

# How cryptic is cryptic diversity? Machine learning approaches to plastral variation in *Emys marmorata*.

Peter D Smits <sup>\*1</sup>, Kenneth D Angielczyk <sup>†2</sup>, and James F Parham <sup>‡3</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Committee on Evolution Biology, University of Chicago

<sup>2</sup>Department of Geology, Field Museum of Natural History

<sup>3</sup>Department of Geological Sciences, California State University – Fullerton

July 1, 2013

## Abstract

2

## 1 Introduction

4 Cryptic diversity is when taxa were only first delimited via molecular means and were not or cannot delimited via morphological identification  
6 CITATION. The discovery of this previously unknown diversity has

8 Here, we address the question of how much of cryptic diversity may be a product of sample size as well as methodology used for classifying taxa based solely on morphology. Specifically, we ask if fine scale variation in morphology

---

\*psmits@uchicago.edu

†kangielczyk@fieldmuseum.org

‡jparham@fullerton.edu

10 can provide corroboration for subspecific assignment, and if it is possible to  
determine the best classification hypothesis amongst a few.

12 In this study, we address the subspecific classification scheme of *Emys*  
*marmorata*, or western pond turtle. *E. marmorata* has a distribution from  
14 northern Washington State, USA to Baja California, Mexico. Traditionally,  
*E. marmorata* was classified into three subgroups: the northern *E. marmorata*  
16 *marmorata*, the southern *E. marmorata palida*, and a central Californian  
intergrade zone (Seeliger, 1945). More recently, *E. marmorata* was divided  
18 into four subgroups based on mitochondrial DNA: a northern clade, a southern  
clade, and two central Californian clades (Spinks and Shaffer, 2005, 2009).

20 In this study, we apply multiple machine learning approaches to esti-  
mate the best classification scheme of *E. marmorata* subspecies based on  
22 morphological variation in plastral shape.

## 2 Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Specimens

24 We collected morphometric data from 524 specimens. Geographic information  
was recorded from museum collection information. When precise latitude and  
26 longitude information was not known for a specimen, it was inferred from  
whatever locality information was presented.

28 Specimens were given a class assignment was based on geographic informa-  
tion. Because the exact geographic barriers between different class is unknown  
and fuzzy, two assignments for both morphological and molecular hypotheses  
30 of class were used.  
32

### 2.2 Geometric morphometrics

34 Following Angielczyk et al. (2011), 19 landmarks were digitized using TpsDig  
2.04 (Rohlf, 2005). 17 of these landmarks are at the endpoints or intersection  
36 of the keratinous plastral scutes that cover the plastron. These landmarks were  
chosen to maximize the description of plastral variation. 12 of these landmarks  
38 are symmetrical across the axis of symmetry and in order to prevent degrees  
of freedom and other concerns (Klingenberg et al., 2007), these landmarks  
40 were reflected across the axis of symmetry and the average position of each  
symmetrical pair was used. In cases where damage or incompleteness prevented

42 symmetric landmarks from being determined, only the single member of the  
pair was used. Analysis was then conducted on the resulting “half” plastra.  
44 “Half” plastral landmark configurations were superimposed using general-  
ized Procrustes analysis (Dryden and Mardia, 1998) after which, the principal  
46 components of shape were calculated. This was done using the `shapes` package  
for R (Dryden, 2013; R Core Team, 2013).

## 48 **2.3 Machine learning analyses**

### **2.3.1 Unsupervised learning**

50 Because shape space, or configurations after Procrustes superimposition, is a  
Riemannian manifold (Dryden and Mardia, 1998) the dissimilarity between  
52 each landmark configuration was measured as the Riemannian shape distance  
(Dryden and Mardia, 1998) AND KENDALL CITATION.

54 The dissimilarity matrix of shape was divisively clustering using partitioning  
around medoids (PAM) which is analogous to  $k$ -means clustering except that  
56 instead of minimizing the sum of squared Euclidean distances between obser-  
vations and centroids, the sum of squared dissimilarities between observations  
58 and medoids is minimized CITATION.

The optimal number of clusters of shape configurations is unknown being  
60 possibly three, four, or some other unknown. Clustering solutions were esti-  
mated for between 1 and 40 clusters. Clustering solutions were compared using  
62 the gap statistic, which is a measure of goodness of clustering CITATION.

PAM clustering and gap statistic calculation was conducted using the  
64 `cluster` package for R (Maechler et al., 2013).

### **2.3.2 Supervised learning**

66 The dataset of 524 plastron landmarks was split into training and testing  
datasets. The former was used for model fitting (training) and was 75% of the  
68 total dataset, split proportionally per class, while the testing dataset was used  
to estimate the effectiveness of each classification scheme (i.e. performance in  
70 the wild).

Two types of supervised learning, or classification, models were fit to  
72 the PCs of plastral shape: multinomial logistic regression and random forest.  
These model types were chosen because of various properties of these models  
74 which allow for useful interpretations about the strength and structure of the

classification. Multinomial logistic regression models were fit using the `nnet` package for R (Venables and Ripley, 2002) while random forest models were fit using the `randomForest` package for R (Liaw and Wiener, 2002).

Multinomial logistic regression is an extension of logistic regression, where instead of a binary response it is possible to have three or more response classes CITATION. Effectively, this type of model can be viewed as multiple, simultaneous logistic regression models for each class and the final classification of the observation being the most probable of all the sub-model classifications. From the final model the relative risk of a given classification, with reference to a given class, can be calculated from the coefficients of the features, or predictors. This is similar to the log-odds calculated from the coefficients of a logistic regression.

Random forest models are an extension of classification and regression trees (CART) CITATION. Basically, CARTs are built for random subsamples of both the features of the proposed model and observations. This process is repeated many times, 1000 times here, and the final model is chosen as the mode of the parameter estimates from the distribution of CARTs CITATION. In addition to fitting a classification model, this procedure allows for the features to be ranked in order of importance, means that the variables most important for determining a given classification scheme can be estimated. In the context of predicting class from geometric morphometric data, this identifies the PCs that describe the variation that best distinguishes the different classes.

In order to prevent over fitting each machine learning model, tuning parameters were estimated using 10-fold cross-validation (CV) across a grid search of all tuning parameter combinations. Optimal tuning parameter values were selected based on area under the receiver operating characteristic curve (AUC ROC). Multiclass AUC ROC was estimated using the all-against one strategy derived by Hand and Till (2001) in implemented in PROC PACKGE.

For the multinomial logistic regression models, PCs were added sequentially in order to increase the overall amount of variation in shape included in each model and the final model was that with the lowest AICc (Burnham and Anderson, 2002) AKAIKE AND OTHER CITATION. This procedure was used because the optimal number of PCs to include is unknown, and while including all of the PCs of shape would mean that all of the variability in plastron shape would be used to estimate class, this may cause the model to be over fit and not provide an accurate estimate of unsampled plastral variation. The maximum number of PCs allowed to be used as predictors was

10 because of both the number of parameters estimated per model and the  
114 necessary sample size needed to estimate that many parameters accurately.

Because random forest models are not fit using maximum likelihood, a  
116 recursive feature selection algorithm was used to choose the optimal number  
of PCs to include based on the AUC ROC of the model. PCs were sequentially  
118 added as features until the AUC ROC of the model did not increase. After  
each PC was added, 10-fold CV was used to estimate the optimal values  
120 of the tuning parameters as well as quantify the uncertainty of each model.  
Like the multinomial logistic regression models, 10 was the maximum number  
122 of PCs that could have been included in the model. The recursive feature  
selection algorithm used here is that implemented in the `caret` package for  
124 R (Kuhn, 2013).

The final selected models were then used to estimate the class assignments  
126 of the training dataset. Model performance was measured using AUC ROC. A  
distribution of AUC ROC values were estimated for each classification scheme  
128 using 1000 nonparametric bootstrap resamples of the training dataset.

## 3 Results

### 130 3.1 Geometric morphometrics

### 3.2 Machine learning analyses

#### 132 3.2.1 Unsupervised learning

#### 3.2.2 Supervised learning

## 134 4 Discussion

## Acknowledgements

136 PDS would like to thank David Bapst, Michael Foote, Benjamin Frable, and  
Dallas Krentzel for useful discussion which enhanced the quality of this study.

## 138 **References**

- 140 Angielczyk, K. D., C. R. Feldman, and G. R. Miller. 2011. Adaptive evolution of plastron shape in emydine turtles. *Evolution* 65:377–394.
- 142 Burnham, K. P., and D. R. Anderson. 2002. Model selection and multi-model inference: a practical information-theoretic approach. 2nd ed. Springer, New York.
- 144 Dryden, I. L. 2013. shapes: Statistical shape analysis. R package version 1.1-8.
- 146 Dryden, I. L., and K. Y. Mardia. 1998. Statistical shape analysis. Wiley, New York.
- 148 Hand, D. J., and R. J. Till. 2001. A Simple Generalisation of the Area Under the ROC Curve for Multiple Class Classification Problems. *Machine Learning* 45:171–186.
- 150 Klingenberg, C. P., M. Barluenga, and A. Meyer. 2007. Shape analysis of symmetric structures: quantifying variation among individuals and asymmetry. *Evolution* 56:1909–1920.
- 154 Kuhn, M. 2013. caret: Classification and Regression Training. R package version 5.15-61.
- 156 Liaw, A., and M. Wiener. 2002. Classification and regression by randomforest. *R News* 2:18–22.
- 158 Maechler, M., P. Rousseeuw, A. Struyf, M. Hubert, and K. Hornik. 2013. cluster: Cluster Analysis Basics and Extensions. R package version 1.14.4.
- 160 R Core Team. 2013. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria.
- 162 Rohlf, F. J. 2005. TpsDig 2.04.
- Seeliger, L. M. 1945. Variation in the Pacific Mud Turtle. *Copeia* 1945:150–159.
- 166 Spinks, P. Q., and H. B. Shaffer. 2005. Range-wide molecular analysis of the western pond turtle (*Emys marmorata*): cryptic variation, isolation by distance, and their conservation implications. *Molecular ecology* 14:2047–64.

- 168 ———. 2009. Conflicting mitochondrial and nuclear phylogenies for the  
widely disjunct *Emys* (Testudines: Emydidae) species complex, and what  
170 they tell us about biogeography and hybridization. *Systematic biology*  
58:1–20.
- 172 Venable, W. N., and B. D. Ripley. 2002. *Modern Applied Statistics with S*.  
4th ed. Springer, New York.