

1 The error in Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction
2 when speciation is not instantaneous

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7 **Abstract**

8 The tools for reconstructing phylogenetic relationships between taxo-
9 nomic units (e.g. species) have become very advanced in the last three
10 decades. Among the most popular tools are Bayesian approaches, such as
11 BEAST, MrBayes and RevBayes, that use efficient tree sampling routines
12 to create a posterior probability distribution of the phylogenetic tree. A
13 feature of these approaches is the possibility to incorporate known or hy-
14 pothesized structure of the phylogenetic tree through the tree prior. It
15 has been shown that the effect of the prior on the posterior distribution
16 of trees can be substantial.

17 Currently implemented tree priors assume that speciation is instantane-
18 ous, where we know that speciation can be a gradual process.

19 Here we explore the effects of ignoring the protractedness of the spe-
20 ciation process with an extensive simulation study.

21 We compare the inferred tree to the simulated tree, and find that ...

22 **Keywords:** computational biology, evolution, phylogenetics, Bayesian anal-
23 ysis, tree prior

24 1 Introduction

25 The computational tools that are currently available to the phylogeneticists
26 go beyond the wildest imagination of those living four decades ago. Advances
27 in computational power allowed the first cladograms to be inferred from DNA
28 alignments in 1981 (Felsenstein 1981), and the first Bayesian tools emerged in
29 1996 (Rannala & Yang 1996), providing unprecedented flexibility in the setup
30 of a phylogenetic model.

31 Currently, the most popular Bayesian phylogenetics tools are
32 BEAST (Drummond & Rambaut 2007) and its offshoot BEAST2 (Bouckaert
33 *et al.* 2014), MrBayes (Huelsenbeck & Ronquist 2001) and RevBayes (Höhna
34 *et al.* 2016). They allow to incorporate known or hypothesized structure of a
35 phylogenetic tree-to-be-inferred through model priors. With these priors and
36 an alignment of DNA, RNA or protein sequences, they create a sample of the
37 posterior distribution of phylogenies and parameter estimates (of the models
38 used as a prior), in which more probable combinations are represented more
39 often. Each of these tools use efficient tree sampling routines to rapidly create
40 an informative posterior.

41 The model priors in Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction can be grouped
42 into three categories: (1) site model, specifying nucleotide substitutions, (2)
43 clock model, specifying the rate of mutation per lineage in time, and (3) tree
44 model, constituting the speciation model underlying branching events (specia-
45 tion) and branch termination (extinction). The choice of site model (Posada &
46 Buckley 2004), clock model (Baele *et al.* 2012) or tree prior (Möller *et al.* 2018;
47 Yang & Rannala 2005) is known to affect the posterior.

48 Current phylogenetic tools use tree priors that assume speciation is instan-
 49 taneous, whilst we know that, speciation is often a gradual process (Schluter
 50 2009). The (constant-rate) birth-death (BD) model is a commonly used tree
 51 prior, but it ignores this temporal aspect of speciation. The protracted birth-
 52 death (PBD) model, an extension of the BD model, does incorporate the idea
 53 that speciation takes time. In this model, a branching event does not give rise
 54 to a new species, but to a new species-to-be, called an incipient species. Such an
 55 incipient species may go extinct, finish its speciation to become a good species,
 56 or give rise to new incipient species. Protracted speciation may explain observed
 57 declines in lineage accumulation (Etienne & Rosindell 2012).

58 Unfortunately, a tree prior according to this model, providing the probability
 59 of a species tree under the PBD model, is unavailable in current Bayesian phy-
 60 logenetic tools. Whilst an approximate formula for this probability has been
 61 derived (Lambert *et al.* 2015) and the approximation is very good (Simonet
 62 *et al.* 2018), it has not been implemented as tree prior yet. There are various
 63 reasons for this. First, the computation of this probability involves solving a set
 64 of non-linear differential equations, and while this computation is quite fast, it
 65 still takes much more time than the corresponding probability of the BD model
 66 which is a simple analytical formula. In a Bayesian MCMC chain, the tree
 67 prior probability must be calculated many times, and hence the total compu-
 68 tation will take considerably longer with a PBD tree prior. Furthermore, the
 69 approximate probability is a probability for the species tree assuming an under-
 70 lying incipient species tree. It can be safely used as tree prior when only one
 71 individual per species is sampled, but if one has multiple samples per species
 72 - which is currently often the case - the methods to account for this such as
 73 the multi-species coalescent (Heled & Drummond 2009) may not be compatible
 74 with the underlying incipient species tree. More precisely, the phylogeny under

75 the PBD model may contain paraphylies, while the multi-species coalescent was
 76 developed exactly to avoid these by explaining them as arising from incomplete
 77 lineage sorting. Because of these paraphylies there is no such thing as a true
 78 species tree in the PBD model. To get a species-level tree one must sample one
 79 incipient species per species. Which incipient species is sampled may therefore
 80 have an impact on the species tree.

81 Here we aim to explore the effect of using the BD prior on PBD simulated
 82 phylogenies, taking into account possible sampling effects. In brief, we simulate
 83 protracted phylogenies using the PBD process, from which we sample a species
 84 tree in two very different ways. Given this species tree, we simulate a DNA
 85 sequence alignment. Then, we use BEAST2 on these alignments to infer a pos-
 86 terior of phylogenies, using a BD prior. We quantify the difference between the
 87 (BD) posterior phylogenies and the simulated (PBD) species tree. Furthermore,
 88 while we evidently know the clock and site models used in the simulation, us-
 89 ing a different clock and/or site model prior in inference may compensate or
 90 increase this difference between inferred and simulated tree. To study this, we
 91 also explore the effect of a different clock and site model prior in inference.

92 The PBD model has five biological parameters, depicted in table 2, which we
 93 explore in a factorial fashion, excluding - for computational reasons - the combi-
 94 nations in which the 95% quantile of the expected number of good species is more
 95 than 1250. This quantile is calculated with the `pbm_numspec_quantile` function
 96 we added to the PBD package (Etienne 2015). [RSE: I think we should re-
 97 lease the new version with this function with this manuscript] [RJCB:
 98 I would personally prefer 'release early, release often', but as lead
 99 maintainer you get to decide] [RSE: Do you want to put the deriva-
 100 tion here?] [RJCB: No, as you've added it to the PBD::pbm_geom
 101 and PBD::pbm_numspec_quantile) documentation, so I will transfer

102 **it. Thanks!]** This calculation assumes $b = b_g = b_i$, we used $b = \max(b_g, b_i)$.
103 We use 1000 good species as a threshold, to prevent overly taxon-poor and
104 taxon-rich phylogenies respectively. The parameter values chosen are based on
105 the parameter sets used by Etienne *et al.* 2014, as these parameters were shown
106 to result in reasonably sized phylogenies and using the same set allows us to
107 compare results. We use a set of speciation initiation rates, $B = \{0.3, 0.5\}$, of
108 which the speciation initiation rate of good species $b_g \in B$ and incipient species
109 $b_i \in B$. **[RSE: your units are not entirely correct, as these are prob-**
110 **ability rates.] [RJCB: I (perhaps naively) think I am correct in my**
111 **units. If I am wrong, what are the correct units then? In Etienne**
112 **and Rosindell 2012, there is never 'probability rate' written. To be**
113 **explicit, I think this sentence is valid: the extinction rate of good**
114 **species, μ_g has an expected 1.2 extinction events per time unit.**
115 **What would be the better unit?]** **[RSE: Je hebt het over de eenheden**
116 **van de rates. Dat is subtiel omdat het om een stochastisch model gaat**
117 **en dus om kansen. Voorbeeld: $\mu * dt$ is de kans op een extinction**
118 **event per species in een tijdsinterval dt . $1/\mu$ geeft de verwachte**
119 **tijd tot een extinctie event van een soort. μ is dus een probability**
120 **rate.] [RJCB: 'mu is dus een probability rate' with what unit? You**
121 **can redirect me to an article with the proper wording, or finish this**
122 **sentence: 'the extinction rate of good species, μ_g ...'. Thanks!]**
123 The speciation completion rates we use are $\lambda = 0.1, 0.3, 1.0$ and 10^9 . We use
124 $10^9 \approx \infty$ to mimic the BD model, because the PBD model reduces to the BD
125 model for $\lambda = \infty$. This allows us to measure the baseline error, which is the
126 difference between inferred tree and true species tree that arises purely due to
127 noise because the generating model and the model used in inference are identical
128 in this case. We use a set of extinction rates, $M = \{0.0, 0.1, 0.2, \infty\}$, of which

129 the extinction rate of good species $\mu_g \in M$ and incipient species $\mu_i \in M$.

130 From each biological parameter set, we simulate a protracted birth-death
131 tree, using the PBD package (Etienne 2015) in the R programming language (R
132 Core Team 2013), all with a crown age of 15 million years as used in Etienne
133 *et al.* 2014. Each protracted birth-death tree uses a different random number
134 generator seed, which makes all runs independent, resulting in a balanced data
135 set.

136 From each incipient species tree, we construct a species tree, by sampling one
137 incipient/good species per good species. For example, when an incipient species
138 branched off from its mother lineage, both of these subspecies are recognized
139 as representing the species, and hence both can be picked as an (equally good)
140 representative of the species. Here, we use three sampling scenarios, in which
141 we pick the representative randomly or in such a way that this results in either
142 the shortest or longest branch lengths. See the supplementary information for
143 a visualization of these sampling methods. Based on the sampled species tree,
144 we simulate a DNA alignment that has the same history as this species tree,
145 using the **phangorn** package (Schliep 2011). We set the nucleotides of the DNA
146 alignment to follow a Jukes-Cantor (Jukes *et al.* 1969) nucleotide substitution
147 model, in which all nucleotide-to-nucleotide transitions are equally likely. The
148 DNA sequence of the root ancestor consists of four equally sized single-nucleotide
149 blocks of adenine, cytosine, guanine and thymine respectively. For example, for
150 a DNA sequence length of 12, this would be AAACCCGGGTTT. The order
151 of nucleotides does not matter in this study, because we do not consider several
152 partitions of the sequence with their own parameters. Only the frequency of
153 occurrence matters. In our Bayesian inference (see below) we use the same site
154 model as the (obviously correct) site model prior, but we also explore the effect
155 of assuming a more complex site model prior. We predict with the more complex

156 substitution model, that there will be more noise and hence our inference error
 157 will increase. On the other hand, we dare not rule out that the inference error
 158 will decrease, due to more flexibility in the more complex prior. We set the
 159 mutation rate in such a way to maximize the information contained in the
 160 alignment. To do so, we set the mutation rate such that we expect on average
 161 one (possibly silent) mutation per nucleotide between crown age and present,
 162 which equates to $\frac{1}{15}$ mutations per million years. The DNA sequence length
 163 is chosen to provide a resolution of 10^3 years, that is, to have one expected
 164 nucleotide change per 10^3 years per lineage on average. As one nucleotide is
 165 expected to have on average one (possibly silent) mutation per 15 million years,
 166 $15 \cdot 10^3$ nucleotides result in 1 mutation per alignment per 10^3 years (which is
 167 coincidentally the same as Möller *et al.* 2018). The simulation of these DNA
 168 alignments follows a strict clock model, which we will specify as one of the two
 169 clock models assumed in the Bayesian inference (see below).

170 From an alignment, we run a Bayesian analysis and create a posterior dis-
 171 tribution of trees and parameters using the **babette** (Bilderbeek & Etienne
 172 2018) package that sets the input parameters similar to BEAUti 2 and then
 173 runs BEAST2. For our site model, we assume either a Jukes-Cantor or GTR
 174 nucleotide substitution model. The Jukes-Cantor model is the correct one, as it
 175 is used for simulating that alignment, where the GTR model is the site model
 176 that is picked as a default by most users. For our clock model, we assume either
 177 a strict or relaxed log-normal clock model. Also here, the strict clock model
 178 is the correct one, as it is used for simulating the alignment, but the relaxed
 179 log-normal clock model is the one most commonly used. We set the BD model
 180 as a tree prior, as gauging the effect of this incorrect assumption is the goal of
 181 this study. We assume an MRCA prior with a tight normal distribution around
 182 the crown age, by choosing the crown age as mean, and a standard deviation of

183 $0.5 \cdot 10^{-3}$ time units, resulting in 95% of the crown ages inferred have the same
184 resolution (of 10^{-3} time units) as the alignment. We ran the MCMC chain to
185 generate 1111 states, of which we remove the first 10% (also called the 'burn-
186 in'). Of the remaining 1000 MCMC states, the effective sample size (ESS) of
187 the posterior must at least be 200 for a strong enough inference (Drummond &
188 Bouckaert 2015). An ESS can be increased by increasing the number of samples
189 or decreasing the autocorrelation between samples. If the ESS is less than 200,
190 we decrease autocorrelation by doubling the MCMC sampling interval of that
191 simulation, until the ESS exceeds 200.

192 We compare each posterior phylogeny to the (sampled) species tree using the
193 nLTT statistic (Janzen *et al.* 2015), from the nLTT package (Janzen 2015). The
194 nLTT statistic equals the area between the normalized lineages-through-time-
195 plots of two phylogenies, which has a range from zero (for identical phylogenies)
196 to one. We use inference error and nLTT statistic interchangeably. Compar-
197 ing the simulated species tree with each of the posterior species trees yields a
198 distribution of nLTT statistics.

199 We produce two data sets as a comma-separated file. The general data set
200 has 348 different combinations of biological parameter combinations, site and
201 clock models. The data set to investigate sampling has 552 different combi-
202 nations of biological parameter combinations, site models, clock models and
203 sampling methods. The experiment is computationally intensive: pilot exper-
204 iments show that the experiment takes roughly 100 days of CPU time and 20
205 days of wall clock time (which includes the queued waiting for computational re-
206 sources) per replicate. Due to this, we choose to perform ten replicates, so that
207 the complete experiment will take an acceptable time of roughly seven months.

208 For both data sets, we display the nLTT statistics distribution per biolog-
209 ical parameter combination as a violin plot. We show combinations for which

Term	Definition
Phylogenetics	The inference of evolutionary relationships of groups of organisms using genetics
Model prior	Knowledge or assumptions about the ontogeny of evolutionary histories
Posterior	A collection of phylogenies and parameter estimates, in which more probable combinations (determined by the data and the model prior) are presented more frequently
Protracted speciation	The process in which speciation takes two events: a speciation-initiation event and a speciation-completion event
Speciation initiation	The start of a speciation event creating an incipient species
Speciation completion	The end of a speciation event, in which an incipient species becomes or is recognized as a good species

Table 1: Glossary

$b_g = b_i$ and $\mu_g = \mu_i$, to simplify the interpretation of the results, where the
other combinations are shown in the supplementary material. Additionally, we
only show the nLTT distributions that were generated under the (correct) as-
sumptions of a Jukes-Cantor site model and a strict clock model, separated per
sampling method used. We display the nLTT statistic distributions separated
per site or clock model in the supplementary information.

2 Results

3 Glossary

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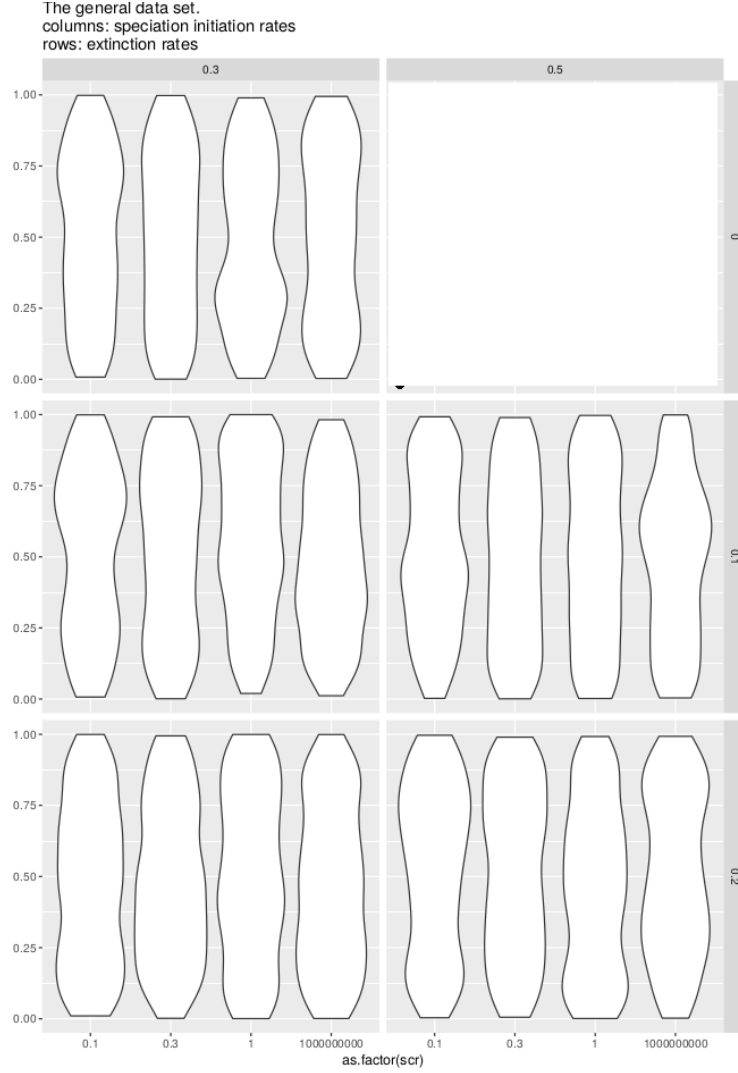


Figure 1: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for the subset of combinations in which $b_g = b_i$, $\mu_g = \mu_i$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

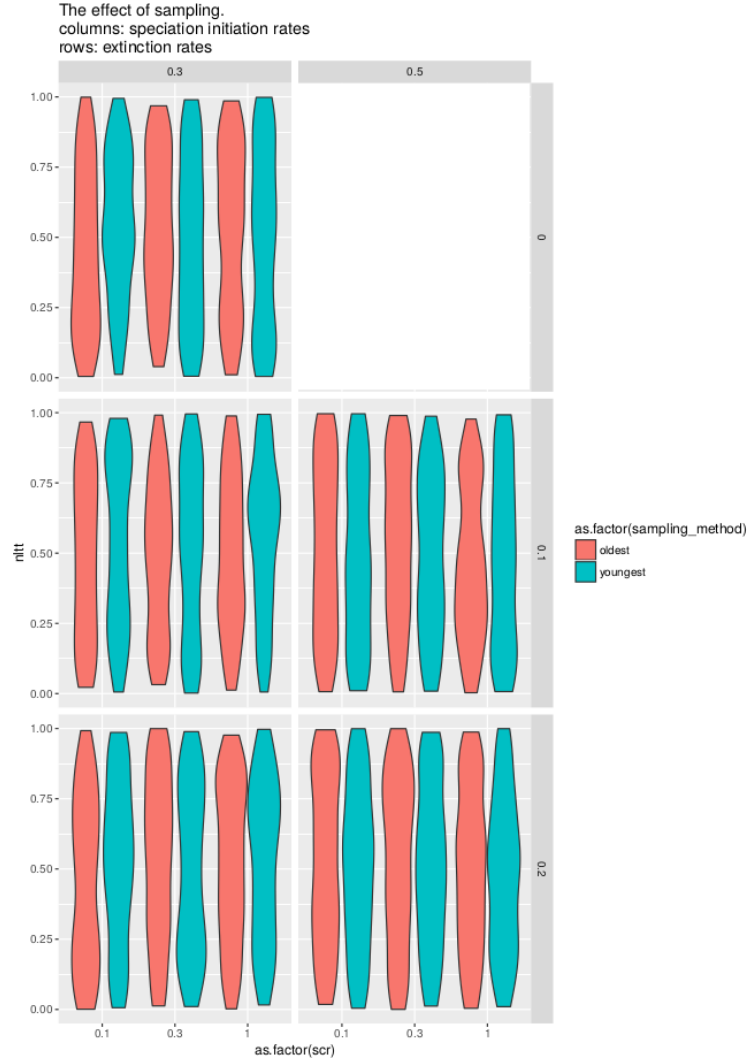


Figure 2: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set per sampling regime, using the data set conditioned on sampling regime having an effect, for the subset of combinations in which $b_g = b_i$, $\mu_g = \mu_i$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

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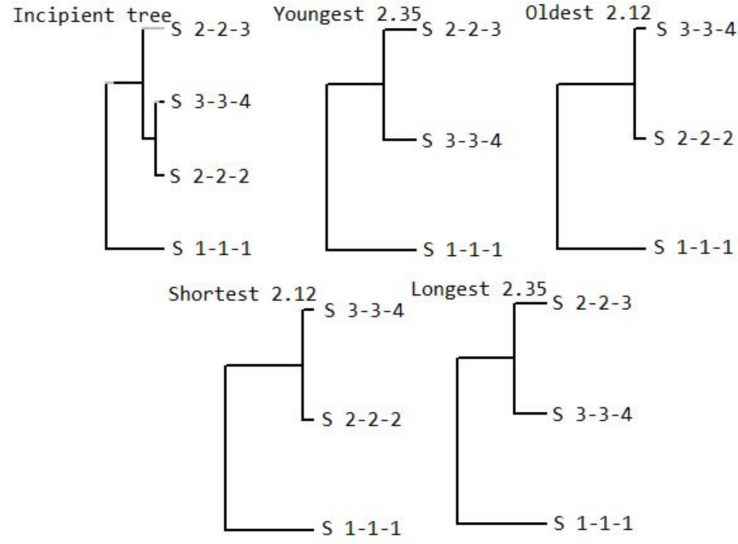


Figure 3: Sampling a species tree from an incipient species tree. At the top left, an incipient species tree is shown, of three different good species (the first and second number in the taxon label) and four different subspecies (the third number in the taxon label). The other four trees are species trees, that use a different sampling method to determine which sub-species is picked to represent a good species. These are: 'Youngest', 'Oldest', 'Shortest' and 'Longest'. With 'Youngest' the youngest sub-species is picked to represent the good species. With 'Oldest' the oldest sub-species is picked to represent the good species. 'Shortest' is the sampling method in which the sub-species are picked to assure the shortest branch lengths. 'Longest' is the sampling method in which the sub-species are picked to assure the longest branch lengths.

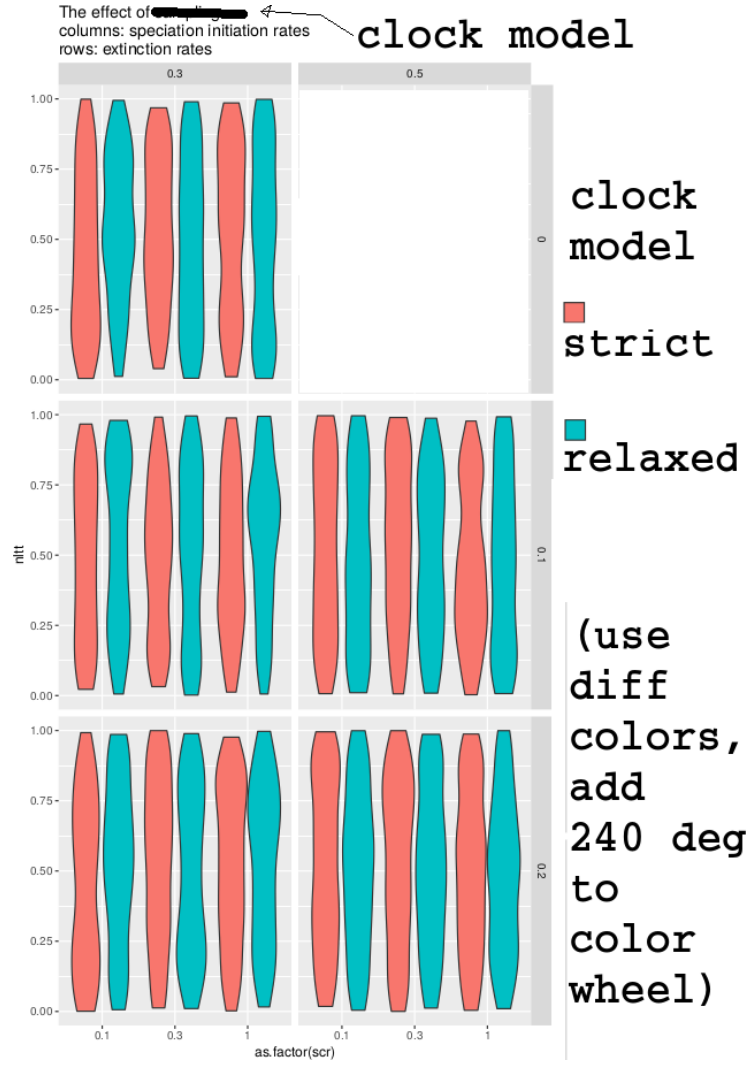


Figure 4: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set per clock model, using the general data set, for the subset of combinations in which $b_g = b_i$, $\mu_g = \mu_i$, under the (correct) assumption of a Jukes-Cantor site model.

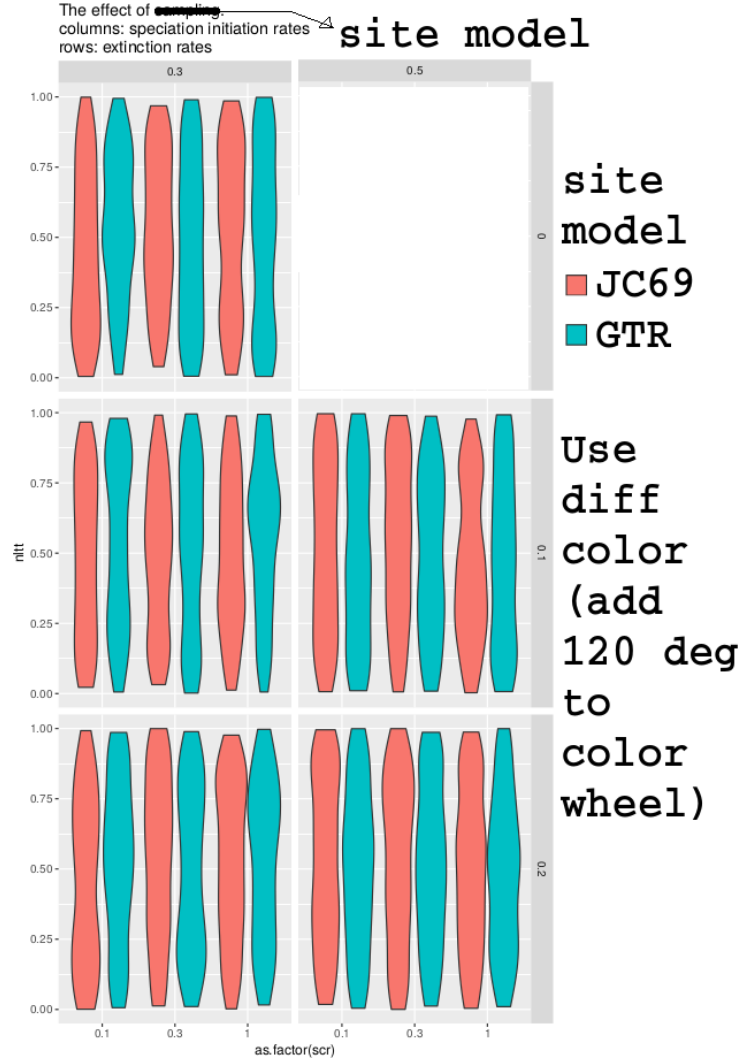


Figure 5: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set per site model, using the general data set, for the subset of combinations in which $b_g = b_i$, $\mu_g = \mu_i$, under the (correct) assumption of a strict clock model.

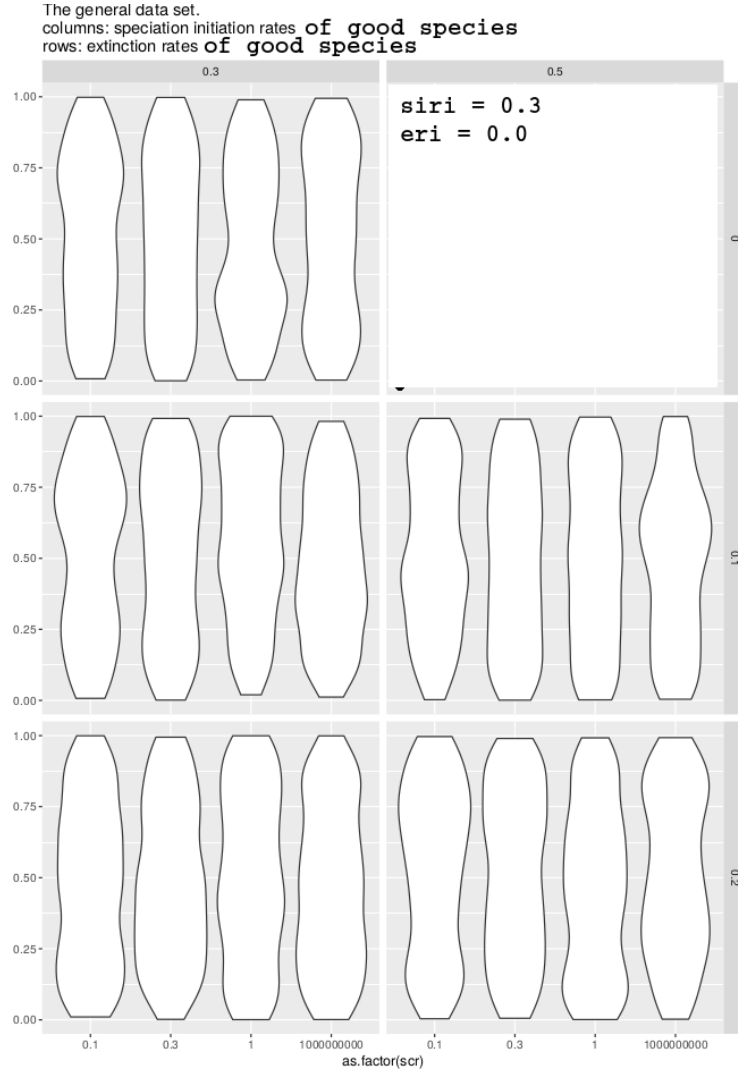


Figure 6: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for $b_i = 0.3$ and $\mu_i = 0.0$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

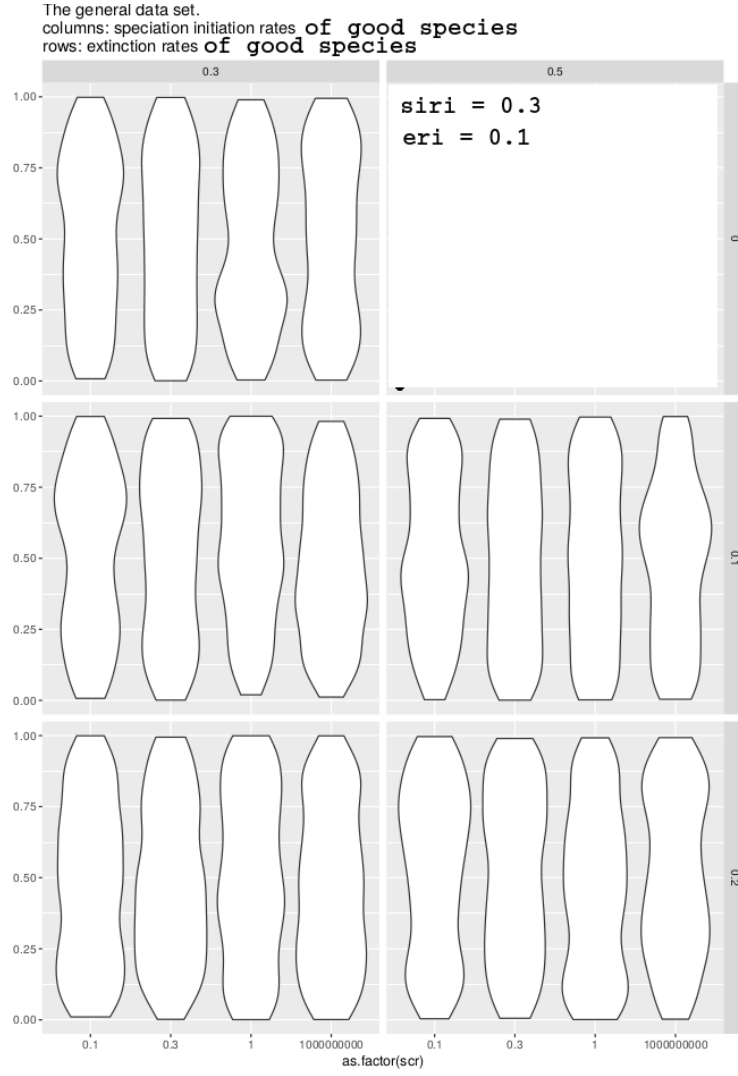


Figure 7: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for $b_i = 0.3$ and $\mu_i = 0.1$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

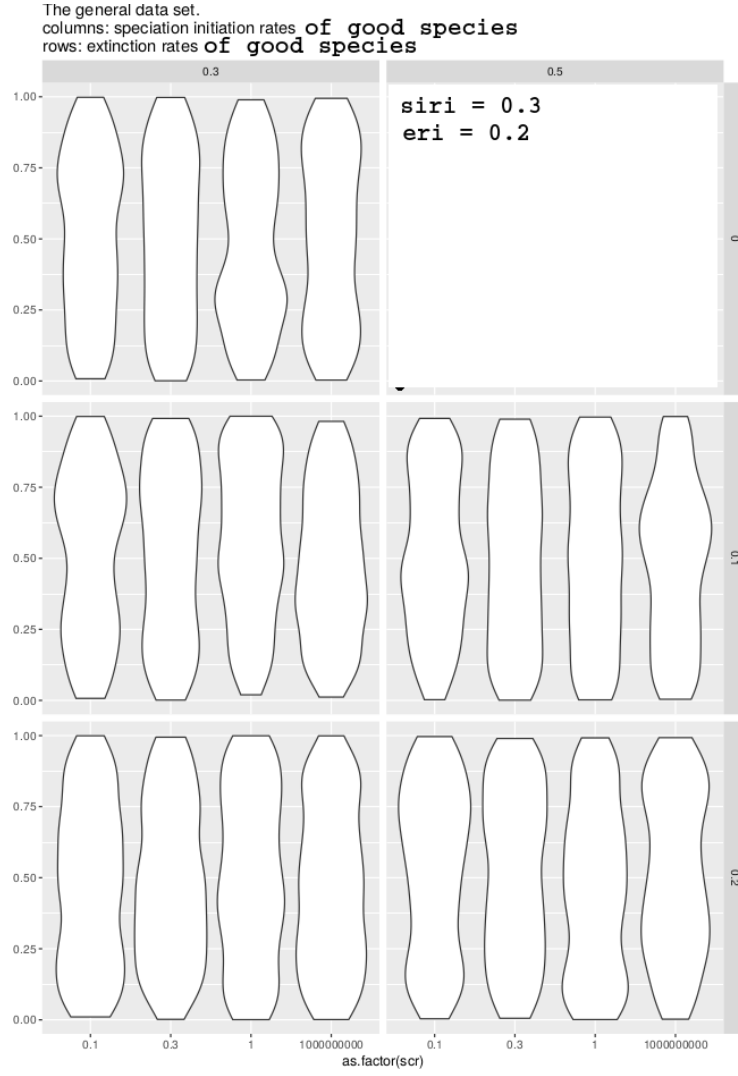


Figure 8: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for $b_i = 0.3$ and $\mu_i = 0.2$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

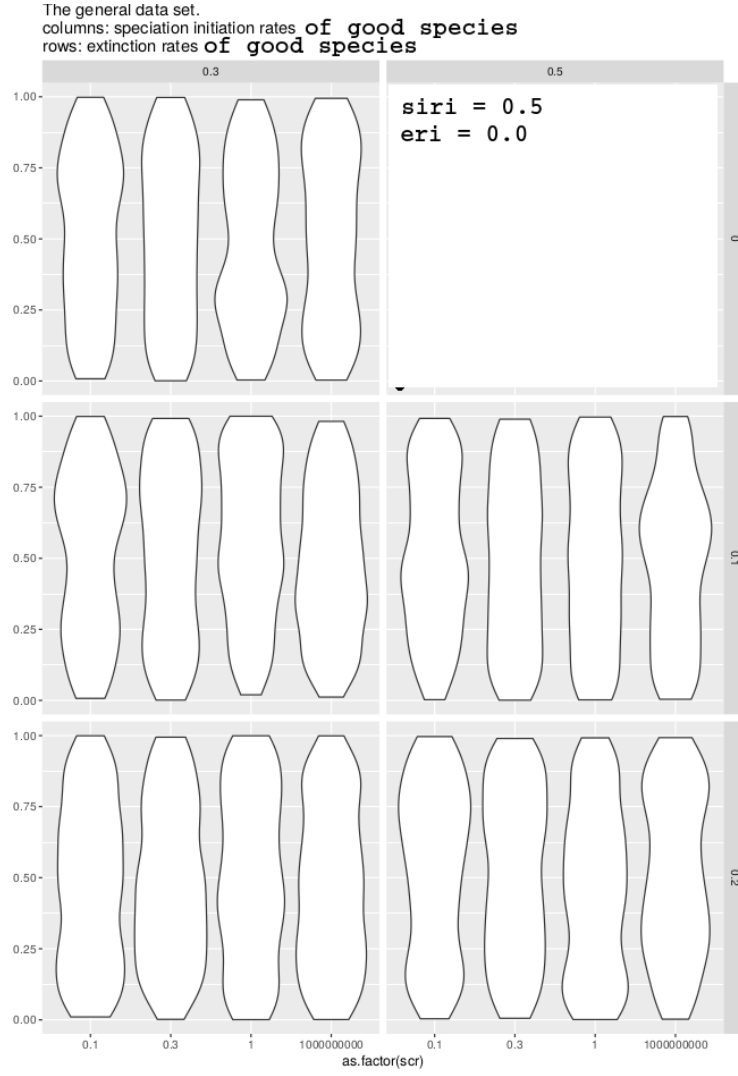


Figure 9: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for $b_i = 0.5$ and $\mu_i = 0.0$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

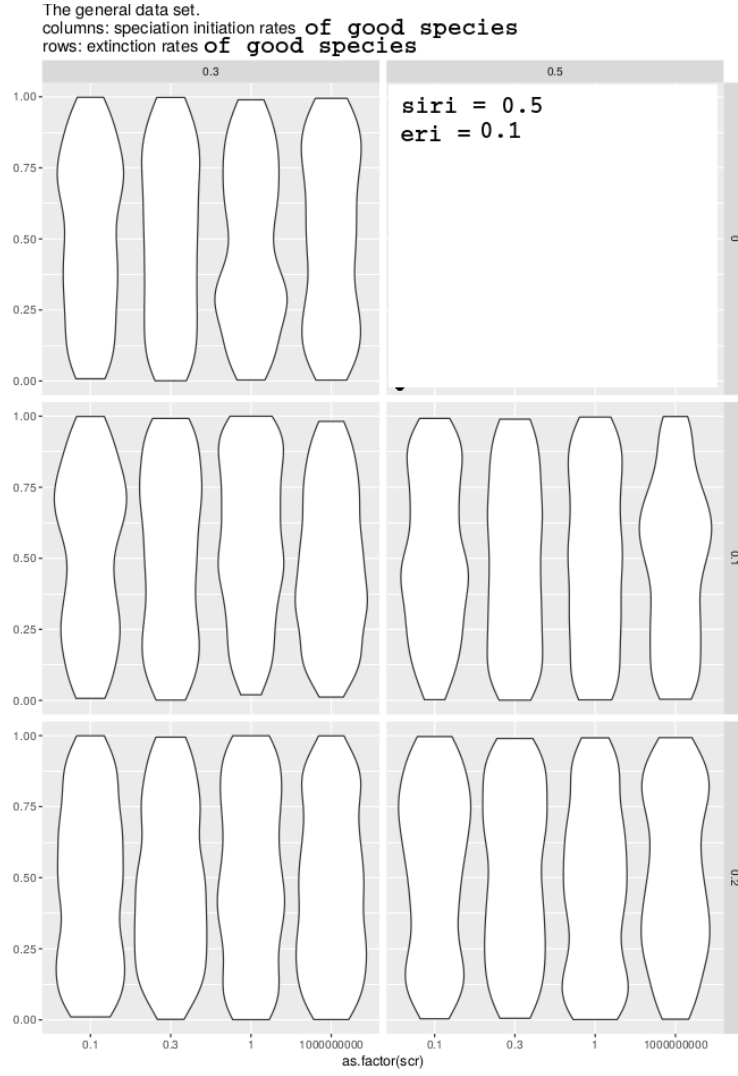


Figure 10: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for $b_i = 0.5$ and $\mu_i = 0.1$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

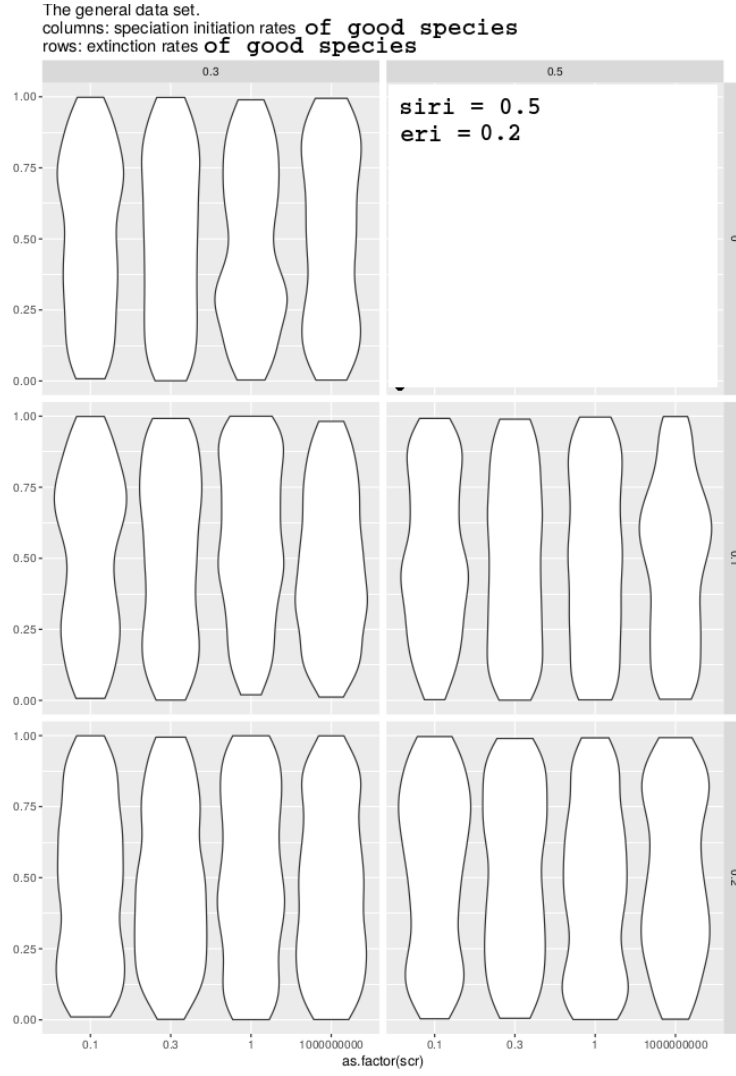


Figure 11: nLTT statistic distribution per biological parameter set, using the general data set, for $b_i = 0.5$ and $\mu_i = 0.2$, under the (correct) assumptions of a strict clock and Jukes-Cantor site model.

	Description	Values
b_g	Speciation initiation rate of a good species	0.3, 0.5
b_i	Speciation initiation rate of an incipient species	0.3, 0.5
λ	Speciation completion rate	0.1, 0.3, 1.0, ∞
μ_g	Extinction rate of a good species	0.0, 0.1, 0.2
μ_i	Extinction rate of an incipient species	0.0, 0.1, 0.2
t_c	Crown age	15
σ_c	Standard deviation around crown age	0.001
M_s	Sampling method	S, L, R
M_c	Clock model	S, RLN
M_t	Site model	JC69, GTR
r	Mutation rate	$\frac{1}{15}$
l_a	DNA alignment length	15K
f_i	MCMC sampling interval	1K or more
R_i	RNG seed incipient tree and randomly sampled species tree	1, 2, ...
R_a	RNG seed alignment simulation	R_i
R_b	RNG seed BEAST2	R_i

Table 2: Overview of the simulation parameters. Above the horizontal line is the biological parameter set. The RNG seed R_i is 1 for the first simulation of the general data set, 2 for the next, and so on, up to and including 3480. The RNG seeds for the data set investigating the effect of sampling continue from there, but only those RNG seeds are used in which sampling has an effect. The sampling methods are abbreviated as such: 'R' denotes random sampling, 'S' is 'shortest' and 'L' is 'longest'. Sampling method M_s is random for the general data set. For the data set exploring the effect of sampling, we use 'shortest' and 'longest' for each value of R_i (which are random seeds in which sampling has an effect). The clock models are abbreviated as 'S' for a strict and 'RLN' for a relaxed log-normal model. The site models are abbreviated as 'JC69' for Jukes-Cantor (Jukes *et al.* 1969) and 'GTR' for the generalized time-reversible model (Tavaré 1986).

n	Description
12	simulation parameters, see table 2
1000	nLTT statistic values
11	ESSes of all parameters estimated by BEAST2 (see specs below)

Table 3: Specification of the data sets. Each row will contain one experiment, where the columns contain parameters, measurements and diagnostics. This table displays the content of the columns. n denotes the number of columns a certain item will occupy, resulting in a table of 1023 columns and 20K rows.

#	Description
1	posterior
2	likelihood
3	prior
4	treeLikelihood
5	TreeHeight
6	BirthDeath
7	BDBirthRate
8	BDDeathRate
9	logP.mrca
10	mrcatime
11	clockRate

Table 4: Overview of the 11 parameters estimated by BEAST2