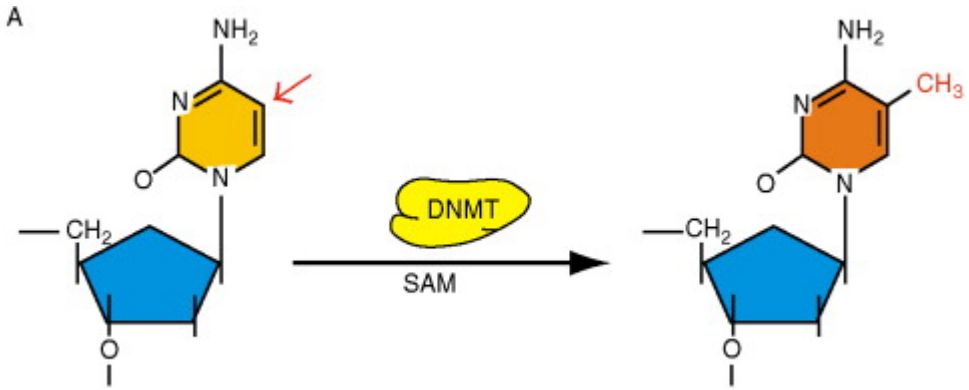
Bisulfite sequencing

DNA methylation

An epigenetic modification of the DNA sequence: adding a methyl group to the 5 position of cytosine (5mC)



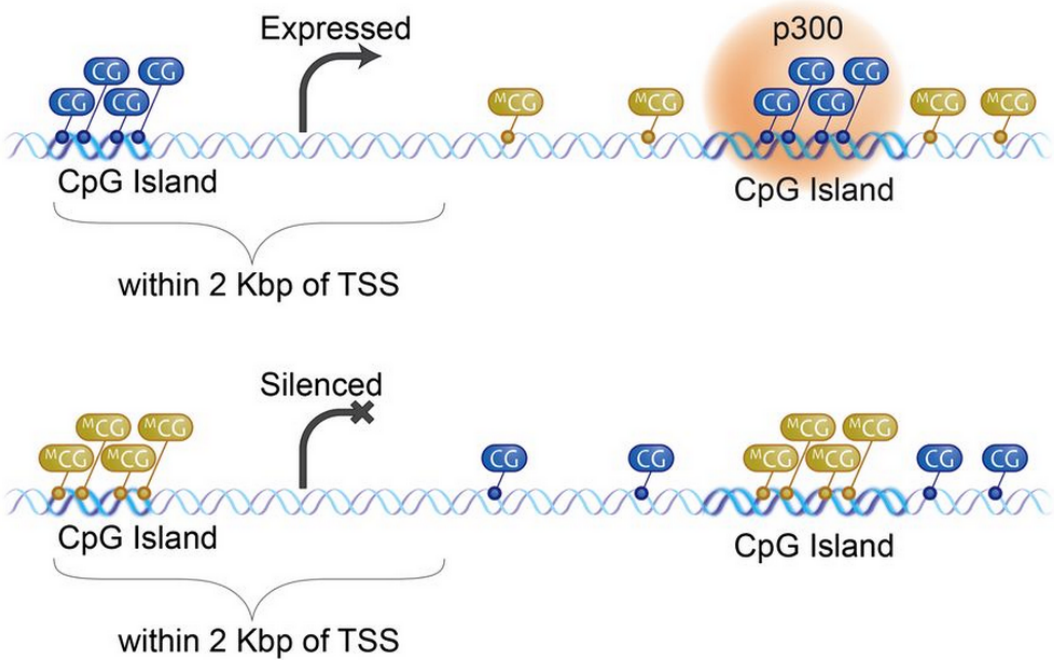
Primarily happens at **CpG sites** (C followed by a G), although non-CG methylation exists

Advances in Genetics Volume 70 2010 27 - 56

http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-380866-0.60002-2

DNA methylation

In human genome, >90% of CpG sites are fully methylated, except at CpG islands where methylation levels are typically low



Varley K E et al. Genome Res. 2013;23:555-567

Methylation of CpG islands in/near promoter region of gene can silence gene expression

Function of DNA methylation

- Important in gene regulation
  - Methylation of promoter regions can suppress gene expression
- Plays crucial role in development
  - Heritable during cell division
  - Helps cells establish identity during cell/tissue differentiation
- Can be influenced by environment
  - Good candidate to mediate GxE interactions

Sequencing approaches for DNA methylation

- Can be divided into two categories
  - Capture-based or enrichment-based sequencing
    - Use methyl-binding proteins or antibodies to capture methylated DNA fragments, then sequence fragments
    - **Resolution is low**: can typically quantify the amount of DNA methylation in 100-200 bp regions
  - Bisulfite-conversion-based sequencing
    - Bisulfite treatment converts unmethylated C's to T's
    - Sequencing converted data gives **single-bp resolution**
    - Can measure methylation status of each CpG site
    - Until recently, not possible to distinguish 5mC from 5hmC
- Focus of this lecture: **bisulfite sequencing**

Capture-based sequencing approaches

- All involve capture of methylated DNA followed by sequencing
- MeDIP-seq (Methylated DNA ImmunoPrecipitation)[1]
  - Like ChIP-seq, but uses antibody against methylated DNA
  - Assesses relative rather than absolute methylation levels
    - Immunoprecipitation may be affected by CpG density
  - MEDIPS[2] is a popular tool for analysis
- Capture via methyl-binding domain proteins: MBD-seq[3]/MIRA-seq[4], methylCap-seq[5]
- Capture via methyl-sensitive restriction enzymes (MRE-seq)[6]

[1]Weber et al. (2005) *Nat Genet;* [2]Chavez et al. (2010) *Gen Res;* [3]Serre et al. (2010) *NAR*
[4]Rauch et al. (2010) *Methods*; [5]Brinkman et al. (2010) *Methods;* [6]Maunakea et al. (2010) *Nature*

Bisulfite sequencing (BS-seq)

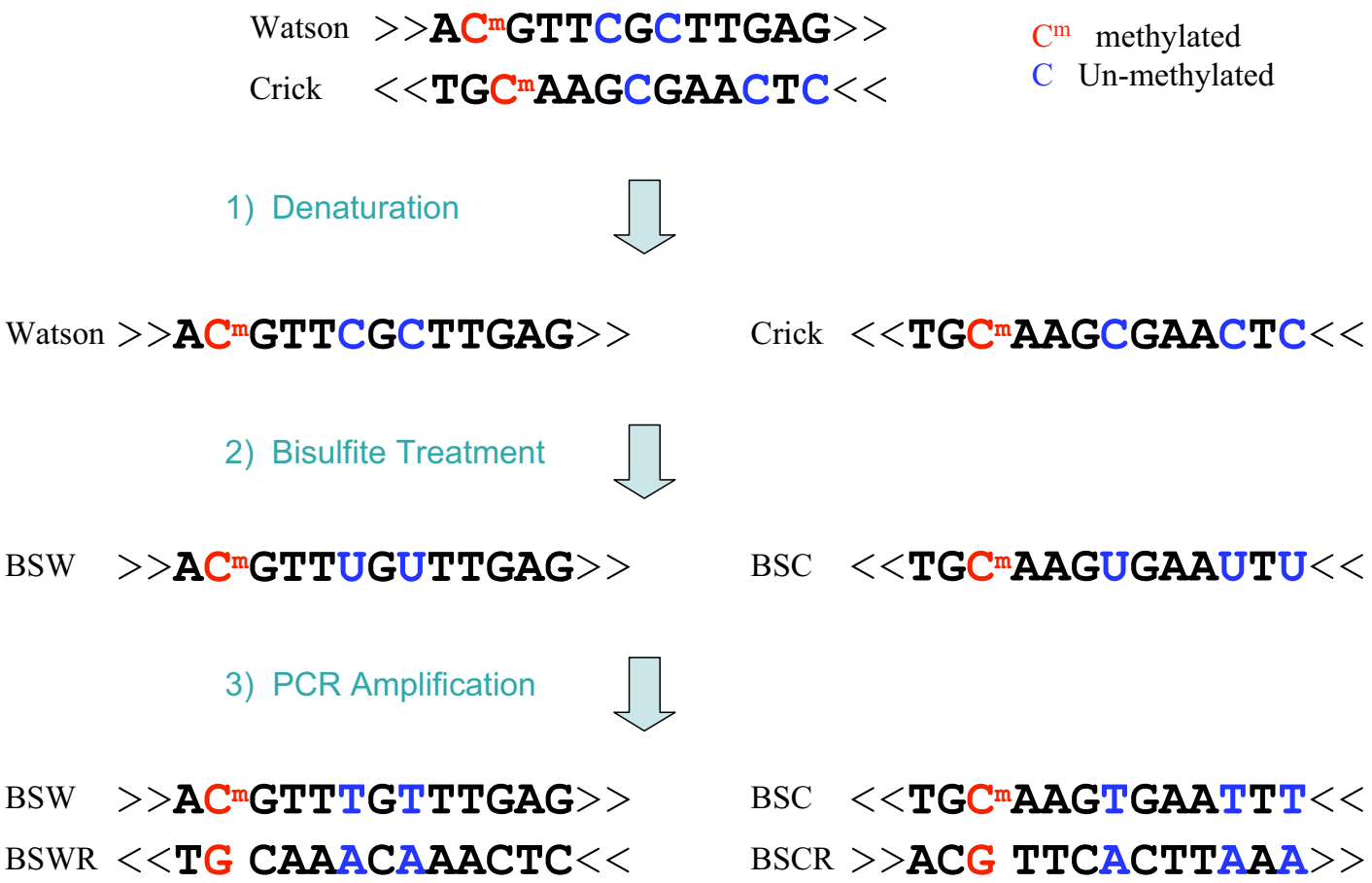
- Technology in a nutshell:
  - Treat fragmented DNA with bisulfite
    - Unmethylated C will be converted to U, amplified as T
    - Methylated C will be protected and remain C
    - No change for other bases
  - Amplify the treated DNA
  - Sequence the DNA segments
  - Align sequence reads to genome

Reduced representation bisulfite sequencing (RRBS)[1,2]

- Goal: affordable alternative to genome-wide sequencing
  - By narrowing focus to CpG-rich areas, reduce # of reads necessary to obtain deep coverage of promoter regions
  - Interrogates ~1% of the genome but 5-10% of CpG sites
- Approach: enrich for CpG-rich segments of genome
  - MspI restriction enzyme cuts at CpG sites, leaving fragments with CpGs at either end: CCGG / CCGG
  - Size selection for fragments of 40-220bp maximizes coverage of promoter regions and CpG islands
  - Bisulfite treat, amplify, end-sequence, and align fragments to genome

[1]Meissner (2005) *NAR*; [2]Gu et al. (2011) *Nat Protoc*

Illustration of bisulfite conversion



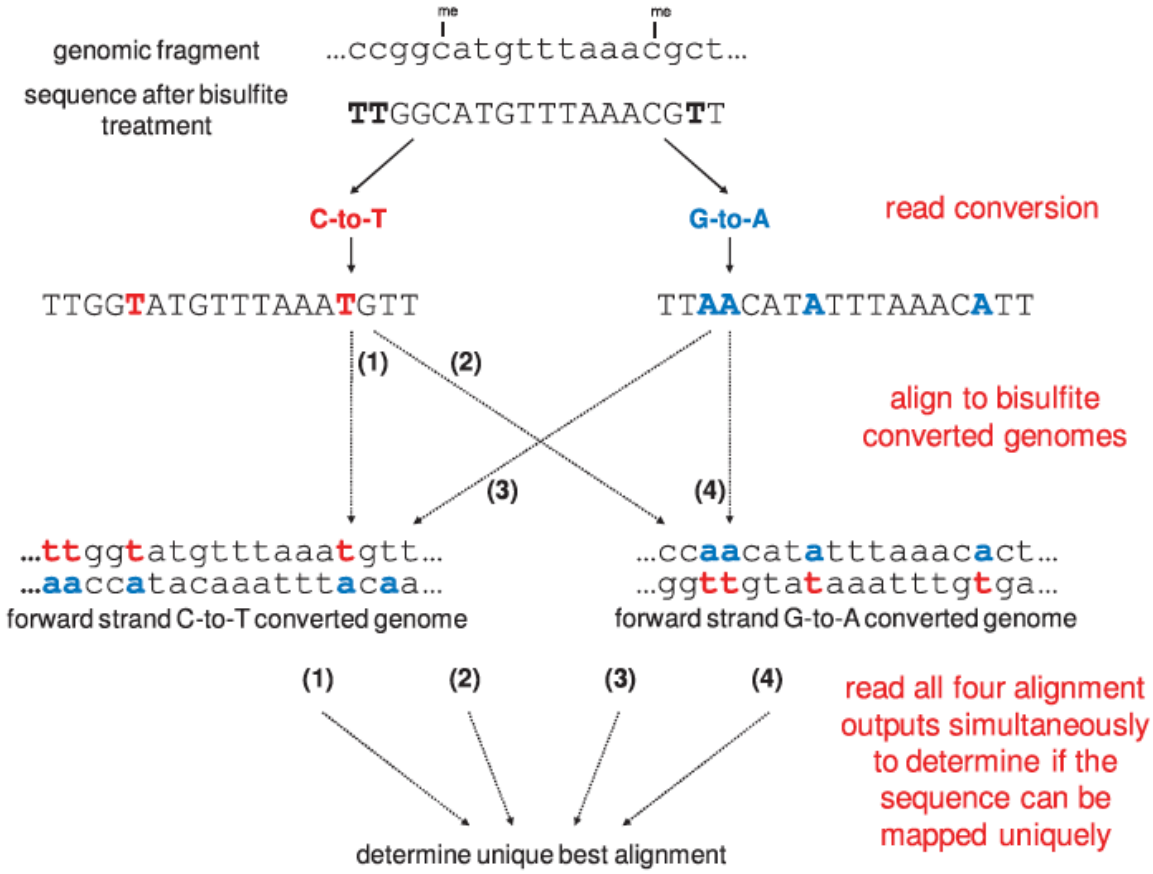
Xi and Li (2009) *BMC Bioinformatics*

Alignment of BS-seq

- Problem: reads cannot be directly aligned to the reference genome.
  - Four different strands after bisulfite treatment and PCR
  - C-T mismatches will mean unmethylated reads can't be aligned to the correct position
    - Unmethylated CpGs will align with TpGs or likely not at all
    - Will lead to a strong bias in favor of methylated reads
- One possible solution *in silico* bisulfite conversion
  - Switch all C's to T's in both reads and reference sample
  - Use this for alignment, then change back to original

Strategy used by BISMARK[1]

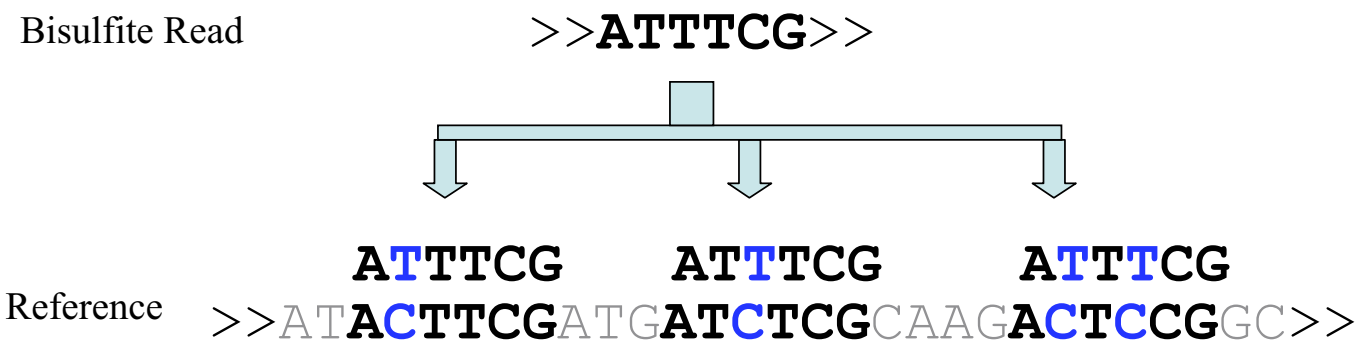
- *In silico* bisulfite conversion of fragments ***and*** reference genome
  - –Convert all C's to T's
  - –Make complementary strand by converting all G's to A's
  - –Align both strands to the four possible reference genomes
  - –Choose best alignment
- Once aligned, convert back to original bases
- Compare to ref. genome to assess methylation



[1]Krueger and Andrews (2011) *Bioinformatics*

Alignment issues

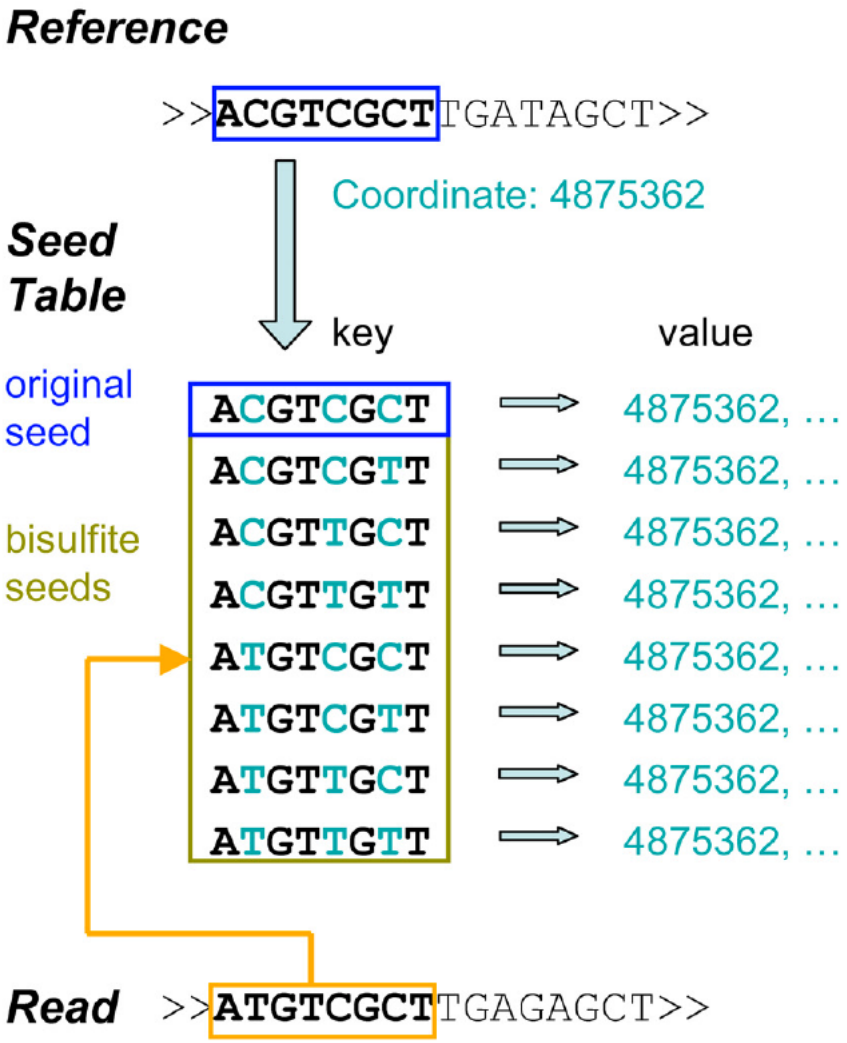
- Possible problems with *in silico* approach
  - By converting all C's to T's, reduce sequence complexity to 3 bases
  - Larger search space for possible alignments
  - Could lead to mismatches or non-unique mapping



Xi and Li (2009) *BMC Bioinformatics*

Strategy used by BSMAP[1]

- Consider methylation status during alignment
  - create multiple versions of reference seed with C's converted to T's
  - compare each read to all possible seeds
  - do the same for complementary strand
- This approach reduces search space compared to *in silico* conversion of all C's to T's
  - T's in reads can match to C's or T's in reference
  - C's in reads can only match to C's in reference
- Computationally more intensive



[1]Xi and Li (2009) *BMC Bioinformatics*

Which alignment software is best?

- Advantages of BSMAP:
  - reduces search space by eliminating mapping of C's to T's
  - greater proportion of uniquely mapping reads[1]
- Advantages of BISMARK:
  - much faster than BSMAP and other programs[1]
  - uniqueness of mapping independent of methylation status[1]
  - more user-friendly in terms of extracting data, interfacing with other software[1]
- In general, BISMARK seems to be the popular choice

[1]Chatterjee et al. (2012) *NAR*

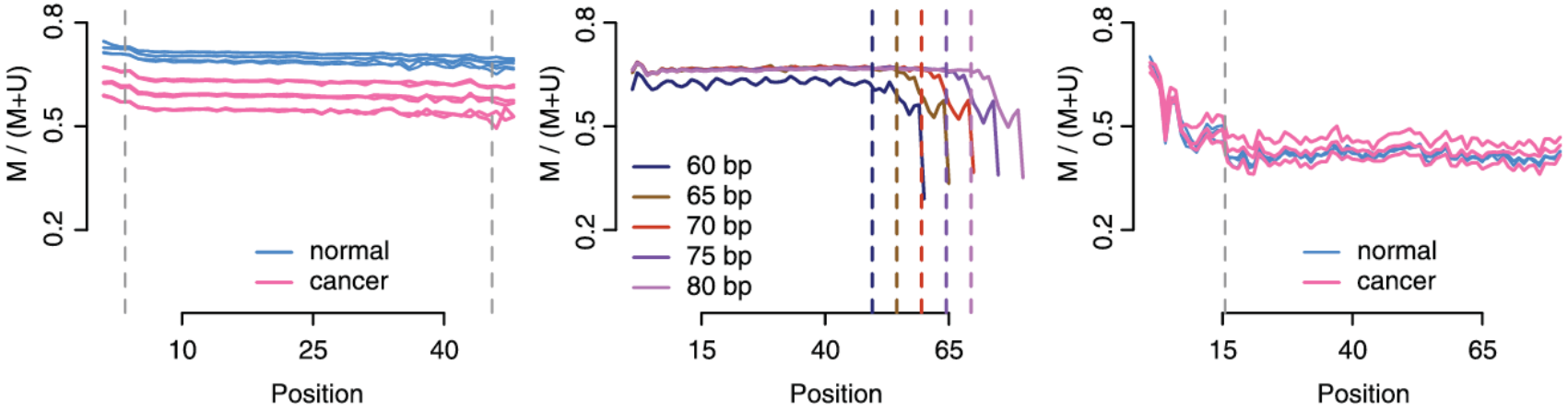
Other aligners

- Alignment of RRBS data
  - Chatterjee et al. notes it is much faster if we use information on MspI cutpoints to "reduce" reference genome *in silico*[1]
  - RRBSMAP: a version of BSMAP that does exactly that[2]
  - Has option to work with different restriction enzymes
- Many other aligners for bisulfite sequencing data
  - One useful review of these is Hackenberg et al.[3]

[1]Chatterjee et al. (2012) *NAR;* [2]Xi et al. (2012) *Bioinformatics*;
[3]Hackenberg et al. (2012): Chapter 2 in "DNA Methylation – From Genomics to Technology" Tatarinova (Ed.) http://www.intechopen.com/books

Another way to improve alignment

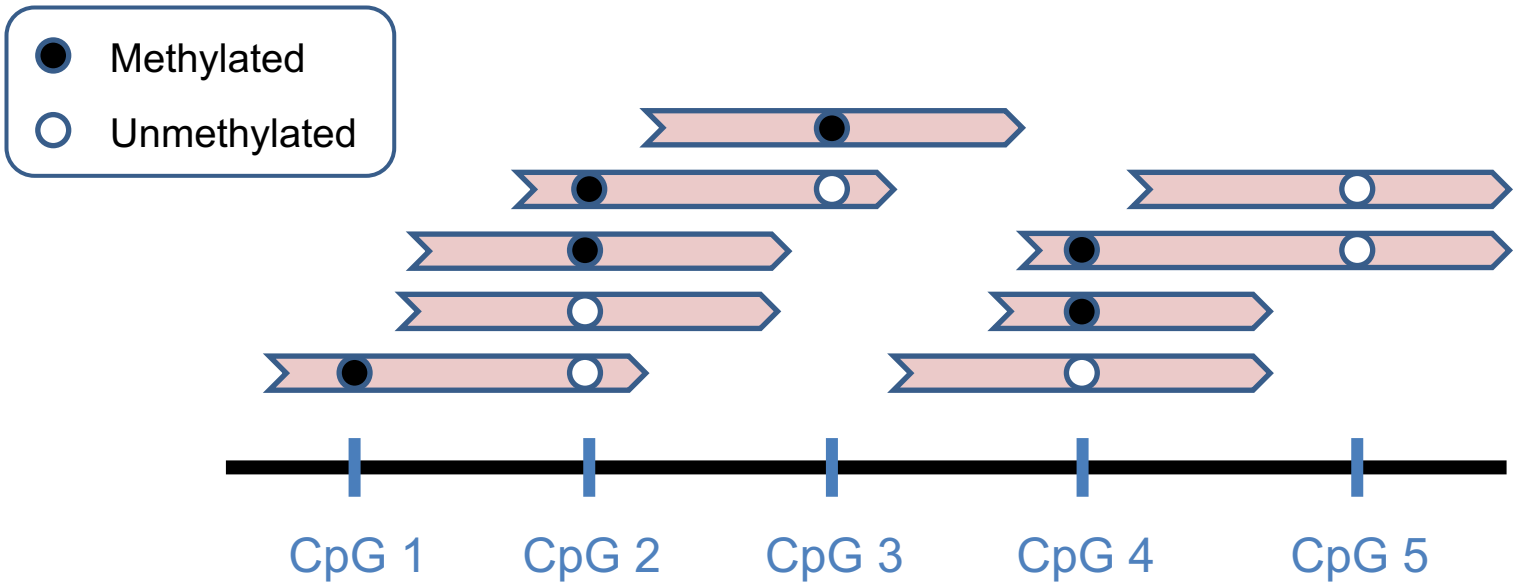
- Quality control of sequenced reads prior to alignment
- Issue: nucleotides towards the ends of reads can have greater rates of sequencing error
- Can assess this with M-bias plots post-alignment[1]



- Solution:"trim" reads to remove less reliable sequence before aligning[2] (can also be done after alignment[1])

[1]Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology;*** [2]Chatterjee et al. (2012) *NAR*

BS-seq data after alignment



Methylated counts (X)	1	2	1	2	0
Coverage (N)	1	4	2	3	2
Methylation level (X/N)	1	0.5	0.5	0.67	0

WGBS data

BS-seq data

- At each position, we have the total number of reads, and the methylated number of reads:

	Position of CpG site	Total # reads	# methylated reads
chr1	3010874	22	18
chr1	3010894	31	27
chr1	3010922	12	10
chr1	3010957	7	6
chr1	3010971	6	6
chr1	3011025	7	5

Study design for BS-seq studies

- High costs → few samples typically analyzed
- Two common study designs
  - Analysis of a single sample:
    - Goal: observe methylation patterns across genome
    - Commonly done to **characterize methylome** for a particular cell type or species
  - Comparison of several samples:
    - Typical goal: compare methylation levels between groups
    - **Differential methylation analysis**
    - Compared with ChIP-seq and RNA-seq, methods are still in early stage, and are often *ad hoc*

Study design for BS-seq studies

- Because so few samples are involved in most studies, it is crucial to avoid all forms of heterogeneity
  - In large studies we can adjust for differences via covariates
  - With small *N* models often cannot accommodate covariates
- Heterogeneity = differences between samples other than variable of interest
  - Inadvertent differences in tissue sampled
  - Differences in cell type mixing proportions
  - Genetic differences between individuals
  - Age differences between samples
  - Different # of passages for cell lines

Avoiding heterogeneity

- Can avoid heterogeneity with careful study design
  - Stringent control of tissue dissection for tissue sampling
  - Analysis of homogeneous cell types whenever possible
  - Use of within-individual comparisons to avoid genetic and demographic differences
    - Example: paired tumor and normal samples from same patients
    - If not possible, match carefully for ethnicity, age, gender
  - Careful control of cell line experiments

Quality control of aligned BS-seq data

- Goal: remove sites likely to be low-quality or non-informative
  - Best filtering strategy will depend on study design and goals
- Filtering based on non-unique alignment
  - Will mostly happen naturally during alignment process
  - Post-alignment, CpG sites with unusually high read count are suspect
- Removal of sites with low coverage (often <5 or 10 total reads)
  - Appropriate cutoff will vary depending on analysis method used
  - For methods that model read count, can set cutoff lower
- Filtering based on lack of variability
  - If the goal is **differential methylation analysis**, remove sites with 0% of reads methylated in all samples, or 100% methylated in all samples
  - In contrast, if goal is to **characterize methylation patterns** in a particular genome, keep these sites!

Differential methylation analysis

- Typical goal: compare methylation levels between two groups
  - Example: tumor vs. normal tissue samples
  - Important: do groups contain biological replicates?
  - Some studies may compare 1 tumor to 1 normal sample
  - Other studies will include 2 or more replicates of each
- Popular *ad hoc* approaches for this comparison are Fisher's exact test and two-group t-test
- We will show why these can be problematic

Fisher's exact test with 2 samples

- If we have only one sample per group (no biological replicates), Fisher's exact test is a natural choice
- Example: single CpG site sequenced for 2 samples
  - For tumor sample, 32/44 methylated reads
  - For normal sample, 8/12 methylated reads
- Can then perform Fisher's exact test on the following table:
- OR = 1.33
- p = .73

	Methylated	Unmeth.	Total reads
Tumor	32	12	44
Normal	8	4	12
Total	40	16	56

Fisher's exact test in methylKit

- For comparisons between two samples, Fisher's exact test is a reasonable choice
  - Easy to carry out in R using fisher.test() function
  - Alternatively, methylKit[1] is a suite of R functions that facilitates analysis of genome-wide methylation data
  - Differential methylation analysis via either
    - Fisher's exact test (for comparisons between two samples)
    - Logistic regression based on methylation proportions
      - Analogous to two-group t-test, but with covariates
    - Can perform analysis in user-defined tiling windows
      - However, based on simple collapsing of information across sites rather than smoothing

[1]Akalin *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Fisher's exact test with >2 samples

- For Fisher's exact test with biological replicates, need to collapse read information within groups
- Example: single CpG site sequenced for 4 samples
  - For 2 tumor samples, 32/44 and 4/10 methylated reads
  - For 2 normal samples, 8/12 and 12/34 methylated reads
- Could then perform Fisher's exact test on the following table:
- OR = 2.6
- p = .0264

	Methylated	Unmeth.	Total reads
Tumor	36 = 32+4	18	54 = 44+10
Normal	20 = 8+12	26	46 = 12+34
Total	56	44	100

Problem with Fisher's exact test

- To perform Fisher's exact test for >2 samples, we have to collapse read information across samples within each group
- By doing this, we are ignoring information on biological variation between samples
  - **Biological variation**: natural variation in underlying fraction of DNA methylated between samples in the same condition
  - **Technical variation**: variation in estimation of methylation levels due to random sampling of DNA during sequencing[1]
- By collapsing, we are assuming that:
  - samples within a group inherently have the same underlying fraction of DNA methylated
  - any variation between samples is due to technical variation

[1]Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Naïve t-test

- Example: single CpG site sequenced for 4 samples
  - For 2 tumor samples, 32/44 and 4/10 methylated reads
  - For 2 normal samples, 8/12 and 12/34 methylated reads
- For t-test, compute a proportion for each sample
  - .727 and .400 for tumor samples
  - .667 and .353 for normal samples
- Difference in mean proportions = .563 - .510 = .053
- T-statistic = 0.2375
- p = .834

Problem with t-test

- To perform t-test, computed a proportion for each sample
  - Test inherently gives equal weight to each sample
  - Does not account for technical variation in proportion estimates
  - Recall: Technical variation = variation in estimation of methylation levels due to random sampling of DNA
  - Can expect this variation to be lower for samples with more reads
- One possible solution would be to incorporate weights based on read count
- However, another issue with this approach is the small number of samples
  - With N=4, the t-test has very little power due to low df

Fisher's exact vs. t-test

- The two tests yielded very different results
  - Fisher's exact p = .0264
  - T-test p = .834
- Main difference: unit of observation (reads vs. samples)
- Fisher's test was based on 100 "independent" reads
  - Reads are actually not independent if there is biological variation
  - Correlated within each sample, since samples have different methylation fractions
- T-test was based on 4 samples
  - Treated samples as equally informative, when really they are not
  - For 2 tumor samples, **32/44** and 4/10 methylated reads
  - For 2 normal samples, 8/12 and **12/34** methylated reads

Need better approaches

- Problem: want to test many sites with few samples
  - Limited information available at each site due to low # of samples

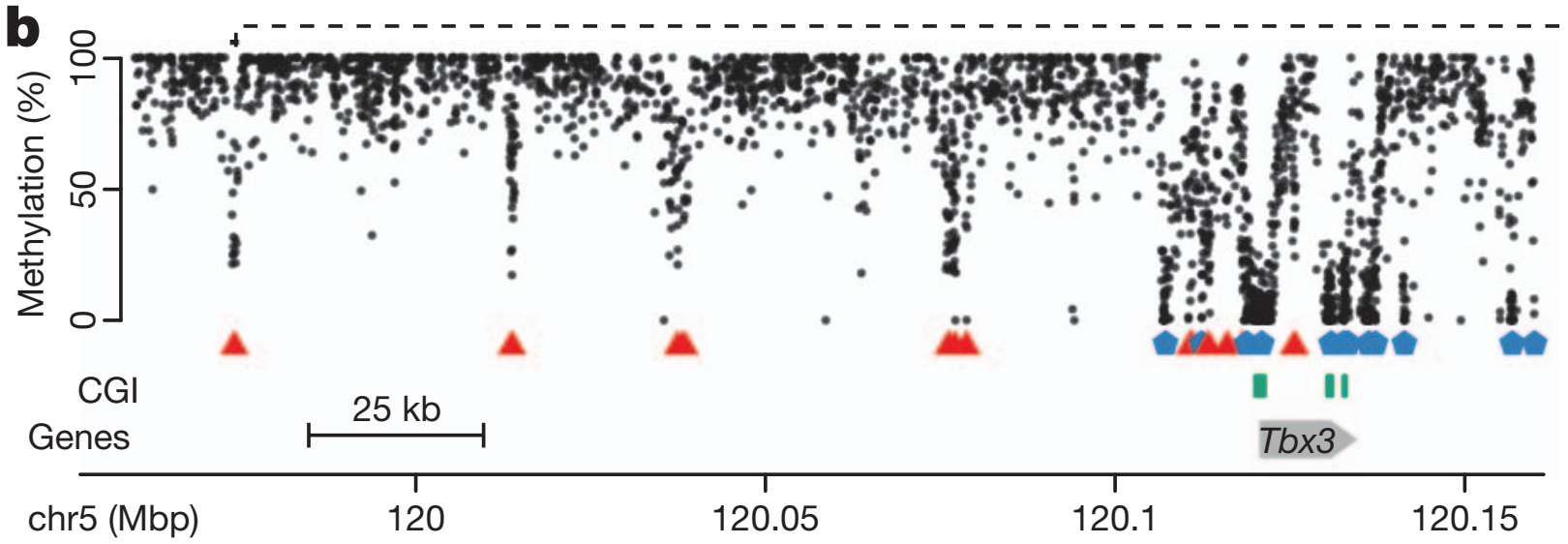
- Solution: approaches that borrow information across sites
  - Smoothing approaches that share information across nearby sites
    - Useful in single sample analyses that aim to **characterize the genome**
    - Useful for detecting **differential methylated regions (DMRs)** of the genome
  - Bayesian hierarchical model that borrows information across the genome
    - Useful for detecting **differentially methylated loci (DMLs)**

Smoothing approaches

- First consider **analysis of a single sample**
- Goal here is to identify methylated regions or loci:
  - Can estimate proportion of reads that are methylated at each C position, but:
    - Variability in estimation needs to be considered
    - Spatial correlation among nearby CpG sites can be utilized to improve estimation
  - Methylated regions (or states) can be determined by smoothing based methods using the estimated methylation proportion as input

HMM: Hidden Markov model

- Model switches between states along a chromosome
- Could model 3 methylation states: FMR, LMR, UMR
  - Stadler et al.[1] used estimated proportions to identify regions in mouse methylome corresponding to 3 states



[1]Stadler *et al.* (2012) ***Nature***

Smoothing sequencing data

- Problem with directly smoothing the proportions:
  - Doesn't consider the uncertainty in proportion estimates
  - Estimates more variable for CpG sites with low read counts
  - May want to put less weight on these estimates
- A better approach: BSmooth model[1]
  - A local-likelihood smoothing approach
  - Key assumptions:
    - True methylation level π_j is a smooth curve of genomic coordinates.
    - The observed counts M_j follow a binomial(N_j, π_j) distribution.
    - Binomial assumption accounts for differences in variation for samples with different total read counts N_j

[1]Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

BSmooth smoothing

- Notation for CpG site *j*:
  - N_j, M_j: # total and # methylated reads
  - π_j: underlying true methylation level
  - l_j: location
- Model: $M_j \sim \text{Bin}(N_j, \pi_j)$

$$\log(\pi_j / (1 - \pi_j)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 l_j + \beta_2 l_j^2$$

where β_0, β_1, and β_2 vary smoothly along the genome.

- Fit this as a weighted generalized linear model (glm)
- Obtain a smoothed methylation estimate for each position along the genome using sliding window approach

Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Sliding window approach

- Choose window size (either distance or # CpG sites)
- For every genomic location l_j, use data in window surrounding l_j
- Fit weighted glm for all data in window, where weight for data point *k* depends inversely on:
  - the variance of estimated π_k, estimated as $\pi_k(1-\pi_k)/N_k$
  - distance of CpG site from window center $|l_k - l_j|$

$$M_j \sim \text{Bin}(N_j, \pi_j)$$

$$\log(\pi_j / (1-\pi_j)) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 l_j + \beta_2 l_j^2$$

- Estimation of β_0, β_1, and β_2 in window surrounding l_j provides estimate of π_j

Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Benefits of smoothing dense data

- By borrowing information across sites, can achieve high precision even with low coverage
  - Pink line is from smoothing full 30x data
  - Black line is from smoothing 5x version of data
  - Correlation = .90 across entire dataset
  - Median absolute difference of .056

Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Smoothed differential methylation analysis

- Goal: identify regions **differentially methylated** (DMRs) between groups
- BSmooth computes a t-test-like statistic
  - Signal-to-noise ratio based on smoothed data for multiple samples
  - Essentially the average difference between smoothed profiles from 2 groups, divided by estimated standard error
  - When biological replicates are included, this statistic correctly accounts for biological variation
- Identify DMRs as regions where this statistic exceeds some cutoff

Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Bsmooth functions implemented in Bioconductor package bsseq[1]

- Functions for
  - Smoothing
  - Smoothed t-tests
  - DMR identification
  - Visualization of results
  - Fisher's exact test (not smoothed)
- Can be implemented in parallel computing environment to speed up calculation

[1]Hansen *et al.* 2012 ***Genome Biology***

Use bsseq

- First create `BSseq` objects
- Use `BSmooth` function to smooth.
- `fisherTests` performs Fisher's exact test, if there's no replicate.
- `BSmooth.tstat` performs t-test with replicates.
- `dmrFinder` calls DMRs based on BSmooth.tstat results.

```
library(bsseq)
library(bsseqData)

## take chr21 on BS.cancer.ex to speed up calculation
data(BS.cancer.ex)
ix = which(seqnames(BS.cancer.ex)=="chr21")
BS.chr21 = BS.cancer.ex[ix,]

## use BSmooth to smooth and call DMR
BS.chr21 = BSmooth(BS.chr21) ## this takes 1-2 minutes

## perform t-test
BS.chr21.tstat = BSmooth.tstat(BS.chr21,
    c("C1","C2","C3"),c("N1","N2","N3"))

## call DMR
dmr.BSmooth <- dmrFinder(BS.chr21.tstat, cutoff = c(-4.6, 4.6))
```

Another approach: Bayesian hierarchical model[1]

- Hierarchical model to separately model biological and technical variation
  - **Biological variation**: natural variation in underlying fraction of DNA methylated between samples in the same condition
  - **Technical variation**: variation in estimation of methylation levels due to random sampling of DNA during sequencing[1]
  - Many methods only capture one or the other
  - Fisher's exact test: technical variation only
  - Naïve t-test: biological variation only
- Shrinkage approach allows us to borrow information about variation across genome
  - Especially useful when information per CpG site is limited by low number of samples

[1]Feng *et al.* 2014 ***Nucleic Acids Research***

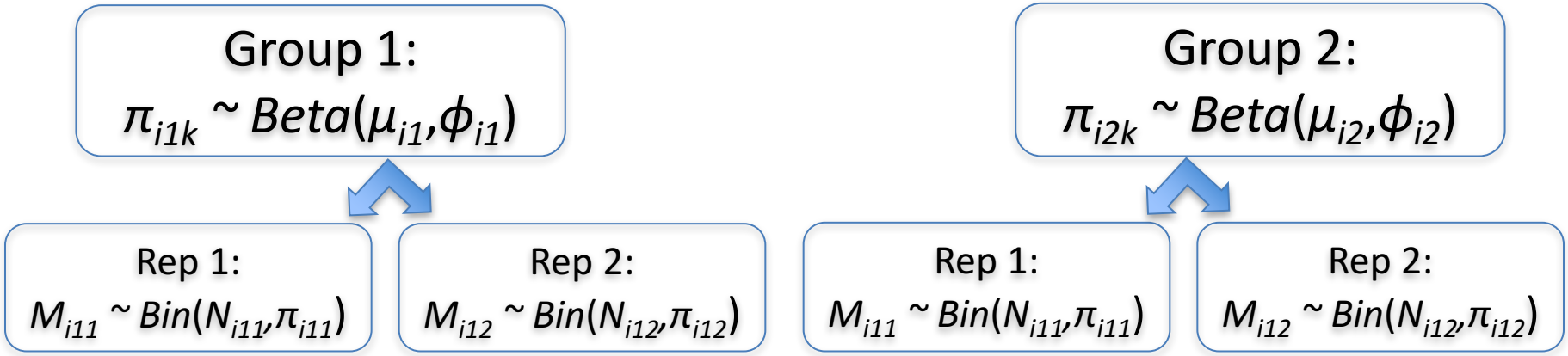
Beta-binomial hierarchical model

- "The most natural statistical model for replicated BS-seq DNA methylation measurements"[1]
- Sampling of reads for each CpG site will follow a binomial distribution
  - Out of N reads covering a particular site, how many are methylated?
  - This number will follow a binomial(N,π) distribution
  - However, π may vary across replicates
- To model the biological variation of π across replicates, the beta distribution is a natural choice
- Beta-binomial distribution used to model methylated reads in DSS[2], BiSeq[3], MOABS[4], RADMeth[5], MethylSig[6]

[1]Robinson et al. 2014; [2]Feng et al. 2014; [3]Hebestreit et al. 2013; [4]Sun et al. 2014; [5]Dolzhenko & Smith 2014; [6]Park et al. 2014

Beta-binomial hierarchical model

- Example: CpG site *i*, two groups *j*=1 (cancer) and 2 (normal), two replicates per group (*k* = 1, 2)



- **Biological variation** modeled by dispersion parameter ϕ_{ij}
  - Replicates in each group may vary in true methylation proportion π_{ijk}
- **Technical variation**: given N_{ijk} and π_{ijk}, number of methylated reads M_{ijk} varies due to random sampling of DNA
- **Goal: test whether μ_{i1} and μ_{i2} are significantly different**

[1]Feng *et al.* 2014 ***Nucleic Acids Research***

Motivation for shrinkage approach

- Hierarchical model: $M_{ijk} \sim Binomial\left(N_{ijk}, \pi_{ijk}\right)$

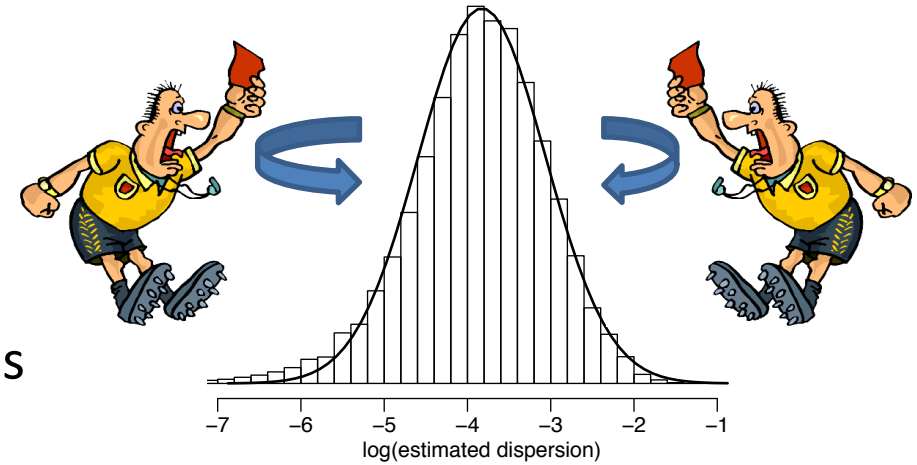
$$\pi_{ijk} \sim Beta\left(\mu_{ij}, \phi_{ij}\right)$$

- **Goal: after correctly modeling different sources of variation, test whether μ_{i1} and μ_{i2} are significantly different at CpG *i***
- Possible limitation of model: with small number of samples, estimation of parameters may be poor
  - In particular, difficult to accurately estimate dispersion ϕ_{ij} with only 2-3 replicates per group
  - Estimates may vary wildly due to small numbers
- Solution: borrow information from CpG sites across the genome to obtain reasonable estimates of ϕ_{ij}

[1]Feng *et al.* 2014 ***Nucleic Acids Research***

Estimating dispersion parameter

- To obtain stable estimates of dispersion with few samples, we:
  - impose a log-normal prior on ϕ: $\phi_{ij} \sim \log normal\left(m_j, r_j^2\right)$
  - use information from all CpGs in the genome to estimate the parameters m_j and r_j^2
- Choice of log-normal prior was motivated by distribution of dispersion in bisulfite sequencing data
  - RRBS data from mouse embryogenesis study (Smith *et al.* 2012 ***Nature***)
  - Estimation robust to departure from log-normality
  - Prior provides a good "referee"
  - Encourages dispersion estimates to stay within bounds



[1]Feng *et al.* 2014 ***Nucleic Acids Research***

Wald test for DML, based on hierarchical model[1]

- DML: Differentially Methylated Loci
  - Test for differential methylation at each CpG site
- At site *i*, test: $H_0 : \mu_{i1} = \mu_{i2}$
- Basic algorithm:
  - Use naïve estimates of ϕ across genome to estimate prior
  - For each site *i*, estimate μ_{i1} and μ_{i2} as proportion of methylated reads for each group
  - Bayesian estimation of ϕ_{ij} based on data and prior
  - Plug in estimates of μ_{ij} and ϕ_{ij} to create Wald statistic of form $t_i = \frac{\hat{\mu}_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_{i2}}{\sqrt{Var\left(\hat{\mu}_{i1} - \hat{\mu}_{i2}\right)}}$

[1]Feng *et al.* 2014 ***Nucleic Acids Research***

Using DSS to call DML and DMRs

- DSS can identify differentially methylated *loci* (DML) and *regions* (DMRs)
  - DML identified via Wald test, based on p-value threshold
  - DMRs called from DML based on user-specified criteria (region length, p-value and effect size thresholds)
  - Accommodates single-replicate studies by smoothing data from nearby CpG sites to form "pseudo-replicates"[1]
  - Inclusion of design matrix to allow covariates and a more general experimental design[2]

[1]Wu et al. ***Nucleic Acids Research*** 2015.
[2]Park et al. ***Bioinformatics*** 2016.

BS-seq experiment under general design

- General experimental design:
  - Multiple groups.
  - Multiple factors, crossed/nested.
  - Continuous covariates.
- Limited data analysis methods with not so good properties:
  - BiSeq and RADMeth, both based on generalized linear model (GLM).
  - Computationally demanding.
  - Numerically unstable.

DSS-general

- Suppose the input data include *N* CpG sites and *D* samples.
- Notations:
  - Y_{id}, m_{id}: methylated and total counts for ith CpG and dth data set.
  - π_{id}, Φ_i: mean and dispersion.
  - ***X***: full ranked design matrix of dimension D by p.
- Counts are modeled by a beta-binomial regression:

$$Y_{id} \sim \text{beta-bin}(m_{id}, \pi_{id}, \phi_i)$$

$$g(\pi_{id}) = \boldsymbol{x}_d \boldsymbol{\beta}_i$$

- DML detection is achieved by a general hypothesis testing: $H_0 : C^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_i = 0,$ where C is a p-vector.

GLM approximation

- Beta-binomial regression.
- Transformation:
  - g(Y/m) as response or data
  - What is g(·)?
- Applying generalized (weighted) least square to estimate parameters, but with caution!

Choice of the link function

- arcsine link: $g(x) = \arcsin(2x - 1)$
- "Variance stabilization transformation" for binomial proportion:
  - Variance of the transformed data does not depend on mean (but on dispersion), so least square approach is possible.
  - logit or probit transformed data needs iterative procedure since variance depends on mean.
  - More linear than logit or probit, especially at the boundaries.

Parameter estimation

- Model: $Y_{id} \sim \text{beta-bin}(m_{id}, \pi_{id}, \phi_i)$

  $g(\pi_{id}) = \boldsymbol{x}_d \boldsymbol{\beta}_i$

- Transformation:

$$Z_{id} = \arcsin(2Y_{id}/m_{id} - 1).$$

$$E[Z_{id}] \approx \arcsin(2E[Y_{id}]/m_{id} - 1) = \arcsin(2\pi_{id} - 1) = \mathbf{x}_d \boldsymbol{\beta}_i$$

$$\text{var}(Z_{id}) \approx \frac{1 + (m_{id} - 1)\phi_i}{m_{id}}.$$

$$V_i = \text{diag}\left(\frac{1 + (m_{id} - 1)\phi_i}{m_{id}}\right)$$

- Least square estimator:

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i = (\boldsymbol{X}^T V_i^{-1} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^T V_i^{-1} Z.$$

Two-step estimation

- Dispersion estimation
  - Estimate $\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^{(0)}$ by setting dispersion to 0.
  - Estimate variance based on Pearson's chi-square statistics:

    $$\chi_i^2 = \sum_d m_{id}(Z_{id} - \mathbf{x}_d\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i^0)^2, \quad \hat{\sigma}_i^2 = \chi_i^2/(D-p),$$

  - Dispersion can be derived as:

    $$\hat{\phi}_i = \frac{D(\hat{\sigma}_i^2 - 1)}{\sum_d (m_{id} - 1)}.$$

  - Restriction: $1 < \hat{\sigma}_i^2 < \frac{\sum_d (m_{id}-1)}{D} + 1.$
- Parameter estimation using GLS based on $\hat{\phi}_i$

Hypothesis testing

- For testing
  - Variance/covariance matrix estimates:

$$\hat{\Sigma}_i \equiv \widehat{\mathrm{var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i)} = (\boldsymbol{X}^T \hat{V}_i^{-1} \boldsymbol{X})^{-1}.$$

  - Wald test statistics for $H_0 : C^T \boldsymbol{\beta}_i = 0,$

$$t_i = \frac{C^T \hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}_i}{\sqrt{C^T \hat{\Sigma}_i C}}$$

Use DSS

- Input data object has the same format as `bsseq`.
- `DMLtest` performs Wald test at each CpG.
- `callDML/callDMR` calls DML or DMR.

```
## two group comparison
dmlTest <- DMLtest(BSobj, group1=c("C1", "C2", "C3"),
                   group2=c("N1","N2","N3"),
                   smoothing=TRUE, smoothing.span=500)
dmrs <- callDMR(dmlTest)
## A 2x2 design
DMLfit = DMLfit.multiFactor(RRBS, design, ~case+cell)
DMLtest = DMLtest.multiFactor(DMLfit, term="case")
```

Conclusions

- Analysis of genome-wide bisulfite sequencing data presents some unique challenges
  - Alignment of reads can be complicated
  - Many tests to be performed, but number of samples sequenced is limited by costs in most experiments
  - Beta-binomial model is widely used.

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