# CS121 / Chem 160A Quiz

Release v10

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## **Contents**

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#### Instructions

- write your name and university ID number at the top right of each page.
- IMPORTANT: if you are an undergraduate, your exam should be titled "CS 121 / Chem l604. Quiz". If you are a graduate student, your exam should be titled "CS 227 / Bioinfo 260A Quiz".
- For full credit, show your work and briefly explain your reasoning where appropriate.
- . note that there is a glossary and equation sheet included at the end of the quiz.

#### 1. X-linked vs. Autosomal Inheritance Hypothesis Test

You are part of a research team that has discovered a novel genetic disease, and recently found some evidence suggesting that the disease mutation might be "X-linked" (i.e. on the X chromosome, which is found in two copies in women but only one copy in men) as opposed to "autosomal" (i.e. on a regular chromosome found in two copies in both men and women). Throughout this question you can assume the disease mutation is recessive, i.e.  $n \kappa = 2$  copies of mutation are required to cause disease symptoms, except for the X-linked model in men where  $\kappa = 1$  copy would cause disease symptoms (because men only have one copy of the X chromosome). Also assume the population allele frequency of the disease mutation is  $\theta$ .

(a) Do you expect the probability of developing disease symptoms under the X-linked recessive model to be the same for men vs. women? What about under the autosomal recessive model?

No, X-linked recessive diseases show in men more than yomen. But under the autosomal recessive model, similar proportions of men and women would driplay sympto

(b) You have a large random sample of people reporting both the gender of each person and whether that person has symptoms of this disease or not. You wish to use these data to test the *autosomal recessive* model  $(h^{-})$ , such that your test would reject that null hypothesis if this disease is actually X-linked recessive  $(h^+)$ . Propose what observable metric you would use as a scoring function for doing this, and how it would distinguish the two models, clearly defining all the relevant variables.

 $N :=$  sample sine  $n:=$  number of males  $M :=$  number of people M := number of people with symptoms

Then we can use the hypergeometric distribution to serve our

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P(m | N, M, n) = \frac{\binom{M}{m} \binom{N-M}{n-m}}{\binom{N}{n}}
$$

This distinguishes .<br>This distinguishes the two models by telling us the probability of our<br>observations under the awtosomal recessive model, where males and fen are equally likely to display symptoms

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(c) using your scoring metric from the previous part, propose a specific test  $t^+$  for rejecting the *autosomal recessive* null hypothesis  $h^-$  with an enforced false positive likelihood cutoff  $F_{cut}$ , and justify your answer with a diagram. Specify what likelihood model you would use, and briefly work out an equation for how you would actually calculate the false positive likelihood.

 $t^+$ :  $P(m \ge m_{obs} | h^-) \ge F$ 

 $\sqrt{ }$ 

The null hypothesis is rejected when the probability of m being greater<br>than or equal to its observed counterpart m<sub>obs</sub> under the autosomal reussive model is less than or equal to Fut.

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 $P(m|h^-)$  $F_{\text{cut}}$  - then sum is the fable positive likelihood m that we are enforcing  $-0.5$ mout

tikelihood model: hypergrometric, as in (b) Jalse positive likelihood:  $P(t+ |h-)= P(m\geq m_{cut} |h-)=F_{cut}$ 

## 1 Basic Genetics

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- **DNA** A DNA sequence is a string consisting of a four letter alphabet  $(A, C, G, T)$ . The four "letters" are called nucleotides or bases.
- gene a specific substring of the DNA that encodes a specific functional unit called a protein.
- genome The total DNA sequence of an organism. The genome of a small bacterium is about 4 million letters long and contains about 4000 genes. The human genome is about 3 billion letters long, and contains about 25,000 genes. The length of a DNA string is given in "basepairs" (bp; just means a single letter); kilobases (Kb, 1000 letters) or megabases (Mb, <sup>a</sup> million letters).
- chromosome A large genome usually consists of several separate pieces (each a single DNA chain) called chromosomes. e.g. the biggest human chromosome (chromosome l) is <sup>247</sup> Mb long, and humans have 23 chromosomes.
- genome copy number Some organisms keep a single copy of the genome in each individual, e.g. bacteria. Animals and plants generally have two distinct copies of the genome in each individual. These two copies can have (somewhat) different sequences, see polymorphism.
- mutation an alteration of the DNA sequence that changes one or more letters in the DNA string. Mutation occurs at a low rate over time (roughly  $10^{-8}$  letters change per generation). Some mutations change only a single letter, while other mutations might insert or delete a substring of the DNA.
- sequence specifies function The specific DNA sequence of a gene is essential for its normal biological function; if that sequence is altered by a mutation it may not be able to perform that function normally or at all.
- phenotype A specific, observable change in function due to a change in the DNA sequence.
- fixation Over time, a mutation can either be permanently lost from the population (due to the individual(s) with that mutation for some reason not passing it on to the next generation), or it may become the majority of the population or even found in *all* individuals in the population. In the latter case it is said to be "fixed" in the population.
- polymorphism Mutations in a population that have not yet been lost or "fixed" are called "polymorphisms", which simply means that some individuals have the mutation while others do not.
- allele frequency the probability of finding a specific polymorphism on any given copy of the genome in a population.
- $SNP$  A single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) is a single letter in the DNA sequence that differs between individuals.
- polymorphism copy number For species that have more than one copy of the genome in each 'individual, the number of copies in an individual that have a specific polymorphism is called its copy number. In people the possible values are  $0, 1$ , or  $2$ .
- **recessive mutation** Because of this, most mutations that damage a gene function are "recessive", which means that *both* copies of the gene must have a damaging mutation, in order to produce the mutation's phenotype (i.e. disease symptoms). An individual with one mutated copy plus one normal copy would simply have a normal phenotype (i.e. no disease symptoms).
- **dominant mutation** A mutation that can cause its phenotype even if it is present on only one of the two copies is said to be dominant.
- Mendelian inheritance the standard pattern of gene transmission in plants and animals, in which each individual has two copies of a gene (one copy from each of its two parents), and passes on one of its copies (chosen at random) to each of its children.
- clone If two individuals are genetically identical, we say they are *clones* (of each other). Asexual organisms (such as bacteria) typically have only one copy of the genome, and reproduce clonally, i.e. the "daughter" cell is an exact genetic copy of the "mother" cell. Biologists often separate a complex population of cells by "plating" them at low density (say 1 cell /  $cm<sup>2</sup>$ ) and letting them grow; each cell will make a colony; each colony is clonal. Note that human clones (i.e. exact twins) are not very rare.

## 2 Basic Molecular Biology

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- 5' end, 3' end A DNA chain has inherent asymmetry, and its two different ends are referred to as 5' (pronounced "five-prime") vs. 3'. By convention, DNA sequences are always written from  $5'$  to  $3'$ .
- base pairing the physical attraction and binding of two DNA chain segments that are reversecomplements of each other. This can occur between two separate DNA molecules, or (due to the physical flexibility of the DNA chain) between two separate segments of a single DNA molecule.
- reverse complement the specific DNA string that will naturally base-pair with a given DNA sequence: it is formed by the following rule: A pairs with T; G pairs with C; and the paired DNA strings run in opposite directions, i.e. the reverse complement of AITGC is GCAAI, with the A in the first string base-paired with the  $T$  in the second string, and the  $C$  in the first string base-paired with the G in the second string.
- double-stranded DNA that is base-paired with its reverse complement is said to be "doublestranded"; DNA in a cell is usually found in this form. This is the famous "double helix".
- hybridization The process of single-stranded nucleotide sequence encountering a reversecomplement nucleotide sequence, and binding to it via base pairing (resulting in a doublestranded complex). Note that even in a mixture of a huge number of different sequences, those that are reverse-complementary will quickly find and bind to each other (i.e. "hybridize")

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- DNA microarray To measure the individual amounts of many specific sequences in a sample, a microscopic dot of a specified reverse-complement ("probe") sequence is attached to the surface of a glass slide; millions of such dots are arrayed microscopically. A fluorescently labeled DNA sample is then allowed to hybridize to the array; each dot will only bind its specific target sequence. A laser scans the array to measure the fluorescence bound to each dot.
- RNA a variant of DNA whose chemical structure is just slightly different. Whereas DNA is the "permanent storage" of the genetic code, RNA usually operates as an "active form" of the genetic code e.g. for producing proteins coded by the gene sequence.
- transcription the process of copying the DNA sequence representing a gene, to an RNA sequence, often referred to as the "messenger RNA" or "mRNA" for that gene.
- **gene expression** regulation of the activity (or "expression") of a gene by increasing or reducing the amount of mRNA for that gene.
- protein a string composed of a 20 letter alphabet (the amino acids) encoded by translating the DNA sequence of a gene. Proteins perform most of the biochemical activities in a cell, and a specific protein sequence carries out a specific activity, thanks to its unique physical structure determined by its sequence.
- codon a group of three consecutive nucleotides that encode a single amino acid according to the universal genetic code.
- translation the process of making a protein, by making the string of amino acids specified by <sup>a</sup> string of codons in a gene.
- short read sequencing a recent technology for rapid sequencing of entire genomes. Current systems can read up to 500 million short sequence fragments each approximately 150 nucleotides in length, in one machine mn. Due to the intrinsic error rates in the sequencing process, many fragment reads must be compared to arrive at a reliable "base call" at each letter position in the genome. Experimentally, DNA is randomly fragmented, and the resulting "short read" sequence strings must be aligned to each other (computationally, based on matching strings from overlapping reads) as the starting point for all analysis.
- sequencing coverage the average number of independent reads covering any position in the genome (or region) being sequenced. Typically, sequencing projects aim for coverage of 70x or higher.

## 3 Basic Probability

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p(a) = \frac{|a \cap S|}{|S|}
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p(a|b) = \frac{|a \cap b \cap S|}{|b \cap S|}
$$

$$
\sum_{b} p(a \cap b) = p(a)
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p(X_1, X_2, X_3, \cdots, X_n) = p(X_1)p(X_2|X_1)p(X_3|X_1, X_2)\cdots p(X_n|X_1, X_2, \cdots, X_{n-1})
$$

$$
p(H|O) = \frac{p(O|H)p(H)}{\sum_{H} p(O|H)p(H)}
$$

$$
\log(p_1 + p_2) = \log p_1 + \log(1 + \exp(\log p_2 - \log p_1))
$$

binomial distribution

$$
p(m|\theta, n) = {n \choose m} \theta^m (1-\theta)^{n-m}
$$

where

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\binom{n}{m} = \frac{n!}{m!(n-m)!}
$$

poisson distribution

$$
p(k|\lambda) = e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!}
$$

Hypergeometric Distribution

$$
p(m|N, M, n) = \frac{\binom{M}{m}\binom{N-M}{n-m}}{\binom{N}{n}}
$$

**p-value** (for observed value k given hypothesis  $h_0$ )

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p_{>} = p(K \ge k | h_0)
$$

Bonferroni correction for N p-value tests

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\alpha = \frac{\beta}{N}
$$

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