# Topology based data analysis identifies a subgroup of breast cancers with a unique mutational profile and excellent survival

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Contributed by Arnold J. Levine, February 25, 2011 (sent for review July 23, 2010)

High-throughput biological data, whether generated as sequencing, transcriptional microarrays, proteomic, or other means, continues to require analytic methods that address its high dimensional aspects. Because the computational part of data analysis ultimately identifies shape characteristics in the organization of data sets, the mathematics of shape recognition in high dimensions continues to be a crucial part of data analysis. This article introduces a method that extracts information from highthroughput microarray data and, by using topology, provides greater depth of information than current analytic techniques. The method, termed Progression Analysis of Disease (PAD), first identifies robust aspects of cluster analysis, then goes deeper to find a multitude of biologically meaningful shape characteristics in these data. Additionally, because PAD incorporates a visualization tool, it provides a simple picture or graph that can be used to further explore these data. Although PAD can be applied to a wide range of high-throughput data types, it is used here as an example to analyze breast cancer transcriptional data. This identified a unique subgroup of Estrogen Receptor-positive (ER+) breast cancers that express high levels of c-MYB and low levels of innate inflammatory genes. These patients exhibit 100% survival and no metastasis. No supervised step beyond distinction between tumor and healthy patients was used to identify this subtype. The group has a clear and distinct, statistically significant molecular signature, it highlights coherent biology but is invisible to cluster methods, and does not fit into the accepted classification of Luminal A/B, Normal-like subtypes of ER+ breast cancers. We denote the group as c-MYB+ breast cancer.

applied topology | p53 | systems biology

ncreasingly it has become clear that, for most cancers, understanding the disease demands exploring biological processes as complex functioning systems and the pathology observed as a disruption in the coordinated performance of such systems. This viewpoint necessitates incorporating high-throughput data in the study of these diseases and consequently demands the continued development of mathematical analytic methods geared specifically to such data. The fundamental mathematical challenges in extracting meaningful information from high-throughput biological data stem, ultimately, from the difficulty in understanding the intrinsic shape of data in high dimensions (1). Shape characteristics such as kurtosis, modality, or the presence of outliers have always played a crucial role in the analysis of data, but the high dimensionality of genomic data poses mathematical difficulties in identifying its geometry. Additionally, biological phenomena are intrinsically highly variable and stochastic in nature, and notions of biological similarity are less rigid. Consequently, analysis methods for biomedical data need to identify shape characteristics that are fairly robust to changes by rescaling of distances and therefore become more qualitative in nature. This has led us to use methods adapted from the mathematics area of topology, which studies precisely the characteristics of shapes that are not rigid. The particular method we introduce in the present article is intermediate between clustering and more distancesensitive methods like *Principal Component Analysis* (*PCA*) and multidimensional scaling. This hybrid approach is able to extract unique biology from data sets. As an example, we applied our method of analysis to breast cancer transcriptional genomic data and identified a molecularly distinct unique breast cancer subgroup of *Estrogen Receptor*-positive (*ER*<sup>+</sup>) tumors that have 100% overall survival and whose molecular signature is distinct from normal tissue and other breast cancers.

This article introduces Progression Analysis of Disease (PAD), an approach to data analysis of disease that unravels the geometry of data sets and provides an easily accessible picture of the outcome. This method is an application of Mapper (2), a mathematical tool that builds a simple geometric representation of data along preassigned guiding functions called filters. Mapper provides both a method for mathematical data analysis and a visualization tool; the filter functions introduced through Mapper define a framework for supervised analysis. The output of the analysis approximates a collapse of the data into a simple, low dimensional shape, and the filter functions act as guides along which the collapse is done. Mapper has already been used successfully to uncover unique subtle aspects of the folding patterns of RNA (3). Here we define an application of Mapper to the analysis of transcriptionally genomic data from disease, with guiding filter functions provided by Disease-Specific Genomic Analysis (DSGA) (4). DSGA is a method of mathematical analysis of genomic data that highlights the component of data relevant to disease, by defining a transformation that measures the extent to which diseased tissue deviates from healthy tissue. DSGA has been shown to both (i) outperform traditional methods of analysis, and (ii) highlight unique biology. In combination with Mapper, DSGA transformations provide a means to define the guiding filter function, essentially by unraveling the data according to the extent of overall deviation from a healthy state.

We make *PAD* available as a Web tool, with options for *DSGA* only, *Mapper* only, or a combination of the two (5).

Our method, PAD, is able to identify geometric characteristics of these data that are obscured when using cluster analysis. Long gradual drifts in the graphs of these data are visible, as for example are expected when the results consist of patients with progressively advanced stages of disease. More importantly, by preserving the geometry of these data, PAD has identified a unique subset of breast cancers that exhibit clear and coherent clinical characteristics. Specifically, we applied PAD to breast cancer transcriptional microarray data (6) and identified two

Author contributions: M.N., A.J.L., and G.C. designed research; M.N. performed research; M.N., A.J.L., and G.C. analyzed data; and M.N., A.J.L., and G.C. wrote the paper.

The authors declare no conflict of interest

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This article contains supporting information online at www.pnas.org/lookup/suppl/doi:10.1073/pnas.1102826108/-/DCSupplemental.

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distinct ER<sup>+</sup> molecular subtypes with 100% overall survival, whose molecular signatures are distinct from one another. It is important to note that survival information, given above, was not incorporated into the original analysis; rather, these two groups of patients were identified solely on the basis of gene expression data and its geometry in space. When the survival characteristics of each group were explored after PAD analysis was completed, each group turned out to have 100% overall survival. Both groups are  $ER^+$  and her2-amplification negative (her2<sup>-</sup>). One of these groups has a molecular signature that is similar to that of normal tissue and has been observed before and denoted as Normal-like (7). The other group is previously uncharacterized: it is composed of tumors that (i) are  $ER^+$  and  $her2^-$ , (ii) express high levels of the c-MYB gene, (iii) express very low levels of a number of innate immune inflammatory genes, (iv) have a molecular signature that is distinct from normal tissue, and (v) do not fit into the previously accepted molecular subtypes of breast cancer (7). We have named this group the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group, and it constitutes 10% of ER tumors. This c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group was identified and validated in an independent breast cancer data set (8).

## 1. Preliminary Mathematical Tools

The method consists in applying *Mapper* to genomic data from a disease state, along with the data transformation defined by DSGA. Mapper is one tool developed under the heading of topological data analysis, a recently developed form of data analysis that has a greater degree of robustness to noise and to changes in notions of distance and similarity than more distancerigid methods like PCA and multidimensional scaling. Specifically, Mapper has the following properties: (i) its output is a combinatorial graph, rather than a linear subspace or a scattered set of points in a low-dimensional Euclidean space; (ii) the output has a multiresolution form (i.e., the data may be viewed at various scales of resolution), which is useful in distinguishing between real features and artifacts; (iii) the method has the ability to capture detail even in a large data set, in situations in which standard methods would tend to wash out the detail in question; and (iv) the method can be applied to any situation in which there is a notion of similarity or nearness, not only in Euclidean data.

**1.1.** Mapper. Mapper (2) is a mathematical tool that uses recent developments in the area of applied topology to identify shape characteristics of data sets. Topological approaches generally preserve a notion of nearness between points but can distort large-scale distances. This can be highly desirable when working with certain types of data in which, whereas small distances between points carry a notion of similarity or nearness, large distances often carry little meaning. This property often fits biological data especially well. The key idea is to identify local clusters within the data and then to understand the interaction between these small clusters by connecting them to form a graph whose shape captures aspects of the topology of the data set. Mapper is a mathematical tool that identifies the shape of a data set along a preassigned filter function. In its simplest form, the method works essentially as follows: we begin with a function fdefined on the data and fragment the range of f into overlapping pieces. We then cluster separately the portion of the data that is mapped to each single piece. Each such local cluster can be viewed as a bin of data points. Once all data points have been assigned to bins, edges connecting bins are added: two bins that have data points in common are connected by an edge, thereby creating a graph whose shape captures important aspects of the data shape. Bins are then colored by the average value of the filter function defined on the data points inside the bin. Numeric values of these means are translated into colors. just as numeric entries in a data matrix are turned into color to produce heat maps.

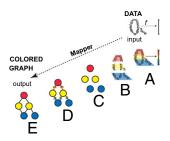


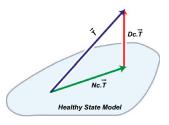
Fig. 1. Mapper starts with a set of data points and a filter function f and produces a colored graph that captures the shape of the data. (A) The image of the function f is subdivided into overlapping intervals. (B) Each piece is clustered separately. (C) Each cluster is represented by a colored disk: a bin of points. The color of each bin corresponds to the average value of the filter function f on the data points inside the bin. (D) Identify pairs of bins that have points in common and (E) connect pairs of bins that have points in common by an edge.

Fig. 1 illustrates how the Mapper construction turns a set of points with a roughly circular shape into a graph capturing this shape. Mapper extends a concept from topology called the nerve of a covering to the more difficult setting of working with discrete sets of points. Clearly similar shapes have similar graphs, even when the shape is somewhat distorted. However, different shapes produce different graphs that cannot be mapped into each other. Thus, Mapper graphs associated to data sets preserve a wealth of information about the original shapes, while providing a simplified mathematical object. Applying Mapper to genomic data can produce an equally simple graph from a shape that is much less accessible, because the data are both extremely high dimensional and very sparse.

**1.2.** Disease-Specific Genomic Analysis. DSGA (4) is a mathematical method for transforming omic data from diseased tissue as a sum of two terms: the normal component of these data best mimics healthy tissue, whereas the disease component measures the error or deviation from normal:

$$\overrightarrow{T} = Nc.\overrightarrow{T} + Dc.\overrightarrow{T}.$$

This decomposition is defined by computing a linear model of the diseased tissue data onto a Healthy State Model (HSM) estimated from normal tissue data, to obtain the normal component. The disease component is then the vector of error terms from the linear model fit. The HSM is constructed from the normal tissue data using the FLAT construction: a combination of mathematical data desparsing—a method to make data in very high dimensions less sparse—followed by dimension reduction through PCA. The FLAT construction was introduced by Nicolau et al. (4), and details are found in the Math Supplement of that article. Fig. 2 shows a schematic of the DSGA decomposition into disease and normal components. By working with the dis-



**Fig. 2.** DSGA decomposition of the original tumor vector  $\overrightarrow{T}$  into the Normal component its linear models fit  $Nc.\overrightarrow{T}$  onto the Healthy State Model and the Disease component  $Dc.\overrightarrow{T}$  vector of residuals.

ease component—deviation from health vector—rather than the original data vector, several things are accomplished: (i) we emphasize the degree to which diseased tissue data are aberrant from healthy tissue data; (ii) we allow for a wide variability within the normal range; and (iii) we incorporate controls into the analysis. Working with the disease component of data has been shown both to outperform the use of original data and to bring out unique biology. Unlike direct comparison between normal and neoplastic tissue data, DSGA highlights the extent to which gene expression in a tumor is aberrant, whereas direct comparison tends to emphasize the background molecular signature of the progenitor cell type of the tumor. As we explain below, when combining the DSGA transformation with Mapper, we use as data the disease component of these data. We additionally define the guiding Mapper filter functions from the DSGA method.

**1.3.** Progression Analysis of Disease. We show now how to apply Mapper to DSGA-transformed data, with filter functions derived from the DSGA transformation. Importantly, the output of the procedure is a graph that highlights the core geometric shape of the data set of patients. As demonstrated in the next section, applying PAD to genomic data produces biologically meaningful insights and brings to light unique aspects of the biology of these tumors.

We begin with a data matrix from diseased tissue, in which columns are patients and rows are any genomic variable type, for example transcriptional microarray data. We assume we have tumor data vectors  $\vec{T}_1, \vec{T}_2, \dots, \vec{T}_m$  and normal tissue data vectors  $\vec{N}_1, \vec{N}_2, \dots, \vec{N}_k$  comprising the columns of the data matrix.

Step 1.

DSGA-transform all of the data and construct the following two matrices: (i) Dc.mat, the matrix whose columns  $Dc.\overrightarrow{T}_1,...Dc.\overrightarrow{T}_m$  are the disease components of the original tumor vectors  $\overrightarrow{T}_1,...\overrightarrow{T}_m$ ; (ii) L1.mat, a matrix whose columns  $L1.\overrightarrow{N}_1,...L1.\overrightarrow{N}_k$  are leave-one-out estimates of the deviation from healthy state by normal tissue data. Note that the columns of L1.mat constitute an estimate of the disease component of normal tissue. (iii) L1Dc.mat, the concatenated matrix with normal and tumor columns  $L1.\overrightarrow{N}_1,...L1.\overrightarrow{N}_k,Dc.\overrightarrow{T}_1,...Dc.\overrightarrow{T}_m$ .

Threshold data coordinates (genes, proteins, etc.) so that only the genes that show a significant deviation from the healthy state are retained in the data matrix from step 1. Any appropriate test for significance can be used.

Step 3.

Define *Mapper* filter functions on the data along which to perform the *Mapper* collapse to a graph. These functions should capture a biologically meaningful characteristic of the data. Essentially the data points are the individual columns of the *DSGA*-transformed data matrix, and for the filter functions we compute the vector magnitude in the  $L^p$  norm, as well as k powers of this magnitude. Below  $f_{p,k}$  denotes the filter function, and  $\overrightarrow{V}$  denotes the column vector: either  $Dc.\overrightarrow{T}_i$  or  $L1.\overrightarrow{N}_j$ . The coordinates are individual genes:  $\overrightarrow{V} = \langle g_1, g_2, \dots, g_s \rangle$ .

$$f_{p,k}(\overrightarrow{V}) = \left[\Sigma |g_r|^p\right]^{k/p}.$$
 [2]

Note that if k=1 and p=2, the function simply computes the standard (Euclidean) vector magnitude of each column. Essentially, all these different filter functions,  $f_{p,k}$ , measure the overall amount of deviation from the null hypothesis, which is the HSM. Roughly,  $f_{p,k}(Dc.\overrightarrow{T}_j)$  is large when a large number of genes deviates a lot from normal levels (the HSM) either in the positive direction (overexpression relative to normal) or the negative direction (underexpression relative to normal). Therefore, by using a variety of distance measurements, all these functions measure the extent to which a diseased tissue is different from

normal tissue. A tissue sample that has many genes exhibiting either increased or decreased activity relative to normal would show a large value of the filter  $f_{p,k}$ . A sample that resembles normal tissue in its gene activity will show a small value of  $f_{p,k}$ , close to 0. The effect of the different choices of p determining the choice of  $L^p$  norm is that, for larger values of p the weight of genes with larger expression levels is greater. Thus, the choice of p acts as an additional smooth threshold of genes.

Step 4.

Apply *Mapper* to the data obtained in step 2, using the filter functions defined in step 3. *Mapper* also requires that we define a distance function on the data: a measure of similarity between individual data points. The distance function used is the correlation distance.

## 2. Application of PAD to Breast Cancer Microarray Data

We applied the steps defined in the previous section to a breast cancer microarray gene expression data set (6). Normal tissue data were a set of 13 microarrays (4): four from reduction mammoplasty and nine normal tissue samples from cancer patients. Details of this analysis can be found in SI Text. The DSGA transformation and gene thresholding (steps 1 and 2) produced a data matrix with 262 rows (genes). Mapper filter functions were computed for the following parameters: k powers of the  $L^p$  distance with p = 1, ... 5 and powers k = 1, ... 10. Fig. 3 shows the output of *PAD* analysis for p = 2 and k = 4. Each node is a bin of tumors, and its color encodes the value of the filter function averaged across all of the data points in the bin, with blue denoting a low value and red encoding a large value. Thus, bins that are blue contain tumors whose expression is close to normal, whereas bins that are red contain tumors that generally have large deviation from normal along multiple genes, in both the positive and the negative direction. There are several groups of tumors that stand out. Basal tumors occupy most of the bins in the tumor sequence denoted as  $ER^-$  sequence. They are immediately visible and stand out with large value (red) in the filter function: overall deviation from normal. Normal tissue samples all fall in the same bin together with 15 additional  $ER^+$  tumors. These are colored blue and show minimal overall deviation from normal according to the filter function. The known group of her2<sup>+</sup> tumors is not yet visible, owing to the well-understood problem that only a small number of genes (on 17q) identify it, making them mathematically less visible, despite the fact that the small number of coordinates (17q genes) are biologically important. This discrepancy between mathematical and biological significance will be addressed in a later article. An additional long tumor sequence on the graph, the  $ER^+$  sequence showing large deviation from normal, is visible, as defined by the filter. This tumor sequence also consists of  $ER^+$  tumors, but unlike the first (blue) group of tumors, these are distinct from normal tissue in that the value of the filter function—the  $L^p$  magnitudes of the tumor vectors  $Dc.\overline{T}_i$  in these bins—is very large. The breakdown of genes that most deviate from normal within the  $ER^+$  sequence tumors is given below in sections 2.4 and 2.5, but much of the positive gene activity centers on Estrogen Receptor and c-MYB. A subgroup of tumor bins is flanked by areas of sparse bins and is termed c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumors, because, as we show later in section 2.5, the list of significant genes points to crucial involvement of this and related genes. The c-MYB<sup>+</sup> subset of tumors was also chosen to be the most dense segment of the  $ER^+$  sequence because it remains in the *PAD* output even when small bins containing only one data point are thresholded from the graph. This is very helpful to consider, because dropping the smallest bins provides a schematic of the denser part of data and corresponds to removing outliers. The simplified PAD output with small bins removed can be seen in *SI Text*. For the remainder of this section we analyze properties of these two very different subsets of  $ER^+$  tumors.

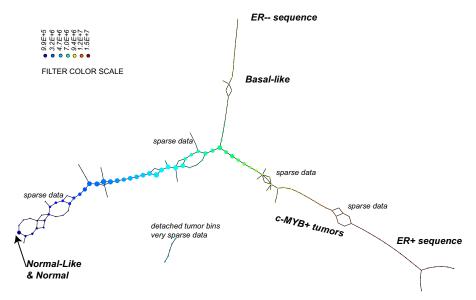


Fig. 3. PAD analysis of the NKI data. The output has three progression arms, because tumors (data points) are ordered by the magnitude of deviation from normal (the HSM). Each bin is colored by the mean of the filter map on the points. Blue bins contain tumors whose total deviation from HSM is small (normal and Normal-like tumors). Red bins contain tumors whose deviation from HSM is large. The image of f was subdivided into 15 intervals with 80% overlap. All bins are seen (outliers included). Regions of sparse data show branching. Several bins are disconnected from the main graph. The ER arm consists mostly of Basal tumors. The c-MYB+ group was chosen within the ER arm as the tightest subset, between the two sparse regions.

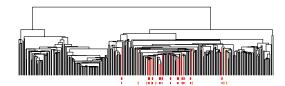
The Normal-like (blue) group of tumors (15 tumors) constitutes 5% of the cohort. The low value of the filter function indicates little activity different from normal.

The c-MYB<sup>+</sup> (red) group of tumors (22 tumors) constitutes 7.5% of the cohort, or the more compact subset (outliers removed 14 tumors) 5% of  $ER^+$  tumors. The high value of the filter function identifies these tumors as among the most distinct from normal tissue, showing extremely high activity in some gene groups  $(ER^+, c\text{-}MYB^+)$  and low activity in others (innate immune genes), relative to normal tissue. This extreme deviation from normal molecular profiles, together with the biology of the overly active gene groups, and the excellent overall survival suggests that these tumors have a mechanism to respond in a protective way, antagonizing the presence of neoplastic tissue. In the next paragraphs we give evidence for the following two points: (i) c-MYB<sup>+</sup> breast cancer warrants being identified as a breast cancer group because it shows uniformity in molecular signature and clinical and survival properties, and because it is validated in other cancer data sets; and (ii) c-MYB<sup>+</sup> breast cancer is a unique group that does not fit into previously identified breast cancer types.

- 2.1. Survival Analysis. Survival analysis was performed on each of the two groups of  $ER^+$  tumors: the blue Normal-like group and the red group that shows altered transcriptional activity in a large number of genes compared with the normal tissue, c-MYB<sup>+</sup> red group. Each group showed 100% overall survival, with no recurrence and no death from disease. Median time to follow-up was 10 y for the *Normal-like* group and 8.5 y for the *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> tumors. It is important to note that survival information was not incorporated in the DSGA decomposition or the Mapper progression. We simply tested survival of groups of tumors that our PAD analysis found to stand out, purely on the basis of our twostep analysis: (i) DSGA, highlighting the distinction between normal and disease data, and (ii) Mapper, identifying subtle aspects in the shape of the data.
- 2.2. Comparison with Cluster Analysis Applied to the Same Data Matrix. The Normal-like tumor group (blue) is often observed

through this type of analysis. However, the other group, c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumor group, was scattered across several clusters, as seen in Fig. 4. Thus, unlike PAD, cluster analysis was unable to identify this new group of tumors. This shows that the appearance of the new group of tumors was not due to the way data were transformed via DSGA nor to the specific method used for thresholding genes, but rather to the ability of PAD to identify subtle shape characteristics of the data set. Cluster analysis scattered the tumors in the  $ER^+$  tumor progression and even the very tight c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumor group. That the tumors in this group (22 in all, 14 without outliers) ought indeed to appear together is seen below, in sections 2.4–2.6, which show that the molecular signatures of these tumors are indeed very similar to one another and significantly distinct from other tumors.

- 2.3. Comparison with Molecular Subtype Classification. The 22 tumors in the c-MYB+ group were analyzed for molecular subtype (Basal, ERBB2, Luminal A, Luminal B, and Normal-like) (7) as previously assigned (6). Of the 22 tumors, only six had correlation >0.1 to one of the five centroids, the rest having been left unclassified. Five were classified as Luminal A and one as Normal-like. The rest of the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumors were partially classified by the centroid they were closest to as follows: seven Normal-Like, six Luminal A, and three Luminal B. These assignments to subtype have changed (9) to be two Normal-Like, two Luminal B, and 18 Luminal A. This new assignment changes the subtype of 77% of tumors (17 of the 22 tumors have different assignment from their original one).
- 2.4. Prediction Analysis of Microarrays (PAM). PAM (10) was performed on DSGA-transformed data, using all genes, before thresholding (step 1 only). We wanted to investigate whether the two tumor groups, c-MYB<sup>+</sup> and Normal-like, are good candidates for being molecular subtypes as far as their gene expression data were concerned. Using PAM, we wanted to determine whether they are (i) distinct from normal tissue, (ii) distinct from each other, and (iii) uniform within each group of tumors. Thus, we tested how successful PAM was in finding predictor variables for distinguishing these groups. The distinctions had extremely good



**Fig. 4.** Clustering vs. *PAD*. Can *Mapper* extract something new from the data that clustering does not? We compare the outputs of clustering (average linkage) vs. *Mapper* as applied to the same exact data matrix (*DSGA*-transformed *NKI*) to show that these two procedures are different. The bins defining the *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> group were marked on the cluster dendrogram (red for the tighter—no outliers—group, and orange for the larger *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> group containing outliers) The *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> tumors are scattered among different clusters, but *PAD* has been able to extract this group that turns out to be both statistically and biologically/clinically coherent.

error rates attained with very small numbers of genes, indicating that these groups of tumors satisfy all three conditions above. The output of the *PAM* analysis is found in *SI Text*. The distinction between *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> and normal is of particular interest: two predictor genes were able to distinguish between *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> group and normal tissue with error = 0. These predictor genes are *TSH-releasing hormone*, *TRH*, and *proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 1*, *PCSK1*. Although it is important to remember that predictor variables need not be the most revealing about the underlying biology of the tumors, the fact that we are able to distinguish between *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> and normal with 0 error rate using only two genes is a strong indication that *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> is both significantly distinct from normal and significantly homogeneous as a class.

**2.5.** Significance of the Analysis of Microarrays (SAM). SAM (11) was performed on groups of tumors. Of special interest are the genes that are significantly different between (i) the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group and normal samples and (ii) the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group and the rest of the ER<sup>+</sup> sequence in the PAD output. Tables S1 and S2 show the top genes in the output of these SAM analyses and demonstrate a significant set of differences between groups, as indicated by these lists of genes.

2.6. Testing the c-MYB Signature in the c-MYB+ Tumor Group. The SAM analysis identified the c-MYB gene to be among the significant top overexpressing genes (sixfold to 20-fold) in the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumor group, both relative to normal tissue and relative to the rest of the  $ER^+$  tumor sequence in the PAD output. We wanted to find out whether other genes, known to be associated with (or downstream of) c-MYB overexpression (12), also show similar association in the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumor group. We compared expression levels of known c-MYB-associated genes and computed P values using Student's t test; the results are found in Table S3. We tested the original rather than disease component values for the c-MYB signature. None of the genes listed as repressed by MYB overexpression showed significant reduction, but of the 45 genes listed as activated and present in the Nederlands Kanker Instituut (NKI) data, more than half (25 genes) had a P value <0.05 when values in the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group were compared with values in the normal group data.

**2.7. Validation in Independent Breast Cancer Data.** We validated the presence of the *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> group of tumors in two other breast cancer data sets: *Ullevål University Hospital (ULL)* (8) of 80 breast cancers, of which 52 were of ductal histological types, as were the *NKI* tumors and *HERSCH* (13) set of 232 tumors, of which 188 were primary breast tumors with good-quality RNA. We found the subset that best resembled the *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> among the identified *SAM* genes. Specifically, we considered *DSGA*-transformed tumor data along the 262 genes identified as *DSGA* sig-

nificant in the NKI data set, of which 255 genes were present in the ULL data and 221 in the HERSCH set. We further eliminated from the survival analysis step the tumors that had a very short follow-up time (<10 mo), as is standardly done because these short follow-up tumors affect negatively the reliability of survival analysis. Array mean-centered disease components were tested along the up and low sets of genes identified in the SAM analysis performed in the NKI data. Tumors were chosen on the basis of SAM genes in a two-step procedure: step 1 using two sets of SAM genes; step 2 using correlation along the 255 DSGA genes in common with the ULL set and the 221 DSGA genes in common with the *HERSCH* set. In step 1 we extracted tumors using two sets of SAM genes. First, we used the genes that were significant for the PAD progression arm ER<sup>+</sup> sequence: the sequence of tumors leading up to the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group compared with normal, Basal, and Normal-like samples. Here we identified tumors which for at least 60% of the up SAM genes had expression levels higher than 33% of the tumors, and similarly, for 60% of the low SAM genes that had expression levels lower than 67% of the tumors. Second, we used the genes that were significantly distinct for the c- $MYB^+$  subgroup compared with the rest of the tumors in  $ER^+$ sequence. This identified four tumors in the *ULL* set and 37 tumors in the HERSCH set. We then considered all of the tumors that were highly correlated (r > 0.68) to these top four tumors, along the 255 DSGA genes in the ULL set. Similarly, in the HERSCH set we identified tumors highly correlated (r > 0.60) to the top 37 tumors. This identified six tumors (13%) of the 46 total in *ULL* and 19 tumors (10%) of the total 188 in *HERSCH*. Finally, we tested survival in this group and again found them to have perfect survival and recurrence. Although this *c-MYB*<sup>+</sup> subgroup consisted of only a few tumors, these constitute 13% of patients in ULL and 10% in HERSCH, thus higher than the 7.5% found in the first or NKI data set.

#### 3. Discussion

We have introduced PAD, a method of analysis that takes into account the topology of data obtained from microarrays of disease tissue. First, DSGA highlights the expression pattern that deviates from normal (4). The second component of PAD consists in identifying the shape of DSGA-transformed data to access its topological properties beyond its cluster decomposition. Whereas cluster analysis identifies regions of higher density in these data, *Mapper* is able to find long gradual progressions, as is clearly demonstrated in this article. Here PAD identifies both quasi-parallel splits in progression, when a long string of data points suddenly splits into two gradually divergent progressions, as well as complete breaks, where data truly separate into disconnected regions. Moreover, Mapper creates a graph. This provides a means to visualize the shape of these data by way of a graph, and *Mapper* is flexible in the choice of guiding filter functions along which these data are collapsed to produce the graph. The filter functions are essentially a supervised step in the analysis, and different filter functions defined on the same data set highlight distinct shape features of these data. We note that Mapper is a much more general method to transform data into graphs, whereby filter functions can be chosen in a myriad possible ways. Different filter functions will highlight different aspects of the data. Indeed, several filter functions can be applied at once, thereby highlighting several aspects of the data at once. Moreover, owing in part to the simplicity of the graph output, the central problem of robustness of output can be addressed in a rigorous manner, using the concept of persistence (1). Thus, *Mapper*, in its complete generality, opens the door to study a wide range of data analysis problems. These and other aspects of *Mapper* will be discussed in further articles. Here we have attacked a very concrete type of omic data analysis problem, having defined the Mapper filter directly from the DSGA analysis as a measure of how aberrant the gene expression profile of a tumor is. As clearly demonstrated in the analysis of these breast cancer data, we were able to identify a unique subset of tumors—c-MYB<sup>+</sup> breast cancers with a 100% overall survival even though survival data were not taken into account for the PAD analysis. Indeed, no clinical information was incorporated into the analysis beyond the distinction between tumor and normal tissue samples. Cluster analysis completely missed the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group, by scattering the points in this subset of tumors across multiple clusters. Thus, although the c-MYB+ group is extremely coherent in terms of molecular profile, it is invisible to cluster analysis, which scatters these patients across multiple clusters. This fact highlights the value of mathematical analysis methods that are sensitive enough to go beyond cluster analysis in identifying the subtle geometry of these data.

We believe that topological data analysis, a group of methods for studying data from many different sources and of many different kinds, is particularly appropriate for the analysis of all kinds of biological data. These methods begin the process of uncovering the topology or special organization of genomic data sets. Topological data analysis provides a viewpoint of these data

which is combinatorial and therefore easy to grasp, and it has a degree of robustness to the sort of distortions that can occur in studying biomedical data. Importantly, topological data analysis can uncover new subsets of disease processes, like the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> class of breast cancers. Finally, the high expression of c-MYB<sup>+</sup> by an  $ER^+$  breast cancer can help to explain why this group of 22 tumors has 100% survival and no metastasis. The c-MYB transcription factor activates the gene encoding HEP-27, which has been shown to inhibit MDM-2, which in turn activates p53 activity (14). So long as there are no p53 mutations in these tumors (and they belong to classes with few if any p53 mutations), this could help to provide a mechanism for the relatively nonaggressive nature of these breast cancers. It will now be useful to explore p53 activities in this new subset of tumors.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS. This work was supported by National Institutes of Health Grant I-U54\_CA149145-01 (to M.N. and G.C.), Air Force Office of Scientific Research Grant FA9550-09-0-1-0531 (to M.N. and G.C.), Office of Naval Research Grant N00014-08-1-0931 (to G.C.), and National Science Foundation Grant DMS 0905823 (to G.C.); and by the Breast Cancer Foundation (A.J.L.) and National Cancer Institute (A.J.L.).

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# **Supporting Information**

# Nicolau et al. 10.1073/pnas.1102826108

## SI Text

**1. Microarray Data Analysis.** We provide details for the microarray data analysis of the *Nederlands Kanker Instituut (NKI)* data (1) consisting of 295 tumors, the *Breast Cancer Normal (BCN)* data (2) consisting of 13 normal breast tissue samples, and the validation data sets *Ullevål University Hospital (ULL)* (3) consisting of 46 tumors of ductal histological type that had been in the study for longer than 10 mo and *HERSCH* (4) consisting of 188 primary breast tumors.

1.1. Data preprocessing. Data were retrieved, missing values imputed, then data were collapsed by UniGene cluster ID build 219, and genes present in both the tumor cohort and the normal data set were retained.

For NKI, data consisted of 24,479 GeneBank accession IDs on 295 tumor samples, all of which had at least 70% data. Missing data were imputed using a knn algorithm (5) with k=10. Data were also transformed from the original  $log_{10}$  values to  $log_2$ . Data were then collapsed (mean) by UniGene to the mean. The resulting data set consisted of 18,970 UniGene clusters.

For BCN, data from 13 normal tissue samples (nine nonneoplastic tissue from cancer patients, four reduction mammoplasty tissue) were retrieved with quality filters for each spot: (i) spot regression correlation r > 0.6, or (ii) channel 1 mean intensity/median background intensity >1.5, or (iii) channel 2 normalized (mean intensity/median background intensity) >1.5. Clones with 70% data were retained: 32,644 clone IDs. Missing data were imputed using a knn algorithm (5) with k = 10. Data were then collapsed by UniGene to 18,971 UniGene clusters. Of these, 12,237 UniGene IDs were in common with the NKI data set, and 17,441 were in common with the ULL data set (see below).

For *ULL*, data from 46 tumors were retrieved with quality filters for each spot: (*i*) spot regression correlation r > 0.6, or (*ii*) channel 1 mean intensity/median background intensity >1.5, or (*i*) channel 2 normalized (mean intensity/median background intensity) >1.5. Only clones with 70% good data were retained: 31,667 clone IDs. Missing data were imputed using a *knn* algorithm (5) with k = 10. Data were then combined with normal tissue data *BCN* and collapsed by UniGene to 17,441 UniGene clusters.

For HERSCH, data from 188 primary tumors were retrieved with quality filters for each spot: (i) spot regression correlation r > 0.6, or (ii) channel 1 mean intensity/median background intensity >1.5, or (iii) channel 2 normalized (mean intensity/median background intensity) >1.5. Only clones with 70% good data were retained: 32,644 clone IDs. Missing data were imputed using a knn algorithm (5) with k = 10. Data were then combined with normal tissue data BCN and collapsed by UniGene to 18,896 UniGene clusters.

**1.2.** Disease-Specific Genomic Analysis (DSGA). For NKI and BCN, data from tumors and normal tissue were combined along the common 12,237 UniGenes, and columns were normalized to have the magnitude of the mean vector magnitude of 13 normal tissue samples. The Healthy State Model (HSM) was constructed from normal tissue data  $\{\vec{N}_1,\ldots,\vec{N}_{13}\}$  as follows: FLAT construction (2) is a method to de-sparse the data in high dimensions by substituting for each normal tissue vector  $\vec{N}_i$ , its fit  $\hat{N}_i$  to a linear model in the other normal tissue vectors:

$$\widehat{N}_i = \sum_{\substack{1 \le j \le 13 \\ i \ne i}} \beta_j \overrightarrow{N}_j.$$

This was shown to decrease noise in simulated data and help identify a good dimension reduction for *Principal Component* 

Analysis (PCA). We use a method described in ref. 2 to compute the Wold invariant (6) designed to measure a version of signal-to-noise ratio:

$$W(l) = \left(\frac{\lambda_l^2}{\lambda_{l+1}^2 + \ldots + \lambda_{13}^2}\right) \frac{(n-l-1)(13-l)}{(n+13-2l)}.$$

Fig. S1 plots W(l) vs. the dimension l and shows a jump at l=10, indicating that signal-to-noise ratio is higher at dimension 10, thereby justifying PCA dimension reduction of the FLAT normal data to 10. This produced the 10 dimensional HSM. Linear models are then used to compute the fitted tumor data matrix to the HSM (normal component Nc.mat) and the residuals (disease component Dc.mat). Along with tumor data, a leave-one-out procedure gives an estimate of the deviation of normal tissue data from the model of the healthy state HSM. Details of this procedure are found in ref. 2.

The validation data sets *ULL* and *HERSCH* were similarly transformed using the same normal data set *BCN*.

For gene thresholding, the 12,237 genes in the disease component matrix *Dc.mat* of tumors were reduced to 262 through the following method of testing for significance in deviation from the null hypothesis space. For each gene we computed the 5th and 95th percentiles of values in the disease components of the 295 tumors, and we recorded the larger of the two in absolute value and denoted the collection of these gene-by-gene deviations from normal by MaxAbs595. A histogram of these values is seen in Fig. S2. We then computed the 85th and 98th percentiles of MaxAbs595 and denoted these as relaxed threshold and stringent threshold, respectively. A total of 1,836 genes exceeded the relaxed threshold, and 245 genes exceeded the stringent threshold. Genes were retained for further analysis if they passed the relaxed threshold and if they were also highly correlated (r > 0.6)to at least three genes that passed the stringent threshold. A total of 262 genes satisfied the condition. This method ensures that genes are retained in the analysis if they not only (i) deviate significantly from the null hypothesis space HSM but (ii) do so in groups of highly correlated genes. We denote the reduced matrix of disease component of NKI data: nkiDc.mat. The result of clustering the nkiDc.mat array and gene mean-centered can be found in supplementary folder Dataset S1: nkiDc.AGmc.cdt. It can be explored with TreeView (7), and all of the known clusters of genes can be observed, but because this is not germane to our present study we forgo any in-depth analysis of this clustering.

We did not follow the same thresholding procedure for the validation data sets *ULL* and *HERSCH*; rather, we found that of the 262 genes retained in the *NKI* data set, 255 genes were present in the *ULL* data and 221 in the *HERSCH* data.

1.3. Progression Analysis of Disease (PAD) on NKI. We give details of PAD on the reduced and DSGA-transformed NKI data matrix: nkiDc.mat of 295 tumors and 262 genes. First, this was combined with the leave-one-out matrix that estimates normal tissue: bcnL1.mat. The Mapper filter function was computed on each column vector, as explained in the main text (Eq. 2). The image space was then fragmented into 15 intervals, with 80% overlap. Two outputs of mapper were obtained: the first, which included all of the bins, can be found in Fig. 3 (main text). The second provides the tighter streamlined subset of Mapper output, by excluding all bins with only one data point in them. The two outputs appear side by side in Fig. S3.

1.4. Comparison with clustering. Although Mapper incorporates clustering at the local level, the final output captures a wide

range of characteristics that are obfuscated by the standard methods of clustering the entire data. We provide in Fig. S4 an expanded version of the comparison presented in Fig. 4 (main text) between clustering and PAD analysis, complete with heat maps and progressions of bins. It is important to note that the comparison is performed after both Mapper and clustering were applied to exactly the same data matrix. Thus, whatever transformations one might perform on the data, for example DSGA, and however genes are thresholded to provide a reduced number of genes used in the analysis, the final step of clustering vs. Mapper generates very different outputs. Because both clustering and Mapper are methods that identify the shape of the data, this comparison highlights the fact that shape characteristics identified by Mapper can be lost by clustering. Note as well that clustering has scattered the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumor group among several clusters. This is a common problem known to clustering: data points will be segregated into separate clusters, and sometimes data points that are fairly close to one another will be torn apart and scattered into separate clusters. This is precisely what has happened with the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group. Despite how similar the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> tumors are to one another, clustering has not kept them together.

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- **2. Genes of Interest Analysis.** We isolated a subgroup of tumors,  $c\text{-}MYB^+$ , through the use of PAD. We provide  $Prediction\ Analysis\ of\ Microarrays\ (PAM)\ (8)$  analysis outputs for comparison of this group to the normal tissue group. We provide  $Significance\ of\ the\ Analysis\ of\ Microarrays\ (SAM)\ (9)$  analysis for genes most significantly distinct between the  $c\text{-}MYB^+$  group and the normal tissue group, as well as genes most significantly distinct between the  $c\text{-}MYB^+$  group and the most adjacent tumors to the  $c\text{-}MYB^+$  group in the PAD output, namely the tumors in the  $ER^+$  arm that are not part of the  $c\text{-}MYB^+$  group.
- 2.1. PAM. PAM finds a small set of *predictor genes* for distinguishing between two groups of tumors. Fig. S5 shows PAM output for comparing the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group to the normal tissue group.
- 2.2. SAM. SAM finds a large number of significant genes that behave differently between two groups of tumors. Table S1 shows SAM output genes significantly distinct between the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group and the rest of the ER<sup>+</sup> arm of PAD output. Table S2 shows SAM output genes significantly distinct between the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group and the normal tissue group.
- **2.3.** *c-MYB signature.* Genes that are believed to be downstream from c-MYB (10) were tested in the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group vs. normal tissue using a one-sided Student t test. Results are listed in Table S3.
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- Ramsay RG, Gonda TJ (2008) MYB function in normal and cancer cells. Nat Rev Cancer 8:523–534.

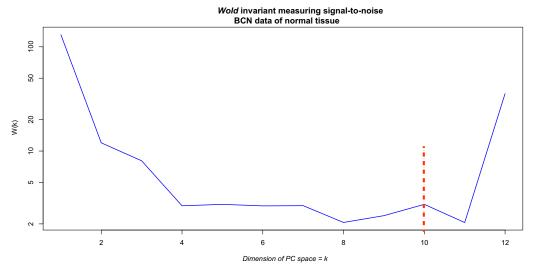


Fig. S1. The wold invariant is plotted as a function of the dimension reduction K. As the wold invariant is a measure of signal to noise, a local maximum in this plot indicates a good place to perform dimension reduction. In this case K = 10 is a good choice.

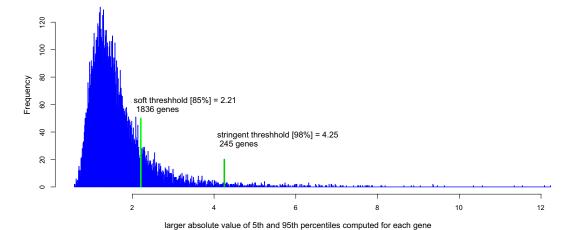
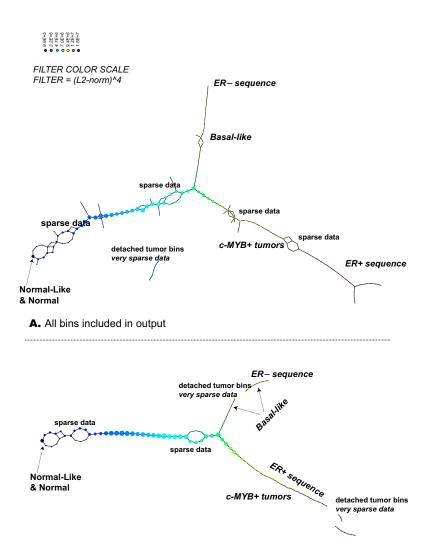


Fig. 52. For each gene, the 95th and 5th percentiles of expression levels in the disease component is computed. The larger of the two in absolute value denoted as  $Q_{gene}$  gives an estimate of the extent of deviation from normal for the gene. This deviation can be positive, indicating overexpression relative to normal levels, or negative, indicating underexpression relative to normal levels. The figure shows a histogram of the collection  $Q_{gene}$  of deviations from normal for the set of all genes. There are 1,836 genes for which this value exceeds the 85th percentile (lax-threshold genes) and 245 genes for which it exceeds the 95th percentile (stringent-threshold genes).



B. Only bins with at least 2 data points are included in output

Fig. S3. (A) Complete output of the analysis. Each colored disk represents a bin containing several data points or patients. Thus, individual patients (data points) are not visible, and we only see bins containing collections of very similar points. This step provides a simplification of the original set of data points, because instead of showing a multitude of individual points, it shows a much smaller collection of bins, each bin containing a collection of very similar points. The size of bins relates to the number of data points contained in them. Thus, bins containing many data points appear as large discs, whereas bins with few points are drawn much smaller. When two bins have patients in common, an edge connects them. Thus, the bins provide a granularity to the overall set of data points, and the connections between bins, the edges that connect them, capture a rough shape of the data. Each data point has assigned to it a value of the Mapper xtit filter function, and the bins are colored by the average value of this function for the points in the bin. The legend with assigned colors is seen at the top. In this particular example, each data point is a tumor sample, its gene expression transformed by DSGA to measure deviation from the HSM. The filter function is the overall amount of deviation from the HSM. Thus, red bins contain patients whose overall molecular profiles deviate a lot from normal, whereas blue bins contain patients whose profile is very close to normal. Sometimes data points are quite sparse, and this sparseness is visible in the output as well. When the data points become some what sparse, we see the graph fan out in a slight web-like feature. When data becomes really sparse, pieces of the graph become completely disconnected. Areas of local data sparseness are indicated in the figure. Finally, some bins are very small, containing only a few data points. To get a more streamlined, simplified picture, we can choose to ignore bins that are very small. This is similar to ignoring outliers. (B) Same output, but with bins containing single points not shown. Notice that this more streamlined version loses some of the sparseness information (for example that the long ER+ arm no longer exhibits the sparseness at the halfway point) and accentuates some sparseness areas by causing breaks in some places (for example the Basal arm now appears in two pieces).

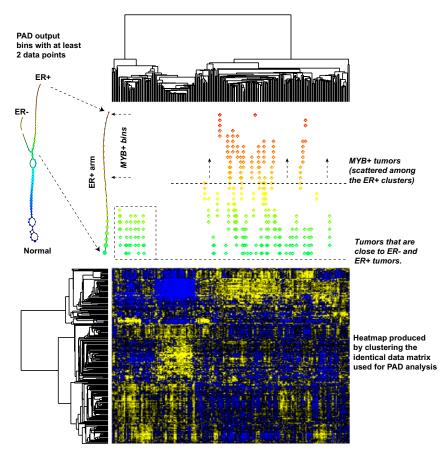


Fig. 54. Comparison between cluster analysis and PAD. Specifically, PAD consists of two major steps: the first step, DSGA, defines a transformation of the original data to detect extent of deviation from normal. It also provides a means to threshold genes so that only genes that deviate significantly from normal are retained. The second step, Mapper, involves detecting the shape of the data points in space. Cluster analysis is a different method to detect the shape of the data in space. This figure shows the difference between using cluster analysis as opposed to using Mapper to detect the shape of the same data matrix. We took the matrix whose columns are the disease components of the DSGA-transformed data, with only the 262 genes obtained by thresholding genes according to deviation from normal. This matrix was analyzed to detect its shape in space in two distinct ways: (i) it was clustered with associated heatmap and dendrograms shown, and (ii) it was processed with Mapper, with the output shown. The ER<sup>+</sup> arm is magnified, and the position of each tumor in each consecutive bin is shown relative to its placement in the clustering dendrogram. It is easily visible that whereas the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group of tumors are close to one another in the PAD output, they are scattered throughout the ER<sup>+</sup> portion of the clustering diagrams. It is important to note that the same matrix was fed into the Mapper and the cluster analysis. The figure shows these outputs to be very distinct. The figure does not and cannot identify which output is identifying features that deserve to be noticed: cluster analysis did not identify the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group, but it is not clear, simply on the basis of this figure, that the group is a real feature rather than an artifact of Mapper. It is through subsequent analysis methods that we see that the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group is indeed both mathematically and biologically distinct. Thus, the PAM analysis shows the group to be mathematically coherent and easily distinct, and functional exploration of the genes iden

## PAM analysis c-MYB+ group vs. Normal

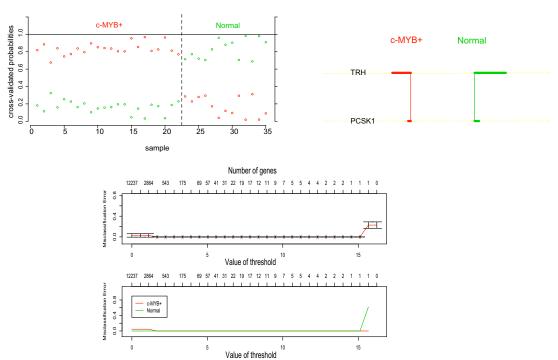


Fig. S5. Output of PAM analysis on the c-MYB<sup>+</sup> group vs. Normal data. Two genes provide class prediction with error rate = 0: TRH,TSH-releasing hormone, and PCSK1, proprotein convertase subtilisin kexin type 1. The centroids, cross-validation probabilities, and misclassification error plots are shown.

Table S1. Genes significantly up-regulated and down-regulated in MYB+ vs. the rest of ER+ sequence

UniGene build 219	Gene symbol	<i>q</i> value	Gene information	MYB level vs. rest of $ER^+$ sequence
Hs.654446	MYB	0	MYB  v-myb myeloblastosis viral oncogene homolog(avian)	Up
Hs.88417	SUSD3	0	SUSD3  Sushi domain containing 3	Up
Hs.414028	C9orf116	0	C9orf116  Chromosome 9 ORF 116	Up
Hs.532634	IFI27	5.15	"	Down
	CPB1		IFI27  IFN, α-inducible protein 27  Hs.532634	
Hs.477891 Hs.49760	ORC6L	5.15 5.15	CPB1  Carboxypeptidase B1 (tissue)  Hs.477891  ORC6L  Origin recognition complex, subunit 6	Down Down
Hs.517307	MX1	5.15	like (yeast)  Hs.49760 MX1  Myxovirus (influenza virus) resistance 1, IFN-inducible protein p78 (mouse)  Hs.517307	Down
Hs.77367	CXCL9	5.15	CXCL9  Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 9  Hs.77367	Down
Hs.501778	TRIM22	5.15	TRIM22  Tripartite motif-containing 22  Hs.501778	Down
Hs.521459	ADAMDEC1	5.15	ADAMDEC1  ADAM-like, decysin 1  Hs.521459	Down
Hs.458485	ISG15	5.15	ISG15  ISG15 ubiquitin-like modifier  Hs.458485	Down
Hs.109225	VCAM1	5.15	VCAM1  Vascular cell adhesion molecule	Down
			1  Hs.109225	
Hs.17518	RSAD2	5.15	RSAD2  Radical S-adenosyl methionine domain containing 2  Hs.17518	Down
Hs.7155	CMPK2	5.15	CMPK2  Cytidine monophosphate (UMP-CMP) kinase 2, mitochondrial  Hs.7155	Down
Hs.20315	IFIT1	6.51	IFIT1  IFN-induced protein with tetratricopeptide repeats 1  Hs.20315	Down
Hs.306777	GSDMB	6.51	GSDMB  Gasdermin B  Hs.306777	Down
Hs.715518	STAT1	6. 51	STAT1  Signal transducer and activator of transcription 1, 91kDa  Hs.715518	Down
Hs.709313	B2M	6. 51	B2M  Beta-2-microglobulin  Hs.709313	Down
Hs.584823	PLA2G7	6. 51	PLA2G7  Phospholipase A2, groUp VII (platelet- activating factor acetylhydrolase, plasma)   Hs.584823	Down
Hs.181244	HLA-A	6. 51	HLA-A $\parallel$ Major histocompatibility complex, class I, A $\parallel$ Hs.181244	Down
Hs.473341	SAMSN1	6. 51	SAMSN1  SAM domain, SH3 domain and nuclear localization signals 1  Hs.473341	Down
Hs.523847	IFI6	6. 51	IFI6  IFN, α-inducible protein 6  Hs.523847	Down
Hs.504641	CD163	6. 51	CD163    CD163 molecule    Hs.504641	Down
Hs.250615	CYP2A6	15.08	CYP2A6 Cytochrome P450, family 2, subfamily A, polypeptide 6 Hs.250615	Down
Hs.655652	LILRB2	15. 08	LIRB2  Leukocyte Ig-like receptor, subfamily B (with TM and ITIM domains), member 2  Hs.655652	Down
Hs.459265	ISG20	15. 08	ISG20  IFN stimulated exonuclease gene 20kDa  Hs.459265	Down
Hs.926	MX2	15. 08	MX2  Myxovirus (influenza virus) resistance 2 (mouse)  Hs.926	Down
Hs.525157	TNFSF13B	15. 08	TNFSF13B  Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) sUperfamily, member 13b  Hs.525157	Down
Hs.86859	GRB7	15. 08	GRB7  Growth factor receptor-bound protein 7  Hs.86859	Down
Hs.352018	TAP1	15. 08	TAP1  Transporter 1, ATP-binding cassette, subfamily B (MDR/TAP)  Hs.352018	Down
Hs.32763	GRIA2	15. 08	GRIA2  Glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA 2  Hs.32763	Down
Hs.654585	PSMB9	15. 08	PSMB9  Proteasome (prosome, macropain) subunit, β type, 9 (large multifunctional peptidase 2)  Hs.654585	Down
Hs.718626	KIF20A	15. 08	KIF20A  Kinesin family member 20A  Hs.718626	Down
Hs.474787	IL2RB	15. 08	IL2RB  Interleukin 2 receptor, β  Hs.474787	Down
Hs.650174	HLA-E	15. 08	HLA-E  Major histocompatibility complex, class I, E  Hs.650174	Down

Table S1. Cont.

UniGene build 219	Gene symbol	q value	Gene information	MYB level vs. rest of $ER^+$ sequence
Hs.143961	CCL18	15. 08	CCL18  Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 18 (pulmonary and activation-regulated)   Hs.143961	Down
Hs.81337	LGALS9	15. 08	LGALS9  Lectin, galactoside-binding, soluble, 9  Hs.81337	Down
Hs.474217	CDC45L	15. 08	CDC45L  CDC45 cell division cycle 45-like (S. cerevisiae)  Hs.474217	Down
Hs.301921	CCR1	15. 08	CCR1  Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 1  Hs.301921	Down
Hs.16362	P2RY6	15. 08	P2RY6  Pyrimidinergic receptor P2Y, G protein coUpled, 6  Hs.16362	Down
Hs.419259	REC8	15. 08	REC8  REC8 homolog (yeast)  Hs.419259	Down
Hs.591742	IL7R	15. 08	IL7R  Interleukin 7 receptor  Hs.591742	Down
Hs.647962	ZIC1	18.67	ZIC1  Zic family member 1 (odd-paired homolog, Drosophila)  Hs.647962	Down
Hs.43388	RTP4	18. 67	RTP4  Receptor (chemosensory) transporter protein 4  Hs.43388	Down
Hs.376208	LTB	18. 67	LTB  Lymphotoxin $\beta$ (TNF sUperfamily, member 3)  Hs.376208	Down
Hs.14623	IFI30	18. 67	IFI30 IFN, γ-inducible protein 30 Hs.14623	Down
Hs.660866	CTSL2	18. 67	CTSL2  Cathepsin L2  Hs.660866	Down
Hs.278658	KRT86	18. 67	KRT86  Keratin 86  Hs.278658	Down
Hs.1051	GZMB	18. 67	GZMB  Granzyme B (granzyme 2, cytotoxic T lymphocyte-associated serine esterase 1)   Hs.1051	Down
Hs.1594	CENPA	18. 67	CENPA  Centromere protein A  Hs.1594	Down
Hs.161985	TMPRSS4	18. 67	TMPRSS4  Transmembrane protease, serine 4  Hs.161985	Down
Hs.153752	CDC25B	18. 67	CDC25B  Cell division cycle 25 homolog B (S. pombe)  Hs.153752	Down
Hs.446352	ERBB2	18. 67	ERBB2  V-erb-b2 erythroblastic leukemia viral oncogene homolog 2, neuro/glioblastoma derived oncogene homolog (avian)   Hs.446352	Down
Hs.497599	WARS	18. 67	WARS    Tryptophanyl-tRNA synthetase    Hs. 497599	Down
Hs.182231	TRH	18. 67	TRH  TSH-releasing hormone  Hs.182231	Down
Hs.521903	LY6E	20.44	LY6E  Lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus E  Hs.521903	Down
Hs.370036	CCR7	20. 44	CCR7  Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 7  Hs.370036	Down

Table S2. Genes significantly up-regulated and down-regulated in MYB+ vs. Normal tissue

UniGene build 219	Gene symbol	q value	Gene information	MYB level vs normal
Hs.414028	C9orf116	0	C9orf116  Chromosome 9 ORF 116  Hs.414028	Up
Hs.406050	DNALI1	0	DNALI1  Dynein, axonemal, light intermediate chain 1  Hs.406050	Up
Hs.163484	FOXA1	0	FOXA1  Forkhead box A1  Hs.163484	Up
Hs.76704	[Hs.76704]	0	NA  Transcribed locus  Hs.76704	Up
Hs.654446	MYB	0	MYB  V-myb myeloblastosis viral oncogene homolog (avian)   Hs.654446	Up
Hs.88417	SUSD3	0	SUSD3  Sushi domain containing 3  Hs.88417	Up
Hs.494496	FBP1	0	FBP1  Fructose-1,6-bisphosphatase 1  Hs.494496	Up
Hs.448520	SLC7A2	0	SLC7A2 $\parallel$ Solute carrier family 7 (cationic amino acid transporter, y+ system), member 2 $\parallel$ Hs.448520	Up
Hs.534847	C4A	0	C4A $\parallel$ Complement component 4A (Rodgers blood groUp) $\parallel$ Hs.534847	Up
Hs.496240	AR	0	AR  Androgen receptor  Hs.496240	Up
Hs.631650	GLT8D2	0	GLT8D2  Glycosyltransferase 8 domain containing 2  Hs.631650	Up
Hs.91109	PRR15	0	PRR15  Proline rich 15  Hs.91109	Up
Hs.387057	THSD4	0	THSD4  Thrombospondin, type I, domain containing 4  Hs.387057	Up
Hs.98265	ST6GAL2	0	ST6GAL2 $\parallel$ ST6 $\beta$ -galactosamide $\alpha$ -2,6-sialyltranferase 2 $\parallel$ Hs.98265	Up
Hs.208124	ESR1	0	ESR1  Estrogen receptor 1  Hs.208124	Up
Hs.111779	SPARC	0	SPARC  Secreted protein, acidic, cysteine-rich (osteonectin)   Hs.111779	Up
Hs.480819	TBC1D9	0	TBC1D9  TBC1 domain family, member 9 (with GRAM domain)  Hs.480819	Up
Hs.437638	XBP1	0	XBP1  X-box binding protein 1  Hs.437638	Up
Hs.444414	AFF3	0	AFF3  AF4/FMR2 family, member 3  Hs.444414	Up
Hs.524134	GATA3	0	GATA3  GATA binding protein 3  Hs.524134	Up
Hs.467733	GREB1	0	GREB1 GREB1 protein Hs.467733	Up
Hs.458573	PDGFRL	0	PDGFRL  Platelet-derived growth factor receptor- like  Hs.458573	Up
Hs.210995	CA12	0	CA12  Carbonic anhydrase XII  Hs.210995	Up
Hs.523468	SCUBE2	0	SCUBE2  Signal peptide, CUB domain, EGF-like 2  Hs.523468	Up
Hs.654370	FAP	0	FAP  Fibroblast activation protein, α  Hs.654370	Up
Hs.489142	COL1A2	0	COL1A2  Collagen, type I, $\alpha$ 2  Hs.489142	Up
Hs.416108	CRKRS	0	CRKRS  Cdc2-related kinase, arginine/serine-rich  Hs.416108	Up
Hs.371147	THBS2	0	THBS2  Thrombospondin 2  Hs.371147	Up
Hs.519601	ID4	0	ID4  Inhibitor of DNA binding 4, dominant negative helix– loop–helix protein  Hs.519601	Up
Hs.100686	AGR3	0	AGR3  Anterior gradient homolog 3 ( <i>Xenopus laevis</i> )   Hs.100686	Up
Hs.435655	ASPN	0	ASPN  Asporin  Hs.435655	Up
Hs.425777	UBE2L6	0	UBE2L6  Ubiquitin-conjugating enzyme E2L 6  Hs.425777	Up
Hs.659093	[Hs.659093]	0	NA  Transcribed locus  Hs.659093	Up
Hs.93764	CPA4	0	CPA4  Carboxypeptidase A4  Hs.93764	Up
Hs.719277	SLC39A6	0	SLC39A6  Solute carrier family 39 (zinc transporter), member 6  Hs.719277	Up
Hs.604376	[Hs.604376]	0	NA  Transcribed locus  Hs.604376	Up
Hs.95612	DSC2	0	DSC2  Desmocollin 2  Hs.95612	Up
Hs.8059	SYT4	0	SYT4  Synaptotagmin IV  Hs.8059	Up
Hs.1925	DSG3	0	DSG3  Desmoglein 3 (pemphigus vulgaris antigen)  Hs.1925	Up
Hs.8786	CHST2	0	CHST2  Carbohydrate (N-acetylglucosamine-6-O) sulfotransferase 2  Hs.8786	Up
Hs.24950	RGS5	0	RGS5 $\parallel$ Regulator of G protein signaling 5 $\parallel$ Hs.24950	Up
Hs.19492	PCDH8	0	PCDH8  Protocadherin 8  Hs.19492	Up
Hs.520339	COL10A1	0	COL10A1  Collagen, type X, $\alpha$ 1  Hs.520339	Up
Hs.5210	GMFG	0.46	GMFG  Glia maturation factor, $\gamma$   Hs.5210	Up
Hs.497636	LAMB3	0.46	LAMB3  Laminin, β3  Hs.497636	Up
Hs.6360	TMCC2	0. 46	TMCC2  Transmembrane and coiled-coil domain family 2  Hs.6360	Up
Hs.34526	CXCR6	0. 46	CXCR6  Chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 6  Hs.34526	Up
Hs.504115	TRIM29	0.85	TRIM29  Tripartite motif-containing 29  Hs.504115	Up

Table S2. Cont.

UniGene build 219	Gene symbol	<i>q</i> value	Gene information	MYB level vs normal
Hs.1787	PLP1	0. 85	PLP1  Proteolipid protein 1  Hs.1787	Up
Hs.523500	CD2	0. 85	CD2  CD2 molecule  Hs.523500	Up
Hs.131431	EIF2AK2	0. 85	EIF2AK2  Eukaryotic translation initiation factor 2- $\alpha$ kinase 2  Hs.131431	Up
Hs.136348	POSTN	0. 85	POSTN  Periostin, osteoblast specific factor  Hs.136348	Up
Hs.193235	CPLX2	0. 85	CPLX2  Complexin 2  Hs.193235	Up
Hs.438	MEOX1	1.94	MEOX1  Mesenchyme homeobox 1  Hs.438	Up
Hs.405614	CTHRC1	1.94	CTHRC1  Collagen triple helix repeat containing 1  Hs.405614	Up
Hs.182231	TRH	0	TRH  TSH-releasing hormone  Hs.182231	Down
Hs.477891	CPB1	0	CPB1  Carboxypeptidase B1 (tissue)  Hs.477891	Down
Hs.78977	PCSK1	0	PCSK1  Proprotein convertase subtilisin/kexin type 1  Hs.78977	Down
Hs.250615	CYP2A6	0	CYP2A6  Cytochrome P450, family 2, subfamily A, polypeptide 6  Hs.250615	Down
Hs.26770	FABP7	0	FABP7  Fatty acid binding protein 7, brain  Hs.26770	Down
Hs.516874	CHGB	0	CHGB  Chromogranin B (secretogranin 1)  Hs.516874	Down
Hs.150793	CHGA	0	CHGA  Chromogranin A (parathyroid secretory protein 1)   Hs.150793	Down
Hs.77367	CXCL9	0	CXCL9  Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 9  Hs.77367	Down
Hs.496843	VGLL1	0	VGLL1  Vestigial like 1 ( <i>Drosophila</i> )  Hs.496843	Down
Hs.268728	TTYH1	0	TTYH1  Tweety homolog 1 ( <i>Drosophila</i> )  Hs.268728	Down
Hs.416073	S100A8	0	S100A8  S100 calcium binding protein A8  Hs.416073	Down
Hs.473341	SAMSN1	0	SAMSN1  SAM domain, SH3 domain and nuclear localization signals 1  Hs.473341	Down
Hs.517307	MX1	0	MX1  Myxovirus (influenza virus) resistance 1, IFN-inducible protein p78 (mouse)  Hs.517307	Down
Hs.532634	IFI27	0	IFI27  IFN, α-inducible protein 27  Hs.532634	Down
Hs.143961	CCL18	0	CCL18  Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 18 (pulmonary and activation-regulated)  Hs.143961	Down
Hs.458485	ISG15	0	ISG15  ISG15 ubiquitin-like modifier  Hs.458485	Down
Hs.192859	PCDH10	0	PCDH10  Protocadherin 10  Hs.192859	Down
Hs.419259	REC8	0	REC8  REC8 homolog (yeast)  Hs.419259	Down
Hs.470654	CDCA7	0	CDCA7  Cell division cycle associated 7  Hs.470654	Down
Hs.32763	GRIA2	0	GRIA2  Glutamate receptor, ionotropic, AMPA 2  Hs.32763	Down
Hs.415762	LY6D	0	LY6D  Lymphocyte antigen 6 complex, locus D  Hs.415762	Down
Hs.119689	CGA	0	CGA  Glycoprotein hormones, α polypeptide  Hs.119689	Down
Hs.278658	KRT86	0	KRT86  Keratin 86  Hs.278658	Down
Hs.17518	RSAD2	0	RSAD2  Radical S-adenosyl methionine domain containing 2  Hs.17518	Down
Hs.7155	CMPK2	0	CMPK2  Cytidine monophosphate (UMP-CMP) kinase 2, mitochondrial  Hs.7155	Down
Hs.20315	IFIT1	0	IFIT1  IFN-induced protein with tetratricopeptide repeats 1  Hs.20315	Down
Hs.418167	ALB	0	ALB  Albumin  Hs.418167	Down
Hs.372578	FAM65C	0	FAM65C  Family with sequence similarity 65, member C  Hs.372578	Down
Hs.26225	GABRP	0	GABRP  Gamma-aminobutyric acid (GABA) A receptor, pi  Hs.26225	Down
Hs.151254	KLK7	0	KLK7  Kallikrein-related peptidase 7  Hs.151254	Down
Hs.161985	TMPRSS4	0	TMPRSS4  Transmembrane protease, serine 4  Hs.161985	Down
Hs.376208	LTB	0	LTB  Lymphotoxin β (TNF sUperfamily, member 3)  Hs.376208	Down
Hs.414629	CCL13	0	CCL13  Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 13  Hs.414629	Down
Hs.521459	ADAMDEC1	0	ADAMDEC1  ADAM-like, decysin 1  Hs.521459	Down
Hs.79361	KLK6	0	KLK6  Kallikrein-related peptidase 6  Hs.79361	Down
Hs.112405	S100A9	0	S100A9  S100 calcium binding protein A9  Hs.112405	Down
Hs.49760	ORC6L	0	ORC6L  Origin recognition complex, subunit 6 like (yeast)   Hs.49760	Down
Hs.647962	ZIC1	0	ZIC1  Zic family member 1 (odd-paired homolog, <i>Drosophila</i> )   Hs.647962	Down
Hs.30743	PRAME	0	PRAME  Preferentially expressed antigen in melanoma  Hs.30743	Down

## Table S2. Cont.

UniGene build 219	Gene symbol	<i>q</i> value	Gene information	MYB level vs. normal
Hs.2256	ММР7	0	MMP7  Matrix metallopeptidase 7 (matrilysin, uterine)   Hs.2256	Down
Hs.523847	IFI6	0	IFI6  IFN, α-inducible protein 6  Hs.523847	Down
Hs.75285	ITIH2	0	ITIH2  Interα (globulin) inhibitor H2  Hs.75285	Down
Hs.654550	KRT13	0	KRT13  Keratin 13  Hs.654550	Down
Hs.532635	SERPINA6	0	SERPINA6  Serpin peptidase inhibitor, clade A (α-1 antiproteinase, antitrypsin), member 6  Hs.532635	Down
Hs.86859	GRB7	0.46	GRB7  Growth factor receptor-bound protein 7  Hs.86859	Down
Hs.514527	BIRC5	0.85	BIRC5  Baculoviral IAP repeat-containing 5  Hs.514527	Down
Hs.370036	CCR7	0.85	CCR7  Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 7  Hs.370036	Down
Hs.22905	RP13-102H20.1	0.85	RP13-102H20.1  Hypothetical protein FLJ30058  Hs.22905	Down
Hs.660866	CTSL2	0.85	CTSL2  Cathepsin L2  Hs.660866	Down
Hs.315	MUC2	1.94	MUC2  Mucin 2, oligomeric mucus/gel-forming  Hs.315	Down
Hs.63287	CA9	1.94	CA9  Carbonic anhydrase IX  Hs.63287	Down
Hs.109225	VCAM1	1.94	VCAM1  Vascular cell adhesion molecule 1  Hs.109225	Down
Hs.501778	TRIM22	1.94	TRIM22  Tripartite motif-containing 22  Hs.501778	Down

Table S3. Testing the MYB signature genes

Gene symbol	Gene name	UniGene build 219	pval MYB <sup>+</sup> group_UP Normal_LO	
MYC	V-myc myelocytomatosis viral oncogene homolog	Hs.202453	0.24	
MYB	V-myb myeloblastosis viral oncogene homolog	Hs.654446	4.70E-05	
ADA	Adenosine deaminase	Hs.654536	1.60E-10	
CDK1	Cyclin-dependent kinase 1	Hs.334562	0.00019	
POLD1	Polymerase (DNA directed), δ 1	Hs.279413	2.60E-11	
PRTN3	Myeloblastin  proteinase 3	Hs.928	0.00014	
CD4	T-cell surface antigen T4/Leu-3	Hs.631659	1	
VEGF	Vascular endothelial growth factor A	Hs.73793	0.62	
BCL2	B-cell CLL/lymphoma 2	Hs.150749	0.97	
KIT	Proto-oncogene c-Kit  mast/stem cell growth factor receptor	Hs.479754	1	
CD34	Hematopoietic progenitor cell antigen CD34	Hs.374990	1	
GATA3	Transacting T-cell-specific transcription factor GATA-3	Hs.524134	0.00048	
MPO	Myeloperoxidase	Hs.458272	0.012	
HSP70	HSPA4∥heat shorck 70kDa protein 4	Hs.90093	0.00064	
H2A.Z	H2AZ histone	Hs.119192	0.00028	
Adora2B	Adenosine receptor 2B – chicken	Hs.167046	0.01	
Mcm4	CDC21; CDC54; MGC33310; P1-CDC21; hCdc21	Hs.460184	2.20E-05	
GAS41	YEATS4: Yeats domeain containing 4	Hs.4029	0.00078	
NMU	Neuromedin U	Hs.418367	0.38	
CCNE1	Cyclin E1	Hs.244723	0.00049	
CCNB1	cyclin B1	Hs.23960	0.021	
CA1	Carbonic anhydrase 1	Hs.23118	0.00037	
PDCD4	Programmed cell death 4(neoplastic transformation inhibitor)	Hs.711490	0.019	
COL1A1	Collagen type I, α 1	Hs.172928	1	
COL1A2	Collagen type I, α 2	Hs.489142	1	
CD13    ANPEP	Ananyl (membrane) animopeptidase	Hs.1239	0.96	
GBX2	Gastrulation brain homeobox 2	Hs.184945	0.61	
Actn1	Actinin, α 1	Hs.509765	0.9	
Birc3	Baculoviral IAP repeat-containing 3	Hs.127799	1	
Casp6	caspase 6, apoptosis-related cysteine peptidase	Hs.654616	3.60E-06	
Cbx4	Chromobox homolog 4 (Pc class homolog, <i>Drosophila</i> )	Hs.714363	0.00073	
Сора	coatomer protein complex, subunit $\alpha$	Hs.162121	0.00017	
Hspa8	Heat shock 70kDa protein 8	Hs.702021	1.80E-05	
lqgap1	IQ motif containing GTPase activating protein 1	Hs.430551	0.0047	
Lca    CLTA	Clathrin, light chain A	Hs.522114	9.00E-07	
Mad1l1	MAD1 mitotic arrest deficient-like 1 (yeast)	Hs.654838	7.30E-10	
Ррр3са	Protein phosphatase 3, catalytic subunit, α isozyme	Hs.435512	0.42	
SLC1A5	Solute carrier family 1 (neutral amino acid transporter), member 5	Hs.631582	0.032	
Cox-2    PTGS2	Prostaglandin-endoperoxide synthase 2 (prostaglandin G/H synthase and cyclooxygenase)	Hs.196384	0.28	
TCRd    TRD@	T-cell receptor $\delta$ locus	Hs.74647	0.79	
FABP5 <sup>"</sup>	Fatty acid binding protein 5 (psoriasis-associated)	Hs.408061	1	
DHRS2	Dehydrogenase/reductase (SDR family) member 2	Hs.272499	0.19	
TGFB1	Transforming growth factor, β 1	Hs.645227	0.63	
CTNNAL1	Catenin (cadherin-associated protein), α-like 1	Hs.58488	0.00059	