CMDB Bootcamp

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# 1 Homepage

This is the course homepage and digital textbook for CMDB Bootcamp.

#### 1.0.0.1 Instructors

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#### 1.0.0.2 Schedule & Logistics

Class is **Tuesdays from 3-3:50PM**, in **UTL G89**.

Please bring your laptop with you to every class.

| Session | Content |
| --- | --- |
| **Session 1:** | The reference genome & genome browsers |
| **Session 2:** | *De novo* mutations |
| **Session 3:** | Linkage disequilibrium |
| **Session 4:** | Simulating evolution |
| **Session 5:** | Population structure – part I |
| **Session 6:** | Population structure – part II |
| **Session 7:** | Genome-wide association studies – part I |
| **Session 8:** | Genome-wide association studies – part II |
| **Session 9:** | Scans for selection – part I |
| **Session 10:** | Scans for selection – part II |
| **Session 11:** | Archaic admixture |
| **Session 12:** | Gene expression |
| **Session 13:** | Coronavirus phylogenetics |

# 2 The Unix Shell

## 2.1 Introducing the Shell

## 2.2 Navigating Files and Directories

## 2.3 Working with Files and Directories

# 3 Python

## 3.1 Data Types

**Integers** are whole numbers. For example:

* 2
* -3
* 0

**Floats** are numbers with a decimal point. For example:

* 1.2
* -3.0
* 26/3 (evaluates to 8.666)

**Strings** are characters enclosed by single ' or double " quotation marks. Any text enclosed by quotes will be treated as a string.

* "My Grandpa's deck has no pathetic cards"
* '85.3'

Note the second example – 85.3 is a float; '85.3' is a string.

**Booleans** have two possible values: True and False. These can also be expressed as 1 (true) or 0 (false).

## 3.2 Variables

Variables are assigned using the = sign:

variable\_name = value

For example:

* composer = "buxtehude"
* year = 1637

The variable name can be almost anything. Here are some general rules to consider when naming a variable:

* The name must start with a letter or underscore
* The name can only consist of letters, numbers, or underscores
* Variables are case sensitive (i.e. Python interprets my\_number, MY\_NUMBER, and My\_Number as different variables)
* Python has a set of “reserved words” that cannot be used as variable names. These are words that already have a set meaning in Python, such as True, False, for, and if. A full list can be found [**here**](https://www.programiz.com/python-programming/keywords-identifier).

## 3.3 Math

### 3.3.1 Mathematical operations

A lot of mathematical operations in Python are straightforward. Here are some of the basic operations we can perform:

* + and -: addition and subtraction
* \* and /: multiplication and division
* \*\*: exponentials

We can perform mathematical operations on values directly:

print(2 + 3)

## 5

Or we can operate on variables:

myValue = 4   
print(myValue\*\*2)

## 16

Python will automatically convert integers to floats when appropriate:

print(3 + 2.2)

## 5.2

We can save the output of an expression as a variable:

my\_product = 2 \* 10  
print(my\_product)

## 20

And likewise we can perform mathematical operations on variables, if these variables store numeric data:

number1 = 7  
print(number1 / 2)

## 3.5

### 3.3.2 Order of operations

Python follows the usual mathematical order of operations. And like in math, we can use parentheses () to enforce a specific order.

print(2 \* (2 + 2))

## 8

## 3.4 Comparisons

In Python, comparisons will always return a Boolean, i.e. either True or False. We can use the following syntax to compare values:

* < and >: greater than, less than
* <= and >=: greater than or equal to, less than or equal to

For example:

print(5.3 < 17)

## True

print(4. >= (8/2))

## True

* == checks if two values are equal. != checks if two values are different.

print(2 == (10 - 8))

## True

Note that a single equals sign = is used to assign values. However, a double equals sign == is used to compare values.

* var1 = 3 sets the variable var1 to 3
* var1 == 3 checks whether the value of var1 is 3

## 3.5 Built-In Functions and Methods

### 3.5.1 Functions

A **function** is a block of code that performs a task. Python comes with a substantial set of pre-written functions.

***Text on how a function is formulated - name, parentheses, optionally arguments***

***Is it worth talking about named arguments or positional arguments. Be introspective about this***

For example, the print() function displays ***FINISH ME***

***OTHER Built-In FUNCTIONS***’

### 3.5.2 Methods

Every data type that we use in Python (strings, integers, etc.) is associated with a set of functions unique to the data type. These functions are called **methods**.

The syntax for using a method is:

<objectName>.<methodName>()

#### 3.5.2.1 Example

The string method .upper() is used to convert a string into uppercase letters. We can use it either directly on the string itself:

"peppa".upper()

## 'PEPPA'

or by operating on a variable:

pig = "peppa"  
pig.upper()

## 'PEPPA'

#### 3.5.2.2 Modifying objects

Using a method may or not modify the object you run it on. For example, the .upper() method shows you the uppercase version of a string but **does not** modify the actual object that you are operating on. Observe the following code block:

pig = "peppa"  
pig.upper()  
print(pig)

## peppa

pig has not been updated. To actually save the result of .upper(), we have to assign it to a variable:

pig\_caps = pig.upper()  
print(pig\_caps)

## PEPPA

Some methods **do** modify underlying variables. For example, the list .append() method (which we will learn about later) *does* change the list if operates on:

myList = []  
print(myList)

## []

myList.append('apple')  
print(myList)

## ['apple']

myList is altered by myList.append('apple'). There’s no need to type something like myList = myList.append('apple') - this would in fact be an error. Whether methods modify the objects they operate on is something you’ll have to keep track of on a case-by-case basis as you learn new methods.

## 3.6 Type Conversion

## 3.7 String Methods

### 3.7.1 .upper() and .lower()

The .upper() and .lower() methods take a string and convert it to uppercase and lowercase, respectively.

print("out on the wily, windy moors".upper())

## OUT ON THE WILY, WINDY MOORS

aria = "Piangerò La Sorte Mia"  
print(aria.lower())

## piangerò la sorte mia

### 3.7.2 .split()

The .split() method takes a string and splits it into a list, dividing the list on a **delimiter** (i.e., separator). The delimiter is provided as an argument:

print("Newt eye, frog toe".split(','))

## ['Newt eye', ' frog toe']

If no argument is provided, then the string is split on whitespace (that is, it is split whenever a space or tab is encountered).

print("Eye of newt and toe of frog".split())

## ['Eye', 'of', 'newt', 'and', 'toe', 'of', 'frog']

### 3.7.3 .join()

The .join() method is the inverse of .split(): converts a list into a string, with list elements separated by a delimiter. The general syntax is:

"<delimiter>".join(<list>)

For example:

" ".join(["I", "found", "a", "fox", "caught", "by", "dogs"])

## 'I found a fox caught by dogs'

If we do not provide a delimiter, then the strings are directly concatenated:

"".join(["I", "found", "a", "fox", "caught", "by", "dogs"])

## 'Ifoundafoxcaughtbydogs'

### 3.7.4 .rstrip(), .lstrip(), .strip()

These three methods remove unwanted characters on the right, left, or both sides of a string. You can provide the characters you want to remove as an argument:

"ricercar........,,,,,,".rstrip(",.")

## 'ricercar'

Without an argument, the methods remove spaces:

" ricercar ".lstrip()

## 'ricercar '

Note that in the above example we strip the spaces to the left of the main text, but we **do not** remove the spaces from the middle or right end of the text.

## 3.8 Lists

Lists allow us to store multiple objects together.

A list is a sequential group of variables, denoted in Python by square brackets [], with individual entries separated by commas. A few of the neat properties of lists are:

* **Ordered**: The list [1, 5, 3, 7] will always store those numbers in the same order.
* **Mixed data types**: ["mercury", 13, 5.3, False] is a valid list which contains every data type we’ve seen so far.
* **Can contain other lists**: [[2, 3], "sulfur", 12, 18]
* **Can contain repeat values**: ["tomato", "tomato", "tomato", "sulfur"]

### 3.8.1 Indexing

What if we want to extract a specific value from a list? We can use **indexing**. To index in Python, we use the following syntax:

variable\_name[index]

where index is the number of the item we wish to extract.

alchemists = ["Zosimos", "Oresme", "Flamel", "pseudo-Aristotle"]  
print(alchemists[1])

## Oresme

Notice that when we printed the item at position 1, we printed out the *second* entry in alchemists. This is because in Python, **indexing begins at 0**. To print out the first entry, we would use alchemists[0].

A couple interesting things we can do with indexing:

* To print multiple consecutive items, we can provie two numbers separated by a colon :.

print(alchemists[0:2])

## ['Zosimos', 'Oresme']

Note that the first number is **inclusive** and the second number is **exclusive**: we include the item at position 0 ('Zosimos'), but not the item at position 2 ('Flamel').

* We can index in reverse. To index from the end of a list, we use negative numbers.

print(alchemists[-1])

## pseudo-Aristotle

Nested lists

How would we extract the number 3 from the list below?

my\_list = [1, 2, [3, 4], 5]

First, we extract the [3, 4] list. This is the third item of the outer list, so it is at position 2 (remember, indexing in Python starts at 0). So we can access the interior list with my\_list[2]:

print(my\_list[2])

## [3, 4]

Within the interior list, 3 is the first item, so it is at position 0. It can be accessed with the syntax my\_list[2][0]:

print(my\_list[2][0])

## 3

#### 3.8.1.1 Indexing Strings

We can also apply indexing to extract substrings from within a string. This is done identically to how we index a list:

creature = 'stingray'  
print(creature[0:5])

## sting

### 3.8.2 Adding to lists

Finally, we can add entries to the end of a list. We do this with the append() method, which is used with the following syntax:

list\_name.append(item)

For example:

florilegium = ['marigold', 'thistle', 'wormwood']  
florilegium.append('tansy')  
print(florilegium)

## ['marigold', 'thistle', 'wormwood', 'tansy']

## 3.9 For Loops

In Python, we will often want to perform an action more than once. For example, if we have a list, we might want to do the same operatation on every item within the list.

One way to do this is to use a **for loop**, which is structured like this:

for <temporary\_variable> in <thing to loop through>:  
 {do something}

For example:

stations = ["Oddity", "Londres", "Cherry", "Swedish"]  
  
for i in stations:  
 print(i)

## Oddity  
## Londres  
## Cherry  
## Swedish

### 3.9.1 For loop walkthrough

Here is how the loop works:

for i in stations:

In this line, we:

* Define the temporary variable i. The name of this variable is arbitrary.
* We say that we are looping through stations.

In the first iteration of the for loop, i takes on the value of the first item in stations ("Oddity"). Now we perform all of the indented code, which here is just a print() statement.

In the second iteration of the for loop, we set the value of i to the second entry in stations ("Londres"). We execute all of the indented code, printing out "Londres".

We continue on doing this until there is nothing left in stations.

In this example, there was a single line in the body of the loop, but a for loop can be arbitrarily long. Here is a longer example:

my\_list = [1, 4, 6, 9, 10, 2]  
  
for i in my\_list:  
 i = i + 3  
 i = i \*\* 2  
 print(i)

## 16  
## 49  
## 81  
## 144  
## 169  
## 25

### 3.9.2 Repeating an action n times

We can also use a for loop to perform an action a set number of times, even when we don’t have a list to loop through. To do so, we can use the range() function. We’ll use this function a ton throughout the course.

range(<n>), where n is a single integer, generates a sequence of numbers from 0 to n (not including n itself). So to run a function 3 times, we would provide the for loop with range(3) (which generates the list [0, 1, 2]).

for i in range(3):  
 print(i)

## 0  
## 1  
## 2

So far, the body of our for loop has always referenced the temporary variable i. We can also use a for loop to run a block of code repeatedly without actually manipulating i:

for i in range(3):  
 print("All work and no play")

## All work and no play  
## All work and no play  
## All work and no play

## 3.10 Reading in Data and Text Parsing

***FILL***

## 3.11 Modules

Often, we need to make use of functions beyond the basic ones in Python. To do this, we can import a **module**, or a collection of pre-written functions. A module is imported with the following syntax:

import <module name>

For example, to import the popular plotting module Matplotlib, we write:

import matplotlib.pyplot

### 3.11.1 Module functions

To use a function from Matplotlib, we need to reference both the package name and the function name, with the general syntax:

moduleName.functionName()

To use Matplotlib’s show() function, we would write:

matplotlib.pyplot.show()

### 3.11.2 Abbreviating module names

What if you don’t want to write out matplotlib.pyplot every time you run a Matplotlib function? To simplify this, we can give our modules a shorthand name. For example:

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

Now, instead of writing out matplotlib.pyplot, we can just write plt. The previous matplotlib.pyplot.show() command is shortened to:

plt.show()

## 3.12 Plotting

In this course, we will use the library Matplotlib for plotting. For concision, we will import the matplotlib.pyplot module with the name plt, as such:

import matplotlib.pyplot as plt

## 3.13 Errors

# 4 Git

## 4.1 Tracking Changes

## 4.2 Ignoring Things

# Authors

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| --- | --- |
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| Template | [Jeff Leek](https://jtleek.com/) & [The Johns Hopkins Data Science Lab](https://jhudatascience.org/index.html) |
| Design Inspiration | [Ali Madooei](https://engineering.jhu.edu/faculty/ali-madooei/) & [JHU Data Structures](https://cs226sp22.github.io/) |
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## ─ Session info ───────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────  
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## version R version 4.0.2 (2020-06-22)  
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## system x86\_64, linux-gnu   
## ui X11   
## language (EN)   
## collate en\_US.UTF-8   
## ctype en\_US.UTF-8   
## tz Etc/UTC   
## date 2023-08-09   
##   
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## bookdown 0.24 2023-03-28 [1] Github (rstudio/bookdown@88bc4ea)   
## cachem 1.0.7 2023-02-24 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
## callr 3.5.0 2020-10-08 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.2)   
## cli 3.6.1 2023-03-23 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
## crayon 1.3.4 2017-09-16 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.0)   
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## devtools 2.3.2 2020-09-18 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.3)   
## digest 0.6.25 2020-02-23 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.0)   
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## evaluate 0.20 2023-01-17 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
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## jsonlite 1.7.1 2020-09-07 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.2)   
## knitr 1.33 2023-03-28 [1] Github (yihui/knitr@a1052d1)   
## lattice 0.20-41 2020-04-02 [2] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
## lifecycle 1.0.3 2022-10-07 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
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## reticulate 1.28 2023-01-27 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
## rlang 1.1.0 2023-03-14 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
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## rstudioapi 0.11 2020-02-07 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.0)   
## sessioninfo 1.1.1 2018-11-05 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.3)   
## stringi 1.5.3 2020-09-09 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.3)   
## stringr 1.4.0 2019-02-10 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.3)   
## testthat 3.0.1 2023-03-28 [1] Github (R-lib/testthat@e99155a)   
## tibble 3.2.1 2023-03-20 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
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## vctrs 0.6.1 2023-03-22 [1] CRAN (R 4.0.2)   
## withr 2.3.0 2020-09-22 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.2)   
## xfun 0.26 2023-03-28 [1] Github (yihui/xfun@74c2a66)   
## yaml 2.2.1 2020-02-01 [1] RSPM (R 4.0.3)   
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## [2] /usr/local/lib/R/library