

Lecture 2: Review of basic maths

Population genetic PCB4553/6685

Part 1: Probability

- Evolution is fundamentally a random process.
 - Mendelian transmission is random
 - Mutation is random
 - Mating and reproduction is random
 - Allele frequency changes in finite population is a random process
 - Many results in popgen rely on probabilistic processes in their core arguments

Random variables

- A random variable X , roughly, is a variable that takes on values drawn randomly from a sample space, with the likelihood of each outcome specified by some function
 - Example: a six-sided die
 - Sample space: set of all possible outcomes, e.g. $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}$
 - Probability of each number occurring is $1/6$

Types of random variables

- Discrete random variables take on a countable number of values

- Probability *mass* function

- $\mathbb{P}[X = x_i] = p_i$ “the probability that X equals x_i is p_i ”

- Continuous random variables, which can take on values on a continuum, e.g. real number line

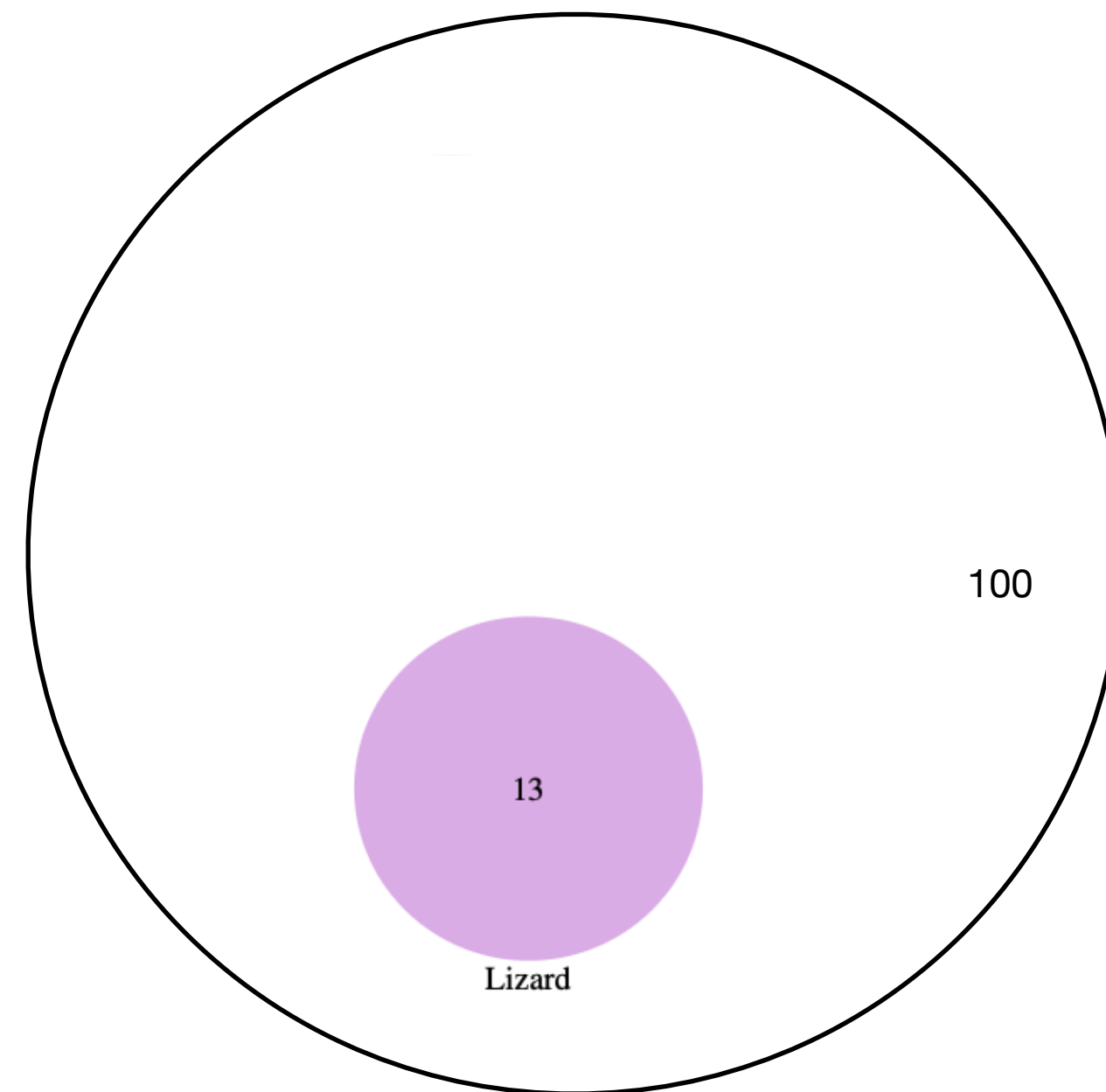
- Examples: height of a person, time until the next incoming call, etc.

- Probability *density* function

- $\mathbb{P}[a \leq X \leq b] = \int_a^b p(x) dx$ “the probability that X is interval $[a, b]$ equals the area under the curve $p(x)$ from a to b ”

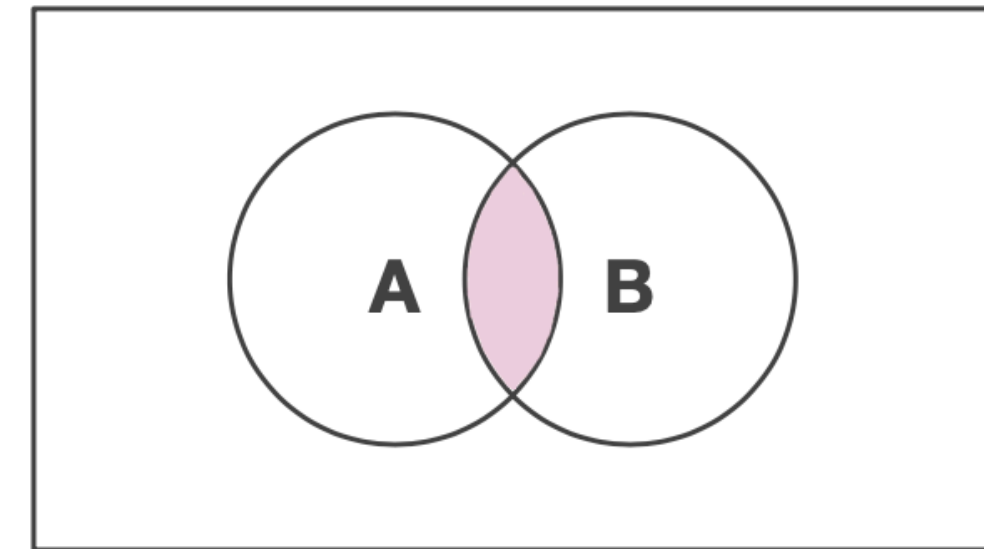
Events

- An event is a subset of the sample space
- Example 1: “a 6-sided die lands on an even number” = $\{2,4,6\} \subset \{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- Example 2: “a person’s height is between 160 and 165cm” = $[160, 165] \subset \mathbb{R}^+$

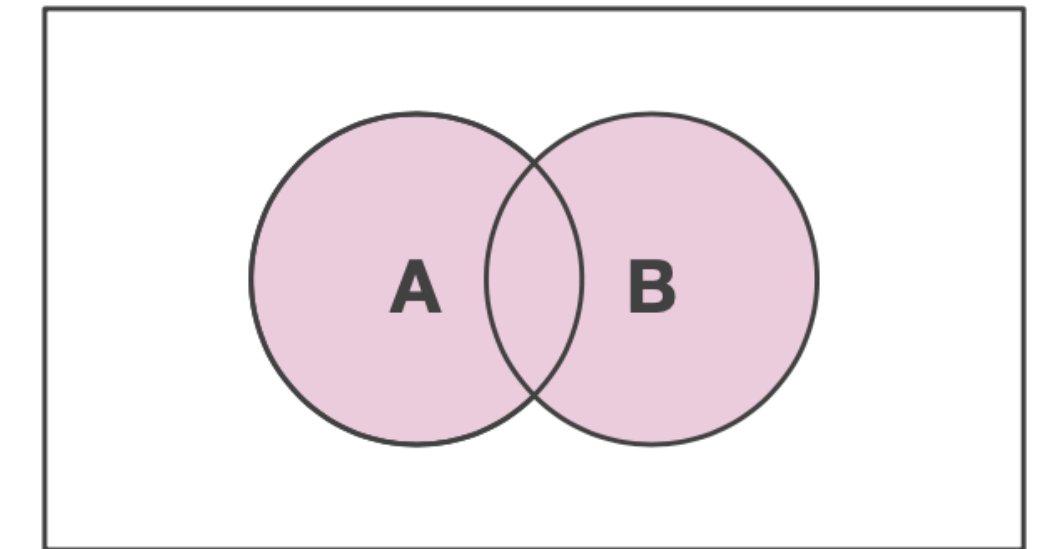


Algebra of events

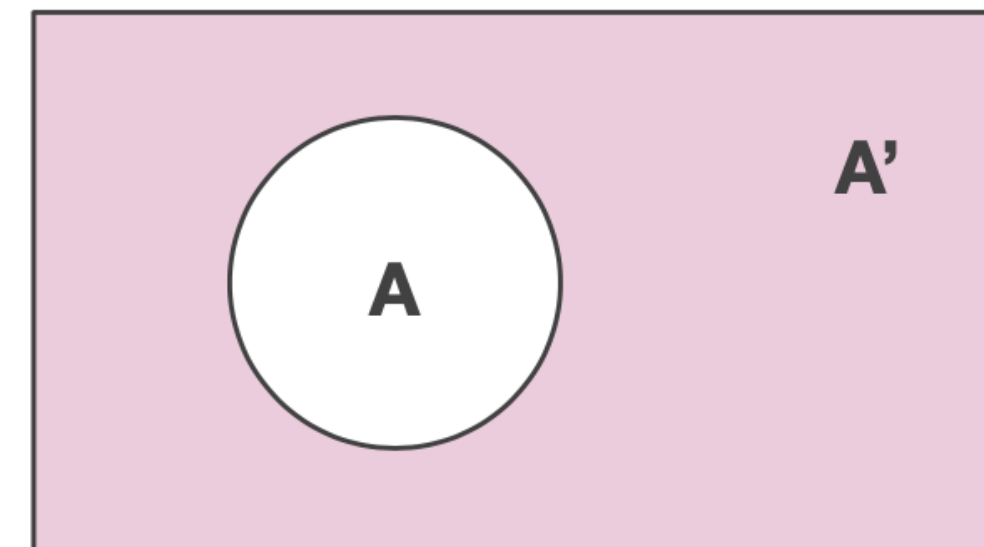
- $P(A) = 1 - P(A')$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B)$ if $A \cap B = \emptyset$
- $P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$, if $A \cap B \neq \emptyset$



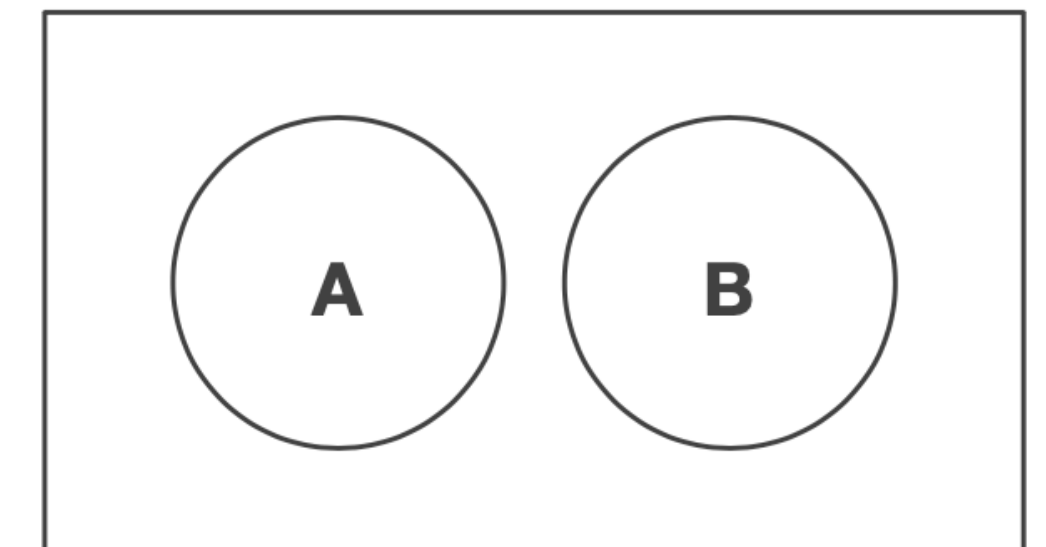
intersection: $A \cap B$



union: $A \cup B$



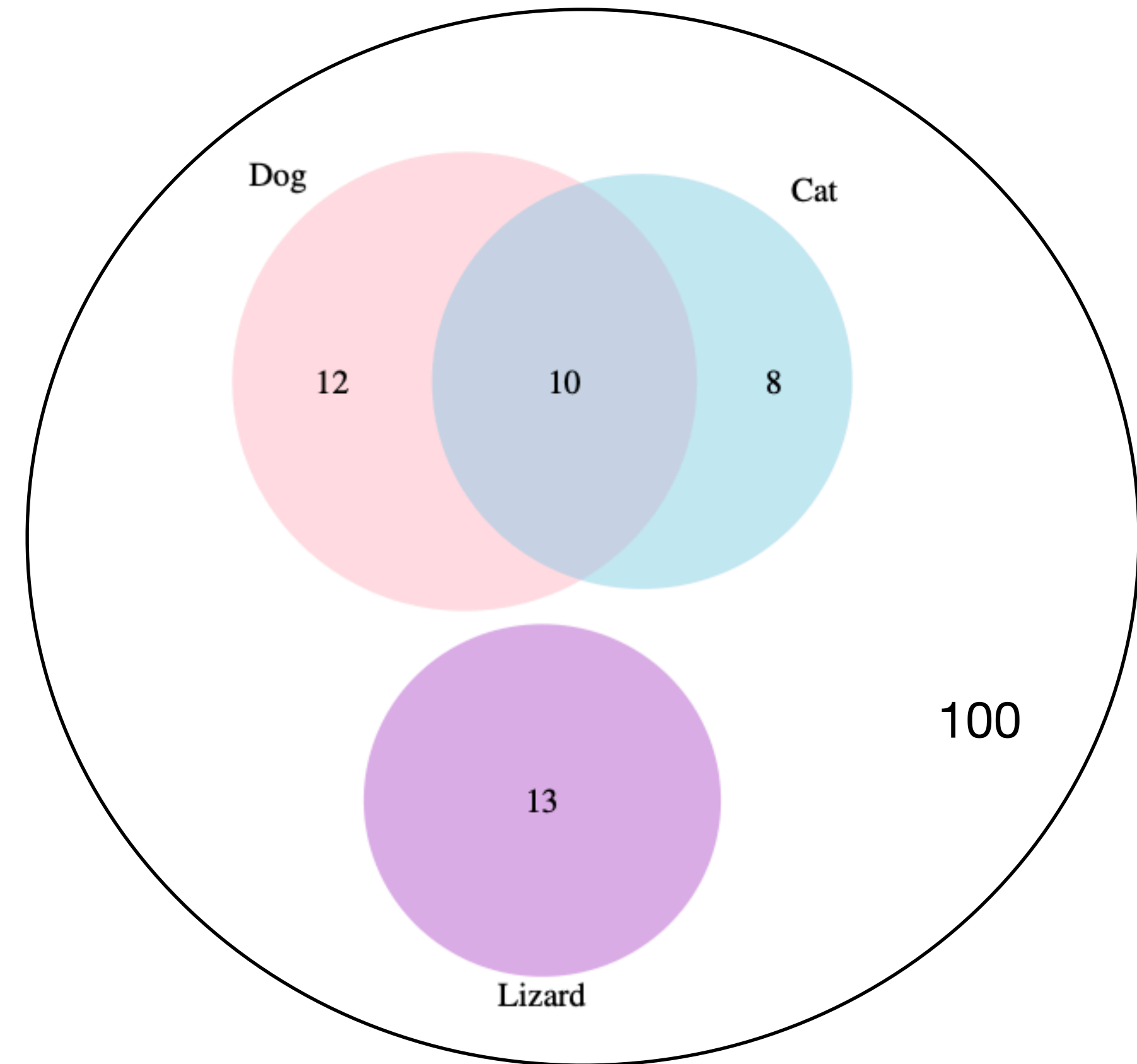
complement of A: A'



mutually exclusive (disjoint)

Exercise

- $P(\text{Dog}) = ?$
- $P(\text{Dog or not dog}) = ?$
- $P(\text{Dog or Lizard}) = ?$
- $P(\text{Dog or cat}) = ?$



Conditional probability

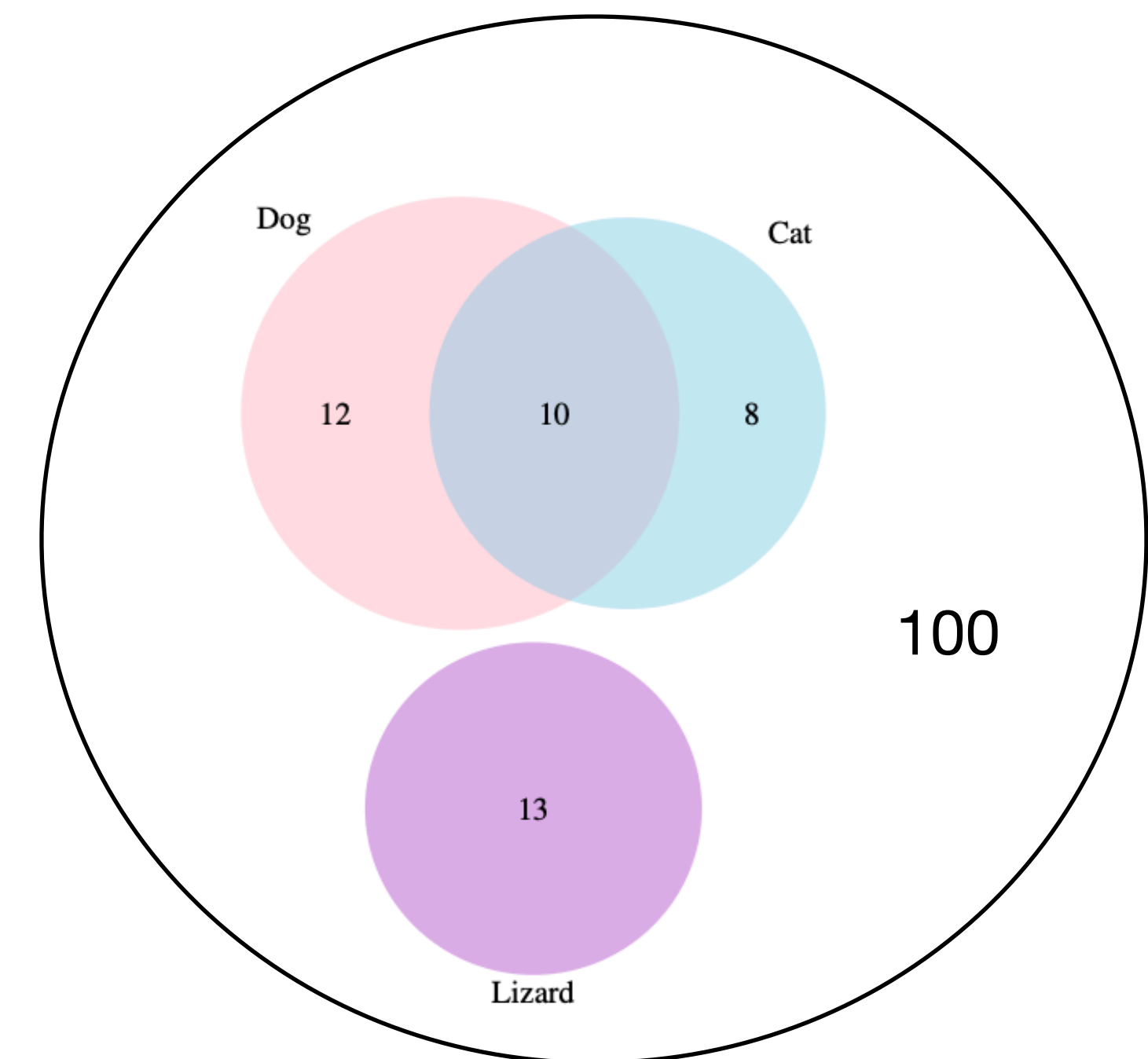
- conditional probability: the probability of an event conditional on some other particular event happening.

- $P(A | B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$

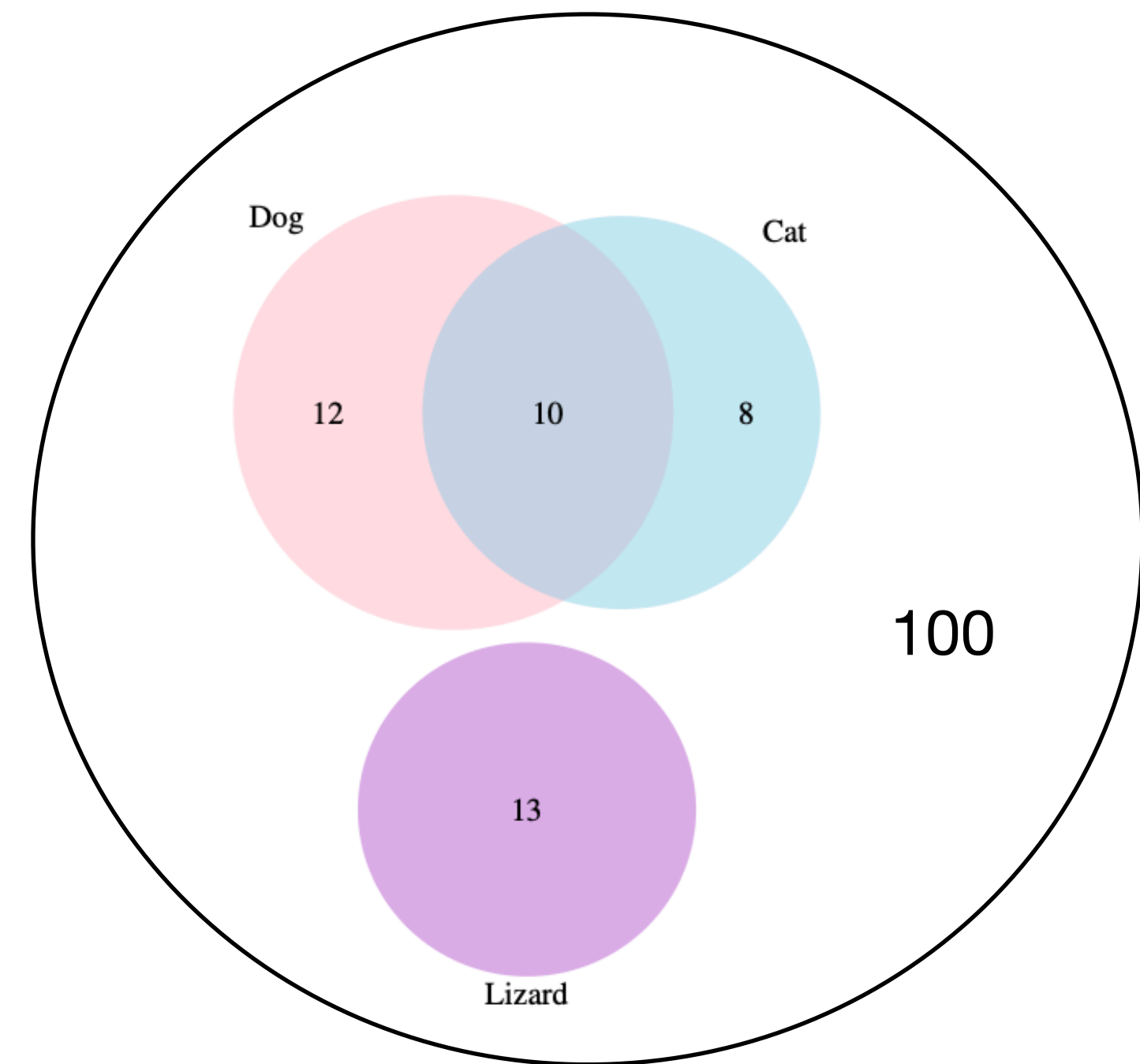
- $P(\text{cat} | \text{dog}) = \frac{P(\text{cat} \cap \text{dog})}{P(\text{dog})}$

- Joint probability

- $P(A \cap B) = P(A | B)P(B) = P(B | A)P(A)$



- $P(\text{cat}) = P(\text{cat} \cap \text{dog}) + P(\text{cat} \cap \text{not dog})$
- $P(\text{cat}) = P(\text{cat} \mid \text{dog})P(\text{dog}) + P(\text{cat} \mid \text{not dog})P(\text{not dog})$

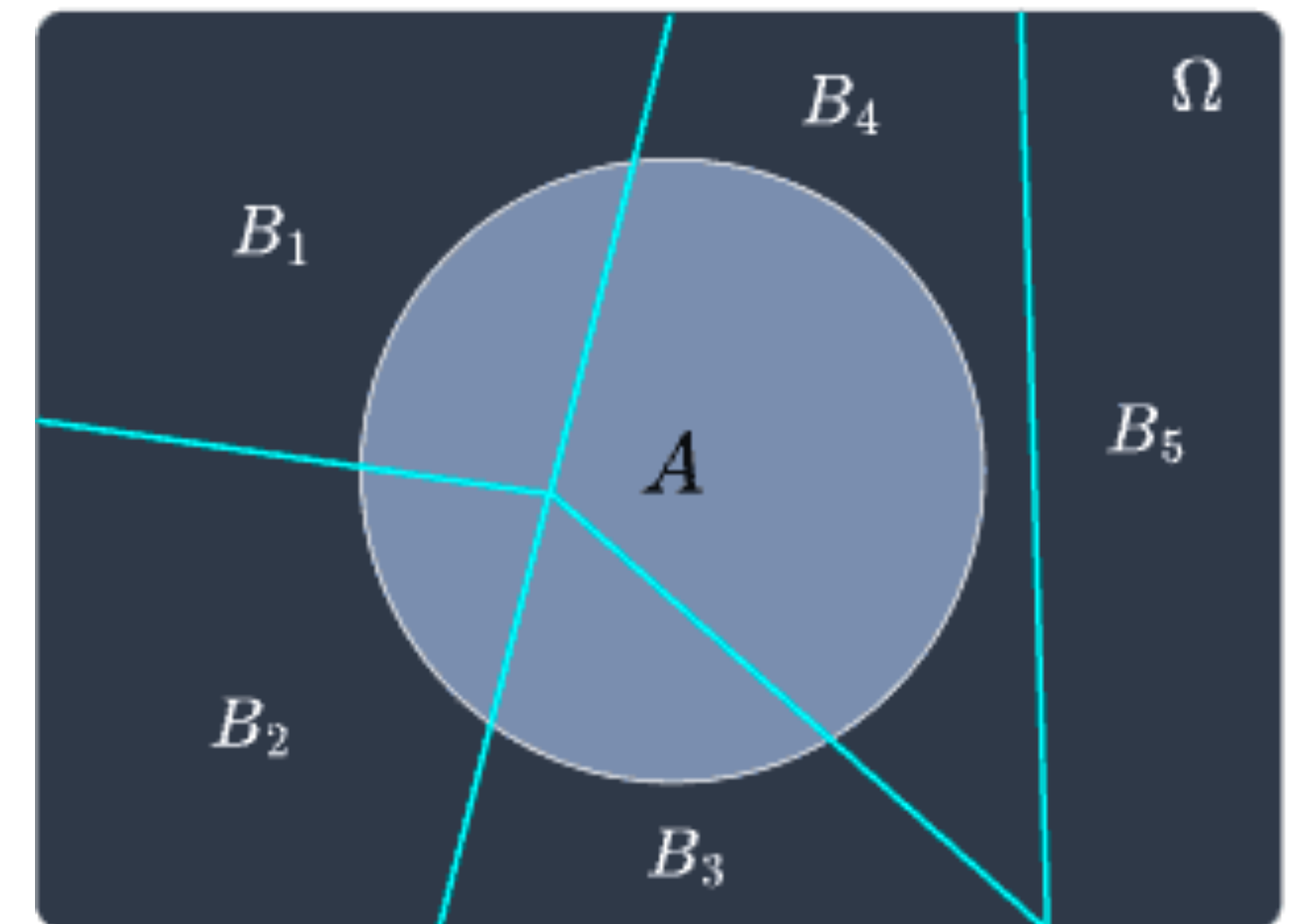


Law of total probability

- The total probability of an event A can be obtained by summing over all of the L mutually exclusive ways that A can happen
- B_1, B_2, \dots, B_L are disjoint events, so that their union is the whole sample space

- $$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^L P(A | B_i)P(B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^L P(A \cap B_i)$$

- $\sum_{i=1}^L$ is the sigma notation



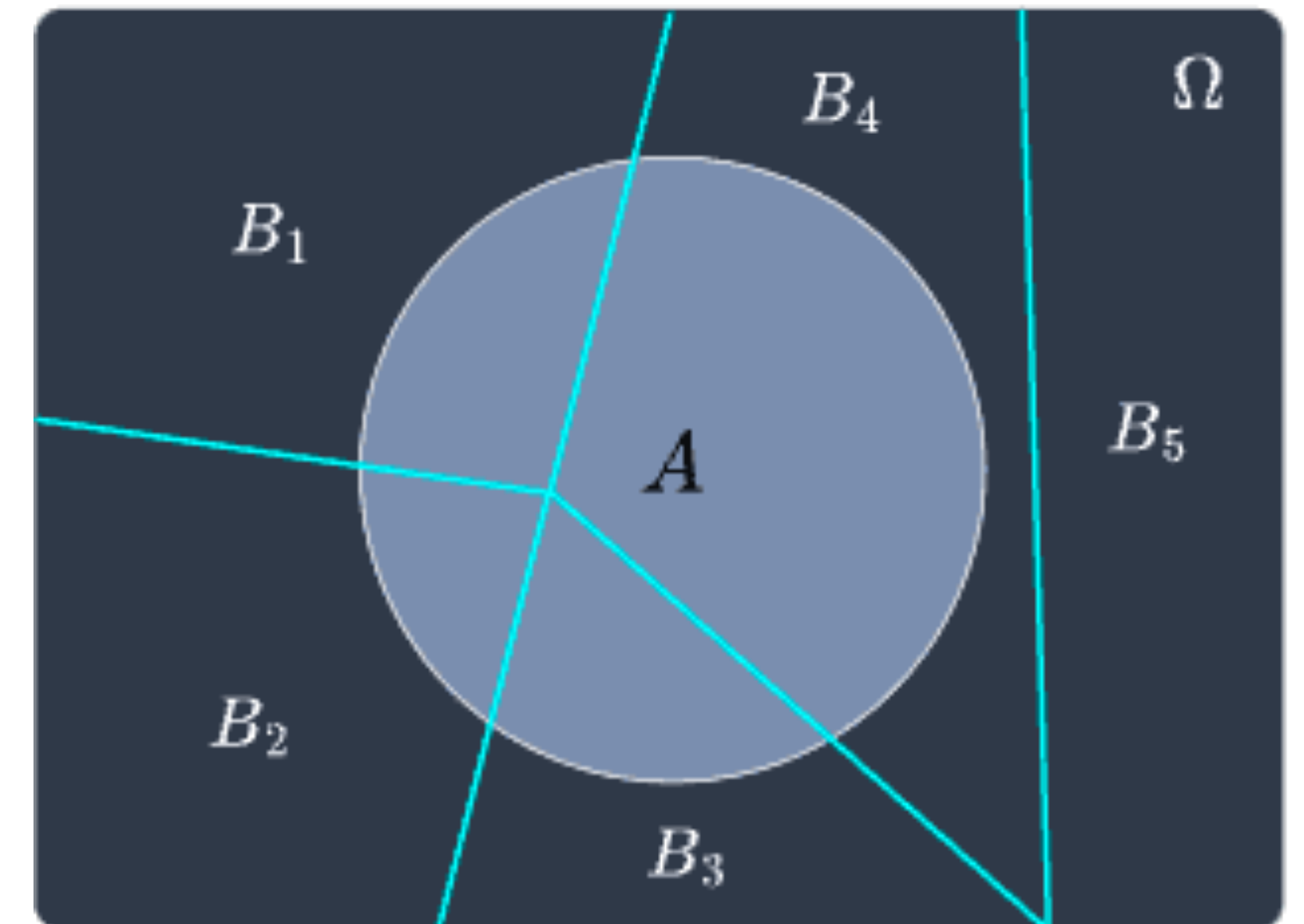
Laws of total probability

- Exercise:

- Suppose that two factories supply light bulbs to the market. Factory X's bulbs work for over 5000 hours in 99% of cases, whereas factory Y's bulbs work for over 5000 hours in 95% of cases.
- It is known that factory X supplies 60% of the total bulbs available and Y supplies 40% of the total bulbs available. What is the chance that a purchased bulb will work for longer than 5000 hours?

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^L P(A | B_i)P(B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^L P(A \cap B_i)$$

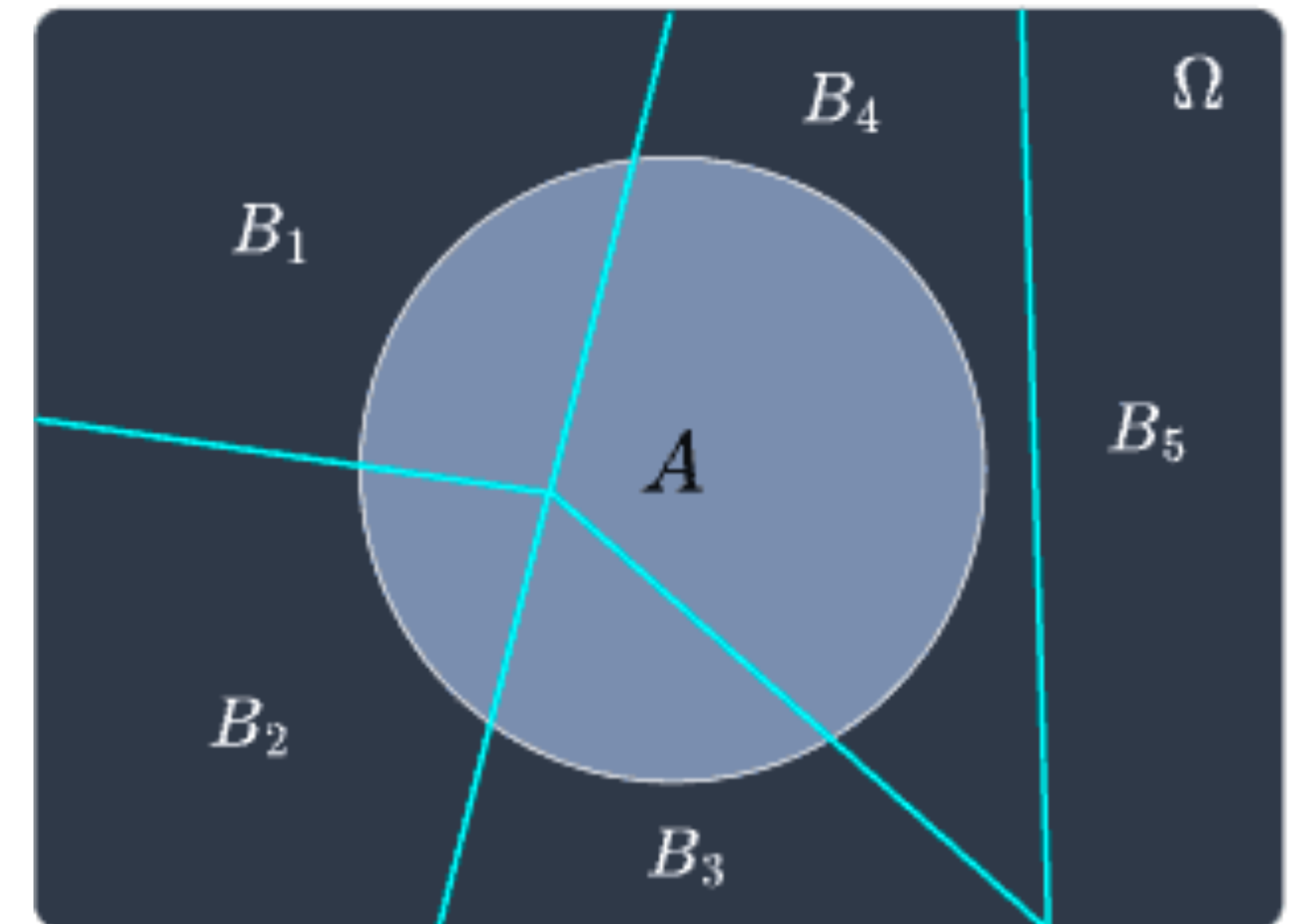
- $$P(A) = \frac{99}{100} \cdot \frac{6}{10} + \frac{95}{100} \cdot \frac{4}{10} = \frac{594 + 380}{1000} = \frac{974}{1000}$$



Laws of total probability

$$P(A) = \sum_{i=1}^L P(A | B_i)P(B_i) = \sum_{i=1}^L P(A \cap B_i)$$

- What is the sample space?
-



Independence

- Two events are independent of each other if
 - $P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B)$
 - P of flip a coin twice, get tails both times = $1/2 \times 1/2 = 1/4$

Expectation

- Expected value is a *weighted average* with weights given by the probability distribution
- Informally, the expected value is the arithmetic mean of a large number of independently selected outcomes of a random variable.
- Can be defined for any function f of the random variable x
- Discrete random variable: $\mathbb{E}[f(x)] = \sum_x f(x)p(x)$
- Continuous random variable: $\mathbb{E}[f(x)] = \int f(x)p(x)dx$

Expectation

- **Moments:** expectations of special functions of the random variable x

- First moment (mean) μ :

- $\mathbb{E}[x] = \int xp(x)dx$ or $\mathbb{E}[x] = \sum_x xp(x)$

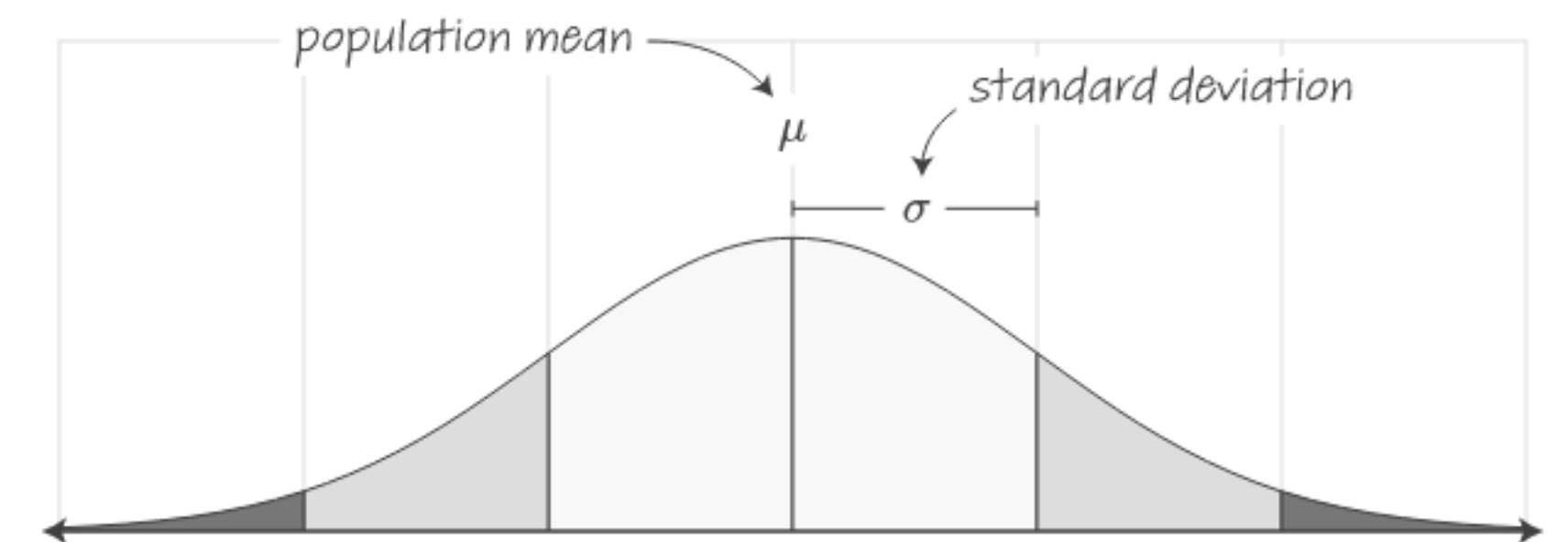
- Second centered moment (variance) σ^2 :

- $\mathbb{E}[(x - \mu)^2] = \int (x - \mu)^2 p(x)dx$ or $\mathbb{E}[(x - \mu)^2] = \sum_x (x - \mu)^2 p(x)$

- Property:

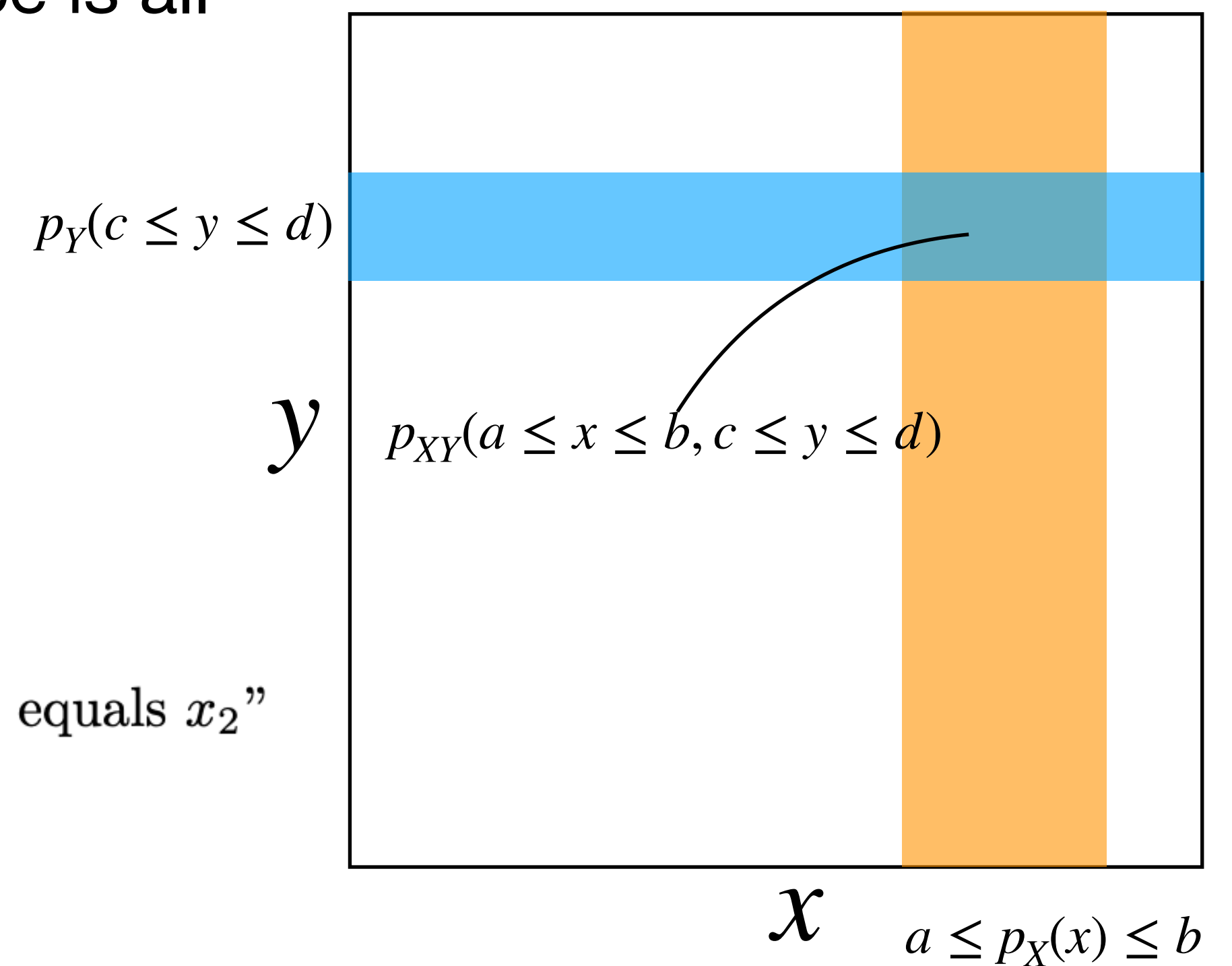
$$\mathbb{E}[aX + bY + c] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b\mathbb{E}[Y] + c$$

$$\mathbb{E}[(x - \mu)^2] = \mathbb{E}[x^2] - \mathbb{E}[x]^2$$



Multivariate distributions

- Given two random variables X and Y , the sample space is all ordered pairs (x, y)
- Probability distribution
 - Assume independence: $p(x, y) = p(x)p(y)$
 - Non-independence: $p(x, y) = p_{XY}(x, y)$
- Discrete joint distribution:
 - $p_{i,j} = \mathbb{P}[X = x_i, Y = x_j]$ “the probability that X equals x_1 and Y equals x_2 ”
- Continuous joint distribution:
 - $\mathbb{P}[a \leq X \leq b, c \leq Y \leq d] = \int_a^b \int_c^d p(x, y) dx dy.$



Multivariate distributions

- Examples:
 - the outcome of flipping three dice (X_1, X_2, X_3)
 - the body mass of a parent and a child ($M_{\text{parent}}, M_{\text{child}}$)
 - If a patient is a smoker, and if they have cancer ($I_{\text{smoker}}, I_{\text{cancer}}$)
 - An individual's two homologous alleles at a locus ($A_{\text{mom}}, A_{\text{dad}}$)
- Which examples are (likely) independent?

Multivariate distributions

- Expectation

- Discrete: $\mathbb{E}[f(X, Y)] = \sum_{x,y} f(x, y)p(x, y)$

- Continuous: $\mathbb{E}[f(X, Y)] = \iint f(x, y)p(x, y)dx dy$

- Covariance

- $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \sum_{x,y} (x - \mu_X)(y - \mu_Y)p(x, y)$

- $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(Y - \mu_Y)] = \iint (x - \mu_X)(y - \mu_Y)p(x, y)dx dy$

- Variance is the covariance of X with itself: $\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu_X)(X - \mu_X)] = \sum_{x,y} (x - \mu_X)^2 p(x)$

Some discrete probability distributions

- Bernoulli
 - Flipping a coin: $P(\text{heads}) = p, P(\text{tails}) = 1 - p$
- Binomial
 - Flipping n coins: $P(k \text{ heads}) = p^k(1 - p)^{n-k} \binom{n}{k}$
- Geometric
 - Number of tosses until the coin lands on heads
 - $P(X = k) = (1 - p)^{k-1}p$
- Poisson
 - $P(X = k) = \frac{\lambda^k \exp^{-\lambda}}{k!}$
 - Example: number of mutations in time interval $[0, T]$
 - *Limit of binomial as $n \rightarrow \infty, p \rightarrow 0$*

Poisson distribution as a limit of binomial

- https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Poisson_limit_theorem

Continuous probability distributions

- Uniform:

- $f(x) = \frac{1}{b - a}$

- Normal

- $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$

- Exponential

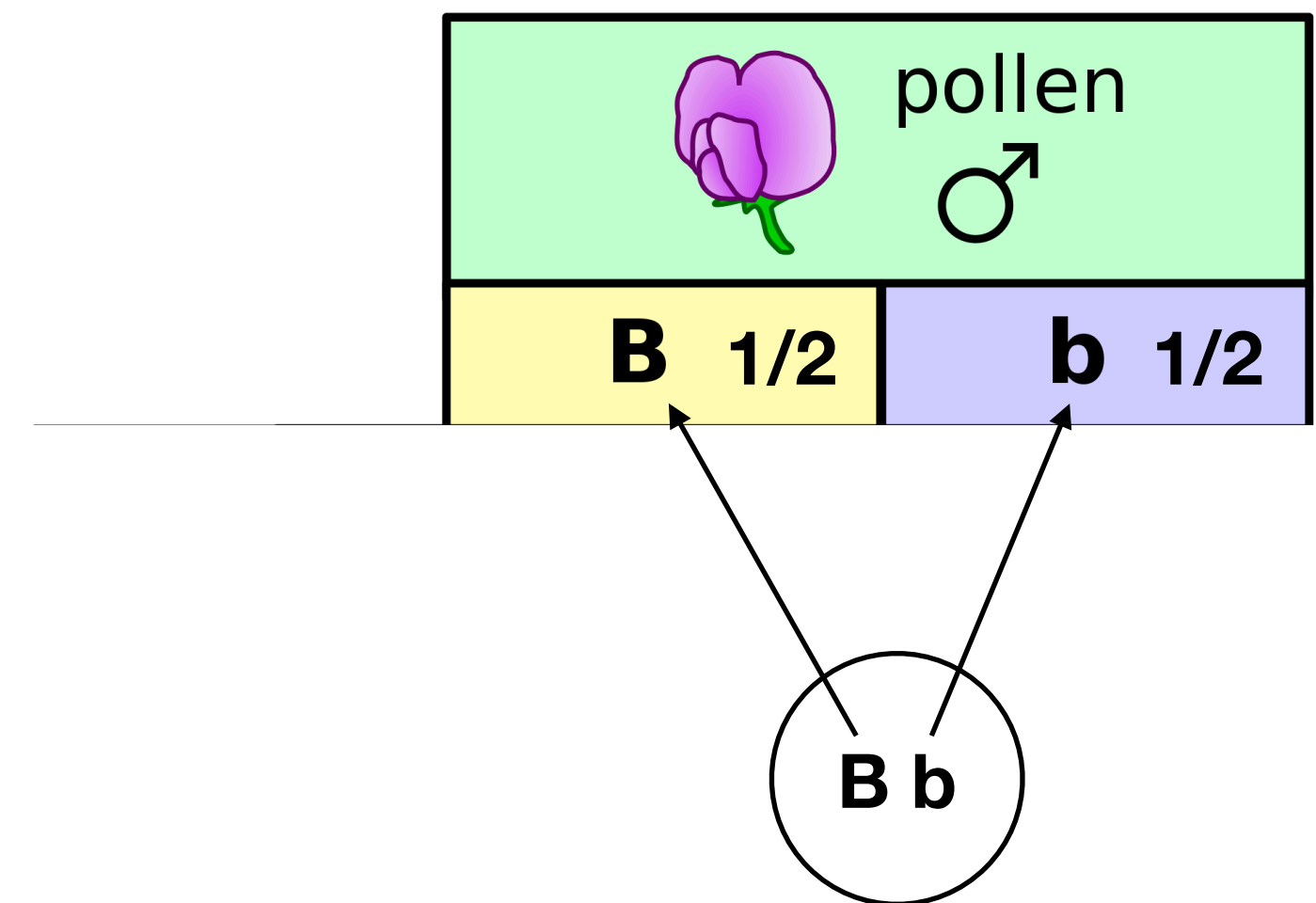
- $f(x) = \lambda \exp^{-\lambda x}$

Exponential distribution

- Dividing the interval $[0, t]$ into n small intervals, each with width $\delta = 1/n$
- Assume an outcome (e.g. a light bulb burns out) happens in a small interval at rate $= \lambda \times 1/n$
- Probability that the outcome doesn't happen between 0 and t
 $= \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{n}\right)^{n \times t}$
- Use the fact that $\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n$ approximates e^x as x goes to zero
- $P(\text{outcome does not happen}) \rightarrow e^{-\lambda t}$
- $P(T < t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t}$, Cumulative distribution function (CDF)
- $f(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$, Density function (PDF)

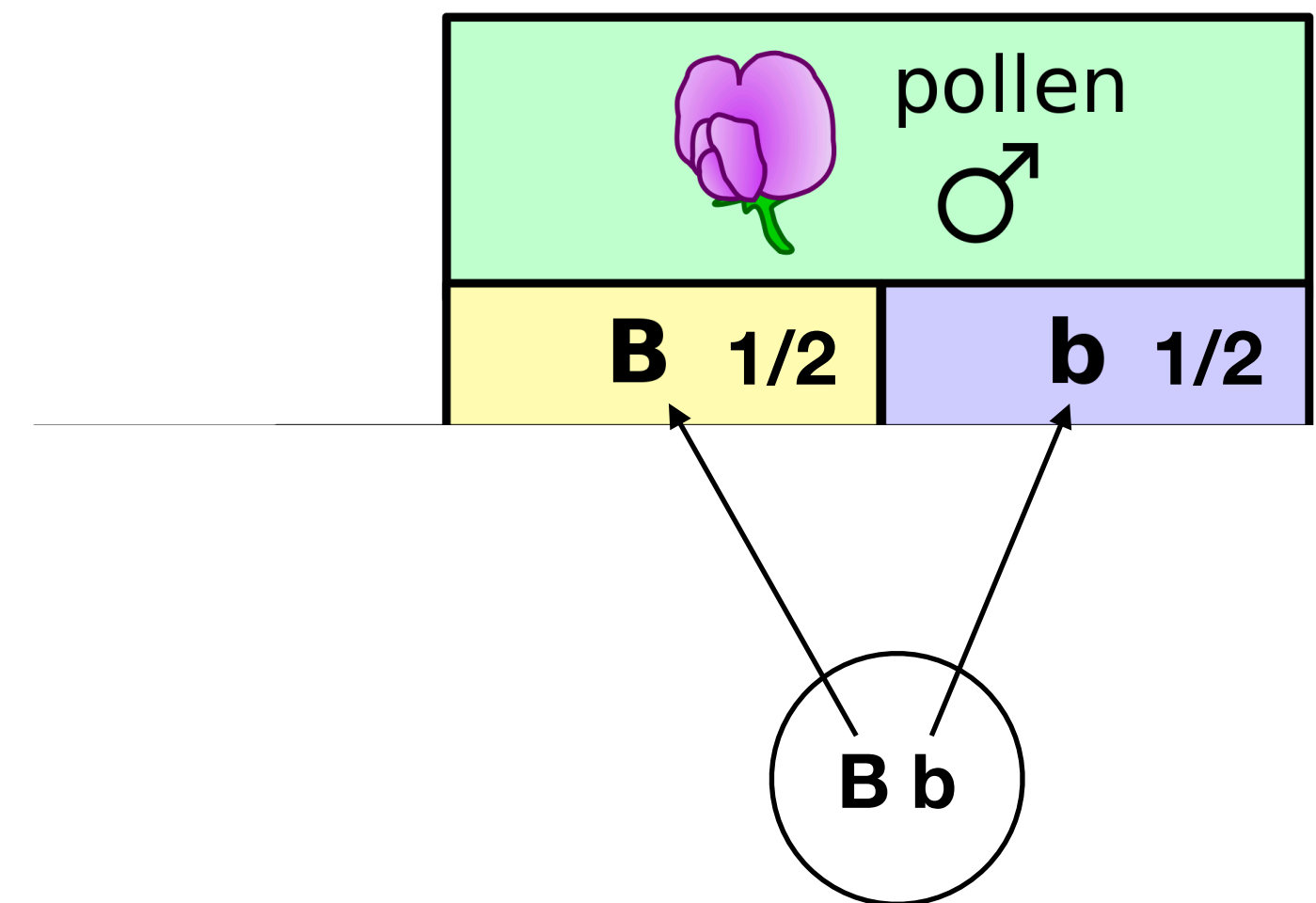
Mendelian inheritance and probability

- Law of segregation
 - During gamete formation, the alleles for each gene segregate from each other so that each gamete carries only one allele for each gene.



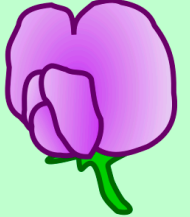
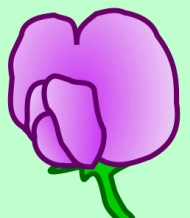
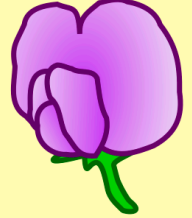
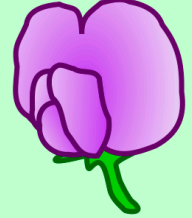
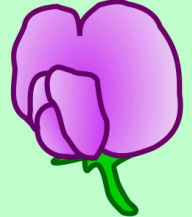
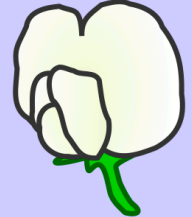
Mendelian inheritance and probability

- Law of segregation
 - During gamete formation, the alleles for each gene segregate from each other so that each gamete carries only one allele for each gene.
 - Sample space: {B, b}
 - $P(B) = P(b) = 1/2$



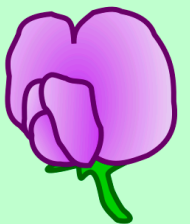
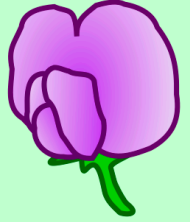
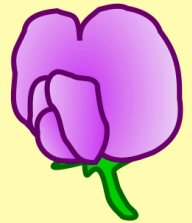
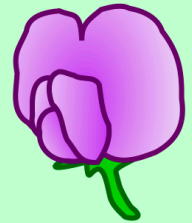
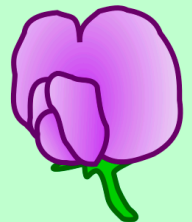
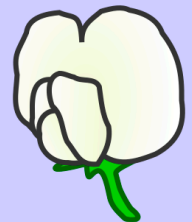
Mendelian inheritance and probability

- Law of segregation and mating
 - Sample space: $\{(B, B), (B, b), (b, B), (b, b)\}$
 - $P(\text{gamete } \text{♀}, \text{gamete } \text{♂}) = P(\text{gamete } \text{♀}) P(\text{gamete } \text{♂}) = 1/4$

		 pollen ♂	
		B 1/2	b 1/2
 pistil ♀	B 1/2	 1/4 BB	 1/4 Bb
	b 1/2	 1/4 Bb	 1/4 bb

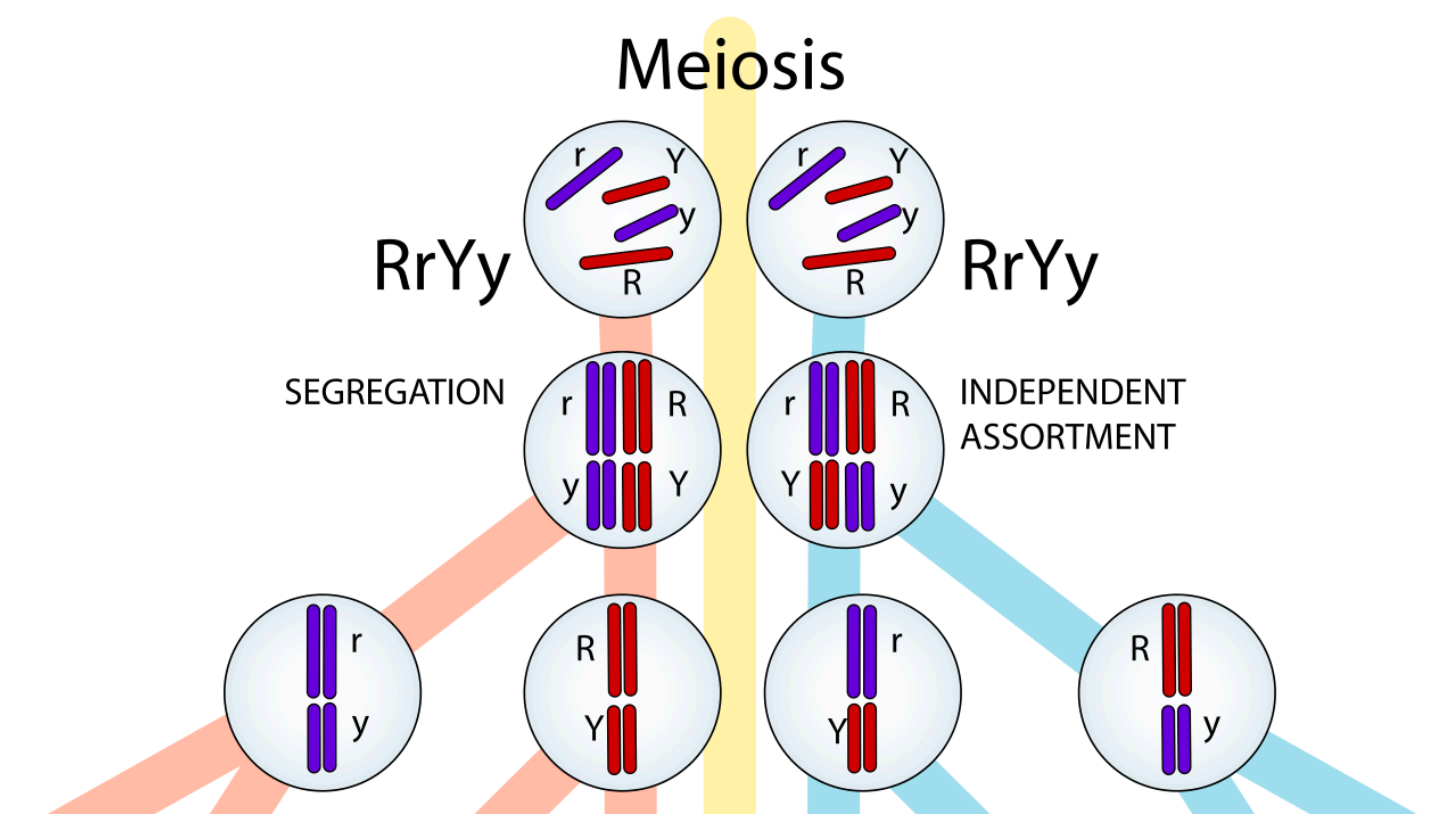
Mendelian inheritance and probability

- Law of dominance and uniformity
 - Some alleles are dominant while others are recessive; an organism with at least one dominant allele will display the effect of the dominant allele.
 - Event: “a seedling has purple flower” = {BB, Bb, bB}
 - P “a seedling has purple flower” = $3/4$
 - Conditional probability
 - $P(\text{homozygous for B} \mid \text{purple flower}) = P(BB)/P(\{BB, Bb, bB\}) = 1/3$

		 pollen ♂	
		B 1/2	b 1/2
 pistil ♀	B 1/2	 1/4 BB	 1/4 Bb
	b 1/2	 1/4 Bb	 1/4 bb

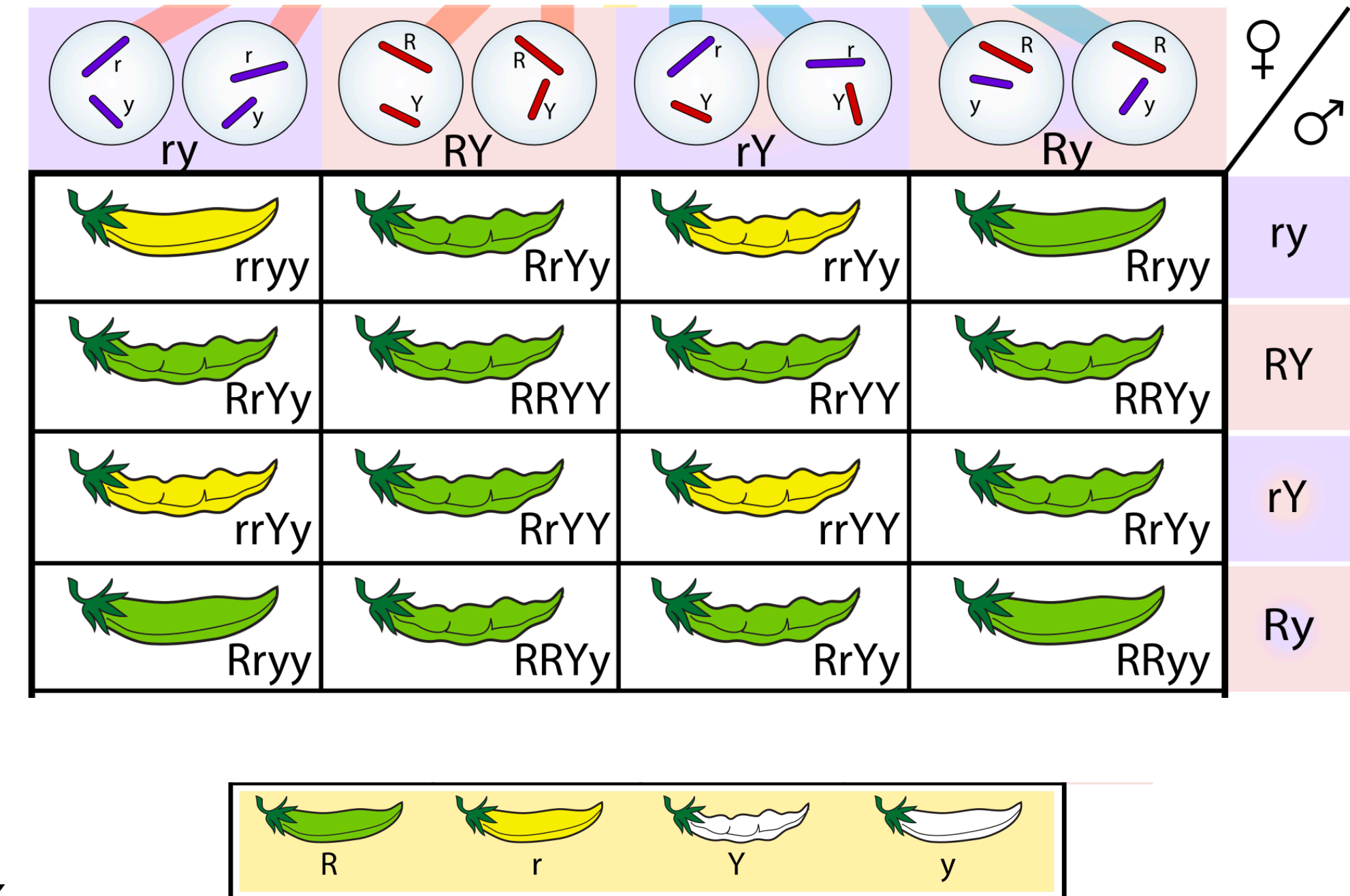
Mendelian inheritance and probability

- Law of independent assortment
 - Genes of different traits can segregate independently during the formation of gametes.
 - Locus 1 {r, R}; Locus 2{y, Y}
 - Sample space: {ry,Ry, rY, RY}
 - $P(\text{allele at locus 1, allele at locus 2})$
 $=P(\text{allele at locus1}) \cdot P(\text{allele at locus2})$
 $=1/4$
- *Rule is violated if two alleles are linked*



Mendelian inheritance and probability

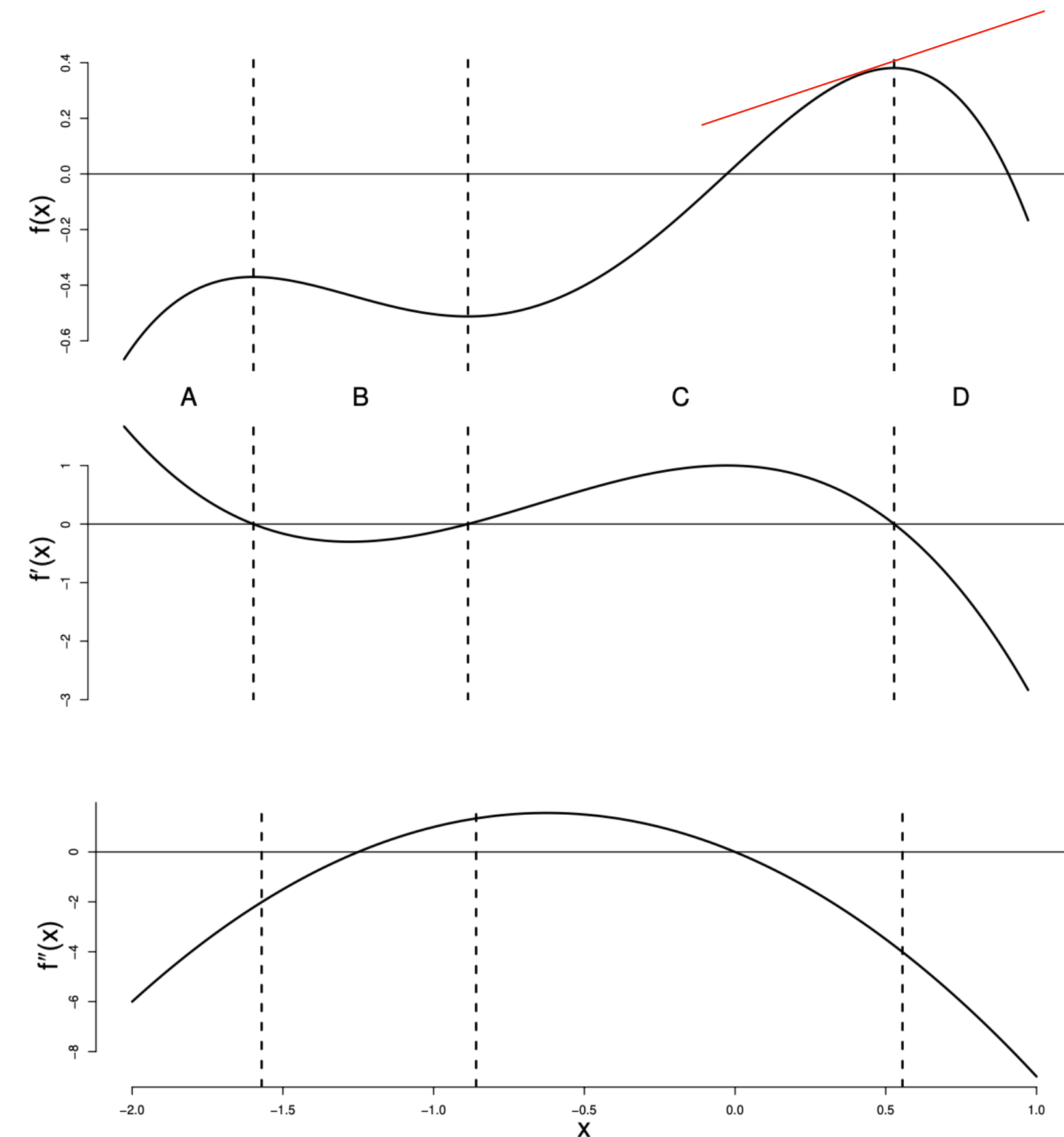
- Two traits and mating
 - Sample space
 $= \{ry, Ry, rY, RY\} \times \{ry, Ry, rY, RY\}$
 - R is dominant over r
 - Y is dominant over y
 - Event A = “wrinkled pods”, $P(A) = 3/4$
 - Event B = “green pods”, $P(B) = 3/4$
 - Event C = “wrinkled, green pods” = $P(A \& B) = P(A) \times P(B) = 9/16$
 - Overall ratio is 9:3:3:1



- Derivative
- Integral
- Taylor expansion
- Useful taylor expansion
- Common functions
 - Exponential
 - Polynomial
 - Logrithm

Part 2: Calculus

- Derivative
- The derivative of a function f at point x , is the best linear approximation of the function f centered at x
- $f'(x)$ or $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$
- $f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$



Part 2: Calculus

- Commonly used derivatives

- $\frac{d}{dx}x^a = ax^{a-1}.$

- $\frac{d}{dx}e^x = e^x.$

- $\frac{d}{dx}\ln(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x > 0.$

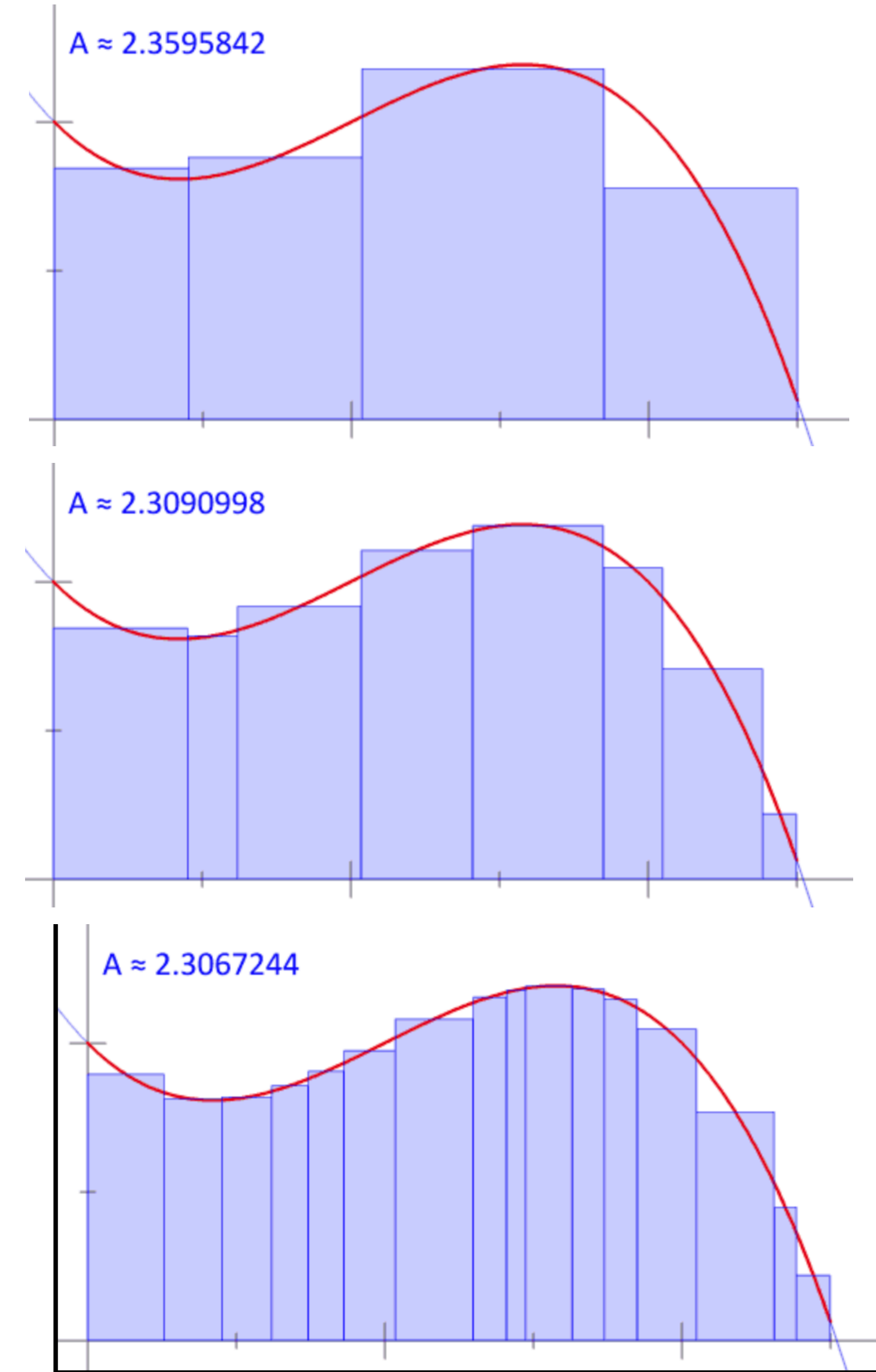
Integral

- The integral of a function on the interval $[a, b]$ is the limit of the sum

- $$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(t_i)(x_{i+1} - x_i) .$$

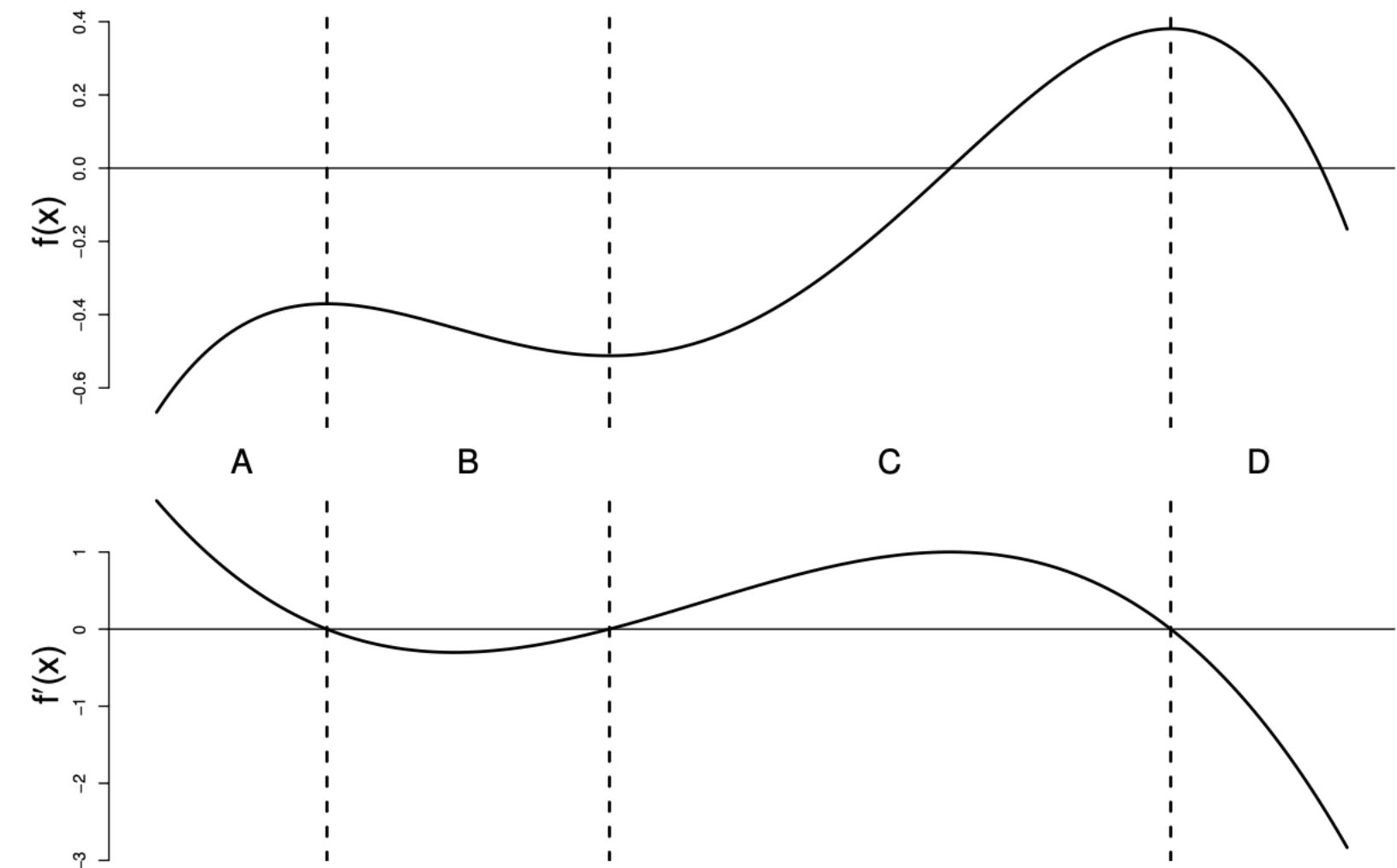
- where $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_i < \dots < x_n = b$
- as $n \rightarrow \infty$, that is, if we cut the interval $[a, b]$ into increasing smaller pieces

- The integral is written as $\int_a^b f(x)dx$



Fundamental theorem of calculus

- Let F be a function $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$.
- Then $F'(x) = f(x)$
- $F(x)$ is the *antiderivative* of $f(x)$
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$.



Cumulative and probability density function

- The cumulative distribution function

- $F_X(x) = P(X \leq x)$

- The probability density function

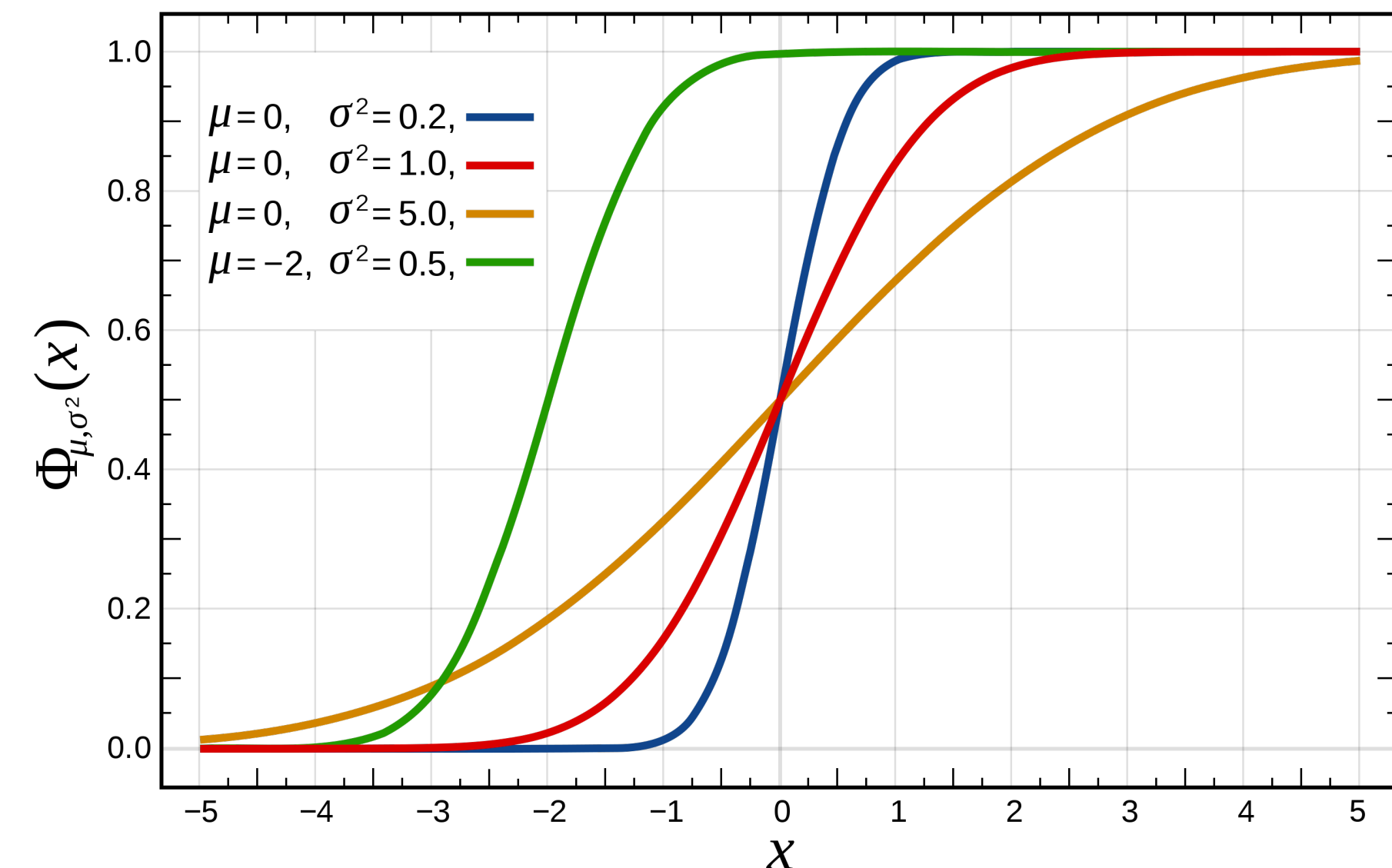
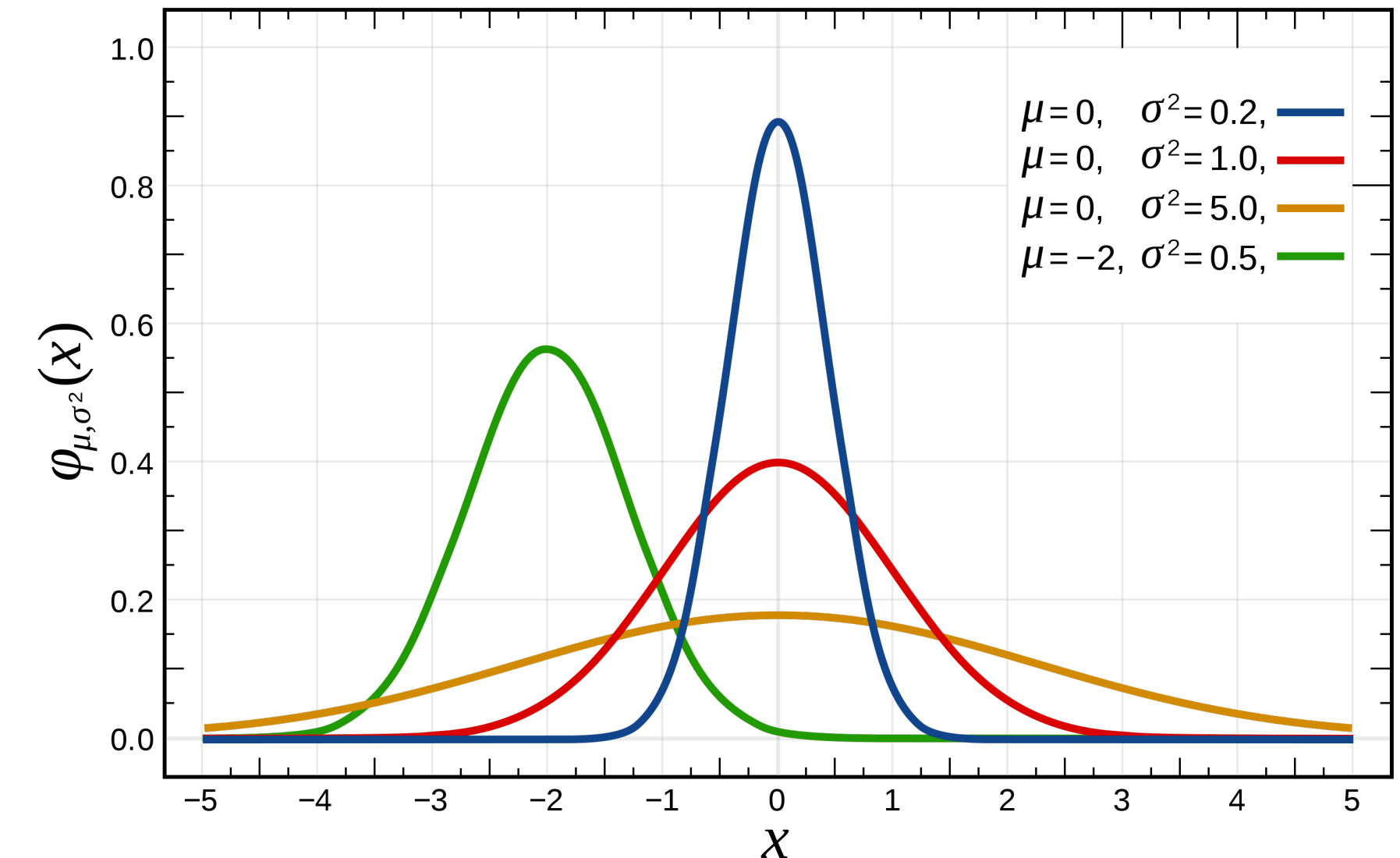
- $f_X(t)$

- We have

- $F_X(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f_X(t) dt .$

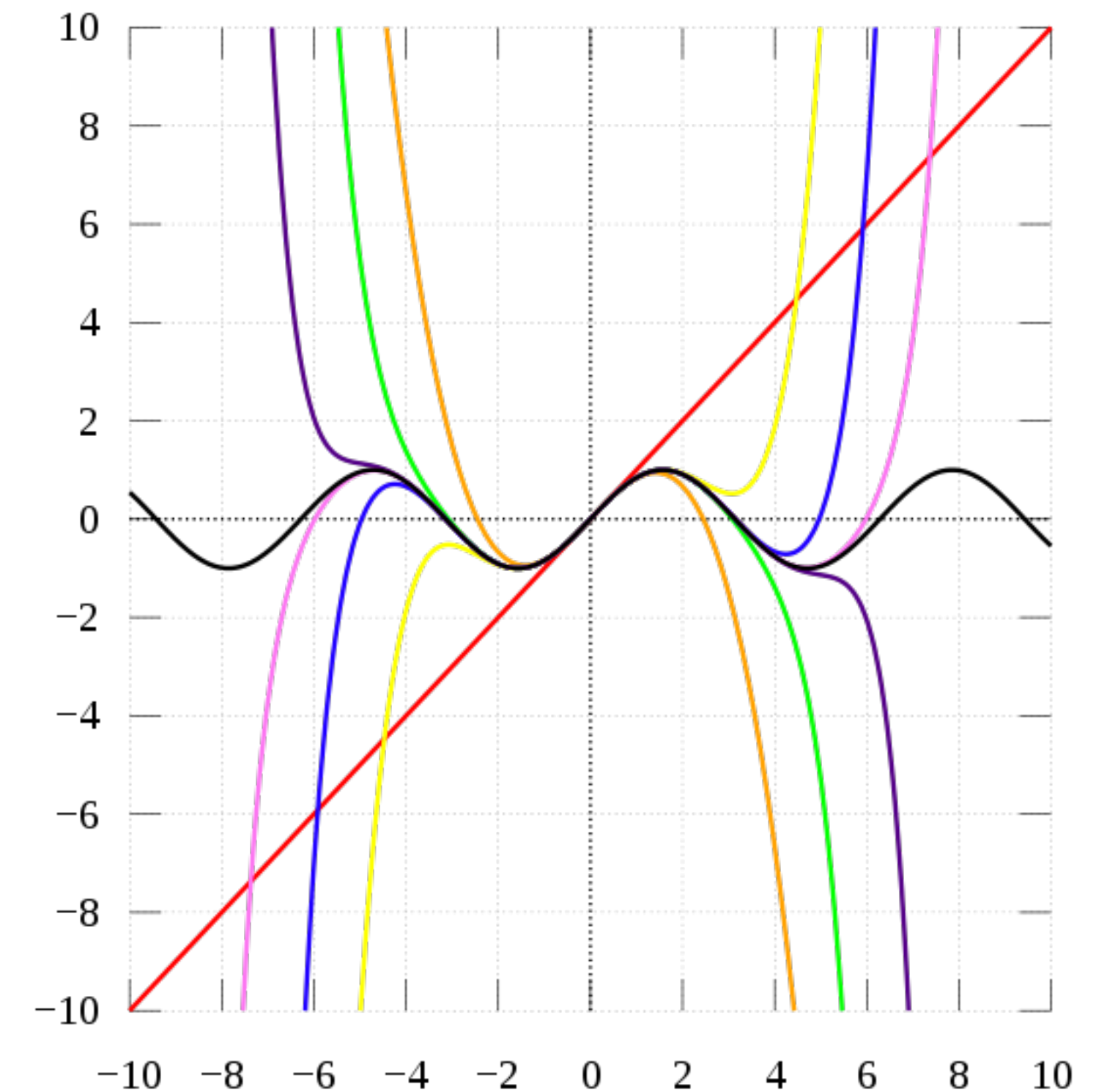
- $f(x) = \frac{dF(x)}{dx}$

- $P(a < X \leq b) = \int_a^b f_X(x) dx = F_X(b) - F_X(a)$



Approximating functions by Taylor Series

- Recall the derivative of a function provides the best linear approximation of a function at a point
- $f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$
- We can generalize this approximation using the Taylor expansion:
- $$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x - a)^3 + \dots$$
- Taylor polynomials are approximations of a function, which become generally better as n increases.



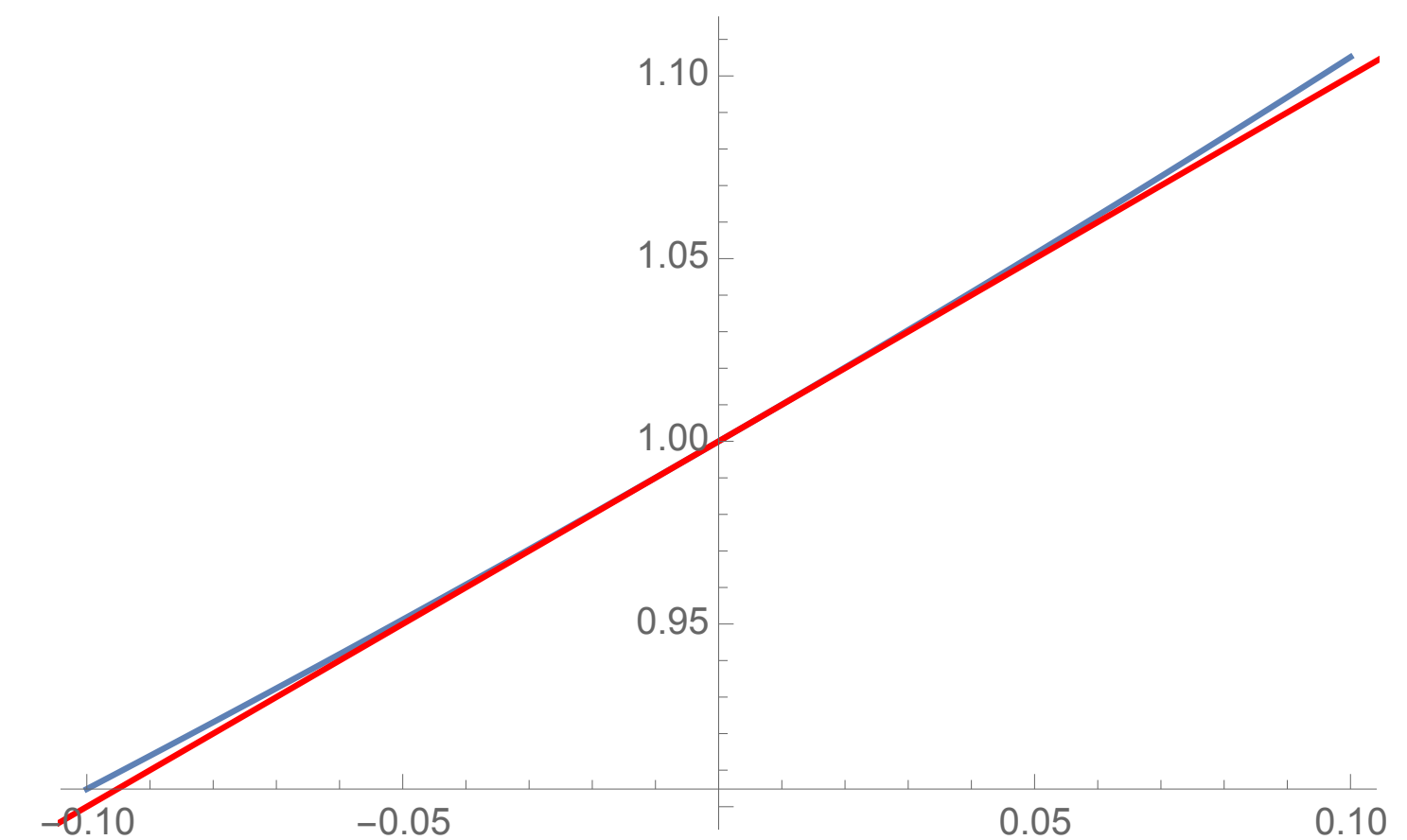
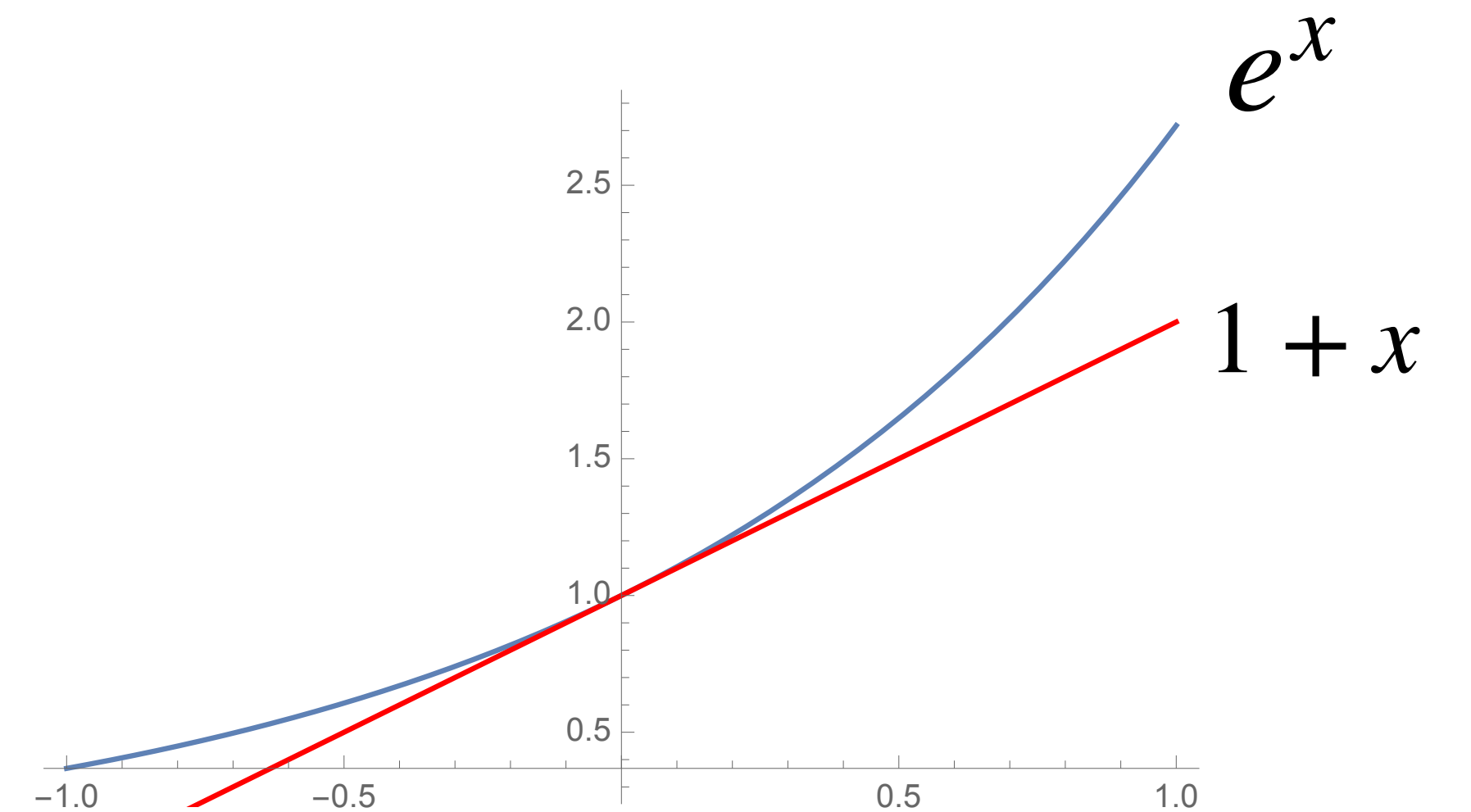
Common approximations

- $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$

- $e^x \approx 1 + x$ for x near 0

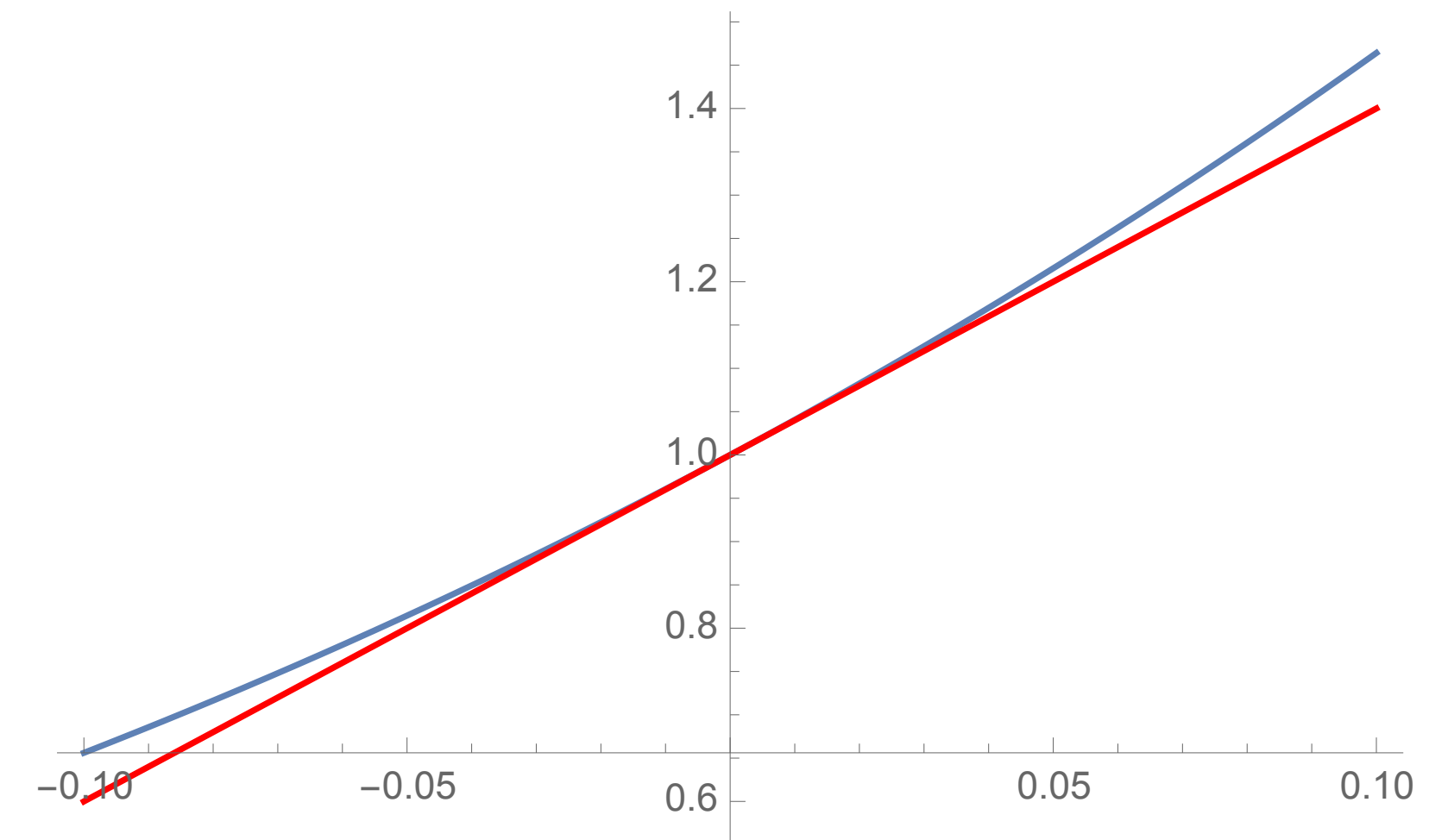
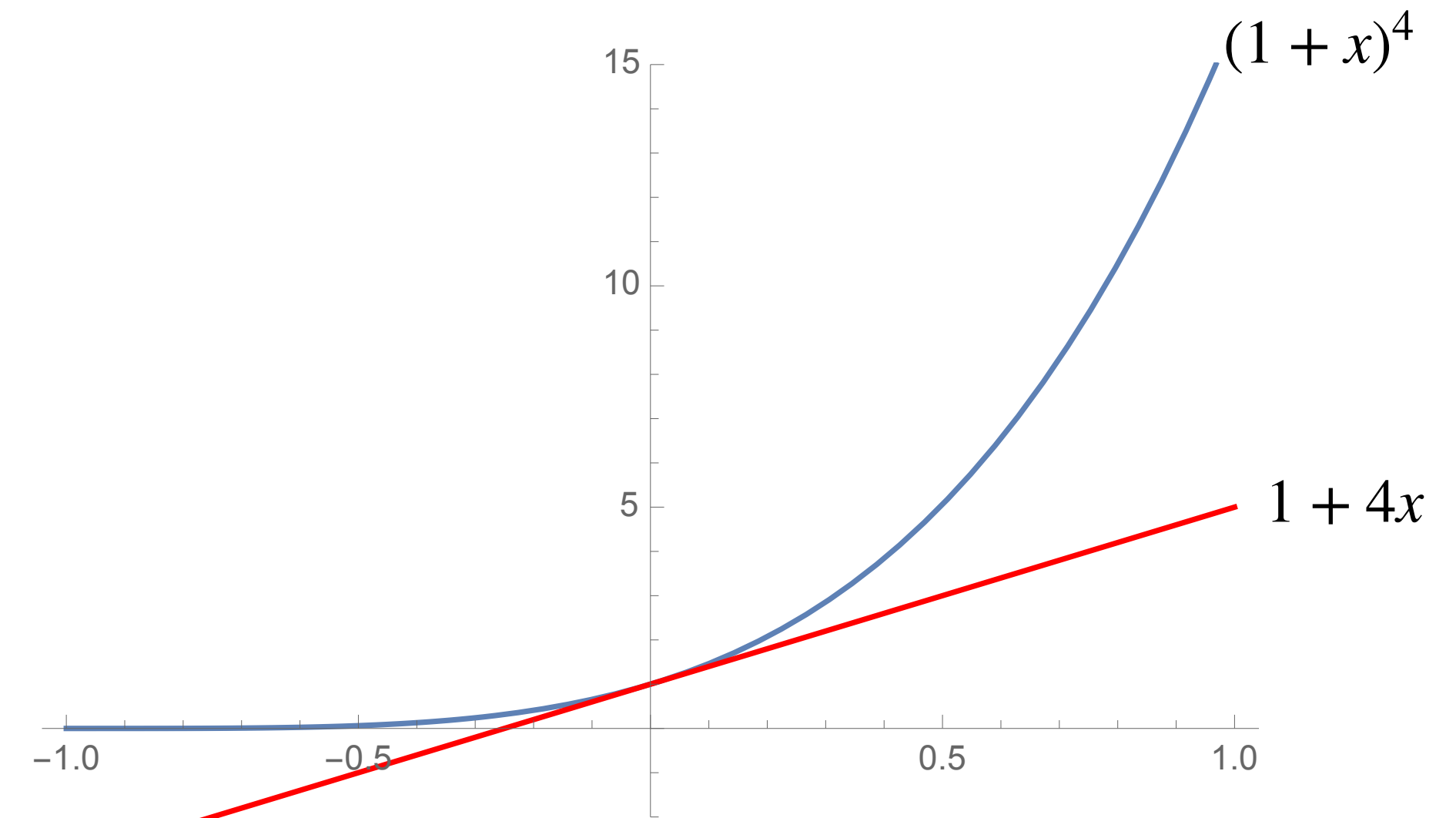
- $$\frac{1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots}{1 + x} = 1 + \frac{\frac{x}{2!} + \frac{x^2}{3!} + \dots}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} \rightarrow 1$$

as $x \rightarrow 0$



Common approximations

- $(1 + x)^k$
 - $\frac{d(1 + x)^k}{dx} = k(1 + x)^{k-1}$
 - $\frac{d(1 + x)^k}{dx} = k$, at $x = 0$
 - $(1 + x)^k \approx 1 + kx$ near 0



Part3: Basic combinatorics

- Factorial $n! = n \times (n - 1) \times (n - 2) \times \cdots \times 1$

- Number of ways to sort n objects

- Binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{k} = \frac{n!}{k!(n - k)!}$

- Number of ways to pick k out of n objects

- $(x + y)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} y^k$

Part 4: the exponential function

- $\exp(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$
- $\frac{de^x}{dx} = e^x$
- Connection to e^x
 - $\exp(x)\exp(y) = \exp(xy)$
 - $\exp(n) = (\exp(1))^n$
 - $\exp(1) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \dots = e$
 - $\exp(n) = e^n$
 - $\exp(x) = e^x$

Part 4: the exponential function

- $a^x = (e^{\ln a})^x = e^{x \ln a}$
- Set $y = a^x$, then
- If $\log_a y = x$, then $\ln y = x \ln a$
- Change of base
 - $\log_a y = \frac{\ln y}{\ln a}$

Ways the exponential function arises

- Exponential growth
 - $x(t)$ is a function that describes the size of a population at time t
 - Growth rate is equal to population size (everybody in the population makes one offspring)
 - $x'(t) = x(t)$
 - $x(t) = ae^t$
 - $x(0) = a$

Ways the exponential function arises

- Compound interest
 - You have y amount of money in the bank
 - The annual interest rate is r
 - After a year you have $y(1 + r)$
 - Let's say that we divide the whole year into n small intervals of equal sizes, e.g. months, days, minutes, etc. And the interest per unit time is $\frac{r}{n}$
 - So the money you get at the end of year is
 - $y \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n$
 - **What happens if $n \rightarrow \infty$?**

Ways the exponential function arise

- So the money you get at the end of year is

- $y \left(1 + \frac{r}{n} \right)^n$

- **What happens if $n \rightarrow \infty$?**

- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{n} \right)^n$

- $\left(1 + \frac{r}{n} \right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{r^k}{n^k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{(n-k)!k!} \frac{r^k}{n^k}$

- **This tends to** $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{r^k}{k!} = e^r$ **as $n \rightarrow \infty$**

