

- smot: a python package and CLI tool for contextual
- phylogenetic subsampling
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Software

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Summary

smot (Simple Manipulation Of Trees) is a command line tool and Python package with the pragmatic goal of distilling large-scale phylogenetic data to facilitate visualization without jeopardizing inference. This package offers subsampling algorithms that preserve reference strains and tree topology, algorithms for classifying unlabeled tips given a subset of labeled reference tips, and functions for filtering phylogenetic trees. The smot tool has broad application in phylogenetic analysis and we demonstrate its utility using a genomic epidemiology study of influenza A virus in swine.

Statement of Need

Molecular phylogenetic analysis is initiated through the generation of a sequence dataset, followed by multiple sequence alignment, phylogenetic tree inference, and the identification of evolutionary relationships of interests (Baldauf, 2003). Given the rapid generation of large molecular sequence datasets, phylogenetic trees can become cumbersome and it may be necessary to subset data to address specific hypotheses or to facilitate visualization. For example, in a phylogenetic tree with thousands of taxa that are clustered into many monophyletic groups, the user may want to subsample the taxa while ensuring all groups and their evolutionary relationships are represented in the visualized tree. Alternatively, taxa on trees may be described and grouped by parameters not defined by common ancestry such as geographical regions, phenotypes, sequence motifs, or a host species and this information may be incomplete and require classification. In these cases, subsampling and classifying data on the phylogenetic tree can form the basis of hypotheses on how temporal, spatial, and other processes correlate with the evolutionary history of the studied population (Baum et al., 2005; Baum & Smith, 2013). Developing appropriate hypotheses can be facilitated through the subsampling, classifying, and filtering algorithms in smot.

The utility of smot is explained by the following three cases. For subsampling, smot may process a phylogenetic tree that has labeled clades: taxa from each clade may be subsampled while maintaining a set number of taxa from each clade and also retaining provided reference strains. Alternatively, the number of strains within a clade may be scaled by sampling the r^{th} root. For classification, smot can process a partially labeled tree by inferring missing labels and prepending them to the taxa names. For filtering, smot may ingest a tree with user-provided trait labels and then remove any monophyletic group that has no recent member or has too few members. The subsequent section will briefly introduce related tools currently applied in phylogenetic analyses and outline the role smot can play in a phylogeneticist's toolbox.



Related Work

The first purpose of smot is subsampling. Phylogenetic subsampling has been extensively researched (Mongiardino Koch, 2021). It may be used to remove sequences with quality problems or to reduce the dataset prior to computationally expensive operations. Programs such as Treemmer (Menardo et al., 2018), TreeTrimmer (Maruyama et al., 2013), and Treeshrink (Mai & Mirarab, 2018) approach the general problem of statistical subsampling while preserving specific diversity metrics of the original inferred phylogenetic tree. In contrast, smot is designed to subsample taxa in the tree while preserving objective metadata and annotations that are independent of tree topology.

The second purpose of smot is classification and annotation of unlabeled taxa and clades when provided representative strain classifications. Classification is achieved by either patristic distance or monophyletic purity, and the method is based on submitted reference taxa rather than inferring clusters from the tree and then naming them. Inferring clusters de novo can be accomplished with tools such as phyCLIP (Han et al., 2019) or DYNAMITE (Magalis et al., 2021), and for influenza A virus in swine by octoFLU (Chang et al., 2019). smot applies a hybrid approach where, rather than using a fixed reference scaffold tree, it extracts labels from the input tree based on annotated reference sequences and then infers the missing labels.

The third purpose of smot is filtering and coloring a tree based upon user queries. smot does not have more specialized phylogenetic and visualization utilities; these are be provided by phylommand (Ryberg, 2016) and ETE suite-toolkit (Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016) in Python and ggtree in R (Yu et al., 2017). However, smot may be easily integrated into analytical pipelines as a module and can be used to set leaf and branch coloring, which may then be visualized with a tree viewer such as FigTree.

smot is primarily designed to be used as a command line tool, but it can also be imported as a Python package. It complements the existing Python phylogenetics ecosystem through its subsampling, classifying, and filtering algorithms. Currently, Python packages for phylogenetics include the Phylo module of Biopython (Cock et al., 2009), the ETE-toolkit (Huerta-Cepas et al., 2016), DendroPy (Sukumaran & Holder, 2010), and TreeSwift, which offers a scalable foundation for building algorithms that work on large trees (Moshiri, 2020).

Core Algorithms

A common theme across smot's algorithms is to group tips and then perform an action on each group. All grouping algorithms require labels on some or all of the tips. Labels may be assigned to tips using: entries provided in a table; input field index given a text separator in taxa names; or through application of regular expressions on taxa names to extract labels of interest. Given these initial labels, the tree can be grouped using a patristic, monophyletic, or paraphyletic algorithm. The patristic algorithm groups all tips together under the label of the nearest labeled tip by cumulative branch distance on the tree. The monophyletic algorithm descends from root to tip (trees are assumed to be rooted). When a subtree with one or more tips share a common label, and all other tips are unlabeled, the subtree is yielded as one monophyletic group. The paraphyletic algorithm also descends from root to tip, but rather than setting a monophyletic subtree to a group, it merges adjacent monophyletic groups with the same label down the tree. When a node is reached that is monophyletic for the two subtrees with different labels, each subtree is set as a group, ensuring that the branch nearest to a group border is sampled from.



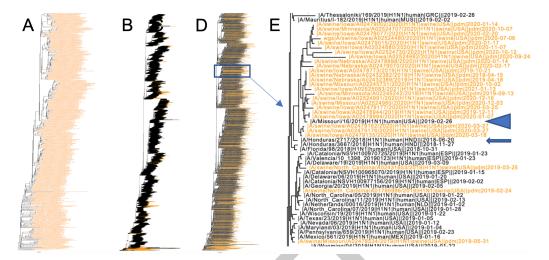


Figure 1: Figure 1. Interspecies transmission and evolution of the 2009 H1N1 influenza A virus pandemic (H1N1pdm09) lineage in swine and humans. (A) An inferred phylogenetic tree of influenza A virus (IAV) in swine hemagglutinin (HA) genes from the H1N1pdm09 lineage collected between 2015 and 2021. There are too many swine strains in the tree to read the labels even omitting the human influenza A virus H1N1 HA sequences necessary to capture the correct evolutionary context of the lineage. (B) An inferred phylogenetic tree of H1N1pdm09 lineage HA genes from humans and swine (26,802 genes, human in black, swine in orange). The tree is too large to see individual labels, and critical human-to-swine evolutionary linkage is obscured. To identify the evolutionary history of this IAV lineage, we include all swine HA genes to demonstrate onward transmission of the virus, and human HA genes to detect directionality of interspecies transmission. (C) An application of smot: human HA genes were down-sampled while keeping all swine genes. This ensured the context of human HA genes, allowing identification of human-to-swine spillovers and visualization of swine-to-swine transmission of the H1N1pdm09 lineage. All swine clades present in (B) are present in (C). (D) Using this approach, we identified a human-to-swine event (arrow) that seeded onward transmission in swine, followed by a single human HA gene nested within a monophyletic swine group (triangle) (blue rectangle in (C) and enlarged in the inset (D)). The human HA gene demonstrates a zoonotic (swine-to-human) transmission event. Subsampling human HA genes before building the tree or without considering context would likely obscure these two-way interspecies transmission events.

Once a tree is partitioned into groups, it may be subsampled, classified, or filtered. Subsampling takes each partition and randomly selects either a set proportion of the tips (with an optional minimum tips) or a scaled proportion where the number of sampled tips equals $n^{1/r}$, where n is the number of tips in the group and r is the root (e.g., 2 for square root). Classifying either propagates the group label to all unlabeled members or assigns each unlabeled tip the label of the nearest labeled tip using a patristic classifier. Filtering performs an operation on each group under some condition, for example, it may delete all groups that have fewer than n members.

Case Study: Inferring human-to-swine influenza A virus transmission events

In 2009, an influenza A virus emerged in swine, was transmitted to humans and subsequently caused the first pandemic of the 21st century (Smith et al., 2009). This H1N1 lineage (H1N1pdm09) became endemic in humans and is regularly reintroduced to swine populations globally (Nelson et al., 2015; Vijaykrishna et al., 2010). Phylogenetically, human-to-swine introductions can be detected based upon tree topology: an isolated swine-derived HA gene nested within a monophyletic group of human genes indicates interspecies transmission (Volz et al., 2013). A similar tree structure can be used to infer zoonotic transmission from swine to



humans (Nelson et al., 2015). To illustrate the shared evolutionary history of the H1N1pdm09 lineage, we inferred phylogenetic trees based on the hemagglutinin (HA) gene collected from only swine (**Figure 1A**) and from swine and human sequences together (**Figure 1B**). In both cases, the scope of data required to infer host origin and interspecies transmission events obscured visualization and the ability to infer the directionality of the transmission events.

The goal of this case study was to identify subsequent swine-to-swine transmission of H1N1pdm09 that descended from unique human-to-swine spillovers. To achieve this, we downloaded all swine and human H1N1pdm09 hemagglutinin (HA) genes sequences from the Influenza Research Database (Zhang et al., 2017). Each gene sequence was labeled through the database search interface by virus strain name, host (human or swine), collection location, and date of collection. The HA genes were aligned with MAFFT (Katoh & Standley, 2013), and a maximum likelihood tree was inferred using a general time reversible model of molecular evolution with gamma distributed rate variation in FastTree (Price et al., 2010). To phylogenetically identify contemporary and sustained transmission of H1N1pdm09 in swine, we: subsampled large human clades; removed swine taxa with no recently observed representatives; and removed swine clades that had no evidence of swine-to-swine transmission (i.e., clades with a single representative).



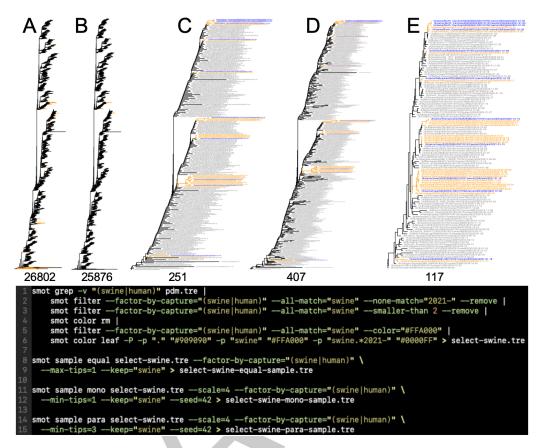


Figure 2: Figure 2. The smot tool and commands that demonstrate how a phylogenetic tree may be filtered and subsampled. The smot-processed phylogenetic tree can be used to identify human-to-swine spillover and sustained transmission of the 2009 H1N1 influenza A virus pandemic (H1N1pdm09) lineage in swine. (A) The original phylogenetic tree with human and swine H1N1pdm09 HA genes (n=26802) collected between 2009 and 2021. (B) The tree after filtering to keep only the swine clades that had more than one member and at least one 2021 representative. (C-E) The trees after subsampling with the (C) equal, (D) mono, and (E) para algorithms, respectively. Tip labels colored in orange represent swine hosts and orange branch coloring represents clades where all hosts are swine; blue tip labels are swine HA genes collected in 2021; the clades annotated 1 through 4 in (E) represent four independent H1N1pdm09 clades circulating in US swine derived from unique human-to-swine spillover events. The smot pipeline that produced the trees (C-E) was written in Bash and documentation and explanation of the code is provided in the GitHub README (https://github.com/flu-crew/smot) or the Flu Crew documentation page (https://flu-crew.github.io/docs/).

This process was achieved with a series of smot commands (Figure 2). First, smot extracted clades where all taxa labels where annotated with either the term "human" or "swine". We then removed all monophyletic swine clades without a detection in 2021 and all swine clades with a single member (i.e., isolated spillovers without evidence of sustained transmission). The resultant tree contained all human HA genes and swine HA genes for strains with evidence of contemporary circulation (Figure 2B): this tree was then subsampled with the three smot algorithms (Figure 2C-E). In Figure 2C, we sampled 1 tip from each monophyletic human clade and generated a tree that demonstrated unique human and swine monophyletic clades. A similar presentation was generated in Figure 2D where the algorithm randomly selected $n_s=n^{1/4}$ tips from each monophyletic human clade, keeping a minimum of 1 tip. The third algorithm (Figure 2E) sampled paraphyletically, allowing human branches across the backbone to be jointly subsampled, allowing greater compression of the tree and more tractable visualization. The final tree (Figure 2E) demonstrated seven independent H1N1pdm09 human-to-swine spillover events with evidence of persistent swine-to-swine transmission Importantly,



the tree was sufficiently compressed for labels to be readable on a single page while still providing the human context HA genes needed to resolve the seven unique human-to-swine spillover events.

134 Availability

smot is available on PyPi and the source is hosted on GitHub at https://github.com/flucrew/smot. Additional documentation is available in the Flu Crew documentation page (https://flu-crew.github.io/docs/).

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