

Clustering RNA-seq expression data using grade of membership models

Kushal K Dey¹ Chiaowen Joyce Hsiao² Matthew Stephens^{1,2}

¹ Department of Statistics, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA; ² Department of Human Genetics, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637, USA

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Corresponding Author: Email mstephens@uchicago.edu

Abstract

Grade of membership models (also known as “admixture models” or “Latent Dirichlet Allocation”) are a generalization of cluster models that allow each sample to have membership in multiple clusters. These models are widely used in population genetics to model admixed individuals who have ancestry from multiple “populations”, and in natural language processing to model documents having words from multiple “topics”. Here we illustrate the potential for these models to cluster samples of RNA-seq gene expression data, measured on either bulk samples or single cells. The approach provides attractive visual summaries of the primary structure in several example data sets, and in our quantitative comparisons is more accurate than distance-based approaches in separating samples from different human tissues. We also provide methods to identify the genes that are most distinctively expressed in each cluster. The methods are implemented in an R package **CountClust**, available at <https://github.com/kkdey/CountClust>.

1 Introduction

Ever since large-scale gene expression measurements have been possible using micro-arrays, clustering – of both genes and samples – has played a major role in their analysis [1] [2] [3]. For example, clustering of genes can identify genes that are working together or co-regulated, and clustering of samples is useful for quality control as well as identifying biologically-distinct subgroups. A wide range of clustering methods have therefore been employed in this context, including distance-based hierarchical clustering, k -means clustering, and self-organizing maps (SOMs); see for example [4] [5] for reviews.

Here we focus specifically on cluster analysis of samples (as opposed to clustering of genes). Traditional clustering methods for this problem attempt to partition samples into distinct groups that show “similar” expression patterns. While partitioning samples in this way has intuitive appeal, it seems likely that the structure of a typical gene expression data set will be too complex to be fully captured by such a partitioning. Motivated by this, here we analyse expression data using grade of membership models [6], which generalize clustering models to allow each sample to have partial membership in multiple clusters. That is, they allow that each sample has a proportion, or “grade” of membership in each cluster. Such models are widely used in population genetics to model admixture, where individuals can have ancestry from multiple populations [12], and in document clustering ([28, 29]) where each document can have membership in multiple topics. In these fields the grade of membership models are often known as “admixture models”, and “topic models” or “Latent Dirichlet Allocation” [28].

In the context of RNA-seq expression data, the grade of membership model allows that each sample has some proportion of its RNA-seq reads coming from each cluster. For typical bulk RNA-seq experiments this assumption could be motivated by a simple – or perhaps simplistic – argument: each sample is a mixture of different cell types, and so clusters could represent cell types, and the membership of a sample in each cluster could represent the proportions of each cell type present. This is similar to the idea of “deconvolution” methods that use cell-type-

specific expression profiles of marker genes to estimate the concentration of different cell types in a mixture [34]. And, indeed, the grade of membership model we use here is analogous to – although different in detail from – blind deconvolution approaches [32, 33] which estimate cell type proportions and cell type signatures jointly (see also [30, 31] for semi-supervised approaches). However, we believe that the grade of membership model can be useful more generally to elucidate structure in expression data. For example, in single-cell expression data treating each sample as a “mixture of cell types” is clearly inappropriate, and yet we see value in the idea that there may be some “continuous” variation in cell types, rather than (or perhaps in addition to) the purely discrete variation captured by cluster models. Indeed, the extent to which variation among cells can be described in terms of discrete clusters vs more continuous populations seems a fundamental question that, when combined with appropriate single-cell RNA-seq data, the grade of membership models used here may ultimately help address. Further, even for bulk RNA-seq data, we argue that grade of membership models may yield interesting insights into heterogeneity among samples even if the inferred cluster membership do not correspond precisely to proportions of specific cell types, as may often happen in practice.

Interestingly, although we have not previously seen grade of membership models applied to RNA-seq data, several software packages for doing this already exist! ¹ This is because the Latent Dirichlet Allocation model from [28], which is widely used to cluster documents based on their word counts, is based on a multinomial model that applies naturally and immediately to RNA-seq data. Whereas documents are characterized by counts of each possible word in a dictionary, RNA-seq samples are characterized by counts of reads mapping to each possible gene (or other unit, such as transcript, or exon) in the genome. Thus many software packages available for document clustering will also be applicable to RNA-seq data. Here we use the R package `maptpx` [11] to fit these models, and we add functionality for visualizing the results and annotating clusters by their most distinctive genes to help biological interpretation. These methods are implemented in the R package `CountClust` available from <https://github.com/kkdey/CountClust>.

2 Results

To briefly summarize the approach, assume RNA-seq data have been summarized by a table of counts $C_{N \times G} = (c_{ng})$, where c_{ng} is the number of reads from sample n mapped to gene (or transcript) g [10]. The grade of membership (GoM) model assumes that

$$c_n. \sim \text{Mult}(c_{n+}, p_{n.}) \quad (1)$$

where $c_n.$ denotes the count vector for the n th sample, $c_{n+} := \sum_g c_{ng}$, and $p_{n.}$ is a probability vector (non-negative entries summing to 1) whose g th element represents the relative expression

¹While preparing this work for publication we became aware of recent independent work by [36] applying grade of membership models to RNA-seq data.

of gene g in sample n . The model further assumes that

$$p_{ng} = \sum_{k=1}^K q_{nk} \theta_{kg} \quad (2)$$

where $q_{n\cdot}$ is a probability vector whose k th element represents the grade of membership (or “membership proportion”) of sample n in cluster k , and $\theta_{k\cdot}$ is a probability vector whose g th element represents the relative expression of gene g in cluster k . The number of clusters K is set by the analyst, and it can be helpful to explore multiple values of K (see Discussion).

Fitting this model (see Methods) results in estimated membership proportions q for each sample, and estimated expression values θ for each cluster. We visualize the membership proportions for each sample using a “Structure plot” [13], which is named for its widespread use in visualizing the results of the *Structure* software [12] in population genetics. The Structure plot represents the estimated membership proportions of each sample as a stacked barchart, with bars of different colors representing different clusters. Consequently samples that have similar membership proportions have similar amounts of each color. See Figure 1 for example.

2.1 Clustering human tissue samples using bulk RNA expression

We begin by illustrating the GoM model on bulk RNA expression measurements from the GTEx project (V6 dbGaP accession phs000424.v6.p1, release date: Oct 19, 2015, <http://www.gtexportal.org/home/>). These data consist of per-gene read counts from RNA-seq performed on 8,555 samples collected from 450 human donors across 51 tissues, lymphoblastoid cell lines, and transformed fibroblast cell-lines. We analyzed 16,069 genes that satisfied filters (e.g. exceeding certain minimum expression levels) that were used during eQTL analyses by the GTEx project (gene list available in https://github.com/stephenslab/count-clustering/blob/master/project/utilities/gene_names_GTEX_V6.txt).

To assess structure in these data we applied the GoM model with $K = 10, 12, 15$. Although results differ with K , many of the primary patterns were consistent across K . Here, for brevity, we focus on results for $K = 15$, shown as a Structure plot in **Figure 1(a)** (see also an alternative visualization using a 2-dimensional projection with t-SNE [18], [19], in **Supplementary Figure 1** http://stephenslab.github.io/count-clustering/project/src/tissues_tSNE_2.html). Reassuringly, much of the structure highlighted by these results follows the known division of samples into tissues: that is, samples from the same tissue tend to have similar grades of membership across clusters. Some tissues are represented by essentially a single cluster (e.g. Pancreas, Whole Blood), whereas other tissues are represented as a mixture of multiple clusters (e.g. Thyroid). Furthermore, the results highlight biological similarity among some tissues by assigning similar membership proportions to samples from those tissues. For example, samples from different parts of the brain have similar memberships, as do the arteries (aorta, tibial and coronary) and skin (sun-exposed and un-exposed). Samples from the tibial nerve have small but consistent amounts of membership in common with brain tissues, as well as larger

amounts in common with the adipose tissues. Indeed, many tissues show membership in cluster 1 (purple) or “Adipose” cluster, possibly reflecting, at least in some cases, contamination with adipose cells.

Each cluster is characterized by a vector that contains the mean expression level for each gene. To help biologically interpret each cluster we annotate it by identifying the genes whose expression levels most strongly distinguish that cluster from the others (see Methods). Table 1 summarizes the enrichment analysis of the top driving genes of each cluster for the GTEx analysis in Figure 1a. We also present the summary function of the top three genes for each cluster in Supplementary Table 1. Reassuringly, many results align with known biology. For example, the light red cluster (cluster 4), which distinguishes Testis from other tissues, is enriched with genes responsible for sexual reproduction and spermatogenesis etc, (e.g.: *PRM2*, *PRM1*, *PHF7*). Similarly the light green cluster (cluster 10), which primarily distinguishes Whole Blood from other tissues, is enriched with genes responsible for immune responses (e.g. *CSF3R*, *IFITM2*) and hemoglobin complex and oxygen transport (e.g. *HBB*, *HBA1*, *HBA2*). Furthermore, digestion and proteolysis related genes characterize the Pancreas cluster (cluster 13, light violet), Keratin-related genes characterize the skin cluster (cluster 6, sky blue), Myosin-related genes characterize the muscle skeletal cluster (cluster 9, green), etc. In cases where a cluster occurs in multiple tissues these annotations may be particularly helpful for understanding what may be driving this co-membership. For example, the top four genes in the light orange cluster (cluster 8), which is common to Lung, Spleen and Small Intestine - Terminal Ileum, all code for surfactant proteins (specifically, B, A2, A1 and C).

Although global analysis of all tissues is useful for highlighting major structure in the data, it may miss finer-scale structure within tissues or among similar tissues. For example, here the global analysis allocated similar cluster memberships to all brain tissues, and we suspected that these tissues may exhibit substructure that could be uncovered by analyzing the brain samples separately. **Figure 1(b)** shows the Structure plot for $K = 4$ on only the Brain samples. The results highlight much finer-scale structure compared with the global analysis. Brain Cerebellum and Cerebellar hemisphere are essentially assigned to a separate cluster, which is enriched with genes related to cell periphery and communication (e.g. *PKD1*, *CBLN3*) as well genes expressed largely in neuronal cells and playing a role in neuron differentiation (e.g. *CHGB*). The spinal cord samples also show consistently strong membership in a single cluster, the top defining gene for the cluster being *MBP* which is involved in myelination of nerves in the nervous system [35]. The other driving gene *GFAP* takes part in system development by acting as a marker to distinguish astrocytes during development.

The remaining samples all show membership in multiple clusters, with cortex samples being distinguished from other samples by stronger membership in a cluster (cluster3, turquoise in Figure 1(b)) whose distinctive genes include *ENC1*, which interacts with actin and contributes to the organisation of the cytoskeleton during the specification of neural fate [?].

2.2 Quantitative comparison with hierarchical clustering

The GoM model is, in many ways, complimentary to, rather than only competing with, distance-based hierarchical clustering methods. Nonetheless, we hypothesized that the model-based nature of the GoM approach might also provide greater accuracy in detecting substructure than distance-based methods. We used the GTEx data to test this hypothesis. Specifically, for each pair of tissues in the GTEx data we assessed whether or not each clustering method correctly partitioned samples into the two tissue groups (see Methods). The GoM model was substantially more accurate in this test, succeeding in 86% of comparisons, compared with 39% for the distance-based method; Figure 2.

2.3 Clustering of single-cell RNA-seq data

Recently RNA-sequencing has become viable for single cells [7], and this technology has the promise to revolutionize understanding of intra-cellular variation in expression, and regulation more generally [8]. Although it is traditional to describe and categorize cells in terms of distinct cell-types, the actual architecture of cell heterogeneity may be more complex, and in some cases perhaps better captured by the more “continuous” GoM model. In this section we aim to illustrate the potential for the GoM model to be applied to single cell data.

Single-cell RNA-seq data typically involve substantially lower effective sequencing depth compared with bulk experiments, due to the lower number of molecules available to sequence in a single cell. To check robustness of the GoM model to lower sequencing depth we repeated analyses above after thinning the GTEx data by a factor of 10,000 to mimic the lower sequencing depth of a typical single cell experiment. For the thinned GTEx data the Structure plot for $K = 15$ preserves most of the major features of the original analysis on unthinned data (Supplementary Figure 2). For the accuracy comparisons with distance-based methods, both methods suffer reduced accuracy in thinned data, but the model-based method retains its superior performance. For example, when thinning by a factor of 1,000 the success proportion in separating tissues is 0.10 for hierarchical clustering and 0.32 for GoM model.

Now we apply the GoM models to two single cell RNA-seq datasets, from Jaitin *et al* [20] and Deng *et al* [21].

2.3.1 Jaitin et al, 2014

Jaitin *et al* sequenced over 4,000 single cells from mouse spleen. Following the original authors protocol, we also filtered out 16 genes that they found to show significant batch-specific expression. Here we analyze 1041 of these cells that were categorized as *CD11c+* in the *sorting markers* column of their data (http://compgenomics.weizmann.ac.il/tanay/?page_id=519), and which had total number of reads mapping to non-ERCC genes greater than 600. (We be-

lieve these cells correspond roughly to the 1,040 cells in their Figure S7.) Our hope was that applying our method to these data would identify, and perhaps refine, the cluster structure evident in [20] (their Figures 2A and 2B). However, our method yielded rather different results (Figure 3), where most cells were assigned to have membership in several clusters. Further, the cluster membership vectors showed systematic differences among amplification batches (which in these data is also strongly correlated with sequencing batch). For example, cells in batch 1 are characterized by strong membership in the orange cluster (cluster 5) while those in batch 4 are characterized by strong membership in both the blue and yellow clusters (2 and 6). Some adjacent batches show similar patterns - for example batches 28 and 29 have a similar visual “palette”, as do batches 32-45. The fact that batch effects are detectable in data like these is not particularly surprising. There is a growing recognition of the importance of batch effects in high-throughput data generally [24] and in single cell data specifically [25]. And indeed, dimension reduction methods such as the ones we use here can be helpful in controlling for such effects [22] [23]. However, why these batch effects are not evident in Figures 2A and 2B of [20] is unclear to us.

2.3.2 Deng et al, 2014

Deng *et al* collected single-cell expression data of mouse preimplantation embryos from the zygote to blastocyst stage [21] and analysed the trend of allele-specific expression in early embryo development. Here we analyse the combined counts of the two alleles. Visual inspection of the Principal Components Analysis in [21] suggested 6-7 clusters, so we focus on the GoM model with $K = 6$.

The results (Figure 4) clearly highlight the continuous pattern of grades of membership through early embryonic development stages. Initially at the zygote stage, the embryos are represented by the blue cluster. Continuing on to the cleavage division stages, the grades of membership change to include a mixture of blue and magenta clusters at the mid 2-cell stage, a mixture of magenta and yellow clusters at the late 2-cell stage, and then a mixture of yellow and green at the 4-cell stage. Indeed, many of the clusters showed notable trends through the stages. For example, membership in the green cluster is non-existent in the early stages, but starting from the 4-cell stage, the green becomes more prominent in the 8-16 cell stages, drops substantially in the early and mid-blastocyst stages, and is essentially absent in the late blastocyst. More generally, the GoM results highlight biological similarity between embryos from adjacent stages than embryos from distant stages during preimplantation.

Examining the clustering results by individual embryos highlights apparent embryo-level effects in the early stages (Figure 4).

While all the cells from 16-cell stage have high memberships in the green cluster, it is noteworthy that cells coming from two of the embryos at the 16-cell stage have memberships in both purple and yellow, while the other two have memberships only in yellow cluster. Finally, the results indicate a few samples that appear to be outliers. For example, a cell from a 16-cell

embryo is represented by the blue cluster - a cluster that represents cells at the zygote and early 2-cell stage. Also, a cell from an 8-stage embryo is driven by the purple cluster - a cluster that represents cells from the blastocyst stage.

Enrichment analysis of the top driving genes in each cluster indicates that the grades of membership align with known biology during embryonic preimplantation (Table ??). For example, the blue cluster is enriched with genes responsible for germ cell development (e.g., *Bcl2l10*, *Spin1*) which are essential to the zygote and 2-cell stages. Similarly, the green cluster is enriched with cytoskeletal genes (e.g., *Fbx15*) and cytoplasm genes (e.g., *Tceb1*, *Hsp90ab1*), all of which are essential for compaction at the 8-cell stage and morula formation at the 16-cell stage. Furthermore, the results showed some clusters formed a biologically meaningful mixture. For example, cells in the blastocyst are represented by a mixture of orange and purple clusters. The orange cluster seems to be enriched with genes involved in the formation of outer trophoblast cells (e.g., *Tspan8*, *Krt8*, *Id2* [?]), while the purple cluster is enriched with genes responsible for the formation of inner cell mass (e.g., *Pdgfra*, *Pyy* [?]). Reassuringly, these results of two underlying cell populations in the blastocyst are consistent with the known mammalian extra-embryonic lineages, the outer trophoblast (TE) and internal primitive endoderm (PE), prior to implantation.

Notably, for both these single-cell data sets, most cells are assigned to a combination of more than one cluster, rather than a single cluster (the exception being the very early-stage cells in data from Deng et al). This highlights the potential utility for GoM models to capture structure in single cell data that might be missed by simpler cluster-based approaches.

The codes and scripts for reproducing results in this paper are available at <http://stephenslab.github.io/count-clustering/>.

3 Discussion

Our goal here is to highlight the potential for model-based clustering methods, and particularly GoM models, to elucidate structure in RNA-seq data from both single cell sequencing and bulk sequencing of pooled cells. We also provide tools to identify which genes are most distinctively expressed in each cluster, to aid interpretation of results. As our applications to the GTEx data illustrate, these methods have the potential to highlight biological processes underlying the cluster structure identified.

The GoM model has several advantages over distance-based hierarchical methods of clustering. At the most basic level model-based methods are often more accurate than distance-based methods. Indeed, in our simple test on the GTEx data the model-based GoM approach more accurately separated samples into “known” clusters. However, there are also other subtler benefits of the GoM model. Because the GoM model does not assume a strict “discrete cluster” structure, but rather allows that each sample has a proportion of membership in each cluster, it can provide insights into how well a particular dataset really fits a “discrete cluster” model.

For example, consider our results for the data from [20] and [21]: in both cases most samples are assigned to multiple clusters, although the results are closer to “discrete” for the latter than the former. The GoM model is also better able to represent situation where there is not really a single clustering of the samples, but where samples may cluster differently at different genes. For example, in the GTEx data, the lung samples share memberships in common with both the spleen and adipose-related tissues. This pattern is clearly visible in the Structure plot (Figure 1) but would be hard to discern from a standard hierarchical clustering.

GoM models also have close connections with dimension reduction techniques such as factor analysis, principal components analysis and non-negative matrix factorization. All of these methods can also be used for RNA-seq data, and may often be useful. See [17] for discussion of relationships among these methods in the context of inferring population genetic structure. While not arguing that the GoM model is uniformly superior to these other methods, we believe our examples illustrate the appeals of the approach. In particular, we would argue that for the GTEx data, the Structure plot (Figure 1) combined with the cluster annotations (Table 1) provide a more visually and biologically appealing summary of the data than would a principal components analysis.

Fitting GoM models can be computationally-intensive for large data sets. For the datasets we considered here the computation time ranged from 12 minutes for the data from [21] ($n = 259$; $K = 6$), through 33 minutes for the data from [20] ($n = 1,041$; $K = 7$) to 3,297 minutes for the GTEx data ($n = 8,555$; $K = 15$). Computation time can be reduced by fitting the model to only the most highly expressed genes, and we often use this strategy to get quick initial results for a dataset. Because these methods are widely used for clustering very large document datasets there is considerable ongoing interest in computational speed-ups for very large datasets, with “on-line” approaches capable of dealing with millions of documents [39] that could be useful in the future for very large RNA-seq datasets.

A thorny issue that arises when fitting these types of model is how to select the number of clusters, K . Like many software packages for fitting these models, the `maptpx` package implements a measure of model fit that provides one useful guide. However, it is worth remembering that in practice there is unlikely to be a “true” value of K , and results from different values of K may complement one another rather than merely competing with one another. For example, seeing how the fitted model evolves as K increases is one way to capture some notion of hierarchy in the clusters identified [13]. More generally it is often fruitful to analyse data in multiple ways using the same tool: for example our GTEx analyses illustrate how analysis of subsets of the data (in this case the brain samples) can complement analyses of the entire data.

The version of the GoM model fitted here is relatively simple, and could certainly be embellished. For example, the model allows the expression of each gene in each cluster to be a free parameter, whereas we might expect expression of most genes to be “similar” across clusters. This is analogous to the idea in population genetics applications that allele frequencies in different populations may be similar to one another [16], or in document clustering applications that most words may not differ appreciably in frequency in different topics. In population genetics

applications incorporating this idea into the model, by using a correlated prior distribution on these frequencies, can help improve identification of subtle structure [16] and we would expect the same to happen here for RNA-seq data.

4 Methods and Materials

4.1 Model overview

We assume the RNA-seq data have been summarized by a table of counts $C_{N \times G} = (c_{ng})$, where c_{ng} is the number of reads from sample n mapped to gene (or transcript) g [10]. We remove genes g with all zero counts ($c_{ng} = 0$ for all n), and use the `maptpx` R package [11] to fit the grade of membership (GoM) model, also known as “Latent Dirichlet Allocation” (LDA). This model assumes the RNA-seq counts for each sample follow a multinomial distribution

$$c_n. \sim \text{Mult}(c_{n+}, p_{n.}) \quad (3)$$

where $c_n.$ denotes the count vector for the n th sample, $c_{n+} := \sum_g c_{ng}$, and $p_{n.}$ is a probability vector (non-negative entries summing to 1) whose g th element represents the relative expression of gene g in sample n . The model further assumes that

$$p_{ng} = \sum_{k=1}^K q_{nk} \theta_{kg} \quad (4)$$

where $q_n.$ is a probability vector whose k th element represents the grade of membership of sample n in cluster k , and $\theta_k.$ is a probability vector whose g th element represents the relative expression of gene g in cluster k . The `maptpx` package fits this model using an EM algorithm to perform Maximum a posteriori (MAP) estimation of the parameters q and θ . See [11] for details.

4.2 Visualizing Results

In addition to the Structure plot, we have also found it useful to visualize results using t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE), which is a method for visualizing high dimensional datasets by placing them in a two dimensional space, attempting to preserve the relative distance between nearby samples [18, 19]. Compared with the Structure plot our t-SNE plots contain less information, but can better emphasise clustering of samples that have similar membership proportions in many clusters. Specifically, t-SNE tends to place samples with similar membership proportions together in the two-dimensional plot, forming visual “clusters” that can be identified by eye (e.g. Supplementary Figure 1). This may be particularly helpful in settings where no external information is available to aid in making an informative Structure plot.

4.3 Cluster annotation

To help biologically interpret the clusters, we developed a method to identify which genes are most distinctively differentially expressed in each cluster. (This is analogous to identifying “ancestry informative markers” in population genetics applications [14].) Specifically, for each cluster k we measure the distinctiveness of gene g with respect to any other cluster l using

$$\text{KL}^g[k, l] := \theta_{kg} \log \frac{\theta_{kg}}{\theta_{lg}} + \theta_{lg} - \theta_{kg}, \quad (5)$$

which is the Kullback–Leibler divergence of the Poisson distribution with parameter θ_{kg} to the Poisson distribution with parameter θ_{lg} . For each cluster k , we then define the distinctiveness of gene g as

$$D^g[k] = \min_{l \neq k} \text{KL}^g[k, l]. \quad (6)$$

The higher $D^g[k]$, the larger the role of gene g in distinguishing cluster k from all other clusters. Thus, for each cluster k we identify the genes with highest $D^g[k]$ as the genes driving the cluster k . We annotate the genes driving each cluster with biological functions using the **mygene** R Bioconductor package [26].

For each cluster k , we filter out a number of genes (top 100 for the Deng *et al* data [21] and GTEx V6 data [9]) with highest $D^g[k]$ value and perform a gene set over-representation analysis of these genes against all the other genes in the data representing background. We used the software due to Max Planck Institute of Molecular Genetics for the gene set over-representation analysis <http://cpdb.molgen.mpg.de/> [?] [?]. Check Tables 1 - ?? and Table ?? for gene ontologies of clusters for GTEx V6 data and Deng *et al* data respectively.

4.4 Comparison with hierarchical clustering

Distance based hierarchical clustering methods are the most commonly used clustering techniques for gene expression data. To compare between the grade of membership model and the distance based hierarchical clustering algorithm, we used both methods to samples from pairs of tissues from the GTEx project, and assessed which methods separated samples according to tissue. For each pair of tissues we randomly selected 50 samples from the pool of all samples coming from these tissues. For the hierarchical clustering approach we cut the dendrogram at $K = 2$, and checked whether or not this cut partitions the samples into the two tissue groups. (We applied hierarchical clustering using Euclidean distance, with both complete and average linkage; results were similar and so we showed results only for complete linkage.) For the model-based approach we analysed the data with $K = 2$, and sort the samples by their membership in cluster 1. We then partitioned the samples at the point of the steepest fall in this membership, and again we check whether this cut partitions the samples into the two tissue groups.

Figure 2 shows, for each pair of tissues, whether each method successfully partitioned the samples into the two tissue groups using these approaches.

4.5 Thinning

We used “thinning” to simulate lower-coverage data from the original higher-coverage data.. Specifically, if c_{ng} is the counts of number of reads mapping to gene g for sample n for the original data, we simulated thinned counts t_{ng} using

$$t_{ng} \sim \text{Bin}(c_{ng}, p_{thin}) \quad (7)$$

where we used p_{thin} is a specified thinning parameter.

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Disclosure Declaration

The authors have no conflict of interest.

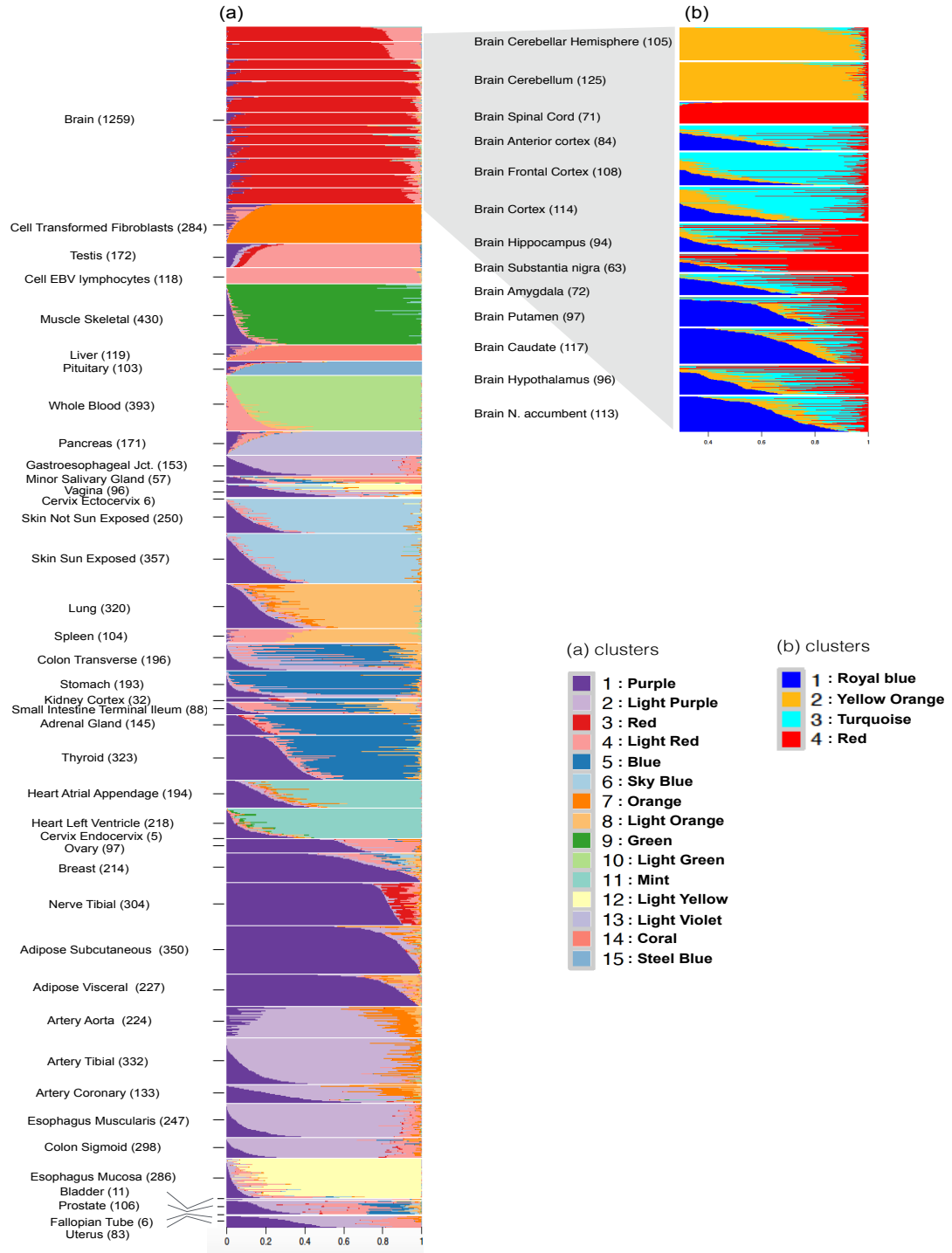
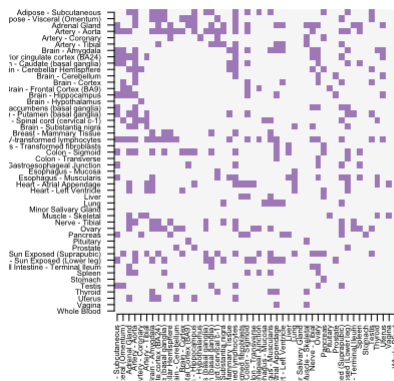


Figure 1. (a): Structure plot of estimated cluster membership proportions for $K = 15$ clusters fit to 8555 tissue samples from 53 tissues in GTEx data. Each vertical bar shows the cluster membership proportions for a single sample, ordered so that samples from the same tissue are adjacent to one another. Within each tissue, the samples are sorted by the proportional representation of the underlying clusters. (b): Structure plot of estimated cluster membership proportions for $K = 4$ clusters fit to only the brain tissue samples from GTEx. This analysis highlights finer-scale structure among the brain samples that is absent from (a).



(a) hierarchy method



(b) GoM method

Figure 2. A comparison of “accuracy” of hierarchical vs model-based clustering. For each pair of tissues from the GTEX data we assessed whether or not each clustering method (with $K = 2$ clusters) separated the samples according to their actual tissue of origin, with successful separation indicated by a filled square. Some pairs of tissues (e.g. pairs of brain tissues) are more difficult to distinguish than others. Overall the model-based clustering is successful in 86% comparisons and the hierarchical clustering in 39% comparisons.

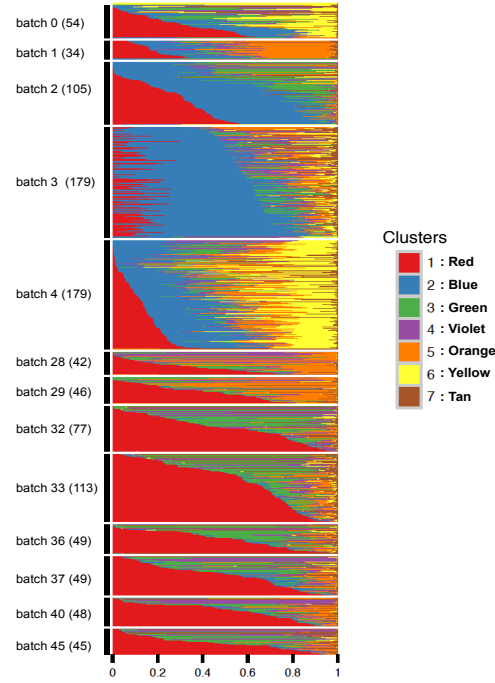


Figure 3. Structure plot of estimated cluster membership proportions for $K = 7$ clusters fit to 1041 single cells from [20]. The samples are ordered so that samples from the same amplification batch are adjacent and within each batch, the samples are sorted by the proportional representation of the underlying clusters. In this analysis the samples do not appear to form clearly-defined clusters, with each sample being allocated membership in several “clusters”. Visually, samples from the same amplification batch tend to be assigned similar membership proportions, suggesting that batch effects are likely contributing to the inferred clustering.

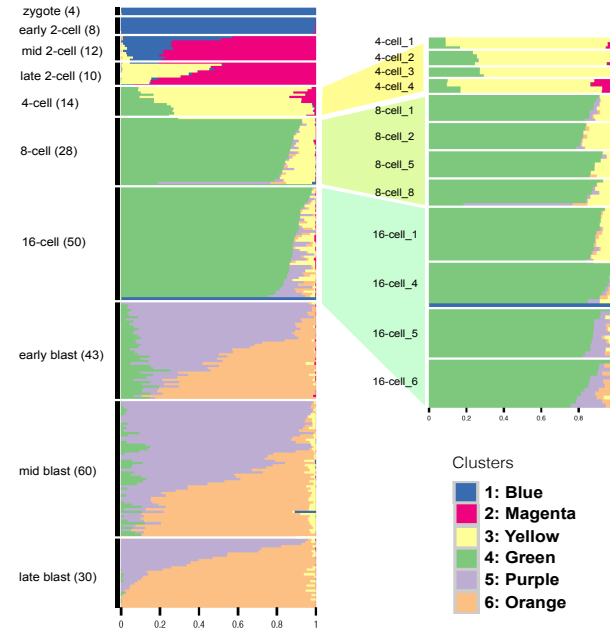


Figure 4. Structure plot of estimated cluster membership proportions for $K = 6$ clusters fit to 259 single cells from [21]. The cells are ordered by their preimplantation development phase (and within each phase, sorted by the proportional representation of the clusters). While the very earliest developmental phases (*zygote/early2cell*) are essentially assigned to a single cluster, others are represented as a mix of two or more clusters. This illustrates the idea that structure of single-cell data may in some cases be better captured by a mixed membership model than by simple discrete clusters.

Table 1. Cluster Annotations GTEx V6 data (with GO annotations).

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Top significant GO terms |
|--|---|---|--|
| cluster 1, purple (Nerve, Adipose) | FABP4 APOD PLIN1 MPZ GPX3 | fatty acid binding protein 4, adipocyte apolipoprotein D perilipin 1 myelin protein zero glutathione peroxidase 3 | GO:0005578 (proteinaceous extracellular matrix), GO:0005615 (extracellular space), GO:1901700 (response to oxygen-containing compound), GO:0005811 (lipid particle), GO:0009719 (response to endogenous stimulus), GO:0009611 (response to wounding) |
| cluster 2, light purple (Arteries, Esophagus) | MYH11 ACTA2 ACTG2 TAGLN MYL9 | myosin, heavy chain 11, smooth muscle actin, alpha 2, smooth muscle, aorta actin, gamma 2, smooth muscle, enteric transgelin myosin light chain | GO:0005925 (focal adhesion), GO:0005924 (cell-substrate adherens junction), GO:0015629 (actin cytoskeleton), GO:0001725 (stress fiber), GO:0006936 (muscle contraction), GO:0032432 (actin filament bundle) |
| cluster 3, red (Brain) | MBP GFAP MTURN SNAP25 MT3 | myelin basic protein glial fibrillary acidic protein maturin, neural progenitor synaptosome associated protein 25kDa metallothionein 3 | GO:0097458 (neuron part), GO:0007268 (synaptic transmission), GO:0007267 (cell-cell signalling), GO:0007399 (nervous system development), GO:0043005 (neuron projection), GO:0036477 (somatodendritic component), GO:0022008 (neurogenesis), GO:0030424 (axon) |
| cluster 4, light red (Testis) | PRM2 PRM1 PHF7 TSACC TEX40 | protamine 2 protamine 1 PHD finger protein 7 TSSK6 activating co-chaperone testis expressed 40 | GO:0019953 (sexual reproduction), GO:0007276 (gamete generation), GO:0007283 (spermatogenesis), GO:0097228 (sperm principal piece), GO:0035686 (sperm fibrous sheath) |
| cluster 5, blue (Thyroid, Stomach) | TG LIPF PGC PGA3 CYP11B1 | thyroglobulin lipase F, gastric type progastricsin (pepsinogen C) pepsinogen 3, group I (pepsinogen A) cytochrome P450 family 11 subfamily B member 1 | GO:0042446 (hormone biosynthetic process), GO:0042445 (hormone metabolic process), GO:0008202 (steroid metabolic process), GO:0006694 (steroid biosynthetic process), GO:0006629 (lipid metabolic process), GO:0065008 (regulation of biological quality) |

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Top significant GO terms |
|---------------------------------------|---|---|---|
| cluster 6, sky blue (Skin) | KRT10 KRT1 KRT2 LOR KRT14 | keratin 10, type I keratin 1, type II keratin 2, type II loricrin keratin 14, type I | GO:0043588 (skin development), GO:0008544 (epidermis development), GO:0060429 (epithelium development), GO:0042633 (hair cycle), GO:0042303 (molting cycle) |
| cluster 7, orange (Cells fibroblasts) | FN1 COL1A1 COL1A2 COL3A1 COL6A3 | fibronectin 1 collagen type I alpha 1 collagen type I alpha 2 collagen type III alpha 1 collagen type VI alpha 3 | GO:0030198 (extracellular matrix organization), GO:0005578 (proteinaceous extracellular matrix), GO:0032963 (collagen metabolic process), GO:0005615 (extracellular space), GO:0030574 (collagen catabolic process) |
| cluster 8, light orange (Lung) | SFTPB SFTPA2 SFTPA1 SFTPC IGHG1 | surfactant protein B surfactant protein A2 surfactant protein A1 surfactant protein C immunoglobulin heavy constant gamma 1 (G1m marker) | GO:0002684 (positive regulation of immune system process), GO:0006955 (immune response), GO:0006952 (defense response), GO:0006959 (humoral immune response), GO:0002443 (leukocyte mediated immunity) |
| cluster 9, green (Muscle skeletal) | MYH1 NEB MYH2 MYBPC1 ACTA1 | myosin, heavy chain 1, skeletal muscle, adult nebulin myosin, heavy chain 2, skeletal muscle, adult myosin binding protein C, slow type actin, alpha 1, skeletal muscle | GO:0043292 (contractile fiber), GO:0030016 (myofibril), GO:0030017 (sarcomere), GO:0006936 (muscle contraction), GO:0003012 (muscle system process), GO:0015629 (actin cytoskeleton), GO:0008092 (cytoskeletal protein binding) |
| cluster 10, light green (Blood) | HBB HBA2 HBA1 CSF3R IFITM2 | hemoglobin, beta hemoglobin subunit alpha 2 hemoglobin subunit alpha 1 colony stimulating factor 3 receptor interferon induced transmembrane protein 2 | GO:0006955 (immune response), GO:0071944 (cell periphery), GO:0005886 (plasma membrane), GO:0005833 (hemoglobin complex), GO:0005344 (oxygen transporter activity), GO:0015669 (gas transport), GO:0009611 (response to wounding) |

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Top significant GO terms |
|---|--|---|---|
| cluster 11, mint (Heart) | NPPA MYH6 ACTC1 TNNT2 MYBPC3 | natriuretic peptide A myosin, heavy chain 6, cardiac muscle, alpha actin, alpha, cardiac muscle 1 troponin T2, cardiac type myosin binding protein C, cardiac | GO:0022904 (respiratory electron transport chain), GO:0030017 (sarcomere), GO:0044449 (contractile fiber part), GO:0030016 (myofibril), GO:0045333 (cellular respiration), GO:0003015 (heart process), GO:0006091 (generation of precursor metabolites and energy), GO:0006936 (muscle contraction) |
| cluster 12, light yellow (Esophagus mucosa) | KRT13 KRT4 SPRR3 CRNN RHCG | keratin 13, type I keratin 4, type II small proline rich protein 3 cornulin Rh family C glycoprotein | GO:0008544 (epidermis development), GO:0031424 (keratinization), GO:0030855 (epithelial cell differentiation), GO:0065010 (extracellular membrane-bounded organelle), GO:0070062 (extracellular exosome), GO:1903561 (extracellular vesicle) |
| cluster 13, light violet (Pancreas) | PRSS1 PNLIP CPA1 CELA3A GP2 | protease, serine 1 pancreatic lipase carboxypeptidase A1 chymotrypsin like elastase family member 3A glycoprotein 2 | GO:0007586 (digestion), GO:0004252 (serine endopeptidase activity), GO:0008233 (peptidase activity), GO:0044241 (lipid digestion), GO:0006508 (proteolysis), GO:0016160 (amylase activity) |
| cluster 14, coral (Liver) | MUC7 ALB HP FGA FGB | mucin 7, secreted albumin haptoglobin fibrinogen alpha chain fibrinogen beta chain | GO:0005615 (extracellular space), GO:0072562 (blood microparticle), GO:0065010 (extracellular membrane bound organelle), GO:0070062 (extracellular exosome), GO:0002526 (acute inflammatory response), GO:0031982 (vesicle) |
| cluster 15, steel blue (Pituitary) | PRL GH1 POMC CGA CHGB | prolactin 2 growth hormone 1 proopiomelanocortin glycoprotein hormones, alpha polypeptide chromogranin B | GO:0005179 (hormone activity), GO:0005148 (prolactin receptor binding), GO:0012505 (endomembrane system), GO:0046879 (hormone secretion), GO:0009914 (hormone transport), GO:0050432 (catecholamine secretion) |

Table 2. Cluster Annotations GTEx V6 Brain data (with GO annotations).

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Top significant GO terms |
|--------------------------------|--|--|---|
| cluster 1, royal blue | ATP1A2 CLU PPP1R1B APOE GLUL | ATPase Na ⁺ /K ⁺ transporting subunit alpha 2 clusterin protein phosphatase 1 regulatory inhibitor subunit 1B apolipoprotein glutamate-ammonia ligase | GO:0044707 (single-multicellular organism process), GO:0005615 (extracellular space), GO:0048731 (system development), GO:0007154 (cell communication), GO:0007275 (multicellular organismal development), GO:0007267 (cell-cell signaling) |
| cluster 2, yellow orange | PKD1 CBLN3 COL27A1 CHGB PPFIA4 | polycystin 1, transient receptor potential channel interacting cerebellin 3 precursor collagen type XXVII alpha 1 chromogranin B PTPRF interacting protein alpha 4 | GO:0005886 (plasma membrane), GO:0071944 (cell periphery), GO:0097458 (neuron part), GO:0030182 (neuron differentiation), GO:0007154 (cell communication), GO:0098794 (postsynapse), GO:0050803 (regulation of synapse structure/activity) |
| cluster 3, turquoise | ENC1 CALM2 MAP1A CALM3 YWHAH | ectodermal-neural cortex 1 calmodulin 2 (phosphorylase kinase, delta) microtubule associated protein 1A calmodulin 3 (phosphorylase kinase, delta) tyrosine 3-monooxygenase 5-monooxygenase activation protein | GO:0007268 (synaptic transmission), GO:0097458 (neuron part), GO:0007267 (cell-cell signalling), GO:0031175 (neuron projection development), GO:0030182 (neuron differentiation), GO:0042995 (cell projection) |
| cluster 4, red | MBP GFAP TF MTURN PAQR6 | myelin basic protein glial fibrillary acidic protein transferin maturin, neural progenitor differentiation regulator homolog progesterone and adipoQ receptor family member VI | GO:0043209 (myelin sheath), GO:0007275 (multicellular organism development), GO:0031982 (vesicle), GO:0048731 (system development), GO:0007272 (ensheathment of neurons), GO:0008366 (axon ensheathment) |

Table 3. Cluster Annotations Deng et al (2014) data (with GO annotations).

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Top significant GO terms |
|--------------------|--|---|---|
| cluster 1, blue | Bcl2l10 Tcl1 E330034G19Rik LOC100502936 Oas1d AU022751 Spin1 Khdc1b D6Ertd527e Btg4 | Bcl2 like 10 T cell lymphoma breakpoint 1 RIKEN cDNA E330034G19 gene NA 2'-5' oligoadenylate synthetase 1D expressed sequence AU022751 spindlin 1 KH domain containing 1B DNA segment, Chr 6, ERATO Doi 527, expressed B cell translocation gene 4 | GO:0007276 (gamete generation), GO:0032504 (multicellular organism reproduction), GO:0044702 (single organism reproduction), GO:0048477 (oogenesis), GO:0048599 (oocyte development), GO:0009994 (oocyte differentiation), GO:0051321 (meiotic cell cycle), GO:0006306 (DNA methylation), GO:0051302 (regulation of cell division) |
| cluster 2, magenta | Obox3 Zfp352 Gm8300 Usp17l5 BB287469 Rfpl4b Gm2022 Gm5662 Gm11544 Gm4850 | oocyte specific homeobox 3 zinc finger protein 352 predicted gene 8300 NA expressed sequence BB287469 ret finger protein-like 4B predicted pseudogene 2022 predicted gene 5662 predicted gene 11544 THO complex 4 pseudogene | GO:0016604 (nuclear body), GO:0005814 (centriole), GO:0044450 (microtubule organizing center part) |
| cluster 3, yellow | Rtn2 Ebna1bp2 Zfp259 Nasp Cenpe Rnf216 Ctsl Tor1b Ankrd10 Lamp2 | reticulon 2 (Z-band associated protein) EBNA1 binding protein 2 NA nuclear autoantigenic sperm protein (histone-binding) centromere protein E ring finger protein 216 cathepsin L torsin family 1, member B ankyrin repeat domain 10 lysosomal-associated membrane protein 2 | GO:0044428 (nuclear part), GO:0031981 (nuclear lumen), GO:0070013 (intracellular organelle lumen), GO:0005730 (nucleolus), GO:0005654 (nucleoplasm), GO:0003723 (RNA binding), GO:0005874 (microtubule), GO:0043229 (intracellular organelle) |

| Cluster | Top Genes | Driving | Gene names | Top significant GO terms |
|-------------------|---|---------|--|--|
| cluster 4, green | Timd2 Isyna1 Alpl2 Prame15 Hsp90ab1 Fbox15 Tceb1 Gpd1l Pemt Hsp90aa1 | | T cell immunoglobulin and mucin domain containing 2 myo-inositol 1-phosphate synthase A1 alkaline phosphatase, placental-like 2 preferentially expressed antigen in melanoma like 5 heat shock protein 90 alpha (cytosolic), class B member 1 F-box protein 15 transcription elongation factor B (SIII), polypeptide 1 glycerol-3-phosphate dehydrogenase 1-like phosphatidylethanolamine N-methyltransferase heat shock protein 90, alpha (cytosolic), class A member 1 | GO:0005829 (cytosol), GO:0044444 (cytoplasmic part), GO:1901575 (organic substance catabolic process), GO:0000151 (ubiquitin ligase complex), GO:0009056 (catabolic process), GO:0072655 (protein localization mitochondrion), GO:0044265 (cellular macromolecule catabolic process), GO:0051082 (unfolded protein binding), GO:0023026 (MHC class II protein complex binding), GO:0055131 (C3HC4-type RING finger domain binding) |
| cluster 5, purple | Upp1 Tdgf1 Aqp8 Fabp5 Tat Pdgfra Pyy Prdx1 Col4a1 Spp1 | | uridine phosphorylase 1 teratocarcinoma-derived growth factor 1 aquaporin 8 fatty acid binding protein 5, epidermal, protects against atherosclerosis, diet-induced obesity, insulin resistance and experimental autoimmune encephalomyelitis tyrosine aminotransferase, regulated by glucocorticoid and polypeptide hormones platelet derived growth factor receptor, alpha polypeptide peptide YY peroxiredoxin 1 collagen, type IV, alpha 1. secreted phosphoprotein 1 | GO:0070062 (extracellular exosome), GO:0043230 (extracellular organelle), GO:1903561 (extracellular vesicle), GO:0006950 (response to stress), GO:0006979 (response to oxidative stress), GO:0044710 (metabolic process), GO:0048514 (blood vessel morphogenesis), GO:0001944 (vasculature development), GO:0030198 (extracellular matrix organization) |
| cluster 6, orange | Actb Krt18 Fabp3 Id2 Tspan8 Gm2a Lgals1 Adh1 Lrp2 BC051665 | | actin, beta, involved in cell motility, structure, and integrity keratin 18 fatty acid binding protein 3, muscle and heart inhibitor of DNA binding 2 tetraspanin 8 GM2 ganglioside activator protein lectin, galactose binding, soluble 1 alcohol dehydrogenase 1 (class I) low density lipoprotein receptor-related protein 2 cDNA sequence BC051665 | GO:0065010 (extracellular membrane-bounded organelle), GO:0070062 (extracellular exosome), GO:0043230 (extracellular organelle), GO:1903561 (extracellular vesicle), GO:0031982 (vesicle), GO:0048468 (cell development), GO:0030036 (actin cytoskeleton and organization), GO:0032432 (actin filament bundle), GO:0005912 (adherens junction) |

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5 Supplementary figures



Figure 5. Structure plot of all tissue samples in 2 runs of the GTEx V6 data for $K=15$ for the thinning parameters (a) $p_{thin} = 0.01$ and (b) $p_{thin} = 0.0001$. The patterns in two plots closely correspond to the plot in **Fig 1** (a), though are a bit more noisy than compared to the unthinned version.



(a) hierarchy thin 0.01



(b) GoM thin 0.01



(c) hierarchy 0.0001



(d) GoM thin 0.0001

Figure 6. A comparison of “accuracy” of hierarchical vs model-based clustering on thinned GTEx data, with thinning parameter $p_{thin} = 0.01$ and $p_{thin} = 0.0001$. For each pair of tissues from the GTEx data we assessed whether or not each clustering method (with $K = 2$ clusters) separated the samples according to their actual tissue of origin, with successful separation indicated by a filled square. Thinning deteriorates accuracy compared with the unthinned data (Figure 2), but even then the model-based method remains more successful than the hierarchical clustering in separating the samples by tissue or origin.

6 Supplementary Table 1

Table 4. Cluster Annotations GTEx V6 data (with top gene summaries).

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Gene Summary |
|--|-------------------|---|---|
| cluster 1, purple (Nerve, Adipose) | FABP4 | fatty acid binding protein 4, adipocyte | FABP4 encodes the fatty acid binding protein found in adipocytes, roles include fatty acid uptake, transport, and metabolism |
| | APOD | apolipoprotein D | encodes a component of high density lipoprotein that has no marked similarity to other apolipoprotein sequences, closely associated with lipoprotein metabolism. |
| | PLIN1 | perilipin 1 | coats lipid storage droplets in adipocytes, thereby protecting them until they can be broken down by hormone-sensitive lipase. |
| cluster 2, light purple (Arteries, Esophagus) | MYH11 | myosin, heavy chain 11, smooth muscle | functions as a major contractile protein, converting chemical energy into mechanical energy through the hydrolysis of ATP. |
| | ACTA2 | actin, alpha 2, smooth muscle, aorta | protein encoded by this gene belongs to the actin family of proteins, which are highly conserved proteins that play a role in cell motility, structure and integrity, defects in this gene cause aortic aneurysm familial thoracic type 6. |
| | ACTG2 | actin, gamma 2, smooth muscle, enteric | encodes actin gamma 2; a smooth muscle actin found in enteric tissues, involved in various types of cell motility and in the maintenance of the cytoskeleton. |
| cluster 3, red (Brain) | MBP | myelin basic protein | major constituent of the myelin sheath of oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells in the nervous system |
| | GFAP | glial fibrillary acidic protein | encodes one of the major intermediate filament proteins of mature astrocytes, mutations causes Alexander disease. |
| | SNAP25 | synaptosomal-associated protein, 25kDa | this gene product is a presynaptic plasma membrane protein involved in the regulation of neurotransmitter release. |
| cluster 4, light red (Testis) | PRM2 | protamine 2 | Protamines are the major DNA-binding proteins in the nucleus of sperm |
| | PRM1 | protamine 1 | Protamines are the major DNA-binding proteins in the nucleus of sperm |
| | PHF7 | PHD finger protein 7 | This gene is expressed in the testis in Sertoli cells but not germ cells, regulates spermatogenesis. |
| cluster 5, blue (Thyroid, Stomach) | TG | thyroglobulin | thyroglobulin produced predominantly in thyroid gland, synthesizes thyroxine and triiodothyronine, associated with Graves disease and Hashimoto thyroiditis. |
| | LIPF | lipase, gastric | encodes gastric lipase, an enzyme involved in the digestion of dietary triglycerides in the gastrointestinal tract, and responsible for 30 % of fat digestion processes occurring in human. |
| | PGC | progastricsin (pepsinogen C) | encodes an aspartic proteinase that belongs to the peptidase family A1. The encoded protein is a digestive enzyme that is produced in the stomach and constitutes a major component of the gastric mucosa, associated with susceptibility to gastric cancers. |
| cluster 6, sky blue (Skin) | KRT10 | keratin 10, type I | encodes a member of the type I (acidic) cytoke­ratin family, mutations associated with epidermolytic hyperkeratosis. |
| | KRT1 | keratin 1, type II | specifically expressed in the spinous and granular layers of the epidermis with family member KRT10 and mutations in these genes have been associated with bullous congenital ichthyosiform erythroderma. |
| | KRT2 | keratin 2, type II | expressed largely in the upper spinous layer of epidermal keratinocytes and mutations in this gene have been associated with bullous congenital ichthyosiform erythroderma. |
| cluster 7, orange (Cells fibroblasts) | FN1 | fibronectin 1 | Fibronectin is involved in cell adhesion, embryogenesis, blood coagulation, host defense, and metastasis. |
| | COL1A1 | collagen, type I, alpha 1 | Mutations in this gene associated with osteogenesis imperfecta types I-IV, Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type and Classical type, Caffey Disease. |
| | COL1A2 | collagen, type I, alpha 2 | Mutations in this gene associated with osteogenesis imperfecta types I-IV, Ehlers-Danlos syndrome type and Classical type, Caffey Disease. |

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Gene Summary |
|---|------------------------|--|---|
| cluster 8, light orange (Lung) | SFTPB | surfactant protein B | an amphipathic surfactant protein essential for lung function and homeostasis after birth, mutations cause pulmonary alveolar proteinosis, fatal respiratory distress in the neonatal period. |
| | SFTPA2 | surfactant protein A2 | Mutations in this gene and a highly similar gene located nearby, which affect the highly conserved carbohydrate recognition domain, are associated with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. |
| | SFTPA1 | surfactant protein A1 | encodes a lung surfactant protein that is a member of C-type lectins called collectins, associated with idiopathic pulmonary fibrosis. |
| cluster 9, green (Muscle skeletal) | MYH1 | myosin, heavy chain 1, skeletal muscle, adult | a major contractile protein which converts chemical energy into mechanical energy through the hydrolysis of ATP. |
| | NEB | nebulin | encodes nebulin, a giant protein component of the cytoskeletal matrix that coexists with the thick and thin filaments within the sarcomeres of skeletal muscle, associated with recessive nemaline myopathy. |
| | MYH2 | myosin, heavy chain 2, skeletal muscle, adult | encodes a member of the class II or conventional myosin heavy chains, and functions in skeletal muscle contraction. |
| cluster 10, light green (Blood) | HBB | hemoglobin, beta | mutant beta globin causes sickle cell anemia, absence of beta chain/reduction in beta globin leads to thalassemia. |
| | HBA2 | hemoglobin, alpha 2 | deletion of alpha genes may lead to alpha thalassemia. |
| | HBA1 | hemoglobin, alpha 1 | deletion of alpha genes may lead to alpha thalassemia. |
| cluster 11, mint (Heart) | NPPA | natriuretic peptide A | protein encoded by this gene belongs to the natriuretic peptide family, associated with atrial fibrillation familial type 6. |
| | MYH6 | myosin, heavy chain 6, cardiac muscle, alpha | encodes the alpha heavy chain subunit of cardiac myosin, mutations in this gene cause familial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy and atrial septal defect 3. |
| | ACTC1 | actin, alpha, cardiac muscle 1 | protein encoded by this gene belongs to the actin family, associated with idiopathic dilated cardiomyopathy (IDC) and familial hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (FHC). |
| cluster 12, light yellow (Esophagus mucosa) | KRT13 | keratin 13, type I | protein encoded by this gene is a member of the keratin gene family, associated with the autosomal dominant disorder White Sponge Nevus. |
| | KRT4 | keratin 4, type II | protein encoded by this gene is a member of the keratin gene family, associated with White Sponge Nevus, characterized by oral, esophageal, and anal leukoplakia. |
| | CRNN | cornulin | may play a role in the mucosal/epithelial immune response and epidermal differentiation. |
| cluster 13, light violet (Pancreas) | PRSS1 CPA1 PNLIP | protease, serine 1 carboxypeptidase A1 pancreatic lipase | secreted by pancreas, associated with pancreatitis secreted by pancreas, linked to pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer encodes a carboxyl esterase that hydrolyzes insoluble, emulsified triglycerides, and is essential for the efficient digestion of dietary fats. This gene is expressed specifically in the pancreas. |
| cluster 14, coral (Liver) | MUC7 | mucin 7, secreted | encodes a small salivary mucin, thought to play a role in facilitating the clearance of bacteria in the oral cavity and to aid in mastication, speech, and swallowing, associated with susceptibility to asthma. |
| | ALB | albumin | functions primarily as a carrier protein for steroids, fatty acids, and thyroid hormones and plays a role in stabilizing extracellular fluid volume. |
| | HP | haptoglobin | encodes a preproprotein, which subsequently produces haptoglobin, linked to diabetic nephropathy, Crohn's disease, inflammatory disease behavior and reduced incidence of Plasmodium falciparum malaria. |
| cluster 15, steel blue (Pituitary) | PRL | prolactin 2 | encodes the anterior pituitary hormone prolactin. This secreted hormone is a growth regulator for many tissues, including cells of the immune system. |
| | GH1 | growth hormone 1 | expressed in the pituitary, play an important role in growth control, mutations in or deletions of the gene lead to growth hormone deficiency and short stature. |
| | POMC | proopiomelanocortin | synthesized mainly in corticotroph cells of the anterior pituitary, mutations in this gene have been associated with early onset obesity, adrenal insufficiency, and red hair pigmentation. |

7 Supplementary Table 2

Table 5. Cluster Annotations GTEx V6 Brain data (with top gene summaries).

| Cluster | Top Driving Genes | Gene names | Gene Summary |
|-----------------------------|-------------------|---|---|
| cluster 1, royal blue | ATP1A2 | ATPase, Na ⁺ /K ⁺ transporting, alpha 2 polypeptide | responsible for establishing and maintaining the electrochemical gradients of Na and K ions across the plasma membrane, mutations in this gene result in familial basilar or hemiplegic migraines, and in a rare syndrome known as alternating hemiplegia of childhood. |
| | CLU | clusterin | protein encoded by this gene is a secreted chaperone that can under some stress conditions also be found in the cell cytosol, also involved in cell death, tumor progression, and neurodegenerative disorders. |
| | PPP1R1B | protein phosphatase 1 regulatory inhibitor subunit 1B | encodes a bifunctional signal transduction molecule, may serve as a therapeutic target for neurologic and psychiatric disorders. |
| cluster 2, yellow orange | PKD1 | polycystin 1, transient receptor potential channel interacting | functions as a regulator of calcium permeable cation channels and intracellular calcium homeostasis. It is also involved in cell-cell/matrix interactions and may modulate G-protein-coupled signal-transduction pathways. |
| | CBLN3 | cerebellin 3 precursor | contain a cerebellin motif and C-terminal C1q signature domain that mediates trimeric assembly of atypical collagen complexes |
| | CHGB | chromogranin B | encodes a tyrosine-sulfated secretory protein abundant in peptidergic endocrine cells and neurons. This protein may serve as a precursor for regulatory peptides. |
| cluster 3, turquoise | ENC1 | ectodermal-neural cortex 1 | plays a role in the oxidative stress response as a regulator of the transcription factor Nrf2, may play role in malignant transformation. |
| | CALM2 | calmodulin 2 (phosphorylase kinase, delta) | is a calcium binding protein that plays a role in signaling pathways, cell cycle progression and proliferation. |
| | MAP1A | microtubule associated protein 1A | involved in microtubule assembly, which is an essential step in neurogenesis, almost exclusively expressed in the brain. |
| cluster 4, red | MBP | myelin basic protein | protein encoded is a major constituent of the myelin sheath of oligodendrocytes and Schwann cells in the nervous system. |
| | GFAP | glial fibrillary acidic protein | encodes major intermediate filament proteins of mature astrocytes, a marker to distinguish astrocytes during development, mutations in this gene cause Alexander disease, a rare disorder of astrocytes in central nervous system. |
| | TF | transferrin | transport iron from the intestine, reticuloendothelial system, and liver parenchymal cells to all proliferating cells in the body, involved in the removal of certain organic matter and allergens from serum. |

8 Supplementary Table 3

Table 6. Deng et al (2014) Cluster 1 (blue) top GO annotations.

| | go.id | name | significant |
|----|------------|---|---|
| 1 | GO:0007276 | gamete generation | BCL2L10; GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; RGS2; CREB3L4; RNF114; BMP15; PTTG1; TDRD12; WEE2; SPIN1; DAZL |
| 2 | GO:0007292 | female gamete generation | GDF9; BCL2L10; PABPC1L; BMP15; WEE2; DAZL; NOBOX |
| 3 | GO:0048609 | multicellular organismal reproductive process | GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; BCL2L10; BMP15; CREB3L4; TGFB2; RNF114; RGS2; PTTG1; TDRD12; WEE2; SPIN1; DAZL |
| 4 | GO:0032504 | multicellular organism reproduction | GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; BCL2L10; BMP15; CREB3L4; TGFB2; RNF114; RGS2; PTTG1; TDRD12; WEE2; SPIN1; DAZL |
| 5 | GO:0019953 | sexual reproduction | BCL2L10; GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; RGS2; CREB3L4; RNF114; BMP15; PTTG1; TDRD12; WEE2; SPIN1; DAZL |
| 6 | GO:0044702 | single organism reproductive process | GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; BCL2L10; BMP15; CREB3L4; TGFB2; CASP8; RNF114; RGS2; PTTG1; TDRD12; WEE2; SPIN1; DAZL |
| 7 | GO:0048477 | oogenesis | WEE2; GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; DAZL |
| 8 | GO:0044703 | multi-organism reproductive process | BCL2L10; GDF9; NOBOX; PABPC1L; RGS2; CREB3L4; RNF114; BMP15; PTTG1; TDRD12; WEE2; SPIN1; DAZL |
| 9 | GO:0048599 | oocyte development | WEE2; GDF9; PABPC1L; DAZL |
| 10 | GO:0009994 | oocyte differentiation | WEE2; GDF9; PABPC1L; DAZL |
| 11 | GO:0051321 | meiotic cell cycle | H1FOO; WEE2; TDRD12; SPIN1; PTTG1; DAZL |
| 12 | GO:0001556 | oocyte maturation | WEE2; PABPC1L; DAZL |
| 13 | GO:0006306 | DNA methylation | TDRD12; H1FOO; TET3; ZFP57 |
| 14 | GO:0051302 | regulation of cell division | TGFB2; PTTG1; TXNIP; WEE2; CHEK1; DAZL |
| 15 | GO:0060255 | regulation of macromolecule metabolic process | TGFB2; NOBOX; BPGM; UBE2D3; NFYA; CASP8; BMP15; TXNIP; TDRD12; GDF9; BCL2L10 |

Table 7. Deng et al (2014) Cluster 2 (magenta) top GO annotations.

| | go.id | name | significant |
|---|------------|------------------------------------|--|
| 1 | GO:0016604 | nuclear body | YTHDC1; RBM8A; CDK12; PSME4; PPP1R8; HIPK1; TOPORS |
| 2 | GO:0005814 | centriole | SFI1; PLK2; ROCK1; TOPORS |
| 3 | GO:0044450 | microtubule organizing center part | SFI1; PLK2; ROCK1; TOPORS |

Table 8. Deng et al (2014) Cluster 3 (yellow) top GO annotations.

| | go.id | name | significant |
|----|------------|--|--|
| 1 | GO:0044428 | nuclear part | MAD2L2; SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; TOR1B; MIOS; NR1H3; POLR3K |
| 2 | GO:0031981 | nuclear lumen | MAD2L2; SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; POLR1E; MIOS; POLR3K; XPO1 |
| 3 | GO:0070013 | intracellular organelle lumen | MAD2L2; SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; POLR1E; MIOS; POLR3K; XPO1; DNTTIP2; ZBTB10; ZBTB17 |
| 4 | GO:0043233 | organelle lumen | MAD2L2; SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; POLR1E; MIOS; POLR3K; XPO1 |
| 5 | GO:0005730 | nucleolus | XPO1; DNTTIP2; ESF1; WDR43; ZDHHC7; HEATR1; POLR1E; DDX24; POLR3K |
| 6 | GO:0005634 | nucleus | MAD2L2; SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; TOR1B; MIOS; NR1H3; EIF5B; POLR3K |
| 7 | GO:0044446 | intracellular organelle part | MAD2L2; PTDSS2; SMARCC1; KLHL21; TOR1B; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; SLC25A36; ECE2 |
| 8 | GO:0005654 | nucleoplasm | MAD2L2; SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; POLR1E; MIOS; POLR3K; XPO1; ZBTB10; ZBTB17 |
| 9 | GO:0003723 | RNA binding | PPRC1; EIF5B; XPO1; DNTTIP2; WDR43; DDX10; EIF3C; BCLAF1; EBNA1BP2; RARS |
| 10 | GO:0003676 | nucleic acid binding | SMARCC1; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; POLR1E; EIF5B; POLR3K; XPO1; DNTTIP2 |
| 11 | GO:0043231 | intracellular membrane-bounded organelle | MAD2L2; PTDSS2; SMARCC1; TOR1B; PPRC1; SLU7; NFYB; ESF1; ECE2; LMAN1L |
| 12 | GO:0043229 | intracellular organelle | MAD2L2; PTDSS2; SMARCC1; KLHL21; TOR1B; PPRC1; ARRDC1; SLU7; NFYB; ESF1; ECE2 |
| 13 | GO:0005874 | microtubule | WDR43; KLHL21; HAUS6; CENPE; TEKT2; RACGAP1; WDR81; BCL2L11; KIF20B |
| 14 | GO:0044822 | poly(A) RNA binding | WDR43; DNTTIP2; ESF1; NXF1; DDX10; HEATR1; EIF3C |
| 15 | GO:0044424 | intracellular part | MAD2L2; PTDSS2; SMARCC1; KLHL21; TOR1B; PPRC1; SNAPC4; POLR3K; ARRDC1; SLU7; NFYB; ESF1; WDR43; ECE2; LMAN1L |

Table 9. Deng et al (2014) Cluster 4 (green) top GO annotations.

| | go.id | name | significant |
|----|------------|---|---|
| 1 | GO:0005829 | cytosol | PARG; UAP1; PSMB10; TCEB1; RPLP0; EIF5; CNBP; RPS3; PSAT1; AACs; PMM1; EXOSC7; EIF3I; SET; BHMT; BHMT2 |
| 2 | GO:0044444 | cytoplasmic part | PARG; UAP1; PSMB10; TCEB1; HSPA8; SERINC1; EIF5; CNBP; RPS3; PSAT1; GPD2; AACs; GPR137B; STIP1; PMM1; EXOSC7; VPREB3; PEX16 |
| 3 | GO:0055131 | C3HC4-type RING finger domain binding | HSPA8; PINK1; DNAJA1 |
| 4 | GO:1901575 | organic substance catabolic process | PSMB10; TCEB1; RPLP0; RPS3; GPD2; PINK1; EXOSC7; ALLC; BHMT; HSP90AB1; RPL13A; ATG7; CUL5; UBXN1; ZMPSTE24 |
| 5 | GO:0000151 | ubiquitin ligase complex | DNAJA1; RNF7; UBE2C; HSPA8; FBXO15; SUGT1; DCAF4; CUL5; FBXL20 |
| 6 | GO:0072655 | protein localization to mitochondrion | TIMM17A; BNIP3L; ARIH2; PEMT; SFN; PINK1; HSP90AA1; TIMM23 |
| 7 | GO:1901564 | organonitrogen compound metabolic process | PSMB10; RPLP0; SERINC1; EIF5; BHMT2; PINK1; EIF3I; ALLC; BHMT; MRPL22; RPL13A; ATG7; NUDT9; VNN1; CTSA; HK1 |
| 8 | GO:0005737 | cytoplasm | PARG; UAP1; PSMB10; TCEB1; HSPA8; SERINC1; EIF5; CNBP; RPS3; PSAT1; GPD2; AACs; GPR137B; STIP1; PMM1; EXOSC7 |
| 9 | GO:0044265 | cellular macromolecule catabolic process | EXOSC7; SUMO2; BNIP3L; ARIH2; PSMB10; TCEB1; RPLP0; UBXN1; HSP90AB1; RPL13A; RPS3; RNF7; PINK1 |
| 10 | GO:0023026 | MHC class II protein complex binding | HSP90AB1; HSP90AA1; HSPA8 |
| 11 | GO:0051082 | unfolded protein binding | DNAJA1; PTGES3; HSPA8; HSP90AB1; HSP90AA1; NPM1 |
| 12 | GO:0009056 | catabolic process | PSMB10; TCEB1; RPLP0; RPS3; GPD2; PINK1; EXOSC7; ALLC; WDR45; HSP90AB1; RPL13A |
| 13 | GO:0009057 | macromolecule catabolic process | EXOSC7; SUMO2; BNIP3L; ARIH2; PSMB10; TCEB1; RPLP0; AZIN1; UBXN1; HSP90AB1; RPL13A |
| 14 | GO:0044248 | cellular catabolic process | PSMB10; TCEB1; SUMO2; RPS3; GPD2; PINK1; EXOSC7; ALLC; WDR45; HSP90AB1 |
| 15 | GO:0006626 | protein targeting to mitochondrion | TIMM17A; BNIP3L; ARIH2; PEMT; PINK1; HSP90AA1; TIMM23 |

Table 10. Deng et al (2014) Cluster 5 (purple) top GO annotations.

| | go.id | name | significant |
|----|------------|--|---|
| 1 | GO:0044710 | single-organism metabolic process | PCK2; SAT1; EPHX2; NFATC4; CKB; PRDX6; MSH2; EPHA4; PROS1; PDGFRA; PRDX1; UBE2L6; POGLUT1; FABP5; AKAP12; TDGF1; FBP2; SOX2 |
| 2 | GO:0006950 | response to stress | EPHX2; NFATC4; PRDX6; MSH2; EPHA4; PROS1; PDGFRA; PRDX1; UBE2L6; FABP5; TDGF1; SOX2 |
| 3 | GO:0065010 | extracellular membrane-bounded organelle | PCK2; EPHX2; MFGE8; CKB; PRDX6; PROS1; PRDX1; POGLUT1; FABP5; FBP2; TRAP1; PLOD2; DHRS4 |
| 4 | GO:0070062 | extracellular exosome | PCK2; EPHX2; MFGE8; CKB; PRDX6; PROS1; PRDX1; POGLUT1; FABP5; FBP2; TRAP1; PLOD2; DHRS4; MARCKS; DPP4; PRKCI; RAC2; IDH1 |
| 5 | GO:0043230 | extracellular organelle | PCK2; EPHX2; MFGE8; CKB; PRDX6; PROS1; PRDX1; POGLUT1; FABP5; FBP2; TRAP1; PLOD2; DHRS4; MARCKS; DPP4 |
| 6 | GO:1903561 | extracellular vesicle | PCK2; EPHX2; MFGE8; CKB; PRDX6; PROS1; PRDX1; POGLUT1; FABP5; FBP2; TRAP1; PLOD2; DHRS4; MARCKS; DPP4; PRKCI |
| 7 | GO:0042221 | response to chemical | EPHX2; NFATC4; MFGE8; PRDX6; EPHA4; PROS1; PDGFRA; PRDX1; UBE2L6; TDGF1; SOX2 |
| 8 | GO:0031988 | membrane-bounded vesicle | PCK2; EPHX2; MFGE8; CKB; PRDX6; PROS1; PRDX1; POGLUT1; FABP5; FBP2; TRAP1; PLOD2; DHRS4; SPARC |
| 9 | GO:0031982 | vesicle | PCK2; EPHX2; MFGE8; CKB; PRDX6; PROS1; PRDX1; POGLUT1; FABP5; FBP2; TRAP1; PLOD2; DHRS4; SPARC |
| 10 | GO:0001525 | angiogenesis | SAT1; PDGFRA; BMP4; NFATC4; MFGE8; FN1; MEIS1; SPARC; COL4A2; COL4A1; FGF10; TDGF1 |
| 11 | GO:0048514 | blood vessel morphogenesis | SAT1; PDGFRA; BMP4; NFATC4; MFGE8; FN1; ZFP36L1; MEIS1; SPARC; COL4A2; COL4A1; FGF10; TDGF1 |
| 12 | GO:0001944 | vasculature development | SAT1; PDGFRA; BMP4; NFATC4; MFGE8; FN1; ZFP36L1; MEIS1; PDPN; SPARC; COL4A2; COL4A1; FGF10; TDGF1 |
| 13 | GO:0006979 | response to oxidative stress | TAT; PDGFRA; BMP4; ETV5; TRAP1; PRDX6; IDH1; PARP1; AQP8; PRDX1; CRYGD |
| 14 | GO:0009725 | response to hormone | PRKCI; GJA1; PDGFRA; BMP4; MFGE8; TAT; PLOD2; SPP1; IDH1 |
| 15 | GO:0030198 | extracellular matrix organization | PDGFRA; BMP4; JAM2; FN1; PLOD2; SPARC; SPP1; COL4A2; COL4A1; SERPINH1; DPP4 |

Table 11. Deng et al (2014) Cluster 6 (orange) top GO annotations.

| | go.id | name | genes |
|----|------------|--|--|
| 1 | GO:0065010 | extracellular membrane-bounded organelle | MYH10; SLC2A3; GM2A; TSPAN8; ACTG1; SDC4; TINAGL1; CRYAB; MSN; FABP3; PDZK1IP1; PRSS8; S100A11; DAB2; KRT8; LCP1; UGP2 |
| 2 | GO:0070062 | extracellular exosome | MYH10; SLC2A3; GM2A; TSPAN8; ACTG1; SDC4; TINAGL1; CRYAB; MSN; FABP3; PDZK1IP1; PRSS8; S100A11; DAB2; KRT8; LCP1; UGP2 |
| 3 | GO:0043230 | extracellular organelle | MYH10; SLC2A3; GM2A; TSPAN8; ACTG1; SDC4; TINAGL1; CRYAB; MSN; FABP3; PDZK1IP1; PRSS8; S100A11 |
| 4 | GO:1903561 | extracellular vesicle | MYH10; SLC2A3; GM2A; TSPAN8; ACTG1; SDC4; TINAGL1; CRYAB; MSN; FABP3; PDZK1IP1; PRSS8; S100A11; DAB2; KRT8 |
| 5 | GO:0031988 | membrane-bounded vesicle | MYH10; SLC2A3; GM2A; TSPAN8; ACTG1; TMSB4X; SDC4; TINAGL1; CRYAB; MSN; FABP3; PDZK1IP1; PRSS8; S100A11; DAB2 |
| 6 | GO:0031982 | vesicle | MYH10; SLC2A3; GM2A; TSPAN8; ACTG1; TMSB4X; SDC4; TINAGL1; CRYAB; MSN; FABP3; PDZK1IP1; PRSS8; S100A11; DAB2; KRT8 |
| 7 | GO:0008092 | cytoskeletal protein binding | MYH10; TPM4; TMSB4X; CRYAB; MSN; TMSB10; FABP3; NDRG1; CALM1; FMNL2; MYH9; CAP1; TPM1; CDH1 |
| 8 | GO:0015629 | actin cytoskeleton | MYH10; CLIC4; MYH9; MYL12B; WDR1; CNN2; ARPC2; AHNAK; ACTN4; CRYAB; CAP1; TPM1; DSTN; ARPC5; TPM4 |
| 9 | GO:0003779 | actin binding | MYH10; TPM4; WDR1; CNN2; FMNL2; ARPC2; MYH9; CAP1; TPM1 |
| 10 | GO:0048468 | cell development | MYH10; CAPG; ACTG1; WDR1; CNN2; FMNL2; MYH9; ACTN4; SDC4; CAP1; TPM1; DSTN |
| 11 | GO:0030036 | actin cytoskeleton or- ganization | MYH10; CAPG; ACTG1; WDR1; CNN2; FMNL2; MYH9; ACTN4; SDC4; CAP1; TPM1 |
| 12 | GO:0032432 | actin filament bundle | MYH10; TPM4; MYL12B; CNN2; MYH9; CRYAB; TPM1; ACTN4; LCP1 |
| 13 | GO:0005912 | adherens junction | TJP2; MYH9; ACTG1; CNN2; ARPC2; AHNAK; ACTN4; SDC4 |
| 14 | GO:0070161 | anchoring junction | TJP2; MYH9; ACTG1; CNN2; ARPC2; AHNAK; ACTN4; SDC4 |
| 15 | GO:0005925 | focal adhesion | MYH9; ACTG1; CNN2; ARPC2; AHNAK; ACTN4; SDC4; CAP1; ARPC5 |