# Differential dropout analysis captures biological variation in single-cell RNA sequencing data

Gerard A. Bouland[1,2] (g.a.bouland@tudelft.nl)

Ahmed Mahfouz[1,2,3,*] (a.mahfouz@lumc.nl)

Marcel J.T. Reinders[1,2,3,*] (m.j.t.reinders@tudelft.nl)

[1] Delft Bioinformatics Lab, Delft University of Technology, Delft, The Netherlands

[2] Department of Human Genetics, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden 2333ZC, The Netherlands

[3.] Leiden Computational Biology Center, Leiden University Medical Center, Leiden 2333ZC, The Netherlands

* Corresponding authors: Ahmed Mahfouz and Marcel J.T. Reinders

**Abstract**

Single-cell RNA sequencing data is characterized by a large number of zero counts, yet there is growing evidence that these zeros reflect biological variation rather than technical artifacts. We propose differential dropout analysis (DDA) to identify the effects of biological variation in single-cell RNA sequencing data. Using 16 publicly available and simulated datasets, we show that DDA accurately detects biological variation and can assess the relative abundance of transcripts more robustly than methods relying on counts. DDA is available at https://github.com/gbouland/DDA.

**Main**

Single cell RNA sequencing (scRNAseq) data is highly sparse, and the common belief is that the zero

values are primarily caused by technical artifacts (i.e. dropouts). Although more zeros are observed in

scRNAseq data than expected, these can largely be explained by biological rather than technical factors[1].

Also, the amount of zeros in scRNAseq is in line with distributional models of molecule sampling counts[2].

Methods that utilize dropout patterns for feature selection[3,4] and cell type clustering[5] have recently

been developed and perform better or comparable with methods relying on highly variable genes. For

instance, Qiu[5] binarized scRNAseq count data, where dropouts remain zero and every non-zero value

was assigned a one. With this binary representation, cell type clusters were identified based on co-

occurrence of transcripts. Yet, it is not clear whether dropouts also reflect differences across distinct

biological cell populations. Therefore, we investigated whether biological differences across cell

population can be identified using differential dropout analysis (DDA), rather than the commonly used

differential expression analysis (DEA). Instead of relying on changes in the expression value of genes

across cell populations, which can be sparse and are subject to pre-processing steps, we analyzed the

binary dropout patterns across biological distinct cell populations, i.e. are there more (or less) dropouts

for a gene in condition *A* compared to condition *B*.

As proof of concept, we performed DDA with a simple logistic regression on binarized expression

profiles from 16 scRNAseq datasets (662,825 cells in total, Supplementary Table 1). We compared the

results of DDA with those of differently expressed genes (DEGs) detected using the commonly used

Wilcoxon Rank Sum test, which is also top ranked for single cell analyses[6,7]. We tested each gene using

both DDA and DEA for differences between conditions (6 datasets), cell-types (6 datasets) and normal-

versus cancerous tissues (4 datasets, Fig. 1a). Across all datasets, a total of 96,275 significant genes ($P_{FDR}$

≤ 0.05) were identified with either DDA (92,381 genes) or DEA (91,521 genes). Of these, 87,627 were

identified by both tests, resulting in a Jaccard index of 0.91. This high degree of agreement is also

reflected in each individual dataset (median = 0.92, minimum = 0.76, and maximum = 0.99). We did not

use a log fold-change (logFC) or log odds-ratio (logOR) threshold, as for each dataset and comparison

different thresholds are appropriate. In all datasets, the logFC and logOR were significantly (spearman)

correlated (median($\rho$) = 0.90, minimum($\rho$) = 0.49, and maximum($\rho$) = 0.98, $P \leq 5 \times 10^{-100}$). The three

datasets with the lowest correlation coefficient between logOR and logFC ($\rho \leq 0.62$) were datasets

generated using the Smart-seq protocol (Supplementary Table 1). Across the datasets, we observed an

average increase of 1.80 in logOR (median = 1.70, $Q_1$ = 1.59, $Q_3$ = 2.10), for every increase in logFC (see

Fig. 1b for the *cancer atlas (2)* dataset[8]). The high degree of agreement of detected genes shows that

DDA performs on par with the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test and the strong correlation of the logFC and

logOR across all datasets shows that the results can be interpreted in a similar way.

To compare the performance of DDA and DEA in a controlled manner, we simulated scRNAseq data with

muscat[9] using the provided dataset as reference[10]. We generated scRNAseq data with varying number of

cells and 25% of differentially expressed genes. With these simulated data, DEA detected consistently

more genes, both the true positive rate (TPR) and false positive rate (FPR) were higher than the TPR and

FPR of DDA (Supplementary Fig. 1a, Supplementary Fig. 1b). DDA, however, had a higher precision (PPV,

Supplementary Fig. 1c) and was more accurate (F1 score, Fig. 1c).

Despite the observed association between mean expression and dropout rate, which has been

previously described[2], and similar performance of the two tests, there were 4,754 and 3,894 genes

uniquely identified using DDA and DEA, respectively, across all datasets. To better understand these

differences, we highlighted two differential dropout genes (DDGs). In the *cortex dataset*[11], *MTUS2* had

significantly less dropouts in excitatory neurons (logOR = 1.30, $P_{FDR|DDA}$ = $5.27 \times 10^{-115}$, Fig. 1d) compared

to inhibitory neurons, while the median expression levels were not significantly different (logFC = -1.70 ×

$10^{-3}$, $P_{FDR|DEA}$ = $5.70 \times 10^{-2}$), implying additional high ranked expressions for every additional zero. In the

*aging mouse atlas droplet* dataset[12], *Gnb2l1* had significantly less dropouts in the 3-month-old mice

(logOR = -0.67, $P_{FDR|DDA}$ = 1.81 × $10^{-122}$, Fig. 1e) compared to the 24-month-old mice, while again the

median expression levels were not significantly different (logFC = 3.15 × $10^{-3}$, $P_{FDR|DEA}$ = 6.97 × $10^{-1}$).

These examples show that differences in variance between contrasting cell populations can interfere

with the association between dropout rate and mean expression, resulting in disparities between DDA

and DEA.

To exclude that the differentially behaving genes between DDA and DEA associate with a specific

technological or biological process, we investigated whether there were genes repeatedly detected by a

one of the two methods. In most cases, genes that were identified as DDG-only (or DEG-only) were

found within a single dataset (Supplementary Fig. 2a, Supplementary Fig. 2b), suggesting the absence of

a driving process for them.

To validate the DDA results, we compared the results of the *Alzheimer's Disease* (AD) dataset[13]

(entorhinal cortex) with DEA analysis performed on a bulk RNAseq AD dataset[14], comprised of samples

from the fusiform gyrus. For genes measured in both, the scRNAseq dataset and the bulk dataset (N =

2,228), the majority of DDG-only (60.7%) were also differentially expressed in bulk (Fig. 2a). The logOR

of the single cell analysis was also significantly correlated with the logFC of the bulk analysis (ρ = 0.39, P

= 9.70 × $10^{-79}$, Fig. 2b). Similarly, in a second dataset[15], 65.5% of the DDG-only genes were differentially

expressed in bulk samples from the frontal cortex, temporal cortex and hippocampal formation

(Supplementary Fig 3). The high correlation between the logOR and the logFC of a bulk dataset, despite

being from different brain region, and that the majority of DDG-only were still detected in bulk, further

confirms that DDA can be used to detect differentially abundant genes.

To test the binarization scheme, we performed a DDA on the AD dataset for binary profiles generated

with different thresholds for binarization (thresholds ranging from one to ten counts). Naturally, for

every increase in the threshold, the number of genes with zero measurements across all cells increased,

resulting in a decreasing number of tested and significant genes (Supplementary Fig 4a, Supplementary

Fig 4b). With higher thresholds, we found a decrease in correlation of the logORs from DDA with the

logFC from DEA (Supplementary Fig 4c). These results show that the default binarization scheme where

dropouts remain zero and every non-zero value is assigned a one, is indeed appropriate.

Finally, a runtime benchmark comparing DDA with all DE methods available in Seurat revealed that DDA

is among the most time efficient methods for detecting differentially abundant genes (Supplementary

Fig 5).

Altogether, our results show that dropout patterns across cell populations represent biological variation

and can be used as measure of relative abundance of transcripts. Across 16 datasets and a variety of

contrasting cell populations (disease vs healthy, cell-types, and cancer status), DDA detected biologically

relevant genes that were missed by DEA. While the performance of DDA and DEA on real data is largely

comparable, with a known ground truth, DDA performed better than DEA on simulated data.

Additionally, DDA benefits reproducibility and is more robust than DEA, since the only pre-processing

step required for DDA is the binarization of counts. In contrast, DEA requires normalization and

transformation of counts, where an analyst can choose from an excess of equally valid methods[16].

Performing DDA on datasets generated using the Smart-seq protocol should be approached with more

caution: although the agreement of detected genes between DDA and DEA was high, we observed the

lowest correlation between the logOR and logFC for these datasets.

DDA is a normalization-free, time efficient and accurate alternative to DEA for which we see three

potential use cases. First, DDA could be performed in isolation as a fast and accurate alternative to DEA.

Besides logistic regression, alternative tests such as the Fisher's exact test or the chi-squared test could

also be explored. However, logistic regression is more versatile as it allows to adjust for covariates.

Second, DDA could be performed in addition to DEA to identify more genes. Finally, DDA could be used

to validate pre-processing, normalization and DEA as a big discrepancy between the DDGs and DEGs

could indicate an aberration in the DEA results.

**Methods**

**Single cell RNA datasets**

In total, 16 scRNAseq dataset (14 human and 2 mouse) were used to investigate the utility and biological

relevance of binarized expression profiles of genes (Supplementary Table 1). All datasets had pre-

annotated cell types and conditions. From the corresponding references, un-normalized count matrices

were acquired, and only annotated cells were kept for further analysis. For each dataset, we extracted

the annotated cell-type, patient ID, and to which of contrasting cell population the cell belonged from

the included meta data. This was slightly different for the aging mouse atlases[12] and cancer atlas[8]. For

the aging mouse atlases, instead of annotated cell-types we retrieved the tissue names. For the cancer

atlas, the contrasting cell populations were defined by cell-type, so we retrieved the tissue and the

cancer-type for each cell. Each dataset was separately pre-processed. For the differential dropout

analysis (DDA), the count matrices were transformed to a binary representation, where dropouts remain

zero and every non-zero value was assigned a one. For the differential expression analysis (DEA), each

count matrix was log-normalized using Seurat 3.2.2[6], such that: $y_{ij} = \log\left(\frac{x_{ij}}{\sum_j x_{ij}} \times 10^4\right)$, where $x_{ij}$ and

$y_{ij}$ are the raw and normalized values for every gene $i$ in every cell $j$, respectively. This normalizes the

feature expression measurements for each cell by the total expression, multiplies this by a scale factor

(10,000 by default), and log-transforms the result. The cancer atlas was already normalized, as it was a

merger of multiple datasets.

**Statistical analysis**

Association p-values were corrected for multiple tests with the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure and

significance was assumed at an adjusted P-value of $P_{FDR} \leq 0.05$. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient

and the associated p-values were calculated using the `cor.test` function in R v4.0.2.

**Differential expression analysis**

DEA was performed using the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test using the FindMarkers function in Seurat 3.2.2[6].

Note that the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test from Seurat takes into account zero measurements, and handles

them as ties between contrasting cell populations. Genes coding for ribosomal proteins were excluded

and we only tested genes that were expressed in at least 10% of the cells in either of the respective

groups of interest. This is the default option in the FindMarkers function and speeds up testing by

ignoring infrequently expressed genes. Genes coding for ribosomal proteins were excluded.  Association

p-values were corrected for multiple tests.

**Differential dropout analysis**

149    DDA was performed using logistic regression with the `glm()` function in R v4.0.2. All genes that were

150    tested with DEA were also tested with DDA. The resulting association p-values were corrected for

151    multiple tests.

**DDA – DEA comparison**

For the comparison between DDA and DEA, we investigated agreement and disagreement between

detected genes and the linear association between the logOR and logFC. Agreement was calculated by

the Jaccard index, i.e. number of genes that both tests commonly detected, divided by the total number

of genes that were detected. Agreement was calculated on the combination of all datasets and for each

individual dataset. The disagreement was investigated by means of inspecting characteristics of DDGs-

only and DEGs-only. DDGs-only were defined as genes that were detected ($P_{FDR} \leq 0.05$) by DDA and were

not detected ($P_{FDR} > 0.05$) by DEA. Conversely, DEGs-only were defined as genes that were detected ($P_{FDR}$

$\leq 0.05$) by DEA and were not detected ($P_{FDR} > 0.05$) by DDA. The Spearman's rank correlation coefficients

between the logOR and logFC were calculated with the estimates of all tested genes of the respective

datasets. The scale differences for every dataset, between logOR and logFC, were calculated with a

linear model on the estimates of all tested genes of the respective datasets, using the `lm` function in R

v4.0.2. The logOR was specified as outcome variable and the logFC as predictor variable. The resulting

slopes were interpreted as scale differences between the logOR and logFC

**Simulation**

Data was simulated with muscat 1.2.1[9]. The provided dataset[10] was used as reference. 100 simulated

datasets were generated with varying sample sizes (500 cells, 1,000 cells, 1,500 cells and 2,000 cells), 25

simulations per sample size. For each simulation 1,000 genes were generated of which 25% were

differently expressed between two groups of equal size. For both tests we calculated the True Positive

Rate (TPR), False Positive Rate (FPR), Positive Predictive Value (PVV) and accuracy (F1-score) per

simulation.

**Running times**

The runtime benchmark was performed with simulated data from muscat[9]. Runtimes of DDA and all DE

methods (wilcox, bimod, roc, t, negbinom, poisson, LR, MAST and DESeq2) included in Seurat were

measured based on 500 genes and 1,000 cells up to 10,000 cells with increments of 1,000. Runtime was

measured with the `system.time` function in R.

**Validation with existing bulk RNA-seq data**

The AD bulk RNA-seq datasets were acquired from Gemma[17]. The first dataset from Friedman, et al[14]

consisted of 33 controls (CT) and 84 samples from individuals diagnosed with Alzheimer's Disease (AD)

collected from the fusiform gyrus. This dataset was reprocessed by Gemma and no batch effects were

present. For the differential expression analysis in bulk we used the Wilcoxon Rank Sum test from limma

v3.44.3[18]. In total, 2,228 genes were tested for differential expression, as these genes were also included

in the scRNAseq AD dataset[13] analysis. The second dataset from Hokama, et al[15] consisted of 47 controls

and 32 AD samples. The samples originated from the frontal cortex ($N_{CT}$ = 18, $N_{AD}$ = 15), temporal cortex

($N_{CT}$ = 19, $N_{AD}$ = 10) and hippocampal formation ($N_{CT}$ = 10, $N_{AD}$ = 7). The data was reprocessed and batch

corrected by Gemma. For the differential expression analysis no distinction was made between brain

regions. In total, 2,001 genes were tested for differential expression. All resulting association p-values

were corrected for multiple tests. For validation, the significant DDGs and DEGs from the scRNAseq AD

dataset analyses were compared with the significantly differentially expressed genes from the bulk

analyses. Venn diagrams were plotted with ggVennDiagram v0.3[19]. Correlations were calculated

between the logOR and logFC of the single-cell analysis with the bulk logFC.

**Availability of data and materials**

The datasets used and prepared for this study can be downloaded from Zenodo

(http://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.4487320). The results are also made available in an interactive shiny

dashboard: http://insyprojects.ewi.tudelft.nl:5000/DifferentialDropoutAnalysis/. The scripts, functions

and source data for the figures are available at the Github repository:

https://github.com/gbouland/differential-dropout-analysis, including two vignettes describing a DDA

starting from a Seurat object and a raw count matrix. DDA is also implemented in an R-package and is

available at: https://github.com/gbouland/DDA.

**Acknowledgements**

This research was supported by an NWO Gravitation project: BRAINSCAPES: A Roadmap from

Neurogenetics to Neurobiology (NWO: 024.004.012)

**Author contributions**

GAB, AM, and MJTR conceived the study and designed the experiments. GAB performed all experiments

and drafted the manuscript. GAB, AM, and MJTR reviewed and approved the manuscript.

**Competing interests**

The authors declare no competing interests.

**References**

1.    Choi, K., Chen, Y., Skelly, D. A. & Churchill, G. A. Bayesian model selection reveals biological

origins of zero inflation in single-cell transcriptomics. *Genome Biol.* **21**, 183 (2020).

2.    Svensson, V. Droplet scRNA-seq is not zero-inflated. *Nature Biotechnology* vol. 38 147–150

(2020).

3.    Andrews, T. S., Hemberg, M. & Birol, I. M3Drop: Dropout-based feature selection for scRNASeq.

*Bioinformatics* **35**, 2865–2867 (2019).

4.    Li, R. & Quon, G. ScBFA: Modeling detection patterns to mitigate technical noise in large-scale

single-cell genomics data. *Genome Biol.* **20**, 193 (2019).

5.    Qiu, P. Embracing the dropouts in single-cell RNA-seq analysis. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 1–9 (2020).

6.    Stuart, T. *et al.* Comprehensive Integration of Single-Cell Data. *Cell* **177**, 1888-1902.e21 (2019).

7.    Soneson, C. & Robinson, M. D. Bias, robustness and scalability in single-cell differential

expression analysis. *Nat. Methods* **15**, 255–261 (2018).

8.    Nieto, P. *et al.* A Single-Cell Tumor Immune Atlas for Precision Oncology. *bioRxiv*

2020.10.26.354829 (2020) doi:10.1101/2020.10.26.354829.

9.     Crowell, H. L. *et al.* muscat detects subpopulation-specific state transitions from multi-sample

225            multi-condition single-cell transcriptomics data. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 1–12 (2020).

226     10.     Kang, H. M. *et al.* Multiplexed droplet single-cell RNA-sequencing using natural genetic variation.

227            *Nat. Biotechnol.* **36**, 89–94 (2018).

228     11.     Agarwal, D. *et al.* A single-cell atlas of the human substantia nigra reveals cell-specific pathways

229            associated with neurological disorders. *Nat. Commun.* **11**, 1–11 (2020).

230     12.     Almanzar, N. *et al.* A single-cell transcriptomic atlas characterizes ageing tissues in the mouse.

231            *Nature* **583**, 590–595 (2020).

232     13.     Grubman, A. *et al.* A single-cell atlas of entorhinal cortex from individuals with Alzheimer's

233            disease reveals cell-type-specific gene expression regulation. *Nat. Neurosci.* **22**, 2087–2097

234            (2019).

235     14.     Friedman, B. A. *et al.* Diverse Brain Myeloid Expression Profiles Reveal Distinct Microglial

236            Activation States and Aspects of Alzheimer's Disease Not Evident in Mouse Models. *Cell Rep.* **22**,

237            832–847 (2018).

238     15.     Hokama, M. *et al.* Altered expression of diabetes-related genes in Alzheimer's disease brains: The

239            Hisayama study. *Cereb. Cortex* **24**, 2476–2488 (2014).

240     16.     Lytal, N., Ran, D. & An, L. Normalization Methods on Single-Cell RNA-seq Data: An Empirical

241            Survey. *Front. Genet.* **11**, 41 (2020).

242     17.     Zoubarev, A. *et al.* Gemma: a resource for the reuse, sharing and meta-analysis of expression

243            profiling data. *Bioinformatics* **28**, 2272–2273 (2012).

18.     Ritchie, M. E. *et al.* limma powers differential expression analyses for RNA-sequencing and

microarray studies. *Nucleic Acids Res.* **43**, (2015).

19.    Gao, C.-H. ggVennDiagram: A 'ggplot2' Implement of Venn Diagram. (2019).

*Figure 1 **a**,* Heatmap of the dataset characteristics, general overview of the results of both DDA and DEA

per dataset, and a comparison of the results. The rows represent the datasets, the first column shows

the cell populations that were used as contrast for testing. **b,** Plot of the logOR and logFC of the Cancer

Atlas (2) dataset. The x-axis represent the logFCs of each tested gene, and the y-axis represent the

logORs for the same genes. The blue lines shows the linear association between the logFC and logOR.

The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ($\rho$) is also shown in the plot. **c** Barplots of the F-score of DDA

based on simulated data. Numbers above barplots shows the number of cells that were generated for

the repsective simulations simulation. Height of bar is defined the median value from 25 simulations,

error bars are defined by the first and thrid quartile.  **d** Two density plots of *MTUS2* from cortex neuron

dataset. The top plot shows the density of *MTUS2* in inhibitory neurons and the bottom plot shows the

density of  *MTUS2* in excitatory neurons. **e** Two density plots of *Gnb2I1* from the aging mouse atlas

droplet dataset. The top plot shows the density of *Gnb2I1* in 3-month-old mice and the bottom plot

shows the density of  *Gnb2I1 in* 24-month-old mice. Both **d** and **e** are supported with fraction of zeros

and variance of each cell population.

Figure 2 **a,** Venn diagram of genes detected ($P_{FDR} \leq 0.05$) in a bulk AD dataset (Friedman, et al), in the

single cell AD dataset with DDA (DDGs) and with DEA (DDGs). Each section shows the number and

percentage of genes belonging to that section. **b** Plot of the logFC from the AD bulk dataset (x-axis) and

the logOR from the single cell AD dataset (y-axis). The red line represents the linear association between

the bulk logFC and logOR**.** The Spearman's rank correlation coefficient ($\rho$) and corresponding association

p-value are also shown. Outlier genes (n = 9, **b**) were removed from the plots.