

Mathematical Preliminaries / Notation

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- * Quantitative understanding of evolution requires math, so we'll assume ~~basic~~ comfort w/ manipulating eqs, calculus, etc.
 - * However, something you may not have seen in previous math/phys courses, but will be really useful here:
"Series expansions / approximations / self-consistency"

Can illustrate w/ simple example: $\epsilon x^2 + x - 1 = 0$ (which we already know how to solve)

Often want to understand behavior in certain limits, e.g. $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$.

\Rightarrow can use Taylor series: $x \approx F(0) + F'(0)\epsilon + \dots$

$$\approx (1) + (-\epsilon)$$

↑ ↗

[wolfram
alpha is
helpful!]

"leading order" "next order"

First term tells us how to approx x . Next term tells you how "good" approx is.

e.g. $x \approx F(0)$ if $F'(0) \neq 0$, or $\epsilon \ll \epsilon^* = \frac{F(0)}{|F'(0)|}$ [= 1 here]

\Rightarrow often write this as $x \approx 1$ ($\epsilon \ll 1$)

(2) can also do this directly from equation
("dominant balance")

Step 1

guess ϵx^2 is much smaller than other terms ($x, -1$)

~~$\epsilon x^2 + x - 1 = 0$~~ $\Rightarrow x = 1$ (leading order approx)

Step 2

can then check whether approx is self-consistent

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon x^2 \approx \epsilon(1)^2 \approx \epsilon, \quad x \approx 1 \Rightarrow \epsilon x^2 \ll x, -1$$

if $\epsilon \ll 1$

* tells you when approx breaks down! eg. if $\epsilon Ax^2 + x - 1 \approx 0$
· (compare e.g. to math notation, $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} x = 1$) $\Rightarrow \epsilon \ll 1/A$

This is really important when we want to start connecting w/ data & experiments.

Big theme of course will be ~~figuring~~ figuring out leading order approximations ($x \approx 1$) but also regions of validity ($\epsilon \ll 1$) and using data to estimate when they might be good.

* Self consistency check can also tell you if you guessed wrong

e.g. if we guessed $x \ll \epsilon x^2, -1 \Rightarrow x \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \gg -1$

* Can use same approach to calculate next order correction:

Step 1 Write $x = 1 + \delta$, correction term.

Step 2 Substitute into $\epsilon x^2 + x - 1 = 0$; expand to lowest order in δ .

$$\Rightarrow \epsilon(1+2\delta) + (1+\delta) - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow \delta = \frac{-\epsilon}{1+2\epsilon} \approx -\epsilon$$

* Can use same approach to understand opposite limit ($\epsilon \rightarrow \infty$)

$$\Rightarrow x \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} - \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \quad (\epsilon \ll 1)$$

This seems like a lot of work for answer we already knew...

$$(x = -1 + \frac{\sqrt{1+4\epsilon}}{2\epsilon}).$$

No exact solution! But approximations all still work. This will be a typical case for us in evolutionary problems.

* Approx's also often useful in practical contexts. (data).

\Rightarrow w/ all possible choices of ϵ , most are $\gg 1$ or $\ll 1$. Fine tuning needed for $\epsilon \approx 1$

\Rightarrow get a lot of mileage of all $\epsilon \ll 1$, $\epsilon \gg 1$ approximations.

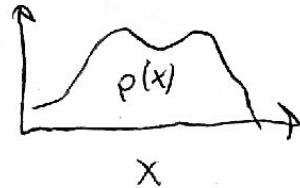
(4)

This basic approach works for differential equations, stochastic differential equations, integrals, etc. and we will encounter it a lot in our course.

Probability

Since many aspects of evolution are stochastic, the other big tool we'll need is probability theory.

① Random variables: I'll assume you're familiar with the concept of a random variable, \hat{X} , distributed according to some distribution, $p(x)$:
 (we'll write $X \sim p(x)$)



with mean ("expected value")

$$\langle x \rangle \equiv E[x] \equiv \int x p(x) dx$$

variance

$$\text{Var}(x) = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$$

② common distributions: $n \sim \text{Binomial}(N, p)$ $[P(n) = \binom{N}{n} p^n (1-p)^{N-n}]$

$$n \sim \text{Poisson}(\langle n \rangle) = \lim_{\substack{N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0 \\ \text{fixed } \langle n \rangle}} \text{Binomial}(N, p) \quad [P(n) = \frac{\langle n \rangle^n}{n!} e^{-\langle n \rangle}]$$

$$X \sim \text{Gaussian}(N, \sigma^2) \quad [p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}] \quad (5)$$

"Normal"

\Rightarrow wikipedia is your friend for common distns.

(3) Joint distns: $p(x,y) = \text{prob of } \hat{x}=x \text{ & } \hat{y}=y$
 @ same time.

conditional probability: $p(x|y) \quad \cancel{\text{prob}} = \frac{p(xy)}{p(y)} \quad (\text{value of } x \text{ given } \hat{y}=y)$

statistical independence: $p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$
 or $p(x|y) = p(x)$

$$\text{Var}(x+y) = \text{Var}(x) + \text{Var}(y)$$

marginalization: $p(x) = \int p(xy) dy$

(4) one thing that might be new: generating function

$$H_x(z) = \langle e^{-zx} \rangle = \int e^{-zx} p(x) dx \quad [\text{i.e. Laplace transform of } p(x)]$$

(for positive random vars, $H(z) \approx \text{probability that } x \leq \frac{1}{z}$)

$H_x(z) \Leftrightarrow p(x)$ so either suffices.

$$H_x(z) = \int \left[1 - zx + \frac{1}{2} z^2 x^2 + \dots \right] p(x) = 1 - z \langle x \rangle + \frac{z^2}{2} \langle x^2 \rangle$$

(expansion gets you moments of $x \Rightarrow$ moment generating func)

Big payoff for $H(z)$ is that for independent r.v.'s:

$$H_{x+y}(z) = \langle e^{-z(x+y)} \rangle = \langle e^{-zx} e^{-zy} \rangle = \langle e^{-zx} \rangle \langle e^{-zy} \rangle$$
$$H_x(z) H_y(z)$$

in many evolution problems, we'll find it easier to solve for $H(z)$ and then invert if we need to find $p(x)$.

⇒ in practice, easiest to do by remembering MGF for common dist's & then invert by inspection:

$$\text{e.g. Poisson}(\langle n \rangle) \Leftrightarrow H(z) = e^{-\langle n \rangle(1-e^{-z})}$$

$$\text{Gaussian}(\mu, \sigma^2) \Leftrightarrow H(z) = e^{-\mu z + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 z^2}$$

Central limit theorem

finally, we'll get a lot of mileage out of central limit theorem:

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n independent, then

then ~~\sum~~ $\sum_{i=1}^n X_i \rightarrow \text{Gaussian}(\langle n \rangle \langle x \rangle, n \text{Var}(x))$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i \approx \langle x \rangle \pm \frac{\text{Var}(x)}{n}$$

(for certain classes of X_i !)

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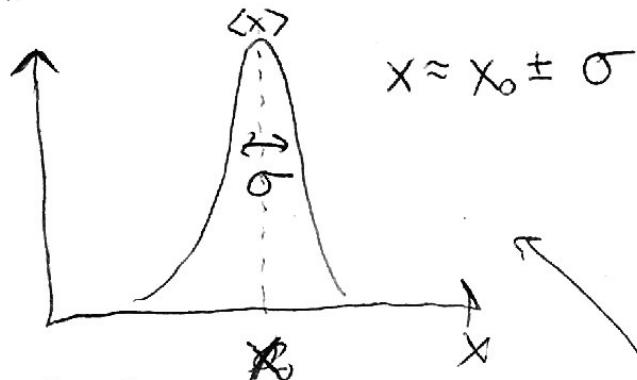
Finally, one last note about intuition & probability
(or "average" vs "typical")

Probability is hard because it forces us to reason about a whole range of outcomes all at once.

\Rightarrow often want some way of summarizing typical behavior.

* there will be 2 main classes of behavior we will encounter:

case 1



e.g. ~~Binomial~~ Binomial(N, p)
when $Np > 1$

in this case, average is good summary of typical

case 2



e.g. Binomial(N, p) [e.g. did a mutation occur?]
when $Np \ll 1$

in this case, ~~no~~ no actual realization of x will have $x = \langle x \rangle$!
 \Rightarrow mean is not good summary of typical.

* distinction becomes important if we then do something based on value of x (e.g. apply nonlinear function)

$$Y = F(x) = \text{[scratched out]} \quad \begin{matrix} \text{later growth of } x \\ \text{mutations.} \end{matrix}$$

(8)

in case 1: can get a lot of mileage by substituting ~~x~~
 $x = x_0 \pm \sigma$ and Taylor expanding:

$$y \approx F(x_0 \pm \sigma) \approx F(x_0) + F'(x_0) \sigma \quad \begin{matrix} \text{(error propagation)} \\ \text{in physics lab} \end{matrix}$$

in case 2: need to consider ~~one~~ bifurcating outcomes:

$$Y = \begin{cases} F(x_0) \text{ w/ prob } 1-p & \leftarrow \text{this can be typical} \\ & \text{case most of time.} \\ F(x_1) \text{ w/ prob } p. & \leftarrow \text{that rare cases where} \\ & \text{this happens separately} \end{cases}$$

you'll notice that most of the randomness we're used to encountering is of the case 1 variety. in evolution, we'll encounter

many phenomena of case 2, and this general strategy of breaking things up will be useful.

just like w/ $ex^2+x-1=0$ example, $N_{\text{out}} \ll N_{\text{in}}$ covers most of param space for binomial. so these 2 pictures cover many practical scenarios.

* I encourage you to keep these 2 pictures in the back of your head as we deal w/ random phenomena in this course.