



Melbourne Bioinformatics

BIOINFORMATICS + DATA SERVICES + INFRASTRUCTURE, FOR LIFE SCIENCES TODAY



COMP90014

Algorithms for Bioinformatics

Week 5B - Evolutionary Trees II

Evolutionary Trees II

Recap

Distance vs Character methods

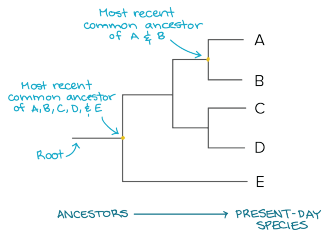
Evaluating trees (character methods)

- Fitch algorithm
- Sankoff algorithm

Building trees (character methods)

- Heuristics
- Reliability

Phylogenetics



Taxonomy: the science of classifying organisms

Phylogenetics: describes the evolutionary relationship between species

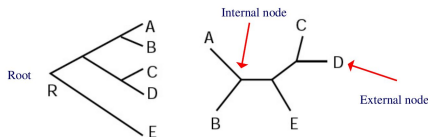
Speciation: A population of organisms becomes separated.

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

How many different trees can we construct with n sequences?

Sequences	Unrooted trees
3	1
4	3
5	15
10	$> 2\,000\,000$

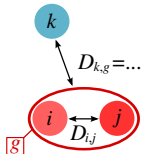
Unrooted: $\prod_{i=3}^n (2i - 5)$



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



Consider a distance matrix D , and n groups containing one item/leaf each:

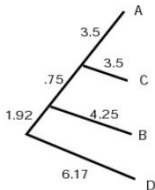
1. Choose the i and j with the smallest D_{ij}
2. Create a new group ij
3. Connect i and j to a new node in the tree that correspond to the new group
4. Set the branch length to $\frac{D_{ij}}{2}$ (ultrametric)
5. Calculate the distance between the group and all existing groups (n_i = number of elements):

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

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 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

- 🌲 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...!)

Neighbour joining algorithm

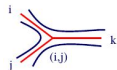
Consider a distance matrix D :

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



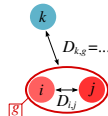
$$v_i = \frac{1}{2}D_{ij} + \frac{1}{2}(u_i - u_j)$$

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

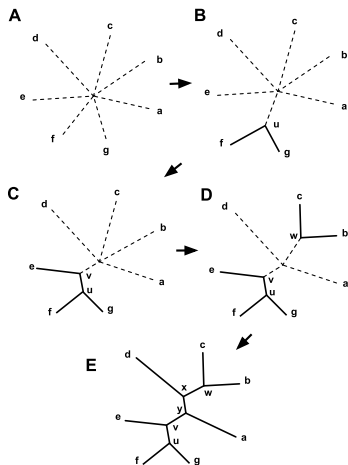


$$D_{(ij)k} = \frac{D_{ik} + D_{jk} - D_{ij}}{2}$$

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:

Distance-based

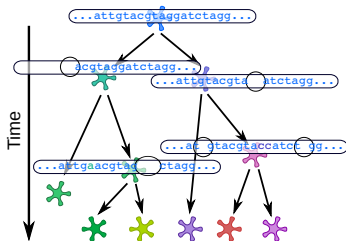
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Character-based

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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。

$L(T)$ 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。

Parsimony: simpler is better. See [Occam's razor](#).

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

Parsimony length/score

🌲 $L(T)$ 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

Distance vs Character methods

Evaluating trees (character methods)

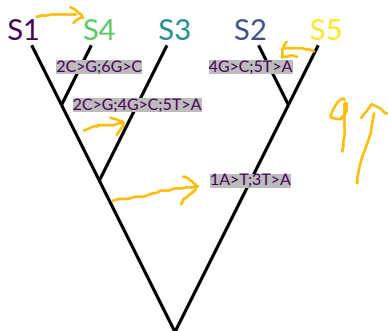
- Fitch algorithm
- Sankoff algorithm

Building trees (character methods)

- Heuristics
- Reliability

Evaluating trees

S1	ACTGTG
S2	TCACAG
S3	AGTCAG
S4	AGTGTC
S5	TCAGTG



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

A candidate tree:

- 🌲 $L(T) = 9$ changes
- 🌲 How can we make this tree more parsimonious?

A better tree:

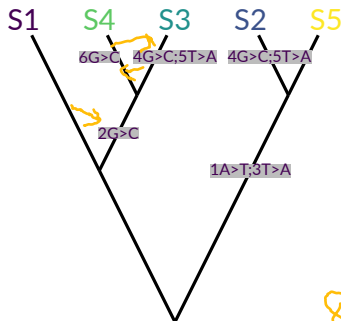
- 🌲 $L(T) = 8$ changes

An equally good tree:

- 🌲 $L(T) = 8$ changes

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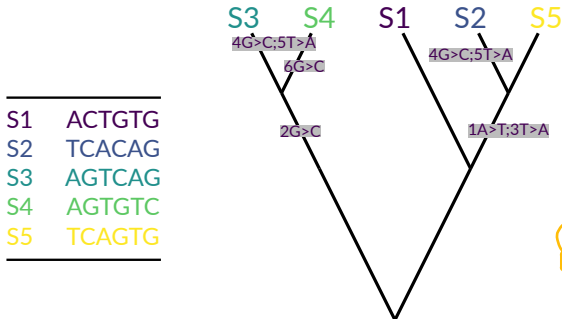
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An equally good tree:

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Evaluating trees



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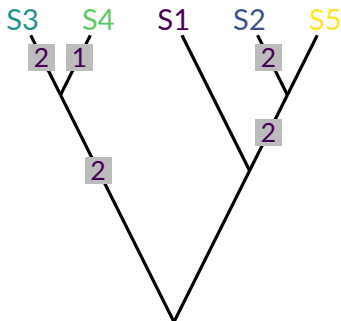
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Evaluating trees

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A candidate tree:

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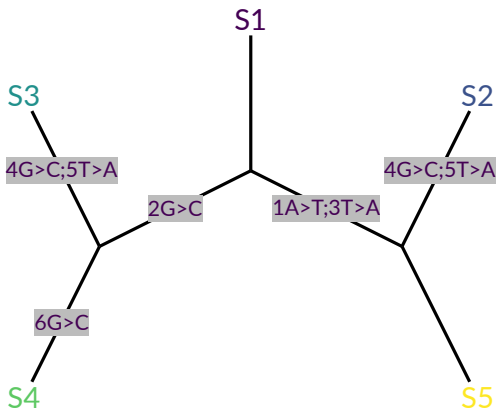
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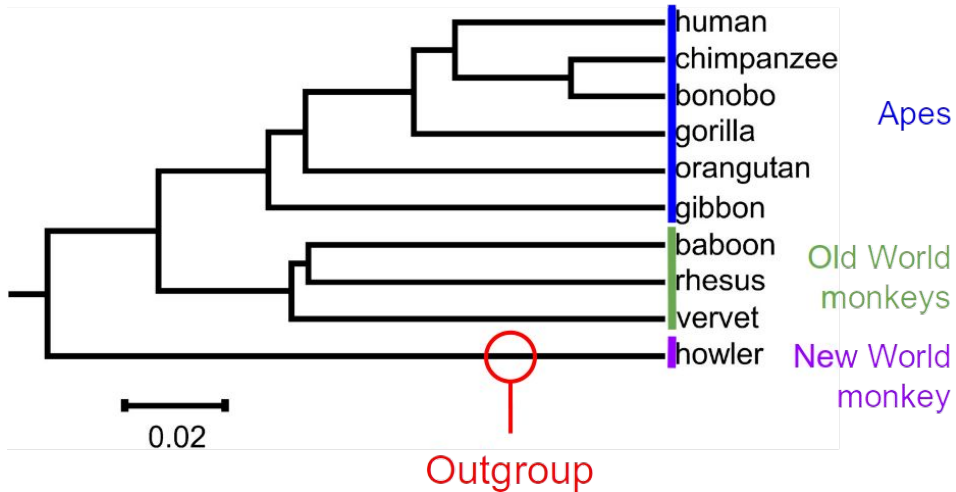
- 🌲 $L(T) = 8$ changes

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

- 🌲 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

Recap

Distance vs Character methods

Evaluating trees (character methods)

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Building trees (character methods)

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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
- 🌲 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 :

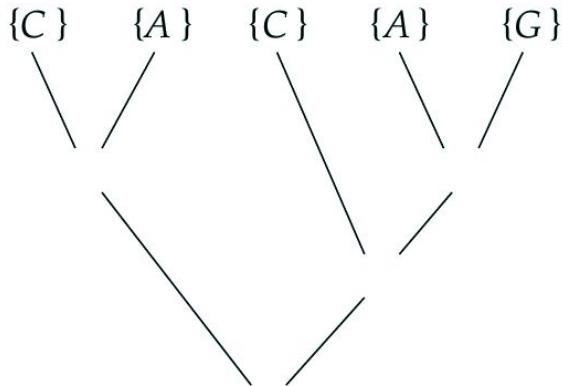
$$S_v = \begin{cases} S_u \cap S_w & \text{if } S_u \cap S_w \neq \emptyset \\ S_u \cup S_w & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- 🌲 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 $S_u \cap S_w = \emptyset$

Fitch algorithm: example 1



For each leaf v :

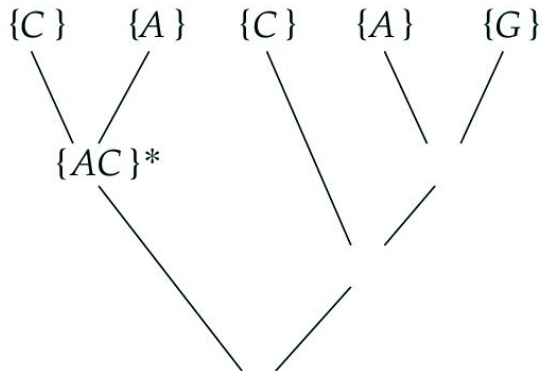
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- 🌲 $L(T) = 3$
- 🌲 Repeat the process for each column
- 🌲 Changes have the same cost

Fitch algorithm: example 1



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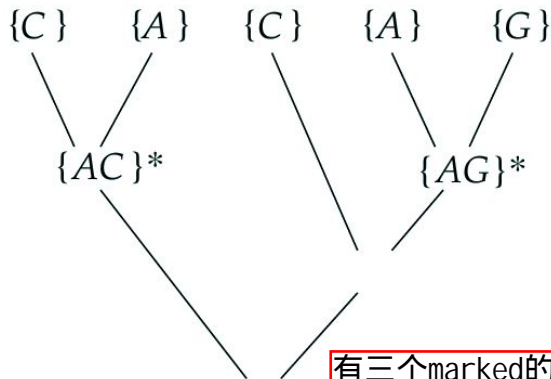
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- 🌲 $L(T) = 3$
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Fitch algorithm: example 1



有三个marked的
union set 所以有3
个mutation needed
to explain the
data

For each leaf v :

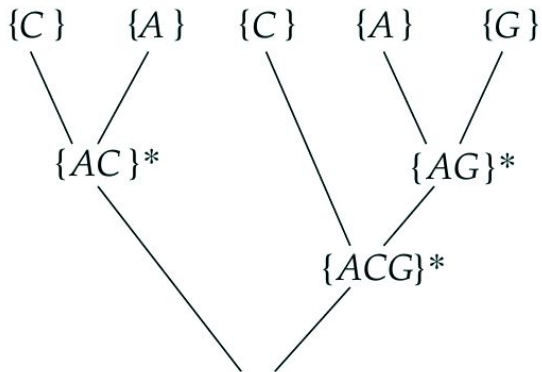
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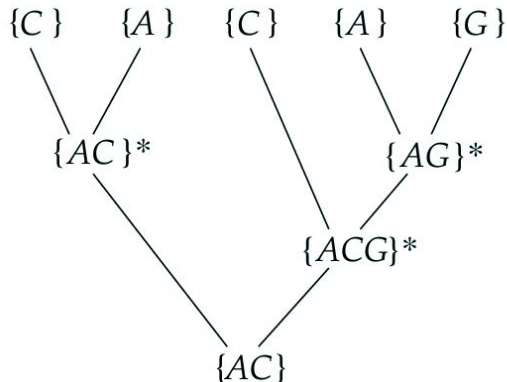
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Fitch algorithm: example 1



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🌲 $L(T) = 3$

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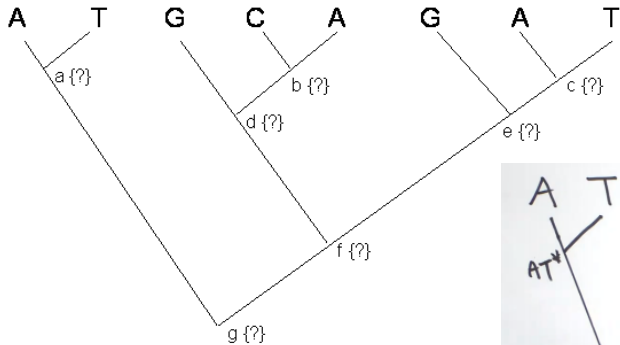
Fitch algorithm: example 2

For each leaf v :

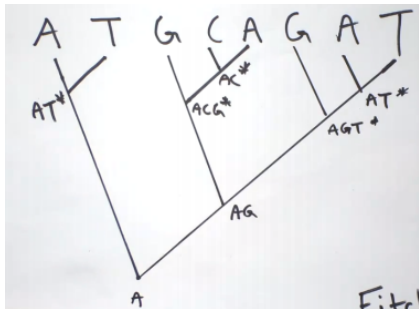
$$S_v = \{v_c\}$$

For any internal node v :

$$S_v = \begin{cases} S_u \cap S_w & \text{if } S_u \cap S_w \neq \emptyset \\ S_u \cup S_w & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



$$L(T) = 5$$



a{?}
b{?}
d{?}
c{?}
e{?}
f{?}
g{?}

 $L(T) = ?$

Evolutionary Trees II

Recap

Distance vs Character methods

Evaluating trees (character methods)

- Fitch algorithm
- Sankoff algorithm

Building trees (character methods)

- Heuristics
- Reliability

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

{C}

∞	0	∞	∞
----------	---	----------	----------

A C G T

{A}

0	∞	∞	∞
---	----------	----------	----------

A C G T

{C}

∞	0	∞	∞
----------	---	----------	----------

A C G T

Calculate costs for internal nodes

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

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

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

Use a cost matrix

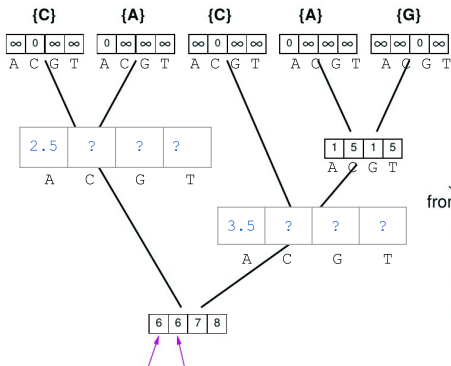
- 🌲 we used a fixed cost for Fitch's algorithm
- 🌲 for Sankoff, we use a cost matrix

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

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



cost matrix:

from \ to	A	C	G	T
A	0	2.5	1	2.5
C	2.5	0	2.5	1
G	1	2.5	0	2.5
T	2.5	1	2.5	0

$S_i?$

$i = A$

$j = A, C, G, T$

$k = A, C, G, T$

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

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

$$L(T) = 6$$

Evolutionary Trees II

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Distance vs Character methods

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Building trees (character methods)

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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	> 2 000 000

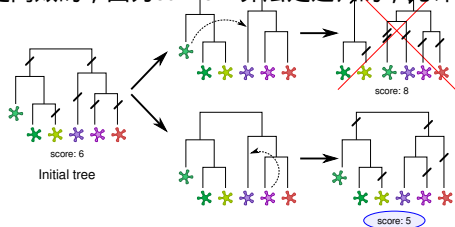
枚举树的不可行性：理论上，我们可以通过计算所有可能的树并为每棵树打分来找到最简约的树。但是，这在计算上是不可行的，因为可能的树的数量随序列的数量呈阶乘增长（ $O(n!)$ ）。这意味着即使是少量的序列也会产生大量可能的树，例如10个序列就有超过200万种不同的未根树。

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

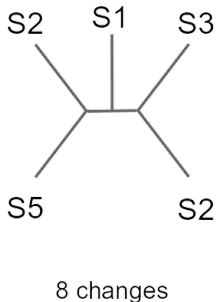
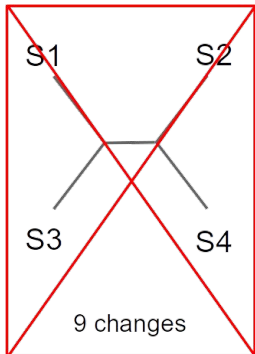
- 🌲 exhaustive search
- 🌲 branch and bound algorithms
 - reduce search space
 - eliminate candidate solutions that will not reach an optimal solution

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 bound algorithms) : 这个算法通过减少搜索空间, 消除那些不会达到最优解的候选解, 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

Evolutionary Trees II

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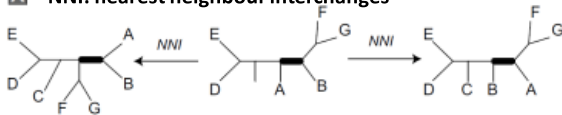
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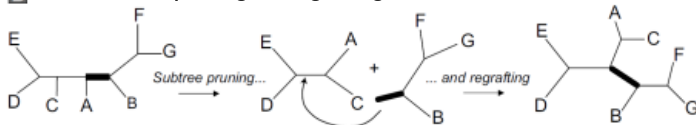
- Heuristics
- Reliability

Heuristic: branch Swapping

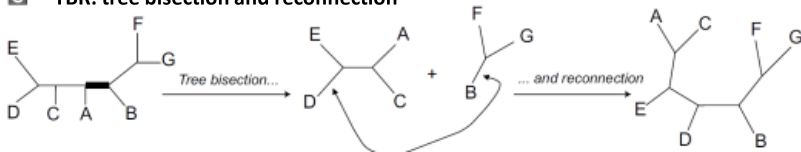
A NNI: nearest neighbour interchanges



B SPR: subtree pruning and regrafting



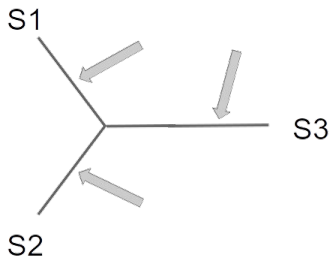
C TBR: tree bisection and reconnection



Heuristic: sequential addition

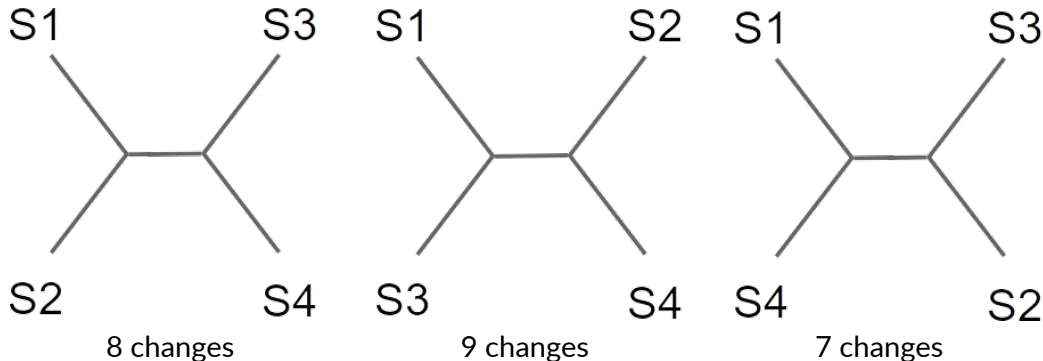
- assume the tree is unrooted for simplicity
- we can add S4 in three places

S1	ACTGTG
S2	TCACAG
S3	AGTCAG
S4	AGTGTC
S5	TCAGTG



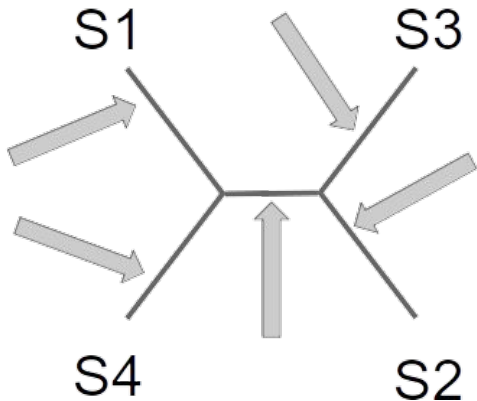
Heuristic: sequential addition

使用启发式方法中的顺序添加 (sequential addition) 来构建系统发育树的例子。在顺序添加方法中，我们逐步构建树，每次添加一个物种（或序列），并计算每次添加后树的变化数。目的是找到变化数最少的树，因为在许多系统发育分析中，变化数最少的树被认为是最符合数据的树。



右边的树以7次变化为最佳，因为它比其他两个选项所需的变化少。因此，在这种特定情况下，将S1和S4放在一起，而将S2作为一个分支添加到S4的路径上，

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
- 🌲 **greedy** approach

Evolutionary Trees II

Recap

Distance vs Character methods

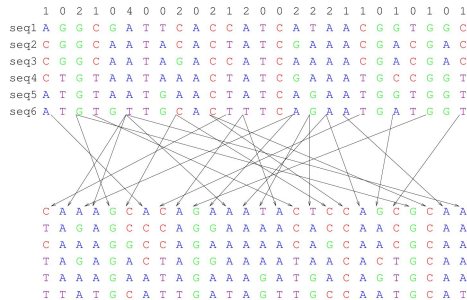
Evaluating trees (character methods)

- Fitch algorithm
- Sankoff algorithm

Building trees (character methods)

- Heuristics
- Reliability

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

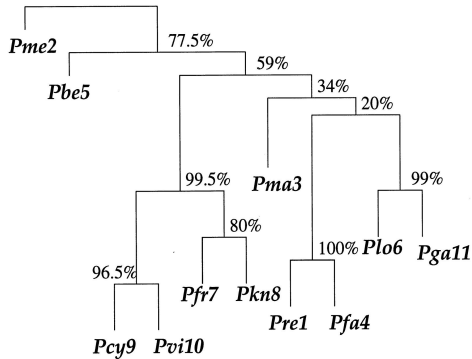
一般方法 (General approach) : 使用模拟数据评估估计量的准确性。在这里, 估计量通常是指构建出的系统发育树。

重新采样序列中的列 (Re-sample columns in an alignment of sequences) : 在一组序列比对中随机选取列 (也就是序列的位置), 并允许重复选择同一列, 从而创建新的序列比对。

重新应用相同的系统发育重建方法 (Re-apply the same phylogeny reconstruction method) : 使用新的序列比对, 重复系统发育树的构建过程。



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 %



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Thank you!

重复自助法（至少100次）（repeat bootstrapping (at least 100 times)）：这意味着进行至少100次自助重采样，以生成一定数量的系统发育树，以此来评估各个分支点的可信度。

计算节点在自助树中出现的次数（count occurrence of nodes in bootstrap trees）：通过统计每个节点（即分支点）在所有生成的自助树中出现的次数，可以得到每个节点的支持度。

如果经常看到分支点，它更可靠（if we see the branching point often, it is more reliable）：这说明如果一个分支点在多次自助法分析中经常出现，那么我们可以认为这个分支点是可靠的。

经验法则：接受自助值从90-100%（rule of thumb: accept bootstrap values from 90 – 100%）：这是一个通用的准则，建议接受那些支持值在90%到100%之间的分支点，因为这些值表示高可信度。

Today: Evolutionary Trees II

Next time: Genomic Features & Regions