UNIVERSITY of York

This is a repository copy of Morphological divergence in giant fossil dormice.

White Rose Research Online URL for this paper: <u>https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/166750/</u>

Version: Accepted Version

Article:

Hennekam, Jesse, Benson, Roger, Herridge, Victoria et al. (4 more authors) (2020) Morphological divergence in giant fossil dormice. Proceedings of the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences. pp. 1-9. ISSN 1471-2954

https://doi.org/10.1098/rspb.2020.2085

Reuse

Items deposited in White Rose Research Online are protected by copyright, with all rights reserved unless indicated otherwise. They may be downloaded and/or printed for private study, or other acts as permitted by national copyright laws. The publisher or other rights holders may allow further reproduction and re-use of the full text version. This is indicated by the licence information on the White Rose Research Online record for the item.

Takedown

If you consider content in White Rose Research Online to be in breach of UK law, please notify us by emailing eprints@whiterose.ac.uk including the URL of the record and the reason for the withdrawal request.



eprints@whiterose.ac.uk https://eprints.whiterose.ac.uk/

Title: Morphological divergence in giant fossil dormice

Authors: Jesse J. Hennekam¹, Roger B.J. Benson², Victoria L. Herridge³, Nathan Jeffery⁴, Enric Torres-Roig⁵, Josep Antoni Alcover⁶, Philip G. Cox^{1,7}

Affiliations: ¹Hull York Medical School, University of York, UK ²Department of Earth Sciences, University of Oxford, UK ³Natural History Museum, London, UK ⁴Department of Musculoskeletal & Ageing Science, Institute of Life Course & Medical Sciences, University of Liverpool, UK ⁵Departament de Dinàmica de la Terra i de l'Oceà, Facultat de Ciències de la Terra, Universitat de Barcelona, Barcelona, Spain ⁶Departament de Biodiversitat i Conservació, Institut Mediterrani d'Estudis Avançats (CSIC-UIB), Esporles, Mallorca, Spain ⁷Department of Archaeology, University of York, UK

Corresponding author: Jesse J. Hennekam Address: PalaeoHub, University of York, Wentworth Way, York, YO10 5DD, UK Email: jjh556@york.ac.uk

1 Abstract

2 Insular gigantism – evolutionary increases in body size from small-bodied mainland ancestors - is a 3 conceptually significant, but poorly studied, evolutionary phenomenon. Gigantism is widespread on 4 Mediterranean islands, particularly among fossil and extant dormice. These include an extant giant 5 population of *Eliomys quercinus* on Formentera, the giant Balearic genus *+Hypnomys* and the 6 exceptionally large +Leithia melitensis of Pleistocene Sicily. We quantified patterns of cranial and 7 mandibular shape and their relationships to head size (allometry) among mainland and insular 8 dormouse populations, asking to what extent the morphology of island giants is explained by 9 allometry. We find that gigantism in dormice is not simply an extrapolation of the allometric trajectory 10 of their mainland relatives. Instead, a large portion of their distinctive cranial and mandibular 11 morphology resulted from population- or species-specific evolutionary shape changes. Our findings 12 suggest that body size increases in insular giant dormice were accompanied by evolutionary divergence 13 of feeding adaptations. This complements other evidence of ecological divergence in these taxa, which 14 span predominantly faunivorous to herbivorous diets. Our findings suggest that insular gigantism involves context-dependent phenotypic modifications, underscoring the highly distinctive nature of 15 16 island faunas.

17

18 Keywords

19 Insular Gigantism; Geometric morphometrics; Allometry; Island rule; Leithia; Hypnomys

20

21 Introduction

Insular gigantism is a widespread macroevolutionary pattern [1,2]. It occurred on many Mediterranean islands throughout the Neogene and Quaternary, and is known among small mammals including dormice, hamsters, murids, lagomorphs, shrews and moonrats [3-10]. Despite its prevalence, the ecological drivers of insular gigantism are rather complex, with climate, island area, availability of resources, and the presence of competitors and predators all proposed to play a part [2, 11-18].
Similarly, the morphological consequences of gigantism are not well understood, and it is not clear
whether giant island species have attained large size via similar evolutionary pathways. This raises the
possibility that insular gigantism does not represent a single well-defined process, but in fact reflects
the outcomes of evolution in a broad set of distinct ecological contexts.

31 Shape changes associated with increasing body size (allometry) are suggested to either result 32 from optimised functionality based on natural selection, or from constraints that impose fixed or 33 slowly-evolving allometric trajectories [19]. Allometric constraints will result in shared allometric 34 patterns ('common allometry') among related species, and provide an expectation that evolution will 35 proceed along lines of least evolutionary resistance (or "genetic lines of least evolutionary resistance") 36 [20], represented by a multivariate factor of the genetic or phenotypic variation [21] (but see [22]). 37 Deviation from these lines might be expected during adaptation to distinct ecological niches, resulting 38 in functional modification in shape and size. However, the evolvability of allometric relationships, and 39 therefore the ability of ecological adaptation to cause divergent patterns of phenotypic evolution, is variable [23,24]: divergence from allometric trajectories may be common on long macroevolutionary 40 41 timescales but are rare on shorter timescales.

The Island Rule describes extensive variation in both shape and size [1], and suggests a graded trend from gigantism in small mammals to dwarfism in larger species [13]. The evolutionary timescales of adaptation to insularity are generally short [25], meaning that divergence from an ancestral allometric trajectory may be difficult to realise [24]. Nevertheless, the exceptional increase in body size associated with insular gigantism can result in unexpected morphologies, and evolutionary shifts to novel ecologies in context of the island setting might also be a powerful driver of evolutionary changes in morphology via functional adaptation.

Dormice (Gliridae) are potent exemplars of the evolutionary 'island effect' of body size increase, having evolved extraordinary large sizes more frequently than other mammals –and on at least eight different islands since the beginning of the Miocene [26,27]. Furthermore, giant dormice are known from both the fossil record (e.g. *Hypnomys* spp. from the Balearic Islands and *Leithia* spp.
from Sicily and Malta) and an extant population of *Eliomys quercinus* on the island of Formentera [28].
Dormice therefore provide an ideal study system for addressing key questions regarding insular
gigantism.

The fossil giants *Hypnomys* and *Leithia* most likely evolved from a mainland ancestor related to the genus *Eliomys* (Leithiinae) [29,30,31]. Previous studies uncovered craniomandibular differences between extant *Eliomys* populations and fossil island genera [31-34]. The possibility that they were more than simply enlarged forms of their mainland relatives is further supported by the change in ecological niche displayed by the extant giant population on Formentera, which shows increased faunivory in its diet [28]. Furthermore, the morphological features of the extinct island giants imply alternative lifestyles such as increased terrestriality in *Hypnomys* [31] and herbivory in *Leithia* [32].

63 Here, the cranial and mandibular morphology in the extant giant *Eliomys quercinus* from 64 Formentera and the extinct giant genera Leithia and Hypnomys are investigated in the context of a 65 large dataset of non-giant dormouse skulls. Eliomys quercinus has a large geographic distribution 66 across Europe, including several populations on Mediterranean islands. Alongside fossil giants and the 67 extant giant population on Formentera, non-giant E. quercinus still display significant intraspecific size 68 variations. We aim to understand the transformation of cranial and mandibular form (size and shape) 69 in giant dormice by investigating the allometric trajectory of non-giant dormice. Characterisation of 70 the common allometric trajectory within E. quercinus populations enables us to distinguish between 71 morphological differences occurring due to size variations and those potentially related to other 72 factors. We ask to what extent the cranial and mandibular morphologies of island giant dormice are 73 predicted by extrapolation of the allometric trajectory for extant non-giant dormice, or whether 74 additional morphological variation occurs during evolution of giant size - possibly driven by island-75 specific shifts in ecology.

76

77 Material and Methods

78 Sample

We analysed the skulls and mandibles of 63 adult specimens (fully erupted third molar) of the extant species *Eliomys quercinus*. Specimens were from the collections of the Senckenberg Museum, Frankfurt (SMF), the Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris (MNHN) and the Natural History Museum, London (NHMUK). Table S1 includes a full list of all extant specimens used in this study and details of our µCT scanning methods are given in Appendix S1. Because only adult individuals were analysed, our analyses (see below) describe patterns of static allometry.

85 Size variation in Eliomys was characterised among geographically separated extant populations and in fossil giants. We used centroid size (the square root of the summed squared 86 87 distances between landmarks and the centroid [35]) derived from our landmark configurations as a 88 size proxy. Our subsequent analyses focused on quantifying allometry within a single species, Eliomys 89 quercinus, the closest living relative of insular giant dormice lineages [29,30,31]. Ideally, we would 90 compare extinct giant dormice with their specific mainland ancestor populations. However, 91 phylogenetic relationships among populations of *E. quercinus* are not currently known, let alone the 92 relationships of mainland populations with extinct island giants.

93 Fossil specimens of the insular species Hypnomys onicensis, H. morpheus and Leithia melitensis 94 were included in the analyses based on μ CT models (Appendix S1), with small missing portions 95 reconstructed from photogrammetric models of other specimens. The fossil specimens include: a 96 composite reconstruction of the skull of L. melitensis based on specimens present at the Museo 97 Geologico Gemmellaro (mgupPS 78: 1-5)[32]; the reconstruction of an L. melitensis mandible located 98 at the Museo Universitario di Scienze Della Terra, Rome (MUST R2s26); a well preserved skull of H. 99 morpheus from Cova des Coral·loides (unnumbered specimen, under the responsibility of the Heritage 100 Authorities of the Consell Insular de Mallorca, Palma); and a mostly complete skull of the giant Balearic 101 dormouse H. onicensis in the collection of the Institut Mediterrani d'Estudis Avançats, Esporles, 102 Mallorca (IMEDEA 106855). Although this specimen is likely a sub-adult, based on size, dental wear 103 and the unfused skull sutures, it is the most complete skull available of this species.

104

105 Shape analyses of extant dormice

106 Anatomical landmarks were recorded from each cranium (42 landmarks) and mandible (19 landmarks) 107 using Avizo Lite v9.2.0 (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA). The Arothron package [36] was 108 used to import the landmarks into R v3.5.3 [37]. We used 3D geometric morphometrics to characterize 109 shape variation among extant populations of E. quercinus and extinct giants. Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) was performed, translating the landmark coordinates to the origin, scaling to unit 110 111 centroid size, and rotating them to a shared orientation, using a least squares criterion [38,39]. This 112 analysis separates variation in size (centroid sizes) from variation in shape (Procrustes coordinates) so 113 they can be treated as individual variables. A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was performed using 114 the geometric morphometric R package Morpho v2.6 [40], in order to evaluate the data in a lower 115 dimensional space and identify the largest variances in shape within the dataset.

116

117 Allometry

118 Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the effect of size on adult shape variation (i.e. static 119 allometry) in E. quercinus and the fossil giants. Using the procD.lm() function with 999 iterations in the 120 R package geomorph v3.2.0 [41], the following linear model formula was evaluated: 121 shape $\sim log 10(size)$, in which size is represented by centroid size. This analysis asks what changes in 122 cranial or mandibular shape are associated with changes in cranial or mandibular size. Our initial 123 analyses included a categorical variable differentiating between non-giant and giant dormice for both 124 the extant dataset (including the extant Formentera giants), as well as the complete dataset (including 125 the fossil giants). When used as a covariate, $shape \sim log10(size) + giant$, this variable asks whether 126 giant dormice show specific differences in skull shape compared to non-giant dormice; when used as 127 an interaction term, shape $\sim log10(size) * giant$, it asks whether the relationship between shape 128 and size (i.e. its slope) differs between giant and non-giant dormice.

Subsequent analyses aimed to quantify the allometric signal among non-giant populations and therefore used a more restricted sample, excluding giants. The independent effects of population (defined by geographic location) and sex on shape were evaluated for non-giant *Eliomys* specimens using the model: $shape \sim log10(size) + population + sex$ (Tables S2 and S3). We also asked whether the effect of allometry varies among populations (Table S1) using the model formula: $shape \sim log10(size) * population$. The significance of coefficients and interaction terms in these models was assessed using ANOVA with permutation procedures.

136

137 Predicted Shape Model

138 The allometric relationship defined above can be used to evaluate the extent to which the morphology 139 of (giant) specimens is explained by their size. A multivariate regression for allometry $shape \sim size$ 140 can be expressed as Y = C + BX + E [42], in which Y is the shape vector, C is the intercept, B is 141 the vector of the regression coefficients for size and represents the angle of the slope of the 142 multivariate regression line, X represents centroid size, and E explains the error term. When using 143 Procrustes coordinates, the size component X can be evaluated as the difference between the centroid 144 size of each specimen and mean centroid size across all specimens. This procedure renders the 145 intercept term C redundant with the mean shape from Procrustes superimposition.

Our analyses of allometry among non-giant dormice demonstrated a small, but significant, contribution of population (i.e. geographic location) to cranial and mandibular shape variation (Tables S2 and S3). Therefore, we used the allometric relationships derived from the model *shape* $\sim log10(size) + population$ among non-giant dormice for the allometric base model in the subsequent analyses.

151

152 *Predicting shape from size.*

153 The base allometric model provides a predicted shape for each specimen based on its size. The 154 Procrustes coordinates of individual specimens can be projected on to an axis described by the vector of size coefficients, *B*, from the multivariate regression [43]. This vector defines an axis in multivariate space and is equivalent to the common allometric component (CAC) [44]. The orthogonal projection of specimens onto this axis gives a regression (or CAC) score. The plot of regression score against size provides a 2D representation of the allometric model. Shape residuals describe how the true shape of each specimen differs from its predicted shape and are represented in the plot as the vertical (i.e. shape) deviation of each specimen from the regression line.

161

162 *Predicting size from shape.*

163 The base allometric model can also be used to infer a 'predicted size' for each specimen based 164 on its shape (Procrustes coordinates). Predicted sizes identify whether the shape of a specific specimen 165 resembles that of a smaller or a larger specimen. They also allow us to infer a best-fit shape based on 166 predicted size, representing the shape a specimen would have if it only deviated from allometric 167 expectations by modification of the position on the allometry line (under the assumption that all shape 168 variation between specimens is associated with allometry).

169 Predicted sizes were inferred using a custom-written R function: predict.size() (Appendix S2). 170 This function uses the regression vector from the base allometric model to generate a series of 171 predicted shapes representing individuals of different sizes. These predicted shapes are calculated 172 using a 2 x n matrix in which the first row comprises the vector of intercept values and the second row 173 comprises the coefficients of size in the base allometric model. This was multiplied by an m x 2 matrix, 174 in which the first column consists solely of ones and the second column contains an ascending 175 sequence of size values of length *m*. Our predict.size() function by default sets the upper size limit to 176 1.5 times the size of the largest individual within the dataset. The resulting matrix is transformed to an array based on the number of landmarks within the configuration and its dimensionality, creating a 177 178 dataset comprising a sequence of shape coordinate data associated with the allometric trajectory per 179 increment of size. This approach can be used to generate predicted sizes of external specimens that were not included in the base allometric model, provided they are superimposed on the consensusshape of this model.

182 The extent to which specimen shapes differ from the shapes predicted by allometry, given 183 their predicted sizes, provides a measure of the amount of shape difference between specimen shapes 184 and their deviation from allometric expectations (given actual sizes) that cannot be explained simply 185 by modification of position on the allometry line. It therefore allows us to quantify the amount of non-186 allometric shape deviation exhibited by a specimen, which might, for example, reflect individual-, 187 population- or species-specific variation. This is calculated as the orthogonal projection of specimen 188 shapes on the regression vector. Our predict.size() function estimates this by evaluating the Procrustes 189 distances between the actual specimen shape and every proposed shape on the regression vector. The 190 proposed shape with the shortest Procrustes distances is the indicator for predicted size.

191 The relationship between predicted and actual size for each specimen was displayed 192 graphically via a 'predicted size versus actual size', or PSvAS, plot. This method is complementary to 193 existing allometric methods, and allows for the evaluation of the shape of individual specimens with 194 respect to the base allometric model. A line with intercept = 0 and slope = 1 on this plot represents 195 shapes with predicted sizes that match their actual sizes. This identity line divides the graph into two 196 sections, the lower-right indicating specimens with a centroid size exceeding the predicted centroid 197 size based on shape, and the upper-left including specimens with larger predicted sizes than the actual 198 centroid size.

199

200 Application of PSvAS to the dormouse dataset

The PSvAS method was used for analysing the shape of giant dormice, based on an allometric base model including non-giant, extant *Eliomys quercinus* specimens. The fit of the fossil and extant giants within the model was analysed to determine whether certain morphological features are in line with the allometric predictions, or can be considered distinct characteristics for giants. Because the giant dormice are considerably different in size and shape compared to non-giant *Eliomys*, including such specimens will affect the GPA and therefore influence the inferred allometric component. Instead,
these specimens were superimposed to the consensus shape of the base model rather than being
included in the original GPA.

209

210 Results

211 Shape variation in dormice.

Principal component ordinations for both the cranial and mandibular dataset depict a clear signal related to the distinctive morphology of giant species (Figure 1A,D). The first principal component is correlated with size variation of extant, non-giant populations, with more positive values being associated with larger individuals. The second principal component appears to distinguish between extant (negative values) and fossil (positive values) giants. Overall, these patterns are more defined in the cranial analyses.

218

219 Size-shape relationships

220 Our initial analyses of allometry demonstrate statistical significance for an independent variable 221 distinguishing between giant and non-giant dormice both when including only extant populations, and 222 for the complete dataset including fossil specimens (Tables S4 and S5). This indicates a role for non-223 allometric shape variation during the origin of giant dormouse cranial and mandibular morphology. 224 The interaction term of this variable is non-significant for the extant dataset, but significant for the 225 complete dataset including fossil specimens. This indicates that the relationship between shape and 226 size among living and extinct giants from multiple islands is different to that among non-giant 227 populations (Figure 1B,E). Our subsequent analyses further interrogate and characterize these 228 differences.

229

230 Allometric base model

231 ANOVAs demonstrate statistically significant effects of size and population on the allometric 232 base models for both mandibular and cranial shape (Tables S2 and S3). The effect of sex (21 females; 233 24 males; 1 unknown) on mandibular and cranial shape is non-significant and sex was therefore was 234 excluded from further analyses (p = 0.188; p = 0.271). The interaction term between size and 235 population is also non-significant (mandible: p = 0.548; skull: p = 0.346), indicating that there is no 236 evidence for population-specific allometric effects in non-giant dormice. Thus, the best model is: 237 shape $\sim log 10(size) + population$; which explains 53% of the total variation in both the 238 mandibular and cranial datasets (Tables S2 and S3). The PSvAS model was used to evaluate the shape 239 of giant dormice crania and mandibles with respect to this allometric model, based solely on non-giant 240 dormice (Figure 1C,F).

241

242 Predicted Size versus Actual Size

The PSvAS plots describe the relationship between the size of each specimen and its predicted size based on shape in context of the allometric model (Figures 1C,F and 2). Giant specimens in these graphs are located firmly below the identity line, indicating that their shapes resemble the crania and mandibles of smaller individuals (Table S6). This effect is generally more pronounced for mandibles than for crania (Figure 1). Furthermore, the larger fossil specimens deviate more from the identity line compared to the extant giants from Formentera.

249

250 Predicted and actual morphology of giant dormice

Procrustes distances quantify the difference between the actual shape of giants and the predicted shapes based on the allometric model (Table S6). Differences between giant shapes and expectations under the allometric base model are relatively large (cranium: 0.07 - 0.18, mandible: 0.08 - 0.22), especially within the fossil genera *Hypnomys* and *Leithia*. These differences remain large even when using the predicted (best fit) size given shape (Table S6; cranium: 0.07 - 0.13, mandible: 0.06 - 0.12), indicating that the actual morphology of giants is rather poorly predicted by the allometric 257 model, suggesting that giant dormouse cranial and mandibular morphologies originated via largely
 258 non-allometric evolutionary processes.

259 Based on both their actual and predicted sizes, the crania of larger dormice are expected to 260 have upper incisors that curve more posteriorly, an inferiorly angled rostrum, an increased maximum 261 width of the zygomatic arch, and a relative narrowing of the auditory meatus (Figure 2). The predicted 262 relative narrowing of the auditory meatus is seen in the fossil taxa, but other aspects of the actual 263 shapes of the giants deviate from these predicted shapes: none show the predicted curvature in the 264 incisors, and the proposed inferior angle of the rostrum is only evident in Leithia melitensis. The 265 widening of the zygomatic arch is present within fossil giants, but is absent in the extant Formentera 266 giants. Furthermore, the zygomatic widening in the fossil giants is located much more anteriorly than 267 predicted.

268 Predicted mandibular morphology of giant dormice is also very different from their actual 269 shapes. The predicted shapes show a very narrow and antero-posteriorly elongated structure, whereas 270 the actual giants have robust mandibles, with the posterior part being greatly enlarged dorsoventrally. 271 Although the PSvAS graph implies a best-fit for giant mandibular shapes similar to that of non-giant 272 dormice, the large Procrustes distances between the fitted shape and the actual shape (Table S6) 273 indicate this is not the result of isometric scaling. Instead, the giants exhibit some unique 274 morphologies; e.g. distinct features in L. melitensis include a foreshortened and relatively straight 275 lower incisor, an exceptionally large and unperforated angular process, a posteriorly located anterior 276 margin of the masseteric ridge, and a vertically oriented coronoid process.

As the cranial and mandibular warps were created using the respective landmark configurations, features not included in the configuration, such as the shape of the auditory bullae, cannot be reliably assessed using the warped images. Figure S2 shows the positioning of the landmarks on the giants with regards to their predicted shapes. The width of the zygomatic plate, visible in lateral view, seems to increase with size in the fossil specimens. Furthermore, all giants appear to have a sharply angled cranial vault. Lastly, we noticed a peculiar enlargement of the occipital condyle when
observing the μCT scan of *H. morpheus,* not seen in other specimens.

284

285 Discussion

Extant giant Formentera dormice and fossil giant specimens of Sicily and Mallorca show substantial craniomandibular differences from their non-giant relatives (*Eliomys quercinus*; Figures 1 and S3). Only a small portion of these morphological differences can be explained by the allometric trajectories of non-giant populations. Insular giant dormice therefore diverge substantially from allometric expectations. Additionally, we recognized that different species of giant dormice show distinctive deviations from their predicted shapes.

292

293 Predicting giant size and shape

294 The cranial and mandibular morphologies of living and extinct island giants are different from those 295 expected under an allometric model. Allometry-related aspects of the shapes of these giants are 296 generally more similar to those of smaller dormice (although they also show substantial non-allometric 297 shape differences), and this effect is more pronounced for the mandible than for the cranium (Figure 298 1C,F). Although the craniomandibular shapes of giant dormice are more similar to smaller dormice 299 than expected, this does not imply isometric scaling; the actual fit of the giants within the model is 300 rather poor, and is worse for larger specimens (see Procrustes distances Table S6). Phylogenetically, 301 the fossil specimens are more separated from the base model, potentially explaining the poor fit of 302 these shapes within the model. The biologically implausible geometries that result from extrapolation 303 of the allometric model to giant sizes provide an alternative explanation. For example, the predicted 304 skull shape based on the cranial size of L. melitensis (log centroid size = 5.02) has an unrealistically 305 flexed cranial vault and occipital region, including a highly constricted foramen magnum. A similarly 306 unlikely morphology is evident for mandibular geometry, with the expected shape at the size of L. 307 *melitensis* (log centroid size = 4.11) being implausible owing to the very thin mediolateral width of the bone. Interestingly, the morphologies of smaller giants (Formentera population and *Hypnomys*) are
not correctly predicted by the allometric base model either. These observations suggest that flattening
or truncation of the allometric trajectory occurs at large size in order to maintain biological
functionality.

312 Only part of the morphology of giant dormice can be explained by flattening of the allometric 313 trajectory — large differences are also evident in comparison to their expected shapes based on 314 (smaller) 'best fit' centroid sizes (Table S6; Figure 2). This indicates the presence of population-specific 315 morphological features within island giants, potentially reflecting adaptive variation due to island-316 specific environmental conditions or ecological shifts. For example, the extant giant population of 317 Formentera is noticeably more faunivorous compared to other populations [28]. This suggests either 318 that insular body size increases have resulted in a dietary niche shift, or that a shift towards carnivory 319 reflects insular selective pressures on Formentera and is the driver of evolutionary increases in body 320 size. Although this is not the classic explanation of large body size in small mammals on islands [1], it 321 indicates that morphological variation among dormouse populations could represent allometry and 322 dietary (or other ecological) adaptations.

323

324 Morphological traits of giant dormice

325 Cranial morphology of island giants clearly deviates from the allometric expectations, even when 326 compared to their 'predicted sizes' (i.e. best-fit sizes to the line of allometry; Figure 2). The robust 327 rostrum and narrowing of the infraorbital foramen within all fossil giants are not predicted by the 328 allometric model at any cranial size. The model predicts the zygomatic arch in giants to become more 329 enlarged posteriorly. In reality, the arch does get more robust, but its maximum width is located much 330 more anteriorly. Larger dormice show a dorso-ventral flattening of the skull and changes to the 331 posterior part of the mandible, such as an elongated coronoid process and enlarged condylar and 332 angular processes. These are areas associated with masticatory muscle attachment [45], and their 333 modification suggests relative increases in molar bite force [46,47] or gape [48,49]. Multiple studies have already shown that small changes in cranial and mandibular size and shape can affect mechanical advantage and gape, both of which will impact the range of dietary items that can be processed. This effect has been shown in a number of mammalian groups [50-53] but is particularly well-studied in rodents [54-60]. The flattening of the skull is commonly seen in more rupicolous dormice [61], although it may also be product of enlarged body size owing to negatively allometric scaling of brain size [62] and craniofacial evolutionary allometry (CREA)[63]. This pattern, which is seen in many mammalian groups, predicts relatively smaller braincases and longer rostra in larger species [64,65].

341

342 Unique features of giant dormouse species

343 Significant modifications to shape and size can result from evolutionary adaptation to novel ecologies, 344 including new diets [22]. We therefore interpret the unique morphological features identified in the 345 giant dormouse populations as reflecting specific ecological adaptations to insular settings. As well as 346 diverging from the non-giant allometric trajectory, giant dormice also differ morphologically from one 347 another. Such differences can be the result of various factors, including variation in ecosystem 348 composition, ecological niche occupation, as well as duration of isolation on islands. The introduction 349 of *Eliomys quercinus* to Formentera is thought to have occurred roughly 4000 years ago, whereas both 350 Hypnomys and Leithia were isolated for millions of years. Even though the morphology of Formentera 351 dormice does not resemble an intermediate shape between an average-sized E. quercinus and the 352 fossil giants, the differences in duration of isolation are substantial. Many population-specific aspects 353 of giant dormouse cranial, and especially mandibular, structure complement previous evidence of 354 divergent dietary and other ecological traits in these taxa.

355

356

Formentera

The Formentera dormice are the only extant giants and are morphologically different from the fossil giants. It is the only giant population retaining a large infraorbital foramen. Furthermore, the mandibular morphology of this population is characterised by a deep angular notch and relatively large 360 coronoid process, in contrast to the fossil giants. This enlarged coronoid results in a larger attachment 361 area for the temporalis muscle, suggesting an increased incisor bite force, which would be 362 advantageous for the extensive faunivorous behaviour observed within the Formentera population 363 [28]. Previous research has suggested that faunivory, more than other diets, places unique pressures 364 on rodents, driving greater morphological change [59,66]. However, this is not the case in the dormice 365 studied here, with the Formentera population resembling non-giant dormice more than the other 366 giants, based on the relatively short Procrustes distances of the best-fit in the PSvAS model (cranium 367 0.07; mandible 0.06) (Table S6).

368

369 Hypnomys

370 The Hypnomys material in our dataset is much more robust than other dormice, with the exception 371 of Leithia melitensis. The PSvAS model indicates that the morphology of this genus is substantially 372 different from extant dormice (cranium 0.10; mandible 0.08). The H. onicensis specimen examined 373 here is considered a subadult and is less robust than H. morpheus. The latter is characterised by 374 exceptionally pronounced occipital condyles. The robust morphology of the zygomatic area and 375 mandible in the two Hypnomys specimens indicates well developed masseteric musculature, which 376 suggests a diet including tough foods for this genus. A more abrasive plant-based diet has also been 377 suggested based on molar microwear [67].

378

379 Leithia

Leithia melitensis is the largest and most robust dormouse. *Hypnomys* and *Leithia* show similar morphological modifications, although these are often more pronounced within *Leithia* [32]. This also explains the relatively large Procrustes distances seen in the PSvAS model for this species (cranium 0.13; mandible 0.12). In particular, the width of the rostrum and the zygomatic plate is exceptional. The mandible within this giant has very large angular and condylar processes. It is the only giant in which there appears to be no fenestration of the angular process. However, the functional significance 386 of this fenestra is unknown. The coronoid is deflected less posteriorly, resulting in a more upright 387 position. The anterior margin of the masseteric ridge is positioned more posteriorly than in other 388 dormice and the incisor is relatively short and curves less superiorly. The cranial and mandibular 389 features seen in L. melitensis, in particular the exceptionally robust mandible, likely represent 390 adaptations to a herbivorous diet [68], possibly explaining its extraordinary size. In addition, 391 considerable variability in wear of the molar row is seen within the analysed fossil material of L. 392 melitensis (Figure S4), indicating a relatively abrasive diet against which the molars were used 393 extensively, also consistent with herbivory.

394

395 Conclusion

396 Multiple, independent dormice lineages achieved exceptional large size in insular habitats since the 397 end of the Messinian Salinity Crisis (5.33 Ma [69]). Extrapolation of common allometry as an 398 evolutionary line of least resistance on short timescales predicts that island giants could have highly 399 similar craniomandibular morphologies. Moreover, a graded trend to gigantism as proposed by the 400 island rule suggests that the importance of selective pressures within an ecosystem varies in a 401 predictable manner [13,14]. However, we find that the morphologies of giant dormice are not an 402 extrapolation along the allometric gradient of non-giant populations. This indicates that insular 403 gigantism may lead to a deviation from the otherwise strong allometric conservatism suggested to 404 exist in rodents [70]. Furthermore, the cranial and mandibular features of giant dormice contain a 405 prominent population-specific component, illustrating divergence and inherently non-predictable 406 adaptations to various different ecological niches, on different islands. These differences in the 407 evolutionary pathways of island giants may reflect differences in ecosystem composition among 408 islands and through geological time. Our findings have implications that extend beyond the study of 409 giant dormice, suggesting that island adaptation may commonly involve ecological shifts that are 410 unique and context-dependent, resulting in a high diversity of evolutionary responses to insular 411 habitats in mammals.

412

413 Acknowledgements

We thank Cesar Espinoza Campuzano for discussions on predicted size models; Antonio Profico for his assistance with the R script; Pip Brewer, Roula Pappa and Roberto Portela-Miguez (NHMUK), Irina Ruf and Thomas Lehmann (SMF), Paolo Viscardi (NMI), Violaine Nicolas (MNHM), Carolina di Patti (G.G. Gemmellaro), Maria Rita Palombo (MUST), Letizia Del Favero and Mariagabriella Fornasiero (IGUP) and Loïc Costeur (NMBA) for collections access; Dan Sykes, Farah Ahmed, Brett Clark and Paul Ward (NHMUK MicroCT scanning & data retrieval). We especially thank Tom Davies at the scanning facility in Bristol, for the many hours spent scanning dormice.

421

422 Funding Information

JJH is funded by a PhD studentship from the Hull York Medical School. The European Federation of
Experimental Morphology provided additional funding enabling the necessary visits to museum
collections throughout Europe. Funding was also provided by the European Union's Horizon 2020
research and innovation program 2014–2018 under grant agreement 677774 (European Research
Council [ERC] Starting Grant: TEMPO) to RBJB. The contribution of ET and JAA is a part of the Research
Project CGL2016-79795-R funded by the Agencia Estatal de Investigación (Ministerio de Economía,
Industria y Competitividad)/Fondo Europeo de Desarrollo Regional (FEDER).

430

431 References

- 432 1. Foster JB. 1964 Evolution of mammals on islands. *Nature* 202, 234–235.
- 433 2. Van Valen L. 1973 Pattern and the balance of nature. *Evol. Theory* 49, 31–49.
- 434 3. Freudenthal M. 1972 *Deinogalerix koenigswaldi* nov. gen., nov. spec., a giant insectivore from
 435 the Neogene of Italy. *Scripta Geol.* 14, 1-19.
- 436 4. Freudenthal M. 1976 Rodent stratigraphy of some Miocene fissure fillings in Gargano (prov.
 437 Foggia, Italy. *Scripta Geol.* 37, 1–23.

438	5.	Daams R, Freudenthal M. 1985 Stertomys laticrestatus, a new glirid (dormice, Rodentia) from
439		the insular fauna of Gargano (Prov. of Foggia, Italy). Scripta Geol. 77, 21–27.
440	6.	Freudenthal M. 1985 Cricetidae (Rodentia) from the Neogene of Gargano (Prov. of Foggia,
441		Italy). Scripta Geol. 77, 29–74.

- 442 7. Mazza P. 1987 *Prolagus apricenicus* and *Prolagus imperialis*: two new Ochotonids
 443 (Lagomorpha, Mammalia) of the Gargano (Southern Italy). *Boll. della Soc. Paleontol. Ital.* 26,
 444 233–243.
- 445 8. Angelone C. 2007 Messinian *Prolagus* (Ochotonidae, Lagomorpha) of Italy. *Geobios* 40, 407–
 446 421.
- 9. Quintana J, Köhler M, Moyà-Solà S. 2011 *Nuralagus rex*, gen. et sp. nov., an endemic insular
 giant rabbit from the Neogene of Minorca (Balearic Islands, Spain). *J. Vert. Paleontol.* 31, 231–
 240. doi: 10.1080/02724634.2011.550367.
- 450 10. Agustí J, Bover P, Alcover JA. 2012 A new genus of endemic cricetid (Mammalia, Rodentia)
 451 from the late Neogene of Mallorca (Balearic Islands, Spain). J. Vert. Palaeontol. 32, 722-726.
- 452 11. Case, TJ. 1978 A general explanation for insular body size trends in terrestrial
 453 vertebrates. *Ecology* 59, 1-18.
- 454 12. Heaney LR. 1978 Island area and body size of insular mammals: evidence from the tri-colored
 455 squirrel (*Callosciurus prevosti*) of Southeast Asia. *Evolution* 32, 29-44.
- 456 13. Lomolino MV. 1985 Body size of mammals on islands: the island rule reexamined. *Am. Nat.*457 125, 310-316.
- 458 14. Lomolino MV. 2005 Body size evolution in insular vertebrates: generality of the island rule. *J.*459 *Biogeogr.* 32, 1683-1699.
- 460 15. McNab BK. 2010 Geographic and temporal correlations of mammalian size reconsidered: a
 461 resource rule. *Oecologia* 164, 13-23.
- 462 16. van der Geer AA, Lyras GA, Lomolino MV, Palombo MR, Sax DF. 2013 Body size evolution of
 463 palaeo-insular mammals: temporal variations and interspecific interactions. *J. Biogeogr.* 40,

464 1440-1450.

- 465 17. van der Geer AA. 2014 Parallel patterns and trends in functional structures in extinct island
 466 mammals. *Integr. Zool.* 9, 167-182. doi: 10.1111/1749-4877.12066
- 467 18. Lomolino MV, van der Geer AA, Lyras GA, Palombo MR, Sax DF, Rozzi R. 2013 Of mice and
 468 mammoths: generality and antiguity of the island rule. *J. Biogeogr.* 40, 1427-1439.
- 469 19. Pélabon C, Firmat C, Bolstad GH, Voje KL, Houle D, Cassara J, Le Rouzic A, Hansen TF. 2014
 470 Evolution of morphological allometry. *Ann. NY Acad. Sci.* doi:10.1111/nyas.12470
- 471 20. Schluter D. 1996 Adaptive radiation along genetic lines of least resistance. *Evolution* 50, 1766–
 472 1774. doi:10.2307/2410734
- 473 21. Marroig G, Cheverud JM. 2010 Size as a line of least resistance II: direct selection on size or
 474 correlated response due to constraints? *Evolution: International Journal of Organic*475 *Evolution, 64*(5), 1470-1488. doi: 10.1111/j.1558-5646.2009.00920.x
- 476 22. Marroig G, Cheverud JM. 2001 A comparison of phenotypic variation and covariation patterns
 477 and the role of phylogeny. Ecology, and ontogeny during cranial evolution of New World

478 monkeys. *Evolution* 55, 2576–2600. doi:10.1111/j.0014-3820.2001.tb00770.x

- 479 23. Huxley JS. 1932 Problems of relative growth. New York, NY: Dial Press.
- 480 24. Voje KJ, Hansen TF, Egset CK, Bolstad GH, Pélabon C. 2014 Allometric constraints and the
 481 evolution of allometry. *Evolution* 68, 866–885. doi:10.1111/evo.12312
- 482 25. Lister AM. 1989 Red deer dwarfing on Jersey in the last interglacial. *Nature* 342, 539–542.
- 26. van der Geer AA, Lyras GA, de Vos J, Dermitzakis M. 2010 Evolution of Island Mammals:
 Adaptation and Extinction of Placental Mammals on Islands. Oxford, UK: Wiley-Blackwell
 Publishing.
- 486 27. Palombo MR. 2018 Insular mammalian fauna dynamics and paleogeography: a lesson from the
 487 western Mediterranean islands. *Integr. Zool.* 13, 2-20. doi: 10.1111/1749-4877.12275.
- 488 28. Kahmann H, Lau G. 1972 Der Gartenschläfer *Eliomys quercinus ophiusae* Thomas, 1925 von der
- 489 Pityuseninsel Formentera (Lebensführung). Veröffentlichtungen der zoologischen

- 490 Staatssammlung München 16, 29-49.
- 29. Daams R, De Bruijn H. 1995 A classification of the Gliridae (Rodentia) on the basis of dental
 morphology. *Hystrix*, 6 (1-2), 3-50.
- 30. Freudenthal M, Martín-Suárez E. 2013 New ideas on the systematics of Gliridae (Rodentia,
 Mammalia). [Nuevas ideas sobre la sistemática de Gliridae (Rodentia, Mammalia)]. Spanish J. *Palaeont.* 28 (2), 239-252.
- 31. Bover P, Alcover JA, Michaux JJ, Hautier L, Hutterer R. 2010 Body shape and life style of the
 extinct Balearic dormouse *Hypnomys* (Rodentia, Gliridae): new evidence from the study of
 associated skeletons. *PLoS ONE* 5, e15817.
- 499 32. Hennekam JJ, Herridge VL, Costeur L, Di Patti C, Cox PG. 2020 Virtual cranial reconstruction of
 500 the endemic gigantic dormouse *Leithia melitensis* (Rodentia, Gliridae) from Poggio Schinaldo,
 501 Sicily. *Open Quat.* 6(1), 7. doi: http://doi.org/10.5334/oq.79
- 33. Orlandi-Oliveras G, Jordana X, Moncunill-Solé B, Köhler M. 2016 Bone histology of the giant
 fossil dormouse *Hypnomys onicensis* (Gliridae, Rodentia) from Balearic Islands. *C R Palevol* 15,
- 504 238-244.
- 34. Mills DH. 1976 Osteological study of the Pleistocene dormouse *Hypnomus morpheus* Bate from
 Mallorca (Rodentia, Gliridae). *Publ. Paleontol. Inst. Univ. Uppsala* 4, 5-73.
- 507 35. Zelditch ML, Swiderski DL, Sheets HD. 2012 *Geometric morphometrics for biologists: a primer*.
 508 academic press.
- 36. Profico A, Veneziano A, Melchionna M, Raia P. 2018 Arothron: R functions for geometric
 morphometric analyses. R package version 1.0.0, <u>https://cran.r-</u>
 project.org/web/packages/Arothron/index.html
- 512 37. R Core Team, 2019. *R: A language and environment for statistical computing*. Vienna, Austria:
 513 R Foundation for Statistical Computing.
- 514 38. Rohlf FJ. 1990 Morphometrics. *Ann. Rev. Ecol. Syst.* 21, 299–316.
- 515 39. Mitteroecker P, Gunz P. 2009 Advances in geometric morphometrics. *J. Evol. Biol.* 36, 235–247.

516 doi: 10.1007/s11692-009-9055-x.

- 517 40. Schlager S. 2017 Morpho and Rvcg shape analysis in R. In *Statistical Shape and Deformation* 518 *Analysis* (eds G Zheng, S Li, GJ Székely), pp. 217–256. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- 41. Adams DC, Collyer ML, Kaliontzopoulo, A. 2018 Geomorph: Software for geometric
 morphometric analyses. R package version 3.0.6. https://cran.rproject.org/package=geomorph.
- 522 42. Klingenberg CP. 2016 Size, shape, and form: concepts of allometry in geometric 523 morphometrics. *Dev. Genes Evol.* 226, 113-137.
- 524 43. Drake AG, Klingenberg CP. 2007 The pace of morphological change: historical transformation
 525 of skull shape in St Bernard dogs. *Proc. R. Soc. B* 275, 71-76.
- 44. Mitteroecker P, Gunz P, Bernhard M, Schaefer K, Bookstein FL. 2004 Comparison of cranial
 ontogenetic trajectories among great apes and humans. *J. Human Evol.* 46, 679-698. doi:
 10.1016/j.jhevol.2004.03.006.
- 529 45. Cox PG, Jeffery N. 2015 The muscles of mastication in rodents and the function of the medial
 530 pterygoid. In *Evolution of the rodents: advances in phylogeny, functional morphology and*
- 531 *development* (eds PG Cox, L Hautier), pp. 350-372. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- 46. Hiiemae KM. 1971 The structure and function of jaw muscles in the rat (*Rattus norvegicus* L.)
 III. The mechanics of the muscles. *Zool. J. Linn. Soc.* 50, 111-132.
- 47. Weijs WA, Dantuma R. 1975 Electromyography and mechanics of mastication in the albino rat. *J. Morphol.* 146, 1-33.
- 48. Vinyard CJ, Payseur BA. 2008 Of "mice" and mammals: utilizing classical inbred mice to study
 the genetic architecture of function and performance in mammals. *Integr. Comp. Biol.* 48, 324337.
- 49. Cornette R, Herrel A, Cosson J-F, Poitevin F, Baylac M. 2012 Rapid morpho-functional changes
 among insular populations of the greater white-toothed shrew. *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 107, 322–331.
- 50. McIntosh AF, Cox PG. 2016 Functional implications of craniomandibular morphology in African

- 542 mole-rats (Rodentia: Bathyergidae). *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 117, 447-462.
- 543 51. Kiltie RA. 1982 Bite force as a basis for niche differentiation between rain forest peccaries 544 (*Tayassu tajacu* and *T. pecari*). *Biotropica* 14, 188-195.
- 545 52. Herrel A, McBrayer LD, Larsen PM. 2007 Functional basis for sexual differences in bite force in
 546 the lizard *Anolis carolinensis*. *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 91, 111–119. doi: 10.1111/j.1095547 8312.2007.00772.x
- 548 53. Herrel A, de Smet A, Aguirre LF, Aerts P. 2008 Morphological and mechanical determinants of 549 bite force in bats: do muscles matter? *J. Exp. Biol.* 211, 86-91. doi: 10.1242/jeb.012211
- 550 54. Williams SH, Peiffer E, Ford S. 2009 Gape and bite force in the rodents *Onychomys leucogaster*551 and *Peromyscus maniculatus*: Does jaw-muscle anatomy predict performance? *J.*552 *Morphol.* 270, 1338-1347.
- 553 55. Cox PG, Rayfield EJ, Fagan MJ, Herrel A, Pataky TC, Jeffery N. 2012 Functional evolution of the 554 feeding system in rodents. *PLoS ONE* 7, e36299. doi: 10.1371/journal.pone.0036299.
- 555 56. Renaud S, Gomes Rodrigues HG, Ledevin R, Pisanu B, Chapuis J-L, Hardouin EA. 2015 Fast
 556 evolutionary response of house mice to anthropogenic disturbance on a Sub-Antarctic island.
 557 *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 114, 513–526.
- 558 57. McIntosh AF, Cox PG. 2016 Functional implications of craniomandibular morphology in African
 559 mole-rats (Rodentia: Bathyergidae). *Biol. J. Linn. Soc.* 117, 447–462.
- 560 58. Cox, PG, Morris PJR, Hennekam JJ, Kitchener AC. 2020 Morphological and functional variation
 561 between isolated populations of British red squirrels. *J. Zool.* doi: 10.1111/jzo.12829
- 562 59. Fabre P-H, Herrel A, Fitriana Y, Meslin L, Hautier L. (2017). Masticatory muscle architecture in
- 563 a water-rat from Australasia (Murinae, Hydromys) and its implication for the evolution of 564 carnivory in rodents. *J. Anat.* 231(3), 380-397.
- 60. Ginot S, Herrel A, Claude J, Hautier L. 2018 Skull size and biomechanics are good estimators of
 in vivo bite force in murid rodents. *Anat. Rec.* 301, 256-266.
- 567 61. Holden-Musser ME, Juškaitis R, Musser GM. 2016 Gliridae. In Handbook of the Mammals of

- 568 *the World. Volume 6: Lagomorphs and Rodents I* (eds DE Wilson, TE Lacher, RA Mittermeier),
- 569 pp. 838-889. Barcelona, Spain: Lynx Edicions.
- 570 62. Penrose F, Kemp GJ, Jeffery N. 2016 Scaling and accommodation of jaw adductor muscles in
 571 Canidae. *Anat. Rec.* 299, 951-966.
- 572 63. Cardini A, Polly D, Dawson R, Milne N. 2015 Why the long face? Kangaroos and wallabies follow
 573 the same 'rule' of cranial evolutionary allometry (CREA) as placentals. *J. Evol. Biol.* 42(2), 169–
- 574 176. doi: 10.1007/s11692-015-9308-9
- 575 64. Radinsky LB. 1985 Approaches in evolutionary morphology: A search for patterns. *Annu Rev* 576 *Ecol Evol Syst.* 16(1), 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.es.16.110185.000245
- 577 65. Cardini, A. 2019 Craniofacial allometry is a rule in evolutionary radiations of placentals. *J. Evol.*578 *Biol.* 46(3), 239-248.
- 66. Maestri R, Patterson BD, Fornel R, Monteiro LR, De Freitas TRO. 2016 Diet, bite force and skull
 morphology in the generalist rodent morphotype. *J. Evol. Biol.*, 29(11), 2191-2204.
- 581 67. Hautier L, Bover P, Alcover JA, Michaux J. 2009 Mandible morphometrics, dental microwear
 582 pattern, and paleobiology of the extinct Balearic dormouse *Hypnomys morpheus*. *Acta*583 *Palaeontol. Pol.* 54, 181-194.
- 68. Michaux J, Chevret P, Renaud S. 2007 Morphological diversity of Old World rats and mice
 (Rodentia, Muridae) mandible in relation with phylogeny and adaptation. *J. Zool. Syst. Evol. Res.* 45, 263-279.
- 587 69. Krijgsman W, Hilgen FJ, Raffi I, Sierro FJ, Wilson DS. 1999 Chronology, causes and progression
 588 of the Messinian salinity crisis. *Nature*, 400(6745), 652-655.
- 589 70. Wilson LA. 2013 Allometric disparity in rodent evolution. *Ecol. Evol.* 3, 971-984.
- 590
- 591
- 592
- 593





Figure 1: Cranial (top) and mandibular (bottom) shape differentiation in extant *Eliomys quercinus* specimens and fossil giants on the first two principal components (A,D); the common allometric component versus log centroid size with grouping (B,E); and the predicted size versus actual size analyses based on a non-giant base model including the predicted sizes for the giant Formentera population and fossil giants (C,F).



610

Figure 2: Predicted shapes of the fossil giants derived from the PSvAS model, using the shape
predicted by the actual centroid size of the specimen and the shape presumed to be the best fit with
the actual shape of the specimen.