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2	Phylogenetic interpretation during outbreaks
3	requires caution
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15	How viruses are related, and how they have evolved and spread over time, can be
16	investigated using phylogenetics. Here, we set out how genomic analyses should be used
17	during an epidemic and propose that phylogenetic insights from the early stages of an
18	outbreak should heed all the available epidemiological information.
19	A goal of genomic epidemiology is to infer epidemiological and emergence dynamics
20	from virus genome sequences obtained over short epidemic timescales ¹ . Rapid in situ
21	sequence generation and phylogenetic inference is based on detection of genetic changes in
22	pathogen sequences. But during outbreaks there are many unknowns. The outbreak of
23	coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19), which originated in Wuhan, China, was reported in
24	December 2019 ² . By January 2020, the genome of the causative novel coronavirus, named
25	SARS-CoV-2, had been sequenced and made publicly available ² . Virus sequences have

underpinned development of diagnostics and vaccines and been used to assess patterns of
 transmission and spread. Although sequence data was used to answer crucial epidemiological
 questions during the Ebola and Zika outbreaks ^{3,4}, the pace of generation of SARS CoV-2
 genome data generation is unprecedented and is informing public health policy in real-time.

Importantly, it's not only sequences that inform phylogenies, and multiple factors 30 contribute to the outputs including model assumptions, sampling density, timing of sample 31 collection, portion of the viral genome sequenced, quality of sequencing data and the 32 mutation rate of the virus itself. Although it is important to extract as much information as 33 34 possible from sequence data as outbreaks unfold, it is imperative to bear in mind that the 35 historical relationships of strains (phylogenies) are hypotheses that can be challenged as more data becomes available. Here, we highlight some of the challenges of genomic epidemiology 36 during outbreaks such as SARS-CoV-2 and advise that interpretation of findings from 37 phylogenies needs to assess all epidemiological and supporting information and consider 38 39 sources of bias.

40 During outbreaks we want to know if cases are linked and if this implies transmission. Most viruses can be separated into strains and if two infections are caused by dissimilar 41 42 strains one can rule out transmission. The oft-forgotten point is that phylogenies can rule out 43 transmission, but if infections are caused by the same strains or identical viruses it does not 44 decisively prove transmission. During an emerging outbreak, when pathogens have not yet diverged into different strains, phylogenetic information is too weak to hypothesize 45 46 transmission linkage—which in turn can be used for geographic inference; even if the 47 phylogenetic information is stronger, the same phylogeny is consistent with multiple transmission histories and there may missing links due to incomplete sampling ⁵. 48 Consequently, we need to combine phylogenetic findings with epidemiological and 49 50 supporting information such as environmental factors and human air travel data before we draw any immediate conclusions regarding transmission. This was the case with Zika virus in 51 52 Africa where epidemiological, human mobility and climatic data supported the phylogenetic hypothesis that the outbreak was likely imported from Brazil⁶. 53

In the first stage of an outbreak, we can use phylogenetics to discern possible zoonotic sources, as in the case of the 2018 Lassa fever virus outbreak, where phylogenetic patterns indicated independent spillover events from rodent hosts ⁷. The crucial observation was that the correct identification of the source of zoonotic transmission relies on the availability of

viral genome sequences from potential animal reservoirs. If the source of any virus has not 58 59 been sampled, it cannot be inferred, because phylogenetic linkage alone does not prove it. This is the reason for uncertainty surrounding the zoonotic source of SARS-CoV-2, because 60 we have limited knowledge about the viral abundance from potential animal reservoirs⁸. The 61 generation of additional viral genome sequences from an outbreak, coupled with virus-62 specific and epidemiological knowledge, provides insight into whether or not multiple 63 64 'jumps' occurred from a reservoir that might warrant appropriate control measures. Identical or nearly-identical virus genomes are expected from early transmission chains if a single 65 spillover occurred recently, unless multiple zoonoses originated from the same low-genetic 66 diversity virus pool. In contrast, higher diversity in the early-stage of human-to-human 67 transmission is expected if multiple zoonoses have occurred or if there is significant within-68 host evolution ⁹. 69

Geographical inferences (where and when) are feasible as more representative viral 70 genome data-in temporal and spatial scales-becomes available. We can hypothesize the 71 72 location of common ancestors using ancestral reconstruction methods and infer phylogenies 73 scaled to time, in order to date epidemiological events. Such analyses require a molecular 74 clock, which models how the rate with which mutations accumulate with time, and how this varies across the branches of a phylogeny. However, early in an outbreak there may not be 75 sufficient signal to accurately estimate clock rate. If this is the case, then it might be 76 appropriate to apply an estimate from another closely related virus ¹⁰. If temporal signal is 77 present and a clock rate can be estimated, results need to be reported as credible intervals 78 79 (instead of point estimates) to account for uncertainty in both the data (incomplete, biased, or improper sampling can lead to misleading phylogenies) and the many aspects of the methods. 80

When investigating the dissemination of an emerging virus the number of sequenced 81 viral genomes may not be representative. Even as the outbreak unfolds, and more genomes 82 83 are obtained, they only represent a snapshot of the underlying genetic diversity. If 84 phylogenies are considered alone we cannot conclusively assert the geographical origins of the virus—or the extent of community transmission—as we cannot distinguish between local 85 transmission events and multiple introductions of genetically similar viruses, from 86 87 geographically distinct sources, if one of them has not been sampled. In this way uneven sampling can also lead to misleading conclusions on the geographical source, number of 88 introductions and the size and duration of local transmission chains ¹¹. The significance of 89 these associations is harder to ascertain when the phylogeny is reported without any 90

assessment on the reliability of internal branches. Therefore, phylogenetic interpretation from
ongoing outbreaks as is the case of SARS-CoV-2 needs to be done in the context of all
available information such as temporal and spatial distribution of cases, travel patterns and
any evidence of epidemiological linkage, sampling uncertainty and other sources of bias need
to be carefully considered and reported.

The methods for valid phylogenetic inference require multiple assumptions which are 96 likely not met during emerging outbreaks. Examples (not exhaustive) include adequate 97 98 phylogenetic signal, which is low when strains have not yet diverged; geographical 99 representation and effective sampling time points with sufficient molecular clock signal, 100 which only become feasible as the epidemic unfolds; and random mixing, which may be 101 violated under certain circumstances, for instance when mitigation strategies are set in place. Estimates from phylogenies may be sensitive to one or more of these assumptions and 102 conclusions need to be made and shared with caution. Another essential consideration during 103 104 an epidemic is accurate rooting of the phylogeny as it determines the direction of transmission over time ¹². 105

106 There are also genome features that are intrinsic to the biology of the virus that may 107 impact the extent and applicability of phylogenetics during outbreaks. For instance, the 108 presence of recombination/reassortment and low diversity (due to the rate of evolution, 109 selective constraints and transmission bottlenecks) complicate the resolution of phylogenetic relationships, but the incorporation of within-host viral diversity may provide greater 110 resolution in understanding transmission dynamics ¹³. Moreover, some of mutations in the 111 viral genome sequence can be due to the error rate of the sequencing technology, recurrent 112 sequencing issues, hypermutability or contamination which warrant caution with 113 114 interpretations and especially with those concerning selection and recombination.

Genomic epidemiology has supported public health outbreak responses. Indeed, the ability to exploit viral genome sequences has allowed us to characterise early patterns of SARS-CoV-2 transmission in China, New Zealand and Australia^{14,15}. In the midst of an outbreak sharing data is both necessary and important for an effective response, but sharing the associated metadata is also necessary to aid interpretations (e.g. how representative is the data of the country-wide situation) and to avoid creating sampling bias by researchers that are not doing the sequencing themselves. 122 The emergence of SARS-CoV-2 has presented a series of challenges about how we 123 reliably extract information from phylogenies to gain insights into virus transmission and 124 spread, and how we responsibly present our findings. Owing to low genetic diversity and 125 uneven sampling, several controversial hypotheses have already been put forward. One 126 cautionary tale involves how an outbreak in Bavaria seeded the epidemic in northern Italy 127 and the subsequent wider outbreak in Europe. This notion was based on a small sample of 128 very similar sequences. However, it overlooked a more likely scenario in which this virus 129 was already circulating in China and that European regions had multiple introductions from 130 China. At this early stage conclusions about the impacts of mutations on transmission and disease (e.g. D614G mutation in the spike protein ¹⁶) should not be made on the basis of 131 phylogenies alone but with separate evidence supporting not only a phenotypic difference but 132 1.3.3 the resulting consequences for epidemiology.

The SARS-CoV-2 pandemic has highlighted the importance of providing a comprehensive rationale for any conclusions about the spatio-temporal dispersal of the virus. Phylogenies represent hypotheses that encompass different sources of error and this uncertainty needs to be visualised and communicated far more transparently. Another challenge is how we facilitate the dissemination of metadata and integrate this with phylogenetic trees. Incorporating host characteristics (e.g. age, onset date, exposure history) to aid phylogenetic interpretation would undoubtedly results in more reliable inferences.

Now, more than ever, careful reporting of phylogenetic interpretations, while
safeguarding the privacy of infected individuals, would ensure that both policymakers and the
public have the best possible information during an outbreak. Failure to balance these issues
could jeopardise both scientific integrity and public confidence in the field of genomic
epidemiology.

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167 Contributions

- 168 D.C.T. conceived the commentary and wrote the first draft. C.J-V.A, D.C.T conceptualized
- the ideas with W.P.H. All authors edited the manuscript into its final form.

170 Competing Interests

171 The authors declare no competing interests.