

# Recalibrating the transcriptomic timetree of jawed vertebrates

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8 **Keywords: timetree, calibration, divergence date, Gnathostomata, Vertebrata**

9 **Abstract**

10 Molecular divergence dating has the potential to overcome the incompleteness of the fossil record in  
11 inferring when cladogenetic events (splits, divergences) happened, but needs to be calibrated by the  
12 fossil record. Ideally but unrealistically, this would require practitioners to be specialists in molecular  
13 evolution, in the phylogeny and the fossil record of all sampled taxa, and in the chronostratigraphy of  
14 the sites the fossils were found in. Paleontologists have therefore tried to help by publishing  
15 compendia of recommended calibrations, and molecular biologists unfamiliar with the fossil record  
16 have made heavy use of such works. Using a recent example of a large timetree inferred from  
17 molecular data, I demonstrate that calibration dates cannot be taken from published compendia  
18 without risking strong distortions to the results, because compendia become outdated faster than they  
19 are published. The present work cannot serve as such a compendium either; in the slightly longer  
20 term, it can only highlight known and overlooked problems. Future authors will need to solve each of  
21 these problems anew through a thorough search of the primary paleobiological and  
22 chronostratigraphic literature on each calibration date every time they infer a new timetree; over 40%  
23 of the sources I cite were published after mid-2016.

24 Treating all calibrations as soft bounds results in younger nodes than treating all calibrations as hard  
25 bounds. The unexpected exception are nodes calibrated with both minimum and maximum ages,  
26 further demonstrating the widely underestimated importance of maximum ages in divergence dating.

27 **1 Introduction**

28 Irisarri et al. (2017) inferred a set of timetrees from the transcriptomes of 100 species of  
29 gnathostomes (jawed vertebrates) and combinations of up to 30 calibrations from the fossil record.  
30 On the unnumbered ninth page of their supplementary information, they described their calibration  
31 dates as “five well-accepted fossil calibrations plus a prior on the root” and “24 additional well-  
32 established calibration points with solid paleontological evidence”. For many of the calibrations,  
33 these optimistic assessments are not tenable. Most were taken from secondary or tertiary literature,  
34 and so they were – in many cases – outdated by about ten years or more in 2017. Many more have  
35 become outdated since then. I have tried to present, and use, the current state of knowledge on each  
36 of these calibrations.

37 **2 Materials and methods**

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### 38 **2.1 Calibrations**

39 In the 29 subsections below I discuss the minimum and maximum ages of all 30 nodes used as  
40 calibrations by Irisarri et al. (2017), referring to each by clade names and by the node number  
41 assigned by Irisarri et al. (2017: especially supp. table 8 and supp. fig. 19), also shown in Fig. 1. The  
42 abbreviation Fm stands for Formation; ICS refers to the International Chronostratigraphic Chart  
43 v2019/5 (Cohen et al., 2019); Ma is the quasi-SI abbreviation for megayear (million years).

#### 44 **2.1.1 Root node (100): crown group of Gnathostomata (total-group Chondrichthyes – total- 45 group Osteichthyes)**

46 The cladogenesis that created the total groups of Chondrichthyes and Osteichthyes was assigned a  
47 minimum age of 421.75 Ma, a remarkably precise date close to the Silurian-Devonian boundary, and  
48 a maximum age of 462.5 Ma, which is currently (ICS) thought to lie in the Darriwilian stage of the  
49 Middle Ordovician.

50 The Darriwilian should rather be regarded as the minimum age of this calibration date. While  
51 articulated bones and teeth of crown-group gnathostomes – both total-group chondrichthyans  
52 (Burrow and Young, 1999) and total-group osteichthyans (Choo et al., 2017, and references therein)  
53 – are only known from the Ludfordian (Ludlow, late Silurian) upward, a large diversity of scales that  
54 are increasingly confidently assigned to stem-chondrichthyans extends all the way down into the  
55 early Darriwilian (Sansom et al., 2012; Andreev et al., 2015, 2016a, b; Žigaitė-Moro et al., 2018;  
56 Sansom and Andreev, 2018; and references therein). The Darriwilian is currently thought to have  
57 begun  $467.3 \pm 1.1$  Ma ago and to have ended  $458.4 \pm 0.9$  Ma ago (ICS); for the purposes of reducing  
58 “the middle part of the Stairway Sandstone” (Sansom et al., 2012: 243) to a single number, the age of  
59 465 Ma should be adequate as a hard minimum age of the gnathostome crown-group.

60 As a maximum age I cautiously propose the mid-Floian (Early Ordovician) upper fossiliferous level  
61 of the Burgess-like Fezouata Shale; at both levels, gnathostomes are absent among the “over 200  
62 taxa, about half of which are soft-bodied” (Lefebvre et al., 2017 “2018”: 296). Note that the oldest  
63 known hard tissues of vertebrates are Floian in age as well (reviewed by Sansom and Andreev,  
64 2018). The Floian began  $477.7 \pm 1.4$  Ma ago and ended  $470.0 \pm 1.4$  Ma ago (ICS), so I suggest a soft  
65 maximum age of 475 Ma for this calibration date.

66 The minimum and the maximum age proposed here are unexpectedly close together. This may be a  
67 sign that one or both is an unduly optimistic assessment of our knowledge of the fossil record – or  
68 that the origin of Gnathostomata formed part of the Great Ordovician Biodiversification Event  
69 (Sansom et al., 2012; Sansom and Andreev, 2018), which does not seem implausible.

#### 70 **2.1.2 Node 102: crown group of Osteichthyes (Actinopterygii – Sarcopterygii)**

71 Irisarri et al. (2017) assigned a minimum age of 416 Ma and a maximum age of 439 Ma, spanning  
72 the Silurian-Devonian boundary, to the cladogenesis that created the osteichthyan crown-group by  
73 separating the sister-groups Actinopterygii and Sarcopterygii.

74 The minimum age of this cladogenesis event depends on the phylogenetic position of the  
75 “psarolepids” (Choo et al., 2017) *Guiyu* and *Sparalepis* from the Kuantu [Guandi] Fm of Yunnan,  
76 China, which represents an early part of the abovementioned Ludfordian stage ( $425.6 \pm 0.9$  to  $423.0$   
77  $\pm 2.3$  Ma ago: ICS). The “psarolepids” lie either just outside the osteichthyan crown-group or just  
78 inside, on the sarcopterygian side of the basal dichotomy (Clement et al., 2018, and references  
79 therein). Following the discussions of this issue in Choo et al. (2017), Lu et al. (2017) and Clement et

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80 al. (2018), and the discussion in Marjanović and Laurin (2019) of the performance of Bayesian  
81 inference on the kind of datasets found in vertebrate paleontology, I favor a stem-osteichthyan  
82 position for this assemblage over a large number of unexpected reversals to a “placoderm” state.

83 The oldest known uncontroversial crown-group osteichthyan is the oldest known dipnomorph,  
84 *Youngolepis*, as discussed below; following the assignment of *Andreolepis* and *Lophosteus* to the  
85 osteichthyan stem (e.g. Botella et al., 2007; Chen et al., 2016), all certain or uncertain  
86 actinopterygians are Devonian or younger. Thus, the minimum age for this calibration is the same as  
87 that for the next, Node 104.

88 Likewise, for the same reasons as discussed under Node 104, I cannot assign a maximum age to this  
89 divergence other than that for the root node. I recommend against using this cladogenetic event as a  
90 calibration date if Nodes 100 and 104 are available.

### 91 **2.1.3 Node 104: Dipnomorpha – Tetrapodomorpha**

92 The divergence of the sister-groups Dipnomorpha (the lungfish total group) and Tetrapodomorpha  
93 (the tetrapod total group) was assigned a minimum age of 408 and a maximum age of 419 Ma.

94 The minimum age may not contradict the age of the oldest known tetrapodomorph, *Tungsenia*, which  
95 is Pragian in age (Lu et al., 2012); the beginning of the Pragian is dated to  $410.8 \pm 2.8$  Ma, its end to  
96  $407.6 \pm 2.6$  Ma (ICS). However, the minimum age is clearly younger than the oldest known  
97 dipnomorphs. The oldest known specimens have been referred to *Youngolepis* and come from the  
98 lower part of the Xishancun Fm (Zhu and Fan, 1995). This formation is generally (e.g. Choo et al.,  
99 2017; Liu et al., 2017 “2018”; and references therein) considered to represent the lower third or less  
100 of the Lochkovian stage, its bottom coinciding with the Silurian-Devonian boundary, which is  
101 currently dated to  $419.2 \pm 3.2$  Ma (ICS). However, Zhang et al. (2014) placed it in the middle of the  
102 immediately preceding Přídolí stage, which began  $423.0 \pm 2.3$  Ma ago (ICS). Needing a single  
103 number to summarize this uncertainty, I suggest a hard minimum age of 420 Ma for Node 104, the  
104 divergence of Dipnomorpha and Tetrapodomorpha. (This is a revision stratigraphically downward  
105 from the 410 Ma recommended by Marjanović and Laurin, 2007.)

106 A maximum age is difficult to assign. The abovementioned Kuantu Fm, which is universally (Zhang  
107 et al., 2014) regarded as representing an early part of the Ludfordian stage which preceded the  
108 Přídolí, has yielded several crown-group gnathostomes, but the sample seems too small to tell  
109 whether the absence of dipno- and tetrapodomorphs is real. Only one even partial articulated crown-  
110 group gnathostome is known from any other Ludfordian site in the world (*Yealepis*, which lies on the  
111 chondrichthyan stem: Burrow and Young, 1999). Comparably rich sites older than the Ludfordian  
112 have not been discovered. I cannot recommend any particular maximum age for this calibration  
113 point, other than by implication the maximum age of the root node (475 Ma, see above).

### 114 **2.1.4 Node 105: crown group of Tetrapoda (Amphibia – total group of Amniota)**

115 The divergence between the ancestors of lissamphibians and those of amniotes was assigned a  
116 minimum age of 330.4 and a maximum of 350.1 Ma.

117 For a long time, the oldest crown-group tetrapod was thought to be the supposed stem-amphibian  
118 *Lethiscus*, which is mid-Viséan in age (Smithson et al., 2012, and references therein; the Viséan  
119 lasted from  $346.7 \pm 0.4$  to  $330.9 \pm 0.2$  Ma ago: ICS). More likely, *Lethiscus* and the other aïstopods  
120 are rather early-branching stem-tetrapods (Pardo et al. 2017, 2018 “2019”; Clack et al., 2019).  
121 Whether *Casineria* from a geographically (southeastern Scotland) and stratigraphically close site  
122 (mid-late Viséan: Paton et al., 1999; Smithson et al., 2012) can replace it in that function depends on  
123 two unresolved issues: its own phylogenetic position, for which estimates range from very close to

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124 Amniota (in the tetrapod crown-group) into Temnospondyli (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019, and  
125 references therein; Clack et al., 2019); and the controversial phylogenetic position of Lissamphibia in  
126 the tetrapod tree (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019; Danto et al., 2019; and references in both), which  
127 determines whether the temnospondyls are crown-tetrapods or rather distal stem-group members.

128 Anderson et al. (2015) reported a number of isolated anthracosaur (embolomere and/or eoherpetid)  
129 bones from a mid-Tournaisian site (the Tournaisian preceding the Viséan and beginning at the  
130 Devonian/Carboniferous boundary  $358.9 \pm 0.4$  Ma ago: ICS). Whether these are crown-group  
131 tetrapods depends on the relative positions of temnospondyls, anthracosaurs and other clades in that  
132 region of the tree (Pardo et al., 2018 “2019”; Marjanović and Laurin, 2019; and references in both) in  
133 addition to the position of Lissamphibia: even if the lissamphibians are temnospondyls, the  
134 anthracosaurs may still be stem-tetrapods.

135 The same site has yielded tetrapod trackways, some of which are tetradactyl (Smithson et al. 2012,  
136 and references therein). Among Paleozoic tetrapods, tetradactyly is only known among “microsaurs”  
137 (including lysorophians), scincosaurids, some urocordylids, temnospondyls and *Colosteus*. (Reports  
138 of tetradactyl limbs in diplocaulids have been erroneous: Milner, 2019; Marjanović and Laurin, 2019,  
139 and references therein.) *Colosteus* and probably (Clack et al., 2019) the urocordylids were stem-  
140 tetrapods, but both were fully aquatic, thus unlikely to leave trackways; “microsaurs” and probably  
141 scincosaurids were crown-tetrapods, and most were amphibious to terrestrial; temnospondyls  
142 spanned the full range of lifestyles, but see above for their phylogenetic position. In short, whether  
143 tetradactyl trackways are evidence of crown-group tetrapods in the mid-late Tournaisian remains  
144 unclear.

145 The oldest uncontroversial crown-group tetrapod is thus *Westlothiana* from close to the end of the  
146 Viséan (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019, and references therein, especially Smithson et al., 1994, 2012).  
147 Other tetrapods from the same site and age may or may not belong to the crown-group: whether the  
148 temnospondyl *Balanerpeton* (Milner and Sequeira, 1994; Schoch and Milner, 2014) is a crown-group  
149 tetrapod depends on the resolution of the abovementioned controversy about Lissamphibia; likewise,  
150 see above on the “anthracosaur-grade” (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019) animals *Silvanerpeton* and  
151 *Eldeceon*; *Kirktonecta* (Clack, 2011) is likely a crown-group tetrapod, but (like *Eldeceon*) it needs  
152 to be fully prepared or  $\mu$ CT-scanned before a confident assessment can be made.

153 Thus, the hard minimum age may be as young as roughly 335 Ma (mid-late Viséan) or as old as  
154 roughly 350 Ma (early-middle Tournaisian) depending on two phylogenetic problems. I have used  
155 both in separate analyses to test the sensitivity of the results to this calibration.

156 The few Tournaisian tetrapod sites discovered so far (Smithson et al., 2012; Anderson et al., 2015;  
157 Clack et al., 2016) have not yielded any uncontroversial crown-group tetrapods, temnospondyl bones  
158 or temnospondyl footprints; thus, if the temnospondyls are stem-tetrapods, the ages of these sites (up  
159 to roughly 350 Ma) may be useful as a maximum age. However, they represent a very small region of  
160 the Carboniferous globe, so I continue (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019) to caution against this  
161 regardless of the phylogenetic issues. Rather, the richer and better studied Famennian (end-  
162 Devonian) record, which has not so far yielded tetrapods close to the crown-group but has yielded  
163 more stemward tetrapods and other tetrapodomorphs (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019), should be used  
164 to place a soft maximum age around very roughly 365 Ma.

### 165 **2.1.5 Node 106: Amniota (Theropsida – Sauropsida)**

166 The cladogenesis that separated the total group of mammals (Theropsida: Goodrich, 1916) from the  
167 total group of diapsids including turtles (Sauropsida: Goodrich, 1916) was assigned a minimum age  
168 of 288 Ma and a maximum age of 338 Ma.



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169 This minimum age is rather puzzling. I am not aware of any doubts on the membership of *Hylonomus*  
170 in Sauropsida since its redescription by Carroll (1964), except the very vague ones presented by  
171 Graur and Martin (2004) and taken from even more outdated literature. Because of its late Bashkirian  
172 age, this calibration has often been dated to 310 Ma (as discussed by Graur and Martin, 2004).  
173 Currently (ICS), the Bashkirian is thought to have ended  $315.2 \pm 0.2$  and begun  $323.2 \pm 0.4$  Ma ago,  
174 and the site (Joggins, Nova Scotia) that has yielded *Hylonomus* has been dated to 317–319 Ma  
175 (Carpenter et al., 2015); thus, given the fairly highly nested position of *Hylonomus* (Müller and  
176 Reisz, 2006; though note that wider amniote phylogeny was not tested), I suggest a hard minimum  
177 age of 318 Ma for this calibration.

178 There appears to be synapsid therapsid material from the same site (Carroll, 1964; Mann et al., in  
179 revision). I should also emphasize that the next younger sauropsids and therapsids older than 288 Ma  
180 come from several sites in each following geological stage (Moscovian through Artinskian) and  
181 represent a considerable diversity; from the Moscovian alone, four sites of successive ages are known  
182 that present more or less complete skeletons of uncontroversial amniotes, namely sauropsids closely  
183 related to Diapsida and *Hylonomus* (*Anthracodromeus*, *Brouffia*, *Cephalerpeton*, *Paleothyris*), the  
184 oldest “parareptile” (*Carbonodraco*) as well as what appears to be the sister-group to most other  
185 sauropsids (*Coelostegus*), and, on the therapsid side, ophiacodontid synapsids (*Echinerpeton*;  
186 *Archaeothyris* from two sites). This implies ghost lineages for several other amniote clades that  
187 might not have lived in coal swamps; several of these show up in the fossil record of the next and last  
188 two stages of the Carboniferous, which ended  $298.9 \pm 0.15$  Ma ago (ICS). For more information on  
189 the Carboniferous amniote record see Reisz and Modesto (1996: fig. 3), Müller and Reisz (2006),  
190 Mann and Paterson (2019) and Mann et al. (2019), the middle two with phylogenetic analyses, and  
191 references in all four. Additionally, the oldest known diadectomorphs date from the Kasimovian  
192 (“Missourian” in Kissel, 2010) which follows the Moscovian; they may represent the sister-group of  
193 Amniota, or they may be non-synapsid therapsids (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019; Klembara et al.,  
194 2019; and references in both).

195 The absence of amniotes (and diadectomorphs) in the Serpukhovian record preceding the Bashkirian  
196 should not be given much weight for paleoecological reasons; note that “lepospondyls” like the  
197 Viséan *Kirktonecta* and *Westlothiana*, closely related to but outside Amniota, are almost unknown  
198 from this age as well (candidates were described by Carroll et al., 1991; Carroll and Chorn, 1995;  
199 Lombard and Bolt, 1999). Their absence from the somewhat richer Viséan record (discussed above)  
200 suffers in part from the same problem, in part from geographic restrictions. Thus, I refrain from  
201 recommending a maximum age other than that of the preceding Node 105, even though such an early  
202 age would imply very slow rates of morphological evolution in the earliest thero- and sauropsids.

### 203 **2.1.6 Node 107: crown group of Diapsida (Lepidosauromorpha – Archosauromorpha); Node** 204 **108: Archelosauria (Pan-Testudines – Pan-Archosauria)**

205 The origin of the diapsid crown group by a split into Lepidosauromorpha and Archosauromorpha was  
206 assigned a minimum age of 252 Ma and a maximum age of 257 Ma. Ezcurra et al. (2014; correction:  
207 The PLOS ONE Staff, 2014) agreed that the oldest unambiguous crown-group diapsid that can be  
208 clearly dated is the archosauromorph *Protorosaurus*, which is, however,  $257.3 \pm 1.6$  Ma old as they  
209 also discussed. Therefore, they revised the minimum age to 255.7 Ma, the younger end of this  
210 confidence interval.

211 However, like all other phylogenetic analyses of molecular data, Irisarri et al. (2017) found the turtles  
212 to be archosauromorphs. If this is correct – note that Irisarri et al. (2017: supplementary table 5)  
213 showed that three alternative positions (within Archosauria, as lepidosauromorphs or outside at least  
214 the crown-group of Diapsida) are almost equally well supported –, the question whether

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215 *Eunotosaurus* is a member of the turtle stem (Schoch and Sues, 2017 “2018”, and references therein)  
216 becomes relevant, because the earliest occurrence of *Eunotosaurus* is roughly middle Capitanian in  
217 age; the Capitanian ended  $259.1 \pm 0.5$  Ma ago and began  $265.1 \pm 0.4$  Ma ago, and further because  
218 *Protorosaurus* would almost certainly belong to the archosaur total group and thus calibrate node  
219 108, not 107.

220 Given that I am trying to date the tree of Irisarri et al. (2017), I set the hard minimum age of  
221 Archelosauria (Node 108) as 263 Ma, the approximate midpoint of the Capitanian. But in general I  
222 have to, at our current level of understanding, recommend against using either of these two nodes as a  
223 calibration. The reason are two major uncertainties about the topology of the phylogenetic tree. First,  
224 if *Eunotosaurus* has moved from the “parareptiles” well outside Diapsida to the turtle stem within the  
225 crown group of Diapsida, do any other “parareptiles” follow it? The oldest known member of that  
226 assemblage comes from the site of Linton in Ohio (Mann et al., 2019), which is about 307–308 Ma  
227 old (compare Reisz and Modesto, 1996, and Carpenter et al., 2015), so that should be the minimum  
228 age of Archelosauria if all “parareptiles” are archosaurs; the currently available phylogenies of  
229 “parareptiles” (Laurin and Piñeiro, 2018; MacDougall et al., 2019) did not adequately test this  
230 question. While Schoch and Sues (2017 “2018”) did test the mutual relationships of “parareptiles”,  
231 *Eunotosaurus* and diapsids and found *Eunotosaurus* nested in the latter, several nodes away from the  
232 former, these nodes were very poorly supported. The character and taxon samples of all existing  
233 matrices for analyses of amniote phylogeny need to be substantially improved (Ford and Benson,  
234 2018 “2019”; Laurin and Piñeiro, 2018; MacDougall et al., 2019; Mann et al., 2019). Second, I have  
235 mentioned the uncertainty over the relationships of lepidosaurs, archosaurs and turtles in the trees of  
236 Irisarri et al. (2017); they are large enough that we may look at morphological data as a further source  
237 of information, and the available analyses of morphological data (Schoch and Sues, 2017 “2018”)  
238 have not resolved whether the turtles or the rather long branch of the lepidosauromorphs lies closer to  
239 Archosauria.

240 The maximum age of either node is likewise difficult to narrow down. Uncontroversial diapsids have  
241 a notoriously patchy Paleozoic record; the same holds for “parareptiles”, which have only two known  
242 Carboniferous records so far (Modesto et al., 2015; Mann et al., 2019). I cannot express confidence  
243 in a maximum age other than that of Node 106, which I cannot distinguish from the maximum age of  
244 Node 105 as explained above. This leaves Node 107 without independent calibrations in the current  
245 taxon sample.

### 246 **2.1.7 Node 109: Archosauria (crocodile total group – bird total group)**

247 The origin of Archosauria by cladogenesis into the total group of crocodiles and birds was given a  
248 minimum age of 243 Ma and a maximum age of 251 Ma.

249 The earliest known archosaur, belonging to the crocodile stem, is *Ctenosauriscus* from just before the  
250 end of the Olenëkian (Butler et al., 2011). The age of the Olenëkian/Anisian (Early/Middle Triassic)  
251 boundary is given in the ICS as 247.2 Ma without a confidence interval; any such confidence interval  
252 cannot be long, however, because an Olenëkian sample has been dated to  $247.32 \pm 0.08$  Ma, while an  
253 Anisian sample has been dated to  $247.08 \pm 0.11$  Ma (Maron et al., 2018 “2019”). Given the highly  
254 nested phylogenetic position of *Ctenosauriscus* in Archosauria (Butler et al., 2011), I propose  
255 248 Ma as the hard minimum age of this calibration.

256 I accept the Permian-Triassic boundary ( $251.902 \pm 0.024$  Ma; ICS; rounded to 252) as the soft  
257 maximum age on the grounds that a major radiation of archosauromorphs at the beginning of the  
258 Triassic seems likely for ecological reasons: the Permian record, up to its very end, is full of synapsid  
259 theropsids that seem ecologically comparable to Triassic archosaurs, and given the Pangea situation  
260 of the time it seems reasonably unlikely that archosaurs existed in unsampled localities. I must

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261 caution, however, that the fossil record of archosauromorphs and possible archosauromorphs in the  
262 four million years of the Triassic preceding the minimum age, and in the Permian, is very patchy,  
263 with a poor fit between stratigraphy and phylogeny.

### 264 **2.1.8 Node 111: Alligatoridae (Alligatorinae – Caimaninae)**

265 The origin of Alligatoridae (the crown group of Brevirostres) by split into Alligatorinae and  
266 Caimaninae was given a minimum age of 66 Ma and a maximum age of 75 Ma.

267 The minimum age would fit well with the finding by Cossette and Brochu (2018) that *Bottosaurus*  
268 from the very end of the Cretaceous is a caimanine. Given, however, the limited material and the  
269 stratigraphic gap between *Bottosaurus* and the next younger known caimanines, Cossette and Brochu  
270 (2018) expressed doubt about the result of their phylogenetic analysis which placed *Bottosaurus* not  
271 only within the caimanine crown-group but next to the extant *Paleosuchus*.

272 If *Bottosaurus* is not an alligatorid at all, the oldest known member is the alligatorine *Navajosuchus*  
273 from within the first million years of the Paleocene (Puercan NALMA [North American Land  
274 Mammal Age]), translating to a hard minimum age of 65 Ma (Wang et al., 2016, and references  
275 therein). The oldest known caimanines (*Protocaiman*, *Eocaiman paleocenicus* and *Necrosuchus*:  
276 Bona et al., 2018) follow shortly thereafter (Peligran SALMA [South American Land Mammal Age],  
277 64–63 Ma ago: Woodburne et al., 2014).

278 Halliday et al. (2013), however, found the Campanian to Maastrichtian *Brachychampsa* to be an  
279 alligatorine, as did Arriba et al. (2019) in a less densely sampled analysis of Crocodyliformes; Bona  
280 et al. (2018) found it and the newly added Campanian *Albertochampsa* to be caimanines. In either of  
281 these cases, the earliest record of an alligatorid is *Brachychampsa sealeyi* from early in the  
282 Campanian, which began  $83.6 \pm 0.2$  Ma ago (ICS). These results were not replicated by Lee and  
283 Yates (2018) or by Groh et al. (2019), who both found *Brachychampsa* on the brevirostrine stem, not  
284 as an alligatorid, and who both did not include *Albertochampsa* in their datasets. I must caution,  
285 however, that Groh et al. (2019) found Alligatorinae, and even *Alligator* itself, as a Hennigian comb  
286 in which Caimaninae was nested; this result strongly suggests that the character sample was  
287 insufficient to resolve Brevirostres.

288 Given this uncertainty, I have used a hard minimum age of 65 Ma for present purposes, but generally  
289 recommend against using this cladogenesis as a calibration for timetrees.

290 Up to (and including) the Campanian, the record of neosuchians is a surprisingly spotty affair (e.g.  
291 Tykoski et al., 2002; Mateus et al., 2018 “2019”). Although a Late Cretaceous age of Alligatoridae  
292 (i.e. less than 100.5 Ma: ICS) is likely, I cannot, therefore, assign a maximum age younger than the  
293 Triassic/Jurassic boundary, i.e. twice as old ( $201.3 \pm 0.2$  Ma: ICS; rounded to 200). Only in the  
294 Triassic is the record of ecologically comparable phytosaurs dense enough to really rule out the  
295 presence of amphibious crocodylomorphs such as alligatorids. However, I have treated this  
296 maximum as hard because the likelihood that the true age approaches it is very low.

### 297 **2.1.9 Node 113: crown group of Neognathae (Gallanseres – Neoaves)**

298 The last common ancestor of *Anas*, *Gallus* and *Meleagris* on one side and *Taeniopygia* on the other  
299 was assigned a minimum age of 66 Ma and a maximum age of 86.5 Ma.

300 The oldest known crown-group neognath appears to be the presbyornithid stem-anseriform  
301 (Elżanowski, 2014; Tambussi et al., 2019) *Teviornis* from somewhere low in the Late Cretaceous  
302 Nemegt Fm of Mongolia; it is known only from a carpometacarpus, two phalanges and the distal end  
303 of a humerus that all seem to belong to the same right wing (Kurochkin et al., 2002). The most recent

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304 work on the specimen has bolstered its presbyornithid identity (De Pietri et al., 2016), even though  
305 the next younger presbyornithids are middle or late Paleocene (i.e. younger than 61.6 Ma: ICS).

306 The age of the Nemegt Fm is difficult to pin down; radiometric dating of this or adjacent formations  
307 has not been possible, and the only fossils available for biostratigraphy are vertebrates that have to be  
308 compared to those of North America where marine correlations and radiometric dates are known.  
309 These comparisons favor a vaguely early Maastrichtian age, without ruling out a Campanian  
310 component. Magnetostratigraphic evidence was reported in a conference abstract by Hicks et al.  
311 (2001); I have not been able to find a follow-up publication. Hicks et al. (2001) stated that the  
312 sampled sections from the Nemegt and the conformably underlying Baruungoyot Fm “can be quite  
313 reliably correlated to the Geomagnetic Reversal Time Scale [...] and clearly lie in the  
314 Campanian/Maastrichtian interval that extends from the uppermost part of subchron C33n, through  
315 chron 32 into the lower half of chron 31.” Where on this scale the Baruungoyot/Nemegt boundary  
316 lies was not mentioned. The upper boundary of the Nemegt Fm is an unconformity with a Paleocene  
317 formation.

318 Hicks et al. (2001) also worked on the Late Cretaceous Djadokhta Fm, finding that “a distinct  
319 reversal sequence is emerging that allows us to correlate the sections in a preliminary way to the late  
320 Campanian through Maastrichtian interval that ranges from C32 to C31.” While I have not been able  
321 to find a publication by an overlapping set of authors on this finding, it agrees at least broadly with  
322 Dashzeveg et al. (2005: 18, 26, 27), whose own magnetostratigraphic work on the Djadokhta Fm  
323 indicated “that the sediments were deposited during the rapid sequence of polarity changes in the late  
324 part of the Campanian incorporating the end of Chron 33 and Chron 32 between about 75 and 71 Ma  
325 [...]. However, this tentative correlation to the Geomagnetic Polarity Timescale cannot yet be  
326 certainly established.” Hasegawa et al. (2008 “2009”) disagreed with the stratigraphy by Dashzeveg  
327 et al. (2005), but not with their dating.

328 Most often, the Djadokhta Fm has been thought to underlie the Baruungoyot Fm, but a contact  
329 between the two has not so far been identified (Dingus et al., 2008; cited without comment e.g. by  
330 Chinzorig et al., 2017); they could be partly coeval (references in Hasegawa et al., 2008). Still, it  
331 seems safe to say that most of the Nemegt Fm is younger than most of the Djadokhta Fm.

332 According to Milanese et al. (2018 “2019”: fig. 12), the Campanian-Maastrichtian boundary ( $72.1 \pm$   
333  $0.2$  Ma ago: ICS) lies near the end of chron 32. The Djadokhta Fm thus corresponds to the end of the  
334 Campanian, the Baruungoyot Fm should have at most the same age, and the youngest  
335 magnetostratigraphic sample from the Nemegt Fm, in the earlier half of chron 31, should be about 70  
336 Ma old. Given the stratigraphic position of *Teviornis* low within the formation and its nested  
337 phylogenetic position within Neognathae, I propose 71 Ma (within the same subchron as 70 Ma:  
338 Milanese et al., 2018: fig. 12) as the soft minimum age of the present calibration.

339 Should the fragmentary *Teviornis* fall out elsewhere, the minimum age would remain in the  
340 Maastrichtian: *Vegavis*, *Polarornis* and *Neogaeornis* seem to be stem-anseriforms as well (Agnolín et  
341 al., 2017; Tambussi et al., 2019; though see Mayr et al., 2018), and all three come from the late  
342 Maastrichtian (Clarke et al., 2005; Salazar et al., 2010).

343 As the soft maximum age I tentatively suggest 115 Ma, an estimate of the mid-Aptian age of the  
344 (likewise terrestrial) Xiagou Fm of northwestern China, which has yielded a diversity of stem-birds  
345 but no particularly close relatives of the crown (Wang et al., 2013; Bailleul et al., 2019; and  
346 references therein).



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### 347 **2.1.10 Node 117: Testudines (Panpleurodira – Pancryptodira)**

348 The origin of the turtle crown group by split into the pleurodiran and cryptodiran total groups was  
349 assigned a minimum age of 210 Ma and no maximum age.

350 The calibration dates treated above are all too young (some substantially so, others by just a few  
351 million years). This one, in contrast, is far too old. It rests on the outdated interpretation of the Norian  
352 (Late Triassic) *Proterochersis* as a stem-panpleurodire. With one short series of exceptions (Gaffney  
353 et al., 2006, 2007; Gaffney and Jenkins, 2010), all treatments of Mesozoic turtle phylogeny from the  
354 21<sup>st</sup> century have consistently found *Proterochersis* and all other turtles older than Late Jurassic to lie  
355 outside the crown group (Joyce et al., 2016; Sterli et al., 2018; and references therein, in Gaffney and  
356 Jenkins, 2010, and in Romano et al., 2014a). The oldest known securely dated crown-group turtle is  
357 thus the mid-late Oxfordian stem-panpleurodire *Caribemys* (de la Fuente and Iturralde-Vinent, 2001;  
358 Joyce et al., 2016). The Oxfordian ended  $157.3 \pm 1.0$  Ma ago (ICS), so I propose 158 Ma as the hard  
359 minimum age for this calibration.

360 The stem-trionychian cryptodire *Sinaspideretes* (Tong et al., 2013 “2014”) may have the same age or  
361 be somewhat older. Of the three known specimens, at least one (the exact localities where the type  
362 and the other specimen were found are unknown) comes from the Upper (Shang-) Shaximiao Fm  
363 (Tong et al., 2013 “2014”), which conformably overlies a sequence of two Middle Jurassic  
364 formations and is overlain by two Upper Jurassic formations (Tong et al., 2011 “2012”; Xing et al.,  
365 2013), so it should be about Oxfordian to Callovian in age. The biostratigraphic evidence for the age  
366 of the Upper Shaximiao Fm is conflicting; there is no consensus on whether it is Middle or Late  
367 Jurassic (Xing et al., 2013). It is of course possible that the formation spans both epochs or more with  
368 its four members; but Tong et al. (2013 “2014”) did not state which member the *Sinaspideretes*  
369 specimen in question comes from.

370 Be that as it may, the unambiguously Middle Jurassic record of turtles very close to but outside the  
371 crown group is actually quite rich in Asia (Tong et al., 2011 “2012”; Joyce et al., 2016; and  
372 references therein), meaning that at least the observed absence of cryptodires is likely real;  
373 combining this with more rootward Middle and Early Jurassic stem turtles from other continents (see  
374 Sterli et al., 2018), I suggest a hard maximum age of 175 Ma based on the beginning of the Middle  
375 Jurassic ( $174.1 \pm 1.0$  Ma ago: ICS).

### 376 **2.1.11 Node 124: Pleurodira (Pan-Chelidae – Pan-Pelomedusoides)**

377 Citing a source from 2006, the origin of Pleurodira by the cladogenesis that generated Pan-Chelidae  
378 (represented by *Phrynops*) and Pan-Pelomedusoides (represented by *Pelusios*) was given a minimum  
379 age of 25 Ma and no maximum age.

380 I have not tried to trace what misunderstanding lies at the root of this perplexing number. Pleurodira  
381 has long been known to extend into the Early Cretaceous (reviewed by Pérez-García, 2019); pan-  
382 podocnemidids within Pelomedusoides have a particularly rich fossil record. At present, the oldest  
383 known pleurodire is the late Barremian pan-podocnemidid *Atolchelys* (Romano et al., 2014a; Ferreira  
384 et al., 2018; Pérez-García, 2019), conveniently suggesting a hard minimum age of 125 Ma for this  
385 calibration (Romano et al., 2014a; ICS).

386 Due to the fairly highly nested position of *Atolchelys* within Pleurodira (whether or not it is a  
387 bothremydid – Romano et al., 2014a; Cadena, 2015; Ferreira et al., 2018), and due to the somewhat  
388 sparse record of stem-pleurodires (from the Late Jurassic onwards: Romano et al., 2014a; Cadena,  
389 2015; Pérez-García 2019), I agree with Irisarri et al. (2017) in not assigning a maximum age other  
390 than that of Node 117.

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### 391 **2.1.12 Node 125: Lepidosauria (Rhynchocephalia – Squamata)**

392 The minimum age of this calibration, given as 238 Ma, has to be slightly revised to 244 Ma (hard)  
393 based on *Megachirella*, the oldest known stem-squamate (Renesto and Bernardi, 2013 “2014”;  
394 Simões et al., 2018: table S2), which is older than the oldest known rhynchocephalian (238–240 Ma:  
395 Jones et al., 2013).

396 An Early Triassic or perhaps Late Permian maximum age seems reasonable, but, given the rarity of  
397 stem-lepidosauromorphs and of Permian diapsids in general, I rather propose to use the ecologically  
398 similar small amniotes of Richards Spur ( $289 \pm 0.68$  Ma, see Node 107) to support a soft maximum  
399 age of 290 Ma.

### 400 **2.1.13 Node 129: Toxicofera (Pythonomorpha – Anguimorpha incl. Iguanomorpha)**

401 This calibration was given a minimum age of 148 Ma and no maximum age.

402 The oldest known total-group snake (pythonomorph) is currently the Bathonian ophidian *Eophis*  
403 (Caldwell et al., 2015; Martill et al., 2015; by implication Conrad, 2017 “2018”); as the Bathonian  
404 began  $168.3 \pm 1.3$  Ma ago and ended  $166.1 \pm 1.2$  Ma ago, i.e. with uncertainty ranges that overlap in  
405 the middle (ICS), the suggestion of 167 Ma by Caldwell et al. (2015) is a reasonable hard minimum  
406 age for this calibration. The oldest known uncontroversial angui- and iguanomorphs (see below) are  
407 considerably younger, and so is the Cretaceous assemblage of marine squamates (mosasaurs,  
408 dolichosaurs, pontosaurs etc.) whose positions as angui- or pythonomorphs are controversial.

409 Given the sparse fossil record of Jurassic squamates, in particular the apparent lack or near-lack of a  
410 fossil record for Early Jurassic or Late Triassic squamates (see below), I agree with Irisarri et al.  
411 (2017) in not assigning a maximum age other than that for Node 125.

### 412 **2.1.14 Node 131: Iguania (Chamaeleoniformes – Iguanoidea)**

413 The origin of Iguania, the crown group of Iguanomorpha, by cladogenesis into Chamaeleoniformes  
414 and Iguanoidea was assigned a minimum age of 165 Ma and a maximum age of 230 Ma.

415 *Tikiguania* was described as a Late Triassic acrodontan (crown-group chamaeleoniform). Not only is  
416 it an acrodontan, it is a draconine agamid (Hutchinson et al., 2012); most likely, therefore, the very  
417 well preserved isolated lower jaw is not a fossil, but belongs to one of the extant draconine species  
418 that live on the site, and fell into the screenwashing sample (Hutchinson et al., 2012).

419 *Bharatagama* is known (Evans et al., 2002) from at least 85 maxilla and dentary fragments (with  
420 supposed genuine absence of the splenial and supposed fusion of the angular to the dentary) that  
421 undoubtedly come from the Upper Member of the Kota Fm in Andhra Pradesh (India), for which, on  
422 the balance of conflicting biostratigraphic evidence (Prasad and Manhas, 2007; Prasad et al., 2014), a  
423 late Middle Jurassic age seems most likely (notwithstanding the fact that the Lower Member  
424 conformably overlies the Dharmaram Fm, which extends down into the Triassic as shown by its  
425 phytosaurs and aëtosaurus: Goswami et al., 2016 “2018”). Even so, this age (i.e.  $163.5 \pm 1.0$  Ma or  
426 older: ICS) is old enough by comparison to the iguanomorph fossil record and the position of  
427 Iguanomorpha in all molecular phylogenies (including Irisarri et al., 2017) that Jones et al. (2013:  
428 15), whose molecular dating found Toxicofera as a whole to be younger than *Bharatagama*, stated:  
429 “It is possible that *Bharatagama* represents an early stem crown-group [sic] squamate with a jaw  
430 morphology convergent with modern acrodont [= acrodontan] iguanians, or that it belongs to another  
431 clade.” Simões et al. (2017) cited these doubts without further comment. Evans et al. (2002: 306)  
432 listed a number of features shared by acrodontans and sphenodontians; three of these do not occur in  
433 the Cretaceous priscagamid stem-chamaeleontiforms, but all are found in *Bharatagama*. Although no

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434 known sphenodontian is a good match (Evans et al., 2002), I very tentatively suggest that  
435 *Bharatagama* could represent a morphologically innovative clade of *Diphydontosaurus*-grade  
436 sphenodontians. It would not lie outside the large (Reynoso, 2005, and references therein)  
437 sphenodontian morphospace: the shape, size, implantation and attachment of the distal teeth recalls  
438 *Clevosaurus* (depicted in Evans et al., 2002), while the shape and size of the mesial teeth is  
439 reminiscent of *Sphenovipera* (Reynoso, 2005). Indeed, the one phylogenetic analysis that has ever  
440 included *Bharatagama* found it as a rhynchocephalian rather than a squamate, although close to the  
441 pleurosaur (despite the more *Diphydontosaurus*-like plesiomorphic gradient of tooth implantation)  
442 and, not surprisingly given the limited material, with weak support (Conrad, 2017 “2018”). In sum,  
443 the optimism of Scarpetta (2019) is unwarranted, and the status of *Bharatagama* as a  
444 chamaeleoniform is too doubtful for use in calibration.

445 *Xianglong* from the Yixian Fm of Liaoning (China), which dates to around the Barremian-Aptian  
446 boundary (~ 125.0 Ma: ICS), was described as a chamaeleoniform, possibly an acrodontan (Li et al.,  
447 2007). Unfortunately, this rests on very limited evidence, as the one known individual is clearly  
448 juvenile and much of the skeleton remains unknown because is covered by exquisitely preserved soft  
449 tissue and has not been  $\mu$ CT-scanned (Li et al., 2007; Simões et al., 2017, Scarpetta, 2019, and  
450 reference therein).

451 Daza et al. (2016) briefly described three isolated hindlimbs from Burmese amber (99 Ma old: Daza  
452 et al., 2016) as agamids, and a largely complete articulated skeleton as a chamaeleonid. The supposed  
453 chamaeleonid later turned out to be an albanerpetid amphibian (Matsumoto and Evans, 2018: 52–53),  
454 which may explain the unexpected shape of the palate (Daza et al., 2016: fig. 4K), and the supposed  
455 agamids are so incomplete that they probably provide more ecological than phylogenetic  
456 information; indeed, the only supposed chamaeleoniform Daza et al. (2016) included in their  
457 phylogenetic analysis was the albanerpetid. Therefore, again unlike Scarpetta (2019), I do not think  
458 any of these four specimens can be used to calibrate divergence dates.

459 Priscagamidae is a Campanian clade (from the Djadokhta, Baruungoyot and more or less coeval  
460 formations; see above and Borsuk-Białynicka, 1996) of squamates that have usually been considered  
461 stem-chamaeleoniforms (most recently found as such by Simões et al., 2018), but have also been  
462 found as stem-iguanomorphs (Conrad, 2015, with much denser sampling of early iguanomorphs than  
463 Simões et al., 2018).

464 A consensus now appears to exist (Simões et al., 2015; Conrad, 2015) that Gobiguania (Conrad and  
465 Norell, 2007) is a clade of stem-iguanomorphs.

466 “*Ctenomastax*” Gao and Norell, 2000, a junior homonym of the staphylinid beetle *Ctenomastax*  
467 Kraatz in von Heyden, 1870, is likewise known from the Djadokhta and Baruungoyot formations;  
468 probably due to the poor preservation of the specimens (Gao and Norell, 2000), it has variously been  
469 found as the sister-group of all other chamaeleoniforms (Simões et al., 2015; Reeder et al., 2015) or  
470 as a gobiguanian stem-iguanomorph (Conrad, 2015). In the latter case it cannot date the origin of  
471 Iguania.

472 *Isodontosaurus*, from the Djadokhta Fm and more or less coeval sites, is known from fairly large  
473 amounts of material representing much of the skeleton, but its phylogenetic position has been hard to  
474 determine (Gao and Norell, 2000); Conrad (2015) found it as a stem-chamaeleoniform iguanian,  
475 Reeder et al. (2015) as a gobiguanian.

476 Alifanov (2013) described *Desertiguana* as a phrynosomatid pleurodontan iguanian based on an  
477 almost complete left lower jaw from the Baruungoyot Fm. Curiously, it has been summarily ignored  
478 ever since by everyone other than its author (in single-authored publications that do not provide  
479 further information), except for a citation as an iguanomorph without any comment by Head (2015).

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480 Given that Alifanov (2013) also classified three other Djadokhta/Baruungoyot genera otherwise  
481 considered gobiguanians as phrynosomatids, I cannot be certain that *Desertiguana* is not a  
482 gobiguanian stem-iguanomorph as well.

483 Equally Campanian or older (summarized in Langer et al., 2019) is the stem-chamaeleoniform  
484 *Gueragama* (Simões et al., 2015, 2017). Known from an isolated but largely complete lower jaw, it  
485 appears to suffice for setting up a hard minimum age for Iguania at the Campanian/Maastrichtian  
486 boundary ( $72.1 \pm 0.2$  Ma: ICS), which I round to 72 Ma. I cannot assign a maximum age other than  
487 that for Node 125.

488 Apesteguía et al. (2016) described *Jeddaherdan* from a Cenomanian jaw fragment. Using a dataset  
489 entirely restricted to iguanians, their parsimony analysis recovered it as a chamaeleoniform rather  
490 than an iguanoid (the only other option) and did not resolve it further until implied weighting was  
491 applied, which placed *Jeddaherdan* in a clade with *Gueragama* and the extant agamid *Uromastyx*.  
492 Bayesian inference recovered the same content for Uromastyginae, although with rather low support  
493 (posterior probability of 0.8). As the authors pointed out, this topology implies that the occurrence of  
494 tooth replacement in *Gueragama* is a reversal. Given the very limited material, the taxon sample  
495 which presupposes that *Jeddaherdan* is an iguanian, the constraints on the applicability of implied  
496 weighting and the poorly understood performance of Bayesian inference with missing data  
497 distributed by body part (Marjanović and Laurin, 2019, and references therein), as well as the  
498 implications for *Gueragama*, I prefer not to use *Jeddaherdan* to date the origin of Iguania as long as  
499 further material has not been discovered.

### 500 **2.1.15 Node 132: Pleurodonta (Iguanidae + Corytophanidae – Dactyloidae + Phrynosomatidae)**

501 The origin of Pleurodonta, the crown group of Iguanoidea, was given a minimum age of 125 Ma and  
502 a maximum age of 180 Ma.

503 The oldest possible pleurodontan other than the abovementioned *Desertiguana* is, however,  
504 *Suzanniwana patriciana* from the Paleocene-Eocene boundary (56.0 Ma ago: ICS). Unfortunately, its  
505 phylogenetic position remains unclear: Conrad (2015) stated that *Suzanniwana* was one of the two  
506 “taxa with the most volatile positions within this analysis”, but only published the Adams consensus  
507 of that analysis, which shows *Suzanniwana* as part of a polytomy that also contains Corytophanidae  
508 and a clade containing all other extant pleurodontans – whether *Suzanniwana* remains inside  
509 Pleurodonta in all of the 98 most parsimonious trees or is placed as the sister-group of Pleurodonta in  
510 some could only be determined by repeating the analysis.

511 The oldest certain pleurodontan is the very highly nested *Afairiguana*, which forms an exclusive  
512 clade with the extant *Polychrus* and Dactyloidae in Conrad’s (2015) analysis and is 51.66 Ma old  
513 (Smith et al., 2008). Followed by the highly nested corytophanid *Babibasiliscus* and the less highly  
514 nested corytophanid *Geiseltaliellus* (Conrad, 2015) within the next five million years, it establishes a  
515 very tight hard minimum age of 52 Ma for this calibration point.

516 If *Desertiguana* is not a pleurodontan, the absence of pleurodontans might suggest a late Campanian  
517 maximum age for Pleurodonta. But as this possibility cannot be excluded at present, even apart from  
518 unknown geographic or ecological factors that could have kept pleurodontans out of the  
519 environments that deposited the Campanian and Maastrichtian formations of Asia and North  
520 America, I find myself unable to assign a maximum age other than, again, that for Node 125.

521 Burbrink et al. (accepted) found extremely short internal branch lengths for the basal radiation of  
522 Pleurodonta. Paleoecologically, the recovery phase immediately after the Cretaceous-Paleogene  
523 boundary suggests itself as the time of such a radiation. But this idea remains to be tested.



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### 524 **2.1.16 Node 150: Mammalia**

525 The origin of the crown-group Mammalia by the divergence of Proto- or Yinotheria (Shuotheriidae  
526 and Australosphenida) on one side, represented by *Ornithorhynchus*, and a large clade called  
527 Theriiformes or Yangotheria, which comprises Theria (to which all extant mammals except the  
528 monotremes belong), Spalacotheroidea, Meridiolestida, Dryolestidae, Multituberculata,  
529 (Eu)triconodonta and many others, on the other side, was assigned a minimum age of 162.5 Ma and a  
530 maximum age of 191.4 Ma.

531 The phylogenetic position of Haramiyida, a clade that reaches beyond these ages into the Late  
532 Triassic, is controversial; of the latest analyses, Huttenlocker et al. (2018) and Zhou et al. (2019:  
533 supp. inf. M) have found it just outside Mammalia, but Wang et al. (2019) and Mao et al. (2019:  
534 supp. inf.), citing neither of these and clearly not using their findings but using previously unknown  
535 data, found them inside.

536 The oldest uncontroversial mammals are the australosphenidan proto-/yinothierians *Asfaltomylos* and  
537 *Henosferus* and the volaticotherian (eu)triconodont *Argentoconodon*, which all come from a level  
538 that was originally thought to be high in the Cañadón Asfalto Fm and to be Callovian or even  
539 Oxfordian (late Middle or early Late Jurassic) in age, but has more recently been correlated to its  
540 very bottom, the transition with the underlying Lonco Trapial Fm (Cúneo et al., 2013), from which  
541 three successive (from lowest to highest) U-Pb zircon dates were determined by Cúneo et al. (2013):  
542  $178.766 \pm 0.23$  Ma,  $177.37 \pm 0.12$  Ma and  $176.15 \pm 0.24$  Ma. These are maximum ages in that  
543 reworked zircon crystals occur in these lacustrine tuff beds, so that the youngest crystals, from which  
544 the cited ages were derived, could still be older than the deposition of the tuff beds themselves;  
545 however, given the correlation of the recovered ages with stratigraphic height, and the rarity of older  
546 zircons in the oldest and the youngest sample (Cúneo et al., 2013), a large discrepancy is unlikely.  
547 Therefore, I recommend a hard minimum age of 179 Ma for this calibration.

548 The maximum age assigned by Irisarri et al. (2017) may be intended to represent the  
549 Sinemurian/Pliensbachian boundary ( $190.8 \pm 1.0$  Ma: ICS). Indeed, the Sinemurian record of  
550 mammalomorphs (tritylodontids, tritheledontids, *Sinoconodon*, morganucodontans, *Hadrocodium*)  
551 from North America, southern Africa and China is fairly rich and diverse, but has not yielded crown-  
552 group mammals so far. However, ghost lineages encompassing almost the entire Early Jurassic to the  
553 middle of the Middle Jurassic occur for haramiyidans and docodonts, both of which have been found  
554 in the Rhaetian and the Bathonian, but not so far in between; and while the Rhaetian and/or possibly  
555 Norian *Thomasia* and *Haramiyavia* lie outside the smallest clade of all other haramiyidans,  
556 *Tikitherium* is the sister-group of all Jurassic docodonts except the probably Middle Jurassic  
557 *Gondtherium* (Zhou et al., 2019: supp. inf. M), requiring two such ghost lineages within Docodonta.  
558 All this may be especially relevant if Haramiyida, rather than the Sinemurian *Hadrocodium*, is the  
559 sister-group of Mammalia. Currently, the former is recovered by parsimony, the latter by Bayesian  
560 analysis of the same matrix (Huttenlocker et al., 2018: extended data fig. 9; Zhou et al., 2019: supp.  
561 inf. M), neither option having strong support by its own criteria; for a comparison between the  
562 methods as applied to paleontological datasets, see Marjanović and Laurin (2019). Preferring to err  
563 on the side of caution, I place the hard maximum age in the Carnian Pluvial Episode 233 Ma ago  
564 (Maron et al., 2018 “2019”), which is also substantially older than all possible haramiyidans.

### 565 **2.1.17 Node 151: Theria (Metatheria – Eutheria)**

566 The origin of Theria by the split into the total groups Metatheria (crown group: Marsupialia) and  
567 Eutheria (crown group: Placentalia) was given a minimum age of 124.6 Ma and a maximum age of  
568 138.4 Ma.

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569 The oldest securely dated eutherian is *Ambolestes* at 126 Ma (Bi et al., 2018). *Juramaia* was  
570 originally (Luo et al., 2011) thought to come from the Lanqi Fm, specifically a site variably called  
571 Daxigou or Daxishan (Yuan et al., 2013: supp. inf.: 4), which has meanwhile been dated to between  
572  $160.889 \pm 0.069$  Ma and  $160.254 \pm 0.045$  Ma (Jia and Gao, 2019). Meng (2014: 526, 529–530),  
573 however, doubted this, called the specimen “floating”, and pointed out its great similarity to *Eomaia*  
574 in particular (found as its sister-group in the very different matrices of Bi et al., 2018, and Zhou et al.,  
575 2019: supp. inf. M; Mao et al., 2019: fig. S9, did find *Juramaia* outside the clade of all other included  
576 eutherians, but did not sample *Ambolestes* despite building on the matrix of Bi et al., 2018) and to  
577 Barremian–Albian eutherians in general, as well as the long ghost lineages a mid-Oxfordian age for  
578 *Juramaia* would create within Eutheria, for Metatheria and for several of the closest relatives of  
579 Theria. Bi et al. (2018, 2019) referred to Meng (2014) for this issue but did not try to resolve it. As  
580 long as it is not resolved, I much prefer to consider the single *Juramaia* specimen to have been  
581 discovered in the Yixian Fm (like *Ambolestes*, *Eomaia* and *Acristatherium*), as suggested by Bi et al.  
582 (2019).

583 Sweetman et al. (2017) described two teeth from the very beginning of the Cretaceous (~ 145 Ma  
584 old) as two genera of Late-Cretaceous-grade eutherians, *Durlstotherium* and *Durlstodon*. In view of  
585 this limited material, I remain skeptical (see also Bi et al., 2018) and recommend 126 Ma as the hard  
586 minimum age for this calibration.

587 While the oldest uncontested metatherians are only some 110 Ma old (Bi et al., 2018), Mao et al.  
588 (2019: fig. S9) have returned *Sinodelphys* (of the same age as *Eomaia* and *Acristatherium*, slightly  
589 younger than *Ambolestes*) to its status as the oldest known metatherian. If this holds and if *Juramaia*  
590 has the same age instead of being Jurassic, and if further *Durlstotherium* and *Durlstodon* can be  
591 disregarded, virtually no ghost lineage is required at the base of Metatheria.

592 Accepting that *Juramaia* is not from the Lanqi Fm, I propose 160 Ma as the soft maximum age of  
593 this calibration, on the grounds that therians or their closest relatives are absent in the Lanqi and the  
594 laterally equivalent Tiaojishan Fm, likewise absent in the Kimmeridgian and Tithonian of Portugal  
595 and the US (where the Morrison Fm, sampled since the 1860s, extends across several states), and  
596 further absent in the end-Tithonian and Berriasian of England despite the diversity of ecologically  
597 comparable mammals found there. Given the strong evidence of a Laurasian origin of Theria (e.g.  
598 Huttenlocker et al., 2018; Bi et al., 2018), the earliest possible time and place for the origin of Theria  
599 that could stay out of the fossil record is therefore Asia after the deposition of the Tiaojishan and  
600 Lanqi formations ended in the Oxfordian.

### 601 **2.1.18 Node 152: Placentalia (Atlantogenata – Boreo(eu)theria); Node 153: Boreo(eu)theria** 602 **(Laurasiatheria – Euarchontoglires/Supraprimates)**

603 The origin of Placentalia, the crown-group of Eutheria, was given a minimum age of 95.3 Ma and a  
604 maximum age of 113 Ma. Its immediate descendant nodes were not constrained.

605 The minimum age is clearly built on the assumption that the zhelestids are “ungulates”, i.e. belong to  
606 Placentalia, or perhaps even that the zalambdalestids are related to Glires and therefore belong to  
607 Placentalia. For a long time now, every reinvestigation of the anatomy of these Cretaceous animals,  
608 and every phylogenetic analysis that sampled Cretaceous eutherians densely (i.e. not including Zhou  
609 et al., 2019: supp. inf. M), has found them on the eutherian stem, often not even particularly close to  
610 Placentalia (e.g. Novacek et al., 1997; Asher et al., 2005, 2019; Wible et al., 2009; Goswami et al.,  
611 2011; Halliday et al., 2015 “2017”; Manzi et al., 2015; Bi et al., 2018: fig. 2, SI-1; Wang et al., 2019:  
612 ext. data fig. 5; see also Fostowicz-Frelik and Kielan-Jaworowska, 2002).

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613 A few terminal Cretaceous (late Maastrichtian) eutherians have been attributed to Placentalia in the  
614 past. But with *Protungulatum* (Wible et al., 2009; Halliday et al., 2015 “2017”, 2019: fig. 1 contrary  
615 to the text; Manz et al., 2015: fig. 2a; Wang et al., 2019: ext. data fig. 5; Mao et al., 2019: fig. S9)  
616 and *Gypsonictops* (Halliday et al., 2015 “2017”, 2019; Bi et al., 2018; Manz et al., 2015: fig. 2; Wang  
617 et al., 2019: ext. data fig. 5; Mao et al., 2019: fig. S9) now placed close to but consistently outside  
618 Placentalia, *Deccanolestes* – at least if the teeth and the tarsal bones belong together – placed far  
619 away (Goswami et al., 2011 [see there also for *Sahnitherium*]; Manz et al., 2015: fig. 2, SI-1; Penkrot  
620 and Zack, 2016; Halliday et al., 2019), and the single worn tooth named *Kharmerungulatum*, which  
621 had been assigned to Placentalia mostly through comparison to *Protungulatum* in the first place  
622 (Prasad et al., 2007), having more recently been found somewhere outside Placentalia as well  
623 (“Although none of the strict consensus trees supported the placement of *Kharmerungulatum* within  
624 the placental crown group, the limited dental material for this taxon proved insufficient for resolving  
625 its phylogenetic relationships, and so it was removed a posteriori from the MPTs to produce the  
626 reduced strict consensus trees.” – Goswami et al., 2011: 16334), specifically as an adapisoriculid  
627 when full molecular constraints were applied by Manz et al. (2015: fig. 2b), the only remaining  
628 candidate for a Cretaceous placental is the stylinodontid taeniodont *Schowalteria* (Fox, 2016, and  
629 references therein). The phylogenetic position of Taeniodonta remains unknown (Fox, 2016, and  
630 references therein); a cryptic statement by Napoli et al. (2017 “2018”), preliminarily placing the  
631 group just outside Placentalia in a hand-made supertree for no explicit reason and referring to an  
632 ongoing study of eutherian phylogeny by the authors, probably refers to the phylogenetic analysis in  
633 Shelley’s (2018) doctoral thesis of which only an abstract not mentioning Taeniodonta has been  
634 made publicly available (apart from the conference abstract by Püschel et al., 2019, which does not  
635 mention Taeniodonta either). Halliday et al. (2015 “2017”, 2019) included the early Paleocene  
636 *Onychodectes*, the sister-group to all other taeniodonts (Fox, 2016, and references therein), in their  
637 analyses, and found it highly nested within Placentalia, but the positions themselves (next to the  
638 contemporary palaeonodont, i.e. stem-pholidotan, *Escavadodon*, but rather far from the other  
639 palaeonodonts; on the pholidotan stem when a molecular constraint was applied, but on the  
640 chiropteran stem otherwise) and the taxon sample (by far the largest sample of Paleocene eutherians  
641 so far, but no other taeniodonts and still almost none of the previously proposed closest relatives of  
642 the group) cast doubt on this result.

643 The same reasons make it difficult to decide which of the earliest Paleocene eutherians should be  
644 accepted as securely enough identified placentals. But in any case, Williamson et al. (2019: 220)  
645 reported that the herbivorous periprychid *Ectoconus*, estimated to have reached about 100 kg, was  
646 “present within 0.4 Ma of the K-Pg boundary”; phylogenetic analyses have found it to be not only a  
647 placental, but a laurasiatherian – Halliday et al. (2015 “2017”; regardless of constraints) found it and  
648 the other periprychids on the pholidotan stem; Halliday et al. (2019), using combined data and  
649 maximum likelihood, found a comparable result with much less resolution; Püschel et al. (2019),  
650 using a somewhat smaller matrix with, however, a focus on periprychids and new data on them (e.g.  
651 Napoli et al., 2017), recovered them as stem-artiodactylomorphs. I therefore suggest 66 Ma, the  
652 Cretaceous/Paleogene boundary ( $66.021 \pm 0.081$  Ma: Clyde et al., 2016), as the hard minimum age  
653 for Node 153, the basal node of Boreoeutheria (a name apparently coined by accident by Murphy et  
654 al., 2001) or simply Boreotheria (explicitly coined by Waddell et al., 2001). For Node 152 I cannot  
655 recommend a separate minimum age.

656 Given the continuing worldwide absence of unambiguous placentals in the rich Maastrichtian record  
657 (see above as well as Halliday et al., 2016, and Davies et al., 2017) and the absence of even  
658 ambiguous ones in the even richer Campanian record (other than three isolated Turonian teeth  
659 indistinguishable from both species of *Gypsonictops*: Cohen and Cifelli, 2015; Cohen, 2017), despite  
660 the presence of stem-eutherians (all northern continents and India), stem-metatherians (Asia and

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661 North America), and ecologically comparable spalacotheroids (Asia and North America),  
662 meridiolestidans (South America) and haramiyidans (South America, Madagascar, India, Africa),  
663 only Antarctica, Australia and New Zealand are left as paleocontinents where Campanian or  
664 Maastrichtian placentals could have escaped the fossil record, and they are all unlikely for  
665 biogeographical reasons (e.g. Huttenlocker et al., 2018). Therefore, I suggest the  
666 Campanian/Maastrichtian boundary, rounded to 72 Ma, as the hard maximum age for Node 152. (I  
667 cannot make a separate recommendation for Node 153.) This is more generous than the result of  
668 Halliday et al. (2016), 95% of whose reconstructions of the age of Placentalia were 69.53 Ma old or  
669 younger. The discrepancy to the published molecular ages (references in Halliday et al., 2016) is  
670 most likely due to the effects of body size on rates of molecular evolution (Berv and Field, 2017  
671 “2018”; Phillips and Fruciano, 2018).

### 672 **2.1.19 Node 154: Carnivora (Feliformia – Caniformia)**

673 The origin of the crown-group Carnivora by the divergence of the sister-groups Feliformia  
674 (represented in this matrix by *Felis*) and Caniformia (represented by *Canis*) was assigned a minimum  
675 age of 42.8 Ma and a maximum age of 63.8 Ma. Irisarri et al. (2017) justified this by citing the  
676 identification of the middle Eocene *Tapocyon* as a caniform by Wesley & Flynn (2003); this should  
677 be regarded as rendered obsolete by Spaulding and Flynn (2012) and Solé et al. (2016), who found  
678 *Tapocyon* as a stem-carnivoriform in phylogenetic analyses of two successively larger versions of a  
679 much larger dataset. The analysis by Tomiya and Tseng (2016) found *Tapocyon* as a feliform, but  
680 used a much smaller sample of stem-carnivoriforms and of characters in a misguided (e.g. Kearney  
681 and Clark, 2003; Wiens, 2003; Marjanović and Laurin, 2019) attempt to avoid missing data by  
682 throwing out known data.

683 With “*Miacis*” *sylvestris* being recovered even more rootward on the carnivoriform stem than  
684 *Tapocyon* by Spaulding and Flynn (2012) and Solé et al. (2016), the oldest securely dated and  
685 identified carnivoran specimens belong to the amphicyonid stem-caniform *Daphoenus* and the stem-  
686 canid *Hesperocyon* and are about 38 Ma old (Tomiya, 2011, and references therein). *Lycophocyon*  
687 could have the same age or be somewhat older (Tomiya, 2011), but unfortunately its phylogenetic  
688 position remains uncertain: it was published too late to be included by Spaulding and Flynn (2012), it  
689 was not added by Solé et al. (2016), and the much smaller phylogenetic analysis by Tomiya (2011)  
690 only resolved its position (as a stem-caniform closer to the crown-group Canoidea than *Daphoenus*)  
691 after all post-Paleogene taxa were excluded. Given the uncertainties in both age and phylogenetic  
692 position, I provisionally ignore *Lycophocyon* and suggest 38 Ma as the hard minimum age of this  
693 calibration.

694 As a hard maximum age I suggest the Paleocene/Eocene boundary 56.0 Ma ago (ICS), around which  
695 there is a very rich record of a range of carnivorous mammals of various sizes and ecologies,  
696 including stem-carnivoriforms and many others but not including carnivorans.

### 697 **2.1.20 Node 155: Euarchontoglires/Supraprimates (Gliriformes – Primatomorpha)**

698 The last common ancestor of mice and men, the first crown-group member of a clade called  
699 Euarchontoglires (a name apparently coined by accident by Murphy et al., 2001) or, perhaps less  
700 clunkily, Supraprimates (explicitly coined by Waddell et al., 2001), was placed between 61.5 Ma ago  
701 and 100.5 Ma ago.

702 The oldest purported total-group primatomorph (not necessarily total-group primate: Ni et al., 2016)  
703 is *Purgatorius coracis*, which is at most 0.4 Ma younger than the 66.0-Ma-old Cretaceous/Paleogene  
704 boundary (Fox and Scott, 2011; Scott et al., 2016). However, Halliday et al. (2015 “2017”, 2019)  
705 found *Purgatorius* outside of Placentalia despite the presence of stem-primates in their analyses.



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706 When Manzan et al. (2015) applied molecular constraints (fig. 2), they did find *Purgatorius* as a total-  
707 group primate, though in a strangely nested position when the monophyly of Laurasiatheria was  
708 enforced (fig. 2b). Without constraints, the included primatomorphs formed a grade outside most  
709 other placentals (and the included laurasiatherians formed a grade outside all other placentals: fig.  
710 SI3-1). Note that Halliday et al. (2015 “2017”, 2019) scored *Purgatorius* for the tarsal bones that  
711 Chester et al. (2015) referred to this taxon (somewhat younger than *P. coracis*); *Purgatorius* is  
712 otherwise known exclusively from teeth and lower jaws (Chester et al., 2015; Scott et al., 2016), and  
713 Chester et al. (2015) referred the tarsals simply because their size fits and because they show arboreal  
714 adaptations which agree with the assumed primate status of *Purgatorius*. Scott et al. (2016: 343)  
715 preferred to call these bones “several isolated, possible plesiadapiform tarsals”.

716 Excluding the purgatoriids, the diverse oldest known total-group primatomorphs date, in terms of  
717 North American Land Mammal Ages, shortly after the Puercan/Torrejonian boundary (Silcox et al.,  
718 2017), which dates to about 64.8 Ma ago (Wang et al., 2016).

719 On the presumably gliriform side, the oldest known members are anagalidans from the Lower  
720 Member of the Wanghudun Fm: the anagalids *Anaptogale*, *Wanogale* and *Chianshanina*, the  
721 pseudictopid *Cartictops* and the astigalid *Astigale* (Missiaen et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2016; López-  
722 Torres and Fostowicz-Frelik, 2018). Their ages are poorly constrained between 66 Ma and about 62.5  
723 Ma, though probably closer to the older end of that range (Wang et al., 2016); López-Torres and  
724 Fostowicz-Frelik (2018: fig. 4) illustrated *Anaptogale* as considerably older than *Wanogale* and  
725 *Chianshanina*, but did not explain why. However, Asher et al. (2019: fig. 4, S5B, supplementary file  
726 S4-optimalTrees.nex) found Anagalida in a “primatomorph grade” when using equally weighted  
727 parsimony or implied weights with  $K = 24$ , as afrotherians with  $K = 2$ , and on the placental stem by  
728 Bayesian inference; at least in the latter two cases, anagalidans cannot calibrate this node.

729 Thus, I propose 65 Ma as the hard minimum age of this calibration. As the maximum age, if 66 Ma is  
730 deemed too close to the minimum (although there are presently no proposed crown- or even total-  
731 group supraprimates from the Cretaceous, despite the abundance of ecologically Glires-like and  
732 early-primatomorph-like multituberculates, gondwanatheres and the presence – in India – of  
733 ecologically primate-like adapisoriculids), I can only offer the maximum of Node 152 (Placentalia,  
734 see above).

### 735 **2.1.21 Node 157: Marsupialia (Didelphimorphia – Paucituberculata + Australidelphia)**

736 The origin of the metatherian crown-group Marsupialia was given a minimum age of 61.5 Ma and a  
737 maximum age of 71.2 Ma.

738 Eldridge et al. (2019) reviewed this question, and found that the oldest definitive marsupials are only  
739 54.6 Ma old as far as understood today, dating from shortly after the beginning of the Eocene (56.0  
740 Ma ago: ICS). Their phylogenetic and geographic position (total-group australidelphians from  
741 Australia) suggests a longer history for Marsupialia, but of the many metatherians known from the  
742 Paleocene of South America and from the Late Cretaceous through Miocene of the northern  
743 continents, none can currently be shown to belong to the crown-group (Eldridge et al., 2019). I  
744 therefore propose 55 Ma as a probably overly strict hard minimum age for this calibration.

745 Carneiro (2017 “2018”; not cited by Eldridge et al., 2019, whose paper was accepted for publication  
746 on 15 January 2018) found the terminal Maastrichtian tooth taxon *Glasbius* from North America as a  
747 didelphimorphian marsupial in a phylogenetic analysis (greatly expanded from that of Carneiro and  
748 Oliveira, 2017, with the same result, likewise not cited by Eldridge et al., 2019). That analysis,  
749 however, implied an extraordinary number of transoceanic dispersals around the Paleocene and – as  
750 the Gondwanan metatherians are all Cenozoic, but most Laurasian ones are Mesozoic – a surprisingly

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751 high rate of survival of metatherians across the Cretaceous/Paleogene boundary. I must suspect that  
752 correlation, if not downright redundancy, among mammalian tooth characters has been  
753 underestimated once again (e.g. Kangas et al., 2004; Harjunmaa et al., 2014). In earlier analyses,  
754 *Glasbius* has been found on the metatherian stem, e.g. by Wilson (2016), whose analysis failed,  
755 however, to find Australidelphia as monophyletic despite the morphological and molecular consensus  
756 (see Eldridge et al., 2019).

757 Marsupials, other metatherians and indeed other therians are wholly absent from the Late Cretaceous  
758 mammaliform record of South America, which consists instead of gondwanatherian haramiyidans  
759 and a very wide variety of meridiolestidan stem-theriiforms. If *Glasbius* is not a marsupial, it can be  
760 stated with great confidence that Marsupialia originated in South America (Eldridge et al., 2019, and  
761 references therein); if *Glasbius* is a marsupial, North America becomes the obvious candidate, and  
762 Didelphimorphia on the one hand and the last few common ancestors of Paucituberculata and  
763 Australidelphia on the other hand most likely survived the Cretaceous and immigrated into South  
764 America separately. In that case, it is noteworthy that *Glasbius* is the only possible marsupial out of  
765 the remarkable diversity of Maastrichtian, Campanian and in some cases yet earlier metatherians  
766 known from North America. Rather than the beginning of the Maastrichtian, I propose the beginning  
767 of deposition of the Lance and Hell Creek formations, where *Glasbius* has been found, as the hard  
768 maximum age for this calibration, which I estimate as 68 Ma.

### 769 **2.1.22 Node 160: Batrachia (Caudata – Salientia)**

770 The origin of Batrachia by the divergence of the sister-groups Caudata (the salamander total group)  
771 and Salientia (the frog total group) was assigned a minimum age of 249 Ma and no maximum age.  
772 This was, as usual, done on the basis of *Triadobatrachus*, one of the two oldest known salientians  
773 (the other is *Czatkobatrachus*, which is probably early Olenëkian in age: Evans and Borsuk-  
774 Białynicka, 2009); all known definitive caudates are much younger. Irisarri et al. (2017) only cited  
775 the classic redescription of *Triadobatrachus* from 1989 for this age; more recent stratigraphic work  
776 has been reviewed by Ascarrunz et al. (2016: 206–207) and places *Triadobatrachus* either in the late  
777 Induan or the very beginning of the Olenëkian. Unfortunately, the precise age of the Induan-  
778 Olenëkian boundary remains unclear; the ICS, indirectly citing a source from 2007, places it at “~  
779 251.2 Ma” without explicit error margins, while Maron et al. (2018 “2019”) placed it at “~ 249.7  
780 Ma” based on cyclostratigraphic counting away from the Permian-Triassic boundary, which is  
781 exceptionally precisely dated radiometrically. I conclude that 249 Ma is a perfectly adequate hard  
782 minimum age for this calibration point.

783 For a maximum age, I reiterate the suggestion of Marjanović and Laurin (2013b) to use the beginning  
784 of Carroll’s Gap (see Marjanović and Laurin, 2013a), i.e. the Early Permian record, which has  
785 yielded many tetrapods ecologically comparable to batrachians, but no batrachians or albanerpetids  
786 (their likely sister-group) so far (e.g. Schoch and Milner, 2014; Glienke, 2015). The abovementioned  
787 particularly rich site of Richards Spur, where small terrestrial and possibly amphibious  
788 temnospondyls particularly similar to batrachians are very common, is  $289 \pm 0.68$  Ma old  
789 (Woodhead et al., 2010), so that 290 Ma may be a defensible soft maximum value. (The value of 275  
790 Ma suggested by Marjanović and Laurin, 2007 and 2013b, is outdated.)

### 791 **2.1.23 Node 169: crown group of Cryptobranchioidea (Hynobiidae – Pancryptobrancha)**

792 The divergence between the salamander clades Cryptobranchidae (the crown group of the total group  
793 Pancryptobrancha: Vasilyan et al., 2013) and Hynobiidae was assigned a minimum age of 145.5 Ma  
794 and no maximum age.

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795 The minimum age, intended to correspond to the Jurassic/Cretaceous boundary (~ 145.0 Ma ago:  
796 ICS), constitutes a snapshot in the convoluted history of dating the Jurassic and Cretaceous  
797 Konservat-Lagerstätten of northeastern China. None of these sites are now considered Kimmeridgian  
798 through Valanginian in age. The oldest sites that have yielded salamanders belong to the  
799 abovementioned (see Node 151) Lanqi and Tiaojishan formations; specifically, the abovementioned  
800 Daxishan or Daxigou site, which is just over 160 Ma old (see Node 151), has yielded *Linglongtriton*  
801 and apparently *Chunerpeton* (Jia and Gao, 2019), and the phylogenetic analysis by Jia and Gao  
802 (2019) found the former on the hynobiid stem and the latter as a stem-pancryptobranch.

803 However, that analysis, like (to the best of my knowledge) all others that have ever included any  
804 Chinese Mesozoic salamanders (references in Jia and Gao, 2019), contains a clear example of what  
805 Wiens et al. (2005: title) called “[o]ntogeny discombobulates phylogeny”: a clade composed of the  
806 extant neotenic non-cryptobranchoid salamander clades, i.e. (Amphiumidae (Sirenidae, Proteidae)),  
807 as the sister-group of the non-neotenic ones. Instead, molecular data (e.g. Wiens et al., 2005; Irisarri  
808 et al., 2017; Jetz and Pyron, 2018; and references therein) have consistently shown that Sirenidae lies  
809 outside the smallest clade formed by all other extant non-cryptobranchoid salamanders  
810 (Salamandroidea), as had long been presumed based on other considerations like the retention of  
811 external fertilization in sirenids (Reinhard et al., 2013). Likewise, Amphiumidae and Plethodontidae  
812 are consistently sister-groups in phylogenetic analyses of molecular data, rather than Amphiumidae  
813 being close to Proteidae or Sirenidae or Plethodontidae being close to Salamandridae (e.g. Rong,  
814 2018) or *Ambystoma* (e.g. Jia and Gao, 2019). This may be particularly relevant because all of the  
815 Chinese Mesozoic salamanders are only known from larval or neotenic individuals, or are  
816 metamorphic but aquatic (*Pangerpeton*: Wang and Evans, 2006), or combine features expected of  
817 different ontogenetic stages (perhaps indicating a less condensed metamorphosis: *Linglongtriton*;  
818 also, though found outside Cryptobranchioidea, *Beiyanerpeton*: Gao and Shubin, 2012), or are  
819 metamorphic and apparently terrestrial but have not been sufficiently described to be included in a  
820 phylogenetic analysis (*Laccotriton*). All known pancryptobranchs except the terminal Paleocene  
821 cryptobranchid *Aviturus* (Vasilyan and Böhme, 2012; Vasilyan et al., 2013) have been neotenic or  
822 undergone only partial metamorphosis (the extant *Andrias* loses the gills, the gill slits and the  
823 coronoid bone, but does not rebuild the palate or grow eyelids); this may attract stem-  
824 cryptobranchoids or even some of the more crownward stem-urodeles toward them, even if some  
825 (Rong, 2018) or most (Jia and Gao, 2019) end up in the hynobiid total group rather than in  
826 Pancryptobranchia. Unfortunately, no phylogenetic analysis has ever included extinct Cenozoic  
827 pancryptobranchs together with any Mesozoic salamanders; the overlap between the taxon samples  
828 of Vasilyan et al. (2013) and Pearson (2016) or Jia and Gao (2019), as well as all references in all  
829 three, is restricted to extant species.

830 It does not help that the known fossil record of possible hynobiids outside of the mentioned  
831 Lagerstätten only begins in the late Miocene and consists entirely of isolated bones (reviewed by Jia  
832 and Gao, 2016: 44–45). One possible exception is the metamorphic *Iridotriton*, known from a partial  
833 but well preserved skeleton from the early Tithonian (Galli et al., 2018; Maidment and Muxworthy,  
834 2019) Brushy Basin Member of the Morrison Fm (Rainbow Park Microsite, Utah), originally argued  
835 to be a non-cryptobranchoid urodele (Evans et al., 2005), more recently found on the hynobiid stem  
836 (Jia and Gao, 2019: fig. S6) or in an incompletely resolved position outside the cryptobranchoid  
837 crown-group (Pearson, 2016: fig. 4.11), and equipped with a confusing combination of characters  
838 (Evans et al., 2005).

839 Mesozoic pancryptobranchs seem to be represented by a large number of isolated bones from the  
840 early Cenomanian through early Campanian of Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan (Skutschas,  
841 2013) usually grouped as *Eoscapherpeton* and *Horezmia* (but considered two species of

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842 *Eoscapherpeton* by Skutschas, 2013). Unfortunately, they have never been included in a  
843 phylogenetic analysis outside of Pearson's (2016) doctoral thesis, but the arguments by Skutschas  
844 (2013) for referring at least some of the nonoverlapping material to Pancryptobrancha are not easily  
845 dismissed. In a Bayesian analysis of a data matrix of morphological data containing extant  
846 lissamphibians, the Permian temnospondyls *Doleserpeton* and *Gerobatrachus*, the stem-salientian  
847 *Triadobatrachus*, *Eoscapherpeton* and a number of Cretaceous and Cenozoic scapherpetids but no  
848 other caudates, Pearson (2016: fig. 4.2) recovered *Eoscapherpeton* as a stem-pancryptobranchan,  
849 though with a posterior probability of only 52%; adding further Mesozoic salamanders led to the  
850 breakdown of this resolution (Pearson, 2016: fig. 4.12). I therefore tentatively suggest the beginning  
851 of the Cenomanian (100.5 Ma ago, given without uncertainty in the ICS), rounded to 101 Ma ago, as  
852 the soft minimum age of this calibration for present purposes. Given the great uncertainty, I generally  
853 recommend against using this divergence as a calibration date.

854 It is interesting in this respect that calibrating this node with a minimum age around 160 Ma leads to  
855 far too high ages for cladogeneses within Hynobiidae and within Cryptobranchidae, even within  
856 *Andrias japonicus* judging by paleogeographic criteria (Matsui et al., 2008).

857 Like Irisarri et al. (2017), I cannot assign a maximum age other than that of Node 160.

### 858 **2.1.24 Node 170: Lalagobatrachia/Bombinanura (total group of Bombinatoroidea/Costata –** 859 **total group of Pipanura); Node 171: Pipanura (total group of Pipoidea/Xenoanura – total** 860 **group of Acosmanura)**

861 The last common ancestor of Bombinatoroidea or Costata, represented by *Bombina* and  
862 *Discoglossus*, and Pipanura, to which all other sampled frogs belong, was assigned a minimum age of  
863 161.2 Ma and no maximum age. Pipanura itself was assigned a minimum age of 145.5 Ma and no  
864 maximum age.

865 Following the finding that *Eodiscoglossus*, to which a Bathonian (Middle Jurassic) species has been  
866 referred that forms the basis for the original minimum age, is probably not a costatan (Báez, 2013;  
867 Báez and Gómez, 2016, 2019), the oldest lalagobatrachian/bombinanuran is the poorly known  
868 *Enneabatrachus* from a site dated to  $152.51 \pm 0.47$  Ma (Trujillo et al., 2015), which has never been  
869 included in a phylogenetic analysis. Given, however, the presence of the pipanuran (rhinophrynid or  
870 stem-xenoanuran: Henrici, 1998; Gómez, 2016; Aranciaga Rolando et al., 2019) *Rhadinosteus* at the  
871 same site as *Iridotriton* (the Rainbow Park Microsite, see Node 169) and as further specimens of  
872 *Enneabatrachus*, a hard minimum age of 153 Ma for Pipanura (and Bombinanura by implication),  
873 coinciding with the maximum age of the Kimmeridgian/Tithonian boundary ( $152.1 \pm 0.9$  Ma: ICS)  
874 and constituting a minimal revision of the age proposed by Marjanović and Laurin (2013b), appears  
875 safe.

876 *Enneabatrachus*, if not *Rhadinosteus*, is at present the oldest securely identified anuran (crown-group  
877 salientian). Remarkably, no salientians at all have so far been reported from the Yanliao Biota  
878 (Lanqi, Tiaojishan and other formations of approximately Oxfordian age in northeastern China),  
879 despite its wealth of salamanders (see Node 169). The stem-salientian record is sparse (Marjanović  
880 and Laurin, 2013b; Stocker et al., 2019); the suggestion of a maximum age for Bombinanura of 170  
881 to 185 Ma by Marjanović and Laurin (2013b) is based on the fairly good stratigraphic fit of stem-  
882 salientian phylogeny (Marjanović and Laurin, 2007, 2013a: fig. 5, 2013b; Stocker et al., 2019; and  
883 references therein), but given its poor geographic coverage, I prefer to follow Irisarri et al. (2017) in  
884 not assigning a maximum age other than that of Node 160 for present purposes.

885 Thus, Node 170 cannot currently be calibrated on its own: its minimum age is that of Node 171, its  
886 maximum age is that of Node 160.



## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

### 887 **2.1.25 Node 178: Pipidae (Pipinomorpha – Xenopodinomorpha)**

888 The origin of Pipidae (the crown group of Pipimorpha) by the divergence of Pipinomorpha (crown  
889 group: Pipinae) and Xenopodinomorpha (crown group: Xenopodinae = *Xenopus* sensu lato) was  
890 given a minimum age of 86 Ma and no maximum age.

891 This cladogenesis is particularly difficult to date from the fossil record because molecular data  
892 support Hymenochirini as a member of Xenopodinae, though less strongly than most other parts of  
893 the tree (Cannatella, 2015: fig. 1, with a bootstrap support of 71% while other branches have 74%,  
894 93% or 100%, and with a Bayesian posterior probability of 99% while three others have 100%;  
895 Irisarri et al., 2017, with a jackknife support of 98% instead of the usual 100%; Jetz and Pyron, 2018:  
896 supplementary file amph\_shl\_new.tre, with a Shimodaira/Hasegawa-like approximate likelihood  
897 ratio of 92% instead of the usual 100%), while morphological data have so far only supported  
898 Hymenochirini as a member of Pipinae (with a Bayesian posterior probability of 100% in Cannatella,  
899 2015). The only phylogenetic analysis of combined data from pipimorphs yet undertaken  
900 (Cannatella, 2015: analysis E1) found almost equal support for both possibilities (bootstrap support  
901 of 46% vs. 44%; Bayesian posterior probabilities below 50%), and the winning-sites test could not  
902 distinguish between them ( $p = 1.0$ : Cannatella, 2015: table 3), although tip-dating with three node  
903 calibrations strongly supported the hymenochirins as pipines at the cost of losing a terminal taxon  
904 (*Pachycentrata*, see below; Cannatella, 2015: analysis E6).

905 Using considerably updated and expanded versions of the morphological dataset Cannatella (2015)  
906 had used, Gómez (2016), de Souza Carvalho et al. (2019) and Aranciaga Rolando et al. (2019) all  
907 found the Cenomanian *Oumtkoutia* (not included by Cannatella, 2015) to be the oldest known pipid;  
908 the Cenomanian ended 93.9 Ma ago (ICS). However, while the first of these three phylogenetic  
909 analyses found it as a stem-xenopodinomorph, the other two – whose matrices are almost identical to  
910 each other, and derived from that of the first with rather few changes – found it as a stem-  
911 pipinomorph, and the third cautioned that it may well be a stem-pipimorph because, although Rage  
912 and Dutheil (2008) described the material in great detail, it consists entirely of isolated braincases,  
913 vertebrae and pelves, and there is some character conflict as *Oumtkoutia* combines a pipinomorph  
914 autapomorphy with stem-pipimorph plesiomorphies. The next younger pipid remains *Pachycentrata*  
915 of end-Coniacian or Santonian age, found as a stem-hymenochirin by Gómez (2016) but as a stem-  
916 pipinomorph by de Souza Carvalho et al. (2019) and Aranciaga Rolando et al. (2019); while the  
917 Coniacian ended  $86.3 \pm 0.5$  Ma ago, the Santonian ended only  $83.6 \pm 0.2$  Ma ago (ICS).

918 Given the presence of *Pipa* in South America but its extant sister-group Hymenochirini in Africa, and  
919 further the facts that all known pipomorphs are strictly aquatic and that lissamphibians in general  
920 tend to tolerate saltwater poorly, it is tempting to assume that this distribution is due to vicariance and  
921 the cladogenesis that separated *Pipa* and the hymenochirins should be dated to the loss of contact  
922 between Outer Gondwana (including South America) and Afro-Arabia around the Cenomanian – in  
923 other words, a geological event should be used to calibrate this divergence date. If *Pachycentrata* is a  
924 stem-hymenochirinomorph, as found by Gómez (2016), this scenario fits the phylogeny beautifully,  
925 and neither any overseas dispersal nor any long ghost lineages need to be assumed, as Gómez (2016)  
926 pointed out. Contrariwise, if *Pachycentrata* is a stem-pipinomorph, as found by de Souza Carvalho et  
927 al. (2019) and Aranciaga Rolando et al. (2019), the fossil record offers no reason to date the origin of  
928 Pipinae to the Mesozoic, and the most parsimonious hypothesis becomes that *Pipa* dispersed from  
929 Africa to South America together with the platyrrhine monkeys and the caviomorph rodents, perhaps  
930 on the same natural raft; de Souza Carvalho et al. (2019: 228) have discussed the possibility of a  
931 Paleogene island chain or landbridge on the Walvis Ridge and the Rio Grande Rise at some length.

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

932 On the phylogenies by de Souza Carvalho et al. (2019) and Aranciaga Rolando et al. (2019), the  
933 xenopodinomorph fossil record begins only in the late Oligocene (briefly reviewed in Blackburn et  
934 al., 2019; see also Gardner and Rage, 2016: 184) rather than the Cenomanian (Gómez, 2016).

935 As mentioned, the only combined dataset yet brought to bear on this question (Cannatella, 2015:  
936 dataset E), which is also the only dataset containing extinct taxa that supports the hymenochirins as  
937 pipines, is based on a superseded morphological dataset that lacked *Oumtkoutia* and *Pachycentrata*,  
938 not to mention any taxa described since 2007. Given this and the discussion in the preceding  
939 paragraphs, it remains unclear whether *Oumtkoutia* is a pipid, and so I can only suggest 84 Ma as a  
940 safe hard minimum age for Pipidae.

941 Any maximum age will have to accommodate the undescribed possible pipid from the Aptian or  
942 Barremian of Cameroon (Gardner and Rage, 2016: 177, 179). However, the only maximum age I feel  
943 able to propose is much older: the end of deposition of the lake sediments of the Newark Supergroup  
944 (Tanner and Lucas, 2015) sometime around the Hettangian/Sinemurian boundary ( $199.3 \pm 0.3$  Ma  
945 ago: ICS). All known pipimorphs, extant or extinct, have been fully aquatic (reviewed in Cannatella,  
946 2015). The upper formations of the Newark Supergroup, which represent the rift lakes that preceded  
947 the opening of the Central Atlantic Ocean between Africa and North America, have yielded whole  
948 species flocks of semionotid actinopterygians among other parts of a lake fauna and flora (Olsen,  
949 1988, 2010), and they cover so much space and time that if any aquatic salientians existed in  
950 northwestern Pangea during that time, we should expect to have found them – yet, salientians are  
951 consistently absent from these sediments (Olsen, 1988). The absence of caudates (Olsen, 1988) may  
952 be explained by geography in that that group may have originated in Asia or at least northeastern  
953 Pangea. All other Barremian or earlier xenoanurans, however, have so far been found on the Iberian  
954 microcontinent or in North America, and the stratigraphic fit of their phylogeny (Gómez, 2016;  
955 Aranciaga Rolando et al., 2019) is good enough that if pipids older than *Oumtkoutia* existed,  
956 northwestern Pangea is where we should look for them. I therefore propose 199 Ma as the hard  
957 maximum age for this calibration.

### 958 **2.1.26 Node 187: crown group of Chondrichthyes (Holocephali – Elasmobranchii)**

959 The origin of the chondrichthyan crown group was given a minimum age of 410 Ma and a maximum  
960 age of 495 Ma.

961 By current understanding (Frey et al., 2019), the oldest known crown-chondrichthyan is the stem-  
962 elasmobranch *Phoebodus fastigatus* from the middle Givetian. The Givetian, part of the Middle  
963 Devonian, began  $387.7 \pm 0.8$  Ma ago and ended  $382.7 \pm 1.6$  Ma ago (ICS), so I propose 385 Ma as  
964 the hard minimum age of the chondrichthyan crown-group.

965 Although I cannot assign a maximum age separate from that of the root node (Node 100) to this  
966 calibration, no less than ninety million years before the minimum age, I note that this is still twenty  
967 million years after the 495 Ma assigned by Irisarri et al. (2017).

### 968 **2.1.27 Node 188: crown group of Elasmobranchii (Selachimorpha – Batomorpha)**

969 The origin of the elasmobranch crown group by split into Selachimorpha (sharks) and Batomorpha  
970 (rays and skates) was given a minimum age of 190 Ma and no maximum age. (Note that the name  
971 Neoselachii is consistently treated in the paleontological literature as if defined by one or more  
972 apomorphies, not by tree topology; it probably applies to a clade somewhat larger, and possibly much  
973 older, than its crown group.)

974 Any attempt to date this cladogenesis suffers from the fact that the elasmobranch fossil record  
975 consists mostly of “the tooth, the whole tooth and nothing but the tooth” (as has often been said about

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

976 the mammalian fossil record); scales and the occasional fin spine do occur, but more substantial  
977 remains are very rare. The shape of tooth crowns is naturally prone to homoplasy, the number of  
978 characters it offers is easily overestimated due to correlations between them (e.g. Kangas et al., 2004;  
979 Harjunmaa et al., 2014; see Node 157), and histological studies, which are needed to determine the  
980 states of certain phylogenetically informative characters (e.g. Andreev and Cuny, 2012; Cuny et al.,  
981 2017), have not been carried out on all potentially interesting tooth taxa.

982 Consequently, there is not as much interest in phylogeny among specialists of early elasmobranchs  
983 than among specialists of early mammals or early dinosaurs. This goes so far as to affect the use of  
984 terminology: Andreev and Cuny (2012) mentioned “stem selachimorphs” in the title of their work,  
985 implying that they understood Selachimorpha as a clade name, but quietly revealed it to be the name  
986 of a paraphyletic assemblage on p. 263 by stating that bundled enameloid is “diagnostic for  
987 Neoselachii exclusive of batomorphs, i.e., Selachimorpha”, and their consistent referral of  
988 *Synechodontiformes* (see below) to “Selachimorpha” is not necessarily a referral to the crown group  
989 – even though they called bato- and selachomorphs sister-groups in the next sentence.

990 As if by typographic error, the oldest widely accepted crown-group elasmobranch is not 190 but  
991 about 290 Ma old: the oldest fossils referred to the neoselachian *Synechodus* are four teeth of  
992 Sakmarian age (referred to *S. antiquus*, whose type tooth comes from the following Artinskian age:  
993 Ivanov, 2005; Stumpf and Kriwet, 2019), and the Sakmarian ended  $290.1 \pm 0.26$  Ma ago (ICS). Teeth  
994 referred to other species of *Synechodus* range into the Paleocene; *S. antiquus* is the only Permian  
995 species (Andreev and Cuny, 2012). The histology of *S. antiquus* remains unknown as of Koot et al.  
996 (2014 “2015”); nonetheless, Cuny et al. (2017: 61) regarded *S. antiquus* as “[t]he first proven  
997 selachimorph”. Rounding up, I therefore tentatively suggest 291 Ma as the soft minimum age of this  
998 calibration.

999 Andreev and Cuny (2012) and Cuny et al. (2017: 69) further suggested that the tooth taxa *Cooleyella*  
1000 and *Ginteria* could be stem-batomorphs. The oldest known *Cooleyella* specimen dates from around  
1001 the end of the Tournaisian (Richards et al., 2018), which occurred  $346.7 \pm 0.4$  Ma ago (ICS);  
1002 *Ginteria* appeared in the following Viséan stage.

1003 Cuny et al. (2017: 21, 69) further pointed out that *Mcmurdodus*, a tooth taxon that first appeared  
1004 around the Early/Middle Devonian (Emsian/Eifelian) boundary (Burrow et al., 2008), has  
1005 occasionally been placed within Selachimorpha, even within Hexanchiformes in the selachimorph  
1006 crown-group (Burrow et al., 2008, and references therein); they very tentatively suggested a stem-  
1007 selachimorph position. Boisvert et al. (2019) wondered instead if it is a stem-chondrichthyan. The  
1008 absence of any however tentative suggestions of crown-elasmobranchs before *Mcmurdodus* in the  
1009 rather rich total-group chondrichthyan microfossil record despite the traditional optimism of  
1010 paleodontologists may serve as a hard maximum age for this calibration; the ICS places the  
1011 Emsian/Eifelian boundary at  $393.3 \pm 1.2$  Ma ago, so I suggest 395 Ma.

1012 For purposes beyond the present work, I must recommend against using this divergence to calibrate a  
1013 timetree for at least as long as the histology of Paleozoic “shark” teeth has not been studied in much  
1014 more detail in a phylogenetic context. For comparison, the oldest unambiguous records of a crown-  
1015 group selachimorph belong to the total-group galeomorph *Agaleus* and date from the Hettangian,  
1016 apparently close to its beginning (Stumpf and Kriwet, 2019, especially fig. 5, and references therein),  
1017 which was the beginning of the Jurassic and happened  $201.3 \pm 0.2$  Ma ago (ICS). The oldest batoid  
1018 batomorph is only slightly younger, see Node 192 below.

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### 1019 **2.1.28 Node 192: Batoidea (skates – rays)**

1020 The origin of the batomorph crown group, Batoidea, by split into skates (Rajiformes; represented by  
1021 *Raja* and *Leucoraja*) and rays (taxonomically unnamed; represented by *Neotrygon*) was assigned a  
1022 minimum age of 176 Ma and no maximum age.

1023 The oldest known batoid is a single rajiform tooth named *Antiquaobatis* from the late Pliensbachian,  
1024 specifically the *apyrenum* subzone of the *spinatum* ammonite zone (Stumpf and Kriwet, 2019),  
1025 which is close to the end of the Pliensbachian (Fraguas et al., 2018); that end occurred  $182.7 \pm 0.7$   
1026 Ma ago (ICS), so I propose 184 Ma as the hard minimum age for this calibration. (The name should  
1027 of course have been “Antiquobatis”, but must not be amended: ICZN, 1999: Article 32.5.1.)

1028 As a hard maximum age, the Triassic/Jurassic boundary ( $201.3 \pm 0.2$  Ma ago: ICS; rounded to 201  
1029 Ma) suggests itself for ecological reasons: plesiomorphically, crown-group rays are fairly large  
1030 marine durophages, a guild formed by the placodont amniotes in the well sampled Middle and Late  
1031 Triassic.

### 1032 **2.1.29 Node 195: Neopterygii (Holosteomorpha – Teleosteomorpha)**

1033 The origin of Neopterygii by cladogenesis into the total groups of Holostei (bowfins – *Amia* – and  
1034 gars, represented by *Lepisosteus*) and Teleostei (represented by the clupeocephalans *Takifugu* and  
1035 *Danio*) was given a minimum age of 345 Ma and a maximum age of 392 Ma.

1036 At present, there are only two candidates for Paleozoic neopterygians. One is *Acentrophorus*, “a  
1037 ‘semionotid’-like taxon that desperately requires restudy and formal analysis” (Friedman, 2015: 222;  
1038 cited as current by Xu, 2019; also Sun et al., 2016) of Wujiapingian age (between  $254.14 \pm 0.07$  Ma  
1039 and  $259.1 \pm 0.5$  Ma: ICS). The semionotids are stem-members of Ginglymodi, i.e. closer to  
1040 *Lepisosteus* than to *Amia* (Giles et al., 2017: ext. data fig. 6–8; López-Arbarello and Sferco, 2018;  
1041 Xu, 2019), but a generic “‘semionotid’-like taxon” could easily lie outside Neopterygii. In their in-  
1042 depth study of neopterygian phylogeny, López-Arbarello and Sferco (2018) did not include  
1043 *Acentrophorus* or even mention it in the text.

1044 Sun et al. (2016) cited *Archaeolepidotus*, supposedly closely related to *Watsonulus* (see below),  
1045 together with undescribed specimens as a Changxingian neopterygian (which was originally thought  
1046 to be Early Triassic, but probably is not according to references in Ronchi et al., 2018). The  
1047 Changxingian is the stage between the Wujiapingian and the Permian/Triassic boundary ( $251.902 \pm$   
1048  $0.024$  Ma ago: ICS). *Archaeolepidotus* does not appear to be well understood; Friedman (2015),  
1049 Giles et al. (2017), López-Arbarello and Sferco (2018) and Xu (2019) did not mention it, let alone  
1050 include it in a phylogenetic analysis, and Google Scholar only finds 17 occurrences in the entire  
1051 literature.

1052 The oldest certain member of Neopterygii is *Watsonulus*, a stem-halecomorph or stem-  
1053 holosteomorph (Friedman, 2015; Giles et al., 2017: ext. data fig. 6–8; López-Arbarello and Sferco,  
1054 2018; Xu, 2019) which comes from the Middle Sakamena Group of Madagascar (López-Arbarello  
1055 and Sferco, 2018) just like *Triadobatrachus* (see Node 160) and should therefore be around 249 Ma  
1056 old. I therefore propose 249 Ma as the hard minimum age of Neopterygii.

1057 Assuming from the almost phylogeny-free quantification of the Permo-Triassic fossil record of  
1058 osteichthyans by Romano et al. (2014b “2016”) that at least the Asselian record of actinopterygians is  
1059 reasonably good, I suggest a soft maximum age for Neopterygii immediately before it, i.e. at the  
1060 Carboniferous/Permian boundary ( $298.9 \pm 0.15$  Ma: ICS), rounded to 299 Ma, which conveniently  
1061 places it 50 Ma before the minimum age.



## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

### 1062 2.2 Analysis methods

1063 Johan Renaudie (Museum für Naturkunde, Berlin) kindly performed the divergence dating using the  
1064 tree (topology and uncalibrated branch lengths) and the model of evolution (CAT-GTR+Γ) and clock  
1065 model (lognormal autocorrelated relaxed) inferred by Irisarri et al. (2017) and the data (“nuclear test  
1066 data set”: the variable sites of the 14,352 most complete amino acid positions of their “NoDP”  
1067 dataset) and the software they used (PhyloBayes, though the latest version, 4.1c: Lartillot, 2015), but  
1068 the calibrations presented above (all at once, not different subsets).

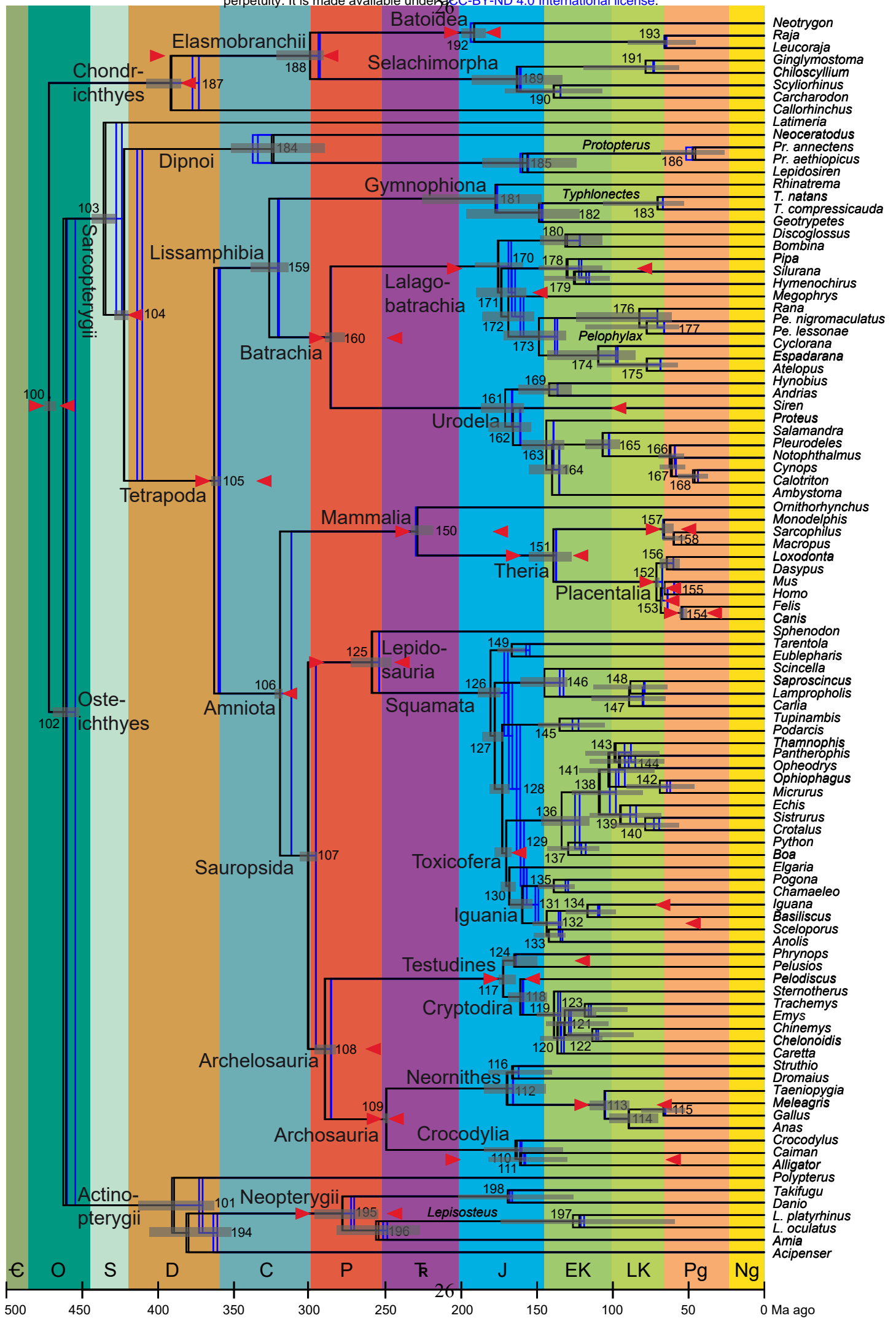
1069 Above (2.1.4) I describe phylogenetic uncertainty leading to two different minimum ages for the  
1070 tetrapod crown-group (node 105), 335 Ma and “roughly” 350 Ma. Even when all bounds are treated  
1071 as soft and the younger age is used for this node, its inferred 95% confidence interval has a younger  
1072 bound of 346 Ma and an older bound of 366 Ma (Fig. 1, Table 2); therefore, I do not consider it  
1073 necessary to run a second analysis where the minimum age of this node is set to 350 Ma.

1074 Irisarri et al. (2017) treated all bounds as soft: when the inferred rate variation around a calibrated  
1075 node was too extreme, that node was allowed to be somewhat younger than its assigned minimum  
1076 age or somewhat older than its assigned maximum age. (Specifically, 2.5% of the probability mass of  
1077 the result for each node was allowed to be outside the calibration, meaning 2.5% on each side for  
1078 calibrations with a maximum and a minimum age.) This is nonsensical for most minimum and  
1079 arguably even for a few maximum ages. To test the impact of this decision, we ran the analysis twice:  
1080 with all bounds treated as soft or as hard. Because the results were similar (Fig. 1, Table 2), a  
1081 separate run with some bounds soft and others hard (as indicated above: 2.1) appears unnecessary.

1082 Having evaluated (2.1) the inherent uncertainty of each calibration before the analyses unlike Irisarri  
1083 et al. (2017), I did not cross-validate the calibrations. Any “inconsistencies” between the calibrations  
1084 should be seen as indicating not that the calibrations are wrong, but that the rate of evolution varies  
1085 substantially across the tree, as already expected from other considerations (e.g. Berv and Field, 2017  
1086 “2018”).

1087

1088 ↓ **Figure 1:** Superimposed timetrees resulting from application of the calibrations described here,  
1089 with all bounds treated as soft (trees in blue) or all treated as hard (trees in black). The 95%  
1090 confidence intervals of each node are shown only for hard bounds; they are drawn vertically narrower  
1091 where the tree is particularly crowded. The calibrations are shown as red arrows horizontally in line  
1092 with the nodes they apply to; note that the arrow that is almost aligned with the branch of  
1093 *Lalagobatrachia* and the one that is almost aligned with the terminal branch for *Silurana* are the  
1094 maximum and minimum ages of node 178 (Pipidae), the one on the branch for *Siren* applies to node  
1095 161 (Urodela), the one on *Iguana* to node 131 (Iguania), and the one on *Pelodiscus* to node 117  
1096 (Testudines). The abbreviated genus names are spelled out as clade names; where only one species  
1097 per genus is sampled, see Irisarri et al. (2017) for full species names. To the extent possible, clade  
1098 names with node-based definitions are placed close to those nodes, while names with branch-based  
1099 definitions are shown close to the origin of that branch (i.e. the preceding node if sampled).  
1100 Period/epoch symbols from oldest to youngest: Cambrian (cut off at 500 Ma), Ordovician, Silurian,  
1101 Devonian, Carboniferous, Permian, Triassic, Jurassic, Early Cretaceous, Late Cretaceous, Paleogene,  
1102 Neogene including Quaternary (which comprises the last 2.58 Ma and is not shown separately).  
1103 Timescale (including colors) from the International Chronostratigraphic Chart, version 2019/05  
1104 (Cohen et al., 2019). Node numbers, also used in the text and the Tables, from Irisarri et al. (2017).



## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

### 1105 3 Results and discussion

#### 1106 3.1 Bibliometry

1107 Irisarri et al. (2017: supp. table 8) cited 15 works as sources for their calibrations, six of them  
1108 compilations made by paleontologists to help molecular biologists calibrate timetrees.

1109 I cite 228 references for calibration purposes. One each dates to 1964, 1988, and 1991, two each to  
1110 1994, 1995 and 1996, one each to 1997 and 1998, 3 to 1999, 1 to 2000, 4 each to 2001 and 2002, 1  
1111 each to 2003 and 2004, 7 to 2005, 3 to 2006, 7 to 2007, 6 to 2008, 2 to 2009, 5 to 2010, 7 to 2011, 9  
1112 to 2012, 15 to 2013, 12 to 2014, 20 to 2015, 25 to 2016, 20 to 2017, 29 to 2018 and 35 to 2019; the  
1113 accepted manuscript of one more was published in 2019, and one is currently in revision and may be  
1114 published in 2019 or 2020. None of them are the six compilations cited by Irisarri et al. (2017).

1115 Irisarri et al. submitted their manuscript on 16 September 2016. If we assume that half of the  
1116 publications cited here that were published in 2016 (rounded up to 13) came out too late to be used  
1117 by Irisarri et al. (2017), the total proportion of the works cited here that would have been useful to  
1118 them for calibrating their timetree but were not available amounts to 98 of 228, or 43%. I conclude  
1119 from this extreme “pull of the recent” that knowledge in this area has an extremely short half-life;  
1120 calibration dates, therefore, cannot be taken from published compilations (including the present  
1121 work), but must be checked every time anew against the current primary literature. This is time-  
1122 consuming even in the digital age, much more so than I expected, and requires reading more works  
1123 for context than actually end up cited (for some nodes three times as many); but there is no shortcut.

#### 1124 3.2 Results

1125 Treating the bounds of all calibrations as soft (blue trees in Fig. 1) generally results in younger ages  
1126 (by some 20 Ma in the extreme case of the uncalibrated actinopterygian crown group, node 101, and  
1127 the minimum-only-calibrated chondrichthyan crown group, 187), sometimes with mean ages younger  
1128 than the minimum age of the calibration (Fig. 1, Table 2). The only nodes that are found older with  
1129 soft bounds are three uncalibrated (Dipnoi, *Protopterus*, **Lepidosireniformes in one of the two soft-**  
1130 **bound runs**: nodes 184–186) and, marginally, three fully calibrated nodes (Batoidea, Mammalia,  
1131 Marsupialia: 192, 150, 157).

1132 Unexpectedly, most nodes with both a minimum and a maximum calibration are found to have the  
1133 same ages by both methods, unless the constraints are very far apart (Elasmobranchii, 188; Pipidae,  
1134 178; Lepidosauria, 125; Neopterygii, 195; but not Batrachia, 160, Mammalia, 150, or the neognath  
1135 crown group, 113). Although maximum ages evidently play an important role, which I cannot  
1136 presently explain, in preventing too young results, a maximum without a minimum age (Placentalia:  
1137 152) is not sufficient for this effect.

1138 Unconstrained nodes are generally found to have implausibly old ages and large confidence intervals:  
1139 e.g., the last common ancestor of chickens and turkeys (node 115) is placed around the  
1140 Cretaceous/Paleogene boundary, with a 95% confidence interval that spans half of each period, and  
1141 the confidence interval of the avian crown-group (Neornithes, node 112) spans most of the Jurassic,  
1142 with a younger bound barely younger the age of the distant stem-bird *Archaeopteryx* (just over 150  
1143 Ma), while the oldest known crown-birds are less than half as old, about 71 Ma (see 2.1.9). But there  
1144 are exceptions. Most notably, the squamate radiation is constrained only between the origin of  
1145 Lepidosauria (node 125, 244–290 Ma; see 2.1.12) and the origin of Toxicofera (node 129, minimum  
1146 167 Ma; see 2.1.13), yet it is bunched up around the latter date, unlike in Irisarri et al. (2017) where it

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

1147 was more spread out and generally older even though both calibrations were younger; the crucial  
1148 difference may be that Lepidosauria did not have a maximum age, but this does not explain the very  
1149 short internodes from Squamata to Iguania in my results.

1150 In part, this may be due to effects of body size (Berv and Field, 2017 “2018”): most sampled  
1151 squamates are small, while the two sampled palaeognath birds are much larger than all sampled  
1152 neognaths. This may be supported by the body size increase in snakes: their oldest sampled node  
1153 (Macrostromata or Afrophidia: 136) as well as the origin of Endoglyptodonta (138) are placed in the  
1154 Early Cretaceous, while even Late Cretaceous caenophidians (a clade containing Endoglyptodonta)  
1155 remain unknown, all potential Cretaceous total-group macrostomates are beset with phylogenetic  
1156 uncertainty, and considerably younger dates were found by Burbrink et al. (accepted) despite the use  
1157 of a mid-Cretaceous potential macrostomate as a minimum-age-only calibration. Similarly, the fact  
1158 that the entire confidence interval for Supraprimates (155) is younger than its calibrated minimum  
1159 age when soft bounds are used may be due to the fact that one of the two sampled supraprimates is  
1160 *Homo*, the second-largest sampled mammal.

1161 Whelan and Halanych (2016 “2017”) found that the CAT-GTR model (at least as implemented in  
1162 PhyloBayes) is prone to inferring inaccurate branch lengths, especially in large datasets; this may  
1163 turn out to be another cause of the results described above. The omission of the constant characters  
1164 from the dataset, intended to speed up calculations (Irisarri et al., 2017), may have exacerbated this  
1165 problem by leading to inaccurate model parameters (Whelan and Halanych, 2016 “2017”).

### 1166 **4 Conflict of Interest**

1167 The author declares that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or financial  
1168 relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

### 1169 **5 Author Contributions**

1170 D. M. designed the experiments, gathered the data, interpreted the results, prepared the figure and the  
1171 tables and wrote the paper.

### 1172 **6 Funding**

1173 I received no funding for this work.

### 1174 **7 Acknowledgments**

1175 Glory to our pirate queen, without whose work this paper would at best have taken a lot longer to  
1176 write and at worst would have been severely outdated before submission.

1177 Thanks to Albert Chen and Matteo Belvedere for an electronic reprint that would likely have been  
1178 impossible to acquire in a timely manner otherwise, to Johan Renaudie for making me aware of  
1179 another, and to Olga Karicheva and the editorial office for several deadline extensions.

1180 PhyloBayes only runs on Unix systems; Johan Renaudie (Museum für Naturkunde, Berlin) has  
1181 access to such and kindly performed the time-consuming analyses after expertly overcoming the gaps  
1182 in the documentation of PhyloBayes.

1183



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**Table 1:** The first four columns of Irisarri et al. (2017: supplementary table 8), here expanded to five, and the ages recommended here (boldface) or otherwise used for the same calibrations. Dates in parentheses are implied by a preceding (for maximum ages) or following node (for minimum ages) elsewhere in this table. Dashes in the second and third column separate the two branches stemming from the node in question. Hard bounds recommended in the text are marked with an asterisk, but this classification was disregarded in favor of an analysis where all bounds were treated as soft and one where all were treated as hard. See the text for discussion and references.

Node number in Irisarri et al. (2017: supp. table 8, supp. fig. 19)	Description of cladogenesis	Sampled terminal taxa	Minimum age in Irisarri et al. (2017)	Maximum age in Irisarri et al. (2017)	Minimum age recommended here	Maximum age recommended here
100	Root node = crown group of Gnathostomata: total group including Chondrichthyes – total group including Osteichthyes	entire sample	421.75	462.5	<b>465*</b>	<b>475</b>
102	crown group of Osteichthyes: Actinopterygii – Sarcopterygii	entire sample except Chondrichthyes	416	439	(420*)	(475)
104	Dipnomorpha – Tetrapodomorpha	Dipnoi – Tetrapoda	408	419	<b>420*</b>	(475)
105	crown group of Tetrapoda: Amphibia – total group of Amniota	Lissamphibia – Amniota	330.4	350.1	<b>335*</b> (or <b>350*</b> )	365
106	Amniota: Theropsida – Sauropsida	Mammalia – all other sampled amniotes	288	338	<b>318*</b>	(365)

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107	crown group of Diapsida: Lepidosauromorpha – Archosauromorpha	Lepidosauria – Testudines, Crocodylia, Neornithes	252	257	(263* or 256* or 307*)	(365)
108	Archelosauria: Pan-Testudines – Pan- Archosauria	Testudines – Crocodylia, Neornithes	–	–	<b>263*</b> (or 256* or 307*)	(365)
109	Archosauria: Crocodylotarsi – Avenmetatarsalia	Crocodylia – Neornithes	243	251	<b>248*</b>	252
111	Alligatoridae: Alligatorinae – Caimaninae	<i>Alligator – Caiman</i>	66	75	65*	200*
113	crown group of Neognathae: Gallanseres – Neoaves	<i>Anas, Gallus, Meleagris – Taeniopygia</i>	66	86.5	71	115
117	Testudines: Panpleurodira – Pancryptodira	<i>Phrynos, Pelusios</i> – all other sampled turtles	210	–	<b>158*</b>	<b>175*</b>
124	Pleurodira: Pan-Chelidae – Pan- Pelomedusoides	<i>Phrynosops – Pelusios</i>	25	–	<b>125*</b>	(175*)
125	Lepidosauria: Rhynchocephalia – Squamata	<i>Sphenodon</i> – Squamata	238	–	<b>244*</b>	<b>290</b>
129	Toxicofera: Anguimorpha + Iguanomorpha – Pythonomorpha	snakes – their sister-group	148	–	<b>167*</b>	(290)

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

131	Iguania: Pleurodonta – Acrodonta	<i>Iguana, Basiliscus, Sceloporus, Anolis – Pogona, Chamaeleo</i>	165	230	<b>72*</b>	(290)
132	Pleurodonta: Iguanidae + Corytophanidae – Phrynosomatidae + Dactyloidae	<i>Iguana, Basiliscus – Sceloporus, Anolis</i>	125	180	<b>52*</b>	(290)
150	Mammalia	<i>Ornithorhynchus – Theria</i>	162.5	191.4	<b>179*</b>	233*
151	Theria: Metatheria – Eutheria	Marsupialia – Placentalia	124.6	138.4	<b>126*</b>	160
152	Placentalia: Atlantogenata – Boreo(eu)theria	<i>Loxodonta, Dasypus – Felis, Canis, Homo, Mus</i>	95.3	113	(66*)	<b>72*</b>
153	Boreo(eu)theria: Laurasiatheria – Euarchontoglires/Supraprimates	<i>Felis, Canis – Homo, Mus</i>	–	–	<b>66*</b>	(72*)
154	Carnivora: Feliformia – Caniformia	<i>Felis – Canis</i>	42.8	63.8	<b>38*</b>	<b>56*</b>
155	Euarchontoglires/Supraprimates	<i>Homo – Mus</i>	61.5	100.5	<b>65*</b>	(72*)
157	Marsupialia	<i>Monodelphis – Macropus, Sarcophilus</i>	61.5	71.2	<b>55*</b>	<b>68*</b>
160	Batrachia: Salientia – Caudata	Anura – Urodela	249	–	<b>249*</b>	<b>290</b>



## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

169	crown group of Cryptobranchoidea: Hynobiidae – Pancryptobranchia	<i>Hynobius – Andrias</i>	145.5	–	101	(290)
170	Bombinanura: total group including Bombinatoroidea – total group including Pipanura	<i>Bombina, Discoglossus</i> – all other sampled frogs	161.2	–	(153*)	(290)
171	Pipanura: total group including Pipoidea – total group including Neobatrachia	<i>Pipa, Hymenochirus,</i> <i>Silurana</i> – their sister- group	145.5	–	<b>153*</b>	(290)
178	Pipidae	<i>Pipa – Silurana,</i> <i>Hymenochirus</i>	86	–	<b>84*</b>	199*
187	crown group of Chondrichthyes (Holocephali – Elasmobranchii)	<i>Callorhinchus –</i> <i>Elasmobranchii</i>	410	495	<b>385*</b>	(475)
188	Neoselachii (Selachimorpha – Batomorpha)	sharks – rays	190	–	<b>291</b>	395*
192	Batoidea (Rajiformes – all other rays)	<i>Neotrygon – Raja,</i> <i>Leucoraja</i>	176	–	<b>184*</b>	<b>201*</b>
195	Neopterygii (total group of Holostei – total group of Teleostei)	<i>Lepisosteus, Amia –</i> <i>Takifugu, Danio</i>	345	392	<b>249*</b>	299

**Table 2:** The ages found by Irisarri et al. (2017: supplementary table 9: last three columns) when all calibrations were used, and the results obtained here with the updated calibrations. All are rounded to whole Ma. Asterisks indicate where the (rounded) results with soft bounds exceed the calibration constraints (younger than the minimum for younger bounds and mean ages, older than the maximum for older bounds except that of node 155, which is younger than the minimum age). Irisarri et al. (2017) treated all bounds as soft.

	Irisarri et al. (2017)			Results with soft bounds			Results with hard bounds		
Node number	Mean age	younger bound of 95% CI	older bound of 95% CI	Mean age	younger bound of 95% CI	older bound of 95% CI	Mean age	younger bound of 95% CI	older bound of 95% CI
100	460	452	465	472	466	475	473	467	475
101	393	383	403	370	340	400	389	363	413
102	437	431	440	454	440	466	461	452	469
103	426	420	431	424	407	437	435	428	444
104	412	408	418	410*	394*	424	423	420	429
105	341	331	350	359	346	366	363	359	365
106	289	283	296	312*	300*	322	320	318	323
107	257	256	257	296	286	305	301	295	307

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

108	254	253	256	286	277	294	290	283	297
109	243	242	245	249	248	252	250	248	252
110	120	90	162	160	131	182	164	133	185
111	71	66	75	158	129	179	161	130	182
112	137	111	173	166	148	184	169	144	185
113	83	70	87	105	87	116*	105	89	115
114	63	47	73	89	71	104	89	70	102
115	16	8	25	65	52	82	66	52	81
116	92	66	130	162	144	181	166	140	182
117	224	211	234	172	164	176*	172	164	175
118	206	184	221	159	143	168	161	143	169
119	168	133	188	134	111	148	139	111	150
120	155	117	176	132	108	146	136	107	148
121	127	90	150	127	104	142	132	103	144

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

122	95	63	124	109	85	127	113	86	130
123	78	45	107	114	91	132	118	90	134
124	192	167	211	164	151	172	165	150	173
125	239	233	244	254	244	268	259	246	273
126	199	190	208	169	153	182	181	174	189
127	195	185	204	166	150	179	178	172	186
128	187	177	196	161	144	173	173	168	181
129	182	173	192	158*	141*	170	170	167	178
130	181	172	190	157	140	168	168	164	176
131	166	159	175	149	131	161	160	153	168
132	137	124	151	134	115	146	143	133	153
133	127	111	142	133	113	145	142	131	152
134	130	115	145	108	86	125	116	98	131
135	128	104	143	129	108	143	139	125	149



## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

136	94	72	119	122	103	140	134	115	147
137	88	66	112	118	98	136	129	109	143
138	64	40	91	98	76	121	108	80	127
139	47	26	72	84	65	109	94	68	115
140	11	4	25	69	53	93	78	56	100
141	46	25	72	92	69	115	102	72	122
142	27	13	49	62	42	82	69	46	91
143	39	21	64	88	66	111	98	69	118
144	22	11	42	85	63	108	95	66	115
145	179	167	190	122	98	141	135	115	149
146	156	136	172	132	110	148	145	130	161
147	57	34	77	79	58	102	89	65	114
148	44	24	65	79	57	101	88	64	113
149	165	146	181	155	136	168	166	158	176

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

150	165	161	172	230	217	237	229	218	233
151	138	136	140	137	126	156	139	127	155
152	94	91	96	67	61*	72	71	69	72
153	89	85	92	64*	58*	68	68	67	68
154	61	53	65	54	48	57*	54	51	56
155	79	71	84	59*	53*	64*	66	65	67
156	91	87	94	60	52	67	64	56	69
157	68	62	72	66	61	69*	66	60	68
158	50	38	60	60	53	67	60	52	67
159	315	300	328	321	297	334	327	314	339
160	307	290	323	286	274	292*	286	277	290
161	202	173	237	166	152	185	171	159	187
162	192	163	226	161	146	180	166	154	182
163	177	146	210	139	127	157	144	132	160

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

164	168	137	199	135	122	153	140	129	155
165	117	86	143	102	90	115	107	95	118
166	92	62	117	59	49	68	62	53	70
167	77	49	101	58	49	67	62	52	69
168	53	30	74	43	34	54	47	37	57
169	162	134	196	136	119	157	142	127	162
170	201	170	232	167	151*	185	175	159	191
171	192	161	224	164	149*	183	173	157	190
172	186	154	218	159	141	179	169	152	186
173	155	123	186	136	118	164	149	131	172
174	105	71	140	96	79	135	110	85	143
175	94	62	127	68	54	99	77	57	110
176	70	33	110	70	56	113	83	61	124
177	54	22	89	66	53	107	78	56	118

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

178	156	119	189	120	98	142	130	107	149
179	144	106	177	115	92	137	125	102	145
180	160	125	194	122	100	141	130	107	148
181	213	162	255	177	148	241	178	147	226
182	155	105	195	147	117	212	149	122	197
183	36	12	65	67	47	107	70	53	106
184	223	165	279	334	295	363	324	290	352
185	78	48	107	155	124	177	160	124	186
186	6	2	15	47	26	65	47	26	68
187	414	402	428	377*	350*	402	392	385	408
188	293	256	332	294	282*	314	300	291	322
189	202	140	269	160	131	190	163	133	193
190	156	92	223	134	104	167	139	107	171
191	98	50	168	72	53	112	78	56	119

## Recalibrating the gnathostome timetree

192	207	172	262	194	184	201	192	184	200
193	76	42	110	66	49	95	65	45	90
194	380	370	390	361	331	390	380	352	406
195	345	338	352	270	250	295	279	255	297
196	330	319	340	249	222	278	256	227	282
197	55	18	91	121	57	168	126	59	174
198	277	244	297	166	126	209	169	126	202