

Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees

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Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.1/55

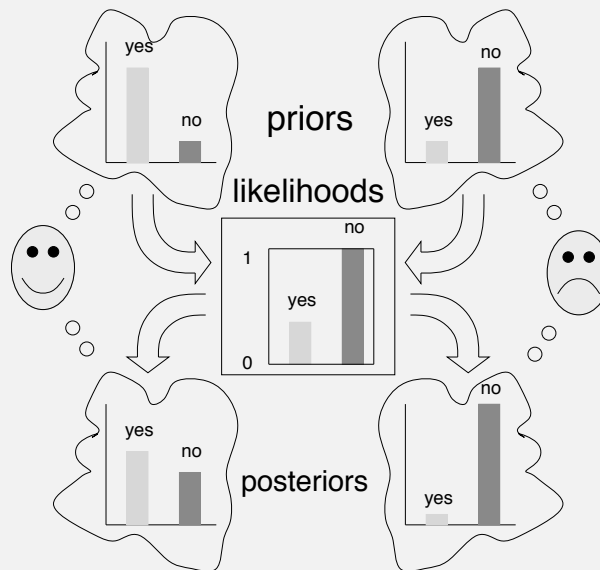
Odds ratio justification for maximum likelihood

D **the data**
H₁ **Hypothesis 1**
H₂ **Hypothesis 2**
| **the symbol for “given”**

$$\underbrace{\frac{\text{Prob}(H_1)}{\text{Prob}(H_2)}}_{\text{Prior odds ratio}} \underbrace{\frac{\text{Prob}(D | H_1)}{\text{Prob}(D | H_2)}}_{\text{Likelihood ratio}} = \underbrace{\frac{\text{Prob}(H_1 | D)}{\text{Prob}(H_2 | D)}}_{\text{Posterior odds ratio}}$$

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If a space probe finds no Little Green Men on Mars



$$\frac{4}{1} \times \frac{1/3}{1} = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1/3}{1} = \frac{1}{12}$$

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The likelihood ratio term ultimately dominates

If we see one Little Green Man, the likelihood calculation does the right thing:

$$\frac{1}{4} \times \frac{2/3}{0} = \frac{\infty}{1}$$

(put this way, this is OK but not mathematically kosher)

If we send n space probes and keep seeing none, the likelihood ratio term is

$$\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n$$

It dominates the calculation, overwhelming the prior.

Thus even if we don't have a prior we can believe in, we may be interested in knowing which hypothesis the likelihood ratio is recommending ...

Likelihood in Simple Coin-Tossing

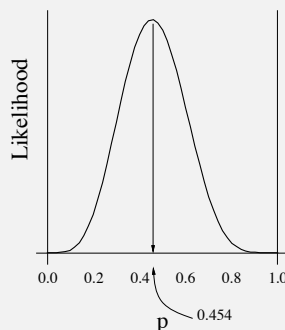
Tossing a coin n times, with probability p of heads, the probability of outcome HHTHTTTTHTTH is

$$pp(1-p)p(1-p)(1-p)(1-p)(1-p)p(1-p)(1-p)p$$

which is

$$L = p^5(1-p)^6$$

Plotting L against p to find its maximum:



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Differentiating to find the maximum:

Differentiating the expression for L with respect to p and equating the derivative to 0, the value of p that is at the peak is found (not surprisingly) to be $p = 5/11$:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial p} = \left(\frac{5}{p} - \frac{6}{1-p} \right) p^5(1-p)^6 = 0$$

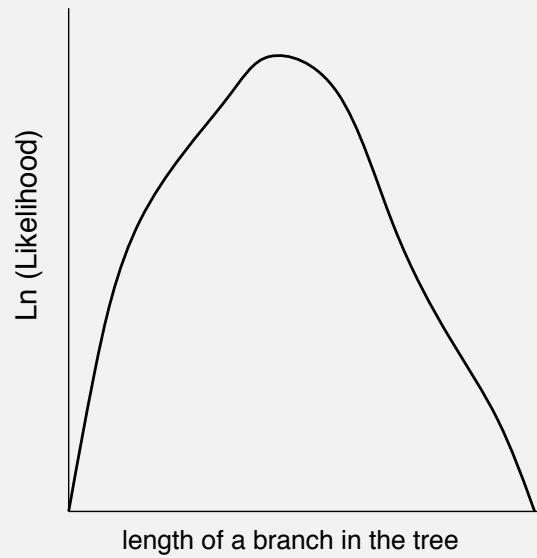
$$5 - 11p = 0$$

$$\hat{p} = \frac{5}{11}$$

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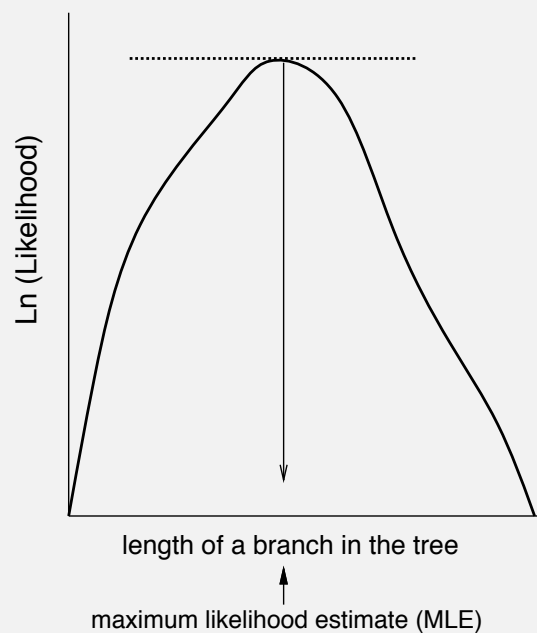
A log-likelihood curve

A Likelihood curve in one parameter



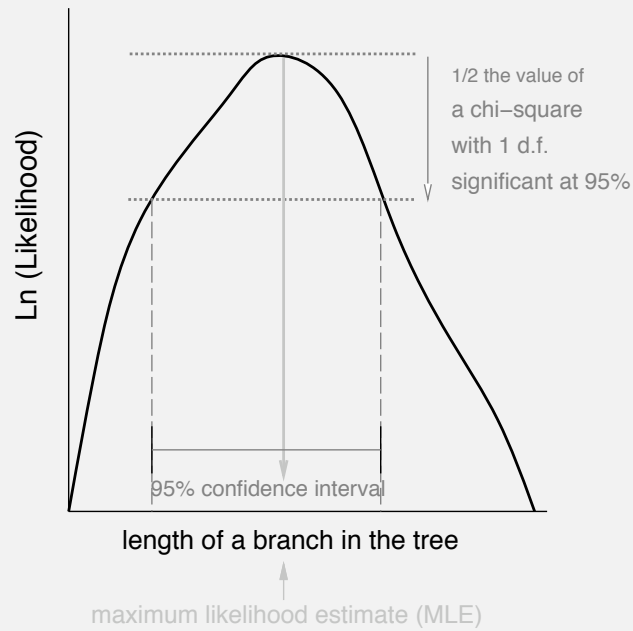
Its maximum likelihood estimate

A Likelihood curve in one parameter
and the maximum likelihood estimate



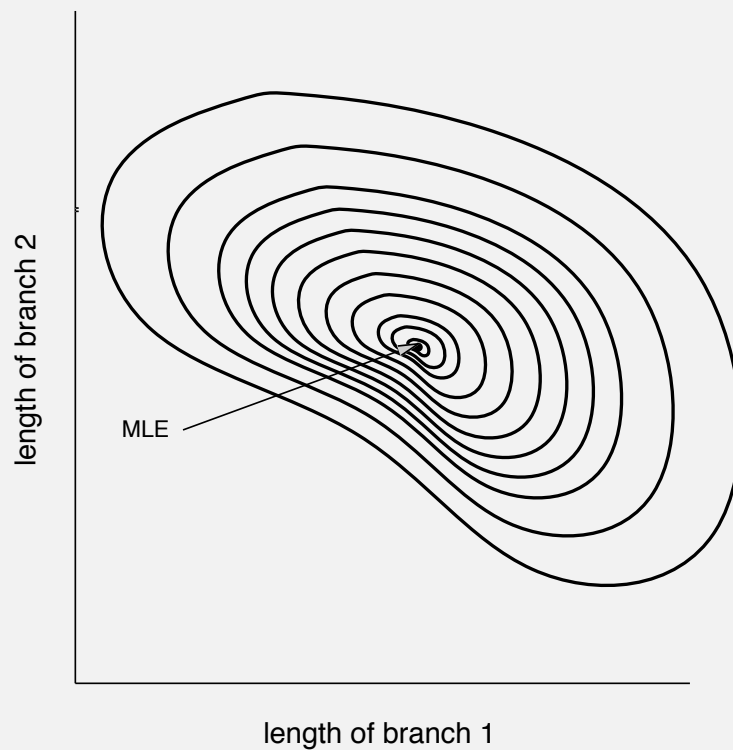
The (approximate, asymptotic) confidence interval

A Likelihood curve in one parameter
and the maximum likelihood estimate and
confidence interval derived from it



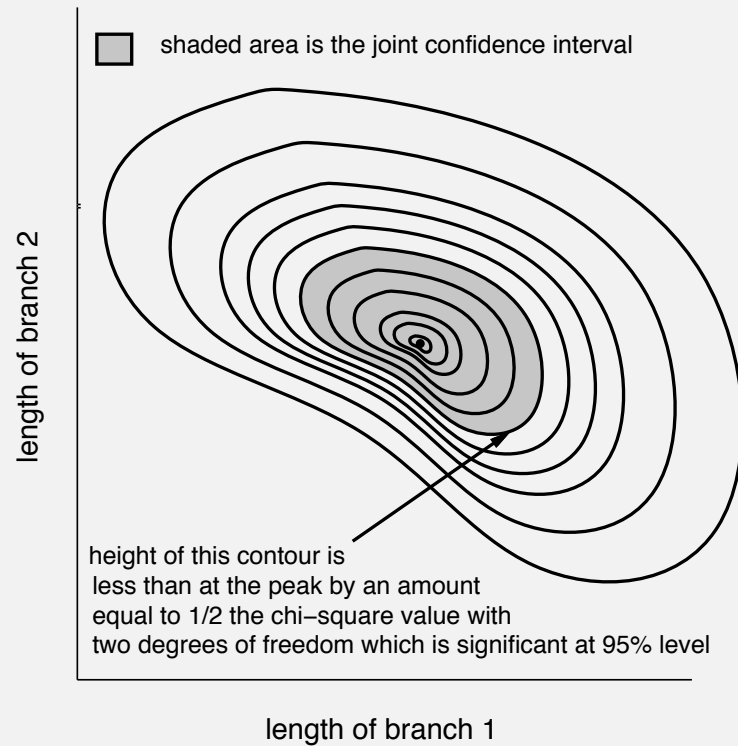
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Contours of a log-likelihood surface in two dimensions



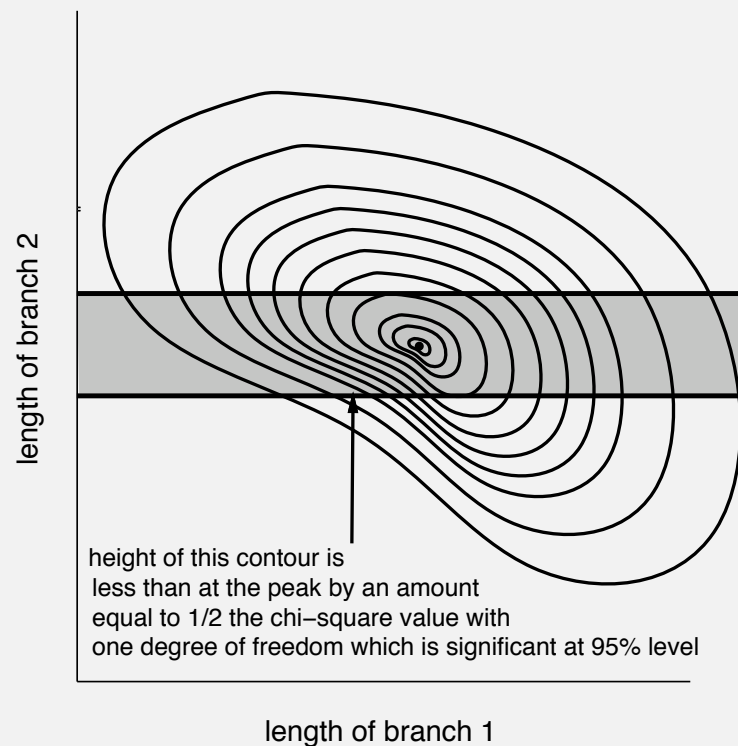
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Log-likelihood-based confidence set for two variables



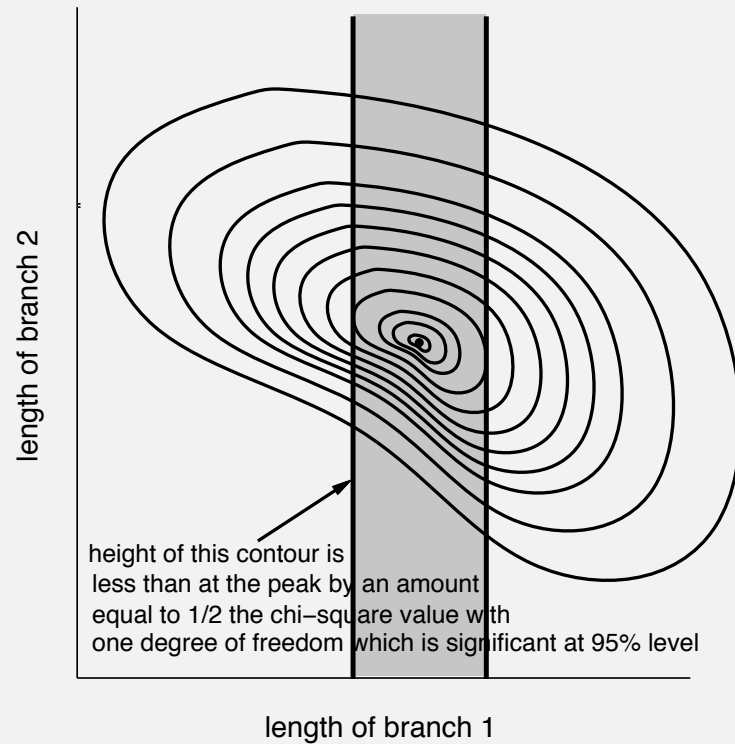
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Confidence interval for one variable



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Confidence interval for the other variable



Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.13/55

Calculating the likelihood of a tree

If we have molecular sequences on a tree, the likelihood is the product over sites of the data $D^{[i]}$ for each site (if those evolve independently):

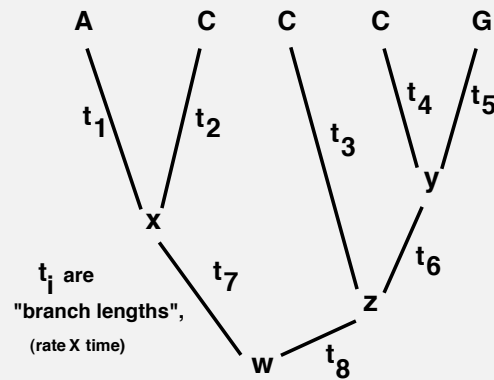
$$L = \text{Prob}(D | T) = \prod_{i=1}^{\text{sites}} \text{Prob}(D^{[i]} | T)$$

With log-likelihoods, the product becomes a sum:

$$\ln L = \ln \text{Prob}(D | T) = \sum_{i=1}^{\text{sites}} \ln \text{Prob}(D^{[i]} | T)$$

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Calculating the likelihood for site i on a tree



Sum over all possible states (bases) at interior nodes:

$$\begin{aligned}
 L^{(i)} = & \sum_x \sum_y \sum_z \sum_w \text{Prob}(w) \text{Prob}(x | w, t_7) \\
 & \times \text{Prob}(A | x, t_1) \text{Prob}(C | x, t_2) \text{Prob}(z | w, t_8) \\
 & \times \text{Prob}(C | z, t_3) \text{Prob}(y | z, t_6) \text{Prob}(C | y, t_4) \text{Prob}(G | y, t_5)
 \end{aligned}$$

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Calculating the likelihood for site i on a tree

We use the conditional likelihoods: $L_j^{(i)}(s)$

These compute the probability of everything at site i at or above node j on the tree, given that node j is in state s . Thus it assumes something (s) that we don't know in practice – so we compute these for all states s .

At the tips we can define these quantities: if the observed state is (say) C, the vector of L 's is

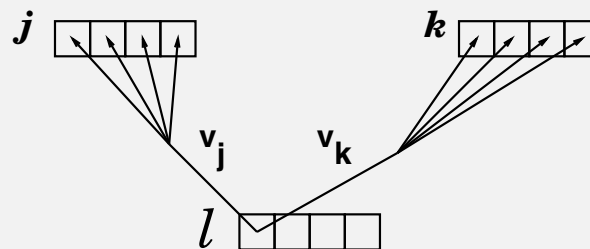
$$(0, 1, 0, 0)$$

If we observe an ambiguity, say R (purine), they are

$$(1, 0, 1, 0), \quad \text{not} \quad (1/2, 0, 1/2, 0)$$

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The “pruning” algorithm:



$$L_{\ell}^{(i)}(s) = \left[\sum_{s_j} \text{Prob}(s_j | s, v_j) L_j^{(i)}(s_j) \right] \times \left[\sum_{s_k} \text{Prob}(s_k | s, v_k) L_k^{(i)}(s_k) \right]$$

(Felsenstein, 1973; 1981).

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and at the bottom of the tree:

$$L_0^{(i)} = \sum_s \pi_s L_0^{(i)}(s)$$

(Felsenstein, 1973, 1981)

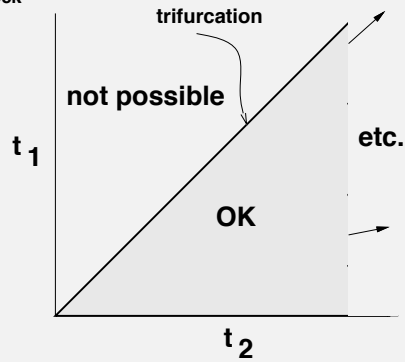
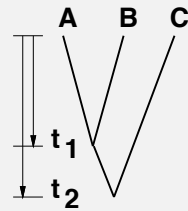
and having gotten the likelihoods for each site:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^{\text{sites}} L_0^{(i)}$$

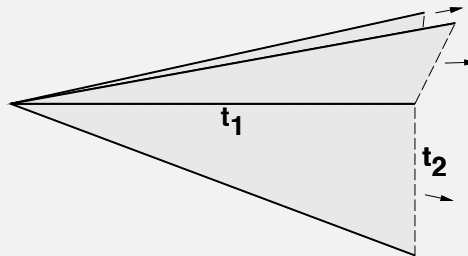
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What does “tree space” (with branch lengths) look like?

an example: three species with a clock



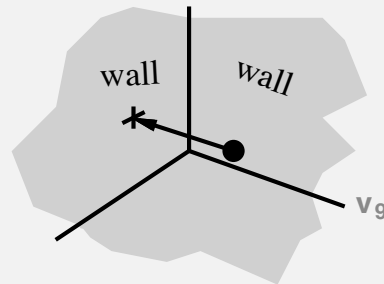
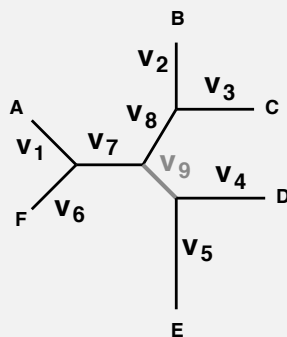
when we consider all three possible topologies, the space looks like:



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For one tree topology

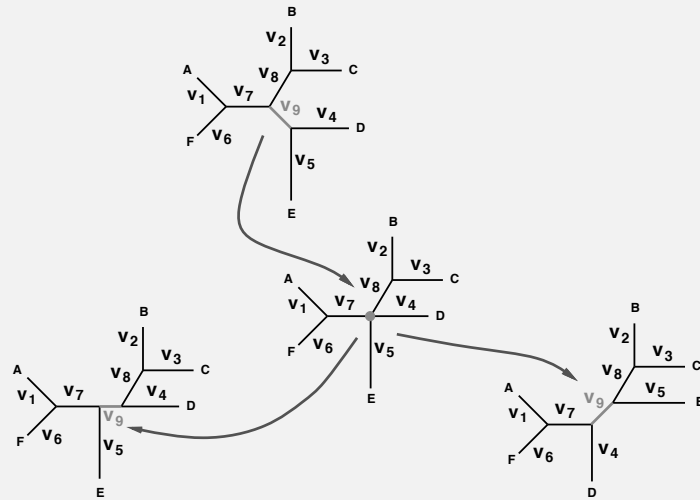
The space of trees varying all $2n - 3$ branch lengths, each a nonnegative number, defines an “orthant” (open corner) of a $(2n - 3)$ -dimensional real space:



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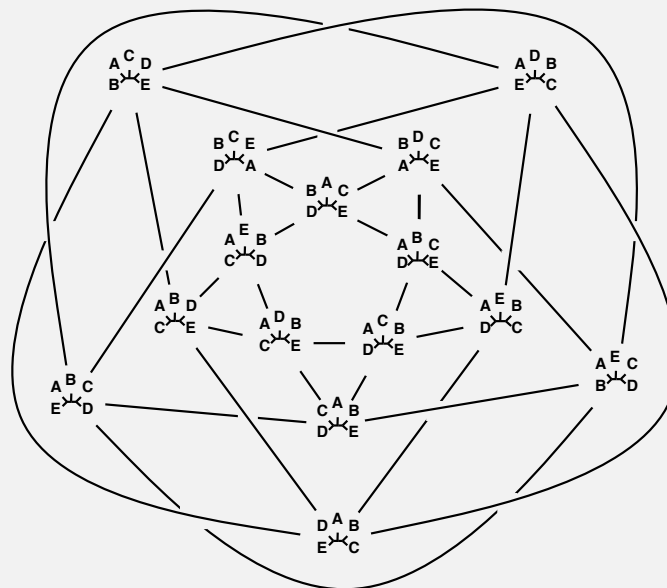
Through the looking-glass

Shrinking one of the $n - 1$ interior branches to 0, we arrive at a trifurcation:



Here, as we pass “through the looking glass” we are also touch the space for two other tree topologies, and we could enter either.

The graph of all trees of 5 species



The Schoenberg graph (all 15 trees of size 5 connected by NNI's)

A data example: mitochondrial D-loop sequences

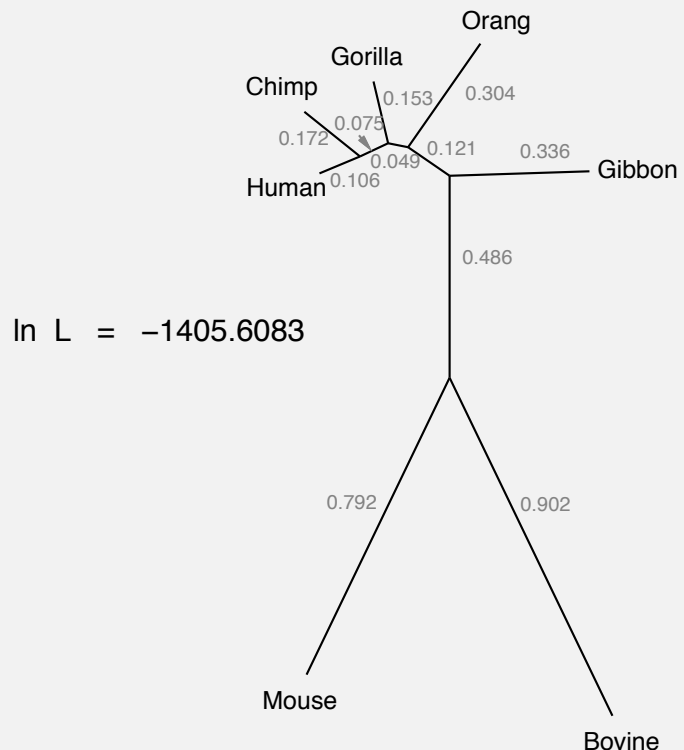
Bovine	CCAAACCTGT	CCCCACCATC	TAACACCAAC	CCACATATAC	AAGCTAAACC	AAAAATACCA
Mouse	CCAAAAAAC	ATCCAAACAC	CAACCCCAGC	CCTTACGCAA	TAGCCATACA	AAGAATATTA
Gibbon	CTATACCCAC	CCAACTCGAC	CTACACCAAT	CCCCACATAG	CACACAGACC	AACAACCTCC
Orang	CCCCACCCGT	CTACACCAGC	CAACACCAAC	CCCCACCTAC	TATACCAACC	AATAACCTCT
Gorilla	CCCCATTTAT	CCATAAAAC	CAACACCAAC	CCCCATCTAA	CACACAAACT	AATGACCCCC
Chimp	CCCCATCCAC	CCATACAAAC	CAACATTACC	CTCCATCCAA	TATACAAACT	AACAACCTCC
Human	CCCCACTCAC	CCATACAAAC	CAACACCACT	CTCCACCTAA	TATACAAATT	AATAACCTCC

TACTACTAAA	AACTCAAATT	AACTCTTTAA	TCTTTATACA	ACATTCCACC	AACCTATCCA
TACAACCATA	AATAAGACTA	ATCTATTAAA	ATAACCCATT	ACGATACAAA	ATCCCTTTTCG
CACCTTCCAT	ACCAAGCCCC	GACTTTACCG	CCAACGCACC	TCATCAAAAC	ATACCTACAA
CAACCCCTAA	ACCAAACACT	ATCCCCAAAA	CCAACACACT	CTACCAAAAT	ACACCCCCAA
CACCCCTCAA	GCCAAACACC	AACCCTATAA	TCAATACGCC	TTATCAAAAC	ACACCCCCAA
CACTCTTCAG	ACCGAACACC	AATCTCACAA	CCAACACGCC	CCGTCAAAAC	ACCCCTTCAG
CACCTTCAGA	ACTGAACGCC	AATCTCATAA	CCAACACACC	CCATCAAAGC	ACCCCTCCAA

CACAAAAAAA	CTCATATTTA	TCTAAATACG	AACTTCACAC	AACCTTAACA	CATAAACATA
TCTAGATACA	AACCACAACA	CACAATTAAT	ACACACCACA	ATTACAATAC	TAAACTCCCA
CACAAACAAA	TGCCCCCCCC	CCCTCCTTCT	TCAAGCCCAC	TAGACCATCC	TACCTTCCTA
TTCACATCCG	CACACCCCCA	CCCCCCTGCG	CCACGTCCAT	CCCATCACCC	TCTCCTCCCA
CATAAACCCA	CGCACCCCCA	CCCCTTCCGC	CCATGCTCAC	CACATCATCT	CTCCCTTCTA
CACAAATTCA	TACACCCCTA	CCTTTCTCTAC	CCACGTTCAC	CACATCATCC	CCCCCTCTCA
CACAAACCCG	CACACCTCCA	CCCCCCTCGT	CTACGCTTAC	CACGTCATCC	CTCCCTCTCA

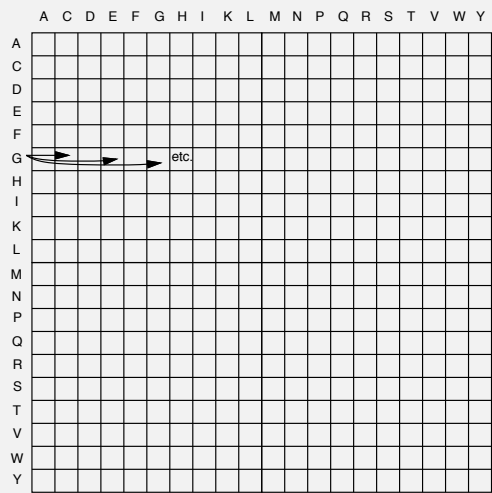
CCCCAGCCCA	ACACCCTTCC	ACAAATCCTT	AATATACGCA	CCATAAATAA	CA
TCCCACCAAA	TCACCCTCCA	TCAAATCCAC	AAATTACACA	ACCATTAACC	CA
GCACGCCAAG	CTCTCTACCA	TCAAACGCAC	AACTTACACA	TACAGAACCA	CA
ACACCCTAAG	CCACCCTTCT	CAAAATCCAA	AACCCACACA	ACCGAAACAA	CA

which gives the ML tree



Maximum likelihood tree
for the Hasegawa
232-site mitochondrial
D-loop data set, with
Ts/Tn set to 2, analyzed
with maximum likelihood
(DNAML)

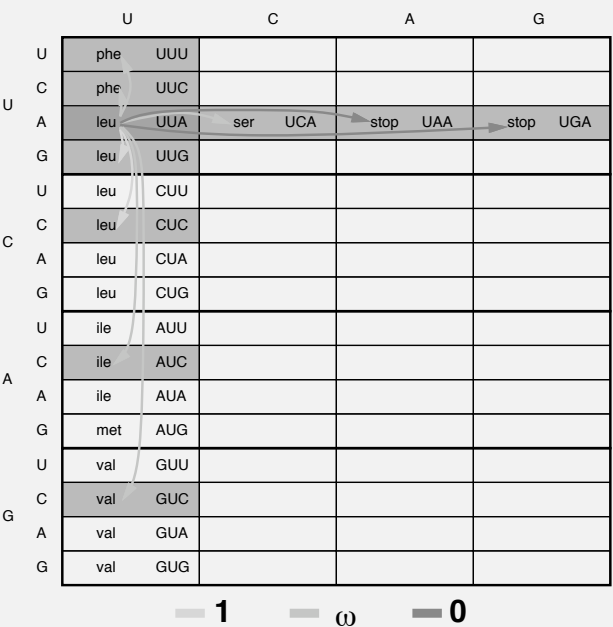
Models with amino acids



- Dayhoff PAM model
- Jones–Taylor–Thornton model
- specific models for secondary–structure contexts or membrane proteins
- Models adapted from Henikoff BLOSUM scoring
- But ... how to take DNA sequence into account? Constraints of code?

Codon models

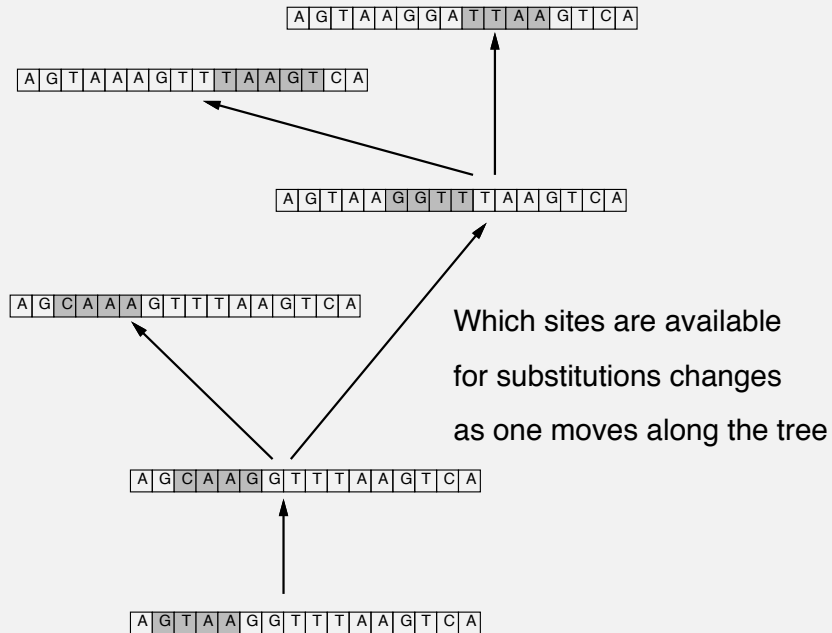
Goldman & Yang, 1994; Muse & Gaut, 1994)



Probabilities of change vary depending on whether amino acid is changing, and to what

Covariation models?

(Fitch and Markowitz, 1970)



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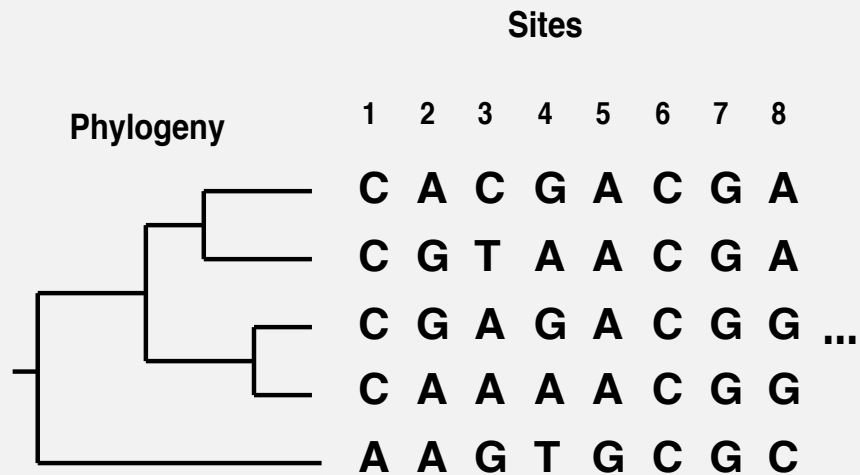
How to calculate likelihood with rate variation

Easy! Since branch lengths always come into transition probability formulas as $r \times t$, can just multiply lengths of branches by the appropriate factor to calculate the likelihood for a site.

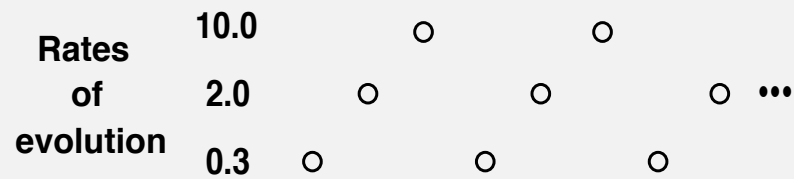
(Branch lengths are usually scaled by assuming a rate of 1.)

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Rate variation among sites

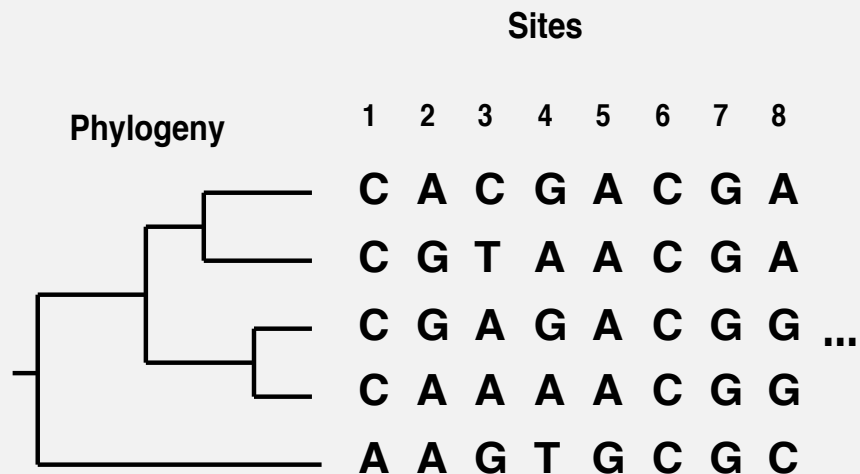


Rates at different sites:

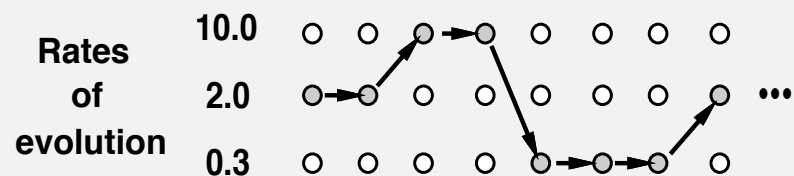


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Hidden Markov Model of rate variation among sites



Hidden Markov chain that assigns rates:

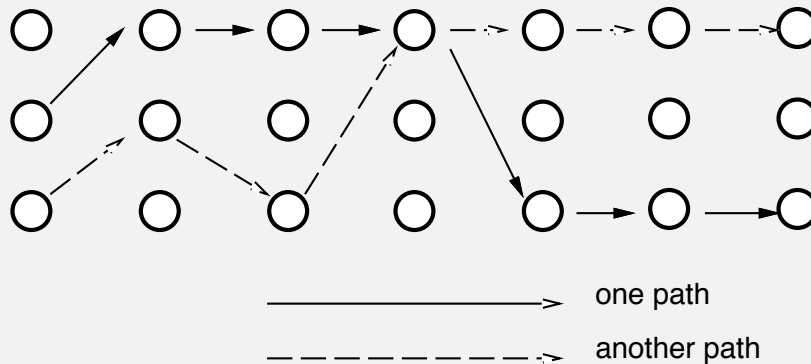


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Hidden Markov Models sum up over all paths

The Hidden Markov Chain method sums up likelihoods over all possible paths through the states:

$$\text{Prob (Data | tree)} = \sum_{\text{paths}} \text{Prob(Data | tree, path)} \text{Prob(path)}$$



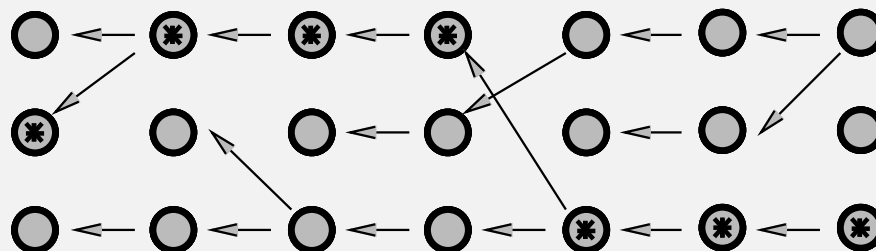
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This is done using a recursive algorithm known as the **Forwards**

The rate combination contributing the most:

We can leave behind pointers that allow us to backtrack

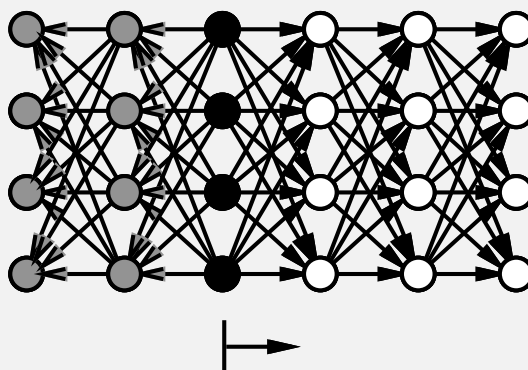
This can be done by a dynamic programming algorithm called the Viterbi Algorithm, well-known in the HMM literature.



(Of course, this one might account for only 0.001 of the likelihood)

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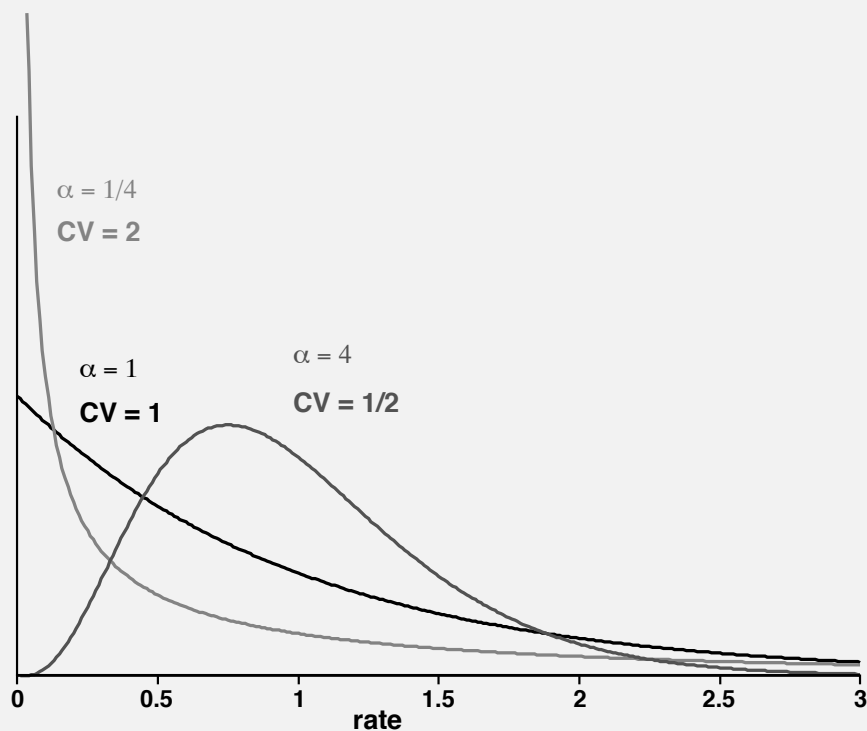
Forwards-Backwards algorithm (marginal probabilities)



The Forwards-Backwards algorithm
can calculate the contribution of one rate
at a given site to the overall likelihood
(a little different from the Viterbi calculation)

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The Gamma distribution, used for rates



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A numerical example. Cytochrome B

We analyze 31 cytochrome B sequences, aligned by Naoko Takezaki, using the Proml protein maximum likelihood program. Assume a Hidden Markov Model with 3 states, rates:

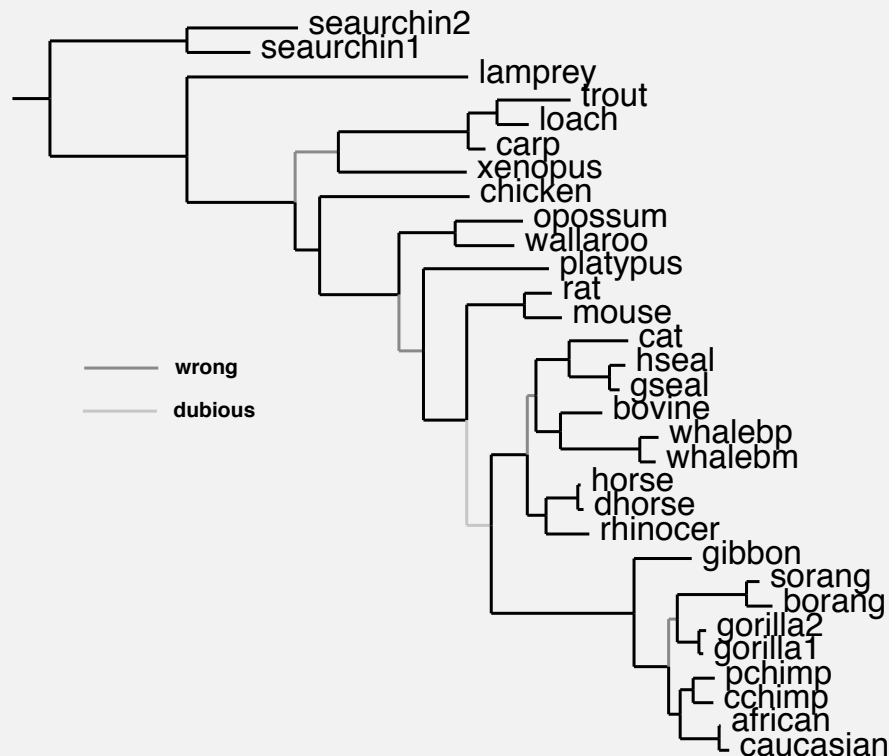
category	rate	probability
1	0.0	0.2
2	1.0	0.4
3	3.0	0.4

and expected block length 3.

We get a reasonable, but not perfect, tree with the best rate combination inferred to be

Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.35/55

The cytochrome B tree from the above run



(It's not perfect).

Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.36/55

Rates inferred from Cytochrome B

	1333333311	3222322313	3321113222	2133111111	1331133123	1122111111
african	M-----TPMRK	INPLMKLINH	SFIDLPTPSN	ISAWWNFGSL	LGACLILQIT	TGLFLAME
caucasianT.....R.....T.....
cchimpT.....
pchimpT.....T.....
gorilla1	T...A.....T.....
gorilla2	T...A.....T.....
borang	T.....	..L.....I..TI
sorangST..	T.....	..L.....I...
gibbonL..	T.....	..L...A...	..M.....I.....
bovineNI..	SH...IV.N	A...A...	..S.....	..I...L
whalebmNI..	TH...I..D	A.....	..S.....	..L...V..L
whalebpNI..	TH...IV.D	A.V.....	..S.....	..L...M..L
dhorseNI..	SH...I..IA...	..S.....	..I...L
horseNI..	SH...I..IS.....	..I...L
rhinocerNI..	SH...V..IS.....	..I...L
catNI..	SH...I..IA...V..T..L
gsealNI..	TH...I..NI...L
hsealNI..	TH...I..NI...L
mouseN..	TH...F..IA...	..S.....	..V...MV..I
ratNI..	SH...F..IA...V...MV..L
platypusNNL..	TH...I..IVS.....	..L...I..L
wallarooNL..	SH...I..IVA...I..L
opossumNI..	TH...I..DV...I..L
chicken	...APNI..	SH...L.M..N	..L...A...AV...MT..L	...L.....
xenopus	...APNI..	SH...I..I..NSL.....	..V...A..I
carp	...A-SL..	TH...I..IA.D	ALV.....L...T..L
loach	...A-SL..	TH...I..IA.D	ALV...A...	..V.....	..L...T..L
trout	...A-NL..	TH...L..IA.D	ALV...A...	..V.....	..L...AT..L
lamprey	..SHQPSII..	TH...LS.G.S	MLV...S.A.SL.....I	...I.....
seaurchin1	...LG.L..	EH..IFRIL.S	T.V...L...	..L.I.....	..L...T..L
seaurchin2	...AG.L..	EH..IFRIL.S	T.V...L...	..L.M.....	..L...I..LI	...I.....

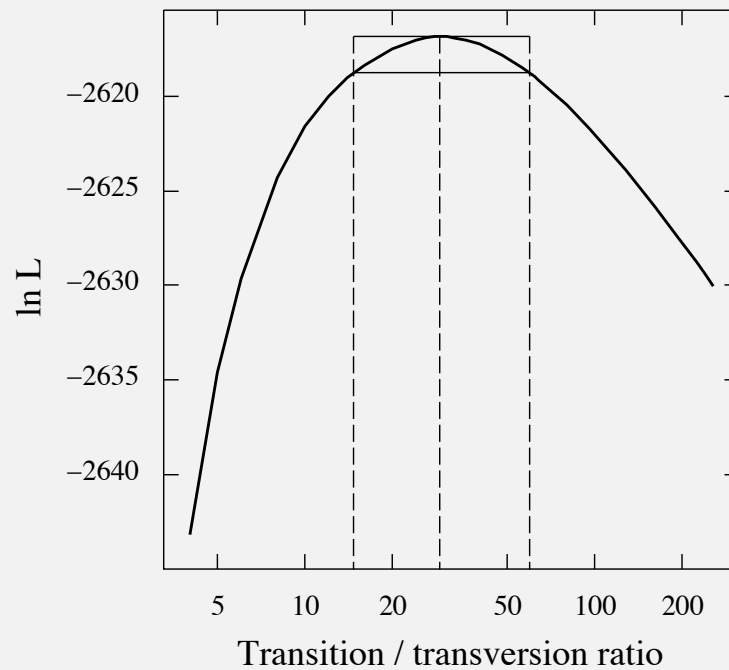
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Rates inferred from Cytochrome B

	2223311112	2222222222	2222232112	2222222223	1222221112	333311112
african	PDASTAFSSI	AHITRDVNYG	WIIRYLHANG	ASMFFICLFL	HIGRGLYYGS	FLYSETWNJ
caucasian
cchimpL.....
pchimpL.....	..V.....	...L.....
gorilla1T.....HQ.....
gorilla2T.....HQ.....
borang	...T.....M..H.....	...L.....THL.....
sorangM..H.....THL.....
gibbonV.....L.....
bovine	S.TT....V	T...C.....	...M.....YM	..V.....	YTFL.....
whalebm	..TM....V	T...C.....	..V.....	...YA	..M.....	HAFR.....
whalebp	..TT....V	T...C.....YA	..M.....	YAFR.....
dhorse	S.TT....V	T...C.....I	..V.....	YTFL.....
horse	S.TT....V	T...C.....I	..V.....	YTFL.....
rhinocer	..TT....V	T...C.....	..M.....I	..V.....	YTFL.....
cat	S.TM....V	T...C.....YM	..V...M...	YTF.....
gseal	S.TT....V	T...C.....YM	..V.....	YTFT.....
hseal	S.TT....V	T...C.....YM	..V.....	YTFT.....
mouse	S.TM....V	T...C.....	..L...M...V.....	YTFM.....
rat	S.TM....V	T...C.....	..L...Q...V.....	YTFL.....
platypus	S.T....V	...C.....	..L...M...	..L..M..I..	YTQT.....
wallaroo	S.TL....V	...C.....	..L..N.....	...M.....	..V...I...	Y...K.....
opossum	S.TL....V	...C.....	..L..NI.....	...M.....	..V...I...	Y...K.....
chicken	A.T.L....V	...TC.N.Q...	..L..N.....	..F...I...	Y...K.....
xenopus	A.T.M....V	...CF.....	LL..N.....	L.F...IY.	Y...K.....
carp	S.I....V	T...C.....	..L..NV.....	..F...IYM	..A.....	Y...K.....
loach	S.I....V	...C.....	..L..NI.....	..F...Y.	..A.....	Y...K.....
trout	S.I....V	C...C...S.	..L..NI.....	..F...IYM	..A.....	Y...K.....
lamprey	ANTEL....V	M...C...N.	LM..N.....IYAI...	Y...K.....
seaurchin1	A.I.L....A	S...C.....	LL..NV.....	..L...MYCG	SNKI.....
seaurchin2	A.INL....V	S...C.....	LL..NV...C	..L...MYCL	TNKI.....

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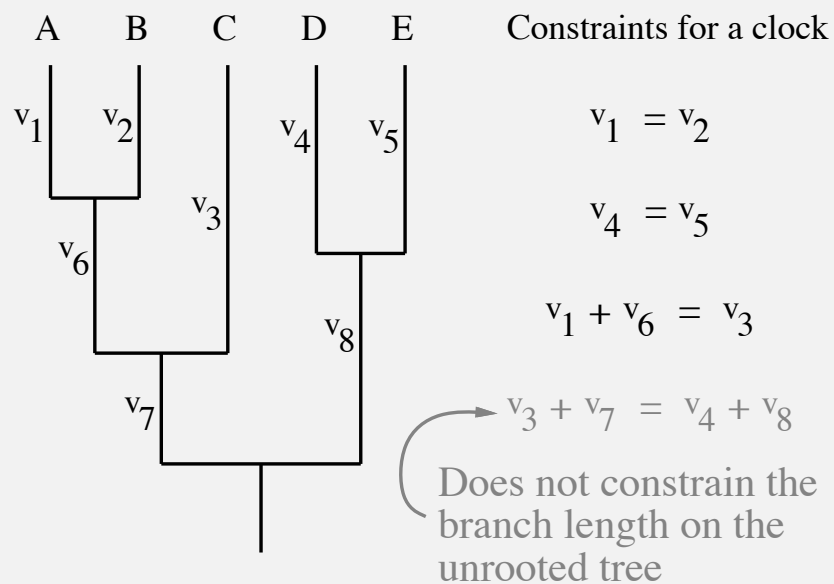
Likelihood curve and its confidence interval



(This is for the 14-species primates data available for download).

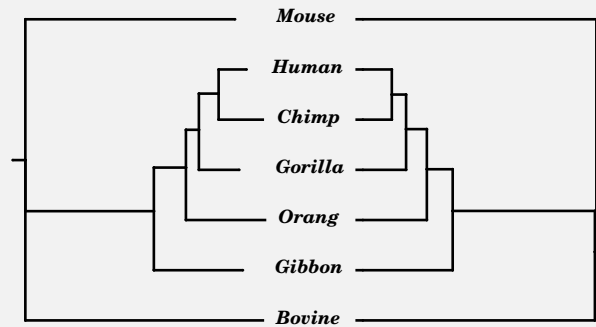
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Constraints on a tree for a clock



Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.40/55

Likelihood-ratio test of molecular clock

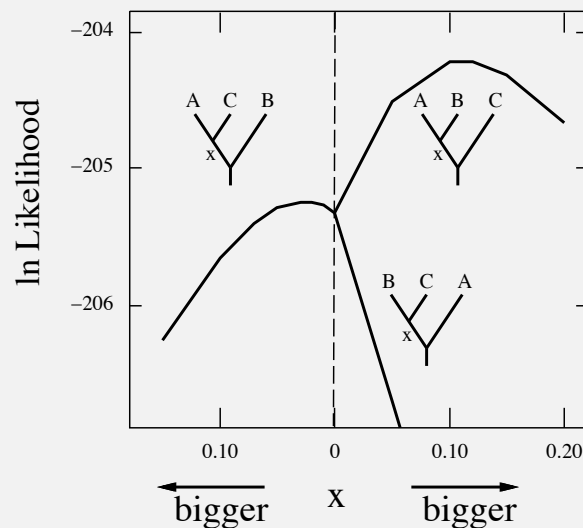


	log-likelihood	parameters	
Without clock	-1405.608	11	
With clock	-1407.085	6	
Difference	1.477	5	$\chi^2 = 2.954 \quad df = 5$
			(non-significant)

(This is for this 7-species subset of the primates data).

Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.41/55

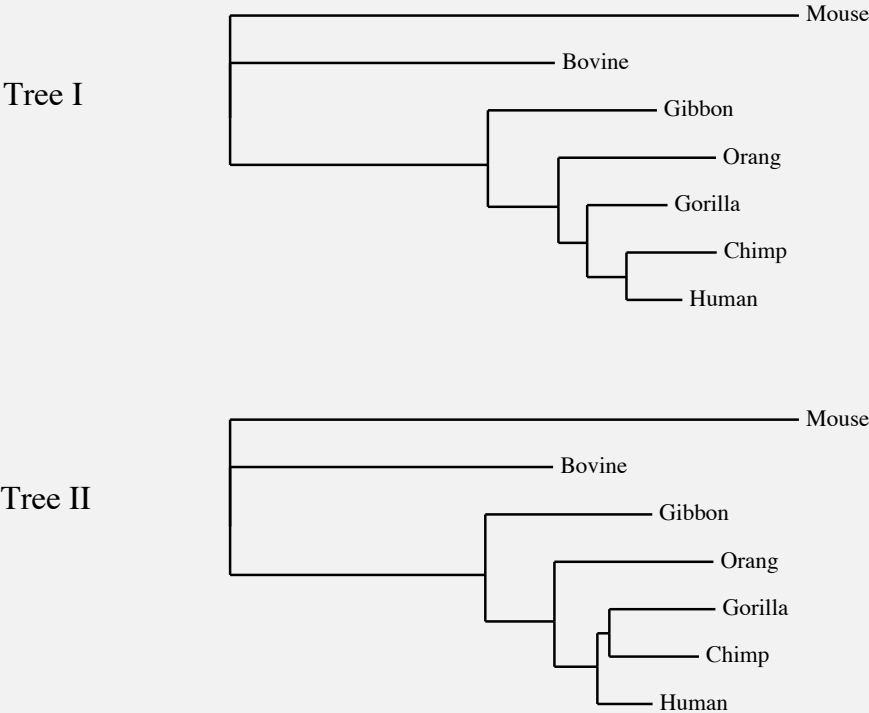
Likelihood surface for three clocklike trees



(These are “profile likelihoods” as they show the largest likelihood for that value of x , maximizing over the other branch length in the tree.)

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Two trees to be tested using KHT test



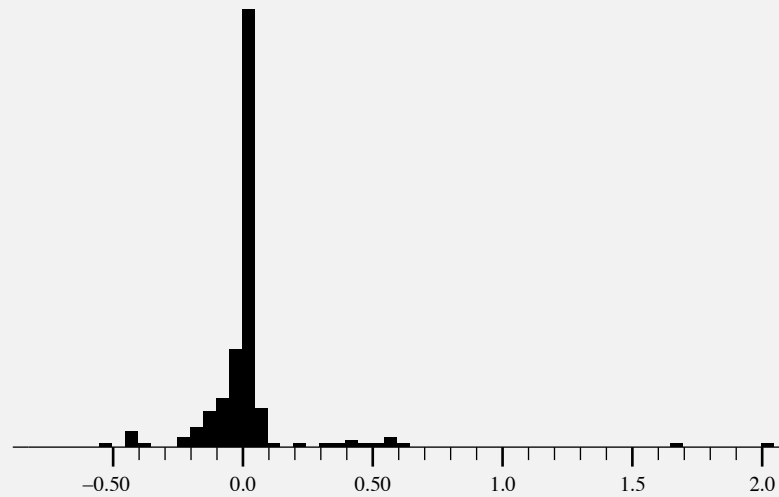
Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.43/55

Table of differences in log-likelihood

Tree \ site	1	2	3	4	5	6	ff		ln L	
							231	232		
I	-2.971	-4.483	-5.673	-5.883	-2.691	-8.003	...	-2.971	-2.691	-1405.61
II	-2.983	-4.494	-5.685	-5.898	-2.700	-7.572	...	-2.987	-2.705	-1408.80
Diff	+0.012	+0.111	+0.013	+0.015	+0.010	-0.431	...	+0.012	+0.010	+3.19

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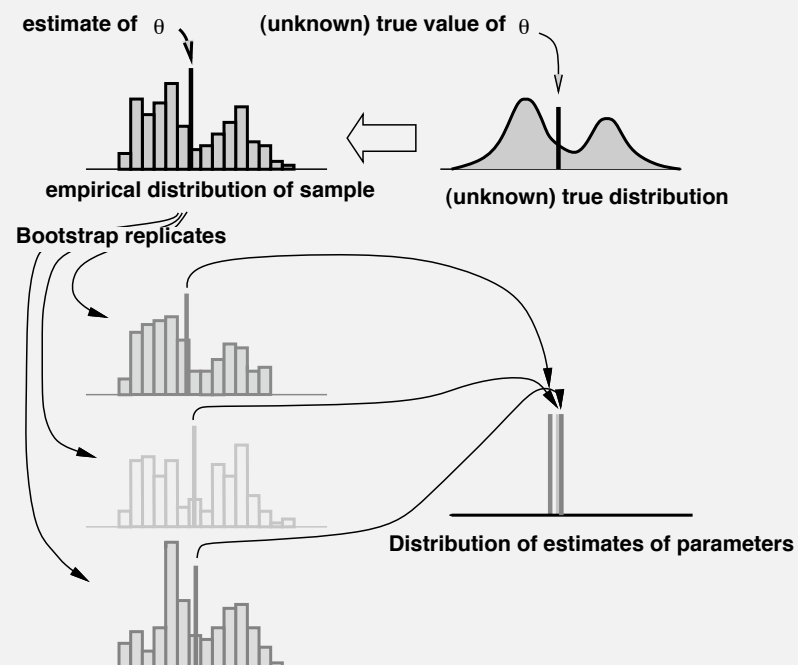
Histogram of those differences



Difference in log likelihood at site

Do sign test, or t-test, or similar nonparametric tests.

Bootstrap sampling (with mixtures of normals)

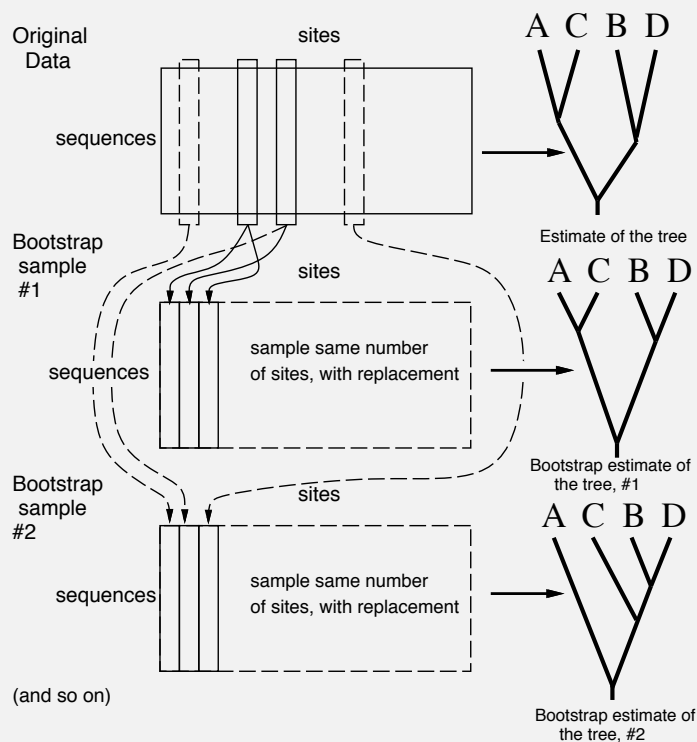


Bootstrap sampling

To infer the error in a quantity, θ , estimated from a sample of points x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n we can

- Do the following R times ($R = 1000$ or so)
- Draw a “bootstrap sample” by sampling n times with replacement from the sample. Call these $x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*$. Note that some of the original points are represented more than once in the bootstrap sample, some once, some not at all.
- Estimate θ from each of the bootstrap samples, call these $\hat{\theta}_k^*$ ($k = 1, 2, \dots, R$)
- When all R bootstrap samples have been done, the distribution of $\hat{\theta}_i^*$ estimates the distribution one would get if one were able to draw repeated samples of n data points from the unknown true distribution.

Bootstrap sampling of phylogenies

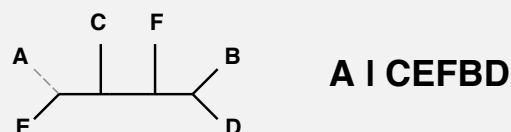
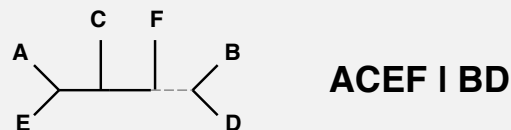
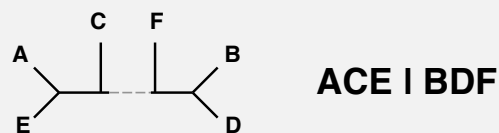
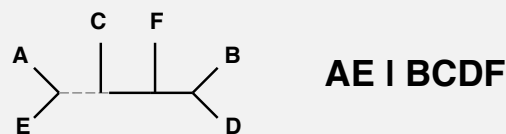


Analyzing bootstraps with phylogenies

The sites are assumed to have evolved independently given the tree. They are the entities that are sampled (the x_i). The trees play the role of the parameter. One ends up with a cloud of R sampled trees.

To summarize this cloud, we ask, for each branch in the tree, how frequently it appears among the cloud of trees. We make a tree that summarizes this for all the most frequently occurring branches. This is the majority rule consensus tree of the bootstrap estimates of the tree.

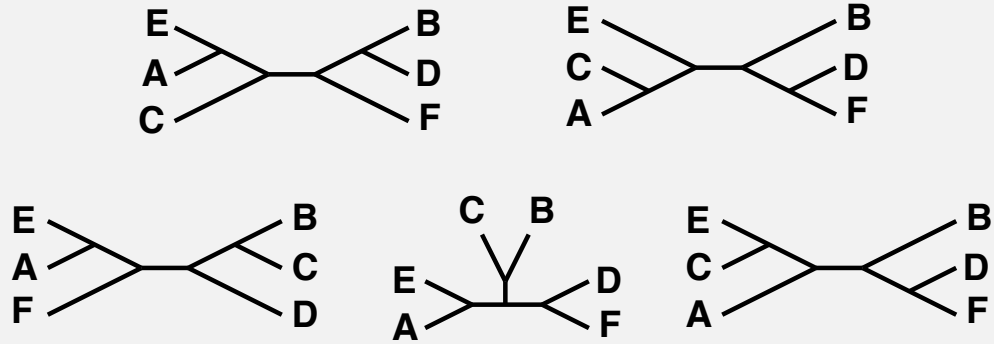
Partitions from branches in an (unrooted) tree



and so on for all the other external (tip) branches

The majority-rule consensus tree

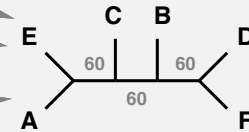
Trees:



How many times each partition of species is found:

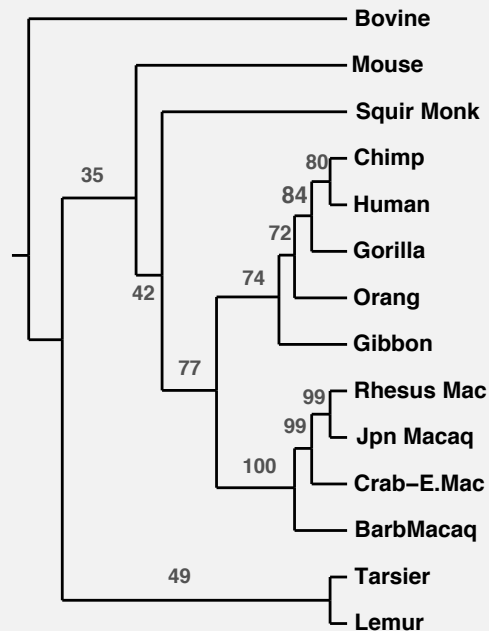
AE BCDF	3
ACE BDF	3
ACEF BD	1
AC BDEF	1
AEF BCD	1
ADEF BC	2
ABDF EC	1
ABCE DF	3

Majority-rule consensus tree of the unrooted trees:



Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.51/55

Bootstrap sampling of a phylogeny



In this example, parsimony was used to infer the tree.

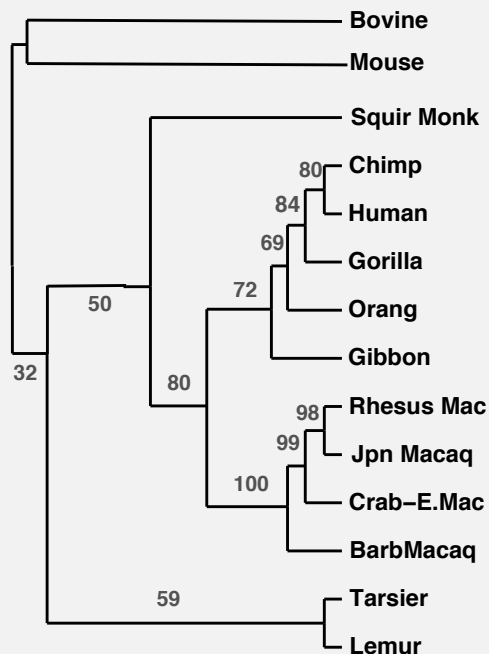
Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.52/55

Potential problems with the bootstrap

- Sites may not evolve independently
- Sites may not come from a common distribution (but you can consider them to be sampled from a mixture of possible distributions)
- If do not know which branch is of interest at the outset, a “multiple-tests” problem means that the most extreme P values are overstated
- P values are biased (too conservative)
- Bootstrapping does not correct biases in phylogeny methods

Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.53/55

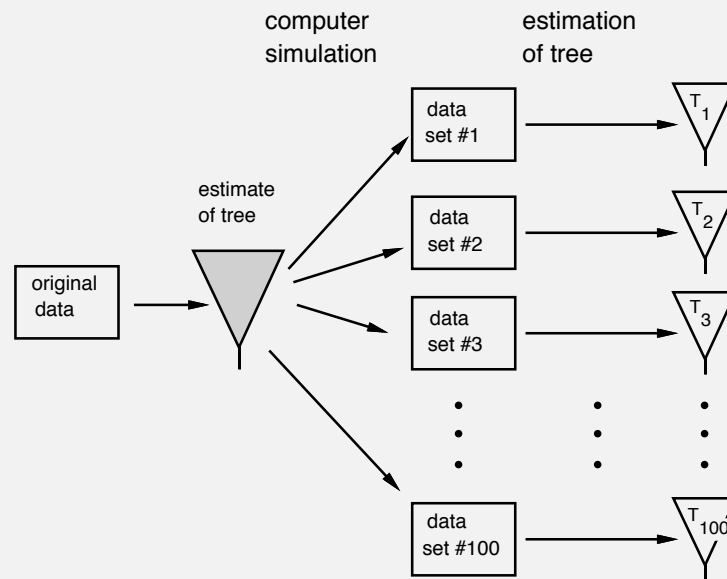
Delete-half jackknife P values



In this example, parsimony was used to infer the tree.

Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.54/55

A diagram of the parametric bootstrap



Likelihoods, Bootstraps and Testing Trees – p.55/55

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