#### Probabilistic models

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#### **Definitions**

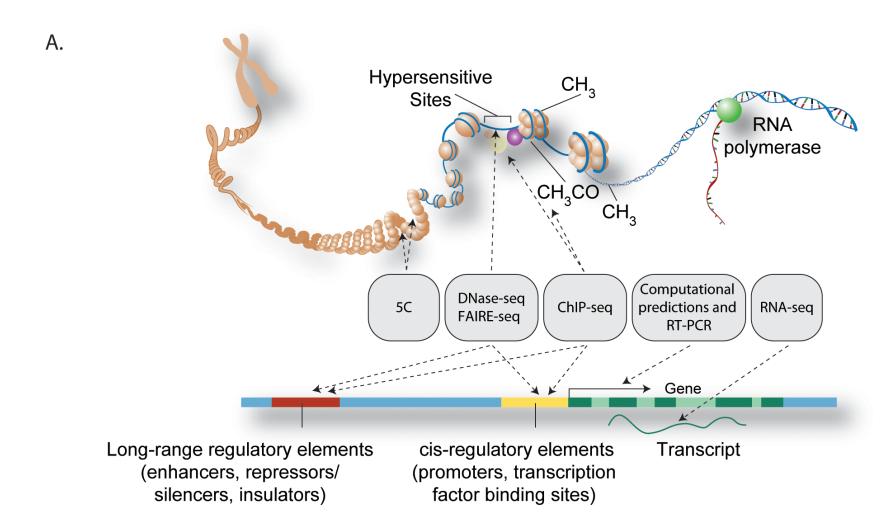
#### Probabilistic models

- A model means a system that simulates the object under consideration
- A probabilistic model is one that produces different outcomes with different probabilities (BSA)

### Why probabilistic models

- The biological system being analyzed is stochastic
- Or noisy
- Or completely deterministic, but because a number of *hidden* variables effecting its behavior are unknown, the observed data might be best explained with a probabilistic model

Figure 1. The Organization of the ENCODE Consortium.



The ENCODE Project Consortium (2011) A User's Guide to the Encyclopedia of DNA Elements (ENCODE). PLoS Biol 9(4): e1001046. doi:10.1371/journal.pbio.1001046

http://www.plosbiology.org/article/info:doi/10.1371/journal.pbio.1001046



### **Probability**

- Experiment: a procedure involving chance that leads to different results
- Outcome: the result of a single trial of an experiment
- Event: one or more outcomes of an experiment
- Probability: the measure of how likely an event is
  - Between 0 (will not occur) and 1 (will occur)

#### Example: a fair 6-sided dice

- Outcome: The possible outcomes of this experiment are 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6
- Events: 1; 6; even
- Probability: outcomes are equally likely to occur
  - P(A) = The Number Of Ways Event A Can Occur / The Total Number Of Possible Outcomes
  - P(1)=P(6)=1/6; P(even)=3/6=1/2;

#### Random variable

- Random variables are functions that assign a unique number to each possible outcome of an experiment
- An example
  - Experiment: tossing a coin
  - Outcome space: {heads, tails}

$$X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if heads} \\ 0 & \text{if tails} \end{cases}$$

- More exactly, X is a discrete random variable
- -P(X=1)=1/2, P(X=0)=1/2

### Probability distribution

- Probability distribution: the assignment of a probability P(x) to each outcome x.
- A fair dice: outcomes are equally likely to occur
   → the probability distribution over the all six outcomes P(x)=1/6, x=1,2,3,4,5 or 6.
- A loaded dice: outcomes are *unequally likely* to occur  $\rightarrow$  the probability distribution over the all six outcomes P(x)=f(x), x=1,2,3,4,5 or 6, but  $\sum f(x)=1$ .

# Probability mass function (pmf)

- A probability mass function is a function that gives the probability that a *discrete* random variable is exactly equal to some value; it is often the primary means of defining a discrete probability distribution
- An example

$$P(X) = \begin{cases} 1/2 \text{ heads} \\ 1/2 \text{ tails} \\ 0 \text{ others} \end{cases}$$

# Probability density function (pdf)

- Probability density functions (pdf) are for continuous rather than discrete random variables; f(x)
- A pdf must be integrated over an interval to yield a probability, since P(X = x) = 0

$$P(a \le X \le b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

Cumulative distribution function (cdf)

$$P(X \le x) = \int_{-\infty}^{x} f(t)d(t)$$

### Joint probability

- Two experiments (random variables) X and Y
  - P(X,Y) → joint probability (distribution) of X and Y
  - -P(X,Y)=P(X|Y)P(Y)=P(Y|X)P(X)
  - P(X|Y)=P(X), X and Y are independent
- Example: experiment 1 (selecting a dice), experiment 2 (rolling the selected dice)
  - $P(y): y=D_1 \text{ or } D_2$
  - $P(i, D_1)=P(i| D_1)P(D_1)$
  - P(i| D<sub>1</sub>)=P(i| D<sub>2</sub>), independent events

### The probability of a DNA sequence

- Event: Observing a DNA sequence S=s₁s₂...sn: si ∈ {A,C,G,T};
- Random sequence model (or Independent and identically-distributed, i.i.d. model): si occurs at random with the probability P(si), independent of all other residues in the sequence;
- P(S)=  $\prod_{i=1}^{n} P(s_i)$
- This model will be used as a background model (or called a null hypothesis).

### Marginal probability

- The distribution of the marginal variables (the marginal distribution) is obtained by marginalizing over the distribution of the variables being discarded (so the discarded variables are marginalized out)
- Marginalizing means considering all possible values the unknown variables may take, and averaging over them
- $P(X) = \sum_{Y} P(X|Y)P(Y)$   $P(x) = \int P(x,y)dy$
- Example: experiment 1 (selecting a dice), experiment 2 (rolling the selected dice)
  - P(y): y=D1 or D2
  - P(i) = P(i|D1)P(D1)+P(i|D2)P(D2)
  - P(i| D1)=P(i| D2), independent events
  - P(i)= P(i| D1)(P(D1)+P(D2))= P(i| D1)

### Conditional probability

- Conditioning the joint distribution on a particular observation
- Conditional probability P(X|Y): the measure of how likely an event X happens under the condition Y;

$$P(x|y) \equiv \frac{P(x,y)}{P(y)} = \frac{P(x,y)}{\int P(x,y)dy}$$

- Example: two dices D1, D2
  - $P(i|D1) \rightarrow$  probability for picking *i* using dice D1
  - $P(i|D2) \rightarrow$  probability for picking *i* using dice D2

### Probability models

- A system that produces different outcomes with different probabilities.
- It can simulate a class of objects (events), assigning each an associated probability.
- Simple objects (processes) → probability distributions

# Typical probability distributions

- Binomial distribution
- Gaussian distribution
- Multinomial distribution
- Poisson distribution
- Dirichlet distribution

#### Binomial distribution

- An experiment with binary outcomes: 0 or 1;
- Probability distribution of a single experiment: P('1')=p and P('0')=1-p;
- Probability distribution of N tries of the same experiment
- Bi(k '1's out of N tries)  $\sim \binom{N}{k} p^k (1-p)^{N-k}$

#### Gaussian distribution

- When N -> ∞, Bi -> Gaussian distribution
- The Gaussian (normal) distribution is a continuous probability distribution with probability density function defined as:

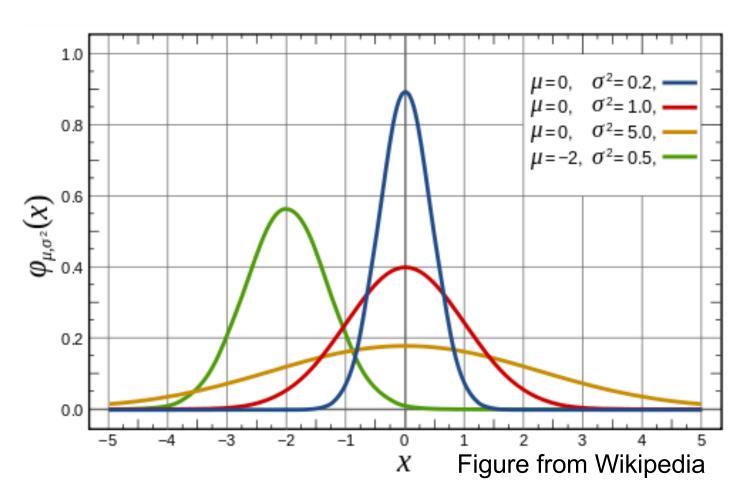
$$f(x;\mu,\alpha^2) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2}$$

 $\mu$ : mean (expectation);  $\sigma^2$ : variance ( $\sigma$ : the standard derivation)

• If we define a new variable  $u=(x-\mu)/\sigma$ 

$$f(x) \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2/2}$$

#### Gaussian distribution



standard normal distribution when  $\mu = 0$  and  $\sigma^2 = 1$ 

#### Multinomial distribution

- An experiment with K independent outcomes with probabilities  $\theta_i$ , i = 1,...,K,  $\Sigma \theta_i = 1$ .
- Probability distribution of N tries of the same experiment, getting n<sub>i</sub> occurrences of outcome i, ∑n<sub>i</sub>
   =N (n={n<sub>i</sub>}).

$$P(n|\theta) = M^{-1}(n) \prod_{i=1}^{K} \theta_i^{n_i}$$

$$M(n) = \frac{n_1! n_2! \cdots n_K!}{(\sum_k n_k)!} = \frac{\prod_i n_i!}{(\sum_k n_k)!}$$

### Example: a fair dice

- Probability: outcomes (1,2,...,6) are equally likely to occur
- Probability of rolling 1 dozen times (12) and getting each outcome twice:

getting each outcome twice:
$$- \frac{12!}{2^6} \left(\frac{1}{6}\right)^{12} \sim 3.4 \times 10^{-3}$$

### Example: a loaded dice

- Probability: outcomes (1,2,...,6) are unequally likely to occur: P(6)=0.5, P(1)=P(2)=...=P(5)=0.1
- Probability of rolling 1 dozen times (12) and getting each outcome twice:
  - $-\frac{12!}{2^6}(0.5)^2 \times (0.1)^{10} \sim 1.87 \times 10^{-4}$

#### Poisson distribution

 Poisson gives the probability of seeing n events over some interval, when there is a probability p of an individual event occurring in that period.

# Poisson distribution for sequencing coverage modeling



Assuming uniform distribution of reads:

Length of genomic segment: L

Number of reads: n Coverage  $\lambda = nI/L$ 

Length of each read:

How much coverage is enough (or what is sufficient oversampling)?

Lander-Waterman model: 
$$P(x) = (\lambda^x * e^{-\lambda}) / x!$$
  
 $P(x=0) = e^{-\lambda}$ 

where  $\lambda$  is coverage

#### Poisson distribution

```
% not sequence % sequenced (1- Po)
               P0=e-c
С
1
               0.37
                           37%
                                       63%
 2
                                       87.5%
               0.135
                           13.5%
3
               0.05
                           5%
                                       95%
                           1.8%
                                       98.2%
               0.018
               0.0067
                           0.6%
                                       99.4%
               0.0025
                           0.25%
                                       99.75%
               0.0009
                           0.09%
                                       99.91%
               0.0003
                           0.03%
                                       99.97
9
               0.0001
                          0.01%
                                       99.99%
10
               0.000045
                           0.005%
                                       99.995%
```

#### Dirichlet distribution

• Outcomes:  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, ..., \theta_K)$ 

• Density: 
$$D(\theta|\alpha) = Z^{-1}(\alpha) \prod_{i=1}^K \theta_i^{\alpha_i - 1} \delta(\sum_{i=1}^K \theta_i - 1)$$
 
$$Z(\alpha) = \int \prod_{i=1}^K \theta_i^{\alpha_i - 1} \delta(\sum_{i=1}^K \theta_i - 1) d\theta = \frac{\prod_i \Gamma(\alpha_i)}{\Gamma(\sum_i \alpha_i)}$$

- $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2,..., \alpha_K)$  are constants  $\rightarrow$  different  $\alpha$  gives different probability distribution over  $\theta$ .
- K=2 → Beta distribution

### Example: dice factories

- Dice factories produce all kinds of dices: θ(1),
   θ(2),..., θ(6)
- A dice factory distinguish itself from the others by parameters  $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \alpha_4, \alpha_5, \alpha_6)$
- The probability of producing a dice  $\theta$  in the factory  $\alpha$  is determined by  $\mathcal{D}(\theta|\alpha)$

#### Probabilistic model

- Selecting a model
  - A model can be anything from a simple distribution to a complex stochastic grammar with many implicit probability distributions
  - Probabilistic distributions (Gaussian, binominal, etc)
  - Probabilistic graphical models
    - Markov models
    - Hidden Markov models (HMM)
    - Bayesian models
    - Stochastic grammars
- Data → model (learning)
  - The parameters of the model have to be inferred from the data
  - MLE (maximum likelihood estimation) & MAP (maximum a posteriori probability)
- Model → data (inference/sampling)

#### **MLE**

- Estimating the model parameters (learning): from large sets of trusted examples
- Given a set of data D (training set), find a model with parameters θ with the maximal likelihood P(D|θ)

$$\hat{\theta}_{MLE} = \arg\max_{\theta} P(D|\theta)$$

### Example: a loaded dice

- Loaded dice: to estimate parameters θ<sub>1</sub>, θ<sub>2,...,</sub> θ<sub>6</sub>, based on N observations D=d<sub>1</sub>,d<sub>2</sub>,...d<sub>N</sub>
- θ<sub>i</sub>=n<sub>i</sub> / N, where n<sub>i</sub> is the occurrence of *i* outcome (observed frequencies), is the maximum likelihood solution (BSA 11.5)

$$P(n|\theta_{MLE}) > P(n|\theta)$$
 for any  $\theta \neq \theta_{MLE}$ 

Learning from counts

#### When to use MLE

- A drawback of MLE is that it can give poor estimations when the data are scarce
  - E.g, if you flip coin twice, you may only get heads,
     then P(tail) = 0
- It may be wiser to apply prior knowledge (e.g, we assume P(tail) is close to 0.5)
  - Use MAP instead

#### **MAP**

Bayesian statistics

$$P(\theta|D) = \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)}$$
$$= \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{\sum_{\theta} P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}$$

 $P(\theta) \rightarrow$  prior probability

 $P(\theta|D) \rightarrow$  posterior probability

 $P(D/\theta) \rightarrow likelihood$ 

MAP

$$\hat{\theta}_{MAP} = \arg \max_{\theta} P(\theta|D) 
= \arg \max_{\theta} \frac{P(D|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(D)} 
= \arg \max_{\theta} P(D|\theta)P(\theta)$$

### Example: two die

- Prior probabilities: fair dice 0.99; loaded dice: 0.01;
- Loaded dice: P(6)=0.5, P(1)=...P(5)=0.1
- Data: 3 consecutive '6' es:
  - P(loaded|3'6's)=P(loaded)\*[P(3'6's|loaded)/P(3'6's)] = 0.01\*(0.5³ / C)
  - P(fair|3'6's)=P(fair)\*[P(3'6's|fair)/P(3'6's)] = 0.99 \*  $((1/6)^3 / C)$
  - Model comparison by using likelihood ratio:
     P(loaded|3'6's) / P(fair|3'6's) < 1</li>
  - So fair dice is more likely to generate the observation.

### Learning from counts: including prior

- Use prior knowledge when the data is scarce
- Use Dirichlet distribution as prior for the multinomial distribution:

- Posterior 
$$P(\theta|n) = \frac{P(n|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(n)} = \frac{P(n|\theta)D(\theta|\alpha)}{P(n)}$$

Posterior mean estimator (PME)

$$\theta_i^{PME} = \int \theta_i D(\theta|n+\alpha) d\theta = Z^{-1}(n+\alpha) \int \theta_i \prod_k \theta_k^{n_k + \alpha_k - 1} d\theta$$
$$\theta_i^{PME} = \frac{n_i + \alpha_i}{N + A}$$

- Equivalent to add  $\alpha_i$  as pseudo-counts to the observation  $n_i$  (BSA 11.5) (Add-one smoothing; *Laplace estimator*)
- We can forget about statistics and use pseudo-counts in the parameter estimation!

### Sampling

- Probabilistic model with parameter θ → P(x|θ) for event x;
- Sampling: generate a large set of events x<sub>i</sub> with probability P(x<sub>i</sub>| θ);
- Random number generator (function rand() picks a number randomly from the interval [0,1) with the uniform density;
- Sampling from a probabilistic model → transforming P(x<sub>i</sub>| θ) to a uniform distribution
  - For a finite set X ( $x_i \in X$ ), find i s.t. P( $x_1$ )+...+P( $x_{i-1}$ ) < rand(0,1) < P( $x_1$ )+...+P( $x_{i-1}$ ) + P( $x_i$ )

### **Entropy**

- Probabilities distributions P(x<sub>i</sub>) over K events
- $H(x) = -\sum P(x_i) \log P(x_i)$ 
  - Maximized for uniform distribution  $P(x_i)=1/K$
  - A measure of average uncertainty

 A sample application of entropy in bioinformatics: as a measurement for conservation

#### Mutual information

- Measure of independence of two random variable X and Y
- P(X|Y)=P(X), X and Y are independent →
   P(X,Y)/P(X)P(Y)=1
- $M(X;Y)=\sum_{x,y} P(x,y)\log[P(x,y)/P(x)P(y)]$ 
  - − 0 → independent
- A sample application of mutual information:
  - Correlation between two residues
  - Application in RNA structure prediction

#### **BRCA1** and **BRCA2**

#### A little background

- BRCA1 and BRCA2 are human genes that produce tumor suppressor proteins.
- Specific inherited mutations in BRCA1 and BRCA2 increase the risk of female breast and ovarian cancers, and they have been associated with increased risks of several additional types of cancer.
- Together, BRCA1 and BRCA2 mutations account for about 20 to 25 percent of hereditary breast cancers and about 5 to 10 percent of all breast cancers.

#### A simple calculation

- A rare mutation in an important gene is observed in only 2% of the population. A person that carries this mutation in his/her genome has 90% chance of developing a disease. On the other hand, a person that has a normal gene (without mutation) only has a 5% chance of developing this disease.
- Question: If you tested having this disease, what's your chance of carrying this rare mutation?