



Figure 5:

We see that the log-transformed response MALAT1 is approximately normal distribution. 168
 Conversely, the log-transformed response FBLN1 is not inherently better than the un- 169
 transformed response. We can clearly see the heavy influence of zero-inflation in these 170
 variables as is apparent from the dominance of the “zero-bins” in Figure (5). 171

Regardless, we model each outcome under the assumption that: compensating for observa- 172
 tional correlation will sufficiently account for non-normality of the responses. This may not 173
 generally be the case, and additional transformations or modeling methodologies may be needed 174
 to improve model error distributions. However, for the purpose of comparing the previously 175
 mentioned models on subject-correlated single-cell data, we will proceed with this assumption 176
 and verify residual homoscedasticity, normality and independence using fitted vs residual plots 177
 and quantile-quantile plots. 178

Model Descriptions

What is meant by transformed? and is this necessary? don't we just need a variable?

We define our outcome(s) of interest to be one of the following transformed variables as

taken from Arazi, Rao, Berthier, et al. Let a single observation be designated as: R_{hij} . The

Lee, please describe the models in more general terms. No need to have the index h
index $h = \{1, 2\}$ represents the model pairing number ($CD19 \sim MALAT1$ is pairing #1

$CD34 \sim FBLN1$ is pairing #2) $i \in \{5, 6, \dots, 26\}$ represents the subject (name of subject by

number) from which the observation originated, and the index $j = 1, \dots, n_i$ represents the

single-cell observation within subject- i . We note that $n_i \in \{21, 22, 23, \dots, 127\}$ in the context

of the Lupus Data.

We perform the transformations:

$$R_h = \log(Y_h^* + 1)$$

where

$$Y_1^* = MALAT1 - 67 \quad \text{and} \quad Y_2^* = FBLN1$$

and

$$Y_h = Y_h^* - \min(Y_h^*)$$

We also define the predictor attached to R_h as:

$$P_h = \log(X_h + 1) \quad \text{for} \quad h = 1, 2$$

where

$$X_1 = CD19 \quad \text{and} \quad X_2 = CD34$$

We present the theoretical model frameworks here as "Less Than Full Rank" (LTFR) repre-

sentations. The Full-Rank model results presented in the *Results* section to follow are created

by dropping the first level in all factors and using this as the reference level.

Linear Regression

We begin the model framework definitions by describing two Linear Regression models, with Fixed Effect parameters estimated using maximum likelihood optimization. It should be noted that ~~these methods~~ ^{linear regression} make the assumption that observations are independent, ~~and should therefore be used for comparison to modeling methods to come.~~ However, the linear regression models we present here can account for some ~~observational correlation~~ ^{structure} with the use of a subject specific intercept term as we will see in the second model.

Ultimately, all the methods defined in this section assume an identical error structure across all observations of the form:

$$\epsilon_{hij} \sim N(0, \sigma^2 * I_{1110})$$

where we are assuming that σ^2 is a common variance parameter for all subjects and I_{1110} is the 1110 X 1110 identity matrix.

Simple Linear Regression (Model 0)

Using the notation we defined above, we write the first model as:

$$R_{hij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_{hij} + \epsilon_{hij}$$

which is equivalent to:

$$\log(Y_{hij}) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \log(X_{hij}) + \epsilon_{hij}$$

We note that this model does not account for ~~observational correlation~~ ^{any structure in the observations}, and ~~instead~~ ^{estimates} provides an estimation for population-averaged relationships, ~~namely~~:

- What is the estimated average (across all observations, across all subjects) value of R_{hij} when $P_{hij} = 0$ (intercept) 211
- On average (across all observations, across all subjects) what is the average rate of change in R_{hij} per unit increase in P_{hij} (slope) 212 213 214

Fixed-Effect Subject-Specific Intercept (Model 1) 215

Adding a subject-specific intercept term allows us to account for within-subject correlation by uniformly shifting the fitted values specific to a subject. This model may be written as: 216 217

$$R_{hij} = \beta_0 + \beta_{1i}(\text{subject}_i) + \beta_2 P_{hij} + \epsilon_{hij}$$

where we define the term: 218

$$\beta_{1i}(\text{subject}_i) = \begin{cases} \beta_{1i} & \text{if } \text{subject}_i = i \\ 0 & \text{if } \text{subject}_i \neq i \end{cases}$$

This model provide the added estimated parameter $\hat{\beta}_{1i}$ which tells us a uniform estimated average deviation for each subjects' fitted response from the global estimated mean provided by Model 0 (Simple Linear Regression). 219 220 221

Linear Mixed Effects Models 222

The next category of modeling approaches we describe is Linear Mixed Effect Models with Random Effects. Specifically, we describe two distinct Linear Mixed Effect Models that account for subject-correlation in a different manner than the previously discussed Linear Regression models. Linear Mixed Effects Models do not necessarily assume independence of observations. Correlation structures such as AR(1), spatial power, or unstructured can be 223 224 225 226 227

used to estimate parameters determining correlation amongst observations within a subject and between observations (across subjects). Additionally, if we can rationally assume that the responses shown in Figure 3 have a multivariate normal distribution, the model parameters can be easily estimated using Maximum Likelihood Estimation techniques [9].

Linear Mixed Effects Model with Random Intercept (Model 2)

Model 1 (Linear Regression with Fixed Effect Intercept) accounts for subject correlation by assuming that observations within a subject are uniformly influenced by the nested nature of the sampling method (i.e. observations are sampled so that they are identically correlated within each subject). However, this assumption may not always be reasonable, as we could imagine that responses within each subject also exhibit random variation that is related to nested sampling methods.

A Linear Mixed Effects Model that includes a Random Intercept accounts for subject-level observational correlation by inducing individual-specific levels of random variation into all observations specific to each subject. Such a model may be written as:

$$R_{hij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_{hij} + b_{0i}(\text{subject}_i) + \epsilon_{hij}$$

where

$$b_{0i} \sim N(0, \sigma_b^2) \quad \text{for } i \in \{5, 6, \dots, 26\}$$

$$\epsilon_{hij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2 I_{n_i})$$

and we assume that b_{0i} and ϵ_{hij} are independent.

We note that both random-components can be assumed to have a mean of zero as non-zero components are inherently deterministic and can be integrated into intercept terms.

Linear Mixed Effect Model with Random Slope (Model 3)

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A further accounting for the effects of subject-level observational clustering may be made by extrapolating on Model 2 (Linear Mixed Effects Model with Random Intercept) with the addition of a random intercept.

The incorporation of a Fixed Effect subject-specific slope would account for subject-level observational correlation by assuming that the relationship between predictor and response are uniformly influenced across observations. Implied that, in addition to the average response deviation from the estimated average response, there is also an average uniform shift in how each subjects' response changes with respect to a unit shift in the predictor. Again, this assumption may not be reasonable, as we may expect variation in how responses within a subject deviate from the estimated average change in response over the predictor space.

We will therefore incorporate a Random Slope into the format of the Random Intercept model (Model 2) to attempt to reconcile these effects. This will allow for us to account for observational correlation due to subject-level sampling as sourced from:

- subject-specific random variation associated with measurement instability
- predictor-dependent, subject-specific random variation associated with measurement instability

We write this model as:

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$$R_{hij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_{hij} + b_{0i}(\text{subject}_i) + [b_{1i}(\text{subject}_i) P_{hij}] + \epsilon_{hij}$$

where

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$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} b_{0i} \\ b_{1i} \end{bmatrix} \sim N(0, \mathbf{G})$$

$$G = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_b^2 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_b^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

are these really the same?

$$\epsilon_{hij} \sim N(0, \sigma_\epsilon^2 \mathbf{I}_{n_i})$$

Generalized Estimating Equations (Model 4)

Our final method for modeling scRNA-seq expression profiles is Generalized Estimating Equations (GEE). Dissimilar to each of the methods previously described, GEE regression estimates are obtained using methodologies that allow for non-continuous responses. GEE also extrapolates on the techniques used for modeling non-normal responses by incorporating the effects of observational correlation.

GEE estimates are computed by solving the estimating equation(s):

$$0 = U(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^{15} \{ \mathbf{D}_{hi}^T \mathbf{V}_{hi}^{-1} (\mathbf{y}_{hi} - \mu_{hi}) \} \quad (1)$$

where:

$$\mu_{hi} = \mu_{hi}(\beta) = E[\mathbf{Y}_{hi}] = \eta_{hi}$$

represents the relationship between the expected value of the response μ_i (not necessarily assumed to be a distribution) and the linear predictor η_i ,

★ DISCUSS HOW TO INTERPRET LME (conditional) & GEE (marginal)

$$\mathbf{D}_{hi} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mu_{hi1}}{\beta_1} & \frac{\partial \mu_{hi1}}{\beta_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial \mu_{hi1}}{\beta_p} \\ \frac{\partial \mu_{hi2}}{\beta_1} & \frac{\partial \mu_{hi2}}{\beta_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial \mu_{hi2}}{\beta_p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \mu_{hin_i}}{\beta_1} & \frac{\partial \mu_{hin_i}}{\beta_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial \mu_{hin_i}}{\beta_p} \end{bmatrix}$$

is the first derivative matrix, and

$$\mathbf{V}_{hi} = \mathbf{A}_{hi}^{\frac{1}{2}} \text{Corr}(\mathbf{Y}_{hi}) \mathbf{A}_{hi}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{hi} = \text{diag} \{ \phi_j(t_{ij}) \nu(\mu_{hij}) \}_{n_i}$$

We note that $\phi_j(t_{ij})$ and $\nu(\mu_{hij})$ are hyperparameters defined so that we may know the variance as a function of the mean and a scale parameter, i.e:

$$\text{Var}(Y_{hij}) = \phi_j(t_{ij}) \nu(\mu_{hij})$$

The GEE algorithm is iterative and used the following steps to converge at an estimate:

1. Generalized Linear Modeling methods employing Maximum Likelihood Estimation are used to obtain initial estimates for β
2. Estimates for β used to compute hyper-parameters
3. New estimates for hyper-parameters and working covariance matrix (\mathbf{V}_{hi}) used to obtain new estimates for β by solving (1)
4. Repeat Steps 2 & 3 until algorithm converges

The GEE algorithm has a quality which makes it very appealing for many applications with observational clustering. Specifically, the algorithm is robust to misspecification of the observational correlation structure. That is, the estimates $\hat{\beta}_{GEE}$ are consistent with β irrespective of the estimates for within-subject correlation.

which term
is the
correlation
structure?

define all
terms

to

GEE

It is not
clear to me
what you mean
here

which implies we ~~will be~~ assuming the general modeling structure:

$$E[Y_{hij}] = \mu_{hij} = \eta_{hij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_{hij}$$

we will assume a variance function of the form:

$$Var(Y_{hij}) = \phi$$

and we ~~will be~~ using a working covariance matrix structure for repeated measures that corresponds to the assumption of independence of observations within a subject.

$$[Corr(Y_{hij}, Y_{hik})]_{jk} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } j = k \\ 0 & \text{if } j \neq k \end{cases}$$

$$\text{for } j, k \in \{1, \dots, n_i\}$$

Results

Table 8 and table 9 display parameter value estimates, standard errors, test statistics, and p-values for the main-effect slope term estimated by all five modeling approaches:

The GEE algorithm is also very stable, in-part due to the fact that the effect ~~(s)~~ that it estimates are population-averaged. Each of the previous methods (Model 0 withstanding) ~~had~~ subject-specific interpretations, but the GEE algorithm provides marginal parameter estimates. These values do not represent any specific subject, but rather the population-average. According to Fitzmaurice, Laird, and Ware [9] we also need to ensure that any responses modeled in the GEE process are stationary, i.e:

$$E[Y_{hij}|\mathbf{X}_{hi}] = E[Y_{hij}|X_{hi1}, \dots, X_{hin_i}] = E[Y_{hij}|X_{hij}]$$

The scRNA-seq data has been assumed to be independent within-subject, therefore we have:

$$E[Y_{hij}|X_{hij}] = E[Y_{hij}|X_{hij'}]$$

$$\forall j \in \{1, \dots, n_i\} \quad j \neq j'$$

as needed.

The three-part specification of the GEE framework includes:

1. The link function and linear predictor
2. Variance function
3. A working covariance matrix

The link function and linear predictor are chosen so that the resulting model estimates will be comparable to preceeding estimates for intercept and slope. Therefore, we will use the identity link function:

$$g(x) = x$$

in conjunction with the linear predictor:

$$g(\mu_{hij}) = \eta_{hij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 P_{hij}$$