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- Quantifying cranial morphological
- disparity in tenrecs (Afrosoricida,
- Tenrecidae) with implications for their
- designation as an adaptive radiation
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13 Abstract

Introduction

- Phenotypically diverse groups have long attracted the attentions of evolutionary biologists (REFS). Studies which quantify phenotypic variety have important implications for understanding the factors that contribute to high morphological diversity in some groups and not others (REFS). For example...
- These issues are particularly relevant 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
 adaptively radiated groups (Gavrilets & Losos, 2009). However, there has
 also been considerable debate about how adaptive radiations should be
 defined (Glor, 2010; Losos & Mahler, 2010) based on the relative
 importance of speciation rate, species richness and morphological
 diversity. One particular issue is whether it is even meaningful to classify
 a particular group of species as an adaptive radiation or not since any
 classification relies on arbitrary distinctions between what is most likely a
 continua of characteristics which describe the diversity of a particular
 clade (Olson & ArroyoSantos, 2009).
- However, despite the controversies and disagreements, there does seem to be a consensus that high morphological diversity is an important criteria for identifying a group of species as belonging to the adaptive radiation scale (Losos & Mahler, 2010; Olson & ArroyoSantos, 2009). One way to test whether a group shows high 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 test whether tenrecs (Afrosoricida,
- Tenrecidae) exhibit the high levels of phenotypic diversity which is the
- expected characteristic of an adaptively radiated clade.
- The tenrec family is comprised of 34 species, 31 of which are endemic
- to Madagascar (Olson, 2013). From a single common ancestor (Asher &
- Hofreiter, 2006), Malagasy tenrecs diversified into a wide variety of
- descendant species which convergently resemble distantly related
- insectivore mammals such as shrews (Microgale tenrecs), moles
- (Oryzorictes tenrecs) and hedgehogs (Echinops and Setifer tenrecs)
- (Eisenberg & Gould, 1969). These convergent resemblances are so great
- that tenrecs used to be considered part of the general "insectivore" clade
- ₅₁ and only molecular studies revealed their true phylogenetic affinites
- within the Afrotherian mammals (Stanhope et al., 1998).
- Tenrecs are often cited as an example of an adaptively radiated family
- which exhibits exceptional morphological diversity (Soarimalala &
- Goodman, 2011; Olson & Goodman, 2003; Eisenberg & Gould, 1969).
- 56 However, this apparent exceptional diversity is based on subjective
- comparisons to other groups and it has not been tested. Here we present
- 58 the first quantitative test of patterns of phenotypic diversity in tenrecs and
- ₅₉ examine how morphological diversity in tenrecs compares to their closest
- 60 relatives, the golden moles (Afrosoricida, Chryscholoridae).
- We use disparity, the diversity of organic form (Foote, 1997; Wills et al.,
- 62 1994; Erwin, 2007), to measure phenotypic variety within the two families.
- 63 There is no single definition of disparity and it can be calculated in many
- ways including measures of morphospace occupation (e.g. Goswami et al.,
- ₆₅ 2011; Brusatte et al., 2008) and rate-based approaches that assess the

- amount of directed change away from an ancestor (O'Meara et al., 2006;
- ⁶⁷ Price et al., 2013). Here we focus on patterns of phenotypic variety in
- 68 extant species rather than analysing the rate of diversity accumulation
- 69 through time. Using the most complete morphological data set of tenrecs
- ₇₀ and golden moles to date we apply two dimensional geometric
- morphometrics (Rohlf & Marcus, 1993; Adams et al., 2013) to quantify
- variation in cranial and mandible morphologies as proxies for phenotypic
- ₇₃ diversity in the two families.
- Our results indicate an overall trend of higher morphological diversity
- in tenrec compared to golden mole crania. However, most of these
- differences are not statistically significant, indicating that, with regards to
- cranial shape, tenrecs are not as phenotypically diverse as is often
- assumed. In contrast, we found significantly greater morphological
- disparity in golden mole mandibles compared to the diversity within
- 80 tenrecs. These findings cast doubt over whether the apparent phenotypic
- 81 diversity within tenrecs should be considered to be truly exceptional.

Materials and Methods

83 Morphological data collection

- 84 One of us (SF) photographed cranial specimens of tenrecs and golden
- 85 moles at the Natural History Museum London (NHML), the Smithsonian
- 86 Institute Natural History Museum (SI), the American Museum of Natural
- 87 History (AMNH), Harvard's Museum of Comparative Zoology (MCZ)
- 88 and the Field Museum of Natural History, Chicago (FMNH). We
- 89 photographed the specimens with a Canon EOS 650D camera fitted with

⁹⁰ 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 for how 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
et al., 2010)). We used the taxonomy of Wilson and Reeder (2005)
supplemented with more recent sources (IUCN, 2012; Olson, 2013) to
identify our specimens.

We used a combination of both landmarks (type 2 and type 3,

(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 the 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 (Rohlf, 2013). We re-sampled the outlines to the minimum number of evenly spaced semilandmark points required to represent each outline accurately (MacLeod, 2013, details in supplementary material). We used

TPSUtil (Rohlf, 2012) to create sliders files (Zelditch et al., 2012) to define
which points were semilandmarks. We conducted all subsequent analyses
in R version 3.0.2 (R Core Team, 2014) within the geomorph package
(Adams et al., 2013). We used the gpagen function to run a general
Procrustes alignment (Rohlf & Marcus, 1993) of the landmark coordinates
while sliding the semilandmarks by minimising procrustes distance
(Bookstein, 1997). We used these Procrustes-aligned coordinates of all
species to calculate average shape values for each species (n=43) which we
then used for a principal components (PC) analysis with the
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; the sum and product of the range and variance of morphospace occupied by each family (Brusatte et al., 2008; Foth et al., 2012; Ruta et al., 2013). We also calculated morphological disparity directly from the Procrustes-superimposed shape data based on the sum of the squared inter-landmark distances among species pairs (SSqDist, Zelditch et al., 2012).

We used two approaches to test whether tenrecs have significantly
different morphologies compared to golden moles. The first was a
comparison of 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 142 hypothesis that tenrecs and golden moles have equal disparity. If this hypothesis were true then the designation of each species as belonging to 144 either tenrecs or golden moles should be arbitrary because each group would have the same disparity. Therefore we permutated the data by 146 assigning family identities at random to each specimen and calculated the differences in disparity for each of the new family groupings. We repeated 148 these permutations 1000 times to generate a null distribution of the expected differences in family disparity. We compared our observed (true) 150 measures of the differences in disparity between tenrecs and golden moles 151 to these permutated distributions to test whether the families had 152 significantly different levels of disparity. 153

The majority of tenrec species (19 out of 31 in our data) 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 with a reduced data set that excluded the *Microgale* so that we could compare disparity within the remaining 12
tenrec species to disparity within the 12 species of golden moles.

Results

163 Morphological disparity in tenrecs and golden moles

Figures 3 depict the morphospace plots derived from our principal components analyses of average Procrustes-superimposed shape coordinates for each species in our skull and mandible data respectively. We used the principal components axes which accounted for 95% of the cumulative variation (n = 7, 8, 8 axes for the dorsal, ventral and lateral skull analyses respectively and n = 12 axes for the mandibles) to calculate the disparity of each family.

Tenrecs and golden moles clearly have very different cranial and mandible morphologies: in each analysis, the families occupy significantly different areas of morphospace (npMANOVA, table 3). Our comparisons of disparity levels within each family yielded different trends for the skulls compared to the mandible analyses.

In our analyses of the three different views of the skulls, when
disparity is calculated from principal component - based metrics there is
there is an overall trend for tenrecs to have higher disparity than golden
moles. However, none of these differences are statistically significant
(table 1). In contrast, when we calculated disparity based on the sum of
squared interlandmark differences between species pairs (Zelditch et al.,
2012) then golden moles had significantly higher levels of disparity than
tenrecs (table 1).

There is a less clear pattern from our analysis of disparity in the mandibles. Three of our five metrics indicate that golden moles have significantly higher disparity in the shape of their mandibles than tenrecs

(table 1) although one metric (sum of ranges) indicated the opposite result.

The three curves that we placed at the back of the mandibles (figure 2) 188 place a particular emphasis on shape variation in the posterior of the bone; the ramus, coronoid, condylar and angular processes. Therefore, 190 higher disparity in golden mole mandibles compared to tenrecs could be driven by greater morphological variation in these structures. To test this 192 idea, we repeated our morphometric analyses of the mandibles with a 193 reduced data set of points; just the seven landmark points and one single 194 curve at the base of the jaw between landmarks 1 and 7 (figure 2). When we compared familial disparity levels with this reduced data set we found 196 that golden moles no longer had significantly higher disparity than tenrecs but rather there were some indications that the opposite was true (table 1). 198

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. Similarly, the trend in the main analysis for golden moles to have significantly higher disparity measured as the sum of squared inter-landmark distances (table 1) was not repeated in this comparison of disparity in non-*Microgale* tenrecs and golden moles (table 2).

Discussion

Our findings provide new insights into phenotypic diversity within the
tenrec family. When we compared tenrecs' cranial morphologies to their
closest relatives we found a trend towards higher disparity in tenrecs than
in golden moles. However, these apparent differences were only
significant for some disparity metrics. In contrast, the analyses of the
mandibles indicated that golden moles have more diverse mandible
shapes than tenrecs.

It is evident that tenrecs are a diverse group, both phenotypically and 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 size range there is striking morphological diversity, from the spiny *Echinops, Setifer* and striking *Hemicentetes* to the shrew-like *Microgale*. Furthermore, tenrecs inhabit a variety of ecological niches and habitats including terrestrial, arboreal, semi-aquatic and semi-fossorial forms (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011).

Here we have presented the first quantitative investigation of
morphological disparity in tenrecs and our results suggest that perhaps
phenotypic variation in tenrecs is not as uniformly exceptional as it first
appears.

We found an overall pattern of higher disparity in tenrec skull shape
than golden moles but only the range and Procrustes distance-based
metrics are significant. This is probably because variance and range-based
measures describe different aspects of morphospace occupation.

Another apparent anomaly in our results is that we found opposite 235 patterns of group dissimilarities in the analyses of skulls and mandibles. 236 Our landmarks and curves for the mandibles (figure 2) include aspects of 237 variation in the dentition but they focus particular attention on the 238 ascending ramus (condyloid, condylar and angular processes). Therefore 239 higher disparity in golden moles could reflect greater morphological 240 variability in these posterior mandible structures. To test this idea we 241 deleted the semi-landmark curves around these structures (curves A, B, 242 and C, table x in supplementary material) and repeated our disparity 243 analyses on all of the specimens. In this case we retrieved the opposite pattern: tenrecs had higher morphological disparity than golden moles 245 (see supplementary material). Therefore, our results indicate that golden moles have greater morphological variation in the posterior structures of 247 their mandibles 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.

There are certain caveats to consider which could modify the
interpretation of our results. Phenoypic variation can evolve for reasons
other than adaptive radiation. Therefore, to describe phenotypic
divergence as the product of an adaptive radiations 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 (REFS) and occupation of specific

²⁶² ecological niches (REFS).

Considering the wide ecological diversity of our study species; the fossorial golden moles and semi-fossorial, arboreal, terrestrial and semi-aquatic tenrecs (REFS) it is reasonable to expect that this variety should be reflected in skull morphology. We assume that variation in cranial shape is an adaptive characterstic which allows the animals to survive in their divergent niches but we have not tested this assumption explicitly.

Cranial shape similarities are commonly used to delineate species
boundaries (REFS) or for cross-taxonomic comparative studies of
phenotypic (dis)similarities (REFS). However, disparity studies are
inevitably constrained to be measures of diversity within specific traits
rather than overall morphology (Roy & Foote, 1997). Therefore it is
possible that other morphological proxies of phenotype; analyses of linear
measurements and/or discrete characters of either cranial or post-cranial
morphologies could yield different results.

However, the results of (Foth et al., 2012) are encouraging. In an analysis of morphological disparity in pterosaurs, they found that disparity calculations based on geometric morphometric characterisation of skull shape yielded broadly similar results compared to analyses of whole-skeleton discrete characters and limb proportion data sets.

Therefore the disparity patterns we find here based on geometric morphometric analyses of cranial shape most likely represent approximations of disparity which are accurate for morphological diversity in the clades.

These results highlight the importance of applying quantitative

287

²⁸⁸ methods to testing our assumptions about adaptively radiated groups.

These analyses represent the first attempt to find evidence to support the common claim that tenrecs are an adaptive radiation. Future work will develop our results by expanding the analyses to non-cranial morphology and also measures of ecological diversity. However, our current results provide a clear indication that phenotypic variety within tenrecs is perhaps not as exceptional as it first seems and therefore their designation as an adaptive radiation may need to be re-considered.

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398 List of Figures

399	1	Diagram of the landmarks and curves for the skulls in dorsal	
400		and ventral views	20
401	2	Diagrams of the landmarks and curves used for lateral views	24
402		of skulls and mandibles	21
403	3	Principal components plots of the morphospaces occupied	
404		by tenrecs and golden moles	22

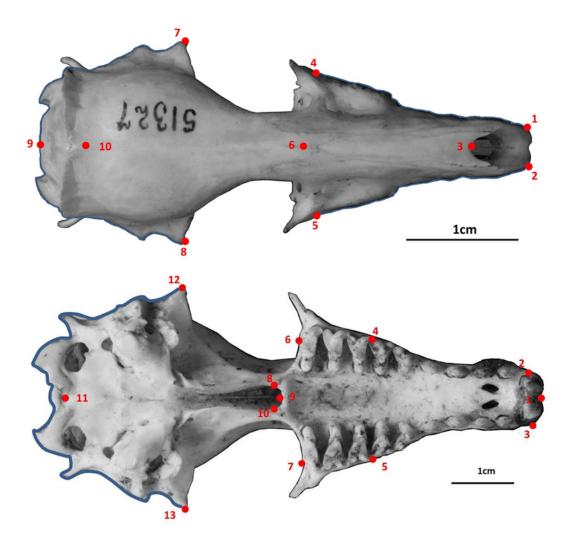


Figure 1: Landmarks (red points) and curves (blue lines) used to capture the morphological shape of skulls in dorsal and ventral views respectively. Curves were re-sampled to the same number of evenly-spaced points. Descriptions of the curves and landmarks are in the supplementary material. The specimens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

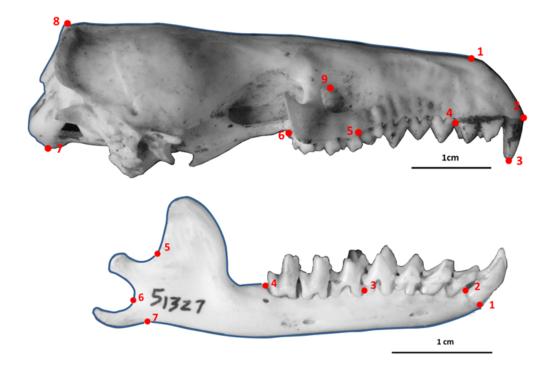


Figure 2: Landmarks (red points) and curves (blue lines) used to capture the morphological shape of lateral views of skulls and mandibles respectively. Curves were re-sampled to the same number of evenly-spaced points. Descriptions of the curves and landmarks are in the supplementary material. The specimens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

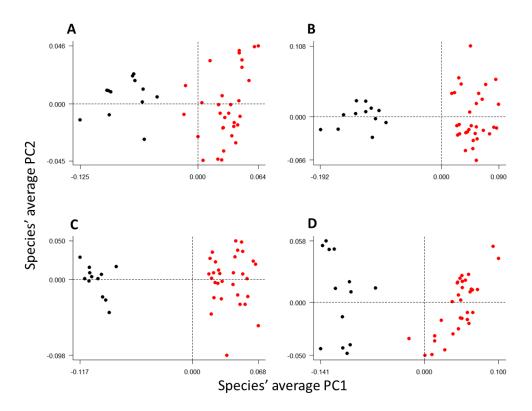


Figure 3: Principal components plots of the morphospaces occupied by tenrecs (red, n=31 species) and golden moles (black, n=12) for the skulls: dorsal (A), ventral (B), lateral (C) and mandibles (D) analyses. Axes are PC1 and PC2 of the average scores from a PCA analysis of mean Procrustes shape coordinates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

List of Tables

406	1	Summary of disparity comparisons between tenrecs and golden	
407		moles	24
408 409	2	Summary of disparity comparisons between non- <i>Microgale</i> tenrecs and golden moles	25
410	3	Summary of npMANOVA comparisons of morphospace oc-	
411		cupation for tenrecs and golden moles	26

Table 1: Summary of disparity comparisons between tenrecs (T) and golden moles (G) for each of our data sets(rows) and five disparity metrics (columns). "Mandibles:one curve" refers to our shape analysis of mandibles excluding the three curves around the posterior structures of 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, product of ranges and sum of squared distances among species.

Disparity metric	SumVar	ProdVar	SumRange	ProdRange	SSqDist
Skulls dorsal	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G	$G>T^*$ (o)
Skulls lateral	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G	$G>T^*$ (o)
Skulls ventral	T>G	G>T	T>G	T>G	$G>T^*$ (o)
Mandibles	G>T	G > T* (0.008)	$T>G^*$ (0.025)	T>G* (0.009)	$T>G^*$ (o)
Mandibles: one curve	G>T	G>T	T>G	T>G	$T>G^*$ (o)

Table 2: Summary of disparity comparisons between non-*Microgale* tenrecs (T) and golden moles (G) for each of our data sets(rows) and five 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, product of ranges and sum of squared distances among species.

Disparity metric	SumVar	ProdVar	SumRange	ProdRange	SSqDist
Skulls dorsal	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G
Skulls lateral	$T > G^* \text{ (o.014)}$	T>G	$T>G^*$ (0.001)	T>G*(0.003)	$G > T^* \text{ (0.014)}$
Skulls ventral	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G	T>G
Mandibles	T>G	G>T	T>G	G>T	G>T

Table 3: Summary of the 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	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