



Stochastic models of finite populations

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Let's gamble!

- You play against the bank.
- In each round, a fair coin is flipped and the loser pays 1 SFr to the winner.
- The game ends when one party has nothing left.
- Are you willing to play?







Let's gamble!

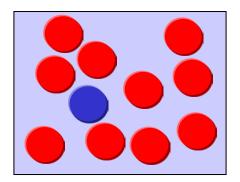
- You play against the bank.
- In each round, a fair coin is flipped and the loser pays 1 SFr to the winner.
- The game ends when one party has nothing left.
- Are you willing to play?
- Your fate is well-known in probability theory as the gambler's ruin.
- The reason is that a random walk goes somewhere.

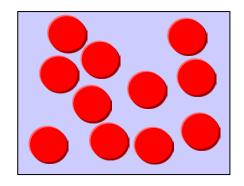


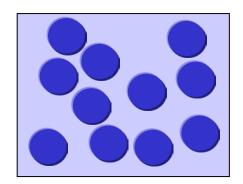




Finite populations











Outline

- Some basic probability
- Markov chains
- Moran process
- Birth-death process
- Fixation probability
- Mean fixation time
- Moran process with selection





Conditional probabilities

- Let X and Y be (discrete) random variables with probability distributions P(X) and P(Y).
- The joint probability of X and Y is denoted P(X,Y).
- The conditional probability of X given Y is

$$P(X \mid Y) = \frac{P(X,Y)}{P(Y)}$$





Bayes' theorem

- X and Y are independent, if P(Y | X) = P(Y).
- Bayes' theorem states that

$$P(Y \mid X) = \frac{P(X \mid Y)P(Y)}{P(X)}$$

P(Y | X) is the posterior probability, P(Y) is the prior probability

• If $y_1, ..., y_n$ are disjoint outcomes of Y, then for any r.v. X, we can write $P(X) = \sum_{i=1,...,n} P(X \mid Y = y_i) P(Y = y_i)$ and hence

$$P(Y \mid X) = \frac{P(X \mid Y)P(Y)}{\sum_{i} P(X \mid y_i)P(y_i)}$$





The law of total probability

 "The prior probability is equal to the expected value of the posterior probability"

$$P(X = x) = \sum_{y} P(X = x, Y = y)$$

= $\sum_{y} P(X = x \mid Y = y) P(Y = y)$
= $E_{Y}[P(X = x \mid Y)]$

so $P(X) = E_Y[P(X | Y)]$ for any r.v. Y.

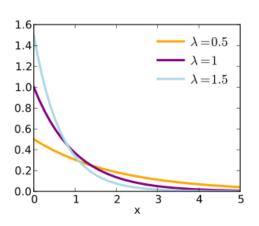




The exponential distribution

• A continuous random variable X is exponentially distributed with parameter $\lambda > 0$ if its density function is

$$f(x) = \lambda e^{-\lambda x}, \quad x \ge 0$$



The cumulative and tail probabilities are

$$P(X \le x) = \int_0^x \lambda e^{-\lambda y} dy = 1 - e^{-\lambda x}$$

$$P(X > x) = 1 - P(X \le x) = e^{-\lambda x}$$



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Moments of the exponential distribution

Expectation

$$E(X) = \int_0^\infty x f(x) \, dx = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

Variance

$$V(X) = E(X^2) - E(X)^2 = \frac{1}{\lambda^2}$$



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Memoryless property

- A random variable X is memoryless if for all s, t > 0,
 P(X > s + t | X > t) = P(X > s)
- If X is a failure time, it means that the chance to fail in the next moment is always the same, no matter when.
- Because (X > s + t, X > t) is equivalent to just (X > s + t), the memoryless property is equivalent to P(X > s + t) = P(X > t) P(X > s)
- The exponential distribution is memoryless:

$$P(X > s + t) = exp{-\lambda(t + s)}$$

= exp(-\lambdat) exp(-\lambdas)
= P(X > t) P(X > s)





Competing exponentials

- We write X ~ Exp(λ) if X is an exponential random variable with rate λ.
- Consider $X \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$ and $Y \sim \text{Exp}(\mu)$.
- Assume that X and Y are independent, i.e., P(X | Y) = P(X). Then:

$$\min(X,Y) \sim \mathsf{Exp}(\lambda + \mu)$$

and

$$P(X < Y) = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda + \mu} \quad \text{(competing exponentials)}$$





Markov chains

- A stochastic process is an indexed collection of random variables {X(t) | t ∈ T} with common state space S.
- X(t) is the state of the process at time t.
- Stochastic processes can be discrete or continuous in both time and state space.
- A discrete-time Markov chain is a stochastic process {X(t)}
 with T = {0, 1, 2, ...}, in which each next state only depends on the current state, that is

$$P(X(t+1) | X(0), ..., X(t)) = P(X(t+1) | X(t))$$





Transition matrix

- The transition matrix P of a Markov chain {X(t)} is defined by P_{ij}(t) = P(X(t + 1) = j | X(t) = i).
- The Markov chain is time-homogeneous if P_{ij} does not depend on t for all i and j.
- A state x^* is an absorbing state if $X(t) = x^*$ for all $t \ge t_0$.





Ergodicity

- A Markov chain is ergodic if it is
 - aperiodic (return to any state is always possible),
 - 2) irreducible (any state is accessible from any other), and
 - 3) positive recurrent (any state will eventually be reached with probability 1 and the mean recurrence time is finite).
- An ergodic Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution $\Pi = (\pi_i)_{i \in \mathcal{S}}$ such that

$$P_{ij}(t) o \pi_j$$
 as $t o \infty$

for all $i, j \in \mathcal{S}$, and

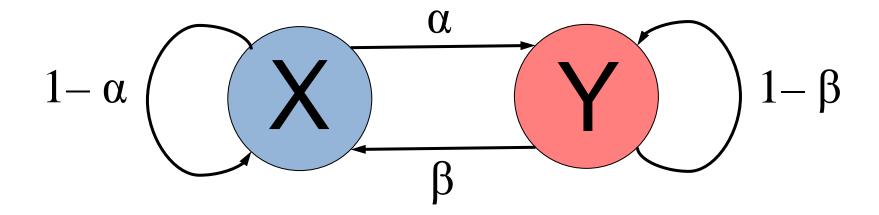
$$\Pi'P = \Pi'$$

where Π ' denotes the transpose of Π .





Example of a two-state Markov chain



$$P = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 1 - \alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & 1 - \beta \end{array}\right)$$

$$\Pi' = \Pi'P \iff \pi_X = \frac{\beta}{\alpha + \beta}, \ \pi_Y = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha + \beta}$$

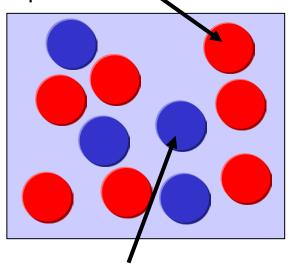




The Moran process

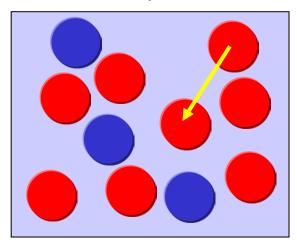
 We consider a finite population of constant size N with individuals of two types, A and B.

choose an individual for reproduction



.. and one for death

the offspring of the first individual replaces the second









Patrick Alfred Pierce Moran (1917-1988)



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The Moran process defines a Markov chain

- The state space is i = 0, ..., N, the number of A individuals.
- Let p = i / N be the allele frequency of A.
- The transition matrix is given by

$$P_{i,i+1} = p(1-p)$$

 $P_{i,i-1} = (1-p)p$
 $P_{i,i} = p^2 + (1-p)^2$

All other entries are zero. P is a tri-diagonal matrix.

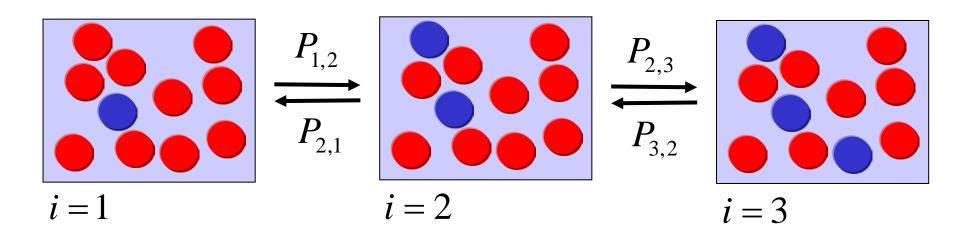
 Both types have the same probability of reproduction and death. The changes in allele frequency are only due to random fluctuations, a phenomenon called neutral drift.





The Moran process is a birth-death process

 Because P is tri-diagonal, the number of A individuals can change only by one in each step. A stochastic process with this property is called a birth-death process.



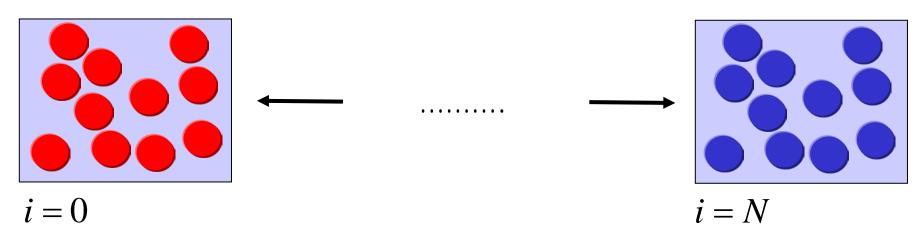




Absorbing states

- For the Moran process, we have
 - $P_{0.0} = 1$ and $P_{0.i} = 0$ for all i > 0
 - $P_{N,N} = 1$ and $P_{N,i} = 0$ for all i < N

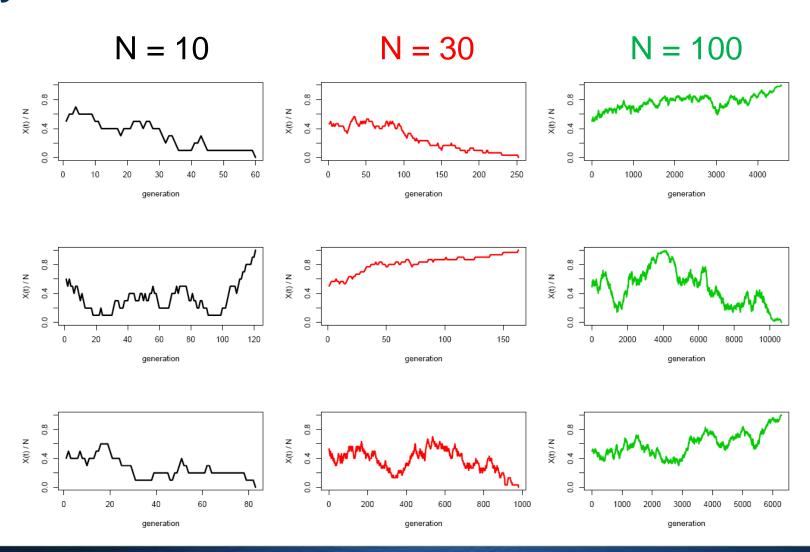
There are two absorbing states: all-red and all-blue







Dynamics

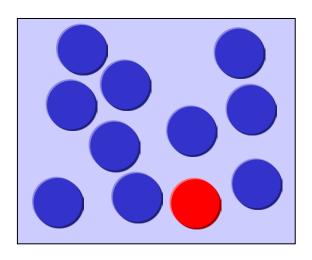






Fixation probabilities

- Let x_i be the probability of ending up in state N when starting from state i.
- Clearly, x_i = i / N for all i = 0, ..., N, because each allele has the same chance of being fixated.







Absorption probabilities in a birth-death process

- We consider a more general birth-death process with transition probabilities $P_{i,i+1} = \alpha_i$ and $P_{i,i-1} = \beta_i$.
- Assume that 0 and N are absorbing states, $\alpha_0 = \beta_N = 0$.
- Set $\gamma_i = \beta_i / \alpha_i$. Then:

$$x_i = \frac{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} \prod_{k=1}^{j} \gamma_k}{1 + \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \prod_{k=1}^{j} \gamma_k}$$

is the probability of ending in state N (all-A) when starting in state i.





Mean fixation time

 In the Moran process, for large population sizes, the mean fixation time is

$$-N^{2}[(1-p)\log(1-p)+p\log p]$$

generations (steps consisting of one reproduction and one death).

- The diversity (or heterozygosity) of the population
 H(t) = 2 (X(t)/N) (1 X(t)/N)
 decays approximately exponentially at rate 2 / N².
- This rate quantifies the amount of random genetic drift that the population is experiencing.





Moran process with constant selection

- Consider exponentially distributed waiting times to the reproduction of a type A and type B individual with rates $\lambda_A = r$ and $\lambda_B = 1$, respectively.
 - If r > 1, then A has a fitness advantage over B.
 - If r = 1, we have the neutral process again.
- The waiting times to the next birth are
 - $T_A \sim \min \{ Exp(\lambda_A), ..., Exp(\lambda_A) \} = Exp(i\lambda_A)$
 - $T_B \sim Exp((N-i)\lambda_B)$.
- T_A and T_B are competing exponentials:

$$P(T_A < T_B) = \frac{ri}{ri + (N-i)}$$

$$P(T_A > T_B) = \frac{N-i}{ri + (N-i)}$$





Transition probabilities

$$P_{i,i+1} = \frac{ri}{ri+N-i} \frac{N-i}{N}$$

$$P_{i,i-1} = \frac{N-i}{ri+N-i} \frac{i}{N}$$

$$P_{i,i} = 1 - P_{i,i+1} - P_{i,i-1}$$



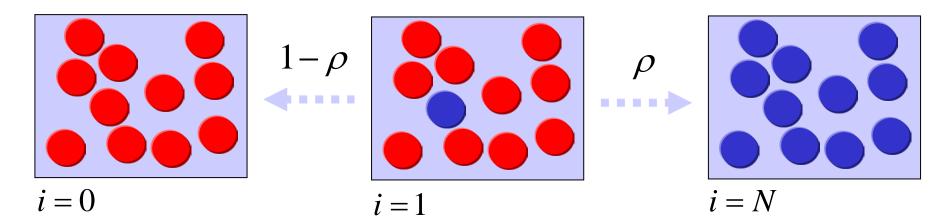


Fixation probabilities

• Because $\gamma_i = P_{i,i-1} / P_{i,i+1} = 1/r$, we find the absorption probabilities, or *fixation probabilities*

$$x_i = rac{1 - 1/r^i}{1 - 1/r^N}$$

$$\rho = X_1$$







Poisson process

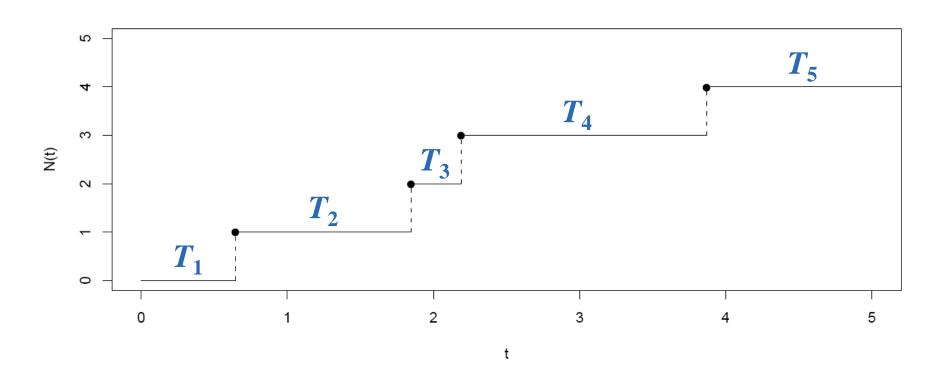
- A Poisson process is a stochastic counting process:
- A Poisson process is a continuous-time Markov chain with independent Poisson distributions in each interval.
- More precisely, {N(t) | t ≥ 0} is a Poisson process if
 - N(0) = 0
 - The number of events in an interval depends only on the length of the interval, and the number of events in disjoint intervals are independent.
 - The number of events in each interval of length t is Poisson distributed with mean λt,

$$P(N(t+s) - N(s) = k) = e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^k}{k!}$$





Inter-arrival times





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Inter-arrival times of a Poisson process are exponential

- Let $\{T_n \mid n = 1, 2, ...\}$ be the inter-arrival times.
- $T_1 \sim Exp(\lambda)$, because

$$P(T_1 > t) = P(N(t) = 0) = e^{-\lambda t}$$

By the law of total probability,

$$P(T_2 > t) = E_{T_1}[P(T_2 > t) | T_1)]$$

$$= \int_s P[N(s+t) = N(s) | T_1 = s] f_{T_1}(s) ds$$

$$= \int_s P(N(t) = 0) f_{T_1}(s) ds$$

$$= e^{-\lambda t}$$





The rate of evolution

- Consider an all-A population where a B mutant occurs rarely at mutation rate u.
- The Poisson process is a good model for counting the mutations. In particular, T₁ ~ Exp(Nu).
- Suppose that type B has a selective advantage r. Then the fixation probability is $\rho = x_1$.
- The rate of evolution from all-A to all-B is

$$R = Nu\rho$$

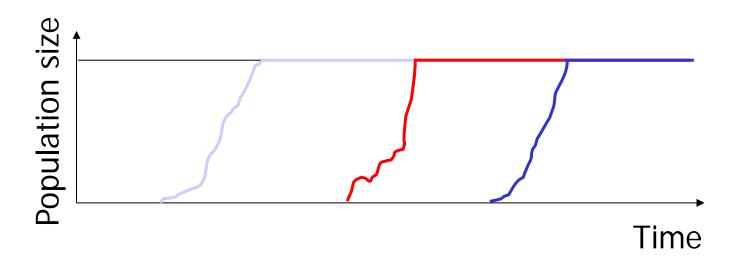
• If B is neutral, then $\rho = 1/N$ and R = u, the mutation rate.





The molecular clock of neutral evolution

 If u is constant, then neutral mutations accumulate at a constant rate R = u, independent of population size.



 The Neutral Theory of Molecular Evolution, Motoo Kimura, 1993.





Summary

- The Moran process is a birth-death process, an integervalued Markov chain that changes by at most 1 in each step.
- The Moran process with two types has two absorbing states: fixation and extinction.
- In the Moran process, we can calculate analytically the fixation probability of a neutral and of a selectively advantageous mutant.
- In the neutral case, we can also determine the time scale of this process.
- Exercises: #7, #8, #9, #10