

The Multispecies Coalescent in Space and Time

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Abstract–

A key distinction between species tree inference under the multi-species coalescent model (MSC), and the inference of gene trees in sliding windows along a genome, is in the effect of genetic linkage. Whereas the MSC explicitly assumes genealogies to be unlinked, i.e., statistically independent, genealogies located close together on genomes are spatially auto-correlated. Here we use tree sequence simulations with recombination to explore the effects of species tree parameters on spatial patterns of linkage among genealogies. We decompose coalescent time units to demonstrate differential effects of generation time and effective population size on spatial coalescent patterns, and we define a new metric, "phylogenetic linkage," for measuring the rate of decay of phylogenetic similarity by comparison to distances among unlinked genealogies. Finally, we provide a simple example where accounting for phylogenetic linkage in sliding window analyses improves local gene tree inference.

0.1 Introduction–

The multispecies coalescent (MSC) is a model for inferring a phylogenetic tree from a distribution of sampled genealogies – or in practice, a distribution of empirical gene trees inferred from multi-locus genetic data (Maddison, 1997; Maddison & Knowles, 2006; Degnan & Rosenberg, 2009). By integrating over genealogical variation the MSC improves estimation of both tree topologies and divergence times, in addition to providing estimates of other demographic parameters of interest, such as population sizes (Edwards & Beerli, 2000; Fang *et al.*, 2020). Its influence on phylogenetics has been broad and pervasive, as is evident in the many extensions that have been developed for incorporating the MSC into studies of gene duplication and loss (Rasmussen & Kellis, 2012), introgression (Yu *et al.*, 2011), and even character evolution (Guerrero & Hahn, 2018). As we approach one decade since the publication of the first volume of *Estimating Species Trees* (Knowles & Kubatko, 2011) it is valuable to re-examine the MSC, and its assumptions, to ask how we can best approach new challenges and opportunities in the coming era of ubiquitous whole genome data sets. One area where we believe the MSC has great potential is in improving the inference of local genealogical variation across whole genomes.

A key distinction between species tree inference under the MSC and the inference of genealogies sequentially distributed across genomes is the effect of genetic linkage. The MSC explicitly assumes that genealogies are unlinked, i.e., statistically independent, whereas genealogies distributed across a contiguous genomic region are not independent, and are expected to be spatially auto-correlated. This correlation (linkage disequilibrium) decays over time as recombination causes samples within different genomic regions to trace back to different sampled ancestors (Hudson & Kaplan, 1988). While this decay function has been well studied in the context of single populations (McVean & Cardin, 2005), its effect on the similarity of genealogies constrained by a species tree model is poorly understood, including the influence of species tree parameters. Recent algorithmic advances have now made it possible to efficiently simulate entire chromosomes with recombination to produce correlated tree sequences (Kelleher *et al.*, 2016), which presents a powerful new opportunity to investigate the relationship between species tree parameters and sequential genealogical patterns across genomes.

Genome-wide phylogenetic inference is currently approached from two methodological extremes: either (1) a single species tree is inferred as a hierarchical model to describe the expected distribution of unlinked genealogies across the genome; or (2) no hierarchical model is assumed, and gene trees are inferred

44 independently in sliding windows of concatenated sequences along the genome (Martin & Belleghem,
45 2017). The latter approach is often applied to identify introgressed regions based on their deviation from
46 a genome-wide average (Wang *et al.*, 2019). However, the dearth of information contained within small
47 genomic windows can cause high gene tree estimation error in this approach, and similarly, increasing
48 window size to be too large will cause errors from concatenation of multiple distinct histories. The MSC
49 provides a potential path forward. A parameterized species tree inferred from unlinked locus data may be
50 able to provide priors on the expected distribution of genealogies both globally across the genome, as well
51 as spatially among linked trees.

52 In this chapter we explore this concept by using simulations to estimate the effect of species tree pa-
53 rameters on the rate of decay of phylogenetic similarity across the spatial extent of a chromosome with a
54 uniform recombination rate. We show that a decay function can be estimated to describe the spatial auto-
55 correlation of genealogies, and that by incorporating this function into gene tree inference, accuracy can be
56 significantly improved compared to existing sliding window methods.

57 0.2 Coalescent simulations

58 To investigate genealogical variation along chromosomes we simulated genealogies under a range of species
59 tree models in Python using the *ipcoal* package (McKenzie & Eaton, 2020). This takes as input a tree
60 topology and demographic parameters (divergence times, effective population sizes, mutation rate, and
61 recombination rate) to generate a parameterized simulator for the program *msprime* (Kelleher *et al.*, 2016).
62 Using this model we then simulated coalescent genealogies constrained by a species tree topology. To gen-
63 erate linked trees we simulated a 1Mb chromosome and recorded the true genealogy spanning each posi-
64 tion of its length, since different genealogies span different intervals along the chromosome between re-
65 combination crossover locations. To generate unlinked trees we simulated 1000 independent loci of length
66 one and stored the single observed genealogy from each locus. Species trees and genealogies were plotted
67 and manipulated using the Python package *toytree* (Eaton, 2020). Annotated code to reproduce all analy-
68 ses in this chapter is organized into jupyter notebooks and available at [https://github.com/eaton-lab/sptree-](https://github.com/eaton-lab/sptree-chapter)
69 chapter.

70 The distributions of linked and unlinked genealogies simulated on the same species tree are easy to
71 distinguish when visualized: linked genealogies exhibit significant auto-correlation whereas unlinked ge-
72 nealogies exhibit greater variation (Fig. 1c-d). We explored a range of parameters to realistically describe
73 linked and unlinked genealogical variation in genome-wide phylogenetic data sets. To focus our analyses
74 on fewer total parameters we performed all simulations on completely imbalanced tree shapes (but differ-
75 ent tree sizes) in which internode lengths and effective population sizes of internal edges are all set to be
76 equal. All simulations were performed using a per-site per-generation recombination rate of $1e-9$, and in
77 the case when sequence data was generated, a per-site per-generation mutation rate of $1e-8$ applied under
78 the JC69 substitution model. The parameters we investigated for their effect on the distribution of genealo-
79 gies include tree size (number of tips), the probability of incongruence (internode edge lengths in coales-
80 cent units), and tree height (the number of generations between internodes).

81 0.2.1 Units, space, and time

82 The effect of time, measured in units of generations, is not typically of interest for studies of the MSC,
83 since the probability of incongruence (among unlinked genealogies) can be explained entirely by internode
84 lengths measured in coalescent units (t_c), which is calculated as $t_c = t_g/2N_e$, where t_g is time in genera-
85 tions and N_e is the effective population size. Because t_c is a ratio of time and population size, the absolute
86 value of t_g has not been of interest, only its relation to N_e (Fig. 1a-b). However, in the context of a sequen-
87 tial coalescent process it turns out that t_g does matter, since recombination is modeled as a per-generation

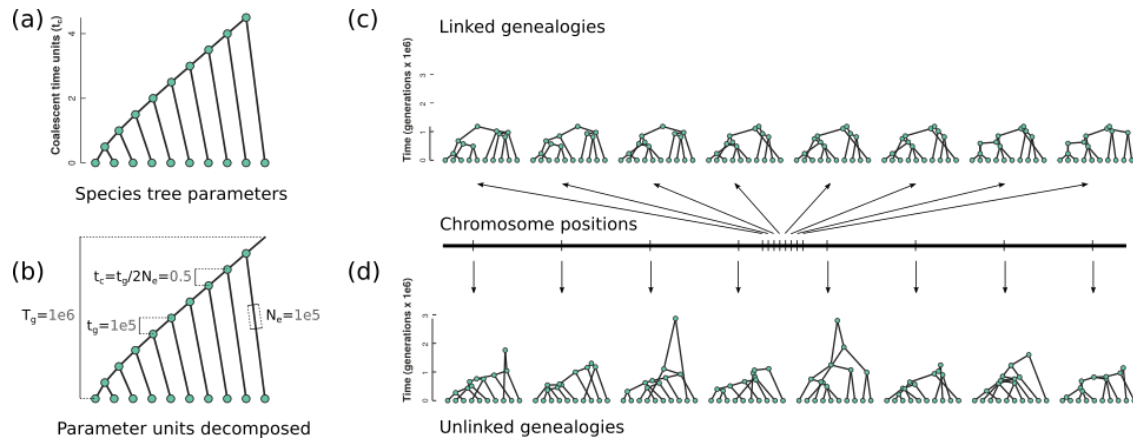


Figure 1. The effect of genetic linkage on the spatial distribution of genealogies across a chromosome. (a) A species tree topology with edge lengths in coalescent units can fully describe the probability of incongruence among unlinked genealogies. (b) Coalescent units (t_c) are a composite of time in generations (t_g) and the effective populations size (N_e). The extent of linkage among genealogies is influenced by both t_g and N_e , and thus not fully explained by t_c alone. (c-d) Genealogies are plotted with tips in the same order as the species tree topology to highlight incongruence. Arrows indicate the positions of genealogies on a chromosome; linked genealogies are close together and unlinked genealogies are far apart. (c) Linked genealogies are spatially correlated because many samples share the same ancestors until a recombination event occurs. (d) Unlinked genealogies are independent and exhibit greater variation among a sampled set than linked genealogies.

88 process, and so both t_g and N_e affect the number of recombination events, and thus the similarity of neigh-
 89 boring genealogies.

90 The effect of time in units of generations is demonstrated in Table 1. Here we simulated linked and un-
 91 linked genealogies on the same species trees and over a range of parameters. In each data set we measured
 92 the average Robinson-Foulds (RF) distance between all pairwise unlinked genealogies, and in the case
 93 of linked trees, between 1000 pairs of genealogies randomly sampled from positions that are spaced 5Kb
 94 apart. RF distances are reported here using normalized (scaled) values to account for differences in tree
 95 size, but non-normalized RF distances show the same qualitative results (not shown). In the unlinked data
 96 sets t_g has no effect on the similarity of genealogies – only t_c is relevant – as has been traditionally recog-
 97 nized in the MSC. However, for linked genealogies t_g has a large effect. When edge lengths are longer in
 98 units of generations, and N_e is similarly scaled to retain the same probability of incongruence (t_c), the size
 99 of non-recombined blocks becomes smaller, and the average RF distance between neighboring genealogies
 100 is greater.

101 A notable result of these simulations is the observation that the size of non-recombined genomic blocks
 102 becomes very small in certain regions of parameter space, particularly when the internode lengths in units
 103 of generations are very long. This is troubling for the MSC which requires that loci represent a single ge-
 104 nealogical history as opposed to multiple concatenated genealogies. The impact of recombination within
 105 loci has been investigated previously, both in the first edition of this book (Castillo-Ramirez *et al.*, 2010),
 106 as well as in a series of critical examinations of the impact of "concatalescence" (Springer & Gatesy, 2016).
 107 At issue is whether gene tree estimation error is elevated when concatenating data from multiple genealo-
 108 gies into a single locus. The results from our simulations suggest there are some regions of parameter
 109 space where the size of non-recombined blocks becomes quite small, and so this issue may warrant fur-
 110 ther examination. In this paper, however, rather than examine recombination and its effects as a critique on

111 existing MSC approaches, we aim instead to explore how linkage among recombined genealogical blocks
112 of the genome can possibly be a useful source of information when analyzing whole genomes.

113 **0.2.2 Tree size, tree space, and phylogenetic decay**

114 The enormous size of phylogenetic tree space is a constant source of computational burden in phyloge-
115 netics, but intriguingly, it may actually provide a source of information in the context of the sequential
116 coalescent process. This is because as the size of tree space grows in larger data sets so too does the ex-
117 pected RF distance between any two random unlinked genealogies. This is particularly true when t_c is very
118 small, such that all coalescent events occur deeper than the root of the species tree. In this case the topol-
119 ogy of unlinked genealogies is hardly constrained by the species tree at all, and almost any genealogy can
120 be observed. However, adjacent genealogies on the same chromosome are still expected to share signifi-
121 cant similarity, since few recombination events are likely to have occurred between them. Consequently,
122 the degree to which linked genealogies are more similar to each other, *relative* to the similarity among un-
123 linked genealogies, is a function of parameters of the species tree, including the tree size.

124 This type of relative measurement provides a means to develop a statistic to describe the rate of decay
125 of spatial auto-correlation in genealogies across a genome. We propose the term "phylogenetic linkage"
126 (PL) to describe the ratio of RF distances among linked genealogies separated by some genetic distance in
127 the genome relative to the average RF distance among unlinked genealogies.

$$PL(d) = 1 - (RF(d)_{linked}/RF_{unlinked})$$

128 In other words, if two genealogies spaced d distance apart on a chromosome are as different from each
129 other as two randomly sampled unlinked genealogies are on average, then they are effectively unlinked.
130 By measuring phylogenetic linkage at increasing genetic distances between genealogies we can infer a rate
131 of decay of phylogenetic linkage across the genome. For each simulated data set we then fit an exponen-
132 tial decay function using the *scipy* package in Python. From the estimated decay rate parameter (λ_d) we
133 estimated a phylogenetic linkage half-life, representing the distance in bp at which two genealogies are
134 expected to lose half of their phylogenetic linkage (Table 1; Fig. 2).

135 When t_g is larger, phylogenetic decay occurs faster, since more recombination events are possible over
136 each internal edge of the tree (e.g., compare rows 0 and 7 in Table 1). Similarly, when N_e is greater, re-
137 combination events are more likely to cause a change in the topology, and thus phylogenetic linkage de-
138 cays faster (e.g., compare rows 0, 3, and 6 in Table 1). Finally, when the total tree size (Ntips) is greater,
139 the decay of linkage occurs more slowly, since the average difference between unlinked genealogies is
140 greater, and thus it takes longer for sufficient spatial information to decay to approach the unlinked mean
141 RF distance (e.g., compare rows 0, 9, and 18 in Table 1).

142 **0.3 Linked genealogies and gene tree inference**

143 Unlike in simulations, the true genealogical history for any region of the genome is an unknown and un-
144 observable variable. It is something we must infer based on the signal left by the mutational process. So
145 how can our understanding of the decay of phylogenetic linkage be useful in the context of gene tree infer-
146 ence? One way to approach this problem is to ask what is the expected length over which a site supporting
147 a bipartition in one position of the genome continues to be true in neighboring regions of the genome?

148 The standard sliding window approach gives equal weight to all sites within an alignment window. An
149 alternative approach could be to extend the size of the window to ensure that there is sufficient information
150 to infer a resolved gene tree, but to apply variable weights to sites in the alignment such that those near
151 the center of the window have greatest weight, and can override alternative signals (Fig. 3a). This has the
152 effect that if no local information exists to support the true local genealogy then data from more distant

	Ntips	T_g	t_c	t_g	N_e	block-size	$RF_{unlinked}$	$RF_{linked-5K}$	half-life
0	10	1e5	0.2	1e4	25000	1706	0.40	0.19	6576
1	10	1e6	0.2	1e5	250000	174	0.40	0.40	607
2	10	1e7	0.2	1e6	2500000	18	0.40	0.40	67
3	10	1e5	1.0	1e4	5000	4761	0.22	0.05	16715
4	10	1e6	1.0	1e5	50000	525	0.22	0.15	2359
5	10	1e7	1.0	1e6	500000	56	0.22	0.20	270
6	10	1e5	2.0	1e4	2500	8849	0.08	0.01	22627
7	10	1e6	2.0	1e5	25000	906	0.08	0.05	4659
8	10	1e7	2.0	1e6	250000	93	0.08	0.08	443
9	50	1e5	0.2	2e3	5000	1485	0.47	0.13	15890
10	50	1e6	0.2	2e4	50000	149	0.47	0.39	1838
11	50	1e7	0.2	2e5	500000	15	0.47	0.47	185
12	50	1e5	1.0	2e3	1000	4830	0.24	0.01	84731
13	50	1e6	1.0	2e4	10000	509	0.24	0.09	11884
14	50	1e7	1.0	2e5	100000	51	0.24	0.22	1233
15	50	1e5	2.0	2e3	500	9900	0.09	0.00	124415
16	50	1e6	2.0	2e4	5000	866	0.09	0.02	23019
17	50	1e7	2.0	2e5	50000	87	0.09	0.08	2048
18	100	1e5	0.2	1e3	2500	1345	0.47	0.08	26873
19	100	1e6	0.2	1e4	25000	138	0.47	0.34	3128
20	100	1e7	0.2	1e5	250000	14	0.47	0.47	345
21	100	1e5	1.0	1e3	500	5405	0.24	0.01	178444
22	100	1e6	1.0	1e4	5000	474	0.24	0.05	22688
23	100	1e7	1.0	1e5	50000	51	0.24	0.19	2499
24	100	1e5	2.0	1e3	250	7299	0.09	0.00	218558
25	100	1e6	2.0	1e4	2500	877	0.09	0.01	39616
26	100	1e7	2.0	1e5	25000	85	0.09	0.06	4169

Table 1. Parameter settings used in simulations to examine the distribution of linked versus unlinked genealogies generated on the same species tree. All simulations were performed on an imbalanced species tree with uniform internode edge lengths. Three free parameters were explored: the number of tips (Ntips) on the tree, total tree height in generations (T_g), and internode edge lengths in coalescent units (t_c). Two additional parameters are shown for which values were determined entirely by values of the free parameters: the internode length in units of generations (t_g) is determined by T_g and Ntips, and effective population size (N_e) is determined by t_c and t_g . Results are reported as the mean values calculated from 1000 simulated genealogies. The size of non-recombined genomic blocks (block-size) decreases with time in generations. This affects the RF distance between linked genealogies, but not unlinked genealogies. $RF_{linked-5K}$ is the RF distances among linked trees separated by 5Kb on a chromosome. The phylogenetic half-life was calculated from fitting an exponential curve to the rate of decay of phylogenetic linkage.

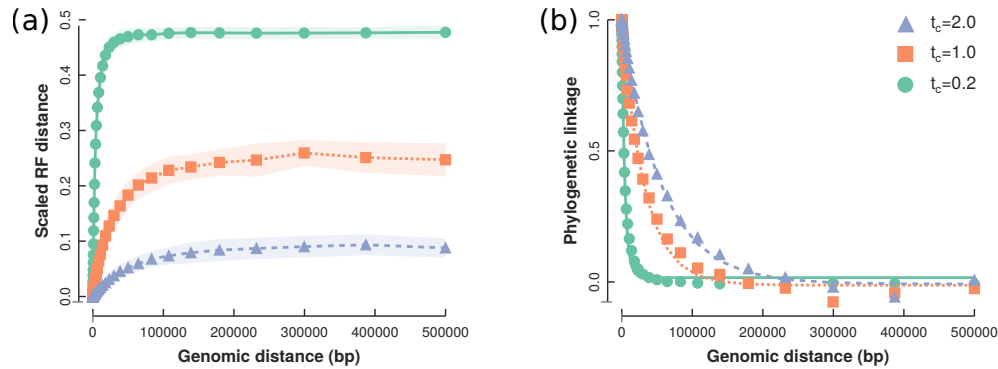


Figure 2. The RF distance between genealogies separated spatially on a chromosome plateaus as linkage decays by recombination, and approaches the average RF distance between unlinked genealogies (a). The ratio of RF distances between linked and unlinked genealogies (phylogenetic linkage) measured at different genetic distances approximates an exponential decay function (b). Results are shown for data simulated on a 100 tip species tree with total tree height of $T_g = 1e6$ generations, and N_e of $2.5e4$, $5e4$, or $2.5e3$, corresponding to edge lengths in coalescent units (t_c) of 0.2, 1.0, and 2.0, respectively.

153 regions can inform that part of the tree, but with decreasing weight as their probability of representing the
154 same genealogy decays with distance.

155 We implemented a weighted approach to local gene tree inference by using the "-a" weights file argu-
156 ment during maximum likelihood tree estimation in RAxML v.8.2.12 (Stamatakis, 2014). A distribution
157 of site weights was generated to give exponentially decreasing weight to sites on either side of a central
158 position. For computational efficiency we cut off the window size to the left and right of the center at sites
159 where the weight reached 1/10000 of the center given the exponential decay rate parameter estimated for
160 that data set.

161 Decay-weighted gene tree inference was compared to traditional windows with uniform (no) weights.
162 Gene trees were inferred at 50 positions spaced evenly across a 1Mb simulated chromosome. At each po-
163 sition the RF distance between the true genealogy and the inferred gene tree was recorded to measure gene
164 tree estimation accuracy. We tested uniform windows of lengths 1Kb, 2.5Kb, 10Kb, 25Kb, 100Kb, and
165 1Mb, the last of which represents the total concatenated chromosome gene tree. Decay-function weighted
166 gene trees were estimated in windows with a size determined by the decay rate, and we additionally tested
167 decay rates with 2X, 5X and 10X faster rates to examine sensitivity to rate estimation. We show results for
168 simulations performed on data set 10 from Table 1, which was selected for its fast rate of decay and high
169 incongruence so that many distinct genealogies would be observed across the chromosome.

170 The decay-function weighted windows inferred more accurate gene trees on average than uniform
171 windows (Fig. 3b-c). Of the uniform windows, the largest size (representing concatenation of the entire
172 chromosome) performed the worst, while the best window size appears to be near 2.5Kb. All four decay-
173 function weighted window sizes tested had lower mean RF scores (greater accuracy) than the best scoring
174 uniform window. The best estimate was observed for the 5X decay rate window, which had a mean scaled
175 RF distance of only 0.18, making it more than twice as accurate as the genome-wide concatenation gene
176 tree. In non-scaled RF scores this represents an average of 35 differences from the true genealogy com-
177 pared to 43 differences in the 2.5Kb uniform windows, 51 in 10Kb windows, and 80 in the concatenation
178 gene tree. The reason a 5X decay rate performed better than the estimated decay rate may be caused by
179 the cut off to weighted window sizes that we implemented to improve run times. Additional parameters
180 that we did not explore here, such as the mutation rate and recombination rate, are likely to be important

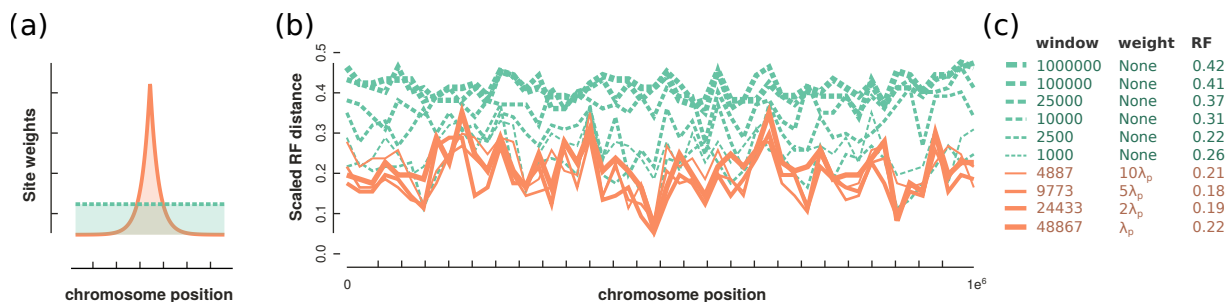


Figure 3. The accuracy of gene tree inference in sliding windows along a chromosome. (a) We compared windows that were of a fixed length and with uniform site weights to windows with lengths and weights determined by a function of exponentially decaying phylogenetic linkage inferred from simulations under the species tree parameters. (b) The scaled RF distance between inferred gene trees and the true simulated genealogy at 50 positions across a genome measured with different window sizes and weightings. (c) Windows with uniform (no) weights inferred less accurate gene trees than those with weights distributed by a phylogenetic decay-function, as measured by the mean scaled RF distance to the true simulated genealogies.

181 factors as well, since they affect the information content within each non-recombined genomic block.

182 Conclusions

183 For over a decade the goal of phylogenomic analyses has primarily focused on inferring a single species
 184 tree to represent the distribution of genealogical variation across the entire genome. However, as whole
 185 genome data becomes available there is increasing interest in the spatial distribution of genealogies at spe-
 186 cific locations across the genome. This type of local ancestry information can be useful for testing evolu-
 187 tionary questions about patterns of hemiplasy versus convergence (Guerrero & Hahn, 2018), for identify-
 188 ing introgressed regions (Fang *et al.*, 2020), and testing hypotheses about adaptation (Martin *et al.*, 2019).
 189 Despite the development of advanced hierarchical models for inferring species trees, such methods have
 190 yet to be developed for spatially linked gene tree estimation.

191 Here we have demonstrated that the probability of incongruence described by the edge lengths of a
 192 species tree in coalescent units does not capture the expected spatial similarity of genealogies across chro-
 193 mosomes. Instead, in addition to the ratio of t_g to N_e , which describes the probability of incongruence, it
 194 becomes necessary to consider the magnitudes of these parameters as well. This presents an interesting
 195 scenario: imagine a balanced tree with two clades where every edge has the same t_c edge lengths. In one
 196 clade these edges are composed of high N_e and t_g values, while in the other clade edges have low N_e and
 197 t_g values. Despite having the same probability of incongruence, the two clades would exhibit very differ-
 198 ent rates of change in their topology per unit length spatially across the genome. Unlike in our simulations,
 199 the rate of decay would likely not be uniform, and would covary more among some edges than others.

200 In theory, this expectation could be built into sliding window analyses based on a parameterized species
 201 tree inferred from unlinked loci. The simple approach that we implemented here, applying weights to
 202 alignment windows, is only a first step. A more appropriate direction to focus in the future would be to use
 203 species tree information to establish tree topology priors in a Bayesian context that could be used to im-
 204 prove local gene tree estimation by combining both the expected genome-wide distribution of genealogies
 205 as well as the expected similarity among neighboring genealogies. In contrast to treating recombination as
 206 a source of error for phylogenetic analyses, this direction of research aims to accommodate recombination
 207 as a source of historical information. There is no doubt that the MSC will continue to be extended to meet

208 the needs introduced by new types of data, and the many questions that they inspire.

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