Performance of a phylogenetic independent contrast method and an improved pairwise comparison under different scenarios of trait evolution after speciation and duplication

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Short title: Methods matters in gene family evolution

Abstract

Despite the importance of gene function to evolutionary biology, the applicability of comparative methods to gene function is poorly known. A specific case which has crystalized methodological questions is the "ortholog conjecture", the hypothesis that function evolves faster after duplication (i.e., in paralogs), and conversely conserved between orthologs. Since the mode of functional evolution after duplication is not well known, we investigate under what reasonable evolutionary scenarios phylogenetic independent contrasts or pairwise comparisons can recover a putative signal of different functional evolution between orthologs and paralogs.

We investigate three different simulation models, which represent reasonable but simplified hypotheses about gene function (our "trait") evolution. These are time dependent trait acceleration, correlated changes in rates of both sequence and trait evolution, and asymmetric trait jump. For each model we tested phylogenetic independent contrasts and an improved pairwise comparison method which accounts for interactions between events and node age.

Both approaches loose power to detect the trend of functional evolution when the functional trait accelerates for a long time following duplication, with better power of phylogenetic contrasts under intermediate scenarios. Concomitant increase in evolutionary rates of sequence and of trait after duplication can lead to both an incorrect rejection of the null under null simulations of trait evolution, and a false rejection of the ortholog conjecture under ortholog conjecture simulations by phylogenetic independent contrasts. Improved pairwise comparisons are robust to this bias. Both approaches perform equally well to trace rapid shift in traits.

Considering our ignorance of gene function evolution, and the potential for bias under

simple models, we recommend methodological pluralism in studying gene family

evolution. Functional phylogenomics is complex and results supported by only one

method should be treated with caution.

Keywords: Phylogenetic Independent Contrasts, Pairwise comparisons, Brownian

model, Gene duplication, Functional evolution, Simulation

Introduction

In comparative biology, pairwise comparisons of terminal taxa of genes or of species are commonly used to detect phenotypic or morphological or character associations (Felsenstein 1985, Maddison 2000; Martins & Garland 1991; Read & Nee 1995). This pairwise approach can handle sparse data and poorly resolved phylogenies, and relies on relatively few assumptions, compared to other methods that use reconstructed ancestral states, stochastic models of evolution, or phylogenetic branch lengths (Felsenstein 1985; Read & Nee 1995; Purvis & Bromham 1997; Garland *et al.* 1992; Maddison 2000). A potential issue is that multiple pairwise comparisons of data across the same branch of a tree pseudo-replicate data, and overlook phylogenetic relatedness of species (Pagel 1994; Blomberg et al. 2003; Dunn *et al.* 2018). The phylogenetic independent contrasts (PIC) method solves these issues by taking into account the evolutionary history of species (Felsenstein 1985; Grafen 1989; Cooper *et al.* 2016; Dunn *et al.* 2018). This approach needs well-resolved phylogenies. Moreover, it is sensitive to model assumptions (e.g. known branch lengths of the phylogeny, or Brownian character evolution), and may lead to erroneous interpretations if these assumptions are violated (Garland *et al.* 1992; Maddison 2000; DÌaz-Uriarte & Garland 1998; Freckleton & Harvey 2006; Cooper *et al.* 2016). Most comparative functional genomic studies still rely on pairwise comparisons, although some do use PIC.

Applications of both approaches to test the "ortholog conjecture" model, i.e. that there are larger functional differences between paralogs (homologous genes diverging since a duplication) than between orthologs (homologous genes diverging since a speciation), have shown how methodological differences can lead to different results concerning the evolution of gene function (e.g., Nehrt *et al.* 2011; Kryuchkova-Mostacci & Robinson-Rechavi 2016; Dunn *et al.* 2018; Begum & Robinson-Rechavi 2020). Despite

these conflicting empirical results, the theoretical expectations of these methods under

different models of evolution of gene function have not been studied.

Two common features of most observations of gene evolution are asymmetry of rate

changes between phylogenetic branches, and that sequence rates are variable (i.e., there

is no molecular clock). Both of these can be expected to affect testing of the ortholog

conjecture. Functional traits evolve asymmetrically after duplication (Gu *et al.* 2005;

Kim & Yi 2006; Cusack & Wolfe 2007; Studer & Robinson-Rechavi 2009). At the

sequence level (e.g., dN/dS), there appears to be both an acceleration following gene

duplication, and asymmetry of this acceleration (Conant & Wagner 2003; Brunet *et al.*

2006; Kim & Yi 2006; Scannell & Wolfe 2008; Studer & Robinson-Rechavi 2009;

Panchin *et al.* 2010; Pegueroles *et al.* 2013; Pich & Kondrashov 2014; Holland *et al.*

2017). In yeast, Gu *et al.* (2005) reported asymmetric trait acceleration in a time-

dependent fashion shortly after duplication, with less dramatically acceleration in

sequence evolutionary rates. Trait evolutionary rates are also variable in phylogenies.

For example, there can be a period of rapid trait shifts or jumps according to changes

in the fitness landscape (e.g. ecological opportunities) following a speciation event

(Bokma 2008; Duchen *et al.* 2017; Landis *et al.* 2013; Simpson 1944). Such jump in

traits, rather than a change in the evolutionary rates, might also affect trait evolution

after gene duplication. The complexity of evolution after duplication led us to enquire

under which reasonable simple evolutionary scenarios after gene duplication we can

recover a signal of different functional evolution between types of events in gene trees.

To address this question, we consider the ortholog conjecture as a test case and we use

a gene trait with a bound limit of 0 to 1; we call it τ, like the tissue-specificity score

used in previous studies (Yanai *et al.* 2005; Kryuchkova-Mostacci & Robinson-

Rechavi 2016; Dunn *et al.* 2018). We compared the performances of PIC and of an

improved pairwise method using three simple simulation models with different

parameters of divergence following speciations and duplications.

Materials and Methods

Simulated gene trees

We simulated ultrametric trees (n = 10000), each with 100 tips generated under a pure birth-death model using the TreeSim R package (Stadler 2011) with a fixed speciation rate of 0.4, and an extinction rate of 0.1. Since our study aims to mimic simple evolutionary scenarios, where standard trait evolutionary models are frequently applied on comparatively smaller phylogenies (Chira & Thomas 2016), we limited our tree size to100 tips. We call these simulated time trees as "Original time trees" (Fig 1A), with the branch lengths corresponding to units of time (i.e. Million Years – My). For consistency, we used the same set of 10000 original time trees for all further analyses.

Annotation of internal node events

We annotated 99 (number of tips - 1) internal node events ("speciation" or "duplication") so that each tree had at least one speciation and one duplication node events. We considered 3 fixed proportions of duplication events (number of duplication events / total number of internal nodes): 0.2, 0.5, and 0.8 in this study (S1 Fig). At first, we randomly annotated "duplication" events to the internal nodes based on the proportion of duplication events we considered for the tree set. We then assigned "speciation" events to the rest of the nodes of the tree. We, thereby, had 3 sets of 10000 original time trees with 3 different proportions of speciation and duplication events (S1 Fig).

Fig 1: An example of simulated tree models used in this study. (A) Original (true) time tree, (B) substitution rates tree, and (C) pseudo time tree inferred from (B), with simulated trait values at tips. We used a simulated tree with 20 tips for illustration. Branches following gene duplication are asymmetrically painted using the phytools R package (Revell 2012) to introduce different sequence evolutionary rates to those branches. This demonstrates how the scale (i.e. the branch lengths) of the calibrated tree can differ from the original time tree.

From our reanalyses of Dunn *et al.* (2018) on 8 vertebrate species (Dunn *et al.* 2018; Begum & Robinson-Rechavi 2020), and from analysis of 15 vertebrate genomes (unpublished), we find that the median proportion of duplications events in a range of

0.1 - 0.2. Therefore, we used the tree set with a proportion of 0.2 duplication events in

all our main text analyses to compare the performances of different approaches in

testing the ortholog conjecture on different simulation models. To verify that our results

did not depend on the number of duplication events in a tree, we reproduced results

using proportions of duplications of 0.5 and 0.8 (supporting materials).

Simulation of trait

In this study, we considered a trait with a range between 0 to 1. We call it, τ like the

tissue-specificity score used in several previous studies of the ortholog conjecture

(Yanai *et al.* 2005; Kryuchkova-Mostacci & Robinson-Rechavi 2016; Dunn *et al.*

2018). For the sake of simplicity, we only used a Brownian model (BM) of trait

evolution:

$$dX(t) = \sigma^2 t$$

where $dX(t)$ quantifies the change in trait, and the Brownian variance σ^2 paremeter

describing the rate at which taxa diverge from each other through time t (Cavalli-sforza

& Edwards, 1967; Harmon *et al.* 2010; Chira & Thomas 2016). We used FastBM

function of the Phytools R package (Revell 2012) to simulate the trait τ on each original

time tree with a σ^2 value of 0.02. The same trait values were used for the corresponding

subtituion rate trees (described later), and for the pseudo time calibrated trees (described

later) for further analyses with phylogenetic method.

For modeling of "Time dependent trait acceleration", we wrote our own functions to

paint tree with different colors to simulate trait on each original time tree using a BM.

In this model, we used a 5 times higher trait evolutionary rate over a specific period of

time following gene duplication. The trait evolutionary rates do not vary between events

under the null hypothesis.

Generation of calibrated pseudo time trees

We used the NELSI R package (Ho *et al.* 2015), and modified the original "simulate.rates" function to "simulate.rates_heterogeneous" function to introduce different sequence evolutionary rates to the different node events. To avoid any bias in our inference, we used the sequence evolutionary rates, K of 0.02, as used for simulation of the trait τ ($\sigma^2 = 0.02$) in a null scenario. These trees are "Substitution trees" (Fig 1B), where the branch lengths of each tree representing substitution rates. To generate "Rates of sequence and trait evolution model", we considered a multiplier of rate parameter (K = 0.02) to a randomly chosen daughter branch of a chronogram following gene duplication.

An advantage of simulations is that we have the original time trees. With real data, we never have these original time trees. Rather we use "Substitution trees" (Fig 1B) to generate pseudo time trees, i.e. "Calibrated time trees" (Fig 1C), for hypothesis testing. We used the chronos function of the APE R package (Paradis *et al.* 2004) to generate calibrated time trees (Fig 1C). For such time calibration, we normally have access to only a few speciation time points (focal speciation nodes) for which we have external references (e.g. fossil data) (Dunn *et al.* 2018; Begum & Robinson-Rechavi 2020). However, due to simulated tree structure, very few trees passed time calibration step when we fix focal speciation nodes, and their ages across all trees. Hence, we used the ages of all the speciation nodes of a tree to time calibrate them. The scale of the original tree drastically changes after calibration if we do not fix the age of the root node. It may impact the inference of phylogenetic method due to its branch length dependence. Hence, we also used the age of the root of each simulated original time tree to maintain the scale after time calibration. Following this method, 7711, 6752, and 8251 trees were

177 successfully time calibrated for 0.2, 0.5, and 0.8 proportion of duplication events,

178 respectively.

179 **Phylogenetic analyses**

180 For each internal node of a gene tree, we calculated the PIC of simulated trait τ from

181 the APE R package using the following formula:

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$$PIC_n = \left(\frac{\tau_1 - \tau_2}{\sqrt{(branchlength_1 + branchlength_2)}} \right)$$

where PIC_n is the node of which PIC is to be computed, τ_1, and τ_2 are the trait values

of daughters of the corresponding node. The branch lengths of the daughters of

corresponding node are represented by $branchlength_1$, and $branchlength_2$, respectively

(Felsenstein1985; Paradis *et al.* 2004; Dunn *et al.* 2018). We then contrasted the PIC of

each event (speciation or duplication) using a Wilcoxon two-tailed rank test.

Pairwise analyses

We considered all possible pairwise comparisons for each tree to obtain Pearson

correlation coefficients R between τ values of events, as was done by Dunn et al.

(2018). Few correlation points of speciation and duplication events often make it

difficult to infer the statistical significance level precisely. Since most of simulated trees

have maximum node ages less than 20 My, we computed the correlation coefficient, R

of speciation and of duplication events over each 0.05 My time intervals. This gives the

estimates of correlation for both the events at equal time points. We then performed

curve fitting to find the best fit model. Previous pairwise comparisons of Kryuchkova-

Mostacci and Robinson-Rechavi (2016) used a linear model (i.e. lm(R ~ Event)) to

distinguish the effects of events on correlation coefficients. In contrast, our improved

pairwise comparison considers an ANCOVA analysis (i.e. aov(R ~ My + Event +

My*Event)) for a linear best fit model, or a nonlinear regression (i.e. gnm(R ~ My +

I(My^2) + Event + My*Event)) or gnm(R ~ My + I(My^2) + I(My^3) + Event +

My*Event)) to find out the significance level. In all tests of our improved pairwise

approach, we included the interaction terms between events and node age, and

compared with model without interaction term to determine the best model among

them. Since none of our models supported linear fit as best fit model, we used

polynomial (quadratic or cubic) regression in our improved pairwise analyses. 70% of

our data is used to train the model, and then we used them to predict the value of rest

of the 30% test set data. Based on the obtained root mean square error, we chose the

best fit (quadratic or cubic) polynomial model for each simulation study to avoid curve

over fitting problem. In addition, we considered repeated 10 fold cross validation

approach to choose best polynomial model.

Statistical significance

213 For any method, we considered a result is significant if $P < \alpha = 0.05$. Since we used a

214 large number of tests (n = 84) in our study, we additionally applied a Bonferroni

215 correction where a result is considered to be significant when $P < \alpha'$, where $\alpha' = 0.05 /$

216 $84 = 5.95e^{-4}$.

Code availability

218 For reproducibility, all scripts are available at *https://github.com/tbegum/Method-*

219 *matters-in-gene-family-evolution*.

Results

Model-1: Time dependent trait acceleration model

Immediately after duplication, both duplicates might experience accelerated evolution for a period of time due to relaxed selection (Rogozin 2014). This can be represented by a simple model of acceleration of trait evolutionary rate for a given time after duplication (Fig 2). After that period of acceleration, the evolutionary rates return to the pre-duplication level. In this model, speciation does not have any impact on evolutionary rates: a speciation during the time period of the duplication-caused acceleration does not revert the gene to a "speciation" rate. To study our capacity to recover evolutionary signal under this model, we simulated with different durations of accelerated evolution, and different proportions of duplications to speciations in the gene trees (Fig 2).

In this comparative study, we used an improved pairwise comparison due to the low power of a simple pairwise comparison approach as used by Kryuchkova-Mostacci and Robinson-Rechavi (2016) (S1 Table). First, both methods recover the proper evolutionary signal under the null, with no difference of PIC between duplication and speciation branches (Fig 3A), and no difference between ortholog and paralog pairs (Fig 3B). Second, when there are few duplications in proportion to speciations, both approaches recover the evolutionary signal, namely faster evolution of paralogs or of duplication branches (Fig 3C-F, S1 Table). This is despite the acceleration lasting 50% to 90% of the time since the oldest duplication. It is possible because the rarity of duplications provides many speciation branches without acceleration (Fig 2). While the performance of both methods at recovering the evolutionary signal decreases when the proportion of duplication nodes increases, the PIC is more robust than the pairwise

approach (S1 Table). With 50% of duplication nodes, only the PIC still recovers the

evolutionary trend when trait acceleration period increases. At 80% of duplications and

an acceleration lasting 70% to 90% of old duplication age, neither approaches can

recover the signal of the ortholog conjecture (S1 Table). Under such scenarios, most

speciation branches or ortholog pairs have evolved mostly or entirely under the

influence of a duplication-caused acceleration, and there is no signal to recover.

Fig 2: Example of time dependent trait acceleration model. We painted trees to

demonstrate the effect of trait acceleration for 50% or 90% of the time since the oldest

duplication, respectively. We show here a symmetrical model of trait acceleration, i.e.

255   after duplication both the duplicates experience trait accelerations. Pdup: Proportion of

256   duplication. Duplication nodes are shown in black, while others are speciations.

Fig 3: Performances of approaches in different time periods of trait accelerations since

260   oldest duplication. PICs: Phylogenetic Independent Contrasts. In this symmetrical

261   model of 0.2 proportion of duplications, we used a cubic fit polynomial in our improved

262   pairwise approach. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant *P* values.

Model-2: Rates of sequence and trait evolution model

While there is debate over the evolutionary rate of gene function after duplication, it

has been shown repeatedly that there is an acceleration of sequence evolutionary rates

(Conant & Wagner 2003; Gu *et al.* 2005; Brunet *et al.* 2006; Kim & Yi 2006; Cusack

& Wolfe 2007; Scannell & Wolfe 2008; Studer & Robinson-Rechavi 2009; Panchin *et*

al. 2010; Pegueroles *et al.* 2013; Pich & Kondrashov 2014; Holland *et al.* 2017). We

explore the impact of this acceleration on the PIC and improved pairwise comparisons

under different scenarios (Table 1). Because many empirical studies have found

asymmetry of this acceleration of duplicate gene sequence evolution, we used an

asymmetric acceleration in our simulations.

Unlike the previous model, the proportion of duplication events in the trees has no

impact on the capacity to recover trends (Fig 4, S2-S4 Figs). An important difference

on the other hand is that the null is not always properly recovered. When the trait

evolutionary rate is not impacted by duplication, but the sequence evolutionary rate is

(scenario 2 of Table 1), the PIC approach wrongly rejects the null for trait evolution.

This is due to time tree calibration using sequence evolution as a reference. Indeed there

is no difference in PIC when the original time tree is used (A in S2, C in S3 and S4

Figs). However, the higher sequence evolutionary rates after duplication lead to higher

expected variance, and thus the calibrated time trees produce lower contrasts for

duplication than for speciation, with a significant difference in PIC (A in S2, C in S3

and S4 Figs). Moreover, if both the trait and the sequence evolutionary rates accelerate

after duplication events, but the sequence acceleration is higher (scenario 4c of Table

1), the PIC can again estimate lower contrasts for duplication branches with calibrated

time trees (Fig 4E, K in S3 and S4 Figs). This can lead to wrongly accepting the null if

a one-sided test is used, or rejecting the null in the wrong direction. This bias does not

impact the pairwise approach, under neither of these scenarios (Fig 4F, B in S2, D and

L in S3 and S4 Figs). Thus even though the assumption of independent data points is

violated, the improved pairwise approach is more robust than the PIC in this type of

model, since it does not depend on the branch lengths.

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Fig 4: Comparisons of approaches in 3 different scenarios of Table 1. PICs:

Phylogenetic Independent Contrasts. We used an asymmetric model, where after

duplication one among the two duplicates experience acceleration. A quadratic fit

polynomial is used for our improved pairwise comparisons. *: Bonferroni-corrected

significant P values. A-B. Both the approaches provide testable predictions under a

uniform null. C-D. An ideal ortholog conjecture scenario, i.e. scenario 3 of Table 1. C.

5 folds higher trait evolutionary rates produce higher contrasts for duplication than

speciation in all 3 tree models, and rejects the null hypothesis. D. Higher correlation

coefficients for orthologs than for paralogs also support the conjecture in this case. E-

F. The ortholog conjecture scenario 4c of Table 1, where both the rates ratios varies but

with an excess of sequence evolutionary rates ratio than trait ratio following duplication

than speciation. E. 2 folds higher trait evolutionary rates following duplication supports

the conjecture for the original time tree. 8 folds higher sequence evolutionary rates after

duplication generate 8 times higher expected variances for duplications, and produce

lower contrasts for duplications than speciation in the substitution rates trees. This led

us to obtain 2/8 times lower contrasts for duplications than for speciations in the

calibrated time trees. Hence, we obtain a significant result but in a wrong direction by

rejecting the conjecture in a real ortholog conjecture scenario. F. Improved pairwise

comparisons still recovers the expected trend in this case.

Model-3: Asymmetric trait jump model

Finally, we investigated our ability to recover gene evolutionary patterns under a jump

model rather than changes in continuous rates. The idea is that, similarly to rapid trait

jumps when organisms transition into new adaptive zones (Simpson 1944; Duchen *et*

al. 2017), paralogs might undergo rapid trait jumps when they appear, e.g. because of

a new chromosomal environment in the case of asymmetric duplication. We used a

Brownian motion model with asymmetric jumps in trait (Fig 5). Jumps can follow either

speciation or duplication events, and different gene evolution models correspond to

different probabilities of jumps after the two types of events. We used a simple model

where there can only be one or zero jump per branch. Given proportions of speciation

and duplication branches are randomly chosen, and one of their daughter branches

(randomly selected) experiences a rapid jump in trait, then returns to progressive trait

evolution along the branch; there is only one progressive evolutionary rate. Under the

null, equal proportions of speciation and duplication branches (30%) were randomly

chosen. Reassuringly, the null was rejected neither by PIC (A in S5 Fig) nor by the

pairwise approach (B in S5 Fig). For the ortholog conjecture, we simulated more

asymmetric jumps in trait following duplications than speciations (50% *vs.* 20%). More

jumps in trait should introduce more divergence in trait, and this should be detected as

support for the ortholog conjecture. Indeed, both approaches did support the ortholog

conjecture in this case (C and D in S5 Fig). This was robust to trees with different

proportions of duplication events (S6 and S7 Figs).

Fig 5: Working principle of an asymmetric trait jump model. A. We used a tree with

10 tips (t1-t10) with a proportion of duplications of 0.2 for illustration. This means that

the tree has 7 speciation and 2 duplication nodes. To represent an ortholog conjecture scenario, we considered that 20% of the speciation nodes, and 50% of the duplication nodes experienced instantaneous jumps in trait between 0 to 1. We chose one of the two branches randomly following the blue colored nodes with numbers, where the trait jump took place. B. The phenogram shows the projection of the phylogenetic tree in a space defined by trait τ of the both events (on the y axis) and evolutionary time (on the x) before the jump in trait. C. The phenogram shows how the trait value changed over the time after experiencing trait jumps. For example, node 11 experienced a trait jump. Hence, the trait value remained unchanged for t9 but alters for the other branch following a jump. This in consequence changed the values of all the following descendants over the time. Hence, the trait value of 18 in C differs from B. For another jump in node 18, t6 changed but not t1.

Discussion

A good method to detect patterns of gene functional evolution should not reject the null hypothesis when data are simulated under the null, should successfully reject the null when simulated under an alternative hypothesis, and should recover the right direction of pattern difference. Here, our null hypothesis is that gene function evolves independently of duplication, and our alternative is the "ortholog conjecture", that function evolves faster after duplication. While the most naive form of this ortholog conjecture is one evolutionary rate on duplication branches, and another speciation branches, we explored three more complex models of trait evolution.

First, while the jump model is very different from this basic model, both methods tested (pairwise and PIC) performed well under it (S5-S7 Figs). Thus, testing the ortholog conjecture seems robust to change being sudden or gradual. Second, when gradual change extends in time to both speciation and duplication branches, methods lose power to detect the correct pattern. This loss increases with the duration of acceleration and with the proportion of branches affected. This time dependent trait acceleration model represents a reasonable assumption of gene evolution, as there is no strong reason to expect paralogs to stop evolving like paralogs because there was a speciation. Indeed duplication affects each gene's direct environment, whereas speciation can have at most a very indirect effect. The PIC was more powerful than the pairwise approach under this model (S1 Table). Thirdly and most worryingly, when both sequence and trait evolutionary rates are affected by duplication, PIC can both incorrectly reject the null under null simulations of trait evolution, and report the opposite direction of change under ortholog conjecture simulations (Fig 4E, A in S2, C and K in S3 and S4 Figs).

While all of the simulation models used are quite simple, they represent realistic scenarios of gene function evolution. The mechanisms of trait divergence following gene duplication are still poorly understood. For example, we do not have direct evidence for an asymmetric trait jump model. The purpose of our simulation study was to identify scenarios where the PIC and the pairwise comparisons may produce distinct signals of functional evolution between orthologs and paralogs. Although our simple simulations used the same mechanism of trait evolution for all the duplicates of a tree, a mix of different models for duplicates in different parts or at different times in a same gene tree cannot be excluded.

Pairwise comparisons of traits between genes has been criticized in studying functional evolution (Dunn *et al.* 2018). Behavior under a null model can help to assess the presence of a systematic bias in the approach. In all different models, we found that our improved pairwise comparisons gave the expected results under the null. The simple pairwise comparison of Kryuchkova-Mostacci and Robinson-Rechavi (2016) also produced the expected signal under the null (S1 Table), although it lacked power under the alternative model. The largest difference between pairwise and PIC was the failure of PIC when both rates of sequence and of trait are affected by duplication (S2-S4 Figs). This is worrying since acceleration of sequence evolutionary rates is common following gene duplications (Gu *et al.* 2005; Scannell & Wolfe 2008; Panchin *et al.* 2010; Assis & Bachtrog 2013; Pegueroles *et al.* 2013; Kryuchkova-Mostacci & Robinson-Rechavi 2016; Jiang & Assis 2017; Lafond *et al.* 2018). Thus the scenario of these simulations is expected to be widespread in real data. In this case, higher sequence evolutionary rates for duplicates lead to higher expected variances, and thus produce lower PIC for duplication events than speciation events. These lower PIC are in contrast to the null expectation of no difference.

Our simulations also show that in the most probable ortholog conjecture scenario,
where both the trait and the sequence evolutionary rates accelerate after duplication
events (Gu *et al.* 2005), but the ratio of sequence to the trait acceleration is higher
(scenario 4c of Table 1), the PIC method fails to detect the signal of ortholog conjecture
(Fig 4E, K in S3 and S4 Figs). In this case, improved pairwise comparisons seem to be
a better choice due to its branch lengths independence.

The only model for which the ratio of duplication to speciation events impacts the
results is with time-dependent trait acceleration. When there are many duplications, and
the duplication-induced acceleration lasts for 70% to 90% of old duplication age, most
speciation branches also evolve under the influence of trait acceleration like duplicates.
Hence, both the approaches fail to recover the signal of the ortholog conjecture in a real
ortholog conjecture scenario (S1 Table). Under intermediate scenarios, PIC allows to
better recover the signal of the ortholog conjecture than pairwise comparisons.

Overall the main message of this study is that our ignorance of gene function evolution
makes it difficult to choose one method as the gold standard. Each method has its own
limitations, and we call for methodological pluralism, at least in the present state of our
knowledge. Relying on a single approach to interpret result can be problematic in many
cases of comparative functional genomics study involving complex gene family
evolution. These results apply in principle not only to the ortholog conjecture, but to
any other cases of gene trait evolution (e.g., horizontal gene transfer), where evolution
might be gradual or by jumps, affect a more or less large proportion of branches of the
gene tree, and be confounded with changes in sequence evolutionary rates. In
conclusion, functional phylogenomics is complex and results supported by only one
method should be treated with caution.

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Author contributions

TB, MLSS, and MRR conceived the ideas; TB and MLSS designed the original methodology; TB and MRR refined the methodology; TB and MLSS wrote the code for analysis with input from MRR; TB analyzed the data; TB and MRR led the writing of the manuscript. All authors contributed critically to the drafts and gave final approval for publication.

438   **Table 1**: Hypothetical scenarios of the rates of sequence and trait evolution model.

Sequence evolutionary rates (K) ➡ / Trait evolutionary rates (T) ⬇	$K_{Speciation} = K_{Duplication}$	$K_{Duplication} > K_{Speciation}$		
$T_{Speciation} = T_{Duplication}$ OC false	**1: Null simulation** $(r_T = 1, r_K = 1)$	**2: Fixed trait** $(r_T = 1, r_K > 1)$		
$T_{Duplication} > T_{Speciation}$ OC true	**3: Fixed rate** $(r_T > 1, r_K = 1)$	**4: Variable trait and sequence rates** $(r_T > 1, r_K > 1)$		
		(a) $r_T > r_K$	**(b) $r_T = r_K$**	**(c) $r_T < r_K$**

r_T: Ratio of trait evolutionary rates, and r_K: ratio of sequence evolutionary rates

between speciation and duplication. Ratio as 1 refers to no change, while ratio > 1 refers

to higher rates following gene duplication than speciation in the corresponding rate

parameter(s). 1: Both the rate parameters remain same under a null, 2. The trait

evolutionary rate is not affected by duplication, but the sequence evolutionary rate is in

the fixed trait scenario. 1-2: Null scenarios due to no change in r_T. 3: Under a fixed rate,

the trait evolutionary rate varies following duplication, but the sequence evolutionary

rate does not. 4. Correlated changes in both the rate parameters with three different

possibilities like (a)-(c). 3-4: Representations of the ortholog conjecture scenarios due

to the increase in r_T following duplications.

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452   **Table 2**: Summary table for 3 simulation models used in this study.

Simulation model	Relevant parameters	Performance of PIC method	Performance of improved pairwise comparisons
Time dependent trait acceleration	Trait acceleration time, and heterogeneous rates of trait evolution between events	Performs well for trees with few, and intermediate duplication events. It lacks power to detect the actual trend when trait accelerates for a long period since old duplication for trees with many duplicates.	Performs well for trees with few duplications (proportion 0.2) but lacks power in most cases for trees with proportion of duplication events of 0.5, and of 0.8.
Rates of sequence and trait evolution	Rates of sequence evolution, and traits evolutionary rates of events	Fails to show the actual trend of functional evolution under a null, and under certain ortholog conjecture scenario	Recovers the actual trends in all hypothetical conditions
Asymmetric trait jump model	Branch of jump and random change in trait between 0-1	Performs well in all hypothetical scenarios	Recovers the actual signals in all hypothetical conditions

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Supporting Information

S1 Table: Performances of the PIC and pairwise (PW) approaches for time dependent trait acceleration model.

Approach	*P* values from proportion of duplications = 0.2			*P* values from proportion of duplications = 0.5			*P* values from proportion of duplications = 0.8		
	PIC	PW	PW_KMRR	PIC	PW	PW_KMRR	PIC	PW	PW_KMRR
Null hypothesis	$3.69e^{-01}$	$1.54e^{-01}$	$6.12e^{-01}$	$6.78e^{-01}$	$3.50e^{-01}$	$7.44e^{-01}$	$3.71e^{-01}$	$2.15e^{-01}$	$4.73e^{-01}$
Trait acceleration for 50% time of old duplication age	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$1.11e^{-4}*$	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$3.74e^{-05}*$	$2.46e^{-01}$	$4.03e^{-12}*$	$7.33e^{-01}$	$6.05e^{-01}$
Trait acceleration for 60% time of old duplication age	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$4.62e^{-4}*$	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$3.22e^{-03}$	$4.20e^{-01}$	$1.06e^{-04}*$	$9.44e^{-01}$	$6.92e^{-01}$
Trait acceleration for 70% time of	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$2.04e^{-3}$	$< 2.2e^{-16}*$	$2.22e^{-01}$	$5.89e^{-01}$	$1.17e^{-01}$	$9.28e^{-01}$	$7.49e^{-01}$

old duplication age									
Trait acceleration for 80% time of old duplication age	$< 2.2e^{-16}$*	$< 2.2e^{-16}$*	$6.00e^{-3}$	$< 2.2e^{-16}$*	$4.1e^{-01}$	$7.1e^{-01}$	$9.06e^{-01}$	$8.62e^{-01}$	$7.8e^{-01}$
Trait acceleration for 90% time of old duplication age	$< 2.2e^{-16}$*	$< 2.2e^{-16}$*	$1.89e^{-2}$	$2.91e^{-11}$*	$5.69e^{-01}$	$7.97e^{-01}$	$6.39e^{-01}$	$8.17e^{-01}$	$8.00e^{-01}$

604 *Note:* PIC: Phylogenetic Independent Contrasts method. PW: Improved pairwise comparisons. PW_KMRR: pairwise comparisons as used by

605 Kryuchkova-Mostacci and Robinson-Rechavi (2016). *P* values of PIC method are shown for calibrated time trees. Due to independence of branch

606 lengths, *P* values of pairwise comparisons are estimated based on original time trees. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant *P* values.

Supplementary figure legends

S1 Fig: We used same simulated tree with 100 tips to illustrate 3 different sets (A-C). The branch lengths of the trees are in million years, My. For A-C, the proportion of duplications are 0.2, 0.5, and 0.8, respectively. This means that out of 99 internal nodes 20 nodes, 50 nodes, and 80 nodes are duplication events, respectively in A-C. Rest of the nodes are annotated as speciation nodes.

Fig S2: Comparisons of approaches for trees with proportion of duplications of 0.2. PICs: phylogenetic independent contrasts. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant P values. We used an asymmetric model, where after duplication one among the two duplicates experience acceleration. A quadratic polynomial is used in our improved pairwise approach. A-B. Scenario 2 of Table 1, A. Due to no variation in trait evolutionary rates following speciation and duplication events, the original time trees recover an expected signal of no difference in contrasts. An excess of sequence evolutionary rates following duplication than speciation produces lower PICs for duplications compared to speciations for the substitution rate trees, and for the calibrated time trees. This leads to a false rejection of the null in a real null condition for the calibrated trees. B. The improved pairwise approach shows the expected trend by showing no difference in correlation coefficients between events in this case. C-F. The ortholog conjecture scenario 4a and 4b of Table 1. When the trait evolutionary rates ratio is higher than (C-D), or equals to (E-F) the sequence evolutionary rates ratio of events, higher changes in trait rates following duplications make both the approaches to recover the expected signals in support of the conjecture.

Fig S3: Performances of the PIC *vs.* improved pairwise approaches in all hypothetical conditions of Table 1. These plots are generated for trees with intermediate duplication

events, i.e. for 0.5. Results are for asymmetric model. PICs: Phylogenetic independent contrasts. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant P values. We used a quadratic fit in our improved pairwise approach.

Fig S4: Performances of the PIC *vs.* improved pairwise methods in 6 hypothetical conditions of Table 1. We used trees with proportion of duplication events of 0.8. Results are for asymmetric model. PICs: Phylogenetic independent contrasts. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant P values. We used a quadratic fit curve in our improved pairwise comparisons.

Fig S5: Comparisons of the approaches for an asymmetric trait jump model. PICs: Phylogenetic independent contrasts. We here trees with few duplication events, i.e. of 0.2. A quadratic fit curve is used for the improved pairwise approach. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant P values. For a null uniform model (A-B), equal proportions, i.e. 30% of the speciation and duplication nodes experienced jump in trait. For the ortholog conjecture scenario, we used higher proportions of trait jumps following duplication nodes than speciation nodes, i.e. 50% and 20% in this case (C-D). Both the approaches recovered the expected signals in all the conditions.

Fig S6: Performances of the PIC *vs.* improved pairwise comparisons for an asymmetric trait jump model. PICs: Phylogenetic independent contrasts. We here used a proportion of duplication events of 0.5. We used quadratic fit curve in our improved pairwise comparisons. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant P values. (A-B) For a null uniform model, 30% of the nodes experienced trait jump following speciation, and duplication events. PICs or correlations of both events are drawn from the same distribution in such case. For the ortholog conjecture simulation (C-D), 20% of the speciation and 50% of the duplication nodes experienced jumps in trait. Both approaches recover expected signals in all cases.

Fig S7: PICs vs. improved pairwise comparisons under an asymmetric trait jump

model. PICs: Phylogenetic independent contrasts. We here used proportion of

duplication events of 0.8. *: Bonferroni-corrected significant *P* values. A quadratic fit

curve is used for the improved pairwise comparisons. 30% of the speciation and

duplication nodes experienced jumps in trait under a null (A-B), while 20% of the

speciation and 50% of the duplication nodes experienced jumps under an ortholog

conjecture simulation (C-D). Both the approaches recovered expected signals in all

cases.

668   **Fig S1**

673   **Fig S2**

677   **Fig S3**

680   **Fig S4**

683   **Fig S5**

687 **Fig S6**

692   **Fig S7**