M3C: Monte Carlo reference-based consensus clustering

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Abstract

Genome-wide data is used to stratify patients into classes for precision medicine using clustering

algorithms. A common problem in this area is selection of the number of clusters (K). The Monti

consensus clustering algorithm is a widely used method which uses stability selection to estimate K.

However, the method has bias towards higher values of K and yields high numbers of false positives.

As a solution, we developed Monte Carlo reference-based consensus clustering (M3C), which is

based on this algorithm. M3C simulates null distributions of stability scores for a range of K values

thus enabling a comparison with real data to remove bias and statistically test for the presence of

structure. M3C corrects the inherent bias of consensus clustering as demonstrated on simulated and

real expression data from The Cancer Genome Atlas (TCGA). For testing M3C, we developed

clusterlab, a new method for simulating multivariate Gaussian clusters.

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Introduction

Stratified medicine is the concept that patients may be clustered into classes to personalise patient therapy. Increasingly, patient genome-wide expression data is being used to perform clustering[1-6]. Cluster analysis of genome-wide data (e.g. transcriptomics, epigenomics, proteomics, and DNA copy number) has been shown to identify tumour subtypes with distinct clinical outcomes in cancer research[1-6], and is starting to be applied on other diseases as well[7-9]. Therefore, there is high demand for methods that deliver robust results. Broadly, the clustering problem may be broken down into two steps: select K and separate the data into K groups. The order of these steps varies by clustering algorithm – K must be defined upfront in k-means, for instance, while it is defined afterwards in hierarchical clustering. In this study, our primary focus was to develop a method for estimating the optimal K.

Numerous methods have been proposed for estimating K, such as: Monti et al. consensus clustering[10], the GAP-statistic[11], CLEST[12], and progeny clustering[13]. The concept behind consensus clustering is that the ideal clusters should be stable despite resampling. Therefore, the degree of cluster stability for each value of K can be measured to estimate the optimal K. Şenbabaoğlu et al. made a useful contribution by demonstrating that false positive structures could be found in K=1 null data using the Monti consensus clustering algorithm[14], this is a common problem in cluster analysis. The authors suggested to generate null datasets with the same gene-gene correlation structure as the real data to evaluate cluster strength. However, they did not provide a method for performing a formal hypothesis test. They developed a new metric that measures cluster stability called the proportion of ambiguous clustering (PAC) score, this is better able to estimate K than the original delta K metric[10] proposed by Monti et al. However, the PAC score does not take into account null

reference distributions, has inherant bias towards higher values of K, and does not test the null

hypothesis K=1.

Our aim was to solve these problems by enhancing the Monti consensus clustering algorithm to

include a Monte Carlo reference procedure to eliminate bias towards higher values of K and to test

the null hypothesis K=1. This method we call M3C

(https://www.bioconductor.org/packages/3.7/bioc/html/M3C.html). To introduce M3C, it is

instructive to define the hypotheses that it tests. M3C calculates null distributions of PAC scores for

each K (starting with K=2) by simulating K=1 null datasets. For each K, this allows us to formally test

the following null hypothesis:

58   H_0: the PAC score comes from a single Gaussian cluster

59   The alternative hypothesis tested for each K is:

60   H_A: the PAC score does not come from a single Gaussian cluster

If no p values are significant along the range of K we accept the null hypothesis H_0 in every case, this

means there is no significant evidence for clusters in the data. If a p value is significant, then we can

reject the null hypothesis H_0, thereby accepting H_A, this is significant evidence for clusters in the

data. M3C presented us with an opportunity to test two hypotheses on real data. First, that pre-

existing high-profile publications contain results that declare evidence of structure when in fact

there is none. Second, that not considering reference distributions when deciding K leads to

systematic bias in the Monti consensus clustering method. The results in this manuscript imply a

more rigorous approach is required.

Results

Systematic bias detected in two widely applied consensus clustering methods

Using clusterlab (see Methods for details), we first generated a null dataset where no genuine

clusters are found (Fig. 1a). Next, we tested the Monti consensus clustering algorithm on this data,

the cumulative distribution function (CDF) plot corresponding to the consensus matrices from K = 2

to K = 10 for the null dataset demonstrates that as K increases the consensus matrices inherently

become more stable (indicated by a flatter line) (Fig. 1b). The PAC scores, which measure the CDF

plot flatness, steadily decreased with increasing K estimating an optimal K of ten (Fig. 1c). A similar

but reversed effect was observed in the cophenetic metric of Nonnegative Matrix Factorisation

(NMF) consensus clustering[15], which estimates an optimal K of two (Fig. 1d). Therefore, consensus

clustering and NMF consensus clustering show bias towards higher and lower values of K,

respectively. Both methods also declare evidence of structure when it does not exist, due to not

comparing against null reference distributions. To demonstrate the functionality of clusterlab, we

generated a ring of four Gaussian clusters, four clusters with varying variance, and a more complex

multi-ringed structure consisting of 25 Gaussian clusters (Supplementary Fig. 1).

M3C can find K and evaluate the significance of its decision

We provide an overview of our method in Figure 2a. For our initial investigations, we tested M3C on

a negative control, a simulated dataset in which K = 1 (Fig. 2b). The Relative Cluster Stability Index

(RCSI) could not distinguish real from false structure. In contrast, the calculation of Monte Carlo p

values by M3C correctly suggested there was no structure in this negative control dataset (alpha =

0.05), and no bias towards higher values of K was observed. Next, M3C was tested on a positive

control dataset with four simulated clusters (Fig. 2c). The PAC score and the RCSI correctly identified

four as the optimal value of K. A very low Monte Carlo p-value was found by M3C for K = 4 (p =

9.95×10^{-21}), this correctly implies that this is the optimal K and means we can reject the null

hypothesis H_0.

Next, we reanalysed a range of high-profile stratified medicine datasets where structure had been

declared to test for false positive structures (Table 1 & Supplementary Table 1). Because of the ease

of data availability, these were predominately, but not exclusively, from TCGA. Table 1 demonstrates

the pervasive use of consensus clustering and NMF consensus clustering in the field. Using M3C, we

identified two datasets in which no significant evidence against the null hypothesis could be

detected. First, a systemic lupus erythematosus (SLE) microarray dataset was analysed where seven

major subtypes were reported using hierarchical clustering and dendrogram cutting. However, none

of the p-values along the range of K calculated by M3C reached statistical significance (the lowest

was for K = 3, p = 0.15) (Fig. 2d). Second, a breast cancer miRNA-seq dataset was identified with no

significant evidence of structure (the lowest p value was for K = 4, p = 0.27), whereas seven subtypes

were originally reported using NMF (Fig. 2e). These findings imply that false positive structures exist

in the literature through not comparing against reference datasets.

Table I: Datasets selected for assessment using M3C and optimal K decisions. HC refers to hierarchical clustering and CC to Monti consensus clustering.

Publication	Year	Data type	Original algorithm	Original K	M3C K
Glioblastoma[3]	2008	Microarray	CC	4	4
Ovarian carcinoma[4]	2011	Microarray	NMF	4	5
Lung cancer[5]	2012	RNA-seq	NMF	4	2
Breast cancer[16]	2012	miRNA-seq	NMF	7	1
Diffuse glioma[1]	2016	RNA-seq	CC	4	8
Lupus[9]	2016	Microarray	HC	7	1
Pheochromocytoma[2]	2017	RNA-seq	CC	4	6

Demonstration of the M3C method on TCGA gene expression data

Of those datasets that exhibited significant evidence of structure using M3C, we used this as an

opportunity to contrast the clarity of the M3C results with those from consensus clustering with the

PAC score, the NMF cophenetic coefficient[15], and the GAP-statistic[11]. Our intention in these analyses

was not to dispute the original reported K, but instead to test whether methods that do not consider

reference distributions along the range of K would lead to visible biases. In these analyses, it was

demonstrated that the GAP-statistic continuously increased, implying improving stability regardless

of the structure (Supplementary Fig. 2). These findings imply the GAP-statistic is not well suited to

analysing complex genome wide expression datasets. Across these datasets, we also demonstrate

why M3C fits a beta distribution to the data to estimate extreme tail values, as for K = 2, the beta

distribution fits the reference slightly better than a normal distribution (Supplementary Fig. 3 and 4).

This step is important as it removes the limitations on p-value derivation imposed by a finite number

of simulations (Supplementary Fig. 5).

The PAC score displayed the same bias towards higher K values observed earlier on simulated null

datasets, decreasing steadily regardless of the structure, implying increased stability (Figure 3a-e).

This effect is more of a problem in datasets where the clustering is not very clear. For the GBM

dataset[3], while a PAC elbow can be seen at K = 4, the global optimal value is K = 10 (Fig. 3a). The

problem with the PAC score resembles the problem encountered by Tibshirani, et al. (2001), when

the authors developed the GAP-statistic to overcome the subjective decision regarding the location

of the elbow. For the GBM case, the Monte Carlo p-values and the RCSI demonstrate a clear optimal

value of K = 4 (p = 0.00059), with additional evidence for structure at K = 5 (p = 0.0071).

For the ovarian dataset[4], a global optimal PAC value is observed at K = 2, which is supported by the

RCSI (Fig. 3b). However, when the Monte Carlo p-values are calculated, it is in fact K = 5 which is the

optimal K (p = 0.0078). This happens because some datasets have a skewed null distribution at K = 2,

resulting in lower PAC scores (Supplementary Fig. 3b). These are inherently favoured by the

algorithm, a bias that is unaddressed by the PAC score or the RCSI. Only by calculating p-values for

each value of K can we mitigate against these types of systematic biases.

In cases where the clustering is very clear, the PAC score does perform well. In the lung cancer

dataset[5], a global PAC optimal K can be seen at K = 2, which is supported by both the RCSI and the

Monte Carlo p-value (p = 0.0018) (Fig. 3c). Although this conflicts with the original decision of K = 4,

the M3C p-value for K = 4 was also significant (p = 0.0032), implying this would be another

reasonable choice. However, the bias towards high K values of consensus clustering can be observed

again on the diffuse glioma dataset[1] (Fig. 3d). Here the PAC score continuously decreases until it

reaches a global optimum at K = 10. However, considering the reference distributions, M3C informs

us that K = 8 is the most significant option (p = 3.5×10^{-9}), which is also supported by the RCSI score.

For the paraganglioma dataset[2], the RCSI estimates K = 6 and the Monte Carlo p-value supports this

conclusion (p = 1.6×10^{-6}), while the PAC score continually decreases, giving no clear choice of K (Fig.

3e). This is another example of why the reference distribution matters, as the RCSI method shows a

local maximum for K = 2, while the Monte Carlo p-value does not support this. This is due to the

uneven shape of the PG reference distribution for K = 2, which has positive kurtosis (Supplementary

Fig. 4b). These findings imply results relying just on relative scores or mean comparisons with the

reference can be potentially misleading.

In agreement with our findings on simulated null data, it was observed that the NMF cophenetic

coefficient has a tendency towards calling K = 2 on real data (Fig. 3a-e). Only in the diffuse glioma

dataset[1] did the maximum cophenetic coefficient suggest any other value of K. Although there are

numerous variant decision rules for NMF in use[4,5,16], these do not compare against a null

distribution. Instead of taking the most stable consensus matrix (highest cophenetic coefficient) as

the optimal K, local maxima are often selected[4,5]. Notably, for the ovarian dataset[4] a local maximum

in the NMF cophenetic coefficient was observed at K = 5, which was supported by the M3C decision

in this instance. Additional support was observed for the lung cancer optimal K, as an NMF global

maximum cophenetic coefficient was detected for K = 2, and the M3C p-value also declared this K to

be optimal (p = 0.0018). However, since a tendency in NMF towards K = 2 on null datasets has been

observed in this study, it is unclear how confident we should be in this decision.

As a final step, we performed t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) on each dataset

then calculated the silhouette width using either the original K or the M3C K to evaluate the relative

strength of the M3C cluster assignments. t-SNE was performed first to reduce dimensionality,

because the silhouette width has been shown to work poorly alone on high dimensional data in

finding the true K[14]. This analysis demonstrated of the four datasets with differing K decisions to the

original, the M3C decisions were better in three. These findings support the value of M3C's

reference-based approach to deciding K.

Table II. Silhouette width of M3C optimal K assignments compared with original K decision assignments. Higher values of silhouette width (sil width) correspond to preferable clustering.

Dataset	Original K	Sil width	M3C K	Sil width
Glioblastoma[3]	4	0.28	4	0.28
Ovarian carcinoma[4]	4	0.30	5	0.27
Lung cancer[5]	4	0.26	2	0.27
Diffuse glioma[1]	4	0.041	8	0.18
Pheochromocytoma[2]	4	0.20	6	0.23

183 **M3C demonstrates good performance in finding K on simulated data**

184 Next, we sought to evaluate the performance of M3C on simulated data from K = 2 to K = 6 and

185 compare its performance to existing algorithms. In these tests, we varied the clusterlab alpha

186 parameter, which controls the distance between the clusters, and used algorithms which were able

187 to detect the true K from further apart cluster conditions (alpha = 2) to closer ones (alpha = 1) (Fig.

188 4a,b). Typically, in genome wide analyses many clusters will be overlapping and hard to distinguish

189 from one another. Therefore, sensitivity under these conditions is very valuable. This analysis found

190 that M3C using the RCSI score performed better than consensus clustering with the PAC score, M3C

191 using p-values, the GAP-statistic, CLEST, the original consensus clustering with the delta K score,

192 NMF, and progeny clustering. Notably, while M3C with the RCSI score was approximately 10% higher

193 in accuracy than M3C with p-values, the GAP-statistic, and consensus clustering with PAC, these

194 three methods performed similarly, within 4% of one another. CLEST was also a good performer in

195 this analysis. Overall, these simulations reinforce our findings on real data that M3C performs better

196 than other state-of-the-art methods.

197

198 **M3C can deal with complex structures using spectral clustering**

199 The performance of M3C is dependent on underlying clustering algorithm. Although k-means and

200 PAM perform well on the types of data generally encountered in genome-wide studies, they assume

201 the clusters are approximately spherical and equal in variance, which may not be true. Spectral

202 clustering is a widely applied technique due to its ability to cope with a broad range of structures[17].

203 Therefore, to increase the capabilities of the M3C software package, it includes self-tuning spectral

204 clustering[18]. We tested spectral clustering as M3C's inner algorithm versus PAM and k-means on two

205 synthetic datasets, one where the clusters were anisotropic (Fig. 5a), and a second where one

206 cluster had a far smaller variance than its neighbouring cluster (Fig. 5b). Under these conditions, it

207 was observed that M3C using PAM and k-means both had problems identifying the true K and

classifying the members of each cluster correctly. On the other hand, M3C using spectral clustering

did not suffer these drawbacks. Using spectral clustering, M3C is also capable of recognising more

complex non-Gaussian shapes, such as half-moons and concentric circles (Supplementary Fig. 6). The

addition of spectral clustering to the M3C software package allows greater flexibility in the range of

structures that may be examined.

M3C can quantify structural relationships between consensus clusters

An important question when the optimal K has been decided is, how do the discovered clusters

relate to one another? Inherently, consensus clustering does not distinguish between flat versus

hierarchical structure. To solve this, M3C performs hierarchical clustering on the medoids of each

consensus cluster. To make the analysis statistically principled, M3C iteratively performs the SigClust

method[19] on each pair of consensus clusters, then displays the pairwise p-values for each split of the

dendrogram. Testing M3C on the PG dataset revealed a hierarchical relationship between the six

clusters (Fig. 6a), with, for example, consensus clusters one and two grouping together (p = 1.2×10^{-80}

). In contrast, testing M3C on a null dataset without clusters demonstrated insignificant SigClust p-

values and a flat dendrogram (Fig. 6b). The addition of a hierarchical clustering stage after choosing

the optimal K should prove helpful in identifying structural relationships.

Sensitivity and complexity analysis of M3C

As a final step, we decided to evaluate M3C's internal parameters using the PAM algorithm,

compare its runtimes with other methods, and calculate its complexity. A sensitivity analysis of the

number of inner replications and outer simulations found M3C generally yielded stable results across

six TCGA datasets with 100 inner replications and 100 outer simulations (Supplementary Fig. 7-8).

We executed M3C on five datasets on a high-powered desktop computer using a single thread of an

Intel i7-5960X CPU @ 3.00GHz with 32GB of RAM. Runtimes ranged between 2-25 minutes,

depending on dimensionality (Fig. 7a). We compared the runtime of M3C with other well performing

methods from our earlier analysis on the same computer with a single thread (Fig. 7b-c). M3C,

CLEST, and the GAP-statistic which all use Monte Carlo simulations as a reference were set to 25

reference iterations for comparative purposes. This analysis demonstrated that consensus clustering

with the PAC score was the fastest method, followed by the GAP-statistic. CLEST and M3C were

slower and similar in runtime for lower N (number of samples), but for N greater than 500, M3C

performed more slowly than CLEST (Fig. 7b).

The complexity of the M3C algorithm is $O(BHA/C)$, where B is the number of Monte Carlo

simulations, H is the number of consensus clustering resamples, and A is the complexity of the

underlying clustering algorithm (see pseudo-code for M3C in Supplementary Note 1). The C denotes

number of available processors, as M3C can be parallelized due to its independent simulations and

subsampling subroutines. We empirically evaluated M3C's time complexity as a function of sample

size N using the PAM algorithm, which has a complexity of $O(N^2)$. Calculating the slope of the log-

log plot yielded an empirical complexity of $O(N^{2.4})$. This demonstrates that M3C is approximately

quadratic in N.

Discussion

We report the advancement of the Monti consensus clustering algorithm to include a Monte Carlo

simulation driven reference system for estimating the optimal K and testing the null hypothesis K=1,

we call the method M3C. Our investigation into this consensus clustering algorithm demonstrated it

has inherent bias towards higher values of K. These occur due to not considering the reference

distribution along the range of K when deciding on its value. Although considering these

distributions is a relatively straightforward procedure, as we have demonstrated, it has important

implications. To date, testing of the null hypothesis by TCGA has been conducted by SigClust after

deciding on the value of K using the standard methods[2,6,16]. SigClust tests the null hypothesis K=1 for

pairs of clusters, but it does not directly estimate K. The advantage of M3C is that it can both find K

and test the null hypothesis K=1.

Our reanalysis of high-profile stratified medicine studies, predominantly from TCGA[1-5,9,16], questions

the value of consensus clustering when used without considering the appropriate reference

distributions. The bias towards higher values of K, coupled with subjective decision making as to

what constitutes the optimal K, similar to the original elbow problem solved by the GAP-statistic[11],

may provide misleading results. We identified two cases in the literature where structure had been

declared despite M3C indicating no significant evidence against the null hypothesis. In the case of

the SLE study, seven subtypes were originally declared in a major transcriptomic analysis[9]. Within

the context of these new findings, it is perhaps better to describe these subtypes as existing within a

noisy spectrum of non-distinct states. This hints that there may be publication bias for positive

declaration of structures.

It is necessary to remark on the limitations of the approach. The M3C method can allow testing of

the null hypothesis K=1 and mitigate bias. However, this method does not allow, for example, the

formal statistical comparison of selecting K=2 compared with other values of K. The relative

magnitude of the p values can be used to estimate the optimal K by comparing against the null K=1

scenario like using the RCSI, however, this is not formal hypothesis testing. A second limitation is

that M3C is computationally expensive, however, extreme tail estimation and multi-core ability

mitigate this problem. Finally, just because the p-value or RCSI supports a given K gives no guarantee

the identified clusters or their number will be reproducible in an independent validation dataset.

Other types of consensus clustering methods include Infinite Ensemble Clustering[20] (IEC) and

Entropy-based consensus clustering[21] (ECC), which can be used for patient stratification. IEC

incorporates marginalized denoising auto-encoder with dropout noises to generate the expectation

representation for infinite basic partitions. ECC employs an entropy-based utility function to fuse

many basic partitions into a single consensus structure. A future challenge is to systematically

evaluate the performance of a wider range of consensus clustering methods on genome wide

expression data.

We benchmarked the performance of M3C against a number of alternatives, including: Monti

consensus clustering, the GAP-statistic, progeny clustering, and CLEST. Several cluster validity indices

were not tested, however, such as: the Silhouette index[22], the Calinski Harabasz index[23], the Jaccard

index[24], and the Davies-Bouldin index[25]. It would be interesting to determine if any of these indices

perform well in determining the optimal K when applied on consensus matrices produced by the

consensus clustering algorithm, our study indicates they will be subject to bias without a reference

procedure. It is also relevant to mention that there are other methods that could be applied to

investigate the significance of dendrogram splits, such as the inheritance procedure[26].

Lastly, it is important to mention the methodological contributions of clusterlab. Clusterlab is a

flexible new method for generating Gaussian clusters. Unlike prior methods[14,27,28], it is able to

generate and position Gaussain clusters in a highly customisable manner with specified variance,

spacing, and size. Clusterlab can generate data similar in nature to cancer gene expression datasets,

which are typically high-dimensional and Gaussian[19]. The method should appeal to researchers in a

range of disciplines for testing methods for finding K and clustering algorithms.

Methods

M3C. The method uses a Monte Carlo simulation, which generates random data with each iteration,

to repeat the Monti et al. consensus clustering algorithm many times over. Then, the real algorithm

is run just once to compare the real cluster stabilities along the range of K with those expected using

random Gaussian data (K = 1). Pseudo-code is given in Supplementary Note 1. This gives a new

method for choosing K after consensus clustering that removes bias towards high values of K and

allows one to statistically test for the presence of structure. The specific details are now given.

Simulation of the reference dataset. There are a range of options for the generation of reference

datasets in M3C's Monte Carlo simulation. We use an approach first proposed by Tibshirani et al.,

which preserves covariance structure via principal component analysis (PCA). With an input matrix,

$T \in \mathbb{R}^{S*F}$ we can compute the input data's eigenvector matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{F*S}$ and its principal component

score matrix, $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{S*S}$, where F is the number of features in the provided matrix, and S is the

number of samples. The steps taken to generate random data are repeated $b = 1 \dots B$ times:

1.   Conduct PCA to obtain the orthogonal matrix of eigenvectors, A of the input data T:

322
$$Y_{S*S} = T_{S*F} * A_{F*S} \quad (1)$$

324   2.   Next, a random PC score matrix is generated, $Y^b \in \mathbb{R}^{S*S}$, where the ith column is filled with

325   random values from a normal distribution with mean zero and standard deviation equal to

326   the ith column in Y. Let, D_i be the standard deviation of Y_{*i} and for $i = 1 \dots S$:

328
$$Y_{*i}^b \sim N(0, D_i) \quad (2)$$

330   3.   Multiplying Y^b with the transpose of A yields $Q^b \in \mathbb{R}^{S*F}$, a single simulated null dataset

331   with the same feature correlation structure as T, but without clusters.

333
$$Q_{S*F}^b = Y_{S*S}^b * A_{S*F}^b \quad (3)$$

Steps 1-3 are repeated by M3C for each Monte Carlo reference simulation for $b = 1 \dots B$, and for the

bth simulation one random dataset, Q^b is passed into the consensus clustering algorithm (described

below) to calculate null reference stability scores for $K = 2, \dots, maxK$. After B simulations, the

consensus clustering algorithm is run just once on the input data for comparison using procedures

we will go on to detail. M3C is set to use $B = 100$ and this was the parameter setting used for the

simulations in this study.

Consensus clustering. The Monti et al. consensus clustering algorithm subsamples the input data

sample-wise, H times, and with each resampling iteration clusters the perturbed dataset using a

user defined inner clustering algorithm (e.g., PAM) for each value of K. It then measures the stability

of the sample cluster assignments over all resampling iterations to decide K. M3C includes PAM, k-

means, and spectral clustering as options, with PAM set by default due to its superior speed. Let,

$D^{(1)}, D^{(2)}, \dots, D^{(H)}$ be the list of H perturbed datasets, and let $M^{(h)} \in \{0,1\}^{N*N}$ be the connectivity

matrix resulting from clustering dataset $D^{(h)}$, the entries of $M^{(h)}$ are then defined as:

347
$$M^{(h)}(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if samples i and j are in the same cluster} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (4)$$

348 To keep count of the number of times samples i and j are resampled together in the perturbed

349 dataset $D^{(h)}$ an indicator matrix $I^{(h)} \in \{0,1\}^{N*N}$ is defined:

350
$$I^{(h)}(i,j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if samples i and j are in dataset } D^{(h)} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

The consensus matrix, $M \in [0,1]^{N*N}$, is defined as the normalised sum of all the connectivity

matrices of all H perturbed datasets:

$$M(i,j) = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^{H} M^{(h)}(i,j)}{\sum_{h=1}^{H} I^{(h)}(i,j)} \quad (6)$$

The entry (i,j), or consensus index, is the number of times that two samples cluster together

divided by the total number of times they were sampled together across all the perturbed datasets.

A value of 1 would correspond to a perfect score as the two samples are always found in the same

cluster across all resampling runs, while a value of 0 would correspond to the worst score as the two

samples never are found in the same cluster. A consensus matrix is generated for every value of K

and then the stability of each matrix quantified using an empirical cumulative distribution (CDF) plot.

For any given consensus matrix M, the CDF is calculated and is defined over the range $[0,1]$ as

follows:

$$CDF(c) = \frac{\sum_{i<j} 1\{M(i,j) \le c\}}{N(N-1)/2} \quad (7)$$

Where $1\{...\}$ denotes the indicator function, $M(i,j)$, denotes entry (i,j) of the consensus matrix M,

N is the number of rows (and columns) of M, and c is the consensus index value.

Calculation of the PAC score. The CDF plot has consensus index values on the x axis and CDF values

on the y axis. A perfectly stable cluster solution will have a flat CDF plot representing a matrix purely

of 0s and 1s, therefore the degree of CDF flatness for each K is a measure of the stability of K. To

quantify this, M3C uses the PAC score, a metric shown to perform well in simulations[14]. PAC is

defined as the fraction of sample pairs with consensus index values falling in the intermediate sub-

interval $(x_1, x_2) \in [0,1]$. For a given value of K, $CDF(c)$ corresponds to the fraction of sample pairs

with consensus index values less than or equal to c and PAC is defined as:

$$PAC_K(x_1, x_2) = CDF_K(x_2) - CDF_K(x_1) \quad (8)$$

M3C calculates the PAC score with $x_1 = 0.1$ and $x_2 = 0.9$. Although the PAC window is a user

defined parameter, we have found these settings to perform well in our experience.

Calculation of the RCSI. To account for the reference PAC scores from $b = 1 \dots B$, where B is the

total number of Monte Carlo simulations, M3C uses the RCSI. Let, $Pref_{Kb}$ be the reference PAC

score from the bth Monte Carlo simulation for a given K, and, $Preal_K$ the real PAC score for that K,

then the $RCSI_K$ is defined as:

$$RCSI_K = \log_{10}\left(\frac{1}{B}\sum_{b=1}^{B} Pref_{Kb}\right) - \log_{10}(Preal_K) \quad (9)$$

Calculation of the Monte Carlo p value. To improve the selection of the optimal K, M3C derives

Monte Carlo p values by testing the real PAC score for each K against the null PAC distribution,

generated using simulated structureless data. Let o_K be the number of observed PAC scores in the

reference less than or equal to the real PAC score, let B be the total number of Monte Carlo

simulations, and the p value for that value of K, P_K is then defined as:

$$P_K = \frac{o_K + 1}{B + 1} \quad (10)$$

Where 1 is added the numerator and denominator to avoid p values of zero[29].

Interpretation of the p-values. For each K the method will test the null hypothesis H_0 that the PAC

score, $Preal_K$, came from a single Gaussian cluster ($K = 1$) versus the alternative hypothesis H_A

that $Preal_K$ did not come from a single Gaussian cluster ($K \neq 1$). If a p value for a K reaches

significance (alpha=0.05) it should be viewed as evidence that the data is not a single Gaussian

cluster. If no p values along the range of K reaches significance (alpha=0.05) it should be viewed as

evidence that the data is a single Gaussian cluster. The relative significance of the p-values can be

used to suggest the most preferable K, although we caution that the method does not formally test

the selection of one value of K versus another.

Calculation of the beta distribution p-value. To estimate p-values beyond the range of the Monte

Carlo simulation, M3C fits a beta distribution. This distribution is more flexible than the normal

alternative, which is especially helpful when K = 2, which tends to result in null distributions with

nonzero skew and kurtosis. Moreover, the PAC score is bound on the interval $[0,1]$, as is the beta

distribution, providing the correct range for computation. The α and β shape parameters required

for the beta distribution are derived using maximum likelihood estimates for the mean, μ, and

variance, σ^2, of the reference PAC scores for any given K:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N} Pref_{Kn} \quad (11)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N}(\sum_{n=1}^{N} Pref_{Kn} - \mu)^2 \quad (12)$$

$$\alpha = \left(\frac{1-\mu}{\sigma^2} - \frac{1}{\mu}\right)\mu^2 \quad (13)$$

$$\beta = \alpha\left(\frac{1}{\mu} - 1\right) \quad (14)$$

406 These α and β shape parameters are then used by M3C to generate the reference distribution for K.

407 The real PAC score is used as a test statistic for derivation of the estimated p value. Let x denote the

408 reference PAC score. Then the beta probability density function (PDF) is defined as:

$$PDF(x) = \frac{x^{\alpha-1}(1-x)^{\beta-1}}{\beta(\alpha,\beta)} \quad (15)$$

Simulating NXN dimensional Gaussian clusters in a precise manner. We found that current

Gaussian cluster simulation methods were inadequate for systematic testing of M3C. MixSim[27],

generates Gaussian clusters, however, it is not possible to precisely control their positioning. The

Python scikit-learn machine learning module contains a Gaussian cluster simulator, but it generates

clusters randomly and controlled positioning is not possible. Another method allows controlled

spacing[14], but does not generate Gaussian clusters, instead the clusters resemble triangular slices

and the variance and size cannot be set. Therefore, we developed clusterlab (https://cran.r-

project.org/web/packages/clusterlab/index.html). Clusterlab is a novel method that allows

simulation of Gaussian clusters with controlled spacing, size, and variance. It works by generating

cluster centres or points on the circumference of a circle in 2D space because this is easier to work in

mathematically than higher dimensional space. The specific details are now given.

Generating evenly spaced points on the perimeter of a circle. To control the spacing, size, and

variance of synthetic clusters, clusterlab works within a 2D Cartesian coordinate system with an

origin at $(0,0)$. First, the algorithm generates a set $S = \{w_i \in \mathbb{R}^2, i = 1, \dots X\}$ of X evenly spaced

pairs of coordinates, where $w_i = (x_i, y_i)$, on the perimeter of a circle. Each of these coordinates

later will be the centre of a Gaussian cluster, therefore, X is also the number of clusters to be

generated. Let, r be the radius of the circle, then, for the ith cluster centre from $i = 1 \dots X$ we need

to set $i = 0$ for the first cluster centre, so for $i = 0 \dots X - 1$, the coordinate pairs are calculated as

follows:

$$x_i = \cos \frac{2\pi}{X \cdot i} r \quad (21)$$

$$y_i = \sin \frac{2\pi}{X \cdot i} r \quad (22)$$

This naturally leaves the r parameter as a means of controlling the spacing of the cluster centres.

However, at this point, we also introduce an additional parameter for moving the ith cluster centre,

α_i. α_i is a scalar that can be used to push each coordinate pair (or vector) away from its starting

point, yielding the transformed coordinates (x_i', y_i'). In the case of a cluster being left stationary,

$\alpha_i = 1$. More specifically, for all pairs in set S, from $i = 1 \dots X$:

$$(x_i', y_i') = \alpha_i (x_i, y_i) \quad (23)$$

We also leave the option to add a final coordinate to S at $(0,0)$, to allow a central cluster within the

middle of the ring to be generated later.

Generation of more complex multi-ringed structures. As an optional next step to extend the single

ring system, clusterlab can create multiple rings or concentric circles of 2D coordinates. After

simulating the qth ring, as described above, from $q = 1 \dots Q$, the qth rings 2D coordinates are

pushed away from the origin using vector multiplication with a scalar, let this scalar be β_q, let the

newly transformed coordinates be (x_i'', y_i''), and so for $i = 1 \ldots X$:

$$(x_i'', y_i'') = \beta_q(x_i', y_i') \quad (24)$$

Our new total number of samples, T, will be, $T = X * Q$. With each iteration from $q = 1 \ldots Q$, the ith

transformed coordinates, $d_i = (x_i'', y_i'')$, are added to a new set, $R = \{d_i \in \mathbb{R}^2, i = 1, \ldots T\}$.

Optionally, another layer of complexity may be added by using vector rotations of the qth rings

coordinate pairs from $i = 1 \ldots X$, by setting $\theta_q \neq 0$ in the following equation. To calculate each of

the rings new coordinates (x_i''', y_i''') from $i = 1 \ldots X$, the following calculation is performed for every

pair:

$$x_i''' = x_i'' \cos(\theta_q) - y_i'' \sin(\theta_q) \quad (25)$$

$$y_i''' = x_i'' \sin(\theta_q) + y_i'' \cos(\theta_q) \quad (26)$$

Generation of Gaussian clusters. At this point we will assume that multiple rings have not been

generated and we are working with, S, a set of (x_i', y_i') coordinates described by equation 23.

However, the method that generates the Gaussian cluster multi-ringed system is identical to the

single ringed system described below, except we start with the multiplied (x_i'', y_i'') or multiplied and

rotated set of (x_i''', y_i''') points from the multi ring 2D coordinate set, R.

To form X Gaussian clusters of size M_i per cluster, we add Gaussian noise from a normal

distribution, $N(0, D_i)$, to the ith pair of cluster centre 2D coordinates, $k_i = (x_i', y_i')$, to create the

new coordinates, $t_i = (x_j, y_j)$. Performing this M_i times for each cluster centre, giving a total of

$Z = \sum_{i=1}^{Z} M_i$ coordinate pairs, yields the final set, $J = \{t_i \in \mathbb{R}^2, i = 1, \ldots Z\}$. The number of samples

in each cluster may be set by varying M_i, and the clusters variance, by setting D_i. The new

coordinate pairs, (x_j, y_j), to be added to, J, for all samples are calculated as follows:

$$(x_j, y_j) = (x_i' + N(0, D_i), y_i' + N(0, D_i)) \quad (27)$$

Projection of the final 2D coordinates into N dimensions. We transform the cluster sample

coordinates into N dimensions with a previously explained method which uses a reverse PCA[14]. First,

two random vectors are generated of length V, where V will equal the number of features in the

final matrix, from a normal distribution $N(0,0.1)$, let these be v_1 and v_2. The SD of 0.1 was chosen

empirically after examination of the scale of the simulated PC plots compared to those from real

expression datasets. The v_1 and v_2 vectors are treated as fixed eigenvectors in this method, and

each of our previously simulated coordinate pairs are treated as 2D PC scores. The final matrix,

$F \in \mathbb{R}^{Z*V}$, comprised of Z rows (samples) and V columns (features), is formed by linear

combinations of the fixed eigenvectors with the pairs of PC scores. Let, x_i and y_i be the PC scores of

the ith sample, from $i = 1 \ldots Z$ from set J, then the ith row of the output matrix F is given by:

475
$$F_{i*} = x_i * v_1 + y_i * v_2 \quad (28)$$

Non-Gaussian structures. For generating structures used in the spectral clustering analysis, the CRAN

clusterSim package version 0.47 was used[30]. For the anisotropic and unequal variance clusters, 90

samples were simulated with two dimensions with the cluster.Gen function using the default

settings. For the half-moon clusters, the shapes.two.moon function was used with 90 samples, and

for the concentric circles the shapes.two.circles function was used with 180 samples, both using

default settings. The sample number was increased in the latter to prevent gaps forming in the

concentric circles.

Real test datasets. All test datasets, apart from the SLE dataset, were already normalised and

downloaded directly through TCGA publication page (https://tcga-

data.nci.nih.gov/docs/publications/) during the period of April to June 2017, further details are

provided in Supplementary Table 1. We chose RNA-seq or microarray data from the TCGA where the

data was already normalised. The diffuse glioma (DG) dataset is a RNA-seq matrix consisting of 2266

features and 667 samples[1] (https://tcga-data.nci.nih.gov/docs/publications/lgggbm_2015/LGG-

GBM.gene_expression.normalized.txt). The GBM dataset, is a microarray matrix consisting of 1740

features and 206 samples[3] (https://tcga-

data.nci.nih.gov/docs/publications/gbm_exp/unifiedScaledFiltered.txt), the feature list used was

taken from a later publication on the same dataset[6]. The lung cancer (LC) dataset[5] used was a RNA-

seq matrix consisting of 178 samples and 2257 features (https://tcga-

data.nci.nih.gov/docs/publications/lusc_2012/gaf.gene.rpkm.20111213.csv.zip), the feature list used

to filter this dataset was from an earlier publication where four subtypes had been identified

(http://cancer.unc.edu/nhayes/publications/scc/wilkerson.scc.tgz). The paraganglioma (PG) dataset

downloaded was a RNA-seq matrix consisting of 173 samples and 3000 features (https://tcga-

data.nci.nih.gov/docs/publications/pcpg_2017/PCPG_mRNA_expression_naRM.log2.csv.zip), the

gene wise filtering scheme used was the same as described as in the corresponding publication[2]. The

ovarian cancer (OV) dataset[4] was a RNA-seq matrix of 489 samples and 800 features (https://tcga-

data.nci.nih.gov/docs/publications/ov_2011/TCGA_489_UE.zip), and the gene list used for

subsequent filtering was obtained from an earlier publication that detected four subtypes[31]. The SLE

dataset[9] used was a microarray matrix of 82 samples and 48 features, the data was obtained from

GEO (GSE65391), normalised, and filtered in the manner described in the associated publication.

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Author contributions

580   C.R.J conceived and designed the approach. C.R.J and D.W wrote the manuscript. C.R.J and D.W

581   wrote the code. C.R.J, D.W, K.G, and D.R performed data analyses. All authors reviewed and edited

582   the manuscript. M.B, C.P, M.E, and M.L supervised the project.

Additional information

585   The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Bias in the estimation of K using Monti and NMF consensus clustering. (A) A PCA plot of a simulated null dataset where only one cluster should be declared. (B) Monti consensus clustering yields a CDF plot implying improved stability with increased K. (C) The PAC score to measure the stability of K decreases with its value, demonstrating a strong preference towards estimating higher optimal values of K. (C) NMF consensus clustering yields a cophenetic coefficient plot which implies lower values of K are preferable using this method.

Figure 2. Overview of the M3C method and an initial demonstration. (A) A schematic of the M3C method and software. After exploratory PCA to investigate structure, the M3C function may be run which includes two functions; M3C-ref and M3C-real. The M3C-ref function runs consensus clustering with simulated random data sets that maintain the same gene-gene correlation structure of the input data. While, the M3C-real function runs the same algorithm for the input data. Afterwards, the relative cluster stability index (RCSI), Monte Carlo p values, and beta p values are calculated. Structural relationships are then analysed using hierarchical clustering of the consensus cluster medoids with SigClust to calculate significance of the dendrogram branch points. (B) Results from running M3C on a simulated null dataset, it can be clearly seen that the p values do not reach significance along the range of K, therefore the correct result is suggested, K=1. (C) Results from running M3C on a simulated dataset where four clusters are found, the correct decision is made by M3C. (D) Using M3C, a systemic lupus erythematosus dataset was detected with no significant evidence of structure. (E) Similarly, a breast cancer dataset was identified with no significant evidence of structure.

Figure 3. Further evidence of bias existing in widely applied consensus clustering algorithms. (A)

Results from running M3C on a glioblastoma dataset[3] found the optimal K was four. Consensus

clustering using the PAC-score shows an optimal K of ten, and NMF of two. (B) Results from running

M3C on an ovarian cancer dataset[4] found the optimal K was five. Consensus clustering using the

PAC-score shows an optimal K of two, and NMF also of two. (C) Results from running M3C on a lung

cancer dataset[32] found the optimal K was two. Consensus clustering using the PAC-score shows an

optimal K of two, and NMF also of two. (D) Results from running M3C on a diffuse glioma dataset[1]

found the optimal K was eight. Consensus clustering using the PAC-score shows an optimal K of ten,

and NMF of four. (E) Results from running M3C on a paraganglioma dataset[2] found the optimal K

was six. Consensus clustering using the PAC-score shows an optimal K of ten, and NMF of two. It can

be observed, consensus clustering using the PAC-score and NMF both tend towards K=10 or K=2,

respectively, on real data.

Figure 4. M3C demonstrates good performance in finding K on simulated data. (A) A sensitivity

analysis was conducted for every algorithm for K=2 to K=6 while varying the alpha parameter of

clusterlab (degree of Gaussian cluster separation). Accuracy was calculated as the fraction of correct

optimal K decisions, and for each alpha, with 25 iterations performed at each step. CC(original)

refers to the Monti et al. (2003) consensus clustering method, GAP-STAT refer to the GAP-statistic,

CC(PAC) refers to consensus clustering with the PAC-score. (B) Performance was calculated across

the range of K tested for each algorithm as the mean accuracy.

Figure 5. M3C uses spectral clustering to deal with complex structures. (A) Results from running

M3C using either spectral, PAM, or k-means clustering on anisotropic structures. The results for K=2

for each inner algorithm are shown in all cases, in the corner of the plots are the optimal K decisions

using the RCSI. (B) Similarly, results from testing different internal algorithms on structures of

unequal variance.

Figure 6. M3C can investigate structural relationships between consensus clusters. M3C calculates

the medoids of each consensus cluster, then hierarchical clustering is performed on these, SigClust is

run to detect the significance of each branch point. (A) Results from M3C structural analysis of the

six clusters obtained from the paraganglioma dataset analysis[2], all p values were strongly significant,

supporting the M3C decision of the declaration of structure. (B) Results from the same analysis run

on a simulated null dataset of the same dimensions, no p values were significant.

Figure 7. M3C can perform quickly across a range of datasets. (A) M3C runtimes (in minutes) for

five datasets used in the analysis. Performance was measured on an Intel Core i7-5960X CPU running

at 3.00GHz using a single thread with 32GB of RAM. M3C was run using 25 outer Monte Carlo

simulations and 100 inner iterations using the PAM algorithm. (B) M3C and other method runtimes

in minutes for a series of simulated datasets with the number of samples (N) ranging from 100-1000

for datasets of 1000 features. CLEST and the GAP-statistic, which also use a Monte Carlo reference

procedure, were set to run with 25 Monte Carlo simulations, the same as M3C for comparison. (C)

Log-log plot of the same data shown in B.

Figure 1

a GBM (2008), original K = 4, M3C K = 4

b Ovarian (2011), original K = 4, M3C K = 5

c Lung cancer (2012), original K = 4, M3C K = 2

d Diffuse glioma (2016), original K = 4, M3C K = 8

e Paraganglioma (2017), original K = 4, M3C K = 6

Consensus clustering   M3C   M3C   NMF

a

b

a   Paraganglioma (2017)

b   Null simulated dataset