Modeling Molecular Evolution

What are the basic processes of molecular evolution?

What is one looking for while comparing sequences?

Basic mutational processes are - substitution and insertions and deletions

- introduced at the molecular level through random changes as the molecules are copied into new generations

It potentially affects the function of the gene, which can either be beneficial, or lead to reduction in functionality & adaptability of the protein

Natural selection comes into play – allowing mutations that are either evolutionarily advantageous or, occur in non-functional regions of the sequence

- it has the effect of screening the mutations; some changes are seen more often than others

Let's try to develop mathematical models of molecular evolution using the language of probability to describe random mutations

- we expect the concept of phylogenetic distance as a measure of sequence similarity will emerge from these probabilistic models.

When base substitutions occur in evolution, the probability of a particular base appearing at a site in the descendent sequence might depend on the ancestral base.

- e.g., if the ancestral base is T, then
- probability of seeing a T in the descendant sequence is higher – why?
- probability of seeing a C in the descendant sequence is lower than T why?
- probability of seeing an A or G in the descendant sequence is lowest – why?

To formalize this we shall use the concept of conditional probability

When base substitutions occur in evolution, the probability of a particular base appearing at a site in the descendent sequence might depend on the ancestral base.

- e.g., if the ancestral base is T, then
- probability of seeing a T in the descendant sequence is higher – No change
- probability of seeing a C in the descendant sequence is lower than T Transition
- probability of seeing an A or G in the descendant sequence is lowest – Transversion

A transition is less likely than a "no change" and a transversion is even lower.

Conditional Probability

If E and F are two events, then conditional probability of F given E is defined by

$$p(F \mid E) = \frac{p(F \cap E)}{p(E)}$$

The concept of conditional probability also clarifies the notion of independence of events.

Events E and F are independent if knowledge that one has occurred gives no information as to whether the other occurred, i.e.,

$$p(F|E) = p(F)$$
 and $P(E|F) = p(E)$

 \Rightarrow P(F \cap E) = p(F)p(E), if events E & F are independent

Conditional Probability

Ex: Taking into account the likelihood of transitions and transversions, which of the following is likely to be the smallest? Which is likely to be the largest?

(i)
$$p(S_1 = C | S_0 = C)$$
 "no change",
(ii) $p(S_1 = T | S_0 = C)$, "transition",
(iii) $p(S_1 = A | S_0 = C)$ "transversion", and
(iv) $p(S_1 = G | S_0 = C)$ "transversion".

What is the sum of the above four probabilities?

Other mutations observed include:

- Deletion of a base or consecutive bases,
- Insertion of a base or consecutive bases,
- Inversion (reversal) of a section of the sequence

These mutations are seen more <u>rarely</u> in natural populations.

 not surprising, since these mutations have a dramatic effect on the protein.

Ignore such possibilities to make our modeling task both clearer & mathematically tractable.

Focusing solely on <u>base substitutions</u>, a basic problem is how to deduce the amount of mutation during evolution:

S0: ACCTGCGCTA

S1: ACGTGCACTA

S2: ACGTGCGCTA

If $G \rightarrow A \rightarrow C$ at

the 7th position?

Comparing S0 & S2 - 1/10 mutations per site Comparing S0, S1 & S2 - 3/10 mutations per site from S0 to S2

 a simple ratio of mutations per site obtained from comparing 1st & 3rd sequences gives a lower estimate of the mutation that actually occurred.

Assuming that mutations are <u>rare</u>,

- ignore the probability of a <u>hidden mutations</u> having occurred ($G \rightarrow A \rightarrow G$)

we can reconstruct a mathematical model for the no. of mutations that are likely to have occurred from those observed in comparing only the initial and final DNA sequences.

Model ancestral sequence probabilistically:

Assume each site in the sequence is one of the 4 bases chosen randomly with probabilities p_A , p_G , p_C , p_T ,

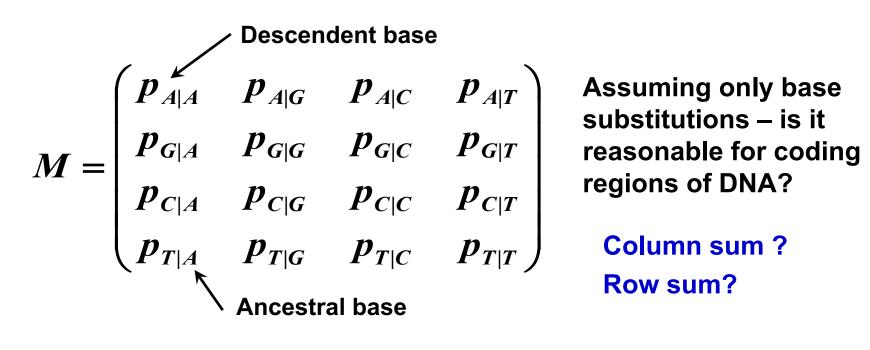
- these probabilities describe the ancestral base distribution in a vector as

$$p_0 = (p_A, p_G, p_C, p_T), \qquad p_A + p_G + p_C + p_T = ?$$

Model the mutation process over one-time step, assuming that only base <u>substitutions</u> can occur.

Model the mutation process over one-time step, assuming that only base substitutions can occur.

⇒ 16 conditional probabilities of observing base substitutions, $p(S_1 = i|S_0 = j)$ for i, j = A, G, C, and T:



Example

For the 40-base ancestral sequence, S0:

ACTTGTCGGATGATCAGCGGTCCATGCACCTGACAACGGT and its descendent sequence, S1:

ACATGTTGCTTGACGACAGGTCCATGCGCCTGAGAACGGC

$$p_0 = (p_A, p_G, p_C, p_T) = (.225, .275, .275, .225)$$

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} .778 & 0 & .091 & .111 \\ .111 & .818 & .182 & 0 \\ 0 & .182 & .636 & .222 \\ .111 & 0 & .091 & .667 \end{pmatrix}$$

No. of A's in $S_0 = 9$, probability of A in $S_0 = 9/40 = 0.225$, ...

First entry in M is $p_{A|A} = 7/9 = 0.778, ...$

Multiplying:

$$egin{aligned} egin{aligned} egi$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} p_{A|A}p_A + p_{A|G}p_G + p_{A|C}p_C + p_{A|T}p_T \\ p_{G|A}p_A + p_{G|G}p_G + p_{G|C}p_C + p_{G|T}p_T \\ p_{C|A}p_A + p_{C|G}p_G + p_{C|C}p_C + p_{C|T}p_T \\ p_{T|A}p_A + p_{T|G}p_G + p_{T|C}p_C + p_{T|T}p_T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p(S_1 = A) \\ p(S_1 = G) \\ p(S_1 = C) \\ p(S_1 = C) \\ p(S_1 = T) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow$$
 $M p_0 = p_1$

p₁ - the vector of base probabilities in sequence S₁

M - is a <u>transition matrix</u>, gives how probabilities of each base in ancestral seq. S_0 are transformed into probabilities of each base in the descendent seq. S_1 one-time step later.

What would be the meaning of *M*p1?

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} = M\mathbf{p}_{0} = \begin{pmatrix} .225 \\ .275 \\ .300 \\ .200 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{p}_{2} = M\mathbf{p}_{1} = \begin{pmatrix} .222 \\ .274 \\ .320 \\ .183 \end{pmatrix}$$

What is the sum of the entries in p1? In p2?

Why must this be the case? Why use same M?

To make sense biologically, we must assume that the probabilistic mutation process over the first time step is <u>identical</u> to that over the next time step.

Using the same transition matrix M of conditional probabilities means each type of base substitution has the same likelihood of occurring as it did before.

- reasonable assumption for **small** time intervals.

Furthermore, what happens during the second step depends only on:

- what the base was at time t = 1 (the information in p1), and
- the conditional probabilities (the information in M)

Whether that site experienced a substitution during the previous time step is irrelevant.

This is an example of a Markov model.

An important assumption is made in any Markov model:

What happens to the system over a given time step depends <u>only</u> on the state the system is in at the start of that step and the transition probabilities.

- there is "no memory" of what changes might have occurred during earlier time steps, i.e., conditional probabilities are <u>independent</u> of the past history.

Can a Markov model be used to identify spatial patterns in a DNA sequence, e.g. CpG islands, protein-coding regions?

Q. For a DNA substitution model, is it reasonable to assume this independence?

In our DNA model we also assumed that each site in the sequence behaves identically and independently of every other site to find various probabilities from sequence data, by considering each site as an independent trial of the same probabilistic process.

Q. How reasonable is this assumption?

This assumption may <u>not</u> be a very reasonable one for gene sequences:

- Genetic code allows for many changes in the third site of each codon to have no effect on the gene product, as a consequence, substitutions in the third sites might be more likely than in the first two, violating the assumption that each site behaves identically
- Since genes lead to the production of proteins, the likelihood of change at one site may well be tied to changes at another, <u>violating</u> the assumption of independence.

Can we find ways to go around these assumptions?

- allowing for different conditional probabilities for various sites.
- be careful to take assumptions into account when using the tools on real data
 - for instance, we might ignore the third base of each codon in estimating information from our data, so that it is more reasonable to treat sites as independent and following identical processes.

Markov matrix has all entries ≥ 0 and its columns sum to 1.

Theorem-1: A Markov matrix always has $\lambda_1 = 1$ as its largest eigenvalue and has all eigenvalues satisfying $|\lambda| \le 1$. Eigenvector corresponding to λ_1 has all nonnegative entries.

There will be only one eigenvector associated with λ_1 = 1.

Theorem-2: A Markov matrix, all of whose entries are positive (i.e., nonzero), always has 1 as a strictly dominant eigenvalue.

We will now discuss a few special Markov models of base substitutions:

- Jukes-Cantor Model
- Kimura Models

- the simplest Markov model of base substitution.

Additional assumptions made to basic Markov model:

First, all bases occur with equal probability in the ancestral sequence, i.e.,

$$p_0 = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$$

Second, all the 16 conditional probabilities of base substitutions are same, i.e., all possible substitutions are equally likely:

$$A \leftrightarrow G$$
, $C \leftrightarrow T$, $A \leftrightarrow C$, $A \leftrightarrow T$, $C \leftrightarrow G$, $T \leftrightarrow G$

i.e., it assumes transitions & transversions occur at the same rate.

If we define $\alpha/3$ as the conditional probability of a base substitution of any type:

$$p(S_1 = i|S_0 = j) = \alpha/3$$
, for all i, j

i.e., the 12 off-diagonal entries of the matrix M will be $\alpha/3$.

Since the entries in any column of *M* add to 1, what would be the diagonal entries?

Transition matrix for Jukes-Cantor model:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

Value of α depends on the time step we use and features of the particular DNA sequence being modeled.

Although α is a probability, we can interpret it as a <u>rate</u>:

- it is the rate at which observable base substitutions occur over one time step and is measured in units of

 α = (substitutions per site) / time step

Mutational rates α for DNA in real organisms is not easily found.

Estimates of α :

- 1.1 x 10⁻⁹ mutations per site per year for certain sections of chloroplast DNA of maize & barley
- 10⁻⁸ mutations per site per year for mtDNA in mammals
- 0.01 mutations per site per year for influenza A virus
- Rate of mutation is generally a bit lower in coding regions than in noncoding DNA

After 1 million years, compute the amount of mutation in the descendant sequence if $\alpha = 10^{-8}$ & length of sequence is 1000 bases.

In the development of our model, we shall treat α as an unknown constant.

In reality, the mutation rate may not be constant; it may change with time, or with location within the DNA.

For shorter periods of time and for DNA serving a fixed purpose, the assumption of a constant mutational rate is reasonable.

When mutation rates are constant, there is said to be a molecular clock operating.

Ex-1: For the Jukes-Cantor model, in what proportion of the sites will each base appear after one time-step?

Ex-2: What proportion of the sites will have a base A in the ancestral sequence and a T in the descendent one time-step later:

$$p(S_0 = A \text{ and } S_1 = T)$$
?

Ex-3: What is the probability that a base A in the ancestral sequence will have mutated to become a base T in the descendent sequence 100 time-steps later: $p(S_{100} = T \mid S_0 = A)$?

Ex-1: For the Jukes-Cantor model, in what proportion of the sites will each base appear after one time-step?

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} = M \; \mathbf{p}_{0} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Base composition of the sequence does not change under Jukes-Cantor model

(1/4, 1/4, 1/4) is an <u>equilibrium base distribution</u> for sequences under the Jukes-Cantor model

Ex-2: What proportion of sites will have a base A in ancestral sequence and a T in descendent one timestep later, $p(S_0 = A \text{ and } S_1 = T)$?

$$p(S_0 = A \text{ and } S_1 = T)$$

= $p(S_1 = T \mid S_0 = A) p(S_0 = A)$
= $(\alpha/3)(1/4) = \alpha/12$

Ex-3: What is the probability that a base A in the ancestral sequence will have mutated to become a base T in descendent sequence 100 time-steps later, i.e., compute the probability $p(S_{100} = T \mid S_0 = A)$?

$$p_{100} = M^{100} p_0$$

What is the (4,1) entry of M^{100} ?

Generalizing to any t, let's find all entries of M^t – using the eigenvectors approach.

Why do we need to compute eigenvalues and eigenvectors?

How do we compute the eigenvectors & eigenvalues of a matrix?

Theorem: If A is an n x n matrix, v a non-zero vector, and λ a scalar such that $Av = \lambda v$, then v is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ .

Equilibrium base distribution is one eigenvector with eigenvalue λ = 1, there are 3 more that can be found by trial and error or a long computation

$$\mathbf{p}_{1} = M \; \mathbf{p}_{0} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Eigenvectors & eigenvalues of Jukes-Cantor matrix are:

$$v_1 = (1,1,1,1)$$
 $\lambda_1 = 1$ $v_2 = (1,1,-1,-1)$ $\lambda_2 = 1 - 4/3 \alpha$ $v_3 = (1,-1,1,-1)$ $\lambda_3 = 1 - 4/3 \alpha$ $v_4 = (1,-1,-1,1)$ $\lambda_4 = 1 - 4/3 \alpha$

Check by multiplying Mv_i for each i.

<u>Theorem</u>: If v is an eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ , then for any scalar c, cv is also an eigenvector of A with the same eigenvalue λ , i.e.,

If $Av = \lambda v$, then

$$A(cv) = cAv = c \lambda v = \lambda(cv)$$

Theorem: Let A be a $n \times n$ matrix with n eigenvectors v_1 , v_2 , ..., v_n , whose corresponding eigenvalues are λ_1 , λ_2 , ..., λ_n .

Let these *n* eigenvectors form columns of the matrix S.

If S has an inverse, then any vector can be written as a sum of column eigenvectors. Expressing initial eigenvector as

$$x_0 = c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + ... + c_n v_n$$
 Then, $x_1 = A \ x_0 = A(c_1 v_1 + c_2 v_2 + ... + c_n v_n)$
$$= c_1 A v_1 + c_2 A v_2 + ... + c_n A v_n$$

$$= c_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + ... + c_n \lambda_n v_n$$

$$x_2 = A x_1 = A(c_1 \lambda_1 v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 v_2 + ... + c_n \lambda_n v_n)$$

$$= c_1 \lambda_1 A v_1 + c_2 \lambda_2 A v_2 + ... + c_n \lambda_n A v_n$$

$$= c_1 (\lambda_1)^2 v_1 + c_2 (\lambda_2)^2 v_2 + ... + c_n (\lambda_n)^2 v_n$$

And so on, we obtain

$$x_t = c_1(\lambda_1)^t v_1 + c_2(\lambda_2)^t v_2 + ... + c_n(\lambda_n)^t v_n$$

To find all entries of M^t: Let's first focus on the first column of M^t, which can be isolated by taking the product

$$M^{t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \text{first column of } M^{t}$$

Expressing (1,0,0,0) in terms of the eigenvectors:

$$(1,0,0,0) = \frac{1}{4}v_1 + \frac{1}{4}v_2 + \frac{1}{4}v_3 + \frac{1}{4}v_4$$

$$M^{t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{4} M^{t} \mathbf{v}_{1} + \frac{1}{4} M^{t} \mathbf{v}_{2} + \frac{1}{4} M^{t} \mathbf{v}_{3} + \frac{1}{4} M^{t} \mathbf{v}_{4}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} 1^{t} v_{1} + \frac{1}{4} (1 - 4/3 \alpha)^{t} v_{2} + \frac{1}{4} (1 - 4/3 \alpha)^{t} v_{3} + \frac{1}{4} (1 - 4/3 \alpha)^{t} v_{4}$$

Substituting in the vectors $\mathbf{v_i}$,

v1 = (1,1,1,1)
$$\lambda$$
1 = 1
v2 = (1,1,-1,-1) λ 2 = 1 - 4/3 α
v3 = (1,-1,1,-1) λ 3 = 1 - 4/3 α
v4 = (1,-1,-1,1) λ 4 = 1 - 4/3 α

$$M^{t} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3} \alpha \right)^{t} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3} \alpha \right)^{t} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3} \alpha \right)^{t} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3} \alpha \right)^{t} \end{pmatrix}$$

Other columns of M^t are found similarly:

$$M^{t} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} \\ \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} & \frac{1}{4} - \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t} \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: all diagonal entries (prob. of a base remaining unchanged) are identical, also all non-diagonal entries (prob. of a base undergoing substitution) are identical.

This formula for M^t is of the Jukes-Cantor form itself, with the Jukes-Cantor parameter being

$$\frac{3}{4} - \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t}$$

Ex-3: Can we now answer the question of the probability that a base A in ancestral sequence will have mutated to become a base T in the descendent sequence 100 timesteps later?

This is the (4,1) entry of M^{100} which is

$$\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{100}$$

Jukes-Cantor model is a <u>one-parameter</u> model of mutation,

- it depends on the single parameter α to specify the mutation.

Other models use several different parameters to specify mutation rates for several different types of mutations, e.g., Kimura 2-parameter and Kimura 3-parameter models

The Kimura Models

Kimura 2-parameter model allows for different rates for transitions (β) and transversions (γ).

If we assume these rates are independent of initial base, then off-diagonal entries of the transition matrix are given by:

$$M = egin{pmatrix} * & eta & \gamma & \gamma \ eta & * & \gamma & \gamma \ \gamma & \gamma & * & eta \ \gamma & \gamma & eta & * \end{pmatrix}$$

Since the columns sum to 1, this means all the diagonal entries must be $1 - \beta - 2\gamma$.

The Kimura Models

Kimura 3-parameter model assumes a transition matrix of the form

$$M = egin{pmatrix} * & eta & \gamma & \delta \ eta & * & \delta & \gamma \ \gamma & \delta & * & eta \ \delta & \gamma & eta & * \end{pmatrix}$$

The equilibrium base distribution vector

$$p_0 = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$$

is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1 for <u>both</u> Kimura 2and 3- parameter models, i.e., sequences evolving according to these models have uniform base distribution at all times.

With a model of DNA mutations, we can better understand how to relate the amount of mutation that we observe in comparing an ancestral sequence and descendent sequence to the amount of mutation that must have actually occurred.

i.e., uncover the amount of hidden mutation that was obscured by subsequent mutations at the same site.

Considering Jukes-Cantor model of sequence mutation:

$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}(\alpha) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha & \alpha/3 \\ \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & \alpha/3 & 1 - \alpha \end{pmatrix}$$

Compute the entries of M^t for t = 0, 1, 2, 3, ...

Diagonal entries of M^t – probability of observing no change at a site are

$$\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t}$$

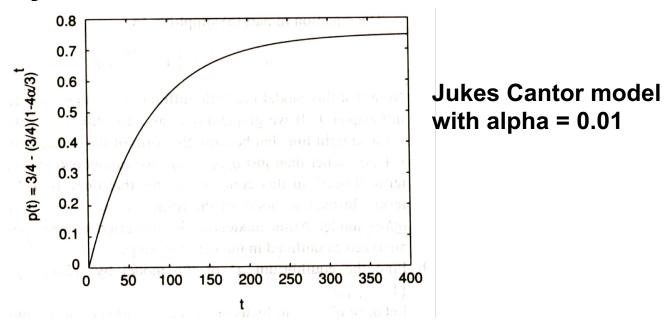
Fraction of sites that agreed with their initial base are given by

$$q(t) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3} \alpha \right)^{t}$$

Fraction of sites that are different will be

$$p(t) = 1 - q(t) = \frac{3}{4} - \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t}$$

Fraction of sites that differ from original base gradually increases with t, approaching the value $\frac{3}{4}$, and never exceeds $\frac{3}{4}$. Why?



Q. Even if so much mutation has occurred that the two sequences appear to be completely unrelated, you would expect to find agreement at 1/4 of the sites. Why?

For each time t, p(t) has a different value, i.e., given any value $0 \le p \le 3/4$, we can find a t with p(t) = p, corresponding to the proportion of sites that differ between two sequences

 \Rightarrow We should be able to recover the number of elapsed time steps (assuming we know α)

For real sequence data, p is easily estimated, although the elapsed time t and the mutation rate α usually are not known.

Recovering them from data is our goal.

Suppose we have records of an original DNA sequence and a mutated version of it at a later time, but do not know either the mutation rate α nor the number of elapsed time steps t.

- we can estimate p = p(t) by comparing the two sequences and using the proportion of sites that disagree in the two sequences as an estimate.
- if the original & mutated sequences are ATTGAC and ATGGCC, our estimate is

$$p(t) = 2/6 = 0.333$$

With p = p(t) estimated, how do we recover information on the mutation rate α and the amount of elapsed time t?

$$p(t) = \frac{3}{4} - \frac{3}{4} \left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\alpha\right)^{t}$$

Solving for
$$t$$
,
$$t = \frac{\ln(1-4/3\,p)}{\ln(1-4/3\,\alpha)}$$

Note: Choice of a step size for time in formulating our model affects both the value of mutation rate α , and the elapsed time between ancestor and descendent.

We cannot really expect to recover both of these.

Product of the two does have a meaning which is more intrinsic to what we are modeling:

- $d = t\alpha$ = (no. of time steps)(mutation rate)
- = (no. of time steps)(no. of substitutions per site/time step)
- = (expected no. of substitutions per site during the elapsed time)

$$\ln(1-\frac{4}{3}\alpha)\approx -\frac{4}{3}\alpha \qquad t\approx \frac{\ln(1-4/3p)}{-4/3\alpha}\approx -\frac{3}{4\alpha}\ln\left(1-\frac{4}{3}p\right)$$

$$d = t\alpha \approx -\frac{3}{4}\ln\left(1-\frac{4}{3}p\right)$$

Using the approximation $ln(1+x) \sim x$, for small x

Jukes-Cantor distance between DNA sequences S_0 & S_1 is defined as

$$d_{\rm JC}(S_0,S_1)=t\alpha\approx-\frac{3}{4}\ln\left(1-\frac{4}{3}p\right)$$

p - fraction of sites that disagree in comparing S₀ & S₁

Provided that Jukes-Cantor model accurately describes the evolution of one sequence into another, it is an estimate of the total number of substitutions per site that occurred during the evolution

"Distance" here is an abstract notion of how different two sequences are because of mutations

Ex: If between two 40-base sequence 11 sites have undergone a substitution, then p = 11/40 = 0.275

$$d_{\rm JC}(S_0,S_1) = -\frac{3}{4}\ln\left(1 - \frac{4}{3}\frac{11}{40}\right) \approx .3426$$

while we observe .275 substitutions per site, we estimate that in the course of evolution 0.3426 substitutions per site occurred

- Hidden mutations account for the difference.

If molecular clock hypothesis <u>holds</u>, distance computed is proportional to the amount of elapsed time; the constant of proportionality being the <u>mutation rate</u>

⇒ the distance can be thought of as a measure of how much time was required for one sequence to mutate into the other.

If molecular clock hypothesis <u>does not</u> hold, it is still a reconstruction of the average number of substitutions that occurred at any one site.

- the larger it is, greater the evolutionary change

If there is some other data (such as geological record) suggesting the time evolved, then the mutation rate can be found from d_{JC} .

- this is one way that real DNA mutation rates are estimated.

For e.g., if t = 10Myrs by some geological records, then $d = t\alpha = 10^7 \text{ x } \alpha = 0.33 \text{ (from } d_{JC})$ $\Rightarrow \qquad \alpha = 0.33 \text{ x } 10^{-7}$

The Kimura distances

For Kimura 3-parameter model,

$$d_{K3} = -\frac{1}{4}(\ln(1-2\beta-2\gamma) + \ln(1-2\beta-2\delta) + \ln(1-2\gamma-2\delta))$$

If $\gamma = \delta$, this expression gives the distance for the Kimura 2-parameter model, with β being the probability of transition and $\gamma + \delta = 2\gamma$, the probability of transversion.

If from sequence data we estimate probability of transition as p₁ and transversion as p₂

$$d_{K2} = -\frac{1}{2}\ln(1-2p_1-p_2)-\frac{1}{4}\ln(1-2p_2)$$

References

- Mathematical Models in Biology: An Introduction, E.S. Allman and J.A. Rhodes
- Bioinformatics Sequence & Genome Analysis, David W. Mount
- Biological Sequence Analysis, Probabilistic Models of Proteins and Nucleic Acids, R. Durbin, S.R. Eddy, A. Keoghs and G. Mitchison