

Differential expression analysis of RNA-Seq data

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Data processing for between sample comparison

- In this example,
 - The sequencing depth (library size) of sample 2 is 1.5x that of sample 1
 - The expression of gene 3 in sample 2 is 2x as high as expression in sample 1
 - There is no difference in expression in gene 1 or gene 2

	Sample 1	Sample 2
Gene 1	10	15
Gene 2	20	30
Gene 3	10	30
N (library size)	40	75

What happens if we adjust for library size, as is the case for RPKM/FPKM?

- Divide sample 1 read counts by 40
- Divide sample 2 read counts by 75

(In RPKM/FPKM, we also multiply by 1 million, and scale each row by the gene length in kilobases; however neither of these impact the relative values of a gene across samples)

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	Sample 1	Sample 2
Gene 1	.25	0.2
Gene 2	.50	0.4
Gene 3	.25	0.4
Total	1	1

Because only gene 3 is differentially expressed, an appropriate method would show a difference *only* in gene 3 across samples. However, with RPKM/FPKM we see that:

- All gene values are different across samples
- This is because "if a large number of genes are unique to, or highly expressed in, one experimental condition, the sequencing 'real estate' available for the remaining genes in that sample is decrease"

(<https://genomebiology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/gb-2010-11-3-r25>)

Trimmed Mean of M values (TMM)*

- The fold change (FC) of a gene is the ratio of values across samples
 - e.g., FC of gene 1 is $s2_value / s1_value = 15 / 10 = 1.5$
 - If a gene's expression is consistent across samples, then $FC \sim 1$
- The goal is to make the FC between most genes as close to 1 as possible
 - (assumption is that most genes are not differentially expressed)

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	Sample 1	Sample 2	M = FC*
Gene 1	10	15	$15 / 10 = 1.5$
Gene 2	20	30	$30 / 20 = 1.5$
Gene 3	10	30	$30 / 10 = 3.0$

The TMM normalization factors (library sizes) are calculated by taking a weighted average of the M values, but

- The M values are "trimmed" by 30% (we remove the largest 30% and lowest 30% of M values – we remove outlier genes or those that are differentially expressed)
- Genes with very high expression (top 5%) are also removed
- In this example, we ignore the M value of 3 and take the average of the others, which is 1.5. This is the normalization factor for sample 2.

*This is a simplification, but is enough to demonstrate the idea. For details, see the publication:

<https://genomebiology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/gb-2010-11-3-r25>

Trimmed Mean of M values (TMM)

- We find the TMM values by dividing each column by its normalization factor

	Sample 1	Sample 2
Gene 1	$10 / 1 = 10$	$15 / 1.5 = 10$
Gene 2	$20 / 1 = 20$	$30 / 1.5 = 20$
Gene 3	$10 / 1 = 10$	$30 / 1.5 = 20$
Normalization factor	1	1.5

The findings indicate that:

- The expression of gene 1 is the same in both samples
- The expression of gene 2 is the same in both samples
- The expression of gene 3 is twice as high in sample 2 than it is in sample 1

With TMM normalization, we can accurately compare values across samples (even though the library size for sample 2 was 1.5x the library size of sample 1)

Identification of Differentially Expressed Genes

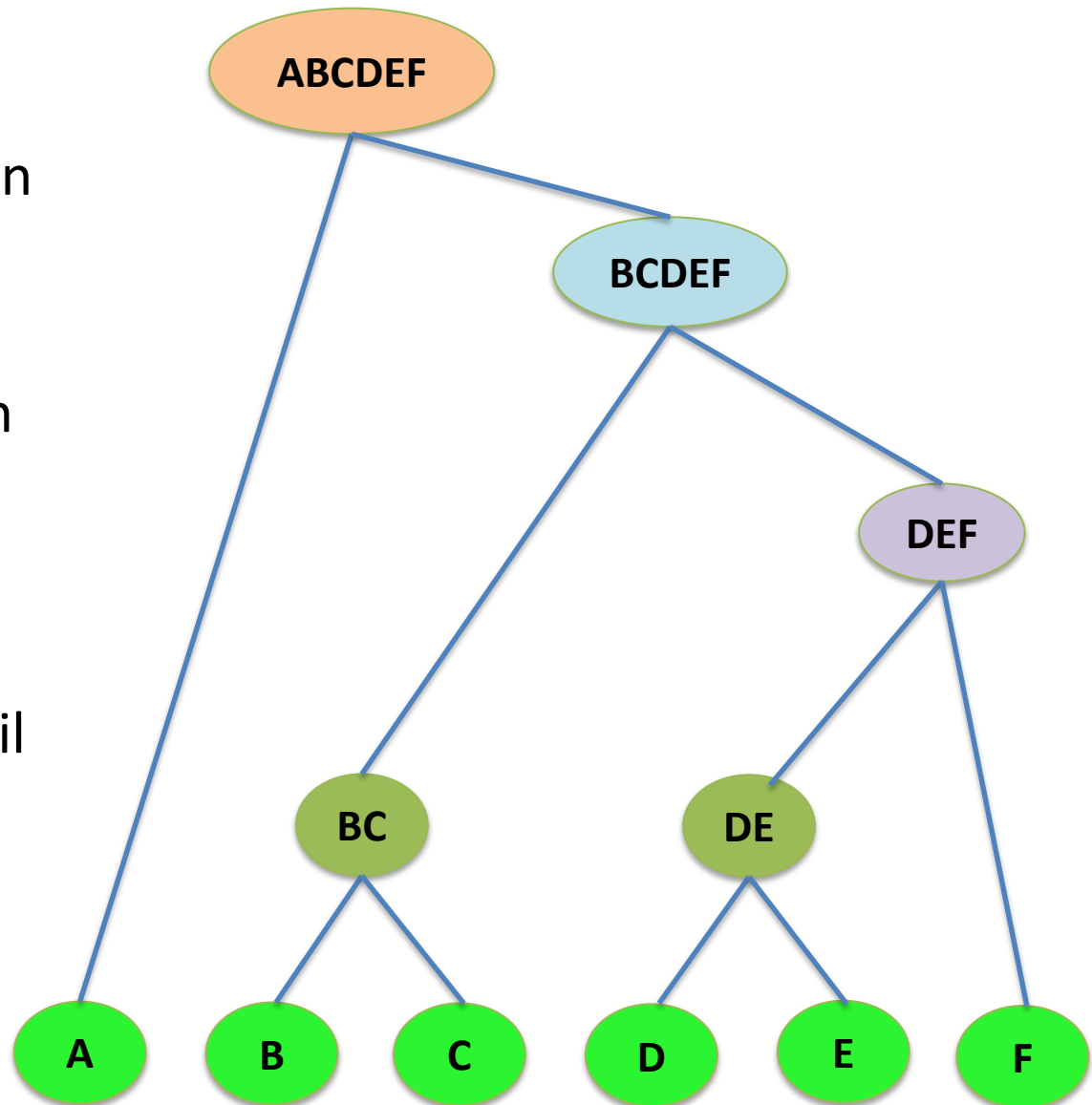
- Concerns:
 - Multiple comparison problem
 - Type I error probability (typically 5%) does not hold when you have multiple comparisons
 - If **no** genes are differentially expressed, and we analyzed 20,000 genes, there would be 1,000 false positives at significance level of 0.05!
 - In practice, p-values are adjusted to a false discovery rate (FDR, also called a q-value), which is the expected proportion of false positives in list of genes with adjusted p-values \leq FDR
 - Reliable and robust estimates of standard deviation
 - Repeating the analysis using just one more or one less sample could produce very different results.
- We will use the *limma* package in *R* which addresses both of these concerns

Limma: Linear Models for Microarray and RNA-Seq Data

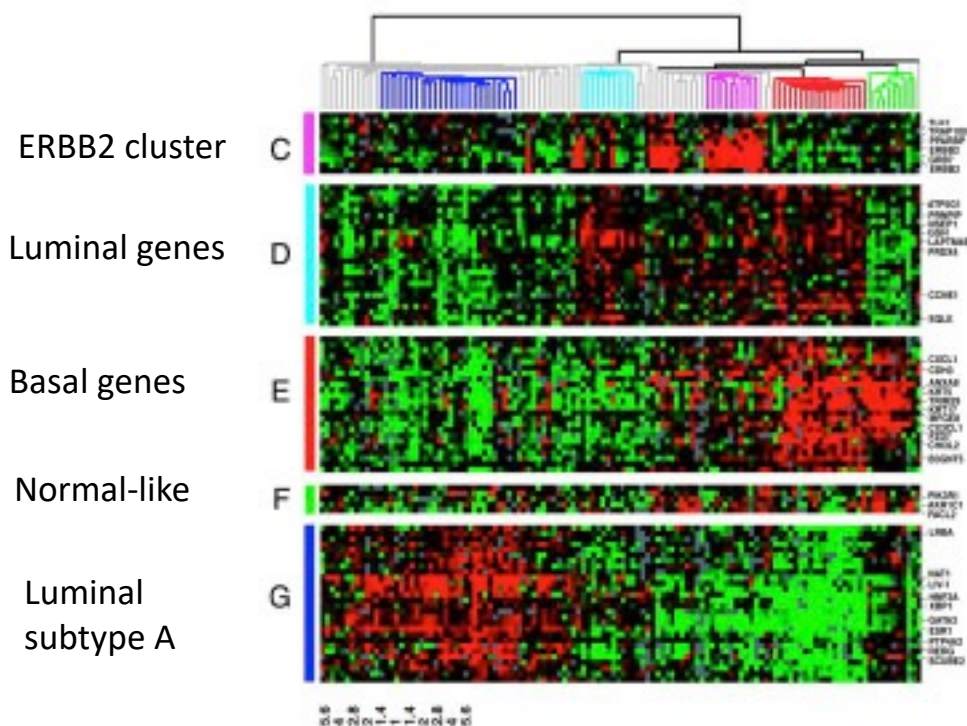
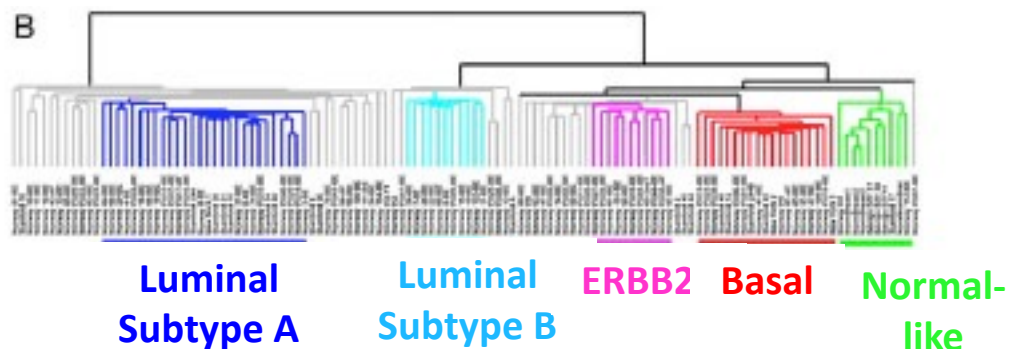
- Limma uses a linear model to model expression data and tests for statistical significance using a *moderated t-test*:
 - $\log_2 \text{cpm} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots$
 - TMM normalization is recommended, prior to calculating log2 cpm values
 - x_1 is a coded variable denoting group membership (e.g., tumor vs normal)
 - But to understand this, let's look at *contrasts.R*
- User guide:
 - <https://www.bioconductor.org/packages/devel/bioc/vignettes/limma/inst/doc/usersguide.pdf> (we will follow Chapter 15: RNA-Seq data)
- Publications:
 - Ritchie ME, Phipson B, Wu D, Hu Y, Law CW, Shi W, Smyth GK. limma powers differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing and microarray studies. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2015 Apr 20;43(7):e47. doi: 10.1093/nar/gkv007. Epub 2015 Jan 20. PMID: 25605792; PMCID: PMC4402510. <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/25605792/>
 - Law, C.W., Chen, Y., Shi, W. *et al.* voom: precision weights unlock linear model analysis tools for RNA-seq read counts. *Genome Biol* **15**, R29 (2014). <https://doi.org/10.1186/gb-2014-15-2-r29>

Hierarchical agglomerative ("bottom up") clustering groups samples by similarity

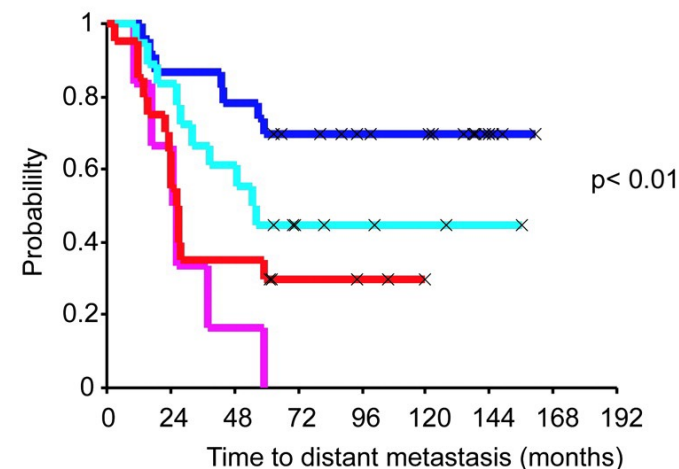
- Each observation starts in its own cluster
- Pairwise distances are calculated between each cluster
- The two most similar clusters are merged
- This process repeats until there is only one cluster



Hierarchical clustering of gene expression data identifies intrinsic breast cancer subtypes

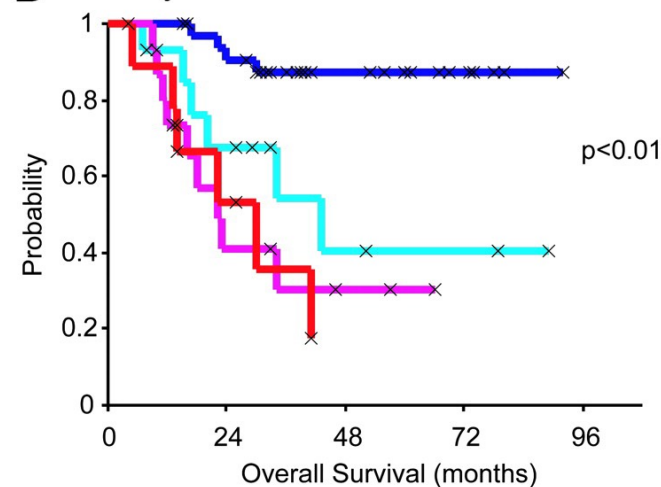


A van't Veer data set



× Censored, — Luminal A, — Luminal B, — Basal, — ERBB2

B Norway/Stanford data set

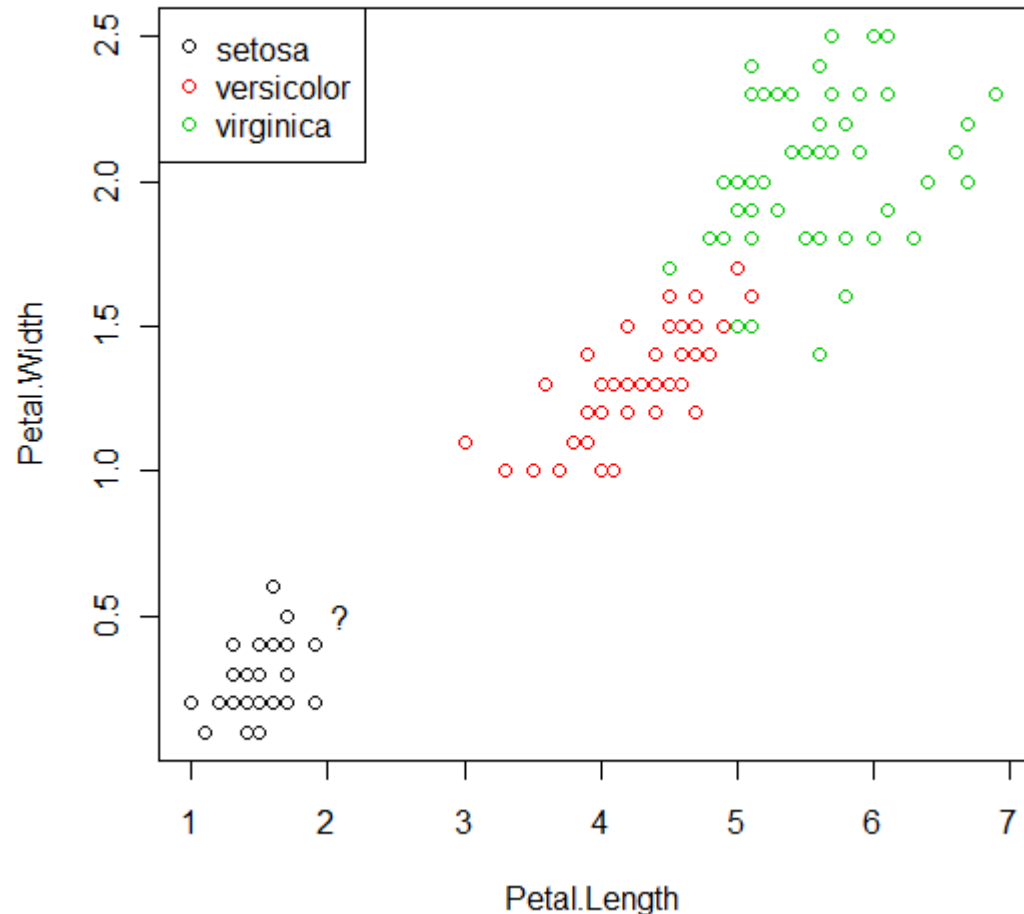


Classification Methods

- Objective: Identify the class of an individual (e.g., male or female) based on observed features (e.g., gene expression levels)
- Classes: c_1, c_2, \dots, c_m Features: x_1, \dots, x_k
- General Procedure
 - Train the classifier: Using a *training* data set, determine the mapping function $f(x) \rightarrow c$
 - Validation: assess the accuracy of the classifier by applying it to a *test* data set with known classes
 - Independent validation
 - Leave one out cross validation
 - K-fold cross validation
 - Classification / prediction of target data set

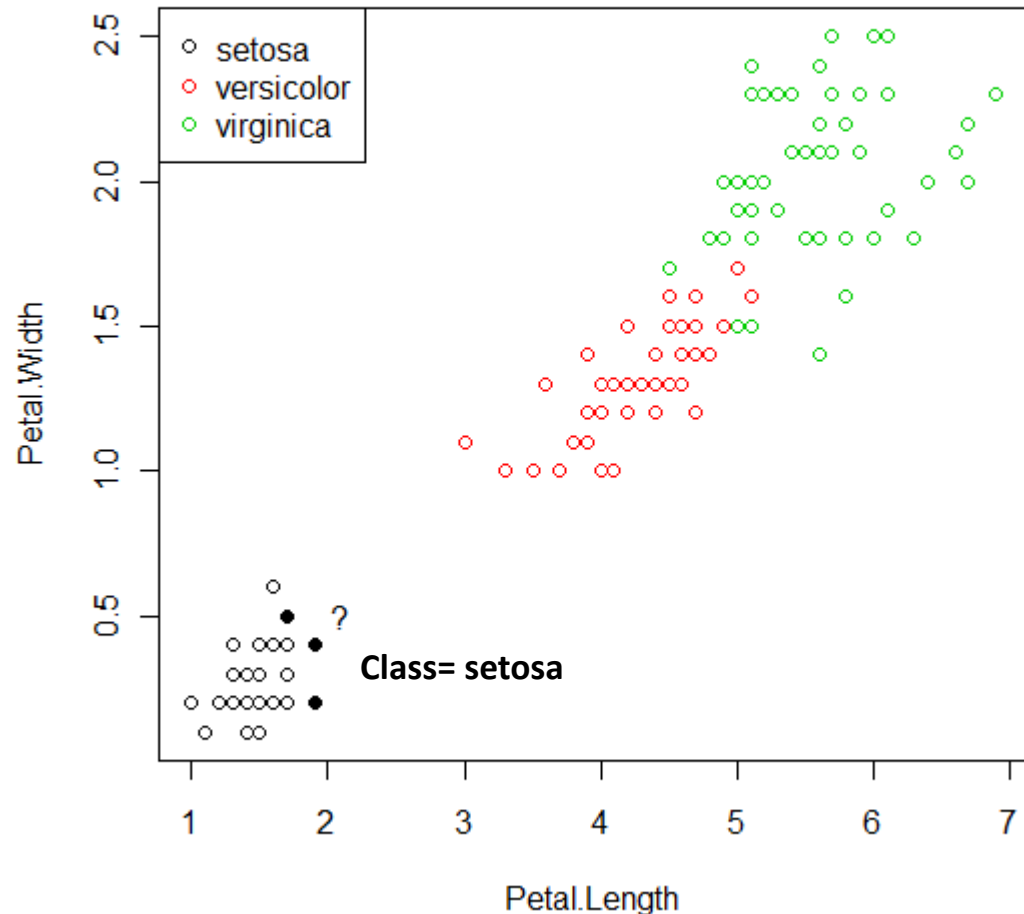
Classification Methods: K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

- For a test observation A , find the distance between A and every other observation in the feature space
- Classify the test observation based on the votes of its K nearest neighbors



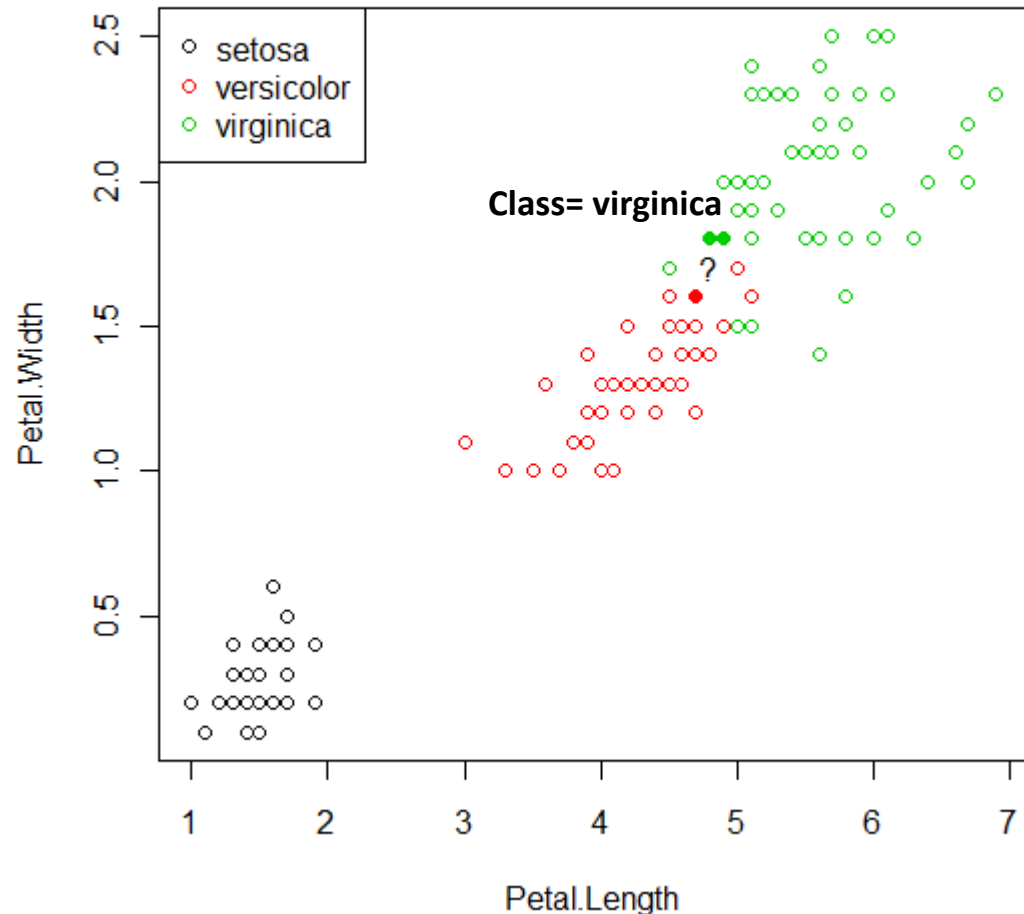
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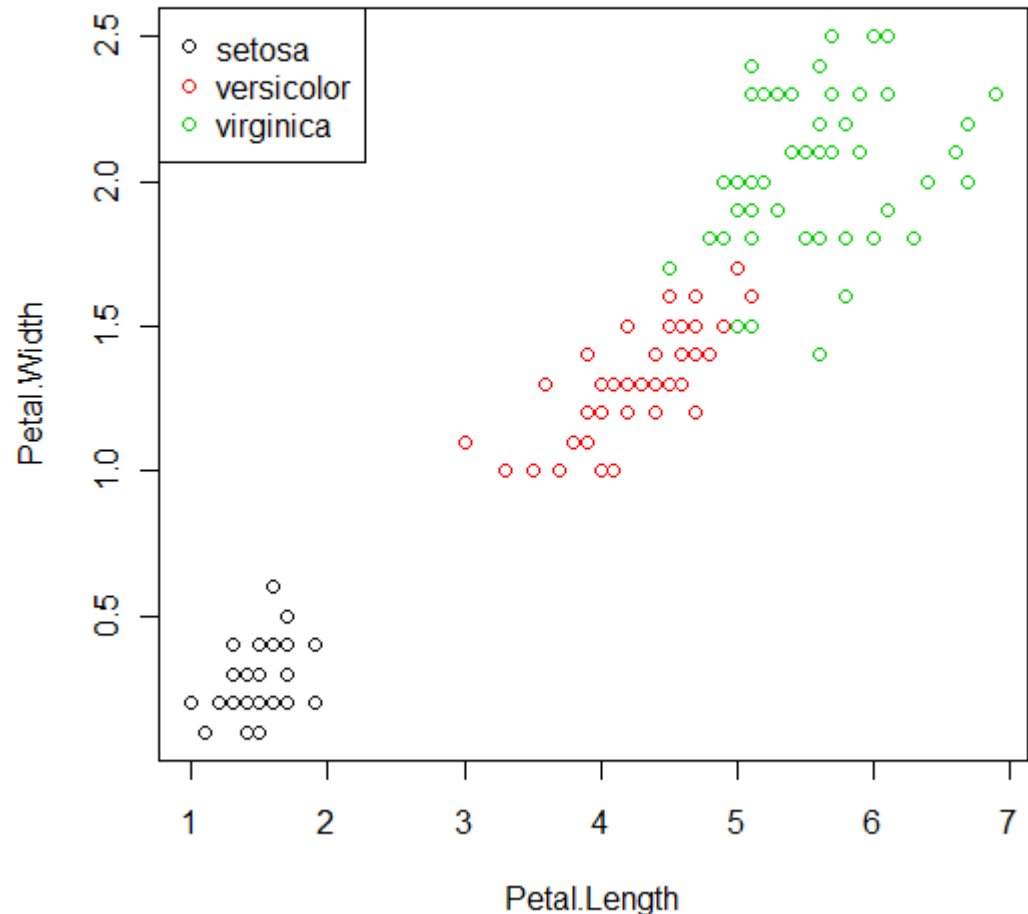
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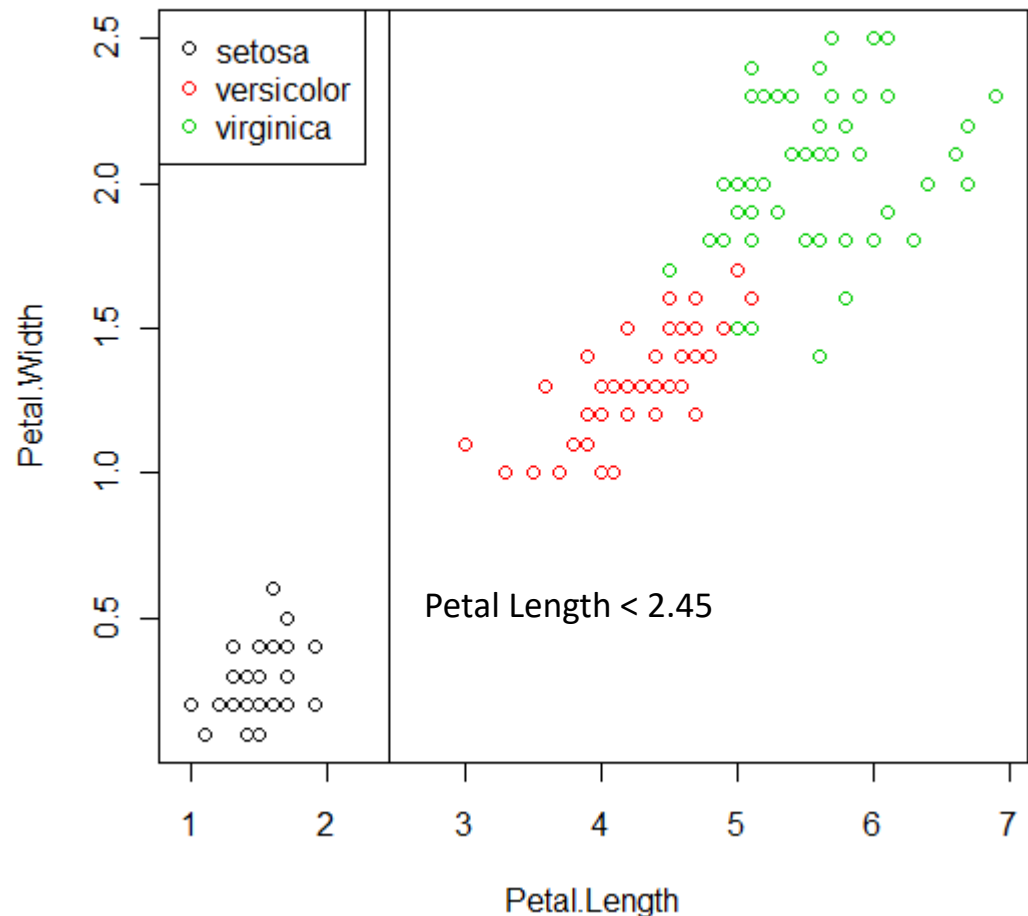
Classification Methods: Decision Trees (DT)

- Create a node by splitting the data according to a feature that optimally splits the data
- Repeat on data subsets until a stopping criterion is met
- Each leaf corresponds to a class



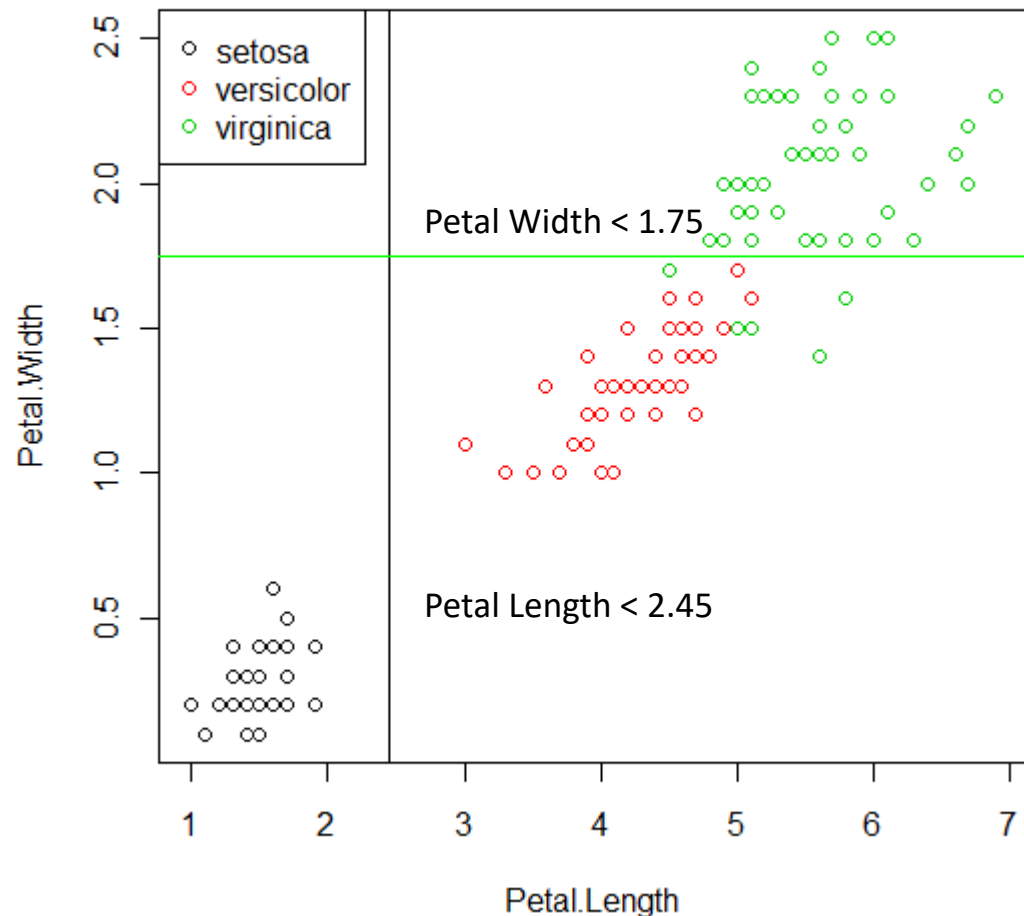
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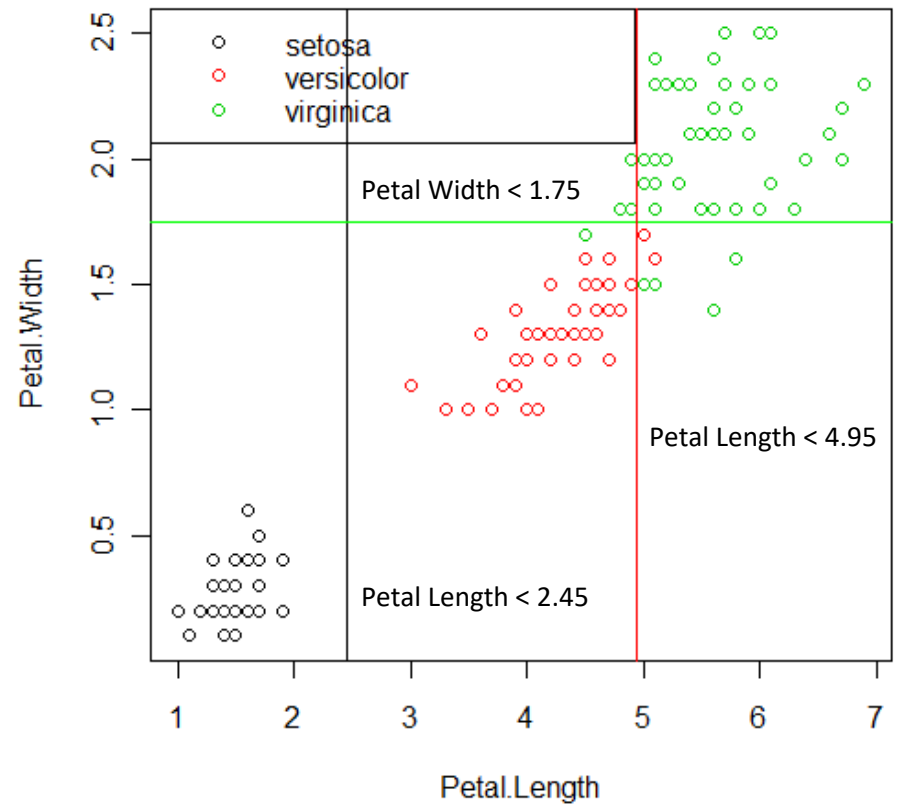
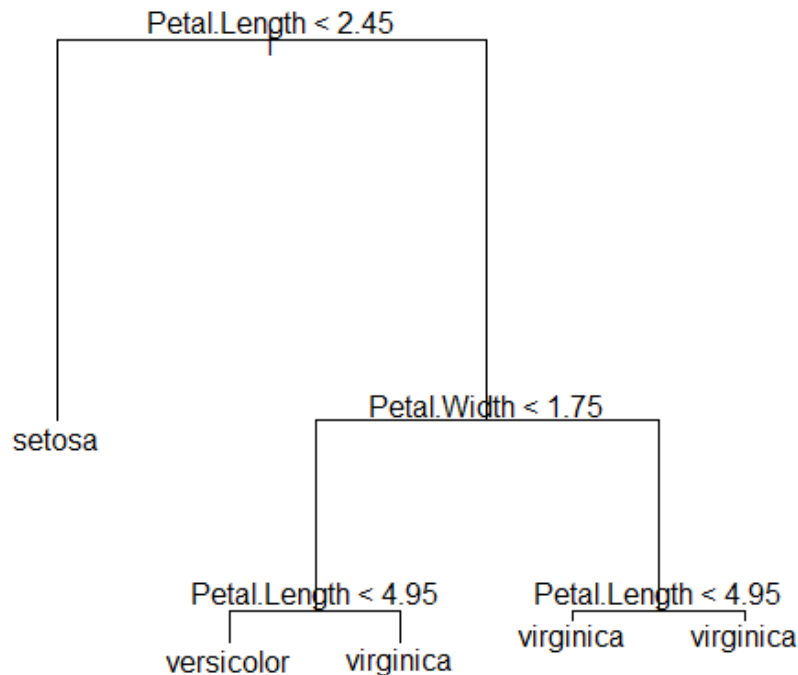


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Classification Methods: Decision Trees (DT)



Note: DT are known to overfit data. However more robust methods such as Random Forests can be used

Classification Methods: Naïve Bayes (NB)

- Based on Bayes' theorem that relates conditional probabilities

$$p(C|x_1, \dots, x_n) \propto p(x_1, \dots, x_n|C)p(C)$$

- Naïve Bayes assumes independence of features, so that

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n|C) \propto p(x_1|C) \times \dots \times p(x_n|C)p(C)$$

- For quantitative features, calculate by treating

$$p(x|C) \sim N(\mu_x, \sigma_x)$$

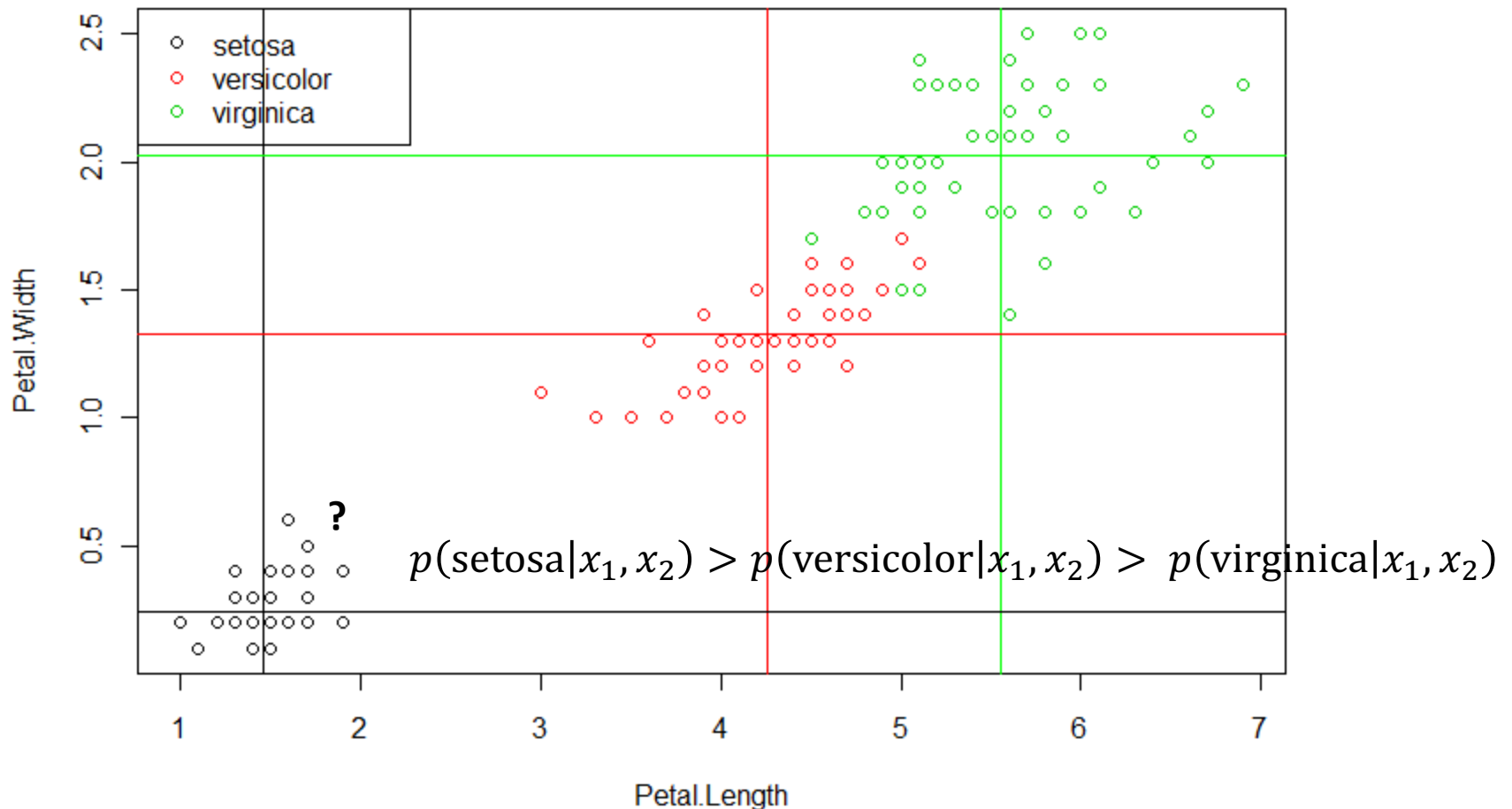
- Select the class C that maximizes

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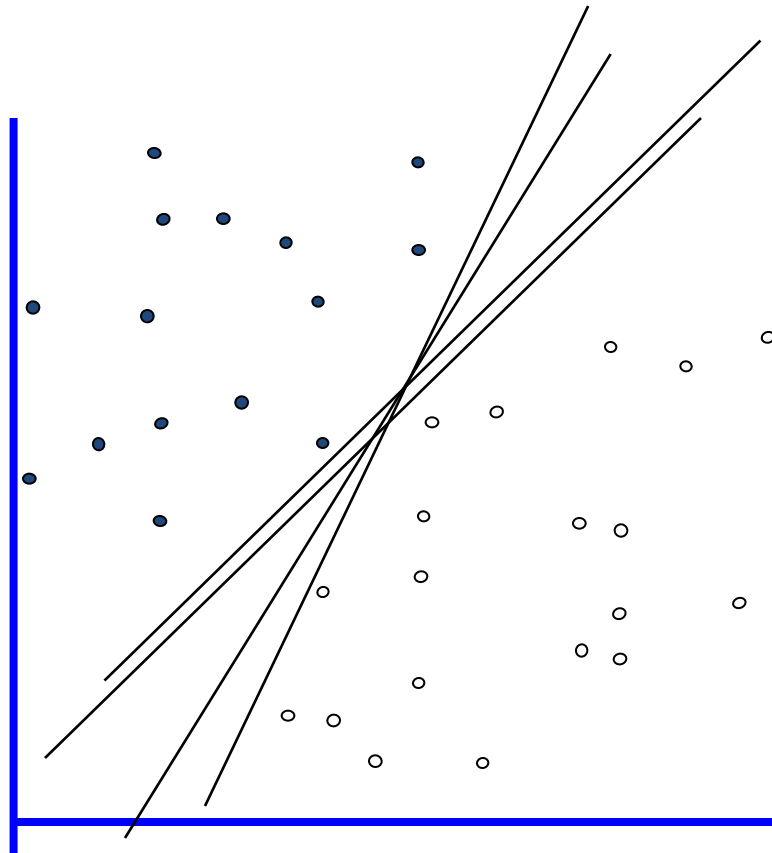
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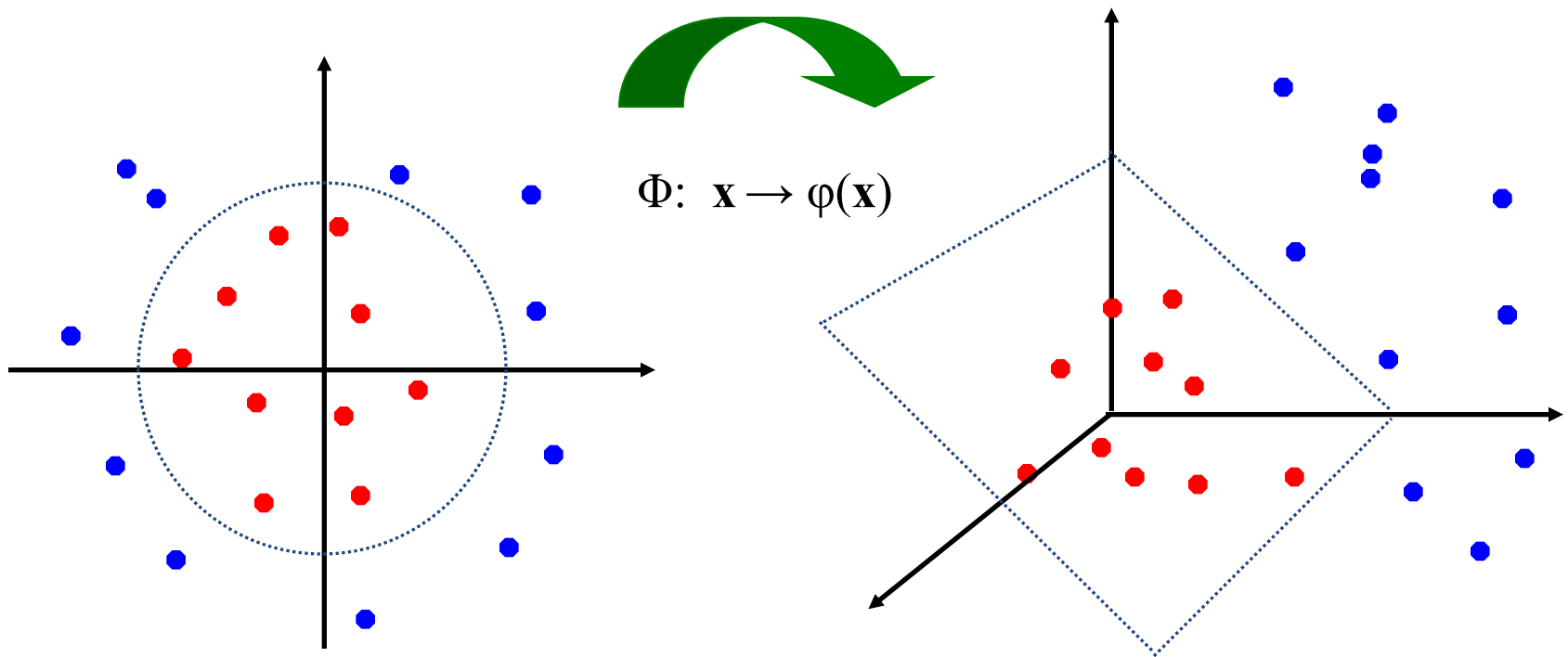


Classification Methods: Support Vector Machines (SVM)

- Find the optimum hyperplane that linearly separates the classes
- If classes are not linearly separable, map the data into a higher dimensional space through the use of a kernel function



Classification Methods: Support Vector Machines (SVM)



Caveats and strategies

- Validation
 - Overfitting is often a problem: a classifier can perform very well on a training data set but may not generalize to additional data sets
 - Validation on independent data sets are ideal
 - Cross-validation is useful when data is limited
- Basic Strategy
 - Use cross-validation to select
 - The number of features (e.g., probes/genes)
 - Optimal parameters for classification model (e.g, value of k in knn)