

# Phylodynamic Analysis

for studying infectious diseases

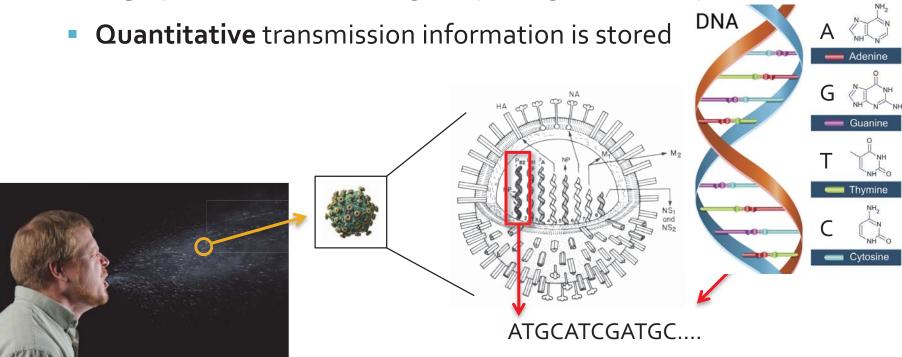
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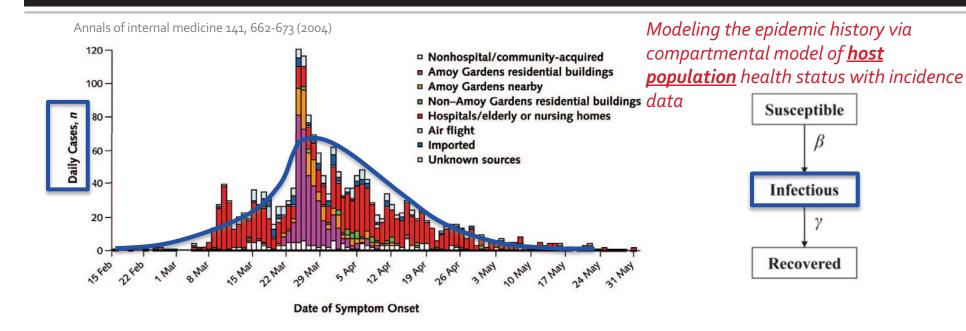
# Genetic Epidemiology of Infectious Diseases

 Genetic sequences of the pathogens are often used as molecular biomarkers to study the molecular epidemiology.

High precision in obtaining the pathogen's identity



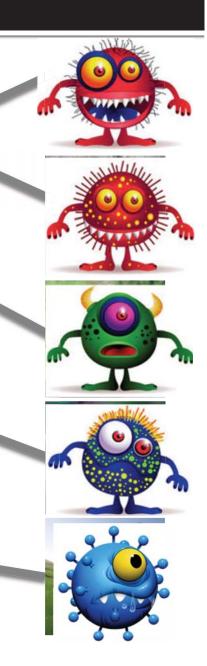
### Studying ID using Incidence and Genetic Data

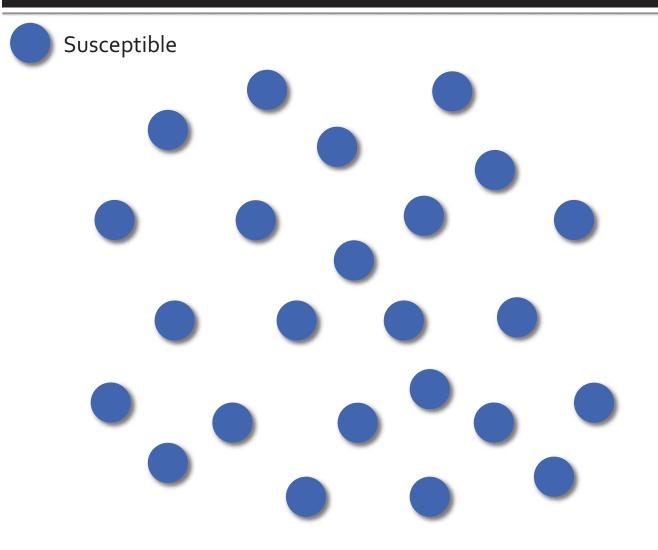


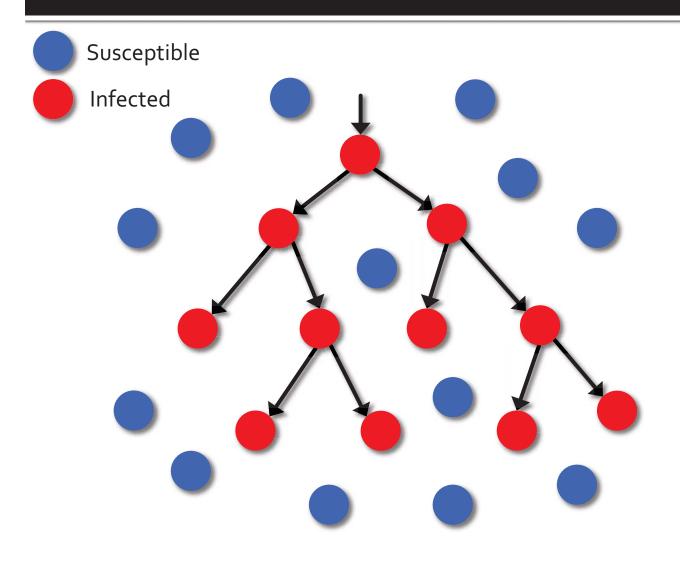
# Terminology

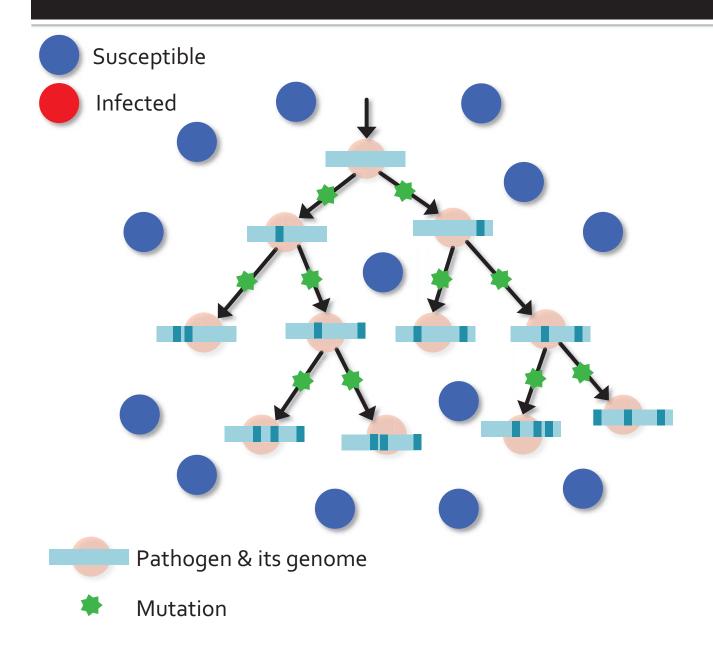
Phylogenetics (greek: phylon = "race"; genetikós = related to "origin"/"birth") is a science of evolution. It is a study of evolutionary history of taxonomic related organisms.

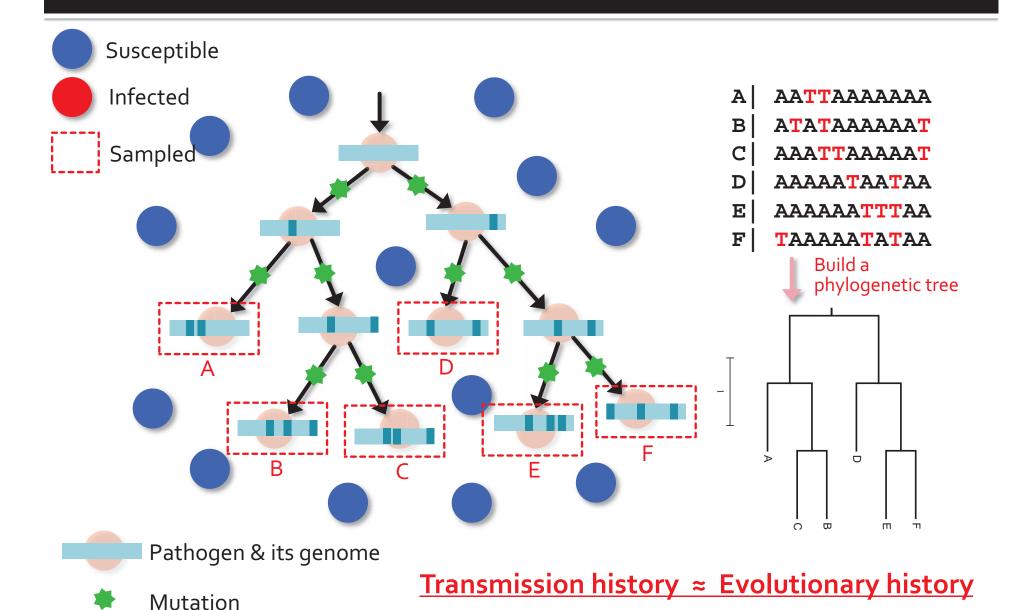
Phylogenetic tree (phylogeny) is a "tree-like" diagram showing the evolutionary relationships between organisms based the similarity/difference of their genome/gene sequences.

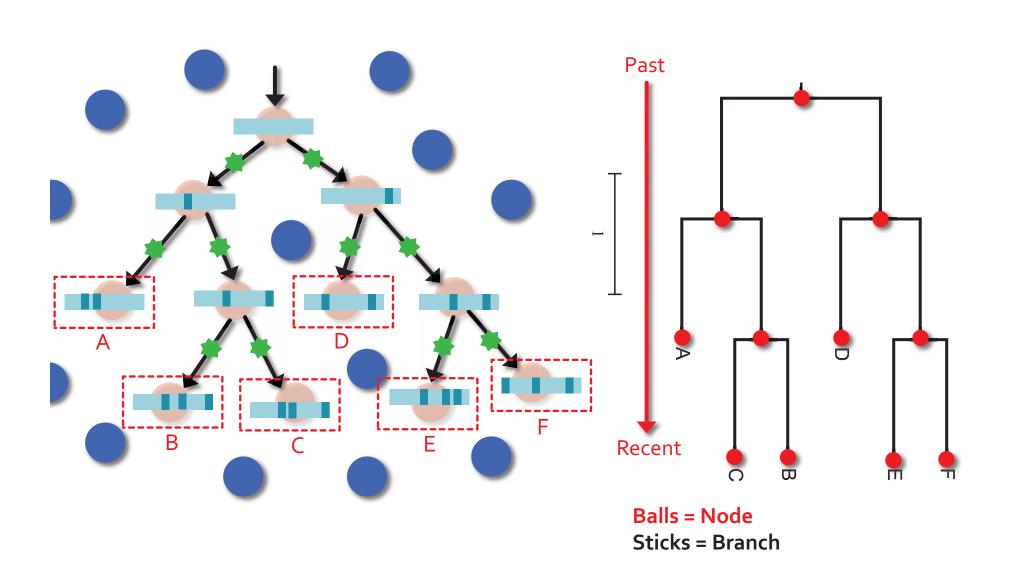


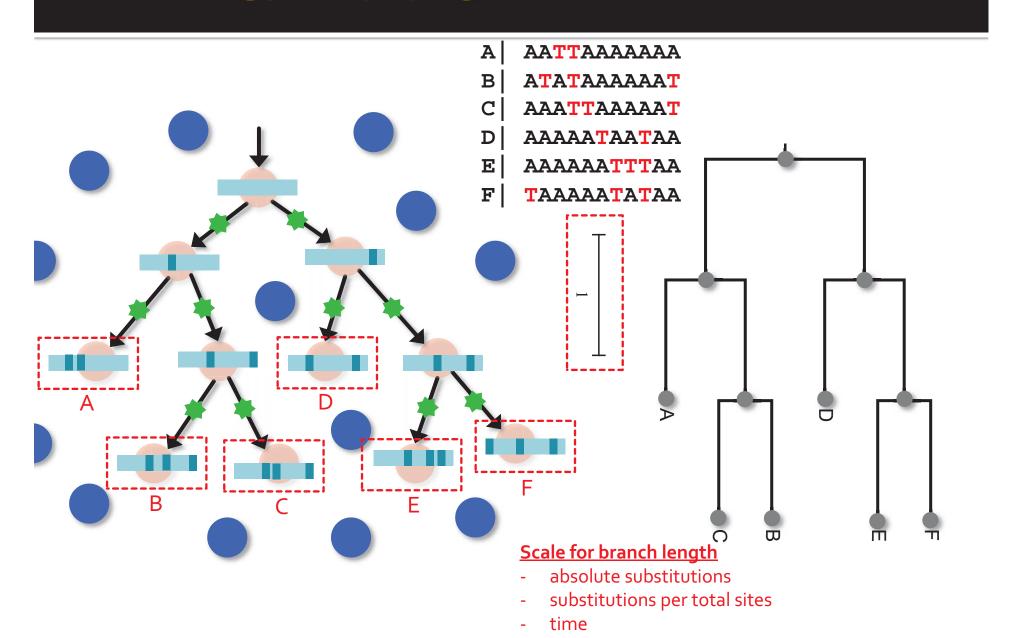


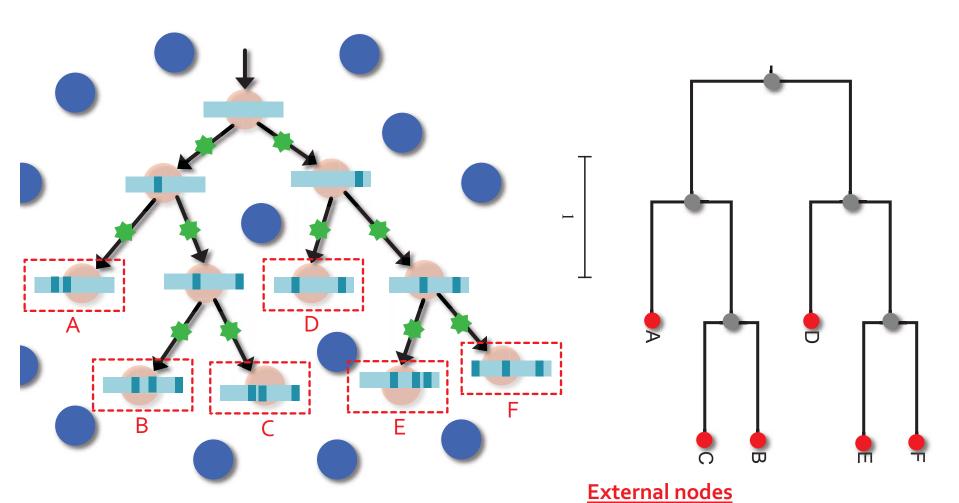






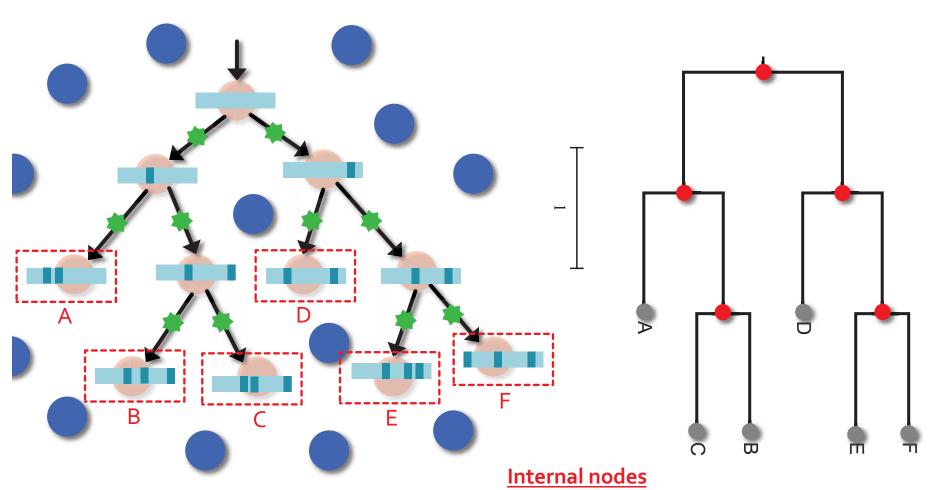




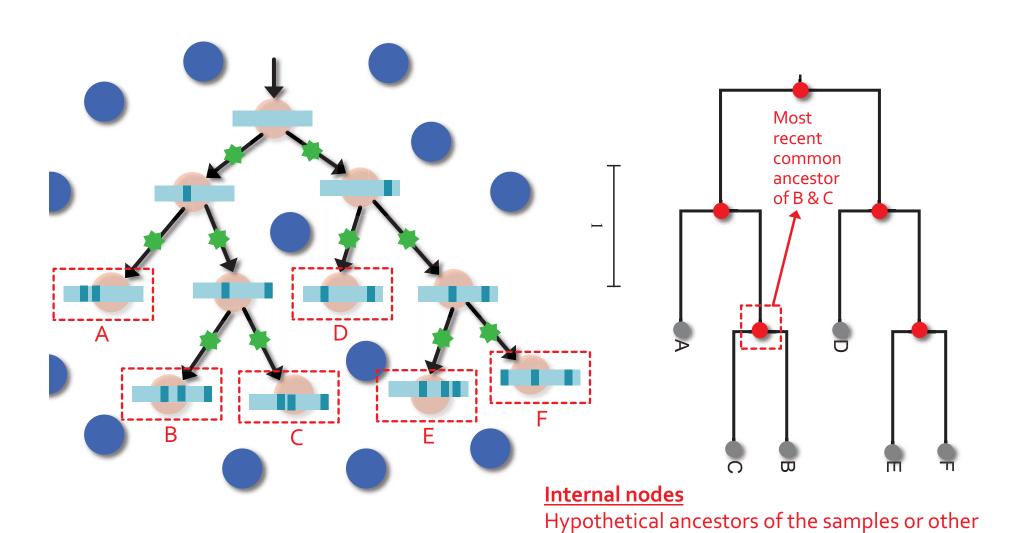


#### Evol-bio term: 'taxon' (plural 'taxa')

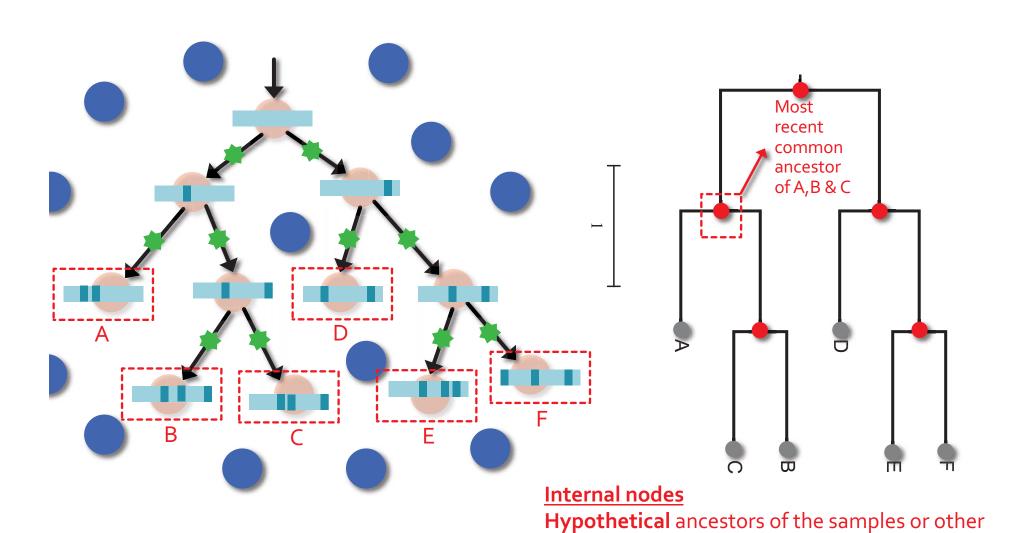
- Sequences obtained from samples



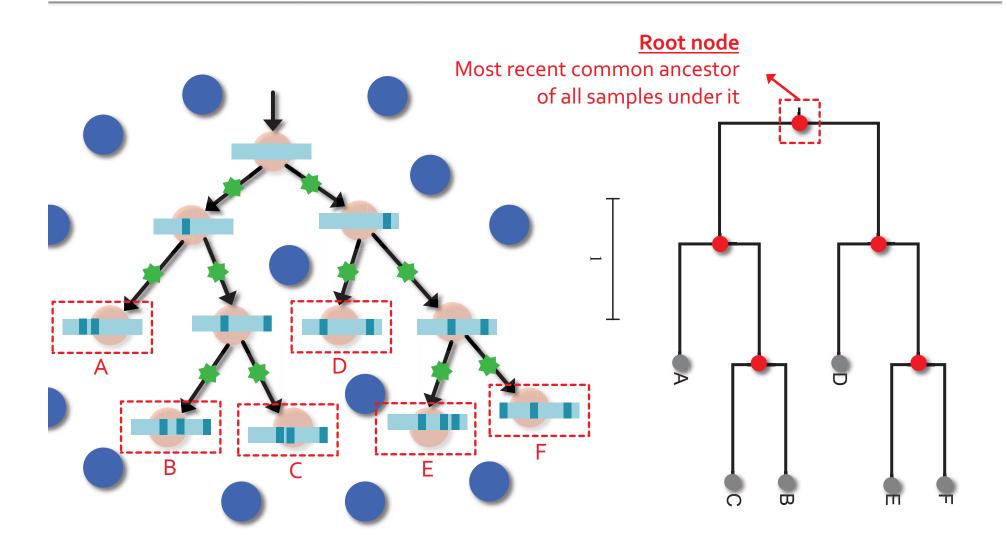
Hypothetical ancestors of the samples or other nodes; Possibly un-sampled transmitters

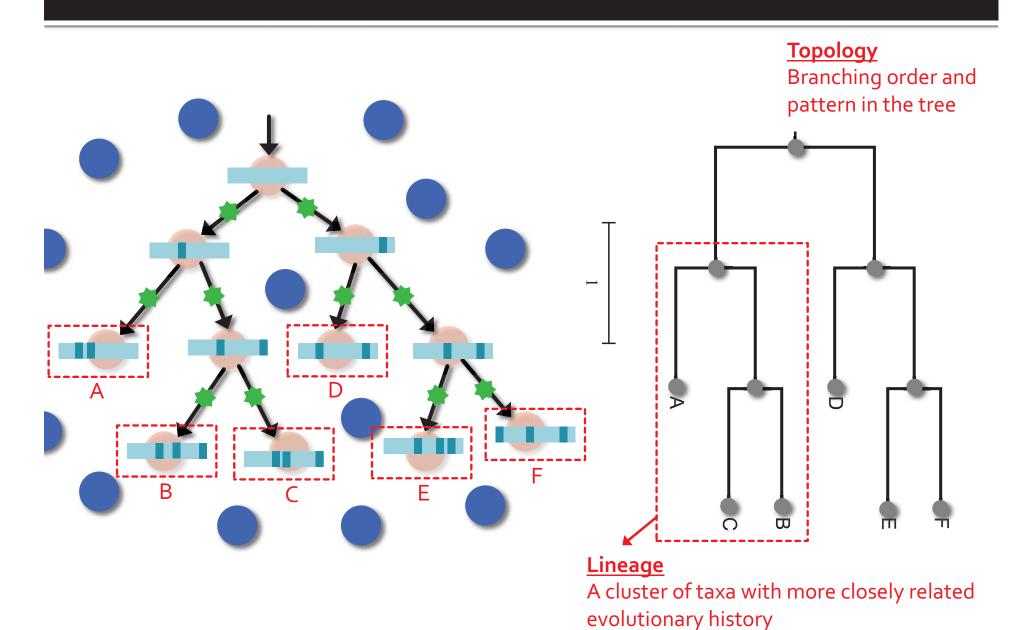


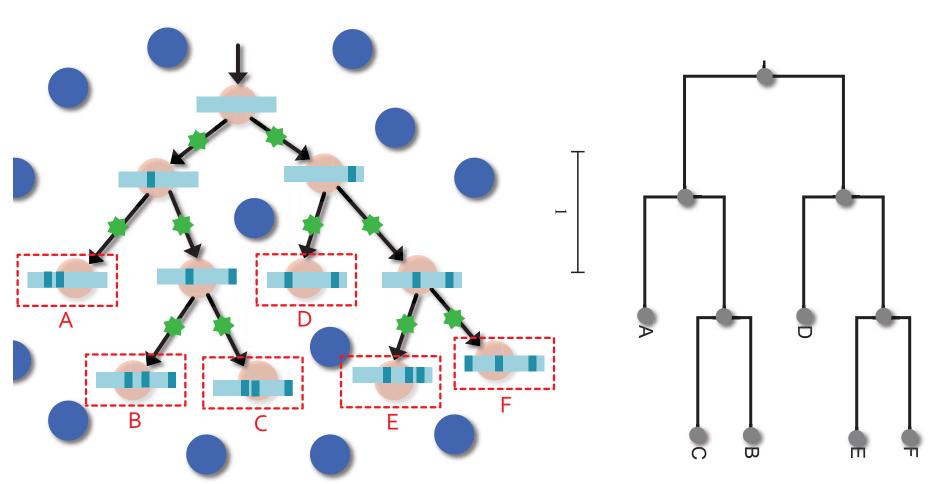
nodes; Possibly un-sampled transmitters



nodes; Possibly un-sampled transmitters



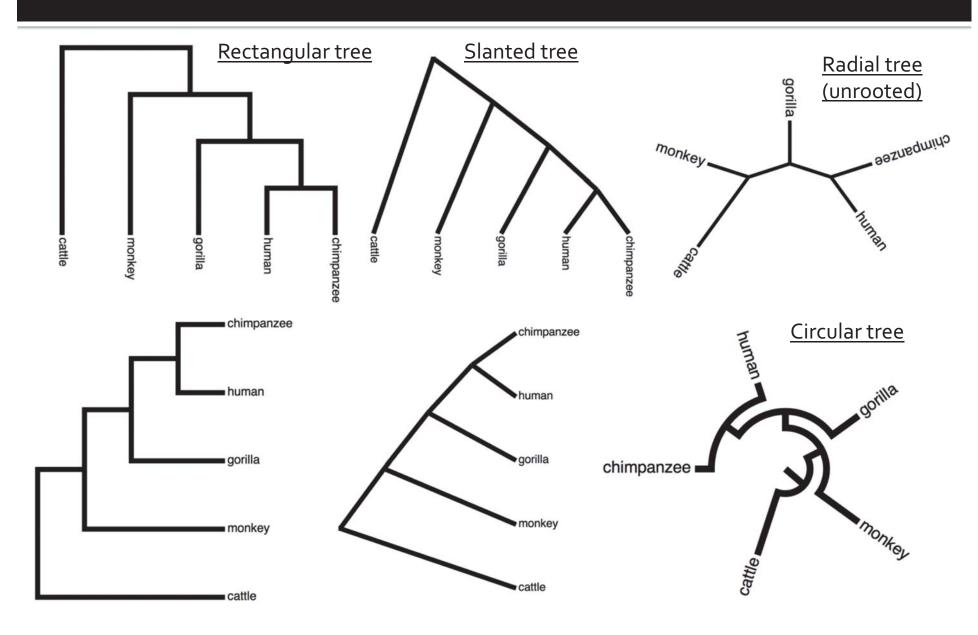




#### Node is rotatable

Node can be rotated without changing the biological meaning.

# Different presentations of phylogeny

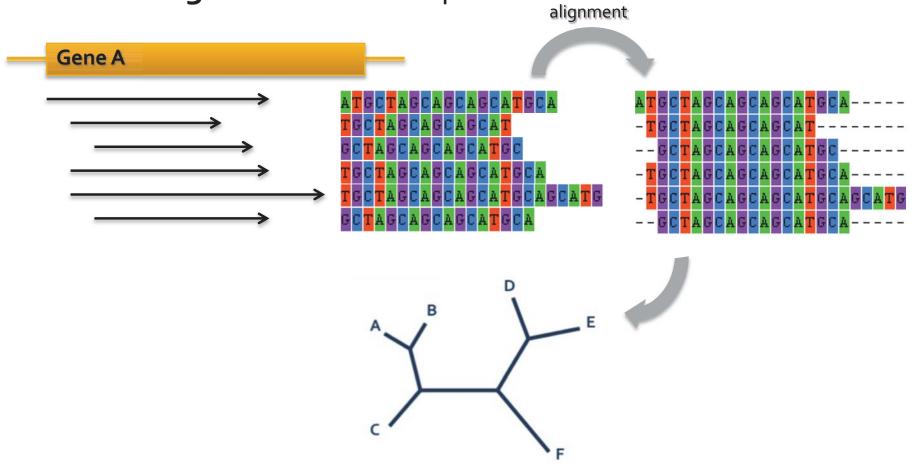


How to build a phylogenetic tree from the sequences of pathogen samples?

# Raw sequences > Alignment > Tree

Same/Similar region of the genome or gene is analyzed

Need alignment of the sequences



# Methods of Inferring Phylogeny

#### Distance based methods

- UPGMA (Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean)
   Simple agglomerative hierarchical clustering, all tips same distance to the root
- Neighbor-joining
   Divisive clustering (star-decomposition), into unrooted tree
- Minimum evolution
   Tree with the smallest sum of branch lengths

#### Discrete-data based methods

- Maximum parsimony
   Searches for most parsimonious tree with the least evolutionary steps.
- Maximum likelihood
   Searches for a tree (& substitution model) that may have the highest probability of observing the genetic sequence data.
- Bayesian inference
   Generates posterior probability distributions for the tree model parameters, composed of tree & substitution models, based on the prior probabilities of the parameters and likelihood of the data.
- Different methods have pros and cons, in terms of accuracy, speed, memory-requirement, etc.

# Measuring genetic distance

#### Example:

- X: AATTTGTCCG

1 1

- Y: AATTTGTAAG

#### Simplest genetic distance measure: P-distance

- P-distance (p) is the proportion of nucleotide sites at which two sequences being compared are different. It is obtained by dividing the number of nucleotide differences by the total number of nucleotides compared (i.e. length of alignment).
- For the above example sequences:
- 2 nucleotide difference (i.e. 2 substitutions),
- 10 nucleotide sites in total
- $-p_{XY} = 0.20$  substitutions/site

# Measuring genetic distance

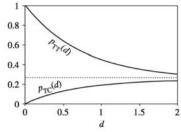
#### Example:

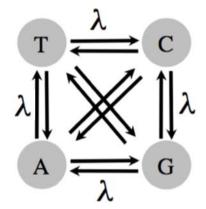
- Simple p-distance often under-estimates the number of substitutions because of multiple substitutions
- Multiple substitutions
  - Back substitutions, parallel substitutions, convergent substitution
  - E.g. actual substitutions = 5
  - Increased with the observed genetic difference between sequences
  - Can be accounted/corrected by using Continuous-Time-Markov-Chain (CTMC) model as the model of DNA evolution.

### Jukes & Cantor(1969) one parameter model

JC69 assumes equal substitution rate ( $\lambda$ ) and equal nucleotide frequencies at equilibrium  $\left(\pi_A = \pi_C = \pi_T = \frac{1}{4}\right)$ 

$$Q = \{q_{ij}\} = \begin{bmatrix} -3\lambda & \lambda & \lambda & \lambda \\ \lambda & -3\lambda & \lambda & \lambda \\ \lambda & \lambda & -3\lambda & \lambda \\ \lambda & \lambda & \lambda & -3\lambda \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathsf{T} & \text{(equal instantaneous substitution rates among T, C, A, G)} \\ \mathsf{A} & \lambda & \lambda & -3\lambda \end{bmatrix} G$$





$$P(t) = e^{Qt} = \begin{bmatrix} p_0(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) \\ p_1(t) & p_0(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) \\ p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_0(t) & p_1(t) \\ p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_0(t) \end{bmatrix},$$

 $P(t) = e^{Qt}$ 

$$P(t) = \mathrm{e}^{Qt} = \begin{bmatrix} p_0(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) \\ p_1(t) & p_0(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) \\ p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_0(t) & p_1(t) \\ p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_1(t) & p_0(t) \end{bmatrix}, \quad \text{with } \begin{cases} p_0(t) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{3}{4}\mathrm{e}^{-4\lambda t}, \text{ (Probability that character is not changed)} \\ p_1(t) = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4}\mathrm{e}^{-4\lambda t}. \text{ (Probability that character is changed)} \end{cases}$$

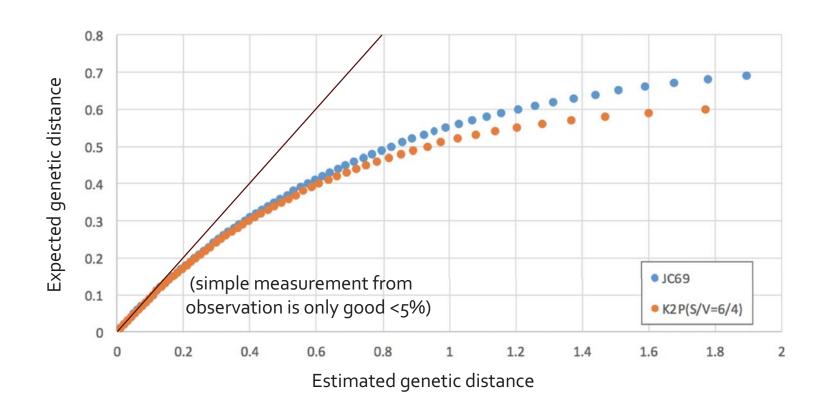
$$p = 3p_1(t) = \frac{3}{4} - \frac{3}{4}e^{-4\lambda t} = \frac{3}{4} - \frac{3}{4}e^{-4d/3}.$$
$$\hat{d} = -\frac{3}{4}\log(1 - \frac{4}{3}\hat{p})$$

(transition probability at instantaneous

rates of substitution after time t)

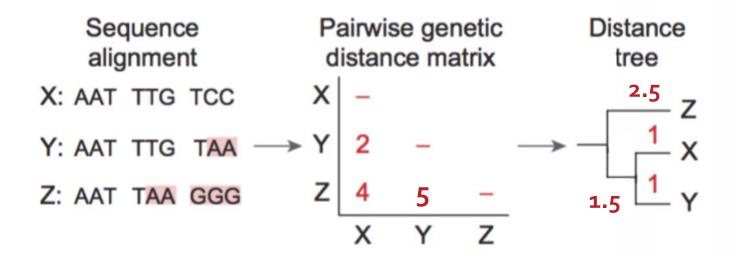
(p = the probability that the nucleotide in the descendant sequenceis different from the nucleotide in the ancestral sequence is; and  $d = 3\lambda t$ 

### Observed distance and estimated distance



## Distance based method – Overview

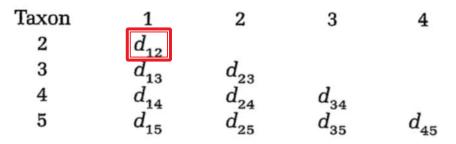
- Using the genetic distances measured between sequences to build the tree.
- Genetic distances can be determined by p-distance measurement or substitution model estimation.

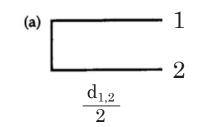


 The distance tree, with the shortest tree length, that reflect the genetic distances among the sequences

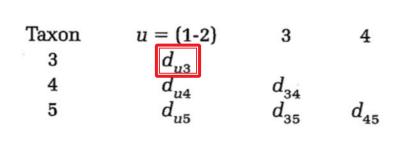
# UPGMA Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean

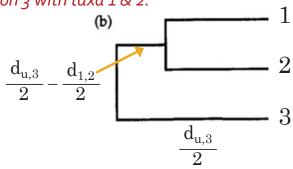
1. Choose the pair with the shortest distance to cluster, e.g.  $d_{1,2}$ ; then the resultant branches share  $d_{1,2}/2$ 



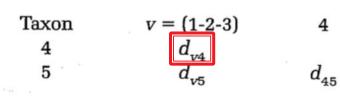


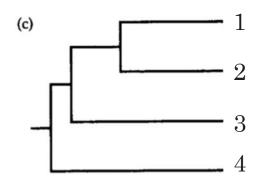
2. Recalculate the distance from the joined taxa (u=(1-2)) to other taxa (k) by  $d_{u,k}=(d_{1,k}+d_{2,k})/2$ Then repeat step 1, e.g.  $d_{u,3}$  is the shortest distance, so join taxon 3 with taxa 1 & 2.





Recalculate the distance e.g.  $d_{v,4} = (d_{1,4} + d_{2,4} + d_{3,4})/3$ 





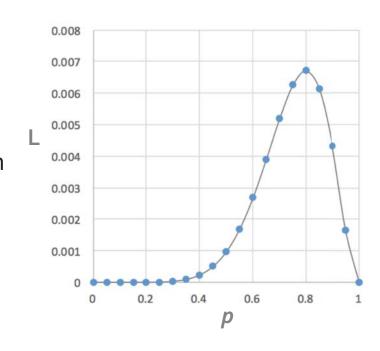
# Maximum likelihood (ML)

- ML estimation is general statistical method for estimating unknown parameters of a probability model
- Likelihood (L) is defined as the probability of observing the data (D) when the model parameters (M) are given
- L = P(D|M)

### • Simple coin-tossing example:

HHTHHHHHHH (D) total 10 (n) toss, 8 (k) heads, 2 (n-k) tails What is the likelihood L = P(D|p,n)? p is the probability of get 'head' from a coin tossing.

$$L = p^k (1-p)^{n-k}$$
  
If a fair coin ( $p$ =0.5),  $L$  = 0.00098  
The maximum  $L$  is 0.00671 when  $p$ =0.8  
Intutively, it's  $k/n$ 



# Maximum likelihood (ML) for phylogeny

To find a phylogeny that has maximized  $L = P(D|\Theta)$ 

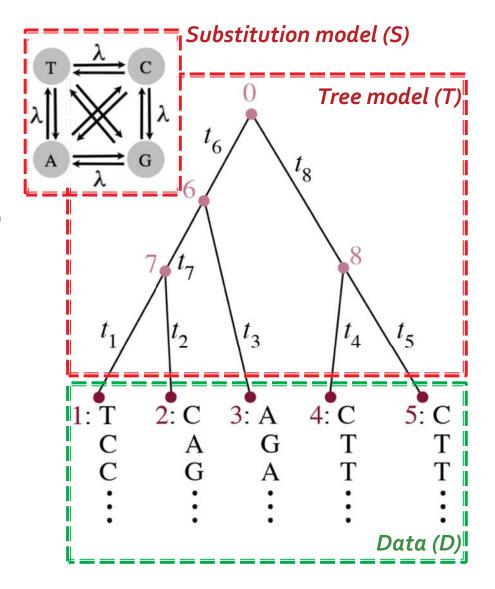
$$\Theta = T+S$$

$$= \{t_{11} t_{21} t_{31} t_{41} t_{51} t_{61} t_{71} t_{81} \lambda\}$$

**T** is the tree model with branch length =  $t_{i.}$ 

**S** is the DNA substitution model; Using JC69 model as an example,  $\lambda$  is the substitution rate.

- Efficiently evaluate the likelihood L of given \(\theta\).
- Smartly search across the tree
   and parameter space to
   identify θ that maximize L.



# Evaluating likelihood of a phylogeny

#### Assumption of independent evolution among sites

n (n = number of sites)

$$\ell = \log(L) = \sum_{h=1} \log\{f(\mathbf{x}_h|\theta)\}\$$

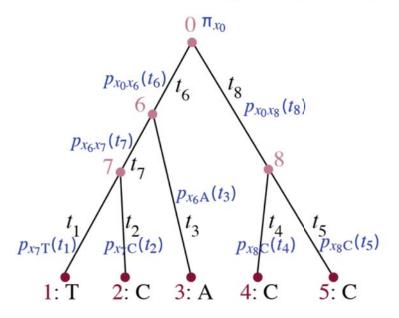
The probability of the whole data set is the product of the probabilities of data at individual sites. Equivalently the log likelihood is a sum over sites in the sequence.

(any combination of ancestral nucleotides  $x_0x_6x_7x_8$ )

$$f(\mathbf{x}_h|\theta) = \sum \sum \sum \sum [\pi_{x_0} p_{x_0 x_6}(t_6) p_{x_6 x_7}(t_7) p_{x_7 T}(t_1) p_{x_7 C}(t_2)$$

$$\times p_{x_6A}(t_3)p_{x_0x_8}(t_8)p_{x_8C}(t_4)p_{x_8C}(t_5)$$
].

So, now focus on one site only,  $X_h$ .  $X_i$  is the state at ancestral node i.  $f(X_h)$  is the sum over all possible nucleotide combinations (A,T,C,G) for the ancestors.



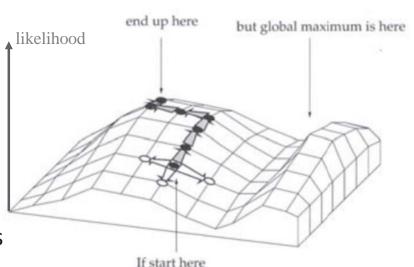
Brute-force computation takes  $4^{s-1}$  \* (2s-2) calculations. **s** is the number of sequences. Here total = **2048**. In fact, many calculations are repeats.

Felsenstein used pruning algorithm (1973, 1981) that calculate successively probabilities (partial likelihoods) of data on many subtrees. It will reduce the computation steps to 4(5s-8) = 68 in this example.

# Search in tree and parameter space

#### Parameter space

- Branch lengths in the tree (e.g.  $t_1$ ,  $t_2$ ,  $t_3$ ,  $t_4$ ,  $t_5$ ,  $t_6$ ,  $t_7$ ,  $t_8$ ) and parameters (e.g.  $\lambda$ ) in the substitution model
- Numerical optimization on a fixed tree
- Multivariate algorithms such as BFGS
- Tree space
  - Huge, grow factorial with number of sequences (n)  $N_{unrooted} = \frac{(2n-5)!}{2^{n-3}(n-3)!}$
  - E.g. 5 sequences = 15 possible topologies
  - E.g. 14 sequence > 3x10<sup>11</sup> possible topologies
  - Heuristic approach
    - Branch swapping
      - Nearest-Neighbor Interchange (NNI)
      - Tree bisection and reconnection (TBR)
      - Subtree Pruning and Re-grafting (SPR)



### Use of phylogeny for studying infectious disease

### Qualitative interpretations

 Based on the clustering, tree topology/shape, branch lengths to give qualitative interpretation on the disease origin and transmission

#### Quantitative inferences

Co-estimating epidemic parameters (e.g. epidemic starting time, growth rate) with the phylogeny

### Hypothesis testing

 Testing the consistency between the hypothesized transmission history and the inferred phylogeny