Title: Morphological and phylogeographic evidence for budding speciation: an example in hominins
Author: Caroline Parins-Fukuchi

Abstract

Parametric phylogenetic approaches that attempt to delineate between distinct 'modes' of speciation (splitting cladogenesis, budding cladogenesis, and anagenesis) between fossil taxa have become increasingly popular among comparative biologists. But it is not yet well-understood how clearly morphological data from fossil taxa speak to detailed questions of speciation mode as compared to the lineage diversification models that serve as their basis. In addition, the congruence of inferences made using these approaches with geographic patterns has not been explored. Here, I extend a previously introduced maximum-likelihood approach for the examination of ancestor-descendant relationships to accommodate budding speciation and apply it to a dataset of fossil hominins. I place these results in a phylogeographic context to better understand spatial dynamics underlying the hypothesized speciation patterns. The spatial patterns implied by the phylogeny hint at the complex demographic processes underlying the spread and diversification of hominins throughout the Pleistocene. I also find that inferences of budding are driven primarily by stratigraphic, versus morphological, data and discuss the ramifications for interpretations of speciation process in hominins specifically and from phylogenetic data in general.

Introduction

Parametric phylogenetic approaches that aim to distinguish between competing 'modes' of speciation between fossil taxa have rapidly proliferated over the past several years. These approaches typically employ extended models of lineage diversification that allow taxa to be related by one of several possible speciation patterns that have long been discussed by paleontologists (Stadler et al. 2018). These include: 1) splitting cladogenesis, where a lineage splits evenly into two daughter lineages, 2) budding cladogenesis, where a smaller daughter lineage splits off of an older ancestral lineage, and 3) anagenesis, where a single lineage continuously evolves without splitting. These approaches aim to reconstruct ancestor-descendant (AD) sequences of fossil taxa through the stratigraphic record using a unified model of lineage diversification and stratigraphic preservation (Gavryushkina et al. 2014, Zhang et al. 2016). These approaches have been increasingly leveraged to address empirical patterns in the fossil record (Wright et al. 2020), yielding results that authors have interpreted to highlight the ubiquity of budding speciation as a dominant process in the diversification of new taxa (Bapst and Hopkins 2017). Nevertheless, few investigations have directly examined morphological support for mode. The use of geographic data has also remained under-explored (Fisher 1994, Wright 2017).

Hominins are a strong candidate taxon in which to examine alternative speciation modes in the fossil record, with a history of disagreements over evolutionary mode spanning back decades. Early approaches employed cladograms and stratophenetic diagrams to examine relationships (Delson et al., 1977, Gingerich 1979, Chamberlain and Wood 1987). Repeated attempts to reconstruct hominin phylogeny (Wood 1992, Lieberman et al. 1996, Strait et al. 1997, Strait and Grine 2004, Irish et al. 2013) left major controversies concerning specific hypotheses of direct ancestry unresolved (Strait and Wood 1999, Stringer 2012, Gómez-Robles et al. 2013). Parametric approaches have since been applied to hominins, showing promise in quantifying statistical support for competing hypotheses (Dembo et al. 2015). Further explorations have incorporated AD relationships (Parins-Fukuchi et al. 2019). Despite this improved resolution, many important issues remain in hominin phylogeny. Nevertheless, the role of more complex speciation scenarios such as budding have not been statistically evaluated.

In this study, I examine the morphological and phylogeographic evidence for budding
speciation in shaping hominin phylogeny. I extended a previous parametric approach for
'stratophylogenetic' inference, including ancestor-descendant relationships, from morphological and
stratigraphic data to accommodate budding cladogenesis, which is considered here as a directly
ancestral arrangement where a putative ancestor overlaps with a descendant in temporal range. I then
use the phylogeny to explore the phylogeographic patterns underlying the spread and morphological
divergence of Pleistocene *Homo* populations. Lastly, I evaluate whether morphological data alone
support the AD relationships that underpin inferences of budding when the stratigraphic record is not
considered.
58
59   **Methods and materials**
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Data and code availability: All data and tree files used in the analyses are available on Figshare
(https://figshare.com/articles/dataset/Morphological_and_phylogeographic_evidence_for_budding_spe
ciation_an_example_in_hominins/13283507). The stratophylogenetic approach was implemented in the
Go language as part of the *cophymaru* software package and available as development code on Github
(https://github.com/carolinetomo/cophymaru). More detailed information concerning the statistical
procedure, including intermediate steps and treatment of the data, is contained within the supplemental
text.
68
Morphometric data: I used a dataset of cranial landmark coordinates from the literature gathered from
18 fossil hominin specimens and two extant outgroup taxa (González-José et al. 2008). I aligned the 46
3-dimensional landmarks using Procrustes superimposition in MorphoJ (Klingenberg 2011). I then
transformed the data using a principal component analysis (PCA) in R (R Core Team 2014). I retained
the 13 principal component (PC) axes needed to approach 100% of the variance in the dataset.
Phylogenetic inference from morphometric landmarks is viewed as controversial by some (Adams et al.
2011, Varón-González et al. 2020) but appear to perform fairly well in young clades (Caumul and Polly
2005, Goloboff and Catalano 2011, Catalano and Torres 2017, Palci and Lee 2019), such as is the case
here.
78
Evaluating ancestor-descendant relationships: I extended a previous approach for the evaluation of
ancestor-descendant relationships from discrete traits (Parins-Fukuchi et al. 2019) to accommodate
both 1) continuous characters and 2) 'budding' patterns of ancestry where an ancestral taxon persists
after a descendant splits off. Trees were scored using Brownian (Felsenstein 1973) and Poisson
(Huelsenbeck and Rannala 1997) models of morphological evolution and stratigraphic preservation,
respectively. The implementation developed for this study accepted a fully-bifurcating starting tree as
input and identified statistical support for collapsing candidates into direct ancestors. I performed the
test using several bifurcating starting trees: the first consistent with the results of Parins-Fukuchi et al.
(2019) and successive trials within a nearest-neighbor interchange (NNI) move from the first. Taxa
with a lower stratigraphic boundary than their sister taxon or clade were treated as candidate ancestors.
I implemented a procedure that iterates through the candidates, collapsing them into ancestors by
constraining them to zero branch lengths and assessing statistical support from both the morphological
and stratigraphic data. I retained the topology, including AD relationships, from the tree with the best
Akaike information criterion (AIC) score. AIC was used rather than raw log-likelihoods because the
addition of an AD relationship reduces the number of free parameters by one. Model uncertainty for
AD assignments was estimated using AIC weights (Wegenmakers and Farrell 2004). All AD analyses
were performed using the *mandos* executable available in the *cophymaru* code repository (cited above).
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97   *Biogeographic analyses*: I inferred biogeographic ranges using Lagrange
98   (https://github.com/blackrim/lagrange). Internal nodes associated with ancestral taxa were constrained
99   to geographic ranges corresponding to the associated taxon. Ranges were treated as discrete units
100 corresponding to four areas occupied by hominin populations throughout the Plio-Pleistocene: Africa,
101 Asia, the Middle East (encompassing the Levant, the Arabian Peninsula, and the Steppes), and Europe.
102
103   **Results and Discussion**
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Budding speciation in hominin evolution: When considered in a stratophylogenetic framework,
morphometric and temporal data suggest several possible episodes of budding speciation (Figs. 1, S2).
Neither of the *Australopithecus* samples included in the analysis were identified as ancestral taxa. Like
several previous studies, *A. afarensis* is recovered as an outgroup to a clade comprising all of the later-
occurring hominin morphotaxa. Many authors have interpreted those cladistic results to imply that *A.*
afarensis is ancestral to *Homo*. However, these results suggest that *A. afarensis* is not directly ancestral
but is instead a terminal outgroup. Since *A. anamensis* appears to be a chronospecies that is ancestral to
A. afarensis (Kimbel 2006, Parins-Fukuchi et al. 2019), it is possible that the specimens assigned to *A.*
anamensis represent a population ancestral to both *A. afarensis* and the later-occurring hominin
lineages. *P. boisei* is identified as the direct ancestor of *P. robustus*. This finding is consistent with
previous qualitative interpretations (Kimbel 2007). *P. aethiopicus*, on the other hand, is reconstructed
with high confidence to be a distinct, branching taxon (Table 1).
117
The analysis revealed support for a budding event between *H. erectus* and the clade encompassing *H.*
heidelbergensis, H. rhodesiensis, Neanderthals, and modern humans. The mid-Pleistocene specimens
corresponding to *H. heidelbergensis* and *H. rhodesiensis* grouped polyphyletically, forming clades with
Neanderthals and *H. sapiens*, respectively. This result is notable given the historical tendency to treat
specimens corresponding to each taxon (as treated here) as geographic variants of *H. heidelbergensis*.
H. heidelbergensis, represented by only European specimens in this study, was reconstructed as a
budding ancestor to Neanderthals, while *H. rhodesiensis* was reconstructed as a sister taxon to modern
humans. The placement of European *H. heidelbergensis* specimens as directly ancestral to Neanderthals
is consistent with both the genomic results of Meyer et al. (2016) and the morphological results of
Mounier and Caparrós (2016), the former of which inferred the Atapuerca specimens as most closely
related to Neanderthals and the latter of which reconstructed both Atapuerca 5 and Steinheim (the two
specimens representing *H. heidelbergensis* in this study) as outgroups to Neanderthals. It does however,
disagree with a morphospecies-level phylogenetic analysis, which inferred *H. heidelbergensis*, defined
as including *both* the European and African samples included here, as ancestral to both Neanderthals
and modern humans (Parins-Fukuchi et al. 2019). The discrepancy between studies can therefore be
explained most simply by their differing treatments of *H. heidelbergensis*. The results here further
demonstrate that careful examination of geography and morphology below the morphospecies level are
needed to develop a thorough understanding of the spatial and demographic processes that shaped the
divergence and reticulation of hominin populations throughout the Pleistocene.
137
Support of AD relationships differs when temporal and morphological data are considered together and
when morphology is considered separately (Table 1, Fig. S3-S4). In contrast to the combined dataset,
the morphological data alone are either equivocal (*H. heidelbergensis*, *P. boisei*) or prefer a bifurcating
arrangement (*H. erectus*). This may reflect the limits of morphospecies-level data. The temporal and
spatial heterogeneity expected in a long-lived and widespread lineage such as *H. erectus* (Baab 2008)
may simply yield too much demographic complexity to map neatly to such a coarse representation of
process. Adopting a finer scale of analysis will facilitate testing of the phylogenetic cohesiveness of
named Pleistocene taxa such as *H. erectus* and *H. heidelbergensis* and identify whether breaking down

spatial heterogeneity can yield a more detailed understanding of the processes underlying the
divergence of Pleistocene populations.
148
Pleistocene biogeography: The biogeographic range reconstructions suggest the presence of a
geographically widespread, mid-Pleistocene ancestor to humans, Neanderthals, *H. heidelbergensis*, and
H. rhodesiensis. Pleistocene *Homo* can thus be characterized by patterns in widespread dispersal,
followed by gradual fragmentation into geographically-distinct subpopulations. *H. heidelbergensis* and
H. rhodesiensis are separated into geographically separate clades, disagreeing with treatments lumping
them together into a single geographically-widespread *H. heidelbergensis*. These results further
underscore the need for examination at lower taxonomic scales than is typically undertaken. Overall,
the picture of hominin evolution presented here represents an alignment of phylogenetic results with
the heterogeneous geographic patterns observed in *H. erectus* and early African *H. sapiens* (Baab 2011,
Hublin et al. 2017) and the complicated network of genetic interactions (Green et al. 2010, Kuhlwilm et
al. 2016, Villanea and Schraiber 2019, Rogers et al. 2020) toward a deeper statistical understanding of
the complexity in evolutionary and demographic patterns between hominin populations throughout the
Pleistocene.
162
Phylogenetics and speciation processes in the fossil record: This study highlights the difficulty in
identifying ancestral fossil populations from taxonomically-coarse data. The comparatively weak
morphological support for the AD relationships identified here suggests that researchers should be
cautious when interpreting paleontological phylogenies. In general, I suggest that reconstructions of
AD relationships that are generated from phylogenetic data should generally be treated as contingent
and coarse reconstructions as opposed to detailed inferences of the processes underlying the divergence
of species. Population-level phenotypic (or molecular) and spatial data are typically needed to generate
a detailed understanding of speciation processes in living and fossil taxa. If satisfied with the particular
scheme of OTU resolution and a coarse scale of inference, the framework here may be broadly useful
to discern general patterns in phylogenetic ancestry. However, researchers using approaches that seek
to delineate between competing modes of speciation should be mindful of scale. Further development
of a clear understanding of the capabilities and limitations of data at multiple timescales will enable a
continued expansion of the boundaries of fossil data when speaking to fundamental questions in
evolutionary biology.

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 Figure

Figure 1: Best stratophylogenetic tree with geographic range reconstructions mapped to internal nodes.
Asterisks denote nodes fixed in the biogeographic analysis due to their reconstruction as ancestral taxa.
Geographic ranges representing tips and sampled ancestral taxa correspond only to the particular
specimens contributing to the morphological data within each taxon in this study (see table 2 for full
list of specimens).

Tables

OTU	Combined AIC weight	Morphological AIC weight
P. aethiopicus	0.03	0.02
P. boisei	0.75	0.51
A. afarensis	0.02	0.02
A. africanus	0.14	0.02
H. habilis	0.41	0.21
H. erectus	0.77	0.26
H. heidelbergensis	0.75	0.49
H. rhodesiensis	0.02	0.01

Table 1. Support for each candidate taxon's position as a direct ancestor on the best stratophylogenetic tree. Model support for each directly ancestral assignment is given by the AIC weight of the ancestral arrangement calculated relative to the model support for the bifurcating arrangement (see methods). The resulting support indices fall between 0-1, with values above 0.5 indicating greater support for a budding or anagenetic arrangement and below 0.5 indicating preference for a bifurcating relationship. When calculating support for each taxon, all other relationships and AD assignments in the tree were held at their ML placements. The first column reflects AIC support yielded by the combined stratigraphic and morphological data set, while the second column reflects support displayed by morphology alone.

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