

1 **The ‘Holy Grail’ in Phylogenetic Reconstruction: *Seeing the Forest for the Trees?***

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5 Mark A. Hershkovitz¹

6

7 ¹Santiago, Chile

8 Email: cistanthe@gmail.com

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12 Abstract

13 Systematic/macroevolutionary biology has dedicated much of the past 50 years of its
14 energy and resources in an effort to resolve definitively the one true ‘tree of life’ and to explain
15 materially its cause. But, no matter the quantity/quality of data, experimentation, and analysis,
16 the effort is hampered by persistent and ever-accumulating contradictory observations. This may
17 be an indication that the source of the problem lies in the observer rather than the observed.
18 Observations do not conflict with themselves; they conflict with theoretical expectations. Thus,
19 systematic and evolutionary biology requires epistemological overhaul. Rather than continued
20 misaligning of evidence with theory, theory must be realigned with the evidence. Evidence
21 suggests that the Darwinian reductionist perspective is the epistemological driver of considerable
22 conflict/contradiction in systematic/evolutionary research, and that robust non-Darwinian
23 theories not only better reconcile observations, but also provide a superior investigative
24 perspective.

25 **Key Words:** phylogenetics, phylogenetic comparative analysis, data conflict, Darwinism,
26 evolutionary idiosyncraticity

27

28 Background: conflict in phylogenetic evolutionary analysis

29 Olmstead and Medoya (2019) remarked on phylogenetic evidence from whole genome
30 sequencing, which they characterized as the ‘holy grail’ of molecular phylogenetics. They
31 commiserated over persisting evidential conflict in phylogenetic reconstruction, which they
32 noted is “as old as phylogenetic systematics.” In fact, the specter of conflict is *much* older than
33 that. Aristotle’s *Scala Natural* highlighted ambivalent resolution of the natural relationships of
34 flying organisms. This theory is not founded in ‘descent with modification,’ but rather

35 teleological organism-driven orthogenetic development of more perfect ‘higher’ forms. Among
36 notable 18th–19th century systematists that addressed evidential conflict were several
37 Creationists. These pre-phylogenetics debates hinted that character distribution mosaicism is
38 intrinsic to biodiversity, independent of how it is parsed, and that parsing it one way or another
39 per se does not eliminate or explain it.

40 Yet, for the past century, evolutionary systematists have probed ever deeper into
41 organisms, expecting to find a magic bullet that retraces phylogeny perfectly. In this trajectory,
42 the ‘holy grail’ has *not* been per se the genome, but a fully resolved and well-corroborated ‘tree
43 of life’ (e.g., Soltis and Soltis, 2018) and its causal explanation. The earlier 20th century heralded
44 the first subcellular bandwagons, especially cytotaxonomy. The 1960s–1970s added
45 chemotaxonomy, ultrastructure, and protein electrophoresis; the 1980s, desktop phylogenetic
46 computation and, concomitantly, diverse (and themselves conflicting) epistemological models
47 and methodologies. Like greasy rags, these successive approaches, separately and together, often
48 blurred more than they clarified the picture.

49 Then appeared DNA sequence data, which were heralded as the ultimate arbiter in
50 systematics. Rather abruptly, the PCR-to-PAUP paradigm practically purged the entire
51 discipline. Molecular systematics laboratories became warships. ‘More data! More sampling!
52 More megahertz! More memory! More MCMCs! And damn the taxonomy, *barcode* those
53 species!’ For a while, it *seemed* that this ‘shock and awe’ attack was on course to annihilate the
54 last resistance to cladistic conquest. But the tide seemed to turn. Sometimes adding more data
55 reduced resolution. Bombarding one unresolved node sometimes yielded, like Medusa, several in
56 its place.

57 As Olmstead and Medoya (2019) noted, whole genome sequencing represents

58 reductionism’s last stand. Genome-scale sequencing is yielding novel information on
 59 macroevolution, but not as much cladistic resolution as expected. But should it? Should 500,000
 60 base pairs of arbitrarily isolated DNA sequence resolve clades better than 5000 base pairs
 61 *preselected* for their theoretical/empirical high-quality resolvability? As Olmstead and Medoya
 62 (2019) also noted, explanations for this flood of new conflict appeal by default to mechanically
 63 plausible but not always demonstrable hybridization and lineage-sorting. Thus, phylogenomics
 64 has us retreating from explanation back towards to speculation. Moreover, hybridization and
 65 lineage sorting hardly are earth-shaking discoveries. That was the battlefield 50 years ago. And
 66 what about transposons?

67

68 **Darwinian ‘tree-thinking’ as an epistemological cause of data conflict**

69 HersHKovitz (2018a, b, 2019) addressed the question of phylogenetic data conflict, but
 70 approached it differently. This work concluded that the source of evidential conflict in
 71 evolutionary biology is not per se in the evidence, but in its epistemological interpretation. An
 72 inadequate epistemology, in turn, engenders an *expectation* of observations whose *exceptions* are
 73 described ad hoc as ‘data conflict.’ But phenomena ideally cannot generate observations in
 74 conflict with themselves. Recall that good explanations make better predictions than poor ones.
 75 If, as in the case of phylogenomics, a two-order of magnitude increase in observations does not
 76 increase or even *decreases* predictability, maybe it is time to trade up to a better crystal ball.

77 HersHKovitz (2018b, 2019) inferred the cause of conflict in contemporary phylogenetics
 78 and tree-based evolutionary analysis generally: biological reductionism, in particular *neo-*
 79 *Darwinian* reductionism. Prevalent macroevolutionary theory and methods trace their origin to
 80 the neo-Darwinian Modern Synthesis. This, in turn, emerged in the form of the statistical

81 population genetic incarnation of Darwin's (1859) reductionist theory of evolution by means of
 82 Natural Selection (NS), restated succinctly as 'survival of the fittest' (Darwin, 1868).

83 The relation of NS to phylogenetic conflict is that the theory was supposed to explain
 84 diversification not *within populations*, but *among taxa*. Although NS is conceived as initiating in
 85 populations, validation of Darwin's theory requires its consummation with *phyletic* divergence.
 86 Although overlooked/ignored by 20th century Aristotelian 'evolutionary' systematists, Darwin
 87 conceived that taxa and their traits evolve integrally/synchronously and diversify
 88 *cladogenetically*. He diagrammed macroevolution as a tree (but see Podani, 2019), or cladogram.
 89 This diagram idealized anagenesis unidimensionally (lines) and diversification events
 90 nondimensionally (bifurcation points). Terminal taxa, whether species or 'genera' (Podani,
 91 2019), also were idealized nondimensionally. It is critical to appreciate that this clado-anagenetic
 92 model is essential to NS theory. It does not explain merely anagenesis, but also the historical
 93 consequence of species differentiation via NS. Other evolutionary mechanisms would yield other
 94 phylogenetic patterns.

95 During the Modern Synthesis' first decades, the systematics discipline retained an
 96 Aristotelian mindset, in which both taxa and diversification were conceived and diagrammed
 97 multidimensionally. Indeed, texts and diagrams in 'evolutionary' taxonomy literature implied
 98 diversification histories/mechanisms incompatible with cladistics. Armen Takhtajan, in
 99 particular, in his 1959–2009 texts, emphasized that angiosperm families possess mixtures of
 100 characters that he regarded as *intrinsically* primitive or specialized. He described this as
 101 'heterobathmy.' Takhtajan vehemently rejected cladistic theory, so he did not parse conflicting
 102 characters as parallelisms or reversals. Rather, his phylogenetic narrative resolves as a network,
 103 such that a heterobathmic family evolved from/alongside an *assortment* of not otherwise most

104 closely related ‘primitive’ and ‘specialized’ families that collectively possessed the various
105 individual characteristics. Thus, the heterobathmic family derived its traits effectively
106 polyphyletically. [But see Rieppel (2016) for a discussion of Hennig’s cladistic interpretation of
107 Takhtajan’s ‘heterobathmy.’]

108 Meanwhile, evolutionary population genetics placeheld for the neo-Darwinian
109 macroevolutionary paradigm, pending the eventual conceptualization and development of
110 cladistic and later tree-based macroevolutionary theory/methods. Tree-building, or, more
111 accurately, ‘tree-thinking’ (e.g., Baum and Smith, 2012) is what consummated (and evidently
112 consumed) the Modern Synthesis. By the time molecular systematics came along, conflicting
113 cladistic data was well known and much debated.

114 Molecular data conflict ought to have been anticipated on the basis of transmission and
115 molecular genetic evidence, as well as theoretical phylogenetics. Possibly molecular systematists
116 proactively avoided it. In contrast to molecular phylogenetic data, phenotypic data were
117 informative biologically whether or not they resolved phylogeny. But few systematists (e.g.,
118 HersHKovitz and Zimmer, 1996) concerned themselves with comparative *biology* of DNA loci. In
119 systematics, a DNA sequence alignment was not more or less than a sterile phylogenetic data
120 matrix. The overriding concern was whether the sequences resolved phylogeny and thus merited
121 publication and thus advanced an academic career. Quite likely, filtering out of poorly resolvable
122 data (and researchers who obtained them) itself enhanced the perceived reliability of molecular
123 data in phylogenetics. The early emphasis on single, hence non-conflicting, loci tipped the
124 balance further. But with increased locus and taxon sampling, data conflict became the rule
125 rather than the exception. Still, there evidently persisted a superstitious belief that whole genome
126 sequences would thresh out these conflicts.

127 A funny thing happened on the way to the genome. For example, and hardly an
128 exception, a phylogenomic analysis among Portulacineae (especially cacti; Wang et al., 2018:
129 *Fig. 2*) revealed that numerous statistically maximally-supported nodes in the taxon tree were
130 supported evidentially by a *minority* of harvested loci, the majority at least weakly discordant.
131 Another analysis, coincidentally involving cacti (Copetti et al., 2019: *Fig. 2B*), superimposed
132 over a presumed taxon tree a diffuse cloud of gene trees and their divergence time estimates.
133 This revealed that a large proportion of alleles had not co-diverged with speciation, but merely
134 had assorted among lineages since the origin of the family. Other alleles manifested horizontal
135 transfer. These results, along with phylogenomic ‘splits’ networks of *Claytonia* spp. (Stoughton
136 et al., 2017: *Fig. 1B*), suggest that the phylogenetic ‘holy grail’ might be, after all, more like
137 Bessey’s Cactus than a cladogram. Is it possible that the rudder of tree-thinking had rusted and
138 steered neo-Darwinian reductionism adrift?

139

140 **Resolving data conflict epistemologically rather than empirically**

141 HersHKovitz (2018a, b, 2019) attempted to formulate an evolutionary synthesis of
142 Montiaceae around data, not dogma. This synthesis aspired to span all divergence levels between
143 outgroup and individual, and all phenomenological dimensions, ecological, morphological, and
144 molecular. The effort was a mental exercise, focusing on conflicts and contradictions, and
145 seeking to explain the collectively unexplained data. Nominally conflicting data were
146 revisualized in the light of alternative theories.

147 What emerged, and not at all expectedly, was a consilient non-Darwinian evolutionary
148 synthesis. Yet, none of the theoretical components are per se novel. All have been corroborated
149 in scientific disciplines marginal to if not remote from ‘mainstream’ reductionist systematic and

150 evolutionary biology. These include complexity theory, systems biology, neurobiology,
 151 cybernetics, as well as related areas of biological philosophy. In these disciplines, Darwinian
 152 reductionist theory – and its applications – are considered obsolete, if not utterly false. The
 153 theoretical sources and arguments are documented in HersHKovitz (2018a, b; 2019; see also
 154 Kritz, 2017). For brevity, only a few critical references are cited here. It should be recalled, also,
 155 that Popper (1976 [2002]) characterized Darwinism as “invaluable,” nonetheless as not a theory,
 156 but a “metaphysical research program.” Effectively, he criticized evolutionary research that did
 157 not test Darwinian theory per se, but merely sought Darwinian explanations under the
 158 assumption that the theory was true and leaving unexplained or disregarding, or in any case, not
 159 proactively seeking observations that were not.

160 Towards the objective of reducing perceived data discordance in phylogenetics and tree-
 161 based evolutionary analysis, first and foremost is the understanding that living organisms are, by
 162 definition, *autopoietic*, i.e., self-organizing/maintaining/determining/regenerating (Varela et al.,
 163 1974; Maturana, 1999). From this principle alone, one can deduce that, in evolution, organisms
 164 are the *drivers* and not, as NS dogmatists maintain, the *driven* (e.g., Nürk et al., 2019). Does
 165 autopoiesis falsify NS? As a matter of fact, it does. NS does not occur, not even sometimes, not
 166 ever (Maturana and Mpodozis, 2000). All ‘proofs’ of NS are statistical epiphenomena.

167 As corroboration, HersHKovitz (2018b, 2019) cited a recent description of NS (Pigliucci,
 168 2010) that, remarkably, is patently *non-Darwinian*. In fact, it is a description of Natural Drift
 169 (Maturana and Mpodozis, 2000)! More bizarre, Pigliucci (2010) penned this non-Darwinian NS
 170 definition in a *defense* of NS against its non-Darwinian critics. No student of
 171 systematic/evolutionary biology should overlook this watershed paradigmatic development. In
 172 fact, autopoiesis *alone* invalidates pretty much all of a century of NS-based adaptationist

173 evolutionary ecological and phylogenetic comparative research. Autopoiesis better explains
174 myriad conflicts in the data and interpretation.

175 But, wait, there's more.

176 As noted, phylogenetic character patterns are in 'conflict' only to the degree that they are
177 not *predicted* by the underlying epistemological model and optimization criterion. But the self-
178 determining quality of autopoietons (organisms) has the logical consequence that their enactivity
179 (ontogenetic/evolutionary trajectory; Varela et al., 1992) is not (statistically or otherwise)
180 predictable. This proves to be a quality of formal mathematical chaotic functions – determinate,
181 yet, if the function and initial conditions are not known, unrecoverable and unpredictable
182 (Boeing, 2016). This suggests that organismal evolution is to at least a degree a substantially
183 chaos-like rather than strictly a stochastic process.

184 Indeed, all biological replicative functions from the level of DNA to species manifest
185 chaotic function qualities. The neo-Darwinian reductionist paradigm idealizes replicative events
186 as regularly occurring, and replicative mutations as having *ideally* equivalent magnitude and
187 effect. The paradigm is well aware that the ideal is not the real, whether in the case of genes or
188 species (e.g., punctuated equilibria). But the lesson is not appreciated, and reductionist
189 idealizations themselves seem to persist in analytical methods, e.g., Brownian motion
190 evolutionary null models. Equally importantly, this irregularity of timing and magnitude of
191 change characterizes replicative events at *all* organizational levels. A further characteristic is
192 that, with the trivial and transitory exception of DNA bases and amino acids, replicative events
193 do not merely oscillate within fixed state spaces, as constrained in reductionist methods.
194 Historically, they have expanded and transformed state space. These are characteristics of
195 chaotic functions.

196 In the meantime, reductionist tree-based evolutionary analyses use contemporary
197 empirical data to reconstruct probabilistically the ancestral conditions and the evolutionary
198 dynamics. Based on this model, the evolutionary history is then the one that, effectively,
199 conflicts least with the empirical data. To the degree that the true evolutionary dynamic is indeed
200 stochastic and correctly modeled, analysis of more data (e.g., whole genome sequences) is
201 expected to converge on the true history. But, to the degree that evolution is at least partially
202 chaos-like, increasing data should reduce concordance, and conflict-minimization is bound to
203 converge on error. To paraphrase an aphorism from chaos theory (Boeing, 2016), the exact
204 ancestral conditions predict the exact evolutionary history, but the approximate ancestral
205 conditions do not predict the approximate evolutionary history.

206 In addition to autopoiesis and chaos theory, an important aggravating source of perceived
207 conflict can be understood in terms of hierarchy theory (Salthe and Matsuno, 1995). ‘Conflict’
208 generally refers to discordance of trees estimated from different but presumably co-evolving
209 characters, be they infragenic, intergenic, different morphological traits, or molecules versus
210 morphology. Mechanisms that cause such discordance are well known. This sort of nominal
211 conflict was embodied in the old aphorism ‘gene trees are not species trees’ (e.g., Doyle, 1992).
212 In truth, the persistent perception of such discordance as ‘conflict’ owes to overzealous
213 Darwinian tree-thinking. Discordance between histories at different hierarchical levels is not per
214 se conflict.

215 To appreciate the preceding, it must be understood that all thermodynamic systems,
216 including autopoietons, are organized hierarchically. A given hierarchical organizational level
217 functions within its lower bound (its requisite starting conditions) and its upper bound (its
218 tolerance range). For example, an engine piston will not work without air, fuel, and ignition. But

219 even with these, it will fail under conditions that compromise its functional integrity, e.g., any
220 sort of cylinder imperfection.

221 Biological organisms can be organized hierarchically in multiple levels, e.g.,
222 chromosomes, organelles, cells, meristems, organs, and, at the supraorganismic level, microbial
223 metagenomes, sexual demes, and symbionts, among others. But given that reductionist biologists
224 mostly are unfamiliar with autopoiesis, probably it is not either appreciated that *each* biological
225 level of organization *also* manifests autopoietic character. This should not be surprising, since
226 some levels themselves derive from once free-living autopoietons (organisms, remember?).
227 Retained autopoietic quality permits considerable evolutionary independence at different levels,
228 as long as adequate starting /operating conditions are maintained at lower/upper bounds,
229 respectively. The consequence is that evolution at different organizational levels is not *predicted*
230 to be lockstep. Their different histories might be described as incongruencies, not conflicts.

231 Thus, the meaning of the aphorism ‘gene trees are not species trees’ must be clarified. It
232 does not refer to a conflict inferred from discordance among different gene trees and/or
233 morphology. It refers to the ontological distinction between genes and species, such that gene
234 trees *cannot be* species trees, even when gene trees and species trees are *fully* congruent.
235 Axiomatically, the ‘true’ species (or taxon) tree is *not* a consensus of a plurality of concordant
236 gene trees, as misconceived explicitly in many molecular phylogenetic and, more so,
237 phylogenomic analyses. This should be clear from hybrid species formation. From the
238 perspective of the species level, the genes having different histories are not ‘discordant’ or
239 ‘conflicting.’ They are integral to the species. The species would be *different* ontologically (and
240 functionally, if viable at all) if the so-maligned ‘foreign’ loci were rounded up and deported. Put
241 another way, *all* incident loci pertain to the ‘true’ species tree.

242

243 **Epistemological solutions to phylogenetic data conflict: PEI and Wave Model**

244 Not expectedly initially, the three theoretical phenomena discussed here, autopoiesis,
 245 chaos, and hierarchicity, threaded into a single consilient evolutionary dynamic, which I
 246 described as the **Principle of Evolutionary Idiosyncraticity (PEI)**; HersHKovitz, 2018b, 2019).
 247 Not merely an aesthetic term, ‘evolutionary idiosyncraticity’ was described formally as an
 248 evolutionary product of simultaneous chaotic (determinate/unpredictable) and stochastic
 249 (indeterminate, statistically predictable) processes. It can be summarized as **EI** =
 250 $f(\text{chaos})f(\text{stochasticity})$. The determinate character is inherent in autopoiesis. The stochastic
 251 factor is a sum of the dynamics occurring at organizational levels hierarchically adjacent to a
 252 self-organizing process. I merely conjecture that the net evolutionary effects at hierarchically
 253 adjacent levels are stochastic. More precisely, PEI tentatively *defers* to these *adjacent*
 254 hierarchical levels the very stochasticity that the NS paradigm presumes to encompass the *entire*
 255 evolutionary process. Clearly the autopoieton itself does not behave stochastically, and this is the
 256 fundamental error of the NS paradigm.

257 As a demonstration of the preceding, replication presumably is affected by incident
 258 nucleoside concentrations, etc., at the lower bound (starting conditions), and cell environmental
 259 parameters (tolerances) at the upper bound. The response to these conditions is not fixed, nor
 260 stochastic, but dynamic (cf. Kritz, 2017). It varies at least somewhat unpredictably depending
 261 upon the enaction of base incorporation into the elongating DNA molecule. This enactivity itself
 262 modifies both the base availability pool and the functionality and thermodynamic tolerances of
 263 the molecule. I use this example, because it demonstrates that base substitution during evolution
 264 is not a stationary process, as neo-Darwinian reductionist molecular phylogenetic analyses

265 idealize (Hershkovitz, 2018a). This nonstationarity itself contributes significantly to unexpected
 266 observations ('conflict'). However, this nonstationarity characterizes evolution of biological
 267 systems at *all* hierarchical levels, yielding EI.

268 Also not initially appreciated, PEI proved to be consilient with a previously and
 269 independently developed (and as-yet unpublished) model of species called the '**Wave Model**'
 270 (summarized in Hershkovitz, 2019). The Wave Model is not a species concept, but an attempt to
 271 describe and explain how entities perceived and named taxonomically as species (more
 272 heuristically as 'specioids;' Hershkovitz, 2019) form and degenerate in the *perceptual*
 273 dimension. Species ontology must be resolved in the perceptual dimension, because they have no
 274 established ontology in any material dimension. Yet all phylogenetic and tree-based
 275 macroevolutionary analyses use species as operational taxonomic units. These necessarily are
 276 perceived and not materially real units. The Wave Model attempts to model what it is about
 277 relations among individuals that cause them to be perceived as species by any material criterion.

278 The Wave Model compared the perception of species to the perception of water waves.
 279 The relations 'individual/species' and 'water/wave' have several ontological and ontogenetic
 280 similarities. Water waves, as it turns out, can be described as fractals, which are chaotic
 281 functions. They also possess rudiments of autopoietic activity. This should not be surprising,
 282 since life itself evolved in an aqueous environment likely facilitated by wave action. Perhaps not
 283 coincidentally, organisms *remain* composed mainly of water. In any case, the characteristics of the
 284 Wave Model suggest that it is a lemma of PEI.

285 The Wave Model demonstrates that it is the reductionist idealization of species as
 286 discrete entities that has yielded the plethora of 30-some species concepts, none of which 'work.'
 287 The taxonomic 'goodness' of species seems to be analogous to the perceived discreteness of

288 waves. And, similar to water molecules in waves, individuals perceived as conspecific need not
289 share the same historical trajectory. (This is unless shared history is obligated by the species
290 concept itself, as in cladistic species concepts, which are untenable.) Finally, HersHKovitz (2019)
291 discussed evidence that corroborates the prediction that, just as not all water can be classified
292 into waves, not all individuals can be classified into species. These conclusions are significant,
293 because reductionist ecological and evolutionary analyses treat species as effectively
294 independent and identically distributed entities (HersHKovitz, 2019).

295 PEI addresses another dimension of phylogenetic conflict not discussed by Olmstead and
296 Medoya (2019). This conflict burdens reductionist tree-based macroevolutionary analysis, also
297 known as ‘phylogenetic comparative analysis.’ In this realm, exemplified by Nürk et al. (2019),
298 some ‘A’ is explained in terms of its phylogenetic correlation with some ‘B,’ where ‘A’ and ‘B’
299 might be variously a phenotypic or ecological trait or simply a difference in the number of extant
300 descendent taxa. Here, phylogeny actually *matters*, viz., as the scaffolding for hypothesis-testing.
301 Otherwise, phylogeny per se is innocuous. Yes, phylogenies provide an objective basis for
302 taxonomy. But towards the objective of marketing phylogenetics in the modern reductionist
303 institution, its utility in taxonomy is not a great selling point.

304 Tree-based macroevolutionary analysis generates multiple layers of conflict/uncertainty.
305 One form is inherited from the imported phylogenetic tree, as estimation procedures and
306 statistical tests are sensitive to both tree topology and branch lengths and their certainties.
307 Another arises, as in phylogenetic reconstruction itself, methodologically. All other things being
308 equal, different data/methods disagree whether or not ‘B’ explains ‘A.’ This generates conflicts
309 essentially identical to those in taxonomic phylogenetic reconstruction, because they trace to
310 conflicting reconstructions of the evolution of ‘A’ and ‘B.’

311 As an aside, in the neo-Darwinian reductionist framework, a peculiar relationship exists
 312 between phylogenetic reconstruction data and phylogenetic comparative data. Phylogenetic
 313 analysis optimizes by minimizing character conflict, and this, in turn, minimizes homoplasy.
 314 Strength of correlations in phylogenetic comparative analysis, in contrast, *increases* with
 315 homoplasy of analyzed traits. This, in turn, maximizes the number of times those traits can *co-*
 316 *evolve* independently. Thus, evolution seems to stymie its own analysis. Minimal character
 317 conflict maximizes phylogenetic resolution, but constrains statistical tree-based evolutionary
 318 analysis. Maximal character conflict maximally potentiates statistical tree-based evolutionary
 319 analysis at the expense of phylogenetic certainty. It is as though, reminiscent of the Uncertainty
 320 Principle in physics, evolutionary history cannot be simultaneously precisely ‘known’ and
 321 ‘understood.’

322 From a theoretical standpoint, however, the most serious conflicts emergent in tree-based
 323 macroevolutionary analysis are the exceptions to inferred phylogenetic correlations between ‘A’
 324 and ‘B.’ This is analogous to conflict in the inferred phylogenetic relationship among taxa.
 325 Likewise, this conflict persists even in the case where all data/methods infer the same
 326 phylogenetic correlation, just as different data/methods may agree in ambiguity of support for
 327 particular phylogenetic relations.

328 Scrutiny of tree-based macroevolutionary analyses reveals that study organisms and traits
 329 commonly are cherry-picked for a priori high correlative potential, and the data then are
 330 ‘massaged’ to maximize it (Hershkovitz, 2018b). Yet, invariably, taxa within the study group
 331 (and more outside of it) either behave contrary to the expectation or manifest ‘A’ *or* ‘B’ but not
 332 both. It is as though the taxa, not having studied Darwin, evolved *wrong*. In some cases, I have
 333 found independent analyses that conclude that the same ‘A’ evolved in response to some ‘C,’

334 with no mention of ‘B’ at all (HersHKovitz, 2019).

335 These exceptions are what demonstrate that ‘A’ and ‘B’ are neither necessary, nor
336 sufficient, to ‘drive’ evolution in a predictable way (HersHKovitz, 2018b, 2019). To appreciate
337 this, phylogenetic comparative analysis is no different from any other statistical application.
338 Effectively, it reduces evolution to coin-flipping, where the coins are taxa. At least in Modern
339 Synthesis population genetics, empirically observed ‘fitness’ is supposed to discriminate the fate
340 of individuals in trait classes. But, in tree-based macroevolutionary analysis, what is the
341 differential fate of taxa that buck the inferred evolutionary correlation? Are they less fit? The
342 organisms themselves seem to go on living and reproducing just fine. HersHKovitz (2018b)
343 suggested that, but for twists of fate, induced correlations might have been nullified or even
344 reversed.

345 But the fatal flaw of the tree-based macroevolutionary paradigm is epistemological, not
346 methodological. It is consequent to the Darwinian idealization of organisms as passive actors,
347 evolution’s flipped coins. This ignores or effectively or explicitly denies the autopoietic property
348 of life. And, not coincidentally, the flaw is consequent to the Darwinian idealization of
349 phylogeny as bifurcating lines (a tree) and diversification events and species as ‘points.’
350 Barcodes, anyone? As suggested by HersHKovitz (2018b), these erroneous Darwinian
351 idealizations underwrite the reductionist tree-based macroevolutionary paradigm. They justify, in
352 fact *obligate*, the successive and recursive statistical reduction of phylogenetic and taxonomic
353 complexity. This, in turn, partitions observations into those that concord with the presumed
354 phylogeny or evolutionary process and those that do not. And *this* is the source of the ‘conflict’
355 over which Olmstead and Medoya (2019) agonized. Evolution did not create it. Darwin did.

356 As Olmstead and Medoya (2019) noted, conflicting data typically are explained by

357 appealing to one or a few simultaneous evolutionary processes bound to generate different data
 358 patterns. But there seems to be projected a sense that one process is ‘good’ and the other ‘evil,’
 359 i.e., the one that is generating the conflict. There never is projected a sense that the mythical
 360 Darwinian clado-anagenetic process might be the culprit. And there is not at all a projected sense
 361 that a *singular* process might be generating *all* the data. In theory, evolution of incongruent data
 362 should subside only when phylogenesis and evolution *stop*, so that diversification no longer
 363 creates the specter of, e.g., hybridization or lineage sorting. *Ginkgo biloba* comes to mind.
 364 Paradoxically, this obviates phylogenetic and tree-based macroevolutionary analysis.

365 Despite appearances, this commentary in no way disparages one of history’s most
 366 perceptive and rational naturalists and, by the way, also a *taxonomist*. Darwin’s contribution was
 367 singular towards bringing then ‘Natural Theology’ belatedly into the Age of Enlightenment. But,
 368 while rational in its evident appeal to Newton’s notions of motions, Darwin’s evolutionary
 369 theory overshot the mark. Indeed, environmental forces influence the course of evolution, but
 370 they are not behind the wheel. Post-Newtonian metamorphoses of mathematics, physics, and
 371 astronomy do not diminish Newton, and neither should new evolutionary theory diminish
 372 Darwin.

373 Unfortunately, mainstream tree-based macroevolutionary theory does not seem to be
 374 advancing beyond Newtonian mechanics. Nürk et al.’s (2019) new ‘Evolutionary Arena’ (EA)
 375 platform, for (and not to single out this) example, provides not a new way of thinking about
 376 evolution, but a new way of thinking the old way. If anything, EA seems to be retrogressive, apt
 377 to overshoot Newton’s orbit on a collision course with astrology. In particular, based on
 378 discussion in Herskovitz (2018b, 2019), it seems inevitable that conclusions will vary wildly
 379 depending upon, e.g., which few among infinite ‘arena’ parameters are analyzed, which is used

380 among several artificially linearized phylogenies, which is used among various age estimate
381 extremes, how among different ways phenotypic, genotypic, and environmental variables are
382 described/measured, and which ‘method’ is applied. And this will be true even in the case that
383 evolution is strictly stochastic. Between this and ignoring autopoiesis and chaos and hierarchy
384 theory, in terms of predictive power, EA might just as well incorporate the celestial charts on the
385 day the taxa were ‘born.’

386 PEI provides an alternative framework for conceptualizing and analyzing evolution.
387 Under PEI, the notion of conflict can be replaced with the notion of complexity. In particular, the
388 ‘true’ phylogeny of an equivocally resolved node such as that highlighted by Olmstead and
389 Mendoya (2019) is *not* one or another of its linearized resolutions, but the composite of all such
390 resolutions, or its complexity. However, under PEI, macroevolutionary analysis needs to take a
391 different trajectory altogether. Arguments that the evolution of some ‘B’ explains the evolution
392 of some ‘A’ are specious postdictions.

393 PEI might be criticized for its current lack of an analytical heuristic. This criticism is
394 spurious. It took more than a century for evolutionary biology to develop the heuristics for
395 analyzing Darwinian macroevolution, viz., phylogenetics, molecular genetics/genomics, and the
396 phylogenetic comparative method. And 160 years on, the best heuristics remain, at best, dicey.
397 For example, towards the objective of conflict resolution, modern phylogenetic and tree-based
398 macroevolutionary heuristics emphasize Bayesian methods. It should be emphasized that the
399 procedures do not *alter* discordant empirical data patterns. They provide algorithms that
400 simultaneously iteratively optimize and weight the optimization, such that conflicting data
401 effectively are sublimed. A critique is beyond the scope of the present commentary (see
402 HersHKovitz, 2018a, 2019), except to say that the methods demonstrably are less reliable than a

403 Boeing 737 MAX.

404 HersHKovitz (2018b) tendered suggestions for rudimentary development of EI analytical
 405 heuristics. These involved nonlinear mathematics, evaluation of performance of linear methods
 406 in reconstruction of idiosyncratic (chao-stochastic) phylogenetic functions (i.e., fractals), and
 407 epistemological hypothesis manipulation. For example, the NS paradigm considers random
 408 evolution as the null hypothesis (H_0). But, epistemologically, NS appears to be H_0 , because it is
 409 the expectation, i.e., the default explanation for departures from randomness (cf. Popper, 1976
 410 [2002]). Under EI, evolution has a determinate trajectory that might resemble NS. Because truly
 411 random evolution is *unexpected*, it is not H_0 , but H_1 , equivalent to NS. Additional study by
 412 qualified theoretical/philosophical biologists should help advance an EI heuristic. However,
 413 Darwinian reductionists should not expect that these heuristics will be designed to resolve linear
 414 cladograms or test Darwinian evolutionary hypotheses, because these models are unrealistic.

415 In the meantime, what is to be believed about the ‘tree of life?’ Is it wrong? Yes and no.
 416 As Podani (2019) emphasized, its idealization as a tree is overly simplistic, even if it has treelike
 417 Gestalt. Nodes such as that discussed by Olmstead and Medoya (2019) are wrong not in the
 418 sense that they are resolved incorrectly, but in the sense that they *cannot* be so resolved. No
 419 bifurcate resolution accurately describes the phylogenetic relations of those taxa. But what about
 420 apparently well-resolved nodes in the ‘tree of life?’ While still overly simplistic, in many cases,
 421 these can be accepted tentatively as historically informative *if* they are consilient. Consilience
 422 means that the same nodes emerge from analysis of different data from different organizational
 423 levels and using epistemologically distinct approaches (e.g., maximum likelihood and maximum
 424 parsimony) across broad parameter ranges. These nodes thusly, in Popper’s sense, best survive
 425 refutation.

426 Unfortunately, the tree-based reductionist macroevolutionary paradigm does not fare so
427 well, and it is not clear whether it can be salvaged. Mainly this owes to its Newtonian
428 interpretation of organisms. But even ignoring this, there are many other reasons, one of which is
429 its dependence on reductionist and inherently inaccurate phylogenetic trees. And even ignoring
430 this, existing analyses are wanting for both resistance to refutation (e.g., taxa bucking
431 correlations and independent analyses yielding conflicting conclusions) and technical
432 competency of analyzed data. HersHKovitz (2018a, 2019) highlighted examples involving
433 Portulacineae, but these are typical of the paradigm more broadly (e.g., Wenzel and Carpenter,
434 1994; Franz and Engle, 2010). Even if evolution were purely stochastic and linear, vices and
435 artifices of existing macroevolutionary analyses likely would invalidate the conclusions of most
436 published studies. Moreover, not even the data from such studies can be rescued, because, per
437 the reductionist assumptions, they emphasize biologically meaningless phenotypic ‘means’ of
438 species, and often equally meaningless means of environmental variables, such as macroclimatic
439 mean annual temperature and precipitation. There also is a tendency to reduce parameter states
440 arbitrarily and biologically unrealistically for statistical expedience. Such reductions might be
441 justifiable in the case of nucleotide bases and amino acids, but they are not in the case of
442 complex phenotypes.

443

444 **Conclusion: *Time to bail on Darwin?***

445 Returning to Olmstead and Medora’s (2019) lamentation on the persistence of
446 phylogenetic conflict into the age of phylogenomics, the main counterpoint offered here is that
447 ‘conflict’ in phylogenetic reconstruction *and* tree-based evolutionary analysis is not in the data,
448 but in the epistemology. Given what we know about organisms, we should not expect all data to

449 support a single linear and bifurcating cladogram, or, in many cases, even a single best-resolved
450 one. Moreover, even a single best-resolved tree is not the ‘true’ one. Thus, what is perceived as
451 conflict is merely a consequence of overzealous tree-thinking. Characters conflict because we
452 *think* they do. This is Darwin’s legacy. And it is part and parcel of his widely accepted rational
453 Newtonian explanation of the Grand Design of life, viz., natural selection.

454 PEI emerges as a consilient evolutionary model that demonstrates that the error of tree-
455 thinking is precisely its simplistic, reductionist, and linearized cladistic idealization of
456 evolutionary history and its nondimensional idealization of cladogenesis and species. In fact,
457 *both* are asymptotically complex and maximally dimensional. This is precisely the ‘what’ of
458 biological evolution, the reason why we study it in the first place, and even the reason why *we*
459 *are here* to study it in the first place.

460 PEI does not conflict with ‘descent with modification,’ but it recognizes that organisms
461 are autopoietic, that their self-determinacy renders their evolution not utterly stochastic and at
462 least partially chaotic, and that their hierarchical organization permits decoupling of the
463 evolutionary history of organismal traits. With PEI, we can appreciate that characters conflict on
464 linearized trees because *they damn well can*. These properties that yield EI also likely canalize
465 the generation of ‘statistically significant’ phylogenetic patterns. But, like fractals, the patterns
466 have no *proximal* cause, i.e., there is no NS.

467 Theoretical advances in biological epistemology may present a dilemma for
468 systematic/macroevolutionary biologists. These advances suggest that the Darwinian model of
469 evolution is false, or at the very least, far too simplistic to serve the discipline usefully. But all
470 current heuristic methodology assumes Darwinian evolution. Should the mainstream empirical
471 systematics/macroevolutionary discipline bail on Darwin and be left you-know-where without a

472 paddle? Or should the band continue to play on a sinking ship and publish results and
473 conclusions predicted to be invalid/erroneous? If, like NS, we establish that there is no Santa
474 Claus, should we continue to explain how he delivers toys to a billion children across the globe
475 in just one evening?

476 As Olmstead and Medoya (2019), among others, make clear, already it is clear that
477 Darwinian phylogenetic conceptualization is obsolete. At the very least, contemporary
478 systematic and macroevolutionary biology would do well to reconsider its obsession with tree-
479 thinking and resolving definitively a bifurcate ‘tree of life.’ Evolution, like a forest, evidently is
480 more than the sum of its trees.

481

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490 contemplation of the sport of horse racing in Chile.

491

492

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