## BIOINFORMATICS MSc PROBABILITY AND STATISTICS

## SPLUS SHEET 1

A data set containing a segment of human chromosome 13 containing the BRCA2 breast cancer gene; it was obtained from the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) website
http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/
and is held at the Probability and Statistics course website
http://stats.ma.ic.ac.uk/~das01/BioinformaticsMSc/
Using a Web browser, go to this link and then click on the link
BRCA2 segment direct from the NCBI site
in the Data Sets segment. Two processed versions of this data set are also available;

- A processed version with base characters has just the 127079 base characters
- Another processed version contains a numerical representation of the sequence. This is the file to download.

Click on the link, and when the file has fully downloaded, use File -> Save to save the file as z74739.txt in the $\mathbf{c}: \backslash$ TEMP directory on the hard drive. Of course, you may ultimately save the data to a floppy disk, or to your home directory. It is possible (and quite straightforward) to read in data from different types of file apart from plain text files, and from files with different formats. The numerical data in the file $\mathbf{z 7 4 7 3 9 . t x t}$ are coded so that

$$
1=\mathrm{A} \quad 2=\mathrm{C} \quad 3=\mathrm{G} \quad 4=\mathrm{T}
$$

## 1. STARTING AN SPLUS SESSION

Double click the SPLUSicon, or start the program from the Start menu. When the program has opened up the Object Browser window, start a Commands Window by using the Window -> Commands Window pull down menus.

## 2. LOADING THE DATA INTO SPLUS

There are two ways to load the data. First using the File -> Import Data -> From File pull down menus, find the $\mathbf{c :} \backslash$ TEMP $\backslash \mathbf{z 7 4 7 3 9 . t x t}$ file using the dialog box (remember that the file extension is .txt, so the SPLUSdialog box may not find the file initially). However, when you find the file and click Open, the data will be downloaded into an SPLUSdata frame called z74739 - if you return to the Commands Window and type
>length(z74739[,1])
(always press Enter or Return at the end of a line command) you get the response
which is the length of the sequence. A line command that achieves the same outcome is

```
>z74739<-importData("c:\\TEMP\\z74739.txt",type="ASCII")
```

To read the data into a vector, type the following at the command line:

```
>brca2<-z74739[,1]
```

which creates the vector brca2 containing the data. The other way to read in the data is to type a command at the command line

```
>brca2<-scan("c:\\TEMP\\z74739.txt")
```

which creates the same brca2 vector. To check the steps have worked correctly, type

```
>length(brca2)
```

you should again get the response
[1] 127079

## 3. SUMMARY ANALYSIS

For a simple summary of the sequence, type

```
>table(brca2)
```

You should get the response

```
    1 2 3 4
3851424631 25685 38249
```

which is the breakdown of the sequence by base, that is there are $38514 \mathrm{As}, 24631 \mathrm{Cs}, 25685$ Gs and 38249 Ts. To analyse a sub-sequence, say the first 50000 bases, type

```
>table(brca2[1:50000])
```

that is, look at only the positions 1 to 50000 in the brca2 vector. You then get the response

```
    1 2 3 4
14901 103979908 14794
```

Therefore, to obtain the sample probabilities, of each base, type

```
>brca2.p <- table(brca2)/length(brca2)
>brca2.p
```

which calculates the probability vector brca2.p vector by dividing the values obtained by the table command by the total length of the sequence. You should get the response

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0.3030713 | 0.1938243 | 0.2021184 | 0.300986 |

Note that the probabilities are not (even approximately) equal. Note also that by typing

```
>brca2sub.p <- table(brca2[1:50000])/length(brca2[1:50000])
>brca2sub.p
```

which calculates the probability vector brca2sub.p vector by repeating the calculation for the first 50000 bases, you get the response
1
2
3
4
0.298020 .207940 .198160 .29588
indicating a similar collection of probabilities.

## 4. ADJACENT BASE PAIRS ANALYSIS

Suppose now that an analysis of adjacent pairs in the sequence is required Type the following sequence of commands (take care not to miss any brackets):

```
>brca2.mat <- matrix(0,4,4)
>brca2.pmat <- matrix(0,4,4)
>brca2.totals <- table(brca2)
>for(i in 2:length(brca2))
+ {brca2.mat[brca2[i-1],brca2[i]] <- brca2.mat[brca2[i-1],brca2[i]]+1}
>for(i in 1:4) {brca2.pmat[i,] <- brca2.mat[i,]/sum(brca2.mat[i,])}
```

(the + sign in line 4 appears automatically when you hit return from line 3 ). These commands construct a matrix counting the number of adjacent pairs of each type are present in the sequence, that is a matrix

|  |  | Next base |  |  |  |  |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
|  |  | A | C | G | T |  |
| Base | A | $n_{A A}$ | $n_{A C}$ | $n_{A G}$ | $n_{A T}$ | $n_{A}$ |
|  | C | $n_{C A}$ | $n_{C C}$ | $n_{C G}$ | $n_{C T}$ | $n_{C}$ |
|  | G | $n_{G A}$ | $n_{G C}$ | $n_{G G}$ | $n_{G T}$ | $n_{G}$ |
|  | T | $n_{T A}$ | $n_{T C}$ | $n_{T G}$ | $n_{T T}$ | $n_{T}$ |

where the row totals are just the total numbers of bases of that type (as calculated in step 2 to produce vector brca2.totals. Don't worry too much about the exact meaning of each command at this stage.

The third step (which essentially counts the number of adjacent AA, AC, AG etc pairs) may take a while. The fourth step divides each row in the matrix of counts by the row totals, to produce the final matrix of probabilities:

```
> brca2.pmat
    [,1] [,2] [,3] [,4]
[1,] 0.3451732 0.1628239 0.23978294 0.2522200
[2,] 0.3525638 0.2431895 0.05440299 0.3498031
[3,] 0.3011485 0.2029200 0.23262605 0.2633054
[4,] 0.2300975 0.1871421 0.23880363 0.3439567
```

Note that the row sums in this matrix are 1 (by construction). From this analysis we see that "transitions" from C to G in the sequence are relatively rare.

Two things to consider:
(a) are the transition probabilities approximately equal in different segments of the entire sequence?
(b) are the coding regions/exons/introns (that can be identified from the file from the Bioinformatics MSc.page (or the NCBI site) fundamentally different in terms of their composition by base ?.

## 5. PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION CALCULATIONS

SPLUS has many facilities for carrying out calculations for probability distributions. There are functions that calculate the probability mass function $f_{X}$ and the discrete cumulative distribution function $F_{X}$ for DISCRETE random variables, and the probability density function $f_{X}$ and the continuous cumulative distribution function $F_{X}$ for CONTINUOUS random variables. Also, SPLUS has functions that allows you to simulate random numbers from many standard probability distributions.

The probability distributions that SPLUS has specially written functions for include the following:

DISCRETE DISTRIBUTIONS
Binomial
Geometric
Negative Binomial
Poisson

CONTINUOUS DISTRIBUTIONS
Uniform
Exponential
Gamma
Chi-squared
Beta
Normal
Student-t
Cauchy
F

The task today is to use the SPLUS functions to carry out probability calculations for these distributions

There are four basic functions that are used for probability calculations: using the binomial distribution as an example, the four functions are

```
dbinom
pbinom
qbinom
rbinom
```

notice the first letters $d, p, q$ and $r$; these letters determine the type of operation that is being carried out. For different distributions, these first letters will always indicate the same type of operation; the last part of the function name determines which distribution is to be used. Specifically

```
dbinom :
```

computes the probability mass function

```
pbinom :
    computes the discrete cumulative distribution function
qbinom :
    computes the inverse cumulative distribution function
rbinom :
simulates a random sample from the distribution
```

If you type
>help(dbinom)
at the command line, a help screen explains how each function is used. Each function takes a number of arguments that will be described below.

We will initially concentrate on the binomial distribution, but the commands issued are essentially the same for each distribution we wish to use. Recall that the binomial distribution has the following probability mass function:

$$
f_{X}(x)=\binom{n}{x} \theta^{x}(1-\theta)^{n-x}=\frac{n!}{x!(n-x)!} \theta^{x}(1-\theta)^{n-x} \quad x \in\{0,1, \ldots, n\}
$$

for parameters $n$ (a positive integer) and $\theta$ (a probability lying between 0 and 1 ). In SPLUS , the parameter $\theta$ is written as $p$

## 6. MASS AND DENSITY FUNCTION CALCULATIONS.

The probability mass function for the binomial distribution is obtained using the function

```
dbinom(x, size, prob)
```

where $x$ is the vector of points at which we wish to evaluate the mass function, size is the parameter $n$, and prob is the parameter $p$ (or $\theta$ ) Hence to evaluate all the probabilities in a $\operatorname{Binomial}(10,0.3)$ distribution, we issue the following sequence of commands at the command line:

```
>x <- c(0:10)
>n <- 10
>p <- 0.3
>dbinom(x,n,p)
```

for which the response is
[1] 0.02824752490 .12106082100 .23347444050 .26682793200 .20012094900 .1029193452
[7] 0.0367569090 .00900169200 .00144670050 .00013778100 .0000059049
What this calculation has done is to create a vector of the integers from 0 to 10 (the range of this distribution), then specified $n=10$, then specified $p=0.3$, and then evaluated the mass function at each value in the vector. That is we have evaluated

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f_{X}(0)=\mathrm{P}[X=0]=\binom{10}{0}(0.3)^{0}(1-0.3)^{10-0}=0.0282475249 \\
& f_{X}(1)=\mathrm{P}[X=1]=\binom{10}{1}(0.3)^{1}(1-0.3)^{10-1}=0.1210608210
\end{aligned}
$$

and so on. We can easily assign the probabilities to a vector, and plot the resulting function:

```
>y <- dbinom(x,n,p)
```

$>p l o t(x, y)$
for which the response is a point plot of the mass function.
The d- functions for the various distributions, for example,
dbinom, dgeom, dnbinom, dpois, dexp, dgamma, dnorm, ...
and so on all have this same basic syntax - the only difference is that the parameters for each distribution change. For example, for the Gamma distribution, which we have seen with pdf

$$
f_{X}(x)=\frac{\beta^{\alpha}}{\Gamma(\alpha)} x^{\alpha-1} e^{-\beta x} \quad x>0
$$

has an SPLUS function
dgamma(x, shape, rate=1)
where shape is the $\alpha$ parameter, and rate is the $\beta$ parameter (which has the default value 1 in the function). Hence to plot four Gamma pdfs
$\operatorname{Gamma}(2,2) \quad \operatorname{Gamma}(2,1) \quad \operatorname{Gamma}(2,0.5) \quad \operatorname{Gamma}(4,2)$
on the range we use the following commands

```
>x <- c(0:1000)/100
>y1 <- dgamma(x,2,2)
>y2 <- dgamma(x,2,1)
>y3 <- dgamma(x,2,0.5)
>y4 <- dgamma(x,4,2)
>plot(x,y1,type="l")
>lines(x,y2,lty=2)
>lines(x,y3,lty=3)
>lines(x,y4,lty=4)
```

for which the response is a series of line plots of the pdf. The $x$ vector created is a series of 1000 points equally spaced on 0 to 10 , and $y_{1}, y_{2}, y_{3}$ and $y_{4}$ are the four evaluated pdf curves. For information the type="l" command produces a line (rather than a point) plot, lines adds a line to the current plot, and the lty $=\mathbf{2 , 3 , 4}$ commands produce different line styles.

For the different probability models, you need to use the help command to find out the precise syntax and parameter specification for each distribution.

## 7. DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION CALCULATIONS.

Again we begin with the Binomial model, for which the cumulative distribution function is obtained using the function
pbinom(q, size, prob)
where $q$ is the vector of points (or quantiles) at which we wish to evaluate the cdf, size is the parameter $n$, and prob is the parameter $p$ (or $\theta$ ) Hence to evaluate the cdf in a Binomial ( $10,0.3$ ) distribution, we use the following commands:

```
>x <- c(0:10)
>n <- 10
>p <- 0.3
>pbinom(x,n,p)
```

(with $x$ acting as $q$ in the specification for convenience) for which the response is
[1] 0.028247520 .149308350 .382782790 .649610720 .849731670 .95265101
[7] 0.989407920 .998409610 .999856310 .999994101 .00000000
Again, this calculation has created a vector $x$ of the integers from 0 to 10 , then specified $n=10$, then specified $p=0.3$, and then evaluated the cdf function at each value in the vector. That is we have evaluated

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F_{X}(0)=\mathrm{P}[X \leq 0]=\mathrm{P}[X=0] \\
& F_{X}(1)=\mathrm{P}[X \leq 1]=\mathrm{P}[X=0]+\mathrm{P}[X=1]
\end{aligned}
$$

and so on. Again, we assign the cumulative probabilities to a vector, and plot the resulting function:

```
>y <- pbinom(x,n,p)
```

$>p l o t(x, y)$
for which the response is a point plot of the cdf.
The p-functions for the various distributions, for example,

```
pbinom, pgeom, pnbinom, ppois, pexp, pgamma, pnorm, ...
```

and so on all have this same basic syntax - the only difference is that the parameters for each distribution change. For continuous distributions, we proceed as above

```
>x <- c(0:1000)/100
```

$>y<-\operatorname{pgamma}(x, 2,2)$
>plot( $\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{y}$, type="1")
produces a plot of the required cdf
Again, for the different probability models, you need to use the help command to find out the precise syntax and parameter specification for each distribution.

## 8. INVERSE DISTRIBUTION FUNCTION CALCULATIONS.

Again we begin with the Binomial model, for which the inverse cumulative distribution function, that is the function that solves the equation

$$
F_{X}(x)=p_{0}
$$

for $x$ with $p_{0}$ fixed, is obtained using the function
qbinom( p , size, prob)
where $p \equiv p_{0}$ is the probability at which we wish to evaluate the inverse cdf. This calculation is very important in many statistical problems. To evaluate the inverse cdf in a Binomial ( $10,0.3$ ) distribution, we use the following commands - we will use $x$ to replace $p$ as the argument of the function, to avoid confusion:

```
>p0 <- 0.265
>n <- 10
>p <- 0.3
>x_qbinom(p0,n,p)
>x
```

for which the response is
[1] 2

Again, we can use a vector argument to this function, solve for $x$, and plot the resulting function:

```
>p0 <- c(1:100)/100
>x <- qbinom(p0,n,p)
>plot(p0,x)
>plot(x,p0)
```

The q- functions for the various distributions, for example,

```
qbinom, qgeom, qnbinom, qpois, qexp, qgamma, qnorm, ...
```

and so on all have this same basic syntax but slightly different parameter specifications. For continuous distributions, we proceed as above for the $\operatorname{Gamma}(2,2)$ distribution:

```
>p0 <- c(0:1000)/1000
>x <- qgamma(p0,2,2)
>plot(p0,x,type="l")
>plot(x,p0,type="l")
```

produces a plot of the required inverse cdf. For the different probability models, you need to use the help command to find out the precise syntax and parameter specification for each distribution.

## 9. RANDOM NUMBER SIMULATION

It is often useful to be able to generate a random sample from a given probability distribution. Concentrating first on the $\operatorname{Binomial}(10,0.3)$ we use the function

```
rbinom(n, size, prob)
```

where $n$ is the required simulated sample size. To simulate a sample of size 500 from this Binomial model and store it in vector $x$, and then to plot a histogram of this simulated data, we can issue the following commands:

```
>n <- 10
>p <- 0.3
>x <- rbinom(500,n,p)
>hist(x)
```

which produces a histogram. We can change the number and/or positions of bars or "bins" in the histogram by using the commands

```
>hist(x,nclass=5)
>hist(x,breaks=c(0:10))
```

The r- functions for the various distributions, for example,

```
rbinom, rgeom, rnbinom, rpois, rexp, rgamma, rnorm, ...
```

and so on all have this same basic syntax but slightly different parameter specifications. For continuous distributions, we proceed identically to the discrete case: for the $\operatorname{Gamma}(2,2)$ distribution:

```
>x <- rgamma(500,2,2)
>hist(x)
>hist(x,nclass=20)
```

For the different probability models, you need to use the help command to find out the precise syntax and parameter specification for each distribution.

## 10. TRANFORMATIONS

For simulated data, generating a "transformed" sample is straightforward. If we wish to generate a sample from a continuous $\operatorname{Uniform}(0,1)$ distribution, and then to transform it using a $-\log$ transformation, we can proceed as follows:

```
>x1 <- runif(5000,0,1)
>hist(x1)
>x2 <- -log(x1)
>hist(x2)
```


## EXERCISES:

1. Evaluate $\mathrm{P}[X=5]$ if $X \sim \operatorname{Geometric}(0.6)$ (note: take care with the parameterization - for example check $\mathrm{P}[X=0]$ and compare this with the parameterization given in lecture notes; the SPLUS Geometric functions are based on the mass function

$$
(1-\theta)^{x} \theta \quad x=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

which is a slightly different model to ours)
2. Evaluate $\mathrm{P}[X=15]$ if $X \sim \operatorname{Poisson}(9)$
3. Evaluate $\mathrm{P}[X \leq 12]$ if $X \sim \operatorname{Binomial}(20,0.6)$
4. Evaluate $\mathrm{P}[X>20]$ if $X \sim$ Poisson(15)
5. Evaluate $\mathrm{P}[30<X \leq 45]$ if $X \sim \operatorname{Binomial}(100,0.35)$
6. Plot the pmf of the Poisson(8) distribution on the range $0 \leq x \leq 20$
7. Plot the pdf of the $\operatorname{Gamma}(5,2)$ distribution on the range $0 \leq x \leq 10$
8. Plot the pdf of the $\operatorname{Normal}\left(-5,5^{2}\right)$ distribution on the range $-20 \leq x \leq 20$
9. Plot the cdf of the $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$ distribution on the range $-3 \leq x \leq 3$
10. Produce a sample of 5000 values from a $\operatorname{Normal}(0,1)$ distribution, plot a histogram, and then plot a histogram of the squares of these values.

It is also possible to generate a random sequence that is similar to a biological sequence using the SPLUS function sample: we proceed by issung the following command:

```
>bases <- c("A","C","G","T")
>pvec <- c(0.25,0.25,0.25,0.25)
>x <- sample(bases,size=50,replace=T,prob=pvec)
>x
```

that will produce (something like) the following output

```
[1] "C" "A" "T" "G" "A" "G" "C" "C" "A" "A"
[11]"G" "G" "C" "T" "C" "T" "C" "C" "C" "C"
[21]"G" "C" "T" "A" "A" "T" "C" "G" "T" "G"
[31]"C" "A" "C" "A" "A" "G" "A" "T" "C" "A"
[41]"C" "T" "T" "G" "A""G" "C" "G" "C" "T"
```

The commands created some base labels $A, C, G$ and $T$, and then a probability for each label (in this case the probability is 0.25 for each label), and then produced a sample of size 50 independently sampled from this distribution.

The prob vector determines how probable each label is; in nature, it is unlikely that each base is observed with equal probability, and also that the base sequence is not independentlt generated (that is, the base observed at one position is influenced by bases observed in previous positions). In light of the analysis carried out for the BRCA2 sequence, how could a more realistic biological sequence be generated?

