

Some statistical methods for RNA-seq data analysis

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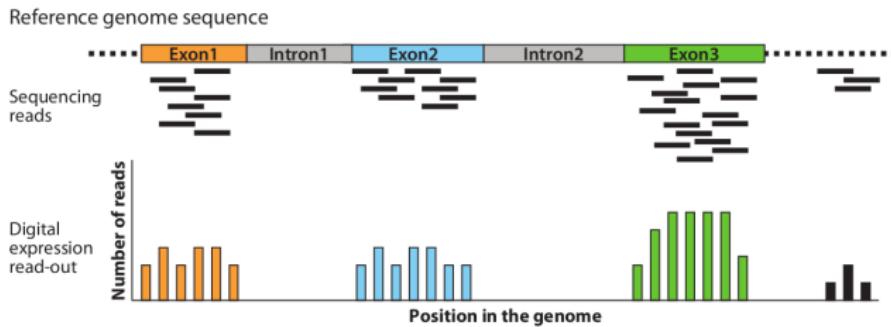
Juin 2015



* Slides inspired from Marine Jeanmougin, Julie Aubert, Laurent Jacob, Simon Anders, Michael Love and Peter N. Robinson

1 Gene/exon quantification or Estimation of transcript expression

- ▶ need for normalization
- ▶ previous to differential expression analysis



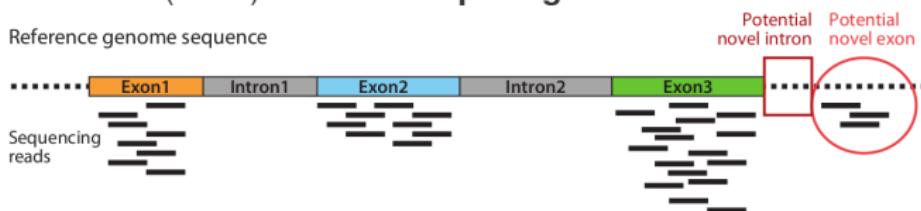
2 Detection of (novel) alternative splicing isoforms

3 Fusion genes identification

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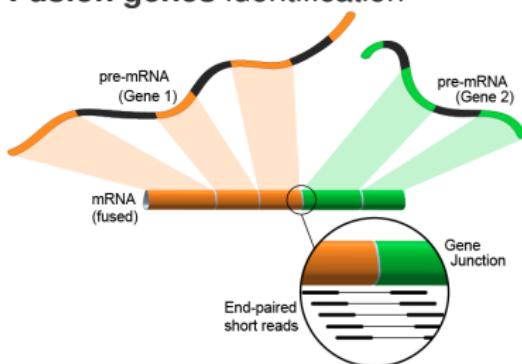
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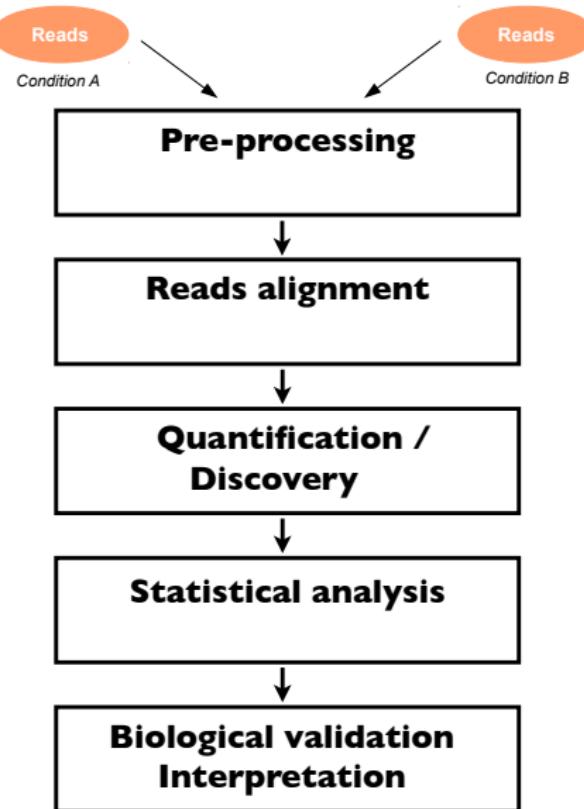


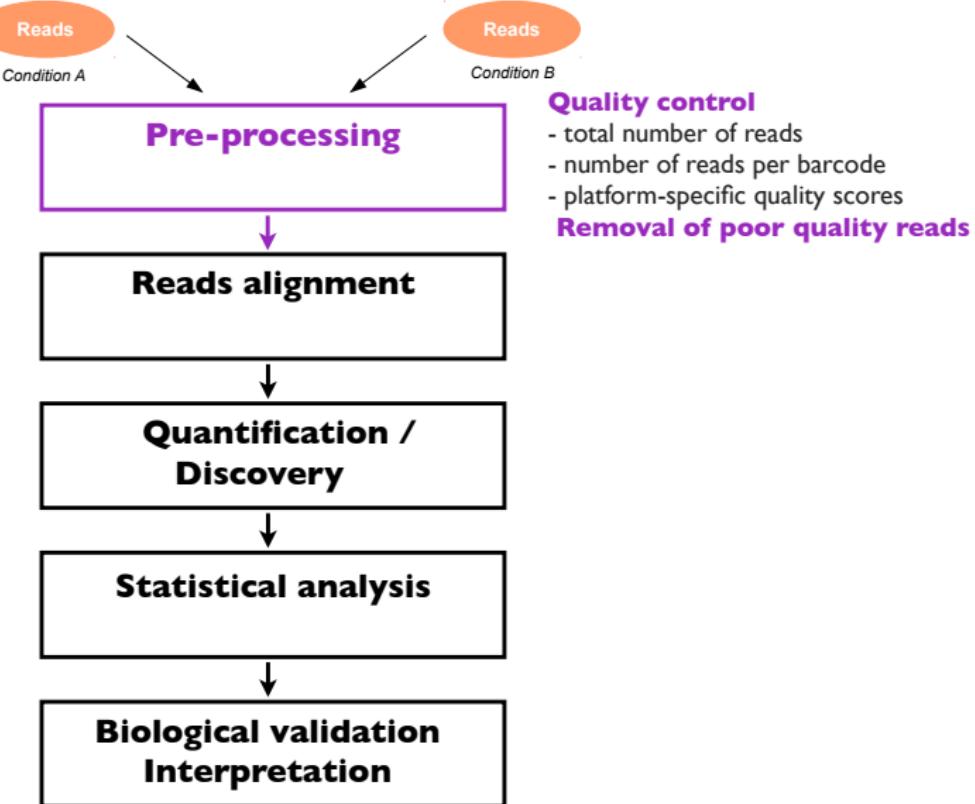
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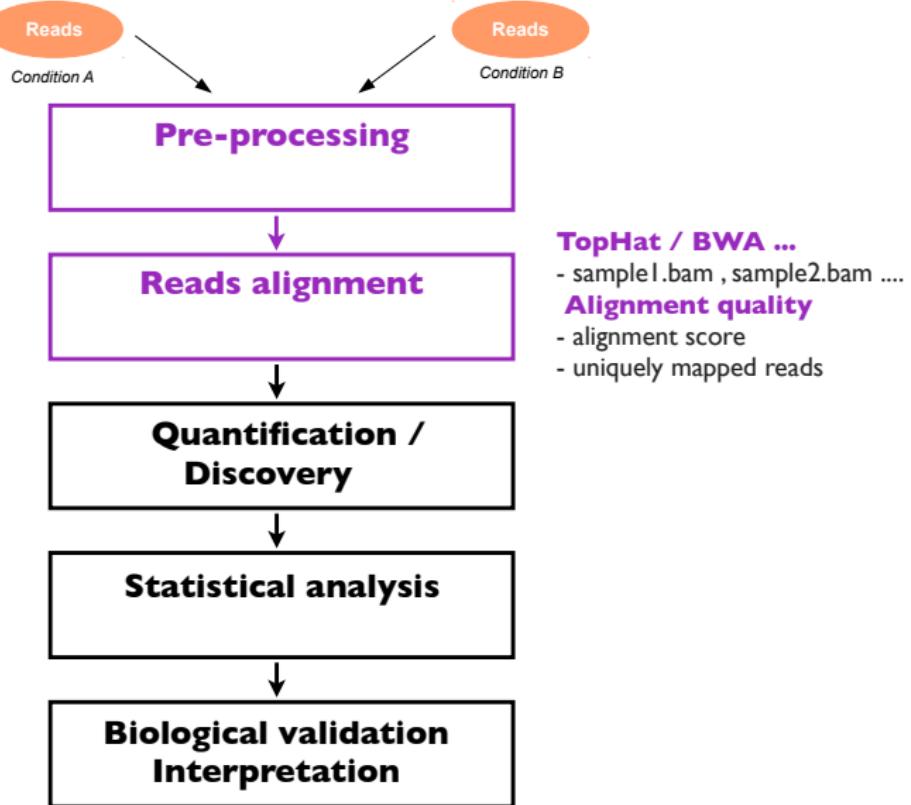
- ▶ need for **normalization**
- ▶ previous to **differential expression analysis**

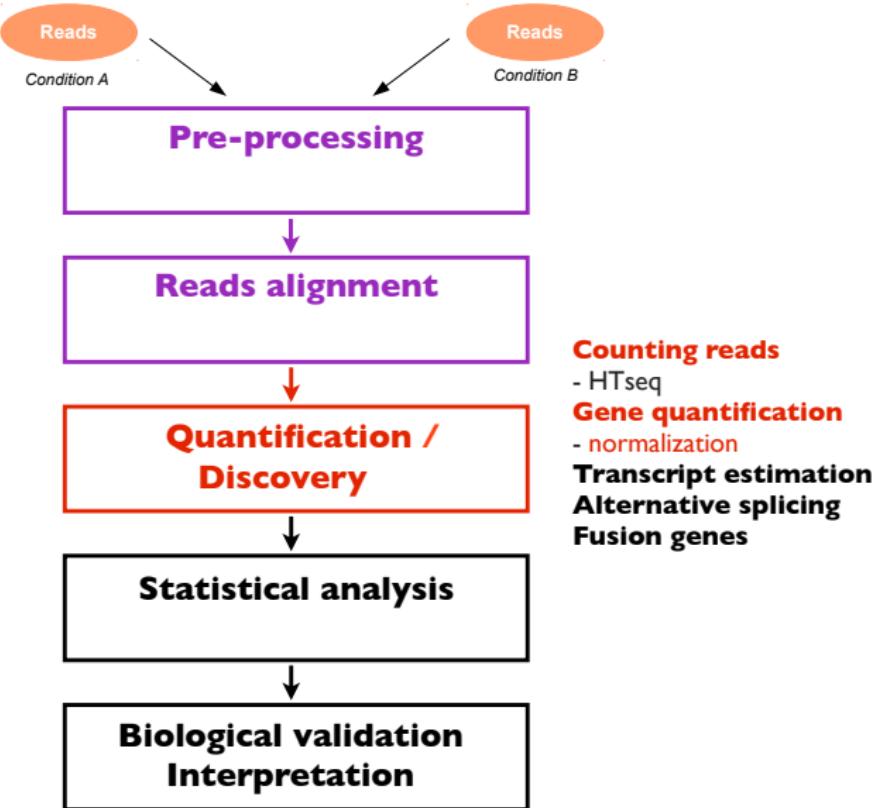
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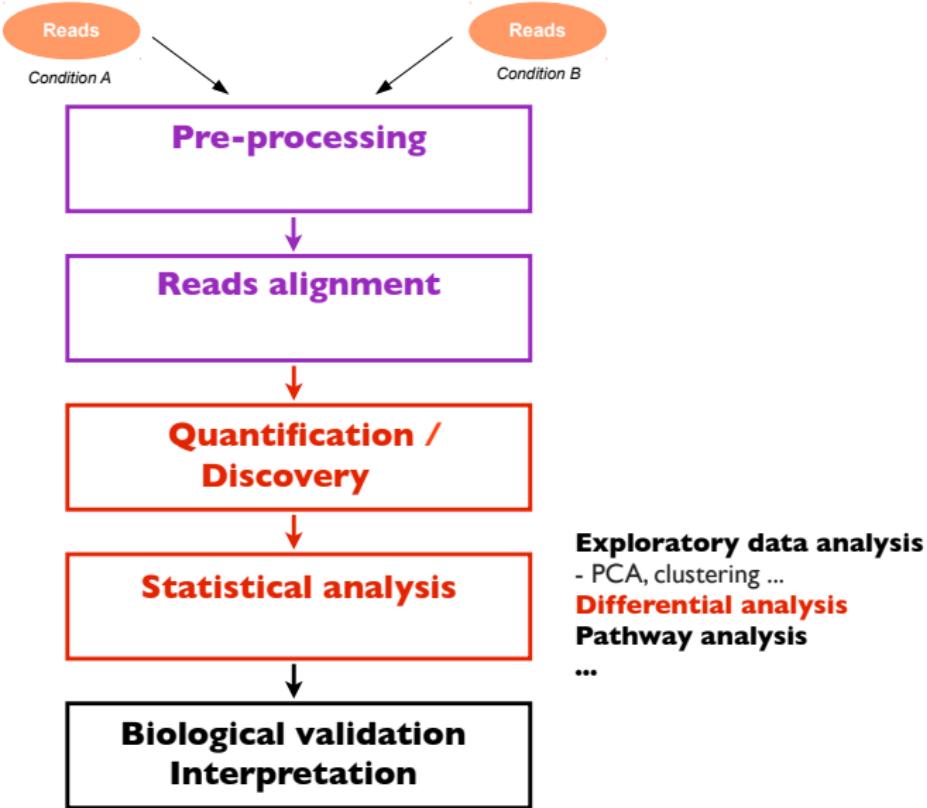
3 **Fusion genes** identification











- Matrix of **counts** (non-negative integer values)
- Each column: one experimental unit (sample)
- Each row: one variable (gene, exon)

Pasilla data

Study of the transcriptomic effect of RNAi knockdown on the Pasilla gene in *Drosophila melanogaster*

```
> require(pasilla)
> data("pasillaGenes")
> head(counts(pasillaGenes))
```

	treated1fb	treated2fb	treated3fb	untreated1fb	untreated2fb	untreated3fb	untreated4fb
FBgn0000003	0	1	1	0	0	0	0
FBgn0000008	118	139	77	89	142	84	76
FBgn0000014	0	10	0	1	1	0	0
FBgn0000015	0	0	0	0	0	1	2
FBgn0000017	4852	4853	3710	4640	7754	4026	3425
FBgn0000018	572	497	322	552	663	272	321

1 Normalization approaches

- Within-sample biases
- Between-sample biases
- Comparison of normalization methods

2 Differential expression

- Introduction to differential analysis
- Fisher's exact test
- The poisson model and its limitations
- Negative Binomial alternative

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An **essential step** in the analysis of gene expression:

- to compare gene expressions from a same sample
- to compare genes from different samples (**differential analysis**)

Definition

Normalization is a process designed to **identify and correct technical biases** removing the least possible biological signal.

- ▶ **batch effects** (library prep, sequencing technology, ...)

Goals

- ▶ accurate estimation of gene expression levels
- ▶ reliable differential expression analysis

Normalization has a great impact on DE results! (Bullard et al 2010, Dillies et al 2012)

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Within-sample

- Gene length
- Nucleotide composition (GC content)

Between-sample

- Library size (number of mapped reads)
- Batch effects

A lot of different normalization methods...

- Some are part of models for DE, others are 'stand-alone'
- They do not rely on similar hypotheses

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Between-sample

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- Some are part of models for DE, others are 'stand-alone'
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- k_{ij} : **number of reads** for gene i in sample j (**observed**)
- L_i : length of gene i
- q_{ij} : **expression level** of gene i in sample j (**quantity of interest, unobserved**)

- N_j : **library size** of sample j
- s_j : **scaling factor** associated with sample j

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- At the same expression level, a long gene will have more reads than a shorter one!
- $k_{ij} \propto L_i q_{ij}$



- The higher sequencing depth, the higher counts!

$$k_{ij} \propto N_j q_{ij}$$

sample 1



sample 2



A very intuitive approach to try to correct for length + depth biases

RPKM (Reads per Kilo base per Million mapped reads)



Mortazavi, A. et al. (2008) Nature Methods

Normalization for RNA length and for library size:

$$RPKM_{ij} = \frac{10^9 \times k_{ij}}{N_j \times L_i},$$

where:

- k_{ij} : number of reads for gene i in sample j
- N_j : library size for sample j (in millions)
- L_i : length of gene i in base pair

RPKM calculation

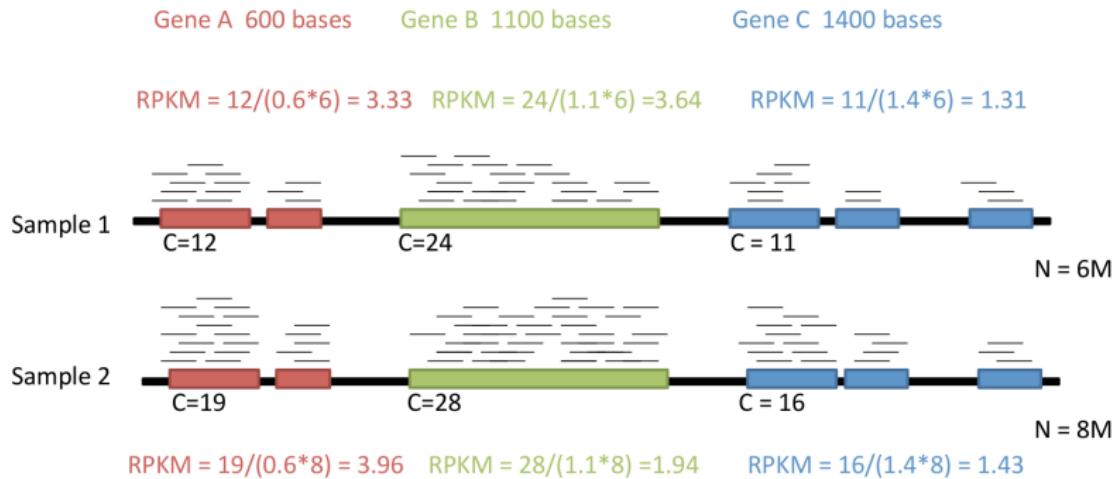


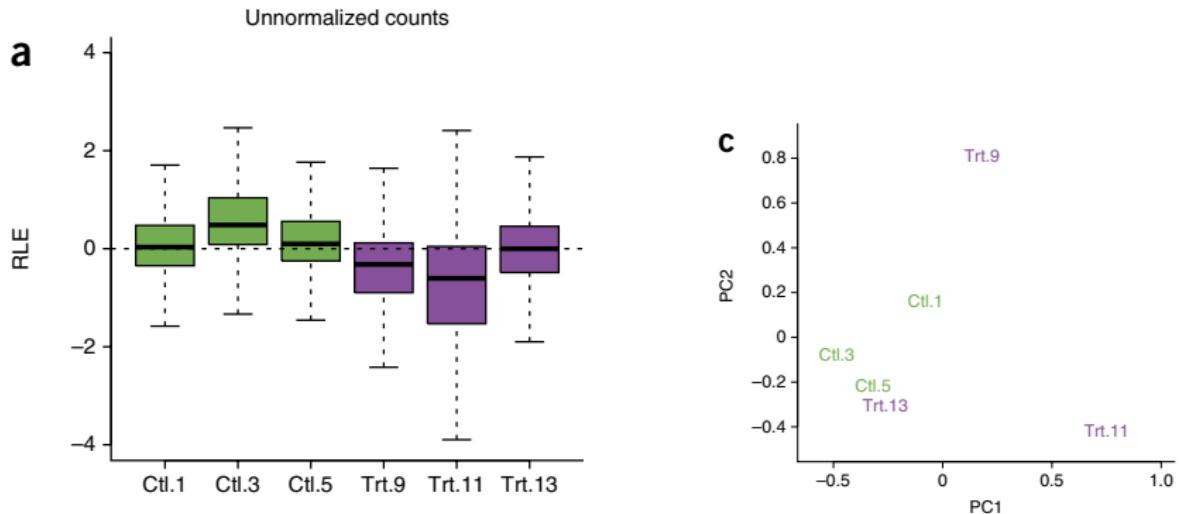
Figure : RPKM calculation

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Zebrafish data analysis from Risso et al., 2014.

Green: control samples. Purple: treated samples.

RLE: relative log expression (comparable samples should have similar RLE distributions centered around 0)



Risso, D. et al. (2014) Nature Biotech

1 global scaling factor (using one sample)

- ▶ $\mathbb{E}K_{ij} = s_j q_{ij}$
- ▶ \hat{s}_j ??
- ▶ Total number of reads : TC (Marioni et al. 2008)
- ▶ Upper Quartile : UQ (Bullard et al. 2010)

2 global scaling factor (using several samples)

- ▶ more robust
- ▶ Anders and Huber 2010 - Package DESeq
- ▶ Trimmed Mean of M-values TMM - Package edgeR

3 additive effects (regression-based)

- ▶ estimate technical effects with control genes
- ▶ Remove Unwanted Variation - Package RUVseq

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global scaling factor (using one sample)

- ▶ $\mathbb{E}K_{ij} = s_j q_{ij}$
- ▶ $\hat{s}_j ??$

- 1 Total number of reads TC $\longrightarrow \hat{s}_j = \frac{N_j}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_I N_I}$
 - ▶ intuitive but total read count is strongly dependent on a few highly expressed transcripts
- 2 Upper Quartile UQ $\longrightarrow \hat{s}_j = \frac{Q3_j}{\frac{1}{n} \sum_I Q3_I}$ with Q3 the 75-th quantile.
 - ▶ calculate Q3 after exclusion of genes with no read count
 - ▶ more robust to highly express genes

```
> dim(counts(pasillaGenes))  
14470      7  
  
> # Upper Quartile normalization  
> sc = apply(counts(pasillaGenes), 2,  
             FUN=function(x) quantile(x[x!=0],probs=3/4))  
> scaling.factor = sc / mean(sc)  
  
> print(scaling.factor)  
treated1fb   treated2fb   treated3fb  
1.3120821    0.7722063   0.8825215  
untreated1fb  untreated2fb  untreated3fb  untreated4fb  
1.0195798    1.4925979    0.7320917    0.7889207  
  
> counts.normalized = t(t(counts(pasillaGenes))/scaling.factor)
```

global scaling factor (using several samples)

$$\blacktriangleright \boxed{\mathbb{E}K_{ij} = s_j q_{ij}}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \hat{s}_j ??$$

- 1 DESeq (Anders and Huber 2010)
- 2 Trimmed Mean of M-values TMM (Robinson et al. 2010)

Motivation

- A few **highly differentially expressed genes** have a **strong influence** on read count
 - ~~ highly differentially expressed genes may distort the ratio of total reads
 - ~~ the total number of reads is not a reasonable choice for s_j
- Aim: minimizing effect of such genes

Assumption

A **majority** of transcripts is **not differentially expressed**

General idea

Let us consider two **replicated samples**, indexed with $j = 1$ and $j = 2$.

Given that the samples are replicates we expect the ratio of counts to be the "same" for all genes:

- ▶ $\forall i$, $\frac{k_{i1}}{k_{i2}}$ should be the same
- ▶ of course not exactly constant! but narrow distribution around its mode
- ▶ $\hat{s} = \text{median}_{\frac{k_{i1}}{k_{i2}}}$: a good estimate of the sequencing depth ratio
- ▶ if $j = 1$ and $j = 2$ are not replicates the median should still be a good estimate **as long as few genes are DE**.

~~ Need to be generalized to more than 2 samples:

- ▶ need to compare all samples to a same *reference*
- ▶ definition of a fictive "*reference sample*" against which to compare everything:

$$k_i^{\text{ref}} = \left(\prod_{j=1}^m k_{ij} \right)^{1/m}$$

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Generalization

Calculation of the scaling factor:

$$\hat{s}_j = \text{median}_i \frac{k_{ij}}{k_i^{\text{ref}}}$$

where:

- k_{ij} : number of reads in sample j assigned to gene i
- denominator: reference sample created from geometric mean across samples

R package DESeq:

- `estimateSizeFactors()`: estimate the size factors for a "CountDataSet" object

DESeq - example

```
> require(DESeq)

> # estimate the size factors:
> pasillaGenes <- estimateSizeFactors( pasillaGenes )

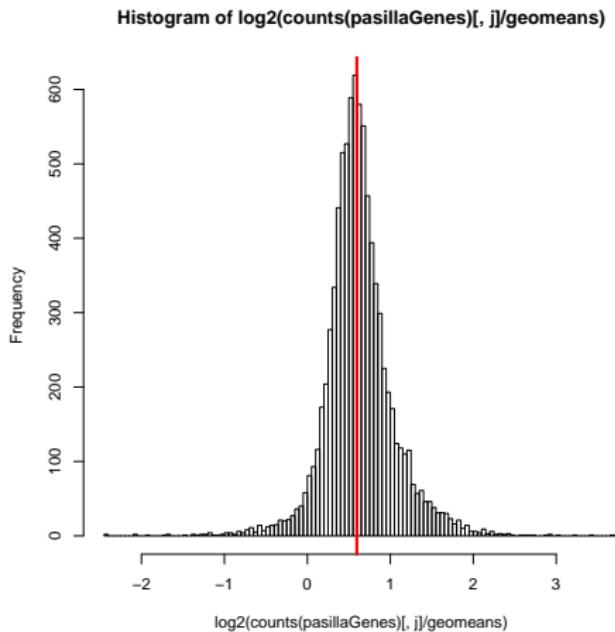
> print( sizeFactors(pasillaGenes) )
treated1fb    treated2fb    treated3fb
1.5116926    0.7843521    0.8958321
untreated1fb  untreated2fb  untreated3fb  untreated4fb
1.0499961    1.6585559    0.7117763  0.7837458

> # understand what happen!
> # calculate the gene-wise geometric means
> geomeans <- exp( rowMeans( log( counts(pasillaGenes) ) ) )

> # Plot a histogram of the ratios
> # ratio of sample 1 over the reference
> hist(log2( counts(pasillaGenes)[,1] / geomeans ), breaks=100)
> abline(v=log2( sizeFactors(pasillaGenes)[ j ] ), col="red")
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additive effect (regression-based)

- ▶ uses **control genes** (housekeeping genes, spike-in) to estimate technical noise
- ▶ estimate a **gene-specific nuisance effect**

1 RUVSeq (Risso et al. 2014). R package RUVSeq

Framework

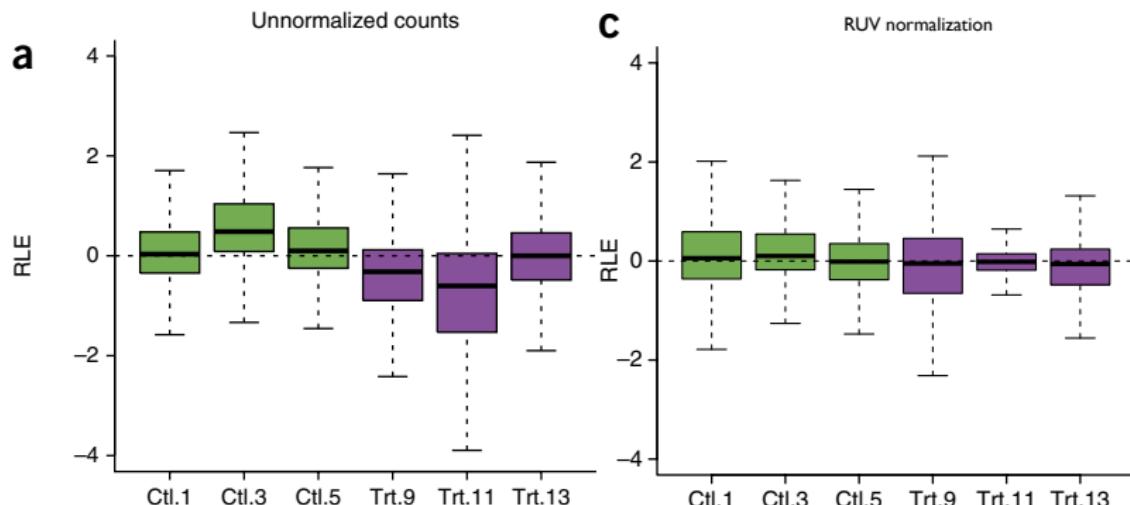
- ▶ factor of interest x_j (e.g. outcome) for sample j , its effect β_i on gene i .
- ▶ unwanted factor w_j (e.g. batch) for sample j , its effect α_i on gene j .
- ▶ $\log k_{jj} = x_j \beta_i + w_j \alpha_i + \epsilon_{ij}$
- ▶ control genes are not affected by the factor of interest X
 - 1 $\beta_c = 0$ for control gene c . Hence $\log k_c = W\alpha_c + \epsilon_c$.
 - 2 estimate \hat{W} by PCA.
plug back \hat{W} in the model and do a regression to get $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\alpha}$
 - 3 remove $\hat{W}\hat{\alpha}$ from $\log k$

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- Comparison of normalization methods

2 Differential expression

- Introduction to differential analysis
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Which method should you use for normalization of RNA-Seq data ?

- ▶ How to choose a normalization adapted to your experiment ?
- ▶ What is the impact of the normalization step on the downstream analysis ?

StatOmique workshop: <http://vim-iip.jouy.inra.fr:8080/statomique/>

Briefings in Bioinformatics Advance Access published September 17, 2012
BRIEFINGS IN BIOINFORMATICS. page 1 of 13
doi:10.1093/bib/bbs046

A comprehensive evaluation of normalization methods for Illumina high-throughput RNA sequencing data analysis

Marie-Agnès Dillies, Andrea Rau*, Julie Aubert*, Christelle Hennequet-Antier*, Marine Jeanmougin*, Nicolas Servant*, Céline Keime*, Guillemette Marot, David Castel, Jordi Estelle, Gregory Guernec, Bernd Jagla, Luc Jouneau, Denis Laloë, Caroline Le Gall, Brigitte Schaeffer, Stéphane Le Crom*, Mickaël Guedj*, Florence Jaffrézic* and on behalf of The French StatOmique Consortium*

Submitted: 12th April 2012; Received (in revised form): 29th June 2012

An effective normalization should result in a **stabilization of read counts** across samples

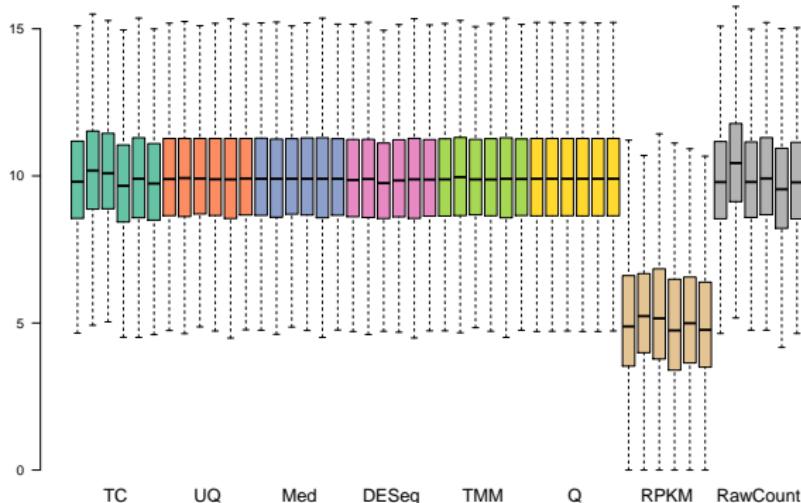


Figure : Effects of normalization on *E. histolytica* data.

Results

- most of the methods yield comparable results
- RPKM and TC that do not improve over the raw counts (sensitive to high count genes)

Effect of normalization on housekeeping genes

Method

Assumption: housekeeping genes are **similarly expressed across samples**

- ▶ 30 housekeeping genes selected from a list previously described in Eisenberg et Levanon (2003)
- ▶ average the coefficient of variation of housekeeping genes

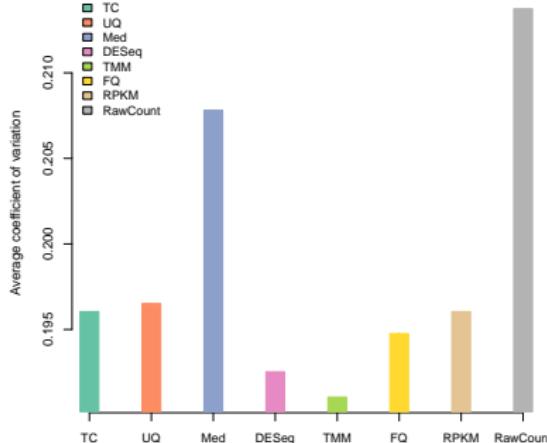


Figure : Variation in expression among a set of housekeeping genes

Results

DESeq and TMM normalization methods lead to smallest coefficient of variation

In most cases

The methods yield similar results

However ...

Differences appear based on data characteristics

Method	Distribution	Intra-Variance	Housekeeping	Clustering	False-positive rate
TC	-	+	+	-	-
UQ	++	++	+	++	-
Med	++	++	-	++	-
DESeq	++	++	++	++	++
TMM	++	++	++	++	++
FQ	++	-	+	++	-
RPKM	-	+	+	-	-

- RNA-seq data are affected by biases (total number of mapped reads per sample, gene length, composition bias)
- Csq1: non-uniformity of the distribution of reads along the genome
- Csq2: technical variability within and between-sample
- A normalization is needed and has a **great impact on the DE genes** (Bullard et al 2010), (Dillies et al 2012)
- **TC, RPKM, UQ** Adjustment of distributions, implies a similarity between RNA repertoires expressed
- **DESeq, TMM** More robust ratio of counts using several samples, suppose that the majority of the genes are not DE.
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What is differential gene expression ?

A gene is declared differentially expressed (DE) if an observed difference or **change in expression** between two experimental conditions is **statistically significant^a**

How to determine the level of significance ?

- ~~ Statistical tools (hypothesis testing)
- ~~ Statistical tools for RNA-seq need to analyze read-count distributions

^agreater than expected just due to natural random variation

Often used to compare expression levels in different conditions:

- Tissue: liver vs. brain
- Treatment: drugs A, B, and C
- State: healthy controls vs. patient
- Across time

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The **key notions** are:

- 1 formulate the **testing hypothesis**: null hypothesis versus alternative
- 2 **p-value** computation: probability of observing the data given that a hypothesis is true
- 3 **type I and type II errors**
- 4 **multiple-testing**: control of the FDR (false discovery rate)

Formulate the null hypothesis

- ~ The statement being tested in a test of statistical significance is called the null hypothesis
- ~ The null hypothesis is usually a statement of *no effect* or *no difference*

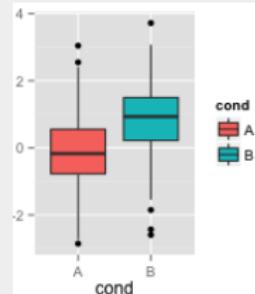
Example

Let q_i be the expression level of gene i .

We have access to measurements of q_i in two groups A and B .

ie we observe $(q_{i1}^A, q_{i2}^A, \dots)$ and $(q_{i1}^B, q_{i2}^B, \dots)$ (biological replicates in both groups).

- ~ $H_0: q_i^A$ and q_i^B follow the same distribution
- ~ $H_0: q_i^A$ and q_i^B have equal mean



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Example t-test

We suppose:

- $q_i^A \sim N(\mu_i^A, \sigma)$
- $q_i^B \sim N(\mu_i^B, \sigma)$
- ~~> $H_0: \mu_i^A = \mu_i^B$

p-value is the probability of an observed (or more extreme) result assuming that the null hypothesis is true

$$p = P(\text{observation} \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$$

- ▶ p "small" means that H_0 is likely to be "false"

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Example t-test

We suppose:

- $q_i^A \sim N(\mu_i^A, \sigma)$ and $q_i^B \sim N(\mu_i^B, \sigma)$

- t-statistic

$$t = \frac{\bar{q}_i^A - \bar{q}_i^B}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

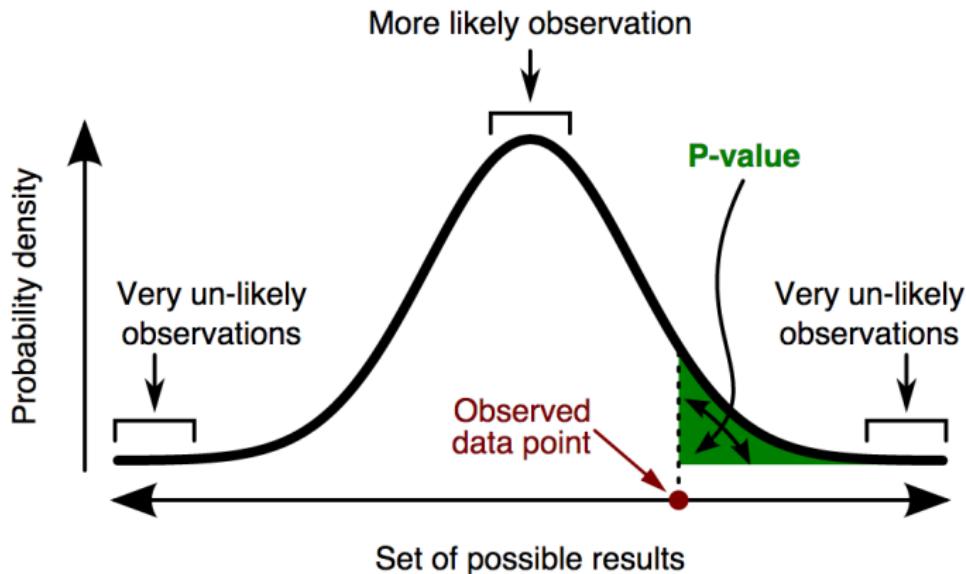
- obtained p-value (the t-statistic follows a Student law under H_0)

$$p = P(T \geq t | H_0)$$

p-value is the probability of an observed (or more extreme) result assuming that the null hypothesis is true

$$p = P(\text{observation} \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$$

- p "small" means that H_0 is likely to be "false"



- ▶ "uncorrecting testing" reject H_0 if $p \leq \alpha$ (eg, $\alpha = 0.05$)

	H_0 True	H_0 False
Reject H_0	Type I Error	Correct Rejection
Fail to Reject H_0	Correct Decision	Type II Error

- ▶ type I error = false positive = FP
- ▶ type II error = false negative = FN

1 "Uncorrected testing"

- ▶ Gives $P(FP_i) \leq \alpha$ for all $1 \leq i \leq n$
- ▶ Many type I errors (FP)
- ▶ eg: 10000 genes that are not DE. Significance level $\alpha = 0.05$. But $10000 \times 0.05 = 500$ genes will be call DE "by chance".

2 Control of the type I error

- ▶ e.g.: **Bonferroni**: use per-comparison significance level α/n
- ▶ Guarantees $P(FP) \leq \alpha$
- ▶ Very conservative

3 Control of the FDR false discovery rate

- ▶ first defined by **Benjamini-Hochberg** (BH, 1995, 2000)
- ▶ Guarantees $FDR = \mathbb{E} \left(\frac{FP}{FP+TP} \right) \leq \alpha$
- ▶ finding 100 DE genes with only 2 FP seems better than finding 6 DE genes with 2 FP ...

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Strategy

Differential expression gene-by-gene:

For each gene i , is there a significant difference in expression between the condition 1 and condition 2?

- Statistical model (definition and parameter estimation)
- Testing for differential expression:

$$H_0 : \mu_{i1} = \mu_{i2}$$

State of the art

- An abundant literature
 - Fisher's exact test
 - Poisson model
 - Negative Binomial model (`DESeq`, `edgeR`)
- Comparison of methods (Pachter et al. 2011, Kvam and Liu 2012, Soneson and Delorenzi 2013)

1 Normalization approaches

- Within-sample biases
- Between-sample biases
- Comparison of normalization methods

2 Differential expression

- Introduction to differential analysis
- **Fisher's exact test**
- The poisson model and its limitations
- Negative Binomial alternative

- can be used for RNA-seq without replicates, on a gene-by-gene basis, organizing the data in a **2×2 contingency table**

	condition 1	condition 2	Total
Gene i	x_{i1}	x_{i2}	$x_{i\cdot}$
Remaining genes	$\sum_{g \neq i} x_{g1}$	$\sum_{g \neq i} x_{g2}$	$\sum_{g \neq i} x_{g\cdot}$
Total	$x_{\cdot 1}$	$x_{\cdot 2}$	$x_{\cdot \cdot}$

Null hypothesis

The proportion of counts for some gene i amongst two samples is the same as that of the remaining genes:

$$H_{0i} : \frac{\pi_{i1}}{\pi_{i2}} = \frac{\pi_{g1}}{\pi_{g2}}$$

where π_{i1} is the true (unknown) proportion of counts in sample 1

~~ we can calculate the p-value $p = P(\text{readcount} \geq x_{i1} | H_0)$ exactly using the hypergeometric law (one or two-sided Fisher exact test)

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```
> countTable
```

	condition 1	condition 2	Total
Gene 1	216	160	376
Remaining genes	28,351,805	21,934,509	50,286,314
Total	28,352,021	21,934,669	50,286,690

```
> fisher.test(countTable)
```

Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data

data: countTable

p-value = 0.7159

alternative hypothesis: true odds ratio is not equal to 1

95 percent confidence interval:

0.847 1.289

sample estimates:

odds ratio

1.04

~ if test for many genes, need to **adjust p-value for multiple-testing!**

Need for replicates!

Without replication:

- complete **lack of knowledge about biological variation**.
- **no sound statistical basis** for inference of differences between the groups.

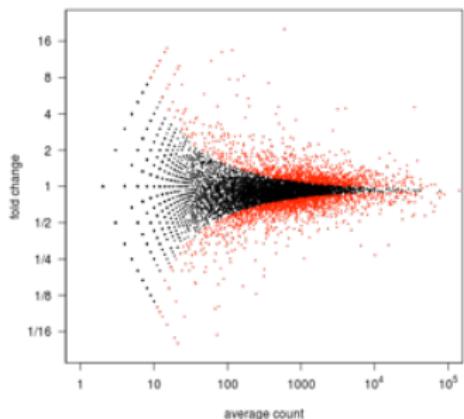


Tarazona, S. et al. (2011) Genome Research

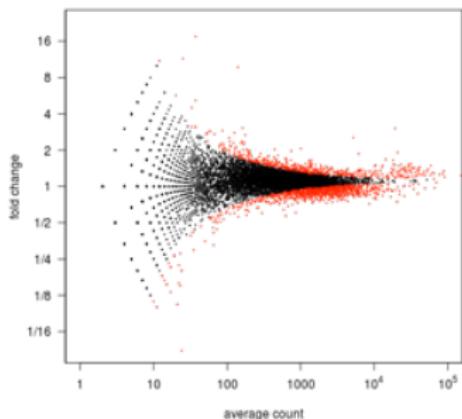
"We propose a novel methodology for the assessment of differentially expressed features, NOISeq, that empirically models the noise in count data, is reasonably robust against the choice of SD, and can work in the absence of replication."

Need for replicates!

knock-down sample T2
versus
control sample U3



control sample U2
versus
control sample U3



red: significant genes according to Fisher test (at 10% FDR)

Figure : Fly cell culture, knock-down of pasilla (from Simon Anders)

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Need to model:

- non-negative integer values (**count data**)

From the Binomial law to the Poisson distribution:

- e.g., a series of $n = 10$ coin flips, each of which has a probability of $p = 5$ of heads
- The binomial distribution gives us the probability of observing k heads

$$p(X = k) = \binom{n}{k} p^k (1 - p)^{n-k}$$



Event: An RNAseq read "lands" in a given gene (success) or not (failure)

- $\mathcal{B}(n, p)$ converges to $\mathcal{P}(\lambda = np)$ when $N \gg p$



Marioni, J. et al. (2008) Genome Research

The number of reads that are mapped into a gene was first modeled using a Poisson distribution

$$P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k e^{-\lambda}}{k!},$$

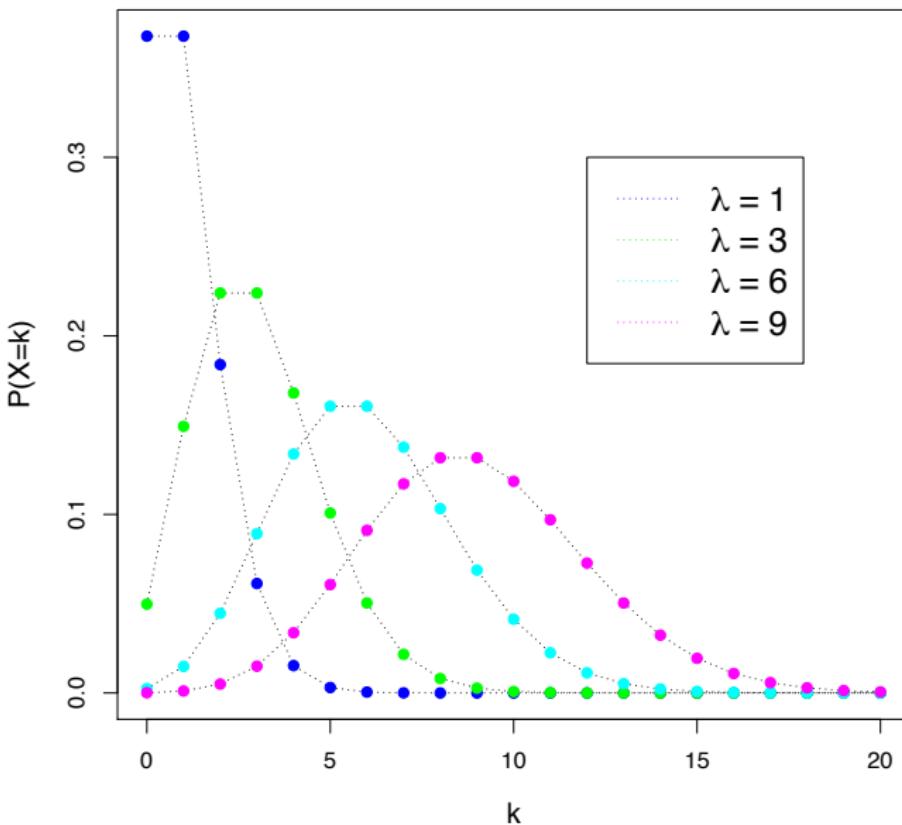
with $\lambda > 0$.

- ~~ only **one parameter** is needed to determine the probability of an event
 - Poisson distribution naturally appears for count data
 - It assumes that **mean and variance are the same**:

$$\lambda = E(X) = \text{Var}(X)$$

- no need to estimate the variance (convenient!)

Poisson distribution



Limitations of the poisson model

The variance grows faster than the mean in RNAseq data.

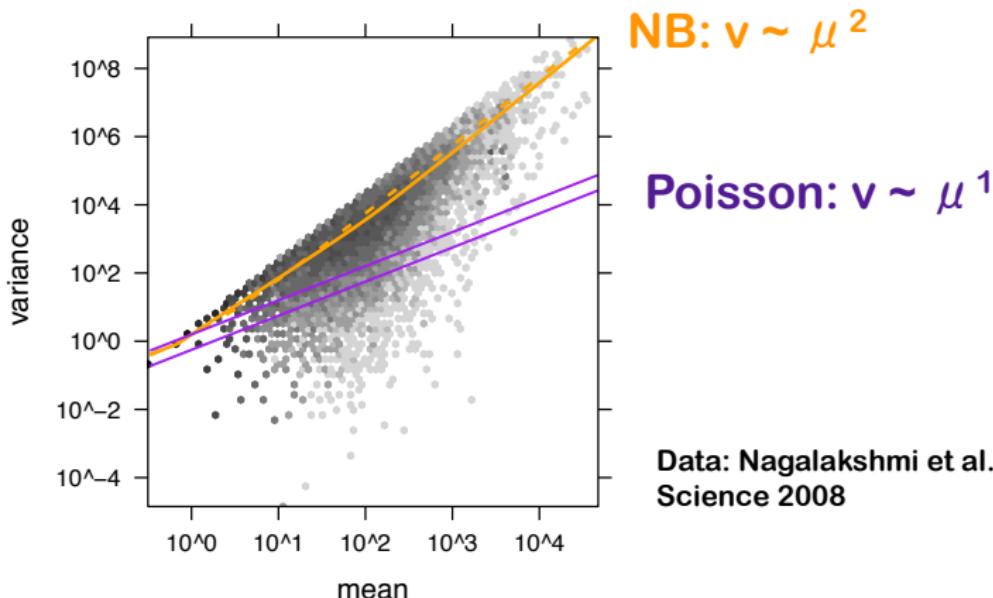


Figure : Mean count vs variance of RNA seq data. Orange line: the fitted observed curve. Purple: the variance implied by the Poisson distribution.



Anders S, Huber W (2010) Genome Biol

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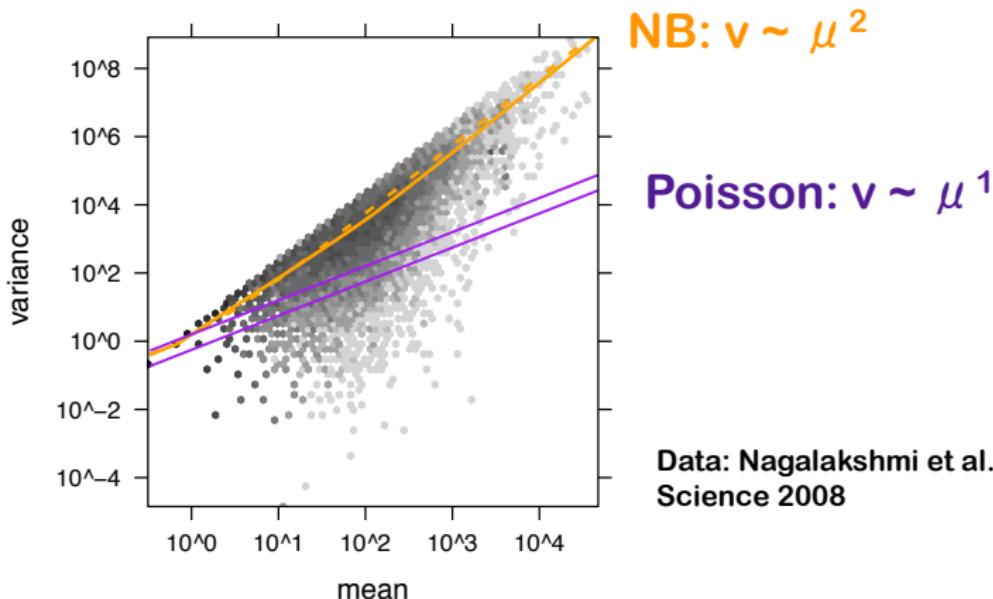


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Overdispersion in RNA-seq data ! ↗ counts from biological replicates tend to have variance exceeding the mean

What is the impact of overdispersion ?

~~ overdispersion \Rightarrow underestimation of the biological variance

Let us consider this question using the t-distribution:

$$t_i = \frac{\bar{x}_{i\cdot}^{(1)} - \bar{x}_{i\cdot}^{(2)}}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}},$$

where

- S is the sample standard deviation,
- n is the sample size

~~ Underestimation of the variance \Rightarrow overestimation of t_i

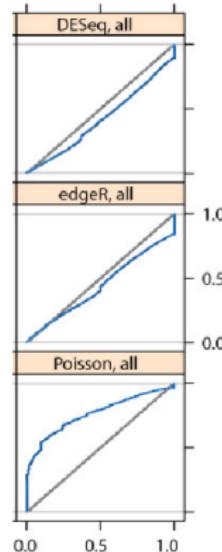


Figure : Empirical cumulative distribution functions (ECDFs) of p-values. No genes are truly differentially expressed, and the ECDF curves (blue) should remain below the diagonal (gray)

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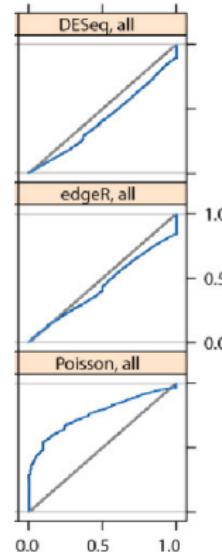


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Parametric approaches

Method	Model	Reference
baySeq	NB	<i>Hardcastle TJ and Kelly KA (2010)</i>
EBSeq	NB	<i>Leng N (2012)</i>
ShrinkSeq	NB (zero-inflated)	<i>Van de Wiel MA et al. (2012)</i>
edgeR	NB	<i>Robinson MD et al. (2010)</i>
DESeq	NB	<i>Anders S and Huber W (2010)</i>
NBPSeq	over-parameterized NB	<i>Di Y et al. (2011)</i>
TSPM	poisson	<i>Auer PL and Doerge RW (2011)</i>

Non-parametric strategies

- NOISeq (Tarazona S et al. 2011)
- SAMseq (Li J and Tibshirani R 2011)

Transformation-based methods

~~ aim to find a transformation for counts to analyze them by traditional methods

- voom + limma
- vst + limma

The negative binomial distribution can be used as an alternative to the Poisson distribution:

$$X_{ij} \sim NB(\mu_{ij}, \phi_i)$$

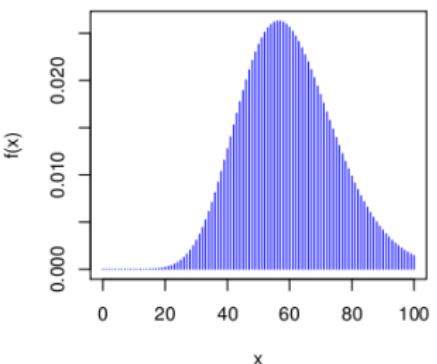
where:

- $E(X_{ij}) = \mu_{ij}$
- $Var(X_{ij}) = \mu_{ij} + \phi_i \mu_{ij}^2$
- ϕ_i is the **dispersion parameter**

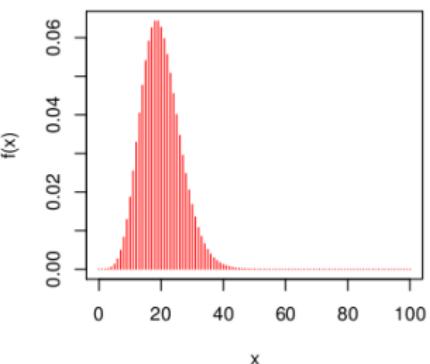
The variance is always larger than the mean for the negative binomial \Rightarrow suitable for RNA-seq data

Negative binomial distribution

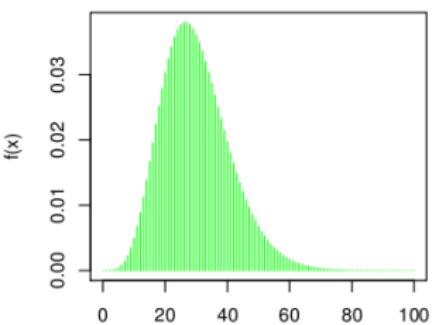
$\text{NB}(20 , 0.25)$



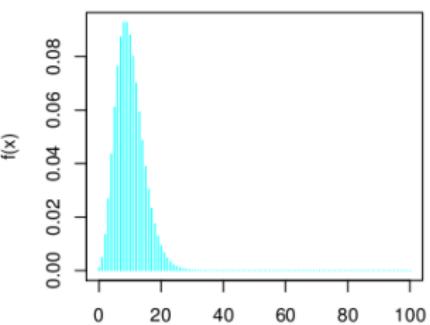
$\text{NB}(20 , 0.5)$



$\text{NB}(10 , 0.25)$



$\text{NB}(10 , 0.5)$



Many genes, few biological samples - difficult to estimate ϕ on a gene-by-gene basis

Some proposed solutions:

Method	Variance
DESeq	$\mu(1 + \phi\mu)$
edgeR	$\mu(1 + \phi\mu)$
NBPseq	$\mu(1 + \phi\mu^{\alpha-1})$

DESeq

data-driven relationship of variance and mean estimated using local regression for robust fit across genes

edgeR

Borrow information across genes for stable estimates of ϕ .
3 ways to estimate ϕ : common, trended, tagwise (moderated)

NBPSeq

NBP includes two parameters ϕ and α , estimated from all the genes

Some practical considerations

- Data must be input as **raw counts** (and not RPKM or FPKM values): normalization offsets are included in the model
- Each column should be an **independent biological replicate**
- Multi-factor designs now included
- Check out the DESeq Users'Guide for examples
[http://www.bioconductor.org/packages/devel/bioc/vignettes/
DESeq/inst/doc/DESeq.pdf](http://www.bioconductor.org/packages/devel/bioc/vignettes/DESeq/inst/doc/DESeq.pdf)
- **Version matters !**

Step 1 : creation of a CountDataSet object

```
> head(countTable)
```

	untreated3	untreated4	treated2	treated3
FBgn0000003	0	0	0	1
FBgn0000008	76	70	88	70
FBgn0000014	0	0	0	0
FBgn0000015	1	2	0	0

```
> condition
```

```
[1] untreated untreated treated treated
```

```
Levels: treated untreated
```

```
# We can now instantiate a CountDataSet (central data structure
# in the DESeq package)
> cds = newCountDataSet( countTable, condition )
```

Step 2 : Normalization

```
# estimate the effective library size
> cds <- estimateSizeFactors(cds)

> sizeFactors(cds)
treated2fb    treated3fb  untreated3fb  untreated4fb
1.297        1.042       0.818       0.911

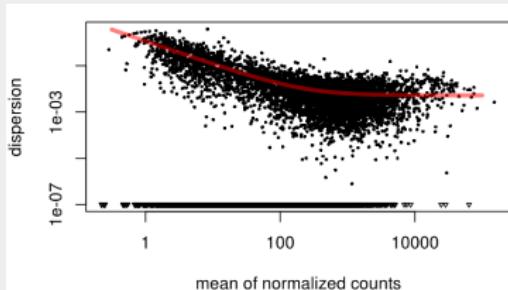
# If we divide each column of the count table by the size factor
for this column, the count values are brought to a common scale
```

```
> head( counts( cds, normalized=TRUE ) )
      untreated3  untreated4  treated2  treated3
FBgn0000003     0.00     0.00     0.0     0.897
FBgn0000008     87.05    69.27    86.1    62.803
FBgn0000014     0.00     0.00     0.0     0.000
FBgn0000015     1.15     1.98     0.0     0.000
```

Step 3: Differential analysis

```
> cds <- estimateDispersions(cds)
# estimates a dispersion value for each gene
# fits a curve through the estimates
# assigns to each gene a dispersion value
# (choice between the per-gene estimate and the fitted value)

> plotDispEsts(cds) # estimates against the mean normalized
counts
```



```
> res <- nbinomTest( cds, "untreated", "treated" )
```

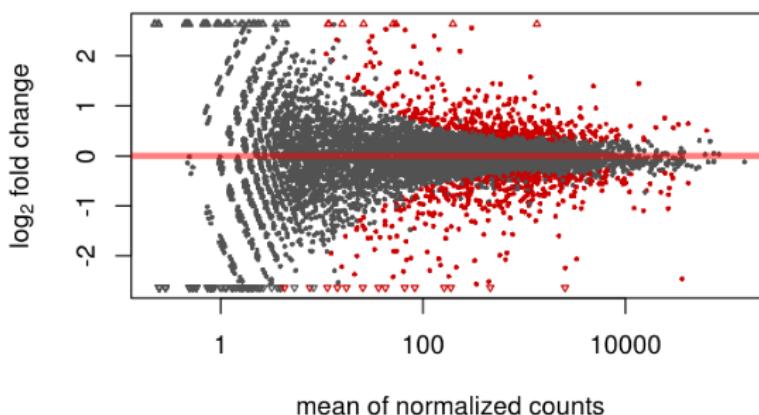
DESeq: Main commands

Results:

```
> head(res)
```

	id	baseMean	baseMeanA	baseMeanB	foldChange	log2FoldChange	pval	padj
FBgn0000008		91.78	93.05	90.51	0.973	-0.0399	1.000	1.000
FBgn0000014		1.93	0.00	3.85	Inf	Inf	0.378	0.913
FBgn0000017	3995.15	4340.18	3650.11	0.841	-0.2498	0.276	0.845	
FBgn0000018	344.22	342.43	346.01	1.010	0.0150	0.896	1.000	
FBgn0000024	5.65	4.09	7.21	1.763	0.8180	0.525	0.972	
FBgn0000032	1025.52	1038.25	1012.79	0.975	-0.0358	0.801	1.000	

```
> > plot(res$baseMean, res$log2FoldChange, log="x", pch=20, cex=.3,  
+ col = ifelse( res$padj < .1, "red", "black"))
```



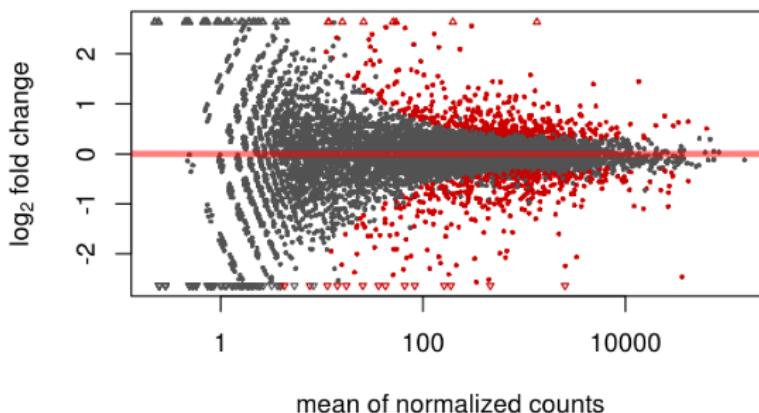
multiple testing correction: here genes are called DE if adjusted p-value are below 10% FDR

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What happens after a differential analysis?

Further analysis

- Test for enriched functional categories (i.e., do differentially expressed genes tend to share the same function?)
- Clustering of genes (i.e., co-expression analysis)
- Inference of gene networks
- Integration with other data (epigenomic, metabolomic, proteomic, ...)

Biological validation

- Gene knock-down experiments
- qPCR validation

Thank you !

* Slides inspired from Marine Jeanmougin, Julie Aubert, Laurent Jacob, Simon Anders, Michael Love and Peter N. Robinson