

Working paper

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Running head: Branch lengths in phylogenomics

Phylogenetic signal is associated with the degree of variation in root-to-tip distances

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22 *Abstract.*—The phylogenetic information contained in sequence data is partly determined by the
23 overall rate of nucleotide substitution in the genomic region in question. However, phylogenetic
24 signal is affected by various other factors, such as heterogeneity in substitution rates across
25 lineages. These factors might be able to predict the phylogenetic accuracy of any given gene in a
26 data set. We examined the association between the accuracy of phylogenetic inference across
27 genes and several characteristics of branch lengths in phylogenomic data. In a large number of
28 published data sets, we found that the accuracy of phylogenetic inference from genes was
29 consistently associated with their mean statistical branch support and variation in their gene tree
30 root-to-tip distances, but not with tree length and stemminess. Therefore, a signal of constant
31 evolutionary rates across lineages appears to be beneficial for phylogenetic inference. Identifying
32 the causes of variation in root-to-tip lengths in gene trees also offers a potential way forward to
33 increase congruence in the signal across genes and improve estimates of species trees from
34 phylogenomic data sets.

35

36 **Keywords**

37 Phylogenomics, substitution rate, nucleotide substitution model, branch support, data filtering

38 The phylogenetic signal in a molecular sequence alignment is influenced by a number of
39 factors, including the substitution rate at which the sequences have evolved relative to the
40 timescale of the process. In principle, the amount of information in the sequence alignment
41 depends on the overall substitution rate of the gene (Goldman 1998; Xia et al. 2003; Townsend
42 and Leuenberger 2011; Klopstein et al. 2017; Steel and Leuenberger 2017). However, the
43 substitution rate might be a poor predictor of the accuracy of the inferred tree topology (Aguileta
44 et al. 2008). This is because the phylogenetic signal in a gene can be obscured by various forms
45 of heterogeneity, such as variation in rates across sites (Su and Townsend 2015; Dornburg et al.
46 2019). Substantial rate heterogeneity can also be found across branches (Bromham and Penny
47 2003), but there is still a limited understanding of the association between this form of rate
48 variation and the topological signal in phylogenomic data sets.

49 Substitution rates can vary across genes and across lineages because of differences in
50 selective pressures or limits on mutation rates (Gillespie 1991; Gaut et al. 2011). The factors that
51 drive rate variation across genes and lineages can interact in what are known as “residual effects”
52 (Gillespie 1991), potentially creating complex patterns of substitution rates across genes (Ho
53 2014; Duchêne and Ho 2015). Genes can also differ in their evolutionary histories, including
54 their coalescence times, due to recombination breaking the linkage between sections of the
55 genome (Maddison 1997). In addition to varying in their signals of rates and times, estimates of
56 substitution rates in individual genes can be misled by a number of methodological factors,
57 including model misspecification (Sullivan and Joyce 2005) and errors in alignment, orthology
58 assignment, or sequencing (Wilkinson 1996; Sanderson and Shaffer 2002).

59 Any differences in evolutionary rates across genes will be reflected in the estimates of
60 gene tree branch lengths. In statistical phylogenetic inference, branch lengths are closely linked

61 to the estimate of tree topology. For example, long branches can have negative impacts on
62 phylogenetic accuracy because of their tendency to be grouped together (“long-branch
63 attraction”; Anderson & Swofford 2004). Even a single long branch can drastically change the
64 phylogenetic signal in the data (Su and Townsend 2015). Meanwhile, low substitution rates can
65 lead to a lack of phylogenetic information and even to a greater amount of phylogenetic error
66 than in sequences that have evolved with very high substitution rates (Yang 1998). Although
67 most research has focused on the differences in overall substitution rates across genes, the
68 variation in the signal of rates across lineages is likely to provide a more nuanced and accurate
69 predictor of the topological signal across the genome.

70 One potential predictor of phylogenetic accuracy is the degree of variation in the inferred
71 distances from the root to each of the tips in a given gene tree. If substitution rates have been
72 constant across lineages, the root-to-tip distances are expected to be proportional to time.
73 Therefore, root-to-tip distances should all be identical in a data set where the samples come from
74 the present and the sequences have evolved under a strict molecular clock. In theory, it is
75 unlikely that any poor estimation in branch lengths will produce identical root-to-tip distances.
76 Variation in root-to-tip distances might be caused by variation in rates across lineages, but
77 critically, it is also diagnostic of the presence of factors causing inaccurate estimates of branch
78 lengths.

79 Variation in root-to-tip distances will not be informative in cases where low information
80 content is due to fast diversification events (over short time-periods) or where multiple lineages
81 have changed in evolutionary rate simultaneously (an “epoch” model of rate variation). An
82 alternative predictor of phylogenetic accuracy is the ratio of the lengths of internal branches to
83 terminal branches, also known as stemminess (Fiala and Sokal 1985). Low stemminess is

84 typically associated with a poor topological signal (e.g., Penny et al. 2001; Duchêne et al.
85 2018c), yet it is frequently observed in phylogenetic trees (e.g., Phillimore & Price 2008). Some
86 explanations for low stemminess include rapid diversification events (McPeck 2008), sparse
87 taxon sampling (Penny et al. 2001; Cusimano and Renner 2010), underparameterization of the
88 substitution model (Revell et al. 2005), and deep gene coalescences relative to species
89 divergence times (Maddison 1997; Degnan and Rosenberg 2009).

90 Testing the link between characteristics of branch lengths and estimates of tree topology
91 across genes has potential benefits for the design of phylogenomic studies. One approach to
92 carrying out a phylogenomic study is to employ a criterion to select genes for analysis, a practice
93 known as “data filtering” or “gene shopping” (Molloy and Warnow 2018). Some of the criteria
94 that have previously been used for data filtering include phylogenetic branch supports (Blom et
95 al. 2016), the amount of missing data (Molloy and Warnow 2018), measures of substitution
96 model adequacy (Duchêne et al. 2018c; Richards et al. 2018), and base composition (Dávalos
97 and Perkins 2008; Martijn et al. 2018). It not clear which of these criteria is the most effective
98 (Molloy and Warnow 2018), but it is likely that no single criterion is universally applicable
99 (Reddy et al. 2017). Nonetheless, branch lengths provide an estimate of the amount of genetic
100 change that is captured in a data set, so it is reasonable to surmise that they present a general
101 predictor of the accuracy of estimates of tree topology (Klopfstein et al. 2017).

102 In this study, we explore the association between three branch-length metrics and
103 estimates of tree topology across a collection of 34 phylogenomic data sets. When examining
104 individual data sets, we find that the tree length is not the best predictor of phylogenetic
105 information content among genes. Across the 34 data sets, we observe an association between
106 the performance of phylogenetic inference and the variation in root-to-tip distances.

107 Phylogenomic studies are likely to benefit from considering the heterogeneity in rates across
108 lineages for describing the signal of tree topology across loci.

109

110 **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

111 We collected a set of 34 phylogenomic data sets covering a wide range of taxa and data
112 types (Table 1), including intron and exon regions, ultraconserved elements, and anchor-enriched
113 regions. The original studies varied widely in their treatment of these data sets. For instance,
114 some studies considered the trees from each of the codon positions of protein-coding genes
115 independently. We followed the data treatments used in the original studies so that our analyses
116 would reflect the approaches that have been used in practice.

117 For each data set, we inferred the phylogeny using IQ-Tree (Nguyen et al. 2015) with the
118 best-fitting substitution model from the GTR+ Γ family. We then identified a set of gene trees
119 from each data set that contained the same set of taxa. The taxon set was selected to maximize
120 the product of the number of taxa and the number of genes, while maintaining full occupancy of
121 the data matrix (for details see github.com/duchene/branch_length_influence_topology).

122 We calculated three test statistics that described the branch-length signal in each gene
123 tree. These statistics included: (i) the coefficient of variation (CoV) in distances from the
124 midpoint-root to the tips, which provides a measure of rate heterogeneity across lineages; (ii) tree
125 length calculated as the sum of all branch lengths; and (iii) tree stemminess (Fiala and Sokal
126 1985). In addition, we calculated for each gene the mean of the statistical support across
127 branches, using the Shimodaira-Hasegawa-like approximate likelihood-ratio test (aLRT;
128 described in Anisimova and Gascuel 2006).

129 We assessed whether the four branch statistics could explain two different measures of
130 the accuracy of tree topology estimates. The first measure was the topological distance from the
131 species tree as estimated using a multispecies coalescent analysis in ASTRAL-III (Zhang et al.
132 2018) of the complete set of genes for the corresponding study. This evaluates the concordance
133 between the phylogenetic signal in each gene tree and the underlying species history. The second
134 measure of accuracy was the mean topological distance between the gene tree and all other gene
135 trees from the corresponding data set. This evaluates the concordance of the signal in each gene
136 tree with the remainder of the phylogenetic signals in the genome. All topological distances were
137 calculated using the Robinson-Foulds topological distance (Robinson and Foulds 1981; Penny
138 and Hendy 1985).

139 We used multiple linear regression to test whether the two measures of topological
140 accuracy are explained by the four branch statistics. For each of the two response variables
141 (topological distance of the gene tree to the species tree and mean topological distance to other
142 gene trees), we first tested a model that included the complete data set of the genes from across
143 the 34 studies ($N = 36,075$). We included the four branch statistics as explanatory variables in the
144 regression models.

145 Since we aimed to identify the correlates of phylogenetic signal within each study, we
146 attempted to account for the differences across studies in their results and their sample size. We
147 included a random factor in each regression model that indicated the source study of each gene,
148 this way accounting for the differences in patterns that might occur among studies. In this large
149 model, we corrected tree length for the number of taxa by dividing it by the number of branches
150 in the study (leading to the mean of branch lengths) to make the values fall on a similar scale
151 across studies. We also explored the model when weighting each gene by the number of taxa in

152 its source study, such that studies with a greater number of genes have a greater contribution to
153 the model.

154 To focus further on the results within studies, we performed a second set of regression
155 models where each study was examined independently. For each study, we tested whether our
156 two response variables were explained by our four branch statistics. Therefore, this second set of
157 analyses included two regression tests for each of the 34 studies that we examined. Tree length
158 was left uncorrected for the number of branches in the regression models for individual studies.

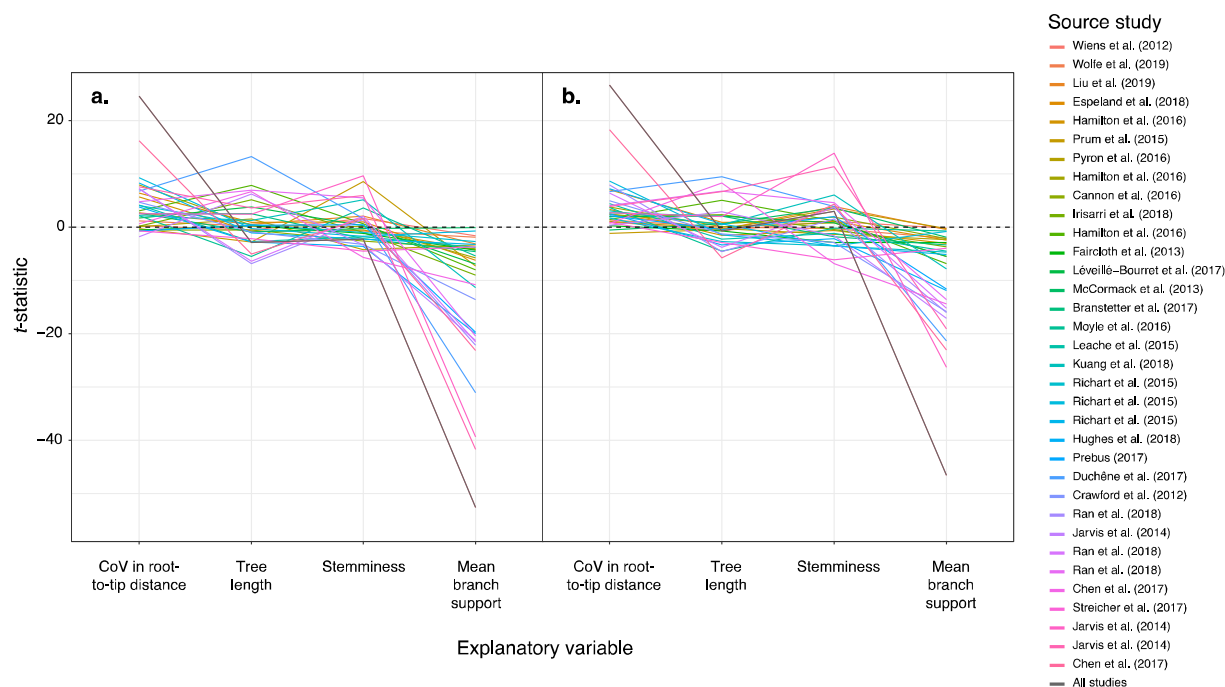
159

160 **RESULTS**

161 The regression analyses that included the 34 complete data sets showed that some of our
162 explanatory variables had a significant association with both measures of topological accuracy
163 (topological distance to the species tree and topological distance to other gene trees; Fig. 1).
164 Specifically, we found that topological accuracy has a positive association with the CoV in root-
165 to-tip distances, and a negative association with mean aLRT branch support (Fig. 1). Mean aLRT
166 branch support had the strongest association with both topological distance to the species tree
167 and to other gene trees. Strikingly, we find limited evidence for an association between
168 topological accuracy and tree length or stemminess. Results were comparable across regression
169 models in which samples (genes) were weighted by number of branches or by number of taxa in
170 respective studies (Supplementary Fig. S1).

171 The regression models that explored individual data sets supported the results from our
172 larger regression models. Only a small minority of data sets showed an effect opposite to those
173 observed for the CoV in root-to-tip distances and branch support. Meanwhile, there was
174 substantial variation in terms of the association between topological accuracy and tree length or

175 stemminess. As expected, the results of individual regression analyses showed greater t -statistics
 176 (smaller P -values) for data sets with large numbers of genes than for data sets with few genes.
 177 The t -statistics were comparable among regression models with each of the two measures of
 178 topological accuracy (Supplementary Fig. S2).



179
 180 **Figure 1.** Summary t -statistic for multiple regression tests of the association between five
 181 explanatory variables describing branch lengths and each of two response variables: (a)
 182 topological distance between gene trees and the inferred species tree; and (b) mean distance from
 183 each gene tree to all other gene trees. The legend lists the source studies in ascending order of
 184 number of genes in the data set (see Table 1 for details).
 185

186 DISCUSSION

187 Our analyses of a collection of phylogenomic data sets have shown that low variation in
 188 root-to-tip distances and strong branch support in gene trees have a strong association with
 189 phylogenetic accuracy. Strikingly, tree length is a poor predictor of the accuracy of topological
 190 inference across gene trees. This is surprising because tree length is proportional to the overall

191 substitution rate in a gene (Yang 1998), and is a prominent form of variation in the phylogenetic
192 information across gene trees (Duchêne et al. 2020). These results are consistent with recent
193 work that emphasized the importance of heterogeneity in the data rather than the overall
194 substitution rate as an indicator of phylogenetic accuracy (Su and Townsend 2015; Dornburg et
195 al. 2019).

196 Phylogenomic analysis can potentially be improved by focusing analyses and
197 interpretation of results according to loci with particular patterns of rate variation across lineages.
198 A formal method of identifying genes with constant rates across lineages is to compare a model
199 of rate constancy versus one allowing rate variation (Felsenstein 1981). However, not all forms
200 of rate variation across lineages are problematic for phylogenetics. One approach that might
201 benefit phylogenomic studies is to identify the loci that have extreme patterns of rate variation
202 among lineages and exclude them from analyses. Loci can then be retained for analysis when
203 they contain patterns of rate variation across lineages that are mild and recurrent across multiple
204 regions in the genome. Methods of describing the diversity of patterns of rate variation can be
205 useful for this purpose (Duchêne et al. 2014).

206 Some of the extreme forms of variation in root-to-tip distances that lead to poor
207 phylogenetic accuracy might be unrelated to variation in evolutionary rates across lineages. For
208 example, sequence evolution might be heterogeneous across the tree, with variation in base
209 composition or in transition probabilities among nucleotides (e.g., Dávalos & Perkins 2008;
210 Foster *et al.* 2009; Martijn *et al.* 2018). Therefore, methods of assessing model adequacy are
211 likely to be useful complementary diagnostics for improving the accuracy of topological
212 inferences (Brown and EIDabaje 2009; Doyle et al. 2015; Höhna et al. 2017; Duchêne et al.
213 2018b, 2018c).

214 Variation in root-to-tip distances might also be an artefact of data preparation, rather than
215 model performance. If model performance was a primary driver of phylogenetic accuracy, then
216 we expect poor accuracy to be strongly associated with low stemminess (Revell et al. 2005). One
217 wide-ranging solution to errors in data preparation is to identify and remove any taxa that have a
218 highly variable position in a each given gene tree, also known as “rogue taxa” (Aberer et al.
219 2013) or which sit on extremely long terminal branches (Mai and Mirarab 2018). Similarly,
220 phylogenomic studies of the relationships at a specific branch of the tree can benefit from
221 identifying genes with a highly decisive signal (Fong et al. 2012) or those with the signal of a
222 long branch separating the taxa in question (Chen et al. 2015). Given that multiple factors can
223 affect branch-length estimates, using a mixture of methods that identify possibly misleading
224 genes as well as lineages is likely to be effective for data filtering in phylogenomics.

225 We found that branch support strongly explains our measures of topological accuracy.
226 Previous work has shown that gene trees with high bootstrap branch supports are associated with
227 greater nodal support values in species-tree inferences (Blom et al. 2016). The branch-support
228 metric used in our analyses, SH-aLRT support (Anisimova and Gascuel 2006), reflects the
229 consistency in the signal of a given branch across the sites in the data set. High values indicate
230 that there is a concordant signal across a large number of the informative sites. Low values can
231 occur in genes that have few informative sites, have high degrees of rate heterogeneity across
232 sites, or that are affected by saturation or intragenic recombination. Therefore, mean branch
233 support is likely to provide another useful diagnostic of phylogenetic accuracy across genes.
234 However, the relative performance of different branch-support metrics in indicating phylogenetic
235 accuracy is yet to be explored (e.g., Lemoine et al. 2018; Minh et al. 2018).

236 The results of our study offer a basis for developing a framework for phylogenomics that
237 prioritizes the inclusion of genes with a signal of limited variation in root-to-tip distances and a
238 signal of topology that is highly concordant across sites. Our results suggest that the overall
239 substitution rate is of limited importance as long as the evolutionary process has been
240 homogeneous across lineages from the root of the process to the present. Potential avenues for
241 future research include exploring the accuracy in the signal of particular types of deviation from
242 a constant evolutionary rate across lineages, exploring the importance of model adequacy when
243 estimating branch lengths, or comparing the performance of various metrics of branch support
244 for predicting phylogenetic accuracy. Further examination of the correlates of reliable
245 phylogenetic signal will be useful for selecting genes for phylogenomic analyses.

246

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250

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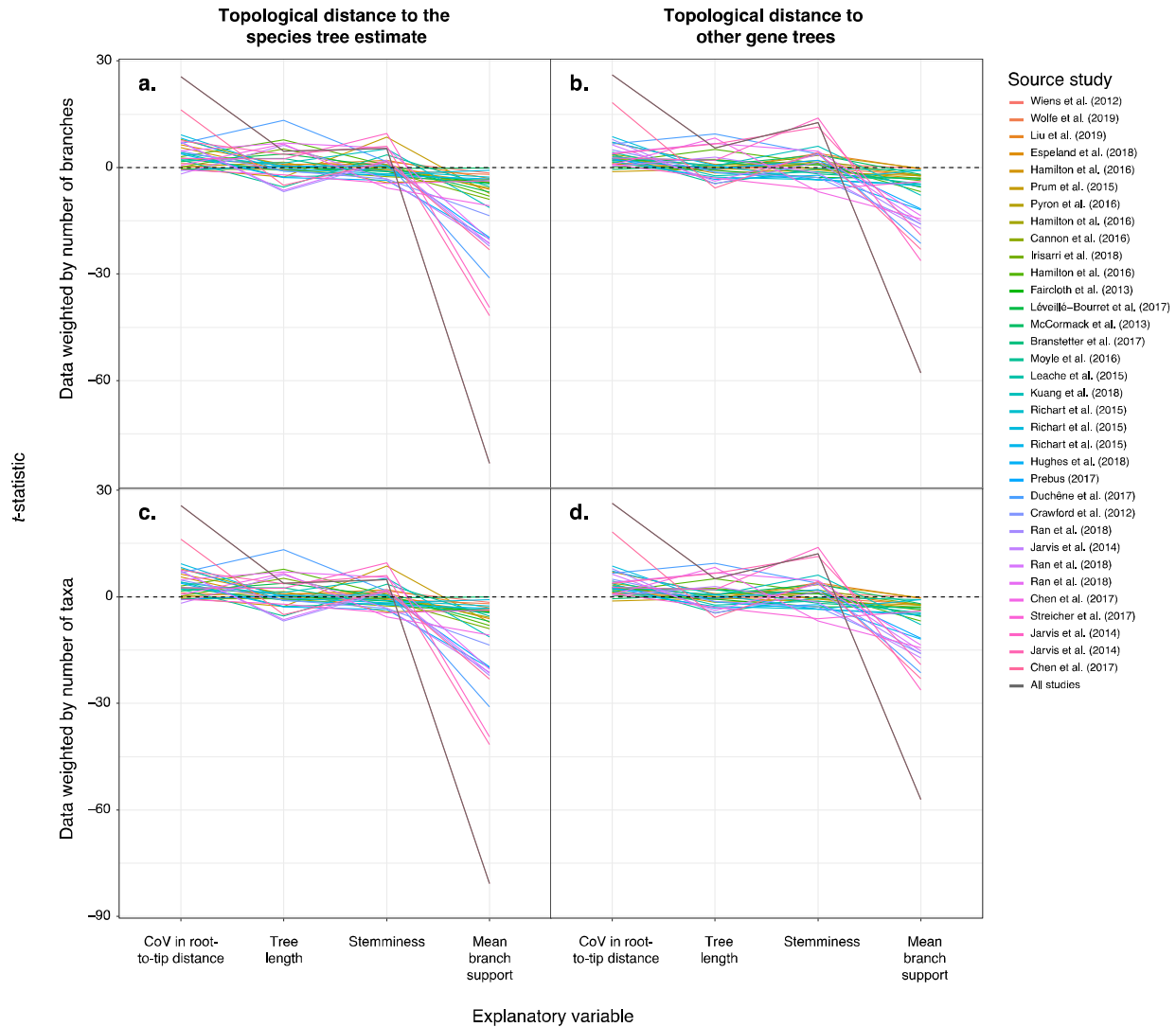
457 **Table 1.** Phylogenomic data sets for which the association between phylogenetic signal and
 458 branch characteristics was tested. The treatment of data sets was similar to that in the original
 459 studies. Some of the published alignments were excluded because of numerical problems in
 460 phylogenetics software, excessive missing data, or file-format difficulties (such as those caused
 461 by unusual characters).
 462

Taxon	Number of genes	Number of taxa per gene	Data type/genomic region	Source
Stinging wasps (Aculeata)	807	140–183	UCE	Branstetter et al. 2017
Laurasiatherian mammals (Laurasiatheria)	10,258	8–23	Intron	Chen et al. 2017 (a)
Laurasiatherian mammals (Laurasiatheria)	3637	5–23	Intron	Chen et al. 2017 (b)
Amniote vertebrates (Amniota)	1145	10	UCE	Crawford et al. 2012
Marsupial mammals (Marsupialia)	1494	38–45	Exon	Duchêne et al. 2018a
Butterflies (Papilionoidea)	350	144–205	Exon	Espeland et al. 2018
Ray-finned fishes (Actinopterygii)	489	5–27	UCE	Faircloth et al. 2013
North American tarantulas (<i>Aphonopelma</i>)	581	63–83	Anchor	Hamilton et al. 2016 (a)
Spiders (Araneae)	326	22–34	Anchor	Hamilton et al. 2016 (b)
North American mygalomorph spiders (Euctenizidae)	403	18–25	Anchor	Hamilton et al. 2016 (c)
Ray-finned fishes (Actinopterygii)	1101	105–298	Exon	Hughes et al. 2018
Cichlid fishes (Cichlidae)	533	57–149	Anchor	Irisarri et al. 2018
Birds (Aves)	8293	42–52	Exon	Jarvis et al. 2014 (a)
Birds (Aves)	8287	42–52	Exon	Jarvis et al. 2014 (b)
Birds (Aves)	2515	39–52	Intron	Jarvis et al. 2014 (c)
Gobioid fishes (Actinopterygii: Gobioidei)	570	43	Exon	Kuang et al. 2018
Iguanas (Phrynosomatidae)	580	4–11	UCE	Leaché et al. 2015
Flowering plants (Angiospermae)	370	29–35	Anchor	Léveillé-Bourret et al. 2018
Mosses (Bryophyta)	105	68–146	Exon	Liu et al. 2019
Birds (Neoaves)	1539	17–33	UCE	McCormack et al. 2013
Songbirds (Passeri)	515	106	UCE	Moyle et al. 2016
Acorn ants (<i>Temnothorax</i>)	2091	44–50	UCE	Prebus 2017
Birds (Aves)	259	164–200	Anchor	Prum et al. 2015

Snakes (<i>Storeria</i>)	322	70–90	Anchor	Pyron et al. 2016
Gymnosperms (Gymnospermae)	1308	38	Exon	Ran et al. 2018 (a)
Gymnosperms (Gymnospermae)	1308	38	Exon	Ran et al. 2018 (b)
Gymnosperms (Gymnospermae)	1308	38	Exon	Ran et al. 2018 (c)
Harvestmen spiders (Ischiropsalidoidea)	672	5	Exon	Richart et al. 2016 (a)
Harvestmen spiders (Ischiropsalidoidea)	653	5	Exon	Richart et al. 2016 (b)
Harvestmen spiders (Ischiropsalidoidea)	672	5	Exon	Richart et al. 2016 (c)
Squamate reptiles (Squamata)	4175	18–34	UCE	Streicher and Wiens 2017
Squamate reptiles (Squamata)	44	98–167	Exon	Wiens et al. 2012
Decapod crustaceans (Decapoda)	105	57–94	Exon	Wolfe et al. 2019
Squamate reptiles (Squamata)	52	98–2378	Anchor	Zheng and Wiens 2016

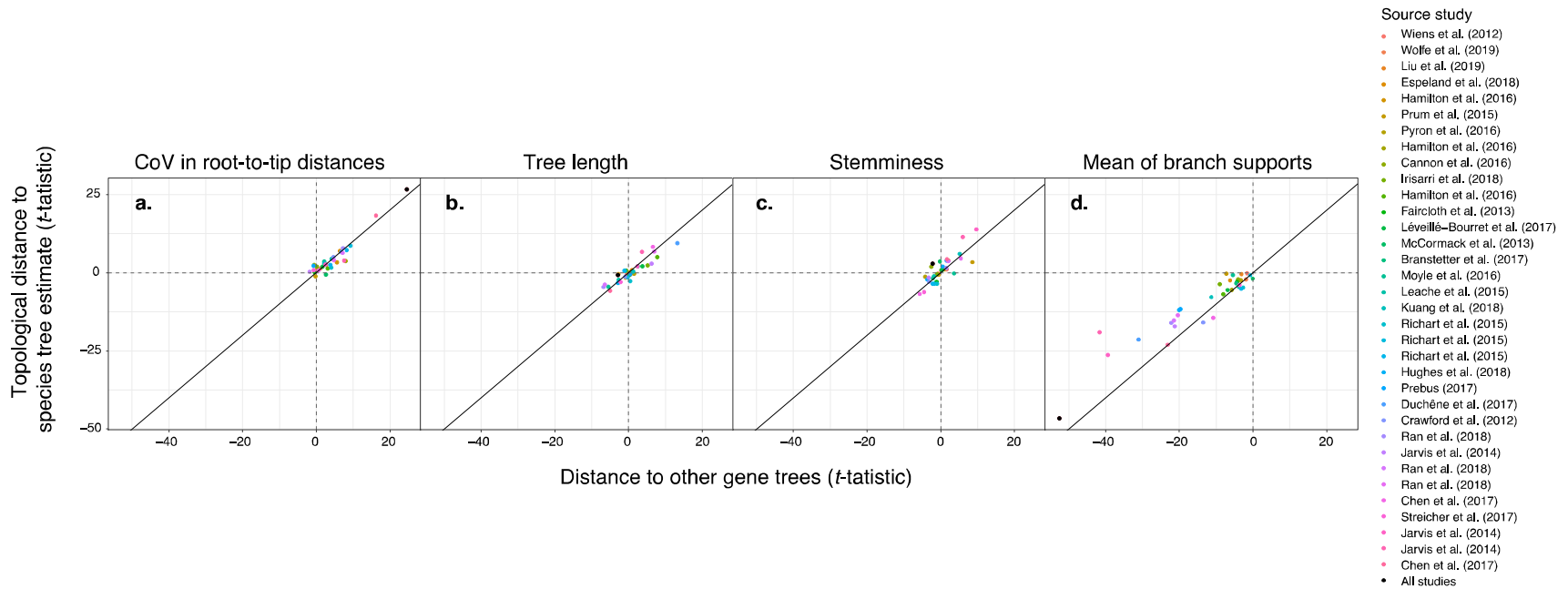
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464 **Supplementary Figure S1.** Summary *t*-statistic for multiple regression tests of the association
 465 between five explanatory variables describing branch lengths and each of two response variables:
 466 (a, c) topological distance between gene trees and the inferred species tree; and (b, d) mean
 467 distance from each gene tree to all other gene trees. Rows of panels indicate the results of
 468 analyses where regression samples (genes) were weighted by the number of branches (a, b) and
 469 number of taxa (c, d) in respective studies. The legend lists the studies in ascending order of
 470 number of genes in the data set (see Table 1 for details).
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474 **Supplementary Figure S2.** Relationship between results of multiple regression models in which the response variable was the
 475 distance to the estimated species tree (y-axis) and the mean distance to other gene trees (x-axis). Panels (a-e) show the association for
 476 each of the five explanatory regression terms included. The black point indicates the results of the regression model that included the
 477 complete data set with the source study of each genes included as a random factor. Studies in the legend are shown in ascending order
 478 of number of genes included.
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