

Introduction

David Goldstein

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David Goldstein

3 May 2021

Copenhagen phylolinguistics workshop

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The overarching question

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- How do we draw inferences about the unobservable linguistic past from observable linguistic (and non-linguistic) data?

My goals for this workshop

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- Provide a conceptual introduction to Bayesian phylogenetic inference

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- Provide a conceptual introduction to Bayesian phylogenetic inference
- Introduce you to a .Rev script

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- Provide a conceptual introduction to Bayesian phylogenetic inference
- Introduce you to a .Rev script
- Enable you to interpret some of the results of a Bayesian phylogenetic analysis

What are phylogenetic trees?

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A phylogenetic tree is a hypothesis about the specific sequence of historical branching events leading from a common ancestor forwards in time to contemporary groupings, be they biological species or languages. (Pagel 2017, p. 152)

Overview of methods in linguistic phylogenetics

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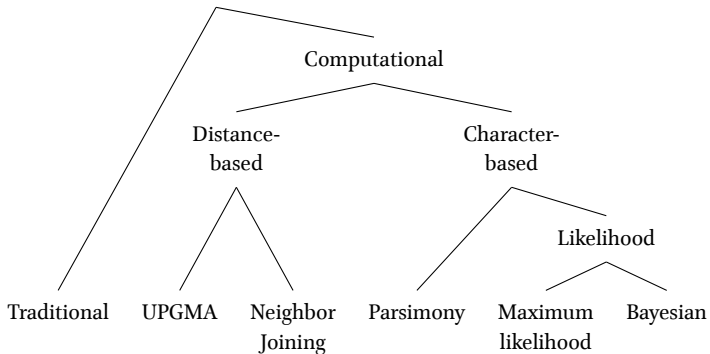
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Comparing phylogenetic methods

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- Distance-based methods infer a phylogenetic tree on the basis of a distance measure among languages (e.g., the number of cognates/homologous characters) that they share.

Comparing phylogenetic methods

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- Distance-based methods infer a phylogenetic tree on the basis of a distance measure among languages (e.g., the number of cognates/homologous characters) that they share.
- Character-based methods infer a tree on the basis of linguistic characters. In principle, these can be continuous or discrete, but in practice they are overwhelmingly discrete.

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- Distance-based methods infer a phylogenetic tree on the basis of a distance measure among languages (e.g., the number of cognates/homologous characters) that they share.
- Character-based methods infer a tree on the basis of linguistic characters. In principle, these can be continuous or discrete, but in practice they are overwhelmingly discrete.
- Likelihood and Bayesian methods are probabilistic and assume stochastic models of linguistic change.

Why Bayesian methods?

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- They enable us to pursue questions that are otherwise intractable (e.g., ancestral state estimation, divergence-time estimation, diversification rates).

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- They enable us to pursue questions that are otherwise intractable (e.g., ancestral state estimation, divergence-time estimation, diversification rates).
- The results are straightforward to interpret.

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- They enable us to pursue questions that are otherwise intractable (e.g., ancestral state estimation, divergence-time estimation, diversification rates).
- The results are straightforward to interpret.
- Estimates of uncertainty (crucial in historical linguistics!) are built in to the model.

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- They enable us to pursue questions that are otherwise intractable (e.g., ancestral state estimation, divergence-time estimation, diversification rates).
- The results are straightforward to interpret.
- Estimates of uncertainty (crucial in historical linguistics!) are built in to the model.
- Flexibility—it's possible to create a wide array of models.

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- They enable us to pursue questions that are otherwise intractable (e.g., ancestral state estimation, divergence-time estimation, diversification rates).
- The results are straightforward to interpret.
- Estimates of uncertainty (crucial in historical linguistics!) are built in to the model.
- Flexibility—it's possible to create a wide array of models.
- Bayesian methods can build on traditional knowledge through the use of prior probability distributions.

Increasing prominence in the field

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CLADE

LITERATURE

Iranian

Cathcart 2019, Cathcart 2020

Semitic

Kitchen et al. 2009

Dravidian

Kolipakam et al. 2018

Transeurasian

Robbeets and Bouckaert 2018

Pama-Nyungan

Bowern 2012, Bowern and Atkinson 2012,
Bouckaert, Bowern, et al. 2018

Turkic

Savelyev and Robbeets 2020

Sino-Tibetan

Sagart et al. 2019, Zhang, Yan, et al. 2019, Zhang, Ji, et al. 2020

Japonic

Lee and Hasegawa 2011

Austronesian

Saunders 2005, Dunn et al. 2008, Gray, Drummond, et al. 2009,
Greenhill and Gray 2009, Greenhill, Atkinson, et al. 2010

Indo-European

Gray and Atkinson 2003, Atkinson and Gray 2006,
Bouckaert, Lemey, et al. 2012, Chang et al. 2015, Rama 2018

Slavic

Cathcart and Wandl 2020

Dene-Yeniseian

A. Sicoli and Holton 2014, Yanovich 2020

Bantu

Guillon and Mace 2016; Holden et al. 2005

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- Can't be used as a black box—you have to write up the scripts for the analyses.

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- Can't be used as a black box—you have to write up the scripts for the analyses.
- Large community of users (evolutionary biologists mainly)

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- Large community of users (evolutionary biologists mainly)
- Tutorials (<https://revbayes.github.io/tutorials/>)

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- Large community of users (evolutionary biologists mainly)
- Tutorials (<https://revbayes.github.io/tutorials/>)
- Google-user group (<https://groups.google.com/g/revbayes-users>)

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The representation of the data

What kind of data can we use?

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- Any heritable and potentially variable observable feature of a language. Characters states may be discrete or continuous.

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- Any heritable and potentially variable observable feature of a language. Characters states may be discrete or continuous.
- In biology, a distinction is drawn between PHENOTYPIC and MOLECULAR data. In linguistics, all our data is phenotypic.

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- Any heritable and potentially variable observable feature of a language. Characters states may be discrete or continuous.
- In biology, a distinction is drawn between PHENOTYPIC and MOLECULAR data. In linguistics, all our data is phenotypic.
- **DISCRETE CHARACTER:** Any homologous or cross-linguistically comparable trait or feature whose possible states are finite.

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- Any heritable and potentially variable observable feature of a language. Characters states may be discrete or continuous.
- In biology, a distinction is drawn between PHENOTYPIC and MOLECULAR data. In linguistics, all our data is phenotypic.
- **DISCRETE CHARACTER:** Any homologous or cross-linguistically comparable trait or feature whose possible states are finite.
- It is possible to carry out phylogenetic inference on continuous characters, but I'm not aware of any attempts to do this in a linguistic context.

Multistate character (Lexical cognates)

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| Language | 'father' | Class |
|-------------|--------------------|-------|
| Old English | <i>fæder</i> | 1 |
| Gothic | <i>fadar, atta</i> | 1, 2 |
| Old Norse | <i>faðir</i> | 1 |
| Latin | <i>pater</i> | 1 |
| Rumanian | <i>tată</i> | 3 |
| Greek | <i>πατήρ</i> | 1 |
| Sanskrit | <i>pitṛ</i> | 1 |
| Old Irish | <i>athir</i> | 1 |
| Armenian | <i>hayr</i> | 1 |
| Hittite | <i>attas</i> | 2? |
| Tocharian A | <i>pācar</i> | 1 |
| Tocharian B | <i>pācer</i> | 1 |
| Lithuanian | <i>tėvas</i> | 4 |
| OCS | <i>отѣцъ</i> | 5 |
| Russian | <i>отец</i> | 5 |

Binary character (Lexical cognates)

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| Language | ‘father’ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|-------------|--------------------|---|----|---|---|---|
| Old English | <i>fæder</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Gothic | <i>fadar, atta</i> | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Old Norse | <i>faðir</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Latin | <i>pater</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Rumanian | <i>tată</i> | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Greek | <i>πατήρ</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Sanskrit | <i>pitṛ</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Old Irish | <i>athir</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Armenian | <i>hayr</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Hittite | <i>attas</i> | 0 | 1? | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tocharian A | <i>pācar</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Tocharian B | <i>pācer</i> | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Lithuanian | <i>tėvas</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| OCS | <i>отѣцъ</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Russian | <i>отец</i> | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |

Partial cognates

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■ Very important, but for another day...

Partial cognates

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- Very important, but for another day...
- See List 2016 if you're curious.

Let's look at our dataset (the .nex file)

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```
#NEXUS
```

```
BEGIN DATA;
```

```
DIMENSIONS NTAX=24 NCHAR=294;
```

```
FORMAT DATATYPE=STANDARD MISSING=? GAP=- INTERLEAVE=NO  
symbols="01";
```

```
MATRIX
```

```
Hittite ?0000000000000000000000001000000
```

```
Armenian 100011110000000000000000000010000
```

“Observed data”

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- We often talk about the “observed data” in a maximum likelihood or Bayesian context.

“Observed data”

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- We often talk about the “observed data” in a maximum likelihood or Bayesian context.
- This term is slightly misleading, because it conceals the intervention of the researcher. The data have not simply been “observed,” they’ve been *selected!*

“Observed data”

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- We often talk about the “observed data” in a maximum likelihood or Bayesian context.
- This term is slightly misleading, because it conceals the intervention of the researcher. The data have not simply been “observed,” they’ve been *selected*!
- Bayesian methods are amazing, but they are not pixie dust: posterior inferences can only be as good as the data on which they are based. There never has been and never will be an exception to this truth.

Let's look at our RevBayes script

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■ `Open copenhagen-ringe-mk-ard-cc-prior.Rev`

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- What is the probability of something unobserved or unobservable (such as a phylogenetic tree) given data that we can observe?

Bayes' Theorem

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Bayes' Theorem

$$p(\theta|y) = \frac{p(y|\theta) \cdot p(\theta)}{p(y)}$$

y “Observed data”

θ Unobserved parameter

$p(\theta|y)$ Posterior probability

$p(y|\theta)$ Likelihood

$p(\theta)$ Prior probability

$p(y)$ Marginal likelihood

Conditional probability

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■ $p(\theta|y)$ is a conditional probability.

Conditional probability

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- $p(\theta|y)$ is a conditional probability.
- A conditional probability denotes the probability of an event or a parameter given the occurrence or presence of some value y .

Conditional probability

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- $p(\theta|y)$ is a conditional probability.
- A conditional probability denotes the probability of an event or a parameter given the occurrence or presence of some value y .
- How probable is it that a player will draw a card from a particular suit?
 $13/52 = 0.25$.

Conditional probability

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- $p(\theta|y)$ is a conditional probability.
- A conditional probability denotes the probability of an event or a parameter given the occurrence or presence of some value y .
- How probable is it that a player will draw a card from a particular suit?
 $13/52 = 0.25$.
- Now suppose that the player draws a spade. What is the probability that he will draw a second spade?

Conditional probability

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- $p(\theta|y)$ is a conditional probability.
- A conditional probability denotes the probability of an event or a parameter given the occurrence or presence of some value y .
- How probable is it that a player will draw a card from a particular suit?
 $13/52 = 0.25$.
- Now suppose that the player draws a spade. What is the probability that he will draw a second spade?
- Since one spade has already been drawn, only 12 remain. Since one card has already been drawn, the total number of cards in the deck is 51.
 $P(\text{Draw spade}|\text{First draw a spade}) = 12/51 = 0.24$.

Bayes' Theorem restated

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Bayes' Theorem without the normalizing constant (i.e., as an unnormalized density)

$$p(\theta|y) \propto p(y|\theta) \cdot p(\theta)$$

Bayes' Theorem in a phylogenetic context

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Bayes' Theorem in phylogenetics

$$p(\Phi, \nu, \Phi | y) \propto p(y | \Psi, \nu, \Phi) \times p(\Psi, \nu, \Phi)$$

Φ Tree topology

ν Branch lengths

Φ Parameters associated with transition model

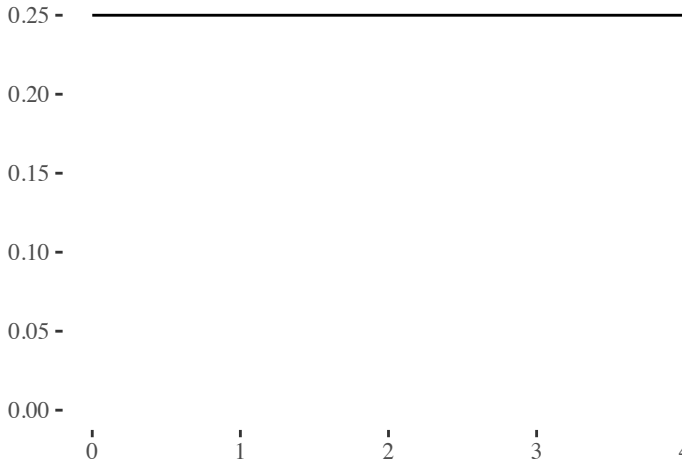
y Observed data

Excursus: Uniform distribution $\theta \sim \mathcal{U}(0, 4)$

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Uniform distribution on $[0,4]$



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Excursus: Standard normal distribution

$$\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu = 0, \sigma = 1)$$

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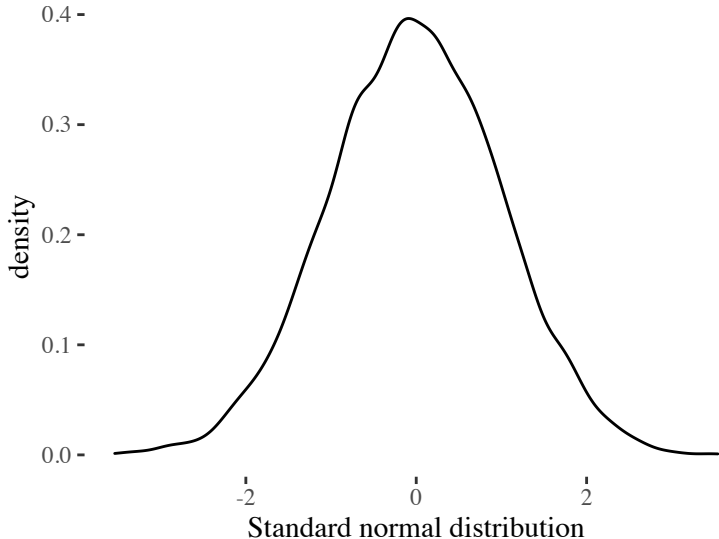
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Bayesian analyses yield posterior distributions

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■ Phylogenetic trees

Bayesian analyses yield posterior distributions

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- Phylogenetic trees
- Rates of change

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- Rates of change
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- Ancestral states

Posterior distributions for root age (Chang et al. 2015)

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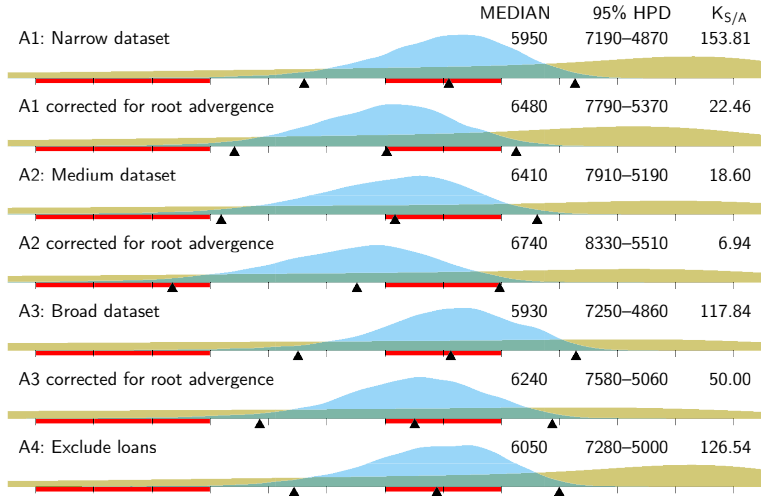
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- Our mint is issuing coins and we're trying to establish whether or not they're fair.

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- Our mint is issuing coins and we're trying to establish whether or not they're fair.
- Fair coins are defined as having a probability heads or tails right about 50%.

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- Our mint is issuing coins and we're trying to establish whether or not they're fair.
- Fair coins are defined as having a probability heads or tails right about 50%.
- This value is a parameter—it controls the rate at which heads and tails show up.

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- To see if our mint is producing fair coins, we're going to take a sample of flips.

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- To see if our mint is producing fair coins, we're going to take a sample of flips.
- We're interested in $p(\theta|y)$.

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- To see if our mint is producing fair coins, we're going to take a sample of flips.
- We're interested in $p(\theta|y)$.
- To use Bayes' Theorem, we need to specify a prior probability distribution.

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- To see if our mint is producing fair coins, we're going to take a sample of flips.
- We're interested in $p(\theta|y)$.
- To use Bayes' Theorem, we need to specify a prior probability distribution.
- Let's say we really have no idea—the mint could produce anything.

Is the mint producing fair coins?

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- To see if our mint is producing fair coins, we're going to take a sample of flips.
- We're interested in $p(\theta|y)$.
- To use Bayes' Theorem, we need to specify a prior probability distribution.
- Let's say we really have no idea—the mint could produce anything.
- We flip the coin 10 times, and heads comes up twice.

Prior probability distribution

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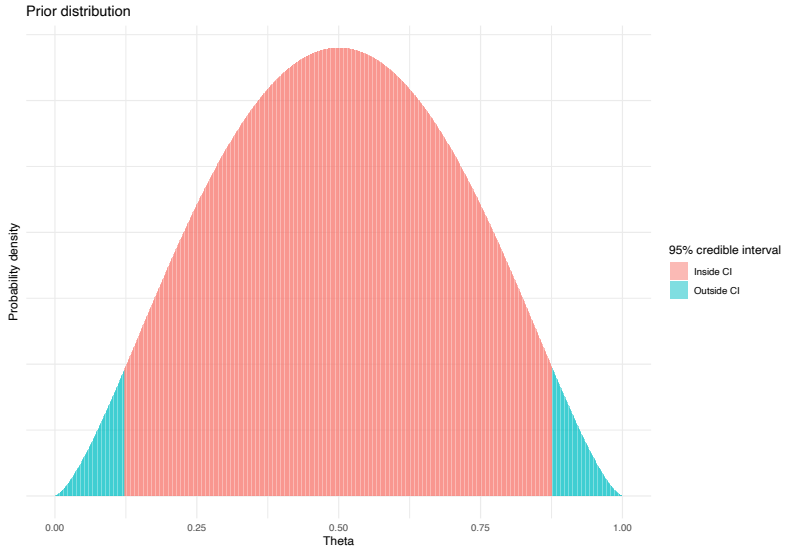
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Likelihood $p(y|\theta)$

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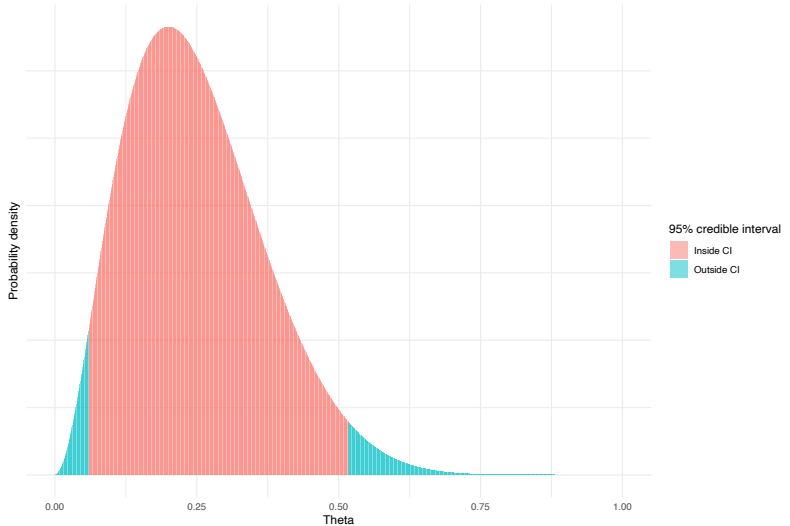
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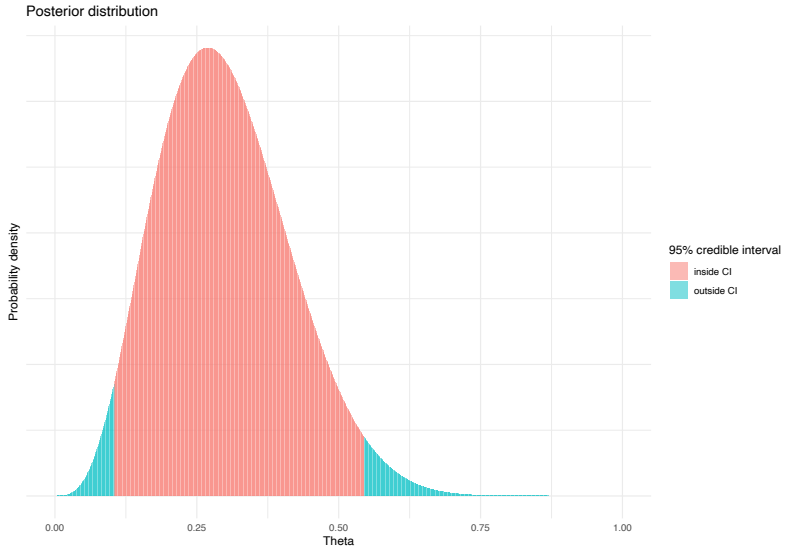
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Now let's change our prior beliefs

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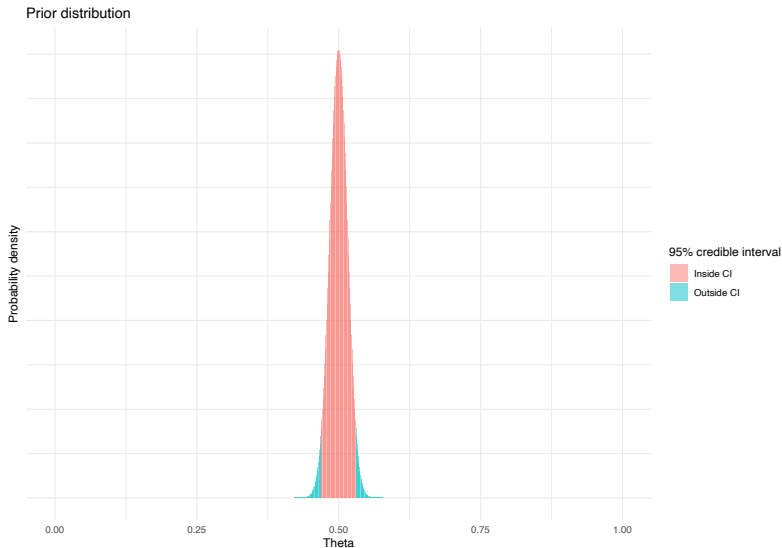
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Likelihood $p(y|\theta)$ (no change)

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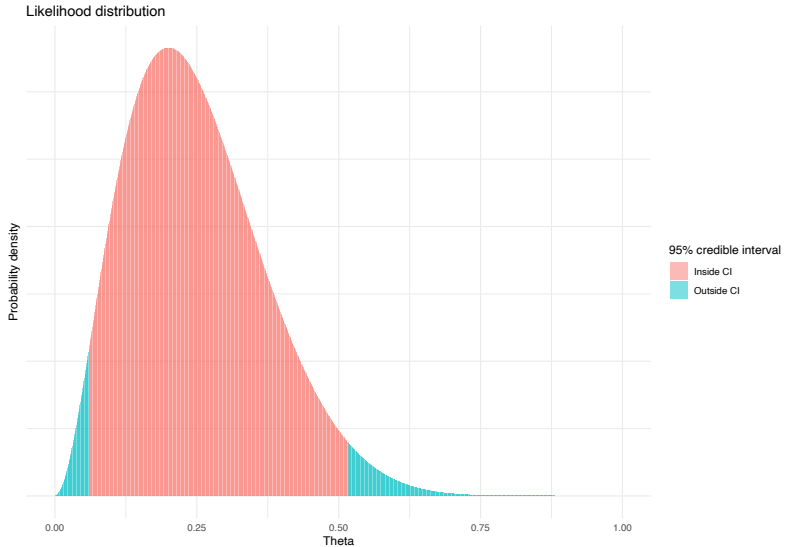
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Posterior is a compromise between the data and the priors

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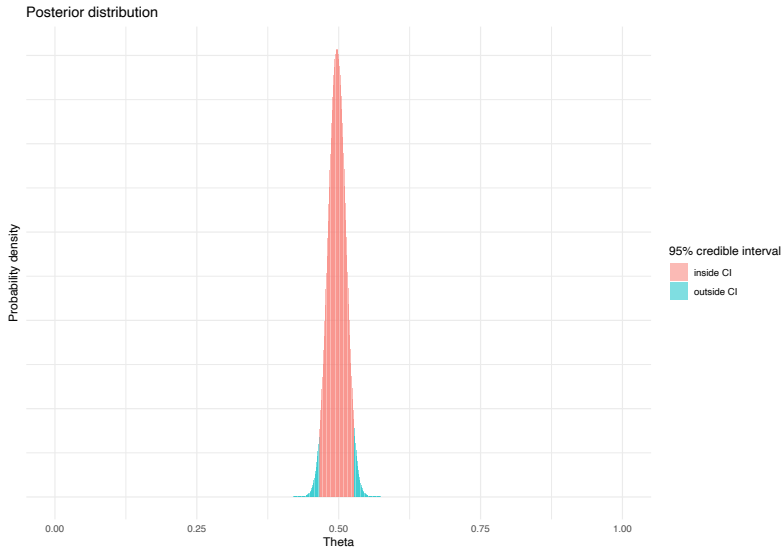
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- Priors are a non-trivial aspect of Bayesian inference.

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- Priors are a non-trivial aspect of Bayesian inference.
- The more observed data you have, the less they impact the posterior.

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- Priors are a non-trivial aspect of Bayesian inference.
- The more observed data you have, the less they impact the posterior.
- The less observed data you have, the greater their impact on the posterior.

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- Priors are a non-trivial aspect of Bayesian inference.
- The more observed data you have, the less they impact the posterior.
- The less observed data you have, the greater their impact on the posterior.
- Priors have been hugely controversial in the history of Bayesian inference.

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- Priors are a non-trivial aspect of Bayesian inference.
- The more observed data you have, the less they impact the posterior.
- The less observed data you have, the greater their impact on the posterior.
- Priors have been hugely controversial in the history of Bayesian inference.
- Priors should be explicit and justifiable. If we can justify informative priors, then we should use them.

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We need to be able to calculate the likelihood of a sequence

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- We ultimately want to calculate $p(\Psi|y)$, but to do that we need to be able to calculate the likelihood $p(y|\Psi)$.

We need to be able to calculate the likelihood of a sequence

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- We ultimately want to calculate $p(\Psi|y)$, but to do that we need to be able to calculate the likelihood $p(y|\Psi)$.
- That is, we need a way to calculate the likelihood of a particular sequence at the tips of the tree given a particular tree.

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Independence

$$P(X \cap Y) = P(X) \cdot P(Y) \text{ iff } P(Y|X) = P(Y)$$

- Multiple flips of a coin are independent.

Independence

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Independence

$$P(X \cap Y) = P(X) \cdot P(Y) \text{ iff } P(Y|X) = P(Y)$$

- Multiple flips of a coin are independent.
- The result of an earlier flip does not influence the probability of the current flip.

Mutually exclusive events

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Probability of mutually exclusive (bzw. disjoint) events

When two events X and Y are mutually exclusive,

$$P(X \cup Y) = P(X) + P(Y)$$

We're going to use this concept to take into account uncertainty at interior nodes.

Hypothetical tree

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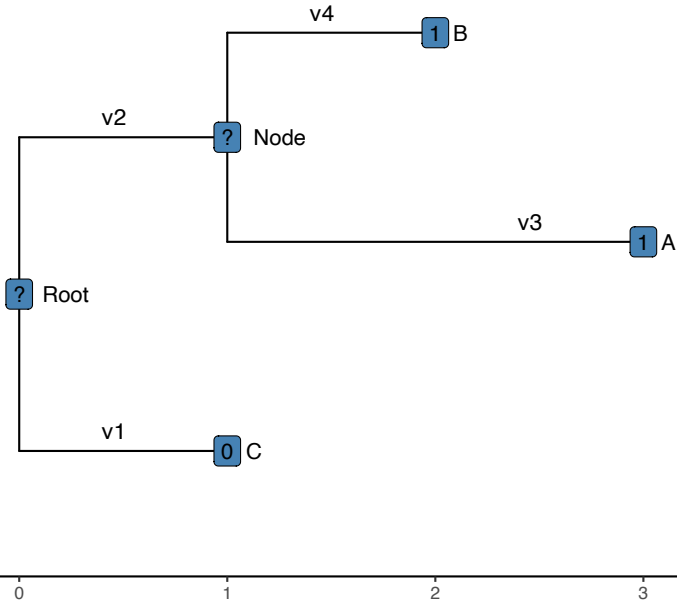
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What is the likelihood of our observed sequence?

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- What is the likelihood of 110 at the tips given the above tree and its associated branch lengths?

$$p(y|\Psi, \nu) = \pi_0 \cdot p_{00}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{00}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_4)$$

π_i : Stationary frequency

$p_{ij}(\nu_k)$: Transition probability

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- What is the likelihood of 1100 at the tips given the above tree and its associated branch lengths?
- If we knew the states at the root and an interior node and if we could assume that all transitions were independent, we could simply do a lot of multiplication.

$$p(y|\Psi, \nu) = \pi_0 \cdot p_{00}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{00}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_4)$$

π_i : Stationary frequency

$p_{ij}(\nu_k) = p(i|j, \nu_k)$: Transition probability

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- What is the likelihood of 1100 at the tips given the above tree and its associated branch lengths?
- If we knew the states at the root and an interior node and if we could assume that all transitions were independent, we could simply do a lot of multiplication.
- If the values at the root and interior node were both zero, for instance:

$$p(y|\Psi, \nu) = \pi_0 \cdot p_{00}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{00}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_4)$$

π_i : Stationary frequency

$p_{ij}(\nu_k) = p(i|j, \nu_k)$: Transition probability

The unknown interior nodes

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- Since we don't know the states at the root and the interior node, we have to take that uncertainty into account by repeating the calculation for each possible assignment of states.

The unknown interior nodes

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- Since we don't know the states at the root and the interior node, we have to take that uncertainty into account by repeating the calculation for each possible assignment of states.

- $p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu) =$

$$p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu, \text{Root}=0, \text{Node}=0) = \pi_0 \cdot p_{00}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{00}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_4) +$$

$$p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu, \text{Root}=0, \text{Node}=1) = \pi_0 \cdot p_{00}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{11}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{11}(\nu_4) +$$

$$p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu, \text{Root}=1, \text{Node}=0) = \pi_1 \cdot p_{10}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{10}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{01}(\nu_4) +$$

$$p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu, \text{Root}=1, \text{Node}=1) = \pi_1 \cdot p_{10}(\nu_1) \cdot p_{11}(\nu_2) \cdot p_{11}(\nu_3) \cdot p_{11}(\nu_4)$$

The idea behind maximum likelihood

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- Find the tree and branch lengths that yield the maximum likelihood for the observed data

The idea behind maximum likelihood

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- Find the tree and branch lengths that yield the maximum likelihood for the observed data
- In other words, what values of Ψ and ν yield the highest value for $p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu)$?

The idea behind maximum likelihood

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- Find the tree and branch lengths that yield the maximum likelihood for the observed data
- In other words, what values of Ψ and ν yield the highest value for $p(C = 0, A = 1, B = 1 | \Psi, \nu)$?
- In a Bayesian context, we do more than search for the maximum-likelihood tree (and branch lengths) because the likelihood values are all multiplied by a prior distribution.

How do we calculate transition probabilities?

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- We do this with a transition model

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- **DETERMINISTIC PROCESS** The same output is always produced from a given input. (Dowbrow 2016, p. 1)

Lit.: Çınlar 1975, Liggett 2010, Dowbrow 2016, Durrett 2016.

Deterministic vs. stochastic processes

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- **DETERMINISTIC PROCESS** The same output is always produced from a given input. (Dowbrow 2016, p. 1)
- **STOCHASTIC PROCESS** “A stochastic process is a system which evolves in time while undergoing chance fluctuations.” (Coleman 1974, p. 1)

Lit.: Çinlar 1975, Liggett 2010, Dowbrow 2016, Durrett 2016.

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- **DETERMINISTIC PROCESS** The same output is always produced from a given input. (Dowbrow 2016, p. 1)
- **STOCHASTIC PROCESS** “A stochastic process is a system which evolves in time while undergoing chance fluctuations.” (Coleman 1974, p. 1)
- What are some examples of stochastic processes?

Lit.: Çınlar 1975, Liggett 2010, Dowbrow 2016, Durrett 2016.

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- **DETERMINISTIC PROCESS** The same output is always produced from a given input. (Dowbrow 2016, p. 1)
- **STOCHASTIC PROCESS** “A stochastic process is a system which evolves in time while undergoing chance fluctuations.” (Coleman 1974, p. 1)
- What are some examples of stochastic processes?
- Whether or not it will rain tomorrow, how many text messages you’ll receive in a given day, how long you’re going to have to wait in line...

Lit.: Çinlar 1975, Liggett 2010, Dowbrow 2016, Durrett 2016.

Markov chain

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- A MARKOV CHAIN is a stochastic model describing a sequence of possible events in which the probability of each event depends only on the state attained in the previous event.

Markov chain as transition graph

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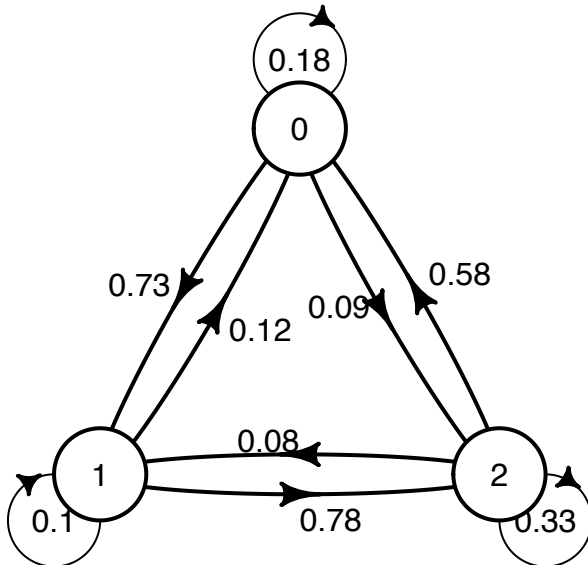
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Markov chain as matrix

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$$\begin{array}{ccc} & 0 & 1 & 2 \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{array} & \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.2 & 0.2 \\ 0.4 & 0.5 & 0.1 \\ 0.3 & 0.3 & 0.4 \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

- Each row in the above matrix sums to 1. Why?

Discrete- and continuous-time Markov chains

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- **DISCRETE-TIME MARKOV CHAIN** Transitions can only happen at a discrete time value.

Discrete- and continuous-time Markov chains

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- **DISCRETE-TIME MARKOV CHAIN** Transitions can only happen at a discrete time value.
- **EXAMPLE:** A board-game. A piece can only move when it's someone's turn.

Discrete- and continuous-time Markov chains

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- **DISCRETE-TIME MARKOV CHAIN** Transitions can only happen at a discrete time value.
- **EXAMPLE:** A board-game. A piece can only move when it's someone's turn.
- **CONTINUOUS-TIME MARKOV CHAIN** Changes to the system can happen at any time along a continuous interval. A continuous-time Markov chain is known as a **MARKOV PROCESS**.

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- **EXAMPLE:** Whether or not it starts to rain. It can happen at any moment.

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- **EXAMPLE:** A board-game. A piece can only move when it's someone's turn.
- **CONTINUOUS-TIME MARKOV CHAIN** Changes to the system can happen at any time along a continuous interval. A continuous-time Markov chain is known as a **MARKOV PROCESS**.
- **EXAMPLE:** Whether or not it starts to rain. It can happen at any moment.
- Given a branch of a specific length, the CTMC provides us with probabilities for transitions among the possible states.

Continuous-time Markov Chain (CTMC)

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- Likelihood and Bayesian methods model the history of characters on a phylogenetic tree as a **MARKOV PROCESS**.

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- Likelihood and Bayesian methods model the history of characters on a phylogenetic tree as a **MARKOV PROCESS**.
- CTMCs are the basis of most computational phylogenetic methods (Warnow 2018, p. 147).

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■ *Memoryless*

The probability of a transition depends only on the current state.

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- *Memoryless*

The probability of a transition depends only on the current state.

- *Independent*

Transitions are independent (what happens in one region of the tree is assumed to be independent of what happens elsewhere in the tree).

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- *Memoryless*

The probability of a transition depends only on the current state.

- *Independent*

Transitions are independent (what happens in one region of the tree is assumed to be independent of what happens elsewhere in the tree).

- *Constant rate*

For each rate parameter, a single rate is estimated for the entire tree, i.e., we're not going to allow rates to speed up or slow down along the tree.

Transition probability matrix P

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- The probability of a transition given a branch length.

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- The probability of a transition given a branch length.
- Each row vector will sum to 1 (Yang 2014, p. 4).

Transition probability matrix P

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- The probability of a transition given a branch length.
- Each row vector will sum to 1 (Yang 2014, p. 4).
- The transition probability matrix is derived from the instantaneous rate matrix.

Instantaneous rate matrix Q

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- The transition probability matrix is derived from a instantaneous rate matrix Q , which represents the rate of change at an extremely small unit of time.

Instantaneous rate matrix Q

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- The transition probability matrix is derived from a instantaneous rate matrix Q , which represents the rate of change at an extremely small unit of time.
- What we will work with in RevBayes is actually the instantaneous rate matrix Q and not the transition probability matrix P .

Instantaneous rate matrix Q

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- The transition probability matrix is derived from a instantaneous rate matrix Q , which represents the rate of change at an extremely small unit of time.
- What we will work with in RevBayes is actually the instantaneous rate matrix Q and not the transition probability matrix P .
- There are many different varieties of rate matrices (or transition models).

Instantaneous rate matrix Q

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- The transition probability matrix is derived from a instantaneous rate matrix Q , which represents the rate of change at an extremely small unit of time.
- What we will work with in RevBayes is actually the instantaneous rate matrix Q and not the transition probability matrix P .
- There are many different varieties of rate matrices (or transition models).
- Different transition models allow us to make different assumptions about linguistic change.

Equal-rate (ER) model

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$$\begin{array}{cc} & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -q & q \\ q & -q \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

■ q_1 = rate at which character changes from 0 to 1 over a short interval dt

Equal-rate (ER) model

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$$\begin{array}{cc} & \begin{matrix} 0 & 1 \end{matrix} \\ \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -q & q \\ q & -q \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

- q_1 = rate at which character changes from 0 to 1 over a short interval dt
- q_2 = rate at which character changes from 1 to 0 over a short interval dt

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$$\begin{array}{cc} & \begin{array}{cc} 0 & 1 \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 1 \end{array} & \begin{bmatrix} -q & q \\ q & -q \end{bmatrix} \end{array}$$

- q_1 = rate at which character changes from 0 to 1 over a short interval dt
- q_2 = rate at which character changes from 1 to 0 over a short interval dt
- The elements on the diagonal are determined by summing the non-diagonal elements in the row and negating them.

All-rates-different (ARD) model

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$$\begin{matrix} & 0 & 1 \\ \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{matrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -q_1 & q_1 \\ q_2 & -q_2 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

The Mk model

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■ M stands for Markov

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- M stands for Markov
- k is a variable over discrete character states

Other transition models

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■ F81

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■ F81

■ HKY

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■ F81

■ HKY

■ GTR

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- F81
- HKY
- GTR
- Covarion

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**Prior distribution for the
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Prior distribution for the rates

Exponential distribution ($q_{ij} \sim \text{Exp}(\lambda)$)

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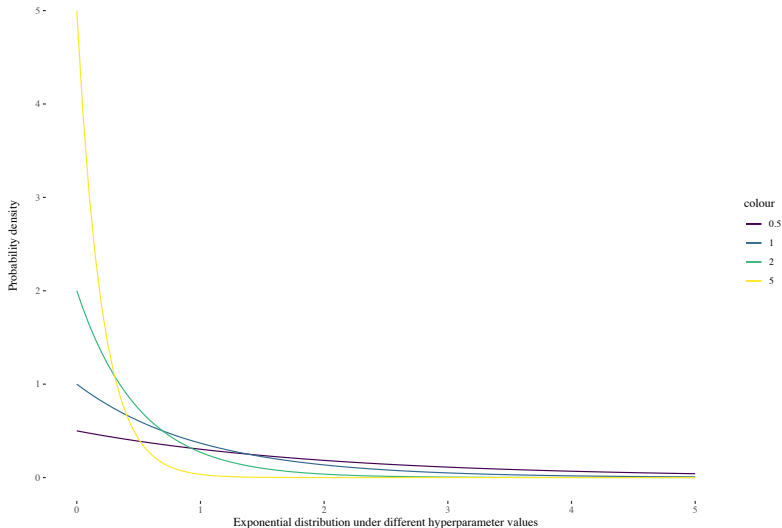
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Let's look at our .Rev script again

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**Prior distribution for the
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- Look at the code for the rate matrix Q

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