

Supplementary Figures

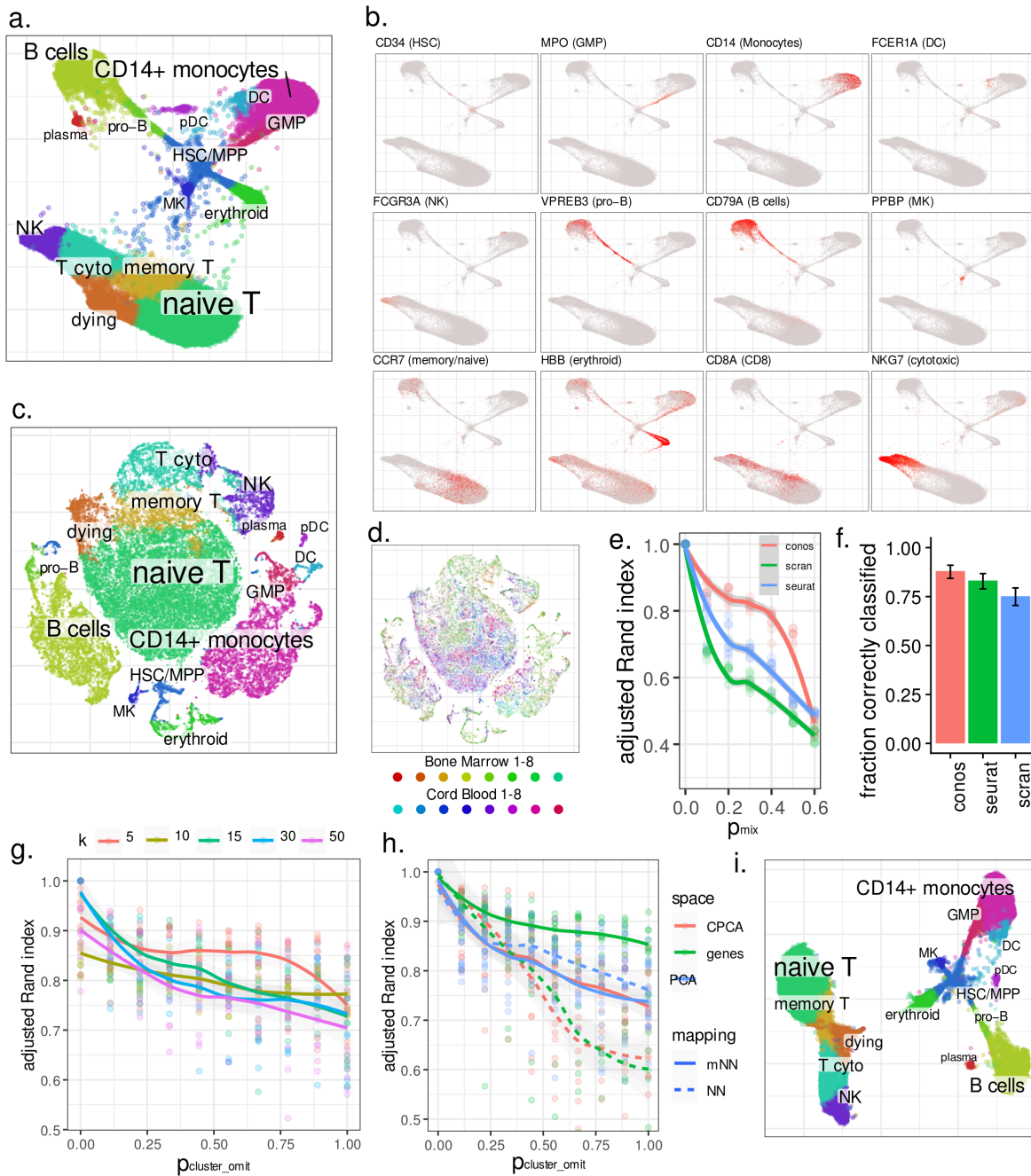
Joint analysis of heterogeneous single-cell RNA-seq dataset collections

Authors: Nikolas Barkas^{1*}, Viktor Petukhov^{1,2*}, Daria Nikolaeva¹, Yaroslav Lozinsky¹, Samuel Demharter², Konstantin Khodosevich², and Peter V. Kharchenko^{1,3,†}

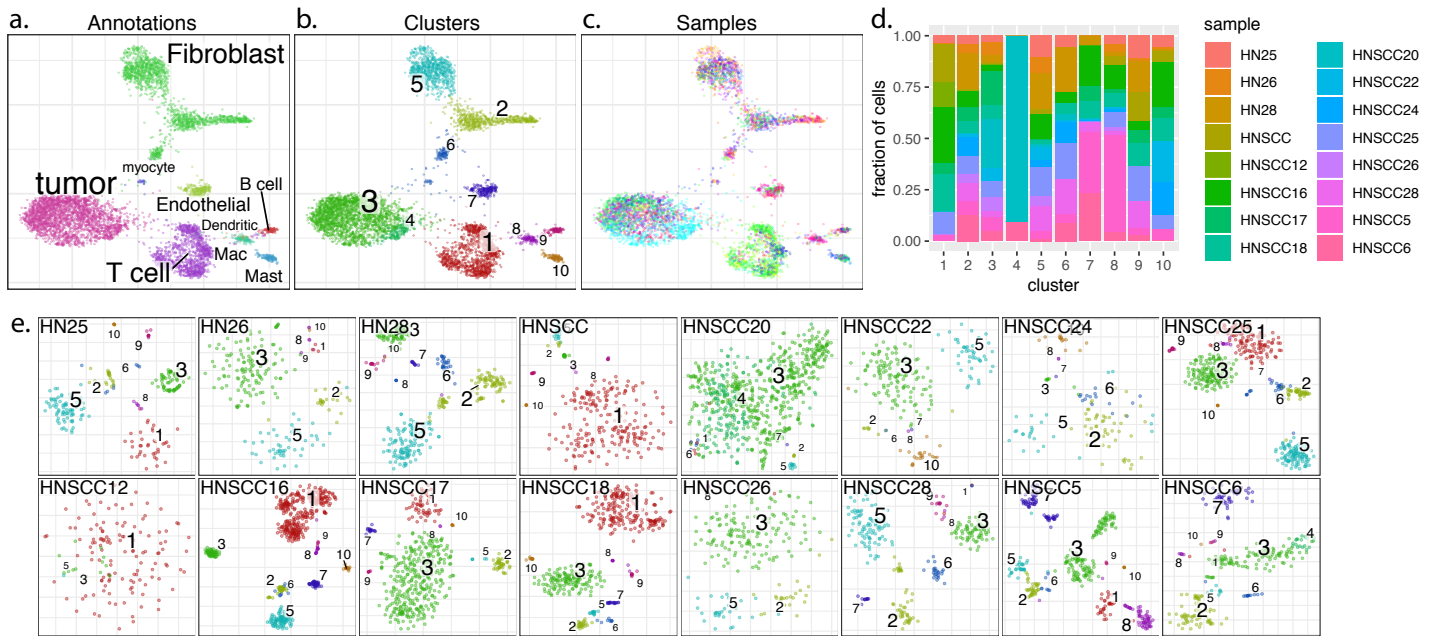
Affiliations: ¹Department of Biomedical Informatics, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA 02115 USA. ²Biotech Research and Innovation Centre (BRIC), Faculty of Health, University of Copenhagen, Copenhagen N, DK-2200 Denmark. ³Harvard Stem Cell Institute, Cambridge, MA 02315 USA.

* The authors have contributed equally

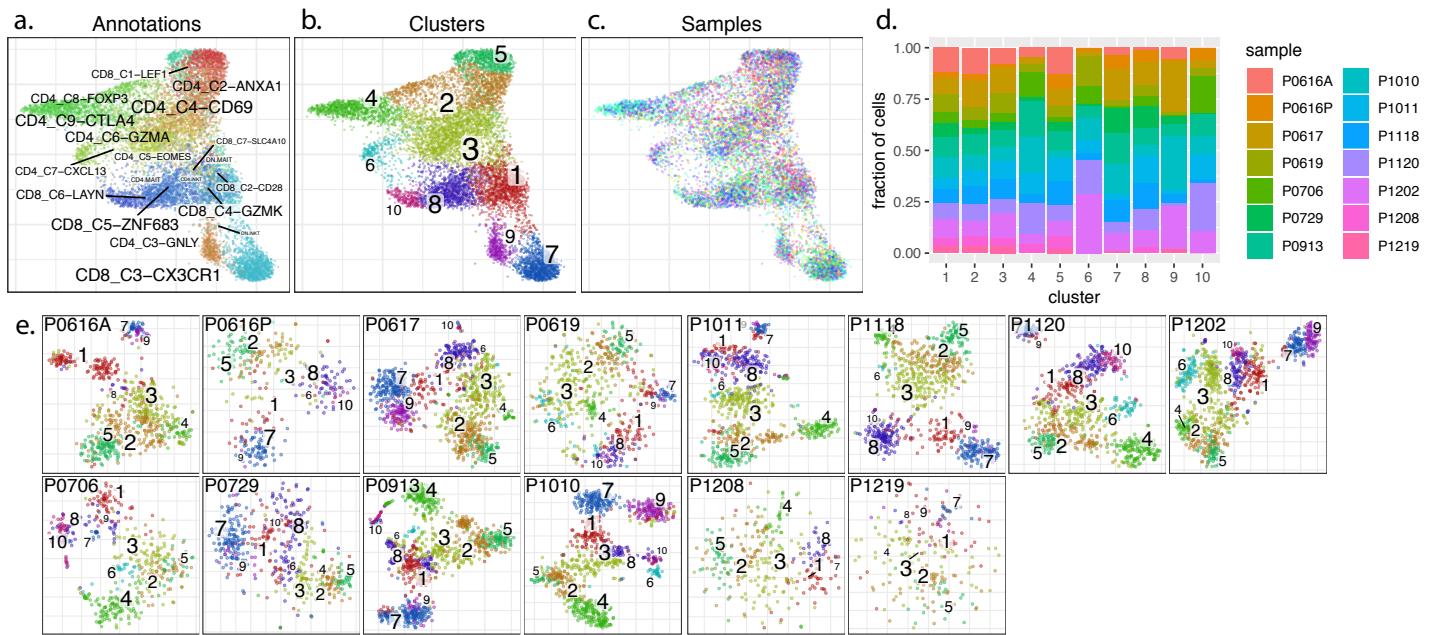
†Correspondence should be addressed to peter_kharchenko@hms.harvard.edu



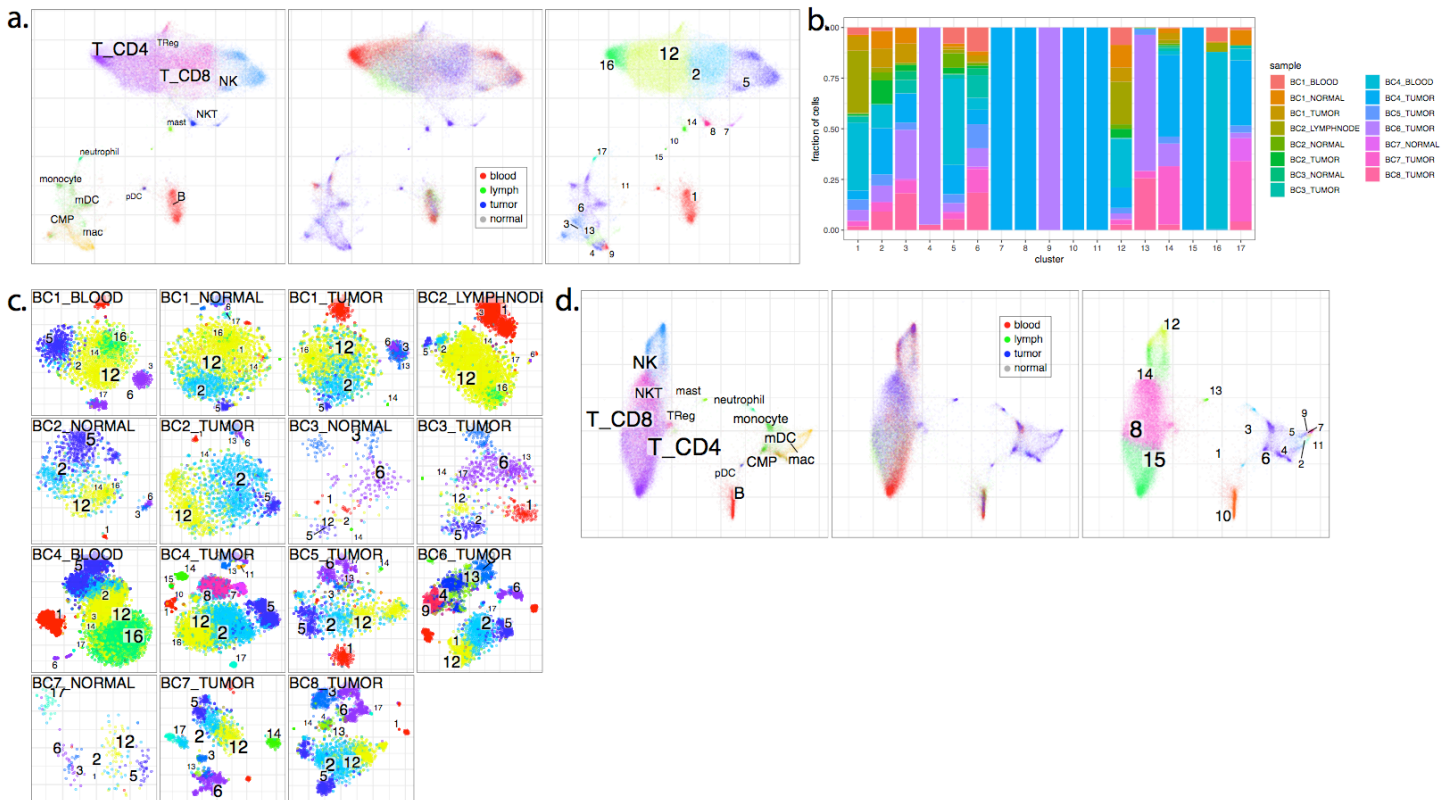
Supplementary Figure 1. Additional analysis of HCA BM+CB 3K dataset. **a.** Joint graph default embedding, as shown in Figure 1b of the main manuscript. **b.** Expression of select marker genes. **c.** An alternative embedding of the same joint graph as shown in panel a, performed using node2vec. **d.** Distribution of samples within the graph2vis embedding. **e.** Adjusted Rand index is shown for the three methods as a function of the p_{mix} probability, with high probability pushing expression of each cell in the dataset closer to dataset-wide average expression profile. **f.** Fraction of single cells correctly classified in a “sensitivity to individual cells” assay (see Methods), where only a single cell was left in a randomly chosen cluster in a random dataset, and the ability of different methods to classify it correctly was measured. $n=350$ cells tested; Whiskers show the 95% confidence intervals of the binomial proportion. **g.** Comparison of adjusted Rand index (y axis) performance in the heterogeneity benchmark (see Methods, Figure 1f of the main manuscript) for different values of the neighborhood size k is shown. Low sensitivity to variation in k is observed. **h.** Comparison of different spaces and mappings for pairwise dataset alignments. **i.** A largeVis embedding of the joint graph constructed using nearest neighbor mapping. e,g,h: smoothed estimate of the mean is shown. Shading shows the 95% confidence band of the mean. $n=10$ random samples per point were used.



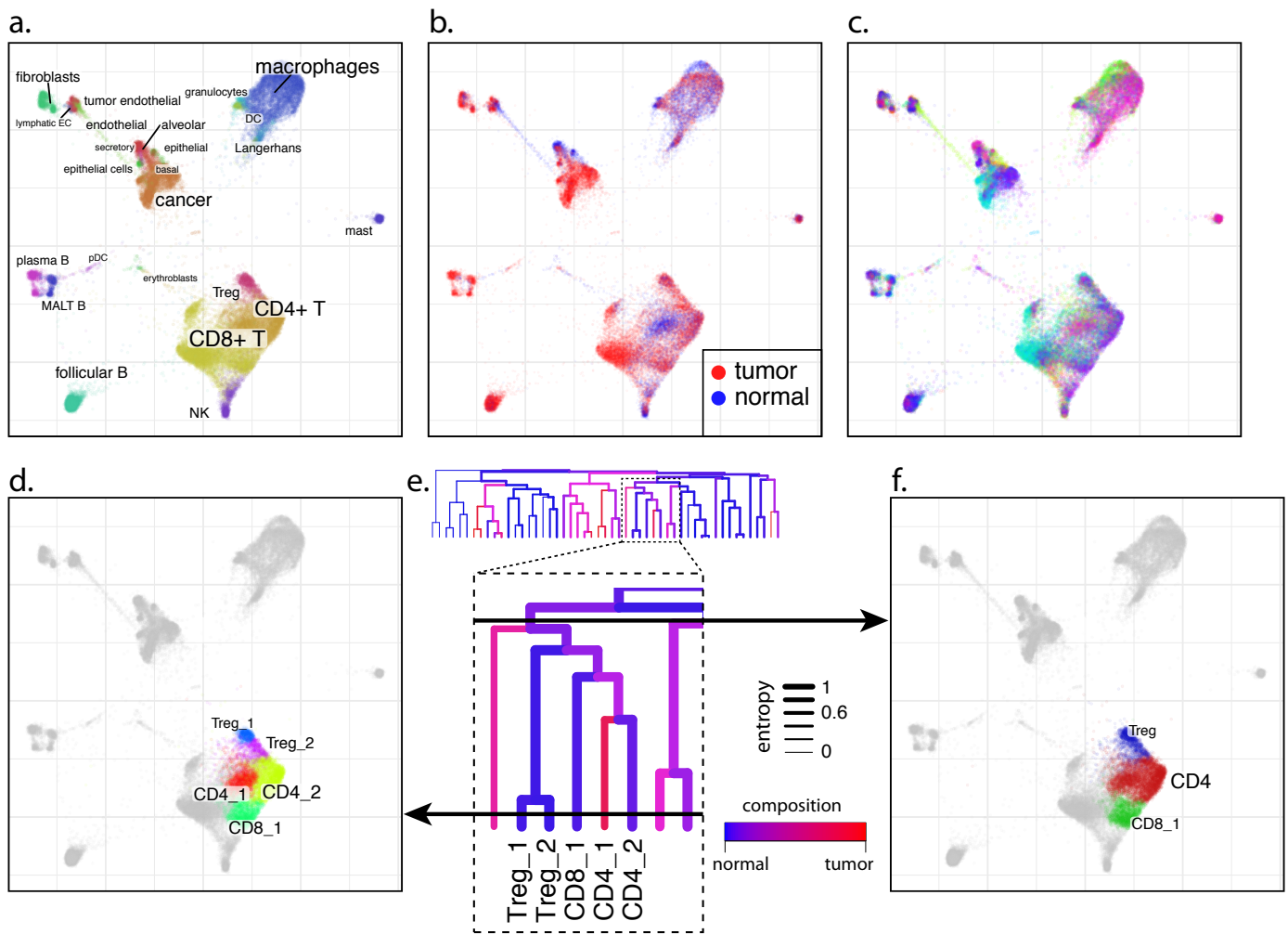
Supplementary Figure 2. Re-analysis of Puram *et al.* dataset on head and neck cancer. a. Joint graph embedding, labeled by the annotations taken from the original publication. **b.** Clusters, as determined by conos on the joint graph. **c.** Mixing of samples is illustrated with different colors. **d.** Sample composition of each conos joint cluster is shown. **e.** t-SNE embeddings of the individual samples that were fed into to the conos analysis, colored and labeled according to conos joint clusters (panel b).



Supplementary Figure 3. Re-analysis of Guo *et al.* dataset on non-small cell lung cancer. a. Joint graph embedding, labeled by the annotations taken from the original publication. **b.** Clusters, as determined by conos on the joint graph. **c.** Mixing of samples is illustrated with different colors. **d.** Sample composition of each conos joint cluster is shown. **e.** t-SNE embeddings of the individual samples that were fed into the conos analysis, colored and labeled according to conos joint clusters (panel b).

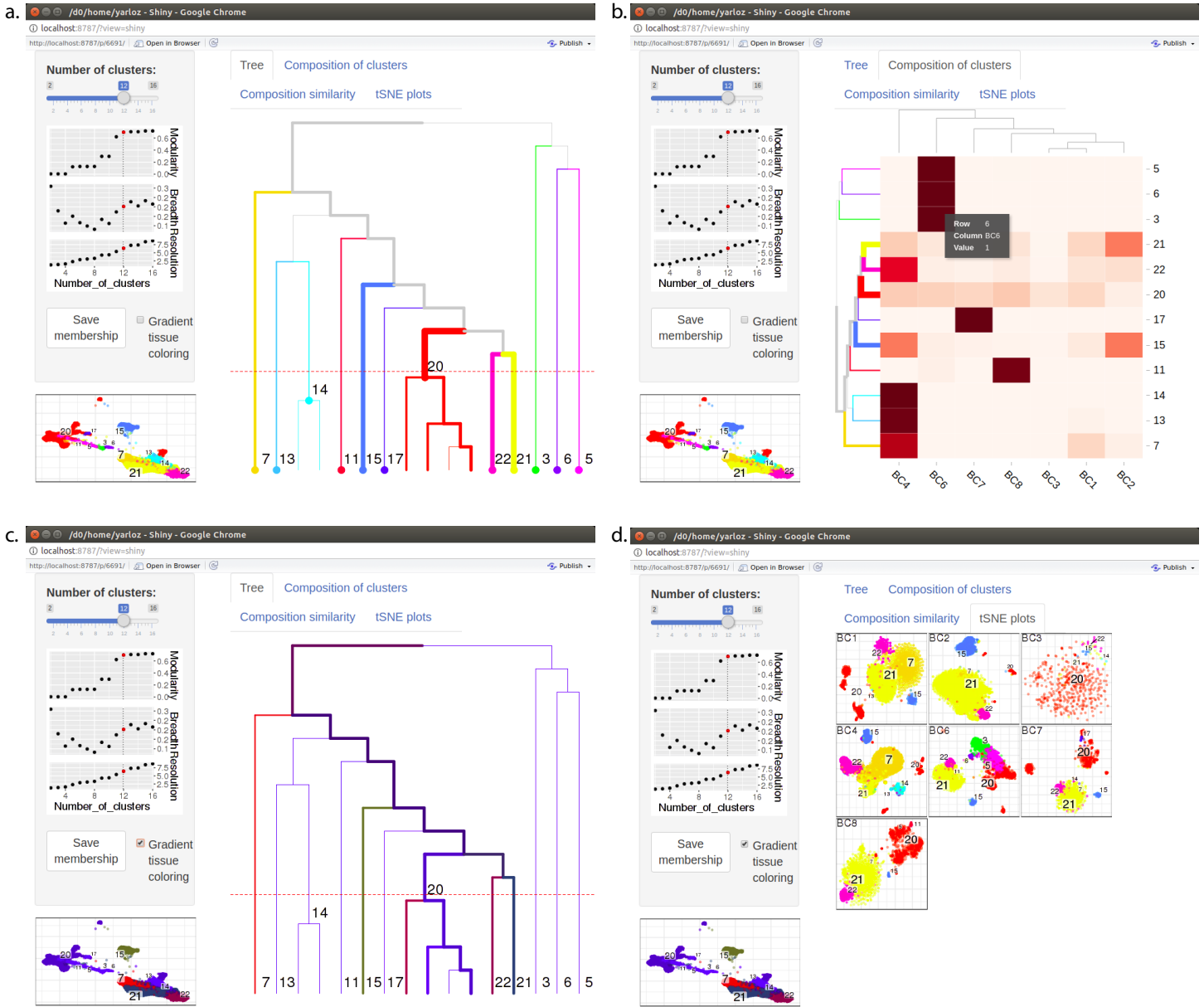


Supplementary Figure 4. Re-analysis of Azizi *et al.* dataset on breast cancer. a. Re-analysis starting with independent patient+tissue slices of the dataset. Joint graph embedding is shown in the left panel, labeled by the annotations taken from the original publication. The annotations have been simplified to collapse patient-specific subpopulations and minor subpopulations. The central panel shows tissue distribution. The right panel shows conos joint clusters. **b.** Sample composition of each conos joint cluster is shown. **c.** t-SNE embeddings of the individual samples that were fed into the conos analysis shown in a-b, colored and labeled according to conos joint clusters (right panel of a). **d.** Re-analysis starting with 53 independent patient+tissue+replicate slices of the dataset, reveals the same subpopulation structure despite large initial fragmentation of the dataset.

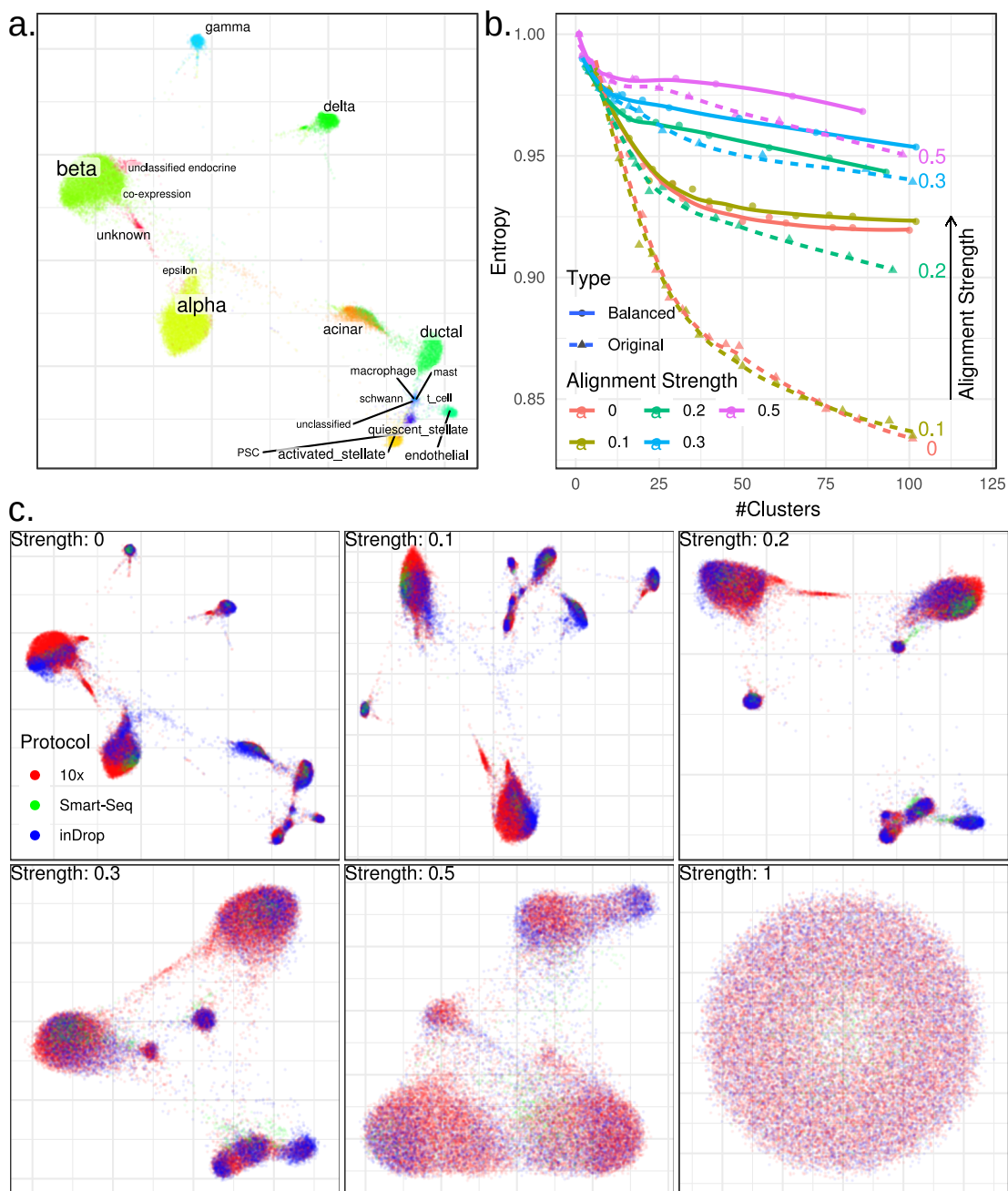


Supplementary Figure 5. Re-analysis of Lambrechts *et al.* dataset on lung cancer. **a.** Joint graph embedding, labeled by the annotations taken from the original publication. **b.** Tissue distribution is shown on the joint graph embedding. **c.** Sample distribution is shown on the joint graph embedding. **d-f.** Similar to Figure 2c-e of the main manuscript, the panels show T cell subpopulations resulting from two different levels of the joint graph community structure (dendrogram). Lower cut results in more granular T cell subpopulations (panel d), however also results in clusters that show high tissue specificity (e.g. CD4_1 is composed almost entirely of tumor cells). At the same time a higher cut results in less granular clusters that more evenly mix tissues and samples.

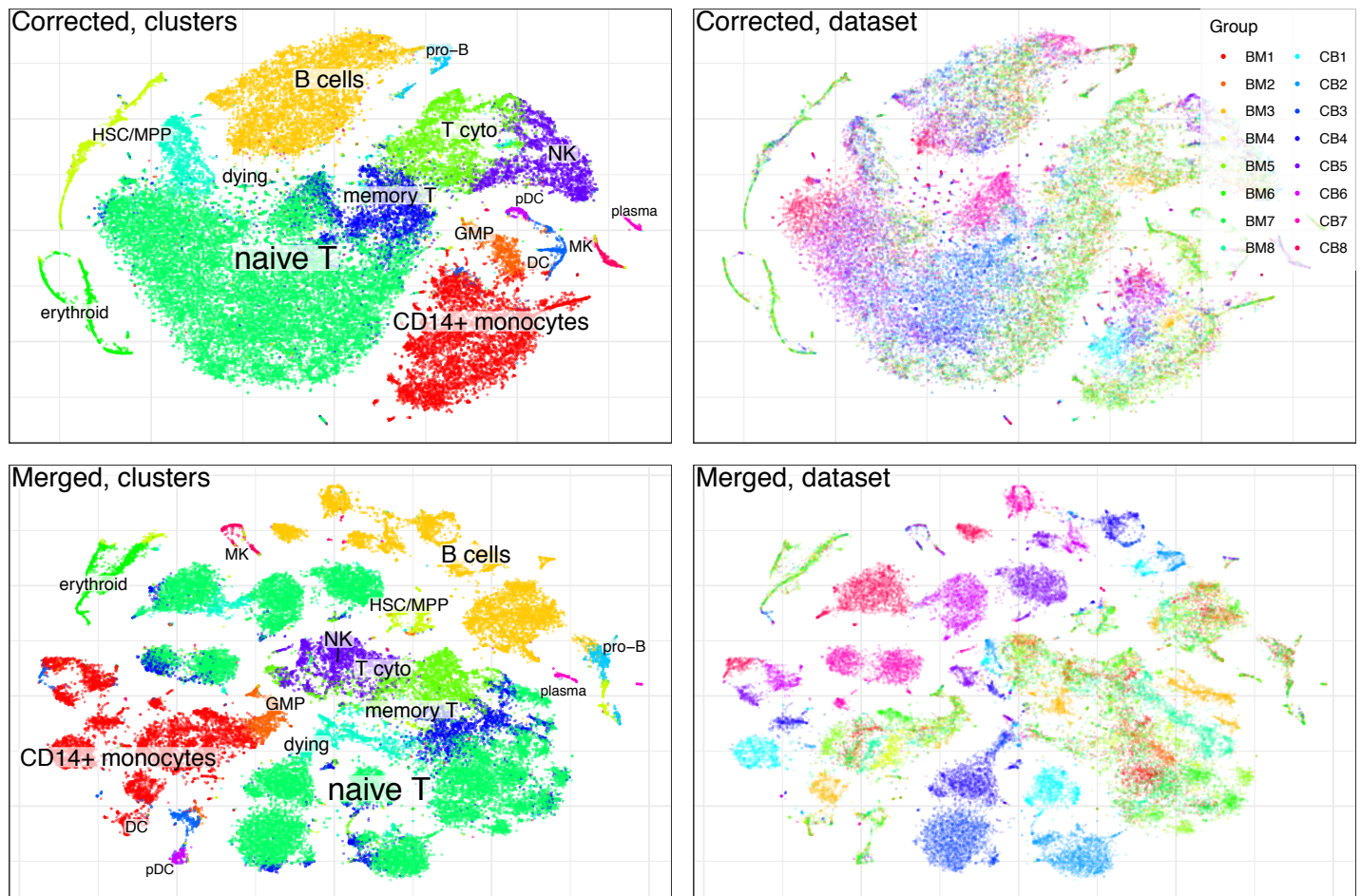
Supplementary Figure 6. Re-analysis of human cortex datasets. **a.** Conos joint graph embedding labeled by dataset. The following datasets were clustered: temporal (TC), visual (VC) and frontal cortex (FC) from Lake *et al.* (2016) Science; Allen Brain Institute datasets for temporal cortex (TC) from Hodge *et al.* (2018) bioRxiv, for anterior cingulate (ACC), and visual cortex (VC). Note that single cell transcriptomics data for each cortical area from Allen Brain Institute source consists of three datasets each obtained from a different patient (p1, p2 and p3). **b.** Cells labeled by Conos joint clusters (multilevel.community clusters were used). **c.** Cell composition of each Conos cluster based on the cortical area, *i.e.* temporal, visual and anterior cingulate cortices. Note that due to smaller sample size of Lake *et al.*, only cells derived from Allen Brain Institute datasets are shown. **d.** Conos clustering annotated by subtypes described for the temporal cortex data in Hodge *et al.* The annotation was propagated from the Hodge *et al.* temporal cortex dataset to all the other datasets. The same embedding is labeled based on major neuronal and non-neuronal cell types (**d'**) and major classes of principal (Exc) and GABAergic (Inh) neurons as in Hodge *et al.* annotation (**d''**). **e.** Normalized fraction of cells in each subtype from different cortical areas. Note high diversity of layer 4 principal neurons (subtypes are labeled in red) that might be due to differences in cortical laminar architecture, *i.e.* ACC has agranular or dysgranule structure, while TC and VC are eulaminar. Black, grey and white bars below the graph label GABAergic neurons, principal neurons and non-neuronal cells.



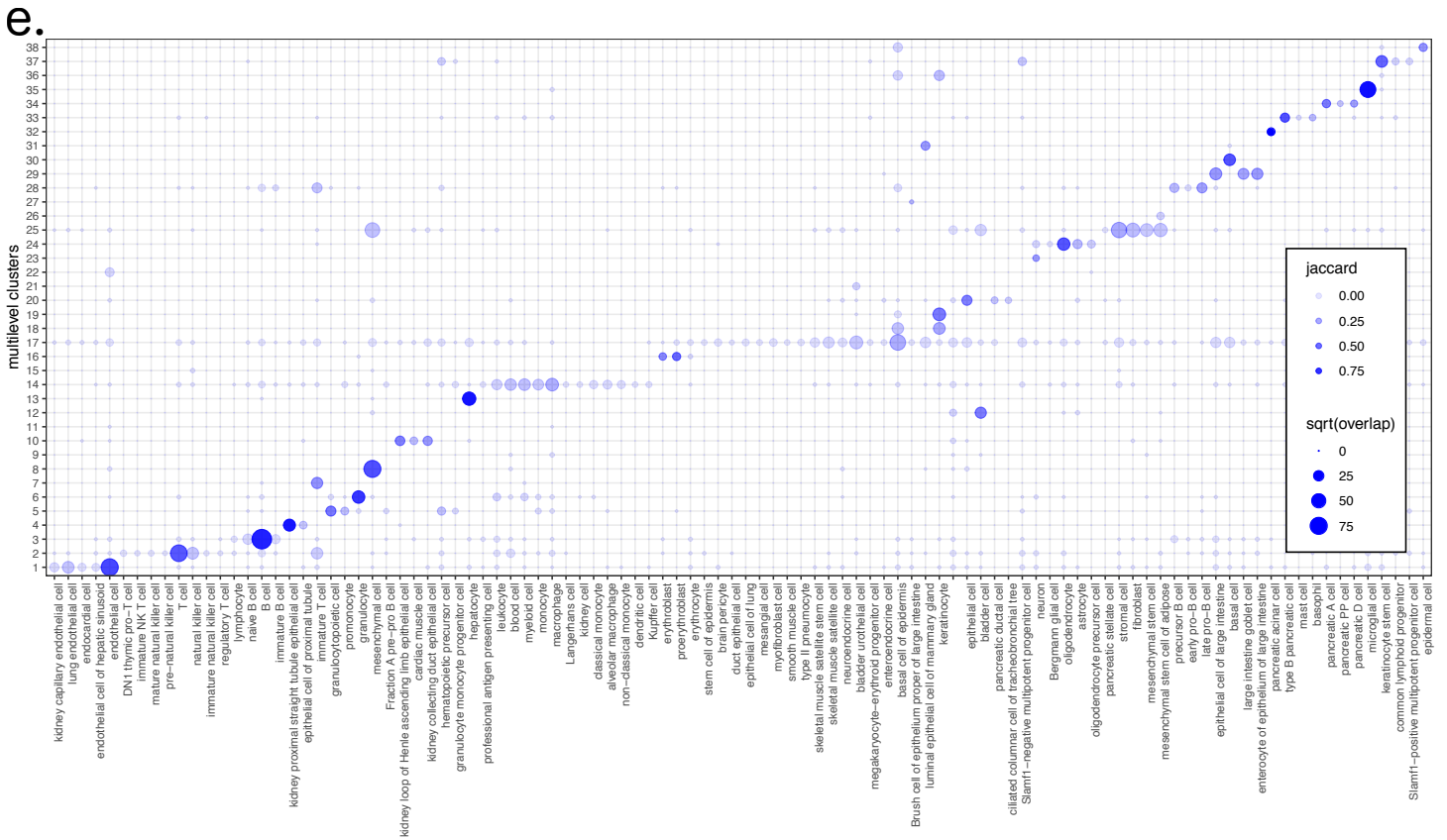
Supplementary Figure 8. Interactive application for navigating community hierarchies. Several screens of the interactive (Shiny) application for choosing appropriate cuts in the hierarchical community structures are shown. **a.** Initial screen, allowing user to select the number of top clusters, visualize tree and joint graph embedding colored by the resulting clusters. **b.** Heatmap visualization of the interactions between samples and clusters. Such heatmaps allow users to pick up on separation of both clusters and samples based on their composition in the joint clustering analysis. **c.** Community hierarchy clustered by tissue composition. **d.** Individual t-SNE sample embeddings, colored by joint clusters.



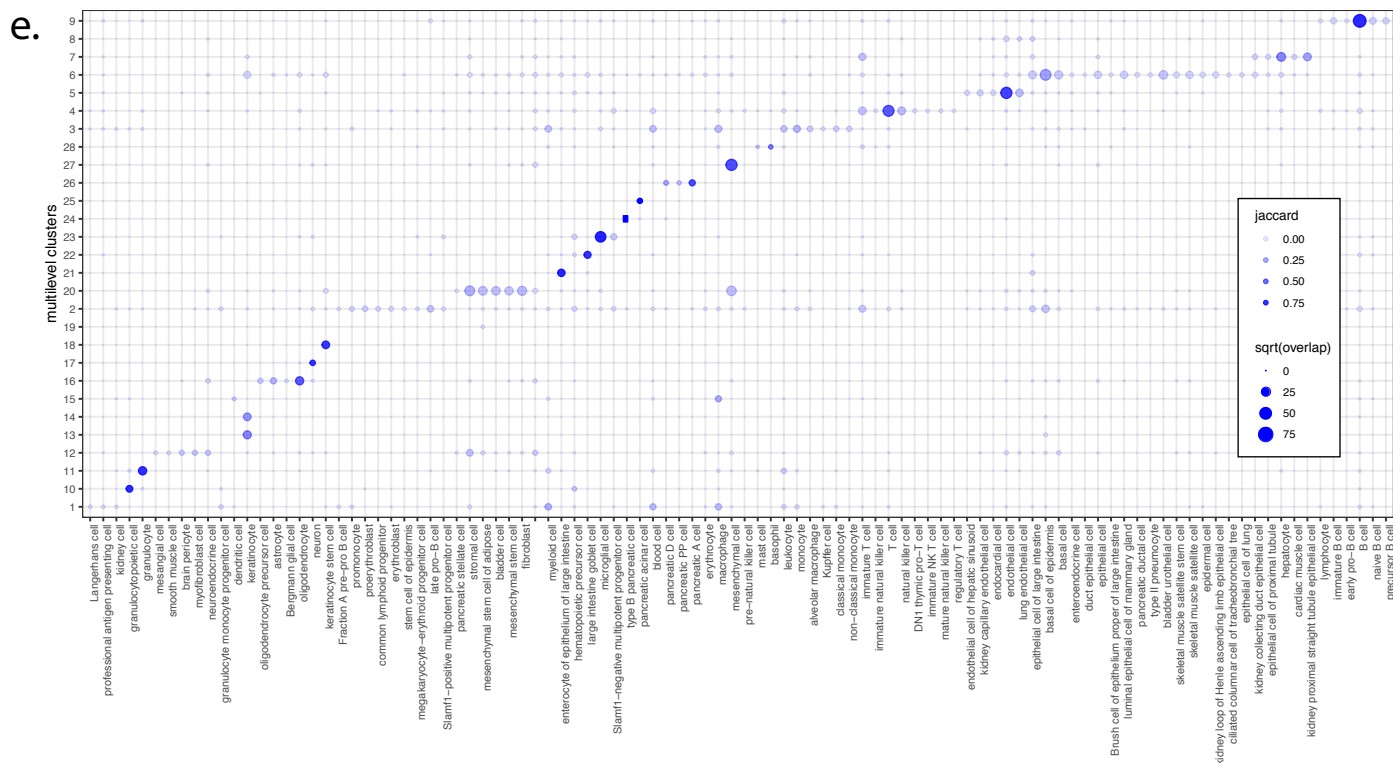
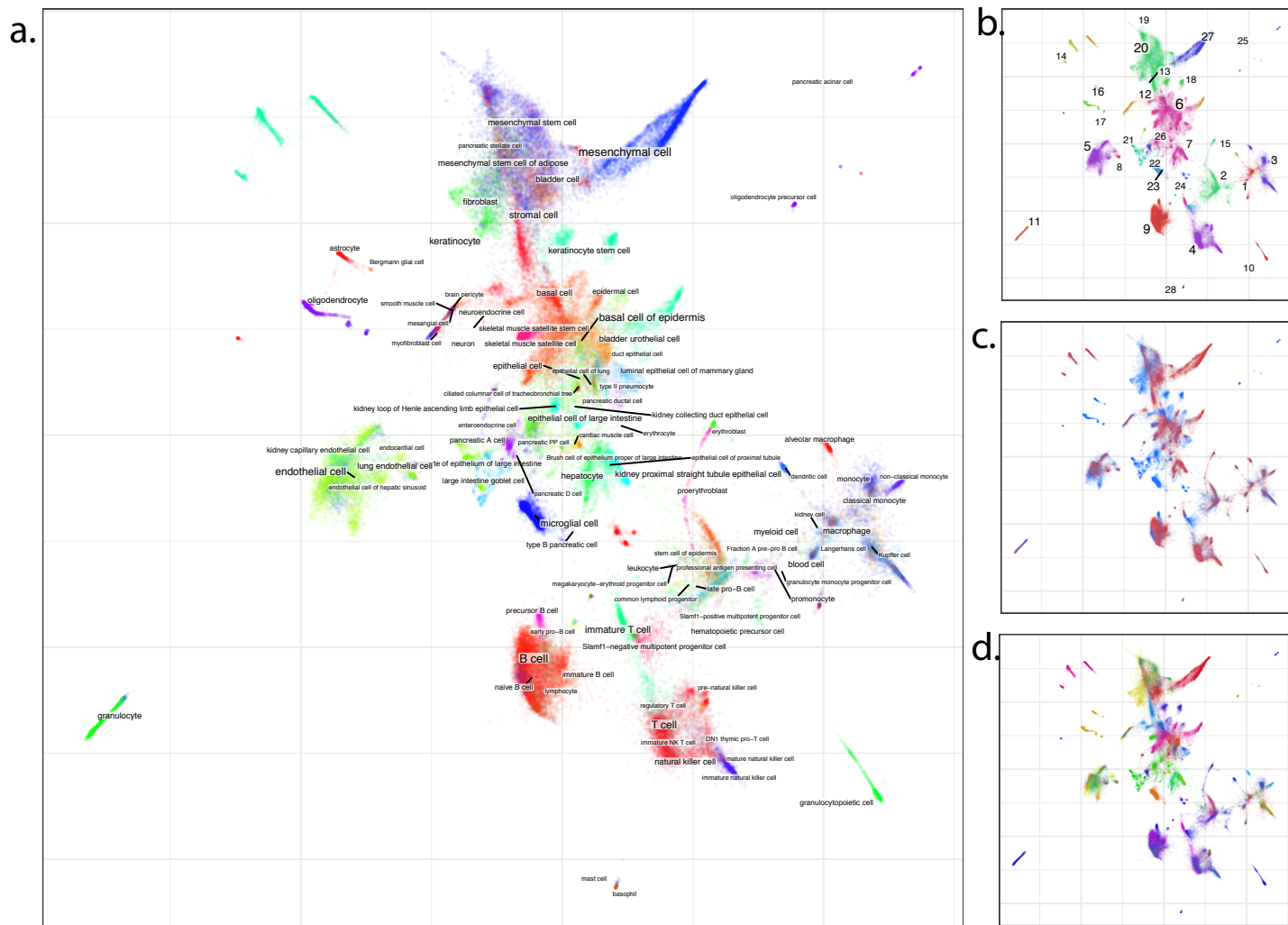
Supplementary Figure 9. Improvement of alignment quality over protocols with edge rebalancing and increase of alignment strength. **a.** Alignment of three human pancreas islet datasets (Datasets 10 in the “Data sources” listing), obtained using different protocols (10x Chromium, inDrops and Smart-seq2). The distribution of the cells associated with different platforms in the default Conos configuration is shown in the top left corner of panel c (Strength 0). **c.** Increasing alignment strength α from 0.0 to 1.0, we obtained 6 graphs and visualized them using largeVis embeddings, coloring cells by the protocol. The value of the alignment strength parameter α is shown in the top-left corner of each plot. The parameter α implements a trade-off between sample mixing and cluster resolution. **b.** To validate quality of each graph we estimated normalized relative entropy for Leiden clustering, uniformly varying its resolution parameter to obtain 15 different clusterings, which have between 1 and 100 clusters each. The same procedure was repeated with and without edge weight rebalancing on each graph, which is designed to further improve inter-platform alignment. The results are shown in panel c., where x-axis corresponds to number of clusters, y-axis represents entropy, colors show alignment strength and the line/marker style distinguishes results with and without edge weight balancing. While higher resolution clustering will always yield lower entropy, increasing the alignment strength parameter α at a given cluster resolution improves mixing of the cells from different platforms. Moreover, for the same alignment level, edge balancing leads to significant increase in entropy.



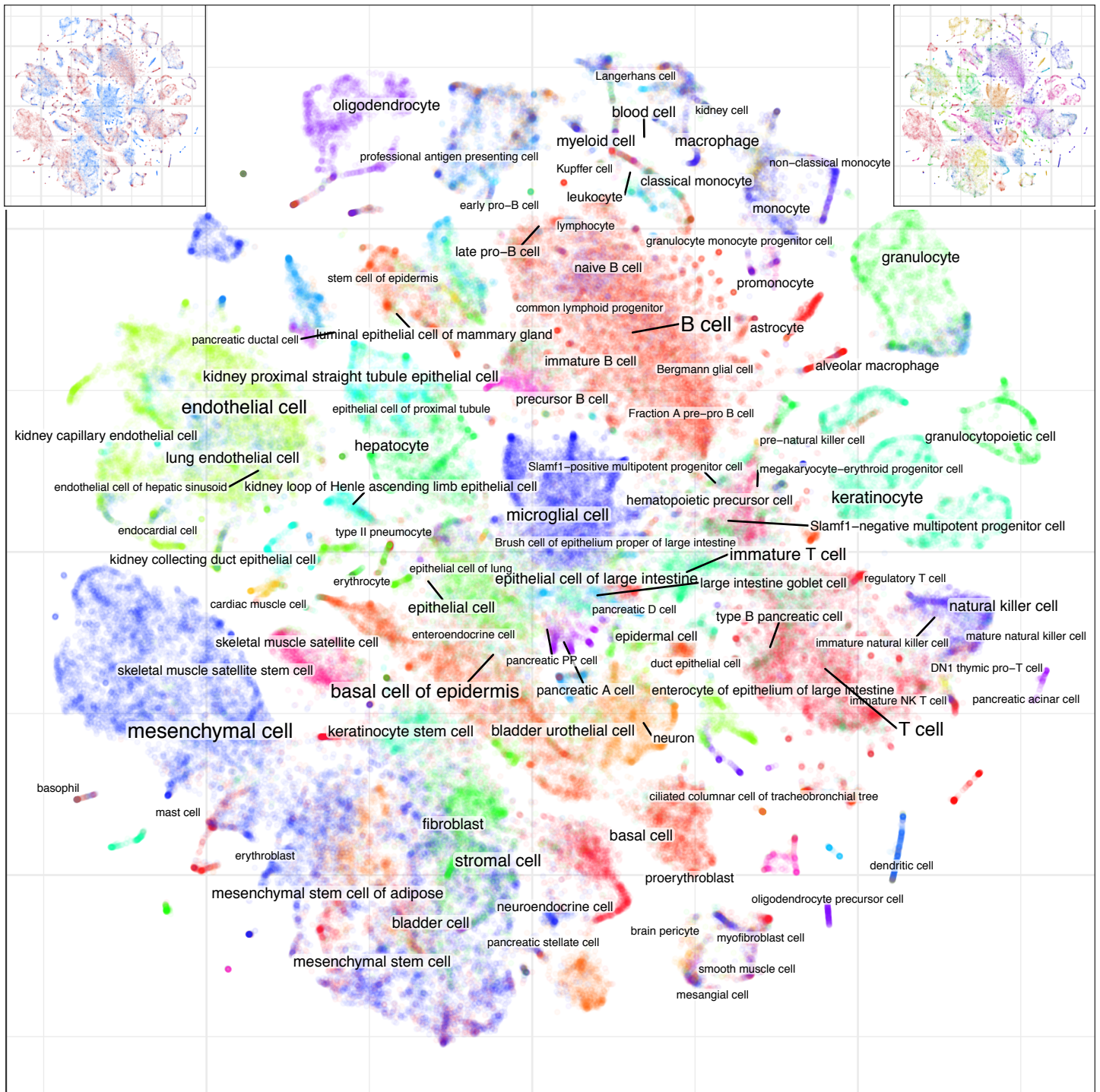
Supplementary Figure 10. Estimation of common expression space by diffusion on a joint graph. The top panels show t-SNE embeddings of the HCA BM+CB 3k dataset after “correction” of the expression values through graph diffusion – a process that estimates “common” or “corrected” expression coordinates for all of the datasets. The left top plot shows major subpopulations (as in Figure 1b of the main manuscript), and the right panel shows distribution of the different datasets. The bottom row shows equivalent embeddings obtained by simply joining molecular count matrices of the different datasets without any additional corrections. Such processing leaves pronounced patient/batch effect.



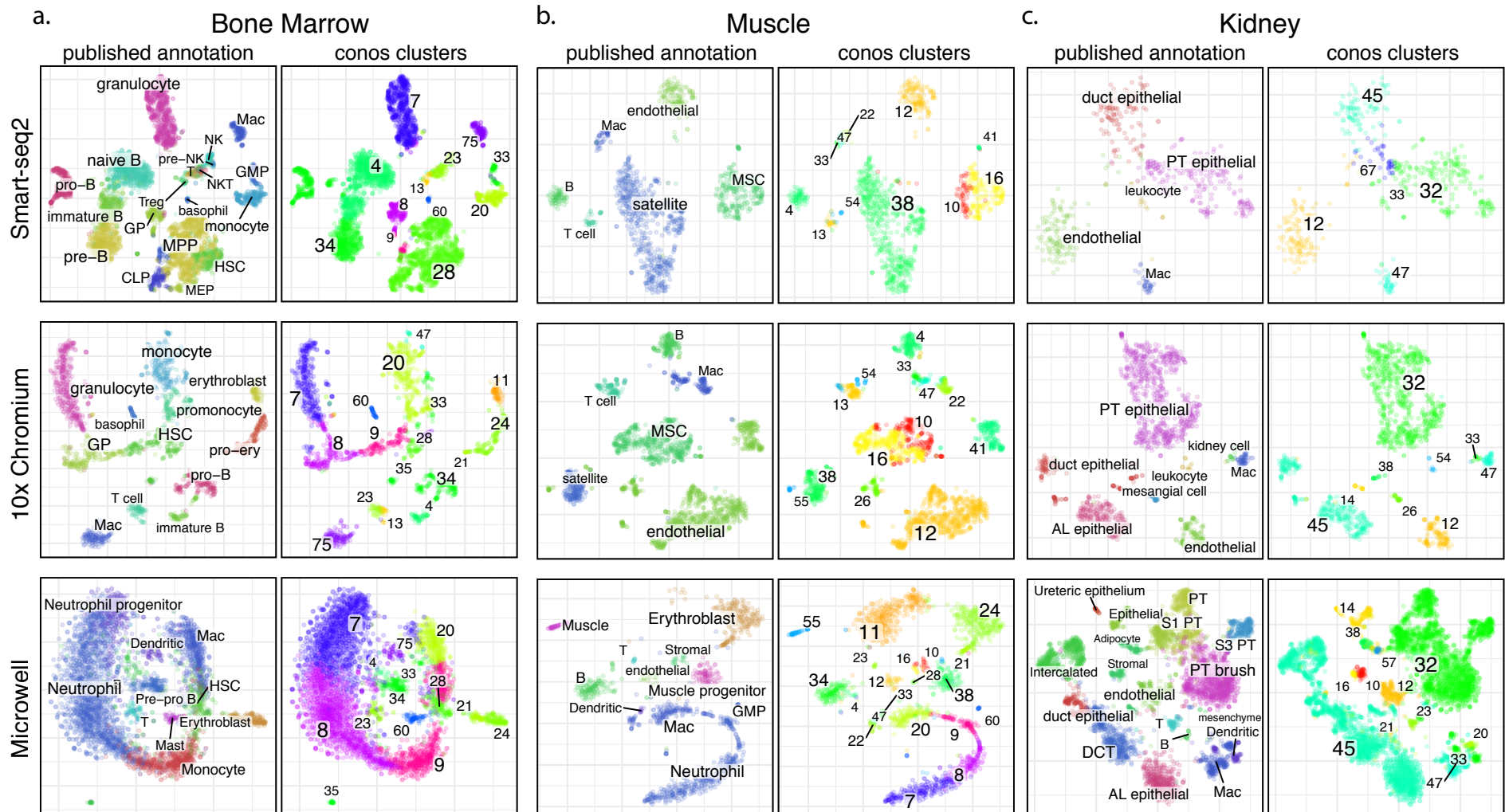
Supplementary Figure 11. Published annotation of Tabula Muris dataset and joint clustering results. a. Published annotations are shown as labels and colors on the joint graph embedding of CPCA space analysis combining 48 separate datasets covering different mouse tissues is shown (100,605 cells). Platform distribution (red – 10x; blue – Smart-seq2) is shown in the top left inset. Distribution of individual samples is shown in the top right inset. **b-d.** Comparison of the joint clusters with the published annotation is shown for three tissues that were measured with both platforms. Joint clustering shows consistency between tissues and platforms, with some clusters giving higher resolution (e.g. separation of blood or mesenchymal populations in trachea samples), and others joining related cell types across tissues (e.g. fibroblast and part of the mesenchymal population are joined under cluster 4 in l-n). **e.** Details of the correspondence between Conos joint clusters (rows) and Tabula Muris annotation (columns). The size of the circle shows the number of cells, with shading indicating the Jaccard coefficient.



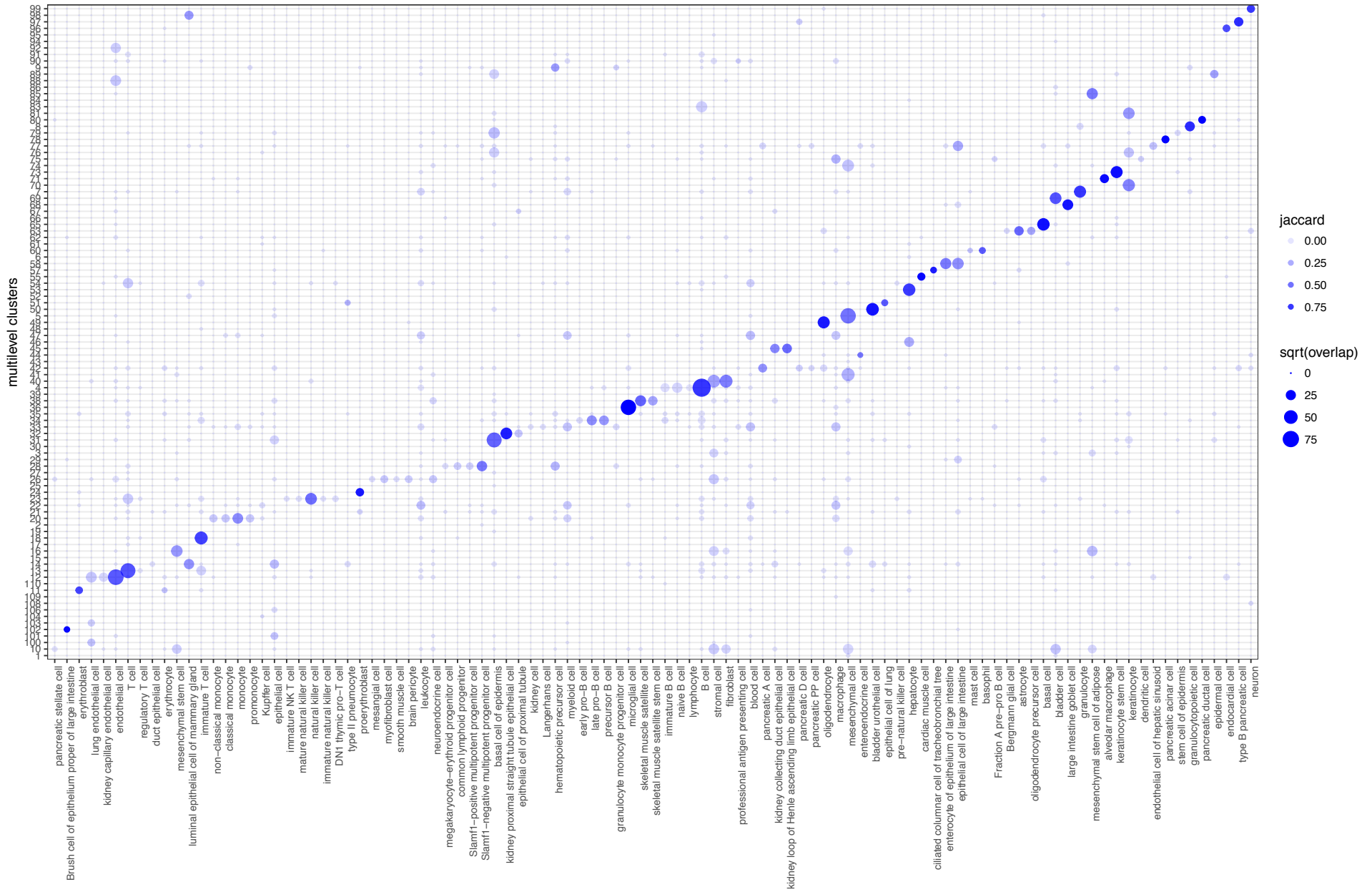
Supplementary Figure 12. Tabula Muris joint analysis using gene space. **a.** Published annotations are shown as labels and colors on the embedding of a joint graph determined using gene space analysis. **b.** Joint clusters determined by Conos. **c.** Distribution of platforms (red- 10x; blue- Smart-seq2). **d.** Distribution of individual samples. **e.** Correspondence of Conos joint clusters to published annotations.



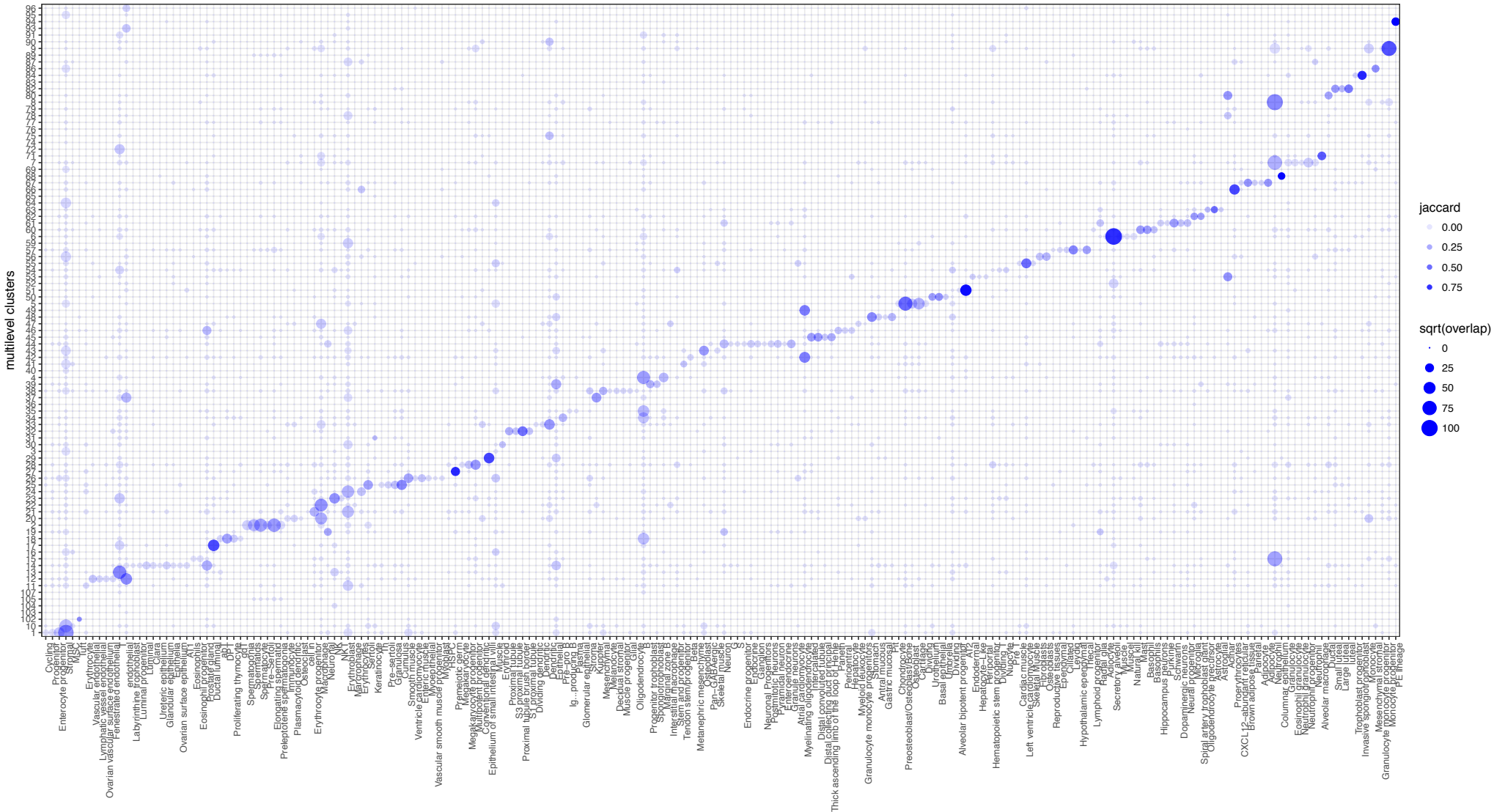
Supplementary Figure 13. Embedding of Tabula Muris joint graph (CPCA space) using graph2vec. Distribution of platforms is shown in the top-left inset (red-10x, blue-Smart-seq2). Distribution of individual samples is shown in the top-right inset.



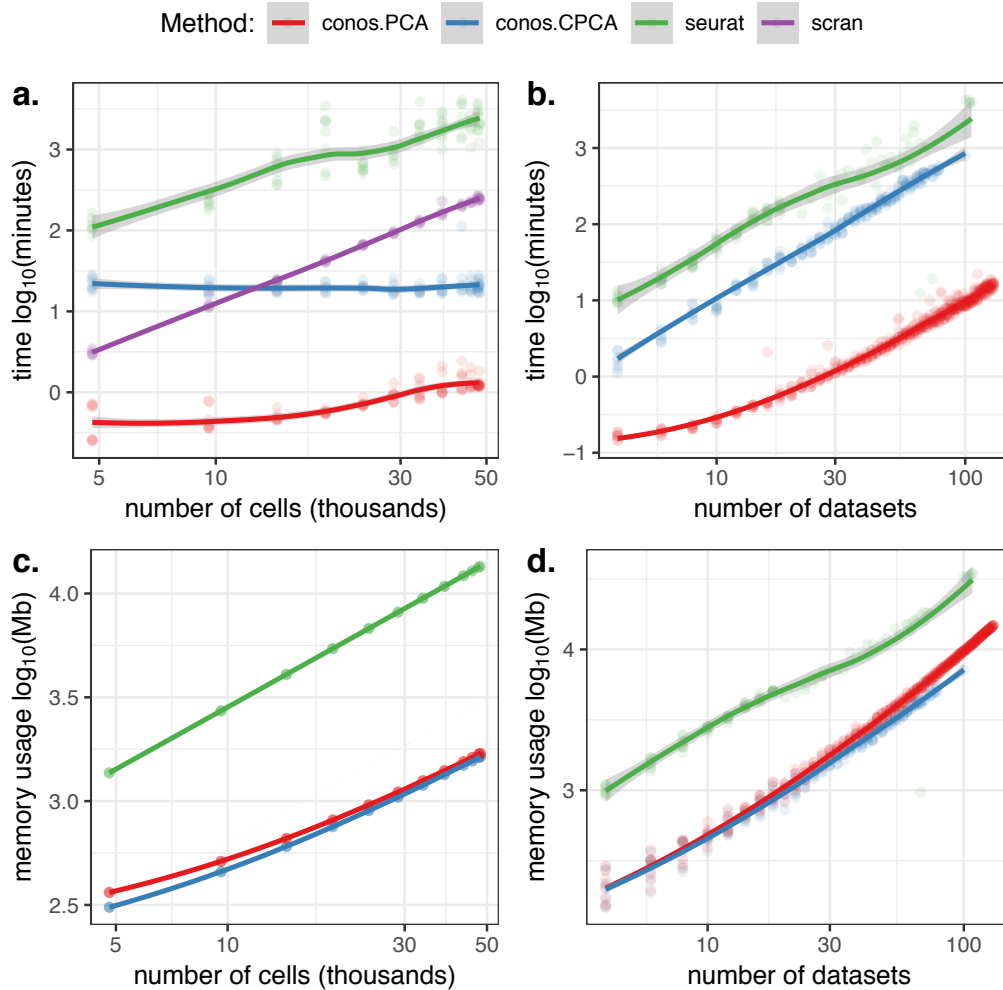
Supplementary Figure 15. Correspondence of published annotations and Conos clusters across mouse atlases. Individual samples from three different tissues (a-c) contained in the Tabula Muris (Smart-seq2 and 10x Chromium rows) and Han et al (Microwell row) are shown, together with Conos clusters called on the joint graph combining the two atlases. Joint clustering shows consistency between tissues and platforms.



Supplementary Figure 16. Agreement of *Conos* clustering with the published Tabula Muris annotations. The agreement is illustrated using dot plots, with the size of the dot corresponding to the number of cells intersecting between a given cluster and a published annotation category, and the color specifying Jaccard coefficient.



Supplementary Figure 17. Agreement of *Conos* clustering with the published Han *et al.* annotations. The agreement is illustrated using dot plots, with the size of the dot corresponding to the number of cells intersecting between a given cluster and a published annotation category, and the color specifying Jaccard coefficient.



Supplementary Figure 19. Runtime and memory performance. **a.** The plots show average runtimes for the cell subsampling benchmark (16 HCA BM+CB datasets were downsampled from 3k cells each to lower numbers of cells; $n=10$ downsampling rounds were performed for each point). The CPCA performance stays constant, as the runtime complexity of the CPCA fit depends critically on the number of samples, not on the number of cells. **b.** Runtime complexity of combining increasing number of datasets, each containing 1k cells. **c,d.** Memory usage under the scenarios shown in panels a. and b. Note: the benchmarking scripts did not estimate embeddings, which would lead to additional CPU and memory load. The shading shows the 95% confidence region of the mean.

Supplementary Note 1. Clustering Stability Under Perturbations

Systematic difference in the output of clustering algorithms

Clustering serves as a convenient grouping of cells, facilitating further interpretation and navigation of the datasets. It is important to point out that just like in most other contexts, clustering of cells is an approximation, and does not have a unique solution. Consider clustering of the HCA BM+CB dataset using two different community detection (graph clustering) methods (Figure 1).

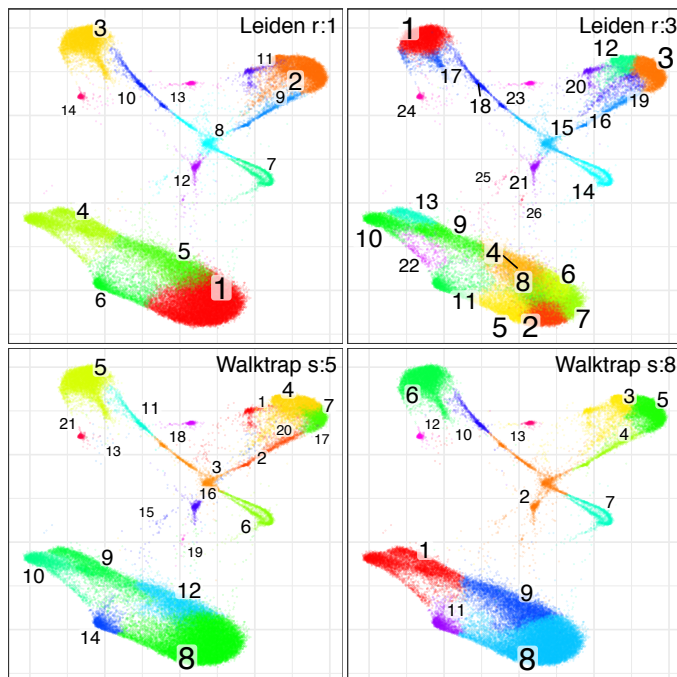


Figure 1. Variation of clustering granularity. The four panels show clustering of the integrated HCA BM+CB dataset using two different clustering methods (Leiden and walktrap community detection algorithms) each with two different parameter settings (varying “resolution” parameter for Leiden clustering, “steps” for walktrap). The resulting clusters can split and merge different subpopulations and systematically vary in their characteristic size. Algorithmically, there is no clear single “correct” resolution.

Both algorithms are designed around heuristic optimization of certain network features. While one algorithm returns more fine-grained clusters than others, it is usually impossible to claim that one of them is better without bringing in additional biological knowledge.

The relationships between the cells can be usually approximated better using hierarchical clustering. For instance, one may separate a cluster of T lymphocyte, and then within it CD8+ naïve or cytotoxic T cells. Or CD4⁺ Treg and Th subpopulations, *etc.* The coarse clusters (such as a cluster combining all T lymphocytes) represents a real and, likely, stable grouping of cells. However, as one considers more fine-grained groupings (small clusters), at some point the ability to resolve different subpopulations will approach the noise of the observations, and the clusters will become unstable. Here we discuss various measures for assessing cluster stability under a simple subsampling perturbation (*i.e.* rerunning clustering on just 95% of cells).

Stability of simple partition clustering.

We first consider the simplest case, when clustering returns only a flat partition of cells into a set of non-overlapping clusters. Evaluation of agreement between the original clustering result

and a result on a subsampled dataset (95% of cells) can be performed using standard measures, such as the adjusted Rand index (aRI). One can also assess cluster-specific stability measures, such as Jaccard coefficient of the optimally matching cluster (JC)[Hennig, 2007 #90]. The plot below shows both cluster-specific JC and combined aRI for the HCA BM+CB dataset, for the partition determined by the Leiden clustering algorithm, based on 100 such randomized subsampling runs.

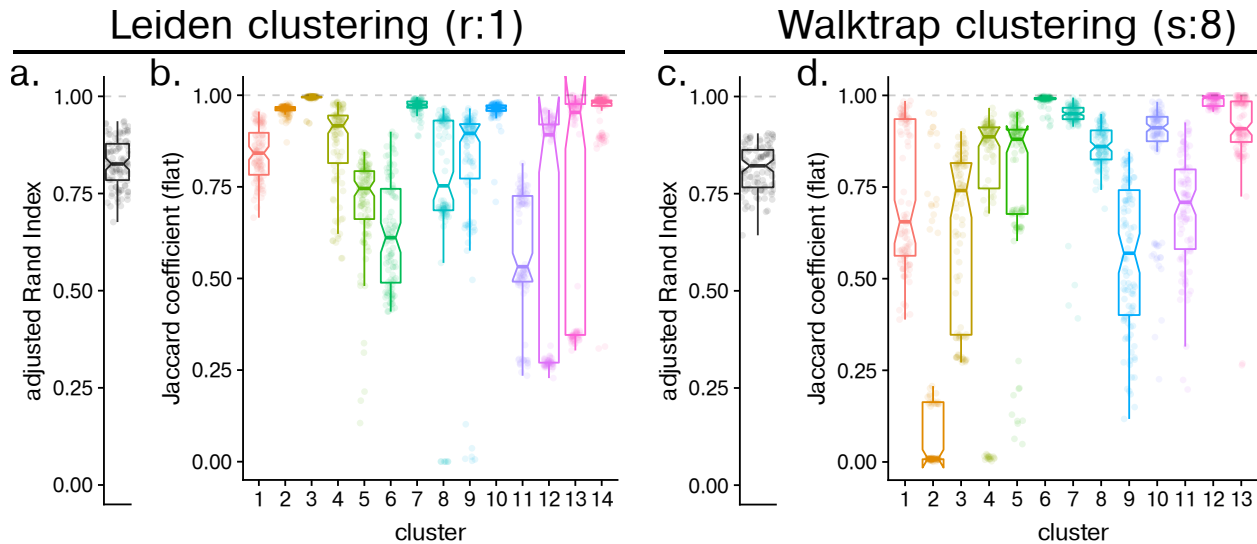


Figure 2. Stability measures on flat partition clustering. Given a simple flat partition of cells into clusters, the stability is assessed by repeating the clustering procedure on the subset of cells (95% of cells) and calculating standard agreement coefficients: **a.** adjusted Rand index, **b.** Jaccard coefficient, calculated for each cluster relative to the best-matching cluster in the subsampled partition. Results of 100 randomized subsampling rounds are visualized using boxplots. Panels a,b show the results for the Leiden community detection algorithm, and panels c,d for the walktrap community detection method. In this plot and all others, the boxplot center shows median, upper/lower box lines mark top 75% (Q3) and bottom 25% (Q1) levels; Whiskers extend from $\max(\min(x), Q1-1.5 \text{ IQR})$ to $\min(\max(x), Q3+1.5 \text{ IQR})$, where IQR is the inter-quartile range. The notch shows 95% confidence interval of the median.

The example above shows good overall stability (aRI), however cluster-specific stability of cluster 2 in panel d. (and some others) are low. This can be due to several reasons:

1. Cluster 2 is a noise artifact and groups random cells that don't have a tendency to form a separate cluster.
2. Cluster 2 represent a smaller grouping of cells that's not typically distinguished at this level of resolution, but may a stable feature if the resolution of clustering is increased.

To distinguish between the two, one must scan through a range of resolutions. A good way of doing this is to consider hierarchical clustering methods.

Stability of a partitioning cut in hierarchical clustering.

Hierarchical community detection algorithms, like walktrap, report the entire hierarchy, where the leaves of the dendrogram correspond to the individual cells. The optimal cut is then determined based on some criteria (modularity optimization, in the case of walktrap), resulting in a flat partition assignment of cells. Given the set of clusters comprising the flat partition, one

can use various measures to evaluate to what extent any given cluster is matched by some subtree in the dendrogram derived from a perturbed (95% subsampled) dataset. The boxplots below (Figure 3) show statistics for the walktrap clustering algorithm. The cluster stability evaluation is performed comparing the original flat partition to the flat partitions in each perturbation (left), or comparing the original flat partition to the full dendrogram of each perturbation (right):

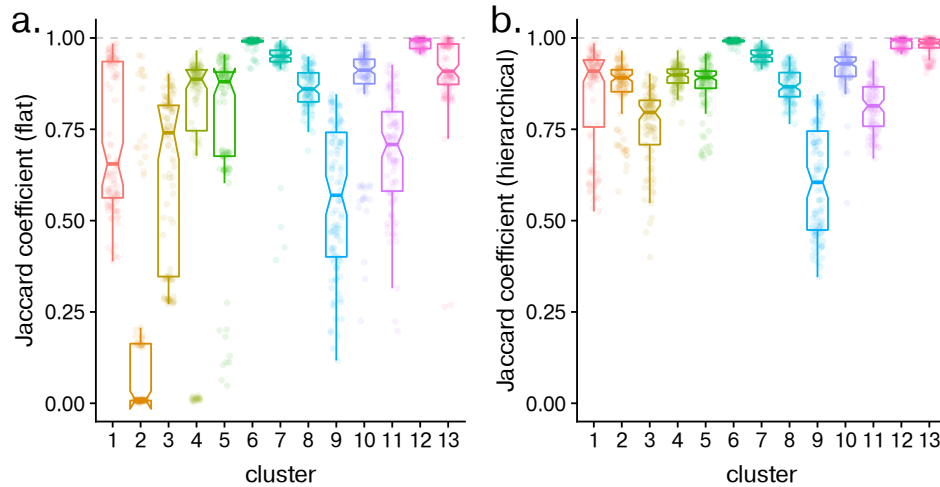


Figure 3. Stability based on hierarchical clustering. a.

Distribution of Jaccard coefficients calculated relative to flat partition results of the walktrap method (same as in Fig. 2b). **b.** Distribution of Jaccard coefficients for the same clustering, but calculated relative to an optimal subtree within the hierarchical result of the walktrap algorithm.

As expected, when entire tree is considered, the results improve, as the benchmark is no longer affected by unstable cluster split/merge effects as these differences simply represent different levels in the hierarchical clustering.

Hierarchical view of cluster stability.

The hierarchical considerations are also useful to consider with respect to the reference clusters (that are being tested for stability). These can also be considered in a hierarchical context, and various stability measures can be evaluated not just for the leaves (*i.e.* individual clusters), but internal nodes representing combinations of related clusters.

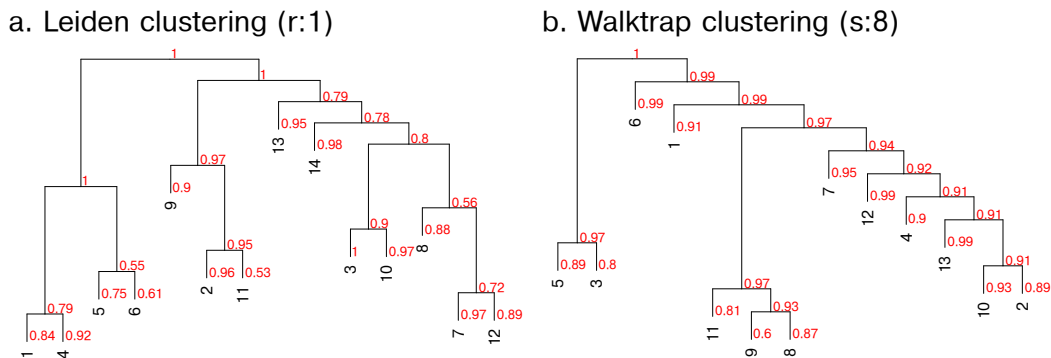


Figure 4. Jaccard coefficients for dendrograms of clusters. a. Hierarchical relationships among the 14 clusters determined by Leiden (resolution=1) algorithm is shown. The median of optimal Jaccard coefficients (calculated relative to similar hierarchies reconstructed from 95% subsampling rounds) is shown next to every leaf and internal node in red. **b.** Analogous view of the walktrap (steps=8) results.

This view can illustrate that while some of the lower-level nodes may not be very stable, their combinations can be very stable. For example, for the Leiden ($r=1$) results (see Figure 1), the clusters 1,4,5,6 represent different subpopulations of T cells. While stability of the individual clusters (relative to Leiden clustering on the subsampled dataset) can be marginal, their combination is always detected (Figure 4a).

The cluster dendrograms can be derived in a variety of ways. The analysis above (Figure 4) used upper part of the hierarchical clustering reported by walktrap to determine the dendrogram for the walktrap clusters. To determine a hierarchy for the Leiden clustering, the joint graph was simplified by collapsing all the nodes (cells) belonging to the same cluster and combining corresponding edges. The hierarchical clustering of the resulting small graph was then calculated using walktrap algorithm.

Stability under parameter perturbations

In constructing the joint graph, on which the clusters (node communities) are determined, *Conos* employs a number of parameters. Here we use example of the BM+CB 16-dataset collection to analyze sensitivity to these parameters.

Neighborhood size k . The neighborhood size parameter k is used to determine the size of the neighborhood considered during inter-sample comparisons. As such, it directly influences the number of the resulting inter-sample edges. Under the default mutual-nearest neighbor matching, relationship depends on other factors, such as subpopulation sizes, homogeneity, and the magnitude of the batch effect. There is no obvious optimal value of k . One can select k to optimize the overall modularity of the resulting clustering (see Figure 5), however it is unclear to what extent this heuristic would reflect the biologically meaningful integration of samples (*e.g.* a situation where all the samples remain well-separated may end up having higher modularity).

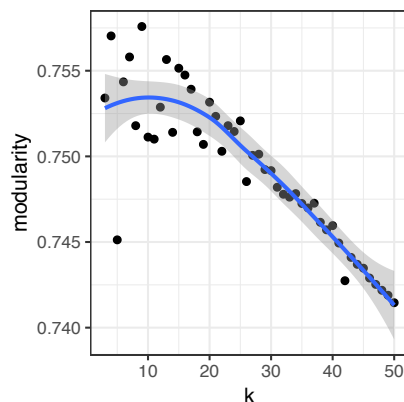


Figure 5. Dependency of the total modularity of the multilevel partition on the neighborhood size k .

Multilevel community detection was ran on the HCA BM+CB 16-dataset collection, calculating the overall modularity of the resulting multilevel community partition using `igraph::modularity()`. Smoothed estimate of the mean is shown with shading indicating the 95% confidence interval.

Larger values of k connect samples more densely, however we expect major community structure to remain stable. To illustrate that, we have used HCA BM+CB example to rerun graph construction using different values of k , comparing the similarity of the resulting clustering (using flat partition-based adjusted Rand index, or mean Jaccard coefficient in a hierarchical comparison) between different values of k . The results (Figure 6) show that clustering stabilizes once a minimal value of k is reached to establish reasonable connectivity of the graph. Importantly, further increases in k do not disrupt the structure of the major communities in the graph. Specifically, the stability of the resulting clustering is comparable to the base-level stability of the clusters, as assessed from 95% subsampling of the cells (Figure 6).

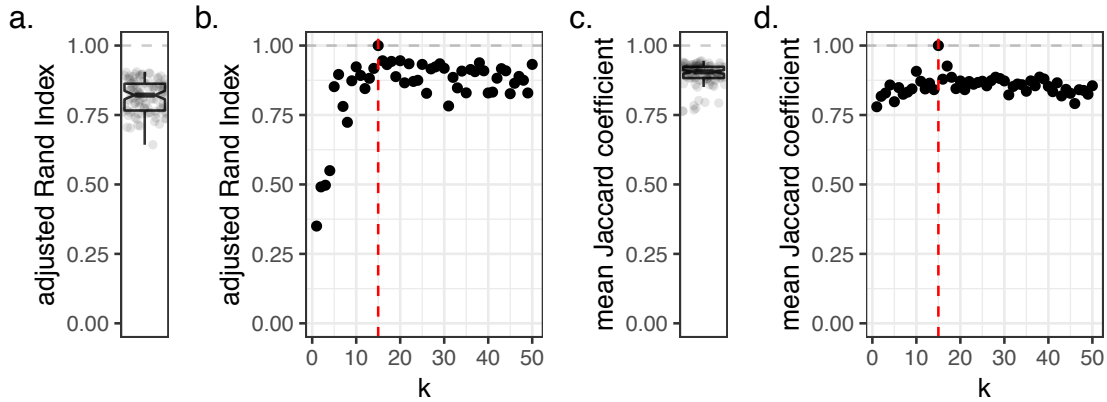


Figure 6. Clustering stability with respect to variations in parameter k . a. As a reference, stability of the clustering with respect to a 95% random subsampling of the cells is shown using adjusted Rand Index (same as in the left panel of Figure 2c). b. Adjusted Rand index as a function of k . The vertical red line gives the position of the reference point ($k=15$). Clustering stabilizes beyond minimal values of k . c. As a reference, stability of the clustering with respect to a 95% random subsampling of cells is quantified as a mean Jaccard coefficient across clusters, calculated based on the best matching subtree (as in the right panel of Figure 2c, averaged across clusters). d. Mean Jaccard coefficient as a function of k . All clustering analysis were performed using `walktrap.community()` method with `steps=8`.

Within-sample neighborhood size $k.self$. Analogous to the k parameter in the inter-sample comparisons, $k.self$ determines the number of neighbors used to establish within-sample edges. These edges are mostly meant to tie in cells that end up with no or very few inter-sample edges into the joint graph, and should be kept at minimal levels (not to increase influence of dataset-specific subpopulations). Here as well, the results show that the stability with respect to variations in $k.self$ parameter remains at the base-level, as determined by the 95% subsampling of cells.

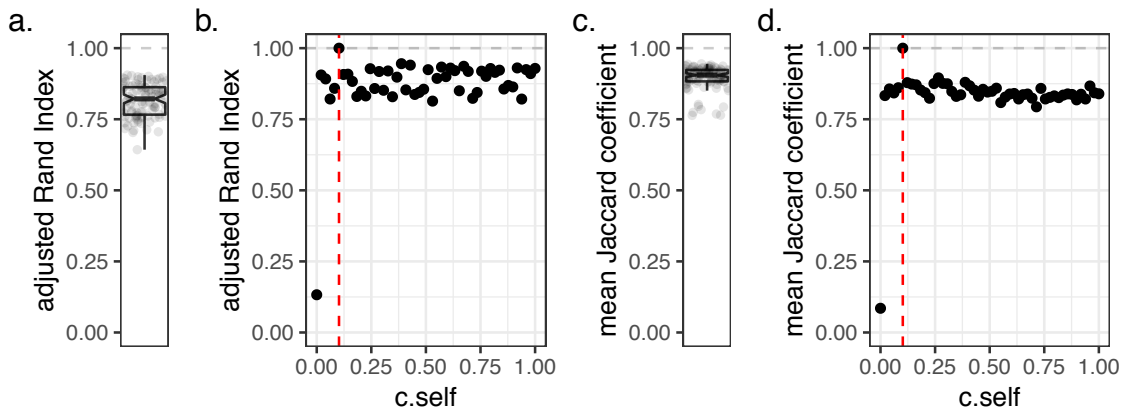


Figure 7. Stability with respect to $k.self$ parameter. Analogous to the Figure 6, the plots compare the stability of the clusters due to variations in $k.self$ parameter (b,d) with the base-level stability of the clusters as determined by the 95% subsampling of cells (a,c).

Relative weight of the within-sample edges ($k.self.weight$). To ensure that the major structure of the graph is driven by inter-sample relationships, *Conos* by default maintains lower weight of the within-sample edges using $k.self.weight=0.1$ (note, $k.self.weight$ parameter is referred to as

c_{self} in the Methods section). The plots below show sensitivity to the exact value of this relative weight parameter.

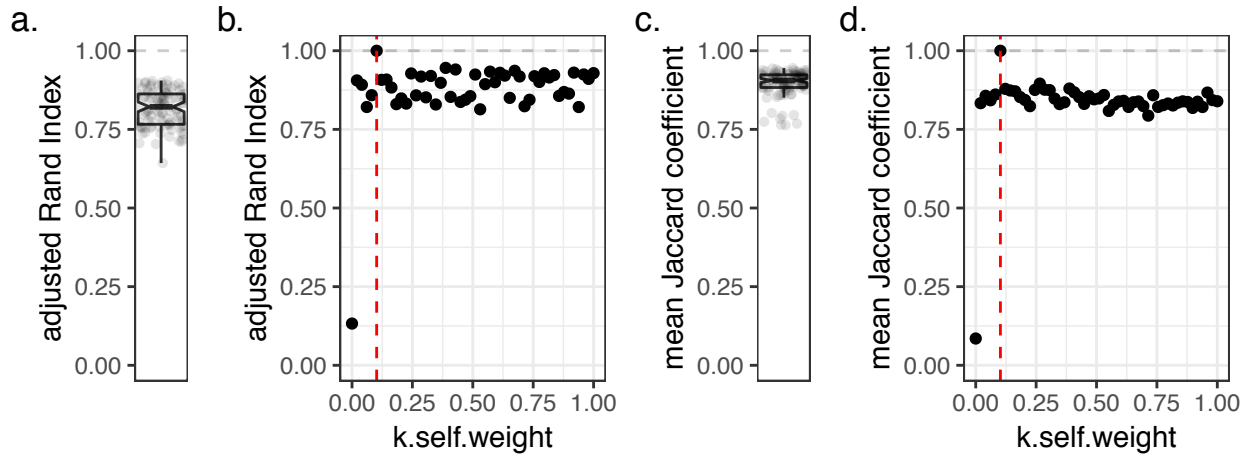


Figure 8. Stability with respect to $k_{self.weight}$ parameter. Analogous to the Figure 6, the plots compare the stability of the clusters due to variations in $k_{self.weight}$ parameter (b,d) with the base-level stability of the clusters as determined by the 95% subsampling of cells (a,c). The red dashed line marks the default value of 0.1.

Number of principal components. The number of principal components (PCs or CPCs) can influence the results. Clearly, selecting too few components will degrade the ability to identify subpopulations as a substantial amount of variance would be left unexplained (Figure 8). Selecting too many components should not be a problem, particularly since by default *Conos* uses correlation-based distance measure which is robust to increasing number of components.

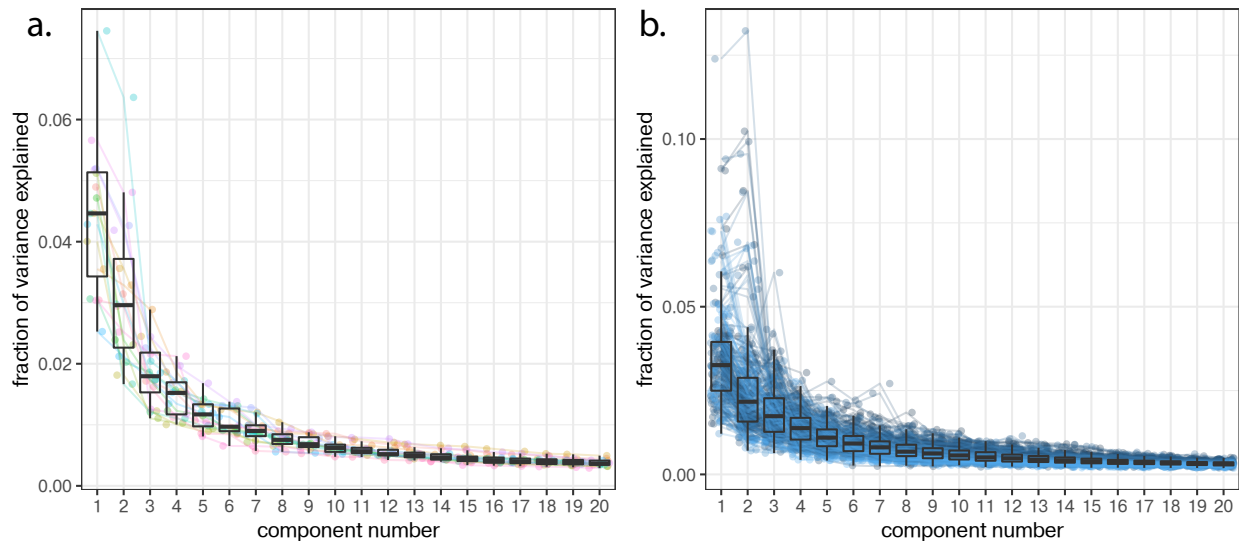


Figure 9. Fraction of variance explained by principal components. **a.** Fraction of variance explained by top principal components (PCs). Colored lines show values for each dataset, with boxplots summarizing the values across datasets. **b.** Fraction of variance explained by top common principal components (CPCs). Colored lines show variance explained by CPCs in each pairwise dataset comparison, with the boxplots showing summaries across all pairwise comparisons. HCA CB+MB dataset was used. The plots were constructed using `conos::plotComponentVariance()` function. Boxplots show

Evaluating the stability of the clustering with respect to the number of utilized components (Figure 9), shows the expected picture, with the results stabilizing once some minimal number (e.g. 12) of components is reached.

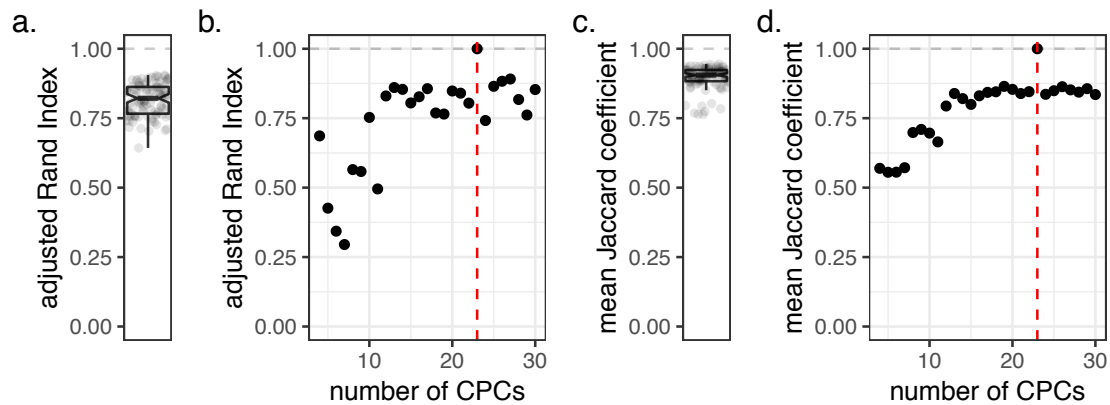


Figure 10. Stability of the clustering with respect to the variation in the number of principal components. Using the same layout as in Figure 6, the plots compare the stability of the clusters due to variations in the number of top CPCs used (b,d) with the base-level stability of the clusters as determined by the 95% subsampling of cells (a,c). As expected, the clustering stabilizes after some minimal number of components are taken into account.

Supplementary Note 2. Integrating RNA-seq and ATAC-seq datasets

Integration between distinct modalities, such as transcriptional and epigenetic measurements is a challenging topic that introduces additional technical considerations. Here we apply *Conos* approach to integrate an ATAC-seq based panel of measurements, and then show integration between ATAC-seq and RNA-seq datasets. We illustrate that although *Conos* such integration can be quite effective, its success depends on the resolution of the data and ability to find an informative link between gene expression and other modalities.

Integration of multiple ATAC-seq datasets

To introduce chromatin accessibility data, we first show integration of 17 sci-ATAC-seq replicates covering 13 mouse tissues¹. We integrate the data based on accessibility-based gene activity scores², feeding them into *Conos* in the same manner as is normally done for RNA-seq. The resulting integration clearly separates distinct cell types, joining analogous cell types across tissues and replicates where appropriate (Figure 1).

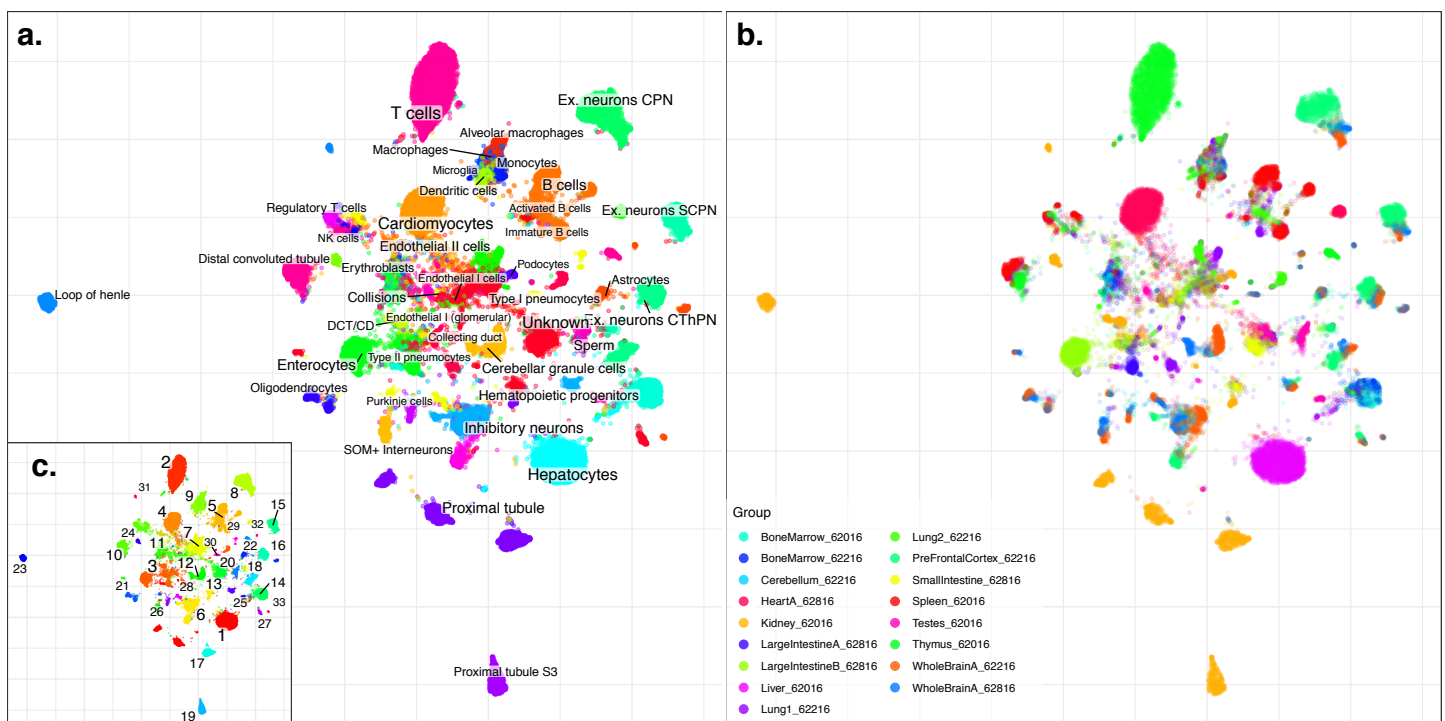
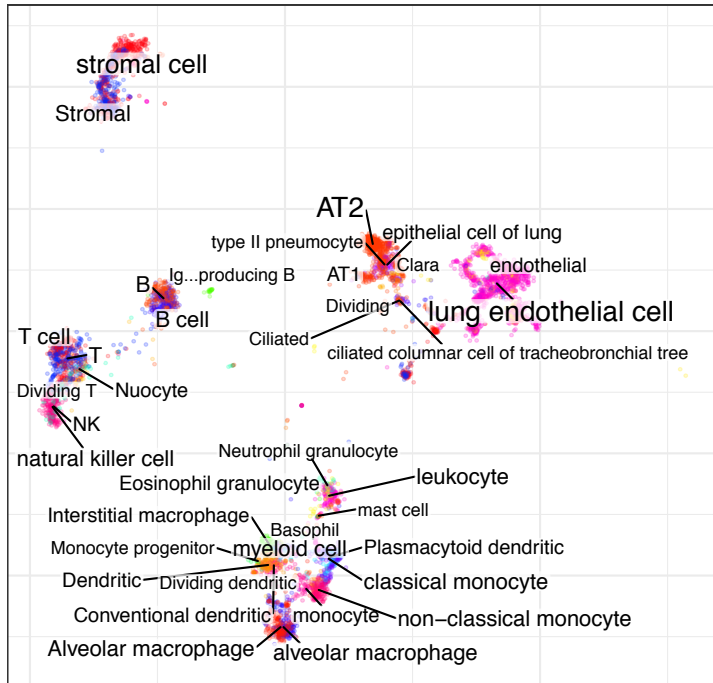


Figure 1. Integration of multiple sci-ATAC-seq datasets. **a.** largeVis embedding of the joint graph integrating data from 17 sci-ATAC-seq replicates are shown, colored and labeled according to the annotation provided in the original publication¹. **b.** Coloring by batches (see legend). Most of the batches sample distinct tissues and do not intersect. The two bone marrow replicates show expected mixing. The whole brain replicates are appropriately grouped by cell types (typically together with the prefrontal cortex sample), however retain some batch specificity within each cell type. **c.** *Conos* clustering of the joint graph separates expected cell types and integrates across replicate batches.

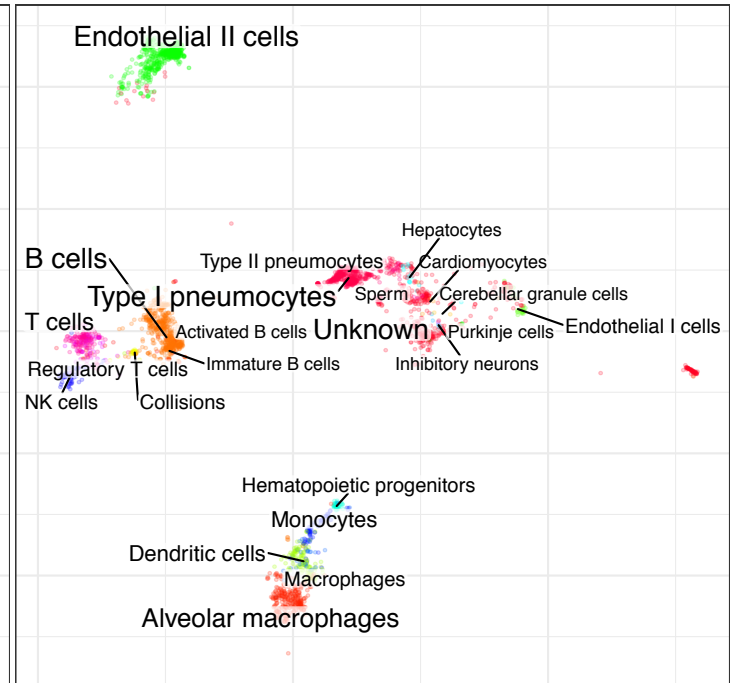
Integration of scRNA-seq and sci-ATAC-seq

To demonstrate integration between different modalities we focused on specific tissues that were covered in the mouse transcriptional atlases^{3,4}. First, we consider lung, using *Conos* to integrate the two sci-ATAC-seq replicates for that tissue, together with three scRNA-seq datasets produced using different platforms (Smart-seq2, 10x Chromium, and microwell technique).

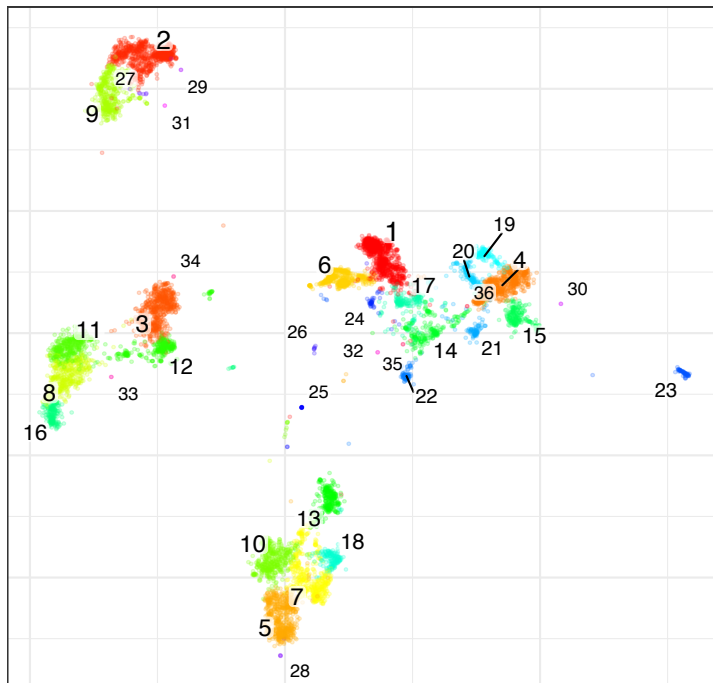
annotation: RNA



annotation: ATAC



conos clusters



platform

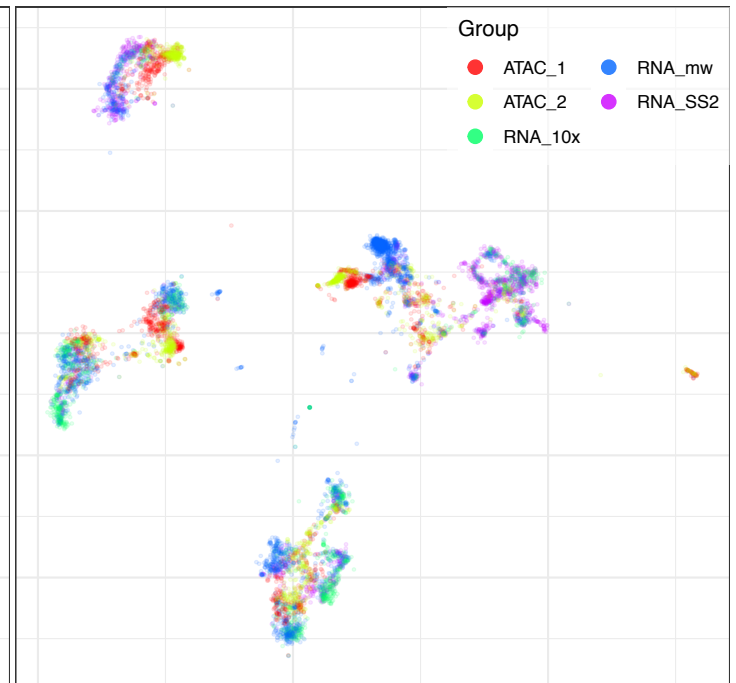
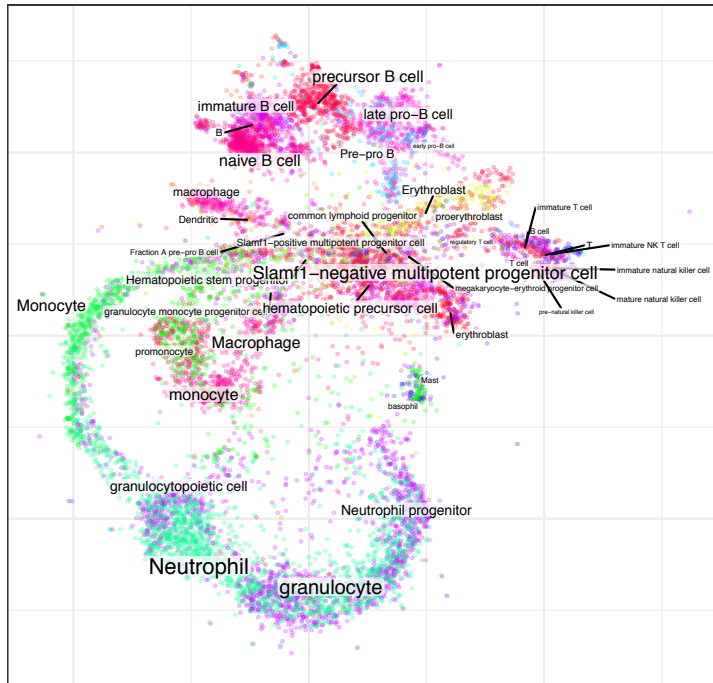


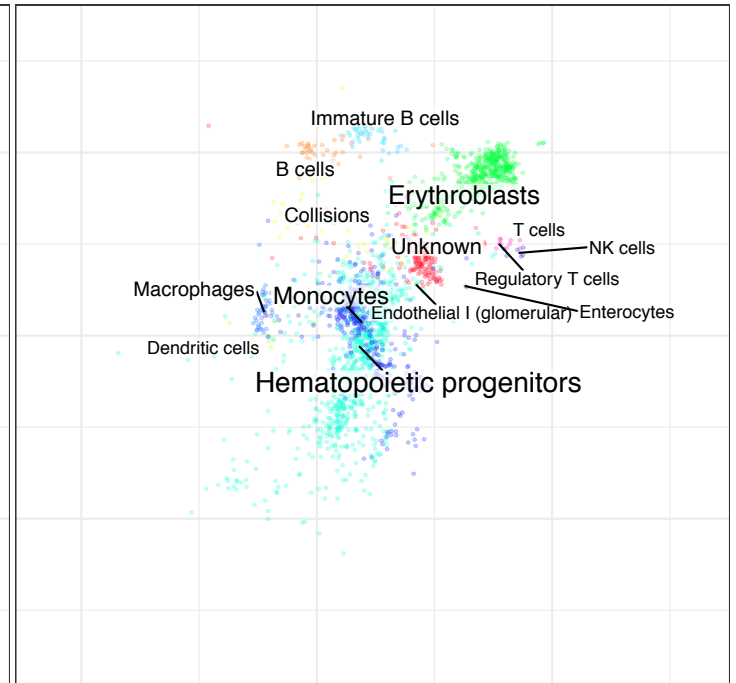
Figure 2. Integration of scRNA-seq and sci-ATAC-seq data on the lung. (top left) scRNA-seq annotations (as provided in the original publications) are shown on the joint embedding. Only RNA-seq cells are shown. (top right) sci-ATAC-seq annotations, as provided by the original publication are shown on the joint embedding. Only sci-ATAC-seq cells are shown. (bottom left) Cell clusters, as determined by *Conos* on the joint embedding. (bottom right) Joint embedding, colored by the dataset identity of each cell.

Conos effectively integrates the RNA and accessibility data on the lung (Figure 2), based on the gene-level accessibility summary scores derived using *Ciszero*², aggregating major cell types (e.g. macrophages, T, B, endothelial cells), as well as subtle differences such as that between T and NK cells. Note that we show all annotations provided for all integrated cells in the original publications, and some of them appear to include erroneous labels for small groups of cells (e.g. Sperm, Cardiomycytes) stemming from the aggregation method used. We next performed similar analysis for bone marrow datasets (Figure 3).

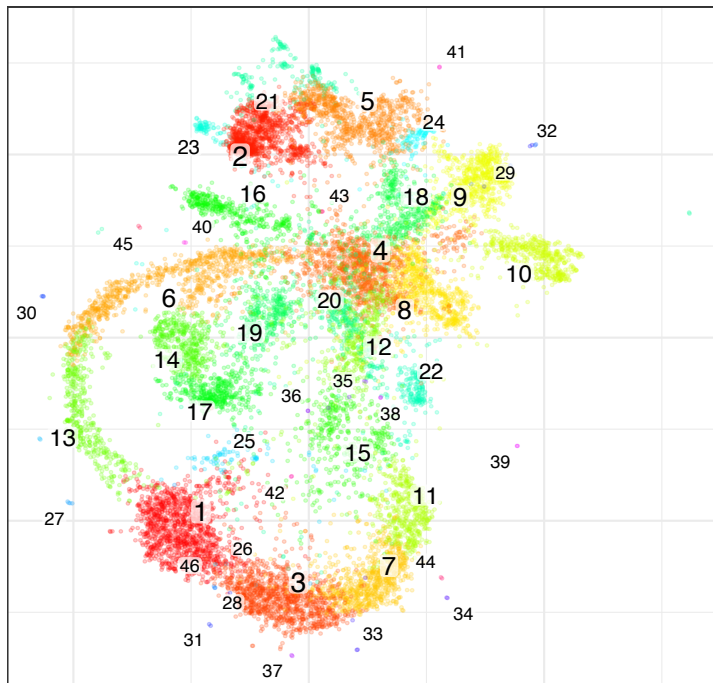
annotation: RNA



annotation: ATAC



conos clusters



platform

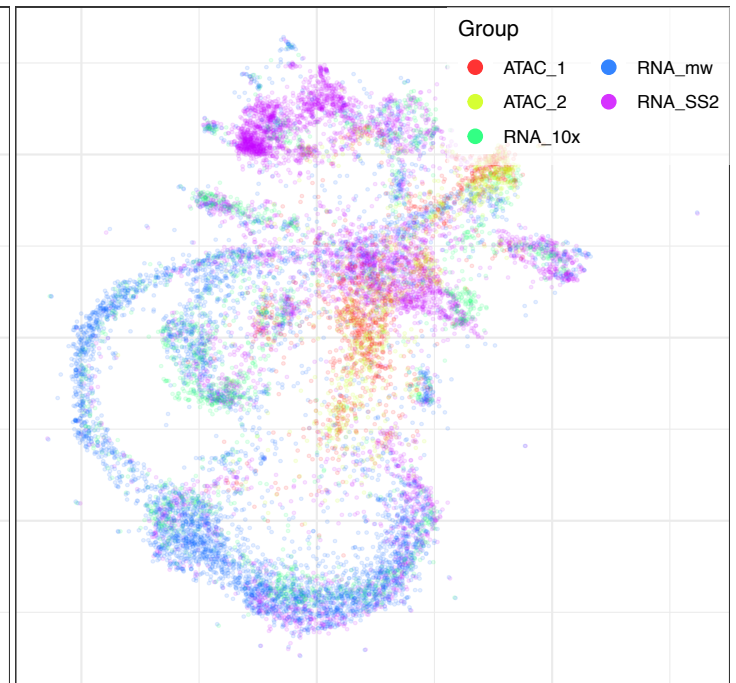


Figure 3. scRNA-seq and sci-ATAC-seq integration of the bone marrow data. Similar to Figure 2, the panels show original RNA-based and ATAC-seq based annotations (top panels), *Conos* clusters, and platform factors on the joint embedding.

The cell type representation of the bone marrow differs notably between the sci-ATAC-seq and scRNA-seq, with scRNA-seq data showing extensive granulocyte maturation trajectory, and sci-ATAC-seq data focused on the hematopoietic progenitor population. Nevertheless, *Conos* correctly aligns the overlapping cell types, including erythroblasts, T, B cells, macrophages, and hematopoietic progenitors. It also resolves the difference between immature and mature B cell clusters. The mapping of the progenitor populations is slightly shifted, however that could also be due to the representational biases.

Evaluating RNA-seq/ATAC-seq alignment consistency and limitations using sci-CAR data

While the results above illustrate the general ability to align across modalities, to get a more precise idea about the mapping correspondence we examined data from the sci-CAR technique that measures both transcriptomes and chromatin accessibility in the same cell. In this case, the true alignment across the datasets is in essence established by the barcode identity of the RNA-seq and ATAC-seq data, making for a convenient benchmark.

The joint nature of the sci-CAR technique represents an impressive technical feat, but the molecular coverage achieved for each cell is lower, which is particularly notable in the analysis of the chromatin accessibility aspect. As was shown in the original publication, however, more robust accessibility profiles can be constructed by aggregating molecules across cells with similar transcriptional profiles. For the first analysis below, we used RNA-seq based clustering of the cells to partition ATAC-seq cells into groups of 10 cells based on the similarity of their transcriptomes, and then combined all the data within each group of 10 cells to obtain “meta-cells” with 10x coverage (note, the original publication used 50x aggregation). We then summarized the chromatin accessibility at a gene level as a sum of all accessibility signal at the detected peaks (as defined in the original publication) across the entire gene body and the 10kb margins around the gene. Feeding such matrices into *Conos*, and increasing k to 200 to get a more focused mapping results in a reasonable alignment of the two modalities (Figure 4).

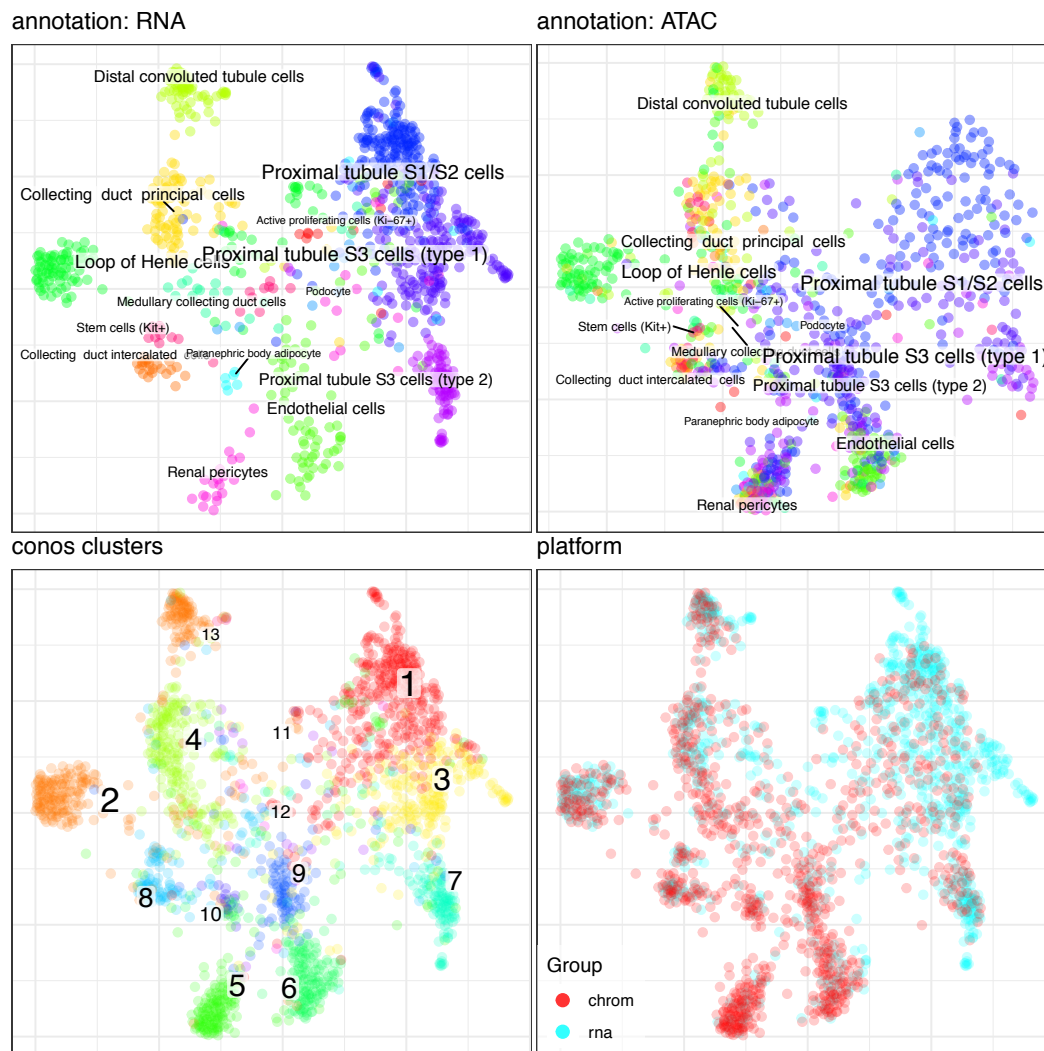


Figure 4. Integration of RNA and accessibility data from sci-CAR mouse kidney measurement. Using the panels analogous to those shown in Figures 2 & 3, the plots show results of *Conos* integration between RNA and accessibility modalities measured using sci-CAR, using 10x aggregation of the ATAC-seq cells.

On a population level, *Conos* integration performs well, aggregating RNA- and accessibility- based measurements on Renal pericytes, Loop of Henle cells, Endothelial, Collecting duct, and Distal convoluted cells. The abundant Proximal tubule S1/S2 and S3 subtypes also show corresponding alignments, though quite a few of these cells are mismapped to other cell types. The obvious advantage of using sci-CAR is that we can explicitly quantify this performance. Here we use the normalized rank of the true corresponding cell based on the Euclidean distance in the resulting embedding as the measure of performance (Figure 5).

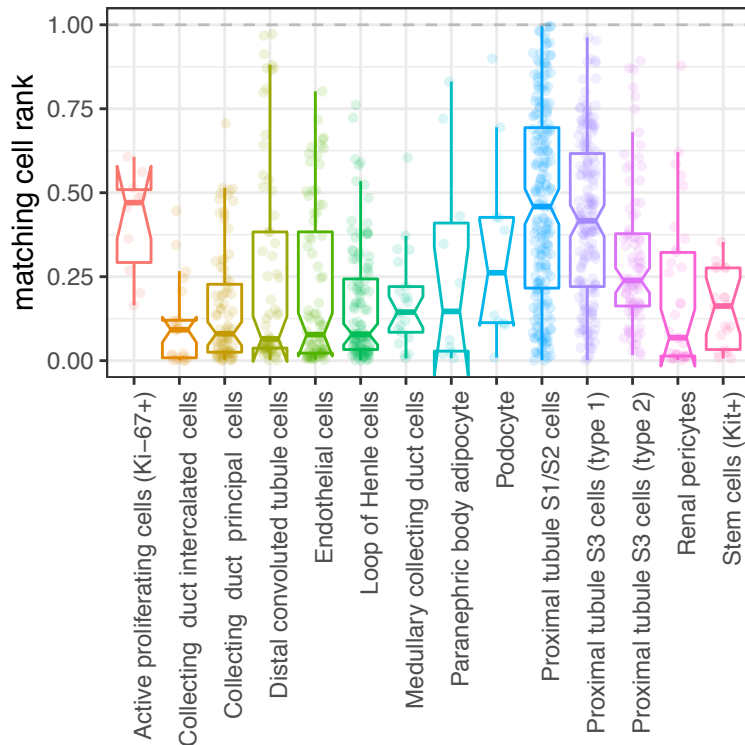


Figure 5. Performance of RNA-ATAC-seq alignment based on whole-gene summary scores. The boxplots show, for each cell type, the distribution of the rank of the corresponding RNA cell in terms of Euclidean distance in the embedding from the ATAC-seq version of the same cell. An ideal alignment would have all ranks at 0. A random alignment would be closer to $\frac{1}{2}$. The performance varies by cell type, with the proximal tubule and proliferating cells showing worst performance. In this plot and all others, the boxplot center shows median, upper/lower box lines mark top 75% (Q3) and bottom 25% (Q1) levels; Whiskers extend from $\max(\min(x), Q1-1.5 \text{ IQR})$ to $\min(\max(x), Q3+1.5 \text{ IQR})$, where IQR is the inter-quartile range. The notch shows 95% confidence interval of the median.

The reason why *Conos* alignment works is because the devised per-gene accessibility summary scores show some linear correlation with the gene expression. Therefore, we expect the choice of the scoring scheme to be critical. To illustrate that, we will use another (reasonable) summary measure on the same dataset: a total accessibility in 10kb or 4kb region around TSS of each gene (Figure 6). As it can be seen, the performance of the TSS measure is worse than that of the whole-gene measure, with 4kb measure showing near-random performance

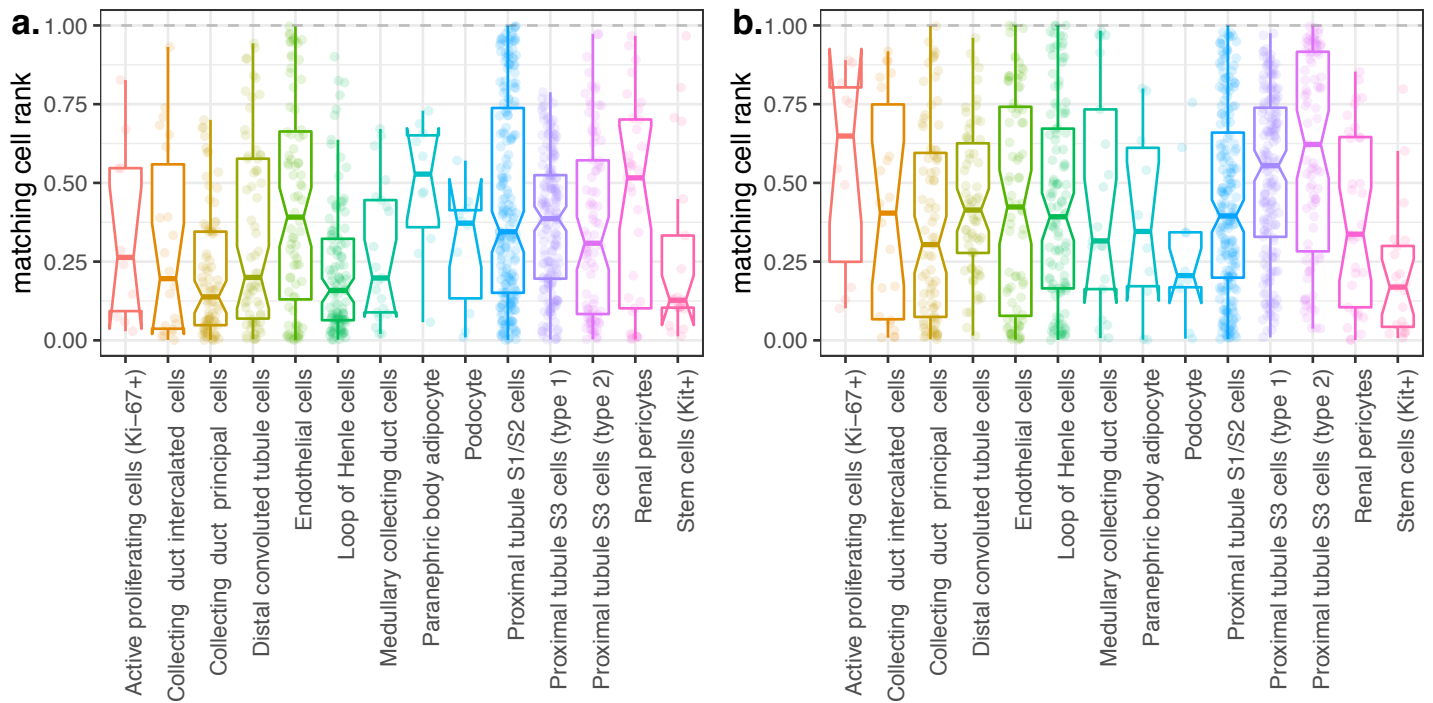


Figure 6. Alignment performance using gene-level accessibility summaries with windows of different size. To illustrate how alignment depends on the method for summarizing gene-level accessibility, we the plots show matching cell ranks (same as Figure 5) for alignments where ATAC-seq data was summarized as total signal within (a.) 10kb around TSS, or (b.) 4kb around TSS. The later, clearly provides too little signal and the cells are not well aligned.

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