# <span id="page-0-1"></span>NBIA: a network-based integrative analysis framework – applied to pathway analysis

# Supplementary Material

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## 1 Methods

#### 1.1 Fisher's method

Fisher's method [\[8\]](#page-15-0) is one of the most widely used methods for combining independent p-values. Considering a set of m independent significance tests, the resulting p-values  $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_m$  are independent and uniformly distributed on the interval [0, 1] under the null hypothesis. Denoting  $X_i = -2 \ln P_i$  ( $i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$ ) as new random variables, the cumulative distribution function of  $X_i$  can be calculated as follows:

$$
F_i(x) = Pr(X_i \le x) = Pr(-2\ln P_i \le x) = Pr(P_i \ge e^{\frac{x}{2}})
$$
  
= 
$$
\int_{e^{-\frac{x}{2}}}^{1} f(p) dp = 1 - e^{-\frac{x}{2}}
$$

The above function is the cumulative distribution function of a chi-squared distribution with two degrees of freedom  $(\chi_2^2)$ . Since the sum of chi-squared random variables is also a chi-squared random variable,  $-2\sum_{i=1}^m \ln(P_i)$ follows a chi-squared distribution with 2m degrees of freedom  $(\chi^2_{2m})$ . In summary, the log product of m independent p-values follows a chi-squared distribution with  $2m$  degrees of freedom:

$$
X = -2\sum_{i=1}^{m} \ln(P_i) \sim \chi_{2m}^2
$$
 (1)

We note that if one of the individual p-values approaches zero, which is often the case for empirical p-values, then the combined p-value approaches zero as well, regardless of other individual p-values. For example, if  $P_1 \rightarrow 0$ , then  $X \to \infty$  and therefore,  $Pr(X) \to 0$  regardless of  $P_2, P_3, \ldots, P_m$ . Therefore, we see that Fisher's method is sensitive to outliers.

#### 1.2 add-CLT

The additive method [\[9,](#page-15-1) [11,](#page-15-2) [7\]](#page-15-3) uses the sum of the p-values as the test statistic, instead of the log product. Let us denote the p-values resulting from the m independent significance tests as  $P_1, P_2, \ldots, P_m$ . These p-values are independent and uniformly distributed between zero and one under the null (i.e. all p-values between zero and one are equally probable when the null hypothesis is true). Denote the sum of these p-values,  $X = \sum_{i=1}^{m} P_i$   $(X \in [0, m])$ , as the new random variable.  $X$  is known to follow the Irwin-Hall distribution  $[9, 11]$  $[9, 11]$  with the following probability density function (pdf):

<span id="page-0-0"></span>
$$
f(x) = \frac{1}{(m-1)!} \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor x \rfloor} (-1)^i {m \choose i} (x-i)^{m-1}
$$
 (2)

Unlike Fisher's method, the additive method is not sensitive to small individual p-values. However, we note that the additive method faces a different practical problem. For large values of  $m$ , Equation [\(2\)](#page-0-0) involves some intensive computation due to a sum of combinatorial and division by a factorial, the result of which can lead to an "arithmetic underflow". Here we describe an enhancement to the additive method that makes it more reliable for larger values of m. First, we change the random variable from the sum of the p-values to the average of the p-values. Second, when  $m$  is large, we replace the additive method with the Central Limit Theorem (CLT). The reason for the modification is that the additive method is accurate for small values of  $m$ , while the Central Limit Theorem is more accurate for

To show the validity of using the Central Limit Theorem for large m, we define a new random variable  $Y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{m} P_i}{m}$  $(Y \in [0,1])$ , which is the average of p-values. Since  $Y = \frac{X}{m}$ , we can derive the probability density function (pdf) of  $Y$  using a linear transformation of  $X$  as follows:

$$
g(y) = \frac{m}{(m-1)!} \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor m \cdot y \rfloor} (-1)^i {m \choose i} (m \cdot y - i)^{m-1}
$$
 (3)

The corresponding cumulative distribution function (cdf) can be calculated as:

$$
G(y) = \frac{1}{m!} \sum_{i=0}^{\lfloor m \cdot y \rfloor} (-1)^i {m \choose i} (m \cdot y - i)^m
$$
 (4)

The variable Y is the mean of m independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) random variables (the p-values from each individual experiment), that follow a uniform distribution with a mean of  $\frac{1}{2}$  and a variance of  $\frac{1}{12}$ . From the Central Limit Theorem [\[12\]](#page-15-4), the average of such m i.i.d. variables follows a normal distribution with mean  $\mu = \frac{1}{2}$ and variance  $\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{12m}$ , i.e.  $Y \sim \mathcal{N}(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{12m})$  for sufficiently large values of m.

#### 1.3 Standardized mean difference

Consider a study composed of two independent groups, and suppose we wish to compare their means for a given gene. Let  $\bar{X}_1$  and  $\bar{X}_2$  represent the sample means for that gene in the two groups,  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  the number of samples in each group, and  $S_{pooled}$  the pooled standard deviation of the two groups. The pooled standard deviation and the standardized mean difference (SMD) can be estimated as:

$$
S_{pooled} = \sqrt{\frac{(n_1 - 1)S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1)S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}}
$$
\n
$$
\tag{5}
$$

$$
d = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_{pooled}}\tag{6}
$$

<span id="page-1-0"></span>The estimation of the standardized mean difference described in Equation  $(6)$  is often called Cohen's  $d[4, 3]$  $d[4, 3]$  $d[4, 3]$ . The variance of Cohen's  $d$  is given as follows:

$$
V_d = \frac{n_1 + n_2}{n_1 n_2} + \frac{d^2}{2(n_1 + n_2)}\tag{7}
$$

In the above equation, the first term reflects uncertainty in the estimate of the mean difference, and the second term reflects uncertainty in the estimate of  $S_{pooled}$ . The standard error of d is the square root of  $V_d$ . We note that Cohen's d, which is based on sample averages, tends to overestimate the population effect size for small samples. Let n be the degrees of freedom used to estimate  $S_{pooled}$ , i.e.  $n = n_1 + n_2 - 2$ . The corrected effect size, or Hedges' g [\[10\]](#page-15-7), can be computed as follows:

$$
J = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{n}{2})}{\sqrt{\frac{n}{2}}\Gamma(\frac{n-1}{2})}
$$
\n(8)

$$
g = J \cdot d \tag{9}
$$

where  $\Gamma$  is the gamma function. In this work, we use Hedge' g as the standardized mean difference (SMD) between disease and control groups for each gene/miRNA.

#### 1.4 False Discovery Rate (FDR)

Throughout the manuscript, we use the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure [\[1\]](#page-15-8) to adjust the p-values for multiple comparisons. This procedure can be executed using the function p.adjust (p, method="fdr") (CRAN stats package) where p is the vector of p-values obtained for all pathways. Notably, this method does not involve permutation or bootstrapping. The p-values are first sorted and ranked. Then, each p-value is multiplied by  $N$  (the number of pathways) and divided by its assigned rank to give the adjusted p-values.

## 2 Results

#### 2.1 Experimental data

We use 182 human signaling pathways extracted as graph objects from KEGG. We use expression data related to Alzheimer's disease (10 datasets), influenza (9 datasets), and acute myeloid leukemia (8 datasets), available at <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/>. The total number of samples is 1,737. Table [S1](#page-2-0) shows the summary information for each dataset, including number of samples, platforms, tissues, etc.

For each dataset, we process the raw data using the *threestep* function from the package affy PLM [\[2\]](#page-15-9). The parameters used for the threestep function are: robust multi-array analysis (RMA) background adjustment, quantile normalization, and median polish summarization. If the raw data are not available, we use the data that are already processed and normalized by the data providers.

For subtyping purpose, we also download RNA-Seq data for AML patients. The processed data are available at the Broad Institute's website <http://gdac.broadinstitute.org/>. The total number of patients for this cohort is 167 and the number of genes is 20,100. We also download the vital status and follow-up information from the same website. The survival information is used to plot the Kaplan-Meier survival curves and to calculate the Cox p-values.

<span id="page-2-0"></span>Table S1: Description of the 27 gene expression datasets used in the experimental studies. All of the datasets are available at <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/>.

	Dataset	Disease	Control	Case	<b>Tissue</b>	Platform
$\mathbf{1}$	<b>GSE1297</b>	Alzheimer's	9	22	Hippocampus	Affymetrix Human U133A
$\overline{2}$	<b>GSE4757</b>	Alzheimer's	10	10	Entorhinal cortex	Affymetrix Human U133+2.0
3	GSE5281	Alzheimer's	74	87	Entorhinal cortex, medial temporal gyrus,	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
					posterior cingulate, superior frontal gyrus,	
					hippocampus, and primary visual cortex	
$\overline{4}$	GSE12685	Alzhiemer's	8	6	Frontal cortex	Affymetrix Human U133A
5	GSE16759	Alzheimer's	$\overline{4}$	$\overline{4}$	Parietal lobe	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
6	GSE18309	Alzheimer's	3	3	Peripheral blood mononuclear cell	Affymetrix Human U133+2.0
7	GSE28146	Alzheimer's	8	22	Hippocampus	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
8	GSE36980	Alzheimer's	47	32	Frontal cortex, temporal cortex,	Affymetrix Human 1.0 ST
					and hippocampus	
9	GSE39420	Alzheimer's	7	14	Brain tissues	Affymetrix Human 1.1 ST
10	GSE48350	Alzheimer's	173	80	Entorhinal cortex, post-central gyrus,	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
					hippocampus, and superior frontal gyrus	
11	GSE42026	Influenza	33	19	Whole blood	Illumina HumanHT-12 3.0
12	GSE40012	Influenza	36	39	Whole blood	Illumina HumanHT-12 3.0
13	GSE29366	Influenza	12	19	Whole blood	Illumina HumanWG-6 3.0
14	GSE17156	Influenza	17	17	Peripheral blood	Affymetrix Human U133A 2.0
15	GSE21802	Influenza	$\overline{4}$	36	Blood	Illumina human-6 2.0
16	GSE27131	<b>Influenza</b>	$\overline{7}$	$\overline{7}$	<b>Blood</b>	Affymetrix Human 1.0
17	GSE71766	Influenza	51	45	Human bronchial epithelial cells	Affymetrix Human U219
18	GSE34205	Influenza	22	28	Peripheral blood mononuclear cells	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
19	GSE82050	Influenza	15	24	<b>Blood</b>	Agilent SurePrint G3 Human 3.0
20	<b>GSE982</b>	AML	6	9	AML cells, monocytes, and neutrophils	Affymetrix Human U133A
21	GSE12662	AML	30	76	CD34+ cells, promyelocytes, neutrophils,	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
					and PR9 cell line	
22	GSE15061	AML	69	202	Bone marrow	Affymetrix Human U133+2.0
23	GSE33223	AML	10	20	Peripheral blood mononuclear cell	Affymetrix Human U133+2.0
24	GSE35010	AML	16	15	Hematopoietic stem cells and	Affymetrix Human 1.0
					granulocytic monocytic progenitors	
25	GSE37307	AML	19	30	CD34+, hematopoietic, and testis cells	Affymetrix Human U133A
26	GSE63270	AML	42	62	Bone marrow	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0
27	GSE68172	AML	5	72	Blood	Affymetrix Human U133+ 2.0

### 2.2 Pathway analysis

Here we use 10 different integrative approaches to identify the impacted pathways of the 27 datasets: the proposed NBIA, 6 GSA-, GSEA-, and IA-related approaches, and 3 MetaPath methods. For implementation of the NBIA, we used functions from the following R packages: BLMA [\[16,](#page-15-10) [15,](#page-15-11) [14\]](#page-15-12), ROntoTools [\[25\]](#page-15-13), limma [\[20\]](#page-15-14), and metafor [\[24\]](#page-15-15). NBIA will be available in the package BLMA's next release.

The top pathways of NBIA are shown in Tables [1, 2,](#page-0-1) and [3](#page-0-1) in the main text while those of the other 9 methods are shown in Tables [S2,](#page-3-0) [S3,](#page-4-0) and [S4](#page-5-0) in this supplemental document.

<span id="page-3-0"></span>Table S2: The 20 top ranked pathways and FDR-corrected p-values obtained by combining Alzheimer's data using 9 different approaches: 3 MetaPath methods and 6 GSA-, GSEA-, and IA-related approaches. The horizontal line shows the 5% cutoff. The pathways Alzheimer's disease, Huntington's disease, and Parkinson's disease are highlighted in green. MetaPath P, Meta-Path G, and MetaPath I fail to identify the target pathway Alzheimer's disease as significant, and rank it at the positions  $74^{th}$ ,  $81^{st}$ , and  $58^{th}$ , respectively. The other six methods, GSA+Fisher, GSA+addCLT, GSEA+Fisher, GSEA+addCLT, IA+Fisher, and IA+addCLT, rank the target pathway at the positions  $32^{nd}$ ,  $10^{th}$ ,  $27^{th}$ ,  $13^{nd}$ ,  $55^{th}$ , and  $96^{th}$ , respectively.

MetaPath_P			MetaPath_G		MetaPath_I	
	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr
	Circadian rhythm	0.2290	Type II diabetes mellitus	0.1510	Long-term depression	0.2992
$\overline{2}$	Long-term depression	0.2537	Renin-angiotensin system	0.3365	Type II diabetes mellitus	0.3020
3	Renal cell carcinoma	0.2589	Circadian rhythm	0.4123	Circadian rhythm	0.3210
$\overline{4}$	Allograft rejection	0.2658	Thyroid cancer	0.4975	Dorso-ventral axis formation	0.3405
5	VEGF signaling pathway	0.2758	Acute myeloid leukemia	0.5068	Allograft rejection	0.3480
6	Gap junction	0.2777	Parkinson's disease	0.7621	Renal cell carcinoma	0.3751
$\overline{7}$	African trypanosomiasis	0.3056	Amoebiasis	0.7627	Acute myeloid leukemia	0.3758
8	Shigellosis	0.3222	RNA transport	0.7639	Gap junction	0.3819
9	NF-kappa B signaling pathway	0.3308	Natural killer cell mediated cyto- toxicity	0.7645	VEGF signaling pathway	0.3884
10	Dorso-ventral axis formation	0.3460	Small cell lung cancer	0.7660	African trypanosomiasis	0.4143
11	Type II diabetes mellitus	0.4171	Rheumatoid arthritis	0.7663	Thyroid cancer	0.4287
	12 Endocrine other and factor- regulated calcium reabsorption	0.4350	Aldosterone synthesis and secretion	0.7680	Endocrine and other factor- regulated calcium reabsorption	0.4295
	13 Long-term potentiation	0.4376	Proteoglycans in cancer	0.7680	Renin-angiotensin system	0.4413
	14 Epithelial cell signaling in Heli- cobacter pylori infection	0.5466	Basal cell carcinoma	0.7681	NF-kappa B signaling pathway	0.4641
15	Glutamatergic synapse	0.5494	p53 signaling pathway	0.7682	Shigellosis	0.4692
16	Glioma	0.5576	Vibrio cholerae infection	0.7713	Bladder cancer	0.5827
	Glucagon signaling pathway	0.5612	AGE-RAGE signaling pathway in diabetic complications	0.7718	Long-term potentiation	0.5969
18	Acute myeloid leukemia	0.5643	mTOR signaling pathway	0.7741	mTOR signaling pathway	0.6023
19	Antigen processing and presenta- tion	0.5660	Cholinergic synapse	0.7742	Graft-versus-host disease	0.6234
	20 Inflammatory mediator regulation of TRP channels	0.5782	Complement and coagulation cas- cades	0.7743	Epithelial cell signaling in Heli- cobacter pylori infection	0.7282





<span id="page-4-0"></span>Table S3: The 20 top ranked pathways and FDR-corrected p-values obtained by combining influenza data using 9 different approaches: 3 MetaPath methods and 6 GSA-, GSEA-, and IA-related approaches. The horizontal line shows the 5% cutoff. The target pathway *Influenza A* is highlighted in green. GSA+Fisher, GSEA+addCLT, IA+Fisher, and IA+addCLT identify the target pathway as significant and rank it at the positions  $13^{th}$ ,  $37^{rd}$ ,  $1^{st}$ , and  $2^{nd}$ , respectively.

MetaPath_P			$MetaPath_G$		MetaPath_I	
	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr
	Pancreatic cancer	0.0465	Intestinal immune network for IgA production	0.0360	Pancreatic cancer	0.0540
$\mathbf{2}^-$	Staphylococcus aureus infection	0.0603	mTOR signaling pathway	0.0570	Intestinal immune network for IgA production	0.0635
3	Intestinal immune network for IgA production	0.0760	Asthma	0.0630	Staphylococcus aureus infection	0.0636
$\overline{4}$	Vibrio cholerae infection	0.0762	Staphylococcus aureus infection	0.2028	mTOR signaling pathway	0.0772
5	T cell receptor signaling pathway	0.0815	Allograft rejection	0.2306	T cell receptor signaling pathway	0.0968
6	Peroxisome	0.0906	Leishmaniasis	0.2468	Vibrio cholerae infection	0.1026
	Progesterone-mediated oocyte mat- uration	0.1098	RNA transport	0.2750	Asthma	0.1120
8	NF-kappa B signaling pathway	0.1111	Antigen processing and presenta- tion	0.2856	Peroxisome	0.1161
9	Epstein-Barr virus infection	0.1386	mRNA surveillance pathway	0.4016	NF-kappa B signaling pathway	0.1574
	10 Epithelial cell signaling in Heli- cobacter pylori infection	0.1431	Type I diabetes mellitus	0.4361	Progesterone-mediated oocyte mat- uration	0.1599
11	Acute myeloid leukemia	0.1444	Graft-versus-host disease	0.5185	Leishmaniasis	0.1670
12	Renal cell carcinoma	0.1469	Rheumatoid arthritis	0.5318	Allograft rejection	0.1792
13	Malaria	0.1603	Choline metabolism in cancer	0.5979	Acute myeloid leukemia	0.1827
	14 Chronic myeloid leukemia	0.1696	Autoimmune thyroid disease	0.6075	Epithelial cell signaling in Heli- cobacter pylori infection	0.1866
15	Type I diabetes mellitus	0.1769	Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)	0.6255	Epstein-Barr virus infection	0.1899
16	Bladder cancer	0.1999	Systemic lupus erythematosus	0.6425	Renal cell carcinoma	0.1967
17	Inflammatory bowel disease (IBD)	0.2056	Legionellosis	0.6595	Malaria	0.2111
18	Allograft rejection	0.2070	NOD-like receptor signaling path- way	0.6716	RNA transport	0.2164
19	Bacterial invasion of epithelial cells	0.2433	Malaria	0.6820	Chronic myeloid leukemia	0.2168
	20 Platelet activation	0.2476	Bladder cancer	0.8927	Antigen processing and presenta- tion	0.2193





<span id="page-5-0"></span>Table S4: The 20 top ranked pathways and FDR-corrected p-values obtained by combining AML data using 9 different approaches: 3 MetaPath methods and 6 GSA-, GSEA-, and IA-related approaches. The horizontal line shows the 5% cutoff. The target pathway Acute myeloid leukemia is highlighted in green. Among the 9 methods, only IA+Fisher and IA+addCLT identify the target pathway as significant and rank it at the same position  $25^{th}$ .

MetaPath_P			MetaPath_G	MetaPath_I		
	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr
	Neuroactive ligand-receptor inter- action	0.9960	Huntington's disease	0.9678	Neuroactive ligand-receptor inter- action	1.0000
$\overline{2}$	Ribosome biogenesis in eukaryotes	1.0000	AMPK signaling pathway	0.9782	Ribosome biogenesis in eukaryotes	1.0000
3	RNA transport	1.0000	TNF signaling pathway	0.9854	RNA transport	1.0000
$\overline{4}$	mRNA surveillance pathway	1.0000	Non-alcoholic fatty liver disease (NAFLD)	0.9964	mRNA surveillance pathway	1.0000
5	RNA degradation	1.0000	Prion diseases	0.9978	RNA degradation	1.0000
6	PPAR signaling pathway	1.0000	Ribosome biogenesis in eukaryotes	1.0000	PPAR signaling pathway	1.0000
	Fanconi anemia pathway	1.0000	RNA transport	1.0000	Fanconi anemia pathway	1.0000
8	MAPK signaling pathway	1.0000	mRNA surveillance pathway	1.0000	MAPK signaling pathway	1.0000
9	ErbB signaling pathway	1.0000	RNA degradation	1.0000	ErbB signaling pathway	1.0000
10	Ras signaling pathway	1.0000	PPAR signaling pathway	1.0000	Ras signaling pathway	1.0000
	Rap1 signaling pathway	1.0000	Fanconi anemia pathway	1.0000	Rap1 signaling pathway	1.0000
12	Calcium signaling pathway	1.0000	MAPK signaling pathway	1.0000	Calcium signaling pathway	1.0000
13	$cGMP-PKG$ signaling pathway	1.0000	ErbB signaling pathway	1.0000	cGMP-PKG signaling pathway	1.0000
14	cAMP signaling pathway	1.0000	Ras signaling pathway	1.0000	cAMP signaling pathway	1.0000
15	Cytokine-cytokine receptor interac- tion	1.0000	Rap1 signaling pathway	1.0000	Cytokine-cytokine receptor interac- tion	1.0000
16	Chemokine signaling pathway	1.0000	Calcium signaling pathway	1.0000	Chemokine signaling pathway	1.0000
17	NF-kappa B signaling pathway	1.0000	cGMP-PKG signaling pathway	1.0000	NF-kappa B signaling pathway	1.0000
18	HIF-1 signaling pathway	1.0000	cAMP signaling pathway	1.0000	HIF-1 signaling pathway	1.0000
19	FoxO signaling pathway	1.0000	Cytokine-cytokine receptor interac- tion	1.0000	FoxO signaling pathway	1.0000
20	Sphingolipid signaling pathway	1.0000	Chemokine signaling pathway	1.0000	Sphingolipid signaling pathway	1.0000





### 2.3 Subtyping AML data

Using the pathway signatures of the meta-analysis methods, we perform subtyping on 167 AML samples downloaded from the Broad Institute's website [http://gdac.broadinstitute.org/]( http://gdac.broadinstitute.org/). The four methods, MetaPath I, MetaPath G, MetaPath P and GSA+addCLT, yield no significant pathway and thus have no pathway signature. We use the pathway signatures of the remaining six methods to subtype AML patients. We also subtype the AML patients using all genes. The Cox p-values obtained for each analysis are shown in Table [4](#page-0-1) in the main text. The Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of the discovered subtypes for all genes and NBIA is shown in Figure [3](#page-0-1) in the main text. The Kaplan-Meier survival analysis for the remaining methods is shown in Figure [S1.](#page-7-0)

The heatmaps in Figure [S2](#page-8-0) visualize different subtypes of AML patients derived from either on all genes and NBIA signature. The left panels in Figure [S2](#page-8-0) show the the heatmaps of subtypes discovered using all genes while the right panels show those using NBIA signature. In these panels, the columns represent the patients and different colors on the top stripe shows different subtypes. To provide the genes that are most meaningful in defining the subtypes, we also performed an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and selected genes that are most significant. The rows in each panel shows the 30 top genes with the most significant p-values.



<span id="page-7-0"></span>Figure S1: Kaplan-Meier survival analysis of AML subtypes discovered by consensus clustering (A panels), hierarchical clustering (B panels), local shrinkage (C panels), and cluster ensemble (D panels). From top to bottom are the results using the pathway signatures obtained from IA+addCLT, IA+Fisher, GSEA+addCLT, GSEA+Fisher, and GSA+Fisher. In each panel, each colored curve shows the survival probability of each discovered subtype.







<span id="page-8-0"></span>Figure S2: Heatmaps of the subtypes discovered by consensus clustering (CC), hierarchical clustering (HC), local shrinkage, and clustering ensemble. The left panels show the heatmaps of subtypes discovered using genome-wide expression (all genes) while the right panels shows those discovered by using NBIA signature. In each panel, columns represent AML samples while rows represent top 30 genes with the most significant p-values (using ANOVA).

### 3 Discussions and simulation studies

### 3.1 On the impact of using both p-addCLT and p-effect size

The intuition of using both p-addCLT and p-effect-size is to combine the two types of p-values in order to reduce potential false positives. We want to make sure that the identified differentially expressed genes are not only significant from the classical hypothesis testing perspective, but also have estimated effect sizes (expression change) that are outside the range of standard errors. By default, genes with both of the p-addCLT and p-effect-size smaller than the threshold of  $FDR = 1\%$  are considered as differentially expressed. We note that to have a p-value of 1%, the absolute z-score must be at least 2 ( $z = \frac{\mu}{\sigma}$  where  $\mu$  is the estimated effect size and  $\sigma$  is the standard error). Therefore, with a cutoff of  $1\%$  we choose genes that are not only significant using the empirical Bayesian test, but also have the absolute effect size at least twice the standard error. From another perspective, the rationale of using both p-addCLT and p-effect-size is similar to the differential expression analysis using a volcano plot, which combines a measure of statistical significance from a statistical test with the magnitude of the change. The difference here is that instead of focusing on the magnitude, we focus on confirming that the magnitude of the change is well beyond the margin of error. This also allows us to avoid introducing another threshold for effect sizes.

The contribution of each type of p-values depends on the data. For example, p-addCLT contributes more in Alzheimer's data while p-effect-size contributes more in Influenza and AML data. Figure [S3](#page-9-0) shows the scatter plots of p-addCLT versus p-effect-size. A gene is considered DE if both p-addCLT and p-effect-size are significant, i.e., the gene belongs to the upper right quarter in the plot. In case of Alzheimer's data (Figure [S3A](#page-9-0)), if we removed p-addCLT from the analysis, then we would have obtained a large number of DE genes (genes in upper and lower right quarters), among which many are potentially false positives. Therefore, we would say that p-addCLT contributes more to the analysis in Alzheimer' data. In the case of AML (Figure [S3B](#page-9-0)), most of DE genes are determined by p-effect-size. Removing p-addCLT from this analysis will make a small difference since there are only 5 genes that belong to the lower right panel. Therefore, we would say p-effect-size contributes more in Influenza and AML data analysis (Figure [S3B](#page-9-0) and C).



<span id="page-9-0"></span>Figure S3: Scatter plot of p-addCLT versus p-effect-size. The horizontal axes represent p-effect-size while the vertical axes represent p-addCLT in the minus log scale. The red lines represent the cutoff of  $FDR = 1\%$ .

### 3.2 On the contribution of the hypergeometric model and the perturbation factor model

We expect that each model captures a different type of evidence for differential expression. Therefore, the contribution of each model is expected to be complementary to one another. The hypergeometric model, also known as overrepresentation analysis [\[6,](#page-15-16) [21\]](#page-15-17), estimates the p-value as the probability of obtaining at least the observed number of differentially expressed genes (DE) just by chance. Therefore, it captures the significance of the given pathway from the perspective of the set of genes contained in it. In contrast, the perturbation factor (PF) model aims at capturing the meaningful changes on a given gene topology. This captures the perturbation while taking into consideration the position and role of every gene, and the direction and type of every signal on the pathway. For instance, the insulin processing pathway has the insulin receptor (INSR) as the only entry point in this pathway. Indeed, if the insulin receptor is somewhat disabled, the cell will not be able to process insulin in a normal way and this cell function will be severely disrupted. However, the enrichment analysis will not yield a significant p-value if INSR is the only differentially expressed gene on this pathway. In contrast, the impact analysis will be able to report this pathway as significantly impacted because it takes into consideration the topology of the pathway and propagates the measured changed of the INSR throughout the rest of the pathway. Thus, the mathematical model employed by the impact analysis will be able to recognize the fact that disabling the entry point in the pathway will shut off the entire pathway [\[5\]](#page-15-18). The p-value of the PF model is the probability of obtaining a PF statistic at least as extreme as the one observed under the null hypothesis. A recent very thorough review and benchmarking has shown that the topology based pathway analysis methods are indeed better than the enrichment based methods [\[17\]](#page-15-19).

We expect the hypergeometric model to play a crucial role in the following scenarios: (i) the gene topology is not available or inaccurate, or (ii) the DE genes are disconnected. In fact, in the those cases, the hypergeometric model is the only meaningful model among the two. However, while useful for the purpose of gene set analysis, this model completely ignores the information about gene topology. In contrast, the PF model aims at fully exploiting all the knowledge about how genes interact as described in the pathway.

Figure [S4](#page-10-0) illustrates an example analysis of a five-gene pathway. In this example, we monitor a total of 30 genes, among which five are found to be differentially expressed (DE). Two of the DE genes belong to the pathway. Regardless of the position of the DE genes on the pathway, the hypergeometric test provides a p-value of  $p_{de} = 0.183$ . which is not significant. Now we present two cases in which the positions of the DE genes greatly influence the perturbation factor and its p-value  $(p_{pert})$ . In the first case, the DE genes are leaf nodes and cannot perturb the activity of any other genes (the left graph in Figure [S4\)](#page-10-0). Gene A does not have any upstream gene nor differentially expressed and therefore  $PF(A) = 0$ . Similarly,  $PF(B) = PF(D) = 0$ . For gene C and D, the perturbation factor equals to effect size of the gene, i.e.,  $PF(C) = PF(D) = 2$ . The total perturbation factor (PF) of the pathway is 4. Comparing this total PF against the null distribution constructed for the pathway, we obtain  $p_{pert} = 0.272$ . Combining  $p_{de}$  with  $p_{pert}$  using Fisher's method, we obtain a p-value of  $p_{comb} = 0.199$ , which is not significant.

In the second case, the DE genes have the ability to influence the activity of other genes (the right graph in Figure [S4\)](#page-10-0). Again, we start the calculation from gene A. This gene does not have any upstream gene and therefore its perturbation factor is equal to its effect size  $PF(A) = 2$ . For gene B,  $PF(B) = 2 + PF(A) = 4$ . For each of the gene C, D, and E, the perturbation factor is one third of gene B. Therefore,  $PF(C) = PF(D) = PF(E) = \frac{4}{3}$ . The total perturbation factor for the second case is 10. Comparing the total PF against the null, we have  $p_{pert} = 0.025$ . Combining  $p_{de}$  with  $p_{pert}$  using Fisher's method, we have  $p_{comb} = 0.029$ . In summary, the positions of the DE genes play an important role in the PF model. The two obtained p-values greatly differ even when we have the exact same number of DE genes with the same effect size.



<span id="page-10-0"></span>Figure S4: Impact Analysis (IA) using perturbation factor model. The figure shows a five-gene pathway with two differentially expressed (DE) genes in two different situations. In both cases, we have the same number of differentially expressed (DE) genes (marked in green). An ORA would find the two situations equally not significant ( $p_{de} = 0.183$  for a set of 30 monitored genes, out of which five are found to be DE). In the first situation (graph in the left), the two DE genes (C and D) are leaf nodes and cannot perturb the activity of any other pathway. In the second situation (graph in the right), the two DE genes (A and B) have the ability to influence the remaining genes in the pathway. This leads to a higher perturbation factor and a more significant  $p_{pert}$ .

#### 3.3 On batch effects and data heterogeneity

In the NBIA framework, we estimate the effect sizes of in each dataset/study separately and then combine them using a random-effects model. We use the standardized mean difference as the metric to measure effect size, which standardizes the results of each study to a uniform scale before they can be combined. This metric is designed to be robust against the scale of the original data [\[10,](#page-15-7) [4,](#page-15-5) [3\]](#page-15-6). In addition, the random-effects model includes batch effects and data heterogeneity in the design:  $y_i = \mu + \tau_i + \epsilon_i$ . In this formula,  $\mu$  is the central tendency and  $\tau_i$  is the term by which the effect size in the  $i^{th}$  study different from the central tendency. The  $\tau_i$  variables represent batch effects and data heterogeneity among datasets [\[13,](#page-15-20) [23\]](#page-15-21). In other words, this model includes batch effects as a



<span id="page-11-0"></span>Figure S5: Expression values of 197 control samples obtained from eight AML datasets. The horizontal axis shows the control samples while the vertical axis shows the expression values. Each box represents the range between 25th and 75th percentile of the expression values in each sample. The eight colors represent eight different datasets that the samples originated from. Samples from different datasets have distinctively different expression distributions.

covariate in the designated formula thus explicitly removing the batch effects. That was the main reason we favored the random-effects model over the fixed-effects model when designing NBIA.

To demonstrate that the method is robust against batch effects and data heterogeneity, we simulated a scenario in which data samples were obtained from different data distributions that represent different batches. We first put together 197 control samples obtained from the eight AML datasets analyzed in our manuscript. The data distributions of the 197 samples are shown in Figure [S5.](#page-11-0) As shown in the figure, samples from different datasets have distinctively different expression distributions. These differences represent batch effects and data heterogeneity, including differences between population subgroups (e.g., different ethnicities, gender, race, or living conditions). Next, we randomly selected 20 samples from the sample pool and split them into two equal groups: disease and control. We repeated this process ten times to generate ten datasets. Since samples of both "disease" and "control" groups are randomly drawn from the same pool, a good statistical method should see no difference between these random groups.

In the next step, we altered the gene expression of nine specific genes in the FoxO signaling pathway for the samples assigned to the "disease" group. Figure [S6](#page-12-0) shows the FoxO signaling pathway that we focused on. The reason for choosing this KEGG pathway in this simulation is that it consists of a number of genes that do not appear in any other KEGG pathways, thus avoiding cross-talk effects between pathways [\[5\]](#page-15-18). The entries marked in red consist of genes that only appear on this pathway: (1) SET9 (gene symbol SETD7 with Entrez ID 80854), (2) FOXO (FOXO6/100132074), (3) Plk (PLK2/10769 and PLK4/10733), (4) KLF2 (KLF2/10365), (5) RAG-1/2 (RAG1/5896 and RAG2/5897), and (6) atrogin-1 (FBXO25/26260 and FBXO32/114907). The actual interactions between these genes are shown in Figure [S7,](#page-12-1) in which SETD7 represses FOX06, and FOX06 activates seven remaining genes. We used the package simPATHy [\[18\]](#page-15-22) to fit the expression of the ten simulated datasets to the subnetwork shown in Figure [S7](#page-12-1) and to simulate differential expression for disease samples. In each dataset, the gene SETD7 is down-regulated, leading to the up-regulation of the remaining genes in the subnetwork. The software did not alter expression values of any other genes.

Now we use NBIA to perform a meta-analysis of the ten datasets including the tweaked genes on the FoxO signaling pathway. For each gene in each dataset, NBIA calculates: i) a p-value using limma, and ii) an effect size. Next, it combines the p-values across the ten datasets using addCLT to obtain a p-addCLT for each gene. The method also combines the effect sizes to obtain an overall effect size and a p-effect-size for each gene. Figure [S8A](#page-12-2) shows the volcano plot of p-addCLT versus effect size. The horizontal axis represents effect size while the vertical axis represents minus log of FDR-corrected p-addCLT. The figure shows that the gene SETD7 is down-regulated with an approximate effect-size of −1.5 while the other eight genes of the subnetwork are up-regulated with effect



<span id="page-12-0"></span>Figure S6: FoxO signaling pathway. The entries marked in red consist of genes that do not appear in any other KEGG pathways.



<span id="page-12-1"></span>Figure S7: The connected module of FoxO signaling pathway that do not appear in any other KEGG pathways.



<span id="page-12-2"></span>Figure S8: Effect size and p-values obtained for each gene. Panel (A) shows the volcano plot of p-addCLT versus effect size while panel (B) shows the scatter plot of p-addCLT versus p-effect-size. The p-values presented here have been corrected for multiple comparisons using False Discovery Rate (FDR).

<span id="page-13-0"></span>Table S5: The 5 top ranked pathways and FDR-corrected p-values obtained from the ten simulated datasets using ten metaanalysis approaches: NBIA, three MetaPath methods, and six GSA-, GSEA-, and IA-related approaches. The horizontal line shows the cutoff of  $FDR = 5\%$ . The target pathway  $FoxO$  signaling pathway is highlighted in green. Only NBIA and GSA+Fisher identify the target pathway as significant and rank it on top.

NBIA			MetaPath P		
	Pathway	p.fdr	Pathway	p.fdr	
	1 FoxO signaling pathway	$1e-11$	Neuroactive ligand-receptor interaction	0.9997	
	2 Ribosome biogenesis in eukaryotes	1.0000	Ribosome biogenesis in eukaryotes	1.0000	
	3 RNA transport	1.0000	RNA transport	1.0000	
	4 mRNA surveillance pathway	1.0000	mRNA surveillance pathway	1.0000	
	5 RNA degradation	1.0000	RNA degradation	1.0000	









size of 1 or higher. Figure [S8B](#page-12-2) shows the scatter plot of p-addCLT versus p-effect-size. The genes in the subnetwork have p-values of 10<sup>-5</sup> or smaller. The p-values of all other genes equal to 1 after FDR correction (both p-addCLT and p-effect-size). Using a default cutoff of  $FDR = 1\%$  on both p-addCLT and p-effect-size, NBIA identified exactly the genes in the impacted subnetwork as significant.

Table [S5](#page-13-0) shows the 5 top ranked pathways and FDR-corrected p-values at the pathway level analysis. NBIA correctly identifies FoxO signaling pathway as the only significantly pathway. We also analyzed the data using the other nine meta-analysis approaches: three MetaPath methods and six GSA-, GSEA-, and IA-related approaches. The three MetaPath methods identify no pathway as significant. GSA+Fisher is able to identify the target pathway as significant and ranks it on top. However, this method also identifies three other pathways as significant, which are clearly false positives. The reason is that the p-value for these pathways is zero in one of the datasets and Fisher's method always provides a combined p-value of zero when an individual p-value is zero. GSA+addCLT produces no false positives and also ranks the target pathway on top. However, it is not powerful enough to identify the target pathway as significant. The next method, GSEA+Fisher, produces four false positives. The remaining three methods identify no pathway as significant.

#### 3.4 Assessing false positive rate via simulation

In order to assess the false positive rate of NBIA, we generated datasets under the null hypothesis and then calculated the number of pathways that are identified as significant using NBIA. Similar to the simulation described above, we created a pool of 197 control samples obtained from the eight AML datasets. To simulate a dataset under the null hypothesis, we randomly selected 20 samples from the pool and split them into two equal groups: disease and control. In the first scenario, we set the number of datasets  $(m)$  to 5. In this scenario, we generated five datasets and then analyzed the data using NBIA. Pathways with p-values smaller than the significance threshold ( $FDR = 5\%$ ) are considered false positives. The number of significant pathways divided by the total number of pathways is considered false positive rate (FPR). We repeated this process ten times and calculate the average FPR for  $m = 5$ . In the next scenarios, we increased m and repeated the process described above to compute the average FPR for different values of m.

The average false positive rates for varying values of m are shown in Figure [S9A](#page-14-0). Overall, NBIA has  $0\%$  FPR. As described in the Methods Section, the gene-level analysis produces two lists of p-values – p-addCLT and p-effect-size. These p-values are adjusted using False Discovery Rate (FDR). A gene is considered DE is both of its adjusted p-values are smaller than the threshold of  $FDR = 1\%$ . These significant genes then serve as input of the Impact Analysis method. Again, the p-values obtained from the pathway-level analysis are adjusted using FDR. Pathways with p-values smaller than the threshold of  $FDR = 5\%$  are considered as significant. The 0% false positive rate are mainly due to the rigorous procedure of selecting differentially expressed (DE) genes and the two levels of FDR correction.

To demonstrate the impact of FDR correction steps, we repeated the analysis with the following modifications to NBIA: (i) we removed the FDR adjustment at both gene and pathway levels, and (ii) we set the significance threshold to 5% for both gene- and pathway-level analysis. In this scenario, the FPR is close to the significance threshold of 5% regardless of the number of datasets to be combined (Figure [S9B](#page-14-0)).



<span id="page-14-0"></span>Figure S9: False positive rates of NBIA with varying number of datasets to be combined. (A) False positive rate of NBIA using default settings. (B) False positive rate of NBIA without using False Discovery Rate (FDR) at both gene and pathway levels.

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