Faster and more accurate assessment of differential transcript expression with Gibbs sampling and edgeR 4.0

Pedro L. Baldoni[1,2], Lizhong Chen[1,2], and Gordon K. Smyth[1,3,*]

[1]Bioinformatics Division, WEHI, Parkville, VIC 3052, Australia
[2]Department of Medical Biology, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC 3010, Australia
[3]School of Mathematics and Statistics, The University of Melbourne, Parkville, VIC 3010, Australia
[*]To whom correspondence should be addressed. Tel: +61 3 9345 2555; Fax: +61 3 9347 0852; Email: smyth@wehi.edu.au

Abstract

Differential transcript expression analysis of RNA-seq data is becoming an increasingly popular tool to assess changes in expression of individual transcripts between biological conditions. Software designed for transcript-level differential expression analyses account for the uncertainty of transcript quantification, the read-to-transcript ambiguity (RTA), in statistical analyses via resampling methods. Bootstrap sampling is a popular resampling method that is implemented in the RNA-seq quantification tools kallisto and Salmon. However, bootstrapping is computationally intensive and provides replicate counts with low resolution when the number of sequence reads originating from a gene is low. For lowly expressed genes, bootstrap sampling results in noisy replicate counts for the associated transcripts, which in turn leads to non reproducible and unrealistically high RTA overdispersion for those transcripts. Gibbs sampling is a more efficient and high resolution algorithm implemented in Salmon. Here we leverage the latest developments of edgeR 4.0 to present an improved differential transcript expression analysis pipeline with Salmon's Gibbs sampling algorithm. The new bias-corrected quasi-likelihood method with adjusted deviances for small counts from edgeR, combined with the efficient Gibbs sampling algorithm from Salmon, provides faster and more accurate DTE analyses of RNA-seq data. Comprehensive simulations and test data show that the presented analysis pipeline is more powerful and efficient than previous differential transcript expression pipelines while providing correct control of the false discovery rate.

Introduction

RNA sequencing (RNA-seq) is a powerful technology used in biomedical research to profile the transcriptome of living organisms [1]. Analysis of RNA-seq data often involves the assessment of differential expression of genomic features between biological conditions of interest, such as treated vs control samples, tumor vs healthy tissues, or genetically modified vs wildtype organisms [2]. Throughout the years, differential expression analysis of RNA-seq data has often been conducted with a gene-centric view [3]. In this context, genomic features are represented by genes, exons, or exon-exon junctions, and analyses are performed to detect gene-level differential expression or differential splicing between conditions [4, 5, 6, 7]. Meanwhile, an alternative approach is to focus directly on transcript isoforms and to evaluate differential expression for each specific isoform (or transcript) [8, 9]. Recently, the development of lightweight quantification tools *kallisto* [10] and *Salmon* [11] has reduced the computational cost of isoform-centric analyses. The new tools, together with reductions in short read sequencing costs, now make it practical to perform differential expression analyses of RNA-seq data at scale at the transcript level.

The *kallisto* and *Salmon* tools assume a fully annotated reference transcriptome to perform pseudo- and quasi-alignment of RNA-seq reads, respectively. Such a process entails creating a reduced representation of the sequencing data by unambiguously assigning sequence reads to equivalence classes (ECs) of transcripts. *Salmon* further accounts for sequencing biases and the distribution of fragment lengths to subdivide ECs into subclasses for improved quantification [12]. Because sequence reads are often compatible with

multiple annotated transcripts, a phenomenon that we call *read-to-transcript ambiguity* (RTA) [13], individual transcript abundances are then estimated probabilistically from EC counts. While *kallisto* and *Salmon* both implement a standard expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm to obtain maximum likelihood estimates for the number of sequence reads deriving from each annotated transcript, *Salmon* further implements a variational Bayes EM (VBEM) as an alternative optimization algorithm. The use of pseudo- or quasi-alignment makes *kallisto* and *Salmon* computationally faster than any splice-aware genome aligner designed for short read sequencing data while providing measurements of the relative expression of individual transcripts directly.

The effect of RTA on transcript quantification precision can be estimated via resampling techniques [13]. One such technique that is implemented in both *kallisto* and *Salmon* is bootstrap sampling. Bootstrap sampling resamples from the RNA-seq sequence reads for each sample, mimicking the effect of technical replicates arising from resequencing, and repeats the transcript quantifications for each resample. More precisely, parametric bootstrapping is performed with a multinomial model for ECs with probabilities computed from observed EC counts, a process that is equivalent to but more efficient than an ordinary bootstrap applied to the original sequence reads. The number of sequence reads deriving from each annotated transcript is estimated from each bootstrap sample with either EM or VBEM algorithms. The number of bootstrap samples to be generated is specified by the user. Quantifying a single RNA-seq library with either *kallisto* and *Salmon* will result in the specified number of bootstrap replicate counts to be output for every annotated transcript.

We showed recently that RTA produces overdispersed transcript counts and that the amount of overdispersion can be estimated with a high degree of accuracy by fitting a quasi-Poisson model to the bootstrap samples for each transcript [13]. We further showed that the RTA overdispersion can be (literally) divided out of the transcript counts, after which the divided counts can be input into standard *edgeR* analysis pipelines that were originally developed for gene-level counts. The approach is implemented in the *catchSalmon* and *catchKallisto* functions of the *edgeR* package. These functions read the kallisto or Salmon output, including bootstrap samples, and estimate the RTA overdispersions. The *edgeR* divided-count analysis approach was shown to outperform previous differential transcript expression (DTE) pipelines in terms of statistical power, false discovery rate (FDR), speed and flexibility [13]. Our study assumed 100 bootstrap resamples per RNA-seq library and was conducted with *edgeR* v3 rather than the new *edgeR* v4 [14].

Despite the success of the *edgeR* divided-count approach, there are some disadvantages to relying on bootstrap samples. The first is that bootstrap resampling adds considerably to computational time and therefore dissipates one of the key advantages of the lightweight alignment tools. Bootstrap sampling is by far the most computationally demanding step in the analysis pipeline, consuming much more time than either the alignment or the statistical analysis.

Another disadvantage of bootstrapping is potential loss of resolution for genes with low coverage or for genes where all the sequence reads are assigned by chance to a single EC. Bootstrapping is, by definition, limited to repetitions of sequence reads that were observed. If all the reads for a particular multi-transcript gene are assigned to a single EC, then the reads will all be assigned to one transcript and this will necessarily be true for all bootstrap samples as well. In this case, RTA overdispersion will be judged to be absent, perhaps unrealistically so. Another scenario occurs when a multi-transcript gene is lowly expressed but the reads are spread over different ECs. In this case, bootstrap sampling may result in highly variable replicate counts for the transcripts of that gene and to poorly estimated RTA overdispersion parameters because of highly granular resampling of the reads.

Salmon implements the uncollapsed Gibbs sampling algorithm from Turro *et al.* [15] as an alternative to bootstrap resampling. Gibbs sampling involves drawing transcript counts from a posterior multinomial model (conditional on estimated transcript abundances) followed by drawing transcript abundances from a posterior gamma model (conditional on estimated transcript counts). Gibbs sampling coupled with VBEM optimization (the default in *Salmon*) employs a Bayesian framework with strong priors. The Bayesian frame-

work gives non-zero probability to unobserved ECs and is able obtain higher resolution resampling counts that are not limited to single EC scenarios or to granular resampling of reads in low count situations. Moreover, Gibbs sampling results in transcript replicate counts directly and does not require model optimization during every iteration, making it much faster than bootstrap sampling.

Another area for possible improvement is the statistical treatment of small counts. Transcript-level analyses tend to generate smaller counts than gene-level analyses because of the larger number of transcripts compared to genes. *edgeR* v4 was released recently and features an improved quasi-likelihood treatment of small counts. It implements bias-adjusted deviances that allow unbiased estimation of quasi-dispersions even for genes or transcripts at very low expression levels. *edgeR* v4 moreover allows much faster analysis of large datasets because of the possibility of bypassing the estimation of transcript-wise negative binomial dispersions in favour of greater reliance on quasi-likelihood dispersions [14].

The purpose of the current article is three-fold. First, we compare bootstrap with Gibbs sampling for evaluating DTE. We find that Gibbs sampling not only decreases computation time but also improves statistical power and increases the number of transcripts than can be retained in the DTE analysis. Second, we replace *edgeR* v3 with *edgeR* v4. Again, we find that *edgeR* v4 not only decreases computational time but also improves statistical power and increases the number of transcripts than can be retained in the analysis. Third, we consider whether the number of technical samples can be reduced without materially affecting the results. We find that only a few hundred technical replicates are required in total, across all samples in the study, dramatically reducing the number of resamples that are recommended per library for large studies. Together, these changes result in significant improvements to an already very competitive DTE pipeline. In particular, all three refinements improve the speed of the pipeline, especially for datasets with a large number of samples.

As in our earlier study, the *edgeR* divided-count strategy is compared with *Swish* and *sleuth*. *Swish* [16] uses Wilcoxon tests over replicate samples that are averaged to assess DTE between two conditions of interest, with independent or paired samples, for single or multi-batch RNA-seq experiments via stratification. *Swish* adjusts transcript replicate counts for sample-specific transcript length and sequencing depth via median-ratio size factors. *sleuth* [17] tests for DTE under a linear measurement error model that decomposes the total variance into a biological variance component and an inferential variance component resulting from RTA that is estimated from transcript replicate counts. *sleuth* normalizes counts using sample-specific median-ratio size factors [18] followed by a started log-transformation to ensure positivity and normality. While both *edgeR* and *Swish* accept as input RNA-seq quantification from both *kallisto* and *Salmon*, with either bootstrap or Gibbs sampling, *sleuth* only accepts RNA-seq quantification output from *kallisto*.

The improved DTE analysis pipeline presented here leverages the highly accurate bias-corrected QL method from *edgeR* 4.0 and the efficient Gibbs sampling algorithm from *Salmon*. The quasi-Poisson model from Baldoni *et al.* [13] is fitted to transcript counts obtained from Gibbs sampling without further modification. Transcript-specific RTA overdispersion parameters are estimated and used to scale counts so that their effective size reflects their true precision. The latest QL pipeline with adjusted deviances for small counts from *edgeR* 4.0 bypasses the estimation of transcript-specific NB-dispersions and DTE can be directly assessed via QL F-tests [14].

The *edgeR* divided-count pipeline is implementing in the *edgeR* package [14] available from Bioconductor [19]. The *edgeR* function *catchSalmon* imports transcript counts and associated Gibbs resamples from *Salmon* to estimate the transcript-specific RTA overdispersions. Downstream DTE analyses can then be conducted on scaled transcript counts using the bias-corrected QL pipeline with adjusted deviances with the function *glmQLFit* as for gene-level analyses [14]. DTE analysis with Gibbs sampling is shown to be more powerful and faster than using bootstrap sampling while correctly controlling the false discovery rate using simulations designed with the Bioconductor package *Rsubread* [20]. The improvements of the presented DTE pipeline are further demonstrated on a case study of short read RNA-seq data from human lung adenocarcinoma cell lines.

Materials and methods

Simulated datasets

Simulation of RNA-seq sequence reads.
We generated RNA-seq experiments with the simulation framework from Baldoni *et al.* [13]. Briefly, libraries with 100bp paired-end sequence reads were simulated in FASTQ file format with the Bioconductor package *Rsubread* from a set of 41,372 protein-coding and lncRNA expressed reference transcripts of the mouse Gencode transcriptome annotation M27 (NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus series GSE60450). RNA-seq experiments from two groups were simulated in scenarios with either three, five, or ten biological replicate samples per group. Experiments were simulated with alternating library sizes of 25 Mi. or 100 Mi. paired-end reads over samples. For each scenario, 20 simulated experiments were generated. A random subset of 3,000 transcripts had their baseline relative expression adjusted with a two-fold-change to establish differential expression between groups with up- and down-regulated transcripts. For every scenario, simulations without any real differential expression between groups (null simulations) were also generated to assess methods' type I error rate control.

Quantification of RNA-seq experiments.
Simulated RNA-seq experiments were quantified with *Salmon* and *kallisto* with 100 bootstrap resamples per library. Experiments were re-quantified with *Salmon* and Gibbs sampling to generate 100 Gibbs resamples per library. Other options in *Salmon* and *kallisto* were left as default. Simulated RNA-seq reads were quantified with *Salmon* and *kallisto* with index generated from the complete mouse Gencode transcriptome annotation M27. For *Salmon*, we used a decoy-aware mapping-based indexed transcriptome generated from the mouse mm39 reference genome with k-mers of length 31. The R package *wasabi* (https://github.com/COMBINE-lab/wasabi) was used to convert *Salmon*'s output to *abundance.h5* files for DTE analyses in *sleuth*. Transcript quantification was performed in an Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6342 (2.80GHz) processor with 10 threads used concurrently.

Assessment of differential transcript expression.
We assessed the performance of *edgeR* with count scaling and other popular methods with respect to power to detect DTE, false discovery rate (FDR) control, type I error rate control, and computational speed. Two versions of *edgeR* with scaled counts were evaluated, herein denoted as *edgeR*-v3 and *edgeR*-v4. For *edgeR*-v3, we used the previous QL pipeline with the weighted likelihood empirical Bayes method implemented in *estimateDisp* to obtain posterior NB-dispersion estimates [13]. For *edgeR*-v4, we used the latest QL pipeline with common NB-dispersion estimated using the top 5% of most highly expressed genes and QL-dispersions estimated with adjusted deviances for small counts [14]. Other methods benchmarked in our study were *sleuth* with likelihood ratio test (*sleuth-LRT*), *sleuth* with Wald test (*sleuth-Wald*), and *Swish* (implemented in the Bioconductor package *fishpond*). Analyses were performed with transcript resamples generated with either bootstrap or Gibbs sampling method. For *edgeR*, low-expression transcripts were filtered by *filterByExpr*, library sizes were normalized by *normLibSizes*, and differential expression was assessed by QL F-tests with default options. For *sleuth* and *Swish*, default filtering and pipeline options implemented in their respective packages were used throughout our simulations. In all analyses, transcripts were considered to be differentially expressed (DE) under an FDR control of 0.05.

Human lung adenocarcinoma cell lines

Illumina short-read paired-end RNA-seq libraries were obtained from NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) series GSE172421. Three biological replicate samples were used to examine the transcriptomic profile of human adenocarcinoma cell lines NCI-H1975 and HCC827. RNA-seq samples were quantified in *Salmon* with bootstrap and Gibbs sampling algorithms using 10 threads concurrently. A total of 100 bootstrap and Gibbs resamples were generated for every RNA-seq library. Other options in *Salmon* were left as default. A decoy-aware mapping-based indexed transcriptome generated from the human hg38 reference genome with k-mers of length 31 and the complete human Gencode transcriptome annotation version 33

was used during quantification. The *edgeR* function *catchSalmon* was used to import *Salmon*'s quantification and estimate the RTA overdispersion parameter with either bootstrap or Gibbs sampling. Transcript counts were scaled, non-expressed transcripts were filtered by *filterByExpr*, genes other than protein-coding and lncRNA were removed, and library sizes were normalized by *normLibSizes*. Differential expression was assessed with QL F-tests under both *edgeR*-v3 and *edgeR*-v4 pipelines [13, 14]. Sequence reads from the RNA-seq experiments were aligned to the hg38 reference genome with the Bioconductor package *Rsubread* for assessment of read coverage.

Dividing out the read-to-transcript ambiguity

The concept of count scaling for transcript-level analyses of RNA-seq data was introduced by Baldoni *et al.* [13]. Conditional on the true expression level of transcript t, a quasi-Poisson variance model with an underlying RTA overdispersion parameter σ_t^2 is assumed for replicate counts. We consider the divided counts $z_{ti} = y_{ti}/\sigma_t^2$, in which y_{ti} is the fractional number of sequence reads probabilistically assigned to transcript t in sample i. Under the quasi-Poisson model, we show that count scaling preserves fold-changes and that z_{ti} has the mean-variance relationship of a NB distribution with the same NB-dispersions as the original data, such that

$$E(z_{ti}) = \nu_{ti} = \mu_{ti}/\sigma_t^2, \quad \text{and}$$

$$\text{var}(z_{ti}) = \nu_{ti} + \psi_t \nu_{ti}^2,$$

in which μ_{ti} is the expected number of sequenced reads from transcript t in sample i and ψ_t is the squared biological coefficient of variation (BCV) from transcript t. As a result, standard methods designed for gene-level differential expression analyses with full statistical efficiency can be applied without further modification.

Precise estimates of σ_t^2 can be obtained via resampling techniques, such as bootstrap or Gibbs sampling, as implemented in transcript quantification tools. While bootstrap sampling involves drawing EC counts and optimizing the model likelihood during every iteration, Gibbs sampling simply requires sequential draws from transcript abundances and counts from posterior distributions. Empirical Bayes moderated estimates $\tilde{\sigma}_t^2$ can be obtained from Pearson residual statistic computed using bootstrap or Gibbs resamples [13]. The recommended QL pipeline from *edgeR* is robust to the choice of the resampling algorithm and does not require any further modification. Assuming that estimates $\tilde{\sigma}_t^2$ are proportional to the true underlying RTA overdispersion parameter σ_t^2, the estimated QL-dispersions in the quasi-F tests of *edgeR* will simply scale accordingly to compensate the proportionality factor of either sampling method.

The divided counts $z_{ti} = y_{ti}/\tilde{\sigma}_t^2$ resulting from the count scaling process can be used directly in *edgeR* without the need of rounding. Chen *et al.* [14] introduced the continuous generalization of the NB distribution that is implemented in *edgeR*. Specifically, binomial coefficients of the NB probability mass function have been replaced with gamma functions resulting in a continuous probability density function. The continuous generalization of the NB distribution handles fractional counts while matching exactly the discrete NB distribution when the counts are integers. Hence, special care is taken in *edgeR* to ensure that no loss of information occurs due to rounding, which can be particularly problematic for lowly abundant transcripts.

Bias-corrected quasi-likelihood method

Our recommended analysis pipeline for differential analysis of RNA-seq data at the transcript-level harnesses the latest bias-corrected QL method implemented in *edgeR* 4.0 to provide faster and more accurate DE assessment. A review of the computational and methodological aspects of *edgeR* 4.0 has been presented by Chen *et al.* [14]. For transcripts with very low counts, the chi-square approximation of the NB deviances is not optimal and results in underestimation of the QL-dispersions. The latest version of *edgeR* implements a highly accurate approximation of NB deviances based on scaled chi-squared random variables with fractional degrees of freedom. As a result, the new method provides unbiased estimation of the QL-dispersions and improved statistical power in DTE analyses. The accuracy of the new QL method allows transcript-specific NB-dispersions to be set to a common value (estimated from the top most highly

expressed genes), bypassing the computationally intensive estimation of individual NB-dispersions via *estimateDisp* and improving on computational speed from previous QL pipelines. This new QL pipeline is herein denoted as *edgeR*-v4.

Usage and implementation

The calculation of the empirical Bayes moderated RTA overdispersion statistic $\tilde{\sigma}_t^2$ is implemented in the *edgeR* functions *catchSalmon* and *catchKallisto*. The functions return the matrix of transcript counts together with the associated RTA overdispersions. The function *catchSalmon* accepts transcript replicate counts from either Gibbs or bootstrap sampling algorithms. The latest bias-corrected QL method with adjusted deviances for small counts is available in the *edgeR* function *glmQLFit*. The new QL pipeline only requires a common NB-dispersion to be estimated from the most highly expressed transcripts. Our recommended DTE pipeline is to scale transcript counts using estimated RTA overdispersions from Gibbs sampling, $z_{ti} = y_{ti}/\tilde{\sigma}_t^2$, and to input the scaled counts to the latest QL differential expression pipeline from *edgeR* [14].

Results

Gibbs sampling yields lower and more repeatable RTA overdispersions

edgeR's *catchSalmon* function works automatically with either bootstrap or Gibbs technical samples from *Salmon*. We first explored the differences between the RTA overdispersion estimates obtained with either Gibbs or bootstrap sampling for the lung adenocarcinoma cell line data. We observed that *Salmon* transcript replicate counts were systematically more variable between bootstrap samples than they were between Gibbs samples (Figure 1a). For the 137,788 annotated transcripts with non zero counts across samples, bootstrap-based RTA overdispersion estimates were 43% higher than those obtained with Gibbs sampling, on average. Differences between sampling methods appeared to be high for lowly abundant transcripts and decreased for transcripts that were more highly expressed. For highly expressed transcripts, differences between bootstrap- and Gibbs-based RTA estimates were minimal (Figure 1b). While bootstrap-based RTA overdispersion estimates were 49% higher than Gibbs-based estimates for transcripts with average log2 counts-per-million (CPM) less than or equal to one, we observed only a subtle 3% increase in bootstrap RTA overdispersion estimates for transcripts with average log2 CPM greater than one, on average. As a consequence, for lowly abundant transcripts, bootstrap-based RTA overdispersion estimates were more sensitive to the number of resamples considered than Gibbs-based RTA overdispersion estimates (Figure 1c). These results suggested that Gibbs sampling provided more reproducible RTA overdispersion estimates than bootstrap sampling when the number of reads from a transcript was low. Similar results were observed with bootstrap sampling from *kallisto* (Supplementary Figure S1).

Systematically lower overdispersion estimates from Gibbs vs the bootstrap will not necessarily impact the FDR or statistical power achieved by *edgeR* because *edgeR* will correct any systematic difference according to the biological variability observed between replicates downstream in the DTE analysis. More consistent ranking of transcripts according to their true RTA overdispersions will however be helpful for an *edgeR* analysis. Lower RTA overdispersion estimates will also tend to increase the size of the divided-counts and therefore increase the number of transcripts included in the downstream analysis after filtering.

Gibbs sampling has better resolution than bootstrap sampling

Bootstrap sampling can be problematic in specific scenarios in which Gibbs sampling can provide more precise RTA overdispersion estimates and, consequently, more accurate DTE assessment. The first scenario is when a shared EC is dominated by a single transcript that receives all sequence reads from that EC during probabilistic assignment. Bootstrap sampling will result in no variation over replicate counts for each of the transcripts belonging to the referred EC. This is a typical scenario in which annotated transcripts differ by a single exon and no sequence read is compatible with that particular exon. In the lung adenocarcinoma cell lines data, this phenomenon was observed for transcripts *HABP2-201* and *HABP2-203* of the tumor

suppressor gene *HABP2* [21]. Bootstrap sampling resulted in an estimated RTA overdispersion of 1.00 (no overdispersion) for *HABP2-201* and *HABP2-203*, an unrealistic RTA measurement for the short dominating transcript *HABP2-201* (Figure 2a). Effective counts computed via count scaling under Gibbs sampling were approximately 30% smaller than those computed via bootstrap sampling for transcript *HABP2-201*, which better reflects the precision associated with RTA introduced during transcript quantification.

A second and more common scenario is when a multi-transcript gene is lowly expressed. In this case, bootstrap sampling will result in noisy replicate counts for each of the annotated transcripts of that gene. As a result, bootstrap sampling will fail to accurately reproduce the variability associated with resequencing. This phenomenon leads to an increased RTA overdispersion for lowly expressed transcripts which, in turn, may cause loss of power in statistical analyses. An interesting example was the *BBC3-202* transcript from the pro-apoptotic gene *BBC3* [22]. Transcript *BBC3-202* was found to be DE between NCI-H1975 and HCC827 cell lines under Gibbs sampling but excluded from the analysis upon count scaling with bootstrap sampling (Figure 2b). We observed 1,303 similar cases in the analysis of the lung adenocarcinoma cell lines data (Supplementary Figure S2).

As count scaling reduces the effective number of reads of each transcript to account for the RTA, the higher resolution of Gibbs sampling over bootstrapping often leads to more powerful DTE analyses in *edgeR*. From an inferential perspective, we note that no modelling adjustments in the *edgeR* QL pipeline are necessary to handle differences between bootstrap and Gibbs sampling algorithms. First, the process of count scaling stabilizes the estimation of NB-dispersions under Gibbs sampling just as well as under bootstrap sampling (Supplementary Figure S3). Second, assuming that Gibbs and bootstrap sampling provide RTA overdispersion estimates that are approximately proportional to the true underlying RTA overdispersion of each transcript, the estimated QL-dispersions in the quasi-F tests of *edgeR* will simply scale accordingly to compensate differences of either sampling method. Coupled with *Salmon* transcript quantification with Gibbs sampling, *edgeR* and its newly developed bias-corrected QL method with adjusted deviances for small counts provide powerful DTE detection even for lowly abundant transcripts while still maintaining strict error rate control [14].

Gibbs sampling provides more accurate assessment of differential transcript expression

We used the simulation framework from Baldoni *et al.* [13] to assess differences between bootstrap and Gibbs sampling in regard to DTE assessment. We benchmarked both resampling algorithms with respect to downstream metrics from DTE methods such as power to detect DE transcripts, ability to control the FDR, and type 1 error rate control. Our analyses included *edgeR* with count scaling under both v3 and v4 pipelines as well as other previously benchmarked DTE methods reported in [13]. Figure 3 presents the main results from our simulations with five samples per group.

Gibbs sampling led to uniformly more powerful assessment of DTE in contrast to bootstrap sampling for all benchmarked methods under a nominal 0.05 FDR control (Figure 3a). Largest differences in power were observed for *sleuth-LRT* and *sleuth-Wald*. *edgeR*-v4 with Gibbs sampling was not only the most powerful benchmarked method but also provided the smallest number of false discoveries for any number of top-ranked transcripts (Figure 3b). While all methods decreased their number of false discoveries with Gibbs sampling, *Swish* ranked as the method with the highest number of false discoveries overall. Yet, we note that all methods successfully controlled the FDR under the nominal level in scenarios with five or ten samples per group. In null simulations, we observed that all methods properly controlled the type I error rate with the proportion of false positive calls over all transcripts being below or near the nominal level (Figure 3c). Comparisons of DTE methods in other scenarios and with bootstrap sampling from *kallisto* were consistent with those from [13] (Supplementary Figures S4–S8). These results highlight the improvement in accuracy provided by *Salmon*'s Gibbs sampling algorithm when assessing DE at the transcript-level. Altogether, *edgeR*-v4 with transcript quantification by *Salmon* via Gibbs sampling ranks as the most accurate pipeline for DTE analyses.

Gibbs sampling provides a faster quantification pipeline for differential transcript expression assessment

We evaluated the computational performance of bootstrap and Gibbs sampling algorithms during transcript quantification with *Salmon* using our simulated RNA-seq experiments. Resampling methods were benchmarked with respect to computing time when running *Salmon* with 10 threads and with the default VBEM algorithm during the offline optimization phase. Our results are summarized in Table 1.

We observed that the total quantification time varied with respect to the library size and the choice of resampling method. With bootstrap sampling, the average total time varied between 11 and 25 minutes for libraries with 25 and 100 million reads pairs, respectively. In contrast, *Salmon* was substantially faster with Gibbs sampling with libraries being quantified in 3 and 9 minutes under equivalent library size configurations, on average. Differences in total quantification time between pipelines were a result of the choice of the sampling method alone for any given library size specification, as both pipelines used VBEM as the main optimization routine before resampling. The time spent by *Salmon* to draw bootstrap resamples represented 84% and 76% of the total quantification time for libraries with 25 and 100 million reads pairs, respectively. Conversely, Gibbs sampling was considerably faster and resulted in a resampling time that represented only 33% of the total quantification time regardless of the library size. For a typical RNA-seq library with 50 million read pairs, the average time for a single bootstrap resample to be drawn was approximately eight times the time for *Salmon* to draw a single resample using the Gibbs sampling algorithm. With bootstrap sampling, *kallisto* was approximately 45% faster than *Salmon*, taking between 5 and 12 minutes to quantify libraries with 25 and 100 million reads pairs, respectively (Supplementary Table S1). Yet, *Salmon* with Gibbs sampling ranks as the fastest quantification method available. For a typical RNA-seq library with 50 million read pairs and 30 resamples, our results suggest an approximate 50% reduction in total time for *Salmon* transcript quantification by using Gibbs sampling instead of bootstrapping.

How many technical samples are required?

Reducing the number of bootstrap or Gibbs resamples during transcript quantification will obviously reduce compute time but may might also adversely affect the statistical performance of downstream DTE methods. Aiming to optimize computing time while maintaining full statistical efficiency, we evaluated the necessary number of resamples for DTE analyses. Specifically, we computed downstream observed power and FDR obtained with different number of Gibbs and bootstrap resamples. Our results using *edgeR*-v4 are presented in Figure 4. Results with *kallisto* with bootstrap sampling were similar to those from *Salmon* (Supplementary Figure S9).

We observed that both Gibbs and bootstrap sampling methods provided correct FDR control in DTE analyses with *edgeR*-v4 via count scaling, regardless of the number of samples per group or the number of resamples considered. Differences between bootstrap and Gibbs sampling in regard to power were largest for experiments with ten samples per group, for which Gibbs sampling led to 1.7% more true discoveries (51 more truly DE transcripts detected), on average.

Additional resamples increased the power to detect DE transcripts in analyses with three samples per group under the Gibbs sampling algorithm. Yet, we note that an increased number of resamples had only a marginal effect on the observed power and FDR of *edgeR*-v4 when detecting DE transcripts. The RTA dispersions are estimated from a quasi-Poisson for which the residual degrees of freedom are equal to $N(B-1)$ where N is the total number of RNA-seq samples in the study and B is the number of technical replicates generated per sample. The residual degrees of freedom determine the precision with which the RTA dispersions are estimated. When $n = 3$, our simulations suggest that $B = 30$ resamples are sufficient to provide maximum power to detect DE transcripts with either resampling method. With 30 resamples, Gibbs sampling led to DTE analyses at least as powerful as bootstrap sampling at a 5% FDR control. There are two groups in the simulations, so the total number of RNA-seq samples is $N = 2n = 6$ and the residual degrees of freedom for estimating the RTA dispersions from $B = 30$ is $6 \times 29 = 174$. With $n = 5$, the simulations suggest that $B = 20$ Gibbs resamples are sufficient to achieve full power, corresponding to

190 degrees of freedom for estimating the RTA dispersions. With $n = 10$, the simulations suggest that $B = 10$ Gibbs resamples are sufficient to achieve full power, corresponding to 180 degrees of freedom for estimating the RTA dispersions.

These simulations suggest that choosing B Gibbs resamples per RNA-seq sample will be sufficient if $N(B-1)$ is at least around 180. Extrapolating from these results suggests that, for a very large study with $N \geq 180$, it may be sufficient to conduct as few as two or three Gibbs samples per RNA-seq sample.

edgeR 4.0 provides faster and more powerful assessment of differential transcript expression

We made use of our simulated experiments to evaluate the performance of the latest *edgeR* v4 QL pipeline in DTE analyses. Results from *edgeR*-v4 were compared with the previous *edgeR*-v3 pipeline, as reported by Baldoni *et al.* [13]. Table 2 presents the results from our benchmarking study for simulated data with unbalanced library sizes.

In contrast to *edgeR*-v3, the more accurate estimation procedure of QL-dispersions from *edgeR*-v4 resulted in faster and uniformly more powerful DTE analyses for any specification of sample size. On average, the new *edgeR* QL pipeline resulted in 60 to 120 more truly DE transcripts detected than its previous version with a near 40% reduction in computing time. In all simulated scenarios, both pipelines correctly controlled the FDR at the nominal level. The faster computing time of *edgeR*-v4 over *edgeR*-v3 was a result of the latest estimation strategy of QL-dispersions from *edgeR*, which allows the estimation of transcript-wise NB-dispersions to be completely bypassed. This has proven to be an effective strategy for the analysis of large datasets [14].

When contrasting results from different sampling methods, Gibbs sampling provided more powerful DTE analyses with *edgeR*-v4 and better control of false discoveries than bootstrap sampling for any number of samples per group. Yet, we note that Gibbs sampling slightly increased the total analysis time of *edgeR* as a result of its higher resolution, especially for lowly expressed transcripts, and the resulting inclusion of additional transcripts in the statistical analyses. Such an increase in analysis time was largely compensated by the improvement in computing time during transcript quantification from Gibbs sampling over bootstrap sampling. Hence, our results highlight the benefits of the lasted v4 pipeline from *edgeR* with *Salmon*'s Gibbs sampling algorithm for faster and more accurate DTE analyses.

Differential transcript expression in human adenocarcinoma cell lines

Using the latest *edgeR*-v4 QL pipeline and *Salmon*'s Gibbs sampling algorithm, we performed a DTE analysis of the Illumina short paired-end read RNA-seq experiment from the human adenocarcinoma cell lines data. The RNA-seq experiment comprises 6 samples of NCI-H1975 and HCC827 cell lines with 3 biological replicate samples per cell line. Libraries were sequenced with an Illumina NextSeq 500 sequencing system, producing 28–134 million 80 bp read-pairs per sample. A previous DTE analysis of this dataset with *edgeR*-v3 and bootstrap sampling reported thousands of DE transcripts, many of which from known cancer-related alternatively spliced genes [13]. Gibbs sampling provides a faster and higher resolution alternative to bootstrapping during transcript quantification, and the v4 QL pipeline employs a bias-corrected QL method for more powerful DTE analyses. Hence, we expected to observe improvements in regard to statistical power and computing time in this analysis of the human adenocarcinoma cell lines data with *edgeR*-v4 and Gibbs sampling. In fact, switching from bootstrap to Gibbs sampling in *Salmon* resulted in a reduction of the quantification time from 22 minutes to 5 minutes per sample, on average. The new bias-corrected QL method with adjusted deviances for small counts resulted in unbiased QL-dispersion estimates even for transcripts with very small counts (Figure 5a).

Our DTE analysis with Gibbs sampling and *edgeR*-v4 via QL F-tests detected 19,919 DE transcripts between NCI-H1975 and HCC827 cell lines (9,579 up-regulated and 10,340 down-regulated transcripts in the HCC827 cell line; Figure 5b). The new analysis presented 1,220 additional DE transcripts than previously

reported and revealed 91 novel isoform-switching genes with up- and down-regulated DE transcripts [13]. The set of novel isoform-switching genes included the proto-oncogene *BRAF* (*BRAF-204*, -0.88 log fold-change, adjusted p-value 1.183×10^{-5}; *BRAF-206*, 1.13 log fold-change, adjusted p-value 1.085×10^{-2}) for which cancer-causing mutations in lung adenocarcinoma have been previously identified [23]. Our analysis with the new v4 pipeline and Gibbs sampling also revealed 49 DE transcripts associated with KEGG cancer and non-small cancer pathways that were not reported under the v3 pipeline with bootstrap sampling. Of particular interest was the detection of DE for the protein-coding transcripts *BCL2-201* (-5.83 log fold-change, adjusted p-value 7.105×10^{-6}) and *BBC3-202* (1.33 log fold-change, adjusted p-value 6.164×10^{-3}; Figure 2b). These results highlight the improvement in statistical power resulting from the latest analysis pipeline with *edgeR*-v4.

The overall agreement of DTE results was high among different pipelines. Yet, we observed a substantial number of DE transcripts that were exclusively detected in analyses using Gibbs sampling (n = 1,273; Figure 5c). This was a result of the high resolution provided by the Gibbs sampling algorithm, especially for lowly abundant transcripts, and the inclusion of such transcripts in statistical analyses. Specifically, a set of 2,355 transcripts were filtered out with *filterByExpr* exclusively in analyses using bootstrap sampling Although transcripts exclusively reported as DE under the Gibbs sampling pipeline were, in general, more lowly expressed (median average log CPM -0.55; Supplementary Figure S10), several of them were associated with cancer and non-small cancer pathways (Figure 5d). This was the case for transcript *BAX-212* from the apoptosis regulator gene *BAX* (1.66 log fold-change, adjusted p-value 8.784×10^{-4}). The improvement in computing time and the increase in power to detect DE transcripts between the human NCI-H1975 and HCC827 cell lines were in line with our previous observations based on our simulation study, which highlight *Salmon* with Gibbs sampling followed by *edgeR*-v4 as the pipeline of choice for transcript-level DE analyses.

Discussion

Here, we present a faster and more accurate pipeline for differential analysis of RNA-seq data at the transcript-level with *edgeR* 4.0 and *Salmon*'s Gibbs sampling algorithm. Our simulation study demonstrates that the latest *edgeR*-v4 implementation provides uniformly more powerful DTE analyses than other methods. The bias-corrected QL method from *edgeR*-v4 allows the estimation of transcript-wise NB-dispersions to be bypassed, making our presented DTE workflow the fastest available. Count scaling can be straightforwardly applied in *edgeR* with estimated Gibbs-based RTA overdispersions to leverage the high computational speed of *Salmon*'s Gibbs sampling algorithm as well as its high resolution for lowly abundant transcripts.

For small-scale RNA-seq experiments, we expect our proposed pipeline to provide end-to-end DTE analyses in no more than half of the total computing time that was previously reported with bootstrap sampling by Baldoni *et al.* [13], with greater reductions for larger datasets. Applications of our recommended pipeline to the human adenocarcinoma cell lines dataset resulted in faster and more powerful analyses with several DE transcripts, including novel transcripts associated to key cancer-related genes that were not previously detected with *Salmon*'s bootstrap sampling.

Our simulation study was based on our previous recommendations for designing RNA-seq experiments for which analyses are intended to be carried out at the transcript-level, which include the generation of paired-end sequence read libraries with at least 50 million read-pairs per sample [13]. As in our previous study [13], simulations were set to emulate designed experiments from model organisms with low level of biological variation such as genetically identical mice or cell lines.

We recommend researchers to perform transcript quantification in *Salmon* with Gibbs resampling. The number of Gibbs resamples per RNA-seq library should be chosen so that the total number of resamples for the whole dataset is at least $180 + N$ where N is the number of RNA-seq samples. Such a choice should

be sufficient for optimal statistical power during DE assessment using *edgeR*-v4. For very large studies with $N \geq 180$, just two or three Gibbs resamples per RNA-seq sample should be sufficient for optimal results, making large-scale analyses very practical.

Code availability

The *catchSalmon* function is available in the *edgeR* Bioconductor package at `https://bioconductor.org/packages/edgeR`. The function imports fractional transcript counts and Gibbs resamples from *Salmon* to estimate the transcript-specific RTA overdispersion resulting from the RNA-seq quantification step. When performing DTE analyses with *edgeR*, users should divide transcript-level RNA-seq counts by the associated RTA overdispersion estimates. The function *glmQLFit* implements the latest bias-corrected QL method with adjusted deviances. Data and code to reproduce the results presented in this article are available at `https://github.com/plbaldoni/GibbsDTE-code`.

The versions of software used in the paper are: *ComplexHeatmap*: 2.18.0 [24], *edgeR*: 4.0.16, *fishpond* (*Swish* method): 2.8.0, *Gviz*: 1.46.1 [25], *R*: 4.3.2, *Rsubread*: 2.16.1, *sleuth*: 0.30.0, *Salmon*: 1.10.2, *wasabi*: 1.0.1.

Data availability

The RNA-seq experiments analyzed here are available from the NCBI Gene Expression Omnibus with the accession numbers GSE60450 and GSE172421.

Supplementary data

Supplementary Data are available in the file supp.pdf.

Acknowledgments

The authors are grateful to Rob Patro for useful discussions.

Funding

This work was supported by the Chan Zuckerberg Initiative (grant 2021-237445), by the Australian National Health and Medical Research Council (Fellowship 1058892 to GS, Investigator Grant 2025645 to GS, IRIISS to WEHI), and by Victorian State Government Operational Infrastructure Support.

Conflict of interest statement

None declared.

Figure 1: Transcript-level RTA overdispersion estimates from *Salmon* for the lung adenocarcinoma cell line data. In panel (a), scatterplot showing Gibbs- and bootstrap-based RTA overdispersion estimates (log2 scale). In panel (b), scatterplot showing RTA overdispersion fold-changes between Gibbs and bootstrap sampling methods (log2 scale, Gibbs as reference) as a function of the average log2 CPM of each transcript. In panel (c), fold-change of RTA overdispersion estimates obtained with increasing number of bootstrap and Gibbs resamples (log2 scale, 100 resamples as reference). Transcripts are split at the average log2 CPM cutoff of one to highlight differences between Gibbs and bootstrap sampling methods for lowly expressed transcripts. In panels (a) and (b), RTA overdispersion estimates were obtained with 100 resamples. In panel (b) and (c), average log2 CPM values were computed from scaled counts obtained with Gibbs RTA overdispersion estimates. The blue line shows lowess trend over data points. All 137,788 expressed transcripts are shown.

Figure 2: Coverage tracks from the human lung adenocarcinoma cell lines data. In panel (a), coverage profile of the cancer gene *HABP2*. In every HCC827 sample, all ambiguous reads are probabilistically assigned to transcript *HABP2-201*, which results in no overdispersion under bootstrap sampling with an estimated RTA overdispersion of 1.00. The estimated RTA overdispersion under Gibbs sampling was 1.42. In panel (b), coverage profile of the pro-apoptotic gene *BBC3*. The lowly abundant transcript *BBC3-202* (average log CPM -0.433) is filtered out upon count scaling with bootstrap sampling but reported as DE with Gibbs sampling (1.35 log fold-change, adjusted p-value 0.006). Coverage profiles are defined as the number of reads overlapping each base, transformed into a count-per-million value based on library size. Coverage tracks include all protein-coding and lncRNA transcripts based on the human Gencode annotation version 33.

Figure 3: Power and error rate control for simulated data with 100bp paired-end reads, unbalanced library sizes, and five samples per group. **(a)** stacked barplots show the number of true (gray) and false (red) positive DE transcripts at nominal 5% FDR for different DTE and sampling methods. Observed FDR is shown as a percentage over each bar. **(b)** number of false discoveries as a function of the number of transcripts chosen for different DTE and sampling methods. **(c)** observed type 1 error rate for the different DTE methods calculated as the proportion of transcripts with unadjusted p-values < 0.05 in null simulations (without differential expression) quantified with Gibbs sampling. Dashed line indicates the expected proportion of p-values < 0.05 under the null hypothesis of no differential expression. Transcript quantification was performed with *Salmon* with 100 bootstrap or Gibbs resamples. Results are averaged over 20 simulations.

Table 1: Total processing time per library with either Salmon bootstrap or Gibbs resampling method. The total processing time is further split into the time spent during quantification, including algorithm initialization and optimization steps, and the time spent to generate the 100 bootstrap or Gibbs resamples. Results are averaged over all paired-end simulated libraries.

Resampling Method	Library Size (million read pairs)	Quantification Time (minutes)		
		Optimization	Resampling	Total
Bootstrap	25	1.79	9.45	11.24
	50	3.22	13.41	16.64
	100	6.09	19.15	25.24
Gibbs	25	1.78	0.91	2.69
	50	3.22	1.62	4.85
	100	6.05	3.01	9.06

Figure 4: Plots showing the observed power versus the observed false discovery rate (FDR) while controlling for different nominal FDR levels. Datasets were generated for two groups with $n = 3$, $n = 5$ or $n = 10$ samples per group. Results are presented for the different number of samples per group and for both Gibbs- and bootstrap-based DTE pipelines with *Salmon* and *edgeR*-v4. Simulated data generated with 100bp paired-end reads and unbalanced library sizes. Results are averaged over 20 simulations.

Table 2: Total analysis time (seconds), observed power, and observed false discovery rate (FDR) from *edgeR*-v3 and *edgeR*-v4 for different sampling methods and different number of samples per group. Nominal FDR of 0.05 in DE analyses. Analyses were performed with *Salmon* and 100 resamples. Results are averaged over 20 simulations.

Samples per Group	Sampling Method	edgeR-v3			edgeR-v4		
		Time	Power	FDR	Time	Power	FDR
Three	Bootstrap	6.79	0.39	0.04	3.54	0.42	0.04
	Gibbs	7.81	0.38	0.03	4.46	0.42	0.04
Five	Bootstrap	9.96	0.71	0.04	5.79	0.73	0.04
	Gibbs	11.38	0.72	0.04	7.21	0.74	0.04
Ten	Bootstrap	17.78	0.91	0.04	10.95	0.92	0.05
	Gibbs	20.60	0.92	0.04	13.61	0.94	0.05

Figure 5: Panels (a)–(d) show the main results from the RNA-seq analysis of the human lung adenocarcinoma cell lines. In (a), QL-dispersion plot showing the quarter-root of the estimated, squeezed, and trended quasi-likelihood dispersions from *edgeR*-v4 against the average log2 counts per million of each transcript. In (b), Venn diagram with DTE results from *edgeR*-v3 and *edgeR*-v4 with bootstrap and Gibbs sampling, respectively. The number of up- and down-regulated DE transcripts in the HCC827 cell line are indicated in red and blue, respectively. In (c), upset plot showing the number of DE transcripts from *edgeR*-v3 and *edgeR*-v4 with either bootstrap or Gibbs sampling. In (d), heatmap of transcripts associated with KEGG cancer and non-small cell lung cancer pathways found to be DE between NCI-H1975 and HCC827 cell line exclusively by the Gibbs DTE pipeline. RNA-seq libraries were quantified with *Salmon* with 100 resamples. Scaled log2 counts per million are displayed as expression levels in panels (c)–(d). Nominal FDR of 0.05 in transcript-level analyses with *edgeR*.

References

[1] Wang,Z., Gerstein,M. and Snyder,M. (2009) RNA-Seq: a revolutionary tool for transcriptomics. *Nature Reviews Genetics*, **10**, 57–63.

[2] Oshlack,A., Robinson,M.D. and Young,M.D. (2010) From RNA-seq reads to differential expression results. *Genome Biol.*, **11**, 220.

[3] Van den Berge,K., Hembach,K.M., Soneson,C., Tiberi,S., Clement,L., Love,M.I., Patro,R. and Robinson,M.D. (2019) RNA sequencing data: hitchhiker's guide to expression analysis. *Annual Review of Biomedical Data Science*, **2**, 139–173.

[4] Robinson,M.D., McCarthy,D.J. and Smyth,G.K. (2010) edgeR: a Bioconductor package for differential expression analysis of digital gene expression data. *Bioinformatics*, **26**, 139–140.

[5] Love,M.I., Huber,W. and Anders,S. (2014) Moderated estimation of fold change and dispersion for RNA-seq data with DESeq2. *Genome Biol.*, **15**, 550.

[6] Law,C.W., Chen,Y., Shi,W. and Smyth,G.K. (2014) Voom: precision weights unlock linear model analysis tools for RNA-seq read counts. *Genome Biology*, **15**, R29.

[7] Anders,S., Reyes,A. and Huber,W. (2012) Detecting differential usage of exons from RNA-seq data. *Genome Research*, **22**, 2008–2017.

[8] Li,B. and Dewey,C.N. (2011) RSEM: accurate transcript quantification from RNA-Seq data with or without a reference genome. *BMC Bioinformatics*, **12**, 323.

[9] Trapnell,C., Hendrickson,D.G., Sauvageau,M., Goff,L., Rinn,J.L. and Pachter,L. (2012) Differential analysis of gene regulation at transcript resolution with RNA-seq. *Nature Biotechnology*, **31**, 46–53.

[10] Bray,N.L., Pimentel,H., Melsted,P. and Pachter,L. (2016) Near-optimal probabilistic RNA-seq quantification. *Nature biotechnology*, **34**, 525.

[11] Patro,R., Duggal,G., Love,M.I., Irizarry,R.A. and Kingsford,C. (2017) Salmon provides fast and bias-aware quantification of transcript expression. *Nature Methods*, **14**, 417.

[12] Zakeri,M., Srivastava,A., Almodaresi,F. and Patro,R. (2017) Improved data-driven likelihood factorizations for transcript abundance estimation. *Bioinformatics*, **33**, i142–i151.

[13] Baldoni,P.L., Chen,Y., Hediyeh-zadeh,S., Liao,Y., Dong,X., Rithie,M.E., Shi,W. and Smyth,G.K. (2024) Dividing out quantification uncertainty allows efficient assessment of differential transcript expression with edgeR. *Nucleic Acids Research*, **52**, e13.

[14] Chen,Y., Chen,L., Lun,A.T.L., Baldoni,P.L. and Smyth,G.K. (2024) edgeR 4.0: powerful differential analysis of sequencing data with expanded functionality and improved support for small counts and larger datasets. *bioRxiv*, p. 2024.01.21.576131.

[15] Turro,E., Su,S.Y., Gonçalves,Â., Coin,L.J., Richardson,S. and Lewin,A. (2011) Haplotype and isoform specific expression estimation using multi-mapping RNA-seq reads. *Genome Biology*, **12**.

[16] Wilcoxon,F. (1945) Individual comparisons by ranking methods. *Biometrics Bulletin*, **1**, 80–83.

[17] Pimentel,H., Bray,N.L., Puente,S., Melsted,P. and Pachter,L. (2017) Differential analysis of RNA-seq incorporating quantification uncertainty. *Nature Methods*, **14**, 687.

[18] Anders,S. and Huber,W. (2010) Differential expression analysis for sequence count data. *Genome Biology*, **11**, R106.

[19] Huber,W., Carey,V.J., Gentleman,R., Anders,S., Carlson,M., Carvalho,B.S., Bravo,H.C., Davis,S., Gatto,L., Girke,T. *et al.* (2015) Orchestrating high-throughput genomic analysis with Bioconductor. *Nature Methods*, **12**, 115–121.

[20] Liao,Y., Smyth,G.K. and Shi,W. (2019) The R package Rsubread is easier, faster, cheaper and better for alignment and quantification of RNA sequencing reads. *Nucleic Acids Research*, **47**, e47.

[21] Gara,S.K., Jia,L., Merino,M.J., Agarwal,S.K., Zhang,L., Cam,M., Patel,D. and Kebebew,E. (2015) Germline HABP2 mutation causing familial nonmedullary thyroid cancer. *New England Journal of Medicine*, **373**, 448–455.

[22] Michalak,E., Jansen,E., Happo,L., Cragg,M., Tai,L., Smyth,G., Strasser,A., Adams,J. and Scott,C. (2009) Puma and to a lesser extent Noxa are suppressors of Myc-induced lymphomagenesis. *Cell Death & Differentiation*, **16**, 684–696.

[23] Cardarella,S., Ogino,A., Nishino,M., Butaney,M., Shen,J., Lydon,C., Yeap,B.Y., Sholl,L.M., Johnson,B.E. and Jänne,P.A. (2013) Clinical, pathologic, and biologic features associated with braf mutations in non–small cell lung cancer. *Clinical Cancer Research*, **19**, 4532–4540.

[24] Gu,Z., Eils,R. and Schlesner,M. (2016) Complex heatmaps reveal patterns and correlations in multidimensional genomic data. *Bioinformatics*, **32**, 2847–2849.

[25] Hahne,F. and Ivanek,R. (2016) Visualizing genomic data using Gviz and Bioconductor. In Mathé,E. and Davis,S. (eds.), *Statistical Genomics: Methods and Protocols*, Humana Press, New York, NY, vol. 1418 of *Methods in Molecular Biology*, pp. 335–351.