Single cell RNA-seq analysis Part I: data processing & analysis

BMI/CS 776

www.biostat.wisc.edu/bmi776/

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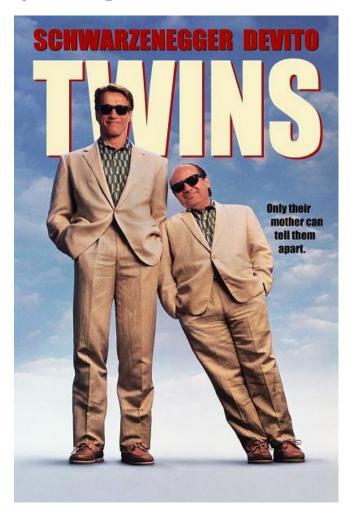
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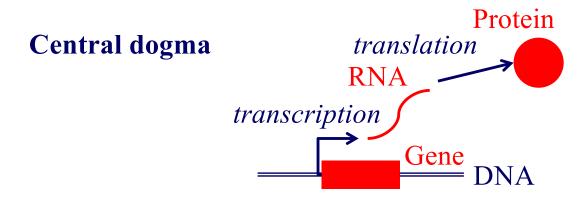
Outline

- Introduction on single cell RNA sequencing
- Single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) data processing
- scRNA-seq data analysis

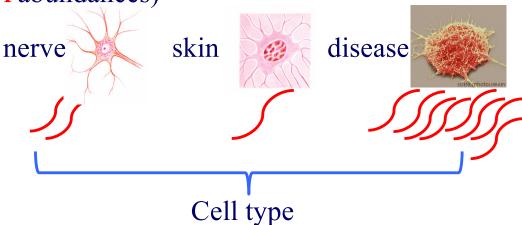
Gene expression and regulation

Identical DNA but different gene expression



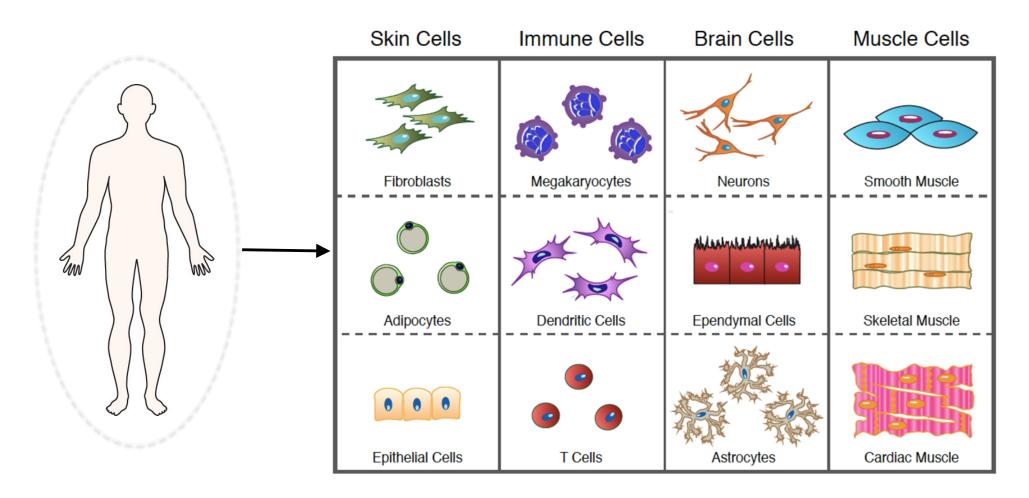


Gene expression levels (e.g., values to quantify RNA abundances)



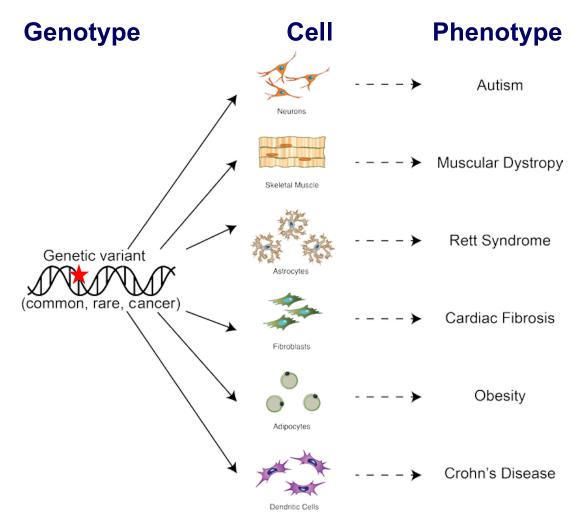
Gene regulation: which & how genes express?

Why study single cells?



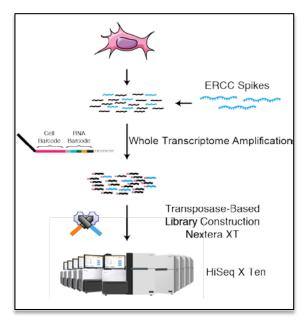
Cells are our core constituents, are classified by characteristic molecules, structures, and functions

Why study single cells?

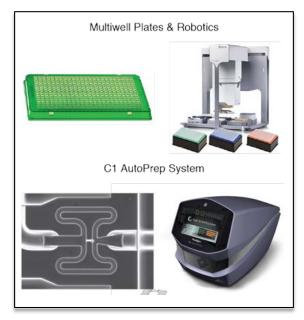


Cells are key intermediate from genotype to phenotype, e.g., essential functional dissection of genetic variants

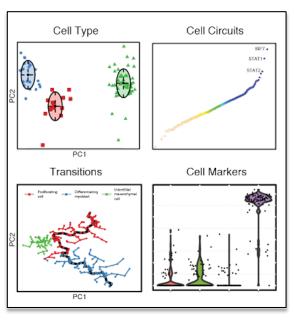
Sequencing RNAs in singe cells











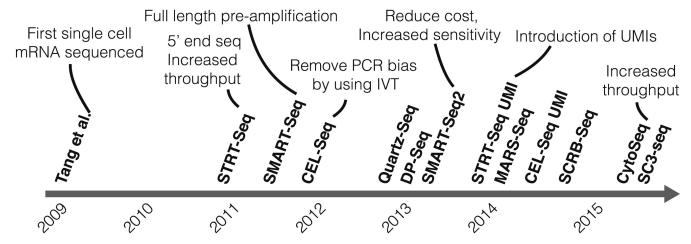
✓ Computation

2012: 18 cells — 2020: ~100,000 cells

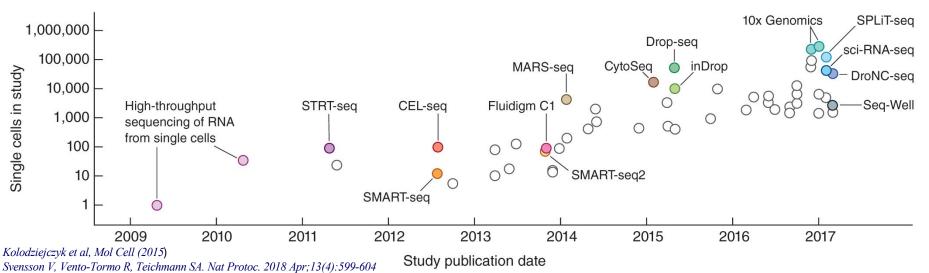
https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=PRjX3-m16cw

Evolution of single cell sequencing

 High-throughput technologies enable the profiling of thousands of cells in parallel, providing an unbiased view of the heterogeneity of single cells within a population. Fan et al., 2015



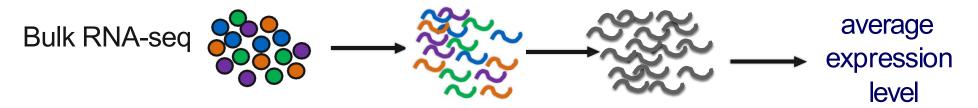
Cell numbers reported in representative publications by publication date



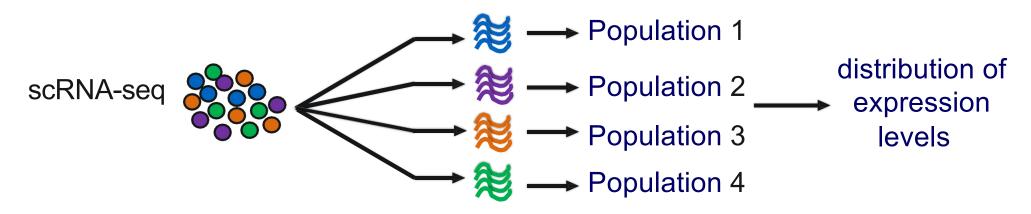
Single cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) technology

	inDrops	10x Genomics	Drop-seq	Seq-well (Honeycomb)	SMART-seq
Cell capture efficiency	~70-80%	~50-70%	~10%	~80%	~80%
Time to capture 10k cells	~30min	10min	1-2 hours	5-10min	
Encapsulation type	Droplet	Droplet	Droplet	Nanolitre well	Plate-based
		000			
Library prep	CEL-seq Linear amplification by IVT	SMART-seq Exponential PCR based amplification	SMART-seq Exponential PCR based amplification	SMART-seq Exponential PCR based amplification	SMART-seq Exponential PCR based amplification
Commercial	Yes	Yes		Yes (Summer 2020)	Yes
Cost (~\$ per cell)	~0.06	~0.2	~0.06	~0.15	1
Strengths	Good cell captureCost-effectiveReal-time monitoringCustomizable	 Good cell capture Fast and easy to run Parallel sample collection High gene / cell counts 	Cost-effectiveCustomizable	Good cell captureCost-effectiveReal-time monitoringCustomizable	Good cell captureGood mRNA captureFull-length transcriptNo UMI
Weaknesses	Difficult to run	Expensive	Difficult to run & low cell capture efficiency	Available Soon	Expensive

Bulk vs scRNA-seq



- quantifying expression signatures from ensembles
- insufficient for studying heterogeneous system



- inference of gene regulatory networks across the cells
- heterogeneity of cell responses
- cell type identification

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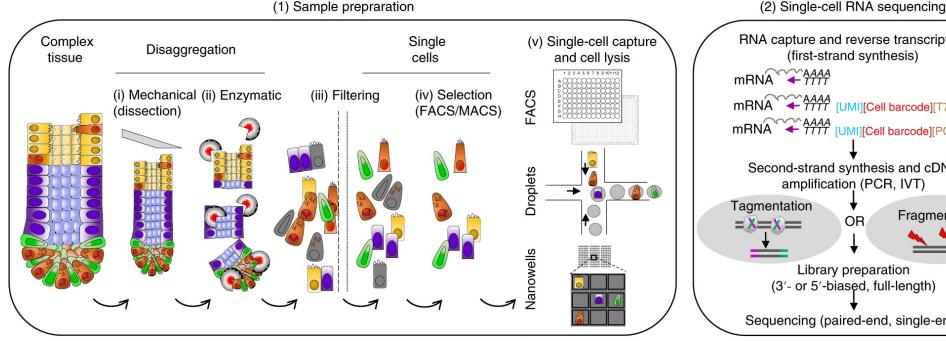
Single-cell RNA sequencing (scRNA-seq) process

- Step1: Sample preparation
- Step2: Single-cell RNA sequencing
- Step3: Data processing
- Step4: Data analysis

scRNA-seq process

Step 1 - Sample preparation: cells are physically separated into a single-cell solution from which specific cell types can be enriched or excluded

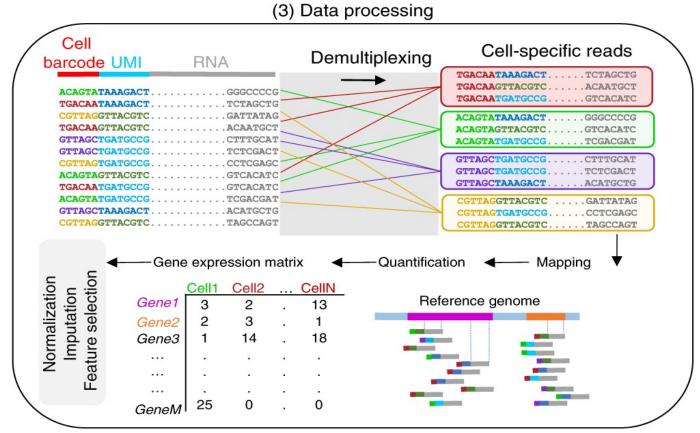
Step 2 - Single-cell RNA sequencing



RNA capture and reverse transcription (first-strand synthesis) mRNA + AAAA [UMI][Cell barcode][T7] mRNA TITT [UMI][Cell barcode][PCR adaptor] Second-strand synthesis and cDNA amplification (PCR, IVT) Fragmentation OR Library preparation (3'- or 5'-biased, full-length) Sequencing (paired-end, single-end)

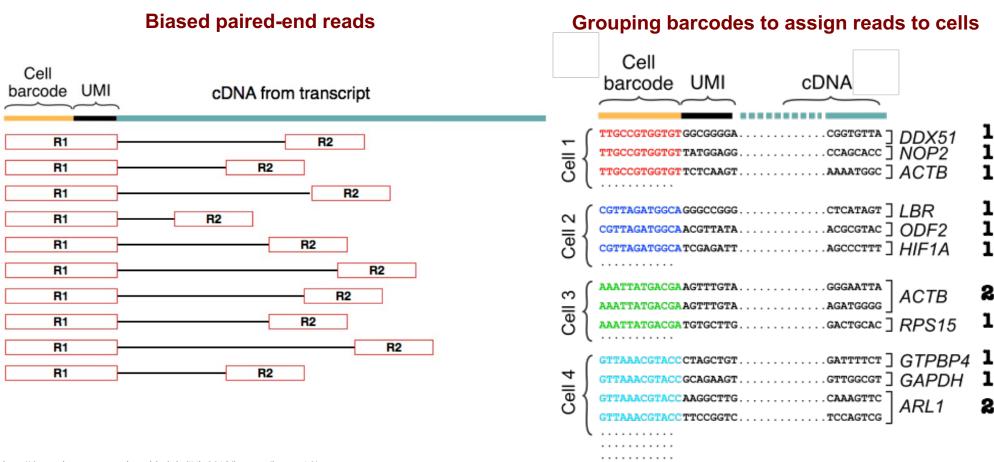
scRNA-seq process

- Step 3 Data processing
 - Unique molecular identifier (UMI)
 - Gene counts
 - Drop-outs in single cell
 - Imputation method: MAGIC



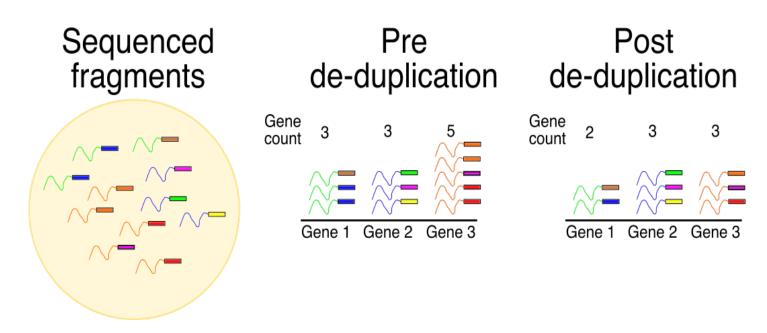
Unique molecular identifier (UMI)

• UMIs are short (4-10bp) random barcodes added to transcripts during reverse-transcription.



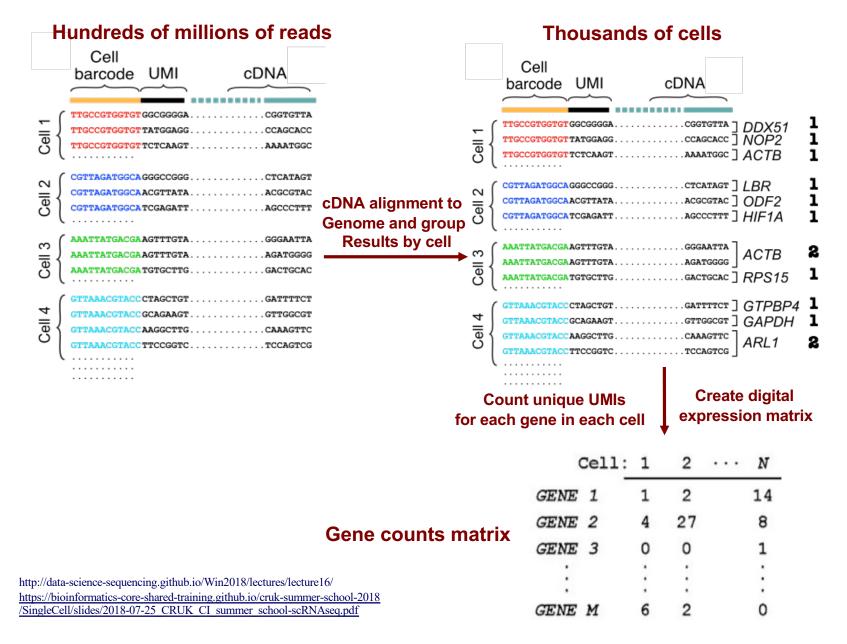
Unique molecular identifier (UMI)

- They enable sequencing reads to be assigned to individual transcript molecules and thus the removal of amplification noise and biases from scRNA-Seq data
- They reduce the amplification noise by allowing (almost) complete deduplication of fragments



Gene Counts

 In each gene, within each cell, the total number of unique UMI is counted and reported as the number of transcripts of that gene for a given cell.



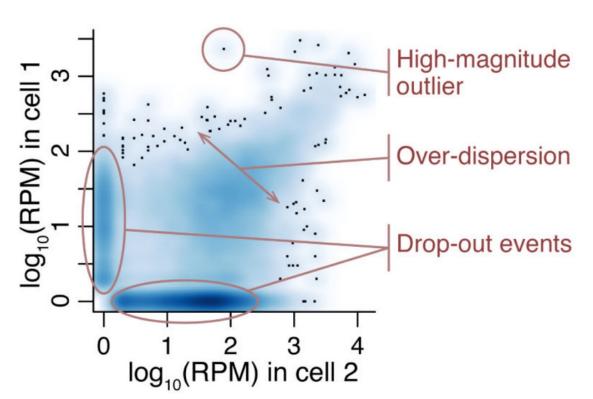
Drop-outs in single cell

 a gene is observed at a moderate or high expression level in one cell but is not detected in another cell

Why do dropouts occur in single cell?

- technical artifacts
- cell type differences

- statistical sampling
- biological factors



Drop-outs in single cell

What should we do about dropouts?

- Ignore zero inflation
- Preprocess/reduce dimensions
- Impute scRNA-seq gene count matrix before analysis





Why do we need imputation methods?

 Downstream analyses relying on the accuracy of gene expression measurements



Imputation Methods

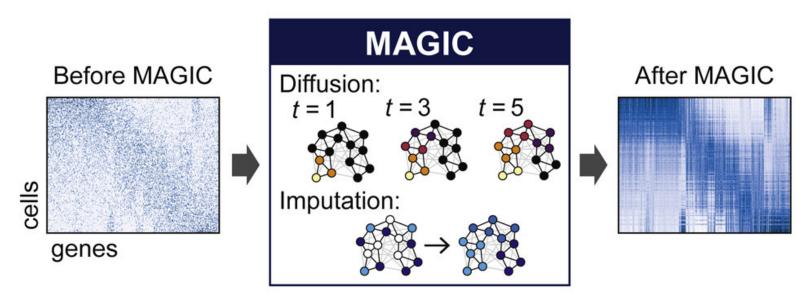
- MAGIC
- Droplet
- DrImpute
- scDoc



MAGIC

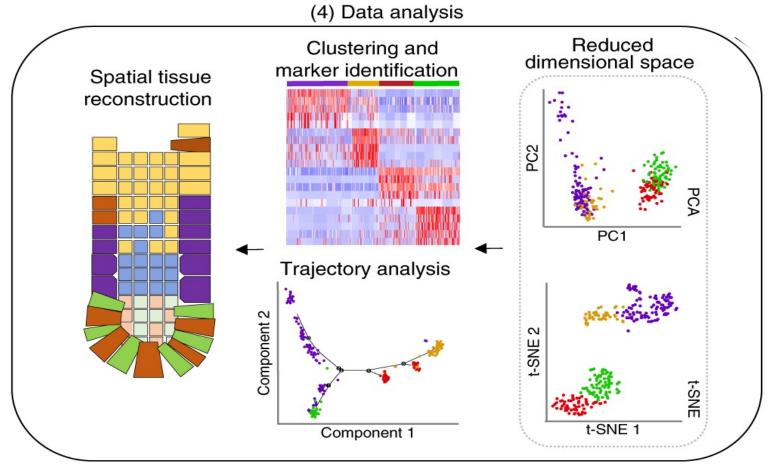
Markov affinity-based graph imputation of cells

- Denoise high-dimensional scRNA-seq data
- Impute missing expression values by sharing information across similar cells
- Similarity between two cells $A_{ij} = e^{-(\frac{Distance_{ij}}{\sigma})^2}$
- Transform the similarity matrix A into a Markov transition matrix M
- Raise the Markov matrix to the power of t: M^t, which determines the weights of cells



scRNA-seq process

- Step 4 Data analysis
 - Dimensionality reduction
 - Clustering and marker identification
 - Trajectory analysis



Outline

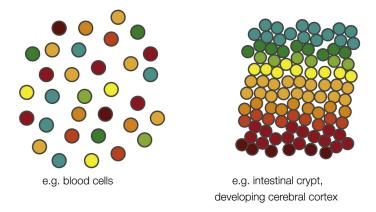
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scRNA-seq data analysis

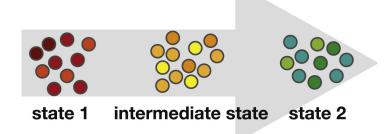
- Introduction of single cell analysis
- Dimensionality reduction
 - Linear: PCA
 - Non-linear: t-SNE, UMAP
- Cell clustering
 - K-means
 - hierarchical clustering
 - graph-based clustering

Why single-cell analysis?

- Single-cell data opens the door to several types of biological questions:
 - What cell types exist within a population of cells in a particular sample?



– What does this high-resolution view of cellular transitions tell us about switches in cell states?

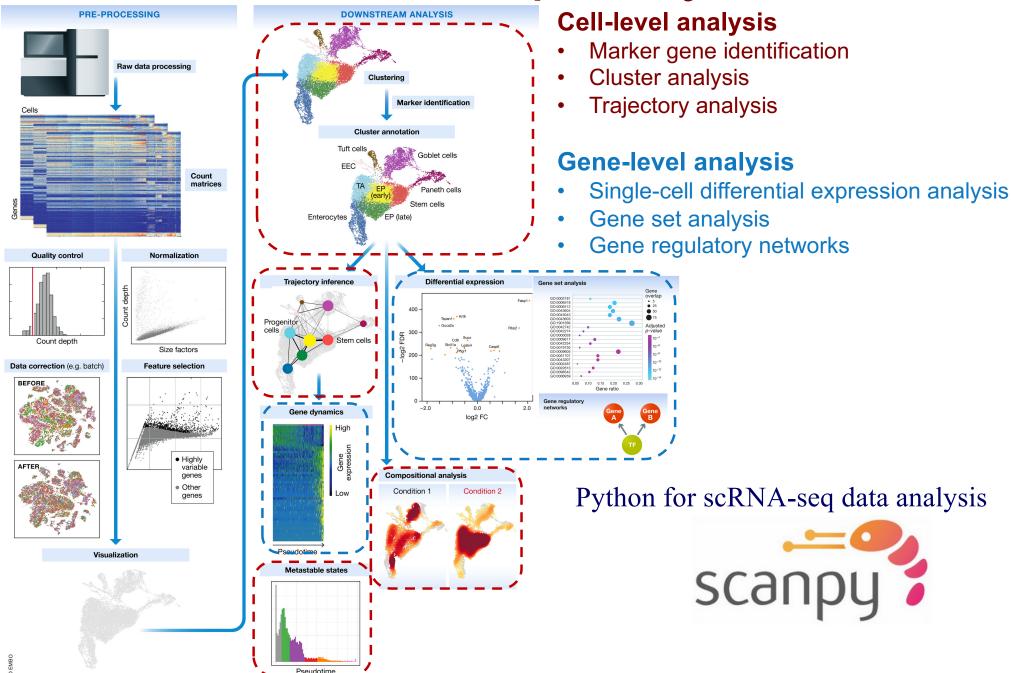


e.g. dendritic cells response to LPS

How can gene regulatory networks drive cell types or states?

Kolodziejczyk et al, Mol Cell (2015)

scRNA-seq analysis

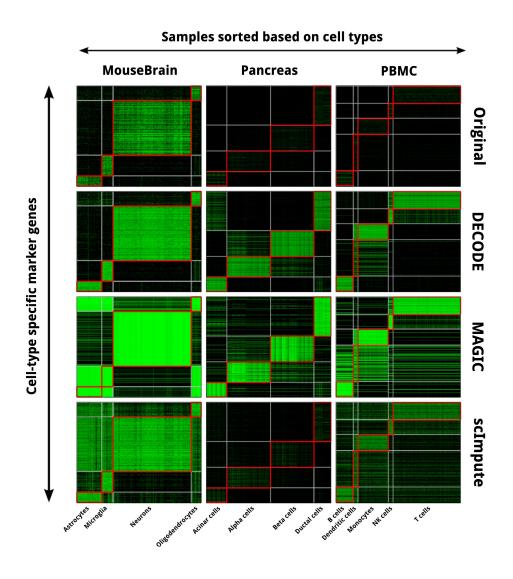


Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis

- Introduction of single cell analysis
- Dimensionality reduction
 - Linear: PCA
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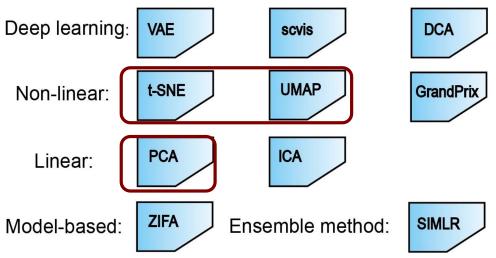
Dimensionality Reduction

Dimensionality reduction announces that cells could cluster together into groups.



Dimensionality Reduction

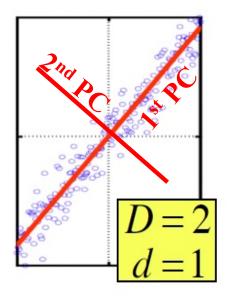
- Reduce noise, sparsity
- Easier for visualization and processing
- Linear methods:
 - PCA (principal component analysis)
- Non-linear methods:
 - t-SNE
 - UMAP



PCA

Principal component analysis

- It is a linear algebraic method of dimensionality reduction
- Any matrix can be decomposed as a multiplication of other matrices
- PC1 represents the most of variance for the data, then PC2, PC3

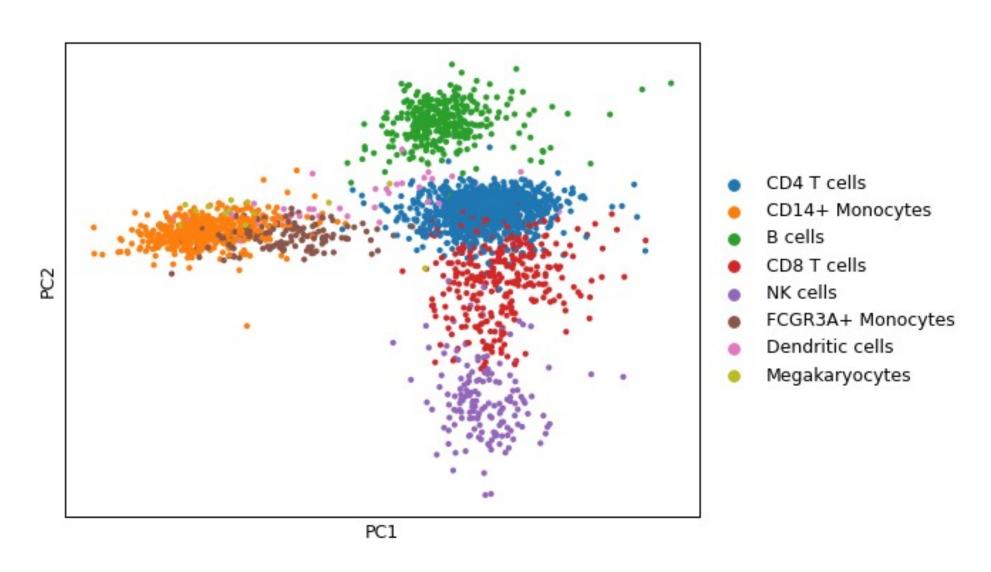


Reduce D genes to d PCs of cells, where d << D



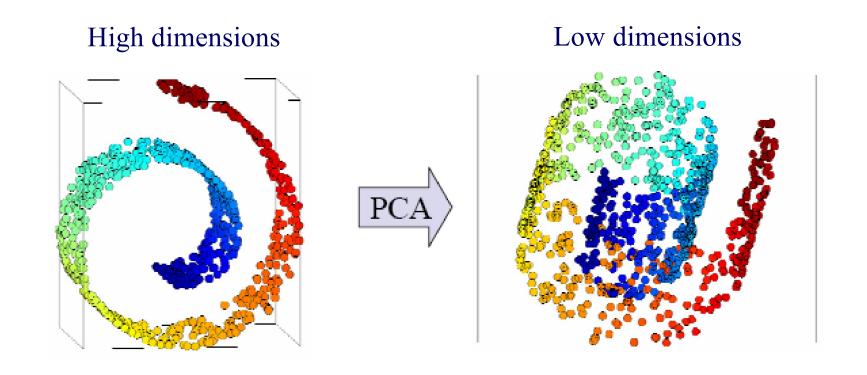
sc.pp.pca(adata, n_comps=50)

PCA of Peripheral Blood Mononuclear Cells (PBMC)



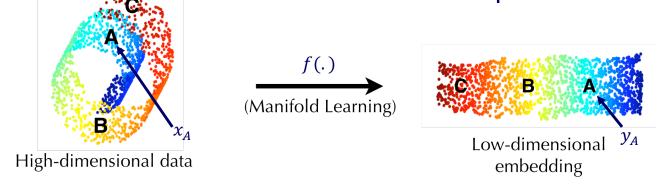
Limitation of PCA

- PCs represent linear combination of individual features (e.g., genes)
- PCA fails to find non-linear structure in the data



Manifold learning

A manifold is a topological space that locally resembles Euclidean space near each point



A *d* dimensional manifold *M* is embedded in a *m* dimensional space, and there is and explicit mapping $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^d$ where *d*

 $\leq m$. Given Sample $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$ with noise

$$y_i = f(x_i)$$

$$\rightarrow \text{ find } f(.) \text{ or } y_i \text{ from given } x_i$$

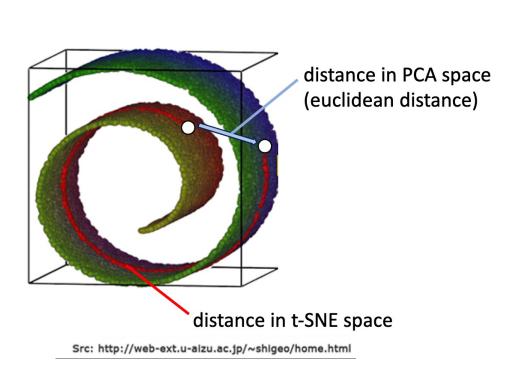
Parametric & generalizable (e.g., linear manifold learning)

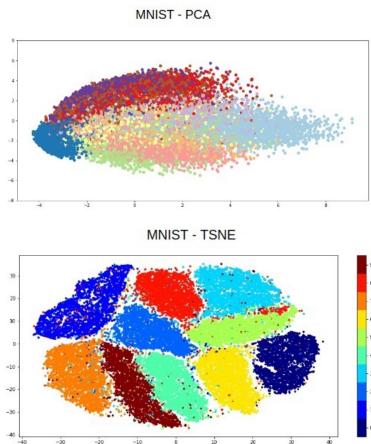
Nonparametric & nongeneralizable (e.g., nonlinear manifold learning)

t-SNE

t-Stochastic Neighbor Embedding

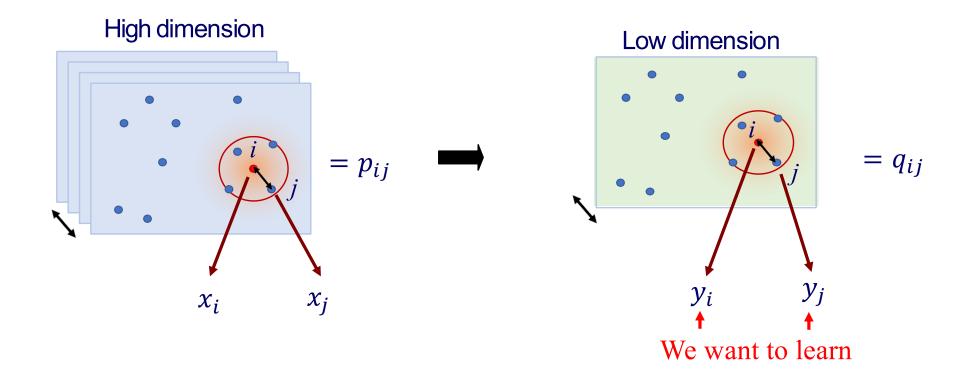
 t-SNE is a manifold embedding algorithm for nonlinear dimensionality reduction ("keep manifold structures on low dimension space")





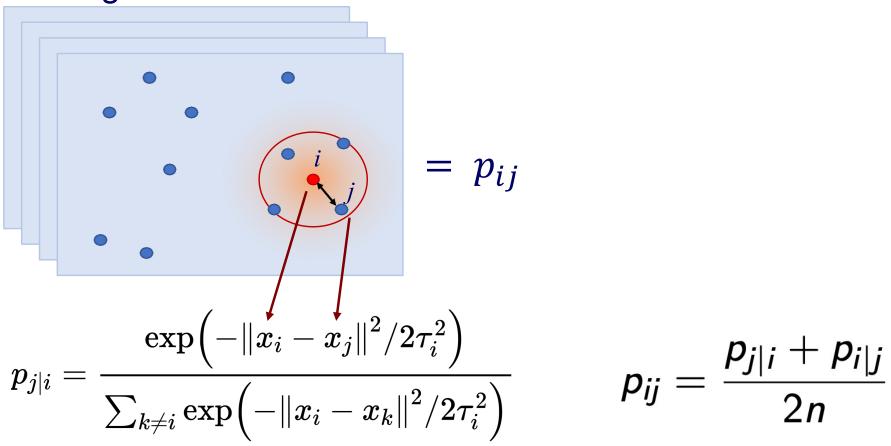
t-SNE

• Given a collection of points $X = \{x_1, ..., x_n\} \subset R^d$, find a collection of points $Y = \{y_1, ..., y_n\} \subset R^{d'}$, where $d \ll d'$. p_{ij} and q_{ij} measure the conditional probability that a point j would pick point i as it's nearest neighbor, in high (p) and low (q) dimensional space, respectively.



Similarity matrix at high dimension

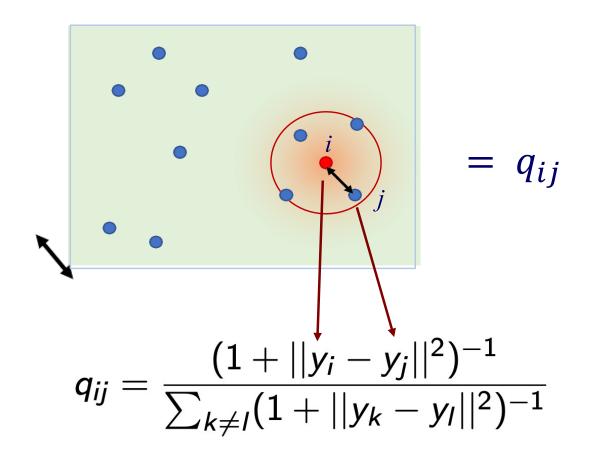
High dimension



where τ_i^2 is the variance for the Gaussian distribution centered around x_i

Similarity matrix at low dimension

Low dimension



Cost Function

Kullback-Leibler divergence

• Find optimal $\{y_i\}$: Minimize a single Kullback-Leibler divergence between a joint probability P, in the high-dimensional space and a joint probability Q, in the low-dimensional space.

$$C = \sum_{i} KL(P_i||Q_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} p_{ij} \log \frac{p_{ij}}{q_{ij}}$$

The gradient is given by

$$\frac{dC}{dy_i} = 4 \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^{n} (p_{ij} - q_{ij})(1 + ||y_i - y_j||^2)^{-1}(y_i - y_j)$$

 The result of this optimization is a map that reflects the similarities between the high-dimensional inputs.

Summary of t-SNE

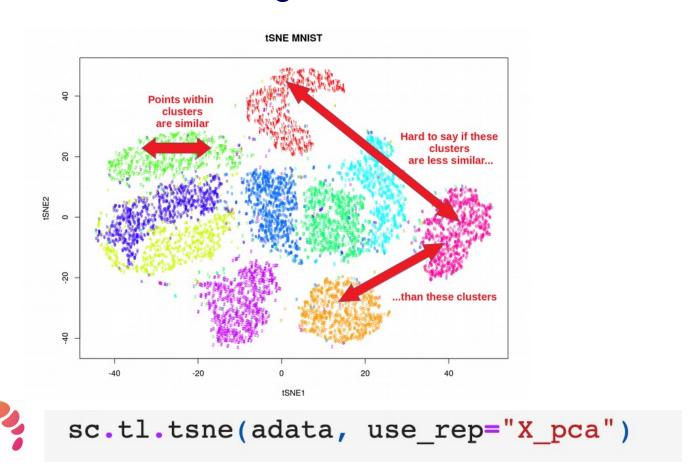
- t-SNE minimizes the divergence between two similarity distributions:
 - pairwise similarities of the input data points on the high dimensional space $\{p_{ij}\}$
 - pairwise similarities of the corresponding low-dimensional points $\{q_{ij}\}$

Main steps for t-SNE

- 1. Construct a similarity matrix over pairs of high-dimensional points
 - Similar data points are assigned a higher probability, while dissimilar points are assigned a lower probability.
- 2. Define a similarity matrix in the low-dimensional embedding space
- 3. Minimize the KL divergence between two similarity distributions using gradient descent to find optimal low dimensional coordinates of data points

Limitation of t-SNE

- t-SNE mainly preserves local similarity structure of data, not global similarity.
- Only within cluster distances are meaningful while between cluster similarities are not guaranteed.

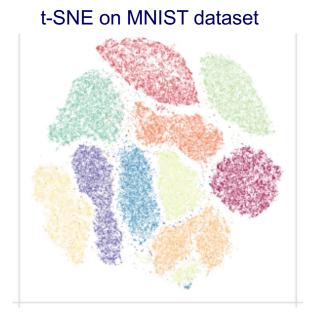


UMAP

Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection

- Instead of randomly assigning points as in t-SNE, UMAP constructs a high dimensional graph representation of the data and then optimizes a low-dimensional graph to be as structurally similar as possible
- UMAP could preserve both global and local data structures

UMAP on MNIST dataset



- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=nq6iPZVUxZU
- https://nbisweden.github.io/excelerate-scRNAseq/session-dim-reduction/lecture_dimensionality_reduction.pdf
- https://umap-learn.readthedocs.io/en/latest/how umap works.html
- https://pair-code.github.io/understanding-umap/

Main steps for UMAP

- 1. Construct a weighted k nearest neighbors graph for defining a similarity matrix in high-dimensional space
 - The edge weights represent the likelihood that two data points are connected (i.e., "similarity")
- 2. Define a similarity matrix in low-dimensional space
- 3. Minimize the cross-entropy cost function at each point using gradient descent to find the most *similar graph* in lower dimensions

Similarity matrix at high dimension

• ρ_i , the distance from x_i to the k nearest neighbors in high dimension (e.g., kNN graph)

$$\rho_i = \min\{d(x_i, x_{i_j}) \mid 1 \le j \le k, d(x_i, x_{i_j}) > 0\}$$

UMAP uses an exponential probability distribution in high dimension

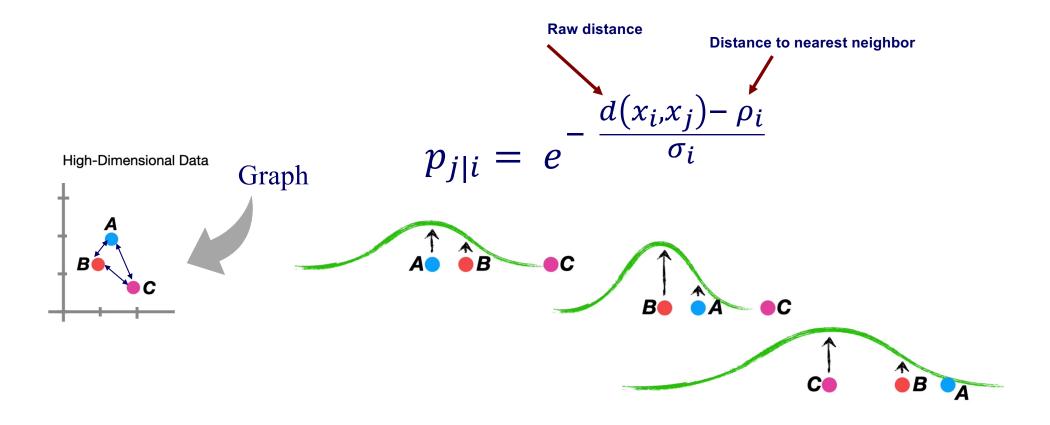
$$p_{j|i} = e^{-rac{d(x_i,x_j)-
ho_i}{\sigma_i}}$$

 The symmetrization of high dimension similarity score and the definition of number of nearest neighbors

$$p_{ij}=p_{i|j}+p_{j|i}-p_{i|j}p_{j|i}$$

Similarity matrix at high dimension

 For each data point, it has a locally adaptive exponential kernel, so the distance metric varies from point to point.



Cost Function binary cross-entropy (CE)

Similarity matrix at low dimension

$$q_{ij} = \left(1 + a(y_i - y_j)^{2b}
ight)^{-1}$$

the family of curves $1/a \times y^{2b}$ for modelling distance probabilities in low dimensions, a and b are hyperparameters

 Cross-entropy cost function makes UMAP to capture the global and local data structures

$$CE(X,Y) = \sum_i \sum_j \left[p_{ij}(X) \log \left(rac{p_{ij}(X)}{q_{ij}(Y)}
ight) + (1-p_{ij}(X)) \log \left(rac{1-p_{ij}(X)}{1-q_{ij}(Y)}
ight)
ight]$$

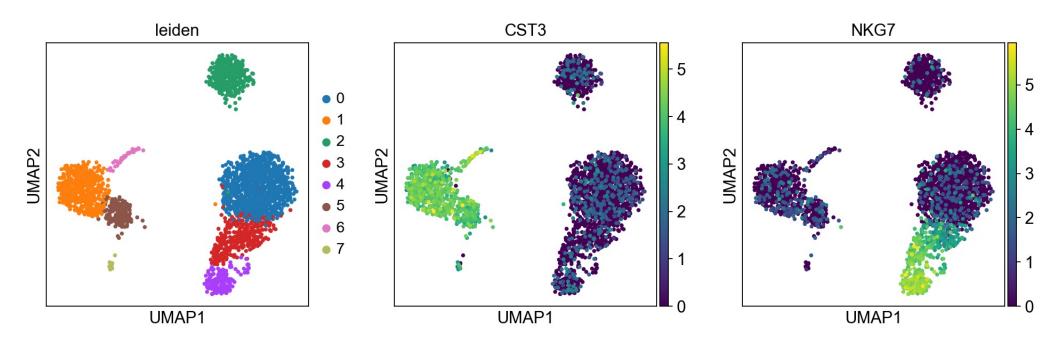
The gradient of the CE to find optimal {y_i}

$$rac{\delta CE}{\delta y_i} = \sum_j \left[rac{2abd_{ij}^{2(b-1)} P(X)}{1 + ad_{ij}^{2b}} - rac{2b(1 - P(X))}{d_{ij}^2(1 + ad_{ij}^{2b})}
ight] \; ext{ where } d_{ij} = y_i - y_j$$

UMAP examples



sc.pl.umap(adata, color=['leiden', 'CST3', 'NKG7'])



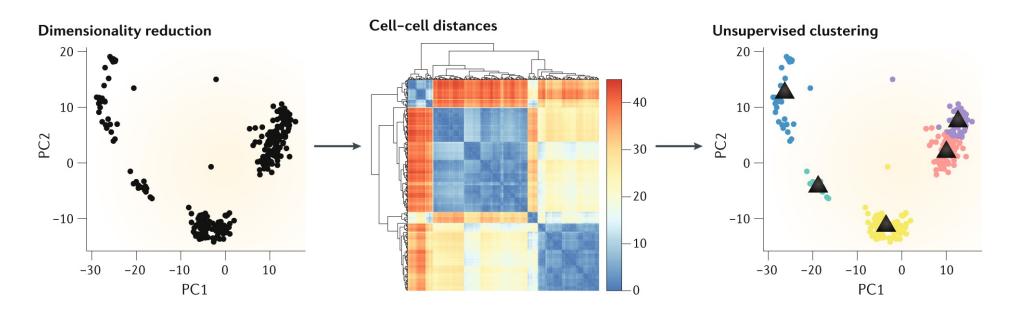
Single-cell RNA sequencing analysis

- Introduction of single cell analysis
- Dimensional reduction
 - Non-linear: t-SNE, UMAP
 - Linear: PCA

Cell clustering

- K-means
- hierarchical clustering
- · graph-based clustering

Cell clustering

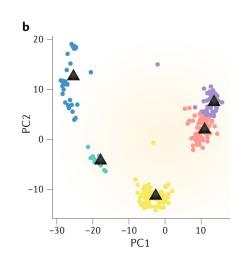


- Feature selection and dimensionality reduction extract the most informative genes and represented features from background noise, respectively
- Cell-cell distances are then calculated in the low dimensional space for clustering cells to clusters

Clustering methods for scRNA-seq

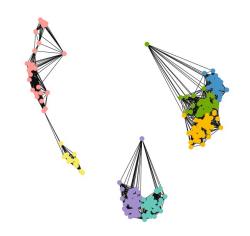
Clustering methods:

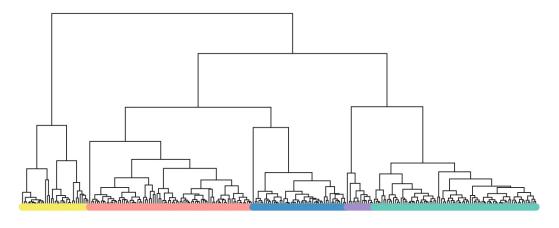
- K-means
- hierarchical clustering
- graph-based clustering



Tools for graph-based clustering:

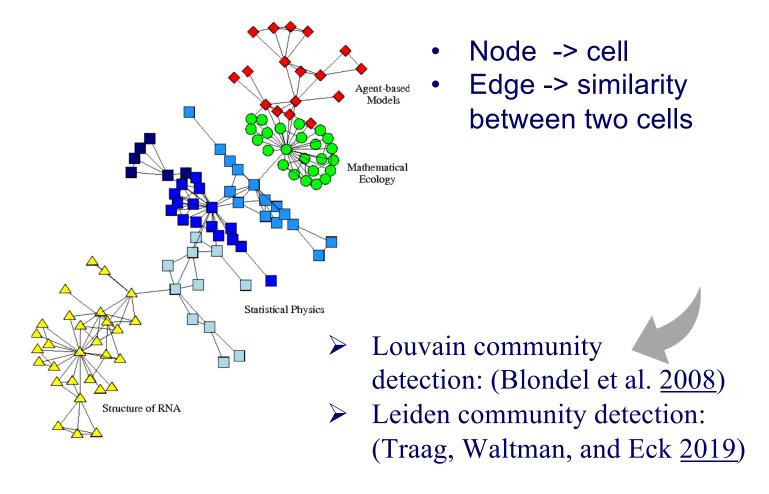
- Seurat: Louvain, Leiden, SLM
- igraph:fast greedy, Louvain, optimal, walktrap, spinglass, infomap





Graph-based clustering

One of most popular clustering algorithms in scRNA-seq data analysis

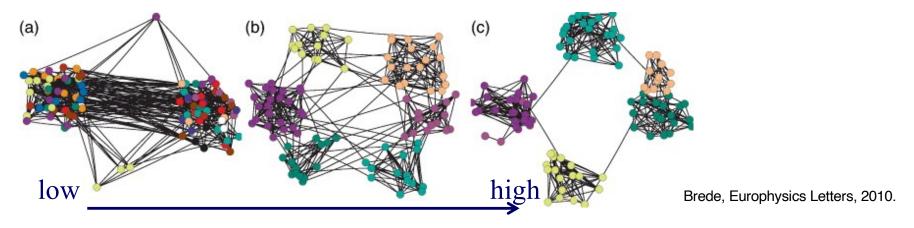


Freytag, Saskia, Luyi Tian, Ingrid Lönnstedt, Milica Ng, and Melanie Bahlo.
 2018. "Comparison of Clustering Tools in R for Medium-Sized 10x Genomics Single-Cell Rna-Sequencing Data." F1000Research 7. Faculty of 1000 Ltd.

Wasserman, S. & Faust, K. (1994) Social Network Analysis (Cambridge Univ. Press, Cambridge, U.K.).

https://biocellgen-public.svi.edu.au/mig_2019_scrnaseqworkshop/public/clustering-and-cell-annotation.html#ref-freytag2018comparison

Modularity



Modularity *Q*: measurement on strength of network division

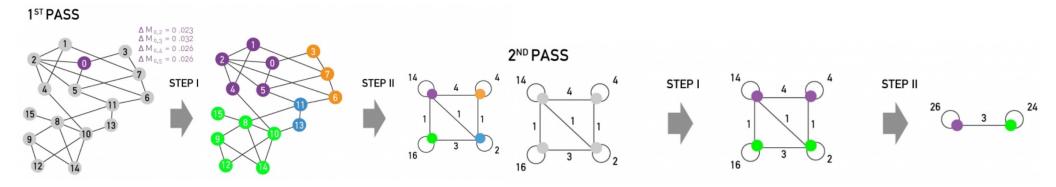
$$Q = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{i,j} \left(W_{ij} - \frac{k_i k_j}{2m} \right) \delta_{\sigma_i \sigma_j} \qquad \text{sum over nodes within a group (module)}$$
 normalization m : total number of edges
$$\text{edge weight between nodes i and j} \qquad \frac{k_i k_j}{2m} = p_{ij} \text{-expected edge weight that would go between i and j}$$



Clustering goal: assign each node a module to maximize "modularity" as an objective function (module is a group of highly connected nodes)

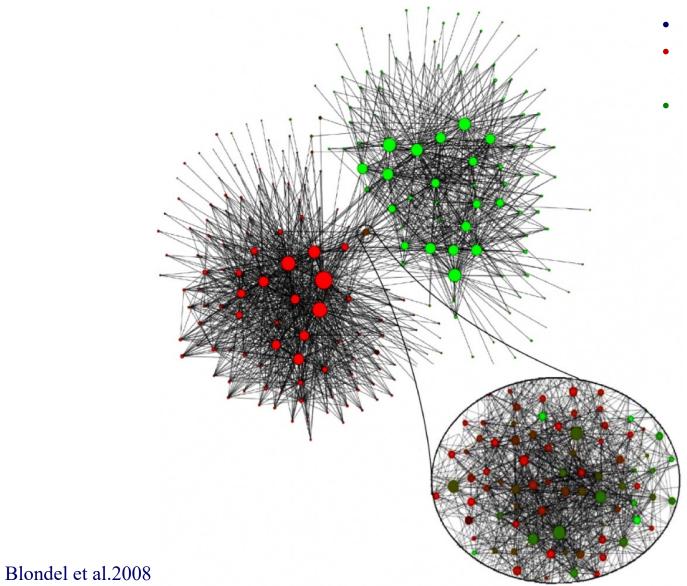
Louvain community detection

- Start with every node in its own community (i.e., module/cluster)
- Step1: Modularity optimization
 - Order the nodes and for each node i, move i to the community of neighbor j that leads to maximum ΔQ
 - If all $\Delta Q < 0$ the *i* remains in its current community
 - Repeatedly cycle through all nodes until $\Delta Q = 0$
- Step2 : Community aggregation
 - Create a weighted network of communities from Step1
 - Nodes : communities in Step1
 - Edge weights : sum of weights of edges between communities
 - Edges within a community become two self-loops
- Repeat: Apply Step1 & Step2 to resulting network, and so on until $\Delta Q = 0$



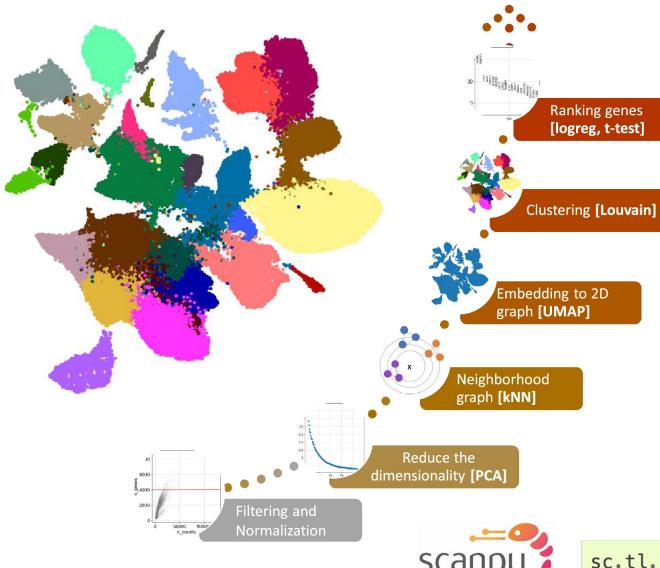
Examples of Louvain clustering

Belgian mobile phone network



- 2M nodes
- Red nodes: French speakers
- Green nodes: Dutch speakers

Examples of Louvain clustering



The Louvain algorithm clusters millions of cell with reasonable computational complexity.

sc.tl.louvain(adata, resolution=1.0)