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Morphological Datasets Fit a Common Mechanism Much More Poorly than DNA Sequences and Call Into Question the Mkv Model

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1 **RUNNING-TITLE: Morphological datasets reject Mkv model**

2

3 **Morphological Datasets Fit a Common Mechanism Much More Poorly than DNA**
4 **Sequences and Call Into Question the Mkv Model**

5

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16

17

18 ABSTRACT

19 The Mkv evolutionary model, based on minor modifications to models of molecular
20 evolution, is being increasingly used to infer phylogenies from discrete morphological data,
21 often producing different results from parsimony. The critical difference between Mkv and
22 parsimony is the assumption of a “common mechanism” in the Mkv model, with branch
23 lengths determining that probability of change for all characters increases or decreases at
24 the same tree branches by the same exponential factor. We evaluate whether the
25 assumption of a common mechanism applies to morphology, by testing the implicit
26 prediction that branch lengths calculated from different subsets of characters will be
27 significantly correlated. Our analysis shows that DNA (38 datasets tested) is often
28 compatible with a common mechanism, but morphology (86 datasets tested) generally is
29 not, showing very disparate branch lengths for different character partitions. The low
30 levels of branch length correlation demonstrated for morphology (fitting models without a
31 common mechanism) suggest that the Mkv model is too unrealistic and inadequate for the
32 analysis of morphological datasets.

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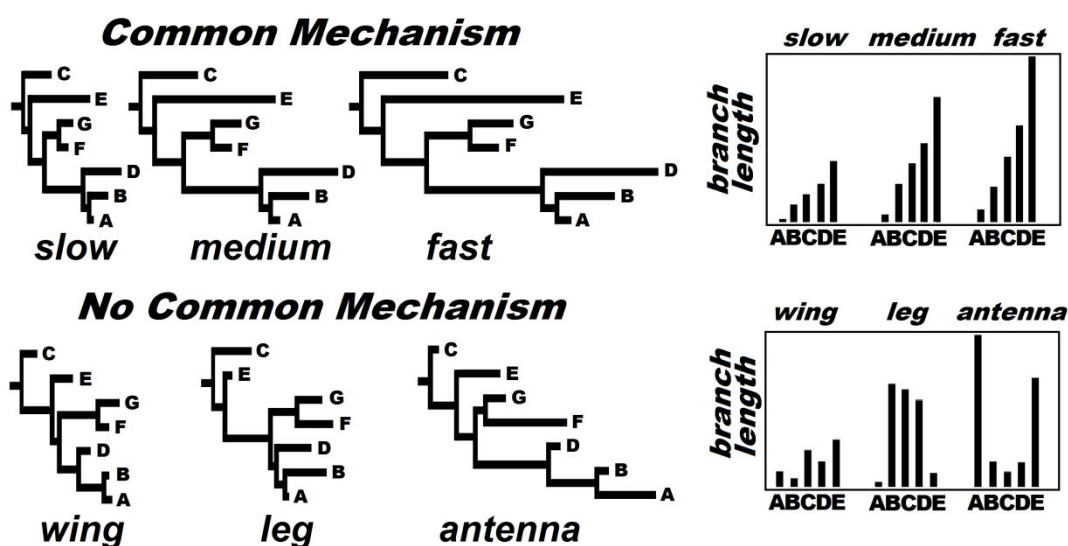
34 **KEYWORDS:** phylogenetics, Bayesian analysis, morphological data, Mkv model

35

36 Discrete morphological characters, despite the predominance of molecular datasets,
37 continue playing an important role in inferring phylogenetic trees (e.g. as the sole source of
38 evidence for most fossil taxa). Parsimony (implemented in PAUP*, Swofford 2002, or
39 TNT, Goloboff and Catalano 2016) is widely used for morphological data. The Mkv model
40 (Lewis 2001), based on minor modifications to models of molecular evolution, is being
41 increasingly used for phylogenetic inference (Wright and Hillis 2014, O'Reilly et al. 2016,
42 Puttick et al. 2017), even when it is often acknowledged that morphology and molecules
43 may evolve in very different ways (e.g. Lee 2016, Zhang 2018). The Mkv model is
44 implemented in several major phylogeny programs such as PAUP*, MrBayes (Ronquist et
45 al. 2012), or RAxML (Stamatakis 2014). The Mkv model critically differs from parsimony
46 in assuming a “common mechanism” (CM, Tuffley and Steel 1997), in which the
47 probability of change in different tree branches varies simultaneously for all characters,
48 exponentially depending on the “length” of the branch (expected number of changes per
49 character, the product of time and instantaneous rate, both affecting all characters equally;
50 for details, see Swofford et al. 1996, Felsenstein 2004). This assumption of a CM is in fact
51 what Lewis (2001: 915-916) considered that systematists would likely find most
52 unrealistic. Eliminating this commonality assumption causes parsimony and likelihood to
53 select the same tree (e.g. with the “no-common-mechanism” model of Tuffley and Steel
54 1997, Steel 2013; NCM); if the data have indeed not evolved with common branch lengths
55 (e.g. with heterotachy), parsimony may produce better results than model-based methods
56 that assume homogeneity (Kolaczkowski and Thornton 2004, Goloboff et al. 2017).

57 Although there have been no empirical comparisons of molecules and morphology
58 in terms of their fit to a CM, patterns of change in discrete morphological characters seem

59 not to follow this assumption of commonality. Sets of characters highly variable in a group
 60 are often almost invariable in another, where different characters become highly variable
 61 instead (e.g. Farris 1983:15, Sereno 2009), suggesting that the Mkv model may be
 62 inappropriate for morphological data (Goloboff and Pol 2005, Nyakatura and



63

64 **Figure 1.** Differences between common and no-common mechanisms. Under a common mechanism,
 65 there can be slower and faster characters (e.g. with a gamma distribution), but branch lengths
 66 (expected changes per character, product of time and instantaneous rate of change for the branch)
 67 increase or decrease for all the characters together. This is shown in the barplot diagram, with five
 68 branches of the tree, A–D, ordered in increasing length. Without a common mechanism, there can be
 69 characters with different overall rates (e.g. wing, leg, and antenna), but the expected changes show no
 70 correlation between the different characters. The branch leading to taxon A is intermediate in the first
 71 character, shortest in the second, and longest in the third, while the branch leading to taxon B is
 72 shortest in the first character, longest in the second, and intermediate in the third, and the shapes of
 73 length distributions vary for the three characters.

74

75 Bininda-Emonds 2012). With methods like the discretized gamma distribution (see details
 76 in Felsenstein 2004), the Mkv model allows for rate heterogeneity among characters, but
 77 this still assumes that the expected changes per character increase or decrease, together, for
 78 faster and slower evolving characters, along the same branches of the tree, as illustrated in
 79 Figure 1. The patterns of change in morphological characters would seem instead to depart

80 strongly from that CM, both at the level of character partitions, and individual characters.
81 Multiple (unlinked) partitions (Duchene et al. 2014, Lanfear et al. 2017) allow expected
82 changes per character at a branch to change separately in each partition, but are rarely used
83 in morphological datasets and continue requiring both the commonality assumption within
84 each partition and a prior identification of the correct partitions.

85 The present study evaluates, for the first time, the assumption of a CM for
86 morphological datasets. Bayesian model selection has been applied in some studies to
87 evaluate differences between morphological partitions, but only to assess among-character
88 rate variation (e.g Harrison and Larsson 2015), or the fit of different partitions to alternative
89 rate parameters (Lanfear et al. 2017, Clarke and Middleton 2008), instead of critically
90 evaluating the adequacy of a CM. **Model selection may be problematic when both**
91 **models compared are incorrect (Yang and Zhu 2018), and can only be used to**
92 **compare two alternative models (instead of testing whether a single model has an**
93 **acceptable fit). The latter becomes particularly difficult when the alternatives to CM**
94 **are to be sought among phylogenetic methods approaching parsimony: Tuffley and**
95 **Steel's (1997) NCM is equivalent to parsimony, but (as noted by Holder et al. 2010:**
96 **478; see also Sober 2004) NCM is too highly parameterized to be ever selected, and**
97 **probably not the only way to characterize parsimony –yet no currently available**
98 **implementation emulates parsimony methods with fewer parameters, to enable a**
99 **more meaningful comparison of likelihoods.**

100 Given those difficulties, we use here an approach based on statistical hypothesis
101 testing, to assess the adequacy of the Mkv model for morphological datasets. The CM of
102 the Mkv model predicts that branch lengths for different subsets of data will be correlated,

103 and our test is based on evaluating whether that prediction is met in empirical datasets. The
104 paper begins by outlining the test and its justification, then applies it to morphology and
105 DNA sequences, first to partitions predefined on the basis of contiguity (DNA) or anatomy
106 (morphology), then to randomly defined subpartitions (within predefined partitions, and
107 whole datasets). As these tests show that the vast majority of morphological datasets do
108 not conform to a CM, we then apply a similar test to evaluate the alternative: whether the
109 degrees of correlation between branch lengths in morphological datasets could have been
110 produced by models without a CM. These tests reject a pure NCM, but an alternative
111 model for generating datasets without a CM (which we call the *episodic* model, with
112 character changes restricted to certain parts of the tree; see below) produces a correlation
113 between numbers of character changes in each partition that is well within the values
114 observed in real morphological datasets. Finally, we examine the relative performance of
115 phylogenetic methods on datasets simulated under the episodic model, and show that
116 parsimony tends to perform on par or better than Bayesian analysis.

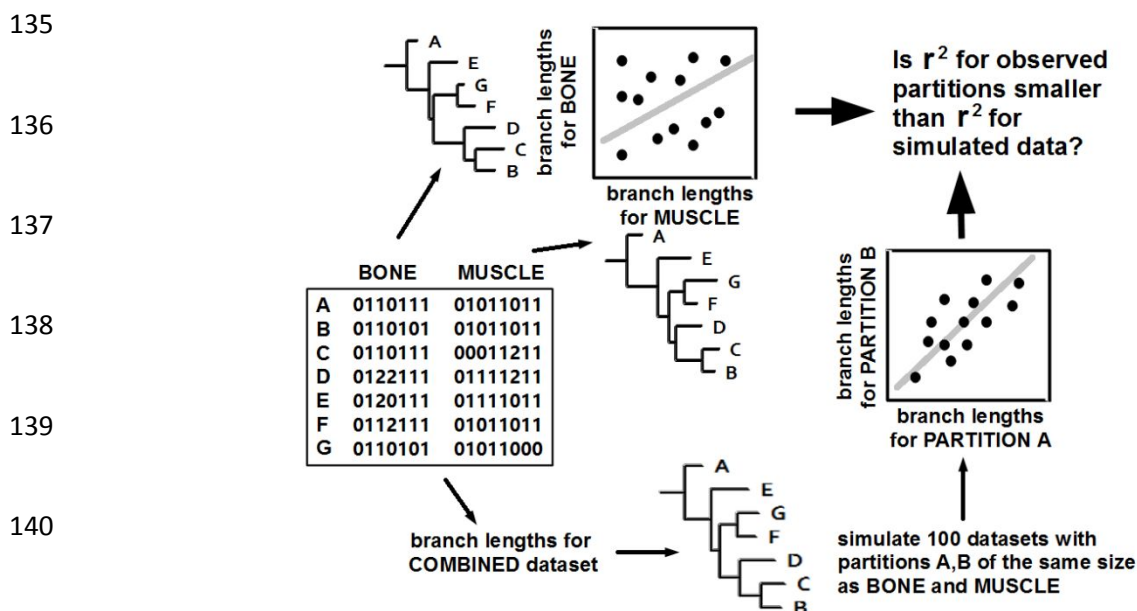
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118 METHODS AND MATERIALS

119 *Datasets.*— Source and details in the Supplementary Material. A total of 86 morphological
120 datasets was used, with 26–188 taxa, and 80–4541 characters. For 8 of the morphological
121 datasets, it was possible to define partitions on the basis of anatomy (with 2–8 partitions per
122 dataset, 40–1451 characters per partition). For sequences, a total of 38 datasets for 35
123 different genes, with 60–500 taxa and 305–2218 characters, was examined. These
124 molecular datasets were prepartitioned in 2–5 partitions of 100–500 contiguous positions,
125 depending on the length of the sequences (only one case, with very short sequences, used

126 two partitions of 50 positions). These molecular partitions were created leaving out the
 127 initial 100 positions (which, due to alignment, often contain large proportions of missing
 128 entries), except in the shortest sequences (where partitions started at position #50).

129 *Branch length tests.*— Branches shorter for one partition and longer for the other are
 130 evidence of at least heterotachy (or, at most, the complete absence of a CM). The strength
 131 of the observed correlation can be measured with the r^2 statistic; the observed r^2 was then
 132 compared with that for partitions of the same size generated on a model tree with the same
 133 branch lengths as the combined dataset; if observed r^2 is matched with a low probability,
 134 then the CM of the Mkv model can be confidently rejected. Figure 2 displays the



144 **Figure 2.** General scheme of the test to evaluate significance of heterogeneity between branch lengths
 145 for different partitions.

147 procedure for testing branch length homogeneity in two partitions. The only similar
 148 evaluation of which we are aware is that of Clarke and Middleton (2008), who compared

149 branch lengths for different morphological partitions; however, they did not evaluate the
150 significance of the differences in branch lengths by reference to a specific model of
151 evolution.

152 Even when the data have been generated by a model with a CM (e.g. Mkv or JC69)
153 the expected homogeneity in branch lengths for the simulated partitions will depend on
154 both the branch lengths of the model tree, as well as the numbers of characters in the two
155 partitions being compared. To the extent that the branch lengths of the model tree are more
156 dissimilar, the correlation between branch lengths for two sets of characters generated on
157 the same model tree will be stronger; when all branch lengths of the model tree are
158 identical, character changes can be located equiprobably on any tree branch, resulting in
159 very low correlation. On the other hand, to the extent that there are more characters in the
160 partitions, branch lengths will more accurately converge to the values in the model tree,
161 thus increasing the correlation between the branch lengths for both partitions. Therefore, a
162 proper test cannot be based solely on the observed value of r^2 for the correlation between
163 branch lengths for two partitions: the values of r^2 must be compared against the values
164 expected under the specific situation being tested, i.e. using the same numbers of characters
165 of the observed partitions, and a model tree with the same branch lengths as the combined
166 dataset.

167 For completeness, most of the tests were repeated calculating branch lengths with
168 most parsimonious reconstructions (MPR). In this case, the scripts calculated branch
169 lengths simply as the number of characters in the partition unambiguously changing along
170 the branch, divided by the total number of characters in the partition.

171 *Calculation of Branch Lengths.*— Branch lengths for the results reported were calculated
172 using maximum likelihood, unless noted otherwise. Taxa with missing entries for all
173 characters in one (or both) partition(s) were pruned from the tree, and the branch lengths
174 were calculated on the resulting reduced tree. This was necessary only in few comparisons.
175 TNT scripts (Goloboff et al. 2008) automatically created Nexus files and called PAUP*
176 with commands to calculate and save branch lengths in Newick format, then reading back
177 the branch lengths into TNT, for further processing. For morphological datasets, invariant
178 characters were excluded (for different pairwise comparisons between partitions, some of
179 the variable characters in a partition could become invariant if some taxa with only missing
180 entries in the other partition are deactivated). For morphological data, branch lengths were
181 calculated with default PAUP* options (in the absence of invariant characters, PAUP*
182 defaults to the Mkv model, estimating the proportion of invariant characters automatically).
183 For sequence data, the simplest model (JC69, Jukes and Cantor 1969) was invoked, with
184 *lset nst=1 rates=equal basefr=equal*, which is the closest equivalent to the Mkv model
185 (except for the estimation of invariant characters, which has a minimum effect on branch
186 length proportionality). Invoking more complex DNA models and adding more parameters
187 to be estimated seemed unnecessary, given that the goal of the analysis is only evaluating
188 the heterogeneity in branch lengths for different partitions.

189 *Model tree.*— The datasets for calculating the statistical distribution of the correlation
190 between partitions with the same numbers of characters as the observed partitions were
191 simulated using the observed tree as model. The “observed” tree is the published tree,
192 when available, or a most parsimonious tree for the combined dataset otherwise (in the case
193 of phylogenomic datasets, this is a tree for the dataset combining all the genes). We did

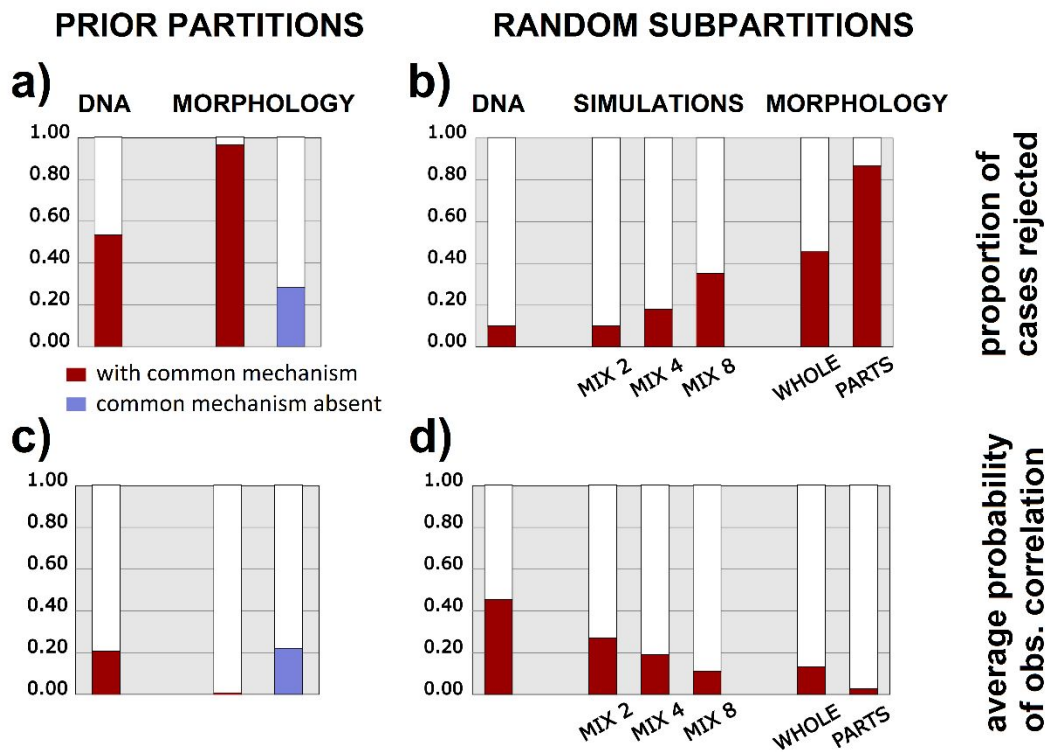
194 experiments to confirm that the test does not strongly depend on the topology of the tree
195 used to calculate branch lengths, so even if the observed tree is slightly different from the
196 correct phylogeny, the results of the test continue being valid (See Supplementary
197 Material). This makes the test radically different from “empirical” comparisons where real
198 datasets are analyzed with different methods of phylogenetic inference and the resulting
199 groupings are evaluated on whether they agree with groupings presumed to be correct prior
200 to the analysis (e.g. Puttick et al.’s 2017 discussion of results for 4 empirical datasets). No
201 presumption of prior knowledge is needed for the present correlation test, which considers
202 only the fit of the model to the dataset, not the accuracy of the trees produced by assuming
203 the model.

204

205 COMMON MODEL TESTED BETWEEN PRE-DEFINED PARTITIONS

206 We first tested 8 large published matrices, containing partitions corresponding to
207 anatomical regions or organ systems with numerous characters (40 characters per partition
208 was considered as the minimum for appropriate testing). Given the different numbers of
209 partitions per dataset, a total of 79 pairwise comparisons were possible. The vast majority
210 of these partitions (Figs. 3, 4) have much more pronounced differences in numbers of
211 character changes along branches than expected under the Mkv model (only 3.8% of cases
212 fail to reject the Mkv model as null model with $\alpha=0.01$; Fig. 3a). The results of a similar
213 test performed on DNA sequences (38 datasets for 35 different genes, with partitions
214 defined by contiguity, 66 possible comparisons) are very different, with a common
215 mechanism accepted for 42.4% of comparisons (Fig. 3a), over ten times more frequently

216 than for morphology. The average probabilities of observed r^2 values under a CM are also
 217 much higher for DNA than for morphological datasets (Fig. 3c, 4). Therefore, branch
 218 lengths for partitions of DNA sequences are clearly much less heterogeneous than for
 219 morphological data.



220

221 **Figure 3.** Proportion of cases where different models are rejected with $\alpha=0.01$ by branch length tests
 222 (a, b), and average probabilities of observed correlation (c, d). Prior partitions (a, c) correspond to
 223 characters grouped on the basis of anatomy in the case of morphology, and on the basis of contiguity
 224 in the case of DNA. For morphology, the common mechanism model is Mk_v; for DNA, its closest
 225 equivalent, JC69. The model without a common mechanism is the Episodic model described in the
 226 text. Random subpartitionings (b, d) for DNA were tested on a mid-sequence group of positions, on
 227 whole datasets simulated with mixtures of 2–8 independent sets of branch lengths (MIX), on the
 228 partitions predefined on the basis of anatomy (PARTS), and on whole datasets when no anatomical
 229 partitions could be predefined (WHOLE).

230

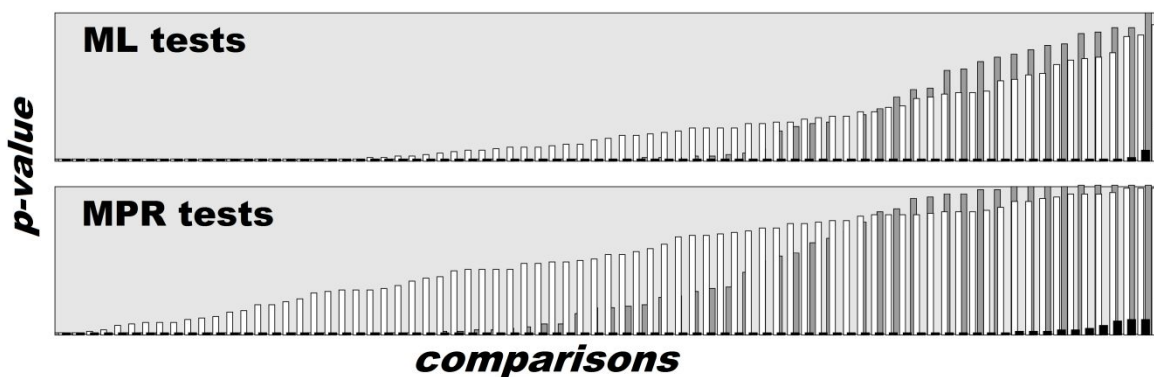
231 Our tests evaluate multiple instances, and not all comparisons are fully independent,
 232 because some of those imply combinations of partitions. Appropriate corrections for
 233 confidence levels on individual cases would have required making prohibitively time

234 consuming simulations (i.e. with many more replications per test). Our interest, however,
235 is not in the significance of individual comparisons, but rather in the collective results, and
236 the differences between morphological and molecular datasets. While corrections for
237 multiple tests might have lowered somewhat the rejection rate of homogeneity, a correction
238 would equally affect the comparisons for morphology and sequences, so that the
239 differences between the degree to which branch length homogeneity is, or is not rejected,
240 by each type of dataset, would have remained equally strong.

241 An important caveat of the test performed here is that the observed branch lengths
242 were calculated using a single rate category (i.e. no gamma parameter). There are
243 indications (e.g. Marshall et al. 2006; Nguyen et al. 2017) that taking into account among-
244 site rate heterogeneity improves estimations of branch lengths. A more accurate appraisal
245 would perhaps have analyzed both the observed and simulated datasets allowing rate
246 heterogeneity, simulating data under the same gamma values estimated for the combined
247 dataset (instead of the single rate now used); this would have made evaluations
248 significantly slower, would have required modifications to the functions of TNT that
249 simulate data under a CM, and would have added another layer of complexity (and thus,
250 potential errors) to the estimations. It seems doubtful, however, that using a gamma
251 correction would have changed much the evaluations. The test focuses on correlations
252 between branch lengths for two partitions, and the main numerical effect of applying a
253 gamma correction is to alter the absolute values of all branch lengths by roughly the same
254 factor, with only minor modifications to their proportionality. This is indeed a problem
255 when the interest is in calculating the correct values of branch lengths for each partition
256 (e.g. as in the study of Nguyen et al. 2017), but does not have a strong effect on the values

257 of correlation (changing only the regression slopes). The best indication that the use of a
258 single rate category did not bias the comparisons in the case of morphology is in the results
259 for DNA sequence data: those analyses did not use, either, a gamma parameter for among-
260 site rate variation, yet they produced a high proportion of cases where correlation between
261 estimated branch lengths was within the range expected under the single-rate model. This
262 suggests that the effect of a test considering among-site rate variation would have been
263 minor, and that the same differences between DNA and morphological datasets would have
264 been obtained.

265 The results obtained when comparing branch lengths for the partitions calculated
266 with MPR are, overall, similar to those obtained with likelihood, with the same difference
267 between DNA and morphological datasets. The probability of obtaining the observed
268 correlation for the morphological datasets (p-values under the episodic and Mkv models),
269 and for DNA sequences (p-values under JC69) is shown in Figure 4, for each individual
270 comparison. The similarity in results obtained using two methods as different as MPR and
271 maximum likelihood also suggests that the rejection of a CM in morphology does not
272 strongly depend on method used for calculating branch lengths (including the use of a
273 gamma parameter).



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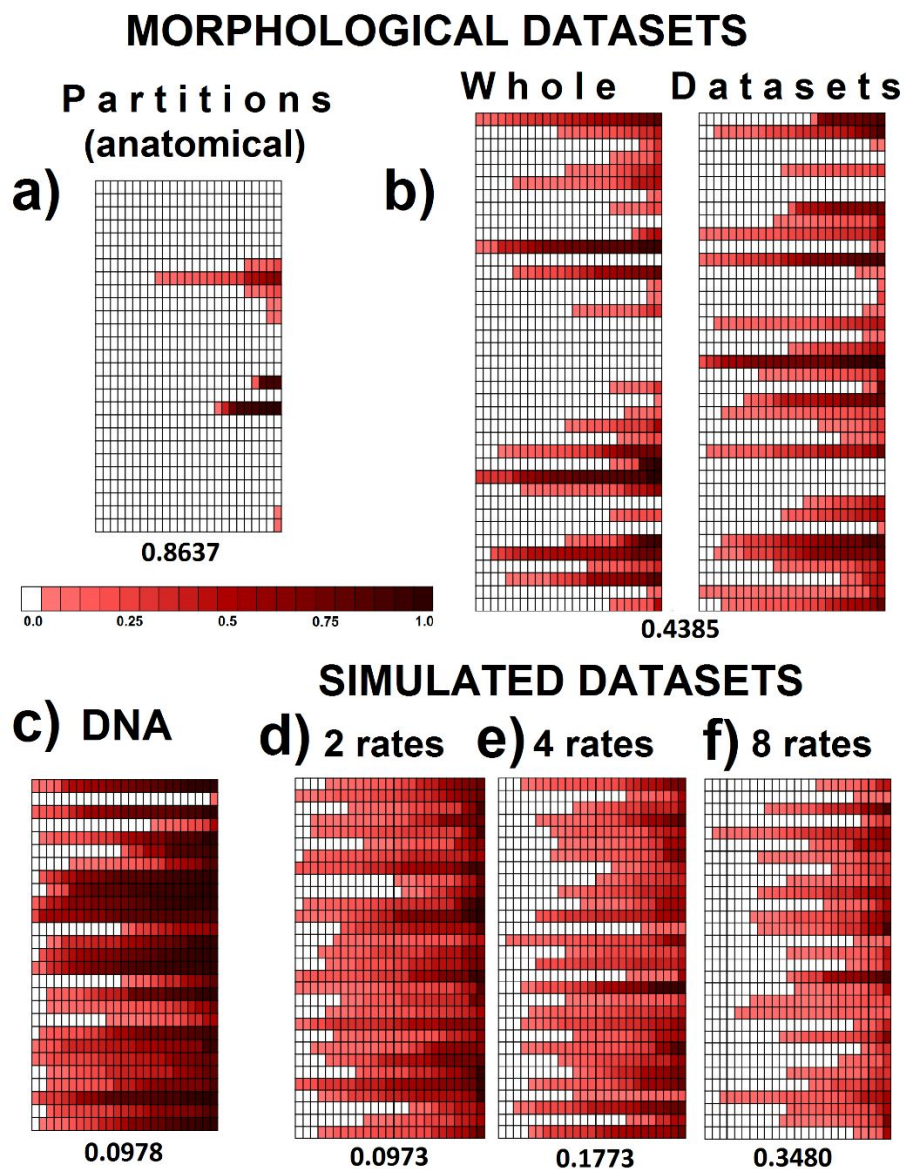
275 **Figure 4.** Plot showing the probability (P-values) of obtaining a correlation between branch lengths
 276 for two partitions as strong as the observed one, under different models for generating data, for
 277 morphological partitions defined by anatomy, and DNA partitions defined by contiguity, arranged in
 278 increasing order of P-value. Probabilities calculated both with likelihood (ML) and most
 279 parsimonious reconstructions (MPR). Black, morphological partitions tested against Mkv model; gray,
 280 DNA, tested against JC69; white, morphological partitions tested against episodic model. Gray and
 281 black bars are models with a common mechanism, white bars are for a model lacking a common
 282 mechanism.
 283

284 COMMON MODEL TESTED WITHIN PARTITIONS AND ENTIRE DATASETS

285 Some studies have already demonstrated (with different methods; Clarke and
 286 Middleton 2008, Tarasov and Genier 2015, Lee 2016) heterogeneity in branch lengths for
 287 predefined partitions, so a meaningful evaluation must test whether a CM is in effect *within*
 288 individual partitions. Two subpartitions containing similar proportions of characters
 289 evolving under two completely different sets of branch lengths will have similar mixtures
 290 of rates, combining to provide a common average “rate” for each branch (Kolaczowski
 291 and Thornton 2004), similar for both subpartitions. The internal heterogeneity of such
 292 mixtures cannot be detected by the present test (or any test we know), unless the correct
 293 partitions are known in advance –seldom the case for morphological data. Some
 294 partitioning schemes will produce the opposite effect, of making datasets generated from a
 295 single set of branch lengths to appear heterogeneous (e.g. by separating the characters in

two groups, depending on which half of the tree they have more changes), but those partitionings are unlikely to be obtained at random. Thus, a conservative test can randomly subpartition characters, comparing the degree of branch length correlation between the random subpartitions with that expected under a CM; mixtures with similar proportions of two (or a few) sets of distinct branch lengths will often appear relatively homogeneous under such a test, for the mixtures will be sampled in roughly similar proportions. Therefore, rejection of branch length homogeneity in a majority of randomly chosen subpartitions is especially meaningful: more than just a few alternative rates, such a result suggests the absence of a CM altogether.

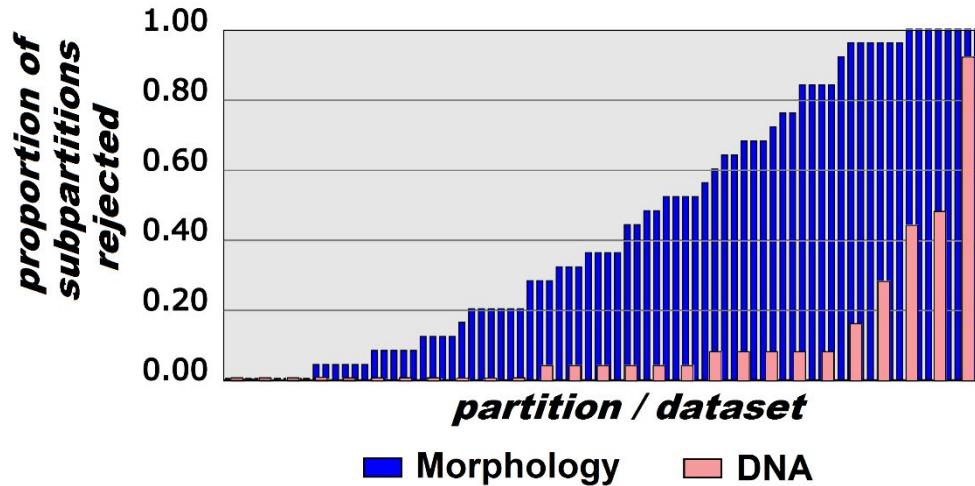
For testing random subpartitions, only the partitions with 80 or more characters were considered, dividing in two evenly-sized subpartitions. The results for random subpartitions are summarized in Figures 3b, 3d. Figure 5 shows the results of testing each subpartition individually; Figure 6 shows the average results for all the subpartitions of each partition (or dataset). For 86.4% of cases, random subpartitionings of the anatomically defined partitions produced a heterogeneity beyond ($\alpha=0.01$) expected under the CM of the Mkv model (white boxes in Fig. 5a). Given that the test based on random subpartitioning requires no prior definition of partitions, an additional set of 78 morphological datasets (for which partitions could not be easily defined on the basis of anatomy) were tested as a whole. A CM was rejected ($\alpha=0.01$) in 43.8% of all subpartitions (white boxes in Fig. 5b). For molecular datasets, instead, random subpartitionings (for 200 mid-sequence positions) reject a CM in only 9.8% of cases (Fig. 5c). To give these results further context, we simulated datasets (200 characters) under a Mkv model but with independent sets of branch lengths; as expected, the proportion of



319

320 **Figure 5.** Plots of subpartition tests (25 per partition/dataset). Every row corresponds to a dataset or
 321 partition, every **individual** box corresponds to a subpartition. **The color of each box indicates the**
 322 **probability of obtaining the branch length correlation in the subpartition under a common**
 323 **mechanism (white color is $p < 0.05$, with a darker color as p increases). The numbers below**
 324 **frames correspond to proportion of subpartitions where common mechanism is rejected with**
 325 **$\alpha=0.01$ (i.e. lower proportions correspond to cases where the common mechanism is less likely to**
 326 **have generated the data). (a) Subpartitions of partitions predefined on the basis of anatomy; (b)**
 327 **Whole datasets; (c) Molecular datasets; (e-f) Datasets simulated with 2, 4 and 8 independent sets**
 328 **of branch lengths.**

329



330

331 **Figure 6.** Comparison of proportion of subpartitions with a common mechanism rejected (at $\alpha=0.01$)
 332 per partition (or dataset), for morphology and DNA.

333

334 cases where a single CM could be rejected on random subpartitions increased with the
 335 number of independent sets of branch lengths (Figs. 5d–f), reaching up to 34.8% for
 336 mixtures of 8 independent sets (Fig. 5f). This is still well below the rejection rate for
 337 morphological datasets, suggesting that (on average) morphological characters evolved
 338 with even larger deviations from a single CM.

339

340 TESTING MODELS WITHOUT A COMMON MECHANISM

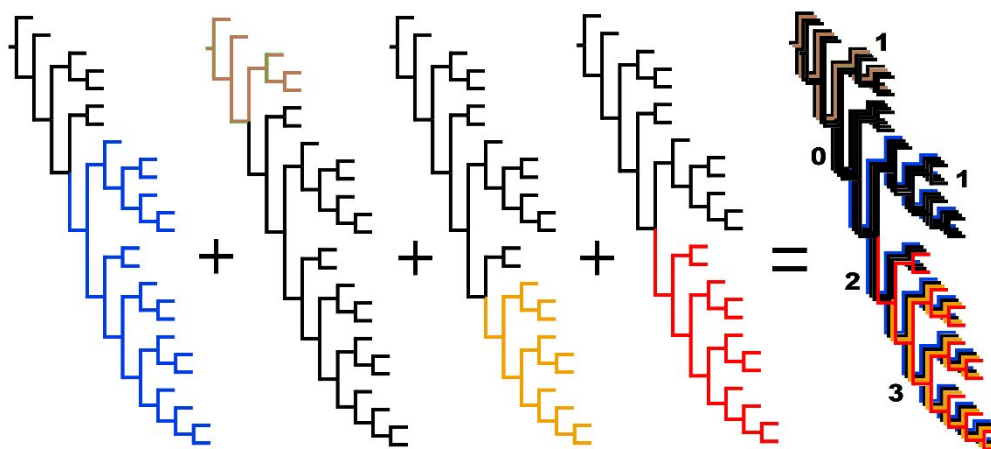
341 The homogeneity of branch lengths for DNA sequences can be expected from
 342 theoretical considerations and previous empirical work evaluating the CM in sequences
 343 (Huelsenbeck et al. 2008). The results for morphological datasets, in contrast, strongly
 344 refute the CM (and hence the Mkv model), both in datasets taken as a whole, and most
 345 importantly, within partitions defined on the basis of anatomy. Whether the data evolve
 346 under a CM is indeed relevant for phylogenetic inference based on morphology:

347 simulations show that Bayesian inference works best when the data evolve homogeneously
348 (Wright and Hillis 2014, O'Reilly et al. 2016, Puttick et al. 2017), but parsimony may work
349 best (Kolaczkowski and Thornton 2004, Goloboff et al. 2017) when they do not.

350 Note that the probability distribution of character patterns of both NCM and the
351 “Ultra-Conserved-Mechanism” (UCM, with a CM and all tree-branches having exactly the
352 same length for all characters) are exactly identical, as shown by Huelsenbeck et al. (2008)
353 and Steel (2011). Either of those models will have any change equiprobably located (CEL)
354 on any tree branch, which is how Goloboff et al. (2017) generated their data. Given that
355 parsimony is an appropriate method if the data do evolve under NCM (as shown by Tuffley
356 and Steel 1997, Steel 2011), it follows that so it is under the equivalent (but less strongly
357 parameterized) UCM or CEL, which generate the same probability distributions for
358 character patterns. Note that CEL is a statement of the product of evolution (i.e. on how
359 character changes will be located on tree branches), more than a statement of process; this
360 product may be achieved by different processes (NCM, UCM, and possibly others).

361 The equiprobability of location of changes on any tree branch in the simulations of
362 Goloboff et al. (2017) is a uniform distribution which (given the difficulties in modelling
363 morphology) can be defended as an initial reference assumption, and produces no branch
364 length correlation between partitions. Parsimony is then a well-justified method, but the
365 model is also rejected by morphological datasets: branch length correlation between
366 partitions is higher than expected (with 41 of the 79 comparisons between predefined
367 partitions rejecting the model with $\alpha=0.05$). The generating model can be made more
368 realistic with characters equiprobably changing in every branch but only within a certain

369 region of the tree, thus following the mosaicism proposed by Farris (1983: 15) and
 370 Goloboff et al. (2018). This model (Fig. 7) assumes that, during evolution, the possibility



371

372 **Figure 7.** Episodic model. Colors indicate regions of the tree where a character (or group of
 373 characters) can change; black branches indicate regions where characters cannot change. Within the
 374 colored region, a change has the same probability of being located in any of the branches. The
 375 example shows 4 pivots (i.e. points where change becomes possible or impossible); because of the
 376 interaction between pivots, different branches of the tree have different numbers of characters
 377 (indicated on the rightmost tree) that could possibly change.
 378

379 that formerly invariable characters become variable (or viceversa) can be triggered in
 380 *episodic* events; the point at which the character becomes variable (or invariable) is a node
 381 in the tree acting as a *pivot*. Morphological characters, by its very hierarchical nature
 382 (Maddison 1993, De Laet 2005, Brazeau et al. 2017) and by being subject to selection
 383 shifting from stabilizing to directional along time or changes in the developmental
 384 constraints, may well be liable to such episodic evolution. This *episodic* model is
 385 reminiscent of the covarion model (Fitch and Markowitz 1970, and successive
 386 modifications), differing in that character changes within regions of variability can be
 387 equiprobably located at any possible branch, thus lacking a CM and a formal branch-length
 388 parameter, consequently being more suited for morphological data. In the presence of

389 multiple pivots affecting groups of characters, some branches will have larger numbers of
390 synapomorphies for each group, generating a correlation between branch lengths for
391 different partitions, and the correlation observed for empirical partitions is mostly within
392 that expected from the episodic model (with only 27.8% of comparisons rejecting the
393 model when half the characters are affected by pivots and half are not; see Figs. 3a, 4).
394 This does not prove that an episodic model is the best general explanation for
395 morphological patterns of character change, but at least the model is not as widely rejected
396 as the Mkv or NCM models. More interestingly theoretically, the model shows that trees
397 with some correlation between changes per branch for different partitions can result from
398 models that do not assume a CM. The episodic model is used here solely to generate data,
399 not to infer trees; likelihood inference assuming that model has not been implemented, and
400 (by analogy to the covarion model) may suffer from identifiability problems (as noted by
401 Gruenheit et al. 2008 for standard covarion models) unless significant restrictions are
402 imposed.

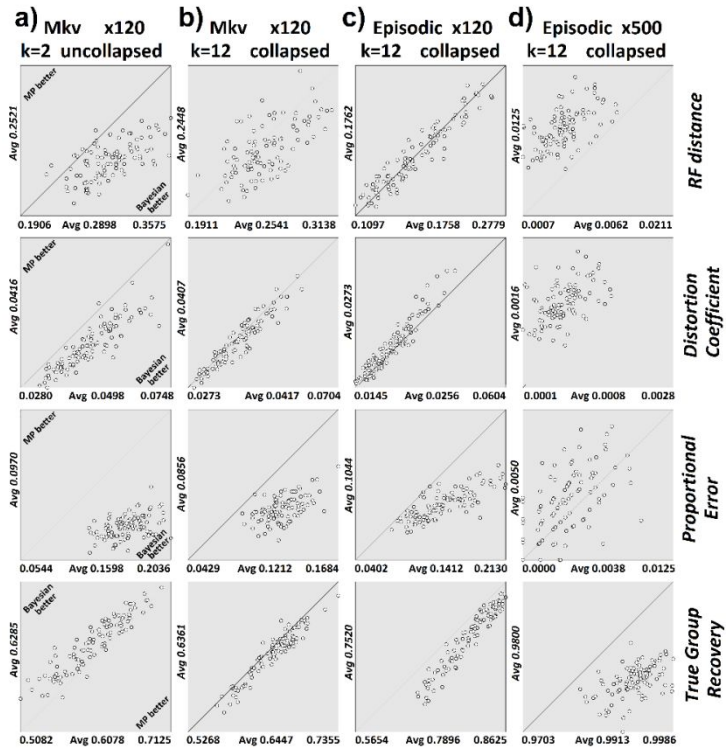
403

404 IMPLICATIONS FOR CHOICE OF PHYLOGENETIC METHODS

405 The episodic model resembles the NCM, UCM, or any other process leading to
406 CEL, except that change is restricted to some parts of the tree. Given this similarity, we
407 conjecture that only multiple pivots per character could produce inconsistency for
408 parsimony if the model truly generated the data. In other words, if only one pivot per
409 character occurs in the tree, parsimony can be justified just like the model with changes in
410 each character occurring equiprobably over all the tree. With a single pivot per character,

411 several tree branches may have more changes by virtue of being intermediate between
412 pivots, but each of those long branches would have changes in different groups of
413 characters (just like the synapomorphies for the long branches leading to e.g. Cetacea and
414 Chiroptera correspond to different characters; Goloboff et al. 2018), so that they would be
415 unlikely to attract.

416 The fact that models with a CM are strongly rejected by morphological data, and
417 some models without a CM are not, is relevant for the choice of phylogenetic method.
418 Previous studies where Bayesian analysis outperformed parsimony (e.g. Wright and Hillis
419 2014, O'Reilly et al. 2016, Puttick et al. 2017) had generated their data with a CM. In
420 addition, for implied weighting (Goloboff 1993), O'Reilly et al. (2016) and Puttick et al.
421 (2017) chose the worst concavity value ($k=2$, close to a clique, contrary to
422 recommendations of Goloboff 1995: 99) and did not eliminate poorly supported groups
423 (Fig. 8a). With a milder concavity and poorly supported groups eliminated, Bayesian
424 analysis with the Mkv model outperforms implied weighting by a much smaller difference
425 (Fig. 8b), but by a difference nonetheless, when the data are generated with a CM. When
426 the data are generated instead with the half-episodic model, which does not assume a CM,
427 parsimony tends to produce (as in the unrestricted model of Goloboff et al. 2017, and in
428 agreement with expectations) slightly better results than Bayesian analysis (see Fig. 8c). As
429 the number of characters increases (Fig. 8d), **both methods improve their results, but**
430 Bayesian analysis has a slightly poorer performance for every statistic, perhaps as a result
431 of the departure from the CM assumed by the Mkv model becoming more evident (given
432 the large amounts of data).



433

434 **Figure 8.** Comparison between implied weights and Bayesian analysis, using different methods for
 435 simulating and analyzing data (columns), and four different statistics to evaluate performance (rows).
 436 Proportional error is the number of incorrect groups found, divided by the number of groups in the
 437 inferred tree. The values of different statistics for Bayesian analysis are plotted against implied
 438 weights parsimony; by plotting the values for implied weighting on the x-axis, and those for BI on the
 439 y-axis, the deviation from the diagonal allows the difference in performance between the two methods
 440 to be easily detected. Datasets generated with both the Mk model of Lewis (2001) (columns A, B),
 441 and with the half-episodic model (C, D). Each of 100 points represents the average of 10 simulations
 442 with the same numbers of taxa and characters (to reduce dispersion, for a total of 1,000 simulated
 443 datasets). As the datasets are generated with the half-episodic model (lacking a common mechanism),
 444 the number of characters increases, and a concavity value of $k=12$ is used for implied weighting
 445 (instead of $k=2$, the worst performing value, chosen by O'Reilly et al. 2016 and Puttick et al. 2017 for
 446 their comparisons), parsimony outperforms Bayesian analysis **by a smaller margin, but more**
 447 **consistently**. The average values for each statistic are indicated in the x-axis for implied weighting,
 448 and on the y-axis for Bayesian analysis.

449

450 CONCLUSIONS

451 Our findings provide the first empirical demonstration, in a phylogenetic
 452 framework, of the differences in modes of evolution of molecules and morphology. While
 453 models that lack a CM (such as the episodic model) can produce degrees of branch length
 454 correlation between partitions that are in line with those observed in real datasets, the CM

455 assumed by the Mkv model is strongly rejected by the morphological datasets. Of course,
456 as generally acknowledged, a model need not reflect reality perfectly to be a useful aid in
457 estimation, but a model still needs to have *some* basis in reality. If it is accepted that “all
458 models are wrong, but some are useful”, then one must also accept that some models are
459 *not* useful. The extent to which the CM assumed by the Mkv model deviates from reality
460 seems strong enough to suspect the model may well do more harm than good. It is possible
461 that violations of its assumptions rarely mislead Bayesian inference of trees in practice; **our**
462 **simulations show that MrBayes seems rather robust to such violations. Such**
463 **robustness may well be a result of the mechanics of the Markov chain and subsequent**
464 **tree summarization, more than the result of assuming the Mkv model. If this is**
465 **correct, MrBayes with the “parsimony” model might well produce (for datasets**
466 **generated without a CM) trees of about the same quality as those produced with the**
467 **Mkv model (a possibility that has not hitherto been examined in detail).** But one of the
468 advantages claimed for model-based methods is that (by incorporating biological
469 knowledge about evolutionary processes; Huelsenbeck et al. 2011) they allow estimating
470 more than just tree topologies. Unrealistic assumptions built into phylogenetic models,
471 therefore, can also affect studies of character mapping, dating of nodes on given trees,
472 calculation of probabilities of specific evolutionary events, and even how taxonomists think
473 of characters or diagnose groups. Thus, in light of the evidence against the common
474 mechanism assumption, we strongly advise against the uncritical use of the Mkv model.

475 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

476 Material and methods, datasets, results, and scripts are available at the Dryad repository,
477 [doi:10.5061/dryad.3680n0c](https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.3680n0c).

478

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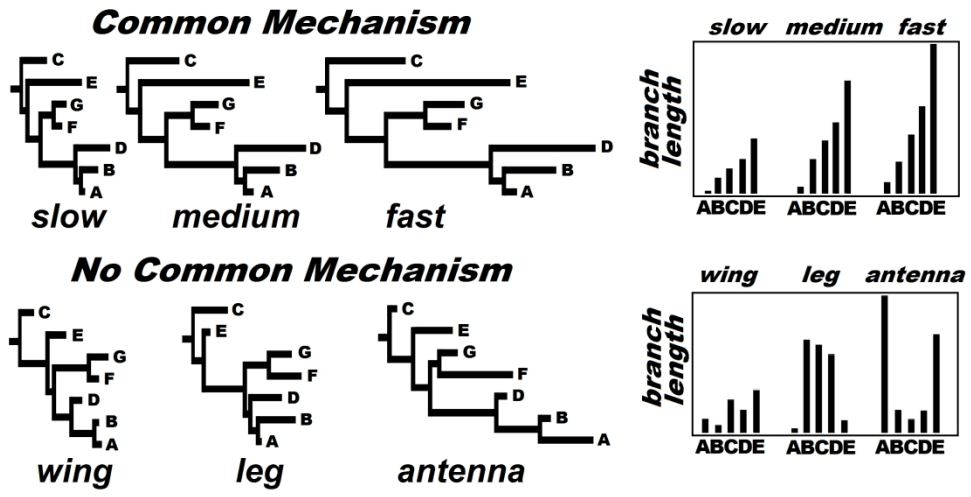


Figure 1

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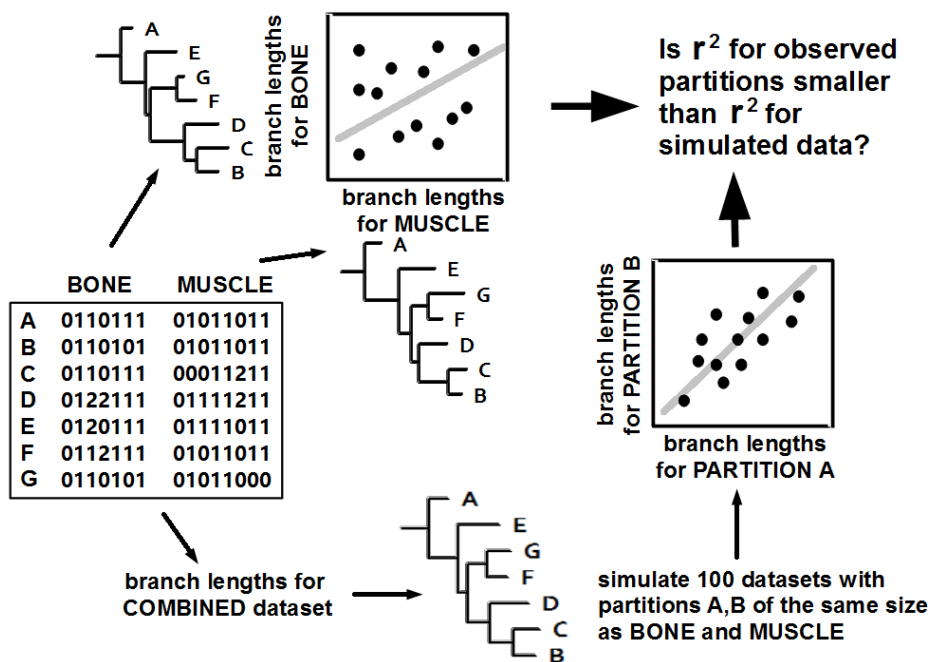


Figure 2

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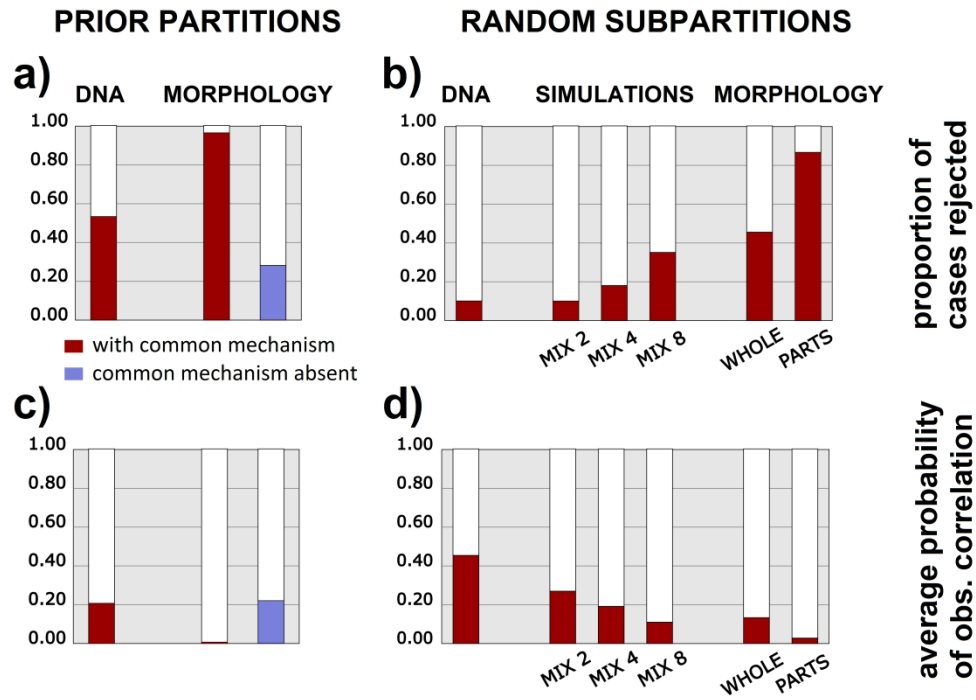


Figure 3

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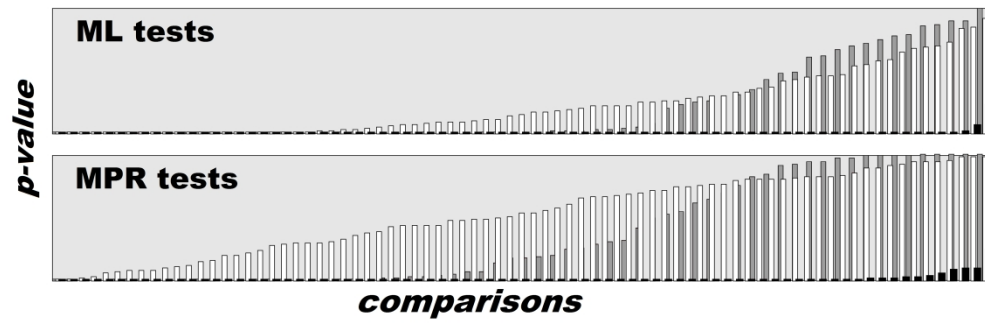


Figure 4

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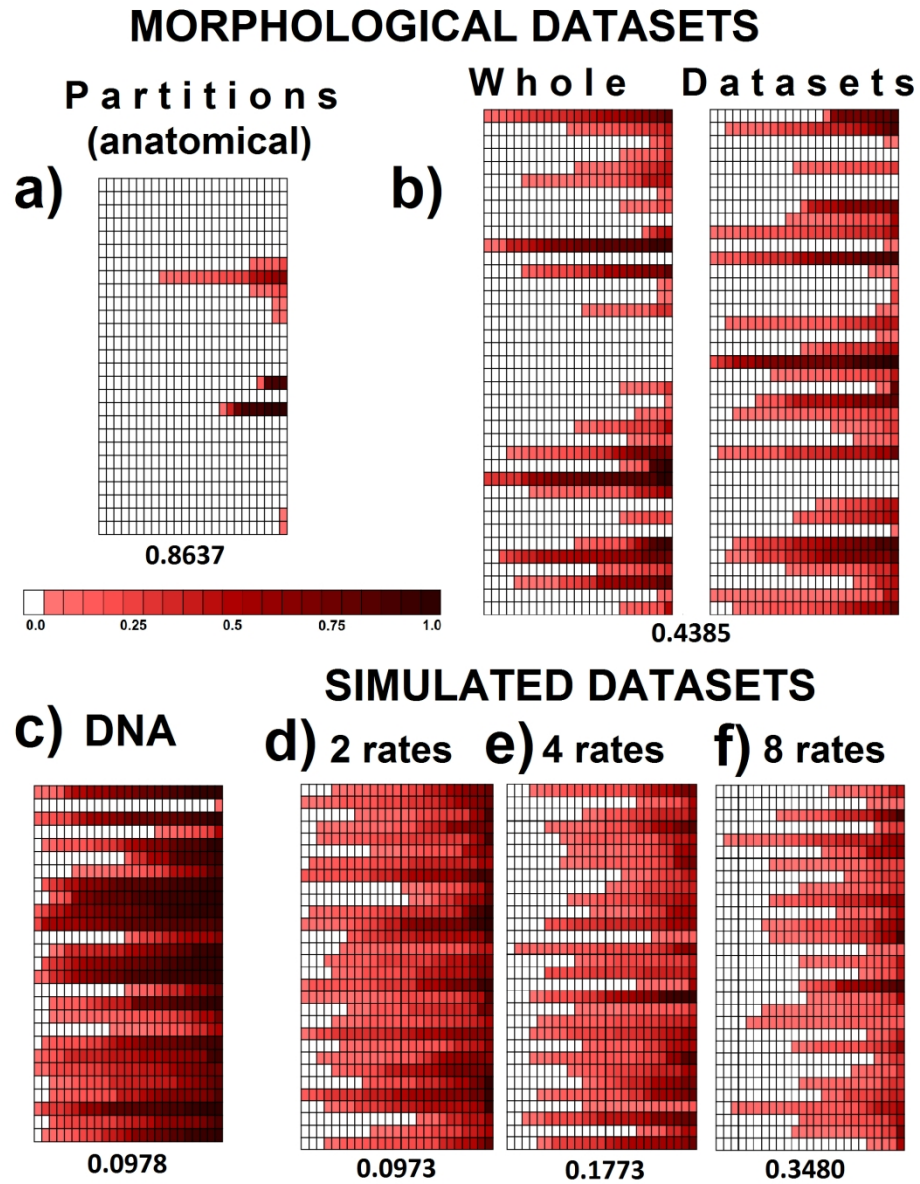
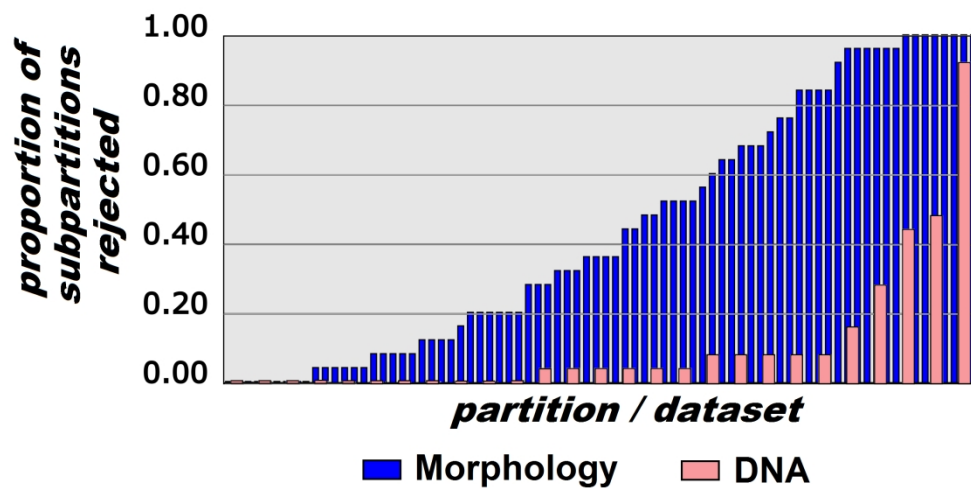


Figure 5

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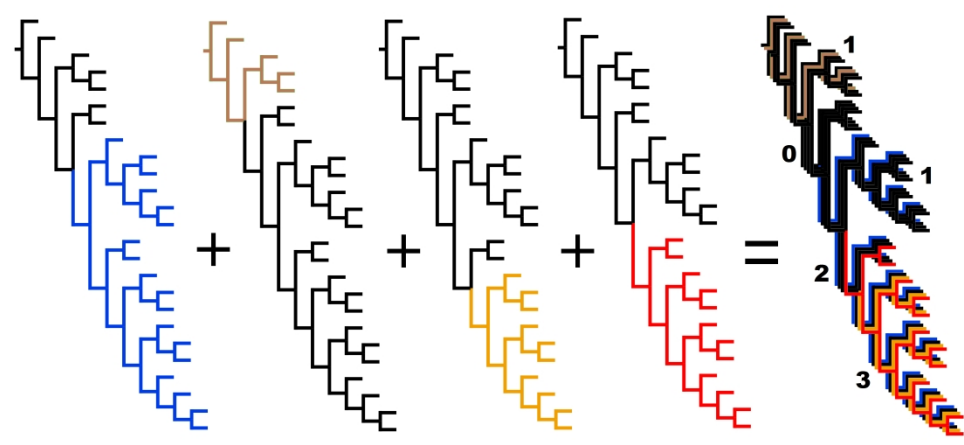


Figure 7

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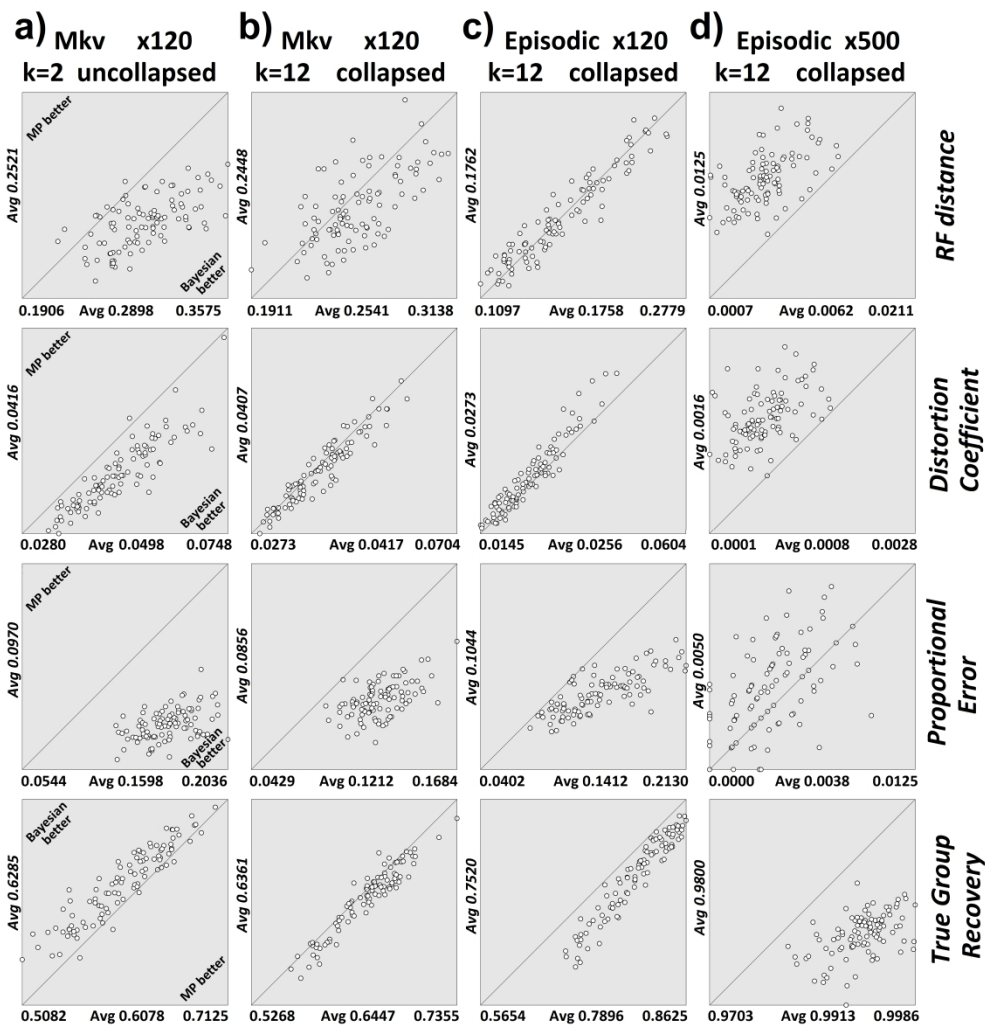


Figure 8

1508x1547mm (96 x 96 DPI)