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## Introduction to molecular epidemiology and infectious disease phylodynamics

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UCLA. Department of Biostatistics, UCLA  
School of Public Health

SISMID, July 18-20, 2018

### This course (SISMID module 12)

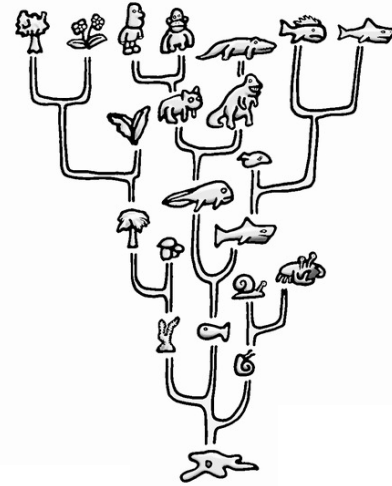
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- Wednesday, July 18
  - Introduction
  - Alignment, substitution models and phylogenetic inference
- Thursday, July 19
  - Phylogenetic inference practical
  - Bayesian phylogenetics
  - Molecular clocks and model testing
  - BEAST practical
- Friday, July 20
  - Viral epidemiology and the coalescent
  - BEAST practical
  - Phylogeography
  - BEAST practical
- Bonus
  - Phylo-Alignment
  - Recombination
  - Robust Counting
  - Antigenic cartography

*(We are here to cater for  
your needs!)*

# Molecular evolution and phylogenetics

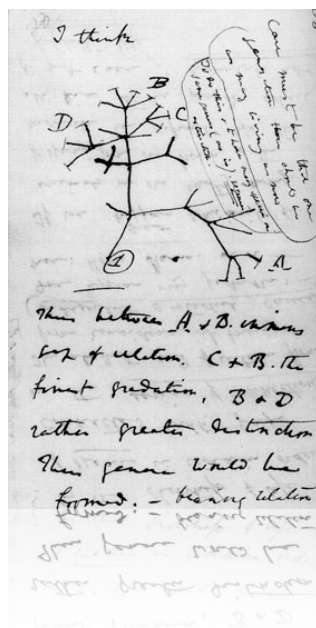
- biological **sequences** (DNA, RNA, protein) contain information about the processes and events that formed them
- this information is often **scrambled, fragmentary, hidden, or lost** completely
- our aim is to use **mathematical models** to recover and decipher this information
- The central concept is a **phylogeny**: a diagram depicting the ancestral relationships among characters or genetic sequences



HIV-1 (UK) **ATC---TGCTAAAGCATATGACACAGAGGTACATAAATGTTT**  
 HIV-1 (USA) **ATCGGATGCTAGAGCTTATGATACAGAGGTACA---TGTTT**

# Phylogenetics

• Darwin, 1837



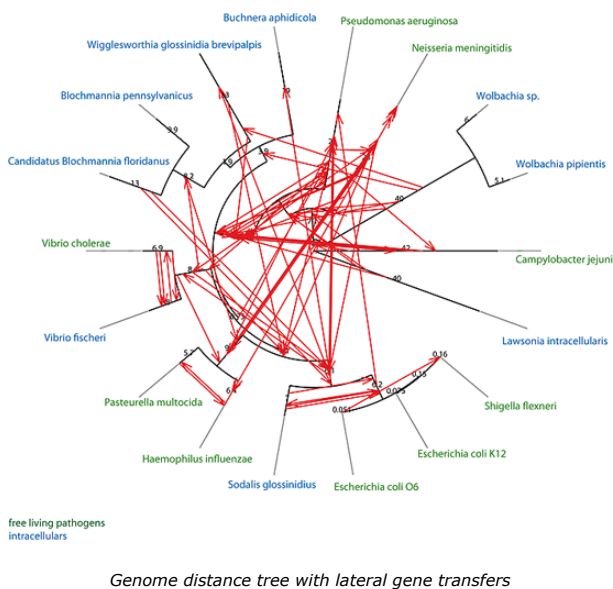
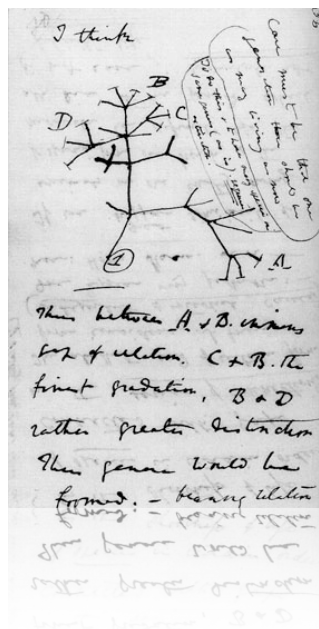
• Haeckel, 1866





# Phylogenetics

- Darwin, 1837



## Information in (viral) molecular sequences

- Genetic distances among strains
- Phylogeny
  - ➔ subtyping/classification
  - ➔ identification of transmission clusters
  - ➔ association with risk factors / traits
  - ➔ forensics
- Dates of historical events
- Evolutionary processes
  - ➔ recombination
  - ➔ natural selection
- Epidemiological processes
  - ➔ transmission rates
  - ➔ movement among locations
- Phenotypic trait evolution?

HIV-1 (UK)	ATC---TGCTAAAGCATATGACACAGAGGTACATAATGTTT
HIV-1 (USA)	ATCGGATGCTAGAGCTTATGATACAGAGGTACA---TGTTT

# Our goal

## MOLECULAR SEQUENCES

*Alignment Methods*

BIOINFORMATICS

## ALIGNMENT

*Sequence Evolution Models  
Phylogenetic Methods*

PHYLOGENETICS

## EVOLUTIONARY TREE

(time scale = genetic distance)

*Molecular Clock Models*

PHYLOGENETICS

## EVOLUTIONARY TREE

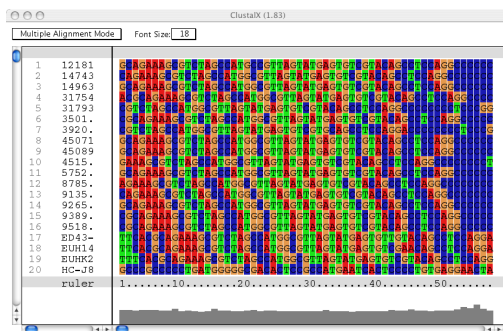
(time scale = years)

*Phyldynamic Models*

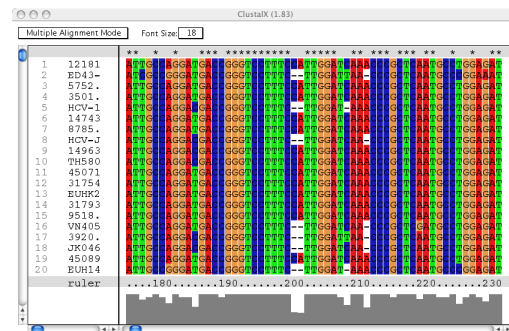
POPULATION GENETICS

## EPIDEMIOLOGY

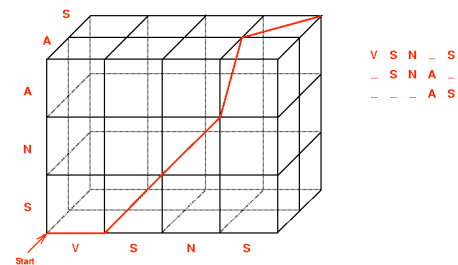
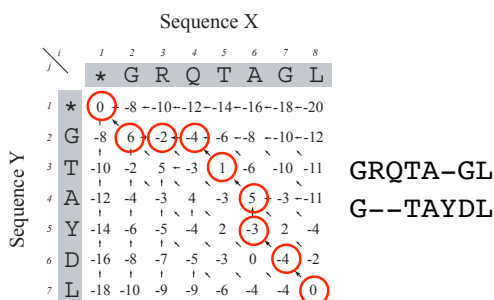
# Sequence alignment



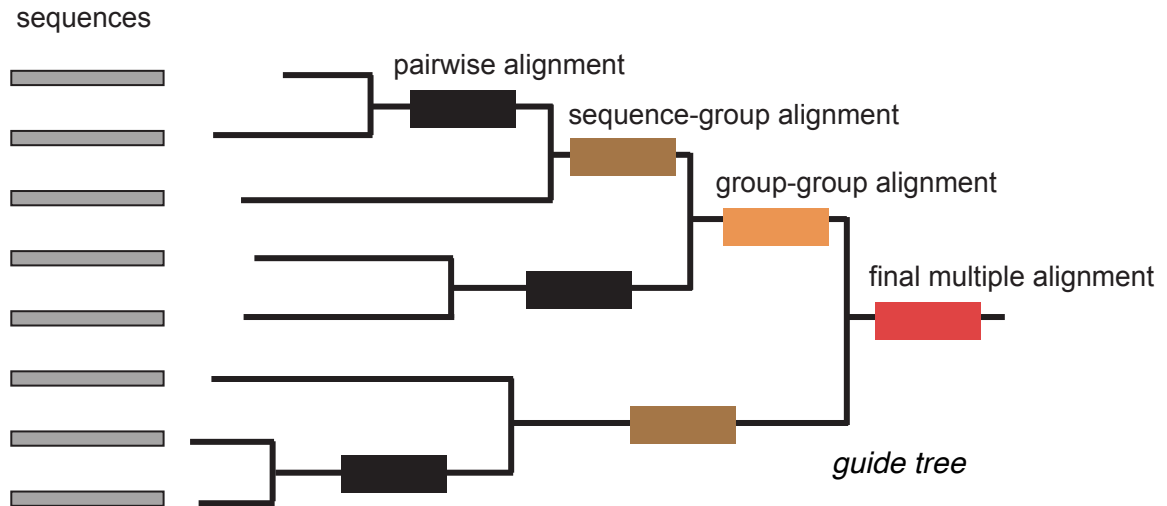
File /Users/Stephane/New\_life/HK\_HCV\_paper/HCV6a\_phy/otree.fasta loaded.



Elapsed time : 831.80 Secs



# Progressive alignment



<http://www.kuleuven.be/aidslab/phylogenybook/Table3.1.html>

# Genetic distances

SIVcpz	ATGGGTGCGA	GAGCGTCAGT	TCTAACAGGG	GGAAATTAG	ATCGCTGGGA
HIV-1	ATGGGTGCGA	GAGCGTCAGT	ATTAAGCGGG	GGAGAATTAG	ATCGATGGGA
SIVcpz	AAAAGTTCGG	CTTAGGCCCG	GGGAAAGAAA	AAGATATATG	ATGAAACATT
HIV-1	AAAATTCGG	TTAAGGCCAG	GGGAAAGAA	AAAATATAAA	TTAAACATA
SIVcpz	TAGTATGGGC	AAGCAGGGAG	CTGGAAAGAT	TCGCATGTGA	CCC CGGGCTA
HIV-1	TAGTATGGGC	AAGCAGGGAG	CTAGAACGAT	TCGCAGTTAA	TCCTGGCCTG
SIVcpz	ATGGAAAGTA	AGGAAGGATG	TAATAAATTG	TTACAACAAT	TAGAGCCAGC
HIV-1	TTAGAAACAT	CAGAAGGCTG	TAGACAAATA	CTGGGACAGC	TACAACCATC
SIVcpz	TCTCAAACA	GGCTCAGAAG	GACTGCGGTC	CTTGTTTAAAC	ACTCTGGCAG
HIV-1	CCTTCAGACA	GGATCAGAAG	AACTTAGATC	ATTATATAAT	ACAGTAGCAA
SIVcpz	TACTGTGGTG	CATACATAGT	GACATCACTG	TAGAAGACAC	ACAGAAAGCT
HIV-1	CCCTCTATTG	TGTGCATCAA	AGGATAGAGA	TAAAAGACAC	CAAGGAAGCT
SIVcpz	CTAGAACAGC	TAAAGCGGCA	TCATGGAGAA	CAACAGAGCA	AAACTGAAAG
HIV-1	TTAGACAAGA	TAGAG--GAA	-----GAGCA	AAACA AAGT	AA---GAAAA
SIVcpz	TAACTCAGGA	AGCCGTGAAG	GGGGAGCCAG	TCAAGGCGCT	AGTGCCTCTG
HIV-1	AAGCACAGCA	AGC-----AG	CAGCTGACA-	-CAGGACAC-	AG--CAGC--
SIVcpz	CTGGCATTAG	TGGAAATTAC			
HIV-1	CAGG--TCAG	CCAAAATTAC			

chimpanzee SIV vs HIV-1 envelope gene

# Not all mutations are equally likely

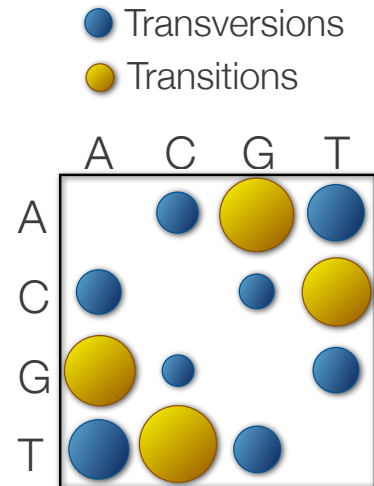
- some point substitutions are more likely to occur than others:  
transitions are more likely than transversions

▶ *transitions*:

purine ↔ purine or  
pyrimidine ↔ pyrimidine  
**A ↔ G C ↔ T**

▶ *transversions*:

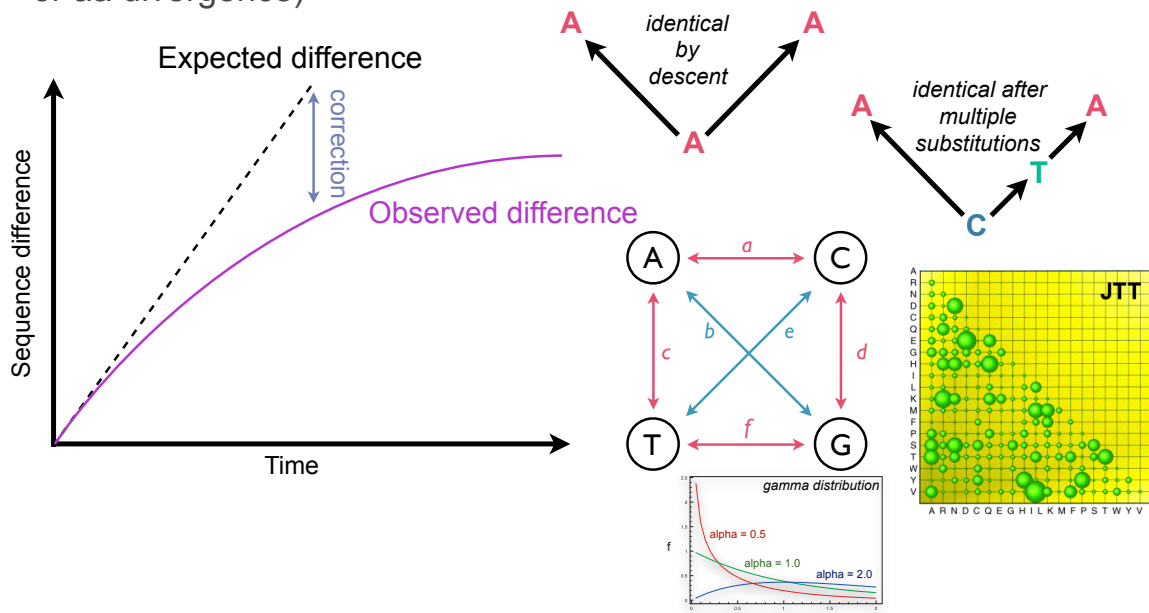
**A ↔ C A ↔ T**  
**G ↔ C G ↔ T**



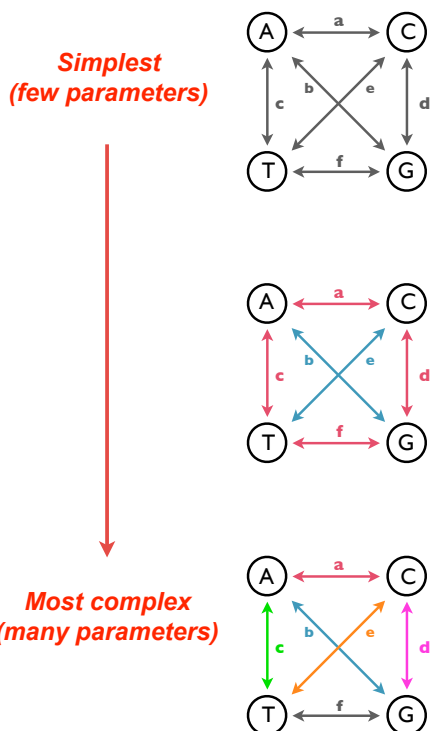
Unambiguous changes on most parsimonious tree of Ciliate SSUrDNA

# Substitution models

- During evolution, 'multiple hits' can occur at a single position: the evolutionary distance is almost always larger than the dissimilarity (% nt or aa divergence)



# Nucleotide substitution models

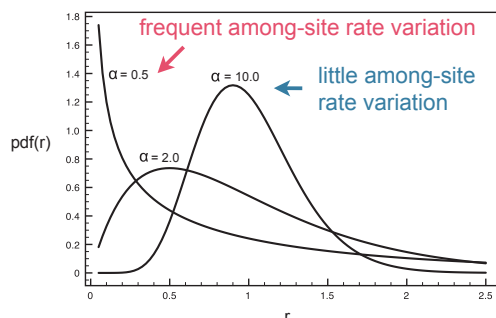


1. Base frequencies are equal and all substitutions are equally likely (Jukes-Cantor)  $(a=b=c=d=e=f)$
2. Base frequencies are equal but transitions and transversions occur at different rates (Kimura 2-parameter)  $(a=c=d=f, b=e)$
3. Unequal base frequencies and transitions and transversions occur at different rates (Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano)  $(a=c=d=f, b=e)$
4. Unequal base frequencies and all substitution types occur at different rates (General Reversible Model)  $(a, b, c, d, e, f)$

## Does this matter?

Estimated genetic distances between SIVcpz and HIV1ai, under different substitution models:

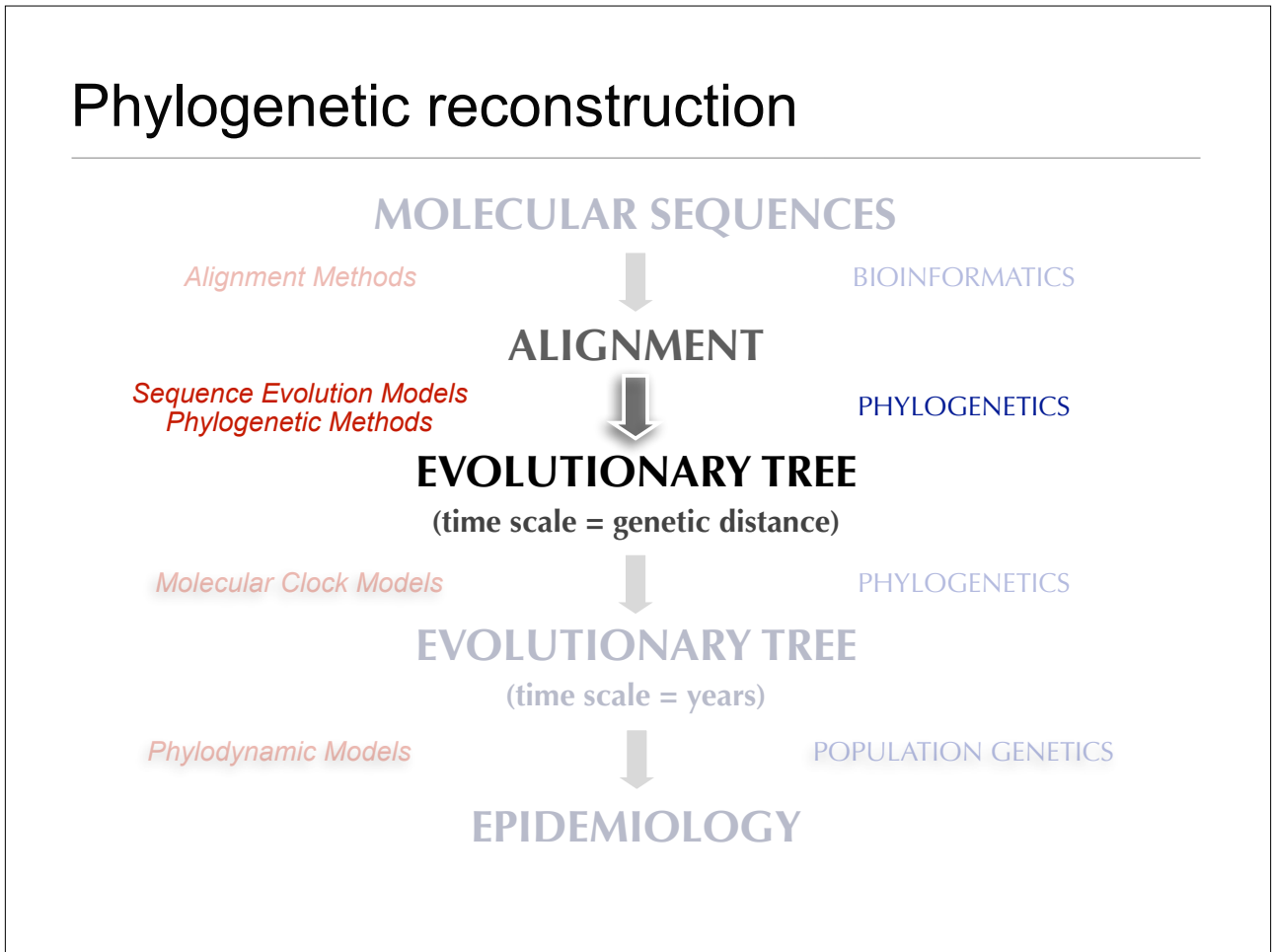
Observed % mismatches	= 0.406
JC (Jukes-Cantor)	= 0.586
HKY (Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano)	= 0.611
GTR (General Time Reversible)	= 0.620
GTR + gamma	= 1.017



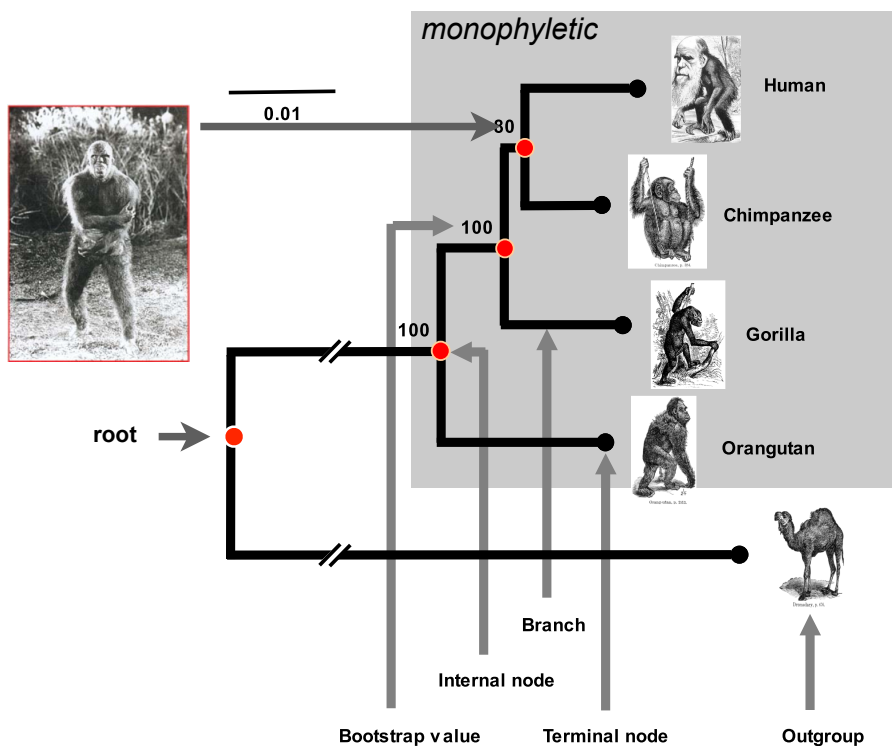
Gene	$\alpha$
Prolactin	1.37
Albumin	1.05
C-myc	0.47
Cytochrome $\beta$ (mtDNA)	0.44
Insulin	0.40
D-loop (mtDNA)	0.17
12S rRNA (mtDNA)	0.16



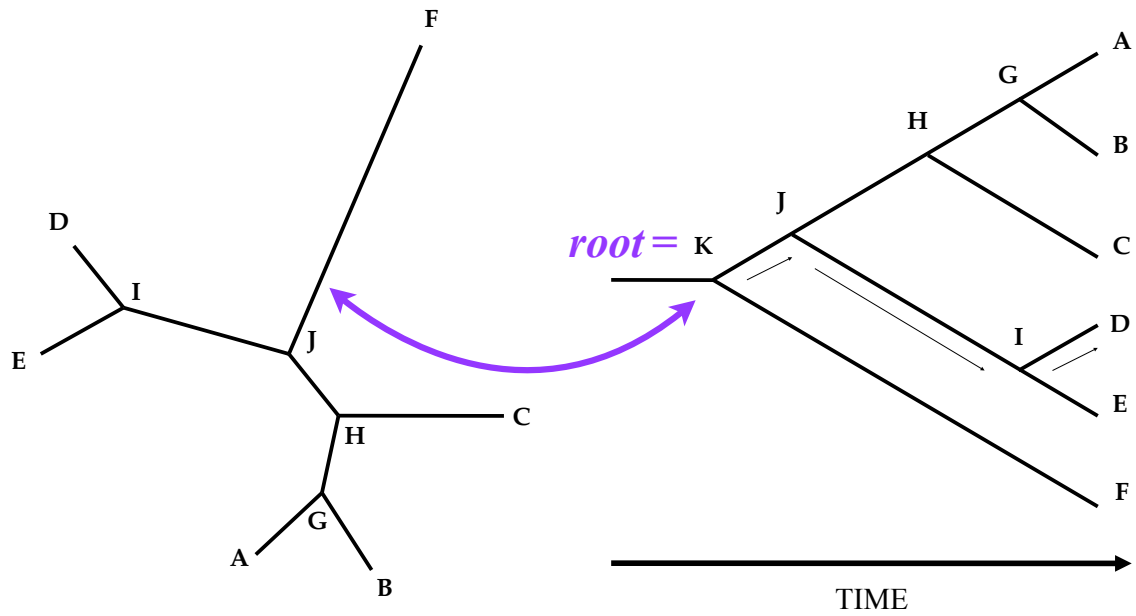
# Phylogenetic reconstruction



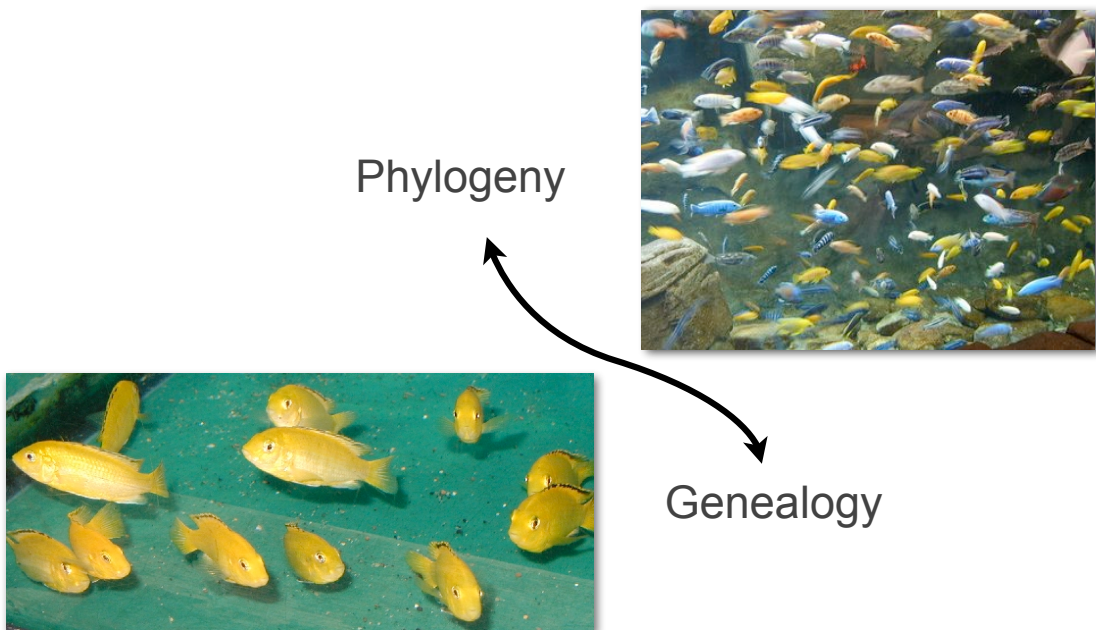
## What is a tree?



## Tree terminology: unrooted and rooted



## Tree Terminology



# Phylogenetic reconstruction

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- **CLUSTERING APPROACHES:** These begin with a genetic distance between each pair of sequences. A 'clustering algorithm' then transforms the genetic distances into a tree.
  - e.g. UPGMA, Neighbour-Joining
  - Simple, faster.
  - No measure of how good the estimated tree is (non-statistical)
- **OPTIMALITY METHODS:** These define a score for each possible tree. 'Search algorithms' are then used to find the tree with the highest score.
  - e.g. Parsimony, Maximum Likelihood (& Bayesian Inference)
  - More complex, slower. Search may not locate the 'best' tree.
  - Quality of each tree can be directly compared (statistical)

# Phylogenetic reconstruction

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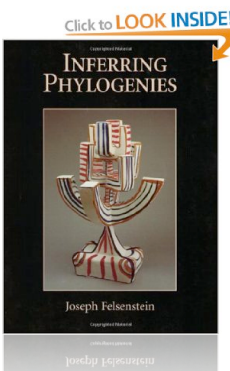
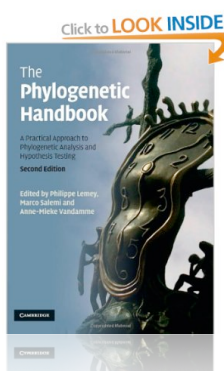
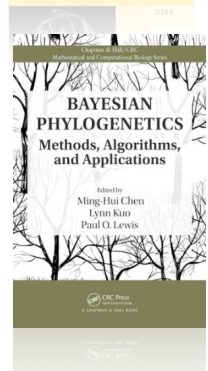
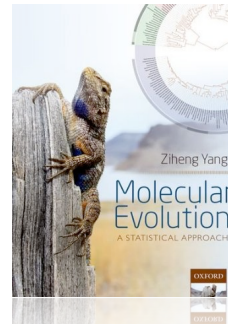
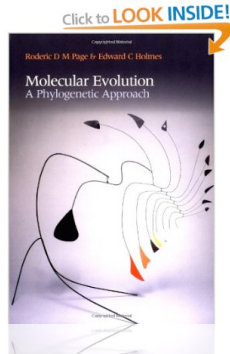
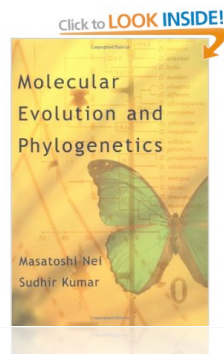
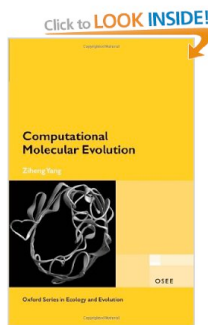
• For n taxa, there are:

$$(2n-3)!/[(2^{n-2}) \cdot (n-2)!]$$

rooted, binary trees

# taxa	# trees	
4	15	enumerable by hand
5	105	enumerable by hand on a rainy day
6	945	enumerable by computer
7	10395	still searchable very quickly on computer
8	135135	a bit more than the number of hairs on your head
9	2027025	population of Glasgow
10	34459425	≈ upper limit for exhaustive searching; about the number of possible combinations of numbers in the National Lottery
20	$8.20 \times 10^{21}$	≈ upper limit for branch-and-bound searching
48	$3.21 \times 10^{70}$	≈ the number of particles in the universe
136	$2.11 \times 10^{267}$	=number of trees to choose from in the "Out of Africa" data (Vigilant et al., 1991)

# Phylogenetic inference: books

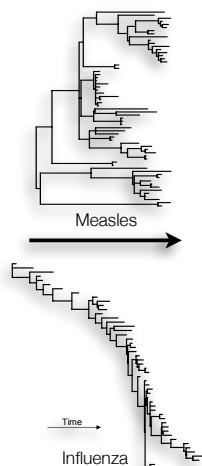


- Yang Z. (2003). *Computational Molecular Evolution*. Oxford University Press
- Nei M & Kumar S. (2000). *Molecular Evolution and Phylogenetics*. Oxford University Press.
- Page RDM & Holmes EC. (1998). *Molecular Evolution: A Phylogenetic Approach*. Blackwell Science Ltd, Oxford.
- Yang Z (2014) *Molecular Evolution: A Statistical Approach*
- Bayesian Phylogenetics: Methods, Algorithms, and Applications. Chen M-H, Kuo L. and Lewis PO. Chapman & Hall/CRC.
- Lemey P, Salemi M & Vandamme A-M. (2009). *The Phylogenetic Handbook, 2nd Edition*. Cambridge University Press.
- Felsenstein J. (2003). *Inferring phylogenies*. Sinauer Associates

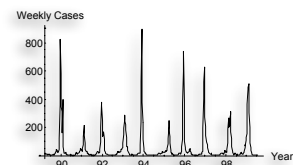
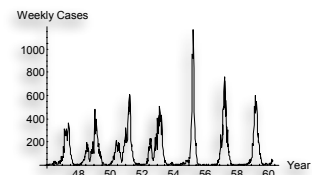
Computer Software: <http://evolution.genetics.washington.edu/phylip/software.html>

# Phylodynamics™

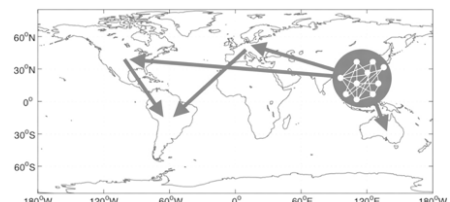
GENETIC DIVERSITY  
(phylogenetics & molecular evolution)



EPIDEMIC DYNAMICS  
(mathematical epidemiology)



NATURAL SELECTION  
(population genetics & immunology)



## Unifying principle

**“ Rapidly evolving pathogens are unique in that their ecological and evolutionary dynamics occur on the same timescale and can therefore potentially interact. ”**

Pybus & Rambaut (2009) Nat. Rev. Genetics 10:540-50

## Fundamental Phylodynamic Questions

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- How genetically diverse is a pathogen population?
- How do pathogen genomes change through time?
- How does pathogen genetic diversity vary through time and space?
- What are the effects of pathogen genetic diversity on virulence, transmissibility, resistance to treatment, etc.



## Specific questions

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- When did an epidemic start?
- Where did it come from?
- How fast is it transmitting?
- In what direction is it spreading?
- Are hosts X, Y & Z epidemiologically linked?
- Of how many strains is the epidemic composed?
- Are strains associated with particular transmission routes?
- What adaptations has it accrued?

## Fundamental Phylodynamic Questions

---

- How genetically diverse is a pathogen population?
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## Measuring sequence diversity

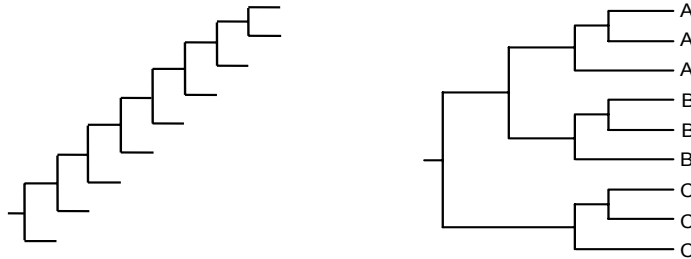
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- Not as straightforward as you might think...
- Are your pathogen sequences all sampled at the same time?

If sequences not sampled over time it's difficult to separate the effects of diversity and divergence on genetic diversity.

- Are you measuring sample diversity or population diversity?

The former is simply a summary of your data, the latter is an inference about the population you have sampled. Sequences should be sampled randomly to estimate the latter.



## Measuring sequence diversity

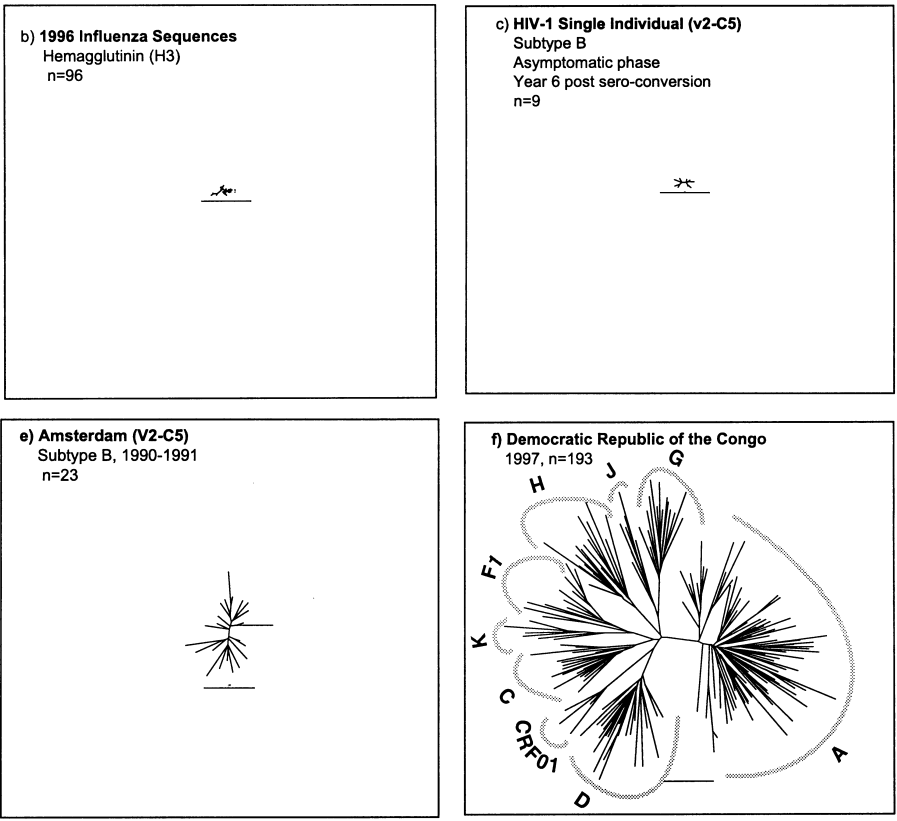
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- Are you studying an inter-host or intra-host population?

For the former, each sequence represents a different infection. For the latter, each sequence represents a different virion within an infected individual. The measure of diversity must be interpreted accordingly.

- How do we deal with intra-host diversity when studying the inter-host level?
- Intra-host diversity is low for most acute infections (e.g. influenza) but can be high for chronic infections (e.g. HIV).

# Example: diversity of HIV-1 versus influenza



Scale bar represents a genetic distance of 0.1 substitutions per site.  
 Korber et al. 2001. *British Medical Bulletin* 58:19-42

## Phylodynamic Patterns

Idealised Phylogeny Shapes	Continual Immune Selection	Weak/No Immune Selection	
		Population dynamics	Spatial dynamics
		<b>Examples</b>	Human influenza A within-host HIV

Population dynamics		Spatial dynamics	
<i>Population growth</i>		<i>Strong spatial structure</i>	
<i>Population decline</i>		<i>Weak spatial structure</i>	

## Fundamental Phylodynamic Questions

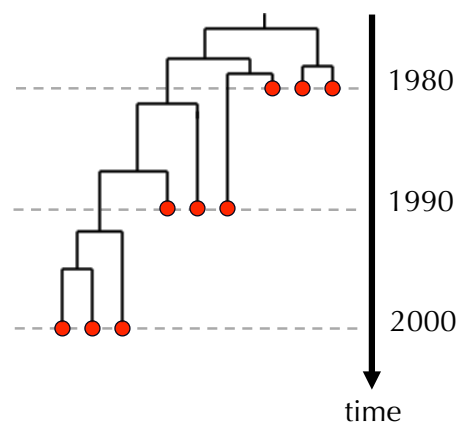
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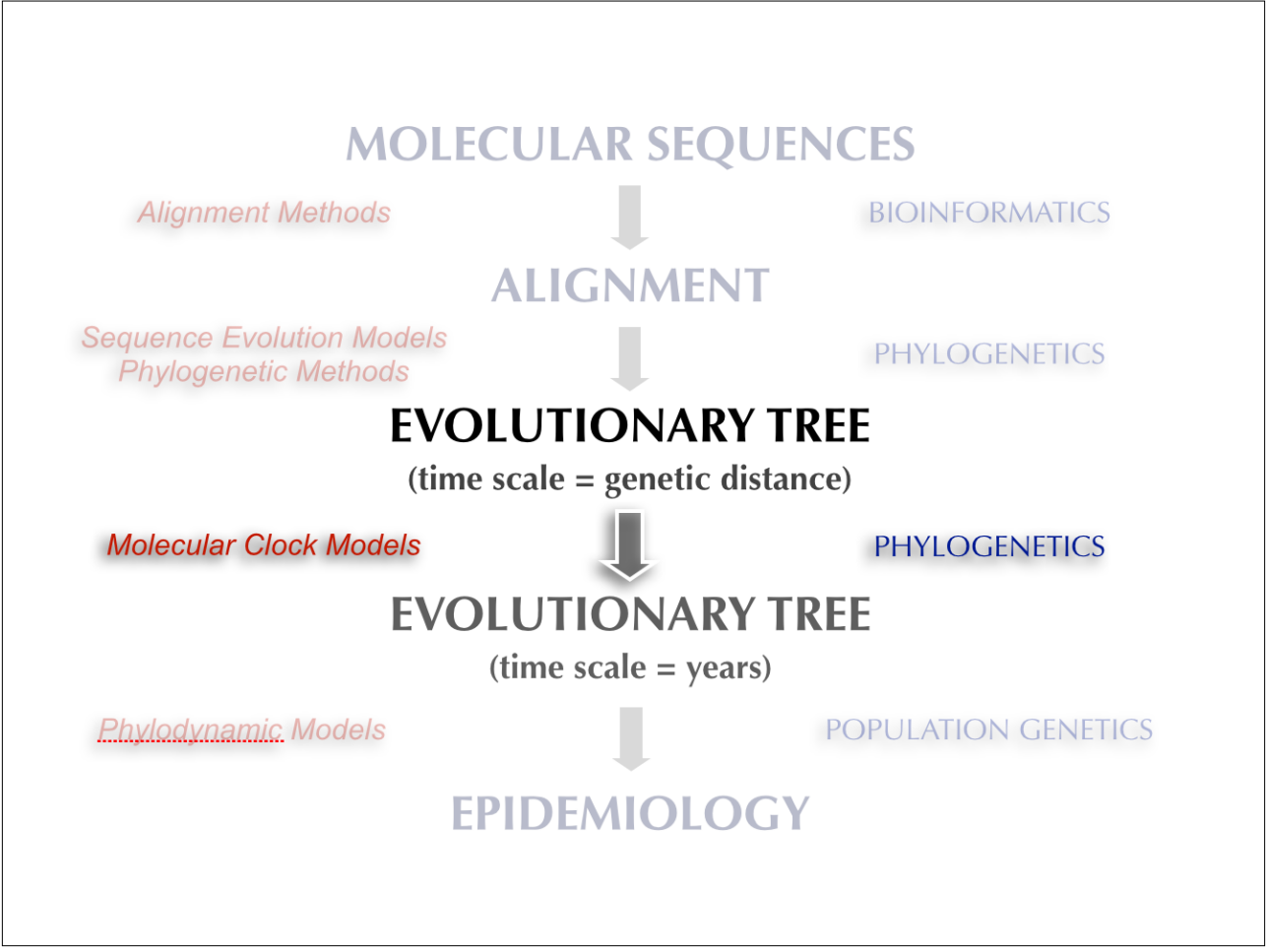
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- How do pathogen genomes change through time?
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## 'Phylodynamic' Data

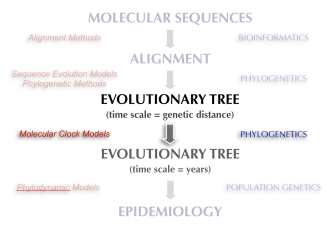
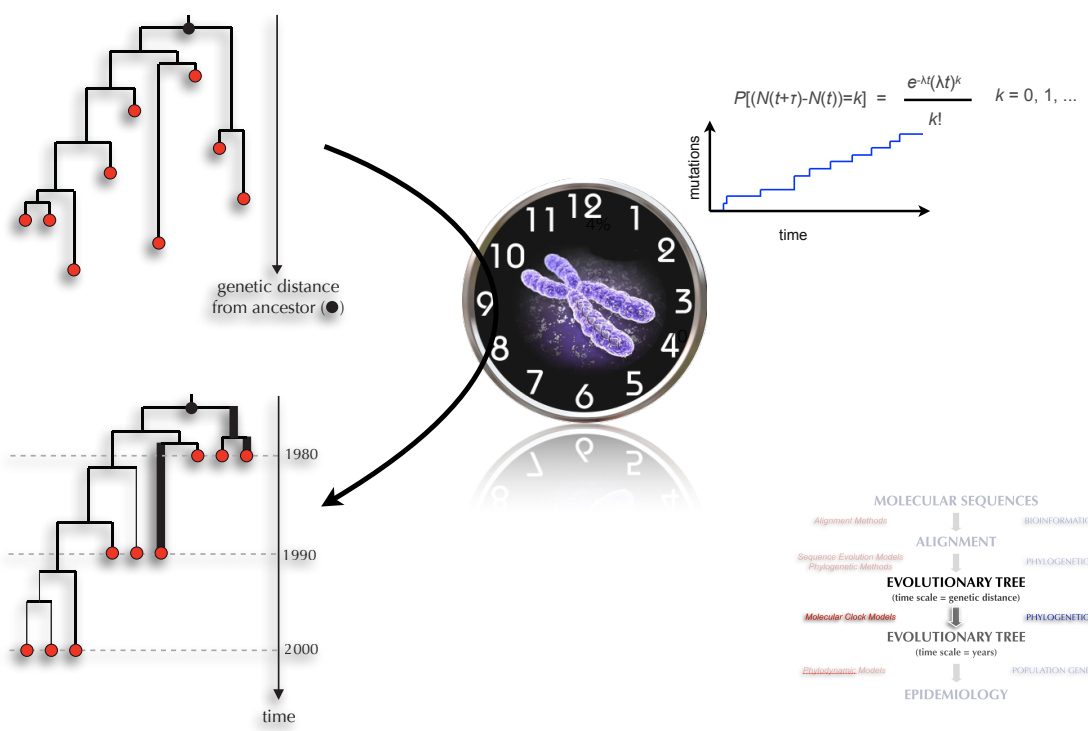
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- Pathogen genomes are sampled at different points in time and from different locations.
- Hence transmission history is estimated on a real time-scale (e.g. years).



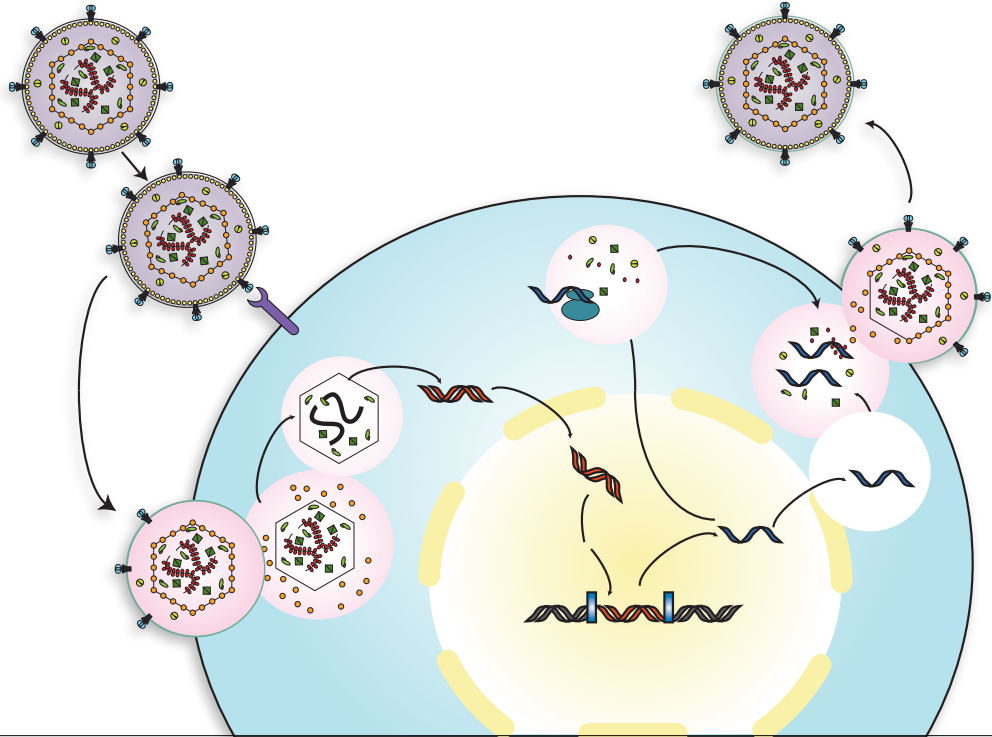


# Molecular clocks



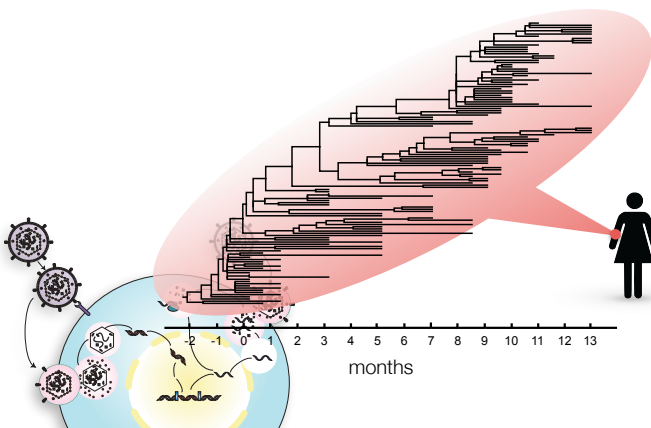
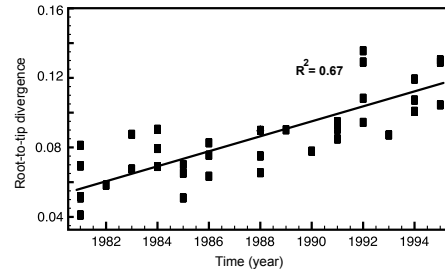
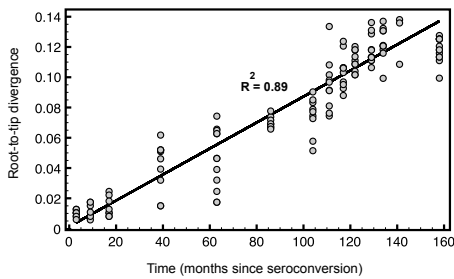


# HIV: the ultimate evolver

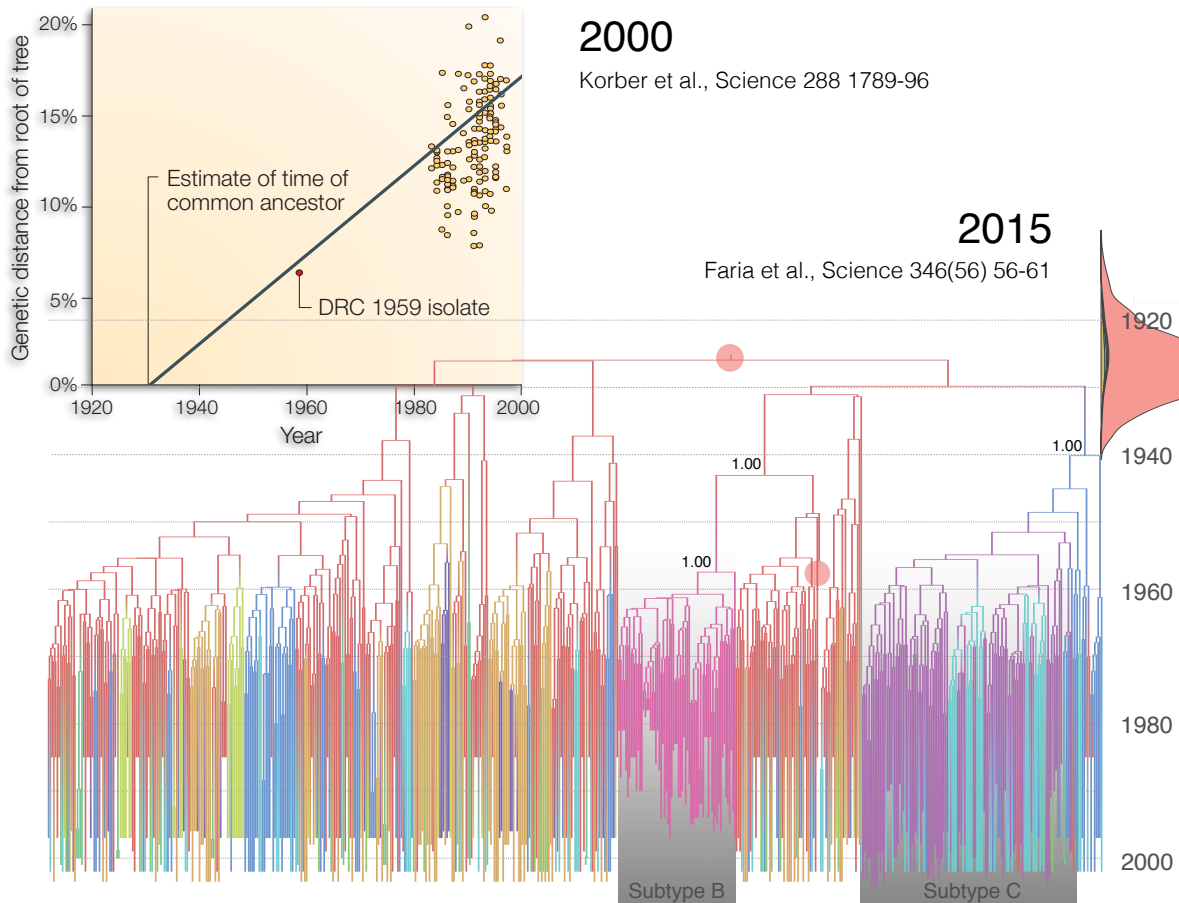
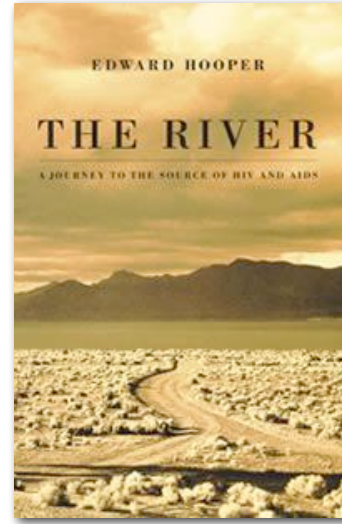
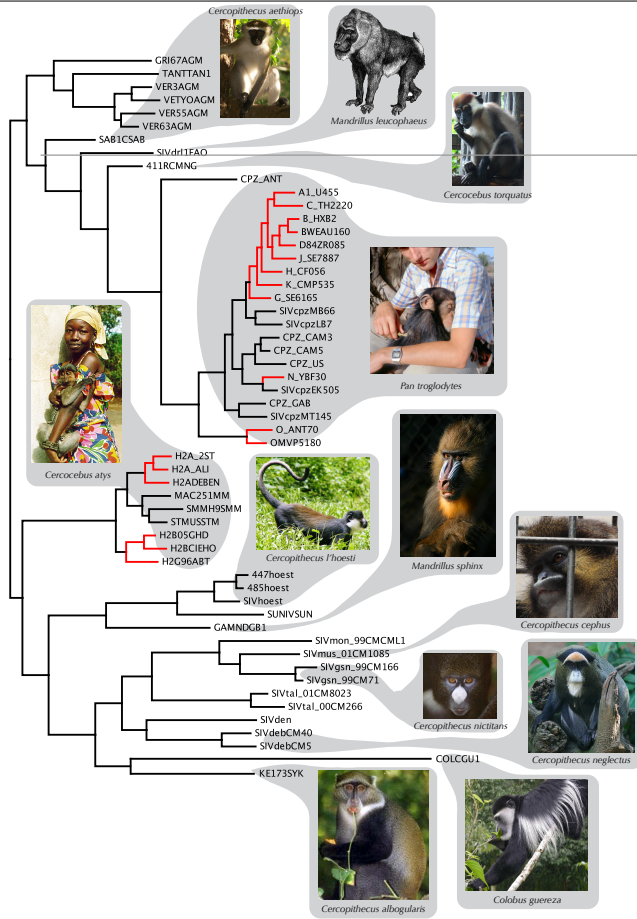


## measurable evolution of HIV-1

	Controlled Immune Selection	Weak/No Immune Selection
Phylogenetic Signature		
Examples	Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV-1)	Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV-1), Influenza A Virus, Hepatitis B Virus

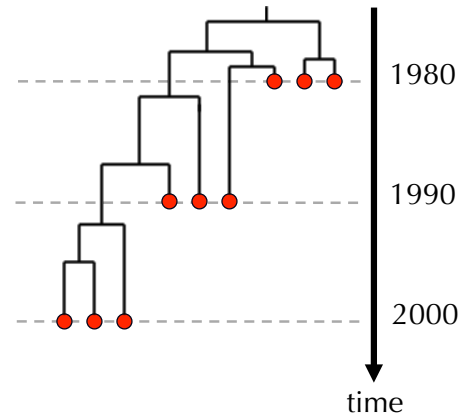


# The origin of HIV-1

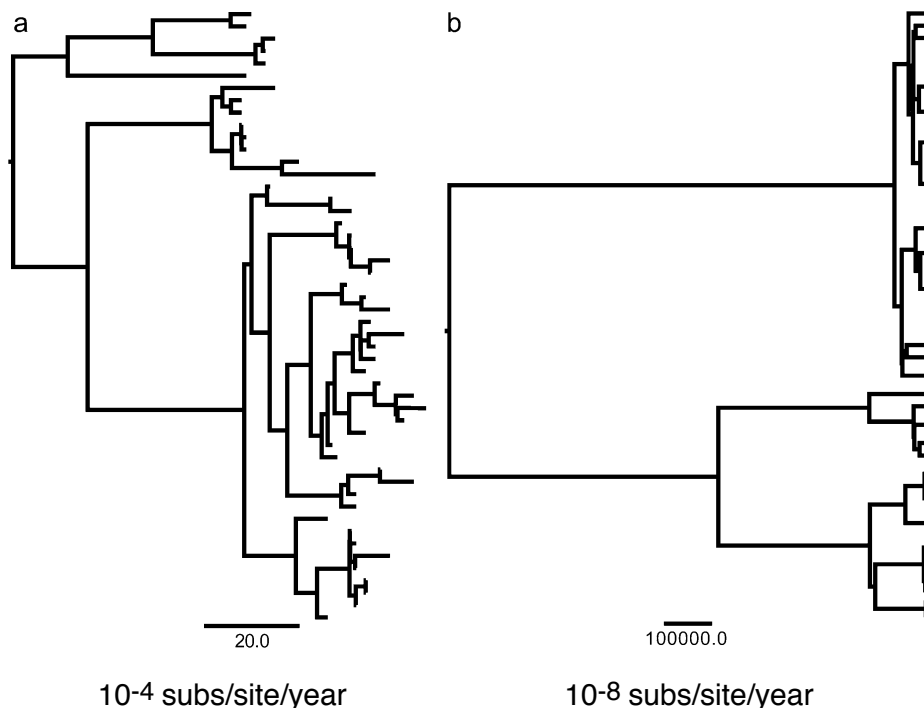


## 'Phylodynamic' Data

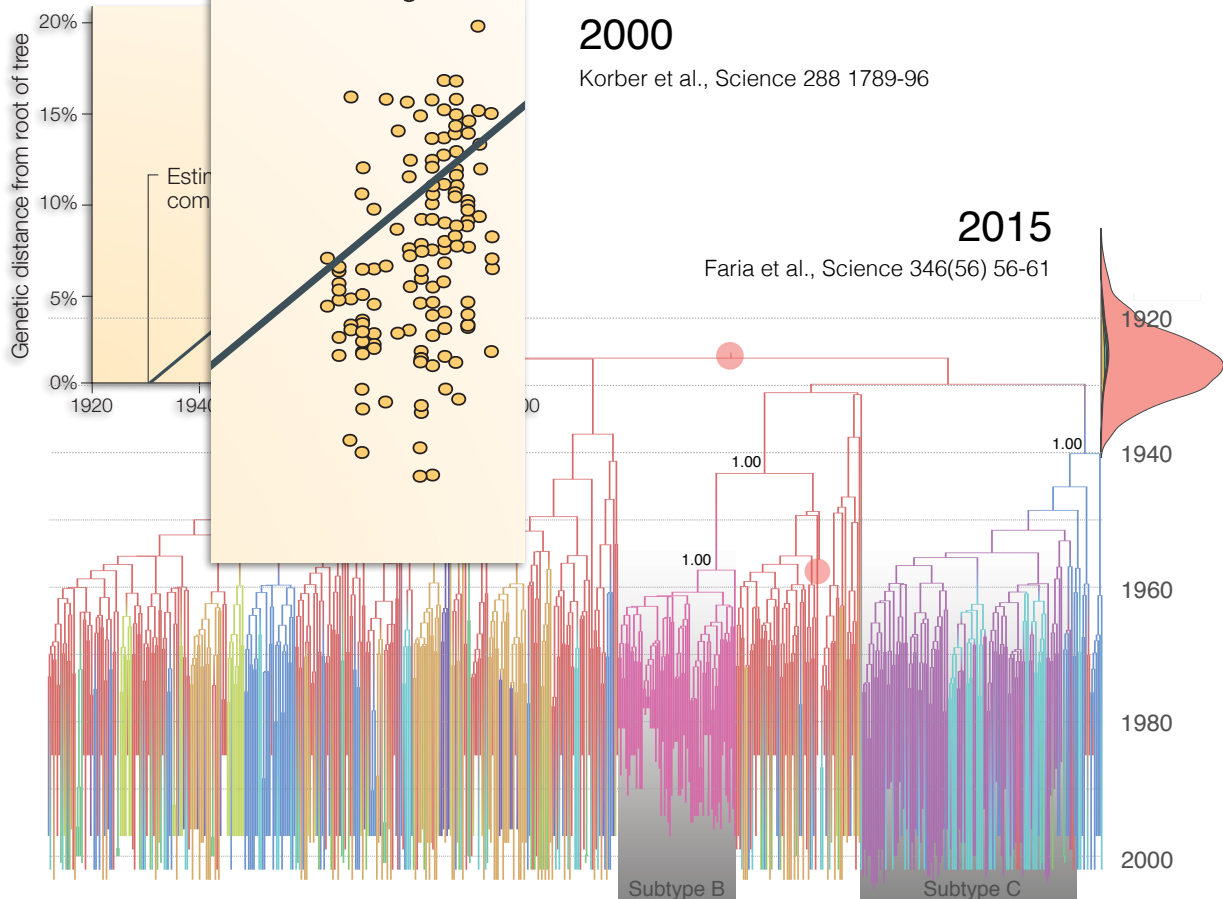
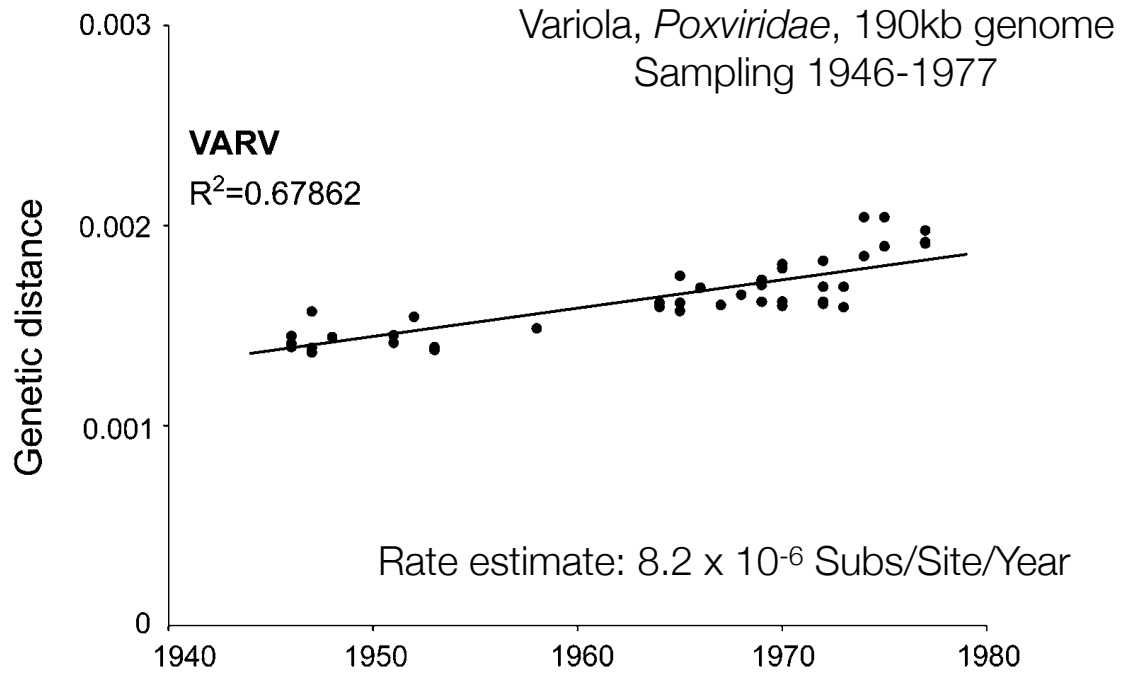
- Pathogen genomes are sampled at different points in time and from different locations.
- Hence transmission history is estimated on a real time-scale (e.g. years).
- The ability to genetically distinguish sequences sampled at different times depends on:
  - (i) the rate of evolution of the gene/genome that is obtained
  - (ii) the length of time between samples
  - (iii) the sequence length of the gene/genome that is obtained

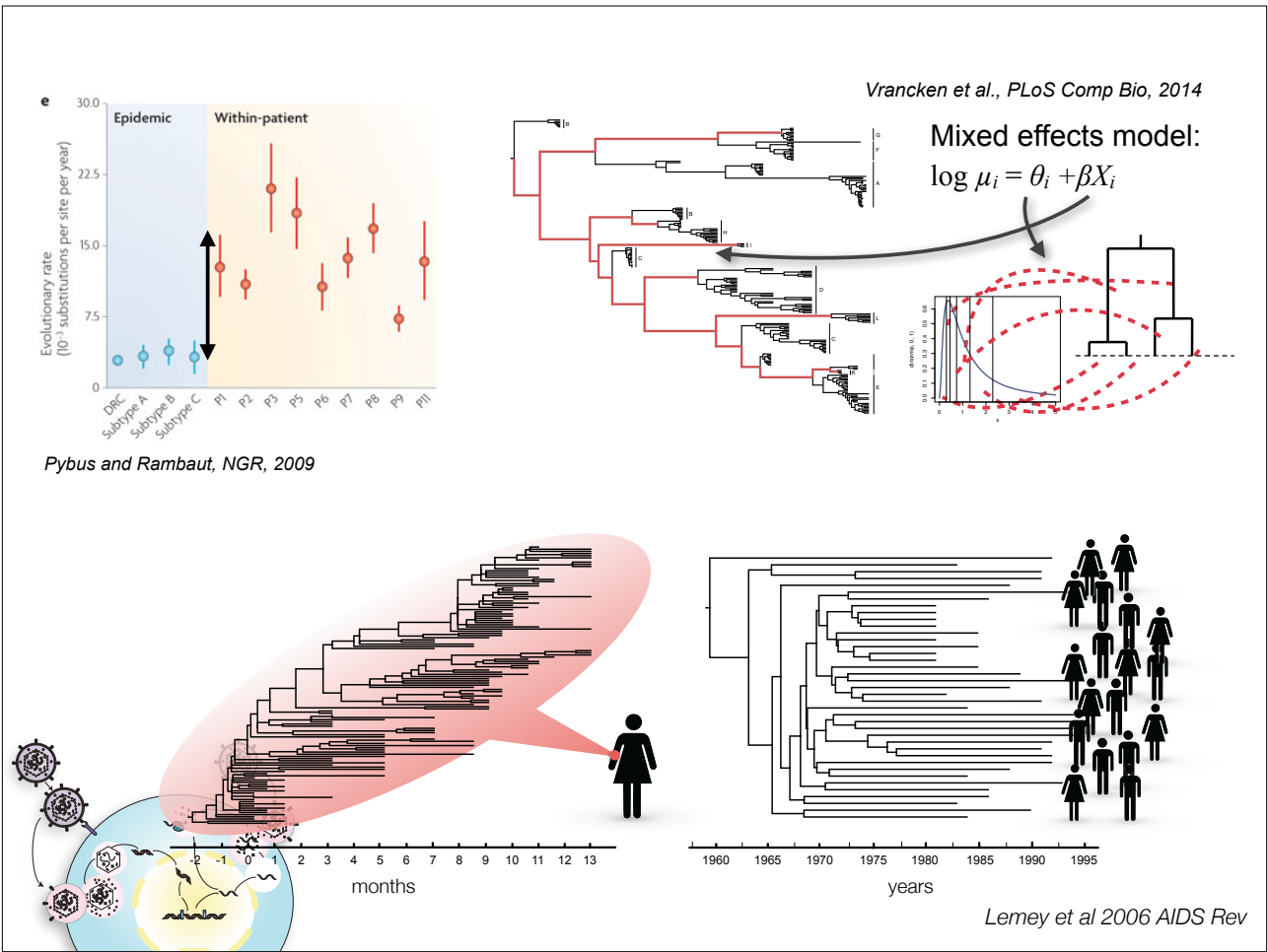
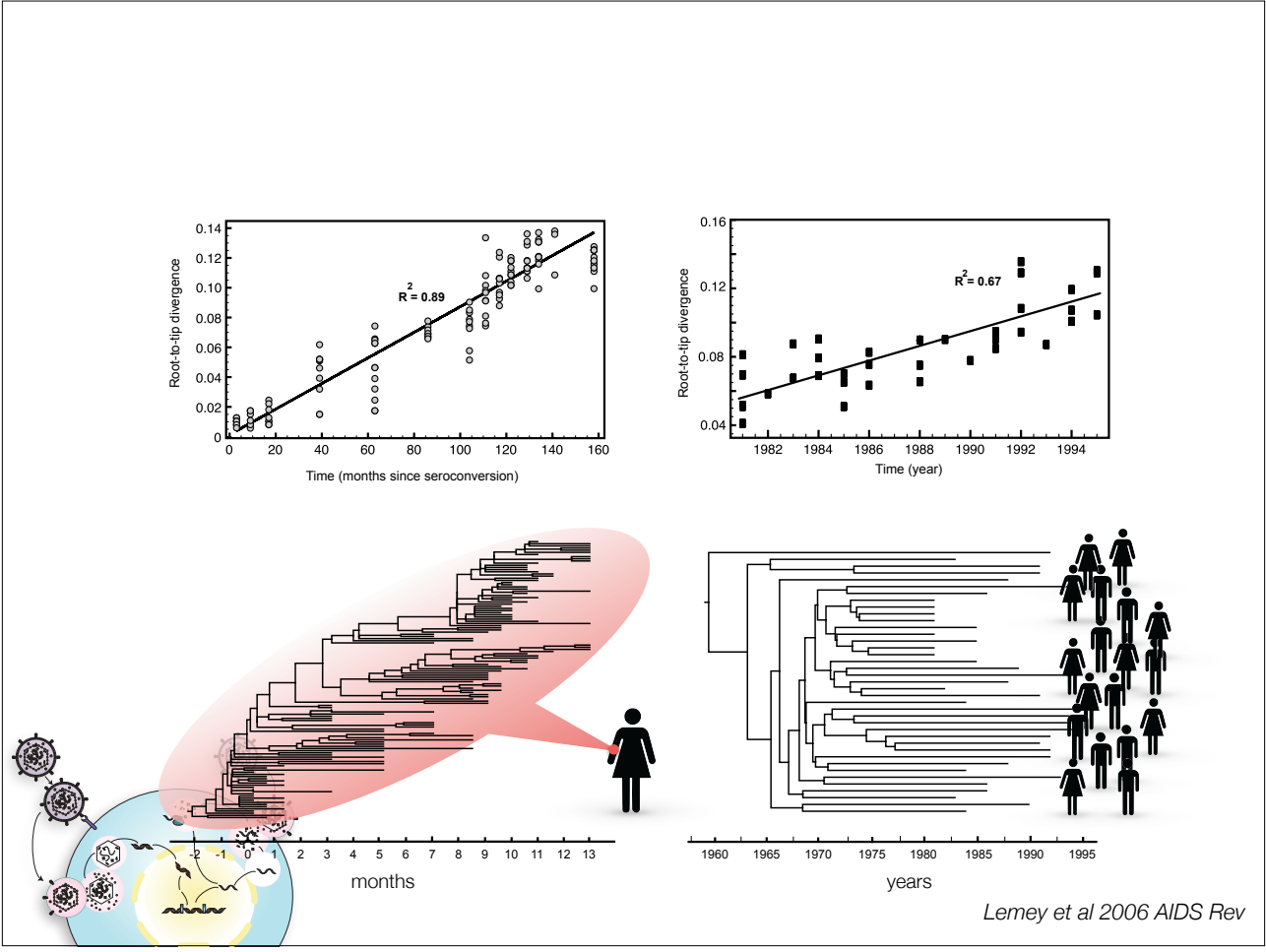


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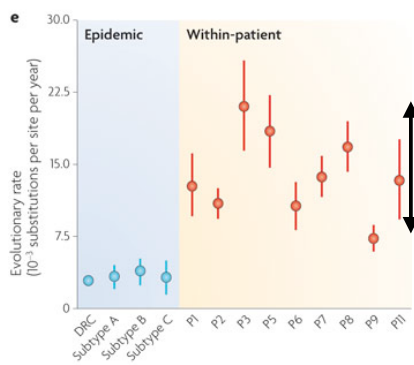


# A DNA virus (smallpox)





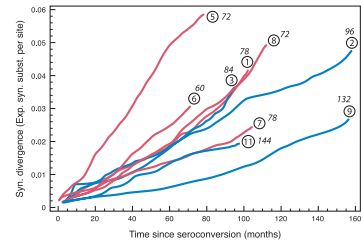




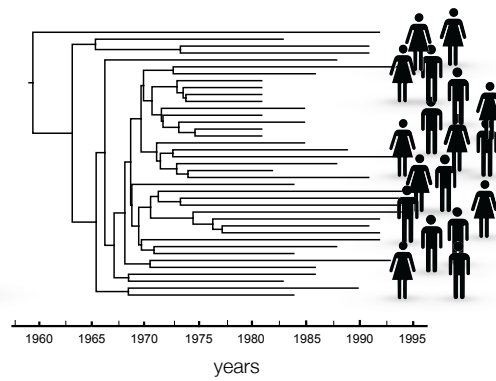
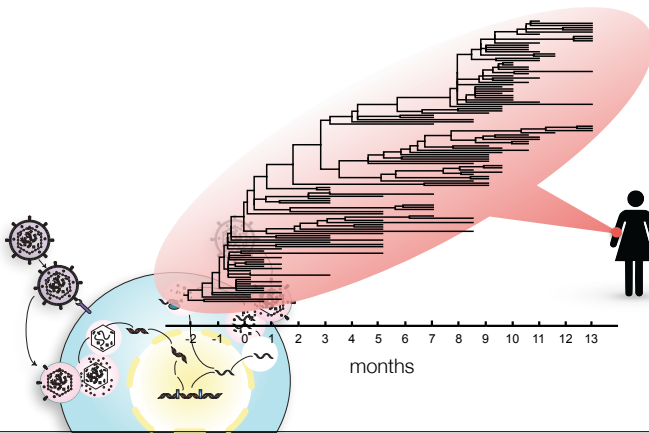
Pybus and Rambaut, NGR, 2009

Edo-Matas et al., Mol Biol Evol, 2011

$$\log \theta_i = \beta_0 + \delta_{\text{LTNP}} \beta_{\text{LTNP}} \text{LTNP}_i + \delta_{\Delta 32} \beta_{\Delta 32} \Delta 32_i + \epsilon_i$$

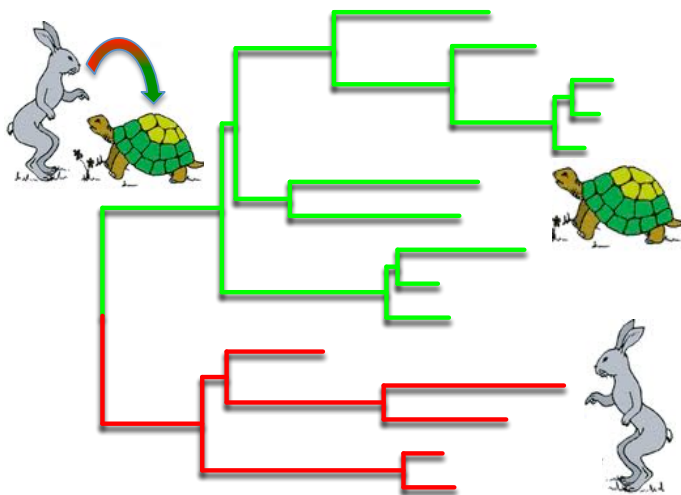


Lemey et al., PLoS Comp Bio, 2007



Lemey et al 2006 AIDS Rev

## What drives the tempo of pathogen evolution?



### Pathogen factors

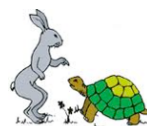


Mutation rate



Life cycle/replication dynamics

### Host factors



Life history

Seasonality

Metabolic rate etc.

### Historical factors



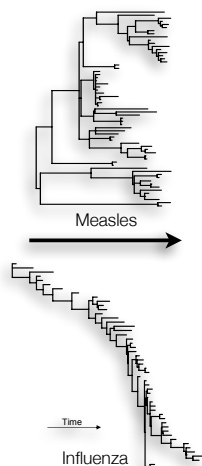
Pathogen phylogeny

## Fundamental Phylodynamic Questions

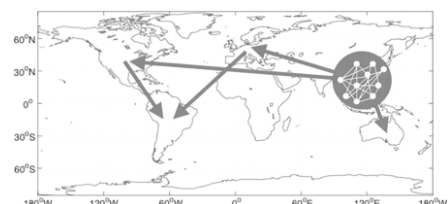
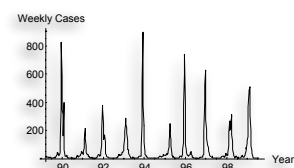
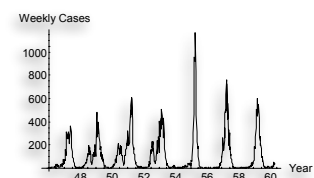
- How genetically diverse is a pathogen population?
- How do pathogen genomes change through time?
- How does pathogen genetic diversity vary through time and space?
- What processes and/or events determine these changes?
- What are the effects of pathogen genetic diversity on virulence, transmissibility, resistance to treatment, etc.

## Phylodynamics™

GENETIC DIVERSITY  
(phylogenetics &  
molecular evolution)



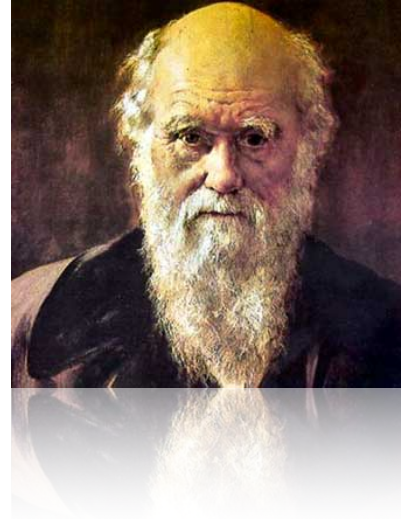
EPIDEMIC DYNAMICS  
(mathematical epidemiology)



NATURAL SELECTION  
(population genetics &  
immunology)

# Evolutionary processes: natural selection

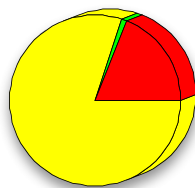
- “the preservation of favourable variations and the rejection of injurious variations, I call natural selection. Variations neither useful nor injurious would not be affected by natural selection, and would be left a fluctuating element”
  - darwin, the origin of species



# Evolutionary processes: natural selection

most fixed mutations  
are neutral

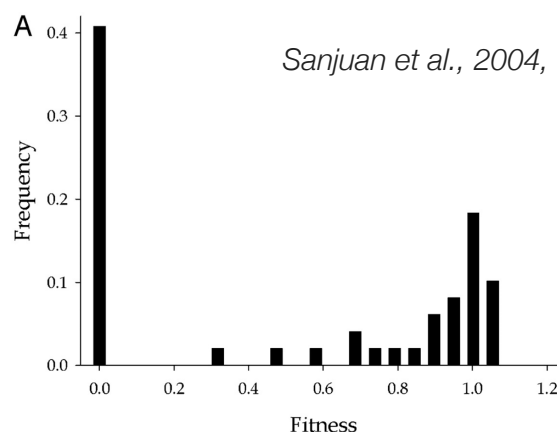
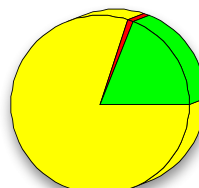
neutralist model  
motoo kimura



■  $s > 0$   
■  $s \approx 0$   
■  $s < 0$

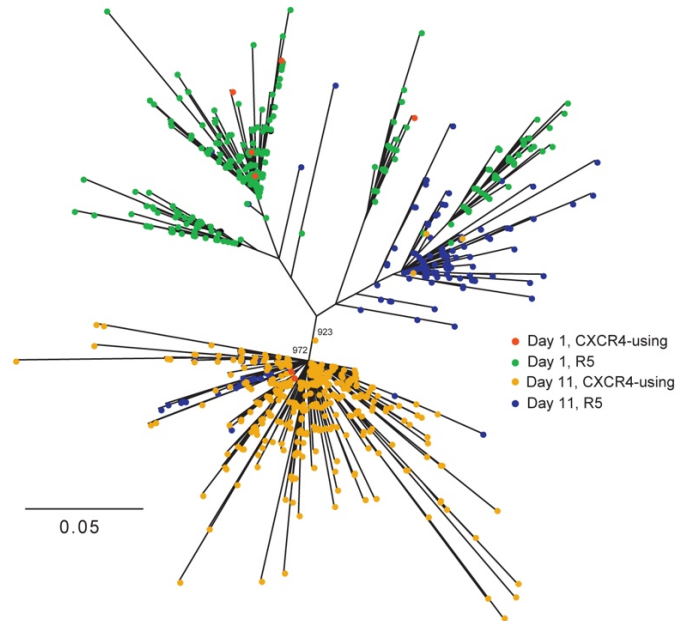
most fixed mutations  
are advantageous

selectionist model  
john gillespie



# Evolutionary processes: natural selection

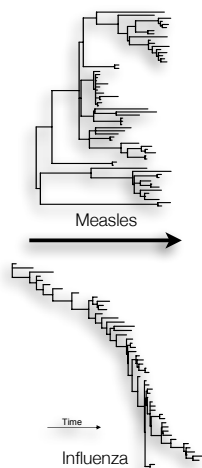
- Immune escape (antibodies\*, T-cells\*, innate immune responses)
- Antiviral drug resistance
- Vaccine escape mutations
- Cell & tissue tropism
- Inter-host viral transmission (i.e. for viral emergence)



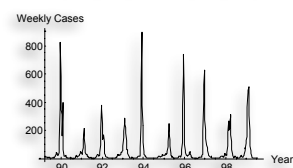
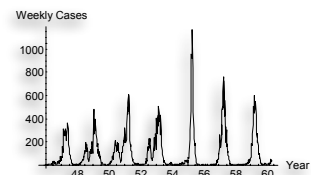
➔ **module 15:** Pathogen evolution, selection and immunology

# Phylodynamics™

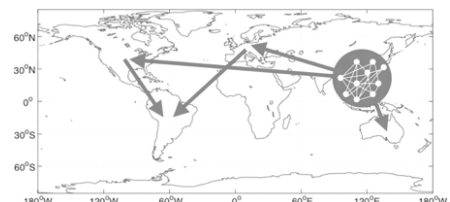
GENETIC DIVERSITY  
(phylogenetics & molecular evolution)

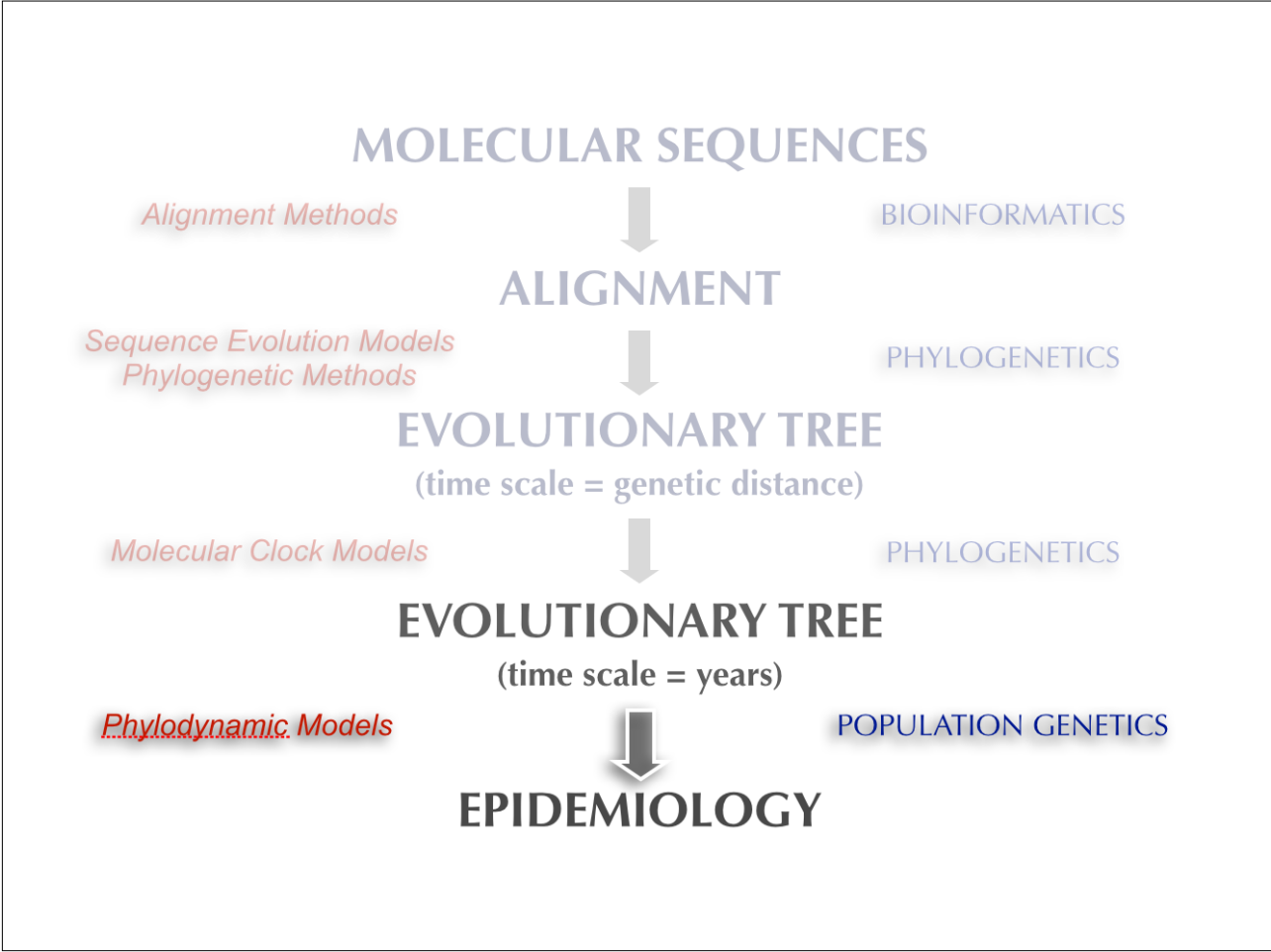


EPIDEMIC DYNAMICS  
(mathematical epidemiology)



NATURAL SELECTION  
(population genetics & immunology)

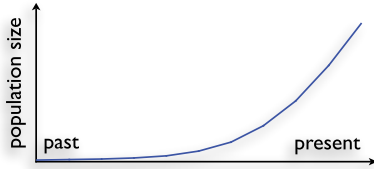




# Phylodynamic Patterns

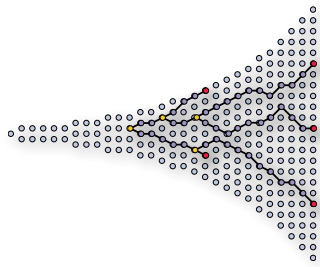
	Continual Immune Selection	Weak/No Immune Selection	
		Population dynamics	Spatial dynamics
<b>Idealised Phylogeny Shapes</b>		<i>Population growth</i> 	<i>Strong spatial structure</i> 
		<i>Population decline</i> 	<i>Weak spatial structure</i> 
<b>Examples</b>	Human influenza A within-host HIV	among-host HIV among-host HCV	Measles Rabies, Dengue

# Demography and coalescent theory



- The rate at which lineages ‘coalesce’ depends on population size and population structure.

*Kingman JFC (1982) Journal of Applied Probability 19A:27–43*

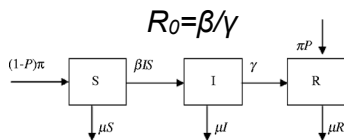


- Population dynamics can be reconstructed using parametric or flexible nonparametric models (the ‘skyline or skyride plot’ method)

*Pybus et al. (2000) Genetics 155:1429-37*

*Drummond, Rambaut, Shapiro & Pybus (2005) Mol Biol Evol 22:1185-92*

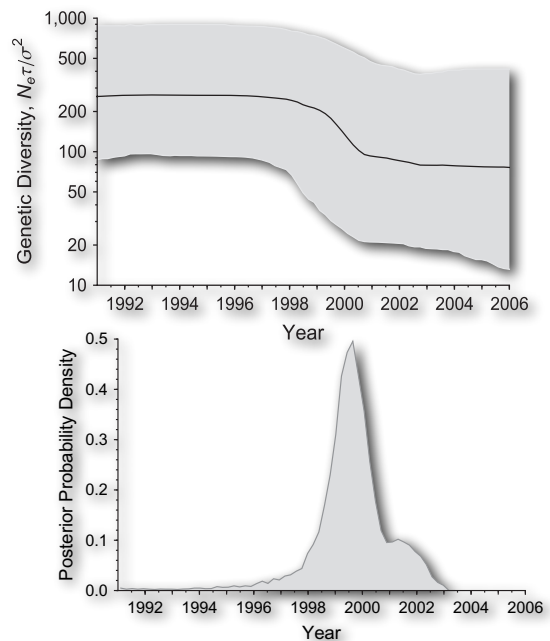
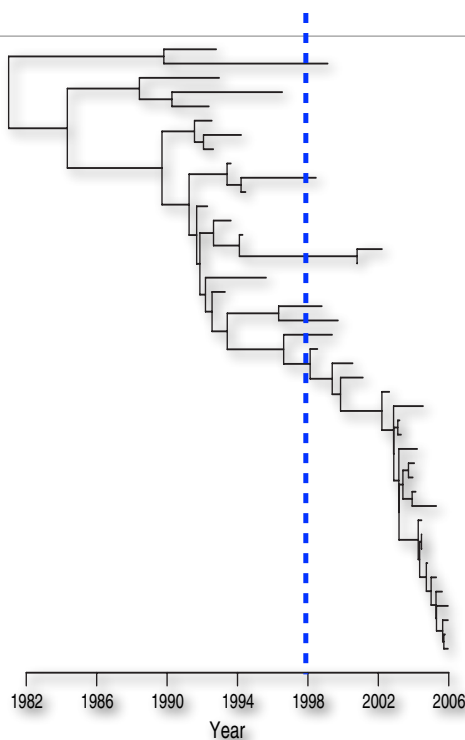
*Minin, Bloomquist and Suchard (2008) Mol Biol Evol 25:1459-71*



- Birth-death models can also be used as the tree-generative model and just like coalescent models they can be parametrized in terms of compartmental epidemic models.

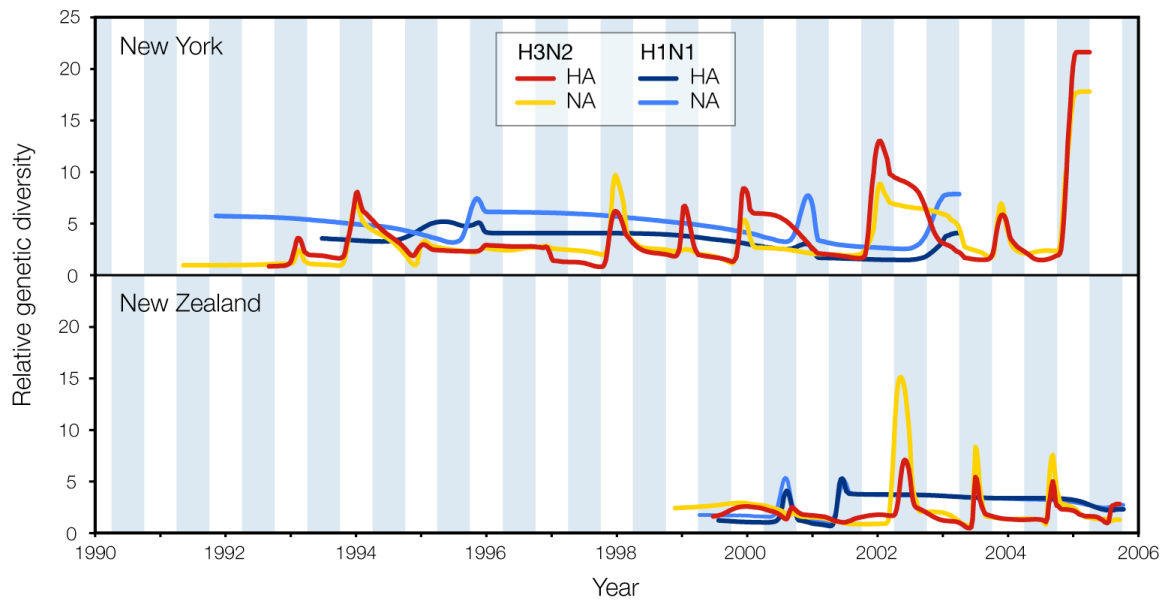
*Stadler et al. (2012) MBE 29:347-357*

# HBV Vaccination in Amsterdam



*van Ballegooijen et al. 2009. Am. J. Epidemiol. 170:1455-63*

# Influenza H3N2 epidemic dynamics



Rambaut et al. 2009. Nature

# PhyloGEOdynamic Patterns

Idealised Phylogeny Shapes	Continual Immune Selection	Weak/No Immune Selection	
		Population dynamics	Spatial dynamics
		<b>Examples</b>	Human influenza A within-host HIV

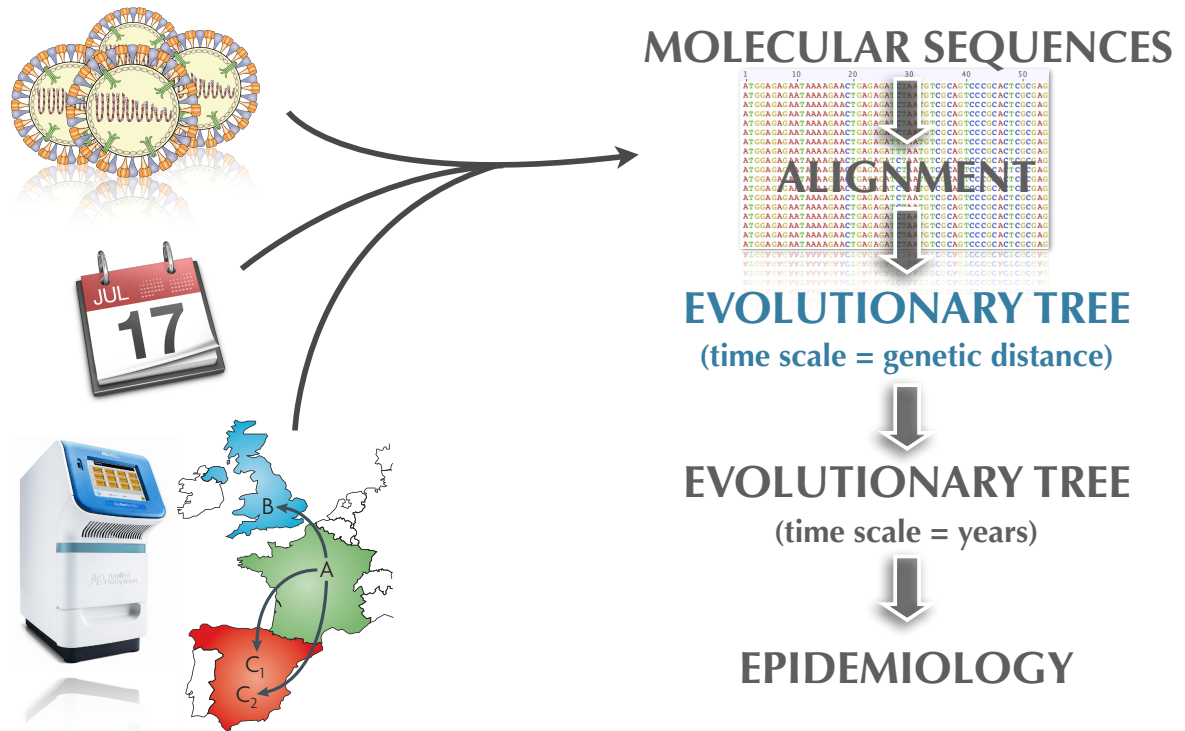
  

Population dynamics	Spatial dynamics
<b>Population growth</b> 	<b>Strong spatial structure</b> 
<b>Population decline</b> 	<b>Weak spatial structure</b> 





# Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Sampling Trees



# Bayesian Evolutionary Analysis Sampling Trees

