# DeCompress: tissue compartment deconvolution using targeted mRNA expression panels using compressed sensing

Supplemental Materials

## **1 Supplemental Methods**

### **1.1 DeCompress algorithm**

DeCompress takes in two expression matrices from similar bulk tissue as inputs: the *target* matrix T, an  $n \times k$  matrix from a targeted panel of gene expression, and the *reference* matrix R, an  $N \times K$  matrix from an RNA-seq or microarray panel, such that  $K > k$ . For a user-defined c cell-types, DeCompress outputs  $\hat{\mathbf{S}}$ , a  $c \times K'$  matrix of cell-type specific expression profiles and  $\hat{\mathbf{P}}$ , a  $c \times n$  matrix of cell-type proportions. The method follows three general steps, as detailed in **Figure 1**: (1) selection of approximate cell-type specific genes, (2) compressed sensing to expand the feature space of  $T$ , and (3) ensemble reference-free deconvolution on expanded expression dataset. DeCompress is freely available as an R package on Github (<https://github.com/bhattacharya-a-bt/DeCompress>).

#### **1.1.1 Selection of cell-type specific genes**

The first step of DeCompress is to find a set of  $K' < K$  genes that are representative of the different cell types that comprise the bulk tissue. These  $K'$  genes, called the cell-type specific (CTS) genes, can be supplied by the user if prior gene signatures can be applied. If any such gene signatures are not available, DeCompress borrows methods from two previous reference-free deconvolution methods to select a parsimonious gene set.

We include methods from Zaitsev *et al.*'s LINear Subspace identification for gene Expression Deconvolution (LINSEED) method<sup>[1](#page-30-0)</sup> that assumes mutual linearity (i.e.  $y_1 = ky_2$ , where  $y_1$  and  $y_2$  are the expressions of gene 1 and gene 2, respectively) between cell-type specific genes to generate gene signatures. Briefly, LINSEED transforms the gene expression space to form a  $c$ -vertex simplex, where each vertex represents a distinct cluster of mutually linear genes corresponding to a cell type. The algorithm then picks the closest genes to each vertex to represent a cell-type specific gene signature<sup>[1](#page-30-0)</sup>. We also include Li and Wu's feature selection method, TOols for the Analysis of heterogeneouS Tissues (TOAST)<sup>[2](#page-30-1)</sup>, which iteratively searches for cell type-specific genes and performs reference-free estimation at each step. TOAST uses a novel hypothesis testing framework to conduct cross-cell type differential analysis and identify gene signatures<sup>[2](#page-30-1)</sup>.

#### **1.1.2 Compressed sensing framework**

After a suitable set of  $K'$  CTS genes are determined, we take the  $K'$  corresponding columns of  ${\bf R}$  to form  ${\bf R'}_{N\times K'}$ and the  $k$  genes corresponding to columns in  ${\bf T}$  to form  ${\bf R}_{\bf N}^{({\bf k})}$  $N \times k$ . Consider the following matrix equation, where  $\Phi$ is a  $k\times K'$  compression matrix that projects  ${\bf R}^{({\bf k})}$  to  ${\bf R}'$ :

<span id="page-1-0"></span>
$$
\mathbf{R}_{N\times K'}' = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{N}\times\mathbf{k}}^{(\mathbf{k})} \boldsymbol{\Phi}_{\mathbf{k}\times\mathbf{K'}} \tag{1}
$$

We can break down Equation [1](#page-1-0) into a system of equations. For the  $i$ th column of  ${\bf R}'$ , denoted  $r'_i$ , we wish to find a k-length sparse vector  $\phi_i,~1\leq i\leq K'$  such that

$$
r_i' = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{N}\times\mathbf{k}}^{(\mathbf{k})} \phi_i.
$$
 (2)

We estimate  $\hat{\phi}_i$  with the following optimization methods: least angle regression (using R package lars)<sup>[3](#page-30-2)</sup>, elastic net with elastic net mixture penalty  $\alpha\in\{0,0.5,1\}$  (using the R package glmnet)<sup>[4](#page-30-3)</sup>, and  $l_1,l_2$ , and total variation  $l_1$  (TV-L1) non-linear optimization (using R package R1magic)<sup>[5–](#page-30-4)[8](#page-30-5)</sup>. Functions in DeCompress allow the user to select any to all of these optimization methods and picks the best method through 5-fold cross-validation.

Especially when  $N$  is sufficiently large, non-linear optimization is computationally expensive (see comparison of run times in **Supplemental Figure [S11](#page-18-0)**). We implement parallelization across columns of R' using the future package in  $R<sup>9</sup>$  $R<sup>9</sup>$  $R<sup>9</sup>$  and recommend linear optimization methods as they are faster and give generally similar prediction (Supplemental Figure [S2\)](#page-9-0).

#### **1.1.3 Optimization methods for compressed sensing**

Compressed sensing in DeCompress aims to estimate the  $k \times K'$  compression matrix  $\Phi$  in the equation:

$$
\mathbf{R}_{N\times K'}' = \mathbf{R}_{N\times k}^{(k)} \Phi_{k\times K'}.
$$
 (3)

We convert this into a system of equations. For the  $i$ th column of  ${\bf R}'$ , denoted  $r'_i$ , we wish to find a  $k$ -length sparse vector  $\phi_i,~1\leq i\leq K'$  such that

$$
r_i' = \mathbf{R}_{\mathbf{N}\times\mathbf{k}}^{(\mathbf{k})} \phi_i.
$$
 (4)

DeCompress implements several regularized regression or optimization methods to estimate  $\hat{\phi}_i$ :

• *Elastic net<sup>[4](#page-30-3)</sup>* finds

<span id="page-1-1"></span>
$$
\hat{\phi}_i = \underset{\phi_i}{\arg \min} \left\{ ||r_i' - \mathbf{R^{(k)}} \phi_i||_2^2 + \lambda \left[ \frac{(1-\alpha)}{2} ||\phi_i||_2^2 + \alpha ||\beta||_1 \right] \right\}.
$$
 (5)

We have implemented  $\alpha \in \{0, 0.5, 1\}$ , where  $\alpha = 0$  represents ridge regression with no sparsification of  $\phi_i$ and  $\alpha = 1$  represents traditional Lasso<sup>[10](#page-30-7)</sup>. This optimization is carried out in DeCompress with the glmnet package $\rm ^4.$  $\rm ^4.$  $\rm ^4.$ 

• *Least angle regression* (LARS) minimizes the Lasso objective function in Expression [5](#page-1-1) that speeds ups stage-wise forward selection. The algorithm starts with all elements of  $\phi_i$  equal to zero and finds the predict most correlated with the response. The largest step possible is take in the direction of these predictor until some other predictor has as much correlation with the residual. LARS then proceeds in a direction equiangular between these two predictors until a third variable shares an equal correlation with the residual. The full mathematical justification and details are provided by Efron *et al.*[3](#page-30-2)

 $\bullet$   $l_1$  *non-linear optimization* solves the following optimization using the nlm function in R, as implemented in the R1magic package<sup>[5](#page-30-4)</sup>:

$$
\hat{\phi}_i = \underset{\phi_i}{\arg\min} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N |\mathbf{R}^{(\mathbf{k})}\mathbf{T}\phi_i - r_i'|^2 + \lambda |\phi_i| \right\},\tag{6}
$$

where T is a  $K' \times K'$  matrix of sparsity bases and  $\lambda$  is a tuned penalty parameter.

 $\bullet$   $l_2$  *non-linear optimization* solves the following optimization using the nlm function in R, as implemented in the R1magic package<sup>[5](#page-30-4)</sup>:

$$
\hat{\phi}_i = \underset{\phi_i}{\arg\min} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N |\mathbf{R}^{(\mathbf{k})}\mathbf{T}\phi_i - r_i'|^2 + \lambda \sqrt{|\phi_i|} \right\},\tag{7}
$$

where T is a  $K' \times K'$  matrix of sparsity bases and  $\lambda$  is a tuned penalty parameter.

• *total-variation*  $l_1$  *non-linear optimization* solves the following optimization using the nlm function in R, as implemented in the R1 magic package<sup>[5](#page-30-4)</sup>:

$$
\hat{\phi}_i = \underset{\phi_i}{\arg\min} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{R}^{(\mathbf{k})}\mathbf{T}\phi_i - r_i'\|_F^2 + \lambda TV(\phi_i) \right\},\tag{8}
$$

where T is a  $K' \times K'$  matrix of sparsity bases,  $\lambda$  is a penalty parameter, and  $TV(\cdot)$  is the total-variation function, such that for a generic n-length vector  $\nu$  with jth element  $\nu_i$ 

$$
TV(\nu) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |\nu_i - \nu_{i+1}|.
$$

#### **1.1.4 Ensemble deconvolution on expanded dataset**

After the estimated compression matrix  $\hat{\Phi}$  is obtained, we then expand the expression matrix from the targetted panel  $\mathbf{T}_{n\times k}$  into a larger features space by multiplying T with  $\hat{\Phi}$ :

$$
\mathbf{\tilde{T}}_{n\times K^{\prime}}=\mathbf{T}_{n\times k}\mathbf{\hat{\Phi}}_{k\times K^{\prime}}.
$$

This expanded expression matrix  $\tilde{T}$ , called the *decompressed* expression matrix, is then used for ensemble deconvolution. DeCompress includes multiple options for deconvolution, summarized in **Supplemental Table [S1](#page-5-0)**: (1) reference-free methods, such as deconf<sup>[11](#page-30-8)</sup>, CellDistinguisher<sup>[12](#page-30-9)</sup>, TOAST with non-negative matrix factoriza-tion<sup>[2](#page-30-1)</sup>, Linseed<sup>[1](#page-30-0)</sup>, and DeconICA<sup>[13](#page-30-10)</sup>, and (2) reference-based methods using cell-type specific expression profiles from factorization of  ${\bf R}'_{N\times K'}$ , unmix from the DESeq2 package<sup>[14](#page-30-11)</sup>. The optimal estimated cell-type proportion matrix  $\hat{P}$  and cell-type specific expression profiles matrix  $\hat{S}$  are selected from the method that best recreates  $\tilde{T}$ (i.e. minimizes  $\Vert \tilde{T} - \hat{\mathbf{S}}^T\hat{\mathbf{P}} \Vert$ ).

#### **1.2 In-silico mixing experiments**

We downloaded single-cell data from suspensions of samples of mouse mammary gland<sup>[15](#page-30-12)</sup> and median tissue-specific expression profiles from the Genotype-Tissue Expression (GTEx) Project<sup>[16](#page-30-13)[,17](#page-30-14)</sup> for mammary tissue, lymphocytes, fibroblasts, and adipose tissue. For the single-cell RNA-seq data, we clustered individual cells using

the SingleR<sup>[18](#page-30-15)</sup> and the MouseRNASeq() reference dataset<sup>[19](#page-30-16)</sup> and aggregated RNA counts from fibroblasts, epithelial cells, adipocytes, and immune cells (T-cells, B-cells, macrophages, and monocytes) to form compartmentspecific expression profiles. For GTEx, we considered bulk median expression profiles for subareolar mammary cells, EBV-transformed lymphocytes, transformed fibroblasts, and subcutaneous adipose, as well as, pancreas, pituitary, and whole blood. Call the matrix of median expression profiles  $E_{\text{profile}}$ . We randomly generated a matrix of mixing proportions P for n samples and  $c \in \{2,3,4\}$  of the tissue types  $(c \in \{2,3\}$  for GTeX analysis). The matrix P is generated by simulated a matrix from a half Normal distribution with scale parameter 1 and then dividing each row by the row sum. We then generated mixed expression profiles with the following model:

$$
\mathbf{E}_{\text{mixed}} = \mathbf{E}_{\text{profile}} \mathbf{P}^T.
$$

We then multiplied each element of  $E_{mixed}$  with a randomly generated error term drawn from a half-Normal distribution with a scale parameter of either 4 or 8 (low and high noise). This simulates natural perturbation to mixed expression profiles to form an RNA-seq panel as a reference. We then simulated 25 similarly generate RNA-seq expression datasets to generate pseudo-targeted panels each of  $K \in \{200, 500, 800\}$  genes that have means and variances above the median mean and variance of all genes in the simulated genes. We add more multiplicate noise to these pseudo-targeted panels drawn from a half-Normal distribution with scale parameter 1.

#### **1.3 Benchmarking in published datasets**

We downloaded four datasets, as mentioned in **Methods** and summarized in **Supplemental Table [S2](#page-6-0)**. Here, we detail the process of generating pseudo-targeted panels from these RNA-seq or microarray datasets. Assume the downloaded datasets are coded in the matrix E with K rows corresponding to genes and n columns corresponding to samples. We take the K' genes such that the means and variances of each of these K' genes are in the top 50% of means and variances of all K genes. This restriction is placed on the  $K'$  genes so as to not include lowly expressed genes with no variation across cell-types or other conditions. We then generated 25 pseudo-targeted panels with randomly selected 200, 500, and 800 of the  $K'$  genes.

## **2 Supplemental Results**

## **2.1 Advantages of compressed sensing and references in DeCompress**

We generated here a toy example (shown in **Supplemental Figure S1**) to illustrate a key advantage of *DeCompress*. In this example, we have a set of genes that have low variability in the reference samples but have high variability among samples in the target (labelled Group A); these genes may be important for rare compartments or subtypes not present in the reference panel. Gene groups B, C, and D show similar variances across samples in both the target and reference. Gene groups E and F are only assayed in the reference and are expressed in disjoint sets of samples in the reference. When we train the compressed sensing model in the reference, we can leverage co-expression of genes in Groups B-D with genes in Groups E and F to recover their expression in the samples in the target. If we only consider compartments defined by the reference, and project compartment proportions from here, we miss the rare groups that are reflected in the variation of Group A genes. Projecting the co-expression in the reference back to the target will aid in recovering both the groups distinguished by Groups E and F, as well as Group A (as variation in Group A is only present in the target). Code to recreate this toy example is provided in **Supplemental Data** ([https://github.com/bhattacharya-a-bt/DeCompress\\_supplement](https://github.com/bhattacharya-a-bt/DeCompress_supplement)).

### **2.2 Incorporating estimated compartment improves outcome prediction**

Next, we considered the impact of including the tumor (C3, C4, and combining C3/C4) and immune (C2) com-partments in survival models. We constructed Cox models for breast-cancer specific mortality<sup>[20](#page-30-17)</sup> with the following covariates: race, age, PAM50 molecular subtype, compartment proportion, and an interaction between subtype and compartment proportion. **Supplemental Table [S3](#page-7-0)** shows hazard ratio estimates and 90% FDR-adjusted confidence intervals<sup>[21](#page-30-18)</sup> from Cox models with the C3, C4, tumor, and immune compartments, along with comparisons to a reduced baseline model that excludes the compartment estimates and interaction terms. General relationships stay similar across the baseline and interaction models (e.g. protective hazard ratios of Luminal A subtypes in comparison to the reference Basal subtypes). We also estimated, in the C4-compartment interaction model, that increased C4 proportion was associated with shorter survival (hazard ratio 1.69, FDR-adjusted  $P = 0.026$ ). We also compared these compartment-specific interaction models with the nested baseline model that did not contain the compartment proportions using a partial likelihood ratio test. We found that only the interaction model with the C4 proportions gave a significantly better model fit ( $\chi^2=11.52$  on 4 degrees of freedom,  $P = 0.02$ ). Estimated survival Kaplan-Meier curves stratified by molecular subtype and median-stratified C3 and C4 proportions showed significant differences between low and high proportion groups within molecular subtypes (**Supplemental Table [S3](#page-7-0)**). Namely, we observed that the C3 high and low proportion groups only split the HER2 enriched molecular subtype based on survival outcomes, reinforcing the ERBB signaling annotations assigned to C3 in ORA analysis. However, the HER2-enriched subtype was enriched for C3-high samples (127 out of 147 samples in the C3-high group). We also found that the C4 groups split the Basal and Luminal B subtype groups, though the Basal subtype was disproportionately enriched for C4-high subjects (315 out of 339 subjects). In sum, these results illustrate that incorporating computationally-derived estimates of compartments may aid in outcome prediction.

# **3 Supplemental Tables**



<span id="page-5-0"></span>Table S1: *Summary of deconvolution methods benchmarked against or employed in DeCompress.*



<span id="page-6-0"></span>Table S2: *Summary of datasets used in benchmarking*



<span id="page-7-0"></span>Table S3: Hazard ratio estimates, 90% FDR-adjusted confidence intervals, and FDR-adjusted P-values for baseline and compartment-specific interaction Cox models for breast cancer-specific survival.

# **4 Supplemental Figures**



Figure S1: *Toy example to illustrate advantages of using DeCompress.* Heatmaps of toy expression (rows are genes, columns are samples) for (A) both the target and reference panels, (B) only the target panel, and (C) the DeCompressed dataset after expanding the target using a compressing sensing model trained in the reference. We have a set of genes that have low variability in the reference samples but have high variability among samples in the target (labelled Group A); these genes may be important for rare compartments or subtypes not present in the reference panel. Gene groups B, C, and D show similar variances across samples in both the target and reference. Gene groups E and F are only assayed in the reference and are expressed in disjoint sets of samples in the reference. When we train the compressed sensing model in the reference, we can leverage co-expression of genes in Groups B-D with genes in Groups E and F to recover their expression in the samples in the target. If we only consider compartments defined by the reference, and project compartment proportions from here, we miss the rare groups that are reflected in the variation of Group A genes. Projecting the co-expression in the reference back to the target will aid in recovering both the groups distinguished by Groups E and F, as well as Group A (as variation in Group A is only present in the target).



<span id="page-9-0"></span>Figure S2: *Comparison of predictive performance of optimization methods used in DeCompress's compressing* sensing step. Violin plots for distributions of cross-validation  $R^2$  (Y-axis) of the various optimization methods  $(X$ -axis) employed by DeCompress for compression sensing for 100 randomly selected genes from CBCS. From left to right, least angle regression, LASSO, elastic with  $\alpha = 0.5$ , ridge regression, and non-linear optimization with  $l_1$  norm. Non-linear optimization with either the total variation-adjusted  $l_1$  norm or the  $l_2$  norm gives similar results as with the  $l_1$  norm, and hence is omitted.



Figure S3: *Results with null distributions for in-silico experiments using scRNA-seq data.* Boxplots of MSE and Spearman correlations between estimated and true compartment proportions across various methods and numbers of genes on the target. Boxplots highlighted in red provide a permutation null distribution (shuffling samples 10,000 times) for the metric to the right of it. The final group on the X-axis presents another null distribution generated by randomly generating 10,000 proportion matrices.



Figure S4: *Comparison of true and estimated proportions in scRNA-seq mixing experiments.* Scatter plots of true and estimated compartment proportions across methods, with the 45-degree line shown.



Figure S5: *Contribution plots for canonical variates as number of estimated components* c *increases.* Barplots of standardized canonical coefficients (X-axis) for estimated compartments (Y-axis) comparing estimated compartment-specific gene expression profiles for (A)  $c = 3$  and  $c = 4$  and (B)  $c = 4$  and  $c = 5$  for a given instance of *in-silico* scRNA-seq mixed expression with 4 true components, 500 genes on the target, and 100 samples each in the reference and target. Here, from (A), we see that Component 4 in the  $c = 4$  estimate splits from Component 1 in the  $c = 3$  estimate. From (B), we see that Component 5 in the  $c = 5$  estimate splits generally from Component 3 and marginally from Component 1 in the  $c = 4$  estimate.



<span id="page-13-0"></span>Figure S6: *Impact of varied cell-types on GTEx mixing experiments.* (A) Correlation matrices between tissues used in GTEx *in-silico* matrices. On the left, we show the correlation between tissues used in mixtures in **Figure 2**. On the right, we show the correlation between tissues used in mixtures in **Supplemental Figure [S6B](#page-13-0)**. (B) Boxplots of mean square error (Y -axis) between true and estimated cell-type proportions in *in-silico* GTEx mixing experiments across various methods  $(X$ -axis), with 25 simulated datasets per number of genes. GTEx mixing was done at two levels of multiplicative noise, such that errors were drawn from a Normal distribution with zero mean and standard deviation 4 (left) and 8 (right). Boxplots are colored by the number of genes in each simulated dataset. These simulations were done with 4 cell-types, shown in the right panel of **Supplemental Figure [S6A](#page-13-0)**.



Figure S7: *Benchmarking of deconvolution performance using DeCompress and 6 other reference-free deconvolution in published data examples.* Boxplots of MSE (Y -axis) over 25 pseudo-targeted panels using four published datasets over 200, 500, and 800 genes  $(X$ -axis). This plot shows the same results as Figure 2C with fixed scales across datasets.



Figure S8: *Comparison of deconvolution performance using decompressed matrix in DeCompress across various methods.* Boxplots of MSE (Y -axis) between true and estimated cell-type proportions across pseudo-targeted panels of differing numbers of genes. We compare four reference-free methods (deconf<sup>[11](#page-30-8)</sup>, Linseed<sup>[1](#page-30-0)</sup>, iterative non-negative matrix factorization with feature selection using TOAST<sup>[2](#page-30-1)</sup>, CellDistinguisher<sup>[12](#page-30-9)</sup>) and a reference-based method (unmix<sup>[14](#page-30-11)</sup>) that uses cell-type specific expressions estimated from the reference. Here, we present results from the breast cancer cell line mixtures<sup>[25](#page-31-3)</sup>, prostate tumor<sup>[28](#page-31-6)</sup>, and lung adenocarcinoma cell line mix-tures<sup>[29](#page-31-7)</sup>. We do not include DeconICA<sup>[13](#page-30-10)</sup> in this benchmarking due to large errors across all three datasets.



Figure S9: *Deconvolution of breast cancer cell mixture using TCGA-LUAD reference.* MSE (Y-axis) across 25 psuedo-targeted panels with different numbers of genes  $(X$ -axis) of using various reference-free deconvolution methods on decompresed breast cancer cell line data using TCGA-LUAD reference data. The yellow box-plot gives a distribution of the MSE for 1,000 randomly generated cell-type proportions.



Figure S10: *Prediction of CBCS gene expression with TCGA-LUAD reference using compressed sensing models.* Distribution of prediction  $R^2$  across 393 genes in CBCS data using TCGA-LUAD as a reference. The median and mean of the distribution is marked with the dotted red and blue lines, respectively



<span id="page-18-0"></span>Figure S11: *Scatter-plot of known and estimated cell-type proportions in CBCS using DeCompress and TOAST + NMF.* Plots of true (X-axis) and estimated (Y -axis) cell-type proportions in CBCS using DeCompress and TOAST + NMF (most accurate benchmarked reference-free method). True cell-type proportions are taken as measurement by a study pathologist for 148 samples. A reference smoothed linear trend line is provided for reference.



Figure S12: *Comparison of run-times for various methods implemented for compressed sensing in DeCompress.* Over sample sizes of  $N = 40$ ,  $N = 200$ , and  $N = 1000$  and feature sizes of 200, 500, 800, and 100, we plot the mean time of estimation compression model over the 7 methods implemented in DeCompress: least angle regression (LAR), LASSO, elastic net with  $\alpha = 0.5$ , ridge regression, non-linear optimization with  $l_1$  norm, non-linear optimization with total variation-adjusted  $l_1$  norm, and non-linear optimization with  $l_2$  norm.



Figure S13: *Comparison of run-times for DeCompress and benchmarked reference-free deconvolution methods.* Mean runtimes in seconds (X-axis on logarithmic scale) for methods benchmarked (Y-axis): DeCompress (in serial), DeCompress (in parallel with 20 cores), deconf, iterative non-negative matrix factorization with feature selection using TOAST, CellDistinguisher, Linseed, DeconICA, and CDSeq (in parallel with 20 cores). These runtimes were generated by running all methods on CBCS data (1,199 samples with 407 genes). DeCompress was run using TCGA-BRCA (1,212 samples) as a reference. The error bar gives an interval of one standard deviation around the mean runtime. All methods were run with default inputs. The blue, black, and red dotted lines provide references for 1 second, 1 minute, and 5 minutes.



Figure S14: *Gene set enrichment plot for combined C3 and C4 gene signature.* The green, blue, and red lines in the top panel of the plot represents the running enrichment score (ES) for the corresponding gene ontology as the analysis goes down the ranked list. The peak gives the final ES. The green, blue, and red lines in the middle of the plot shows where the members of ontological groups in the dataset first appear in the ranked list. The bottom panel shows the value of the ranking metric as it moves down the list of the ranked genes.



Correlation−0.4−0.20.0 0.2 0.4 0.6

Figure S15: *Comparison of CBCS DeCompress-based compartment and GTEx tissue gene signatures.* Heatmap of Pearson correlations between compartment-specific gene signatures  $(X$ -axis) and GTEx median expression profiles and MCF7 single-cell profiles (Y-axis). Significant correlations at nominal  $P < 0.01$  are indicated with an asterisk. This plot shows the same expression comparison as in Figure 4B but represents all GTEx tissues or cells with at least 1 significant correlation.



Figure S16: *Comparison of compartment proportion estimates with molecular subtype.* Boxplot of C1 and C5 estimated proportions ( $Y$ -axis) from DeCompress across 5 PAM50 intrinsic molecular subtypes ( $X$ -axis) in CBCS.



Figure S17: *Comparison of compartment proportion estimates with race and different clinical subtype metrics.* (A) Boxplot of C3, C4, and C3 + C4 proportions across race with  $P$ -value of Wilcoxon rank-sum test provided. (B) Scatterplot of compartment proportions  $(X$ -axis) and ER or HER2 score from PAM50 classification algorithm. A regression line is provided with a Spearman correlation  $\rho$  for reference. (C) Boxplot of C3, C4, immune, and tumor compartment estimates acros clinical ER status.



Figure S18: *Manhattan plot of cis-eQTLs across the genome in AA CBCS samples.*  $-log_{10}P$ -values of eQTL association (Y -axis) across chromosomal position of *cis*-eQTLs across bulk (top), immune (middle), and tumor (bottom) models. Top *cis*-eGenes are labelled.



Figure S19: *Manhattan plot of cis-eQTLs across the genome in EA CBCS samples.*  $-log_{10}P$ -values of eQTL association (Y -axis) across chromosomal position of *cis*-eQTLs across bulk (top), immune (middle), and tumor (bottom) models. Top *cis*-eGenes are labelled.



Figure S20: *Manhattan plot of cis-eQTLs across the genome in AA CBCS samples.*  $-\log_{10}P$ -values of eQTL association (Y -axis) across chromosomal position of *cis*-eQTLs across bulk (top), immune (middle), and tumor (bottom) models. Top *cis*-eGenes are labelled.



Figure S21: *Cross-referencing of bulk and tumor-specific CBCS EA cis-eGenes with GTEx.* Comparison of absolute effect sizes of eGenes with significant *cis*-eQTLs in EA CBCS (Y -axis) and GTEx (X-axis) over tissue type, stratified by bulk and tumor-specific eQTLs. eGenes are colored by the GTEx tissue that shows the eQTL with smallest  $P$ -value.



Figure S22: *Associations of CCR3 expression across clinical variables, subtypes, and mortality.* Violin plots of *CCR3* expression across breast tumor stage (A), estrogen status (B), and PAM50 molecular subtype (C).

## **References**

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