

# Sequence analysis and genomics

## 5. Introduction to Phylogenetics

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## 4. Add on to HMMs



# Alice and Bob



Alice and Bob talk together daily over the telephone about what they did that day. Bob is only interested in three activities: walking in the park, shopping, and cleaning his apartment. What he does depend on the weather:

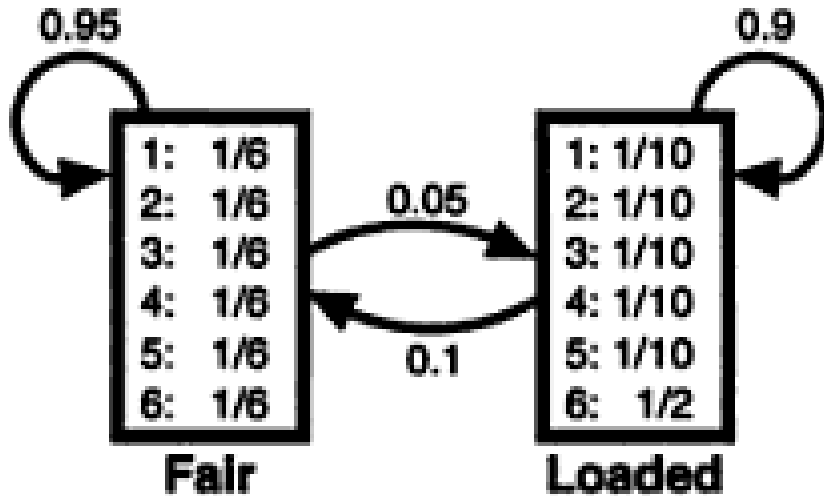
```
emission_probability = { 'Rainy' : {'walk': 0.1, 'shop': 0.4, 'clean': 0.5},  
                        'Sunny' : {'walk': 0.6, 'shop': 0.3, 'clean': 0.1}  
                        }
```

Alice has no definite information (information is *hidden*) about the weather where Bob lives, but she knows general trends.:

```
transition_probability = { 'Rainy' : {'Rainy': 0.7, 'Sunny': 0.3},  
                          'Sunny' : {'Rainy': 0.4, 'Sunny': 0.6}  
                          }
```

Based on what Bob tells her he did each day, Alice tries to guess what the weather must have been like.

# The occasional dishonest casino



States: Fair, Loaded

Transition probabilities: 0.05, 0.1

Emission probabilities:

in fair state all have 1/6

in loaded state: 6 has 50%

Rolls: 31511624644664424531143631656626566666511664531326512456366646316 ...

Die: FFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFFLLL ...

Would be useful to know when the loaded dice is in play to bet for the 6

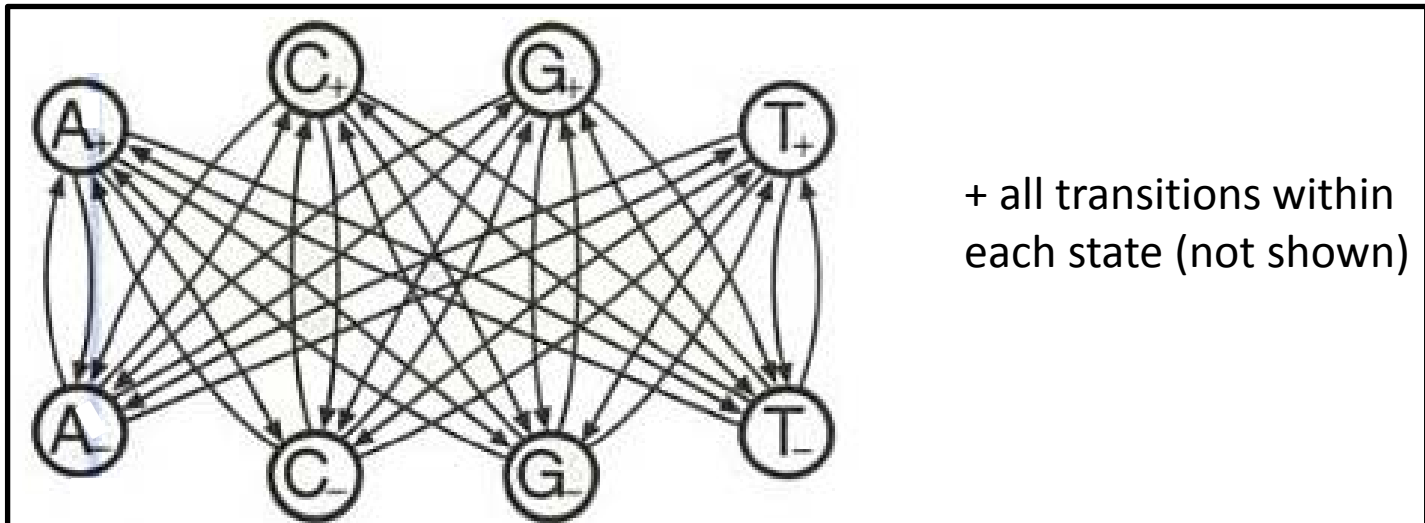
# CpG islands

Hall mark of promoter regions, rich in CG dinucleotides

States: CpG island +  
non-CpG island -

Transition probabilities: higher to go from CpG island to non-CpG island

Emission probabilities: how often a certain nucleotide is followed by another one  
in CpG island C often followed by G



+ all transitions within  
each state (not shown)

Based on how often we observe CG dinucleotides, we can guess if we are in a CpG island



# Alice and Bob



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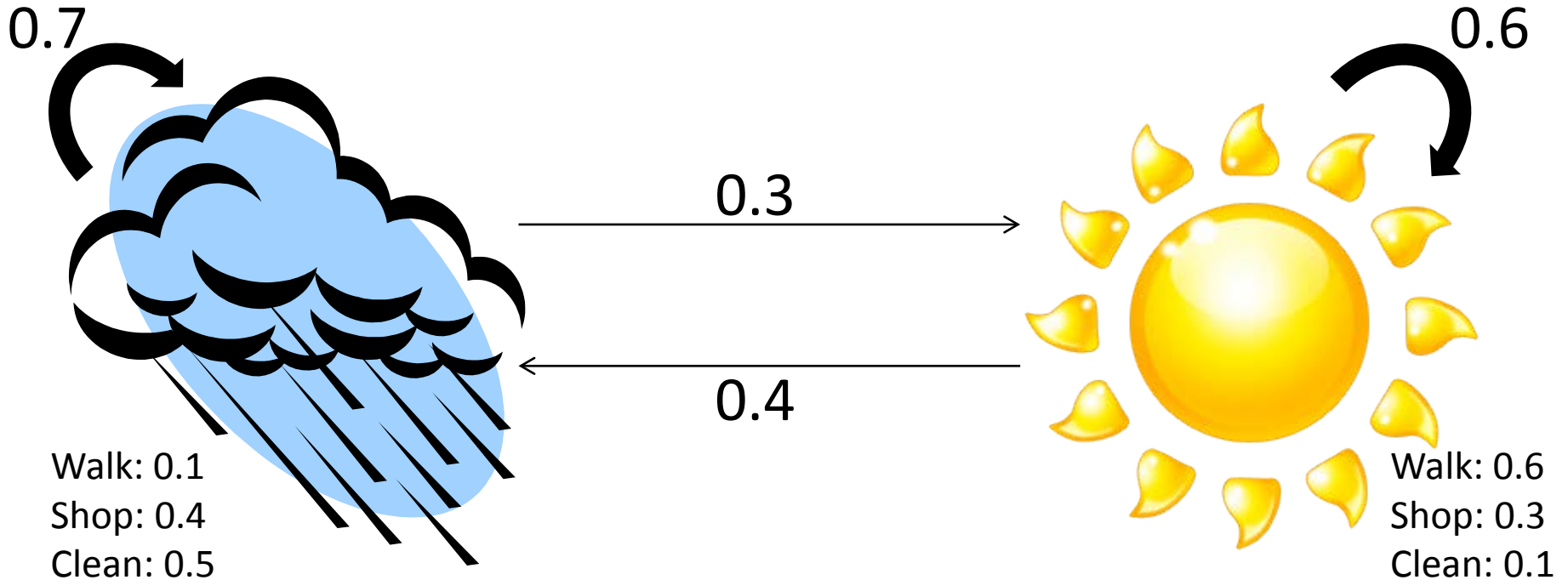
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# Alice and Bob

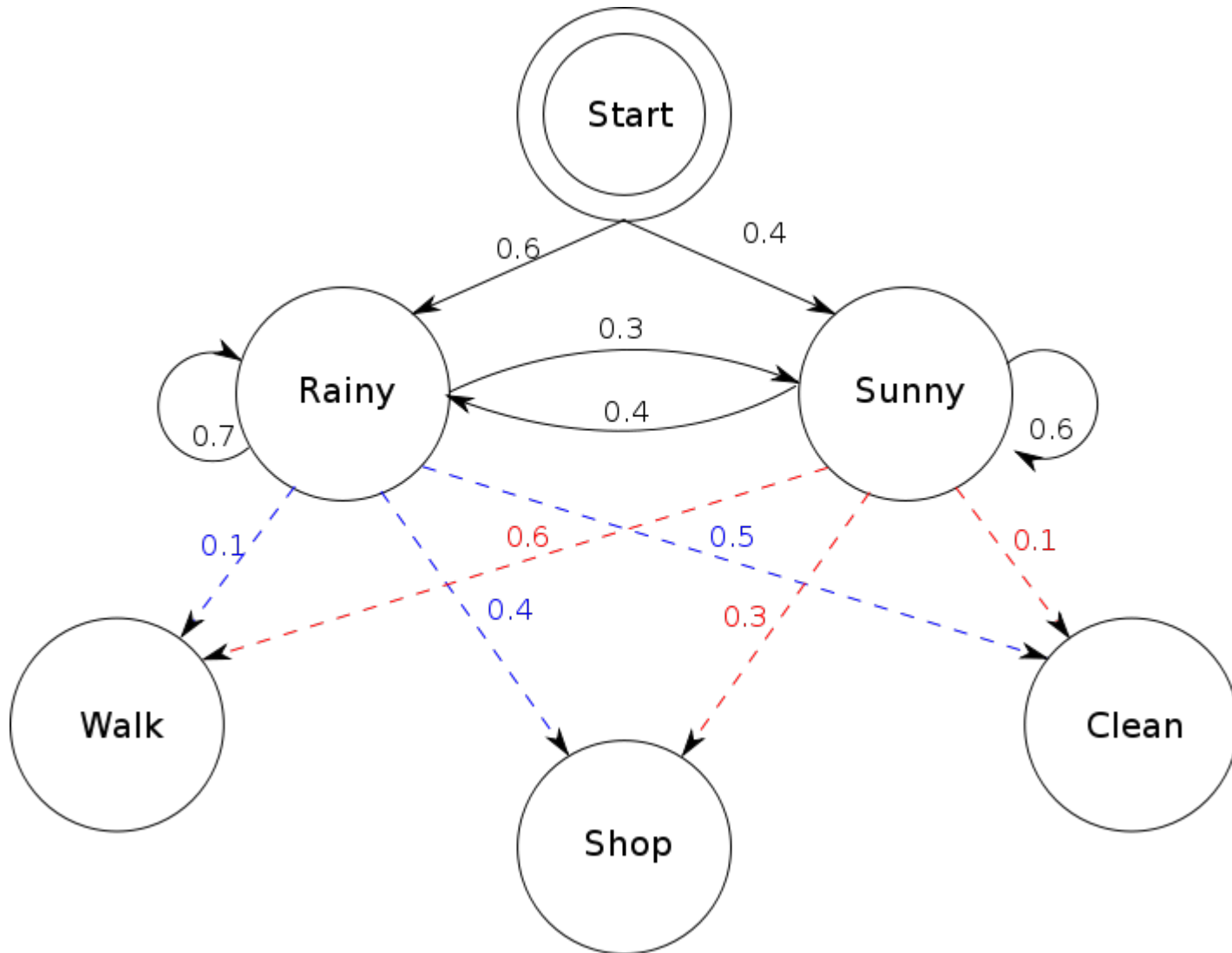


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                      }
```

```
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                        }
```

# Alice and Bob

Just another way to represent the model:





# Profile HMMs

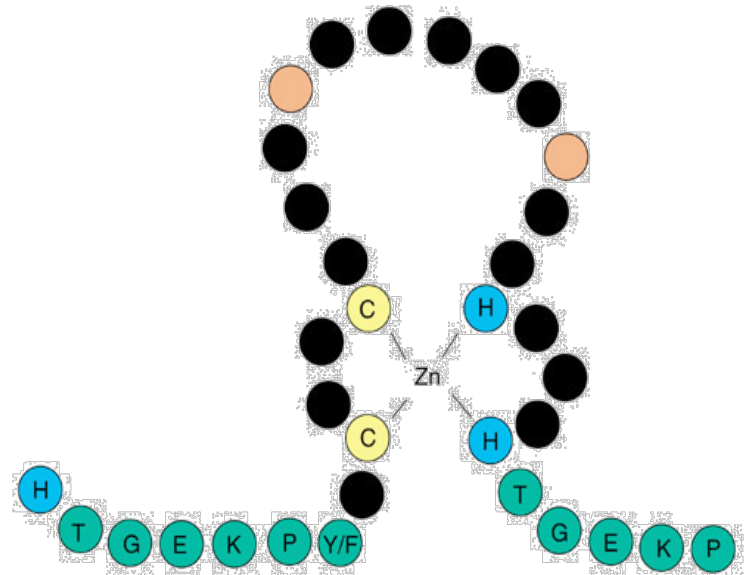
Most frequent application of HMMs in biological data

Good for domain finding

**e.g. Find all ZNF genes in the platypus genome**

Let's assume you have all human and mouse ZNF genes

```
ECGECGKSFSSNVNLKGHQRIHTGERPY
ECGECGKSFSSQVNLMLKHHQRIHTGERPY
ECGECGKSFSSWVNLKSHQRIHTGERPY
KCGECGKSFSSNMLKLKSHQRIHTGERPY
ECGECGKSFSSNVHLKPHQRIHTGERPY
KCGECEKSFSSRKPGLSIHQRIHTEVRPY
KCGECEKSFSSIKPSSLMHQRIHTEVRPY
KCGECEKSFSSLKPPLSKHQRIHTEVRPY
KCGECDKSFSSVKPTLGYHQRIHTEVRPY
KCGECEKSFSSRKPRLSEHQRIHTEVRPY
KCGECGKSYISKGHRLRHQRMHTGERPY
KCGECGKSYIPKGSLLRIHQRMHTGERPY
KCGECGKSYIHKGTLRTHQRMHTGERPY
KCGECGKSYILKGHRLRGHQRMHTGERPY
KCGECGKSYISKGLLLRIHQRMHTGERPY
KCGDCGKSFNEKGLILRSHQRVHTTERPY
KCGDCGKSFNWKGHRLRYHQRVHTTERPY
KCGDCGKSFNEKGPLRWHQRVHTTERPY
KCGDCGKSFNYKGLLLRSHQRVHTTERPY
KCGDCGKSFNGKGLKLLRHQRVHTTERPY
```



We could use the known ZNF genes to BLAST for homologues in the platypus genome

Or make PW alignments with all platypus genes

both might miss platypus specific / highly diverged ZNF genes

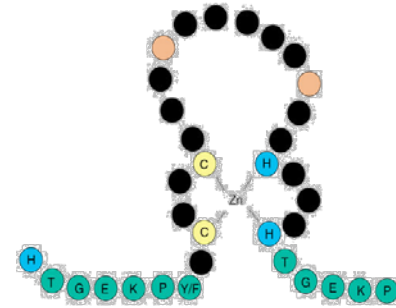
# Profile HMMs

Or we could make a model of the family of ZNF domains and screen the genome for this model

```

E C G E C G K S F S S N V N L K G H Q R I H T G E R P Y
E C G E C G K S F S Q N V M L K H H Q R I H T G E R P Y
E C G E C G K S F S W N V L L K S H Q R I H T G E R P Y
K C G E C G K S F S S N M K L K L H Q R I H T G E R P Y
E C G E C G K S F S S N V H L K P H Q R I H T G E R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S R K P G L S I H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S I K P S L S M H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S L K P P L S K H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C D K S F S V K P T L G Y H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S R K P R L S E H Q R I H T E V R P Y

```



2<sup>nd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> position always C  
 18<sup>th</sup> and 22<sup>nd</sup> position always H  
 End often something like GERPY

PSSM  
 (Position Specific  
 Scoring Matrix):  
 Some rule to convert  
 frequencies to scores  
 But doesn't take  
 gaps into account

	A	C	D	...
1	-1789	911	-1713	
2	-1075	-662	-1597	
3	-12231	<b>5880</b>	-11456	
4	-1505	71	-244	
5	-1624	-246	189	
6	-12231	<b>5880</b>	-11456	
7	-1719	-668	-514	

# Profile HMMs

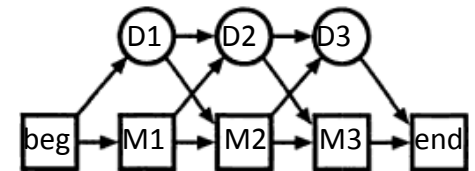
1. MSA: Bat : AG---C  
Rat : A-AG-C  
Cat : AG-AA-  
Gnat : --AAAC  
Goat : AG---C  
1 2 . . . 3

2. Decide which columns to mark as match states  
(e.g. all columns with more less than 50% deletions; here 1,2,3)

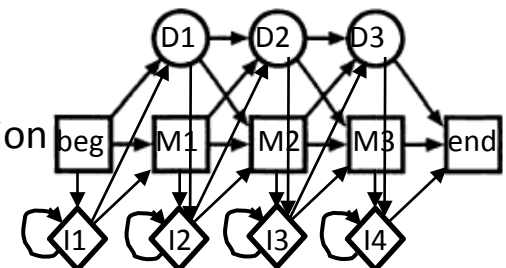
3. Start making the HMM  
(matches are the states in our HMM; here M1-M3  
residues are the emissions, have certain probability according to MSA)



4. Add deletions to HMM  
(are states that do not emit any residue; here D1-D3  
you can go from any residue to any other residue  
by using a sequence of deletions)

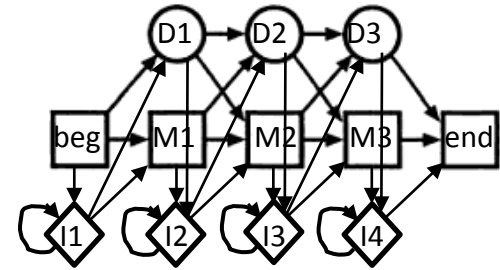


5. Add insertions to HMM  
(they are treated as new states; here I1-I5  
can emit any residue, probability usually taken from background distribution  
there can be multiple insertions)



# Profile HMMs

1. MSA: Bat : AG---C  
 Rat : A-AG-C  
 Cat : AG-AA-  
 Gnat : --AAAC  
 Goat : AG---C  
 12...3  
 ⋮



Model position: 0 1 2 3

6. Get transition and emission probabilities  
 (count/observe transitions and emissions from MSA;  
 to avoid zero probabilities add pseudocounts,  
 e.g. add 1 to each observation;  
 here without pseudocounts)

	0	1	2	3	
Match emissions	A	-	4	0	0
	C	-	0	0	4
	G	-	0	3	0
	T	-	0	0	0
Insert emissions	A	0	0	6	0
	C	0	0	0	0
	G	0	0	1	0
	T	0	0	0	0
State transitions	M-M	4	3	2	4
	M-D	1	1	0	0
	M-I	0	0	1	0
	I-M	0	0	2	0
	I-D	0	0	1	0
	I-I	0	0	4	0
	D-M	-	0	0	1
	D-D	-	1	0	0
	D-I	-	0	2	0

# Profile HMMs

e.g. Find all ZNF genes in the platypus genome

Let's assume you have all human and mouse ZNF genes

Use them to build/train your HMM

```

E C G E C G K S F S S N V N L K G H Q R I H T G E R P Y
E C G E C G K S F S Q N V M L K H H Q R I H T G E R P Y
E C G E C G K S F S W N V L L K S H Q R I H T G E R P Y
K C G E C G K S F S S N M K L K L H Q R I H T G E R P Y
E C G E C G K S F S S N V H L K P H Q R I H T G E R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S R K P G L S I H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S I K P S L S M H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S L K P P L S K H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C D K S F S V K P T L G Y H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C E K S F S R K P R L S E H Q R I H T E V R P Y
K C G E C G K S Y I S K G H L R R H Q R M H T G E R P Y
K C G E C G K S Y I P K G S L R I H Q R M H T G E R P Y
K C G E C G K S Y I H K G T L R T H Q R M H T G E R P Y
K C G E C G K S Y I L K G H L R G H Q R M H T G E R P Y
K C G E C G K S Y I S K G L L R I H Q R M H T G E R P Y
K C G D C G K S F N E K G I L R S H Q R V H T T E R P Y
K C G D C G K S F N W K G H L R Y H Q R V H T T E R P Y
K C G D C G K S F N E K G P L R W H Q R V H T T E R P Y
K C G D C G K S F N Y K G L L R S H Q R V H T T E R P Y
K C G D C G K S F N G K G K L R L H Q R V H T T E R P Y
    
```

train →

Match  
emissions

Insert  
emissions

State transitions

	0	1	...	28
A				
C				
D				
E				
...				
A				
C				
D				
E				
...				
M-M				
M-D				
M-I				
I-M				
I-D				
I-I				
D-M				
D-D				
D-I				

Scan the translated platypus genome with this HMM

Finds everything that looks like a ZNF domain, hence also diverged and platypus specific ZNF proteins

# How do we get the transition and emission probabilities if the path is unknown?

- In the ZNF example the path was known, so we could just count observations
- In the casino example the path is unknown ...

Typically split data in training set and test set

## Baum-Welch algorithm:

### Training:

*Initialization:* Start the HMM with some arbitrary model parameters

### *Recurrence:*

Set all transition A and emission E variables to their pseudocounts or to zero

For each sequence  $j = 1 \dots n$

    Calculate how likely is  $j$  given the current HMM

    Calculate how much  $j$  contributes to current A and E

Calculate new model parameters using maximum likelihood estimation:  $a_{kl} = \frac{A_{kl}}{\sum_{l'} A_{kl'}}$  and  $e_k(b) = \frac{E_k(b)}{\sum_{b'} E_k(b')}$

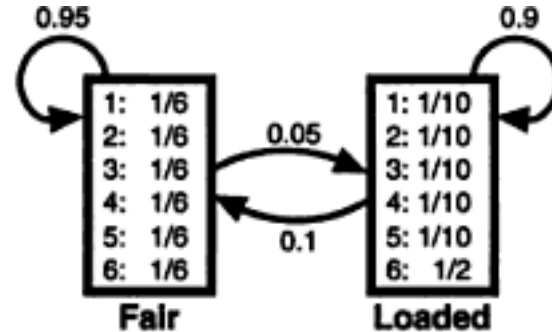
Calculate new log likelihood of the model

*Stop:* when change in log likelihood is less than a predefined threshold  
or when predefined maximum number of iterations is reached



# How do we get the transition and emission probabilities if the path is unknown?

“real” model:

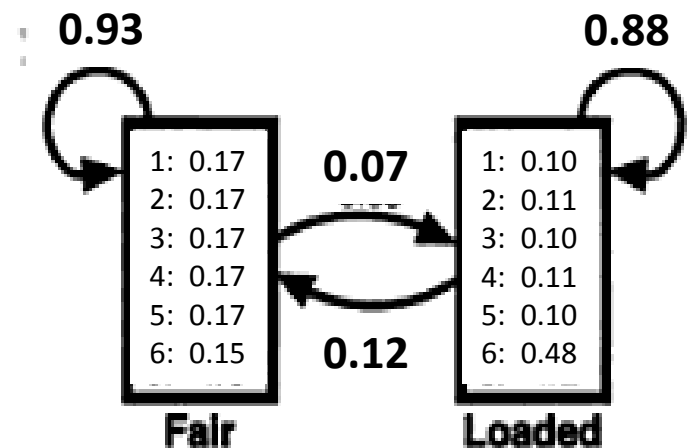
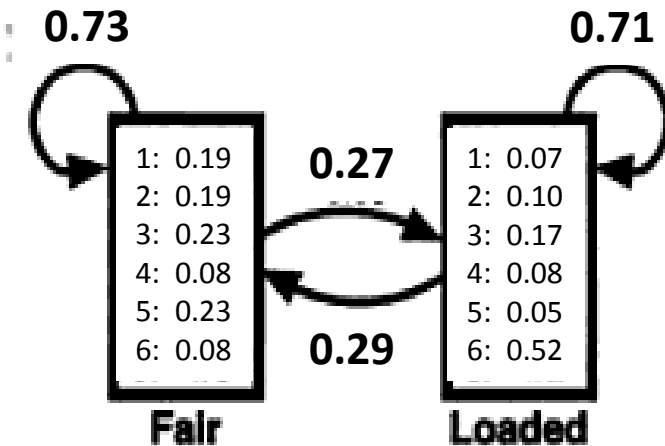


Would be useful to know when the loaded dice is in play to bet for the 6

## Model estimate:

Collected observations of 300 rolls

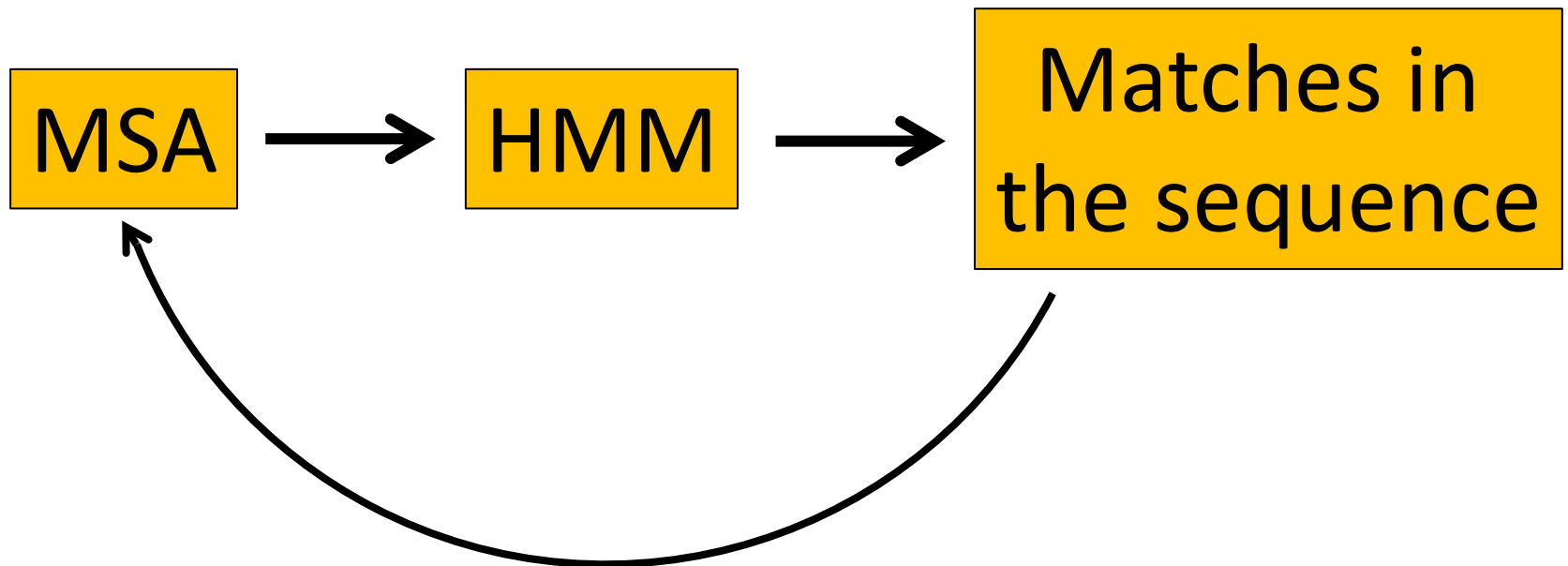
Collected observations of 30.000 rolls



The more observations the better the model



# HMMER



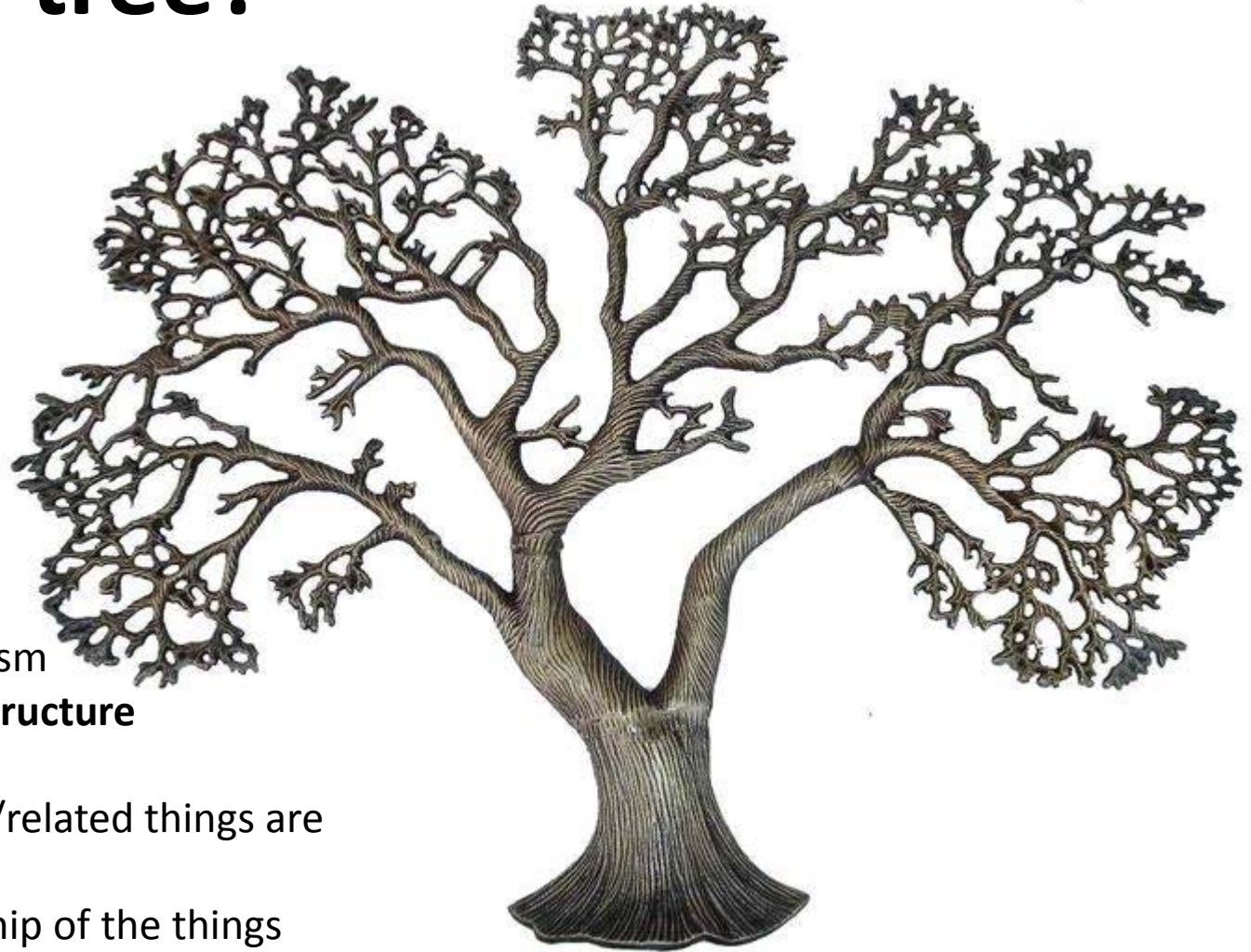
# Sequence analysis and genomics

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# What is a tree?



Tree = a biological organism  
= a **mathematical structure**

Trees reflect how similar/related things are

Leaves = Things

Branches show relationship of the things

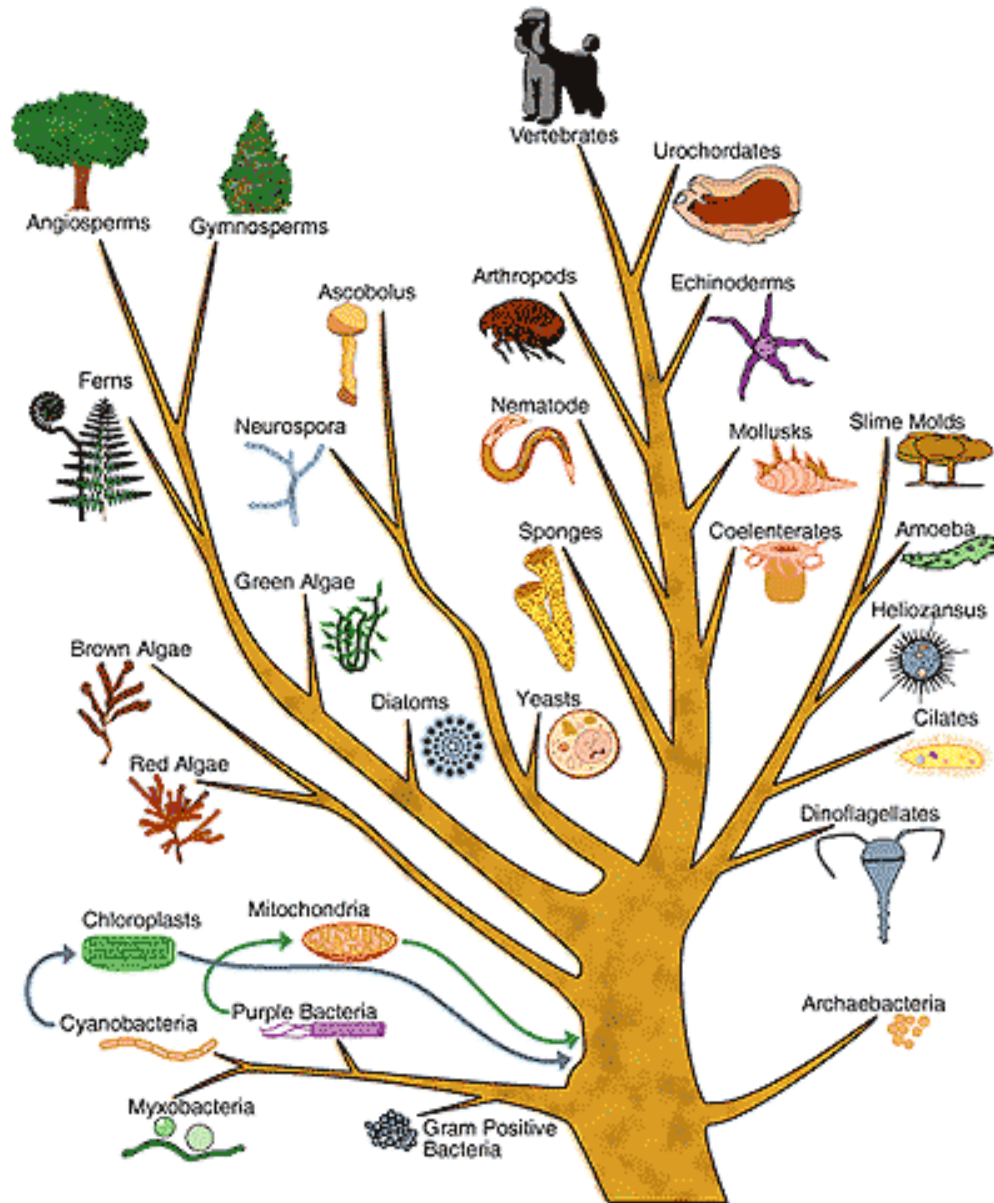
Examples:

Species tree – how similar are species

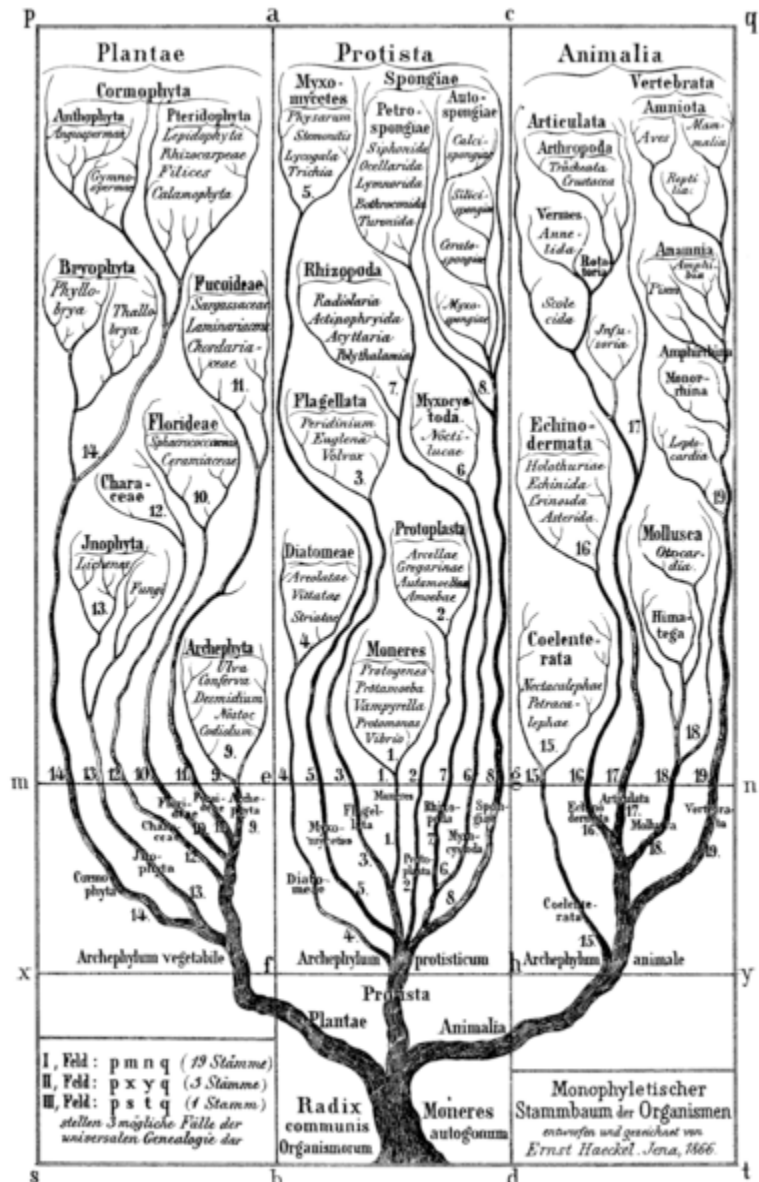
Gene trees – how similar are genes

...

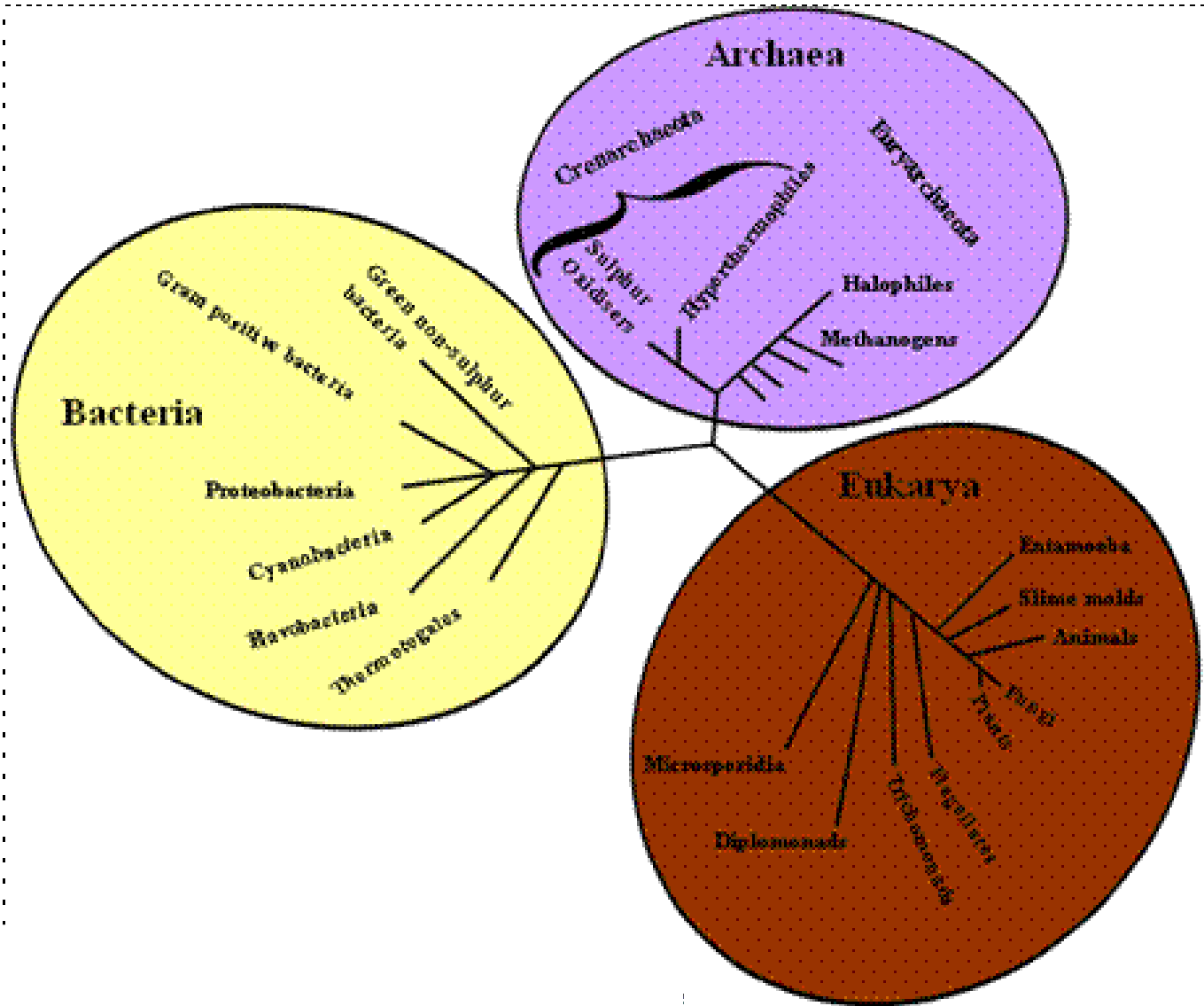
# A species tree



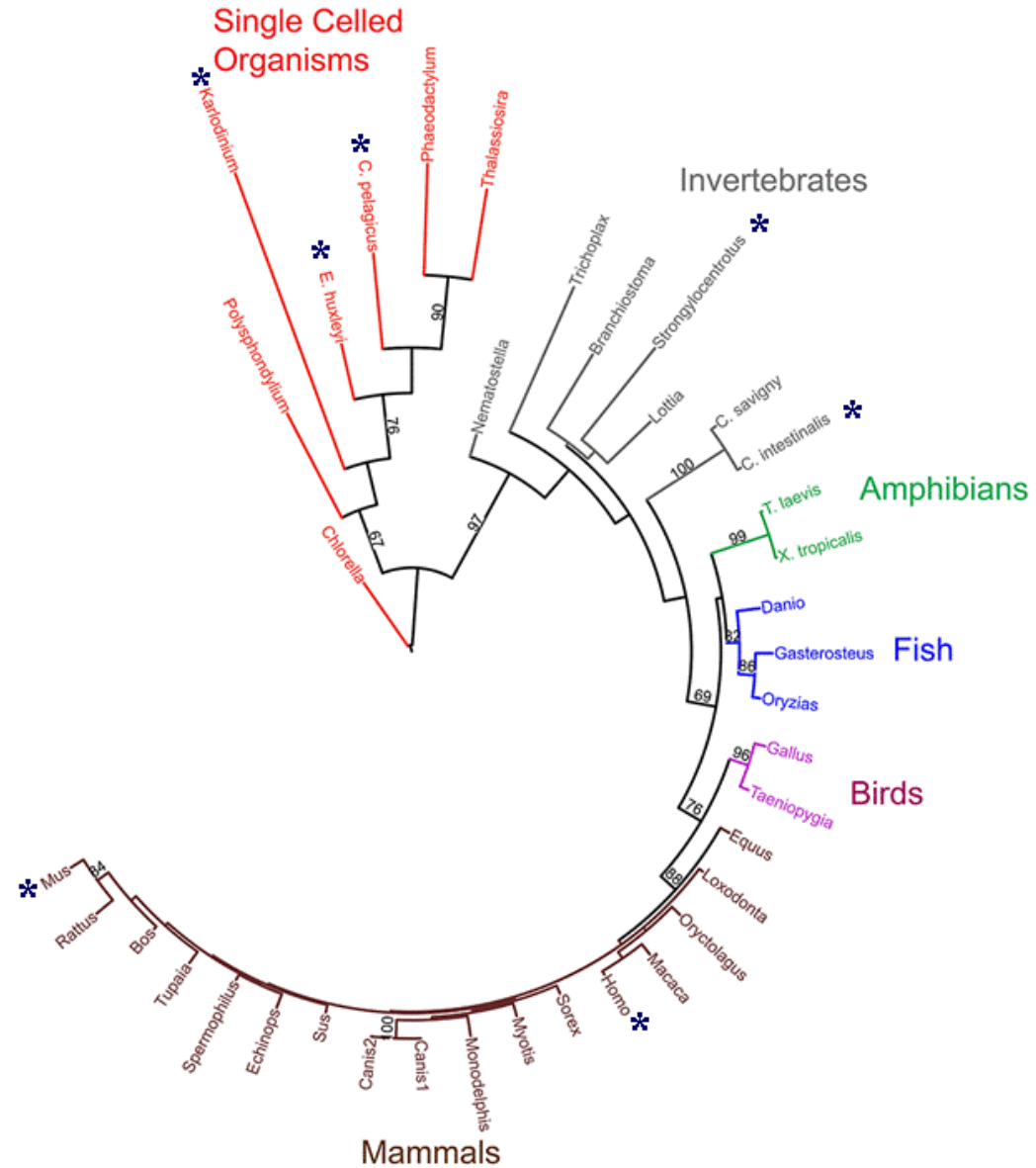
# Haeckel's tree of life: another species tree



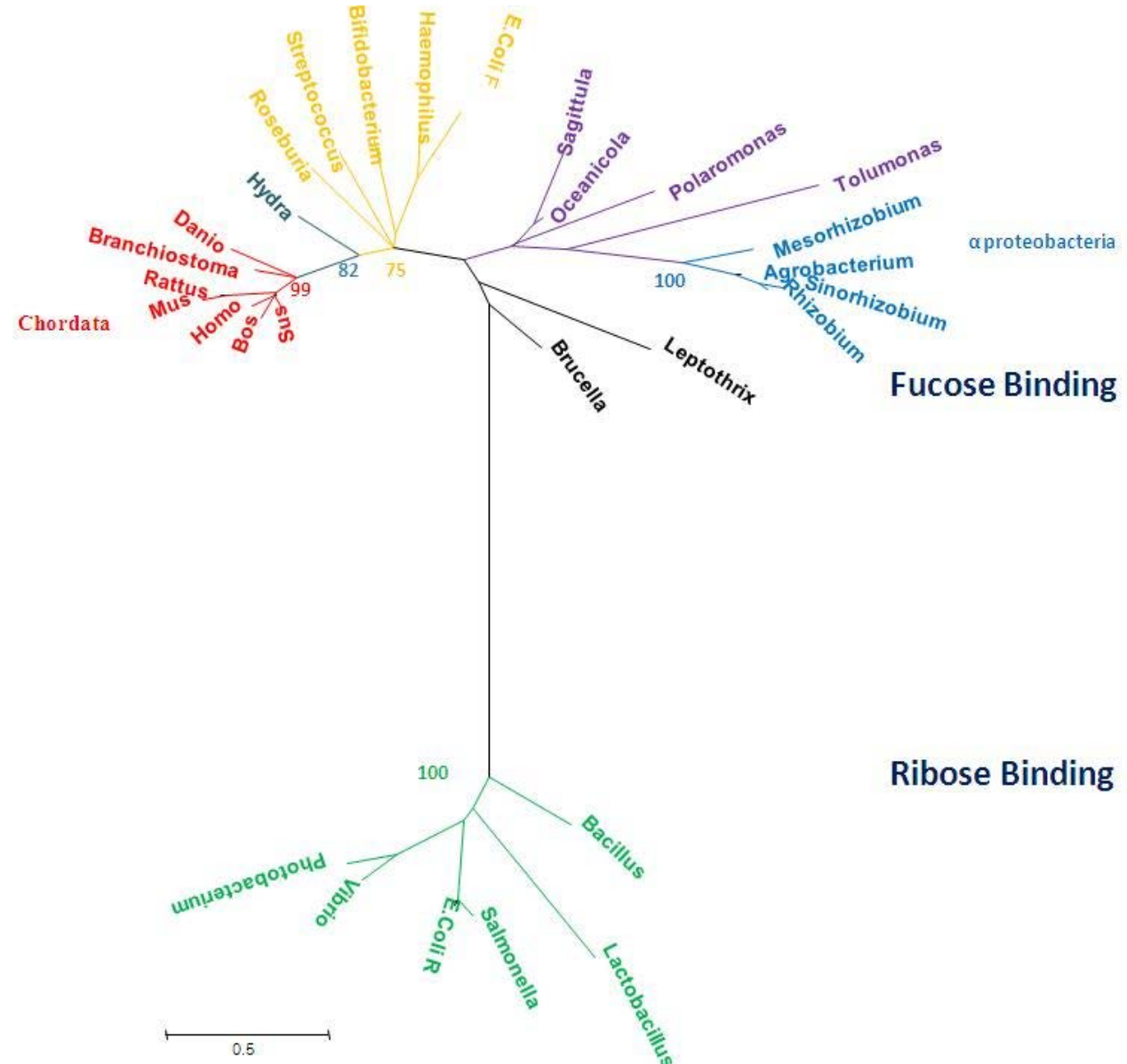
# Tree of life: Another species tree



# Another visualization of a species tree

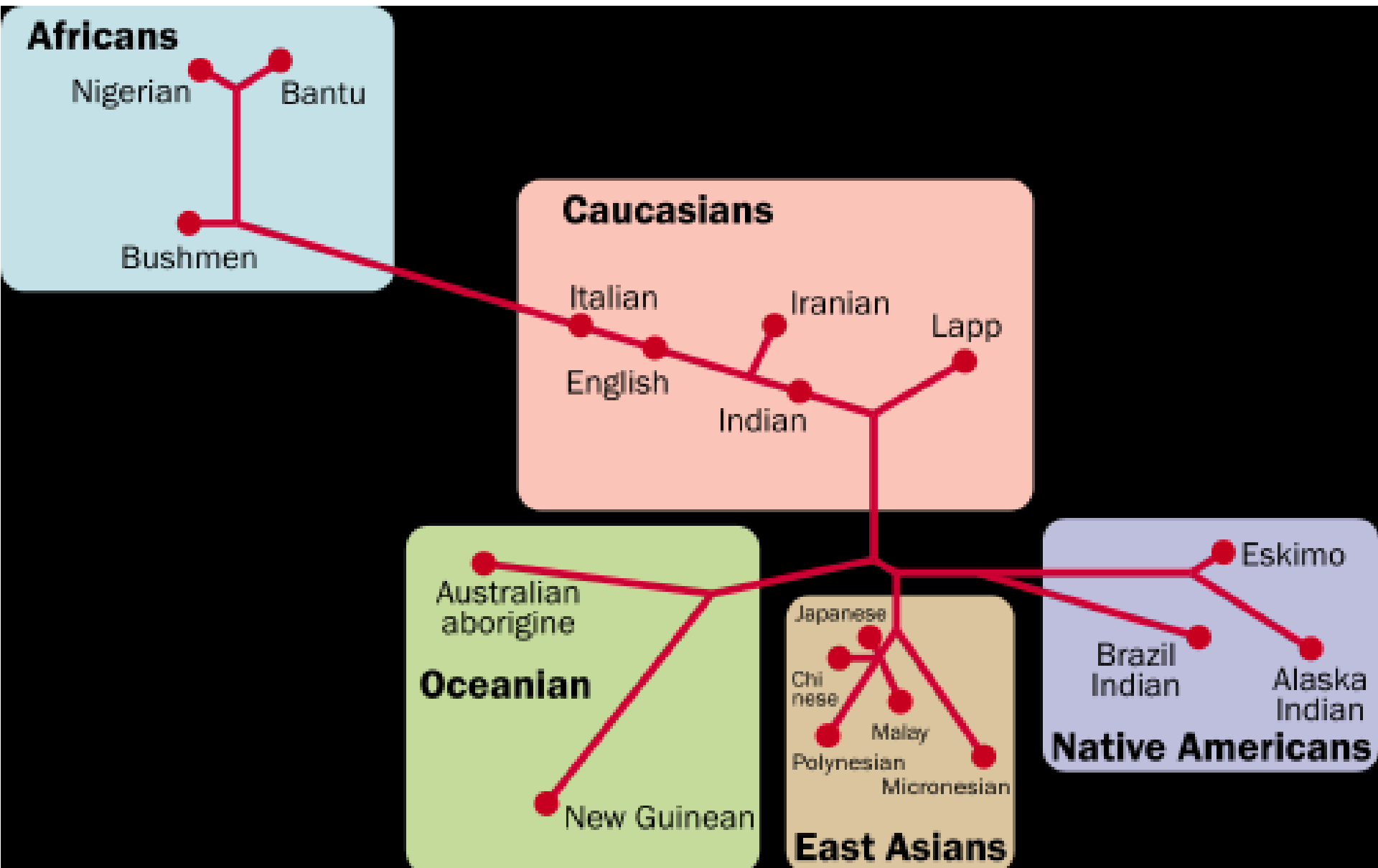


# Another visualization of a species tree

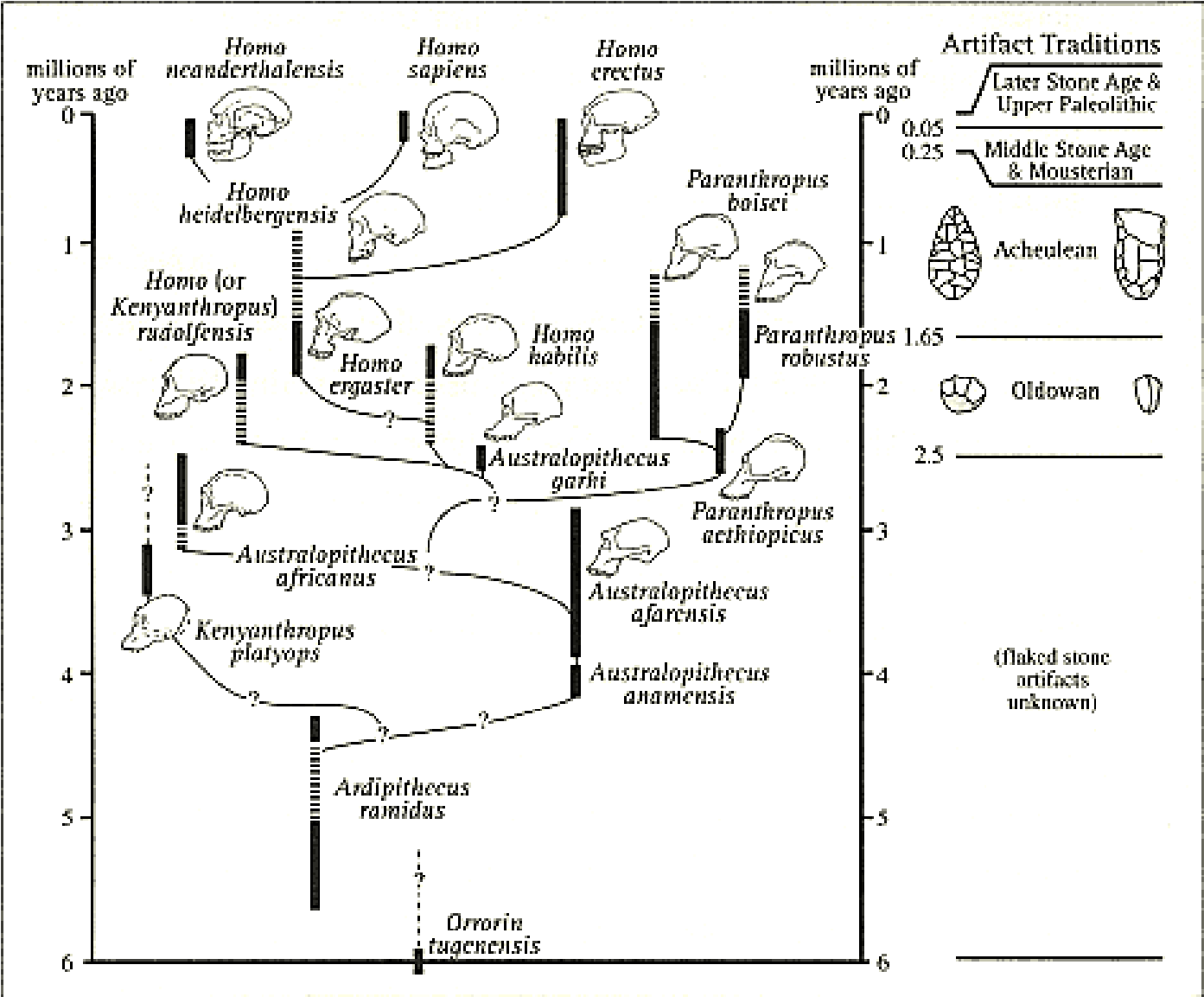




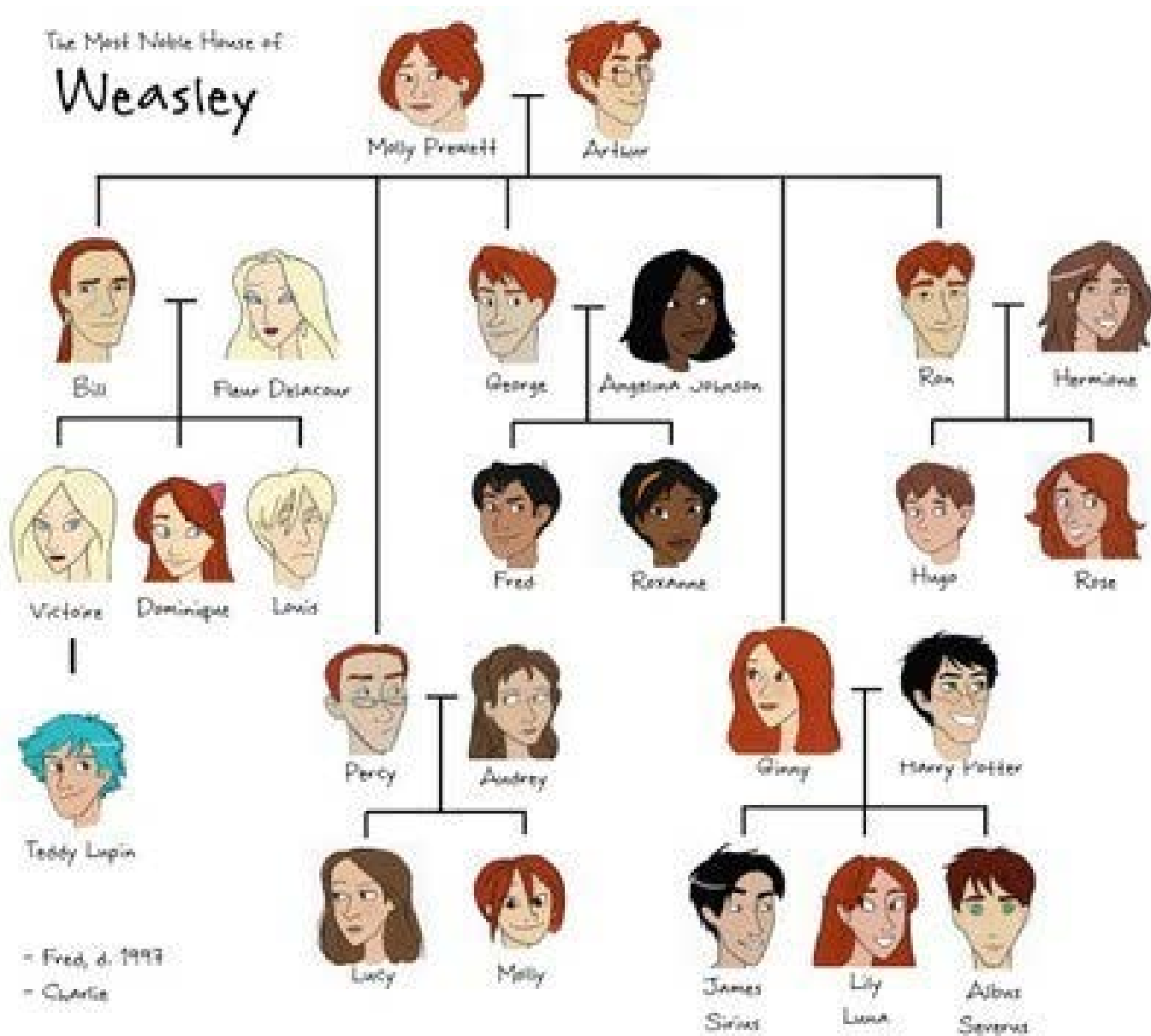
# Tree of human populations



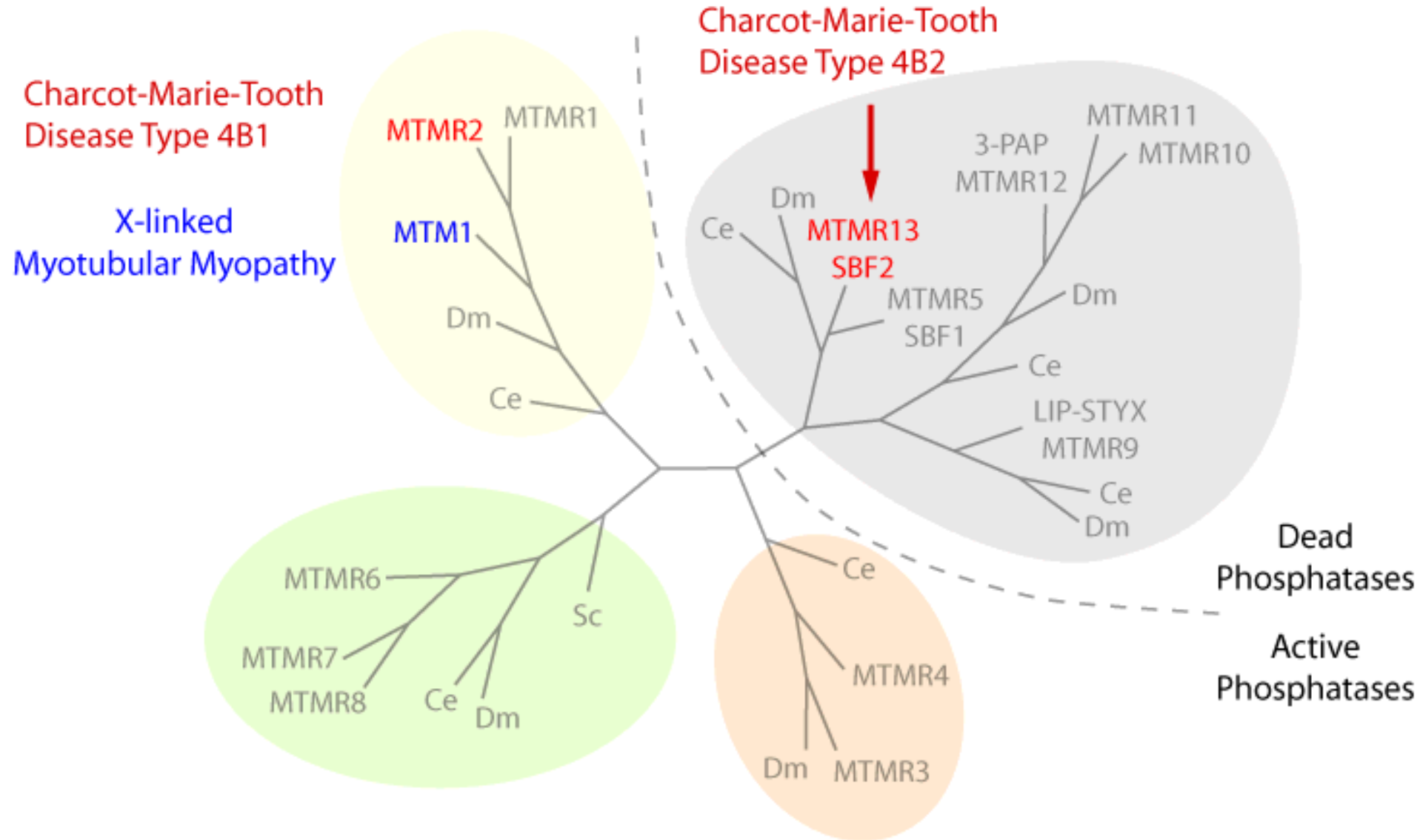
# Tree of human species



# A family tree



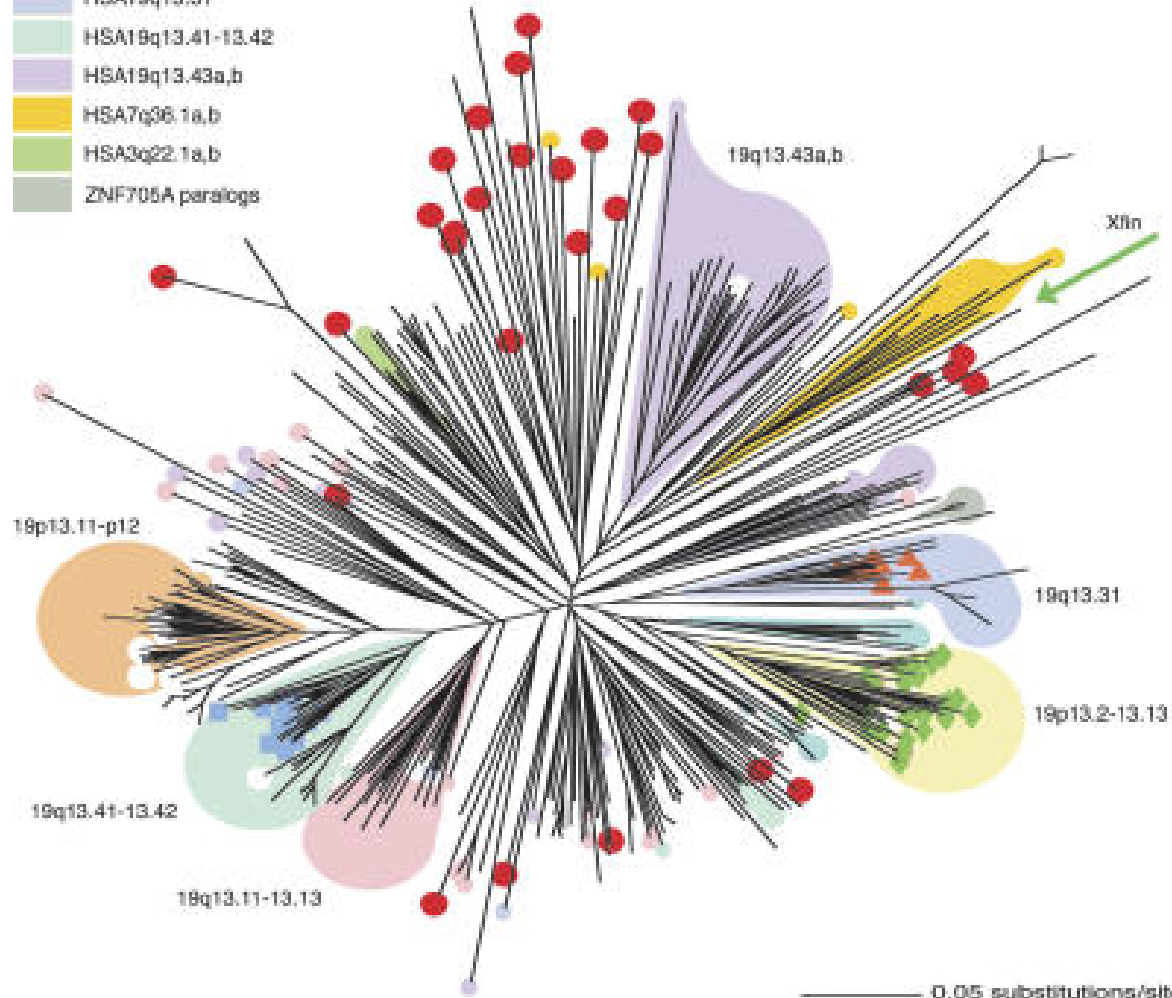
# A gene tree



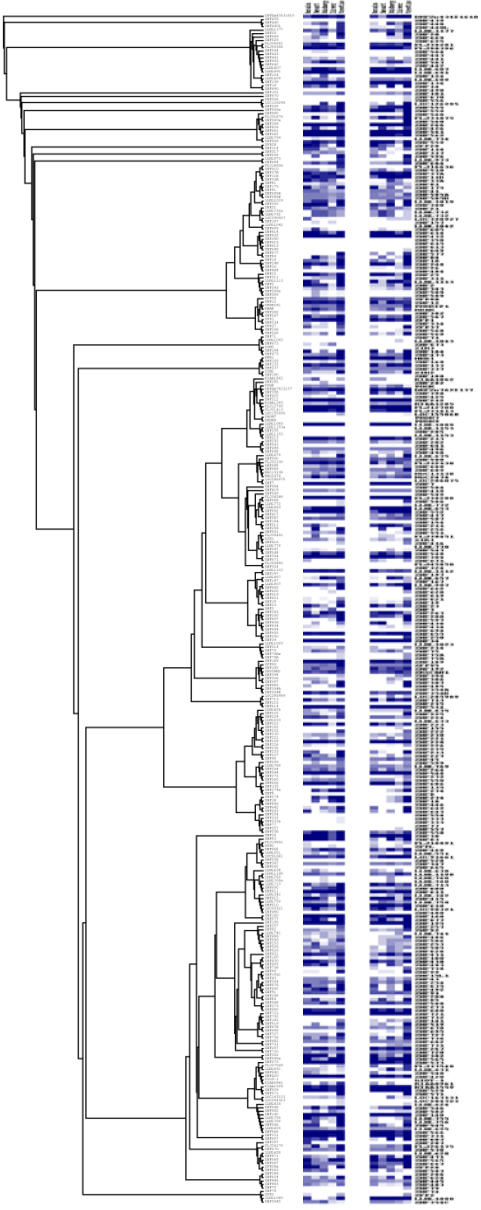
# Another gene tree

Genes from highlighted locations

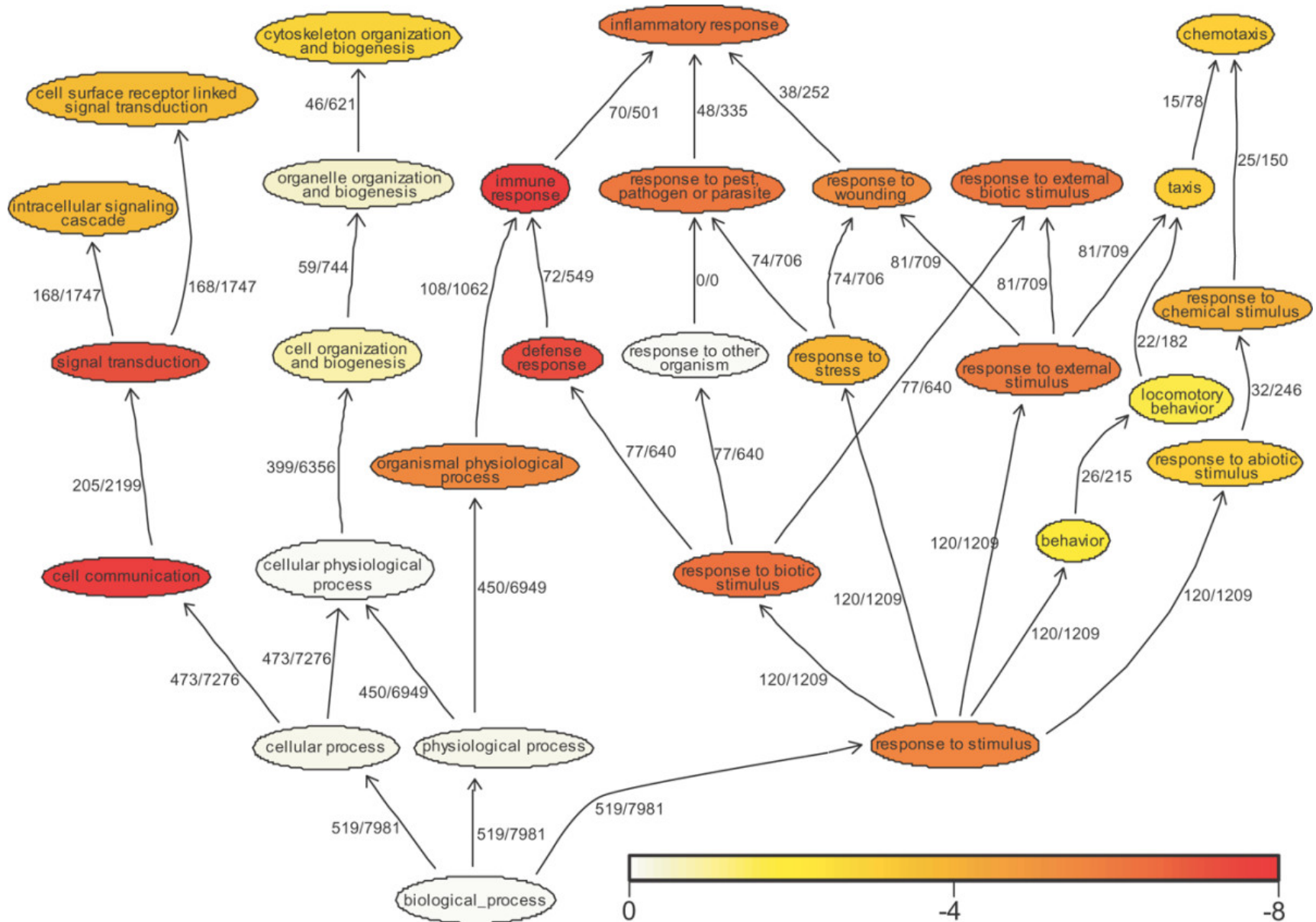
- HSA19p13.2
- HSA19p13.2-13.13
- HSA19p13.11-p12
- HSA19q13.11-13.13
- HSA19q13.31
- HSA19q13.41-13.42
- HSA19q13.43a,b
- HSA7q36.1a,b
- HSA3q22.1a,b
- ZNF705A paralogs



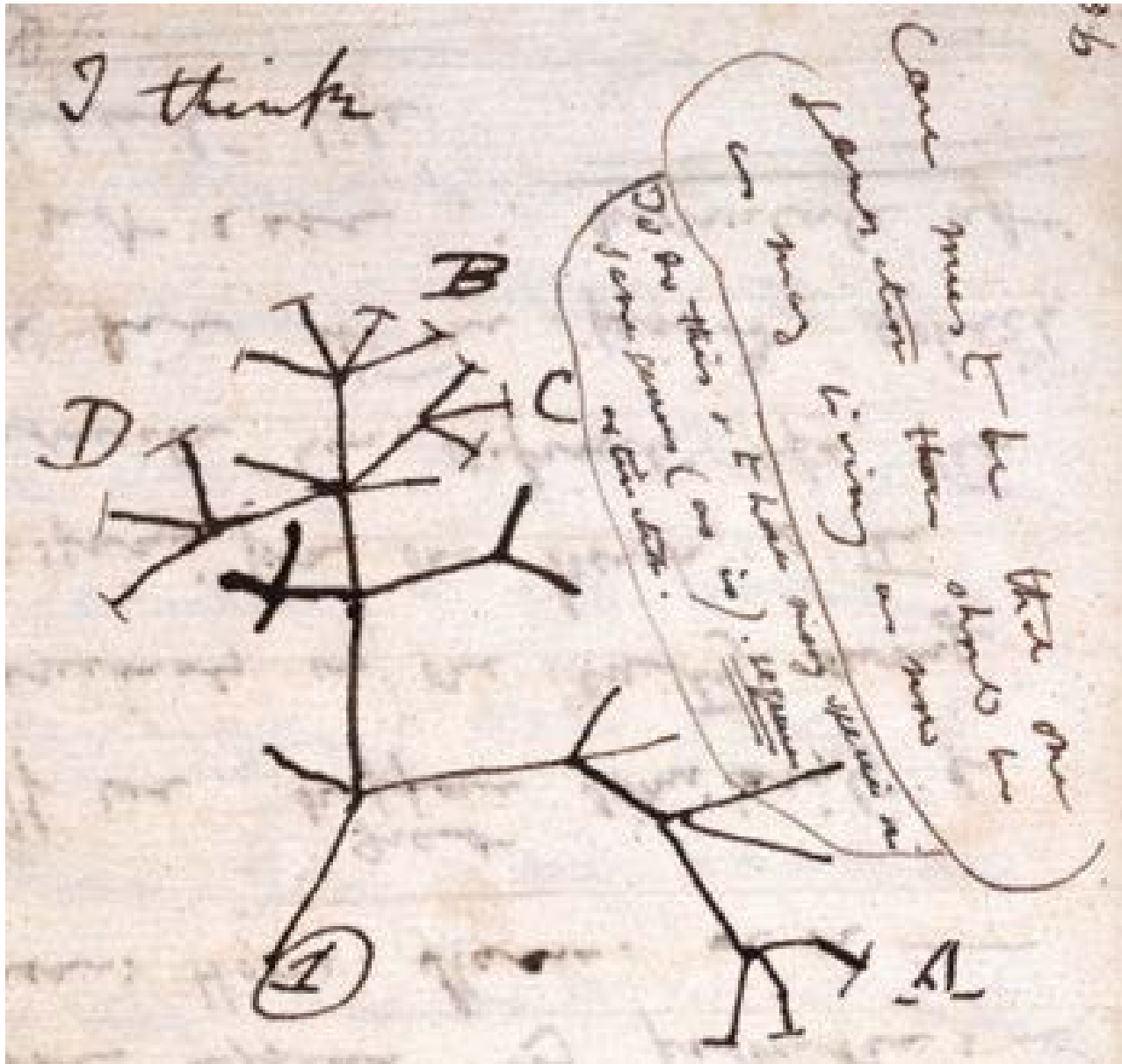
# A tree of gene expression patterns in multiple tissues



# A tree of Gene Ontology groups



# The first drawn tree (Darwin)



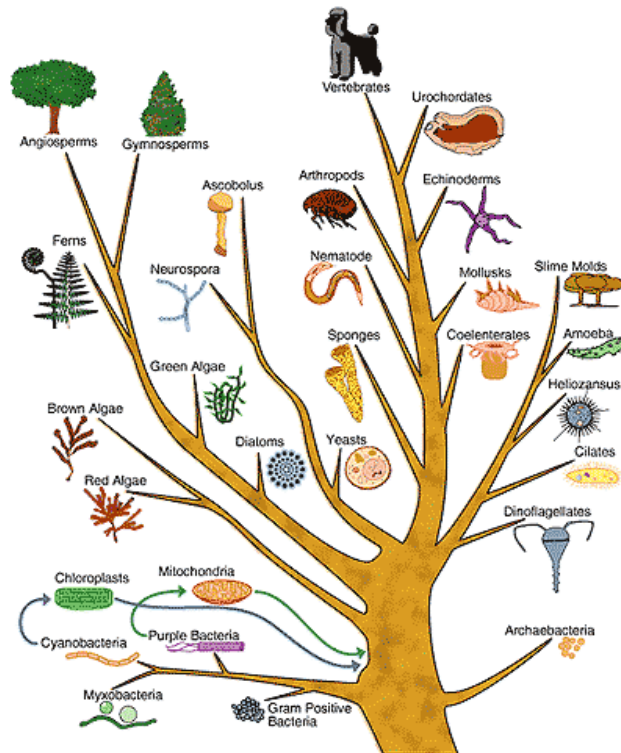


# Topic today: Evolutionary trees / phylogenetic trees

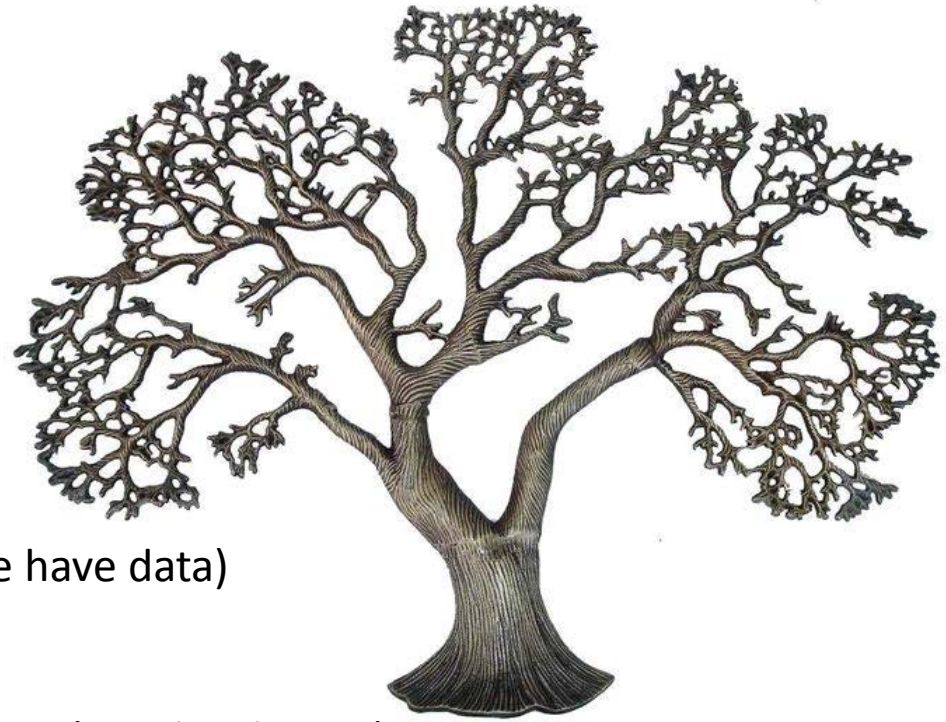
All in life is related by common ancestry

Phylogenetics refers to the evolutionary relatedness of organisms (species, populations ...)

But all the following methods can be used for any type of data as long as characters have more than one state



# Terminology



Tree = a mathematical structure

Trees reflect how similar/related things are

Things = nodes in the tree, e.g. species

Terminal nodes (leaves) = species (for which we have data)

Internal nodes = inferred ancestors

Branches (edges) show relationship

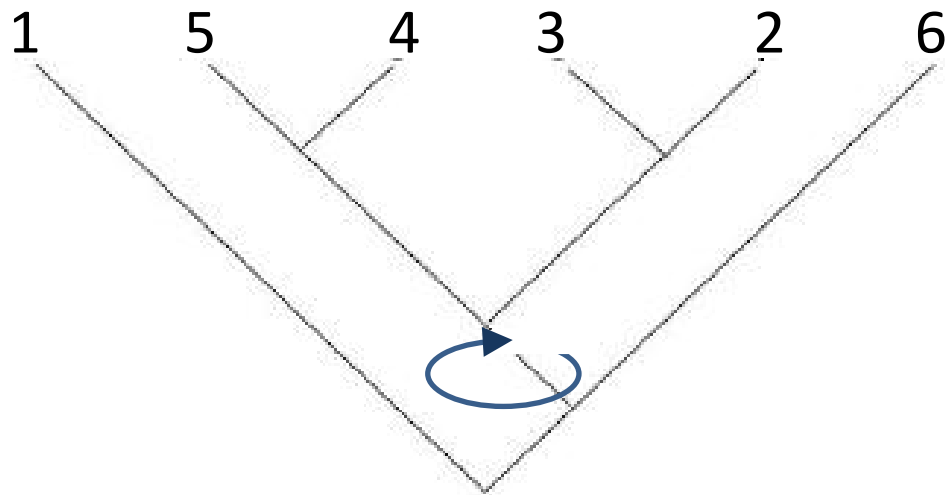
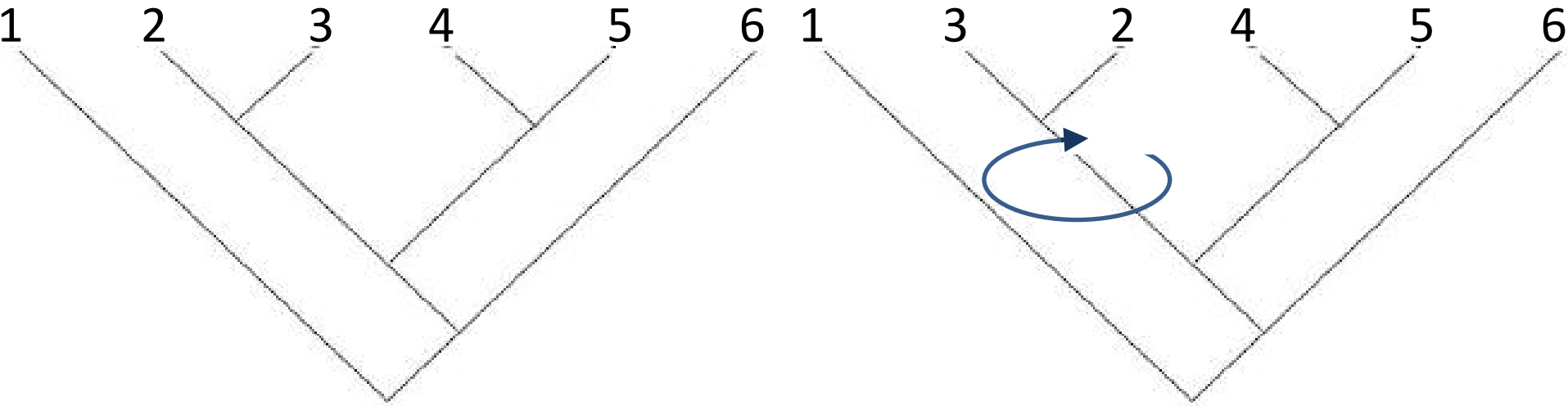
Length of the branch can reflect evolutionary time (weighted trees)

Terminology differs between disciplines

Usually data for ancestors are sparse (only fossils),

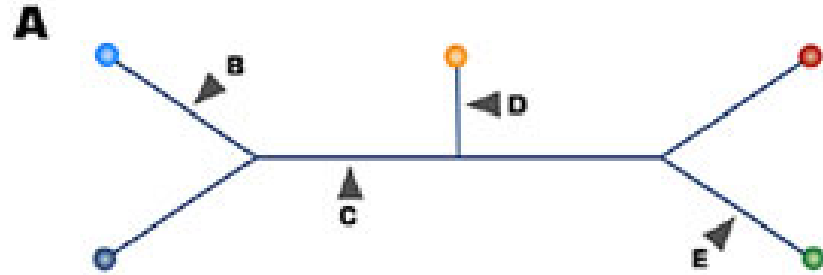
so the evolutionary history has to be reconstructed based on living species

# Branches can be freely rotated



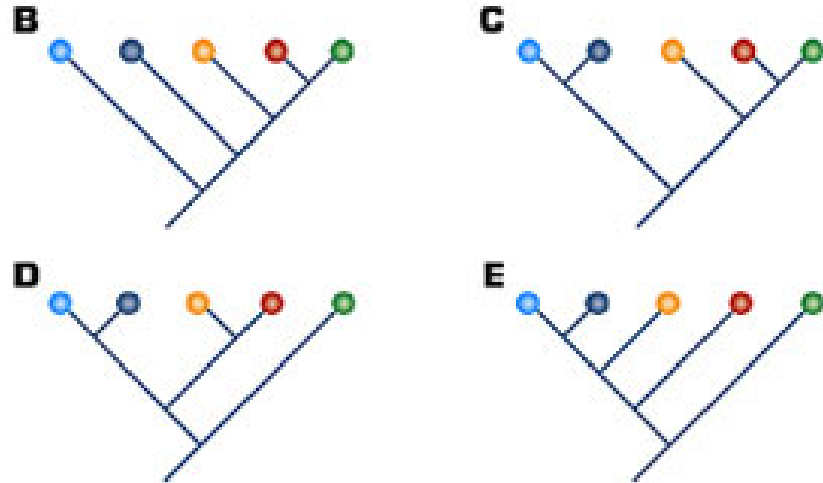
# Unrooted vs rooted trees

Unrooted



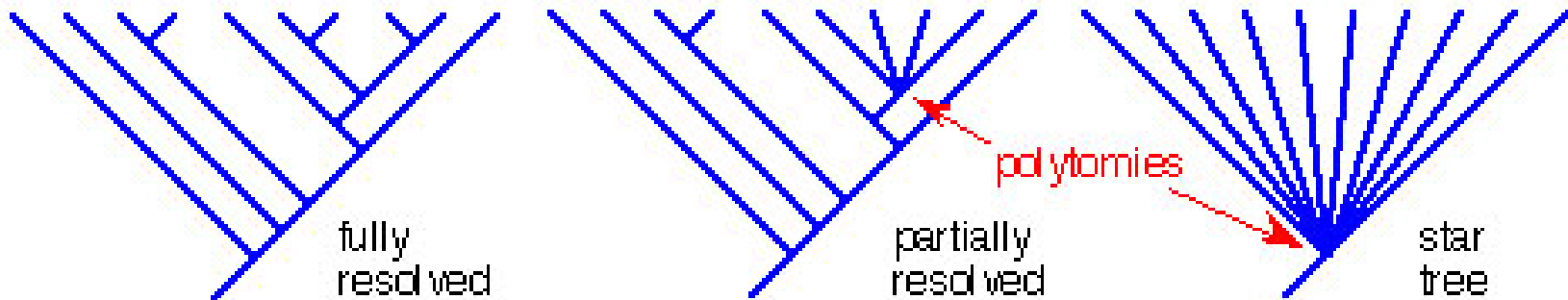
Rooted

Choosing different branches as roots



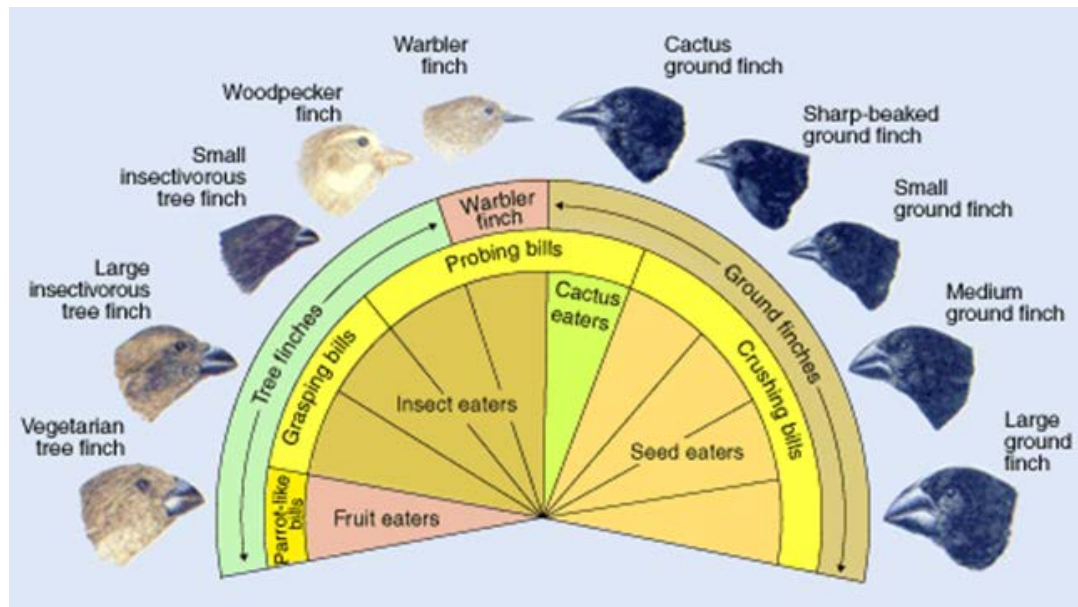
Only rooted trees have an evolutionary direction

# Resolved vs unresolved trees

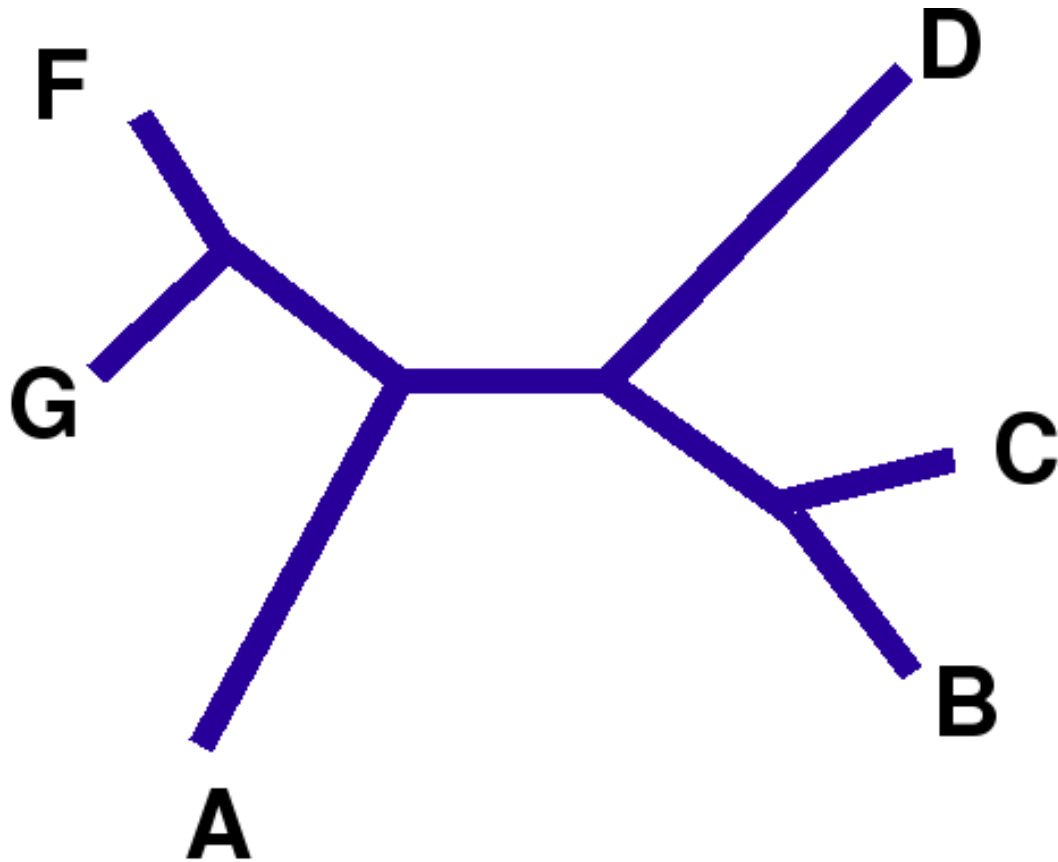


**Polytomy** = when a node has more than 3 branches (more than 1 ancestor + two descendants)  
Either the lineages really diverged at the same time (or very rapidly)  
or we don't know what the real divergence pattern is

Example of a star tree:  
Radiation of Darwin finches



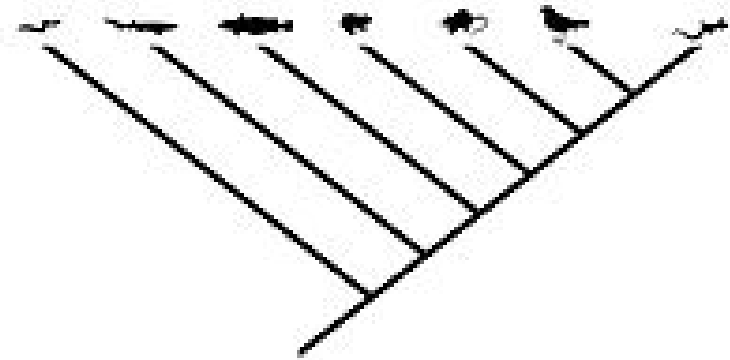
# Newick format



Newick format used by many computer programs:

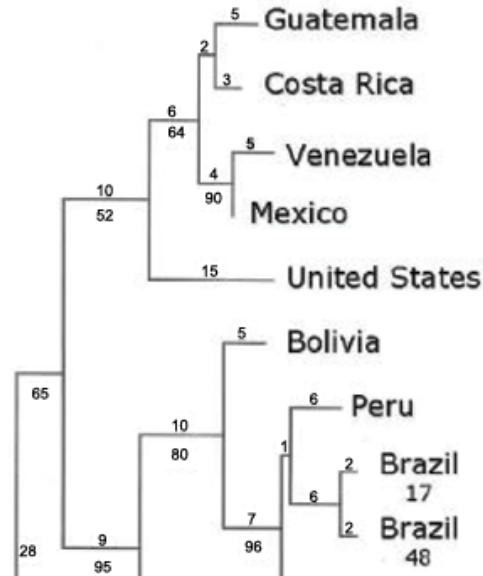
**((((F , G) , A) , (B , C) , D) )**

# Different types of trees



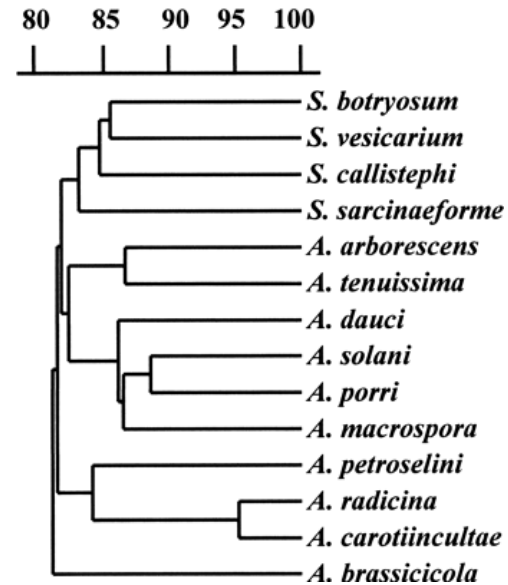
## Cladogram

Most simple tree  
Just shows relative recency  
Branch length has no meaning



## Phylogram

Additive tree  
Branch length reflects  
number of changes

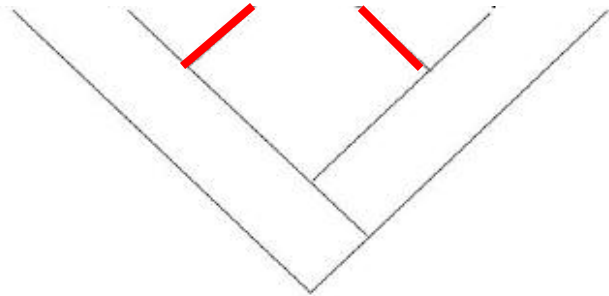


## Dendrogram

Ultrametric tree  
Special form of a phylogram  
All tips equal length from root  
Axis = divergence time  
assuming molecular clock

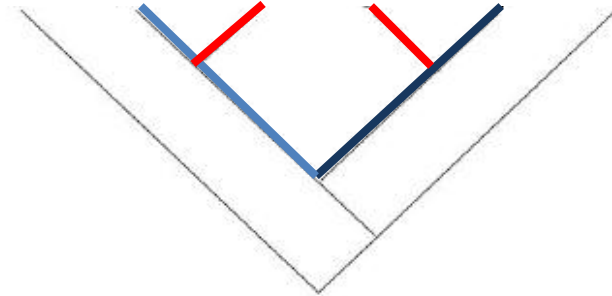
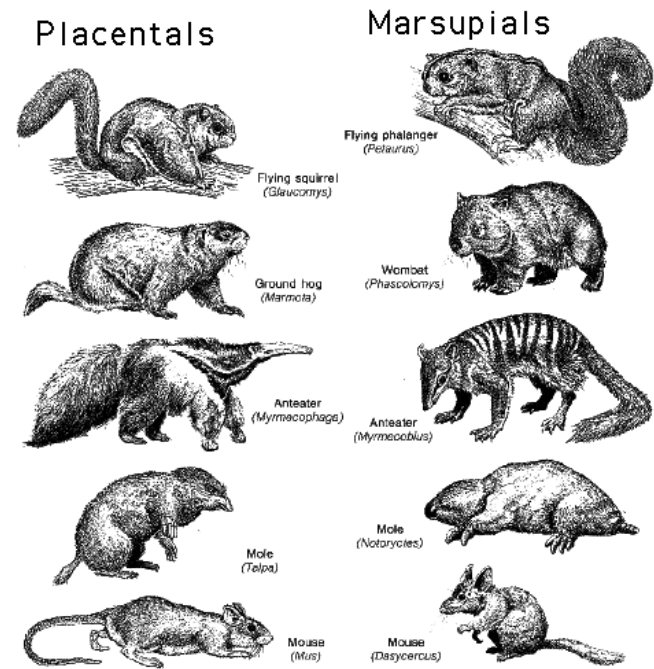
# Homoplasy

Homoplasy: similarity acquired independently, i.e. not by descent



## Parallel evolution

Same characters from the same ancestral condition  
cichlids in Lake Malawi and Lake Tanganyika



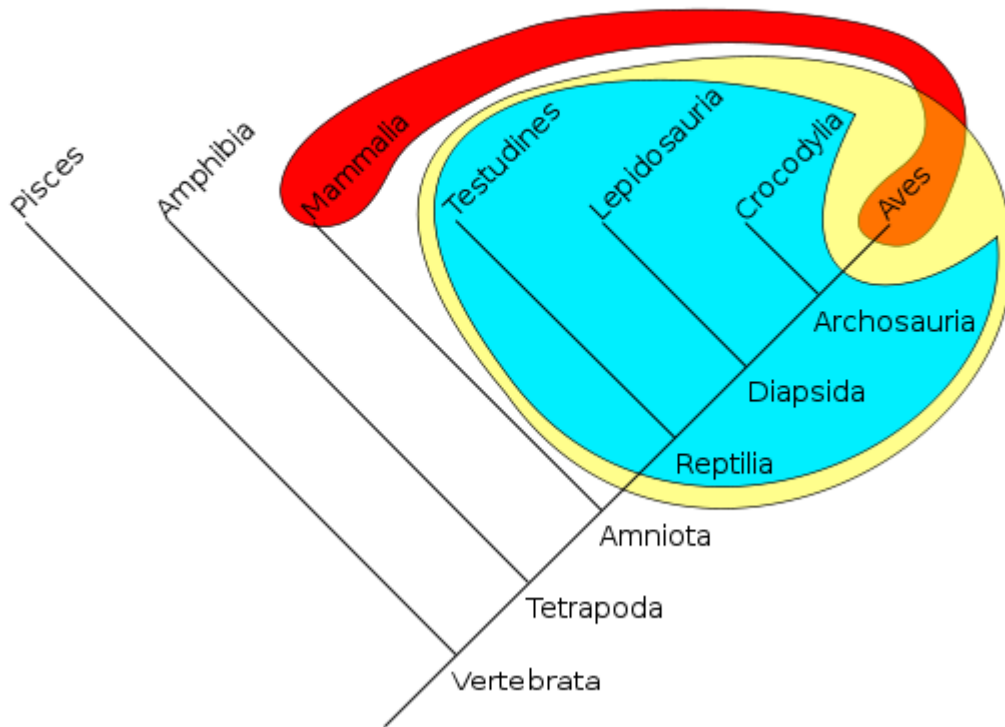
## Convergent evolution

Same characters from different ancestral condition



# Phyla grouping

- Monophyly
- Paraphyly
- Polyphyly



## Monophyletic:

All birds and reptiles are believed to have descended from a **single common ancestor** (yellow).

## Paraphyletic:

"Modern reptile" (cyan) is a grouping that contains a common ancestor, but **does not contain all descendants** of that ancestor (birds are excluded).

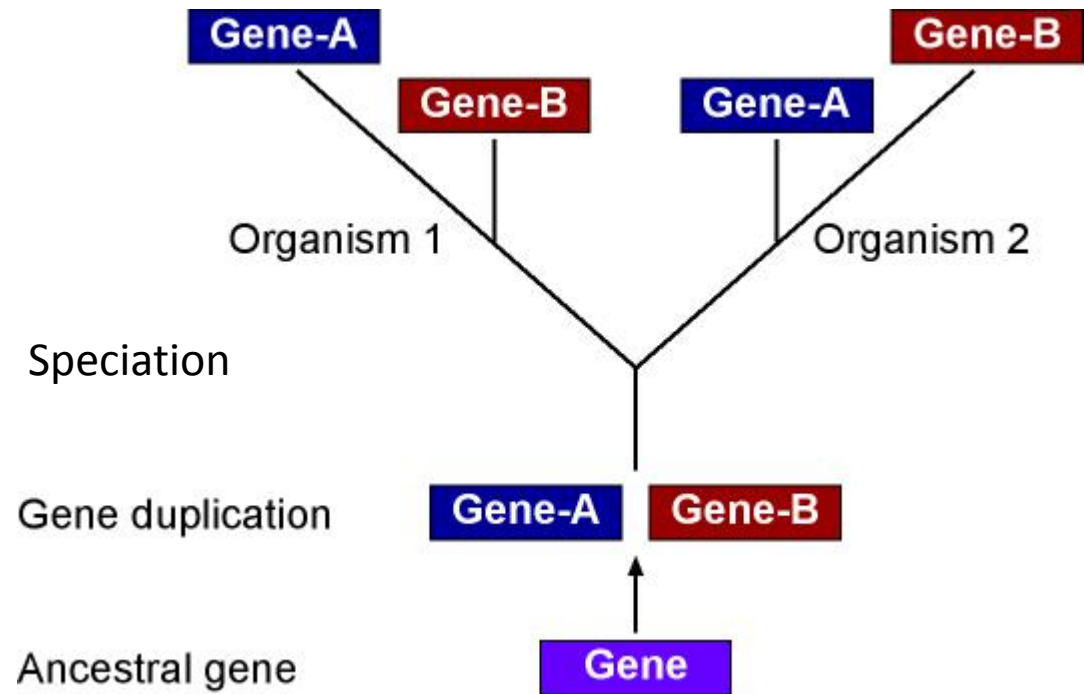
## Polyphyletic:

A grouping such as warm-blooded animals would include only mammals and birds (red/orange); members of this grouping **do not include the most recent common ancestor**

# Gene tree and species tree do not always agree

## Homology:

1. **Orthologous genes**  
created by speciation event
2. **Paralogous genes**  
created by gene duplication



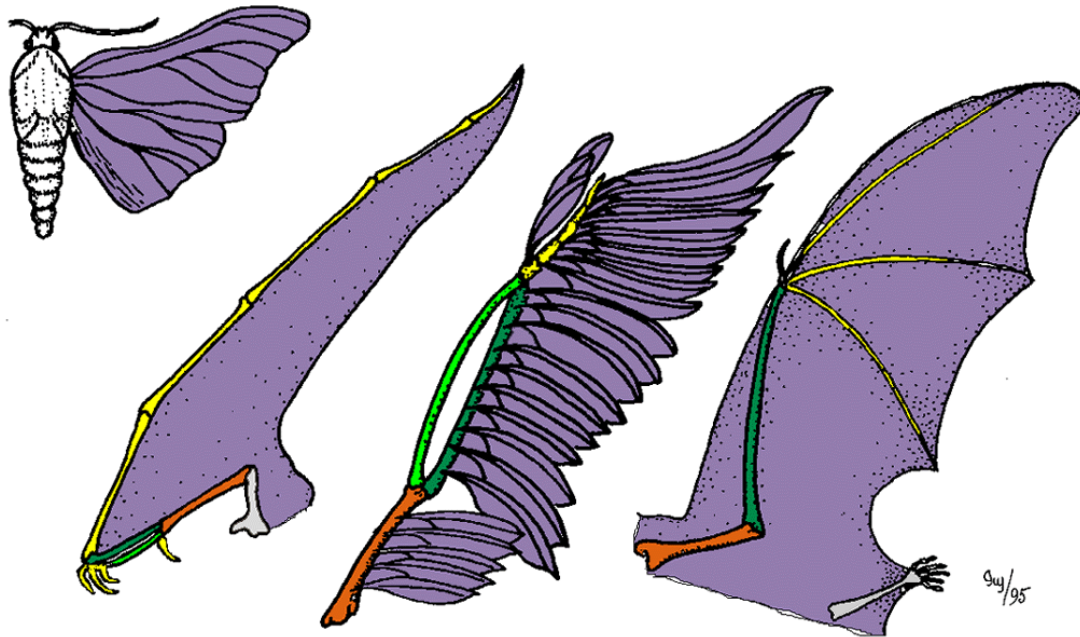
→ To learn about species relationship use only orthologous genes

# Characters for trees

Traditionally, morphological characters have been used to infer phylogenies

For any phylogenetic analysis, always need to look at many characters:

For example, birds and bats have wings, while crocodiles and humans do not. If these were the only data available, we would tend to group crocodiles with humans, and birds with bats



Molecular phylogenetics uses DNA, protein sequence characters

# Characters for trees

You can take any kind of character, as long as it has more than one state, e.g. eye color: blue, brown

What about gray and green eyes? Make an extra attribute/character state or put them together with blue or brown depending on what is more similar

Character states for DNA: AGTC  
for protein: A,C,G,K,L,H,...

How to treat missing data, e.g. an animal has no eyes, or the color is unknown for whatever reason?

Usually put a "?" or "-" or "X", or "N",  
the latter things are common for sequence data



# Characters states can be ordered

If going from one state to another requires more than one step:

e.g. cannot go directly from simple brain in cnidaria to complex brain in humans with a lot of different brain regions, gyri, sulci ; or dorsal vs ventral nervous system



(a) Cnidarian



(b) Echinoderm



(c) Flatworm



(d) Annelid



(e) Arthropod



(f) Mollusk



(g) Chordate

# Characters states changes can be weighted

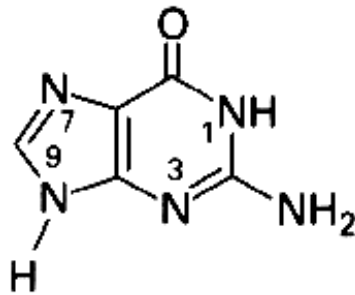
Give more weight to changes that are less common:

e.g. transversions (A-C, A-T, G-C, G-T changes) are less common than transitions

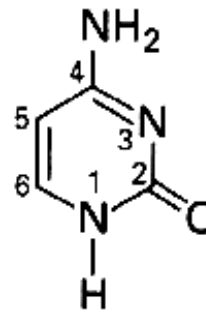
changes in 3<sup>rd</sup> codon position are more common than in 1<sup>st</sup> or 2<sup>nd</sup> (might be neutral)



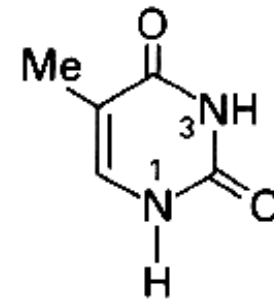
adenine



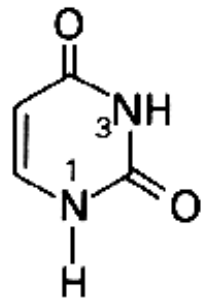
guanine



cytosine



thymine



uracil

# Look at more than one character

Idea: if two species share a trait that is not in a third, the two are more related to each other



Group dolphin and giraffe because they have a placenta

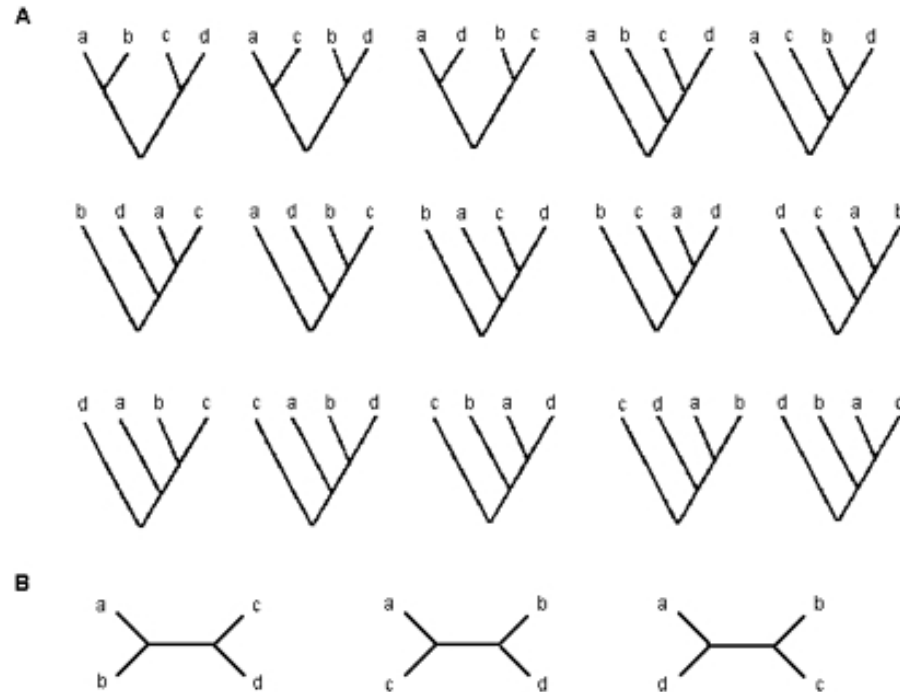
Or group fish and dolphin because they live in water (parallel evolution)

So depending on the character, we might end up with a different tree

→ Need to find the optimal tree taking into account all parameters

# Number of possible trees can be enormous

All possible trees of 4 species  
(rooted / unrooted)



Each taxon represents a new sample for every character, but, more importantly, it (usually) represents a new combination of character states

Ten species gives over two million possible unrooted trees

→ How to find the right tree?

It's a NP-complete problem (NP= non-deterministic polynomial)

i.e. for any reasonable number of characters it is often impossible to find the optimal tree

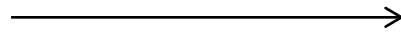
→ We need some heuristics ("quick and dirty")

→ Different methods might produce different trees



# Tree building methods

## Sequences



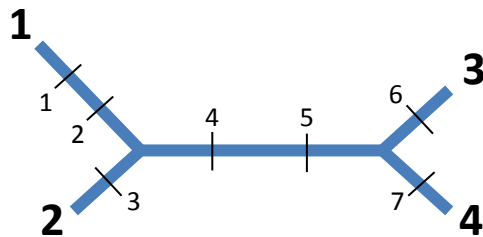
## Distances

sites

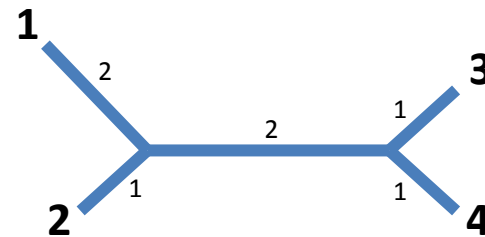
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
sequence 1	T	T	A	T	T	A	A
sequence 2	A	A	T	T	T	A	A
sequence 3	A	A	A	A	A	T	A
sequence 4	A	A	A	A	A	A	T

sequence 2	3
sequence 3	5 4
sequence 4	5 4 2
	1 2 3

sequences



**Discrete method**  
e.g. Parsimony tree



**Distance method**  
e.g. Neighbor-joining tree

The 7 substitutions are placed on the 5 branches

The 7 substitutions are apportioned over the 5 branches

Sum of the branch length is the same in both trees: 7

But in the parsimony tree we see which site contributes to the length of each branch

# Tree building methods

## Clustering methods

- Start with three species
- Add the others in a step-wise fashion
- Easy to implement
- Fast, good for large datasets
- Produce only one tree
- Not possible to evaluate the resulting trees compared to alternatives
- Information about which sites contribute to branch length missing
- e.g. Neighbor-joining tree

## Optimality criteria

- Make all possible trees
- Evaluate (score) trees to find the tree that best explains the data = the tree with the fewest number of evolutionary steps
- Computationally intense
- Provides information about which sites contribute to branch length missing
- e.g. Maximum Parsimony tree
- Maximum Likelihood

# Neighbor-joining method

Clustering method

Distance method

Start by making a distance matrix:



## Algorithm:

1. Based on the current distance matrix calculate the matrix Q (defined below).
2. Find the pair of taxa in Q with the lowest value. Create a node on the tree that joins these two taxa (i.e., join the closest neighbors, as the algorithm name implies).
3. Calculate the distance of each of the taxa in the pair to this new node.
4. Calculate the distance of all taxa outside of this pair to the new node.
5. Start the algorithm again, considering the pair of joined neighbors as a single taxon and using the distances calculated in the previous step.

# Neighbor-joining method

1. Based on the current distance matrix calculate the matrix Q

Distance matrix						Q matrix				
	A	B	C	D			A	B	C	D
A	0	7	11	14	→	A	0	-40	-34	-34
B	7	0	6	9		B	-40	0	-34	-34
C	11	6	0	7		C	-34	-34	0	-40
D	14	9	7	0		D	-34	-34	-40	0

$$Q(i, j) = (r - 2)d(i, j) - \sum_{k=1}^r d(i, k) - \sum_{k=1}^r d(j, k)$$

r = # taxa

i, j = taxa (A,B,C,D)

k = always the other taxa

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{AB: } Q(A,B) &= \overset{\text{AB}}{(4-2) * 7} - \overset{\text{AB AC AD}}{(7+11+14)} - \overset{\text{AB BC BD}}{(7+6+9)} \\
 &= 14 - 32 - 22 \\
 &= -40
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{AC: } Q(A,C) &= \overset{\text{AC}}{(4-2) * 11} - \overset{\text{AB AC AD}}{(7+11+14)} - \overset{\text{AC BC DC}}{(11+6+7)} \\
 &= 22 - 32 - 24 \\
 &= -34
 \end{aligned}$$

...

# Neighbor-joining method

- Find the pair of taxa in Q with the lowest value. Create a node on the tree that joins these two taxa (i.e., join the closest neighbors, as the algorithm name implies).

Q matrix

---

	<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>
<b>A</b>	0	-40	-34	-34
<b>B</b>	-40	0	-34	-34
<b>C</b>	-34	-34	0	-40
<b>D</b>	-34	-34	-40	0

Join taxa A and B to a new node: u

# Neighbor-joining method

3. Calculate the distance of each of the taxa in the pair to this new node.

Distance of A and B to the new node:

Distance matrix

	A	B	C	D
A	0	7	11	14
B	7	0	6	9
C	11	6	0	7
D	14	9	7	0

$$d(f, u) = \frac{1}{2}d(f, g) + \frac{1}{2(r-2)} \left[ \sum_{k=1}^r d(f, k) - \sum_{k=1}^r d(g, k) \right]$$

u = the new node  
f,g = the joined taxa (A,B)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{A: } d(\text{A}, u) &= \frac{1}{2} * 7 + \frac{1}{2(4-2)} * [(7+11+14) - (7+6+9)] \\
 &= 3.5 + \frac{1}{4} * [32 - 22] \\
 &= 3.5 + 2.5 \\
 &= 6
 \end{aligned}$$

$$d(g, u) = d(f, g) - d(f, u)$$

$$\text{B: } d(\text{B}, u) = 7 - 6 = 1$$

# Neighbor-joining method

4. Calculate the distance of all taxa outside of this pair to the new node.

Distance of C and D to the new node:

$$d(u, k) = \frac{1}{2}[d(f, k) + d(g, k) - d(f, g)]$$

u = the new node

k = taxa to calculate distance for (C,D)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{C: } d(u, \text{C}) &= \frac{1}{2} * [11 + 6 - 7] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} * 10 \\ &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{D: } d(u, \text{D}) &= \frac{1}{2} * [14 + 9 - 7] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} * 16 \\ &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

Distance matrix

	A	B	C	D
A	0	7	11	14
B	7	0	6	9
C	11	6	0	7
D	14	9	7	0



New Distance matrix

	AB	C	D
AB	0	5	8
C	5	0	7
D	8	7	0

# Neighbor-joining method

5. Start the algorithm again, considering the pair of joined neighbors as a single taxon and using the distances calculated in the previous step.

New Distance matrix					New Q matrix			
	AB	C	D			AB	C	D
<b>AB</b>	0	5	8	→	<b>AB</b>	0	-20	-20
<b>C</b>	5	0	7		<b>C</b>	-20	0	-20
<b>D</b>	8	7	0		<b>D</b>	-20	-20	0

$$Q(i, j) = (r - 2)d(i, j) - \sum_{k=1}^r d(i, k) - \sum_{k=1}^r d(j, k)$$

r = # taxa: now 3  
i, j = taxa (AB, C, D)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{AB-C: } Q(\text{AB}, \text{C}) &= (3-2) * 5 - (\overset{\text{AB-C}}{5} + \overset{\text{AB-D}}{8}) - (\overset{\text{AB-C}}{5} + \overset{\text{CD}}{7}) \\ &= 5 - 13 - 12 \\ &= -20 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{AB-D: } Q(\text{AB}, \text{D}) &= (3-2) * 8 - (\overset{\text{AB-D}}{8} + \overset{\text{AB-C}}{5}) - (\overset{\text{AB-D}}{8} + \overset{\text{CD}}{7}) \\ &= 8 - 13 - 15 \\ &= -20 \end{aligned}$$

CD: ...



# Neighbor-joining method

Join C to AB

New Distance matrix

	ABC	D
ABC	0	5
D	5	0

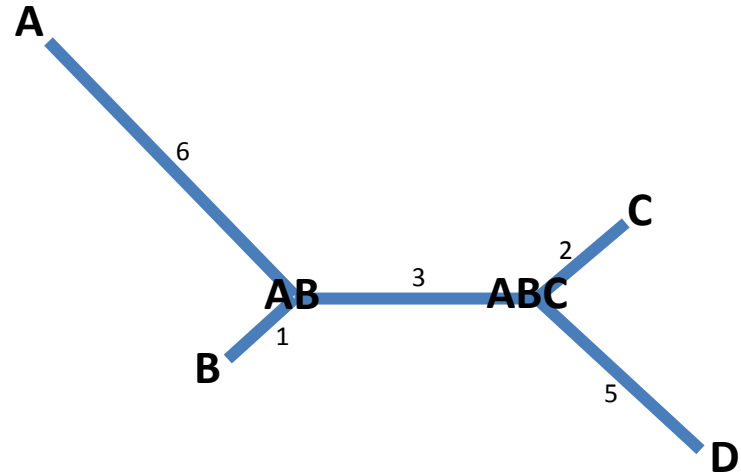
Distance A to AB was 6

Distance B to AB was 1

Distance AB to ABC is 3

Distance C to ABC is 2

Distance D to ABC is 5



Algorithm produces tree with the shortest total branch length

unrooted, but outgroup can be added

root = where the edge of the outgroup meets the tree

no molecular clock assumed

uses a greedy algorithm: solve one problem at the time, then the next problems (step-wise adding of the next nodes)

it's computationally efficient but might not find the optimal tree (but often it finds the optimal tree or something close)

# Tree building methods

## Clustering methods

- Start with three species
- Add the others in a step-wise fashion
- Easy to implement
- Fast, good for large datasets
- Produce only one tree
- Not possible to evaluate the resulting trees compared to alternatives
- Information about which sites contribute to branch length missing
- e.g. Neighbor-joining tree

## Optimality criteria

- Make all possible trees
- Evaluate (score) trees to find the tree that best explains the data = the tree with the fewest number of evolutionary steps
- Computationally intense
- Provides information about which sites contribute to branch length missing
- e.g. Maximum Parsimony tree
- Maximum Likelihood

# Maximum parsimony

- Small parsimony problem

Tree is given

Only one character is analyzed

Goal: find out what the ancestor  
at each node was

1	ATATT
2	ATCGT
3	GCAGT
4	GCCGT

- Large parsimony problem

Tree is unknown

Multiple characters

Goal: find the tree and ancestors

1	ATATT
2	ATCGT
3	GCAGT
4	GCCGT

# Small parsimony problem

## Fitch algorithm:

Calculate the minimal number of mutations that explains the evolution given a particular tree

Because every character is independent, this can be calculated for each character

1	AAATT
2	ACCGT
3	GGAGT
4	GCCGT
5	AGATT

### 1. Start with leaves and go to root

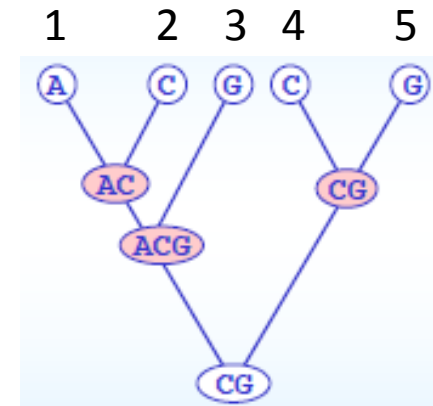
Assign to each node  $v$  a letter of the alphabet:

if  $v$  is a leaf  $S(v) = \{v_c\}$ ;  $v_c =$  character of node  $v$

if  $v$  is an intermediate node of nodes  $u$  and  $w$

if  $S(u) \cap S(w) \neq \{\}$ :  $S(v) = S(u) \cap S(w)$

if  $S(u) \cap S(w) = \{\}$ :  $S(v) = S(u) \cup S(w)$

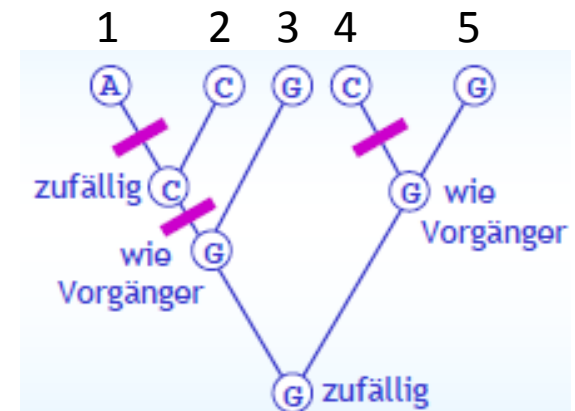


### 2. Start at root and go to leaves to solve intermediate nodes

Assign to each node (except leaves) a letter of the alphabet

if  $v$  follows  $u$  and  $u_c \in S(v)$ :  $v_c = u_c$

otherwise  $v_c = \text{random} \in S(v)$



3 assignments were random  $\rightarrow$  loss of information = 3

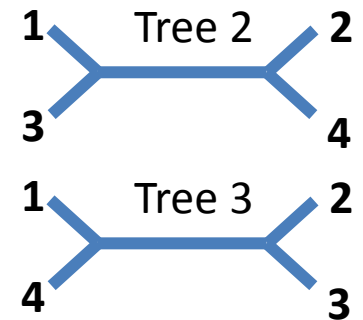
# Large parsimony problem

- For a multiple characters (e.g. the whole sequence)

## Method:

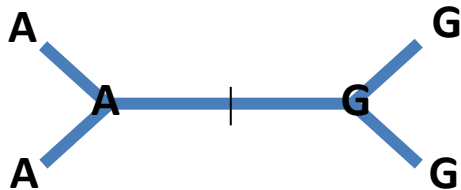
1. Make all possible trees
2. Score them by the total number of character state changes required (= "evolutionary steps") to explain distribution of each character
3. Pick the tree that infers the least steps/number of changes = the most parsimonious

1 ATATT  
2 ATCGT  
3 GCAGT  
4 GCCGT

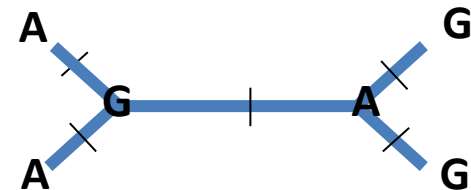


For the first site, Tree 1:

(two examples of what the ancestral version (internal node) could have looked like)



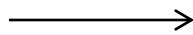
Only one change required  
= more parsimonious



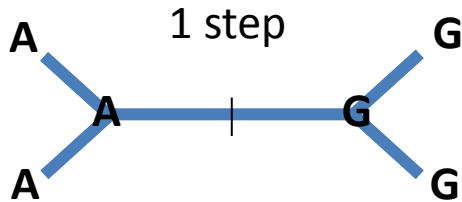
Five change required

# Large parsimony problem

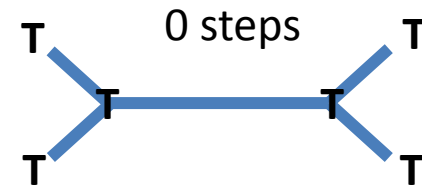
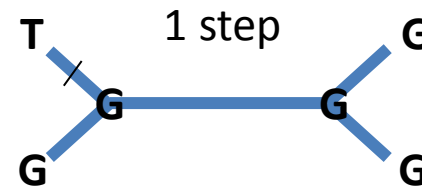
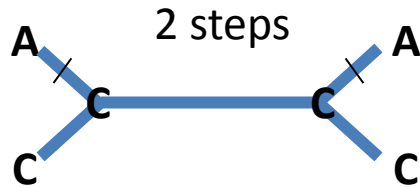
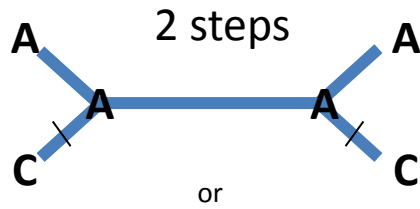
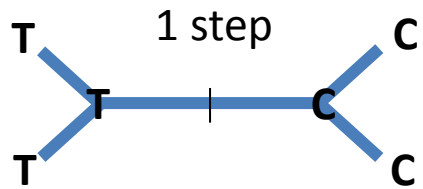
1 ATATT  
 2 ATCGT  
 3 GCAGT  
 4 GCCGT



For the first site:



For the other sites:



Not informative for phylogeny because all sites are the same

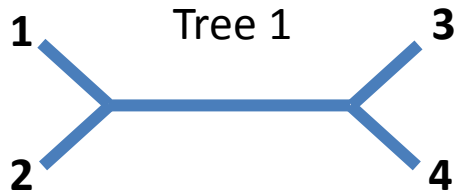
Total length of the tree  $L$  = total # evolutionary changes/steps  
 = sum of length  $l$  of each site  $k$ ; here:  $1 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 0 = 5$

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^k l_i$$

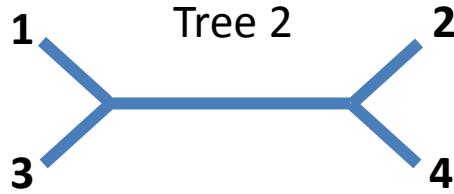
# Large parsimony problem

- 1 ATATT
- 2 ATCGT
- 3 GCAGT
- 4 GCCGT

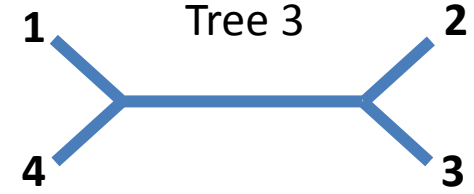
Alternative trees:



$$1 + 1 + 2 + 1 + 0 = 5$$



$$2 + 2 + 1 + 1 + 0 = 6$$



$$2 + 2 + 2 + 1 + 0 = 7$$



Tree with shortest total branch length  
= most parsimonious tree

# Large parsimony problem

After scoring all trees find the most-parsimonious trees (MPTs)

often exist a number of equally MPTs

if too many, maybe because of too many missing data; insufficient data to resolve the tree completely

often only parts of the tree (sub trees) differ between the MPTs, e.g. a few taxa jump around

can make a consensus tree



# Large parsimony problem

Finding the optimal tree (the tree with the best score) is computationally expensive

→ a possibility is to start with one good tree, perturb it and see if the score gets better

→ Or make a tree for each character and then a consensus tree

Trees are unrooted, but you can chose an outgroup

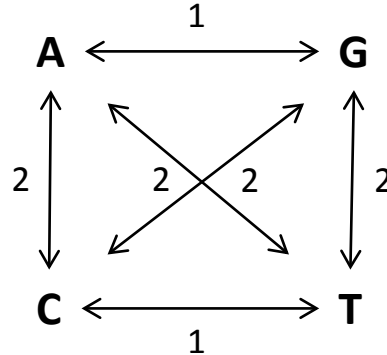
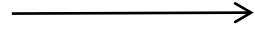
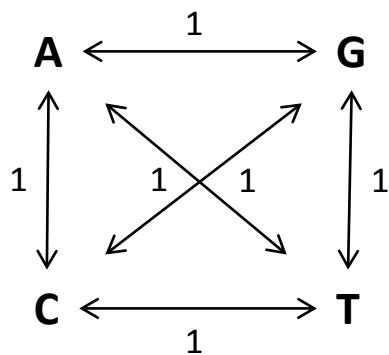
Trees do not reflect divergence times

# Maximum parsimony

Are all changes equally likely?

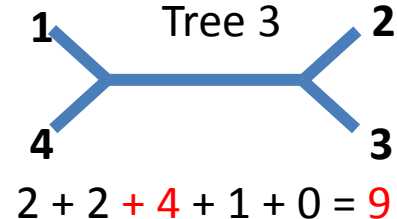
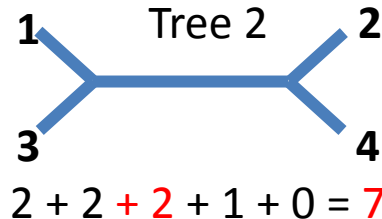
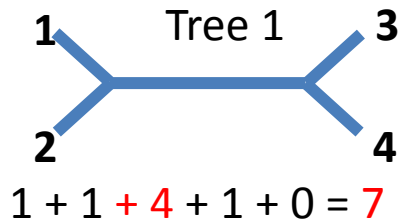
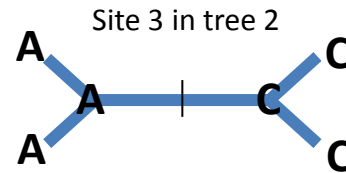
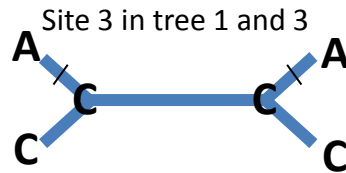
e.g. transversions are rarer than transitions, i.e. less likely

→ Assign higher costs to transversions; e.g. 1 transversion counts as 2 steps



	A	C	G	T
A	0	2	1	2
C	2	0	2	1
G	1	2	0	2
T	2	1	2	0

- 1 ATATT
- 2 ATCGT
- 3 GCAGT
- 4 GCCGT



→ Now tree 1 and 2 are equally parsimonious

# Maximum parsimony

Are all changes equally likely?

Substitution matrices for protein alignments: PAM, BLOSUM

Ala	4																			
Arg	-1	5																		
Asn	-2	0	6																	
Asp	-2	-2	1	6																
Cys	0	-3	-3	-3	9															
Gln	-1	1	0	0	-3	5														
Glu	-1	0	0	2	-4	2	5													
Gly	0	-2	0	-1	-3	-2	-2	6												
His	-2	0	1	-1	-3	0	0	-2	8											
Ile	-1	-3	-3	-3	-1	-3	-3	-4	-3	4										
Leu	-1	-2	-3	-4	-1	-2	-3	-4	-3	2	4									
Lys	-1	2	0	-1	-3	1	1	-2	-1	-3	-2	5								
Met	-1	-1	-2	-3	-1	0	-2	-3	-2	1	2	-1	5							
Phe	-2	-3	-3	-3	-2	-3	-3	-3	-1	0	0	-3	0	6						
Pro	-1	-2	-2	-1	-3	-1	-1	-2	-2	-3	-3	-1	-2	-4	7					
Ser	1	-1	1	0	-1	0	0	0	-1	-2	-2	0	-1	-2	-1	4				
Thr	0	-1	0	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-2	-1	-1	-1	-1	-2	-1	1	5			
Trp	-3	-3	-4	-4	-2	-2	-3	-2	-2	-3	-2	-3	-1	1	-4	-3	-2	11		
Tyr	-2	-2	-2	-3	-2	-1	-2	-3	2	-1	-1	-2	-1	3	-3	-2	-2	2	7	
Val	0	-3	-3	-3	-1	-2	-2	-3	-3	3	1	-2	1	-1	-2	-2	0	-3	-1	4
	Ala	Arg	Asn	Asp	Cys	Gln	Glu	Gly	His	Ile	Leu	Lys	Met	Phe	Pro	Ser	Thr	Trp	Tyr	Val

# Maximum parsimony

**Are all changes equally likely?**

Some sites might be highly conserved (e.g. functional domains of a protein) while others might be rapidly changing (e.g. intronic sites)

Rapidly changing sites might be saturated and therefore misleading for the tree

→ Give sites different weights

This will affect the total length of the tree:

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^k l_i \longrightarrow L = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i * l_i$$

# How well supported is the tree?

## Bootstrap method:

Randomly pick characters from your dataset (e.g. columns in the alignment)

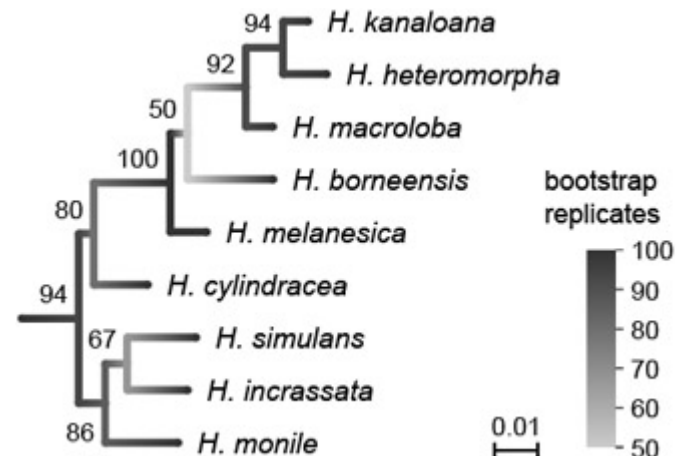
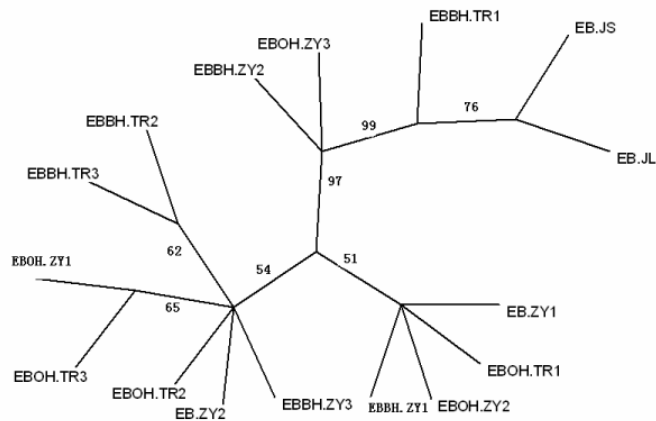
Make a random dataset that has the same size as your real dataset

Characters are picked with replacement

Do this multiple times, typically 1000 times

How often do you find a certain branch among the random trees?

More suitable for Neighbor-joining than Maximum Parsimony, because computationally intense



# Commonly used phylogenetic programs

Phylip (**P**HYLogeny Inference **P**ackage)

PAUP (**P**hylogenetic **A**nalysis **U**sing **P**arsimony)

Clustal