Morphological diversity of tenrec (Afrosoricida, Tenrecidae) crania is greater than their closest relatives, the golden moles (Afrosoricida, Chrysochloridae)

7 Sive Finlay[1,2,*] and Natalie Cooper[1,2]

8 [1] School of Natural Sciences, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin 2, Ireland.
9 [2] Trinity Centre for Biodiversity Research, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin 2, Ireland.
10 *Corresponding author: sfinlay@tcd.ie; Zoology Building, Trinity College Dublin, Dublin
11 2, Ireland.
12 Fax: +353 1 6778094; Tel: +353 1 896 2571.

1

Abstract

Introduction

Morphological diversity has long attracted the attention of biologists. There are many famous examples of morphological diversity including beak morphologies in Darwin's finches, body and limb morphologies in Caribbean *Anolis* lizards and pharyngeal jaw diversity in cichlid fish (Gavrilets & Losos, 2009). Apart from a few examples (REFS), it is common to study morphological diversity from a qualitative rather than quantitative perspective (REFS). However, it is important to quantify morphological diversity because it has implications for studies of adaptive radiations (Losos, 2010), convergent evolution (REF) and our understanding of biodiversity (Roy & Foote, 1997).

Tenrecs are an example of a morphologically diverse group (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011; Olson & Goodman, 2003). The Family contains 34 species, 31 of which are endemic to Madagascar (Olson, 2013). Body sizes of 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 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, morphological diversity in tenrecs has not been quantified.

Morphological diversity is difficult to quantify. Studies are inevitably constrained to measure the diversity of specific traits rather than overall morphologies (Roy & Foote, 1997). Different trait axes (such as cranial compared to limb morphologies) may yield different patterns of

3

morphological diversity (REF) Furthermore, linear measurements of
morphological traits can restrict our understanding of overall
morphological variation (REF). However, geometric morphometric
approaches (Rohlf & Marcus, 1993; Adams et al., 2013) provide more
detailed insights into morphological variation.

Here we present the first quantitative investigation of morphological
diversity in tenrecs. We use geometric morphometrics to compare cranial
morphological diversity in tenrecs to their sister taxa, the golden moles
(Afrosoricida, Chrysochloridae). Tenrecs inhabit a wider variety of
ecological niches (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011) than golden moles
(Bronner, 1995) so we expected tenrecs to be more morphologically
diverse than their closest relatives. However, we only find a significant
difference in the morphological diversity of skulls in lateral view, not
dorsal or ventral. In contrast, when we restricted our data to include a
subsample of the morphologically similar *Microgale* tenrec Genus, we
found that tenrecs were more morphologically diverse than golden moles
in all three analyses. Our results demonstrate that the apparently high
morphological diversity in tenrecs is not necessarily reflected in all
morphological traits. Therefore the choice of morphological traits is a
critical consideration when it comes to quantitative investigations of
morphological diversity.

Materials and Methods

Morphological data collection

One of us (SF) photographed cranial specimens of tenrecs and golden moles at the Natural History Museum London (BMNH), the Smithsonian Institute Natural History Museum (SI), the American Museum of Natural 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). A full list of museum accession numbers and details on 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) and 171 skulls in lateral view (140 tenrecs and 31 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 (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

5

semilandmarks (outline curves) for the skulls in each of the three views. 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) that defined which points in our tps files should be treated as 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 analysis (PCA) with the plotTangentSpace function (Adams et al., 2013).

Calculating morphological diversity

We calculated morphological diversity using the results of our principal components analyses. We selected the principal components axes which accounted for 95% of the cumulative variation for each of our three skull analyses. These axes represent the dimensions of our morphospace (REF). We used the scores from the PC axes to compare cranial morphologies in two ways.

6

First, we used non parametric MANOVAs (Anderson, 2001) to test whether tenrecs and golden moles occupied significantly different positions within our cranial morphospaces (e.g Serb et al., 2011; Ruta et al., 2013). Secondly, we compared morphological diversity within tenrecs to the diversity within golden moles. If tenrecs are more morphologically diverse, then they should be more spread-out within our cranial morphospaces. We calculated the morphological diversity of each Family as the mean Euclidean distance between every species and the centroid for that Family. We used a t test to assess whether there was any significant difference in the morphological diversity of tenrecs and golden moles.

Our groups have unequal sample sizes (31 tenrec species compared to 12 golden mole species). Therefore, we could find higher morphological diversity in tenrecs simply because it is the larger group (REF). We used pairwise permutation tests to account for this potential bias in sample size. Our null hypothesis was that there is no difference in morphological diversity between tenrecs and golden moles. If this were true, then the group identity of each species would be arbitrary: if you randomly assign the species as being either a tenrec or golden moles and then re-calculate morphological diversity there would still be no difference between the two groups.

We assigned Family identities at random to each species and calculated the differences in morphological diversity (mean Euclidean distances to the Family's centroid) for the new groupings. We repeated these permutations 1000 times to generate a null distribution of the expected differences in morphological diversity between a group that has 31 members (tenrecs) compared to one which has 12 members (golden

7

moles). Finally, we compared our observed (true) measures of the differences in morphological diversity to these permuted distributions to test whether there were significant differences in morphological diversity of the two Families after taking sample size differences into account.

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 morphological diversity (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011; Jenkins, 2003). Therefore, the strong similarities among these species may mask signals of higher morphological diversity among other tenrecs. To test this idea, we created a subset of our tenrec data which included just 5 of the *Microgale* species. We compared the morphological diversity of this subset of tenrecs (n=19: 5 *Microgale* with 12 other tenrec species) to the morphological diversity within the 12 species of golden moles. We repeated the same morphological diversity comparisons and permutation tests to account for differences in sample size on this reduced data set.

Results

Figure 2 depicts the morphospace plot derived from our principal components analysis of average Procrustes-superimposed shape coordinates for skulls in dorsal view. Similar plots for our analyses of skulls in ventral and lateral views can be found in the supplementary material. To compare morphological diversity in the two families, we used the principal components axes which accounted for 95% of the cumulative variation in each of our skull analyses: dorsal (n=6 axes), ventral (n=7 axes) and lateral (n=7 axes). First, we compared the position of each

8

Family within the morphospace plots. Tenrecs and golden moles occupy significantly different positions in the dorsal (npMANOVA, $F_{1,42}$ = 68.13, R^2 = 0.62, p=0.001), ventral (npMANOVA, $F_{1,42}$ = 103.33, R^2 = 0.72 , p=0.001) and lateral (npMANOVA, $F_{1,42}$ = 76.7, R^2=0.652, p=0.001) skull morphospaces, indicating that the families have very different cranial morphologies.

Secondly, we compared the morphological diversity within each Family. Based on our measures of mean Euclidean distances to the Family's centroid, tenrec crania are more morphologically diverse than golden mole crania in lateral view but not in dorsal or ventral view (table 1). In contrast, when we compared morphological diversity within the sub-sample of 19 tenrecs (including just 5 *Microgale* species) to the 12 golden mole species, we found that tenrecs had significantly higher cranial morphological diversity than golden moles in all analyses (table 1).

Our pairwise permutation tests for each analysis confirmed that (lack of) differences in morphological diversity were not artefacts of differences in sample size (see supplementary material).

Discussion

Our analyses are the first quantitative investigation of morphological disparity in tenrecs. We show that tenrecs' cranial morphologies are no more diverse than their closest relatives and therefore phenotypic variety in tenrecs is perhaps not as exceptional as it first appears.

When we compared the diversity of skull shapes in the two Families, we found a trend towards higher disparity in tenrecs compared to golden

9

moles but none of these differences were significant (table **??**). Even when we removed the phenotypically similar *Microgale* Genus, tenrecs were still no more diverse than golden moles in most of the analyses of their skull shapes (table **??**).

In contrast to these results for the skulls, two of our disparity metrics indicate that golden moles have more disparate mandible shapes than tenrecs (table **??**). We recognised that our landmarks and curves for the mandibles focus particular attention on the ascending ramus (condyloid, condylar and angular processes, figure **??**). Therefore we deleted the three semilandmark curves around these structures and repeated our disparity calculations. In this case we found no significant differences in disparity between the two Families (table **??**). Therefore, our results seem to indicate that golden moles have greater morphological variation in the posterior structures of their mandibles compared to tenrecs.

Given that these posterior structures act as muscle attachment and articulation sites for connections with the upper jaw, one might expect that golden moles with highly disparate posterior mandible morphologies should also show high variability in the corresponding mandible articulation areas of the skull. However, we could not locate reliable, homologous points accurately on those areas of the skull pictures in lateral view. Instead, our landmarks and semilandmark curves for the skulls in lateral view focus attention on morphological variation in the dentition and the overall shape of the top and back of the skulls (figure **??**). This may explain why golden mole skulls in lateral view do not show the same pattern of higher disparity compared to tenrecs that we see in our analyses of the mandibles. However, further investigation is required to identify possible reasons why golden moles appear to show such

variation in the posterior structures of their mandibles.

We used variation in skull and mandible shapes as proxy measures for overall morphological diversity within the two Families. Many other studies also use skulls to study phenotypic variation within species (Blagojević & Milošević-Zlatanović, 2011; Bornholdt et al., 2008), to delineate species boundaries within a clade (e.g. Panchetti et al., 2008) or for cross-taxonomic comparative studies of phenotypic (dis)similarities (e.g. Ruta et al., 2013; Goswami et al., 2011; Wroe & Milne, 2007).

However, studies of morphological disparity are inevitably constrained to measure diversity within specific traits rather than overall phenotypes (Roy & Foote, 1997). Disparity calculations based on skull shape can yield similar results compared to analyses of whole-skeleton discrete characters and limb proportion data sets (Foth et al., 2012). Yet it is still possible that comparing disparity in tenrecs and golden moles using non-cranial morphological measures could produce different results. For example, tenrecs inhabit a wide variety of ecological niches and habitats including terrestrial, arboreal, semi-aquatic and semi-fossorial environments (Soarimalala & Goodman, 2011). In contrast, although golden moles occupy a wide altitudinal, climatic and vegetational spectrum of habitats (Bronner, 1995), they are are all fossorial species which, superficially at least, appear to be less functionally diverse than tenrecs. Therefore, comparing the disparity of limb morphologies within the two Families could indicate that tenrecs are more morphologically diverse than golden moles and therefore support the claim that tenrecs are an exceptionally diverse group.

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). Evidence of exceptional morphological diversity is one criterion for designating a clade as an adaptive radiation (Losos & Mahler, 2010). However, we found that tenrecs are no more morphologically diverse than their their closest relatives and therefore, within our tests, do not appear to show the exceptional diversity which characterises an adaptively radiated group.

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 the tenrec Family; 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). However, we also recognise that strict, statistically based categorisations of clades as being adaptive radiations or not are not always biologically meaningful or helpful when it comes to trying to understand patterns of phenotypic diversity (Olson & Arroyo-Santos, 2009).

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 results provide a clear indication that phenotypic variety within tenrecs is perhaps not as exceptional as it first seems.

Acknowledgements

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.

Anderson, M. 2001. A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance. *Austral Ecology* **26**: 32–46.

13

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 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 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.

Bronner, G. 1995. *Systematic revision of the golden mole genera Amblysomus, 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.

Eisenberg, J.F. & Gould, E. 1969. The Tenrecs: A Study in Mammalian Behaviour and Evolution. *Smithsonian Contributions to Zoology* **27**: 1–152.

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.

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 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 Award Address. *The American Naturalist* **175**: 623–639. 10.1086/652433.

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.

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.

R Core Team 2014. *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. R Foundation for Statistical Computing, Vienna, Austria. URL `http://www.R-project.org/`.

Rohlf, F. 2012. *TPSUtil ver 1.53*. Morphometrics at SUNY Stony Brook. URL `http://life.bio.sunysb.edu/morph/`.

Rohlf, F. 2013. *TPSDig2 ver 2.17*. Morphometrics at SUNY Stony Brook. URL `http://life.bio.sunysb.edu/morph/`.

Rohlf, J. & Marcus, L. 1993. A revolution in morphometrics. *Trends in 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: Biological Sciences* **280**: 20131071.

Serb, J., Alejandrino, A., Otárola-Castillo, E. & Adams, D. 2011. Morphological convergence of shell shape in distantly related scallop

16

species (mollusca: Pectinidae). *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society*
163: 571–584.

Soarimalala, V. & Goodman, S. 2011. *Les petits mammiferes de Madagascar*.
Guides sur la diversité biologique de Madagascar. Association Vahatra,
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.

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**:
1251–1260.

Zelditch, M., Swiderski, D. & Sheets, D. 2012. *Geometric Morphometrics for
Biologists, second edition*. Academic Press, Elsevier, United States of
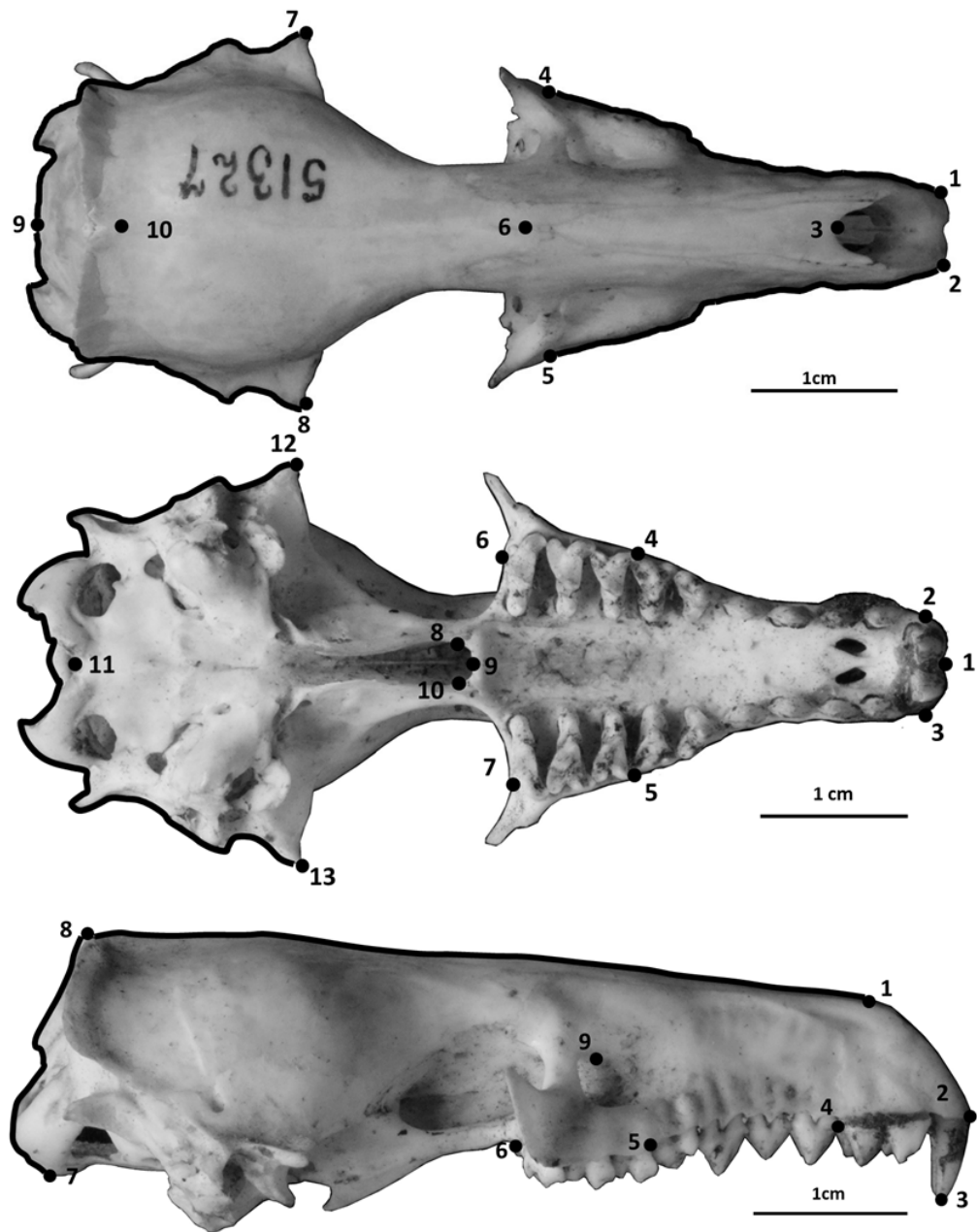America.

List of Figures

18

Figure 1: Landmarks (numbered points) and curves (black lines) used to capture the morphological shape of skulls in dorsal, ventral and lateral 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 BMNH 1934.6.16.2 (ventral and lateral)
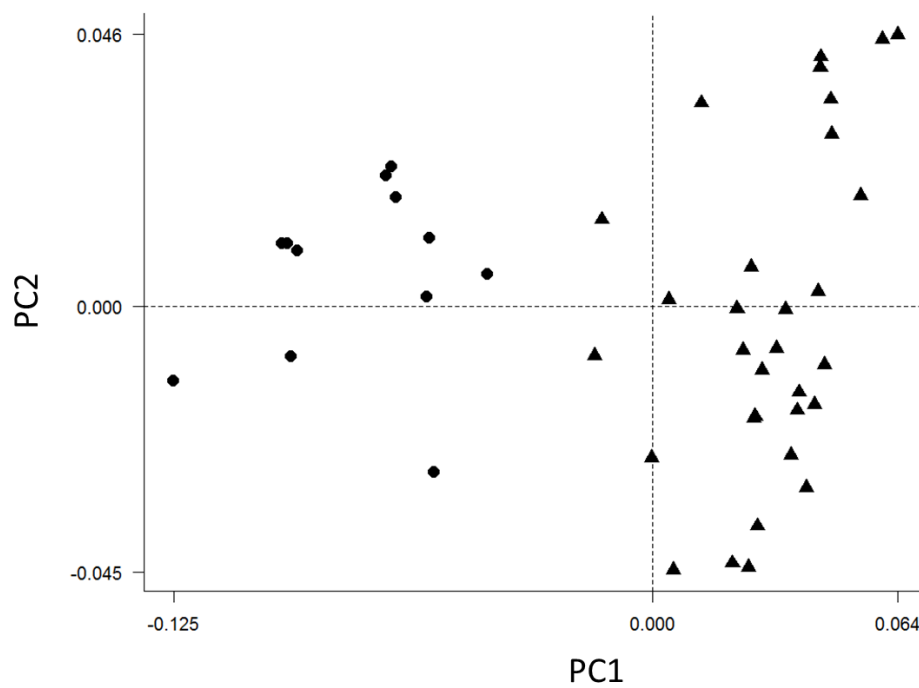
Figure 2: Principal components plot of the morphospace occupied by tenrecs (triangles, n = 31 species) and golden moles (circles, n = 12) for the skulls in dorsal view. Axes are PC1 and PC2 of the average scores from a PCA analysis of mean Procrustes shape coordinates for each species.

List of Tables

Table 1:
Morphological diveristy in tenrecs and golden moles for each of the three analyses (skulls in dorsal, ventral and lateral view). We measured morphological diversity as the mean Euclidean distance between each species and the centroid for their Family. We compared the morphological diversity of 12 species of golden mole to a) all 31 species of tenrec (left) and b) 19 species of tenrec (right) which included just 5 species of *Microgale* tenrec. Significant differences (p values from t-test comparisons) are highlighted in bold.

Skulls analysis	Tenrecs (31) (mean± s.e)	Golden moles (mean± s.e)	t	p	Tenrecs (19) (mean± s.e)	Golden moles (mean± s.e)	t	p
Dorsal	0.036 (±0.0029)	0.029 (±0.0032)	-1.63	0.11	0.044 (±0.0025)	0.029 (±0.003)	-3.62	**0.001**
Ventral	0.048 (±0.0034)	0.044 (±0.0041)	-0.676	0.51	0.054 (±0.004)	0.042 (±0.004)	-2.23	**0.04**
Lateral	0.044 (±0.0041)	0.032 (±0.0037)	-2.16	**0.04**	0.054 (±0.005)	0.031 (±0.0037)	-3.47	**0.002**