Introduction to Bioinformatics for Computer Scientists

Lecture 7

Last Time

- Distinction between distance-based and character-based tree inference algorithms
- Distance-based approaches
 - Heuristics
 - Neighbor Joining O(n³)
 - UPGMA O(n²)
 - Criteria
 - Least Squares
 - Minum Evolution

Last Time

- Search Heuristic Components
 - Methods to infer comprehensive starting trees
 - NNI, SPR, and TBR moves for improviong the score of trees searching tree space
- Character-based Criteria
 - Criteria
 - Parsimony
 - Example of an heuristic parsimony search strategy
 - The Parsimonator algorithm

Today

- Data structures for unrooted trees
- Why do we need statistical/probabilistic models of evolution?
- Introduction to the phylogenetic likelihood function
 - A detour on Markov Chains
 - The phylogenetic likelihood function

Data Structures for unrooted Trees

 Unrooted trees with dynamically changing virtual roots need a dedicated tree data structure

Remember! - Parsimony

1+2+1+1= 5



Memory Organization: Ancestral Vectors with an Unrooted View



Memory Organization: Ancestral Vectors with a Rooted View



Memory Organization: Ancestral Vectors with a Rooted View



Memory Organization: Ancestral Vectors with a Rooted View

New Virtual Root



Today

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Parsimony & Long Branch Attraction

 Because parsimony tries to minimize the number of mutations it faces some problems on trees with long branches



Parsimony & Long Branch Attraction

- Settings under which parsimony recovers the wrong tree are also called "the Felsenstein Zone" after *Joe Felsenstein* who has made numerous very important contributions to the field, e.g.
 - The Maximum Likelihood model
 - The Bootstrapping procedure
- If you are interested in statistics, there are some on-line courses by Joe at http://evolution.gs.washington.edu/courses.html



Today

- Data structures for unrooted trees
- Why do we need statistical/probabilistic models of evolution?
- Introduction to the phylogenetic likelihood function
 - A detour on Markov Chains
 - The phylogenetic likelihood function

A Detour to Markov Chains

- Before we start looking at likelihood models for phylogenetics
- We will review the concept of Markov Chains
- This will be useful to
 - Better understand likelihood models
 - Better understand Markov Chain Monte Carlo Sampling for Bayesian statistics

Markov Chains - Outline

- We will mostly talk about discrete Markov chains as this is conceptually easier
- Then, we will talk how to get from discrete Markov chains to continuous Markov chains ... which are used in phylogenetics

Markov Chains

- Stochastic processes with transition diagrams
- Process, is written as {*X*₀, *X*₁, *X*₂, …}
 where *X*_t is the state at discrete time *t*
- Markov property: X_{t+1} **ONLY** depends on X_t
- Such processes are called Markov Chains

An Example



The Markov flea example: flea hopping around **at random** on this diagram **according to the probabilities** shown

An Example



The Markov flea example: flea hopping around **at random** on this diagram **according to the probabilities** shown

State space *S* = {1,2,3,4,5,6,7}

An Example



- •What is the probability of ever reaching state 7 from state 1?
- •Starting from state 2, what is the expected time taken to reach state 4?
- •Starting from state 2, what is the long-run proportion of time spent in state 3?
- •Starting from state 1, what is the probability of being in state 2 at time *t*? Does the probability converge as $t \rightarrow \infty$, and if so, to what?

Definitions

- The Markov chain is the process X_0, X_1, X_2, \ldots
- **Definition:** The state of a Markov chain at time *t* is the value of X_t For example, if $X_t = 6$, we say the process is in state 6 at time *t*.
- Definition: The state space of a Markov chain, *S*, is the set of values that each X_t can take.
 For example, S = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7}.
 Let S have size N (possibly infinite).
- **Definition**: A trajectory of a Markov chain is a particular set of values for $X_0, X_1, X_2, ...$ For example, if $X_0 = 1$, $X_1 = 5$, and $X_2 = 6$, then the trajectory up to time t = 2 is 1, 5, 6. More generally, if we refer to the trajectory $s_0, s_1, s_2, s_3, ...$ we mean that $X_0 = s_0, X_1 = s_1, X_2 = s_2, X_3 = s_3, ...$

'Trajectory' is just a word meaning 'path'

Markov Property

- Only the most recent point X_t affects what happens next, that is, X_{t+1} only depends on X_t , but not on X_{t-1} , X_{t-2} , . . .
- More formally:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = s \mid X_t = s_t, X_{t-1} = s_{t-1}, \dots, X_0 = s_0) = \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = s \mid X_t = s_t),$$

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Explanation



Definition

Definition: Let $\{X_0, X_1, X_2, ...\}$ be a sequence of discrete random variables. Then $\{X_0, X_1, X_2, ...\}$ is a **Markov chain** if *it satisfies the Markov property:*

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = s \mid X_t = s_t, \dots, X_0 = s_0) = \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = s \mid X_t = s_t),$$

for all t = 1, 2, 3, ..., and for all states $s_0, s_1, ..., s_t, s_t$.

Definition

Discrete states, e.g., A, C, G, T

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The Transition Matrix



Let us transform this into an equivalent transition matrix which is just another equivalent way of describing this diagram.

The Transition Matrix



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The Transition Matrix



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More formally



More formally



The transition matrix is usually given the symbol $P = (p_{ij})$ In the transition matrix P:

```
the ROWS represent NOW, or FROM X,
```

```
the COLUMNS represent NEXT, or TO X
```

Matrix entry *i*,*j* is the **CONDITIONAL** probability that **NEXT** = *j*, given that **NOW** = *i*: the probability of going **FROM** state *i* **TO** state *j*. $p_{ii} = P(X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i).$

This is not a transition matrix! Hair color blonde Σ brown light 20/40 5/40 15/40 Eye color dark 15/40 5/40 20/40 Σ 20/40 20/40 40/40



Joint probability: probability of observing both A and B: Pr(A,B)For instance, Pr(brown, light) = 5/40 = 0.125



Marginalize over hair color

Marginal Probability: *unconditional* probability of an observation Pr(A)For instance, Pr(dark) = Pr(dark, brown) + Pr(dark, blonde) = 15/40 + 5/40 = 20/40 = 0.5



Conditional Probability: The probability of observing A given that B has occurred: Pr(A|B) is the fraction of cases Pr(B) in which B occurs where A also occurs with Pr(AB)Pr(A|B) = Pr(AB) / Pr(B)

For instance, Pr(blonde|light) = Pr(blonde,light) / Pr(light) = (15/40) / (20/40) = 0.75



Statistical Independence: Two events A and B are independent If their joint probability *Pr(A,B)* equals the product of their marginal probability *Pr(A) Pr(B)*

For instance, $Pr(light, brown) \neq Pr(light) Pr(brown)$, that is, the events are not independent!

More formally



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Notes

- 1.The transition matrix *P* must list all possible states in the state space *S*.
- 2.P is a square $N \times N$ matrix, because X_{t+1} and X_t both take values in the same state space S of size N.
- 3. The **rows** of *P* should each sum to 1:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} p_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}_{\{X_t = i\}}(X_{t+1} = j) = 1.$$

The above simply states that X_{t+1} must take one of the listed values.

4. The columns of *P* do in general NOT sum to 1.

Notes

This is just another way of writing this conditional probability.

- 1.The transition matrix *P* must list all possible states in the state space *S*.
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t-step Transition Probabilites

- Let {X₀, X₁, X₂, . . .} be a Markov chain with state space S = {1, 2, . . . , N }
- Recall that the elements of the transition matrix P are defined as

 $(P)_{ij} = p_{ij} = P(X_1 = j \mid X_0 = i) = P(X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i) \text{ for any } n.$

- *p_{ij}* is the probability of making a transition **FROM** state *i* **TO** state **j** in a **SINGLE** step
- **Question:** what is the probability of making a transition from state *i* to state *j* over two steps? i.e. what is

 $P(X_2 = j | X_0 = i)$?

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_0 = i) =$$
 Any ideas?

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_0 = i) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_1 = k) \mathbb{P}(X_1 = k \mid X_0 = i)$$
(Markov Property)

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{kj} p_{ik} \qquad (by \ definitions)$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{ik} p_{kj} \qquad (rearranging)$$
$$= (P^{2})_{ij}.$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{2} = j \mid X_{0} = i) = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}(X_{2} = j \mid X_{1} = k) \mathbb{P}(X_{1} = k \mid X_{0} = i)$$

$$(Markov Property)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{kj} p_{ik}$$
Sum of probabilities (OR!!!) over all possible paths with 1 intermediate state k that will take us from i to j
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} p_{ik} p_{kj}$$

$$= (P^{2})_{ij}.$$

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_0 = i) = \sum_{k=1}^N \mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_1 = k) \mathbb{P}(X_1 = k \mid X_0 = i)$$

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$$= (P^{2})_{ij}.$$

The two step-transition probabilities, in fact, for any *n* are thus:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_0 = i) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+2} = j \mid X_n = i) = (P^2)_{ij}$$







3-step transitions

• What is: $P(X_3 = j | X_0 = i)$?

3-step and t-step transitions

- What is: $P(X_3 = j | X_0 = i)$?
 - $\rightarrow (P^3)_{ij}$
- General case with *t* steps for any *t* and any *n*

$$\mathbb{P}(X_t = j \mid X_0 = i) = \mathbb{P}(X_{n+t} = j \mid X_n = i) = (P^t)_{ij}$$

Distribution of X_t

- Let {X₀, X₁, X₂, . . .} be a Markov chain with state space S = {1, 2, . . . , N }.
- Now each X_t is a random variable \rightarrow it has a **probability** distribution.
- We can write down the probability distribution of X_t as vector with N elements.
- For example, consider X_o . Let π be a vector with N elements denoting the probability distribution of X_o .

The π vector

$$\boldsymbol{\pi} = \begin{pmatrix} \pi_1 \\ \pi_2 \\ \vdots \\ \pi_N \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbb{P}(X_0 = 1) \\ \mathbb{P}(X_0 = 2) \\ \vdots \\ \mathbb{P}(X_0 = N) \end{pmatrix}$$

This means that our Markov process choses at random in which state (e.g., A, C, G, or T) it **starts** with probability: P(start in state A) = π_A

This is why those vectors are also called prior probabilities.

Probability of X_{1}

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = j) = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(X_1 = j \mid X_0 = i) \mathbb{P}(X_0 = i)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^N p_{ij}\pi_i \quad \text{by definitions}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i p_{ij}$$
$$= (\pi^T P)_j.$$

So, here we are asking what the probability of ending up in state *j* at X_1 is, for starting in all possible states *N* at X_0





Sum over i

Probability Distribution of X_{1}

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = j) = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(X_1 = j | X_0 = i) \mathbb{P}(X_0 = i)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^N p_{ij} \pi_i \quad \text{by definitions}$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \pi_i p_{ij}$$
$$= (\boldsymbol{\pi}^T P)_j.$$

This shows that $P(X_1 = j) = \pi^T P_j$ for all j.

The row vector $\pi^T P$ is therefore the probability distribution over all possible states for X_1 , more formally:

$$X_{0} \sim \pi^{T}$$
$$X_{1} \sim \pi^{T} P$$

Distribution of X_2

• What do you think?

Distribution of X_2

• What do you think?

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = j) = \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_0 = i) \mathbb{P}(X_0 = i) = \sum_{i=1}^N (P^2)_{ij} \pi_i = (\pi^T P^2)_j.$$

and in general:

$$X_0 \sim \pi^T$$

$$X_1 \sim \pi^T P$$

$$X_2 \sim \pi^T P^2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$X_t \sim \pi^T P^t.$$

Theorem

- Let {X₀, X₁, X₂, . . .} be a Markov chain with a N × N transition matrix P.
- If the probability distribution of X_0 is given by the $1 \times N$ row vector π^{T} , then the probability distribution of X_t is given by the $1 \times N$ row vector $\pi^{T}P^t$. That is,

$$X_0 \sim \pi^{T} \Rightarrow X_t \sim \pi^{T} P^t$$
.

Example – Trajectory probability

 $\frac{2}{3}$

5

Recall that a trajectory is a sequence of values for X_0, X_1, \ldots, X_t .

Because of the Markov Property, we can find the probability of any trajectory by multiplying together the starting probability and all subsequent single-step probabilities.

Example: Let $X_0 \sim (\frac{3}{4}, 0, 0, 0, 0)$. What is the probability of the trajectory 1, 2, 3, 2, 3, 4?

$$\mathbb{P}(1, 2, 3, 2, 3, 4) = \mathbb{P}(X_0 = 1) \times p_{12} \times p_{23} \times p_{32} \times p_{23} \times p_{34} \\
= \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{5} \times 1 \times \frac{2}{3} \times 1 \times \frac{1}{3} \\
= \frac{1}{10}.$$

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= \frac{3}{4} \times \frac{3}{5} \times 1 \times \frac{2}{3} \times 1 \times \frac{1}{3} \\
= \frac{1}{10}.$$

Exercise



- •Find the transition matrix P
- •Find $P(X_2=3 | X_0=1)$
- •Suppose that the process is equally likely to start in any state at time 0
 - \rightarrow Find the probability distribution of X_{1}
- •Suppose that the process begins in state 1 at time 0
 - \rightarrow Find the probability distribution of X_2
- •Suppose that the process is equally likely to start in any state at time 0
 - \rightarrow Find the probability of obtaining the trajectory (3, 2, 1, 1, 3).

Class Structure

- The state space of a Markov chain can be partitioned into a set of non-overlapping *communicating classes*.
- States *i* and *j* are in the same communicating class if there is some way of getting from state $i \rightarrow j$, AND there is some way of getting from state $j \rightarrow i$.
- It needn't be possible to get from $i \rightarrow j$ in a single step, but it must be possible over some number of steps to travel between them both ways.
- We write: $i \leftrightarrow j$

Definition

- Consider a Markov chain with state space *S* and transition matrix *P*, and consider states *i*, *j* in *S*. Then state *i* communicates with state *j* if:
 - there exists some *t* such that $(P^t)_{ij} > 0$, **AND**
 - there exists some *u* such that $(P^u)_{\mu} > 0$.
- Mathematically, it is easy to show that the communicating relation

 → is an equivalence relation, which means that it partitions the
 state space S into non-overlapping equivalence classes.
- Definition: States *i* and *j* are in the same communicating class if
 i ↔ *j* : i.e., if each state is accessible from the other.
- Every state is a member of *exactly one* communicating class.

Example

• Find the communicating classes!



Example

No way back!

• Find the communicating classes!



Properties of Communicating Classes

• **Definition:** A communicating class of states is closed if it is not possible to leave that class.

That is, the communicating class C is closed if $p_{ij} = 0$ whenever *i* in C and *j* not in C

- **Example:** In the transition diagram from the last slide:
 - Class {1, 2, 3} is not closed: it is possible to escape to class {4, 5}
 - Class {4, 5} is closed: it is not possible to escape.
- **Definition:** A state *i* is said to be absorbing if the set *{i}* is a closed class.



Irreducibility

- **Definition:** A Markov chain or transition matrix *P* is said to be **irreducible** if $i \leftrightarrow j$ (*i* communicates with *j*) for all $i, j \in S$. That is, the chain is irreducible if the state space *S* is a single communicating class.
- Do you know an example for an irreducible transition matrix *P*?

Irreducibility

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- Do you know an example for an irreducible transition matrix *P*?



Equilibrium

- We saw that if { X_0, X_1, X_2, \ldots } is a Markov chain with transition matrix P, then $X_t \sim \pi^T \Rightarrow X_{t+1} \sim \pi^T P$
- **Question:** is there any distribution π at some time *t* such that $\pi^T P = \pi^T$?
- If $\pi^T P = \pi^T$, then

$$\begin{array}{ll} X_t \sim \pi^T & \Rightarrow X_{t+1} \sim \pi^T P = \pi^T \\ & \Rightarrow X_{t+2} \sim \pi^T P = \pi^T \\ & \Rightarrow X_{t+3} \sim \pi^T P = \pi^T \\ & \Rightarrow \ldots \end{array}$$

Equilibrium

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- **Question:** is there any distribution π at some time *t* such that $\pi^T P = \pi^T$?
- If $\pi^T P = \pi^T$, then

$$\begin{split} X_t \sim \pi^{\tau} & \Rightarrow X_{t+1} \sim \pi^{\tau} P = \pi^{\tau} \\ & \Rightarrow X_{t+2} \sim \pi^{\tau} P = \pi^{\tau} \\ & \Rightarrow X_{t+3} \sim \pi^{\tau} P = \pi^{\tau} \\ & \Rightarrow \dots \end{split}$$

• In other words, if $\pi^T P = \pi^T AND X_t \sim \pi^T$, then

 $X_t \sim X_{t+1} \sim X_{t+2} \sim X_{t+3} \sim \ldots$

Thus, once a Markov chain has reached a distribution π^τ such that π^τP = π^τ,
 it will stay there

Equilibrium

- If $\pi^T P = \pi^T$, we say that the distribution π^T is an equilibrium distribution.
- Equilibrium means there will be no further change in the distribution of X_t as we wander through the Markov chain.
- Note: Equilibrium does not mean that the actual value of X_{t+1} equals the value of X_t
- It means that the distribution of X_{t+1} is the same as the distribution of X_t, e.g.

 $P(X_{t+1} = 1) = P(X_t = 1) = \pi_1;$

$$P(X_{t+1} = 2) = P(X_t = 2) = \pi_2$$
, etc.

Example

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0 & 0.9 & 0.1 & 0.0 \\ 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.0 & 0.1 \\ 0.0 & 0.5 & 0.3 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.9 \end{pmatrix}$$



Suppose we start at time *t:=0* with $X_0 \sim (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$: so the chain is equally likely to start in any of the four states.

First Steps



Probability of being in state 1, 2, 3, or 4
Later Steps



We have reached equilibrium, the chain has forgotten about the initial Probability distribution of $(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$.

Note: There are several other names for an equilibrium distribution. If π^{T} is an equilibrium distribution, it is also called:

- invariant: it doesn't change π^{τ}
- stationary: the chain 'stops' here

Calculating the Equilibrium Distribution

- For the example, we can explicitly calculate the equilibrium distribution by solving $\pi^T P = \pi^T$, under the restriction that:
- 1. The sum over all entries π_i in vector π^{τ} is 1
- 2. All π_i are larger or equal to 0
- I will spare you the details, the equilibrium frequencies for our example are: (0.28, 0.30, 0.04, 0.38)

Convergence to Equilibrium

 What is happening here is that each row of the transition matrix Pt converges to the equilibrium distribution (0.28, 0.30, 0.04, 0.38) as t → ∞

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.0 & 0.9 & 0.1 & 0.0 \\ 0.8 & 0.1 & 0.0 & 0.1 \\ 0.0 & 0.5 & 0.3 & 0.2 \\ 0.1 & 0.0 & 0.0 & 0.9 \end{pmatrix} \quad \Rightarrow \quad P^t \to \begin{pmatrix} 0.28 & 0.30 & 0.04 & 0.38 \\ 0.28 & 0.30 & 0.04 & 0.38 \\ 0.28 & 0.30 & 0.04 & 0.38 \\ 0.28 & 0.30 & 0.04 & 0.38 \end{pmatrix} \text{ as } t \to \infty.$$

All rows become identical.

Impact of Starting Points





Impact of Starting Points



Initial behavior is different!

Continuous Time Models



Probability of ending in state *j* when starting in state *i* over time (branch length) *v* where i = j for the blue curve and $i \neq j$ for the red one.

Is there always convergence to an equilibrium distribution?



Is there always convergence to an equilibrium distribution?



In this example, P^t never converges to a matrix with both rows identical as t becomes large. The chain never 'forgets' its starting conditions as $t \to \infty$.

$$P^{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{if } t \text{ is even},$$
$$P^{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{if } t \text{ is odd},$$

Is there always convergence to an equilibrium distribution?



In this example, P^t never converges to a matrix with both rows identical as t becomes large. The chain never 'forgets' its starting conditions as $t \to \infty$.

$$P^{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{if } t \text{ is even},$$
$$P^{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{if } t \text{ is odd},$$

The chain does have an equilibrium distribution $\pi^{T} = (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$. However, the chain does not converge to this distribution as $t \to \infty$.

Convergence

- If a Markov chain is irreducible and aperiodic, and if an equilibrium distribution π^{τ} exists, then the chain converges to this distribution as $t \to \infty$, regardless of the initial starting states.
- Remember: irreducible means that the state space is a single communicating class!





non-irreducible

Periodicity

- In general, the chain can return from state *i* back to state *i* again in *t* steps if (*P^t*)_{ii} > 0. This leads to the following definition:
- **Definition:** The period *d(i)* of a state *i* is

 $d(i) = gcd\{t : (P^t)_{ii} > 0\},\$

the greatest common divisor of the times at which return is possible.

- Definition: The state *i* is said to be periodic if *d(i) > 1* For a periodic state *i*, (*P*^t)_{ii} = 0 if *t* is not a multiple of *d(i)*
- **Definition:** The state *i* is said to be aperiodic if d(i) = 1

Example



d(0) = ?

Example



 $d(0) = gcd\{2, 4, 6, \ldots\} = 2$

The chain is irreducible!

Result

- If a Markov chain is **irreducible** and has one **aperiodic** state, then all states are aperiodic.
- Theorem: Let $\{X_0, X_1, \ldots\}$ be an **irreducible** and **aperiodic** Markov chain with transition matrix P. Suppose that there exists an equilibrium distribution π^{τ} . Then, from any starting state *i*, and for any end state *j*,

$$P(X_t = j \mid X_0 = i) \rightarrow \pi_j \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty.$$

In particular,

$$(P^t)_{ij} \rightarrow \pi_j \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty$$
, for all *i* and *j*,

so $P^{\rm t}$ converges to a matrix with all rows identical and equal to $\pi^{\rm T}$

Why?

• The stationary distribution gives information about the stability of a random process.

Continuous Time Markov Chains (CTMC)

- Tranistions/switching between states at random times and not at clock ticks like in a CPU, for example!
 - \rightarrow no periodic oscillation, concept of waiting times!



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 Now write the transition probability matrix P as a function of time P(t)

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Here only *dt* is a scalar value, everything else is a matrix!

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Here only *dt* is a scalar value, everything else is a matrix!

The derivative of a matrix is obtained by individually differentiating all of its entries, the same holds for the limit.

- Calculating $\lim_{\delta t \to 0} [P(t + \delta t) P(t)] / \delta t$ requires solving a differential equation.
- If we can solve this, then we can calculate P(t)
- Remember, for discrete chains:

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_0 = i) = \sum_{k=1}^N \mathbb{P}(X_2 = j \mid X_1 = k) \mathbb{P}(X_1 = k \mid X_0 = i)$$

This is also known as the **Chapman-Kolmogorov relationship** and can be written differently as

 $P^{n+m} = P^n P^m$

for any discrete number of steps *n* and *m*.

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This is also known as the **Chapman-Kolmogorov relationship** and can be written differently as

 $P^{n+m} = P^n P^m$

for any discrete number of steps *n* and *m*. Thus for continuous time we want: P(t+h) = P(t)P(h)









The values of Q can be anything, but rows must sum to 0. Remember that rows of P must sum to 1.

What we have so far

dP(t)/dt = P(t)Q

Q is also called the **jump rate matrix**, or **instantaneous transition matrix**

Now, imagine that P(t) is a scalar function and Q just some scalar constant:

P(t) = exp(Qt)

the same holds for matrices.

What we have so far

dP(t)/dt = P(t)Q

Q is also called the **jump rate matrix**, or **instantaneous transition matrix**

Now, imagine that P(t) is a scalar function and Q just some scalar constant:

P(t) = exp(Qt)

the same holds for matrices.

However calculating a matrix exponential is not trivial, it's not just taking the exponential of each of its elements!

```
exp(Qt) = I + Qt + 1/2! Q^{2}t^{2} + 1/3! Q^{3}t^{3} + \dots
```

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

- There is no general solution to analytically calculate this matrix exponential, it depends on *Q*.
- In some cases we can come up with an analytical equation, like for the aforementioned *Jukes Cantor* model
- For the GTR model we already need to use creepy numerical methods (Eigenvector/Eigenvalue) decomposition, we might see that later
- For non-reversible models it gets even more nasty

Equilibrium Distribution

• Assume there exists a row vector π^{T} such that $\pi^{T}Q = 0$ $\rightarrow \pi^{T}$ is the equilibrium distribution

Today

- Data structures for unrooted trees
- Why do we need statistical/probabilistic models of evolution?
- Introduction to the phylogenetic likelihood function
 - A detour on Markov Chains
 - The phylogenetic likelihood function

Parsimony & Long Branch Attraction

 Because parsimony tries to minimize the number of mutations it faces some problems on trees with long branches



Parsimony & Long Branch Attraction

- Settings under which parsimony recovers the wrong tree are also called "**the Felsenstein Zone**" after *Joe Felsenstein* who has made numerous very important contributions to the field, e.g.
 - The Maximum Likelihood model
 - The Bootstrapping procedure
- If you are interested in statistics, there are some on-line courses by Joe at http://evolution.gs.washington.edu/courses.html



Likelihood tries to fix this Problem


Likelihood tries to fix this Problem



Today and next time \rightarrow How do we compute the likelihood on a tree?



Next Time \rightarrow How do we maximize the likelihood on a tree?



- Given:
 - MSA
 - Tree topology with branch lengths
 - Model
 - We can calculate $P_{X->z}(b)$ for a branch length (or time) b
 - *P_{x->z}(b)* is our continuous time Markov Model of sequence evolution!
 - We obtain P_{x->z}(b) by exponentiating the instantaneous rate matrix Q



Probability that the tree generated the data (generating process)



• L(T|D) = P(D|T)

Likelihood: 10 coin flips \rightarrow 10 heads What's the likelihood that the coin is fair?

Probability: Probability of landing heads up 10 times

• L(T|D) = P(D|T)

Alignment site *i*

• $L(T|D) = \Pi P(s_i|T)$

• L(T|D) = P(D|T)

Alignment site *i*

• $L(T|D) = \Pi P(s_i|T)$

What is problematic about this term?

- L(T|D) = P(D|T)
- $L(T|D) = \Pi P(s_i|T)$
- $log(L(T|D)) = \Sigma log(P(s_i|T))$

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This is the model

- 1. Tree topology
- 2. Branch lengths
- 3. Model of nucleotide substitution
 - \rightarrow generally lumped into parameter vector Θ : L(Θ |D)

How do we compute this?

- L(T|D) = P(D|T)
- $L(T|D) = \Pi P(s_i|T)$
- $\log(L(T|D)) = \Sigma \log(P(s_i|T))$

This is the model

- 1. Tree topology
- 2. Branch lengths
- 3. Model of nucleotide substitution
 - \rightarrow generally lumped into parameter vector Θ : L(Θ |D)

120

• We assume that sites evolve independently Likelihood of site *i*



MSA length n

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MSA length *n*

• Overall likelihood: $L := \Pi L_i$

• We assume that sites evolve independently Likelihood of site *i*





MSA length n

- Overall likelihood: $L := \Pi L_i$
- $P_{ij}(t)$ *i,j in* {*A*, *C*, *G*, *T*}

Branch length/relative time

• We assume that sites evolve independently





MSA length *n*

- Overall likelihood: $L := \Pi L_i$
- *P_{ij}(t) i,j in {A, C, G, T}*
 - \rightarrow Probability of being in state *j* after time *t*
 - \rightarrow We assume that $P_{ij}(t)$ is a continuous time Markov Process

• We assume that sites evolve independently





MSA length *n*

- Overall likelihood: $L := \Pi L_i$
- *P_{ij}(t) i,j in {A, C, G, T}*
 - \rightarrow Probability of being in state *j* after time *t*
 - \rightarrow We assume that $P_{ij}(t)$ is a Markov Process
- Equilibrium frequency vector $\Pi = (\Pi_A, \Pi_C, \Pi_G, \Pi_T)$

Model **M**

 $P_{ii}(t)$

• We assume that sites evolve independently



- Overall likelihood: $L := \Pi L_i$
- *P_{ij}(t) i,j in {A, C, G, T}*
 - \rightarrow Probability of being in state *j* after time *t*
 - \rightarrow We assume that $P_{ij}(t)$ is a Markov Process
- Equilibrium frequency vector $\pi = (\pi_A, \pi_C, \pi_G, \pi_T)$
- **Time reversibility:** $\pi_i P_{ij}(t) = \pi_j P_{ji}(t)$







Α b4 b1 Т Α b5, b6 b2 b3 Т G Α Α

Assume the inner states are given! What is the likelihood of the tree if we interpret it as Markov diagram?

Assume the inner states are given!

What is the likelihood of the tree if we

interpret it as Markov diagram? Α $L_{i} = \pi P_{AA}(b_{1}) P_{AA}(b_{2}) P_{AA}(b_{3})$ $P_{AT}(b_{4})P_{TT}(b_{5})P_{TG}(b_{6})$ b4 b1 Т Α b6 b5 b2 b3 Т G Α Α





Assume the inner states are given!



Assume the inner states are given!



Assume the inner states are given!



Assume the inner states are given! What is the likelihood of the tree if we Interpret it as Markov diagram?

138



Assume the inner states are given!



Assume the inner states are given!



However, we don't know the inner states :-(So the question is: What are the possible evolutionary histories that could have given rise (generated) to the data we observe at the tips?

It could be this



It could be this **OR** this



It could be this OR this OR this


It could be this OR this OR this OR this OR this





It could be this OR this OR this OR this OR this



It could be this OR this OR this OR this OR this OR this



It could be this OR this









So the likelihood of the tree is the sum (**OR!**) over the likelihoods of all possible assignments of A, C, G, and T (all possible evolutionary histories) to the inner nodes *I1*, *I2*, *I3* of the tree.



So the likelihood of the tree is the sum (**OR!**) over the likelihoods of all possible assignments of A, C, G, and T (all possible evolutionary histories) to the inner nodes *I1*, *I2*, *I3* of the tree.

There are 4 x 4 x 4 possible assignments in our example

 \rightarrow this sounds very compute-intensive :-(



The Felsenstein Pruning Algorithm















AND (left branch/right branch)

$$\vec{L}_{A}^{(k)}(c) = \left(\sum_{S=A}^{T} P_{AS}(b_{i}) \vec{L}_{S}^{(i)}(c)\right) \left(\sum_{S=A}^{T} P_{AS}(b_{j}) \vec{L}_{S}^{(j)}(c)\right)$$



OR (along left branch)

$$\vec{L}_{A}^{(k)}(c) = \left(\sum_{S=A}^{T} P_{AS}(b_{i})\vec{L}_{S}^{(i)}(c)\right) \left(\sum_{S=A}^{T} P_{AS}(b_{j})\vec{L}_{S}^{(j)}(c)\right)$$



OR (along right branch)

$$\vec{L}_{A}^{(k)}(c) = \left(\sum_{S=A}^{T} P_{AS}(b_{i})\vec{L}_{S}^{(i)}(c)\right) \left(\sum_{S=A}^{T} P_{AS}(b_{j})\vec{L}_{S}^{(j)}(c)\right)$$





Likelihood at the root: $L_i = \pi_A P(A) + \pi_C P(C) + \pi_G P(G) + \pi_T P(T)$



An Excellent Tool to viualize and revise this concept

https://phylanim.univ-lyon1.fr/LikelihoodTreeComputation



The computation of the likelihood of a site along a tree with four tips. Let's compute the likelihood of observing site pattern {T,T,G,T} at the four tips of a phylogeny

| Computation | | | | | | |
|--|------------------------|---|-------|-------|-------|--|
| $L_5^i = \left(\sum_{i,j \in \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{I}} p_{ij}(v_1) 	imes L_1^j \right) 	imes \left(\sum_{i,j \in \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{I}, \mathcal{I}} p_{ik}(v_2) 	imes L_2^k \right)$ where $i \in (A, C, G, T)$ | | To A | с | G | т | |
| $j \in (A,C,G,T)$ / $k \in (A,C,G,T)$ | From | 0.633 | 0.1 | 0.159 | 0.107 | |
| $L_5^G = (0.032) 	imes ((P_{GA}(v_2) 	imes L_2^A) + (P_{GC}(v_2) 	imes L_2^C) + (P_{GG}(v_2) 	imes L_2^G) + (P_{GT}(v_2 	imes L_2^T))$ | | 0.034 | 0.772 | 0.095 | 0.097 | |
| $L_5^G = (0.032) \times ((P_{GA}(0.25) \times 0.0) + (P_{GC}(0.25) \times 0.0) + (P_{GG}(0.25) \times 0.0) + (P_{GT}(0.25) \times 1.0))$ | | G 0.055 | 0.039 | 0.872 | 0.032 | |
| | 1 | 0.092 | 0.052 | 0.129 | 0.724 | |
| $L_5^G = (0.032) 	imes ((0.055 	imes 0.0) + (0.039 	imes 0.0) + (P_{GG}(0.25) 	imes 0.0) + (P_{GT}(0.25) 	imes 1.0))$ | Matrix of branch le | Matrix of substitution probabilities computed with a branch length equal to 0.25 | | | | |

 $L = \sum_{S_4=A}^T \pi_{S_4} \sum_{S_3=A}^T P_{S_4S_3}(b_1) L_{S_3}^{(3)} \sum_{S_5=A}^I P_{S_4S_5}(b_4) L_{S_5}^{(5)}$



$$L = L' = \sum_{S_4=A}^T \pi_{S_4} \sum_{S_3=A}^T P_{S_4S_3}(b_1 + x) L_{S_3}^{(3)} \sum_{S_5=A}^T P_{S_4S_5}(b_4 - x) L_{S_5}^{(5)}$$



$$L = L' = \sum_{S_4=A}^T \pi_{S_4} \sum_{S_3=A}^T P_{S_4S_3}(b_1 + x) L_{S_3}^{(3)} \sum_{S_5=A}^T P_{S_4S_5}(b_4 - x) L_{S_5}^{(5)}$$





Instantaneous rate matrix R!



What about the probabilities of staying in the current state? \rightarrow they are given by the properties of continuous Markov chains! e.g., $\lambda_{AA} = -(\lambda_{AC} + \lambda_{AG} + \lambda_{AT}) \rightarrow$ remember from lecture on Markov models: rows in the *R* matrix need to sum to **0**





Diagonal values are given by the off-diagonal values (R matrix property) $\lambda_{AA} = -(\lambda_{AC} + \lambda_{AG} + \lambda_{AT})$





Equilibrium frequency vector $n = (n_A, n_C, n_T)$ where $n_A + n_C + n_G + n_T = 1$

The simple Jukes-Cantor model



 $\Pi = (1/4, 1/4, 1/4, 1/4)$

The Felsenstein 81 model



 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$

Kimura 2-parameter model 1980



 $\Pi = (1/4, 1/4, 1/4, 1/4)$

HKY85



 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$

GTR 1986



 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$

GTR 1986



Note that these are **relative** rates, their Values only matter relative to each other, so we can set $\zeta := 1.0$ by default

 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$


Note that these are **relative** rates, their values only matter relative to each other, so we can set $\zeta := 1.0$ by default. Although the GTR model has 6 rates, it only has 5 free parameters!

 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$

Model Hierarchy





This is a rate matrix, time reversibility would require $\mathbf{n}_{ij} = \mathbf{n}_{jji}$

 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$



 $\Pi_i \neq \Pi_j$



Then, $\pi r_{ij} = \pi r_{jj}$ holds

So how do we compute P(t) from Q?

• As we have seen in the lecture on Markov chains:

 $P(t) = e^{Qt} = I + Qt + 1/2! (Qt)^2 + 1/3! (Qt)^3 + ...$

- but this is unfortunately a matrix exponential :-(
- I will spare you the details, but in general, e.g., for GTR we need to apply an Eigenvector/Eigenvalue decomposition of Q to calculate:



Matrix and inverse matrix of eigenvectors of Q

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- I will spare you the details, but in general, e.g., for GTR we need to apply an Eigenvector/Eigenvalue decomposition of Q to calculate:

 $P(t) = U \exp(diag(\lambda_i)t) U^{-1}$

Diagonal matrix of eigenvalues of Q, here the exponential function exp() is invoked on scalar values!

Likelihood Calculations

- So far, we have only seen how to calculate **a** likelihood on a
 - given, fixed tree topology
 - with given fixed branch lengths
 - and given, fixed remaining model parameters
- Computing the maximum likelihood score, is much more complicated as it requires
 - 1. functions for optimizing continuous parameters
 - 2. functions for searching the discrete space of trees

Outline – Lecture 10

- Maximum Likelihood motivation
- Computing the Likelihood on a tree
- Computing the Maximum Likelihood on a tree





























What happens when we compute this inner vector?

















Overall likelihood: sum over logarithms of per-site likelihoods







Branch Length Optimization



Branch Length Optimization




Newton Rapshon

- We want to find the branch length *b* that maximizes the likelihood *L(b)* of the tree
- For this, we want to know where the *first* derivative of *L(b)* is *O*
- To achieve this numerically we use the Newton-Raphson procedure for root finding deploying the first and second derivative of the likelihood *L'(b)* and *L''(b)*
- Note that, the likelihood only depends on branch b, all other model parameters (Q matrix, base frequencies, tree topology) remain fixed

Derivatives of *L(b)*

- To compute the derivatives of *L(b)*, we essentially need to be able to compute the derivatives of *P(b)* since the rest is just sums and does not depend on *b*
- Recall

 $P(b) = e^{Qb} = U e^{\Lambda b} U^{-1}$

• thus

 $(P(b))' = U \wedge e^{Ab} U^{-1}$

• and

 $(P(b))'' = U^{2}e^{hb}U^{-1}$

 In practice we compute the derivatives of the log likelihood log(L(b)), but it is essentially the same (see next slide)

Derivatives of *log(L(b))*

- 1st derivative: *L(b)'/L(b)*
- 2nd derivative: (L(b) L(b)" (L(b)")²) / L(b)²

Newton Raphson



Newton Raphson



An animation

















Maximum Likelihood



Maximum Likelihood



Maximum Likelihood



Numerical Optimization Procedures

• See chapters 9 & 10 of: Numerical Recipes in C – The Art of Scientific Computing

Basic Operations Maximum Likelihood

- Compute Conditional Likelihood Vector at an inner node
- Compute Likelihood at Virtual Root
- Optimize a Branch Length for a given Branch
- Optimize all Branch Lengths
- Optimize other Model Parameters

Basic Operations Maximum Likelihood

- Compute Conditional Likelihood Vector at an inner node
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The optimizers are the tricky routines!