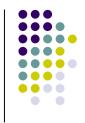
### **Lecture #6**

**Differential expression** 

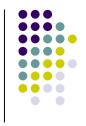


#### **Outline**

- Differentially expressed genes
- Filtering genes
- Two-sample tests
  - Parametric tests
    - Student's t-test
    - Welch's modified t-test
    - Fold change
  - Non-parametric tests
    - Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test
- Greater than two-sample test
  - Parametric tests
    - One-factor ANOVA (fixed effects)
    - Two-factor ANOVA (fixed effects)
  - Non-parametric tests
    - Kruskal-Wallis test
- Partial least squares regression
- Gene shaving



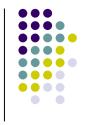
# Why be concerned with differentially expressed genes?



 Differential expression allows us to form hypotheses about the genes that discriminate one state from another

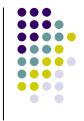
- Genes that are over/under-expressed in different states can provide:
  - Models specific for tissues, disease, treatments, etc.
  - Markers for disease-state screening
  - Mechanistic analysis
  - Therapeutic targets

### **General Methodology**



- What is the general distribution of the genes?
  - Parametric tests assume that the data follows a specific distribution
  - Non-parametric tests do not make such assumptions
- Can the data be transformed to give a more robust test?
- For each gene, conduct a statistical test
- Calculate the scoring statistic (e.g. test statistic) for each test
- Determine if the scoring statistic exceeds the pre-determined threshold
- Correct the scoring statistic, accounting for the number of statistical tests
  - Multiple testing correction

### **Gene filtering**



- Usually one of the preliminary steps to choosing differentially expressed genes involves reducing the number of genes to begin with
- This will eliminate those genes that either have small/no expression intensity or genes whose expression does not vary across samples
- In Affymetrix data:
  - The A/P calls can be a primary filter
    - e.g retain only those genes with a P call across n-i samples, where i can be 1,2...n
  - Mean expression intensities that fall below a specified value
  - Low variance across all samples
- In cDNA data:
  - Genes that have expression intensities where the background is larger than the signal
    - Results in negative value for either Cy5 or Cy3 net intensity
  - Low variance across all samples

### Student's t-test (two-sample)



- $X_1, ... X_m$  are  $N(\mu_X, \sigma^2)$  and  $Y_1, ... Y_n$  are  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma^2)$ 
  - The variances are assumed to be equal, so the pooled variance is calculated as:

$$s^{2} = \frac{1}{m+n-2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} (X_{i} - \bar{X})^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} (Y_{i} - \bar{Y})^{2} \right).$$

• The test-statistic for the null,  $\mu_X = \mu_Y$ , is calculated as:

$$T(X,Y) = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{s\sqrt{\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n}}}.$$

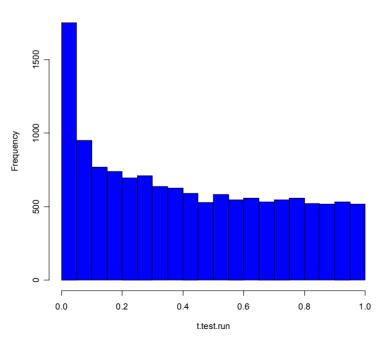
• Under the null,  $\mu_X = \mu_Y$ , the test statistic follows a  $t_{m+n-2}$  distribution

### Student's t-test example

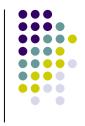


Distribution of p-values for ~8,000 genes from Eisen et al. DLBCL data set





#### F-test of variances



- Test to determine the homogeneity of variances between two groups
  - Useful for determination of differential expression tests
- s<sub>1</sub><sup>2</sup> and s<sub>2</sub><sup>2</sup> are sample variances with n<sub>1</sub>-1 and n<sub>2</sub>-1 degrees of freedom
  - Follows an F-distribution with numerator (n<sub>1</sub>-1) and denominator (n<sub>2</sub>-1)
  - Confidence interval:  $F_{df1,df2,\alpha} < s_1^2/s_2^2 < F_{df2,df1,1-\alpha}$
  - Note:  $F_{df1,df2,\alpha} = 1/(F_{df2,df1,1-\alpha})$
- This test is for two groups. To test multiple groups, use Bartlett's test (homogeneity of covariance)
- F-test in R:
  - >var.test(x,y)

# Welch's modified t-test (two-sample)



- $X_1, ... X_m$  are  $N(\mu_X, \sigma^2_X)$  and  $Y_1, ... Y_n$  are  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma^2_Y)$ 
  - The variances are different, so the test-statistic for the null,  $\mu_X = \mu_Y$ , is calculated as:

$$T(X,Y) = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{\sqrt{s_X^2/m + s_Y^2/n}}.$$

• Under the null,  $\mu_x = \mu_y$ , the degrees of freedom are calculated as:

$$\nu = \frac{\left(\frac{s_1^2}{m} + \frac{s_2^2}{n}\right)^2}{\frac{\binom{s_1^2}{m}}{m-1} + \frac{\binom{s_2^2}{n}}{n-1}}$$

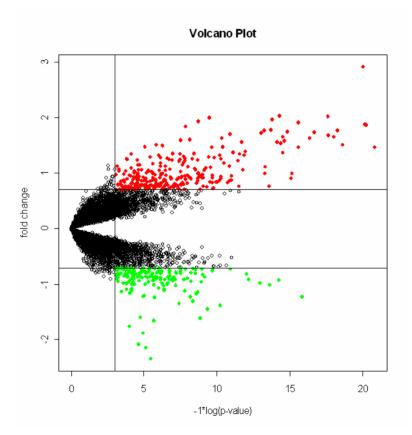
### **Fold Change**



- Significance tests determine differential expression between means as a function of variance
- Fold change is a relative measure of the magnitude of difference between means
  - Variance is not assessed in calculation
  - Common fold change threshold is usually 1.5-3
- Linear scale for each gene
   Fold change = mean(X) / mean(Y)
   Value of 1 is indicative of no change
- Log scale for each gene
   Fold change = mean(X) mean(Y)
   Value of 0 is indicative of no change
- Remember that two-channel arrays values are intrinsically fold changes due to the two hybridizations (control and treated)
  - log(R) log(G)
- Combination of fold change and p-value provide most significantly differentially expressed genes

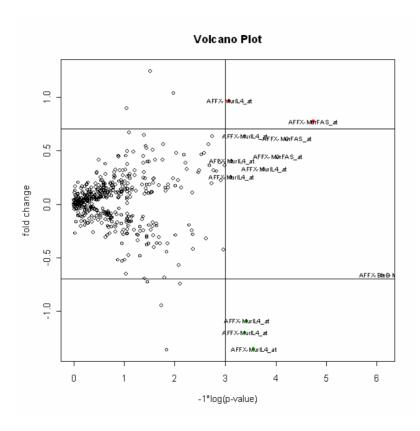
### Fold vs. p-value plot (volcano)



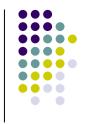


### Fold vs. p-value plot (volcano)





## Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney u-test (two-sample)



 Both samples are combined and the values are ranked in the pooled sample

<u>Value</u>	<u>Group</u>	<u>Rank</u>
20	1	3
30	1	4
15	2	2
60	2	5
10	2	1

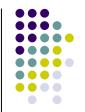
- The test statistic is calculated as a function of the sum of ranks in one of the groups
- For large sample sizes, a normal approximation is used  $Z = [W_1-n (n+m+1)/2]/[sqrt(nm (n+m+1)/12)] \sim N(0,1)$
- Depending on ratio of m/n, can perform better for very different sample sizes than parametric test

#### **Experimental design basic terminology**



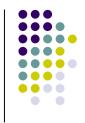
- Type of conditions that the experimental units are manipulated by are factors
  - Groups
  - Doses
  - Assay time points
- The different modes of a factor are the factor levels
  - male & female
  - control, mid-level, high-level
  - 0 hrs, 10 hrs, 15 hrs, 25 hrs
- Multiple ANOVA models exist (with corrections), which can be contingent upon different experimental designs and testing parameters
  - We will only concern ourselves with a fixed effects factors, without repeated measures, and near balanced designs

### One-factor ANOVA – completely randomized design



- The completely randomized design consists of independent random sampling from several populations when each population is identified as the population of responses under a particular treatment
  - Randomly sample a population and assign treatments
- What are we testing?
  - Is there any significant difference between the means of each treatment?
  - $y_{ij} = \mu + \beta_j + e_{ij}$  $\mu$  is overall mean;  $\beta_i$  is jth treatment effect;  $e_{ij} \sim N(0,\sigma)$
  - $H_0$ :  $\beta_1 = \beta_2 = ... \beta_k = 0$

### One-factor ANOVA – completely randomized design



#### ANOVA table decomposed

#### The ANOVA Table for Comparing Means

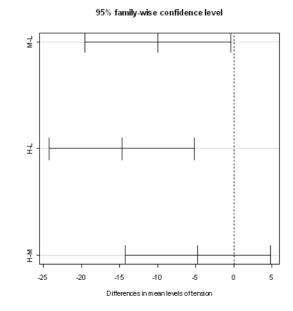
Source	SS (Sum of Squares, the numerator of the variance)	DF (the denominator)	MS (Mean Square, the variance)	F
or model)	<i>i=1 j=1</i>	<i>p-1</i>	$MST = \frac{SST}{p-1}$	$F = \frac{MST}{MSE}$
Error (or Within)	$SSE = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (y_{ij} - \overline{y}_i)^2$	n-p	$MSE = \frac{SSE}{n - p}$	
Total	$TSS = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (y_{ij} - \overline{y})^2$	n-1		

- Sum of squares due to differences in the treatment means
- Residuals are deviations reflecting inherent variability in the experimental material and measuring device
- Reject  $H_O$  if F-ratio >  $F_{\alpha}(p-1,n-p)$

### **One-factor ANOVA – example**

Yarn breaks data set (during weaving)
 Tension is the factor (3 levels: H, M, L) and breaks is the continuous variable





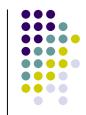
Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
tension 2 2034.3 1017.1 7.2061 0.001753 \*\*
Residuals 51 7198.6 141.1

## Two-factor ANOVA – completely randomized design



- The completely randomized design consists of independent random sampling from several populations when each population is identified as the population of responses under a particular treatment
  - Randomly sample a population and assign treatments
- What are we testing?
  - What are the effects of factor A, factor B, and the simultaneous effect of the combination of factors A and B on the response of interest?
  - $y_{ijk} = \mu + \alpha_i + \beta_j + (\alpha \beta)_{ij} + e_{ijk}$  $\mu$  is overall mean;  $\alpha_i$  is *i*th treatment effect of factor A;  $\beta_j$  is *j*th treatment effect of factor B;  $(\alpha \beta)_{ij}$  is the interaction term;  $e_{ijk} \sim N(0, \sigma)$

### Two-factor ANOVA – completely randomized design



ANOVA table decomposed

$$SSTO = \sum_{i=1}^{a} \sum_{j=1}^{b} \sum_{k=1}^{n} y_{ijk}^{2} - \frac{y_{...}^{2}}{abn} \qquad SSA = \sum_{i=1}^{a} \frac{y_{i...}^{2}}{bn} - \frac{y_{...}^{2}}{abn}$$

$$SSB = \sum_{j=1}^{b} \frac{y_{.j.}^{2}}{an} - \frac{y_{...}^{2}}{abn} \qquad SSAB = \sum_{i=1}^{a} \sum_{j=1}^{b} \frac{y_{ij.}^{2}}{n} - SSA - SSB - \frac{y_{...}^{2}}{abn}$$

$$SSE = SSTO - SSA - SSB - SSAB$$

#### ANOVA Table

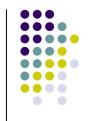
Source of	Sum of		Mean	$\mathbf{F}$
Variation	Squares	d.f.	Square	Ratio
A	SSA	a-1	MSA = SSA/(a-1)	$F_A=MSA/MSE$
B	SSB	b - 1	MSB = SSB/(b-1)	$F_B=MSB/MSE$
A*B	SSAB	(a-1)(b-1)	MSAB = SSAB/(a-1)(b-1))	$F_{A*B} = MSAB/MSE$
Error	SSE	ab(n-1)	MSE = SSE/(ab(n-1))	
Total	SSTO	abn - 1		

- Test for factor A main effects: reject  $H_O$  if  $F_A > F_\alpha(a-1,ab(n-1))$ ;  $\alpha_2...\alpha_a = 0$
- Test for factor B main effects: reject  $H_O$  if  $F_B > F_\alpha(b-1,ab(n-1))$ ;

$$H_O = \alpha_1$$

 $H_O = \beta_1, \beta$ 

### Kruskal-Wallis test for comparing *k* treatments

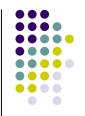


- Non-parametric analog to the one-way ANOVA
- The k samples are combined and the values are ranked in the pooled sample
- The average ranks for individual samples are calculated (R.bar)
- The test statistic is then calculated as:

$$KW = \frac{12}{N(N+1)} \sum_{i=1}^{K} n_{i} \left( \bar{R}_{i} - \frac{N+1}{2} \right)^{2}$$

The test is rejected for KW > x<sup>2</sup><sub>K-1</sub>

# Partial least squares regression (PLS)



- PLS is a multivariate regression method
- Very generally, PLS, like PCA works to maximize the variability of a matrix by calculating linear combinations of the original variables
- However, PCA maximizes this variability between the samples/genes, while PLS relates the data matrix, X to a response, Y
  - X is this example is a matrix of genes by samples
  - Y in this example is the expected continuous response or class membership
- PLS is a regression approach, where the predictor variables are weighted according to their ability to predict the response variable

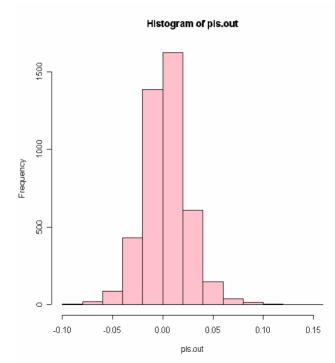
### PLS example Spellman et al. yeast data

(cdc15 experiment)



Gene weights are computed, based on the similarity to the response

Large positive weights indicate a strong match, while large negative weights indicate a strong opposite match



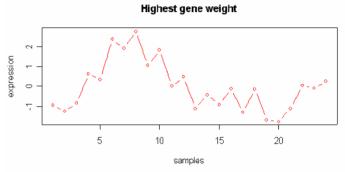
### PLS example Spellman et al. yeast data

(cdc15 experiment)



Response was specified as:

up (1) at first 12 times states and down (0) at next 12 times states





### **Gene Shaving Gene Selection**



- A method for identifying gene subsets with coherent expression relevant measurements (samples)
- Iterative sampling method to "identify groups of genes that optimally separate samples into predefined classes"
- Randomization correction procedure is implemented to protect against determining spurious structure in the data

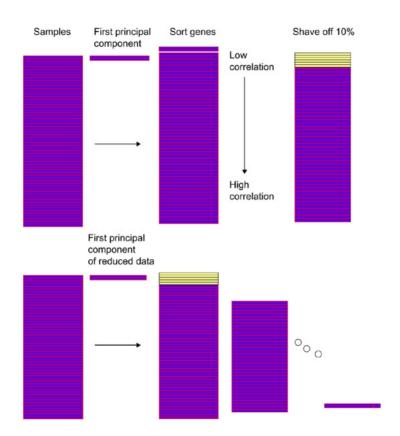
### **Primary Gene Shaving Methodology**



- Start with an expression matrix X, (genes x samples), mean center each gene
- Compute the largest principal component over the genes
  - Linear combination of genes explaining maximal variance
- Calculate the absolute inner-product between the largest principal component and all genes
  - Correlation between largest principal component and gene k
- Shave off 10% of the genes with the lowest correlation values
- Repeat procedure until 1 gene remains
- This nested sequence of genes clusters are then evaluated for the optimal cluster size, *k* using a gap statistic

### **Primary Gene Shaving Methodology**





### **Gap Estimate**

- The first step of the shaving method creates a series of gene clusters, S<sub>k</sub> ranging in size from 90% the number of genes to 1
- If this method were applied to random data, many genes would exhibit patterns similar to actual data
- Require a method to calibrate the shaving process to differentiate real patterns from spurious patterns

### Gap Estimate – cluster quality measure



- Looking for clusters with high-variance clusters and high coherence between members of the clusters
- Similar method to ANOVA variance components

$$V_W = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^p \left[ \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i \in S_k} (x_{ij} - \overline{x}_j)^2 \right]$$
 Within Variance 
$$V_B = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{j=1}^p (\overline{x}_j - \overline{x})^2$$
 Between Variance 
$$V_T = \frac{1}{kp} \sum_{i \in S_k} \sum_{j=1}^p (x_{ij} - \overline{x})^2$$
 Total Variance 
$$= V_W + V_B$$

Between variance: variance of the mean gene

Within-variance: variability of each gene about the cluster average, also averaged over samples

### Gap Estimate – cluster quality measure



Percent variance explained

$$R^{2} = 100 \frac{V_{B}}{V_{T}} = \frac{\frac{V_{B}}{V_{W}}}{1 + \frac{V_{B}}{V_{W}}}$$

Large  $R^2$  implies tight cluster of coherent genes  $D_k$  is the  $R^2$  measure for the kth member of the sequence

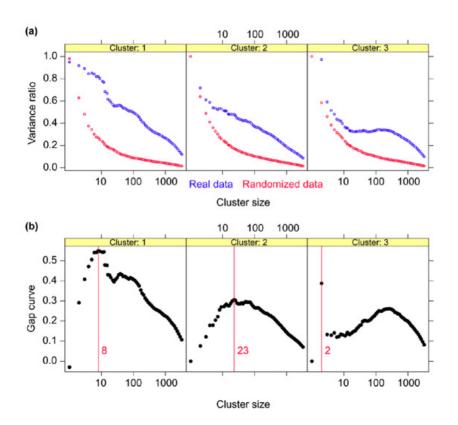
- Using a permuted data set, X\*b, D<sub>k</sub>\*b is the R² measure for cluster S<sub>k</sub>\*b
- D.bar<sub>k</sub>\* is the average of  $D_k^{*b}$  over b permuted random matrices
- The gap function is defined as:

$$\operatorname{Gap}(k) = D_k - \overline{D}_k^*$$

Select the optimal number of genes from the value of *k* producing the largest gap

#### Variance Plots of Real and Random Data



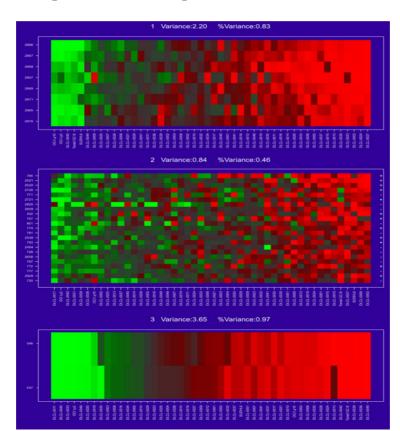


### **Heat Maps of Top 3 Clusters**

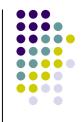
8 genes

23 genes

2 genes



#### References



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