Computational Biology

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Computational Evolution
Department of Biosystems Science and Engineering

HS 2019



c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic n

Phylodynamic models

Applications

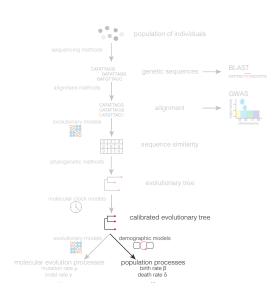
Continuous traits and comparative methods: Discuss questions.

Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities Applications

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- 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?

Overview



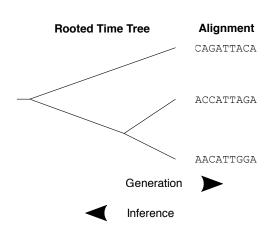
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Population dynamic mo

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities Applications

What have we learned so far?



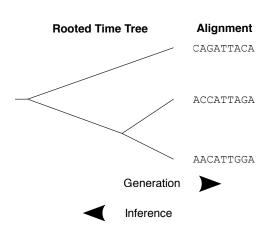
c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mo

rohabilities

Applications

What have we learned so far?



Question

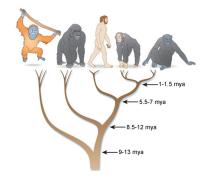
What is the process that generated the phylogenetic tree?

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities Applications

Macroevolution: individuals = species



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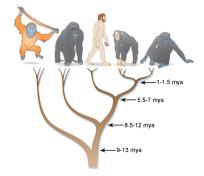
Population dynamic model

Phylodynamic models

Applications References

Macroevolution: individuals = species

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



cu9-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic models

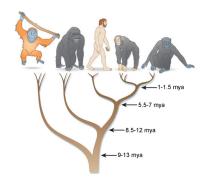
robabilities

Applications

ferences

Macroevolution: individuals = species

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



cu9-Phylodynamics

Introduction

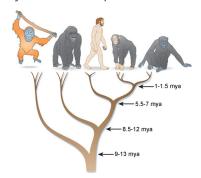
Population dynamic models

robabilities

Applications

Macroevolution: individuals = species

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



Introduction

Introductio

Phylodynamic models

obabilities

пррисастога

5 / 43

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

ropulation dynamic mode

Probabilities

Applications

References

Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

Introduction

Population dynamic mod

Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

Applications

Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

Evolution

Pathogen is evolving through time.

Introduction

Population dynam

Phylodynamic models

Applications

References

Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

► **Evolution**Pathogen is evolving through time.

Phylogenetics Phylogeny displays transmission history.

Introduction

Population dynami

Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

Epidemiology: individuals = infected hosts

- Evolution
 - Pathogen is evolving through time.
- Phylogenetics
 Phylogeny displays transmission history.
- **▶** Phylodynamics
 - Population dynamics is the transmission and becoming non-infectious process.

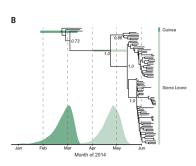


Figure adapted from [Gire et al., 2014]
Phylogenetic tree of Ebola in West Africa.

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic mod

rohabilities

Applications

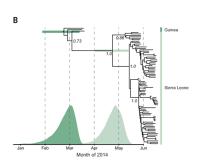


Figure adapted from [Gire et al., 2014] Phylogenetic tree of Ebola in West Africa.

▶ 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.)

9-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic mo

Probabilities

► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities

Applications

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

J9-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic m

Applications

- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
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 - Population dynamics is the B cell generation and loss process.

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic

Probabilities

Applications

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09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic r

robabilities

Applications

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- ► Cancer: individuals = cells
 - Phylogeny displays relationship of different cancer cells and healthy cells.

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Description 1

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Probabilities

Applications

- ► **Immunology:** individuals = B cells
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 - Population dynamics is the spread and loss of cell types.

Introduction

Phylodynamic models

Applications

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- ► Languages: individuals = languages

Introduction

Phylodynamic models

Applications

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

Population dynamic model

Phylodynamic models

Applications

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 - Phylogeny displays language evolution.
 - Population dynamics is the gain and loss of languages.

:09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model: Phylodynamic models

Phylodynamics

Population dynamics models the birth and death of individuals (species, infected hosts, B cells, cancer cells, languages). 09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic

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Applications

Phylodynamics

- ► 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.

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

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Probabilities

Applications
References

Phylodynamics

- ► 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).

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mode

Phylodynamic mode Probabilities

Population dynamic models

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

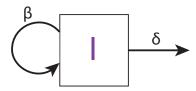
Phylodynamic models

Probabilities

Applications References

Population dynamic models.

Population dynamics



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

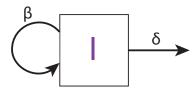
c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

robabilities

Applications

Population dynamics



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

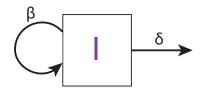
c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Population dynamic models

robabilities

Applications

Population dynamics



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

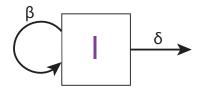
Such a process is called a (linear) birth-death process.

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

Probabilities

Applications

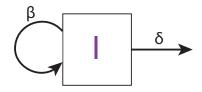


Consider the fate of one individual:

Introduction

Population dynamic models

Applications



Consider the fate of one individual:

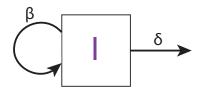
The probability of giving birth to another individual in a very small time step Δt is $\beta \Delta t$.

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models Probabilities

Applications References



Introduction

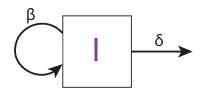
Population dynamic models

Probabilities

References

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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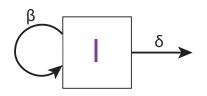
Population dynamic models

robabilities

Applications

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 .



Introduction
Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models

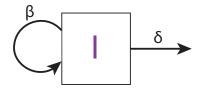
Applications

References

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:

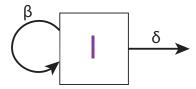
c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

hylodynamic mode robabilities

Applications

Stochastic population dynamics



Consider the fate of N individuals:

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

Probabilities

Applications References

An example for the dynamics of a population

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

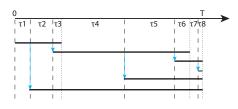
Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models

Probabilitie

Applications References

From population dynamics to phylogenetic trees

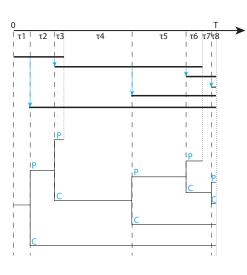


This diagram illustrates the full population dynamics of a birth-death process which starts with one individual and is stopped after time T. Each solid black line is the lifetime of an individual. Blue arrows are birth events.

Introduction
Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models Probabilities

From population dynamics to phylogenetic trees



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

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities

Phylodynamic models

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities Applications

References

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:

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models Phylodynamic models

robabilities

Applications

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities Innlications

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

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Phylodynamic models

pplications

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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- ightharpoonup Death rate δ
- Process duration T

c09-Phylodynamics
Introduction

Phylodynamic models

nnlications

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- Birth rate β
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- Process duration T
- Extant tip sampling probability ρ

09-Phylodynamics

Phylodynamic models

Applications

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

9-Phylodynamics

Phylodynamic models

nnlications

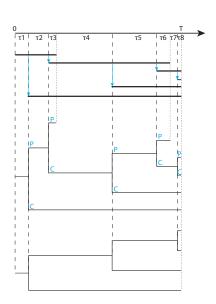
A phylodynamic model adds a sampling process of individuals to the population dynamics (sampling is equivalent to sequencing the individual and adding it to the phylogenetic tree). The simplest phylodynamic model is:

- 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.

109-Phylodynamics
Introduction
Population dynamic mode
Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

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

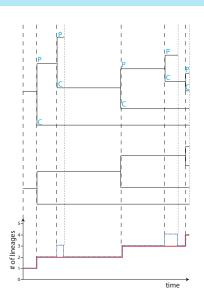
c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mode

Phylodynamic models

Applications References

Lineages-through-time plot

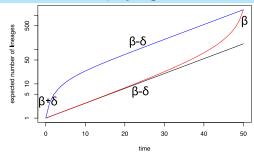


Plotting the number of lineages (y-axis) vs time (x-axis) is called the lineages-through-time (LTT) plot. The LTT plot of the complete tree (blue; dashed) shows the population size through time. The LTT plot of the phylogenetic tree (red) shows the number of surviving lineages through time.

9-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic model
Phylodynamic models

robabilities

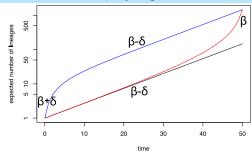


Average LTTs for a population of age T=50:

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models

robabilities



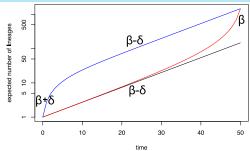
Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

robabilities



Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

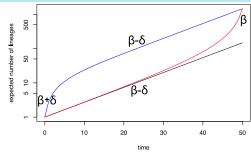
- ▶ Red: Average number of lineages in the phylogenetic tree.
- ▶ Blue: Average of surviving population trajectories.

:09-Phylodynamics

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Phylodynamic models

robabilities

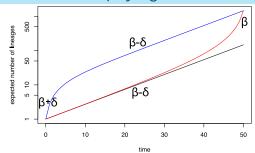


Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

- ▶ 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).

Introduction
Population dynamic models

Applications



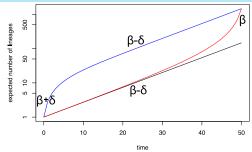
Average LTTs for a population of age T = 50:

- ▶ 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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c09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities

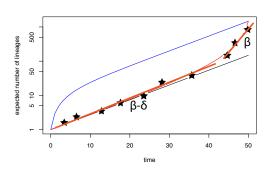


- We observe a push-of-the-past as only individuals with a quick replication early on will produce surviving populations.
- ► We observe the pull-of-the-present (i.e. an apparent acceleration in diversification towards the present) as the very recent lineages did not yet have time to go extinct.

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Phylodynamic models

Applications

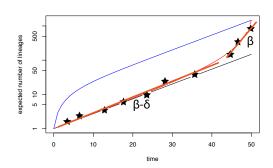


c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic models Phylodynamic models

Probabilities Applications



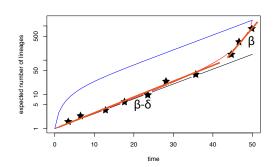
▶ We could fit a regression line to the early branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for $\beta - \delta$.

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

robabilities

Applications References

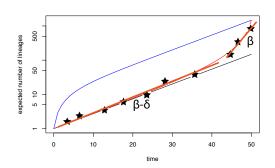


- ▶ We could fit a regression line to the early branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for $\beta \delta$.
- \triangleright We could fit a regression line to the late branching events and estimate its slope, this is an estimate for β.

09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models

robabilities



- ▶ 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!

9-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

robabilities pplications

Probabilities

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

Applications

References

Probabilities.

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities

Applications References

24 / 43

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

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities

Applications

- ▶ 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).

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic mode

Probabilities

pplications

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

9-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mo

ylodynamic models

Probabilities

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

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 $\mathfrak{p}(1|t,\beta,\delta)$.

209-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities

Probability of extinction, p(0|t)

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Population dynamic mod

Probabilities

Applications
References

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)

Introduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

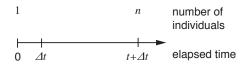
Applications

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.

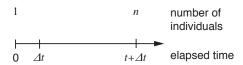
c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mode

Probabilities
Applications

Probability of extinction p(0|t)

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

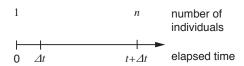


- Consider a small timestep Δt during which only one event occurs.
- ▶ During that time step, for a single individual, a death event happens with probability $\delta\Delta t$, and a birth event happens with probability $\beta\Delta t$. No event happens with probability $1-(\beta+\delta)\Delta t$.

Introduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

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.

09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic models Phylodynamic models

Thus:

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

c09-Phylodynamics

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Probabilities

Applications References

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

Rearranging leads to:

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

Introduction
Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

Applications

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

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

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic models Phylodynamic models Probabilities

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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.

c09-Phylodynamics
Introduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models
Probabilities
Applications

Solution for p(0|t)

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic mo

Probabilities

Applications

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.

c09-Phylodynamics
Introduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

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),

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

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Population dynamic models

Probabilities

Applications

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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).

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities

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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),

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

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

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic r

Probabilities

Applications

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Probability of 1 descendant, p(1|t)

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

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.

209-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities

Probability of 1 descendant, p(1|t)

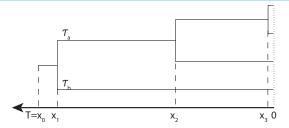
▶ In order to prove the equation for p(1|t), we write the differential equation analogously to p(0|t),

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

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.

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities



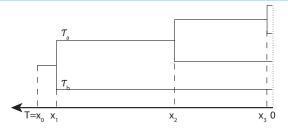
c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic models

Probabilities

Applications



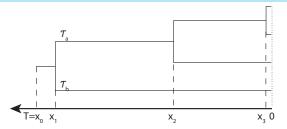
Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t=0).

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

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Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

Applications References



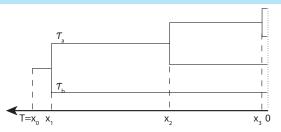
- ► Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).
- ► We take a dynamic programming approach.

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mode

Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

Applications References



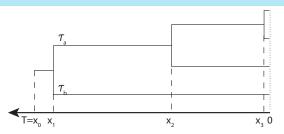
- Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).
- ▶ We take a dynamic programming approach.
- Let $p(x_0, x_1)$ be the probability density for a branch of length $x_0 x_1$ extending from an individual at time x_0 in the past.

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic models

Probabilities

Applications



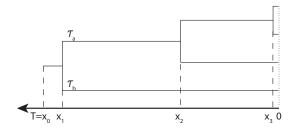
- Time is measured as age relative to the present (i.e. where t = 0).
- ▶ We take a dynamic programming approach.
- Let $p(x_0, x_1)$ be the probability density for a branch of length $x_0 x_1$ extending from an individual at time x_0 in the past.
- ▶ Then, the probability density of a tree T with age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

09-Phylodynamics
ntroduction
Population dynamic models

Probabilities Applications

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



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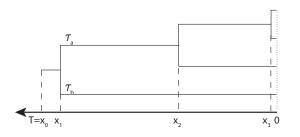
Introduction

Population dynamic

Probabilities

Applications

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



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

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction

Population dynamic mo

Probabilities Applications

► This leads to the differential equation:

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

Introduction

Introduction

Population dynamic mod

Probabilities

Applications

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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).

Introduction

Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models Probabilities

Applications References

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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

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

Introduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models

Probabilities Applications

teferences

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

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic mode

Probabilities

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

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

c09-Phylodynamics Introduction Population dynamic model Phylodynamic models Probabilities Applications

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models Probabilities

Applications

References

▶ 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.

09-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic model

hylodynamic models robabilities

Applications

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ 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.

9-Phylodynamics stroduction

Population dynamic models

Probabilities Applications

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ntroduction

Phylodynamic models

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- As it was early in the epidemic, they assumed a constant β (transmission rate) and δ (becoming-uninfectious rate, ending with recovery or death).

09-Phylodynamics
introduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models
Probabilities

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- As it was early in the epidemic, they assumed a constant β (transmission rate) and δ (becoming-uninfectious rate, ending with recovery or death).
- ► The data were sampled through time, i.e. $\rho = 0$ but $\phi = 0.7$.

ntroduction
Population dynamic models
Phylodynamic models

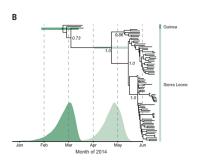


Figure adapted from [Gire et al., 2014]
Phylogenetic tree of Ebola in West Africa.

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

09-Phylodynamics

Introductio

Population dynamic mod

Probabiliti

Applications

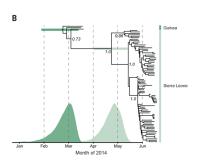


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- ▶ Bayesian methods improve these estimates (lecture 11).

09-Phylodynamics

Introducti

Population dynamic me

Probabiliti

Applications

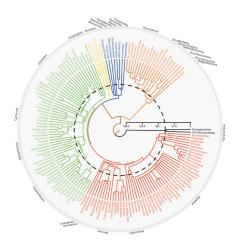


Figure adapted from [Bininda-Emonds et al., 2007]

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic mode

Probabilities

Applications

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

c09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic mo

nylodynamic mod

Applications

- ▶ 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.

09-Phylodynamics

Introducti

Population dynamic mode

robabilities

Applications

- ▶ 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?

09-Phylodynamics

Introducti

Population dynamic r

robabilities

Applications

- ▶ 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.

19-Phylodynamics

Introducti

Population dynamic r

rohabilities

Applications

- ▶ 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].

9-Phylodynamics

Population dynamic n

obabilities

Applications

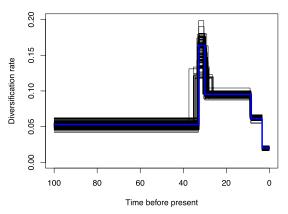


Figure adapted from [Stadler, 2011]

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).

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

nylodynamic mode



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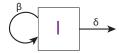
Introduction

Population dynamic models

Phylodynamic models

Probabilities

Applications References



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

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

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Probabilit

Applications



- ► 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.

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic m

Probabilit

Applications



- ► 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.

09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

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Probabilitie

Applications

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 $\mathfrak{p}(0|t)$?

09-Phylodynamics

Introductio

opulation dynamic mode

robabilities

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09-Phylodynamics

Introduction

Population dynamic model

robabilities

pplications