Phylogenetic Inference: Building Trees

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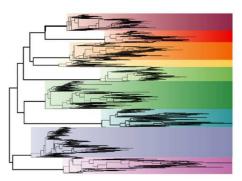
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Intra-Host Viral Evolution



Nature Reviews | Genetic

1195 *env* sequences from 9 HIV+ patients [taken from Rambaut et al. (2004)]

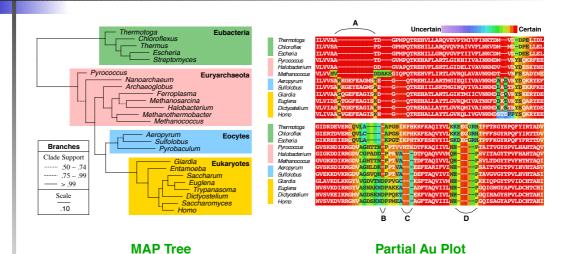
Retroviruses (and HBV) exist as a quasi-species within infected patients:

 Shared substitutions may be insufficient to resolve intra-host phylogenies

Improve resolution using joint model:

- Indel rates ≥ substitution rates
- Opportunity to detect intra-host recombination

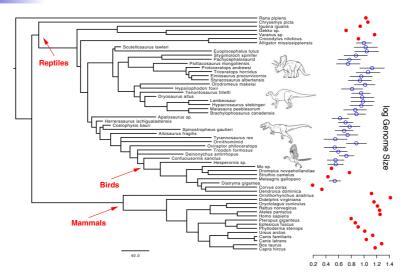
Reconstructing the Tree of Life: Are Humans Just Big Slime Molds?



Contentious issue among paleobiologists: Do Archaea
 (Euryarchaeota/Eocytes) form one or two domains? Weekly World
 News calls humans slime molds.

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The Chicken or the (Small) Genome: Which Came First?



Evolutionary History and Genome Sizes of Reptiles, Dinosaurs, Birds and Mammals

Issue: Bird genomes are markedly smaller than those from other vertebrates.

Question:

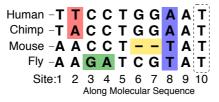
Did small genomes precede flight or co-evolve?

Maximum Parsimony (MP)

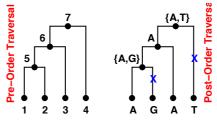
Most often used \neq "best", not even statistically consistent, but fast, fast, fast . . . if you know the tree

Key: Find tree with minimal # of "suspected" substitutions (internal states are not observed, 0/1 model process)

- Counting minimum # of substitutions is easy
- Enumerating (searching through) all possible trees is hard



Sites are independent

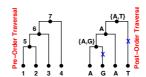


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Maximum Parsimony (MP)

A little history:

- Anthony Edwards/Luca Cavalli-Sforza (1963,1964)
 - Both students of R.A Fisher
 - Introduced both parsimony and likelihood methods (for continuous quantities, e.g. gene frequencies) in one paper
- Camin and Sokal (1965) provide first program for molecular sequences
- Fitch and Margoliash (1967) provide efficient algorithm



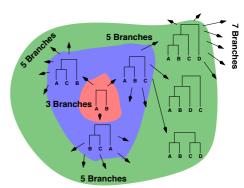
Maximum Parsimony Algorithm

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procedure Fitch and Margoliash (1967) Algorithm
  cost C \leftarrow 0 {Initialization}
  pointer k \leftarrow 2N - 1 {at the root node}
  To obtain the set R_k of possible states at node k {Recursion}
  if k is leaf then
     R_k \leftarrow observed character for taxon k
  else
     Compute R_i, R_j for daughters i, j of k
     if R_i \cap R_j \neq 0 then
        R_k \leftarrow R_i \cap R_j
        R_k \leftarrow R_i \cup R_j
       C \leftarrow C + 1
     end if
  end if
  minimum cost is C (Termination)
                                                                                                   SISMID - p.7
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Searching for the MP Tree

Complexity:

- Find MP score is NP-complete
- Find MP tree is NP-hard



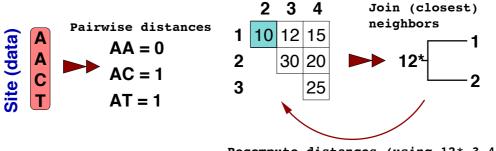
Recall that # of N-taxon rooted trees is $3 \times 5 \times \cdots \times 2N - 3$

Attack exponential-order space Branch-and-Bound:

- Monotonic order: min $PS_2 \le min PS_3 \le ...$
- Bound if min $PS_k > best n$ -taxon PS found so far.

Neighbor-Joining (Saitou and Nei, 1987)

Computational algorithm: alignment → single tree



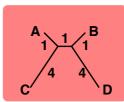
Recompute distances (using 12*,3,4)

- Advantages: very fast, great for 1000s of sequences
- Disadvantages: no site-to-site rate variation, no natural ways to compare trees/measure data support

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Neighbor-Joining

Caveat: Pairs i, j with min d_{ij} are not necessarily nearest neighbors. E.g., $d_{AB} = 3 < d_{AC} = 5$



Solution: Subtract off the average distances to all other leaves via

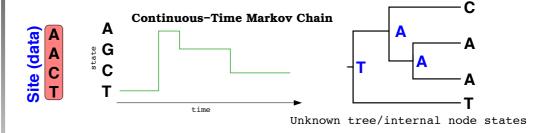
$$D_{ij} = d_{ij} - (r_i + r_j), \quad r_i = \frac{1}{|L| - 2} \sum_{k \in L} d_{ik},$$

where L is the current set of leaves. Proof in Studier and Keppler (1988).

Computational: $O(N^3)$

Likelihood-based Methods (Felsenstein, 1973)

Statistical technique: assumes an unknown tree and a stochastic model for character change along the tree



- Advantages: site-to-site rate/tree variation is easy, can formulate probability statements
- Disadvantages: must "search" tree-space → slow

Foundation of Bayesian Phylogenetics

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Traditional Phylogenetic Reconstruction

Reconstruction Example

Human -T T C C T G G A A T Chimp -T A C C T G G A A T Mouse -A A C C T - - T A T Fly -A A G A T C G T A T Site: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 Along Molecular Sequence Human Mouse

- Substitution: single residue replaces another
- Insertion/deletion: residues are inserted or deleted

Statistical Model

Assume: Homologous sites are iid and site patterns (e.g. dotted box)

$$XY \dots Z \sim \mathsf{Multinomial}(p_{XY \dots Z})$$

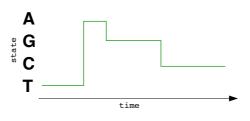
where $p_{XY...Z}$ is determined by an unknown tree τ , branch lengths $t \in \mathbf{T}$ and continuous-time Markov chain model (for residue substitution) given by infinitesimal rate matrix \mathbf{Q}

$$P(X \to Y \text{ in time } t) = e^{t\mathbf{Q}}$$

$\mathbf{CTMC}(\mathbf{Q}) = \epsilon \sim \mathbf{Normal}(\mu, \sigma^2) \text{ of Phylogenetics}$

Continuous in elapsed time t, discrete in starting/ending state!

Memory-less process in which the probability that state breplaces state a during $(t, t + s) = sq_{ab} + o(s)$



• Infinitesimal generator matrix Q has off-diagonal entries q_{ab} and row sums =0

Think: Exponential waiting time with rate $R_a = \sum_b q_{ab}$ until chain leaves a. Then the new state b is independently chosen with probabilities q_{ab}/R_a

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From Infinitesimal to Finite Time

Let $p_{ab}(t)$ = the finite-time probability of the chain moving from state a at time 0 to state b at time t, then matrix $\mathbf{P}(t) = \{p_{ab}(t)\}$ satisfies

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \boldsymbol{P}(t) = \boldsymbol{P}(t) \boldsymbol{Q} \ \ \text{where} \ \boldsymbol{P}(0) = \boldsymbol{I}$$

with solution

$$P(t) = e^{tQ} = I + tQ + \frac{1}{2}(tQ)^2 + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}(tQ)^k$$

as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}e^{tQ}=Qe^{tQ}=e^{tQ}Q$$
 for t real

Example: Two-State Model

Consider purines (R) ↔ pyrimidines (Y). Kolmogorov forward equation:



$$p_{\mathrm{RY}}(t+s) = p_{\mathrm{RR}}(t)\alpha s + p_{\mathrm{RY}}(t)(1-\beta s) + o(s)$$

yielding

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t}p_{\mathrm{RY}}(t) = \alpha p_{\mathrm{RR}}(t) - \beta p_{\mathrm{RY}}(t)$$

$$\boldsymbol{Q} = \left(\begin{array}{cc} -\alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & -\beta \end{array} \right)$$

with eigenvalues 0 and $-(\alpha + \beta)$

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{pmatrix} -\alpha & \alpha \\ \beta & -\beta \end{pmatrix}$$
 Solutions of $\mathbf{P}(t) = e^{t\mathbf{Q}}$ have the form

$$c + de^{-(\alpha + \beta)t}$$

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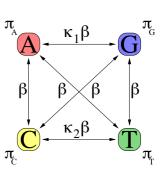
Standard CTMCs for **Phylogenetics**

- Jukes and Cantor (JC69), $\pi_a = \frac{1}{4}, \kappa_1 = \kappa_2 = 1$
- Kimura (K80), $\pi_a = \frac{1}{4}, \kappa_1 = \kappa_2$
- Hasegawa, Kishino and Yano (HKY85), $\kappa_1 = \kappa_2$ (most common)
- Tamura and Nei (TN93), right
- General Time Reversible (GTR)

Note identifiability concern in e^{tQ} . Common solution is to fix 1 d.f. such that

$$\sum_{a} q_{aa} \pi_a = -1$$

Scaling: $t = 1 \Rightarrow 1$ expected substitution per site

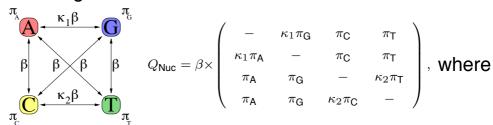


Explicit Parameterization of TN93

Nucleotides mutate according to a Markovian process

$$\Pr(X \to Y \text{ in time } t) = e^{tQ_{\mathsf{Nuc}}}$$

where $Q_{\rm Nuc}$ is a 4x4 infinitesimal rate matrix and t is a branch length.



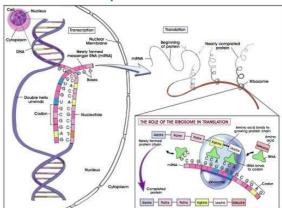
 κ_1, κ_2 are transition:transversion rate ratios and π is the stationary distribution of {A,G,C,T}. β controls the overall rate and can vary from site-to-site.

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Site-to-Site Rate Variation

Variation Occurs quite naturally and is also an important inference

- short range: codon phase (slow-slow-fast)
- long range:
 enzymatic active
 sites, protein folding,
 immunological
 pressures/selection



Assume: infinitesimal rates for site k are $r_k \times t \times q_{ab}$. Various priors on r_k with $\mathsf{E}(r_k) = 1$. Implicitly Bayesian

• Yang (1994) - discretized Gamma distribution

General Time Reversible CTMC

Let

$$oldsymbol{Q} = oldsymbol{R} oldsymbol{D}_{\pi}$$

where R is symmetric and D_{π} is a diagonal matrix composed of the stationary distribution π .

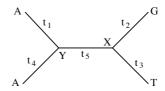
- Detailed balance $\Leftrightarrow \pi_a q_{ab} = \pi_b q_{ba}$. Balance + irreducibility \Leftrightarrow reversible
- ullet Note $oldsymbol{Q}$ is similar to $oldsymbol{R}$, as $oldsymbol{D}^{1/2}oldsymbol{Q}oldsymbol{D}^{-1/2}=oldsymbol{R}$
- ullet Hence, Q must have real eigenvalues and real eigenvectors

The properties speed up computation of the finite-time transition matrix ${m P}(t)=e^{t{m Q}}$

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Calculating the Probability of a Single Site Pattern Y_i

Given the tree and unobserved internal node states, the probability is the product of the finite time mutation probabilities over all branches:



$$L(\mathbf{Y}_i) \propto p_{\mathsf{AAGT}} = \sum_{X} \sum_{Y} \Pr(Y \to \mathsf{A}, t_1) \Pr(X \to \mathsf{G}, t_2) *$$

$$\Pr(X \to \mathsf{T}, t_3) \Pr(Y \to \mathsf{A}, t_4) \Pr(X \to Y, t_5) \pi_X \tag{1}$$

 \bullet Number of sumants grow rapidly in $N\to \text{sum-product/peeling}$ algorithm to distribute sums across the product

Pruning Algorithm Felsenstein (1981)

Let $P(L_k|a)$ = likelihood of leaves below node k given k is in state a. Then, recursively compute $P(L_k|a)$ given $P(L_i|b)$ and $P(L_j|c)$ for daughters i,j of k:

```
Set pointer k \leftarrow 2N-1 {the root, initialization} Compute P(L_k|a) \ \forall \ a as follows: {recursion} if k is a leaf node then if a is observed then P(L_k|a) = 1 else P(L_k|a) = 0 end if else P(L_k|a) = 0 end if P(L_k|a) = \sum_b \sum_c \Pr(a \rightarrow b, t_i) P(L_i|b) \times \Pr(a \rightarrow c, t_j) P(L_j|c) end if L(Y_i) \leftarrow \sum_a P(L_{2n-1}|a) \pi_a \text{ {termination}}
```

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ML Tree or MAP Tree?

Reporting uncertainty on tree estimates:

- The Bootstrap
 - Most common
 - Assumes evolutionary events are reproducible. "If I went back out to the field and recollected exchangeable data ..."
- Bayesian inference
 - Returns the probability of a tree given the observed data and model
 - Requires MCMC (e.g., MrBayes or BEAST)
 - Advantages
 - * Does not rely on asymptotics (hypothesis testing)
 - * Naturally incorporates uncertainty in all parameters (including discrete quantities: trees, site-classifications, etc.)
 - * Arguably faster algorithms
 - Disadvantages
 - * Must specify (justifiable) prior distributions