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*Letter - Methods*

## **A Comparison of Methods for Estimating Substitution Rates from Ancient DNA Sequence Data**

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## 17 **Abstract**

18 The estimation of evolutionary rates from ancient DNA sequences can be negatively affected by  
19 among-lineage rate variation and non-random sampling. Using a simulation study, we compared the  
20 performance of three phylogenetic methods for inferring evolutionary rates from time-structured  
21 data sets: root-to-tip regression, least-squares dating, and Bayesian inference. Our results show that  
22 these methods produce reliable estimates when the substitution rate is high, rate variation is low,  
23 and samples of similar ages are not phylogenetically clustered. The interaction of these factors is  
24 particularly important for Bayesian estimation of evolutionary rates. We also inferred rates for time-  
25 structured mitogenomic data sets from six vertebrate species. Root-to-tip regression estimated a  
26 different rate from least-squares dating and Bayesian inference for mitogenomes from the horse,  
27 which has high levels of among-lineage rate variation. We recommend using multiple methods of  
28 inference and testing data for temporal signal, among-lineage rate variation, and phylo-temporal  
29 clustering.  
30

## 31 **Introduction**

32 Estimating the rate of molecular evolution is a key step in inferring evolutionary timescales and  
33 demographic dynamics from genetic data. Evolutionary rates can be estimated using time-structured  
34 genetic data sets, in which samples have been drawn at distinct points in time. In these cases, the  
35 molecular clock can be calibrated using the ages of ancient DNA sequences (Li et al. 1988;  
36 Rambaut 2000), as estimated by radiometric dating or stratigraphic correlation. Rates inferred from  
37 time-structured DNA data are essential to understanding evolutionary processes on short timescales  
38 (de Bruyn et al. 2011). Here, we examine some critical factors that can negatively affect these  
39 estimates of rates.

40 There are several different methods for estimating substitution rates from time-structured  
41 sequence data (Rieux & Balloux 2016). The simplest method is based on linear regression of root-  
42 to-tip (RTT) distances, measured in expected substitutions per site, against the ages of the  
43 corresponding sequences (Buonagurio et al. 1986). The slope of the regression line provides an  
44 estimate of the substitution rate. Two key drawbacks of this method are that the regression  
45 necessarily assumes a strict clock and that data points are not phylogenetically independent as some  
46 branches contribute to multiple root-to-tip measurements (Drummond et al. 2003; Rambaut et al.  
47 2016). Least-squares dating (LSD) is another computationally efficient method that can estimate  
48 rates from time-structured data (To et al. 2016). It assumes a strict clock and fits a curve to the data  
49 using a normal approximation of the Langley-Fitch algorithm (Langley & Fitch 1974). This  
50 approximation is somewhat robust to departures from rate homogeneity among lineages. A third  
51 method is Bayesian phylogenetic analysis that can be used for joint estimation of substitution rates  
52 and the tree (Drummond et al. 2002). Bayesian methods can account for phylogenetic uncertainty  
53 and rate variation across branches, allow the error in sequence ages to be taken into account, and  
54 enable the co-estimation of evolutionary and demographic parameters of interest (Drummond et al.  
55 2002). However, Bayesian analyses of time-structured sequence data have typically yielded very  
56 high rate estimates (Ho et al. 2007). Some of the statistical causes of high rates include tree  
57 imbalance (Duchêne et al. 2015a), closely related samples having the same age (Murray et al. 2015;  
58 Duchêne et al. 2015b), and extreme violations of the demographic assumptions (Navascués and  
59 Emerson 2009). The direction of bias is not always the same and depends on the pattern and  
60 magnitude of among-lineage rate variation (Wertheim et al. 2012).

61 As a particular form of time-structured data, ancient DNA presents unique analytical  
62 challenges compared to other time-structured data such as pathogen sequences. For instance,  
63 ancient sequences are typically scarce so that most of a data set is composed of contemporaneous  
64 sequences. The age of the root of ancient DNA studies is much older than in studies of pathogens,  
65 meaning that rates are more likely to vary between lineages. In this study, we examine two potential  
66 sources of error in rate estimates from time-structured sequence data: complex patterns of rate  
67 heterogeneity among lineages and sampling schemes in which samples with similar ages are also

68 closely related. We investigate these factors in a simulation study and compare rate estimates made  
69 using three different methods from time-structured mitogenomic sequences.  
70

## 71 **Results and Discussion**

72 We simulated the evolution of DNA sequences under 12 different treatments, reflecting common  
73 evolutionary conditions many ancient DNA data sets. These treatments represented combinations of  
74 high ( $10^{-7}$  subs/site/year) and low ( $10^{-8}$  subs/site/year) substitution rates, three levels of among-  
75 lineage rate variation (high, medium, and low), and two levels of phylogenetic clustering (high and  
76 low). In general, the three methods of analysis (RTT regression, LSD, and Bayesian inference)  
77 produced more accurate estimates for sequence data produced by simulation using a high rate than  
78 with a low rate (Figure 1). The spread of estimates from each of the six high-rate treatments across  
79 all three methods was relatively narrow in most cases. The Bayesian median estimates were  
80 accurate, with a small spread, for all sequence data that had been produced with a high rate.

81 For sequence data simulated with a low rate, the mean estimates generally had a small spread  
82 except when there were high levels of phylogenetic clustering (see below). LSD mildly  
83 underestimated the rate for these data sets. RTT regression produced mean rate estimates with a  
84 greater spread for the data sets that had evolved with a low rate.

85 The presence of among-lineage rate variation increased the spread of mean rate estimates  
86 from sequence data that had evolved with a high rate. However, this rate variation did not have a  
87 measurable impact on the rate estimates made using RTT regression and Bayesian inference from  
88 the sequences that had evolved with a low rate.

89 Unexpectedly, high levels of phylogenetic clustering of sequences of similar ages were not  
90 associated with systematic over- or underestimation of the rate. Previous studies have shown that  
91 such phylogenetic clustering could obscure the temporal signal as assessed by the date  
92 randomization test (Duchêne et al. 2015b). We found that phylo-temporal clustering did not have  
93 much impact on the rate estimates from data sets that had evolved with a high rate, but tended to  
94 increase the spread of the mean estimates from the slowly evolving sequences. Notably, Bayesian  
95 inference was accurate and precise for data sets that had low levels of phylo-temporal clustering,  
96 regardless of whether they had evolved with a high or low rate.

97 The interaction between low rate, high among-lineage rate variation, and high phylo-temporal  
98 clustering is apparent in the Bayesian rate estimates (Figure 2a). This is consistent with the results  
99 of previous studies of these individual factors, including the effects of extreme rate variation among  
100 lineages (Wertheim et al. 2012) and phylo-temporal clustering (Duchêne et al. 2015b; Murray et al.  
101 2015). RTT regression and LSD appear to be more robust to the interaction of these three  
102 unfavourable factors, although it is evident that a low rate, high among-lineage rate variation, and  
103 high phylo-temporal clustering all contribute to estimation error (Figure 1).

104 The data sets that yielded erroneous rate estimates when analysed using Bayesian inference  
105 tended to have phylograms (trees with branch lengths proportional to genetic change) with a high  
106 ratio of internal to terminal branch lengths (Figure 2b). These trees are generally shorter than those  
107 with short internal and long terminal branches, such that there is less information from which to  
108 estimate the rate. We found a positive correlation between phylogenetic stemminess and the spread  
109 of median posterior rate estimates.

110 We also used the three methods to analyse six time-structured mitogenomic data sets, from  
111 Adélie penguin, brown bear, dog, horse, modern human, and woolly mammoth. All three methods  
112 produced rate estimates that were consistent with one another when the sequences had evolved  
113 according to a strict clock (Figure 3). Rate estimates were largely congruent with one another even  
114 when the data showed evidence of among-lineage rate variation, except for horse mitogenomes for  
115 which the rate estimate from RTT regression fell outside the 95% credibility interval of the  
116 Bayesian estimate.  
117

## 118 **Conclusions**

119 Our study has shown that three common methods of rate estimation from time-structured data  
120 produce robust estimates of substitution rates under most evolutionary conditions. Of the three  
121 methods, RTT regression is useful beyond its role as a ‘sanity check’: it produced rate estimates  
122 similar to those of LSD and Bayesian inference for four of the six mitogenomic data sets and  
123 performed well in our simulation study. RTT regression is also useful in informing model selection  
124 because it can be used to detect clocklike evolution, based on the fit to the data. Least-squares  
125 dating is particularly valuable for analyses of large data sets, for which the computational demands  
126 of a Bayesian phylogenetic analysis would be prohibitive (e.g. Mourad et al. 2015). It is remarkably  
127 robust to violations of the strict clock and can handle data with appreciable levels of among-lineage  
128 rate variation (To et al. 2016).

129 Our results also reveal that the three methods respond differently to the potentially  
130 confounding impacts of among-lineage rate variation and phylo-temporal clustering of sequences.  
131 This highlights the value of using all three methods to analyse time-structured sequence data.  
132 Increasing the reliability of rate estimates will lead to a more accurate understanding of  
133 demographic and evolutionary processes on recent timescales.

134

## 135 **Materials and Methods**

### 136 **Simulations**

137 We simulated genealogies of 100 tips in BEAST 2 (Bouckaert et al. 2014), under a constant  
138 population size and conditions that resemble ancient DNA studies of Pleistocene vertebrates. In all  
139 cases, the root height was fixed to 500,000 years and half of the tips corresponded to present-day  
140 samples. The ages of the other 50 tips were randomly distributed between the present and 50,000  
141 years ago (i.e. 10% of the age of the root). Trees contained two scenarios of phylo-temporal  
142 clustering, with 100 replicates each: high clustering was simulated by making all present-day  
143 samples form a monophyletic group, whereas low clustering was simulated by only making half of  
144 the present-day samples form a monophyletic group.

145 Using the simulated genealogies and the program NELSI (Ho et al. 2015), we simulated the  
146 evolution of nucleotide sequences while varying the mean substitution rate and the degree of  
147 among-lineage rate variation under scenarios resembling time-structured mitogenomic data sets.  
148 Simulations were performed using two substitution rates that cover the range of rates in most  
149 molecular dating studies using ancient DNA: a high rate of  $10^{-7}$  and low rate of  $10^{-8}$  subs/site/year.  
150 For each of the two rate schemes, we simulated three scenarios of among-lineage rate variation  
151 under a white-noise model (Lepage et al. 2007), with variance along each branch of 0.1% (low), 1%  
152 (medium), and 10% (high) of the expected number of substitutions. Sequence evolution was  
153 simulated according to the HKY+ $\Gamma$  substitution model using the R package phangorn (Schliep et al.  
154 2011) for each of the 100 tree replicates in the 12 different scenarios. All sequences had lengths of  
155 15,000 nucleotides, to reflect the approximate size of many vertebrate mitogenomes.

156 For the 100 data sets in each simulation treatment, we used three methods to estimate the  
157 substitution rate: root-to-tip regression in TempEst 1.5 (Rambaut et al. 2016), least-squares fitting  
158 in LSD 0.3 (To et al. 2016), and Bayesian phylogenetic inference in BEAST 1.8.3 (Drummond et  
159 al. 2012). We performed a regression of root-to-tip distances against sample ages in TempEst for  
160 each data set. Substitution rates were also estimated in LSD, with the ages of the samples used to  
161 inform the least-squares fitting algorithm. We performed Bayesian phylogenetic analysis of each  
162 data set using BEAST. For the substitution rate, we used a continuous-time Markov chain reference  
163 prior (Ferreira & Suchard 2008).

164

## 165 Mitochondrial Genomes

166 We used the three methods to analyse six time-structured mitogenomic data sets (Table S1). To  
167 infer phylograms for TempEst and LSD, we used maximum likelihood in RAxML 8.2.4  
168 (Stamatakis 2014) with the HKY+ $\Gamma$  model of nucleotide substitution. In each case, a rapid  
169 bootstrapping analysis with 100 replicates was followed by a search for the best-scoring tree.  
170 Outgroup sequences were included in order to allow the position of the root to be estimated (see  
171 Table 1), but were pruned from the tree for subsequent analyses of substitution rates.

172 For each data set, we checked for temporal structure using a date-randomization test  
173 (Ramsden et al. 2009). In this test, the sample ages are randomly reassigned to the sequences and a  
174 rate is re-estimated. This is repeated several times to generate a set of rate estimates from date-  
175 randomized data sets. A data set is considered to have adequate temporal structure if its rate  
176 estimate differs from those obtained from the date-randomized data.

177 The data used here is available from <https://github.com/kjuntong/aDNAratesproject>  
178

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296



## 297 **Figure legends**

298

299 **FIG. 1.** Estimates of substitution rates from sequence data produced under 12 different simulation  
300 conditions. Data were analysed using Bayesian inference in BEAST, least-squares dating in LSD,  
301 and root-to-tip regression in TempEst. Numbers on each panel indicate the proportion of estimates  
302 that are above the true simulated rate. Solid horizontal line indicates the true rate. Dashed horizontal  
303 lines indicate half a degree of magnitude above and below the true rate.

304

305 **FIG. 2.** (a) Precision of Bayesian estimates of substitution rates across 12 simulation conditions, as  
306 measured by the width of the 95% credibility interval of the estimate divided by the rate used for  
307 simulation. One hundred data sets were produced by simulation under distinct evolutionary  
308 conditions and analysed using BEAST. (b) Relationship between phylogenetic stemminess and the  
309 error of rate estimate according to Bayesian inference. Stemminess corresponds to ratio of internal  
310 to terminal branch lengths.

311

312 **FIG. 3.** Estimates of substitution rates from six time-structured mitogenomic data sets. Bayesian  
313 estimates are indicated by their median and 95% credibility intervals. Main publications from which  
314 the sequence data were obtained: Adelié penguin, Subramanian et al. (2009); brown bear, Miller et  
315 al. (2012); dog, Thalmann et al. (2013); horse, Lippold et al. (2011), Achilli et al. (2012), and  
316 Orlando et al. (2013); modern human, Brotherton et al. (2013); and woolly mammoth, Gilbert et al.  
317 (2008). Details of the data sets are given in Supplementary Table S1.

318

319

## 320 **Supplementary figure legends**

321

322

323 **FIG. S1.** Diagrammatic representations of the different treatments investigated in our simulation  
324 study. Simulations of sequence evolution were performed using (a) two different substitution rates;  
325 (b) three levels of among-lineage rate variation; and (c) two levels of phylo-temporal clustering.

326

327

328 **FIG. S2.** Pairwise comparisons of rate estimates from root-to-tip regression in TempEst, least-  
329 square dating in LSD, and Bayesian inference in BEAST. The better the points fit along the solid  
330 linear lines, the more congruent one method is with the other. Dashed lines indicate a line of best fit  
331 for the estimates. The two distinct clouds of points within each panel represent the high rate and  
332 low rate estimates. Proportional difference and bias were calculated as in Duchêne et al. (2016).  
333 Proportional difference is the difference in the estimates between two methods, divided by the rate  
334 of the first rate estimate  $((e_1 - e_2) / e_1)$ . Bias is the proportion of data sets for which the estimate  
335 along the x-axis is greater than that along the y-axis.

336

337

338 **FIG. S3.** Relationships between phylogenetic stemminess and estimation error for 12 simulation  
339 treatments across three methods: (a) root-to-tip regression in TempEst, (b) least-squares dating in  
340 LSD, and (c) Bayesian inference in BEAST. Solid dark lines indicate true simulated rates. Dashed  
341 lines indicate half a degree of magnitude above or below true rates. Light grey lines indicates lines  
342 of best fit for the estimates.

343

344

345

346 **Supplementary Tables**

347 **Table S1.** Six time-structured mitogenomic data sets analysed in this study.

348

Species	Scientific name	Tips	Length (nt)	Age range (years)	Outgroup	Main sources <sup>a</sup>
Adelie penguin	<i>Pygoscelis adeliae</i>	20	14,198	0–44,000	<i>Pygoscelis antarctica</i>	1
Brown/polar bear	<i>Ursus arctos</i> & <i>U. maritimus</i>	32	14,609	0–122,500	<i>Ursus americanus</i>	2
Dog	<i>Canis familiaris</i>	138	14,596	0–36,000	<i>Canis latrans</i>	3
Horse	<i>Equus caballus</i>	167	14,910	0–42,577	<i>Equus asinus</i>	4–6
Modern human	<i>Homo sapiens</i>	64	14,889	0–7,141	<i>Homo neanderthalensis</i>	7
Woolly mammoth	<i>Mammuthus primigenius</i>	65	14,951	12,210–46,455	<i>Elephas maximus</i>	8

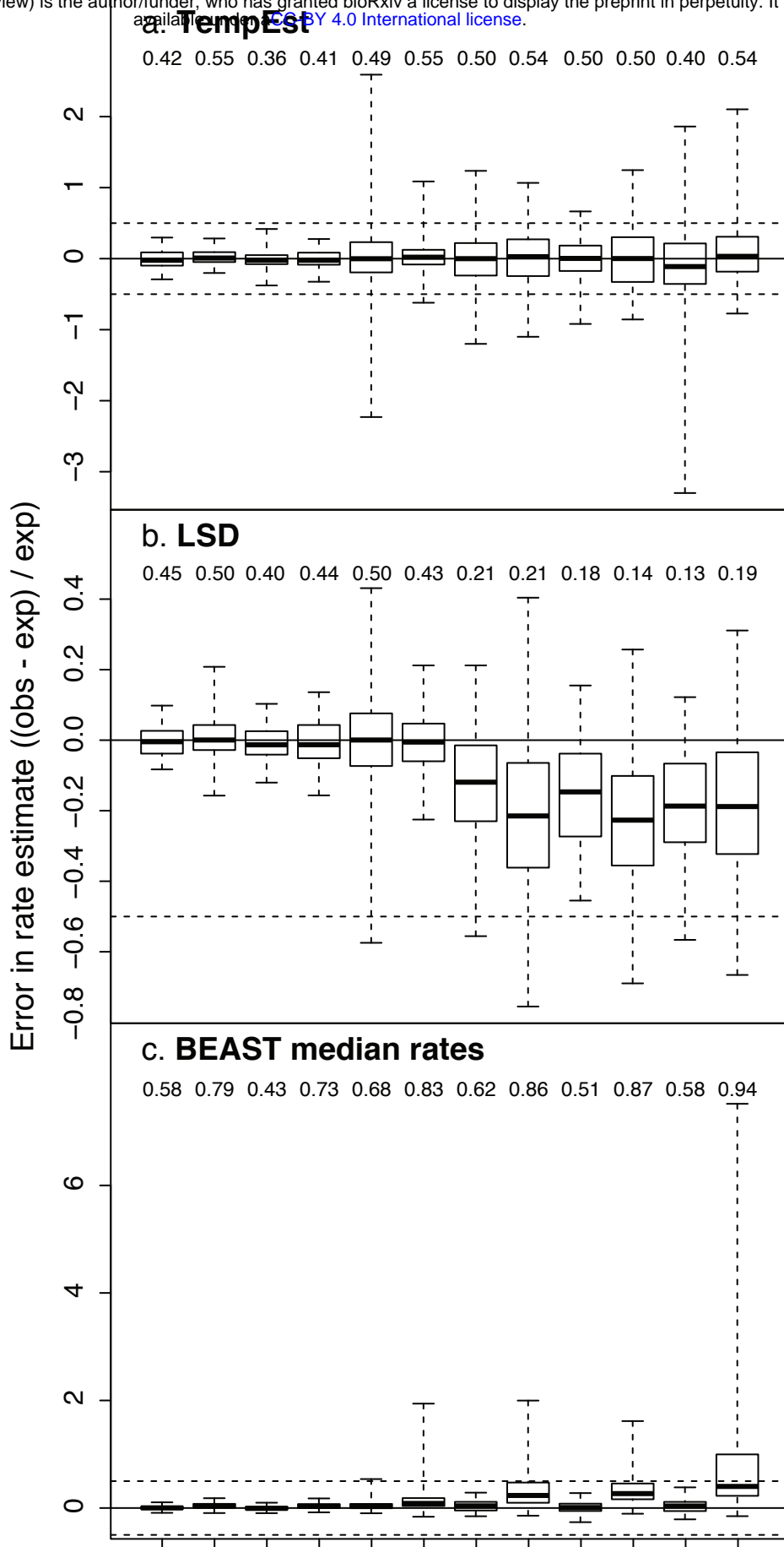
349

350 <sup>a</sup>Main publications from which the sequence data were obtained: (1) Subramanian *et al.* (2009); (2)  
 351 Miller *et al.* (2012); (3) Thalmann *et al.* (2013); (4) Lippold *et al.* (2011); (5) Achilli *et al.* (2012);  
 352 (6) Orlando *et al.* (2013); (7) Brotherton *et al.* (2013); (8) Gilbert *et al.* (2008).

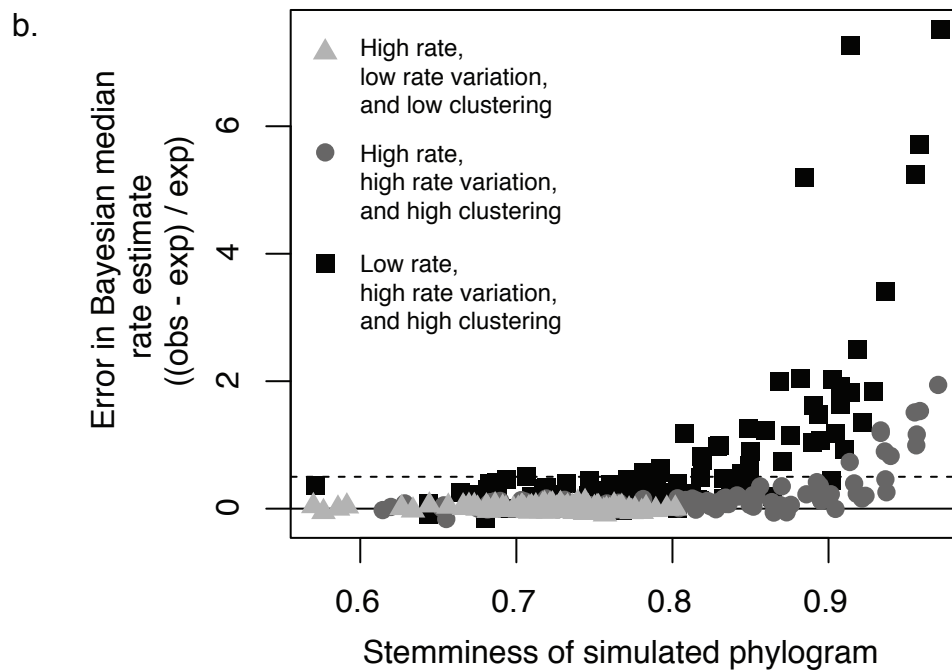
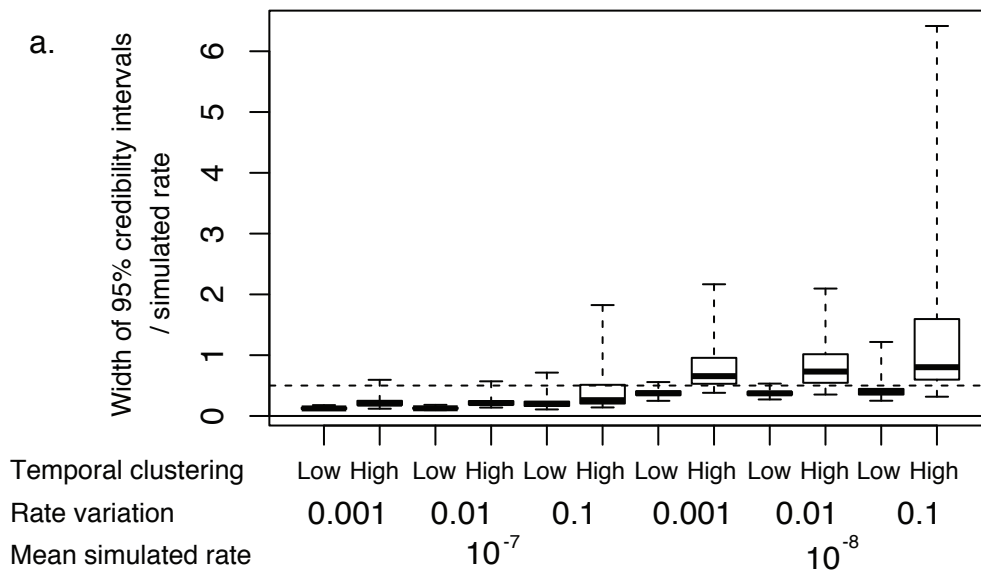
353 **Table S2.** Estimates of substitution rates for six time-structured mitogenomic data sets.  
354

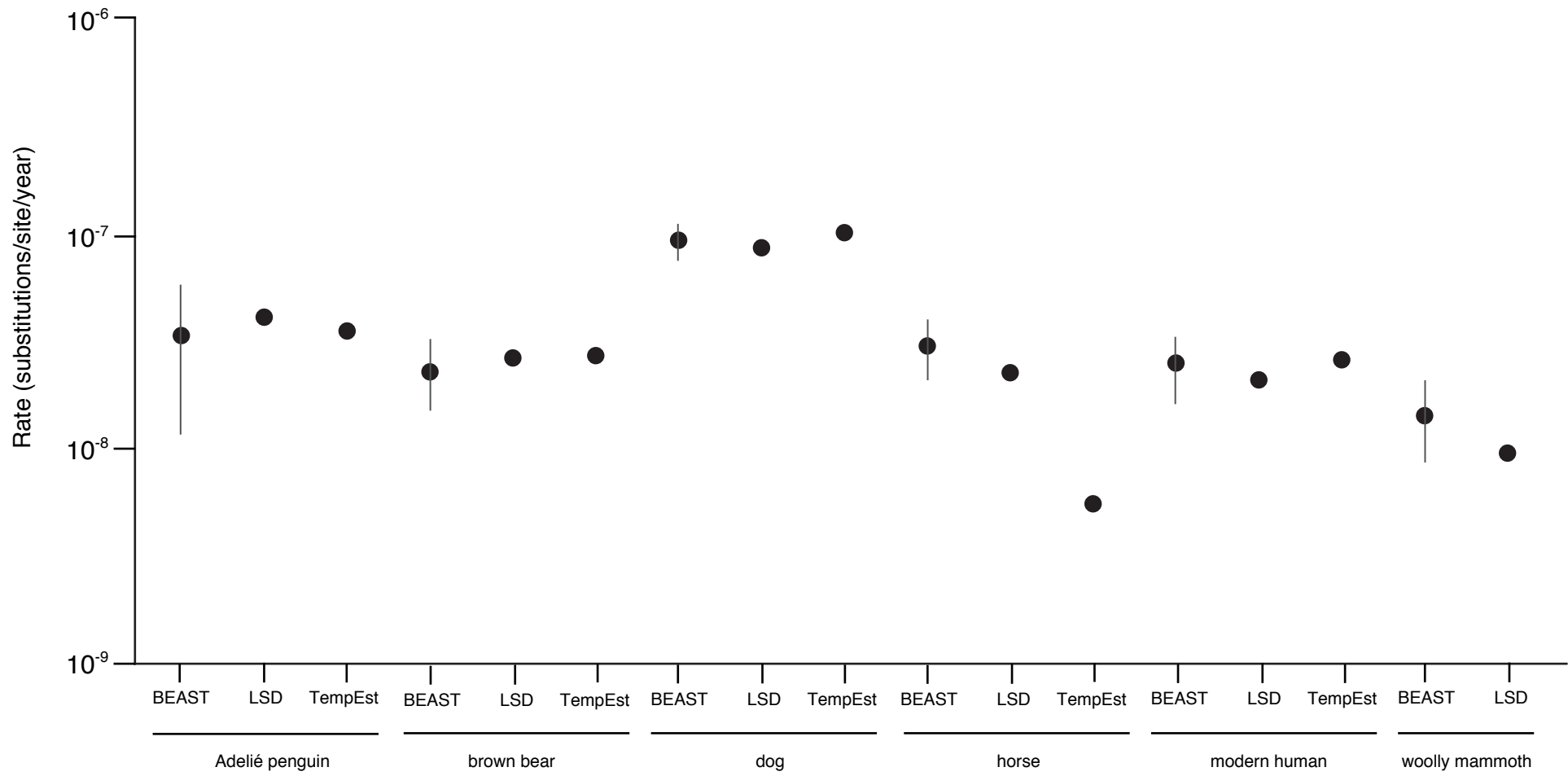
Species	Rate estimate (subs/site/year)		
	Root-to-tip regression <sup>a</sup>	Least-squares dating <sup>b</sup>	Bayesian inference <sup>c</sup>
Adelie penguin	$3.54 \times 10^{-8}$	$4.10 \times 10^{-8}$	$3.37 \times 10^{-8}$ (1.16 — $5.86 \times 10^{-8}$ )
Brown/polar bear	$2.72 \times 10^{-8}$	$2.65 \times 10^{-8}$	$2.28 \times 10^{-8}$ (1.5 — $3.22 \times 10^{-8}$ )
Dog	$1.01 \times 10^{-7}$	$8.60 \times 10^{-8}$	$9.32 \times 10^{-8}$ ( $7.4 \times 10^{-8}$ — $1.11 \times 10^{-7}$ )
Horse	$5.58 \times 10^{-9}$	$2.26 \times 10^{-8}$	$3.01 \times 10^{-8}$ (2.07 — $4.02 \times 10^{-8}$ )
Modern human	$2.6 \times 10^{-8}$	$2.1 \times 10^{-8}$	$2.51 \times 10^{-8}$ (1.62 — $3.35 \times 10^{-8}$ )
Woolly mammoth	n/a	$9.59 \times 10^{-8}$	$1.43 \times 10^{-8}$ ( $8.74 \times 10^{-9}$ — $2.07 \times 10^{-8}$ )

355  
356 <sup>a</sup> Root-to-tip regression estimates obtained using TempEst (Rambaut et al. 2016); <sup>b</sup> Least-squares  
357 dating estimates obtained using LSD 0.3 (To et al. 2016); <sup>c</sup> Bayesian inference estimates  
358 obtained using BEAST 1.8.3 (Drummond et al. 2012); median values are provided with 95%  
359 credibility intervals detailed within brackets.



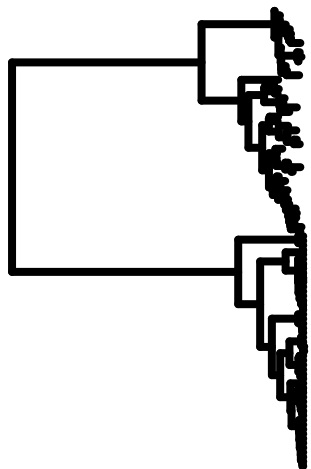
Temporal clustering	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High
Rate variation (% expected no. of substitutions)	0.001		0.01		0.1		0.001		0.01		0.1	
Mean simulated rate (subs/site/year)	$10^{-7}$						$10^{-8}$					



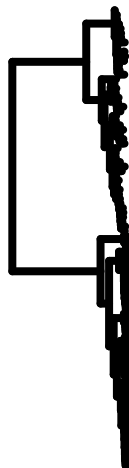


a.

$10^{-7}$

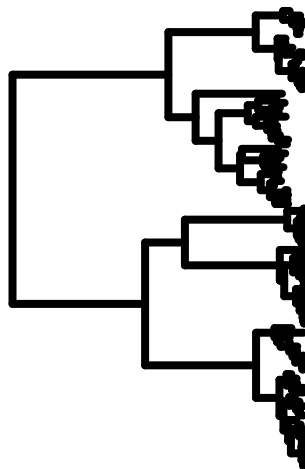


$10^{-8}$

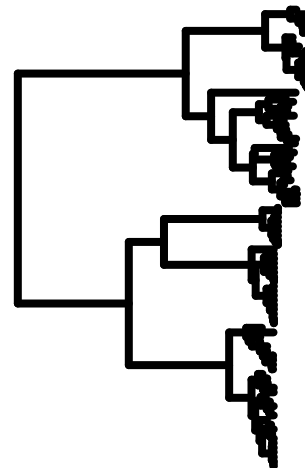


b.

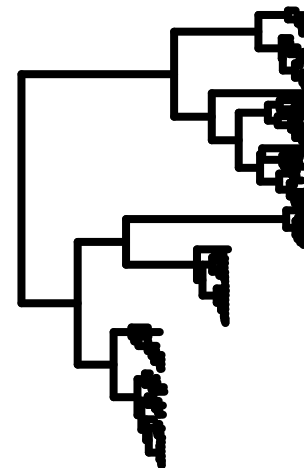
0.001



0.01

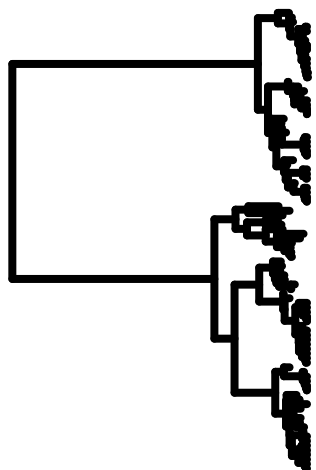


0.1

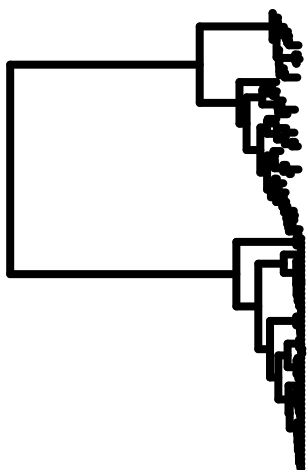


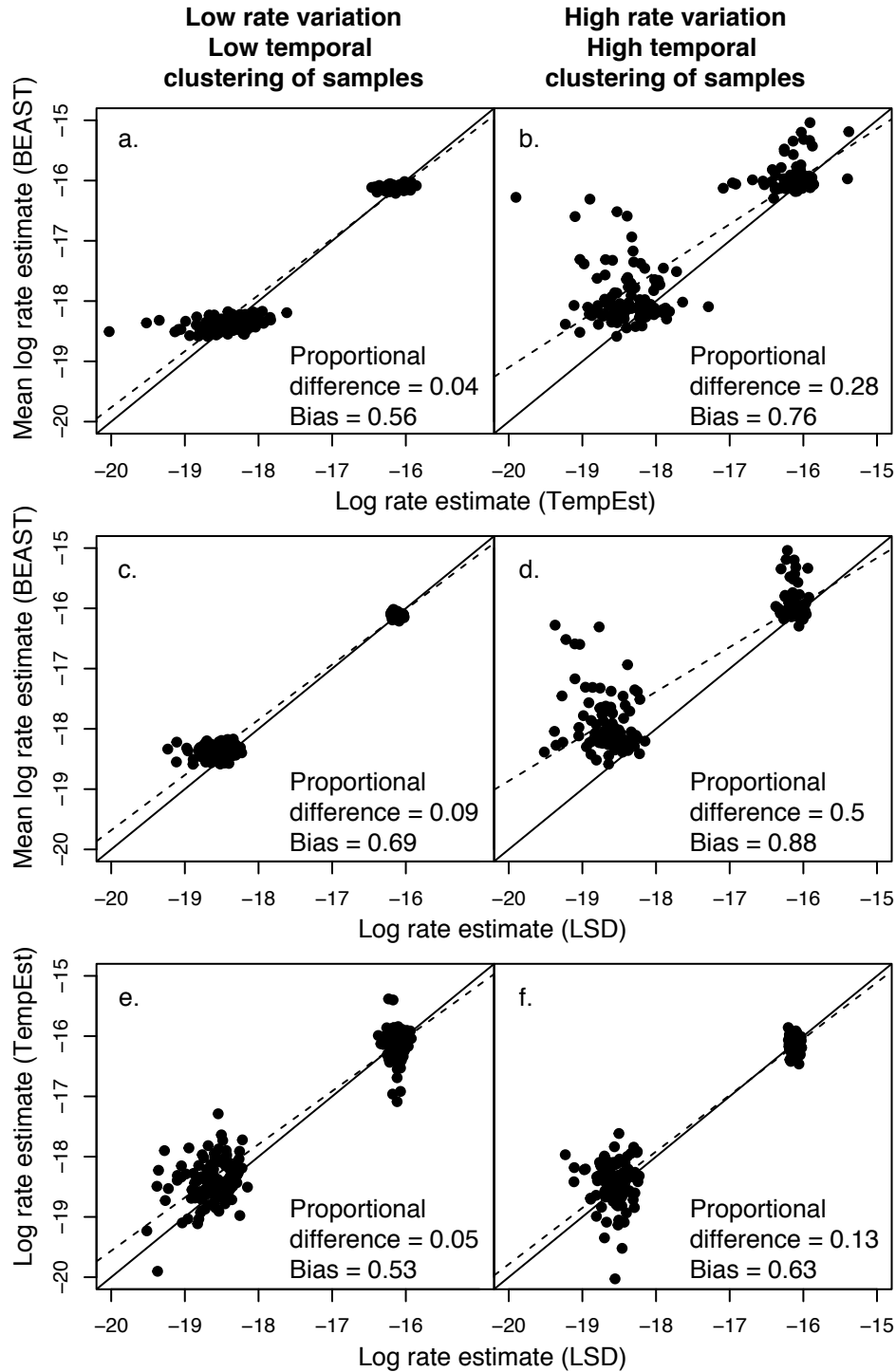
c.

Low



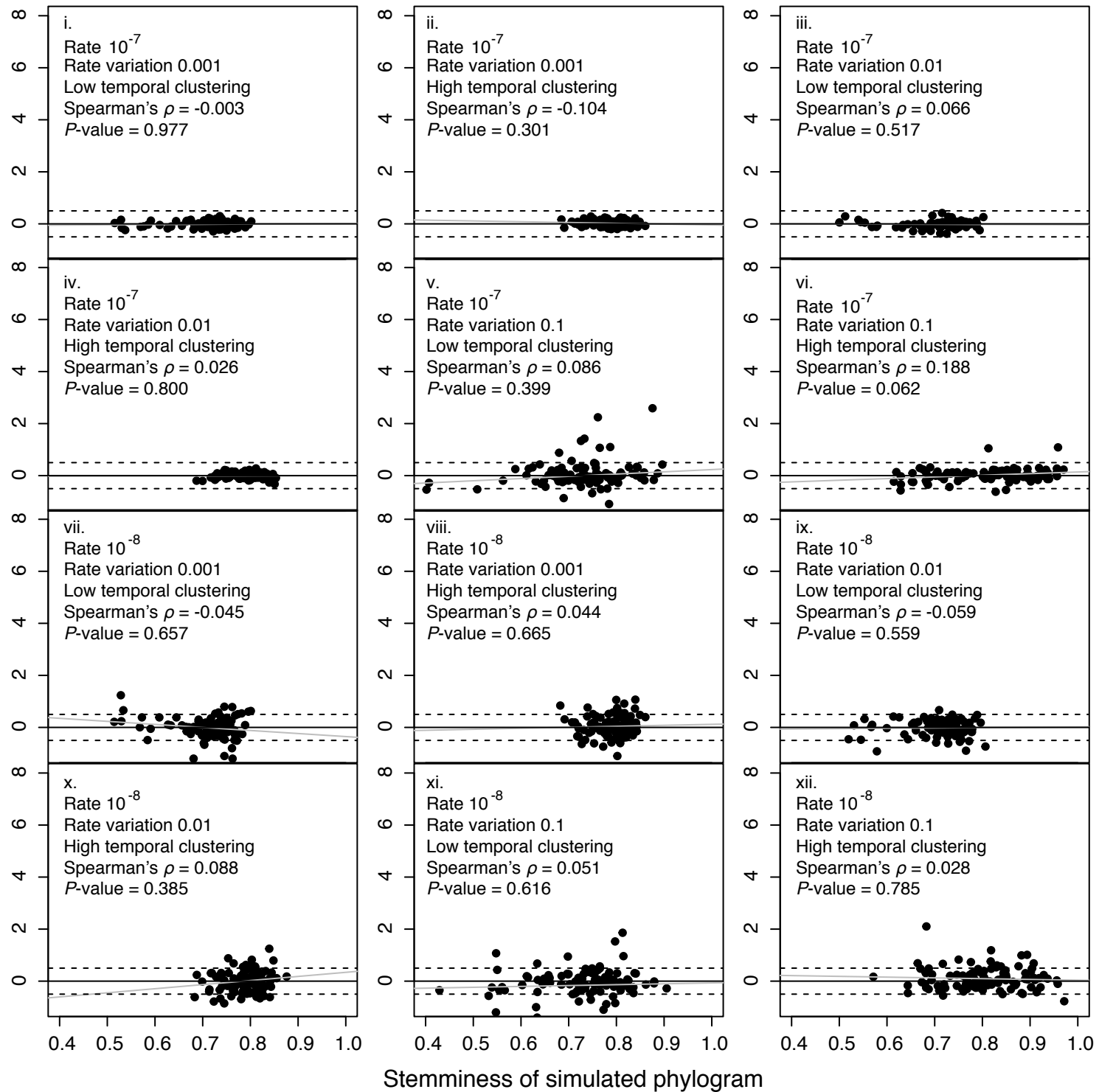
High





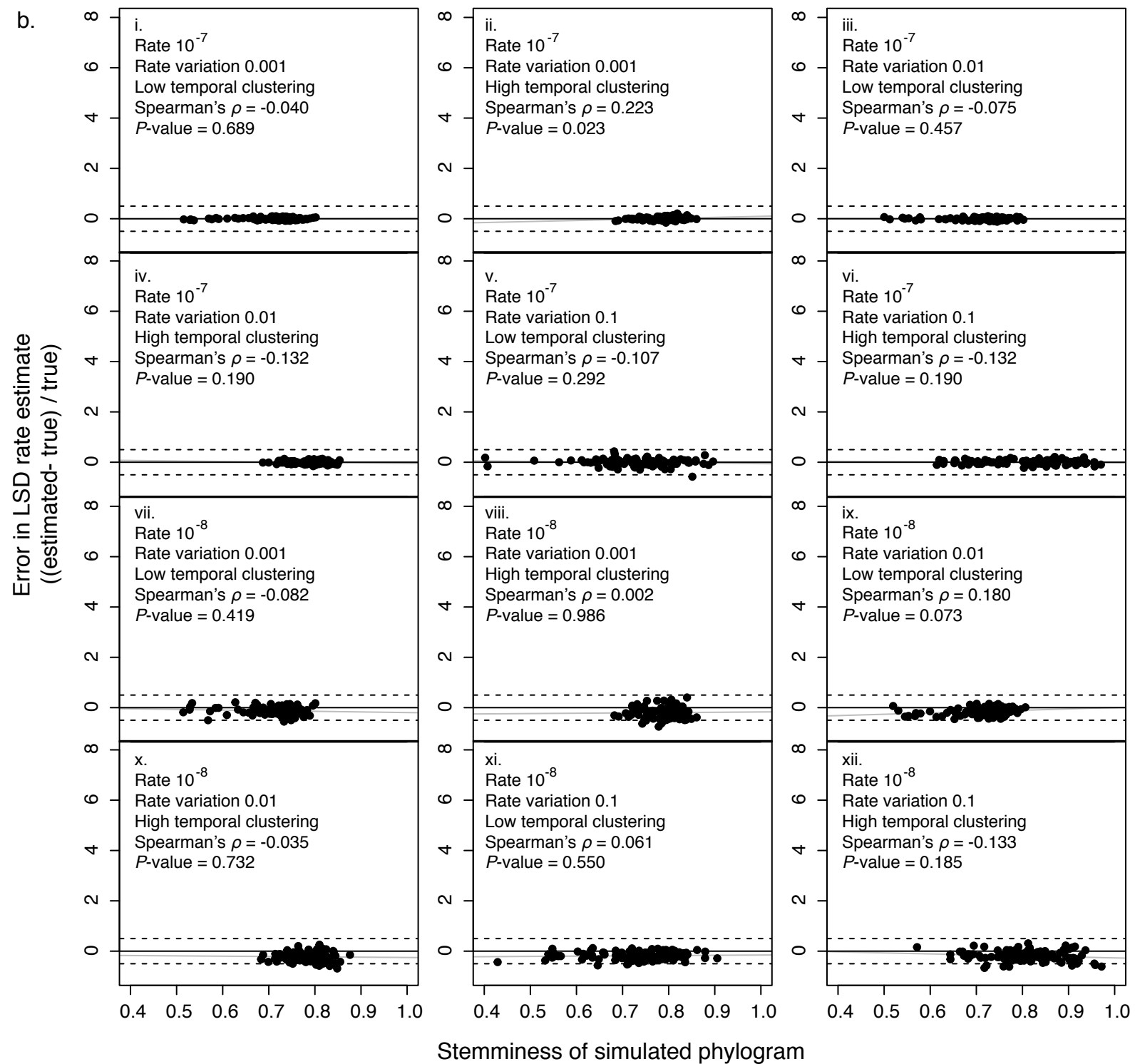


a.  
Error in TempEst rate estimate  
((estimated- true) / true)



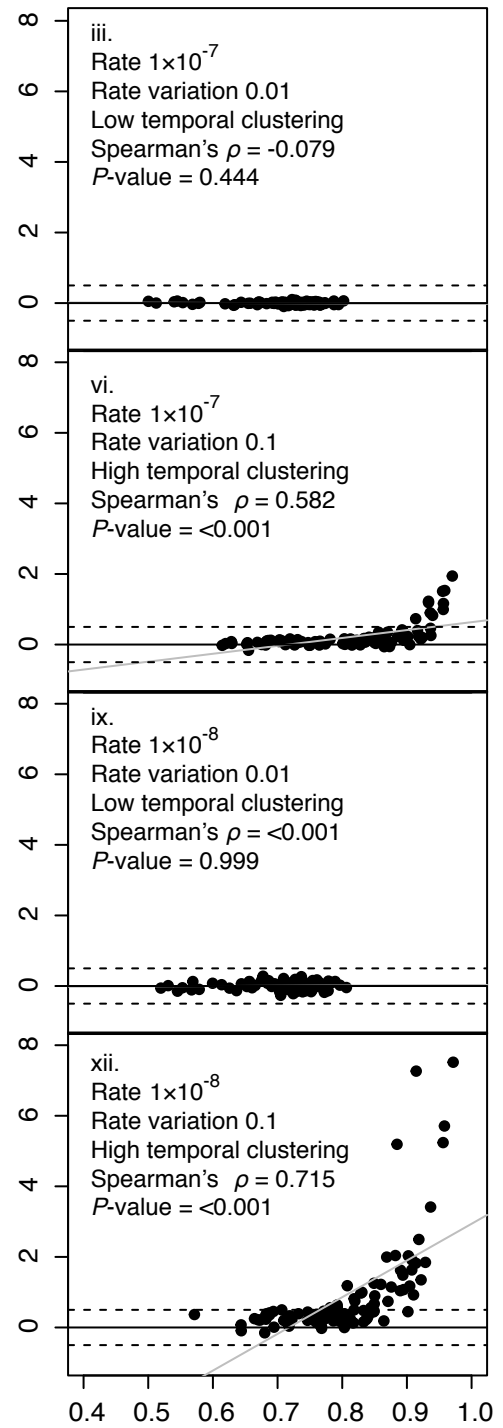
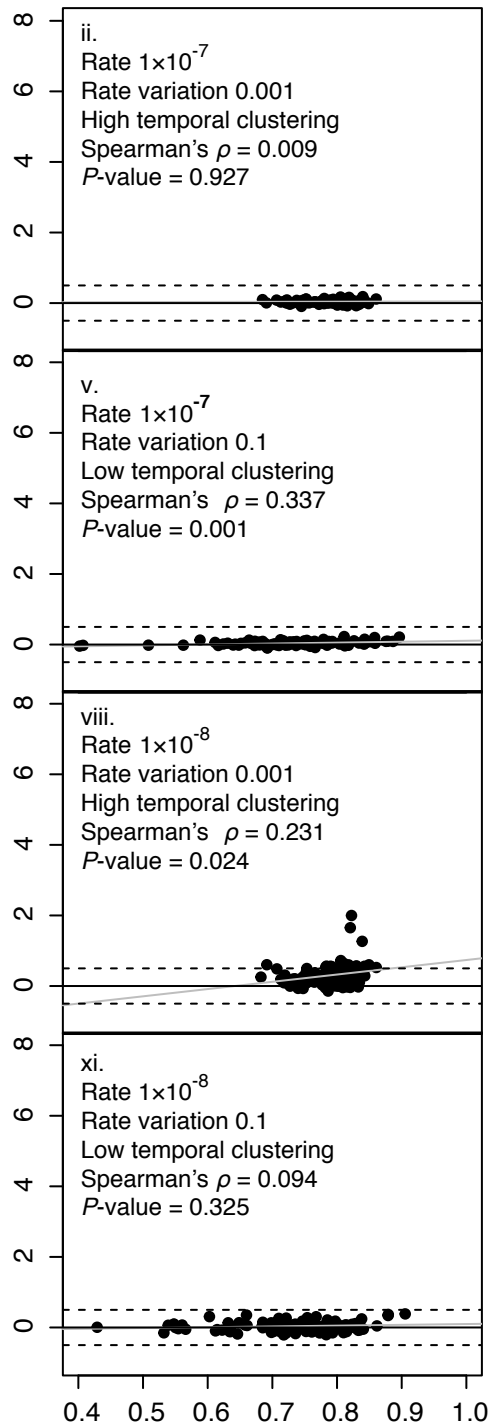
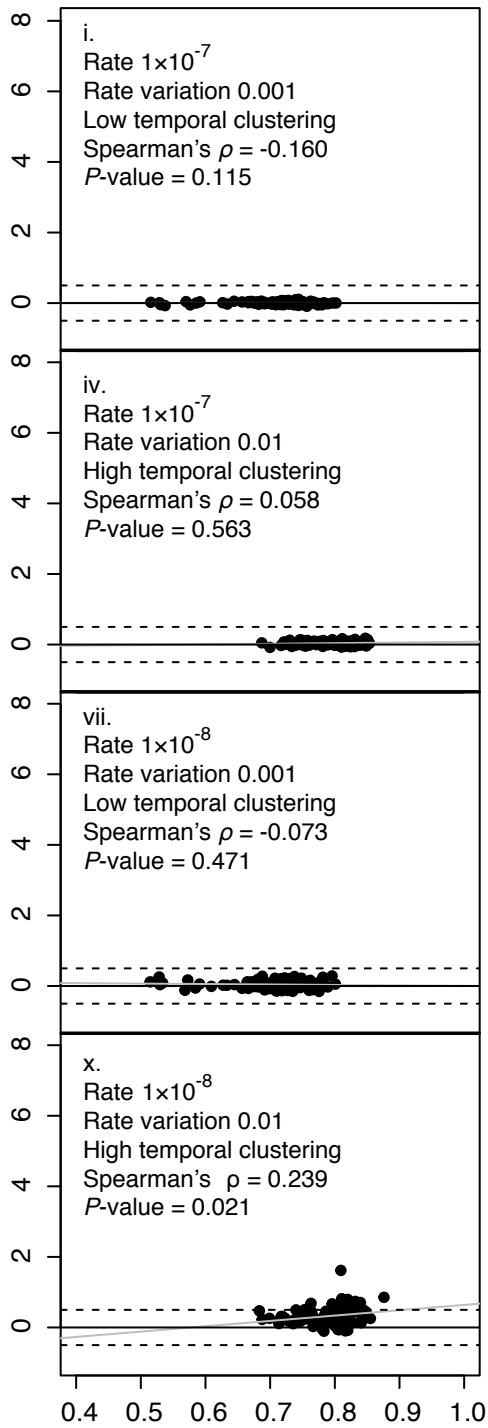
Stemminess of simulated phylogram

b.



c.

Error in median BEAST  
rate estimate  
((estimated - true) / true)



Stemminess of simulated phylogram