MORPHOLOGICAL INTEGRATION OF NATIVE SOUTH AMERICAN UNGULATE MANDIBLES. A TRIBUTE TO D’ARCY THOMPSON IN THE CENTENNIAL OF “ON GROWTH AND FORM”

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Abstract. South American native ungulates include several extinct lineages that evolved within the context of South American Cenozoic geographic isolation. By the late–early Miocene Santacrucian, the orders Notoungulata, Litopterna, and Astraphotheria were differentiated. Recent ecomorphological studies highlighted complex functional patterns between their habitat/diet and hypsodonty. In order to understand these relationships in an evolutionary context we used geometric morphometrics methods (27 3-D landmarks) to evaluate the morphological integration of two of the primary functional units of the mandible: the alveolar region and the ascending ramus. Principal component analyses (PCA) and two blocks Partial Least Squares analyses (PLS) were used to explore the patterns of variation and covariation between these two modules. The main variation in shape is related to the robusticity and curvature of the mandibular corpus, and the relative size of the angular and coronoid process. The PLS analyses show a very strong morphological integration within the Litopterna, but a pattern of modularity in the Notoungulata. There is a common pattern of covariation in Astraphotheria and Litopterna, which might be due to similar constraints. The different covariation patterns in notoungulates with respect to litopterns are in concordance with both the taxonomic and morphological diversity of the clades, particularly in the typhotheres. The modularity present in notoungulates could have allowed specializations in each module of the mandible, related to crown height or muscle attachments, without a high morphological constrain. This could have resulted in their high morphological diversity, in contrast with the more conservative morphology present in litopterns.

A century ago, in his book "On growth and form", D’Arcy Thompson (1917) tried to convince morphologists on the need of mathematical assistance in investigating the biological form. Its chapter 17, “On the Theory of Transformations, or the Comparison of Related Forms”, greatly inspired geometric morphometrics, which over the last twenty-five years has put together geometry, multivariate morphometrics, computer science, and visualization imaging techniques, making the D’Arcy Thompson’s task eventually accomplished (see Adams et al., 2013; Cardini and Loy, 2013). The best known examples of transformation series provided by D’Arcy Thompson (1917) where based on extant species, like the series from the porcupine-fish Diodon Linnaeus, 1758 to the sunfish Orthogoniscus (=Mola) mola (Linnaeus, 1758) (Thompson, 1917: figs. 525–526) or that from the human to chimpanzee skull (Thompson, 1917: figs. 548–550). However, there are also several iconic paleontological examples including the Jurassic bird Archaeopteryx Meyer, 1861 and the Cretaceous crocodylomorph Notosuchus Woodward, 1896, among others. Nevertheless, most remarkable is the attention given to the transformations of the extinct and extant Rhinocerotidae, their comparison with tapirs and the transformation from Oligocene to modern Equidae. Recently, based on molecular evidence (e.g., Welker et al., 2015), it was proposed that the Perissodactyla (i.e., rhinos, tapirs, and horses) share a common ancestor with at least two taxa of “the strangest animals ever discovered” (sensu Darwin, 1845), also known as the South American native ungulates (SANU). The SANU include several extinct lineages that evolved within the context of South American Cenozoic geographic isolation (see below). Recent ecomorphological analyses highlighted the existence of complex functional pattern related to habitat/diet and tooth dimensions in extant and extinct ungulates, including SANU. In this contribution, we aim to honor D’Arcy Thompson’s pioneering intellectual work studying these complex relationships in an evolutionary context, using geometric morphometrics methods to evaluate the morphological integration of the mandible in the Santacrucian SANU.

SANU

Several extinct South American native ungulate lineages evolved within the geographical context of isolation during much of the Cenozoic. By the late—early Miocene Santacrucian Age, an interval best documented from the Santa Cruz Formation in Southern Patagonia, to the east of the Andes, the orders Notoungulata, Litopterna, and Astrapotheria (Fig. 1) were clearly differentiated and are among the most abundant mammals of this formation. Cassini et al. (2012a) provided an updated description of the diversity of Santacrucian ungulates of the Santa Cruz Formation on, or near, the Atlantic coast of the Santa Cruz Province, which has provided the best specimens for anatomical and paleobiological studies (Vizcaíno et al., 2012). They are represented by Notoungulata (Adinotherium Ameghino, 1887a, Nesodon Owen, 1846 [Fig. 1.1], Interatherium Ameghino, 1887b [Fig. 1.2], Prototyphlatherium Ameghino, 1887b, Hegetoatherium Ameghino, 1887a and Pachyrhinos Ameghino, 1885), Litopterna (Theosodon Ameghino, 1887a, Anisalophus Burmeister, 1885, Tetramerorhinus Ameghino, 1894, Diadippoides Ameghino, 1887a [Fig. 1.3] and Thoatherium Ameghino, 1887a), and Astrapotheria (Astrapotherium Burmeister, 1879; Fig. 1.4). Among them, notoungulates present the highest diversity of size and morphology. Consequently, they were object of numerous studies on body mass estimations (Croft, 2001; Scarano et al., 2011; Cassini et al., 2012b; Elissambrur, 2012), ecomorphological characterizations (Elissambrur, 2004, 2010; Croft and Anderson, 2008; Cassini et al., 2011, 2012a; Cassini, 2013; Muñoz et al., 2017; Giannini and García-López, 2014), tooth wear and durability (Townsend and Croft, 2008; Billet et al., 2009; Reguero and Prevosti, 2010), biomechanical performance of the masticatory apparatus (Cassini and Vizcaíno, 2012), digestion physiology (Cassini et al., 2012a; Scarano et al., 2011) and the relation of dental morphology to ecological specializations (Cassini et al., 2017; Gomes Rodrigues et al., 2017). Although less diverse, litopterns reached their greatest generic richness during the Santacrucian Age (Villaflaño et al., 2006). Since Scott (1937), they have been traditionally considered mainly herbivorous inhabitants of open habitats. Perhaps due to their lower diversity and more conservative morphology, their paleobiology has been mostly neglected. However, their three main biological aspects (body mass, substrate preference and use, and feeding; sensu Vizcaíno et al., 2016) have been approached in several recent studies (Cifelli and Guerrero, 1997; Soria, 2001;
Cassini et al., 2012a,b; Cassini and Vizcaíno, 2012; Cassini, 2013). Astrapotheeres are the least diverse among Santa Cruzian ungulates and include one of the most bizarre forms, colloquially described as morphologically intermediate between a tapir and an elephant (Cassini et al., 2012a and references therein). Their paleobiology has been barely studied, but there are a few ecological reconstructions based on general morphology, enamel structure and morphometrics (Riggs, 1935; Rensberger and Pfretzschner, 1992; Croft, 1999; Cassini et al., 2012a,b; Cassini and Vizcaíno, 2012; Cassini, 2013).

A baseline paleoecological study of the mammalian fauna of the coastal Santa Cruz Formation (Vizcaíno et al., 2010) proposed as a working hypothesis that the coexistence of so many different ungulate lineages implies marked vegetation resource partitioning. Following Cassini (2013 and references therein), the major findings can be summarized as follows. Santa Cruzian ungulates can be classified into three body size categories: (i) small sized (1–10 kg); (ii) medium-sized (10–100 kg) and (iii) large-sized ungulates (100–1000 kg). Notoungulates were characterized as open habitat dwellers, with some taxa foraging on grass (Protopotherium, Interatherium) and others on grass and leaves (Hegetotherium, Pachyrukhos, and Adinotherium). Nesodon may have dwelled in mixed habitats and had a mixed feeding behavior, while small proterotheriids (Anisolophus and Thoatherium) may have fed predominantly on dicotyledonous plants. The remaining litopterns (Tetrameroshinus, Diadiaphorus, and Theosodon) and Astrapotherium may have foraged in closed habitats and fed on dicotyledonous plants. The relationship between dental occlusal surface and body mass indicates that litopterns, especially proterotheriids, carried out extensive intraoral food processing rather than having relied on a specialized digestive physiology. Conversely, notoungulates, which have lower occlusal surface per unit mass, would have had a better digestive capacity than litopterns.

**Morphological integration**

Morphological integration refers to the coordination in size and shape of the different parts of an organism to result on a functional whole (Klingenberg, 2013), and can be traced to the classical morphological studies, being a seminal part of the ideas of Georges Cuvier (Mayr, 1982). A concept closely related to integration is modularity. It refers to the relation between parts (modules) which are tightly integrated internally, but relatively independent from other modules (Klingenberg, 2008).

Morphological integration and modularity can be addressed through the study of the covariation among morphological traits that would reflect the patterns of connectivity between the parts of the network (Klingenberg, 2013). These concepts can be applied in different contexts depending on the level of analysis. The examination of data from different ontogenetic stages of a species could be used on an onto-
genetic integration analysis or the study of evolutionary changes; the coordination among parts between related species could help to understand evolutionary integration (Klingenberg, 2008, 2013).

In this work we study the evolutionary integration within the mandible and the modularity between two of its primary functional units, the alveolar region and the ascending ramus, in Santacrucian notoungulates, litopterns, and asttrapotheres.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Specimens

We investigated 18 mandibles of Santacrucian ungulates based on their morphological integrity (i.e., with no apparent deformation, as well as landmark availability). Specimens are housed in the paleontological collections of the American Museum of Natural History (AMNH, New York, USA), Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales “Bernardino Rivadavia”, Ameghino Collection and Santa Cruz Collection (MACN-A and MACN-SC, Buenos Aires, Argentina), Museo Regional Provincial Padre M. Jesús Molina, (MPM-PV, Río Gallegos, Argentina), and Yale Peabody Museum, Vertebrate Paleontology, Princeton University Collection, (YPM-VPPU, New Haven, USA).

Landmark data

The mandibular shape was quantified by 3D landmark coordinates acquired with a Microscribe G2L digitizer (Im-
The dataset is a subset originated from the study of Cassini (2013) and includes: five toxodontids and six typotheres (Notoungulata); four proterotheriids and one macrauchenid (Litopterna); and one astrapothere (Astrapotheria) (see Appendix I).

The data consist of 27 mandibular landmarks, including type I (or anatomic), II (or mathematic), and III (or semilandmarks). Cassini (2013) characterized the curves taken more semi-landmarks than defined, and then reduced in number and equispaced using “resample” software of NYCEP (Reddy et al., 2007). The semilandmarks L20 to L22 characterize the caudal border of the mandibular angle along the masseter scar; L8 to L11 and L13 to L14, the rostral and caudal border of coronoid process, respectively; and L24 to L27, the ventral margin of mandibular corpus (see Tab. 1 and Fig. 2.1).

**Geometric morphometrics**

In order to remove the spatial variation that does not correspond to shape, the landmark configurations were superimposed, applying rotation, translation, reflection and scaling transformations, using Generalized Procrustes Analysis (Rohlf, 1990). A principal component analysis (PCA) was carried out on the aligned landmark configurations to search for variation patterns in the whole mandible.

To explore the patterns of covariation between the two primary functional units of the mandible, we define the Block-1 as being composed of the alveolar region (L1-7, L24-27), and the Block-2 of the ascending ramus (L8-23) (Fig 2.1). Here we use two distinct analytical approaches to evaluate modularity: one based on partial least squares (Mitteroecker and Bookstein, 2008) and another based on Escoufier’s RV coefficient (Klingenberg, 2009).

The Partial Least Squares analysis (PLS) was used to find correlated pairs of linear combinations between two blocks of landmarks within the configuration. Following Klingenberg (2013), the use of a common shape space for both blocks allows examining the covariation between them in the context of the structure as a whole and taking into account all aspects of covariation, (e.g., relative sizes and arrangement of the parts). Additionally, we used two independent Procrustes fits to analyze the shape covariation of the two blocks (from here on “separate fit analysis”). This approach ignores the anatomical connection of the two blocks, and detects only the shared aspects of covariation between them (Klingenberg, 2009). In these morphometric analyses (PCA and PLS), the results produce vectors in shape space. The difference between both analyses is that PCA accounts for overall variation throughout the entire landmark configuration; while PLS does it on the major covariation between blocks (Klingenberg, 2013). Therefore, in order to compare those variation components (i.e., to

![Figure 2. 1. Landmark configuration and partitions (blocks) on Adinotherium mandible. 2–3. Connectivity of landmarks for testing modularity hypothesis on contiguous partitions on lateral norm and occlusal norm. Reference: red, alveolar ramus; blue, ascending ramus. Definitions in Table 1.](image-url)
examine the shape changes similarity between each PC and PLS, we performed an angular comparison of vectors directions. The angles between these vectors were computed as the arccosines of the inner products between them, and compared under the null hypothesis of orthogonality (Drake and Klingenberg, 2008; Klingenberg and Marugán-Lobón, 2013). When these angles are close to zero then both analyses are similar and consequently share a similar shape change.

The hypothesis of modularity between the two blocks was tested by means of the Escoufier’s RV coefficient. This coefficient was introduced by Klingenberg (2009) to quantify the strength of covariation between blocks. The RV coefficient could be interpreted as a multivariate generalization of the squared correlation coefficient that allows evaluating whether an a priori partitioning of landmarks, with a defined connectivity network (Fig. 2.2 and 2.3), exhibits the expected covariation under the null hypothesis of modularity.

To evaluate the morphological integration in an evolutionary context and avoid biases due to better representation of some species in the sample (e.g., Nesodon and Interatherium), we worked on the averaged species configurations. Consequently, when the identified modularity relates to constraints (or lack thereof), in the sense of hindering more diversification through the biased generation of variation, the interpretations refer to a macroevolutionary integration and modularity, instead of being measured at the population level.

Additionally, we evaluated the morphological integration on the notoungulates and litopterns separately. A symmetrical Procrustes rotation was used to compare the similarities of two ordinations (PLS scores) of these subsets regarding the averaged species analyses. Procrustes rotation uses uniform scaling and rotation to minimize the squared differences between two ordinations. The significance was assessed by permutation of the complete enu-
eration on Vegan 2.4–3 package in R 3.4.1 (Oksanen et al., 2017; R Development Core Team, 2017). Finally, for the two clades (Notoungulata and Litopterna) morphological disparity (MD) was considered in order to compare their diversity. Following Zelditch et al. (2004), MD was calculated as the trace of the covariance matrix of the principal component scores (see also, Wilson, 2013; Echarri and Prevosti, 2015). The 95% confidence intervals for each MD were estimated using a jackknife procedure (Quenouille, 1956), reporting results from untrimmed (full set of jackknife pseudovalues used) and trimmed (with the smallest pseudovalues removed in the calculations) confidence intervals (Manly, 2006).

To assess the influence of phylogenetic signal, the analyses above were repeated using a phylogenetic comparative method. In doing so, a tree representing the phylogenetic relationships of the species of the sample was built based on phylogenetic hypotheses available in the literature (Nasif et al., 2000; Billet, 2010, 2011; Reguero and Prevosti, 2010; Schmidt, 2015). The reconstructed phylogenetic tree (Fig. 3) was projected into the tangent shape space of the PC scores computed from the mandibular averaged configurations to explore the morphospaces occupied by each clade. The ancestral states of internal nodes were reconstructed based on squared-change parsimony (Maddison, 1991). Evolutionary integration between the two blocks was studied with PCA and PLS on the independent contrasts (Bastir et al., 2010; Klingenberg and Marugán-Lobón, 2013).

All the morphometrics were performed on MorphoJ 1.06b software (Klingenberg, 2011). In addition, significance of all analyses was assessed by 10000 rounds of permutation tests. Visualization and graphics were made using the Morpho R package 2.5.1 (Schlager, 2017).

RESULTS

Species variation

The PCA of averaged species (PCAw) resulted in five PCs accounting for nearly 90% of the total variation. PCAw1 explained ~49% of the total variance, and PCAw2 and PCAw3 about 13% and 11%, respectively. These three PCs account for most of the 70% cumulative variance. The shape changes associated to the first two eigenvectors are shown in Figure 4. Only the shape changes associated with the first eigenvector were similar to the corresponding PCs from Cassini (2013) with an angle between vectors of 32.407°; p<0.00001 after 10000 rounds of permutation tests. It ranges from a robust, curved mandibular corpus and expanded coronoid and angular processes on the negative end, to a gracile, straight mandibular corpus and reduced coronoid and angular

Figure 4. PCAw of Santacrucian ungulate specimens. 1–2, thin plate spline gridlines of mandibular shape (lateral norm) of: 1, most negative and positive first component; 2, most negative and positive second component; 3, taxa distribution on the morphospace depicted by the two first PC. Reference: Astrapotheria: red circle, Litopterna: blue range circles, Notoungulata: green range circles; phylogenetic mapping: grey line; silhouettes as in Figure 3.
processes on the positive end (Fig. 4.1). The PCw2 represents shape changes mainly associated with a robust alveolar region and gracile angular region on negative values, and a gracile alveolar and a more developed angular region towards positive ones. These changes include a large diastema and short premolar tooth row plus a less developed coronoid and angular processes on negative values (Fig. 4.2). On the positive side, there is no diastema with large premolar tooth row plus a well-developed coronoid and angular processes. The notoungulates, except for Pachyrhkos, clusters on the negative side on PCw1 (Fig. 4.3). Pachyrhkos is located on the positive side on PCw1 and negative side on PCw2. The interatheriids are close to zero on PCw2 and the nesodontines Adinotherium and Ne sodon have negative values on PCw2. Among Litopterna, proterotheriids have low positive values on PCw1, but high on PCw2. In contrast, Theosodon garretorum lies on high positive values on PCw1 but low on PCw2. The astrapothere clusters close to Pachyrhkos with intermediate values on PCw1 between proterotheriids and Theosodon, but has the most negative value on PCw2. In this morphospace, the whole sample has a morphological disparity (MDw) of 0.0174 (with 0.0168–0.0181 and 0.0170–0.0182; untrimmed and trimmed 95% confidence intervals, respectively). The notoungulates have a higher morphological disparity than the litopterns (MDn ~0.0154 vs. MDl ~0.00968). The untrimmed 95% confidence intervals for these two clades (Cln 0.01268–0.01809 and CIl 0.00618–0.01319) showed a small superposition (~0.00051). On the contrary, the trimmed 95% confidence intervals of notoungulates and litopterns showed no superposition (Cln 0.01549–0.01732 and CIl 0.009328–0.01245, respectively).

The reported results were consistent when the analyses were repeated on the independent contrast (see supplementary material 01). The PCA on the independent contrast (PCAic) resulted in five PCs accounting for nearly 85% of the total variation. PCic1 explained ~42% of the total variance, and PCic2 and PCic3 about 16% and 13%, respectively. These three PCs account for most of the 71% cumulative variance. The shape changes associated to the first eigenvector were similar to the PCw1 with an angle between vectors of 20.68°, p<0.00001 after 10000 rounds of permutation tests.

### Table 2 – Mandibular Partial Least Squares analyses for each data set.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data set</th>
<th>Pair of axes</th>
<th>Singular value</th>
<th>S.v. p-value</th>
<th>% Total covar.</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Corr. p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Species averaged</td>
<td>PLSw1</td>
<td>0.00407</td>
<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
<td>87.87</td>
<td>0.931</td>
<td>0.0020</td>
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<td>PLSw2</td>
<td>0.00092 *</td>
<td>0.8073</td>
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<td>0.0114</td>
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<tr>
<td>Independent contrast</td>
<td>PLSic1</td>
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<td>&lt;0.0001</td>
<td>79.83</td>
<td>0.936</td>
<td>0.0094</td>
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<td></td>
<td>PLSic2</td>
<td>0.00058 *</td>
<td>0.1859</td>
<td>10.13</td>
<td>0.932</td>
<td>0.0212</td>
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<tr>
<td>Notoungulata</td>
<td>PLSn1</td>
<td>0.00398</td>
<td>0.0393</td>
<td>85.09</td>
<td>0.881 *</td>
<td>0.2022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLSn2</td>
<td>0.00139 *</td>
<td>0.0934</td>
<td>10.37</td>
<td>0.896 *</td>
<td>0.2073</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litopterna</td>
<td>PLS1</td>
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<td>0.984</td>
<td>0.0320</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLS2</td>
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<td>6.39</td>
<td>0.961 *</td>
<td>0.0498</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cassini (2013)</td>
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<td>0.0031</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLS2</td>
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<td>0.0201</td>
<td>6.78</td>
<td>0.842</td>
<td>0.0008</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLS: Partial Least Squares; S.v. p-value: permutation test on Singular values; % Total covar.: Total covariance percent; Correlation: Pearson correlation coefficients between PLS scores of Block 1 and Block 2; Corr. p-value: permutation test on correlation values from the PLS scores. All tests were significant at 0.05 level after 10000 round permutations, except those tagged by an asterisk.
Morphological integration

Species averaged. The PLS analysis on the averaged species (PLSw; Fig. 5) shows that the first two pairs of PLSw explains the 93% of covariation (Tab. 2) and their shape changes vectors are very similar to those of the two first components of PCAw (angle between vectors: 4.42° and 21.01° respectively; both p < 0.00001 after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). In addition, the PLSw1 vector (88% of covariation) shows an angle with PC1 of Cassini (2013) of 33.03°, p<0.00001 as the PCAw (see above).

The PLSw1 vectors were visualized as surface plus thin plate spline gridlines deformations in Figure 5.1. The shape changes associated to the first block (red) ranges from a slender and rostrocaudally elongated symphysis with a low and straight alveolar ramus (on the negative end) to a short and vertically oriented mandibular symphysis with the alveolar ramus being deeper toward the third molar (on the positive end; Fig. 5.1). These shape changes correlate to the following shapes in the second block (blue), which ranges from a less developed coronoid process and masseteric fossa and a relative low position of the condyle (on the negative end) to a more developed coronoid process and masseteric fossa and a high position of the condyle (on the positive end; Fig. 5.1). The PLSw1 scores show a high correlation between blocks (r = 0.931, p < 0.002 after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). The litopterns and the astrapothere cluster on the double negative quadrant, showing a common pattern of covariation mainly associated to gracile mandibles (Fig. 5.2). Conversely, the notoungulates, with the exception of Pachyrukhos, lie on the double positive quadrant, but the dimensions displayed a clear distinction between species suggesting a slightly different pattern of covariation in the various families of the order (Fig. 5.2). On the one hand, toxodonts and Protatherium spp. seem to depart with opposite tendencies from the common pattern of covariation. On the other hand, Pachyrukhos (which clusters with proterotheriids and the astrapothere) and Interatherium share the same covariation pattern of all Santacrucian ungulates.

The PLSw2 vectors were visualized as surface plus thin plate spline gridlines deformations in Figure 5.3. The shape changes associated to the first block (red) ranges from a short, robust and straight alveolar ramus in particular at the
postcanine teeth (on the negative end) to long, slender and curved alveolar ramus (on the positive end; Fig. 5.3). These shape changes correlate to the following shapes in the second block (blue): on the negative side by a curved rostral margin of the mandibular angle and coronoid process along the m. temporal insertion, as well as the ventral and caudal margin of the mandibular angle along the m. masseter-pterygoid insertion; on the positive side by a more straight rostral margin of the mandibular angle and coronoid process along the m. temporal insertion, as well as the ventral (but not caudal) margin of the mandibular angle along the m. masseter-pterygoid insertion (on the positive end; Fig. 5.1). The PLS\textsubscript{w2} scores showed a high correlation between blocks (Fig. 5.4 and Tab. 2; \( r = 0.898, p < 0.0114 \) after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). In this morphospace, all litopterns cluster together in the double positive quadrant. All Santacrucian taxa seem to share a common pattern of covariation, with the exception of \textit{Pachyrukhos} and \textit{Astrapotherium}, which depart with opposite tendencies.

In the separate fit analysis, the PLS showed that the two first dimensions were significant and explain \(~73\%) of covariation (Tab. 3) and the scores have a high correlation between blocks (\( r = 0.851, p < 0.0418 \) after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). The shape changes vectors of these dimensions were similar but inverted (negative and positive sides) to the corresponding PLS\textsubscript{w1} but with less changes on the rostroventral margin of the mandibular symphysis on the first block (Landmarks 1 and 2; supplementary material 01) and in the second block a more reduced coronoid process (Landmarks 11 to 14; supplementary material 01).

In the modularity analyses, the RV coefficient (RV\textsubscript{wsf}) was 0.492 with a p-value after 10.000 permutation rounds of 0.0415 (supplementary material 01). These results keep consistent when repeated on the independent contrast (see supplementary material 01). The PLS analyses on the independent contrast (PLS\textsubscript{icsf}) showed that the first dimension explains about 80\% of covariation (Tab. 2) and the scores have a high correlation between blocks (\( r = 0.934, p < 0.0032 \) after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). The shape changes of PLS\textsubscript{icsf1} vectors were similar to the corresponding PLS\textsubscript{w1} with an angle between vectors of 21.014\(^\circ\) (\( p < 0.00001 \) after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). The obtained RV coefficient on the inde-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data set</th>
<th>Pair of axes</th>
<th>Singular value</th>
<th>S.v. p-value</th>
<th>% Total covar.</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Corr. p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Species averaged</td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{w1}</td>
<td>0.00796</td>
<td>0.0436</td>
<td>73.28</td>
<td>0.851</td>
<td>0.0418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{w2}</td>
<td>0.00332 *</td>
<td>0.5613</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>0.683 *</td>
<td>0.4249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Independent contrast</td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{icsf1}</td>
<td>0.0023 *</td>
<td>0.6486</td>
<td>43.033</td>
<td>0.681 *</td>
<td>0.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{icsf2}</td>
<td>0.00166 *</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>22.422</td>
<td>0.831 *</td>
<td>0.1434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notoungulata</td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{nsf1}</td>
<td>0.00899 *</td>
<td>0.2313</td>
<td>76.21</td>
<td>0.854 *</td>
<td>0.1932</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{nsf2}</td>
<td>0.00445</td>
<td>0.0427</td>
<td>18.66</td>
<td>0.830 *</td>
<td>0.4721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Litopterna</td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{lsf1}</td>
<td>0.00601 *</td>
<td>0.3302</td>
<td>77.0</td>
<td>0.870 *</td>
<td>0.6492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PLS\textsubscript{lsf2}</td>
<td>0.00279 *</td>
<td>0.199</td>
<td>16.61</td>
<td>0.914 *</td>
<td>0.4472</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLS: Partial Least Squares; S.v. p-value: permutation test on Singular values; % Total covar.: Total covariance percent; Correlation: Pearson correlation coefficients between PLS scores of Block 1 and Block 2; Corr. p-value: permutation test on correlation values from the PLS scores. All tests were significant at 0.05 level after 10000 round permutations, except those tagged by an asterisk.
pendent contrasts (RVic) was of 0.771 and 3364 of 43634 possible contiguous partitions resulted with RVic less than the a priori hypothesis given a proportion of 0.079. In the separate fit analysis, the PLS showed that the two first dimensions explain ~43% of covariation, but were not significantly correlated (Tab. 3). In addition, the RV coefficient (RVicsf) was 0.379 with a p-value after 10,000 permutation rounds of 0.4387 (supplementary material 01).

**Notoungulates.** The PLS analyses on notoungulates (PLSn) shows that the first pairs of PLSn explains the 85% of covariation (Tab. 2), and their shape changes vectors are similar with the first dimension of averaged species PLSn1 (Fig. 6.1; angle between vectors of 35.36°; p<0.00001). The PLSn1 scores show a high but not significant correlation between blocks (Fig. 6.2 and Tab. 2); r = 0.88, p=0.202 after 10,000 rounds of permutation tests. The Procrustes correlation test (Proc. Corr. = 0.9957; p=0.00139) indicates that the morphospace depicted by this pair of PLSn seems to be a subspace from that of averaged species analyses (PLSw).

The calculated RV coefficient on notoungulates (RVn) was 0.6788 and only 46 of 43634 possible contiguous partitions resulted with RVn less than the a priori hypothesis given a proportion of 0.00106. In the separate fit analysis, the PLS showed that the two first dimensions explain ~76% of covariation, but were not significantly correlated (Tab. 3). In addition, the RV coefficient (RVnsf) was 0.571 with a p-value after 10,000 permutation rounds of 0.1468 (supplementary material 01).

**Litopterns.** The PLS analyses on litopterns (PLSl) shows that the first pairs of PLSl explains more than 91% of covariation (Tab. 2), and their shape changes vectors are near similar with the first dimension of averaged species PLS/l (Fig. 6.3;
angle between vectors of 36.29°; \( p<0.00001 \). The PLS1 scores show an extremely high significant correlation between blocks (Fig. 6.4; \( r=0.984, \ p<0.032 \) after 10000 rounds of permutation tests). The Procrustes correlation test (Proc. Corr. = 0.9953; \( p=0.0083 \)) indicates that the morphospace depicted by this pair of PLS/ seems to be a subspace from that of averaged species analyses (PLS\(_w\)). The calculated RV coefficient on litopterns (RV) was 0.95 and as much as 15700 of 43634 possible contiguous partitions resulted with RV/less than the a priori hypothesis given a proportion of 0.3598. In the separate fit analysis, the PLS showed that the two first dimensions explain ~77% of covariation, but were not significantly correlated (Tab. 3). In addition, the RV coefficient (RVlsf) was 0.656 with a \( p \)-value after 10.000 permutation rounds of 0.3072 (supplementary material 01).

**DISCUSSION**

As mentioned above, D’Arcy Thompson (1917) aimed to incorporate mathematics to describe the morphological variation, a “dream […] now realized” by geometrics morphometrics (Adams et al., 2013: p. 12). The methods of geometric morphometrics are suitable for investigating morphological integration and modularity, an issue already present in Darcy’ thoughts: “If [the morphologist] is from time to time constrained to admit the existence of “correlation” between characters […] yet all the while he recognises this fact of correlation somewhat vaguely” Thompson (1917: p. 1036).

**Species variation**

Mandible was of particular interest by paleobiologists because reflects masticatory function better than the cranium (Janis, 1995; Vizcaíno and Bargo, 1998; Bargo and Vizcaíno, 2008; Mendoza and Palmaqvist, 2008; Cassini, 2013 and references therein). Despite the fact that our dataset is small and consists only of an average of the best preserved specimens of each species, the results presented here are in general in agreement with those of Cassini (2013). The most evident pattern found was the shape changes associated to slender vs. robust jaws, which seem to be repeated in many ungulate clades, but also in carnivores and xenarthrans (De Esteban-Trivigno, 2011; Fraser and Theodor, 2011; Meloro and O’Higgins, 2011; Cassini, 2013; Echarri and Prevosti, 2015). Results were similar between the PCA of averaged species and independent contrast (i.e., PCAw and PCAic), in which forms with robust mandible are characterized by an acute angle between the mandibular corpus and the ramus, whereas forms with slender mandibles are characterized by an obtuse angle. According to Cassini (2013), this pattern, as well as the thickness of the mandibular corpus and the length of the diastema between incisors and premolars, reflects allometric scaling.

The notoungulates showed higher morphological disparity than the litopterns. Indeed, it seems to be that most of the whole sample MD index (~0.0174) is mostly accounted by the notoungulates (~ 0.0154). These findings are in accordance with the long-held idea that Notoungulata constitutes the most abundant and diverse clade of endemic South American ungulates, either taxonomically or morphologically as in body size range. In this respect, the Santacrucian notoungulates were not an exception (see Cassini et al., 2012a, and references therein).

**Morphological integration**

Following Klingenberg (2008), there is a well-established hypothesis that the mandible consist of two separate functional modules (i.e., alveolar ramus and ascending ramus). In our results, considering the averaged species PLS\(_w\) analyses, the same PCAw morphological pattern emerged. In addition, the angular comparison of shape change vectors of both analyses (PCAw and PLS\(_w\)) indicated that the pattern of variation across the entire mandibles is shared with the patterns of covariation between the alveolar-ascending rami. In fact, this is usually associated to a large amount of integration between modules (Klingenberg and Zaklan, 2000). In the morphospace depicted by first dimension of PLS\(_w\) (Fig. 5.2), it seems clear that this morphological variation-covariation is shared by all the Santacrucian ungulates but nesodontines (Adinotherium and Nesodon) and Protopatherium spp. While in nesodontines departing in covariation pattern is accounted by the alveolar region, in Protopatherium spp. is accounted by the ascending region. It is remarkable that notoungulates, represented here by three families, occupy a larger portion of the covariation morphospace than litopterns. Additionally, the shape...
changes associated to the double negative quadrant of PLSw covariation-morphospace (litopterns, astrapothere plus *Pachyrhukhos*) look more like a modern ungulate (i.e., artiodactyls and perissodactyls) than the double positive quadrant (nesodontines plus interatheriids), which resemble that of hyraxes. Studying the biomechanics of the masticatory apparatus of Santacrucian ungulates, Cassini and Vizcaíno (2012) found similar convergences. While the litopterns resemble the mechanical design of camelids and astrapotheres that of tapirs, only *Pachyrhukhos*, among notoungulates, possesses the characteristic leverage ratio (masseter vs. temporal) of other extant herbivores (i.e., equids).

Testing a priori modularity hypothesis, the RV coefficients using a common shape space were always greater than those using the separate Procrustes fit analysis. This is in agreement with Klingenberg (2009, 2013), because in the first case we evaluate all aspects of covariation (i.e., the structure as a whole) whereas, in the second case, we only deal with the shared shape changes not related to relative size and position of each block (i.e., both blocks taken separately). Besides this difference in RV values, the analyses are mainly consistent when rejecting or not the null hypotheses of integration. In the case of notoungulates, this is contradictory because the analysis based on the common shape space rejects the null hypothesis of integration, whereas the one using the separate Procrustes fit does not. One possible explanation is that, in the common shape space, we deal with the allometric aspects of covariation, particularly the change in the angle between the two rami (e.g., acute angle in the smaller notoungulates and an obtuse angle in the larger ones; see Cassini, 2013). As we wish to consider the interaction between the two blocks, we will discuss only those results related with the common shape space analyses.

Testing a priori modularity hypothesis, the RVw coefficient rejects the null hypothesis of integration (with a marginally significant p = 0.033), contradicting the PLSw results. We could understand this contradiction considering the statement of Klingenberg et al. (2003: p. 530) “modularity in the mandible appears to be a question of degrees, not a black-white matter”. Alternatively, it could be explained by different tendencies between clades. In fact, the permutation test on the RVic does not allow rejecting the null hypothesis of integration between alveolar-ascending rami. This suggests that these results may be constrained by the phylogenetic history, and must be evaluated at different levels of the taxonomic hierarchy.

The two distinct analytical approaches to evaluate modularity (i.e., PLS and RV) within clades (i.e., litopterns and notoungulates) do not show the aforementioned contradictions. In litopterns, the PLS/ scores shows an extremely high and significant correlation (r= 0.995; p=0.0083) and a high but non-significant observed Escoufier’s RV value (RV= 0.95; p=0.36), suggesting a strong morphological integration. Conversely, in notoungulates, the PLSn scores show a lower and non-significant correlation (r= 0.88; p=0.202) and a low and significant observed Escoufier’s RV value (RVn =0.679; p=0.001), suggesting evidence of modularity (but see above).

**Functional implications**

Previous studies on Santacrucian ungulates paleobiology recall in the role of the morphological traits related to the masticatory muscles (attached to the ascending ramus) and crown height or hypsodonty (related to the alveolar ramus). Litopterns have very similar masticatory muscle architecture and lever arms between them (e.g., the great development of the sagittal crest and origin of the temporal muscle, as well as a great surface available for the insertion of the masseter muscle) and low hypsodonty indices (HI) that ranges from 0.78 to 1.33 (Cassini et al., 2012a; Cassini and Vizcaíno, 2012; Cassini, 2013). Conversely, notoungulates show a different muscle architecture and lever arms between them (e.g., in both nesodontines and interatheriids the temporal is well developed whereas in the hegetotheriid *Pachyrhukhos* it is poorly developed) and high HI, from 3.24 to 7.76, including euhypsodont and protohypsodont (sensu Mones, 1982) taxa (Cassini et al., 2011, 2012a; Cassini and Vizcaíno, 2012; Cassini, 2013). Our results suggest a strong morphological integration in the mandible of litopterns (and perhaps the astrapotheres) and modularity in the notoungulates. The common pattern of covariation found in the astrapotheres and litopterns might be due to similar constraints (developmental, functional and/or biomechanical). It is noteworthy that the two taxa with nasal retraction lie on the
most negative end of covariation axis of PLSw, associated to a slender mandible. This was also highlighted by Cassini and Vizcaíno (2012). In their study, these authors concluded that Theosodon and Astrapotherium have a gracile masticatory system, unable to have a powerful bite, particularly at the anterior region of the jaw. The modularity present in notoungulates would have allowed different kinds of specializations in the masticatory musculature and the crown height of molars, without a marked morphological constrain. Consequently, this modularity would have permitted the morphological diversification seen in notoungulates, in contrast with the more conservative morphology within litopterns.

As a working hypothesis, we propose that the two functional modules in the mandible (alveolar and ascending rami) must have their counterparts in the cranium. The masticatory muscles and their origin and insertion areas could be modeling shape variation on the ascending ramus and the cranial vault, including the zygomatic arch. At the same time, the crown height and the spaces required for accommodate the teeth could be modeling the alveolar ramus and the rostrum. On the one hand, a strong morphological integration between these two units could drive to more conservative skulls and perhaps a constraining use of resources (e.g., proterotheriids were likely browsers in closed habitats; see Scott (1910); Cifelli and Guerrero (1997); Soria (2001); Villafañe et al. (2006); Cassini et al. (2012a); Cassini (2013) and references therein). On the other hand, a weak morphological integration between these units (i.e., modularity) could relay in a high degree of freedom of morphological change, allowing a large diversification. For example, hypsodonty evolved at least four times within notoungulates (in the toxodontids, interatheriids, mesotheriide and hegetotheriids; Croft and Weinstein, 2008), in parallel with a broad arrange of anatomical traits related to the sensorial organs.

Finally, sharing D’Arcy Thompson’s passion for understanding animal forms based on mathematical and physical ideas, we aimed to honor his pioneer work. Today, in the computer era, the analytical study of form help us to detect patterns useful to elucidate the fascinating evolutionary history of the South American endemic ungulates.

CONCLUSIONS

By the late–early Miocene Santacrucian Age, the two main linages of South American ungulates, litopterns and notoungulates, plus astrapotheres were clearly differentiated and made a different use of food resources. On the available evidence, litopterns and notoungulates present different covariation patterns and strength of association between the two functional units of the mandibles (alveolar and ascending rami). These issues are in concordance with both the higher taxonomic and morphological diversity of the notoungulates, particularly the typotheres. Still remains to be tested whether modularity allows different kinds of specializations in the masticatory musculature and the crown height of cheek teeth, without a marked morphological constrain. However, it is likely that the hypsodonty not only integrates a character complex with tooth occlusal complexity and surface area, but also with mandibular shape. Indeed, as D’Arcy Thompson (1917; p. 1032) pointed out “In a very large part of morphology, our essential task lies in the comparison of related forms rather than in the precise definition of each”.

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REFERENCES

Billet, G. 2011. Phylogeny of the Notoungulata (Mammalia) based


APPENDIX I

List of Santacrucian ungulate mandibles examined in this work including taxonomic identifications and collection numbers.


**Astrapotheria.** Astrapotheriidae: *Astrapotherium magnum* AMNH 9278.

* missasigned as 3959 in Cassini (2013).