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1 **Journeys through discrete-character morphospace: synthesising phylogeny, tempo,** 2 **and disparity**

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8
9 **Abstract:** Palaeontologists have long employed discrete categorical data to capture
10 morphological variation in fossil species, using the resulting character-taxon matrices to
11 measure evolutionary tempo, infer phylogenies, and capture morphological disparity.
12 However, to date these have been seen as separate approaches despite a common goal of
13 understanding morphological evolution over deep time. Here I argue that there are clear
14 advantages to considering these three lines of enquiry in a single space: the
15 phylomorphospace. Conceptually these high-dimensional spaces capture how a
16 phylogenetic tree explores morphospace and allow us to consider important process
17 questions around evolutionary rates, constraints, convergence, and directional trends.
18 Currently the literature contains fundamentally different approaches used to generate
19 such spaces, with no direct comparison between them despite the differing evolutionary
20 histories they imply. Here I directly compare five different phylomorphospace
21 approaches, three with direct literature equivalents and two that are novel. I use a single
22 empirical case study of coelurosaurian theropod dinosaurs (152 taxa, 853 characters) to
23 show that under many analyses the literature-derived approaches tend to reflect
24 introduced phylogenetic – rather than the intended morphological – signal. The two novel
25 approaches, which produce limited ancestral state estimates prior to ordination, are able
26 to minimise this phylogenetic signal and thus exhibit more realistic amounts of
27 phylogenetic signal, rate heterogeneity, and convergent evolution.

28
29 Key words [6 max]: ancestors; cladistics; disparity; morphology; phylogeny; tempo

30 31 **Introduction**

32
33 Morphological variation has been captured as discrete categorical data since at least the
34 1940s. Such character-taxon matrices were first inspired as an extension of Simpson's
35 (1944) Tempo and Mode, with the intent to capture morphological change across the
36 whole organism (Olson 1944; Westoll 1949). Subsequently they were employed in
37 systematics to infer evolutionary relationships (Sokal and Sneath 1963; Sneath and Sokal
38 1973), and most recently they were utilised to measure morphological diversity, or
39 disparity (Foote 1991). However, despite sharing a common goal of understanding
40 morphological evolution these three main strands – tempo, phylogeny, and disparity –
41 have been treated as separate enterprises (e.g., as in Brusatte et al 2014). However, there
42 is potential to gain additional insights by considering these three strands collectively.

43 An initial challenge to this endeavour is establishing a framework where tempo,
44 phylogeny, and disparity can be considered simultaneously. However, a clear solution
45 presents itself in the form of the “phylomorphospace” (first formally named by
46 Sidlauskas 2008, but conceptually traceable back to Stone 2003). Such spaces are

47 extensions of morphospaces, usually high-dimensional (multivariate) ordination spaces
48 with axes that, often only abstractly (but see Wright 2017), represent overall
49 morphological variation: points that are proximal in the space are morphologically similar
50 and vice versa. The phylo- prefix reflects the projection of estimated ancestors and
51 plotting of branches into the same space (Stone 2003). Such spaces can also be thought of
52 as containing “stations” (nodes of a phylogenetic tree) connected by “journeys” (branches
53 of the tree), with each root-to-tip pathway representing the shortest journey through
54 morphospace that led to a specific tip morphology (Figure 1).

55 A critical advantage of such spaces is they can enable the switch from simply
56 establishing pattern (overall distribution of points in a space), to considering process (the
57 direction morphological evolution has taken between those points). For example,
58 previous authors have shown how such spaces can be used to help differentiate between
59 evolutionary rates and constraints (Sidlauskas 2008), expose convergent evolution
60 (Stayton 2015; Page and Cooper 2017), or reveal directional biases in trends in
61 morphospace exploration between subclades (Hopkins 2016).

62 Discrete characters represent a unique challenge for phylomorphospace
63 construction. Many of these were previously summarised by Lloyd (2016) and are
64 pertinent to generating non-phylogenetic morphospaces from discrete data (e.g.,
65 projecting non-Euclidean distances into a Euclidean space, and adequately visualising the
66 data when the variance is often spread over a high number of axes). However, here I will
67 focus on a single unexplored issue, namely that there are two fundamentally different
68 ways to project estimated ancestral morphologies into such spaces (Figure 2). These are
69 here termed post-, and pre-ordination ancestral state estimation (post-OASE and pre-
70 OASE hereafter). Post-OASE is the typical form (e.g., Hopkins and Smith 2015, Wright
71 2017) and occurs across all types of morphospaces, with continuous ancestral states being
72 estimated directly from the ordination axes. Pre-OASE is less common and is possibly
73 unique to discrete characters (e.g., Brusatte et al 2011; Butler et al 2012). Here ancestral
74 states are estimated prior to ordination by generating sets of discrete states for each node
75 in the tree (see methods and Figure 3). These two approaches necessarily lead to
76 fundamentally different phylomorphospaces and hence have a major effect on any
77 inferences about evolutionary processes made.

78 Here I conduct the first, to my knowledge, direct comparison of post- and pre-
79 OASE phylomorphospaces using a single empirical case study that was initially
80 conceived to examine tempo, phylogeny, and disparity separately (Brusatte et al 2014).
81 Although a more comprehensive set of comparisons across multiple data sets would
82 clearly be desirable, current implementations of the phylomorphospace algorithms are too
83 slow to permit this. Nevertheless, the protocols outlined here allow future workers to
84 examine the same effects in their own data. Here I particularly focus on the degree to
85 which the resulting phylomorphospaces represent phylogenetic rather than morphological
86 variation (i.e., any two tips must continuously diverge from their common ancestor,
87 increasing their phylogenetic distance). This concern is motivated by a desire to avoid
88 erroneous inferences about evolution. For example, phylogenetic variation will
89 necessarily be continuously divergent, whereas morphological evolution is known to be
90 at least partially convergent. Similarly, phylogenetic signal represents homogenous
91 evolutionary rates, whereas morphological evolution is widely considered heterogeneous.
92 Thus overreliance on phylogeny may lead us to misconstrue evolutionary processes.

93 Alternative optimality criteria are of course worth considering, but will introduce their
94 own complexities. For example, using the discrete character simulation approaches other
95 workers have applied to phylogenetic inference (e.g., Wright and Hillis 2014; O'Reilly et
96 al 2016) would necessarily introduce phylogenetic signal a priori. It is hoped solutions to
97 these issues may be discovered in future, but minimally this study shows empirically that
98 major differences can arise between phylomorphospace approaches even when applied to
99 the same input data.

101 **Materials and Methods**

102
103 The discrete-character taxon matrix used here is derived directly from Brusatte et al
104 (2014), and contains a mixture of binary, ordered, and unordered multistate characters as
105 well as polymorphisms. As the implementations applied here are slow (taking several
106 days to run all analyses on a standard laptop), the principal aim is not to understand
107 phylogenetic uncertainty a single phylogenetic hypothesis was used. This represents the
108 first most parsimonious tree recovered from the reanalysed version of the matrix
109 available at graemetlloyd.com/matrdino.html. This was time-scaled using tip dates from
110 the Paleobiology Database and the timePaleoPhy function of the paleotree Package
111 (Bapst 2012).

112 Six separate phylomorphospaces were generated from the data. These include the
113 four pre-OASE methods (Figure 3), a single post-OASE method, and a control
114 “phylo-space”, where phylogenetic (in millions of years) rather than morphological
115 distances were ordinated. In all cases the phylomorphospace was generated by
116 performing a principal coordinate (Gower 1966) ordination using the `cmdscale` function
117 in base R (R Core Team 2017). The four pre-OASE methods are all based on a likelihood
118 ancestral state method (Yang et al 1995) and represent the range of possible outcomes
119 from two binary options (Figure 3; the `AncStateEstMatrix` function in Claddis, Lloyd
120 2016). These represent choices to estimate missing or uncertain values using a
121 phylogenetic hypothesis and thus are likely to represent varying degrees of phylogenetic
122 signal. Specifically, in pre-OASE1 the only output is ancestral state estimates for internal
123 nodes that have direct descendants with non-missing (or non-inapplicable) states. For pre-
124 OASE2 the only additional output is a collapsing of uncertain (polymorphic) tip values.
125 Under pre-OASE3 no tip outputs are produced, but ancestral state estimates are made for
126 all internal nodes, even if their direct descendants have missing (or inapplicable) states.
127 Finally, pre-OASE4 returns output for every internal node and every tip. The post-OASE
128 method simply applies the `ace` (ancestral character estimation) function in the `ape`
129 package (Paradis et al 2004) using the principal coordinate axes themselves as input.

130 Five different analyses were performed to both qualitatively and quantitatively
131 assess and compare the six phylomorphospaces. Specific analyses performed were: 1)
132 scree plots (summarising the distribution of the variance over the ordination axes), 2)
133 simple bivariate phylomorphospace plots of the first two ordination axes (allowing only a
134 cursory inspection of the data due to the low variances of these axes), 3) rate
135 heterogeneity plots (branch length against branch duration), 4) pairwise convergence
136 histograms applying the C_1 metric of Stayton (2015), and 5) correlations between
137 phylogenetic and ordination space distances between taxa on the time-scaled tree. All

138 analyses were performed in R (R Core Team 2017) with the full script available in Lloyd
139 (2018).

140

141 **Results**

142

143 The main results are summarised in Figure 4 and Table 1.

144

145 Scree plots (Figure 4A-F) exhibit the general issue with discrete-character
146 ordination spaces of variance being dispersed over a large number of axes (Lloyd 2016),
147 with low variance on the first two diminishing the value of the bivariate plots (Figure 4G-
148 L). However, Figure 4E is of note as it includes a second deflection point (at around
149 principal coordinate axis 100). This is the result of a correction for negative eigenvalues
150 (Cailleux 1983), but is unique here to the post-OASE approach. Thus including the
151 phylogeny directly in the ordination (pre-OASE; Figure 4A-D) has a clear advantage in
152 generating ordinations that require less distortion when moving from raw (non-
153 Euclidean) morphological distances to ordinated (Euclidean) morphological distances.

154

155 Ideal phylomorphospaces should exhibit a good spread of points (as the pairwise
156 distances should themselves be normally distributed). However, it is clear that one of the
157 pre-OASE approaches (pre-OASE4; Figure 4J) has an unusually clustered, strongly V-
158 shaped distribution that is more comparable to the “phyloSPACE” plot (Figure 4L) than the
159 other phylomorphospaces (Figure 4G-I,K). These results should lead us to be extremely
160 cautious about going too far in using phylogenies to “correct” for missing data, and to
161 particularly avoid the pre-OASE4 option.

162

163 Rate heterogeneity is captured in Figure 4M-R by plotting branch lengths
164 (Euclidean distance in the ordination space) against branch duration (in millions of
165 years). The expectation here under 100% phylogenetic signal is that all branches exhibit
166 the same mean rate (homogenous rates) and hence fall on the corresponding dashed line.
167 Here we see that this is not the case even for the phyloSPACE (Figure 4R). However, all
168 pre-OASE plots (Figure 4M-P) show considerably larger rate heterogeneity, even having
169 some branches falling outside the heat map area (over one hundred times the mean rate,
170 or below one-hundredth the mean rate). By contrast post-OASE rates are considerably
171 more homogenous, more closely reflecting the phylogenetic signal (Table 1).

172

173 Convergent evolution was measured for all pairwise tip comparisons using the C_1
174 metric of Stayton (2015), being one minus the Euclidean distance between the two tips
175 over the largest distance achieved by their lineages since they diverged from their most
176 recent common ancestor (Figure 4S-X). The expectation here is that under pure
177 phylogenetic signal all values will be zero, indicating the largest divergence was achieved
178 at the tips. Again, this is not quite the case (Figure 4X; Table 1) due to the distorting of
179 non-Euclidean values into a Euclidean space, although most values are either zero, or
180 very close to zero. By contrast under pre-OASE approaches a clear tail of higher C_1
181 values, indicating some degree of convergence, can be seen (Figure 4S-C), along with a
182 reduction in the size of this tail as greater levels of missing values are phylogenetically
183 predicted. However, most notable is the post-OASE approach that shows not just
184 extremely low convergence but even lower convergence than pure phylogenetic signal.
185 Here this is considered extremely implausible, especially as other character-based metrics
186 (e.g., see Hoyal Cuthill et al 2010) would comfortably show some degree of convergence
187 in the data.

184 Finally, the overall degree to which phylogeny controls the phylomorphospace
185 generated was assessed using a simple Pearson's correlation of the Euclidean distance
186 between tips in the ordination space and the phylogenetic distances (in millions of years)
187 between tips on the tree (Table 1). A high value indicates a strong phylogenetic signal,
188 whereas a low value suggests a stronger potential morphological signal. Here I consider
189 the latter ideal, but note that we would logically expect some phylogenetic signal in
190 morphology. Additionally, because the expectation of 100% correlation in the phylo-space
191 is not met (again due to the non-Euclidean nature of phylogenetic distances) all values
192 were rescaled against the phylo-space value to return an estimate of percent phylogenetic
193 signal (Table 1). Thus roughly half of the post-OASE signal can be explained by
194 phylogeny, whereas the pre-OASE approaches vary dramatically, from roughly one-
195 quarter to almost three-quarters phylogenetic signal. That the lowest value can be reached
196 by the pre-OASE1 approach further supports this as the optimal, i.e., least biased by
197 introduced phylogenetic signal, phylomorphospace approach.

198 199 **Discussion**

200
201 At face value the post-OASE approach should be the ideal way to generate
202 phylomorphospaces. It is certainly the most common approach in the literature as it is
203 directly applicable regardless of the type of morphological data or the type of ordination
204 employed (e.g., Page and Cooper 2017; Sherratt et al 2017). In its implementation it is
205 usually faster, as it is applied after the dimensionality of the data has been reduced by
206 ordination, and it has the theoretical advantage of allowing phylogenetic uncertainty to be
207 expressed visually in the same space (as changing the tree does not "move" the tip values
208 in the ordination), although I am not aware of this being done. However, there are some
209 intuitive causes for concern too. For example, ancestral values will necessarily fall within
210 the range of the sampled tip values (Stayton 2015), forcing the implicit assumptions that
211 our sample already includes the morphological extremes and that ancestral values are
212 always morphologically average. Furthermore, ancestral states estimated directly from
213 the ordination axes are not mappable back to a tangible discrete morphology diminishing
214 their utility. Here these concerns are added to by showing that some simple interrogations
215 of a post-OASE phylomorphospace exhibit patterns better explained directly by the
216 phylogeny used to generate it than the morphological signal we are interested in. These
217 include an implausibly low amount of convergent evolution and generally low rate
218 heterogeneity.

219 By contrast pre-OASE approaches have some clear limitations. They are more
220 convoluted; requiring more complex ancestral state estimations, and usually more of
221 them: the number of characters tends to be greater than the number of taxa and hence, by
222 mathematical necessity, the number of ordination axes. Additionally, any changes to the
223 phylogenetic hypothesis require new ancestral state estimates and hence the generation of
224 a new phylomorphospace, adding further computation time. However, despite these
225 limitations they have still been favoured before, primarily by palaeontologists as a means
226 of increasing sample size (Brusatte et al 2011) or addressing severe missing data levels
227 (Butler et al 2012). Other advantages include removing the assumption that estimated
228 ancestors must fall within the range of the tips (compare Hopkins and Smith 2015, their
229 Figure 3 with Brusatte et al 2011, their Figure 3). However, as shown here, there is

230 considerable variation in implied evolutionary history amongst the four pre-OASE
231 approaches. The results obtained here suggest those currently adopted in the literature
232 (pre-OASE3-4) are likely suboptimal, introducing substantial phylogenetic signal that
233 may be overwriting the true morphological pattern and generating peculiar
234 phylomorphospaces (Figure 4J) as well as low amounts of convergent evolution and rate
235 heterogeneity. However, this need not be the case, with already available options (pre-
236 OASE1-2) in Claddis (Lloyd 2016) that can: 1) minimise this introduced signal, by over
237 45% in the example data set used here, 2) more faithfully retain the uncertainty of the
238 empirical observations rather than “diluting” them with predicted values, and 3) avoid
239 nonsensical issues like estimating either a single state for a truly polymorphic character or
240 any value for an inapplicable character.

241 Minimally this study shows that different approaches lead to very different
242 phylomorphospaces (and hence inferred evolutionary histories), but it does not directly
243 address their utility in general. Previously I have argued for an apparently contradictory
244 position: that there are good reasons to avoid ordination entirely (Lloyd 2016). Some of
245 those reasons are evident here, particularly the distortions associated with projecting non-
246 Euclidean distances into Euclidean ordination spaces. We might ask, then, whether the
247 advantages of a phylomorphospace can still be enjoyed without the problems associated
248 with ordination? This can be done by examining some of the phylomorphospace
249 approaches introduced by previous authors (Sidaluskas 2008; Stayton 2015; Hopkins
250 2016). The methods of Sidlauskas (2008) require both branch-lengths and clade volumes,
251 as specified by the ordination space. However, branch-lengths can be estimated outside of
252 an ordination space and non-ordination disparity metrics can be employed as volume
253 proxies (Lloyd 2016). Stayton’s (2015) convergence metrics similarly rely on distances
254 from an ordination space, but these can certainly be estimated without ordination and
255 indeed would arguably be superior as they would avoid distorting these distances.
256 However, the directionality bias measures used by Hopkins (2016) do not provide a clear
257 non-ordination alternative. Significantly, though, any ordination-free alternative to
258 generating a phylomorphospace requires ancestral state estimation to be made prior to
259 (i.e., without) ordination. Consequently, only the pre-OASE approaches even allow for
260 these options, further supporting their use over the post-OASE approach.

261 This study joins several others in emphasising the immaturity of our
262 understanding of discrete character evolution. For example, Lloyd (2016) showed that a
263 novel distance metric was in many cases superior to those previously applied in disparity
264 studies. (Directly relevant here as a step in the phylomorphospace pipeline, Figure 2.)
265 Hoyal Cuthill (2015a,b) extended earlier homoplasy metrics (Hoyal Cuthill 2010) to a
266 more comprehensive understanding of how evolution explores the “state space” of
267 discrete characters. This is related to another important concept in discrete character
268 evolution, specifically the rapid “exhaustion” of novel states that appears to be a common
269 pattern across multiple clades (Wagner 2000). This is logically related to the limits of
270 disparity (Oyston et al 2015), and hence is directly relevant to our understanding of
271 phylomorphospaces. For example, these phenomena might serve to explain some
272 distance-from-root patterns generated in an earlier version of this manuscript, where the
273 root morphology is rapidly left behind with subsequent evolution apparently constrained
274 at the “edges” of the hyperdimensional space (see Lloyd 2018). Collectively, these
275 studies show that despite almost 75 years of assembling character-taxon matrices there is

276 much to be revealed from studying morphology in the form of discrete categorical data
277 and further foundational changes can be expected.

278

279 **Conclusion**

280

281 Phylomorphospaces can allow us to consider phylogeny, tempo, and mode
282 simultaneously when inferring morphological evolution from discrete characters.
283 However, different approaches exist to generate such spaces and these can (and do) lead
284 to fundamentally different interpretations of evolutionary history. The results presented
285 here suggest caution be applied when using all of the most common approaches from the
286 literature – whether ancestral states are estimated pre- or post-ordination. More generally,
287 the fact that so much of the result can reflect phylogenetic rather than morphological
288 signal should urge us to be cautious whenever we use phylogeny to “correct” the fossil
289 record. The results shown here also highlight issues related to distortions generated by
290 ordinating non-Euclidean distances into Euclidean spaces and future research should
291 concentrate on developing ordination-free versions of phylomorphospace analyses.
292 Finally, that this particular comparison has not been explored previously further
293 emphasises the immature nature of these methods and the potential for far-reaching
294 foundational improvements to our understanding of morphological evolution as captured
295 by discrete categorical data.

296

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298

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308

309 **Data archiving statement**

310

311 Data for this study are available in the Dryad Digital Repository:
312 <http://datadryad.org/review?doi=doi:10.5061/dryad.1j5h875> [please note that the
313 data for this paper are not yet published and this temporary link should not be
314 shared without the express permission of the author].

315

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397

398 **Figure 1** – A hypothetical phylomorphospace (redrawn from Sidlauskas 2008). Such
399 spaces are typically high-dimensional and thus can never be fully visualised. Here, as is
400 typical, only the first two axes (those containing the most variation) are displayed. Large
401 black circles denote the tip values that are always used to infer the ordination (i.e.,
402 morpho-) space. Smaller grey circles represent estimated ancestral values that may be
403 estimated either prior to (pre-OASE; Brusatte et al 2011), or after the ordination (post-
404 OASE; Stone 2003). Grey lines denote branches of the phylogenetic hypothesis used,
405 thus the phylomorphospace explicitly contains the phylogeny. Disparity (morphological
406 diversity) is reflected in the spread of points in the space, and rates can be inferred from
407 the length of the branches in the space (i.e., these represent the rate numerator). Thus a
408 phylomorphospace allows us to consider phylogeny, disparity, and tempo simultaneously.
409

410 **Figure 2** – Schematic of the two main routes (pipelines) to generating a discrete-
411 character phylomorphospace (modified from Lloyd 2016). The primary difference is

412 whether the phylogenetic hypothesis is introduced prior to (pre-OASE), or after (post-
413 OASE), ordination (dashed vertical line). If introduced prior to ordination, then ancestral
414 estimates are for the discrete characters themselves (and missing tip values can also be
415 estimated – see Figure 4). If introduced after ordination, then ancestral estimates are for
416 the ordination axes (continuous data).

417

418 **Figure 3** – Schematic showing four possible pre-Ordination Ancestral State Estimates
419 (pre-OASE1-4) that result from two binary questions: whether to estimate tips as well as
420 nodes (i.e., to fill missing values or collapse polymorphisms) and whether to estimate all
421 states or just those for which tip data (i.e., direct descendants of that node) are available.
422 An example input tree with six tips (labelled 1-6) and five internal nodes (A-E) is shown
423 at upper left for a single binary character (white or black) with a polymorphism for tip 3
424 and missing data for tips 2 and 4. (Note that missing data is replaced with polymorphisms
425 if estimating all states.) Trees on grey backgrounds represent the underlying marginal
426 likelihoods estimated when using the associated AncStateEstMatrix function in the
427 Claddis package (Lloyd 2016; github.com/graemetlloyd/Claddis), but note that
428 conceptually the same general kinds of estimates could be made using other
429 implementations or optimality criteria (e.g., parsimony, Bayesian). Finally, the lower part
430 of the plot shows the output of estimated tip and node states (Claddis collapses marginal
431 likelihoods to the most likely state, or returns a polymorphism if state likelihoods are
432 exactly equal). Note that the four approaches are numbered from least (pre-OASE1) to
433 most (pre-OASE4) missing values estimated, which can also be thought of as least to
434 most introduced phylogenetic signal. Pre-OASE approaches in the literature correspond
435 to pre-OASE3 (Brusatte et al 2011) or pre-OASE4 (Butler et al 2012), whereas pre-
436 OASE1 and 2 are novel. Additionally, if no polymorphisms are present in the input data
437 then pre-OASE1 and pre-OASE2 are identical.

438

439 **Figure 4** – Primary results comparing six different phylomorphospace approaches
440 applied to the same discrete character-taxon matrix and phylogenetic hypothesis (Brusatte
441 et al 2014). Each “row” of results, from top to bottom, corresponds to: pre-OASE1-4,
442 post-OASE, and the “phylospacspace” control. Each “column” of results, from left to right,
443 corresponds to: 1) scree plots (the distribution of variance across ordination axes; A-F),
444 2) bivariate phylomorphospace plots (G-L; nodes shown as red circles and branches as
445 grey lines), 3) bivariate plots of branch duration (x-axis, logged) and branch length (M-R;
446 points represent individual branches of the tree with heat maps running from one-hundred
447 (top, left), to one-hundredth (bottom, right), times the mean rate, indicated by the dashed
448 red line), and 4) histograms of pairwise convergence values (C_1 metric of Stayton 2015).
449 See text for interpretation of results.

450

451 Lay statement: Palaeontologists are interested in the diversity and tempo of evolutionary
452 change along the branches of the tree of life, but these are typically treated as separate
453 numerical analyses. Here I argue for a statistical technique that allows us to treat these
454 aspects of evolution simultaneously, allowing a more complete understanding of how
455 evolution has explored the possibilities of physical form. Specifically, I compare five
456 different approaches, two novel to this study, showing that the three pre-existing

457 approaches may contain biases that stem from a different signal (evolutionary
 458 relationships) than we intend to capture (the exploration of physical form).

459

460 **Table 1** – Comparative summary statistics of the six phylomorphospace approaches
 461 applied to the empirical case study (Brusatte et al 2014). Phylogenetic signal was
 462 measured by correlating (Pearson’s r; data were normally distributed) the phylogenetic
 463 distances between tips (in millions of years) with the distance between those tips in the
 464 complete ordination space (i.e., using all axes). Rate homogeneity was measured by
 465 correlating (Kendall’s tau; data had a clear skew and contained ties) branch lengths in the
 466 complete ordination space with branch durations (in millions of years). In both cases the
 467 raw data were rescaled by dividing through by the phyloSPACE value and converting to
 468 percentages. Convergent evolution was measured using the C_1 metric of Stayton (2015)
 469 across all pairwise tip-to-tip comparisons and using the complete ordination space (i.e.,
 470 all axes).

471

Phylomorphospace approach	Phylogenetic signal		Rate homogeneity		Convergent evolution
	Raw	Rescaled	Raw	Rescaled	Mean pairwise C_1
Pre-OASE1	0.210	25.0%	0.217	26.3%	0.075
Pre-OASE2	0.224	26.5%	0.221	26.8%	0.074
Pre-OASE3	0.357	42.3%	0.392	47.6%	0.047
Pre-OASE4	0.604	71.7%	0.357	43.3%	0.028
Post-OASE	0.432	51.2%	0.513	62.3%	0.000
PhyloSPACE	0.843	100.0%	0.824	100.0%	0.012

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