

Robust decomposition of cell type mixtures in spatial transcriptomics

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Supplementary Methods

Estimation of cell type means

We estimate $\hat{\mu}_{k,j}$ as the empirical mean of normalized expression of gene i in cell type $j \in J$ within the scRNA-seq reference:

$$\hat{\mu}_{k,j} \equiv \frac{1}{I_k} \sum_{i=1}^{I_k} \frac{Y_{i,k,j}}{N_{i,k}} \quad (1)$$

Here, I_k is the number of cells in reference of cell type k , $N_{i,k}$ is the number of UMIs of cell i of cell type k , and $Y_{i,k,j}$ is observed counts of gene j in this cell. If we assume there are many cells, then this will be an accurate and unbiased estimator of the true mean $\mu_{k,j}$.

Probabilistic model

In this section, we revisit our probabilistic model of spatial transcriptomics, deriving the Poisson sampling model from a more detailed independently-sampled unique molecular identifier (UMI) model. For each UMI, the source cell type is first probabilistically determined based on the cell type mixture proportions. Second, the gene is determined according to the probability vector of that cell type. Formally, for each pixel $1 \leq i \leq I$ and for each read $1 \leq n \leq N_i$, we select cell type $1 \leq \theta_{n,i} \leq K$ and gene $1 \leq z_{n,i} \leq J$ as:

$$P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta) = \beta_{k,i}, \quad P(z_{n,i} = j | \theta_{n,i}, \gamma, \varepsilon) = \delta_{i,\theta_{n,i},j} \quad (2)$$

Here, we define:

$$\log(\delta_{i,k,j}) = \alpha_i + \log(\hat{\mu}_{k,j}) + \gamma_j + \varepsilon_{i,j}, \quad (3)$$

$$\text{where } \gamma_j \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_\gamma^2), \quad \varepsilon_{i,j} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2), \quad \alpha_i \text{ fixed} \quad (4)$$

Similar to the probabilistic model of Latent Dirichlet Allocation [1], in the RCTD model, individual reads are sampled from a randomly chosen gene from a randomly chosen cell type. RCTD extends the LDA model with its introduction of platform effects λ_j and random effects $\varepsilon_{i,j}$ accounting for gene-specific overdispersion.

We define $\lambda_{i,j}$ (predicted gene probability) as:

$$\lambda_{i,j} \equiv P(z_{n,i} = j \mid \gamma, \varepsilon) = \sum_{k=1}^K \beta_{i,k} \mu_{k,j} \quad (5)$$

23 Multinomial to Poisson approximation

As a consequence of our model, conditional on $\lambda_{i,j}$, $Y_{i,j}$ is distributed as the Multinomial distribution:

$$Y_{i,j} = \sum_{n=1}^{N_i} \mathbb{I}[z_{n,i} = j], \quad (6)$$

$$Y_{i,1}, Y_{i,2}, \dots, Y_{i,J} \mid \lambda \sim \text{Multinomial}(N_i, \lambda_{i,1}, \lambda_{i,2}, \dots, \lambda_{i,J}).$$

We will now argue to approximate this distribution using:

$$Y_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(N_i \lambda_{i,j}), \quad (7)$$

24 thus justifying the use of the Poisson model by RCTD.

25 Given N_i reads, and each read occurs independently with $\lambda_{i,j}$ representing the probability of
 26 gene j , there are two ways of arriving at a Poisson approximation. First, we can assume that the
 27 number of UMIs N_i is a Poisson random variable rather than fixed. That is $N_i \sim \text{Poisson}(\mu_i)$, and
 28 $Y_{i,1}, Y_{i,2}, \dots, Y_{i,J} \mid N_i \sim \text{Multinomial}(N_i, \lambda_{i,1}, \lambda_{i,2}, \dots, \lambda_{i,J})$. It turns out that this formulation is
 29 equivalent to:

$$Y_{i,j} \stackrel{\text{ind}}{\sim} \text{Poisson}(\mu_i \cdot \lambda_{i,j}) \quad (8)$$

30 where the Poissonization of N_i leads to independence across genes [\[2\]\[3\]](#). Although μ_i is not known,
 31 it is approximately correct to estimate $\hat{\mu}_i = \sum_j Y_{i,j} = N_i$. This approximation is valid when μ_i is large
 32 because $\text{Poisson}(\mu_i)$ will have standard deviation $\sqrt{\mu_i}$ which will lead to a small percentage error. We
 33 are in the regime of large μ_i because we only consider pixels with $N_i \geq 100$.

A second approach is to assume that N_i is fixed (observed), and that,

$$Y_{i,1}, Y_{i,2}, \dots, Y_{i,J} \sim \text{Multinomial}(N_i, \lambda_{i,1}, \lambda_{i,2}, \dots, \lambda_{i,J}). \quad (9)$$

34 For counts-based gene expression data, this expression has been previously approximated as a Poisson
 35 distribution. Details have previously been provided in [\[4\]](#). In particular, this approximation is accurate
 36 when N_i is large and $\lambda_{i,j}$ is small. We do have that $N_i \geq 100$, and that for most genes $\lambda_{i,j}$ is small
 37 ($< 10^{-3}$ for e.g. 98.7% of genes used in the cerebellum Slide-seq from snRNA-seq predictions).

38 Role of α_i

39 We now provide further insight into the role of α_i . Briefly, the parameter α_i controls the overall rate of
 40 gene expression per pixel, and is equivalent to treating the number of UMIs, N_i , as a free parameter.
 41 While constraining $\alpha_i = -\sigma^2/2$ would enforce the mean gene counts to be $N_i \lambda_{i,j}$, we observed better
 42 model fits by leaving α_i unconstrained.

43 More precisely, α_i can best be understood as controlling, for pixel i , the probability that each read
 44 is in gene set $J = \{1, 2, \dots, J\}$, which represents a chosen subset of all genes.

$$P(z_{n,i} \in J) = \sum_j^J P(z_{n,i} = j \mid \theta_{n,i}, \gamma, \varepsilon_{i,j}) = \sum_j^J \delta_{i, \theta_{n,i}, j} \quad (10)$$

45 Considering that this sum will be a weighted sum of the cell types present, for simplicity, we will
 46 consider this sum for each cell type k . We can compute (for an individual pixel i and cell type k):

$$\sum_j^J \delta_{i,k,j} = \sum_j^J \hat{\mu}_{k,j} e^{\alpha_i + \gamma_j + \varepsilon_{i,j}} \quad (11)$$

Since $\hat{\mu}_{k,j}$ is the average observed expression of gene j in the scRNA-seq reference, we would have $\sum_j^J \hat{\mu}_{k,j} = 1$ if using all genes or $\hat{\mu}_{k,j} \equiv S_k < 1$ if using a subset of genes. Also since γ_j and $\varepsilon_{i,j}$ are independent normal random variables, their sum,

$$\beta_{i,j} = \gamma_j + \varepsilon_{i,j} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma^2), \quad \sigma^2 = \sigma_\varepsilon^2 + \sigma_\gamma^2, \quad (12)$$

47 is also normally distributed. Therefore:

$$\sum_j^J \delta_{i,k,j} = e^{\alpha_i} \sum_j^J \hat{\mu}_{k,j} e^{\beta_{i,j}} \approx e^{\alpha_i} \sum_j^J \hat{\mu}_{k,j} \mathbb{E}[e^{\beta_{i,j}}] = e^{\alpha_i} S_k e^{\sigma^2/2} \quad (13)$$

48 Where the above approximation will be with high probability accurate. One can prove that such
 49 an approximation is accurate with high probability using the same arguments that appear in the
 50 supplemental section “Quantitative bound for deviation of sum of independent random variables”.
 51 Lastly, we used the expectation of a lognormal distribution.

52 Now, we can see that assumption that is made about the summed probabilities $\sum_j^J \delta_{i,k,j}$, or,
 53 equivalently, the total probability of observing a gene in our set of selected genes $1 \leq j \leq J$. If
 54 one were to constrain $\alpha_i = -\sigma^2/2$, this would be equivalent to assuming that $\sum_j^J \delta_{i,k,j} = S_k$, that
 55 the total probability of the gene set is the same between the scRNA-seq reference and each spatial
 56 transcriptomics pixel. However, this assumption is not generally true, as can be seen by e.g. selecting
 57 genes in snRNA-seq and observing the proportion of those genes in scRNA-seq, within the same cell
 58 type. We often found that selecting for highly expressed genes in the snRNA-seq dataset tend to be in
 59 total less expressed in the target dataset/platform. As a result, we chose not to enforce the assumption
 60 that $\sum_j^J \delta_{i,k,j} = S_k$, but rather to allow α_i to be a free parameter that controls the total probability
 61 of observing a gene in this gene set. Although we chose this approach, we certainly think it is worth
 62 considering other approaches such as (1) constraining $\alpha_i = -\sigma^2/2$, (2) shrinking the estimates of α_i
 63 using an empirical Bayes procedure.

64 Platform Effect Normalization

65 The platform effects γ_i can be reliably estimated independently from the other parameters by summa-
 66 rizing the spatial transcriptomics data as a single *pseudo-bulk* measurement S_j :

$$S_j \equiv \sum_{i=1}^I Y_{i,j} \sim \text{Poisson}\left(\sum_{i=1}^I N_i \lambda_{i,j}\right) \quad (14)$$

where S_j are observed. Next, we calculate the rate parameter of this Poisson distribution:

$$\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[S_j|\gamma] &= \sum_{i=1}^I N_i \lambda_{i,j} = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{k=1}^K N_i \beta_{k,i} \delta_{i,k,j} = \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{i=1}^I N_i \beta_{k,i} \mu_{k,j} e^{\gamma_j + \alpha_i + \varepsilon_{i,j}} \\
&= e^{\gamma_j} \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_{k,j} \sum_{i=1}^I N_i \beta_{k,i} e^{\alpha_i} e^{\varepsilon_{i,j}} \\
&= I e^{\gamma_j} \bar{N} \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_{k,j} B_{k,j} \\
&\approx I e^{\gamma_j} \bar{N} \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_{k,j} \beta_k \beta_0
\end{aligned} \tag{15}$$

Where we have defined $\beta_0 \equiv \mathbb{E}[e^{\varepsilon_{i,j}}] = e^{\sigma_\varepsilon^2/2}$ as a fixed scaling constant (using lognormal expectation), $\beta_k = \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \frac{N_i}{\bar{N}} \beta_{k,i} e^{\alpha_i}$ is the average proportion of cell type k , and:

$$\bar{N} = \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I N_i \quad \text{and} \quad B_{k,j} = \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \frac{N_i}{\bar{N}} \beta_{k,i} \exp(\alpha_i + \varepsilon_{i,j}). \tag{16}$$

$B_{k,j}$ is a random variable that is approximately proportional to β_k :

$$B_{k,j} \approx \beta_k \beta_0.$$

This follows from the fact that $\mathbb{E}(B_{k,j}) = \beta_k \beta_0$, and $\text{Var}(B_{k,j})$ converges to 0 when I is large, which we show now. Consider k to be fixed. Because each $B_{k,j}$ is independently and identically distributed, if we can show that with high probability, $B_{k,j}$ does not deviate too much from $\mathbb{E}[B_{k,j}]$, then we can justify our approximation. The $e^{\varepsilon_{i,j}}$ are independently and identically lognormally distributed. For each j , $B_{k,j}$ is the sum of independent random variables. If we assume $N_i \alpha_i$ is bounded and that we have many samples I , then Chebyshev's inequality implies that for any $\delta > 0$, as $I \rightarrow \infty$,

$$P(|B_{k,j} - \mathbb{E}[B_{k,j}]| > \delta) \rightarrow 0 \tag{17}$$

67 A quantitative bound to (17) for finite I can be derived by Chebyshev's inequality (See "Quan-
68 titative bound for deviation of sum of independent random variables"). As such, we are justified in
69 making the approximation that $B_{k,j} \approx \beta_k \beta_0 \equiv \mathbb{E}[B_{k,j}]$ for all k, j .

Consequently, if we define $W_k = \beta_k \beta_0$,

$$S_j | \gamma_j \sim \text{Poisson} \left(I \bar{N} e^{\gamma_j} \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_{k,j} W_k \right), \quad \gamma_j \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_\gamma^2). \tag{18}$$

70 We can estimate W_k by viewing this as an (unconstrained) Poisson-lognormal mixture model. Our
71 procedure to calculate the MLE of W and σ_γ (\hat{W} and $\hat{\sigma}_\gamma$) is the same procedure used to fit RCTD,
72 which is described later (See fitting model (22)). Because the bulk Poisson mean is large for most
73 genes, the Poisson sampling is mostly negligible. Accordingly, with high probability:

$$\bar{S}_j \approx e^{\gamma_j} \sum_{k=1}^K \mu_{k,j} W_k \implies \gamma_j | \hat{W} \approx \log(\bar{S}_j) - \log \left(\sum_{k=1}^K \mu_{k,j} \hat{W}_k \right) \equiv \hat{\gamma}_j, \tag{19}$$

where we have defined $\bar{S}_j = S_j / (I \bar{N})$. This is an approximation, given that there will be some deviation of \hat{W} from the true W . We call this a normalization, because the effect of $\hat{\gamma}_j$ is to re-normalize the cell type means as:

$$\bar{\mu}_{k,j} = \mu_{k,j} e^{\hat{\gamma}_j} \tag{20}$$

74 **Sequential quadratic programming for MLE estimation of RCTD**

75 After estimating platform effects, we use RCTD to independently fit each spot as a weighted sum
 76 of cell types. Note that since γ_j has been replaced with a fixed estimate $\hat{\gamma}_j$, there are no shared
 77 parameters across different pixels i , except σ_ε . As such, we estimate $\beta_{k,i}$ independently for each pixel,
 78 given σ_ε . The parameter σ_ε is estimated by maximum likelihood via stochastic gradient descent (see
 79 “Estimating σ ”). The parameter α_i effectively allows us to re-scale β_i , so we define $w_{k,i} = \beta_{k,i}e^{\alpha_i}$,
 80 which will not be constrained to sum to 1. Next, define:

$$\bar{\lambda}_{i,j}(w_i) = N_i \sum_{k=1}^K w_{k,i} \mu_{k,j} e^{\hat{\gamma}_j} = N_i \sum_{k=1}^K w_{k,i} \bar{\mu}_{k,j} \quad (21)$$

We will refer to this as the predicted mean of gene j in pixel i . The final model is a Poisson-lognormal mixture model:

$$Y_{i,j} \mid \bar{\lambda}_{i,j} \sim \text{Poisson}(e^{\varepsilon_{i,j}} \bar{\lambda}_{i,j}(w_i)), \quad \varepsilon_{i,j} \sim \text{Normal}(0, \sigma_\varepsilon^2) \quad (22)$$

We estimate $w_i^* \geq 0$ as the solution that maximizes the log-likelihood $\mathcal{L}(w_i)$:

$$\max \mathcal{L}(w_i) = \sum_{j=1}^J \log P(Y_{i,j} \mid \bar{\lambda}_{i,j}(w_i)) \quad \text{subject to: } w \geq 0 \quad (23)$$

81 Since the log-likelihood is non-convex, we implement sequential quadratic programming to optimize
 82 quadratic approximations and iterate until convergence - typically less than 15 iterations. Since this
 83 is the same model as equation (18) in Platform Effect Normalization, we use the same optimization
 84 procedure for both models.

Here, we provide the Sequential quadratic programming (SQP) optimization procedure to optimize the log-likelihood of RCTD (equation (23)). From now on, we consider a fixed pixel i and suppress the notation of i . We can directly compute $P(Y_j \mid \bar{\lambda}_j)$ by integrating over the random effect ε_j :

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y_j \mid \bar{\lambda}_j) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_\sigma(z) P(Y_j \mid \lambda_j = \bar{\lambda}_j e^z) dz \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_\sigma(z) e^{-\bar{\lambda}_j e^z} \frac{(e^z \bar{\lambda}_j)^{Y_j}}{Y_j!} dz \\ &= Q_{Y_j}(\bar{\lambda}_j) \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

Here, p_σ is the probability density function of ε . From now on, for notational convenience, we will use λ_j to denote $\bar{\lambda}_j$. We have defined for $\ell \in \mathbb{Z}^+ \cup \{0\}$:

$$Q_\ell(\lambda) \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_\sigma(z) e^{-\lambda e^z} \frac{(e^z \lambda)^\ell}{\ell!} dz \quad (25)$$

We will estimate $w^* \geq 0$ as that which maximizes the log-likelihood $\mathcal{L}(w)$:

$$\max_w \mathcal{L}(w) = \sum_{j=1}^J \log P(Y_j \mid \lambda_j(w)) = \sum_{j=1}^J \log Q_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w)) \quad (26)$$

Our log likelihood is non-convex. To optimize it, we will apply Sequential Quadratic Programming, an iterative procedure that will be repeated until convergence. Let w_0 be the value of w at a given iteration, and let the gradient of $-\mathcal{L}$ be $b(w)$ and the Hessian of $-\mathcal{L}$ be $A(w)$. Then, we can make the following quadratic Taylor approximation to \mathcal{L} :

$$-\mathcal{L}(w) \approx -\mathcal{L}(w_0) + b(w_0)^T (w - w_0) + \frac{1}{2} (w - w_0)^T A(w_0) (w - w_0) \quad (27)$$

If we let $d = w - w_0$, then we get the following optimization problem to minimize our approximation of $-\mathcal{L}(w)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \min_d \quad & b(w_0)^T d + \frac{1}{2} d^T A(w_0) d \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & d + w_0 \geq 0 \end{aligned} \tag{28}$$

This is a constrained Quadratic Program (QP). There is one issue we must discuss. This QP will not be well behaved if the Hessian $A(w_0)$ is not positive semi-definite, which can occur due to the non-convexity of $-\mathcal{L}(w)$. As such, we employ an approximation which has been shown to be very effective in non-convex optimization [5]: we set $A(w_0)$ to be the positive semi-definite part of the hessian H of $-\mathcal{L}(w_0)$. Specifically, suppose we have an eigen-decomposition of H as:

$$H = V D V^T \tag{29}$$

Here, D is diagonal matrix of eigenvalues. We obtain the positive semi-definite part of H by taking $D^+ = \max(D, 0)$ and:

$$A = V D^+ V^T \tag{30}$$

Effectively, taking the positive semi-definite part of the Hessian will preserve the gradient information and keep the convex part of the quadratic Taylor approximation.

Given a solution of d^* , we set

$$w_0 + \alpha * d^* \rightarrow w_0 \tag{31}$$

Here, α is the step size, which we have set to 0.3. We repeat this process until convergence. This gives us a solution w^* minimizing $-\mathcal{L}(w)$. We define convergence as convergence of w_n , the value of w after n SQP iterations. Specifically, we say that RCTD has converged once:

$$\|w_{n+1} - w_n\|_1 = \sum_k |w_{n+1,k} - w_{n,k}| < \epsilon. \tag{32}$$

By default, we use $\epsilon = 0.001$. We tested RCTD (on a randomly chosen subset of 1,000 cerebellum Slide-seq pixels) with a smaller value of $\epsilon = 10^{-6}$, and we observed that this does not lead to a substantially different value of w . More precisely, the average L1 norm of the difference between the two solutions has mean 0.0022 and maximum 0.0047 (Supplementary Figure 25). We note that, although the quadratic approximation is only locally accurate, because the log-likelihood function is re-approximated at each step, w^* is guaranteed to optimize the function within a local neighborhood, that is, to be a local optimum. Furthermore, the parameter α encourages the algorithm to keep w close to the region where the local quadratic approximation is accurate. If α is too large, then convergence issues will be reached, but with $\alpha = 0.3$, we observed convergence of 100% of pixels in the Slide-seq cerebellum dataset.

In general, we do not have a guarantee that RCTD converges to the global minimum, since our likelihood function is nonconvex and could potentially have multiple local minima. While we cannot mathematically prove that RCTD obtains the global optimum, we obtained the following empirical evidence that RCTD does not get stuck in local minima. In particular, we have initialized the optimization at several randomly chosen initial values, and each one converged to the same local minima. On 50 randomly chosen pixels, we ran RCTD with 50 randomly chosen initial values, and RCTD always converged to the same solution, with maximum L1 norm error $4.0 * 10^{-6}$ (Supplementary Figure 25). The default initial condition is $w_{0,k} = 1/K$ for each cell type.

Returning to the computational aspects of implementing SQP, and recalling that $\lambda_j(w) = N w^T \bar{\mu}_j$, we will derive an expression for the gradient and hessian of $-\mathcal{L}(w)$:

$$\begin{aligned} b(w) = -\nabla L(w) &= -\sum_{j=1}^J \nabla \log Q_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w)) \\ &= -\sum_{j=1}^J \frac{Q'_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))}{Q_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))} N \bar{\mu}_j \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

Next, the Hessian:

$$\begin{aligned}
A(w) = \text{Hess}(-L(w)) &= - \sum_{j=1}^J \nabla \left(\frac{Q'_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))}{Q_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))} \right) \cdot N\bar{\mu}_j \\
&= - \sum_{j=1}^J \left(\frac{Q''_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))}{Q_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))} - \left(\frac{Q'_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))}{Q_{Y_j}(\lambda_j(w))} \right)^2 \right) \cdot (N\bar{\mu}_j)(N\bar{\mu}_j)^T
\end{aligned} \tag{34}$$

Consequently, computation of the gradient and Hessian will depend on computing the first and second derivatives of $Q_\ell(\lambda)$. Notice that:

$$\begin{aligned}
Q'_\ell(\lambda) &\equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_\sigma(z) \frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \left(e^{-\lambda_i e^z} \frac{(e^z \lambda_i)^\ell}{\ell!} \right) dz \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p_\sigma(z) e^{-\lambda_i e^z} \frac{(e^z \lambda_i)^\ell}{\ell!} \left(-e^z + \frac{\ell}{\lambda} \right) dz \\
&= \frac{1}{\lambda} \left(-(\ell+1)Q_{\ell+1}(\lambda) + \ell Q_\ell(\lambda) \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{35}$$

As such, we are able to express the derivatives of Q_ℓ in terms of Q_ℓ and $Q_{\ell+1}$! Likewise, we can compute:

$$\begin{aligned}
Q''_\ell(\lambda) &= \frac{1}{\lambda} \left(-(\ell+1)Q'_{\ell+1}(\lambda) + \ell Q'_\ell(\lambda) \right) - \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \left(-(\ell+1)Q_{\ell+1}(\lambda) + \ell Q_\ell(\lambda) \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{\lambda^2} \left((\ell+1)(\ell+2)Q_{\ell+2}(\lambda) - 2\ell(\ell+1)Q_{\ell+1}(\lambda) + \ell(\ell-1)Q_\ell(\lambda) \right)
\end{aligned} \tag{36}$$

Therefore, we have reduced the problems of computing the gradient and Hessian to the problem of computing $Q_\ell(\lambda)$ for all ℓ and λ . For each ℓ , we create a grid of potential λ values and compute $Q_\ell(\lambda)$. We store these results in a matrix, and for new λ values, we linearly interpolate to approximate $Q_\ell(\lambda)$.

Estimating σ

Finally, we address the issue of choosing σ (for both σ_γ and σ_ε) with the following procedure:

1. Initially set $\sigma = 1$.
2. Estimate the weights w for 500 pixels.
3. Compute the MLE σ^* of σ for these 500 samples given these values for w .

We note two differences in the estimation of σ_γ for the Platform Effect Normalization: there is only 1 bulk sample, so this is used, rather than 500 pixel, and more iterations over α_n are used below. The MLE for σ is found using stochastic gradient descent. We select σ to maximize the likelihood across all spots (with I samples):

$$\mathcal{L}(\sigma, w) = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J \log P(Y_{i,j} | \lambda_{i,j}) = \sum_{i=1}^I \sum_{j=1}^J \log Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j}) = \sum_{i,j} \log Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j}) \tag{37}$$

We alternatively maximizing \mathcal{L} with respect to each of σ and w , as described above. This is guaranteed to converge to a local minimum. In practice, the choice of σ does not affect the maximum likelihood weights w too much, so we typically see convergence of σ in a couple iterations. The stochastic gradient descent algorithm proceeds as follows:

1. Set $\sigma = \sigma_0$ initial value.
2. Set $\alpha_n = \frac{.0001}{n}$, and repeat the following for $1 \leq n \leq N_{\text{iter}}$:

3. For each $1 \leq i \leq I$, $1 \leq j \leq J$, update:

$$\sigma \leftarrow \sigma + \alpha_n \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \log Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j}) \quad (38)$$

The choice of α_n is to guarantee convergence to the global minimum since $\sum_n \alpha_n = \infty$, but $\sum_n \alpha_n^2 < \infty$. Traces of σ throughout this procedure imply convergence (Supplementary Figure 27). A typical choice for N_{iter} is 10. One remaining detail for this procedure is the calculation of $\frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \log Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j})$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} \log Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j}) &= \frac{1}{Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j})} \frac{\partial}{\partial \sigma} Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j}) \\ &= \frac{1}{Q_{Y_{i,j}}(\lambda_{i,j})} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial p_{\sigma}(z)}{\partial \sigma} e^{-\lambda_{i,j} e^z} \frac{(e^z \lambda_{i,j})^{Y_{i,j}}}{(Y_{i,j})!} dz \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

Finally, we must calculate $\frac{\partial p_{\sigma}(z)}{\partial \sigma}$. We define:

$$p_{\sigma}(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{C}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2\sigma^2}}, & |z| \leq 3\sigma \\ \frac{Ca}{\sigma(z/\sigma - c)^2}, & |z| > 3\sigma \end{cases} \quad (40)$$

122 Here, p_{σ} is a Normal Distribution, modified to be heavy tailed. The intuition here is that we want
 123 to allow for the (inevitable) possibility of outliers. Inverse square tails are almost as heavy tailed as
 124 possible for probability distributions. We choose c and a so that p_{σ} is continuously differentiable at the
 125 boundary $|z| = 3\sigma$. This results in $c = 7/3$ and $a = \frac{4}{9} e^{-9/2} / \sqrt{2\pi}$. C is a normalizing constant which
 126 is chosen to make p_{σ} integrate to 1. Note that these choices of constants hold for all σ . It follows that:

$$\frac{\partial p_{\sigma}(z)}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{-1}{\sigma} p_{\sigma}(z) + \begin{cases} \frac{z^2}{\sigma^3} p_{\sigma}(z) & |z| \leq 3\sigma \\ \frac{-2/\sigma^2}{z/\sigma - c} p_{\sigma}(z) & |z| > 3\sigma \end{cases} \quad (41)$$

127 Quantitative bound for deviation of sum of independent random variables

Here, we provide a quantitative bound for equation (17). Recall:

$$B_{k,j} = \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \frac{N_i}{\bar{N}} \beta_{k,i} \exp(\alpha_i + \varepsilon_{i,j}) \quad (42)$$

Recall we have independently lognormally distributed $e^{\varepsilon_{i,j}}$. For each j , $B_{k,j}$ is the sum of independent random variables. If we assume $N_i \alpha_i$ is bounded and that we have many samples I , then Chebyshev's inequality implies that for any $\delta > 0$:

$$\begin{aligned} P(|B_{k,j} - \mathbb{E}[B_{k,j}]| > \delta) &\leq \frac{\text{Var}(B_{k,j})}{\delta^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{(I\bar{N}\delta)^2} \sum_{i=1}^I (N_i \beta_{k,i} e^{\alpha_i})^2 \text{Var}(e^{\varepsilon_{i,j}}) \\ &\leq \frac{\max_{1 \leq i \leq I} (N_i e^{\alpha_i})^2 (e^{\sigma_{\varepsilon}^2} (e^{\sigma_{\varepsilon}^2} - 1))}{I\delta^2 \bar{N}^2}, \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

128 where we have used the variance of a lognormal distribution. Therefore, with high probability, $\beta_{k,j}$
 129 will not deviate far from its mean for large I .

130 **Expected cell type-specific gene expression**

Once β has been estimated, we probabilistically assign reads to cell types. This is accomplished by our model of sampling gene expression: for each pixel $1 \leq i \leq I$ and for each read $1 \leq n \leq N_i$, we select cell type $1 \leq \theta_{n,i} \leq K$ and gene $1 \leq z_{n,i} \leq J$ as:

$$P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta) = \beta_{k,i}, \quad P(z_{n,i} = j | \theta_{n,i}, \gamma, \varepsilon) = \delta_{i,\theta_{n,i},j} \quad (44)$$

Here, we define:

$$\log(\delta_{i,k,j}) = \alpha_i + \log(\hat{\mu}_{k,j}) + \gamma_j + \varepsilon_{i,j} \quad (45)$$

We can use Bayes' Theorem to calculate the probability that each read n of gene i came from cell type j in sample k . We assume that the reads are conditionally independent given $\beta, \gamma, \varepsilon$:

$$\begin{aligned} P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta, z_{n,i} = j, \gamma, \varepsilon) &\propto P(\theta_{n,i} = k, z_{n,i} = j | \beta, \gamma, \varepsilon) \\ &= P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta) P(z_{n,i} = j | \beta, \theta_{n,i} = k, \gamma, \varepsilon) \\ &= \beta_{k,i} \delta_{i,k,j} \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

This implies that:

$$P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta, z_{n,i} = j, \gamma, \varepsilon) = \frac{\beta_{k,i} \delta_{i,k,j}}{\sum_{k'=1}^K \beta_{k',i} \delta_{i,k',j}} = \frac{\beta_{k,i} \hat{\mu}_{k,j}}{\sum_{k'=1}^K \beta_{k',i} \hat{\mu}_{k',j}} \quad (47)$$

This conditional probability does not depend on γ, ε , since the ratio (across k) of $\delta_{i,k,j}$ is fixed. This implies (by tower law):

$$P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta, z_{n,i} = j) = \mathbb{E}_{\gamma, \varepsilon}[P(\theta_{n,i} = k | \beta, z_{n,i} = j, \gamma, \varepsilon)] = \frac{\beta_{k,i} \hat{\mu}_{k,j}}{\sum_{k'=1}^K \beta_{k',i} \hat{\mu}_{k',j}} \quad (48)$$

131 Therefore, we can use Equation (48) to calculate the probability that each UMI came from each
 132 cell type given $\beta_{k,i}$. Intuitively, this probability is a competition between different cell types and is
 133 proportional to (1) the proportion of the cell type on a spot and (2) the probability of observing the
 134 gene in the cell type for a single UMI. Consequentially, conditional on the observed gene counts, we can
 135 calculate in pixel i the expectation of gene j originating from each cell type k , $Y_{i,k,j}$, as proportional
 136 to the observed gene counts $Y_{i,j}$:

$$\mathbb{E}[Y_{i,k,j} | \beta, Y_{i,j}] = \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^I \mathbb{I}[\theta_{n,i} = k, z_{n,i} = j] | \beta, Y_{i,k}\right] = \frac{Y_{i,j} \beta_{k,i} \hat{\mu}_{k,j}}{\sum_{k'=1}^K \beta_{k',i} \hat{\mu}_{k',j}} \quad (49)$$

137 **Cell type identification by model selection**

138 Although we show that RCTD's default choice of $\delta = 10$ leads to high accuracy across several datasets,
 139 we offer the following guidance to the user in choosing a value of δ . In general, the user may plot
 140 the results of RCTD using multiple values of δ and observe the qualitative effect on accuracy. In
 141 particular, if $\delta = 10$ yields accurate results, but predicts few pixels confidently, decreasing δ may be
 142 considered. If $\delta = 10$ yields inaccurate results, the user can consider increasing δ . Accuracy can be
 143 heuristically measured using prior spatial knowledge or comparison of cell type predictions to marker
 144 genes. Because it is in general difficult to measure classification accuracy without ground truth cell
 145 type labels, we do not have a quantitative procedure for selecting the optimal δ for achieving a target
 146 classification accuracy.

147 **Modes of RCTD**

148 RCTD with doublet mode constrains each pixel to at most two cell types. RCTD can also be run
 149 without constraining the number of cell types per pixel. RCTD with doublet mode has been extended
 150 to *multi mode*, which predicts more than two cell types by proceed by greedy search: at each iteration,
 151 the next cell type is added that will best improve the model fit until diminishing returns are reached.
 152 Confidence is determined for each cell type by testing if there is an alternative cell type that will yield
 153 a similar model fit.

To quantitatively define *multi mode* for cell types $c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$, let $\mathcal{L}(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p)$ be the log-likelihood of the model fit with these cell types on a particular pixel. After selecting p cell types (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p) , in order to choose an additional cell type by greedy search, we select the next cell type maximizing log-likelihood:

$$c_{p+1} \equiv \operatorname{argmax}_c (\mathcal{L}(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p, c)). \quad (50)$$

Because we expect many pixels to contain few cell types, we then used a penalized approach similar to AIC [6] to decide the model \mathcal{M}_p containing the best number of cell types p . \mathcal{M}_p is defined as the model that cell types c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p are present on the pixel. We select p as maximizing,

$$\text{AIC}(\mathcal{M}_p) \equiv \mathcal{L}(\mathcal{M}_p) - Vp = \mathcal{L}(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_p) - Vp,$$

154 with p the number of parameters (cell types) and V a penalty weight. In the results presented here,
 155 we selected $V = 25$ based on simulation studies.

156 After selecting cell types, final cell type weights are estimated. To predict, for each Slide-seq pixel,
 157 the number of cell types present (Supplementary Figure 5), we ran RCTD on multi mode on the
 158 cerebellum Slide-seq dataset.

159 **Differing cell types between spatial data and reference**

160 To measure RCTD’s performance on pixels containing cell types other than those appearing in the
 161 reference, we focused on cross-platform prediction of single cells. We executed this by using the same
 162 12 cell types in the scRNA-seq dataset, but we removed several cell types from the reference training
 163 data. Recall that for the cerebellum dataset, cell classes are defined as {MLI1, MLI2}, {Polydenrocytes,
 164 Oligodendrocytes}, {Bergmann, Astrocytes}, and {Fibroblast, Endothelial}. First, we removed one
 165 cell type from each class: MLI2, Polydendrocytes, Bergmann, and Fibroblast. We observed that RCTD
 166 most often classified each missing cell type as the present cell type within the class (Supplementary
 167 Figure 11). Next, we tested RCTD by removing two cell types from each class, and measuring RCTD’s
 168 performance on predicting those cell types. This was done for each of {MLI1, MLI2}, {Polydenrocytes,
 169 Oligodendrocytes}, {Bergmann, Astrocytes}, and {Fibroblast, Endothelial}.

170 **Supplementary Table 1: Estimated Parameters**

Target Dataset	σ_γ	σ_ϵ
snRNA-seq Cerebellum	0	0.77
scRNA-seq Cerebellum	1.28	0.88
Slide-seq Cerebellum from snRNA-seq	0.94	0.95
Slide-seq Hippocampus	0.51	0.80
Visium Hippocampus	0.70	0.45
Slide-seq Cerebellum from scRNA-seq	0.61	0.76
Slide-seq Somatosensory Cortex (from Smart-seq2)	1.36	0.52

171

Supplementary Experimental Methods

Animal Handling

All procedures involving animals at the Broad Institute were conducted in accordance with the US National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals under protocol number 0120-09-16.

Transcardial Perfusion

C57BL/6J mice were anesthetized by administration of isoflurane in a gas chamber flowing 3% isoflurane for 1 minute. Anesthesia was confirmed by checking for a negative tail pinch response. Animals were moved to a dissection tray and anesthesia was prolonged via a nose cone flowing 3% isoflurane for the duration of the procedure. Transcardial perfusions were performed with ice cold pH 7.4 HEPES buffer containing 110 mM NaCl, 10 mM HEPES, 25 mM glucose, 75 mM sucrose, 7.5 mM MgCl₂, and 2.5 mM KCl to remove blood from brain and other organs sampled. The appropriate organs were removed and frozen for 3 minutes in liquid nitrogen vapor and moved to -80C for long term storage.

Tissue Handling

Fresh frozen tissue was warmed to -20 C in a cryostat (Leica CM3050S) for 20 minutes prior to handling. Tissue was then mounted onto a cutting block with OCT and sliced at a 5° cutting angle at 10 μm thickness. Pucks were then placed on the cutting stage and tissue was maneuvered onto the pucks. The tissue was then melted onto the puck by moving the puck off the stage and placing a finger on the bottom side of the glass. The puck was then removed from the cryostat and placed into a 1.5 mL eppendorf tube. The sample library was then prepared as below. The remaining tissue was re-deposited at -80 C and stored for processing at a later date.

Puck preparation and sequencing

Pucks were prepared as described recently using barcoded beads synthesized in-house on an Akta Oligopilot 10 according to the updated Slide-seqV2 protocol [2]. Pucks were sequenced using a monobase-encoding sequencing-by-ligation approach also described in the updated protocol. We used slide-seq tools for alignment and processing of Slide-seq data.

Pucks were generated using one of two separate bead batches with the oligo sequences listed below:

Batch 1:

5'-

TTT_PC_GCCGGTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCTACACGACGCTCTCCGATCTJJJJJJTCTTCAGCGTCCCGAGAJ
JJJJJTCNNNNNNNT25

Batch 2:

5'-

TTT_PC_GCCGGTAATACGACTCACTATAGGGCTACACGACGCTCTCCGATCTJJJJJJTCTTCAGCGTCCCGAGAJ
JJJJNNNNNNNVVT30

“PC” designates a photocleavable linker; “J” represents bases generated by split-pool barcoding, such that every oligo on a given bead has the same J bases; “N” represents bases generated by mixing, so every oligo on a given bead has different N bases; and “TX” represents a sequence of X thymidines. “V” represents bases which may contain A, C, G but not T.

Slide-seqV2 library preparation

RNA Hybridization:

Pucks in 1.5 mL tubes were immersed in 200 µL of hybridization buffer (6x SSC with 2 U/µL Lucigen NxGen RNase inhibitor) for 15 minutes at room temperature to allow for binding of the RNA to the oligos on the beads.

First Strand Synthesis

Subsequently, first strand synthesis was performed by incubating the pucks in RT solution for 30 minutes at room temperature followed by 1.5 hours at 52 °C.

RT solution:

115 µL H₂O

40 µL Maxima 5x RT Buffer (Thermofisher, EP0751)

20 µL 10 mM dNTPs (NEB N0477L)

5 µL RNase Inhibitor (Lucigen 30281)

10 µL 50 µM Template Switch Oligo (Qiagen #339414YCO0076714)

10 µL Maxima H- RTase (Thermofisher, EP0751)

Tissue Digestion:

200 µL of 2x tissue digestion buffer was then added directly to the RT solution and the mixture was incubated at 37 °C for 30 minutes.

2x tissue digestion buffer:

200 mM Tris-Cl pH 8

400 mM NaCl

4% SDS

10 mM EDTA

32 U/mL Proteinase K (NEB P8107S)

Second Strand Synthesis:

The solution was then pipetted up and down vigorously to remove beads from the surface, and the glass substrate was removed from the tube using forceps and discarded. 200 µL of Wash Buffer was then added to the 400 µL of tissue clearing and RT solution mix and the tube was then centrifuged for 2 minutes at 3000 RCF. The supernatant was then removed from the bead pellet, the beads were resuspended in 200 µL of Wash Buffer, and were centrifuged again. This was repeated a total of three

times. The supernatant was then removed from the pellet. The beads were then resuspended in 200 μ L of Exol mix and incubated at 37 °C for 50 minutes.

Wash Buffer:

10 mM Tris pH 8.0
1 mM EDTA
0.01% Tween-20

Exol mix:

170 μ L H₂O
20 μ L Exol buffer
10 μ L Exol (NEB M0568)

After Exol treatment the beads were centrifuged for 2 minutes at 3000 RCF. The supernatant was then removed from the bead pellet, the beads were resuspended in 200 μ L of Wash Buffer, and were centrifuged again. This was repeated a total of three times. The supernatant was then removed from the pellet. The pellet was then resuspended in 200 μ L of 0.1 N NaOH and incubated for 5 minutes at room temperature. To quench the reaction, 200 μ L of Wash Buffer was added and beads were centrifuged for 2 minutes at 3000 RCF. The supernatant was then removed from the bead pellet, the beads were resuspended in 200 μ L of Wash Buffer, and were centrifuged again. This was repeated a total of three times. Second Strand Synthesis was then performed on the beads by incubating the pellet in 200 μ L of Second Strand Mix at 37 °C for 1 hour.

Second Strand Synthesis mix:

133 μ L H₂O
40 μ L Maxima 5x RT Buffer
20 μ L 10 mM dNTPs
2 μ L 1 mM dN-SMRT oligo
5 μ L Klenow Enzyme (NEB M0210)

After Second Strand Synthesis, 200 μ L of Wash Buffer was added and the beads were centrifuged for 2 minutes at 3000 RCF. The supernatant was then removed from the bead pellet, the beads were resuspended in 200 μ L of Wash Buffer, and were centrifuged again. This was repeated a total of three times.

Library Amplification:

200 μ L of water was then added to the bead pellet and the beads were centrifuged for 2 minutes at 3000 RCF. The supernatant was then removed from the bead pellet and the beads were resuspended in 50 μ L of library PCR mix and moved into a 200 μ L PCR strip tube. PCR was then performed as outlined below:

Library PCR mix:

22 μ L H₂O
25 μ L of Terra Direct PCR mix Buffer (Takara Biosciences 639270)
1 μ L of Terra Polymerase (Takara Biosciences 639270)
1 μ L of 100 μ M Truseq PCR primer (IDT)
1 μ L of 100 μ M SMART PCR primer (IDT)

PCR program:

95 °C 3 minutes

4 cycles of:

98 °C 20 seconds

65 °C 45 seconds

72 °C 3 minutes

9 cycles of:

98 °C 20 seconds

67 °C 20 seconds

72 °C 3 minutes

Then:

72 °C 5 minutes

Hold at 4 °C

PCR cleanup and Nextera Tagmentation:

Samples were cleaned with Ampure XP (Beckman Coulter A63880) beads in accordance with manufacturer's instructions at a 0.6x bead/sample ratio (30 µL of beads to 50 µL of sample) and resuspended in 50 µL of water. The cleanup procedure was repeated, this time resuspending in a final volume of 10 µL. 1 µL of the library was quantified on an Agilent Bioanalyzer High sensitivity DNA chip (Agilent 5067-4626). Then, 600 pg of cDNA was taken from the PCR product and prepared into Illumina sequencing libraries through tagmentation using the Nextera XT kit (Illumina FC-131-1096). Tagmentation was performed according to manufacturer's instructions and the library was amplified with primers Truseq5 and N700 series barcoded index primers. The PCR program was as follows:

PCR program:

72 °C for 3 minutes

95 °C for 30 seconds

12 cycles of:

95 °C for 10 seconds

55 °C for 30 seconds

72 °C for 30 seconds

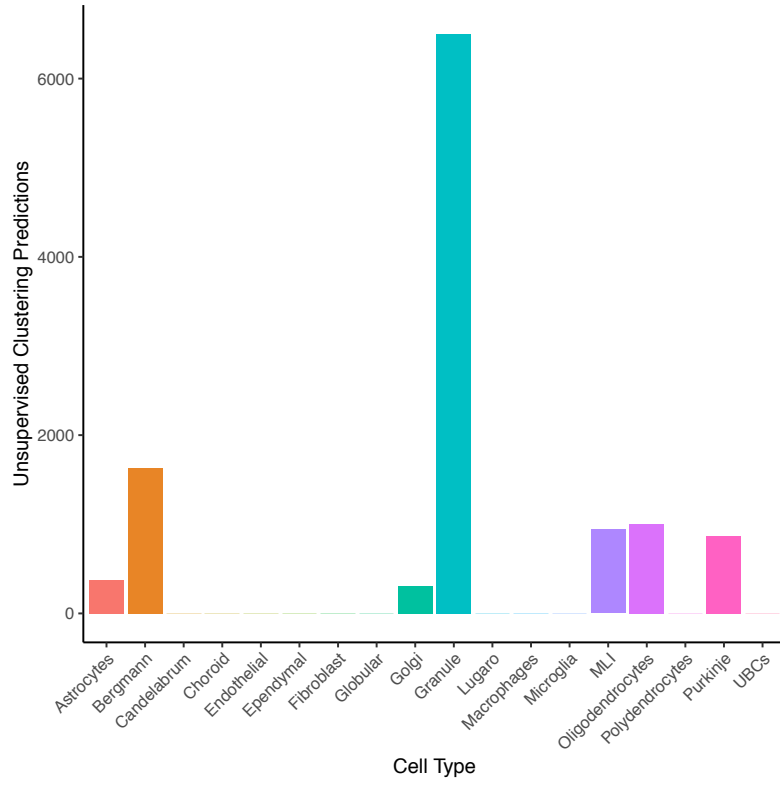
72 °C for 5 minutes

Hold at 4 °C

Samples were cleaned with Ampure XP (Beckman Coulter A63880) beads in accordance with manufacturer's instructions at a 0.6x bead/sample ratio (30 µL of beads to 50 µL of sample) and resuspended in 10 µL of water. 1 µL of the library was quantified on an Agilent Bioanalyzer High sensitivity DNA chip (Agilent 5067-4626). Finally, the library concentration was normalized to 4 nM for sequencing. Samples were sequenced on the Illumina NovaSeq S2 flowcell 100 cycle kit with 12 samples per run (6 samples per lane) with the read structure 44 bases Read 1, 8 bases i7 index read, 50 bases Read 2. Each puck received approximately 200-400 million reads, corresponding to 3,000-5,000 reads per bead.

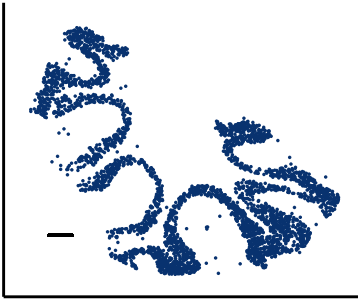
¹⁷⁴ **Supplementary Figures**

a)

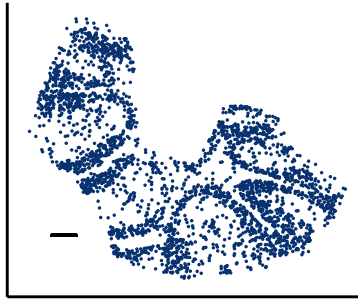


b)

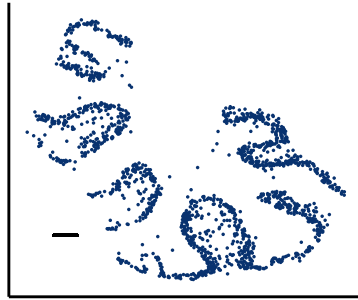
Granule 1



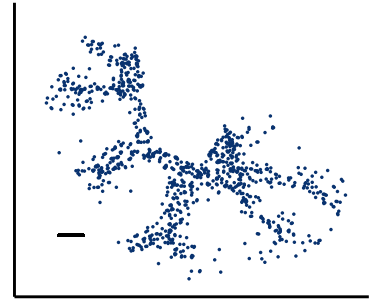
Granule 2



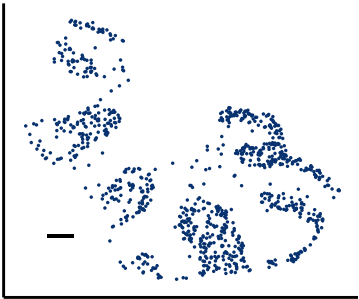
Bergmann



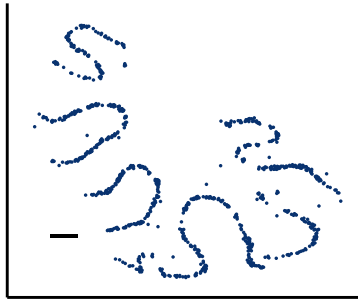
Oligo



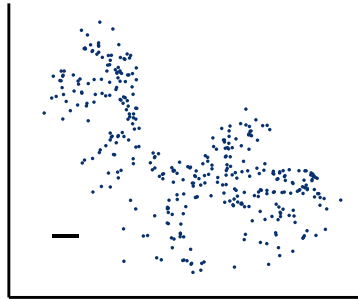
MLI



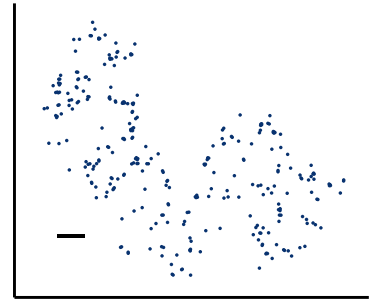
Purkinje



Astrocytes



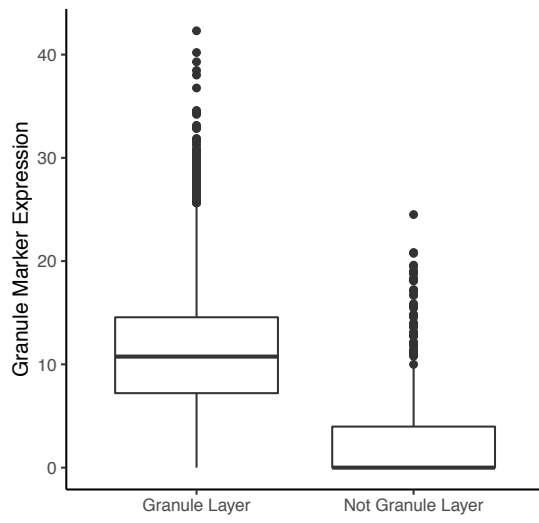
Golgi



Supplementary Figure 1: Predicted spatial localization of cell types by unsupervised clustering in Slide-seq cerebellum.

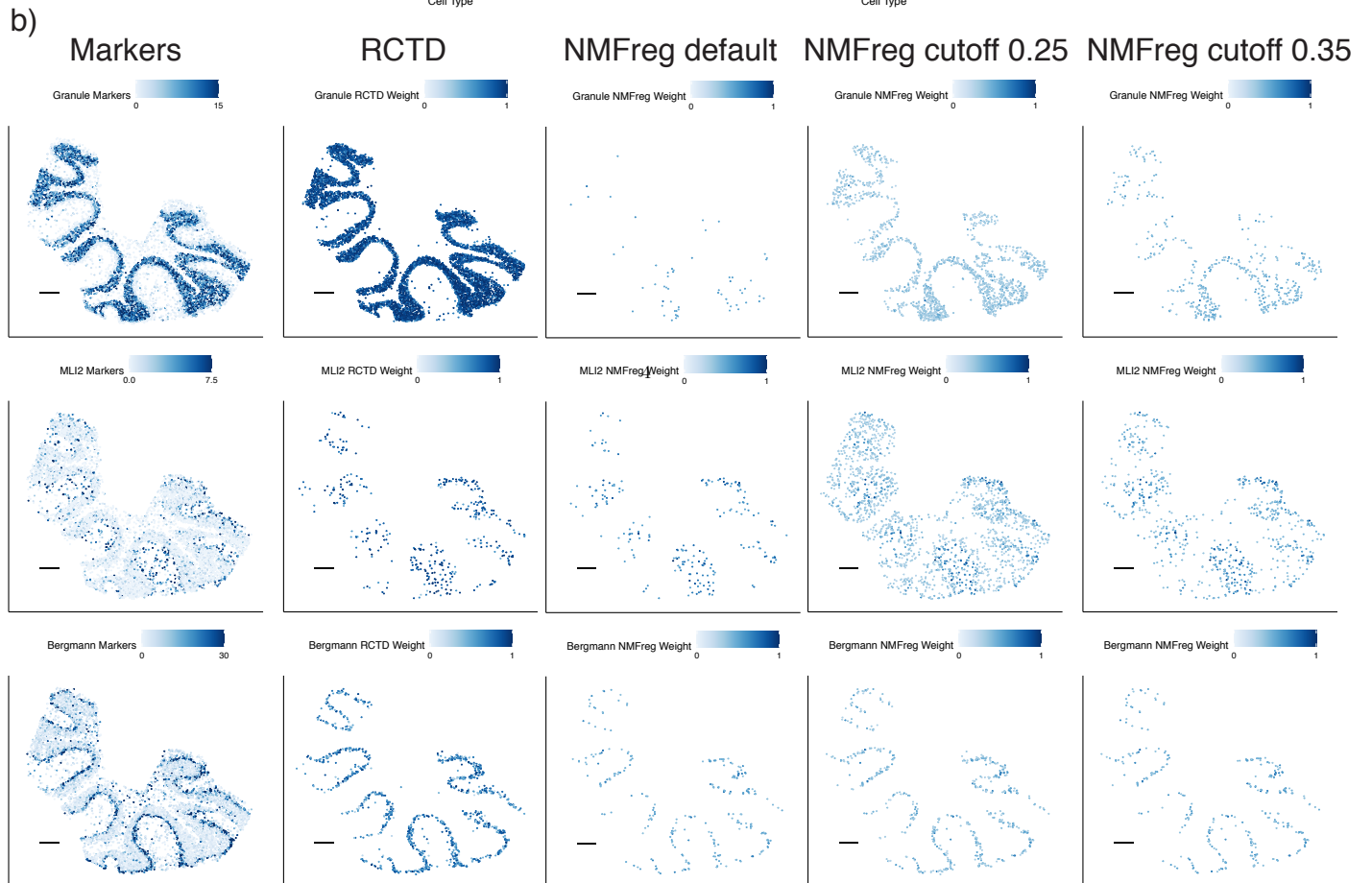
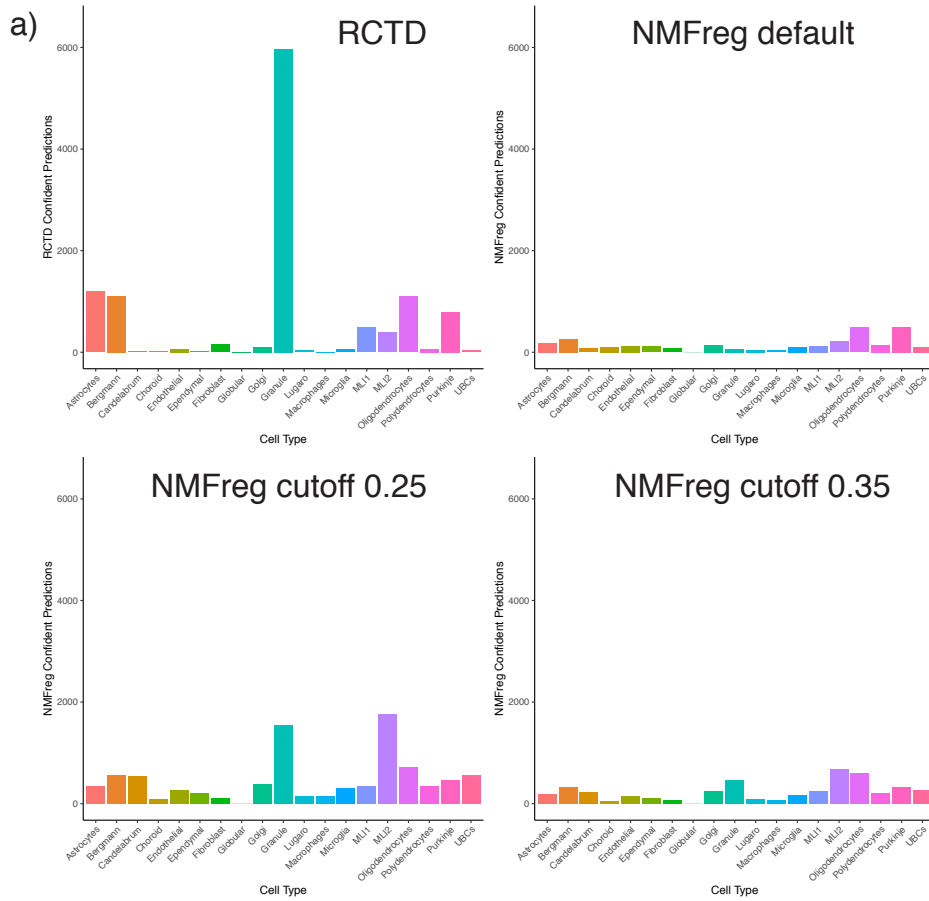
- a) Barplot of counts for predicted pixels assigned to each cell type. Calls obtained unsupervised clustering. Note that there are two granule clusters, and only 1 cluster for both MLI1 and MLI2.
- b) Predicted spatial locations of each cell type by unsupervised clustering.

All scale bars 250 microns.



Supplementary Figure 2: Expression of Granule Markers within Unsupervised Clustering Classifications

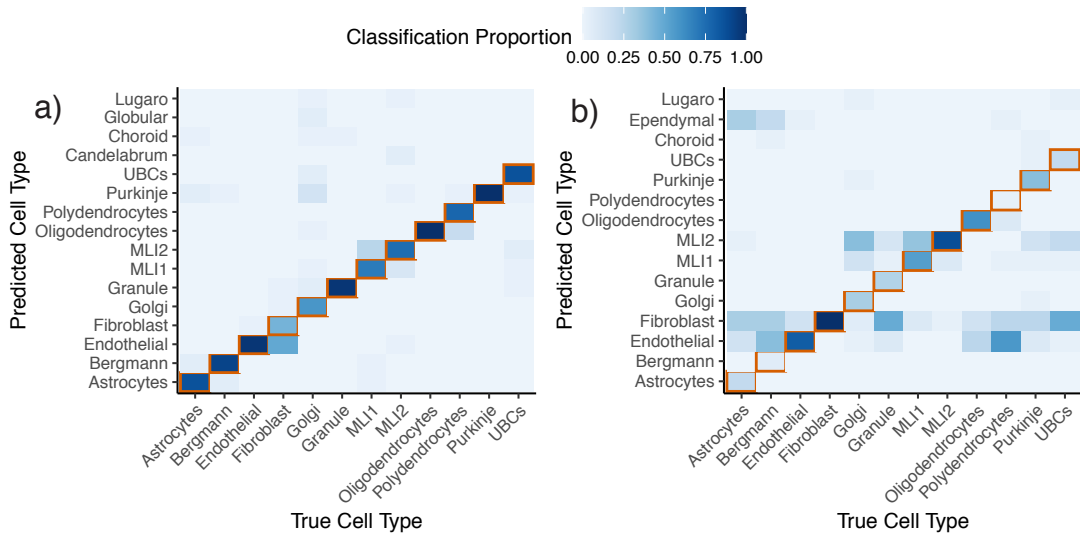
Boxplot of granule marker expression within pixels classified as granule by unsupervised clustering. Pixels were split into pixels within and outside the granule layer.



Supplementary Figure 3: Comparison of NMFreg and RCTD.

- a) Barplot of counts for confidently predicted pixels assigned to each cell type. Calls obtained by RCTD (top left) or NMFreg (other three panels). NMFreg confidence was determined either by default (top right), or by a constant proportion cutoff of 0.25 (bottom left) or 0.35 (bottom right).
- b) Confidently predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD and NMFreg for granule, molecular layer interneurons 2 (MLI2), and Bergmann. Left: expression (counts per 500) (represented by color) of marker genes. Middle: predicted spatial locations of a cell type by RCTD, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. Column 2: predicted spatial locations of a cell type by NMFreg, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. NMFreg underpredicted granule cells in the granular layer and instead incorrectly overpredicted MLI2 in this layer [8](#). NMFreg confidence was determined either by default (column 3), or by a constant proportion cutoff of 0.25 (column 4) or 0.35 (column 5).

All scale bars 250 microns.

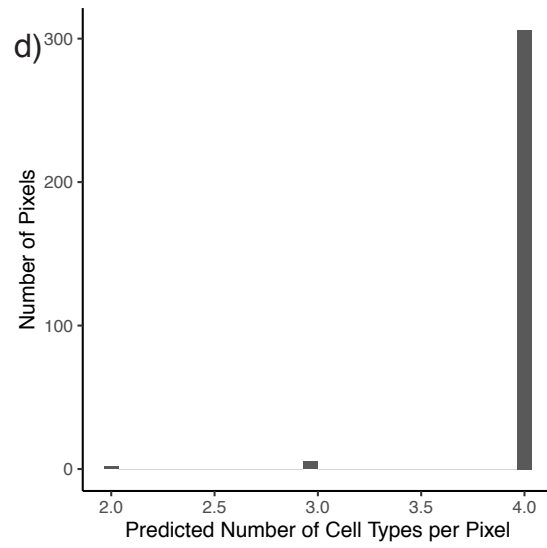
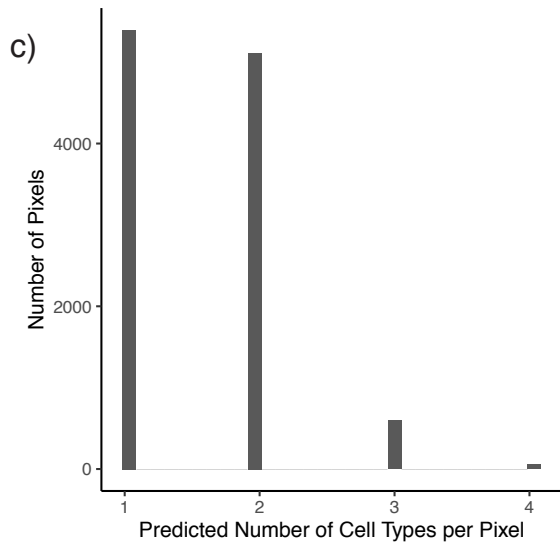
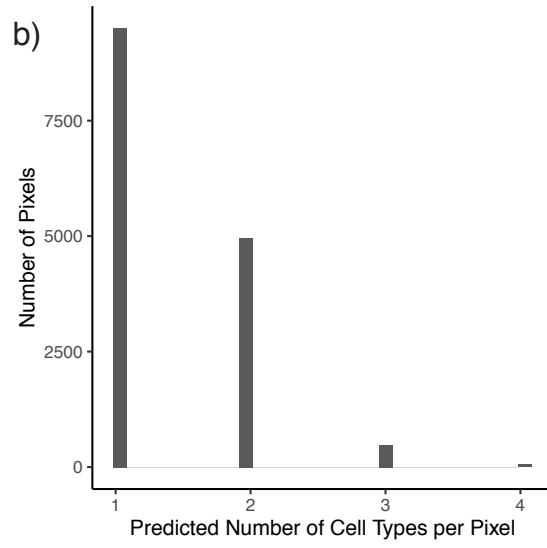
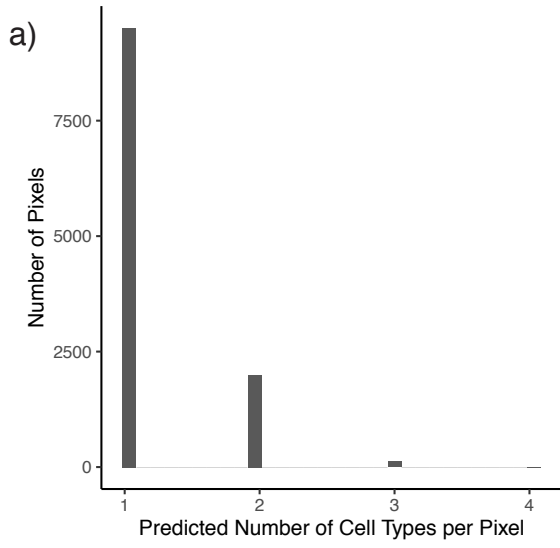


Supplementary Figure 4: Performance of DWLS on cell type classification.

All panels: confusion matrix of DWLS cell type predictions, as compared to ground truth labels.

a) DWLS was trained and tested on the single-nucleus cerebellum reference.

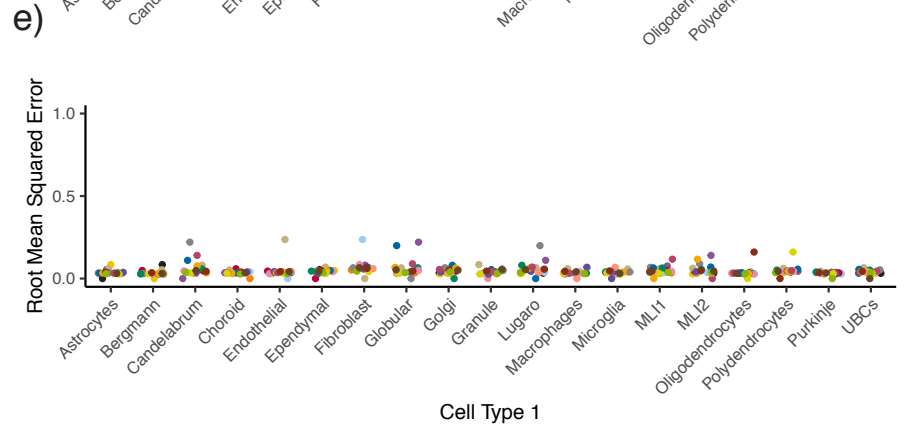
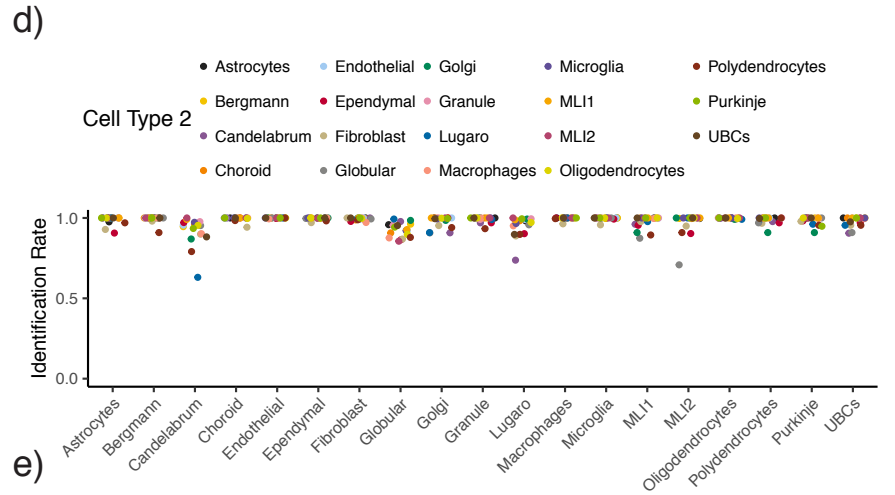
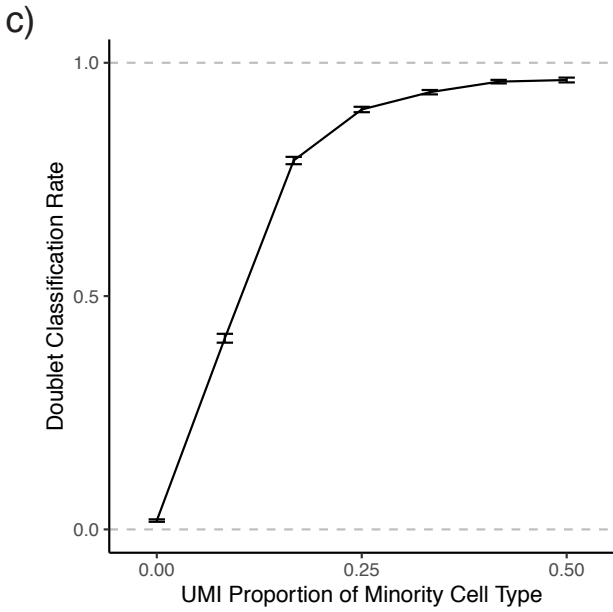
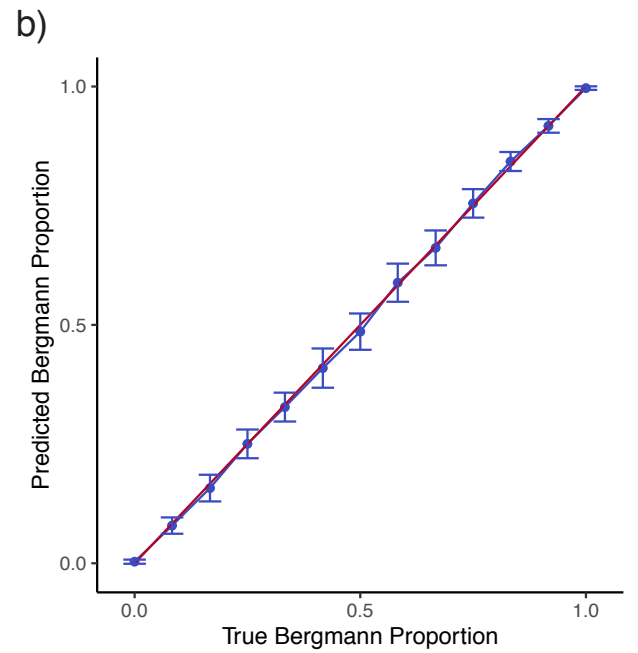
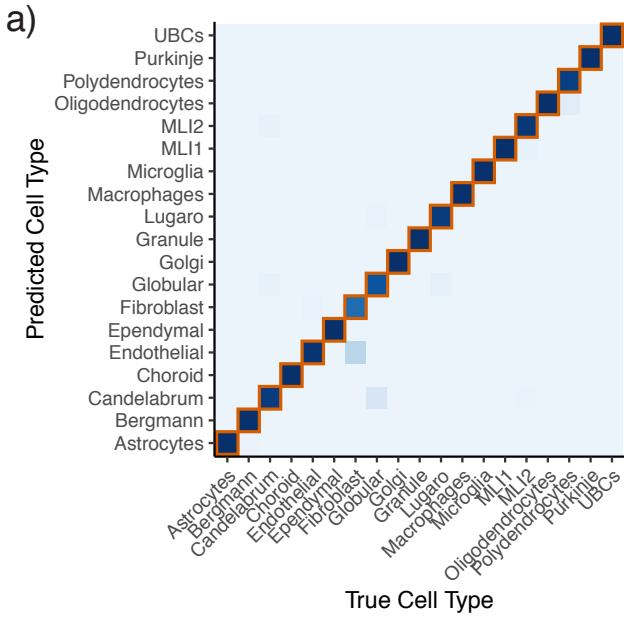
b) DWLS was trained on single-nucleus and tested on single-cell.



Supplementary Figure 5: Number of cell types per Slide-seq cerebellum pixel.

Histogram of number of cell types per spatial transcriptomic pixel, estimated by RCTD with multi mode.

- a) Slide-seq cerebellum. In total, 1.1% of pixels were predicted to contain more than two cell types, consistent with previous estimates of Slide-seq data [9](#).
- b) Slide-seq hippocampus. In total, 3.6% of pixels were predicted to contain more than two cell types.
- c) Slide-seq somatosensory cortex. In total, 5.8% of pixels were predicted to contain more than two cell types.
- d) Visium hippocampus. In total, 99.3% of pixels were predicted to contain more than two cell types.

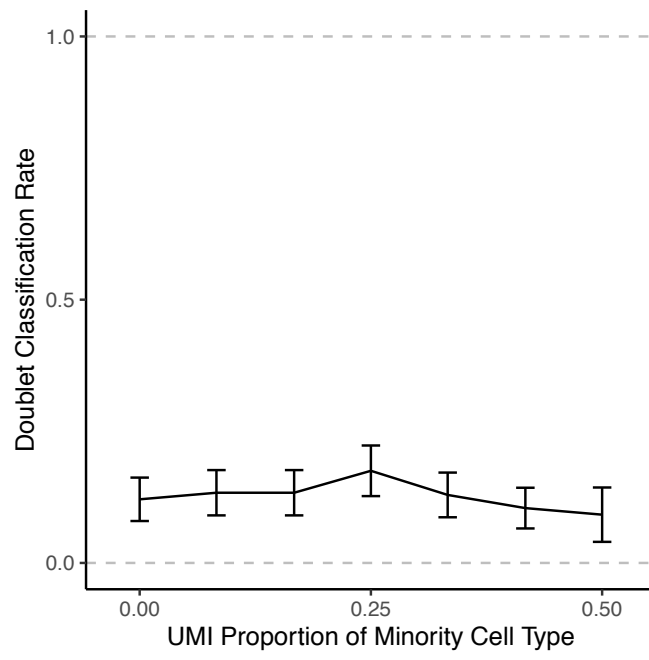


Supplementary Figure 6: Robust Cell Type Decomposition (RCTD) accurately decomposes mixtures of cells.

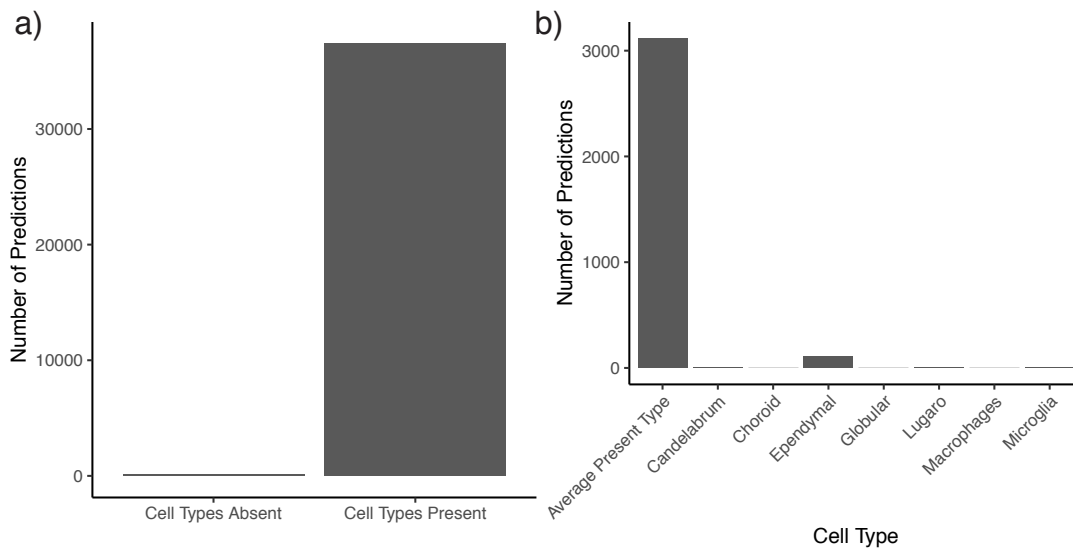
All: RCTD was trained on the single-nucleus RNA-seq cerebellum dataset and tested on a the same dataset.

- a) Confusion matrix for RCTD on within-reference cell type assignment for single cells.
- b) Rate of doublet classification of simulated mixtures of single cells, with 95% confidence intervals. The x-axis represents the proportion of UMIs sourced from the minority cell type, ranging from 0% (true singlet) to 50% (full doublet) (n between 5130 and 10260 simulations per condition).
- c) Predicted Bergmann proportion as a function of true Bergmann proportion on simulated Bergmann-Purkinje doublets. The red line is the identity line, and the blue line is the average and standard deviation ($n = 30$ simulations per condition) of prediction.
- d) Metrics for performance of RCTD on simulated doublets ($n = 390$ simulations per cell type pair). Column represents cell type 1, and color represents cell type 2. Top: RCTD assigns doublets to two cell types. Identification rate is the percentage of confident calls correctly identifying cell class 1.
- e) Bottom: RMSE of predicted vs true cell type proportion (as in (c)).

All scale bars 250 microns.



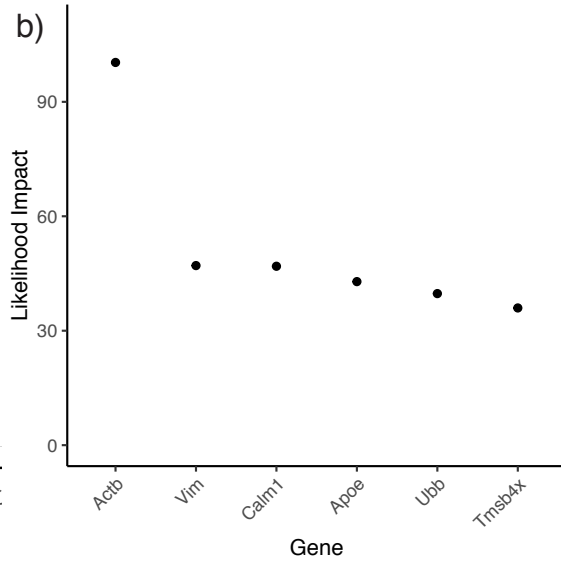
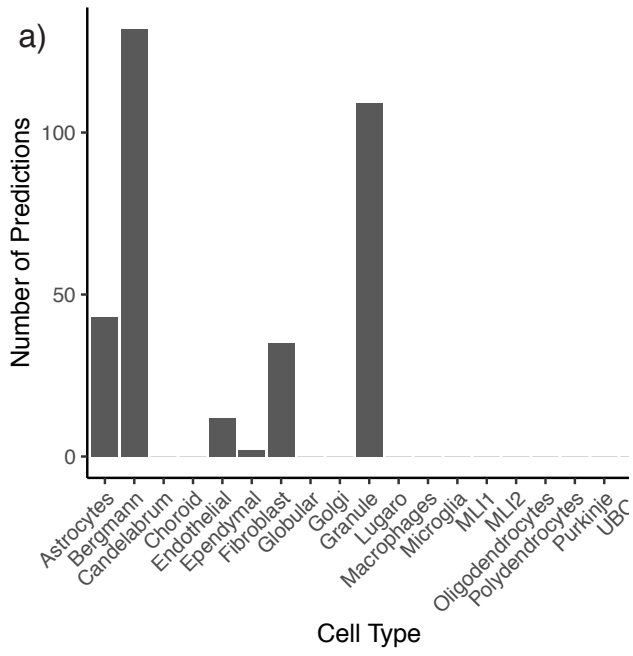
Supplementary Figure 7: Doublet classification of pixels with two transcriptionally similar cell types. Rate of doublet classification by RCTD on simulated mixtures of single cells, with 95% confidence intervals. The x-axis represents the true proportion of UMIs sampled from the minority cell type, ranging from 0% (true singlet) to 50% (equal proportion doublet). RCTD was trained on the single-nucleus RNA-seq cerebellum dataset and tested on a dataset of simulated mixtures of single cells from a single-cell RNA-seq cerebellum dataset. We restricted the calculations to pixels containing two cell types of the same cell type class, defined as {Astrocytes, Bergmann}, {Endothelial, Fibroblast}, {MLI1, MLI2}, and {Oligodendrocytes, Polydendrocytes}.



Supplementary Figure 8: Performance of RCTD on Cell Types that do not appear in the Spatial Data

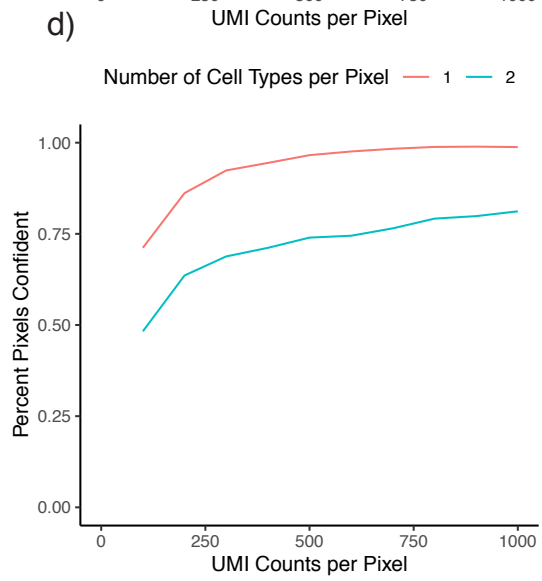
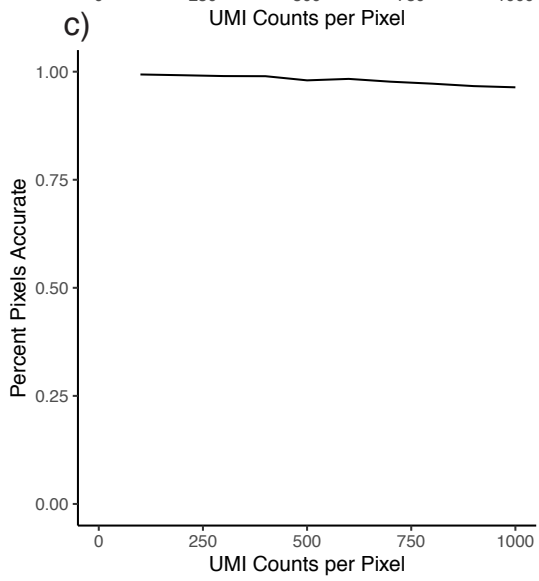
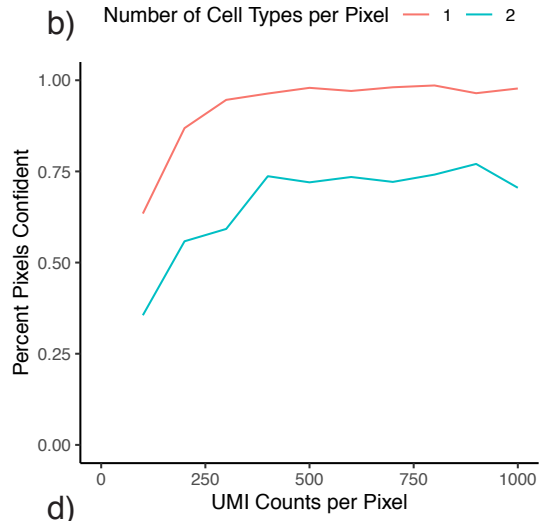
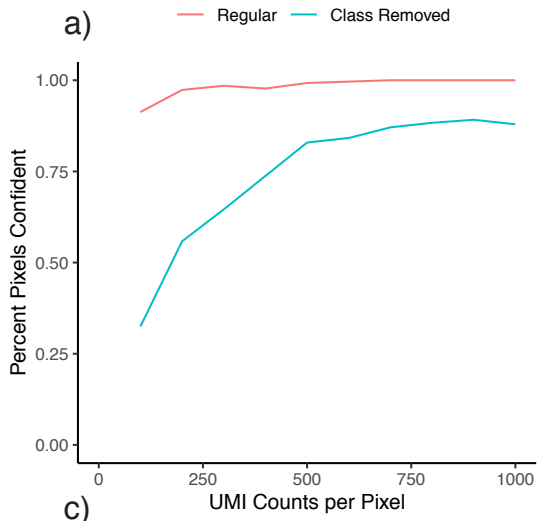
- a) Barplot of confident cell type prediction. “Cell Types Absent” represent cell types appearing in the reference but not the spatial data, whereas “Cell Types Present” represent cell types appearing in the spatial data and reference.
- b) The same as (a), but broken down by cell type not appearing in the spatial data. For comparison “Average Present Type” is the average number of predictions of a cell type appearing in the spatial data.

All analysis occurs on the simulated cerebellum doublets dataset (trained on snRNA-seq, tested on scRNA-seq).



Supplementary Figure 9: Misclassification errors of RCTD on true Bergmann-Granule doublet pixels. All panels: RCTD was trained on single-nucleus cerebellum and tested on single-cell simulated doublets. Analysis constrained to doublets containing a Bergmann cell and a granule cell.

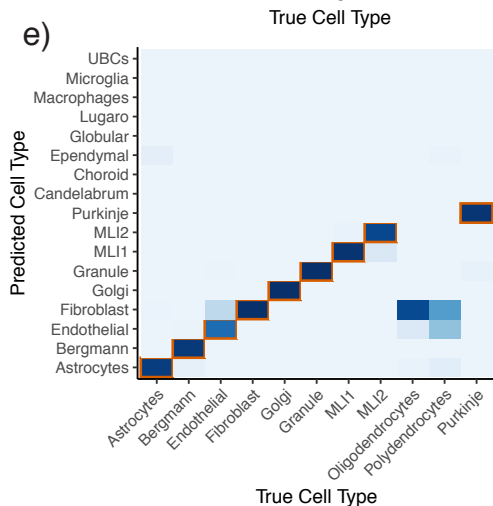
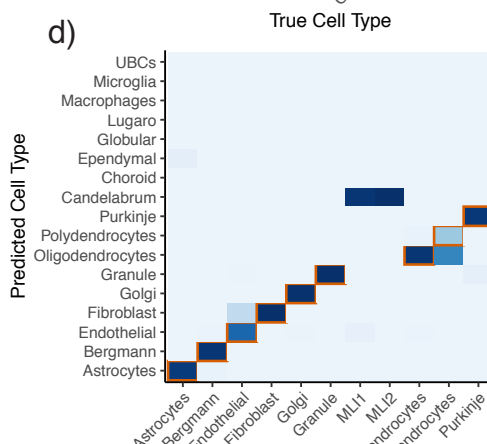
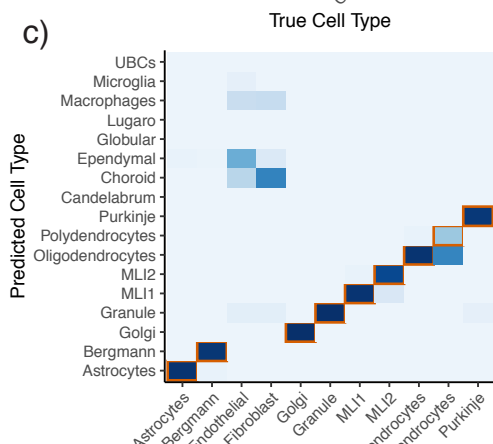
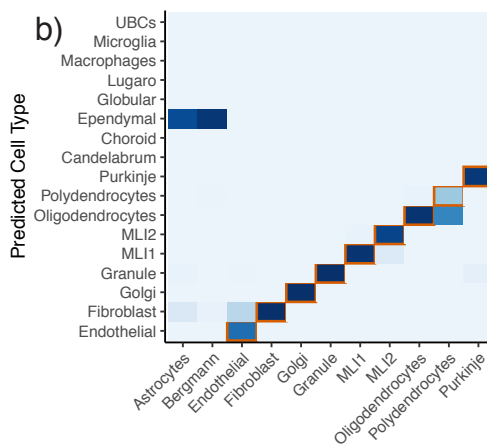
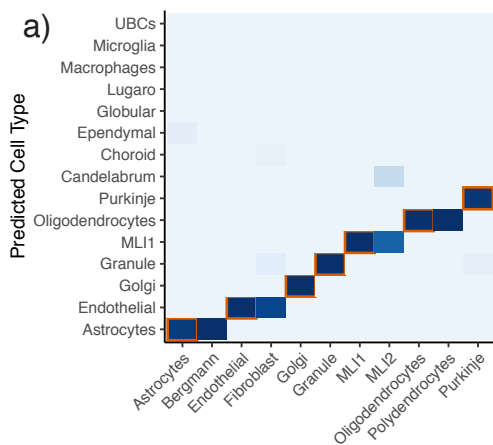
- a) Histogram of cell type predictions made by RCTD.
- b) The most frequent misclassification in (a) was Fibroblast. The genes with the largest impact on likelihood for these pixels, favoring Fibroblast over granule. “Likelihood Impact” is defined as the difference in the log-likelihood for the gene between the Fibroblast and granule models.



Supplementary Figure 10: Performance of RCTD as a function of number of UMIs.
For simulated datasets, pixels were downsampled for each UMI condition.

- a) Percentage of single-cells predicted confidently as a function of UMI. Performance measured on cross-platform single-cell dataset (trained on single-nucleus, tested on single-cell). For “class-removed”, the testing cell class was removed from the reference. Performance is averaged over {Astrocytes, Bergmann, Endothelial, Fibroblast, MLI1, MLI2, Oligodendrocytes, Polydendrocytes}.
- b) Percentage of pixels predicted confidently as a function of UMI in the cerebellum Slide-seq dataset. Pixels are binned with binwidth 100 UMI. Percentage of cell types with ≥ 1 confident cell type and percentage of doublets with 2 confident cell types is shown.
- c) Cell class prediction accuracy as a function of UMI per pixel. Performance measured on simulated doublets dataset (trained on single-nucleus, tested on single-cell). Restricted to confident predictions.
- d) Percentage of pixels predicted confidently as a function of UMI. Performance measured on simulated doublets dataset (trained on single-nucleus, tested on single-cell). Percentage of cell types with ≥ 1 confident cell type and percentage of doublets with 2 confident cell types is shown.

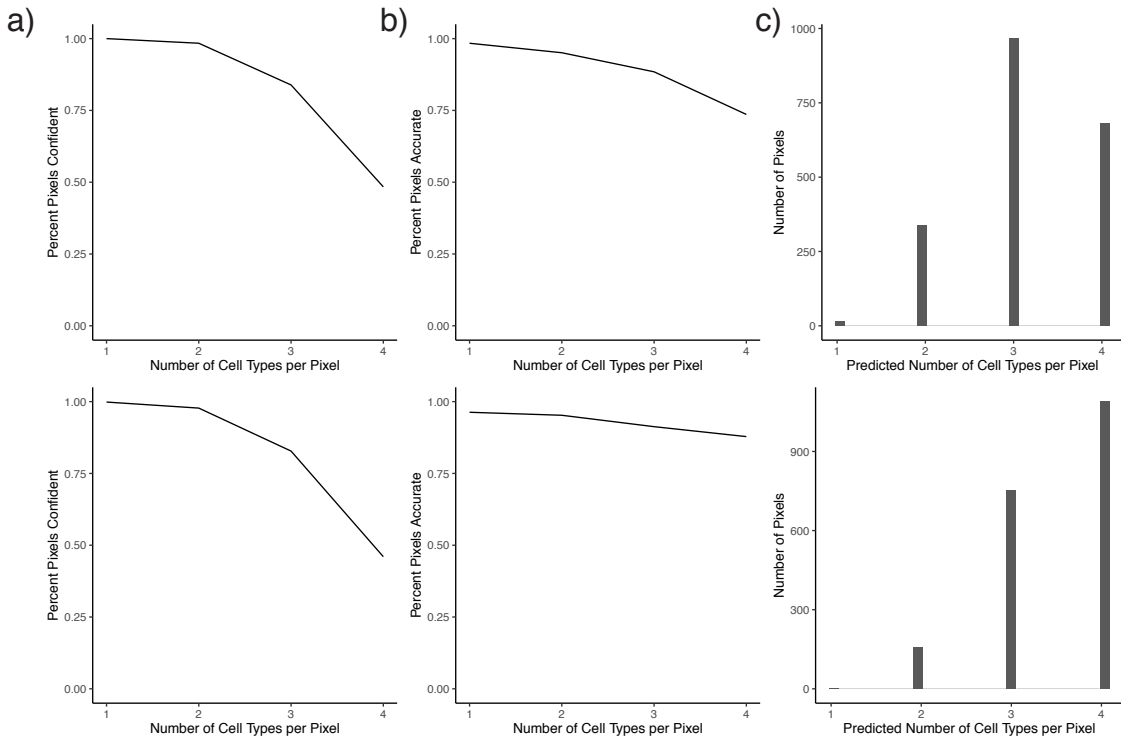
Classification Proportion
0.00 0.25 0.50 0.75 1.00



Supplementary Figure 11: Performance of RCTD on Cell Types that do not appear in the Reference
All panels: confusion matrix for RCTD on cross-reference cell type assignment for single cells. Recall, cell classes are defined as {Astrocytes, Bergmann}, {Endothelial, Fibroblast}, {MLI1, MLI2}, and {Oligodendrocytes, Polydendrocytes}. RCTD is trained on the single-nucleus cerebellum dataset, with cell types removed as follows:

- a) Cell types removed (one from each class): {Bergmann, Fibroblast, MLI2, Polydendrocytes}.
- b) Cell types removed (two from one class): {Astrocytes, Bergmann}.
- c) Cell types removed (two from one class): {Endothelial, Fibroblast}.
- d) Cell types removed (two from one class): {MLI1, MLI2}.
- e) Cell types removed (two from one class): {Oligodendrocytes, Polydendrocytes}.

Four Cell Types per Pixel Three Cell Types per Pixel

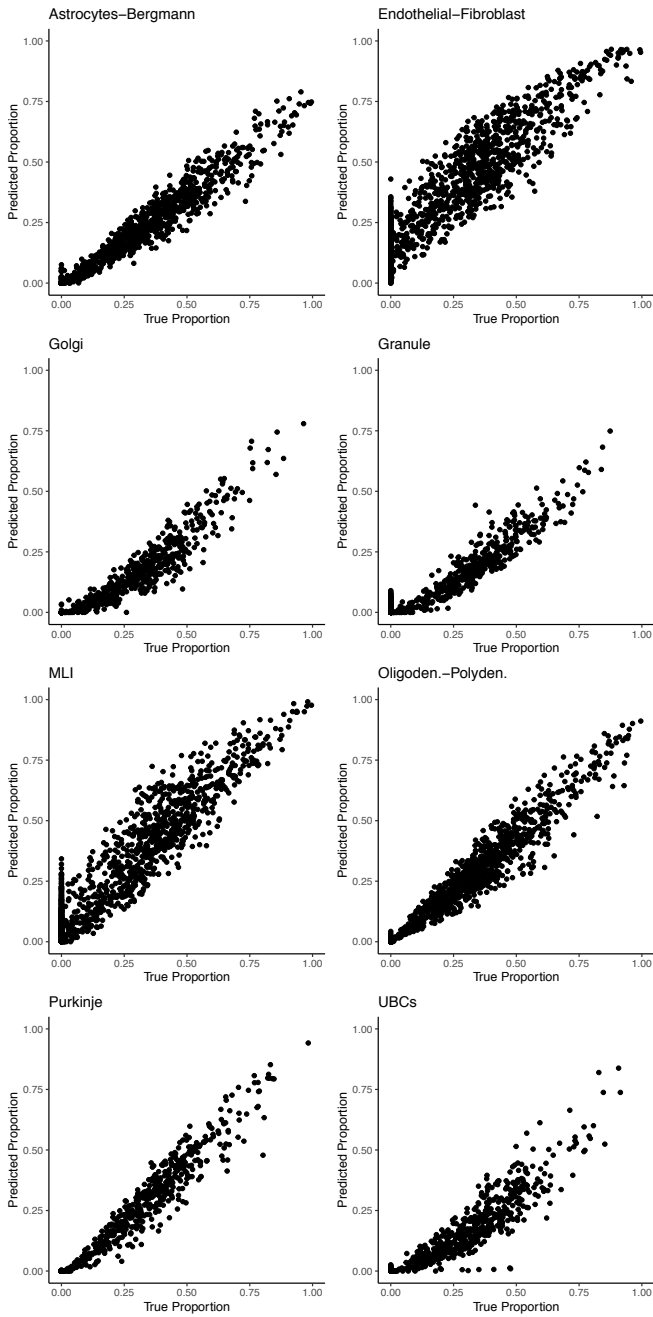


Supplementary Figure 12: Performance of RCTD on simulated Visium dataset.

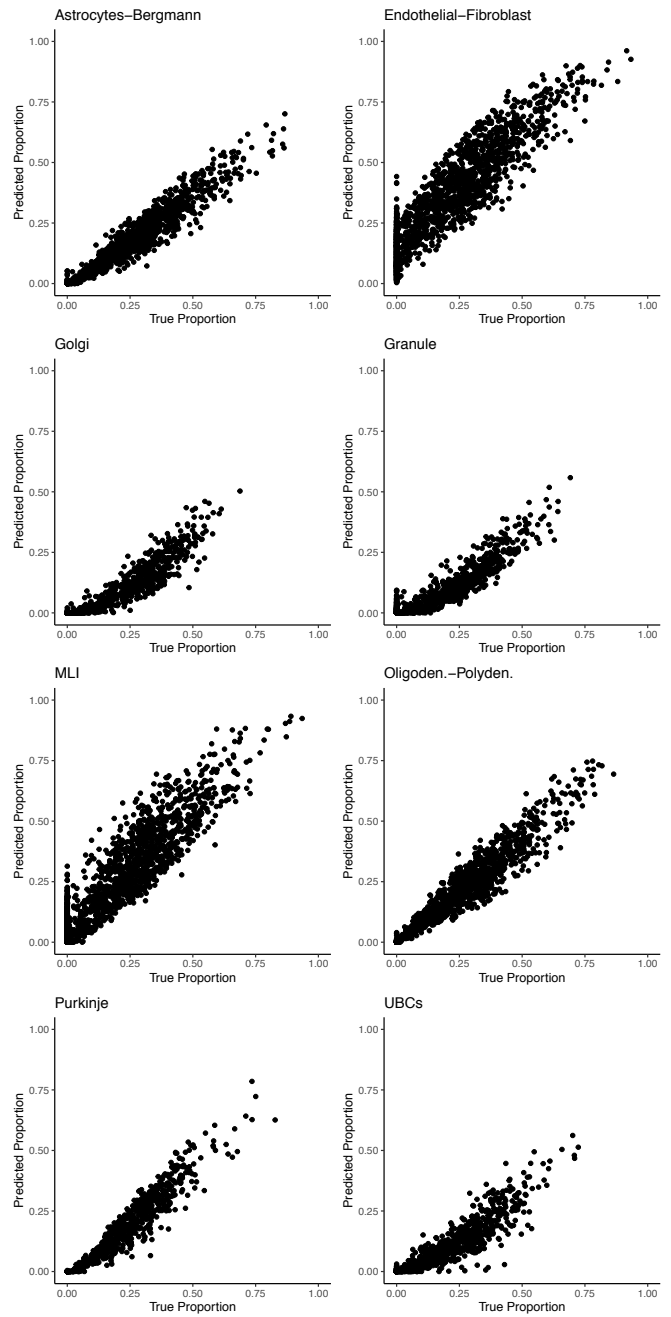
All panels: RCTD was trained on single-nucleus cerebellum and tested on single-cell. Simulated Visium dataset consisted of pixels comprised of multiple cells totaling 10,000 UMIs. Each pixel in the dataset contained either three cell types (top row) or four cell types (bottom row). RCTD was run on multi mode.

- a) For each number of cell types, the proportion of pixels confidently predicting at least as many cell types. Calculated over pixels predicted to contain at least as many cell types.
- b) RCTD cell class prediction accuracy as a function of number of cell types confidently predicted per pixel. We observed that RCTD with multi mode achieved high accuracy on cell class prediction. Overall accuracy was 87.7% for the three cell type dataset and 91.0% for the four cell type dataset.
- c) Histogram of total cell types predicted per pixel.

Three Cell Types per Pixel



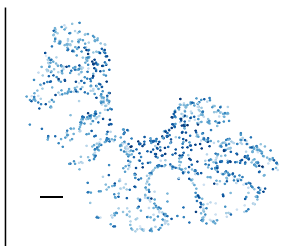
Four Cell Types per Pixel



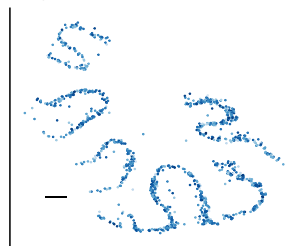
Supplementary Figure 13: RCTD predictions on simulated Visium dataset. Scatterplot of true vs. predicted cell class proportions by RCTD. RCTD was trained on single-nucleus cerebellum and tested on single-cell. Simulated Visium dataset consisted of pixels comprised of multiple cells totaling 10,000 UMIs. Each pixel in the dataset contained either three cell types (left column) or four cell types (right column). RCTD was run without constraining cell types.



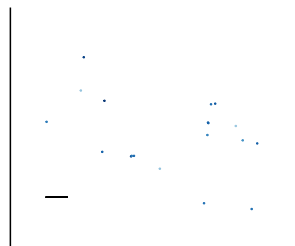
Astrocytes



Bergmann



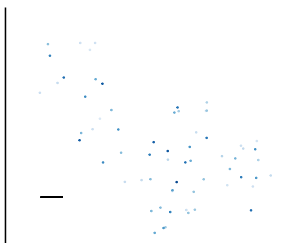
Candelabrum



Choroid



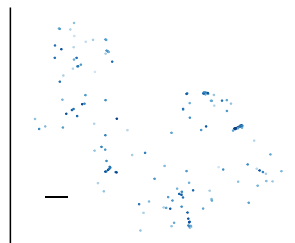
Endothelial



Ependymal



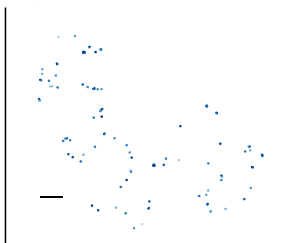
Fibroblast



Globular



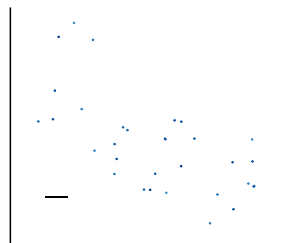
Golgi



Granule



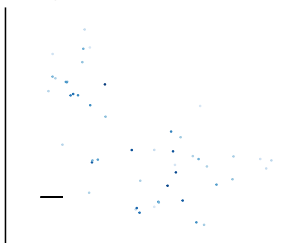
Lugaro



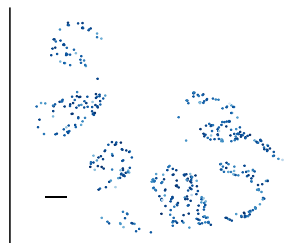
Macrophages



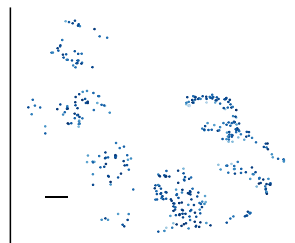
Microglia



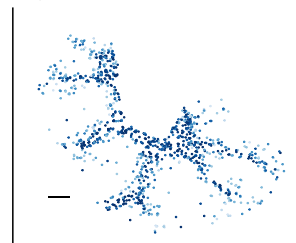
MLI1



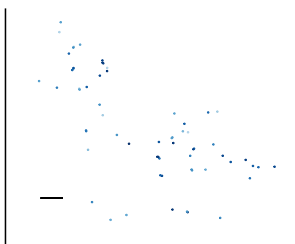
MLI2



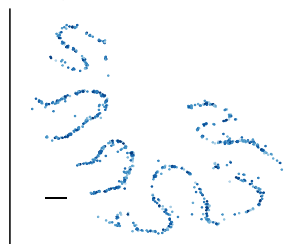
Oligodendrocytes



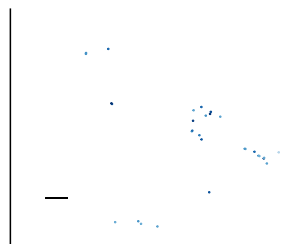
Polydendrocytes



Purkinje

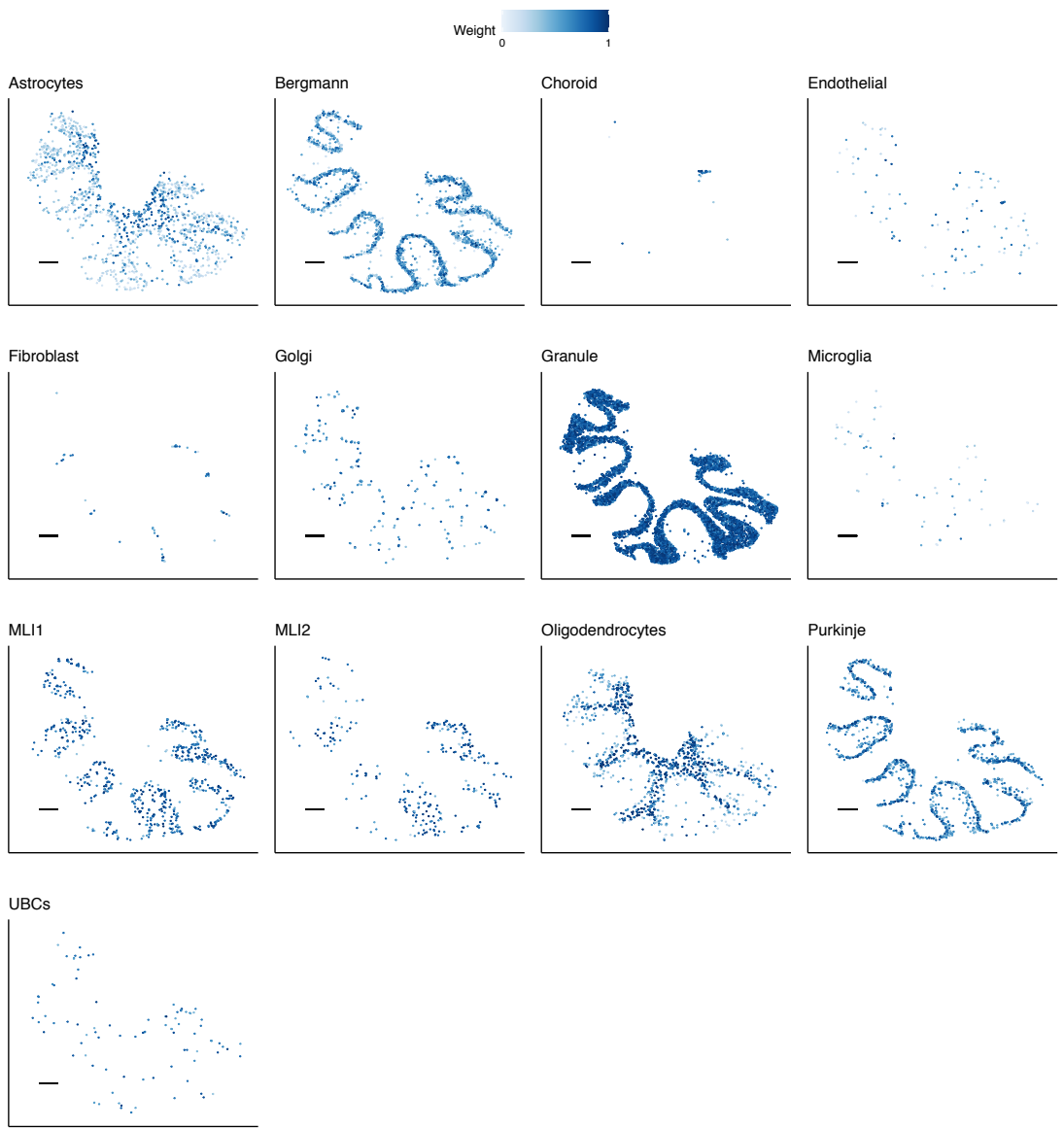


UBCs



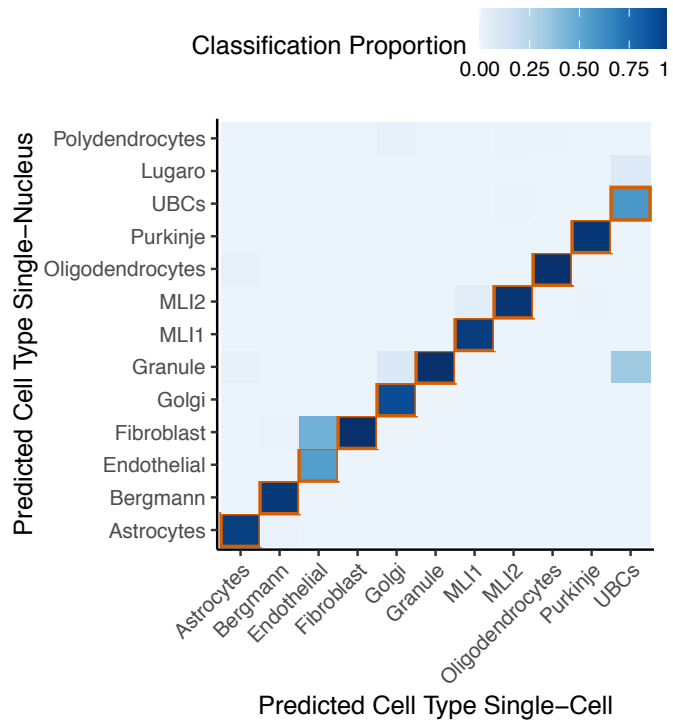
Supplementary Figure 14: Predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Slide-seq cerebellum.

Predicted spatial locations of each cell type, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. All scale bars are 250 microns. For this analysis, RCTD was trained on the single-nucleus reference.



Supplementary Figure 15: Predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Slide-seq cerebellum, trained on single-cell reference.

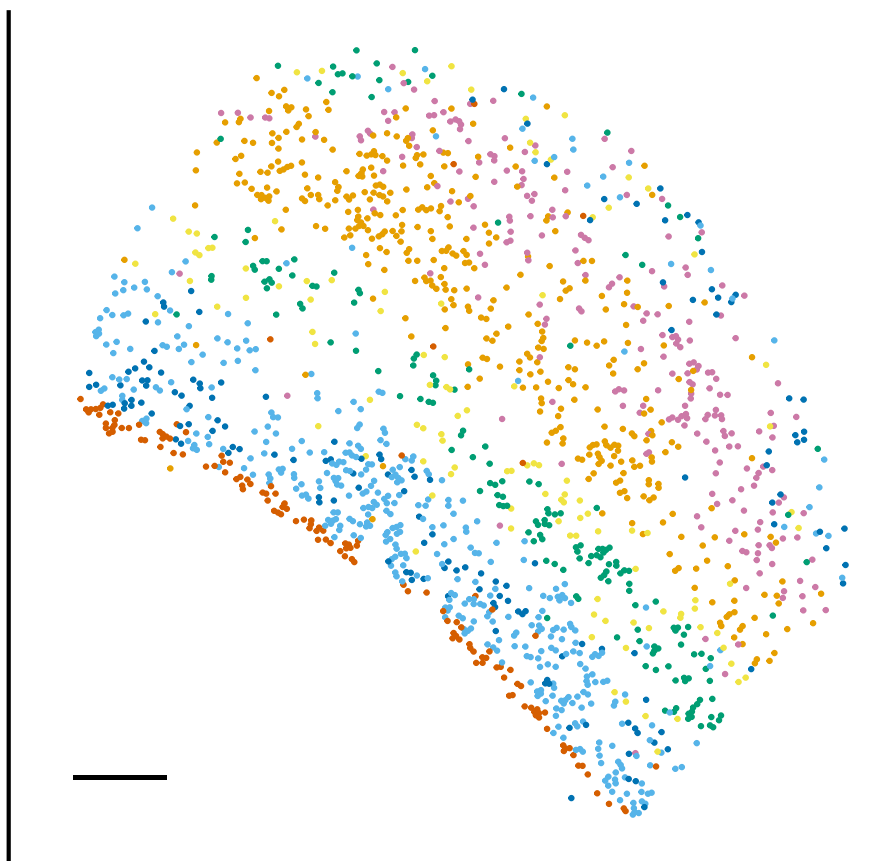
Predicted spatial locations of each cell type, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. All scale bars are 250 microns. For this analysis, RCTD was trained on the single-cell reference.



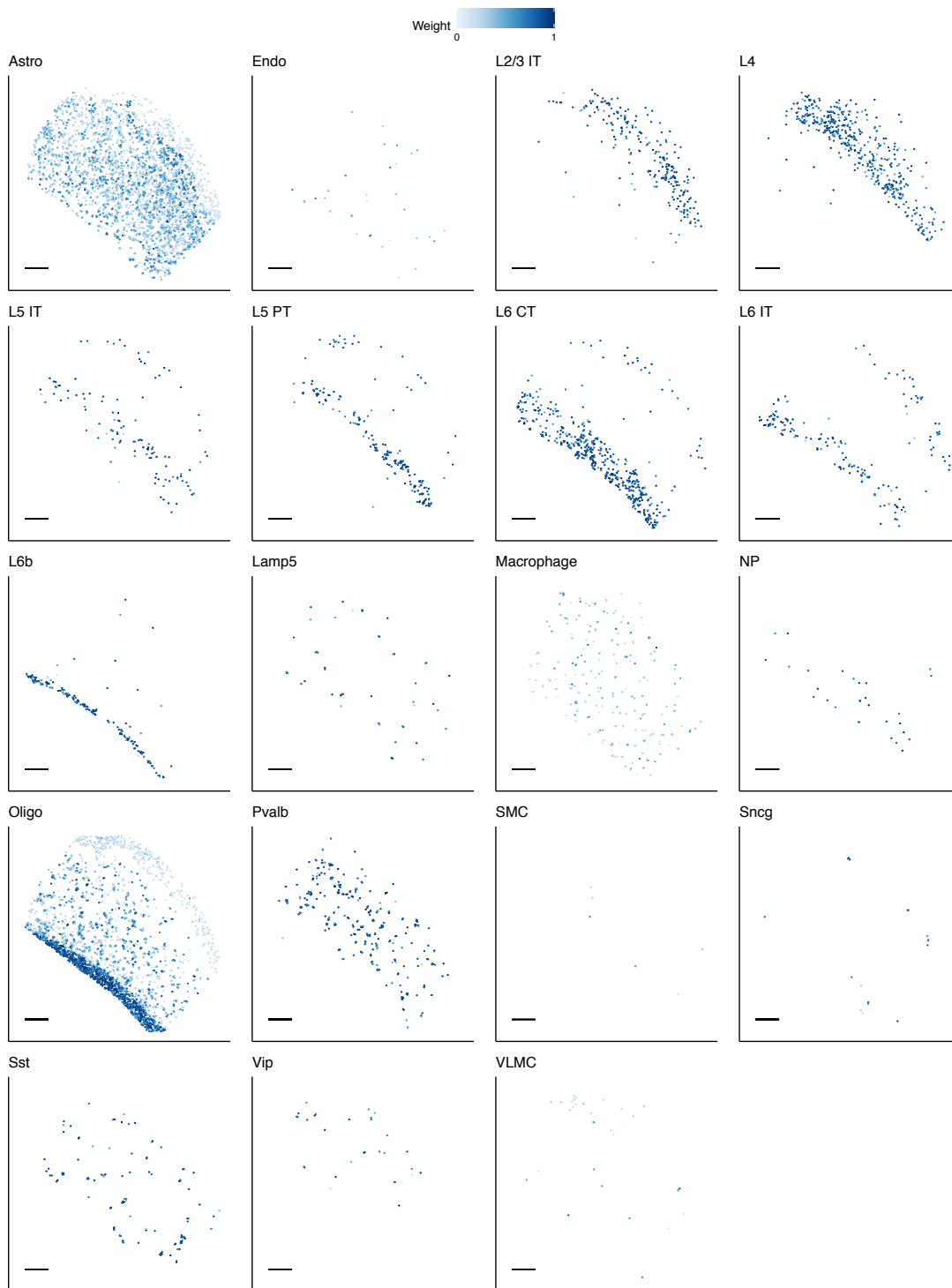
Supplementary Figure 16: Agreement of RCTD predictions across multiple training datasets.

Confusion matrix of cell type classifications on Slide-seq cerebellum, comparing RCTD predictions when trained on the single-cell and single-nucleus cerebellum dataset. Overall, 95.7% of confident cell type predictions are in agreement.

- L2/3 IT
- L5 IT
- L6 CT
- L6b
- L4
- L5 PT
- L6 IT



Supplementary Figure 17: RCTD's spatial map of cell type assignments in the somatosensory cortex. Only cortical neuron cell types are shown. Scale bar 250 microns. We abbreviate intratelencephalic as IT, pyramidal tract as PT, and corticothalamic as CT.

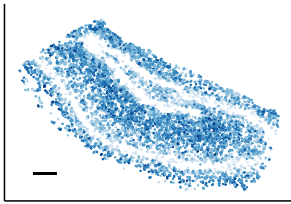


Supplementary Figure 18: Predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Slide-seq somatosensory cortex.

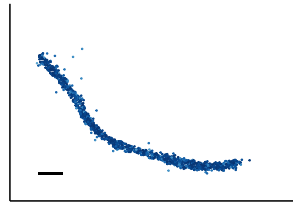
Predicted spatial locations of each cell type, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. All scale bars are 250 microns. We abbreviate intratelencephalic as IT, pyramidal tract as PT, and corticothalamic as CT.



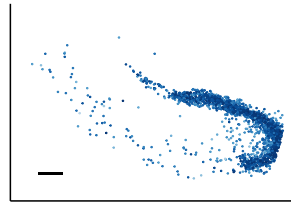
Astrocyte



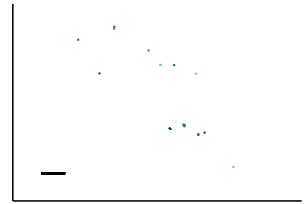
CA1



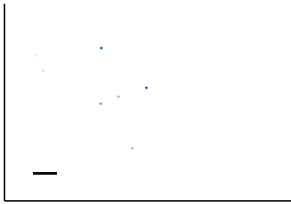
CA3



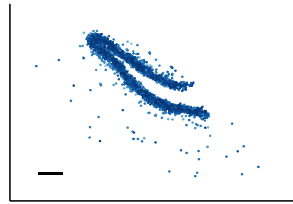
Cajal_Retzius



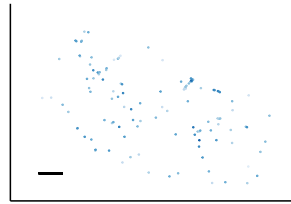
Choroid



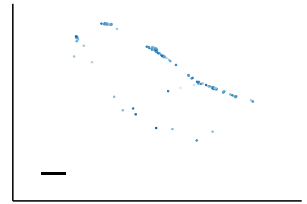
Denate



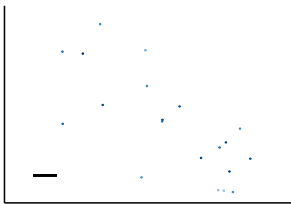
Endothelial_Stalk



Endothelial_Tip



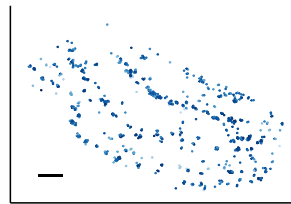
Entorhinal



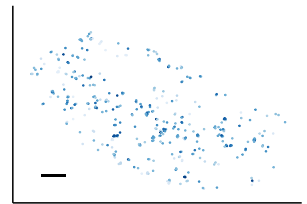
Ependymal



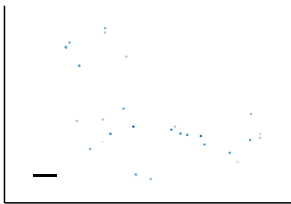
Interneuron



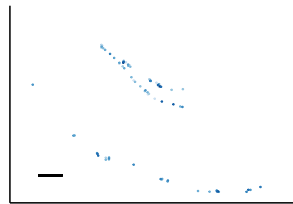
Microglia_Macrophages



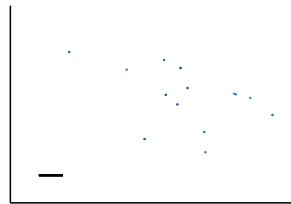
Mural



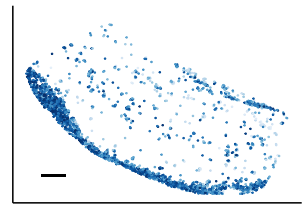
Neurogenesis



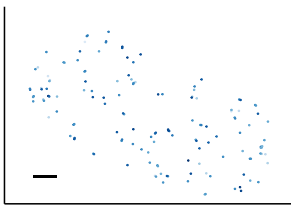
Neuron.Slc17a6



Oligodendrocyte

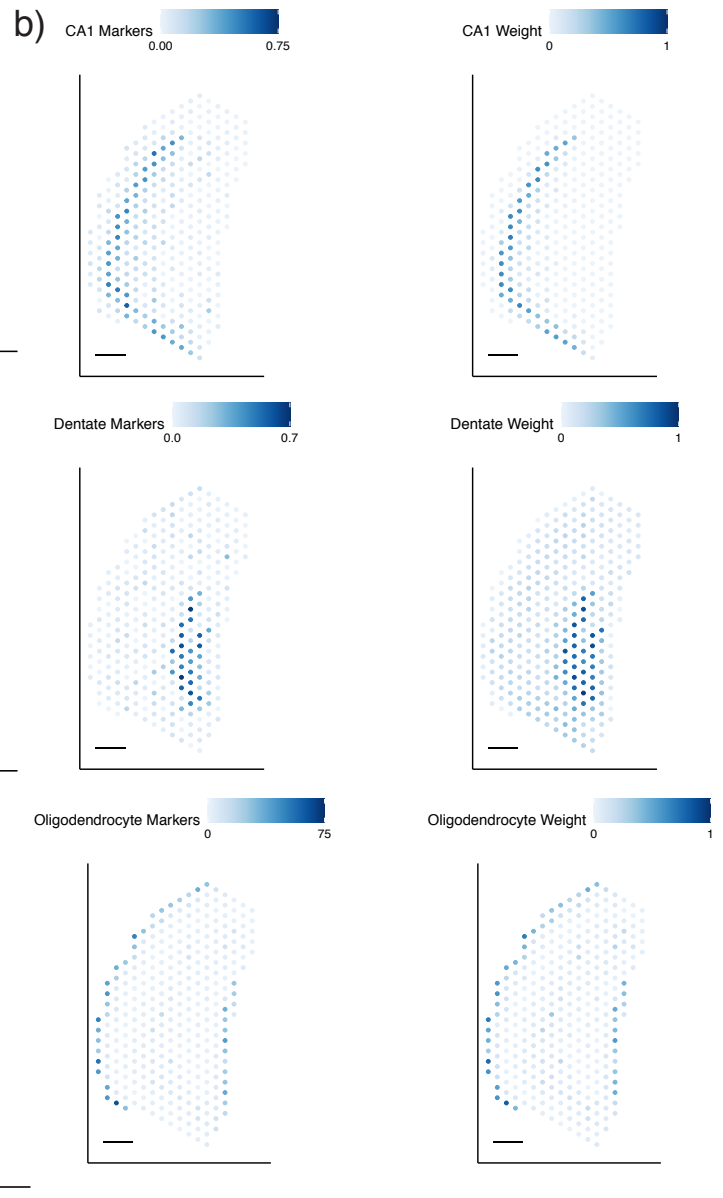
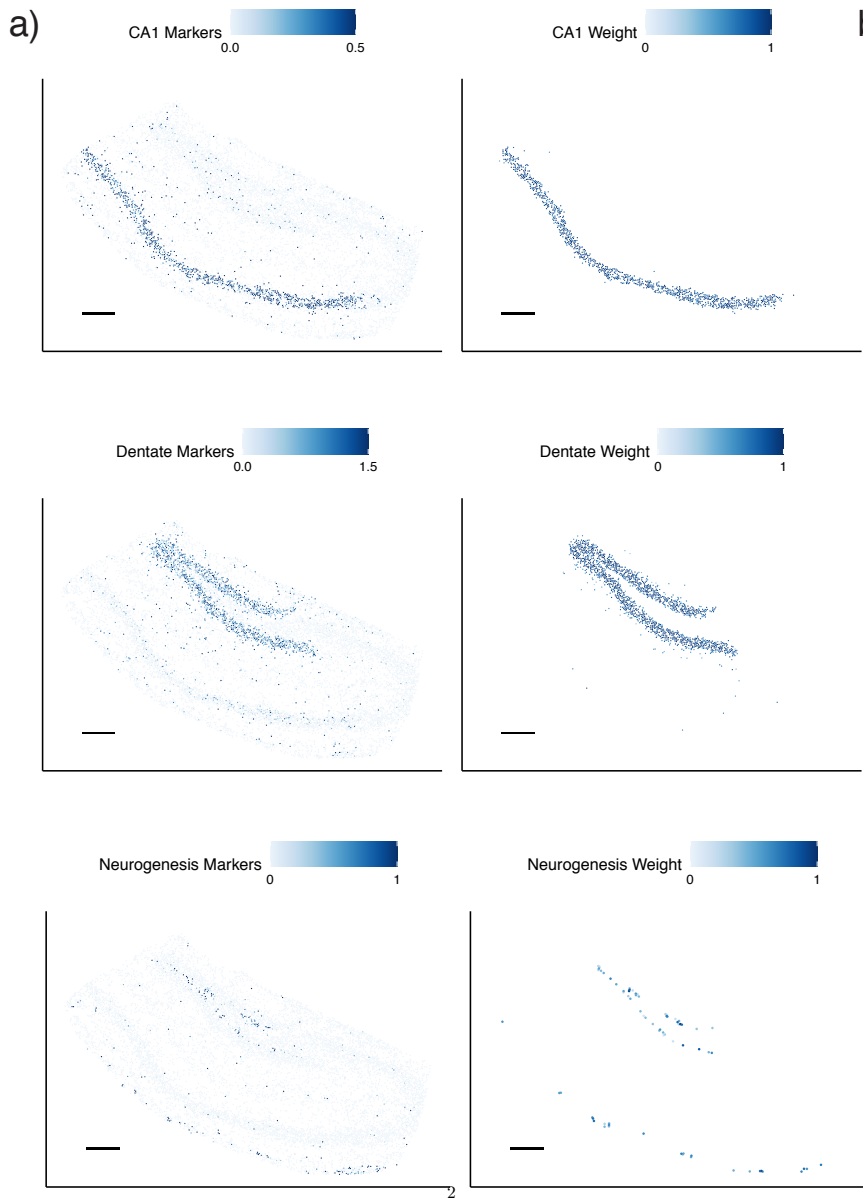


Polydendrocyte



Supplementary Figure 19: Predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Slide-seq hippocampus.

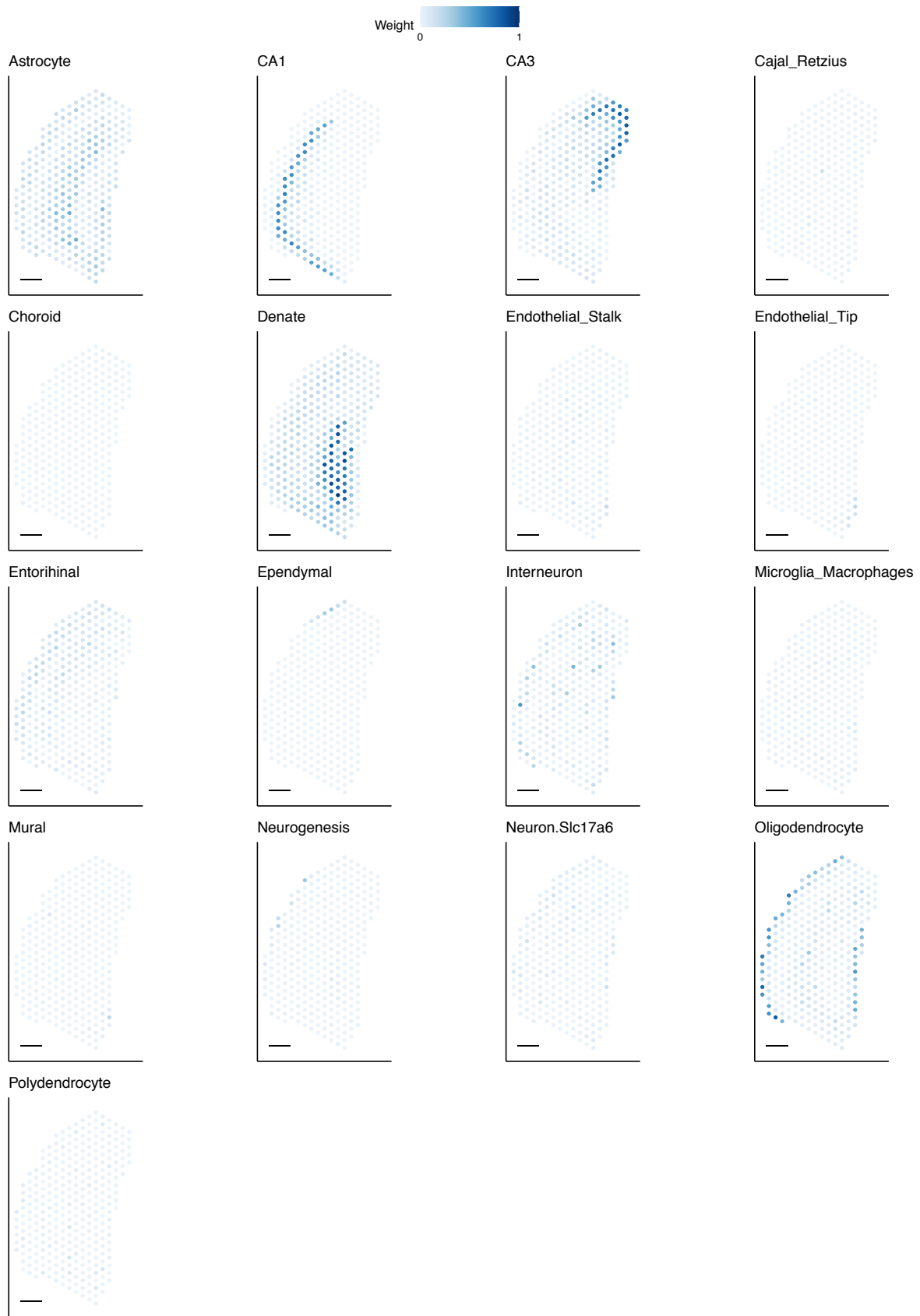
Predicted spatial locations of each cell type, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. All scale bars are 250 microns.



Supplementary Figure 20: Comparison of marker expression and predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Slide-seq and Visium hippocampus

- a) Slide-seq hippocampus. Left: expression (counts per 500) (represented by color) of marker genes of each cell type. Right: predicted spatial locations of a cell type by RCTD, with color representing predicted cell type proportion.
- b) Visium hippocampus. Left: expression (counts per 500) (represented by color) of marker genes of each cell type. Right: predicted spatial locations of a cell type by RCTD, with color representing predicted cell type proportion.

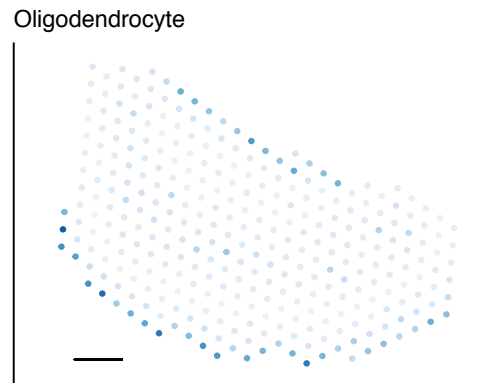
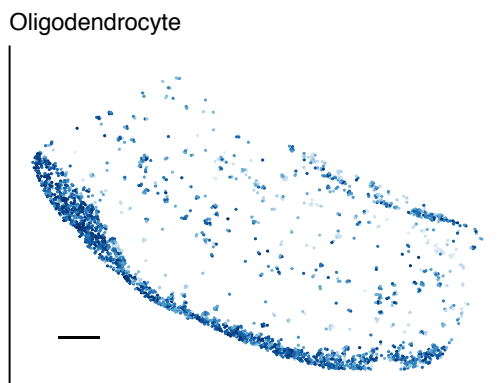
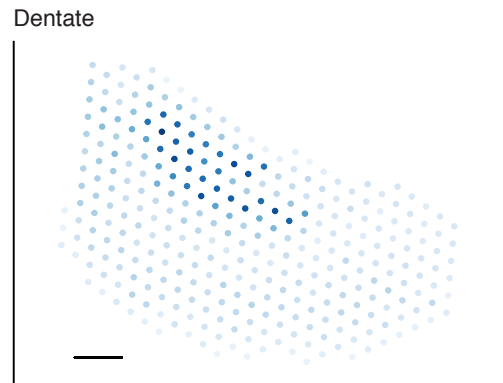
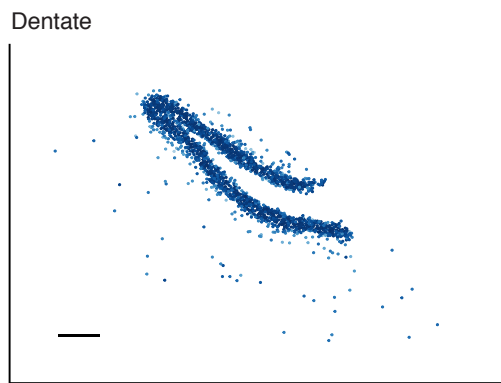
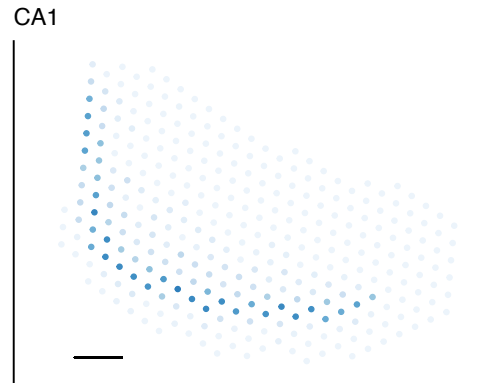
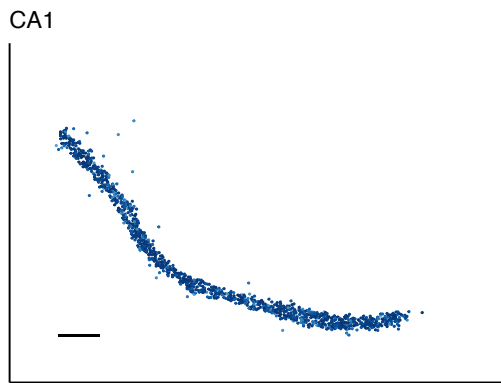
All scale bars 250 microns.



Supplementary Figure 21: Predicted spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Visium hippocampus.

Predicted spatial locations of each cell type, with color representing predicted cell type proportion. pixels were not constrained in the number of cell types present. All scale bars are 250 microns.

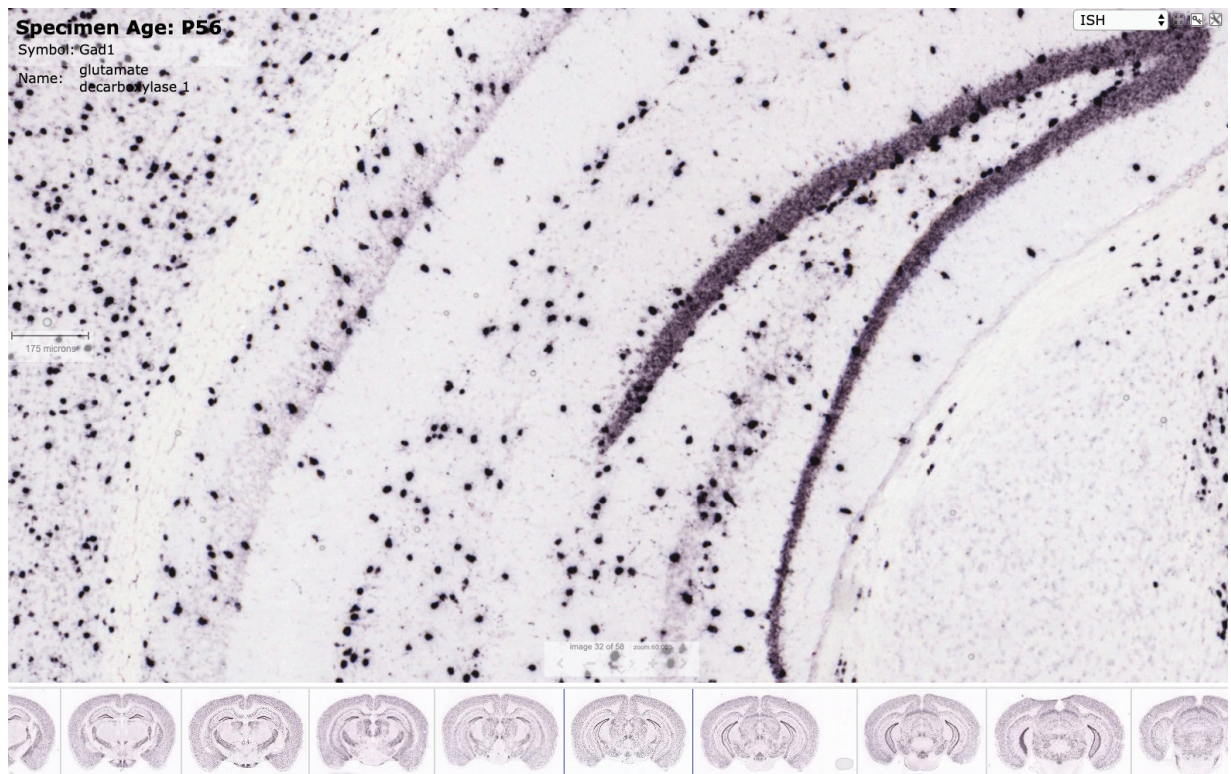
Slide-seq Weight 0 1 Visium



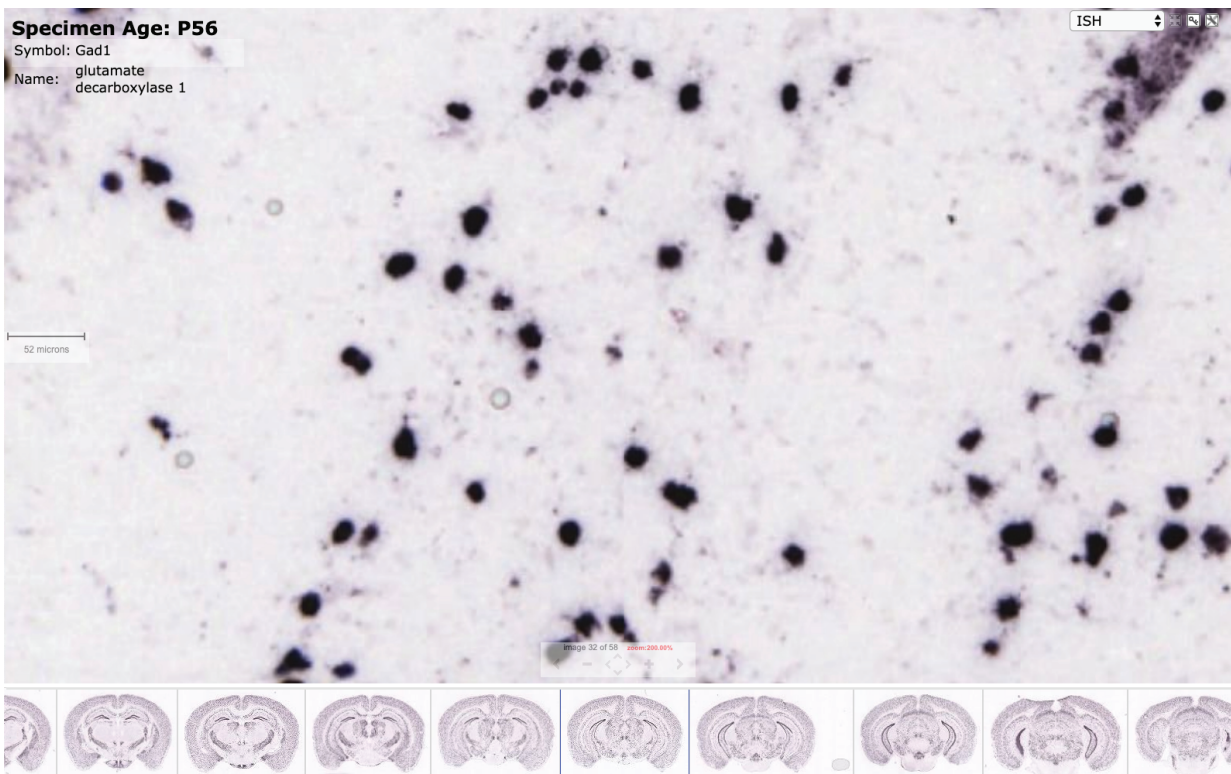
Supplementary Figure 22: Comparison of spatial localization of cell types by RCTD in Slide-seq and Visium hippocampus.

Predicted spatial locations of each cell type on Slide-seq (left) or Visium (right), with color representing predicted cell type proportion. All scale bars are 250 microns.

a)



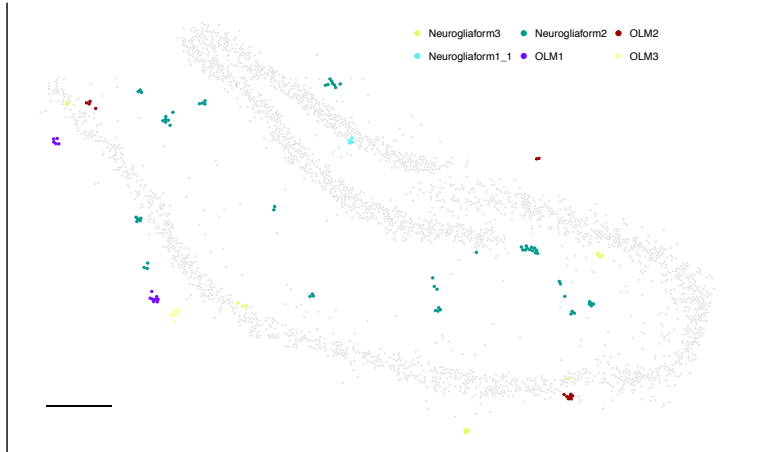
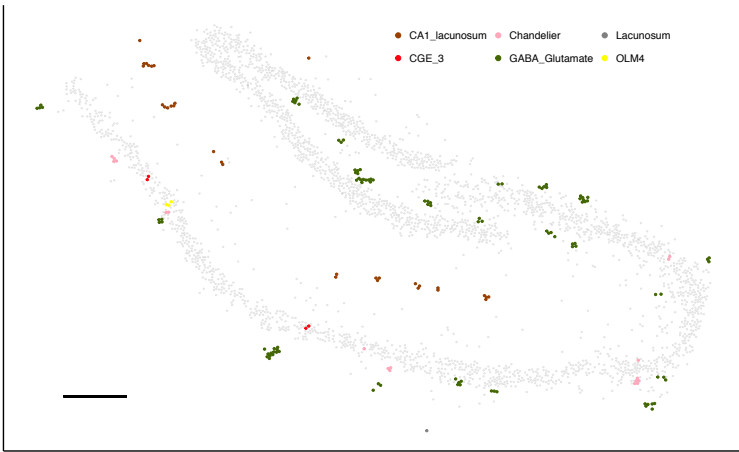
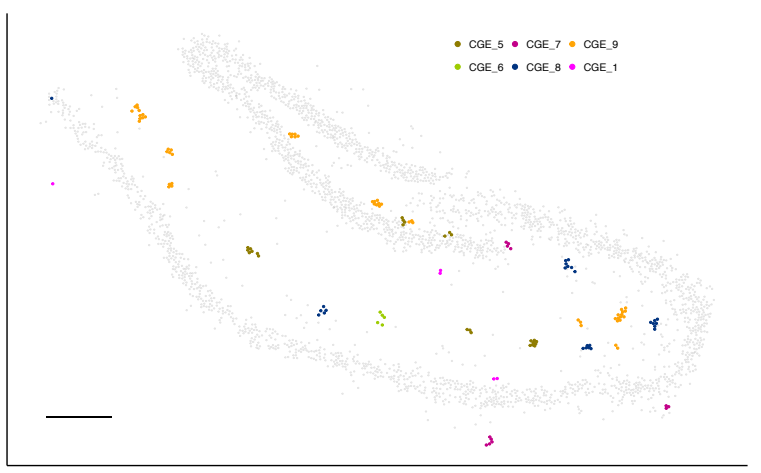
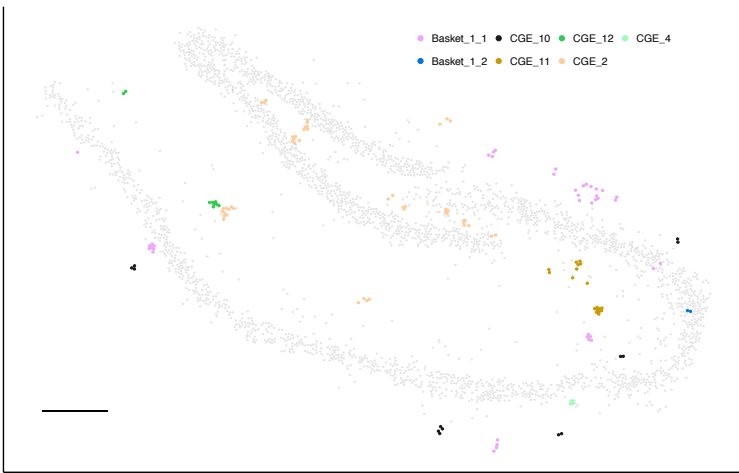
b)



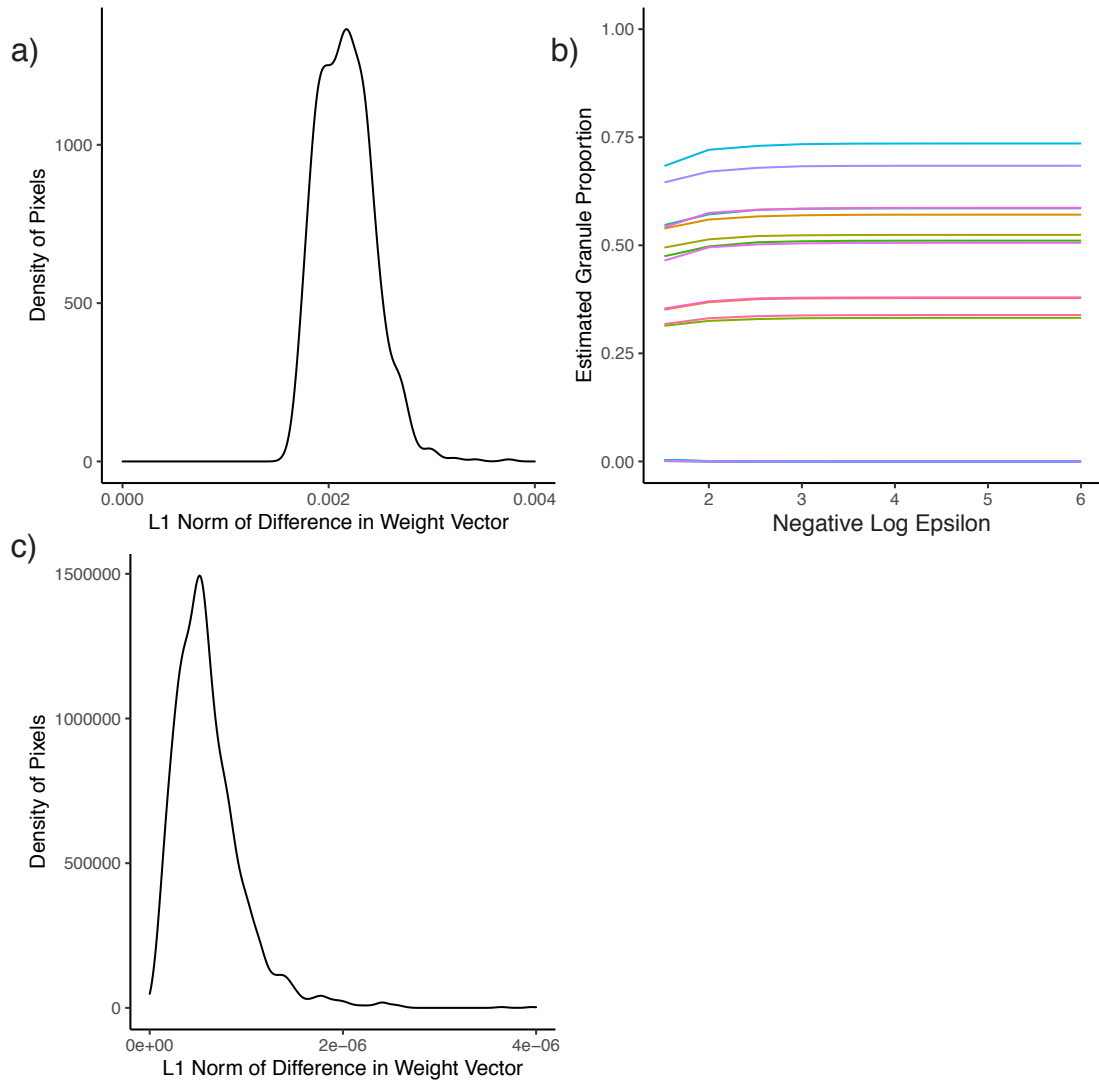
Supplementary Figure 23: In Situ Hybridization (ISH) of *Gad1*, an interneuron marker gene, from the Allen Brain Atlas [10](#).

a) Scale bar 175 microns.

b) Scale bar 52 microns.



Supplementary Figure 24: RCTD's confident assignment of spatial clusters to 27 interneuron subtypes (25/27 subtypes assigned) in the Slide-seq hippocampus. Split into four panels in order to clearly display individual cell types. All scale bars 250 microns. Grey circles represent location of CA1, CA3, and dentate gyrus excitatory neurons for reference.

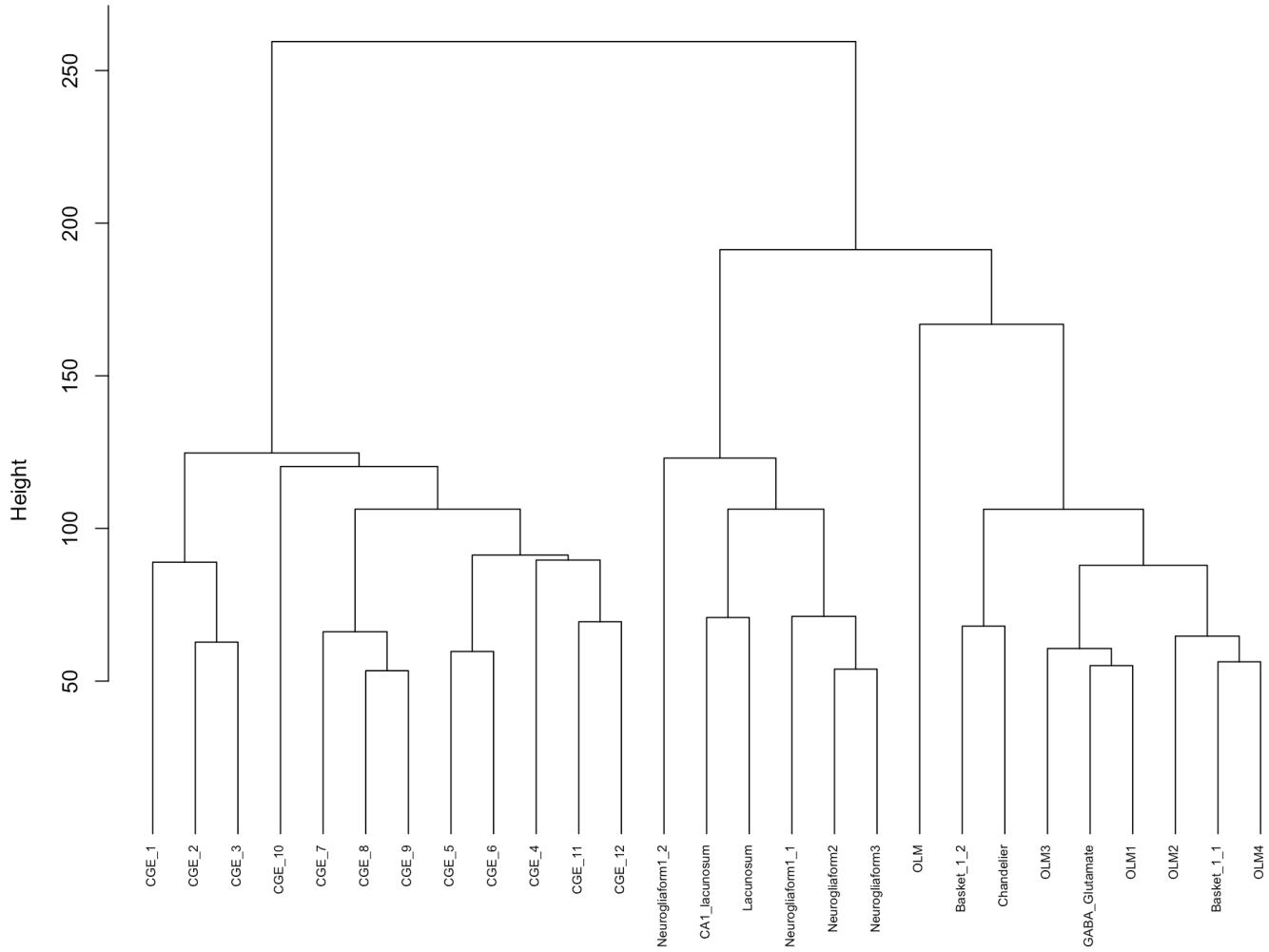


Supplementary Figure 25: Convergence Properties of RCTD.

- a) Density plot (over 1,000 randomly selected pixels) of L1 norm of difference in weight vector between RCTD with convergence parameter $\varepsilon = 10^{-3}$ and $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$.
- b) For several randomly chosen pixels, plot of granule proportion over several values of ε (represented in negative \log_{10}). As ε becomes small, the estimated proportion does not change very much.
- c) Density plot (over 50 randomly chosen initial values for each of 50 randomly selected pixels) of L1 norm of difference in weight vector between RCTD initialized to a uniform random chosen initial value and to the default initial value. We ran RCTD with convergence parameter $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$.

All analysis occurs on the Slide-seq cerebellum.

Cluster Dendrogram



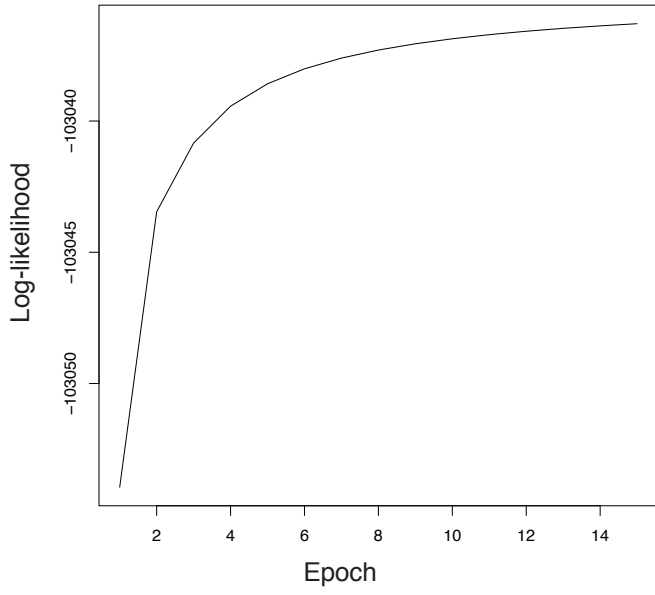
d
hclust (*, "ward.D")

Supplementary Figure 26: Dendrogram of interneuron subtypes.

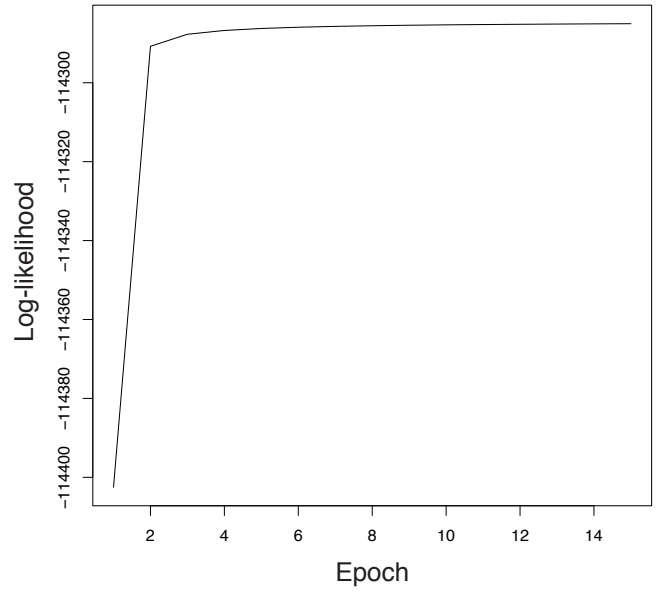
Dendrogram of 27 interneuron subtypes that appeared in the scRNA-seq hippocampus dataset, hierarchically clustered with Ward clustering.

a)

Cerebellum

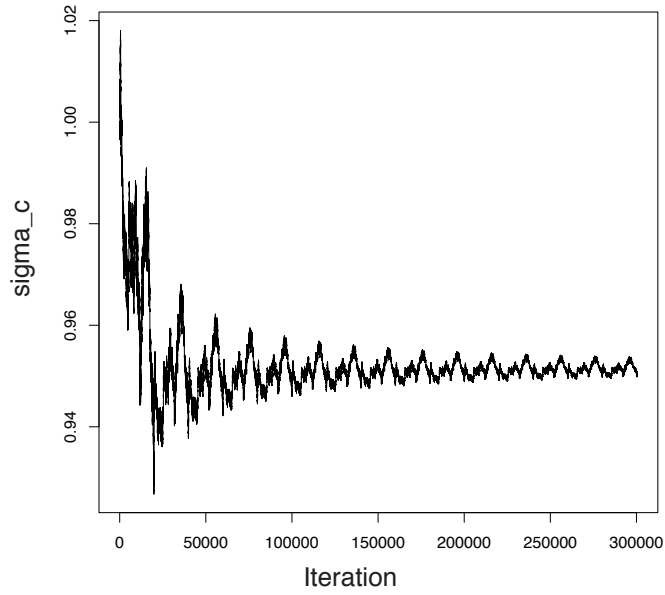


Hippocampus

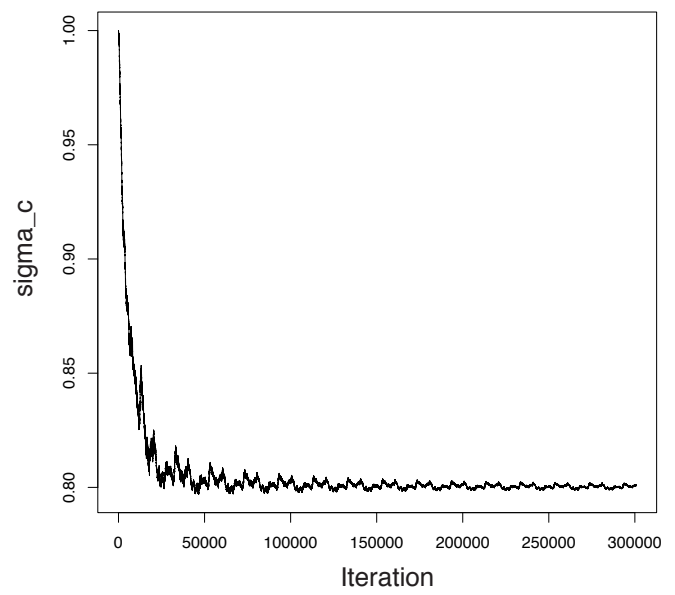


b)

Cerebellum



Hippocampus



Supplementary Figure 27: Trace plots showing convergence of σ_ε hyperparameter during optimization in RCTD.

- a) Value of log-likelihood at each stochastic gradient descent (SGD) epoch optimizing σ_ε . Left: Slide-seq cerebellum. Right: Slide-seq hippocampus.
- b) Value of σ_ε at each stochastic gradient descent (SGD) iteration optimizing σ_ε . Left: Slide-seq cerebellum. Right: Slide-seq hippocampus.

References

- 175
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