Computational Biology

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Computational Evolution
Department of Biosystems Science and Engineering

HS 2023



Phylodynamics

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Continuous traits and comparative methods: Discuss questions.

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- ② In a Fisher's exact test, how would you calculate which values for one of the cells in the contingency table would lead to a rejection of the null hypothesis, given that row and column sums remain the same?
- Is the Brownian motion model a good model for all continuous traits? Could you imagine situations where this is not the case and which assumption in this model could be violated?
- ② Do you think it is a good strategy to first determine the species tree and then look at character evolution, or would a co-estimation of characters and the phylogeny make more sense?

Toolbox: Fisher's exact test II (Lecture 3)

Contingency table:

A B	B ₁	B ₂	
A ₁			a+b
A_2			c+d
	а+с	b+d	n= a+b+c+d

Hypothesis:

We want to test whether class A is linked to class B

Thus our null hypothesis is: \mathcal{H}_0 : The number of individuals expressing both A_1 and B_1 is based on chance.

The correct formulation of the null hypothesis is:

 \mathcal{H}_0 : The random variable of the number of individuals expressing both A_1 and B_1 is distributed according to a hypergeometric distribution

$$\text{ p-value} = \sum_{i=a}^{a+b} \frac{\binom{a+b}{i}\binom{c+d}{a+c-i}}{\binom{n}{a+c}}$$

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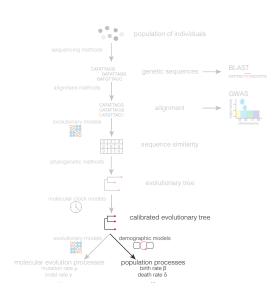
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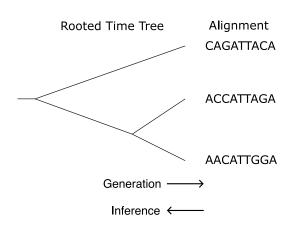
Overview



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What have we learned so far?



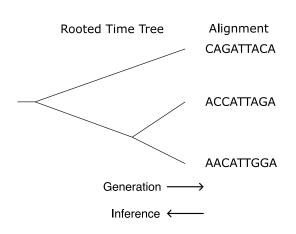
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What have we learned so far?



Question

What is the process that generated the phylogenetic tree?

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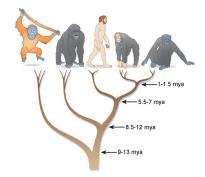
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Phylogenetic trees encode past macroevolutionary dynamics

Macroevolution: individuals = species



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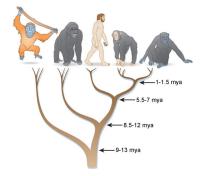
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Phylogenetic trees encode past macroevolutionary dynamics

Macroevolution: individuals = species

► (Molecular) Evolution (Genetic) makeup of species changes through time.



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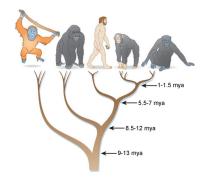
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Phylogenetic trees encode past macroevolutionary dynamics

Macroevolution: individuals = species

- ► (Molecular) Evolution (Genetic) makeup of species changes through time.
- ► Phylogenetics
 Phylogeny displays species relationships.



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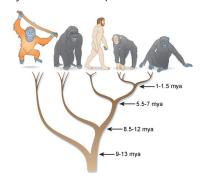
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Phylogenetic trees encode past macroevolutionary dynamics

Macroevolution: individuals = species

- ► (Molecular) Evolution (Genetic) makeup of species changes through time.
- Phylogenetics Phylogeny displays species relationships.
- Phylodynamics Population dynamics is the speciation and extinction process.



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Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

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Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

▶ Evolution

Pathogen is evolving through time.

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Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

Evolution

Pathogen is evolving through time.

Phylogenetics

Phylogeny displays transmission history.

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Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

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Pathogen is evolving through time.

Phylogenetics

Phylogeny displays transmission history.

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Population dynamics is the transmission and becoming non-infectious process.

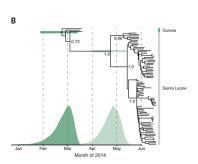


Figure adapted from [Gire et al., 2014]
Phylogenetic tree of Ebola in West Africa.

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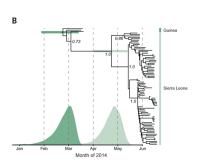


Figure adapted from [Gire et al., 2014]
Phylogenetic tree of Ebola in West Africa.

▶ What is the basic reproductive number R_0 of an emerging epidemic? (R_0 is the average number of secondary infections caused by a single infected individual at the start of an epidemic.)

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► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells

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- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
 - Phylogeny displays B cell differentiation (through somatic hypermutation).

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- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
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- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
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- ► Cancer: individuals = cells

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- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
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- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
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- ► Languages: individuals = languages

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► Population dynamics models the birth and death of individuals (species, infected hosts, B cells, cancer cells, languages).

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- ► Population dynamics models the birth and death of individuals (species, infected hosts, B cells, cancer cells, languages).
- ▶ The birth and death process gives rise to a phylogenetic tree.

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- ► Population dynamics models the birth and death of individuals (species, infected hosts, B cells, cancer cells, languages).
- ▶ The birth and death process gives rise to a phylogenetic tree.
- ▶ Phylodynamics aims to understand and quantify the population dynamics based on a phylogenetic tree. Today we quantify birth and death dynamics given the phylogenetic tree (and then also R_0).

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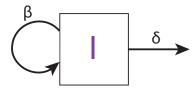
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Population dynamics



lacktriangle Rate of birth of new individuals per individual in I: eta

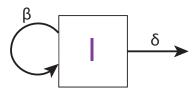
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- ► Rate of birth of new individuals per individual in I: β
- lacktriangle Rate of death per individual in I: δ

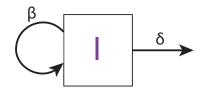
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- Pate of birth of new individuals per individual in I: β
- ightharpoonup Rate of death per individual in I: δ

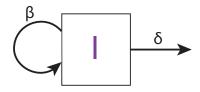
Such a process is called a (linear) birth-death process.

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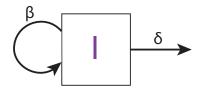
Consider the fate of one individual:

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Consider the fate of one individual:

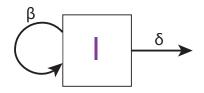
The probability of giving birth to another individual in a very small time step Δt is $\beta \Delta t$.

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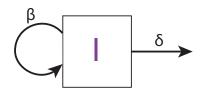
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Consider the fate of one individual:

- ► The probability of giving birth to another individual in a very small time step Δt is $\beta \Delta t$.
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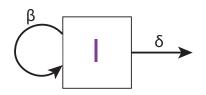


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Consider the fate of one individual:

- ► The probability of giving birth to another individual in a very small time step Δt is $\beta \Delta t$.
- ▶ The probability of dying in a very small time step Δt is $\delta \Delta t$.
- ► The waiting time to a birth event is exponentially distributed with parameter β .

Stochastic population dynamics



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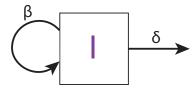
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Consider the fate of one individual:

- ► The probability of giving birth to another individual in a very small time step Δt is $\beta \Delta t$.
- ▶ The probability of dying in a very small time step Δt is $\delta \Delta t$.
- The waiting time to a birth event is exponentially distributed with parameter β .
- The waiting time to the first event (birth or death) is exponentially distributed with parameter $\beta + \delta$ (minimum of two exponentially distributed random variables with rates r_1, r_2 is exponentially distributed with the rate $r_1 + r_2$).

Stochastic population dynamics



Consider the fate of N individuals:

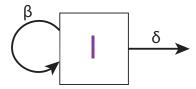
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Stochastic population dynamics



Consider the fate of N individuals:

► The waiting time to the first event (birth or death) is exponentially distributed with parameter $N(\beta + \delta)$.

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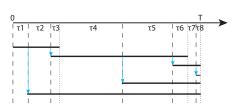
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From population dynamics to phylogenetic trees



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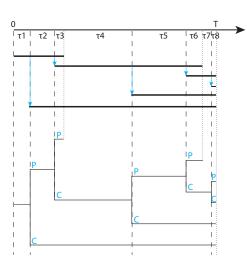


This diagram illustrates the full population dynamics of a birth-death process which starts with one individual and is stopped after time T. Each solid black line is the lifetime of an individual. Blue arrows are birth events.

From population dynamics to phylogenetic trees



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A complete population tree displays the full population dynamics. The labels P and C illustrate the parent-child associations.

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Phylodynamic models.

A phylodynamic model adds a sampling process of individuals to the population dynamics (sampling is equivalent to sequencing the individual and adding it to the phylogenetic tree). The simplest phylodynamic model is:

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Birth rate β

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- ightharpoonup Death rate δ

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A phylodynamic model adds a sampling process of individuals to the population dynamics (sampling is equivalent to sequencing the individual and adding it to the phylogenetic tree). The simplest phylodynamic model is:

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- Process duration T
- Extant tip sampling probability ρ

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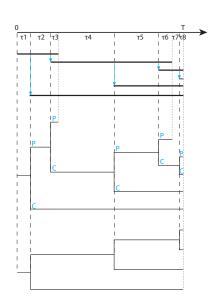
A phylodynamic model adds a sampling process of individuals to the population dynamics (sampling is equivalent to sequencing the individual and adding it to the phylogenetic tree). The simplest phylodynamic model is:

- Birth rate β
- ightharpoonup Death rate δ
- Process duration T
- Extant tip sampling probability ρ
- Extinct tip sampling probability φ

We will now assume $\rho=1, \ \varphi=0$. For macroevolution, that means no fossil sampling and complete extant species sampling. The subtree of the complete population tree connecting the sampled individuals, and ignoring the parent-children labels, is called the *phylogenetic tree*. The phylogenetic tree is the tree we infer from data.

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From population dynamics to phylogenetic trees



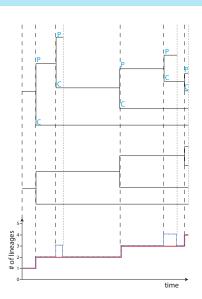
The phylogenetic tree with $\rho=1, \varphi=0$ displays the dynamics giving rise to the surviving individuals at time T

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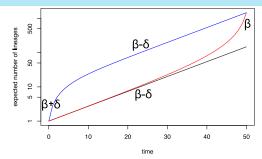
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Lineages-through-time plot



Plotting the number of lineages (y-axis) vs time (x-axis) is called the lineages-through-time (LTT) plot. The LTT plot of the complete tree (blue; dashed) shows the population size through time. The LTT plot of the phylogenetic tree (red) shows the number of surviving lineages through time.

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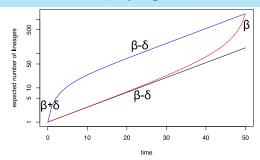


Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

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Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

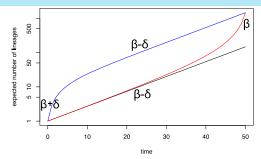
▶ Red: Average number of lineages in the phylogenetic tree.

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Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

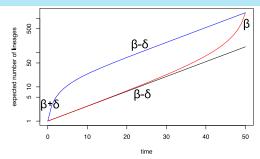
- ▶ Red: Average number of lineages in the phylogenetic tree.
- ▶ Blue: Average of surviving population trajectories.

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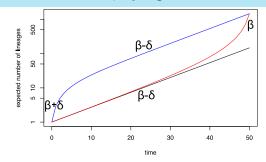
Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

- ▶ Red: Average number of lineages in the phylogenetic tree.
- ▶ Blue: Average of surviving population trajectories.
- ▶ Black: Exponential growth curve (linear with slope $\beta \delta$ on the log scale).

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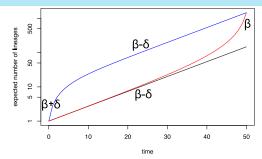


Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

- ▶ Red: Average number of lineages in the phylogenetic tree.
- ▶ Blue: Average of surviving population trajectories.
- ▶ Black: Exponential growth curve (linear with slope $\beta \delta$ on the log scale).

The early blue part is called push-of-the-past, the late red part is called pull-of-the-present [Nee et al., 1994a].

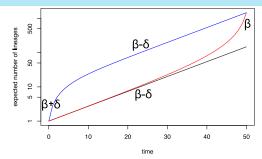
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We observe a push-of-the-past as only individuals with a quick replication early on will produce surviving populations. ntroduction

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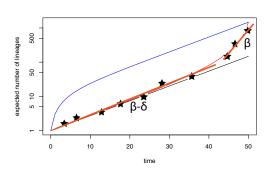


- We observe a push-of-the-past as only individuals with a quick replication early on will produce surviving populations.
- ► We observe the pull-of-the-present (i.e. an apparent acceleration in diversification towards the present) as the very recent lineages did not yet have time to go extinct.

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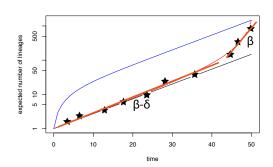


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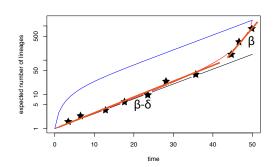


▶ We could fit a regression line to the early branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for $\beta - \delta$.

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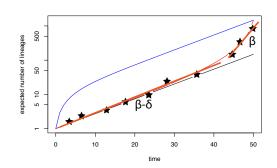
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- ▶ We could fit a regression line to the early branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for $\beta \delta$.
- ightharpoonup We could fit a regression line to the late branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for β .

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- ▶ We could fit a regression line to the early branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for $\beta \delta$.
- ightharpoonup We could fit a regression line to the late branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for β.
- ► <u>Problem:</u> It is not clear how to incorporate the variances into the regression, and how to choose the time interval for the two regression lines!

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Probabilities.

 $\qquad \qquad \textbf{Phylogenetic likelihood:} \ \ L(\mathfrak{T},Q) = P(A|\mathfrak{T},Q) \\$

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- ▶ Phylogenetic likelihood: $L(\mathfrak{T}, Q) = P(A|\mathfrak{T}, Q)$
- $\qquad \qquad \text{Phylodynamic likelihood: } L(\eta = (\beta, \delta, T)) = P(\mathfrak{T}|\eta)$

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- ▶ Phylogenetic likelihood: $L(\mathfrak{I}, Q) = P(A|\mathfrak{I}, Q)$
- Phylodynamic likelihood: $L(\eta = (\beta, \delta, T)) = P(T|\eta)$

We aim to determine the maximum likelihood estimate for the parameters (β, δ, T) , given a phylogenetic tree. Note that in this lecture, the age of the process T is assumed to be fixed to a known value (this will be relaxed in lecture 11).

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- ▶ Phylogenetic likelihood: $L(\mathfrak{I}, Q) = P(A|\mathfrak{I}, Q)$
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The work on the phylodynamic likelihood began in the 1990s in Oxford [Nee et al., 1994b].

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- ▶ Phylogenetic likelihood: $L(\mathfrak{T}, Q) = P(A|\mathfrak{T}, Q)$
- Phylodynamic likelihood: $L(\eta = (\beta, \delta, T)) = P(T|\eta)$

We aim to determine the maximum likelihood estimate for the parameters (β, δ, T) , given a phylogenetic tree. Note that in this lecture, the age of the process T is assumed to be fixed to a known value (this will be relaxed in lecture 11).

The work on the phylodynamic likelihood began in the 1990s in Oxford [Nee et al., 1994b].

In order to do maximum likelihood estimation, we now derive $P(\mathfrak{I}|\eta)$. This requires us to first derive the probability of a single individual after time t leaving 0 or 1 offspring, we denote this by $\mathfrak{p}(0|t,\beta,\delta)$ and $\mathfrak{p}(1|t,\beta,\delta)$.

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Probability of extinction, p(0|t)

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Suppose you start the birth-death process with one individual. What is the probability that no surviving individuals remains after time t $(p(0|t,\beta,\delta))$?

Probability of extinction, p(0|t)

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Suppose you start the birth-death process with one individual. What is the probability that no surviving individuals remains after time t ($p(0|t, \beta, \delta)$)?

On the following pages we will use the abbreviated notation $p(0|t) := p(0|t, \beta, \delta)$.

Probability of extinction p(0|t)

(This is very similar to the derivation of transition probabilities for the substitution models.)



ightharpoonup Consider a small timestep Δt during which only one event occurs.

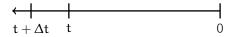
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Probability of extinction p(0|t)

(This is very similar to the derivation of transition probabilities for the substitution models.)



- Consider a small timestep Δt during which only one event occurs.
- ▶ During that time step, for a single individual, a death event happens with probability $\delta\Delta t$, and a birth event happens with probability $\beta\Delta t$. No event happens with probability $1-(\beta+\delta)\Delta t$.

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Probability of extinction p(0|t)

(This is very similar to the derivation of transition probabilities for the substitution models.)



- Consider a small timestep Δt during which only one event occurs.
- ▶ During that time step, for a single individual, a death event happens with probability $\delta\Delta t$, and a birth event happens with probability $\beta\Delta t$. No event happens with probability $1-(\beta+\delta)\Delta t$.
- The resulting individual(s) after time Δt have probability p(0|t) to go extinct within time interval t.

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Thus:

$$p(0|t+\Delta t) = (1-(\beta+\delta)\Delta t)p(0|t) + \delta \Delta t + \beta \Delta t p(0|t)^2.$$

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Thus:

$$p(0|t+\Delta t) = (1-(\beta+\delta)\Delta t)p(0|t) + \delta \Delta t + \beta \Delta t p(0|t)^2.$$

Rearranging leads to:

$$\frac{p(0|t+\Delta t)-p(0|t)}{\Delta t} = -(\beta+\delta)p(0|t) + \delta + \beta p(0|t)^2.$$

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Taking the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ leads to:

$$\frac{d}{dt}p(0|t) = -(\beta+\delta)p(0|t) + \delta + \beta p(0|t)^2.$$

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Taking the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ leads to:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p(0|t) = -(\beta + \delta)p(0|t) + \delta + \beta p(0|t)^{2}.$$

The initial condition is p(0|0) = 0.

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Solution for p(0|t)

$$\begin{split} \frac{d}{dt}p(0|t) &=& -(\beta+\delta)p(0|t)+\delta+\beta p(0|t)^2,\\ p(0|0) &=& 0. \end{split}$$

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Solution for p(0|t)

$$\frac{d}{dt}p(0|t) = -(\beta + \delta)p(0|t) + \delta + \beta p(0|t)^2,$$

$$p(0|0) = 0.$$

The solution to this differential equation is

$$p(0|t) = \frac{\delta(1 - e^{-(\beta - \delta)t})}{\beta - \delta e^{-(\beta - \delta)t}}$$

which can easily be verified by differentiating the expression to obtain $\frac{d}{dt}p(0|t)$, and substituting $\frac{d}{dt}p(0|t)$ and p(0|t) into the differential equation.

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Probability of n descendants, p(n|t)

In general, the probability to obtain n surviving lineages after time t, $p(n|t; \beta, \delta)$ (for which we again write short p(n|t)), is [Kendall et al., 1948] (Eqn. 16),

$$\begin{array}{lcl} p(0|t) & = & \displaystyle \frac{\delta(1-e^{-(\beta-\delta)t})}{\beta-\delta e^{-(\beta-\delta)t}} \\ p(1|t) & = & \displaystyle e^{-(\beta-\delta)t}(1-p(0|t))^2 \\ p(n|t) & = & \displaystyle p(1|t)\left(\frac{\beta}{\delta}p(0|t)\right)^{n-1} & \text{for } n\geqslant 2. \end{array}$$

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Probability of n descendants, p(n|t)

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We now provide a proof for p(1|t). A proof for p(n|t) can be obtained using an induction (provided in script).

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Probability of 1 descendant, p(1|t)

▶ In order to prove the equation for p(1|t), we write the differential equation analogously to p(0|t),

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p(1|t) = -(\beta + \delta)p(1|t) + 2\beta p(1|t)p(0|t)$$

with initial condition p(1|0) = 1.

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Probability of 1 descendant, p(1|t)

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► The factor of 2 in the differential equation for p(1|t) accounts for either one of the descendants of the birth event leading to the surviving individual after time t.

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Probability of 1 descendant, p(1|t)

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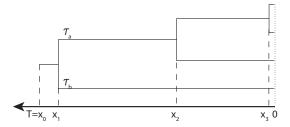
with initial condition p(1|0) = 1.

- ► The factor of 2 in the differential equation for p(1|t) accounts for either one of the descendants of the birth event leading to the surviving individual after time t.
- Evaluating the left- and right-hand side of the differential equation using $p(1|t) = e^{-(\beta-\delta)t}(1-p(0|t))^2$ shows that this function is a solution to the differential equation.

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Probability density of a tree, $P(\mathfrak{I}|x_0)$



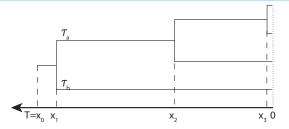
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Probability density of a tree, $P(\mathfrak{I}|x_0)$



► Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).

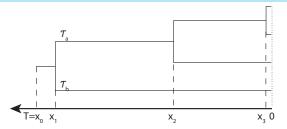
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Probability density of a tree, $P(\mathfrak{T}|x_0)$



- ► Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).
- ▶ We take a dynamic programming approach.

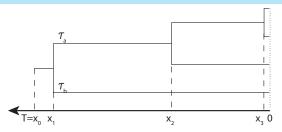
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Probability density of a tree, $P(\mathfrak{T}|x_0)$



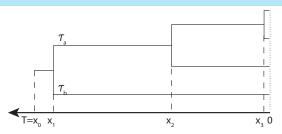
- ► Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).
- ▶ We take a dynamic programming approach.
- Let $p(x_0, x_1)$ be the probability density for a branch of length $x_0 x_1$ extending from an individual at time x_0 in the past.

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Probability density of a tree, $P(\mathfrak{T}|x_0)$



- Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).
- ▶ We take a dynamic programming approach.
- Let $p(x_0, x_1)$ be the probability density for a branch of length $x_0 x_1$ extending from an individual at time x_0 in the past.
- ▶ Then, the probability density of a tree \Im with age x_0 is,

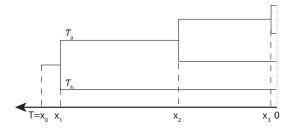
$$p(\mathfrak{I}|x_0)=p(x_0,x_1)\beta p(\mathfrak{T}_\alpha|x_1)p(\mathfrak{T}_b|x_1)$$
 with
$$p(\mathfrak{I}|x):=p(\mathfrak{I}|\eta=(\beta,\delta,T=x)).$$

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Probability of a branch, $p(x_0, x_1)$

We calculate the probability of the branch between t and x_1 , $p(t, x_1)$.

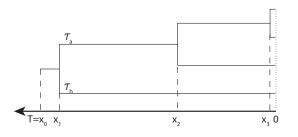


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Probability of a branch, $p(x_0, x_1)$

We calculate the probability of the branch between t and x_1 , $p(t, x_1)$.



- $p(t + \Delta t, x_1) = (1 (\beta + \delta)\Delta t)p(t, x_1) + 2\beta\Delta tp(t, x_1)p(0|t),$
- $ightharpoonup p(x_1, x_1) = 1.$

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Probability density of a branch, $p(x_0, x_1)$

► This leads to the differential equation:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p(t,x_1) = -(\beta + \delta)p(t,x_1) + 2\beta p(t,x_1)p(0|t).$$

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Probability density of a branch, $p(x_0, x_1)$

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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p(t,x_1) = -(\beta + \delta)p(t,x_1) + 2\beta p(t,x_1)p(0|t).$$

▶ This is the same differential equation as for p(1|t).

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Probability density of a branch, $p(x_0, x_1)$

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$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p(t,x_1) = -(\beta + \delta)p(t,x_1) + 2\beta p(t,x_1)p(0|t).$$

- ▶ This is the same differential equation as for p(1|t).
- ▶ As the initial condition is different $(p(x_1, x_1) = 1)$, we have

$$p(x_0, x_1) = p(1|x_0)/p(1|x_1).$$

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Probability density of a tree, $p(\mathfrak{T}|x_0)$

For a tree on n present day tips, age of the process x_0 , and branching times $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}$, we have the probability density

$$p(\mathfrak{I}|x_0)=p(x_0,x_1)\beta p(\mathfrak{I}_{\alpha}|x_1)p(\mathfrak{I}_{b}|x_1)=\beta^{\mathfrak{n}-1}\prod_{i=0}p(1|x_i).$$

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Probability density of a tree, $p(\mathfrak{T}|x_0)$

For a tree on n present day tips, age of the process x_0 , and branching times $x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_{n-1}$, we have the probability density

$$p(\mathfrak{I}|x_0)=p(x_0,x_1)\beta p(\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{a}}|x_1)p(\mathfrak{I}_{\mathfrak{b}}|x_1)=\beta^{\mathfrak{n}-1}\prod_{\mathfrak{i}=0}p(1|x_{\mathfrak{i}}).$$

Analogous strategy provides us with a tree probability density when $\rho < 1$ (incomplete extant sampling) and $\phi > 0$ (sampling through time).

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▶ In each epidemic, it is crucial to know the basic reproductive number R_0 . This is the number of secondary infections caused by a single infected individual in a susceptible population. The number indicates the amount of public health effort for containing the epidemic, i.e. pushing the number of secondary infections below 1.

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- ▶ By August 2014, 72 Ebola genomes from different patients in a Sierra Leone outbreak were available [Gire et al., 2014]. The publication also included the phylogenetic tree.

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- ▶ In each epidemic, it is crucial to know the basic reproductive number R₀. This is the number of secondary infections caused by a single infected individual in a susceptible population. The number indicates the amount of public health effort for containing the epidemic, i.e. pushing the number of secondary infections below 1.
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- We wanted to calculate the basic reproductive number based on these trees.
- As it was early in the epidemic, they assumed a constant β (transmission rate) and δ (becoming-uninfectious rate, ending with recovery or death).

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- ► The data were sampled through time, i.e. $\rho = 0$ but $\phi = 0.7$.

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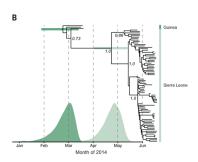


Figure adapted from [Gire et al., 2014] Phylogenetic tree of Ebola in West Africa.

We obtained the maximum likelihood estimates $\hat{\beta}$ and $\hat{\delta}$ using the phylodynamic likelihood, and thus estimated $R_0 = \hat{\beta}/\hat{\delta} = 1.34$ (Cl 1.12–1.55) [Stadler et al., 2014].

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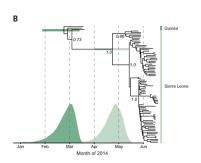


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- ▶ Bayesian methods improve these estimates (lecture 11).

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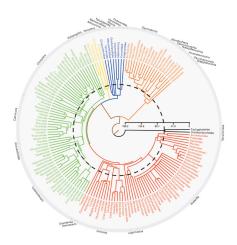


Figure adapted from [Bininda-Emonds et al., 2007]

Phylogenetic tree of mammalian families. Dinosaur extinction (65 million years ago) is marked with a black dashed circle.

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▶ Did mammals only start diversifying rapidly after the extinction of dinosaurs?

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- ▶ Did mammals only start diversifying rapidly after the extinction of dinosaurs?
- ► The diversification of mammals after the extinction of dinosaurs is supported by most mammalian fossils dating from a time after the dinosaur extinction.

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- ▶ Did mammals only start diversifying rapidly after the extinction of dinosaurs?
- ► The diversification of mammals after the extinction of dinosaurs is supported by most mammalian fossils dating from a time after the dinosaur extinction.
- ▶ Does the phylogeny also support elevated diversification after the dinosaur extinction?

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- ▶ Did mammals only start diversifying rapidly after the extinction of dinosaurs?
- ► The diversification of mammals after the extinction of dinosaurs is supported by most mammalian fossils dating from a time after the dinosaur extinction.
- ▶ Does the phylogeny also support elevated diversification after the dinosaur extinction?
- ▶ Birth-death model is extended to allow for changes in parameters through time: we have constant rates until time t₁, then change to other constant rates until time t₂, etc.

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- ▶ Did mammals only start diversifying rapidly after the extinction of dinosaurs?
- ► The diversification of mammals after the extinction of dinosaurs is supported by most mammalian fossils dating from a time after the dinosaur extinction.
- ▶ Does the phylogeny also support elevated diversification after the dinosaur extinction?
- ▶ Birth-death model is extended to allow for changes in parameters through time: we have constant rates until time t₁, then change to other constant rates until time t₂, etc.
- ➤ Speciation and extinction rates were estimated in [Stadler, 2011] using a mammal phylogeny [Bininda-Emonds et al., 2007].

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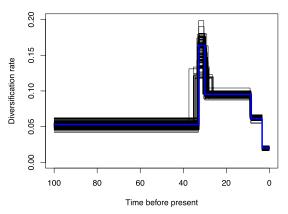


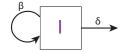
Figure adapted from [Stadler, 2011]

Maximum likelihood diversification rate $\beta-\delta$ through time (blue). The black lines are parametric bootstrap intervals: birth-death trees were simulated using the maximum likelihood parameters, and then the diversification rate was re-estimated and plotted in black. We find no signal for elevated diversification upon dinosaur extinction (65 Ma).

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► Aim: Determine the birth (speciation / transmission / cell replication) and death (extinction / recovery / cell death) dynamics from a phylogenetic tree.

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- ► Aim: Determine the birth (speciation / transmission / cell replication) and death (extinction / recovery / cell death) dynamics from a phylogenetic tree.
- ► *Method:* The phylodynamic likelihood is maximized to obtain maximum likelihood birth and death rates.

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- ► Aim: Determine the birth (speciation / transmission / cell replication) and death (extinction / recovery / cell death) dynamics from a phylogenetic tree.
- ► *Method:* The phylodynamic likelihood is maximized to obtain maximum likelihood birth and death rates.
- ► Extensions allow us to incorporate complex models; here we showed rate variation through time in the mammal example.

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Phylodynamic birth-death models: Questions

- How does the approximate number of steps required to calculate the phylodynamic likelihood depend on the number of leaves in a phylogenetic tree? (I.e. what is the time complexity of this calculation?)
- What kind of population dynamic process could a decrease in slope in the LTT plot reflect?
- ② Assume a birth-death process where each individual at present is sampled with probability ρ . How is the derivation of $\mathfrak{p}(0|t,\rho)$, the probability of sampling no individual at present, different compared to the derivation of $\mathfrak{p}(0|t)$?

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