# Statistics of RNA-seq analysis

Zeynep Kalender-Atak

Source: Dominique Laurent Couturier, CRUK-Cl

```
> dds <- DESeqDataSetFromMatrix(cnts, DataFrame(cond), ~ cond)</pre>
> dds <- DESeq(dds)</pre>
> results(dds)
log2 fold change (MLE): cond 2 vs 1
Wald test p-value: cond 2 vs 1
DataFrame with 1000 rows and 6 columns
      baseMean log2FoldChange
                                   lfcSE
                                                       pvalue
                                               stat
                                                                    padj
     <numeric>
                     <numeric> <numeric> <numeric> <numeric> <numeric> <numeric>
                                                                0.745842
       97.3140
                     -0.682067
                                0.344525 - 1.979730 \ 0.0477339
      109.9860
                     -0.228819
                                0.450720 - 0.507676 \ 0.6116808
                                                                0.944354
                      0.104291
       98.8111
                                0.462113
                                           0.225683 0.8214483
                                                                0.978382
      103.2615
                     0.306400
                                0.297682
                                           1.029284 0.3033460
                                                                0.944354
       97.9406
                     0.316338
                                0.357242 0.885501 0.3758864
                                                                0.944354
                                           0.162939 0.8705668
       86.8057
                                0.287042
                                                                0.980044
996
                     0.0467703
997
      101.4437
                    -0.2070806
                                0.339886 - 0.609264 \ 0.5423495
                                                                0.944354
998
       78.1356
                    -0.6372790
                                0.369515 - 1.724637 \ 0.0845930
                                                                0.824310
999
       89.2920
                     0.7554725
                                0.306192 2.467314 0.0136131
                                                                0.614613
      103.5569
                   -0.0728875
                                0.348655 - 0.209053 \ 0.8344065
                                                                0.978382
1000
```

#### Outline

- Statistical Concepts Bite size statistics
  - PPDAC Cycle
  - Hypothesis testing
  - Type I and II errors
  - Power Analysis
- Statistical aspects of bulk RNA-seq analysis
  - Generalized Linear Models
  - Negative Binomial Regression
  - Multiple Comparisons

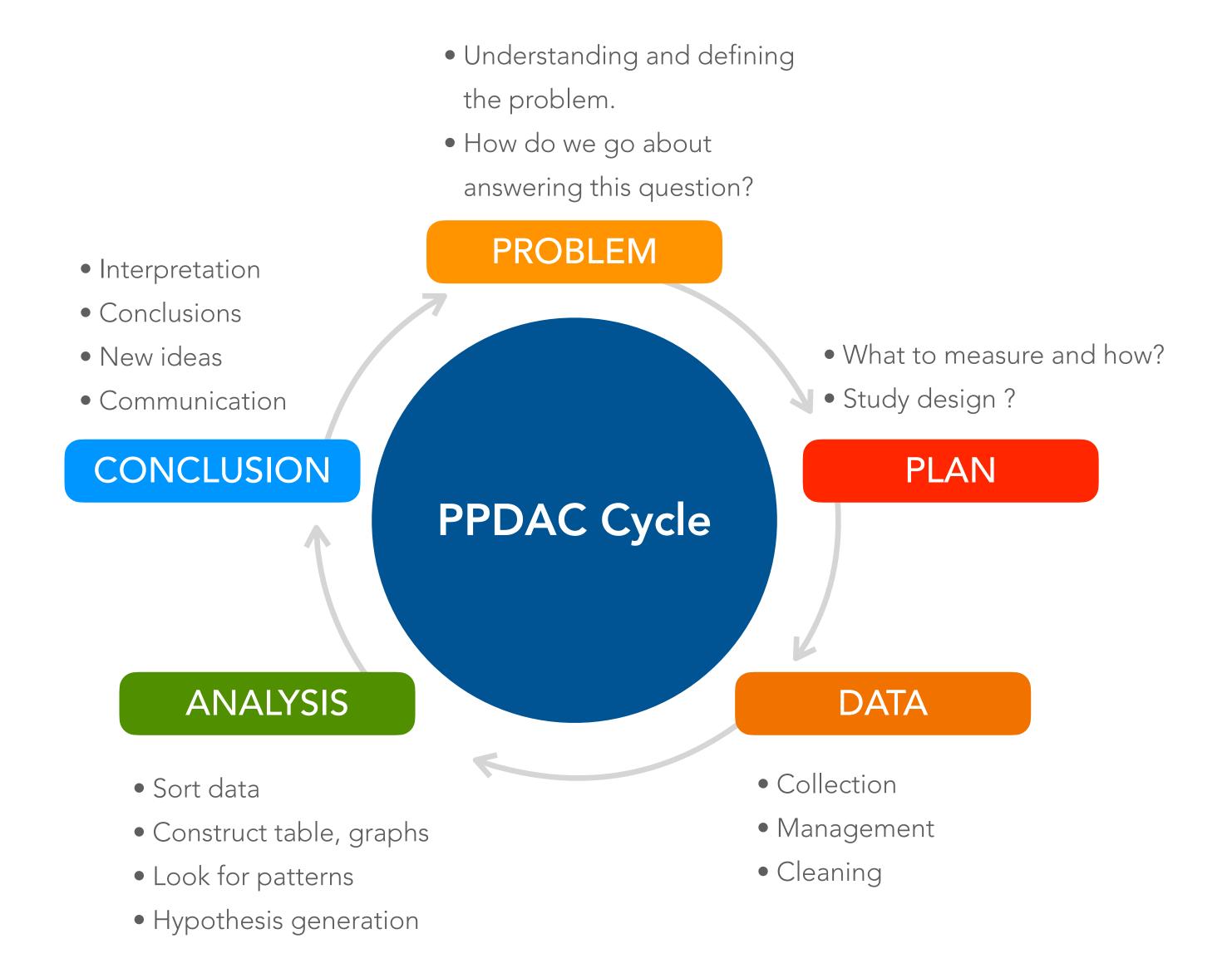


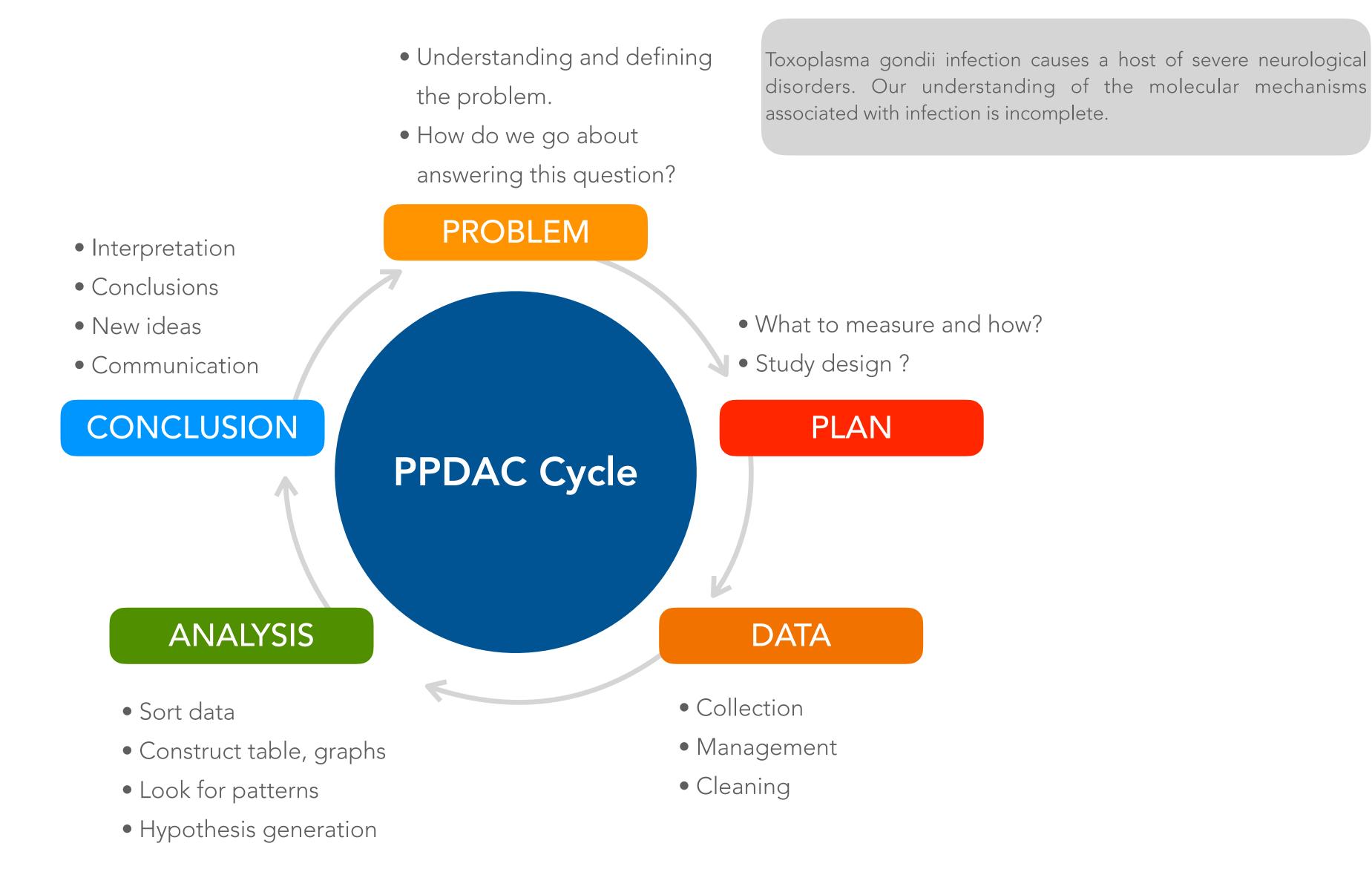


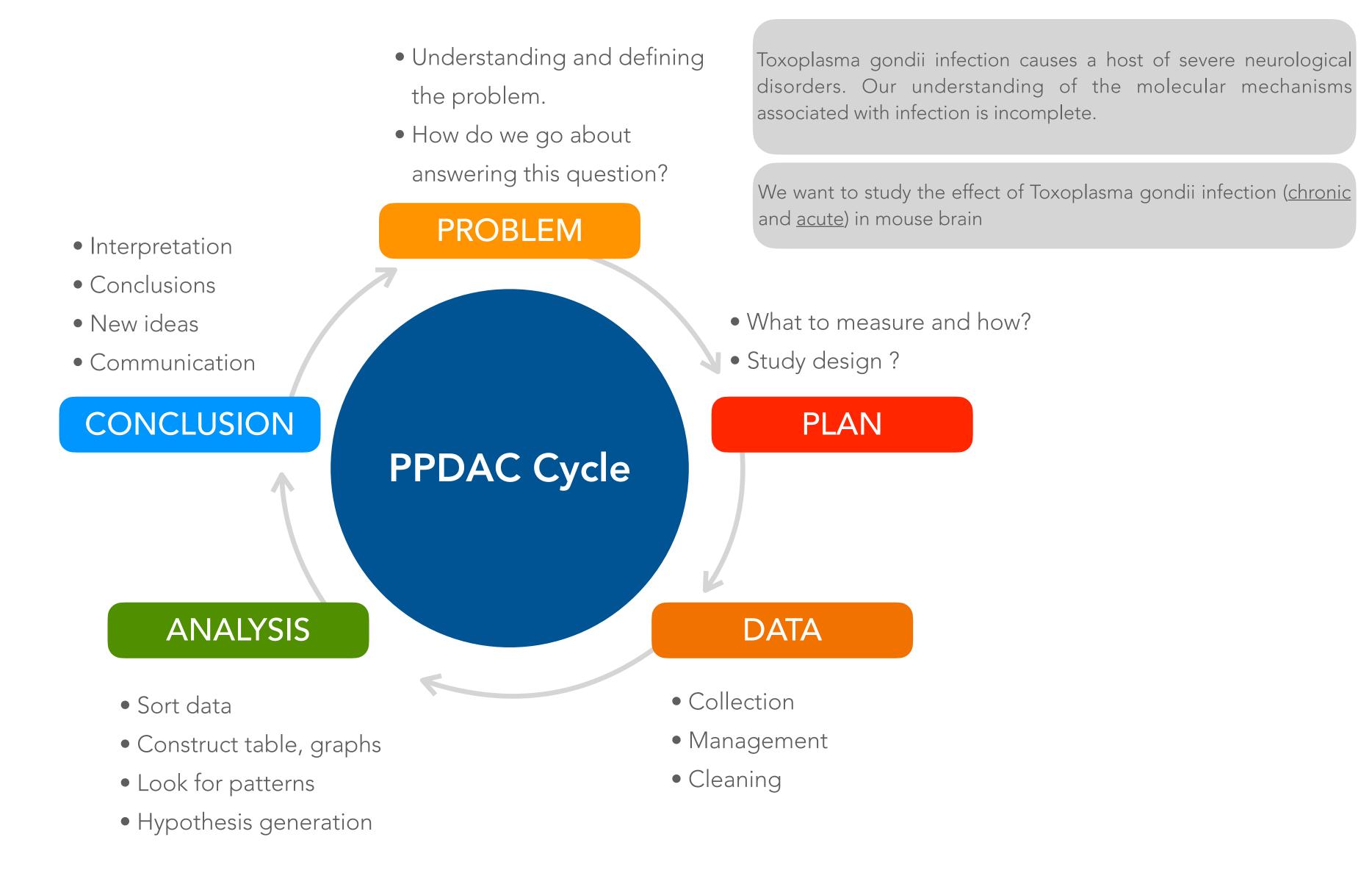


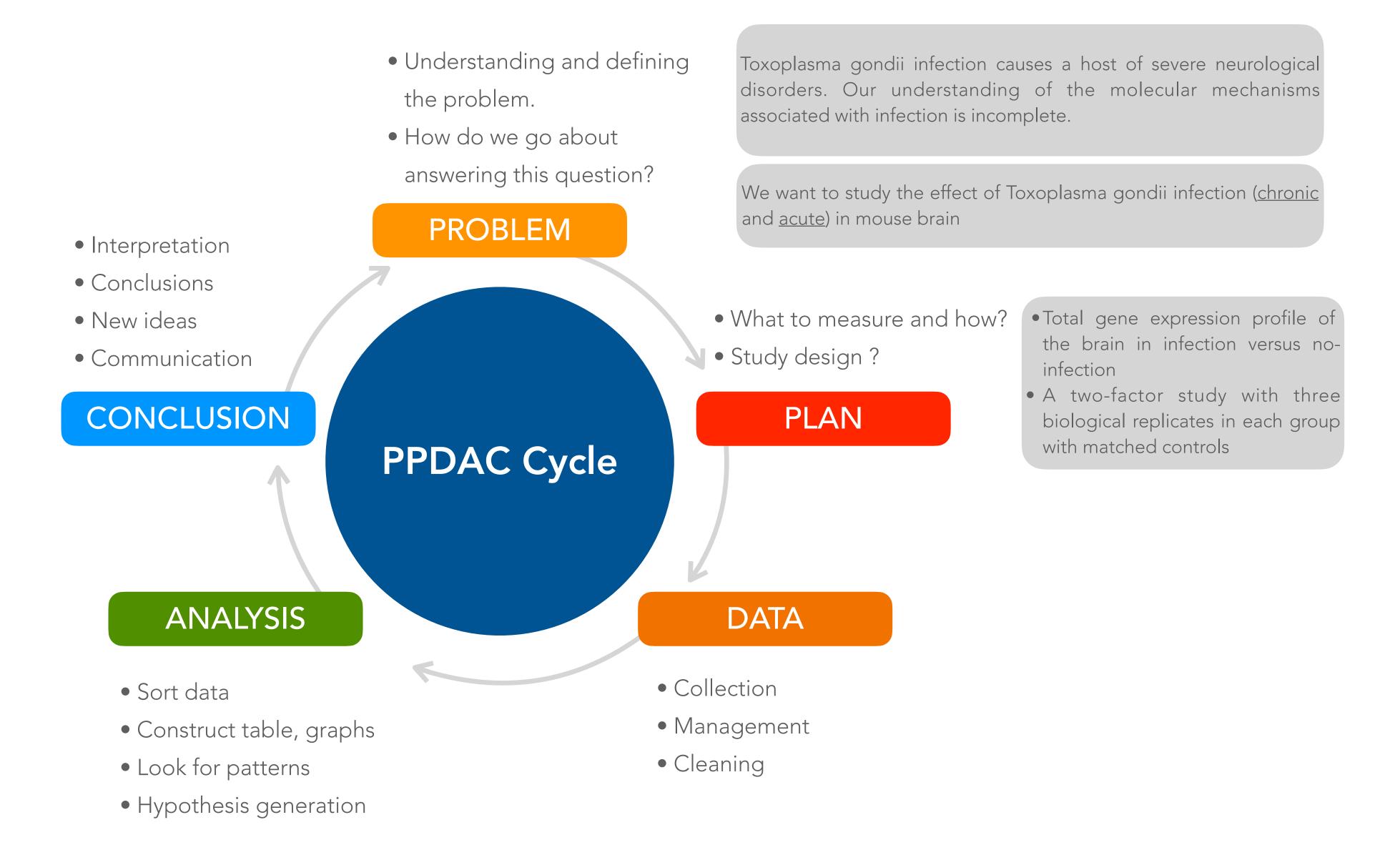
#### Data literacy

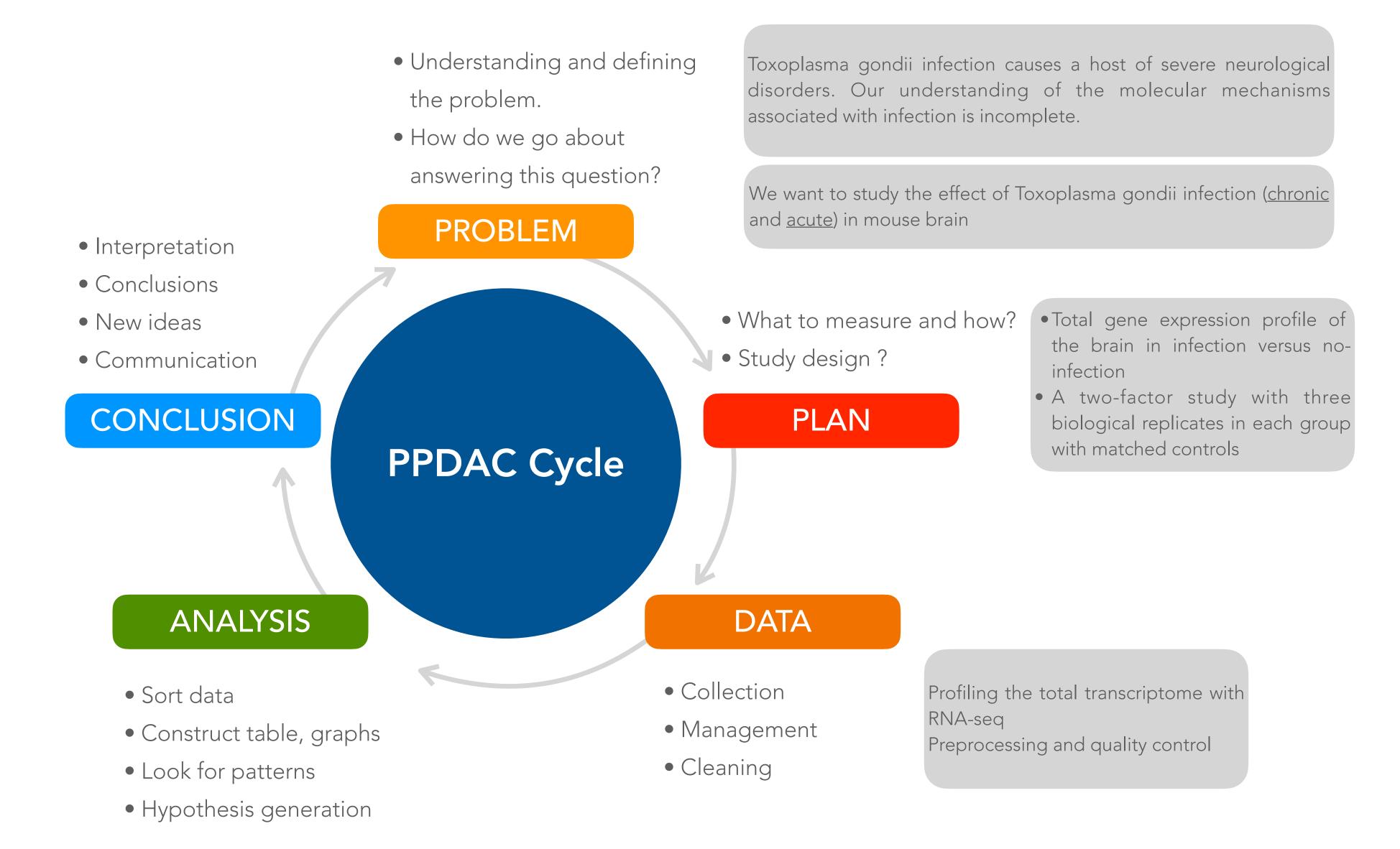
The ability to not only carry out statistical analysis on real-world problems, but also to understand and critique any conclusions drawn by others on the basis of statistics.

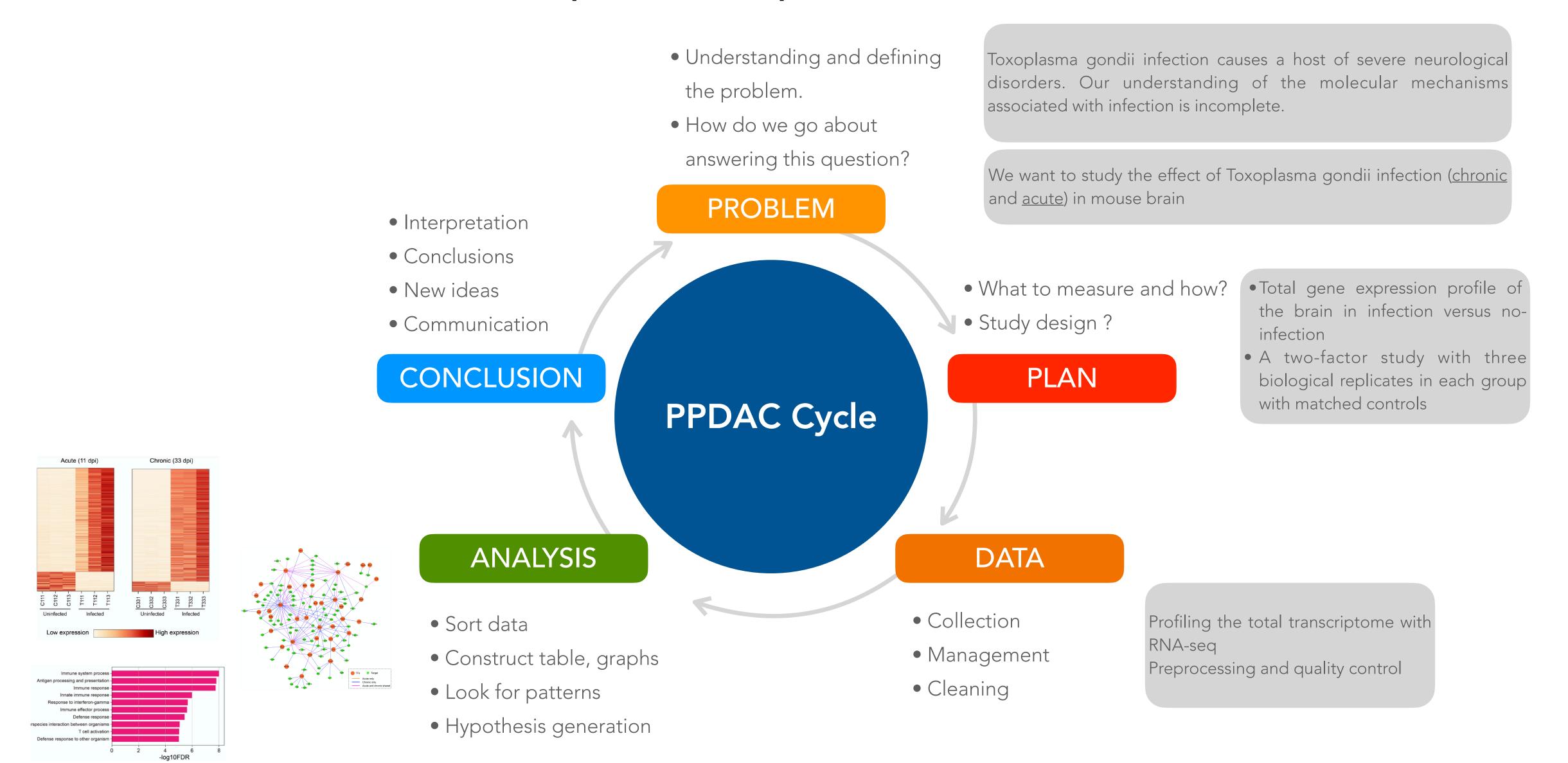


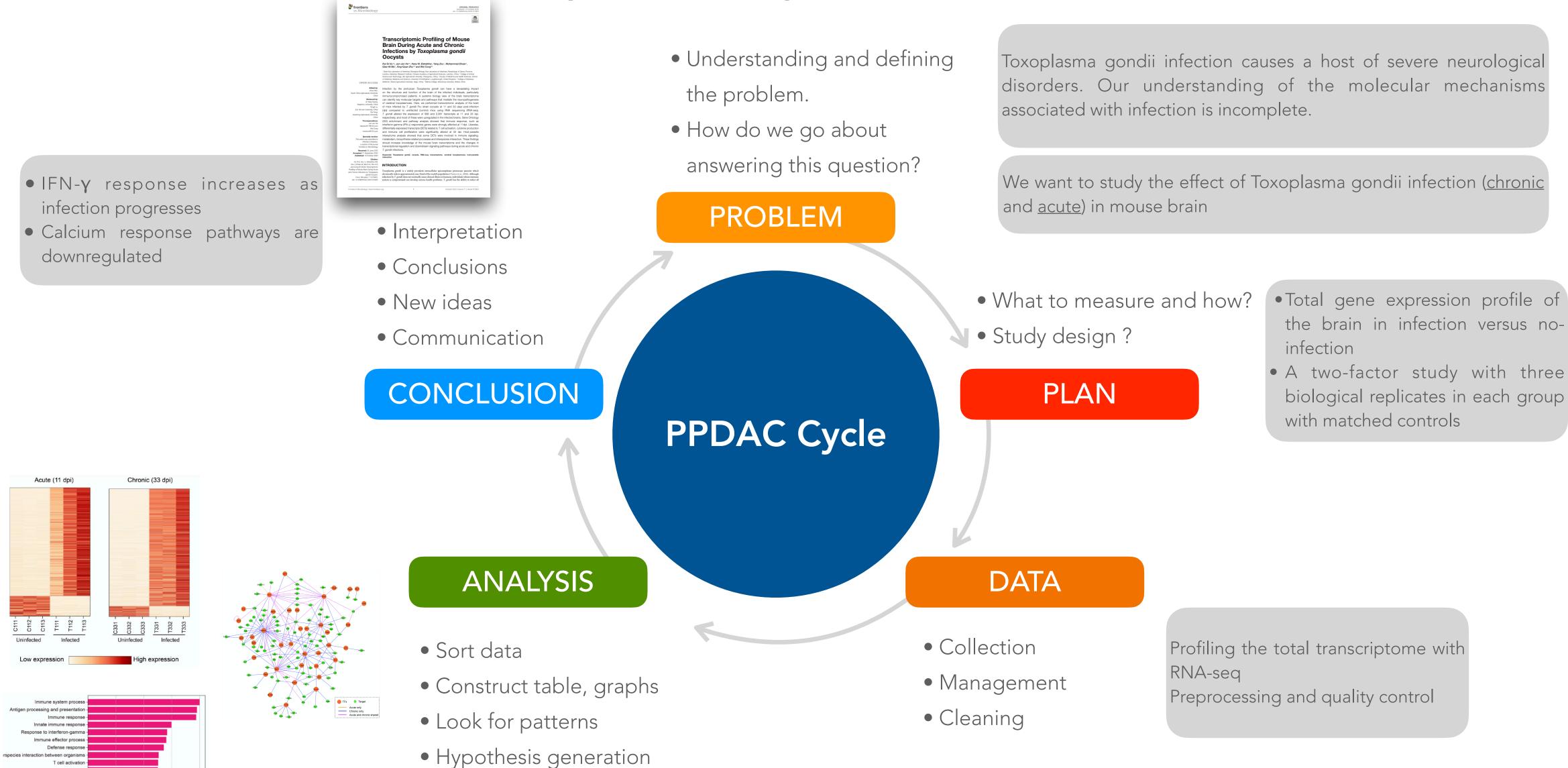












- IFN-γ response increases as infection progresses Interpretation Calcium response pathways are downregulated Conclusions New ideas
- Understanding and defining the problem.
- Toxoplasma gondii infection causes a host of severe neurological disorders. Our understanding of the molecular mechanisms associated with infection is incomplete.

 How do we go about answering this question?

We want to study the effect of Toxoplasma gondii infection (chronic and <u>acute</u>) in mouse brain

**PROBLEM** 

Communication

CONCLUSION

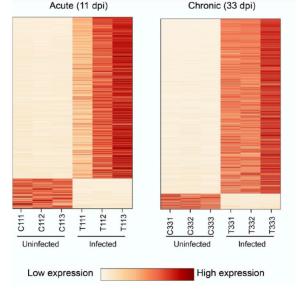
**PPDAC Cycle** 

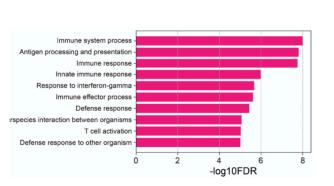
What to measure and how?

• Study design ?

**PLAN** 

- Total gene expression profile of the brain in infection versus noinfection
- A two-factor study with three biological replicates in each group with matched controls





#### **ANALYSIS**

- Sort data
- Construct table, graphs
- Look for patterns
- Hypothesis generation

#### DATA

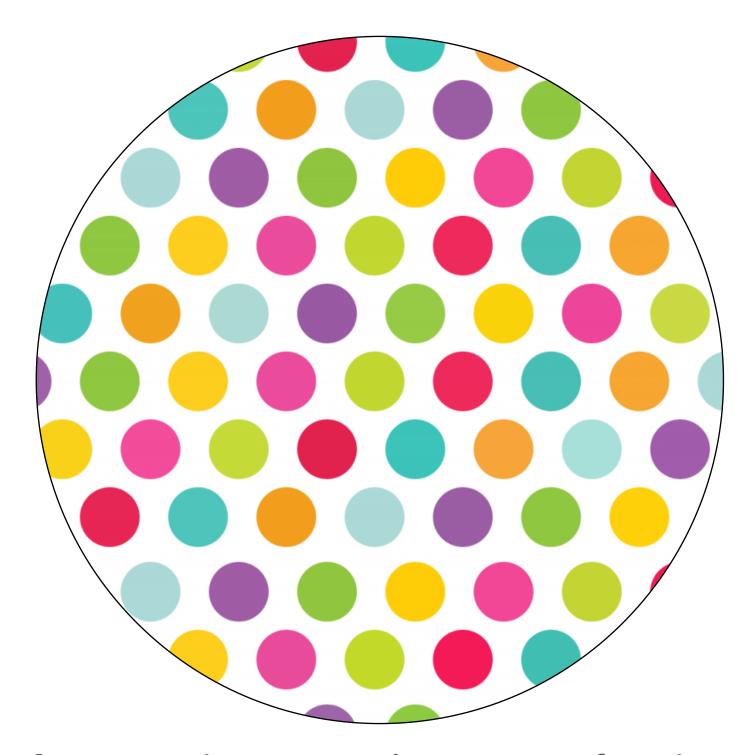
- Collection
- Management
- Cleaning

Profiling the total transcriptome with RNA-seq

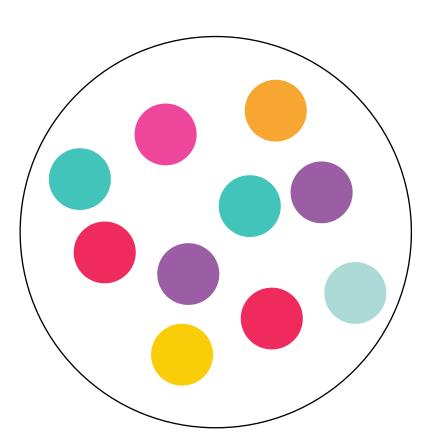
Preprocessing and quality control

Hu et al. Profiling of Mouse Brain During Acute and Chronic Infections by Toxoplasma gondii Oocysts. Front. Microbiol. 2020

## Basics on inferential statistics and hypothesis testing



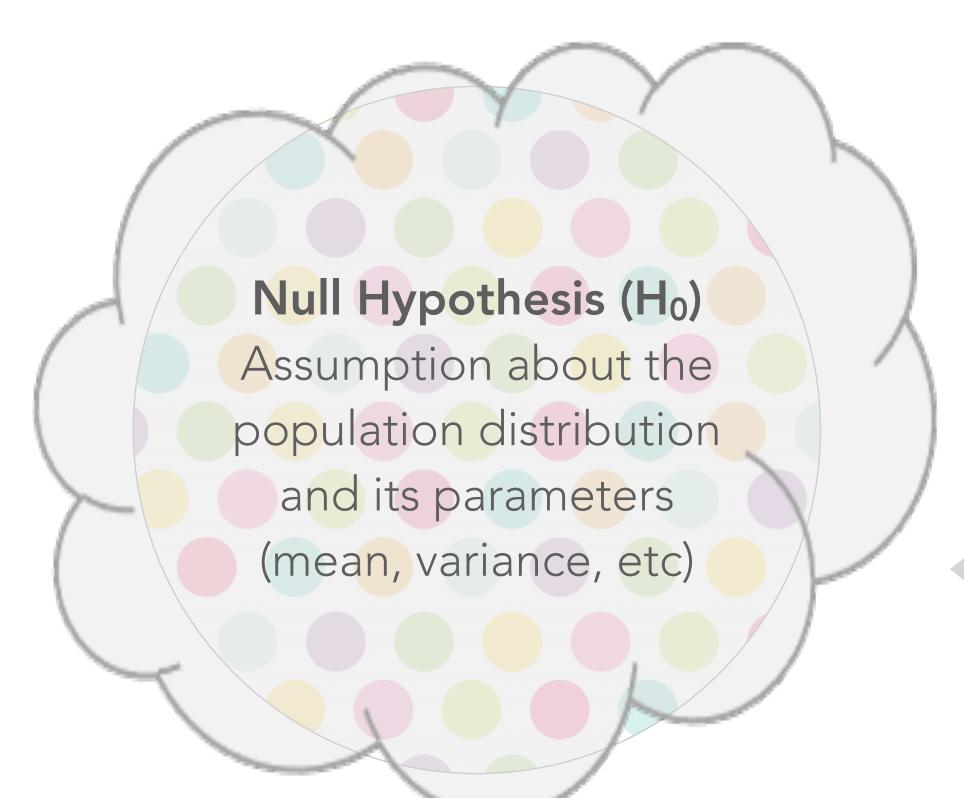
Population: the complete set of individuals that we are interested in



Sample: smaller set of individuals that is representative of the population

Variable: what we are interested in measuring

## Basics on inferential statistics and hypothesis testing



**Population**: the complete set of individuals that we are interested in

#### Inference means two things:

- 1. Estimating population parameters
- 2. Testing hypothesis regarding the population distribution

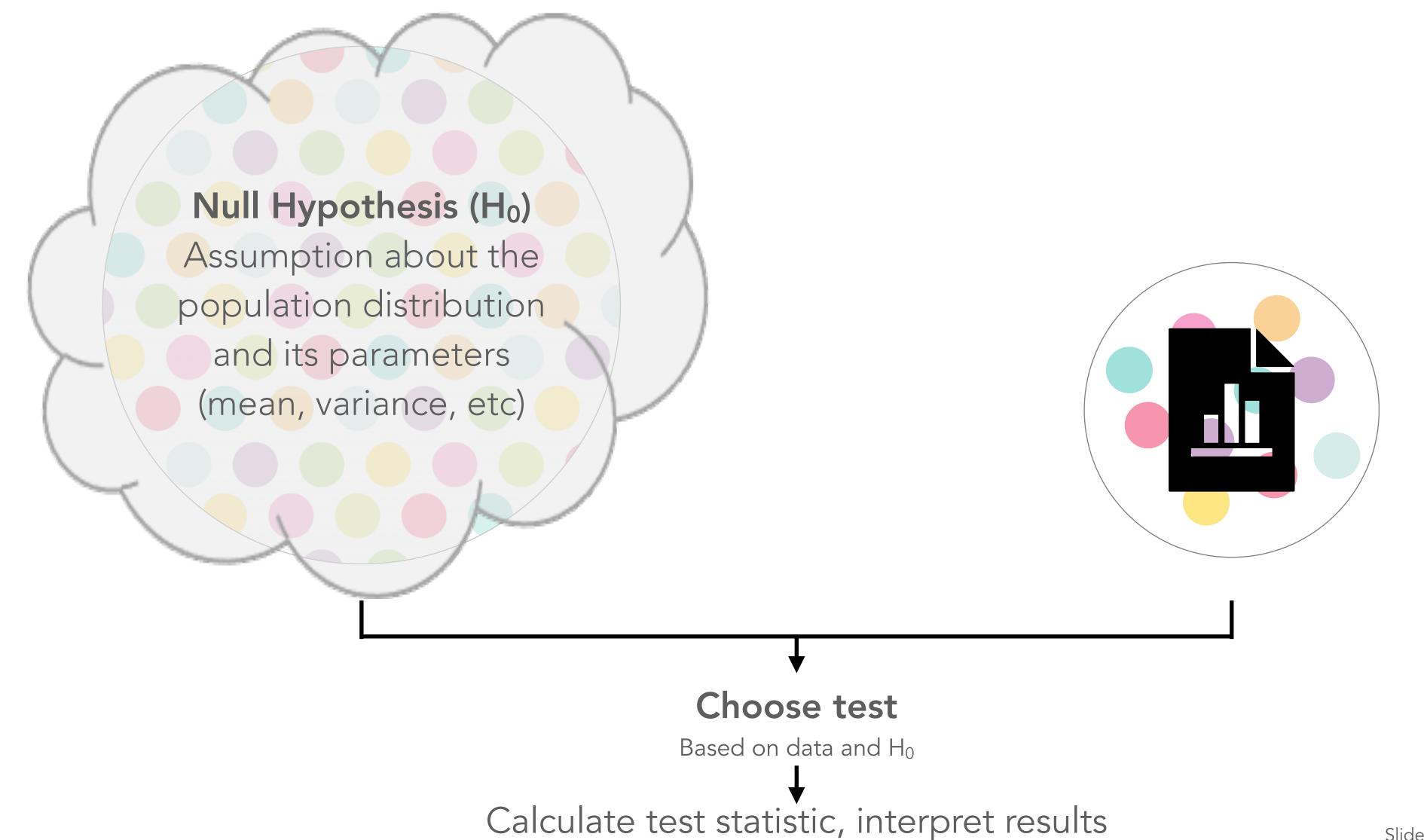
inference



**Sample**: smaller set of individuals that is representative of the population

Variable: what we are interested in measuring

## Basics on inferential statistics and hypothesis testing



A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?

H<sub>0</sub>: Drug has no effect on response time

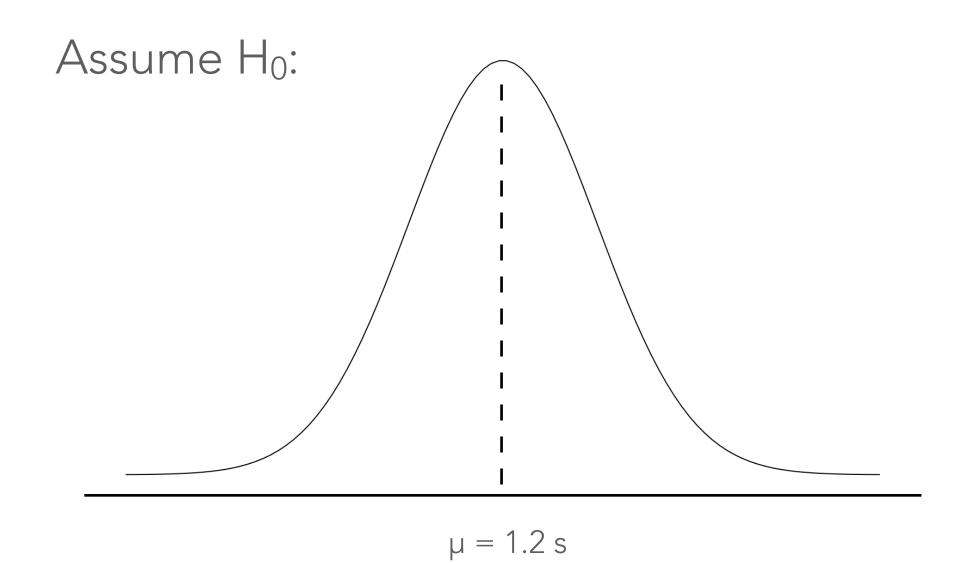
H<sub>1</sub>: Drug has an effect on response time

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?

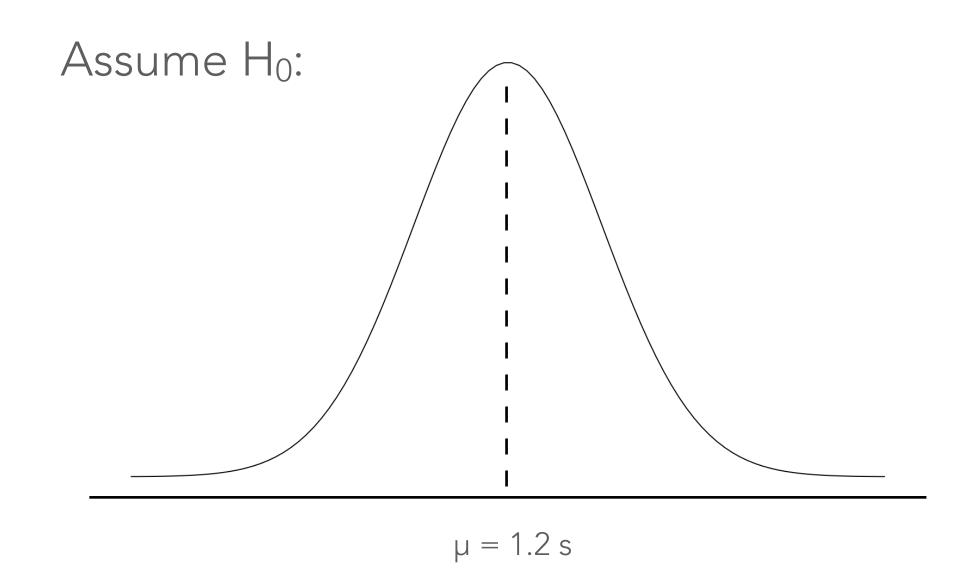
 $H_0$ :  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



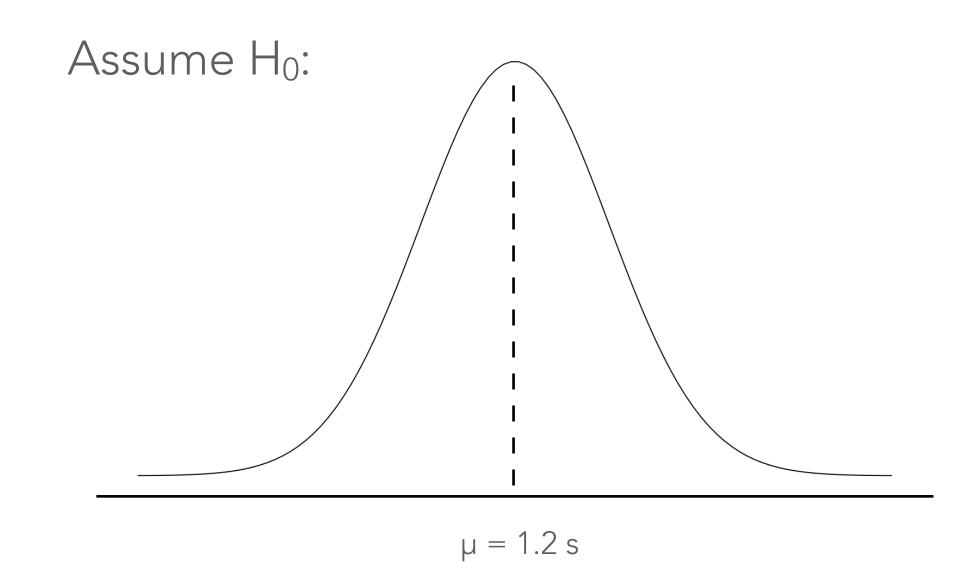
 $H_0$ :  $\mu = 1.2 s$  $H_1$ :  $\mu \neq 1.2 s$ 



$$H_0$$
:  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

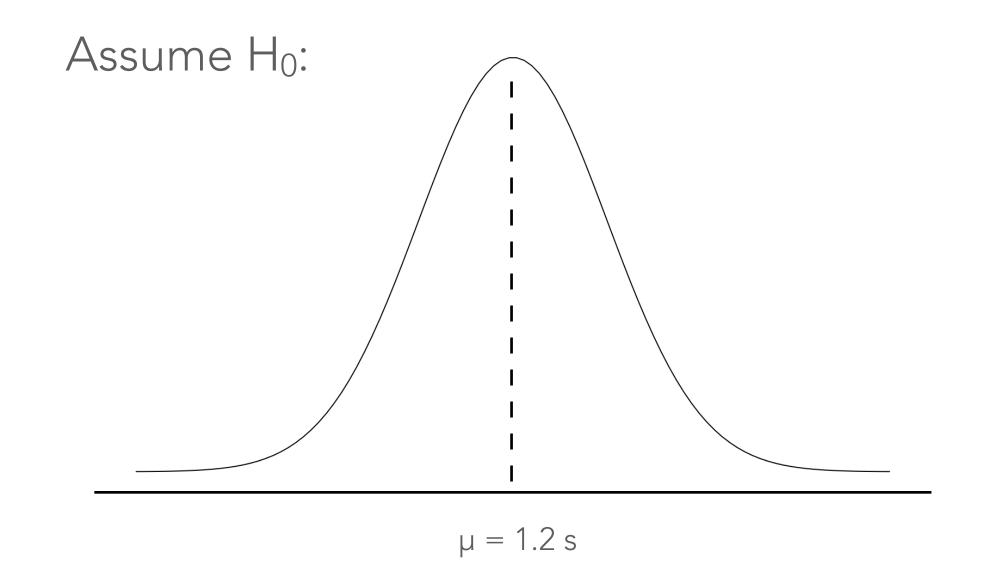
$$H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$$

Calculate test statistic 
$$t=rac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$



H<sub>0</sub>: 
$$\mu = 1.2 \text{ s}$$
H<sub>1</sub>:  $\mu \neq 1.2 \text{ s}$ 

1.05
$$t = \frac{\dot{m} - \dot{\mu}}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$
Calculate test statistic  $t = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ 

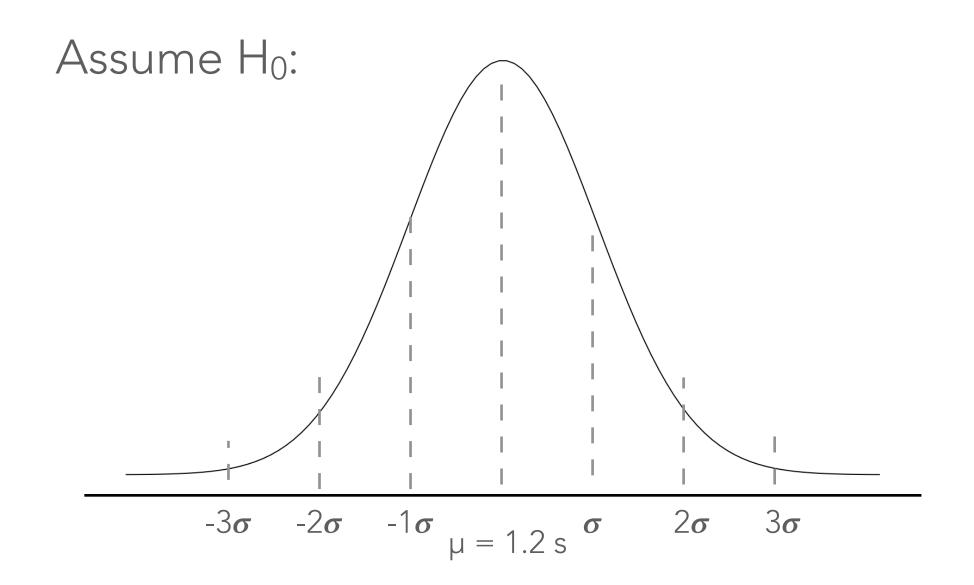


$$H_0$$
:  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

$$H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$$

Calculate test statistic 
$$t=\frac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



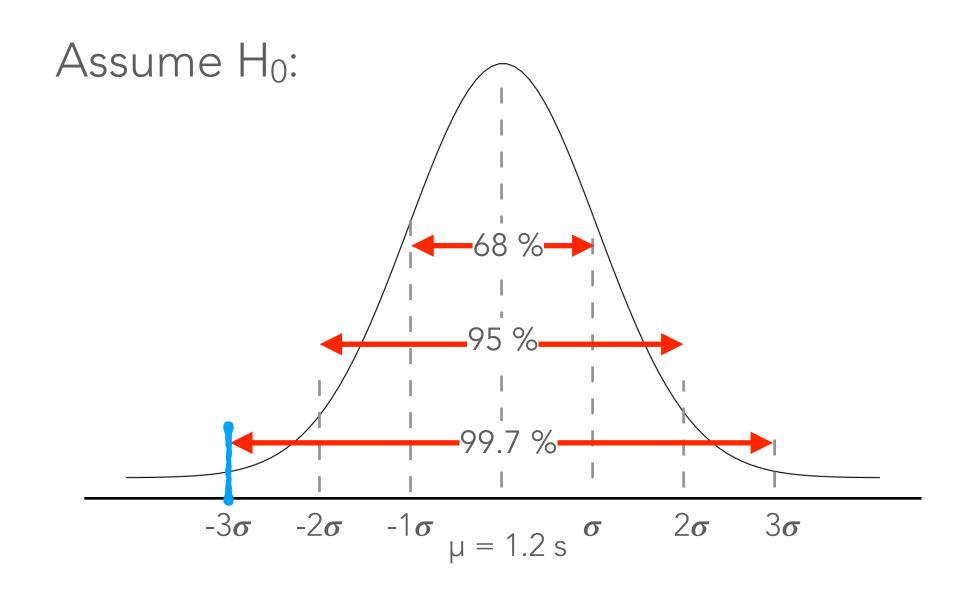
$$H_0$$
:  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

$$H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$$

Calculate test statistic 
$$t=\frac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

This means that the sample mean (1.05) is 3 standard deviations away from the mean

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



 $H_0$ :  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

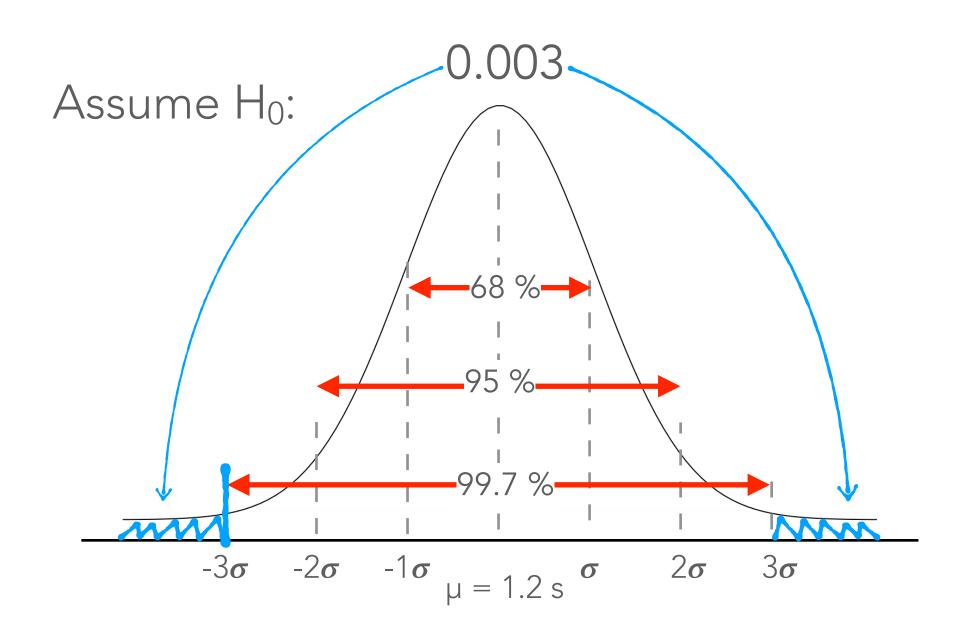
 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

Calculate test statistic 
$$t=\frac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

This means that the sample mean (1.05) is 3 standard deviations away from the mean

What is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme as 1.05?

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



 $H_0$ :  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

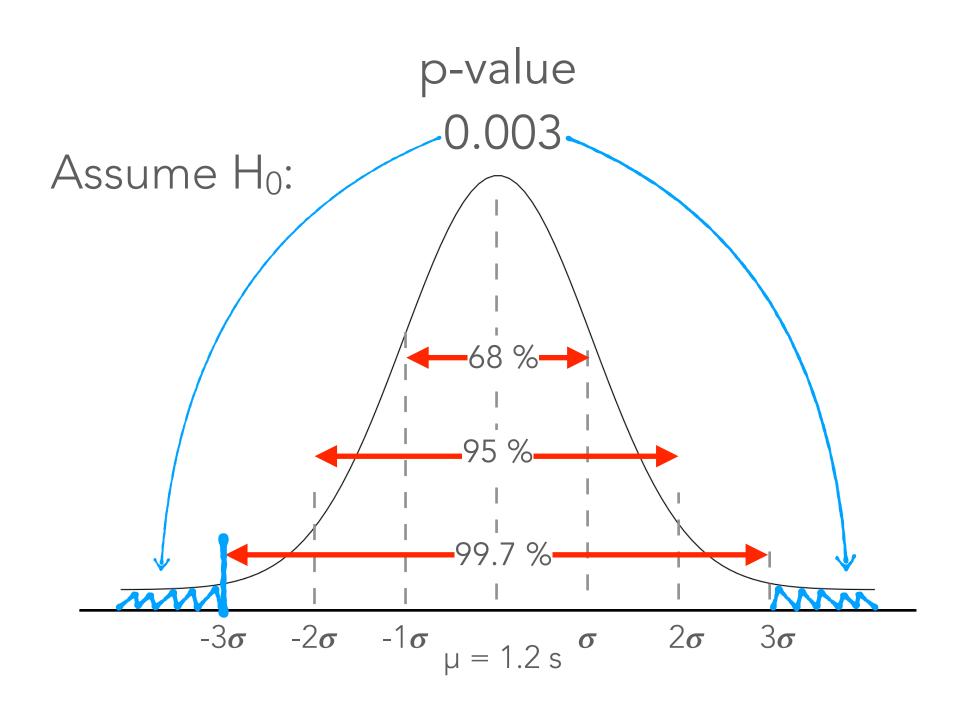
 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

Calculate test statistic 
$$t=\frac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

This means that the sample mean (1.05) is 3 standard deviations away from the mean

What is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme as 1.05?

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



 $H_0$ :  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

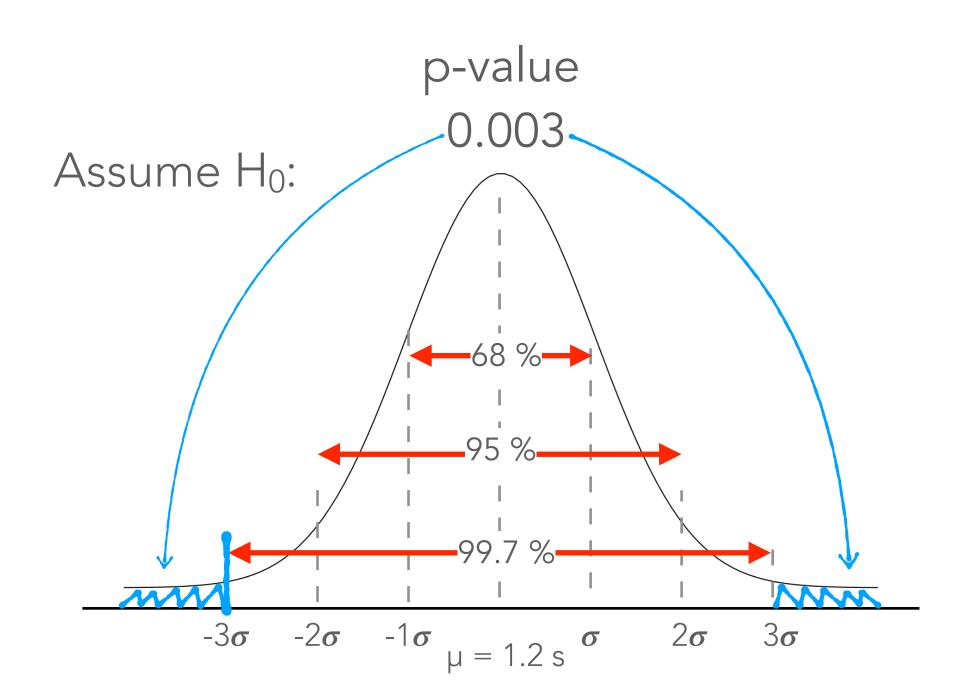
Calculate test statistic 
$$t=\frac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

This means that the sample mean (1.05) is 3 standard deviations away from the mean

What is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme as 1.05?

p-value = 
$$2 \min[P(t \le t_{obs} | H_0), P(t \ge t_{obs} | H_0)]$$

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



$$H_0$$
:  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

Calculate test statistic 
$$t=\frac{m-\mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

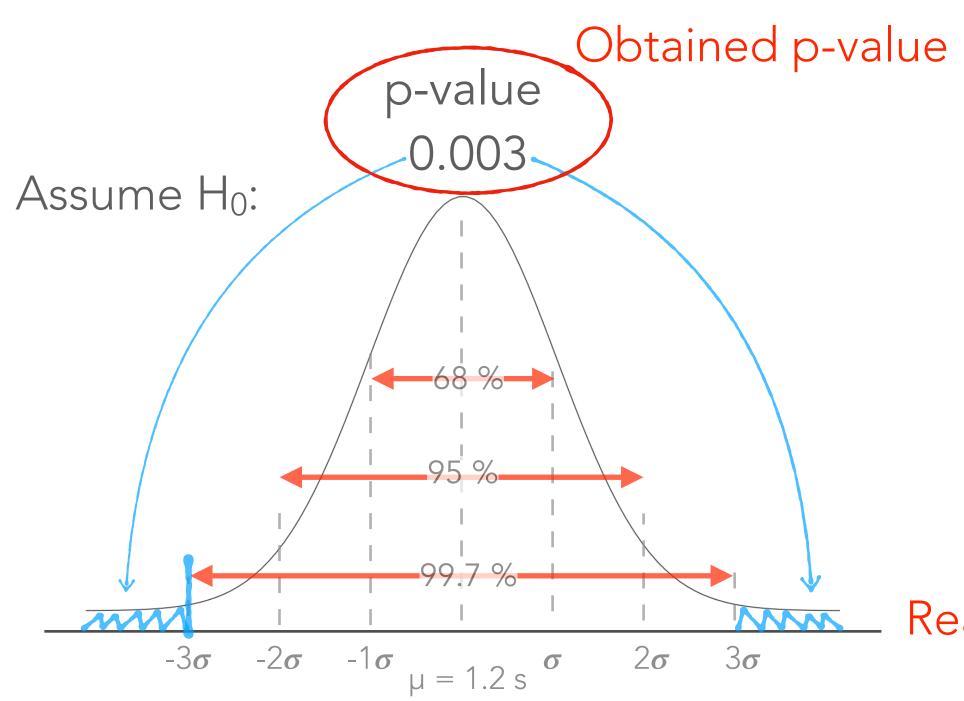
This means that the sample mean (1.05) is 3 standard deviations away from the mean

What is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme as 1.05?

p-value = 
$$2 \min[P(t \le t_{obs} | H_0), P(t \ge t_{obs} | H_0)]$$

#### We reject the null hypothesis!

A neurologist is testing the effect of a drug on response time by injecting 100 rats with a unit dose of the drug subjecting each to neurological stimulus and recording its response time. The neurologist knows that the mean response time for rats not injected with the drug is 1.2 seconds. The mean of the 100 injected rats response times is 1.05 seconds with the sample standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Do you think that the drug has an effect on response time?



Constructed the null and alternative hypothesis about the population

$$H_0$$
:  $\mu = 1.2 s$ 

$$H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 \text{ s}$$

Calculate test statistic

$$t=\frac{1}{s/\sqrt{n}}=-3$$

Calculated test statistic

This means that the sample mean (1.05) is 3 standard deviations away from the mean

What is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme as 1.05?

p-value = 
$$2 \min[P(t \le t_{obs} | H_0), P(t \ge t_{obs} | H_0)]$$

Reached a conclusion

We reject the null hypothesis!

#### Key Concepts - Hypothesis Testing

- All statistical tests are based on assumptions!
- All statistics can be wrong
- Statistical tests are probabilistic in nature
- There is always a chance that the result is wrong (even when all assumptions met perfectly):
  - Either significant result when no difference (Type I),
  - Or insignificant results when there is an actual difference (Type II)

• All hypothesis tests involve making a decision:

Is this result significant or not?

• All hypothesis tests involve making a decision:

Is this result significant or not?

This decision can be wrong in two ways:

• All hypothesis tests involve making a decision:

Is this result significant or not?

This decision can be wrong in two ways:

#### Type I error or False positive

This is when you reject the null hypothesis when it is true

"You're pregnant!"



• All hypothesis tests involve making a decision:

Is this result significant or not?

This decision can be wrong in two ways:

#### Type I error or False positive

This is when you reject the null hypothesis when it is true

"You're pregnant!"



#### Type II error or False negative

This is when you fail to reject the null hypothesis when it isn't true

"You're not pregnant"



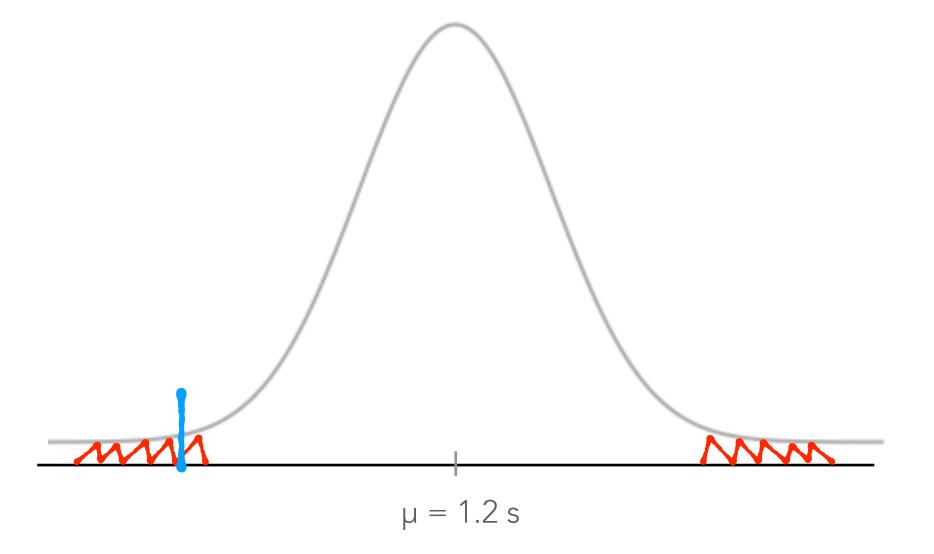
```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s if p-value > \alpha \rightarrow do not reject H_0 if p-value < \alpha \rightarrow reject H_0 in favour of H_1
```

```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject  $H_0$ if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$  in favour of  $H_1$ 

 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct



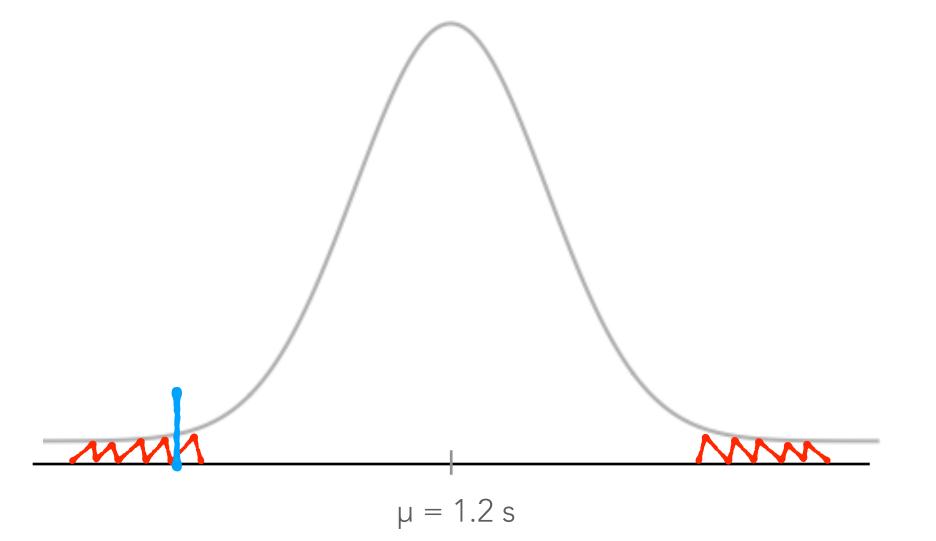
```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject H<sub>0</sub>

if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow \text{reject H}_0 \text{ in favour of H}_1$ 

 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct



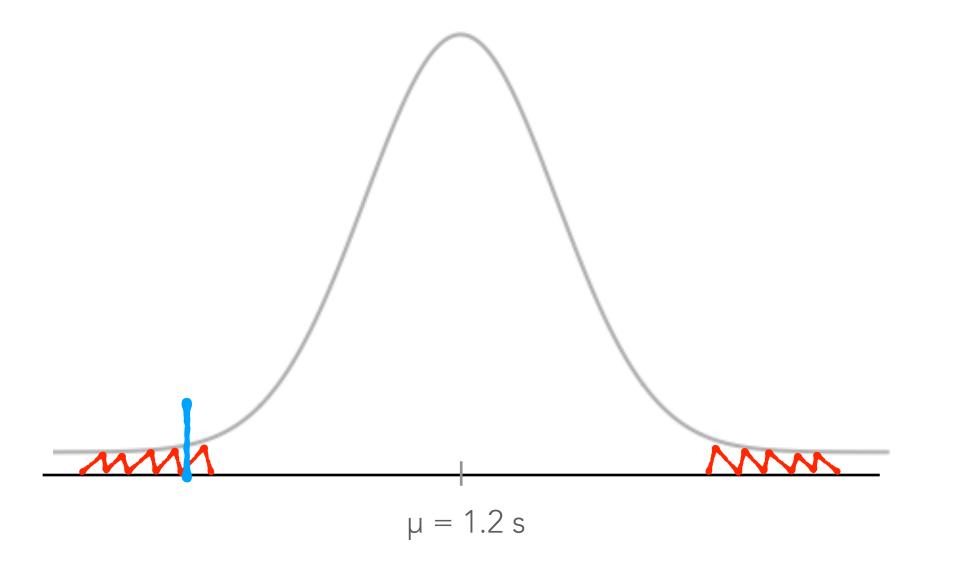
Suppose H<sub>1</sub> true:

```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

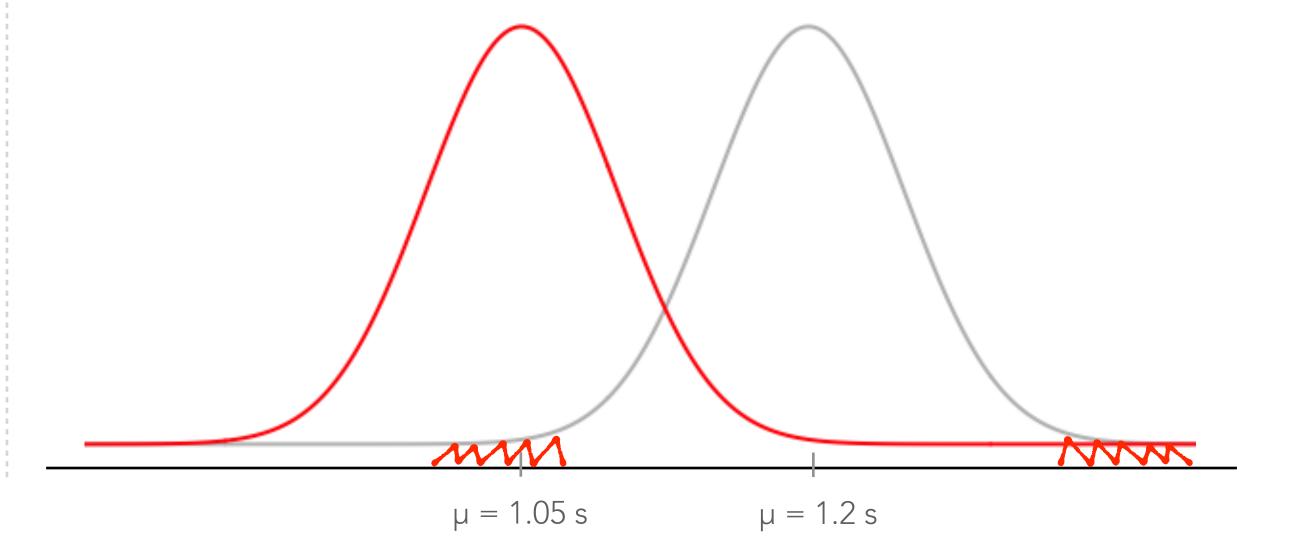
 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject  $H_0$ if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$  in favour of  $H_1$ 

 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct



Suppose H<sub>1</sub> true:

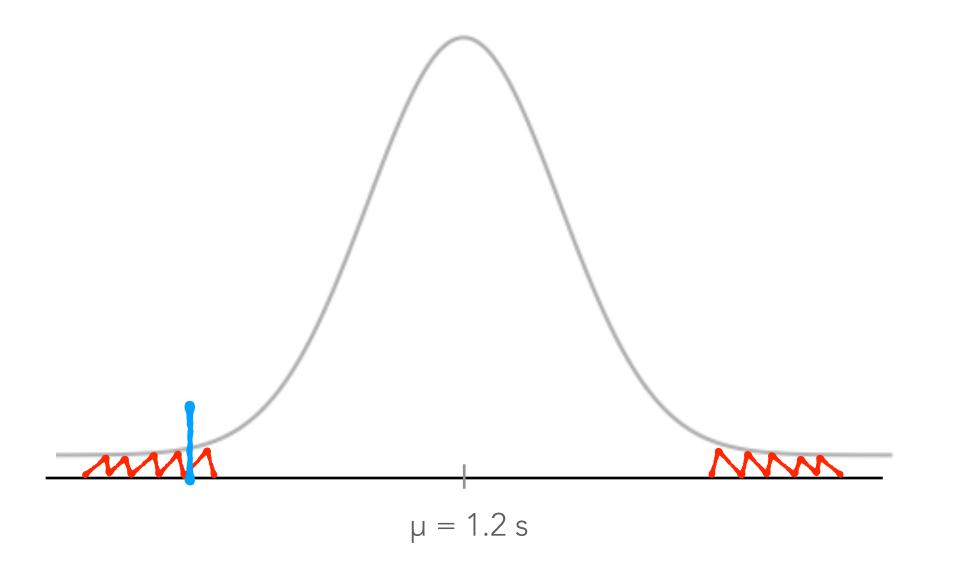


```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

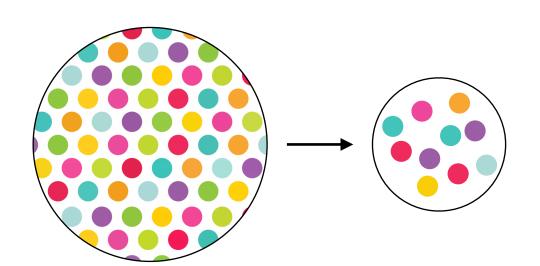
 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject  $H_0$ if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$  in favour of  $H_1$ 

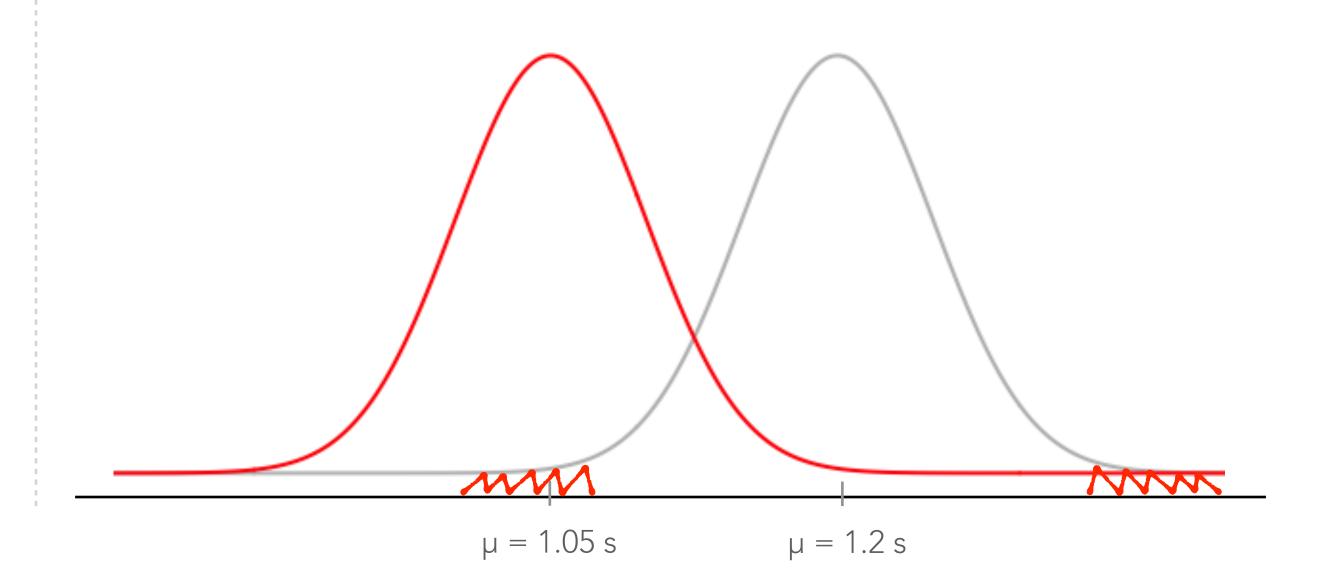
 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct



#### Suppose H<sub>1</sub> true:



Depending on your sampling, you might fail to reject H<sub>0</sub>

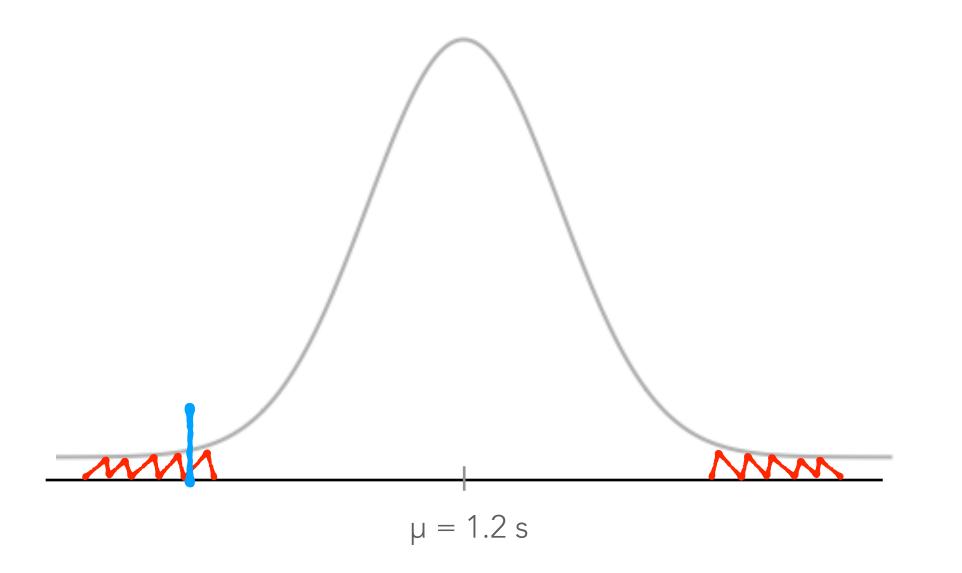


```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

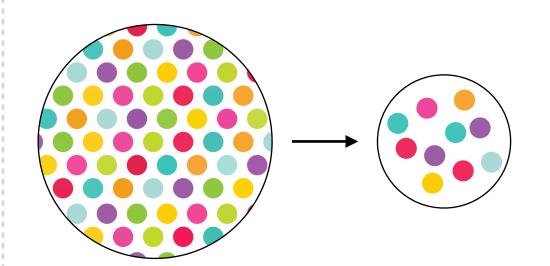
 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject  $H_0$ if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$  in favour of  $H_1$ 

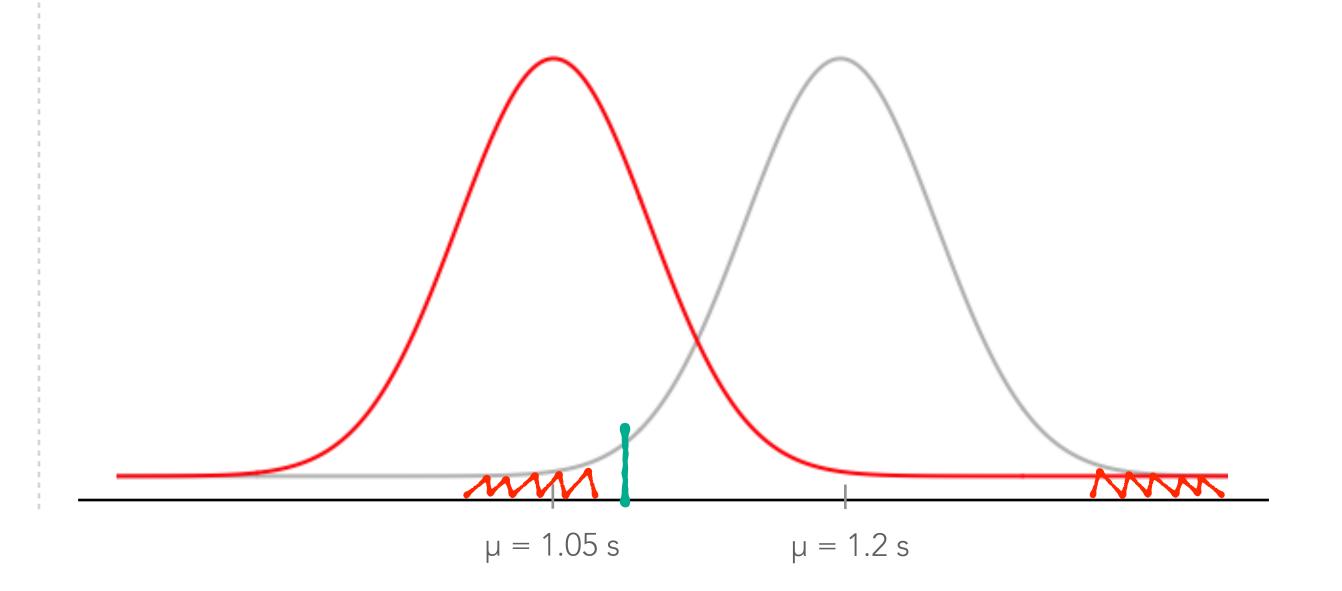
 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct



#### Suppose H<sub>1</sub> true:



Depending on your sampling, you might fail to reject H<sub>0</sub>

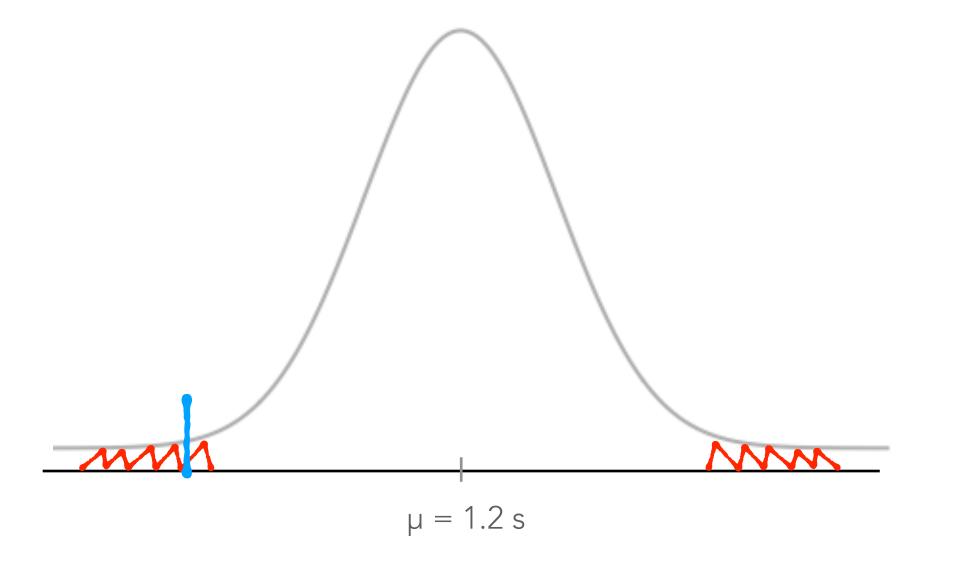


```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

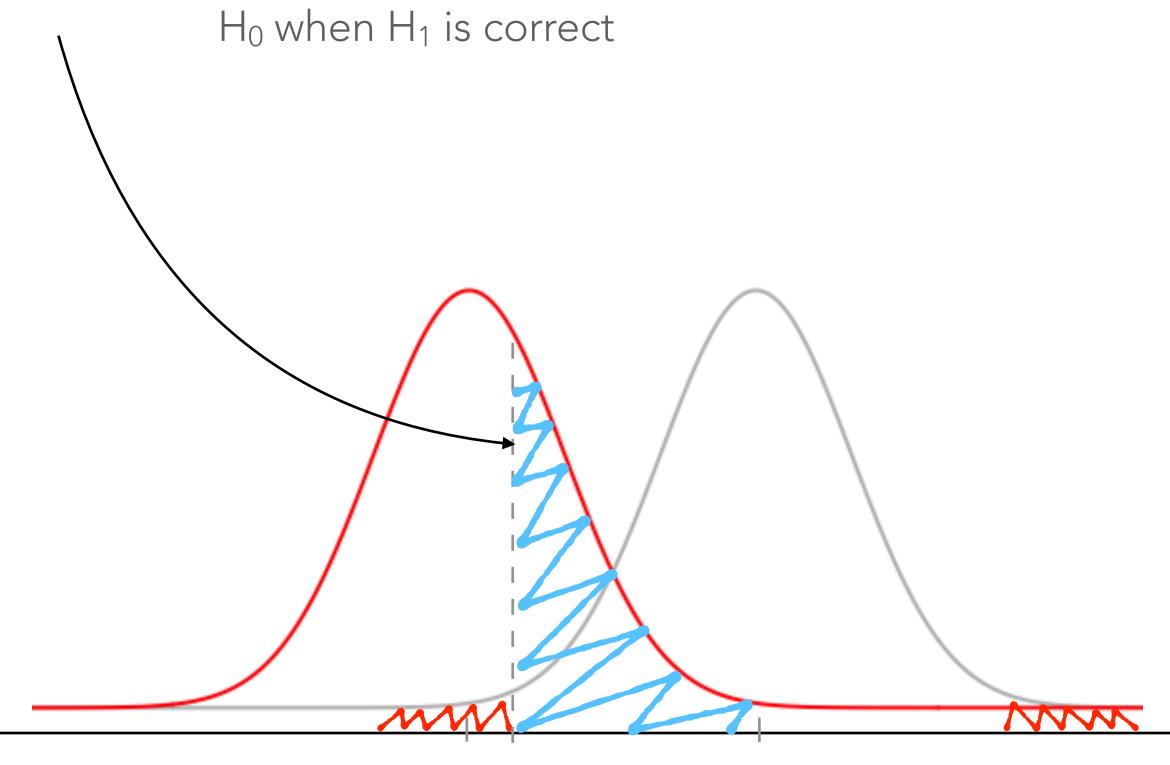
if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject H<sub>0</sub> if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow$  reject H<sub>0</sub> in favour of H<sub>1</sub>

 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct





 $\theta \rightarrow$  the type II error, the probability of not rejecting



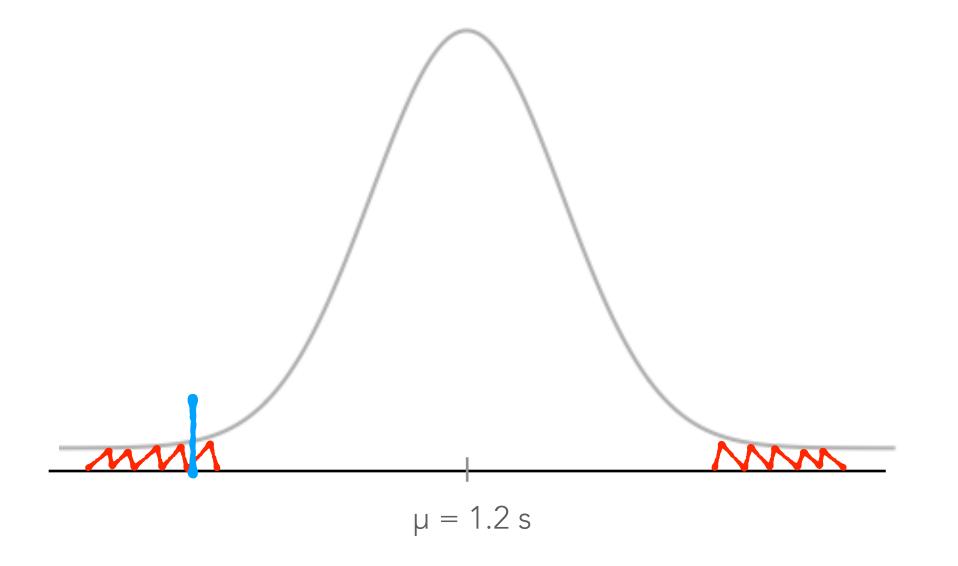
$$\mu = 1.05 \text{ s}$$

```
H_0: \mu = 1.2 s
```

 $H_1: \mu \neq 1.2 s$ 

if p-value  $> \alpha \rightarrow$  do not reject  $H_0$ if p-value  $< \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$  in favour of  $H_1$ 

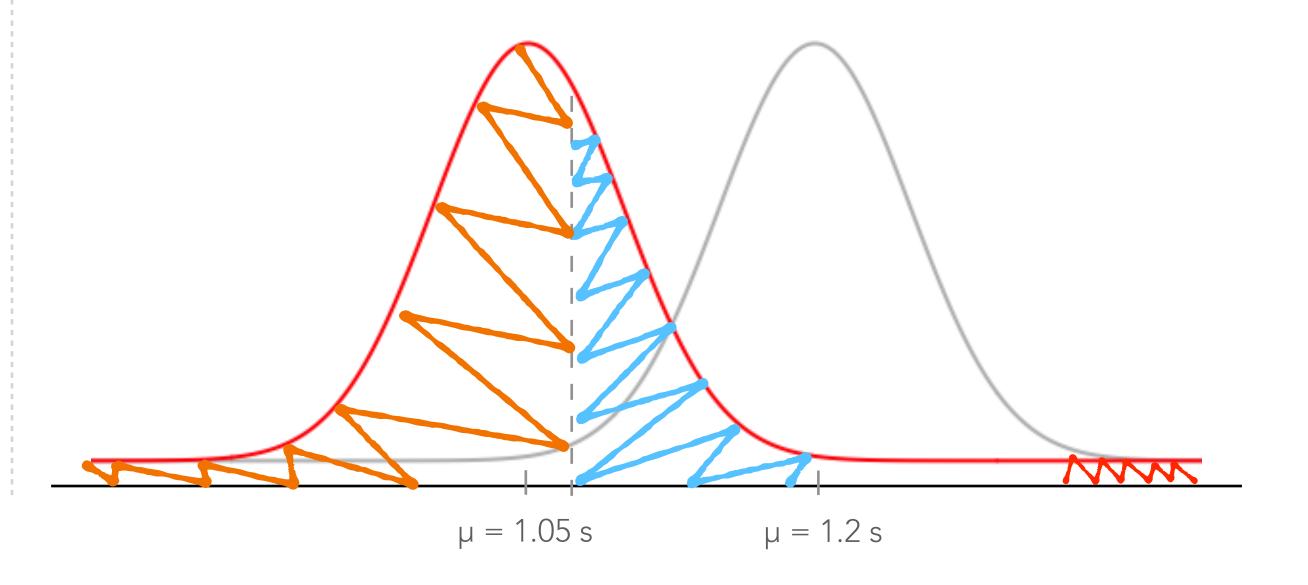
 $\alpha$ =0.05  $\rightarrow$  the type I error, the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is correct



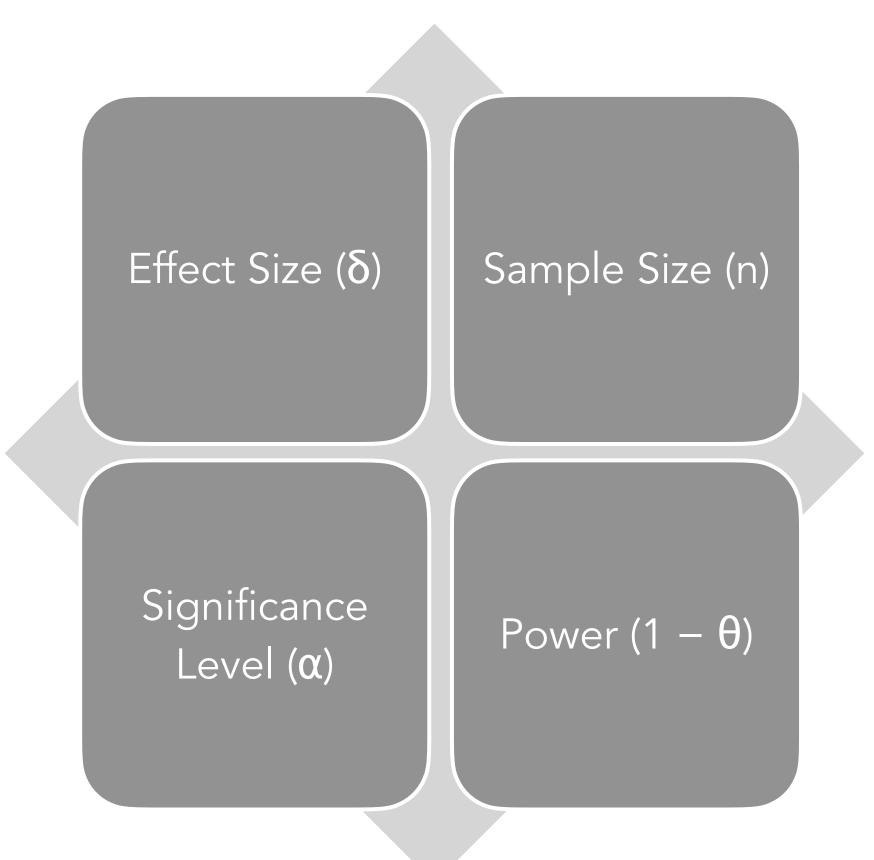
#### Suppose H<sub>1</sub> true:

 $\theta \rightarrow$  the type II error, the probability of not rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_1$  is correct

1-  $\theta$  → Power is the probability that we actually detect an effect that exists

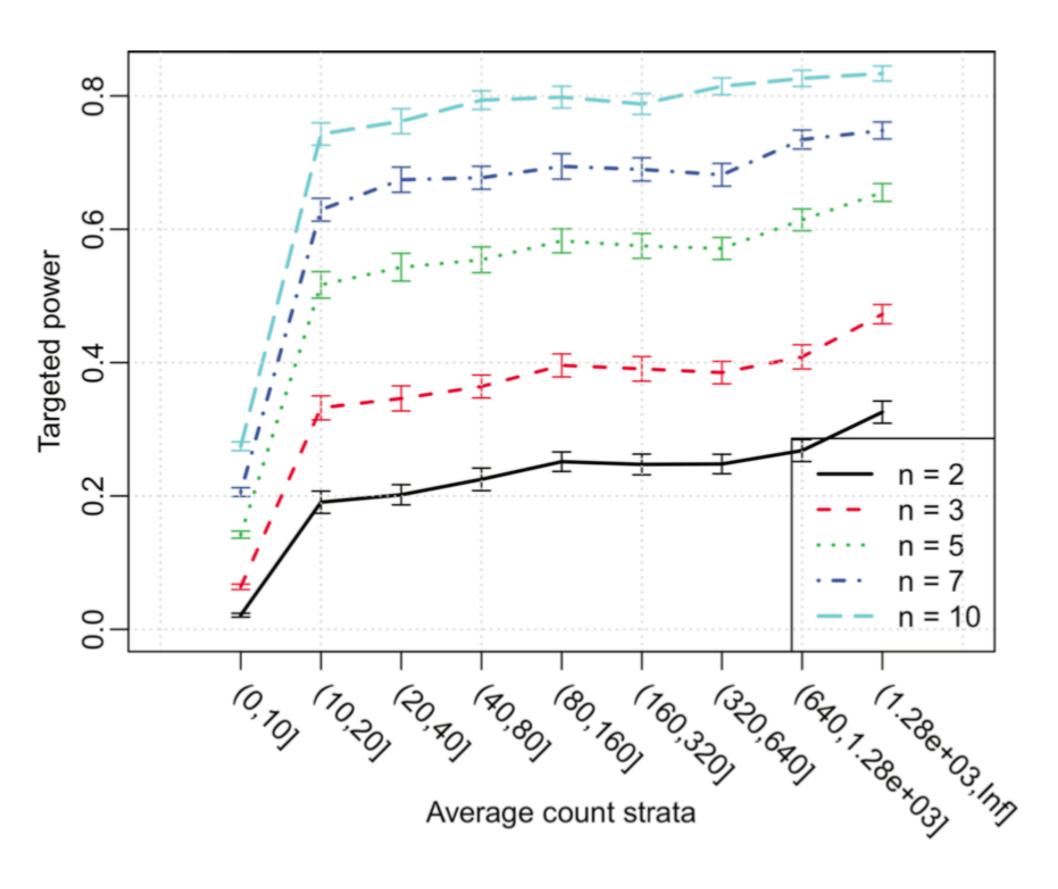


## Power Analysis



- The four concepts are linked
- If we know three, we can work out the forth
- Power calculation: Aim is to define the probability (1- $\theta$ ) to detect an effect size of interest ( $\delta$ ) at the  $\alpha$  level with a sample size of n biological replicates
- Sample size calculation: Aim is to define the sample size (n) allowing to detect an effect size of interest ( $\delta$ ) at the  $\alpha$  level with a given probability (1  $\theta$ ).

## Power Analysis in Differential Expression Analysis



(Wu, Wang and Wu (2015))

### Linear Modeling

Model the expression of each gene as linear combination of explanatory factors (eg. treatment, age, sex, etc.)

# Statistical Aspects of Differential Expression Analysis Linear Modeling

Model the expression of each gene as linear combination of explanatory factors (eg. treatment, age, sex, etc.)

```
y = a + (b * treatment) + (c * age) + (d * sex) + e
y = expression of gene
a, b, c, d = parameters estimated from the data
a = intercept (expression when factors are at reference level)
e = error term
```

# Statistical Aspects of Differential Expression Analysis Linear Modeling

Model the expression of each gene as linear combination of explanatory factors (eg. treatment, age, sex, etc.)

```
y = a + (b * treatment) + (c * age) + (d * sex) + e
y = expression of gene
a, b, c, d = parameters estimated from the data
a = intercept (expression when factors are at reference level)
e = error term
observation = deterministic model + residual error
```

# Statistical Aspects of Differential Expression Analysis Linear Modeling

Model the expression of each gene as linear combination of explanatory factors (eg. treatment, age, sex, etc.)

```
y = a + (b * treatment) + (c * age) + (d * sex) + e
y = expression of gene
a, b, c, d = parameters estimated from the data
a = intercept (expression when factors are at reference level)
e = error term
observation = deterministic model + residual error
y = \beta X + \epsilon
```

Express the count data vector of a given gene, y, as a function parameter vector ( $\beta$ ) times a design matrix (X) plus a stochastic error vector  $\epsilon$ 

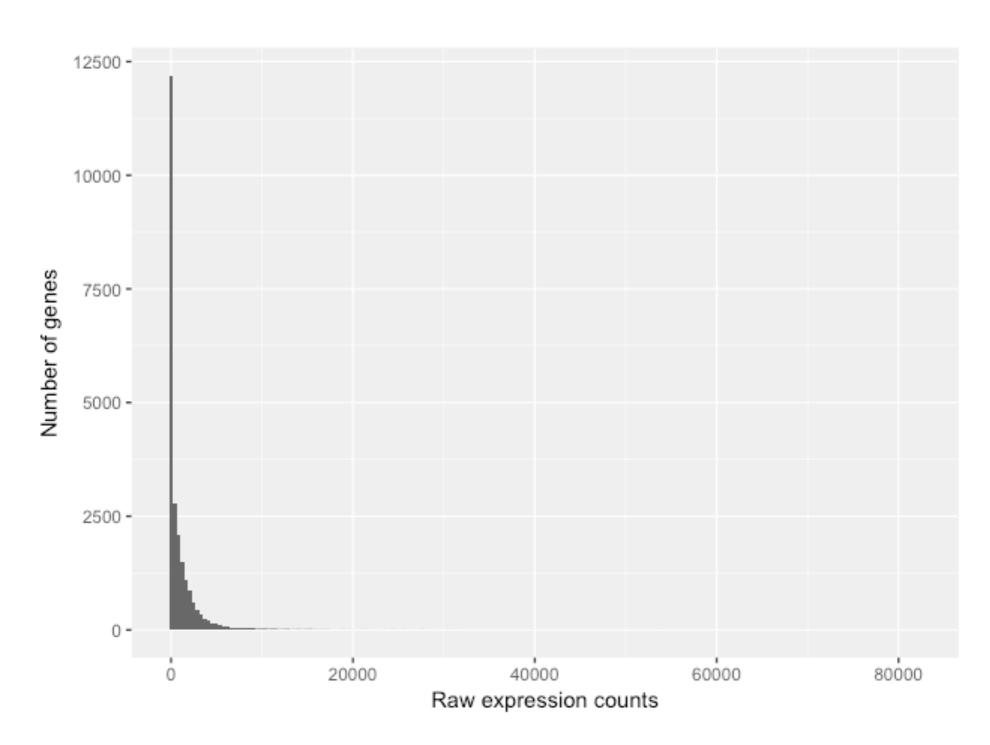
# Statistical Aspects of Differential Expression Analysis Linear Modeling

- Collect the information related to each sample for predictors of interest
- $\bullet$  Define  $\beta$ , the sets of parameters we are interested in
- ullet build the X matrix that relates the sample information with the eta
- $\bullet$  estimate the  $\beta$  and use statistical inference to assess significance (p-values)

## Construction of Design Matrix

**Next Session!** 

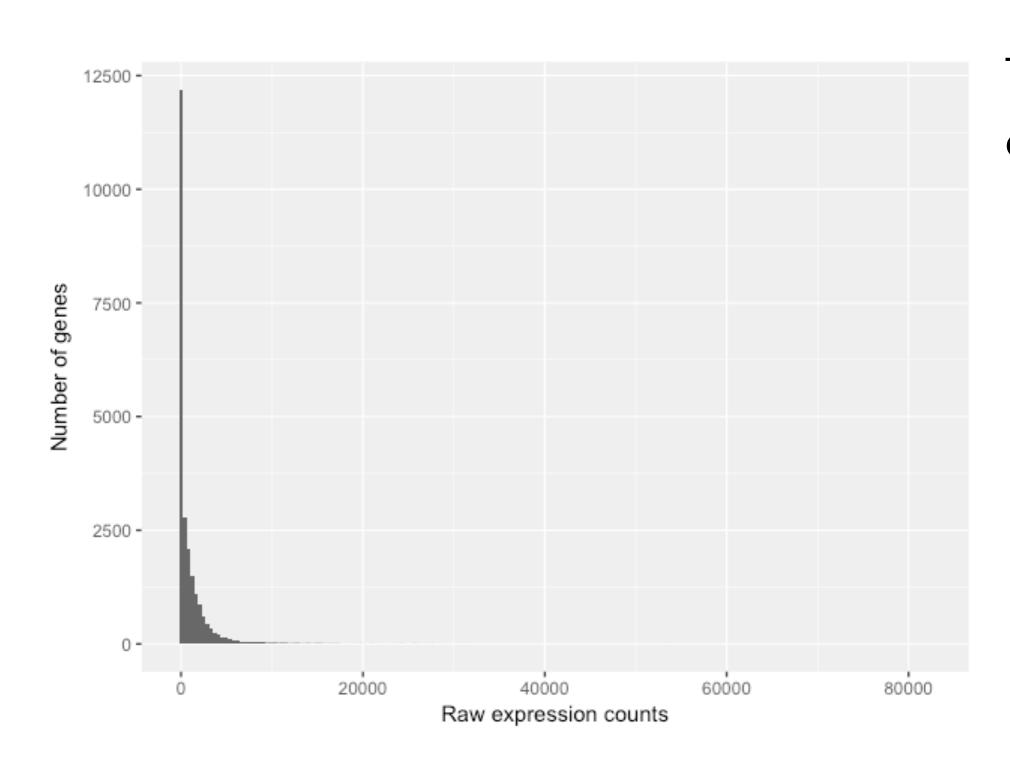
### Characteristics of RNA-seq data



This plot illustrates some **common features** of RNA-seq count data:

- a low number of counts associated with a large proportion of genes
- a long right tail due to the lack of any upper limit for expression
- large dynamic range

### Characteristics of RNA-seq data

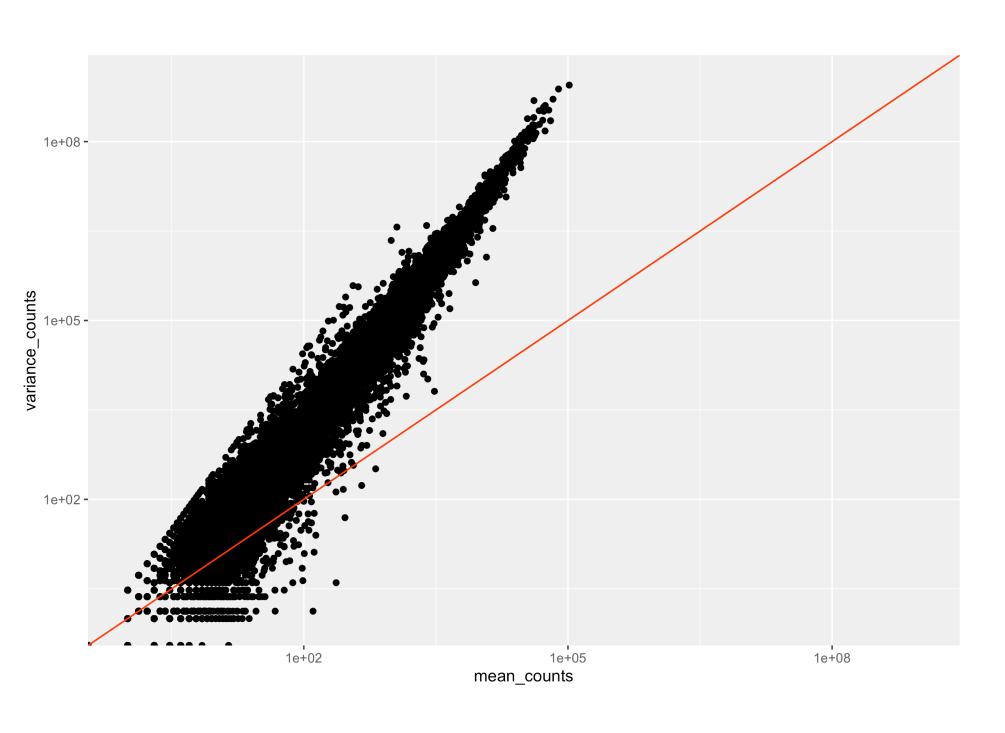


This plot illustrates some **common features** of RNA-seq count data:

- a low number of counts associated with a large proportion of genes
- a long right tail due to the lack of any upper limit for expression
- large dynamic range

Looking at the shape of the histogram, we see that it is not normally distributed.

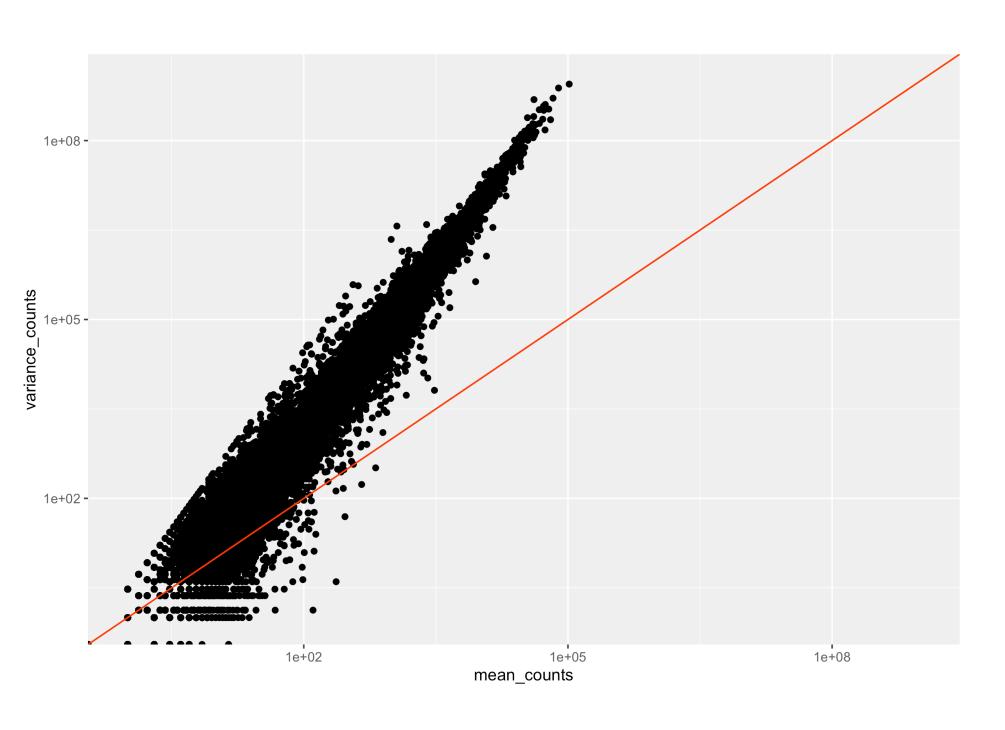
### Characteristics of RNA-seq data



To assess the properties of the data we are working with, we can look at the mean-variance relationship.

For the genes with **high mean expression**, the variance across replicates tends to be greater than the mean (scatter is above the red line).

### Characteristics of RNA-seq data

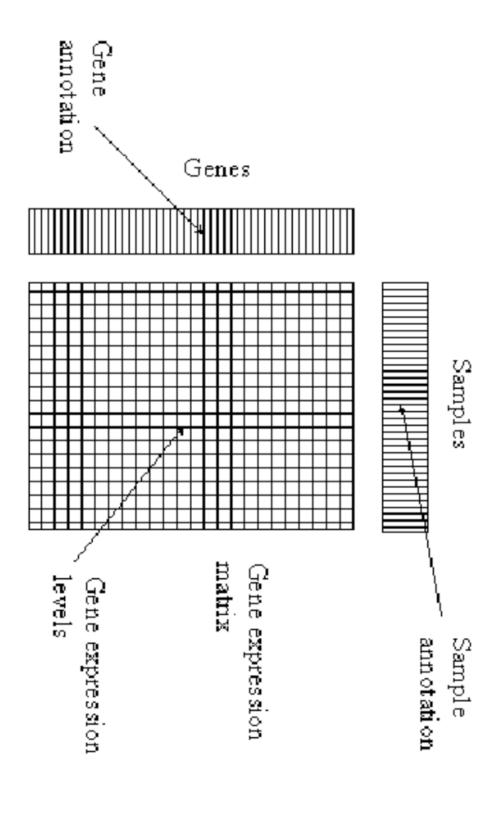


To assess the properties of the data we are working with, we can look at the mean-variance relationship.

For the genes with **high mean expression**, the variance across replicates tends to be greater than the mean (scatter is above the red line).

Essentially, the **Negative Binomial** is a good approximation for data where the mean < variance, as is the case with RNA-Seq count data.

### Negative Binomial Regression

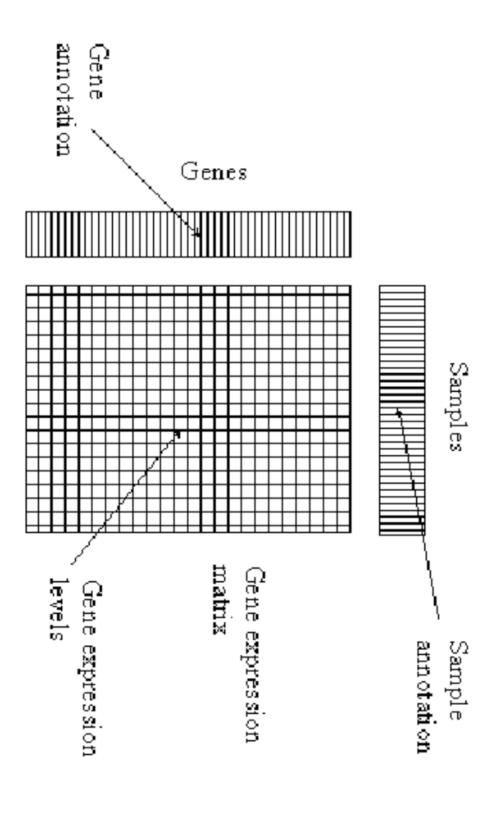


$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathsf{NB}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\phi})$$
  
$$\mathsf{E}[\mathbf{y}] = \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{s} \ 2^{\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

#### where

- ightharpoonup denotes the  $(n \times 1)$  count vector of expression intensities of a given gene,
- $\triangleright$  X denotes the (n  $\times$  p) design/predictor matrix,
- $\triangleright$   $\beta$  denotes the  $(p \times 1)$  parameter vector,
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\phi$  denotes the dispersion parameter,
- s denotes the scaling factor vector (library size),
- ightharpoonup  $\mathsf{E}[\mathbf{y}] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$  denotes the expectation of  $\mathbf{y}$

### Negative Binomial Regression



$$\mathbf{y} \sim \mathsf{NB}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\phi})$$
  
$$\mathsf{E}[\mathbf{y}] = \boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbf{s} \ 2^{\mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta}}$$

#### where

- ightharpoonup denotes the  $(n \times 1)$  count vector of expression intensities of a given gene,
- $\triangleright$  X denotes the  $(n \times p)$  design/predictor matrix,
- $\triangleright$   $\beta$  denotes the  $(p \times 1)$  parameter vector,
- $\blacktriangleright$   $\phi$  denotes the dispersion parameter,
- s denotes the scaling factor vector (library size),
- ightharpoonup  $\mathsf{E}[\mathbf{y}] = oldsymbol{\mu}$  denotes the expectation of  $\mathbf{y}$

After the model is fit, coefficients are estimated for each sample group along with their standard error. The coefficients are the estimates for the log2 fold-changes, and will be used as input for hypothesis testing.

Negative Binomial Regression

### Negative Binomial Regression

Recall the simple linear regression model for expression:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

### Negative Binomial Regression

Recall the simple linear regression model for expression:

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X + \epsilon$$

- where X=0 (untreated)
  - or X=1 (treated)
- y is the observed "expression" of the gene
- ε is the measurement noise term
- The parameter of interest is  $\beta$ 1 (the treatment effect)

General Hypothesis

 $\bullet$  Is the RNA abundance level for any of the m genes affected by treatment

- $\bullet$  Is the RNA abundance level for any of the m genes affected by treatment
- Let  $H_{0j}$  denote the null hypothesis for gene j
  - $H_{0j}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is not affected by treatment
  - $H_{1i}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is affected by treatment

- $\bullet$  Is the RNA abundance level for any of the m genes affected by treatment
- Let  $H_{0j}$  denote the null hypothesis for gene j
  - $H_{0j}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is not affected by treatment
  - $H_{1i}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is affected by treatment
- ullet The global null hypothesis is  $H_{01}$  and  $H_{02}$  and .. and ..  $H_{0m}$  are all true

- $\bullet$  Is the RNA abundance level for any of the m genes affected by treatment
- Let  $H_{0j}$  denote the null hypothesis for gene j
  - $H_{0j}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is not affected by treatment
  - $H_{1i}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is affected by treatment
- ullet The global null hypothesis is  $H_{01}$  and  $H_{02}$  and .. and ..  $H_{0m}$  are all true
- The global alternative is  $H_{11}$  or  $H_{12}$  or .. or ..  $H_{1m}$  is true

- $\bullet$  Is the RNA abundance level for any of the m genes affected by treatment
- Let  $H_{0j}$  denote the null hypothesis for gene j
  - $H_{0j}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is not affected by treatment
  - $H_{1i}$ : The RNA abundance level for gene j is affected by treatment
- ullet The global null hypothesis is  $H_{01}$  and  $H_{02}$  and .. and ..  $H_{0m}$  are all true
- The global alternative is  $H_{11}$  or  $H_{12}$  or .. or ..  $H_{1m}$  is true
- In other words, under the alternative at least one of the alternative hypothesis is true

- Reformulation
- The global null hypothesis:  $\beta_{11}=0$  and  $\beta_{21}=0$  and  $\beta_{m_1}=0$ 
  - In other words, all of the  $\beta_{j1}$  are equal to zero
- The global alternative is  $\beta_{11} \neq 0$  or  $\beta_{21} \neq 0$  or ... or  $\beta_{m1} \neq 0$ 
  - In other words, at least one of the  $\beta_{j1}$  is not equal to zero.

• A gene with a significance cut-off of  $\alpha = 0.05$ , means there is a 5% chance it is a false positive.

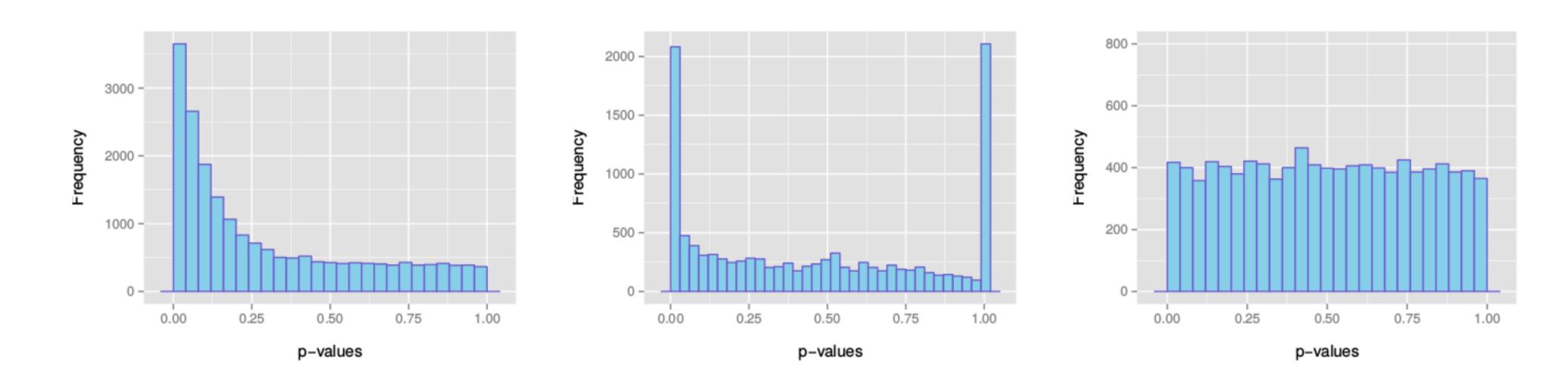
- A gene with a significance cut-off of  $\alpha = 0.05$ , means there is a 5% chance it is a false positive.
- If we test for 20,000 genes for differential expression at  $\alpha = 0.05$ , we would expect to find 1,000 genes by chance

- A gene with a significance cut-off of  $\alpha = 0.05$ , means there is a 5% chance it is a false positive.
- If we test for 20,000 genes for differential expression at  $\alpha = 0.05$ , we would expect to find 1,000 genes by chance
- If we found 3000 genes to be differentially expressed total, roughly one third of our genes are false positives!

- A gene with a significance cut-off of  $\alpha = 0.05$ , means there is a 5% chance it is a false positive.
- If we test for 20,000 genes for differential expression at  $\alpha = 0.05$ , we would expect to find 1,000 genes by chance
- If we found 3000 genes to be differentially expressed total, roughly one third of our genes are false positives!
- The more genes we test, the more we inflate the false positive rate. This is the multiple testing problem.

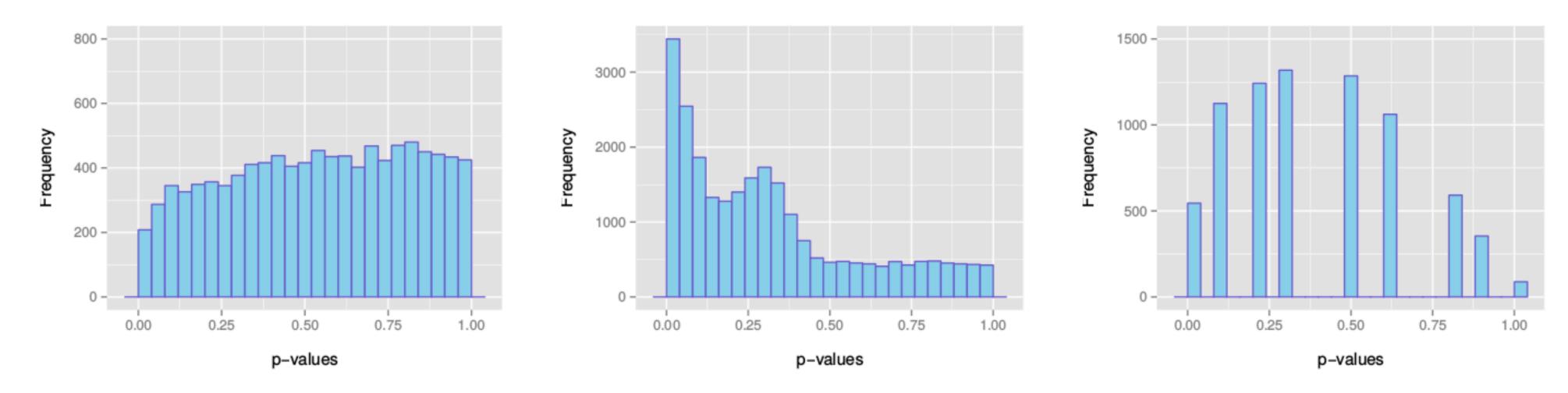
- **Bonferroni**: The adjusted p-value is calculated by:  $\alpha$  \* k (k = total number of tests). This is a very conservative approach
- FDR/Benjamini-Hochberg: Benjamini and Hochberg (1995) defined the concept of FDR and created an algorithm to control the expected FDR below a specified level given a list of independent p-values.

Examples of expected overall distribution



- (a): the most desirable shape
- (b) : very low counts genes usually have large p-values
- (c) : do not expect positive tests after correction

Examples of unexpected overall distribution



- (a): indicates a batch effect (confounding hidden variables)
- (b) : the test statistics may be inappropriate (due to strong correlation structure for instance)
- (c) : discrete distribution of p-values : unexpected

### Conclusions

Assumptions assumptions