

1 **Towards the next generation of species delimitation methods: an**
2 **overview of Machine Learning applications**

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8 **ABSTRACT**

9 Species delimitation is the process of distinguishing between populations of the
10 same species and distinct species of a particular group of organisms. Various
11 methods exist for inferring species limits, whether based on morphological,
12 molecular, or other types of data. In the case of methods based on DNA
13 sequences, most of them are rooted in the coalescent theory. However,
14 coalescence-based models have limitations, especially regarding complex
15 evolutionary scenarios, large datasets, and varying genetic data types. In this
16 context, machine learning (ML) can be considered as a promising analytical tool,
17 and provides an effective way to explore dataset structures when species-level
18 divergences are hypothesized. In this review, we examine the use of ML in
19 species delimitation and provide an overview and critical appraisal of existing
20 workflows. We also provide simple explanations on how the main types of ML
21 approaches operate, which should help uninitiated researchers and students
22 interested in the field. Our review suggests that while current ML methods
23 designed to infer species limits are analytically powerful, they also present
24 specific limitations and should not be considered as definitive alternatives to
25 coalescent methods for species delimitation. On the other hand, such variability

26 might also represent an advantage, highlighting the flexibility of ML algorithms.
27 Future enterprises should consider the constraints related to the use of simulated
28 data, as in other model-based methods relying on simulations. We also propose
29 best practices for the use of ML methods in species delimitation, offering insights
30 into potential future applications. We expect that the proposed guidelines will be
31 useful for enhancing the accessibility, effectiveness, and objectivity of ML in
32 species delimitation.

33 *Key words:* bioinformatics, molecular data, speciation, phylogenetics, artificial
34 intelligence, deep learning.

35

36 **1. Introduction**

37 *1.1. Inferring species limits*

38 Species represent fundamental entities across all biological disciplines.
39 Consequently, the review, categorization, and characterization of taxa within this
40 level constitute a pivotal aspect of biodiversity research (Bortolus, 2008; Vink et
41 al., 2012; Ely et al., 2017). The process of identifying, characterizing, and defining
42 a species is data-intensive and entails various practical dimensions. This
43 complexity arises from managing extensive biological data and dealing with a
44 range of theoretical elements, from the establishment of homologies, to taxon-
45 specific traits, and the very philosophical notion of species. Furthermore,
46 conceptual issues surrounding the definition of species concepts still attract
47 debates among taxonomists and evolutionary biologists (Pante et al., 2015;
48 Zachos, 2016). These discussions reach the realms of philosophy, because a
49 multitude of data and methodologies will probably not fully solve many
50 fundamental questions surrounding the nature of species (Zachos, 2016; Wilkins

51 et al., 2022), or the 'species ontology' (what a species really is or represents). A
52 complete resolution on this subject remains elusive, as it intertwines the empirical
53 evidence biologists are able to extract from nature with philosophical definitions
54 surrounding species concepts (Pigliucci, 2003).

55 One of the most popular modern definitions is the 'Biological Species
56 Concept' (de Queiroz, 2005a; Zachos, 2016), which defines species as
57 interbreeding populations reproductively isolated from others (Mayr, 1969; 1996;
58 2000). Yet, many challenges to this concept emerged throughout the years as
59 empirical data clearly shows that the history of life on Earth does not fit into a
60 bifurcating process (Edwards et al., 2016; Mallet et al., 2016), and a clear
61 delineation of reproductive barriers is hindered by instances of asexual
62 reproduction, natural hybridization and gene flow (Arnold, 1992; Shurtliff, 2013;
63 Gompert et al., 2017). Hence, taxonomists and evolutionary biologists must
64 recognize that multiple species definitions will coexist in the practice of species
65 delimitation, and these are usually chosen based on the biological context of the
66 organisms under study.

67 Another important concept, the General Lineage Concept (GLC), diverges
68 from many others by prioritizing the recognition of independently evolving
69 lineages over specific biological criteria such as reproduction or morphology (de
70 Queiroz, 1998; 1999; 2007). According to the GLC, a species is defined as an
71 independently evolving metapopulation lineage, emphasizing each species'
72 unique evolutionary identity across time and space (de Queiroz, 2007). While
73 unique morphological, ecological, or any other biological trait might be considered
74 relevant in supporting the investigation of the speciation process, they are not
75 mandatory criteria for species definition under the GLC perspective, but rather

76 additional evidence supporting lineage separation (de Queiroz, 2007). Thus, this
77 concept accounts for the contingent nature of the speciation process, where
78 different biological properties may support species limits in varying degrees. It
79 also emphasizes the need for multiple lines of evidence to corroborate
80 hypotheses of species divergence, aligning with Integrative Taxonomy
81 approaches (Wiens & Penkrot, 2002; Dayrat, 2005; Padial et al., 2010; Fujita et
82 al., 2012).

83 The GLC also provides a theoretical distinction between the 'species
84 ontology problem' (what a species is) and the 'delimitation problem' (how to
85 operationally distinguish among putative species) (de Queiroz, 2007).
86 Interestingly, while a clear relationship exists between these components, namely
87 the species concept and species delimitation, historically, a significant part of the
88 scientific efforts has focused on the former (see Sites Jr and Marshall, 2004;
89 Wiens, 2007; de Queiroz, 2011; Hausdorf, 2011). The development of theoretical
90 considerations related to species delimitation, in particular that based on
91 molecular data, occurred mainly in the last two decades, accompanied by the
92 introduction of new criteria and statistical methods (Lukhtanov, 2019; Rannala
93 and Yang, 2020). Historically, identifying species limits, and describing new
94 species, have primarily relied on morphological data (Wiens, 2007; Rannala,
95 2015; Rannala and Yang, 2020). However, morphological traits can be influenced
96 by environmental factors, leading to convergence or divergence without
97 necessarily reflecting genetic or evolutionary relationships between lineages
98 (Price et al., 2003; Wake et al., 2011; Jarvis et al., 2014). Thus, genomic data
99 has emerged as a crucial tool for inferring species limits, offering a more objective

100 approach for species delimitation (Fujita et al., 2012), while complementing
101 traditional morphological methods (Jörger and Schrödl, 2013).

102 Modern species delimitation methods (SDMs) aiming at identifying
103 evolutionary units (Tautz et al., 2003; Vogler and Monaghan, 2007) mostly
104 operate with molecular data under the principles of Coalescent Theory, notably,
105 the multispecies coalescent (MSC; Rannala and Yang, 2003; Degnan and
106 Rosenberg, 2009). The MSC analytical framework addresses various
107 evolutionary assumptions while also managing different types of problems, such
108 as conflicts among different gene trees, **incomplete lineage sorting** (terms in
109 bold are defined in the Glossary, available in Appendix A), and errors in
110 phylogenetic inference (Knowles & Carstens, 2007; Carstens et al., 2013; Jacobs
111 et al., 2018). The use of modern SDMs has also grown due to advancements in
112 statistical frameworks for phylogenetic inference (Edwards, 2009; O'Meara,
113 2012), along with Molecular Biology tools (e.g., next-generation sequencing
114 (NGS); Slatko et al., 2018) and Bioinformatics (Searls, 2010).

115 Nonetheless, using SDMs with genetic data may fail to distinguish
116 population structure from species-level divergence (Sukumaran and Knowles,
117 2017), and may also be affected by other issues associated with the reliance on
118 the MSC model (Rannala and Yang, 2003; Degnan and Rosenberg, 2009;
119 Edwards, 2009; Fujita et al., 2012). Some methods also have their functionality
120 and performance compromised in scenarios when there is introgression between
121 groups that constitute potential species (Rannala and Yang, 2010; Leaché et al.,
122 2014; Jackson et al., 2017), and are more reliable in situations where gene flow
123 ceases immediately after population divergence (Fujita et al., 2012; Smith and
124 Carstens, 2020). Also, simulations have shown that ignoring gene flow leads the

125 MSC to overestimate **population sizes** and underestimate divergence times
126 (e.g., Leaché et al., 2014). Hence, the effectiveness of the MSC framework is
127 limited, to some extent, when additional processes influence divergence during
128 speciation (Smith and Carstens, 2020). In any case, different SDMs have varying
129 capabilities to address difficult evolutionary scenarios, and while such methods
130 may introduce biases in certain situations, they are not inherently useless.

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132 *1.2. Machine learning, evolutionary biology, and species delimitation*

133 **Machine learning (ML)**, a branch of artificial intelligence (AI) known for its
134 computational efficiency and predictive accuracy, has recently gained popularity
135 in Evolutionary Biology mainly due to its ability to analyze and process large,
136 complex, and high-dimensional datasets (Chicco, 2017; Borowiec et al., 2022;
137 Fountain-Jones et al., 2021; Greener et al., 2021; Morimoto et al., 2021). In
138 general terms, ML can be defined as a group of computational programs that can
139 learn through experience (E) with respect to a class of tasks (T), and an
140 evaluation measure (P), if its performance on the tasks of T, evaluated by P,
141 increases with E (Mitchell, 1997). Many ML algorithms are known to be extremely
142 useful in various aspects of biology. This includes photo-based species
143 identification (Wäldchen and Mäder 2018), morphology-based species
144 delimitation and description (Domingos et al., 2014; Breitman et al., 2018),
145 biodiversity monitoring (McClure et al., 2020), behavioural studies (Valletta et al.,
146 2017; Wang, 2019), DNA sequencing (Libbrecht and Noble, 2015; Liu, 2019),
147 population genetics (Sheehan and Song 2016; Schrider and Kern, 2018; Fonseca
148 & Carstens, 2024), ecology (Christin et al., 2019; Scalon et al., 2020; Pichler et
149 al., 2020; Lürig et al., 2021; Silva et al., 2024), medicine (Sidey-Gibbons and

150 Sidey-Gibbons, 2019), microbiology (Qu et al., 2019), and more (see Borowiec
151 et al., 2022; Fountain-Jones et al., 2021; Morimoto et al., 2021).

152 Therefore, its potential in evolutionary biology, and particularly in species
153 delimitation, is evident (Karbstein et al., 2023). Specific examples can already be
154 found in studies involving model selection in demography and phylogeography
155 (Pudlo et al., 2016; Fonseca et al., 2021), speciation (Blischak et al., 2021),
156 phylogenetics (Suvorov et al., 2020; Solis-Lemus et al., 2022 preprint; Smith &
157 Hahn, 2023; Zaharias et al., 2022; Mo et al., 2024), and species delimitation (Pei
158 et al., 2018; Derkarabetian et al., 2019; Smith & Carstens, 2020; Pyron et al.,
159 2023), with the last one forming the primary focus of this review.

160 In the following sections, we provide an overview of ML applications in the
161 context of species delimitation, with an emphasis on those that operate using
162 molecular data.

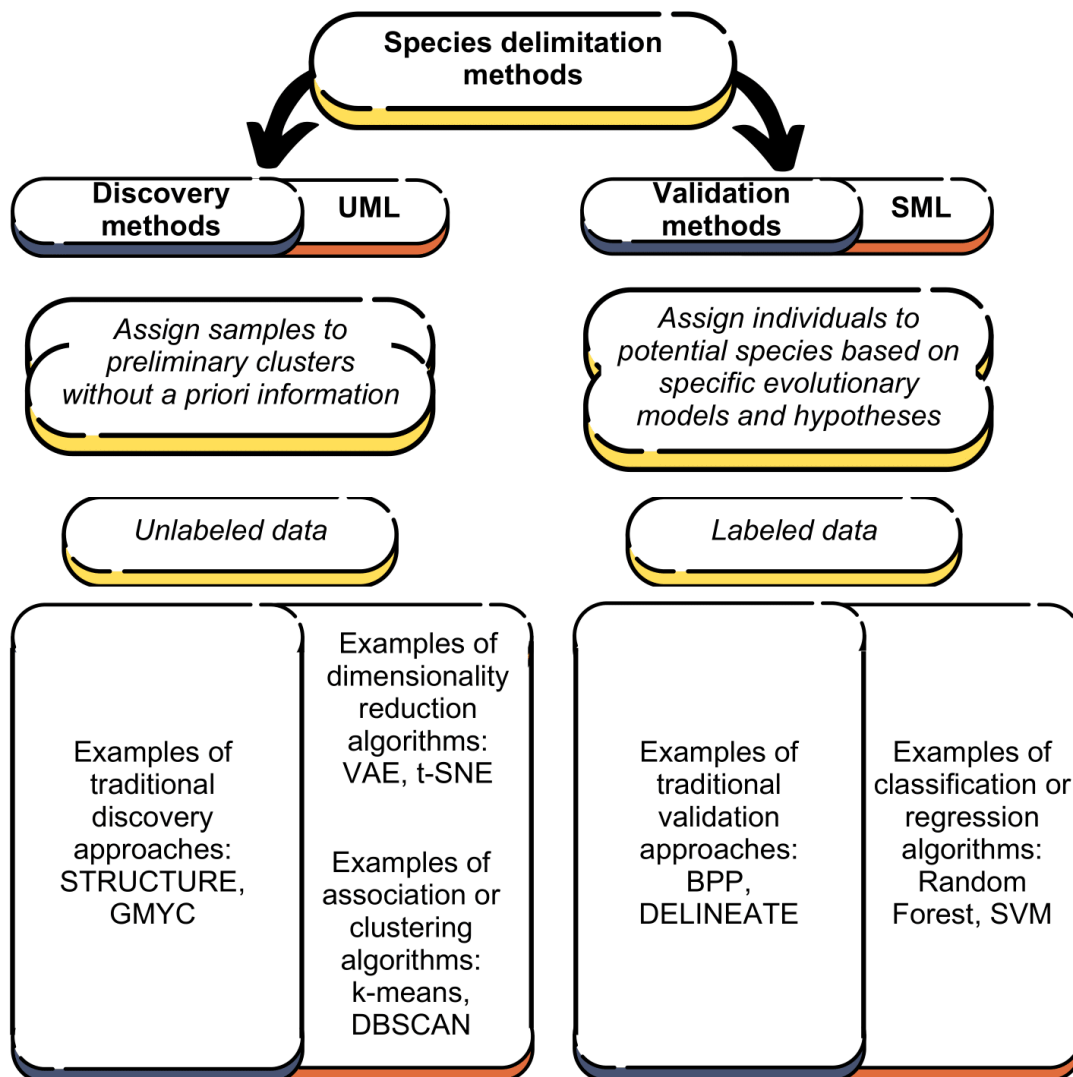
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164 **2. Current ML applications for species delimitation**

165 In the same way that there are two primary categories of ML, namely
166 supervised and unsupervised learning (SML and UML, respectively), species
167 delimitation methods can also be broadly categorized into two main groups:
168 discovery and validation (see Carstens et al., 2013; Rannala, 2015). Discovery
169 approaches involve grouping samples without prior information (Pons et al.,
170 2006; O'Meara, 2010; Huelsenbeck et al., 2011), while validation approaches
171 require researchers to first assign the samples to potential lineages (species
172 hypotheses) before testing them (Flouri et al., 2018; Sukumaran et al., 2021).
173 This draws a conceptual parallel between traditional discovery approaches and
174 UML methods, and between validation methods and supervised algorithms (Fig.

175 1). Also, it is important to note that ML methods are likelihood-free species
 176 delimitation approaches, offering several advantages over **likelihood-based**
 177 **approaches**, such as eliminating the need for complex statistical calculations,
 178 making them computationally efficient and suitable for analyzing large datasets
 179 with many taxa.

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182 **Fig. 1.** Comparative diagram categorizing species delimitation methods and machine learning
 183 algorithms, along with some of their key characteristics. Species delimitation methods can be
 184 broadly categorized as discovery and validation methods, akin to unsupervised and supervised
 185 machine learning algorithms, respectively.

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188 Below, we present a comprehensive overview of recently applied ML
189 methods in the domain of molecular species delimitation, emphasizing their
190 computational attributes and underlying assumptions. Our selection process
191 involved a thorough search across scientific literature repositories, databases,
192 and online journals, with a specific emphasis on studies featuring ML methods
193 and workflows explicitly designed for species limits inference. We prioritized
194 research projects that either introduced novel methodologies (see Table 1) or
195 enhanced and tested existing techniques in this context (Table A.1 in Appendix
196 B). In our selection process, we focused exclusively on projects directly dedicated
197 to species delimitation, despite the abundant literature on ML within related fields
198 such as demography, population genetics, and phylogeography. Additionally, our
199 emphasis is on methods designed for analyzing DNA sequence data. The
200 categorized methods include SML, UML, and **deep learning**. While the backend
201 processes may differ among such ML categories, their main goal when it comes
202 to species delimitation usually remains the same: to analyze a given set of test
203 data and classify it into distinct outcomes that define the species represented
204 within the data.

205 Some studies applied ML techniques using other types of data rather than
206 molecular information, such as morphology or ecology, for species delimitation
207 and integrative taxonomy. A brief exploratory section regarding these particular
208 studies can be found in Appendix B.

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211 **Table 1.** List of proposed ML applications specifically designed to work on inferences about species limits.

Reference	Languages	Category	Algorithms	Simulator	Input	Data representation
CLADES: A Classification-based Machine Learning Method for Species Delimitation from Population Genetic Data (Pei et al., 2018) ¹	python	SML	Support vector machines	MCcoal	Multiple sequence alignment (MSA) or SNP matrix	Population genetics summary statistics
A demonstration of unsupervised machine learning in species delimitation (Derkarabetian et al., 2019) ²	R/python	UML	Variational autoencoders and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding	NA	SNP data matrix	One-hot-encoding of the SNP data matrix and axis from a discriminant analysis of principal components
Process-based species delimitation leads to identification of more biologically relevant species (Smith & Carstens, 2020) ³	python	SML	Random forest	fastsimcoal	SNP data matrix	Folded multi-dimensional SFS
Coalescent-based species delimitation meets deep learning: Insights from a highly fragmented cactus system (Perez et al., 2021) ⁴	python	Deep learning	Convolutional neural networks	ms	SNP data matrix	Matrices (as images), with genotypes encoded as higher or lower frequency states
Speciation Hypotheses from Phylogeographic Delimitation Yield an Integrative Taxonomy for Seal Salamanders (<i>Desmognathus monticola</i>) (Pyron et al., 2023) ⁵	R	UML	Self-organizing maps (SOMs)	NA	SNP data matrix	SNP matrix, in which the rows are individual specimens, the columns are the 2-4 possible states at each SNP locus, and the entries are the frequency of that state

212 Online repositories where it is possible to find more information about the currently existing platforms. ¹<https://github.com/pjweggy/CLADES>;213 ²<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/abs/pii/S1055790319301721>; ³<https://github.com/meganismith/delimitR>; ⁴https://github.com/manolofperez/CNN_spDelimitation_Piloso;214 ⁵https://github.com/kyleaconnell22/Pyron_et_al_UML_sp_delim/tree/main

215 *2.1 Discovery and unsupervised methods*

216 Unsupervised machine learning (UML) relies solely on the inherent data structure to
217 find patterns within the data, whether by clustering similar data points together, reducing the
218 dimensionality of the data while retaining essential information, or by identifying unusual
219 patterns or outliers, which may indicate errors or novel phenomena (Hastie et al., 2009;
220 Libbrecht and Noble, 2015; Dike et al., 2018). Consequently, UML algorithms operate
221 without predefined assumptions about the dataset underlying structure, population
222 parameters, species numbers, or sample categorization, making them particularly suitable
223 for species delimitation where no prior hypotheses are put forward.

224 In terms of delimiting species, clustering or dimensionality reduction UML algorithms
225 are generally employed (Fig. 2). Clustering methods group input data into subsets, where
226 samples with high similarities are placed in the same cluster and exhibit less similarity with
227 samples in other clusters. Dimensionality reduction focuses on compressing data to identify
228 a smaller distinct set of variables that could capture essential features of the original data,
229 while minimizing information loss. Thus, UML dimensionality reduction may provide intuitive
230 data visualization and accommodate various data types (Libbrecht and Noble, 2015), being
231 particularly effective when coalescent methods tend to oversplit potential species
232 (Derkarabetian et al., 2019). In sum, UML algorithms enable the simultaneous use of diverse
233 data types, mainly by extracting and condensing the necessary information to identify limits
234 between biological groups (Pyron, 2023; Pyron et al., 2023).

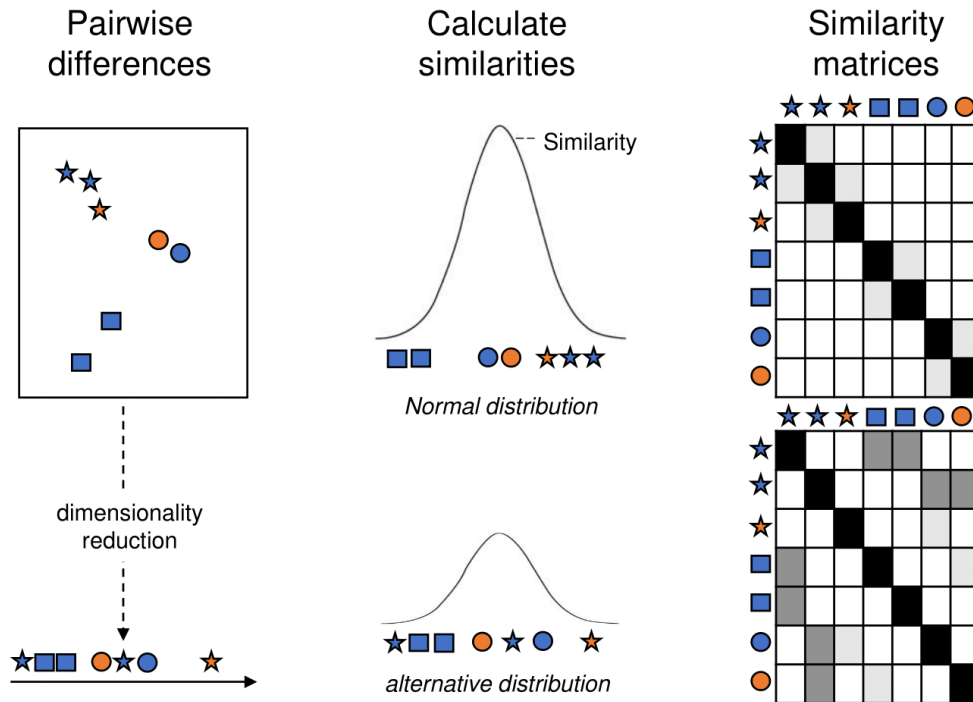
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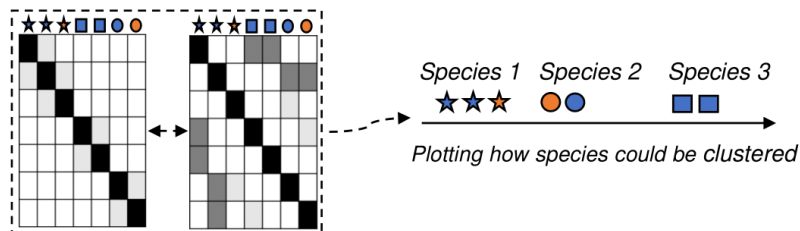
a) SNPs matrix (or transformations from it) representing the input data

	SNPs							
Samples	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	★
	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	★
	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	★
	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	■
	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	■
	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	●
	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	●

b)



c) Minimize differences, rearrange low-dimensional matrix and iteratively compare it with the original one



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Fig. 2. Diagram outlining a potential UML workflow for species delimitation, utilizing the t-SNE algorithm (inspired by Derkarabetian et al., 2019). a) Data representation is the initial step, and it varies depending on the chosen ML tool, which may work with sequence data, SNP matrices, or population genetics metrics extracted from them. b) t-SNE, as a dimensionality reduction technique, iteratively finds a lower-dimensional representation of the original data. It identifies local similarity spaces between sample pairs by analyzing Gaussian and lower-dimensional distributions, such as the Cauchy or t-student with one degree of freedom. c) The algorithm's goal is to align the new similarity matrix with the original data by iteratively moving data points closer to their nearest neighbors in the higher-dimensional space and away from more distant ones. This process continues until the maximum number of iterations is reached or no further improvements can be made, resulting in the proper grouping of samples based on their similarities (e.g., individuals or populations assigned to a species based on the chosen data representation).

251 Derkarabetian et al. (2019) conducted a study to assess the performance of UML and
252 deep learning methods for species delimitation. Their research highlighted the effectiveness
253 of variational autoencoder (VAE) and t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE)
254 algorithms for accurately identifying species clusters. In the case of VAE, single-nucleotide
255 polymorphism (SNP) matrices were converted via 'one-hot coding', where nucleotides were
256 transformed into binary variables (e.g., A = [1, 0, 0, 0]; C = [0, 1, 0, 0], and so on), including
257 ambiguous bases (e.g., M = [0.5, 0.5, 0.0, 0.0]). This VAE approach employed multiple
258 layers of encoding to compress high-dimensional input data, followed by the reconstruction
259 of data through successive decoding layers. The latent variables, represented as a normal
260 distribution with mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ), offered a two-dimensional depiction of
261 the SNP matrix, facilitating a clear visualization that accounted for the uncertainty
262 surrounding groupings due to standard deviations among samples and groups. In the case
263 of t-SNE, data derived from a principal component analysis (PCA) was used as input
264 variables, followed by clustering tests using the output from the UML algorithms. Both
265 approaches yielded more readily interpretable outcomes compared to other methods
266 assessed by the authors, revealing distinct species groupings in a two-dimensional space
267 (Derkarabetian et al., 2019). Notably, the identified groups in this study corresponded to
268 those of an integrative taxonomy approach considered by the researchers in their
269 comparisons, suggesting that the limits identified by UML algorithms might correspond to
270 species-level divergence rather than population structure (Derkarabetian et al., 2019).

271 Pyron et al. (2023) introduced a novel UML approach designed for delineating
272 species limits from extensive genomic datasets, primarily grounded in **self-organizing**
273 **maps (SOMs)**. This approach produces discrete outcomes rather than continuous ones,
274 grouping genotypes based on similarity, and is posited as more advantageous than prior
275 workflows. Additionally, the authors propose determining the number of species by
276 analyzing the degree of grid occupancy in the SOM output. This quantification establishes

277 how many units, representing distinct clusters of genotypes, have been effectively mapped
278 from the original SNP matrix. Subsequently, the method estimates the cumulative distances
279 from each sample to its immediate neighbors. To effectively separate these candidate
280 species, Pyron et al. (2023) recommend performing cluster analyses, such as k-means. The
281 determination of the optimal number of **classes** or species in the dataset is achieved by
282 selecting the value that maximizes the sequential reduction in the weighted sum of squares
283 from k to $k + 1$. Also, we highlight that this technique is rooted in the assessment of similarity
284 rather than dissimilarity. An extension of this method has been proposed in the form of a
285 SuperSOM approach, incorporating the possibility of using several trait classes
286 simultaneously, such as alleles, morphological and ecological variables (Pyron, 2023).

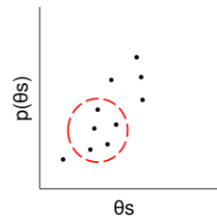
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288 *2.2. Validation and supervised methods*

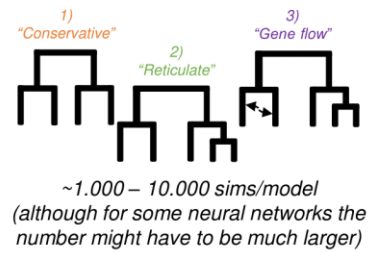
289 While UML approaches are powerful and widely applicable, there are situations
290 where supervised machine learning (SML) will offer analytical advantages. Unlike UML, a
291 workflow for applying any SML method to population genetic data generally include data
292 simulation for various evolutionary scenarios, encoding both simulated and observed
293 genetic data into **feature vectors**, **training** the algorithm, assessing its predictive
294 performance through accuracy estimates, and applying it to new observed data points (Fig.
295 3). Thus, the use of simulated genetic data based on known evolutionary models is
296 essential, given the scarcity of adequately sized datasets with high-confidence labels in
297 Evolutionary Biology.

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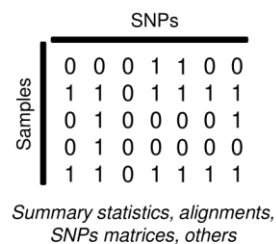
a) Evolutionary models designing and prior distributions extraction



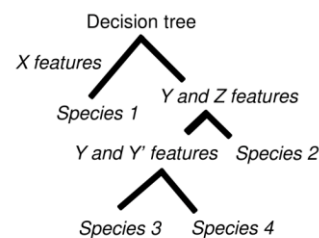
b) Simulating data for each model and their respective prior distributions



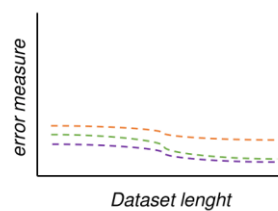
c) Choosing how to represent the biological data



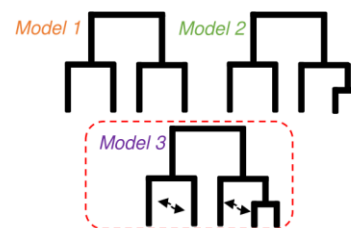
d) Applying algorithm to the training set



e) Evaluating performance and optimizing parameters



f) Applying algorithm to the test set (empirical data), then choosing the best model



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 300 Fig. 3. Diagram illustrating a potential SML workflow for species delimitation (inspired by the work of Smith and
 301 Carstens, 2020). a) The initial step involves designing priors for the evolutionary models considered in the
 302 study. b) Simulated data is generated for each model, typically ranging from 1,000 to 10,000 simulations per
 303 model, using relevant simulation software. c) The data is represented according to the requirements of the
 304 chosen ML tool. d) Following data simulation and representation, ML model training begins, involving various
 305 preliminary steps like data pre-processing, dataset division, feature selection, and algorithm choice. e) Model
 306 performance (both in terms of biological accuracy and computationally) is assessed using statistical metrics,
 307 allowing for retraining and adjustment based on the results. f) Once the model is adequately trained and
 308 evaluated, it can be used to predict species categories for new data, which can be either newly simulated data
 309 or empirical data consistent with the model's proposal, determining how many species exist in that particular
 310 biological system.
 311

312 The process of training and applying ML algorithms is influenced by the assumptions
 313 of the underlying evolutionary processes, such as population size, selection strength, and
 314 gene flow. Thus, the reliability of results obtained from SML methods rely on the
 315 resemblance between the training data (typically simulated) and the actual biological data.
 316 Anyhow, SML algorithms generally demand a significantly smaller amount of simulated data

317 compared to other methods based on simulations, such as **Approximate Bayesian**
318 **Computation (ABC)**, resulting in reduced computational effort (e.g., a few thousand
319 simulated datasets versus hundreds of thousands of simulations per scenario in most ABC
320 approaches; Csilléry et al., 2010; Pudlo et al., 2016; Raynal et al., 2019).

321 CLADES (Pei et al., 2018), for example, is a SML approach designed for species
322 delimitation, utilizing **classification models** trained and evaluated on *multilocus* sequence
323 data. Notably, this study introduced the application of **support vector machines (SVM)** for
324 species delimitation. For model training, datasets at the population level were simulated,
325 with and without gene flow. Within this framework, species delimitation is framed as a
326 classification task, where the goal is to classify pairs of populations as either belonging to
327 the same or different species. Each training sample was represented as a list of summary
328 statistics, and a SVM **regression** is calculated, through iterative training, to minimize the
329 misclassification cost. Subsequently, the SVM classifier computed the probability of the
330 training samples belonging to each potential grouping.

331 The training dataset was simulated based on a two-species model (A and B) where
332 both species diverged at time τ with identical population size parameters ($\theta_A = \theta_B = \theta$). Each
333 species further consisted of two populations that recently split at time τ_p . **Migration** between
334 species A and B was allowed at a rate of $M = Nm$ migrants per generation, with m
335 representing the migration rate per generation. The MCcoal software (Rannala and Yang,
336 2003) was used to simulate multilocus sequence data of length L under various parameter
337 combinations for training. For each possible parameter combination (θ , τ , M), sequences
338 were simulated for 100 loci with a length of $L = 100\text{Kbp}$ for all populations. For each locus,
339 40 sequences were sampled, with 10 sequences per population. Additionally, symmetrical
340 migration between species A and B was assumed before the populations of the species split
341 at time τ_p . All training samples were combined to train a global classifier, enabling it to adapt
342 to various values of θ and M instead of assuming fixed parameters. Longer loci improved

343 CLADES' efficiency, and it was robust to different modeling structures, accommodating
344 various demographic events and evolutionary parameters.

345 Smith and Carstens (2020) introduced delimitR, a SML approach designed to conduct
346 species delimitation in a model selection task; delimitR employs the multidimensional **site**
347 **frequency spectrum** (mSFS) with a **binning** strategy as a predictor variable for a **Random**
348 **Forest (RF)** classifier. Working with data summarized through the mSFS, delimitR facilitates
349 the evaluation of models that vary in terms of lineage numbers. In essence, this framework
350 aims to discriminate between various divergence models compatible with virtually any
351 species concept, as asserted by the authors. Given its supervised nature, delimitR demands
352 researchers to define reasonable priors, such as divergence times or migration rates, and
353 to make decisions about the inclusion of models within the set (Smith and Carstens, 2020).
354 For each model, Smith and Carstens (2020) simulated 10,000 mSFS. A RF classifier was
355 constructed using 1,000 **decision trees** to accommodate the extensive number of models.
356 delimitR's performance improved with larger SNP matrices and increasing divergence times.
357 Compared to ABC methods, delimitR showed lower error rates, even though the detection
358 of migration becomes challenging in cases of recent divergence between lineages (Smith
359 and Carstens, 2020). The authors acknowledge that further research is needed to elucidate
360 the association between the model space, number of parameters, and delimitation accuracy.

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362 *2.3. Deep learning*

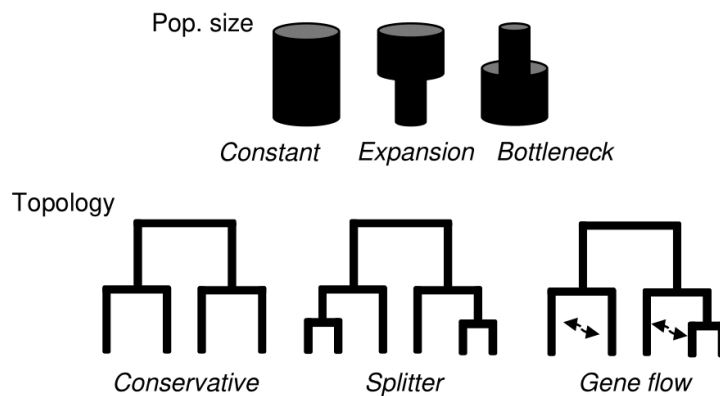
363 **Artificial neural networks (ANNs)** are increasingly employed in Evolutionary
364 Biology, often referred to as 'deep learning' (Sheehan and Song, 2016). Deep learning
365 techniques have found success in various fields in the Biological Sciences (Angermueller et
366 al., 2016; Sheehan and Song, 2016; Schrider and Kern, 2018). However, its adoption in
367 Evolutionary Biology is relatively recent (see Angermueller et al., 2016; Sheehan and Song,
368 2016; Blischak et al., 2021; Yelmen and Jay, 2023). The popularity of ANNs can be attributed

369 to their highly flexible data input and output structure, allowing networks trained for one task
370 to be repurposed for another by modifying their final **layers**, for instance, through **transfer**
371 **learning** approaches. This versatility enables the resolution of intricate tasks that might
372 prove challenging for **shallow learning** algorithms. Conversely, deep learning often
373 demands meticulous and more specific fine-tuning compared to shallow learning methods.

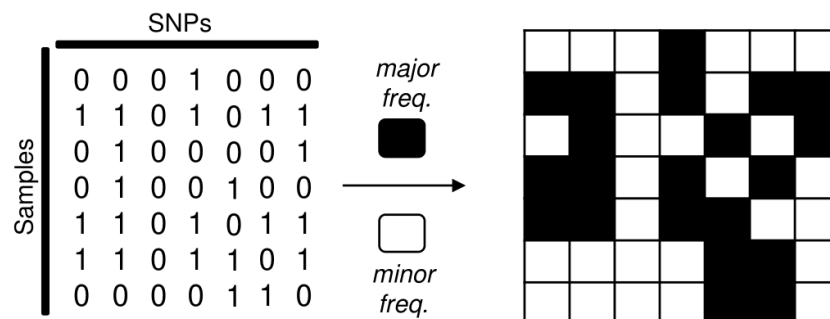
374 The fundamental stages involved in creating a supervised shallow learning
375 framework for species delimitation can be paralleled with the primary phases found in a deep
376 learning workflow. These encompass data simulation and representation, **model** training
377 and optimization, all the way to predicting the relevant categories from empirical data (Fig.
378 3). For a detailed description of how neural networks work, and their general structure, see
379 Sheehan and Song (2016), Borowiec et al. (2022), and Korfmann et al. (2023).

380

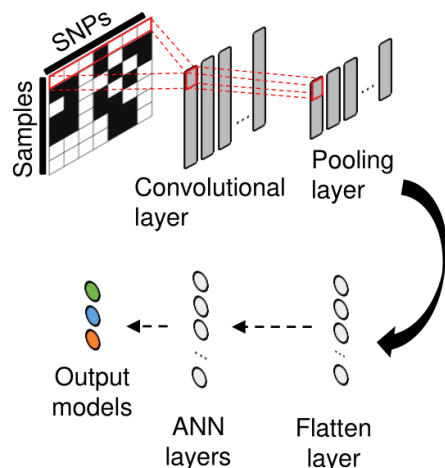
a) Simulate data under different evolutionary models



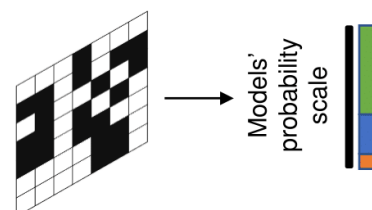
b) Convert the simulated data into image files



c) Train neural network with simulated data



d) Predict the probability of each model from empirical data with the trained neural network



381
 382 Fig. 4. Diagram illustrating a potential deep learning workflow applied in the context of species delimitation,
 383 using CNNs (inspired by Perez et al., 2021). a) The process typically begins with the simulation of biological
 384 data under various evolutionary models, considering factors like topology, population size, gene flow, and
 385 more, similar to SML. b) Next, data representation is crucial. For CNNs, SNP matrices are often converted into
 386 arrays or image files, where pixel contrast reflects differences in minor and major frequencies between
 387 samples. c) With the simulated and properly represented data, the network training phase can commence.
 388 The parameter configuration and network architecture may vary, depending on the specific study's
 389 requirements. d) Once each model is trained and its performance is rigorously evaluated, the final stage of the
 390 workflow involves predicting categories for new data. This can include using new simulated data with slight
 391 parametric modifications, still within the trained model's limits, as well as empirical data whose evolutionary
 392 history aligns with the proposed model. In both cases, the goal is to determine which delimitation model best
 393 applies to the biological system being investigated.

394 Perez et al. (2021) propose a species delimitation approach that accommodates the
395 integration of coalescence-based methods with model selection using **convolutional**
396 **neural networks (CNNs)**. Briefly, this approach can combine models from coalescent
397 analyses, such as using BPP (Flouri et al., 2018; 2020), allowing for the comparison of
398 different evolutionary scenarios. Thus, it allows for the test of species limits by integrating
399 data from various sources, including the possibility of incorporating knowledge from both
400 genetic analyses using coalescence-based methods and morphological hypotheses
401 reflecting diverse taxonomic arrangements. The initial steps involve simulating genetic data
402 for each delimitation hypothesis, with the study encompassing 10,000 simulations per
403 model, and transforming them into images. These images of simulated data are used to train
404 a neural network capable of recognizing simulations generated from each model. Then,
405 each species hypothesis probability can be predicted through CNNs using a **test set**. In the
406 same study, the authors conducted a comparison between their model selection approach
407 and ABC using empirical data. It is worth noting that while CNNs used 10,000 simulations
408 per model, ABC required 100,000 simulations per model. The CNNs consistently
409 demonstrated superior performance in distinguishing between the simulated demographic
410 scenarios, outperforming ABC in all cases, with fewer simulations and faster execution times
411 (Perez et al., 2021).

412

413 *2.4 How has machine learning changed our approach to delimit species so far?*

414 To date, relatively few studies (<20, also see Appendix B) have specifically explored
415 ML techniques for species delimitation, particularly when focusing on molecular data.
416 Among these, only five introduced novel ML approaches for species delimitation, providing
417 comprehensive details from initial simulations to statistical performance evaluations (Pei et
418 al., 2018; Derkarabetian et al., 2019; Smith and Carstens, 2020; Perez et al., 2021; Pyron
419 et al., 2023). These approaches, and also other ML frameworks applied in phylogeography

420 and demographic inferences, are often advocated by the researchers and developers
421 themselves on the following arguments: i) challenges and limitations associated with the
422 assumptions of coalescent methods (Derkarabetian et al., 2019; Smith and Carstens, 2020;
423 Blischak et al., 2021; Martin et al., 2021; Derkarabetian et al., 2022); ii) ML computational
424 efficiency and the capacity of handling complex evolutionary models (Pei et al., 2018; Martin
425 et al., 2021; Perez et al., 2021; Derkarabetian et al., 2022; Pyron et al., 2023); and iii) ML
426 acting as a likelihood-free approach, enabling the consideration of models where likelihood
427 computation would be intractable (Smith and Carstens, 2020; Martin et al., 2021; Perez et
428 al., 2021; Sanchez et al., 2020). While ML algorithms are often used similarly to simulation-
429 based approaches like ABC, additional steps are generally incorporated, such as: i)
430 selecting a more informative subset of summary statistics based on specific criteria (Smith
431 and Carstens, 2020; Martin et al., 2021), and ii) handling larger or more complex genetic
432 datasets compared to what Bayesian methods can do in a reasonable amount of time
433 (Ghirotto et al., 2021; Smith and Carstens, 2020; Collin et al., 2021).

434

435 *2.5. What types of species ML methods might be detecting?*

436 A significant part of the studies we analyzed were philosophically based on species
437 concepts grounded on evolutionary or genealogical independence criteria. This might stem
438 from our focus on workflows using molecular data, which generally aims at identifying
439 lineages and genetic clusters characterized by significant levels of genetic divergence and
440 restricted amounts of gene flow. Also, some studies specifically model parameters like
441 migration, which make them in line with concepts focused on reproductive criteria. While
442 evolutionary and genealogical independence evidence (or reproductive criteria) may have
443 their limitations in investigating species limits, results generated by ML methods in this
444 context can still serve as hypotheses for further investigations (e.g., Fujita et al., 2012),
445 aligning with the GLC perspective (de Queiroz, 1998; 1999; 2005b).

446 In this context, it is reasonable to assert that ML-based delimitation methods, just as
447 coalescence-based methods, might not always be identifying species *per se*, but rather: i)
448 incompletely separated (or incipient) species, which may eventually be classified as distinct
449 (Burbrink et al., 2021), or even as 'subspecies' (de Queiroz, 2020); or ii) population or
450 phylogeographic variation (Rosenblum et al., 2012; Sukumaran et al., 2021). Consequently,
451 while ML methods hold increasing promise for species boundaries inference, it is necessary
452 to evaluate the extent to which the ML methods could effectively discern evolutionary
453 independence among metapopulation lineages. So far, there are no definitive coalescent-
454 based solutions to differentiate between population structure and species (Sukumaran &
455 Knowles, 2017; Leaché et al., 2019). Thus, while model-based evolutionary lineage
456 structure detected through ML can be biologically relevant for species delimitation, additional
457 data and an evolutionary process-based perspective are crucial to discern the nature of the
458 inferred biological entities (Smith & Carstens, 2020; Sukumaran et al., 2021).

459 Inferring species limits from molecular data and integrating phenotypic data can be a
460 solution in some cases, but robust species delimitation still requires mechanistic hypotheses
461 about the speciation process itself (Padiál & De la Riva, 2021; Pyron et al., 2023; Pyron et
462 al., 2024), because distinguishing between population structure and actively diverging or
463 collapsing species require explicit hypotheses and quantifiable tests (Sukumaran &
464 Knowles, 2017; Derkarabetian et al., 2019; Huang, 2020; Pyron et al., 2024). Just as
465 phenotypic, ecological, or other biological attributes are not mandatory criteria for
466 designating an evolutionary lineage as a species (de Queiroz, 2007; Pyron et al., 2023),
467 genetic or genealogical groupings identified using ML-based delimitation methods can be
468 similarly interpreted. Within this context, while the primary criterion for recognizing a species
469 can still be evolutionary independence, other characteristics may serve as secondary
470 evidence of divergence and could be also analyzed using ML frameworks.

471 Due to its great versatility in handling diverse data types, ML future applications to
472 infer species limits may also focus on evaluating which of the different biological properties
473 could be most effectively integrated into the species hypotheses testing process. They may
474 be useful in discerning between patterns of population structure and species-level
475 divergence, especially through the integration of distinct traits, such as genomic divergence,
476 gene flow, ecological adaptation, and phenotypic differentiation (Freedman et al., 2023;
477 Prates et al., 2023; Pyron et al., 2024). Again, this approach aligns with de Queiroz's GLC
478 (1998; 1999; 2005), providing a deeper understanding of the speciation processes through
479 multiple biological perspectives.

480 Only a few detailed ML pipelines have been proposed so far to explore the
481 relationships between evolutionary models and divergence scenarios in terms of distinct
482 characteristics, whether genetic, phenotypic, geographic or ecological. For example, Yang
483 et al. (2022) introduced a CNN method that successfully integrates morphological and
484 molecular data for species identification. Pyron (2023), on the other hand, implemented a
485 UML method using SOMs for learning high-dimensional associations between observations
486 (e.g., specimens) across a wide set of input features (e.g., genetics, geography,
487 environment, and phenotype). Future methodologies could further explore this integration of
488 multiple sources of information, both regarding species delimitation and integrative
489 taxonomy.

490

491 **3. Advantages, limitations and future perspectives**

492 *3.1. Strengths and benefits of using ML to delimit species*

493 In general, ML methods applied to infer species limits offer some advantages over
494 coalescent or traditional simulation-based methods. Despite particular constraints, ML
495 algorithms can perform as well as or even outperform (in terms of biological accuracy)
496 traditional model selection tools and likelihood-based species delimitation methods (Pei et

497 al., 2018; Smith and Carstens, 2020; Perez et al., 2021; Derkarabetian et al., 2022).
498 Moreover, being likelihood-free, they are computationally more efficient and generally can
499 be trained on models that are at times too intricate for formal statistical estimators (Pei et
500 al., 2018; Kuzenkov et al., 2020; Smith and Carstens, 2020; Suvorov et al., 2020; Martin et
501 al., 2021; Perez et al., 2021). Some of these algorithms have proven to be highly efficient in
502 complex evolutionary scenarios, including situations involving gene flow or population size
503 fluctuations (Pei et al., 2018; Perez et al., 2021). This efficiency does not compromise the
504 ability to distinguish between different models (Smith et al., 2017), and even simple SML
505 methods provide high selection accuracy when comparing multiple models in a single
506 analysis (Gehara et al., 2020 preprint).

507 Specifically, when it comes to deep learning, a major advantage is their capacity to
508 automatically extract information from alignments (commonly treated as images), as
509 opposed to relying on summary statistics typically required by other ML methods. This
510 facilitates accurate and efficient classification or regression tasks, as observed in studies by
511 Sanchez et al. (2020), Fonseca et al. (2021), Perez et al. (2021), and Borowiec et al. (2022),
512 thus holding promise in future species delimitation studies. Besides, especially in supervised
513 approaches, which often use explicit speciation models to validate species (e.g., Smith and
514 Carstens, 2020), ML enables a more in-depth exploration of the speciation and
515 phylogeographic processes that underlie the formation of independent evolutionary
516 lineages. Thus, given that properly sampled genomic datasets can offer sufficient data for
517 analyzing complex evolutionary models, ML might serve a dual role: providing primary
518 evidence for examining species limits patterns, and assisting in the investigation and
519 reconstruction of the evolutionary processes responsible for these patterns.

520

521

522

523 3.2. Constraints regarding ML and species delimitation

524 Certain algorithms, especially those in SML or deep learning, can be overly
525 specialized. Modern ML methods are proficient at interpolating within the observed range of
526 values in the training data, even in cases where specific values have not been encountered
527 before, being adaptive and not solely reliant on memorizing specific training instances. Even
528 so, because such algorithms are typically trained on simulated data with specific values of
529 evolutionary parameters, such as θ and M , their performance might be compromised when
530 applied far outside the training parameter space (Schrider and Kern, 2018; Borowiec et al.,
531 2022). Besides, ML algorithms have some degree of **inductive bias** (Hüllermeier et al.,
532 2013). Therefore, exploring in further details the association between training capacity and
533 predictive power should be a priority for future studies.

534 Methods relying on a substantial volume of simulated data across diverse
535 evolutionary scenarios need to consider the careful design of prior distributions to simulate
536 models that closely resemble the real biological system under investigation. This challenge
537 becomes more pronounced for non-model organisms, where data availability may severely
538 limit the quality of parameter estimates (Tagu et al., 2014; Fonseca et al., 2016; Cerca et
539 al., 2021; Jorna et al., 2021). Nonetheless, these simulation problems are not exclusive to
540 ML-based workflows, as model selection frameworks such as ABC also employ simulated
541 data (Beaumont et al., 2002; Bertorelle et al., 2010). All model-based methods depend on
542 the specified models and its parameters, whether they are used for simulations or for direct
543 likelihood estimation. Thus, traditional species delimitation methods that do not require
544 simulations remain important alternatives for addressing delimitation challenges, in
545 particular when there is no clear reference for simulations. Coalescence-based inferential
546 methods are also limited in terms of their coverage of different evolutionary scenarios, but
547 they possess optimality and iterability properties that span a reasonable portion of the
548 parameter space, albeit at a considerable computational cost (e.g., Flouri et al., 2018;

549 Sukumaran et al., 2021). Nevertheless, methods not reliant on simulations can also be
550 sensitive to model misspecification, as the MSC deals with assumptions that may not be
551 appropriate for many biological systems.

552 Either way, it may be unfeasible to simulate data or train an ML algorithm across an
553 entire parameter space, especially in complex evolutionary models (Rannala and Yang,
554 2020). Limited information is available regarding the asymptotic statistical performance of
555 most ML methods applied for species delimitation, and important phenomena may be
556 entirely missing from the simulations (e.g., background selection, Mo and Siepel (2023), or
557 missing data Arnab et al. (2023)). Thus, such models may never be comprehensive enough,
558 have limitations in representing real data, and demand substantial computational resources
559 (Arenas, 2012; Mangul et al., 2019a; Zaharias et al., 2022). This leads to an inherent
560 challenge in avoiding some degree of misspecification in the training data, even considering
561 the variety of powerful genetic data simulators currently available, such as SLIM (Messer,
562 2013), discoal (Kern and Schrider, 2016), msprime (Baumdicker et al., 2021), and
563 fastsimcoal2 (Excoffier et al., 2021).

564 Another crucial perspective to consider is that numerous studies, whether focusing
565 on species delimitation, demography, or population genetics, incorporate ML for inferences
566 based on summary statistics (Pei et al., 2018; Smith and Carstens, 2020; Collin et al., 2021;
567 Ghirotto et al., 2021). There are methodologies tailored for handling data derived from SNP
568 matrices (Derkarabetian et al., 2019; Sanchez et al., 2020; Smith and Carstens, 2020;
569 Blischak et al., 2021; Fonseca et al., 2021; Martin et al., 2021; Perez et al., 2021) or raw
570 sequence data (Pei et al., 2018; Ghirotto et al., 2021), and only a few pipelines offer
571 extensibility to various genetic markers (e.g., Collin et al., 2021). Notably, deep learning
572 techniques are valuable tools in this context, offering the capability to analyze both raw
573 genetic data and summary statistics (Korfmann et al., 2023).

574 While summary statistics can also be derived from the original genetic data and are
575 valuable for distinguishing between simulated models, not all of them may be suitable for
576 making inferences about species limits. The practical implementation of such statistics on
577 the detection of specific evolutionary processes often encounters confounding factors that
578 can mimic similar effects on gene histories (Flagel et al., 2019). For example, Tajima's D is
579 a statistic sensitive to both positive selection and changes in population size (Simonsen et
580 al., 1995). Moreover, since different studies often employ their specific set of summary
581 statistics, comparing the results of ML applications is not always straightforward, or feasible,
582 without acknowledging the significant nuances tied to the biological context considered in
583 each approach. Thus, the tendency of some ML algorithms to rely on specific
584 representations of data rather than the original dataset can be seen as a drawback in certain
585 scenarios. Unless we precisely know which type of data is truly sufficient to represent the
586 target data, an approach solely based on a particular set of summary statistics can inevitably
587 result in a degree of information loss (Rannala and Yang, 2020).

588 An alternative to learning from summary statistics is to consider the alignment itself
589 as input, as demonstrated in the CNNs approach introduced by Perez et al. (2021). Along
590 with other deep learning techniques, CNNs implicitly enable dimensionality reduction while
591 capturing structures within the input data. Thus, comparing different ML approaches might
592 be misleading due to the variability in the biological foundations employed in each workflow.
593 In other words, it is not always reasonable to strictly compare results produced by different
594 ML approaches, as they are generally trained on specific parameters and data
595 representation.

596

597 *3.3. Possible avenues and prospects for future studies*

598 Regarding ML, one approach to mitigate the effects of misspecification during
599 simulation involves designing or using a simulator that enforces greater compatibility

600 between simulated and actual data. Generative adversarial networks (GANs), a type of deep
601 learning algorithm commonly used for creating synthetic images and voices (Chadha et al.,
602 2021), have shown promise in this regard (see Callier, 2022; Wang et al., 2021). GANs
603 operate with two networks, the generator and the discriminator, trained together (Goodfellow
604 et al., 2014). While the generator generates simulated data, the discriminator distinguishes
605 between real and fake data. Over the course of training, the generator network becomes
606 more powerful at producing realistic **examples**, and the discriminator network becomes
607 more skilled at distinguishing between real and synthetic data. Once training is complete,
608 the generator network can be utilized to generate new examples that are indistinguishable
609 from real data, providing a reliable way to work with **labeled data**. Researchers have already
610 assessed the utility of GANs in various fields, including genomics, phylogenetics, and
611 population genetics (Booker et al., 2023; Nesterenko et al., 2022 preprint; Yelmen and Jay,
612 2023). Smith and Hahn (2023), for instance, introduced phyloGAN, a workflow that takes a
613 concatenated alignment (or a set of alignments) as input and infers a phylogenetic tree,
614 potentially accounting for gene tree heterogeneity.

615 While such approaches perform effectively in relatively straightforward scenarios,
616 challenges still emerge as the complexity of evolutionary model space increases. This
617 complexity might stem from more variables in evolutionary models or larger trees and
618 alignments, resulting in potential issues related to accuracy and execution time (Nesterenko
619 et al., 2022 preprint; Smith and Hahn, 2023). Consequently, it is important to recognize that
620 applications of GANs in the field of Evolutionary Biology are still in the early stages of
621 development. To fully harness the potential of this tool in species delimitation, further efforts
622 are required to refine estimates of genetic population parameters (e.g., Wang et al., 2021).
623 Future advancements in GANs within the realm of evolutionary biology should focus, for
624 instance, on enhancing the efficiency of exploring parameter spaces, reducing

625 computational training times, and accommodating more complex models (Smith and Hahn,
626 2023).

627 Besides, issues related to potential errors in data simulation can be likened to a
628 "domain adaptation" problem, where a model trained on one data distribution is applied to a
629 dataset originating from a different distribution (Farahani et al., 2021; Mo and Siepel, 2023).
630 A classic illustration of domain adaptation is found in image classification. Consider a
631 situation in which a recognition model needs to identify different dog breeds from
632 photographs ("target domain"), but there is an abundance of labeled training data available
633 only in cartoon drawings of dogs ("source domain"). In such cases, a ML model must be
634 trained on one dataset with the expectation of performing well on another, even in the
635 presence of systematic differences between the two distributions.

636 Recent approaches typically involve learning a "domain-invariant" data
637 representation through a feature extractor neural network. This is accomplished by
638 minimizing domain disparities (Rozantsev et al., 2018), utilizing adversarial networks (Ganin
639 and Lempitsky, 2015; Liu and Tuzel, 2016; Bousmalis et al., 2017), or employing auxiliary
640 reconstruction tasks (Ghifary et al., 2016). Domain adaptation techniques have found
641 applications in fields such as genomics (Cochran et al., 2022) and population genetics (Mo
642 and Siepel, 2023), particularly as an unsupervised domain adaptation problem. Through
643 extensive simulation studies, Mo and Siepel (2023) convincingly demonstrated that their
644 domain-adapted models significantly outperformed standard networks across various
645 simulation misspecification scenarios. This outcome underscores the potential of domain
646 adaptation techniques as a promising avenue for developing more robust deep learning
647 models in the realm of population genetic inference (Mo and Siepel, 2023), potentially
648 including species delimitation.

649 In addition to the limitations regarding simulations and training models in specific
650 parameter spaces, there is the issue associated with the manipulation of data attributes and

651 different types of input data. This becomes even more relevant considering that ML
652 techniques are lauded for their adaptability, especially considering transfer learning
653 frameworks. A neural network initially trained for a specific task can be repurposed for
654 different learning contexts with the simple modification of some of its layers, even though
655 reusing trained models can be very challenging due to differences in data dimensionality
656 (Sanchez et al., 2020). As an example, a deep learning **architecture** originally trained for
657 inferring historical population sizes can be repurposed for classifying demographic
658 scenarios (Pan and Yang, 2010). Also, deep learning methods used for phylogeographic
659 model selection (Fonseca et al., 2021) could be easily applied to species limits issues with
660 minimal adaptations.

661

662 **4. Optimizing the use of ML in the context of species delimitation**

663 *4.1. Enhancing Species Delimitation through accessible and purpose-built ML*

664 The introduction of new ML approaches will increasingly enhance researchers' ability
665 to make biologically precise decisions, especially when these methods are purpose-built,
666 from conception to implementation, for the specific task of delimiting evolutionary lineages.
667 A critical step in any species delimitation study is to select the appropriate methods to be
668 employed, considering the available data and putative evolutionary scenarios. With a
669 multitude of possibilities in the modern Evolutionary Biology toolkit, the ideal choice should
670 not only consider an appropriate fit with the biological problem under investigation, but also
671 a statistical evaluation and performance optimization (Greener et al., 2021; Morimoto et al.,
672 2021), under various diversification scenarios, while estimating historical parameters like
673 divergence time, population size, and migration rate. It is important to assess in which
674 specific evolutionary scenarios coalescent methods might exhibit strong limitations, and
675 whether a new ML workflow might outperform others in terms of performance. Thus, a

676 comprehensive analysis of the methods characteristics, advantages, disadvantages, and
677 overall performance compared to existing SDMs is desired.

678 Such evaluation should also encompass both the algorithm's biological predictions
679 and computational performance. Comparisons should be performed considering the
680 inherent properties of the used ML algorithms, such as how the workflows manipulate the
681 data attributes, and the different types of input and output data. In nearly all studies using
682 ML methods to infer species limits, at least a minimal approach to estimating error or noise
683 is typically employed (Pei et al., 2018; Smith & Carstens, 2020; Martin et al., 2021;
684 Derkarabetian et al., 2022). For example, it is common for researchers to evaluate the ML
685 model's performance using genetic datasets of varying sizes, or alignments of different
686 dimensions. Then, the quantity and quality of data clearly influence the effectiveness of ML
687 applications, as analyses conducted on larger, well-filtered datasets consistently yield better
688 results (Pei et al., 2018; Smith & Carstens, 2020; Martin et al., 2021; Derkarebetian, et al.,
689 2022). This effect is pronounced in UML approaches, as they tend to be more susceptible
690 to data-related issues (Martin et al., 2021).

691 From a practical perspective, evaluating the suitability of an ML tool for species
692 delimitation also involves assessing its accessibility, particularly when compared to
693 traditional SDMs. To promote the widespread adoption of ML tools in species delimitation,
694 it is crucial to ensure that analyses are accessible and reproducible. For example, a
695 thorough description of the ML method, but without a detailed reference to the dataset, can
696 lead to significant issues within the workflow (Chicco, 2017; Greener et al., 2021). The same
697 rationale extends to the availability of the trained models. For example, Derkarebetian et al.
698 (2022) assessed a ML approach's capability to delimit cryptic species, and constructed a
699 "customized" training dataset from a well-studied lineage with biological characteristics akin
700 to their focal taxon. In cases like these, where a specific ML classifier has been designed
701 and trained with a particular dataset based on a specific evolutionary model's parameters,

702 it is also important to ensure both the dataset and the classifier are meticulously described
703 and made accessible to the public. Such precautions minimize the need to construct entirely
704 new workflows for each study, involving tasks such as data simulation, model training, and
705 the selection of evaluation metrics, enabling researchers to evaluate and enhance the
706 method without needing to start from scratch (Greener et al., 2021; Heil et al., 2021).

707 Additionally, ML's ability to efficiently compare a wide range of models using large
708 datasets in less computational time provides an important advantage over traditional model
709 comparison approaches. Nonetheless, access to adequate computing resources remains a
710 challenge for many researchers in species delimitation and various scientific disciplines
711 (Veretnik et al., 2008; Truong et al., 2012; Helmy et al., 2016; Mangul et al., 2019b). Then,
712 efforts to provide resources like graphics processing units, cloud storage, and computational
713 clusters are all crucial steps toward making ML more accessible and inclusive for scientists
714 across diverse domains of knowledge, including species delimitation.

715

716 *4.2. Combining analytical frameworks to investigate complex delimitation models*

717 All models, while inherently limited in representing the underlying nature of species
718 diversification and, hence, of the current species limits among the tested entities, will be
719 more or less useful depending on their effectiveness in extracting relevant evolutionary
720 information from the available data. Accordingly, in some systems, certain methods should
721 be prioritized based on the processes driving divergence, and using multiple methods with
722 similar biases might not always enhance biological interpretability. For instance, Smith and
723 Cartens (2020) argue that traditional methods like BPP can accurately infer the number of
724 species but may overlook significant processes, such as secondary contact, something that
725 ML workflows like delimitR could be more efficient in dealing with. In this context, the choice
726 on which species delimitation method to use should be done before hypothesis-testing,

727 considering the nature of the available data, and possibly prior relevant biological
728 information regarding the evolution of the organisms.

729 One approach that would greatly benefit from the combination of coalescence-based
730 methods and ML algorithms, and that could shape the future direction of genetic-based
731 species delimitation, involves the empirical validation of speciation-based models, which can
732 provide a nuanced understanding of the speciation process. Different speciation-based
733 delimitation models, whether relying on ML, coalescence, or a combination of both, can be
734 employed to capture different facets of the evolutionary divergence process, and to test
735 different increasingly complex scenarios, with model validation serving as the means to
736 articulate expert knowledge and the available statistical tools for hypothesis testing. In sum,
737 while currently no universally superior species delimitation method exists, ML algorithms
738 offer promising prospects for their integration into systematic protocols tailored for species
739 delimitation.

740

741 **5. Conclusions**

742 Relatively few studies have explored ML techniques for species delimitation using
743 molecular data so far. They are generally employed due to coalescence-based methods'
744 specific assumptions and limitations. Besides, they are computationally efficient, can be
745 easily integrated with traditional methods, and clearly provides a concrete and robust way
746 to explore dataset structures when species-level divergences are hypothesized. The
747 flexibility of ML-based methods allows them to accommodate complex evolutionary
748 scenarios. Furthermore, likelihood-free approaches such as ML can provide more accurate
749 estimates of species limits and population parameters, particularly in cases where traditional
750 methods may struggle to converge or produce biased results.

751 Both ML approaches and coalescence-based methods provide a wide array of
752 choices, necessitating careful selection considering multiple factors. Particularly, ML

753 algorithms offer promising prospects but require thorough evaluation, comparison, and
754 adaptation to specific biological problems. Besides, selecting an appropriate ML method for
755 species delimitation should prioritize suitability for specific data and research questions over
756 popularity. This assessment includes biological predictions, computational performance,
757 and comparisons to existing methods, even considering that comparing existing methods
758 can be challenging.

759 Some specific challenges can be highlighted regarding the utilization of ML
760 frameworks to infer species limits. For example, overly specialized algorithms might perform
761 well within observed ranges of evolutionary parameters but can struggle outside the training
762 space. This gains importance as ML applications in Evolutionary Biology rely heavily on
763 simulated data. Besides, model specialization for simulated data can hinder generalizability
764 and transferability across different studies or data types. To address this issue, there are
765 some potential solutions and emerging approaches. For example, GANs enable the creation
766 of more realistic simulated data, and domain adaptation techniques to transfer knowledge
767 across datasets with systematic differences. Another challenge relies on handling data
768 derived from distinct genetic markers, hindering the comparison of different ML approaches.

769 Just as some coalescence-based methods, ML-based delimitation methods may not
770 always discern species, but might identify incompletely separated species or ephemeral
771 population variations. Therefore, ML should be progressively developed and used alongside
772 traditional methods to enhance objectivity and robustness in species delimitation processes,
773 combining the strengths of distinct analytical structures for hypothesis testing. This approach
774 may allow for the accurate estimation of the speciation process, facilitating a clearer
775 differentiation between population structure and evolutionary independence. Also, future
776 applications of ML methods in species delimitation may focus on integrating various
777 biological properties into species hypothesis testing. Finally, there is potential in utilizing ML
778 methods in Integrative Taxonomy approaches, as combining morphological, ecological, and

779 molecular data, is crucial for robust species delimitation and may benefit from the flexibility
780 of these AI-based approaches. As these conditions are increasingly met, ML is poised to
781 become an integral part of the toolkit used by scientists not only in the field of species
782 delimitation, but for various Evolutionary Biology applications worldwide.

783

784 **Declaration of Competing Interest**

785 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
786 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

787

788 **Acknowledgements**

789 We thank André Luiz Gomes de Carvalho, Fernanda de Pinho Werneck and Renato José
790 Pires Machado for their helpful suggestions in earlier versions of the text. We extend our
791 gratitude to Daniel R. Schrider for critically reviewing the first draft of this manuscript. This
792 work was supported by the Brazilian federal institution "Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento
793 de Pessoal de Nível Superior" (CAPES) through a PhD scholarship to MMAS.

794

795 **References**

796 References identified with an asterisk (*) are cited only within the Appendices.

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