

Differential Expression Analysis of RNA Sequencing Data

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- What does RNA-seq measure, and how?
- The raw data: DNA sequence reads
- Getting from reads to counts
- Basic analysis strategy: linear models
- Normalization of RNA-seq counts
- Heteroskedasticity!
- Sharing information between genes
- Multiple testing and FDR

Introduction

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(I won't be covering these, but just be aware that these are options)

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```
@071112_SLXA-EAS1_s_7:5:1:817:345
GGGTGATGGCCGCTGCCGATGGCGTCAAATCCCACC
+071112_SLXA-EAS1_s_7:5:1:817:345
IIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIII9IG9IC
@071112_SLXA-EAS1_s_7:5:1:801:338
GTTCAGGGATACGACGTTTGTATTTTAAGAATCTGA
+071112_SLXA-EAS1_s_7:5:1:801:338
IIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIIII6IBI
```

Here's the general idea

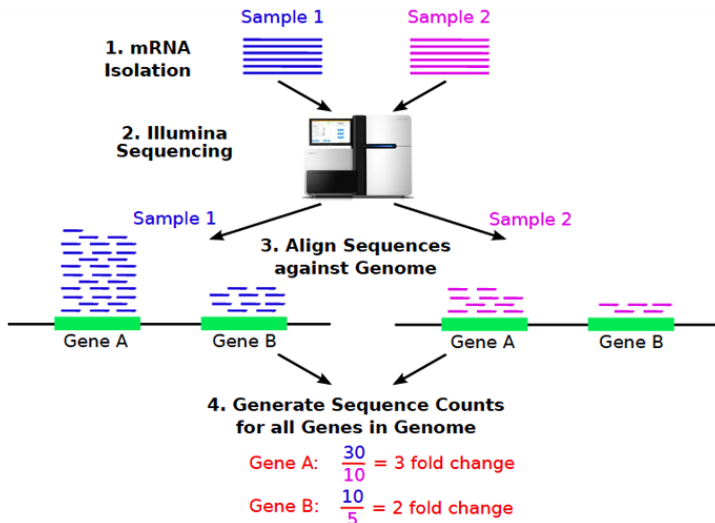


Figure 1: Basic RNA-seq data generation

Generating a count matrix from an RNA-seq experiment

- RNA-seq produces millions of read sequences
- We treat each read as a single observation of a gene, and assume that the abundance of the gene is proportional to how many times it is “observed”.
- We **align** those reads to the matching sequence in the genome (or transcriptome), then we **count** the number of reads in each sample that align unambiguously to each gene.
- We discard ambiguous reads, so each count is an exact integer.
- There are more subtleties to counting reads (multi-mapping, alternative splicing, etc.). I’m not covering them here.
- The end result is a **table of genes X samples** with integer counts.

Aligning reads: accounting for splicing

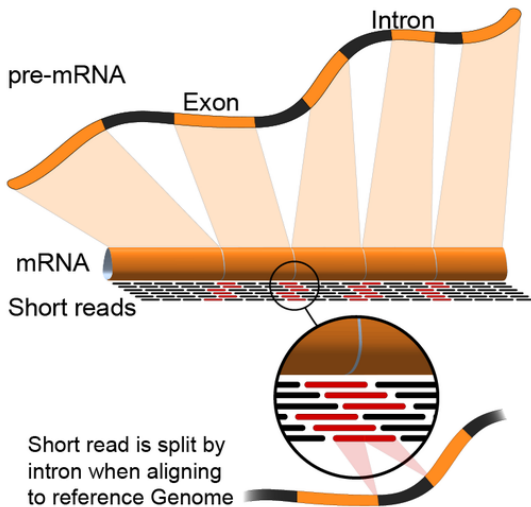


Figure 2: Split mapping of spliced reads

Statistical Analysis of RNA-seq Counts

Our basic strategy: linear models!

- First, we take the logarithm of the the counts, since the distribution after log transform is closer to a normal distribution (i.e. better for linear modeling)
- Then, for each gene we run `summary(lm(log_count ~ covariates))`
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Just kidding! This simple analysis has a bunch of issues that we need to fix if we want a valid analysis.

What's wrong with a simple linear model like this?

Questions to think about:

- Does the same count always equal the same expression? Is a count of 10 in sample A equal to a count of 10 in sample B?
- Are all counts equally precise? Which is more precise, a count of 10 or 1000?
- Do we even have a large enough sample size to do robust statistics?
- Can we use $P < 0.05$ as our significance threshold? How can we determine a better threshold?

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We'll see how we can solve all of these problems by embellishing the standard linear model described earlier.

Scaling Normalization for Count Data

Why normalize?

- Why do we have to normalize RNA-seq counts?
- What factors do we need to normalize for?
- What factors do we *not* need to normalize for?

CPM: Normalizing for sequencing depth

- The number of reads output by the sequencer for each sample is random
- Some samples receive more reads than others
- The total read count can vary by over 2-fold in many cases
- 10 counts out of 1 million is not the same as 10 counts out of 2 million
- Introduce “counts per million”, a.k.a. CPM

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So, 10 counts is not the same in every sample, but 10 CPM is, right?

Example count table

| Gene | Control | Treatment |
|--------------|------------|------------|
| Gene1 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene2 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene3 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene4 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene5 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene6 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene7 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene8 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene9 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene10 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene11 | 0 | 100 |
| Total | 200 | 200 |

Example CPM table

| Gene | Control | Treatment |
|--------|---------|-----------|
| Gene1 | 100000 | 50000 |
| Gene2 | 100000 | 50000 |
| Gene3 | 100000 | 50000 |
| Gene4 | 100000 | 50000 |
| Gene5 | 100000 | 50000 |
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Which gene(s) were affected by the treatment, and how were they affected?

TMM: Normalizing for compositional bias

- Instead of normalizing for total counts, normalize so that the average log fold change is zero
- We have lots of genes, so we make the average robust against outliers by throwing away the highest- and lowest-abundance genes.
- Also throw away the highest and lowest fold changes for the same reason
- Result: “Trimmed Mean of M-values” method, a.k.a. TMM (M-values are the term for log fold changes)
- Apply the normalization by modifying the total counts and then computing CPM using the modified totals

So how would we normalize this table with TMM?

| Gene | Control | Treatment |
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| Gene1 | 20 | 10 |
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| Gene5 | 20 | 10 |
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| Gene7 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene8 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene9 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene10 | 20 | 10 |
| Gene11 | 0 | 100 |
| Total | 200 | 200 |
| TMM correction | $\sqrt{2}$ | $1/\sqrt{2}$ |
| Normalized total | 282.84 | 141.42 |

Same table, normalized by TMM

| Gene | Control | Treatment |
|--------|---------|-----------|
| Gene1 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene2 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene3 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene4 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene5 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene6 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene7 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene8 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene9 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene10 | 70710 | 70710 |
| Gene11 | 0 | 707107 |

Now we can see which genes are *really* changing.

Why wasn't CPM good enough?

- CPM already normalizes for sequencing depth
- But CPM does not account for “compositional bias”
- Because sequencing depth is limited and independent of the biology, genes compete for a limited supply of sequence reads
- If one gene goes up, all others have to go down
- When high-abundance genes change, they can have a drastic effect on all others
- This competition for limited sequencing depth affects the counts of all genes, but has no bearing on the biology, so it requires normalization
- TMM fixes this by requiring that the “average” gene is not changing

Real-world CPM fail: globin reduction

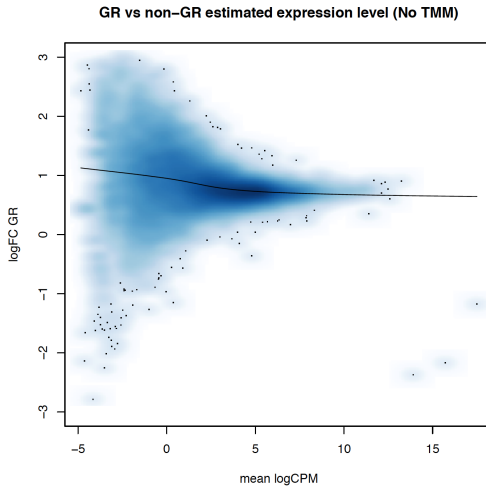


Figure 3: MA plot (Raw logCPM)

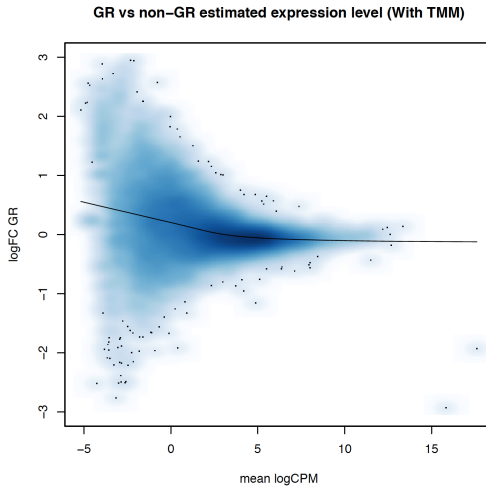


Figure 4: MA plot (With TMM)

FPKM: Normalizing for gene length?

- If gene A and gene B both have 10 CPM in a sample, are they expressed at the same level?
- What if gene A's transcript is 1000 nt long while gene B is 100000?
- If we divide CPM by the transcript length, we get the count of “fragments per kilobase per million fragments sequenced”, a.k.a. FPKM

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- If we divide CPM by the transcript length, we get the count of “fragments per kilobase per million fragments sequenced”, a.k.a. FPKM
- This can be used to compare across genes, but it is **not** useful for differential expression, as we will see later.

Better Variance Estimation with limma and voom

Heteroskedasticity: easier to understand than it is to say

- In ideal data, the mean and variance are independent: every measurement has the same precision. This desirable property is called “homoskedastic”
- R's `lm()` assumes homoskedasticity by default
- If the precision of a measurement depends on its mean or on other factors, the data are “heteroskedastic”, and the model would benefit from adjusting for this dependency
- We can do this adjustment by adding in weights: more precise measurements get a higher weight, less precise measurements get a lower weight

Counting precision depends on the count

- Which coin is more trustworthy?
 - **Coin A:** Flipped it 10 times, got 5 heads & 5 tails
 - **Coin B:** Flipped it 100 times, got 50 heads & 50 tails

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 - **Coin A:** Flipped it 10 times, got 5 heads & 5 tails
 - **Coin B:** Flipped it 100 times, got 50 heads & 50 tails
- Coin B is more trustworthy because higher counts are more precise
- Genes with higher expression and/or longer genes get higher counts, so they can be measured more precisely
- Also works within a single gene: if Gene A is upregulated in the treatment relative to the control, then the counts in the treatment are also more precise than the control counts
- Samples with higher sequencing depth are more precise for all genes

Voom: modeling the mean-variance trend

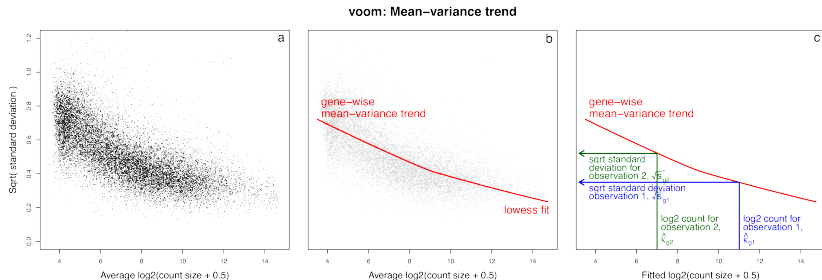


Figure 5: Diagram of voom method

Problem: Few replicates makes it hard to estimate variance

- RNA-seq is expensive, so most experiments have very few replicates
- Few replicates means that we can't get a robust estimate of the variance for each gene
- In turn, the means our p-values are less reliable
- But with 1000s of genes, we *can* get a robust estimate of the average variance of all genes
- This would be great if every gene had the same variance, but we know this isn't the case
- Maybe there's a compromise between these two extremes?

Empirical Bayes: Sharing information is caring information

- We will come up with a scheme where genes partially share information with each other about the variance
- First, estimate each gene's variance on its own
- Then, take the average of all the genes' variances
- Now, set each individual gene's variance somewhere between the gene-specific value and the global average
- Result is more accurate than the global average variance *and* more precise than the gene-specific variance
- The more samples we have, the less we rely on the average and the more we can rely on the gene-specific variance

Variance estimation: no squeezing

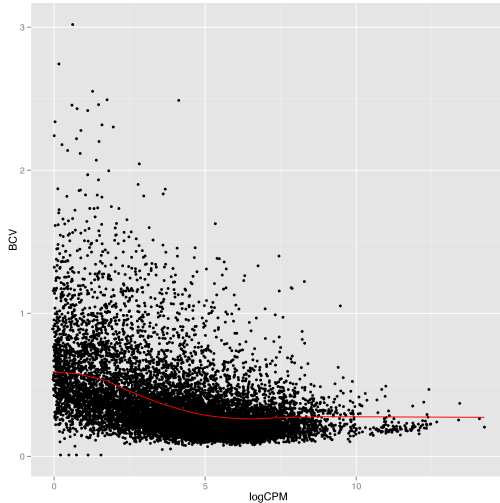


Figure 6: Raw gene-specific variances

Variance estimation: empirical Bayes squeezing

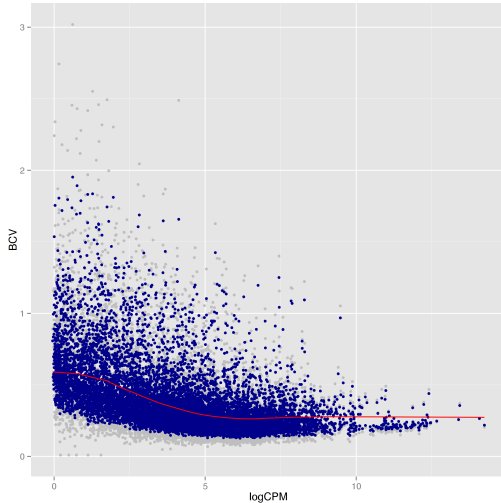


Figure 7: Empirical Bayes squeezed vs raw variances

Multiple Testing Correction; or, why p-values are terrible

Assessing your model with p-value histograms

- As you've already learned, p-values are uniformly distributed under the null hypothesis
- So any deviation from uniformity in multiple tests can be interpreted as deviation from the null hypothesis
- *Technically*, we're not doing multiple tests, but we *are* testing multiple genes, and that's close enough

FDR: Important definitions and distinctions

- FDR: expected number of false positives in a *list* of genes – does not tell the probability of any one gene being a false positive
- Important: FDR is a general term for any false discovery rate calculation – remember to specify the specific method of computing FDR in your Methods section
- Benjamini-Hochberg: an FDR algorithm; puts an *upper bound* on the FDR
- π_0 : Estimated proportion of all null hypotheses that are true (non-DE genes), a.k.a. prior probability of non-DE
- q-value: Another commonly used algorithm for estimation of FDR; more liberal than BH, but has a chance to overestimate significance
 - Specifically q-value equals BH FDR times π_0 ; or equivalently BH FDR is q-value under the pessimistic assumption that $\pi_0 = 1$

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- These definitions are best understood in graphical terms

Typical P-value distribution: all null

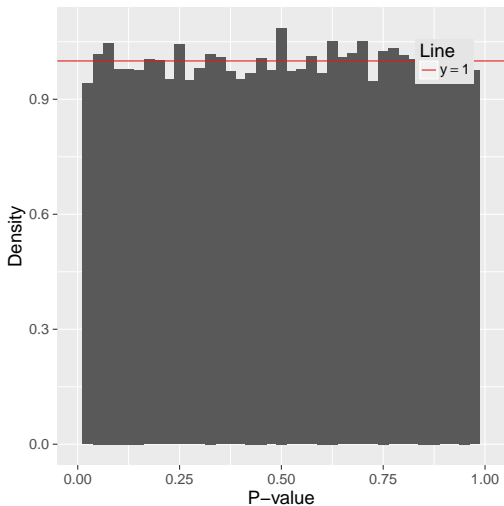


Figure 8: P-value distribution with no signal

Typical P-value distribution: moderate signal

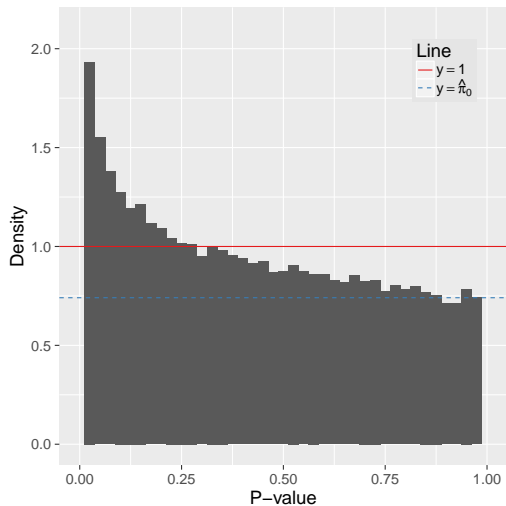


Figure 9: P-value distribution with moderate signal

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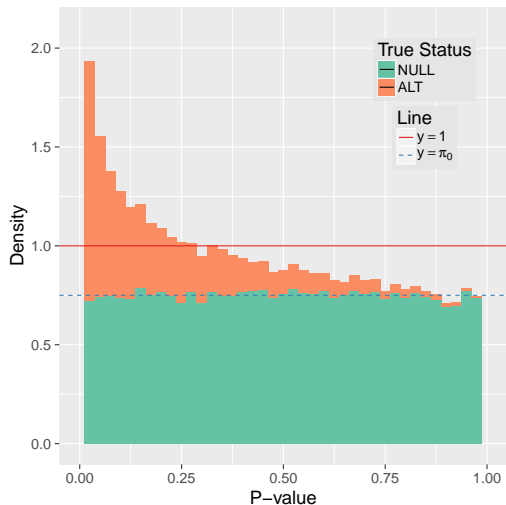


Figure 10: P-value distribution with moderate signal, colored by true status

Evaluating your model using the p-value distribution

- Every p-value distribution should either be uniform or zero-biased
- Any other distribution indicates that your model does not fit the data - Fix your model!
- FDR methods will not have a useful interpretation for such a p-value distribution
- Possible issues:
 - Critical assumptions of your model are severely violated (e.g. heteroskedasticity, wrong distribution, too many outliers)
 - Covariates/batch effects not included in your model
 - Highly correlated covariates are splitting the effect
 - Unobserved batch effect or other confounding factor is obscuring the signal
 - You accidentally treated continuous variable as categorical or vice versa (common R pitfall!)
- CANNOT be explained by simple lack of signal

Atypical P-value distribution: Over-Conservative

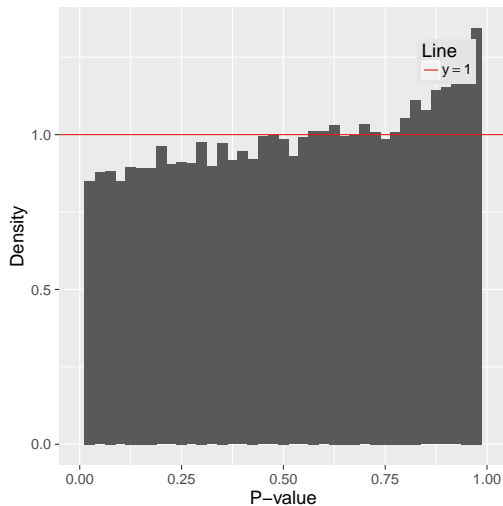


Figure 11: P-value distribution, worse than uniform

Atypical P-value distribution: Bimodal

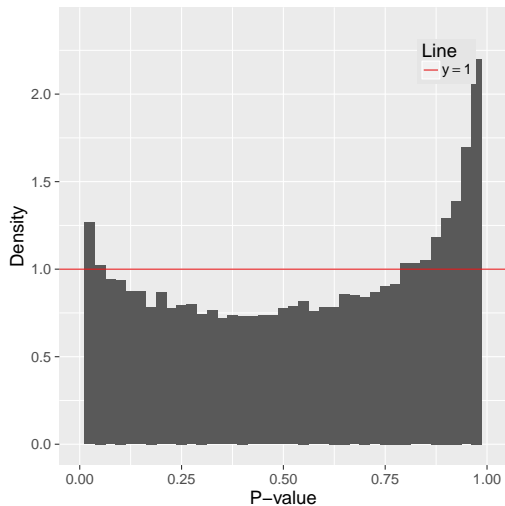


Figure 12: P-value distribution, bimodal

Atypical P-value distribution: Bump in the middle

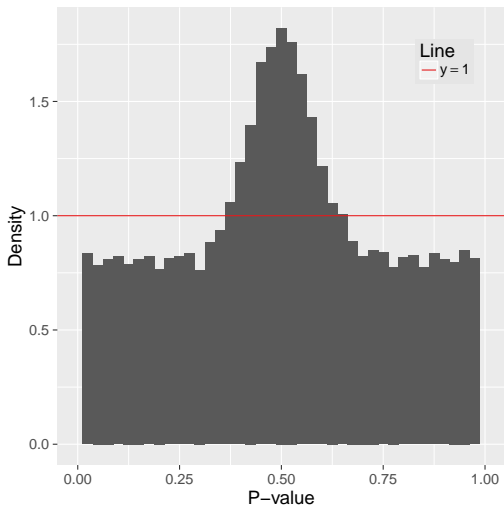


Figure 13: P-value distribution, non-monotonic

Atypical P-value distribution: Discrete values

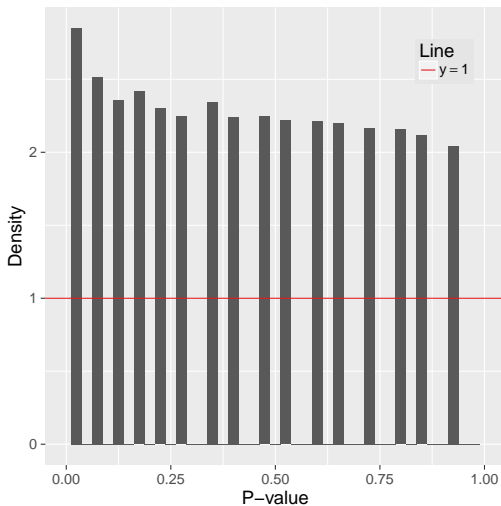


Figure 14: P-value distribution, discrete

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- Counts are log-transformed and analyzed using an ordinary linear model. . .

- RNA-seq reads are aligned and counted to obtain counts for each gene in each sample
- Counts are log-transformed and analyzed using an ordinary linear model...
- ...with modifications to account for normalization (TMM) and counting precision (voom), and to improve variance estimation by sharing information between genes (empirical Bayes squeezing)
- Luckily, the limma package does all of this extra work for you, so it's almost as easy as normal `lm()`
- Finally, p-values are adjusted for multiple testing to obtain FDRs

Not Pictured: All of these other things

There's a lot more that you can do with RNA-seq data!

- Differential expression using `glm` and the negative binomial distribution
- Estimation of alternative isoform expression levels
- Differential splicing analysis
- Uneven coverage across gene bodies
- Gene set/pathway enrichment testing for differentially expressed/spliced genes
- Co-expression networks: WCGNA
- Genotyping of coding SNPs
- Association of SNPs with expression levels (eQTLs)
- Association of TFBS/histone marks/miRNA with expression levels (epigenetics & post-transcriptional regulation)

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Many high-throughput technologies are like this. Think carefully about multiple analyses from the same data to get your money's worth!

Any Questions?