

INTRODUCTION TO PHYLOGENETICS 2: TREE INFERENCE AND MODELING EVOLUTION

Today's Instructor



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Ongoing Computational Biology projects:

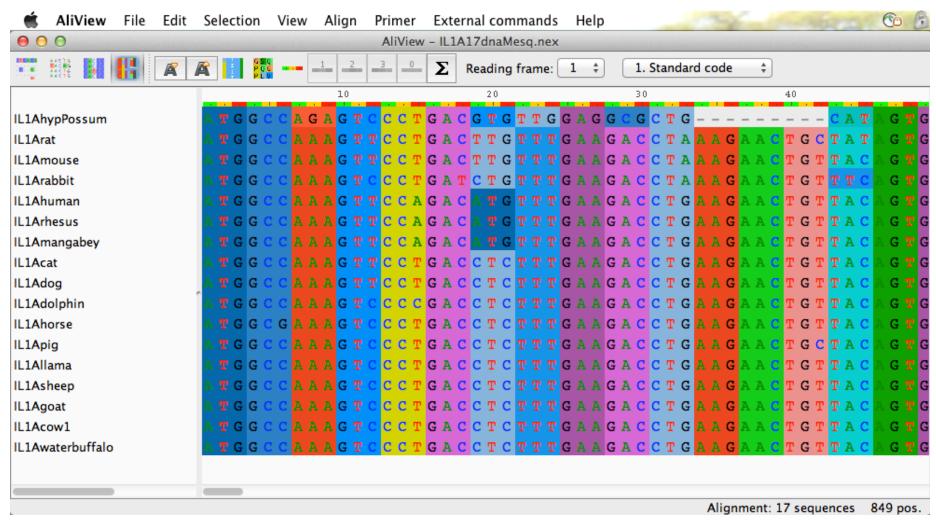
- Hepatitis B molecular evolution
- CLAG protein family evolution

- Bioinformatics and Computational Biosciences Branch (BCBB), NIAID
- National Institutes of Health, Bethesda, MD USA.
- Contact our team via email:
 - Email: bioinformatics@niaid.nih.gov
 - Instructor: <u>kurt.wollenberg@nih.gov</u>

Class Materials

- Directory on Uganda ACE server:
 - File directory: user@kla-ac-bio-03:/home/bcbb_teaching_files
 - Large data files
- NIAID github repository:
 - https://github.com/niaid/Principles-of-Sequence-Analysis-and-Phylogenetics
 - Code
 - Data files
 - Copies of lecture slides

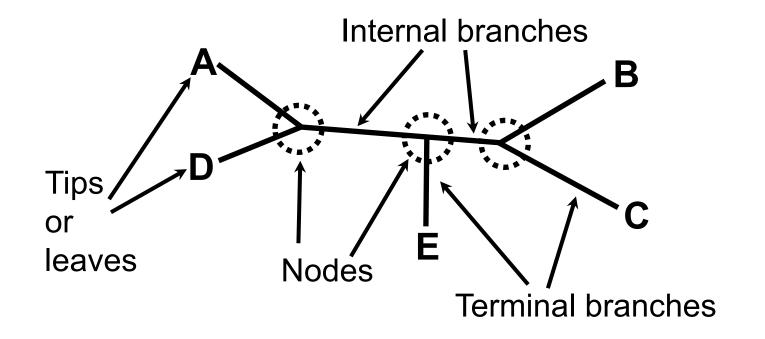
Multiple Sequence Alignment



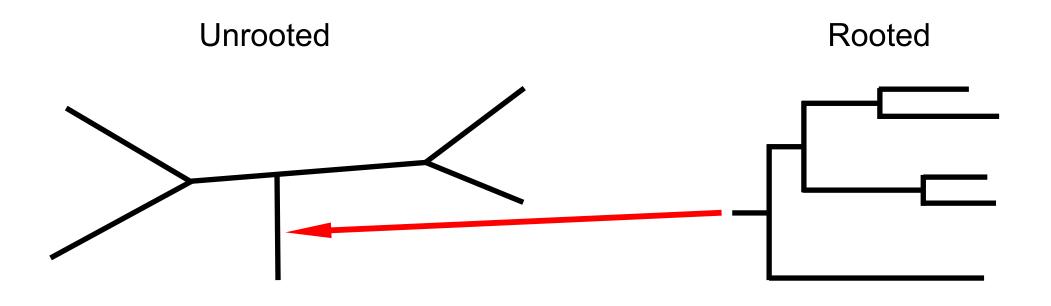
What is a phylogenetic tree?

- Reconstruction of biological history
- Based on similarities and differences among homologous attributes (characters) of the entities under scrutiny
- Molecular characters (sequences, usually) are most often found only in extant organisms

What is a phylogenetic tree?



What is a phylogenetic tree?



Two approaches to tree building

- Application of an algorithm to build the best tree from the data
- Evaluation of multiple possible best trees using an optimality criterion

The algorithm approach: Distance Methods

- Distance calculated based on a specific substitution model (J-C, Kimura, BLOSUM64, etc.)
- Distances from each sequence to all others are calculated and stored in a matrix
- Tree then calculated from the distance matrix using a specific treebuilding algorithm
- Neighbor Joining is the most commonly used algorithm

```
R/(N-2)
       0.1715 0.2147 0.3091
                                 0.2326
                                             0.9279
                                                    0.3093
                                             1.0163 0.3388
                  0.2991
                         0.3399
                                 0.2058
B -0.4766
                         0.2795
                                 0.3943
                                             1.1876 0.3959
C -0.4905 -0.4356
D -0.4527 -0.4514 -0.5689
                                 0.4289
                                            1.3574 0.4525
E = -0.4972 - 0.5535 - 0.4221 - 0.4441
                                             1.2616 0.4205
 C to Node 1 distance = 0.2795/2 + (0.3959 - 0.4525)/2 = 0.1114
  D to Node 1 distance = 0.2795 - 0.1114 = 0.1681
  A to Node 1 distance = (0.2147 + 0.3091 - 0.2795)/2 = 0.1222
  B to Node 1 distance = (0.2991 + 0.3399 - 0.2795)/2 = 0.1798
  E to Node 1 distance = (0.3943 + 0.4298 - 0.2795)/2 = 0.2719
```

```
A B E Node 1 R R/(N-2)
A - 0.1715 0.2326 0.1222 0.5263 0.2631
B -0.3701 - 0.2058 0.1798 0.5571 0.2785
E -0.3856 -0.4278 - 0.2719 0.7103 0.3551
Node 1 -0.4278 -0.3856 -0.3701 - 0.5739 0.2869
```

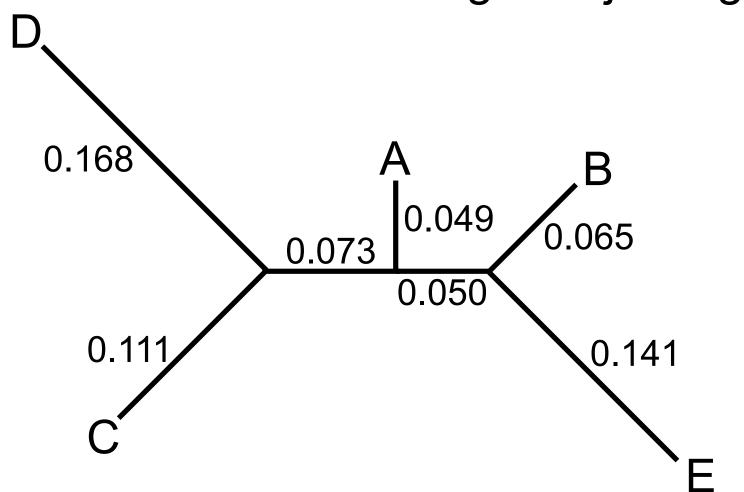
```
A to Node 2 distance = 0.1222/2 + (0.2631 - 0.2869)/2 = 0.0492

Node 1 to Node 2 distance = 0.1222 - 0.0492 = 0.0730

B to Node 2 distance = (0.1715 + 0.1798 - 0.1222)/2 = 0.1146

E to Node 2 distance = (0.2326 + 0.2719 - 0.1222)/2 = 0.1912
```

```
B to Node 3 distance = 0.1146/2 + (0.3204 - 0.3058)/2 = 0.0646
Node 2 to Node 3 distance = 0.1146 - 0.0646 = 0.0500
E to Node 3 distance = (0.2058 \ 0.1912 - 0.1146)/2 = 0.1412
```



The optimality criterion approach

- Build a tree or trees
- Evaluate the tree(s) using a specific numerical optimality criterion
- Most common optimality criteria
 - Maximum parsimony
 - Maximum likelihood
- Explore tree space to find the optimal tree

Optimality Criterion: Parsimony

Occam's Razor: The simplest explanation is the preferred explanation.

The tree requiring the minimal number of changes is the optimal tree.

A step is any change in the data from one state to another.

Optimality Criterion: Maximum Likelihood

The tree score is the logarithm of the likelihood of the tree.

The likelihood of the tree is the probability of the data given the tree structure.

 $L(Tree) = Prob(Data|Tree) = \prod_{i}Prob(Data^{(i)}|Tree)$

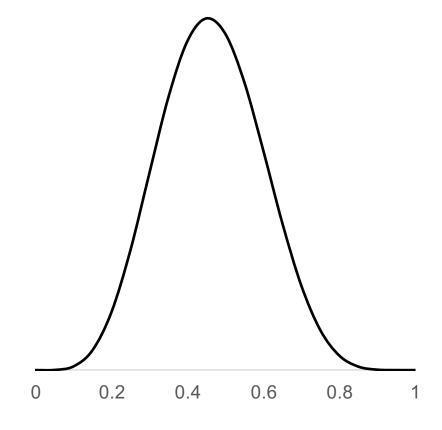
Maximum Likelihood: a review

Consider a series of independent events, such as tossing a coin. For a sequence of tosses such as HHTTHTHHTTT we can calculate the probability of the data, which is the likelihood of the data given the underlying probability of the event

L= Prob(Data|p) = $p^5(1-p)^6$

Maximum Likelihood: a review

Likelihood curve for HHTTHTHTTT



L= Prob(Data|p) = $p^5(1-p)^6$

Maximum Likelihood: a review

This curve has an obvious maximum value. We can calculate it (the maximum likelihood estimate of p, the probability of Heads given this series of flips) from $\frac{dL}{dp} = 0$ but using log-likelihoods (*InL*) simplifies the math

$$L = p^5(1-p)^6$$
; $\ln L = 5 \ln p + 6 \ln(1-p)$

$$\frac{d(\ln L)}{dp} = \frac{5}{p} - \frac{6}{(1-p)} = 0 \text{ giving } \hat{p} = \frac{5}{11} = 0.4545$$



The optimality criterion approach

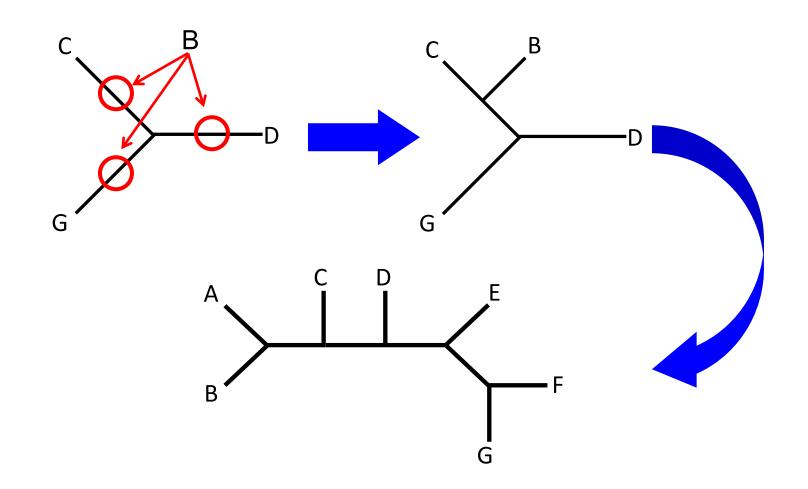
- Build the initial tree
 - Construct a neighbor-joining tree
 - Stepwise addition
- Calculate the tree score
 - Count steps (parsimony)
 - Calculate likelihood of the data given the tree
- Explore tree space
 - Branch swapping
 - Tree bisection and reconnection (TBR)
- Is this the best tree? (Stopping criteria)

The optimality criterion approach

Building the initial tree

- Stepwise addition
 - Choose three taxa and join
 - Random, or closest
- Select a new taxon to add
- Calculate the optimal 4-taxa tree
- Repeat until all taxa are joined

The optimality criterion approach

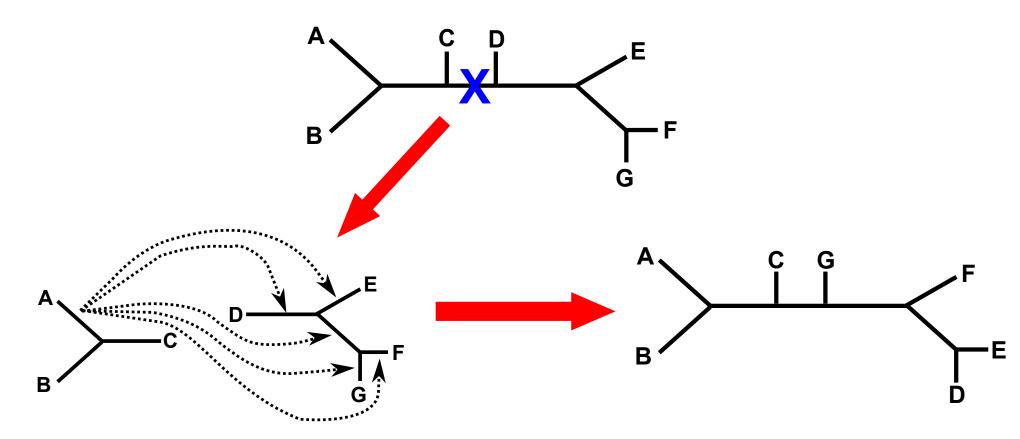


The optimality criterion approach

Exploring tree space: Branch swapping

- Nearest neighbor interchange
- Subtree pruning and regrafting
- Tree bisection and reconnection

The optimality criterion approach
Branch swapping: Tree bisection and reconnection

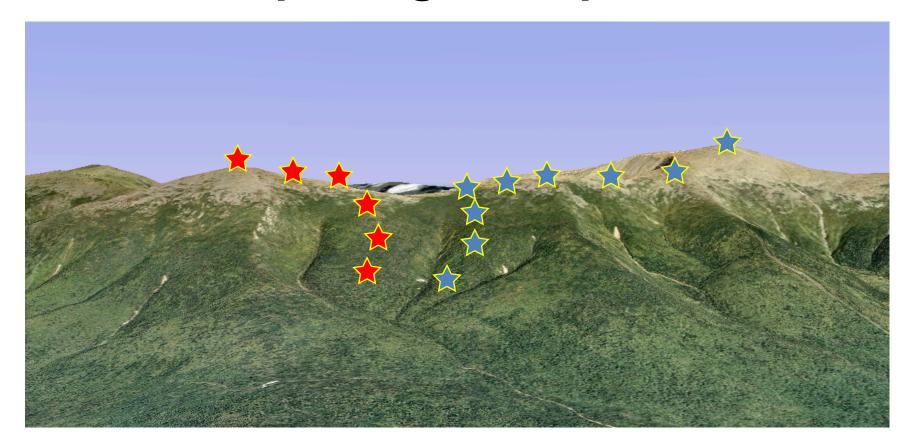


The optimality criterion approach

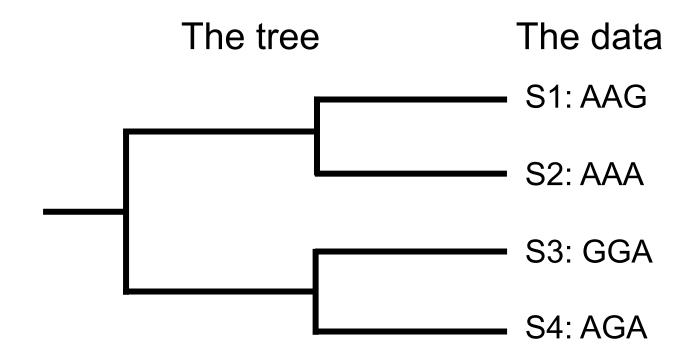
Exploring tree space

Beware! Hill climbing can often lead to local maxima rather than a global solution.

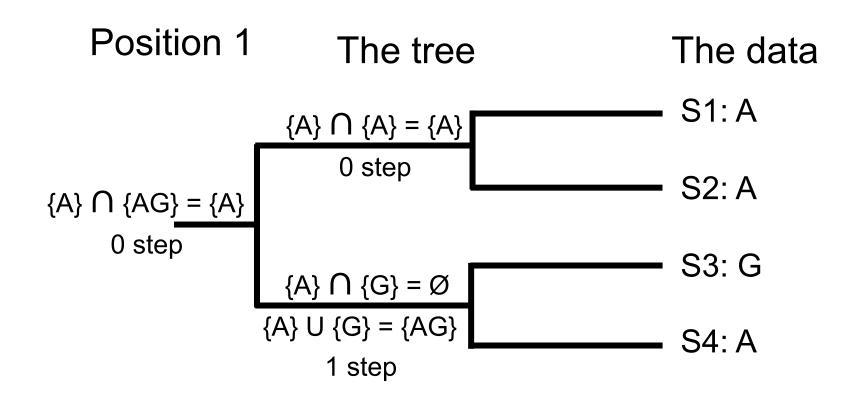
The optimality criterion approach Exploring tree space



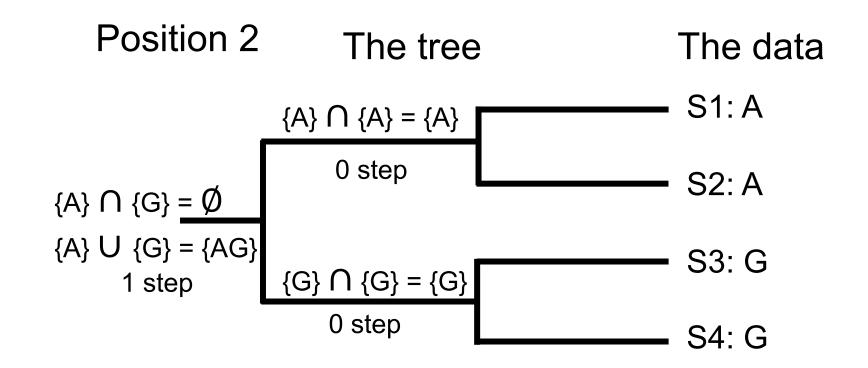
Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



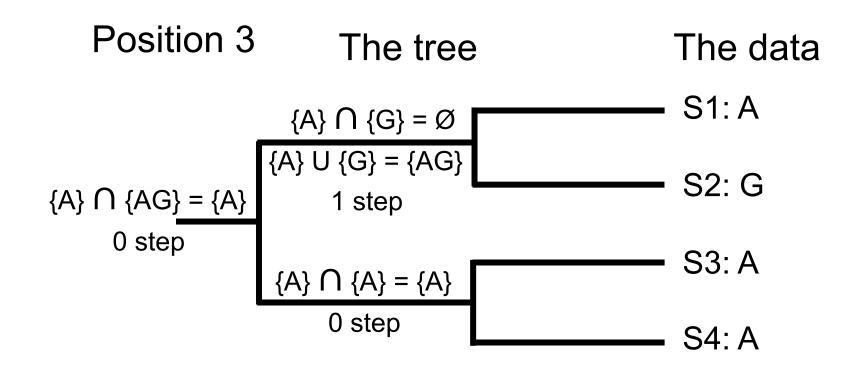
Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



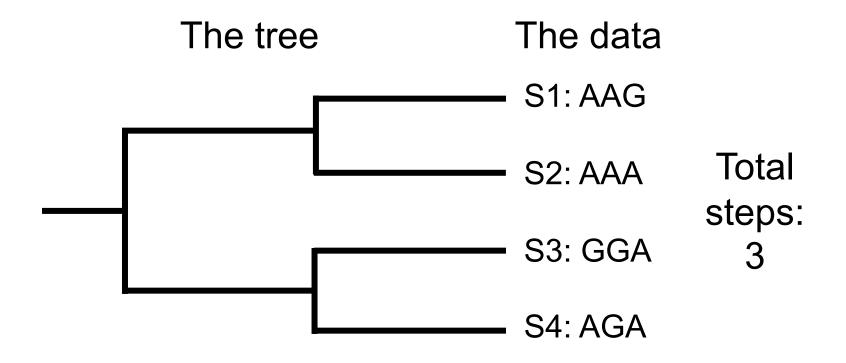
Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



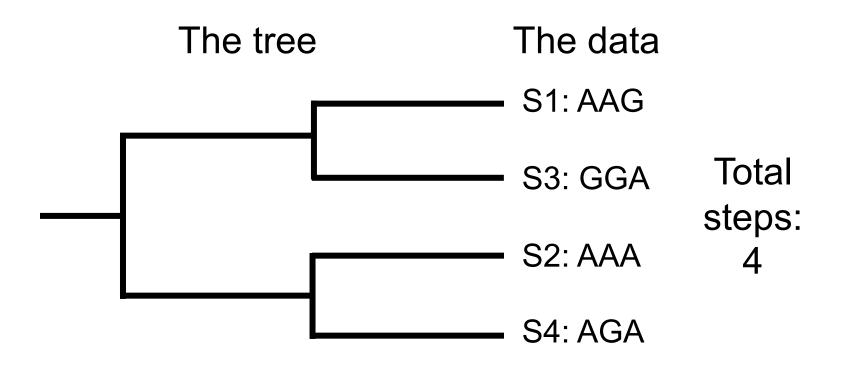
Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



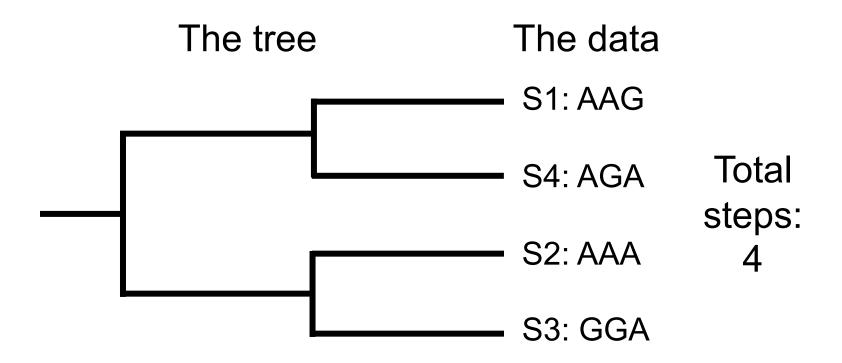
Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



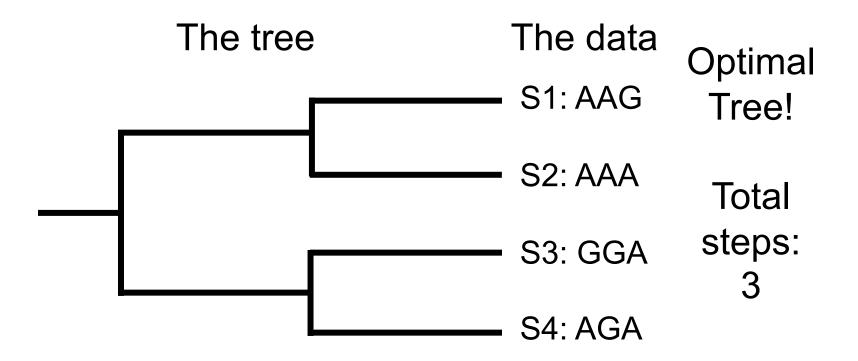
Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



Optimality Criterion: Parsimony



Optimality Criterion: Parsimony

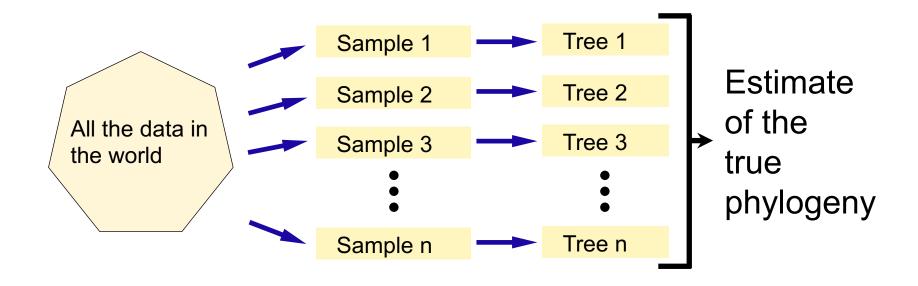


Bootstrapping: How reliable are my trees?

- Parametric bootstrapping: generate replicate data sets based on a set of parameters that describe the original data.
- Nonparametric bootstrapping: generate replicate data sets by sampling with replacement from the original data.

Tree Reliability: Nonparametric Bootstrapping

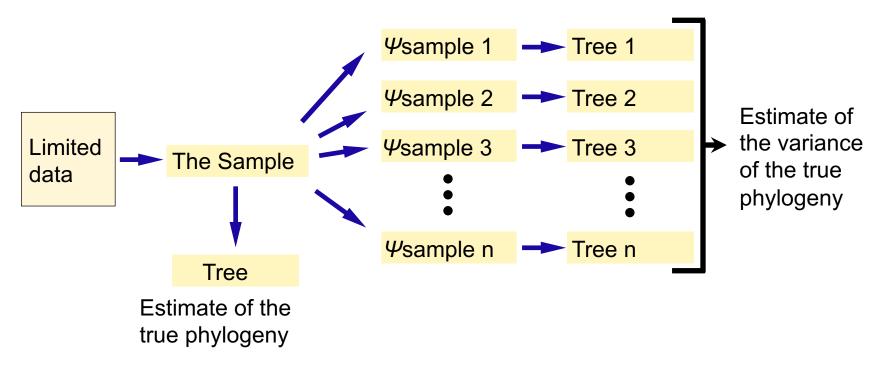
The Ideal World



Build replicates by resampling from unlimited data

Tree Reliability: Nonparametric Bootstrapping

The Real World



Build pseudoreplicates of unlimited data by sampling with replacement from limited data

Molecular Clocks

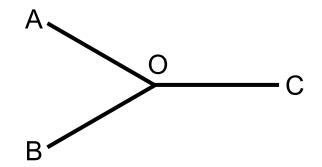
- As protein data (gel electrophoresis and molecular sequences) accumulated it appeared that proteins were varying in a regular manner across different lineages of organisms.
- This lead Zuckerkandl and Pauling (1965) to postulate that a "molecular clock" existed
- The "ticking" of the clock is amino acid or nucleotide substitution
- Regular, clock-like substitution would make building phylogenies much simpler
- Trees built from sequences that change in a clock-like manner will have tip-to-tip distances that sum over the branches. These types of trees are also called *ultrametric*.

Molecular Clocks

Are our sequences changing in a clock-like manner?

The Relative-Rate Test (Sarich and Wilson 1973)

For three sequences A, B, and C



$$K_{AC} = K_{OA} + K_{OC}$$

$$K_{BC} = K_{OB} + K_{OC}$$

$$K_{AB} = K_{OA} + K_{OB}$$



$$K_{AC} = K_{OA} + K_{OC}$$

 $K_{BC} = K_{OB} + K_{OC}$
 $K_{AB} = K_{OA} + K_{OB}$
 $K_{OA} = (K_{AC} + K_{AB} - K_{BC})/2$
 $K_{OB} = (K_{AB} + K_{BC} - K_{AC})/2$
 $K_{OC} = (K_{AC} + K_{BC} - K_{AB})/2$

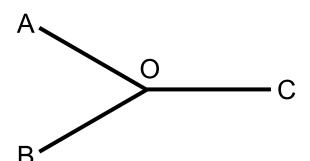
Molecular Clocks

Are our sequences changing in a clock-like manner?

The Relative-Rate Test (Sarich and Wilson 1973)

For three sequences A, B, and C

$$K_{OA} = \frac{(K_{AC} + K_{AB} - K_{BC})}{2}$$
; $K_{OB} = \frac{(K_{AB} + K_{BC} - K_{AC})}{2}$; $K_{OC} = \frac{(K_{AC} + K_{BC} - K_{AB})}{2}$



- If substitution is clock-like, then $K_{OA} = K_{OB}$, or $d = K_{OA} K_{OB} = K_{AC} K_{BC}$
- If $|d| > 2 \times SE$, then d > 0 and substitution is not clock-like
- $V(d) = V(K_{AC}) + V(K_{BC}) 2V(K_{OC})$
- Calculation of variances depends on substitution model being used

Molecular Clocks

- Data indicate that substitution does not occur at the same rate across divergent lineages (rodent vs primate, for example)
- Substitution can be clock-like when lineages are closely related (local clocks)
- Sources of rate variation among lineages
 - Differences in efficiency of DNA repair
 - Differences in generation time
 - Differences in metabolic rate
 - Selection on nonsynonymous substitutions

Software for Phylogenetic Analysis

- A list of phylogenetics software
 - http://evolution.genetics.washington.edu/phylip/software.html
- Multi-method packages
 - MEGAX
 - Phylip
 - DAMBE
 - R/phangorn

Software for Phylogenetic Analysis

- Single-method software
 - PhyML
 - RaxML
 - Garli
- Phylogenetic tree processing
 - FigTree
 - Dendroscope3
 - iTOL

