

1 Mind the Outgroup: Influence of Taxon Sampling on Total-Evidence Dating of
2 Pimpliform Parasitoid Wasps (Hymenoptera, Ichneumonidae)

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25 ABSTRACT

26 Taxon sampling is a central aspect of phylogenetic study design, but it has received
27 limited attention in the context of molecular dating and especially in the framework of total-
28 evidence dating, a widely used dating approach that directly integrates molecular and
29 morphological information from extant and fossil taxa. We here assess the impact of different
30 outgroup sampling schemes on age estimates in a total-evidence dating analysis under the
31 uniform tree prior. Our study group are Pimpliformes, a highly diverse, rapidly radiating
32 group of parasitoid wasps of the family Ichneumonidae. We cover 201 extant and 79 fossil
33 taxa, including the oldest fossils of the family from the Early Cretaceous and the first
34 unequivocal representatives of extant subfamilies from the mid Paleogene. Based on newly
35 compiled molecular data from ten nuclear genes and a morphological matrix that includes
36 222 characters, we show that age estimates become both older and less precise with the
37 inclusion of more distant and more poorly sampled outgroups. In addition, we discover an
38 artefact that might be detrimental for total-evidence dating: “bare-branch attraction”, namely
39 high attachment probabilities of, especially, older fossils to terminal branches for which
40 morphological data are missing. After restricting outgroup sampling and adding
41 morphological data for the previously attracting, bare branches, we recover a Middle and
42 Early Jurassic origin for Pimpliformes and Ichneumonidae, respectively. This first age
43 estimate for the group not only suggests an older origin than previously thought, but also that
44 diversification of the crown group happened before the Cretaceous-Paleogene boundary. Our
45 case study demonstrates that in order to obtain robust age estimates, total-evidence dating
46 studies need to be based on a thorough and balanced sampling of both extant and fossil taxa,
47 with the aim of minimizing evolutionary rate heterogeneity and missing morphological
48 information.

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49 Keywords: ichneumonids, phylogeny, bare-branch attraction, fossils, RoguePlots,
50 morphological matrix

51

52 The field of molecular dating was established with the first discovery of a correlation
53 between sequence divergence and time (Zuckermandl and Pauling 1962) and has seen
54 multiple revolutions since then. Today, evolutionary time scales can be estimated using
55 sophisticated computational approaches that incorporate prior knowledge, elaborate
56 mathematical models for sequence evolution and a direct way to integrate time information
57 from fossils.

58 Until recently, the so-called “node dating” approach (ND) was mainly used for dating
59 phylogenetic trees, with fossils providing minimum ages for specific nodes in a phylogeny.
60 ND requires the prior assessment of fossil placement, which is usually far from
61 straightforward, and it can only incorporate the oldest fossil assignable to a particular node.
62 In addition, one must decide on a probability distribution of the node’s age, because minima
63 are insufficient to date molecular trees; although largely arbitrary, these settings determine
64 the outcome of any ND analysis (Warnock et al. 2011). These issues led to the development
65 of the total-evidence dating approach (TED), which allows inclusion of all available fossils as
66 tips, while accounting for uncertainty in their age and placement on a tree (Pyron 2011;
67 Ronquist et al. 2012a). The downside of TED is that it requires extensive morphological
68 matrices to be compiled, which inform fossil placements and infer associated branch lengths.
69 Some concerns were also raised about the potential lack of clock-likeness of morphological
70 data (O’Reilly et al. 2015), while some authors reported unrealistically old ages from their
71 TED analyses when compared to the oldest known fossils of the group (Beck and Lee 2014;
72 Arcila et al. 2015).

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73 Several methodological modifications to the TED approach have been suggested, such
74 as replacing the initially introduced uniform tree prior (Ronquist et al. 2012a) with the
75 fossilized birth–death tree prior, which models speciation, extinction and fossilization rates to
76 reconstruct branching events, and thus does not necessarily require morphological data
77 (Heath et al. 2014; Ronquist et al. 2016; Zhang et al. 2016). It has also become possible to
78 account for fossils possibly being sampled ancestors (Gavryushkina et al. 2014) and for a
79 diversified sampling strategy of extant taxa (Höhna et al. 2011). Finally, some recent studies
80 combined tip and node dating approaches (O’Reilly and Donoghue 2016; Kealy and Beck
81 2017; O’Hanlon et al. 2018; Travouillon and Phillips 2018). Unfortunately, these different
82 implementations of TED have often reported disagreeing age estimates (Grimm et al. 2015;
83 Herrera and Davalos 2016; Harrington and Reeder 2017; Kealy and Back 2017; Gustafson et
84 al. 2017), revealing plenty of potential for further improvements of the method (Parins-
85 Fukuchi and Brown 2017; Brown and Smith 2018).

86 Incorporating more complex models often requires more and better data for improved
87 estimation of model parameters. With the development of next generation sequencing
88 technologies, acquiring large amounts of molecular data is no longer a problem (McCormack
89 et al. 2013; Kjer et al. 2016), but taxon sampling is still a major limiting factor in
90 phylogenetic study design. Numerous simulations and empirical studies have demonstrated
91 positive effects of improved taxon sampling on the estimation of topology (Graybeal 1998;
92 Dunn et al. 2008; Heath et al. 2008; Klopstein et al. 2017), branch lengths (Fitch and Bruschi
93 1987; Pick et al. 2010), and parameters of evolutionary models (Zwickl and Hillis 2002;
94 Heath et al. 2008). Nevertheless, thorough taxon sampling is not always easy to achieve,
95 especially in very species-rich groups.

96 The sampling of outgroup taxa requires special attention: it should ideally include a
97 sufficient sample of taxa that are closely related to, but clearly different from the taxa in

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98 question – the ingroup (Wheeler 1990; Nixon and Carpenter 1993; Giribet and Ribera 1998;
99 Graham et al. 2002; Philippe et al. 2011). An inadequately chosen outgroup can significantly
100 affect topology estimates in non-clock analyses by introducing or at least exacerbating long
101 branch attraction (Graham et al. 2002; Holland et al. 2003; Philippe et al. 2011) and/or by
102 increasing compositional heterogeneity of sequences and among-lineage rate variation
103 (Tarrío et al. 2000; Rota-Stabelli and Telford 2008; Borowiec et al. 2017).

104 Although the influence of outgroup choice on topology estimates is well documented,
105 little is known about its impact on age estimates in molecular dating studies. Some empirical
106 and simulation studies have reported biased age estimates in cases of large among-lineage
107 rate variation (Milne 2009; Wertheim et al. 2012; Duchêne et al. 2014; Soares and Schrago
108 2015), and highly imbalanced taxon sampling (Linder et al. 2005; Milne 2009; Soares and
109 Schrago 2012, 2015; Duchêne et al. 2015). All of these could be introduced by an outgroup
110 (Heard 1992; Blum et al. 2006; Borowiec et al. 2017). In addition, Duchêne et al. (2015) have
111 shown that the effect of tree imbalance on age estimates is larger when heterochronous
112 sequences are included, as is the case in molecular tip-dating with ancient DNA or in virus
113 studies; a similar effect can be expected when fossil taxa of different ages are included as
114 tips.

115 In the context of TED, outgroup choice has received little attention, and many studies
116 have employed rather poor outgroup sampling, typically including one to just a handful of
117 outgroup taxa which are severely underrepresented compared to the ingroup taxa, both in
118 terms of morphological characters and fossils (Ronquist et al. 2012a; Arcila et al. 2015;
119 Dornburg et al. 2015; Close et al. 2016; Herrera and Davalos 2016; Kittel et al. 2016; Lee
120 2016; Bannikov et al. 2017). We here aim to test the influence of outgroup sampling on age
121 estimates in TED, using parasitoid wasps of the family Ichneumonidae as a case study.

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122 The Ichneumonidae is the most species-rich family of parasitoid wasps, with more than
123 25,000 described species (Yu et al. 2016). We focus especially on Pimpliformes, a
124 monophyletic group comprising nine subfamilies: Acaenitinae, Collyriinae, Cylloceriinae,
125 Diacritinae Diplazontinae, Orthocentrinae, Pimplinae, Poemeniinae and Rhyssinae (Wahl and
126 Gauld 1998; Quicke 2014; Klopstein et al. 2019). Pimpliformes are especially interesting
127 from a biological perspective, since they cover nearly the entire diversity of hosts and
128 parasitoid strategies known from ichneumonids (Broad et al. 2018). They oviposit into
129 (endoparasitoids) or onto (ectoparasitoids) their host, which they either permanently paralyze
130 (idiobionts) or allow to continue developing (koinobionts), and hosts span almost all
131 holometabolous insect orders, as well as spiders (Araneae). Several attempts have been made
132 in the past to reconstruct the evolution of important biological traits in Pimpliformes (Wahl
133 and Gauld 1998; Gauld et al. 2002; Quicke 2014), but their conclusions were highly
134 dependent on the stability and resolution of the pimpliform phylogeny, which is still in part
135 unresolved (Klopstein et al. 2019).

136 Even less well understood than the sequence of events during the radiation of
137 Pimpliformes is their timing and ecological context. The fossil record of ichneumonids is
138 very poorly studied, and most described species come from just a handful of localities
139 (Menier et al. 2004). It starts in the Early Cretaceous with the extinct subfamily Tanychorinae
140 (Kopylov 2010a), but affiliation of this subfamily with Ichneumonidae is somewhat unclear,
141 as its wing venation is intermediate between Ichneumonidae and their sister family
142 Braconidae (Sharkey and Wahl 1992). The Palaeoichneumoninae (Kopylov 2009), also
143 extinct and of a similar age, are thus usually referred to as the oldest ichneumonids (Sharkey
144 and Wahl 1992; Quicke et al. 1999). All remaining ichneumonid fossils from the Cretaceous
145 period have been classified in the extinct subfamilies Labenopimplinae and
146 Novichneumoninae (Kopylov 2010b; Kopylov et al. 2010; Li et al. 2017), except for a single

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147 amber fossil that was tentatively placed in the extant subfamily Labeninae (McKellar et al.
148 2013). The oldest fossil associated with an extant pimpliform subfamily (and an extant genus)
149 is an acaenitine, *Phaenolobus arvenus* Piton, from the latest Paleocene. However, its
150 placement is questionable due to poor preservation, and more reliable records come from two
151 Early Eocene localities, the Green River Formation and Messel Pit (Spasojevic et al. 2018a,
152 2018b).

153 No studies have to date attempted to infer the age of Ichneumonidae as a whole or of
154 Pimpliformes in particular. The only previous studies with some bearing on the question are
155 one concerned with the sister family Braconidae (Whitfield 2002) and the other with the
156 entire order Hymenoptera (Peters et al. 2017); both studies included a very sparse sample of
157 ichneumonids. They report considerably different age estimates for the divergence between
158 Ichneumonidae and Braconidae, approx. 138 Ma (Whitfield 2002) and 155–224 (mean 188)
159 Ma (Peters et al. 2017). In addition to obtaining the first age estimates for Ichneumonidae and
160 Pimpliformes and testing the influence of outgroup sampling on these estimates, we also
161 investigate the influence of fossil sampling and placement and discuss the implications of our
162 findings for taxon sampling in dating studies more generally.

163 MATERIAL AND METHODS

164 *Taxon Sampling*

165 We have included 289 tips comprising 210 extant and 79 fossil taxa, with a focus on the
166 pimpliform subfamilies within Ichneumonidae. Among the extant taxa, nine were outside of
167 Ichneumonidae, including seven Braconidae and two more distantly related parasitoid wasps
168 from the superfamilies Chalcidoidea and Evanioidea. The remaining extant taxa included 30
169 non-pimpliform ichneumonids belonging to 19 subfamilies, and an extensive sampling of
170 Pimpliformes, for which we included 142 of the 188 known genera. For most genera, we

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171 included a single representative, but additional species were included in some more
172 heterogeneous genera. The complete list of extant taxa is given in Supplementary file S1.

173 We aimed to get a good representation of fossil taxa from different time periods: from
174 the oldest ichneumonid fossils from the Early Cretaceous to fossils from the latest Oligocene
175 period (Supplementary file S2). Due to the controversial position of the extinct subfamily
176 Tanychorinae, which is somewhat intermediate in morphology between Ichneumonidae and
177 Braconidae, and poor sampling of the morphological diversity in Braconidae, we excluded
178 the two Tanychorinae fossils from most analyses (but see below).

179 *Morphological and Molecular Data*

180 We used the morphological matrix from Klopstein and Spasojevic (2019), but with a
181 strongly expanded taxon sampling. Numerous additional character states were defined to
182 capture the added specimen diversity. The complete morphological matrix consists of 222
183 morphological characters coded initially for 150 extant and 79 fossil taxa (Supplementary
184 File S3). After observing attraction of fossil taxa to some non-pimpliform ichneumonids for
185 which we had not yet coded any morphological data (“bare-branch attraction”, see Results
186 section), we added another 20 extant taxa to the morphological matrix, increasing the total
187 number of scored extant taxa to 170. Morphology was scored for the same species from
188 which we obtained molecular data, with a few exceptions where we scored a closely related,
189 congeneric species for morphology (Supplementary file S1).

190 Our molecular dataset includes nine nuclear protein coding genes (primers and
191 protocols in Klopstein et al. 2019), the D2/D3 portion of the nuclear rRNA gene 28S, and
192 the mitochondrial cytochrome c oxidase (COI). We aimed to amplify these 11 genes for 146
193 extant taxa and achieved good coverage, with an average of seven genes successfully
194 sequenced per taxon (Supplementary File S4). The sequences were edited and aligned in

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195 Geneious 7.1.3 (<https://www.geneious.com>, Kearse et al. 2012) using the MAFFT v.7.017
196 plug-in and the algorithm “E-INS-I” (Kato and Standley 2013). The “translation alignment”
197 option was used for protein coding genes. The complete alignment contained 5423 base pairs
198 (bp) (Supplementary File S5, <TreeBase link>). The sequences are deposited in GenBank
199 under accession numbers XXX.

200 *Non-clock Analysis*

201 To assess branch length heterogeneity and to examine the power of our combined
202 molecular and morphological dataset to resolve ichneumonid relationships, we first ran a
203 non-clock analysis. As the analysis showed convergence issues with parameter estimation for
204 most of the 3rd codon partitions of the nine nuclear protein-coding genes and for the entire
205 COI gene, we excluded those from all further analyses. The final alignment thus contained
206 ten genes and 4,011 bp. We partitioned the dataset by gene and codon position and used
207 PartitionFinder 2 (Lanfear et al. 2017) to identify partitions that could be combined (branch
208 lengths = linked, models =all, model_selection = aicc, search = rcluster). In addition, we
209 combined all 1st and all 2nd codon position partitions, respectively, that contained fewer than
210 30 parsimony informative sites, assuming that substitution model parameter estimates would
211 be very poor for those (Supplementary File S5). All analyses were carried out using Bayesian
212 inference in MrBayes 3.2.6 (Ronquist et al. 2012b) on the HPC cluster UBELIX of the
213 University of Bern, Switzerland (<http://www.id.unibe.ch/hpc>). The preferred evolutionary
214 model for all partitions was GTR+G+I according to PartitionFinder 2. As MrBayes allows
215 model jumping over the entire GTR subspace, the model parameters for the molecular
216 partitions were set as nst = mixed and rates = invgamma, with all substitution model
217 parameters unlinked across partitions. Morphological characters were analyzed under the Mk
218 model (Lewis 2001), accounting for ascertainment bias (“Mkv”, i.e., only variable characters
219 coded), allowing gamma-distributed rate variation across characters, and ordering all the

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220 characters where transition only between neighboring states could be assumed. This model
221 has been identified as the preferred model for the morphological partition in a previous
222 analysis (Klopfstein and Spasojevic 2018). The non-clock analysis included the full set of
223 outgroup taxa (Chalcidoidea, Evanioidea, Braconidae and non-pimpliform Ichneumonidae),
224 with *Gasteruption* (Evanioidea) chosen as the functional outgroup.

225 We ran four independent runs with four Metropolis-coupled chains each for 150 million
226 generations with a sampling frequency of 1000. The heating coefficient was set to 0.05 in
227 order to increase chain swap probabilities. To summarize the result, we used a conservative
228 burn-in of 50%, while convergence of runs was assessed using typical Markov Chain Monte
229 Carlo (MCMC) diagnostics: the average standard deviation of split frequencies (ASDSF),
230 effective sample size (ESS), and the potential scale reduction factor (PSRF). We also visually
231 inspected the trace plots of the likelihoods and of all parameters for all four runs using Tracer
232 v1.7 (Rambaut et al. 2018).

233 *Total-Evidence Dating (TED) Analysis*

234 In addition to the settings above, in the TED analysis, we used a uniform tree prior and
235 a relaxed clock model with independent gamma rates (IGR). To set priors on the relaxed-
236 clock model parameters, we relied on the calculations from Ronquist et al. (2012a), putting
237 an exponential prior on the IGR variance with a rate of 37.12, and a lognormal prior on the
238 clock rate with a mean on the log scale of -7.08069 and standard deviation of 1; the standard
239 deviation was decreased compared to Ronquist et al. 2012 to put increased weight on lower
240 clock rates and thus older age estimates, assuming that our dataset contains enough
241 information from the data to correctly estimate the posterior. The prior on the tree age was set
242 to $\text{offsetexp}(126, 309)$, with the offset based on the minimum age of the oldest Evanioidea
243 fossil (Deans et al. 2004), while the mean corresponds to the mean age estimate for

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244 Hymenoptera from Ronquist et al. (2012a). In the analyses where outgroups were excluded
245 (see below), we used the minimum age of the oldest certain ichneumonid fossils
246 (Palaeoichneumoninae, 112.6 Ma) as an offset. We set a uniform prior on the age of the
247 fossils according to the range of age estimates for the fossil stratum. See Supplementary File
248 S2 for the full list of included fossils and their age intervals with respective references. To
249 obtain the effective prior implied by our settings, including the clock rate (which is only
250 effective when running with data), we performed an analysis without the fossils and thus
251 without temporal information. We ran two independent runs for 100 million generations each
252 and under three different clockrate settings, and always obtained a rather flat age distribution
253 for crown group ichneumonids (Supplementary file S5). Our preferred setting for the clock
254 rate (lognormal with mean of log values = -7.08069 and standard deviation =1), for instance,
255 resulted in a median age estimate of 229.3 Ma and a 95% credibility interval of 51.3 –738.6
256 Ma (Supplementary file S5). We can thus assume that any more precise age estimates
257 resulting from the analyses with fossils will indeed be informed by the data and not the prior
258 (Parins-Fukuchi and Brown 2017).

259 It has been shown that relaxed-clock models can lead to topology artefacts, especially
260 close to the root (Ronquist et al. 2012a). We thus set hard constraints on the monophyly of
261 Braconidae, Ichneumonidae and Ichneumonoidea (Braconidae + Ichneumonidae), each of
262 which are widely accepted as being monophyletic and have been recovered in previous
263 analyses (Sharkey and Wahl 1992; Downton and Austin 1994; Peters et al. 2017), as well as in
264 our non-clock analysis. To improve convergence on the clock rate and tree length parameters,
265 we increased the probability of the respective MCMC moves (MrBayes command blocks are
266 provided as Supplementary File S7). MCMC convergence proved much more difficult to
267 attain than in the non-clock analysis and was thus deemed satisfactory when the ASDSF
268 value was below 0.03, ESS values of all scalar parameters were above 100, and PSRF values

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269 were below 1.01. The ESS values between 50 and 100 and PSRF values above 1.01 were still
 270 accepted for the tree length, tree height and clock rate parameters in some runs, as it was
 271 difficult to get convergence on those even after 150 million generations.

272 *TED Outgroup Settings*

273 We tested five different outgroup sampling strategies (Table 1): i) “full outgroup” (with
 274 all outgroup taxa as in the non-clock analysis), ii) “Braconidae” (all braconids, but excluding
 275 the two non-ichneumonoid taxa), iii) “one Braconidae” (a single braconid taxon, *Homolobus*,
 276 the only braconid with both molecular and morphological data), iv) “Tanychorinae” (two
 277 potentially transitional fossils between braconids and ichneumonids, without including any
 278 Braconidae), and v) “Xoridinae” (only members of Ichneumonidae as outgroups). There is
 279 strong evidence that xoridines are sister to the remaining ichneumonids (Klopfstein et al.
 280 2019). To set the outgroup, we enforced monophyly of the remaining extant taxa through a
 281 topology constraint. None of the fossils were ever included in any topology constraint, but
 282 their placement is instead estimated entirely from the morphological data.

283 Table 1. Summary of outgroup sampling strategies. Abbreviations in brackets stand for
 284 higher level classification of the outgroup taxa: Eva–Evanioidea, Cha–Chalcidoidea, Bra–
 285 Braconidae, Tan–Tanychorinae, Xor–Xoridinae.

	outgroup setting				
	“full outgroup”	“Braconidae”	“one Braconidae”	“Tanychorinae”	“Xoridinae”
<i>Gasteruption</i> (Eva)	x				
<i>Eupelmophotismus</i> (Cha)	x				
<i>Aleiodes</i> (Bra)	x	x			
<i>Aphidius</i> (Bra)	x	x			
<i>Cotesia</i> (Bra)	x	x			
<i>Dancusa</i> (Bra)	x	x			
<i>Diaeretus</i> (Bra)	x	x			
<i>Macrocentrus</i> (Bra)	x	x			
<i>Homolobus</i> (Bra)	x	x	x		

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<i>Tanychora</i> (Tan)				X	
<i>Kharsutella</i> (Tan)				X	
<i>Xorides</i> (Xor)	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Odontocolon</i> (Xor)	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Aplomerus</i> (Xor)	X	X	X	X	X
<i>Ischnoceros</i> (Xor)	X	X	X	X	X
other non-pimpliform ichneumonids ^a	X	X	X	X	X

286 ^a For a list of all included non-pimpliform taxa see Supplementary file S1.

287 *Fossil Placement*

288 We assumed that an erroneous placement of the oldest included fossils would have the
289 greatest influence, if any, on the age estimates. We thus used “RoguePlots” as described in
290 Klopstein and Spasojevic (2018) to examine the placement of the Cretaceous fossils on
291 1,000 evenly sampled trees from the four runs in relevant analyses (R package available at
292 <https://github.com/seraklop/RoguePlots>). In the “Xoridinae” outgroup setting, the Cretaceous
293 impression fossils were predominantly placed on some terminal branches leading to non-
294 pimpliform taxa without morphological data (see Results section). We thus ran an additional
295 analysis with the “Xoridinae” outgroup sampling scheme and an improved morphological
296 matrix, which now did not contain any outgroup taxa without morphological data.

297 RESULTS

298 *Tree Resolution and Topology*

299 The backbone of the majority-rule consensus trees from both the non-clock and TED
300 analyses was unresolved when fossils were included, which also reflected in the node support
301 values for lower-level relationships. However, when the fossils were excluded from the
302 sampled trees before summarizing them, the resolution at the backbone was strongly
303 improved and all the basal pimpliform nodes were highly supported in the non-clock analysis
304 (posterior probability >0.95). There were only a few topological differences between the non-

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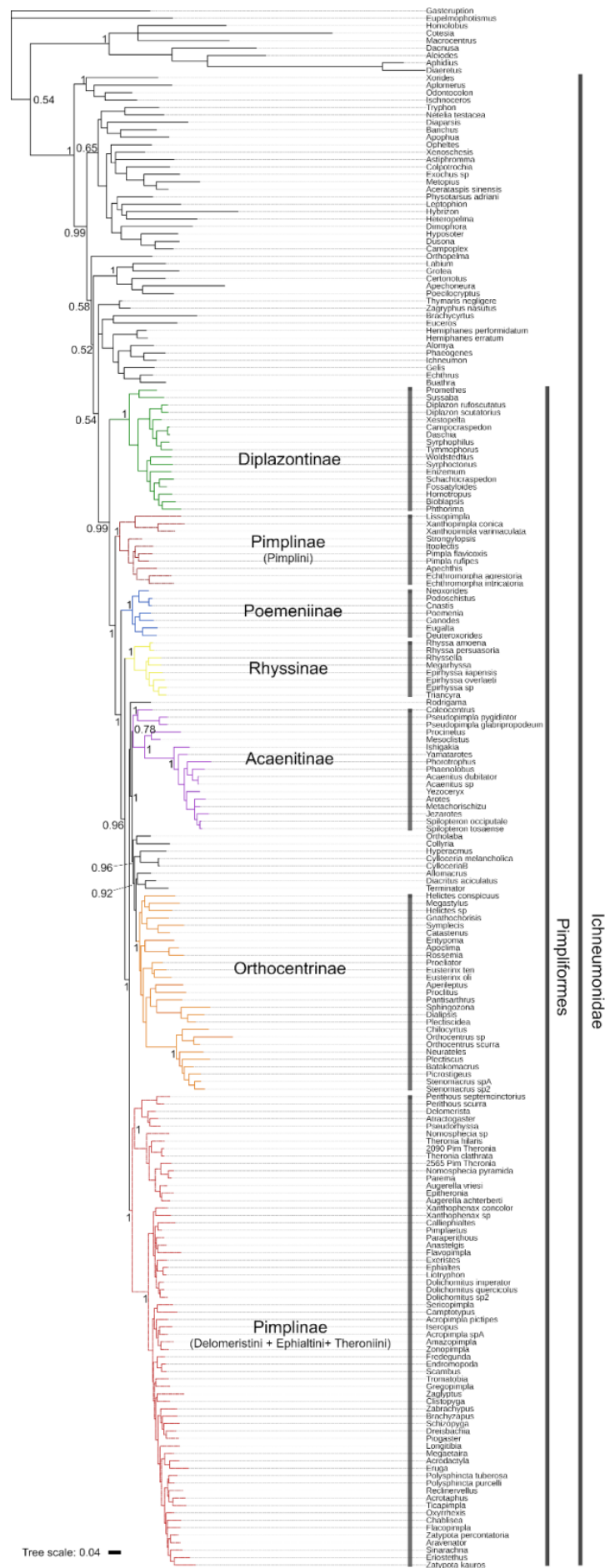
305 clock and TED consensus trees, all concerning weakly supported nodes in both of the
306 analyses (Supplementary files S6 and S7).

307 Most of the expected higher-level relationships outside of Pimpliformes were
308 recovered, such as Xoridinae as the sister group to all other ichneumonids, and the
309 monophyly of the higher groupings Ophioniformes, Ichneumoniformes and Pimpliformes
310 (Fig. 1). Within Pimpliformes, Diplazontinae were recovered as the sister group of the
311 remaining subfamilies. The majority of pimpliform subfamilies were recovered as
312 monophyletic, the exceptions being Cylloceriinae, Diacritinae and Pimplinae (if we disregard
313 a few taxa with alternative placements, see below). The tribe Pimplini was recovered
314 separately from the other pimpline tribes and close to the base of Pimpliformes. It comprised
315 two clearly separate clades, *Xanthopimpla* + *Lissopimpla* and the remaining Pimplini genera,
316 including *Echthromorpha*.

317 The Poemeniinae genus *Rodrigama* was recovered as the sister taxon to a clade that
318 includes all koinobiont endoparasitoids in Pimpliformes (except Diplazontinae). Within that
319 clade, Acaenitinae had the most basal position, while the relationships among the remaining
320 subfamilies were poorly resolved. The monophyly of Acaenitinae was supported, but
321 *Pseudopimpla* (Ephialtini) clustered with *Coleocentrus* (Acaenitinae). For three additional
322 genera, unexpected positions were highly supported: *Ortholaba* (Diacritinae) was recovered
323 with *Collyria* (Collyriinae), *Rossemia* (Cylloceriinae) grouped with *Apoclima*
324 (Orthocentrinae), and *Terminator* (Orthocentrinae) grouped with *Diacritus* (Diacritinae).

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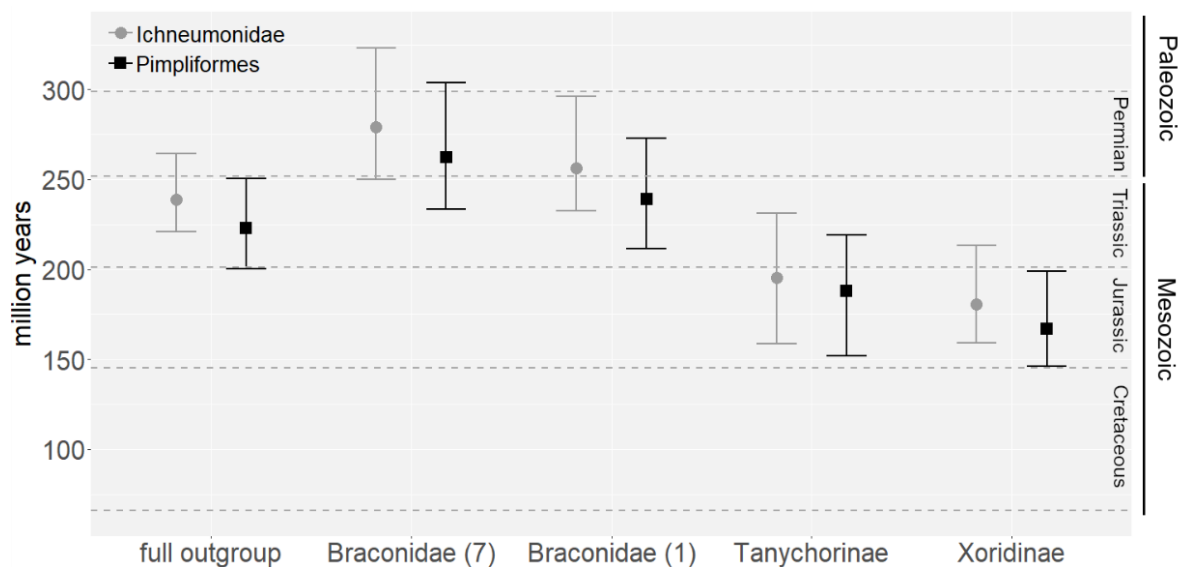
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327 Figure 1. Majority rule consensus tree of the non-clock analysis of the “full outgroup”
328 setting. The tree contains only extant tips, as fossils were excluded prior to summarizing the
329 tree samples from the Bayesian analysis. Posterior probability values are given only for the
330 nodes of interest.

331

332 *Impact of Outgroup Sampling on Age Estimates*

333 Both the age estimates and corresponding 95% credibility intervals (CI) were strongly
334 influenced by the outgroup-sampling strategy (Fig. 2). Age estimates were consistently older
335 when outgroup taxa other than ichneumonids or Tanychorinae were included (i.e., more
336 distant and more poorly sampled outgroups) (Fig. 2, Supplementary file S7 and S8).
337 Credibility intervals were widest when Tanychorinae, which only had very few coded
338 morphological characters, were used as outgroup, followed by the strategy with seven
339 braconid taxa. (Fig. 2, Supplementary file S8).



340

341 Figure 2. Age estimates in million years for Ichneumonidae and Pimpliformes across
342 different analyses. The median and 95% credibility intervals for different outgroup settings

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343 are plotted on the y axis. Numbers in brackets indicate included number of Braconidae taxa.

344 Dashed horizontal lines indicate transitions between major geological periods.

345

346 In addition, we assessed the impact of outgroup settings on the variance of the clock

347 rate to detect possible inadequacy of the relaxed clock model to correctly estimate

348 evolutionary rates when distant outgroups are included. The estimated variance for the

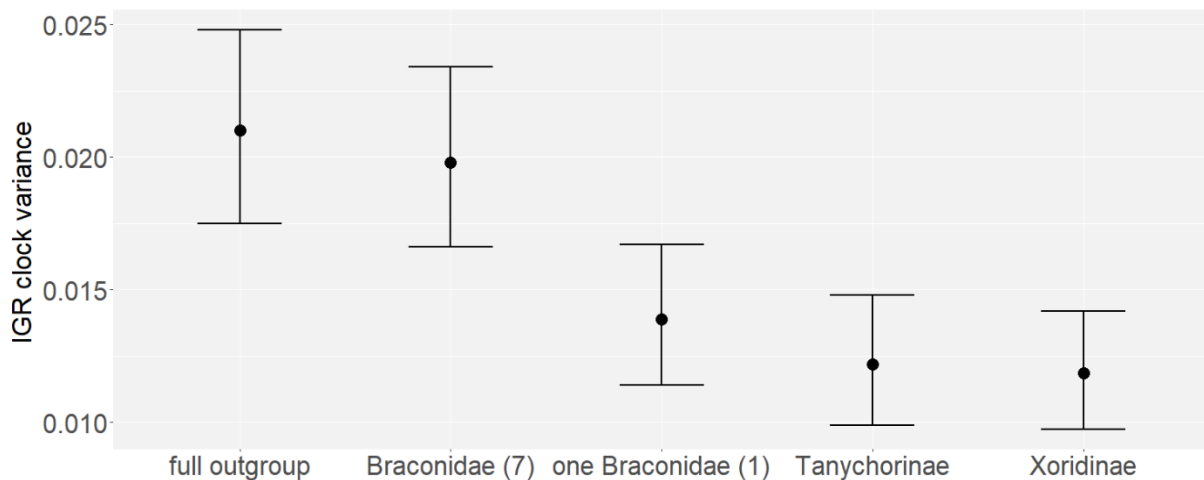
349 relaxed clock (IGR) varied considerably across the different outgroup settings (Fig. 3). It was

350 nearly twice as high in the analyses with distant outgroups (“full outgroup” and

351 “Braconidae”) compared to the analyses with close outgroups (“Tanychorinae” and

352 “Xoridinae”). The exception was when a single braconid was included, in which case the

353 estimated clock variance was similar to the analyses with only close outgroups.



354

355 Figure 3. Estimates of the variance of the relaxed-clock. Median and 95% credibility

356 intervals are plotted on the y axis across different outgroup settings. Numbers in brackets

357 indicate included numbers of Braconidae taxa.

358

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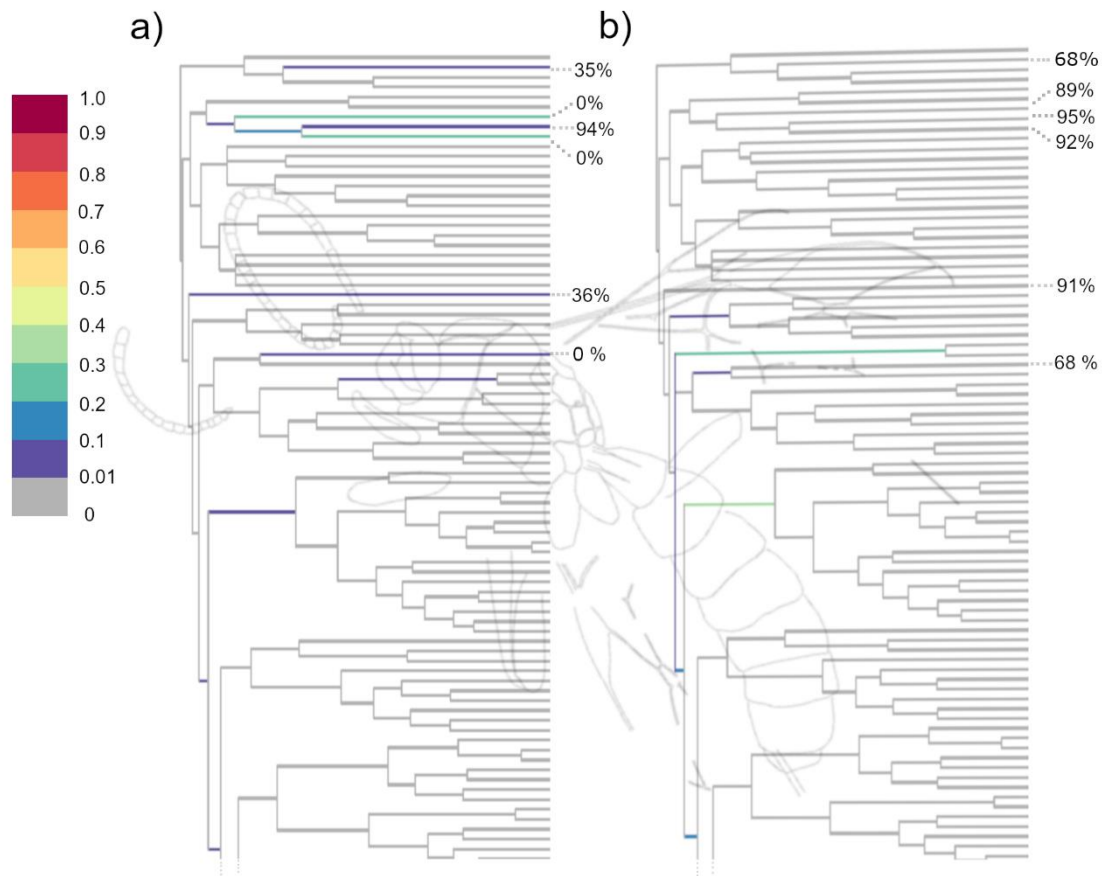
359 *Placement of Cretaceous Fossils*

360 Placements of most of the Cretaceous compression fossils in our initial analyses with
361 different outgroup settings were rather similar: they clustered predominantly within crown-
362 groups of non-pimpliform ichneumonid subfamilies (Fig. 4a, Supplementary file S8). The
363 highest placement probabilities were centered around extant Banchinae (*Banchus* and
364 *Apophua*) and Tersilochinae (in the case of Labenopimplinae and *Tryphopimpla xoridoptera*)
365 and/or on the branch leading to *Orthopelma* (especially in Palaeoichneumoninae), with only a
366 few weakly supported placements in other parts of the tree (less than 10% attachment
367 probability). All Labenopimplinae were placed with the highest probability (34–44%,
368 respectively) on the branch leading to *Banchus*. The overall support that Labenopimplinae
369 belong to crown group Banchinae was quite high (46–53%), and it was even higher if we also
370 consider stem Banchinae (63–73%). *Tryphopimpla xoridoptera* was mostly associated with
371 *Apophua* (34%) with a total probability of attachment within Banchinae of 55% and within
372 extant or stem Banchinae of 71%. In contrast, the small undescribed ichneumonid
373 (3311_856b) from Late Cretaceous Yantardakh amber (Rasnitsyn et al. 2016) was attached
374 with very high probability (97%) to the branch leading to the extant Phygadeuontinae genus
375 *Gelis*. Interestingly, most of the tips to which the Cretaceous fossils attached contained no or
376 only sparse morphological information (Fig. 4a).

377 We repeated the analysis with the “Xoridinae” outgroup setting after improving the
378 scoring of morphological characters for the outgroup taxa, especially those on attracting, bare
379 branches. The placement of the Cretaceous impression fossils shifted considerably and
380 mostly towards the root of the tree compared to the previous analysis (Fig. 4b). Most of the
381 Cretaceous fossils were now placed on stem branches of both non-pimpliform and
382 pimpliform lineages, with some placement probability still on the long branches of outgroup
383 taxa (e.g., *Orthopelma*, *Brachycyrtus*). All Labenopimplinae now attached with the highest

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384 probability on the stem branch of the most basal pimpliform subfamily Diplazontinae (23-
385 39%) and on a nearby long branch leading to the extant tryphonine genera *Zagryphus* and
386 *Thymaris* (22-32%). The probabilities of a placement of the Cretaceous impression fossils
387 with crown Banchinae was now close to zero (Fig. 4).



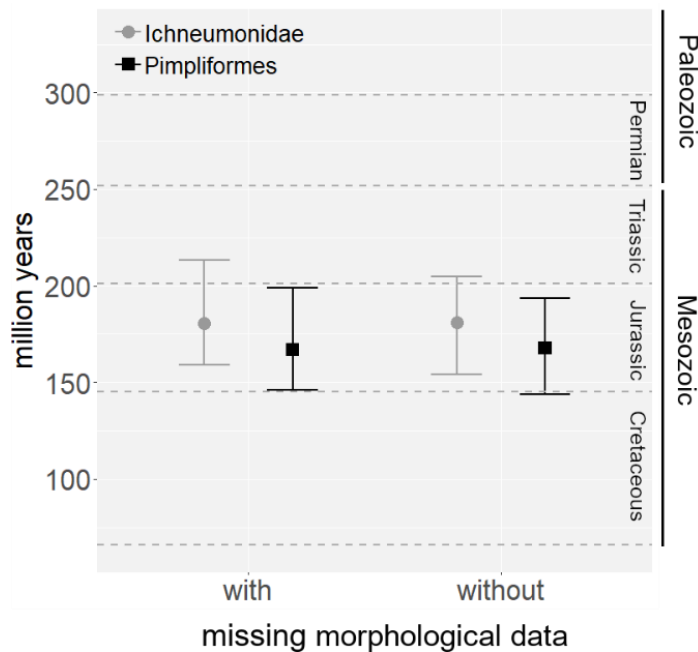
388

389 Figure 4. Placement of a representative of the Cretaceous fossils (*Labenopimpla*
390 *kasparyan*) in the “Xoridinae” analysis a) with and b) without some outgroup taxa missing
391 morphological data. The trees represent majority rule consensus trees with fossils excluded.
392 Branches are colored by probability of a fossil attaching to them (RoguePlots). Percent values
393 refer to the portion of scored morphological characters for a given terminal branch. The
394 remaining Cretaceous compression fossils had similar attachment patterns as the ones
395 depicted here (Supplementary file S9). Background image modified after (Kopylov 2010b).

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396 *Impact of fossil placement on age estimates*

397 Although the placement of the Cretaceous fossils significantly changed when the
398 improved morphological matrix was employed, the median age estimates remained relatively
399 stable (Fig. 5). In contrast, there was a more obvious improvement in the precision of the age
400 estimates for all but one of the examined nodes (Supplementary file S8).



401

402 Figure 5. Age estimates in million years for Ichneumonidae and Pimpliformes in
403 “Xoridinae” outgroup analyses with (left) and without (right) “bare-branches” for some
404 outgroup taxa. The median and 95% credibility intervals are plotted on the y axis. Dashed
405 horizontal lines indicate transitions between major geological periods.

406

407 *Age of Pimpliformes*

408 The median age estimates for Pimpliformes varied widely across the different outgroup
409 analyses, ranging from 167 Ma to 263 Ma (Fig. 2, Supplementary File S8). We suppose that
410 the age estimates were biased when more distant outgroups were included, as these outgroups

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411 were poorly sampled and no fossils provided time information for the outgroup branches to
412 accurately estimate evolutionary rate in this part of the tree. This notion is supported by the
413 smaller clock-rate variance and higher consistency in the age estimates when only close
414 outgroups (“Tanychorinae” and “Xoridinae”) were included.

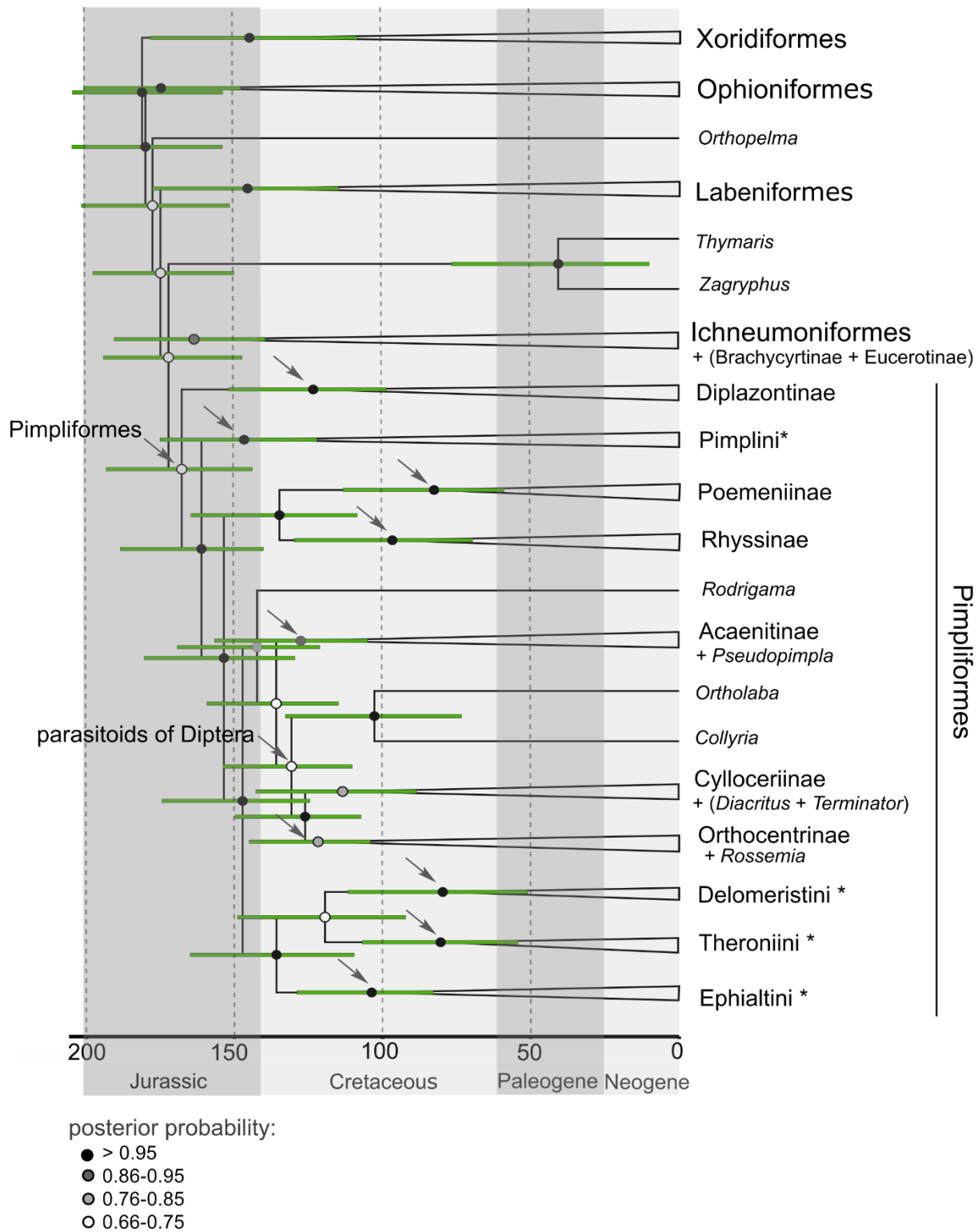
415 We thus report here only the preferred age estimates from the “Xoridinae” outgroup
416 setting, with the improved morphological matrix, as we deem initial placement of most of the
417 Cretaceous fossils among extant Banchinae erroneous (Table 2, Fig. 6). The preferred age
418 estimates suggest that Ichneumonidae originated during the Early to Middle Jurassic and
419 Pimpliformes during the Middle to Late Jurassic. The start of the radiation of the extant
420 pimpliform subfamilies is estimated as having occurred in the Early Cretaceous.

421 Table 2. Age estimates from the preferred analysis with credibility intervals for
422 Ichneumonidae, Pimpliformes and the pimpliform subfamilies. As the subfamily Pimplinae
423 was not recovered as monophyletic, age estimates for the tribes are given (Delomeristini,
424 Ephialtini, Pimplini and Theroniini). The Diptera parasitoids here comprise three subfamilies:
425 Cylloceriinae, Diacritinae and Orthocentrinae (excluding Diplazontinae and the diacritine
426 *Ortholaba*, which did not form a monophyletic group with them).

Taxon Group	Median	Mean	95% Credibility
Ichneumonidae	181.2	181.4	154.0–204.7
Pimpliformes	167.8	168.7	144.0–193.4
Diptera parasitoids	126.2	127.8	107.3–150.0
Acaenitinae	127.6	129.0	105.1–156.7
Diplazontinae	123.5	124.8	98.9–152.0
Poemeniinae	82.7	83.5	59.1–113.4
Rhyssinae	96.8	97.7	69.6–129.9
Delomeristini	79.7	80.6	51.1–111.8
Ephialtini	103.7	105.4	82.9–128.9
Pimplini	146.7	147.4	122.1–175.1
Theroniini	80.4	80.8	54.3–106.7

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Figure 6. Dated majority rule consensus tree from the total-evidence dating analysis

under the “Xoridinae” outgroup setting with improved morphological matrix. The tree

contains only extant tips, as the fossils were excluded prior to summarizing tree samples from

the MCMC analysis. Most of the clades are collapsed to depict subfamily level relationships

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433 among Pimpliformes. Arrows indicate nodes for which age estimates are represented in Table
434 1. The names of the nodes are given if they do not correspond to the names of their tips.
435 Horizontal bars represent median and 95% credibility intervals for age estimates.

436

437 DISCUSSION

438 *Impact of Outgroup Sampling on Age Estimates*

439 Multiple studies have shown that outgroup choice can greatly affect tree topology
440 estimates, especially in cases with large heterogeneity of branch lengths and uneven taxon
441 sampling (Puslednik and Serb 2008; Ware et al. 2008; Hayes et al. 2009; Thomas et al. 2013;
442 Kirchberger et al. 2014; Wilberg 2015), but its influence on divergence time estimates,
443 especially in the context of total-evidence dating, has scarcely been studied at all. We show
444 here that with the inclusion of more distantly related and/or poorly sampled outgroups, the
445 age estimates become older and often less precise.

446 In these last six years since total evidence dating became established, a majority of
447 studies have employed rather poor outgroup sampling, typically including one to just a
448 handful of taxa (Ronquist et al. 2012a; Arcila et al. 2015; Dornburg et al. 2015; Close et al.
449 2016; Herrera and Davalos 2016; Kittel et al. 2016; Lee 2016; Bannikov et al. 2017). We
450 here covered most of the outgroup sampling schemes found in these studies, from including a
451 single taxon from the sister group (“one Braconidae” outgroup setting), over a few taxa from
452 the sister group (“Braconidae”), to the inclusion of a series of more to less closely related
453 outgroup taxa (“full outgroup”).

454 As in most of the previous studies, our outgroups were not only sparsely sampled for
455 extant taxa, but were also missing fossils and most of the morphological data. All these

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456 outgroup settings recovered older and usually less precise age estimates than when restricting
457 our dataset to more closely related outgroup taxa for which greater and more even effort in
458 sampling both of extant and fossil taxa has been applied (“Xoridinae” outgroup setting).
459 Interestingly, when two potentially transitional fossils between Braconidae and
460 Ichneumonidae were used as outgroup (“Tanychorinae” outgroup setting), the median age
461 estimates and clock variance were not affected, but their precision was. This could result
462 from the larger uncertainty in the age of these fossils (Supplementary file S2) and the fact that
463 only very few morphological characters were scored for them (9% and 17%, respectively).

464 Our results might suggest that many of the previous TED analyses would recover
465 younger and likely more accurate age estimates with more detailed and/or restricted outgroup
466 sampling. Presumably, the effect would be most pronounced for datasets where there is a
467 long, unbroken outgroup branch which introduces large rate heterogeneity among lineages. A
468 similar effect has been demonstrated for node dating in the simulation study by Soares and
469 Schrago (2015), where age estimates were significantly biased when there was a combination
470 of large among lineage rate variation and poor taxon sampling. Both accuracy and precision
471 were affected: the mean age of the node in question was constantly overestimated and
472 precision severely decreased. Large heterogeneity of evolutionary rates can already be
473 identified on a non-clock tree by comparing branch lengths and outgroup taxa accordingly
474 excluded, as we exemplified in our study; but this has rarely been employed in total evidence
475 dating studies (but see Grimm et al. 2015).

476 *Challenges for fossil placement in TED*

477 In TED analyses, the placement of fossils is solely dependent on the available
478 morphological information for both fossil and extant taxa. The quality of fossil placement
479 based on morphological matrices is thus primarily limited by imperfect preservation of

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480 fossils, but also by high levels of morphological homoplasy, which has been reported for
481 ichneumonids (Gauld and Mound 1982; Klopstein and Spasojevic 2019). We here identified
482 another potentially major issue in TED studies, which we called “bare-branch attraction”: the
483 tendency of especially older fossils to attach to terminal branches leading to extant taxa for
484 which no morphological data has been collected. This artefact exposes the dangers of
485 insufficient sampling of extant taxa for morphology, which can distort fossil placement and
486 as a consequence age estimates in TED analyses.

487 Many of the previous TED studies included from a few to more than half of the extant
488 taxa without morphological data, while some of the extant taxa scored for morphology had
489 high amounts of missing data (Ronquist et al. 2012b; Arcila et al. 2015; Dornburg et al. 2015;
490 Harrington and Reeder 2017). Guillerme and Cooper (2016) addressed this issue in the
491 context of topology reconstruction in TED analyses. In their simulations, topology estimates
492 were more negatively affected by a large percentage of extant taxa with missing
493 morphological data than by any other analyzed parameter. It remains unclear to what extent
494 their results were influenced by bare-branch attraction, as they did not analyze individual
495 fossil placements, but the artefact was likely playing up under their scenario as well.

496 In our study, bare-branch attraction mostly concerned the compression fossils from the
497 Cretaceous. These fossils are all, except *T. xoridoptera*, classified in two extinct subfamilies,
498 Palaeoichneumoninae and Labenopimplinae. The phylogenetic position of these subfamilies
499 is unclear, but two options have been suggested: a transitional position between Tanychorinae
500 and extant Ichneumonidae, which would mean they represent stem ichneumonids, or some
501 rather basal position as crown ichneumonids (Kopylov 2009, 2010b). In fact, the name
502 “Labenopimplinae” reflects some similarity to the extant subfamilies Labeninae and
503 Pimplinae, which would indicate the latter option (Kopylov 2010b).

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504 We showed that the predominant placement of most Labenopimplinae (and other
505 Cretaceous compression fossils) with crown group Banchinae and Tersilochinae in our initial
506 analysis, was a consequence of the bare-branch attraction artefact. Among the branches
507 where these fossils attached on the tree, only a single tip (*Apophua*) contained morphological
508 data, while the remaining taxa were only sampled for molecular characters. Some other,
509 younger fossils with rather diffuse placement also often attached to these branches, which
510 might suggest that when morphological information for the placement of a fossil is limited,
511 TED analyses tend to place a fossil on “bare-branches”, especially if those branches are long.
512 Decreasing the percentage of extant taxa with missing morphological information, especially
513 among the outgroups, from 27% to 16% was enough to reverse the initially erroneous
514 placements of the oldest included compression fossils, which were instead placed on rather
515 basal branches of crown group ichneumonids, in accordance with the second hypothesis
516 suggested at the time of their original description (Kopylov 2009, 2010b).

517 It remains to be shown whether older and/or ancestral fossils are more prone to bare-
518 branch attraction, or if it influences fossils of all ages to a similar extent. Additional analyses
519 are also needed to determine under which conditions the erroneous fossil placement is
520 leading to biased age estimates. In our study, we did not see a large negative impact of bare-
521 branch attraction, but this will presumably not always be the case – we might just have been
522 lucky that the attracting bare branches were spanning the age of the true placements as well,
523 which was then informed correctly by the numerous remaining fossils. And even in our case,
524 the precision of age estimates was improved by reducing the number of bare branches in the
525 phylogeny.

526 *The age of Pimpliformes and the biological context of their diversification*

527 Our most credible analysis estimated the median age of the family Ichneumonidae to
528 184 Ma (95% CI: 168.3–203.9 Ma) and of Pimpliformes to 172 Ma (95% CI: 157.3–191.1

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529 Ma), i.e., the Early and Middle Jurassic period, respectively. Compared to the fossil record,
530 the estimated age for Ichneumonidae is 60–70 Ma older than the oldest certain ichneumonid
531 fossils, which would imply a rather long ghost lineage. However, a similar gap in the fossil
532 record is present between the oldest and the second oldest ichneumonid fossils
533 (Palaeoichneumoninae and Labenopimplinae: between 26 and 53 Ma, depending on the
534 adopted age of the geological formations in question), suggesting that the implied ghost range
535 is not that long after all. Such a gap is even more acceptable if we consider the paucity of
536 Jurassic Hymenoptera fossils in general (Rasnitsyn and Quicke 2002). Furthermore, the last
537 few years have seen unexpected discoveries of fossils that have closed large gaps between
538 much older (molecular) age estimates and the previously known fossil record, for instance in
539 Lepidoptera (Eldijk et al. 2018).

540 Further insights into the age of ichneumonids come from age estimates for their hosts,
541 predominantly holometabolous insects, which had to originate before their parasitoids could
542 radiate. Initially, the radiations of the biggest orders of holometabolous insects,
543 Hymenoptera, Coleoptera, Diptera and Lepidoptera, were believed to have been associated
544 with the radiation of flowering plants and were dated to the Early Cretaceous (Grimaldi 1999;
545 Misof et al. 2014). However, these estimates were later deemed too young, and a Late
546 Permian origin was suggested based on a re-analysis of a large phylogenomic dataset (Misof
547 et al. 2014) with more appropriate calibration points (Tong et al. 2015). This later study
548 implies that the major host groups for ichneumonids were already present during the Jurassic,
549 when both Ichneumonidae and Pimpliformes originated, suggesting that the radiation of these
550 parasitoids might have happened only shortly after the radiation of their host groups.

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551 *Taxonomic implications*

552 To date, some relationships among pimpliform subfamilies have remained unresolved,
553 most likely due to a rapid radiation early in their evolution (Klopfstein et al. 2019). In our
554 study, we utilized a small set of eleven genes but with an extensive sampling of pimpliform
555 genera and morphological characters. We recovered a very similar tree topology as in the
556 nucleotide versions of the previous analysis. The few differences mainly concern
557 relationships within the clade of koinobiont endoparasitoids, but these were weakly resolved
558 in both analyses. However, with our increased taxon sampling, we recover some previously
559 unclear or unidentified relationships.

560 The monophyly of Acaenitinae was never supported in previous molecular analyses
561 (Quicke et al. 2009; Klopfstein et al. 2019), while we recovered it with some support
562 (posterior probability around 0.8), but including the Ephialtini genus *Pseudopimpla*.
563 Acaenitines are morphologically easily recognized by the large and elongate hypopygium,
564 but are otherwise a rather heterogenous group (Förster 1869; Broad et al. 2018). Although the
565 hypopygium of *Pseudopimpla* is not as large as in *Coleocentrus*, with which it clustered in
566 our analyses, it is strongly sclerotized and clearly elongate, as in some other acaenitine genera
567 (e.g., *Procinetus*, *Leptacaenitus*, *Prosacron*). In addition, *Pseudopimpla* also has a very
568 elongate eighth tergite in females, as is often seen in Acaenitinae (including *Coleocentrus*)
569 and only rarely in Pimplinae (*Pimplaetus*, *Pachymelos*); the eighth tergite is also elongate in
570 males of *Pseudopimpla*, as well as in *Coleocentrus*. The presence of lobes on the tarsal claws
571 in *Pseudopimpla* suggests a placement of the genus in Ephialtini (Gauld et al. 2002), but
572 these lobes have evolved several times independently in ichneumonids in any case (at least in
573 some Pimplinae, Labeninae, Orthopelmatinae and Collyriinae), and are also present in the
574 acaenitine genus *Hallocinetus* (Townes 1971). It is noteworthy that *Pseudopimpla* lacks one

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575 of the apomorphies used to define Pimplinae, namely a sculpturally differentiated posterior
576 band on the metasomal tergites. We thus here transfer *Pseudopimpla* to Acaenitinae.

577 The placements of the cylocerine *Allomacrus* and orthocentrine *Terminator* with
578 *Diacritus*, and of the cyloceriine *Rossemia* within Orthocentrinae are also strongly
579 supported, but we refrain from any taxonomic changes, considering the poor resolution at
580 subfamily level in this part of the tree. In any case, our results might suggest that
581 Cyloceriinae, Diacritinae and Orthocentrinae constitute an entity which is difficult to
582 subdivide, based on both molecular and morphological evidence. The close association of
583 these three subfamilies is also supported by their biology, where known, as koinobiont
584 endoparasitoids of Diptera, so these three subfamilies might be synonymized in the future.
585 However, there are no reliable host records for *Allomacrus*, *Diacritus*, *Ortholaba*, *Rossemia*
586 or *Terminator* (Broad et al. 2018), and we thus refrain here from any formal changes.

587 The monophyly of the subfamily Pimplinae has already been questioned in the past. It
588 has been supported both with the morphological (Gauld et al. 2002) and the latest 28S dataset
589 (Quicke et al. 2009), but some earlier analyses had recovered Pimplini separately from
590 Ephialtini (Belshaw et al. 1998; Quicke et al. 2000). This was also the case in Klopstein et
591 al. (2019), where at least the genus *Xanthopimpla* (in nucleotide and amino acid analyses), if
592 not the entire Pimplini (in nucleotide analyses), clustered apart from the remaining Pimplinae.
593 Morphologically, there are not many clear synapomorphies for Pimplinae (Gauld et al. 2002),
594 and the Pimplini show many plesiomorphic character states, such as a quadrate areolet, rather
595 stout and short first tergite with dorsal median carinae, and an ovipositor of intermediate
596 length, all of which have had already been present in some Cretaceous Labenopimplinae and
597 could also have had been present at the base of Pimpliformes. Further investigation, such as
598 the detection of possible anomalies in the nucleotide data, is needed in order to decide

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599 whether *Xanthopimpla* and *Lissopimpla* or even all of Pimplini should be transferred to a
600 separate subfamily.

601 CONCLUSIONS

602 We have demonstrated that poor outgroup sampling can negatively affect both accuracy
603 and precision of age estimates in total-evidence dating analyses. To achieve more reliable
604 age estimates, one should consider a more detailed taxon sampling that includes
605 morphological and fossil data from a closely related outgroup, or alternatively first perform a
606 non-clock analysis including outgroups, and then use topology constraints to correctly
607 position the root in the dating analysis, while excluding any sparsely sampled outgroup taxa.

608 We also illustrated the importance of careful consideration of fossil placement in total-
609 evidence dating analyses in order to identify artefacts or biases. The bare-branch attraction
610 artefact that we have discovered here might turn out to be universally problematic for TED.
611 Thus, it deserves further assessment in the future, possibly through simulation studies, but it
612 can easily be circumvented by a more complete sampling of morphology for extant taxa.

613 Finally, we provided the first age estimate for the extremely diverse group of
614 ichneumonid parasitoid wasps. The obtained Jurassic origin for the family and for
615 Pimpliformes agrees with the timing of the radiation of their major host groups. It remains to
616 be seen how the age estimate for the family will change when more fossils are included in a
617 TED analysis; this will require a major upgrade of the morphological matrix that includes
618 filling in all the missing morphological information and improving the sampling of non-
619 pimpliform ichneumonid extant taxa.

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636 SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

637 Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository: [http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.\[NNNN\]](http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.[NNNN])

638

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