
$SCGB3A2^{low}SCGB1A1^{high}SFTPB^{low}$ in the corresponding datasets. Another example is the
CellRef regulatory T cells, which is recommended as a CellRef-specific type, despite the
potential matching to the HLCA CD4 T cells by all methods. Although these are very similar cell
types, markers like *FOXP3* and *CTLA4* can distinguish the T regulatory cells (**Figure 8B**). A
special case of "HLCA2CellRef_broadMatch" is recommended between the HLCA club (non-
nasal) and CellRef goblet cell types, because the CellRef goblet cell type is likely under-
partitioned, containing both club cells expressing *SCGB1A1*, the secretoglobin 1A1 (also known
as club cell secretory protein) [33], and goblet cells expressing the well-known marker *MUC5AC*
[34] (**Figure 8C**). In these two atlases, there are three location-specific goblet types (nasal,
bronchial, and subsegmental) in HLCA, thus none of which were matched to the under-
partitioned goblet cell type in CellRef. There is no club cell annotated in CellRef, which is likely
grouped in the goblet cell type in the CellRef atlas. It is also worth noting that none of the four
"nasal" cell types in HLCA are matched to anything in CellRef in the cross-comparison table
(**Figure 7**), which is consistent with the fact that nasal specimens were not included in the
CellRef experiments. However, that was not the case in the individual matching results of
Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches (**Figure 5**), where nasal cell types were weakly matched to
similar cell types in different tissue locations. In contrast, cell-based FR-Match did not match
"nasal" cell types (**Figure 5-6**). By using the supervised feature space of NS-Forest markers, the
FR-Match results are easily interpretable. "Barcode" plots of matched types can be used to
understand and validate the matching results. In **Supplementary Figure 10**, the marker gene
profiles show highly consistent patterns across datasets. For example, the HLCA markers of
AGER for AT1, *SFTPA1* for AT2, *KRT15* and *KRT17* for resting basal, and *HIGD1B* and *KCNK3*
for pericytes show very high specificity in the matched CellRef types; and vice versa.
Benchmarking of the NS-Forest markers and markers sets selected by other methods can be
found in our earlier study [28]. More description of "barcode" plots is in **Methods**.

In summary, out of the 61 HLCA cell types and 48 CellRef cell types, the meta-analysis
recommends 41 matched cell types, 20 HLCA-specific cell types, and 7 CellRef-specific cell
types. Taking these results together, it suggests that an integrated version of these two atlases
– a meta-atlas – with 68 discrete cell types would serve as a higher-quality and more
comprehensive reference for normal human lung cell types. This workflow demonstrates a
framework that supports the incremental cell type knowledge growth.

 Incremental cell type knowledge growth in practice

Alongside the continued efforts of the cell atlas consortia to release fully integrated datasets, a
greater community effort among many consortia is to operationalize the FAIR Data Principles
[35]. For example, the HRA and brain atlasing efforts are making substantial changes to the Cell
Ontology (CL) to ensure stable cell types are covered [31, 32] and Provisional Cell Ontology
(PCL) was developed specifically to hold cell types that are provisionally defined by single cell
transcriptomics atlases [36, 37]. The ontological framework of capturing and disseminating the
data-driven cell phenotype knowledge is one way to ensure that the annotated data in previous
and future publications are interoperable in the evolving context.

The incremental cell type knowledge growth strategy based on the benchmarking framework
provides a practical way of expanding the cell type knowledge based on single cell data. We
are in the process of building a data-driven knowledgebase about cell phenotypes. The general
steps include rigorous cluster quality control using the silhouette score and F-beta score,
computationally matching the high-quality cell type clusters using a selective set of methods
based on the benchmarking performance, and an end-to-end extract-transform-load pipeline for
a graph knowledgebase. More information can be found in [REF will be available in April].

For example, the lung meta-atlas results in a knowledge graph that consists of cell sets (i.e.
clusters in a dataset) as nodes, and their relations with other entities in edges (**Figure 9**).
Linking cell sets to CL terms is often done manually and is a time-consuming process. Based on
the meta-atlas, the computationally matched cell sets would automatically inherit the CL
identifiers from an earlier linked dataset, and only the unmatched cell sets need to be assigned
with a CL identifier. In this way, the knowledge graph preserves the provenance of each cell set
from its original publication, and allows the organic growth of knowledge when new datasets are
added, ensuring the interoperability (i.e., uniformly assigned ontology identifiers) and reusability
(i.e., from previous publications to future publications) of data with respect to the evolving nature
of the cell atlases.

Method benchmarking on kidney datasets

The same methods were also applied to match two kidney cell atlases in their most current
versions. Lake et al. (2023) presented an atlas of healthy and injured cell states in human
kidney (Human Kidney Atlas 1.0), where 75 cell types were defined across conditions [17]. More
recently, Acera-Mateos et al. (2025) generated a multimodal benchmarking dataset for renal
cortex (mBDRC) using kidney tissues from "healthy" donors undergoing nephrectomy [18]. The
Acera-Mateos et al. is currently a preprint and has 36 annotated cell types. The Lake et al.
dataset was used as the reference in the cell type matching.

Using the same methods, the cell-based matching results are shown in **Supplementary Figure
11,** and the cluster-based matching results are shown in **Figure 10**. As before, the cell-based
matching results showed large variations from method to method, and the cluster-based results
were easier to interpret, conveying consensus results from FR-Match and CellHint. For the pre-
trained models, one limitation is that it depends on the version of the reference that the model is
pre-trained on, so that it needs regular updating if the reference dataset is updated. An example
is the Azimuth kidney model. According to the documentation, an earlier preprint version of the
Lake et al. data was used as the reference, and it is unclear if diseased cells were used or not.
Therefore, the Azimuth results had many fewer cell types and different names in
Supplementary Figure 11. CellTypist and scArches pre-trained models for kidney are not

available and so they were trained using the Lake et al. publication dataset as reference in this
analysis. For these reasons, the results from the cell-based unsupervised label transfer models
(Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches) showed large variations from each other. The FR-Match
cell-to-cluster result showed more concentrated matching in many clusters (i.e., high proportion
of query cells from the query cluster matched to the same reference cluster) but also showed
uncertainties in some other clusters. On the other hand, using cluster-based matching, 25
agreed matches (21 unique 1-to1 matches and 2 pairs of 1-to-2 matches) were found between
FR-Match two-way matches and CellHint harmonization result (**Figure 10**). Considering the pre-
print state of the Acera-Mateos et al. (mBDRC) dataset, we might expect that some of those
clusters would benefit from further refinement, therefore many mBDRC clusters were
unassigned by FR-Match and some others were unassigned by CellHint. Overall, further
investigation is needed to disambiguate the 1-to-many matches and resolve the disagreed
matches and disagreed unassigned. Having said that, the 21 unique 1-to-1 matches can form
the initial basis for a consensus meta-atlas of kidney cell types, while work in forming a stable
meta-atlas for human kidney is performed.

Generalizability in more studies

Eight additional community-contributed cell atlases (retina [38, 39], brain [40], breast [41], liver
[42], gut [43], non-small cell lung cancer [44], fetal immune system [45], and mouse skeleton
[46]) were used to illustrate the generalizability of these benchmarked methods and their
performance. Reference and query datasets for each tissue atlas and their summary statistics
were reported in **Supplementary Table 8A** [38-50]. The generalizability test evaluates 16
datasets ranging from 9 cell types to 137 cell types, and from ~24,000 cells/nuclei to more than
1 million cells/nuclei, using a variety of single cell platforms, e.g., multiple versions of 10x,
SMART-Seq, Drop-Seq, etc. Wherever possible, all methods were applied, with the only
exception for scArches if no count data is available. More details are in **Methods**. Method
performances were summarized in **Supplementary Table 8B**. Adjusted Rand Index (ARI) was
reported for the cell-based methods, and the number of unique 1-to-1 match and number of
unassigned were reported for the cluster-based methods. The higher ARI and the more unique
matches are indicative of more concise matching results between the query and reference,
corresponding to a cleaner diagonal pattern in the matching plots (**Supplementary Figures 12-**
19). While FR-Match has the highest ARI or the most uniquely matched cell types in more than
half of the studies, the cluster-based methods, CellHint and FR-Match, are more useful to
complement the results from each other, compared to the cell-based methods. Overall, these
results showed that the benchmarked methods are generalizable in a range of studies and
organ systems, though occasionally a couple methods failed. While some methods performed
more "ideally" (since no ground truth) than some other methods, it emerges that a selective set
of methods that perform relatively better than others should be used to establish the consensus
in meta-atlases.

Discussion

In this study, cell type matching performance of seven methods – Azimuth, CellTypist, CellHint,
FR-Match, scArches, scPred, and singleR – were benchmarked using well-annotated human
lung and kidney atlas datasets. Generalizability of selective methods were demonstrated in a
variety of organ systems. The results highlight the strengths and limitations of current cell type
matching approaches when applied to large-scale atlas datasets. (1) While almost all methods
demonstrated high accuracy in the overall results, particularly in well-represented cell types,
significant variation was observed in their ability to accurately predict rare cell types.

Discrepancy between the overall performance and cluster-level performance suggests that
many of the current approaches are biased towards larger and more abundant cell types. (2)
The impact of imbalance in cluster sizes among the cell types is clearly elaborated in this study,
as well as Maan et al. (2023) [51]. While many of the current tools provide convenient cell-
based predictions, more evidence has emerged that suggests the cell-based approaches may
produce misleading results if cluster-level variation is not adequately taken into account. (3) One
common limitation to many of the methods is the lack of mechanism to identify novel cell types.
With the goal of completing a comprehensive atlas that describes all healthy cell types in the
human body, the ability to recognize novel cell types not identified in the initial atlas will be
essential as new datasets are generated. In particular, the pre-trained models seem to
insufficiently address weakly matched cells and force them to be matched in their algorithms.
These limitations highlight the importance of future efforts to further refine the label transfer-
based algorithms to better capture rare and novel cell types.

Among the limitations, the impact of size imbalance in scRNA-seq data has been well-studied in
Maan et al. (2023) [51], where 2,600 integration experiments were conducted, including
perturbation experiments with balanced dataset ("control"), random downsampling
("downsampled"), and complete removal of cell type compartment ("ablated"). These
experiments indicates that "sample imbalance has substantial impacts on downstream analyses
and the biological interpretation of integration results", Results presented in this study (e.g.,
Figure 2C) further confirmed some of the observations from the Maan et al. study. The most
significant impact of size imbalance in our study is that larger clusters tend to have better cell
type matching accuracy than smaller clusters by many computational methods. One possible
reason is that the reduced dimensional space of these methods usually consists of highly
variable genes that may be dominated by larger clusters contributing more variance and may
miss some feature genes representing smaller clusters. One of the methods that had high
accuracy in smaller clusters is FR-Match. Instead of highly variable genes, FR-Match uses
informative gene space consisting of the supervised NS-Forest feature selection that consists of
similar number of feature genes to equally represent each cluster regardless of cluster sizes.
The impact of sample imbalance in the following Fridman-Raftsky test (FR test) had also been
explicitly investigated in our earlier study (Supplementary Figure S30-S31 in [19]), therefore,
iterative subsampling scheme had been implemented in FR-Match to account for the impact of
the sample imbalance. More details are explained in **Methods**.

Earlier in this project, some attempts were made to manually match the CellRef annotated cell
types with their HLCA counterparts, and vice versa. Even with domain knowledge, these
attempts failed to find one-to-one matches for many cell types. This issue is not unique to lung.
In fact, this portion of the study reveals a common struggle in current cell type annotation efforts.
Alternative methods based on nature language processing (NLP) and generative artificial
intelligence (AI) model, such as OnClass [52] and scGPT [53], have also been proposed to
perform cell type annotation for single cell data. However, their performances have yet to be
benchmarked.

To circumvent these issues, this study assumes that high-quality predictions are more likely
when there is greater consensus among the methods. After obtaining results from the
benchmarked cell-based and cluster-based methods, a majority voting strategy was adopted to
recommend a consensus matching result. The resulting cross-comparison table deciphers
commonalities and complementary results that the constituent methods produce, leading to an
evidence-based meta-atlas. Moreover, further exploration into how cell type definitions and

marker genes could be standardized across datasets could lead to improved consensus in cell
type nomenclature and enhance the construction of cell atlases for the single cell community.

There are several aspects of atlas building that are not directly addressed by this study but are
important to consider when evaluating a cell atlas dataset or choosing a computational method.
(1) While this study focused on the inter-atlas variability, adequately addressing the intra-atlas
variability, coming from data generated by different labs within the same integrated atlas, is key
for building an atlas towards community-wide consensus cell types. The intra-atlas variability of
cell type annotations can come from multiple sources, for example, different sequencing depth
and clustering resolutions that would lead to different coverage of the granularity of cell types. In
the HLCA study, the authors have shown that there is significant inconsistency of the intra-atlas
annotations across its constituent datasets generated by different labs (Figure 3e in [16]). To
validate the approach that the atlas builders have taken to address the intra-atlas variability, the
meta-analysis presented in this study could complementarily confirm that the re-annotated cell
types in the integrated atlas are robust, suggesting effective removal of the intra-atlas variability
in the well-curated cell atlases. (2) Concerns about low-quality or strongly batch-affected data
that may degrade the reference atlas is not fully explored. This study focused on well-curated
"cell atlas" where stringent quality control, including filtering low-quality cells and removing batch
effects, have been applied when constructing the atlas. The selected atlas should be associated
with a peer-reviewed publication, and the quality of the identified cell types is widely accepted
by the community. That being said, each new dataset should also be evaluated for quality or
strong batch effects before adding to the meta-atlas using community-approved best practices.
There might be edge cases, e.g., chondrocyte in CellRef with only 6 cells and very low cluster
quality metric (silhouette score = -0.936), that needs to be addressed in a case-by-case basis.
Looking forward, it would be expected that each new dataset is an enhancement to the
precedent ones, particularly when multimodal assay such as ATAC-sequencing and spatial
technologies such as Xenium, CosMx, MERFISH and others are made possible at the single
cell and subcellular levels, which will provide additional information to help determine the cell
type identities and resolve edge cases. (3) Work presented in this benchmarking study focused
on single cell data for stable cell types and cell atlases for adult normal tissues. There is an
equally important branch of single cell genomics research for transient cell states and
developmental cell atlases, which was not covered in this study. Computational methods
benchmarked for transient cell states analysis, i.e., the single cell trajectory inference, can be
found in Saelens et al. (2019) [54].

Other than the matching performance, computational cost for this type of analysis is high on
atlas datasets. Both lung and kidney analyses presented in this study were done on High
Performance Computer (HPC) clusters, which are only "modest" sizes of atlases with ~0.5M
cells or fewer. In our experience, we found that the cluster-based methods are faster than cell-
based methods and using an organ-specific pre-trained model is significantly faster than without
using an organ-specific pre-trained model, such as scPred and singleR. Since these models are
still quite complex, even with some steps pre-trained for the users, the pipeline for each method
would still need several customizations (e.g., converting data into required format, e.g., anndata,
seurat or SingleCellExperiment object, taking care of feature names, e.g., ensemble gene
identifiers or gene symbols, using raw counts as input data or preprocessing needed, and
optimizing methodology in terms of number of epochs or iterations, etc.), making the method
computational time not directly comparable. Therefore, the end-to-end computational time
comparison is not included in this study.

As atlas size quickly approaching multimillion cells, computational cost and algorithm scalability
become a major bottleneck. It is one of the reasons why pre-trained models exist, so that only
the pre-trained latent space of the reference dataset with reduced dimensionality was saved in
the model object to be used directly by the downstream users. For example, the Azimuth
reference seurat object only contains highly variable genes instead of all genes. Similarly, as
stated in the scArches documentation, "As scArches allows the mapping of query data onto an
existing reference embedding, we will only need to download the embedding of the HLCA
reference. That saves a lot of time and memory compared to downloading the full count matrix."
Following the cell-based integration strategy like these, it will be more and more challenging for
the users to train these models with the rapidly increasing size of the reference datasets,
especially when new and old datasets are continuously integrated in a cell-wise growing atlas.
The proposed strategy in this study is intended to mitigate such challenge by introducing the
concept of incremental growth of cell types. It proposes to build a complete cell atlas in an
evolving context by representing the current cell types in a cell type knowledgebase and
incrementally populate new cell types to the knowledgebase using validated computational
methods benchmarked in this study and others. Based on the above benchmarking results, this
study encourages the cluster-level matching in support of the incremental cell type knowledge
growth strategy, in this way, the computational need for growing the knowledgebase is more
manageable at an incremental pace.

Last, but not least, this study sheds light on how to reliably grow the cell type knowledge in cell
atlases when new datasets are ingested into the data corpus. Currently, the common approach
is to integrate new datasets into an existing atlas by re-running the whole integration pipeline,
including batch correction, latent space training, re-clustering, and expert annotation, etc. This
type of approach will likely produce slightly different cell cluster membership every time the atlas
is updated, leading to potentially different cell type annotations of the same cell in different
versions. In this way, future studies will be hard to reproduce results or leverage findings that
are derived using existing and earlier versions of the atlas. A more stable reference would be
obtained if using a mechanism that allows organic growth of cell types in an incremental fashion
by adding new cell types when there is sufficient evidence from new datasets while preserving
the cell cluster membership used in the original atlas. This would require the existing and new
methods to have more enhanced and consistent performance for cluster-level matching and the
ability to identify novel cell types, distinguishing exact matches from similar cell types.

Conclusion

The benchmarking analysis presented in this study highlights the challenges of identifying rare
and novel cell types using computational cell type matching methods. A meta-atlas for healthy
adult human lung with 68 distinct cell types from HLCA and CellRef was formed based on the
meta-analysis using benchmarked methods. Additional analysis from a variety of organ systems
confirmed our findings. This computational framework supports an incremental knowledge
growth strategy for expanding cell types in an evolvable cell meta-atlas.

Methods

Glossary

Definitions of the following terms are provided in the context of this manuscript.

Label transfer: a computational method that assigns cell type labels or cell type annotations from a well-annotated reference dataset to a new, unannotated dataset. This type of method transfers labels or annotations to *individual cells*.

Cell atlas: a comprehensive map that aims to describe all the cell types in an organism, tissue, or biological system, along with their characteristics and relationships.

Cell atlas dataset: a well-annotated/curated, high-quality/high-resolution single cell (e.g., scRNA-seq) dataset with consistently processed data (i.e. with best practice workflow), expert-annotated cell types, and standardized metadata. (Short definition: the dataset of a cell atlas). It can be used as a reference for mapping new dataset or other comparative analysis.

Cell cluster: a computationally determined group of cells that have similar transcriptional profiles, identified through clustering algorithms applied to e.g., scRNA-seq data. (Short definition: a cluster in a single cell dataset).

Cell meta-atlas: an aggregated, standardized (e.g., linking to Cell Ontology), and harmonized collection of cell types from cell atlas datasets that form a unified reference of cell types. (Short definition: "meta-analysis" of cell atlases).

Cell phenotype: the manifestation of a cell's identity and function determined by its expressed genes/proteins/metabolites.

Cell type: a group of cells that share a stable, characteristic transcriptional profile that is distinct from other groups of cells. In this manuscript, we often refer the annotated cell clusters in a cell atlas dataset as cell types.

Cell type matching: a process or computational method that identifies which cell types (i.e., annotated cell clusters) in one dataset correspond to cell types in another dataset. When it indicates a computational method, this type of method aligns *clusters* across datasets.

Incremental cell type knowledge growth: a framework to expand cell types in an evolvable cell meta-atlas to form a cell type knowledgebase by incrementally adding novel cell types from new datasets to the existing cell type collection.

HRA: a comprehensive, high-resolution, three-dimensional atlas of major cells in the healthy human body [6].

Healthy adult lung and kidney datasets

The Human Lung Cell Atlas (HLCA) is an integrated cell atlas consisting of 2.4 million cells from 486 individuals spanning 49 datasets of the human respiratory system in health and disease [16]. A filtered subset of healthy cells forms the HLCA core dataset, which contains more than 0.5 million cells. Hereinafter, we will use "HLCA dataset" to mean the HLCA core healthy dataset. The HLCA atlas was constructed by adopting a supervised data integration strategy that builds a five-level hierarchical cell identity reference framework. At the finest level, the HLCA core defines 61 annotated cell types ("ann_finest_level") with well-distributed metadata of donors' demographics, anatomical, and technical variables, suggesting that any batch effects have been effectively normalized. Note that the HLCA reference includes nasal brushing samples in addition to lung structures.

The LungMAP single-cell reference (CellRef) is a reference cell atlas for both normal human
and mouse lungs developed using a guided approach for atlas construction [15], where a pre-
defined cell type dictionary (i.e., LungMAP CellCards - https://www.lungmap.net/research/cell-
cards) was used to guide the annotation of cell identities. The CellRef human dataset contains
more than 0.3 million cells/nuclei consolidated from 10 datasets and 104 donors using a
computational pipeline designed to account for both biological and technical variations.
Hereinafter, we will use "CellRef dataset" to mean the CellRef human dataset. The atlas defines
48 cell types ("celltype_level3_fullname") in normal human lung.

The Human Kidney Atlas 1.0 (HKA) is "a multimodal single-cell and spatial atlas with integrated
transcriptomic, epigenomic and imaging data over three major consortia: the Human
Biomolecular Atlas Program (HuBMAP), the Kidney Precision Medicine Project (KPMP) and the
Human Cell Atlas (HCA)" [17]. The integrated single-nucleus and single-cell RNA-seq data
consists of more than 400,000 high-quality nuclei/cells from normal tissues (18 living donor
biopsy cores) and diseased tissues (12 acute kidney injury and 15 chronic kidney disease). The
integrated atlas defines 75 consensus cell types ("subclass.full") across conditions. Only the
normal cells/nuclei (107,701) were used in this study.

The multimodal benchmarking dataset for renal cortex (mBDRC) is generated by the CZI Seed
Network. From a collection of kidney tissues from 19 "healthy" donors, 36 cell types
("author_cell_type") were reported by integrating 3' and 5' scRNA-seq and multiomics (snRNA-
seq and snATAC-seq) joint profiling. "Fresh normal tissue from the unaffected part of surgically
removed kidney of patients undergoing total nephrectomy" were used to construct this reference
[18]. This dataset is currently available in CELLxGENE as a preprint version.

Algorithms

Table 2 summarizes the cell-based algorithms benchmarked in this study along with notable
parameters and features specified in this study. "Model specification" indicates the name of the
pre-trained models used in Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches, the informative gene space used
in FR-Match, the prediction model used in scPred, and the fine-tuning option in singleR.
"Reference" specifies the reference dataset that the pre-trained models were trained on. "Code
env" states the code environment that the method is available in. "Confidence score" describes
the process used to assign a confidence score to each prediction. "Preprocessing" details the
notable pre-processing steps taken to prepare the query data.

Table 2: Summary of algorithms used in this study

Algorithm	Model specification	Reference	Code env	Confidence score	Preprocessing
Azimuth (pre-trained)	"Human - Lung v2 (HLCA)"	HLCA	R	Prediction score from multiple anchors at cell level, ranging from 0-1.	Count data + SCTransform for normalization and variance stabilization
CellTypist (pre-trained)	"Human_Lung_Atlas"	HLCA	Python	Decision score that is a linear combination of the scaled gene expression and the	Count data + scanpy.pp.normalize_total() + scanpy.pp.log1p()

				model coefficients, ranging 0-1.	
scArches (pre-trained)	"HLCA_reference_model" and "surgery_model"	HLCA	Python	Uncertainty score i.e., the probability of the predicted label is incorrect given the set of k-nearest neighbors, ranging from 0-1.	Count data + sparse matrix + ensembl ID for features + perform surgery to integrate query with reference
scPred	model = "mda"	Any	R	Training probabilities, ranging from 0-1.	Count data + seurat pipeline for preprocessing, HVG, and PCA
singleR	fine.tune = FALSE	Any	R	Aggregated Spearman correlation coefficient, ranging from 0-1.	Log-transformed data
FR-Match	marker_selection = "binary_genes"	Any	Python/ R	Adjusted p-value based on the Friedman-Rafsky statistical test, ranging from 0-1.	Log-transformed data + normalization()
CellHint	Default	Any	Python	Cross-dataset base distance, ranging from 0-1.	Combined query and reference datasets with count data + scanpy pipeline for preprocessing, HVG, and PCA

Azimuth

Azimuth employs anchors in lower-dimensional space to transfer cell-type labels from reference to query data clusters. This method first projects the query data onto a lower-dimensional space (UMAP) by applying sparse principal component analysis (sPCA) to the reference dataset. Subsequently, each query cell is compared to reference-based anchor cells to construct a k-nearest neighbor graph. Finally, Azimuth utilizes weighted voting to classify each query cell to a corresponding reference cluster.

Though an automated web application is available for Azimuth cell annotation, for large-scale query datasets and the purposes of this study, Azimuth was executed locally in R using the "RunAzimuth()" function from the Azimuth library. The pre-trained reference model is readily downloadable from the Azimuth website through Zenodo (https://zenodo.org/records/6342228).

"RunAzimuth()" accepts several forms of input for query data, including path names to AnnData H5AD files and Seurat objects. To perform the HLCA cross-validation, the query data, was subset into 10 folds according to pre-split indices. The HLCA dataset is available as a Seurat object; and each subset was used as input into "RunAzimuth()". To perform the cross-dataset matching, the CellRef dataset required additional steps to be taken before running Azimuth. As

the CellRef dataset is available as a H5AD file, the file path was provided as input for
"RunAzimuth()". Internally, the algorithm uses Seurat's "LoadH5AD()" function to convert the
H5AD file into a Seurat object for annotation. However, due to some differences in file
formatting, both the function and H5AD object were manually modified to successfully convert
the data into a Seurat object. A more comprehensive tutorial detailing this process is available in
the GitHub repository. Once the H5AD file was converted to a Seurat object, the same
procedure was applied to subset the query data into 10 folds for annotation.

CellTypist

CellTypist utilizes a logistic regression framework with stochastic gradient descent (SGD)
optimization to train its reference models. To annotate each cell, CellTypist scales each gene
according to parameters in the reference model and calculates decision scores for each query
cell based on the linear combination of its scaled gene expression and the model coefficients. It
assigns the cell type with the largest score to the query cell. CellTypist also provides an
additional refinement step, majority voting, that was enabled in this study. Majority voting uses
Leiden clustering to over-cluster query cells and re-assigns each subcluster to the majority
predicted label for that cluster.

Same as in the Azimuth process, the query data was first subset into 10 folds using the same
fold indices. Each subset was then preprocessed using "sc.pp.normalize_total(query_adata,
target_sum = 1e4)" and "sc.pp.log1p(query_adata)" from Scanpy. Then, each fold was
annotated using the annotate method from CellTypist with "majority_voting=True".

CellHint

CellHint is a two-step process to automatically harmonize cell types across datasets: (1)
calculating the global distances between cells from combined query and reference datasets,
and (2) building a clustering tree based on the distances using a predictive clustering tree
(PCT)-based tool. CellHint takes in raw count data in .h5ad format. After combining the query
and reference data into one single data object, standard scanpy pipeline is applied with batch-
specific highly variable gene (HVG) selection (i.e., "batch_key = 'dataset'"). Default setting was
used for "cellhint.harmonize()".

scArches

ScArches uses architectural surgery to incorporate new input nodes from query data with
trainable weights into a pre-trained neural network reference model. The method first maps
query data to the pre-trained neural network reference model and trains new input nodes from
the query data. Then, it uses a weighted k-nearest-neighbor classifier trained on the latent
space representation of the reference dataset. Lastly, it calculates the uncertainty of each of the
k labels for each query cell and classifies the query cell with the least uncertain label.

To use scArches, the query data was first checked for whether (1) it is a sparse matrix, (2)
whether the matrix contains raw counts, and (3) whether the data uses the same features as the
input features for its reference model. If the criterion were met, the query data was subset into
10 folds in the same process as Azimuth and CellTypist. Each subset was trained using
"surgery_model.train(accelerator='cpu', devices=1, max_epochs=surgery_epochs,

**early_stopping_kwargs_surgery)" to incorporate the subset into the reference model. The
specific parameters used for surgery model training can be found in the tutorial notebook
available in the GitHub repository. After surgery, the new surgery model is used to create a
latent representation of the reference model to be used in label transfer.

scPred

ScPred is a standalone R package that was built based on the caret R package of prediction
models to classify cells based on a low-dimensional representation of gene expression
(e.g. PCA). The low-dimensional representation is obtained from standard seurat workflow.
When training the model on the HLCA reference, "mda" was chosen instead of the default
"svmRadial" due to a documented issue on GitHub
(https://github.com/powellgenomicslab/scPred/issues/17). Instead of the ten-fold cross-
validation for HLCA, scPred has its internal reference training and evaluation steps that could
assess the training performance on the reference. After training the HLCA reference,
"get_probabilities()" was used to obtain a training probabilities matrix based on the training
performance. The confidence score for each HLCA cell is the highest training probability and the
prediction is the cell type corresponding to the highest probability.

singleR

SingleR is a standalone R package that annotates cell identities based on correlating gene
expression of pure cell types (in a reference dataset or microarray database) with single-cell
gene expression. The annotation is performed by calculating the Spearman correlation for each
single cell independently across all pure cell types, then through a fine-tuning step to improve
accuracy. The score matrix is the correlation-based scores for each cell against every possible
reference cell type, prior to any post-hoc fine-tuning. Therefore, for the benchmarking purpose
in this study, fine-tuning was tuned off ("fine.tune = FALSE") in order to be able to work with the
scores truly reflecting the correlation strength.

FR-Match

Originally developed in R, FR-Match is now implemented in Python 3
(https://github.com/BeverlyPeng/frmatch) to streamline the matching workflow in the same code
environment as Scanpy's AnnData object [55] and the NS-Forest algorithm [27, 28] for reduced
gene space selection. AnnData is a Python package that manages the annotated single cell
experiment data with computational efficient features. NS-Forest is a Python package for
machine learning-based selection of cell type marker genes, which is compatible with the
AnnData object and the Scanpy workflow.

The inputs to FR-Match are two AnnData objects (one for query and one for reference) and
user's choice of "marker_selection". The choices for "marker_selection" can be
"NSForest_markers", "binary_genes", or a user-provided list of marker genes. The reference
AnnData object has the NS-Forest results saved in the unstructured metadata slot (.uns). If
"NSForest_markers" or "binary_genes" is chosen, the corresponding list of genes will be
extracted directly from .uns. Both the query and reference objects will be reduced to the chosen
list of genes as the dimensionality reduction step in FR-Match. In this study,
"marker_selection='binary_genes'" was used.

Before matching, the "normalization()" function is used to align the expression distributions of
the two datasets, which performs a weighted per-gene min-max scaling to normalize the gene
expression values to the range of [0, 1]. There are two main functions for conducting the
matching: FRmatch() for cluster-based matching, and FRmatch_cell2cluster() for cell-based
matching. As the other methods, the cell-based matching was conducted through subsetting the
query data into 10 folds and matching each fold to the reference respectively. The cluster-based
FR-Match does not need to subset the query data as it leverages the query clusters and assigns
matching to each of the query clusters as a whole. One of the outputs from FR-Match algorithm
is the adjusted p-values based on the non-parametric Friedman-Rafsky statistical test, which
serves as an objective confidence score for the matching quality. Based on the adjusted p-value,
a matching assignment is determined by adjusted p-value >= 0.05, and "unassigned" is
determined by adjusted p-value < 0.05.

For the two-way matching, FRmatch() was run twice with the query and reference datasets
switched. The plot_bi_FRmatch() function was used to combine the two sets of results and
produce the two-way matching plot. Note that, since FR-Match utilizes the query cluster
information, a query cluster with too few cells are removed in the algorithm. Hence, the query
lymphatic EC proliferating in HLCA and the query chondrocyte in CellRef were removed in the
FR-Match analyses.

Iterative subsampling scheme in FR-Match

FR-Match is run on each pair of query and reference clusters with equal number of subsampled
cells (usually 20 cells) and iteratively sampling cells across the entire cluster with certain
number of iterations (usually 1000 iterations). These parameters are tunable using
"subsamp_size" and "subsamp_iter". For cluster-to-cluster matching, it is not necessary to
sample every single cell in the cluster, assuming similar cells are grouped in the same cluster.
For cell-to-cluster matching, it takes more iterations to sample the entire query cluster for larger
clusters and fewer iterations for rare types, therefore, FR-Match could achieve higher accuracy
in the rare types and had slightly lower accuracy in the very large clusters that would require
much more iterations to go through the entire cluster. To account for the outlier cluster sizes, the
parameters "subsamp_iter_custom_k" is implemented to set customized number of iterations for
the very large clusters that are not at the same scale as the remaining clusters. E.g., if
"subsamp_iter_custom_k = 5", it will set the number of iterations to be at least "subsamp_iter" or
5 times the cluster size for each query cluster.

Cell type taxonomy dendrogram

Dendrogram is an informative visualization of a cell type taxonomy. The HLCA taxonomy
dendrogram is generated using "scanpy.tl.dendrogram()" [56], which computes a hierarchical
clustering for the given cell type annotations. Hierarchical clustering is an unsupervised machine
learning technique that groups cell types based on the similarity of their expression profiles in a
tree structure, so that similar cell types are grouped together in the same branch. In the HLCA
dendrogram, the cell types form major branches of immune, epithelial, endothelial and stromal
cells, reflecting the hierarchy of cell classes and types.

Colorize ROC curves and confidence scores

The colorized ROC curves (**Supplementary Figure 2**), shaded by the confidence score, help
visualize the relationship between the prediction confidence with the true and false positive

rates. In an ideal case, the colorized plot would display a 1 to 0 score gradient as the curve
transitions from the start point (0, 0) to the end point (1,1), which would indicate high confidence
associated with correct (true positive) predictions (red-orange portion of the curve) and medium
to low confidence associated with incorrect (false positive) predictions (cyan-blue portion of the
curve). The heatmaps (**Supplementary Figure 3**) further illustrate the effect of false positives,
i.e., cells from specific clusters that were mislabeled with high confidence (the off-diagonal
values in the heatmap), on the shape of the ROC curves and quality of the predictions by each
method. Note that clusters in the heatmap are ordered by their similarities to each other based
on the HLCA taxonomy dendrogram. For example, FR-Match, which has the highest AUC score,
has a nearly clean diagonal in its heatmap. There are a few dark squares just off the diagonal,
which means that high confidence scores were assigned to closely similar cell types. SingleR,
Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches have noisier heatmaps, resulting in the shallowing of the
slopes of their ROC curves. The scPred heatmap has the most dark squares (confidence score
close to 1), which led to the unusual shape of its ROC curve, suggesting the confidence scores
do not show a linearly monotonic relationship with true positives predictions. The confidence
score heatmaps suggest a need to eliminate false positives (i.e., off-diagonal high confidence
scores) in the score calculation.

NS-Forest marker gene selection

NS-Forest is a marker gene selection algorithm based on random forest machine learning. The
NS-Forest v4 algorithm is used in this study. The NS-Forest algorithm reports the F-beta score,
precision, and recall as metrics to quantify the strength of cell type classification using the
selected marker genes. NS-Forest marker genes are the minimum combination among the top
features ranked by random forest Gini Impurity index and binary scores that achieves the
highest F-beta score in the decision tree evaluation. The algorithm also outputs the top 10
binary genes double-ranked by random forest and binary scores, which represents a more
comprehensive list of genes that are highly expressed in a given cell type. The NS-Forest
marker genes were visualized in the "barcode" plots; and the binary genes were used in FR-
Match in the lung analysis. The NS-Forest "barcode" plots for all recommended matching pairs
and atlas-specific cell types are in **Supplementary Figure 20-24**. The recommended matching
results with NS-Forest marker genes are in **Supplementary Table 2**.

High confidence match

For the cell-based methods, the matching results were saved in a table (**Supplementary Table**
1) where rows are the CellRef cells, and columns are the true CellRef label ("cellref_true") and
the predicted HLCA label and corresponding prediction score by each method ("azimuth_pred",
"azimuth_score", "celltypist_pred", "celltypist_score", "frmatch_pred", "frmatch_score",
"scarches_pred", "scarches_score"). To summarize the cell-based matching results into cluster-
level matching, a contingency table of matching proportions p_{ij} for predicted HLCA label = i and
true CellRef label = j were calculated, where

$$p_{ij} = \frac{number\ of\ cells\ matched\ between\ i\ and\ j}{total\ number\ of\ cells\ of\ j}, \text{ so that } \sum_{i \in \{all\ HLCA\ labels\}} p_{ij} = 1.$$

For each method, these values were plotted in **Figure 5A**, where the column sums should be1;
however, the row sums of these proportions may be larger than 1, which means that, at the
cluster-level, many CellRef clusters were matched to the same HLCA cluster. To normalize the

row sums, we define $q_{ij} = \frac{p_{ij}}{\sum_j p_{ij}}$, which can be interpreted as the cluster-level precision, ranging

from 0 to 1. In the most ideal situation where the CellRef cluster and the HLCA cluster is a one-

to-one match, $p_{ij} = q_{ij} = 1$. However, this is very hard to achieve. Practically, the high

confidence matches are determined by requiring $p_{ij} > 0.5$ and $q_{ij} > 0.3$, which means the

majority of the CellRef cells of label j were matched to HLCA label i, and the cluster-level

precision is at least 30%. The values for p_{ij} and q_{ij} for the recommended matches are in

Supplementary Table 3; and all high confidence matches for each method are in

Supplementary Table 4-7.

Analyses of more studies

The query and reference datasets identified in Supplementary Table 8 were processed

separately. Count data were used for scArches; log-transformed data were used for the other

methods. When processing the retina and fetal immune datasets, significant overlapping cells

were noted and removed from the query data to avoid the "easy" situation that the same cells

were matched in the query and reference datasets. Integrated cell type annotations were

provided by the brain atlas, but the integrated dataset was not available. Two sub-studies from

the brain atlas were matched on their integrated label instead of their original annotations.

Similarly, two sub-studies from the mouse skeleton atlas were matched on their integrated label.

After data processing and identifying the annotation levels to match, the same script templates

of each method were used for all studies.

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Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

Not applicable.

Consent for publication

Not applicable.

Data availability

The HLCA dataset was download from CZ CELLxGENE:
https://cellxgene.cziscience.com/collections/6f6d381a-7701-4781-935c-db10d30de293, namely
"An integrated cell atlas of the human lung in health and disease (core)".

The CellRef dataset was downloaded from LungMAP:
https://www.lungmap.net/omics/?experiment_id=LMEX0000004396, namely
"LungMAP_HumanLung_CellRef.v1.1.h5ad".

The Lake et al. dataset was download from CZ CELLxGENE:
https://cellxgene.cziscience.com/collections/bcb61471-2a44-4d00-a0af-ff085512674c, namely
"Integrated Single-nucleus and Single-cell RNA-seq of the Adult Human Kidney".

The Acera-Mateos et al. (mBDRC) dataset was download from CZ CELLxGENE:
https://cellxgene.cziscience.com/collections/4cbb929b-b03b-4aa8-a943-00f61dc22641, namely
"multimodal benchmarking dataset for renal cortex characterization".

Data download sites of the additional studies are in Supplementary Table 8.

Code availability

Codes developed in this study are documented in the tutorial notebooks, as a benchmark and
protocols to compare and optimize current and future cell type matching tools, available via
GitHub (https://github.com/jjoycehu/manuscript).

Azimuth in R: https://github.com/satijalab/azimuth

CellTypist in Python: https://github.com/Teichlab/celltypist

scArches in Python: https://github.com/theislab/scarches

FR-Match in R: https://github.com/JCVenterInstitute/FRmatch

FR-Match in Python: https://github.com/BeverlyPeng/frmatch

CellHint in Python: https://github.com/Teichlab/cellhint

Competing interests

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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Authors' contributions

YZ, RHS and KB conceived the project. YZ and RHS designed the study. JH and BP implemented the workflows and conducted the analyses. JH, BP, AVP, BX, and VAD contributed to the data analyses. JH, RHS and YZ interpreted the results. JH and YZ managed the datasets and results. BP built the software package. AB, BWH, and KB coordinate cell type annotation usage in the Human Reference Atlas resource. YZ and CD contributed to the project management. JH, BP, KB, RHS and YZ wrote the manuscript. All authors agreed on the contents of the manuscript.

Acknowledgements

Figure 1. Study overview. Constructing an integrated human lung reference atlas using computational cell type matching between lung atlas datasets from single cell transcriptomic profiling, in support of incremental growth of a cell type knowledgebase. **(A)** Unsupervised and supervised cell type matching between query and reference datasets. The unsupervised cell type matching is when the query dataset has no cluster / cell type labels, so that the matching direction can only be in one direction from the query to the reference. The supervised cell type matching is when both datasets have annotated cell types, so that two-way cell type matching is possible to crossmatch the cell types in the two datasets. **(B)** Cell-based and cluster-based cell type matching methods. Azimuth, CellTypist, and scArches perform cell-based nearest neighbor label transfer, i.e., from query cell to reference cell, and assign the reference cell label to the query cell, using models pre-trained on a pre-defined reference dataset. The lung models in

these three methods were pre-trained using the HLCA dataset as the reference. ScPred,
singleR, and FR-Match are standalone methods for annotating scRNA-seq data using any
reference data. For benchmarking, the same reference, HLCA, was used for these methods.
FR-Match has both cell-based and cluster-based matching options: cell-to-cluster is from query
cell to reference cluster and cluster-to-cluster is from query cluster to reference cluster. If both
datasets are optimally-clustered, FR-Match cluster-to-cluster performs two-way matching (i.e.,
CellRef ←→ HLCA). CellHint performs cluster-level cell type harmonization with any datasets of
choice. **(C)** A sustainable workflow for continued evolution of reference atlases requires a
strategy that identifies new cell types from new datasets to be integrated to the reference atlas
while preserving the cell type memberships of existing cells, to support the incremental growth
of the knowledgebase.
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Figure 2. Benchmarking performance of cell-based annotation/matching methods in
HLCA using 10-fold cross-validation. (A) Distribution of cluster sizes of the cell types
represented in the HLCA dataset. **(B)** Precision, recall, and F1-score for each method (scPred,
singleR, Azimuth, CellTypist, scArches, and FR-Match cell-to-cluster): (i) overall performance
averaged by all cells and (ii) performance by each cluster. **(C)** Bar plots of cluster-level
annotation accuracy for each method, sorted by cluster size with the proportion of cells correctly
(green) or incorrectly (red) labelled. Due to a lack of cells in the smallest cluster after a 10-fold
split (less than 3 cells in each fold), FR-Match filtered out this cluster as having too few cells for
confident matching (see **Methods**). **(D)** ROC curve and AUC values for each method.
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Figure 3. Benchmarking of the cell-based methods across the CellRef and HLCA datasets.
The cell type annotation/matching is from CellRef as the query dataset to HLCA as the
reference dataset (CellRef → HLCA). **(A)** Distribution of cluster sizes of cell types represented
in the CellRef dataset. **(B)** Summary of level of prediction agreement across all methods
(Azimuth, CellTypist, scArches, and FR-Match cell-to-cluster) at the cell-level. **(C)** Stacked bar
plot depicting level of prediction agreement across all methods at the cluster-level, ordered by
cluster size. **(D)** Proportion of agreement between two methods' predictions for each cluster,
ordered by cluster size. Note that chondrocyte was filtered out in FR-Match due to its small
cluster size.
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Figure 4. UMAP of cell-based matching results of CellRef cells to the HLCA reference. (A)
CellRef cells in the CellRef UMAP embeddings are colored by HLCA labels predicted by
Azimuth (i), CellTypist (ii), scArches (iii), and FR-Match cell-to-cluster (iv). Red circles highlight
regions with major differences. **(B-C)** Detailed views of the highlighted regions in (A) for
comparison of the CellRef original labels and the HLCA predictions for these cells. Methods
used in (i)-(iv) are the same as in (A). The dotted circles indicate the major differences in
interstitial macrophage (IM) and basal cell. Cells with the original label of cDC1, maDC, cDC2,
IM, iMON, pMON are plotted with predictions in the "IM" region plot in (B). Cells with the original
label of deuterosomal, goblet, suprabasal, tuft, and basal are plotted with predictions in the
"basal" region plot in (C).

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Figure 5. Matching between the 48 cell types in CellRef and the 61 cell types in HLCA.
Cell-based matching results are summarized at the cluster-level. The 48 CellRef cell types are
on the horizontal axis; the 61 HLCA cell types are on the vertical axis. Each circle in the plot is
the proportion of cells in the original CellRef cluster matched to each of the corresponding
HLCA clusters (CellRef as query to HLCA as reference), so that the proportions in each column
sum up to 1. The dendrogram to the left shows the hierarchical clustering order of the HLCA cell
types, which groups similar cell types near each other in the dendrogram based on their
transcriptional profiles (**Methods**). The CellRef cell types are ordered according to the HLCA
dendrogram order so that the matching proportions in the figure align close to the diagonal; an
off-diagonal circle suggests a mismatch. In the FR-Match figure, "unassigned" cells are
collected in the bottom row, indicating the statistically weak matching of these cells to all HLCA
clusters. The highlighted boxes are examples of different matching patterns by the methods for
dendritic cell types (A) and for "unassigned" cells (B).
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Figure 6. Cluster-based matching of healthy lung cell types. (A) FR-Match cluster-to-cluster
results of the CellRef ⟷ HLCA cell type matching. Two-way matches of the CellRef and
HLCA cell types. CellRef as query to HLCA as reference and HLCA as query to CellRef as
reference were both performed by FR-Match. The red blocks indicate two-way matches where
the matched/unassigned cell types are agreed by both matching directions. **(B)** CellHint
harmonization results of CellRef and HLCA. Rows are the HLCA cell types ordered by the
dendrogram. Columns in (A) and (B) are ordered differently, each optimizing the matches along
the diagonal and grouping the unassigned at the end. **(C)** Tree plot outputted from CellHint.
Each red block in (B) correspond to an edge in (C). **(D)** Total count table and disagreements
between FR-Match and CellHint. Cyan boxes correspond to disagreements.
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1159
1160 **Figure 7. Recommended matching of the lung cell types between CellRef and HLCA.** 41
1161 recommended cell type matches (cluster-based matching + cell-based matching) out of 61
1162 HLCA cell types and 48 CellRef cell types. An additional 20 cell types are unique to HLCA and 7
1163 cell types are unique to CellRef.
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Figure 8. Use of NS-Forest marker genes to disambiguate potential matches. Each
heatmap shows the gene expression pattern of 30 randomly selected cells (columns) from the
plotting cell type in the NS-Forest marker gene space (rows). **(A)** The recommended matching
of HLCA pre-TB secretory and CellRef respiratory airway secretory cell are
SCGB3A2^high *SCGB1A1*^high *SFTPB*^high, whereas the HLCA AT0 is

SCGB3A2^{high} *SCGB1A1*^{low} *SFTPB*^{high}, and the CellRef secretory cell is
SCGB3A2^{low} *SCGB1A1*^{high} *SFTPB*^{low} **(B)** Distinction of T regulatory cells from CD4+ T cells by
markers *FOXP3* and *CTLA4*. **(C)** The CellRef goblet cell type is likely under-partitioned,
containing both club cells expressing *SCGB1A1* and goblet cells expressing *MUC5AC.* **(D)** NS-
Forest marker gene spaces of HLCA and CellRef.
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1171 $SCGB3A2^{high}$ $SCGB1A1^{low}$ $SFTPB^{high}$, and the CellRef secretory cell is
1172 $SCGB3A2^{low}$ $SCGB1A1^{high}$ $SFTPB^{low}$ **(B)** Distinction of T regulatory cells from CD4+ T cells by
1173   markers *FOXP3* and *CTLA4*. **(C)** The CellRef goblet cell type is likely under-partitioned,
1174   containing both club cells expressing *SCGB1A1* and goblet cells expressing *MUC5AC.* **(D)** NS-
1175   Forest marker gene spaces of HLCA and CellRef.
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An evolving meta-atlas with incrementally growing cell types

Figure 9. An example of incremental cell type knowledge growth in practice. The
knowledge graph captures the knowledge derived from single cell experiments in the cell set,
cell set dataset, and publication nodes and connects with existing knowledge in biomedical
ontologies in the cell type nodes (Cell Ontology) and anatomy structure node (UBERON),
showing a collection of matched cell types and specific cell sets emerged from the cell atlases.
Cell set node: a cell cluster in a cell atlas dataset. Cell set dataset node: a cell atlas dataset.
Cell type node: a Cell Ontology term linked with Cell Ontology identifier.

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1187 **Figure 10. Cluster-based matching of human kidney cell types. (A)** FR-Match cluster-to-
1188 cluster two-way matching results. **(B)** CellHint cell type harmonization results. **(C)** Tree plot
1189 outputted from CellHint. Each red block in **(B)** correspond to an edge in **(C)**. **(D)** Total count
1190 table and disagreements between FR-Match and CellHint. Cyan boxed correspond to
1191 disagreements.
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1510

A Query (unsupervised)   Reference   Query (supervised)   Reference

B **Cell type matching methods**

	Method	Reference	Query
1	Azimuth (pre-trained)	HLCA	Unsupervised
2	CellTypist (pre-trained)	HLCA	Unsupervised
3	scArches (pre-trained)	HLCA	Unsupervised
4	scPred	Any (HLCA)	Unsupervised
5	singleR	Any (HLCA)	Unsupervised
6a	FR-Match cell-to-cluster	Any (HLCA)	Unsupervised
6b	FR-Match cluster-to-cluster	Both	Supervised
7	CellHint	Both	Supervised

Cell-based matching (rows 1–6a)

Cluster-based matching (rows 6b–7)

C

Reference Atlas v1

New data   New data   ⬭ New cell type

v2, v3, … Incremental cell type knowledge growth

A CellRef Cluster Size

B

76.7%

0.2%

8.4%

14.7%

Max Agreement
- 4
- 3
- 2
- 1

C

D Cluster-level pairwise prediction agreement (ordered by cluster sizes)

Azimuth vs. CellTypist - Overall: 0.703

Azimuth vs. FR-Match - Overall: 0.64

Azimuth vs. scArches - Overall: 0.745

CellTypist vs. FR-Match - Overall: 0.745

CellTypist vs. scArches - Overall: 0.741

FR-Match vs. scArches - Overall: 0.702

Agree   Disagree   NA

A

azimuth_pred

(i)

celltypist_pred

(ii)

scarches_pred

(iii)

frmatch_pred

(iv)

UMAP1

UMAP1

UMAP2

UMAP2

HLCA labels

- Basal resting
- Suprabasal
- Hillock-like
- Deuterosomal
- Multiciliated (nasal)
- Multiciliated (non-nasal)
- Club (non-nasal)
- Club (nasal)
- Goblet (nasal)
- Goblet (bronchial)
- Goblet (subsegmental)
- AT0
- pre-TB secretory
- Ionocyte
- Tuft
- Neuroendocrine
- SMG serous (nasal)
- SMG serous (bronchial)
- SMG mucous
- SMG duct
- AT1
- AT2
- AT2 proliferating
- EC arterial
- EC aerocyte capillary
- EC general capillary
- EC venous systemic
- EC venous pulmonary
- Lymphatic EC mature
- Lymphatic EC proliferating
- Lymphatic EC differentiating
- Peribronchial fibroblasts
- Adventitial fibroblasts
- Alveolar fibroblasts
- Pericytes
- Subpleural fibroblasts
- Myofibroblasts
- Smooth muscle
- Smooth muscle FAM83D+
- SM activated stress response
- Mesothelium
- Hematopoietic stem cells
- B cells
- Plasma cells
- CD4 T cells
- CD8 T cells
- T cells proliferating
- NK cells
- DC1
- DC2
- Migratory DCs
- Plasmacytoid DCs
- Alveolar macrophages
- Alveolar Mph CCL3+
- Alveolar Mph MT-positive
- Alveolar Mph proliferating
- Monocyte-derived Mph
- Interstitial Mph perivascular
- Classical monocytes
- Non-classical monocytes
- Mast cells

B CellRef original labels

UMAP2

UMAP1

maDC

cDC1

pMON

cDC2

iMON

IM

Predictions

(i) (ii)

(iii) (iv)

C CellRef original labels

Goblet

Deuterosomal

Ciliated

Basal

Suprabasal

Tuft

Predictions

(i) (ii)

(iii) (iv)

HLCA cell types (hierarchical clustering order)

Immune
1. Alveolar Mph MT-positive
2. Alveolar Mph CCL3+
3. Alveolar macrophages
4. Alveolar Mph proliferating
5. DC2
6. DC1
7. Migratory DCs
8. Classical monocytes
9. Non-classical monocytes
10. Monocyte-derived Mph
11. Interstitial Mph perivascular
12. Hematopoietic stem cells
13. Mast cells
14. T cells proliferating
15. NK cells
16. CD4 T cells
17. CD8 T cells
18. Plasma cells
19. B cells
20. Plasmacytoid DCs

Endothelial and stromal
21. Lymphatic EC mature
22. Lymphatic EC proliferating
23. Mesothelium
24. Adventitial fibroblasts
25. Subpleural fibroblasts
26. Peribronchial fibroblasts
27. Alveolar fibroblasts
28. Myofibroblasts
29. SM activated stress response
30. Pericytes
31. Smooth muscle
32. Smooth muscle FAM83D+
33. EC venous systemic
34. EC arterial
35. EC venous pulmonary
36. Lymphatic EC differentiating
37. EC aerocyte capillary
38. EC general capillary

Epithelial
39. Suprabasal
40. Hillock-like
41. Basal resting
42. Tuft
43. SMG mucous
44. SMG serous (nasal)
45. SMG serous (bronchial)
46. AT2
47. AT2 proliferating
48. AT0
49. pre-TB secretory
50. Club (nasal)
51. Goblet (nasal)
52. Goblet (bronchial)
53. Goblet (subsegmental)
54. Club (non-nasal)
55. SMG duct
56. AT1
57. Ionocyte
58. Neuroendocrine
59. Deuterosomal
60. Multiciliated (nasal)
61. Multiciliated (non-nasal)
62. Unassigned

CellRef cell types (order in the figure)

1. Alveolar macrophage
2. Classical DC subset 2
3. Classical DC subset 1
4. Mature DC subset
5. Neutrophil
6. Inflammatory monocyte
7. Patrolling monocyte
8. Interstitial macrophage
9. Megakaryocyte/Platelet
10. Mast/Basophil
11. Natural killer cell
12. CD4+ T cell
13. T regulatory cell
14. Innate lymphoid cell
15. CD8+ T cell
16. Plasma cell
17. B cell
18. Plasmacytoid DC
19. Lymphatic endothelial cell
20. Mesothelial cell
21. Alveolar fibroblast 2
22. Alveolar fibroblast 1
23. Chondrocyte
24. Secondary crest myofibroblast
25. Pericyte
26. Vascular smooth muscle cell
27. Airway smooth muscle cell
28. Systemic venous endothelial cell
29. Arterial endothelial cell
30. Venous endothelial cell
31. Capillary 2 cell
32. Capillary 1 cell
33. Myoepithelial cell
34. Suprabasal cell
35. Basal cell
36. Tuft cell
37. Mucous cell
38. Serous cell
39. Alveolar type 2 cell
40. Respiratory airway secretory cell
41. Secretory cell
42. Goblet cell
43. SMG Basal/Duct cell
44. Alveolar type 1 cell
45. Ionocyte
46. Pulmonary neuroendocrine cell
47. Deuterosomal cell
48. Ciliated cell

Prop
- 0.00
- 0.25
- 0.50
- 0.75
- 1.00

Azimuth

CellTypist

scArches

FR-Match

HLCA	CellRef	Match	HLCA_ClusterName	CellRef_ClusterName	Cluster-based matching		Cell-based matching				RecommendedMatching
					FRMatch_TwoWayMatch	CellHint_Harmonization	Azimuth_HiConfMatch	CellTypist_HiConfMatch	scArches_HiConfMatch	FRMatch_HiConfMatch	
3	1	1	Alveolar macrophages	Alveolar macrophage	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
5	2	2	DC2	Classical DC subset 2	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
6	3	3	DC1	Classical DC subset 1	Y	Y	N	Y	N	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
7	4	4	Migratory DCs	Mature DC subset	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
8	6	5	Classical monocytes	Inflammatory monocyte	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
9	7	6	Non-classical monocytes	Patrolling monocyte	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
11	8	7	Interstitial Mph perivascular	Interstitial macrophage	Y	N	N	N	N	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
13	10	8	Mast cells	Mast/Basophil	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
15	11	9	NK cells	Natural killer cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
16	12	10	CD4 T cells	CD4+ T cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
17	15	11	CD8 T cells	CD8+ T cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
18	16	12	Plasma cells	Plasma cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
19	17	13	B cells	B cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
20	18	14	Plasmacytoid DCs	Plasmacytoid DC	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
21	19	15	Lymphatic EC mature	Lymphatic endothelial cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
23	20	16	Mesothelium	Mesothelial cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
24	21	17	Adventitial fibroblasts	Alveolar fibroblast 2	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
27	22	18	Alveolar fibroblasts	Alveolar fibroblast 1	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
28	24	19	Myofibroblasts	Secondary crest myofibroblast	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
30	25	20	Pericytes	Pericyte	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
31	26	21	Smooth muscle	Vascular smooth muscle cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
32	27	22	Smooth muscle FAM83D+	Airway smooth muscle cell	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
33	28	23	EC venous systemic	Systemic venous endothelial cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
34	29	24	EC arterial	Arterial endothelial cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
35	30	25	EC venous pulmonary	Venous endothelial cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
37	31	26	EC aerocyte capillary	Capillary 2 cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
38	32	27	EC general capillary	Capillary 1 cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
39	34	28	Suprabasal	Suprabasal cell	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
41	35	29	Basal resting	Basal cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
42	36	30	Tuft	Tuft cell	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
43	37	31	SMG mucous	Mucous cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	N	HLCA2CellRef_Match
45	38	32	SMG serous (bronchial)	Serous cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
46	39	33	AT2	Alveolar type 2 cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
49	40	34	pre-TB secretory	Respiratory airway secretory cell	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
54	42	35	Club (non-nasal)	Goblet cell	Y	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA2CellRef_boardMatch
55	43	36	SMG duct	SMG Basal/Duct cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
56	44	37	AT1	Alveolar type 1 cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
57	45	38	Ionocyte	Ionocyte	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
58	46	39	Neuroendocrine	Pulmonary neuroendocrine cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
59	47	40	Deuterosomal	Deuterosomal cell	Y	Y	Y	N	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
61	48	41	Multiciliated (non-nasal)	Ciliated cell	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	HLCA2CellRef_Match
1	42		Alveolar Mph MT-positive		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
2	43		Alveolar Mph CCL3+		Y (Alveolar macrophage)	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
4	44		Alveolar Mph proliferating		N	Y (Alveolar macrophage)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
10	45		Monocyte-derived Mph		N	Y (Inflammatory monocyte)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
12	46		Hematopoietic stem cells		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
14	47		T cells proliferating		N	Y (CD8+ T cell)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
22	48		Lymphatic EC proliferating		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
25	49		Subpleural fibroblasts		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
26	50		Peribronchial fibroblasts		N	Y (Chondrocyte)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
29	51		SM activated stress response		N	Y (Vascular smooth muscle cell)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
36	52		Lymphatic EC differentiating		Y (Lymphatic endothelial cell)	Y (Lymphatic endothelial cell)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
40	53		Hillock-like		N	Y (Suprabasal cell)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
44	54		SMG serous (nasal)		N	N	N	N	N	N	SMG-specific
47	55		AT2 proliferating		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
48	56		AT0		Y (Respiratory airway secretory cell)	Y (Respiratory airway secretory cell)	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
51	57		Goblet (nasal)		N	N	N	Y (Goblet)	N	N	HLCA-specific
50	58		Club (nasal)		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
52	59		Goblet (bronchial)		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
53	60		Goblet (subsegmental)		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
60	61		Multiciliated (nasal)		N	N	N	N	N	N	HLCA-specific
5	62			Neutrophil	N	Y (Classical monocytes)	Y (Classical monocytes)	Y (Classical monocytes)	Y (Classical monocytes)	N	CellRef-specific
9	63			Megakaryocyte/Platelet	N	N	N	Y (Mast cells)	Y (Smooth muscle)	N	CellRef-specific
13	64			T regulatory cell	Y (CD4 T cells)	N	Y (CD4 T cells)	Y (CD4 T cells)	Y (CD4 T cells)	Y (CD4 T cells)	CellRef-specific
14	65			Innate lymphoid cell	N	Y (CD4 T cells)	N	N	N	Y (CD4 T cells)	CellRef-specific
23	66			Chondrocyte	NA	Y (Peribronchial fibroblasts)	N	N	N	NA	CellRef-specific
33	67			Myoepithelial cell	N	N	Y (Suprabasal)	N	Y (Suprabasal)	N	CellRef-specific
41	68			Secretory cell	Y (pre-TB secretory)	Y (Club (non-nasal))	Y (Club (non-nasal))	Y (pre-TB secretory)	Y (pre-TB secretory)	Y (pre-TB secretory)	CellRef-specific

An evolving meta-atlas with incrementally growing cell types