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A mixture model approach for the analysis of small exploratory microarray experiments $^{\star, \star \star}$

W.M. Muir^{a,*}, G.J.M. Rosa^b, B.R. Pittendrigh^c, Z. Xu^d, S.D. Rider^e, M. Fountain^e, J. Ogas^e

^a Department of Animal Sciences, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, IN 47907, United States

^b Department of Dairy Science, University of Wisconsin, Madison, WI 53706, United States

^c Department of Entomology, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, IN 47907, United States

^d Department of Botany and Plant Science, University of California, Riverside, CA 92521, United States

^e Department of Biochemistry, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, IN 47907, United States

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ABSTRACT

The microarray is an important and powerful tool for prescreening of genes for further research. However, alternative solutions are needed to increase power in small microarray experiments. Use of traditional parametric and even non-parametric tests for such small experiments lack power and have distributional problems. A mixture model is described that is performed directly on expression differences assuming that genes in alternative treatments are expressed or not in all combinations (i) not expressed in either condition, (ii) expressed only under the first condition, giving rise to 4 possible clusters with two treatments. The approach is termed a Mean-Difference-Mixture-Model (MD-MM) method. Accuracy and power of the MD-MM was compared to other commonly used methods, using both simulations, microarray data, and quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR). The MD-MM was greatest in situations where there were few replicates, poor signal to noise ratios, or non-homogeneous variances.

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1. Introduction

Microarrays provide unique insight into gene regulation networks as impacted by any number of factors, including tissue, time, treatment, condition, or genetic background, see Walsh and Henderson (2004) for a review. The major statistical questions posed by such experiments were summarized by Allison et al. (2002), and included: (1) evidence of differential expression (DE), (2) number of genes with true DE, (3) confidence interval (CI) of mean expression difference, (4) threshold above which genes are interesting and should be followed up, and what proportion of genes in this list are likely to be false positives, and (5) what proportion of genes not declared interesting are likely to be false negatives. As Allison et al. (2002) concluded, if the power of the experiment was near perfect, then ordinary frequentist significance testing would be

Abbreviations: FDR, false discovery rate; pFDR, positive FDR; SAM, significance analysis of microarrays; qRT-PCR, quantitative reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction.

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^{☆☆} Data sets used for the simulations are available upon request.

^{*} Corresponding address: 1151 Lilly Hall, Department of Animal Sciences, Purdue University, W. Lafayette, IN 47907-1151, United States. Tel.: +1 765 494 8032; fax: +1 765 494 9346.

E-mail address: bmuir@purdue.edu (W.M. Muir).

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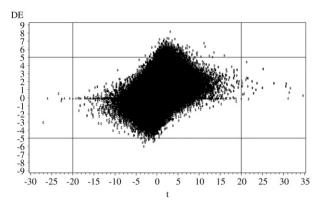


Fig. 1. Simulation results for two treatments, each with 4 replicates. Treatment effects and random errors were sampled from a normal distribution. True DE plotted against the calculated value of *t*. Observations associated with each of the 4 distributions are identified by letter ($A = D^{(0)}$, $B = D^{(1)}$, $C = D^{(1')}$, $D = D^{(2)}$).

sufficient to answer these questions. However, due to the costs of microarray chips, many experiments have few replicates per condition, while the number of genes to be analyzed per chip is large, resulting in the so-called small *n* large *p* problem (Martella, 2006). A solution to this problem is the use of mixture models (MM), first developed for other applications (Aitkin and Wilson, 1980; Edelbrock, 1979) and later proposed by a number of researchers for microarray analysis. Most MM were developed to cluster samples e.g. Alexandridis et al. (2004), Asyali and Alci (2005), Ghosh (2004), Kauermann and Eilers (2004), Kendziorski et al. (2003), Lai et al. (2007), Martella (2006), McLachlan et al. (2002, 2006) and Pan et al. (2006) but several cluster genes e.g. Allison et al. (2002), Do et al. (2005), Efron et al. (2001), Lee et al. (2000), McLachlan et al. (2005), Newton et al. (2004), Pan (2002, 2003) and Reverter et al. (2006). Each of these methods employs a different set of assumptions, yet no method has been commonly accepted as a standard. The majority of these MM are based on clustering of test statistics (such as *t* or *F*) e.g. Efron et al. (2001), McLachlan et al. (2002), Pan (2002) and Reverter et al. (2006), *p*-values derived from test statistics e.g. Allison et al. (2002), or *z* values derived from *p*-values e.g. Lai et al. (2007) and McLachlan et al. (2006).

Unfortunately, methods that cluster based on test statistics, or their derivatives, may be susceptible to a critical problem that occurs with small sample sizes. Allison et al. (2002) notes that with very small sample size parametric tests of the differences between levels of gene expression will be more sensitive to assumed distributional forms of the expression data, and resulting *p*-values may not be accurate. Allison et al. (2002) also states that although non-parametric tests, such as bootstrapping *p*-values, could potentially solve this problem, if n < 5, then *p*-values will be affected by the discreteness of the bootstrapped distribution and there will be a limited number of possible distinct *p*-values. As such Allison et al. (2002) concludes that the resulting MM analysis with small sample sizes might be unreliable. Results presented by Jeffery et al. (2006) support this conclusion. The authors used cross validation analysis of data from several microarray experiments using 10 different feature selection methods. They found that with low replication, or high variance, gene ranking based on these statistics were poor, and simple fold and non-parametric methods were more powerful than parametric methods.

An example of this phenomenon supporting the concern of Allison et al. (2002) is illustrated in Fig. 1. These data were sampled from a distribution with a common error variance across genes (Fig. 1 is illustrated from Case 16 in Table 1, details are given in the Simulations section). Those genes with the largest values of t (those greater than an arbitrary critical value of ± 20) are the first genes to be statistically significant at some Type I error rate, but represent some of the smallest true differences. In the left tail 50% of the largest values of t are false positives, i.e. from the null distribution (the distribution is skewed to the right because the mean of one of the clusters was increased by a treatment). In contrast, those genes with greatest true DE (those greater than an arbitrary DE of ± 5 on the figure) were all contained within zero ± 7 units of t and the coefficient of determination for regression of t on DE was very poor ($R^2 = .09$). In this example the assumption of homogeneous error variances was true, thus one would expect the correlation between t and DE to be greater because the numerator of the t statistic is DE while the expected value of the denominator is constant. These results confirm that for small n, clustering based on parametric test statistics or their derivatives and p values is likely to identify genes that exhibit modest or even no difference in expression in response to a given treatment. The apparent discrepancy between the test statistic and true DE results from the fact that the t statistic is a ratio and by chance the denominator may be unusually small. As the number of replicates increases this problem becomes increasingly rare. However, due to the current high costs of microarrays, experiments with 2 treatments and 4 (or fewer) biological replicate chips per treatment (8 total) are not uncommon particularly for preliminary or exploratory type experiments (Pedra et al., 2004; Wayne and McIntyre, 2002).

The number of components (clusters) is the next major concern in MM analysis. Except for those MM proposed by Lee et al. (2000) and Reverter et al. (2006), the number of components proposed in a microarray MM is based on desired outcomes, not the underlying biology. The maximum number of components based on desired outcomes is usually 2 (Efron et al., 2001; Liao et al., 2004; Martella, 2006; McLachlan et al., 2002; Newton et al., 2004; Pan, 2002), (defined as differentially expressed and null or affected and not), but 3 (Lai et al., 2007) (defined as up, down, or null), and *k* (Allison et al., 2002)

Table 1
Alternative parameters used for each of the simulated cases

Case	Proportion in each distribution		r			sn	Average conditio	erage expression levels under each ndition				
	π_0	π_1	$\pi_{1'}$	π_2		σ_G^2	σ_{ε}^2		μ_{Y^e}	$\mu_{\mathrm{Y}^{u}}$	μ_{Z^e}	μ_{Z^u}
1	.9	.025	.025	.05	4	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
2	.9	.025	.025	.05	16	1	1	2	0	0	0	0
3	.9	.025	.025	.05	4	16	1	4	0	0	0	0
4	.9	.025	.025	.05	4	1	16	.4	0	0	0	0
5	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	1	1	1	0	0	0	0
6	.5	.125	.125	.25	16	1	1	2	0	0	0	0
7	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	16	1	4	0	0	0	0
8	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	1	16	.4	0	0	0	0
9	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	1	1^{\dagger}	1†	0	0	0	0
10	.5	.125	.125	.25	16	1	1^{\dagger}	2†	0	0	0	0
11	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	16	1†	4^{\dagger}	0	0	0	0
12	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	1	16^{\dagger}	$.4^{\dagger}$	0	0	0	0
13	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
14	.5	.125	.125	.25	16	1	1	2	1	0	0	0
15	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	16	1	4	1	0	0	0
16	.5	.125	.125	.25	4	1	16	.4	1	0	0	0

 $\pi_0, \pi_1, \pi_{1'}, \pi_2$ = proportion of genes expressed in neither, the first, the second, or both conditions, respectively; r = replicates; σ_G^2 = variance among genes; σ_{ε}^2 = variance among biological samples, assumed common to all genes, but heterogeneous and unique to each gene where indicated with [†]; σ_{∂}^2 = technical variation; sn = signal to noise ratio $sn = \sigma_G \sqrt{r} / (\sigma_{\varepsilon} + \sigma_{\partial})$; $\mu_{Y^e}, \mu_{Y^u}, \mu_{Z^e}, \mu_{Z^u}$ = mean of all genes expressed and not expressed in the first condition, respectively.

clusters have also been proposed. In contrast, Lee et al. (2000) and Reverter et al. (2006) based the number of components on biology. The concept of Reverter et al. (2006) was that connection of genes to pathways is dependent on condition (tissue, time, or treatment). When genes are connected they are expressed, but connection and level of expression can vary between treatments. This is an important concept to capture in a MM because expressed genes have variation in transcript number due to other *cis* or *trans*-acting elements. They partition not only by DE, but also by pathway, and because there can be any number of biological pathways, the number of clusters is the same. Lee et al. (2000) on the other hand, based the number of components on expressed and not expressed genes, but for a single condition (treatment).

Our desire was to examine MM methods that would be applicable to experiments with a small number of replicates and based on underlying modes of gene action. From the above considerations, we avoided MM methods based on clustering test statistics, or their derivatives. The alternative approach was to simply use the raw (or normalized) data as proposed by Lee et al. (2000). But, we desired to model DE based on patterns of gene expression, i.e. connectivity by condition combined with direction. Given these goals, we considered the most viable approach was to generalize the methods of Lee et al. (2000) to the case of differential expression. We will show that estimates of the variance associated with each cluster have relevant interpretations in terms of biological processes useful in answering questions posed by Allison et al. (2002).

What we are proposing is a special case of the more general field of MM. General programs are readily available for MM based on any normally distributed variable, e.g. EMMIX (McLachlan et al., 2002). The purpose of our research is to examine how well an MM approach based on raw data, with components defined by connectivity and direction, works for detecting DE genes in experiments with small replication. The approach was to compare accuracy and power to other commonly used methods of microarray analysis. Because the procedure is based on clustering differences between means, we call the method MD-MM for Mean Difference-Mixture Model to differentiate it from other clustering methods.

2. Statistical methods

MD-MM development: Consider first a single condition for which a replicated microarray experiment is completed. This is exactly the situation described by Lee et al. (2000). There will be two categories of genes: those that are expressed to some degree, and those that are not to any degree, i.e. the genes are either turned on (connected) or not. If turned on, they may have differing numbers of gene transcripts due to genetic (*cis* and *trans*-acting elements) and environmental factors. Next consider a second condition for which the same microarray is again used in a replicated manner. In this second condition, the same or different levels of expression. Our approach is to combine both results into one analysis for differential expression. In this development, we expect a maximum of four categories of genes, which are described as: (i) not expressed in either condition, (ii) expressed only under the first condition, (iii) expressed only under the second condition, and (iv) expressed under both conditions. We do not expect to be able to identify all genes in each of these categories, but rather we aim to find those genes that have greatest differential expression as found in the tails of the distributions. In addition, not all categories may be present in all experiments. For example, the same set of genes may be on or off on both conditions in a particular experiment, and in such a case there would be only two categories (i and iv).

Modeling gene expression under different conditions: For what follows assume a microarray oligo chip, or a spotted cDNA membrane, with a single channel or dye, with *N* genes. The methods can be extended to 2-dye spotted chips after adjusting expression levels for block and dye effects using an appropriate mixed model for the design, such as those given by Wolfinger et al. (2001). The usual assumption is made that errors are independent of treatment or that suitable transformation is applied to correct the problem if it exists.

For each treatment condition, assume *r* biological replicates, from each of which RNA is isolated and either converted to cDNA or directly hybridized to independent chips or membranes, depending on the technology used. For the first condition, let these observations (after suitable transformation and normalization) be denoted Z_{ij} for expression of the *j*th replicate (j = 1, 2, ..., r) of the *i*th gene (i = 1, 2, ..., N). These observations are modeled differently depending on whether the gene is expressed or not. For expressed genes assume the following model:

$$Z_{ij}^{e} = \mu_{Z^{e}} + G_{i} + \varepsilon_{(i)j} + \partial_{(ij)} \tag{1}$$

where Z_{ij}^e is the observed level of expression (signal intensity) for the *j*th replicate (j = 1, 2, ..., r) of the *i*th gene $(i = 1, 2, ..., n_1)$, μ_{Z^e} is the average gene expression under that condition, G_i is the effect of the *i*th gene, $\varepsilon_{(i)j}$ is biological sampling error and includes genetic variation among individuals, and $\partial_{(ij)}$ is technical error due to experimental procedures. The terms G_i , $\varepsilon_{(i)j}$ and $\partial_{(ij)}$ are assumed to be normally distributed, independently from each other, with means zero and variances σ_G^2 , σ_{ε}^2 and σ_{∂}^2 , respectively. The signal variance of the expressed genes is then $\sigma_{Z^e}^2 = \sigma_G^2 + \sigma_{\varepsilon}^2 + \sigma_{\partial}^2$. For those genes that are not expressed, any non-null average refers to background as there is no transcript being produced for such genes. Thus we assume the following model:

$$Z_{i'}^{\nu} = \mu_{Z^{u}} + \partial_{(i'j)} \tag{2}$$

where $Z_{i'j}^u$ is the observed signal intensity for the *j*th replicate of the *i*'th gene *i*' (*i*' = 1, 2, ..., n_2), μ_{Z_u} is the average of the unexpressed genes (background noise) and $\partial_{(i'j)}$ is the technical error. Because these genes are not expressed, it is not possible for the environment or other conditions to have an effect, thus all variation is due to technical variation. The signal variance of these non-expressed genes is $\sigma_{Z^u}^2 = \sigma_{\partial}^2$, thus it follows that $\sigma_{Z^e}^2 > \sigma_{Z^u}^2$. Because genes can only be in one of these two categories $N = n_1 + n_2$.

Assume that under another condition the same genes are measured with the same number of replicates and denoted as Y_{ij} (a balanced design is considered hereinafter without loss of generalization as the methods can be easily extended for cases with unequal numbers of replication). For these measurements, the same or different set of genes may be expressed at the same or different levels. The expressed genes are described by the following model:

$$Y_{ij}^{e} = \mu_{Y^{e}} + G_{i}' + \varepsilon_{(i)j}' + \partial_{(ij)}'$$
(3)

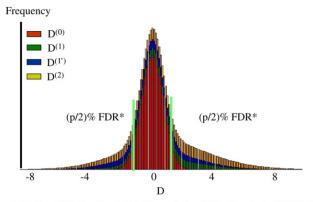
and not expressed by:

$$Y_{i'j}^{u} = \mu_{Y^{u}} + \partial_{(i'j)}^{\prime}$$
(4)

with corresponding definitions as for the first condition.

The putative differential expression for each gene is estimated as the difference between means as: $D_i = \frac{1}{r} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{r} Z_{ij} - \sum_{j=1}^{r} Y_{ij} \right)$. Depending on whether a gene is expressed under neither, only one, or both conditions, the D_i are modeled by different equations: (i) Not expressed under either condition $(k = 0) : D_i^{(0)} = \frac{1}{r} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{r} Z_{ij}^u - \sum_{j=1}^{r} Y_{ij}^u \right)$, with conditional expectation $E \left(D_i^{(0)} \right) = \mu_{Z^u} - \mu_{Y^u} = 0$, because the mean of the unexpressed genes is expected to be the same regardless of condition; (ii) expressed only under the first condition $(k = 1) : D_i^{(1)} = \frac{1}{r} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{r} Z_{ij}^e - \sum_{j=1}^{r} Y_{ij}^u \right)$ with conditional expectation: $E \left(D_i^{(1)} \right) = \mu_{Z^e} + G_i - \mu_{Y^u}$; (iii) expressed only under the second condition $(k = 1') : D_i^{(1')} = \frac{1}{r} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{r} Z_{ij}^e - \sum_{j=1}^{r} Y_{ij}^e \right)$ with conditional expectation: $E \left(D_i^{(1')} \right) = \mu_{Z^e} + G_i - \mu_{Y^u}$; (iii) expressed only under the second condition $(k = 1') : D_i^{(1')} = \frac{1}{r} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{r} Z_{ij}^e - \sum_{j=1}^{r} Y_{ij}^e \right)$ with conditional expectation: $E \left(D_i^{(1')} \right) = \mu_{Z^u} - G_i' - \mu_{Y^e}$ and (iv) expressed under both conditions $(k = 2) : D_i^{(2)} = \frac{1}{r} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{r} Z_{ij}^e - \sum_{j=1}^{r} Y_{ij}^e \right]$ with conditional expectation: $E \left(D_i^{(2)} \right) = \mu_{Z^e} + (G_i - G_i') - \mu_{Y^e}$. The marginal expectations and variances are: $E \left(D^{(0)} \right) = \mu_{D^{(0)}} = \mu_{Z^u} - \mu_{Y^u} = 0$, $\sigma_{D^{(0)}}^2 = 2\sigma_{\partial}^2/r$; $E \left(D^{(1)} \right) = \mu_{D^{(1)}} = \mu_{Z^e} - \mu_{Y^e}$, $\sigma_{D^{(1)}}^2 = \sigma_{\mathcal{E}}^2 + \sigma_{\mathcal{E}}^2/r + 2\sigma_{\partial}^2/r$; $E \left(D^{(2)} \right) = \mu_{D^{(2)}} = \mu_{Z^e} - \mu_{Y^e}$, $\sigma_{D^{(1)}}^2 = 2\sigma_{\mathcal{E}}^2 + 2\sigma_{\mathcal{E}}^2/r + 2\sigma_{\partial}^2/r$, respectively.

Estimation: The conditional distributions, given the subset class k and respective parameters, $D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2 \sim N\left(\mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2\right)$, for k = 0, 1, 1', or 2, are $N\left(\mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2\right) \equiv \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2) = (2\pi\sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2)^{-1/2} \exp\left\{-\left(D_i - \mu_{D_k}\right)^2/\left(2\sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2\right)\right\}$. The overall distribution is $f(D_i) = \sum_{k=0}^2 \pi_k \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2)$, where π_k is the respective mixing proportion of each distribution and $\sum_{k=0}^2 \pi_k = 1$. The incomplete-data log likelihood function of the mixture model is $L_{ICD}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \ln \sum_{k=0}^2 \pi_k \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2)$, which can be maximized using the EM algorithm (Dempster et al., 1977). The



* The cutoff value of D is found such that of those declared DE, p% are in the Null Distribution

Fig. 2. Distribution of D associated with each component of the MM and FDR.

associated complete-data log likelihood function is: $L_{CD}(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=0}^{2} w_i^{(k)} \left\{ \ln \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2) + \ln \pi_k \right\}$, where $w_i^{(k)}$ is an indicator variable such that $w_i^{(k)} = 1$ if the *i*th gene belongs to cluster *k*, and $w_i^{(k)} = 0$ otherwise. The expectation of the complete-data log likelihood function is: $E[L_{CD}(\theta)] = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sum_{k=0}^{2} E[w_i^{(k)}] \left\{ \ln \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2) + \ln \pi_k \right\}$, and the EM algorithm proceeds as follows. For a given initial set of parameter values, the E-step is: $E[w_i^{(k)}] = \rho_i^{(k)} = \pi_k \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2) / \sum_{k'=0}^{k} \pi_{k'} \phi(D_i \mid k, \mu_{D^{(k)}}, \sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2)$, and the M-step is: $\mu_{D^{(k)}} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_i^{(k)} D_i / (\pi_k N)$, $\sigma_{D^{(k)}}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_i^{(k)} (D_i - \mu_{D^{(k)}})^2 / (\pi_k N)$, and $\pi_k = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \rho_i^{(k)} / N$. The procedure is repeated until convergence is achieved. Because convergence to a local maximum may occur, rather than to the global maximum, a grid of starting points spanning the solution space should be examined. Note that there is a natural ordering of the variances: $\sigma_{D_2}^2 > \sigma_{D_1}^2 > \sigma_{D_0}^2 - \sigma_{D^{(2)}}^2 > \sigma_{D^{(1)}}^2 > \sigma_{D^{(0)}}^2$; this result can be used to help discern genes that are associated with which class.

Although we have defined four components, it is possible that less than four may be needed for a given situation, i.e. all genes are truly null, or all genes are expressed, or some other combination. Also, categories 2 and 3 (k = 1, 1') may be difficult to separate as they both have the same variance structure and may have only slightly different expectations. For a 3 component model, and for those genes expressed only in one condition or the other, an average across both single expression distributions will result, i.e. $D^{(*)} = (D^{(1)} + D^{(1')})/2$. Thus, the number of components in the mixture models can be chosen using some model selection criteria such as Akaike's information criterion (AIC, Akaike, 1974) and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC, Schwarz, 1978).

False Discovery Rate (pFDR): After the parameters are estimated, the data is sorted by D_i for a one sided test for differential expression, or abs (D_i) for a 2-tailed test, and for each gene $\rho_i^{(0)}$, the probability the gene belongs to the null cluster is calculated. Next for the m^{th} ordered value we compute $q_m = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \rho_i^{(0)}$, which is the cumulative average proportion of genes expected under the null distribution and is conceptually equivalent to the q values of Storey (2003). For a (100 α)% pFDR simply find m such that $q_m \leq \alpha$ (Allison et al., 2002). Conceptually these areas are given in Fig. 2 for the data shown in Fig. 1.

The method used by Storey (2003) to find the pFDR is essentially based on a 2-component mixture model based on clustering *t* or *p* values, but is, as they state, always biased except for the case when all genes are null. The estimate of the mixing proportion for k = 0, the null distribution, could be combined with the pFDR method of Storey et al. (2004) to give a more accurate *q*-value estimate.

3. Methods for validation and comparison

Simulations: For the simulations, a wide variety of genetic parameters were used with the intention of capturing the range of possibilities that might be encountered in actual experiments; those cases are given in Table 1. The data were generated based on Eqs. (1)–(4) with differing proportions of observations under each condition. Cases 1–12 were worse case scenarios where the overall mean expression level over all genes for each treatment was not different. In cases 13–16 means over treatments were different. For most cases gene effects, biological, and technical errors were sampled from independent normal distributions with expectations of zero and variance σ_G^2 , σ_e^2 and σ_d^2 , respectively. Although the assumption of a common variance for technical and environmental error seemed reasonable, the assumption that all genetic effects (G_i) are sampled from a common distribution is questionable, but unavoidable with our approach. The effect of this assumption was tested in Cases 9–12 of Table 1, whereby we simulated a different variance among biological samples associated with each gene, those variances being a base value as given in Table 1 plus a random value from a uniform distribution (uniform on 0–9), for each gene.

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A chip with 50,000 genes was assumed; the mixing proportion for the expressed genes was set to either low ($\pi_0 = .9$, Eqs. (1) and (3) were used for 2500 genes; Eqs. (1) and (4) for 1250 genes; Eqs. (2) and (3) for 1250 genes, and Eqs. (2) and (4) for 45,000 genes) or high ($\pi_0 = .5$, Eqs. (1) and (3) were used for 12,250 genes; Eqs. (1) and (4) for 6250 genes; Eqs. (2) and (3) for 6250 genes, and Eqs. (2) and (4) for 25,000 genes). The overall mean for all equations was set to 0, except for Cases 13–16 where the mean of the expressed genes was set to 1, i.e. $\mu_{Y^e} = 1$. The signal to noise ratio, $sn = \sigma_G \sqrt{r} / (\sigma_{\varepsilon} + \sigma_{\partial})$, was set to either high, medium, low, or very low by holding σ_{∂}^2 constant and changing either σ_G^2 , σ_{ε}^2 or r. These factors were not considered in all combinations, as too many results would be generated; rather 16 selected combinations were examined as given in Table 1. The data sets are given in the supplemental material along with the MD-MM programs.

For comparison, several popular methods of microarray analysis were examined. These included the simple *t*-tests with FDR (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995) or pFDR (Storey, 2003; Storey et al., 2004) approaches for multiple testing, and the permutation-based attenuated *t*-test of SAM software (Tusher et al., 2001). Comparisons were based on total errors (Type I and Type II) and Power = (1-Type II).

Data halving and mutual validation: We analyzed a microarray experiment using the Arabidopsis Affymetrix[®]GeneChip[®] containing 22,819 genes. The design was a 2×2 factorial of genotypes ('wild type' vs. the *pickle*) and exposure treatments (uniconazole-P or no uniconazole-P) as described by Rider et al. (2003). There were 6 replicate chips for each treatment combination using different biological samples for each replicate for a total of 24 chips. For comparison purposes, data from only the *pickle* mutant, with and without uniconazole exposure, were used. This restriction, combined with data halving, resulted in a two-treatment experiment with few replicates (r = 3), the situation we are addressing. These data were split into two sets (A and B), with three replicates per treatment (uniconazole exposure or not) in each set.

Consistency was determined by the chi-square statistic and correlation. The data within each partition were divided into those genes which were classified as DE, and not, for each method. The results were then tested for non-independence using a chi-square 2×2 contingency table. The chi-square statistics (χ^2_{AB}) determines the degree to which classification into each set is non-random. A second measure of consistency is the correlation of calls between data sets r_{AB} . For data set A, a dummy variable X_A is coded 0 if the null is accepted and 1 if rejected for each gene. Similarly for data set B, a dummy variable X_B is coded 0 if the null is accepted and 1 if rejected; then $r_{AB} = cov(X_A, X_B)/\sqrt{V(X_A)V(X_B)}$ is computed. It can be shown that $r^2_{AB} = \chi^2_{AB}/N$. The relative power = *rPower* is defined to be the number rejected by both data sets over *N*. We consider a reasonable

The relative power = *rPower* is defined to be the number rejected by both data sets over *N*. We consider a reasonable basis for comparison of methods as that which gives the highest *rPower* along with the greatest consistency, as measured by either r_{AB} or $\chi^2_{AB} \chi^2_{AB}$. Obviously this method of comparison has limitations and by itself may give false conclusions, especially if all hypotheses are accepted or rejected in both data sets, but if used in conjunction with other methods of comparison, adds to the strength of the final conclusion.

Correlation between microarray analysis and quantitative real time PCR. Quantitative real time PCR (qRT-PCR) is considered the most robust method for quantitative analysis of differential expression and is commonly used to confirm differential expression as identified by microarray analysis. We used an ABI Prism 7000 analysis performed using RNA from a single pooled sample across biological replicates in association with the Arabidopsis experiment (Rider et al., 2003). 18S rRNA was used as a standardization control for these expression studies. Because only a single pooled sample was analyzed, statistical significance could not be determined. Rather, the data were correlated with the decisions made using each method. First the qRT-PCR data was separated into 2 categories, those with a difference in cycle numbers between treatment of $\Delta CT > 1$ and $\Delta CT < 1$. This data was cross classified with those genes declared DE and not DE by each method in the microarray analysis. A 2 × 2 chi-square was then used to test if the association was different from random. Second, the correlation between decision category and qRT-PCR category was estimated.

4. Results

Comparison by simulations: For the examples used, a 4-component MD-MM resulted in the best fit, but not significantly better than the 3-component model. This result was expected whenever the absolute values of means of genes in components 2 and 3, and their variances, were similar, such as in scenarios 1–12. However, even for scenarios 13–16, where the absolute value of means of genes in components 2 and 3 were different, but variances the same, the 4-component model did not fit significantly better than a 3-component model. But a 3-component model always fit significantly better than a 2-component model was fitted to all cases; results are given in Table 2.

In all cases examined and methods compared, use of the MD-MM approach resulted in the greatest levels of power and lowest total errors. On average, over all cases, the MD-MM had three times the power and with 14% fewer total errors than the next best method (SAM). The MD-MM particularly excelled where the signal to noise ratio was poor (Cases 4, 8, 12, and 16). In cases 4, 8, and 16, only the MD-MM was able to detect any differentially expressed genes, and in all those cases did so with powers ranging between 43% and 72%. With heterogeneous variances (Cases 9–12), regardless of the signal to noise ratio (*sn*), the MD-MM resulted in almost an order of magnitude greater power than *t*-tests coupled with the FDR and pFDR approaches and three times that of SAM. For a differentially expressed distribution with a mean greater than zero, i.e. biased toward up regulation (Cases 13–16), the power and error rate of the MD-MM was improved as the distributions have less overlap.

These results show that even for the most difficult cases, where the centers of the distributions of the component distributions are the same, differentially expressed genes can be distinguished. As seen from these results, the key to

Table 2

Case	Method							
	FDR		pFDR		SAM		MD-MM	
	Errors	Power	Errors	Power	Errors	Power	Errors	Power
1	10	0	10	0	9.6	3.6	9.0	9.8
2	8.1	19.6	8.1	20	7.5	25.5	6.5	35.4
3	6.8	33.2	6.7	34.4	3.9	61	3.8	63.9
4	10	0	10	0	10	0	5.8	43.8
5	50	0	49.9	0.1	48.2	3.7	40.1	17.1
6	35.2	30.5	33.8	33.8	32.2	36.5	26.2	49.4
7	24.4	52.6	21.9	58.9	23.1	55.1	14.6	72.8
8	50	0	50	0	50	0	24.7	51.8
9	50	0	50	0	49.9	0.1	22.1	56.9
10	49	2	48.9	2.2	48.8	2.5	18.6	64.1
11	45.9	8.3	45.3	9.7	42.5	15.4	12.2	77.8
12	50	0	50	0	50	0.1	15.0	71.8
13	50	0	49.8	0.4	42.4	15.6	35.8	31.3
14	29	43.2	27.3	47.3	25.7	50.6	21.9	58.5
15	24.2	52.8	21.8	58.9	19.7	63.2	14.8	72.4
16	50	0	50	0	50	0	22.6	56.3
Ave	33.9	15.6	33.3	17.4	32.1	20.4	18.2	52.5

Power = 100[1 - (# false negatives/# trueDE)].

Errors = 100 (#false positives + #false negatives)/N.

For MD-MM, the null distribution was always defined as the distribution centered at 0 with smallest variance, genes in all other distributions were declared DE.

Table 3

True and estimated proportion of genes in null distribution with the MD-MM and pFDR methods

Case	True percent in the null distribution	Estimated perce	nt in null distribution	Percent error	
		MD-MM	pFDR	MD-MM	pFDR
1	90	84.3	95.9	-6.3	6.5
2	90	90.1	92.8	0.1	3.1
3	90	89.9	91.5	-0.1	1.6
4	90	85.2	98.9	-5.3	9.9
5	50	54.1	80.2	8.2	60.3
6	50	49.9	69.9	-0.2	39.8
7	50	49.7	58.9	-0.6	17.9
8	50	51.9	96.3	3.8	92.6
9	50	52.5	94.8	5.0	89.6
0	50	51.6	86.5	3.2	73.0
1	50	49.5	77.7	-1.0	55.5
2	50	51	46.7	2.0	-6.6
3	50	49.1	75.2	-1.8	50.3
4	50	49.8	63.4	-0.4	26.8
5	50	50.1	59.3	0.2	18.6
6	50	49.3	89.7	-1.4	79.5
/lean	60.0	59.9	79.9	0.3 ± 0.9	$38.7 \pm$

The null distribution was identified as that distribution with a mean of 0 and smallest variance, i.e. due only to technical variation.

distinguishing differentially expressed genes, from both the null distribution and from lowly differentially expressed genes within the same distribution, is through exploiting the information that expressed genes have greater variances. Of course, if the means of the distributions are also different, then the ability to distinguish differentially regulated genes may also improve, but only in one direction, because the center of the expressed distribution will have decreased overlap with the null distribution in one direction but increased in the other.

Estimation of proportion of transcriptome differentially expressed: Estimation of the proportion of genes in the null distribution is given in Table 3. By definition, all other genes not in the null cluster are either expressed in one environment or the other or both. The MD-MM accurately and precisely estimated the proportion in the null distribution, being on average within $0.3 \pm 0.9\%$ of the true value. In contrast, the pFDR method was consistently biased upward, usually by a large degree, averaging $38.7 \pm 8.4\%$ overestimation. Storey (2003) acknowledges that their estimator is always biased upward, except for the case where all genes are truly null.

Comparison by data halving and mutual validation. For the analysis of the first half of the data by the MD-MM method, we found that a 3 component MM fit significantly better (BIC = 12,776) than a 2 component (BIC = 16,902), but a 4 component

Table 4

Comparison of power and consistency among methods using data splitting

Method	Data set A	Data set B		Consistency	rP%	
		C	R	r_{AB}	χ^2_{AB}	
FDR	C R	22,056 196	439 119	0.27	1,670	.5
pFDR	C R	21,100 990	365 355	0.33	2,525	1.6
SAM	C R	13,324 350	7530 1606	0.26	1,576	7.0
MD-MM	C R	16,635 1,135	953 4087	0.74	12,413	17.9

C = accept, R = reject, rP = rPower.

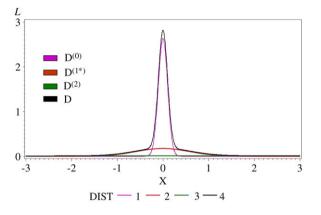


Fig. 3. Distribution of the MM components.

MM (BIC = 12,782) was not better than a 3, results using the AIC criteria were the same. Distributions fit using the 3 components are shown in Fig. 3. Genes expressed in neither treatment, in only one treatment (up or down), and expressed in both treatments (up or down) accounted for respectively 66%, 25%, and 9% of the total distribution. Analysis of the second half of the data gave similar results. It is interesting that the primary form of DE is the expression under one condition, and not the other indicating that genes are turned on or off and infrequently modulated by treatments.

Consistency and rPower are given in Table 4. The MD-MM had the greatest rPower, followed by SAM, pFDR and FDR. The rPower of MD-MM was twice that of SAM and almost 3 times that of pFDR. The consistency across data sets, as measured by chi-square, was similar for FDR, pFDR, and SAM, but approximately 2.5 times greater for the MD-MM.

Correlation between microarray analysis and quantitative real time PCR. Results for all methods are given in Table 5. The MD-MM correctly identified DE genes almost twice that of the other methods while total errors were less. Even more striking differences between methods were obtained using those same treatments but with the wild type genetic background (see Appendix Table A.1).

5. Discussion

We used three approaches for verification and comparison among methods, each has advantages and disadvantages. The first was simulated data. The advantage of simulation is the answers are known without error, but the major disadvantage is the data structures and the distributions simulated may not accurately reflect real world microarray data. The second method used was actual microarray data, but combined with data splitting, where half of the data are used to verify the remainder. Here, the advantage is that the data structures and distributions are valid, but we can only infer the accuracy of the methods on agreement between different subsets. The third method used was correlation of decisions with expression levels as determined by qRT-PCR. Here, the advantage is that qRT-PCR is a robust approach that is commonly used by biologists to confirm differential expression as identified by microarray analysis, but this analysis was limited by the additional time and expense and by the fact that qRT-PCR is itself subject to error. However, because all three methods were used, each contributed to the strength of the conclusions.

Simulation results over a wide variety of parameters and assumptions showed that the MD-MM had the greatest power and lowest total errors of the methods compared. Results using data halving and qRT-PCR on real data confirmed

Table 5

(Correlation of decision by method and classification by qR1-PCR for each data set and for which qR1-PCR results were available	

Method	Data set	qRT-PCR	X^2	Correlation			
		$\Delta CT < 1$ Decision ^a		$\Delta CT > 1$ Decision ^a			
		Not DE	DE	Not DE	DE		
FDR	A	139	5	138	33	28	.28
	B	180	16	114	57	38	.31
pFDR	A	181	15	113	58	40	.33
	B	162	34	88	83	40	.33
SAM	A	192	4	134	37	36	.31
	B	179	17	93	78	35	.31
MD-MM	A	139	59	52	119	59	.40
	B	131	67	46	125	53	.38

^a Decision based on 5% FDR (FDR, pFDR, SAM); or overlap with null distribution (MD-MM).

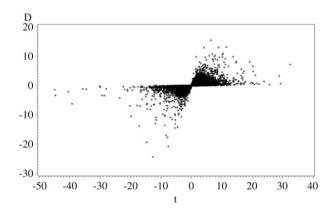


Fig. 4. Observed relationship of the *t* statistic with normalized treatment differences (D).

these findings for at least one experimental situation. All three methods of comparison support each other, not only as to robustness and power of alternative methods, but also under which conditions the orders are determined. Additionally, our results appear to be the first to incorporate qRT-PCR analysis as one of several approaches to extensively compare methods of microarray analysis for both Type I and II errors, as well as power.

The simulation results indicate that the advantage of the MD-MM approach increased when applied under any of the following conditions: increased variance among biological replicates, low replication, and non-homogeneous variances. All of these factors result in a decrease in the overlap between the distributions of the null and differentially expressed genes, thus cumulatively or individually lending strength to the MD-MM approach. These same factors either have no impact or weaken the ability of the simple *t*-test to distinguish genes. The only factor that can increase power (for a given significance level) of the simple *t*-test, or similar methods, is to increase the numbers of replicates. Although the data were generated based on our set of assumptions, these are the same set of assumptions needed for analysis of variance, i.e. normality and common variance. Thus comparisons were between parametric methods (SAM, FDR, pFDR) are based on the same set of assumptions, although SAM is less dependent on those assumptions and should be more robust.

The microarray data also supports our concern regarding use of t-tests with small replication to find genes with large expression differences. As shown in Fig. 1, those genes with the largest values of t were often due to underestimation of the error variance, rather than large differences in expression. This relationship was examined with the real data in Fig. 4 where the calculated value of t and observed differences in treatment means for each gene is given. Here the greatest values of t are again associated with some of the smallest mean differences while the largest mean differences are associated with the smallest values of t.

Similarly, this concern can be demonstrated with qRT-PCR. We examined the top 25 ranked genes with the highest differential expression, as determined by qRT-PCR, in data sets A and B (Table 5) and found that the MD-MM found 36% and 28% respectively of these genes. In contrast, pFDR identified 4% and 4%, SAM identified 0% and 8%, and FDR identified 0 and 4% respectively of these genes. Thus ranking genes based on the simple *t*-test does not necessarily identify a high proportion of genes with detectable DE, whereas an MM based on raw, or transformed, differences does. In addition to having better success at identifying genes that exhibit DE, MD-MM has other technical advantages that are worth noting. Estimates of magnitudes for sources of variation can be used for quality control purposes and experimental design to determine sample sizes needed to achieve a desired power.

One critical feature of MD-MM that allows it to better describe the transcriptome is the recognition that genes can only fall into four expression categories, with three different variance structures. Genes in Category 4, i.e. expressed in both conditions, may include genes with minimal or negligible difference in expression in the two conditions, whereas all genes in Category 1 cannot have any real difference in expression, yet both situations can result in genes that are (virtually) not differentially expressed. However, microarray data that arise from expressed genes are influenced by biological background, sampling, and technical errors, whereas those related to null genes are only influenced by technical errors. Thus each category of gene is expected to have a different variance structure. Therefore fitting differential expression into two categories (differentially expressed and not) as commonly found in the literature is a vast oversimplification that either assumes (1) all expressed genes are expressed under both conditions, but at different levels, or (2) that genes are only expressed in one condition but not the other. There is no allowance for a combination of (1) and (2).

Use of our MD-MM to declare significant DE genes requires careful consideration of our definition of DE. All genes expressed in at least one environment or condition are by definition DE, even those that are expressed in both environments at approximately the same level. This is because there is zero probability of two expressed genes having a true difference of zero. From a pragmatic perspective, genes which are expressed in both environments but near equally will overlap the null distribution, which by definition is centered at zero, and will be declared not-DE. In Fig. 2, all those genes contained within the (p/2)%FDR interval are considered not DE because they overlap the null by (1 - p)%, but for genes in any interval, we can give the probability of being associated with each of the distributions.

Although the MD-MM method uses raw (or transformed) differences as the metric of DE, the result should not be interpreted as a fold change test. A fold change test is based on a constant critical value for significance, usually 1 if \log_2 transformed. As a result, power can decrease as sample size increases (Allison et al., 2002), which is the opposite of what the MD-MM method achieves. With the MD-MM the critical value, determined by the overlap of expressed gene distributions with the null distribution, decreases directly with sample size, i.e. $\sigma_{D^{(0)}}^2 = 2\sigma_{\partial}^2/r$. However, we implicitly assume a common variance for genes within a cluster and common technical variation across clusters. This assumption is certainly false but appears adequate for our MD-MM approach based on both simulations with heterogeneous variances and actual data. Thus our mixture model also takes into account variance structure of gene expression levels, which is not accounted for with a simple fold change. Another beneficial feature of using a MM approach is that it can be used to facilitate a meta-analysis across labs and platforms by standardizing the deviations within labs/platforms to a phenotypic variance estimated for that lab/platform before combining data. For a meta-analysis, the *D* statistic is standardized using the phenotypic standard deviation among expression levels across the transcriptome. Because of the large number of genes in an array, this variance can be measured with great precision.

In conclusion, the MD-MM as developed here allows for greater power in poorly replicated experiments and also with poor signal to noise ratios.

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Appendix

See Table A.1.

Table A.1

Correlation of decision for uwt vs. wt comparison by method and classification by qRT-PCR for each data set and for which qRT-PCR results were available

Method	Data set	qRT-PCR	X^2	Correlation			
		$\Delta CT < 1$ Decision ^a		$\Delta CT > 1$ Decision ^a			
		Not DE	DE	Not DE	DE		
FDR	A	220	0	142	5	8	.14
	B	219	1	141	6	6	.13
pFDR	A	219	1	138	8	9	.16
	B	218	2	137	10	10	.16
SAM	A	218	1	136	11	14	.19
	B	218	2	135	12	13	.19
MD-MM	A	167	53	49	89	63	.41
	B	171	49	47	100	76	.46

^a Decision based on 5% FDR (FDR, pFDR, SAM); or overlap with null distribution (MD-MM).

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