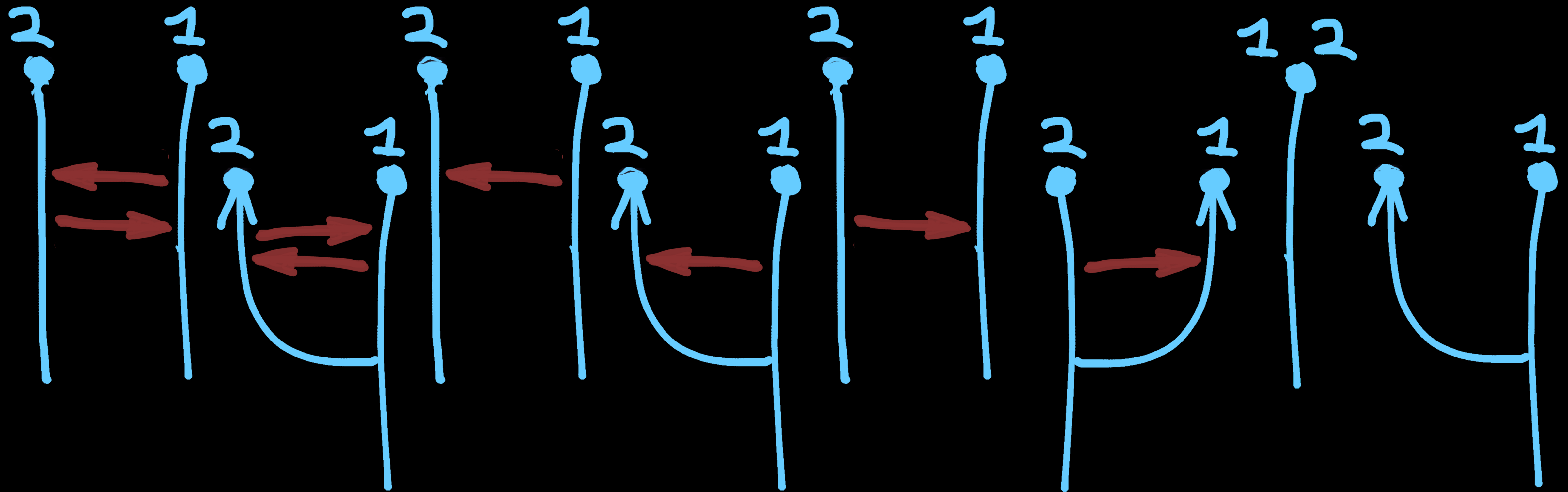
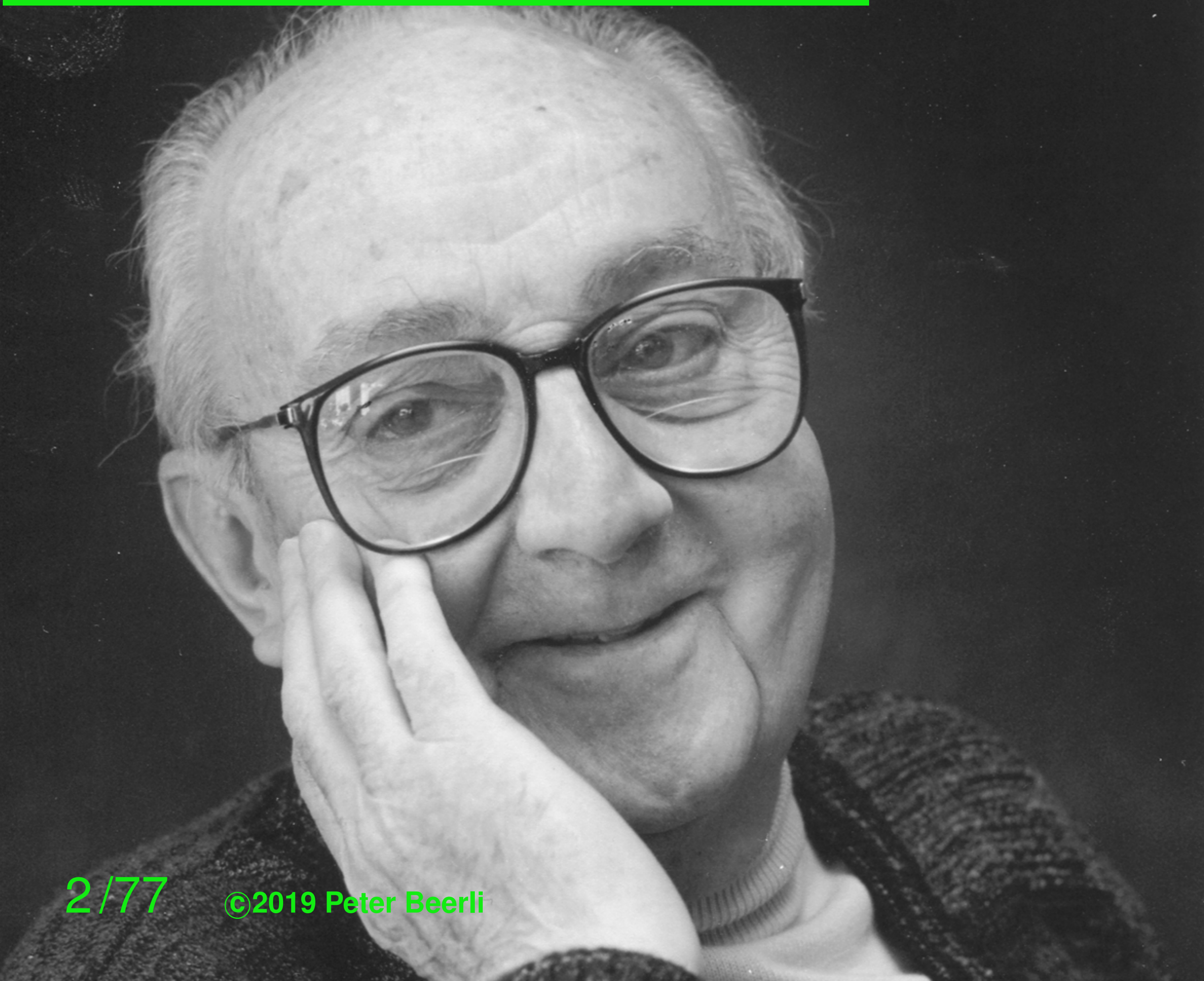


# All models are good, but only some are useful



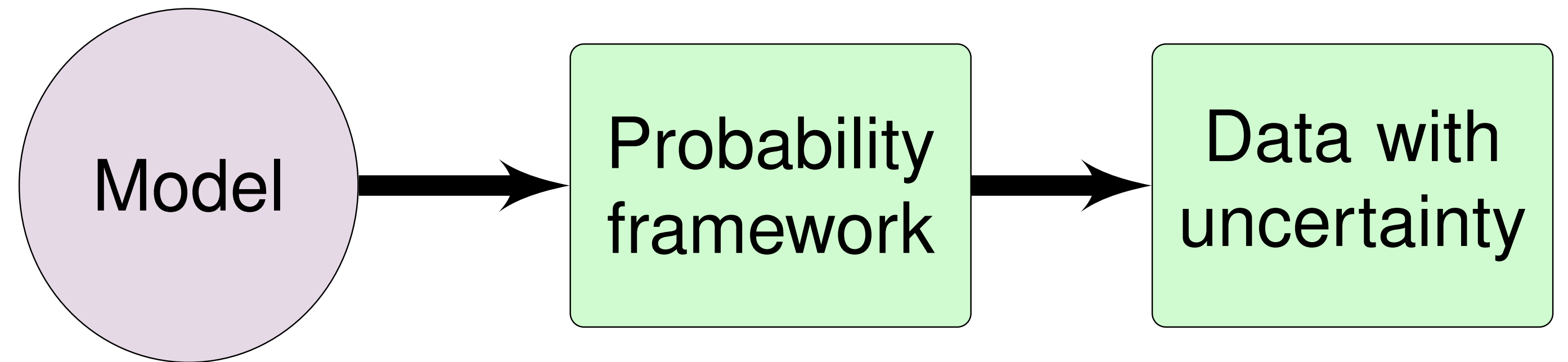
# On models



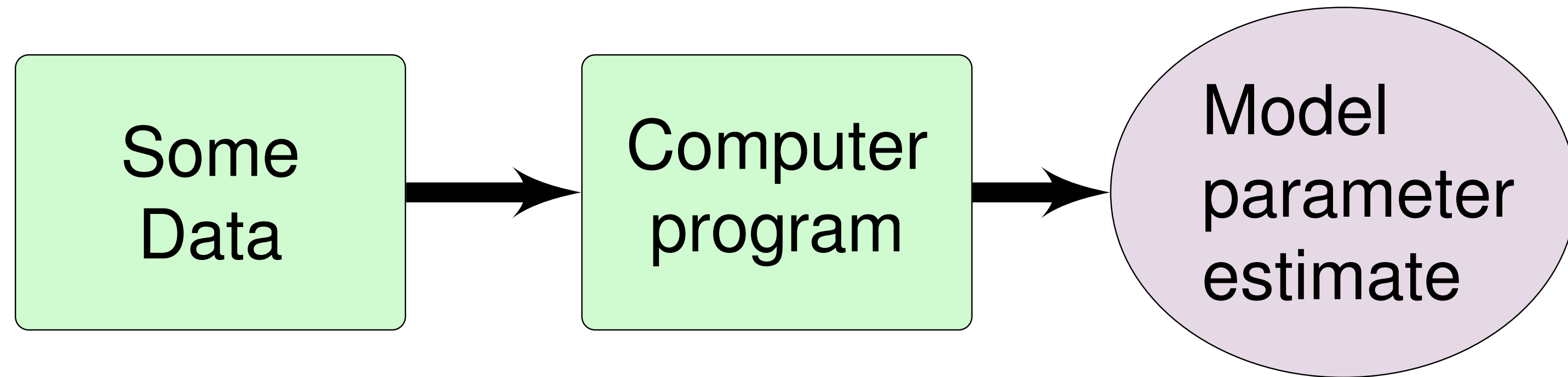
*Essentially, all models are wrong, but some are useful.*

Box, George E. P.; Norman R. Draper (1987). Empirical Model-Building and Response Surfaces, p. 424, Wiley.

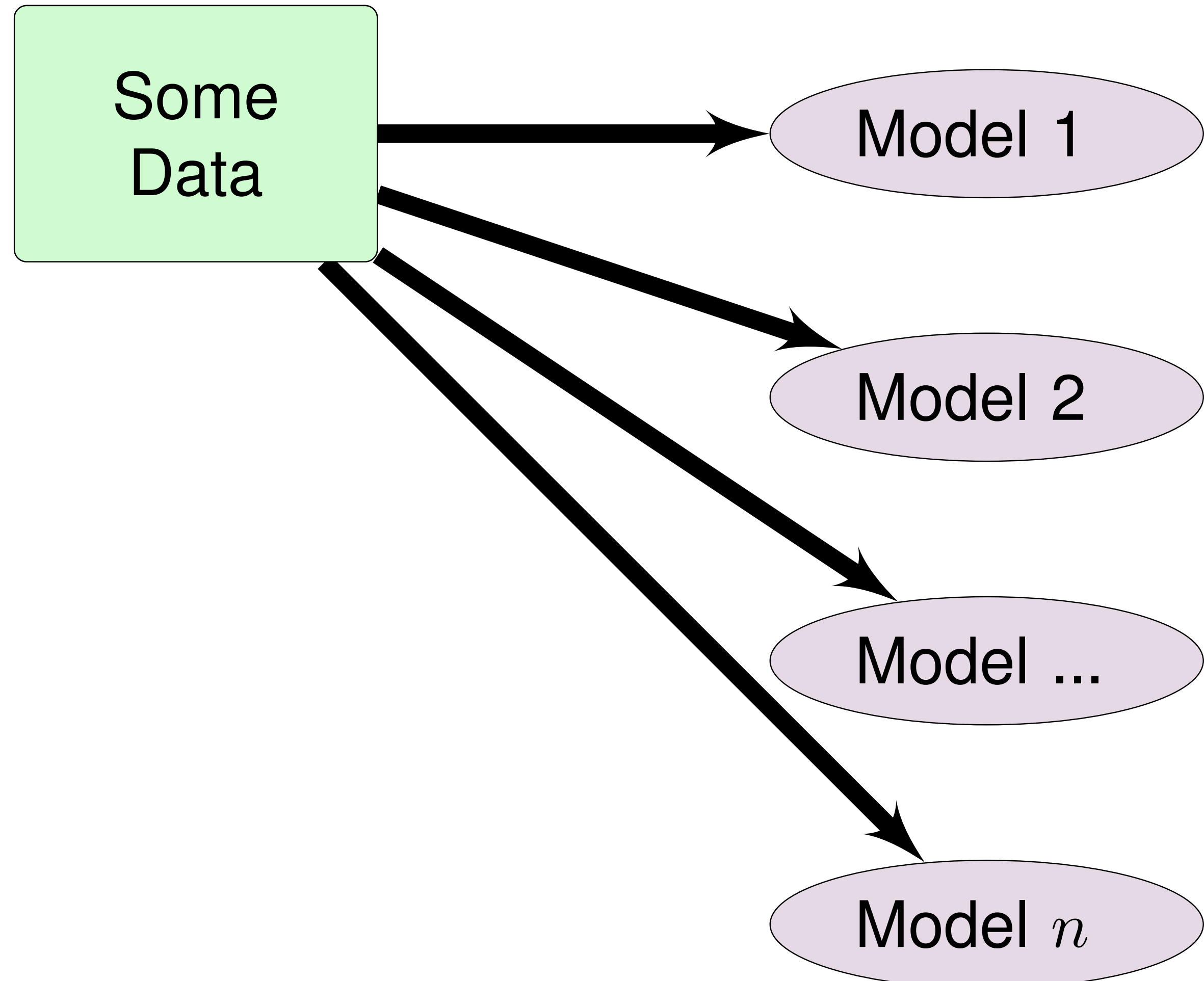
# On models and data



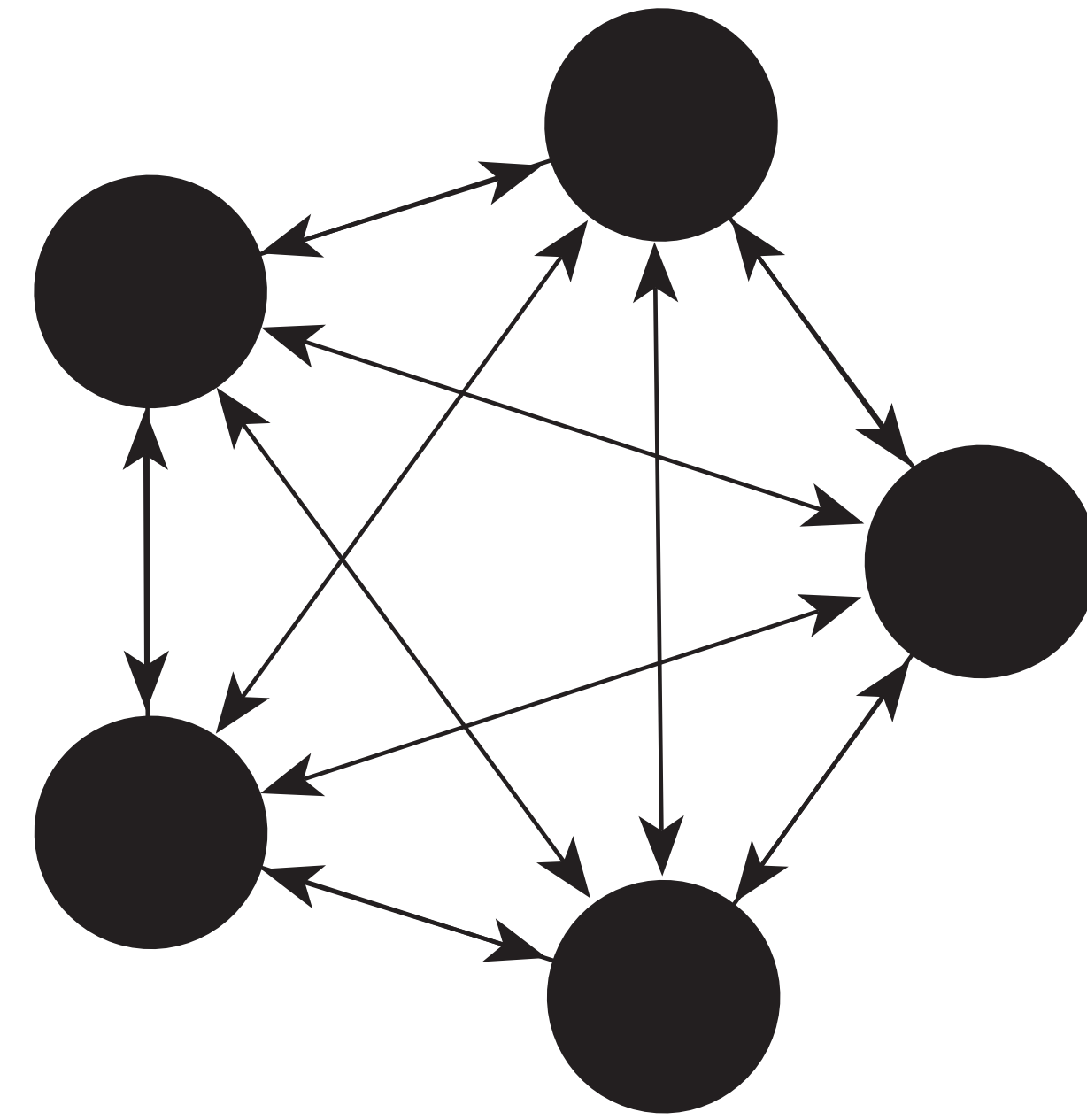
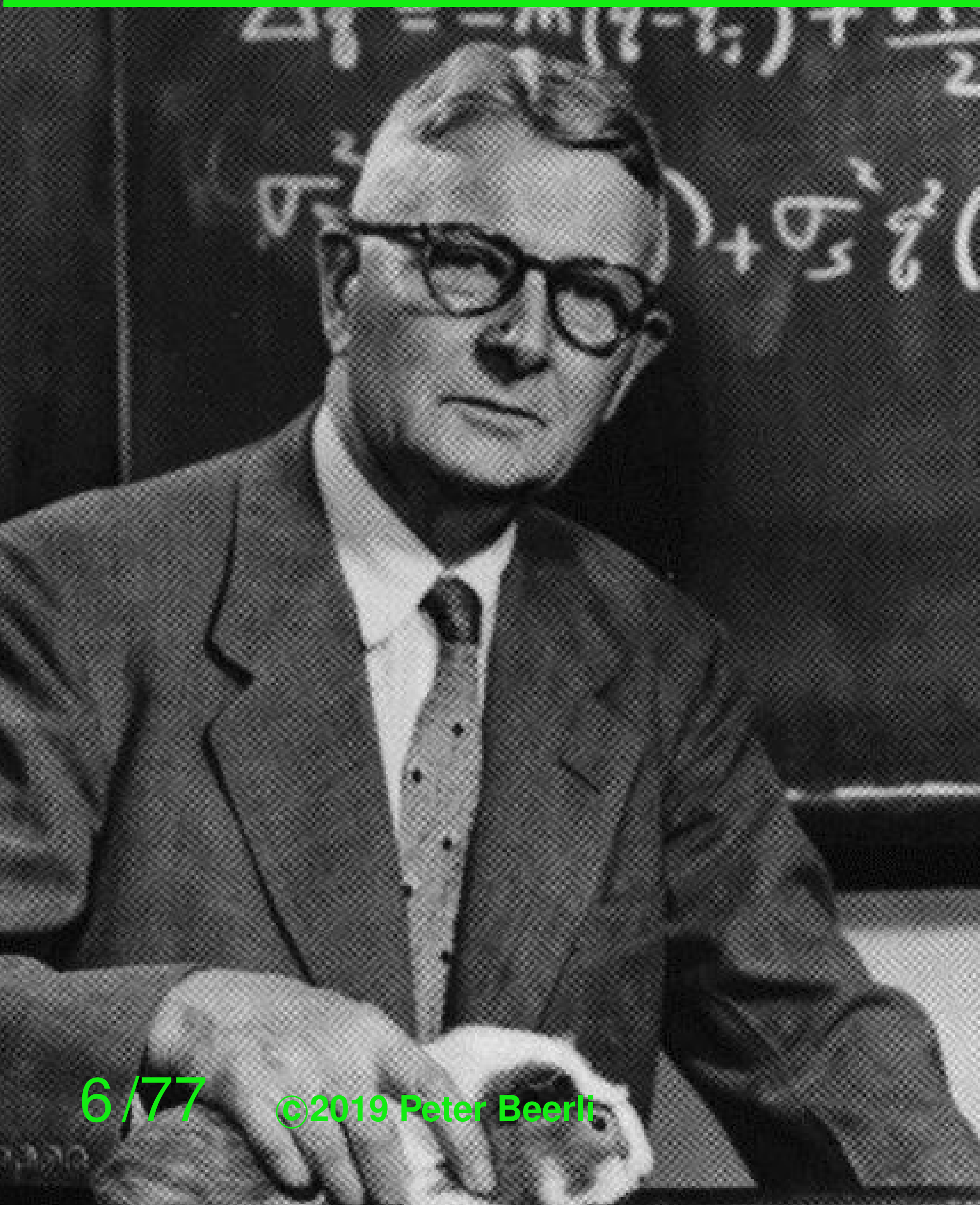
# On data and models



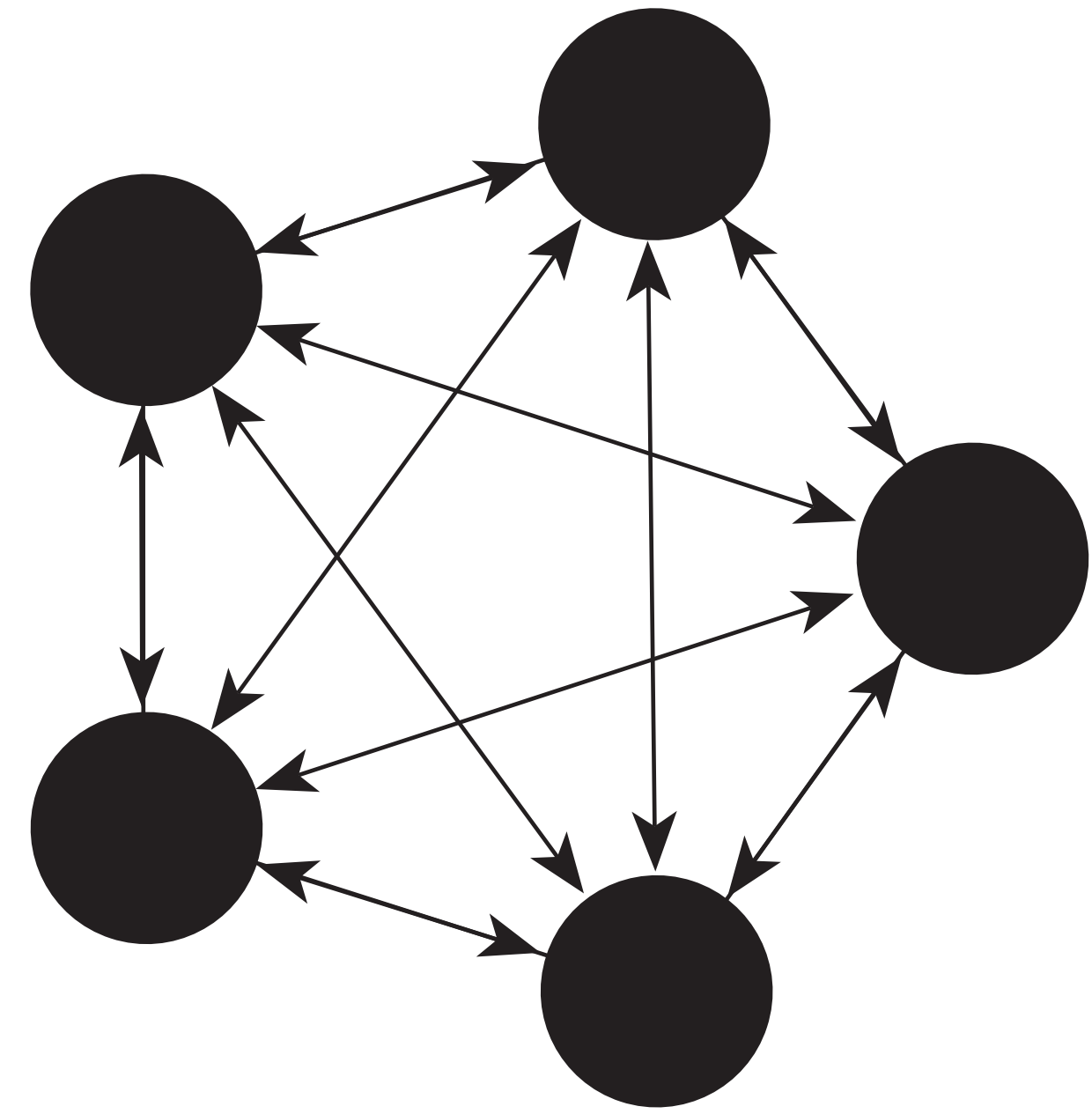
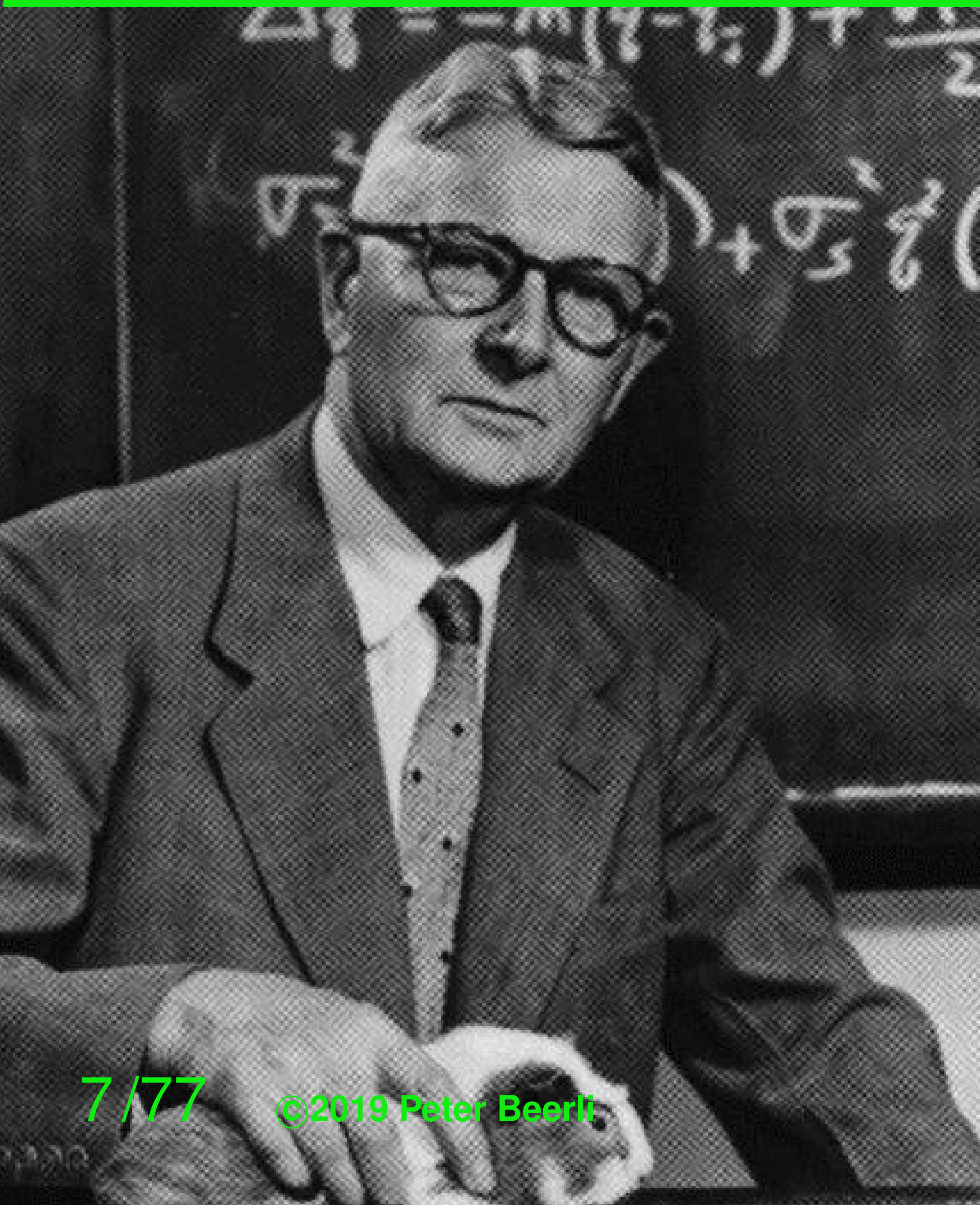
# On models and data



# Population genetics models



# Population genetics models



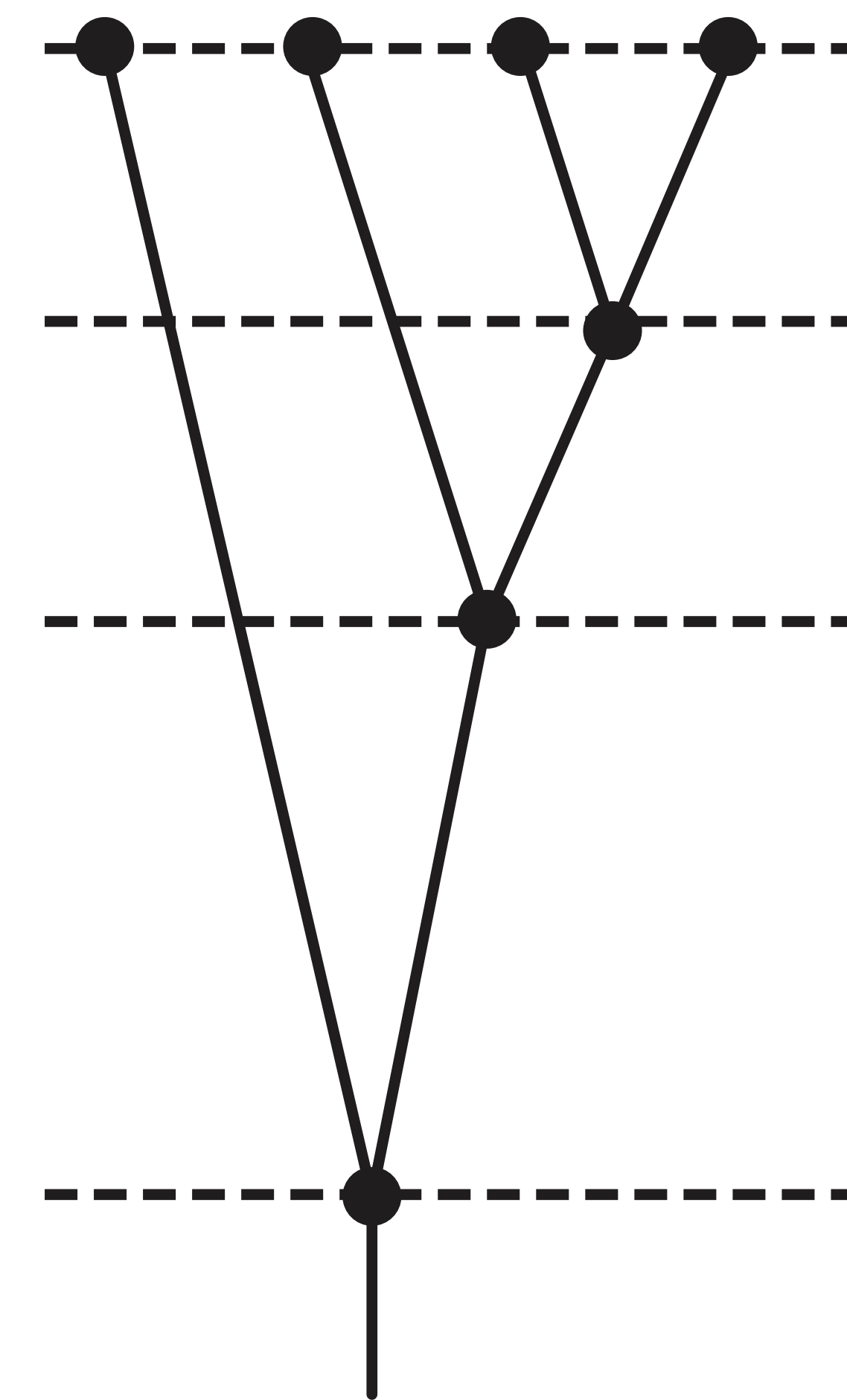
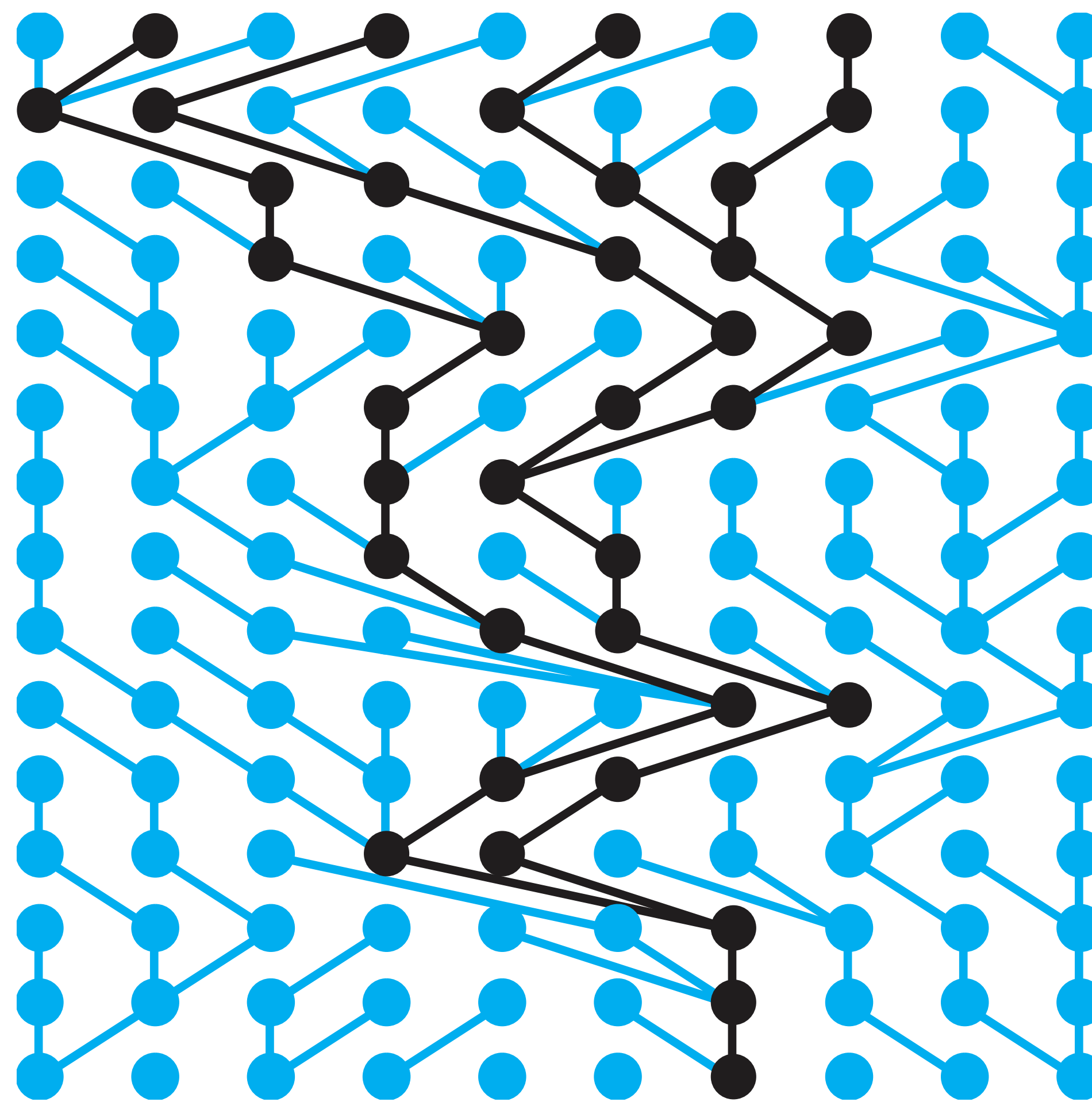
$$F_{ST} = \frac{\sigma^2(p)}{p(1-p)} \approx \frac{H_T - \bar{H}_S}{H_T}$$

$$F_{ST} \approx \frac{1}{4Nm+1}$$

$$Nm \approx \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{F_{ST}} - 1 \right)$$

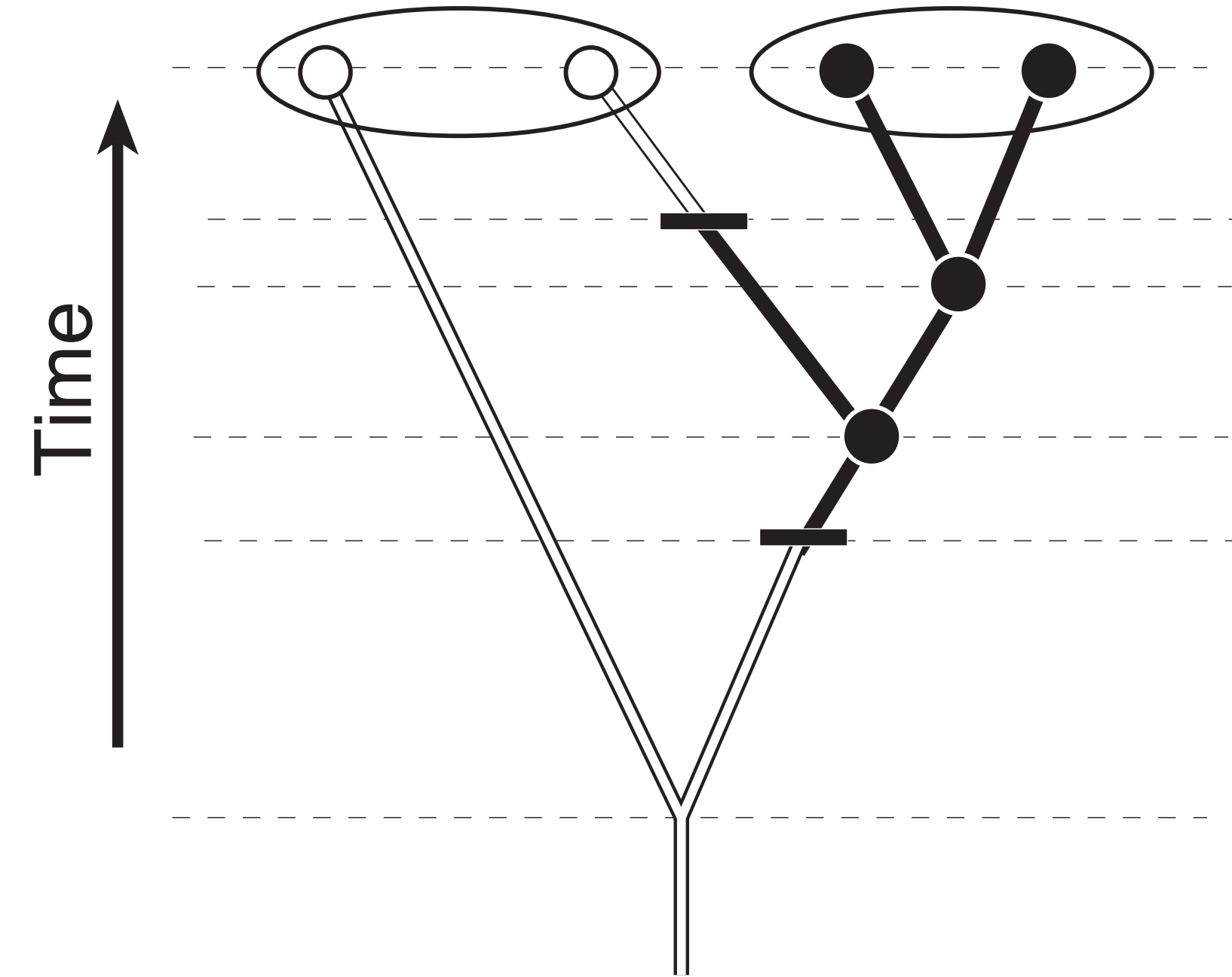
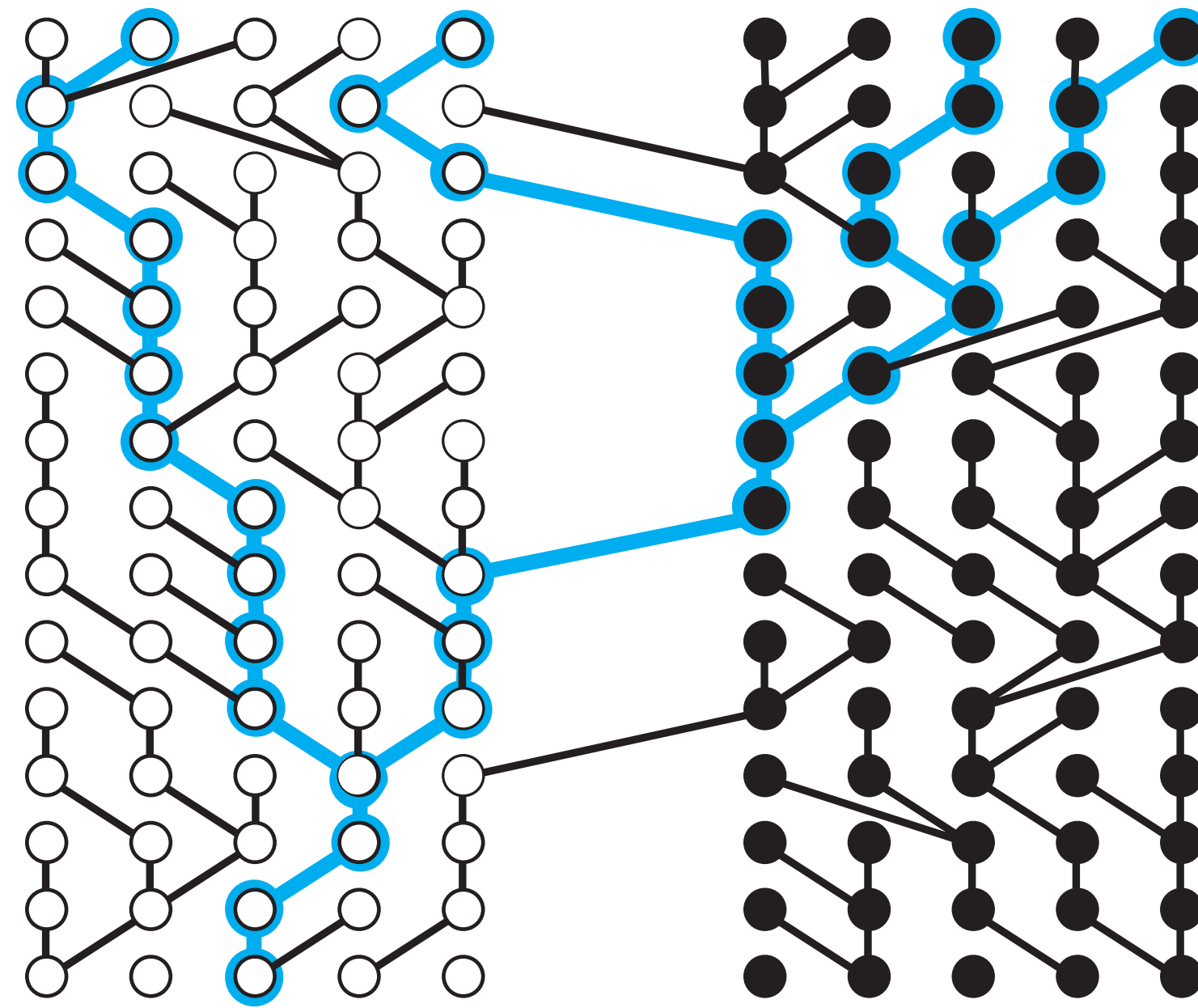
Theoretical Biologist: Sewall Wright

# Population genetics models

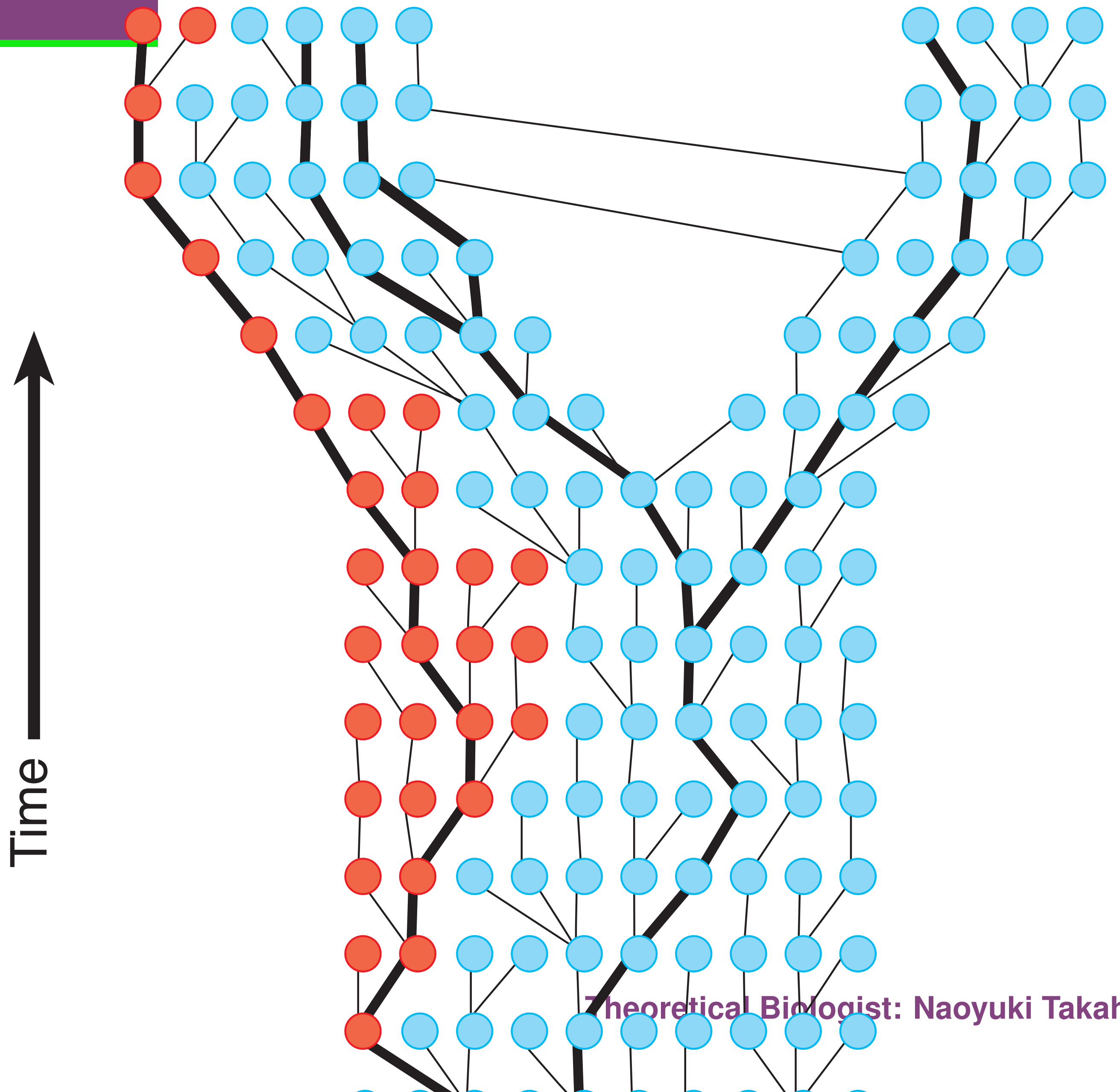




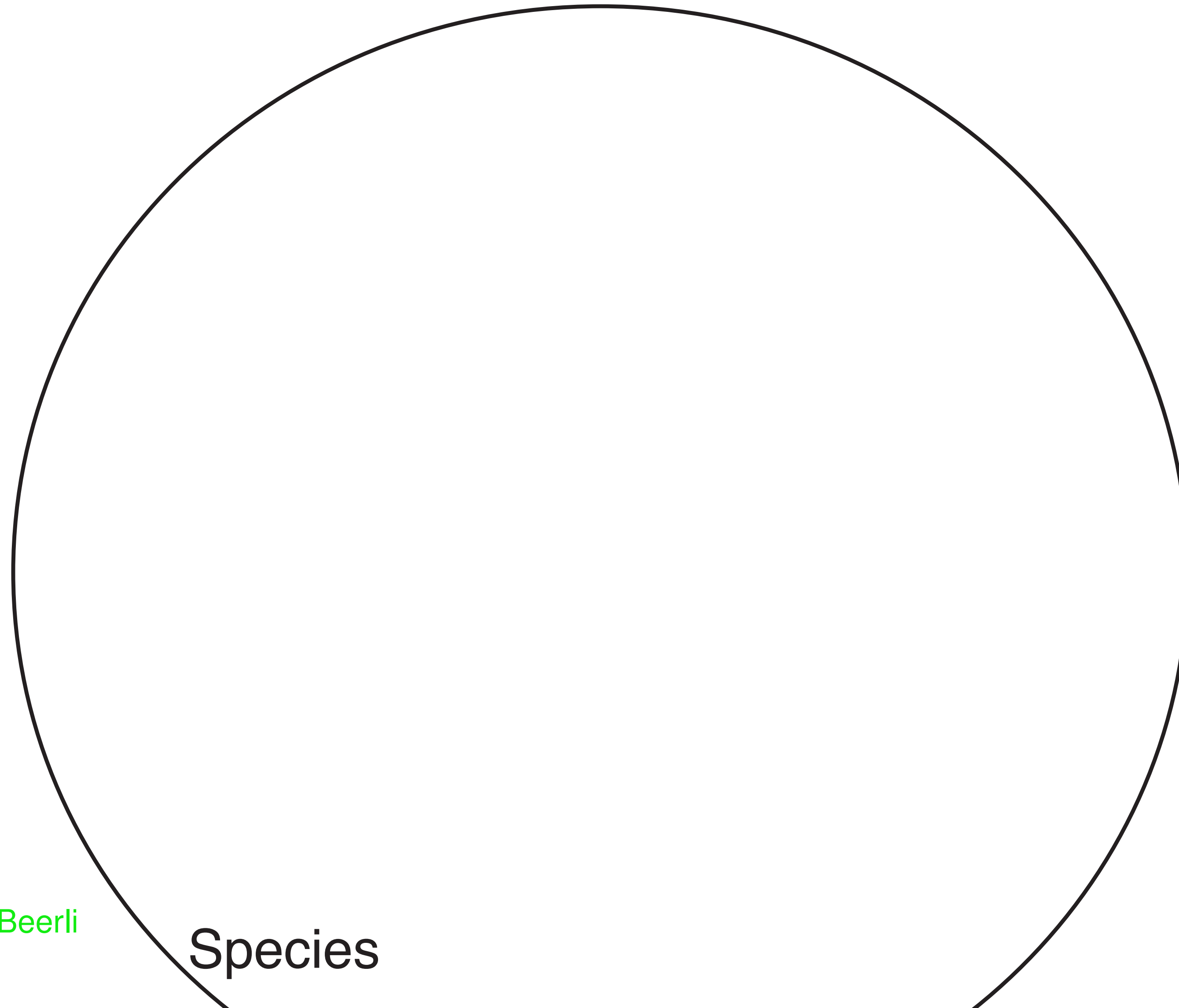
# Population genetics models



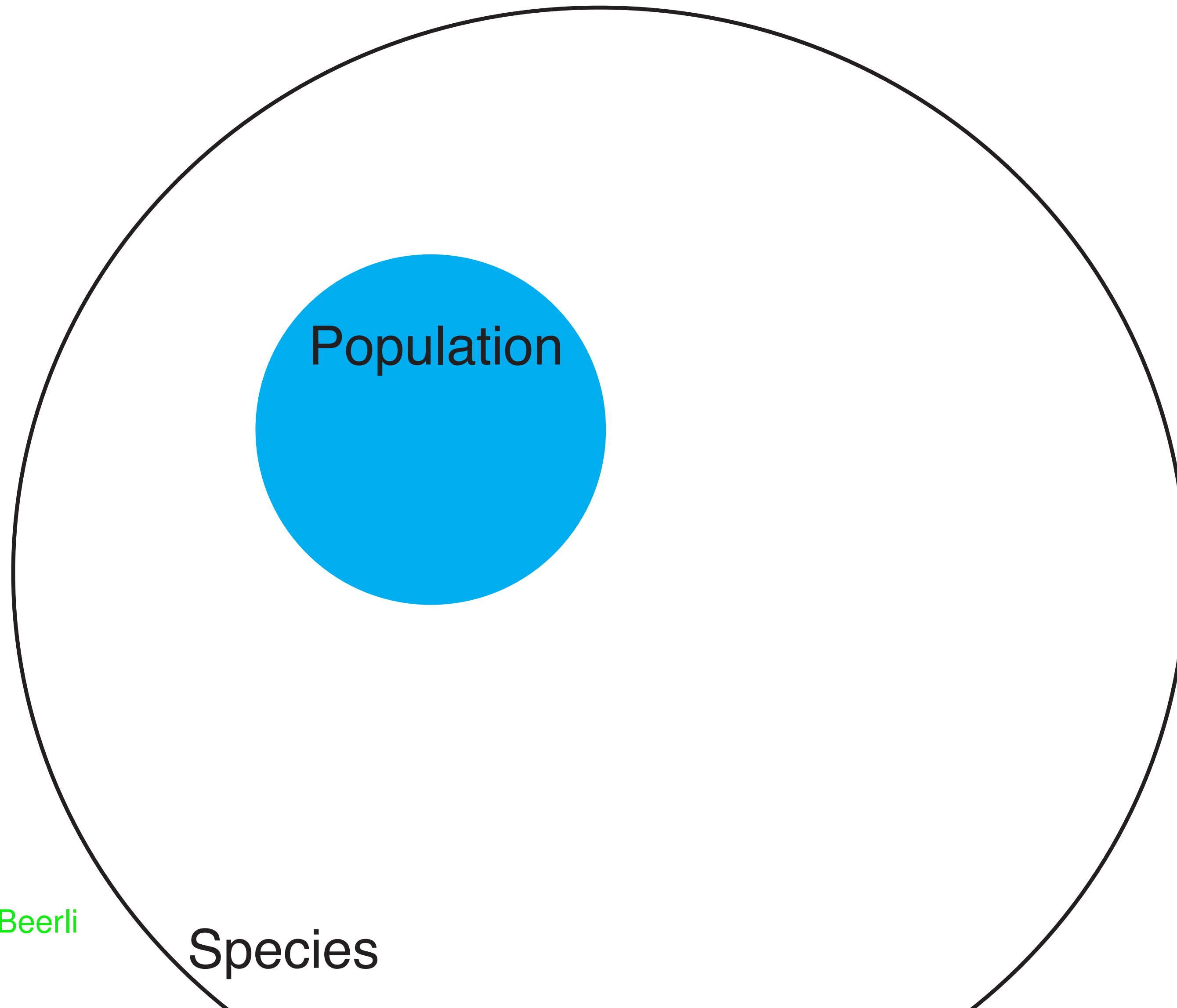
# Population genetics models



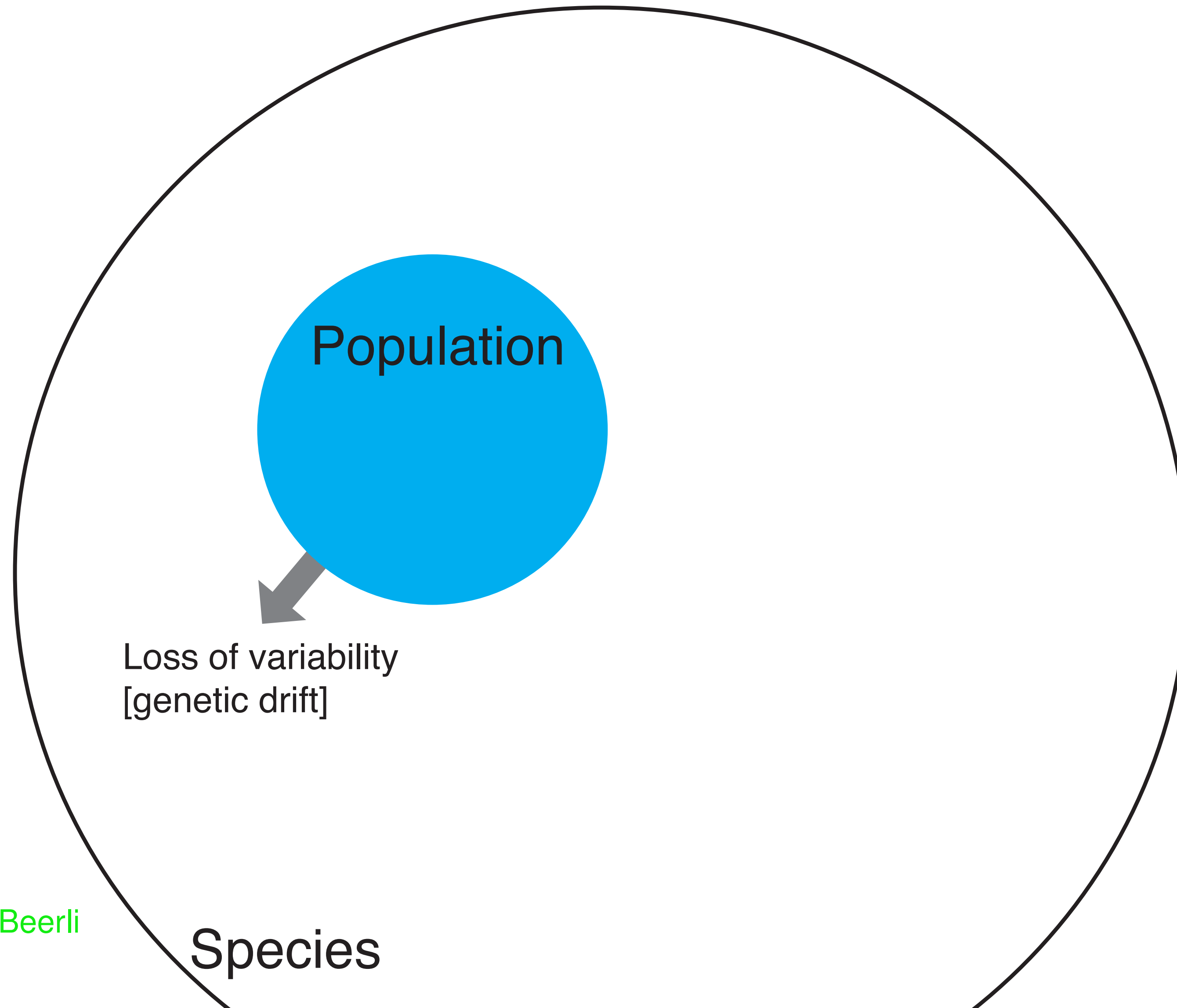
# Population models



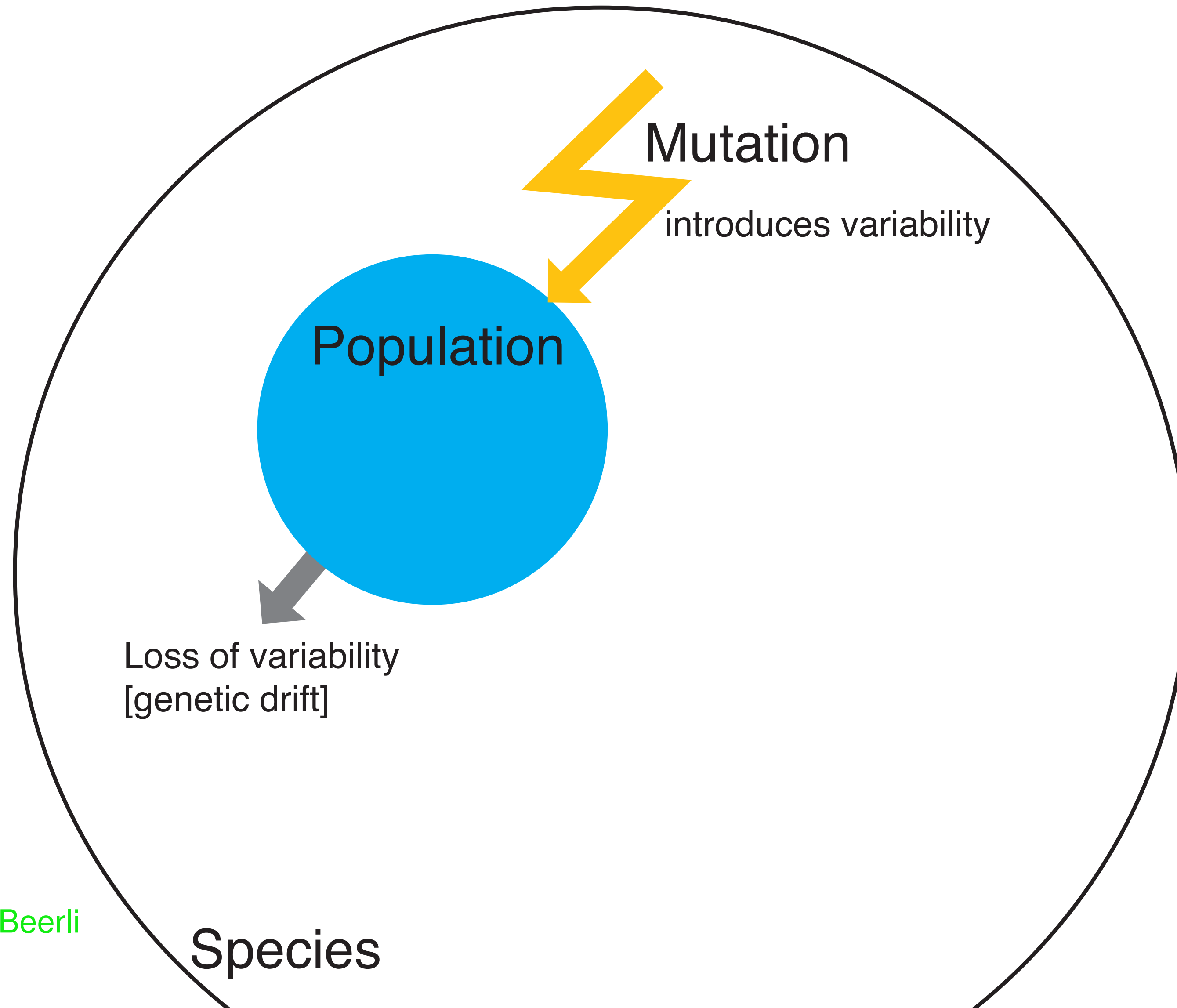
# Population models



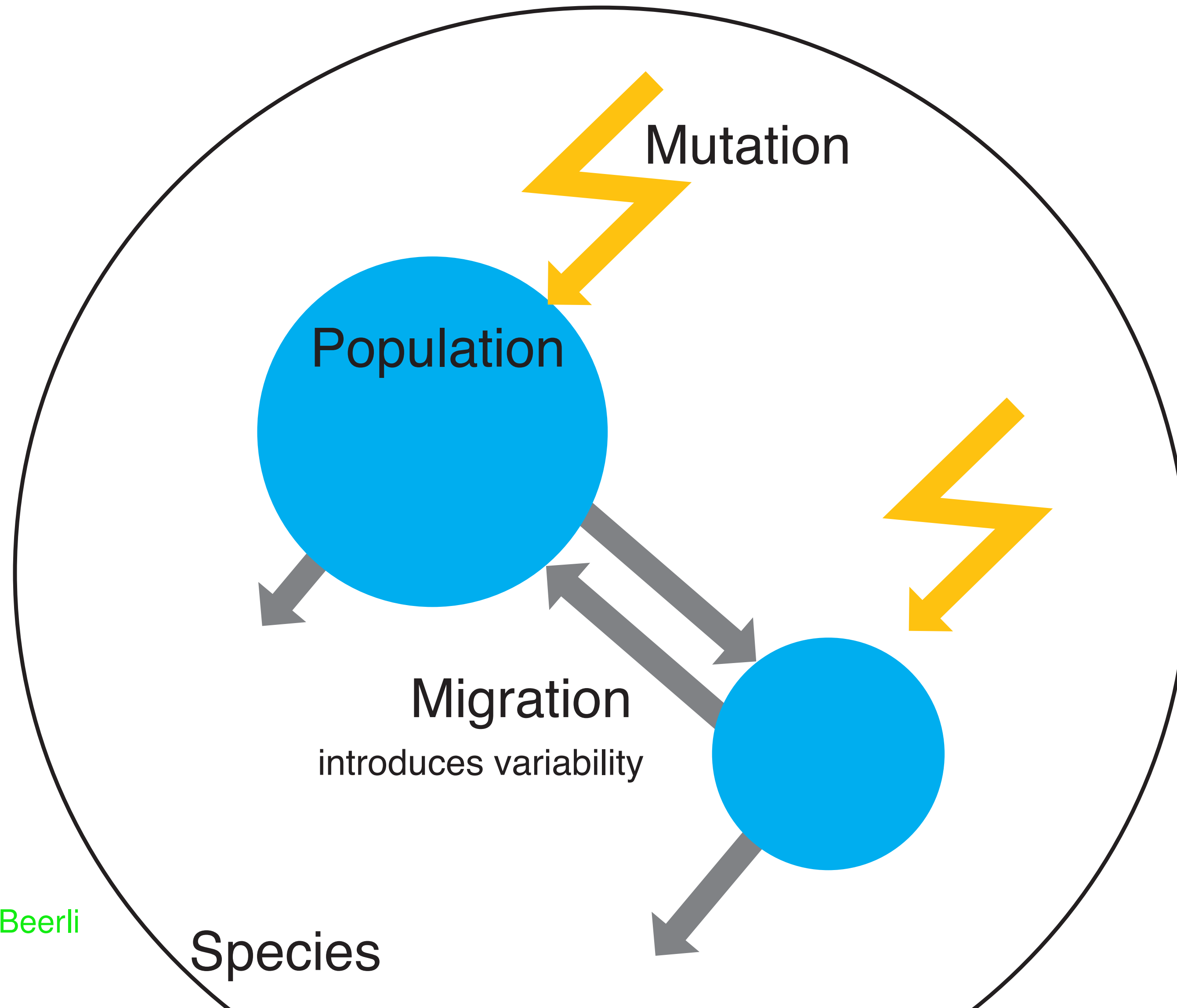
# Population models



# Population models



# Population models



# Population models

Population size =  $f(\text{Alleles, Mutation, Migration, population size in last generation})$

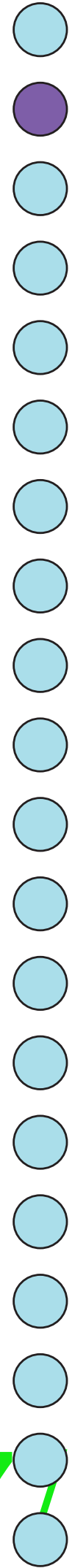
$$N_t = f(X, \mu, m, N_{t-1})$$

Simply looking only at a single population this is

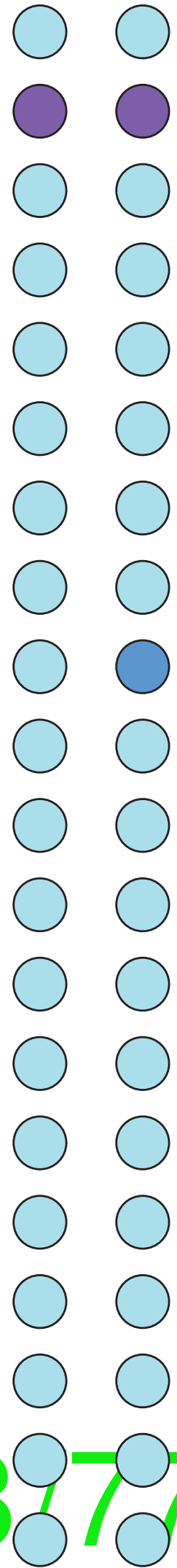
$$N_t = f(X, \mu, N_{t-1})$$



# Population models

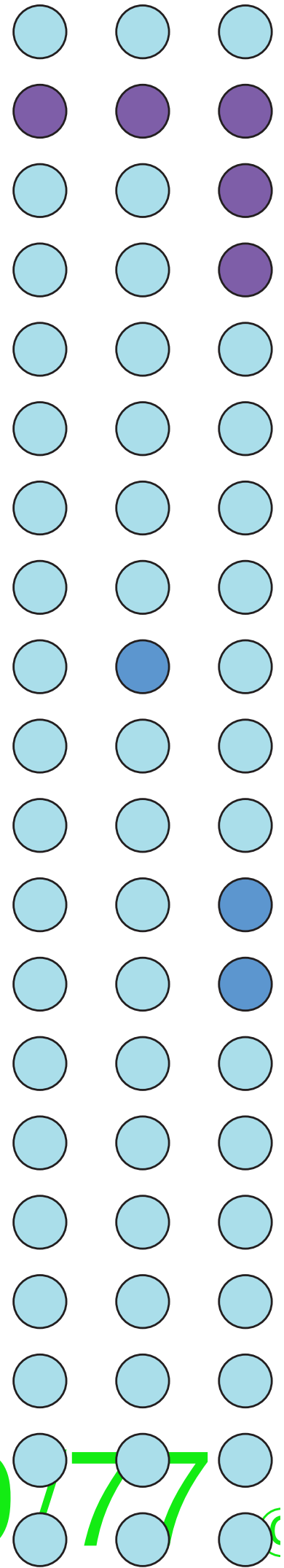


# Population models



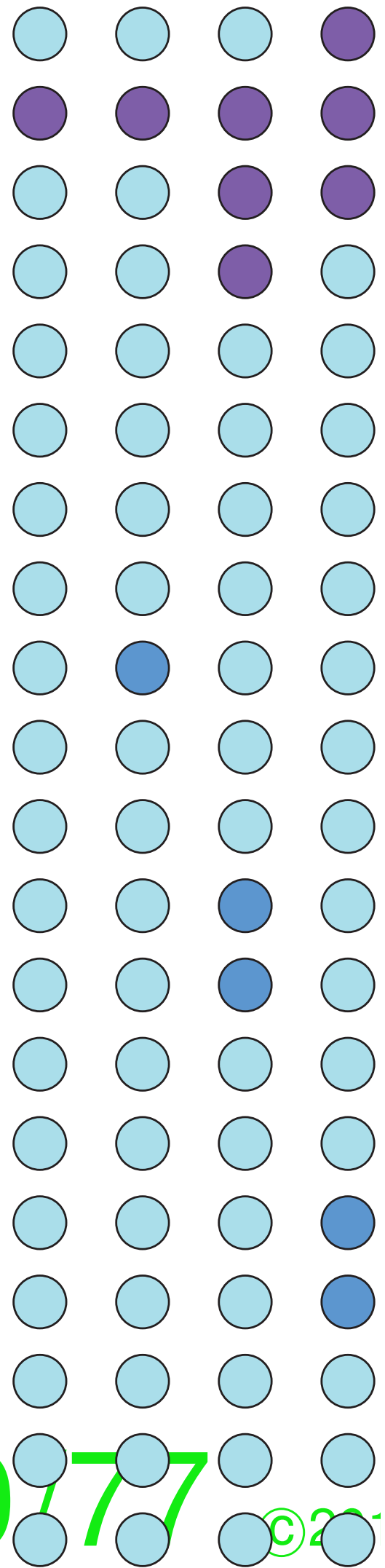
1877

# Population models



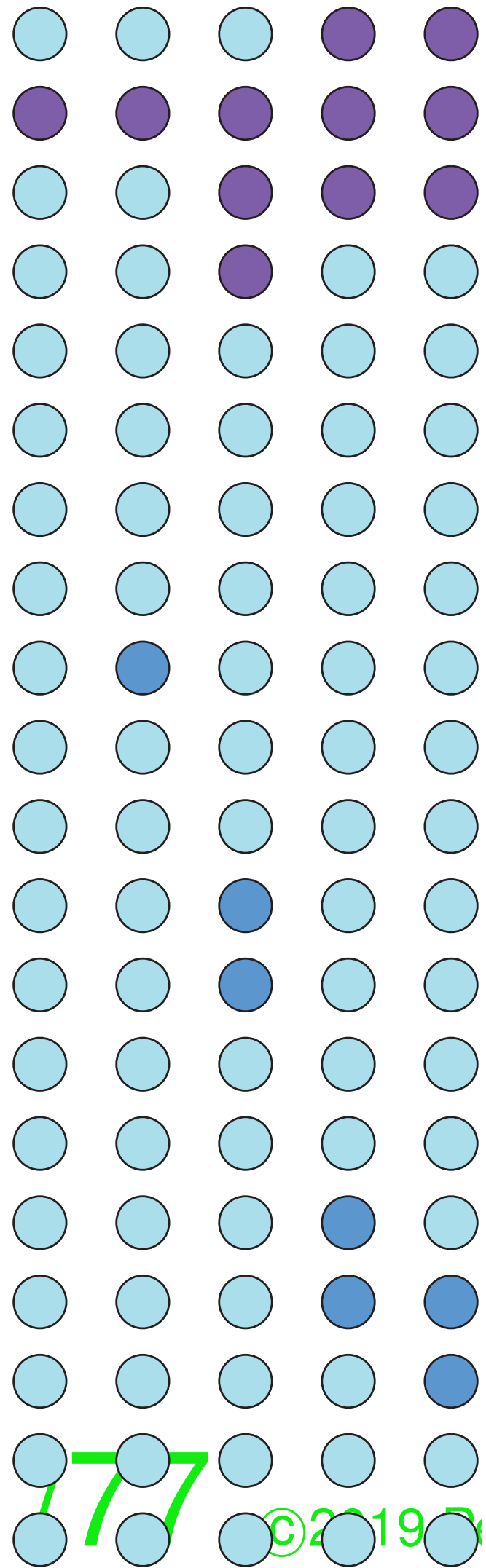
1977

# Population models

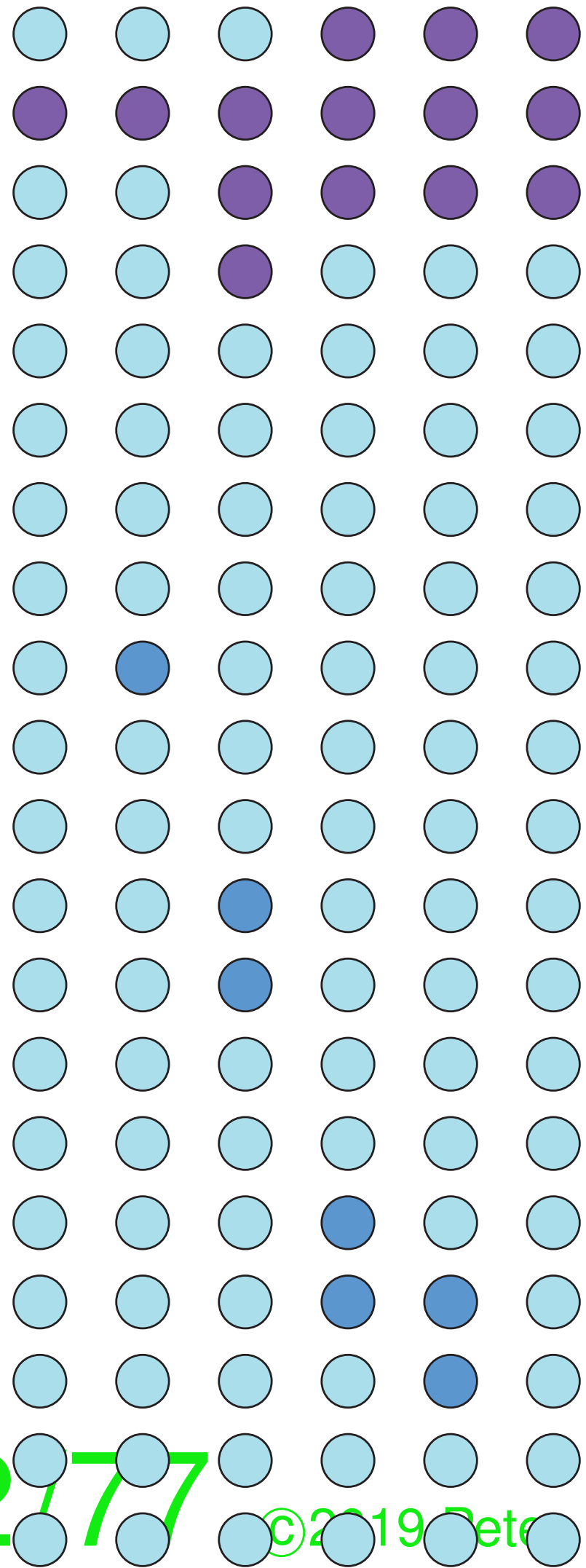


2017 77 20 ©20

# Population models

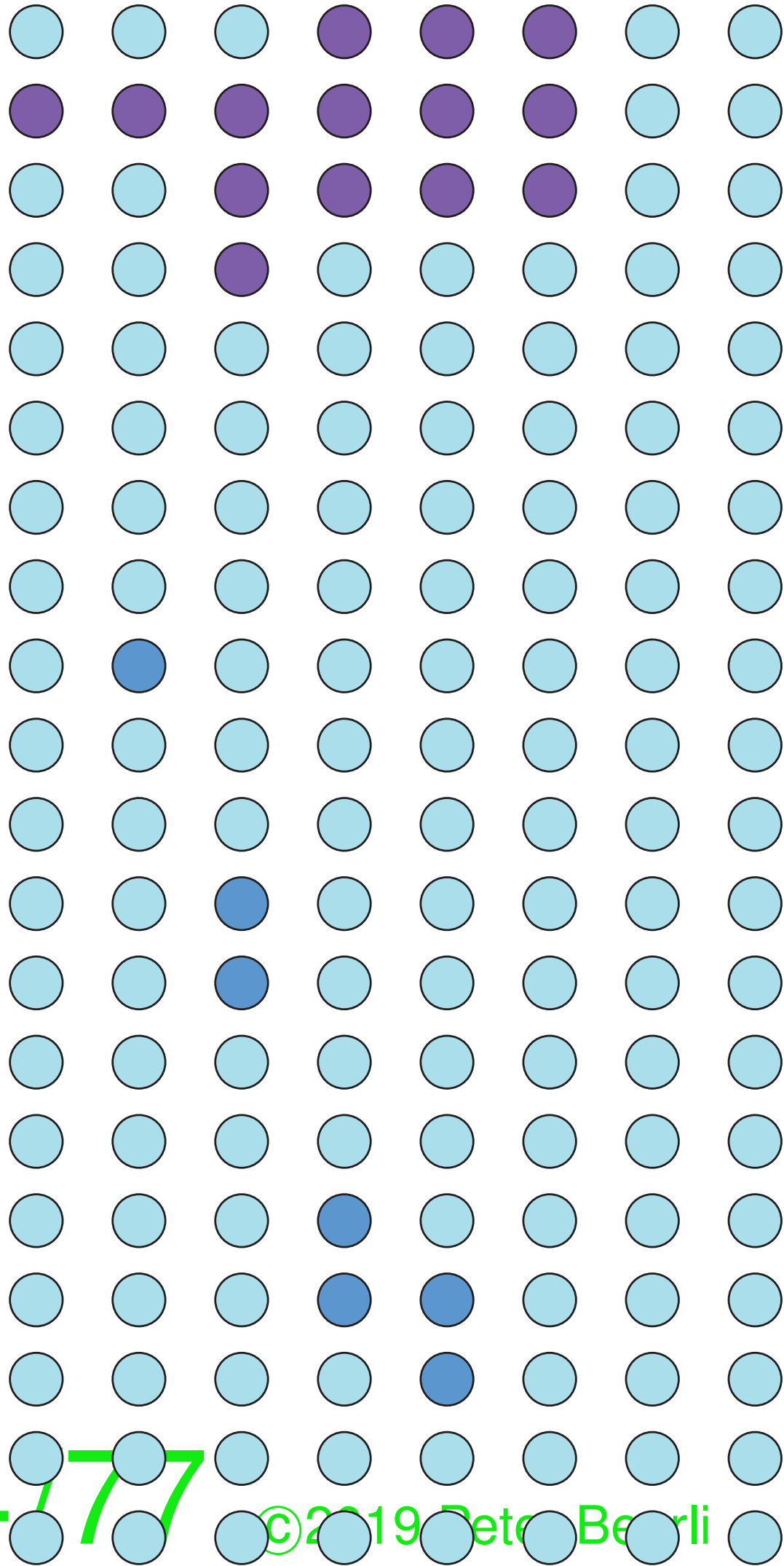


# Population models





# Population models

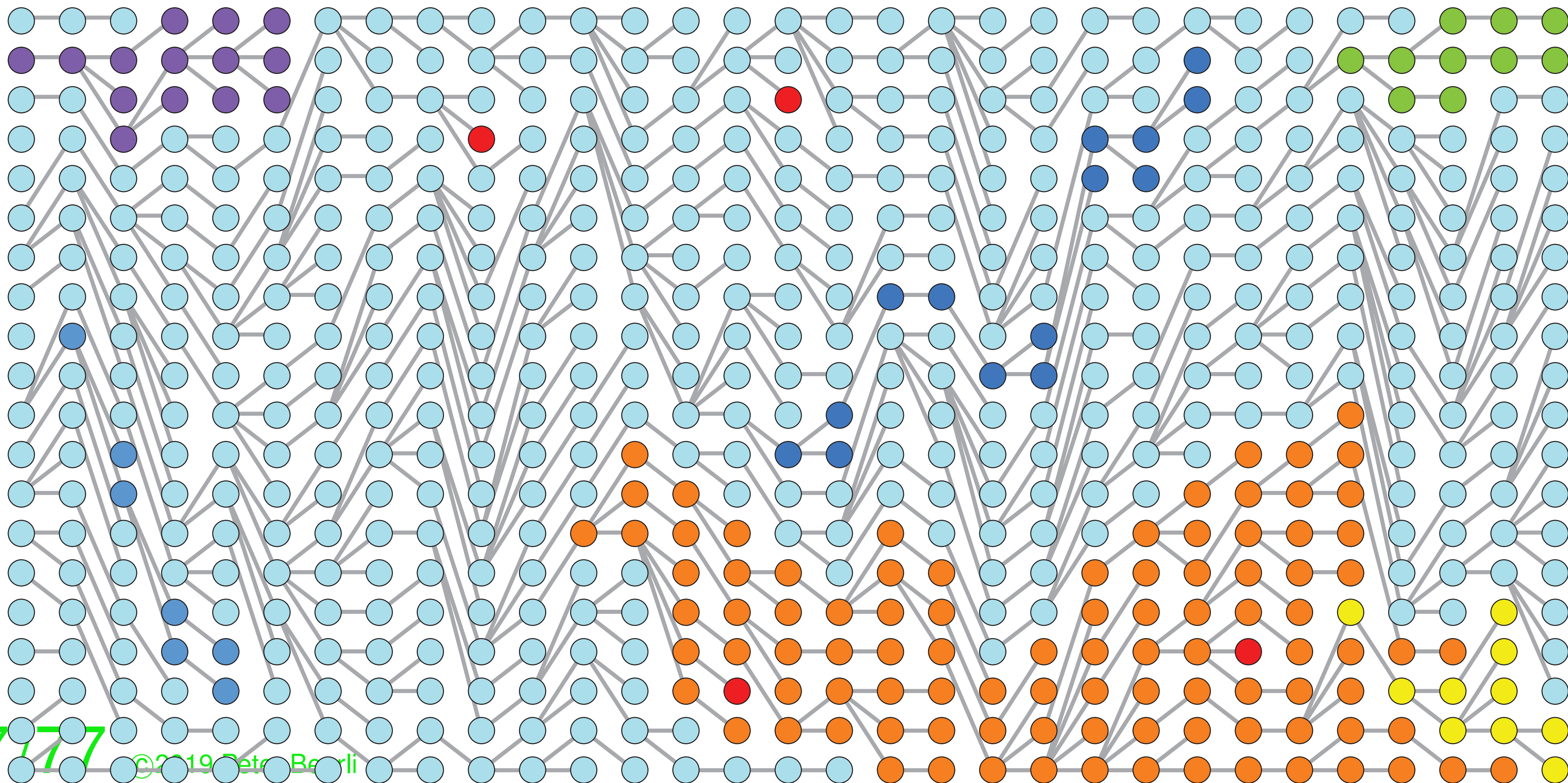






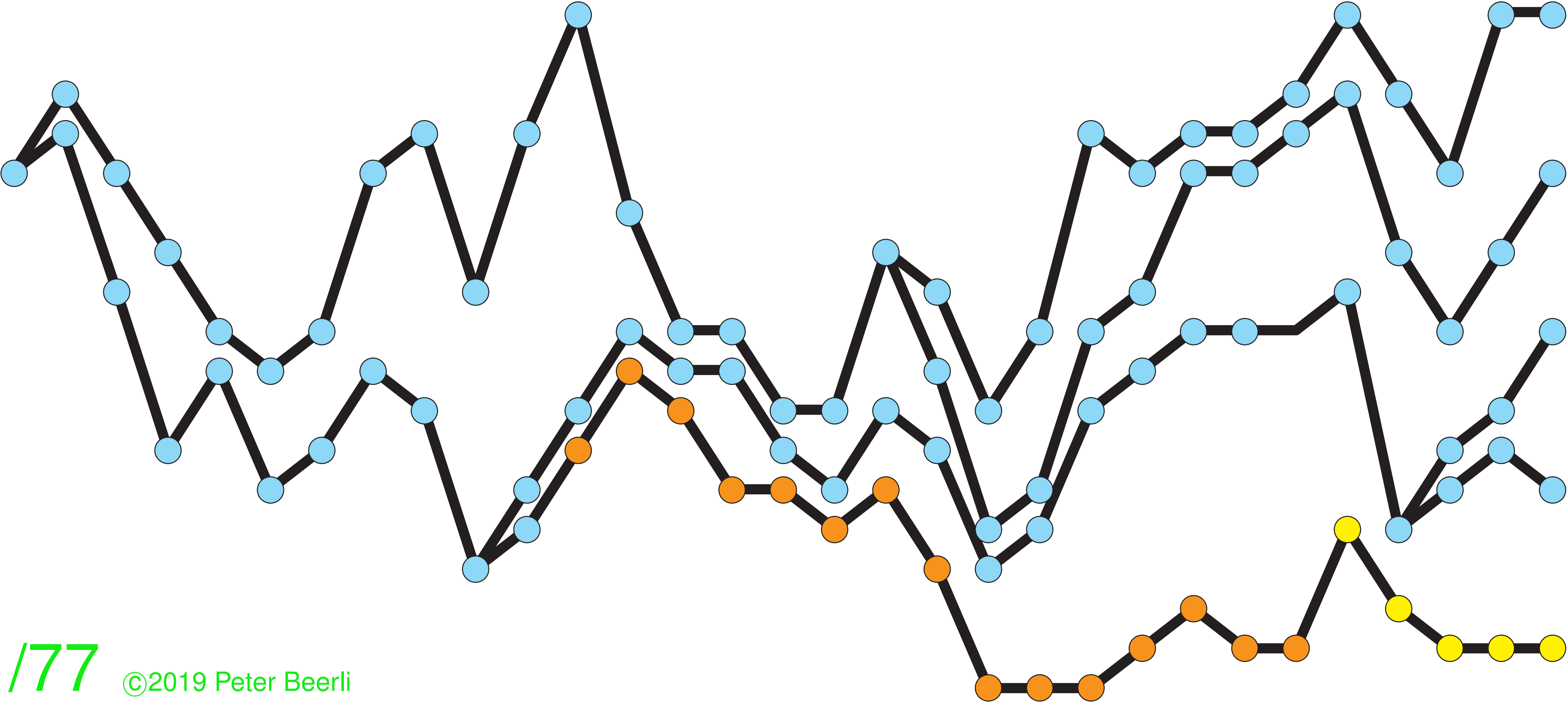


# Population models

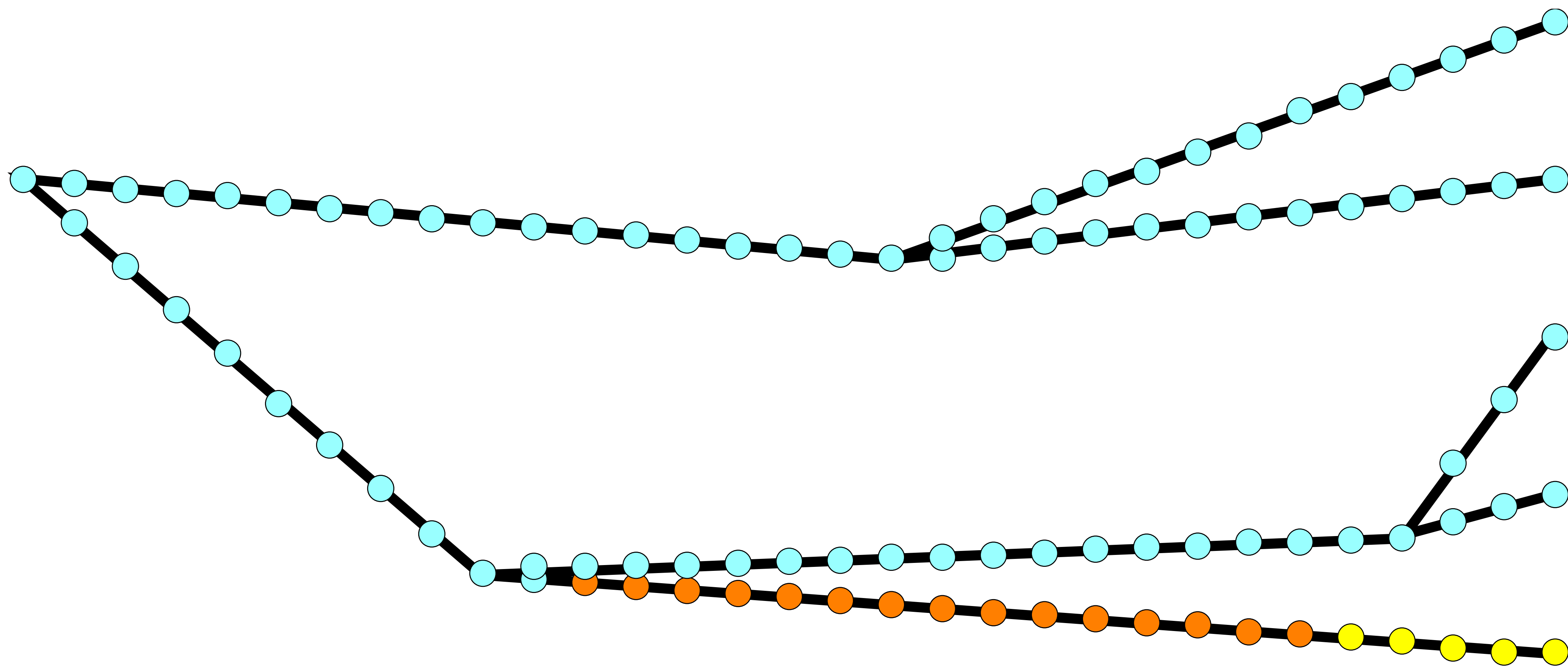




# Population models



# Population models

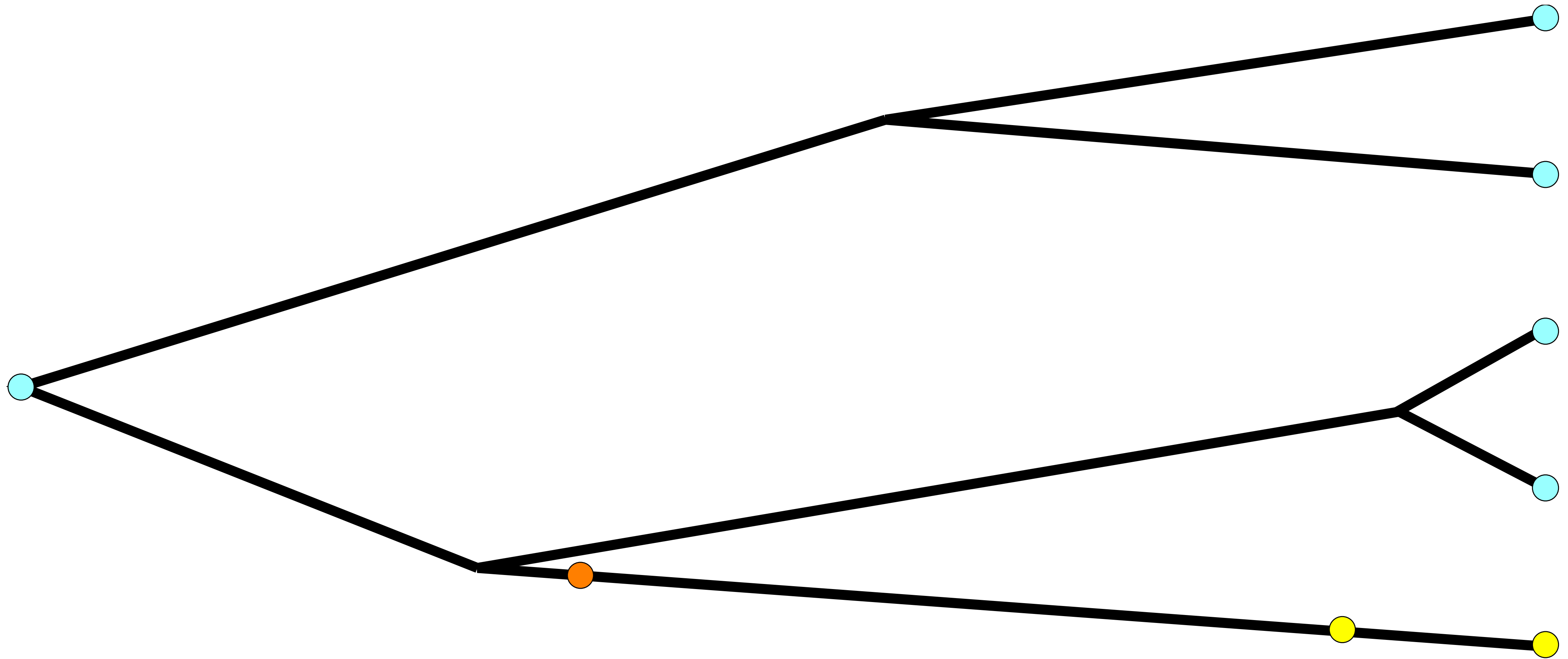


30/77  
past

©2019 Peter Beerli

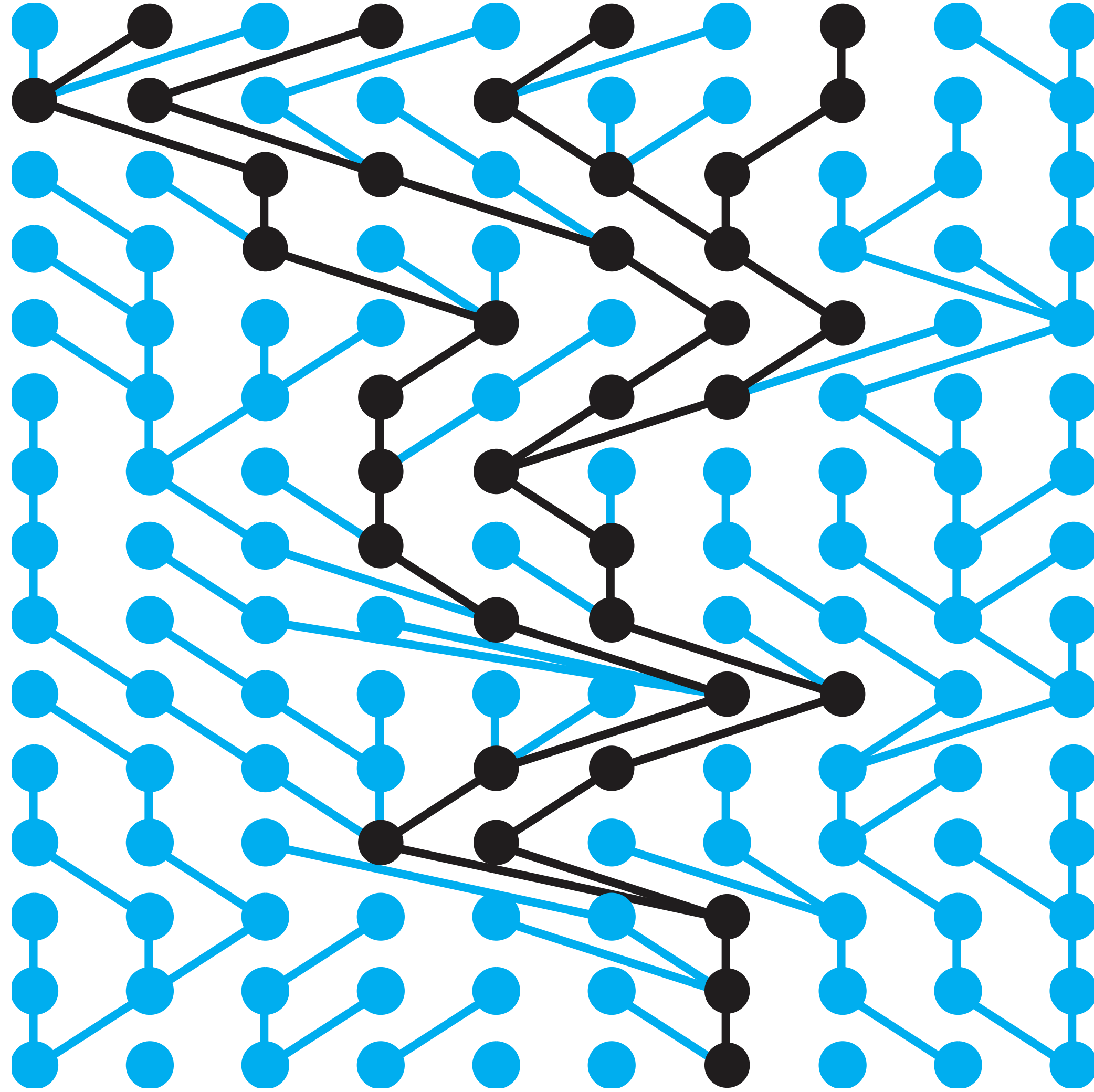
present

# Population models



# Coalescence theory

Present



Past

32/77

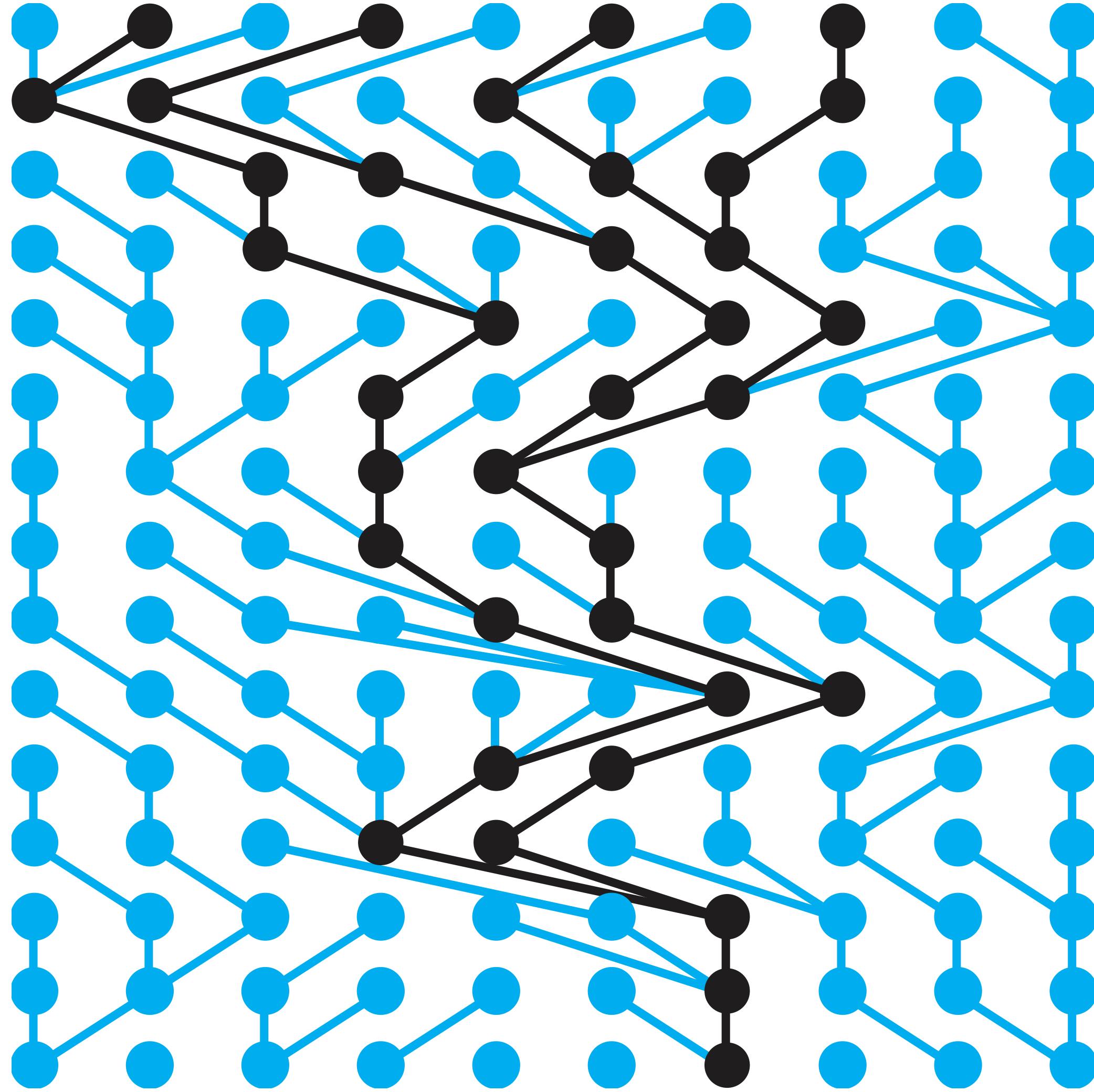
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# Coalescence theory

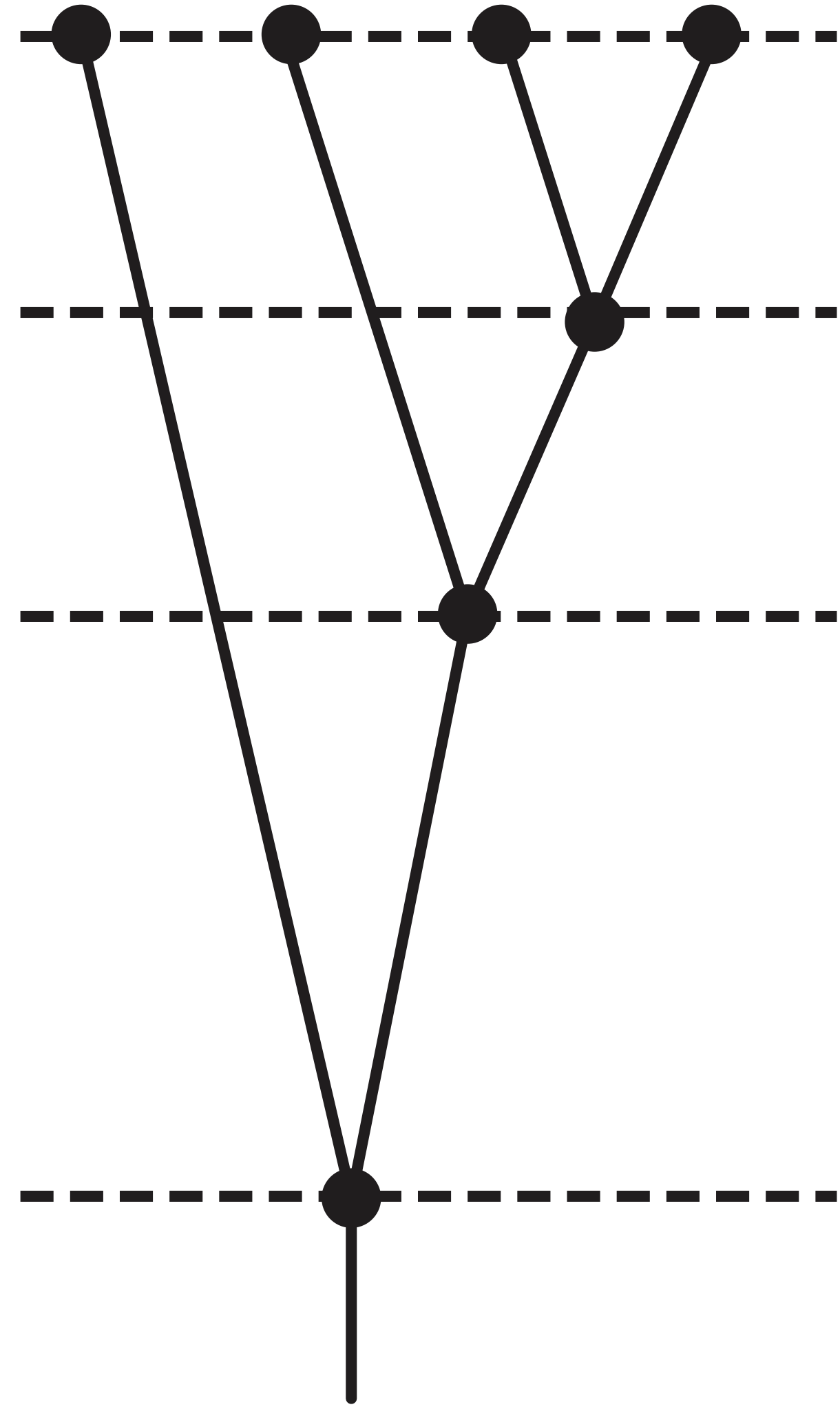
Present



Past

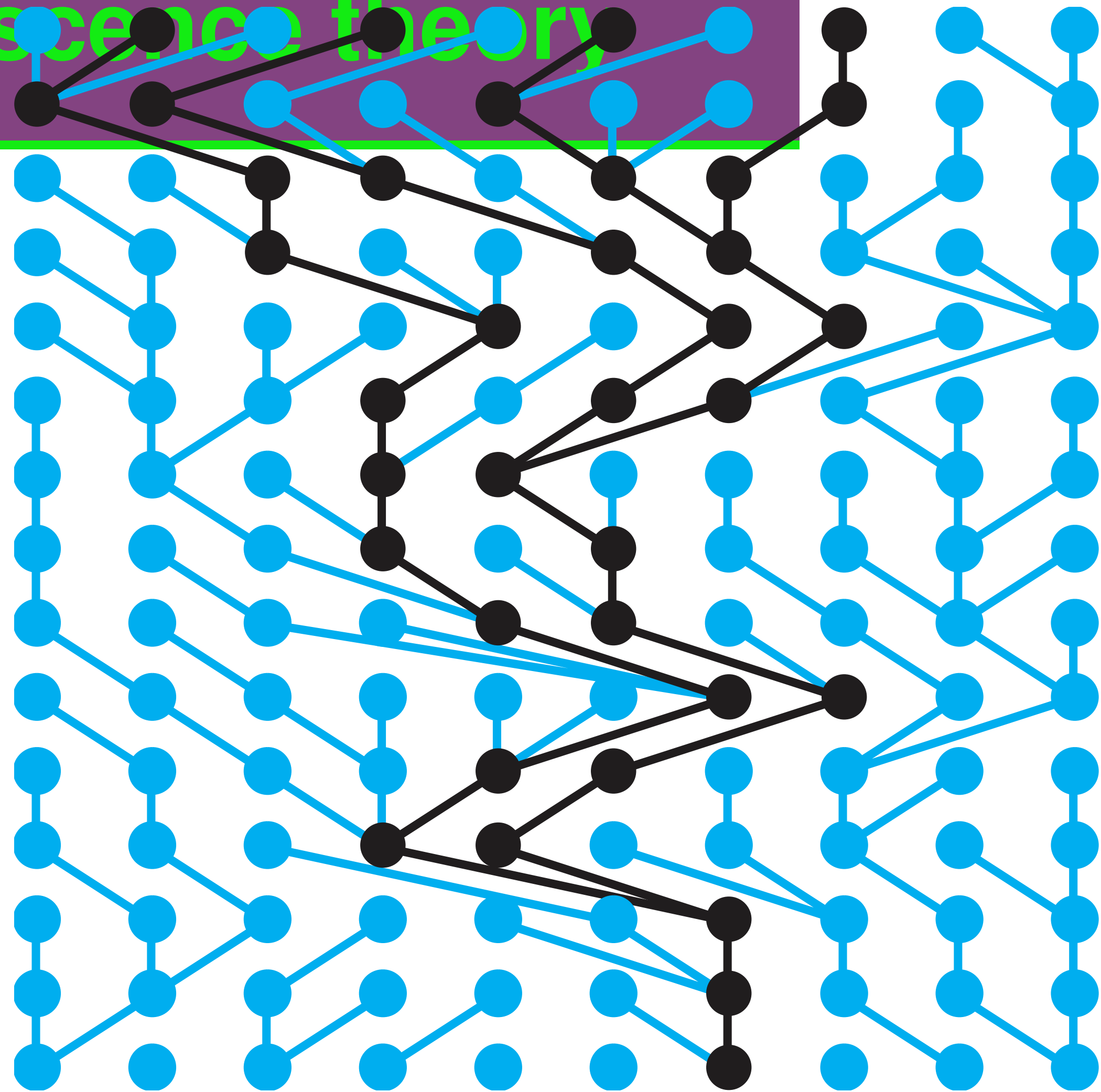
33/77

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# Coalescence theory

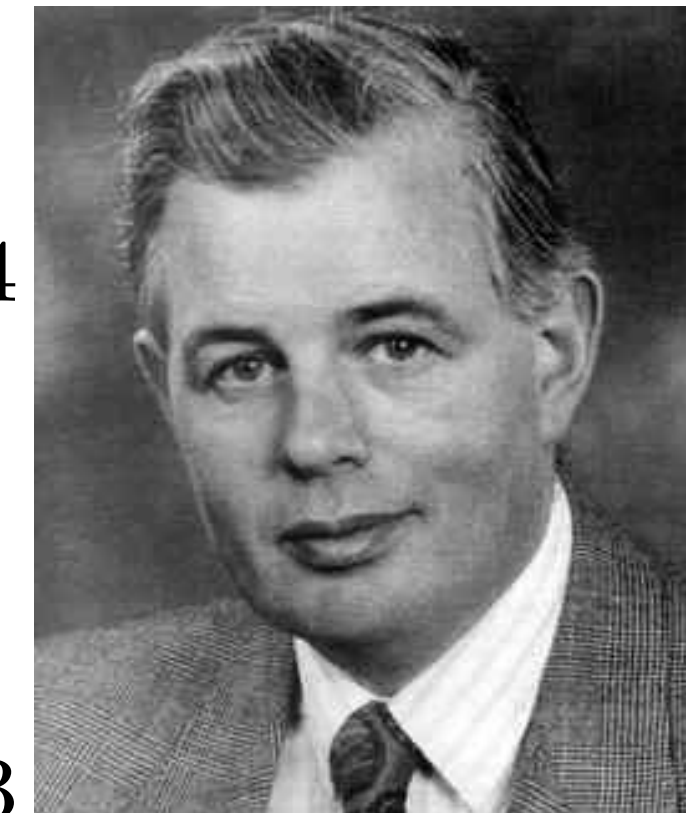
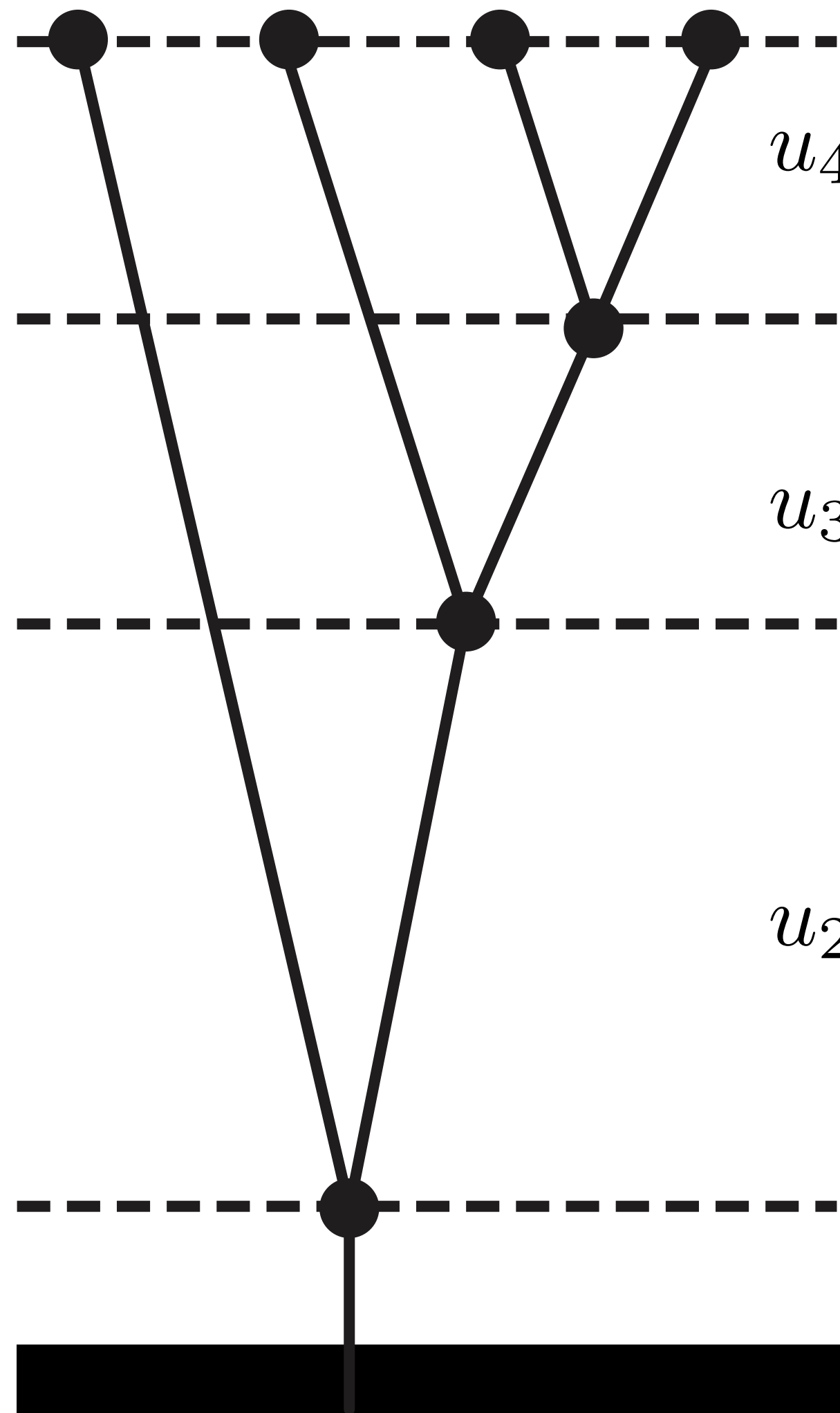
Present



Past

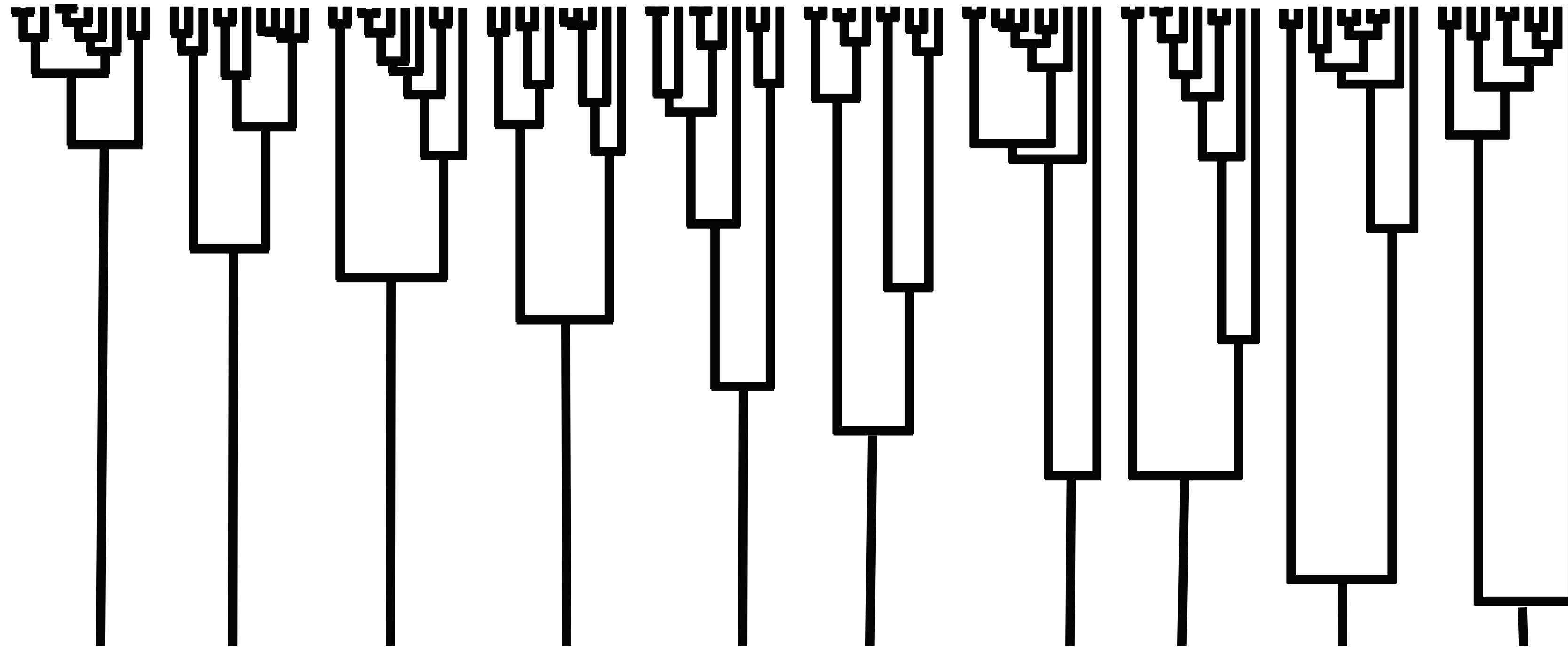
The time intervals  $u_k$  follows an exponential distribution with

$$\mathbb{E}(u_k) = \frac{\Theta}{k(k-1)}$$



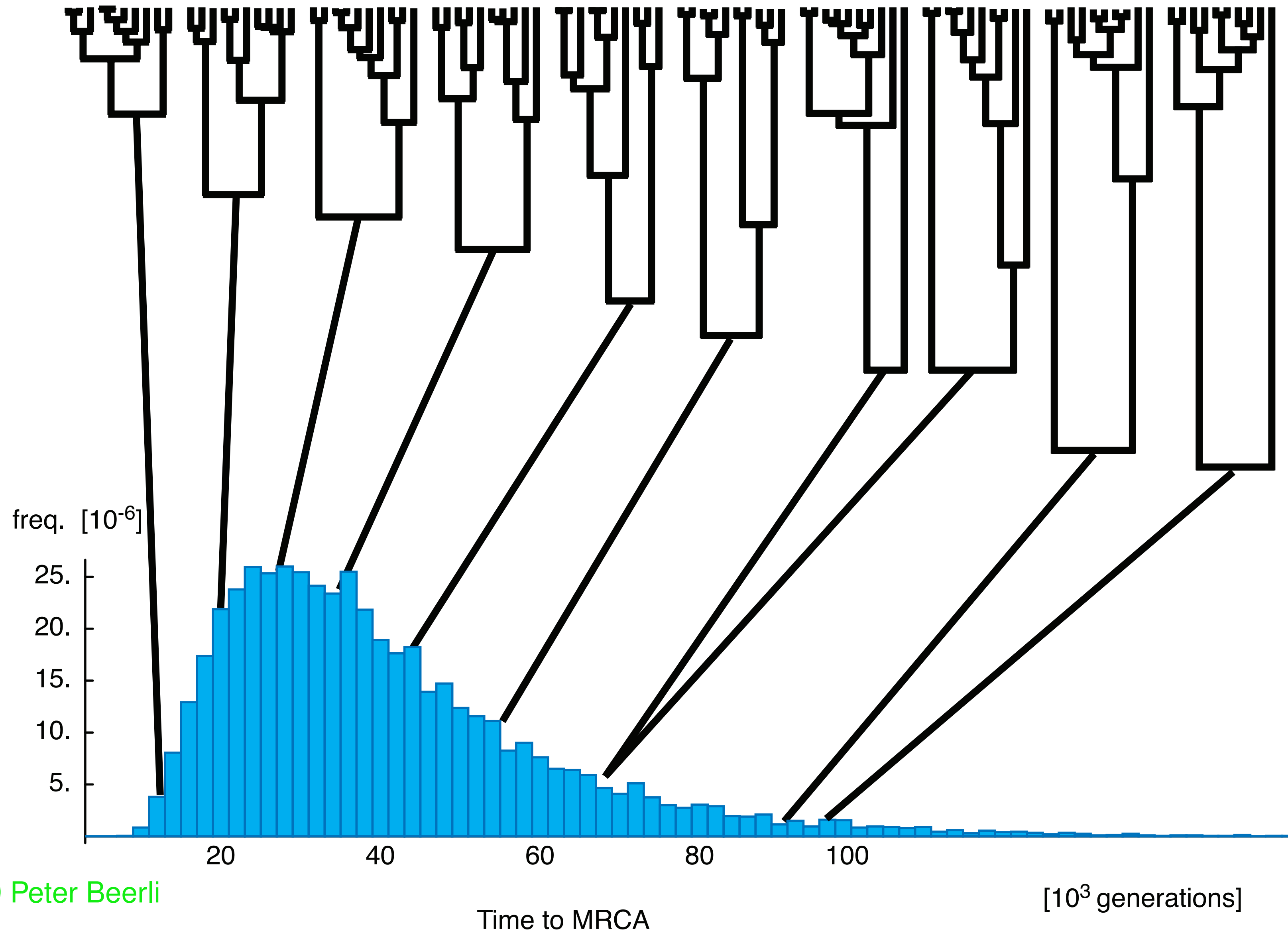
$$p(G | \Theta, n) = \prod_{k=2}^n \exp\left(-u_k \frac{k(k-1)}{\Theta}\right) \frac{2}{\Theta}$$

# Variability of the coalescent process



All genealogies were simulated with the same population size  $N_e = 10,000$

# Variability of the coalescent process



# Population Parameter Inference

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

# Population Parameter Inference

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

Genetic Data



Mutation model

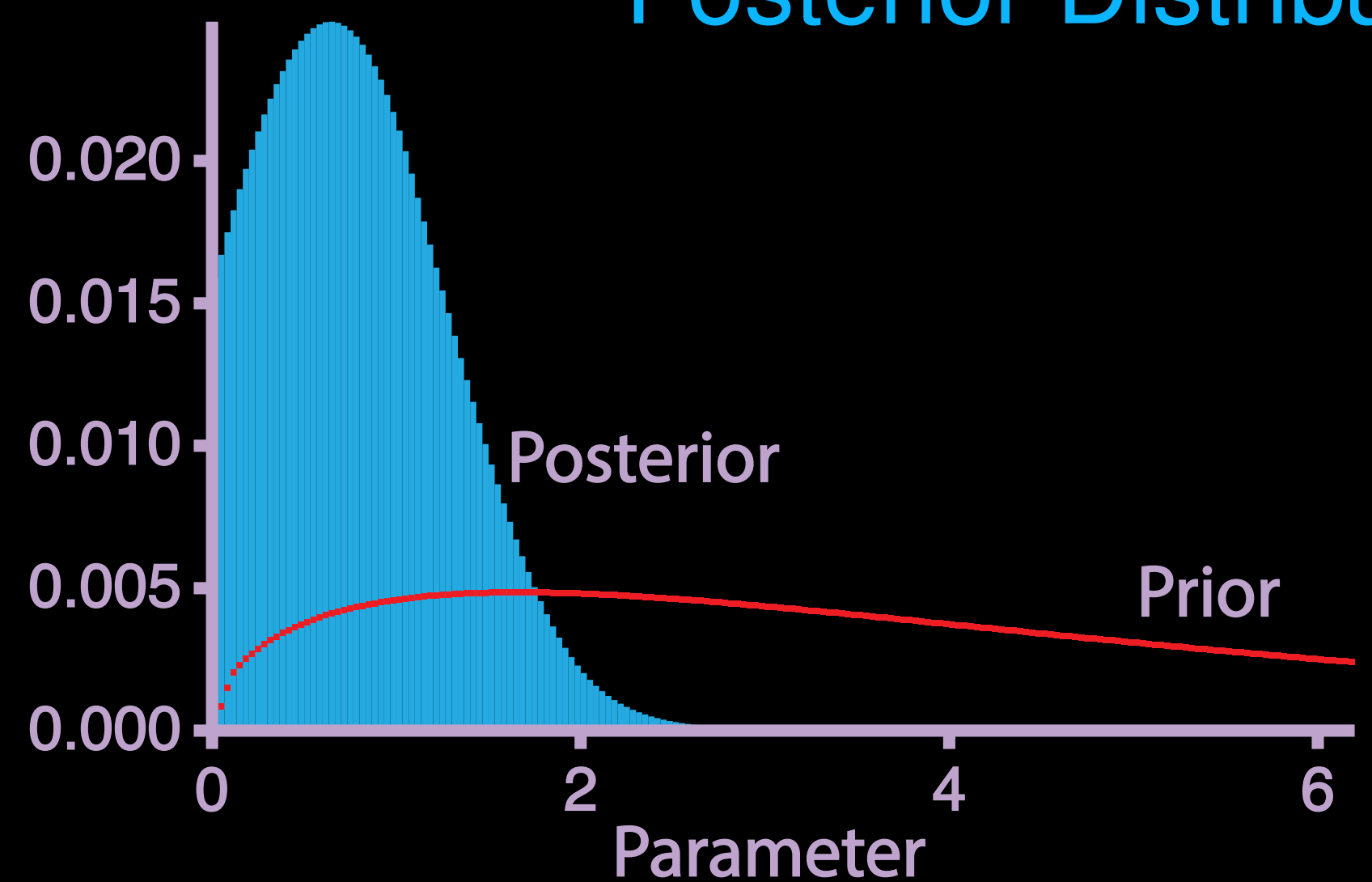


Population model



Freq

Posterior Distribution



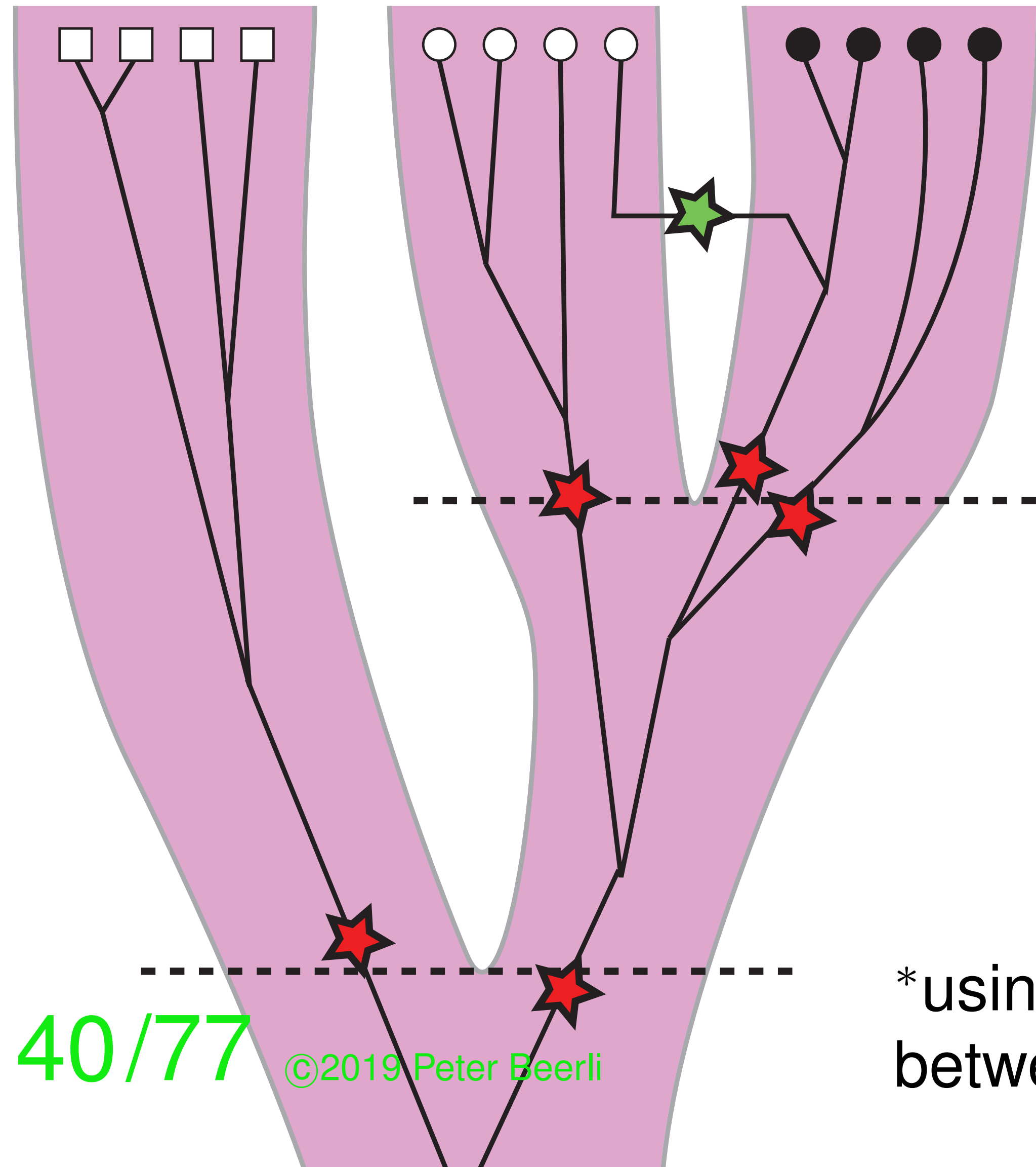
# Population model

The relationship among individuals can be expressed, looking backward in time, by a waiting process where random lineages

- ◆ coalesce
- ◆ migrate between populations
- ◆ split off an ancestral population

# Population genetics

Each of these processes can be expressed as a waiting time process with rate  $\lambda$  for  $N$  populations and  $k_j$  lineages in population  $j$ :



$$\lambda_{\text{two lineages coalesce}} = \sum_{j=1}^N \frac{k_j(k_j - 1)}{4N}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{lineages migrate}} = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{i=1, i \neq j}^N k_j m_{ij}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{lineages split off}^*} = \frac{k \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} e^{-\frac{(t-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}}{\sigma \left( 1 - \text{erf} \left( \frac{t-\mu}{\sqrt{2}\sigma} \right) \right)}$$

\*using a Normal distribution to model the splitting time between two populations.



# Combining the parts

$$P(\Theta | \mathbf{D}_1, \mathbf{D}_2, \dots, \mu) = \frac{P(\Theta) P(\mathbf{D}_1, \mathbf{D}_2, \dots | \Theta)}{P(\mathbf{D}_1, \mathbf{D}_2, \dots)} = \frac{P(\Theta) \int_G P(G | \Theta) \prod_i^{n_{\text{Loci}}} P(\mathbf{D}_i | G, \mu) dG}{\int_{\Theta} P(\Theta) \int_G P(G | \Theta) \prod_i^{n_{\text{Loci}}} P(\mathbf{D}_i | G, \mu) dG d\Theta}$$

$$P(G | \Theta) = \prod_{i=1}^K \lambda_x \exp(-t_i [\lambda_{\text{coalescence}} + \lambda_{\text{migration}} + \lambda_{\text{splitting}}])$$

$\Theta$  vector of parameters for population size, migration and splitting parameters.

$\mathbf{D}_1, \mathbf{D}_2, \dots$  independent genetic sequence data,

$\mu$  mutation model,

$G$  nuisance genealogies that we integrate out (we are interested in the parameters not the trees).

$x$  the particular event on the genealogy

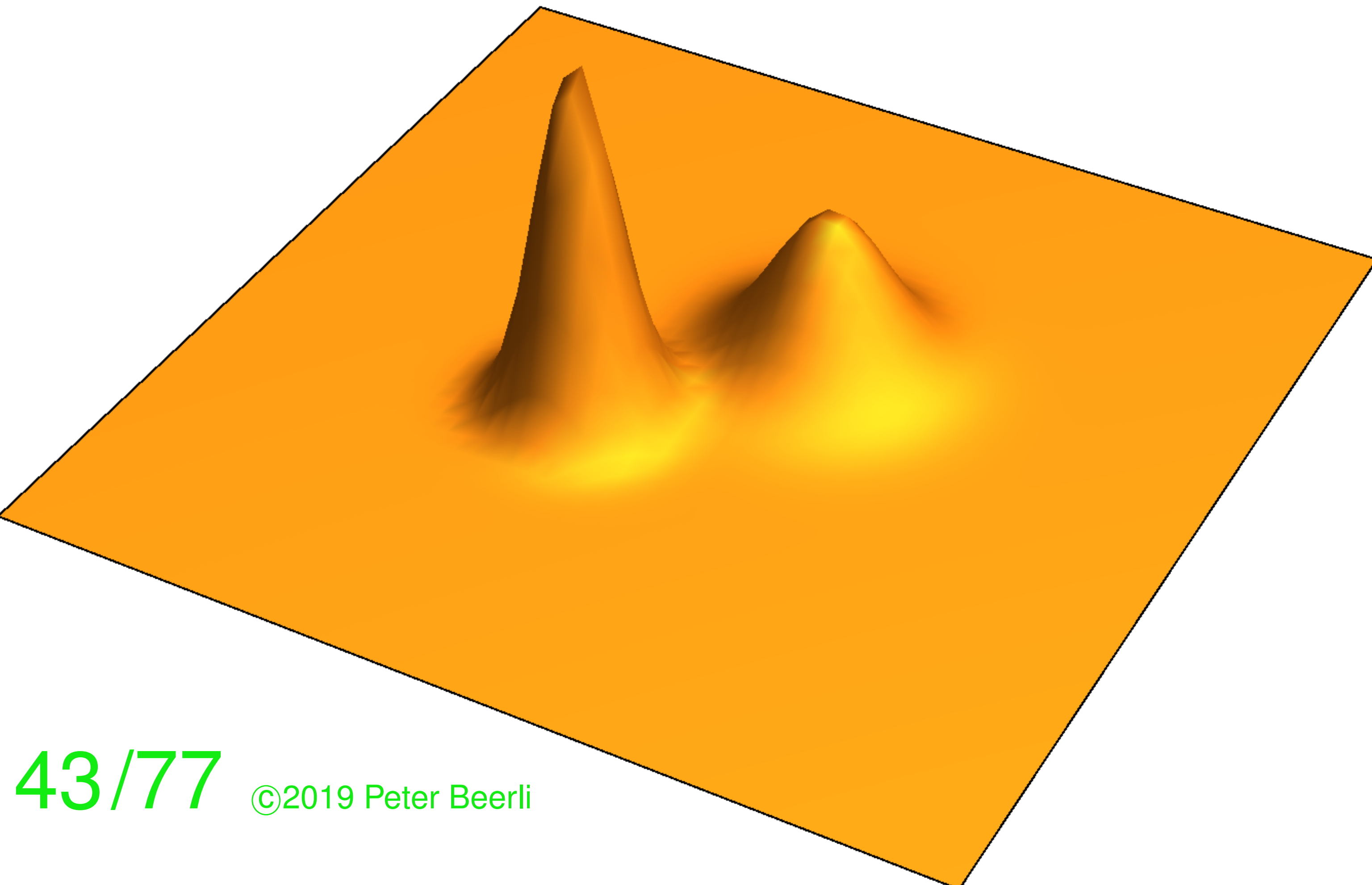
$K$  number of total events on the genealogy

Finally.....

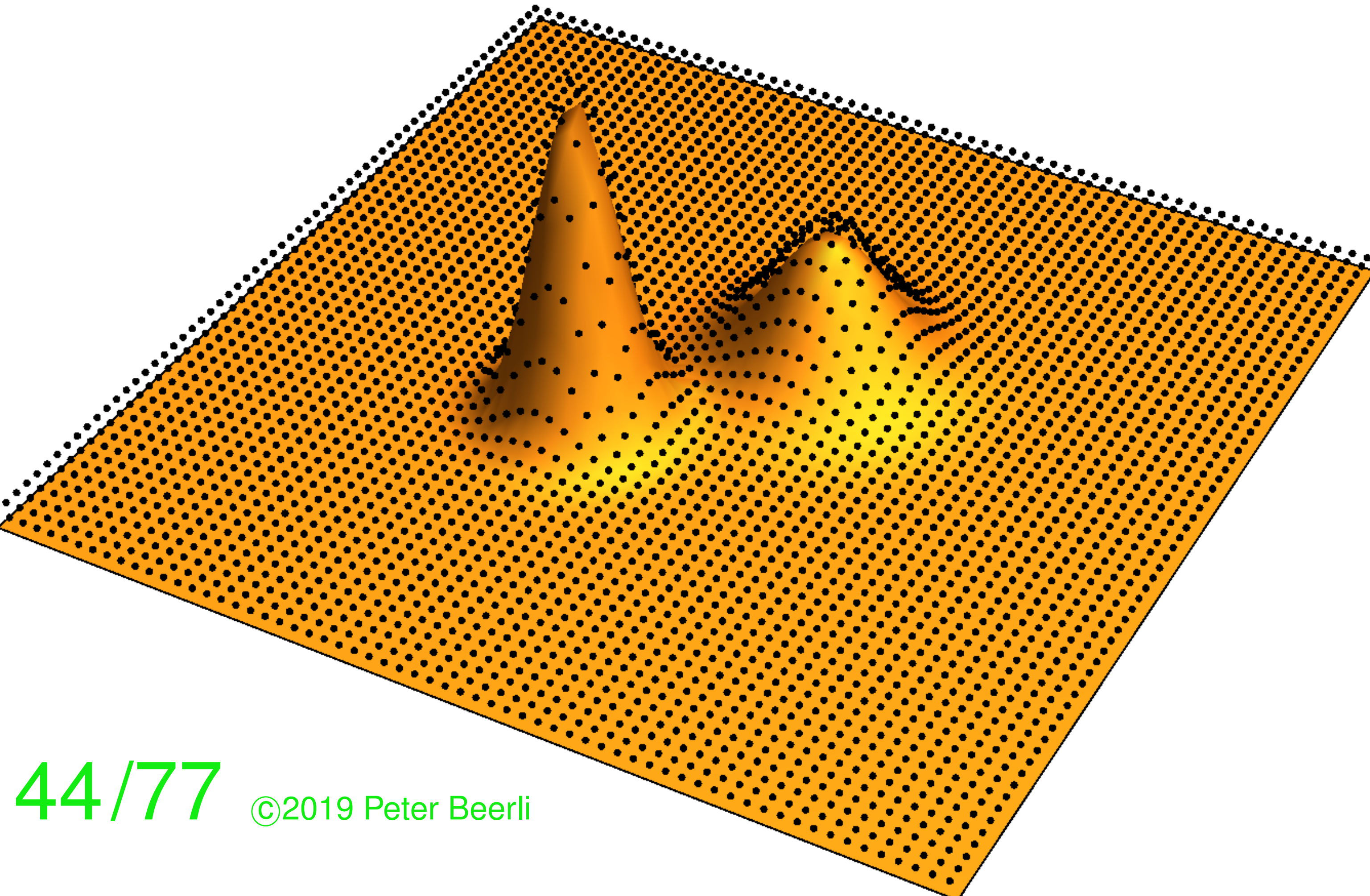
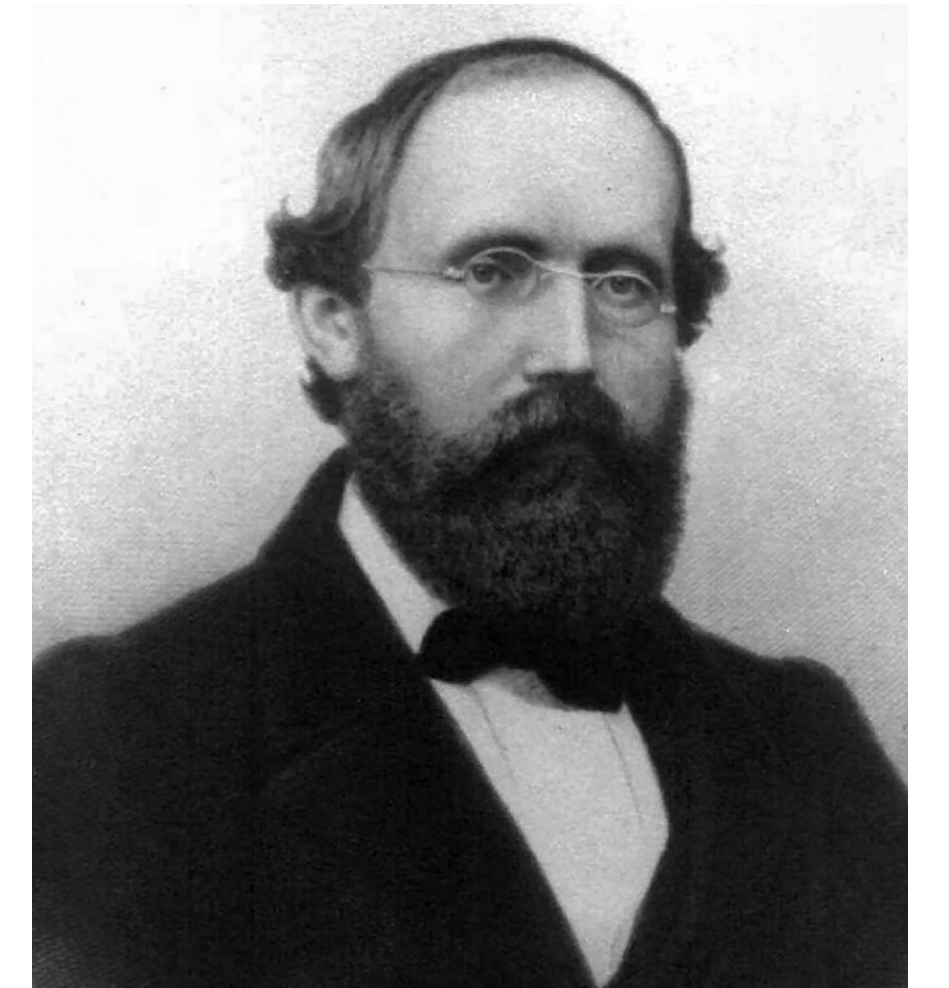
$$p(\mathbf{D}|\Theta) = \int_{\mathbf{G}} p(\mathbf{G}|\Theta)p(\mathbf{D}|\mathbf{G})d\mathbf{G}$$

The number of possible genealogies is very large and for realistic data sets, programs need to use Markov chain Monte Carlo methods.

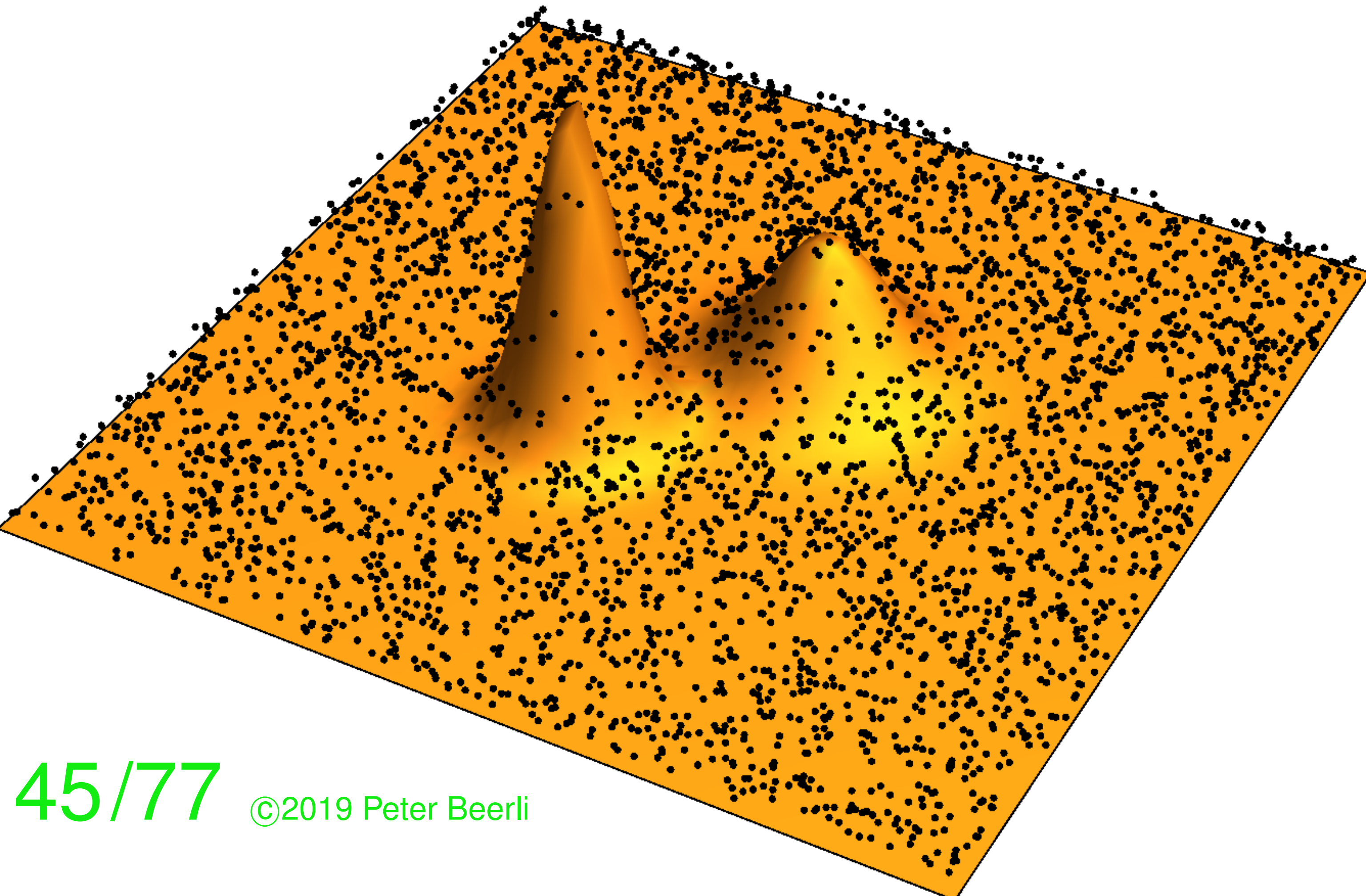
# Naive integration approach



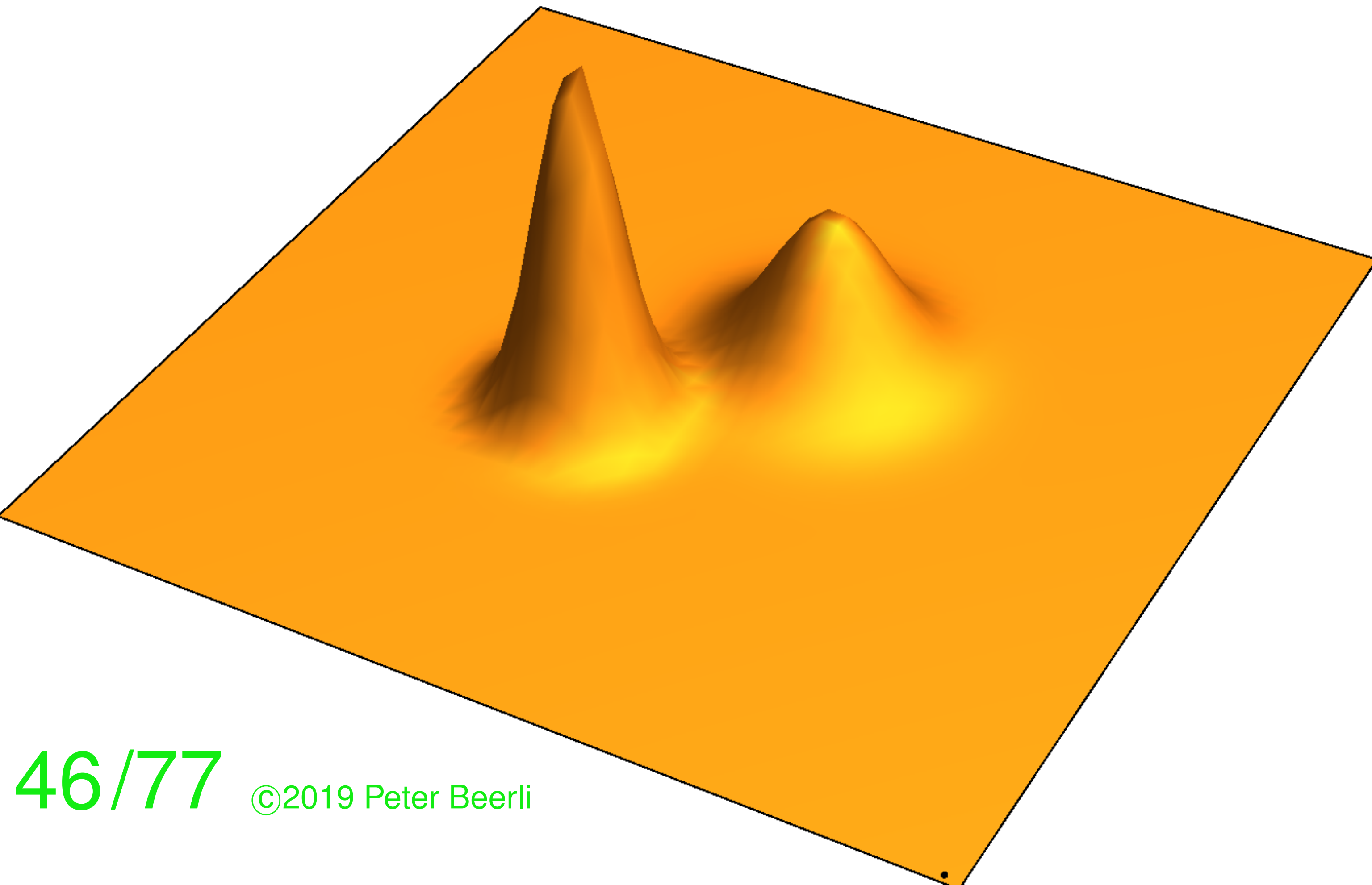
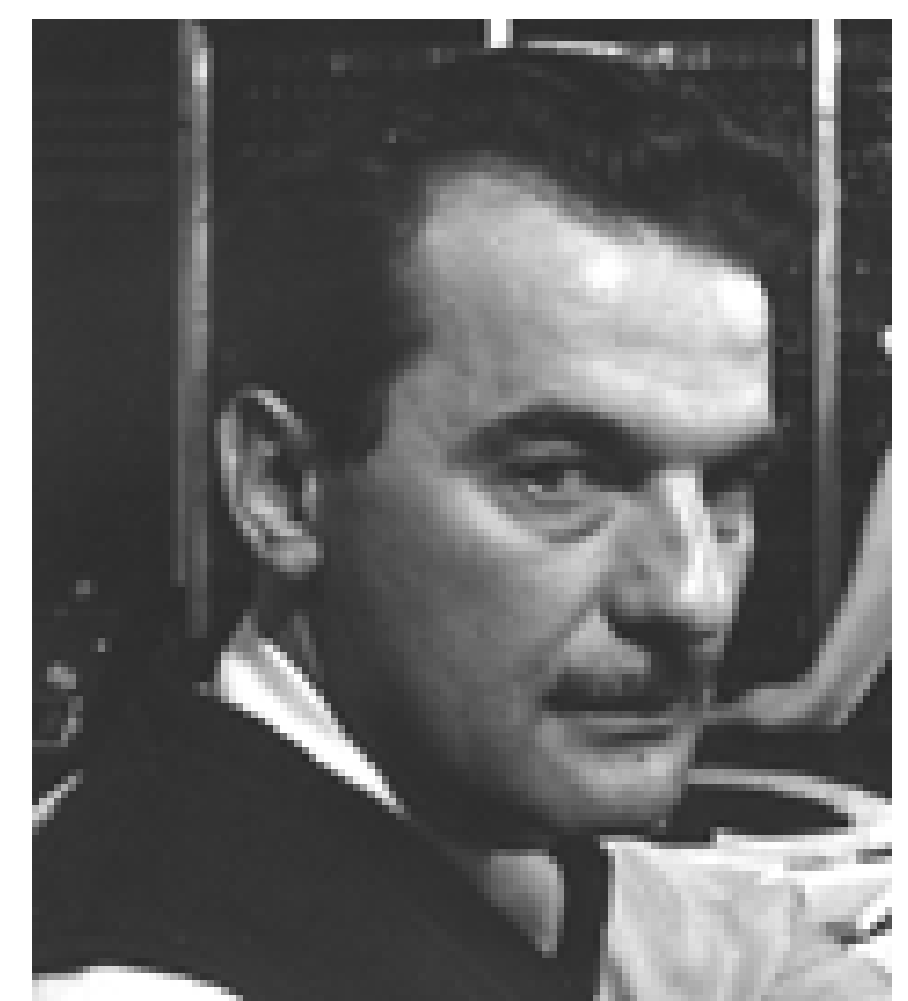
# Naive integration approach



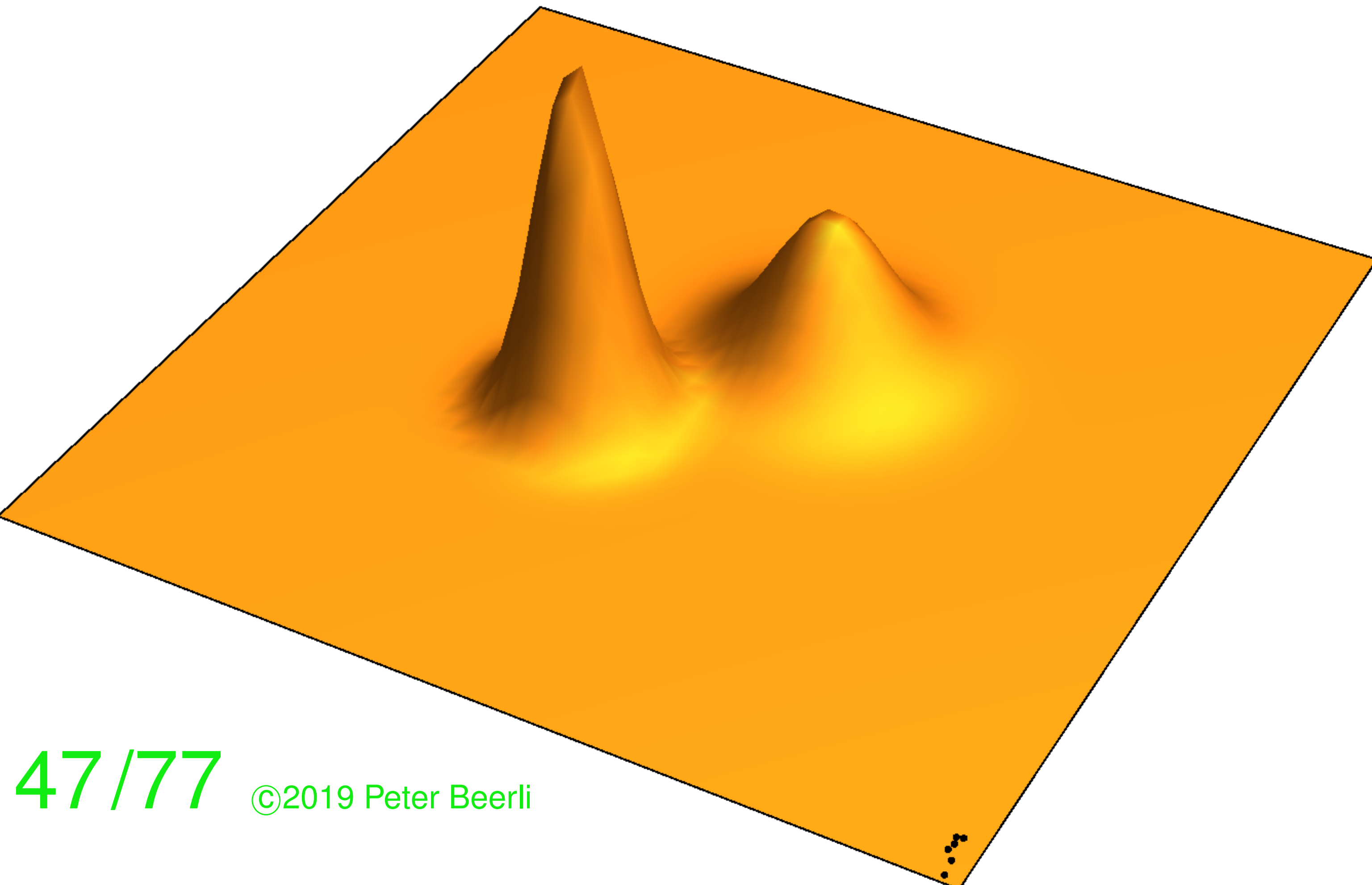
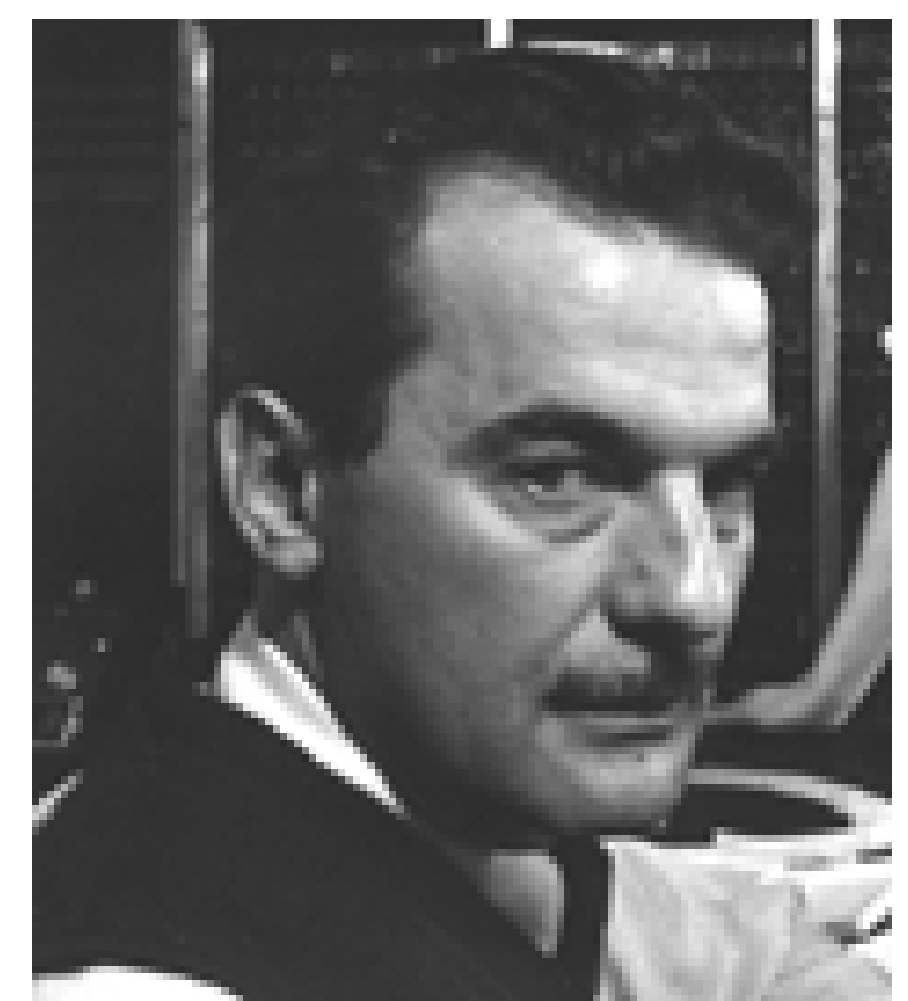
# Another naive integration approach



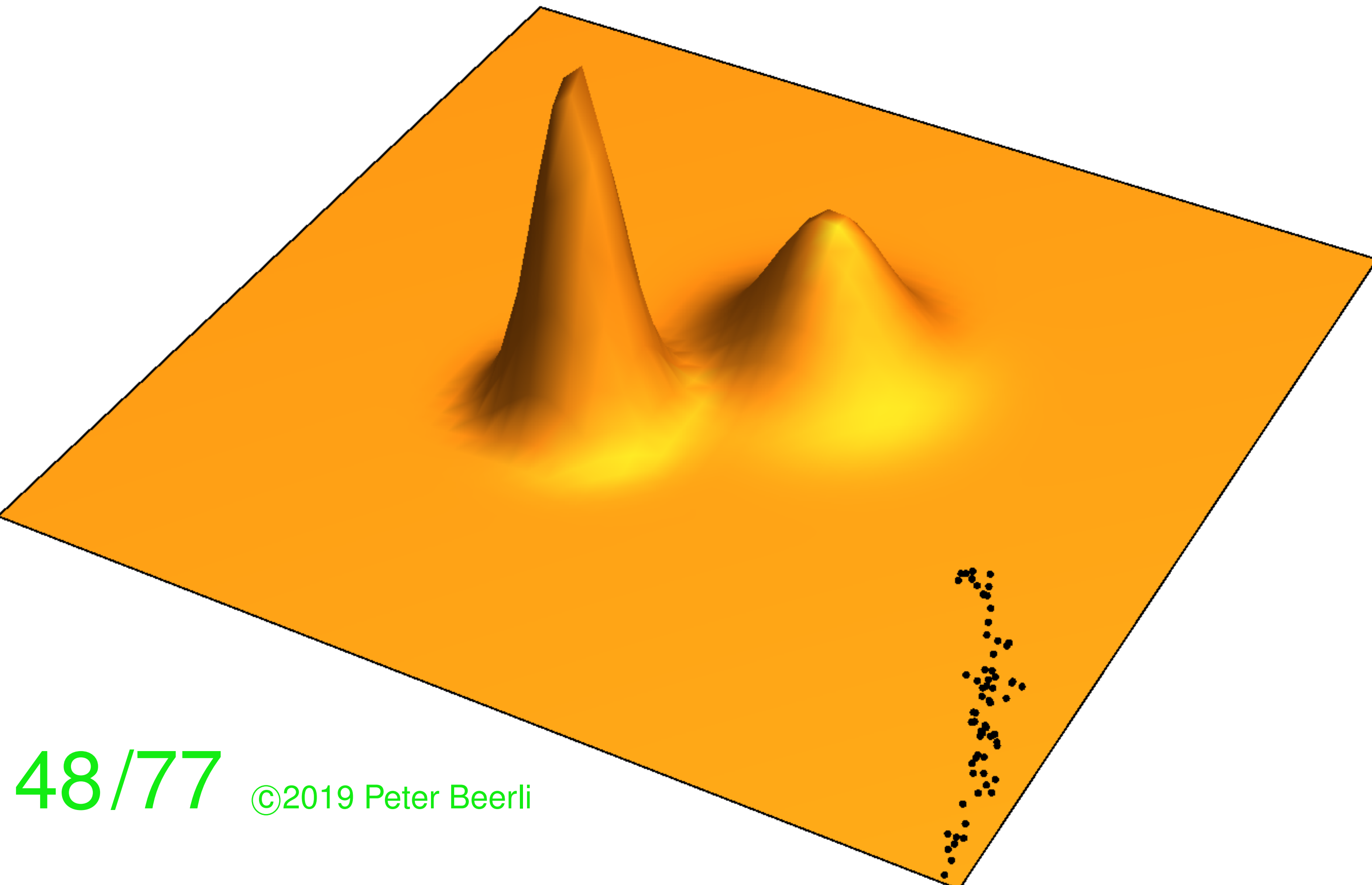
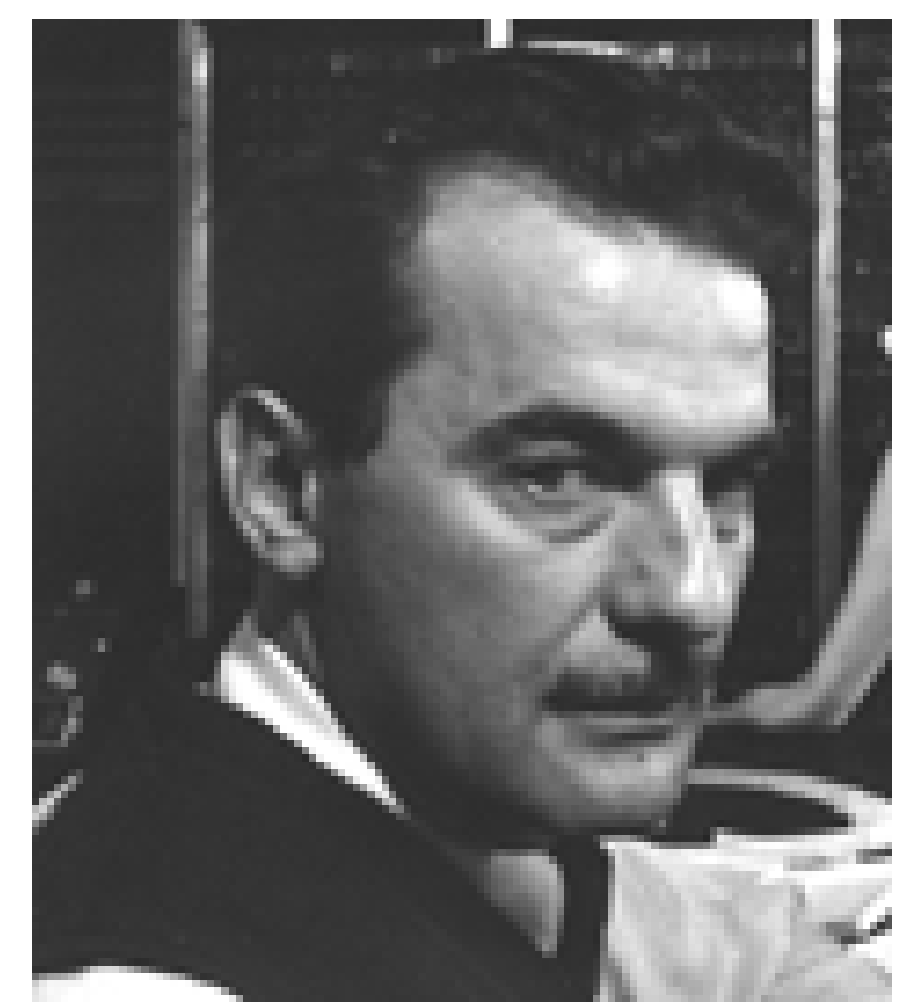
# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm



# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

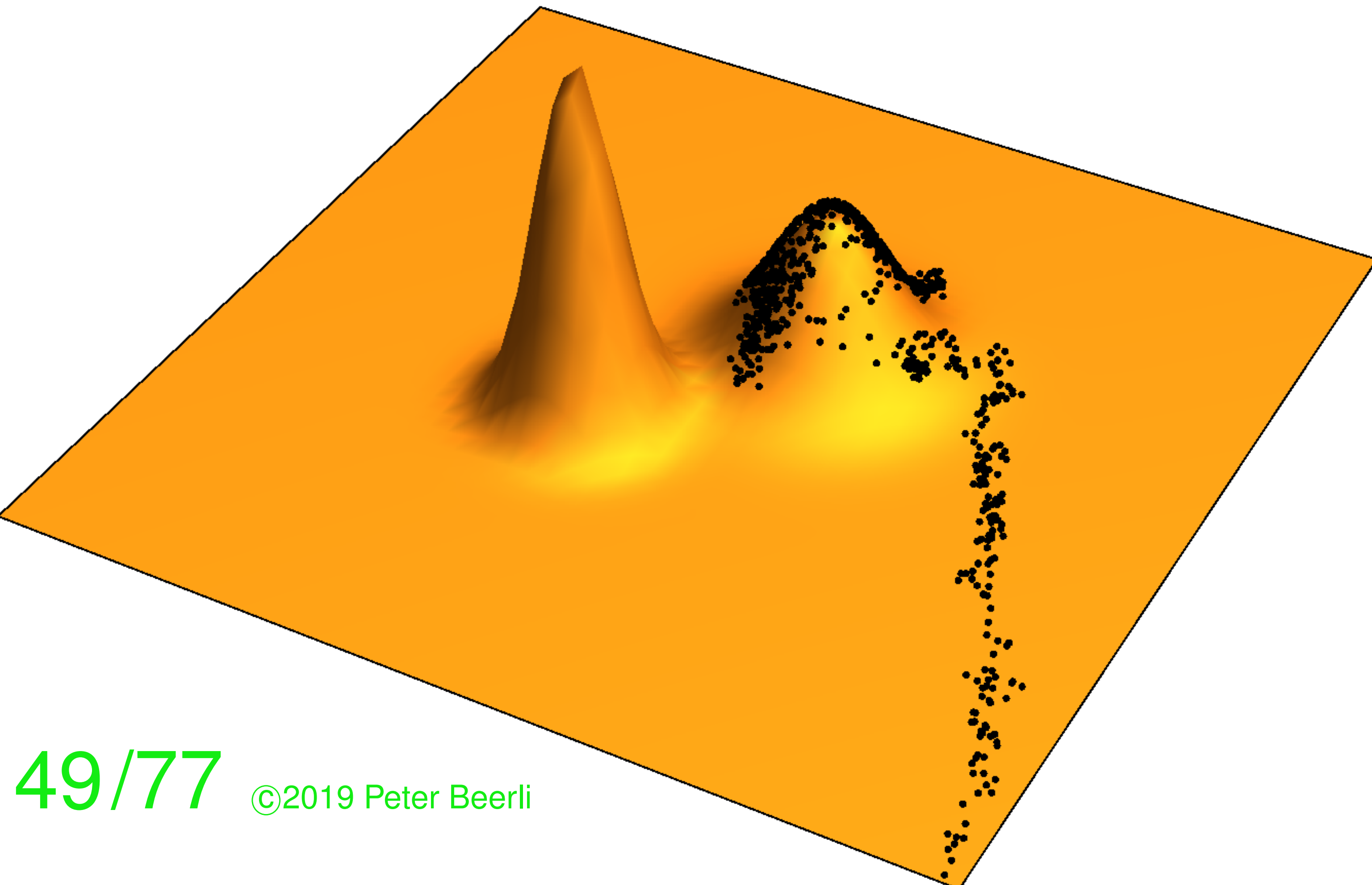
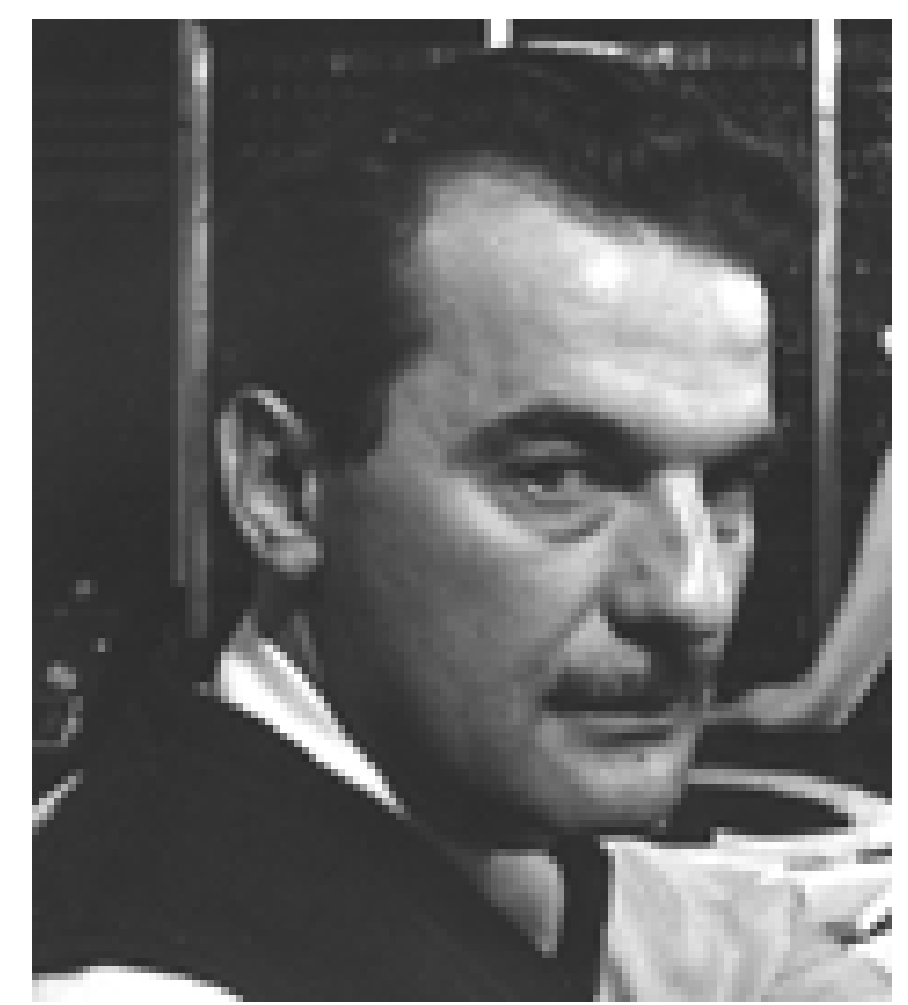


# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

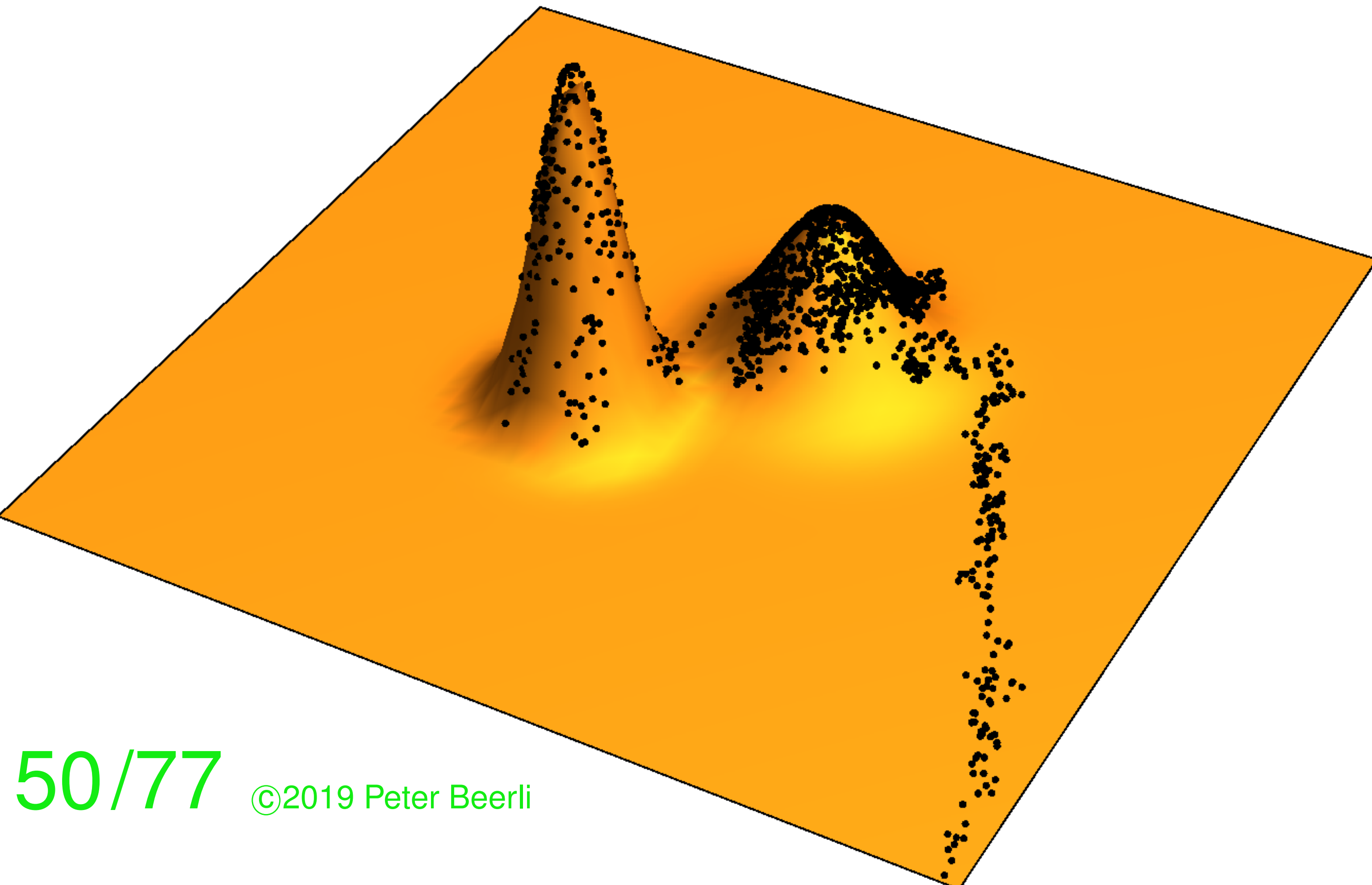
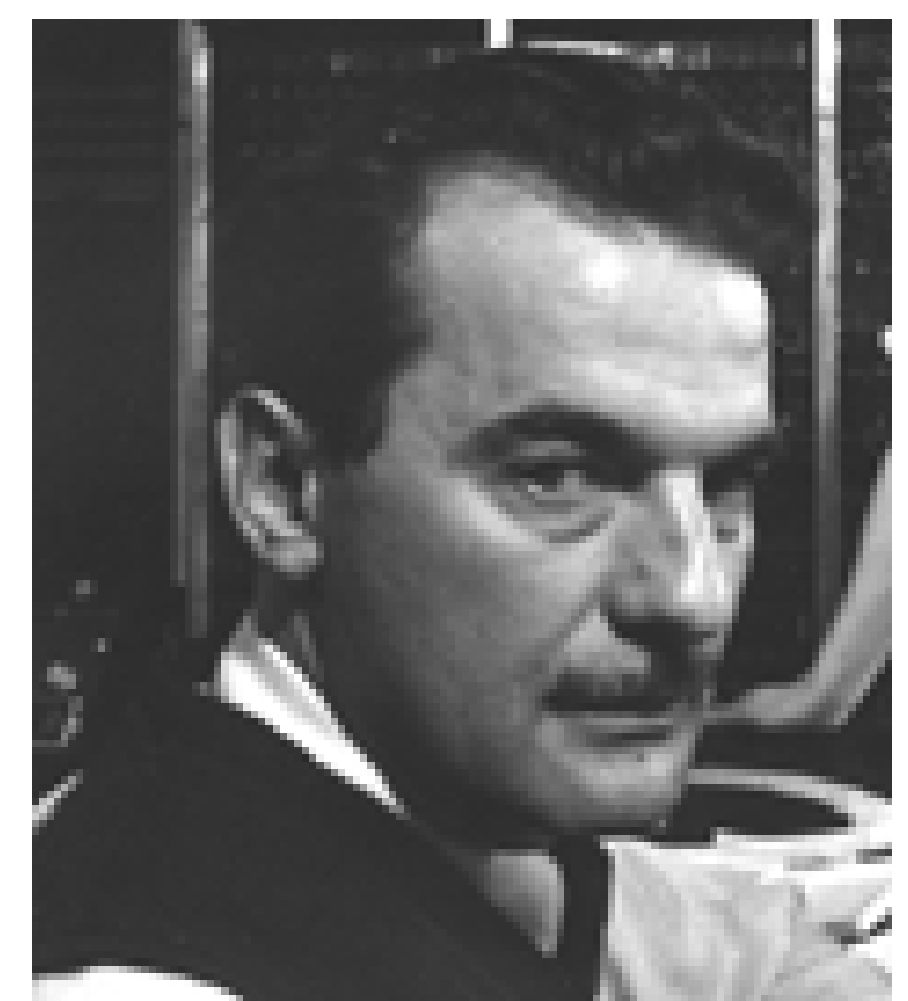




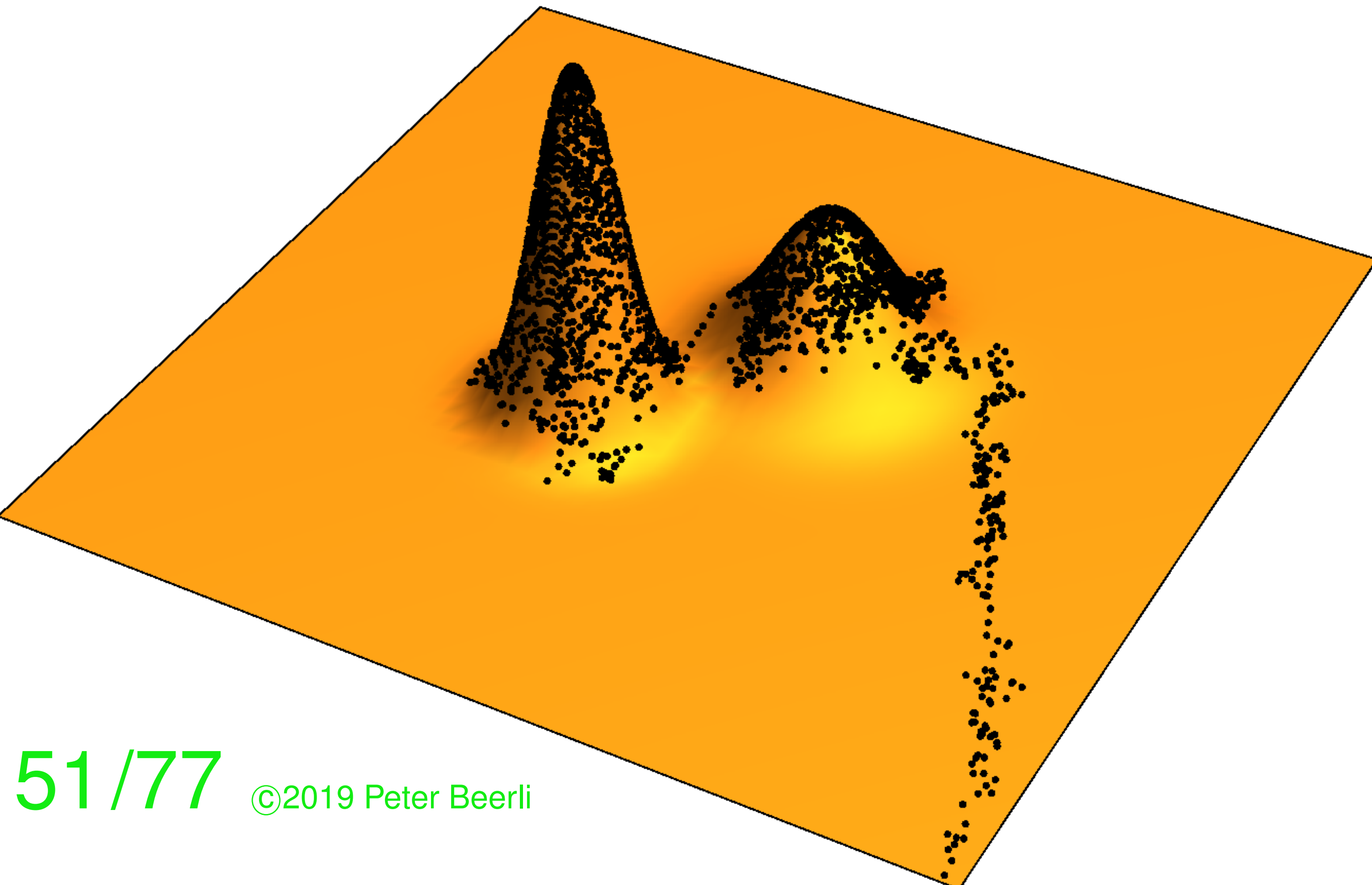
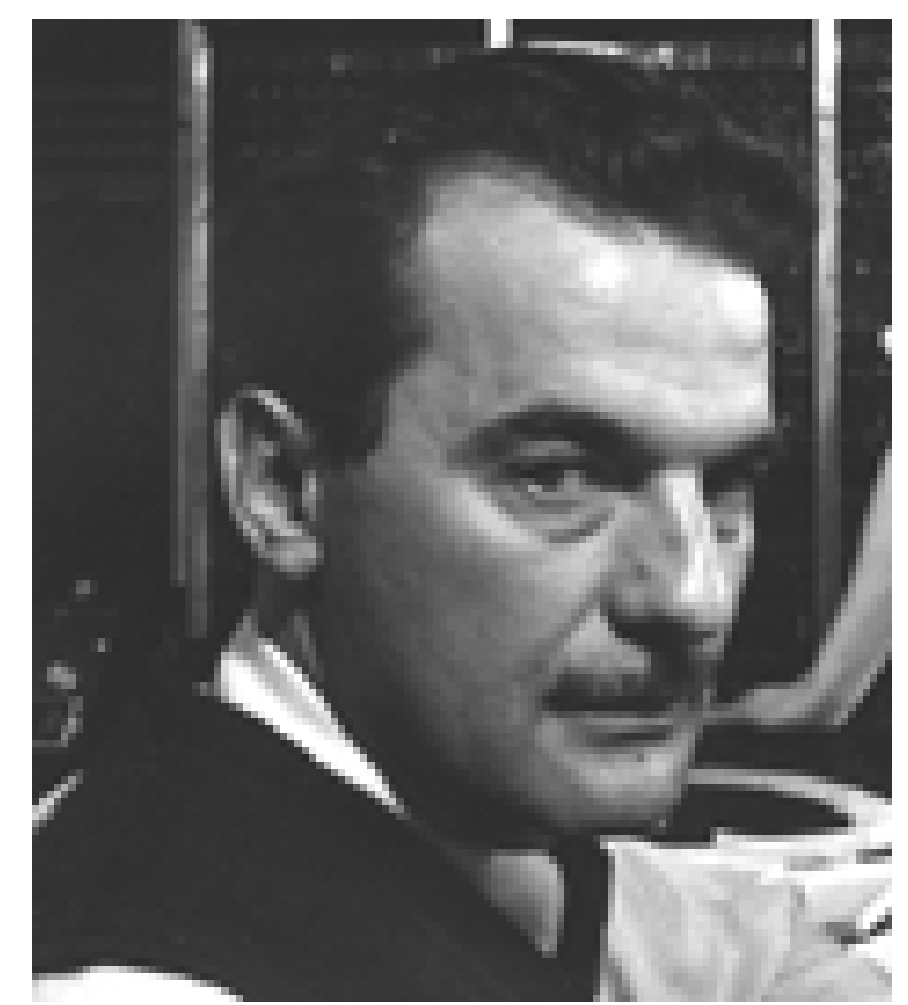
# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm



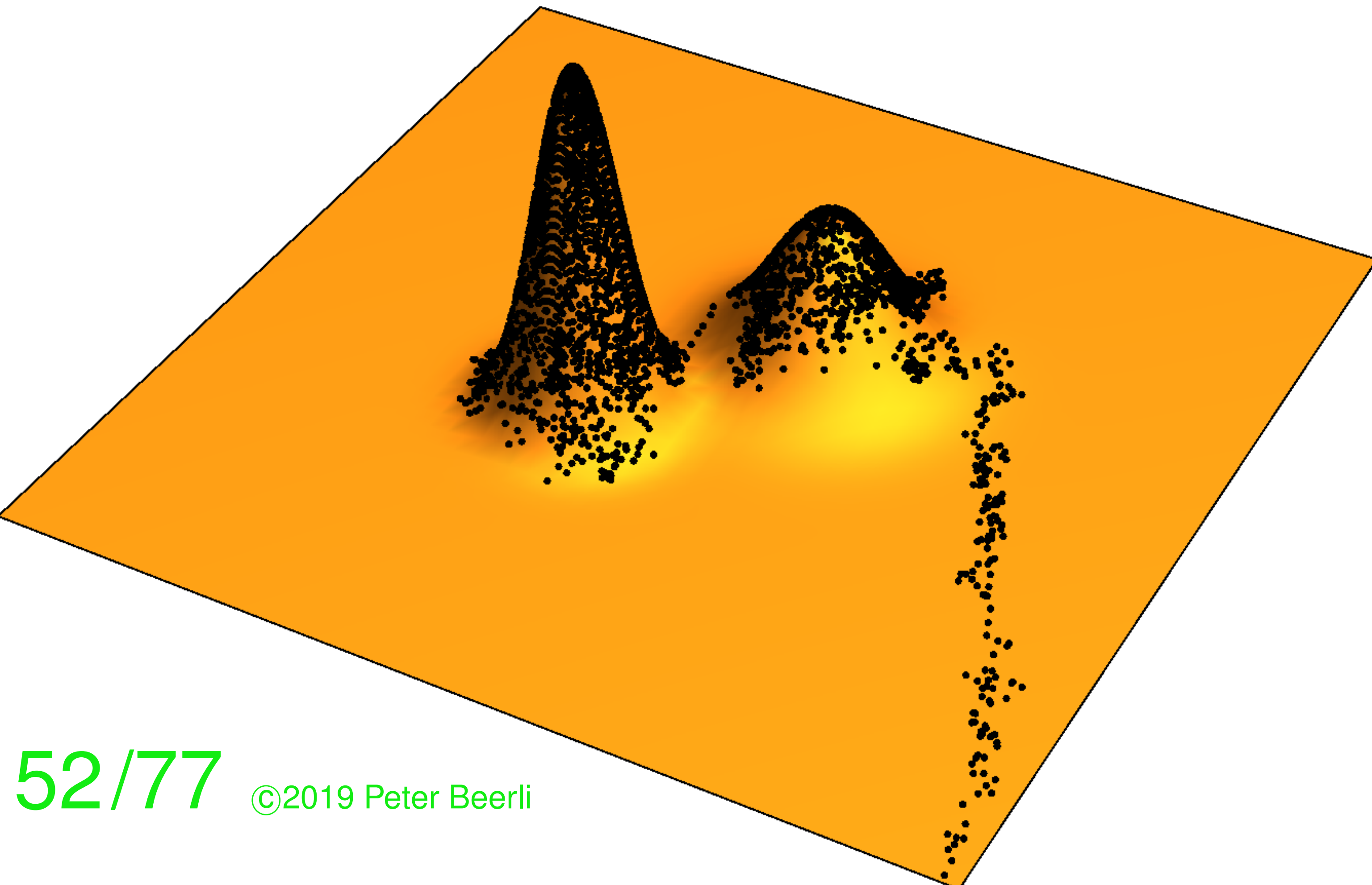
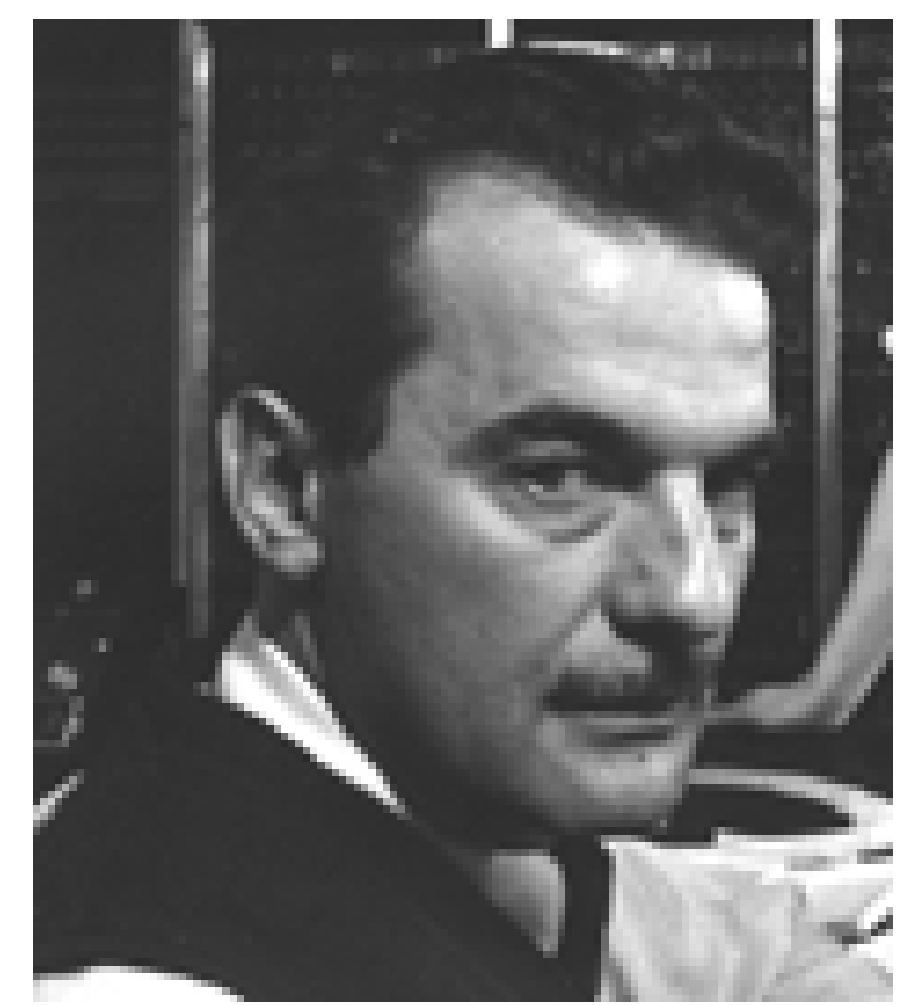
# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm



# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm



# Metropolis-Hastings algorithm



So many models – so little time



# Gene flow

Neanderthal

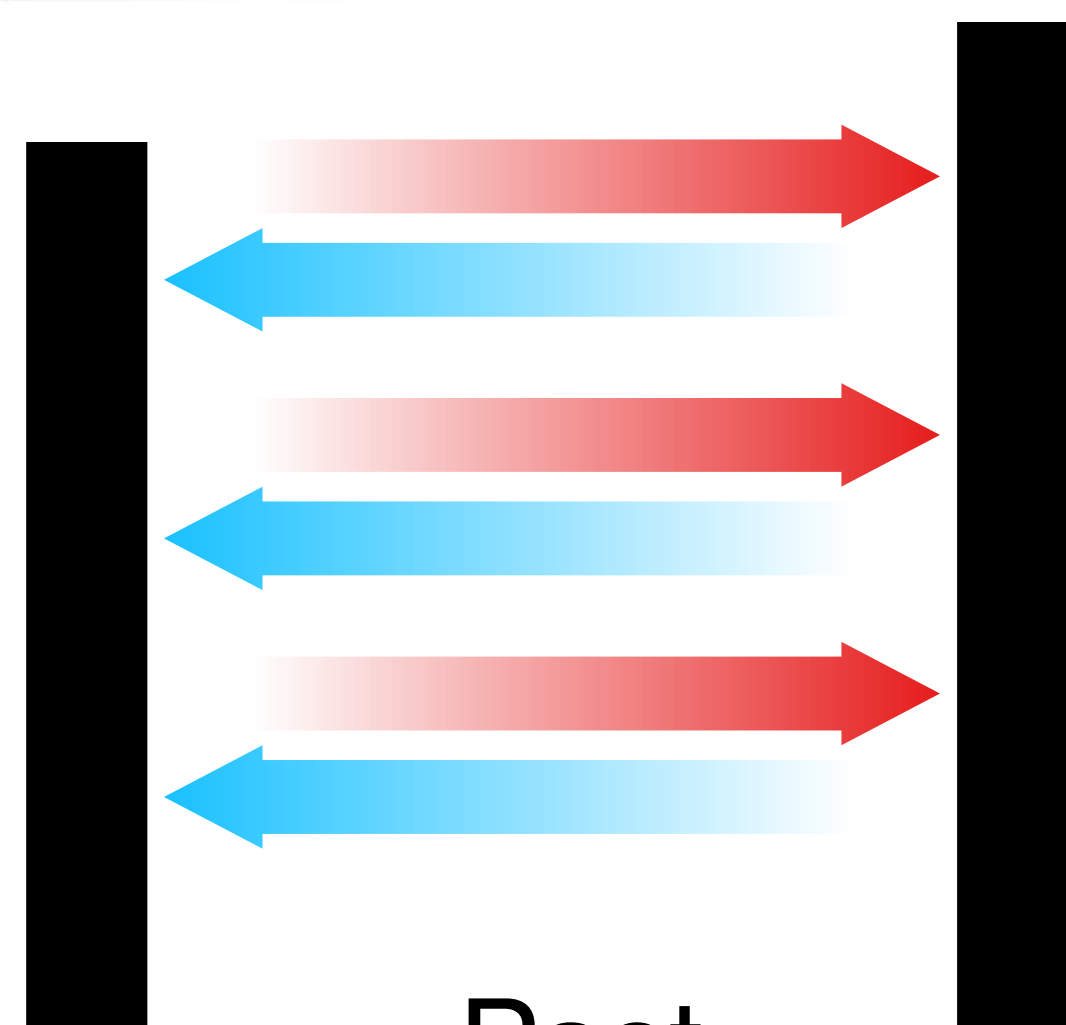


'Modern' human



-30,000 years

Present



Past

# Divergence and Gene flow

Neanderthal

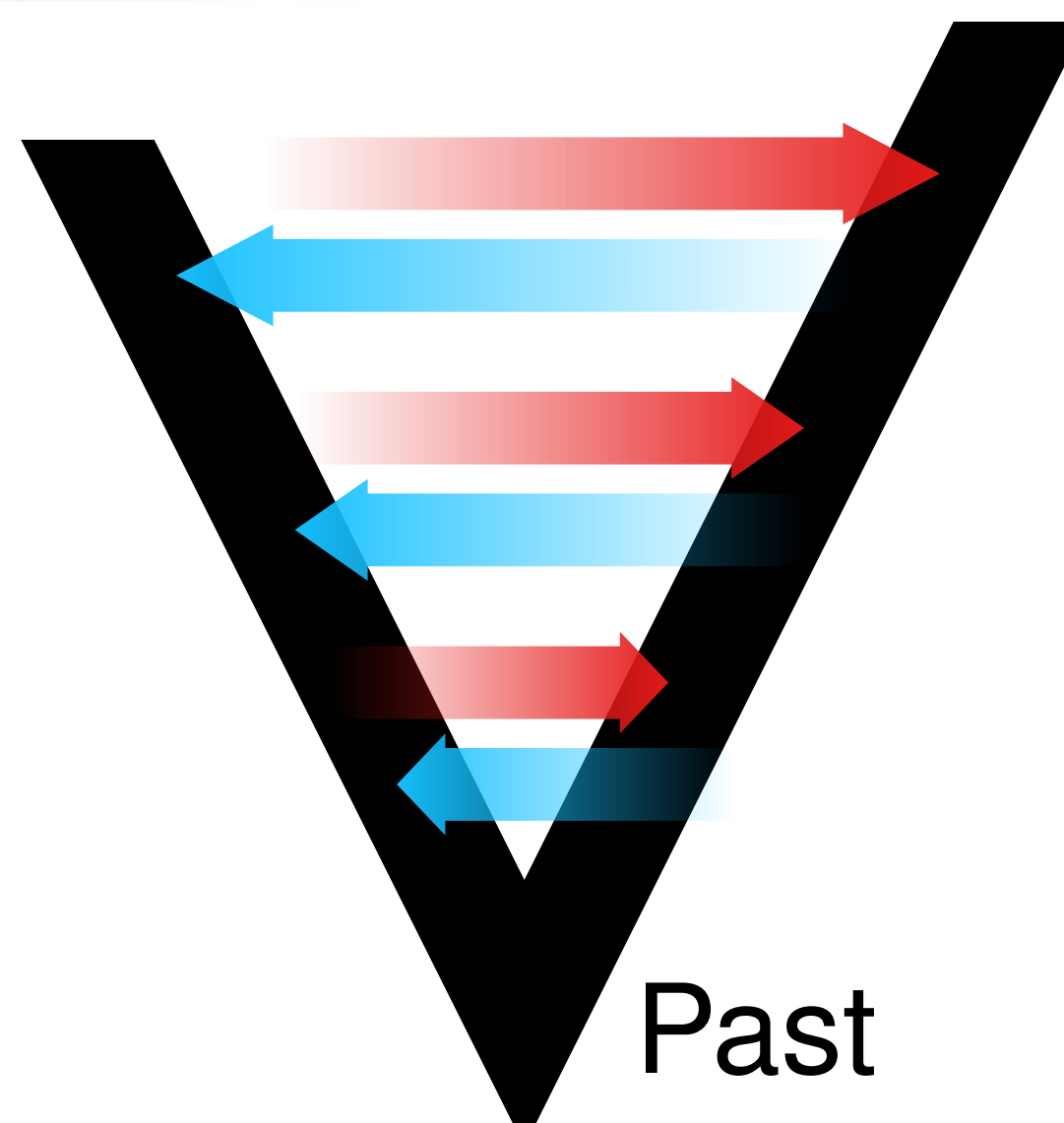


-30,000 years



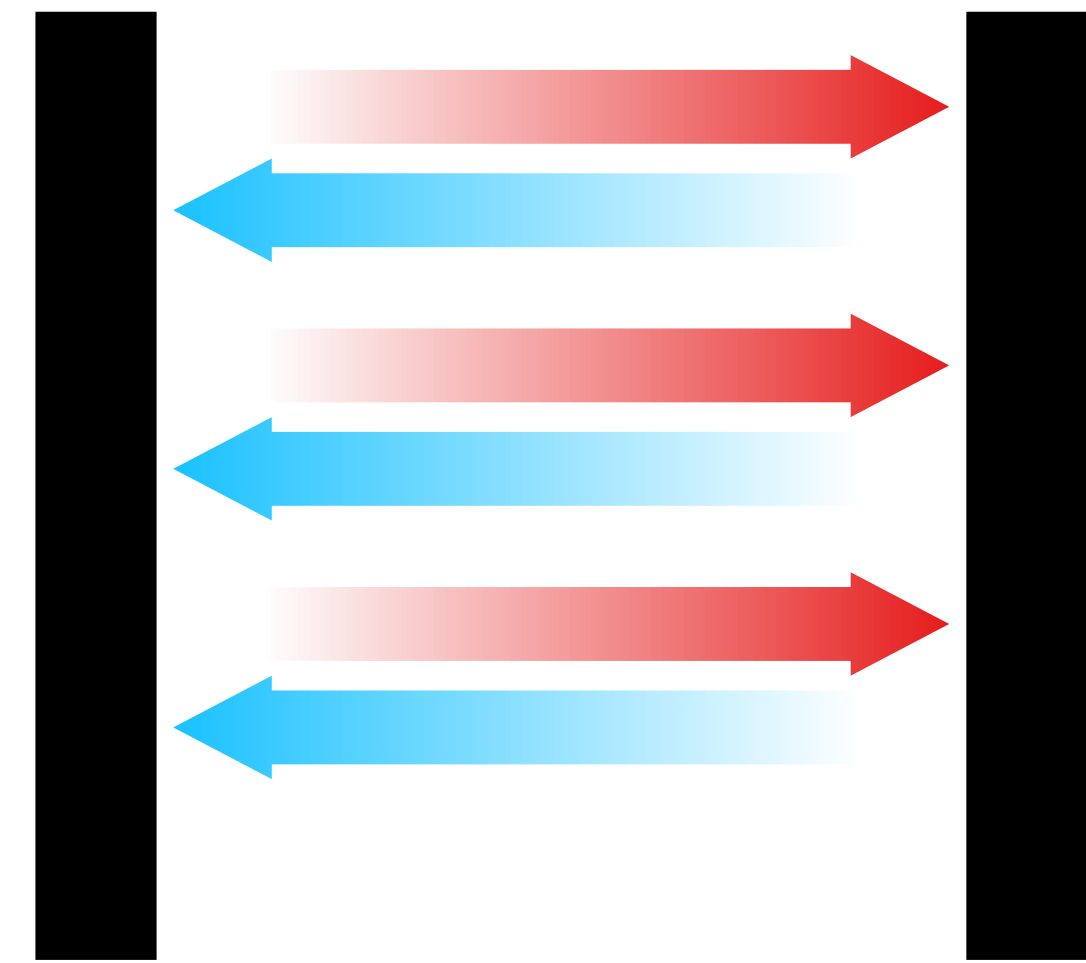
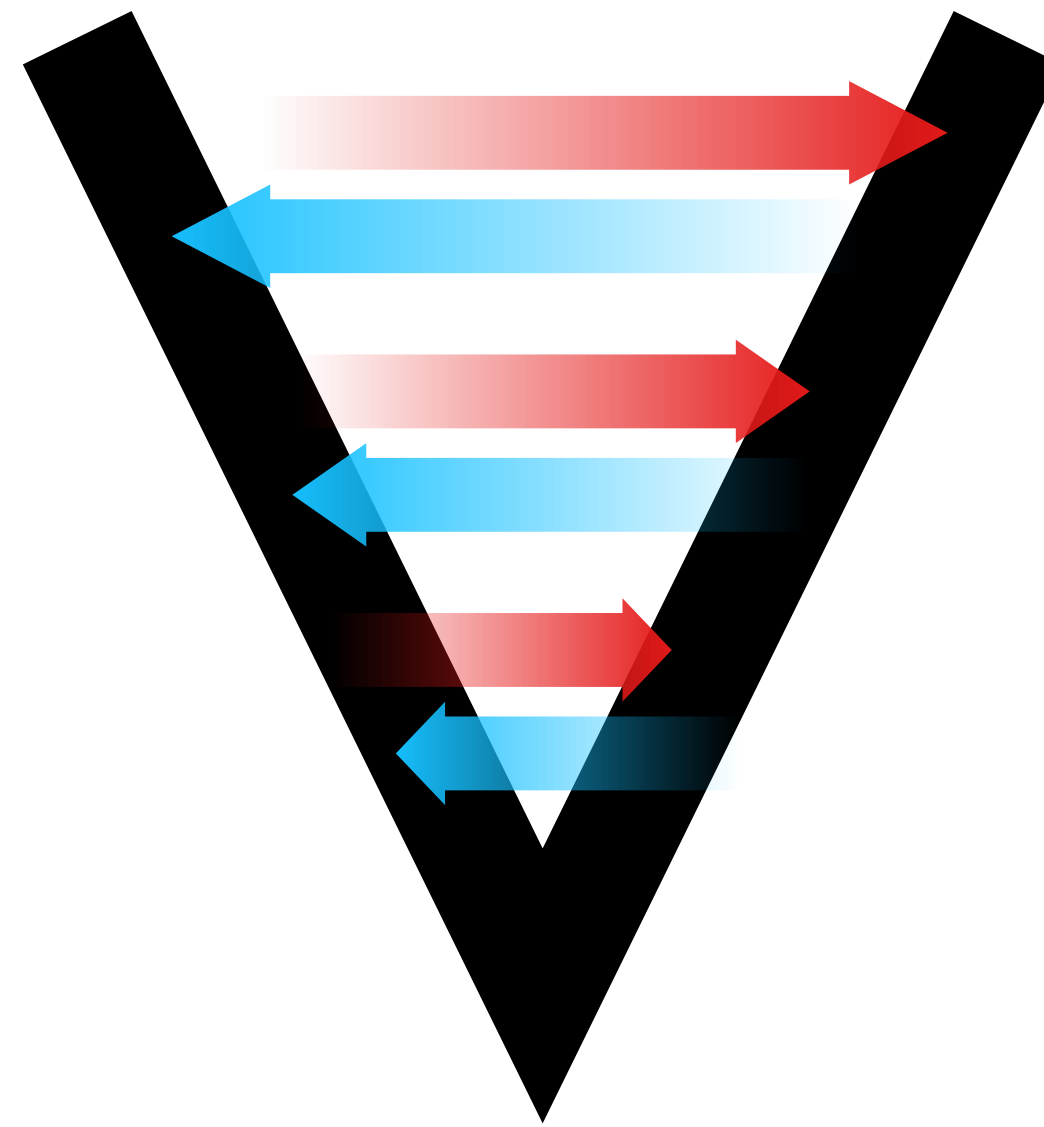
'Modern' human

Present



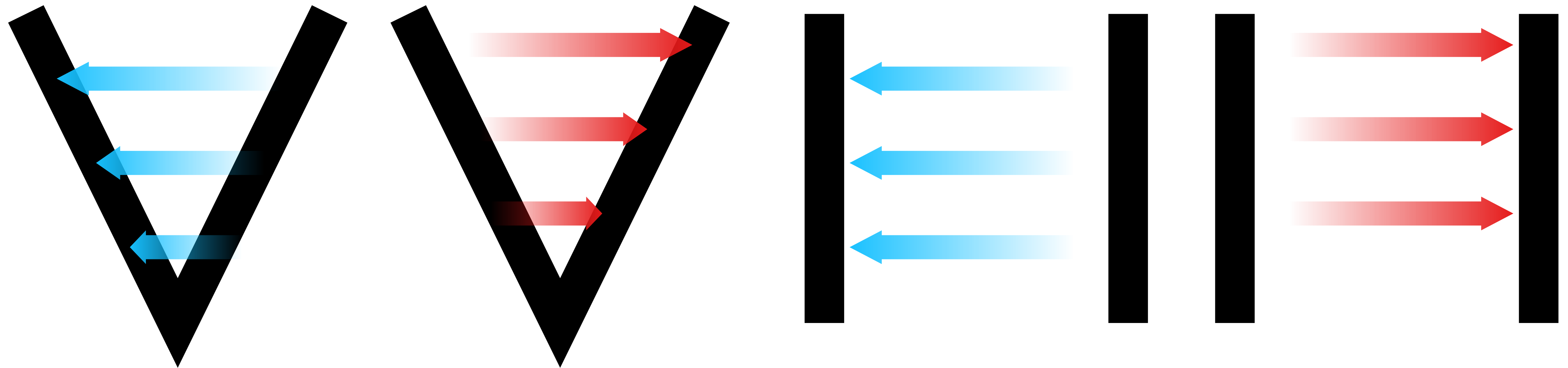
Past

# Different structural models

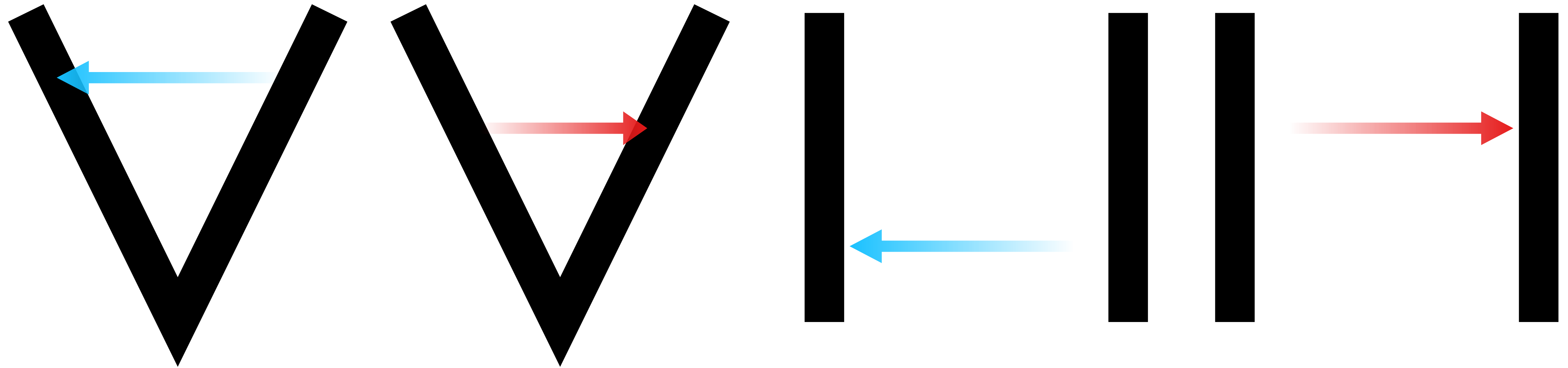




# More different structural models



# Even more different structural models



# Model comparison

With a criterium such as likelihood we can compare nested models. Commonly we use a likelihood ratio test (LRT) or Akaike's information criterion (AIC) to establish whether phylogenetic trees are statistically different or mutation models have an effect on the outcome, etc.

Kass and Raftery (1995) popularized the [Bayes Factor](#) as a Bayesian alternative to the LRT.

# Bayesian inference

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

# Bayes factor

Theoretically, we can calculate the posterior probability density of the model

$$p(M_1|X) = \frac{p(M_1)p(X|M_1)}{p(X)}$$

# Bayes factor

Theoretically, we can calculate the posterior probability density of the model 1 and model 2

$$p(M_1|X) = \frac{p(M_1)p(X|M_1)}{p(X)}$$

$$p(M_2|X) = \frac{p(M_2)p(X|M_2)}{p(X)}$$

# Bayes factor

Theoretically, we can calculate the posterior probability density of the model 1 and model 2

$$\frac{p(M_1|X)}{p(M_2|X)} = \frac{\frac{p(M_1)p(X|M_1)}{p(X)}}{\frac{p(M_2)p(X|M_1)}{p(X)}}$$

# Bayes factor

We could look at the **posterior odds ratio** or equivalently the **Bayes factors**.

$$\frac{p(M_1|X)}{p(M_2|X)} = \frac{p(M_1)}{p(M_2)} \times \frac{p(X|M_1)}{p(X|M_2)}$$

$$\text{BF} = \frac{p(X|M_1)}{p(X|M_2)} \quad \text{LBF} = 2 \ln \text{BF} = 2 \ln \left( \frac{p(X|M_1)}{p(X|M_2)} \right)$$



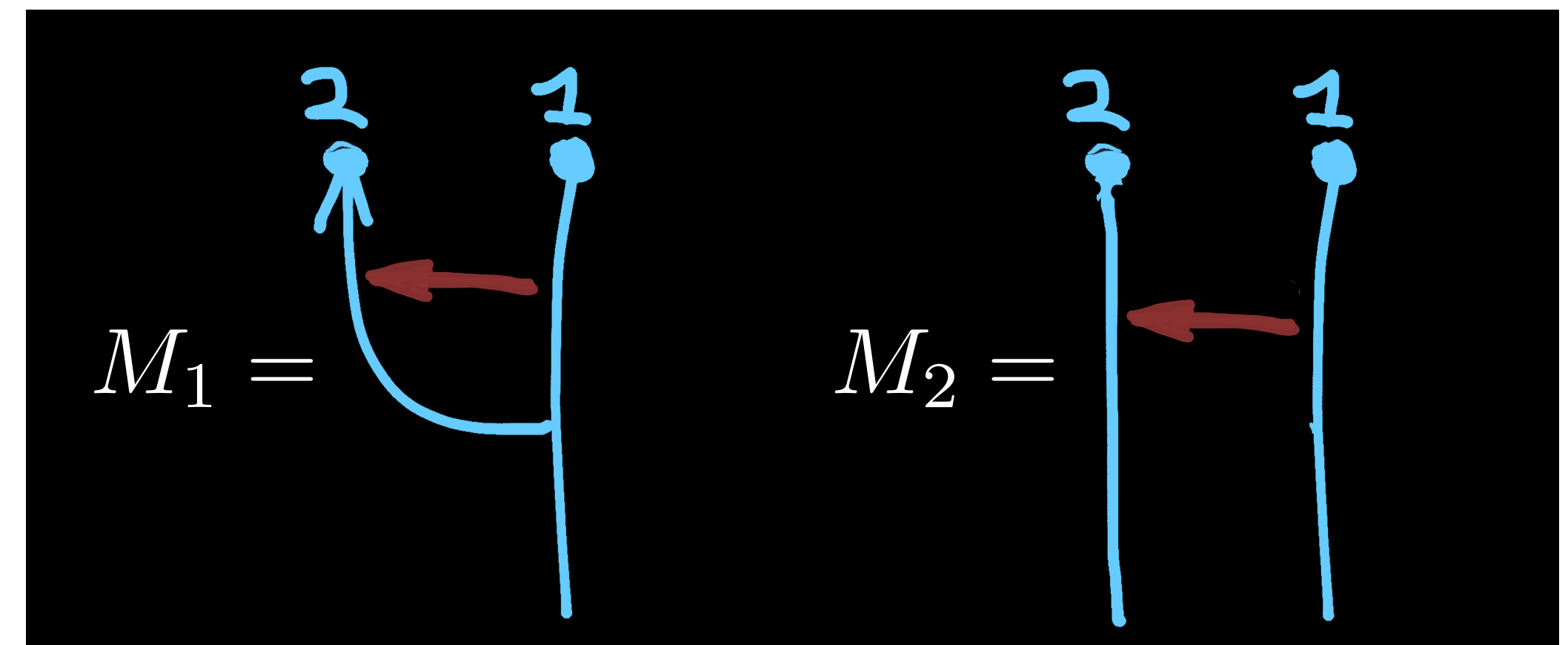
# Bayes factor

$$\text{BF} = \frac{p(X|M_1)}{p(X|M_2)} \quad \text{LBF} = 2 \ln \text{BF} = 2 \ln \left( \frac{p(X|M_1)}{p(X|M_2)} \right)$$

The magnitude of BF gives us evidence against or for hypothesis  $M_2$

$$\text{LBF} = 2 \ln \text{BF} = z \quad \begin{cases} 0 < |z| < 2 & \text{No real difference} \\ 2 < |z| < 6 & \text{Positive} \\ 6 < |z| < 10 & \text{Strong} \\ |z| > 10 & \text{Very strong} \end{cases}$$

# Bayes factor example



$$\text{LBF} = 2 \ln \text{BF} = 2 \ln \left( \frac{p(\mathbf{X}|M_1)}{p(\mathbf{X}|M_2)} \right) = 2(-9638.69) - (-9641.01) = 4.64$$

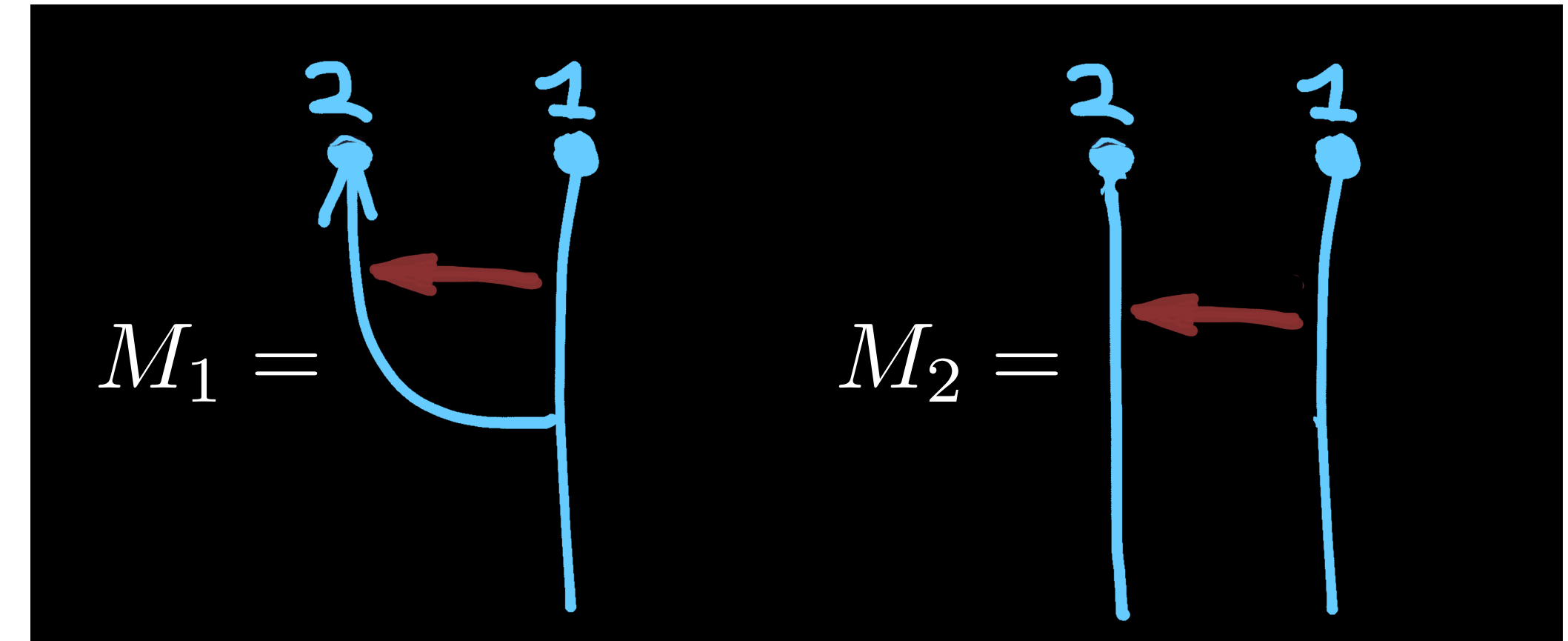
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# Posterior model probability

(example continued)

Instead of calculating the Bayes factor we could use the probability of all tested models  $M_i$  and use them as weights (cf. Burnham and Anderson, 1998)



$$p_i^* = \frac{p(X|M_i)}{\sum_j p(X|M_j)}, \quad \sum_i p_i^* = 1, \quad \ell_1 = -9638.61, \quad \ell_2 = -9641.01$$

$$p_1^* = \frac{\exp(\ell_1)}{\exp(\ell_1) + \exp(\ell_2)} = 0.911$$

$$p_2^* = \frac{\exp(\ell_2)}{\exp(\ell_1) + \exp(\ell_2)} = 0.089$$

# Marginal likelihood

Typically, it is rather difficult to calculate the marginal likelihoods with good accuracy, because most often we only approximate the posterior distribution using Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC).

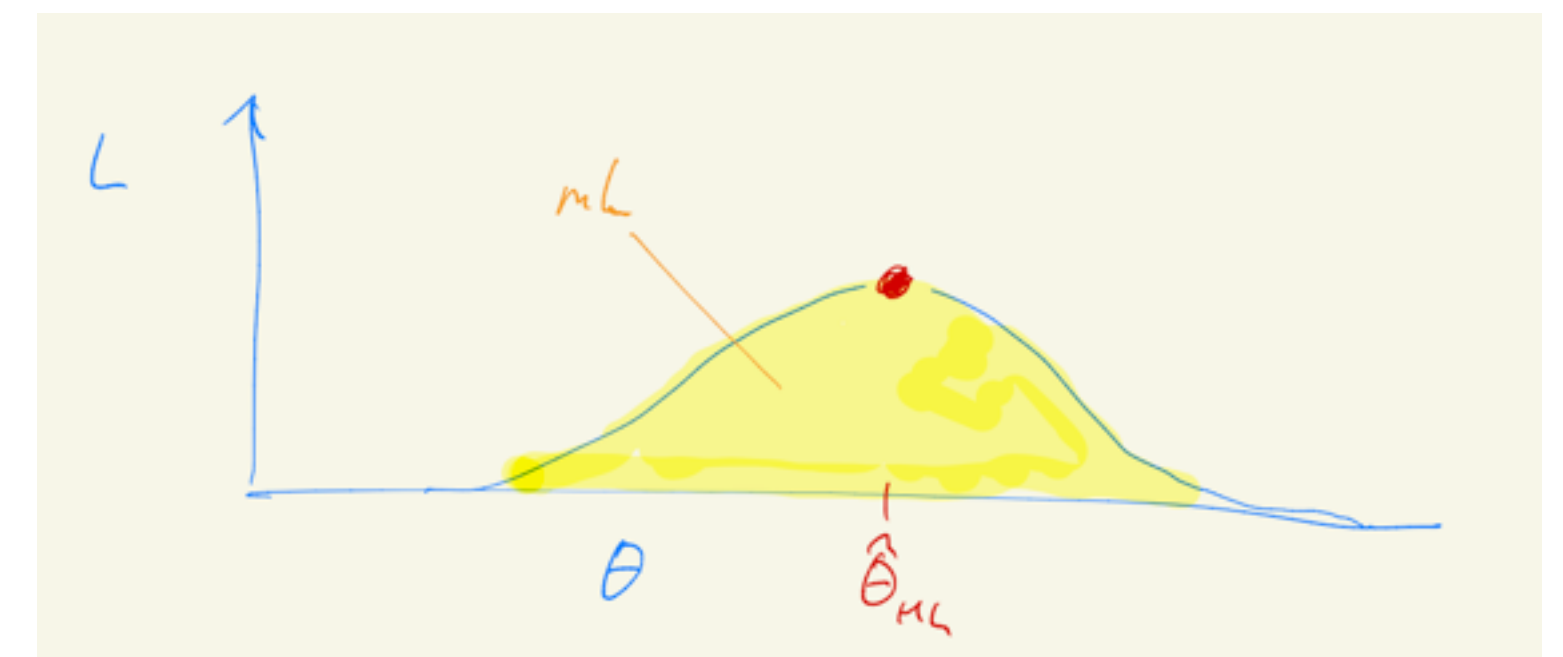
In MCMC we need to know only differences and therefore we typically do not need to calculate the denominator to calculate the Posterior distribution  $p(\Theta|X)$ :

$$p(\Theta|X, M) = \frac{p(\Theta)p(X|\Theta)}{p(X|M)} = \frac{p(\Theta)p(X|\Theta)}{\int_{\Theta} p(\Theta)p(X|\Theta)d\Theta}$$

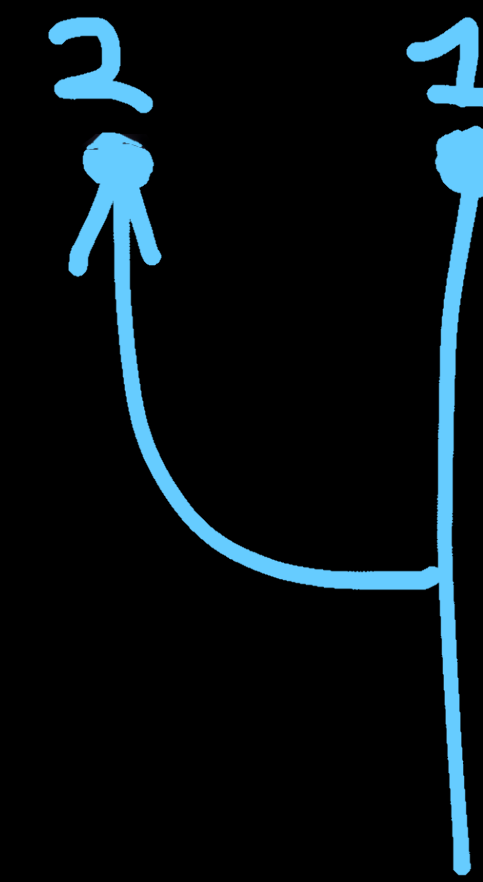
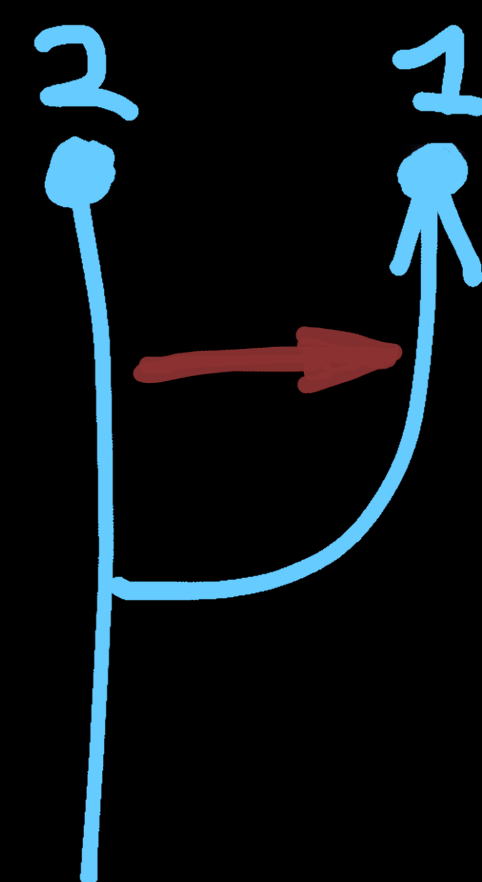
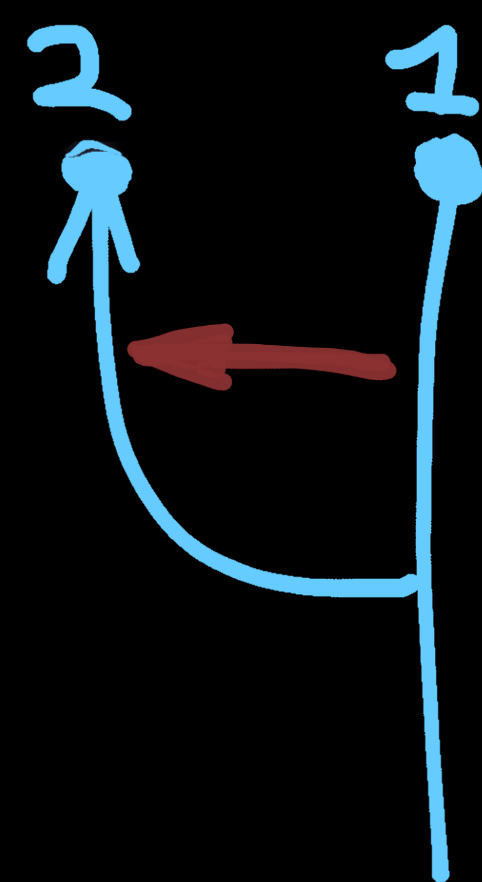
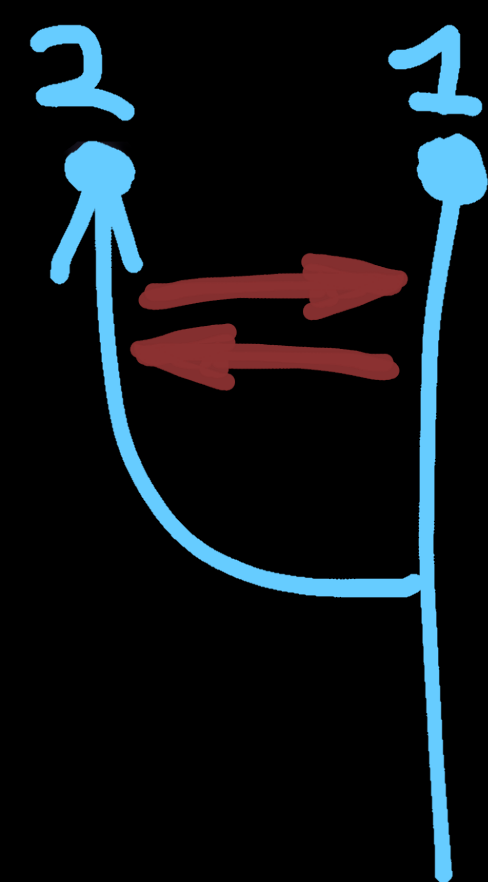
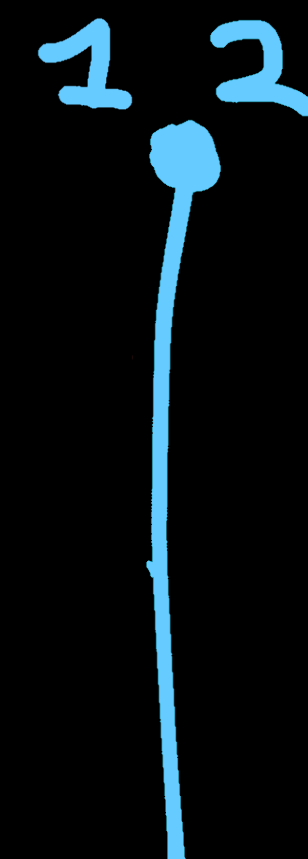
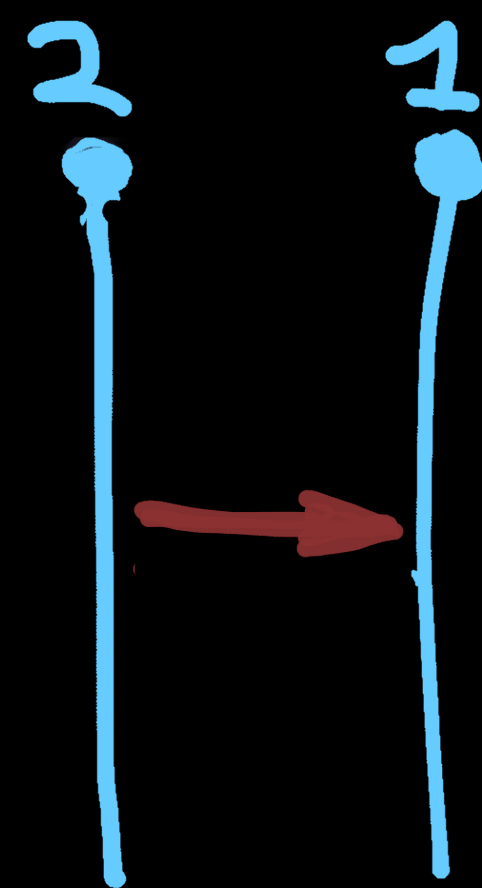
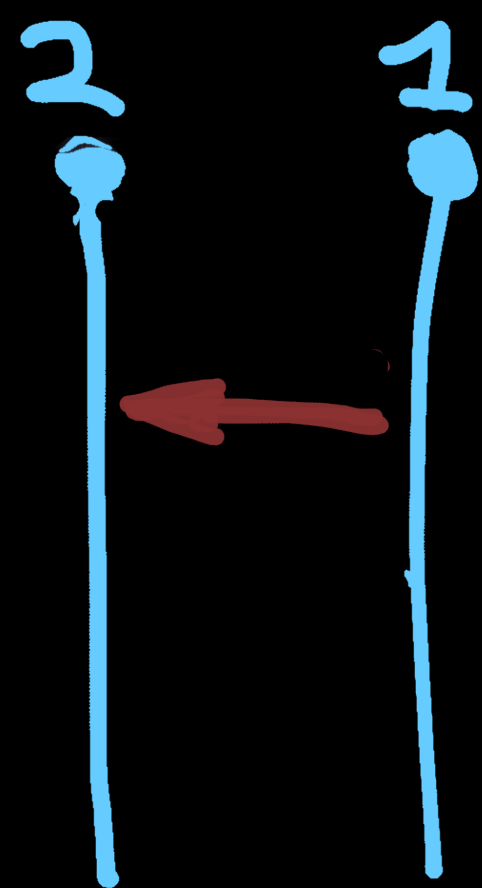
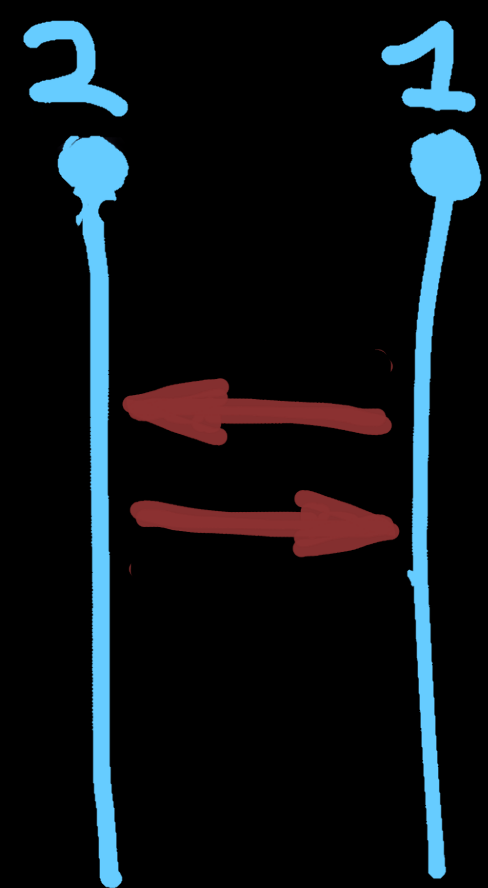
where  $p(X|M)$  is the marginal likelihood, **which we need for our model selection!**

# Estimation of the marginal likelihood

- ◆ Harmonic mean estimator [Kass and Raftery 1995]: method is easy and used in many programs, results are biased and overestimate the marginal likelihood, variance of estimates can be very large.
- ◆ Thermodynamic integration (Path sampling) [Gelman and Meng 1997, Lartillot et al. 2006]: method is tedious to compute because several MCMC chains are needed. Results are accurate and reproducible with small variance when MCMC runs were run long enough.
- ◆ Stepping stone approach (Xie et al. 2011)



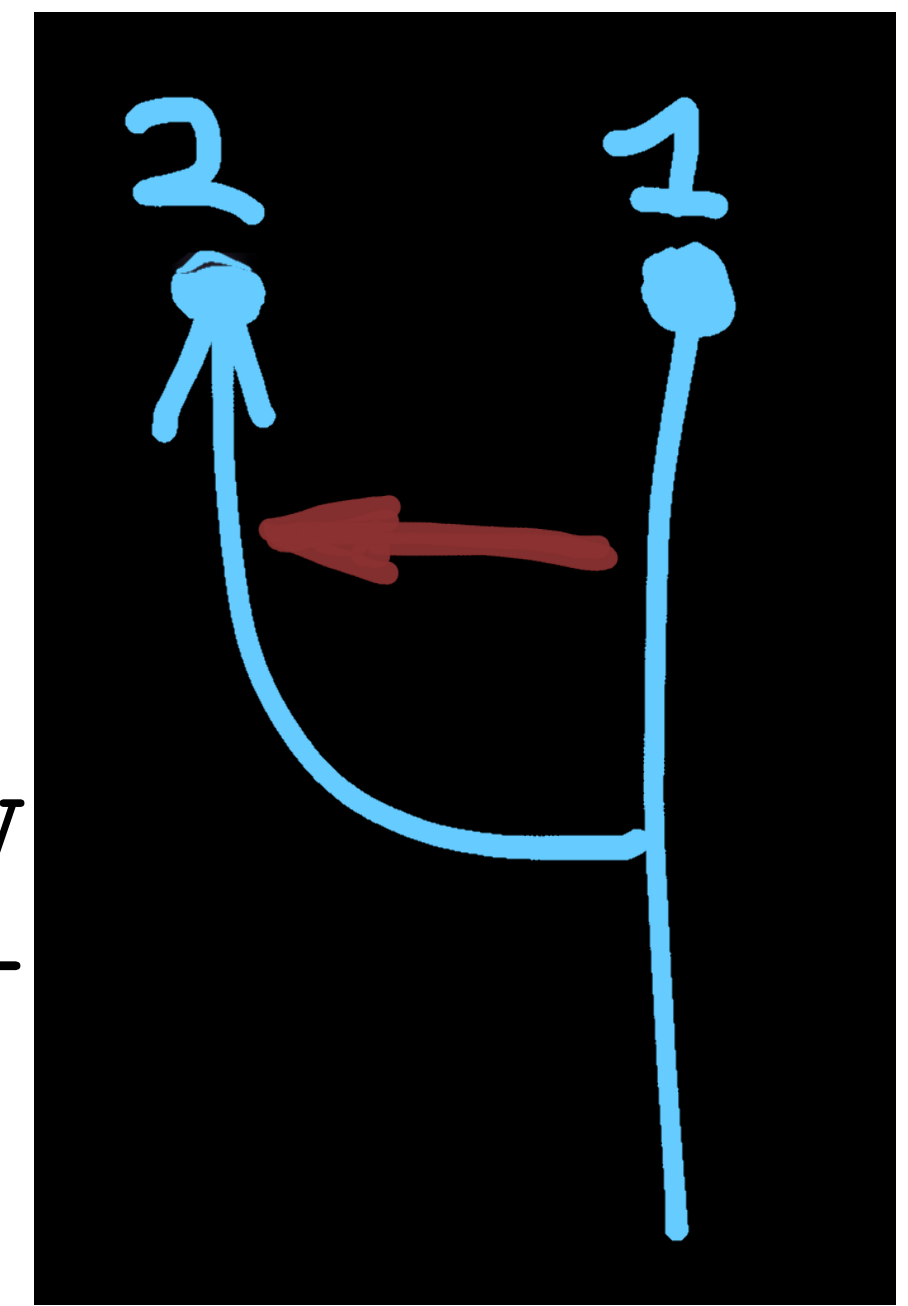
# Population models



# Simulated data

Two loci simulated from model x0Dx:

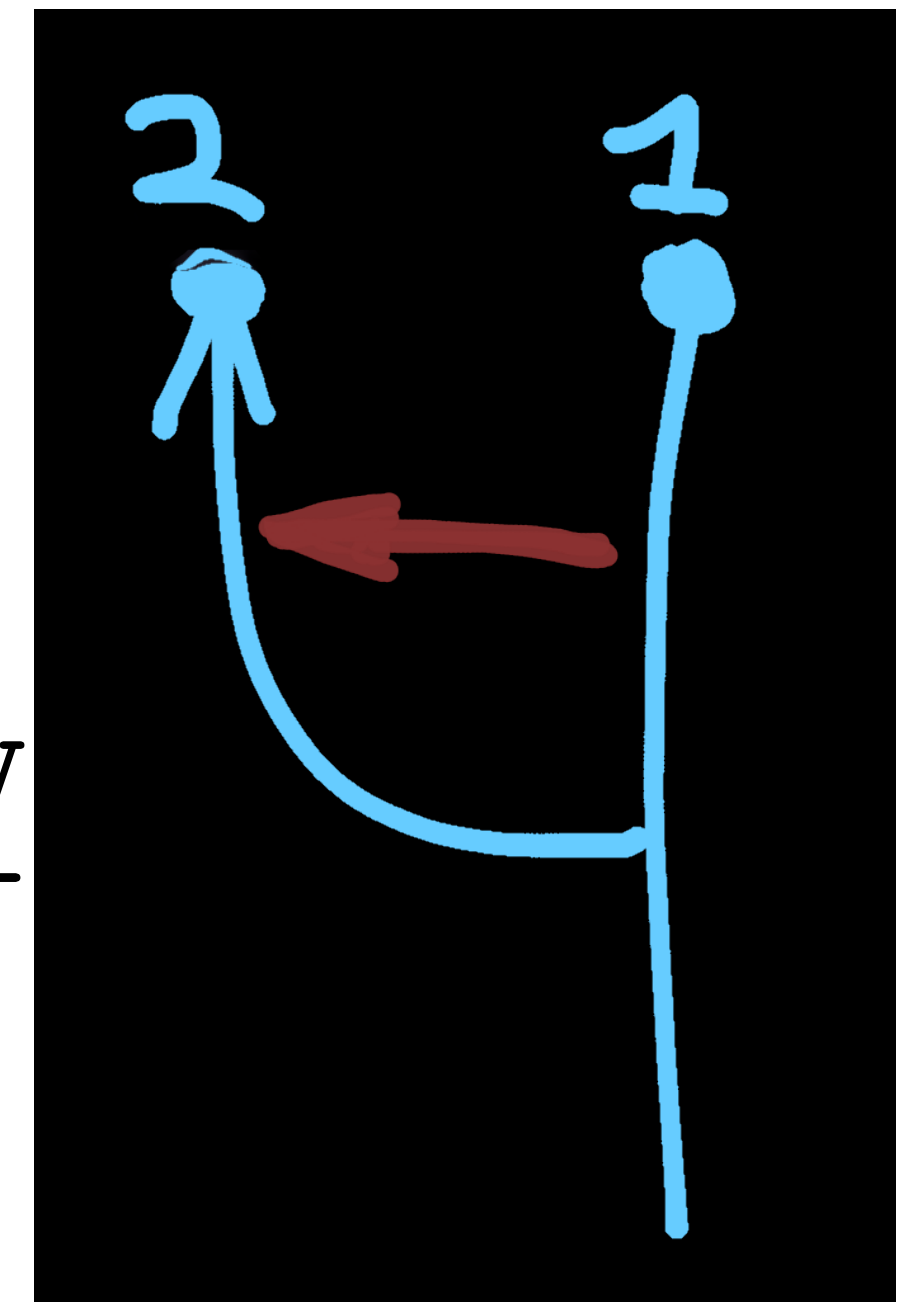
Model	Log(mL)	LBF*	Model-probability
1: xxx:	-9662.42	-23.73	0.0000
2: xDxx:	-9661.98	-23.29	0.0000
3: xxDx:	-9661.52	-22.83	0.0000
4: xd0x:	-9656.51	-17.82	0.0000
5: xD0x:	-9649.33	-10.64	0.0000
6: xx0x:	-9648.93	-10.24	0.0000
7: x0dx:	-9641.77	-3.08	0.0402
8: x0xx:	-9641.01	-2.32	0.0859
9: x0Dx:	-9638.69	0.00	0.8739



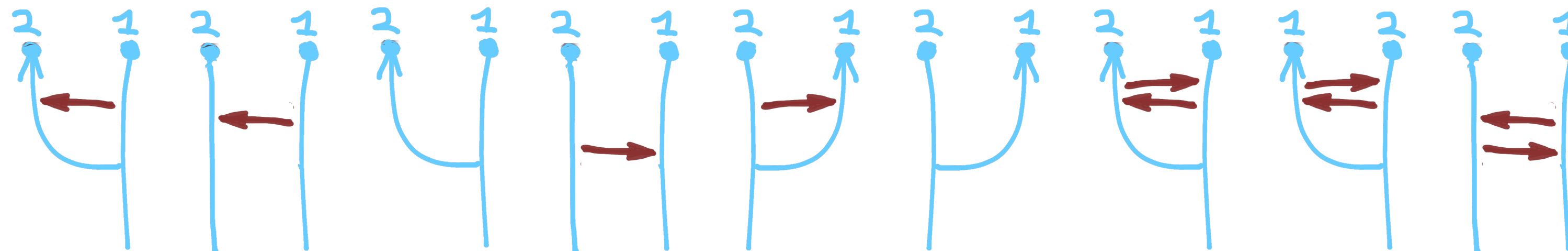
# Simulated data

Two loci simulated from model x0Dx:

Model	Log(mL)	LBF*	Model-probability
1: xxxx:	-9662.42	-23.73	0.0000
2: xDxx:	-9661.98	-23.29	0.0000
3: xxDx:	-9661.52	-22.83	0.0000
4: xd0x:	-9656.51	-17.82	0.0000
5: xD0x:	-9649.33	-10.64	0.0000
6: xx0x:	-9648.93	-10.24	0.0000
7: x0dx:	-9641.77	-3.08	0.0402
8: x0xx:	-9641.01	-2.32	0.0859
9: x0Dx:	-9638.69	0.00	0.8739



Best



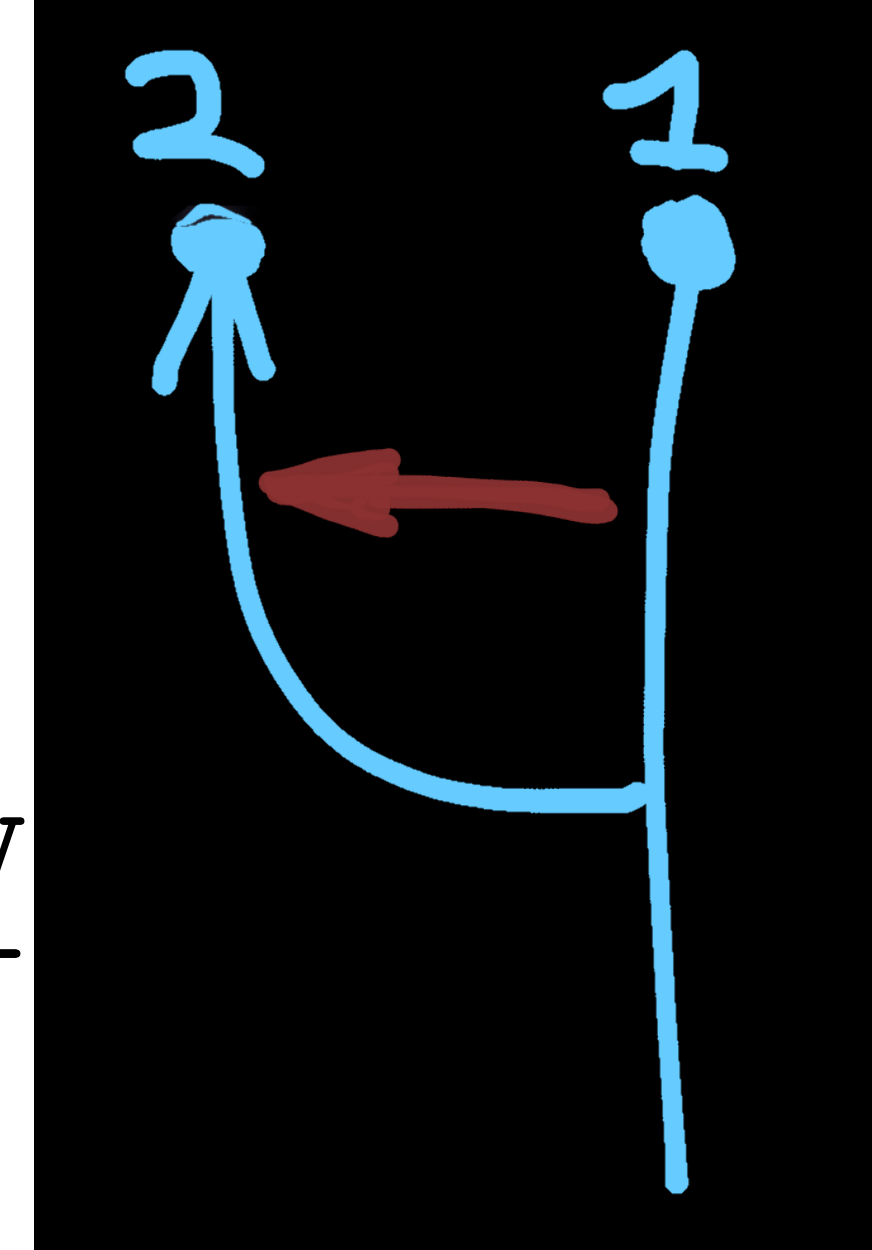
Worst



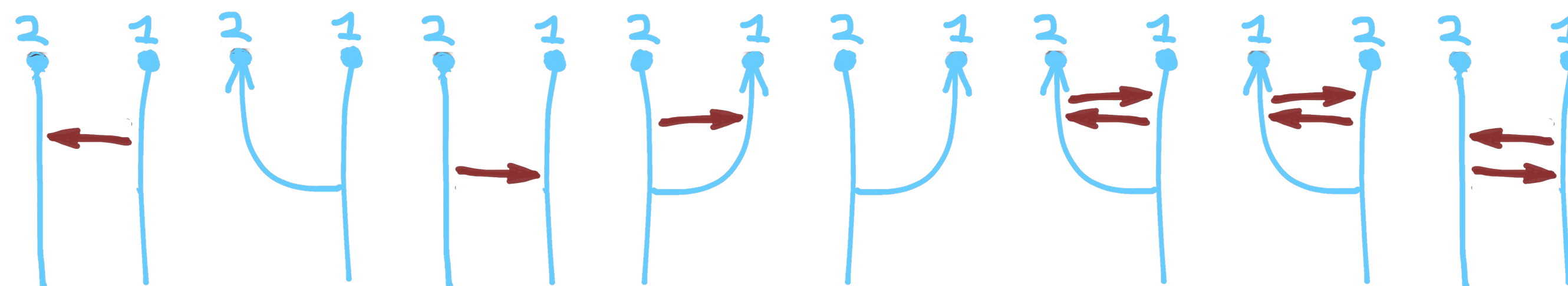
# We did not include the correct model!

Two loci simulated from model x0Dx:

Model	Log(mL)	LBF*	Model-probability
1:xxxx:	-9662.42	-21.41	0.0000
2:xBxx:	-9661.98	-20.97	0.0000
3:xxBx:	-9661.52	-20.51	0.0000
4:xd0x:	-9656.51	-15.50	0.0000
5:xB0x:	-9649.33	-8.32	0.0002
6:xx0x:	-9648.93	-7.92	0.0002
7:x0dx:	-9641.77	-0.76	0.3185
8:x0xx:	-9641.01	0.00	0.6811



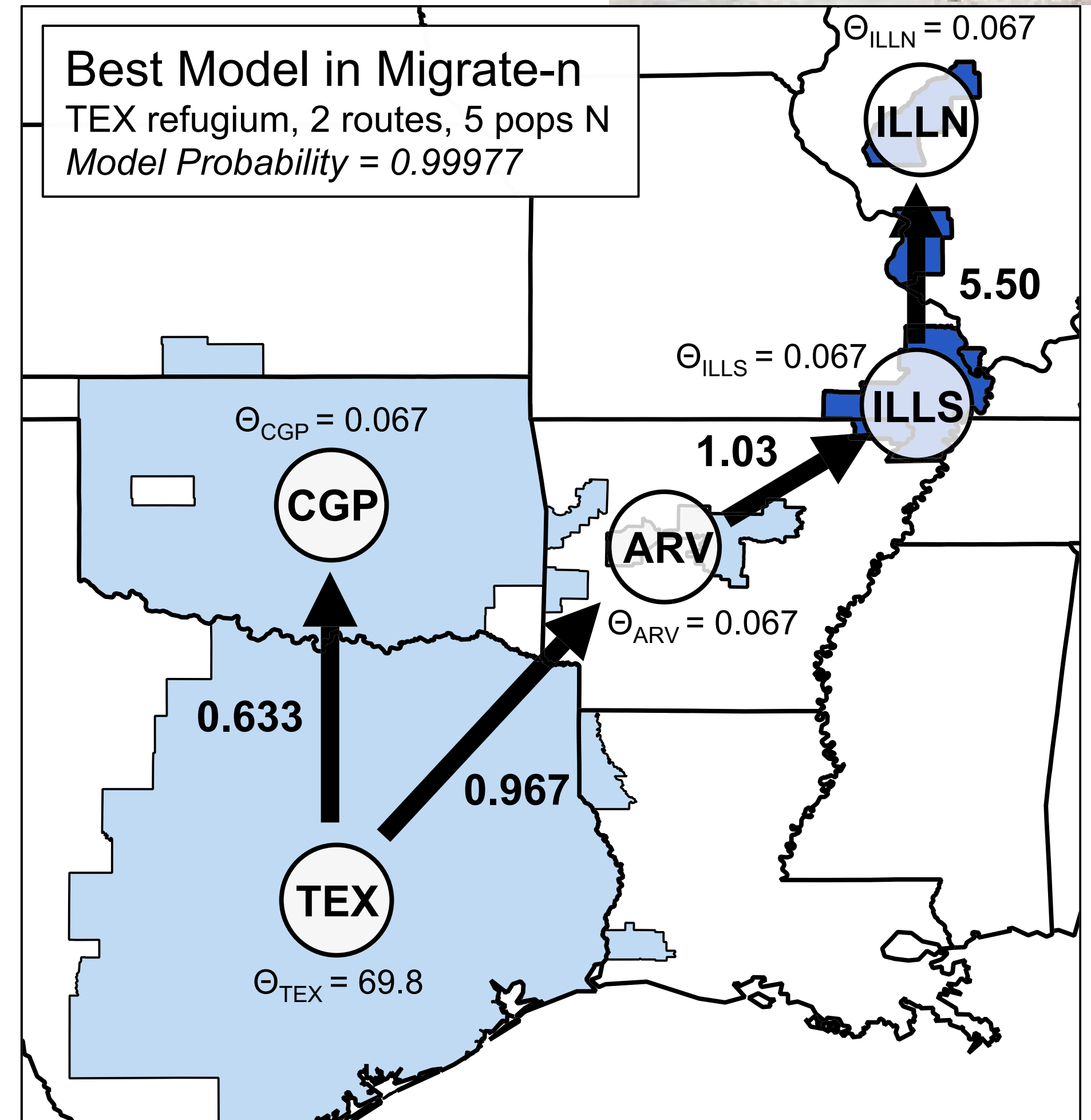
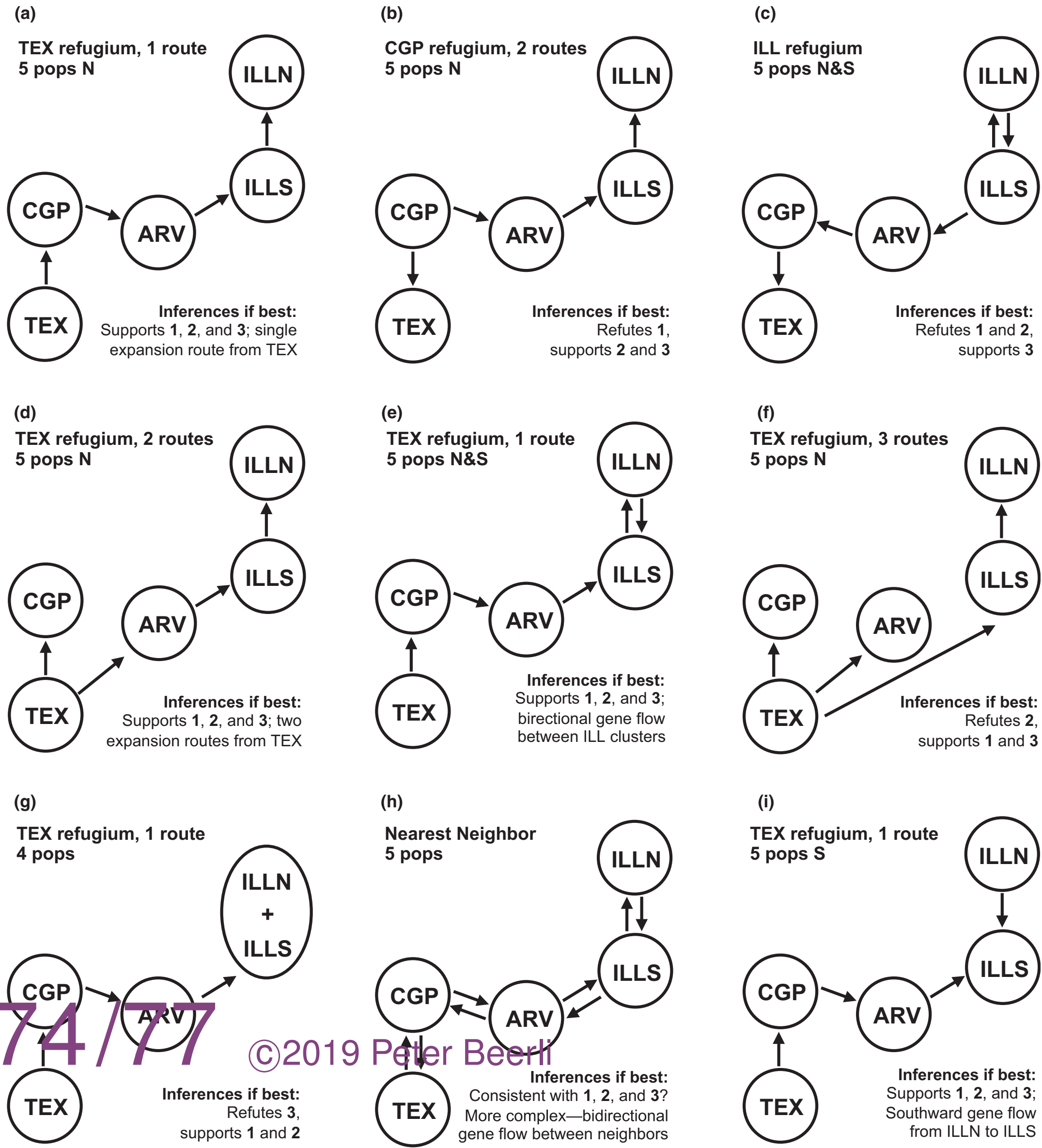
Best



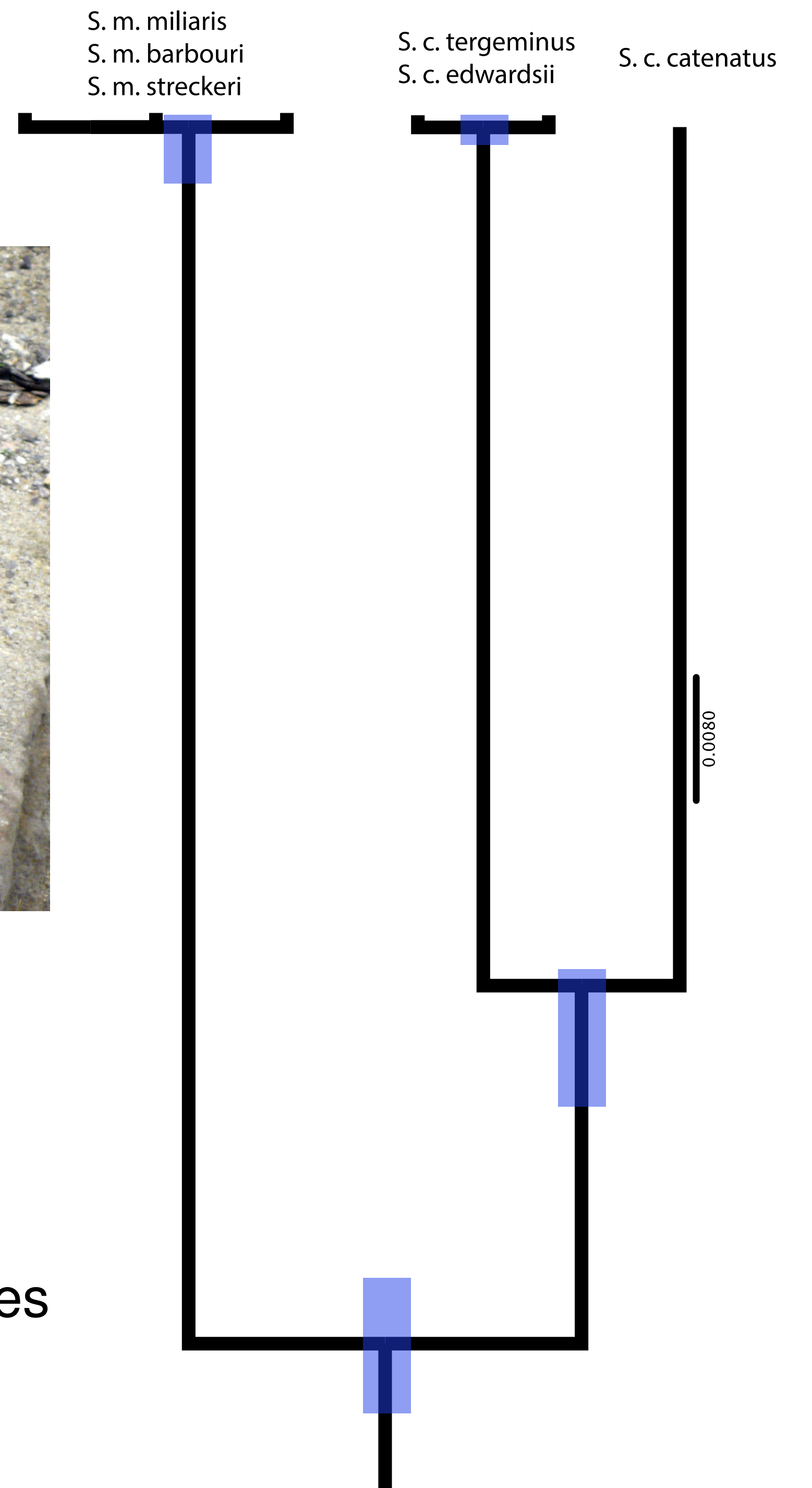
Worst

# A real example

Lisa N. Barrow, A. T. Bigelow, C. A. Phillips, and E. Moriarty Lemmon (2015) Phylogeographic inference using Bayesian model comparison across a fragmented chorus frog species complex. *Molecular Ecology*



# Population splitting



Model	Log(mL)	LBF	Model-probability
1: 3 species:	-15887.49	0.00	1.0000
2: 6 species:	-15961.95	-74.46	0.0000

Estimation of splitting dates of 6 subspecies of pygmy rattle snakes  
 using MIGRATE (data from Kubatko et al. 2011)

# Summary



- ◆ You may be surprised that your favored model does not win in a model comparison competition, but figuring out the model order leads oftentimes to new insights about the problem.
- ◆ Models by themselves are not true or wrong. BUT they may not fit your data well, OR they describe your data even when you “know” that the model is insufficient.

# Thank you



Lucrezia Bieler



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