Cell BLAST: Searching large-scale scRNA-seq database via unbiased cell embedding

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Abstract

Large amount of single-cell RNA sequencing data produced by various technologies is accumulating rapidly. An efficient cell querying method facilitates integrating existing data and annotating new data. Here we present a novel cell querying method Cell BLAST based on deep generative modeling, together with a well-curated reference database and a user-friendly Web interface at http://cblast.gao-lab.org, as an accurate and robust solution to large-scale cell querying.

Main Text

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Technological advances during the past decade have led to rapid accumulation of large-scale

single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) data. Analogous to biological sequence analysis[1],

identifying expression similarity to well-curated references via a cell querying algorithm is

becoming the first step of annotating newly sequenced cells. Tools have been developed to

identify similar cells using approximate cosine distance[2] or LSH Hamming distance[3, 4]

calculated from a subset of carefully selected genes. Such intuitive approach is efficient,

especially for large-scale data, but may suffer from non-biological variation across datasets,

i.e. batch effect[5, 6]. Meanwhile, multiple data harmonization methods have been proposed to

remove such confounding factors during alignment, for example, via warping canonical

correlation vectors[7] or matching mutual nearest neighbors across batches[6].While these

methods can be applied to align multiple reference datasets, computation-intensive

realignment is required for mapping query cells to the (pre-)aligned reference data space.

Here we introduce a new customized deep generative model together with a cell-to-cell

similarity metric specifically designed for cell querying to address these challenges (Figure

1A, Method). Differing from canonical variational autoencoder (VAE) models[8-11], adversarial

batch alignment is applied to correct batch effect during low-dimensional embedding of

reference datasets. Query cells can be readily mapped to the batch-corrected reference space

due to parametric nature of neural networks. Such design also enables a special "online

tuning" mode which is able to handle batch effect between query and reference when

necessary. Moreover, by exploiting the model's universal approximator posterior to model

uncertainty in latent space, we implement a distribution-based metric for measuring cell-to-

cell similarity. Last but not least, we also provide a well-curated multi-species single-cell

transcriptomics database (ACA) and an easy-to-use Web interface for convenient exploratory

analysis.

To assess our model's capability to capture biological similarity in the low-dimensional latent

space, we first benchmarked against several popular dimension reduction tools[8, 12, 13] using

real-world data (Supplementary Table 1), and found that our model is overall among the best

performing methods (Supplementary Figure 1-2). We further compared batch effect

correction performance using combinations of multiple datasets with overlapping cell types

profiled (Supplementary Table 1). Our model achieves significantly better dataset mixing

(Figure 1B) while maintaining comparable cell type resolution (Figure 1C). Latent space

visualization also demonstrates that our model is able to effectively remove batch effect for

multiple datasets with considerable difference in cell type distribution (Supplementary Figure

3). Of note, we found that the correction of inter-dataset batch effect does not automatically

generalize to that within each dataset, which is most evident in the pancreatic datasets

(Supplementary Figure 3C-D, Supplementary Figure 4A-C). For such complex scenarios, our

model is flexible in removing multiple levels of batch effect simultaneously (Supplementary

Figure 4D-H).

While the unbiased latent space embedding derived by nonlinear deep neural network

effectively removes confounding factors, the network's random components and nonconvex

optimization procedure also lead to serious challenges, especially false positive hits when

cells outside reference types are provided as query. Thus, we propose a novel probabilistic

cell-to-cell similarity metric in latent space based on posterior distribution of each cell, which

we term "normalized projection distance" (NPD). Distance metric ROC analysis (Method)

shows that our posterior NPD metric is more accurate and robust than Euclidean distance,

which is commonly used in other neural network-based embedding tools (Figure 1D).

Additionally, we exploit stability of query-hit distance across multiple models to improve

specificity (Methods, Supplementary Figure 4L). An empirical p-value is computed for each

query hit as a measure of "confidence", by comparing posterior distance to the empirical

NULL distribution obtained from randomly selected pairs of cells in the queried database.

The high specificity of Cell BLAST is especially important for discovering novel cell types.

Two recent studies ("Montoro"[14] and "Plasschaert"[15]) independently reported a rare tracheal

cell type named pulmonary ionocyte. We artificially removed ionocytes from the "Montoro"

dataset, and used it as reference to annotate query cells from the "Plasschaert" dataset. In

addition to accurately annotating 95.9% of query cells, Cell BLAST correctly rejects 12 out

of 19 "Plasschaert" ionocytes (Figure 1E). Moreover, it highlights the existence of a putative

novel cell type as a well-defined cluster with large p-values among all 156 rejected cells,

which corresponds to ionocytes (Figure 1F-G, Supplementary Figure 6A, also see

Supplementary Figure 5 for more detailed analysis on the remaining 7 cells). In contrary,

scmap-cell[2] only rejected 7 "Plasschaert" ionocytes despite higher overall rejection number

of 401 (i.e. more false negatives, Supplementary Figure 6B-E).

We further systematically compared the performance of query-based cell typing with scmap-

cell[2] and CellFishing.jl[4] using four groups of datasets, each including both positive control

and negative control queries (first 4 groups in Supplementary Table 2). Of interest, while Cell

BLAST shows superior performance than scmap-cell and CellFishing.jl under the default

setting (Supplementary Figure 7A-C, 8-10), detailed ROC analysis reveals that performance

of scmap-cell could be further improved to a level comparative to Cell BLAST by employing

higher thresholds, while ROC and optimal thresholds of CellFishing.jl show large variation

across different datasets (Supplementary Figure 7D). Cell BLAST presents the most robust

performance with default threshold (p-value < 0.05) across multiple datasets, which largely

benefits real-world application. Additionally, we also assessed their scalability using

reference data varying from 1,000 to 1,000,000 cells. Both Cell BLAST and CellFishing.jl

scale well with increasing reference size, while scmap-cell's querying time rises dramatically

for larger reference dataset with more than 10,000 cells (Supplementary Figure 7E).

Moreover, our deep generative model combined with posterior-based latent-space similarity

metric enables Cell BLAST to model continuous spectrum of cell states accurately. We

demonstrate this using a study profiling mouse hematopoietic progenitor cells ("Tusi"[16]), in

which computationally inferred cell fate distributions are available. For the purpose of

evaluation, cell fate distributions inferred by authors are recognized as ground truth. We

selected cells from one sequencing run as query and the other as reference to test if we can

accurately transfer continuous cell fate between experimental batches (Figure 2A-B). Jensen-

Shannon divergence between prediction and ground truth shows that our prediction is again

more accurate than scmap (Figure 2C).

Besides batch effect among multiple reference datasets, *bona fide* biological similarity could

also be confounded by large, undesirable bias between query and reference data. Taking

advantage of the dedicated adversarial batch alignment component, we implemented a

particular "online tuning" mode to handle such often-neglected confounding factor. Briefly,

the combination of reference and query data is used to fine-tune the existing reference-based

model, with query-reference batch effect added as an additional component to be removed by

adversarial batch alignment (Method). Using this strategy, we successfully transferred cell

fate from the above "Tusi" dataset to an independent human hematopoietic progenitor dataset

("Velten"[17]) (Figure 2D). Expression of known cell lineage markers validates the rationality

of transferred cell fates (Supplementary Figure 11A-F). In contrary, scmap-cell incorrectly

assigned most cells to monocyte and granulocyte lineages (Supplementary Figure 11G). As

another example, we applied "online tuning" to *Tabula Muris*[18] spleen data, which exhibits

significant batch effect between 10x and Smart-seq2 processed cells. ROC of Cell BLAST

improves significantly after "online tuning", achieving high specificity, sensitivity and

Cohen's κ at the default cutoff (Supplementary Figure 11H, last group in Supplementary

Table 2).

A comprehensive and well-curated reference database is crucial for practical application of

Cell BLAST. Based on public scRNA-seq datasets, we developed a comprehensive Animal

Cell Atlas (ACA). With 986,305 cells in total, ACA currently covers 27 distinct organs

across 8 species, offering the most comprehensive compendium for diverse species and

organs (Figure 2E, Supplementary Figure 12A-B, Supplementary Table 3). To ensure unified

and high-resolution cell type description, all records in ACA are collected and annotated with

a standard procedure (Method), with 95.4% of datasets manually curated with Cell Ontology,

a structured controlled vocabulary for cell types.

A user-friendly Web server is publicly accessible at http://cblast.gao-lab.org, with all curated

datasets and pretrained models available, providing "off-the-shelf" querying service. Of note,

we found that our model works well on all ACA datasets with minimal hyperparameter

tuning (latent space visualization available on the website). Based on this wealth of resources,

users can obtain querying hits and visualize cell type predictions with minimal effort

(Supplementary Figure 12C-D). For advanced users, a well-documented python package

implementing the Cell BLAST toolkit is also available, which enables model training on

custom references and diverse downstream analyses.

By explicitly modeling multi-level batch effect as well as uncertainty in cell-to-cell similarity

estimation, Cell BLAST is an accurate and robust querying algorithm for heterogeneous

single-cell transcriptome datasets. In combination with a comprehensive, well-annotated

database and an easy-to-use Web interface, Cell BLAST provides a one-stop solution for

both bench biologists and bioinformaticians

Software availability

The full package of Cell BLAST is available at http://cblast.gao-lab.org

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Author contributions

G.G. conceived the study and supervised the research; Z.J.C. and L.W. contributed to the computational framework and data curation; S. L., Z.J.C., and D.C.Y designed, implemented and deployed the website; Z.J.C. and G.G. wrote the manuscript with comments and inputs from all co-authors.

Figure. 1 Cell BLAST benchmarking and application to trachea datasets.

(A) Overall Cell BLAST workflow. (B) Extent of dataset mixing after batch effect correction in four groups of datasets, quantified by Seurat alignment score. High Seurat alignment score indicates that local neighborhoods consist of cells from different datasets uniformly rather than the same dataset only. Methods that did not finish under 2-hour time limit are marked as N.A. (C) Cell type resolution after batch effect correction, quantified by cell type mean average precision (MAP). MAP can be thought of as a generalization to nearest neighbor accuracy, with larger values indicating higher cell type resolution, thus more suitable for cell querying. Methods that did not finish under 2-hour time limit are marked as N.A. (D) ROC curve of different distance metrics in discriminating cell pairs with the same cell type from cell pairs with different cell types. (E) Sankey plot comparing Cell BLAST predictions and original cell type annotations for the "Plasschaert" dataset. (F) t-SNE visualization of Cell BLAST rejected cells, colored by unsupervised clustering.

Figure. 2 Application to hematopoietic progenitor datasets.

(A, B) UMAP visualization of latent space learned on the "Tusi" dataset, colored by sequencing run (A) and cell
fate (B). Model is trained solely on cells from run 2 and used to project cells from run 1. Each one of the seven
terminal cell fates (E, erythroid; Ba, basophilic or mast; Meg, megakaryocytic; Ly, lymphocytic; D, dendritic;
M, monocytic; G, granulocytic neutrophil) are assigned a distinct color. Color of each single cell is then
determined by the linear combination of these seven colors in hue space, weighed by cell fate distribution
among these terminal fates. (C) Distribution of Jensen-Shannon divergence between predicted cell fate
distributions and author provided "ground truth". (D) UMAP visualization of the "Velten" dataset, colored by
Cell BLAST predicted cell fates. (E) Number of organs covered in each species for different single-cell
transcriptomics databases, including Single Cell Portal (https://portals.broadinstitute.org/single_cell); Hemberg
collection[2]; SCPortalen[19]; scRNASeqDB[20].

Methods

The deep generative model

The model we used is based on adversarial autoencoder (AAE)[21]. Denote the gene expression profile of a cell as $x \in \mathbb{R}^G$. The data generative process is modeled by a continuous latent variable $z \in \mathbb{R}^D$ ($D \ll G$) with Gaussian prior $z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I_D)$, as well as a one-hot latent variable $c \in \{0,1\}^K$, $c^T c = 1$ with categorical prior $c \sim Cat(K)$, which aims at modeling cell type clusters. A unified latent vector is then determined by $l = z + Hc$, where $H \in \mathbb{R}^{D \times K}$. A neural network (decoder, denoted by Dec below) maps the cell embedding vector l to two parameters of the negative binomial distribution $\mu, \theta = \mathrm{Dec}(l)$ that models the distribution of expression profile x:

$$p(x|z, c; \mathrm{Dec}) = p(x|\mu, \theta) = \prod_{j=1}^{G} p(x_j|\mu_j, \theta_j) \tag{1}$$

$$p(x_j|\mu_j, \theta_j) = \frac{\Gamma(x_j + \theta_j)}{\Gamma(\theta_j)\Gamma(x_j + 1)} \left(\frac{\mu_j}{\theta_j + \mu_j}\right)^{x_j} \left(\frac{\theta_j}{\theta_j + \mu_j}\right)^{\theta_j} \tag{2}$$

Where μ and θ are mean and dispersion of the negative binomial distribution. Theoretically, the negative binomial model should be fitted on raw count data[8, 13, 22]. However, for the purpose of cell querying, datasets have to be normalized to minimize the influence of capture efficiency and sequencing depth. We empirically found that on normalized data, negative binomial still produced better results than alternative distributions like log-normal. To prevent numerical instability caused by normalization breaking the mean-variance relation of negative binomial, we additionally include variance of the dispersion parameter as a regularization term.

Training objectives for the adversarial autoencoder are:

$$\min_{\mathrm{Dec,Enc}} -\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}(x)}\Big[\mathbb{E}_{z \sim q(z|x;\mathrm{Enc}), c \sim q(c|x;\mathrm{Enc})} \log p(x|z, c; \mathrm{Dec}) + \lambda_z$$
$$\cdot \mathbb{E}_{z \sim q(z|x;\mathrm{Enc})} \log D_z(z) + \lambda_c \cdot \mathbb{E}_{c \sim q(c|x;\mathrm{Enc})} \log D_c(c)\Big] \tag{3}$$

$$\max_{D_z} \lambda_z \cdot \left(\mathbb{E}_{z \sim p(z)}[\log D_z(z)] + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}(x)}\mathbb{E}_{z \sim q(z|x;\mathrm{Enc})}[\log(1 - D_z(z))]\right) \tag{4}$$

$$\max_{D_c} \lambda_c \cdot \left(\mathbb{E}_{c \sim p(c)}[\log D_c(c)] + \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{data}(x)}\mathbb{E}_{c \sim q(c|x;\mathrm{Enc})}[\log(1 - D_c(c))]\right) \tag{5}$$

$q(z|x; \mathrm{Enc})$ and $q(c|x; \mathrm{Enc})$ are "universal approximator posteriors" parameterized by another neural network (encoder, denoted by Enc). Expectations with regard to $q(z|x; \mathrm{Enc})$

and $q(\boldsymbol{c}|\boldsymbol{x}; \text{Enc})$ are approximated by sampling $\boldsymbol{x'} \sim Poisson(\boldsymbol{x})$ and feeding to the

deterministic encoder network. D_z and D_c are discriminator networks for $\boldsymbol{z}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$ which

output the probability that a latent variable sample is from the prior rather than the posterior.

Effectively, adversarial training between encoder (Enc) and discriminators (D_z and D_c) drives

encoder output to match prior distributions of latent variables $p(\boldsymbol{z})$ and $p(\boldsymbol{c})$. λ_z and λ_c are

hyperparameters that control prior matching strength. The model is much easier and more

stable to train compared with canonical GANs because of low dimensionality and simple

distribution of $\boldsymbol{z}$ and $\boldsymbol{c}$.

At convergence, the encoder learns to map data distribution to latent variables that follow

their respective prior distributions and the decoder learns to map latent variables from prior

distributions back to data distribution. The key element we use for cell querying is vector $\boldsymbol{l}$ on

the decoding path, as it defines a unified latent space in which biological similarities are well

captured. The model also works if no categorical latent variable is used, in which case $\boldsymbol{l} = \boldsymbol{z}$

directly.

Some architectural designs are learned from scVI[8], including logarithm transformation before

encoder input, and softmax output scaled by library size when computing $\boldsymbol{\mu}$. Stochastic

gradient descent with minibatches is applied to optimize the loss functions. Specifically, we

use the "RMSProp" optimization algorithm with no momentum term to ensure stability of

adversarial training. The model is implemented using Tensorflow[23] python library.

Adversarial batch alignment

As a natural extension to the prior matching adversarial training strategy described in the

previous section, also following recent works in domain adaptation[24-26], we propose the

adversarial batch alignment strategy to align the latent space distribution of different batches.

Below, we extend derivation in the original GAN paper[27] to show that adversarial batch

alignment converges when embedding space distributions of different batches are aligned.

In the case of multiple batches, we assume that marginal data distribution can be factorized as

below:

$$p_{data}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{b}) = p(\boldsymbol{b})p(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{b}) \tag{6}$$

235 $\boldsymbol{b} \in \{0,1\}^B, \boldsymbol{b}^T\boldsymbol{b} = 1$ denotes a one-hot batch indicator, and batch distribution $p(\boldsymbol{b})$ is

236 categorical:

$$p(b_i = 1) = w_i, \qquad \sum_{i=0}^{B} w_i = 1 \tag{7}$$

237 Adversarial batch alignment introduces an additional loss:

$$\min_{\text{Dec,Enc}} \mathbb{E}_{b\sim p(b), x\sim p(x|b)} \mathbb{E}_{l\sim\delta(z+cH-l)q(z|x)q(c|x)}[\mathcal{L}_{base} + \lambda_b \cdot b^T \log D_b(l)] \tag{8}$$

$$\max_{D_b} \mathbb{E}_{b\sim p(b), x\sim p(x|b)} \mathbb{E}_{l\sim\delta(z+cH-l)q(z|x)q(c|x)}[\lambda_b \cdot b^T \log D_b(l)] \tag{9}$$

238 $\mathcal{L}_{base}$ denotes the loss function in (3). D_b is a multi-class batch discriminator network that

239 outputs the probability distribution of batch membership based on embedding vector l. λ_b is a

240 hyperparameter controlling batch alignment strength. Additionally, the generative

241 distribution is extended to condition on b as well:

$$p(x|z, c, b; \text{Dec}) = p(x|\mu, \theta)$$
$$\mu, \theta = \text{Dec}(l, b) \tag{10}$$
$$l = z + cH$$

242 Now, we focus on batch alignment and discard the first $\mathcal{L}_{base}$ term and scaling parameter λ_b.

243 To simplify notation, we fuse data distribution and encoder transformation, and replace the

244 minimization over encoder to minimization over batch embedding distributions:

$$\min_{p(l)} \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \mathbb{E}_{l\sim p_i(l)} \log D_{b_i}(l) \tag{11}$$

$$\max_{D_b} \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \mathbb{E}_{l\sim p_i(l)} \log D_{b_i}(l) \tag{12}$$

245 Here $D_{b_i}(l)$ denotes the ith dimension of discriminator output, i.e. probability that the

246 discriminator "thinks" a cell is from the ith batch. D_b is assumed to have sufficient capacity,

247 which is generally reasonable in the case of neural networks. Global optimum of (12) is

248 reached when D_b outputs optimal batch membership distribution at every l:

$$\max_{D_{b_i}(l)} w_i p_i(l) \log D_{b_i}(l), \qquad s.t. \sum_{i=1}^{B} D_{b_i}(l) = 1 \tag{13}$$

249 Solution to the above maximization is given by:

$$D_b^*{}_i(l) = \frac{w_i p_i(l)}{\sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i p_i(l)} \tag{14}$$

250 Substituting $D_b^*(l)$ back into (11), we obtain:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \mathbb{E}_{l \sim p_i(l)} \log \frac{w_i p_i(l)}{\sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i p_i(l)}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \mathbb{E}_{l \sim p_i(l)} \log \frac{p_i(l)}{\sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i p_i(l)} + \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \mathbb{E}_{l \sim p_i(l)} \log w_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \cdot \mathrm{KL}\left(p_i(l) \parallel \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i p_i(l) \right) + \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \log w_i$$

$$\geq \sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \log w_i$$

(155)

Thus $\sum_{i=1}^{B} w_i \log w_i$ is the global minimum, reached if and only if $p_i(l) = p_j(l), \forall i, j$. The

minimization of (11) is equivalent to minimizing a form of generalized Jensen-Shannon

divergence among multiple batch embedding distributions.

Note that in practice, model training looks for a balance between $\mathcal{L}_{base}$ and pure batch

alignment. Aligning cells of the same type induces minimal cost in $\mathcal{L}_{base}$, while cells of

different types could cause $\mathcal{L}_{base}$ to rise dramatically if improperly aligned. During training,

gradient from both batch discriminators and decoder provide fine-grain guidance to align

different batches, leading to better results than "hand-crafted" alignment strategies like CCA[7]

and MNN[6]. Empirically, given proper values for λ_b, the adversarial approach correctly

handles difference in cell type distribution among batches. If multiple levels of batch effect

exist, e.g. within-dataset and cross-dataset, we use an independent batch discriminator for

each component, providing extra flexibility.

Data preprocessing for benchmarks

Most informative genes were selected using the Seurat[7] function "FindVariableGenes". We

set the argument "binning.method" to "equal_frequency" and left other arguments as default.

If within dataset batch effect exists, genes are selected independently for each batch and then

pooled together. By default, a gene is retained if it is selected in at least 50% of batches.

Downstream benchmarks were all performed using this gene set, except for scmap and

CellFishing.jl which provide their own gene selection method. GNU parallel[28] was used to

parallelize and manage jobs throughout the benchmarking and data processing pipeline.

Benchmarking dimension reduction

PCA was performed using the R package irlba[29] (v2.3.2). ZIFA[12] was downloaded from its Github repository, and hard coded random seeds were removed to reveal actual stability. ZINB-WaVE[13] (v1.0.0) was performed using the R package zinbwave. scVI[8] (v0.2.3) was downloaded from its Github repository, and minor changes were made to the original code to address PyTorch[30] compatibility issues. Our modified versions of ZIFA and scVI are available upon request.

For PCA and ZIFA, data was logarithm transformed after normalization and adding a pseudocount of 1. Hyperparameters of all methods above were left as default. For our model, we used the same set of hyperparameters throughout all benchmarks. λ_z and λ_c are both set to 0.001. All neural networks (encoder, decoder and discriminators) use a single layer of 128 hidden units. Learning rate of RMSProp optimizer is set to 0.001, and minibatches of size 128 are used. For comparability, target dimensionality of each method was set to 10. All benchmarked methods were repeated multiple times with different random seeds. Run time was limited to 2 hours, after which the job would be terminated.

Cell type nearest neighbor mean average precision (MAP) was computed with K nearest neighbors of each cell based on low dimensional space Euclidean distance. Denote cell type of a cell as y, and cell type of its ordered nearest neighbors as $y_1, y_2, \ldots y_k$. Average precision (AP) for that cell is defined as:

$$AP = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{K} 1_{y=y_k} \cdot \frac{\sum_{k'=1}^{k} 1_{y=y_{k'}}}{k}}{\sum_{k=1}^{K} 1_{y=y_k}} \tag{16}$$

Mean average precision is then given by:

$$MAP = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} AP_i \tag{17}$$

Note that when $K = 1$, MAP reduces to nearest neighbor accuracy. We set K to 1% of total cell number throughout all benchmarks.

Benchmarking batch effect correction

We merge multiple datasets according to shared gene names. If datasets to be merged are from different species, Ensembl ortholog[31] information is used to map them to ortholog groups. To obtain informative genes in merged datasets, we take the union of informative

genes from each dataset, and then intersect the union with the intersection of detected genes

from each dataset.

CCA[7] and MNN[6] alignments were performed using R packages Seurat[7] (v2.3.3) and scran[32]

(v1.6.9) respectively. Hard coded random seeds in Seurat were removed to reveal actual

stability. The modified version of Seurat is available upon request. For comparability, we

evaluated cell type resolution and batch mixing in a 10-dimensional latent space. For MNN

alignment, we set argument "cos.norm.out" to false, and left other arguments as default. PCA

was applied to reduce dimensionality to 10 after obtaining the MNN corrected expression

matrix. For CCA alignment, we used the first 10 canonical correlation vectors. Run time was

limited to 2 hours, after which the job would be terminated. Seurat alignment score was

computed exactly as described in the CCA alignment paper[7].

Cell querying based on posterior distributions

We evaluate cell-to-cell similarity based on posterior distribution distance. Like in the

training phase, we obtain samples from the "universal approximator posterior" by sampling

$x' \sim Poisson(x)$ and feeding to the encoder network. In order to obtain robust estimation of

distribution distance with a small number of posterior samples, we project posterior samples

of two cells onto the line connecting their posterior point estimates in the latent space, and

use projected scalar distribution distance to approximate true distribution distance.

Wasserstein distance is computed on normalized projections to account for non-uniform

density across the embedding space:

$$NPD(p,q) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(W_1\left(z_p(p), z_p(q)\right) + W_1\left(z_q(p), z_q(q)\right) \right) \tag{18}$$

317 Where

$$W_1(u,v) = \inf_{\pi \in \Gamma(u,v)} \int |x - y| d\pi(x,y)$$

$$z_u(v) = \frac{v - \mathbb{E}(u)}{\sqrt{var(u)}}$$

We term this distance metric normalized projection distance (NPD). By default, 50 samples

from the posterior are used to compute NPD, which produces sufficiently accurate results

(Supplementary Figure 4I-J). The definition of NPD does not imply an efficient nearest

neighbor searching algorithm. To increase speed, we first use Euclidean distance-based

nearest neighbor searching, which is highly efficient in the low dimensional latent space, and

then compute posterior distances only for these nearest neighbors. Empirical distribution of

posterior NPD for a dataset is obtained by computing posterior NPD on randomly selected

pairs of cells in the reference dataset. Empirical p-values of query hits are computed by

comparing posterior NPD of a query hit to this empirical distribution.

We note that even with the querying strategy described above, querying with single models

still occasionally leads to many false positive hits when cell types that the model has not been

trained on are provided as query. This is because embeddings of such untrained cell types are

mostly random, and they could localize close to reference cells by chance. We reason that

embedding randomness of untrained cell types could be utilized to identify and correctly

reject them. Practically, we train multiple models with different starting points (as determined

by random seeds), and compute query hit significance for each model. A query hit is

considered significant only if it is consistently significant across multiple models. To acquire

predictions based on significant hits, we use majority voting for discrete variables, e.g. cell

type, or averaging for continuous variables, e.g. cell fate distribution.

Distance metric ROC analysis

Our model and scVI[8] were fitted on reference datasets and applied to positive and negative

control query datasets in the pancreas group of Supplementary Table 2. We then randomly

selected 10,000 query-reference cell pairs. A query-reference pair is defined as "positive" if

the query cell and reference cell are of the same cell type, and "negative" otherwise. Each

benchmarked similarity metric was then computed on all sampled query-reference pairs, and

used as predictors for "positive" / "negative" pairs. AUROC values were computed for each

benchmarked similarity metric. In addition to Euclidean distance, we also computed posterior

distribution distances for scVI (Supplementary Figure 4K). NPD is computed as described in

(18), based on samples from the posterior Gaussian. JSD is computed in the original latent

space (without projection).

Benchmarking cell querying

For each of the four querying groups, three types of datasets were used, namely reference,

positive query and negative query (see Supplementary Table 2 for a detailed list of datasets

used in each querying group). For each querying method, cell type predictions for query cells

are obtained based on reference hits with a minimal similarity cutoff. Cell ontology

annotations in ACA were used as ground truth. Cells with no cell ontology annotations were

excluded in the analysis. Predictions are considered correct if and only if it exactly matches

the ground truth, i.e. no flexibility based on cell type similarity. This prevents unnecessary

bias introduced in the selection of cell type similarity measure. Cells were inversely weighed

by size of the corresponding dataset when computing sensitivity, specificity and Cohen's κ.

AUROC was computed using linear interpolation. For scmap[2], we varied minimal cosine

similarity requirement for nearest neighbors. For Cell BLAST, we varied maximal p-value

cutoff used in filtering hits. For CellFishing.jl[4], the original implementation does not include

a dedicated cell type prediction function, so we used the same strategy as for our own method

(majority voting after distance filtering) to acquire final predictions, in which we varied the

Hamming distance cutoff used in distance filtering. Lastly, 4 random seeds were tested for

each cutoff and each method to reflect stability. Several other cell querying tools

(CellAtlasSearch[3], scQuery[33], scMCA[34]) were not included in our benchmark because they

do not support custom reference datasets.

Benchmarking querying speed

To evaluate scalability of querying methods, we constructed reference data of varying sizes

by subsampling from the 1M mouse brain dataset[35]. For query data, the "Marques" dataset[36]

was used. For all methods, only querying time was recorded, not including time consumed to

build reference indices.

Application to trachea datasets

We first removed cells labeled as "ionocytes" in the "Montoro_10x"[14] dataset, and used

"FindVariableGenes" from Seurat to select informative genes using the remaining cells. Four

models with different starting points were trained on the tampered "Montoro_10x" dataset.

We computed posterior distribution distance p-values as mentioned before, and used a cutoff

of p-value > 0.1 to reject query cells from the "Plasschaert"[15] dataset as potential novel cell

types. We clustered rejected cells using spectral clustering (Scikit-learn[37] v0.20.1) after

applying t-SNE[38] to latent space coordinates. Average p-value for a query cell was computed

as the geometric mean of p-values across all hits.

Online tuning

When significant batch effect exists between reference and query, we support further aligning

query data with reference data in an online-learning manner. All components in the

pretrained model, including encoder, decoder, prior discriminators and batch discriminators

are retained. The reference-query batch effect is added as an extra component to be removed

using adversarial batch alignment. Specifically, a new discriminator dedicated to reference-

query batch effect is added, and the decoder is expanded to accept an extra one-hot indicator

for reference and query. The expanded model is then fine-tuned using the combination of

reference and query data. Two precautions are taken to prevent decrease in specificity caused

by over-alignment. Firstly, adversarial alignment loss is constrained to cells that have mutual

nearest neighbors[6] between reference and query data in each SGD minibatch. Secondly, we

penalize the deviation of fine-tuned model weights from original weights.

Application to hematopoietic progenitor datasets

For within- "Tusi"[16] query, we trained four models using only cells from sequencing run 2,

and cells from sequencing run 1 were used as query cells. PBA inferred cell fate distributions,

which are 7-dimensional categorical distributions across 7 terminal cell fates, were used as

ground truth. We took the average cell fate distributions of significant querying hits (p-value

< 0.05) as predictions for query cells. As for scmap-cell, we filtered nearest neighbors

according to default cosine similarity cutoff of 0.5. Jensen-Shannon divergence (JSD)

between true and predicted cell fate distribution was computed as below:

$$JSD(\boldsymbol{p} \parallel \boldsymbol{q}) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sum_{i \in \{E, Ba, Meg, Ly, D, M, G\}} p_i \log \frac{p_i}{\frac{p_i + q_i}{2}} + q_i \log \frac{q_i}{\frac{p_i + q_i}{2}} \qquad (19)$$

403 For cross-species querying between "Tusi" and "Velten"[17], we mapped both mouse and

404 human genes to ortholog groups. Online tuning with 200 epochs was used to increase

405 sensitivity and accuracy. Latent space visualization was performed with UMAP[39, 40].

ACA database construction

407 We searched Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO)[41] using the following search term:

```
408  (
409      "expression profiling by high throughput sequencing"[DataSet Type] OR
410      "expression profiling by high throughput sequencing"[Filter] OR
411      "high throughput sequencing"[Platform Technology Type]
412  ) AND
413  "gse"[Entry Type] AND
414  (
415  "single cell"[Title] OR
416  "single-cell"[Title]
417  ) AND
418  ("2013"[Publication Date] : "3000"[Publication Date]) AND
419  "supplementary"[Filter]
```

Datasets in the Hemberg collection (https://hemberg-lab.github.io/scRNA.seq.datasets/) were

merged into this list. Only animal single-cell transcriptomic datasets profiling samples of

normal condition were selected. We also manually filtered small scale or low-quality data.

Additionally, several other high-quality datasets missing in the previous list were included for

comprehensiveness.

The expression matrices and metadata of selected datasets were retrieved from GEO,

supplementary files of the publication or by directly contacting the authors. Metadata were

further manually curated by adding additional description in the paper to acquire the most

detailed information of each cell. We unified raw cell type annotation by Cell Ontology[42], a

structured controlled vocabulary for cell types. Closest Cell Ontology terms were manually

assigned based on Cell Ontology description and context of the study.

Building reference panels for ACA database

Two types of searchable reference panels are built for the ACA database. The first consists of

individual datasets with dedicated models trained on each of them, while the second consists

of datasets grouped by organ and species, with models trained to align multiple datasets

profiling the same species and the same organ.

Data preprocessing follows the same procedure as in previous benchmarks. Both cross-

dataset batch effect and within-dataset batch effect are manually examined and removed

when necessary. For the first type of reference panels, datasets too small (typically < 1,000

cells sequenced) are excluded because of insufficient training data. These datasets are still

included in the second type of panels, where they are trained jointly with other datasets

profiling the same organ in the same species. For each reference panel, four models with

different starting points are trained. Latent space visualization, self-projection coverage and

accuracy on all reference panels are available on our website.

Web interface

For conveniently performing and visualizing Cell BLAST analysis, we built a one-stop web

interface. The client-side was made from Vue.js, a the single-page application Javascript

framework, and D3.js for cell ontology visualization. We used Koa2, a web framework for

Node.js, as the server-side. The Cell BLAST web portal with all accessible curated datasets is

deployed on Huawei Cloud.

Supplementary Fig. 1 Comparing low dimensional space cell type resolution of different dimension reduction methods.

Nearest neighbor cell type mean average precision (MAP) is used to evaluate how well biological similarity is captured. MAP can be thought of as a generalization to nearest neighbor accuracy, with larger values indicating higher cell type resolution, thus more suitable for cell querying. Methods that did not finish under 2-hour time limit are marked as N.A.

Supplementary Fig. 2 t-SNE visualization of latent spaces learned by our model.

(A) "Muraro"[43], (B) "Adam"[44], (C) "Guo"[45], (D) "Plasschaert"[15], (E) "Baron_human"[46], (F) "Bach"[47], (G) "Macosko"[48].

Supplementary Fig. 3 t-SNE visualization of latent spaces learned by our model on combinations of multiple datasets, with batch effect corrected.

Figures in the left column color cells by their cell types, while figures in the right column color cells by dataset. (A-B) "Baron_human"[46] and "Baron_mouse"[46]; (C-D) "Baron_human"[46], "Muraro"[43], "Enge"[49], "Segerstolpe"[50], "Xin_2016"[51] and "Lawlor"[52]; (E-F) "Montoro_10x"[14] and "Plasschaert"[15]; (G-H) "Quake_Smart-seq2"[18] and "Quake_10x"[18].

Supplementary Fig. 4 Multi-level batch correction and Cell BLAST strategy optimization.

(A-C) Latent space learned only with cross-dataset batch correction, colored by (A) donor in "Baron_human"[46], (B) donor in "Enge"[49], (C) donor in "Muraro"[43], respectively. (D-H) Latent space learned with both cross-dataset batch correction and within-dataset batch correction, colored by (D) donor in "Baron_human"[46], (E) donor in "Enge"[49], (F) donor in "Muraro"[43], (G) cell type, (H) dataset, respectively. (I) Standard deviation decreases as number of samples from the posterior increases. (J) Relation between Euclidean distance and posterior distance on "Baron_human"[46] data. Orange points represent cell pairs that are of the same cell type ("positive pairs"), while blue points represent cell pairs of different cell types ("negative pairs"). (K) AUROC of different distance metrics in discriminating cell pairs with the same cell type from cell pairs with different cell types. Note that posterior distribution distances for scVI only lead to decrease in performance, possibly due to improper Gaussian assumption in the posterior. (L) Accuracy, Cohen's κ, specificity and sensitivity all increase as the number of models used for cell querying increases, among which improvement of specificity is most significant.

Supplementary Fig. 5 Ionocytes predicted to be club cells are potentially doublets or of intermediate cell state.

(A) Cell-cell correlation heatmap for several cell types of interest. Cells labeled as "<X>" are reference cells in the "Montoro"[14] dataset. Cells labeled as "X->Y" are cells annotated as "X" in the original "Plasschaert"[15] dataset but predicted to be "Y". (B-D) Expression levels of several club cell markers in cell groups of interest. (E-G) Expression levels of several ionocyte markers in cell groups of interest.

Supplementary Fig. 6 Rejected cells in the "Montoro" - "Plasschaert" query.

(A) t-SNE visualization of Cell BLAST rejected cells, colored by cell type. (B) Sankey plot of scmap prediction. (C, D) t-SNE visualization of scmap rejected cells, colored by unsupervised clustering (C) and cell type (D). (E) scmap similarity distribution in each cluster of scmap rejected cells. The rejected ionocytes do not have the lowest cosine similarity scores to draw enough attention.

Supplementary Fig. 7 Benchmarking cell querying.

(A-C) Querying specificity (A), sensitivity (B) and Cohen's κ (C) for different methods under the default setting. (D) ROC curve of cell querying in four different groups of test datasets. Cohen's κ values in bottom left of each subpanel correspond to the optimal point on ROC curve. Points corresponding to each method's default cutoff (scmap: cosine distance = 0.5, CellFishing.jl: Hamming distance = 110, Cell BLAST: p-value = 0.05) are marked as triangles. Note that CellFishing.jl does not provide a default cutoff, so we chose Hamming distance of 110 which the closest to balancing sensitivity and specificity, but it's still far from being stable across different datasets. (E) Querying speed on references of different sizes subsampled from the 1M mouse brain dataset[35].

Supplementary Fig. 8 Sankey plots for Cell BLAST in the cell querying benchmark.

499   **Supplementary Fig. 9 Sankey plots for scmap in the cell querying benchmark.**

500 **Supplementary Fig. 10 Sankey plots for CellFishing.jl in the cell querying benchmark.**

Supplementary Fig. 11 Using "online tuning" in hematopoietic progenitor and _Tabula Muris_[18] spleen data.

UMAP visualization of the "Velten"[17] dataset, colored by expression of lineage markers, including CA1 for erythrocyte lineage (A), GP1BB for megakaryocyte lineage (B), DNTT for B cell lineage, TGFBI for monocyte, dendritic cell lineage (D), CLC for eosinophil, basophil, mast cell lineage (E), MPO for neutrophil lineage (F), and scmap predicted cell fate distribution (G). (H) ROC curve of cell querying in _Tabula Muris_[18] spleen data. Cohen's κ values in bottom left of each subpanel correspond to the optimal point on ROC curve. Points corresponding to each method's default cutoff (scmap: cosine distance = 0.5, CellFishing.jl: Hamming distance = 110, Cell BLAST: p-value = 0.05) are marked as triangles.

510
511 **Supplementary Fig. 12 ACA database and Cell BLAST Web portal.**

512 (A) Comparison of cell number in different single-cell transcriptomics databases. (B) Composition of different
513 single-cell sequencing platforms in ACA. (C) Home page of the Web interface. (D) Web interface showing
514 results of an example query.

Dataset Name	Organism	Organ Profiled	Experimental Platform	Used In
Guo[45]	Human	Testis	10x[53]	DR
Muraro[43]		Pancreas	CEL-Seq2[54]	DR, BC
Xin_2016[51]			SMARTer[55]	BC
Lawlor[52]			SMARTer[55]	BC
Segerstolpe[50]			Smart-seq2[56]	BC
Enge[49]			Smart-seq2[56]	BC
Baron_human[46]			inDrop[57]	DR, BC
Baron_mouse[46]	Mouse		inDrop[57]	BC
Adam[44]		Kidney	Drop-seq[48]	DR
Plasschaert[15]		Trachea	inDrop[57]	DR, BC
Montoro_10x[14]			10x[53]	BC
Macosko[48]		Retina	Drop-seq[48]	DR
Bach[47]		Mammary Gland	10x[53]	DR
Quake_Smart-seq2[18]		20 Organs	Smart-seq2[56]	BC
Quake_10x[18]		12 Organs	10x[53]	BC

Supplementary Table. 1 Datasets used in dimensionality reduction and batch effect correction benchmarking.

DR, dimension reduction benchmarking; BC, batch effect correction benchmarking

Group	Role	Dataset Name	Organism	Organ Profiled	Experimental Platform
Pancreas	Reference	Baron_human[46]	Human	Pancreas	inDrop[57]
		Xin_2016[51]			SMARTer[55]
		Lawlor[52]			SMARTer[55]
	Positive control query	Muraro[43]			CEL-Seq2[54]
		Segerstolpe[50]			Smart-seq2[56]
		Enge[49]			Smart-seq2[56]
	Negative control query	Wu_human[58]		Kidney	10x[53]
		Zheng[53]		PBMC	10x[53]
		Philippeos[59]		Skin	Smart-seq2[56]
Trachea	Reference	Montoro_10x[14]	Mouse	Trachea	10x[53]
	Positive control query	Plasschaert[15]			inDrop[57]
	Negative control query	Baron_mouse[46]		Pancreas	inDrop[57]
		Park[60]		Kidney	10x[53]
		Bach[47]		Mammary Gland	10x[53]
		Macosko[48]		Retina	Drop-seq[48]
Mammary Gland	Reference	Bach[47]	Mouse	Mammary Gland	10x[53]
	Positive control query	Giraddi_10x[61]			10x[53]
		Quake_Smart-seq2_Mammary_Gland[18]			Smart-seq2[56]
		Quake_10x_Mammary_Gland[18]			10x[53]
	Negative control query	Baron_mouse[46]		Pancreas	inDrop[57]
		Park[60]		Kidney	10x[53]
		Plasschaert[15]		Trachea	inDrop[57]

		Macosko[48]		Retina	Drop-seq[48]
Lung	Reference	Quake_10x_Lung[18]	Mouse	Lung	10x[53]
	Positive control query	Quake-Smart-seq2_Lung[18]			Smart-seq2[56]
	Negative control query	Baron_mouse[46]		Pancreas	inDrop[57]
		Park[60]		Kidney	10x[53]
		Bach[47]		Mammary Gland	10x[53]
		Plasschaert[15]		Trachea	inDrop[57]
Spleen	Reference	Quake_10x_Spleen[18]	Mouse	Spleen	10x[53]
	Positive control query	Quake_Smart-seq2_Spleen[18]			Smart-seq2[56]
	Negative control query	Baron_mouse[46]		Pancreas	inDrop[57]
		Park[60]		Kidney	10x[53]
		Macosko[48]		Retina	Drop-seq[48]
		Bach[47]		Mammary Gland	10x[53]

Supplementary Table. 2 Datasets used in cell query benchmarking.

521
Supplementary Table. 3 Raw data of benchmarking results.

Supplementary Table. 4 Datasets in ACA.

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