# GTestimate: improving relative gene expression estimation in scRNA-seq using the Good-Turing estimator

Martin Fahrenberger <sup>1</sup>01,2,\*, Christopher Esk <sup>1</sup>03,4, Jürgen A. Knoblich <sup>1</sup>04,5, and Arndt von Haeseler

- <sup>1</sup>Center for Integrative Bioinformatics Vienna (CIBIV), Max Perutz Labs, University of Vienna and Medical University of Vienna, Vienna BioCenter (VBC), 1030 Vienna, Austria
- <sup>2</sup>Vienna Biocenter PhD Program, a Doctoral School of the University of Vienna and the Medical University of Vienna, 1030 Vienna, Austria
- <sup>3</sup>Institute of Molecular Biology, University of Innsbruck, 6020 Innsbruck, Austria
- <sup>4</sup>Institute of Molecular Biotechnology of the Austrian Academy of Science (IMBA), Vienna BioCenter (VBC), 1030 Vienna, Austria
- <sup>5</sup>Department of Neurology, Medical University of Vienna, 1090 Vienna, Austria
- <sup>6</sup>Ludwig Boltzmann Institute for Network Medicine, University of Vienna, 1090 Vienna, Austria
- \*Correspondence address. Martin Fahrenberger, Center for Integrative Bioinformatics Vienna (CIBIV), Max Perutz Labs, Dr. Bohr Gasse 9, 1030 Vienna, Austria. E-mail: martin.fahrenberger@gmail.com

#### **Abstract**

Background: Single-cell RNA-seq suffers from unwanted technical variation between cells, caused by its complex experiments and shallow sequencing depths. Many conventional normalization methods try to remove this variation by calculating the relative gene expression per cell. However, their choice of the maximum likelihood estimator is not ideal for this application.

Results: We present GTestimate, a new normalization method based on the Good-Turing estimator, which improves upon conventional normalization methods by accounting for unobserved genes. To validate GTestimate, we developed a novel cell-targeted PCR amplification approach (cta-seq), which enables ultra-deep sequencing of single cells. Based on these data, we show that the Good-Turing estimator improves relative gene expression estimation and cell-cell distance estimation. Finally, we use GTestimate's compatibility with Seurat workflows to explore 4 example datasets and show how it can improve downstream results.

**Conclusion:** By choosing a more suitable estimator for the relative gene expression per cell, we were able to improve scRNA-seq normalization, with potentially large implications for downstream results. *GTestimate* is available as an easy-to-use R-package and compatible with a variety of workflows, which should enable widespread adoption.

Keywords: scRNA-seq, normalization, gene expression, Good-Turing estimator, deep sequencing, targeted amplification

#### Introduction

Single-cell RNA-seq (scRNA-seq) provides new insights into cell diversity, differentiation, and disease [1–3]. These insights are enabled by affordable high-throughput methods for the parallel sequencing of thousands of cells [4, 5]. However, they require many experimental steps, whose efficiency differs between cells, leading to high variability in the number of mRNAs captured. Additionally, sequencing depths as low as 20,000 reads per cell [6] and the nature of parallel sequencing introduce stochastic variation [5, 7, 8]. After accounting for PCR duplicates among reads, a median of ~5,000 UMIs/cell (number of sequenced mRNA molecules per cell) with a range of ~500 to 20,000 UMIs/cell is typical for a high-quality sample (Fig. 1A). This high technical variation between cells results in a low signal-to-noise ratio, which makes data analysis challenging.

During data processing (Fig. 1B), global-scaling normalization methods [8] such as Seurat's NormalizeData [9], scran's computeSumFactors [10, 11], or scanpy's normalize\_total [12] account for the variation in UMIs/cell by calculating a single scaling factor (or size factor) per cell. Despite its simplicity, this ap-

proach has been shown to outperform more complex methods

Global-scaling normalization inherently requires the calculation of the relative gene expression levels per cell. Although not typically discussed as such, the calculation used by these methods is a maximum likelihood (ML) estimation [14] of the relative gene expression frequency per cell.

$$\widehat{f}_g^{ML} = \frac{c_g}{\sum_i c_i} \tag{ML}$$

where c denotes the transcriptomic profile of the cell with a count  $c_q$  for each gene g.

However, at ~5,000 UMIs/cell, only ~2.5% of the ~200,000 mRNA transcripts in a typical mammalian cell [15] are sequenced and many expressed genes remain unobserved, as evident by the low genes/cell observed in scRNA-seq experiments (Supplementary Fig. S1). ML then estimates the relative expression of unobserved genes as zero. This inherently leads to overestimation of the relative expression for observed genes, since the sum of all relative frequencies equals 1 ( $\sum_g \widehat{f}_g^{ML} = 1$ ).

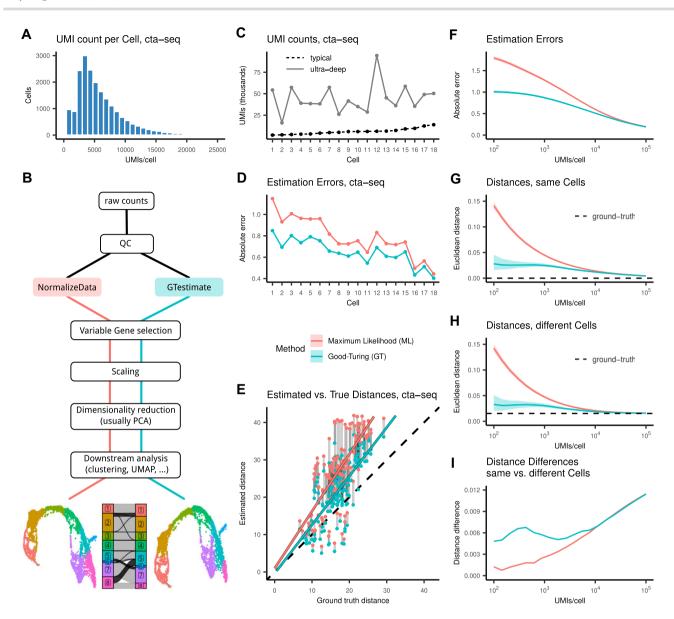


Figure 1: (A) Histogram of UMIs/cell for 17,653 cells in the cta-seq experiment before amplification. (B) Schema of a scRNA-seq analysis showing where GTestimate integrates into the workflow. (C) UMIs/cell for the 18 selected cells in the cta-seq experiment, before (typical) and after (ultra-deep) amplification. Cells ordered based on UMIs/cell in the typical cta-seq data. (D) Absolute error of the relative gene expression estimation in the cta-seq experiment. (E) Euclidean cell–cell distances in PCA space in the cta-seq experiment. (F) Average absolute estimation error of the relative gene expression of a cell when subsampled to different UMIs/cell. (G, H) Mean Euclidean cell–cell distance in relative gene expression space, between 2 independent random samples of the same cell (G) between independent random samples of 2 different cells (H). (I) Difference between the mean cell–cell distances in (G) and (H). Colored ribbons in (F), (G), and (H) represent the 5% – 95% quantile range.

To reduce this overestimation, we propose a Simple Good–Turing (GT) estimator [16, 17].

$$\widehat{f}_{g}^{GT} = \begin{cases} \frac{(c_{g}+1)}{\sum_{i} c_{i}} \cdot \frac{S(N_{c_{g}+1})}{S(N_{c_{g}})}, & \text{for } c_{g} > 0\\ 0, & \text{for } c_{g} = 0 \end{cases}$$
(GT)

where  $N_{c_g}$  denotes the number of genes with count  $c_g$  in the cell, and S() is a smoothing function following Gale and Sampson [17].

GT adjusts the relative expression estimates of observed genes, particularly those with low counts, based on the frequency of each count value in the cell. This even enables an estimate for the relative expression of unobserved genes (for further details, see Supplementary Materials 1.1).

In this study, we first compare the performance of GT and ML on novel ultra-deep sequencing data and then show how GT im-

proves downstream results, by integrating it into standard scRNA-seq analysis workflows. To achieve this, we developed GTestimate, a new scRNA-seq normalization method centered on GT. GTestimate is an easy-to-use R-package designed to seamlessly replace Seurat's NormalizeData.

#### **Results**

## ultra-deep sequencing of single cells

Comparison between GT and ML requires ground-truth transcriptomic profiles of single cells. However, current simulation software cannot adequately emulate the complexity of scRNA-seq data, and the choice of simulator may affect benchmarking results [18]. We therefore designed a cell-targeted PCR amplification strategy

(cta-seq), which enabled us to sequence a small set of selected cells, from a typical sequencing run, a second time at an ultra-deep sequencing depth. This ultra-deep sequencing data contain an average of 23 million reads (44,511 UMIs, 7,403 genes) per cell, a stark contrast to the average 16,965 reads (6,048 UMIs, 2,246 genes) for the same cells in the typical data (Supplementary Fig. S2). This represents a ~7.4-fold increase in UMIs/cell (Fig. 1C) and a ~3.3-fold increase in genes/cell (Supplementary Fig. S3). We then used the relative gene expression levels of these ultra-deep profiles as the ground truth for these cells.

#### Performance of GT and ML

Based on the cta-seq data, we then evaluated GT and ML. When we applied GT and ML to the typical profiles and compared the results to the ground truth, GT consistently showed a lower estimation error across all 18 cells, by  $\sim$ 17% on average (Fig. 1D).

Relative gene expression profiles are the basis of most scRNAseq analysis (Fig. 1B), such as the calculation of cell-cell distances in principal component analysis (PCA) space (often used as a measure for the similarity between 2 cells). We therefore also calculated cell-cell distances between the typical profiles, once based on GT and once based on ML, and compared the results to the cellcell distances between the ultra-deep profiles. We observed a 36% reduction of the distance estimation error when using GT instead of ML (Fig. 1E, Supplementary Table S1).

Since UMIs/cell vary drastically (Fig. 1A), we further assessed the performance of GT and ML at different UMIs/cell. We applied GT and ML to random subsamples of the cell with the highest UMIs/cell in the ultra-deep cta-seq data (cell 12, at 94,440 UMIs) and compared the estimates to the ground-truth expression profile of this cell. Similar to before (Fig. 1D), the estimation error for both GT and ML decreased with increasing UMIs/cell, and GT consistently showed a lower error than ML, especially at low UMIs/cell (Fig. 1F).

Next, we assessed the impact of UMIs/cell on cell-cell distances. We first compared the mean distance between 2 random samples of the same cell (cell 12), both sampled to the same UMIs/cell. This distance was calculated in relative gene expression space and should approach zero for high UMIs/cell. However, ML led to grossly overestimated distances at small UMIs/cell (Fig. 1G). The estimated distance after ML additionally showed strong correlation to the UMIs/cell, which is problematic as we assume that most of the observed variation in UMIs/cell is technical noise. In contrast, GT did not show correlation to the UMIs/cell and demonstrated lower distance estimation errors overall.

We then examined the distances between 2 distinct cells by also drawing random samples from the cell with the second highest UMIs/cell in the ultra-deep cta-seq data (cell 15, at 58,589 UMIs), which is of a different cell type. We calculated the distances between the sampled profiles of cell 12 and cell 15 at varying UMIs/cell. We again saw large overestimation of the distances when using ML, while using GT strongly reduced this error. For high UMIs/cell, the estimated distances converged to the true distance of 0.015 (Fig. 1H).

When based on ML, the estimated distances between identical cells (Fig. 1G) and distinct cells (Fig. 1H) were almost the same for  $\,$ low UMIs/cell. This makes it very difficult to distinguish between cell types. However, when we used GT as the basis for these distances, we saw a much clearer separation between identical cells and cells of different cell types, for cells with < 10,000 UMIs/cell (Fig. 1I).

#### GTestimate's impact on downstream results

After showing GT's advantages for relative gene expression estimation and cell-cell distance estimation, we examined how our GT-based normalization method GTestimate impacts downstream results. The difference between GTestimate and other global-scaling normalization methods is only in the estimator used; all other settings can be adjusted to be equivalent to scran's computeSum-Factors or scanpy's normalize\_total, for example. At default settings, GTestimate behaves identically to NormalizeData, including the same log-transformation. We therefore used NormalizeData, as a representative of ML-based global-scaling normalizations, for all following comparisons. However, we would expect similar results when comparing to other global-scaling normalization methods.

Direct comparison of normalized gene expression values across different normalization methods (e.g., residual-based methods such as SCTransform) is often difficult due to varying scales and different data transformations. We therefore focus our initial comparison (Fig. 2) on NormalizeData, representing globalscaling normalization methods. This choice aligns with recent findings indicating that global-scaling methods (followed by a log-transformation with pseudo-count and PCA) typically match or outperform more complex approaches [13]. However, we also provide a downstream clustering-based comparison, including SCTransform.

We first assessed GTestimate's impact on cell-type clustering by reanalyzing the pbmc3k dataset of peripheral blood mononuclear cells [19]. Here, normalization with GTestimate instead of NormalizeData resulted in 4.6% of cells being assigned to a different cluster (Fig. 2A), mostly among the naive CD4 T cells, memory CD4 T cells, and CD8 T cells.

We additionally analyzed a developing pancreas dataset [20], characterized by more gradual cell-type transitions compared to the pbmc3k dataset. After normalization with GTestimate instead of NormalizeData, 14.6% of cells were assigned to a different cluster (Fig. 2C, D).

While the correct classification of cells in both of these datasets remains unknown, our results in Fig. 1 suggest that GTestimate provides a better basis for this classification.

To examine the impact of GTestimate on the expression estimates of individual genes, we considered the log-normalized expression of cell-type specific marker genes in the pbmc3k dataset. As an example, we used NKG7, a highly specific NK-cell and CD8+ T-cell marker [21]. When using GTestimate instead of Normalize-Data, the log-normalized expression of NKG7 remained constant in NK cells and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells but was reduced in all other cell types (Fig. 2B). GTestimate therefore resulted in clearer separation of NK cells and CD8<sup>+</sup> T cells from other cell types. We observed this for nearly all marker genes described in Seurat's pbmc3k tutorial (Supplementary Fig. S4). These differences may explain some of the observed changes in clustering.

We also applied GTestimate to the spotwise normalization of a Spatial Transcriptomics dataset of the mouse brain [22]. In this dataset, normalization with GTestimate and NormalizeData resulted in 17 and 19 clusters, respectively (Supplementary Figs. S5, S6, S7); we therefore refrained from any cluster-based comparisons of GTestimate and NormalizeData. However, the spatial coordinates enabled examination of area-specific marker genes, independent of the clustering. As an example, we considered the log-normalized expression of the choroid plexus marker gene Ttr (Fig. 2E). When using GTestimate, we saw a reduction of the unspecific expression of Ttr for spots outside the choroid plexus. Here, GTestimate showed up to 50% reduction of the log-normalized

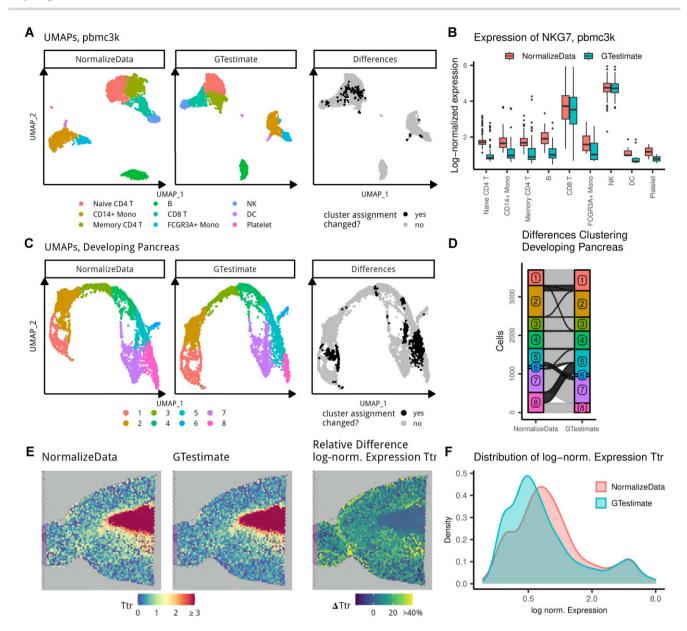


Figure 2: pbmc3k: (A) UMAPs based on NormalizeData and GTestimate, and UMAP highlighting differences in cluster assignment. (B) Boxplot showing log-normalized expression of NKG7 per cell type (zeroes not shown). Developing Pancreas: (C) UMAPs based on NormalizeData and GTestimate, and UMAP highlighting differences in cluster assignment. (D) Sankey diagram showing the differences in cluster assignment based on NormalizeData and GTestimate. Spatial Transcriptomics: (E) log-normalized gene expression of Ttr based on NormalizeData and GTestimate as well as percent difference in log-normalized expression of Ttr between NormalizeData and GTestimate. (F) Density plot showing the distribution of log-normalized gene expression values of Ttr for NormalizeData and GTestimate.

expression, compared to <code>NormalizeData</code>, while expression estimates inside the choroid plexus remained constant (Fig. 2E). This resulted in clearer separation of the choroid plexus spots from the surrounding tissue, as shown by the distribution of expression values of <code>Ttr</code> (Fig. 2F).

When we additionally considered the UMIs/spot (Supplementary Fig. S8), we saw a negative correlation between the change in log-normalized expression of Ttr and UMIs/spot. This supports previous observations that NormalizeData overestimates the expression of Ttr in areas with low UMIs/spot. In contrast, GTestimate reduces this overestimation and improves the signal-to-noise ratio.

The datasets shown in Figs. 2A, C are widely used examples that highlight different aspects of scRNA-seq analysis. However, since these datasets lack ground-truth cell-type annotations, we cannot

conclusively evaluate clustering accuracy based on them alone. Although the clear differences observed when using GTestimate instead of NormalizeData, together with our earlier results (Fig. 1), suggest improved relative gene-expression estimation with GT, this does not necessarily translate to better clustering performance. Direct benchmarking of clustering performance requires annotated data.

To address this, we analyzed a recently published PBMC scRNA-seq dataset from Fu et al. [23], which includes experimentally annotated cell types obtained via antibody-coated magnetic beads, providing a robust benchmark for clustering performance. We performed standard scRNA-seq analysis on this dataset, normalizing once with GTestimate, once with NormalizeData, and once with SCTransform, followed by unsupervised clustering.

Here we also included SCTransform, as clustering is a downstream analysis step where differences in scaling and transformations become intrinsic properties of each normalization method. Consequently, the effects of these differences should be interpreted as advantages or disadvantages inherent to each approach.

We assessed clustering performance by calculating the Adjusted Rand Index (ARI) between the unsupervised clustering results and the provided cell-type annotations. The ARI ranges from 0 to 1, with 0 indicating no agreement and 1 indicating perfect agreement between 2 clusterings. Because clustering outcomes strongly depend on the selected resolution parameter, we evaluated a broad range of resolutions from 0.1 to 1.5 (Supplementary

Normalization with GTestimate produced higher ARI scores than NormalizeData at 14 of the 15 tested resolutions and outperformed SCTransform at 10 resolutions. Importantly, GTestimate also yielded the highest overall ARI (0.874), compared to 0.768 for NormalizeData and 0.822 for SCTransform. This superior maximum ARI is particularly relevant, as in practice, the clustering resolution is routinely adjusted to optimize results. By this criterion, normalization with GTestimate provides the best clustering accuracy for this dataset.

## **Discussion**

In summary, the estimation of relative gene expression is a central part of scRNA-seq data analysis, which has not received the same attention as other steps. We have shown that replacing the standard ML with GT improves relative gene expression estimation, without requiring expensive computations. By improving the signal-to-noise ratio at this basic level, our new normalization method GTestimate can have large impact on downstream

In the validation, we avoided potential issues with simulated data by employing a novel cell-targeted PCR amplification strategy to sequence the same cells at 2 vastly different UMIs/cell. This strategy may also be useful in other areas, such as the study of rare cell types. Additionally, the resulting dataset may serve as a benchmark for other methods.

GTestimate is available as an open-source R-package (https: //www.github.com/Martin-Fahrenberger/GTestimate) and works with all common scRNA-seq data formats. While GTestimate's default behavior is designed to seamlessly replace NormalizeData, it is also compatible with a wide variety of other workflows.

#### **Materials and Methods**

## Implementation of GTestimate

The user-facing section of our GTestimate package was developed in R and handles input and output in the various supported data formats. The core implementation of the Simple Good-Turing estimator is written in C++ and is heavily based on Aaron Lun's implementation for the edgeR R-package [24]. This core implementation includes the linear smoothing, which is necessary due to the sparsity of the frequencies of frequencies vector (i.e., the frequency of the count values). It further includes a rescaling step, which ensures that the estimated relative expression frequencies of all observed genes, plus the sum of probabilities of all unobserved genes (Supplementary Materials 1.1), add up to exactly 1 [17].

# cta-seq experiment

In the cta-seq experiment, we aimed to sequence a selected set of cells from a typical scRNA-seq library again at an ultra-deep sequencing depth. However, due to sequencing saturation, this quickly becomes prohibitively expensive. We therefore designed a PCR-based cell-targeted amplification strategy (cta-seq) to selectively amplify all transcripts from a small set of cells, through the use of primers specific to their cell barcode. This is similar to the TAP-seq protocol [25], which uses gene-specific primers to amplify all transcripts of certain genes.

#### Sequencing cta-seq, typical

To ensure high-quality input material, we used leftover cDNA from a previously sequenced sample [26], which had shown high UMIs/cell and genes/cell. The sample was taken out of  $-20^{\circ}$ C storage and prepared for Illumina sequencing at the Vienna Biocenter Next Generation Sequencing facility using the 10X Dual Index Kit TT. We then split the resulting sequencing library into 2 aliquots and stored the second half again at  $-20^{\circ}$ C. The first half was sequenced on a Illumina NovaSeq S4 in paired-end mode with a 2  $\times$ 150-bp read length and 400 million reads.

# Sequencing cta-seq, ultra-deep

Based on the results from the typical sequencing run, we selected 18 cells of interest for the cta-seq experiment (see below). For these 18 cells, we designed PCR primers specific to their cell barcodes. We used the second aliquot of the previously prepared sequencing library and split it further into 18 individual reactions, one for each targeted cell. We then performed 3 rounds of PCR amplification with the respective primers using Amplitag Gold 360 MM (ThermoFisher, cat.: 4398886) supplemented with Eva-Green dye (Biotium, cat.: 31000). We used the following programs in a total volume of 50  $\mu$ L. PCR1: 1. 95°C, 10 min; 2. 62°C, 30 s; 3. 72°C, 2 min; 4. Return to 2, ×2; 5. 95°C, 25 s; 6. 62°C, 30 s; 7. 72°C, 2 min, fluorescence measurement; 8. 72°C, 15 s; 9. Return to 5, ×16. PCR2: 1. 95°C, 10 min; 2. 62°C, 30 s; 3. 72°C, 2 min; 4. Return to 2, ×2; 5. 95°C, 25 s; 6. 62°C, 30 s; 7. 72°C, 2 min, fluorescence measurement; 8. 72°C, 15 s; 9. Return to 5, ×16. PCR3: 1. 95°C, 10 min; 2. 67°C, 30 s; 3. 72°C, 2 min; 4. Return to 2, ×2; 5. 95°C, 25 s; 6. 67°C, 30 s; 7. 72°C, 2 min, fluorescence measurement; 8. 72°C, 15 s; 9. Return to 5, ×8. Reactions were stopped in step 8 according to fluorescent measurements in log phase. Reaction input in PCRs 2 and 3 were 0.5  $\mu$ L of the previous reaction. Resulting reactions were purified and pooled for Illumina sequencing on a NovaSeq S4 in paired-end mode with a  $2 \times 150$ -bp read length and 400 million reads. The primer sequences used can be found in Supplementary Table S2, and PCR1 primers were designed with varying lengths to achieve similar melting temperatures.

#### Data analysis

All data analysis was performed in R (v4.3.1) using Seurat (v5.0.0) functions at default settings unless stated otherwise.

#### Data analysis, cta-seq typical depth

We first processed the typical depth sequencing data using Cell-Ranger (v7.1.0), which resulted in 20,214 cells. During cell quality control (QC), we then removed all cells expressing  $\leq 1,000$  or  $\geq$  5,000 genes, as well as cells with  $\geq$  8% mitochondrial reads, with 17,653 cells remaining. We then normalized with Seurat's NormalizeData, selected the top 2,000 most variable genes, and performed genewise z-score scaling. Next we applied PCA and performed unsupervised clustering of cells using the Louvain

algorithm [27] (resolution = 0.1), based on the first 50 principal components (PCs). This resulted in 4 cell-type clusters, and the smallest cluster (with only 504 cells) was excluded from the subsequent analysis.

From the remaining 17,149 cells, we selected 18 cells for targeted amplification, 6 cells from each of the 3 remaining clusters. To select a diverse set of cells from each cluster, we used the following:

- 1. We identified the 2 nearest neighbors for each cell (in PCA space).
- 2. We excluded cells for which at least 1 nearest neighbor belonged to a different cluster.
- 3. For the remaining 16,295 cells, we computed the #UMI rank, from the number of observed UMIs per cell (ties were broken randomly).
- 4. Similarly, we computed the #UMI #Genes rank based on the ratio of the number of observed UMIs and the number of observed genes in the cell (ties were broken randomly).
- 5. Subsequently, we calculated the diversity of each cell and its neighbors as the area of the induced triangle of the cell and its neighbors in a #UMI rank  $\times$  #UMI rank plot. The 6 cells from the 2 most diverse neighborhoods (i.e., largest triangle area) were selected for amplification.

These steps were designed to cover a diverse set of cells for which the various experimental steps had varying efficiencies. The selection of triplets from the same neighborhoods provided groups of cells with similar gene expression patterns, while the number of UMIs and the number of observed genes were used as proxies for the mRNA capture efficiencies and the health of the isolated cells.

#### Data analysis, cta-seq ultra-deep

The sequencing data from the *ultra-deep* sequencing run were processed using CellRanger (v7.1.0).

However, due to the high number of PCR cycles during amplification and the resulting high number of reads for the 18 selected cells, CellRanger's UMI correction approach was no longer sufficient. Manual inspection of the reads showed that errors in the UMI sequences had inflated the number of unique reads.

This was further exacerbated by a faulty implementation of the UMI correction approach in the CellRanger software by 10X Genomics. CellRanger erroneously corrects UMIs containing sequencing errors toward other UMIs that also contain sequencing errors. For example, if we have 3 UMIs—AAAA with 10 reads, AAAT with 2 reads, and AATT with 1 read—AATT would be corrected toward AAAT (Hamming Distance 1) and stay as AAAT, even though the original 2 AAAT reads would be corrected to AAAA in the same step. We reported this issue to 10X Genomics on 13 July 2023, and 10X Genomics acknowledged the issue on 14 July 2023. The issue remains unresolved in CellRanger 7.2.0 (released on 10 November 2023).

To circumvent these issues, we extracted the relevant information for each read (count, ensemble gene ID, cell barcode, uncorrected UMI, and CellRanger-corrected UMI) from the possorted\_genome\_bam.bam, as provided by CellRanger, and replicated CellRanger's read-counting workflow in R. As a sanity check, we first used the CellRanger-corrected UMIs and achieved the exact same count matrix as CellRanger. We then used the raw UMIs instead of the CellRanger-corrected UMIs, implemented the UMI tools' directional UMI correction approach [28] in R, and applied it to correct the UMIs for the 18 selected cells, and we then counted

again. The resulting count matrix showed differences for 28% of the nonzero entries when compared to the CellRanger results. We used these improved counts for the *ultra-deep* profiles in all further analysis.

# Comparison of GT and ML using cta-seq

To evaluate the performance of GT and ML based on the cta-seq dataset, we estimated the relative gene expression for the 18 selected cells by applying both estimators to the *typical* transcriptomic profiles.

The relative gene expression for the ground-truth *ultra-deep* profiles was estimated with ML. We chose ML to be conservative regarding the performance of GT and since the overestimation due to unobserved genes should be small for the *ultra-deep* profiles Supplementary Fig. S10.

#### Relative gene expression estimation

We calculated the absolute estimation error for the relative gene expression of the 18 cells by comparing the estimation results of GT and ML based on the typical transcriptomic profiles to the ground-truth relative gene expression of the *ultra-deep* profiles. We consider the relative gene expression estimation error of a cell to be the sum of the individual relative gene expression estimation errors in the cell.

#### Cell-cell distances

The pairwise Euclidean distances between the 18 cells were calculated in PCA space (as is common for cell-cell distances in scRNA-seq). However, to keep the necessary projections similar to a regular scRNA-seq analysis, this space could not simply be constructed based only on the 18 selected cells.

Instead, we calculated the projections based on 17,653 cells in the typical sequencing run. After normalization, there were 3 preprocessing steps that all depended on the context of a full dataset: variable gene selection, genewise z-score scaling, and PCA.

To keep these steps identical for both the GT and ML profiles of the typical sequenced cells, as well as the ultra-deep profiles, we performed them using customized functions. We used the same list of variable genes (calculated based on all 17,653 cells) for the analysis of all profiles. We then scaled the genes in all profiles using the mean and standard deviation of genes calculated based on the full 17,653 cells. Finally, we projected all profiles into the same 50 dimensional PCA space calculated from the full 17,653 cells.

In this PCA space, we calculated the pairwise distances between the ML profiles, between the GT profiles, and between the ground-truth *ultra-deep* profiles. We then compared the resulting nonzero distances based on GT and ML to the ground-truth *ultra-deep* distances.

#### Comparison of GT and ML at different UMIs/cell

When analyzing the impact of UMIs/cell on the estimation performance, we used the cell with the highest number of UMIs after amplification (cell 12, cell barcode TCTCTGGGTGTGCTTA) and the cell with the second highest number of UMIs after amplification (cell 15, cell barcode GGCTTTCGTGTGTCGC).

We generated 1,000 randomly sampled profiles at each UMI/cell level by drawing genes from the ultra-deep count vector, weighted by count and with replacement. The 20 UMI/cell levels at which we sampled were chosen equidistant in log<sub>10</sub>-space from 100 to 100,000 (i.e., 100, 143, 206, 297, 428, 615, 885, 1,274, 1,832, 2,636,

3,792, 5,455, 7,847, 11,288, 16,237, 23,357, 33,598, 48,329, 69,519, 100,000 UMIs/cell). We then applied GT and ML, respectively, to these sampled profiles to estimate their relative gene expression.

## Relative gene expression estimation

To assess the relative gene expression estimation performance of GT and ML, we compared their estimates for each sampled profile from cell 12 to the relative gene expression of the full ultra-deep profile of cell 12 and calculated the absolute error.

#### Cell-cell distance estimation

To assess cell-cell distance estimation performance, we calculated the Euclidean distances between the relative gene expression profiles of pairs of sampled profiles (either from cell 12 twice or from cell 12 and cell 15) based on GT and ML. We calculated the true distance based on the full ultra-deep profiles.

#### Downstream analysis

#### Data analysis, pbmc3k

The pbmc3k dataset was downloaded from 10X Genomics [19] and processed following Seurat's "Guided Clustering Tutorial" [29]. In short:

During QC, we filtered out genes expressed in fewer than 3 cells and cells with fewer than 200 expressed genes. We then filtered out cells with > 5% mitochondrial reads, and finally, we removed all cells expressing more than 2,500 genes.

During preprocessing, cells were normalized using Seurat's NormalizeData or GTestimate at default settings. For both normalization methods individually, we then identified variable genes and z-score scaled the data, followed by calculation of the top 10 PCs. Based on these PCs, we then constructed the neighborhood graphs and performed unsupervised Louvain clustering (resolution = 0.5). Finally, we calculated the UMAP for both conditions and annotated clusters based on marker gene expression, following the Seurat tutorial.

#### Data analysis, developing pancreas

The pancreas endocrinogenesis day 15 dataset was downloaded [30] and imported into R to be processed using Seurat. We only used the spliced counts and normalized them using GTestimate and NormalizeData; from there on, all following steps were performed identically for the 2 approaches.

First we identified variable genes and performed genewise zscore scaling, followed by calculation of the top 50 PCs. Based on the PCs, we constructed the neighborhood graph and performed unsupervised Louvain clustering (resolution = 0.4). Finally, we calculated the UMAP.

We manually adjusted the cluster numbering (and thereby their color) for Fig. 2C, D to have consistent cluster colors from left to right.

# Data analysis, Spatial Transcriptomics

The stxBrain dataset of sagittal mouse brain slices from 10X Genomics was downloaded using the SeuratData R-package. In our analysis, we focused on the anterior1 slice of the dataset following Seurat's "Analysis of spatial datasets (Sequencing-based)" vi-

Our analysis differs from the vignette only in the normalization methods used. While the vignette uses sctransform [32] for spotwise normalization, we instead used NormalizeData and GTestimate. Direct comparison of GT and ML to SCTransform on the basis of relative gene expression is not possible, since SCTransform does not calculate relative gene expression levels. Normalization was followed by variable gene selection and genewise scaling. We then calculated the first 30 PCs and used them to construct the neighborhood graph, perform unsupervised Louvain clustering, and calculate the UMAP.

## Data analysis, experimentally annotated PBMCs (Liu dataset)

The Liu dataset was downloaded and imported into R to be processed using Seurat. We used the purified version of the dataset, which includes an additional filtering step to ensure correct celltype assignments.

For our GTestimate and NormalizeData analyses, we first normalized the data using the respective method at default settings, and then we identified the 2,000 most variable genes and performed genewise z-score scaling. For our SCTransform-based analysis, we simply applied SCTransform at its default settings, as it is supposed to replace all 3 of these steps.

From here, the remaining steps were identical for the 3 analyses: we first calculated the top 30 PCs (we chose 30 PCs to be in line with the original analysis by Fu et al. [23] performed as part of their cell filtering step) and then constructed the neighborhood graph and performed unsupervised Louvain clustering. Louvain clustering was repeated at 15 different resolutions from 0.1 to 1.5 in steps of 0.1.

At each resolution, we calculated the ARI between the experimentally annotated ground-truth cell types and the unsupervised clustering results.

# Availability of Source Code and Requirements

Project name: GTestimate

Project homepage: https://github.com/Martin-Fahrenberger/

Operating system(s): Platform independent

Programming language: R, C++

Other Requirements: devtools, sparseMatrixStats

License: GPL3 RRID: SCR 026562

A version of record snapshot of the GitHub repository has been archived in the Software Heritage [33].

## All Code for the Analysis (raw-data, figures)

Project name: GTestimate-Paper

https://www.github.com/Martin-Project homepage:

Fahrenberger/GTestimate-Paper

Operating system(s): Platform independent

Programming language: R

Other Requirements: renv (additional requirements as in note-

books/renv.lock) License: GPL3

A version of record snapshot of the GitHub repository has been archived in the Software Heritage [34].

# **Additional Files**

Supplementary Fig. S1. Histogram showing the number of observed genes per cell for the 17,653 cells in the cta-seq sample before amplification (typical).

**Supplementary Fig. S2.** Raw read counts per cell before (*typical*) and after (*ultra-deep*) amplification for the 18 selected cells in the cta-seq experiment.

**Supplementary Fig. S3.** Number of observed genes before (typical) and after (ultra-deep) amplification for the 18 selected cells in the cta-seq experiment.

Supplementary Fig. S4. Log-normalized expression of all cell-type markers described in Seurat's pbmc3k tutorial (zeroes not shown). Supplementary Fig. S5. UMAPs visualizing the clustering of Spatial Transcriptomics spots, based on NormalizeData (left) and GTestimate (right) for the mouse brain Spatial Transcriptomics dataset. Supplementary Fig. S6. Visualization of the different clusters based on NormalizeData (left) and GTestimate (right) for the mouse brain Spatial Transcriptomics dataset.

**Supplementary Fig. S7.** Similarity of the clusters based on *NormalizeData* and *GTestimate* as represented by the Jaccard Index. Clusters on the y-axis have been rearranged to maximize diagonal entries using the Hungarian algorithm.

 $\begin{tabular}{ll} \textbf{Supplementary Fig. S8.} $UMIs/spot$ in the Spatial Transcriptomics mouse brain dataset. \end{tabular}$ 

Supplementary Fig. S9. Adjusted Rand Index (ARI) comparing unsupervised clustering results (Louvian algorithm) to the experimentally annotated cell types in the Liu dataset. Clustering was performed after normalizing with GTestimate, NormalizeData, or SCTransform and repeated for different clustering resolutions. The maximum ARI for each normalization method is indicated and labeled.

**Supplementary Fig. S10.** Missing mass before (typical) and after (ultra-deep) amplification for the 18 selected cells in the cta-seq experiment (see Suppl. Materials 1.1).

**Supplementary Fig. S11.** Histogram showing *GTestimate's* missing mass estimates per cell for the 17,653 cells in the cta-seq sample before amplification (typical).

**Supplementary Table S1.** Characteristics of the regression line of the estimated vs. ground-truth distances for the cta-seq data (Fig. 1D).

**Supplementary Table S2.** PCR primer sequences used for the 18 separate cta-seq reactions. Forward primers were designed to specifically target the selected cell-barcodes and to attach the necessary sequencing adapters. Reverse primers are non-specific and also attach the necessary sequencing adapters.

#### **Abbreviations**

ARI: Adjusted Rand Index; cta-seq: cell-targeted PCR amplification followed by sequencing; GT: Good–Turing estimator; ML: maximum likelihood estimator; PC: principal component; scRNA-seq: single-cell RNA sequencing.

# Acknowledgments

The authors thank Oliver L. Eichmüller for the original cDNA-library used in the cta-seq experiment and for his feedback during discussions, all members of CIBIV for their valuable feedback throughout this project, and Thomas Grentzinger from the Vienna BioCenter Core Facilities GmbH (VBCF) Next Generation Sequencing Unit for consultation and sequencing.

# **Author Contributions**

M.F. and A.v.H. conceived this project, C.E. and M.F. developed ctaseq, J.K. provided the cDNA samples, C.E. performed the cta-seq wet-lab experiments in the lab of J.K., M.F. implemented GTesti-

mate and analyzed the data. M.F. wrote the manuscript with input from C.E. and A.v.H. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

# **Funding**

This work was supported by the network grant of the European Commission H2020-MSCA-ITN-2017-765104 "MATURE-NK" to A.v.H.; M.F. was a fellow in the project. M.F. was further supported by the Austrian Science Fund (FWF) project number F78 to A.v.H.

# **Data Availability**

Processed cta-seq data are available in NCBI via GEO accession number GSE268930. Raw sequencing data are available via controlled access at the European Genome-Phenome Archive (EGA) under accession number EGAD50000001338.

## **Competing Interests**

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

#### References

- Regev A, Teichmann SA, Lander ES, et al. The Human Cell Atlas. elife. 2017;6:e27041. https://doi.org/10.7554/eLife.27041.
- Farrell JA, Wang Y, Riesenfeld SJ, et al. Single-cell reconstruction of developmental trajectories during zebrafish embryogenesis. Science. 2018;360(6392):eaar3131. https://doi.org/10.1126/ science.aar3131.
- Park J, Shrestha R, Qiu C, et al. Single-cell transcriptomics of the mouse kidney reveals potential cellular targets of kidney disease. Science. 2018;360(6390):758–63. https://doi.org/10.1126/sc ience.aar2131.
- Macosko EZ, Basu A, Satija R, et al. Highly parallel genome-wide expression profiling of individual cells using nanoliter droplets. Cell. 2015;161(5):1202–14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2015.05 .002.
- Zheng GX, Terry JM, Belgrader P, et al. Massively parallel digital transcriptional profiling of single cells. Nat Commun. 2017;8(1):14049. https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms14049.
- 10X Genomics. Technical Note—Chromium Single Cell 3' v3: Reagent, workflow & software updates. 25 February 2019. Document Number CG000201, Rev A. https://cdn.10xgenomics.com/image/upload/v1660261285/support-documents/CG000201\_TechNote\_Chromium\_Single\_Cell\_3\_v3\_Reagent\_Workflow\_\_Software\_Updates\_RevA.pdf.
- Klein AM, Mazutis L, Akartuna I, et al. Droplet barcoding for single-cell transcriptomics applied to embryonic stem cells. Cell. 2015;161(5):1187–201. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cell.2015.04.044.
- Vallejos CA, Risso D, Scialdone A, et al. Normalizing single-cell RNA sequencing data: challenges and opportunities. Nat Methods. 2017;14(6):565–71. https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.4292.
- Butler A, Hoffman P, Smibert P, et al. Integrating single-cell transcriptomic data across different conditions, technologies, and species. Nat Biotechnol. 2018;36(5):411–20. https://doi.org/10.1038/nbt.4096.
- Lun AT, McCarthy DJ, Marioni JC. A step-by-step workflow for low-level analysis of single-cell RNA-seq data with Bioconductor. F1000Research. 2016;5:2122. https://doi.org/10.12688/f1000 research.9501.2.

- 11. L Lun AT, Bach K, Marioni JC. Pooling across cells to normalize single-cell RNA sequencing data with many zero counts. Genome Biol. 2016;17(1):1-14. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-0 16-0947-7.
- 12. Wolf FA. Angerer P. Theis FJ. SCANPY: large-scale single-cell gene expression data analysis. Genome Biol. 2018;19:1-5. https://doi. org/10.1186/s13059-017-1382-0.
- 13. Ahlmann-Eltze C, Huber W. Comparison of transformations for single-cell RNA-seq data. Nat Methods. 2023;20:665-72. https:// doi.org/10.1038/s41592-023-01814-1.
- 14. Fisher RA. On the mathematical foundations of theoretical statistics. Phil Trans R Soc London Ser A. 1922;222(594-604):309-68. https://doi.org/10.1098/rsta.1922.0009.
- 15. Shapiro E, Biezuner T, Linnarsson S. Single-cell sequencingbased technologies will revolutionize whole-organism science. Nat Rev Genet. 2013;14(9):618-30. https://doi.org/10.1038/nrg3 542.
- 16. Good IJ. The population frequencies of species and the estimation of population parameters. Biometrika. 1953;40(3-4):237-64. https://doi.org/10.1093/biomet/40.3-4.237.
- 17. Gale WA, Sampson G. Good-turing frequency estimation without tears. J Quant Linguist. 1995;2(3):217-37. https://doi.org/10.1 080/09296179508590051.
- 18. Crowell HL, Morillo Leonardo SX, Soneson C, et al. The shaky foundations of simulating single-cell RNA sequencing data. Genome Biol. 2023;24(1):1-19. https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-0 23-02904-1.
- 19. 10X Genomics. 3k PBMCs from a Healthy Donor, Single Cell Gene Expression Dataset by Cell Ranger 1.1.0. 26 May 2016. https://cf.10xgenomics.com/samples/cell/pbmc3k/pbmc3k\_fil tered\_gene\_bc\_matrices.tar.gz.
- 20. Bastidas-Ponce A, Tritschler S, Dony L, et al. Comprehensive single cell mRNA profiling reveals a detailed roadmap for pancreatic endocrinogenesis. Development. 2019;146(12):dev173849. ht tps://doi.org/10.1242/dev.173849.
- 21. Turman MA, Yabe T, McSherry C, et al. Characterization of a novel gene (NKG7) on human chromosome 19 that is expressed in natural killer cells and T cells. Human Immunol. 1993;36(1):34-40. https://doi.org/10.1016/0198-8859(93)90006-M
- 22. 10X Genomics. Mouse Brain Serial Section 1 (Sagittal-Anterior), Spatial Gene Expression Dataset by Space Ranger 1.0.0. 2 December 2019. https://support.10xgenomics.com/spatial-gene-e xpression/datasets/1.0.0/V1\_Mouse\_Brain\_Sagittal\_Anterior
- 23. Fu Q, Dong C, Liu Y, et al. A comparison of scRNA-seq annotation methods based on experimentally labeled immune cell subtype dataset. Brief Bioinform. 2024;25(5):bbae392. https://doi.org/10.1 093/bib/bbae392.

- 24. Chen Y, Chen L, Lun AT, et al. edgeR v4: powerful differential analysis of sequencing data with expanded functionality and improved support for small counts and larger datasets. Nucleic Acids Research. 2025;53(2):gkaf018. https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/ gkaf018.
- 25. Schraivogel D, Gschwind AR, Milbank JH, et al. Targeted Perturbseq enables genome-scale genetic screens in single cells. Nat Methods. 2020;17(6):629–35. https://doi.org/10.1038/s41592-020 -0837-5.
- 26. Eichmüller OL, Corsini NS, Vértesy Á, et al. Amplification of human interneuron progenitors promotes brain tumors and neurological defects. Science. 2022;375(6579):eabf5546. https://doi. org/10.1126/science.abf5546.
- 27. Blondel VD, Guillaume JL, Lambiotte R, et al. Fast unfolding of communities in large networks. J Stat Mech Theor Exp. 2008;2008(10):P10008. https://doi.org/10.1088/1742-5468/2008/1 0/P10008.
- 28. Smith T, Heger A, Sudbery I. UMI-tools: modeling sequencing errors in Unique Molecular Identifiers to improve quantification accuracy. Genome Res. 2017;27(3):491-99. https://doi.org/10.110 1/gr.209601.116.
- 29. Satija-Lab. Seurat—guided clustering tutorial. Satija-Lab. 2023. https://satijalab.org/seurat/articles/pbmc3k\_tutorial. Accessed 13 December 2023.
- 30. Theis Lab. scVelo—GitHub page. Theis Lab. 2021. https: //github.com/theislab/scvelo\_notebooks/raw/master/data/P ancreas/endocrinogenesis day15.h5ad. Accessed 13 December 2023
- 31. Satija-Lab. Analysis, visualization, and integration of spatial datasets with Seurat. Satija-Lab. 2023. https://satijalab. org/seurat/articles/spatial\_vignette. Accessed 13 December
- 32. Choudhary S, Satija R. Comparison and evaluation of statistical error models for scRNA-seq. Genome Biol. 2022;23(1):27. https: //doi.org/10.1186/s13059-021-02584-9.
- 33. Fahrenberger M, Esk C, Knoblich JA, et al. GTestimate: improving relative gene expression estimation in scRNA-seg using the Good-Turing estimator. 2025. [Computer software]. Software Heritage, https://archive.softwareheritage.org/swh:1:snp: 771e3894557efea0268dabfbb17c82c3244e29d8;origin=https: //github.com/Martin-Fahrenberger/GTestimate.
- 34. Fahrenberger M, Esk C, Knoblich JA, et al. GTestimate: Improving relative gene expression estimation in scRNA-seq using the Good-Turing estimator. 2025. [Computer software]. Software Heritage, https://archive.softwareheritage.org/swh:1:snp: 3935aa1bbaac154e15e5a96296bcc865a394c0c0;origin=https: //github.com/Martin-Fahrenberger/GTestimate-Paper.