Focus on the spectra that matter by clustering of quantification data in shotgun proteomics

Matthew The[1] and Lukas Käll[1,2]

[1]Science for Life Laboratory, School of Engineering Sciences in Chemistry, Biotechnology and Health, KTH – Royal Institute of Technology, Box 1031, 17121 Solna, Sweden
[2]Corresponding Author: lukas.kall@scilifelab.se

June 13, 2019

Running Title – Quantification-first: Clustering of label-free quantification data

Abstract

In shotgun proteomics, the information extractable from label-free quantification experiments is typically limited by the identification rate and the noise level in the quantitative data. This generally causes a low sensitivity in differential expression analysis on protein level. Here, we propose a quantification-first approach that reverses the classical identification-first workflow. This prevents valuable information from being discarded prematurely in the identification stage and allows us to spend more effort on the identification process. Specifically, we introduce a method, Quandenser, that applies unsupervised clustering on both MS1 and MS2 level to summarize all analytes of interest without assigning identities. Not only does this eliminate the need for redoing the quantification for each new set of search parameters and engines, it also reduces search time due to the data reduction by MS2 clustering. For a dataset of partially known composition, we could now employ open modification and de novo searches to identify analytes of interest that would have gone unnoticed in traditional pipelines. Moreover, Quandenser reports error rates on feature level, which we integrated into our probabilistic protein quantification method, Triqler. This propagates error probabilities from feature to protein level and appropriately deals with the noise in quantitative signal caused by false positives and missing values. Quandenser/Triqler outperformed the state-of-the-art method MaxQuant/Perseus, consistently reporting more differentially abundant proteins at 5% FDR: 123 vs. 117 true positives with 0 vs. 25 false positives in a dataset of partially known composition; 78 vs. 10 proteins in a bladder cancer set; 9 vs. 0 proteins in a hepatic fibrosis set; and 889 vs. 661 proteins in a nanoscale type 1 diabetes set. Compellingly, in all three clinical datasets investigated, the differentially abundant proteins showed enrichment for functional annotation terms.

The source code and binary packages for all major operating systems are available from `https://github.com/statisticalbiotechnology/quandenser`, under Apache 2.0 license.

Introduction

In mass spectrometry-based proteomics, label-free quantification (LFQ) is one of the most comprehensive methods to analyze protein concentrations in complex mixtures. Its main advantage is that it allows for comparisons in large sample cohorts and can, hence, handle complex experimental designs [2]. Currently, LFQ and quantitative proteomics in general, are struggling to obtain sufficient coverage of the proteome [3] and also suffer from low sensitivity for differentially expressed proteins at false discovery rate thresholds [27]. While this can partially be attributed to inherent limitations in the methodology of mass spectrometry, it is, to a high degree, caused by the inadequacy of our current data analysis pipelines. We also note that LFQ is sometimes seen as cumbersome, as contrary to, for instance, isobaric labeling, one is not guaranteed a readout for an identified peptide in each sample. Frequently, this is resolved by missing value imputation but this introduces a multitude

of issues [37, 20]. Novel methods for LFQ data analysis are necessary to address these problems in sensitivity and specificity.

Two well-recognized issues regarding the sensitivity of LFQ pipelines are that many MS1 features remain unassigned to peptides [38] or even to MS2 spectra [24] and that a large number of fragment spectra remain unidentified [29]. Matches-between-runs (MBR) has proven to be an effective technique to propagate MS2 information to the MS1 features [5, 38, 1] and clustering of MS2 spectra from large repositories has allowed us to zoom in on frequently unidentified spectra for peptide identification [12]. Unsupervised clustering of MS2 spectra also significantly reduces the number of MS2 spectra that need to be searched [9, 11, 31]. This allows more computationally expensive searches to be conducted such as partial digestions, variable modification searches, open modification searches or even *de novo* searches. Generally, clustering of fragment spectra was recently demonstrated to give better sensitivity to LFQ experiments [13].

A less highlighted issue concerning sensitivity is that conventional data analysis pipelines match the individual sample's spectra to peptide sequences with search engines as a first step [5, 38]. This step directly limits the number of peptides and proteins that can ultimately be quantified. Moreover, such an *identification-first* strategy has some undesirable properties. For instance, if one would want to search the data again with an open modification search engine or a newly acquired spectral library, all quantification would have to be redone. Yet, in reality, the underlying experimental quantitative data does not change due to a new search engine result, just our interpretation thereof. By using unsupervised clustering of MS1 features, we can capture this underlying quantitative information of the analytes. We can assign MS2 spectra to such clusters but postpone their interpretation to a later stage. Such a *quantification-first* approach allows us to focus our efforts on improving the coverage by investigating frequently unidentified features without having to go through the costly process of repeated iterations of identification and quantification [36, 26, 8].

Conversely, specificity is often compromised by the multitude of thresholds in the various steps of a quantification pipeline, which cause a lack of error control and do not properly account for error propagation [32]. Also, missing value imputation is known to induce false quantification accuracy [15]. We have previously introduced a Bayesian method, Triqler [32], for protein quantification that propagates error rates of the different steps in protein quantification and compensates for missing readouts in a Bayesian manner. Triqler provides a natural means to link the quantification to the identification process. However, two features that Triqler did not include yet were the error rates of the association of MS1 features with MS2 spectra and support for MBR.

Here, we introduce a new method, *Quandenser* (QUANtification by Distillation for ENhanced Signals with Error Regulation), that we subsequently interface to Triqler to substantially increase the sensitivity of the LFQ analysis pipeline. Quandenser condenses the quantification data by applying unsupervised clustering on both MS1 and MS2 level and thereby paves the way for a quantification-first approach. The algorithm combines the unknowns from both levels into a condensed set of MS1 features and MS2 spectra that are likely to be interesting for further investigation. Specifically, Quandenser incorporates MBR for MS1 features to increase sensitivity and uses MS2 spectrum clustering to decrease the number of spectra to be searched. Importantly, it also provides *feature-feature match* error rates which can be used as input to Triqler to account for the errors as a result of the MBR step.

Methods

Data sets

We downloaded RAW files for 4 datasets. The first dataset was a set of partially known composition with the UPS1 protein mixture spiked in at different concentrations in a yeast background (PRIDE project: PXD002370, 9 RAW files, Only the files C-25fmol-R*_QEx2_*, D-10fmol-R*_QEx2_*, and E-5fmol-R*_QEx2_* were used) [10]. We also downloaded RAW files for three clinical datasets. The first was a dataset studying bladder cancer [19] (PRIDE project: PXD002170, 8 LFQ RAW files), which will henceforth be referred to as the *Latosinska* dataset. The second was a dataset studying Hepatitis

C Virus-associated hepatic fibrosis [4] (PRIDE project: PXD001474, 27 RAW files), which will be referred to as the *Bracht* dataset. The third dataset concerned a recent advancement in nanoscale proteomics applied to type 1 diabetes [40] (PRIDE project: PXD006847, 18 RAW files), which will be referred to as the *Zhu* dataset.

For the UPS-Yeast mixture, a UPS1 protein mixture was spiked into a 1 μg yeast background at respectively 25, 10 and 5 fmol concentration, with triplicates for each concentration. The Latosinska dataset featured 8 samples of tumor tissues of non-muscle invasive (stage pTa, $n = 4$) and muscle-invasive bladder cancer cases (stage pT2+, $n = 4$), without technical replicates. The Bracht dataset featured 27 samples of biopsies from patients with HCV-associated hepatic fibrosis, classified in a low fibrosis group ($n = 13$) and a high fibrosis group ($n = 14$), without technical replicates. The Zhu dataset featured 18 samples with 10–100 cells each from human pancreatic islet thin sections with nine samples from a type 1 diabetes donor and nine from a non-diabetic control donor, without technical replicates.

Prior to processing the runs with Quandenser, all RAW files were converted to mzML format with ProteoWizard [17] (ver 3.0.10765), where we applied peak picking both on MS1- and MS2-level.

Quandenser

An overview of the Quandenser process is given in Figure 1. First, MS1 features were detected with Dinosaur v1.1.3 [30] and assigned to the MS2 spectra that were obtained inside the retention time and precursor isolation window. We will refer to a combination of an MS1 feature and an MS2 spectrum as a *spectrum-feature match*. Next, clustering of MS2 spectra was applied with MaRaCluster v0.05 [31]. One advantage of applying MS2 clustering first was that we could align retention times between two runs through pairs of spectra that end up in the same cluster. This alignment was done by fitting a spline function using iteratively reweighted least squares regression (IRLS). The IRLS algorithm provided protection against outliers that might have resulted from incorrect clusterings. We then estimated the standard deviation of the aligned retention times, which gave us a way to dynamically select a reasonable window to search for matching precursors (by default, 5 standard deviations), instead of having this window specified with a fixed time interval, as is usually done.

Retention times were aligned pair-wise between runs using a minimum spanning tree based on the similarity of chromatography runs [28]. For each pair-wise retention time alignment, the MS1 features discovered by Dinosaur from the two corresponding runs were matched based on a set of features, such as the difference between the observed and aligned retention time and precursor mass difference.

Decoy features were generated by shifting the precursor m/z by $5 \cdot 1.000508$ Th. We noted that the probability of observing a certain precursor mass is constrained by its composition of amino acids and, therefore, the probability of a match quickly tapers off when non-integer multiples of 1.000508 were employed as shifts. Using these decoy features, we estimated error probabilities of these feature-feature matches through Percolator v3.02 [33]. We filtered out feature-feature matches with a posterior error probability (PEP) above 0.25, and at the same time retained the information of the error probabilities to be used as input to Triqler. For features for which no corresponding feature could be found in the opposite run, we used a matches-between-runs approach by searching for previously missed features using the targeted mode of Dinosaur, again scored by Percolator according to the same scheme as above. If a feature still had no match, a placeholder feature, representing a missing value, was added at the corresponding precursor mass and aligned retention time.

The MS1 features were grouped by feature-feature matches from the pair-wise alignments using single-linkage clustering, resulting in MS1 *feature groups*. The feature groups that had a missing value in more than M runs were filtered out. Subsequently, for each feature group, we selected all MS2 spectra that were previously assigned to a feature in the group and assigned the MS2 spectrum's corresponding cluster from MaRaCluster to the feature group. We then scored each match between a feature group and a spectrum cluster according to the following score:

$$s = \sum_{r=1}^{R} \mathbb{I}(c_r \geq 1) \, \cdot \, \log_2(I_r),$$

where $r = 1, \ldots, R$ indicates the run index, $\mathbb{I}$ is the indicator function that is 1 if the condition holds and 0 otherwise, c_r are the number of spectra in the spectrum cluster that can be linked to the feature for run r, and I_r is the intensity of the feature in run r. For each spectrum cluster, we only retained the feature groups with $s \geq \frac{\max\{s_g \mid g \in G\}}{2}$, with G the set of all feature groups associated with the spectrum cluster. The idea behind this filter is that the MS1 feature intensity is a good predictor of the dominant peptide species in the MS2 spectrum. This filter typically more than halved the number of spectrum-feature matches that had to be searched, while maintaining or even increasing the number of peptide identifications due to the reduction of tested hypotheses.

Finally, Quandenser produces (1) a list of MS1 feature groups with their corresponding MS2 spectrum clusters, and (2) a spectrum file with, for each spectrum cluster, its consensus spectrum together with the spectrum-feature matches of the assigned feature groups. The spectrum file can be any of the file formats that are supported by Proteowizard, such as mzML and mgf, and can then be processed by the user's search engine of choice.

Peptide and protein identification and quantification

For the UPS-yeast mixture, we created a concatenated FASTA file containing 6769 records from both the UPS1 proteins (`https://www.sigmaaldrich.com/`, accessed: 2018 Jan 17) and the Swiss-Prot database for yeast (`http://www.uniprot.org/`, accessed: 2016 Mar 15). The Latosinska, Bracht and Zhu sets were searched against the Swiss-Prot database for human containing 20193 records (accessed: 2015 Nov 12). We generated decoy sequences by reversing the amino acid sequences and created concatenated target-decoy databases as input to the search engines.

We used several search engines both as standalone packages as well as part of a cascade search approach [16]. We employed Tide [6], through the interface of the Crux 2.1 [23] package, and used Percolator v3.02 [33] to post-process the resulting PSMs. For all datasets, all parameters in Tide and Percolator were left to their default values (i.e. tryptic cleavages, fix carbamidomethylations of cysteine and `--mz-bin-width=1.000508`), except for allowing up to 2 methionine oxidations, up to 2 missed cleavages, and ± 10 ppm precursor tolerance. Furthermore, we used MODa v1.51 [25] and MS-Fragger (build 20170103.0) [18] for open modification searches. We extracted several relevant features of the respective search results with in-house python scripts and subsequently processed the PSMs with Percolator v3.02. Finally, we also used Novor v1.05.0573 [22] for de novo searches as a discovery tool and searched the resulting sequences with BLAST through the UniProtKB website. We did no statistical analysis on the Novor results.

After the search engine search, the output file from Quandenser and the search engine results can be combined into an input file to Triqler v0.1.4 with a python script available from the Quandenser repository (`bin/prepare_input.py`). This step includes the option for retention time-dependent normalization [38] which is the default option and was also applied to all datasets presented here. The number of missing values allowed for each feature group, M, was arbitrarily selected for each dataset. For the UPS-Yeast dataset, we allowed $M = 3$ missing values, for the Latosinska set we used $M = 4$, for the Bracht set $M = 7$ and for the Zhu set $M = 11$.

Some adaptations to Triqler were necessary to deal with the additions to the pipeline. Firstly, the feature-feature match PEPs are used explicitly as an extra input to the feature node in Triqler's probabilistic graphical model (Supplementary Figure S1). Secondly, there is the issue of the many-to-many relation between feature groups and spectrum clusters. Note that a spectrum cluster can be associated to multiple identified peptide sequences due to chimericity of the spectrum. In the end, only one peptide identification can be associated to each feature group. To resolve this, for each unique peptide sequence identification of the spectrum cluster, Triqler first assigns the feature group with the best search engine score. Subsequently, if a feature group still has multiple peptide identifications, Triqler chooses the peptide sequence with the best combined PEP of the search engine PEP and the feature-feature match PEPs.

Finally, to deal with open modification search results, we have to guard ourselves against assigning correct peptides with incorrect (small) modifications to feature groups. To prevent this, we only select

the best peptide identification per protein for each spectrum cluster, under the assumption that the search engine will score the true peptide sequence, with or without modification, the highest. Triqler then proceeds in normal fashion to calculate relative protein expression levels and finally outputs a list of differentially expressed proteins.

As a comparison, we also analyzed the datasets with MaxQuant v1.6.1.0 [5], starting from the RAW files, followed by differential expression analysis with Perseus v1.6.1.3 [35]. We used the default parameters in MaxLFQ, except for allowing up to 2 oxidations and allowed the use of these modified peptides for quantification. For the differential expression analysis with Perseus, we filtered out decoy proteins and proteins with more than M missing values per dataset as stated above. We then $\log_2$ transformed the intensities, used missing value imputation with the default parameters and used Welch's t-test with different values of S_0 $(0.0, 0.3, 0.7, 1.0)$, where higher values of S_0 will increasingly prevent small fold changes from being selected as significant [34]. The results reported in the main text are for $S_0 = 0.3$, unless stated otherwise, as these generally gave the best trade-off between sensitivity and specificity.

Finally, we used DAVID 6.8 [14] to find significant functional annotation terms for the sets of differentially expressed proteins found by Quandenser/Triqler and MaxQuant/Perseus. We used the proteins identified at 5% protein-level identification FDR as the background set and thresholded the significant terms at a 5% Benjamin-Hochberg corrected FDR.

Results

We evaluated the performance of our quantification-first method, Quandenser, with different search engines followed by differential expression analysis with Triqler. We used one regular search engine, Tide, one open modification search engine, MODa and subsequently, we investigated a combination of them both, i.e. Tide and MODa in a cascade search setting. We compared these quantification-first setups to two identification-first setups, (1) MaxQuant/Perseus with matches-between-runs (MBR) and (2) Tide followed by Triqler, without clustering on MS1 and MS2 level or MBR but with feature detection using Dinosaur.

UPS-Yeast dataset

The UPS-Yeast dataset consisted of a total of 535k MS2 spectra. Assigning the MS1 features detected by Dinosaur to the MS2 spectra resulted in 934k spectrum-feature matches. Allowing up to $M = 3$ missing values, resulted in 132k feature groups of which 49k were assigned to at least one spectrum cluster. As multiple spectrum cluster could be assigned to a feature group, 109k spectrum-feature matches (12% of the original number of spectrum-feature matches), corresponding to 61k consensus spectra, remained to be searched by the search engine.

Subsequently, we processed the Quandenser output with Triqler. Triqler differs from conventional statistical tests in that it integrates the probabilities of the fold change exceeding a given threshold instead of calculating a probability of the observed data given a fold change of zero (a p value). For the UPS-Yeast dataset we arbitrarily selected this $\log_2$ fold change to be 0.8 (`--fold_change_eval=0.8`). Processing the Quandenser output with Triqler resulted in higher sensitivity compared to applying Triqler directly on the search results without clustering and at the same time controlled the FDR below the reported FDR of 5%, which MaxQuant/Perseus with MBR failed to do (Table 2). We also observed that MaxQuant/Perseus had trouble controlling the FDR, regardless of the value for the S_0 parameter (Supplementary Table S1).

To demonstrate the advantages of reducing the number of spectra and spectrum-feature matches that need to be searched, we ran the unidentified consensus spectra through an open modification search with MODa using the cascade search approach [16]. We can see a clear increase in the number of feature groups that were assigned a peptide and more modest, but still significant, increases in the number of unique peptides and proteins (Supplementary Figure S2). However, the cascade search did not result in an increased sensitivity on the spiked-in proteins, as the newly discovered peptides were

either modified versions of already identified peptides or came from already identified proteins (Table 2).

Interestingly, searching with MODa without searching with Tide first actually decreased the sensitivity on the spiked-in proteins relative to only searching with Tide, even though more unique peptides were identified than by Tide. This is likely a result of the lower sensitivity of open modification searches on unmodified peptides, as a result of the increased search space. We indeed discovered several unmodified peptides from UPS proteins that were confidently identified by Tide but not picked up by MODa. In this engineered dataset the modified peptides did seem to follow the correct expression pattern in the vast majority of the cases. In general, however, we should be careful about using modified peptides for quantification, as they are not guaranteed to follow the protein's expression pattern. On the other hand, quantifying modified peptides can be of great interest for understanding biological processes.

We also tried out MSFragger with its large precursor tolerance (± 500 Da) as an alternative open modification search engine. It produced more identifications than MODa, reducing the number of unidentified consensus spectra to around 40%, but also produced several dubious modifications. MS-Fragger could, therefore, be a good source for finding candidate peptide identifications, but some extra verification seems to be required for the moment.

To illustrate the utility of MS2 clustering, we used Novor on the 20 most frequently occurring unidentified spectra, followed by a BLAST search [21]. Using this approach, we found 2 distinct peptides from a capsid of a known yeast virus (UniProtKB: P32503 / GAG_SCVLA) and another 2 distinct peptides from lysyl endopeptidase (UniProtKB: Q9HWK6 / LYSC_PSEAE), the latter of which might have been used for improved protein digestion, although this was not mentioned in the original manuscript. All but one of these largest 20 unidentified spectrum clusters were identified as peptides from the 2 above-mentioned proteins or as modifications of already identified peptides of high-abundant proteins (Supplementary Table S2).

Furthermore, the benefit of having clustered on MS1 level allowed us to zoom in on feature groups without peptide identifications, but with the same expression pattern as the UPS proteins. For this, we calculated the cosine distance between the expected expression pattern and the observed expression pattern, omitting missing values from the calculation, and selected the 200 feature groups with the smallest cosine distance (Figure 2, Supplementary Table S3). Of these 200 feature groups, 58 were identified through closer inspection as, often modified, UPS peptides and often came from chimeric spectra. One helpful approach in identifying these chimeric spectra was by filtering out the fragment peaks of an already identified peptide species and applying another open modification search [7].

Interestingly, we also found 68 feature groups which had consensus spectra that contained many fragments (≥ 25) between 100 and 200 Da that, based on their accurate masses, were carbohydrates or hydrocarbons and did not contain any nitrogen atoms (Supplementary Table S4). In total, we found 1 724 of these types of spectrum clusters, which mainly eluted towards the end of the runs. Furthermore, their expression pattern typically seemed to follow the UPS expression pattern (Figure 2) and MS2 spectra associated with these feature groups generally remained unidentified. Based on their precursor mass differences and late retention times, these feature groups most likely originated from polyethylene glycols (PEG), which might have been present as a contaminant in the UPS samples.

The putative identifications of a yeast virus, lysyl endopeptidase, and PEGs are examples that demonstrate that Quandenser gives its users the capability to identify unknown either abundant or differentially abundant compounds in their samples by targeting their spectra for identification. Possibly these analytes could have been detected by other means, e.g. by using spectral libraries of known contaminants. However, for less engineered samples, Quandenser's ability to help the user identifying unknown compounds can turn out to be indispensable.

Of the remaining feature groups, 50 were from analytes with low precursor mass (< 1000 Da), mostly charge 1 ions, which are generally hard to identify. For 8 feature groups, the UPS expression pattern was a result of deisotoping errors where isotopes of a UPS peptide were incorrectly counted towards the intensity of the feature. Finally, 13 feature groups remained unidentified and did not fit into any

of the above categories, but usually had spectra that showed clear signs of chimericity or only had fragment ions spanning less than half of the peptide backbone making them hard to identify.

Clinical datasets

The Latosinska dataset consisted of 413k MS2 spectra, resulting in 991k spectrum-feature matches after MS1 feature detection by Dinosaur. Allowing up to $M = 4$ missing values and filtering based on the intensity score, we were left with 83k feature groups, of which 47k had at least one spectrum cluster associated with them. This corresponded to 122k consensus spectra and 183k spectrum-feature matches to be searched, just 18% of the original number of spectrum-feature matches. This dataset contained a relatively large number of singleton clusters, i.e. clusters with only one spectrum, that could be identified. Such singleton clusters illustrate the benefit of quantification across runs as a criterion, opposed to requiring one fragment spectrum per run.

Searching the consensus spectra with Tide and/or MODa resulted in more identifications compared to MaxQuant on all levels (Supplementary Figure S2). Subsequent processing with Triqler (`--fold_change_eval=0.8` resulted in more enriched functional annotation terms than applying Triqler directly on the MS2 search results (Figure 3, Supplementary Tables S5, S6, S7, S8, S9, S10, S11, S12, S13). There was a noticeable advantage for a cascaded Tide+MODa search, both in terms of the number of differentially expressed proteins, as well as in the number of enriched functional annotation terms. The original study found only a single protein at a 5% differential expression FDR and 77 proteins with a p value below 0.05. These 77 proteins did not show any term enrichment in DAVID. The significant proteins called by MaxQuant/Perseus at the three FDR thresholds nor the 142 proteins with a p value below 0.05 showed any enriched terms either.

The Bracht dataset contained 1.01M MS2 spectra, which were assigned a total of 1.47M spectrum-feature matches after feature detection. We allowed up to $M = 7$ missing values, which resulted in 69k feature groups in total and 45k with at least one spectrum cluster. This left 106k consensus spectra, with 150k spectrum-feature matches to be searched, which was only 10% of the original number of spectrum-feature matches.

Again, we observed an increase in the number of identifications on all levels compared to MaxQuant (Supplementary Figure S2). Analysis of the Tide search results with Triqler (`--fold_change_eval=0.5`; the fold change threshold used in the original study was $\log_2(1.5) = 0.58$) resulted in multiple differentially expressed proteins for all three searches, even at as low as 5% FDR (Figure 3). Conversely, neither the original study nor MaxQuant/Perseus found any differentially expressed proteins at 5% FDR. Moreover, functional annotation analysis with DAVID actually resulted in several significant terms for the 10% and 20% FDR thresholds (Supplementary Table S14, S15, S16, S17, S18, S19, S20, S21, S22).

Notably, in the original paper, 7 proteins with a p value below 0.05 and high fold change differences were subjected to verification through gene expression analysis, as well as targeted analysis with MRM. The 4 proteins that showed a consistent relationship with increasing fibrosis stages in both experiments (FBLN5, LUM, COL14A1, and MFAP4) were all discovered at 10% FDR, as was one protein that showed significance in the gene expression analysis but only partial statistical significance in the MRM analysis (TAGLN). The 2 proteins with the least consistent relation of expression levels with increasing fibrosis stages (CSRP2 and CNN2) were not discovered at 10% FDR, though CSRP2 was called significant at 20% FDR. In the original study, these 2 proteins actually obtained a lower p value than the other 5 proteins, and Quandenser/Triqler, thus, seemed to give a better ordering of these 7 proteins.

Finally, we wanted to test the applicability of the method to the Zhu dataset, that contained samples of a small number (10–100) of cells. This dataset comprised 593k MS2 spectra, assigned to 1.02M spectrum-feature matches. We allowed up to $M = 11$ missing values, resulting in 73k feature groups of which 52k have at least one spectrum cluster. This left 117k consensus spectra, corresponding to 187k spectrum-feature matches to be searched, 18% of the original number. We set the $\log_2$ fold

change threshold `--fold_change_eval=1.0` in Triqler, corresponding to the threshold employed in the original study.

The number of identified feature groups and unique peptides were much closer between Quandenser and MaxQuant for this particular set (Supplementary Figure S2). Nevertheless, Quandenser/Triqler managed to discover more significant proteins across all tested FDR thresholds compared to MaxQuant/Perseus (Figure 3). Using Tide as a search engine, we found 703 significant proteins at 2% FDR, considerably more than the 304 proteins at the same FDR found in the MaxQuant/Perseus analysis of the original study. Again, we found enriched functional annotation terms associated to several sets of significant proteins using Quandenser/Triqler (Supplementary Table S23, S24, S25, S26, S27, S28, S29, S30, S31). No enriched terms could be found for MaxQuant/Perseus analysis, neither from the original study nor from our own reanalysis. Interestingly, using Triqler without Quandenser appeared more sensitive in the functional annotation enrichment analysis, as did using stricter FDR thresholds.

Discussion

Here, we demonstrated the utility of a quantification-first approach in which we cluster both MS1 features and MS2 spectra prior to identifying spectra, peptides, and proteins of interest. While the idea to quantify features without an explicit identity is well explored in the literature [36, 26, 8], we here have demonstrated the idea's usefulness in combination with clustering. Not only does this approach provide several new ways of obtaining unidentified analytes of interest, but by combining Quandenser with Triqler, we discovered substantially more differentially expressed proteins and enriched functional annotation terms than MaxQuant/Perseus.

We showed that clustering of MS2 spectra was effective in increasing the coverage of the proteome, both by means of reducing of the number of spectra that need to be searched by one order of magnitude, as well as by focusing on the largest clusters that remained unidentified. By using MODa as an open modification search in a cascaded search after a regular database search with Tide, the number of identified consensus spectra was increased by 47% for the UPS-Yeast dataset, 14% for the Latosinska dataset, 20% for the Bracht dataset and 17% for the Zhu dataset. Not surprisingly, across all datasets, the identification rate for large clusters ($> 80\%$ for cluster size ≥ 16) was much higher than for small clusters ($< 50\%$ for cluster size ≤ 7). Furthermore, de novo searches on large MS2 spectrum clusters of the UPS-Yeast dataset resulted in the identification of peptides and proteins not present in the database. By no means do we claim that the modification and de novo searches we applied here are the best way of achieving increased proteome coverage. Rather, our analysis presents a first look into the part of the proteome that normally is ignored, with hopefully many more discoveries yet to come.

Alternatively, we used the similarity of feature groups' expression patterns as an indication that they originated from the same group of proteins. For instance, in the UPS-Yeast dataset, we identified a major part of the unidentified analytes that had a similar expression to the spiked-in UPS proteins as modified UPS proteins. This was made possible by the fact that the number of hypotheses was drastically reduced to just the set of 48 UPS proteins. Unfortunately, this technique cannot directly be used to increase the number of peptides available for protein quantification, as we would introduce a bias by only identifying peptides that already have a similar quantification pattern to the proteins that we searched for. It is, however, still a way to obtain more knowledge about peptides and modifications we might be missing out on. Simultaneously, this approach revealed an interesting group of analytes that covaried with the UPS proteins and most likely originated from polyethylene glycols. Although further investigation is required to confirm this, these analytes would not have come to our attention if we had used the traditional identification-first approach.

Another benefit of combining clustering on MS1 level with clustering on MS2 level is that we can include quantification information in the selection of MS2 spectrum clusters of interest. Specifically, this addresses a frequently observed phenomenon in MS2 spectrum clustering in which the majority of the clusters only contain a single spectrum, known as singleton clusters [9, 11, 31]. On the one hand, these could be poor quality MS2 spectra or spurious MS2 fragmentation events, which are often irrelevant and should preferably not be matched by a search engine. On the other hand, these could

be low abundant peptides rarely selected for fragmentation. The Quandenser workflow can filter out the first category by only retaining fragment spectra from analytes that were quantified across several runs, that is, it extracted the data points the experimenter would care about most.

The clustering steps further unveil the potential of integrated quantification and identification error models such as Triqler. Using matches-between-runs with feature-feature match error rates contributes to controlling the differential expression FDR. The use of Triqler's graphical model to combine the quantitative signals of the spectrum-feature matches into protein quantities offers a great way to integrate away undesired variation. The algorithm will in effect down-weight any of a protein's constituent peptides with a quantification pattern that contradicts its other peptides. In this aspect, Triqler resembles our previously published method, Diffacto[39], which uses factor analysis to obtain a similar effect. However, Triqler expands on this idea with the integration of identification errors, a more intuitive way to impute missing values and posterior probabilities that facilitate better interpretation of the results.

Several improvements could still be made to increase the sensitivity of Quandenser and the quantification-first pipeline in general. For example, in a small number of cases ($< 5\%$), the intensity score filter removed the correct feature group from a spectrum cluster due to a high-intensity analyte in the neighborhood. In most cases, the peptide was still identified through other spectrum clusters and no sensitivity was lost. However, we could use retention time differences between the MS2 spectra in the spectrum cluster and the MS1 features in the feature group to mitigate this. Furthermore, almost half of the spectrum clusters were assigned to at least two feature groups, even after the intensity score filter. This suggests that a large proportion of these spectra contain fragment ions from multiple peptide species. Indeed, by filtering out the fragment peaks of an already identified peptide species, we identified a second peptide species in a number of cases. Applying this technique to entire datasets will be a subject for further investigation.

Quandenser currently forms consensus spectra by a weighted averaging of the peak intensities of the spectra in a cluster [9, 31]. However, when comparing the search engine scores of consensus spectra, they very seldom end up having higher scores than the best scoring constituent spectra. This gives us reason to believe that the process to form consensus spectra could be improved, a process that would have benefits for other types of analysis e.g. the formation of spectral libraries. Another problem with the current methods for clustering MS2 spectra is so-called *chimeric spectra*, i.e. spectra containing product-ions from multiple peptides, that potentially can contaminate clusters [31]. If one would solve how to cluster partial fragment spectra based on similarities of subseries of the full spectrum, one would overcome this problem. Furthermore, such a solution would also open up for applying Quandenser-like processing of data from data independent analysis (DIA) mass spectrometry.

Finally, we specifically note the great potential of the quantification-first approach for processing datasets larger in sample size. First, by only requiring quantification to take place once, we remove one of the most time consuming part of re-analysis with different search parameters or engines. Second, by reducing the number of spectra that we need to analyze, we reduce the search time as well as lower the number of hypotheses we need to test when analyzing the subsequently matched spectra. The combination of these two techniques allows a wide variety of, potentially computationally expensive, search strategies to be applied to the quantification data. Especially with regards to the constant stream of new search engines, this provides an easy way for users to efficiently interrogate their data.

The quantification-first approach in label-free protein quantification, thus, provides an attractive alternative to the traditional identification-first approach. Through the use of unsupervised clustering, we condensed the data into a comprehensive format that retained the relevant information and thereby allow the researcher to spend more time on a reduced set of hypotheses. By subsequently propagating the feature-level error rates to probabilistic protein quantification methods, the bounds of sensitivity and specificity in LFQ are extended considerably. Already, we can see the benefits of this approach in terms of coverage and sensitivity using the techniques presented here, but many more modes of interpretation are available, ready to be applied.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by a grant from the Swedish Research Council (grant 2017-04030).

References

[1] Andrea Argentini, Ludger JE Goeminne, Kenneth Verheggen, Niels Hulstaert, An Staes, Lieven Clement, and Lennart Martens. moFF: A robust and automated approach to extract peptide ion intensities. *Nature Methods*, 13(12):964–966, 2016.

[2] Marcus Bantscheff, Simone Lemeer, Mikhail M Savitski, and Bernhard Kuster. Quantitative mass spectrometry in proteomics: Critical review update from 2007 to the present. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 404(4):939–965, 2012.

[3] Marcus Bantscheff, Markus Schirle, Gavain Sweetman, Jens Rick, and Bernhard Kuster. Quantitative mass spectrometry in proteomics: A critical review. *Analytical and Bioanalytical Chemistry*, 389(4):1017–1031, 2007.

[4] Thilo Bracht, Vincent Schweinsberg, Martin Trippler, Michael Kohl, Maike Ahrens, Juliet Padden, Wael Naboulsi, Katalin Barkovits, Dominik A Megger, Martin Eisenacher, et al. Analysis of disease-associated protein expression using quantitative proteomics—fibulin-5 is expressed in association with hepatic fibrosis. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 14(5):2278–2286, 2015.

[5] Jürgen Cox, Marco Y Hein, Christian A Luber, Igor Paron, Nagarjuna Nagaraj, and Matthias Mann. Accurate proteome-wide label-free quantification by delayed normalization and maximal peptide ratio extraction, termed MaxLFQ. *Molecular & Cellular Proteomics*, 13(9):2513–2526, 2014.

[6] Benjamin J Diament and William Stafford Noble. Faster SEQUEST searching for peptide identification from tandem mass spectra. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 10(9):3871–3879, 2011.

[7] Viktoria Dorfer, Sergey Maltsev, Stephan Winkler, and Karl Mechtler. CharmeRT: Boosting peptide identifications by chimeric spectra identification and retention time prediction. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 2018.

[8] Gregory L Finney, Adele R Blackler, Michael R Hoopmann, Jesse D Canterbury, Christine C Wu, and Michael J MacCoss. Label-free comparative analysis of proteomics mixtures using chromatographic alignment of high-resolution μLC- MS data. *Analytical Chemistry*, 80(4):961–971, 2008.

[9] Ari M Frank, Matthew E Monroe, Anuj R Shah, Jeremy J Carver, Nuño Bandeira, Ronald J Moore, Gordon A Anderson, Richard D Smith, and Pavel A Pevzner. Spectral archives: Extending spectral libraries to analyze both identified and unidentified spectra. *Nature Methods*, 8(7):587–591, 2011.

[10] Quentin Giai Gianetto, Florence Combes, Claire Ramus, Christophe Bruley, Yohann Couté, and Thomas Burger. Calibration plot for proteomics: A graphical tool to visually check the assumptions underlying FDR control in quantitative experiments. *Proteomics*, 16(1):29–32, 2016.

[11] Johannes Griss, Joseph M Foster, Henning Hermjakob, and Juan Antonio Vizcaíno. PRIDE Cluster: Building a consensus of proteomics data. *Nature Methods*, 10(2):95–96, 2013.

[12] Johannes Griss, Yasset Perez-Riverol, Steve Lewis, David L Tabb, José A Dianes, Noemi del Toro, Marc Rurik, Mathias Walzer, Oliver Kohlbacher, Henning Hermjakob, et al. Recognizing millions of consistently unidentified spectra across hundreds of shotgun proteomics datasets. *Nature Methods*, 13(8):651, 2016.

[13] Johannes Griss, Florian Stanek, Otto Hudecz, Gerhard Dürnberger, Yasset Perez-Riverol, Juan Antonio Vizcaíno, and Karl Mechtler. Spectral clustering improves label-free quantification of low-abundant proteins. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 18(4):1477–1485, 2019.

[14] Da Wei Huang, Brad T Sherman, and Richard A Lempicki. Systematic and integrative analysis of large gene lists using DAVID bioinformatics resources. *Nature Protocols*, 4(1):44, 2008.

[15] Yuliya Karpievitch, Jeff Stanley, Thomas Taverner, Jianhua Huang, Joshua N Adkins, Charles Ansong, Fred Heffron, Thomas O Metz, Wei-Jun Qian, Hyunjin Yoon, et al. A statistical framework for protein quantitation in bottom-up MS-based proteomics. *Bioinformatics*, 25(16):2028–2034, 2009.

[16] Attila Kertesz-Farkas, Uri Keich, and William Stafford Noble. Tandem mass spectrum identification via cascaded search. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 14(8):3027–3038, 2015.

[17] Darren Kessner, Matt Chambers, Robert Burke, David Agus, and Parag Mallick. ProteoWizard: Open source software for rapid proteomics tools development. *Bioinformatics*, 24(21):2534–2536, 2008.

[18] Andy T Kong, Felipe V Leprevost, Dmitry M Avtonomov, Dattatreya Mellacheruvu, and Alexey I Nesvizhskii. MSFragger: Ultrafast and comprehensive peptide identification in mass spectrometry–based proteomics. *Nature Methods*, 14(5):513, 2017.

[19] Agnieszka Latosinska, Konstantinos Vougas, Manousos Makridakis, Julie Klein, William Mullen, Mahmoud Abbas, Konstantinos Stravodimos, Ioannis Katafigiotis, Axel S Merseburger, Jerome Zoidakis, et al. Comparative analysis of label-free and 8-Plex iTRAQ approach for quantitative tissue proteomic analysis. *PloS one*, 10(9):e0137048, 2015.

[20] Cosmin Lazar, Laurent Gatto, Myriam Ferro, Christophe Bruley, and Thomas Burger. Accounting for the multiple natures of missing values in label-free quantitative proteomics data sets to compare imputation strategies. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 15(4):1116–1125, 2016.

[21] Susanna L Lundström, Bo Zhang, Dorothea Rutishauser, Dag Aarsland, and Roman A Zubarev. SpotLight Proteomics: Uncovering the hidden blood proteome improves diagnostic power of proteomics. *Scientific Reports*, 7:41929, 2017.

[22] Bin Ma. Novor: Real-time peptide de novo sequencing software. *Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry*, 26(11):1885–1894, 2015.

[23] Sean McIlwain, Kaipo Tamura, Attila Kertesz-Farkas, Charles E Grant, Benjamin Diament, Barbara Frewen, J Jeffry Howbert, Michael R Hoopmann, Lukas Käll, Jimmy K Eng, et al. Crux: Rapid open source protein tandem mass spectrometry analysis. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 13(10):4488–4491, 2014.

[24] Annette Michalski, Jürgen Cox, and Matthias Mann. More than 100,000 detectable peptide species elute in single shotgun proteomics runs but the majority is inaccessible to data-dependent LC-MS/MS. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 10(4):1785–1793, 2011.

[25] Seungjin Na, Nuno Bandeira, and Eunok Paek. Fast multi-blind modification search through tandem mass spectrometry. *Molecular & Cellular Proteomics*, pages mcp–M111, 2011.

[26] Hendrik Neubert, Timothy P Bonnert, Klaus Rumpel, Brandon T Hunt, Ernst S Henle, and Ian T James. Label-free detection of differential protein expression by LC/MALDI mass spectrometry. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 7(6):2270–2279, 2008.

[27] Dana Pascovici, David CL Handler, Jemma X Wu, and Paul A Haynes. Multiple testing corrections in quantitative proteomics: A useful but blunt tool. *Proteomics*, 16(18):2448–2453, 2016.

[28] Hannes L Röst, Yansheng Liu, Giuseppe D'Agostino, Matteo Zanella, Pedro Navarro, George Rosenberger, Ben C Collins, Ludovic Gillet, Giuseppe Testa, Lars Malmström, et al. TRIC: An automated alignment strategy for reproducible protein quantification in targeted proteomics. *Nature Methods*, 13(9):777, 2016.

[29] Owen S Skinner and Neil L Kelleher. Illuminating the dark matter of shotgun proteomics. *Nature Biotechnology*, 33(7):717, 2015.

[30] Johan Teleman, Aakash Chawade, Marianne Sandin, Fredrik Levander, and Johan Malmström. Dinosaur: A refined open-source peptide MS feature detector. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 15(7):2143–2151, 2016.

[31] Matthew The and Lukas Käll. MaRaCluster: A fragment rarity metric for clustering fragment spectra in shotgun proteomics. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 15(3):713–720, 2016.

[32] Matthew The and Lukas Käll. Integrated identification and quantification error probabilities for shotgun proteomics. *bioRxiv*, 2018.

[33] Matthew The, Michael J MacCoss, William S Noble, and Lukas Käll. Fast and accurate protein false discovery rates on large-scale proteomics data sets with Percolator 3.0. *Journal of the American Society for Mass Spectrometry*, 27(11):1719, 2016.

[34] Virginia Goss Tusher, Robert Tibshirani, and Gilbert Chu. Significance analysis of microarrays applied to the ionizing radiation response. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 98(9):5116–5121, 2001.

[35] Stefka Tyanova, Tikira Temu, Pavel Sinitcyn, Arthur Carlson, Marco Y Hein, Tamar Geiger, Matthias Mann, and Jürgen Cox. The Perseus computational platform for comprehensive analysis of (prote) omics data. *Nature Methods*, 13(9):731, 2016.

[36] Weixun Wang, Haihong Zhou, Hua Lin, Sushmita Roy, Thomas A Shaler, Lander R Hill, Scott Norton, Praveen Kumar, Markus Anderle, and Christopher H Becker. Quantification of proteins and metabolites by mass spectrometry without isotopic labeling or spiked standards. *Analytical Chemistry*, 75(18):4818–4826, 2003.

[37] Bobbie-Jo M Webb-Robertson, Holli K Wiberg, Melissa M Matzke, Joseph N Brown, Jing Wang, Jason E McDermott, Richard D Smith, Karin D Rodland, Thomas O Metz, Joel G Pounds, and Katrina M Waters. Review, evaluation, and discussion of the challenges of missing value imputation for mass spectrometry-based label-free global proteomics. *Journal of Proteome Research*, 14(5):1993–2001, 2015.

[38] Bo Zhang, Lukas Käll, and Roman A Zubarev. DeMix-Q: Quantification-centered data processing workflow. *Molecular & Cellular Proteomics*, 15(4):1467–1478, 2016.

[39] Bo Zhang, Mohammad Pirmoradian, Roman Zubarev, and Lukas Käll. Covariation of peptide abundances accurately reflects protein concentration differences. *Molecular & Cellular Proteomics*, 16(5):936–948, 2017.

[40] Ying Zhu, Paul D Piehowski, Rui Zhao, Jing Chen, Yufeng Shen, Ronald J Moore, Anil K Shukla, Vladislav A Petyuk, Martha Campbell-Thompson, Clayton E Mathews, et al. Nanodroplet processing platform for deep and quantitative proteome profiling of 10–100 mammalian cells. *Nature Communications*, 9(1):882, 2018.

Table 1: **Frequently occurring terms.**

MS1 feature	A detected precursor-ion, from any run
Spectrum-feature match	An MS2 spectrum associated with one monoisotopic mass. Due to chimericity, a spectrum may give rise to multiple spectrum-feature matches.
Feature group	Features matched across multiple runs
Matches-between-runs	A search through MS1 data for features not appearing in the initial list of features, that appear in other runs.
Spectrum cluster	A set of spectra from multiple runs originating from the same peptide species.
Consensus spectrum	A spectrum formed by aggregation of the spectra in a spectrum cluster.

Table 2: **Quandenser combined with Triqler achieves a high sensitivity on the UPS-Yeast dataset, while still maintaining control of the FDR.** The table lists the number of true and false positive significantly differentially expressed proteins at a 5% reported FDR threshold. Other values for S_0 for Perseus ($S_0 = 0.0, 0.7, 1.0$) resulted in inferior results.

UPS1 spike-in concentration [fmol]	25 vs 10		25 vs 5		10 vs 5	
Max. true positives	48		48		48	
Method	tp	fp	tp	fp	tp	fp
Quandenser/Triqler						
- Tide	43	1	45	1	35	0
- MODa	40	0	41	2	29	0
- Tide + MODa cascade	43	0	45	0	35	0
Tide + Triqler (without Quandenser/MBR)	40	0	40	0	34	0
MaxQuant/Perseus MBR ($S_0 = 0.3$)	39	9	42	15	36	1

Figure 1: **Workflow within Quandenser and its employment in the protein quantification pipeline.** Blue boxes represent existing software packages, some of which are directly integrated into the Quandenser package, green boxes represent in-house packages, gray boxes represent intermediate results or files and the yellow box represents any search engine(s) of choice.

Figure 2: **The number of feature groups and their origin as a function of dissimilarity to the UPS1 spike-in concentrations.** The histogram displays the number (left pane) and relative number (right pane) of feature groups as a function of the cosine distance relative to the UPS1 spike-in concentrations. The vast majority of the identified feature groups had an expression pattern that conformed to their origin. Still, a large proportion of feature groups remained unidentified, including a group that was tentatively identified as polyethylene glycols (PEGs), which exhibited an expression pattern similar to the UPS1 proteins. The cosine distance between the yeast and UPS concentrations was 0.16 and we can indeed observe that the majority of the yeast peptides center around that value.

Figure 3: **Benchmark of differentially expressed proteins and enriched functional annotation terms.** The analyzed methods were three quantification-first approaches, Quandenser/Triqler when using the search engine Tide (**blue**), MODa (**red**), and a cascade search with first Tide and subsequently MODa (**yellow**); and two identification-first approaches, Tide and Triqler without clustering and the matches-between-runs (MBR) feature (**green**), and MaxQuant with MBR followed by statistical analysis with Perseus (**orange**). Overall, we discovered more differentially expressed proteins and enriched functional annotation terms with than without Quandenser. Notably, we found enriched functional annotation terms for the Bracht set for which no enrichments were previously found. The left plots show the number of differentially expressed proteins at 3 differential expression FDR thresholds. The plots on the right show the number of significant functional annotation terms we discovered with DAVID using the sets obtained in the left plots. Note that the FDR reported in the plots on the right refer to the differential expression FDR and not the functional annotation term FDR, which was kept fixed at 5%.