- Running head: CRANIAL MORPHOLOGICAL DISPARITY IN
- ₂ TENRECS
- Quantifying cranial morphological disparity in tenrecs (Afrosoricida,
- Tenrecidae) with implications for their
- designation as an adaptive radiation
 - Sive Finlay^{1,2,*} and Natalie Cooper^{1,2}

 $_{\rm 8}$ $^{-1}$ School of Natural Sciences, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin 2, Ireland.

⁹ Trinity Centre for Biodiversity Research, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin 2, Ireland.

^{*}Corresponding author: sfinlay@tcd.ie; Zoology Building, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin

^{11 2,} Ireland.

Fax: +353 1 6778094; Tel: +353 1 896 2571.

Keywords: disparity, morphology, geometric morphometrics, tenrecs,

¹⁴ golden moles, adaptive radiation

Abstract

Understanding why some clades are more phenotypically diverse than others remains a central challenge in evolutionary biology. This issue is 17 particularly relevant when we consider whether a group represents an adaptive radiation. However, we must be able to identify exceptionally diverse clades before we can determine the selective pressures which led to the evolution of their variety. Tenrecs (Afrosoricida, Tenrecidae) are a 21 family of small mammals and are often cited as an example of a phenotypically diverse, adaptively radiated group. However, this 23 assumption has not been tested. Here we use geometric morphometric 24 analyses of cranial and mandible shape to test whether tenrecs show 25 exceptional morphological disparity. We find that tenrecs are no more morphologically diverse than their sister taxa, the golden moles (Afrosoricida, Chrysochloridae), casting doubt over whether tenrecs should be considered to be an exceptionally diverse group.

Introduction

```
Phenotypically diverse groups have long attracted the attention of
   evolutionary biologists, particularly when it comes to the study of
   adaptive radiations - 'evolutionary divergence of members of a single
   phylogenetic lineage into a variety of different adaptive forms' (Futuyma
   1998, cited by Losos, 2010).
      There are many famous examples of adaptive radiations including
36
   Darwin's finches, Caribbean Anolis lizards and cichlid fish (Gavrilets &
   Losos, 2009). However, there has been considerable debate about how
   adaptive radiations should be defined (Glor, 2010; Losos & Mahler, 2010)
   based on the relative importance of speciation rates, species richness and
40
   morphological diversity. One particular issue is whether it is even
   meaningful to distinguish a specific group of species as an adaptive
   radiation or not based on arbitrary statistical thresholds of variety (Olson
   & Arroyo-Santos, 2009).
      Despite the controversies and disagreements, there does seem to be a
45
   consensus that high morphological diversity is an important criterion for
   identifying adaptive radiations (Losos & Mahler, 2010; Olson &
   Arroyo-Santos, 2009). One way to test whether a group shows high
48
   morphological diversity is through sister taxa comparisons. For example,
   Losos and Miles (2002) used this approach to demonstrate exceptional
   diversity in some but not all clades of iguanid lizards. Here we use
   sister-taxa comparisons to test whether tenrecs (Afrosoricida, Tenrecidae)
52
```

The tenrec family contains 34 species, 31 of which are endemic to

adaptively radiated clade.

exhibit the high levels of phenotypic diversity that are expected of an

Madagascar (Olson, 2013). Tenrecs are often cited as an example of an adaptively radiated family which exhibits exceptional morphological diversity (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011; Olson & Goodman, 2003). For example, there are tenrecs which convergently resemble shrews (*Microgale* tenrecs), moles (*Oryzorictes* tenrecs) and hedgehogs (*Echinops* and *Setifer* tenrecs) (Eisenberg & Gould, 1969) even though they are not closely related to these species (Stanhope et al., 1998).

However, evidence for claim that tenrecs are exceptionally diverse has not been tested. Here we present the first quantitative investigation of morphological diversity in tenrecs, and how this compares to their closest relatives, the golden moles (Afrosoricida, Chryscholoridae). We apply two dimensional geometric morphometric techniques (Rohlf & Marcus, 1993; Adams et al., 2013) to create morphospace plots that depict cranial and mandible morphological variation in the two Families. We use these morphospaces to compare the relative morphological disparity (Foote, 1997; Wills et al., 1994; Erwin, 2007) within each Family.

Our results show an overall trend for higher morphological diversity in tenrec crania compared to those of golden moles. However, these differences are not statistically significant. These findings indicate that, with regards to cranial shape, tenrecs are no more morphologically diverse than their closest relatives.

In contrast, we found significantly greater morphological disparity in golden mole mandibles compared to tenrecs. These findings cast doubt over whether the apparent phenotypic diversity within tenrecs should be considered to be truly exceptional.

81 Materials and Methods

82 Morphological data collection

```
One of us (SF) photographed cranial specimens of tenrecs and golden
83
   moles at the Natural History Museum London (BMNH), the Smithsonian
   Institute Natural History Museum (SI), the American Museum of Natural
85
   History (AMNH), Harvard's Museum of Comparative Zoology (MCZ)
   and the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago (FMNH). We
   photographed the specimens with a Canon EOS 650D camera fitted with
   an EF 100mm f/2.8 Macro USM lens using a standardised procedure to
   minimise potential error (see supplementary material for details).
      We collected pictures of the skulls in dorsal, ventral and lateral views
   (right side of the skull) and of the outer (buccal) side of the right
   mandibles. A full list of museum accession numbers and details on how
93
   to access the images can be found in the supplementary material.
      In total we collected pictures from 182 skulls in dorsal view (148
   tenrecs and 34 golden moles), 173 skulls in ventral view (141 tenrecs and
   32 golden moles), 171 skulls in lateral view (140 tenrecs and 31 golden
   moles) and 182 mandibles in lateral view (147 tenrecs and 35 golden
   moles), representing 31 species of tenrec (out of the total 34 in the family)
   and 12 species of golden moles (out of a total of 21 in the family (Asher
100
   et al., 2010)). We used the taxonomy of Wilson and Reeder (2005)
   supplemented with more recent sources (IUCN, 2012; Olson, 2013) to
102
   identify our specimens.
      We used a combination of both landmarks (type 2 and type 3,
104
```

(Zelditch et al., 2012)) and semilandmarks to characterise the shapes of

our specimens. Figure 1 shows our landmarks (points) and semilandmarks (outline curves) for the skulls in dorsal and ventral views and figure 2 shows the points and curves we used for lateral views of skulls and mandibles. Corresponding definitions of each of the landmarks can be found in the supplementary material.

We digitised all landmarks and semilandmarks in tpsDIG, version 2.17 111 (Rohlf, 2013). We re-sampled the outlines to the minimum number of evenly spaced semilandmark points required to represent each outline 113 accurately (MacLeod, 2013, details in supplementary material). We used TPSUtil (Rohlf, 2012) to create sliders files (Zelditch et al., 2012) to define 115 which points were semilandmarks. We conducted all subsequent analyses in R version 3.0.2 (R Core Team, 2014) within the geomorph package 117 (Adams et al., 2013). We used the gpagen function to run a general Procrustes alignment (Rohlf & Marcus, 1993) of the landmark coordinates 119 while sliding the semilandmarks by minimising Procrustes distance (Bookstein, 1997). We used these Procrustes-aligned coordinates of all 121 species to calculate average shape values for each species (n = 43) which we then used for a principal components (PC) analysis with the 123 plotTangentSpace function (Adams et al., 2013).

Disparity calculations

We calculated morphological disparity separately for golden moles and tenrecs in each of the morphological datasets. We used the PC axes which accounted for 95% of the cumulative variation to calculate four disparity metrics; 1) the sum of the range, 2) the product of the range, 3) the sum of the variance and 4) the product of the variance of morphospace occupied

by each Family (Brusatte et al., 2008; Foth et al., 2012; Ruta et al., 2013).

We used two approaches to test whether tenrecs have significantly different morphologies compared to golden moles. First we compared morphospace occupation between the two groups with non parametric MANOVAs (Anderson, 2001) to test whether tenrecs and golden moles occupy significantly different areas of morphospace (e.g Serb et al., 2011; Ruta et al., 2013).

Secondly, we used pairwise permutation tests to test the null 138 hypothesis that tenrecs and golden moles have equal disparity. If this 139 hypothesis was true then the designation of each species as belonging to 140 either tenrecs or golden moles should be arbitrary. Therefore we permuted the data by assigning Family identities at random to each 142 specimen and calculated the differences in disparity for each of the new 143 Family groupings. We repeated these permutations 1000 times to generate 144 a null distribution of the expected differences in Family disparity. We compared our observed (true) measures of the differences in disparity 146 between tenrecs and golden moles to these permuted distributions to test 147 whether the families had significantly different levels of disparity. 148

The majority of tenrec species (19 out of 31 in our dataset) are
members of the *Microgale* (shrew-like) Genus which is notable for its
relatively low phenotypic diversity (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011;

Jenkins, 2003). The strong similarities among these species may mask
signals of higher disparity among other tenrecs. Therefore we repeated
our Family-level comparisons of disparity excluding the *Microgale* species
so that we could compare disparity within the remaining 12 tenrec species
to disparity within the 12 species of golden moles.

Results

Morphological disparity in tenrecs and golden moles

Figure 3 depicts the morphospace plots derived from our principal 159 components analyses of average Procrustes-superimposed shape 160 coordinates for each species in our skull and mandible data respectively. 161 We used the principal components axes which accounted for 95% of the 162 cumulative variation (number of axes: n = 7 (dorsal), n = 8 (ventral), n = 8163 (lateral) and n = 12 (mandibles)) to calculate the disparity of each Family. Tenrecs and golden moles clearly have very different cranial and 165 mandible morphologies: in each analysis, the families occupy significantly 166 different areas of morphospace (npMANOVA, table 3). Our comparisons of disparity within each Family yielded different trends for skulls 168 compared to mandibles. In our analyses of the three different views of the 169 skulls, there is an overall trend for tenrecs to have higher disparity than 170 golden moles. However, none of these differences are statistically 171 significant (table 1). 172 There is a less clear pattern from our analysis of disparity in 173 mandibles. Three of our four metrics indicate that golden moles have 174 significantly higher disparity in the shape of their mandibles than tenrecs (table 1) although one metric (sum of ranges) indicated the opposite result. 176 The three curves at the back of the mandibles (figure 2) place a 177

The three curves at the back of the mandibles (figure 2) place a
particular emphasis on shape variation in the posterior of the bone; the
ramus, coronoid, condylar and angular processes. Therefore, higher
disparity in golden mole mandibles compared to tenrecs could be driven
by greater morphological variation in these structures. To test this idea,

we repeated our morphometric analyses of the mandibles with a reduced dataset of points; just the seven landmark points and one single curve at the base of the jaw between landmarks 1 and 7 (figure 2). When we compared disparity with this reduced data set we found that golden moles no longer had significantly higher disparity than tenrecs (table 1).

Morphological disparity in non-Microgale tenrecs and golden moles

We repeated our disparity comparisons with a subset of the tenrec specimens to remove the large and phenotypically similar *Microgale* tenrec Genus. In this case we found that tenrecs have significantly higher disparity than golden moles when the skulls are analysed in lateral view (table 2). However, none of the other comparisons in any of the analyses were significant.

195 Discussion

Our analyses are the first quantitative investigation of morphological disparity in tenrecs. Our results suggest that phenotypic variation in tenrecs is not as exceptional as it first appears.

When we compared tenrec cranial morphologies to their closest relatives we found a trend towards higher disparity in tenrecs compared to golden moles but none of these differences were significant. Even when we removed the phenotypically similar *Microgale* Genus, tenrecs were still no more diverse than golden moles in most of the analyses (table 2). In contrast, our mandible analyses showed that golden moles have more

disparate mandibles than tenrecs seemingly due to greater diversity within their posterior-mandible shapes.

It is evident that tenrecs are a diverse group, both phenotypically and 207 ecologically. Body sizes of extant tenrecs span three orders of magnitude (2.5 to > 2,000g) which is a greater range than all other Families, and most Orders, of living mammals (Olson & Goodman, 2003). Within this vast 210 size range there is striking phenotypic diversity from the spiny *Echinops*, Setifer and Hemicentetes to the mole-like Oryzorictes and shrew-like 212 Microgale. These diverse forms inhabit a wide variety of ecological niches and habitats including terrestrial, arboreal, semi-aquatic and 214 semi-fossorial environments (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011). In contrast, although golden moles occupy a wide altitudinal, climatic and 216 vegetational spectrum of habitats (Bronner, 1995), they are are all fossorial species which, superficially at least, appear to be less phenotypically 218 diverse than tenrecs.

There is a danger when using sister taxa comparisons that a clade's diversity will be judged to be exceptional just because it is more variable than an exceptionally non-diverse sister taxon (Losos & Miles, 2002).

However, we compared an apparently phenotypically diverse clade to a more uniform sister clade yet our results do not indicate that tenrecs are more morphologically diverse than their closest relatives (table 1). These unexpected findings highlight the importance of testing our assumptions about patterns of morphological variety.

One apparent anomaly in our results is that we found opposite
patterns for disparity among tenrecs and golden moles in the analyses of
skulls and mandibles. Our landmarks and curves for the mandibles

(figure 2) include aspects of variation in the dentition but they focus particular attention on the ascending ramus (condyloid, condylar and 232 angular processes). Therefore higher disparity in golden moles could 233 reflect greater morphological variability in these posterior mandible 234 structures. To test this idea we deleted the three semi-landmark curves 235 around these structures and repeated our disparity analyses of mandibles 236 using seven landmarks and just one curve at the base of the jaw. In this 237 case we retrieved the opposite pattern: tenrecs had higher morphological 238 disparity than golden moles but not significantly (see supplementary 239 material). Therefore, our results indicate that golden moles have greater morphological variation in the posterior structures of their mandibles 241 compared to tenrecs.

It proved impossible to position reliable landmarks on the
corresponding mandibular articulation areas of the skull in lateral view
(see supplementary). Therefore we could not test whether higher
morphological disparity in the rami were correlated with associated
morphological variety in the articulation areas of the skull.

We focused on variation in cranial morphology which is commonly 248 used to study phenotypic variation within species (Blagojević & Milošević-Zlatanović, 2011; Bornholdt et al., 2008), to delineate species 250 boundaries within a clade (e.g. Panchetti et al., 2008) or for 251 cross-taxonomic comparative studies of phenotypic (dis)similarities (e.g. 252 Ruta et al., 2013; Goswami et al., 2011; Wroe & Milne, 2007). However, studies of morphological disparity are inevitably constrained to measure 254 diversity within specific traits rather than overall phenotypes (Roy & Foote, 1997). Disparity calculations based on skull shape can yield similar 256 results compared to analyses of whole-skeleton discrete characters and

limb proportion data sets (Foth et al., 2012). However, we would need to
extend our analyses to other morphological proxies of phenotype to test
whether the cranial morphological disparity patterns presented here are
indicative of overall differences in phenotypic diversity in tenrecs and
golden moles

Evidence of exceptional morphological diversity is one criterion for
designating a clade as an adaptive radiation (Losos & Mahler, 2010) and
our analyses are the first measures of morphological diversity within
tenrecs, a group which is commonly cited as an example of an adaptive
radiation (Olson, 2013). However, describing phenotypic divergence as the
product of an adaptive radiation requires exceptional morphological
diversity in traits which have specific and proven adaptive significance
(Losos & Mahler, 2010).

The evolution of cranial shape (both upper skull and mandible),
particularly dental morphology, has obvious correlations with dietary
specialisations and occupation of specific ecological niches (e.g. Wroe &
Milne, 2007). Considering the wide ecological diversity of our study
species; semi-fossorial, arboreal, terrestrial and semi-aquatic (Soarimalala
& Goodman, 2011), we think that it is reasonable to expect that this
variety should be reflected in skull morphology.

However, we have not included any measures of the 'adaptiveness' of cranial shape in our analyses and therefore our analyses should not be considered to be an explicit test of whether or not tenrecs are an adaptive radiation (Losos & Mahler, 2010). Instead we have made the first step towards understanding the apparent phenotypic diversity within tenrecs within a quantitative framework. Future work should focus on explicit

measures of the 'adaptiveness' and functional importance of tenrec cranial and post-cranial morphologies to understand the significance of morphological diversity within the Family (e.g. Mahler et al., 2010).

We have presented the first quantitative study which tests the common claim that tenrecs are an exceptionally diverse group (Olson, 2013;

Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011; Eisenberg & Gould, 1969). Focusing on cranial diversity is only one aspect of morphological variation and further analyses are required to test whether other morphological traits yield similar patterns. However, our current results provide a clear indication that phenotypic variety within tenrecs is perhaps not as exceptional as it first seems.

Acknowledgements

We thank François Gould, Dean Adams, David Polly, Gary Bronner, Steve
Brusatte, Steve Wang, Luke Harmon, Thomas Guillerme and the members
of NERD club for insightful discussions and the museum staff and
curators for their support and access to collections. Funding was provided
by an Irish Research Council EMBARK Initiative Postgraduate Scholarship
(SF) and the European Commission CORDIS Seventh Framework
Programme (FP7) Marie Curie CIG grant. Proposal number: 321696 (NC)

References

Adams, D., Otárola-Castillo, E. & Paradis, E. 2013. geomorph: an r
package for the collection and analysis of geometric morphometric

- shape data. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **4**: 393–399.
- ³⁰⁷ Anderson, M. 2001. A new method for non-parametric multivariate
- analysis of variance. *Austral Ecology* **26**: 32–46.
- Asher, R. & Hofreiter, M. 2006. Tenrec phylogeny and the noninvasive
- extraction of nuclear DNA. Systematic Biology 55: 181–194.
- Asher, R.J., Maree, S., Bronner, G., Bennett, N., Bloomer, P., Czechowski,
- P., Meyer, M. & Hofreiter, M. 2010. A phylogenetic estimate for golden
- moles (Mammalia, Afrotheria, Chrysochloridae). BMC Evolutionary
- 314 Biology **10**: 1–13.
- Blagojević, M. & Milošević-Zlatanović, S. 2011. Sexual shape dimorphism
- in Serbian roe deer (Capreolus capreolus L.). Mammalian Biology -
- Zeitschrift für Säugetierkunde **76**: 735–740.
- Bookstein, F. 1997. Landmark methods for forms without landmarks:
- morphometrics of group differences in outline shape. *Medical image*
- 320 analysis 1: 225–243.
- Bornholdt, R., Oliveira, L.R. & Fabián, M.E. 2008. Size and shape
- variability in the skull of *Myotis nigricans* (schinz, 1821) (chiroptera:
- Vespertilionidae) from two geographic areas in brazil. Brazilian Journal
- of Biology **68**: 623–631.
- ₃₂₅ Bronner, G. 1995. Systematic revision of the golden mole genera Amblysomus,
- 326 Chlorotalpa and Calcochloris (Insectivora: Chrysochloromorpha;
- *Chrysochloridae*). Ph.D. thesis.
- Brusatte, S., Benton, M., Ruta, M. & Lloyd, G. 2008. Superiority,

- competition and opportunism in the evolutionary radiation of dinosaurs. *Science* **321**: 1485–1488.
- Collar, D., Schulte, J. & Losos, J. 2011. Evolution of extreme body size disparity in monitor lizards (*Varanus*). *Evolution* **65**: 2664–2680.
- Eisenberg, J.F. & Gould, E. 1969. The Tenrecs: A Study in Mammalian

 Behaviour and Evolution. *Smithsonian Contributions to Zoology* **27**: 1–152.
- Erwin, D. 2007. Disparity: morphological pattern and developmental context. *Palaeontology* **50**: 57–73.
- Foote, M. 1997. The evolution of morphological diversity. *Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics* **28**: 129–152.
- Foth, C., Brusatte, S. & Butler, R. 2012. Do different disparity proxies

 converge on a common signal? Insights from the cranial morphometrics

 and evolutionary history of *Pterosauria* (Diapsida: Archosauria). *Journal*of Evolutionary Biology 25: 904–915.
- Gavrilets, S. & Losos, J. 2009. Adaptive radiation: contrasting theory with data. *Science* **323**: 732–736.
- Glor, R. 2010. Phylogenetic insights on adaptive radiation. *Annual Review*of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics **41**: 251–270.
- Goswami, A., Milne, N. & Wroe, S. 2011. Biting through constraints:

 cranial morphology, disparity and convergence across living and fossil

 carnivorous mammals. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological*
- 350 Sciences **278**: 1831–1839.
- IUCN 2012. International Union for Conservation of Nature.

- Jenkins, P. 2003. *Microgale, shrew tenrecs*, pp. 1273–1278. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Losos, J. 2010. Adaptive radiation, ecological opportunity, and
- evolutionary determinism. American Society of Naturalists E. O. Wilson
- ³⁵⁶ Award Address. *The American Naturalist* **175**: 623–639. 10.1086/652433.
- Losos, J. & Miles, D. 2002. Testing the hypothesis that a clade has
- adaptively radiated: Iguanid lizards as a case study. *The American*
- 359 Naturalist **160**: 147–157.
- Losos, J.B. & Mahler, D. 2010. Adaptive radiation: the interaction of ecological
- opportunity, adaptation and speciation, chap. 15, pp. 381–420. Sinauer
- Association, Sunderland, MA.
- MacLeod, N. 2013. Landmarks and semilandmarks: Difference without
- meaning and meaning without difference.
- Mahler, D.L., Revell, L.J., Glor, R.E. & Losos, J.B. 2010. Ecological
- opportunity and the rate of morphological evolution in the
- diversification of greater antillean anoles. *Evolution* **64**: 2731–2745.
- Olson, L. & Goodman, S. 2003. *Phylogeny and biogeography of tenrecs*, pp.
- 1235–1242. The University of Chicago Press, Chicago.
- Olson, L.E. 2013. Tenrecs. Current Biology 23: R5–R8.
- Olson, M.E. & Arroyo-Santos, A. 2009. Thinking in continua: beyond the
- adaptive radiation metaphor. *BioEssays* **31**: 1337–1346.
- O'Meara, B., Ané, C., Sanderson, M. & Wainwright, P. 2006. Testing for
- different rates of continuous trait evolution using likelihood. *Evolution*
- ³⁷⁵ **60**: 922–933.

- Panchetti, F., Scalici, M., Carpaneto, G. & Gibertini, G. 2008. Shape and
- size variations in the cranium of elephant-shrews: a morphometric
- contribution to a phylogenetic debate. *Zoomorphology* **127**: 69–82.
- Price, S., Tavera, J., Near, T. & Wainwright, P. 2013. Elevated rates of
- morphological and functional diversification in reef-dwelling haemulid
- ₃₈₁ fishes. *Evolution* **67**: 417–428.
- ³⁸² R Core Team 2014. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing.
- ³⁸³ R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL
- http://www.R-project.org/.
- Rohlf, F. 2012. Tpsutil.
- ³⁸⁶ Rohlf, F. 2013. Tpsdig2 ver 2.17.
- ³⁸⁷ Rohlf, J. & Marcus, L. 1993. A revolution in morphometrics. *Trends in*
- ³⁸⁸ *Ecology & Evolution* **8**: 129–132.
- Roy, K. & Foote, M. 1997. Morphological approaches to measuring
- biodiversity. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **12**: 277–281.
- Ruta, M., Angielczyk, K., Fröbisch, J. & Benton, M. 2013. Decoupling of
- morphological disparity and taxic diversity during the adaptive
- radiation of anomodont therapsids. *Proceedings of the Royal Society B:*
- ³⁹⁴ *Biological Sciences* **280**: 20131071.
- Serb, J., Alejandrino, A., Otárola-Castillo, E. & Adams, D. 2011.
- Morphological convergence of shell shape in distantly related scallop
- species (mollusca: Pectinidae). Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society
- ₃₉₈ **163**: 571–584.

- 399 Soarimalala, V. & Goodman, S. 2011. Les petits mammiferes de Madagascar.
- Guides sur la diversité biologique de Madagascar. Association Vahatra,
- ⁴⁰¹ Antananarivo, Madagascar.
- Stanhope, M., Waddell, V., Madsen, O., de Jong, W., Hedges, S., Cleven,
- G., Kao, D. & Springer, M. 1998. Molecular evidence for multiple
- origins of insectivora and for a new order of endemic african insectivore
- mammals. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **95**: 9967–9972.
- Wills, A., Briggs, D. & Fortey, R. 1994. Disparity as an evolutionary index:
- ⁴⁰⁷ A comparison of Cambrian and recent arthropods. *Paleontological Society*
- 408 **20**: 93-130.
- Wilson, D. & Reeder, D. 2005. Mammal species of the world. A taxonomic and
- geographic reference (3rd ed). Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Wroe, S. & Milne, N. 2007. Convergence and remarkably consistent
- constraint in the evolution of carnivore skull shape. *Evolution* **61**:
- ₄₁₃ 1251–1260.
- ⁴¹⁴ Zelditch, M., Swiderski, D. & Sheets, D. 2012. *Geometric Morphometrics for*
- Biologists, second edition. Academic Press, Elsevier, United States of
- 416 America.

List of Figures

418	1	Diagram of the landmarks and curves for the skulls in dorsal	
419		and ventral views	20
420	2	Diagrams of the landmarks and curves used for lateral views	
421		of skulls and mandibles	21
422	3	Principal components plots of the morphospaces occupied	
423		by tenrecs and golden moles	22

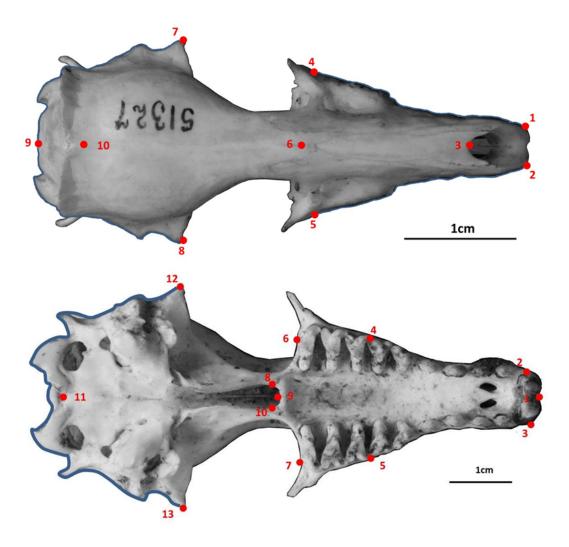


Figure 1: Landmarks (red points) and curves (blue lines) used to capture the morphological shape of skulls in dorsal and ventral views respectively. Curves were re-sampled to the same number of evenly-spaced points. See Supplementary Material for descriptions of the curves and landmarks. The specimens belong to two different *Potamogale velox* (Tenrecidae) skulls: accession number AMNH 51327 (dorsal) and NHML 1934.6.16.2 (ventral)

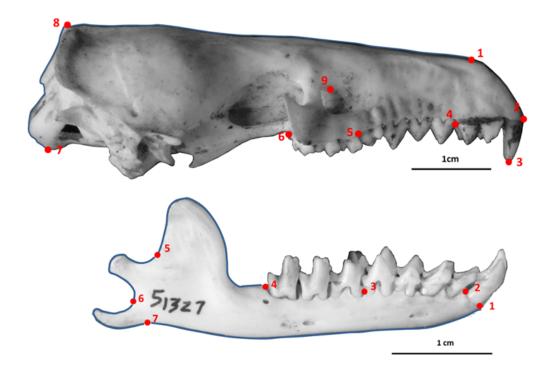


Figure 2: Landmarks (red points) and curves (blue lines) used to capture the morphological shape of lateral views of skulls and mandibles respectively. Curves were re-sampled to the same number of evenly-spaced points. See Supplementary Material for descriptions of the curves and landmarks. The specimens belong to two different *Potamogale velox* (Tenrecidae) skulls: accession number AMNH 51327 (dorsal) and NHML 1934.6.16.2 (ventral)

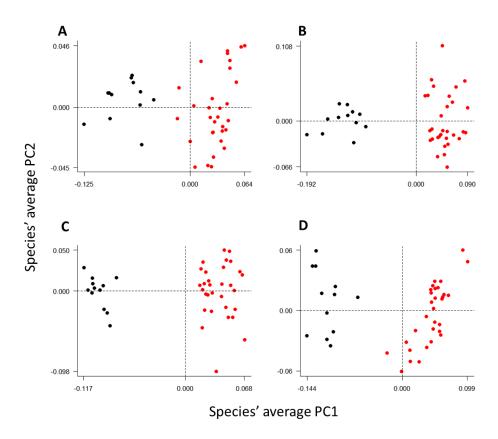


Figure 3: Principal components plots of the morphospaces occupied by tenrecs (red, n = 31 species) and golden moles (black, n = 12) for the skulls: dorsal (A), ventral (B), lateral (C) and mandibles (D) analyses. Axes are PC1 and PC2 of the average scores from a PCA analysis of mean Procrustes shape coordinates for each species.

List of Tables

425	1	Summary of disparity comparisons between tenrecs and golden	
426		moles	24
427 428	2	Summary of disparity comparisons between non- <i>Microgale</i> tenrecs and golden moles	25
429 430	3	Summary of npMANOVA comparisons of morphospace occupation for tenrecs and golden moles	26

Table 1: Disparity comparisons between tenrecs (T) and golden moles (G) for each of our data sets(rows) and four disparity metrics (columns). 'Mandibles:one curve' refers to our shape analysis of mandibles excluding the three curves around the posterior structures of the jaw (figure 2). Significant differences are highlighted in bold with the corresponding p value in brackets. Disparity metrics are: sum of variance, product of variance, sum of ranges and product of ranges

Disparity metric	SumVar	ProdVar	SumRange	ProdRange
Skulls dorsal	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G
Skulls lateral	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G
Skulls ventral	T>G	G>T	T>G	T>G
Mandibles	G>T	G > T* (0.008)	T>G* (0.025)	T>G* (0.009)
Mandibles	G>T	G>T	T>G	T>G

Table 2: Disparity comparisons between non-*Microgale* tenrecs (T) and golden moles (G) for each of our data sets(rows) and four disparity metrics (columns). Significant differences are highlighted in bold with the corresponding p value in brackets. Disparity metrics are; sum of variance, product of variance, sum of ranges and product of ranges.

Disparity metric	SumVar	ProdVar	SumRange	ProdRange
Skulls dorsal	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G
Skulls lateral	T>G* (0.014)	T>G	$T>G^*$ (0.001)	T>G*(0.003)
Skulls ventral	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G
Mandibles	T>G	G>T	T>G	G>T

Table 3: npMANOVA comparisons of morphospace occupation for tenrecs and golden moles in each of the four analyses (three views of skulls and mandibles). In each case the two families occupy significantly different areas of morphospace.

Analysis	F	\mathbf{R}^2	p value
Skulls dorsal	66.02	0.62	0.001
Skulls ventral	100.74	0.71	0.001
Skulls lateral	75.07	0.65	0.001
Mandibles	59.34	0.59	0.001