

1 Fluctuations in Evolutionary Integration Allow for Big Brains and Disparate Faces

2 Kory M. Evans<sup>1</sup>, Brandon T. Waltz<sup>1</sup>, Victor A. Tagliacollo<sup>2</sup>, Brian L. Sidlauskas<sup>3</sup> & James S.

3 Albert<sup>1</sup>

4 <sup>1</sup> University of Louisiana at Lafayette, Department of Biology, P.O. Box 42451, Lafayette, LA

5 70504, USA. kxe9300@louisiana.edu (KME), btw6589@louisiana.edu (BTW),

6 jalbert@louisiana.edu (JSA)

7 <sup>2</sup> Universidade Estadual Paulista, Júlio de Mesquita Filho, Câmpus de Botucatu, Botucatu,

8 Brazil. victor\_tagliacollo@yahoo.com.br (VAT)

9 <sup>3</sup>Oregon State University, Department of Fisheries and Wildlife, 104 Nash Hall

10 Corvallis, OR 97331, USA. brian.sidlauskas@oregonstate.edu

11  
12 Manuscript in prep. For: Scientific Reports

13  
14  
15 **Key words:** Developmental Constraints, Functional Constraints, Phenotypic Variation,

16 Phylogenetic Disparity, Rates of Evolution, Modularity

17

18 **Abstract:**

19 In theory, evolutionary modularity allows anatomical structures to respond differently to  
20 selective regimes, thus promoting morphological diversification. These differences can then  
21 influence the rate and direction of phenotypic evolution among structures. Here we use  
22 geometric morphometrics and phenotypic matrix statistics to compare rates of craniofacial  
23 evolution and estimate evolvability in the face and braincase modules of a clade of teleost fishes  
24 (Gymnotiformes) and a clade of mammals (Carnivora), both of which exhibit substantial  
25 craniofacial diversity. We find that the face and braincase regions of both clades display different  
26 degrees of integration. We find that the face and braincase evolve at similar rates in  
27 Gymnotiformes and the reverse in Carnivora with the braincase evolving twice as fast as the  
28 face. Estimates of evolvability and constraints in these modules suggest differential responses to  
29 selection arising from fluctuations in phylogenetic integration, thus influencing differential rates  
30 of skull-shape evolution in these two clades.

31

32 [Introduction]

33           The covariation biological structures in evolution and development has played a key role  
34 in structuring the phenotypic diversity of living and extinct organisms<sup>1,2,3</sup>. In theory, high levels  
35 of covariation among structures (i.e. integration) can constrain the range of producible  
36 phenotypes, as a result of a highly integrated pleiotropic network that slows the rate of evolution  
37 within these structures. Low levels of covariation relative to self-similarity (i.e. modularity) are  
38 posited to have the opposite effect, facilitating the evolution of functional specialization by  
39 relaxing the effects of an integrated pleiotropic network, thus allowing different modules to  
40 respond independently to selective forces<sup>4,5</sup>. This hypotheses was supported by a simulation  
41 study on mammal skulls by Marroig, Shirai<sup>4</sup>. In this study, clades with high integration  
42 exhibited a limited response to selection due to pleiotropic networks, integrating changes among  
43 associated parts and globalizing the effects of mutations. This integrated network was found to  
44 limit the capacity of the system as a whole to respond to selection. Contrariwise, clades with  
45 more modular phenotypes demonstrated more lability to selective forces.

46           The study of modularity in macroevolution has gained traction in recent years as  
47 investigators measure evolutionary and developmental covariation among embryologically or  
48 functionally defined modules<sup>6,7,8</sup>. The vertebrate skull has become a favorite model of  
49 evolutionary modularity and integration<sup>9,10</sup>, perhaps because of its remarkable diversification  
50 and specialization in every major vertebrate lineage<sup>11</sup>. The skull also performs a wide range of  
51 functions, including protecting and supporting the brain, sensory organs and cranial nerves, and  
52 other tissues involved in respiration, feeding and communication<sup>12,13</sup>. Within the skull, studies  
53 have frequently identified two distinct and partially-decoupled functional-anatomical regions

54 (modules); the face and braincase, though other smaller modules have also been recovered<sup>14, 15 8,</sup>  
55 <sup>16</sup>.

56 Here we examine two phylogenetically distant case studies in vertebrate skull evolution  
57 and describe the evolutionary consequences of modularity and integration between the face and  
58 braincase in terms of evolvability (ability to respond to selection), constraints, and rates of  
59 evolution. The examples are radiations of Neotropical electric fishes (Gymnotiformes, Teleostei)  
60 and Carnivora (Mammalia), both of which exhibit substantial diversity in craniofacial  
61 phenotypes, have similar phylogenetic ages (5-7E6 years), and similar species richness values (2-  
62 3E2 species)<sup>17, 18, 19, 20, 21</sup>.

63 We use 2-dimensional geometric morphometrics and the novel approach of Denton and  
64 Adams<sup>22</sup> to quantify rates of face and braincase evolution within Gymnotiformes and Carnivora.  
65 Gymnotiformes range from brachycephalic (with a relatively large braincase and foreshortened  
66 snout) taxa to dolichocephalic (with a relatively small braincase and an elongated snout) taxa  
67 with many species exhibiting intermediate phenotypes<sup>18</sup>. Carnivorans range from  
68 brachycephalic mustelid species to dolichocephalic canids, and exhibit diverse ecologies  
69 associated with these divergent craniofacial phenotypes<sup>21, 23</sup> and rapid brain-size evolution<sup>24</sup>. In  
70 both gymnotiforms and carnivorans, these divergent craniofacial phenotypes may be the result of  
71 rapid responses to selective forces on the face and braincase modules. Here, we estimate  
72 evolvability and constraints for the face and braincase skull region in both clades using  
73 phenotypic matrix correlations<sup>4, 25</sup>. We then use these methods to track the evolution of  
74 craniofacial shapes that characterize these clades.

75 We predict to find that the face exhibits faster rates of evolution than the braincase for  
76 Gymnotiformes as a result of the diverse craniofacial phenotypes and their functions exhibited

77 within this clade<sup>18, 26, 27</sup>. We also predict higher rates of braincase evolution (as compared to  
78 facial evolution) within Carnivora as a result of the rapid brain size evolution that characterizes  
79 this clade<sup>28</sup>, and slower rates of facial evolution as a result of functional constraints related to  
80 feeding<sup>29</sup>. Additionally, we predict that the face will exhibit a stronger response to selection than  
81 the braincase in Gymnotiformes and that the opposite pattern will be found in Carnivora as a  
82 result of the observed phenotypic diversity associated with both modules in these clades.

## 83 **Results**

84 **Craniofacial Diversity in Gymnotiformes.** Gymnotiformes display a wide diversity of  
85 craniofacial phenotypes (Fig. 1a). Here, the PC1 axis describes variance between foreshortened  
86 (negative values) and elongate skull shapes (positive values). The PC2 axis corresponds to  
87 variance in skull depth, with positive values corresponding to deeper skulls (Fig. 2a, b).

88 Species of the family Apterontidae have colonized nearly every portion of the empirical  
89 morphospace occupied by the other four gymnotiform clades. Apterontids also possess the most  
90 extreme PC1 & PC2 values, with *Adontosternarchus* possessing the deepest skulls (highest PC2  
91 values) and *Parapteronotus* and *Sternarchorhynchus*, the most elongate skulls (highest PC1  
92 values). Rhamphichthyidae has a similar total spread of craniofacial disparity, although including  
93 only species with very foreshortened skulls (e.g. *Hypopygus* and *Steatogenys*) and very elongate  
94 skulls (e.g. *Gymnorhamphichthys* and *Rhamphichthys*) with no intermediate phenotypes.  
95 Gymnotidae occupies a distinct and confined portion of the observed morphospace, otherwise  
96 only occupied by the brachycephalic species of other families with the most foreshortened and  
97 slender skulls. Sternopygidae has a relatively conserved spread in morphospace, with a single  
98 colonization of a unique portion of the empirical morphospace (i.e. *Archolaemus blax*). On  
99 average, the sternopygid skull superficially resembles the intermediate craniofacial phenotypes

100 of many apteronotid species (e.g. *Sternarchella orthos*). Hypopomidae follows a similar pattern,  
101 with a single lineage (*Akawaio*); occupying a unique portion of the observed morphospace. Most  
102 hypopomids possess a relatively foreshortened skull shape (e.g. *Brachyhypopomus*) although  
103 elongated skulls have evolved independently in *Akawaio* and *Hypopomus*.

104 **Craniofacial Diversity in Carnivora.** Similarly to Gymnotiformes, PC1 of the carnivoran  
105 phylomorphospace (Fig. 1b) illustrates skull shape variance along a foreshortened (negative  
106 values) to elongated (positive values) axis. PC2 corresponds to skull depth with deep skulls  
107 occupying lower values and narrower skulls occupying higher values (Fig. 1b).

108 Along PC1, canids consistently possess the most dolichocephalic carnivoran skulls, with  
109 *Canis simensis* exhibiting the most dolichocephalic skull of all sampled carnivorans. Unlike  
110 canids, pinnipeds did not cluster in one particular region of the empirical morphospace. Instead,  
111 pinnipeds exhibit both the most brachycephalic (*Ommatophoca rossi*) and the shallowest  
112 (*Hydrurga leptonyx*) skulls of any sampled carnivoran. Feliformia do not occupy any extremes  
113 along the PC1 axis, however, they also exhibit a wide range of phenotypes along the PC2 axis  
114 with *Uncia uncia* possessing the deepest skull of any sampled carnivoran. Musteloids vary little  
115 in skull depth (PC2) yet vary widely along PC1 axis, and include the second-most  
116 brachycephalic carnivoran (*Aonyx capensis*). Ursids occupied various intermediate phenotypes.

117 **Phylogenetic Analysis of Modularity.** An analysis of phylogenetic modularity using the  
118 covariance ratio coefficient found no significant signals of modularity between the face and  
119 braincase regions of gymnotiforms and carnivorans when compared to a Brownian motion model  
120 of evolution (Fig. 2).

121 **Phylogenetic Analysis of Integration.** A phylogenetic partial-least squares analysis for  
122 Gymnotiformes (Fig. 3) indicated strong evolutionary integration between the face and braincase  
123 modules (correlation coefficient of 0.905,  $p = 9.9e-7$ ). Within Carnivora, the analysis returned a  
124 significant ( $p = 0.017$ ) but weaker correlation coefficient of 0.657, indicating significant, but  
125 weaker phylogenetic integration between craniofacial modules than in Gymnotiformes (Fig. 4).

126 **Rates of Craniofacial Evolution Gymnotiformes.** Within Gymnotiformes, the face and  
127 braincase modules were not found to evolve at significantly different rates ( $p=0.271$ ) (Fig. 5a)  
128 (Table 1). Among clades however, Apterontidae, Gymnotidae and Hypopomidae exhibited the  
129 fastest rates of facial evolution (Table 1). There were no significant differences in rates among  
130 the three aforementioned clades, although each of the three fastest clades differed significantly  
131 from the slower Rhamphichthyidae and Sternopygidae (Supplementary Table 1). Sternopygidae  
132 exhibited the slowest rates of facial evolution, which was expected given their long branch-  
133 lengths and conserved distribution in the phylomorphospace. Interestingly, despite the high  
134 degree of morphological disparity in the Rhamphichthyidae, this clade returned the second-  
135 slowest rate of facial evolution in the analysis, likely due to long branch-lengths within this  
136 clade.

137 Apterontidae and Gymnotidae exhibited the fastest rates of braincase evolution followed  
138 by Hypopomidae (Table 1). Rates of braincase evolution differed significantly between  
139 Hypopomidae, Apterontidae and Gymnotidae (Supplementary Table 1). Rhamphichthyidae and  
140 Sternopygidae exhibited the slowest rates of braincase evolution. While all shape rate ratios were  
141 greater than 1.0, the facial module of Hypopomidae evolved about twice as fast as the braincase  
142 module, returning a ratio greater than 2.0.

143 **Rates of Craniofacial Evolution Carnivora.** Rates of face and braincase evolution differed  
144 significantly within Carnivora ( $p= 0.0001$ ) (Fig. 5b), with the braincase evolving twice as fast as  
145 the face. Feliformia exhibited the fastest rates of facial evolution, followed by Pinnepedia.  
146 Canidae, Musteloidea and Ursidae possessed the slowest rates of facial evolution (Table 1);  
147 pairwise p-value comparisons of rates among clades can be found in Supplementary Table 1.

148 Rates of shape evolution for the braincase were higher than in the face for all carnivore  
149 clades (Table 1). Feliformia exhibited substantially higher rates of braincase evolution than  
150 Canidae and Pinnepedia, followed by Musteloidea and Ursidae.

151 **Selection Simulations.** Simulation studies suggests that the face and braincase modules display  
152 similar responses to selection vectors in Gymnotiformes, while the reverse holds true for  
153 Carnivora. Definitions for evolvability indices can be found in materials and methods. The face  
154 and braincase modules within Gymnotiformes show very similar responses to simulated  
155 selection vectors (Table 2), likely due to the high degree of integration between the modules.  
156 However, the face and braincase differ by an order of magnitude in conditional evolvability  
157 (ability of a clade to evolve in the direction of selection in the presence of integration) with the  
158 face exhibiting higher maximum and average values than the braincase. Additionally, the face  
159 and braincase differ by two orders of magnitude in autonomy (amount of evolvability that  
160 remains after conditioning on other traits) with the face exhibiting higher minimum, average and  
161 maximum values. These results suggest that the face has a better ability to respond to selective  
162 pressures while under the influence of conditioning on other traits via integration than the  
163 braincase in Gymnotiformes.

164 The braincase of carnivorans exhibits higher maximum values of unconditional  
165 evolvability (ability of a clade to evolve in the direction of selection) and responsibility (how



166 rapidly a clade responds to directional selection) than the face (Table 2), suggesting that the  
167 braincase structure is more evolvable than the face and has the ability to elicit a stronger  
168 response to selection than the face. The face exhibits a higher maximum value of autonomy than  
169 the braincase, suggesting that the face has a higher proportion of evolvability that remains after  
170 conditioning on other traits via integration.

## 171 **Discussion**

172 **Evolutionary Disintegration Allows for Evolvability.** While the face and braincase regions of  
173 gymnotiforms and carnivorans were not found to exhibit significant degrees of phylogenetic  
174 modularity; varying degrees of evolutionary integration between the face and braincase have left  
175 distinct signatures on the craniofacial diversity of both Carnivora and Gymnotiformes. The  
176 variation in evolutionary integration within these two clades has constrained how different  
177 modules of their skull respond to selective forces. In other words, fluctuations in the evolutionary  
178 lability within these skull modules allows for stronger responses to selection, leading to faster  
179 rates of skull evolution. Here we find that carnivoran skull exhibits modular evolution between  
180 the face and braincase regions. We also find that the braincase of carnivorans exhibits higher  
181 evolvability and respondability than the face of carnivorans. We hypothesize that this relaxed  
182 pattern of integration allowed for the braincase to respond to the strong selective pressures  
183 exerted on it by the brain during development in order to track the rapid brain size evolution that  
184 characterizes Carnivora and ultimately evolve at twice the rate of the face.

185         Within Gymnotiformes, the face and braincase modules were substantially more  
186 integrated. As a result, both modules elicited similar responses to selection pressures and  
187 appeared to be under similar influences of constraint. However, we find that the face exhibits  
188 higher conditional evolvability and autonomy than the braincase. Despite these differences in

189 conditional evolvability and autonomy, no significant differences were found between the rates  
190 of face and braincase evolution.

191 **Rate ratios are the result of selection and not constraints.** Within Gymnotiformes, we  
192 estimated constraints within face and braincase modules and found only slight differences  
193 between the maximum values (Table 2), suggesting that the face and braincase of  
194 Gymnotiformes are exposed to similar constraints. We interpret these results as selection for  
195 integration between face and braincase modules within Gymnotiformes. The source of this  
196 strong pattern of integration may also originate in the developmental pathway that forms the  
197 face. During development, *Shh* and *fgf8* signaling from the forebrain prompt the expansion of the  
198 face in development<sup>30, 31, 32, 33, 34</sup>. When this signaling is perturbed, the face fails to expand  
199 completely, resulting in a foreshortened facial phenotype. This signaling pattern transverses the  
200 face and braincase modules and can result in strong patterns of covariation between the face and  
201 braincase modules that can be conserved at the macroevolutionary scale<sup>3</sup>.

202         Within Carnivora, the face may be under strong functional constraints related to feeding  
203 and rotational torsion related to bite force. Christiansen and Wroe<sup>35</sup> noted a trend towards  
204 increased bite force that has characterized specialization on larger prey and herbivory. The  
205 maintenance of these highly specialized morphologies requires tightly integrated morphogenetic  
206 programs, particularly those underlying the formation of teeth and tooth-bearing bones<sup>36</sup>.  
207 Among hyper carnivorous canid species, felids and mustelids, species that preyed on larger prey  
208 items all exhibit higher bite forces on the canine teeth than the carnassial teeth despite vastly  
209 different methods of prey acquisition. Furthermore, in all sampled carnivoran taxa (excluding  
210 hyaenids), bite forces at the canine and carnassial teeth exhibited little variation<sup>35</sup>. In a separate  
211 study by Goswami<sup>15</sup> the anterior oral-nasal module which includes the anterior dentition and

212 facial skeleton were found to be tightly integrated. This high integration between parts is  
213 expected in a functionally constrained system. When constraints were estimated between  
214 craniofacial modules of Carnivora, only slight differences between maximum values were  
215 recovered similar to the analysis in Gymnotiformes (Table 2). These results suggest that the face  
216 and braincase are also under similar constraints within Carnivora. We interpret these results as  
217 evidence for the role of selection on brain size in driving the higher rates of braincase evolution  
218 within Carnivora. During development, the braincase closely tracks the underlying neural tissue  
219 (brain) that it envelopes, such that if the brain were to undergo rapid size and shape evolution,  
220 the braincase would be expected to track it closely<sup>37, 38</sup>. The factors that influence the rapid brain  
221 size evolution of carnivorans are less clear. It was initially believed that this rapid evolution  
222 coincided with the evolution of sociality within this clade in a hypothesis called the social-brain  
223 hypothesis (SBH)<sup>39, 40</sup>. However, a more recent study by Finarelli and Flynn<sup>24</sup> incorporated  
224 fossil taxa in their analysis and found no relationship between brain size and sociality.

225       Changes in the degree of integration appear to have had marked effects on the  
226 distribution of selective forces between the face and braincase for both Gymnotiformes and  
227 Carnivora. These differences in the distribution of selective forces allowed for more rapid rates  
228 of braincase evolution in Carnivorans and similar rates of module evolution in Gymnotiformes.  
229 This mosaic of selective forces and the resulting evolutionary responses that are elicited, have  
230 certainly influenced the evolution of the craniofacial shape diversity in both Gymnotiformes and  
231 Carnivora.

## 232 **Materials and Methods**

233 **Gymnotiform Time Calibrated Phylogeny.** In order to study the evolution of gymnotiform  
234 skulls, we used the phylogenetic hypothesis of Tagliacollo, Bernt<sup>41</sup> trimmed to include only taxa

235 examined for this study of craniofacial morphology (Supplementary Fig. 2). This phylogeny was  
236 obtained using a super-matrix comprised of six genes (5,054 bp), including three mitochondrial  
237 (16S, CytB, COI) and three nuclear (RAG1, RAG2, ZIC 1) markers, and 223 morphological  
238 characters (for tip taxa where molecular data was unavailable) concatenated using the Mkv  
239 model for morphology<sup>42</sup> for 212 gymnotiform species representing 34 out of 35 extant genera<sup>41</sup>.

240 Lineage divergence times were estimated in *BEAST v 1.7.5*<sup>43</sup> based on the Maximum  
241 Clade Credibility phylogeny of ostariophysan electric fishes (MCC-Gymn) inferred in *MrBayes*  
242 *v3.2*<sup>44</sup> using the combining molecular + morphological datasets. Clade age estimation followed  
243 the approach of Tagliacollo et al.<sup>45</sup> and employed identical data partitioning, evolutionary  
244 models used in, and geologic calibrations of the lognormal relaxed molecular clock. The prior  
245 constraints were based on fission-track age estimates for the initial rise of the Colombian Eastern  
246 Cordillera hypothesized to have isolated multiple cis and trans-Andean river basins at c. 11 Ma  
247<sup>46</sup>. Divergence time estimates were composed of two independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo  
248 (MCMC) runs, each comprised of  $5.0 \times 10^7$  generations. Parameter values were sampled every  
249  $5.0 \times 10^3$  generations, assuming the MCC-Gymnotiform phylogeny as the start tree, and a birth-  
250 death process for estimates of branching rates<sup>47</sup>. MCMC runs were combined using  
251 *LogCombiner v1.7.5*. All parameter estimates were inspected for stationary convergence prior to  
252 the burn-in procedure.

253 **Carnivora Time Calibrated Phylogeny.** The comparative analysis of Carnivora trimmed the  
254 time-calibrated super tree of Nyakatura and Bininda-Emonds<sup>19</sup> to include only taxa examined  
255 for this study of craniofacial morphology (Fig. S3).

256 **Specimen Preparation Gymnotiformes.** We examined the neurocrania of 154 specimens  
257 representing 133 gymnotiform species (61% taxon sampling) (Supplementary Table 4),

258 including all families and genera within Gymnotiformes, using 2-dimensional geometric  
259 morphometrics. Specimens were cleared and stained following the method of Taylor and Van  
260 Dyke<sup>48</sup>, and dissected under an Olympus SZX-12 stereomicroscope. After dissection,  
261 neurocrania were placed in a clay mold for stability and photographed in lateral view using a  
262 Nikon Coolpix digital camera. Specimens unavailable for clearing and staining were  
263 radiographed at the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia and Louisiana State  
264 University. The laterally compressed body-shape of most gymnotiform species allow specimens  
265 to be radiographed with little to no rotational effects.

266 **Specimen Preparation Carnivora.** We examined the neurocrania of 445 specimens  
267 representing 203 carnivoran species (71% taxon sampling) (Supplementary Table 5), spanning  
268 all families using 2-dimensional geometric morphometrics. Adult specimen photos in lateral  
269 view were compiled from the online museum databases: DigiMorph (University of Texas, USA),  
270 Mammalian Crania Photographic Archive (Dokkyo Medical University, Japan), Museum  
271 Victoria (Australia), Animal Diversity Web (University of Michigan, USA), P.W. Lund's  
272 collection (Natural History Museum of Denmark), as well as private collections and species  
273 descriptions. Specimens that were obviously rotated or damaged were removed from the analysis  
274 and only adult (as evidenced by fully erupted dentition) male specimens were analyzed to correct  
275 for potential secondary sexual-dimorphism and ontogenetic changes.

276 **Geometric Morphometrics.** For Gymnotiformes, images were imported as tps files using  
277 *tpsUtil* and digitized with 20 homologous landmarks (Fig. 6a) (Supplementary Table 6) in  
278 *tpsDig2*. Tps files were then imported into *MorphoJ*<sup>49</sup> and the R-package *Geomorph*<sup>50</sup> for  
279 further statistical analyses. Procrustes superimposition removed the effect of size and orientation  
280 on the specimens and translated the landmark data to a common coordinate plane. The procure

281 for Carnivora was similar, but used 15 landmarks in lateral view following the scheme of  
282 Figueirido, Tseng<sup>23</sup> for the upper jaw (Fig. 6b).

283 Following Procrustes superimposition, principal components analyses based on  
284 covariance matrices summarized the variation in skull shape. For both clades, only the first two  
285 principal components were retained for subsequent analyses as they accounted for a large portion  
286 of the variance in each clade (Fig. S7).

287 **Phylomorphospace Analysis.** We generated phylomorphospaces for Gymnotiformes and  
288 Carnivora in the R-package *phytools* by projecting the phylogenies into spaces defined by the  
289 first two principal components and estimating the position of internal nodes using maximum-  
290 likelihood<sup>51</sup>. Species nodes were color-coded by clade to allow for ease of interpretation.

291 **Phylogenetic Covariation.** Phylogenetic covariation between the two craniofacial modules was  
292 quantified using two metrics to test for phylogenetic modularity and integration. Phylogenetic  
293 modularity was quantified using the covariance ratio (CR) coefficient performed in the R-  
294 package *Geomorph*<sup>52</sup>. In this analysis, the degree of phylogenetic modularity between the face  
295 and braincase modules was quantified under a Brownian motion model of evolution.

296 Significance was assessed by randomly assigning landmarks into different subsets via  
297 permutation (9999 iterations) and comparing the observed CR value to the randomly distributed  
298 values. A significant signal of modularity was found when the observed CR coefficient was  
299 small relative to the random distribution. Phylogenetic integration was quantified using a  
300 phylogenetically-sensitive modification of the within-configuration partial-least squares analysis  
301 performed in the R-package *Geomorph*<sup>50</sup>. A partial-least squares analysis evaluates covariation  
302 between matrices (modules) and quantifies the relationship using a correlation coefficient. The  
303 correlation coefficient can be interpreted as 0 (completely modular) and 1 (completely

304 integrated). In addition to the correlation coefficient, the statistical significance of the observed  
305 coefficient was computed by permutation (9999 iterations). Here the data from one PLS-block  
306 (module) was permuted across the tips of the tree to calculate an estimate of covariation in the  
307 two datasets and compare them to the observed correlation coefficient<sup>53</sup>.

308 **Module Designation Gymnotiformes.** For the study of rates of module evolution, there were  
309 two hypothesized modules: the face (landmarks 1:10) and the braincase (landmarks 11:20) (Fig.  
310 6b). These two modules were selected based on an *a priori* hypotheses of brain and skull  
311 development proposed in Albert<sup>18</sup>.

312 **Module Designation Carnivora.** For the study of rates of module evolution within Carnivora,  
313 there were two hypothesized modules: the face (landmarks 1:9) and the braincase (landmarks  
314 10:15). Modules were delimited following the conceptual scheme of Drake and Klingenberg<sup>10</sup>  
315 (Fig. 6b). In previous studies conducted on the carnivoran skull, as many as six craniofacial  
316 modules have been hypothesized with varying degrees of within-module integration<sup>54</sup>. Here, our  
317 focus is on the face and braincase regions. As a result, other smaller modules have been pooled  
318 into these two larger modules. In our analysis, the facial region is a tightly integrated system<sup>15</sup>  
319 that includes the anterior dentition and facial skeleton along with the posterior most dentition, the  
320 orbit and zygomatic arches. The braincase module consists of the basicranium and cranial vault  
321 modules as described by Goswami<sup>15</sup>.

322 **Module Evolution.** Rates of evolution for the same face and braincase modules were estimated  
323 for five clades of Gymnotiformes and Carnivora in *Geomorph* using the “*compare.multi.rates*”  
324 function<sup>22</sup>. Clades were selected based on characteristic phenotypes and clade age. Significance  
325 was determined by comparing the observed rate ratios to a simulated null distribution of equal

326 rates in both modules. The proportion of simulated ratios greater than or equal to the observed  
327 values, were treated as the significance level for each observed rate ratio.

328 **Evolutionary Simulations.** Evolvability indexes of the face and braincase were estimated for  
329 both clades to using phenotypic matrix statistics <sup>4</sup> to test for different responses to selection  
330 between modules. Phenotype V/CV matrices (P-matrices) were built using *MorphoJ* for  
331 Gymnotiformes and Carnivora. Within *MorphoJ*, ancestral state reconstructions were performed  
332 on P-matrices to account for phylogenetic non-independence in both clades and reconstruct  
333 phenotypic changes at internal nodes following the procedure of Linde & Medina, Boughner <sup>25</sup>.  
334 Shape coordinates were not corrected for allometric scaling as not to exclude valuable  
335 information on the potential line of least evolutionary resistance that is thought to orient with  
336 shape changes associated with size (PC1) <sup>4,55</sup>. Following the construction of the P-matrices, we  
337 used the framework of Hansen and Houle <sup>56</sup> to estimate different evolvability indices. While the  
338 original framework of Hansen and Houle <sup>56</sup> is based on genetic matrices (G-matrices), P-matrices  
339 can be substituted in place of G-matrices if there is enough similarity between the two. In  
340 mammals, a close similarity between G and P matrices was strongly evidenced in Marroig, Shirai  
341 <sup>4</sup> and in fishes, several studies have found significant correlations between G and P matrices <sup>57,58,</sup>  
342 <sup>59</sup>. Evolvability was estimated using the random skewers method of Cheverud and Marroig <sup>60</sup>  
343 based on the Lande <sup>61</sup> equation ( $\Delta z = G\beta$ ) where G is the genetic variance-covariance matrix and  
344  $\beta$  is the selection gradient. Here  $\beta$  is simulated as 1000 random selection vectors generated under  
345 a Gaussian distribution. The simulated  $\beta$  was then applied to the P-matrix to generate 1000  
346 response vectors ( $\Delta z$ ) as outlined by Marroig, Shirai <sup>4</sup>. These response vectors index  
347 unconditional evolvability (ability of a clade to evolve in the direction of selection),  
348 respondability (how rapidly a clade can respond to directional selection), conditional evolvability



349 (ability of a clade to evolve in the direction of selection while under stabilizing selection),  
350 constraints (the effect of PC1 on the response to selection) and autonomy (the proportion of  
351 evolvability that remains after conditioning on other traits). All simulations were run in the R  
352 package *EvolQG*<sup>62</sup>. Instead of emphasizing mean values of evolvability indexes, we emphasize  
353 the maximum values of the various indexes for ease of interpretation<sup>4</sup>.

### 354 **Acknowledgements**

355 We thank Maxwell Bernt, Prosanta Chakrabarty, Scott Duke-Sylvester, William Fink, Hironobu  
356 Ito, Glenn Northcutt, Gerald Smith, David Wake and Miriam Zelditch for ideas and discussions,  
357 Ashley Mays and Andrew Savage for assistance with radiography, John Romani for providing  
358 the up-to date programming equipment, and Merritt and Patricia Evans for camera equipment.  
359 This work was supported by United States National Science Foundation grants DEB 0614334,  
360 0741450 and 1354511 to JSA, and the Southern Regional Education Board Minority Doctoral  
361 Fellowship to KME. BLS was supported by NSF DEB-1257898 during his work on this project.

362

**Table 1.** Rates of module evolution and sigma-D ratios for Gymnotiformes and Carnivora. Note the similar rates of facial evolution with respect to braincase in gymnotiform clades. Note also the consistently faster rates of braincase evolution compared to facial evolution in carnivorans.

<b>Clade</b>	<b>Face <math>\sigma</math></b>	<b>Braincase <math>\sigma</math></b>	<b><math>\sigma</math> Ratio</b>
Gymnotiformes	0.0032	0.0027	1.2
Apterodontidae	0.0040	0.0036	1.13
Hypopomidae	0.0039	0.0019	2.03
Gymnotidae	0.0035	0.0031	1.13
Rhamphichthyidae	0.0023	0.0015	1.48
Sternopygidae	0.1340	0.0013	1.06
<b>Clade</b>	<b>Face <math>\sigma</math></b>	<b>Braincase <math>\sigma</math></b>	<b><math>\sigma</math> Ratio</b>
Carnivora	0.0022	0.0049	0.45
Canidae	0.0018	0.0046	0.40
Pinnipedia	0.0023	0.0035	0.65
Musteloidea	0.0014	0.0023	0.61
Feliformia	0.0029	0.0076	0.38
Ursidae	0.0014	0.0019	0.74

**Table 2.** Evolvability indexes for the selection simulation study for the face and braincase of Gymnotiformes and Carnivora. Note the similarity between evolvability, respondability and constraints

between the face and braincase of Gymnotiformes and the vast difference in maximum values maximum values of conditional evolvability and autonomy with the face exhibiting substantially higher values than the braincase. Note also within Carnivora, the high evolvability and responsibility of the braincase compared to the face. In both Gymnotiformes and Carnivora the face exhibits higher conditional evolvability and higher autonomy than the braincase.

Face					
<b>Gymnotiformes</b>	evolvability	responsability	conditional evolvability	autonomy	constraints
Mean	1.406E-04	2.445E-04	-5.712E-05	-0.593	0.556
Min	2.447E-05	6.522E-05	-0.061	-622.472	0.000
Max	4.065E-04	5.119E-04	0.003	23.721	0.997
Braincase					
Mean	1.751E-04	2.706E-04	-3.488E-06	-0.021	0.526
Min	4.998E-05	9.056E-05	-0.002	-10.484	0.001
Max	4.050E-04	5.433E-04	1.320E-04	0.647	0.978
Face					
<b>Carnivora</b>	evolvability	responsability	conditional evolvability	autonomy	constraints
Mean	1.745E-04	2.619E-04	-1.113E-06	-0.005	0.464
Min	3.780E-05	9.759E-05	-5.788E-04	-2.613	4.935E-04
Max	5.435E-04	5.762E-04	1.756E-04	1.208	0.977
Braincase					
Mean	4.338E-04	8.002E-04	-1.688E-06	-0.006	0.459
Min	3.303E-05	1.082E-04	-0.001	-3.212	0.001
Max	0.002	0.003	4.678E-04	0.744	0.970

365

366

367

## 368 **References**

369 1. Wagner GP, Pavlicev M, Cheverud JM. The road to modularity. *Nature Reviews Genetics* **8**, 921-  
370 931 (2007).

371

372 2. Schlosser G, Wagner GP. *Modularity in development and evolution*. University of Chicago Press  
373 (2004).

374

375 3. Klingenberg CP. Morphological integration and developmental modularity. *Annual Review of*  
376 *Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics*, 115-132 (2008).

377

378 4. Marroig G, Shirai LT, Porto A, de Oliveira FB, De Conto V. The evolution of modularity in the  
379 mammalian skull II: evolutionary consequences. *Evolutionary Biology* **36**, 136-148 (2009).

380

- 381 5. Hansen TF. Is modularity necessary for evolvability?: Remarks on the relationship between  
382 pleiotropy and evolvability. *Biosystems* **69**, 83-94 (2003).
- 383
- 384 6. Esteve-Altava B. In search of morphological modules: a systematic review. *Biological Reviews*,  
385 (2016).
- 386
- 387 7. Sanger TJ, Mahler DL, Abzhanov A, Losos JB. Roles for modularity and constraint in the evolution  
388 of cranial diversity among *Anolis* lizards. *Evolution* **66**, 1525-1542 (2012).
- 389
- 390 8. Goswami A, Polly PD. The influence of modularity on cranial morphological disparity in Carnivora  
391 and Primates (Mammalia). *PLoS One* **5**, e9517-e9517 (2010).
- 392
- 393 9. Piras P, *et al.* Morphological integration and functional modularity in the crocodilian skull.  
394 *Integrative zoology* **9**, 498-516 (2014).
- 395
- 396 10. Drake AG, Klingenberg CP. Large-scale diversification of skull shape in domestic dogs: disparity  
397 and modularity. *The American Naturalist* **175**, 289-301 (2010).
- 398
- 399 11. Hanken J, Hall BK. *The skull*. University of Chicago Press (1993).
- 400
- 401 12. Barbeito-Andrés J, Gonzalez PN, Hallgrímsson B. Prenatal Development of Skull and Brain in a  
402 Mouse Model of Growth Restriction. *Revista Argentina de Anthropologia Biologica* **18**, (2016).
- 403
- 404 13. Hanken J, Hall BK. Mechanisms of skull diversity and evolution. *The skull* **3**, 1-36 (1993).
- 405
- 406 14. Goswami A. Cranial modularity and sequence heterochrony in mammals. *Evolution &*  
407 *development* **9**, 290-298 (2007).
- 408
- 409 15. Goswami A. Cranial modularity shifts during mammalian evolution. *The American Naturalist* **168**,  
410 270-280 (2006).
- 411
- 412 16. Klingenberg CP, Marugán-Lobón J. Evolutionary Covariation in Geometric Morphometric Data:  
413 Analyzing Integration, Modularity, and Allometry in a Phylogenetic Context. *Systematic Biology*  
414 **62**, 591-610 (2013).
- 415
- 416 17. Tagliacollo VA, Bernt MJ, Craig JM, Oliveira C, Albert JS. Model-based total evidence phylogeny  
417 of Neotropical electric knifefishes (Teleostei, Gymnotiformes). *Molecular phylogenetics and*  
418 *evolution* **95**, 20-33 (2016).
- 419

- 420 18. Albert JS. *Species diversity and phylogenetic systematics of American knifefishes*  
421 *(Gymnotiformes, Teleostei)*. Division of Ichthyology, Museum of Zoology, University of Michigan  
422 (2001).
- 423
- 424 19. Nyakatura K, Bininda-Emonds OR. Updating the evolutionary history of Carnivora (Mammalia): a  
425 new species-level supertree complete with divergence time estimates. *BMC biology* **10**, 1  
426 (2012).
- 427
- 428 20. Figueirido B, MacLeod N, Krieger J, De Renzi M, Pérez-Claros JA, Palmqvist P. Constraint and  
429 adaptation in the evolution of carnivoran skull shape. *Paleobiology* **37**, 490-518 (2011).
- 430
- 431 21. Wroe S, Milne N. Convergence and remarkably consistent constraint in the evolution of  
432 carnivore skull shape. *Evolution* **61**, 1251-1260 (2007).
- 433
- 434 22. Denton JS, Adams DC. A new phylogenetic test for comparing multiple high-dimensional  
435 evolutionary rates suggests interplay of evolutionary rates and modularity in lanternfishes  
436 (Myctophiformes; Myctophidae). *Evolution* **69**, 2425-2440 (2015).
- 437
- 438 23. Figueirido B, Tseng ZJ, Martín-Serra A. Skull shape evolution in durophagous carnivorans.  
439 *Evolution* **67**, 1975-1993 (2013).
- 440
- 441 24. Finarelli JA, Flynn JJ. Brain-size evolution and sociality in Carnivora. *Proceedings of the National*  
442 *Academy of Sciences* **106**, 9345-9349 (2009).
- 443
- 444 25. Linde-Medina M, Boughner JC, Santana SE, Diogo R. Are more diverse parts of the mammalian  
445 skull more labile? *Ecology and Evolution*, (2016).
- 446
- 447 26. Winemiller KO, Adite A. Convergent evolution of weakly electric fishes from floodplain habitats  
448 in Africa and South America. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* **49**, 175-186 (1997).
- 449
- 450 27. Marrero C, Winemiller KO. Tube-snouted gymnotiform and mormyriiform fishes: convergence of  
451 a specialized foraging mode in teleosts. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* **38**, 299-309 (1993).
- 452
- 453 28. Koyabu D, *et al.* Mammalian skull heterochrony reveals modular evolution and a link between  
454 cranial development and brain size. *Nature Communications* **5**, (2014).
- 455
- 456 29. Meloro C, Clauss M, Raia P. Ecomorphology of Carnivora challenges convergent evolution.  
457 *Organisms Diversity & Evolution* **15**, 711-720 (2015).
- 458
- 459 30. Hu D, *et al.* Signals from the brain induce variation in avian facial shape. *Developmental*  
460 *Dynamics* **244**, 1133-1143 (2015).

- 461  
462 31. Hu D, Marcucio RS. A SHH-responsive signaling center in the forebrain regulates craniofacial  
463 morphogenesis via the facial ectoderm. *Development* **136**, 107-116 (2009).
- 464  
465 32. Hu D, Marcucio RS. Unique organization of the frontonasal ectodermal zone in birds and  
466 mammals. *Developmental biology* **325**, 200-210 (2009).
- 467  
468 33. Marcucio RS, Cordero DR, Hu D, Helms JA. Molecular interactions coordinating the development  
469 of the forebrain and face. *Developmental biology* **284**, 48-61 (2005).
- 470  
471 34. Hu D, Marcucio RS, Helms JA. A zone of frontonasal ectoderm regulates patterning and growth  
472 in the face. *Development* **130**, 1749-1758 (2003).
- 473  
474 35. Christiansen P, Wroe S. Bite forces and evolutionary adaptations to feeding ecology in  
475 carnivores. *Ecology* **88**, 347-358 (2007).
- 476  
477 36. Polly PD. Evolution: Stuck between the teeth. *Nature* **497**, 325-326 (2013).
- 478  
479 37. Richtsmeier JT, Flaherty K. Hand in glove: brain and skull in development and  
480 dysmorphogenesis. *Acta neuropathologica* **125**, 469-489 (2013).
- 481  
482 38. Northcutt RG, Kaas JH. The emergence and evolution of mammalian neocortex. *Trends in*  
483 *neurosciences* **18**, 373-379 (1995).
- 484  
485 39. Dunbar R. The social brain hypothesis. *brain* **9**, 178-190 (1998).
- 486  
487 40. Pérez-Barbería FJ, Shultz S, Dunbar RI. Evidence for coevolution of sociality and relative brain  
488 size in three orders of mammals. *Evolution* **61**, 2811-2821 (2007).
- 489  
490 41. Tagliacollo VA, Bernt MJ, Craig JM, Oliveira C, Albert JS. Data supporting phylogenetic  
491 reconstructions of the Neotropical clade Gymnotiformes. *Data in Brief*, (2016).
- 492  
493 42. Lewis PO. A likelihood approach to estimating phylogeny from discrete morphological character  
494 data. *Systematic Biology* **50**, 913-925 (2001).
- 495  
496 43. Drummond AJ, Rambaut A. BEAST: Bayesian evolutionary analysis by sampling trees. *BMC*  
497 *evolutionary biology* **7**, 214 (2007).
- 498  
499 44. Ronquist F, Huelsenbeck JP. MrBayes 3: Bayesian phylogenetic inference under mixed models.  
500 *Bioinformatics* **19**, 1572-1574 (2003).

501  
502 45. Tagliacollo VA, Bernt MJ, Craig JM, Oliveira C, Albert JS. Model-based Total Evidence phylogeny  
503 of Neotropical electric knifefishes (Teleostei, Gymnotiformes). *Molecular Phylogenetics and*  
504 *Evolution*, (2015).

505  
506 46. Sánchez J, Horton BK, Tesón E, Mora A, Ketcham RA, Stockli DF. Kinematic evolution of Andean  
507 fold-thrust structures along the boundary between the Eastern Cordillera and Middle  
508 Magdalena Valley basin, Colombia. *Tectonics* **31**, (2012).

509  
510 47. Gernhard T. The conditioned reconstructed process. *Journal of theoretical biology* **253**, 769-778  
511 (2008).

512  
513 48. Taylor WR, Van Dyke G. Revised procedures for staining and clearing small fishes and other  
514 vertebrates for bone and cartilage study. *Cybiurn* **9**, 107-119 (1985).

515  
516 49. Klingenberg CP. MorphoJ: an integrated software package for geometric morphometrics.  
517 *Molecular Ecology Resources* **11**, 353-357 (2011).

518  
519 50. Adams DC, Otárola-Castillo E. geomorph: an R package for the collection and analysis of  
520 geometric morphometric shape data. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **4**, 393-399 (2013).

521  
522 51. Sidlauskas B. Continuous and arrested morphological diversification in sister clades of  
523 characiform fishes: a phylomorphospace approach. *Evolution* **62**, 3135-3156 (2008).

524  
525 52. Adams DC. Evaluating modularity in morphometric data: challenges with the RV coefficient and  
526 a new test measure. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, (2016).

527  
528 53. Adams DC, Felice RN. Assessing trait covariation and morphological integration on phylogenies  
529 using evolutionary covariance matrices. *PloS one* **9**, e94335 (2014).

530  
531 54. Goswami A, Polly P, Mock O, SÁNCHEZ-VILLAGRA M. Shape, variance and integration during  
532 craniogenesis: contrasting marsupial and placental mammals. *Journal of evolutionary biology* **25**,  
533 862-872 (2012).

534  
535 55. Marroig G, Cheverud JM. Size as a line of least evolutionary resistance: diet and adaptive  
536 morphological radiation in New World monkeys. *Evolution* **59**, 1128-1142 (2005).

537  
538 56. Hansen T, Houle D. Measuring and comparing evolvability and constraint in multivariate  
539 characters. *Journal of evolutionary biology* **21**, 1201-1219 (2008).

540

- 541 57. Oswald ME, Singer M, Robison BD. The quantitative genetic architecture of the bold-shy  
542 continuum in zebrafish, *Danio rerio*. *PLoS one* **8**, e68828 (2013).
- 543
- 544 58. Roberts RB, Hu Y, Albertson RC, Kocher TD. Craniofacial divergence and ongoing adaptation via  
545 the hedgehog pathway. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* **108**, 13194-13199  
546 (2011).
- 547
- 548 59. Schneider RF, Li Y, Meyer A, Gunter HM. Regulatory gene networks that shape the development  
549 of adaptive phenotypic plasticity in a cichlid fish. *Molecular ecology* **23**, 4511-4526 (2014).
- 550
- 551 60. Cheverud JM, Marroig G. Research Article Comparing covariance matrices: random skewers  
552 method compared to the common principal components model. *Genetics and Molecular Biology*  
553 **30**, 461-469 (2007).
- 554
- 555 61. Lande R. Quantitative genetic analysis of multivariate evolution, applied to brain: body size  
556 allometry. *Evolution*, 402-416 (1979).
- 557
- 558 62. Melo D, Garcia G, Hubbe A, Assis AP, Marroig G. EvolQG-An R package for evolutionary  
559 quantitative genetics. *F1000Research* **4**, (2015).

560

## 561 **Figure Captions**

562 **Figure 1.** Phylomorphospace analyses of craniofacial shape in lateral view. **a.**

563 Phylomorphospace analysis of 133 species of Gymnotiformes (Teleostei), including all 35  
564 recognized genera, with family-level clades delimited by colors. PC1 corresponds to variance  
565 between brachycephalic and dolichocephalic skull shapes, PC2 corresponds to variance in skull  
566 depth ranging from deep skulls with high values (*Adontosternarchus balaenops*) to narrow skulls  
567 with low values (*Orthosternarchus tamandua*). **b.** Phylomorphospace analysis of 203 species of  
568 Carnivora (Mammalia) with clades delimited by colors. PC1 corresponds to variance along the  
569 brachycephalic to dolichocephalic axis, and PC2 corresponds to variance in skull depth.



570 **Figure 2.** Phylogenetic modularity analysis of face and braincase regions for Gymnotiformes and  
571 Carnivora quantified using the covariance ratio (CR) coefficient. Note face and braincase  
572 modules were not found to exhibit significant degrees of modularity for either clade.

573

574 **Figure 3.** Phylogenetic Partial-Least Squares (PPLS) analysis of the face and braincase modules  
575 (blocks) of 133 species of Gymnotiformes. Note the strong but not complete pattern of  
576 covariation between the face and braincase modules ( $c= 0.905$ ). Insets depict extreme patterns of  
577 deformation for each module

578 **Figure 4.** Phylogenetic Partial-Least Squares (PPLS) analysis of the face and braincase for 203  
579 species of Carnivora. (Note) the weaker pattern of integration ( $c= 0.627$ ) between modules  
580 compared to Gymnotiformes. ). Insets depict extreme patterns of deformation for each module.

581 **Figure 5.** Histograms showing the ratio of rate values for module evolution for a.  
582 Gymnotiformes and b. Carnivora. Note in Carnivora, that the rate ratio falls outside the range of  
583 expected variation in values. Indicating significant differences in rates of evolution between face  
584 and braincase modules. However, in Gymnotiformes, no significant differences in rates between  
585 modules was recovered.

586 **Figure 6.** Landmark schematic of the neurocranium for gymnotiform and carnivoran clades used  
587 in the analysis. **a.** Landmark schematic of *Compsaraia compsa* in lateral view Landmarks (n=20)  
588 used in geometric morphometric analyses of gymnotiform fishes. **b.** Landmark schematic of the  
589 neurocranium of *Cercodon thous* in lateral view showing landmarks (n=15) used in geometric  
590 morphometric analyses of Carnivora. White landmarks indicate facial module landmarks and  
591 black landmarks indicate braincase module landmarks.

592

593

594

#### **Author Contribution**

595 K. Evans, B. Sidlauskas and J. Albert wrote the main manuscript text. V. Tagliacollo generated

596 the time calibrated phylogeny for Gymnotiformes. B. Waltz digitized all of the neurocrania for

597 the family Sternopygidae. All authors reviewed the manuscript. K. Evans prepared all figures,

598 ran all analyses and gathered all mammal skull data and all Gymnotiform skull data.

599

600

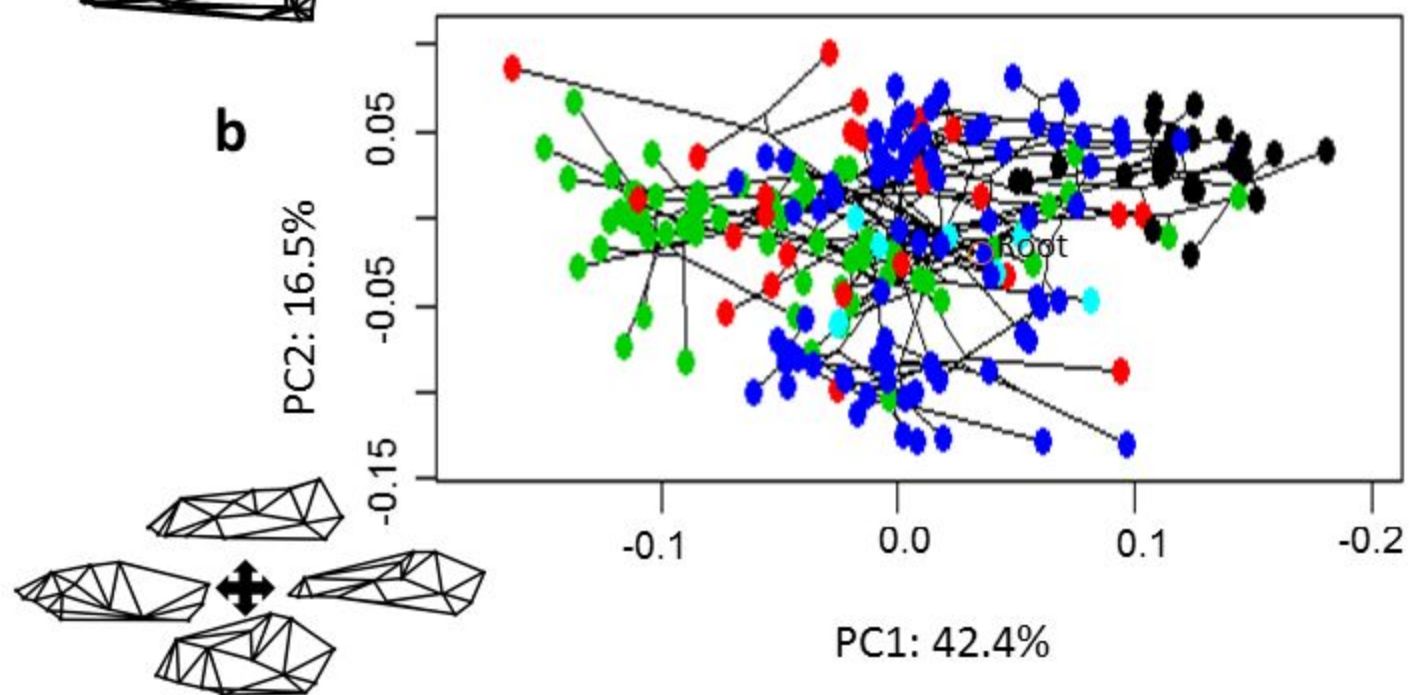
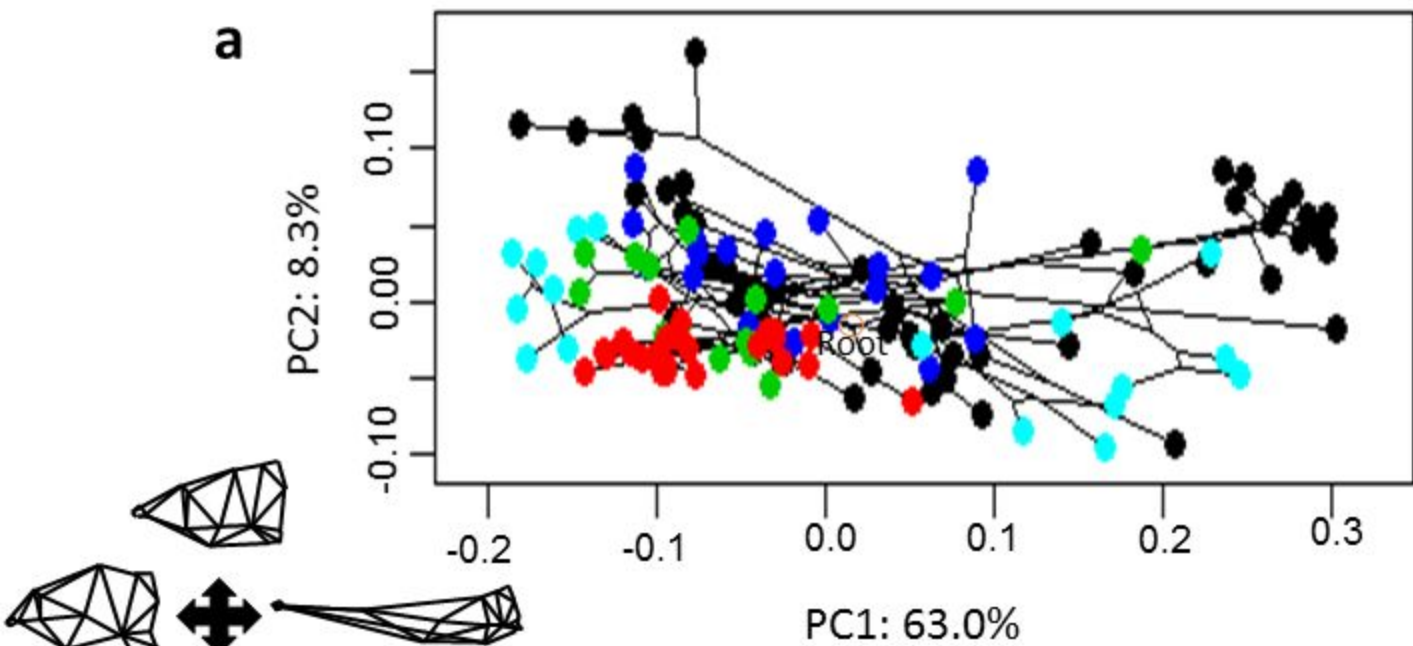
**Additional Information**

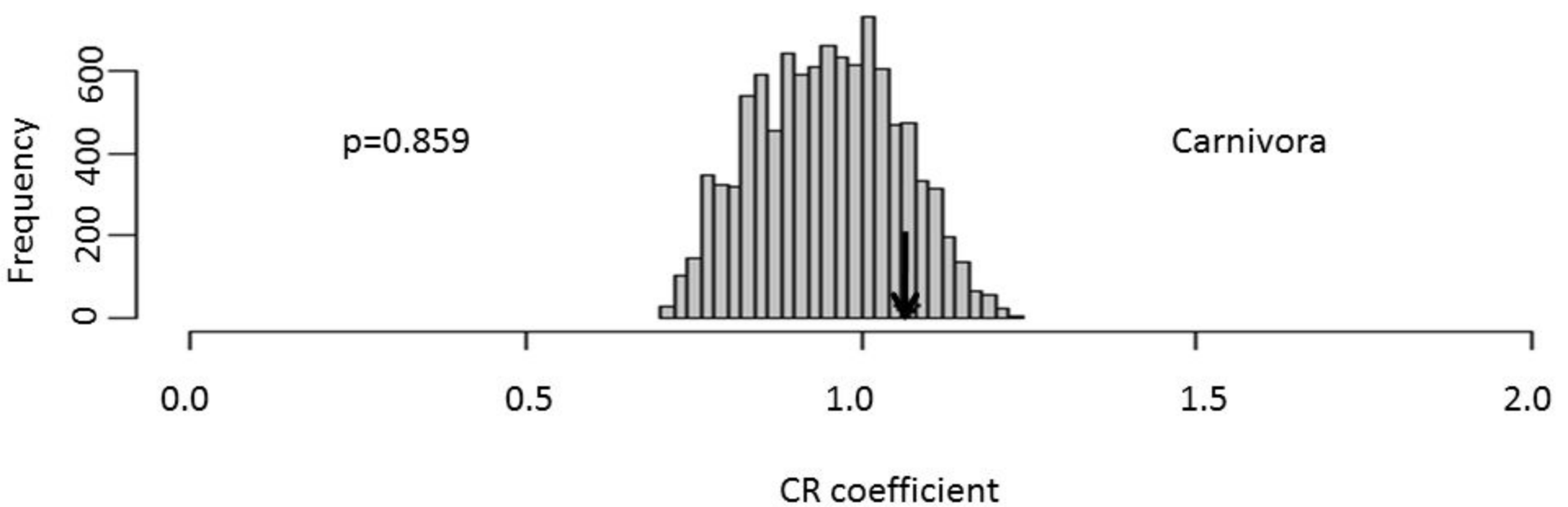
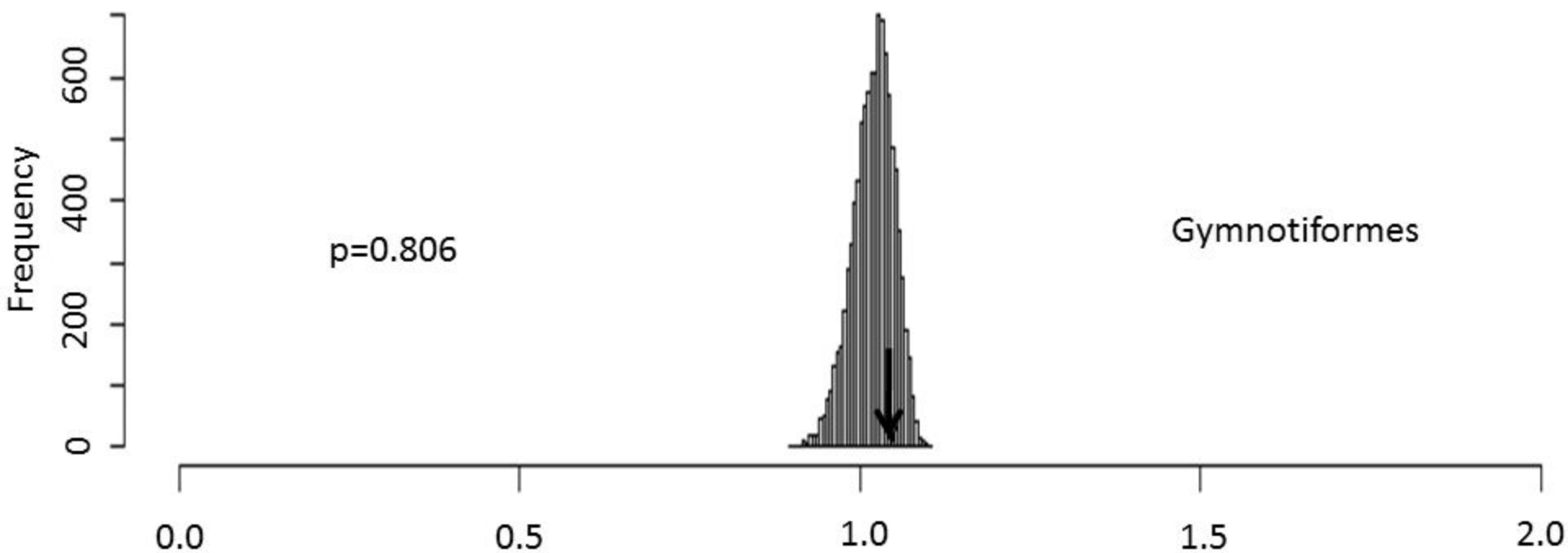
601 The authors declare no competing interests as defined by Nature Publishing Group, or other  
602 interests that might be perceived to influence the results and/or discussion reported in this paper.

603

604

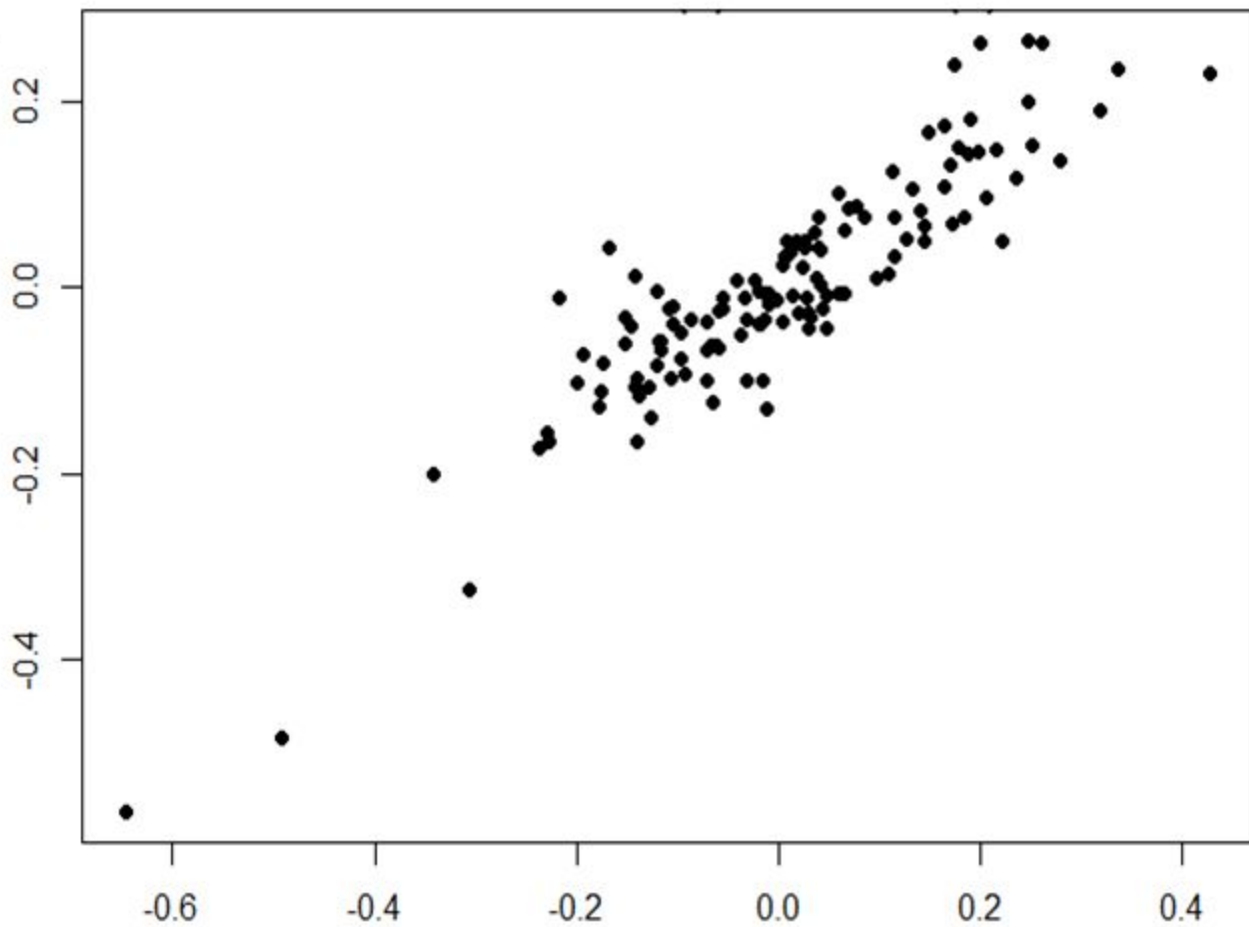
605







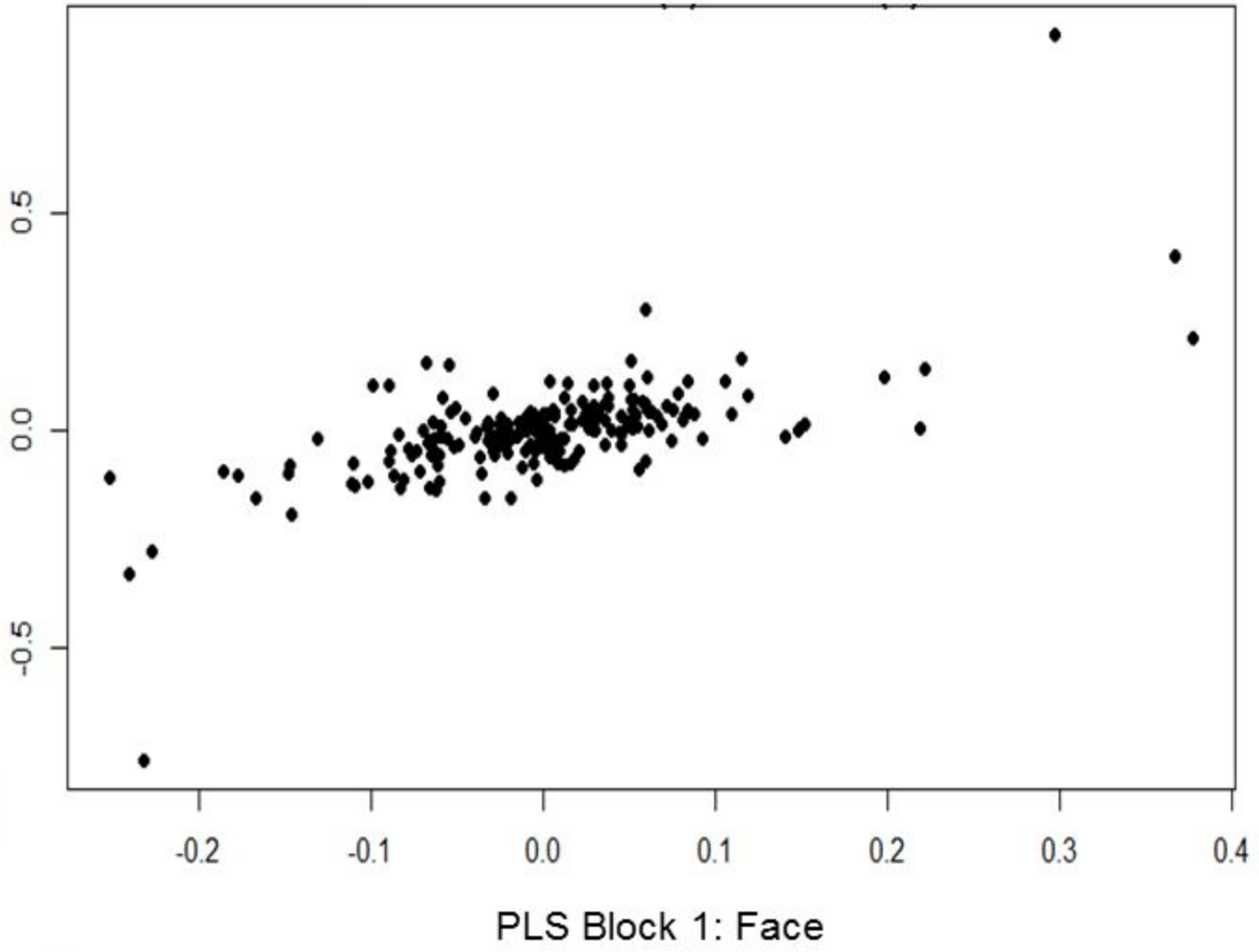
PLS Block 2: Braincase



PLS Block 1: Face

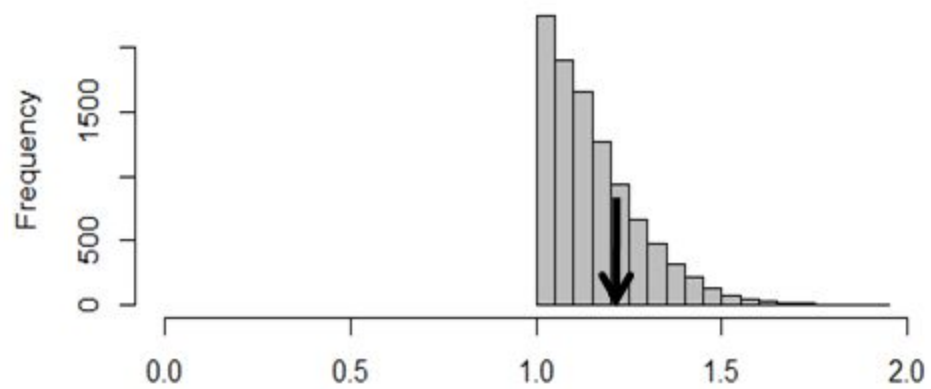


PLS Block 2: Braincase



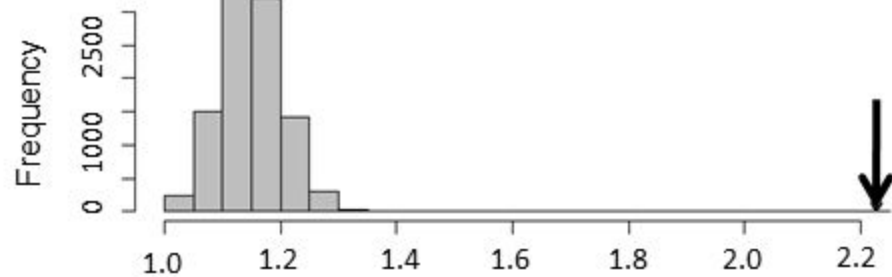
# Gymnotiformes

**a**



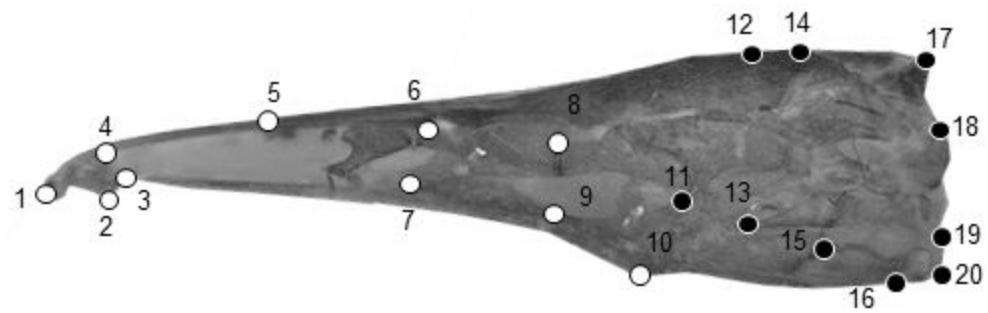
# Carnivora

**b**





**a**



**b**

