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13 **Abstract**

14 Tree of life diagrams are graphic representations of phylogeny—the evolutionary history  
15 and relationships of lineages—and as such these graphics have the potential to convey key  
16 evolutionary ideas and principles to a variety of audiences. Museums play a significant role in  
17 teaching about evolution to the public, and tree graphics form a common element in many  
18 exhibits even though little is known about their impact on visitor understanding. How  
19 phylogenies are depicted and used in informal science settings impacts their accessibility and  
20 effectiveness in communicating about evolution to visitors. In this paper, we summarize the  
21 analysis of 185 tree of life graphics collected from museum exhibits at 52 institutions and  
22 highlight some potential implications of how trees are presented which may support or hinder  
23 visitors' understanding about evolution. While further work is needed, existing learning research

24 suggests that common elements among the diversity of museum trees such as the inclusion of  
25 anagenesis, and absence of time and shared characters might represent potential barriers to  
26 visitor understanding.

27 **Key Words:** Evolutionary Trees, Trees of Life, Phylogeny, Museums

## Evolutionary Tree Diagrams in Museums

1 The idea of a ‘tree of life’ represents a core concept of evolutionary science—phylogeny—and is  
2 depicted graphically using an almost bewildering array of formats and terminology, in which  
3 even a particular geometry used can have multiple names associated with it.

4 Evolutionary trees of life are branching diagrams that depict hypothesized relationships—  
5 the historical pattern of divergence and descent between taxa—as a series of branches that merge  
6 at internal branches representing common ancestry, which in turn are connected with more  
7 distant relatives. As visual representations of the history of lineages or phylogeny, trees reflect  
8 the core concept of common ancestry. The importance of phylogeny in supporting understanding  
9 of evolution is highlighted in key education documents (American Association for the  
10 Advancement of Science, 2001; Baum, DeWitt-Smith, & Donovan, 2005; National Research  
11 Council, 1996). Tree diagrams, as a graphical representation of this principle, have the potential  
12 to play a valuable role in conveying evolutionary ideas.

13 How people interpret and understand evolutionary trees is a complex interaction between  
14 their prior knowledge and understanding of underlying evolutionary ideas such as similarity,  
15 ancestry and relatedness, and their ability to read the relationships depicted in a schematic tree  
16 diagram. Given the diversity of tree depictions, one might ask what people understand from these  
17 different graphic representations. Many of the common misconceptions about reading and  
18 interpreting tree diagrams are well established (Gregory, 2008; Meir, Perry, Herron, &  
19 Kingsolver, 2007), and work has been, and continues to be done on the use of trees with students  
20 in structured learning environments (Baum, et al., 2005; Halverson, 2010; Novick & Catley,  
21 2007; Novick, Shade, & Catley, 2010). However, there is a gap in our knowledge about how  
22 trees are used and understood outside of a formal instructional framework. An understanding of

23 how, and in what form, tree graphics are used in informal settings is an important part of  
24 supporting the development of evolutionary thinking in museum visitors.

25         Museums are an important part of how the public accesses science information, including  
26 evolution, and in teaching about these ideas to their visitors (Diamond & Evans, 2007; National  
27 Science Board, 2008). In fact, a recent study found that even a single visit to an evolution exhibit  
28 can influence children's thinking about evolutionary concepts (Diamond, Evans, & Spiegel, in  
29 press, 2010). Evaluation studies with natural history museum visitors shows that they are  
30 interested in the tree of life, but struggle with interpreting the content and relationships  
31 represented in trees (Giusti & Scott, 2006; Spiegel, Evans, Gram, & Diamond, 2006). While few  
32 museums use phylogeny as an organizing principle in their galleries, evolutionary diagrams form  
33 a major graphic element in many museums and other informal science settings (Diamond &  
34 Scotchmoor, 2006; MacDonald, 2010). Tree diagrams as a way of representing relatedness is a  
35 pervasive element in exhibits that extends beyond science institutions; for example, even the  
36 Creation Museum in Kentucky contrasts evolutionary trees with a series of trees depicting  
37 separately created kinds, including a solitary and independent line for humans.

38         In natural history museums, visitors can see a wide range of historical depictions of the  
39 tree of life depending on when an exhibit was developed and the research emphasis of the  
40 scientific curators. The graphic representation of the tree in each new exhibit usually reflects the  
41 current usage or discipline preferences, but since older depictions often are kept on display, a  
42 range of different presentations of tree diagrams are depicted even within a single institution  
43 (Diamond & Scotchmoor, 2006; MacDonald, 2010). Some galleries intentionally use more than  
44 one depiction of the tree of life to emphasize to visitors the validity of alternative approaches or

































367           In addition to orientation, geometry has implication for tree understanding. While  
368 different geometries show equivalent relationships, and the selection of one versus another may  
369 be arbitrary, the particular form used may have implications for interpretation. Novick & Catley  
370 (2007) found that undergraduate students had greater difficulties extracting the hierarchical  
371 structure and relationships in angled cladograms than rectangular ones (what they refer to as  
372 ladders and trees, respectively) despite their being equivalent in terms of the information they  
373 contain. The authors suggest that the difficulty in seeing the nested relationships in the ladder  
374 results from the Gestalt principle of good continuation. Good continuation implies that the sloped  
375 line at the base of the ladder/angled diagram represents a single hierarchical level rather than the  
376 multiple levels it actually represents. The principle of good continuation then acts as a cognitive  
377 constraint resulting in the straight line being seen as a unit that continues without change, making  
378 it difficult for students to understand and interpret the relationships being depicted. Angled  
379 cladograms were also found to be more likely to elicit anagenic responses—speciation by  
380 transformation of one form into another—than rectangular ones (Novick, et al., 2010).

381

### 382 *Humans in Evolutionary Trees*

383 Museum visitors' reasoning about organisms and evolutionary explanations varies depending on  
384 the taxa included in the tree diagram, particularly humans (Diamond & Evans, 2007). How  
385 visitors perceive exhibits with humans and other living or extinct primates in them is complex  
386 and challenging, but they are often interpreted as being linear, directional and progressive (Scott,  
387 2007, 2010; Scott & Giusti, 2006).

388           In addition to the common vertical orientation of trees, the location of *Homo sapiens* and  
389 other hominin species in relation to the other taxa in the tree has the potential to reflect and

390 reinforce ideas of teleology and progression (Matuk, 2007; Tversky, 1995). A survey of textbook  
391 charts found most to be vertically organized with *H. sapiens* at the top (Tversky, 1995), and an  
392 analysis of anthropocentrism in phylogenetic textbooks found the position of humans on the top-  
393 right of the left–right axis of vertical cladograms to be significant (Sandvik, 2007). In museum  
394 trees, a bias for top-right placement of humans was not found; however, the sample size was  
395 small (n=9).

396         The common misreading of time across the top of a cladogram from left to right—  
397 coupled with reading the order of terminal taxa across the top as relatedness—may be interpreted  
398 as a progression from ‘old, primitive or simple’ to ‘recent and complex’, culminating in humans  
399 (Baum, et al., 2005; Catley & Novick, 2006; Giusti & Scott, 2006; Halverson, Pires, & Abell,  
400 2008; Meir, et al., 2007). Furthermore, a recent study of the impact of taxa placement in  
401 cladograms found that students were more likely to provide teleological responses and  
402 explanations if humans occupied an end, rather than a central location (Phillips, et al., 2010).

403         In addition to the placement of *H. sapiens*, the portrayal of hominin evolution as  
404 primarily anagenic, by depicting one or more taxa placed on or within a single branch, is  
405 problematic for its potential to reinforce ideas of teleology, progression and anthropocentrism.  
406 While anagenesis is common in textbook trees with humans (Catley & Novick, 2008), fewer than  
407 a third of museum trees that include humans depict anagenesis. However, of those that do, all  
408 include *H. sapiens* and their most recent extinct relatives (e.g. *Homo*, *Australopithecus*, etc.)  
409 rather than humans in relation to other extant primates or other taxa.

410

### 411 ***Geological Time***

412 Time is an important and difficult concept in understanding evolutionary trees, and the

413 interpretation of time on trees is influenced by a range of factors including branch length, and  
414 naïve understanding of evolutionary processes (Dodick, 2010). It has been suggested that where  
415 temporal data is available, the inclusion of geological time on diagrams may help to support  
416 understanding (Catley & Novick, 2008), and help with the common misreading of time across  
417 the top rather than bottom-up in vertically oriented trees (Meir, et al., 2007).

418         Variation in branch length is thought to have the potential to promote understanding if the  
419 earlier ending points indicate extinct taxa (Catley & Novick, 2008), and the inclusion of extinct  
420 taxa could help to avoid ideas of species persistence and progress (Donovan & Hornack, 2004)—  
421 in part because a long branch is often incorrectly interpreted as a lineage in which no change has  
422 occurred (Crisp & Cook, 2005; Novick & Catley, 2007). However, the potential value of  
423 different branch length to identify extinct groups may be hampered by the fact that the  
424 significance of this diagrammatic feature is often not made explicit. Recent research indicates  
425 that there is a strong correlation between understanding the direction of time and the ability to  
426 explain evolutionary problems as represented in phylogenetic diagrams, and that explicitly  
427 including temporal information on diagrams may support understanding and avoid the common  
428 misreading of relatedness along the tips, a.k.a tip-reading (Dodick, 2010). The interpretation of  
429 time in phylogenetic trees, and advantages and disadvantages of explicitly doing so are subject to  
430 much discussion, and continuing research will help to clarify these issues (Catley & Novick,  
431 2008; Dodick, 2010).

432

### 433 ***Tree Content and Labeling***

434 Most of the museum trees do not label tree components such as the root or node(s) as  
435 representing common ancestors or shared derived characters (synapomorphies) between taxa.

436 Fewer than half refer to ancestors/common ancestors—with less than 15% included on the  
437 diagram itself—and only 20% labeling specific synapomorphies that support the relationships  
438 depicted on the tree. Donovan & Wilcox (2004) suggest that labeling the root or other internal  
439 node as ‘common ancestor’ can help to overcome the abstractness of tree representations and  
440 support the interpretation of nodes. Others argue that since the ancestor is unknown it is  
441 disingenuous to include it (Catley & Novick, 2008), and doing so has the potential to reinforce  
442 the view of nodes as precise moment of change (Meir, et al., 2007). Recent research has found  
443 that the inclusion of synapomorphies can help support understanding of tree diagrams and that  
444 evolutionary relationships are based on shared characteristics (Novick, Catley, & Funk,  
445 Published online: 22 June 2010 ), making their relatively uncommon use in museum tree  
446 diagrams problematic in terms of supporting visitor understanding.

447 Museum trees often include, in graphic form, other information beyond relatedness and  
448 common ancestry, such as diversity, by altering variables such as branch length, thickness or  
449 shape, using color-coding and symbols. These are often not made explicit on the tree itself or in  
450 an associated legend or key. Textbook trees often use branch thickness to indicate diversity, but  
451 the graphical significance of this is generally unclear and undefined (Catley & Novick, 2008).  
452 The absence of clear labeling means that the significance of these variables, if any, may be  
453 unclear, which makes it difficult to read and interpret the diagram. Being explicit about the intent  
454 of abstract diagrammatic elements is likely to aid in tree interpretation.

455

### 456 ***Tree Explanatory Information***

457 For most museum trees, the exhibit text describes what can be seen in the tree—e.g. which taxa  
458 are most closely related—but the link to the graphic itself is usually not explicit. Evaluation

459 studies suggest that it is important to directly tie labels to what visitors can experience at that  
460 point in the exhibition (McLean, 1993; Serrell, 1996), and presenting explicit information and  
461 concrete ideas in exhibit labels helps to instruct visitors about what they should look for  
462 (Bitgood, 2000; Falk, 1997; Falk & Dierking, 1992). However, the lack of explicit annotation in  
463 many museum trees is not surprising given its absence in most evolutionary diagrams used in  
464 textbooks (Catley & Novick, 2008); although its inclusion could support an understanding and  
465 interpretation of evolutionary processes (Donovan & Hornack, 2004). Overall, the absence of  
466 explicit explanations for many trees or information about trees as products of science is likely to  
467 add to the difficulty that visitors have in reading and understanding of these diagrams.

468

#### 469 ***Tree Presentation***

470 Overwhelmingly, tree diagrams used in museum exhibits are part of graphic panels with images  
471 or specimens/models of taxa at terminal taxa points. Incorporating visuals into trees may draw  
472 attention to the organisms, help users to recognize and identify taxa, and assist visitors in  
473 connecting labeled synapomorphies with visible morphological characteristics. Many novices  
474 emphasize morphological features and similarity-based reasoning in their thinking about  
475 biological relationships, and so caution should be used to avoid conflating overall similarity with  
476 relatedness (Gelman, 2004; Gelman & Markman, 1987; Halverson, et al., 2008; Sloutsky, Lo, &  
477 Fisher, 2001); however, explicitly labeling synapomorphies that are used to support the  
478 relationships shown in the tree—and perhaps that can be seen in accompanying visuals—may  
479 help highlight the evidence used in tree building, that of relatedness based on shared derived  
480 characters, and support ideas about scientific inference (Donovan & Wilcox, 2004).

481 Fewer than 10% are multimedia based, but some of these kiosks and online trees were



482 interactive, where the user could step through the information or navigate to different parts of the  
483 tree. Summative evaluation of Yale's *Travels in the Great Tree of Life* exhibit found that the  
484 computer game exploring relationships was effective at communicating the idea that  
485 phylogenetic relationships may not always be what you might expect (Giusti, 2008), which  
486 suggests that interactivity and/or animation may help address some issues with reasoning using  
487 trees. Based on personal experience with museum visitors, exploring the tree of life using  
488 manipulatives such as using scale models of taxa and different graphic representations can be  
489 effective with museum visitors. Research on the potential role of animation in understanding  
490 cladograms has found that animations can influence the perception and interpretation of  
491 diagrams, but that interpretation is also impacted by a user's prior knowledge and common  
492 evolution narratives (Matuk, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c, 2010; Matuk & Uttal, under contract).

493

#### 494 **Conclusions and Further Work**

495 Museums seek to share current scientific research with the public, and to teach visitors about  
496 evolution through their exhibits and programs. As this study and review of the literature shows,  
497 museums have a long history of using evolutionary graphics to communicate about relationships,  
498 and informal science institutions of all types are making efforts to incorporate evolutionary  
499 history or relatedness. Visitors are likely to be exposed to a variety tree of life diagrams during a  
500 single museum experience. This diversity and the long standing use of trees of life in museums  
501 makes them an ideal setting to explore visitor understanding of these diagrams and to investigate  
502 strategies that can increase their effectiveness as tools for communicating about evolution and  
503 the tree of life.

504 Pilot studies from the *Understanding the Tree of Life* project provide some important  
505 insights into visitor understanding of trees including the ability of young children to reason with  
506 tree diagrams, that trees can foster thinking about common ancestry and time—but may hinder  
507 an understanding of variation and selection, the impact of prior knowledge and existing  
508 narratives in interpreting trees, and the importance of time.

509 These studies, and this review, highlight the importance and educational potential of  
510 evolutionary trees in museums, and how much more work needs to be done. Further research is  
511 needed to explore how visitors interpret and understand these varied representations in a museum  
512 setting, and to understand what the visitors bring with them and how this can be used to support  
513 their understanding of phylogeny and the tree of life. However, the existing literature suggests  
514 three elements that might help to clarify visitor understanding of trees: (1) show time axis; (2)  
515 include shared characters; and (3) carefully consider the placement of taxa in trees, particularly  
516 humans.

517 The flexible and ubiquitous nature of informal learning provides a great opportunity to  
518 share current scientific knowledge and our understanding of the tree of life with the public—yet  
519 brings its own challenges as these experiences occur within the context of visitors' prior  
520 knowledge and conceptions. As we strive to support the understanding of evolution with  
521 museum visitors we need to think carefully about what we are trying to communicate, what role  
522 trees can play in supporting evolutionary thinking, and how this may be supplemented and  
523 supported by other exhibit components—in essence, how trees of life fit into the broader context  
524 of the visitor experience.

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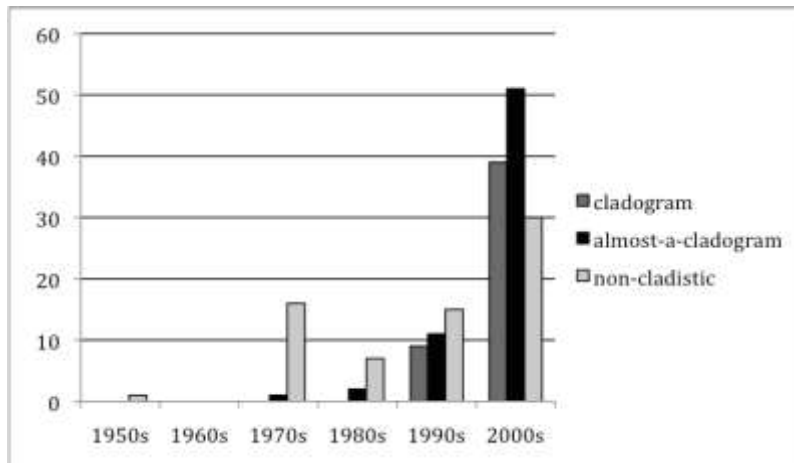


Figure 1. Distribution of study trees by decade and type.





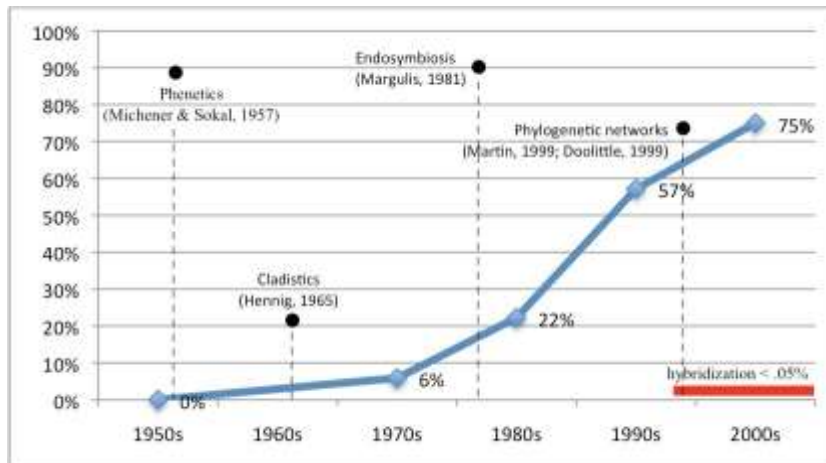


Figure 3. Percentage of museum trees that are cladograms (*sensu lato*) over time.

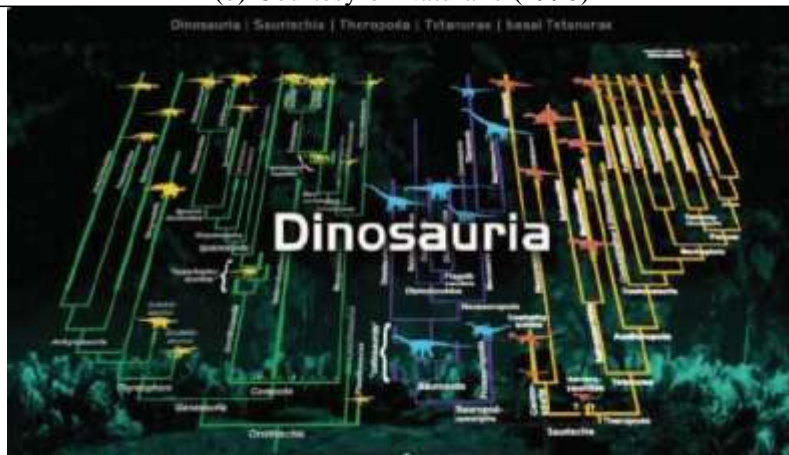




(a) Courtesy of the Frank H. McClung Museum, The University of Tennessee, Knoxville (2004)



(b) Courtesy of Naturalis (1998)



(c) Carnegie Museum of Natural History (2008). © Carnegie Museum of Natural History.

Figure 5. Examples of tree presentation formats: (a) 3D tree, (b) 3D tree, (c) media kiosk.



Courtesy Omaha's Henry Doorly Zoo (2004)



Courtesy Santa Barbara Zoo (1996)


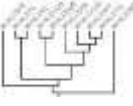

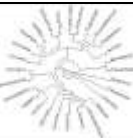
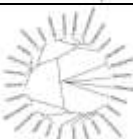
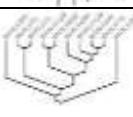
Figure 6. Examples of primate trees with a central trunk and side branches.

Table 1. Categories, criteria and coding used for museum trees.

CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION AND CODING
<b>Topological and Diagrammatic Elements</b>	
Orientation	Overall orientation of tree, or the position of the root relative to branches. Those with no overall orientation (e.g. circular or radial geometries) were coded as N/A.
Direction	Overall direction of branches from the root; circular trees were coded by the direction of the initial spiral, and radial trees were coded N/A.
Geometry	Trees classified as a cladogram and ‘almost-a-cladogram’ were coded as angled, rectangular, curvogram/swoopogram, circular, radial, or eurogram. Non-cladistic/other evolutionary trees, were coded as N/A.
Terminal branch end points	Whether branches end at different levels.
Images of taxa	Taxa are represented visually (graphically through images, silhouettes, or with models/specimens).
‘Tree of Life’	Diagrams has a central main trunk with taxa branching off of it with a clear linear progression from ‘lower’ to ‘higher’ forms (Haeckel, 1874).
<b>Tree Content</b>	
Anagenesis	Depicts ancestor-descendant relationships between named taxa (e.g. genus or species) with one or more named taxa in a sequence along a branch
Taxa	Invertebrates, vertebrates, broad taxonomic categories, or other (e.g. viruses).
Extinct taxa	Includes extinct taxa.
Humans and their most recent extinct relatives	Includes one or more members of this group.
Geological Time	Includes an indication of time.
Classification	Explicit links between parts of tree and more familiar classifications of organisms.
Common ancestor	Refers to one or more common ancestors.
Synapomorphies	Synapomorphies (shared characteristics) are indicated.
Hybridization	Includes lateral transfers of genetic material, i.e. it represents a phylogenetic network in which hybridization or similar events are believed to have been involved, rather than a tree that only depicts branching sequence.
<b>Presentation and Explanation</b>	
Exhibit component	Static flat graphic panel, graphic backdrop for specimens/models, 3D representation, media component (e.g. video or game in kiosk/online), or a supplemental document.
Instructional information/interpretation	Provides an explanation of what the tree shows (e.g. refers to relationships between taxa, describes changes or trends over time), instructs how to interpret evolutionary diagrams (e.g. describes trees as branching diagrams that show relatedness).
Nature of Science	Labels or legends include information about the data used to build the tree, refers trees as hypotheses or product of scientific reasoning.

Table 2. Phylogenetic tree geometry (descriptions modified from tree software sites, e.g. Phylodendron, Drawgram, etc.).

Table 1.

Example	Description	Names used & sources
	Nodes connected to other nodes and to tips by straight lines directly from one to the other. This category includes diagrams with slightly wavy lines or curved lines, but have an overall pectinate layout.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Angled (e.g. PhyloDraw, TreeView)</li> <li>• Slanted (e.g. PhyloDraw, TreeView)</li> <li>• Cladogram (e.g. Drawgram, Phylodendron)</li> <li>• Diagonal (e.g. Mesquite)</li> <li>• Ladder (Catley &amp; Novick 2008)</li> </ul>
	Nodes connected to other nodes and other tips by a horizontal and then vertical line. This category includes diagrams with slightly curved corners and/or wavy branches.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rectangular (e.g. PhyloDraw, TreeView)</li> <li>• Square (e.g. Drawgram, Mesquite)</li> <li>• Phenogram (e.g. Drawgram, Phylodendron)</li> <li>• Tree (Catley &amp; Novick 2008)</li> </ul>
	Nodes connected by curves that are 1/4 of an ellipse; curvogram starts horizontally then curves up to become vertical; first 1/3 of swoopogram starts out horizontal then vertical then follows curvogram.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Curvogram/Swoopogram (e.g. Drawgram, Phylodendron)</li> <li>• Angular curvograms/Curved curvograms (e.g. TreeDom)</li> </ul>
	Nodes connected outwards from a central point, with tips forming a circle. Radial lines run outward from the center with the arc segments centered on them.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Circular (e.g. Phylodraw, TreeView, PAUP)</li> </ul>
	Nodes connected outwards from a central point without horizontal lines.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Radial (e.g. Phylodraw, TreeView)</li> </ul>
	Nodes connected to other nodes and to tips by a diagonal line that goes outwards to at most 1/3 of the way up to the next node, then turns sharply straight upwards and is vertical.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Eurogram (e.g. Drawgram, Phylodendron)</li> </ul>