

# MACROEVOLUTION WITH FOSSIL AND LIVING TAXA

*by*

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## DECLARATION

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## SUMMARY

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Even if most of our current knowledge and tool-kits to study biodiversity focus on living species, the vast majority of the species that ever lived are long extinct. Therefore, to properly understand the drivers of biodiversity through time, it is crucial to combine data and methods from both living and fossil species in order to better assess macroevolutionary and macroecological patterns. My PhD focuses on ways to combine both living and fossil species into phylogenies and looks at how these phylogenies can be used for describing macroevolutionary patterns. I studied the use of both living and fossil species along two axes: firstly, the ability of modern phylogenetic methods to deal with molecular data for living species and morphological data for both living and fossil species; and secondly, the practicality of using such phylogenetic trees for more accurately describing patterns of diversification through time and space.

For the first part of this project, I ran extensive and thorough simulation analyses to test the effect of missing data on phylogenies topologies when using a combination of living and fossil data. I tested how multiple levels of missing data among living species, fossil species and the two combined affected our ability to recover the correct tree topology. I found that the amount of missing data among living species is the most crucial aspect for efficiently combining living and fossil species in the same phylogeny. Following these conclusions, I ran a thorough survey of the data available for living mammal species. I measured the amount of morphological data available within each mammalian order and tested whether this data was randomly distributed along the phylogeny or biased towards certain clades. The result of this analysis shows that although morphological data is scarce for living mammals, it is at least generally randomly distributed across the phylogeny.

For the second part of my PhD, I explored a way of using phylogenetic trees containing both living and fossil species to measure patterns of diversification among mammals through time. I measured changes in species richness as well as in morphological diversity (i.e. disparity) to describe mammalian diversification across the K-Pg boundary. I found that the K-Pg boundary had no significant effect on morphological diversification.

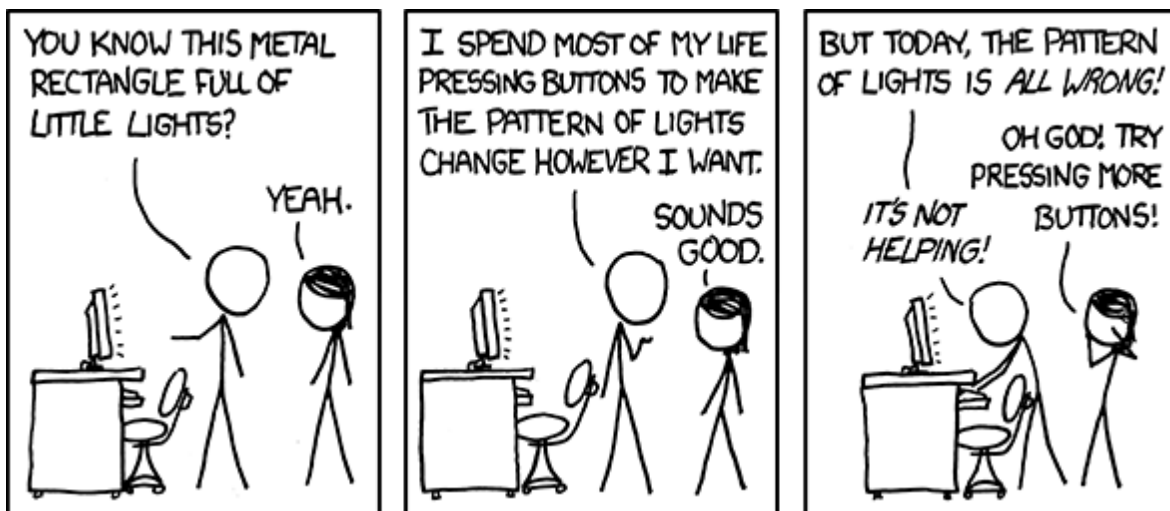
## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Thanks folks!

## PREFACE

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

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DECLARATION . . . . .	i
SUMMARY . . . . .	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS . . . . .	v
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	vi
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	vii
ADDITIONAL INFORMATIONS FOR EACH SPECIFIC CHAPTERS . . . . .	viii
1 INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
1.1 Phylogenies with living and fossil species . . . . .	2
1.1.1 Effects of missing data on topological inference using a Total Evidence approach . . . . .	3
1.1.2 Morphological data availability in living mammals . . . . .	3
1.2 Total evidence phylogenies applications . . . . .	4
1.2.1 Cretaceous-Palaeogene extinction does not affect mammalian disparity . . . . .	4
1.3 Discussion . . . . .	4
2 TOTAL EVIDENCE METHOD AND MISSING DATA . . . . .	5
3 MISSING DATA IN LIVING MAMMALS . . . . .	6
3.1 Summary . . . . .	6
3.2 Introduction . . . . .	7
3.3 Materials and Methods . . . . .	8
3.3.1 Data collection and standardisation . . . . .	8
3.3.2 Data availability and distribution . . . . .	13
3.4 Results . . . . .	14
3.5 Discussion . . . . .	18
4 SPATIO-TEMPORAL DISPARITY IN MAMMALS AT THE K-PG BOUNDARY . . . . .	23
5 DISCUSSION. . . . .	24
5.1 The future of the Total evidence method . . . . .	24
5.2 Diversity is multidimensional . . . . .	24
5.3 What is the real effect of combining? . . . . .	24
BIBLIOGRAPHY. . . . .	25
APPENDICES . . . . .	30
A SUPPLEMENTARY DATA TO CHAPTER 3 . . . . .	30

## LIST OF TABLES

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TABLE 3.1	Number of taxa with available cladistic data for mammalian orders .	14
TABLE A.1	Number of taxa with available cladistic data for mammalian orders without any character threshold . . . . .	30

## LIST OF FIGURES

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FIG. 3.1	Google searches additional OTUs rarefaction curve. . . . .	11
FIG. 3.2	Taxonomic matching algorithm used in this study. . . . .	12
FIG. 3.3	Phylogenetic distribution of species with available cladistic data across Primates and Carnivora . . . . .	19
FIG. A.1	Distribution of available morphological data across Afrosoricida . .	35
FIG. A.2	Distribution of available morphological data across Chiroptera. . .	36
FIG. A.3	Distribution of available morphological data across Cingulata . . .	37
FIG. A.4	Distribution of available morphological data across Dasyuromorphia 38	
FIG. A.5	Distribution of available morphological data across Didelphimorphia 39	
FIG. A.6	Distribution of available morphological data across Diprotodontia .	40
FIG. A.7	Distribution of available morphological data across Erinaceomorpha 41	
FIG. A.8	Distribution of available morphological data across Pilosa . . . .	42
FIG. A.9	Distribution of available morphological data across Cetartiodactyla 43	
FIG. A.10	Distribution of available morphological data across Rodentia . . .	44
FIG. A.11	Distribution of available morphological data across Scandentia . .	45
FIG. A.12	Distribution of available morphological data across Soricomorpha .	46



## SPECIFIC CHAPTER CONTRIBUTIONS AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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### CONTRIBUTIONS

For each chapters, I designed the experiments, ran the analysis, interpreted the results and wrote the manuscripts. Natalie Cooper helped for designing the experiment and writing the manuscript.

### DATA AVAILABILITY AND REPRODUCIBILITY

#### *Effects of missing data on topological inference using a Total Evidence approach*

All the code used in this analysis is available on GitHub ([goo.gl/4djNUf](https://github.com/TGuillerme/4djNUf)) with some information on how to use the various functions. Additionally all the simulated data is available on FigShare ([dx.doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1306861](https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.1306861)).

#### *Missing data in living mammals*

All data and analysis code is available on GitHub ([https://github.com/TGuillerme/Missing\\_living\\_mammals](https://github.com/TGuillerme/Missing_living_mammals)).

#### *Cretaceous-Palaeogene extinction does not affect mammalian disparity*

Data will be available on Dryad or Figshare. Code for reproducing the analysis is available on GitHub ([https://github.com/TGuillerme/SpatioTemporal\\_Disparity](https://github.com/TGuillerme/SpatioTemporal_Disparity)).

### SPECIFIC CHAPTERS ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

#### *Effects of missing data on topological inference using a Total Evidence approach*

Thanks to Gavin Thomas, Frédéric Delsuc, Emmanuel Douzery, Trevor Hodkinson, Andrew Jackson, Nick Matzke, and April Wright for useful comments on our simulation protocol and manuscript. Thanks to Paddy Doyle, Graziano D’Innocenzo

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

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Today's amazing biodiversity represents only an overwhelmingly small fraction of the organisms that ever existed (Novacek and Wheeler, 1992; Raup, 1981). Even though the process that shaped the patterns observed today are influenced by evolutionary history (Fritz et al., 2013), most of the scientific endeavour in biology focus solely on living species. Ignoring that can lead to misinterpretation of macroevolutionary patterns and processes (Benton, 2015). For example, nowadays crocodylians constitute a species poor group (25 species; Uetz, 2010) with a low range shapes and environments (marine or freshwater; Martin, 2008). Therefore when studying macroevolutionary patterns among all vertebrates, their effect will be rather “marginal” (e.g. Wiens, 2015, suggests that terrestriality is a driver of diversification among living vertebrates). However, this group was much more diverse both in terms of species richness (244 species reported in Bronzati et al., 2015) or in terms shapes and environments (Stubbs et al., 2013). In the case of Wiens (2015), not including fossil species, conceal the true history of this clade and this might biase the conclusions of the study.

Besides, including fossil species not only accounts for groups that where more diverse in the past, it also highly improves our descriptions of macroevolutionary patterns such as the timing of diversification events (e.g. significantly reducing node age confidence intervals; Ronquist et al., 2012a), the relationships among lineages (e.g. solving some controversial fossil placement; Dembo et al., 2015) or even gives a potential solution for understanding niche occupancy through time (e.g. Pearman et al., 2008). All this studies have led to a recent consensus among scientists that we need to combine both living and fossil species in macroevolutionary analysis (Jackson and Erwin, 2006; Quental and Marshall, 2010; Dietl and Flessa, 2011; Slater and Harmon, 2013; Fritz et al., 2013; Benton, 2015). Yet, in practice, only few studies have actively focused on combining them since the last decade (e.g. Ronquist et al., 2012a; Slater, 2013; Wood et al., 2013; Beck and Lee, 2014; Arcila et al., 2015; Dembo et al., 2015).

This scarcity is probably due to the fundamental differences between the two approaches to study macroevolution by using either living (neontological) or fossil (palaeontological) data.

1. The Paleontological approach was heavily popularised by Simpson (1944) and is based on cladistic data of the fossil record (i.e. discrete morphological observation). It relies on optimal criteria such as maximum parsimony (Hennig, 1966; Felsenstein, 2004) to resolve the relations among lineages and on stratigraphy to time such trees (Goloboff et al., 2008). This approach allows a direct interpretation of macroevolution in deep time and benefits from recent improvements both on data collection (e.g. “phenomics”; O’Leary et al., 2013) and on dating method (e.g. the *cal3* method; Bapst, 2014). However, this approach does rarely takes into account full living diversity (e.g. 119 fossil and 38 living primates in Ni et al., 2013) and methods suffer from several biases (e.g. parsimony Wright and Hillis, 2014).
2. Conversely, the neontological approach uses the vast amount of available molecular from living species and is based on probabilistic methods (e.g. Maximum Likelihood or Bayesian). This approach is based on evolutionary models that rely on the differences in DNA to resolve the relations among lineages and on some specific fossils’ occurrence dates for timing the lineages divergence (i.e. the molecular clock Zuckerkandl and Pauling, 1965). There has been enormous improvements of this approach in the last decade on both the evolutionary models (e.g. Bapst, 2013; Stadler and Yang, 2013; Heath et al., 2014) and on which fossils to use to calibrate the trees (Donoghue and Benton, 2007; Parham et al., 2012). However, this approach uses only the ages of certain fossils instead of the vast amount of informations available from the fossil record (e.g. species richness, traits, biogeography, etc).

## 1.1 PHYLOGENIES WITH LIVING AND FOSSIL SPECIES

Nonetheless, the last three years have seen the development of the new trending Total Evidence method (Ronquist et al., 2012a; Slater, 2013; Wood et al., 2013; Schrago et al., 2013; Beck and Lee, 2014; Arcila et al., 2015; Dembo et al., 2015). This methods allow to combine both molecular data from living species and morphological data from living and fossil species in the same phylogenetic matrices. It

was first developed in the nineties (Eernisse and Kluge, 1993) but only recently successfully implemented in softwares (Ronquist et al., 2012b; Bouckaert et al., 2014). By using both available neontological and palaeontological data, this method allows to better study macroevolutionary patterns and processes. For example, it allowed great improvements on the estimation of divergence event (e.g. Ronquist et al., 2012a); evolutionary rates (e.g. Beck and Lee, 2014); topology (e.g. Dembo et al., 2015); traits evolution (e.g. Slater, 2013) or even speciation processes (e.g. Wood et al., 2013). There is, however, one drawback to this method: because it needs both molecular data for living species and morphological data for living and morphological species, it is susceptible to suffer from great amounts of missing data.

#### 1.1.1 *Effects of missing data on topological inference using a Total Evidence approach*

As a first part of this PhD thesis, in the second chapter, I tackled the problem of missing data in Total Evidence matrices. I ran long term and thorough simulations to test whether the topologies inferred from Total Evidence matrices were stable to missing morphological data. I removed morphological data from Total Evidence matrices via three parameters where data could be missing: (1) the number of living species with molecular data but no morphological data; (2) the amount of missing data in the fossil record and (3) the number of overall morphological characters in the matrix. I modified the level of data in the three parameters and in their combination and then inferred the phylogenetic topology using both Maximum Likelihood and Bayesian approach. Finally, I compared how the missing data parameters and their interactions as well as the phylogenetic inference method influenced the ability of estimating the correct topology. I found that the number of living taxa with both morphological and molecular data is the essential to recover accurate topologies. This study rose the question of how can we improve Total Evidence topologies and especially, how much morphological data is available for living taxa?

#### 1.1.2 *Morphological data availability in living mammals*

Following this question, in the third chapter of my thesis, I looked at how many data was available in mammals. Following these results, I was interested in showing practical implications of this effect and monitored the morphological data availability for living mammals. I downloaded all the recent available morphological matrices

and counted the number of living mammals with available morphological data. I then tested how these taxa were distributed across the phylogeny to check if there weren't clustered in some specific clades. I found that a lot of data is missing but that at least most of it is randomly distributed and should not drastically effect topology. Since data in mammals is improvable, but is ok at higher taxonomic levels, it is an excellent candidate group for building Total Evidence phylogenies to allow macroevolutionary studies including both living and fossil species.

## 1.2 TOTAL EVIDENCE PHYLOGENIES APPLICATIONS

These trees can allow use to capture macroevolutionary or macroecological patterns more accurately and therefore propose more solid hypothesis on processes. Slater and Beck have successfully build Total Evidence and tip-dated phylogenies. We can use these phylogenies for answering many question such as body mass evolution (Slater) or timing of diversification (beck) and that improves the whole yoke. Another interesting we can do with such phylogenies is to look at diversity through time more accurately.

### 1.2.1 *Cretaceous-Palaeogene extinction does not affect mammalian disparity*

One interesting point about diversity it that it doesn't has to be just species richness but sometimes disparity can be important as well. We can use both processes plus Total Evidence trees to better describe the macroevolutionary patterns. These more accurate patterns can be used to explain the processes driving diversification or extinction during a mass extinction event, we need to accurately measure what's happening. One classical example is the K-T extinction where the effects still remain unclear after so many years of research. In the fourth chapter, I explore this question using Total Evidence trees and focusing on disparity rather than species diversity to see if mammals were affected by the K-Pg extinction event. I found that mammals do not do a damn thing around the K-Pg boundary.

## 1.3 DISCUSSION

This is just an example on how including both living and fossil species can change our vision of biodiversity. In the last chapter, I will discuss potential more application but also problems that arise with such methods

## **Effects of missing data on topological inference using a Total Evidence approach<sup>1</sup>**

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<sup>1</sup>A similar version of this chapter is currently (2015/09/30) under review in Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution.

## **Assessment of cladistic data availability for living mammals<sup>2</sup>**

### **3.1 SUMMARY**

Analyses of living and fossil taxa are crucial for understanding changes in biodiversity through time. The Total Evidence method allows living and fossil taxa to be combined in phylogenies, by using molecular data for living taxa and morphological data for both living and fossil taxa. With this method, substantial overlap of morphological data among living and fossil taxa is crucial for accurately inferring topology. However, although molecular data for living species is widely available, scientists using and generating morphological data mainly focus on fossils. Therefore, there is a gap in our knowledge of neontological morphological data even in well-studied groups such as mammals.

We investigated the amount of morphological (cladistic) data available for living mammals and how this data was phylogenetically distributed across orders. 22 of 28 mammalian orders have <25% species with available morphological data; this has implications for the accurate placement of fossil taxa, although the issue is less pronounced at higher taxonomic levels. In most orders, species with available data are randomly distributed across the phylogeny, which may reduce the impact of the problem. We suggest that increased morphological data collection efforts for living taxa are needed to produce accurate Total Evidence phylogenies.

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<sup>2</sup>A shorter version (2500 words) will be submitted to Biology Letters as an invited submission for a special issue on phylogenies with living and fossil species. This special issue is open to submission in December 2015.



## 3.2 INTRODUCTION

There is an increasing consensus among evolutionary biologists that studying both living and fossil taxa is essential for fully understanding macroevolutionary patterns and processes (Slater and Harmon, 2013; Fritz et al., 2013; Wood et al., 2013). For example, including both living and fossil taxa in evolutionary studies can improve the accuracy of timing diversification events (e.g. Ronquist et al., 2012a), our understanding of relationships among lineages (e.g. Beck and Lee, 2014), and our ability to infer biogeographical patterns through time (e.g. Meseguer et al., 2015). To perform such analyses it is necessary to combine living and fossil taxa in phylogenetic trees. One increasingly popular method, the Total Evidence method (Eernisse and Kluge, 1993; Ronquist et al., 2012a), combines molecular data from living taxa and morphological data from both living and fossil taxa in a supermatrix (e.g. Pyron, 2011; Ronquist et al., 2012a; Schrago et al., 2013; Slater and Harmon, 2013; Beck and Lee, 2014; Meseguer et al., 2015), producing a phylogeny with living and fossil taxa at the tips. These phylogenies can be dated using methods such as tip-dating (Ronquist et al., 2012a; Wood et al., 2013) and incorporated into macroevolutionary studies (e.g. Ronquist et al., 2012a; Wood et al., 2013; Slater, 2013).

A downside of the Total Evidence method is that it requires a lot of data. One must collect molecular data for living taxa and morphological data for both living and fossil taxa; two types of data that require fairly different technical skills (e.g. molecular sequencing vs. anatomical description). Additionally, large chunks of this data can be difficult, or even impossible, to collect for every taxon present in the analysis. For example, fossils very rarely have molecular data and incomplete fossil preservation (e.g. soft vs. hard tissues) may restrict the amount of morphological data available (Sansom and Wills, 2013). Additionally, since the molecular phylogenetics revolution, it has become less common to collect morphological characters for living taxa when molecular data is available (e.g. in (Slater, 2013), only 13% of the 169 living taxa have coded morphological data). Unfortunately this missing data can lead to errors in phylogenetic inference; in fact, simulations show that the ability of the Total Evidence method to recover the correct phylogenetic topology decreases when there is a low overlap between morphological data in the living and fossil taxa (Guillerme and Cooper, In review), regardless the overall amount of morphological data available for the fossils (or the amount of molecular data available for the living species). The effect of missing data on topology is greatest when living taxa have

few morphological data. This is because (1) a fossil cannot branch in the correct clade if there is no overlapping morphological data in the clade; and (2) a fossil has a higher probability of branching within a clade with more morphological data available for living taxa, regardless of whether this is the correct clade or not (Guillerme and Cooper, In review).

The issues above highlight that it is crucial to have sufficient morphological data for living taxa in a clade before using a Total Evidence approach. However, it is unclear how much morphological data for living taxa is actually available (i.e. already coded from museum specimens and deposited in phylogenetic matrices accessible online), and how this data is distributed across clades. Intuitively, most people assume this kind of data has already been collected, but empirical data suggest otherwise (e.g. in (Ronquist et al., 2012a; Slater, 2013; Beck and Lee, 2014)). To investigate this further, we assess the amount of available morphological data for living mammals to determine whether sufficient data exists to build reliable Total Evidence phylogenies in this group. We collected cladistic data (i.e. discrete morphological characters used in phylogenetics) from 286 phylogenetic matrices available online and measured the proportion of cladistic data available for each mammalian order. Additionally, because missing morphological data in living species can influence tree topology as described above, we determined whether the available cladistic data was phylogenetically overdispersed or clustered in the mammalian orders where data was missing. We find that available morphological data for living mammals is scarce but generally randomly distributed across phylogenies. We recommend that efforts be made to collect and share more cladistic data for living species to improve the accuracy of Total Evidence phylogenies.

### 3.3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### 3.3.1 *Data collection and standardisation*

We downloaded all cladistic matrices containing any living and/or fossil mammal taxa from three major public databases (accessed 10th of June 2015): Morphobank (<http://www.morphobank.org/>) (O'Leary and Kaufman, 2011), Graeme Lloyd's website ([graemetlloyd.com/matrmamm.html](http://graemetlloyd.com/matrmamm.html)) and Ross Mounce's GitHub repository (<https://github.com/rossmounce/cladistic-data>). We also performed a systematic Google Scholar search (accessed 11th of June 2015) for matrices that were not uploaded to

these databases. We downloaded available matrices containing fossil and/or living mammal taxa from the three data bases using the following list of keywords:

Mammalia; Monotremata; Marsupialia; Placentalia; Macroscelidea; Afrosoricida; Tubulidentata; Hyracoidea; Proboscidea; Sirenia; Pilosa; Cingulata; Scandentia; Dermoptera; Primates; Lagomorpha; Rodentia; Erinaceomorpha; Soricomorpha; Cetacea; Artiodactyla; Cetartiodactyla; Chiroptera; Perissodactyla; Pholidota; Carnivora; Didelphimorphia; Paucituberculata; Microbiotheria; Dasyuromorphia; Peramelemorphia; Notoryctemorphia; Diprotodontia.

Note that some matrices have been downloaded from more than one database but that it is not an issue since we are interested in the total number of unique living OTUs and that if some were present in more than one matrix, they still only counted as one single OTU.

MORPHOBANK — We used the keywords listed above in the search menu of the Morphobank repository (<http://www.morphobank.org/>) and downloaded the data associated with each project matching with the keywords.

GRAEME LLOYD — We downloaded all the matrices that were available with a direct download link in the mammal data section of Graeme Lloyd's website repository (<http://graemetlloyd.com/>).

ROSS MOUNCE — We downloaded every 601 matrix from Ross Mounce's GitHub repository (<https://github.com/rossmounce>) and then ran a shell script to select only the matrices that had any text element that match with one of the search terms. To make the matrix selection more thorough, we ignored the keywords case as well as the latin suffix (*ia*, *ata*, *ea*, and *a*).

GOOGLE SCHOLARS — To make sure we didn't miss any extra matrix that wasn't available on one of these repository, we ran a extra Google Scholar search. We downloaded the additional cladistic matrices from the 20 first search results matching with our selected keywords and with any of the 35 taxonomic levels (mammals Orders, Infraclasses and Class). We used the following key words:

*order* ("morphology" OR "morphological" OR "cladistic") AND characters matrix paleontology phylogeny

were *order* was replaced by all the keywords listed above. For each 33 keywords, we selected the 20 first papers to match the Google search published since 2010

resulting in 660 papers. Among these papers, not all contained relevant data (discrete morphological characters AND mammalian data). We selected only the 20 first results per search term to avoid downloading articles that were too irrelevant. Among the 660 papers, only 50 contained a total of 425 extra living OTUs (Figure 3.1). Also we decided to select only the articles published since 2010 because nearly every one of the recent published matrix contains both a fraction of morphological characters and OTUs from previous studies. For example in primates the character *p7* coded first by Ross et al. (1998) is reused with the same living species in Seiffert et al. (2003), Marivaux et al. (2005), Seiffert et al. (2005), Bloch et al. (2007), Bloch et al. (2007), Kay et al. (2008), Silcox (2008), Seiffert et al. (2009), Tabuce et al. (2009), Boyer et al. (2010), Seiffert et al. (2010), Marivaux et al. (2013) and Ni et al. (2013).

We transformed all the non-nexus matrices (tnt, word, excel, jpeg) to nexus format manually. In total, we downloaded 286 matrices containing a total of 11010 operational taxonomic units (OTUs) of which 5228 were unique. In this study, we refer to OTUs rather than species since the entries in the downloaded matrices were not standardised and ranged from specific individual specimen names (i.e. the name of a collection item) to the family-level. Where possible, we considered OTUs at their lowest valid taxonomic level (i.e. species) but some OTUs were only valid at a higher taxonomic level (e.g. genus or family). Therefore for some orders, we sampled more genera than species (Table ??).

To select the lowest valid taxonomic level for each OTU, we standardised their taxonomy by correcting species names so they matched standard taxonomic nomenclature (e.g., *H. sapiens* was transformed to *Homo sapiens*. We designated as “living” all OTUs that were either present in the phylogeny of (Bininda-Emonds et al., 2007) or the taxonomy of (Wilson and Reeder, 2005), and designated as “fossil” all OTUs that were present in the Paleobiology database (<https://paleobiodb.org/>).

For OTUs that did not appear in these three sources, we first decomposed the name (i.e. *Homo sapiens* became *Homo* and *sapiens* and tried to match the first element with a higher taxonomic level (family, genus etc.). Any OTUs that still had no matches in the sources above were designated as non-applicable (NA; see Figure 3.2).

The number of characters in each matrix ranged from 6 to 4541. Matrices with few characters are problematic when comparing available data among matrices because (1) they have less chance of having characters that overlap with

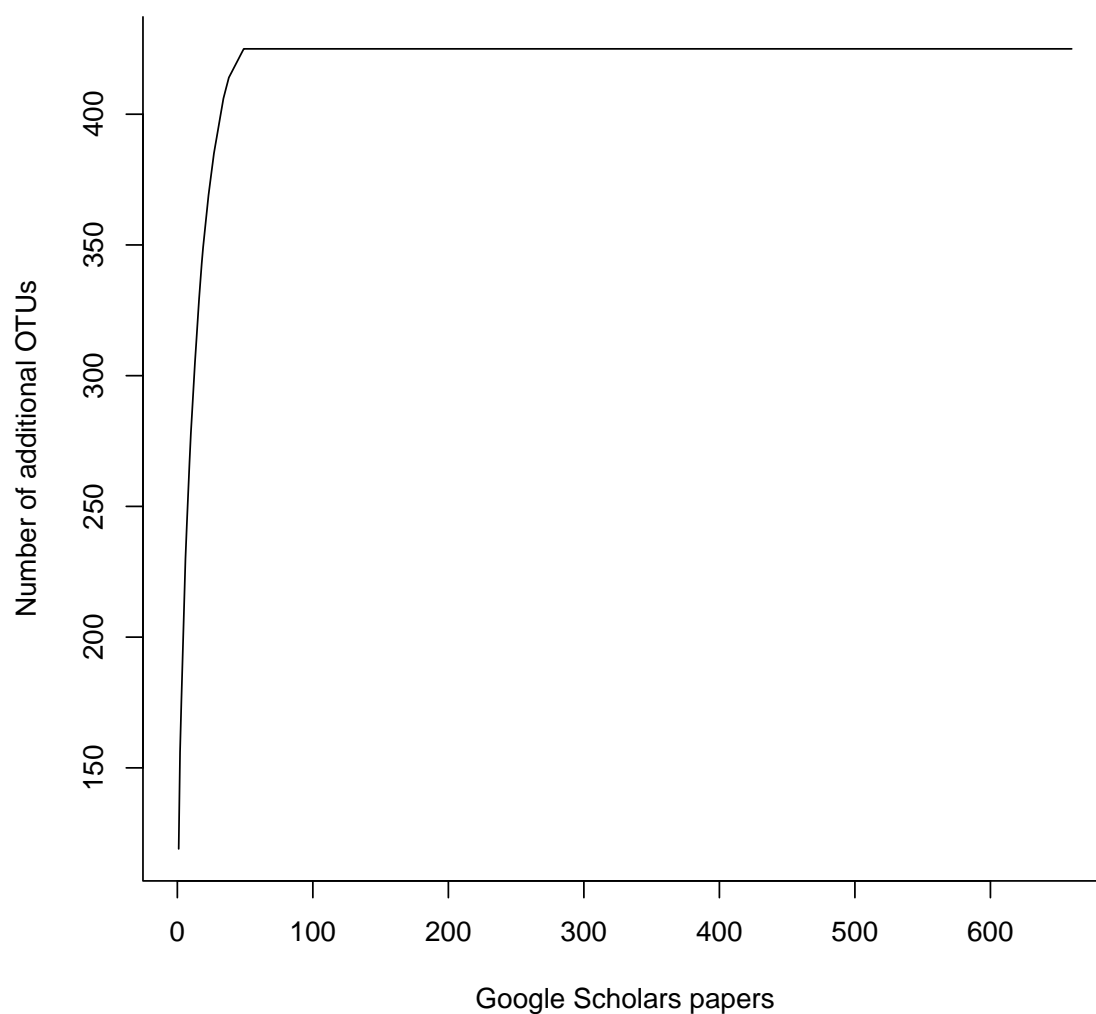


FIGURE 3.1: Google searches additional OTUs rarefaction curve. The x axis represent the number of google scholar matches (papers, books or abstracts) and the y axis represents the cumulative number of additional living OTUs per google scholar match.

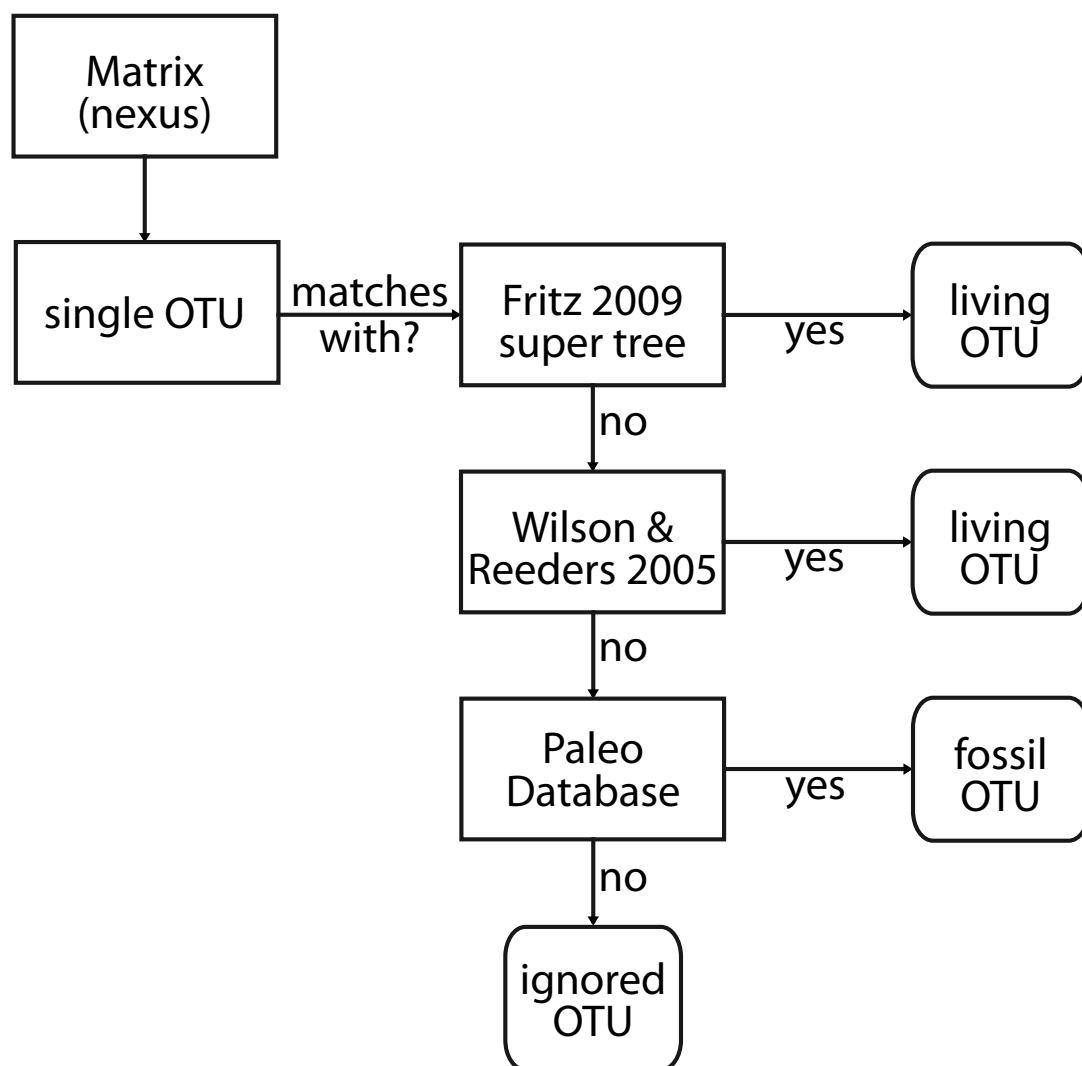


FIGURE 3.2: Taxonomic matching algorithm used in this study. For each matrix, each operational taxonomic units (OTU) is matched with the super tree from Bininda-Emonds 2007. If the OTU matches, then it is classified as living. Else it is matched with the Wilson & Reeders 2005 taxonomy list. If the OTU matches, then it is classified as living. Else it is matched with the Paleo Database list of mammals. If the OTU matches, then it is classified as fossil. Else it is ignored.

those of other matrices (Wagner, 2000) and (2) they are more likely to contain a higher proportion of specific characters that are not-applicable across large clades (e.g. “antler ramifications” is a character that is only applicable to Cervidae not all mammals (Brazeau, 2011)). Therefore we selected only matrices containing >100 characters for each OTU. This threshold was chosen to correspond with the number of characters used in (Guillerme and Cooper, In review) and (Harrison and Larsson, 2015). Note that results of analyses with no character threshold are available in Supplementary Material. After removing all matrices with <100 characters, we retained 1074 unique living mammal OTUs from 126 matrices for our analyses.

### 3.3.2 Data availability and distribution

To assess the availability of cladistic data for each mammalian order, we calculated the percentage of OTUs with cladistic data at three different taxonomic levels: family, genus and species. We consider orders with <25% of living taxa with cladistic data as having poor data coverage (“low” coverage), and orders with >75% of living taxa with cladistic data as having good data coverage (hereafter “high” coverage).

For orders with <100% cladistic data coverage at any taxonomic level, we investigated whether the available cladistic data was (i) randomly distributed, (ii) overdispersed or (iii) clustered, with respect to phylogeny, using two metrics from community phylogenetics: the Nearest Taxon Index (NTI; (Webb et al., 2002) and the Net Relatedness Index (NRI; (Webb et al., 2002)). NTI is most sensitive to clustering or overdispersion near the tips, whereas NRI is more sensitive to clustering or overdispersion across the whole phylogeny (Cooper et al., 2008). Both metrics were calculated using the `picante` package in R (Kembel et al., 2010; R Core Team, 2015).

NTI (Webb et al., 2002) is based on mean nearest neighbour distance (MNND) and is calculated as follows:

$$NTI = - \left( \frac{\overline{MNND}_{obs} - \overline{MNND}_n}{\sigma(MNND_n)} \right) \quad (3.1)$$

where  $\overline{MNND}_{obs}$  is the observed mean distance between each of  $n$  taxa with cladistic data and its nearest neighbour with cladistic data in the phylogeny,  $\overline{MNND}_n$  is the mean of 1000 mean MNND between  $n$  randomly drawn taxa, and  $\sigma(MNND_n)$  is the standard deviation of these 1000 random MNND values. NRI is similar but is

based on mean phylogenetic distance (MPD) as follows:

$$NRI = - \left( \frac{\overline{MPD}_{obs} - \overline{MPD}_n}{\sigma(MPD_n)} \right) \quad (3.2)$$

where  $\overline{MPD}_{obs}$  is the observed mean phylogenetic distance of the tree containing only the  $n$  taxa with cladistic data,  $\overline{MPD}_n$  is the expected random MPD for  $n$  taxa estimated by calculating the MPD from  $n$  taxa randomly drawn from the phylogeny and repeated 1000 times, and  $\sigma(MPD_n)$  is the standard deviation of the 1000 random MPD values. Negative NRI and NRI values show that the focal taxa are more overdispersed across the phylogeny than expected by chance, and positive values reflect significant clustering.

We calculated NRI and NRI values for each mammalian order separately, at each different taxonomic level. For each analysis our focal taxa were those with available cladistic data at that taxonomic level and the phylogeny was the phylogeny of the order pruned from (Bininda-Emonds et al., 2007).














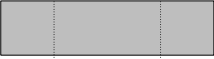










### 3.4 RESULTS








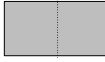









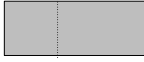


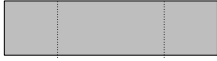



Across the 126 cladistic matrices we extracted, 22 out of 28 mammalian orders have low coverage (<25% of species with cladistic data) and six have high coverage (>75% of species with cladistic data) at the species-level. At the genus-level, three orders have low coverage and 12 have high coverage, and at the family-level, no orders have low coverage and 23 have high coverage (Table 3.1).














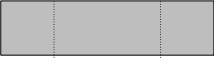










TABLE 3.1: Number of taxa with available cladistic data for mammalian orders at three taxonomic levels. The left vertical bar represents “low” coverage (<25%); the right vertical bar represents “high” coverage (>75%). A negative Net Relatedness Index (NRI) and Nearest Taxon Index (NTI) shows more phylogenetically dispersed taxa than expected by chance; a positive value shows more phylogenetically clustered taxa than expected by chance. Significant NRI or NTI values are highlighted in bold. One star (\*) signifies a p-value between 0.05 and 0.005; two stars between 0.005 and 0.0005 and three stars <0.0005.





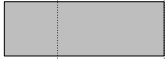
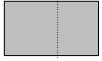




Order	Taxo- nomic level	Proportion of taxa	Coverage	NRI	NTI
Afrosoricida	family	2/2	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>		
Afrosoricida	genus	17/17	<div><div></div><div></div><div></div></div>		



<b>Afrosoricida</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>23/42</b>		<b>1.89*</b>	1.19
Carnivora	family	11/15		0.43	1.68
<b>Carnivora</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>30/125</b>		<b>4.14**</b>	<b>1.81*</b>
<b>Carnivora</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>42/283</b>		<b>18.64**</b>	<b>3.02**</b>
Cetartiodactyla	family	21/21			
<b>Cetartiodactyla</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>77/128</b>		0.87	<b>1.77*</b>
<b>Cetartiodactyla</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>129/310</b>		<b>2.72*</b>	0.04
Chiroptera	family	13/18		0.55	0.63
<b>Chiroptera</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>85/202</b>		<b>16.91**</b>	<b>2.85**</b>
<b>Chiroptera</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>165/1053</b>		<b>14.55**</b>	<b>3.44**</b>
Cingulata	family	1/1			
Cingulata	genus	8/9		1.49	-1.63
Cingulata	species	6/29		1.43	0.36
Dasyuromorphia	family	2/2			
Dasyuromorphia	genus	7/22		-1	-1.45
Dasyuromorphia	species	8/64		-1.15	-0.62
Dermoptera	family	1/1			
Dermoptera	genus	1/2			
Dermoptera	species	1/2			
Didelphimorphia	family	1/1			
Didelphimorphia	genus	16/16			
Didelphimorphia	species	40/84		-0.94	0.36
Diprotodontia	family	9/11		-0.8	0.56
Diprotodontia	genus	20/38		-1.36	-0.73

Diprotodontia	species	16/126		-2.29	-1.55
Erinaceomorpha	family	1/1			
Erinaceomorpha	genus	10/10			
Erinaceomorpha	species	21/22		-1.1	-0.3
Hyracoidea	family	1/1			
Hyracoidea	genus	1/3			
Hyracoidea	species	1/4			
Lagomorpha	family	1/2			
Lagomorpha	genus	1/12			
Lagomorpha	species	1/86			
Macroscelidea	family	1/1			
Macroscelidea	genus	4/4			
Macroscelidea	species	5/15		-0.98	-1.38
Microbiotheria	family	1/1			
Microbiotheria	genus	1/1			
Microbiotheria	species	1/1			
Monotremata	family	2/2			
Monotremata	genus	2/3		-0.71	-0.71
Monotremata	species	2/4		-1.01	-1.03
Notoryctemorphia	family	1/1			
Notoryctemorphia	genus	1/1			
Notoryctemorphia	species	0/2			
Paucituberculata	family	1/1			
Paucituberculata	genus	2/3		0	0

Paucituberculata	species	2/5		-0.64	-0.65
Peramelemorphia	family	2/2			
Peramelemorphia	genus	7/7			
Peramelemorphia	species	16/18		-0.09	1
Perissodactyla	family	3/3			
Perissodactyla	genus	6/6			
Perissodactyla	species	7/16		0.62	-2.5
Pholidota	family	1/1			
Pholidota	genus	1/1			
<b>Pholidota</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>3/8</b>		<b>2.64*</b>	<b>2.23*</b>
Pilosa	family	3/5		0.94	0.93
Pilosa	genus	3/5		-0.36	-0.31
Pilosa	species	3/29		0.33	0.79
Primates	family	15/15			
Primates	genus	48/68		-0.41	-1.4
Primates	species	56/351		-1.6	-2.04
Proboscidea	family	1/1			
Proboscidea	genus	1/2			
Proboscidea	species	1/3			
Rodentia	family	11/32		-0.46	-1.91
Rodentia	genus	21/450		-2.11	0.3
Rodentia	species	15/2094		-1.65	-2.55
Scandentia	family	2/2			
Scandentia	genus	2/5		-0.77	-0.76

Scandentia	species	2/20		-1.79	-1.99
Sirenia	family	2/2			
Sirenia	genus	2/2			
Sirenia	species	4/4			
Soricomorpha	family	3/4		-0.93	-0.92
<b>Soricomorpha</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>19/43</b>		<b>6.98**</b>	<b>2.49*</b>
<b>Soricomorpha</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>19/392</b>		<b>13.19**</b>	<b>3.89**</b>
Tubulidentata	family	1/1			
Tubulidentata	genus	1/1			
Tubulidentata	species	1/1			

Among the mammalian orders containing OTUs with no available cladistic data, only six orders had significantly clustered data (Carnivora, Cetartiodactyla, Chiroptera and Soricomorpha at both species- and genus-level and Afrosoricida and Pholidota at the species-level only) and no order had significantly overdispersed data at any taxonomic level (Table 3.1).

Two contrasting results are shown in Figure 3.3 with randomly distributed OTUs with cladistic data in Primates (Figure 3.3A) and phylogenetically clustered OTUs with cladistic data in Carnivora (mainly Canidae; Figure 3.3B).

### 3.5 DISCUSSION

Our results show that although phylogenetic relationships among living mammals are well-resolved (e.g. Bininda-Emonds et al., 2007; Meredith et al., 2011), most of the data used to build these phylogenies is molecular, and very little cladistic data is available for living mammals compared to fossil mammals (e.g. O’Leary et al., 2013; Ni et al., 2013). This has implications for building Total Evidence phylogenies containing both living and fossil mammals, as without sufficient cladistic data for living species, fossil placements in these trees are very uncertain (Guillerme and Cooper, In review). Cladistic data coverage in living mammals varies across taxo-

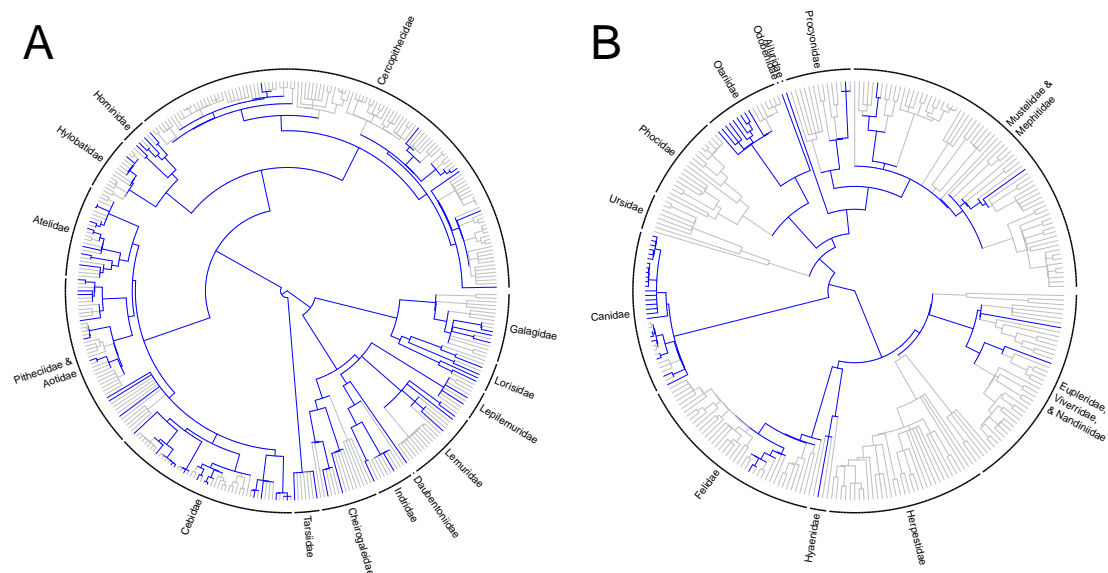


FIGURE 3.3: Phylogenetic distribution of species with available cladistic data across two mammalian orders (A: Primates; B: Carnivora). Edges are colored in grey when no cladistic data is available for a species and in blue when data is available.

onomic levels and in its phylogenetic distribution. Higher taxonomic levels are always better sampled than lower ones and within these taxonomic levels, the available data is mostly randomly distributed across the phylogeny, apart from in six orders).

The number of living mammalian taxa with no available cladistic data was surprisingly high at the species-level: only six out of 28 orders have a high coverage of taxa with available cladistic data (and two of the 28 orders are monospecific!). This high coverage threshold of 75% of taxa with available cladistic data represents the minimum amount of data required before missing data has a significant effect on the topology of Total Evidence trees (Guillerme and Cooper, In review). Beyond this threshold, there is considerable displacement of wildcard taxa (*sensu* (Kearney, 2002) and decreases in clade conservation (Guillerme and Cooper, In review). Therefore we expect a high probability of topological artefacts for the placement of fossil taxa at the species-level in most mammalian orders. However, data coverage seems to be less of an issue at higher taxonomic levels (i.e. genus- and family-level). This point is important from a practical point of view because of the slight discrepancy between the neontological and palaeontological concept of species. While neontological species are described using morphology, genetic distance, spatial distribution and even behaviour, palaeontological species can be based only on morphological, spatial and temporal data (e.g. Ni et al., 2013). Because of this, most palaeontological studies are using the genus as their smallest OTU (e.g. Ni et al., 2013; O'Leary et al., 2013). Thus data availability at the genus-level in living mammals should be our primary concern when aiming to build phylogenies of living and fossil taxa.

When only a few species with cladistic data are available, the ideal scenario is for them to be phylogenetically overdispersed (i.e. that there is data for at least every sub-clade) to maximize the possibilities of a fossil branching from the right clade. The second best scenario is that species with cladistic data are randomly distributed across the phylogeny. In this scenario we expect no special bias in the placement of the fossil (Guillerme and Cooper, In review), it is therefore encouraging that for most orders, species with cladistic data were randomly distributed across the phylogeny of each order. The worst case scenario for fossil placement is that species with cladistic data are phylogenetically clustered. In this situation we expect two major biases to occur: first, the fossil will not be able to branch within a clade containing no data, and second, the fossil will have a higher probability, at random, of branching within the clade containing most of the available data. This means

that fossils with uncertain phylogenetic affinities (*incertae sedis*) will have a higher probability of branching within the most sampled clade just by chance. Our results suggest that this may be an issue, at the genus-level, in Carnivora, Cetartiodactyla, Chiroptera and Soricomorpha. For example, a Carnivora fossil will be unable to branch in the Herpestidae that has no species with cladistic data, and will also have more chance to branch, randomly, within the Canidae clade than any other clade in Carnivora (Figure 3.3B). Thus, in Total Evidence trees, placements of some carnivoran fossils should be considered with caution. In this study, we treated all cladistic matrices as equal in a similar way to molecular matrices. For example, if matrix A contained 100 characters for taxa X and Y, and matrix B contained 50 different characters for taxa X and Z, we assumed that both matrices can be combined in a supermatrix containing 150 independent characters for taxon X, 100 for taxon Y and 50 for taxon Z. Unfortunately, cladistic data cannot always be treated in this way because some characters may overlap. For example, if matrix A has a character coding for the shape of a particular morphological feature and matrix B has a character coding for the presence of this same morphological feature and a second character coding for its shape, then these three characters are non-independent compound characters (Brazeau, 2011). However, in reasonably sized matrices (>100 characters; (Guillerme and Cooper, In review; Harrison and Larsson, 2015)) it is more likely that a number of characters are consistently conserved among the different matrices and thus easily combinable. For example, within the Primate cladistic literature, the character *p7* - the size of the 4<sup>th</sup> lower premolar paraconid - has been used consistently for >15 years (e.g. Ross et al., 1998; ?; Ni et al., 2013) and can therefore be combined among the matrices. A conservative approach to avoid compound characters would be to select only the most recent matrix for each group, but this would result in the loss of a lot of data.

Despite the absence of good cladistic data coverage for living mammals, the Total Evidence methods still seems to be the most promising way of combining living and fossil data for macroevolutionary analyses. Following the recommendations in (Guillerme and Cooper, In review), we need to code cladistic characters for as many living species possible. Fortunately, data for living mammals is usually readily available in natural history collections, therefore, we propose that an increased effort be put into coding morphological characters from living species, possibly by engaging in collaborative data collection projects through web portals such as *Morphobank* (O'Leary and Kaufman, 2011). Such an effort would be valuable not only to phy-

logeneticists, but also to any researcher focusing understanding macroevolutionary patterns and processes.



CHAPTER 4

SPATIO-TEMPORAL DISPARITY IN MAMMALS AT THE K-PG  
BOUNDARY

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**Cretaceous-Palaeogene extinction does not affect  
mammalian disparity<sup>3</sup>**

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<sup>3</sup>A similar version of this chapter will be submitted to *Evolution* soon.

### 5.1 THE FUTURE OF THE TOTAL EVIDENCE METHOD

Combined with tip-dating is super interesting but: -Data limitations -Problems with dating (Arcila) -Better models for morphology? One way could be a REAL total evidence dating using also trait data, biogeography, etc... In reality, all these parameters have an influence of lineages history and should technically be taken into account. But data problem is likely to increase, and needs models need to be improved as well. And in the end, how many parameters do we want?

But still problems: But this can also be due to technical problems in methods. For example PCM are not entirely good with non-ultrametric trees. Or dating techniques are not perfect with fossils (Some calibration technique and Arcila). Also, the methods used to describe relations can have big artefacts (e.g. parsimony) or other approaches (Mk) model can be oversimplistic (but still usable).

### 5.2 DIVERSITY IS MULTIDIMENSIONAL

It is important to disentangle But other dimensions as well: Ecological, life history, etc.

### 5.3 WHAT IS THE REAL EFFECT OF COMBINING?

Maybe only important when groups have actually a complex history? Old clades might have no living descendants and the question is therefore N/A Recent sub-clades maybe not have changed much in diversity so adding fossils might not change much. But we never know! Example of the giant lemur (recently extinct).

Future directions -what should we do on the thesis to continue

Caveats -the hard ones (I know this is broken) -phylogenies are never perfect  
-using proxies

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## Assessment of cladistic data availability for living mammals

Key words: Total Evidence method, data structure, phylogenetic, fossil, topology














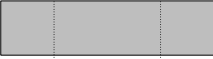








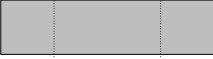

A shorter version (2500 words) will be submitted to Biology Letters as an invited submission for a special issue on phylogenies with living and fossil species. This special issue is open to submission in December 2015.





















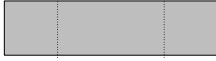


The following section contains supplementary results to the chapter “Assessment of cladistic data availability for living mammals”: the available data structure using the NTI and the PD metric; the proportion of available data and the data structure for all the matrices (including the matrices with less than 100 characters); and phylogenetical representation of the data availability per order (excluding Primates and Carnivora, present in the main body).



















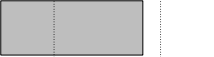





TABLE A.1: Number of taxa with available cladistic data for mammalian orders at three taxonomic levels (without any character threshold; results from the 286 matrices). The coverage represents the proportion of taxa with available morphological data. The left vertical bar represents 25% of available data (“low” coverage if  $<25\%$ ); The right vertical bar represents 75% of available data (“high” coverage if  $>75\%$ ). When the Net Relatedness Index (NRI) and the Nearest Taxon Index (NTI) are negative, taxa are more phylogenetically dispersed than expected by chance; when NRI or NTI are positive, taxa are more phylogenetically clustered by expected by chance. Significant NRI or NTI are highlighted in bold. One star (\*) represents a p-value between 0.05 and 0.005; two stars between 0.005 and 0.0005 and three stars a p-value less than 0.0005.





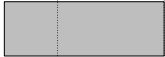





Order	Taxo- nomic level	Proportion of taxa	Coverage	NRI	NTI
Afrosoricida	family	2/2			
Afrosoricida	genus	17/17			



Afrosoricida	species	23/42		1.75	1.08
Carnivora	family	14/15		0.63	0.6
<b>Carnivora</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>54/125</b>		<b>4.81**</b>	<b>1.78*</b>
<b>Carnivora</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>76/283</b>		<b>7.66**</b>	<b>0.85</b>
Cetartiodactyla	family	21/21			
Cetartiodactyla	genus	100/128		0.85	0.94
<b>Cetartiodactyla</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>171/310</b>		<b>1.92*</b>	<b>-0.46</b>
Chiroptera	family	15/18		-0.28	0.56
<b>Chiroptera</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>93/202</b>		<b>13.47**</b>	<b>1.1</b>
<b>Chiroptera</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>215/1053</b>		<b>8.82**</b>	<b>1.22</b>
Cingulata	family	1/1			
Cingulata	genus	8/9		1.51	-1.57
<b>Cingulata</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>9/29</b>		<b>1.9*</b>	<b>0.11</b>
Dasyuromorphia	family	2/2			
Dasyuromorphia	genus	8/22		-0.75	-1.07
Dasyuromorphia	species	9/64		-0.88	-0.34
Dermoptera	family	1/1			
Dermoptera	genus	1/2			
Dermoptera	species	1/2			
Didelphimorphia	family	1/1			
Didelphimorphia	genus	16/16			
Didelphimorphia	species	42/84		-1.65	0.2
Diprotodontia	family	11/11			
Diprotodontia	genus	25/38		-1.13	-1.31

Diprotodontia	species	31/126		0.48	-1.77
Erinaceomorpha	family	1/1			
Erinaceomorpha	genus	10/10			
Erinaceomorpha	species	21/22		-1.07	-0.2
Hyracoidea	family	1/1			
Hyracoidea	genus	1/3			
Hyracoidea	species	1/4			
Lagomorpha	family	2/2			
Lagomorpha	genus	5/12		-1.06	-0.95
Lagomorpha	species	12/86		-0.62	-1.88
Macroscelidea	family	1/1			
Macroscelidea	genus	4/4			
Macroscelidea	species	12/15		-1.3	-1.06
Microbiotheria	family	1/1			
Microbiotheria	genus	1/1			
Microbiotheria	species	1/1			
Monotremata	family	2/2			
Monotremata	genus	2/3		-0.72	-0.69
Monotremata	species	2/4		-0.97	-0.97
Notoryctemorphia	family	1/1			
Notoryctemorphia	genus	1/1			
Notoryctemorphia	species	0/2			
Paucituberculata	family	1/1			
Paucituberculata	genus	3/3			

Paucituberculata	species	5/5			
Peramelemorphia	family	2/2			
Peramelemorphia	genus	7/7			
Peramelemorphia	species	16/18		-0.13	0.97
Perissodactyla	family	3/3			
Perissodactyla	genus	6/6			
Perissodactyla	species	10/16		-0.07	-2.63
Pholidota	family	1/1			
Pholidota	genus	1/1			
Pholidota	species	4/8		1.18	0.94
Pilosa	family	4/5		1.87	2
Pilosa	genus	4/5		-0.96	0.36
<b>Pilosa</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>5/29</b>		<b>1.28</b>	<b>2.38*</b>
Primates	family	15/15			
Primates	genus	48/68		-0.35	-1.33
Primates	species	64/351		-0.67	-1.27
Proboscidea	family	1/1			
Proboscidea	genus	2/2			
Proboscidea	species	2/3		-0.69	-0.69
Rodentia	family	18/32		0.66	-0.98
Rodentia	genus	82/450		-1.66	1.55
<b>Rodentia</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>90/2094</b>		<b>2.76*</b>	<b>2.34*</b>
Scandentia	family	2/2			
Scandentia	genus	2/5		-0.74	-0.74

Scandentia	species	3/20		-1.88	-0.84
Sirenia	family	2/2			
Sirenia	genus	2/2			
Sirenia	species	4/4			
Soricomorpha	family	3/4		-0.98	-0.99
<b>Soricomorpha</b>	<b>genus</b>	<b>19/43</b>		<b>7.11**</b>	<b>2.59**</b>
<b>Soricomorpha</b>	<b>species</b>	<b>21/392</b>		<b>10.65**</b>	<b>3.56**</b>
Tubulidentata	family	1/1			
Tubulidentata	genus	1/1			
Tubulidentata	species	1/1			

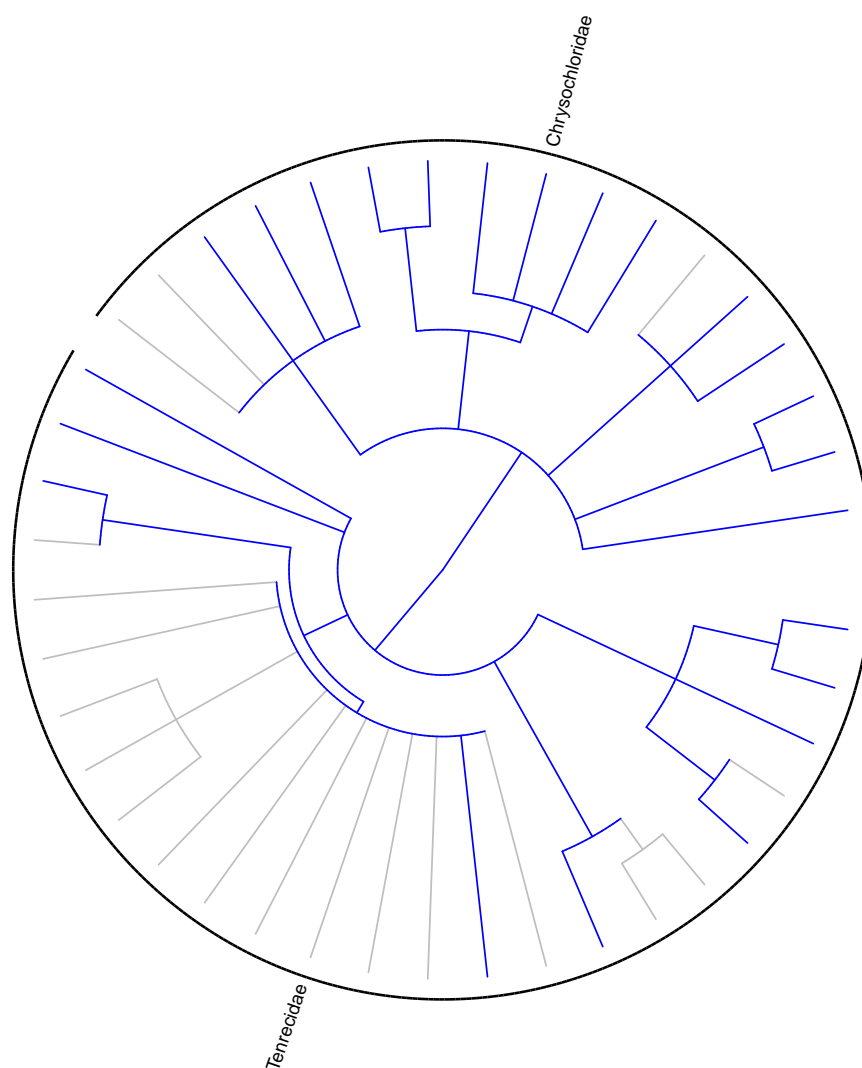


FIGURE A.1: Distribution of available morphological data across Afrosoricida. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

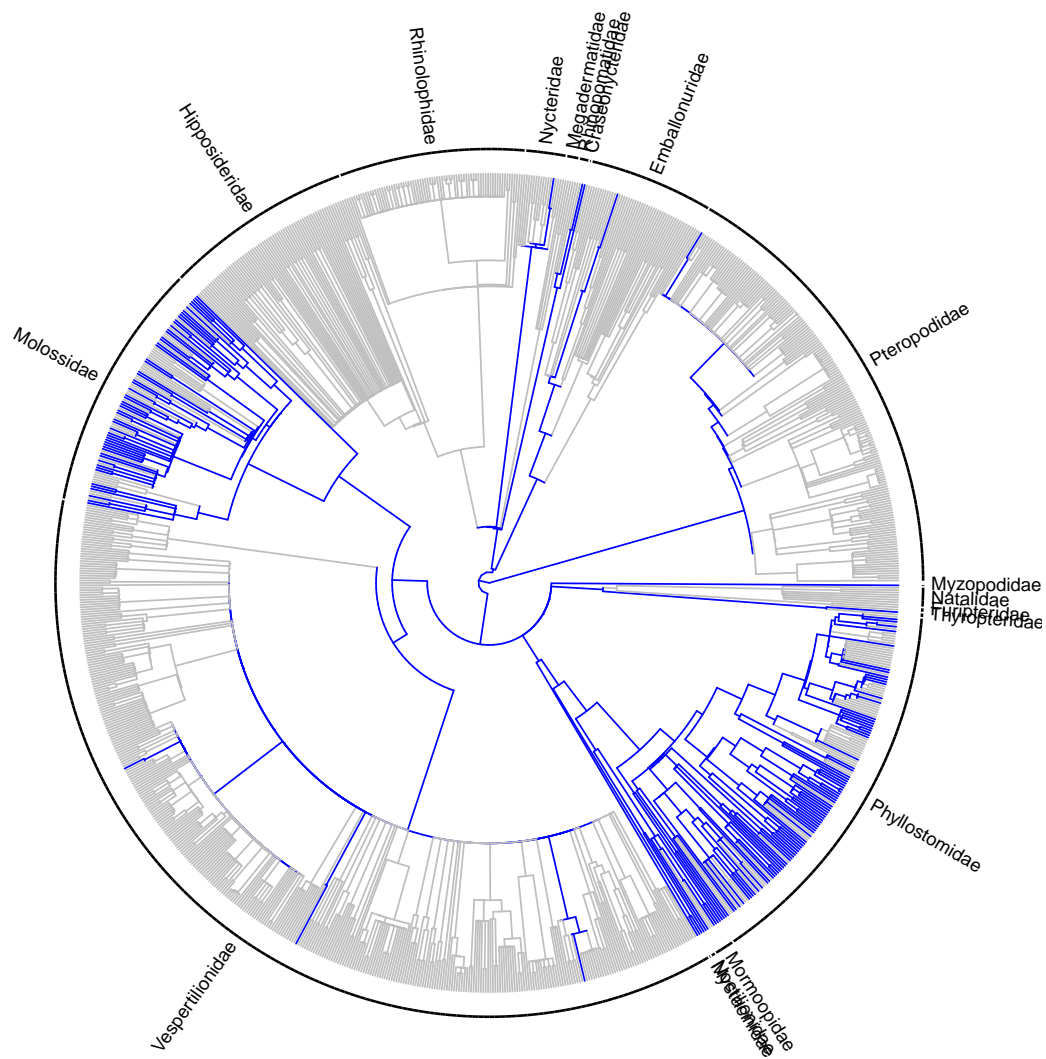


FIGURE A.2: Distribution of available morphological data across Chiroptera. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

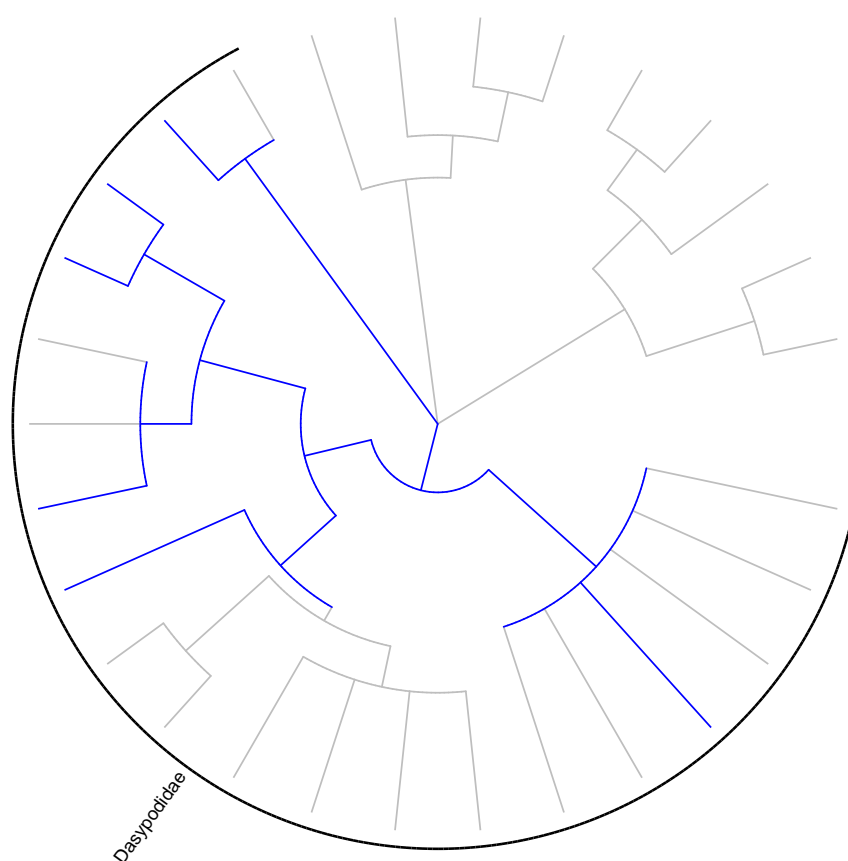


FIGURE A.3: Distribution of available morphological data across Cingulata. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

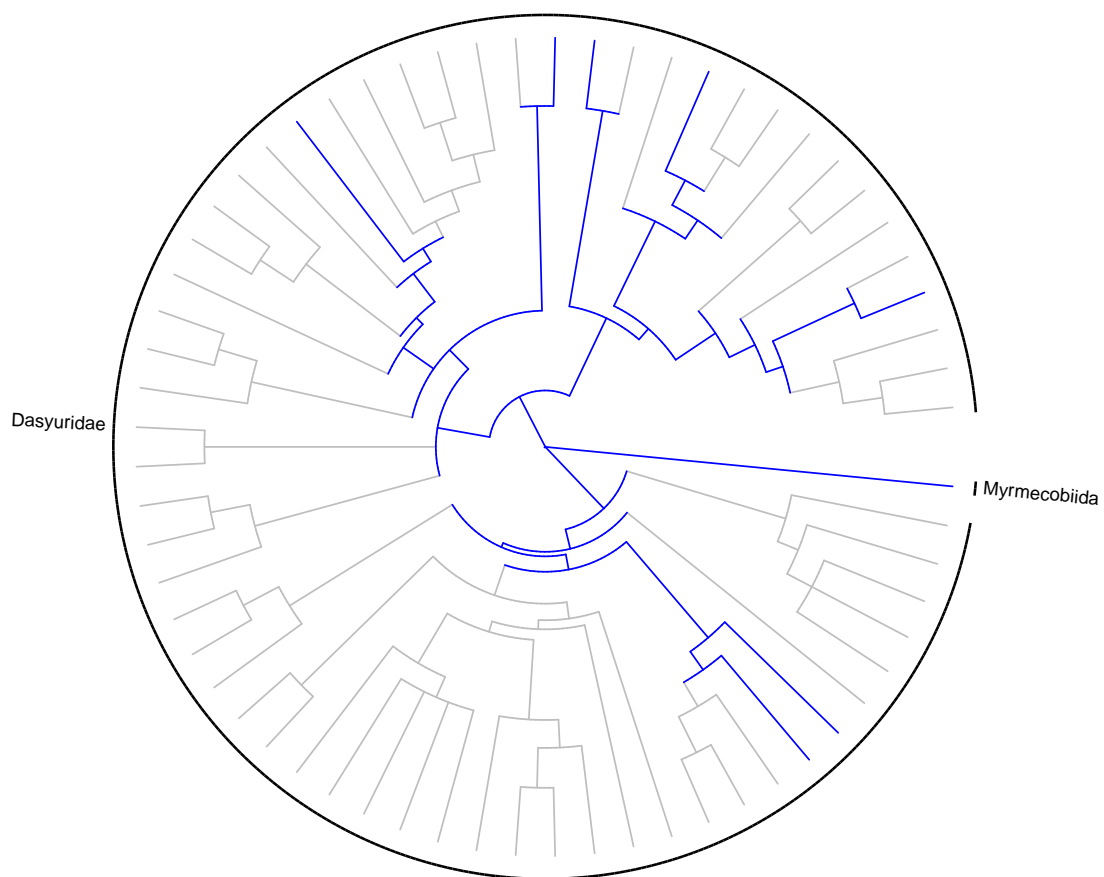


FIGURE A.4: Distribution of available morphological data across Dasyuromorphia. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.



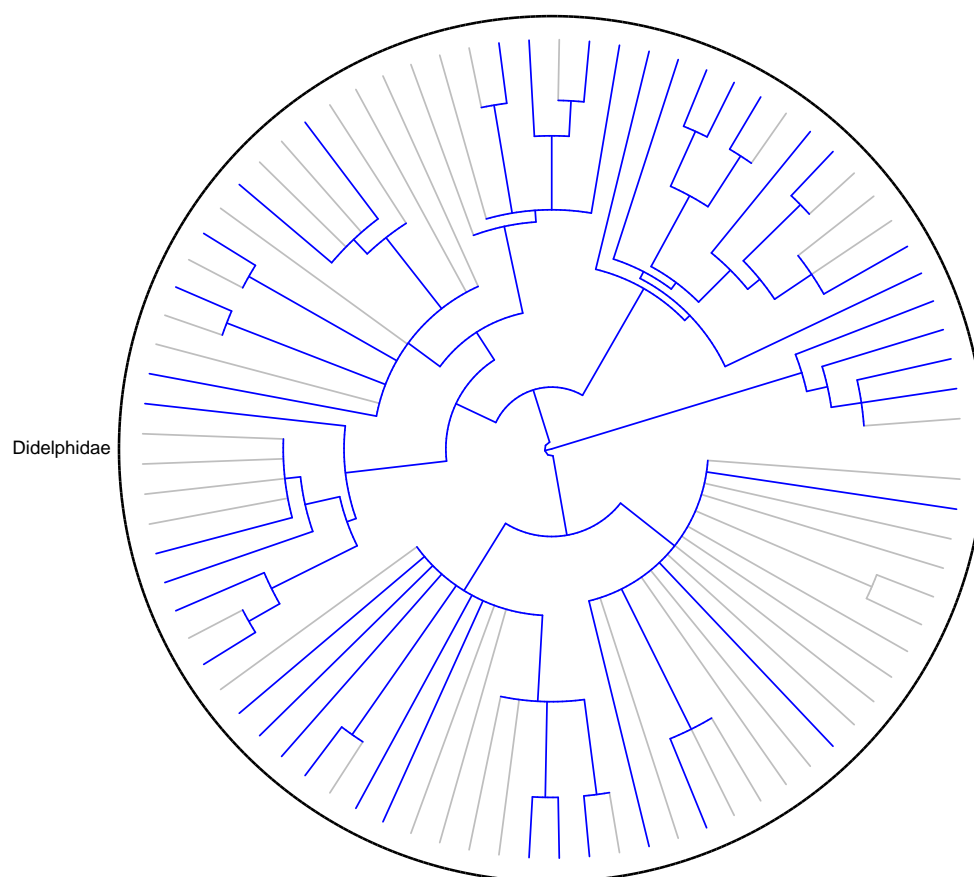


FIGURE A.5: Distribution of available morphological data across Didelphimorphia. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

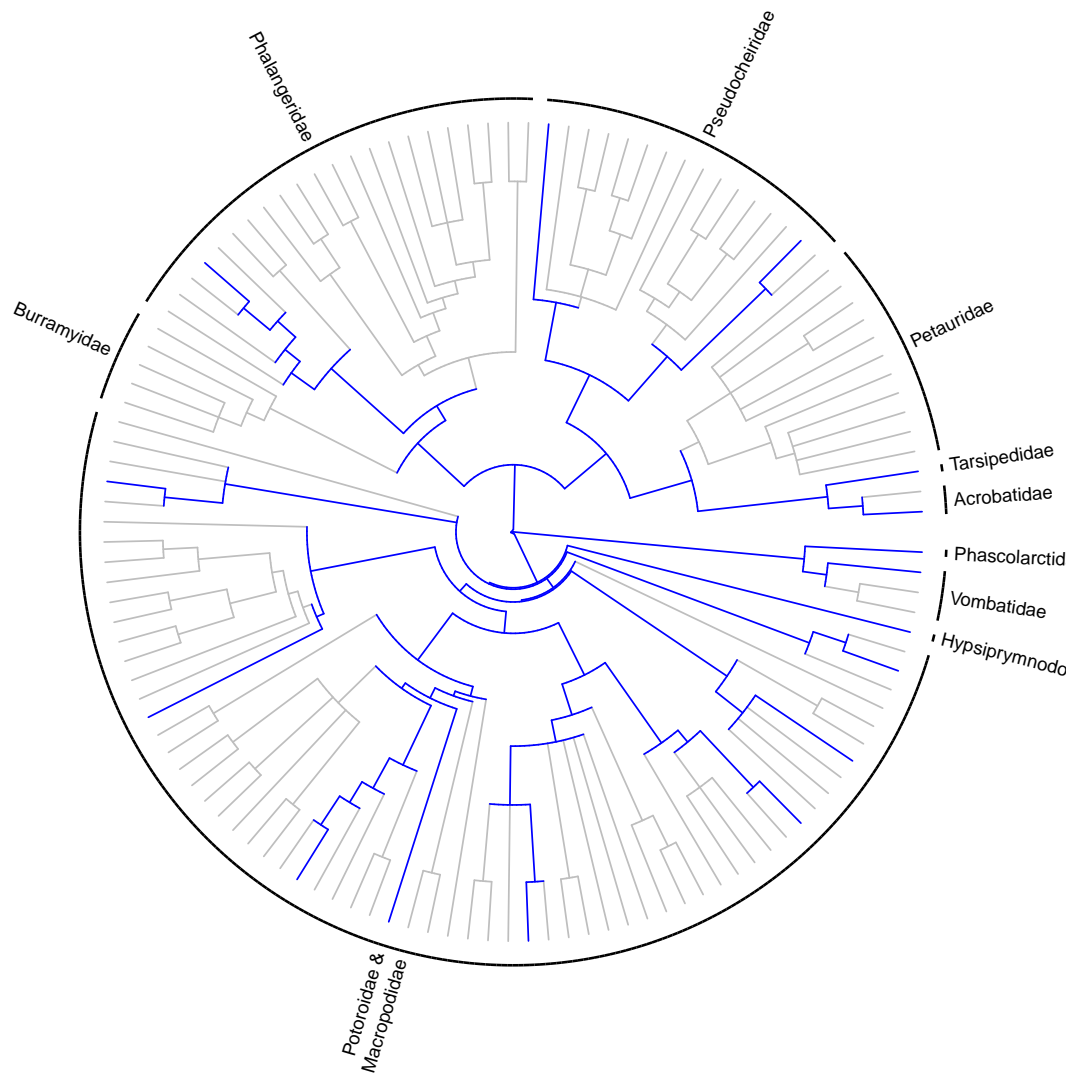


FIGURE A.6: Distribution of available morphological data across Diprotodontia. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

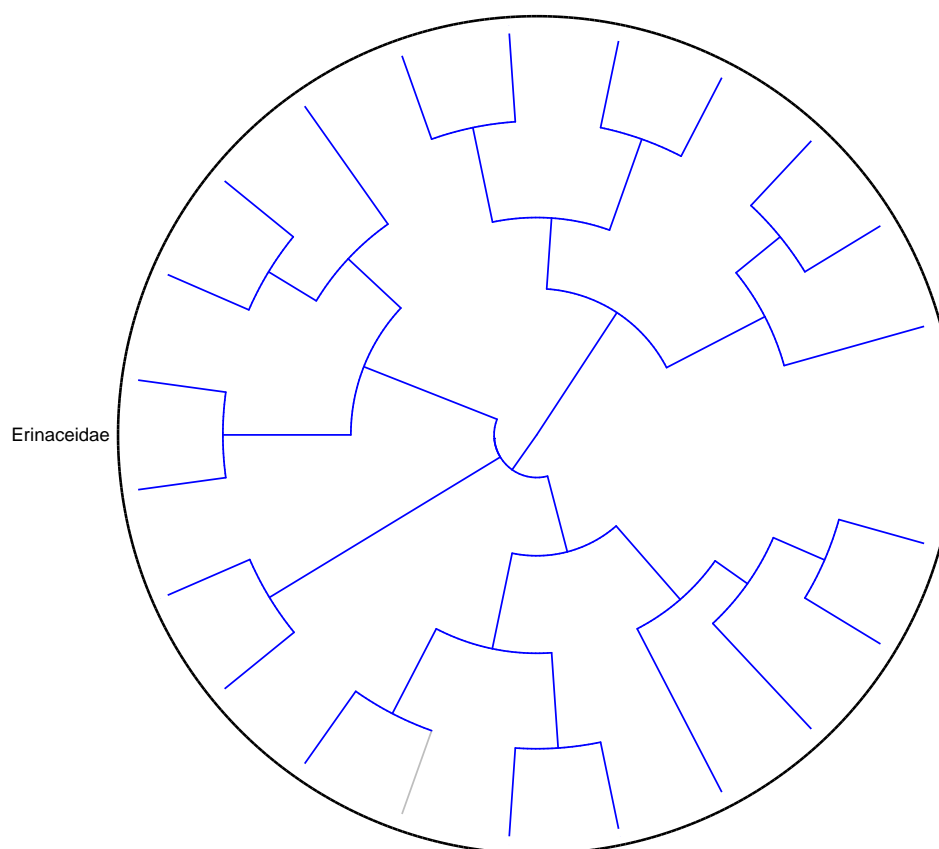


FIGURE A.7: Distribution of available morphological data across Erinaceomorpha. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

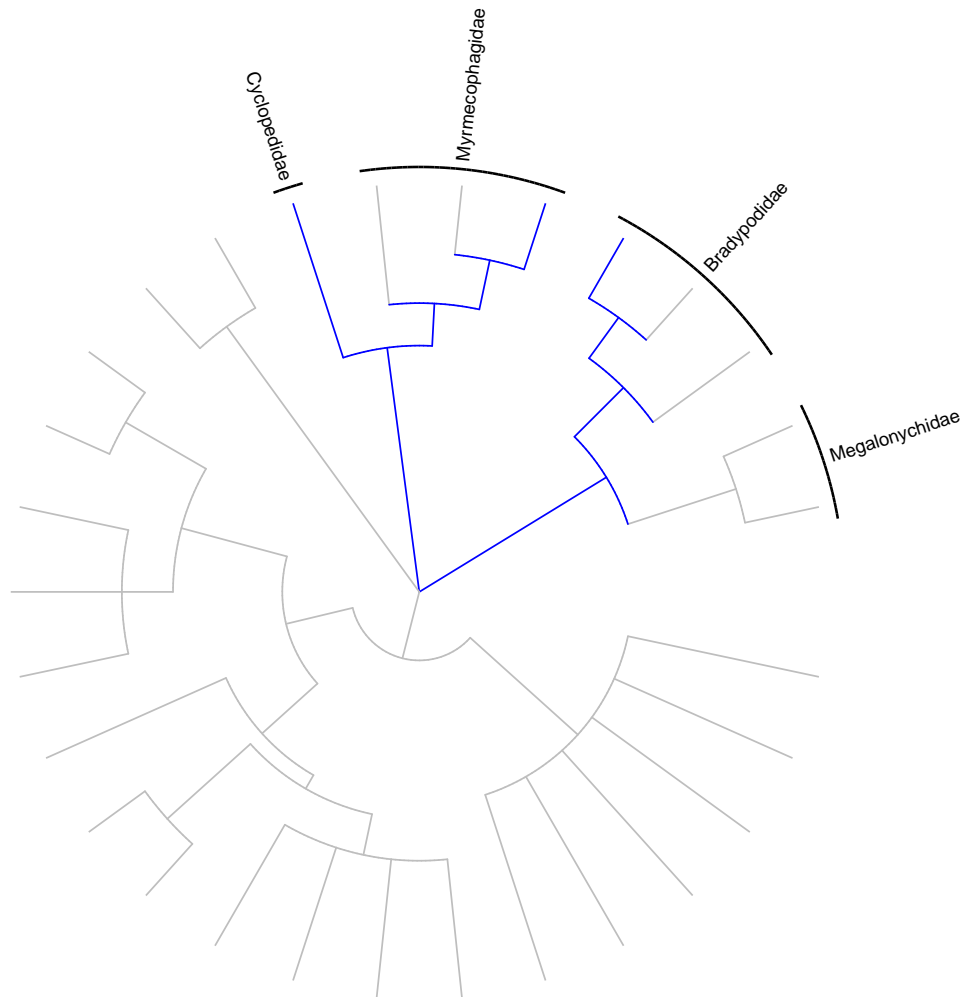


FIGURE A.8: Distribution of available morphological data across Pilosa. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

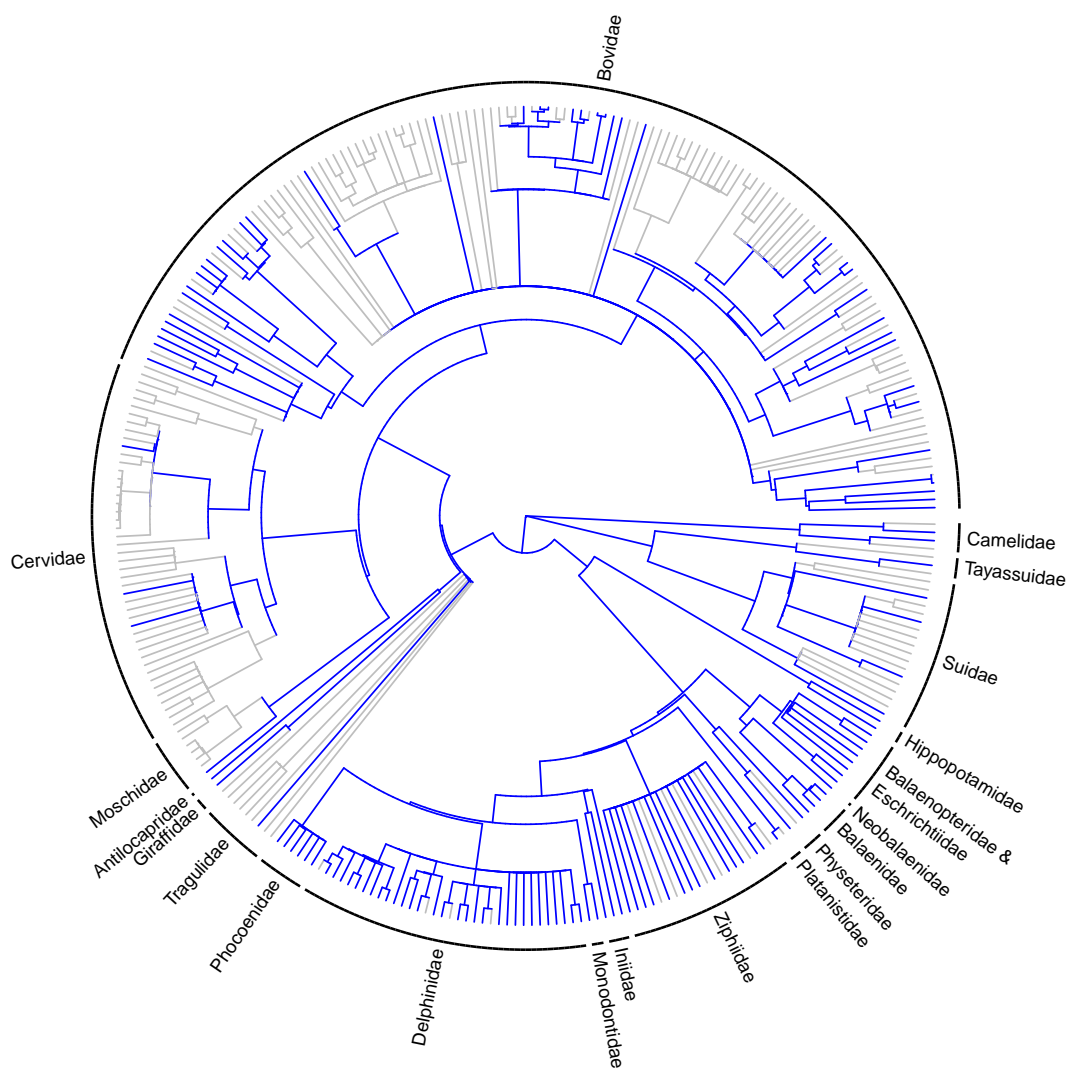


FIGURE A.9: Distribution of available morphological data across Cetartiodactyla. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

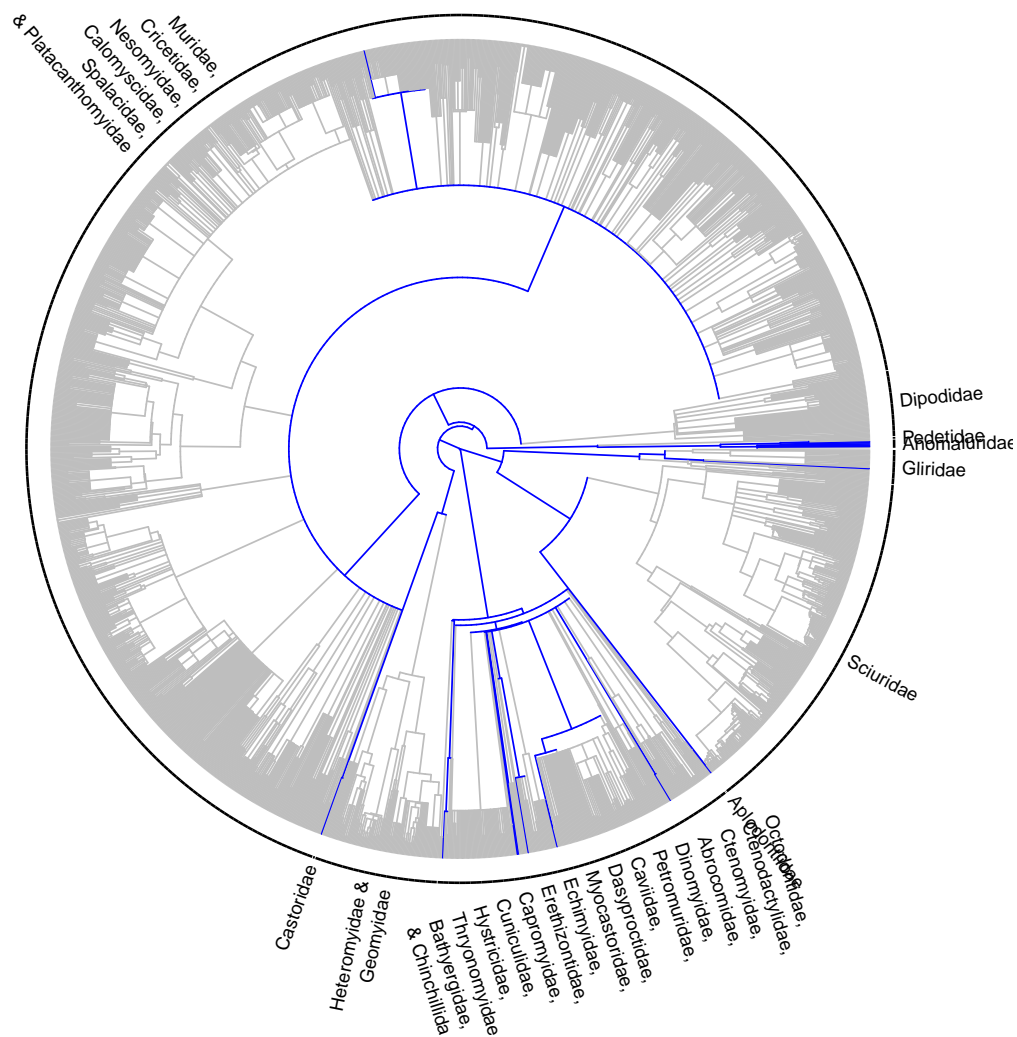


FIGURE A.10: Distribution of available morphological data across Rodentia. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

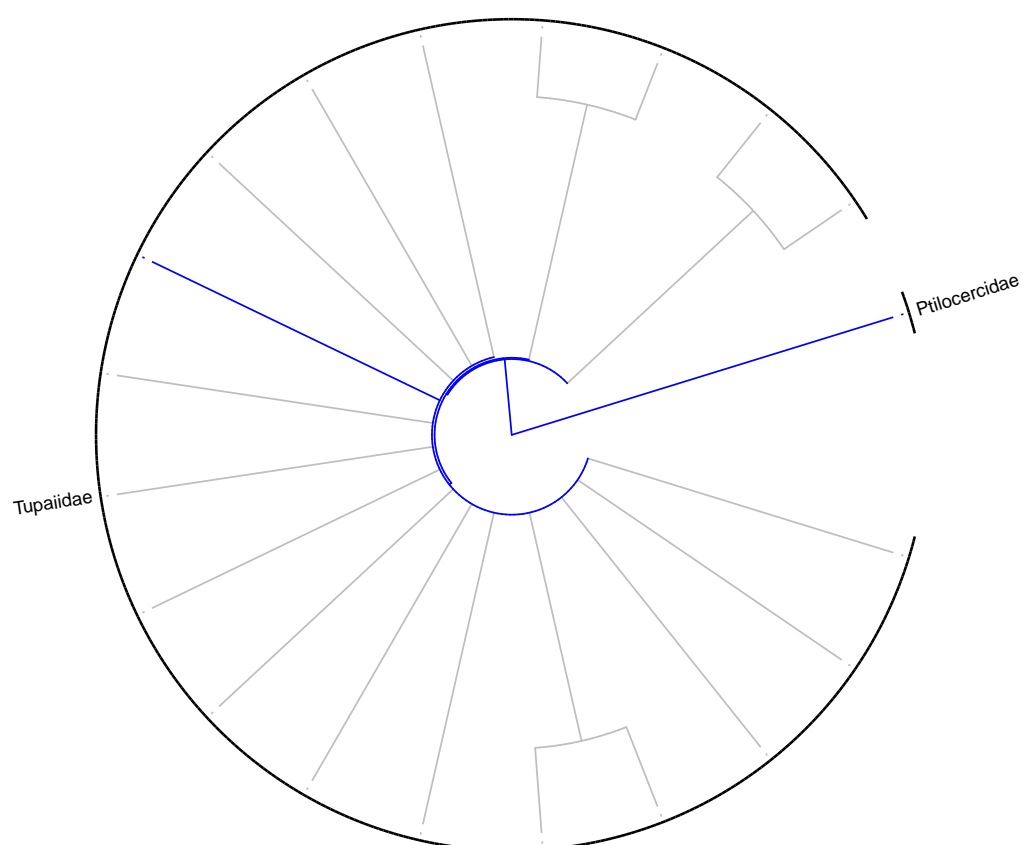


FIGURE A.11: Distribution of available morphological data across Scandentia. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.

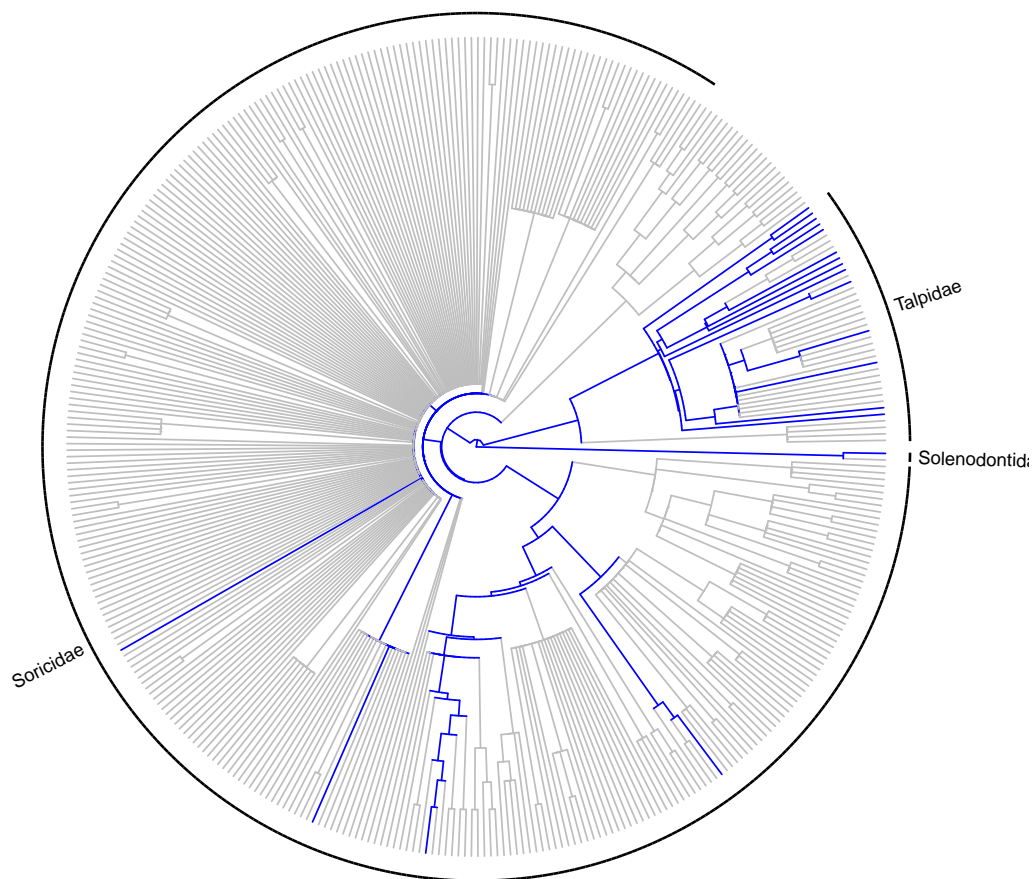


FIGURE A.12: Distribution of available morphological data across Soricomorpha. Edges are colored in grey when no morphological data is available or in blue when data is available.