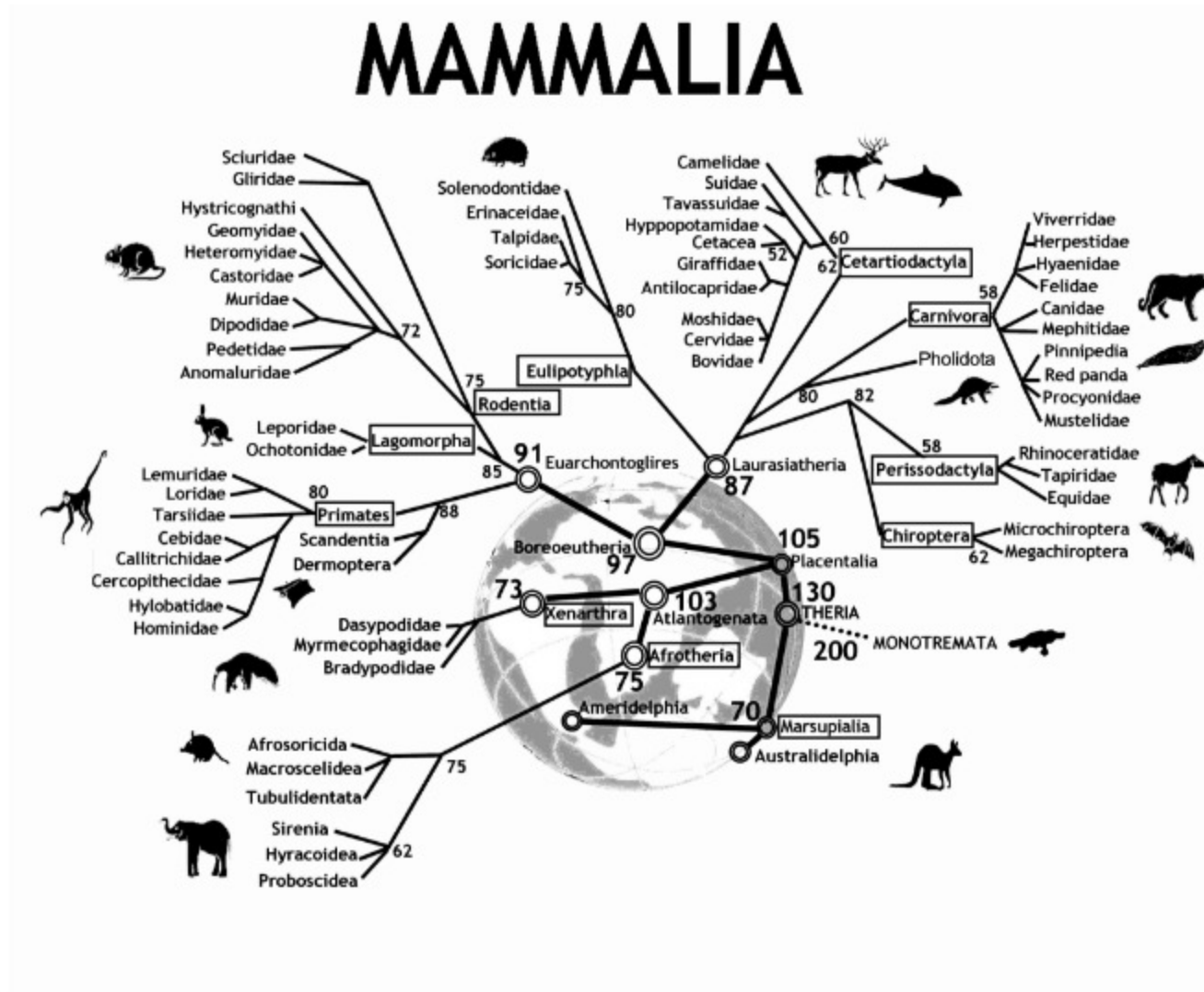
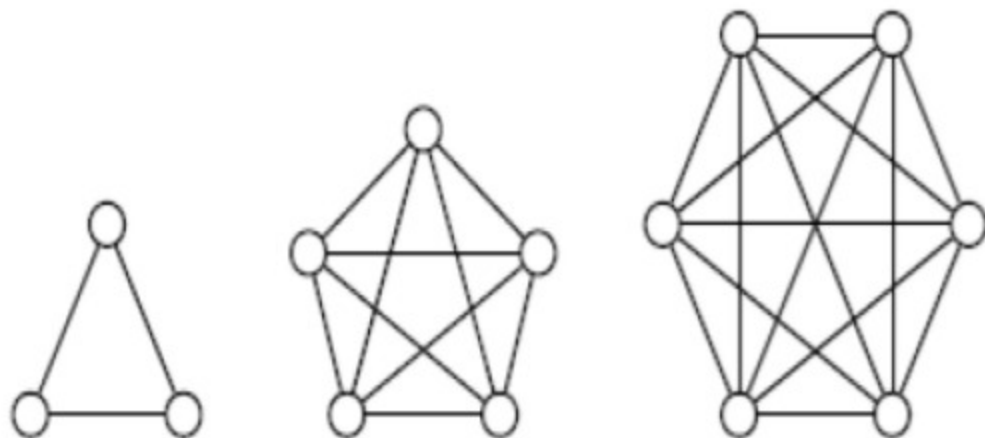


Clustering and Evolution



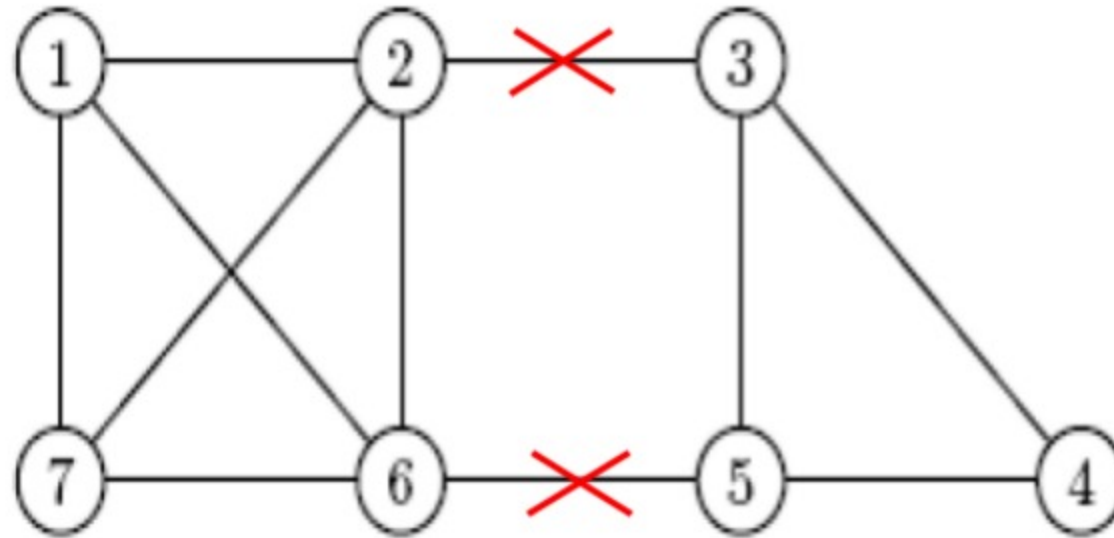
Clique Graphs

- A **clique** is a graph where every vertex is connected via an edge to every other vertex
- A **clique graph** is a graph where each connected component is a clique
- The concept of clustering is closely related to clique graphs. Every partition of n elements into k clusters can be represented as a clique graph on n vertices with k cliques.



Graph Transformations

- How to transform a given graph into a clique graph
- Clusters are maximal cliques (cliques not contained in any other complete subgraph) 1,6,7 is a non-maximal clique.
- An arbitrary graph can be transformed into a clique graph by adding or removing edges



Corrupted Cliques Problem

Determine the smallest number of edges that need be added or removed to transform a graph to a clique graph

Input: A graph G

Output: The smallest number of edge additions and/or removals that transforms G into a clique graph

Distance Graphs

One can turn a distance matrix into a distance graph

- Genes or Species are vertices of the graph
- Choose a distance threshold θ
- If the distance between two vertices is below θ , draw an edge between them
- The resulting graph may contain cliques
- These cliques represent clusters of closely located data points!

Transforming a Distance Graph into a Clique Graph

The distance graph (threshold $\theta=7$) is transformed into a clique graph after removing the two highlighted edges

| | g_1 | g_2 | g_3 | g_4 | g_5 | g_6 | g_7 | g_8 | g_9 | g_{10} |
|----------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|----------|
| g_1 | 0.0 | 8.1 | 9.2 | 7.7 | 9.3 | 2.3 | 5.1 | 10.2 | 6.1 | 7.0 |
| g_2 | 8.1 | 0.0 | 12.0 | 0.9 | 12.0 | 9.5 | 10.1 | 12.8 | 2.0 | 1.0 |
| g_3 | 9.2 | 12.0 | 0.0 | 11.2 | 0.7 | 11.1 | 8.1 | 1.1 | 10.5 | 11.5 |
| g_4 | 7.7 | 0.9 | 11.2 | 0.0 | 11.2 | 9.2 | 9.5 | 12.0 | 1.6 | 1.1 |
| g_5 | 9.3 | 12.0 | 0.7 | 11.2 | 0.0 | 11.2 | 8.5 | 1.0 | 10.6 | 11.6 |
| g_6 | 2.3 | 9.5 | 11.1 | 9.2 | 11.2 | 0.0 | 5.6 | 12.1 | 7.7 | 8.5 |
| g_7 | 5.1 | 10.1 | 8.1 | 9.5 | 8.5 | 5.6 | 0.0 | 9.1 | 8.3 | 9.3 |
| g_8 | 10.2 | 12.8 | 1.1 | 12.0 | 1.0 | 12.1 | 9.1 | 0.0 | 11.4 | 12.4 |
| g_9 | 6.1 | 2.0 | 10.5 | 1.6 | 10.6 | 7.7 | 8.3 | 11.4 | 0.0 | 1.1 |
| g_{10} | 7.0 | 1.0 | 11.5 | 1.1 | 11.6 | 8.5 | 9.3 | 12.4 | 1.1 | 0.0 |

(a) Distance matrix, d (distances shorter than 7 are shown in bold).

After transforming the distance graph into the clique graph, the dataset is partitioned into three clusters

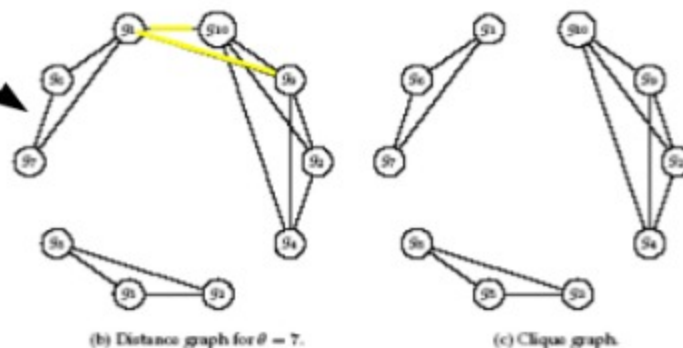


Figure 10.6 The distance graph (b) for $\theta = 7$ is not quite a clique graph. However, it can be transformed into a clique graph (c) by removing edges (g_1, g_{10}) and (g_1, g_2) .

Heuristics for Corrupted Clique Problem

- Corrupted Cliques problem is NP-Hard, some heuristics exist to approximately solve it:
- CAST (Cluster Affinity Search Technique): a practical and fast algorithm:
 - CAST is based on the notion of genes close to cluster C or distant from cluster C
 - Distance between gene i and cluster C:
 $d(i,C)$ = average distance between gene i and all genes in C
Gene i is close to cluster C if $d(i,C) < \theta$ and distant otherwise

CAST Algorithm

1. CAST(S, G, θ)
2. $\mathbf{P} \leftarrow \emptyset$
3. while $\mathbf{S} \neq \emptyset$
4. $v \leftarrow$ vertex of maximal degree in the distance graph \mathbf{G}
5. $\mathbf{C} \leftarrow \{v\}$
6. while *a close gene i not in \mathbf{C} or distant gene i in \mathbf{C} exists*
7. Find the nearest close gene i not in \mathbf{C} and add it to \mathbf{C}
8. Remove the farthest distant gene i in \mathbf{C}
9. Add cluster \mathbf{C} to partition \mathbf{P}
10. $\mathbf{S} \leftarrow \mathbf{S} \setminus \mathbf{C}$
11. Remove vertices of cluster \mathbf{C} from the distance graph \mathbf{G}
12. return \mathbf{P}

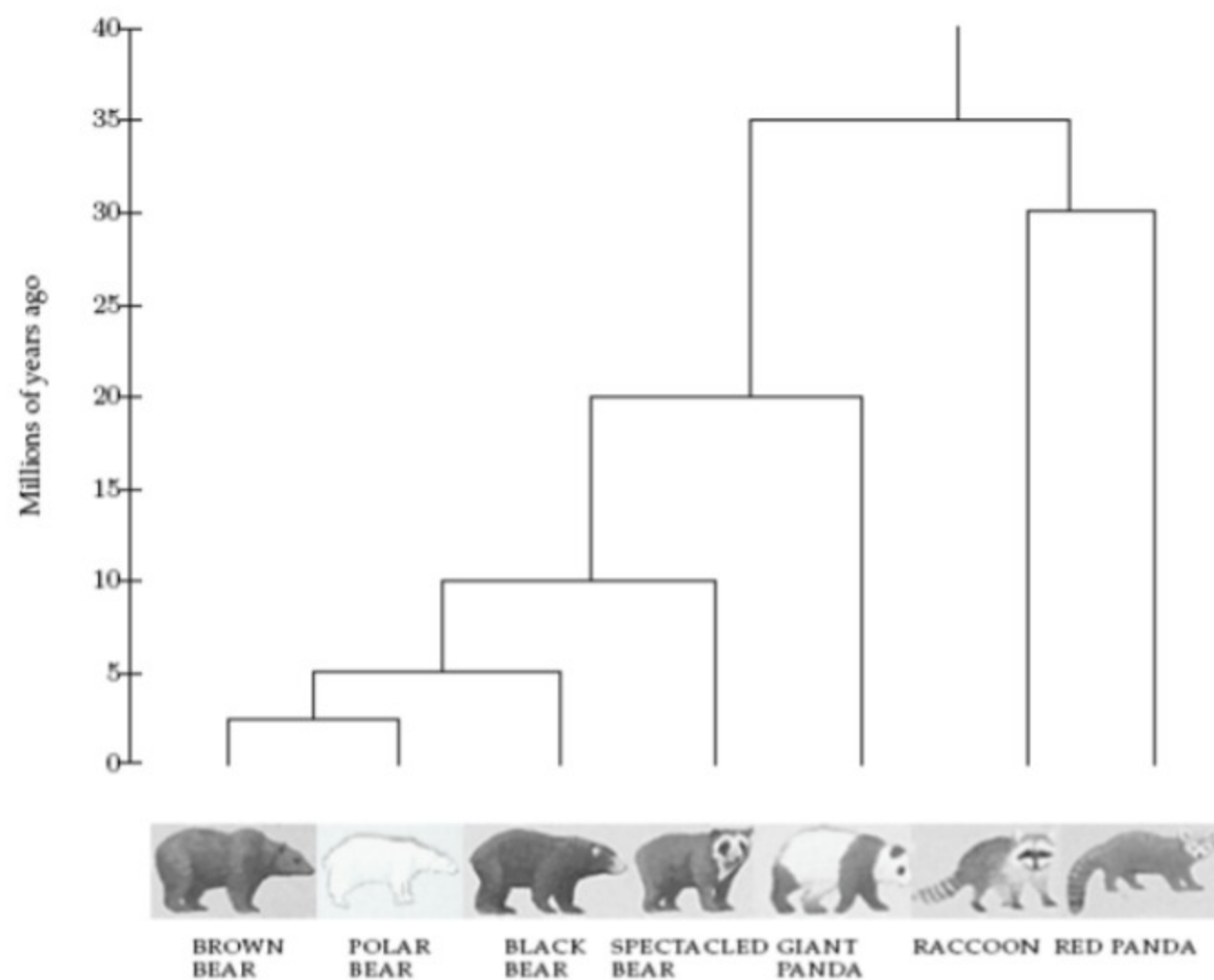
S - set of elements, G - distance graph, θ - distance threshold

Evolution of the Giant Panda

- For roughly 100 years scientists were unable to figure out which family the giant panda belongs to
- Giant pandas look like bears but have features that are unusual for bears and typical for raccoons, e.g., they do not hibernate
- In 1985, Steven O'Brien and colleagues solved the giant panda classification problem using DNA sequences and algorithms



Evolutionary Tree of Bears and Raccoons



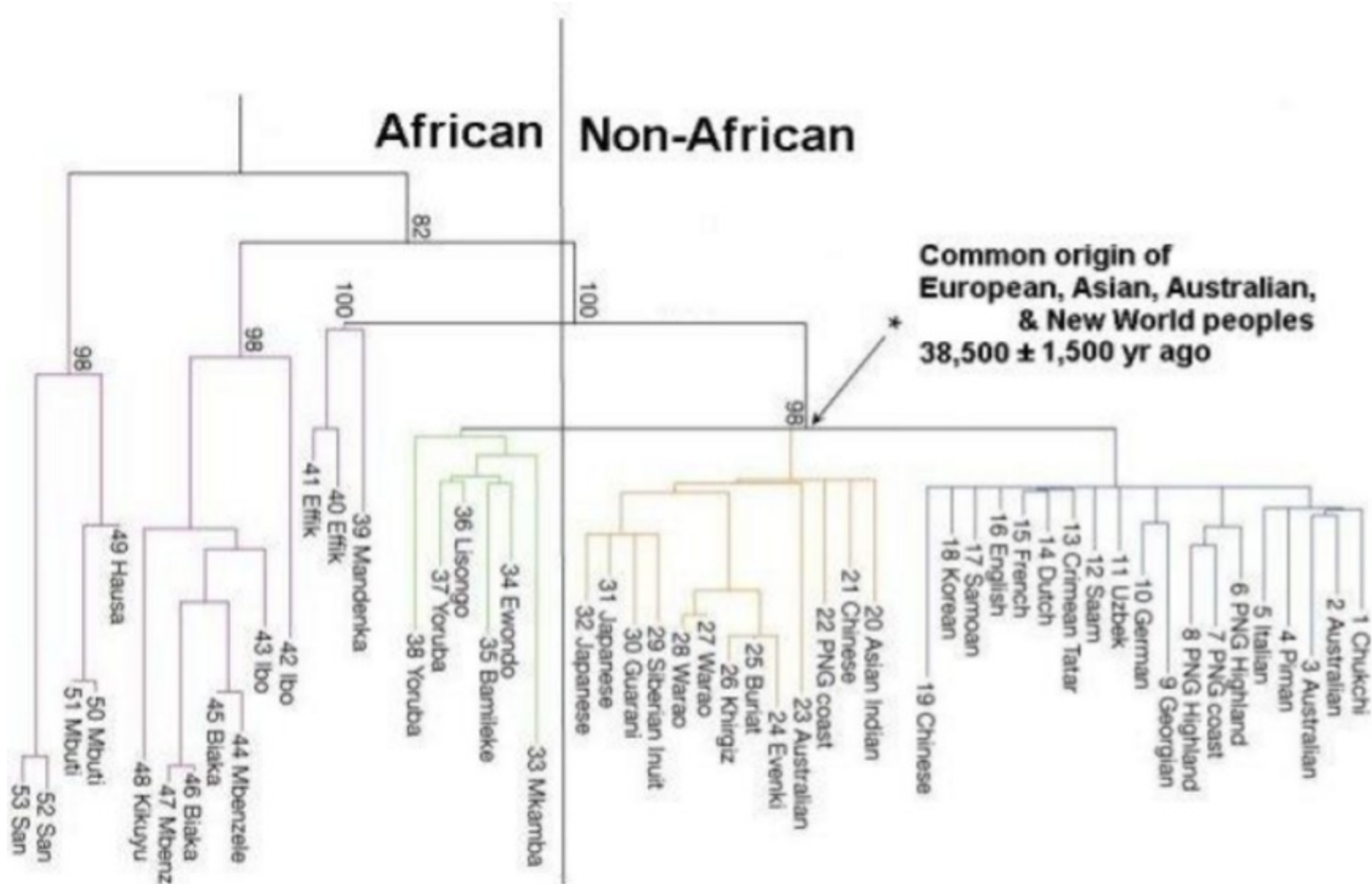
Evolutionary Trees: DNA-based Approach

- 40 years ago: Emile Zuckerkandl and Linus Pauling brought reconstructing evolutionary relationships with DNA into the spotlight
- In the first few years after Zuckerkandl and Pauling proposed using DNA for evolutionary studies, the possibility of reconstructing evolutionary trees by DNA analysis was hotly debated
- Now it is a dominant approach to study evolution.

"Out of Africa" Hypothesis

- Around the time the giant panda riddle was solved, a DNA-based reconstruction of the human evolutionary tree led to the Out of Africa Hypothesis that claims our most ancient ancestor lived in Africa roughly 200,000 years ago
- Largely based on mitochondrial DNA

Human Evolutionary Tree



"Out of Africa" vs Multiregional Hypothesis

Out of Africa:

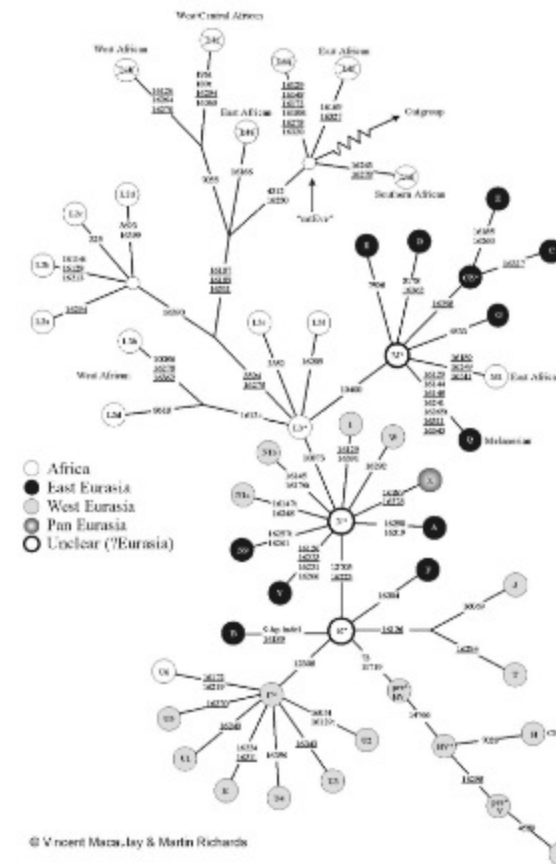
- Humans evolved in Africa ~150,000 years ago
- Humans migrated out of Africa, replacing other humanoids around the globe
- There is no direct descendance from Neanderthals

Multiregional:

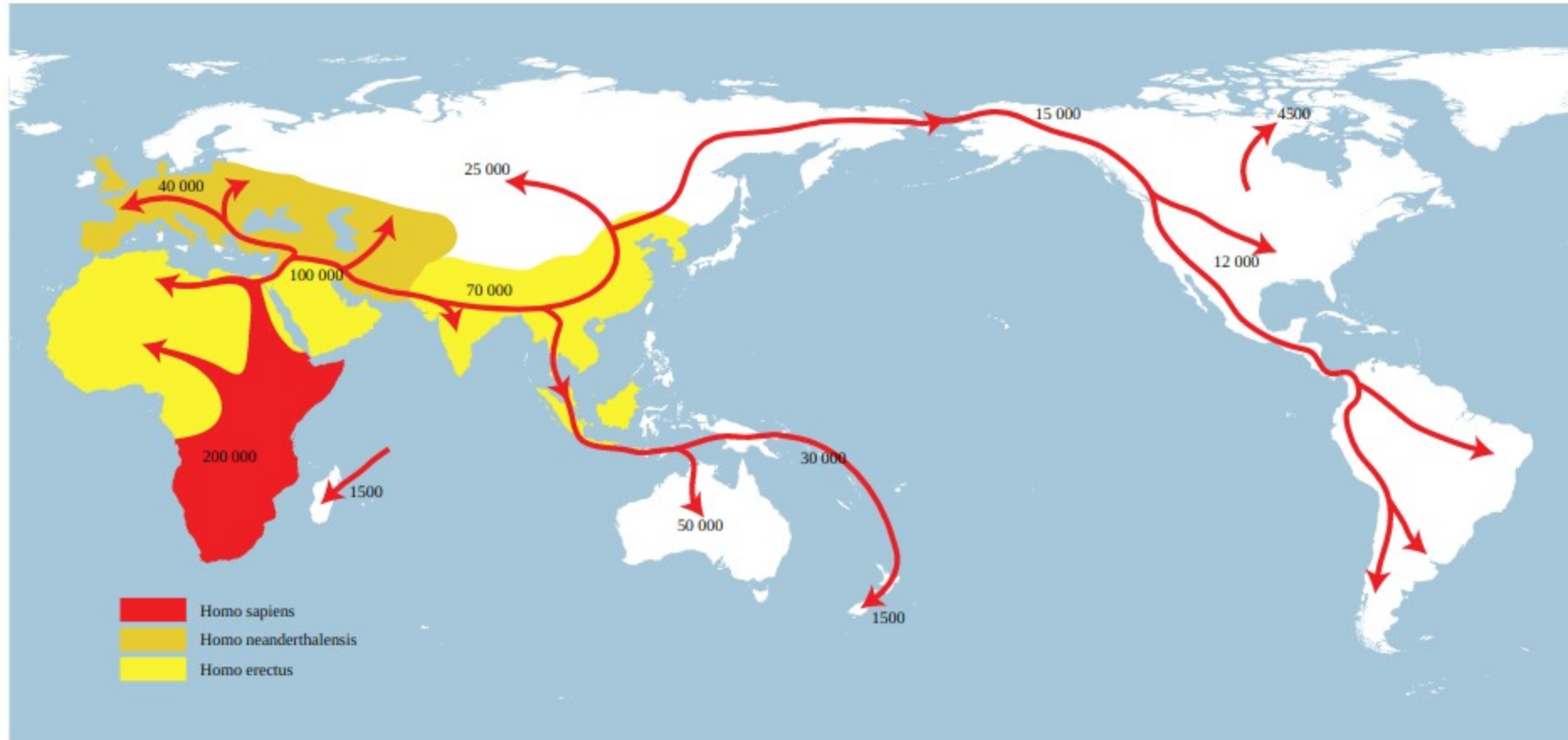
- Humans evolved in the last two million years as a single species. Independent appearance of modern traits in different areas
- Humans migrated out of Africa mixing with other humanoids on the way
- There is a genetic continuity from Neanderthals to humans

mtDNA Analysis

- Supports the "Out of Africa" Hypothesis
- African origin of humans inferred from:
 - African population was the most diverse (sub-populations had more time to diverge)
 - The evolutionary tree separated one group of Africans from a group containing all five populations.
 - Tree was rooted on branch between groups of greatest difference.



Humanoid Migrations Out of Africa

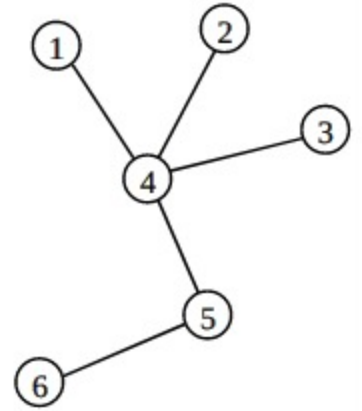


Evolutionary Trees

- How do you construct trees from DNA sequences?
 - leaves represent existing species
 - internal vertices represent ancestors
 - root represents the oldest evolutionary ancestor

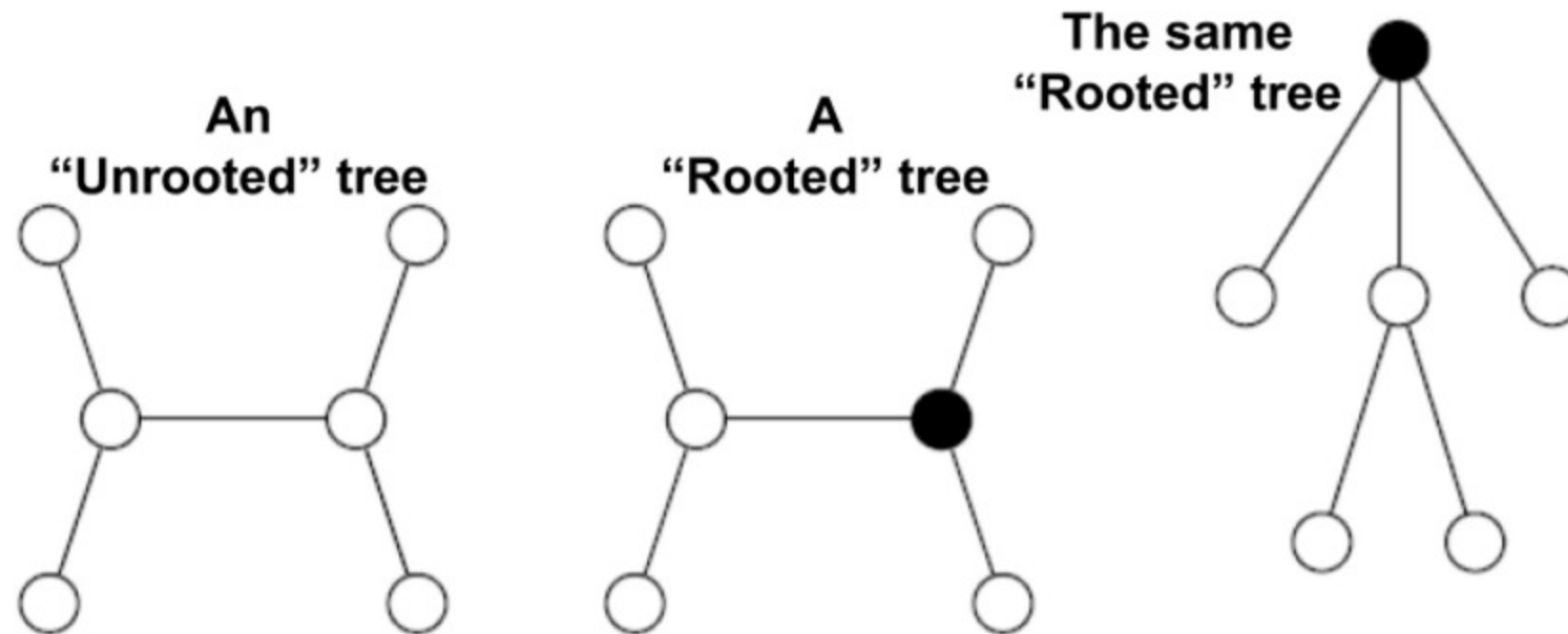
Trees

- Trees are a special case of a graph
- A connected tree with N -nodes has exactly $N-1$ edges
- There exists exactly one path from any node i to any other node j in a tree
- A tree contains no cycles
- The leafs of a tree have degree 1
- Interior nodes have degree > 1



Rooted and Unrooted Trees

In the unrooted tree the position of the root (“oldest ancestor”) is unknown. Otherwise, they are like rooted trees.

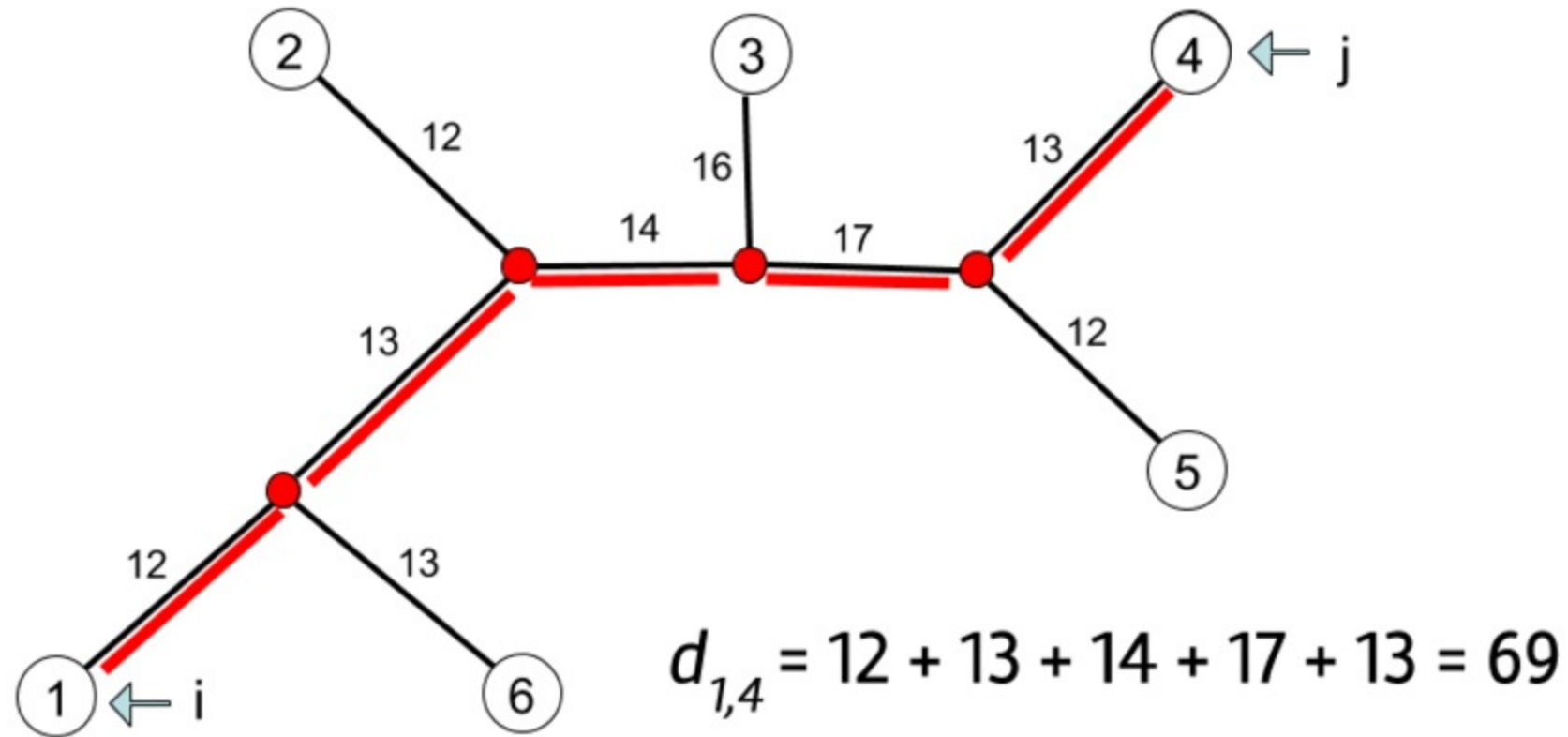


Distance in Trees

- Edges may have weights reflecting:
 - Number of mutations on evolutionary path from one species to another
 - Time estimate for evolution of one species into another
- In a tree T , we often compute

$d_{ij}(T)$ – tree distance between i and j

Example Tree Distance



Distance Matrix

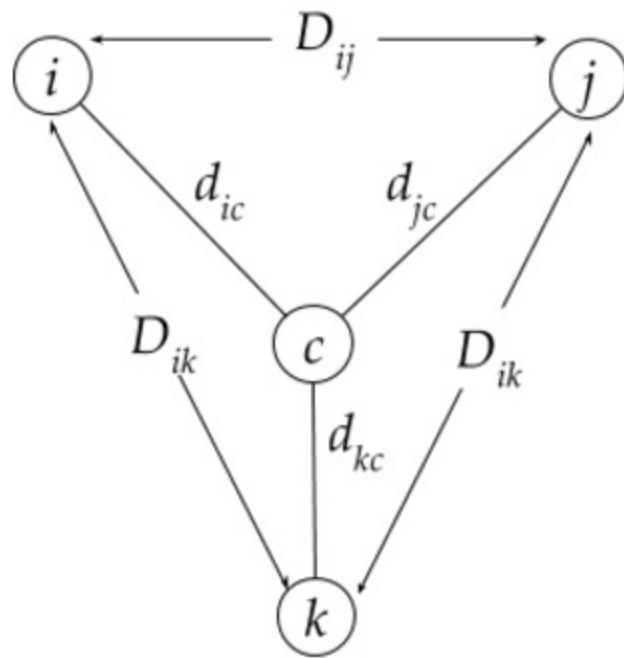
- Given n species, we can compute the $n \times n$ distance matrix \mathbf{D}
- D_{ij} represents the distance between species i and species j
- There are many *measures* of distance
 - D_{ij} might be the edit distance between a gene in species i and species j
 - D_{ij} might be the number to reversals to match the gene order
 - D_{ij} might be *Tree distance*
- General Distance Matrix properties
 - $D_{ii} = 0$
 - $D_{ij} = D_{ji}$
 - $D_{ij} \leq D_{ik} + D_{kj}$

Evolutionary Trees and Distance Matrices

- The problem with evolutionary tree reconstruction is that we *observe only the leaf nodes*
- The ancestors (interior nodes) are inaccessible to us
- *The problem:* Given only pairwise distances from leaf nodes of a tree, how do we infer distances to hidden ancestors.

A simple case

- Tree reconstruction of a common ancestor from 3 leaf nodes
- We have 3 leaves i, j, k and want a tree with a common *center* vertex c
- So first compute all pairwise distances, $d_{i,j}$, $d_{i,k}$, and $d_{j,k}$.
- Then use them to infer $d_{i,c}$, $d_{j,c}$, and $d_{k,c}$



Observe:

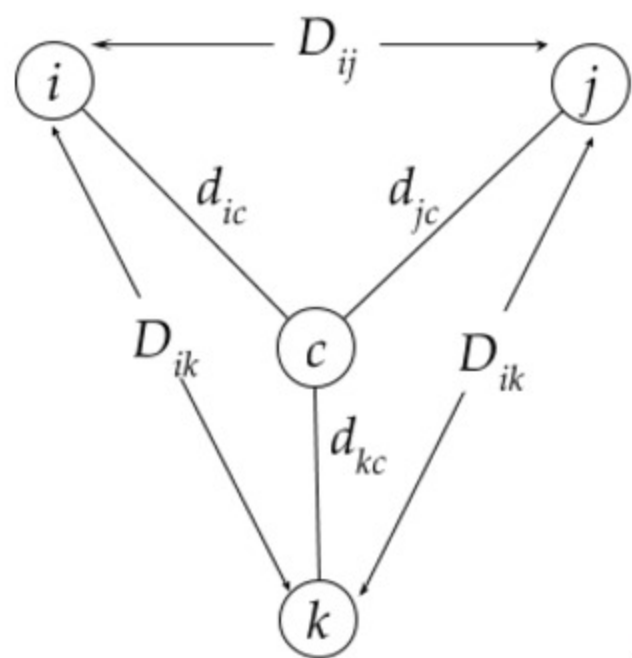
$$d_{ic} + d_{jc} = D_{ij}$$

$$d_{ic} + d_{kc} = D_{ik}$$

$$d_{jc} + d_{kc} = D_{jk}$$

3 linear equations with
3 unknowns (d_{ic}, d_{jc}, d_{kc}).

Solution for 3-leave tree



$$\begin{aligned}(d_{ic} + d_{jc} &= D_{ij}) \\ + (d_{ic} + d_{kc} &= D_{ik}) \\ 2d_{ic} + d_{jc} + d_{kc} &= D_{ij} + D_{ik}\end{aligned}$$

$$d_{jc} + d_{kc} = D_{jk}$$

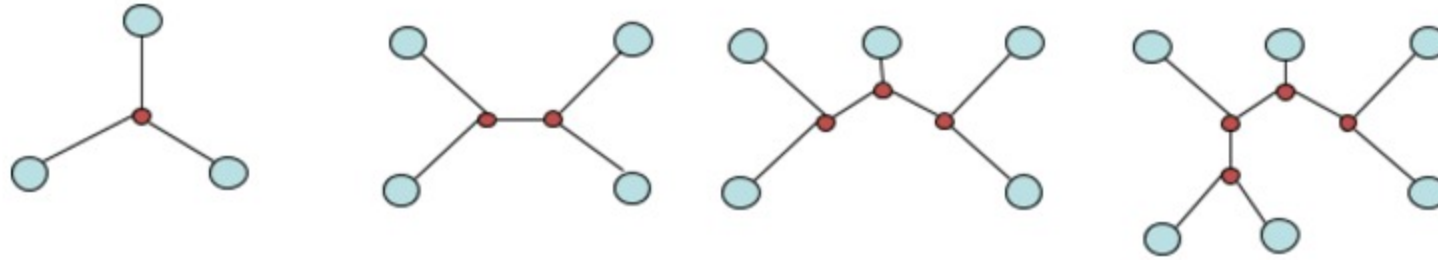
$$d_{ic} = \frac{D_{ij} + D_{ik} - D_{jk}}{2}$$

Similarly:

$$d_{jc} = \frac{D_{ij} + D_{jk} - D_{ik}}{2}, \quad d_{kc} = \frac{D_{ik} + D_{jk} - D_{ij}}{2},$$

Trees with more than 3 Leaves

- An unrooted tree with n leaves has $2n-3$ edges*

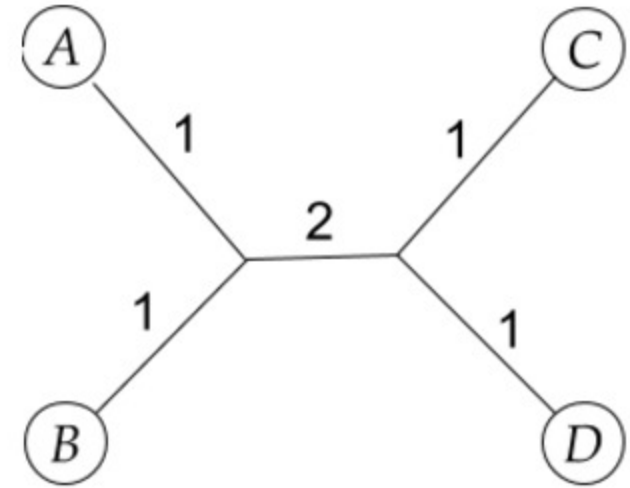


- This means fitting a given tree to a distance matrix \mathbf{D} requires solving a system of “ n choose 2” or $\frac{1}{2}x(x-1)$ equations with $2n-3$ variables
- This is not always possible to solve for $n > 3$ given arbitrary/noisy distances
 - * Assumes all internal nodes are of degree 3 (i.e. a node is arrived to along one edge and separates into 2 cases by mutation)

Additive Distance Matrices

- Given a tree, it is straightforward to compute its distance matrix, **D**
- Definition: Matrix **D** is *Additive* if there exists a tree **T** with $d_{ij}(T) = D_{ij}$ for all i, j

| δ | A | B | C | D |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| A | 0 | 2 | 4 | 4 |
| B | 2 | 0 | 4 | 4 |
| C | 4 | 4 | 0 | 2 |
| D | 4 | 2 | 2 | 0 |



Given only a distance matrix

- If given only a distance matrix, does there exist a tree?
- If not, Matrix D is *Non-Additive*
- But, what is the closest tree?

| δ | A | B | C | D |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| A | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| B | 2 | 0 | 3 | 2 |
| C | 2 | 3 | 0 | 2 |
| D | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 |



Distance Based Phylogeny Problem

- **Goal:** Reconstruct an evolutionary tree from a distance matrix
- **Input:** $n \times n$ distance matrix \mathbf{D}
- **Output:** A tree, T , with edge weights and n leaves fitting \mathbf{D}

If we know that \mathbf{D} is additive, this problem has a solution and there is a simple algorithm to solve it

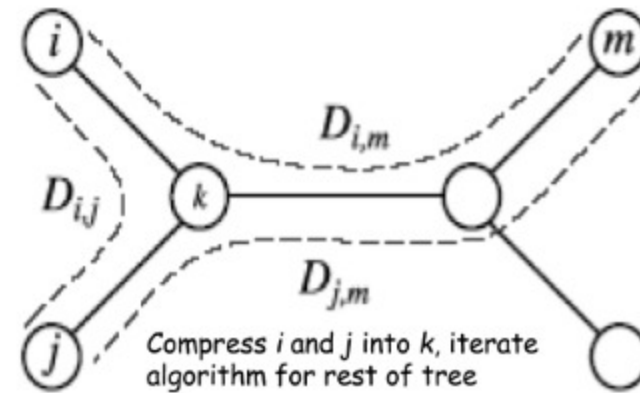
Key Idea: Merge neighbors

- Find neighboring leaves i and j with common parent k
- Remove the rows and columns of i and j
- Add a new row and column corresponding to k , where the distance from k to any other leaf m can be computed as:

$$d_{im} = \frac{D_{jm} + D_{km} - D_{jk}}{2}$$

$$d_{jm} = \frac{D_{im} + D_{km} - D_{ik}}{2}$$

$$d_{km} = \frac{D_{im} + D_{jm} - D_{ij}}{2}$$

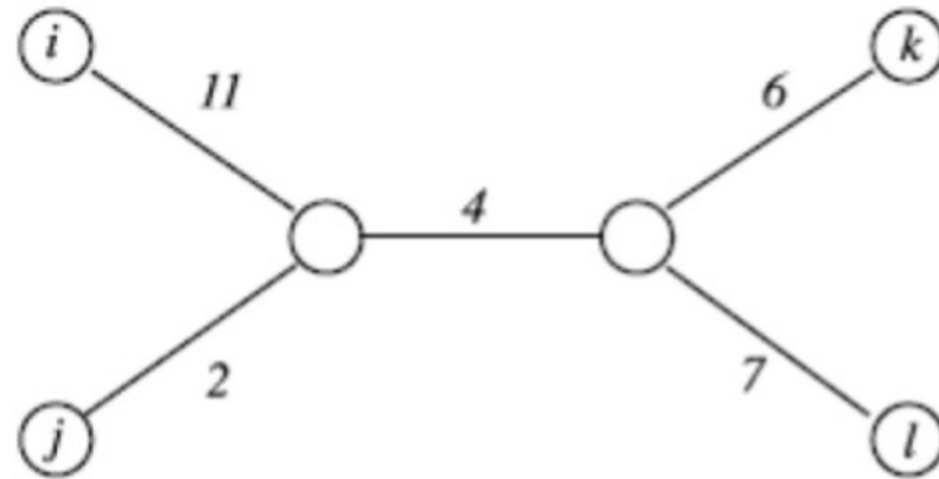


How to find Neighboring Leaves?

- Or solution assumes that we can easily find neighboring leaves given only distance values
- How might one approach this problem?
 - A *Greedy* approach?
 - A search over all possible pairs?
- It is not as easy as selecting a pair of closest leaves.

Greedy might be wrong

- Closest leaves aren't necessarily neighbors
- i and j are neighbors, but $(d_{ij} = 13) > (d_{jk} = 12)$



- Finding a pair of neighboring leaves is nontrivial! (we'll return to it later)

Neighbor Joining Algorithm

- In 1987 Naruya Saitou and Masatoshi Nei developed a neighbor joining algorithm for phylogenetic tree reconstruction
- Finds a pair of leaves that are close to each other but far from other leaves: implicitly finds a pair of neighboring leaves
- Advantages: works well for additive and other non-additive matrices, it does not have the flawed molecular clock assumption

Degenerate Triples

- A degenerate triple is a set of three distinct elements $1 \leq i, j, k \leq n$ where $d_{ij} + d_{jk} = d_{ik}$
- Called *degenerate* because it implies i , j , and k are collinear.
- Element j in a degenerate triple i, j, k lies on the evolutionary path from i to k (or is attached to this path by an edge of length 0).

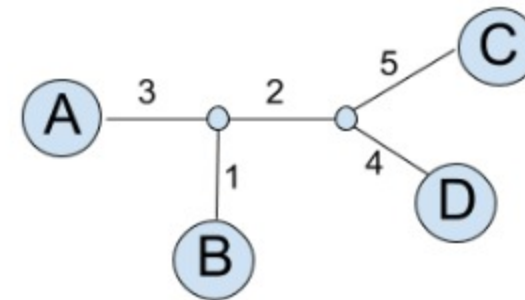
Looking for Degenerate Triples

- If distance matrix \mathbf{D} has a degenerate triple i, j, k then j can be "removed" from \mathbf{D} thus reducing the size of the problem.
- If distance matrix \mathbf{D} does not have a degenerate triple i, j, k , one can eventually "create" a degenerative triple in \mathbf{D} by shortening all hanging or leaf edges in the tree.

Shortening Hanging Edges

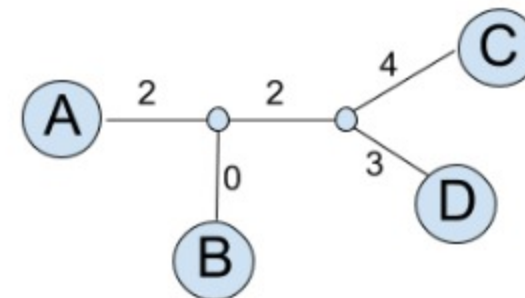
- **Approach:** Shorten all "hanging" edges (edges that connect leaves) until a degenerate triple is found

| δ | A | B | C | D |
|----------|----|---|----|---|
| A | 0 | 4 | 10 | 9 |
| B | 4 | 0 | 8 | 7 |
| C | 10 | 8 | 0 | 9 |
| D | 9 | 7 | 9 | 0 |



- Shorten all leaf edges by 1 (reduces distances by 2, Why?)
- $d_{AC} = d_{AB} + d_{BC}$ and $d_{AD} = d_{AB} + d_{BD}$ (i.e. degenerate triples)

| δ | A | B | C | D |
|----------|---|---|---|---|
| A | 0 | 2 | 8 | 7 |
| B | 2 | 0 | 6 | 5 |
| C | 8 | 6 | 0 | 7 |
| D | 7 | 5 | 7 | 0 |



Next Time

- We'll take these insights and derive an algorithm for constructing a tree from a distance matrix
- How do we determine if a given distance matrix is additive?
- If it is not additive, can we construct an *approximate* tree?