# Analyzing ChIP-chip data using Bioconductor

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## 1 Introduction

ChIP-chip, chromatin immunoprecipitation combined with DNA microarrays, is a currently widely used assay for DNA-protein binding and chromatin plasticity, which are of fundamental interest for the understanding of gene regulation.

The interpretation of ChIP-chip data poses two computational challenges: first, what can be termed primary statistical analysis, which includes quality assessment, data normalization and transformation, and the calling of regions of interest; second, integrative bioinformatic analysis, which interprets the data in the context of existing genome annotation and of related experimental results obtained, for example, from other ChIP-chip or (m)RNA abundance microarray experiments.

Both tasks rely heavily on visualization, which helps to explore the data as well as to present the analysis results. For the primary statistical analysis, a certain degree of standardization is possible and desirable: the experimental designs and microarray platforms that are used have enough in common to allow the development of relatively standard workflows and statistical procedures. Most software available for ChIP-chip data analysis can be employed in such standardized approaches [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6]. Yet even for primary analysis steps, it may be beneficial to adapt them to specific experiments, and hence it is desirable that software offers flexibility in the choice of algorithms used for normalization, visualization and identification of enriched regions.

For the second task, integrative bioinformatic analysis, the datasets, questions and the applicable methods are diverse, and a degree of flexibility is needed that often can only be achieved in a programmable environment.

Bioconductor [7] is an open source and open development software project for the analysis and comprehension of genomic data, and it offers tools that cover a broad range of computational methods, visualizations and experimental data types, and is designed to allow the construction of scalable, reproducible and interoperable workflows. A consequence of the wide range of functionality of Bioconductor and its concurrency with research progress in biology and computational statistics is that using its tools can be daunting for a new user. Here, we present a tutorial that covers the basics of ChIP-chip data analysis tasks with Bioconductor. Among the packages used are *Ringo* [5], *biomaRt* [8] and *topGO* [9].

This document has been written in the Sweave [10] format, which combines explanatory text and the actual R source code that has been used in this analysis [11]. One advantage of this format is that the analysis can easily be reproduced by the reader. An R package *ccTutorial* 

that contains the input data, the text and code presented here, as well as supplementary text and code is available from the Bioconductor web site.

```
> library("Ringo")
> library("biomaRt")
> library("topGO")
> library("ccTutorial")
```

## 1.1 The data

We consider a ChIP-chip data set on a post-translational modification of the tail of histone protein H3, namely tri-methylation of its Lysine residue 4, in short H3K4me3. H3K4me3 has been associated with active transcription (e.g., [12]). Here, enrichment for H3K4me3 was investigated in Mus musculus brain and heart cells. The microarray platform is a set of 4 arrays manufactured by NimbleGen containing 390k reporters each. The reporters were designed to tile 32,482 selected regions of the Mus musculus genome (assembly mm5) with one base every 100bp, with a different set of promoters represented on each of the four arrays. The data have been described before [13, Methods: Condensed array ChIP-chip]. We obtained the data from the Gene Expression Omnibus [14] (accession GSE7688).

# Glossary

Reporters are the DNA sequences fixed to the microarray; they are designed to specifically hybridize with corresponding genomic fragments from the immuno-precipitate. A reporter has a unique identifier and a unique sequence, and it can appear in one or multiple features on the array surface. The sample is the aliquot of immuno-precipitated or input DNA that is hybridized to the microarray. We shall call a genomic region apparently enriched by ChIP a ChIP-enriched region.

# 2 Importing the data into R

For each microarray, the scanner output consists of two files, one holding the Cy3 intensities (the untreated *input* sample), the other one the Cy5 intensities, coming from the immuno-precipitated sample. These files are tab-delimited text files in NimbleGen's *pair* format. Since the reporters are distributed over 4 arrays, for each sample, we have 8 files  $(4 \text{ microarrays} \times 2 \text{ dyes})$ .

```
> pairDir <- system.file("PairData",package="ccTutorial")
> list.files(pairDir, pattern="pair$")

[1] "47101_532.pair" "47101_635.pair" "48153_532.pair" "48153_635.pair"
[5] "48158_532.pair" "48158_635.pair" "48170_532.pair" "48170_635.pair"
[9] "48175_532.pair" "48175_635.pair" "48180_532.pair" "48180_635.pair"
[13] "48182_532.pair" "48182_635.pair" "49728_532.pair" "49728_635.pair"
```

In addition, there is one text file per array type that holds details on the samples, including which two *pair* files belong to which sample, and one file spottypes.text describing the reporter categories on the array.

>From these files, we can read in the raw reporter intensities and obtain four objects of class RGList, a class defined in package limma [15], one object per array type.

```
> RGs <- lapply(sprintf("files_array%d.txt",1:4),
+ readNimblegen, "spottypes.txt", path=pairDir)</pre>
```

See the Supplement for an extended description of the data import.

## 3 Quality assessment

The next step is quality assessment of the data. We check the arrays for obvious artifacts and inconsistencies between array subsets.

First, we look at the spatial distribution of the intensities on the array. See Figure S1 and the Supplement text for the source code. We do not see any obvious artifacts such as scratches, bright spots, or finger prints that would render parts of the readouts useless.

On all arrays in our set, the Cy3 channel holds the intensities from the untreated *input* sample, and the Cy5 channel holds the ChIP result for brain and heart, respectively. This experiment setup is reflected in the reporter intensity correlation per channel (see Figure S3). The correlation between the intensities of the *input* samples is higher than between the ChIP samples (0.877 versus 0.734).

The Bioconductor package arrayQualityMetrics [16] offers an extensive set of visualizations and metrics for assessing microarray data quality. Applied to this data set, arrayQuality-Metrics also indicates the data are of good quality.

# 4 Mapping reporters to the genome

A mapping of reporters to genomic coordinates is usually provided by the array manufacturer. For a variety of reasons, however, remapping the reporter sequences to the genome may be useful. Here, the microarray had been designed on an outdated, incomplete assembly of the mouse genome (mm5, May 2004). The reporter sequences need to be remapped to the current, almost final assembly of the mouse genome (mm9, July 2007). Remapping also provides the advantage that you can specify custom criteria for what degree of sequence identity you require for a match and for uniqueness of a match.

We have used Exonerate [17] for the remapping, requiring 97% sequence similarity for a match. See the Supplement for more details and the used scripts.

Once reporters have been mapped to the genome, this mapping needs to be made available to the data analysis functions in R. Ringo employs a probeAnno structure to describe the mapping. From the Exonerate result file allChromExonerateOut.txt, the function posToProbeAnno generates such a probeAnno object.

```
> probeAnno <- posToProbeAnno(file.path(system.file("exonerateData",
   package="ccTutorial"), "allChromExonerateOut.txt"))
> allChrs <- chromosomeNames(probeAnno)
```

### 5 Genome annotation

We want to relate ChIP-enriched regions to annotated genome elements, such as potential regulatory regions and transcribed regions. Using the Bioconductor package biomaRt [8], we obtain an up-to-date annotation of the mouse genome from the Ensembl database [18].

The source code for creating the annotation table mm9genes is given in the Supplement. This table holds the coordinates, Ensembl gene identifiers, MGI symbols, and description of all genes annotated for the mm9 mouse assembly.

```
> data("mm9genes")
> mm9genes[sample(nrow(mm9genes), 4),
     c("name", "chr", "strand", "start", "end", "symbol")]
                    name chr strand
                                                                 symbol
                                         start
                                                      end
      ENSMUSG00000057903
                           14
                                   1
                                      51044196
                                                 51045125
                                                                01fr739
10209 ENSMUSG00000039615
                           17
                                      25967581
                                                 25970306
                                                                  Stub1
15715 ENSMUSG00000068823
```

3

9

Moreover, using biomaRt we have retrieved the Gene Ontology (GO)[19] annotation for all genes in the table. Find the source code and further details in the Supplement.

1 102824530 102862108

21731915

Csde1

21740316 2510048L02Rik

```
> data("mm9.gene2GO")
```

24914 ENSMUSG00000006241

Finally, we create a mapping of gene identifiers to reporters that are mapped inside the gene or in its 5kb upstream region.

```
> mm9.g2p <- features2Probes(gff=mm9genes, probeAnno=probeAnno)
```

For later use, we determine which genes have a sufficient number - arbitrarily we say 5 - of reporters mapped to their upstream region or inside of them and the subset of them having at least one GO term annotated to them.

```
> arrayGenes <- names(mm9.g2p)[listLen(mm9.g2p)>=5]
> arrayGenesWithGO <- intersect(arrayGenes, names(mm9.gene2GO))</pre>
```

## 6 Preprocessing

Following quality assessment of the raw data, for each sample, we compute the log<sub>2</sub> ratios log<sub>2</sub>(Cy5/Cy3) for all reporters. To adjust for systematic dye and labeling biases, we compute Tukey's biweight mean across each sample's  $\log_2$  ratios and subtract it from the individual  $\log_2$  ratios. Each of the four microarray types used contains a unique set of reporters. Thus, we preprocess the arrays separately by type and afterwards combine the results into one object holding the preprocessed readouts for all reporters.

```
> MAs <- lapply(RGs, function(thisRG)
+ preprocess(thisRG[thisRG$genes$Status=="Probe",],
+ method="nimblegen", returnMAList=TRUE))
> MA <- do.call(rbind, MAs)
> X <- asExprSet(MA)
> sampleNames(X) <- paste(X$Cy5, X$Tissue, sep=".")</pre>
```

The result is an object of class *ExpressionSet*, the Bioconductor class for storing preprocessed microarray data. Note that first creating an *MAList* for each array type, combining them with rbind and then converting the result into an *ExpressionSet* is only necessary if the reporters are distributed over more than one microarray type (four in this case). For data of one microarray type only, you can call preprocess with argument returnMAList=FALSE and directly obtain the result as an *ExpressionSet*.

The above procedure is the standard method suggested by NimbleGen for these arrays. More sophisticated methods exist that, for example, attempt reporter sequence specific background correction, non-linear intensity dependent gain adjustments, or normalize using the genomic DNA hybridization as reference [20]. However, due to the smaller dynamic range of the data in the input channel such additional effort seems to be less worthwhile than, say, for transcription microarrays.

# 7 Visualizing intensities along the chromosome

We visualize the preprocessed H3K4me3 ChIP-chip reporter-wise readouts around the start of the *Actc1* gene, which encodes the cardiac actin protein.

```
> chipAlongChrom(X, chrom="2", xlim=c(113.873e6,113.883e6), ylim=c(-3,5),
+ probeAnno=probeAnno, gff=mm9genes, paletteName='Set2')
```

The degree of H3K4me3 enrichment over the reporters mapped to this region seems stronger in heart cells than in brain cells (see Figure 1). However, the signal is highly variable and individual reporters give different readouts from reporters matching genomic positions only 100bp away, even though the DNA fragments after sonication are hundreds of base pairs long.

See Figure S4 for the corresponding intensities around the start of the gene *Crpm1*, which has been reported as being expressed in brain cells [21]. For *Crpm1*, the intensities on average are higher in brain than in heart, but the intensities display a high variance.

# 8 Smoothing of reporter intensities

The signal variance arises from systematic and stochastic noise. Individual reporters measure the same amount of DNA with different efficiency due to reporter sequence characteristics [22], such as GC content, secondary structure, and cross-hybridization. To ameliorate

# Chromosome 2 Coordinate [bp] 113874000 113876000 113880000 113882000 H3K4me3.brain H3K4me3.heart A Actc1

Figure 1: Normalized reporter intensities for H3K4me3 ChIP around the TSS of the Actc1 gene in M. musculus brain and heart cells. The ticks below the genomic coordinate axis on top indicate genomic positions matched by reporters on the microarray. The blue arrows on the bottom mark the Actc1 gene with the arrow direction indicating that the gene is located on the Crick strand.

these reporter effects as well as the stochastic noise, we perform a smoothing over individual reporter intensities before looking for ChIP-enriched regions. We slide a window of 900 bp width along the chromosome and replace the intensity at genomic position  $x_0$  by the median over the intensities of those reporters inside the window centered at  $x_0$ . Factors to take into account when choosing the width of the sliding window are the size distribution of DNA fragments after sonication and the spacing between reporter matches on the genome.

```
> smoothX <- computeRunningMedians(X, probeAnno=probeAnno,
+ modColumn="Tissue", allChr=allChrs, winHalfSize=450, min.probes=5)
> sampleNames(smoothX) <- paste(sampleNames(X), "smoothed", sep=".")</pre>
```

Compare the smoothed reporter intensities with the original ones around the start of the gene Actc1.

```
> chipAlongChrom(X, chrom="2", xlim=c(113.873e6,113.883e6), ylim=c(-3,5),
+ probeAnno=probeAnno, gff=mm9genes, paletteName='Set2')
> chipAlongChrom(smoothX, chrom="2", xlim=c(113.873e6,113.883e6),
+ probeAnno=probeAnno,ilwd=4, paletteName='Dark2', add=TRUE)
```

See the result in Figure 2. After smoothing, the reporters give a more concise picture that there is H3K4me3 enrichment inside and upstream of *Actc1* in heart but not in brain cells.

# 9 Finding ChIP-enriched regions

We would like to determine a discrete set of regions that appear antibody-enriched, together with a quantitative score of our confidence in that and a measure of their enrichment

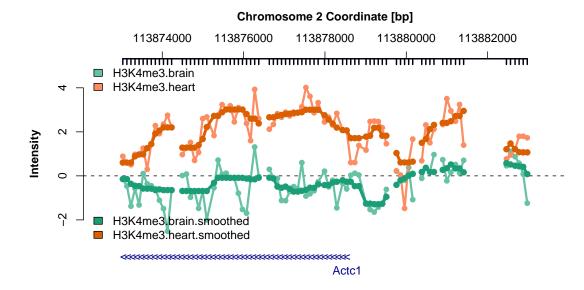


Figure 2: Normalized and smoothed reporter intensities for H3K4me3 ChIP around the TSS of the Actc1 gene in M. musculus brain and heart cells.

strength. Which approach is best for this purpose depends on the microarray design, on the biological question and on the subsequent use of the regions e.g. in a follow-up experiment or computational analysis. Below, we describe one approach we have found useful, but before we want to discuss two more conceptual aspects.

In the literature, a computed confidence score is often mixed up with the term "p-value". We note that speaking of a p-value is meaningful only if there is a defined null hypothesis and a probability interpretation; and that these complications are not necessary if the goal is simply to find and rank regions in some way that can be reasonably calibrated.

Furthermore, it is helpful to distinguish between our confidence in an enrichment being present, and the strength of the enrichment. Although stronger enrichments tend to result in stronger signals and hence less ambiguous calls, our certainty about an enrichment can also be affected by reporter coverage, sequence, cross-hybridization etc.

Let us now consider the following simple approach: for an enriched regions, require that the smoothed reporter intensities all exceed a certain threshold  $y_0$ , that the region contains at least  $n_{\min}$  reporter match positions, and that each reporter-mapped position is less than  $d_{\max}$  basepairs from the nearest other affected position in the region.

The minimum number of reporters rule  $(n_{\min})$  might at first seem redundant with the smoothing median computation (since a smoothed reporter intensity is already the median of all the reporter intensities in the window), but it plays its role in reporter sparse regions, where a window may only contain one or a few reporters. One wants to avoid making calls supported only by few reporters. The  $d_{\max}$  rule prevents us from calling disconnected regions.

For setting the threshold  $y_0$ , the probably best approach would be to tune it by considering a set of positive and negative control regions. As such control regions are not available with the current data, we choose a mixture modeling approach.

We can assume that the distribution density f(y) of the smoothed reporter intensities y is

a mixture of two underlying distribution densities,

$$f(y) = (1 - \lambda)f_0(y) + \lambda f_{\text{alt}}(y), \tag{1}$$

where  $f_0(y)$  is the null distribution of reporters in non-enriched regions,  $f_{\text{alt}}(y)$  is the alternative distribution of reporters in enriched regions, and  $\lambda \in [0,1]$  is the mixture fraction. The problem at hand is how to estimate  $f_0$ . Let us look at histograms of the smoothed reporter levels.

```
> y0 <- apply(exprs(smoothX), 2, upperBoundNull, prob=0.99)
> myPanelHistogram <- function(x, ...){
+ panel.histogram(x, col=brewer.pal(8,"Dark2")[panel.number()], ...)
+ panel.abline(v=y0[panel.number()], col="red")
+ }
> h = histogram(~ y | z,
+ data = data.frame(
+ y = as.vector(exprs(smoothX)),
+ z = rep(X$Tissue, each = nrow(smoothX))),
+ layout = c(1,2), nint = 50,
+ xlab = "smoothed reporter intensity [log2]",
+ panel = myPanelHistogram)
> print(h)
```

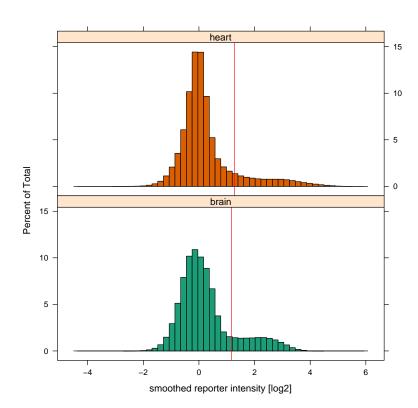


Figure 3: Histograms of reporter intensities after smoothing of reporter levels, measured in M. musculus heart and brain cells. The red vertical lines are the cutoff values suggested by the algorithm described in the text.

The first line of the code above already computes the suggested thresholds, which we will explain below. The resulting histograms are shown in Figure 3. They suggest that the null distribution  $f_0$  is a localized distribution with a peak whose mode  $m_0$  is near y = 0. We estimate  $m_0$  as the shorth of f(y) for  $y \in [-1, 1]$ .

In contrast,  $f_{\text{alt}}(y)$  is more spread out, with values mostly well above 0. We now consider the following estimator of  $f_0$ :

$$\hat{f}_0(y) = f(m_0 - |y - m_0|) \tag{2}$$

that is, we assume that  $f_0$  is identical with the empirical distribution of y for  $y < m_0$ , and that it is symmetric about  $m_0$ , which determines its shape for  $y > m_0$ . These assumptions imply that the alternative distribution is stochastically larger than the null distribution and that it contains negligible mass at  $y < m_0$ . From  $\hat{f}_0(y)$  we can estimate an upper bound  $y_0$ , for example we take the 99% quantile of  $\hat{f}_0(y)$ .

The values  $y_0$  estimated in this way are indicated by red vertical lines in the histograms in Figure 3. Antibodies vary in their efficiency to bind to their target epitope, and the noise level in the data depends on the complexity of the sample DNA. We suggest to compute  $y_0$  separately for each antibody and tissue.

The algorithm described above has been used in the literature, for example in [23]. There are also algorithms that use more complex models of ChIP-chip data [24, 25].

We are now ready to identify H3K4me3 ChIP-enriched regions in the data. We set  $n_{\min} = 5$  and  $d_{\max} = 450$ .

```
> chersX <- findChersOnSmoothed(smoothX,
+    probeAnno = probeAnno,
+    thresholds = y0,
+    allChr = allChrs,
+    distCutOff = 450,
+    minProbesInRow = 5,
+    cellType = X$Tissue)</pre>
```

We relate found ChIP-enriched regions to gene coordinates we retrieved from Ensembl (see Section 5). We decide to regard an enriched region as *related* to a gene if its middle position is located less than 5 kb upstream of a gene's start coordinate or between a gene's start and end coordinates, as they are annotated in the Ensembl database.

```
> chersX <- relateChers(chersX, mm9genes, upstream=5000)</pre>
```

One characteristic of enriched regions that can be used for ranking them is the area under the curve score, that is the sum of the smoothed reporter levels each minus the threshold. Alternatively, one can rank them by the highest smoothed reporter level in the enriched region.

```
> chersXD <- as.data.frame(chersX)
> head(chersXD[
+ order(chersXD$maxLevel, decreasing=TRUE),
+ c("chr", "start", "end", "cellType", "features", "maxLevel", "score")])
```

	${\tt chr}$	chr start		end	cellType		features
21721	X	733	38726	7343630	heart		ENSMUSG00000000134
22035	X	9883	34348	98838572	heart		ENSMUSG00000034160
13847	17	1050	08374	10511376	heart		ENSMUSG00000062078
22165	X	14823	36854	148239554	heart		ENSMUSG00000025261
12760	15	1041	14592	10416734	heart	ENSMUSG00000022248	ENSMUSG00000022247
14193	17	3597	72156	35975830	heart	ENSMUSG00000061607	ENSMUSG00000001525
	maxI	Level	score	)			
21721		5.56	83.6	3			
22035		5.45	93.1	L			
13847		5.44	76.3	3			
22165		5.40	80.3	3			
12760		5.39	53.2	2			
14193		5.37	62.1	<u> </u>			

We visualize the intensities around the region with the highest smoothed level.

```
> plot(chersX[[which.max(chersXD$maxLevel)]], smoothX, ylim=c(-1,6),
+ probeAnno=probeAnno, gff=mm9genes, paletteName="Dark2")
```

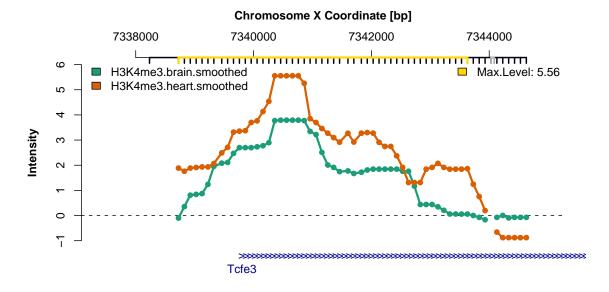


Figure 4: The genomic region that scores highest for H3K4me3 enrichment.

Figure 4 displays this region, which covers the gene Tcfe3.

# 10 Comparing ChIP-enrichment between the tissues

There are a number of ways to compare the H3K4me3 enrichment between the two tissues. How many ChIP-enriched regions do we find in each tissue?

> table(chersXD\$cellType)

```
brain heart
11852 10391
```

Brain cells show a higher number of H3K4me3-enriched regions than heart cells. Which genes show tissue-specific association to H3K4me3 ChIP-enriched regions?

```
> brainGenes <- getFeats(chersX[sapply(chersX, cellType)=="brain"])
> heartGenes <- getFeats(chersX[sapply(chersX, cellType)=="heart"])
> brainOnlyGenes <- setdiff(brainGenes, heartGenes)
> heartOnlyGenes <- setdiff(heartGenes, brainGenes)</pre>
```

The lengths of these four just generated vectors indicate the following. Of the 11524 genes showing H3K4me3 enrichment in brain cells, 8855 (76.8%) do so in heart cells as well. And of the 9669 genes that are related to H3K4me3 ChIP-enriched regions in heart cells, 91.6% show that relation in brain cells, too.

We use the Bioconductor package topGO [9] to investigate whether tissue-specific H3K4me3-enriched genes can be summarized by certain biological themes. topGO employs the Fisher test to assess whether among a list of genes, the fraction annotated with a certain Gene Ontology term is significantly higher than expected by chance from all genes that are represented on the microarrays and have at least one GO term annotated. We set a p-value cutoff of 0.001 and the evaluation starts from the most specific GO nodes in a bottom-up approach with the genes that are used for evaluating one node not being used for evaluating any of its ancestor nodes [9, elim algorithm].

```
> sigGOTable <- function(selGenes, GOgenes=arrayGenesWithGO,
   gene2GO=mm9.gene2GO[arrayGenesWithGO], ontology="BP", maxP=0.001)
+ {
    inGenes <- factor(as.integer(GOgenes %in% selGenes))</pre>
    names(inGenes) <- GOgenes
    GOdata <- new("topGOdata", ontology=ontology, allGenes=inGenes,
                   annot=annFUN.gene2GO, gene2GO=gene2GO)
+
    myTestStat <- new("elimCount", testStatistic=GOFisherTest,</pre>
                       name="Fisher test", cutOff=maxP)
    mySigGroups <- getSigGroups(GOdata, myTestStat)</pre>
    sTab <- GenTable(GOdata, mySigGroups, topNodes=length(usedGO(GOdata)))</pre>
    names(sTab)[length(sTab)] <- "p.value"
    sTab <- subset(sTab, as.numeric(p.value) < maxP)</pre>
    sTab$Term <- sapply(mget(sTab$GO.ID, env=GOTERM), Term)</pre>
    return(sTab)
+ }
> brainRes <- sigGOTable(brainOnlyGenes)</pre>
> print(brainRes)
```

See the result GO terms in Table 1. We perform the same analysis for genes showing heart-specific relation to H3K4me3 enrichment.

```
> heartRes <- sigGOTable(heartOnlyGenes)
> print(heartRes)
```

GO.ID	Term	Annotated	Significant	Expected	p.value
GO:0007268	synaptic transmission	137	44	24.65	3.7e-05
GO:0007610	behavior	180	54	32.39	4.4e-05
GO:0007409	axonogenesis	119	38	21.41	0.00014
GO:0006887	exocytosis	40	17	7.20	0.00026
GO:0007420	brain development	136	40	24.47	0.00066

Table 1: GO terms that are significantly over-represented among genes showing H3K4me3 enrichment specifically in brain cells

See the result in Table 2. Genes that show H3K4me3 in brain but not in heart cells are significantly often involved in neuron-specific biological processes. Genes marked by H3K4me3 specifically in heart cells show known cardiomyocyte functions, amongst others.

One could repeat this process using the *cellular component* and *molecular function* ontologies of the GO. Besides GO, other databases that collect gene lists can be used for this kind of gene set enrichment analysis. For, example the Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) [26] is also readily available in Bioconductor.

In the supplement, we present an additional way for comparing H3K4me3 enrichment between the two tissue, an enriched-region-wise comparison considering the actual overlap of the enriched regions.

# 11 ChIP results and expression microarray data

We compare the H3K4me3 ChIP-chip results with the expression microarray data, which Barrera et al. [13] provide for the same five M. musculus tissues they analyzed with ChIP-chip.

## > data("barreraExpressionX")

The data were generated using the Mouse\_430\_2 oligonucleotide microarray platform from Affymetrix and preprocessed using Affymetrix's MAS5 method. Using biomaRt, we created a mapping of Ensembl gene identifiers to the probe set identifiers on that microarray platform (see the Supplement for the source code).

## > data("arrayGenesToProbeSets")

GO.ID	Term	Annotated	Significant	Expected	p.value
GO:0006936	muscle contraction	56	13	2.95	4.5e-06
GO:0002526	acute inflammatory response	17	6	0.90	0.00015
GO:0009887	organ morphogenesis	339	34	17.86	0.00017
GO:0008016	regulation of heart contraction	32	8	1.69	0.00019
GO:0030878	thyroid gland development	7	4	0.37	0.00023
GO:0007512	adult heart development	8	4	0.42	0.00045
GO:0055003	cardiac myofibril assembly	4	3	0.21	0.00056
GO:0007507	heart development	148	21	7.80	0.00085

Table 2: GO terms that are significantly over-represented among genes showing H3K4me3 enrichment specifically in heart cells

We obtain the expression values for genes related to H3K4me3-enriched regions in heart or brain cells.

We use boxplots to compare the brain expression levels of genes with and without H3K4me3 enriched regions in brain/heart cells.

See the boxplots in Figure 5. Genes related to H3K4me3 ChIP-enriched regions show higher expression levels than those that are not, as we can assess using the Wilcoxon rank sum test.

```
> with(brainExpression,
+ wilcox.test(H3K4me3BrainYesHeartNo, H3K4me3BrainNoHeartNo,
+ alternative="greater"))

Wilcoxon rank sum test with continuity correction
```

data: H3K4me3BrainYesHeartNo and H3K4me3BrainNoHeartNo
W = 88159233, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true location shift is greater than 0</pre>

## 12 Discussion

We have shown how to use the freely available tools R and Bioconductor for the analysis of ChIP-chip data. We have shown ways to assess data quality, to visualize the data and to find ChIP-enriched regions.

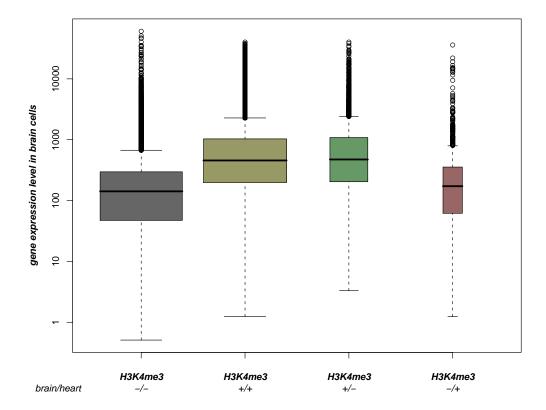


Figure 5: Boxplots for comparing gene expression levels in brain cells. Genes are stratified by whether or not they are related to H3K4me3 ChIP-enriched regions in brain and/or heart cells according to ChIP-chip. The width of the boxes is proportional to the number of genes in each stratification group.

Besides the ones introduced here, there are other Bioconductor packages that provide further functionality, e.g. ACME [27], oliqo and tilingArray [20].

For analyses that go beyond pairwise comparisons of samples and use more complex (multi-)factorial experimental designs or retrospective studies of collections of tissues from patients, the package *limma* [15] offers a powerful statistical modeling interface and facilitates computation of appropriate reporter-wise statistics.

We also demonstrated a few conceivable follow-up investigations. Bioconductor allows for easy integration of ChIP-chip results with other resources, such as annotated genome elements, gene expression data or DNA-protein interaction networks.

## Software versions

This tutorial was generated using the following package versions:

- R version 2.8.0 Under development (unstable) (2008-05-28 r45808), x86\_64-unknown-linux-gnu
- Locale: LC\_CTYPE=en\_US.ISO-8859-1;LC\_NUMERIC=C;LC\_TIME=en\_US.ISO-8859-1;LC\_COLLATE=en\_US.ISO-8859-1
- Base packages: base, datasets, graphics, grDevices, methods, splines, stats, tools, utils

- Other packages: affy 1.17.2, affyio 1.5.11, annotate 1.17.2, AnnotationDbi 1.3.0, Biobase 2.1.0, biomaRt 1.11.15, ccTutorial 0.9.1, codetools 0.2-1, DBI 0.2-4, digest 0.3.1, fortunes 1.3-3, genefilter 1.21.0, geneplotter 1.19.0, GO.db 2.2.0, graph 1.19.0, lattice 0.17-8, limma 2.15.0, preprocessCore 0.99.21, RColorBrewer 1.0-2, RCurl 0.9-3, Ringo 1.5.3, RSQLite 0.6-8, SparseM 0.77, survival 2.34-1, topGO 1.8.1, vsn 3.7.0, weaver 1.5.0, xtable 1.5-2
- Loaded via a namespace (and not attached): cluster 1.11.8, grid 2.8.0, KernSmooth 2.22-22, XML 1.92-1

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