LCA robustly reveals subtle diversity in large-scale single-cell

RNA-seq data

Changde Cheng[1], John Easton[1], Celeste Rosencrance[1], Yan Li[2], Bensheng Ju[1], Justin

Williams[1], Heather L Mulder[1], Wenan Chen[1] & Xiang Chen*[1]

Author affiliation:

[1]Department of Computational Biology, St. Jude Children's Research Hospital,

Memphis, Tennessee 38105, USA

[2]Division of Biostatistics, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455, USA

*Correspondence should be addressed to Xiang Chen (xiang.chen@stjude.org).

Abstract

Single-cell RNA sequencing has emerged as a powerful tool for characterizing the cell-to-cell variation and dynamics. We present Latent Cellular Analysis (LCA), a machine learning–based analytical pipeline that features a dual-space model search with inference of latent cellular states, control of technical variations, cosine similarity measurement, and spectral clustering. LCA has proved to be robust, accurate, scalable, and powerful in revealing subtle diversity in cell populations.

Keywords

Clustering, Single-cell RNA-seq

Backgrounds

Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) enables the characterization of cell-to-cell variation in transcript abundance, leading to a deep understanding of the diversity of cell types and the dynamics of cell states in populations of thousands to tens of thousands of single cells [1-3]. Although scRNA-seq offers enormous opportunities and has inspired a tremendous explosion of data-analysis methods for identifying heterogeneous subpopulations, significant challenges can arise because of the inherently high noise associated with data sparsity and the ever-increasing number of cells sequenced. The current state-of-the-art algorithms have significant limitations. The biological meaning of the cell-to-cell similarity learned by most machine learning–based tools (such as Seurat [4], Monocle2 [5], SIMLR [6], and SC3 [7]) is difficult to interpret. Several methods require the user to provide an estimation of the number of clusters in the data, and this may not be readily available. Furthermore, most methods have a high computational cost that will be prohibitive for datasets representing large numbers of cells. Lastly, although certain technical biases (e.g., cell-specific library complexity) have been recognized as major confounding factors in scRNA-seq analyses [8], other technical variations (e.g., batch effects and systematic technical variations that are irrelevant to the biological hypothesis being evaluated) have received minimal attention, even though they present major challenges to the analyses [9]. Most methods employ a gene-selection step before clustering analysis, based on the assumption that a small subset of highly variable genes is most informative for revealing cellular diversity. Although this assumption may be valid in many scenarios, it fails when informative genes are not

most variable. This can happen when the difference among subpopulations is subtle, or

there is a strong batch effect, while most variable genes differ by batch.

To address these issues, we developed Latent Cellular Analysis (LCA), an accurate,

robust, and scalable computational pipeline that will facilitate a deep understanding of

the transcriptomic states and dynamics of single cells in large-scale scRNA-seq

datasets. LCA makes a robust inference of the number of populations directly from the

data (a user can specify this with a priori information), rigorously models the

contributions from potentially confounding factors, generates a biologically interpretable

characterization of the cellular states, and better reveals the underlying population

structures. Furthermore, LCA addresses the scalability problem by learning a model

from a subset of the sample, after which a theoretical scheme is used to assign the

remaining cells to identified populations.

Results

Overview of the LCA method

LCA employs a heuristic dual-space search approach (**Fig. 1**) to provide an optimal

model for subpopulation structure identification (including the removal of confounding

factors, the inference of the number of clusters and informative states, and a mapping

function from the expression vector to cluster membership). In the primary latent cellular

(LC) space, LCA bypasses gene selection and performs LC state inference from the

global gene expression matrix, removes cellular states representing known confounding

factors (e.g., cell-specific library complexity and batch information), and measures cell-

to-cell similarity by using the cosine of the angle between the low-dimensional cellular-

state vectors. Spectral clustering is employed to derive a set of candidate clustering

models with a range of cluster numbers. Meanwhile, in the dual principle component

(PC) space, cells are projected into a low-dimensional space based on principal

component analysis (PCA) of the expression vector. The list of significant components

is determined by the Tracy-Widom test [10], and cell-to-cell similarity is measured by

correlation similarity in the PC space. LCA then ranks candidate clustering models

derived in the LC space by the silhouette index [11] measured in the PC space. Finally,

LCA retains informative cellular states from the selected clustering model(s) and uses

these states to update the final clustering solution(s). Although the "optimal model" is

not necessarily the solution with the best numerical score, it should be among the top-

ranked models. Therefore, LCA provides users with multiple top-ranked solutions for

biology-based evaluations.

LCA accurately identifies cellular states in simulated datasets

We benchmarked LCA with four commonly used state-of-the-art scRNA-seq clustering

algorithms (SC3 [7], Seurat [4], Monocle2 [5], and SIMLR [6]) in 3000 simulated

datasets. LCA outperformed competing methods in subpopulation number inference,

cluster membership inference, and running time.

We simulated three equally spaced cell subpopulations of various sizes by shuffling a

predetermined number of genes across cells from high-quality, Unique Molecular

Identifier (UMI)-based scRNA-seq data. We simulated seven scenarios with increasing

signal strength, varying the number of simulated differentially expressed genes (DEGs),

the fold change among groups, and the average expression levels of the simulated

DEGs. We also investigated the effect of the sample size (from 250 to 4000 cells) on

the performance of the algorithms.

A typical clustering analysis partitions data points into meaningful subgroups without a

priori knowledge of the number of subsets or their compositions. An essential

component of clustering analysis is inferring the number of clusters from the data [12],

which presents an analytical challenge distinct from that posed by clustering with a

given number of clusters. Therefore, we first analyzed the accuracy and robustness of

the subpopulation number inference. Monocle2 and SIMLR were excluded from this

analysis because both algorithms require an input of the number of clusters from end-

users. **Fig. 2A** shows that although LCA started with a slightly off-target estimation of

the cluster number in datasets with very weak signal strength, it stably converged to the

correct number with increasing signal strength from the number of cells, the number of

DEGs, the fold difference, or the expression level. In contrast, using SC3 or Seurat

resulted in an upward bias in the estimation of the number of clusters, and this bias

increased with both the sample size and the signal strength. For example, in simulated

model #6, with the strongest signal strength, the actual cluster number remained the

same (three) for all sample sizes, but SC3 estimated medians of four, eight, and sixteen

clusters in datasets with 250, 1000, and 4000 cells, respectively. Seurat estimated

medians of three, four, and nine subpopulations in the same respective datasets.

Combining the results of all simulations, we find that LCA arrived at the correct number

of clusters in 70.2% of simulations, which is a significantly higher percentage than was

achieved with SC3 (5.6%, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ [proportion test]) and Seurat (22.7%,

$P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ [proportion test]).

We used the variation of information (VI [13], 0 for perfect matching) (**Fig. 2B**) and

normalized mutual information (NMI [14], 1 for perfect matching) (**Fig. 2C**) to measure

the clustering accuracy. For methods with a feature for inferring the number of clusters

from the data (LCA, SC3, and Seurat), we compared the ground-truth labels with

inferred cluster membership from the optimal clustering models. For methods without

this inference feature (Monocle2 and SIMLR), the optimal models were derived with the

correct number of clusters (three). The comparison showed that LCA outperformed

other methods in most simulations (**Fig. 2**). When all 3000 simulation datasets were

combined, LCA achieved the highest overall accuracy (average NMI = 0.756;

VI = 0.555). Specifically, when LCA correctly inferred the number of clusters (in 70.2%

of all simulations), it produced near-perfect accuracy (average NMI = 0.941, VI = 0.122).

The accuracies of the competing algorithms were consistently lower. Notably, SC3

achieved a relatively good performance (NMI = 0.807, VI = 0.389) when it happened to

find the correct number of clusters (mostly in small datasets). However, its performance

deteriorated for other datasets, primarily due to an overestimation of cluster numbers.

The overall accuracy of SC3 was significantly lower than that of LCA (NMI = 0.583,

$P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; VI = 1.203, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ [Wilcoxon signed-rank test]). More strikingly,

even if provided with the correct cluster number, Monocle2 attained high accuracy only

for the dataset with the strongest signal strength (simulated model #6), and its

performance was suboptimal compared to that of LCA (NMI = 0.190, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$;

VI = 1.719, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ [Wilcoxon signed-rank test]). Similarly, the overall accuracies

of Seurat (NMI = 0.415, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; VI = 1.545, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ [Wilcoxon signed-rank

test]) and SIMLR (NMI = 0.231, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$; VI = 1.353, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ [Wilcoxon

signed-rank test]) were significantly lower than that of LCA.

Scalability to large data sets

In addition to the superior accuracy of LCA with respect to both cluster number and

membership assignment, its implementation renders exceptional scalability, which is an

attractive feature for scRNA-seq analysis of an ever-increasing number of cells. LCA

can derive a cell subpopulation structure by using a relatively small representative set

(training cells) sampled from the full data. LCA provides mathematical formulae with

which to project the remaining cells (testing cells) directly to the inferred low-

dimensional LC space, after which individual cells are assigned to the subpopulation

with the best similarity. Consequently, LCA runs at a low level of computational

complexity. The median overall running times for a 4000-cell dataset with 10% or 25%

training cells were 40.6 s and 202.9 s, respectively. We compared the accuracy of

clustering between the training cells (5%–25% of all cells) and the remaining testing

cells in two simulated models (**Fig. 2C, D**, models #2 and #6). As expected, the

accuracy of the clustering model improved with the increase of training cells in the

simulated dataset #2 (weak signal strength) and remained at a near-perfect level in

simulated dataset #6 (strong signal strength). Strikingly, LCA achieved comparable

accuracies in the testing cells in both models and outperformed SC3 in terms of

accuracy and running time.

Evaluation of LCA on published data sets

By using publicly available large-scale scRNA-seq datasets, we demonstrated that LCA

identified orthogonal LC states of biological importance and produced parsimonious and

accurate models that were highly consistent with biological knowledge.

We evaluated the performance of LCA with large-scale datasets published by Zheng et

al. [15] and Tirosh et al. [16]. Using the GemCode platform (10x Genomics, Pleasanton,

CA), Zheng et al. generated reference scRNA-seq transcriptomes for subpopulations of

peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) purified via well-established cell surface

markers [15]. We generated a large-scale purified T-cell dataset (representing 55,000

cells) by combining the CD4+ T-helper (CD4+ helper), CD4+/CD25+ regulatory T (T_{reg}),

CD4+/CD45RO+ memory T (T_{mem}), CD4+/CD45RA+/CD25− naïve T (CD4+ ab T),

CD8+ cytotoxic T (cytotoxic T), and CD8+/CD45RA+ naïve cytotoxic T (CD8+ ab T) cell

subpopulations. We inferred the cellular states and subpopulation structure by using

10% and 25% of the full dataset, and we assigned the remaining cells to one of the

inferred subpopulations. We evaluated the top three models for both runs, which were

the 3-population, 4-population, and 5-population models. Despite a 9.6-fold difference in

running time, both the 3-population and 5-population models from the two runs achieved

high consistency (NMI = 0.87 and 0.84, respectively). Although the 4-population models

differed between runs, they represented two different subpopulation-merging orders

from the 5-population model to the 3-population model. We selected the 5-population

model learned from 25% cells (with 19 LC states) for further biological inference.

Whereas the purified T_{mem}, CD4+ ab T, and CD8+ ab T cells contained cells mostly from

a single subpopulation (Clusters 1, 3, and 4, respectively), different levels of

heterogeneity were detected in the remaining purified populations, especially the CD4+

helper and cytotoxic T cells. Given the single surface-marker settings in the purification

of CD4+ helper and cytotoxic T cells, it is not surprising that we found substantial

heterogeneity in the two populations. Nevertheless, LCA inferred a parsimonious

subpopulation structure in this large dataset (compared to the 1108 subpopulations

predicted by SC3). We selected representative genes encoding surface markers,

transcription factors, and secreted effector molecules for 19 usual T-cell subsets [17]

and derived a PCA projection of the six purified populations and five inferred clusters

based on the average population/cluster expression level of individual marker genes.

The first PC largely described the differentiation status, and the second PC represented

the difference between the CD4+ subsets and CD8+ subsets. As expected, Clusters 3

and 4 were found next to the CD8+ ab T and CD4+ ab T cells. Cluster 1 was found near

the T_{mem} population. Cluster 2 consisted mostly of T_{reg} cells and a smaller fraction of

CD4+ helper cells that was located adjacent to the T_{reg} population. Both the CD4+

helper and cytotoxic T-cell populations were split approximately equally between naïve

and differentiated cells and were spotted between their corresponding naïve clusters

(Cluster 3 for CD8+ cells and Cluster 4 for CD4+ cells) and differentiated clusters

(Clusters 1 and 2 for CD4+ cells and Cluster 5 for CD8+ cells). Analysis of selected

genes validated the separation of naïve and differentiated cells in the CD4+ helper and

cytotoxic T cells (**Fig. 3**). An evaluation of the first LC state inferred from the full

expression data revealed a striking approximation to the expected distribution of naïve

and differentiated cells in both purified populations and inferred clusters. Similarly, the

second LC state recaptured the CD4+ and CD8+ difference in the dataset. These

results showed that LCA identified LC states of biological importance and consequently

produced a parsimonious and accurate model that was highly consistent with biological

knowledge.

We evaluated the performance of LCA in a second dataset published by Tirosh et al.

[16], who employed a stepwise approach to analyze separately the malignant and

stromal cells of 19 melanoma tumors captured on the C1 Fluidigm platform. We applied

those authors' cell-selection criteria [16] to generate a dataset with 1169 malignant cells

from eight tumors and 2588 nonmalignant (stromal) cells. LCA inferred 18 clusters with

53 LC states (**Fig. 4**). Malignant cells dominated eight clusters, which were further

separated by the patient origin of the tumors (**Fig. 4A**). Among the stromal cells, distinct

clusters were identified for B cells, macrophages, cancer-associated fibroblasts, and

endothelial cells (**Fig. 4B**). Moreover, LCA divided tumor-infiltrating T cells and natural

killer cells into six clusters, which was concordant with the supervised analysis of T cells

based on surface markers by Tirosh et al. [16]. Using the pre-defined marker genes for

T-cell subsets and *MKI67* for cell-cycle activities, we revealed characteristics of these T-

cell populations (**Fig. 4C**). Cluster 1 was enriched for naïve CD4+ cells, whereas Cluster

2 harbored mostly T_{reg} and T_{FH} cells. Although Clusters 3 and 5 both had enriched

signatures for cytotoxic T and exhaustive T cells, Cluster 3 had greater signal strength

in both signatures, consistent with the reported high correlation between exhaustion

markers and cytotoxic markers [16]. Cells in active cell cycles were grouped in Cluster

4, which showed unique enrichment of *MKI67* expression. Lastly, natural killer cells and

T cells with weak cytotoxic activity and no exhaustion signatures were found in Cluster

6. As a comparison, we applied SC3 to the same data, which resulted in an estimation

of 43 clusters. Although SC3 clustering of malignant cells was consistent with the

separation by patient, accuracy in the stromal component was lower than with LCA

(**Supplementary Table 1**). These results demonstrate the power of LCA to reveal

subtle diversities in different subpopulations of tumor-infiltrating T cells in the presence

of strong transcriptomic variations among malignant cells (from different patients) and

various stromal cells from different lineages (cancer-associated fibroblasts,

macrophages, B cells, and endothelial cells).

LCA work robustly on a data set with strong batch effects

LCA groups cells based on orthogonal LC states aligned with major differences among

cells, which enables control of technical variations (e.g., batch effects) without an

explicit need of gene filtering. We evaluated the efficiency of batch effect removal in a

cancer cell dataset and further experimentally validated the subpopulations revealed by

LCA. Rhabdomyosarcoma is the most common soft-tissue tumor in children and has

two major histologic subtypes with different genomic landscapes: *PAX3/PAX7-FOXO1*

fusion–positive alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma (FP-ARMS) and fusion-negative embryonal

rhabdomyosarcoma (ERMS) [18]. LCA identified two subpopulations in a scRNA-seq

dataset for Rh41 cells (a commonly used human *PAX3-FOXO1* FP-ARMS cell line).

The *CD44* gene, which encodes a commonly used cell surface marker with great

prognostic and therapeutic potential [19, 20], appeared at the top of the differentially

expressed genes (DEGs) of the two subpopulations (**Supplementary Figure 1A**). Flow

cytometry confirmed a bimodal expression pattern of CD44 in Rh41 cells

(**Supplementary Fig. 1B**). We first used bulk RNA-seq to profile unsorted populations

and CD44^{high} and CD44^{low} subpopulations sorted by fluorescence-activated cell sorting.

In addition to the differences among the sorted CD44^{high}, CD44^{low}, and unsorted

populations, the analysis revealed strong batch effects. Specifically, samples in Batch 1

and those in Batches 2 and 3 were separated on the first PC, whereas the biologically

different populations (the unsorted population and sorted subpopulations) were

separated on the second PC (**Supplementary Fig. 1C**). We collected scRNA-seq data

for the unsorted populations in Batch 1 and the sorted CD44^{high} and CD44^{low}

subpopulations in Batch 2 (10x Genomics, Pleasanton, CA). The libraries were

sequenced at different depths for the three samples. The median numbers of UMIs

captured per cell were 8278, 6678, and 12,850 for the CD44^{high} subpopulation, CD44^{low}

subpopulation, and unsorted population, respectively (Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test,

$P < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$). With both batch effects and biological difference among cell

populations, LCA inferred five clusters, with cells in Batch 1 being represented by

Clusters 1 and 2 and cells in Batch 2 being grouped in Clusters 3 to 5 (**Supplementary**

Fig. 1D). Similarly, SC3 inferred a 12-cluster structure. Consistent with the strong batch

effects observed in bulk RNA-seq analysis, when required to infer a two-cluster model,

both LCA and SC3 achieved a perfect separation based on the batch information

(NMI = 1 and 0.99, respectively). Next, we evaluated the association between the batch

covariate and individual LC states. When controlled at FDR ≤ 0.05, the first LC state was

the only one significantly associated with the batch information ($P < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$)

(**Supplementary Fig. 1E**). After excluding this state, LCA retrieved an optimal structure

with two clusters. Of 7005 cells profiled in the sorted CD44^{low} subpopulation, 6733

(96.1%) were clustered into Cluster 2, suggesting that the subpopulation was relatively

pure. However, 1796 (26.6%) of 6757 of cells profiled in the sorted CD44^{high}

subpopulation were grouped in Cluster 2 with the CD44^{low} cells (**Fig. 5A**). We evaluated

the expression signatures for DEGs identified in bulk RNA-seq ($log_2FC \geq 1$, FDR ≤ 0.05,

FPKM ≥ 1 in at least one subpopulation). Of 1709 DEGs (**Supplementary Table 2**), 356

were captured in at least 10% of the cells in one sequenced population or inferred

cluster. As expected, Clusters 1 and 2 had higher average expression levels of genes

overexpressed in the bulk-sorted CD44^{high} and CD44^{low} subpopulations, respectively

(**Fig. 5B**). Importantly, Cluster 2 cells from the sorted CD44^{high} subpopulation had

significantly lower expression of those DEGs overexpressed in the bulk CD44^{high}

subpopulation than did Cluster 1 cells from the sorted CD44^{high} subpopulation

($P < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$) or the sorted CD44^{low} subpopulation ($P = 7.5 \times 10^{-71}$). Analysis of DEGs

overexpressed in the bulk CD44^{low} subpopulation showed the same pattern (**Fig. 5C**).

These results suggested that Cluster 2 cells in the sorted CD44^{high} subpopulation more

closely resembled CD44^{low} cells. Moreover, the differential expression pattern was

essentially captured by the first remaining LC state (Spearman correlation

coefficient = −0.90, $P < 2.2 \times 10^{-308}$), confirming the biological importance of the inferred

LC states.

Of the three established molecular markers (*TFAP2B*, *MYOG,* and *NOS1*) for FP-

ARMS[21], *TFAP2B* and *MYOG* were overexpressed in the sorted CD44^{low}

subpopulation (**Supplementary Table 2**). Moreover, known *PAX3-FOXO1* target genes

were significantly enriched in DEGs overexpressed in the CD44^{low} subpopulation

(**Supplementary Table 3**). These results suggest that the CD44^{high} subpopulation

represents a less-differentiated, stem-like cell subpopulation. Although the exact

mechanism by which the distinct subpopulations develop warrants further investigation,

we conclude that LCA can control technical variations and reveal reliable transcriptome-

based heterogeneity.

Discussion and conclusions

The rapid technological advance in scRNA-seq platforms has inspired a tremendous

explosion of data-analysis methods for identifying heterogeneous subpopulations. Most

methods employ a gene-selection step before clustering analysis, based on the

assumption that a small subset of highly variable genes is useful for revealing cellular

diversity. Although this assumption is valid in most scenarios and reduces the data

dimensionality, it potentially excludes genes that are informative for separating

subpopulations with subtle diversity. Also, in datasets with strong batch effects, it may

result in a small set of retained genes being dominated by batch effects. Moreover,

several methods require the user to provide an estimation of the number of clusters in

the data, and this may not be readily available.

Using a dual-space search strategy, LCA bypasses the gene selection, learns

biologically informative cellular states directly from the raw gene expression matrix,

reduces potential technical variations, and measures the cell-to-cell distance by using

cosine similarity in the low-dimensional and informative cellular-state space in a data-

driven and unsupervised fashion. Cosine similarity has been widely used in information

retrieval and text mining to reveal the relation between text documents, a process that

shares many similarities with scRNA-seq analysis [22]. Furthermore, LCA provides a

mathematical solution for assigning new cells to inferred clusters in a model learned

from a subset of cells, a capability that is urgently needed to handle the ever-increasing

sample sizes in scRNA-seq. We have demonstrated through extensive simulation and

the use of large-scale scRNA-seq datasets that LCA is an efficient, scalable, and robust

clustering algorithm that outperforms other tools without the explicit need for gene

selection or an estimation of the number of clusters in the data.

Methods

Latent cellular states

The input to LCA is a gene expression matrix in which each column is a cell, and each

row is a gene/transcript. In UMI-based platforms, the expression level of a gene in a cell

is divided by the total expression in that cell to generate a relative expression matrix (T).

In read-count based platforms, T can be derived from size factor normalized expression

measures. The relative expression matrix is then log-transformed after adding a zero-

correction term:

$$X = \log(T + \epsilon),$$

where ϵ is an arbitrarily small number.

We obtain the LC states from a singular value decomposition (SVD) of $\mathbf{X}$.

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{G} \, \Lambda \, \mathbf{S}^T,$$

where $\mathbf{S}$ is a cell–by–LC states matrix. We note that under certain conditions, $\mathbf{S}$ is the

same as the loading matrix from the principle component analysis (PCA) result of $\mathbf{X}$ [23,

24].

Determination of significant LC states

352   We apply the Tracy-Widom test to associated eigenvalues to determine which LC states

353   are significant [10, 25, 26]. The LC state associated with the eigenvalue λ is significant if

354   it is significantly different ($P < 0.05$) from the Tracy-Widom distribution, with

355
$$\begin{aligned}
\mu(n,m) &= \frac{(\sqrt{m-1}+\sqrt{n})^2}{m} \\
\sigma(n,m) &= \frac{(\sqrt{m-1}+\sqrt{n})}{m}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{m-1}+\sqrt{n}}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}},
\end{aligned}$$

356   where n is the total number of genes and m is the total number of LC states. We then

357   discard all the LC states that are not significant or strongly associated with known

358   technical variations (e.g., cell-specific library complexity and batch information), leading

359   to a lower-dimensional cell–by–LC states matrix $\mathbf{S}$.

Distance calculation

362 Distances between cells in **S** (the cell–by–LC states matrix) are calculated using cosine

363 distance:

$$K_{a,b} = 1 - \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{p} S_{a,i} S_{b,i}}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{p} S_{a,i}^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{p} S_{b,i}^2}}$$

where $S_{a,i}$ and $S_{b,i}$ represent LC state i for cells a and b, and p is the total number of

retained LC states.

Spectral clustering

We perform spectral clustering [27] on the resulted distance matrix to derive a set of

candidate clustering models with a range of cluster numbers (i.e., $2 - 20$ by default).

Distance measure in the PC space

The cell-gene relative expression matrix was decomposed by PCA and the significant

components were determined using the Tracy-Widom test. Distance between cells was

measured by the correlation distance of significant components.

The optimal number of clusters and informative cellular states

We rank the candidate clustering solutions (with different number of clusters) by the

silhouette score [11] measured in the PC space. With 2 or more clusters, the silhouette

measures the similarity of an individual to its cluster, as compared to other clusters. For

each cell, let d_b be the lowest dissimilarity to any other cluster and let d_w be the

average dissimilarity to other cells in its cluster. We calculate the silhouette as

$$Silhouette = \frac{d_b - d_w}{\max(d_b, d_w)}.$$

We assign a silhouette score of zero for the default solution of one cluster. An end-user

may evaluate the top candidate solutions to determine the optimal number of solutions

or specify it with a priori biological knowledge.

With the selected number of clusters, we retain LC states that show significant

difference among candidate clusters, update the distance matrix and derive the final

clustering solution.

Fast processing of large numbers of cells

We classify unknown cells $\mathbf{X}'$ efficiently by projecting them into space spanned by the

informative LC states learned from a representative sample:

$$\mathbf{S}' = \mathbf{\Lambda}_l^{-1}\mathbf{G}_l^T\mathbf{X}',$$

where $\mathbf{\Lambda}_l$ is calculated from the original $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ by removing those rows and columns that are

not associated with the informative LC states, and $\mathbf{G}_l$ is calculated from $\mathbf{G}$ by removing

those columns that are not associated with the informative LC states. We can then

calculate the cosine similarity between $\mathbf{S}'$ and an "average" cell from each cluster and

find the cluster with the maximum similarity for each unknown cell.

Simulation of different cell types

We simulated different cell types from a relatively homogeneous population of cells. We

started from the scRNA-seq dataset for sorted CD44^{high} Rh41 cells. The data

represented 6757 cells with 20,709 genes detected, with 86% of the entries in the data

matrix being zeroes. We considered two factors that have substantial effects on the

performance of clustering analysis: the sample size and the degree of difference

between cell types.

We tested five different sample sizes (the total number of cells analyzed): 250, 500,

1000, 2000, and 4000 cells. We sampled the selected number of cells from the original

set of cells then randomly partitioned them into three sets of variable size, ranging

between 10% and 50% of the total number of cells.

To test the effect of the degree of difference between cell types, we varied the number

of DEGs and the simulated difference in gene expression. We chose three sets of

genes such that the average expression levels for each set were g_1, g_2, and g_3, with

$\frac{g_{i+1}}{g_i} = 2, i = 1,2$. We then rotated the labels of the three sets of genes to make three

different sets of cells with perturbed expression: g_1, g_2, g_3; g_2, g_3, g_1; and g_3, g_1, g_2. We

tested two different numbers of DEGs: 300 and 1200. The simulation setting is

summarized in **Supplemental Table 4**. For each set of parameters, we generated 100

random samples for testing.

Normalized mutual information and variation of information

We evaluate the performance of clustering against true labels of cells by using

normalized mutual information (NMI) [14] and variation of information (VI) [13]. We use

the R package *igraph* to calculate both metrics [28].

Benchmarking

We used SC3 (Version 1.4.2), Seurat (Version 2.0.0), Monocle2 (Version 2.4.0) and

SIMLR (Version 1.2.1) for comparisons with LCA. We used the default settings for all

the packages tested. For SIMLR, when the size of the sample was 1000 or larger, we

used SIMLR_Large_Scale() instead of SIMLR().

Rh41 single-cell dataset

The human alveolar rhabdomyosarcoma cell line Rh41 was grown in culture in a 5%

CO_2 incubator in 75-cm^2 vented flasks containing DMEM medium supplemented with

10% FBS and 2× glutamine until the cells reached 75% confluence at approximately

3.6×10^6 cells. The cells were detached from the flask with 7 mL of 1× citrate saline to

which 7 mL of DPBS was added. The cell suspension was then centrifuged at $300 \times g$

for 7 min, and the cell pellet was resuspended in 300 μL of blocking buffer (rat IgG/PBS)

and incubated on ice for 30 min. An aliquot of 50 μL of the cells in blocking buffer was

transferred to a separate tube for the isotype control. The cells were washed with 1 mL

of staining buffer (5% BSA/PBS) and centrifuged at $300 \times g$ for 5 min. The pellet, which

contained approximately 3×10^6 cells, was then incubated with rat IgG2B anti-CD44–

Alexa Fluor 488 antibody (R&D Systems) in staining buffer (15 μL antibody + 135 μL of

staining buffer) on ice for 30 min. For the isotype control, approximately 600,000 cells

were incubated with 5 µL of rat IgG2B–Alexa Fluor 488 (R&D Systems, Minneapolis,

MN) + 45 µL of staining buffer on ice for 30 min. After the incubation, both sets of cells

were collected by centrifugation, washed with 1 mL of staining buffer as described

above, and resuspended in staining buffer. Flow cytometric analysis was then used to

identify the fractions corresponding to the CD44 high and CD44 low populations.

For the single-cell experiment, Rh41 cells were grown in culture, harvested, and

washed in DPBS as described above. They were then resuspended in PBS/0.2% BSA

at a concentration of 1×10^6 cells/mL. The 10x Genomics Single Cell platform performs

3′ gene expression profiling by poly-A selection of mRNA within a single cell, which uses

a cell barcode and UMIs for each transcript. Single-cell suspensions were loaded onto

the Chromium Controller according to their respective cell counts to generate

approximately 6000 partitioned single-cell GEMs (Gel Bead-in-EMulsions). The library

was prepared using the Chromium Single Cell 3′ v2 Library and Gel Bead Kit (10x

Genomics) in accordance with the manufacturer's protocol. The cDNA content of each

sample after cDNA amplification for 12 cycles was quantified, and the quality was

checked by High-Sensitivity DNA chip analysis on an Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent

Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) at a dilution of 1:6. This quantification was used to

determine the final library amplification cycles in the protocol, which were calculated out

to 12 cycles. After library quantification and a quality check by DNA 1000 chip (Agilent

Technologies), samples were diluted to 3.5 nM for loading onto the HiSeq 4000

sequencer (Illumina) with a 2 × 75-bp paired-end kit, using the following read length: 26

bp Read1 (10x cell barcode and UMI), 8 bp i7 Index (sample index), and 98 bp Read2

(insert). In total, 518 million, 237 million, and 154 million reads were obtained for

unsorted, CD44^{low}, and CD44^{high} populations, respectively. The Cell Ranger 2.0.1

Single-Cell Software Suite (10x Genomics) was implemented to process the raw

sequencing data from the Illumina HiSeq run. This pipeline performed de-multiplexing,

alignment (GRCh38/STAR), and barcode processing to generate gene-cell matrices

used for downstream analysis.

After matrix generation, the ribosomal and mitochondria-related genes were filtered out.

Rh41 bulk RNA-seq dataset

RNA was isolated from the sorted subpopulations by using Trizol (Thermo Fisher

Scientific) in accordance with the manufacture's recommendations. RNA libraries were

prepared with the KAPA RNA HyperPrep Kit with RiboErase (Roche), using the

recommended conditions. Briefly, 200 ng of total RNA was used as input for

fragmentation, reverse transcription, and second-strand synthesis. After clean-up, end

repair, and A-tailing, NEXTflex adapters (Bioo Scientific, Austin, TX) were ligated to the

fragments, and this was followed by 12 cycles of PCR amplification on a C1000

Thermal Cycler (Bio-Rad). Paired-end sequencing was performed (151 bases per read)

on a HiSeq 4000 system (Illumina). Three replicates were generated. HTSeq [29] was

used to produce the count data, and edgeR [30] was used for the DE analysis with TMM

normalization. Each replicate was coded as a pair of CD44^{high} and CD44^{low} in the

analysis.

Statistical analysis

If not specifically stated, the statistical significance was evaluated by the Wilcoxon rank

sum test.

Abbreviations

CD: Cluster of differentiation **DEG**: Differentially expressed genes **ERMS**: fusion-

negative embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma **FP-ARMS**: fusion–positive alveolar

rhabdomyosarcoma **LCA**: Latent cellular analysis **NMI**: Normalized mutual information

PBMC: Peripheral blood mononuclear cell **PCA**: Principal component analysis **t-SNE**: t-

Distributed stochastic neighbor embedding **UMI**: Unique molecular identifier **VI**:

Variation of Information

Declarations

Acknowledgements

We thank Keith A. Laycock for editing the manuscript.

Funding

This study was supported in part by the National Cancer Institute of the National

Institutes of Health under Award Number P30CA021765 and by ALSAC.

Availability of data and materials

The Rh41 scRNA-seq dataset generated during the current study is available from the

corresponding author upon reasonable request. The bulk RNA-seq data for sorted

CD44^{high} and CD44^{low} subpopulations have been deposited in the European

Bioinformatics Institute (EMBL-EBI) under accession number EGAS00001002868. The

functions used for the data analysis are included in the single_cell_LCA package, which

can be installed from Bitbucket (https://bitbucket.org/changde_cheng/single_cell_lca).

References

1.　Tang F, Barbacioru C, Wang Y, Nordman E, Lee C, Xu N, Wang X, Bodeau J,
Tuch BB, Siddiqui A, et al: **mRNA-Seq whole-transcriptome analysis of a**
single cell. *Nat Methods* 2009, **6:**377-382.
2.　Shapiro E, Biezuner T, Linnarsson S: **Single-cell sequencing-based**
technologies will revolutionize whole-organism science. *Nat Rev Genet*
2013, **14:**618-630.
3.　Stegle O, Teichmann SA, Marioni JC: **Computational and analytical**
challenges in single-cell transcriptomics. *Nat Rev Genet* 2015, **16:**133-145.
4.　Macosko EZ, Basu A, Satija R, Nemesh J, Shekhar K, Goldman M, Tirosh I,
Bialas AR, Kamitaki N, Martersteck EM, et al: **Highly parallel genome-wide**
expression profiling of individual cells using nanoliter droplets. *Cell* 2015,
161:1202-1214.
5.　Trapnell C, Cacchiarelli D, Grimsby J, Pokharel P, Li S, Morse M, Lennon NJ,
Livak KJ, Mikkelsen TS, Rinn JL: **The dynamics and regulators of cell fate**
decisions are revealed by pseudotemporal ordering of single cells. *Nat*
Biotechnol 2014, **32:**381–386.
6.　Wang B, Zhu J, Pierson E, Ramazzotti D, Batzoglou S: **Visualization and**
analysis of single-cell RNA-seq data by kernel-based similarity learning.
Nat Methods 2017, **14:**414-416.
7.　Kiselev VY, Kirschner K, Schaub MT, Andrews T, Yiu A, Chandra T, Natarajan
KN, Reik W, Barahona M, Green AR, Hemberg M: **SC3: consensus clustering**
of single-cell RNA-seq data. *Nat Methods* 2017, **14:**483-486.
8.　Wagner A, Regev A, Yosef N: **Revealing the vectors of cellular identity with**
single-cell genomics. *Nat Biotechnol* 2016, **34:**1145-1160.
9.　Hicks SC, Townes FW, Teng M, Irizarry RA: **Missing data and technical**
variability in single-cell RNA-sequencing experiments. *Biostatistics* 2017.
10.　Patterson N, Price AL, Reich D: **Population structure and eigenanalysis.** *PLoS*
Genet 2006, **2:**e190.

11. Rousseeuw PJ: **Silhouettes - a graphical aid to the interpretation and validation of cluster-analysis.** *Journal of Computational and Applied Mathematics* 1987, **20:**53-65.
12. Tibshirani R, Walther G, Hastie T: **Estimating the number of clusters in a data set via the gap statistic.** *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B-Statistical Methodology* 2001, **63:**411-423.
13. Meilă M: **Comparing clusterings—an information based distance.** *Journal of Multivariate Analysis* 2007, **98:**873-895.
14. Danon L, Diaz-Guilera A, Duch J, Arenas A: **Comparing community structure identification.** *Journal of Statistical Mechanics-Theory and Experiment* 2005.
15. Zheng GX, Terry JM, Belgrader P, Ryvkin P, Bent ZW, Wilson R, Ziraldo SB, Wheeler TD, McDermott GP, Zhu J, et al: **Massively parallel digital transcriptional profiling of single cells.** *Nat Commun* 2017, **8:**14049.
16. Tirosh I, Izar B, Prakadan SM, Wadsworth MH, 2nd, Treacy D, Trombetta JJ, Rotem A, Rodman C, Lian C, Murphy G, et al: **Dissecting the multicellular ecosystem of metastatic melanoma by single-cell RNA-seq.** *Science* 2016, **352:**189-196.
17. Dong C, Martinez GJ: **T cells: the usual subsets (poster).** 2010.
18. Chen X, Stewart E, Shelat AA, Qu C, Bahrami A, Hatley M, Wu G, Bradley C, McEvoy J, Pappo A, et al: **Targeting oxidative stress in embryonal rhabdomyosarcoma.** *Cancer Cell* 2013, **24:**710-724.
19. Li F, Tiede B, Massague J, Kang Y: **Beyond tumorigenesis: cancer stem cells in metastasis.** *Cell Res* 2007, **17:**3-14.
20. Yan Y, Zuo X, Wei D: **Concise Review: Emerging Role of CD44 in Cancer Stem Cells: A Promising Biomarker and Therapeutic Target.** *Stem Cells Transl Med* 2015, **4:**1033-1043.
21. Rudzinski ER, Anderson JR, Lyden ER, Bridge JA, Barr FG, Gastier-Foster JM, Bachmeyer K, Skapek SX, Hawkins DS, Teot LA, Parham DM: **Myogenin, AP2beta, NOS-1, and HMGA2 are surrogate markers of fusion status in rhabdomyosarcoma: a report from the soft tissue sarcoma committee of the children's oncology group.** *Am J Surg Pathol* 2014, **38:**654-659.
22. Dumais ST: **Latent semantic analysis.** *Annual Review of Information Science and Technology* 2004, **38:**189-230.
23. Pearson K: **On lines and planes of closest fit to systems of points in space.** *The London, Edinburgh, and Dublin Philosophical Magazine and Journal of Science* 1901, **2:**559-572.
24. Hotelling H: **Analysis of a complex of statistical variables into principal components.** *Journal of Educational Psychology* 1933, **24:**417-441.
25. Tracy CA, Widom H: **Level-spacing distributions and the Airy kernel.** *Physics Letters B* 1993, **305:**115-118.
26. Johnstone IM: **On the distribution of the largest eigenvalue in principal components analysis.** *Annals of Statistics* 2001, **29:**295-327.
27. Ng AY, Jordan MI, Weiss Y: **On spectral clustering: Analysis and an algorithm.** In *Advances in neural information processing systems*; *2002*. 2002: 849-856.

28.   Csardi G, Nepusz T: **The igraph software package for complex network**
research. *InterJournal* 2006, **Complex Systems:**1695.
29.   Anders S, Pyl PT, Huber W: **HTSeq--a Python framework to work with high-**
throughput sequencing data. *Bioinformatics* 2015, **31:**166-169.
30.   Robinson MD, McCarthy DJ, Smyth GK: **edgeR: a Bioconductor package for**
differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data.
Bioinformatics 2010, **26:**139-140.
31.   Kuleshov MV, Jones MR, Rouillard AD, Fernandez NF, Duan Q, Wang Z, Koplev
S, Jenkins SL, Jagodnik KM, Lachmann A, et al: **Enrichr: a comprehensive**
gene set enrichment analysis web server 2016 update. *Nucleic Acids Res*
2016, **44:**W90-97.
607
608

 Figure Legends

 Figure 1. Overview of the workflow of LCA. LCA infers LC states from full expression

 matrices. Explicit gene filtering is not necessary. LCA converts the raw transcript count

 data to gene fractions and then performs log transformations. The algorithm features a

 dual-space model search, generating candidate clustering models based on the cosine

 similarity matrix in the LC space. Candidate models are then ranked based on the

 silhouettes measured in the PC space.

 Figure 2. Benchmarking of LCA against four other methods with simulated datasets. (A)

 The number of clusters inferred by LCA, SC3, and Seurat was compared for seven

 simulated datasets: the signal strength increases from simulated datasets 1 to 6. Each

 simulated dataset contained 100 randomly generated samples. (B) Comparison of the

 clustering performance of LCA, SC3, Seurat, Monocle2, and SIMLR, as measured by

 variation of information, across the seven simulated datasets. For LCA, SC3, and

 Seurat, the number of clusters was inferred during the analysis. For Monocle2 and

 SIMLR, we used the correct number of clusters. (C) Comparison of the clustering

 performance as measured by normalized mutual information. (D) Clustering

 performance scalability of LCA and SC3. Each panel represents the results obtained

 with a different percentage of cells used for training (from 5% to 25%). The total number

 of cells in the sample was 4000. The signal in this comparison was relatively weak. (E)

 Comparison of the clustering performance scalability of LCA and SC3 when the signal

 was strong. (F) Comparison of the running times of LCA and SC3.

Figure 3. Investigation of PBMC heterogeneity by using LCA. We applied LCA to data

from Zheng et al.[25] for 55,000 cells representing a combination of six sorted T-cell

populations. LCA identified five cell populations with biologically meaningful LC states.

(A) Cell distance matrix, sorted by source ID. (B). Cell distance matrix, sorted by LCA

clustering results. (C) The first LC state captured the difference between the naïve and

differentiated T cells, whereas the second LC state captured the difference between the

CD4+ and CD8+ cells. (D) LCA further revealed heterogeneity in the CD4+ helper T

cells and CD8+ cytotoxic T cells.

Figure 4. Reanalysis of melanoma cellular data [16] with LCA. We applied LCA to 1169

malignant cells from eight tumors and to 2588 stromal cells. LCA identified 18 clusters

with a clear biological interpretation. LCA further revealed subtle diversity among the

infiltrating T cells. (A) t-SNE plot of the clustering results for malignant cells, contrasting

the LCA results and original results. (B) t-SNE plot of the clustering results for stromal

cells, contrasting the LCA results and original results. (C) Enrichment of gene markers

in T-cell clusters.

Figure 5. LCA analysis of Rh41 cells, correcting for batch effects. (A) t-SNE plots of

clustering results, colored according to source ID or cluster ID. (B) Cellular expression

patterns of DEGs identified in bulk RNA-seq. (C) Violin plot of expression patterns of

DEGs from bulk RNA-seq in cells classified by source and cluster ID.

654 **Figure 1.** Overview of the workflow of LCA.

657 **Figure 2.** Benchmarking of LCA against four other methods with simulated datasets.

660   **Figure 3.** Investigation of PBMC heterogeneity by using LCA.

Figure 4. Reanalysis of melanoma cellular data with LCA.

Figure 5. LCA analysis of Rh41 cells, correcting for batch effects.

Supplemental Figure 1. Single-cell analysis of Rh41 cells with strong batch effects. (A)

Distance matrix visualized as a heat map. (B) Flow cytometry confirmed a bimodal

expression pattern of CD44 in Rh41 cells. (C) The first two PCs for the bulk RNA-seq

data showed strong batch effects. (D) t-SNE plot of cells, including sorted and unsorted

samples, colored according to source/cluster ID. (E) The first LC state was significantly

associated with batch information.

Supplemental Figure 1. Single-cell analysis of Rh41 cells with strong batch effects.

Supplementary Table 1. The results of applying LCA and SC3 to the dataset of Tirosh

et al.[26], using normalized mutual information.

	LCA	SC3
All cells	0.77	0.69
Malignant cells	0.99	0.99
All stromal cells	0.53	0.42
All cells excluding T cells	0.97	0.92
Stromal excluding T cells	0.90	0.71

680
681

684　**Supplementary Table 2**. Expression profile of differential expressed genes (in a

685　standalone excel file).

689　**Supplementary Table 3**. ChEA analysis by Enrichr[31] of 361 overexpressed genes in

690　the CD44^{low} subpopulation of Rh41 (in a standalone excel file).

693 **Supplementary Table 4**. Summary of simulated datasets.

Signal Scale	Number of Genes Perturbed	Mean Gene Fraction in Group 1	Mean Gene Fraction in Group 2	Mean Gene Fraction in Group 3
Sim. #1	300	1e-5	2e-5	4e-5
Sim. #2	300	2e-5	4e-5	8e-5
Sim. #3	300	4e-5	8e-5	1.6e-4
Sim. #4	1200	1e-5	2e-5	4e-5
Sim. #5	1200	2e-5	4e-5	8e-5
Sim. #6	1200	4e-5	8e-5	1.6e-4