CS395T Computational Statistics with Application to Bioinformatics

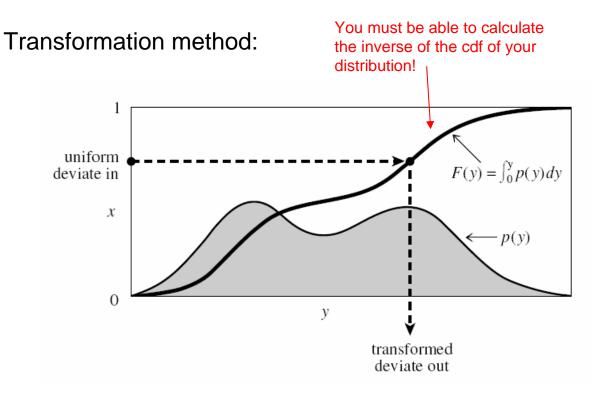
Prof. William H. Press Spring Term, 2011 The University of Texas at Austin

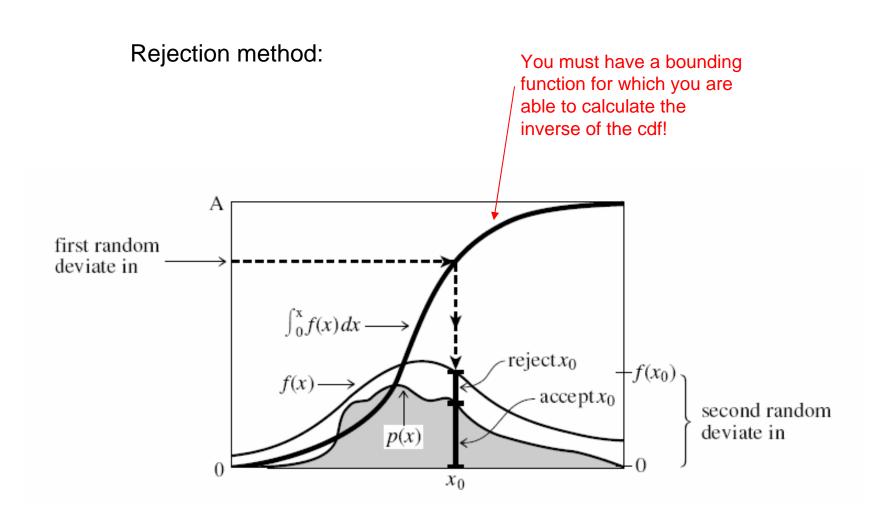
Lecture 6

Random deviates from univariate distributions

You generally have a random generator for U(0,1). What do you do for other distributions? Note that generators need to be *fast*, because you often call them millions or billions of times!

Here are three general methods:

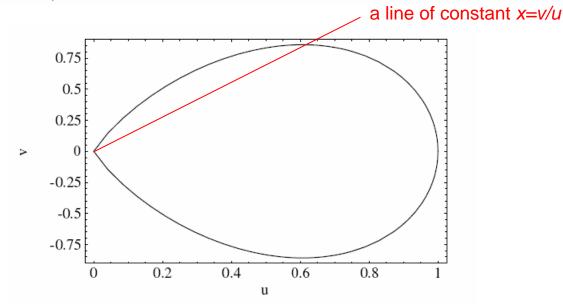




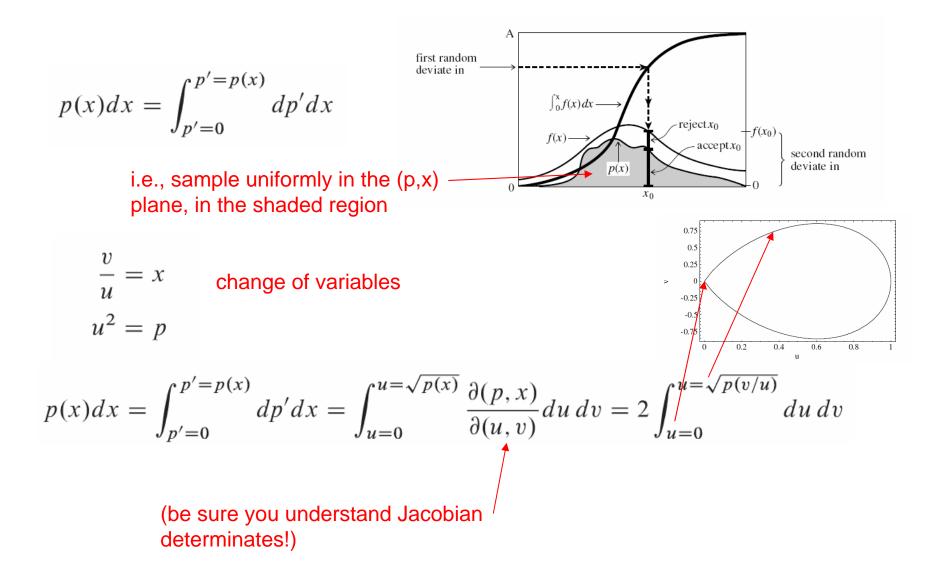
Ratio of Uniforms Method

(some of the best features of both xformation and rejection)

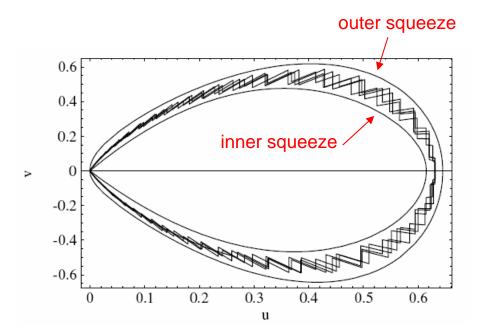
- Construct the region in the (u, v) plane bounded by $0 \le u \le [p(v/u)]^{1/2}$.
- Choose two deviates, u and v, that lie uniformly in this region.
- Return v/u as the deviate.



Proof of Ratio-of-Uniforms Method



Ratio of Uniforms is particularly powerful when combined with squeezes



For this particular example the desired distribution is integer valued (binomial deviates), hence the staircases. For a continuous distribution, there would just be a smooth curve between the squeezes (which would typically be too close together to see clearly).

you only compute p(v/u) when you are between the squeezes!

e.g., Leva's algorithm for normal deviates:

```
struct Normaldev : Ran {
Structure for normal deviates.
    Doub mu, sig;
    Normaldev(Doub mmu, Doub ssig, Ullong i)
    : Ran(i), mu(mmu), sig(ssig){}
    Constructor arguments are \mu, \sigma, and a random sequence seed.
    Doub dev() {
    Return a normal deviate.
        Doub u,v,x,y,q;
        do {
            u = doub();
            v = 1.7156*(doub()-0.5);
            x = u - 0.449871;
            y = abs(y) + 0.386595;
            q = SQR(x) + y*(0.19600*y-0.25472*x);
        } while (q > 0.27597
            \&\& (q > 0.27846 || SQR(v) > -4.*log(u)*SQR(u)));
        return mu + sig*v/u;
    }
};
```

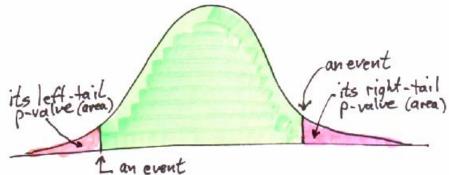
here, only ~1% of the (u,v) area is between the squeezes, requiring the calculation of the log

That's all for random deviates, a great subject but not this course!

Surprise! Now we become frequentists for a while...

The idea of p-value (tail) tests is to see how extreme is the observed data relative to the distribution of hypothetical repeats of the experiment under some "null hypothesis" H_0 .

If the observed data is too extreme, the null hypothesis is <u>dis</u>proved. (It can never be proved.)



The idea is to pick a null hypothesis that is <u>uninteresting</u>, so that if you rule it out you have discovered something <u>interesting</u>.

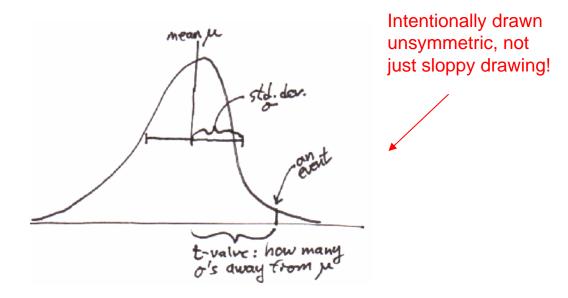
If the null hypothesis is true, then p-values are uniformly distributed in (0,1), in principle exactly so.

There are some fishy aspects of tail tests, which we discuss later, but they have one <u>big</u> advantage over Bayesian methods: You don't have to enumerate all the alternative hypotheses ("the unknown unknowns").



Don't confuse p-values with t-values (also sometimes named "Student")

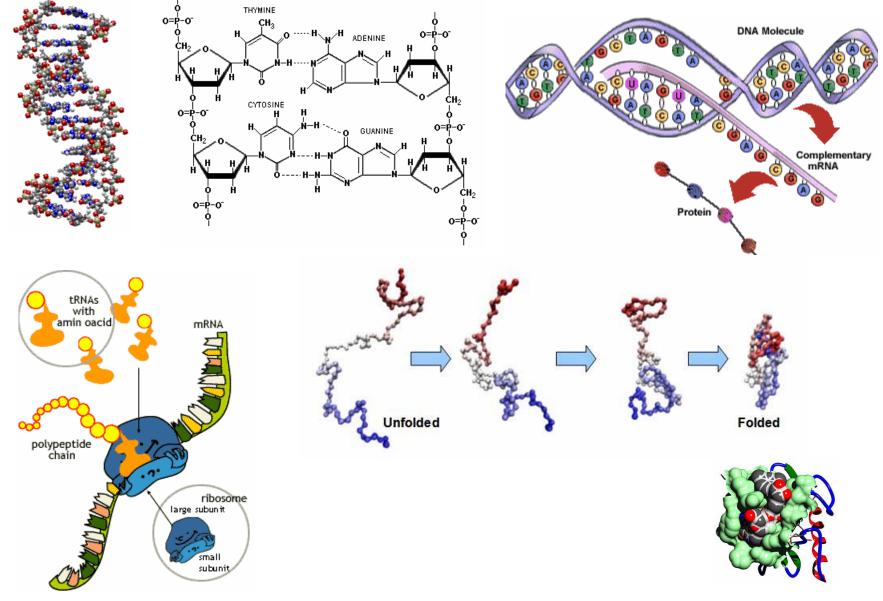
t-value = number of standard deviations from the mean



It's much easier to compute a score ("statistic") that depends only on the mean and standard deviation of the expected distribution. But, in general, this is interpretable as "likely" or "unlikely" only relative to a Gaussian (which may or may not be relevant). Often we are in an asymptotic regime where distributions are close to Gaussian. But beware of t-values if not!

The reason that t-values often are relevant is, of course, the Central Limit Theorem, as we have seen.

Time for a quick review of all of modern molecular biology for those who missed it!



credits all web anon.

The University of Texas at Austin, CS 395T, Spring 2011, Prof. William H. Press