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3 Exon-capture data and locus screening provide new insights into the phylogeny of
4 flatfishes (Pleuronectoidei)

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24 **Abstract**

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² Declarations of interest: none

25 There is an extensive collection of literature on the taxonomy and phylogenetics of flatfishes
26 (Pleuronectiformes) that extends over two centuries, but consensus on many of their evolutionary
27 relationships remains elusive. Phylogenetic uncertainty stems from highly divergent results
28 derived from morphological and genetic characters, and between various molecular datasets.
29 Deciphering relationships is complicated by rapid diversification early in the Pleuronectiformes
30 tree and an abundance of studies that incompletely and inconsistently sample taxa and genetic
31 markers. We present phylogenies based on a genome-wide dataset (4,434 nuclear markers via
32 exon-capture) and wide taxon sampling (86 species spanning 12 of 16 families) of the largest
33 flatfish suborder (Pleuronectoidei). Nine different subsets of the data and two tree construction
34 approaches (eighteen phylogenies in total) are remarkably consistent with other recent molecular
35 phylogenies, and show strong support for the monophyly of all families included except
36 Pleuronectidae. Analyses resolved a novel phylogenetic hypothesis for the family
37 Rhombosoleidae as being within the Pleuronectoidea rather than the Soleoidea, and failed to
38 support the subfamily Hippoglossinae as a monophyletic group. Our results were corroborated
39 with evidence from previous phylogenetic studies to outline regions of persistent phylogenetic
40 uncertainty and identify groups in need of further phylogenetic inference.

41

42 **Key words:** phylogenomics, systematics, soles, flounders, incomplete-lineage-sorting, target-
43 enrichment

44

45

46 **1. Introduction**³

³ Abbreviations:

ICZN = International Commission on Zoological Nomenclature

47 Large molecular phylogenetic datasets have rapidly become more available due to the
48 widespread use of next-generation sequencing technology coupled with target-capture methods
49 and through the growing number of supermatrices representing aggregated data from published
50 studies and sequence repositories. Both approaches have featured prominently in recent studies
51 of phylogenetic relationships of fishes, including a study with a very sparsely-sampled matrix of
52 27 genes for 11,638 taxa (Rabosky et al., 2018) and a dataset with 1,100 loci for 303 taxa
53 (Hughes et al., 2018). The proliferation of these types of large datasets in recent years has placed
54 renewed emphasis on long-standing questions in molecular phylogenetics regarding the
55 importance of taxon sampling versus gene sampling, completeness of matrices, marker selection,
56 detecting sources of systematic bias, and comparing methodological approaches of tree inference
57 (e.g. concatenation vs. multi-species coalescent approaches). All of these considerations are
58 important as we endeavor to unravel historically challenging phylogenetic relationships. These
59 issues are at the forefront of fish phylogenetics and are well exemplified in the flatfishes
60 (Pleuronectiformes) – a group that has a long history of changing classifications and muddled
61 phylogenetics relationships for the last 250 years.

62 The flatfishes are a diverse group of bilaterally asymmetrical fishes containing more than
63 800 species (812 species listed as valid in Eschmeyer’s Catalogue of Fishes as of May 2021;
64 Fricke et al., 2021) classified in 16 families and two suborders, Psettoidei and Pleuronectoidei.
65 The bilateral asymmetry of flatfishes is easily recognizable, as all species have both eyes located
66 on one side of the body as adults, an adaptation for life near the seafloor. Species are found

UWFC = University of Washington Fish Collection
AFSC = Alaska Fisheries Science Center
NEFSC = Northeast Fisheries Science Center
CSIRO = The Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation
KU = University of Kansas
LSU = Louisiana State University

67 globally in a variety of habitats including tropical coral reefs, coastal freshwater, shallow
68 nearshore marine bottoms, and continental slopes extending deeper than 2000m. Typically
69 feeding near or on the benthos, flatfishes occupy a large range of trophic niches, and many
70 species are valuable to commercial fisheries (Cooper and Chapleau, 1998a; Herrmann and
71 Criddle, 2006; Wilderbuer et al., 2015). The morphological and taxonomic diversity found in
72 flatfishes is well documented, but there is a high level of discordance among the characters that
73 have been used in phylogenetic analysis, challenging our ability to test any one of the numerous
74 phylogenetic hypotheses that have been proposed across a long and complex taxonomic history.

75 Early revisions to the flatfish taxonomy primarily aimed to incorporate newly described
76 species into a rudimentary classification and were less focused with a holistic reevaluation of the
77 overall existing taxonomy. In his *System Naturae* 10th ed., Linnaeus (1758) listed the sixteen
78 flatfish species known to him all within one genus *Pleuronectes*. As more species were described,
79 taxonomists began to identify morphologically distinct sub-groups and accounted for them by
80 establishing new genera and higher-level taxa. In order to preserve a classification with all
81 flatfish species under one taxonomic name, the flatfish taxon had to be expanded, first to family
82 (Cuvier, 1816), then to the suborder Heterosomata (Cope, 1871; Gill, 1893; Jordan and
83 Evermann, 1898), and eventually to the contemporary order Pleuronectiformes (Berg, 1940).
84 Once the classification started to differentiate flatfishes at the family level, Pleuronectidae was
85 reserved for only those fishes commonly referred to as flounders, with the soles and spiny turbot
86 subsequently assigned their own families (Soleidae and Psettodidae, respectively; Jordan and
87 Evermann, 1898; Regan, 1910). In these classifications, however, the morphology defining
88 pleuronectid flounders is not clearly established and appears to represent a generalized flatfish
89 body-plan, lacking the striking apomorphic features that define other families (reduced mouth,

90 head, eyes, and fins in the Soleidae, and spiny fins in Psettodidae). Consequently, any new
91 flatfish species lacking apomorphic features were placed in Pleuronectidae without holistic
92 reexamination of the taxonomy. Furthermore, the Pleuronectidae and Soleidae were again split
93 according to ocular orientation (Regan, 1910; Hubbs, 1945), having eyes on either the right side
94 (dextral) or left side (sinistral) of the body, a trait that while conspicuous, may not be as
95 phylogenetically informative as treated at the time. Thus, the Pleuronectidae became a “trash bin”
96 taxon and the overall flatfish classification began to accumulate architecture based on traits with
97 questionable phylogenetic information.

98 Early studies on flatfishes took place before the rise of phylogenetic systematics and
99 formal cladistic analyses. Nevertheless, figures depicting cladograms of the various flatfish
100 taxonomic groups can be found in early works such as Regan (1910) and Norman (1934).
101 Hensley and Ahlstrom (1984) and Ahlstrom et al. (1984) summarized the collective results from
102 Norman (1934, 1966), Hubbs (1945), and Amaoka (1969) in what is sometimes referred to as the
103 “Regan-Norman model” (Hensley, 1997; Berendzen and Dimmick, 2002). Hensley and
104 Ahlstrom (1984) found the Regan-Norman model to be poorly supported by existing
105 morphological evidence and listed a number of taxa they suspected were not monophyletic. In
106 response, Chapleau (1993) provided the first formal phylogenetic analysis of the flatfishes
107 constructed using a character state matrix of 39 morphological characters. His work was largely
108 accepted, and subsequent revisions mainly contributed by appending previously excluded
109 families and making minor adjustments (Cooper and Chapleau, 1998b; Evseenko, 2000; Hoshino
110 and Amaoka, 1998; Hoshino, 2001). Chapleau’s model (1) resolved the “trash bin” family
111 Pleuronectidae (*sensu* Regan, 1910) into five likely monophyletic groups (Paralichthodidae,
112 Poecilopsettidae, Pleuronectidae, Rhombosoleidae, and Samaridae) that have largely remained

113 intact, (2) provided synapomorphies for taxa in need of more concrete definitions, and (3)
114 established 14 of the 16 family-level groups recognized today. The relationships among these
115 families continue to be debated, and new family group names are still only recently being
116 recognized (Campbell et al., 2019).

117 Molecular phylogenies brought forth new uncertainties in the systematics of flatfishes.
118 Relationships inferred from genetic data disputed those previously generated from morphological
119 data, and with the inclusion of a wide sampling of outgroups, with several studies challenging
120 the support for monophyly of the Pleuronectiformes as a whole. These studies found the
121 problematic family Psettodidae, the only family in the suborder Psettodoidei, in other parts of the
122 diverse acanthomorph clade Carangaria (Li et al., 2011; Near et al., 2013; Betancur-R et al.,
123 2013a; Campbell et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2018, Lü et al., 2021), while others still supported a
124 monophyletic Pleuronectiformes (Berendzen and Dimmick, 2002; Betancur-R et al., 2013b;
125 Betancur-R and Ortí, 2014; Harrington et al., 2016). Aside from questions regarding monophyly
126 of the entire flatfish clade, the cumulative results of many studies have shown that phylogenetic
127 uncertainty is widespread throughout the flatfish tree. Discrepancies in the placement of
128 Psettodidae as well as the relationships between many other flatfish clades may stem from
129 inconsistencies between studies in taxon sample size, taxon representation, number of genetic
130 markers used, and phylogenetic informativeness of the selected markers. The issue is further
131 complicated by rapid diversification early in the flatfish tree (Ribeiro et al., 2018; Evans et al.,
132 2021), potentially leading to incomplete lineage sorting (ILS), and extensive heterogeneity in the
133 datasets in the form of both rate variation among lineages (heterotachy) and non-stationarity
134 (base compositional heterogeneity), with many flatfish lineages having extremely long branches
135 and extreme compositional biases (Betancur-R et al., 2013b).

136 With more than 800 species in the Pleuronectiformes, it is challenging to conduct an
137 order-wide phylogenetic analysis with complete species coverage, so the studies thus far have
138 inferred relationships at higher taxonomic levels or used taxon-rich sampling for specific
139 subgroups, such as Pleuronectidae (Cooper and Chapleau, 1998a; Vinnikov et al., 2018),
140 Rhombosoleidae (Guibord, 2003), and Scopthalmidae (Chanet, 2003). Byrne et al. (2018)
141 provided the largest taxon-coverage of the order to date with 332 species and 9 genetic markers.
142 Their analysis provided several novel topologies and found many polyphyletic taxa (notably the
143 families Poecilopsettidae and Citharidae, and numerous genera), which contradict previous
144 studies.

145 Disagreement among flatfish phylogenies may stem from different authors using different
146 sets of genetic markers. For example, Byrne et al. (2018) sampled heavily from mitochondrial
147 genes, which might explain differences from other works that primarily used nuclear loci. To
148 overcome the issue of gene-specific bias, studies have gradually made a concerted effort in
149 sampling more genetic data and from different regions of the genome. The largest flatfish dataset
150 using Sanger sequencing (Sanger et al., 1977) was conducted by Betancur-R and Ortí (2014)
151 who sampled 23 genetic markers and 85 species. Rabosky et al. (2018) featured 220 species in
152 their supermatrix analysis, but their dataset was extremely sparse and was more focused on
153 broader relationships across ray-finned fishes. The Betancur-R and Ortí (2014) analysis has been
154 used to inform the contemporary classification scheme (Betancur-R et al., 2017) and validated
155 the family designations proposed by Chapleau (1993). Harrington et al. (2016) and Lü et al.,
156 (2021) examined deep relationships within the Pleuronectiforms using genome-wide datasets
157 derived from high-throughput “next-generation” sequencing methods. Harrington et al. (2016)
158 examined the relationships of 19 species in 11 families using 1,314 loci of ultraconserved DNA

159 elements (UCEs) and found results that were highly consistent with that of Betancur-R et al.
160 (2013b) and Betancur-R and Ortí (2014). Lü et al. (2021) used full genomes of 11 species in 9
161 families and found similar results but did not find a monophyletic Pleuronectiformes. Further
162 application of next-generation methods to more taxonomically-rich datasets may allow flatfish
163 systematists to attain more consistent results or identify sources of uncertainty.

164 Despite widespread disagreement among studies, comprehensive taxonomic and genetic
165 sampling has resulted in some relationships being consistent. Recent analyses by Campbell et al.
166 (2019), the only molecular phylogenetic study to include all 16 flatfish families to date,
167 Betancur-R et al. (2013b), Betancur-R and Ortí (2014), and Harrington et al. (2016), converged
168 on the same family-level topology, referred to in this study as the Betancur-Harrington-Campbell
169 (BHC) model (Figure 1).

170

171 **Figure 1:** The BHC model of the flatfish tree based on phylogenies from Betancur-R et al.
172 (2013b), Betancur-R and Ortí. (2014), Harrington et al. (2016), and Campbell et al. (2019).

173 Ocular orientation categories are defined as such: ‘Dextral’ = all species within the family are
174 dextral; ‘Sinistral’ = all species within the family are sinistral; or ‘Mixed’ = all species within the
175 family have dextral and sinistral individuals (Psettodidae) or there is a mix of dextral species and
176 sinistral species (Citharidae). Note: a small number of species in sinistral Paralichthyidae also
177 have dextral individuals, and a small number of species in dextral Pleuronectidae also have
178 sinistral individuals.

179

180 This study aims to improve our understanding of the relationships within flatfishes
181 through the use of the most taxon-rich (86 vs. 11 and 19) next-generation dataset to date.

182 Specifically, we address issues of incomplete sampling at the family-level and within the family
183 Pleuronectidae, and compare our results with the BHC model and other analyses to identify
184 regions of persistent uncertainty within the phylogeny that are unlikely to be resolved with
185 additional sampling. We use an exon-capture method developed by Li et al. (2013), which is a
186 phylogenomic approach used to examine interspecies relationships across a wide range of
187 evolutionary timescales, including at familial and ordinal levels in fishes (Kuang et al., 2018),
188 but has never been applied to flatfishes. Our phylogenetic analyses of single-copy markers from
189 pleuronectoid flatfishes are compared to results from other comprehensive molecular datasets –
190 e.g., Betancur-R and Ortí (2014), Harrington et al. (2016), Byrne et al. (2018), Vinnikov et al.
191 (2018). We also investigate the relative usefulness of filtering our loci based on molecular
192 clocklikeness (MCL), nucleotide composition, and evolutionary rate.

193 **2. Materials and methods**

194 Exon sequence data were obtained for 96 specimens from two sources. A primary set of
195 57 samples were extracted from tissues, sequenced, and assembled here, and the remaining 39
196 samples were sourced from previously assembled data that were prepared as part of the FishLife
197 project. The combined dataset represented 89 species (86 Pleuronectiformes and three outgroup
198 species in the family Carangidae) and 12 family-level groups within the suborder Pleuronectoidei.
199 Psettodidae is the only flatfish family not within the Pleuronectoidei and is not included in our
200 dataset due to its contentious placement dictating the monophyletic status of Pleuronectiformes
201 (Betancur-R et al., 2013a; Campbell et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2018, Lü et al., 2021) and the
202 remaining Pleuronectoidei being a well-supported monophyletic group (Norman, 1934; Hensley
203 and Ahlstrom, 1984; Chapleau, 1993; Berendzen and Dimmick, 2002; BHC model).

204 Cyclopsettidae (*sensu* Betancur-R et al., 2017) is not recognized as a valid family by
205 Eschmeyer's Catalogue of Fishes (van der Laan and Fricke, 2021) as the name was not registered
206 in ZooBank with its description (Campbell et al., 2019) as required by Article 8.5 of the ICZN,
207 but there is strong evidence for its family-level status (Betancur-R et al., 2013b) and it will
208 therefore be referred to as a distinct family-level group in this study. The term Cyclopsettidae
209 was first used by Betancur-R et al. (2017), but this group has also been referred to as the
210 Cyclopsetta group (Berendzen and Dimmick, 2002; Betancur-R et al., 2013b; Harrington et al.,
211 2016), and Byrne (2018) asserts that Syaciumidae would be the appropriate family name of this
212 group upon formal description according to the ICZN Principle of Priority.

213 The 57 samples prepared from frozen fin and muscle tissues were sub-sampled from
214 specimens that were acquired from fish collections and trawl surveys conducted by the National
215 Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA). DNA was extracted using the DNeasy Blood
216 and Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA). Genetic sequence data were obtained via the gene-
217 capture protocol of Li et al. (2013). The method is appropriate for this study due to its reliable
218 performance at recovering a large quantity of genomic data from non-model organisms across a
219 range of evolutionary scales. The gene-capture method is able to resolve deep relationships and
220 is sensitive enough to distinguish species level differences (Song et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018;
221 Kuang et al., 2018). For this study we targeted 4,434 nuclear exons. This suite of markers was
222 compiled from 17,817 putatively single-copy protein coding genes to include only those that
223 capture efficiently across ray-finned fishes (Actinopterygii) (Jiang et al., 2019). A subset of
224 1,105 loci have been used for higher-level fish phylogenomics (Hughes et al., 2018, 2021). The
225 size range of these markers was 102 to 5,803 bp with a mean size of 261 bp and a total
226 concatenated alignment size of 1,157,304 bp.

227 These markers were derived from eight non-flatfish genomes, so we developed a custom
228 set of baits based on a flatfish genome using the refinement step in Jiang et al. (2019) in attempts
229 to increase sequence similarity between baits and target sequences, and thus increase capture
230 efficiency. All 4,434 markers from Jiang et al. (2019) were blasted against a genome of
231 *Pseudopleuronectes yokohamae* available on the National Center for Biotechnology Information
232 library, GenBank (Genomic Resources Development Consortium, 2015; SAMD00021058) and
233 the highest single-hit matches were used as the new targets. RNA baits and gene-capture
234 reagents were supplied by the Arbor Biosciences myBaits Hybridization Capture Kit. Library
235 preparation followed the protocol from Li et al. (2013) and target-capture hybridizations were
236 done according to the myBaits Manual v.4.01 specifications, with baits diluted down as to use
237 only 0.5 μ L per capture. Labwork was conducted at the University of Washington and Molecular
238 Ecology Research Laboratory. The double capture method of Li et al. (2013) was used to
239 increase concentrations of hybridized DNA. Sequencing was performed by the University of
240 Delaware Sequencing and Genotyping Center on two lanes of Illumina HiSeq 2500 System using
241 paired-end 150 bp reads.⁴

242 Raw reads were assembled into loci using the Assexon bioinformatics pipeline from
243 Yuan et al. (2020). Read files were merged into one forward and reverse file per sample, then
244 adapters and low-quality reads were trimmed using TrimGalore (Krüger, 2012). Duplicate
245 sequences were removed and then the remaining reads were parsed to each locus by iteratively
246 blasting against the reference markers. The sorted reads were then assembled into contigs
247 iteratively for each gene and sample using String Graph Assembler (SGA) (Simpson and Durbin,
248 2012), then further assembled by the Assexon perl script merge.pl, utilizing alignment positions

⁴ Raw sequence reads are available at the National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) BioProject PRJNA684447.

249 generated by Exonerate (Slater and Birney, 2005). Potential paralogues were identified and
250 removed by finding the best reciprocal hits between assembled contigs and a reference genome
251 of *Oreochromis niloticus* with the perl script reblast.pl. A total of 4,431 of the 4,434 targeted
252 markers were captured by at least one sample, and all samples were represented by more than
253 2,000 loci. The assembled data were merged with 673 loci for 39 samples that were developed as
254 part of the FishLife project using a Carangaria-specific bait set and assembly pipeline (Hughes et
255 al., 2021). The combined dataset was aligned on amino acids using MAFFT (Katoh et al., 2002)
256 and translated back to codon-based alignment using the perl script mafft_aln.pl. After removing
257 poorly aligned markers, a total of 4,187 loci were used for downstream phylogenetic analysis.⁵ A
258 summary of capture efficiency, data coverage, and other properties for each sample and locus
259 can be found in Table S1 and S2.

260 We reconstructed phylogenies using both concatenation-based and multispecies
261 coalescent (MSC) methods. In the concatenation-based approach, aligned genes for all taxa and
262 loci were combined into one supermatrix. Then using this master gene dataset, we estimated a
263 maximum likelihood (ML) tree using RAxML (Stamatakis, 2014) with 100 bootstrap (BS)
264 iterations under the GTRCAT model (suited for fast calculation and getting better likelihood
265 values if sample size is greater than 50, Stamatakis, 2006). In the MSC approach, we first
266 inferred ML trees for each gene alignment in RAxML using the same settings. Then, a MSC
267 phylogeny was inferred from all gene trees using ASTRAL-III (Zhang et al., 2018) and Local
268 Posterior Probability (PP) support was calculated (Sayyari and Siavash, 2016). Both
269 concatenation and MSC based methods were applied to our dataset consisting of all genes.

270 Eight additional phylogenetic analyses were conducted to investigate variability within
271 the data and stability of certain phylogenetic relationships (Table 1). For each treatment of the

⁵ Alignments are available from Dryad (<https://doi.org/10.5061/dryad.d51c5b036>).

272 data, we used both concatenation-based and MSC-based approaches to construct phylogenies.
 273 The first treatment used a partition scheme based on first, second, and third codon-position. The
 274 second treatment inferred phylogenies based on amino acid sequences under the PROTCATJTT
 275 model. Two treatments aimed to reduce effects from missing data: one that removed loci with no
 276 data for at least 60% of the total number of taxa; the other retained only those loci that were
 277 present in both the FishLife dataset and the primary dataset. Filtering of genome-scale data is
 278 encouraged (Phillips et al., 2004; Townsend, 2007; Nosenko et al., 2013; Lopez-Giraldez et al.,
 279 2013), so for the remaining four treatments, we screened for loci based on MCL, nucleotide
 280 composition, and evolutionary rates (as inferred from average p-distance). The filter thresholds
 281 were in part determined with the aim of retaining roughly the same number of loci (~500) and
 282 amount of genetic material (~100,000 bp).

283

284 **Table 1:** Summary of datasets used in each treatment. aa = amino acids; SNP = single nucleotide
 285 polymorphism; PIS = phylogenetically informative site.

Dataset	Loci	Total size (bp)	Avg. size $\pm \sigma$ (bp)	Completeness (%)	SNP (%)	PIS (%)
1. Unfiltered	4187	940725	224.68 \pm 213.35	44.45	33.26	21.17
2. Partitioned by codon	4187	940725	224.68 \pm 213.35	44.45	33.26	21.17
3. Amino acid	655	145750 aa	74.89 \pm 71.12 aa	40.42	36.72	19.68
4. Taxon coverage > 39	3051	598410	196.14 \pm 107.73	58.32	37.81	25.47
5. FishLife overlap	663	216330	326.23 \pm 186.80	67.48	41.65	29.11
6. clocklike	474	229866	484.95 \pm 472.96	30.09	29.54	17.46
7. treeness/RCV > 13	875	174162	199.04 \pm 131.81	51.76	32.10	21.68
8. p-dist < 0.05	551	105147	190.83 \pm 140.89	47.09	25.97	14.07
9. p-dist > 0.08	617	161916	262.42 \pm 214.58	43.04	40.25	27.70

286

287 A dataset of the most clocklike loci was generated to select for phylogenetically useful
 288 genes and remove those that may be contributing misleading phylogenetic information due to
 289 complex evolutionary histories or undetected paralogues (Kuang et al., 2018). The clocklikeness

290 test, which produces and compares likelihood values for a ML tree with and without a molecular
291 clock constraint for each gene, using a ratio between the values as a proxy for MCL. We found
292 the ratio of likelihood values calculated in PAUP (Swofford, 2003) to correlate with gene length,
293 making the test favor smaller genes with less information, so we followed Kuang et al. (2018)
294 and created a modified MCL by dividing the original ratio by the gene's length, clocklikeness
295 being represented by lower values representing. Our complete dataset was screened to include
296 only those genes with a modified MCL ratio less than 0.6 and length greater than 500bp. This
297 resulted in a filtered dataset consisting of 474 genes. The second filtered dataset was screened for
298 loci that were least susceptible to nucleotide composition bias based on the treeness to relative
299 composition variability (RCV) ratio used by Phillips and Penny (2003). Loci that are least likely
300 to be affected by such bias were those with homogenous base composition (small RCV) and
301 gene trees containing smaller branches nearer to the tips (high treeness), and therefore larger
302 treeness/RCV values. The filtered dataset was comprised of 875 loci with treeness/RCV values
303 greater than 13. Two datasets were screened based on evolutionary distance or p-distance to test
304 and optimize for the most parsimonious sites (Kuang et al., 2018) given the evolutionary scales
305 being inferred for the Pleuronectoidei. One dataset contained 551 conserved loci with average p-
306 distance smaller than 0.05, the other with 617 highly divergent loci with average p-distance
307 greater than 0.08.

308 The filter criteria, MCL, treeness/RCV, and p-distance, were evaluated for their
309 effectiveness in predicting the performance of each locus. For each criterion, we tested for a
310 correlation between that criterion's value and the tree-distance of each locus, tree-distance
311 calculated as the Branch Score Distance (Kuhner and Felsenstein, 1994) between the locus's
312 gene tree and a 'known' reference tree. In our case, we use the unfiltered-concatenation-based

313 tree (Figure 3) as an approximation of the reference tree, since true topology is unknown.
314 Another tree-distance metric, the Robinson-Foulds Distance (Robinson and Foulds, 1981) was
315 considered but not implemented as it compares topology only and does not account for branch
316 lengths. Gene trees with a low Branch Score Distance are similar to the reference tree and are
317 determined to be more phylogenetically informative. Specifically, we predict a positive
318 relationship between MCL and Branch Score Distance (i.e. clocklike genes with a low MCL
319 score would perform better than non-clocklike genes), and a negative relationship between
320 treeness/RCV and Branch Score Distance (i.e. genes with a high treeness/RCV score, indicating
321 low compositional bias, would perform better than genes with biased base composition). We did
322 not have any *a priori* expectations of a relationship between p-distance and Branch Score
323 Distance, as very fast-evolving genes could introduce homoplasy, but slow-evolving genes may
324 lack phylogenetically informative sites.

325 **3. Results**

326 The eighteen phylogenetic analyses resulted in trees with slightly different topologies and
327 varying levels of support (Table 2). Based on the 93 nodes that were evaluated, the partitioned-
328 concatenation-based tree had the highest overall support. The unfiltered, partitioned, and taxon-
329 coverage analyses had among the highest support, however, they all contained a few
330 relationships that were not widely supported when compared across analyses. Phylogenies
331 inferred from the conserved loci (p-distance < 0.05) were largely unsupported in both
332 concatenation-based and MSC-based methods and failed to resolve well-established
333 monophyletic groups (Figures S16 and S17), so this treatment is not included in further
334 comparative analysis.

335

336 **Table 2:** Summary of support for concatenation and MSC-based methods applied to each data
 337 treatment.

Dataset	Concatenation-based		MSC-based	
	Avg. support (BS)	No. nodes with BS < 100	Avg. support (PP)	No. nodes with PP < 1
1. Unfiltered	98.59	9	0.960	14
2. Partitioned by codon	99.00	6	0.949	13
3. Amino acid	95.11	20	0.885	32
4. Taxon coverage > 39	98.02	13	0.963	15
5. FishLife overlap	97.24	15	0.950	21
6. clocklike	94.53	21	0.903	33
7. treeness/RCV > 13	93.13	27	0.893	36
8. p-dist < 0.05	84.30	50	0.796	64
9. p-dist > 0.08	95.65	18	0.915	28

338

339 Two of the filtering parameters, p-distance and treeness/RCV, were poorly correlated
 340 with Branch Score Distance (Figure 2), indicating that on a gene-by-gene basis, faster/slower
 341 evolving or more/less heterogenous loci did not result in a tree closer to the reference tree
 342 (Figure 3) and that locus performance is not well predicted from these criteria. Analyses based
 343 on combining loci with highest p-distance, and those combining the highest treeness/RCV values,
 344 both resulted in moderately supported trees (Table 2) that contained relationships divergent from
 345 the reference tree. There was a significant correlation between MCL and Branch Score Distance,
 346 albeit with a poor fit ($R^2 = 0.31$), indicating that there may be utility in filtering out non-clocklike
 347 loci, however, neither family topology based on clocklike genes was fully concordant with that
 348 of the reference tree. The unfiltered and partitioned treatments were based on the same set of loci
 349 (Table 1) and the resulting phylogenies were largely congruent with one another given the same
 350 tree-construction method. Tree-construction method had a strong influence on resulting
 351 phylogenies. In particular, the most frequent and well-supported position of Poecilopsettidae is

352 exclusively found using ASTRAL, while that of Scophthalmidae is favored by the
353 concatenation-based method (Table 3).

354

355 **Figure 2:** Relationships between three filter parameters (p-distance, MCL, and treeness/RCV)
356 and Branch Score Distance between gene trees and the unfiltered-concatenation-based tree. Loci
357 that were selected for the respective filtering analysis are highlighted in pink. Variable family
358 topologies from concatenation-based analysis of each filter shown above. Full phylogenies can
359 be found in Figures S12, S14, and S18.

360

361 **Figure 3:** Phylogeny generated from a total evidence dataset of 4,187 genes using the
362 concatenation-based method. “Hippoglossinae” = Hippoglossinae (*sensu* Vinnikov et al., 2018)
363 excluding *Clidoderma* and *Lyopsetta*. Exact support values can be found in Figure S2.

364

365 **Figure 4:** Phylogeny generated from a total evidence dataset of 4,187 genes using the MSC-
366 based method. “Hippoglossinae” = Hippoglossinae (*sensu* Vinnikov et al., 2018) excluding
367 *Clidoderma* and *Lyopsetta*. Exact support values can be found in Figure S3.

368

369 **Table 3:** Nodal support (BS in concatenation-based trees and % in MSC-based trees) across all
370 analyses for selected phylogenetic relationships. ‘+’ = Relationship supported at BS=100 or
371 100%. ‘-’ = Relationship not present in tree. Treatment numbers are as follows: 1 = Unfiltered, 2
372 = Partitioned by codon, 3 = Amino acid, 4 = Taxon coverage > 39, 5 = FishLife overlap, 6 =
373 clocklike, 7 = treeness/RCV > 13, 8 = p-dist < 0.05, 9 = p-dist > 0.08. ‘well-supported’ indicates
374 groups or positions that were resolved with support ≥ 95 BS or 95% in more than one analysis.

375 “Hippoglossinae” = Hippoglossinae (*sensu* Vinnikov et al., 2018) excluding *Clidoderma* and
 376 *Lyopsetta*.

Relationship	Concatenation-based Treatment								MSC-		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1	2	3
Monophyly of families and subfamilies (genera sampled)											
Citharidae (1/5)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Achiridae (3/6)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Samaridae (2/4)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Poecilopsettidae (1/3)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cynoglossidae (2/3)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Soleidae (3/30)	+	+	+	+	+	+	99	+	+	+	+
Scophthalmidae (2/3)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Rhombosoleidae (6/8)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
Cyclopsettidae (3/4)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Bothidae (6/20)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Paralichthyidae (5/10)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Pleuronectidae (23/24)	-	+	+	-	86	37	-	+	11	+	+
Pleuronectidae : Atheresthinae (1/1)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Pleuronectidae : Pleuronichthyinae (1/1)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Pleuronectidae : Hippoglossinae (6/6)	-	-	-	-	-	76	-	-	-	-	-
Pleuronectidae : Microstominae (2/2)	+	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+
Pleuronectidae : Pleuronectinae (13/14)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
All well-supported positions of families within Pleuronectoidei											
Citharidae sister to all other Pleuronectoidei	+	+	-	+	+	-	-	+	+	+	+
Scophthalmidae-Rhombosoleidae-Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae sister to Achiridae-Samaridae-Poecilopsettidae-Cynoglossidae-Soleidae	-	-	-	-	93	-	-	98	+	+	38
Cynoglossidae and Soleidae are sister	+	+	+	+	+	95	+	+	+	+	+
Poecilopsettidae sister to Cynoglossidae-Soleidae	+	+	+	+	+	93	+	+	-	-	-
Samaridae sister to Poecilopsettidae-Cynoglossidae-Soleidae (may not contain Poecilopsettidae)	-	-	+	-	74	+	-	+	64	58	32
Achiridae sister to Samaridae-Poecilopsettidae-Cynoglossidae-Soleidae (may not contain Poecilopsettidae)	-	-	97	-	+	+	-	+	70	10	69
Cyclopsettidae and Bothidae are sister	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Paralichthyidae and Pleuronectidae are sister (Pleuronectidae may not be monophyletic)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae and Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae are sister	+	+	+	+	+	83	+	+	+	+	-
Rhombosoleidae and Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae are sister (Rhombosoleidae may not be monophyletic)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	83
Scophthalmidae sister to Rhombosoleidae-Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae (may contain Poecilopsettidae)	-	-	-	-	93	-	-	97	99	+	87
All well-supported positions of subfamily-level taxa within Pleuronectidae											
Atheresthinae sister to Pleuronichthyinae-Microstominae-Hippoglossinae-Pleuronectinae	-	+	+	-	86	37	-	+	11	+	+
Pleuronichthyinae sister to Microstominae-Hippoglossinae-Pleuronectinae	+	+	+	+	+	66	93	+	+	+	75
<i>Lyopsetta</i> sister to "Hippoglossinae"-Microstominae- <i>Clidoderma</i> -Pleuronectinae	+	+	-	+	-	-	+	+	+	+	-
Microstominae sister to "Hippoglossinae"- <i>Clidoderma</i> -Pleuronectinae- <i>Lyopsetta</i>	-	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-
"Hippoglossinae" and Microstominae are sister	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	99	+	-
<i>Clidoderma</i> sister to "Hippoglossinae"-Microstominae	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
Pleuronectinae sister to "Hippoglossinae"-Microstominae- <i>Clidoderma</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-
<i>Clidoderma</i> and Pleuronectidae are sister	+	+	97	+	-	-	+	-	-	0	-
Microstominae sister to <i>Clidoderma</i> -Pleuronectidae	98	+	-	84	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
"Hippoglossinae" sister to <i>Clidoderma</i> -Pleuronectinae-Microstominae	+	+	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
All well-supported groups of genera within Hippoglossinae											
<i>Reinhardtius</i> - <i>Hippoglossus</i> - <i>Eopsetta</i> - <i>Verasper</i>	+	+	42	96	-	-	-	63	+	+	-

<i>Hippoglossus-Eopsetta-Verasper</i>	-	-	-	-	63	-	-	-	+	-	98
<i>Reinhardtius-Hippoglossus</i>	+	-	98	96	-	+	-	67	-	-	-
<i>Eopsetta-Verasper</i>	+	-	-	97	-	31	38	31	-	-	-
All well-supported groups of genera within Pleuronectinae											
<i>Liopsetta-Platichthys</i>	+	+	91	+	99	+	96	+	+	+	-
<i>Platichthys-Pleuronectes</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	+
<i>Liopsetta-Platichthys-Pleuronectes</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
<i>Liopsetta-Platichthys-Pleuronectes-Myzopsetta</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	71	99	99	97	+
<i>Isopsetta-Parophrys</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Lepidopsetta-Psettichthys</i>	+	+	96	+	+	-	99	83	97	96	-
<i>Isopsetta-Parophrys-Lepidopsetta-Psettichthys</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
<i>Isopsetta-Parophrys-Lepidopsetta-Psettichthys-Liopsetta-Platichthys-Pleuronectes-Myzopsetta</i>	+	+	+	+	+	+	97	93	+	+	94
Tribe Pleuronectini (=above and including <i>Pseudopleuronectes</i>)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	99
<i>Acanthopsetta-Cleisthenes</i>	+	+	85	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	-
<i>Acanthopsetta-Cleisthenes-Hippoglossoides</i>	+	+	-	99	99	-	75	63	+	+	-
Tribe Hippoglossoidini (<i>Acanthopsetta-Cleisthenes-Hippoglossoides-Limanda</i>)	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

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All families were resolved as strongly monophyletic (Table 3, Figure 5) with the exception of Pleuronectidae. Pleuronectidae was resolved as monophyletic in thirteen of sixteen phylogenies, and with support BS < 95 or PP < 0.95 in six. In the three cases where monophyly was not found the pleuronectid genus *Atheresthes* was sister to a clade containing both the Paralichthyidae (*sensu* Campbell et al., 2019) and the remaining Pleuronectidae genera or only the former, with mixed support (BS=16, 77, 95).

Figure 5: Preferred topological hypothesis of Pleuronectiformes families. Topology is based on the most frequent and highest supported relationships across sixteen phylogenetic analyses. Pie charts show proportion of analyses that contain the relationship with support ≥ 95 BS or 0.95 PP. Dotted branches represent lineages that were not sampled in this study, positions based on the BHC model.

The overall family-level topology varied between methods of tree inference and data treatments. Individual analyses failed to converge on a single topology, with eight distinct family

393 topologies resulting from the sixteen analyses compared. When families were examined
394 separately, however, each was preferentially found in a single position that was generally robust
395 to filtering and inference methods (Figure 5). The concatenation-based Fishlife-overlap and p-
396 distance analyses were the only two analyses that exhibited the preferred topological hypothesis
397 for all families.

398 Some parts of the family tree were more consistently supported than others. Citharidae
399 was sister to all other Pleuronectoidei in nearly all topologies, and all analyses invariably
400 resolved a monophyletic group consisting of five families: Rhombosoleidae, Cyclopsettidae,
401 Bothidae, Paralichthyidae, and Pleuronectidae. Additionally, a second group consisted of the
402 well-supported sister families Soleidae and Cynoglossidae, and with less strongly supported
403 inclusion of Poecilopsettidae, Samaridae, and Achiridae (Table 3, Figure 5).

404 The phylogenetic positions of several families were unstable and varied across analyses.
405 Poecilopsettidae was sister to the Soleidae-Cynoglossidae clade in all concatenation-based
406 phylogenies (Table 3), but MSC-based analyses found the family in several other positions with
407 low support (PP=0.1-0.89). In all MSC-based analyses and two concatenation-based analyses,
408 Scophthalmidae was most frequently found as sister to the Rhombosoleidae-Cyclopsettidae-
409 Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae clade (inclusive of Poecilopsettidae in the Fishlife-
410 overlap and base-composition MSC-based analyses) (Table 3). In three of the concatenation-
411 based trees, Scophthalmidae was sister to all other Pleuronectoidei excluding Citharidae (BS=52,
412 79, 98), and in three others it was sister to Citharidae (BS=49, 74, 94) but separated by deep
413 branch lengths. Achiridae and Samaridae were found to be closely related to the
414 Poecilopsettidae-Cynoglossidae-Soleidae clade in all analyses except the base-composition-
415 MSC-based analyses, noting displacement of Poecilopsettidae in MSC-based analyses (Table 3).

416 The most frequent arrangement places Samaridae as sister to the Poecilopsetta-Cynoglossidae-
417 Soleidae clade followed by Achiridae (Table 3). Alternatively, Achiridae and Samaridae were
418 sister to one another in four concatenation-based analyses (BS=60, 65, 71, 91) with deep branch
419 lengths.

420 Of the five Pleuronectidae subfamilies, four were strongly supported monophyletic
421 groups, while Hippoglossinae was not supported (Table 3). Our analyses resolve Hippoglossinae
422 as three distinct lineages: one each for the monotypic genera *Lyopsetta* and *Clidoderma*, and one
423 containing the genera *Eopsetta*, *Verasper*, *Reinhardtius*, and *Hippoglossus* (Figure 6). All six
424 genera were only found to be united using the clocklike treatment (BS=76 and PP=0.97).
425 Relationships between the four genera of the third group (referred to as “Hippoglossinae” in
426 quotations going forward) are dubious, as there were two conflicting topologies that were well-
427 supported in multiple analyses; concatenation-based analyses favored two sister groups,
428 *Eopsetta-Verasper* and *Reinhardtius-Hippoglossus* (Table 3, Figure 6), while ASTRAL tended to
429 place *Verasper* as sister to *Hippoglossus-Eopsetta*. *Lyopsetta* most frequently diverges prior to
430 the clade containing Microstominae, Pleuronectinae, “Hippoglossinae,” and *Clidoderma* (Table
431 3). Concatenation-based and MSC-based analyses disagree on the order in which these four
432 lineages arose, providing two alternate topologies (Figure 6, Table 3). Species relationships
433 within the Pleuronectinae are consistent across analyses with few deviations (Table 3).

434

435 **Figure 6:** Preferred topological hypothesis of Pleuronectidae genera. Topology is based on the
436 most frequent and highest supported relationships across sixteen phylogenetic analyses. Pie
437 charts show proportion of analyses that contain the relationship with support ≥ 95 BS or 0.95 PP.
438 Polytoomy highlighted in red is best represented by two alternate topologies shown below. Dotted

439 branch indicates the position of *Dexistes* (not sampled in this study) based on Vinnikov et al.
440 (2018).

441
442 Taxon representation in other families was sparse, but relationships of species that were
443 sampled showed remarkable uniformity, with little variation from the unfiltered trees (Figures 3
444 and 4). In both Achiridae and Soleidae the same topology for the three genera sampled was
445 invariably supported. Paralichthyidae was represented by nine species that also had no difference
446 in topology in our analyses. Rhombosoleidae species formed a consistent arrangement with some
447 variation in the position of *Rhombosolea* and *Colistium*. The Cyclopsettidae species relationships
448 were stable with some variation in position of *Citharichthys stigmaeus*. Relationships of
449 Bothidae species were moderately stable with some variable topologies, particularly concerning
450 the position of *Psettina*.

451 Four genera were resolved as non-monophyletic: *Ammotretis* (Rhombosoleidae),
452 *Ancylosetta* (Paralichthyidae), *Citharichthys* (Cyclopsettidae), and *Paralichthys*
453 (Paralichthyidae). Three genera were found as paraphyletic containing another genus:
454 *Ammotretis* (2 spp.) contained *Azygopus*, *Ancylosetta* (2 spp.) contained *Gastropsetta*, and
455 *Citharichthys* (3 spp.) contained *Etropus*. The three MSC-based analyses that did result in a
456 monophyletic *Ammotretis* did so with poor support (PP=0.83) or by removing the genus from its
457 family. The three analyses that contained a monophyletic *Citharichthys* were poorly supported.
458 (PP=34; BS=82, 85). Non-monophyletic arrangements were found in all trees for *Ancylosetta*
459 and *Paralichthys*.

460 **4. Discussion**

461 Disagreement between the many phylogenetic hypotheses that have been proposed can be
462 attributed to studies using datasets with a relatively small and variable set of genetic markers and
463 taxa. By using the exon-capture method we aimed to expand upon the previous genome-wide
464 datasets focusing on flatfishes (Harrington et al., 2016; Lü et al., 2021) to infer evolutionary
465 relationships with greater taxonomic coverage. Our analyses show that even with increased
466 taxon-sampling, many relationships within the Pleuronectoidei are largely driven by tree
467 construction method and which set of genetic data the methods are applied to.

468 **4.1. Treatments and Gene filtering**

469 One advantage of using genome-scale data such as exon-capture is the ability to screen
470 loci based on a number of characteristics that may provide more informative results. Locus
471 filtering, while typically recommended (Phillips et al., 2004; Townsend, 2007; Nosenko et al.,
472 2013; Lopez-Giraldez et al., 2013), may not always have desirable effects (Koch, 2021) and
473 which parameters provide favorable results depends on the dataset (Shen et al., 2016). We chose
474 to select subsets of our data that differed based on several criterion: missing data, clocklikeness,
475 base composition, and evolutionary rates.

476 The two missing-data filters, one based on taxon coverage and the other addressing
477 combination of unbalanced datasets, both performed similarly to the unfiltered analyses the used
478 the same respective tree construction method. Optimizing for completeness of a data matrix is
479 common practice in phylogenetic studies, but Wiens (2006) found that sources of systematic
480 error are more associated with characters that are included in a dataset rather than a those that are
481 not. Our results also showed no significant deleterious effects from missing data. In fact, the
482 overall support in our phylogenies appears to increase with number of loci and base pairs (Tables

483 1 and 2), indicating that larger genomic datasets or those that contain more informative sites,
484 may provide better supported relationships.

485 Filtering for the most clocklike loci is a technique that aims to remove loci that have
486 complex patterns of nucleotide evolution across taxa in the phylogeny (Doyle et al., 2015),
487 which may signify several factors that could cause gene-tree species-tree discordance (i.e. strong
488 selection on loci in a particular lineage, etc.). Screening for clocklike genes has been shown to be
489 a helpful tool for datasets that have abundant phylogenetic uncertainty (Doyle et al., 2015,
490 Kuang et al., 2018). Our clocklike phylogenies, however, were not well supported and contained
491 many relationships not present in the preferred trees (Figure 5 and 6), despite a significant
492 relationship between the clocklikeness of a single gene and tree-distance (Figure 2). Low support
493 in the analysis of clocklike genes is likely the result of applying an excessively narrow filter.
494 Despite correcting MCL to account for locus length and including longer loci, the resulting
495 dataset still contained the fewest loci (474), highest missing data (70%), and among the fewest
496 informative sites (18%).

497 Many phylogenetic construction methods assume that base composition is homogenous
498 or stationary, so compositional heterogeneity among loci and taxa is often a source of systematic
499 error (Collins et al., 2005; Rodriguez-Ezpeleta et al., 2007), and variability in composition has
500 been linked to uncertainty within the flatfishes (Betancur-R et al., 2013b; Betancur-R and Ortí,
501 2014). We attempted to reduce bias due to composition by filtering based on the compositional
502 variability metric established by Phillips and Penny (2003), but loci expected to be the least
503 biased failed to correlate with tree-distance. Furthermore, both resulting phylogenies were
504 among the least well supported and produced unique family topologies, again, possibly due to
505 over-filtering.

506 The Pairwise-distance between any two sequences becomes larger with time since
507 divergence and increased mutation rate. We filtered based on fast evolving and slow evolving
508 loci, using average p-distance as a proxy for evolutionary rate (Kuang et al., 2018). Divergent
509 loci contain more data for inferring phylogenies but are more susceptible to noise from rapidly
510 evolving sites with complex histories of mutation. Conserved loci contain fewer informative sites
511 that are less susceptible to noise. The high p-distance dataset was well supported and generated
512 one of the two trees that aligned with the preferred family topology. The conserved (low p-
513 distance) dataset failed to produce a well-supported phylogeny. This indicates that there is
514 insufficient data within the conserved loci to infer relationships in the flatfish tree, despite a deep
515 history of more than 50 MYA (Ribeiro et al., 2018). Both datasets further suggest that larger and
516 more variable datasets may result in better resolved phylogenies.

517 In addition to treatments based on filtering, we applied a codon-based partition scheme,
518 and inference based on amino acid sequences. While the amino acid analyses performed
519 neutrally with regard to support and topology, the partitioned analyses were among the best
520 supported, again partly due to the large dataset.

521 **4.2. Concatenation and MSC methods**

522 With all data treatments, the concatenation approach resulted in more well-supported
523 relationships. Concatenation and MSC-based methods are both commonly used in phylogenetic
524 inference (Betancur-R and Ortí, 2014; Harrington et al., 2016; Kuang et al., 2018; Li et al, 2018)
525 but differences in how each treats the data will affect resulting trees differently. In the
526 concatenation approach, phylogeny is inferred directly from informative sites, so results are more
527 heavily influenced by longer and faster evolving genes. The MSC method used by ASTRAL is
528 expected to reduce gene-specific biases, especially from ILS (Liu et al, 2009; Tonini et al., 2015),

529 but because our dataset is comprised of mostly small genes (<300 bp), the resulting species-trees
530 have higher rates of uncertainty. This is because the MSC model assumes that the gene-trees
531 informing the species tree are known without error and small genes provide little information to
532 derive each gene-tree, especially those that are evolving slowly (Xi et al., 2015). This effect is
533 compounded by a reduced number of genes in the filtered datasets, even though some contained
534 larger genes on average (Table 1). In summary, the MSC-based relationships contain less error
535 due to gene-specific bias but at the expense of uncertainty from small genes.

536 Tree construction method had a substantial effect on some of the inferred relationships,
537 particularly concerning the Poecilopsettidae, Scophthalmidae, and subfamilies of the
538 Pleuronectidae. It is not entirely clear why one method would reliably result in a well-supported
539 relationship where the other method fails. Relationships favored by the concatenation-based
540 method may be informed by smaller genes, where gene trees would fail to repeatedly resolve the
541 topology. Relationships that were better resolved using the MSC-based method may be informed
542 by genes particularly susceptible to ILS, effects of which were reduced by ASTRAL.

543 **4.3. Family-level relationships of the Pleuronectiformes**

544 Previous examinations on the evolutionary history of flatfishes have produced conflicting
545 results based on different methods. Phylogenetic uncertainty in the flatfish tree is also
546 demonstrated by our phylogenetic analyses; however, we show that despite obtaining conflicting
547 results among individual analyses, collective comparison of those analyses suggest emerging
548 support for a single preferred topology.

549 While we aimed to provide a relatively dense sampling of flatfishes, four flatfish families
550 were not examined in this study: Psettodidae, Paralichthodidae, Oncopteridae, and
551 Achiropsettidae. Psettodidae is the only flatfish group excluded from the Pleuronectoidei

552 (Berendzen and Dimmick, 2002; Betancur-R et al., 2013b; Betancur-R and Ortí, 2014;
553 Harrington et al., 2016) and its placement within the broader Carangaria remains uncertain (Li et
554 al., 2011; Near et al., 2013; Betancur-R et al., 2013a; Campbell et al., 2013; Shi et al., 2018, Lü et
555 al., 2021). Campbell et al. (2019) found that Paralichthodidae, Oncopteridae, and
556 Achiropsettidae are more closely related to Rhombosoleidae than to any other family. Currently,
557 there is no strong counterevidence against a monophyletic Paralichthodidae-Oncopteridae-
558 Achiropsettidae-Rhombosoleidae clade.

559 The evolutionary relationships of the BHC model were almost entirely replicated in this
560 study, the only exception being the position of Rhombosoleidae. Our results strongly suggest that
561 Rhombosoleidae be part of the Pleuronectoidea rather than in Soleoidea (Figure 5). Difference in
562 phylogenetic placement may be attributable to Rhombosoleidae diverging from other sampled
563 families near the base of the flatfish tree, when it appears these fishes were undergoing rapid
564 diversification, so small methodological changes may dictate its placement among these early
565 lineages. Furthermore, the absence of closely related lineages in our dataset (Oncopteridae,
566 Achiropsettidae, and Paralichthodidae) make this family susceptible to long branch attraction
567 (LBA). We recommend further analysis with dense sampling from all four families to (1)
568 confirm the position and monophyly of this clade, and (2) determine if the whole clade should be
569 placed within Pleuronectoidea or just Rhombosolidae.

570 Even with genome-scale data and relatively dense taxon sampling, we acknowledge that
571 many relationships with the flatfish tree are still tenuous. Division of the Pleuronectiformes into
572 its two suborders Psettoidei (*sensu* Regan, 1910) and Pleuronectoidei (*sensu* Chapleau, 1993) is
573 widely established, but monophyly of the order has mixed support. Within the Pleuronectoidei,
574 the family Citharidae almost always resolves as sister to all other groups (BHC model; this

575 study). Campbell et al. (2019) refers to the Citharidae lineage as the superfamily Citharoidea.
576 Our results also support this position, but strong support for a monophyly between its six species
577 has been and remains elusive (Regan, 1910; Amaoka, 1972; Hensley and Ahlstrom, 1984;
578 Aboussouan, 1988; Chapleau, 1993; Cooper and Chapleau, 1998a; Byrne et al., 2018; Shi et al.,
579 2018), likely stemming from its species being morphologically and genetically disparate from
580 one another following an initial period of rapid divergence (Chapleau, 1993; Campbell et al.,
581 2019). Furthermore, other families are occasionally placed within this early branch of the tree
582 such as Scophthalmidae (this study) and Achiridae (Byrne et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2018; Azevedo
583 et al., 2008) with mixed support. This may be an artifact of LBA as all involved families
584 diverged near the base of the Pleuronectoidei, which may have allowed for the accumulation of
585 homoplasies. Studies that place Achiridae near the Citharidae sample heavily from the
586 mitochondrial genome. The sister branch to the Citharidae leads to an unstable region of the
587 phylogeny relating the remaining families. Relationships in this region change considerably
588 between studies; some are well supported, but in most cases they are poorly supported and
589 characterized by short branches, likely caused by rapid radiation early on in flatfish evolution.
590 Emerging from this polytomy, there are five fairly well supported lineages: (1) Achiridae, (2) the
591 Samaridae-Poecilopsettidae-Cynoglossidae-Soleidae clade, (3) the Paralichthodidae-
592 Oncopteridae-Achiropsettidae-Rhombosoleidae clade, (4) Scophthalmidae, and (5) the
593 Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae clade.

594 In addition to being sister to the Citharidae, the Achiridae has historically been found as
595 sister to the Paralichthodidae-Oncopteridae-Achiropsettidae-Rhombosoleidae clade (BHC model)
596 with moderate support, but we find Achiridae to be sister to the Samaridae-Poecilopsettidae-

597 Cynoglossidae-Soleidae clade. With impartial affinity to either group, its placement remains
598 unknown beyond branching early on in the flatfish tree.

599 The clade containing the Samaridae, Poecilopsettidae, Cynoglossidae, and Soleidae has
600 widely been supported in molecular phylogenies (BHC model; Chapleau, 1993; Byrne et al.,
601 2018) and continues to be verified in our study, however the inclusion of Poecilopsettidae is
602 slightly contentious. Poecilopsettidae has appeared in several other places in the broader
603 Pleuronectiformes tree (Berendzen and Dimmick, 2002; Ji et al., 2016) but its placement within
604 this group is the most widely supported across phylogenies (BHC model; Byrne et al., 2018; Shi
605 et al., 2018). Byrne et al. (2018) was the first to suggest a polyphyletic Poecilopsettidae. In their
606 phylogeny, one strongly supported group of *Poecilopsetta beanie* and *P. plinthus* appears as
607 sister to the Soleidae-Cynoglossidae clade, while a second less supported group of *P.*
608 *hawaiiensis*, *P. natalensis*, *P. praelonga*, and *Marleyella bicolorata* appears as sister to the
609 Oncopteridae-Achiropsettidae-Rhombosoleidae clade. When compared to other studies, the first
610 group represents the poecilopsettoid lineage from previously mentioned studies (BHC model) and
611 includes the genus *Nematops* (Campbell et al., 2019), however, the validity of a second lineage is
612 dubious. While Byrne et al. (2018) reported *Poecilopsetta natalensis* within the second group,
613 Shi et al. (2018) found the species in the group one position, within the complex formed by
614 Cynoglossidae, Soleidae, and Samaridae. Additionally, our data produced a monophyletic
615 Poecilopsettidae and sample species from both of the groups reported in Byrne et al. (2018). The
616 first Poecilopsettidae group of from Byrne et al. (2018) could also have been influenced by the
617 inclusion of a member of the Citharidae, *Citharoides macrolepidotus*, possibly from
618 contamination or misidentification.

619 Studies that infer phylogenetic relationships of the Rhombosoleidae and its closely
620 related families, Achiropsettidae, Oncopteridae, and Paralichthodidae, are sparse. While our
621 study only samples from Rhombosoleidae, our methods place the family as sister to the
622 Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae clade, a position not previously
623 reported. The Rhombosoleidae-Achiropsettidae-Oncopteridae-Paralichthodidae complex is
624 positioned closer to Achiridae and the Cynoglossidae-Soleidae clade in the BHC model.
625 Additionally, further studies are needed to elucidate the relationships within Rhombosoleidae,
626 particularly concerning the position and monophyletic status of *Azygopus*, *Colistium*,
627 *Psammodiscus*, and *Taratretis*. This study is the only molecular phylogeny to our knowledge that
628 contains *Azygopus*. Our analysis found the genus within a monophyletic Rhombosoleidae as the
629 sister group to *Ammotretis rostratus*, which does not support Guibord's (2003) hypothesis of
630 *Azygopus* being within Achiropsettidae. Campbell et al. (2019) refers to the group containing the
631 nine families discussed so far as the superfamily Soleoidea. Our analysis does not support a
632 monophyletic Soleoidea (*sensu* Campbell et al., 2019).

633 The monophyletic Cyclopsettidae-Bothidae-Paralichthyidae-Pleuronectidae group is well
634 supported in nearly all molecular phylogenies (BHC model; Pardo et al., 2005; Shi et al., 2018;
635 Byrne et al., 2018; this study). In most cases the Scopthalmidae has been placed as the sister
636 group to this clade (BHC model; Chapleau, 1993). Campbell et al. (2019) refers to the group
637 containing these five families as the superfamily Pleuronectoidea. Our results invariably insert
638 Rhombosoleidae as more closely related to the former group (Table 3, Figures 3-5), casting
639 doubt on a monophyletic Pleuronectoidea (*sensu* Campbell et al., 2019). The group containing all
640 six of these families superficially resembles the "bothoid" group (*sensu* Hensley and Ahlstrom,
641 1984) defined as the Bothidae, Paralichthyidae (excluding *Tephrinectes* and *Thysanopsetta*, but

642 including the Cyclopsettidae), Pleuronectidae (*sensu* Norman, 1934, which includes
643 Rhombosoleidae, Samaridae, and Poecilopsettidae), and *Brachypleura* because they all share a
644 unique caudal skeleton. This group has largely been shown to not be monophyletic, but the
645 contemporary model of the flatfish phylogeny would suggest that the “bothoid” caudal skeleton
646 had appeared early on in the flatfish tree and was modified in several lineages such as in several
647 Citharidae, Achiridae, and the Soleidae-Cynoglossidae clade. In our phylogenies, the
648 Scophthalmidae originates near the base of the tree and occasionally appears closer to the
649 Citharidae, and datasets of primarily mitochondrial genes have produced topologies with
650 Scophthalmidae being the sister group to the Rhombosoleidae (Byrne et al., 2018; Shi et al.,
651 2018).

652 **4.4. Species relationships of the Pleuronectidae**

653 Pleuronectidae (*sensu* Chapleau and Keast, 1988) is the most densely sampled family in
654 our analysis (38 of 61 species in 23 of 24 genera). Numerous studies have examined
655 phylogenetic relationships within this family (Cooper and Chapleau, 1998a; Kartavtsev et al.,
656 2008a, 2008b; Roje, 2010; Kartavtsev et al., 2016; Ji et al., 2016; Vinnikov et al., 2018). Of these,
657 Vinnikov et al. (2018) provides the most comprehensive dataset to-date, sampling from 60 of 63
658 recognized species and using sequences from seven genes. Their study established the five
659 subfamilies currently recognized, with Atheresthinae originating at the base of the
660 Pleuronectidae tree, followed by Pleuronichthyinae, which is sister to the group containing
661 Microstominae, Hippoglossinae, and Pleuronectinae. The results from our study are consistent
662 with the overall topology found by Vinnikov et al. (2018) with a few exceptions. We show that
663 *Lyopsetta* and *Clidoderma* should not be included in the Hippoglossinae since this region of the
664 tree is poorly supported and fails to resolve in one singular topology (Figures 6). Vinnikov (2018)

665 justified a monophyletic Hippoglossinae by finding the group united in all gene trees, however,
666 this lineage has low posterior support in their concatenation-based tree. Furthermore, our
667 analysis indicates that getting further resolution on the relationships between *Lyopsetta*,
668 *Clidoderma*, the remaining Hippoglossinae, Microstominae, and Pleuronectidae is dubious.
669 Collective inconsistencies and poor node support from Vinnikov et al. (2018) and this study
670 suggests there may be additional persistent uncertainty among the remaining four
671 Hippoglossinae genera, in the Pleuronectinae between *Psettichthys*, *Lepidopsetta*, *Isopsetta*, and
672 *Parophrys*, and between *Liopsetta*, *Platichthys*, and *Pleuronectes*. Suzuki et al (2001) had
673 questioned the monophyly of Pleuronectidae on the basis of the placement of *Atheresthes*. Our
674 data show that the origin of the *Atheresthes* lineage is rooted near the most recent common
675 ancestor between Pleuronectidae and Paralichthyidae and that its position is sensitive to
676 phylogenetic methodology, but most studies report inclusion of *Atheresthes* in Pleuronectidae
677 (Betancur-R and Ortí, 2014; Vinnikov et al., 2018; Byrne et al., 2018). The unstable position of
678 the *Atheresthes* branch could be further explained by limited genetic data in Suzuki et al. (2001)
679 and very long branch lengths in this study.

680 **4.5. Remaining knowledge-gaps in the flatfish phylogeny**

681 There have been numerous order-level molecular phylogenies that have attempted to
682 resolve relationships between flatfish species (BHC model; Berendzen and Dimmick 2002;
683 Azevedo et al. 2008; Byrne et al., 2018; Shi et al., 2018; this study), all are subject to problems
684 of incomplete taxon sampling and discordant genetic information. While the general structure
685 between families is consistently replicated, the sister clade to the Citharidae contains unstable
686 relationships that are challenging to decipher even with use of genome-scale data. The molecular
687 signature that is driving this pattern likely arose due to a period of rapid genetic evolution early

688 on in the flatfish tree. In cases such as these, further systematic resolution is unlikely, and
689 taxonomists should be conservative and apply rigorous systematic techniques before creating
690 taxonomic names for groups that might be easily disassembled. Future systematic studies should
691 aim to continue using large genome-wide datasets and prioritize underrepresented clades with
692 dense taxon sampling. Problematic taxa that require further investigation are outlined in Table 4.
693
694 **Table 4:** Extent of knowledge and sampling for all Pleuronectiformes families in available
695 literature; Counts for genera (Gen.) and species (Spp.) based on Catalogue of Fishes (Fricke et al.,
696 2021; van der Laan and Fricke, 2021). Questionably monophyletic genera have been found as
697 non-monophyletic or were suspected to be in the reference listed.

Family [Gen./Spp.]	Within-family relationships largely resolved?	Questionably Monophyletic Genera (reference(s)); [fraction of polytypic genera]	Genera not included in any molecular phylogeny
Achiridae [6/35]	Yes; generic relationships mostly resolved in Byrne et al. (2018)	<i>Trinectes</i> (Azevedo et al. 2008; Byrne et al., 2018); [1/5]	none
Achiropsettidae [4/4]	Yes; few species	none	<i>Pseudomancopsetta</i>
Bothidae [20/168]	No; most extensive analysis: Fukui (1997) and Byrne et al. (2018), but still largely unknown relationships	<i>Arnoglossus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Bothus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Chascanopsetta</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Crossorhombus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Engyprosoyon</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Psettina</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Laeops</i> (Byrne et al., 2018); [7/16]	<i>Perissias</i> , <i>Tosarhombus</i>
Citharidae [5/6]	Yes; few species but with highly divergent characters, monophyly justified in Hoshino (2001)	none	none
Cycloposettidae [4/50]	No, need a focus on sorting out <i>Citharichthys-Etropus</i> complex; morphological analyses: Hensley and Ahlstrom (1984) and Khidir et al. (2005)	<i>Citharichthys</i> (Betancur, 2014; Byrne et al., 2018; this study), <i>Etropus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018); [2/4]	none
Cynoglossidae [3/162]	No, need a focus on monophyly of <i>Cynoglossus</i> ; most extensive analysis: Cooper and Chapleau (1988)	<i>Cynoglossus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018); [1/3]	none
Oncopteridae [1/1]	Yes; monotypic	none	none
Paralichthyidae [10/59]	No; highly conflicting topologies among molecular phylogenies and with inconsistent taxon sampling	<i>Ancylopsetta</i> (this study), <i>Paralichthys</i> (Byrne et al., 2018; this study), <i>Pseudorhombus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018); [3/6]	none
Paralichthodidae [1/1]	Yes; monotypic	none	none
Pleuronectidae [24/63]	Yes; last comprehensive analysis (Vinnikov et al., 2018)	none	none (<i>Pleuronichthys ocellatus</i> , <i>Platichthys luscus</i> , and <i>P. solemdali</i> only species not included in any molecular phylogeny)
Poecilopsettidae [3/21]	No, need a focus on monophyly of Poecilopsettidae with broader taxon sampling	<i>Poecilopsetta</i> (Guibord 2003; Byrne et al., 2018); [1/3]	none

Psettodidae [1/3]	Yes; few species	none	none
Rhombosoleidae [8/20]	No, need a focus on placement of <i>Psammodiscus</i> , <i>Azygopus</i> , and monophyly of Rhombosoleidae; last comprehensive analysis: Guibord (2003)	<i>Ammotretis</i> (this study), <i>Colistium</i> (Guibord 2003); [2/5]	<i>Psammodiscus</i> , <i>Taratretis</i>
Samaridae [4/30]	No, need a focus on monophyly of <i>Samariscus</i>	<i>Samariscus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018); [1/3]	<i>Samaretta</i>
Scophthalmidae [3/9]	Yes; last comprehensive analysis: Chanet (2003)	none	none
Soleidae [30/180]	No; most extensive sampling from Byrne et al. (2018), but many unsampled genera remain	<i>Aseraggodes</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Pardachirus</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Pegusa</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Solea</i> (Byrne et al., 2018), <i>Zebrias</i> (Byrne et al., 2018); [5/19]	<i>Achiroides</i> , <i>Barbourichthys</i> , <i>Barnardichthys</i> , <i>Dexillus</i> , <i>Leptachirus</i> , <i>Liachirus</i> , <i>Paradicula</i> , <i>Phyllichthys</i> , <i>Rendahlia</i> , <i>Rhinosolea</i> , <i>Synclidopus</i> , <i>Typhlachirus</i> , <i>Vanstraelenia</i>

698

699 5. Conclusions

700 Our analysis of flatfish systematics using an exon-capture dataset with relatively dense
701 taxon sampling was mostly consistent with the leading phylogenetic hypotheses for the
702 Pleuronectiformes (BHC model) and the Pleuronectidae (Vinnikov et al., 2018). We report a
703 novel position for the family Rhombosoleidae and show extremely poor support for the
704 subfamily Hippoglossinae. Collective inference using sixteen phylogenetic analyses
705 demonstrates the tenuous nature of several flatfish relationships at various evolutionary scales,
706 and how certain relationships are favored by particular methods. By examining our data within
707 the historical context of flatfish systematics we were able to identify several regions where
708 phylogenetic uncertainty is likely to remain and outline groups that should be targeted for further
709 study.

710 Acknowledgements

711 This work was funded by the NOAA Award NA15OAR4320063, Archival Storage and
712 Dissemination of Data on Northeast Pacific Fish Eggs, Larvae, and Adults, and supported in part
713 by the William W. and Dorothy T. Gilbert Ichthyology Research Fund. Sequence data from the
714 FishLife project were funded by National Science Foundation grants DEB-1932759 and DEB-
715 1929248 to RBR, and DEB-2015404 to DA. Molecular benchwork was assisted by Jennifer

716 Gardner, Sam Ghods, and Emily McFarland. We are grateful to the various fish collections and
717 NOAA facilities, and their staff, who were instrumental in acquiring tissue samples for this
718 project: Katherine Maslenikov from the UWFC, Alison Deary, Jay Orr, Duane Stevenson, &
719 Morgan Busby from the NOAA AFSC, John Galbraith and Jakub Kircun from NOAA NEFSC,
720 Graham Alastair from CSIRO, Leo Smith and Andrew Bentley from KU, and Prosanta
721 Chakrabarty and Seth Parker from LSU. Thank you to Bruce Kingham and the University of
722 Delaware Sequencing and Genotyping Center for their DNA sequencing services, and to the labs
723 of Steven Roberts, James and Lisa Seeb, and Adam Leche, for lending some of their resources
724 toward this project.

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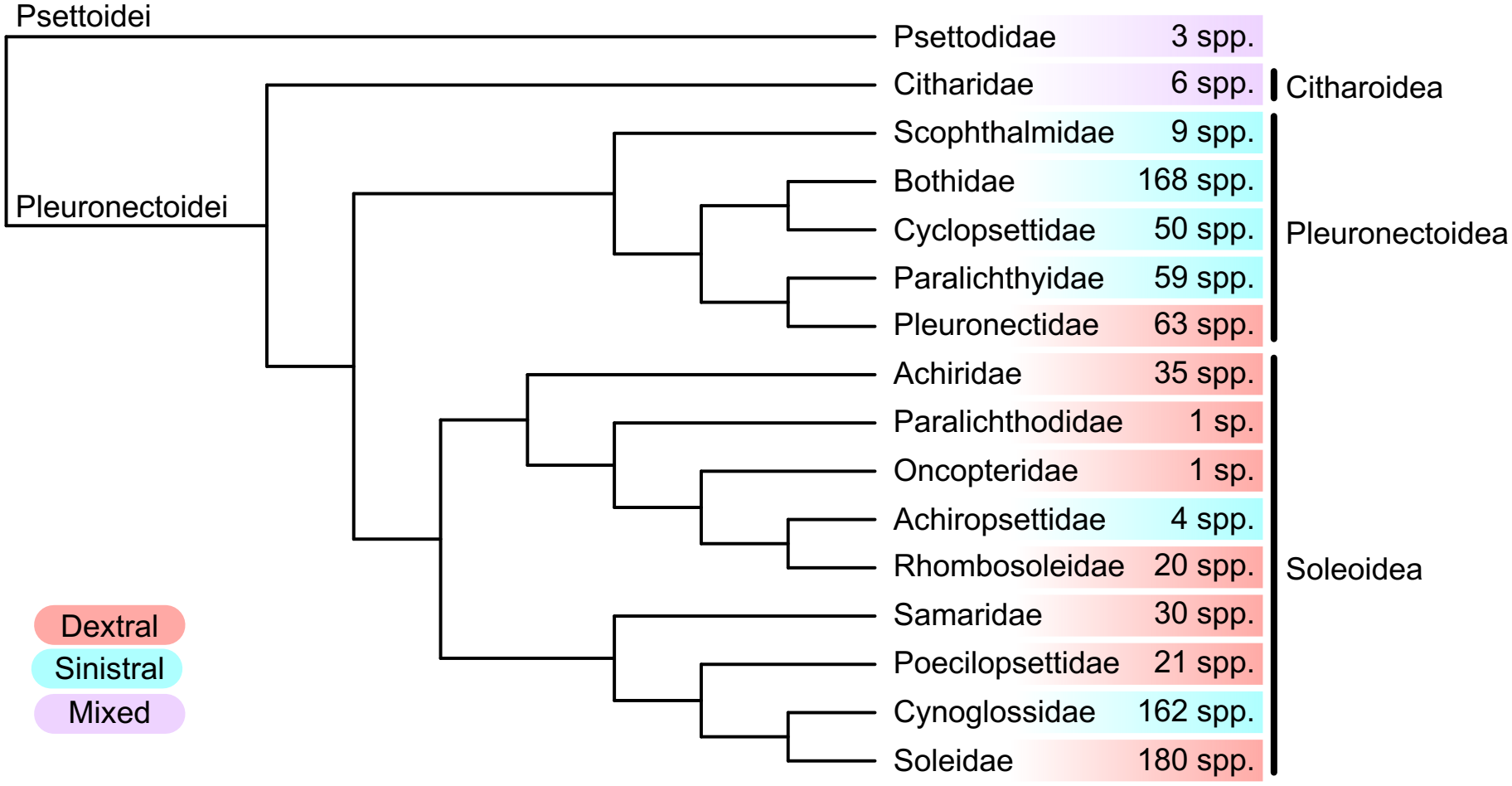
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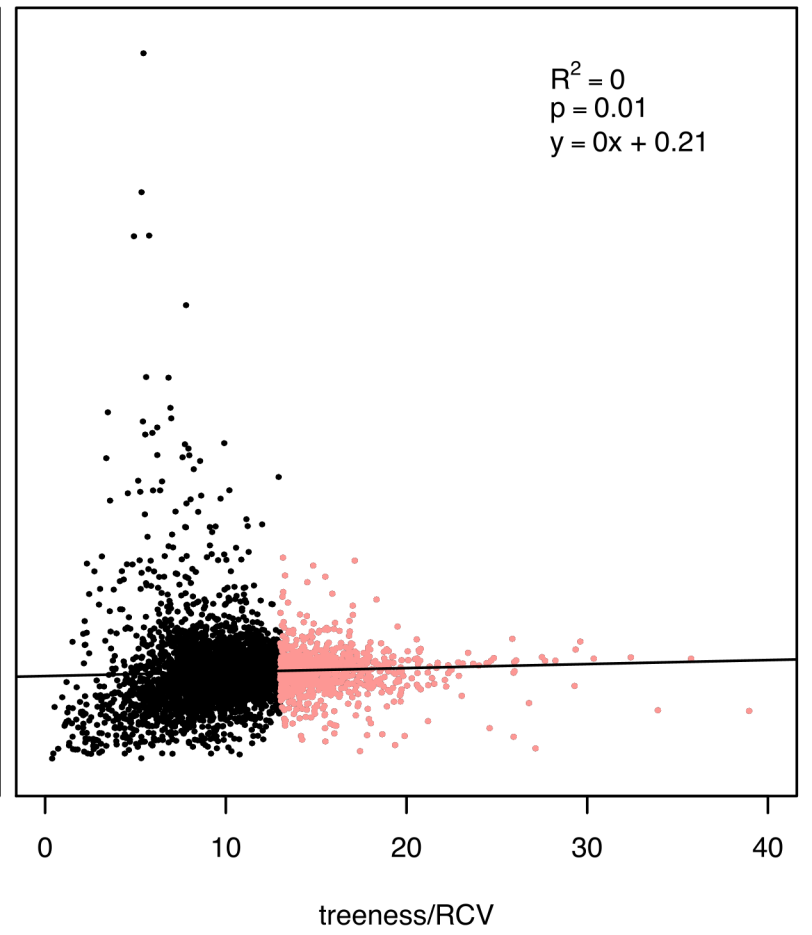
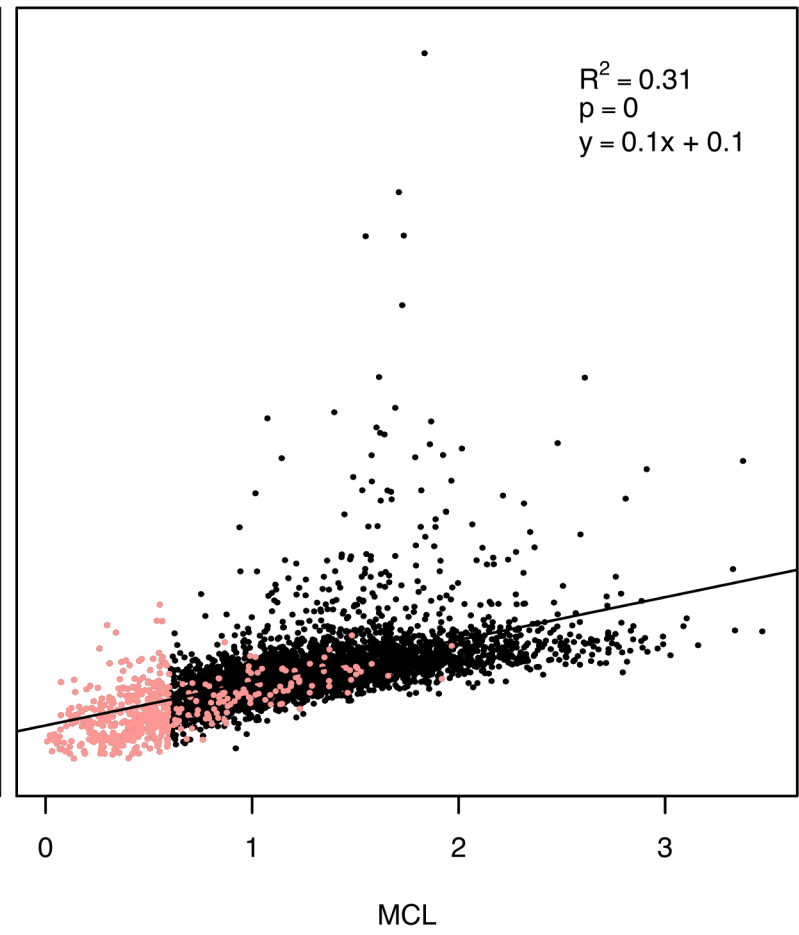
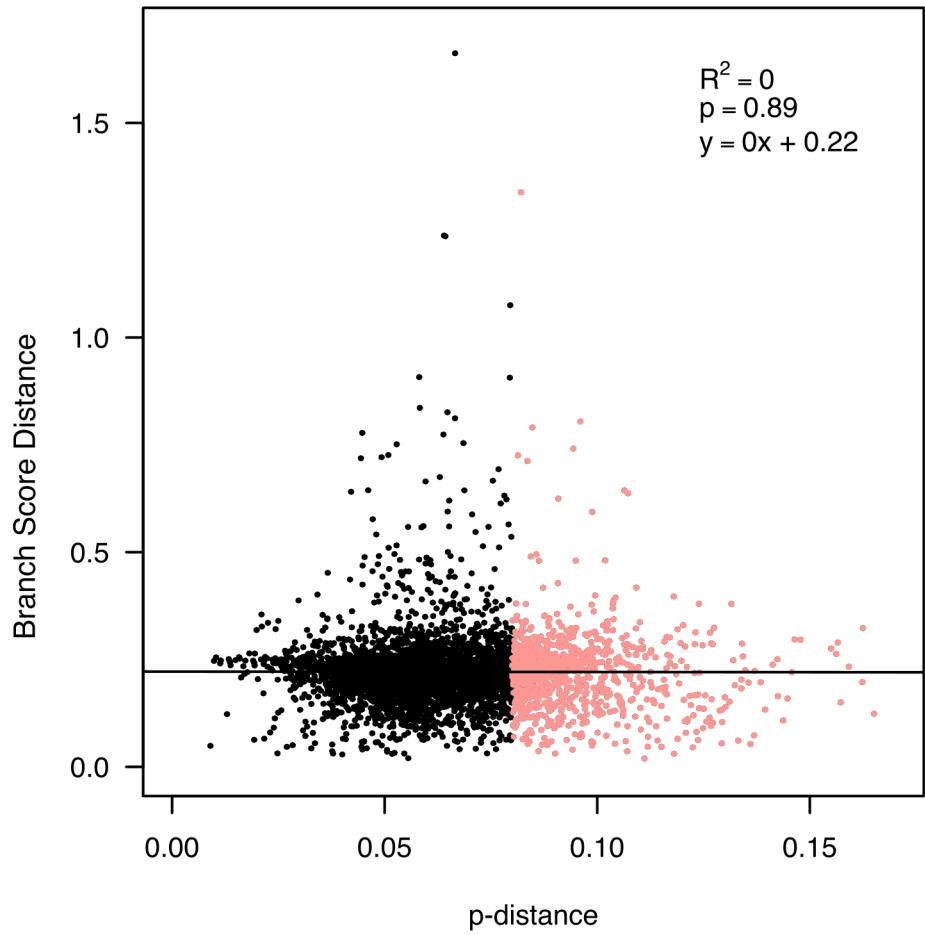
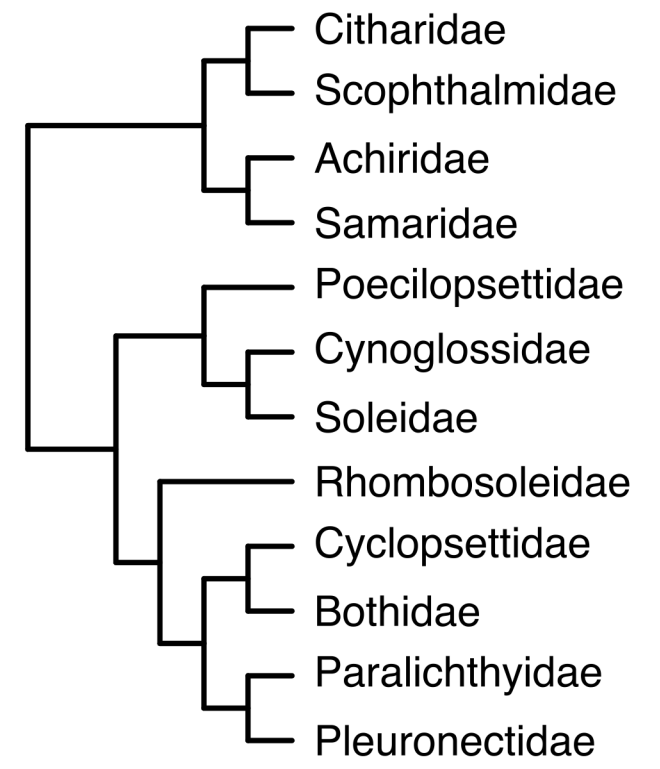
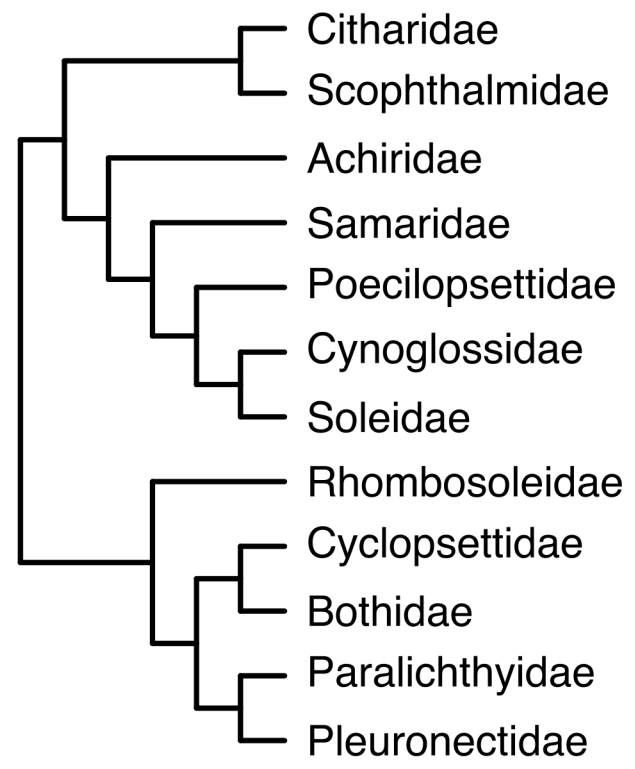
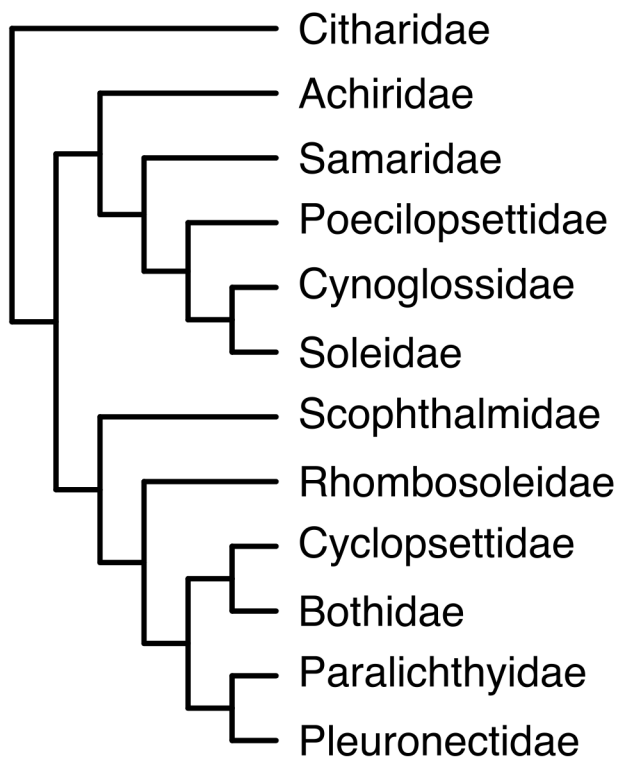
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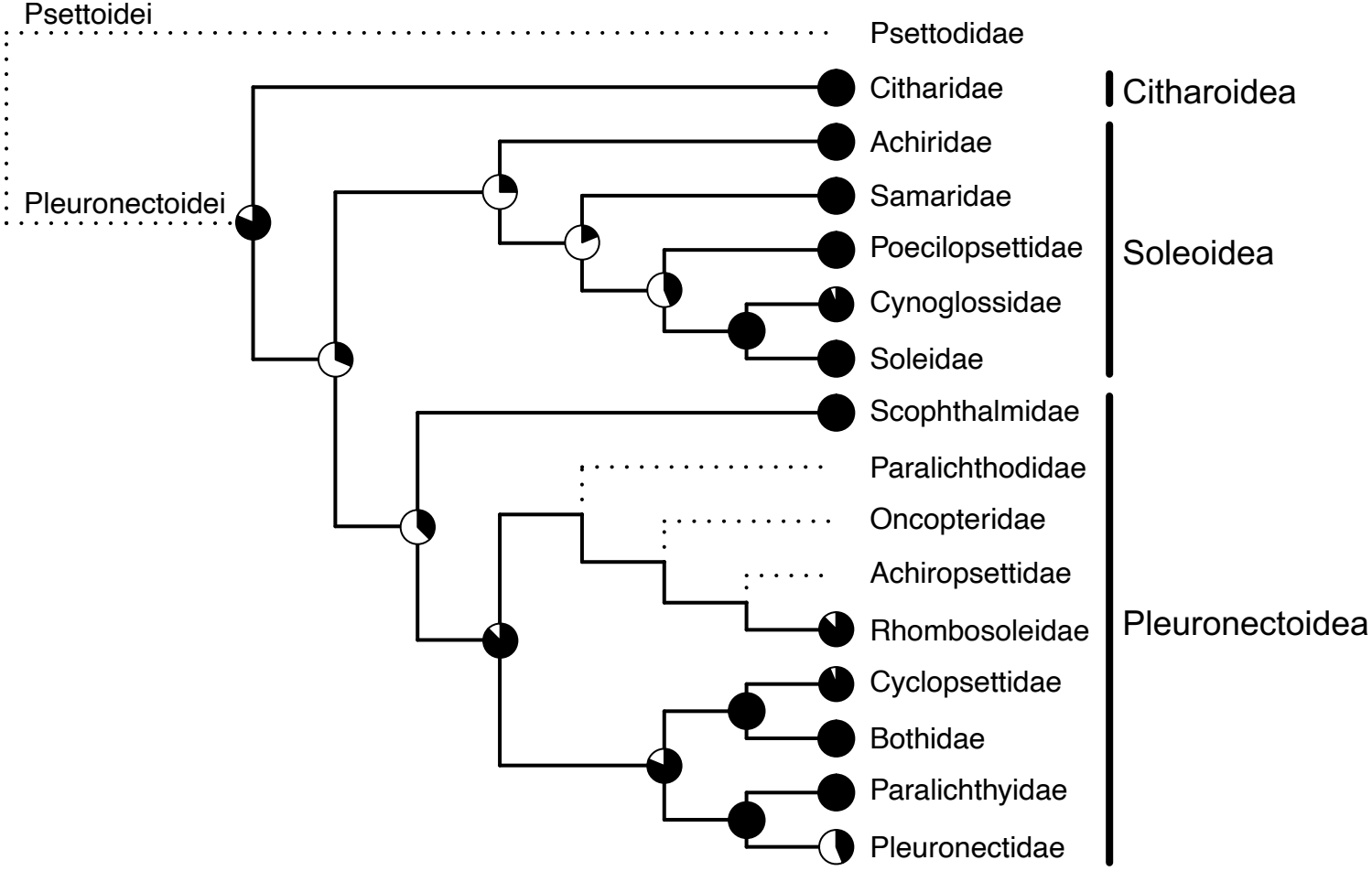


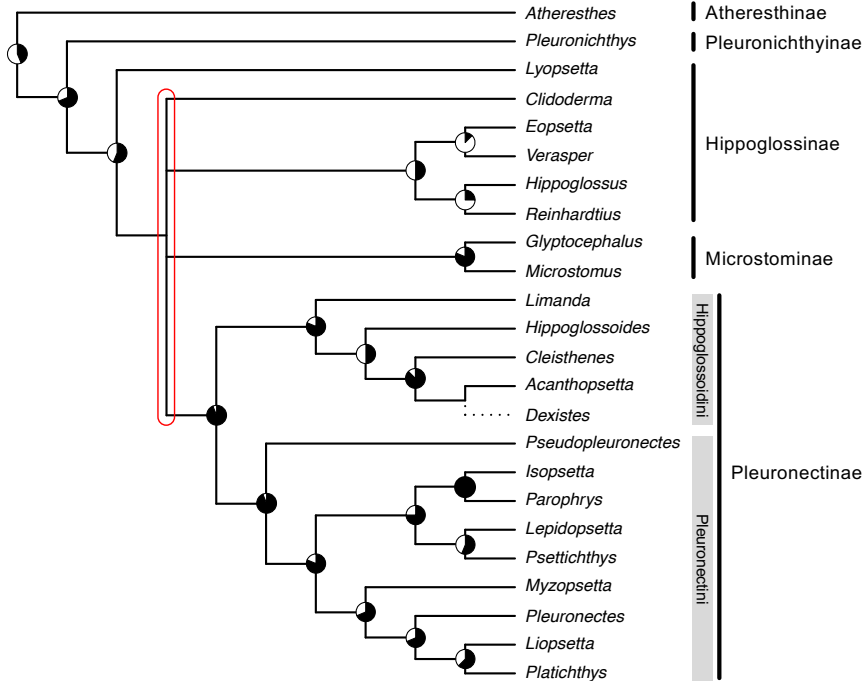


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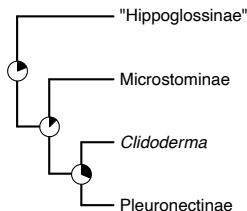








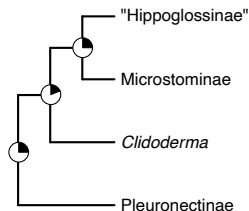
Topology 1



Resulted from analyses:

Unfiltered : Concatenation-based
 Taxon coverage > 39 : Concatenation-based
 Partitioned by codon : Concatenation-based

Topology 2



Resulted from analyses:

Unfiltered : Species-tree
 Taxon coverage > 39 : Species-tree
 treeness/RCV > 13 : Species-tree

