

Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics

Dimensionality Reduction

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What for?

scRNA-Seq data is composed by thousand of genes:

- "Remove" redundancies in the data
- Identify the most relevant information (find and filter noise)
- Reduce computational time for downstream procedures
- Facilitate clustering, since some algorithms struggle with too many dimensions
- Data visualization



DR: Don't

- They are not perfect representation of the high dimension
- One does loose information
- What is close in the projection might actually be far.
- What is far might actually be close
- Conclusions (specially biologically relevant conclusions) should NOT be drawn baed on the dimensionality reduction.



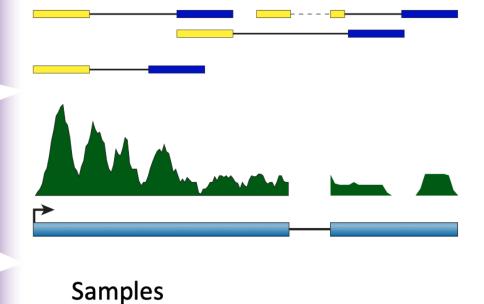
It is all about matrix

Raw RNA-Seq reads

Alignment and quantification

Genes

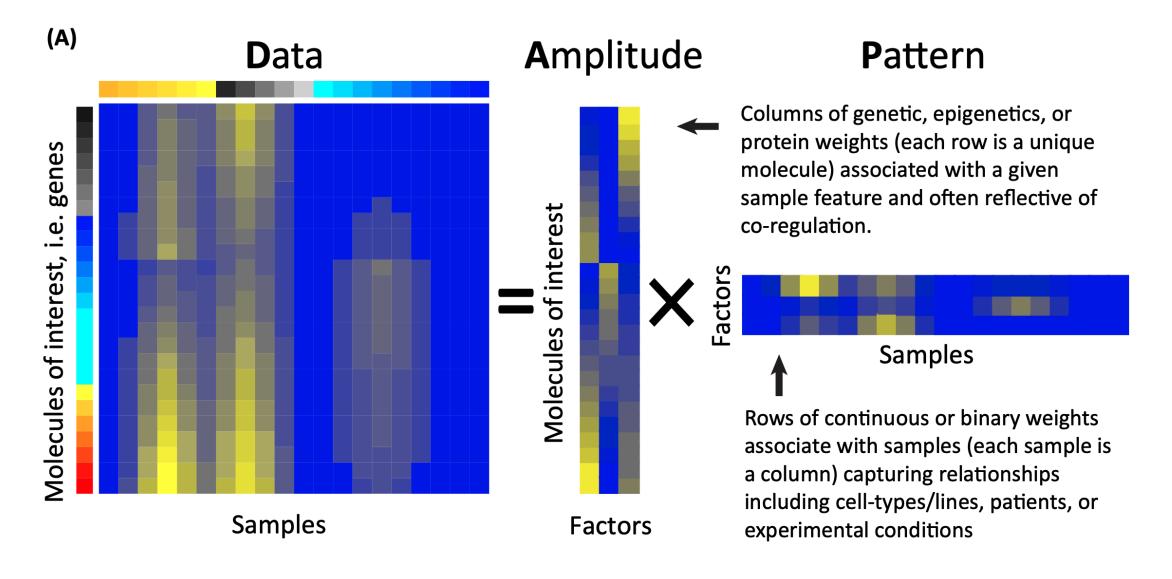
Normalization and log-transformation



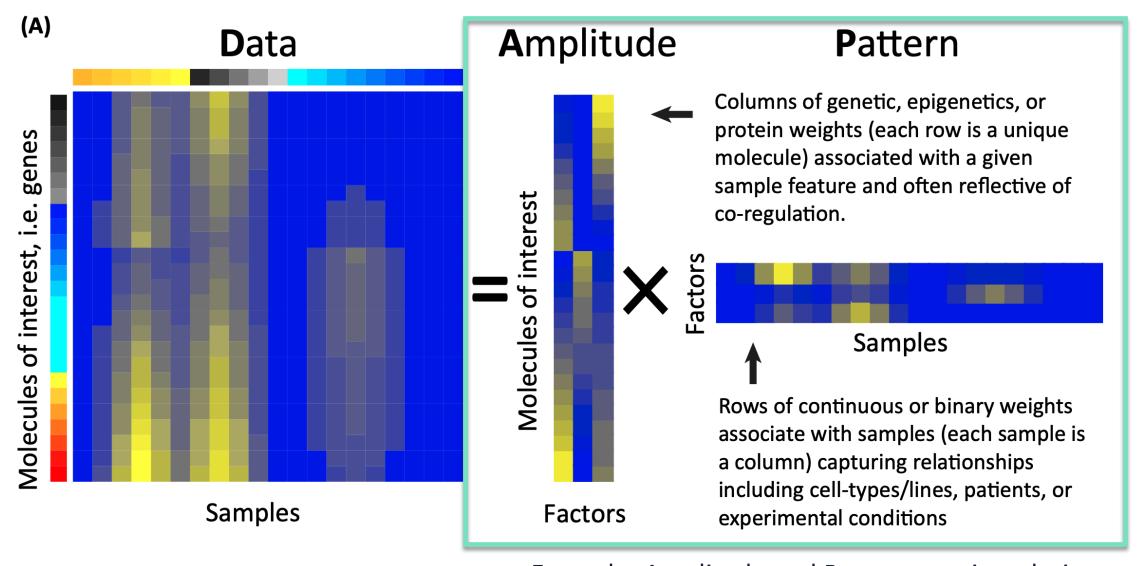
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Matrix Factorization



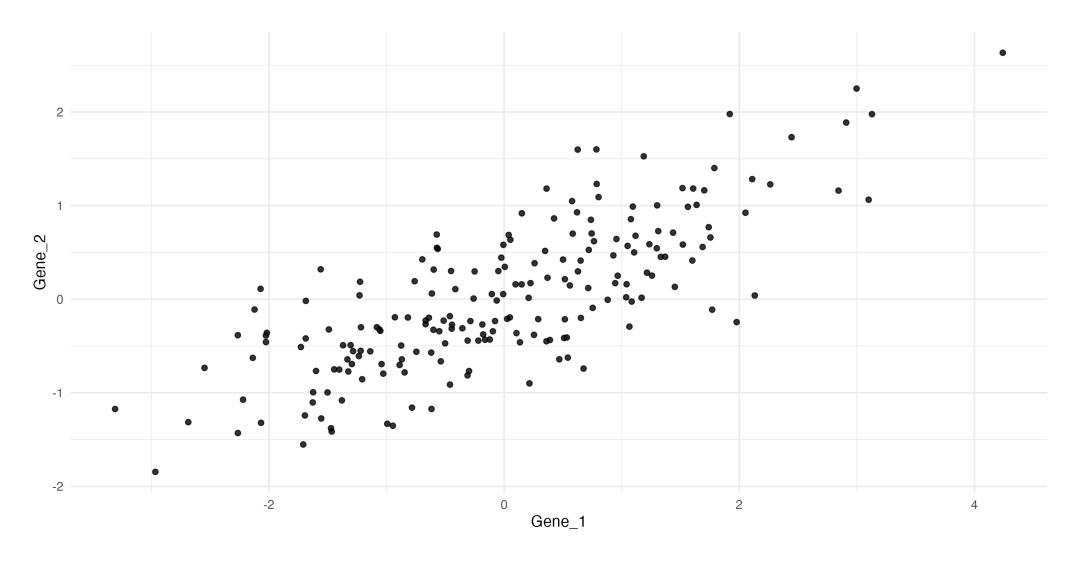
Matrix Factorization







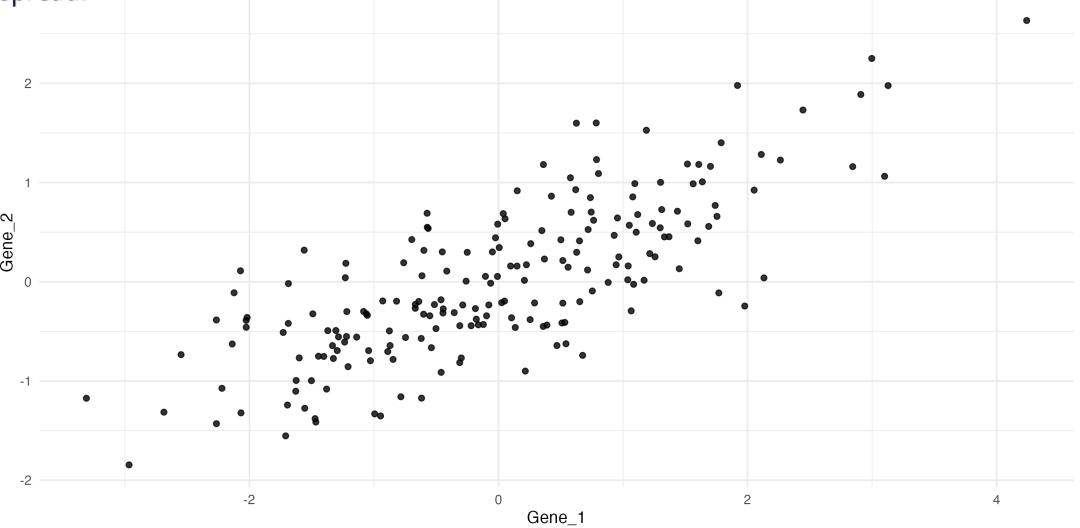
PCA learns orthogonal factors ordered by the relative amount of variation of the data that they explain





PCA identifies the two directions (PC1 and PC2) along which the data have the largest

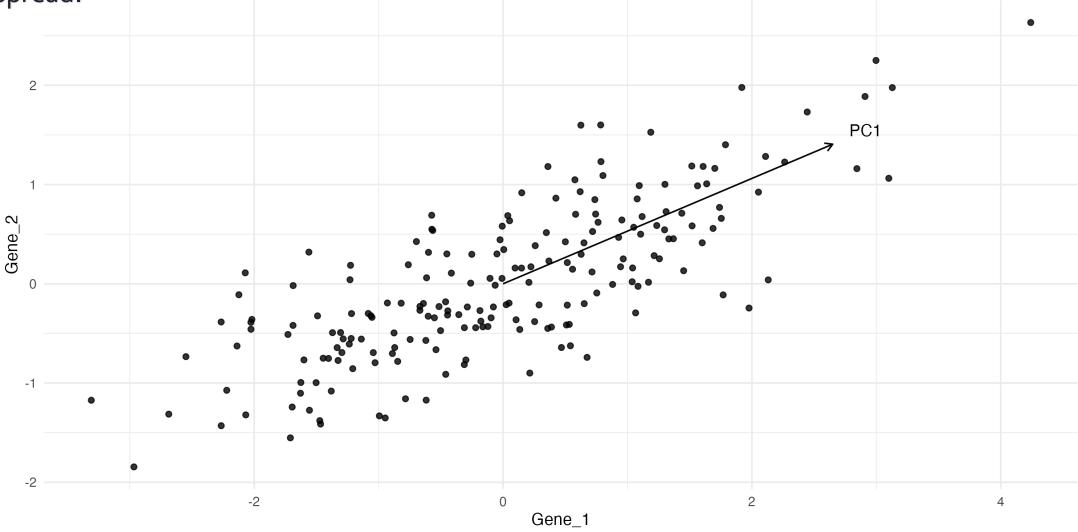
spread.





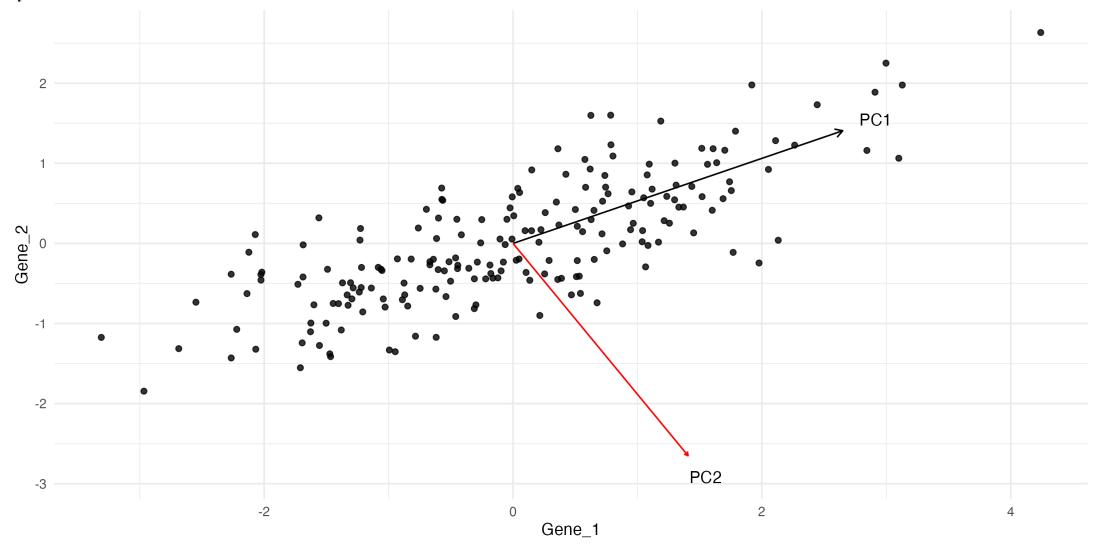
PCA identifies the two directions (PC1 and PC2) along which the data have the largest

spread.



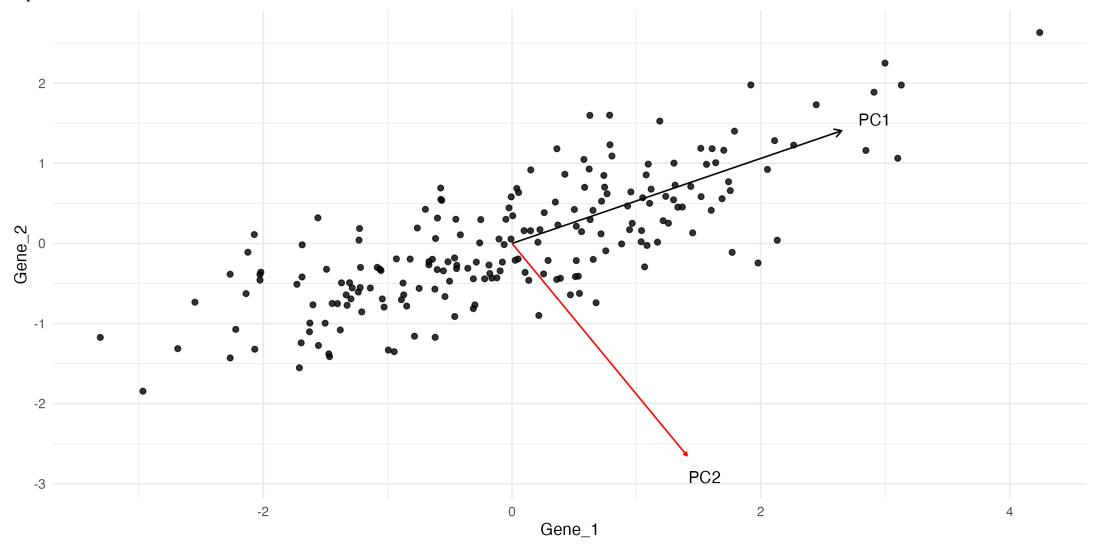


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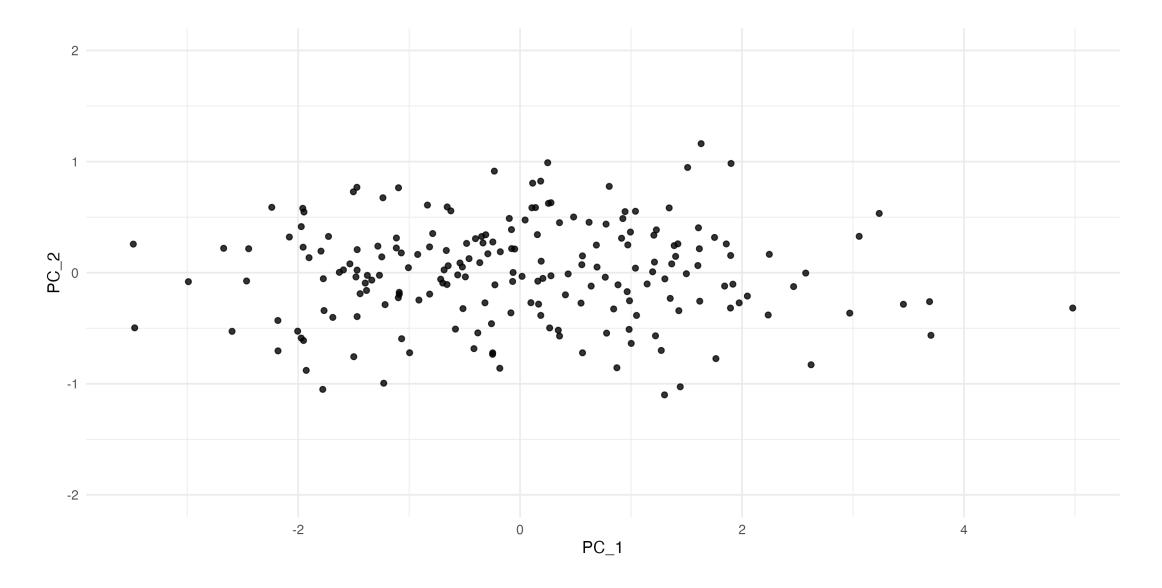


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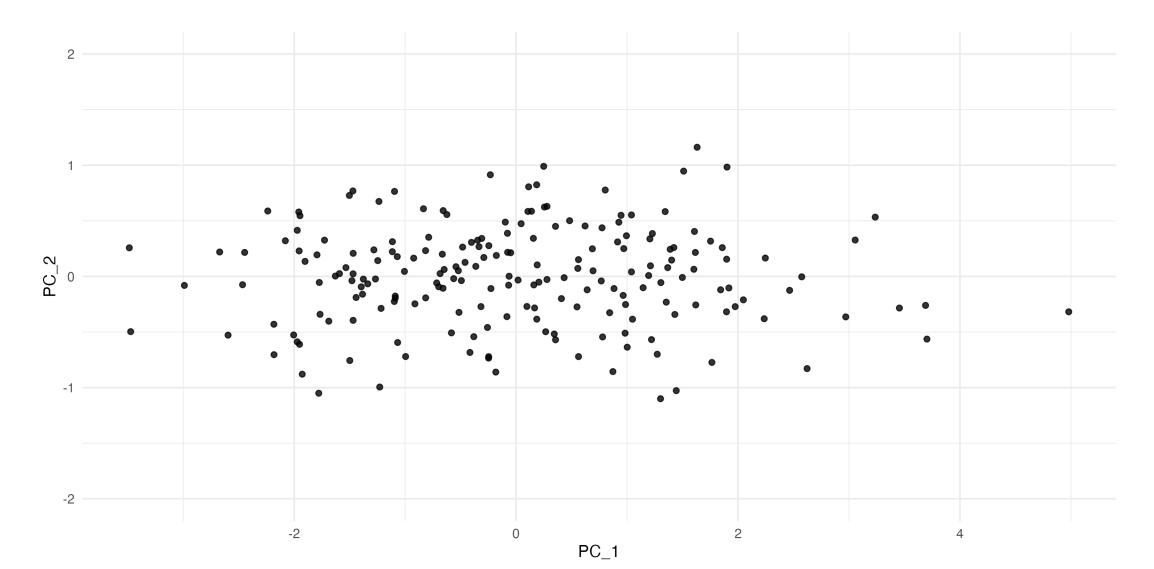


New axis that are linear combination of the original axes



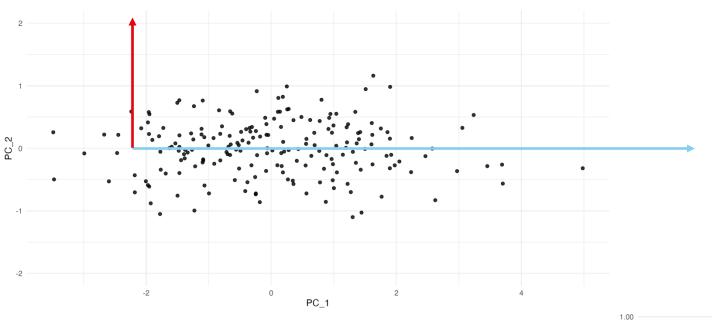


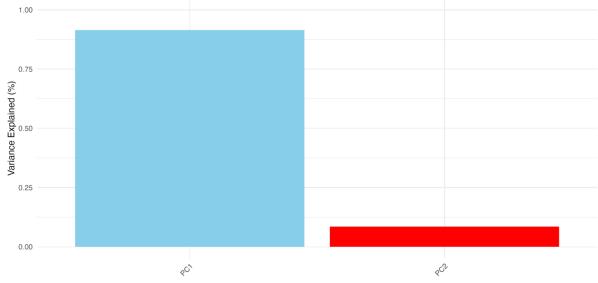
New axis that are linear combination of the original axes





New axis that are linear combination of the original axes







Mathematically

Calculate the covariance matrix

- How each gene's expression correlates with every other gene's expression across cells.
- High covariance suggests that two genes have similar patterns across cells.

Eigen Decomposition

- **Eigenvectors** (Principal Components, PCs): Represent new axes (or directions) in the data space along which the variation is maximized.
- **Eigenvalues**: Indicate the amount of variance explained by each PC.

Projection into the eigenvectors

- Genes are projected onto the new set of axes (PCs).
- Each cell now has a score (coordinate) on each PC, representing its position in the reduced-dimension space.



Choosing the number of PCs

A **LINEAR** dimensionality reduction technique and the **TOP** principal components contain higher variance from the data.

PCA finds **dominant sources** of variation in high-dimensional datasets, inferring genes that distinguish between samples. Maximizing the variability captured in specific factors, as opposed to spreading relatively evenly among factors, may mix different biological signal in a single component.

We could select:

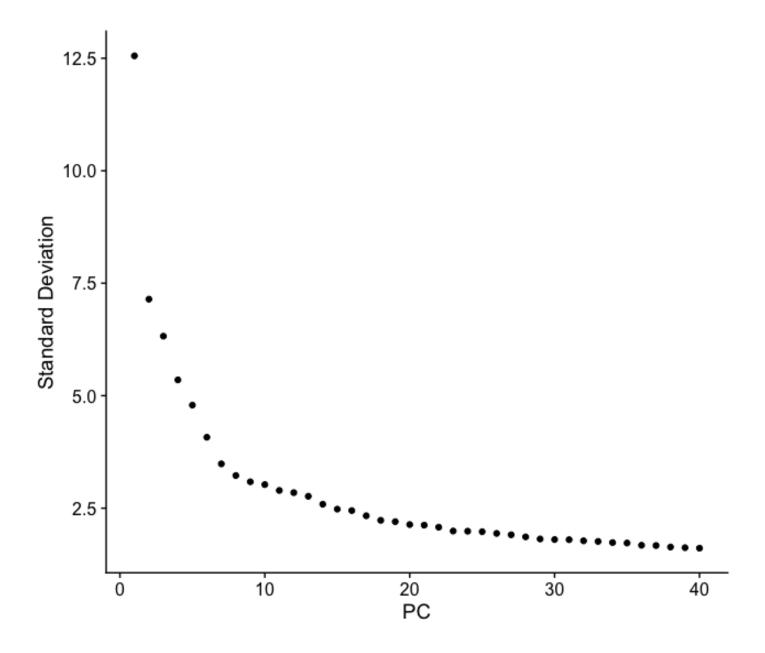
- PCs that explain at least 1% of variance
- Jackstraw of significant p-values
- The first 5-10 PCs

Issue:

 Cell sizes and sequencing depth are usually captured in the top principal components

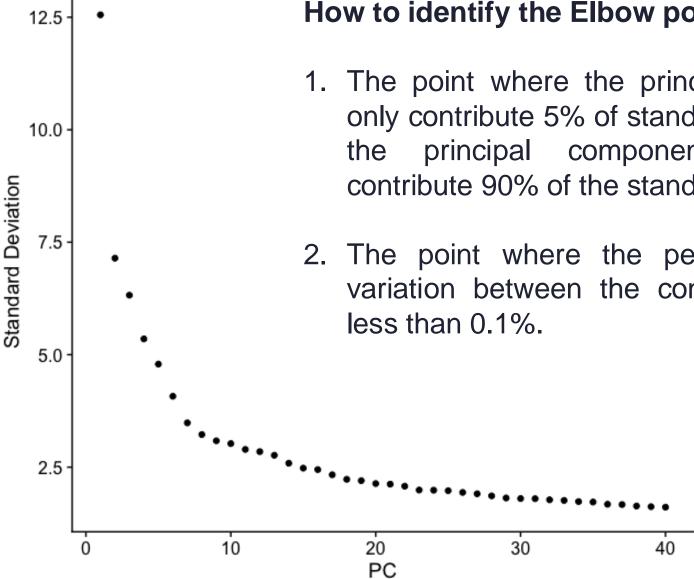


In real-life





The Elbow-point

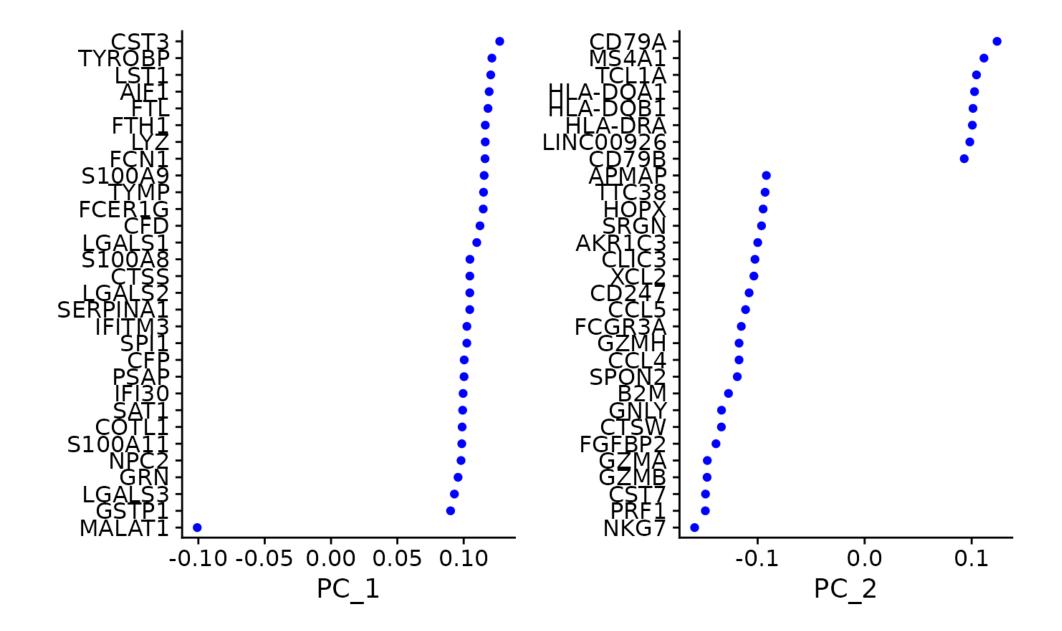


How to identify the Elbow point:

- 1. The point where the principal components only contribute 5% of standard deviation and principal components cumulatively contribute 90% of the standard deviation
- 2. The point where the percent change in variation between the consecutive PCs is



Take a look at PCs





Non-linear Methods for Dimensionality Reduction





t-SNE

t-distributed Stochastic Neighbourhood Embedding

Authors: Laurens van der Maaten, Geoffrey Everest Hinton http://www.jmlr.org/papers/volumeg/vandermaateno8a/vandermaateno8a.pdf

Non-linear dimensionality reduction approach. It reduces the high-dimensional data into a two- or three-dimensional space in such a way that:

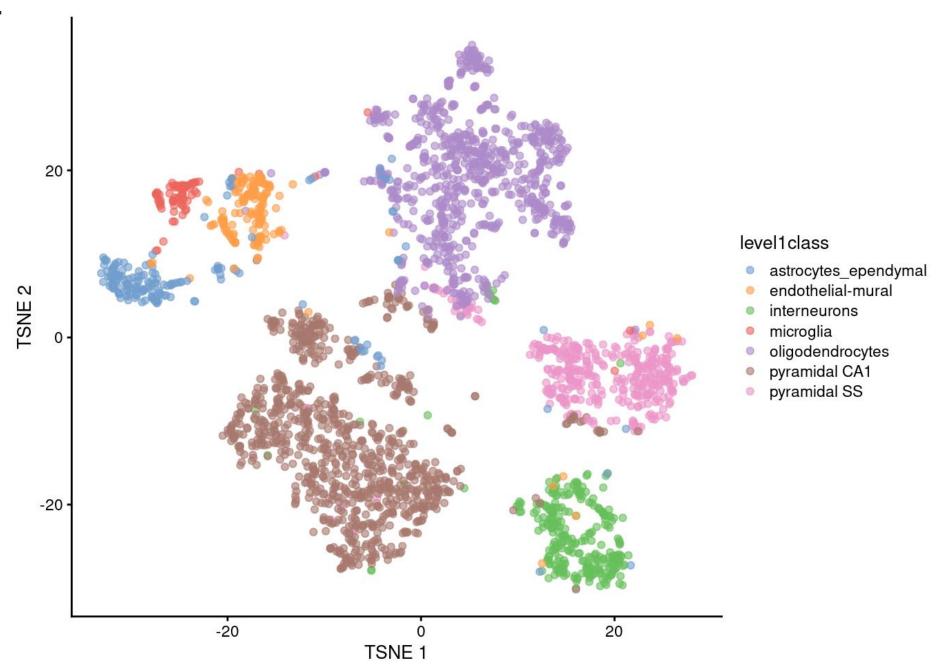
- Similar objects/samples/cells are modelled by nearby points
- Dissimilar objects/samples/cells are modelled by distant points

Minimize the divergence between:

- Distribution of the pairwise similarities of the input objects/samples/cells
- Distribution of the pairwise similarities of corresponding low-dimensional points in embedding

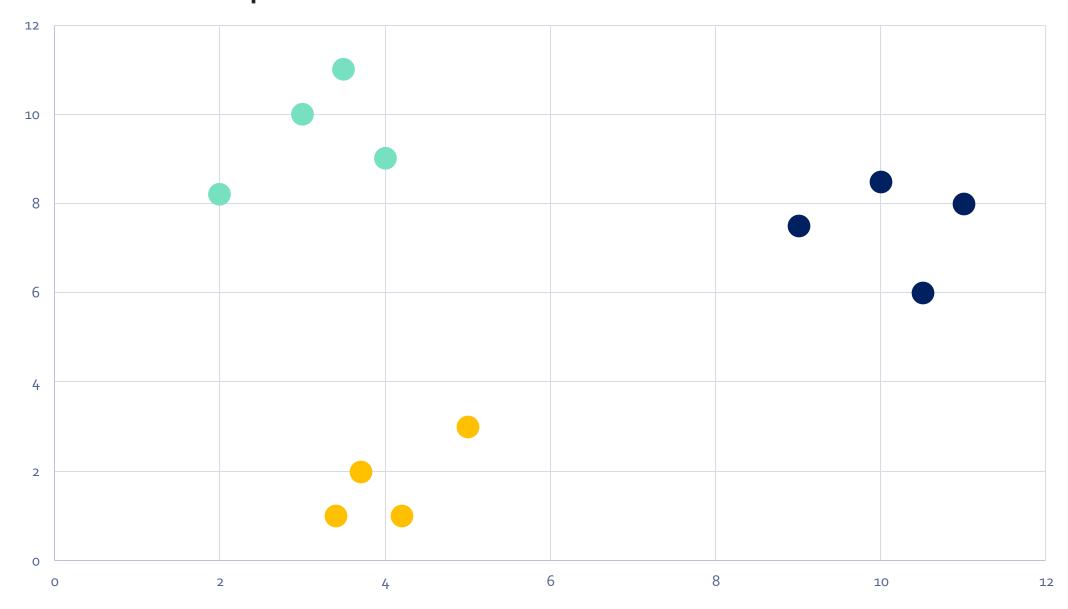


t-SNE



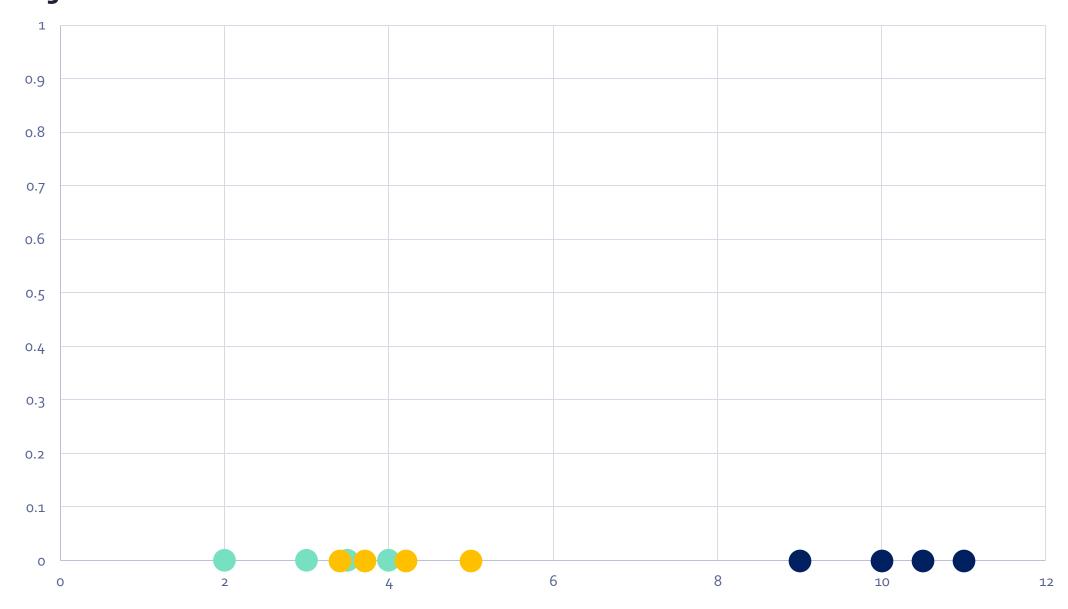


t-SNE - Example



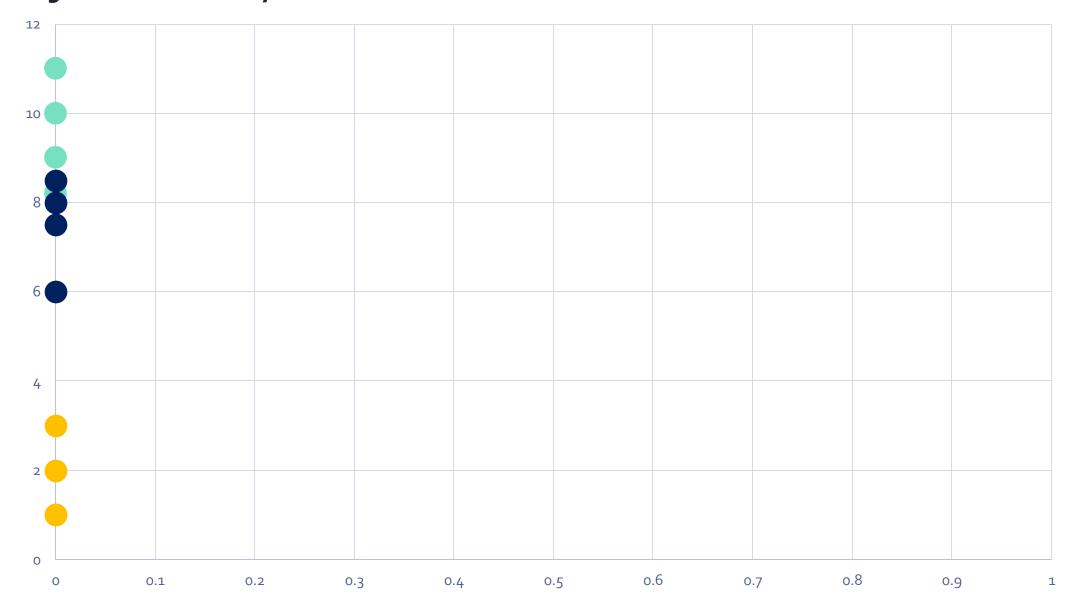


Projection on x-axes





Projection on y-axes





t-SNE

Minimize the divergence between:

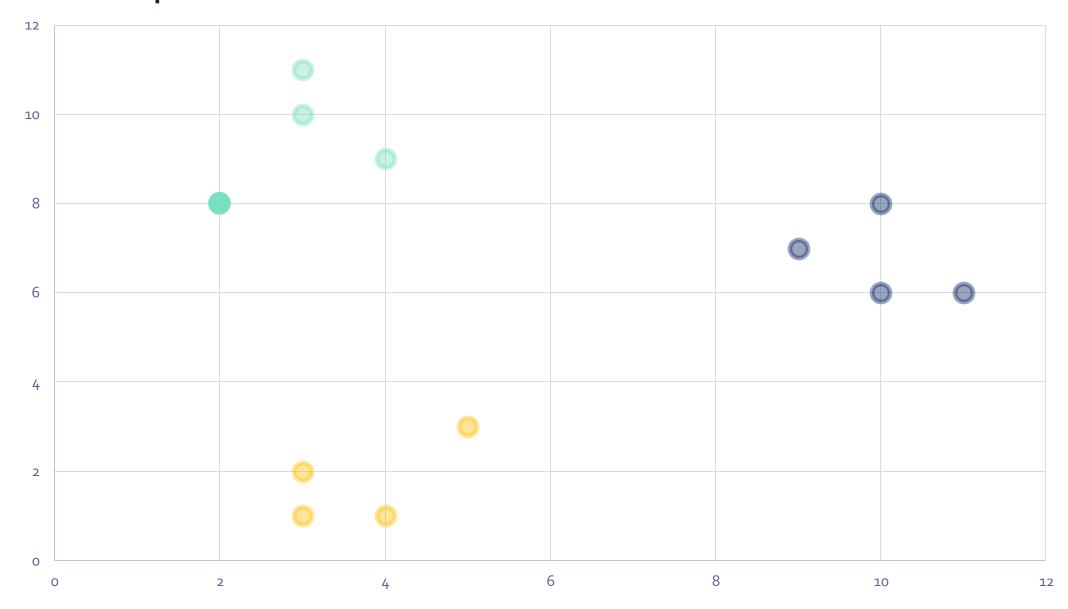
- Distribution of the pairwise similarities of the input objects/samples/cells
- Distribution of the pairwise similarities of corresponding low-dimensional points in embedding

Three stages:

- Calculating a joint probability distribution that represents the similarities between the data points
- Creating a dataset of points in the target dimension and then calculating the joint probability distribution for them as well
- Using gradient descent to change the dataset in the low-dimensional space so that the joint probability distribution representing it would be as similar as possible to the one in the high dimension

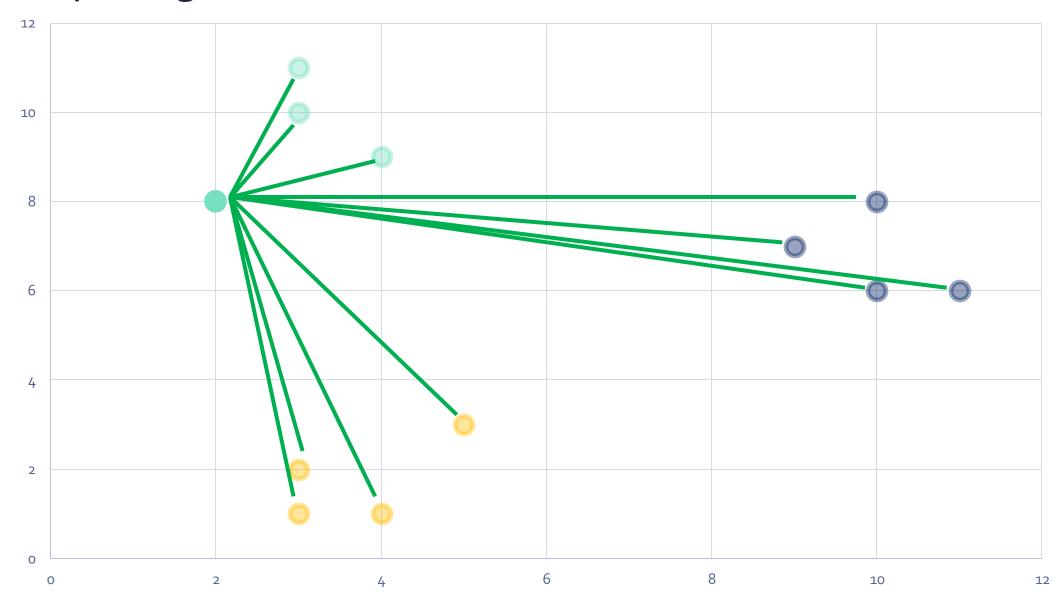


First-Step



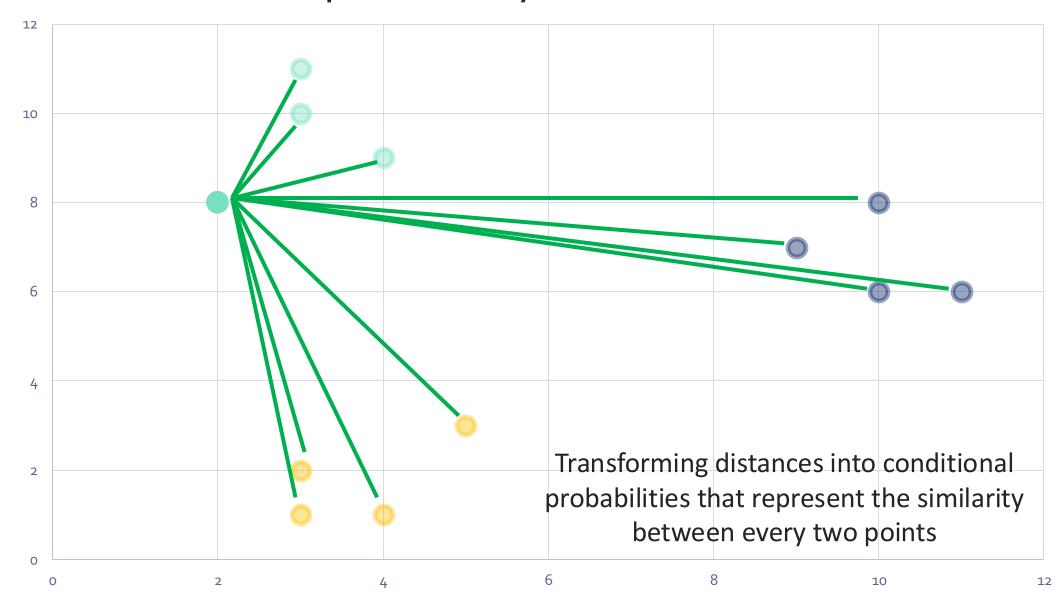


Computing distances





From distance to probability

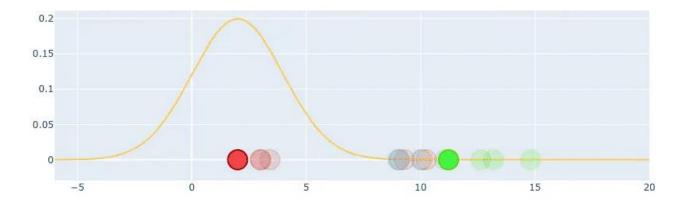




Coditional Probrability

The conditional probability of point x_i to be next to point x_i is represented by a Gaussian cantered at x_i with a standard deviation of σ_i

$$p_{j|i} = \frac{\exp(-\|x_i - x_j\|^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-\|x_i - x_k\|^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}$$

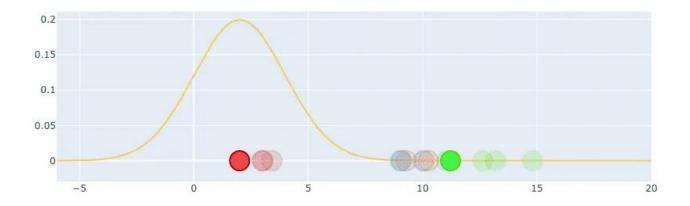




From conditional probability to joint-probability

The conditional probability of point x_i to be next to point x_i is represented by a Gaussian cantered at x_i with a standard deviation of σ_i

$$p_{j|i} = \frac{\exp(-\|x_i - x_j\|^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}{\sum_{k \neq i} \exp(-\|x_i - x_k\|^2 / 2\sigma_i^2)}$$



joint probability distribution:

$$p_{ij} = \frac{p_{j|i} + p_{i|j}}{2n}$$



Creating data in a low dimension

A random set of points in 1D



For this set of points, we will create their joint probability distribution but this time we will be using the <u>t-distribution</u> and not the Gaussian

Kullback-Leiber divergence to make the joint probability distribution of the data points in the low dimension as similar as possible to the one from the original dataset.



Creating data in a low dimension

A random set of points in 1D



For this set of points, we will create their joint probability distribution but this time we will be using the <u>t-distribution</u> and not the Gaussian

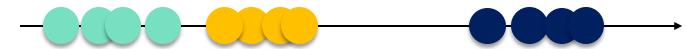
Kullback-Leiber (KL) divergence to make the joint probability distribution of the data points in the low dimension as similar as possible to the one from the original dataset.





Creating data in a low dimension

t-SNE uses gradient descent to minimize is the KL divergence of the joint probability distribution P from the high-dimensional space and Q from the low-dimensional space.



Key parameters:

Gradient descent:

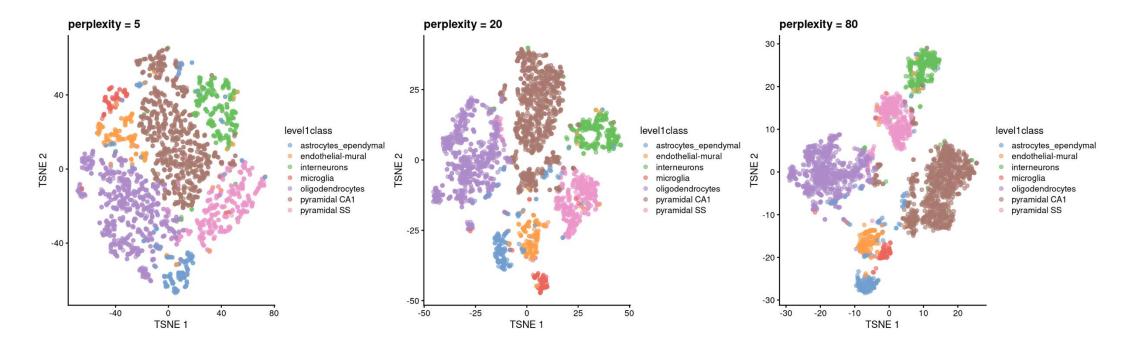
- learning rate
- number of iterations

Perplexity. It is used for choosing the standard deviation σ_i of the Gaussian representing the conditional distribution in the high-dimensional space. The model is rather robust for perplexities between 5 to 50, but it has a huge impact on the final plot.



Perplexity

The "perplexity" is an important parameter that determines the granularity of the visualization.





Non-linear Methods for Dimensionality Reduction





UMAP

Manifold Approximation and Projection

Authors: McInnes L. and Healy J.

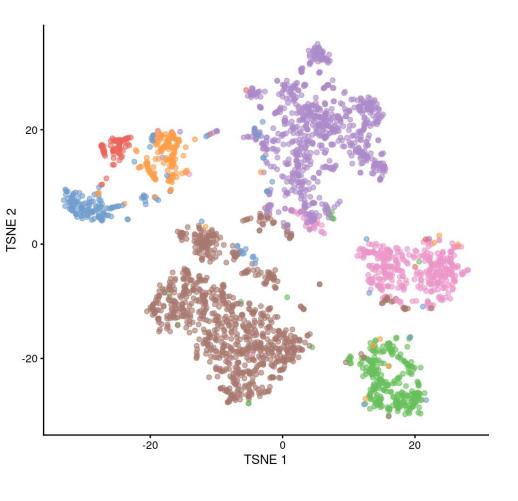
Uniform Manifold Approximation and Projection for Dimension Reduction, ArXiv e-prints 1802.03426, 2018

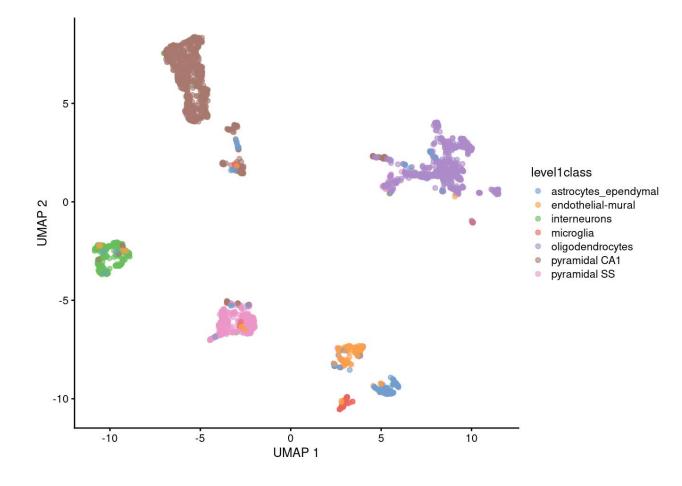
Non-linear dimensionality reduction approach. It offers several advantages over t-SNE:

- · increased speed
- better preservation of the data's global structure
- It can use any distance metrics
- Defines both LOCAL and GLOBAL distances
- Can be applied to new data points
- Works on original data, but best on PCA reduced dimension (default in Seurat)



T-SNE vs UMAP



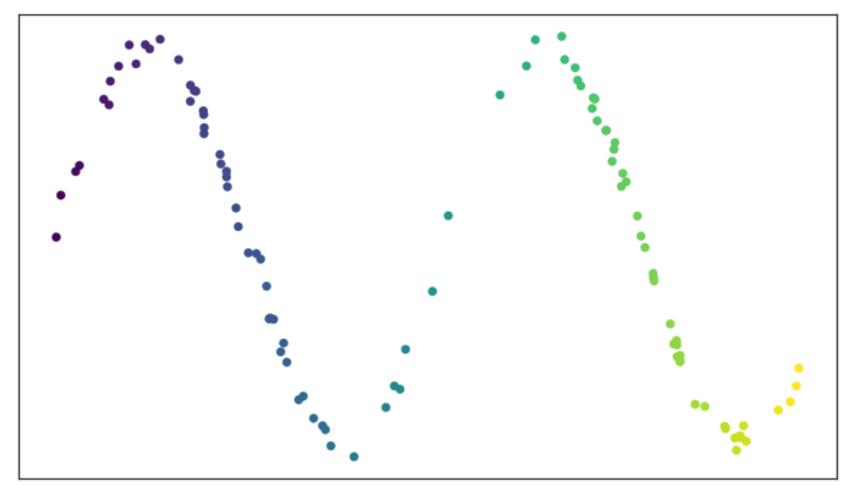




Step 1: construct the initial high-dimensional graph, UMAP builds something called a "fuzzy simplicial complex". This is really just a representation of a weighted graph, with edge weights representing the likelihood that two points are connected.

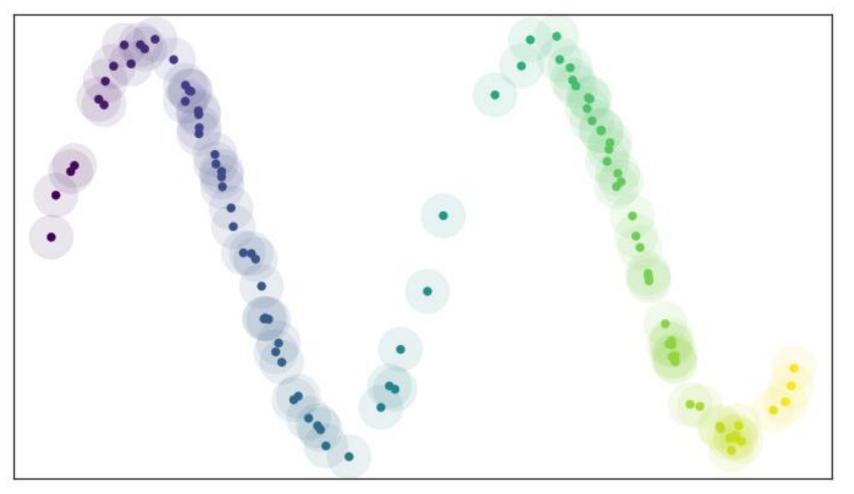


Step 1: UMAP extends a radius outwards from each point



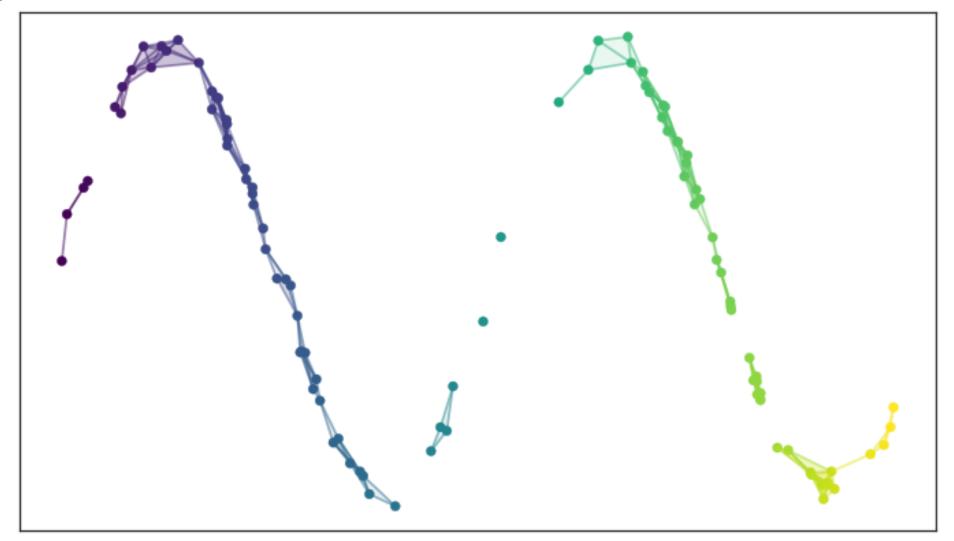


Step 1: UMAP extends a radius outwards from each point





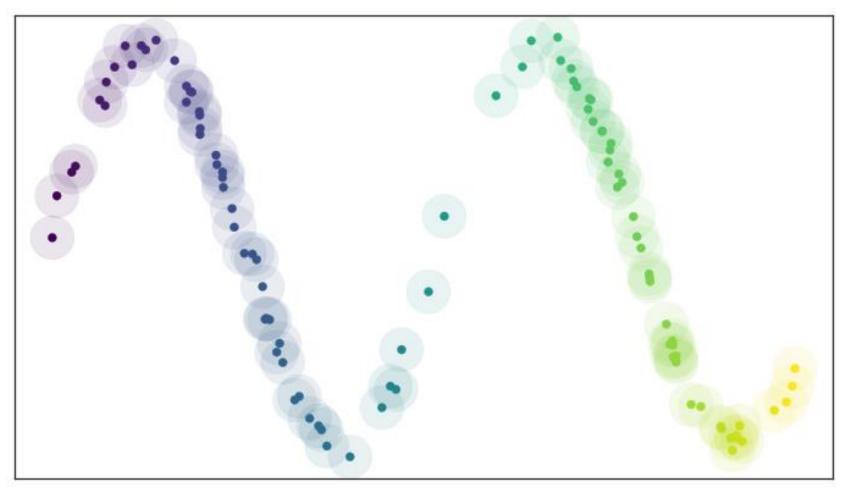
Step 1: UMAP extends a radius outwards from each point, connecting points when those radii overlap





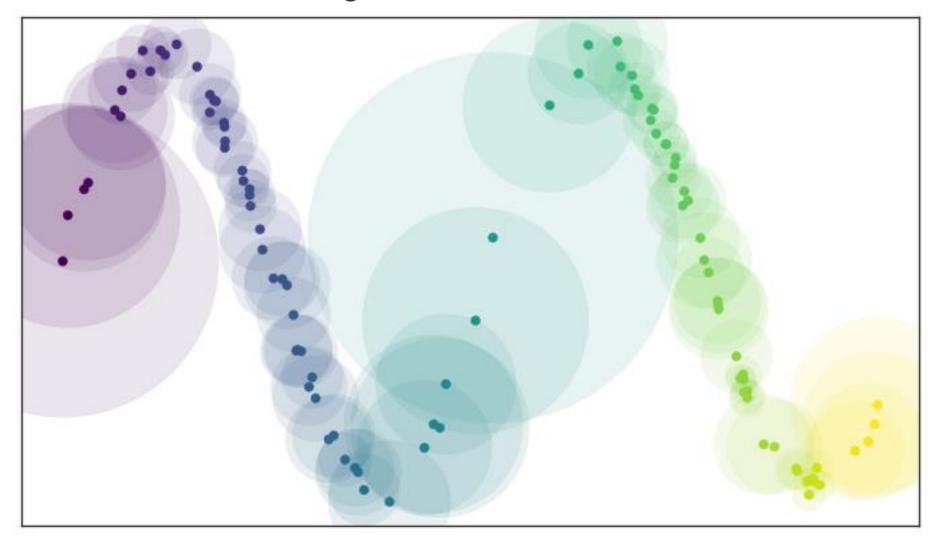
Choosing this radius is critical:

- too small a choice will lead to small, isolated clusters
- too large a choice will connect everything together



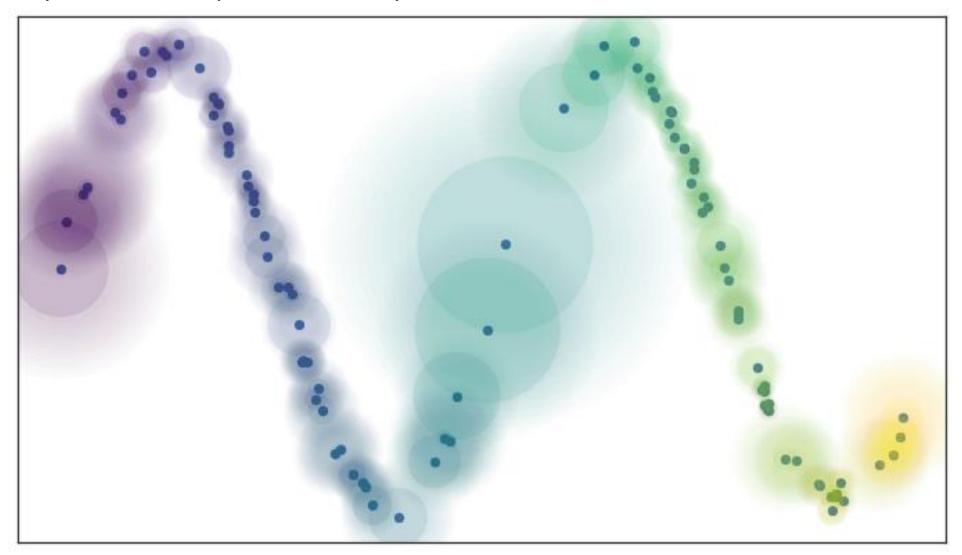


Rather than using a fixed radius, UMAP uses a variable radius determined for each point based on the distance to its kth nearest neighbours.





Within this local radius, connectedness is then made "fuzzy" by making each connection a probability, with further points less likely to be connected.

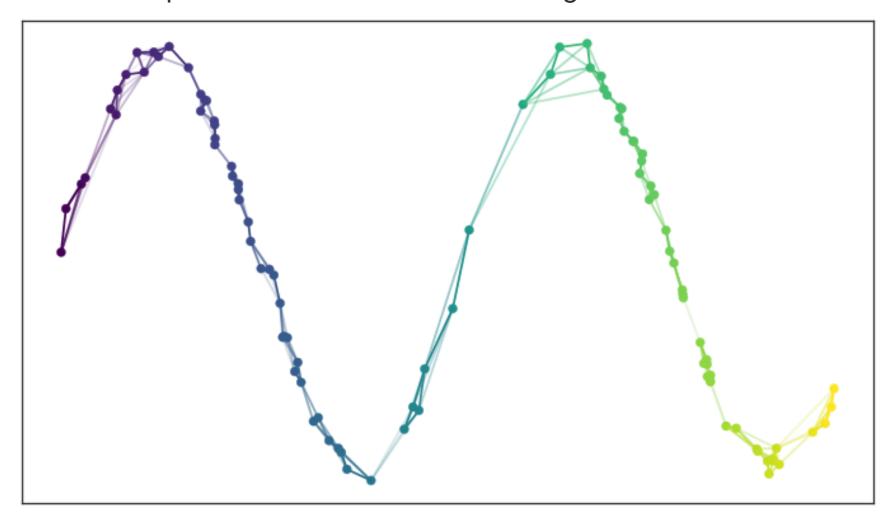




All points must be connected to at least its closest neighboring point.

The final output of this process is a weighted graph, with edge weights represent

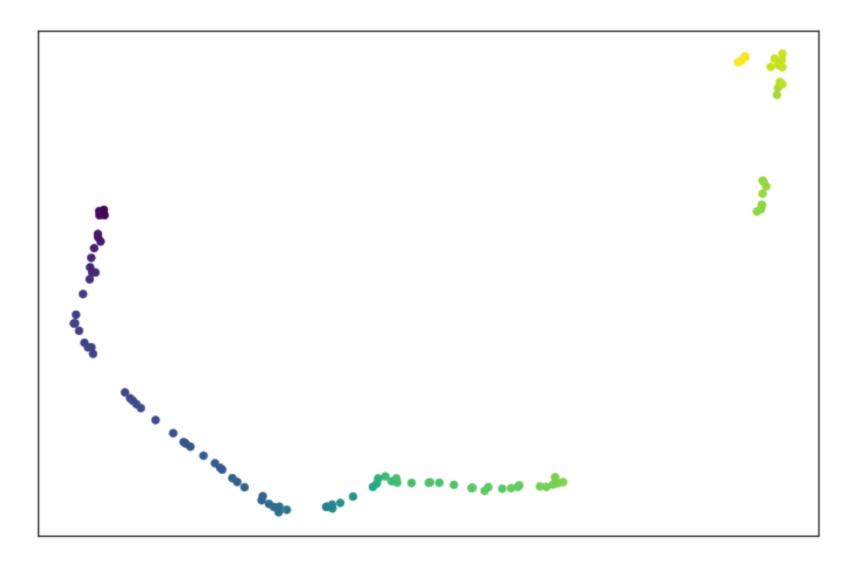
The final output of this process is a weighted graph, with edge weights representing the likelihood that two points are "connected" in our high-dimensional manifold.





Final Step

Once the final, fuzzy simplicial complex is constructed, UMAP projects the data into lower dimensions essentially via a force-directed graph layout algorithm





Key hyper-parameters

- **1. n_neighbors:** Determines the number of neighboring points considered when computing the local structure of the data. It defines the balance between local and global structure in the UMAP embedding.
 - Typical Values: Ranges from 5 to 50. For scRNA-Seq data, values around 10-30 are often used.
 - Lower values focus on capturing the local structure (more fine-grained clusters).
 - Higher values provide a more global view of the data, potentially merging clusters.
- **2. min_dist:** Controls how tightly UMAP packs points together in the low-dimensional space. It sets the minimum distance between points in the embedded space.
 - Typical Values: Between 0.001 and 0.5. For scRNA-Seq, a common default is around 0.1.
 - Lower values (e.g., 0.001) will result in more compact clusters, making it easier to identify tight groupings.

 Higher values (e.g., 0.5) allow for more spread-out points, which can reveal broader patterns but may blur smaller clusters.
- **3. metric**: Defines the distance metric used to measure how similar or dissimilar two data points are. Common metrics include 'euclidean,' 'manhattan,' 'cosine,' and more.
- **4.** n_components: Specifies the number of dimensions in the output space. For visualization, this is typically set to 2 (for 2D plots) or 3 (for 3D plots).



Notes on UMAP

1. Hyperparameters really matter

Run UMAP multiple times with a variety of hyperparameters, how is the projection affected by its parameters?

2. Cluster sizes in a UMAP plot mean nothing
The size of clusters relative to each other is essentially meaningless

3. Distances between clusters might not mean anything The distances between clusters is likely to be meaningless

4. Spurious clustering can be observed
Due to Random noise that doesn't always look random (e.g. low values of n neighbors)

5. UMAP is stochastic

Different runs with the same hyperparameters can yield different results



Consideration

- t-SNE and UMAP are both for data visualization.
- t-SNE and UMAP are both non-linear, graph-based methods for dimensionality reduction in scRNA-seq analysis.
- t-SNE moves the high dimensional graph to a lower dimensional space points by points. UMAP compresses that graph.
- Key parameters for t-SNE and UMAP are the perplexity and number of neighbors, respectively.
- UMAP is more time-saving due to the clever solution in creating a rough estimation of the high dimensional graph instead of measuring every point.
- UMAP gives a better balance between local versus global structure, thus
 overall gives a more accurate presentation of the global structure. This will
 come in handy in trajectory analysis.



Skepticism about this methods

PLOS COMPUTATIONAL BIOLOGY

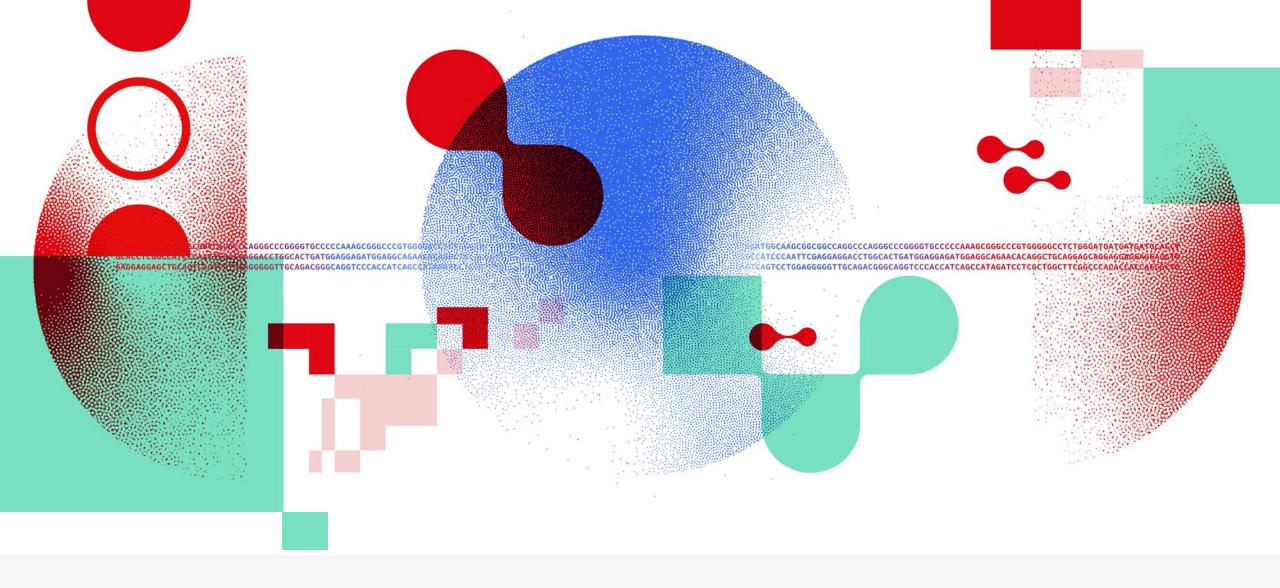
PERSPECTIVE

The specious art of single-cell genomics

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Thank you





