



COMP90014

Algorithms for Bioinformatics Week 5B - Evolutionary Trees II

Evolutionary Trees II

Recap

Distance vs Character methods

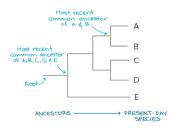
Evaluating trees (character methods)

- Fitch algorithm
- Sankoff algorithm

Building trees (character methods)

- Heuristics
- Reliability

Phylogenetics



Taxonomy: the science of classifying organisms

Phylogenetics: describes the evolutionary relationship between species

Speciation: A population of organisms becomes separated.

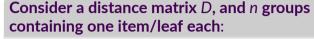
Over time, these evolve into separate species that do not cross-breed.

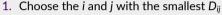
How many different trees can we construct with *n* sequences?

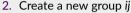
9	Sequences	Unrooted trees		
_	3 4	1 3	Unrooted:	$\prod_{i=3}^{n} (2i-5)$
	5	15		1=3
_	10	> 2 000 000		
Root R	A B C D	Internal node C B Expression of the control of th	Rooted:	(more or less?)

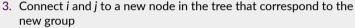
- enumerating all possible trees to find the best one is not feasible
- optimisation approach:
 - which tree minimises number of changes needed to explain data (parsimony)?
 - which minimises the distance between taxa?

UPGMA algorithm









4. Set the branch length to
$$\frac{D_{ij}}{2}$$
 (ultrametric)

5. Calculate the distance between the group and all existing groups $(n_i = \text{number of elements})$:

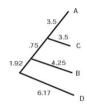
$$D_{(ij),k} = (\frac{n_i}{n_i + n_j})D_{ik} + (\frac{n_j}{n_i + n_j})D_{jk}$$

- 6. Replace the *i* and *j* columns with the new group
- 7. If there is only one item left stop, otherwise go to 1



Example

	ABC	D
ABC	0	
D	12.33	0



- UPGMA assumes that the rates of evolution are the same among different items
- We don't use this method for phylogenetic tree reconstruction (unless we believe the assumption...!)

UPGMA algorithm

- 1. Choose smallest D_{ij}
- 2. Create a new group ij
- 3. Set the branch length to $\frac{D_{ij}}{2}$
- 4. Update distance matrix
- 5. Replace the *i* and *j* columns with the new group

Neighbour joining algorithm

$$u_i = \sum_{i:i \neq i}^n \frac{D_{ij}}{n-2}$$



$$v_i = \frac{1}{2}D_{ij} + \frac{1}{2}(u_i - u_j)$$

$$v_j = \frac{1}{2}D_{ij} + \frac{1}{2}(u_j - u_i)$$



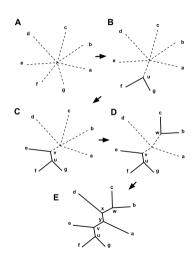
$$D_{(ij)k} = \frac{D_{ik} + D_{jk} - D_{ij}}{2}$$

Consider a distance matrix D:

- 1. Calculate the "average" distance to other nodes/clusters for each leaf
- 2. Choose *i* and *j* to minimize $D_{ij} u_i u_j$ (Nodes that are close to each other, and far from everything else)
- 3. Join i and j to create a new node (i,j) and calculate the new branch lengths
- 4. Compute distance between leaves and the new group
- 5. Replace the i and j leaves with the new node (i,j)
- 6. Continue until two nodes remain



Neighbour joining, graphically



- 1. begin with a star tree
- 2. minimise $D_{ij} u_i u_j$
- 3. resolve pairs
- 4. update distance matrices
- 5. go to 2
- neighbour joining does not assume all sequences evolve at the same rate

Evolutionary Trees II

Recap

Distance vs Character methods

Evaluating trees (character methods)

- Fitch algorithm
- Sankoff algorithm

Building trees (character methods)

- Heuristics
- Reliability

Phylogeny reconstruction algorithms

Two types of reconstruction:

Distance-based

- A tree is built based on the distance between items
- Closer taxa should be more evolutionarily related
- UPGMA
- neighbour-joining

Character-based

- Every taxon is described by a number of characters
 - e.g. number of fingers, protein sequence.
- each has a finite number of states.
- Goal: build the tree that best explains the character matrix
 - Optimise a objective function
- Maximum Parsimony
- Maximum Likelihood

Distance-based methods

Advantages

- simple
- flexible
- fast and scalable

Limitations

- sensitive to distance method
- evolutionary rates are not estimated
- no measure of uncertainty for the tree obtained

Phylogeny reconstruction algorithms

这类算法不直接使用物种之间的距离来构建树,而是根据物种的多种特征来描述每一个类群 (taxon)。包括物种的形态特征,如手指数量,或分子特征,如蛋白质序列。

Two types of reconstruction:

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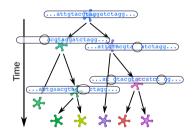
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最大简约法(Maximum Parsimony),尽量选择最简单的解释方案,即产生最少进化改变的树。 最大似然法(Maximum Likelihood),根据特定的进化模型,找到使得观察到的数据出现概率最 大的树。

简约性方法 Parsimony methods

L(T)表示树T所需的最少替代 (substitutions)次数来解释 所有的数据。



该树的L(T)最小化,即通过最少的替换次数就能解释这些序列之间的差异。

Thibaut Jombart, Introduction to phylogenetics

Parsimony: simpler is better. See Occam's razor.

♠ i.e. build the tree with the fewest point mutations

Parsimony length/score

 \not (T) is the minimum number of substitutions required to explain tree T.

Assumption

- characters are independent
- so are the changes in different columns (species)

Parsimony problem

compute a phylogenetic tree T for a set of sequences that minimizes L(T)

Computational problems

Small parsimony

- given a tree T with each leaf labeled by a sequence, calculate the parsimony length L(T) and the corresponding labeling of internal nodes
- evaluating a tree is easy:
 - Fitch's algorithm
 - Sankoff's algorithm

Large (maximum) parsimony

- given the character matrix M, compute the most parsimonious tree for M
- NP-hard: enumerating trees is intractable
- alternatives:
 - heuristics
 - branch and bound

Evolutionary Trees II

Recap

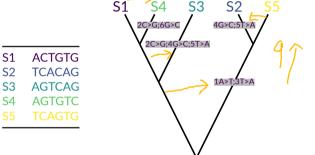
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Building trees (character methods)

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- Reliability



Label internal nodes, e.g. Hamming distance (number of changes)

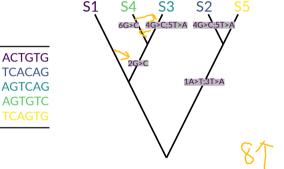
A candidate tree:

- \blacktriangle L(T) = 9 changes
- ♣ How can we make this tree more parsimonious?

A better tree:

L(T) = 8 changes

An equally good tree:



S1

♣ Label internal nodes, e.g. Hamming distance (number of changes)

A candidate tree:

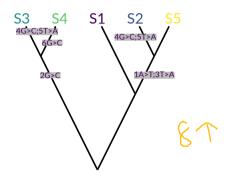
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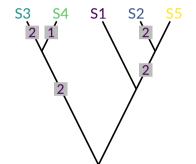
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 $\perp L(T) = 8$ changes

An equally good tree:



S1

ACTGTG

TCACAG

AGTCAG AGTGTC Label internal nodes, e.g. Hamming distance (number of changes)

A candidate tree:

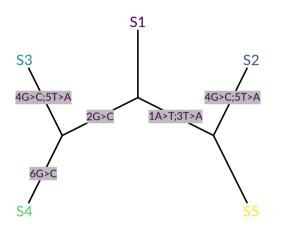
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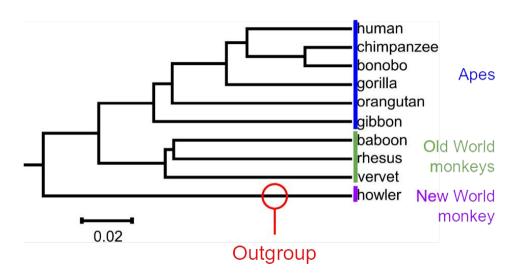
An equally good tree:

Rooted or unrooted trees



- ♦ both trees with L(T) = 8 are the same when unrooted
- the root can be placed on any branch

Rooting a tree: outgroups



Small parsimony: computational problems

Small parsimony

- \clubsuit given a tree T, calculate L(T)
- for small trees we can calculate by hand
- impractical for larger trees with many leaves

Algorithmically:

- iterate over positions in the alignment
- at each position, find internal nodes that require a mutation to explain the data found in the children

Fitch algorithm

- dynamic programming
- compute parsimony score for a column of the sequence alignment
- repeat the process for each column
- substitutions have the same cost

Sankoff algorithm

- dynamic programming
- allows us to calculate the cost of changes in a given tree

Evolutionary Trees II

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Fitch algorithm

Input: a phylogenetic tree T

- *♣ n* nodes
- ♠ a single character column c with a set A of k possible values
- \blacktriangle denote the value of the character for node v by v_c .

Step 1: Assign to each node v a set $S_v \in A$ as follows:

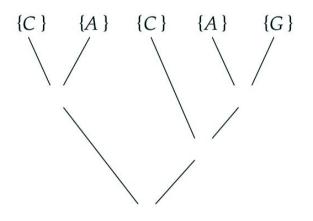
- For each leaf v: $S_v = \{v_c\}$
- ♣ For any internal node v, with children u, w:

$$S_{v} = \{S_{u} \cap S_{w} \text{ if } S_{u} \cap S_{w} \neq 0$$
$$S_{u} \cup S_{w} \text{ otherwise}\}$$

♠ Compute S_v with postorder tree traversal – starting with the leaves

Step 2: Traverse tree in preorder, to determine the value v_c to assign to each internal node v

♣ The number of changes in this tree is equal to the number of times $S_u \cap S_w = 0$

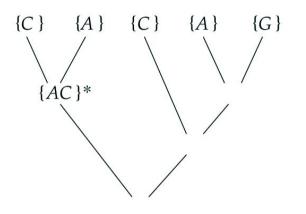


For each leaf v:

$$S_v = \{v_c\}$$

$$S_v = \{S_u \cap S_w \text{ if } S_u \cap S_w \neq 0 \ S_u \cup S_w \text{ otherwise} \}$$

- ♠ L(T) = 3
- Repeat the process for each column
- ♠ Changes have the same cost

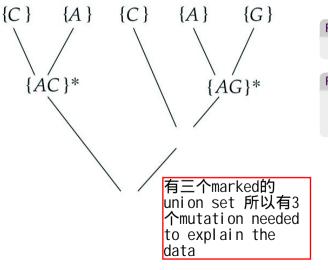


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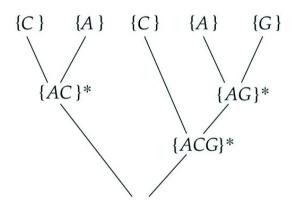


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- **♠** Changes have the same cost

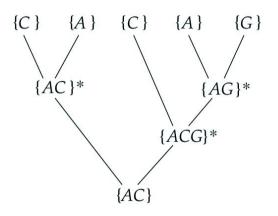


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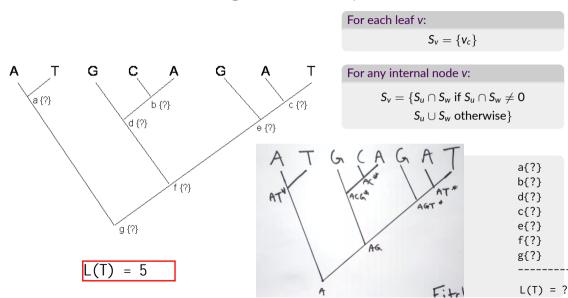


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Sankoff algorithm

Count the smallest number of possible (weighted) changes needed on a given tree

Cost for the leaves

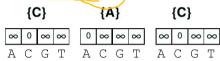
- ♠ 0 for the observed letter
- infinity otherwise

Calculate costs for internal nodes

for each node, compute the minimum cost S_a for each character i to occur at that node

Use a cost matrix

- we used a fixed cost for Fitch's algorithm
- for Sankoff, we use a cost matrix



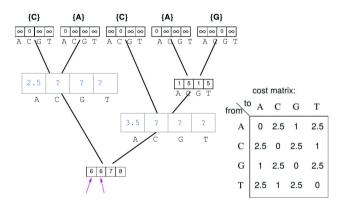
$$S_a(i) = \min[c_{ij} + S_L(j)] + \min[c_{ik} + S_R(k)]$$

- ▲ L and R are left and right children nodes
- c_{ij} is the cost for changing from state i to j

编辑距离:编辑距离是衡量两条序列相似性的一个指标,它代表将一条序列变成另一条序列所需的最少编辑操作数(如插入、删除或替换)。 代价矩阵:代价矩阵是一个表格,描述了各种编辑操作的代价。 Sankoff算法用于计算两条或多条RNA序列及其二级结构之间的最 小编辑距离,并输出最优比对结果。这一过程是通过动态规划完 成的,其中每个子问题都是比对序列的一个小段,并考虑其二级 结构。

Sankoff example

$$A=\min[0,\cdot,\cdot,\cdot]+\min[\cdot,\cdot,1,\cdot]=0+1=1$$



 S_i ?

$$i = A$$

 $j = A, C, G, T$
 $k = A, C, G, T$

$$S_{a}(i) = \min[c_{ij} + S_{L}(j)] + \min[c_{ik} + S_{R}(k)]$$

Limitation: implicitly assumes that rate of change along branches is similar

$$L(T) = 6$$

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Parsimony: computational problems

这张幻灯片讨论了在系统发育分析中寻找最简约树(即反映物种关系最少变化的树)时遇到的计算问题。

- ♠ we know how to score a tree for parsimony (*small parsimony*)
- ♠ how can we find the best tree?

(large/maximum parsimony)

optimization problem
 enumerating trees is unfeasible

 O(n!): factorial growth with the number of leaves (e.g. sequences)

not feasible to score all of them

heuristic approach

• tree searching methods

Sequences	Unrooted trees		
3	1		
4	3		
5	15		
10	> 2000000		

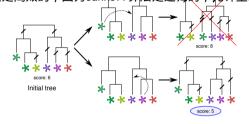
枚举树的不可行性:理论上,我们可以通过计算所有可能的树并为每棵树打分来找到最简约的树。但是,这在计算上是不可行的,因为可能的树的数量随序列的数量呈阶乘增长(0(n!))。这意味着即使是少量的序列也会产生大量可能的树,例如10个序列就有超过200万种不同的未根树。

不可行的评分所有树:由于可能的树的数量如此之多,因此不可能 为所有可能的树打分以找到得分最高的那棵

Exploring tree space

顺序/分步添加(sequential/stepwise addition):这个过程涉及逐步添加物种或序列来构建系统发育树,并尝试找到最佳解。

树枝交换方法(branch swapping methods):此方法包括通过断开和重新连接树枝来重新排列树。这个过程是高效的,因为Sankoff算法是递归的,允许重新评分一个树结构,而不需要重新计算整个



Exact methods

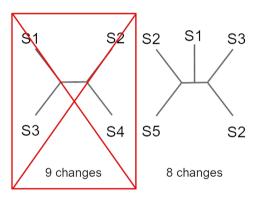
- exhaustive search
- branch and bound algorithms
 - reduce search space
 - eliminate candidate solutions that will not reach an optimal solution

Heuristics

- sequential/stepwise addition
- branch swapping methods
 - we can rearrange trees by breaking and reattaching branches
 - efficient to re-score because Sankoff algorithm is recursive

穷举搜索(exhaustive search):这是一种尝试所有可能解的方法,以找到最佳系统发育树。分支限界算法(branch and bg法通过减少搜索空间,的原形些不会达到最优解,提高了搜索的效率。

Branch and bound



- ♠ this was our best five-tip tree L(T) = 8 (8 changes)
- once we find that, we don't have to look at trees based on the four-tip tree with 9 changes
- reduces search space
- always finds the optimal

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Heuristic: branch Swapping

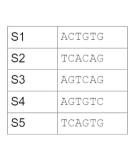
NNI: nearest neighbour interchanges

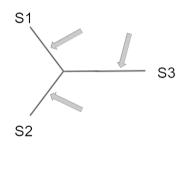
SPR: subtree pruning and regrafting

TBR: tree bisection and reconnection

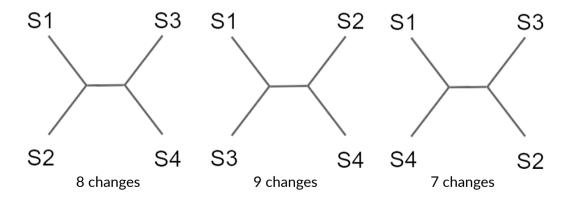
Heuristic: sequential addition

- assume the tree is unrooted for simplicity
- we can add S4 in three places

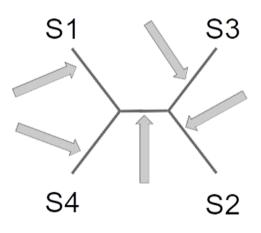




Heuristic: sequential addition



Heuristic: sequential addition



- prioritise the best four-tip tree
- add S5 in five places
- score each of those trees
- shortcuts: don't recompute unchanged nodes
- ♠ continue until we find the best tree
- **a** greedy approach

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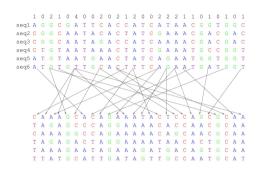
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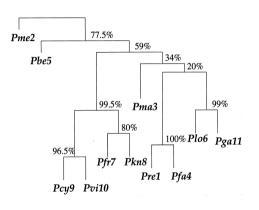
Bootstrapping





- general approach: assess accuracy of an estimator using simulated data
- re-sample columns in an alignment of sequences to create new alignments
- re-apply the same phylogeny reconstruction method

Bootstrapping



- repeat bootstrapping (at least 100 times)
- count occurrence of nodes in bootstrap trees
- ♣ if we see the branching point often, it is more reliable
- ♣ rule of thumb: accept bootstrap values from 90-100%





Thank you!

Today: Evolutionary Trees II

Next time: Genomic Features & Regions