

Introduction

The  $\Lambda$ -coalescent family [DK99, Pit99, Sag99] models the ancestry of a sample of haplotypes from a large population with an infinite variance family size distribution. Recent studies have indicated that these coalescents sometimes provide better modeling fits to high-fecundity populations, such as Atlantic cod or Pacific oysters, than the seminal Kingman's coalescent [BBB94, Á04, EW06, BB08, BBS11, SBB13]. The  $\Lambda$ -coalescent likelihood can be estimated pointwise using importance sampling [BB08, BBS11, KJS15b], also facilitating Bayesian inference. Natural parameter spaces for  $\Lambda$ -coalescents are infinite dimensional, motivating a nonparametric approach. In this poster we focus on inferring the measure  $\Lambda \in \mathcal{M}_1([0, 1])$  which drives the merger events of  $\Lambda$ -coalescent trees. We assume the simple scenario of recurrent mutation and negligible recombination, selection or any other evolutionary dynamics. In brief, suppose  $P \in \mathcal{M}_1(\mathcal{M}_1([0, 1]))$  is a prior probability measure on the space of possible  $\Lambda$ -measures, which captures the prior information about plausibility of different  $\Lambda$ -measures as explanations for population dynamics. Such a prior can be elicited from a wide variety of biological and ecological information, such as the family size distribution as outlined in the box below. The Bayesian procedure is a means of refining prior beliefs by using observed data, and is outlined in the box to the right.

Example: the Beta(2 -  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ )-coalescent

The Beta(2 -  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ )-coalescent [Sch03] can be obtained as the high density limit of a finite population which evolves as follows. Suppose there are  $N$  individuals evolving in discrete generations, each with a haplotype drawn from a finite set  $\mathcal{H}$  (e.g.  $\{T, C, A, G\}$  if we are modeling a single locus of DNA). Each individual produces a random number of potential offspring distributed according to a power law tail  $r^{-\alpha}$ ,  $\alpha \in [1, 2)$ . Offspring inherit the type of their parent. The next generation is formed by sampling  $N$  of these offspring without replacement. Those offspring not sampled are assumed dead, so that the population is of constant size. Measuring time in units of  $N$  generations and letting  $N \rightarrow \infty$  yields a population whose type-frequencies are described by the  $|\mathcal{H}|$ -dimensional Beta(2 -  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ )-Fleming-Viot jump-diffusion, and the ancestries of samples are given by Beta(2 -  $\alpha$ ,  $\alpha$ )-coalescent trees.

General  $\Lambda$ -coalescents with recurrent mutation

More generally, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent family is parametrised by probability measures on the unit interval:  $\Lambda \in \mathcal{M}_1([0, 1])$ . This measure determines the coalescence rates. When there are  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  lineages, any  $k \in \{2, \dots, n\}$  of them will merge at rate

$$\lambda_{n,k} = \int_0^1 x^{k-2}(1-x)^{n-k}\Lambda(dx).$$

In addition to Beta measures, other famous examples are  $\Lambda = \delta_0$ , i.e. Kingman's coalescent, and  $\Lambda = \frac{2}{2+\psi}\delta_0 + \frac{\psi^2}{2+\psi^2}\delta_\psi$ , where  $\psi \in (0, 1]$  [EW06]. Mutation can be incorporated into  $\Lambda$ -coalescents similarly to Kingman's coalescent. Conditional on an ancestral tree, mutations occur along branches as points of a Poisson process with rate  $\theta > 0$ . In the finite alleles context mutation probabilities for each parental haplotype can be specified by a stochastic matrix  $M$ , which is assumed to have a unique stationary distribution  $m$ . Figure 1 depicts a realisation of a  $\Lambda$ -coalescent tree with four leaves.

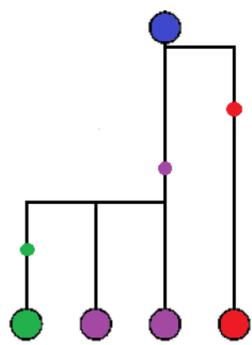


Figure 1: A  $\Lambda$ -coalescent tree annotated with mutations. The most recent common ancestor (MRCA) is sampled from the stationary law of the mutation stochastic matrix  $M$ , and happens to be blue. Three mutations take place along the leaves of the tree, resulting in the haplotype configuration green, purple, purple, red at the leaves of the tree.

$\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot processes and duality

The evolution of population allele frequencies of populations with  $\Lambda$ -coalescent ancestries are modelled by the  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot processes [BLG03]: jump diffusions on the  $|\mathcal{H}|$ -dimensional probability simplex with generator

$$Gf(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i,j \in \mathcal{H}} \left\{ \frac{\Lambda(\{0\})}{2} \mathbf{x}_i(\delta_{ij} - \mathbf{x}_j)f_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) + \theta \mathbf{x}_j(M_{ji} - \delta_{ij})f_i(\mathbf{x}) \right\} + \sum_{i \in \mathcal{H}} \int_0^1 \mathbf{x}_i \{ f((1-r)\mathbf{x} + r\mathbf{e}_i) - f(\mathbf{x}) \} r^{-2} \Lambda(dr),$$

where  $\mathbf{e}_i$  is the unit vector with 1 in the  $i$ th place and zeros elsewhere, and subscripts on functions denote partial derivatives. We denote the  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot process by  $(\mathbf{X}_t)_{t \geq 0}$  and its stationary law by  $\pi^\Lambda$ . The law of  $n$  leaves generated by a  $\Lambda$ -coalescent as outlined in the previous box can be expressed as an i.i.d. sample from a random measure sampled from the corresponding  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot process. Denote the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent death process of  $n$  untyped lineages by  $(\Pi_t)_{t \in [0, T]}$  where  $T := \inf\{t > 0 : |\Pi_t| = 1\}$  is the hitting time of the MRCA. Let  $f : \mathcal{H}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded function, and for a partition  $\phi = \{C_1, \dots, C_m\}$  of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  let  $f_\phi(a_1, \dots, a_m) = f(h_1, \dots, h_n)$  with  $h_i = a_k$  when  $i \in C_k$ . Duality can then be stated as

$$\mathbb{E}_n \left[ \sum_{a \in \mathcal{H}} f_{\Pi_T}(a)m(a) \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi^\Lambda} \left[ \sum_{h_1, \dots, h_n \in \mathcal{H}} f(h_1, \dots, h_n) \mathbf{X}_0(h_1) \dots \mathbf{X}_0(h_n) \right],$$

where the expectation on the left is with respect to  $\Lambda$ -coalescent trees with  $n$  leaves, and on the right with respect to the stationary  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot process.

Bayesian inference of  $\Lambda$ -measures

We aim to infer the jump measure  $\Lambda$  assuming  $\theta$  and  $M$  are known. Fix  $\eta > 0$  and assume that  $\Lambda \in \mathcal{D}_\eta^b$ , the space of strictly positive, bounded probability densities on  $[\eta, 1]$ . Let  $P \in \mathcal{M}_1(\mathcal{D}_\eta^b)$  be the prior. These assumptions on  $\Lambda$  rule out all of the examples mentioned on this poster but they are needed for technical reasons. Moreover, we are able to ensure  $P$  supports measures which lie arbitrarily close to any desired  $\Lambda \in \mathcal{M}_1([0, 1])$  in a sense we make precise below. The posterior given an observed configuration of type frequencies  $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N}^{|\mathcal{H}|}$  is given by

$$P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{n}) = \frac{\int_B \mathbb{P}^\Lambda(\mathbf{n})P(d\Lambda)}{\int_{\mathcal{D}_\eta^b} \mathbb{P}^\Lambda(\mathbf{n})P(d\Lambda)}$$

for measurable  $B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathcal{D}_\eta^b)$ . The posterior is said to be *consistent* if  $P(U_{\Lambda_0}^c|\mathbf{n}) \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $U_{\Lambda_0}$  is any open neighbourhood of the data-generating  $\Lambda_0 \in \mathcal{D}_\eta^b$ . Intuitively this corresponds to it being possible to learn the true  $\Lambda_0$  from a sufficiently large data set.

Likelihood evaluation: Ancestry as missing data

Let  $A$  denote an ancestral tree of the sample  $\mathbf{n}$  annotated with mutations. The likelihood can be written as

$$\mathbb{P}^\Lambda(\mathbf{n}) = \sum_{A_0, \dots, A_N} \mathbb{P}^\Lambda(\mathbf{n}|A) \prod_{i=0}^{N-1} \mathbb{P}^\Lambda(A_i|A_{i-1}) \mathbb{P}^\Lambda(A_N), \quad (1)$$

where  $\mathbb{P}^\Lambda(\mathbf{n}|A) = 1$  if the leaves of  $A$  are compatible with  $\mathbf{n}$  and 0 otherwise,  $N$  is the number of transitions required to reach the MRCA,  $A_0$  denotes the leaves of the tree,  $A_N$  is the root and the other  $A_i$ 's are intermediate states separated by mutations or coalescences. For example, in Figure 1 we have  $N = 5$ ,  $A_0 = (G, P, P, R)$ ,  $A_{-1} = (P, P, P, R)$ ,  $A_{-2} = (P, R)$ ,  $A_{-3} = (B, R)$ ,  $A_{-4} = (B, B)$  and  $A_{-5} = (B)$ , where  $B, G, P$  and  $R$  stand for blue, green, purple and red. While the summations in (1) are over too many terms to evaluate, the conditional distributions  $\mathbb{P}^\Lambda(A_i|A_{i-1})$  can be obtained explicitly and the resulting system of equations can be shown to depend only on the first  $n - 2$  moments of  $\Lambda$ , when  $n$  lineages have been observed [KJS15a]. Thus the likelihood is constant within equivalence classes of measures which agree on their first  $n - 2$  moments, and we can use these moments to parametrise the inference problem with no loss of signal. It is also possible to make the  $\|\cdot\|_\infty$ -distance between the moment sequence of any  $\Lambda \in \mathcal{M}_1([0, 1])$  and some  $\Lambda' \in \mathcal{D}_\eta^b$  arbitrarily small by choosing  $\eta$  sufficiently small, so that restricting attention to measure  $\Lambda \in \mathcal{D}_\eta^b$  is not as restrictive as it first appears. Recursion (1) can also be used to design efficient importance sampling algorithms to approximate the intractable likelihood in practice [BBS11, KJS15b].

Simultaneous observations: inconsistency

As before let  $\mathbf{n} \in \mathbb{N}^{|\mathcal{H}|}$  denote a discrete set of observations, and let  $\mathbf{x} := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\mathbf{n}}{n}$  denote the limiting observed allele frequencies. If all observations are simultaneous then the posterior is inconsistent, and in fact

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{n}) = \frac{\int_B \pi^\Lambda(\mathbf{x})P(d\Lambda)}{\int_{\mathcal{D}_\eta^b} \pi^\Lambda(\mathbf{x})P(d\Lambda)}$$

so that the support of the limiting posterior coincides with that of the prior [KJS15a]. It is easy to see why this is: by duality the sample  $\mathbf{n}$  can be viewed as a discrete sample from a stationary  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot process  $(\mathbf{X}_t)_{t \geq 0}$ . As  $n \rightarrow \infty$  the normalised allele frequencies converge to a single draw from the law of  $\mathbf{X}_0$ , which is  $\pi^\Lambda$  by stationarity.

Temporally structured observations: consistency

Suppose now that the data sets of size  $n$  are available from  $m + 1$  distinct time points with separation  $\Delta > 0$ . Let  $(\mathbf{n}_0, \dots, \mathbf{n}_m) \in \mathbb{N}^{|\mathcal{H}| \times (m+1)}$  denote the observed allele counts, and let  $(\mathbf{x}_0, \dots, \mathbf{x}_m)$  denote the corresponding, limiting allele frequencies. Fixing  $m$  and letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  yields the limiting posterior

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(\mathbf{B}|\mathbf{n}_0, \dots, \mathbf{n}_m) = \frac{\int_B \pi^\Lambda(\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{i=1}^m P_\Delta^\Lambda(\mathbf{x}_{i-1}, \mathbf{x}_i) P(d\Lambda)}{\int_{\mathcal{D}_\eta^b} \pi^\Lambda(\mathbf{x}_0) \prod_{i=1}^m P_\Delta^\Lambda(\mathbf{x}_{i-1}, \mathbf{x}_i) P(d\Lambda)}, \quad (2)$$

where  $P_\Delta^\Lambda(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  is the transition density of the  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot process with time step  $\Delta$ . It is clear from (2) that posterior consistency of the discretely observed  $\Lambda$ -Fleming-Viot process implies posterior consistency of  $P$  on  $\mathcal{D}_\eta^b$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ . This can be verified [KJS15a], and so posterior consistency holds for time series data. Note that sequences of finitely many moments can be written as bounded functionals of  $\Lambda$ , and hence posterior consistency of moments is inherited.

A pseudo-marginal Metropolis-Hastings algorithm

As outlined above, the signal a data set of size  $n$  carries about the data generating measure  $\Lambda_0 \in \mathcal{D}_\eta^b$  can be captured fully by computing the posterior distribution of the first  $n - 2$  moments. This posterior can be sampled by using the pseudo-marginal Metropolis-Hastings algorithm [AR09], which inherits the efficient exploration of high-dimensional parameter space from the standard Metropolis-Hastings algorithm and replaces likelihood evaluations with unbiased estimators. Such estimators are readily available for the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent [BBS11, KJS15b], so that the algorithm is implementable. A pseudo-code specification is provided below, with  $\lambda$  denoting a moment sequence of length  $n$ ,  $\hat{L}(\lambda; \mathbf{n})$  denoting a generic likelihood estimator and  $K$  an irreducible transition kernel between moment sequences.

- 1: Initialise  $Y_0 \leftarrow (\lambda, \hat{L}(\lambda; \mathbf{n}))$ .
- 2: **for**  $j = 1, \dots, N$  **do**
- 3:   Sample  $\lambda' \sim K(\lambda, \cdot)$ ,  $U \sim U(0, 1)$ .
- 4:   Compute  $\hat{L}(\lambda'; \mathbf{n})$ .
- 5:   Set  $\alpha \leftarrow 1 \wedge \frac{K(\lambda', \lambda) \hat{L}(\lambda'; \mathbf{n}) P(\lambda')}{K(\lambda, \lambda') \hat{L}(\lambda; \mathbf{n}) P(\lambda)}$ .
- 6:   **if**  $U < \alpha$  **then**
- 7:     Set  $Y_j \leftarrow (\lambda', \hat{L}(\lambda'; \mathbf{n}))$ .
- 8:   **else**
- 9:     Set  $Y_j \leftarrow Y_{j-1}$ .
- 10:   **end if**
- 11: **end for**

Robust bounds for functionals of  $\Lambda$

Consider a credible region  $C$  specified by  $k$  functions  $\{f_j\}_{j=1}^k$  and constants  $\{c_j\}_{j=1}^k$  obtained from a sample of moment sequences from the posterior as  $f_j(\lambda_{3,3}, \dots, \lambda_{n,n}) \leq c_j$  for  $j \in \{1, \dots, k\}$ . Then  $\int_\eta^1 q(r)\Lambda(dr)$  can be bounded on  $\{\Lambda : \{\lambda_{3,3}, \dots, \lambda_{n,n}\} \in C\}$  by setting  $C_k$  as the subspace of  $C$  consisting of discrete measures with at most  $k$  atoms:

$$C_k = \left\{ \Lambda \in C : \Lambda = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i \delta_{r_i} \text{ where } 1 \leq p \leq k, w_i \geq 0 \text{ and } r_i \in [\eta, 1] \right\}.$$

Then

$$\inf_{\Lambda \in C_k} \int_\eta^1 q(r)\Lambda(dr) = \inf_{\Lambda \in C_k} \int_\eta^1 q(r)\Lambda(dr)$$

$$\sup_{\Lambda \in C_k} \int_\eta^1 q(r)\Lambda(dr) = \sup_{\Lambda \in C_k} \int_\eta^1 q(r)\Lambda(dr)$$

by a result of [Win88], and the optimisation problems on the R.H.S. involve a finite number of locations and weights. Hence they can be solved numerically, yielding robust bounds.

Example: The Dirichlet process mixture model prior

Let  $g_\tau(r) := \frac{\phi_\tau(r)\mathbb{1}_{[\eta, 1]}(r)}{\int_{[\eta, 1]} \phi_\tau(r)}$ , where  $\phi_\tau$  is the Gaussian density with mean 0 and precision  $\tau$ . Let  $\text{DP}(\alpha)$  denote the law of the Dirichlet process with mean  $\alpha \in \mathcal{M}_f([\eta, 1])$  and let  $F \in \mathcal{M}_1((0, \infty))$  assign positive probability to all open sets. The Dirichlet process mixture model is a prior on strictly positive, bounded densities on  $[\eta, 1]$  sampled as follows. Let  $Q \sim \text{DP}(\alpha)$  with size-ordered atoms  $\{z_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$ , and  $\{\tau_i\}_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \sim F$  be i.i.d. samples. Then  $\sum_{i=1}^\infty Q(z_i)g_{\tau_i}(z - z_i)$  is a draw from the Dirichlet process mixture model prior, whose support is dense [BD12].

Acknowledgements and References

Jere Koskela is supported by EPSRC as part of the MASDOC DTC at the University of Warwick. Grant No. EP/H023364/1. Paul Jenkins is supported in part by EPSRC grant EP/L018497/1.

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