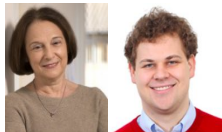


Statistical challenges in the analysis of single-cell transcriptomics data

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joint work with Sylvia Richardson and John Marioni



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INSTITUTE

Overview

Single-cell transcriptomics

Notation

Statistical challenges in the analysis of scRNA-seq data

BASiCS: Bayesian Analysis of Single-Cell Sequencing data

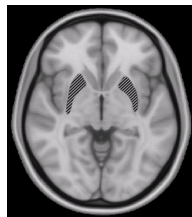
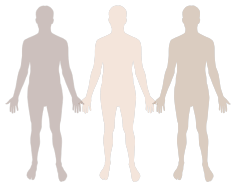
BASiCS: Posterior inference

Final remarks

Single-cell transcriptomics

Biological heterogeneity

There are multiple levels of biological heterogeneity



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Understanding heterogeneity at the single-cell level

Most transcriptomic studies have focused on examining expression in large populations of cells^{1,2}

Some biological processes, however, require the study of variation in gene expression at the single-cell level^{3,4}

Single-cell RNA-sequencing (scRNA-seq) quantifies gene expression profiles of individual cells

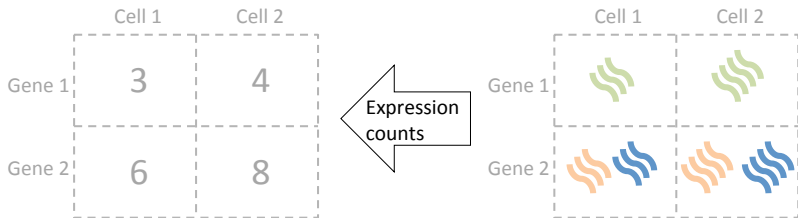
1. Marioni et al., Genome Res (2008)

2. Pickrell et al. Nature, (2010)

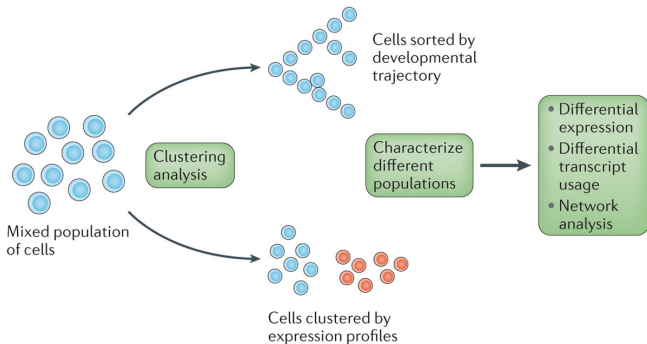
3. Hayashi et al., Science (2007)

4. Diez-Roux et al., PLoS Biol (2011)

scRNA-seq workflow



The power of scRNA-seq



Stegle et al., Nature Reviews (2015)

Already this has led to identification of novel:

- Neuronal populations¹
- Immune cell populations²
- Sub-populations of tumour cells³

1. Zeisel et al., Science, (2015)

2. Jaitin et al., Science, (2014)

3. Patel et al., Science, (2014)

Notation

scRNA-seq data can be represented as

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & \text{cell 1} & \text{cell 2} & \cdots & \text{cell } n & & \\ \left[\begin{array}{cccc} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & \cdots & x_{1,n} \\ x_{2,1} & x_{2,2} & \cdots & x_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \dots \\ x_{q,1} & x_{q,2} & \cdots & x_{q,n} \end{array} \right] & \begin{array}{l} \text{gene 1} \\ \text{gene 2} \\ \vdots \\ \text{gene } q \end{array} \end{array}$$

$x_{i,j}$: number of mRNA molecules mapped to gene i in cell j .

scRNA-seq data

```
##           A01 B01 C01 D01 E01 F01 G01 H01 A02 B02
## RNA_SPIKE_MC01  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC02  0  7  2  8  4  1  3  0  0  1
## RNA_SPIKE_MC04  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC07  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC08  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC09  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC10  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC14  4  2  3  5  1 10  2  1  3  1
## RNA_SPIKE_MC19  6  2  5  2  4  0  1  0  4  0
## RNA_SPIKE_MC20  6  4  1  1  2  0  0  3  0  1
```

...

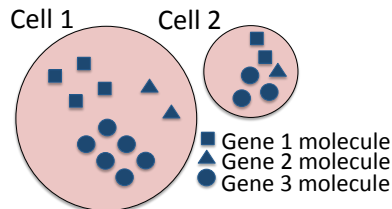
⋮

Statistical challenges in the analysis of scRNA-seq data

Normalisation

Cell-specific measurements can vary due to differences in

- total cellular mRNA content,
- sequencing depth and other amplification biases,
- capture efficiency.



scRNA-seq data is typically **pre-normalised** using the same strategies as for bulk RNA-seq datasets

⇒ to adjust the expression counts using $\tilde{x}_{ij} = x_{ij}/\hat{s}_j$ with e.g.

- Reads Per Million (RPM) $\hat{s}_j = (\sum_{i=1}^q x_{i,j})/1000000$.

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- DESeq factors¹

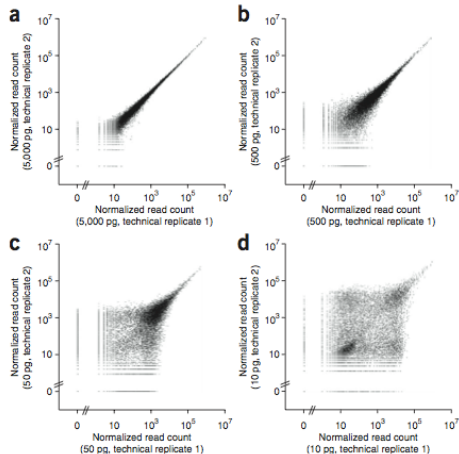
$$\hat{s}_j = \text{median}_{i=1,\dots,q} \left\{ \frac{x_{ij}}{\left(\prod_{j=1}^n x_{ij}\right)^{1/n}} \right\}$$

1. Anders and Huber, Genome Biology (2010)

Although these strategies perform well for bulk experiments, they can lead to unstable results for scRNA-seq datasets

Technical noise

Sequencing small quantities of RNA leads to strong levels of **technical variability**



Brennecke et al., Nature Methods (2013)

Using spike-in genes to quantify technical variability

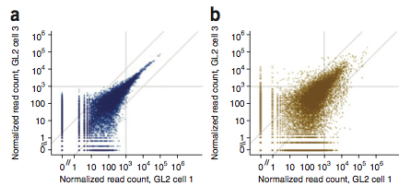
To quantify the amount of technical (non-biological) variability, **non biological spike-in genes** can be used¹

⇒ e.g. the set of 92 extrinsic molecules derived by the External RNA Controls Consortium (ERCC)²

- are present at the same level in each cell
- spike-in empirical measurements can be compared to their known values: use as a 'gold standard'

1. Brennecke et al, Nat Methods (2013) 2. Jiang et al, Genome Research (2011)

Using spike-in genes to quantify technical variability



a: spike-in genes; **b:** plant genes

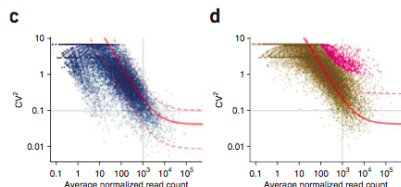
Source: Brennecke et al (2013)

- In (a), spike-in genes are compared between 2 cells: high level of technical noise (specially for genes with low read count)
- In (b), intrinsic genes are compared between 2 cells: use spikes to **tease out biological variability from technical one**

Using spike-in genes to quantify technical variability

Brennecke et al (2013) suggested

- to use spike-in genes to estimate relationship between technical variability and read count
- to 'plug-in' this fit to identify true cell-to-cell variability



a: spike-in genes; **b:** plant genes

Figure taken from Brennecke et al (2013)

- In (a), technical noise fit on spike-in genes (CV^2 versus means read counts)
- In (b), technical noise fit superimposed on biological genes to highlight significantly variable biological genes

Using spike-in genes to quantify technical variability

*This 2-step approach ignores uncertainty in technical noise fit ⇒
development of a joint model of spike-ins and biological genes*

Quality control: removing poor quality cells

Lastly (but not least!) it is important to assess how well RNA was captured and amplified from each cell¹

⇒ e.g. some cells may contain degraded RNA (due to stress)

Some important indicators are:

- The fraction of mapped reads
- The fraction of reads mapped to the spikes
- The fraction of reads to mitochondrial genes

1. Stegle et al, Nat Reviews (2015)

Quality control: removing poor quality cells

We might also use other experimental information (e.g. microscopy to detect multiple cells in a well)

WARNING: Be careful about removing biologically relevant cells

BASiCS: Bayesian Analysis of Single-Cell Sequencing data

BASiCS is an integrated Bayesian hierarchical model where

- cell-specific normalising constants are treated as model parameters,
as opposed to former pre-normalisation strategies
- unexplained technical variability is calibrated using spike-in genes,
combining information from endogenous genes in a single step
- highly/lowly variable genes are identified via an intuitive approach
decomposing total variability into technical and biological components

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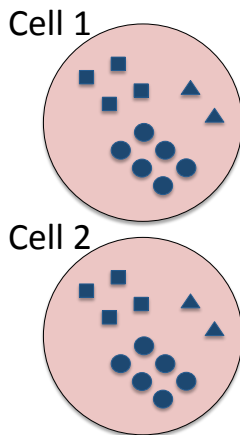
Integrative method rather than former 3-stage approaches

Modelling expression counts of spike-in genes

If cells are identical and there is no technical variability (e.g. seq. depth, capture efficiency, etc):

$$X_{i,j} | \mu_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\mu_j)$$

* BLUE quantities denote known parameters



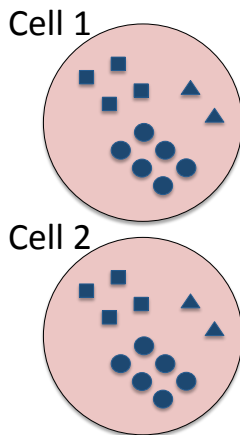
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$$\Rightarrow E(X_{i,j} | \mu_j) = \mu_j, \text{Var}(X_{i,j} | \mu_j) = \mu_j.$$

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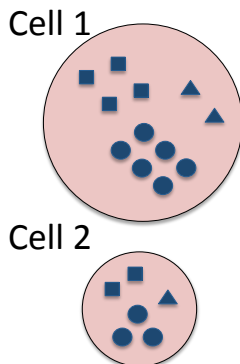


Modelling expression counts of spike-in genes

Differences in scale (e.g. seq. depth, capture efficiency, etc) can be captured by cell-specific normalising terms

$$X_{i,j} | \mu_i, s_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(s_j \mu_i)$$

- * BLUE quantities denote known parameters
- * RED quantities denote unknown parameters



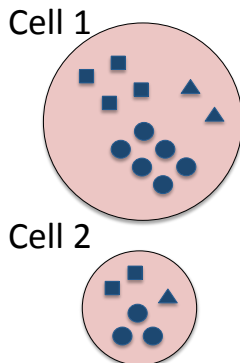
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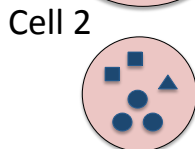
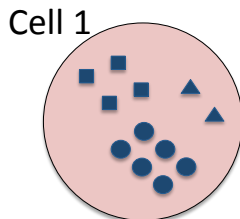
Modelling expression counts of spike-in genes

Unexplained technical variability is incorporated through random effects in a hierarchical structure

$$X_{i,j} | \mu_i, \nu_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\nu_j \mu_i)$$

$$\nu_j | s_j, \theta \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\theta^{-1}, (s_j \theta)^{-1})$$

$$\text{i.e. } E(\nu_j | s_j, \theta) = s_j, \text{Var}(\nu_j | s_j, \theta) = s_j^2 \theta.$$



- * BLUE quantities denote known parameters
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Modelling expression counts of spike-in genes

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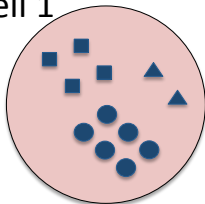
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$$\Rightarrow E(X_{ij} | \mu_i, s_j, \theta) = s_j \mu_i, \text{Var}(X_{ij} | \mu_i, s_j, \theta) = s_j \mu_i + \theta (s_j \mu_i)^2.$$

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Cell 1



Cell 2



Modelling expression counts of biological genes

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Modelling expression counts of biological genes

$$X_{i,j} | \phi_j, \mu_i, \nu_j, \quad \overset{ind}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\phi_j \nu_j \mu_i),$$
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Modelling expression counts of biological genes

$$X_{i,j} | \phi_j, \mu_i, \nu_j, \rho_{i,j} \stackrel{ind}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\phi_j \nu_j \mu_i \rho_{i,j}),$$
$$\nu_j | s_j, \theta \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\theta^{-1}, (s_j \theta)^{-1}), \quad \rho_{i,j} | \delta_i \stackrel{ind}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(\delta_i^{-1}, \delta_i^{-1})$$

Here, the ν_j 's are **shared** with the technical model component and the ρ_{ij} 's are such that

$$E(\rho_{i,j} | \delta_i) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Var}(\rho_{i,j} | \delta_i) = \delta_i.$$

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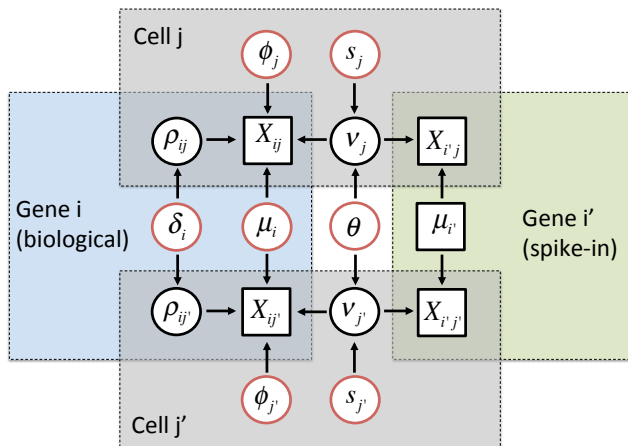
$$\Rightarrow E(X_{i,j} | \mu_i, \delta_i, s_j, \phi_j, \theta) = \phi_j s_j \mu_i,$$

$$\text{Var}(X_{i,j} | \mu_i, \delta_i, s_j, \phi_j, \theta) = \phi_j s_j \mu_i + \theta (\phi_j s_j \mu_i)^2 + \delta_i (\theta + 1) (\phi_j s_j \mu_i)^2$$

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BASiCS: Bayesian Analysis of Single-Cell Sequencing data



Definition (Identifiability)

A model for X is identifiable if and only if different parameter values lead to different probability distributions for X .

For example, if

$$X \sim N(\alpha + \beta, \sigma^2),$$

α and β are not identifiable.

In fact, the distribution of X is unchanged if α and β are replaced by $\alpha^* = \alpha - \gamma$ and $\beta^* = \beta + \gamma$, respectively (for an arbitrary γ).

BASiCS: Identifiability

Using the spike-in genes, where $\mu_{q_0+1}, \dots, \mu_q$ are known

⇒ We can identify s_j 's and θ .

Recall:

$$E(X_{i,j}|\mu_i, s_j, \theta) = s_j\mu_i, \quad \text{Var}(X_{ij}|\mu_i, s_j, \theta) = s_j\mu_i + \theta (s_j\mu_i)^2$$

BASiCS: Identifiability

Using the biological genes, where μ_1, \dots, μ_{q_0} are unknown

⇒ We can identify δ_i 's

⇒ But, we can't separately identify μ_i 's and ϕ_j 's

Recall:

$$E(X_{i,j}|\mu_i, \delta_i, s_j, \phi_j, \theta) = \phi_j s_j \mu_i,$$

$$\text{Var}(X_{ij}|\mu_i, \delta_i, s_j, \phi_j, \theta) = \phi_j s_j \mu_i + \theta(\phi_j s_j \mu_i)^2 + \delta_i(\theta + 1)(\phi_j s_j \mu_i)^2$$

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Identifiability restriction: $n^{-1} \sum_{j=1}^n \phi_j = \phi_0$, for some **known** ϕ_0 .

We use $\phi_0 = 1$.

BASiCS: Variance decomposition

After integrating out all random effects (intermediate parameters), our model induces:

$$\begin{aligned} E(X_{i,j}|\phi_j, s_j, \mu_i, \theta, \delta_i) &= \phi_j s_j \mu_i, \text{ and} \\ \text{Var}(X_{i,j}|\phi_j, s_j, \mu_i, \theta, \delta_i) &= \underbrace{\phi_j s_j \mu_i}_{\text{Baseline}} + \underbrace{\theta(\phi_j s_j \mu_i)^2}_{\text{Technical}} + \underbrace{\delta_i(\theta + 1)(\phi_j s_j \mu_i)^2}_{\text{Biological heterogeneity}} \end{aligned}$$

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Using this variance decomposition we can

- Quantify the strength of technical noise (overall and per gene)
- Generate a ranking of the genes based on biological cell-to-cell heterogeneity

Highly Variable Genes (HVG)

- Key drivers of cell-to-cell heterogeneity
- Potential markers of novel cell sub-populations

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Lowly Variable Genes (LVG)

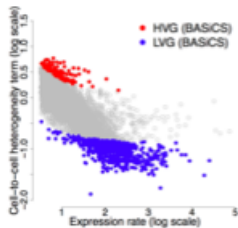
- Related to core processes of the cell
- Can help to reduce dimensionality in downstream analysis

BASiCS: Highly and lowly variable genes

Enrichment of
genes related to
cell differentiation



Enrichment of
genes related to
translation



BASiCS: Detecting highly variable genes

We identify HVG using tail posterior probabilities associated to a HIGH biological cell-to-cell heterogeneity component

BASiCS: Detecting highly variable genes

We identify HVG using tail posterior probabilities associated to a HIGH biological cell-to-cell heterogeneity component

For a given **variance threshold** γ_H , and **evidence threshold** α_H , BASiCS labels a gene as HVG if:

$$\pi_i^H(\gamma_H) = P(\sigma_i > \gamma_H | \{\text{Data}\}) > \alpha_H$$

$\sigma_i \Rightarrow$ proportion of total variability explained by cell-to-cell biological heterogeneity (in a typical cell)

$$\sigma_i \equiv \frac{\delta_i(\theta + 1)}{[(\phi s)^* \mu_i]^{-1} + \theta + \delta_i(\theta + 1)}, \quad \text{where } (\phi s)^* = \text{median}_{j \in \{1, \dots, n\}} \{\phi_j s_j\},$$

BASiCS: Detecting lowly variable genes

Similarly, we identify LVG using tail posterior probabilities associated to a LOW biological cell-to-cell heterogeneity component

BASiCS: Detecting lowly variable genes

Similarly, we identify LVG using tail posterior probabilities associated to a LOW biological cell-to-cell heterogeneity component

For a given **variance threshold** γ_L , and **evidence threshold** α_L , we classify as LVG those genes for which:

$$\pi_i^H(\gamma_L) = P(\sigma_i < \gamma_L | \{\text{Data}\}) > \alpha_L$$

BASiCS: Control of error rates for HVG and LVG detection

The variance thresholds γ_H and γ_L are biologically meaningful quantities and can be fixed prior to the analysis

The variance thresholds γ_H and γ_L are biologically meaningful quantities and can be fixed prior to the analysis

For fixed γ_H and γ_L , evidence thresholds α_H and α_L can be chosen by controlling the trade-off between

- **Expected False Discovery Rate (EFDR)**

$$\text{EFDR}_\alpha = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{q_0} (1 - \pi_i(\gamma)) I(\pi_i(\gamma) > \alpha)}{\sum_{i=1}^{q_0} I(\pi_i(\gamma) > \alpha)}$$

- **Expected False Negative Rate (EFNR)**

$$\text{EFNR}_\alpha = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{q_0} \pi_i(\gamma) I(\pi_i(\gamma) \leq \alpha)}{\sum_{i=1}^{q_0} I(\pi_i(\gamma) \leq \alpha)}$$

BASiCS: Posterior inference

Definition (Bayes Theorem)

$$\pi(\gamma|\mathbf{X}) = \frac{f(\mathbf{X}|\gamma)\pi(\gamma)}{\int f(\mathbf{X}|\gamma)\pi(\gamma) d\gamma}$$

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- $f(X|\gamma)$ is the **likelihood** function of X for a given value of γ
- $\pi(\gamma)$ is the **prior** density assigned to γ
- $\pi(\gamma|X)$ is the **posterior** density of γ after observing X

The Bayesian model is completed using the following priors:

- $\mu_i \sim \text{log-Normal}(0, s_\mu^2)$ for $i = 1, \dots, q_0$,
- $n^{-1}(\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n)' \sim \text{Dirichlet}(p_1, \dots, p_n)$
- $s_j \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(a_s, b_s)$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$,
- $\theta \sim \text{Gamma}(a_\theta, b_\theta)$
- $\delta_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Gamma}(a_\delta, b_\delta)$ for $i = 1, \dots, q_0$,

Results are robust to changes on hyper-parameter values

BASiCS involves a large number of parameters and exact posterior inference not possible

Instead, we use **Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC)** methods to generate samples from the posterior distribution

The sampler is based on the model

$$X_{ij} | \phi_j, s_j, \mu_i, \nu_j, \theta, \delta_i \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \begin{cases} \text{NB} \left(\delta_i^{-1}, \frac{\phi_j \nu_j \mu_i}{\phi_j \nu_j \mu_i + \delta_i^{-1}} \right), & i = 1, \dots, q_0; \\ \text{Poisson}(\nu_j \mu_i), & i = q_0 + 1, \dots, q. \end{cases}$$

for which the $\rho_{i,j}$'s are integrated out.

We use an **Adaptive Metropolis Hastings within Gibbs** algorithm

Definition (Gibbs Sampler¹)

Let $\gamma = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_P)'$ be a P -dimensional vector of parameters. Given an initial guess $\gamma^{(0)} = (\gamma_1^{(0)}, \dots, \gamma_P^{(0)})'$, at each iteration m

sample $\gamma_1^{(m+1)}$ from $\pi(\gamma_1 | \gamma_2^{(m)}, \dots, \gamma_P^{(m)}, \mathbf{X})$,
sample $\gamma_2^{(m+1)}$ from $\pi(\gamma_2 | \gamma_1^{(m+1)}, \gamma_3^{(m)}, \dots, \gamma_P^{(m)}, \mathbf{X})$,
 \vdots
sample $\gamma_P^{(m+1)}$ from $\pi(\gamma_P | \gamma_1^{(m+1)}, \dots, \gamma_{P-1}^{(m+1)}, \mathbf{X})$.

For large m , the distribution of $\gamma^{(m)}$ converges to $\pi(\gamma | \mathbf{X})$

These distributions are referred to as **full conditionals**

1. Geman and Geman, IEEE Transactions on Pattern Analysis and Machine Intelligence (1984)

In our case, the full conditionals of parameters of the “same type” factorise due to conditional independences.

Therefore, computational complexity is simplified

⇒ e.g. simultaneous updates for μ_1, \dots, μ_{q_0}

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Therefore, computational complexity is simplified

⇒ e.g. simultaneous updates for μ_1, \dots, μ_{q_0}

However, most of the required full conditionals do not have a known form

⇒ direct samplers are not available

⇒ we need to implement specialised samplers

Definition (Metropolis-Hastings^{1,2})

Given a starting value $\gamma^{(0)}$, at each iteration m

- 1 Sample $v \sim \text{Unif}(0, 1)$ and $\gamma^* \sim q(\gamma^*|\gamma^{(m)})$.
- 2 Define

$$a(\gamma^{(m)}, \gamma^*|\mathbf{X}) = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\pi(\gamma^*|\mathbf{X})}{\pi(\gamma^{(m)}|\mathbf{X})} \frac{q(\gamma^{(m)}|\gamma^*)}{q(\gamma^*|\gamma^{(m)})} \right\}.$$

- 3 If $v \leq a(\gamma^{(m)}, \gamma^*|\mathbf{X})$, return γ^* . Otherwise, return $\gamma^{(m)}$.

These steps generate samples from $\pi(\gamma|\mathbf{X})$.

1. Metropolis et al., The Journal of Chemical Physics (1953)

2. Hastings, Biometrika (1970)

BASiCS: Posterior inference

A common choice for $q(\gamma^*|\gamma^{(m)})$ is a $\text{Normal}(\gamma^{(m)}, \omega^2)$ distribution

Where the value of ω^2 is tuned to control the acceptance rate (i.e. the proportion of times that draws are accepted)

BASiCS: Posterior inference

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Where the value of ω^2 is tuned to control the acceptance rate (i.e. the proportion of times that draws are accepted)

A solution is to use an **Adaptive Metropolis-Hastings**¹ algorithm

Every 50
iterations

- Calculate the current acceptance rate
- If it is too high, increase ω^2
- If it is too small, decrease ω^2

Diminishing increments $\Rightarrow \omega^2$ will stabilise

1. Roberts and Rosenthal, *Journal of Computational and Graphical Statistics* (2003)

Final remarks

Final remarks

- scRNA-seq can reveal novel insights about transcriptional regulation
- However, analysing scRNA-seq is not a trivial task due to
 - Quality control
 - Normalisation
 - Technical variability
- Methods used for bulk RNA-seq datasets cannot be directly applied
- Our approach borrows information from intrinsic genes and technical spike-in genes, simultaneously \Rightarrow avoid stepwise procedures

BASiCS will soon incorporate 2 of the most widely applied downstream analyses

- Differential expression
- Clustering

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Another extension relates to **scalability**

⇒ New technologies allow sequencing of huge numbers of cells
e.g. Drop-seq¹ ~ 40000 cells (and no spikes!)

1. Macosko et al., Cell (2015)

Before the lab session ...

After lunch we will have a practical session

Before we start, please visit:

<https://github.com/catavallejos/TutorialBASiCS>

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