

Selectome, looking for Darwinian selection in the Tree of Life

Marc Robinson-Rechavi, Heinz Stockinger and Nicolas Salamin

Department of Ecology and Evolution, University of Lausanne

And

Swiss Institute of Bioinformatics

HP2C meeting, Lugano

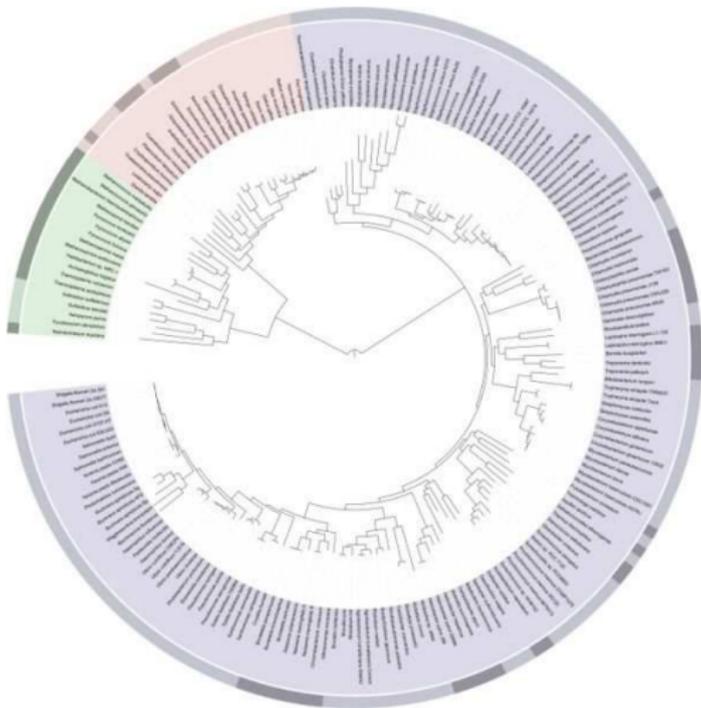
March 16-17, 2010



One area of biology is interested to understand how life on earth was shaped by evolution.

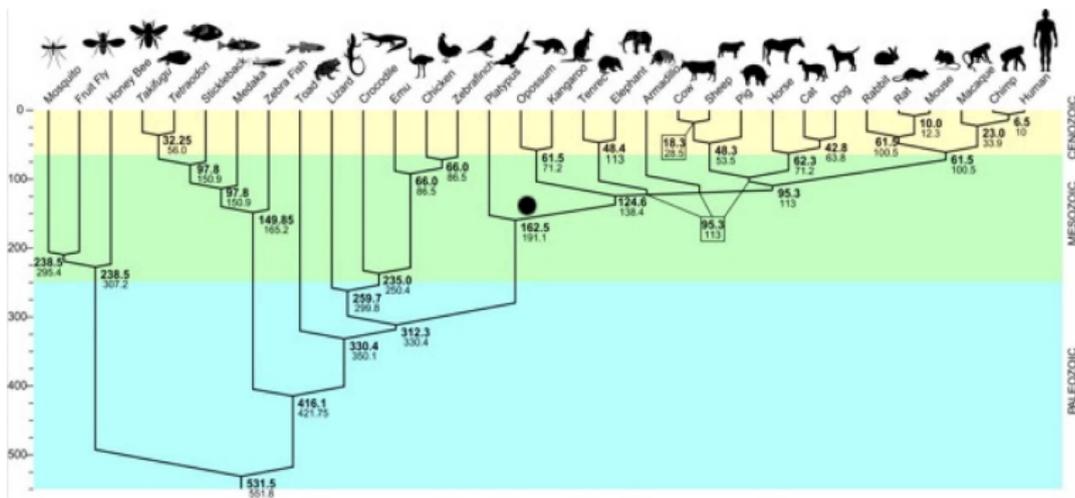
- ▶ Natural selection, described first by Darwin (1859), is the main evolutionary force acting on natural variation.
- ▶ Selective pressure from the environment drive evolution by allowing the fittest to leave more offsprings.

Tree of Life from Darwin to today



Evolutionary theory
predicts that species
share common ancestor

Phylogenetic tree



Environment creates selective pressure

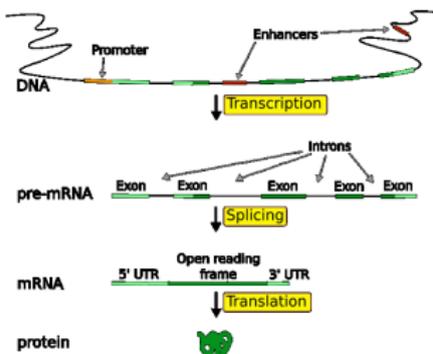
- ▶ creates random mutations in genome that can modify phenotype (biochemical function, gene expression, ...)

Effects of these mutations

- ▶ most have negative effect (i.e. deleterious); will be removed by purifying selection
- ▶ some have no effect; may be fixed under the neutral process of drift
- ▶ others are beneficial; will be kept by positive selection (also called Darwinian, adaptive, or directional selection)

Positive selection is the mechanism of adaptation to the environment. It important to find its trace in genomes.

Selective pressure on proteins



species 1	A	L	P	H	Y	Protein
	GCC	CTT	CCT	CAT	TAT	DNA
species 2	A	R	P	H	Y	Protein
	GCC	CGT	CCT	CAT	TAC	DNA

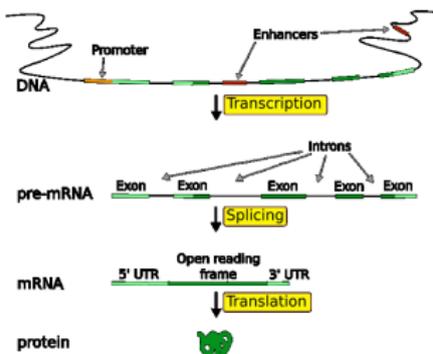
Mutation rate, genetic drift and time:

$$dS = \frac{\text{Number of synonymous changes}}{\text{Number of synonymous sites}}$$

Mutation rate, genetic drift, time and selection pressure:

$$dN = \frac{\text{Number of non-synonymous changes}}{\text{Number of non-synonymous sites}}$$

Selective pressure on proteins



species 1	A	L	P	H	Y	Protein
	GCC	CTT	CCT	CAT	TAT	DNA
species 2	A	R	P	H	Y	Protein
	GCC	CGT	CCT	CAT	TAC	DNA

Mutation rate, genetic drift and time:

$$dS = \frac{\text{Number of synonymous changes}}{\text{Number of synonymous sites}}$$

Mutation rate, genetic drift, time and selection pressure:

$$dN = \frac{\text{Number of non-synonymous changes}}{\text{Number of non-synonymous sites}}$$

The parameter $\omega = dN/dS$ gives the strength of Darwinian selection.

- ▶ if amino acid change is neutral \Rightarrow will be fixed at same rate as synonymous mutation, so $\omega = 1$
- ▶ if amino acid change is deleterious \Rightarrow purifying selection reduce its fixation rate so $\omega < 1$
- ▶ if amino acid change is selectively advantageous \Rightarrow will be fixed at higher rate than synonymous mutation, so $\omega > 1$

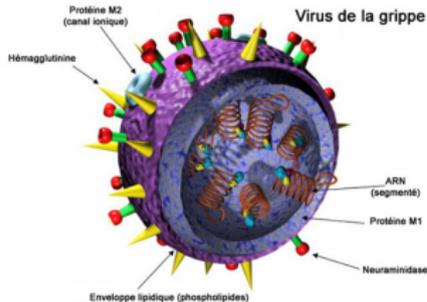
LETTERS

Natural selection on protein-coding genes in the human genome

Carlos D. Bustamante¹, Adi Fedel-Alon¹, Scott Williamson¹, Rasmus Nielsen^{1,2}, Melissa Todd Hubisz¹, Stephen Glanowski³, David M. Tanenbaum³, Thomas J. White⁴, John J. Sninsky⁴, Ryan D. Hernandez¹, Daniel Civello⁴, Mark D. Adams⁵, Michele Cargill^{4*} & Andrew G. Clark^{6*}

Comparisons of DNA polymorphism within species to divergence between species enables the discovery of molecular adaptation in evolutionarily constrained genes as well as the differentiation of weak from strong purifying selection^{1–4}. The extent to which weak negative and positive darwinian selection have driven the molecular evolution of different species varies greatly^{5–8}, with some species, such as *Drosophila melanogaster*, showing strong evidence of pervasive positive selection⁹, and others, such as the selfing weed *Arabidopsis thaliana*, showing an excess of deleterious variation within local populations^{9,10}. Here we contrast patterns of coding sequence polymorphism identified by direct sequencing

some form of coding nucleotide variability either within human subjects or between humans and a chimpanzee. A total of 34,099 fixed synonymous differences between all humans in our sample and the chimpanzee yield a genomic average synonymous divergence of $\bar{d}_S = 1.02\%$. Correspondingly, we found 20,467 non-synonymous differences ($\bar{d}_N = 0.242\%$) across 11.81 megabases (Mb) of aligned coding DNA. We also discovered 15,750 synonymous and 14,311 non-synonymous SNPs among the human subjects, yielding average synonymous and non-synonymous SNP densities of $\bar{p}_S = 0.470\%$ and $\bar{p}_N = 0.169\%$. We note that the ratio of non-synonymous to synonymous differences (23.76%) is smaller than the ratio of non-



Known genes involved in arm-race

- ▶ virus and bacteria: HIV proteins (env, gag, pol) or H1N1 influenza
- ▶ MHC to recognize any kind of external peptides in our body
- ▶ genes involved in sexual reproduction (sperm lysin in abalone, protamine P1 in primates)
- ▶ genes of perception and digestion (e.g. olfactory receptor, lysosyme)

We need a systematic assessment of genes and lineages affected by Darwinian selection.

A

[Home](#) | [About](#) | [FAQ](#) | [Contact](#)
[Selectome](#) | [Methods](#) | [Downloads](#) | [How to cite?](#) | [Cookies](#)

Tips

Pass the mouse above nodes to see information on taxonomy and positive selection.

Click on gene names for description and external links.

Selectome: a Database of Positive Selection

Unil | Université de Lausanne
selectome [AT] unil.ch

selectome © 2008

selectome [AT] unil.ch

Search

Basic search:

Advanced search

About

[Quick guide](#)
[Methods](#)
[Downloads](#)
[How to cite?](#)
[Cookies](#)

Tips

Pass the mouse above nodes to see information on taxonomy and positive selection.

Click on gene names for description and external links.

TF105397

Accession	TF105397
Symbol	TFPSP31P1
Family Name	tumor necrosis factor superfamily, member 5-induced protein 1

View Automatic Clean Subtree(s)

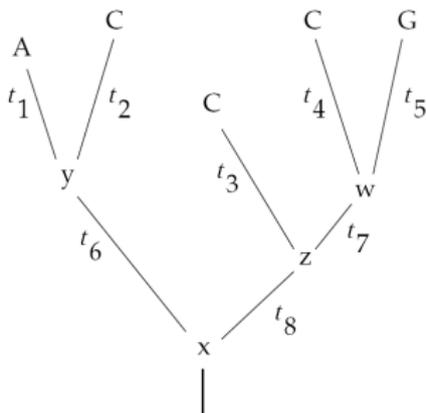
Subtree 1 View alignment TF105397-1

Download: [Protein alignment \(fasta\)](#) | [Nucleotide alignment \(fasta\)](#) | [Tree \(nexus\)](#) | [Tree \(nifsi\)](#)

B

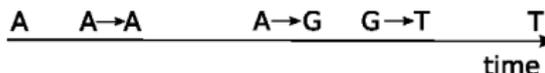
http://bonde.unil.ch:80/selectome/wwwtmp/TF105397_1_aa.fasta

Sequence 1 (2): NP_044617_HUMAN Residue: PHE (177)



How to infer evolutionary changes along each branch of a tree

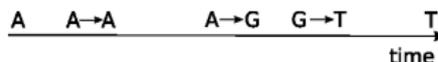
- ▶ Markov model for transitions between states
- ▶ Maximum likelihood estimation of parameters
- ▶ Dynamic programming algorithm



Substitution events occur according to a continuous time Markov chain. The number of these events along a branch has a Poisson distribution:

$$\text{Prob}[k \text{ events}] = \frac{(\mu t)^k e^{-\mu t}}{k!}$$

- ▶ μ is the rate of mutations
- ▶ expected number of events in time t is μt



The Markov chain is characterized by its generator matrix $Q = \{q_{ij}\}$, where q_{ij} is the **instantaneous** rate of change from nucleotides i to j when $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, that is

$$Pr\{X(t + \Delta t) = j | X(t) = i\} = q_{ij} \Delta t$$

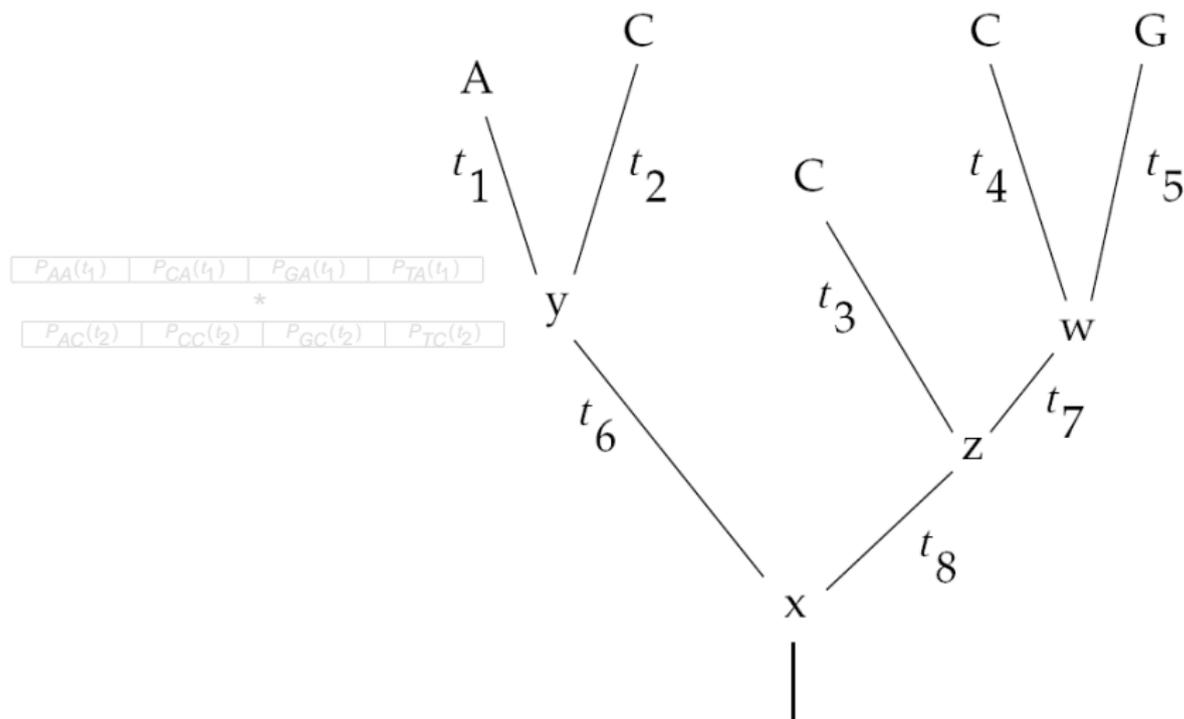
The Q matrix fully determines the dynamics of the Markov chain.

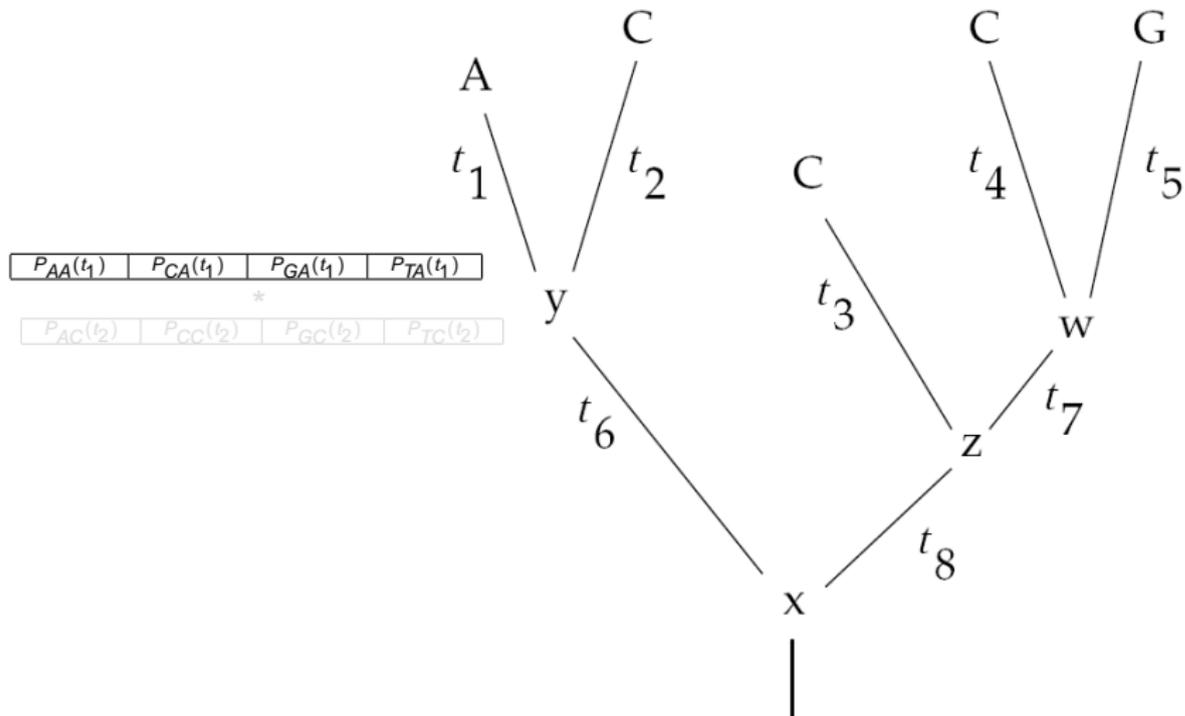
It specifies, in particular, the transition-probability matrix over any time $t > 0$, $P(t) = \{p_{ij}(t)\}$ where

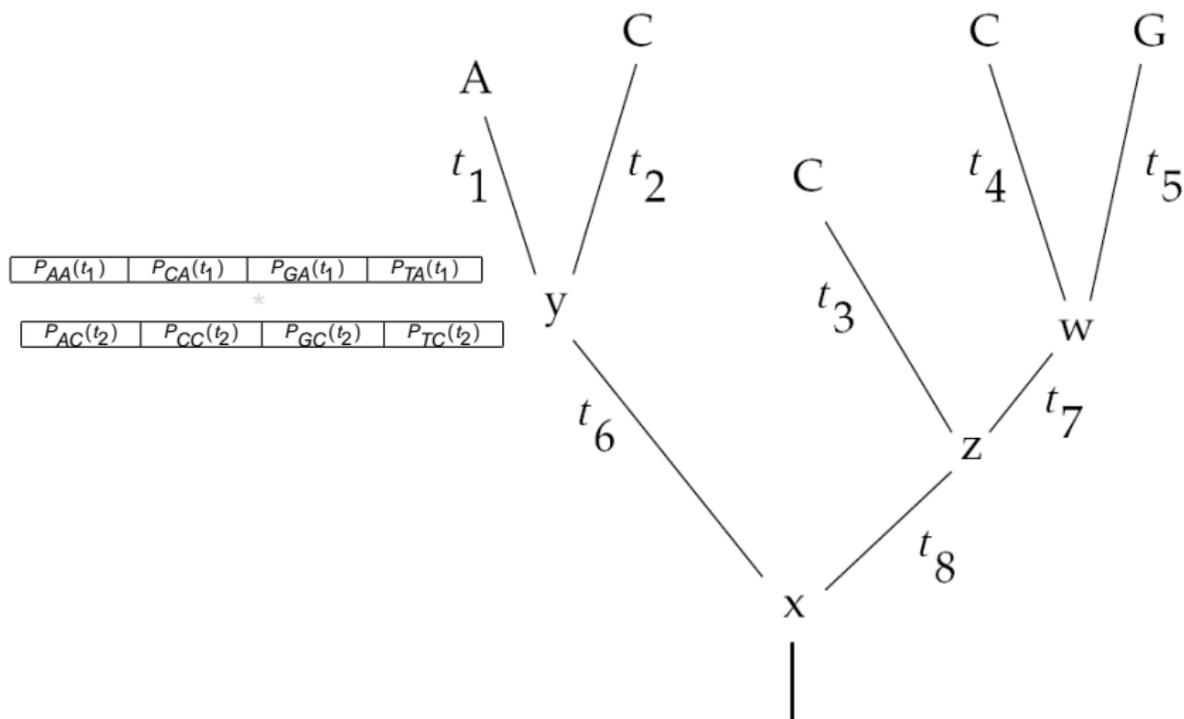
$$p_{ij}(t + s) = Pr\{X(t + s) = j | X(t) = i\} = \sum_k^k p_{ik}(t) p_{kj}(s)$$

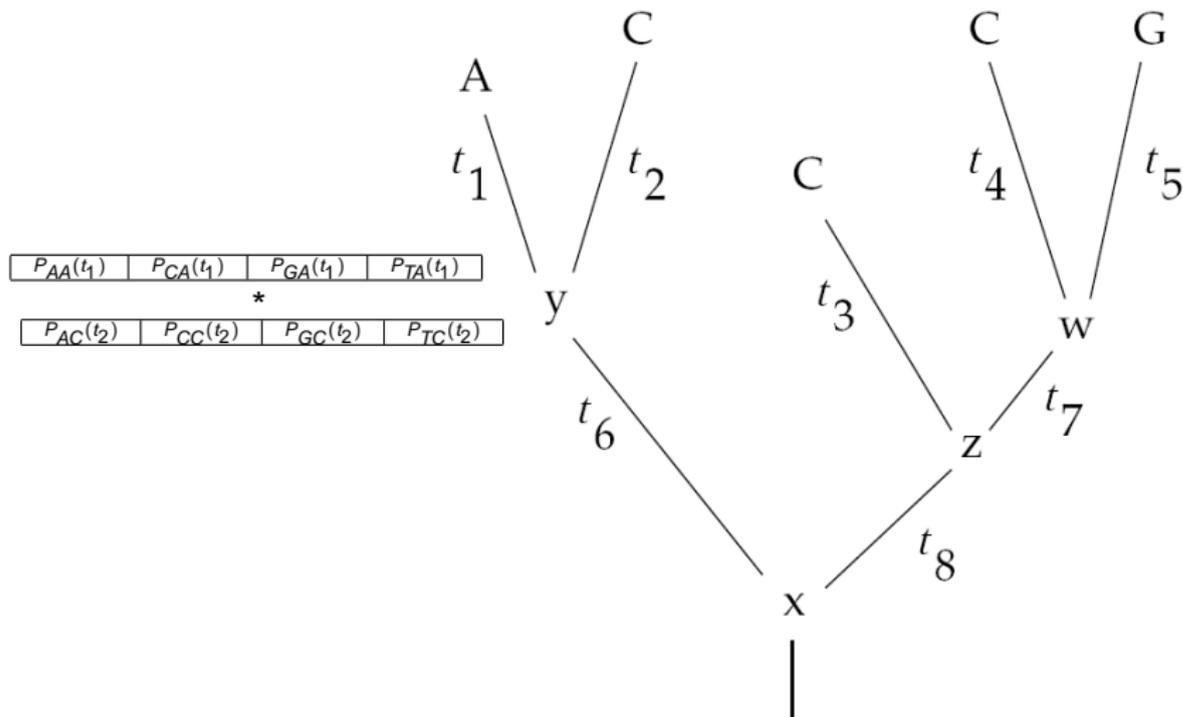
with the relationship

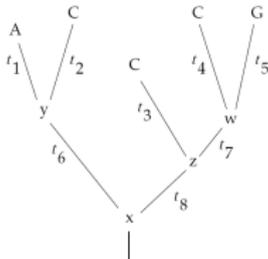
$$P(t) = e^{Qt}$$











For the full tree, we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Prob}(A, C, C, C, G, x, y, z, w | T, Q) &= \sum_x^{ACGT} \sum_y^{ACGT} \sum_z^{ACGT} \sum_w^{ACGT} \\
 &\text{Prob}(x) P_{xy}(t_6) P_{yA}(t_1) P_{yC}(t_2) \\
 &P_{xz}(t_8) P_{zC}(t_3) \\
 &P_{zw}(t_7) P_{wC}(t_4) P_{wG}(t_5)
 \end{aligned}$$

Dynamic programming can speed up this calculation by some margin.

Codon data: from 4 to 61 states

		Second letter				
		U	C	A	G	
U	UUU } Phe	UCU } Ser	UAU } Tyr	UGU } Cys	U	
	UUC } Leu	UCC } Ser	UAC } Tyr	UGC } Cys	C	
	UUA } Leu	UCA } Ser	UAA Stop	UGA Stop	A	
	UUG } Leu	UCG } Ser	UAG Stop	UGG Trp	G	
C	CUU } Leu	CCU } Pro	CAU } His	CGU } Arg	U	
	CUC } Leu	CCC } Pro	CAC } His	CGC } Arg	C	
	CUA } Leu	CCA } Pro	CAA } Gln	CGA } Arg	A	
	CUG } Leu	CCG } Pro	CAG } Gln	CGG } Arg	G	
A	AUU } Ile	ACU } Thr	AAU } Asn	AGU } Ser	U	
	AUC } Ile	ACC } Thr	AAC } Asn	AGC } Ser	C	
	AUA } Met	ACA } Thr	AAA } Lys	AGA } Arg	A	
	AUG Met	ACG } Thr	AAG } Lys	AGG } Arg	G	
G	GUU } Val	GCU } Ala	GAU } Asp	GGU } Gly	U	
	GUC } Val	GCC } Ala	GAC } Asp	GGC } Gly	C	
	GUA } Val	GCA } Ala	GAA } Glu	GGA } Gly	A	
	GUG } Val	GCG } Ala	GAG } Glu	GGG } Gly	G	

$$q_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i \text{ and } j \text{ differ at more than one position} \\ \pi_j, & \text{for synonymous transversion} \\ \kappa\pi_j, & \text{for synonymous transition} \\ \omega\pi_j, & \text{for non-synonymous transversion} \\ \omega\kappa\pi_j, & \text{for non-synonymous transition} \end{cases}$$

where

- ▶ κ is the transition/transversion ratio
- ▶ π_j is the frequency of codon j
- ▶ ω measures selective pressure on amino acid

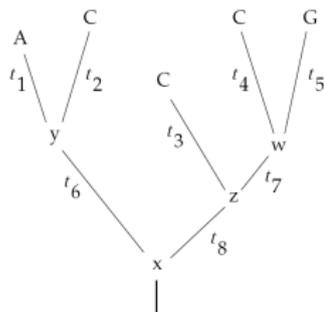
Q is 61 by 61 sparse matrix with null values known *a priori*.

Problem: Q has to be exponentiated every time one of the $n - 1$ branch length changes (n is nb of species).

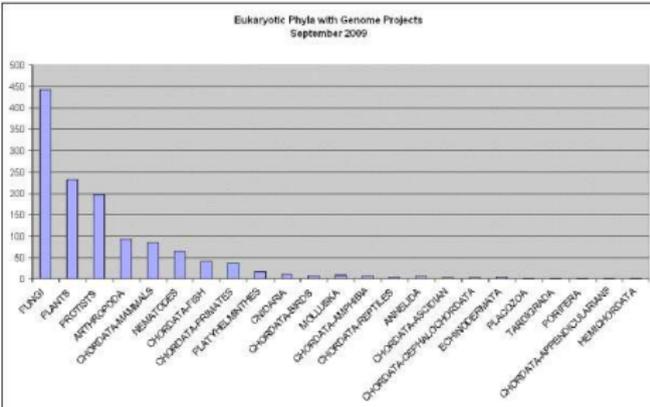
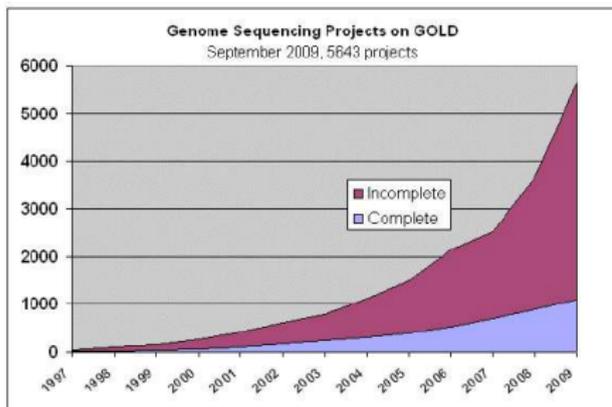
More complex model

- ▶ foreground where positive selection occurs
- ▶ background where neutral or purifying selection occurs

Class	Proportion	Background ω	Foreground ω
0	p_0	$0 < \omega_0 < 1$	$0 < \omega_0 < 1$
1	p_1	$\omega_1 = 1$	$\omega_1 = 1$
2a	$\frac{(1-p_0-p_1)p_0}{(p_0+p_1)}$	$0 < \omega_0 < 1$	$\omega_2 > 1$
2b	$\frac{(1-p_0-p_1)p_1}{(p_0+p_1)}$	$\omega_1 = 1$	$\omega_2 > 1$

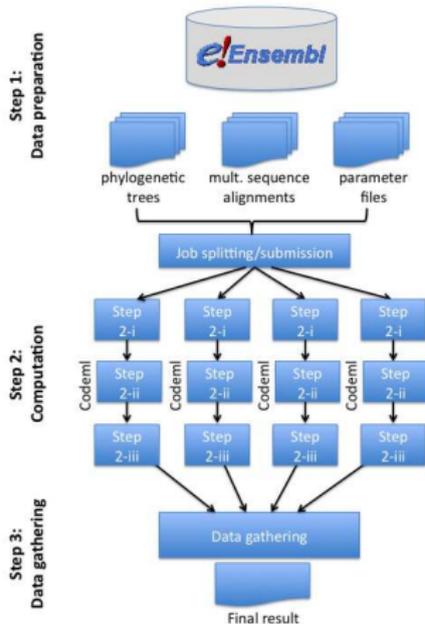


Compare this with a null model where ω_2 is fixed with Likelihood ratio test.



The size of the datasets to analyze will increase dramatically and exponentially.

Computational workflow

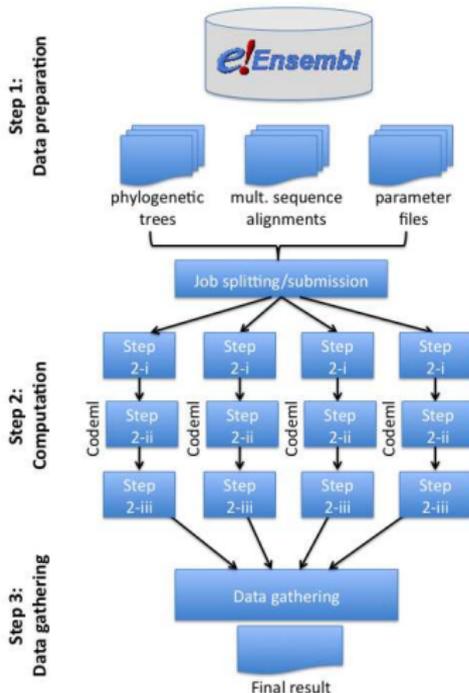


- ▶ for each gene (ca. 20,000 genes)
- ▶ for null and alternative models
 - ▶ for each site of a sequence (ca. 1000 on average)
 - ▶ calculate the likelihood at each node
 - ▶ $n - 1$ nodes for n species (ca. 30 species)
- ▶ repeat every 2-3 months when Ensembl is updated.

Impossible to compute Darwinian selection for all genes of interest with current implementation before the information is outdated.

We have a CPU bound problem in the estimation of the prevalence of selection in biology.

Streamlining calculations



- ▶ step 2 use completely independent data sets and is embarrassingly parallel computations
- ▶ further parallelization
 - ▶ steps 2-i and 2-ii have the potential to reuse the likelihood calculations done for one edge.
 - ▶ step 2-iii involves empirical Bayesian estimation of sites under selection, which can be optimized by setting appropriate prior distributions and reusing likelihood calculations efficiently from steps 2-i and 2-ii.

Costs: higher memory usage, and non independence between computations.

Actual code is made to analyse n species for one gene under a single model at a time. It was never made for genome wide studies

Using Newton-Raphson type of algorithms, it estimates

- ▶ codon model parameters (κ , different ω and p_j)
- ▶ branch lengths

It takes on average 20 minutes per job for ca. 30 species.
We want to analyse ca. 20,000 genes for data that is increasing exponentially.

Take also advantage of the optimization experience of the RAxML project

- ▶ SSE3-based optimization of the likelihood kernel
- ▶ exploitation of fine-grain loop-level parallelism using Pthreads and MPI (scales up to 8 or 16 cores on DNA models $O(4^2)$ vs $O(61^2)$)
- ▶ once model parameters are optimized, coarse-grained model of parallelism by
 - ▶ storing probability vectors
 - ▶ gather operation on the codon data distributed in a cyclic way to the threads during fine-grained phase
- ▶ NUMA-specific data locality issues (e.g. impact of first touch policies) specifically for required memory of per-branch probability vector pairs assignment and accession

Marc Robinson-Rechavi (DEE-UNIL, SIB)

Sébastien Moretti

Walid Gharib

Nicolas Salamin (DEE-UNIL, SIB)

Maryam Zaheri

Heinz Stockinger (SIB)

Thierry Schuepbach (SIB)

Hannes Schabauer (HP2C)

Ziheng Yang (UCL)

Alexis Stamatakis (U. Tech. Munich)