Title: Bayesian and likelihood phylogenetic placement of fossil taxa from quantitative

- morphometric data **Authors:** Caroline Parins-Fukuchi **Journal:** PLoS Comp bio? Evolution?
- **Abstract:** Stuff and things
- Introduction: The role of fossil data in reconstructing phylogeny among living organisms has
- 5 long been a central, yet contentious, topic in evolutionary biology. One view has historically
- suggested that imperfections in the preservation and identification of fossils should preclude their
- 7 inclusion in phylogenetic inference, instead suggesting that fossils be placed into the stem
- 8 lineages of trees representing extant species (Hennig 1965). Other researchers have argued that
- 9 fossil information is fundamentally important when inferring evolutionary dynamics and
- relationships (Donoghue et al. 1989). Since this time, there has been significant interest in the
- simultaneous reconstruction of fossil and living organisms in a 'total evidence' framework.
- 12 Approaches based upon probabilistic models of molecular and morphological character that
- incorporate fossil taxa into the reconstruction of phylogenetic relationships and divergence times
- have increased understanding of evolutionary patterns across large clades, and provide
- 15 compelling evidence in favor of incorporating fossils in phylogenetic analyses (Pyron et al. 2011,
- 16 Ronquist et al. 2012, Zhang et al. 2015).
- A fundamental challenge when jointly estimating phylogeny between living and extinct
- organisms is the unavailability of molecular data in nearly all fossil taxa. As a result, there has
- been a need to explore the compatibility of molecular with morphological data to better
- 20 understand the capability of fossil and extant species to reciprocally inform reconstruction of the
- other's evolutionary patterns. Previous work has sought to determine whether the inclusion of
- molecular data representing extant species can improve the reconstruction of relationships among

fossils represented by morphology alone (Wiens 2009, 2010). The result of these studies suggest
that the inclusion of morphological characters comprising living and fossil species does not have
a tendency to decrease the accuracy of phylogenetic reconstructions, and can improve estimation
of fossil placements in well-behaved datasets. Expanding upon these observations, Berger and
Stamatakis (2010) have shown that methods placing fossils on fixed molecular phylogenies can
yield accurate results by filtering through conflicting signal. This demonstrations that placing
incomplete fossil data in a molecular context scaffolded by extant relationships can improve
reconstruction among fossils.

Researchers' enthusiasm for reconstructing a comprehensive tree of life has encouraged the integration of fossils with living taxa in phylogenetic analyses. Improving integration between fossil and living taxa has the capability to benefit both paleo- and neontological studies. In addition to the results of Berger and Stamatakis discussed above, the inclusion of fossils improves the reconstruction of ancestral states using phylogenetic comparative methods (Slater et al. 2012). As another example, increasing the rigor with which fossils are placed on phylogenies is expected to improve the accuracy and treatment of uncertainty in divergence time estimation (Guindon 2018).

Despite the abundance of both clear and subtle benefits to improving the integration of fossil and living taxa in phylogenetics, challenges have arisen from conflicting and noisy information presented by morphological data. The fragmentary sampling of fossil data further exacerbates this problem, and can lead to erratic results and high uncertainty in posterior estimates (Ronquist et al. 2016). Another issue that is noted by Berger and Stamatakis (cited above) stems from the reality that morphological alignments commonly contain very few sites, often 50-500, compared to molecular datasets, which can contain hundreds of thousands of sites. This can cause the

- likelihood of molecular partitions to dwarf those of morphological partitions, limiting the
- influence of morphology in reconstructions of topology and branch lengths. For these reasons,
- Berger and Stamatakis advocated fixing the relationships of extant taxa a priori using molecular
- reconstructions, and using the resulting scaffold to identify conflicting signal in morphological
- 50 data.
- Compounding upon challenges associated with their combination with molecular data, 51 morphological data themselves often exhibit major imperfections. These occur at multiple levels important to phylogenetic analysis. At one level, morphological data are frequently susceptible to displaying biased or misleading signal. This may often stem in part from the general practice of 54 assigning discrete character states to taxa through qualitative assessment. The subjective nature of this process can cause major irreconcilable disagreement between results achieved from different researchers (cite examples?). As an added layer of potential bias, these matrices are also 57 frequently filtered to include only characters that researchers consider before the fact to be accurately informative in phylogenetic reconstruction. At another level, the discrete character matrices most commonly employed in phylogenentics can often be difficult to adequately model. At present, researchers employing probabilistic methods generally use the so-called 'Mk' model 61 (Lewis 2001). This is a generalization of the Jukes-Cantor model of nucleotide substitution that accommodates k possible character states. Although previous work based upon simulated data has suggested that Mk-based approaches outperform parsimony (Wright and Hillis 2014, Puttick et al. 2017), the extent and conditions under which this is the case in empirical datasets is unclear (Goloboff et al. 2017). Emprical datasets are also likely to depart signficantly from the assumptions of the Mk model. The sensitivity of analyses to these violations is fairly unclear at present.

For all of these reasons, continuous traits have been suggested as a feasible alternative 69 (Felsenstein 1988, MacLeod 2001, Parins-Fukuchi 2017). Tools that quantify morphological size and shape have the capacity to alleviate many of the concerns relating to bias and subjectivity that occur with discrete characters. Approaches such as geometric morphometrics offer the potential to wholistically incorporate all dimensions of shape to inform phylogeny. The continuous state space of morphometric data might also increase the amount of information that can be extracted from morphological datasets, which may be beneficial when analyzing poorly-sampled fossil data. Traditional linear morphometric measurements have long been employed in morphological 76 phylogenetics, but are typically discretized to more easily analyze them alongside 77 present-absence data. However, these transformations may decrease the amount of information in continuous datasets by binning fine-scaled variation into shared discrete categories, and are susceptible to the difficulties in modelling under the Mk model described above. Geometric morphometric data have shown utility in several previous phylogenetic studies using 81 parsimony-based methods (González-José et al. 2008, Catalano and Goloboff 2010, Smith and Hendricks 2013), however, they have not gained substantial traction. This may be in part due to the lack of available tools to analyze continuous trait data in a probabilistic framework. The earliest studies investigating probabilistic methods of phylogenetic inference were 85 developed using continuous characters modelled under Brownian Motion (BM) (Cavalli-Sforza and Edwards 1967, Felsenstein 1973). Due in part to the abundant discrete character data that became available with the emergence of DNA sequencing, these approaches were quickly overshadowed in popularity by discrete trait approaches based upon Markov nucleotide substitution models. Continuous trait models have since gained significant popularity in phylogenetic comparative methods, but still are rarely used for phylogenetic inference. As a

result, few implementations exist, with only ContML in the PHYLIP package and RevBayes
providing such functionality (Hohna et al. 2016). The approaches used in these packages are also
fairly minimalistic, with no real tailoring to the challenges that might be presented by empirical
datasets.

In this paper, I describe a new set of approaches that place fossils on molecular trees using 96 quantitative characters modelled under BM. These methods seek to tackle some of the most pressing obstacles associated with the use of traditional and geometric morphometric data in phylogenetic inference. Using simulated data, I validate and explore the behavior of the implementation. I also analyze empirical datasets representing the Vitaceae family of flowering 100 plants and carnivoran mammals (Jones et al. 2015) comprised of traditional and geometric 101 morphometric measurements, respectively. These methods use Markov Chain Monte Carlo 102 (MCMC) to infer the evolutionary placements of fossils and branch lengths. Although MCMC is 103 generally associted with Bayesian inference, my implementation can perform inference both with 104 and without the use of priors. It is thus philosophically agnostic, and offers exploration of a 105 diverse range of options to best accommodate diverse morphometric datasets. 106

Methods and Materials:

108 Brownian motion model

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The approaches that I describe in this paper all rely upon the familiar BM model of evolution.

Under BM, traits are assumed to be multivariate distributed, with variances between taxa defined
by the product of their evolutionary distance measured in absolute time and the instantaneous rate
parameter (2):

$$dX(t) = \sigma dB(t); (Eqn.1)$$

where dX(t) is the time derivative of the change in trait X and dB(t) corresponding to normally distributed random variables with mean 0 and variance dt. This leads to the expectation that over time t,

$$E(X_t) = X_0; (Eqn.2)$$

116 with

$$Var(X_t) = \sigma t, (Eqn.3)$$

where X0 gives the trait value at t0.

The methods that I describe use a slightly different parameterization and likelihood calculation than most conventional implementations used in modern phylogenetic comparative methods (PCMs). These generally construct a variance-covariance (VCV) matrix from a dated, ultrametric phylogeny to calculate the likelihood of the data, assuming a multivariate normal distribution (see Felsenstein 1973 or O'Meara 2004 for a detailed explanation). Since these methods treat the topology and branching times as known, the goal is typically to obtain the maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of the rate parameter (2) to examine evolutionary rate across clades.

One drawback to the use of this version of the phylogenetic BM model in the reconstruction

of topology is its requirement that phylogenies be scaled to absolute time. Although it is possible to simultaneously estimate divergence times and topology while analyzing continuous traits, this can cause additional error and requires the specification of a tree prior that can accommodate non-ultrametric trees that include fossils. This requirement would also cause circularity in cases where researchers are interested in obtaining estimates and error in fossil placements in order to more rigorously inform molecular clock calibrations. To overcome the need for simultaneously

estimating divergence times and fossil placements, I estimate the product 2*t* together. As a result,
rate and absolute time become confounded. Branch lengths, which reflect the morphjological
disparity between taxa, are thus measured in units of morphological standard deviations per site.
This interpretation could be thought roughly of as a continuous analogue to the branch lengths
obtained from discrete substitution models. Similarly to the discrete case, long branch lengths
could reflect either a rapid rate of evolution or a long period of divergence (in absolute time)
along that lineage.

Calculation of the likelihood:

Rather than use the computationally expensive VCV likelihood calculation, I use the reduced maximum likelihood (REML) calculation described by Felsenstein (1973). This calculates the likelihood on the phylogenetic independent contrasts (PICs) using a 'pruning' algorithm.

143 Markov chain Monte Carlo:

This method uses a Metropolis-Hastings (MH) MCMC algorithm to simulate the posterior or confidence distribution of fossil insertion points along a fixed reference tree and branch lengths.

Rearrangements of the topological positions of fossil taxa are performed by randomly pruning and reinserting a fossil taxon to generate a proposal. This is a specific case of the standard subtree pruning and regrafting (SPR) move for unrooted tees that yields the MH proposal ratio:

EQN here

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Branch lengths are updated both individually and by randomly applying a multiplier to subclades of the tree. This uses a proposal that constrains branch lengths > 0, and uses the MH proposal ratio:

EQN here.

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Branch length priors:

Since the estimation of branch lengths from continuous traits is relatively uncharted territory in phylogenetics, I implemented and tested three different branch length priors derived from the molecular canon: 1) flat (uniform), 2) exponential, and 3) a compound dirichlet prior after Rannala et al. (2011). The compound dirichlet prior also offers an emprical Bayes option that uses an initial ML estimate of the branch lengths to specify the parameter corresponding to mean tree length.

161 Generating a rough ML starting tree:

To generate an initial estimate of fossil placements and branch lengths, I estimate an 162 approximate ML starting tree. Initial placements are achieved using stepwise addition. Each 163 fossil is individually inserted along all existing branches of the tree, with the insertion point that 164 yields the highest likelihood retained. At each step, MLEs of the branch lengths are computed 165 using the iterative procedure introduced by Felsensten (1981). In this procedure, the tree is 166 rerooted along each node. PICs are calculated to each of the three edges subtending the new root, 167 and then the MLE of each edge (vi) is computed analytically by averaging the distances between 168 the PICs calculated from each j of n sites in the character alignment (xij): 169

$$\hat{v}_{1j} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{1j} - x_{2j})(x_{1j} - x_{3j})}{n} (Eqn.4)$$

$$\hat{v}_{2j} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{2j} - x_{1j})(x_{2j} - x_{3j})}{n} (Eqn.5)$$

$$\hat{v}_{3j} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (x_{3j} - x_{1j})(x_{3j} - x_{2j})}{n} (Eqn.6)$$

This process is iterated by successively rerooting on each node of the tree and calculating the branch lengths until their values and the likelihoods converge. Felsenstein (1981) gives a more detailed explanation of the algorithm, along with a complete derivation of the three-taxon MLEs.

Once the optimal placement of all of the fossils has been identified, the branch lengths are 173 recalulated and can be used to inform branch length priors used during MCMC simulation. One problem with interpreting the results of the ML approach on their own is that it has a strong 175 propensity to becoming trapped in local optima. As a result, it should be used and interpreted cautiously in especially messy datasets. In the applications here, the topologies acheived from this 177 procedure are restricted to the construction of starting trees, while the branch lengths inform the 178 specification of branch length priors. This procedure allows straightforward construction of 179 non-random starting trees for the MCMC and priors that reflect the scale of the dataset under 180 analysis. 181

Filtering for concordant sites:

One major hurdle involved in the use of morphological data is their frequent tendency to 183 display noisy and discordant signal. This problem might be expected to manifest even more 184 intrusively in morphometric datasets than in discrete datasets, since traits are much less likely to 185 be excluded a priori on the basis of perceived unreliability. As a result, there is a need to filter 186 through noisy signal to favor more reliable sites. I developed a procedure adapted from Berger 187 and Stamatakis (2010) for this purpose. This computes a set of weights based upon the 188 concordance of each site with the reference tree. In this procedure, the likelihood (Lref) of each 189 site is calculated on the reference tree (excluding fossil taxa). Next, the likelihood (Ln) of each site is calculated along each n of 100 randomly generated phylogenies. If the likelihood of the site is higher along the reference tree than the current random tree, the weight of the site is incremented by one. Thus, site *j* recieves the integer weight:

$$\overrightarrow{W}_{j}^{int} = \sum_{n=1}^{100} \delta_n(Eqn.7)$$

where nj = 1 if:

$$L_{ref} > L_n(Eqn.8)$$

and nj = 0 if:

$$L_{ref} < L_n(Eqn.9)$$

This yields a weight vector that is the same length as the character matrix, with each site

possessing a weight between 0 and 100. The sites are then weighted using one of three schemes:

1) whole integer values, where the weight equals the value obtained from equation 7, 2) a floating

point value between 0 and 1, where the value generated from the random comparison is divided

by 100, and 3) a binary value where the weight is equal to 1 if the site displayed a higher

likelihood in the reference tree than 95 or more of the random trees, and 0 if less than 95:

$$\overrightarrow{W}_{j}^{binary} = 1$$

if

$$\overrightarrow{W}_j^{int} > 95$$

202 and

$$\overrightarrow{W}_{j}^{binary}=0$$

if

$$\overrightarrow{W}_{j}^{int}$$
95

In application, I found that integer weighting caused poor MCMC mixing, and so the floating 203 and binary schemes are probably most practical in most cases. Since it filters out discordant sites completely, the binary scheme is enforces a harsher penalty than the floating and integer schemes, 205 and so might be of greatest use in particularly noisy datasets. As an additional note, although 206 these procedures share similar terminology to the site weights calculated during parsimony 207 analysis of multistate characters, they differ in their purpose. Parsimony site weights are intended 208 to normalize the contribution of characters with differing state spaces to the overall tree length. In 209 contrast, the site weighting approach deployed here is designed to decrease the contribution of 210 sites that disagree with the reference topology to the overall tree likelihood, instead highlighting 211 signal that is taken to be more reliable. As a result, the guide tree is used to identify sites that are 212 most likely to reliably inform fossil placements. 213

214 Simulations:

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To explore the behavior of these approaches under different settings and to validate the 215 implementation, I performed a set of simulations. From a single simulated tree comprised, I 216 pruned five "fossil" taxa and estimated their positions along the tree using 100 datasets of 50 217 characters simulated under BM. The tree was simulated under a birth-death model, with a birth 218 parameter of 1.0 and a death parameter of 0.5. Extinct lineages were retained. The final tree 219 conained 41 taxa, leaving a 36-taxon reference tree when the five fossils were pruned. To explore the effect of conflicting and noisy signal, I also generated alignments consisting of 50 "clean" traits simulated along the true tree, and combined with partitions of "dirty" traits in intervals of 222 10, 25, and 50 generated along random trees. All simulations were performed using the phytools 223 packages in R (Revell 2012). 224

I restricted the simulations to a fairly small number of traits because this reflected a similar

alignment size as the two empirical datasets. This level of sampling is fairly common among existing morphometric datasets, which are typically compiled from only one or two organs. In the future, I am hopeful that quantitative morphometric datasets will increase in size to encompass 228 much broader sampling across organs, but at present, it seemed most sensible to examine the level of sampling expected from existing datasets. Unlike in a previous paper (Parins-Fukuchi 2017), I 230 also did not simulate traits that display covariance among sites. This is because 1) I show in the 231 previous study that covariance does not significantly handicap reconstructions from continuous 232 traits, and 2) because in this study I was primarily interested in examining the effect of inducing 233 random noise without the potentially confounding effect of covariance. Although covariance has 234 been expressed as a major concern in morphometric phylogenetics (Felsenstein 1988, 2001), there 235 is no reason to expect greater covariance between continuous traits than discrete traits, which, 236 ideally, should describe similar aspects of morphology. 237

These simulated datasets were then used to reconstruct the placements of the five fossils. To 238 explore the relative performance of weighting schemes, I performed reconstructions using both 239 the binary and floating approaches. These were supplemented by analyses of the noisy datasets 240 without applying site weights. MCMC simulations were run for 1,000,000 generations and 241 checked to ensure that the effective sample sizes (ESS) exceeded 200. The exponential branch 242 length prior was employed for the simulated data with a mean of 1.0. To evalute the accuracy of the placement method, I then calculated the distances between the true and reconstructed fossil placements. This was calculated by counting the number of nodes separating the true insertion branch from the reconstructed insertion branch. Placment accuracy was evaluted using the maximum a posteriori (MAP) summaries of tree distributions. MAP trees represent the single 247 most sampled tree during the MCMC run. They are thus somewhat analogous to ML trees in

presenting the point estimate that is assumed to have the highest asymptotic density over the likelihood or posterior (depending on paradigm) surface. Clade support values were also calculated. Tree summarization and placement distances were calculated using custom Python scripts.

Empirical analyses:

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I estimated the phylogenetic positions of fossils using a morphological matrix comprised of 254 51 continuous measurements gathered from pollen and seed specimens sampled across 147 extant 255 and 8 fossil Vitaceae taxa. These data were acquired from Chen (2009). I constructed a guide tree 256 for the extant taxa from 8 nuclear and chloroplast genes gathered from Genbank using the 257 PHLAWD system. Using this scaffolding, I analyzed the morphological data to estimate the 258 positions of the fossil taxa. Individual runs were performed under all three branch length priors to 259 assess stability across models. All analyses were run for 30,000,000 generations and visually 260 checked for convergence. Analyses were performed with binary weights applied to the sites and 261 compared to an unweighted analysis. To ensure that MCMC runs were not trapped in local 262 optima, several runs were performed under each combination of settings. For each, the analysis 263 with the highest mean likelihood was retained. 264

To explicitly test the informativeness of geometric morphometric data in fossil placement, I also performed analyses on a dataset of 33 landmark coordinates representing 46 extant and 5 extinct fossil carnivoran crania (Jones et al. 2015). A reference tree composed of the 46 extant taxa was obtained from the authors of the original study. These coordinates were subjeted to Procrustes transposition using MorphoJ. The resulting traits displayed phylogenetic signal, but the transformed coordinates showed very low dispersion (variance) on an absolute scale. This appeared to flatten the likelihood surface, causing difficulites in achieving MCMC convergence.

To remedy this, I scaled all of the traits to increase the absolute variance across taxa evenly at
each site while maintaining the original pattern of relative variances across taxa. This procedure
retained the phylogenetic signal in the dataset, since the relative distances between taxa remained
the same. Final analyses were performed on this transformed set of measurements. LIke with the
Vitaceae dataset, I analyzed the canid data under all three branch length priors. MCMC
simulations were run for 20,000,000 generations, and visually examined using Tracer v1.6 to
assess convergence. Both empirical datasets achieved large ESS values.

For both datasets, I used starting trees and branch lengths generated from the rough ML
method described above. Sites were weighted using the binary for the final analyses. Intermediate
analyses using unweighted and float-weighted sites were also performed, and are presented in the
data supplement. Dirichlet priors were assigned alpha parameters of 1.0 and beta parameters
specified as the total tree length of the ML starting tree. Exponential branch length priors were
assigned mean values of 1.0.

Since the empirical datasets were more complex than the simulated data, I summarized the
tree distibutions as maximum clade credibility (MCC) summaries. These summaries maximize
the support at each clade. These were compared to the MAP estimates, however, and yielded
generally concordant placements (supplementary material). MCC summaries were obtained using
the SumTrees script that is bundled with the DendroPy package (Sukumaran and Holder 2010).

Branch lengths were summarized as the mean across all sampled trees.

Software:

All analyses of fossil placements and branch lengths were performed using the new software package *cophymaru* written in the Go language. The source code is publicly available as free software at https://github.com/carolinetomo/cophymaru.

Results and Discussion

Simulations

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Reconstructions of fossil placements from the simulated datasets showed that the method is 297 generally accurate in placing fossil taxa (Table 1). In the absence of noisy traits, reconstruction is 298 nearly always correct, with the reconstructed position of each fossil placed less than 0.1 nodes 290 away from the true position on average. In the presence of random noise, the reconstructions are 300 fairly accurate, except when noise becomes severe. Nevertheless, even in extreme cases, estimated 301 positions tend to fall within the correct region of the tree, falling 1.85 and ~3 nodes away from the 302 correct placement on average when alignments contain an equal number of clean and dirty sites. 303 Overall, binary weighting shows improved accuracy over float and unweighted analyses. 304 However, despite the apparent advantage of binary weighting, it is possible that the float 305 weighting scheme could remain beneficial in cases where the distribution of noise varies betwen 306 different regions of trees. This is because the float weighting scheme limits the contribution of 307 noisy sites to the likelihood rather than entirely excluding them. This possibility was not 308 examined in this set of simulations, since the dirty traits were generated to reflect completely 309 random noise. However, in reality, noise may be structured to display. In these cases, continuous 310 traits may display misleading signal among some subset of taxa, but correctly informative signal among other subsets. Further work will be needed to determine whether absolute float weight values scale predictably with the noisiness of particular sites across clades.

Overall, the simulations demonstrate the efficacy of the method for the phylogenetic
placement of fossils and provide a validation of the computational implementation. The analysis
of clean datasets shows that the method performs well, estimating fossil placements with very low
error when signal is clear. The adaptation of Berger and Stamatakis' (2010) site weight

calibration approach also appears to effectively filter through noisy datasets to improve estimation. The binary weight calibrations appear particularly effective at dealing with rampant misleading random noise, with improving accuracy by 2 to 20 times depending on the relative 320 proportion of signal and noise compared to unweighted analyses. These results show promise 32 toward the prospect of applying the method developed in this work to the analysis of large-scale 322 morphometric datasets, where significant noise might be expected. Although introducing noise to 323 unweighted analyses decreases reconstruction accuracy, the method performs predictably, and 324 still manages to place fossils on average within the correct neighborhood. However, when 325 weighting schemes are applied, the performance improves drastically, highlighting the promise of 326 this method for the analysis of empirical datasets. 327

[]@llll@ dataset binary_weights float_weights unweighted50 clean 0.065 0.067 0.06550 clean + 10 dirty 0.156 1.234 2.51650 clean + 25 dirty 0.965 2.623 3.10550 clean + 50 dirty

1.85 3.069 RUNNING

Table 1. Mean distances of true and reconstructed fossil placements. Distances are measured
as the average number of nodes separating reconstructed placements from their true positions
across all 100 replicates of each dataset.

Vitaceae dataset:

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Application of the fossil placement method to the Vitaceae dataset showed generally positive results. The weight calibration procedure revealed substantial noise in the dataset, with 10-12 of 51 sites failing to favor the molecular reference tree over the random trees at least 95% of the time across all runs. Despite this noise, the binary weighting scheme appeared to adequately filter through this noise to generate biologically reasonable results. *Vitis tiffneyi*,

Parthenocissus_clarnensis, and Ampelopsis rooseae all share clades with the extant members of

their respective genera. *Palaeovitis_paradoxa*, and *Cissocarpus jackesiae*, which represent genera
with no extant species, both group confidently with separate, non-monophyletic groups of crown *Cissus. Ampelocissus wildei* is placed convidently along with crown *Cissus*, separated by only a

node from *Palaeovitis paradoxa*. All six of these taxa are stable in their placements, grouping

within the same clades across runs, and when both the exponential and empirical compound

dirichlet priors are applied.

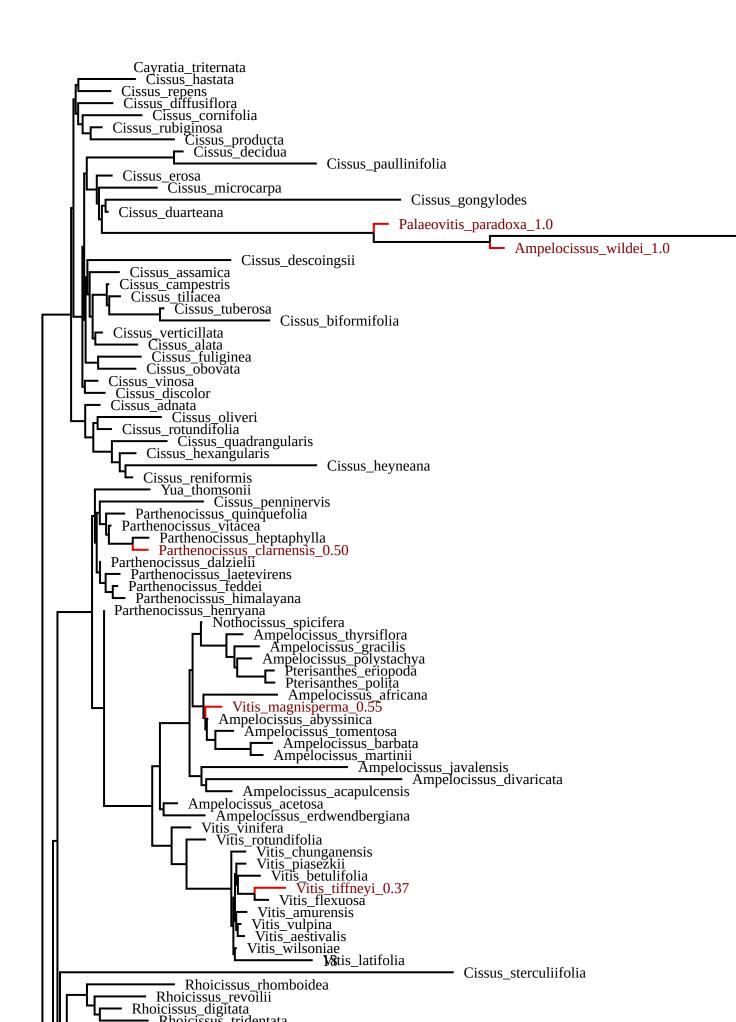


Figure 1. Vitaceae fossil placements inferred under the exponential branch length prior.

Fossil taxa and branches are highlighted in red. Values following fossil tip labels indicate

posterior support for placement. Topology is summarized from the posterior using the set of

maximally credible clades (MCC).

/home/tomo/projects/fossil_placement/vitfigdirichlet.pdf

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Figure 2. NEED TO REDO Vitaceae fossil placements inferred under the compound dirichlet
branch length prior. Fossil taxa and branches are highlighted in red. Values following fossil tip
labels indicate posterior support for placement. Topology is summarized from the posterior using
the set of maximally credible clades (MCC).

The remaining two fossils are substantially less stable in their placements. *Ampelocissus*parvisemina shows erratic placement, alternately occupying clades shared by crown *Vitis* or

Nekemias in the best exponential and dirichlet prior runs, respectively. Its placement also changes

across different runs using the same prior, and shows poor support in all cases. Under the

exponential prior, the *Ampelocissus parvisemina* placement shows a 0.2 posterior probability,

which decreases to 0.058 under the dirichlet prior. Similarly, *Vitis magnisperma* alternately

resolves into clades shared by crown *Cissus* and *Ampelocissus* under the exponential and dirichlet

priors, with posterior support values of 0.23 and 0.54, respectively.

Despite the potential frustration caused by the erraticism of the last two taxa, the low posterior support exhibited by their placements is reassuring. In many cases, fossils may simply present weak information due to shortcomings in geologic and taxonomic sampling. When this is occurs, it is unlikely that any greater certainty in their placement can be achieved except with increased

data. Therefore, one major benefit to the approach described here is the honesty and clarity with which it describes uncertainty in the placement of fossils. Importantly, such uncertainty revealed by analysis under this method may improve the utility of erratic fossils. For instance, while such 371 fossils are often ommitted from analysis due to perceived unreliability, this approaches described here demonstrate more clearly the confidence and uncertainty surrounding a reconstructed set of 373 possible placements. This uncertainty may allow the fossils to participate in node calibration for 374 molecular dating using new methods that accommodate uncertainty in calibration placement 375 (Heath et al. 2014, Guindon 2018). Since the present analyses quantify the uncertainty in fossil 376 placements, this information may be used to construct non-arbitrary, true Bayesian priors on node 377 ages. 378

Carnivoran dataset:

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Analysis of the carnivoran dataset also yielded generally reasonable results. The placements 380 of Piscophoca pacifica, Acrophoca longirostris, Enaliarctos emlongii, and Allodesmus agree with 381 previous results (Amson and Muison 2013, Jones et al. 2015). The placement of *Piscophoca* 382 pacifica and Acrophoca longirostris differs slightly from the topology used by Jones et al., 383 placing the two taxa in a more nested position. However, this placement is consistent with the 384 results of Amson and Muison. Enaliarctos emlongii and Allodesmus resolve in positions identical 385 to the topology used by Jones and colleagues. *Pontolis magnus* is more erratic in its placement, alternating between placement at the center of the unrooted topology, or grouping erroneously 387 with Vulpes and Otocyon. Nevertheless, like the problem taxa in the Vitaceae example above, the 388 placement of *Pontolis* displays reassuringly weak support, both in terms of its posterior density 389 and in its tendency to group at the center of the tree. Interestingly, although the placements of 390 Enaliarctos emlongii and Allodesmus remain stable across runs, both display weak support. 39

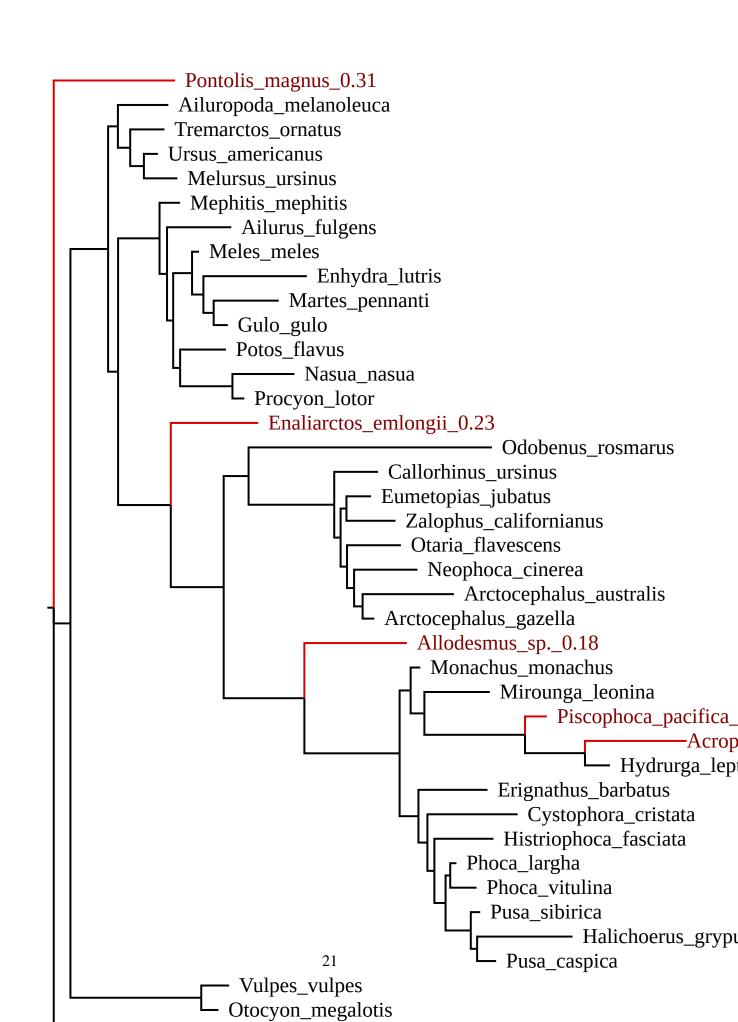


Figure 3. Fossil placements inferred from the carnivoran dataset using the compound
Dirichlet prior. Placements are displayed as the maximum clade credibility summary of the
posterior distribution of trees. Branch lengts represent morphological disparity. Values trailing
fossil tip names display posterior support.

In both datasets, placement under the exponential branch length prior yields conservative 397 estimates of uncertainty in the fossil placements, displaying generally low posterior support, 398 except when placements are exceptionally stable such as with *Ampelocissus wildei*. This is 399 especially important in 'rogue' taxa such as Vitis magnisperma. Confusingly, branch support 400 under the compound dirichlet prior is significantly higher across all fossils in the Vitaceae dataset. 401 The positions of the six taxa with stable behavior (listed above) do not change significantly under 402 the compound dirichlet compared to the exponential prior. Closer examination is needed to better 403 determine the sensitivity of posterior support measures to prior choice observed in Vitaceae. The 404 carnivoran dataset does not exhibit the same behavior, with both branch support and fossil 405 placements stable across priors. 406

Moving forward, it will be important to explore the behavior of this method when applied to
morphometric data collected under a variety of approaches and sampling schemes. The success of
the weight calibrations on the simulated and empirical datasets suggests the possibility of
applying the method to very large morphometric datasets by providing a means to filter through
the noise that may occur in datasets sampled densely across taxa and organs. Such a framework
would facilitate the development of a more data-centric approach to morphological phylogenetics
that reduces common sources of bias in morphological datasets. This would encourage an
exploration of conflict and concordance in signal through quantitative data analysis rather than by
attempting to filter during the stage of data collection.. They provide a means to move forward,

and should encourage the development and exploration of more data sources to determine the most effective means to inform phylogeny using morphometry.

Conclusions:

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The methods described here provides a new means for biologists to reliably and confidently place fossils in the tree of life. Although the simulated and empirical analyses show several 420 imperfections and a need for further refinement of these methods, the overall accuracy and 421 conservative assessment of uncertainty displayed in the examples appear encouraging. As 422 molecular phylogenetics advances in its use of genomic data to andser fundamental questions 423 across the tree of life, it will be important for morphological phylogenetics and paleontology to 424 keep pace. Analysis of morphometric data using the approach shown here will help to improve 425 issues surrounding subjectivity in character collection, and will help morphological datasets to 426 scale better in the genomic era. New advances in the collection of morphometric data, combined 427 with refinements to the approach developed here will better equip morphology to speak to major 428 outstanding questions across the tree of life. 429