

Morphometrics and genetics highlight the complex history of Eastern Mediterranean spiny mice

S Renaud, Emilie Hardouin, Pascale C Chevret, Katerina Papayiannis, Petros Lymberakis, Ferhat Matur, Oxala Garcia-Rodriguez, Demetra Andreou, Ortaç Çetintaş, Mustafa Sözen, et al.

► To cite this version:

S Renaud, Emilie Hardouin, Pascale C Chevret, Katerina Papayiannis, Petros Lymberakis, et al.. Morphometrics and genetics highlight the complex history of Eastern Mediterranean spiny mice. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society, 2020, 130 (3), pp.599-614. 10.1093/biolinnean/blaa063. hal-02988720

HAL Id: hal-02988720 https://hal.science/hal-02988720v1

Submitted on 21 Nov 2020 $\,$

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

1	Morphometrics and genetics highlight the complex history of Eastern Mediterranean spiny mice
2	
3	SABRINA RENAUD ¹ *, EMILIE A. HARDOUIN ² , PASCALE CHEVRET ¹ , KATERINA PAPAYIANNIS ^{3,4} , PETROS LYMBERAKIS ⁵ ,
4	Ferhat Matur ⁶ , Oxala Garcia-Rodriguez ² , Demetra Andreou ² , Ortaç Çetintaş ⁷ , Mustafa Sözen ⁷ ,
5	Eleftherios Hadjisterkotis ⁸ , George P. Mitsainas ⁹
6	
7	
8	¹ Laboratoire de Biométrie et Biologie Evolutive, UMR5558, CNRS, Université Claude Bernard Lyon 1,
9	Université de Lyon, Campus de la Doua, 69100 Villeurbanne, France
10	² Department of Life and Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Science and Technology, Bournemouth
11	University, Christchurch House, Talbot Campus, Poole, Dorset BH12 5BB, U.K.
12	³ Archéozoologie – Archéobotanique, Société, Pratiques et Environnements (ASPE), UMR 7209 CNRS,
13	Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, 55 rue Buffon, 75005 Paris, France
14	⁴ Present address: Department of History and Archaeology, National and Kapodistrian University of
15	Athens, Greece
16	⁵ Natural History Museum of Crete, University of Crete, Heraklion Crete, Greece
17	⁶ Dokuz Eylül University, Faculty of Science, Department of Biology, Buca, 35412, Izmir, Turkey
18	⁷ Zonguldak Bulent Ecevit University, Department of Biology, Zonguldak, Turkey
19	⁸ Agricultural Research Institute, P.O. Box 22016, 1516, Nicosia, Cyprus
20	⁹ Section of Animal Biology, Department of Biology, University of Patras, 26500 Patras, Greece
21	
22	* Corresponding author
22	
23	
24	Short running title:
25	Acomys cahirinus in the Eastern Mediterranean area
26	

27 Abstract

- 28 Spiny mice of the Acomys cahirinus group display a complex geographic structure in the Eastern
- 29 Mediterranean area, as shown by former genetic and chromosomal studies. In order to better
- 30 elucidate the evolutionary relationships of insular populations from Crete and Cyprus with the
- 31 continental ones from North Africa and Cilicia in Turkey, genetic and morphometric variations were
- 32 investigated, based on mitochondrial D-loop sequences, and size and shape of the first upper molar.
- 33 The Cypriot and the Cilician populations show idiosyncratic divergence in molar size and shape, while
- 34 Crete presents a geographic structure with at least three differentiated sub-populations, as shown by
- 35 congruent distributions of haplogroups, Robertsonian fusions and morphometric variation. A
- 36 complex history of multiple introductions is most probably responsible for this structure, and insular
- 37 isolation coupled with habitat shift should have further promoted a pronounced and rapid
- 38 morphological evolution in molar size and shape on Crete and Cyprus.
- 39

40 Keywords

- 41 *Acomys minous; Acomys cilicicus; Acomys nesiotes*; Crete; Cyprus; D-loop; geometric morphometrics;
- 42 insular evolution; molar shape; phylogeography.

44 Introduction

45 Spiny mice of the genus *Acomys* occupy a large distribution area over Africa to Western Asia,

- 46 including a small area along the Mediterranean coast of Turkey, a region historically known as Cilicia.
- 47 They further occur on the islands of Crete and Cyprus, within the Eastern Mediterranean area, which
- 48 along with Cilicia, constitute the northernmost distribution limit of the genus. The lack of clear
- 49 diagnostic characters led to a taxonomic debate within a group of closely related species known as
- 50 the cahirinus-dimidiatus group (Denys et al., 1994; Volobouev et al., 2007; Frynta et al., 2010; Aghová
- et al., 2019). A growing body of genetic and chromosomal evidence showed that one clade,
- 52 attributed to A. dimidiatus, nowadays occupies the Levant, including Israel and Sinai, up to Arabia
- and Iran. The other clade (A. cahirinus) would only occur between Eastern Sahara and Egypt along
- 54 the Nile Valley (Volobouev et al., 2007; Frynta et al., 2010). Spiny mice from Crete, Cyprus and Cilicia
- 55 are affiliated to the second group (Barome et al., 2001; Frynta et al., 2010; Giagia-Athanasopoulou et
- 56 al., 2011). Being considered endemics, and some of them displaying distinct morphological features,
- 57 such as a larger body size (Kryštufek & Vohralík, 2009), each of these populations was given a specific
- 58 or subspecific status: *A. nesiotes* for the Cypriot, *A. cilicicus* for the Cilician, and *A. minous* for the
- 59 Cretan populations. Crete, however, is characterized by genetic heterogeneity, with the co-existence
- 60 of two distinct mitochondrial clades, one also found in Cyprus and the low Nile valley (Cairo, Egypt),
- 61 and the other one in Cilicia (Barome et al., 2001) and the high Nile Valley, Libya, and Chad (Frynta et
- 62 al., 2010). Cretan mice further vary in their chromosomal number, which ranges from 2*n*=38 to
- 63 2n=42, due to Robertsonian fusions. No individual association has been found between the
- 64 chromosomal number and the mitochondrial lineage (Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011).

65 In order to better understand the evolutionary history of the cahirinus "sensu lato" group (including A. minous, A. nesiotes and A. cilicicus), a geometric morphometric analysis of the first upper molar 66 67 (Fig. 1) was performed. In Acomys as in murine rodents, the first molar erupts before weaning and is 68 subsequently affected only by wear. Molar shape differences are thus indicative of underlying 69 genetic changes. In contrast, osteological characters, such as skull or mandible, are prone to plastic 70 remodelling along an animal's life and consequently, they also vary on a short time-scale, depending 71 on local ecological conditions (Caumul & Polly, 2005; Ledevin et al., 2012). Furthermore, molar teeth 72 are the most frequent fossil remain of small mammals; their study allows a comparison of modern 73 and ancient samples, providing a temporal perspective. Hence, the morphometric analysis of molar 74 shape may deliver valuable insight on the genetic differentiation among populations, complementary 75 to the analysis of mitochondrial DNA for which the existing data were supplemented with new 76 mitochondrial D-loop sequences from Crete, Cyprus and Cilicia.

77 Based on these morphometric and genetic data, the following questions were addressed: (1) Is the 78 genetic and chromosomal heterogeneity on Crete mirrored in a high morphological disparity? (2) Can 79 a synthesis of the genetic, morphometric and chromosomal data shed light on the processes that led 80 to the diversity within Acomys cahirinus s.l. in the Eastern Mediterranean area? (3) Insularity is 81 known to trigger rapid morphological divergence (Millien, 2006). If drift in isolated populations is the 82 dominant factor, a pronounced morphological divergence is expected in Cilicia, as on the islands of Crete and Cyprus. If adaptation to island-specific ecological conditions, including changes in the level 83 84 of competition and predation, is the prime driving factor of divergence (Lomolino, 1985, 2005), the 85 Cilician population should display less divergence compared to those of Crete and Cyprus.

86

87 Material

88 Sampling for genetics

89 Thirty new D-loop sequences were acquired, including specimens from Cyprus, Crete, and Cilicia

90 (Table 1): (1) Five Cypriot specimens ("A. nesiotes") collected in 2015. Despite a sampling effort

around the island, specimens were only caught on Cap Greco or adjacent to it. (2) Eleven Cretan

92 specimens ("A. minous"). (3) Fourteen Cilician individuals ("A. cilicicus") trapped in spring 2013,

around Narlıkuyu, in the district of Mersin (Turkey).

94

95 Sampling for morphometrics

- 96 The morphometric study (Table 1) included 92 specimens collected in Crete (61), Cyprus (6), and
- 97 Cilicia (17). This sampling was complemented by eight specimens from Cairo (Egypt) from the
- 98 Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle de Paris (vouchers: 2001-11; 1997-1308; 1996-432; 1996-446;
- 99 1996-431; 1996-430; 1994-1280; 1999-6), identified as A. cahirinus.

100 Four other specimens from the Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle de Paris were attributed with

- 101 less certainty to *A. cahirinus*, but coming from Sudan and Chad, they allowed to document the
- 102 geographic variation at a larger scale (vouchers: 1906-118a; 1906-118b; 1906-118c; 1981-1059).
- 103 Body size and sex data were available for most specimens, allowing to investigate the occurrence of

sexual dimorphism and allometry. All specimens were identified as sub-adult or adult, based on the

- 105 criterion of the eruption of the third molars. One specimen from Cairo (Egypt) was a juvenile, since
- 106 its third molars were not erupted. It was not included in the analyses of body size, but since the

- molar does not grow further after its eruption, it was included in the analyses of first molar size andshape.
- 109 Finally, three fossil teeth from the floor of the Hellenistic Temple C at the ancient port of Kommos on
- 110 the south coast of Crete, dated between 375 B.C. and AD 160/170 (Shaw, 2000), were measured
- based on drawings of published plates (Payne, 1995) and included in the morphometric analyses.
- 112

113 Methods

- 114 Genetic analyses
- 115 Acomys tissue samples were extracted using DNEasy from Qiagen following the manufacturer
- 116 instructions. A D-loop fragment of 514 bp was amplified using previously described primers (Nicolas
- et al., 2009). PCR conditions were as follows: 10ng of DNA, 2mM of MgCl2, 0.2mM dNTP, 0.5U of
- 118 Taq, 0.2 μ M of each primer. PCR cycles were 15 min 95°C, followed by 35 cycles with 30 sec at 95°C,
- 119 1:30 min at 54°C, 1 min at 72°C; final elongation was 15 min at 72°C. The sequences generated were
- visualized and analyzed CLC Workbench (Qiagen) and aligned with Seaview v4 (Gouy et al., 2010).
- 121 Genetic diversity indices were calculated using DNAsp (Librado & Rozas, 2009).
- 122 A phylogenetic tree was generated using MrBayes (Ronquist et al., 2012) and PhyMI 3.0 (Guindon et 123 al., 2010), including the 30 sequences generated in the present study and the 16 sequences available 124 from GenBank, leading to a total of 46 sequences of A. cahirinus s.l.. The haplotypes were 125 determined with DNAsp (Librado & Rozas, 2009). Only the 20 haplotypes differing by mutation were 126 retained for the phylogenetic analysis. We added to these haplotypes seven A. dimidiatus (AJ012028, MH044889, MH044888, MH044871, MH044868, MH044840, FJ415545) as well as three A. ignitus 127 128 (MH044872, MH044875, MH044876), two A. wilsoni (MH044862, MH044874) and three A. russatus 129 (MH044881, MH044885 and FJ415546) that were used as outgroups. The sites with more than 20% 130 missing data were removed and the final alignment comprised 35 sequences and 493 sites. The 131 substitution model, GTR+I+G, was chosen using jmodeltest (Darriba et al., 2012). Robustness of the 132 nodes was estimated with 1000 bootstrap replicates with PhyMI and posterior probability with MrBayes. The generation number was set at 2000000 MCMC with one tree sampled every 500 133 134 generations. The burn-in was graphically determined with Tracer v1.7 (Rambaut et al., 2018). We also 135 checked that the effective sample sizes (ESSs) were above 200 and that the average standard 136 deviation of split frequencies remained <0.01 after the burn-in threshold. We discarded 20% of the 137 trees and visualized the resulting tree with Figtree v1.4 (Rambaut, 2012). A median-joining haplotype 138 network was constructed in PopART (Leigh & Bryant, 2015) with the 46 A. cahirinus sequences only.

All the sequences generated in the present study are available on GenBank (GenBank numbers
MT001830-MT001858, MT043301) (Table 1).

141 To estimate the divergence time of the lineages of A. cahirinus in the Eastern Mediterranean area, 142 we used BEAST v 2.5.2 (Bouckaert et al., 2019), including its functions BEAUTI, LogCombiner and 143 TreeAnotator. The mitochondrial (Cyt b + D-loop) and nuclear genes (IRBP, RAG1) were retrieved 144 from GenBank for 32 Acomys representing the main lineages within this genus (Aghová et al., 2019) 145 and 4 outgroups (Deomys ferrugineus, Lophuromys flavopunctatus, Lophuromys sikapusi and 146 Uranomys ruddi) (Supp. Table 1). The two Eastern Mediterranean lineages were each represented by 147 one specimen for which sequences of the four genes were available (Supp. Table 1). The dataset 148 comprised 36 sequences and 3509 bp. The best partitioning scheme and substitution models were 149 determined with PartitionFinder 2 (Lanfear et al., 2017) using a greedy heuristic algorithm with 150 'linked branch lengths' option and the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) (Supp. Table 2). The 151 partitions were imported in BEAUTI, where they were assigned separate and unlinked substitution 152 and clock models. Bayesian analyses were run with uncorrelated lognormal relaxed clocks, birth-153 death tree prior and three fossil constraints defined by using lognormal statistical distributions. We 154 used the fossil constraints proposed by Aghova et al. (2019) within the genus Acomys, and hence the 155 same specifications of lognormal priors: offset of 8.5 Ma for the most recent common ancestor 156 (MRCA) of the genus Acomys, 6.08 Ma for the MRCA of the clade encompassing cahirinus + wilsoni + 157 russatus and 3 Ma for the MRCA of the spinosissimus group (Aghová et al., 2019); mean = 1 in the 158 three cases (Aghová et al., 2019). Two independent runs were carried out for 50 million generations 159 with sampling every 1000 generations in BEAST. The first 10% were discarded as burn-in and the 160 resulting parameter and tree files were examined for convergence and effective sample sizes in 161 Tracer 1.7 (Rambaut et al., 2018). The two runs were combined in LogCombiner and the species tree was visualized in TreeAnotator. 162

163

164 *Morphometrics analyses*

First upper molars (UM1) were photographed using a Leica MZ 9.5 binocular, being manually oriented so that the occlusal surface matched at best the horizontal plane. The shape of the UM1 was described using 64 points sampled at equal curvilinear distance along the 2D outline of the occlusal surface using the Optimas software. An outline-based method was chosen, because reliable landmarks are difficult to position on murine-like molars. The top of the cusps is abraded by wear and cannot be used for assessing the position of the cusps, and landmarks bracketing the cusps on the outline are difficult to position, given the smooth undulations delineating the cusps along theoutline. The starting point was tentatively positioned at the anterior-most part of the tooth.

173 The points along the outline were analysed as sliding semi-landmarks (Cucchi et al., 2013). Using this 174 approach, the outline points are adjusted using a generalized Procrustes superimposition (GPA) 175 standardizing size, position and orientation, while retaining the geometric relationships between 176 specimens (Rohlf & Slice, 1990). During the superimposition, semi-landmarks were allowed sliding 177 along their tangent vectors until their positions minimized the shape difference between specimens, 178 the criterion being bending energy (Bookstein, 1997). Because the first point was only defined on the 179 basis of a maximum of curvature at the anterior-most part of the UM1, some slight offset might 180 occur between specimens. The first point was therefore considered as a semi-landmark allowed to 181 slide between the last and second points.

182 The centroid size (CS) of the 64 points (i.e. square root of the sum of the squared distance from each 183 point to the centroid of the configuration) was considered as an estimate of overall tooth size. 184 Differences between groups were tested using an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and relationships 185 between variables were assessed using Pearson's product-moment correlation. The pattern of tooth 186 shape differentiation was explored using multivariate analyses of the aligned coordinates. A principal 187 component analysis (PCA on the variance-covariance matrix of the aligned coordinates) allowed a 188 first exploration of the dataset. It was complemented by a between-group PCA (bgPCA). While the 189 PCA is an eigenanalysis of the total variance-covariance of the dataset, the bgPCA analyses the 190 variance-covariance between group means weighted by the sample size of each group.

Size-related variations in shape and differences between groups were investigated using Procrustes ANOVA. With this approach, the Procrustes distances among specimens are used to quantify the components of shape variation, which are statistically evaluated via permutation (here, 9999 permutations) (Adams & Otarola-Castillo, 2013). The allometric relationship was visualized as the common allometric component (CAC) (Adams et al., 2013). To assess the impact of allometry on the pattern of shape differentiation, a bgPCA was also performed on the residuals of a regression of the aligned coordinates vs. centroid size.

The GPA and the Procrustes ANOVA were performed using the R package *geomorph* (Adams & Otarola-Castillo, 2013). The PCA and the bgPCA were performed using the package *ade4* (Dray & Dufour, 2007). For ANOVA and Procrustes ANOVA, the grouping factor was considered to be the region (see Table 1), in order to increase sample size and ameliorate the performance of the tests. For the bgPCA, the grouping factor was the trapping locality. It corresponds to field data, and the

clustering of neighbouring localities in the morphospace is indicative of geographic structure, despitelow sample size for small groups.

205

206 Results

207 Genetic analyses

As the phylogenetic trees reconstructed with MrBayes and PhyMI were congruent, only the Bayesian tree is presented (Fig. 2). Two main lineages were found with good support (BP > 0.75, PP > 0.45) within *A. cahirinus s.l.*. Lineage A [according the terminology of (Barome et al., 2001)] consisted of haplotypes from Western and Central Crete, Cyprus, Cairo (Northern Egypt) and Chad. Lineage B involved samples from Eastern and Central Crete, Cilicia, Southern Egypt and Libya. The sequences of Chad and Libya appear to be basal with regards to the two lineages, and they were attributed neither to lineage A nor to B.

Both D-loop and cytochrome **b** showed two lineages within *A. cahirinus s.l.* and the two

216 mitochondrial genes provided congruent outcomes at the individual level [(Barome et al., 2001;

217 Frynta et al., 2010); this study]. One exception regarded the specimen R155 from Piskopiano (Crete)

218 published with a cyt b sequence belonging to lineage B (Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011) and for

219 which we found a D-loop belonging to lineage A. We re-sequenced both genes and confirmed the D-

loop attribution to lineage A. Another discrepancy regarded the North African specimens, which

were attributed to lineage B for the cyt b (Frynta et al., 2010). Based on the present D-loop results,

they rather appear to have a basal position in the phylogenetic tree with regards to lineages A and B.

223 Eastern and Central Crete shared haplotypes with Cilicia. Western and Central Crete shared other

haplotypes with Cyprus; none were in common between Cyprus and Cilicia (Fig. 2). This result is

confirmed by the Fst being lower between Cyprus and Crete (Fst = 0.28, p = 0.01) and between Cilicia

and Crete (Fst = 0.60, P < 0.001) than between Cyprus and Cilicia (Fst = 0.83, P < 0.001). Haplotype

diversity was found to be higher in Crete (Hd = 0.864) than in Cyprus (Hd = 0.667) or Cilicia (Hd =

228 0.448).

In the network (Fig. 3), a finer geographic structure could be recognized, especially in Crete. The few African samples appeared as central in the network, with the exception of Cairo, which appeared to be divergent but nested within lineage A. Haplotypes from Crete appeared intermediate between the basal African haplotypes and either those of Cyprus (for lineage A) or those of Cilicia (for lineage B). A geographic structure emerged in Crete, with different haplotypes found in the West, Centre and East of the island. Within lineage A, a central haplotype (in blue on Fig. 3) was found in both Western

- 235 Crete and in Cyprus; other haplotypes were either characteristics of Western or Central Crete.
- 236 Eastern Crete was characterized by a haplotype affiliated to lineage B, also present in the
- 237 easternmost locality of Central Crete (Stalida Mochos) and in Cilicia. Cilicia further hosted two
- 238 specific haplotypes, while Cyprus displayed three specific haplotypes.
- Based on a combined analysis of mitochondrial (Cyt *b* + D-loop) and nuclear genes (IRBP, RAG1), the
- 240 divergence between the two lineages was estimated at 210 000 years [110 000 320 000] (Supp.
- 241 Figure 1).
- 242

243 Morphometric analysis of the first upper molar differentiation

244 Sexual dimorphism

Data on sex and body size (head + body length) were available for most specimens. Body size, as well
as UM1 centroid size, were well differentiated among regions, but not between sexes (Table 2).
Tooth shape was also very different among regions, while sexes were only weakly differentiated. As a
consequence, males and females were pooled in subsequent analyses, to focus on geographical
patterns of differentiation

249 patterns of differentiation.

250 Geographic variations in size and relationship between body and tooth size

Body size varied greatly among but also within populations (Fig. 4A). This variation is partly due to

the age structure of the populations, since very young animals can be trapped, as shown by the

253 specimen without erupted third molars, which displays a very small body size. Specimens from

254 Western Crete tended to display the largest body size, whereas those from Cilicia were among the

smallest. Animals from Cyprus and Cairo tended to have a large body size.

- 256 This trend was not reflected in the pattern of molar size variation (Fig. 4B). Animals from Western
- 257 Crete, while being among the largest, displayed small molar teeth. Similarly, the large animals from

258 Cairo displayed extremely small teeth, while the spiny mice from Cyprus, of similar body size,

displayed among the largest teeth of the dataset. As a consequence, body and molar size were not

- 260 related (Fig. 4C). In a model including region and body size as explanatory variables, UM1 centroid
- size varied greatly among regions (P <2e-16) but only weakly with body size (P = 0.0158).
- 262 Overall, tooth size displayed a reduced variation within localities and within regions, in contrast to
- 263 body size, but the differences in molar size were important even among regions of Crete. Spiny mice
- from Saharan regions (Sudan and Chad) displayed important variations in molar size, even within

- 265 Sudan, despite the fact that these mice were all derived from Khartoum. The fossil teeth from
- 266 Kommos were of large size, similar to the modern Central and Eastern Cretan populations.

268 <u>Tooth shape differences among populations</u>

269 The different regions were highly different in shape (Procrustes ANOVA: P < 0.0001). In the 270 morphospace defined by the first two axes of the PCA on the aligned coordinates (Fig. 5A), 271 populations from Western and Eastern Crete were opposed along PC1. This axis describes a change 272 from teeth with receding anterior cusps leading to an elongated anterior part, to teeth with 273 prominent, anteriorly shifted lingual cusp t1 and labial cusp t3 (Fig. 5B). Negative scores along PC2 274 characterize teeth from Cyprus, with a broader and rounder posterior part, closer labial cusps (t3 and 275 t9), an anteriorly shifted lingual cusp t1, and an anterior part compressed on the lingual side (Fig. 5C). 276 A bgPCA (Fig. 5D) provided further insight into the geographic clustering on Crete. The populations of 277 Western Crete appeared as the most differentiated. The Central and Eastern Cretan populations 278 were relatively close to each other. The Cilician populations appeared central in this morphospace. 279 Along the second axis of the bgPCA, Cyprus appeared as highly divergent. At the opposite side of this 280 axis, the two African samples shared high positive scores; the sample from Cairo was closer to 281 Western Crete along bgPC1, whereas the Saharan sample was closer to Central and Eastern Crete. 282 The populations from Central Crete varied along bgPC2, the two samples from Piskopiano and 283 surroundings displaying positive bgPC2 scores, whereas the three other localities shared negative 284 bgPC2 scores. The fossil teeth from Kommos plotted close to the samples from Sahara and 285 Piskopiano in Central Crete.

286

287 <u>Allometric tooth shape variation</u>

Since tooth size variation appeared to be important (Fig. 4), allometry was investigated as a source of shape differentiation. Shape appeared as significantly related to size (Procrustes ANOVA: p = 1e-04). The Common Allometric Component (CAC) based on this analysis (Fig. 6A) showed a general sizeshape trend which may contribute to the shape similarity between the populations with small molars (Cairo, Western Crete) and to those sharing large molar size (Eastern Crete and Cyprus). Large teeth tended to display a prominent and anteriorly shifted first lingual cusp (t1) and a prominent posterior labial cusp (t9) compared to small teeth (Fig. 6B).

- 295 The size-free shape variation was explored based on a bgPCA on the residuals of a regression of the
- aligned coordinates on centroid size (Fig. 6C). The pattern of between-population differentiation was
- 297 not deeply modified compared to the analysis on the raw aligned coordinates (Fig. 5D).
- 298

299 Discussion

300 Two ancient haplogroups in Crete

301 This study confirms the complex geographic structure observed in earlier studies within the Eastern 302 Mediterranean spiny mice Acomys cahirinus s.l. (Barome et al., 2001; Frynta et al., 2010; Giagia-303 Athanasopoulou et al., 2011). Different haplogroups occur in Cyprus and Cilicia, the only area where 304 Acomys cahirinus s.l. occurs on a Northern Mediterranean coast, while Crete hosts both haplogroups 305 (Barome et al., 2001; Frynta et al., 2010). The divergence of the two haplogroups has been dated 306 here at 210 kyrs, an estimate based on four genes, several calibration points within Acomys, and a 307 Bayesian approach, that allows to re-evaluate the previous estimate of 400 kyrs (Barome et al., 308 2001). Such a range of dating of divergence is typical for phylogeographic lineages isolated during the 309 Plio-Pleistocene climatic fluctuations [e.g. (Nicolas et al., 2008; Ben Faleh et al., 2012; McDonough et 310 al., 2015)]. Since a Pleistocene fossil record of Acomys is absent from Cyprus and Crete (Barome et 311 al., 2001), the divergence between the haplogroups clearly predates the dispersion in this area.

312

313 A complex geographic structure in Cretan spiny mice

314 The two mitochondrial lineages have different geographic distributions: lineage A dominates in 315 Western and Central Crete, whereas lineage B occurs mostly in Eastern Crete (Barome et al., 2001; 316 Frynta et al., 2010; Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011). The present study further shows a finer 317 geographic structure, based on the repartition of the D-loop haplotypes: Western and Central Crete 318 tend to display different haplotypes within lineage A (Fig. 3). This is in complete agreement with the 319 morphometric results, showing different molar size (Fig. 4) and shape (Fig. 5) in Western, Central and 320 Eastern Crete; possibly, a finer differentiation occurs even within Central Crete, with the area around 321 Piskopiano displaying slightly different molar shape (Fig. 5). A reconsideration of the former 322 chromosomal results (Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011) also suggests regional variations in Crete 323 (Fig. 7), with high, ancestral, diploid chromosome numbers (up to 2n = 42) dominating in Central 324 Crete, whereas lower, derived diploid chromosome numbers (e.g. 2n = 38) are found in Western and 325 Eastern Crete (Fig. 7). All markers, despite being very different in their nature (mitochondrial DNA,

karyotypes, molar size and shape) are therefore congruent and point to a strong geographicstructure in Crete.

328 Nevertheless, evidence of mixing occurs. Regarding the mitochondrial lineages, specimens attributed 329 to lineage B can occasionally be found in regions dominated by lineage A: one mouse in Akrotiri 330 Peninsula, Chania (Barome et al., 2001) and one mouse in the easternmost locality of Central Crete, 331 Stalida Mochos [(Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011); this study]. Regarding karyotypes, a specimen 332 with the derived diploid chromosome number 2n = 38 was found in Central Crete, despite the 333 dominance there of high diploid chromosome numbers (2n = 42, 2n = 40 and their hybrids). The 334 occurrence in Eastern Crete of both, homozygous mice with 2n = 40 and heterozygotes with 2n = 39335 suggests the existence in the area of homozygous mice with 2n = 38, although they have not yet 336 been captured [Fig. 7, (Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011)].

Despite this evidence of mixing, the strong geographic structure observed for molar shape shows
that gene flow is not enough to homogenize the populations across Crete. Crete is characterized by a
mountainous relief compartmented by basins, with several massifs culminating above 2000 meters.
Both high mountains and basins may constitute barriers to dispersal for spiny mice preferably
inhabiting Mediterranean environments with rocky substrates (Kryštufek & Vohralík, 2009). This
complex geomorphology probably promoted isolation and divergence of *Acomys* populations in

343 different parts of the island.

344

345 Cretan spiny mice within the diversity of the Eastern Mediterranean area

346 The diversity observed in Cretan spiny mice is difficult to insert into a general pattern, because the 347 diversity on the African continent is largely under-sampled. However, the distribution of the two 348 haplogroups in the Eastern Mediterranean area points to a complex history of migration. The 349 haplotypes found in Crete, Cyprus and Cilicia were shown to be derived, compared to the haplotypes 350 sampled so far in Libya, Chad, and the high Nile Valley. Chadian and Libyan specimens even appeared 351 to be outside from lineage A or B, due to their basal position, or to incomplete lineage sorting. In 352 contrast, lineage A haplotypes sampled in Cairo appeared to be derived and branched with 353 sequences from Cyprus and Western Crete [(Frynta et al., 2010); this study].

Regarding the karyotype evolution, *Acomys* is characterized by an important variation of the diploid

355 chromosome number, ranging from 2n = 68 to 2n = 40-42 and even 2n = 38-36 in the *A. cahirinus*

- 356 group, knowing that 2n = 36 is the karyotype with the lowest chromosome number that can be
- achieved in spiny mice through Rb fusions (Lavrenchenko et al., 2011). Within A. cahirinus, 2n=40-42

particular, Central Crete hosts ancestral karyotypes (2n = 40 and even 2n = 42). Cyprus displays an
additional Robertsonian (Rb) fusion (2n = 38), that is also present in Western Crete and possibly in
Eastern Crete. A further Rb fusion has led to 2n = 36 in the Cilicia population and in the Egyptian
population from Cairo (Macholán et al., 1995; Zima et al., 1999; Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011).
However, it is difficult to assess the variation within *A. cahirinus* in the African continent, due to a

limited geographic sampling and taxonomic uncertainty.

karyotypes can therefore be considered as 'ancestral' and those of 2n = 36-38 as 'derived'. In

358

364

- Regarding molar morphometrics, the population from Central Crete appears close to the Saharan group and to the fossil teeth from Kommos. Altogether, this suggests that Central Crete may host a population characterized by ancestral tooth morphology, karyotypes, and haplotypes. The Cretan fossils were deposited during the lifetime of the Hellenistic temple of Kommos, which lasted from 375 BC to AD 160/170. Since no *Acomys* fossils were ever found in older Cretan deposits (Katerina Papayiannis pers. obs. January 2020), this places the earliest appearance of *Acomys* on Crete during this time interval.
- 372 The occurrence of a second mitochondrial lineage in Eastern Crete (lineage B), however, suggests 373 that multiple introductions occurred from different continental source populations. Important trade 374 across the Eastern Mediterranean area continued throughout the Bronze Age and Historic times 375 (Karetsou et al., 2001). Likely, the dispersion of Acomys through the Eastern Mediterranean area 376 occurred by human-mediated transport (Barome et al., 2001) as unintentional stowaway on boat 377 cargos, in a manner similar to that described for the Western house mouse Mus musculus domesticus 378 (Cucchi, 2008). Both Cilicia and Cyprus spiny mice display more derived haplotypes, karyotypes, and 379 tooth shape than those from Crete; this further suggests that Crete acted as a hub from which spiny 380 mice were translocated.

381 In support of this statement, the fact that the 2n = 38 karyotype of some Cretan spiny mice is 382 identical to the one of Cypriot mice, and differs only by an additional Rb fusion from the 2n = 36 383 karyotype of Cilician mice, could be explained through the expansion of mice with 2n = 38 from Crete 384 to the other two regions, irrespective of mitochondrial lineages. The two lineages are reported to 385 freely hybridize in the laboratory (Frynta et al., 2010) and in Crete, they are not associated with 386 specific karyotypes, e.g. there exist spiny mice with 2n = 38 attributed to lineage A or B (Giagia-387 Athanasopoulou et al., 2011). Thus, populations with 2n = 38 could have been imported to Cilicia 388 from Eastern Crete (dominated by lineage B) and to Cyprus from Central or Western Crete 389 (dominated by lineage A). The additional Rb fusion, mentioned above, would have then occurred 390 locally in the isolated population of Cilicia, leading to its very derived karyotype (2n = 36).

The population from Cairo constitutes a puzzling case. It displays the same derived karyotype as Cilicia (2*n* = 36 with the same Rb fusions), however belongs to lineage A, with haplotypes related to those of Cyprus and Western Crete. Thus, a direct relationship between the Cairo and Cilician spiny mice is unlikely. Moreover, the tooth morphology of the Cairo mice is close in size and shape to the one observed in Western Crete. These facts could be reconciled if the population from Cairo is actually derived from a secondary import on the African continent, from Western Crete or Cyprus.

397 In this case, the identical karyotype of 2n = 36 in both Cilicia and Cairo would be the result of the 398 independent, in situ fixation of the same Rb fusion in the karyotype of both populations. Derived 399 from 2n = 38, there are only three acrocentric chromosomes available for a new Rb fusion, one of 400 which is very small (Giagia-Athanasopoulou et al., 2011). Rb fusions do not happen completely 401 randomly between acrocentric chromosomes, but similarly-sized chromosomes seem to be 402 preferably fused (Gazave et al., 2003), and this may have triggered the independent fixation of the 403 same Rb fusion in the two, otherwise, distant populations (Lavrenchenko et al., 2011). As in the 404 house mouse, successive Rb fusions, leading to very low diploid numbers, might have been favoured 405 by successive dispersion events, and small patchy distribution (Auffray, 1993). The peculiarity of the 406 Cairo population could be maintained by behavioural mechanisms, similar to those reported for 407 house mouse populations from Tunisia (Chatti et al., 1999), since this population is characterized by 408 its commensal habit (Kryštufek & Vohralík, 2009) that may maintain its isolation from the 409 surrounding populations. Any further interpretation is hampered by the limited data available from 410 the African continent.

411

412 Insularity and isolation promoting morphological divergence

413 Whatever the dynamics of colonization, the insular conditions promoted a pronounced 414 morphological divergence in tooth morphology. This occurred in a relatively short evolutionary time 415 span, since the first appearance of Acomys in Crete occurred during the Hellenistic period, ~2000 416 years ago (Payne, 1995). The evolution on Cyprus is even more rapid. Since no Acomys fossil has 417 been recovered so far from the prehistoric record (Vigne, 1999; Horwitz et al., 2004), the species is 418 thought to have been introduced to this island during the last 1000 years. In that time span, the 419 molar morphology evolved markedly, exemplifying the acceleration of morphological evolution on 420 islands (Millien, 2006). Morphological divergence occurred as well in the isolated but not insular 421 population of Cilicia, although to a lesser degree. This suggests that random drift in isolated, small 422 populations fostered rapid divergence in Crete, Cyprus and Cilicia, and that adaptation to local insular 423 conditions has further drove molar evolution in the two insular populations, as shown for the house

424 mouse (Ledevin et al., 2016). In addition, hybridization between the populations of Crete might have 425 contributed to the diversity of molar shape on this island. Hybrid morphologies are not necessarily 426 intermediate between those of the parents, but can display transgressive phenotypes (Renaud et al., 427 2017a). In Central Crete, molars frequently display an elongated forepart up to the occurrence of a 428 small, additional cusplet in front of the t2 cusp. A similar phenotype was found in hybrid house mice 429 (Renaud et al., 2017a), and in several insular house mouse populations (Renaud et al., 2011; Renaud 430 et al., 2018). The evolution of similar dental phenotypes in distant rodent groups might be due to 431 shared developmental processes favouring not only convergent evolution within true murines 432 (Hayden et al., 2020), but also between murines and the murine-like molar of Acomys.

433

434 Heterogeneity in molar size: a partial decoupling from body size

Evolution of size is a well-known characteristic of insular populations (Lomolino, 1985, 2005). Small
mammals are expected to increase in body size, due to a combination of factors including decrease
of interspecific competition and predation pressure, and increase of intraspecific competition
(Lomolino, 1985, 2005). Because molar size is considered to be a good proxy of body size at a broad
taxonomic scale (Gingerich et al., 1982), increase in molar size could be expected as well.

440 Regarding body size, Acomys indeed displayed a large body size on Cyprus, but within Crete, body 441 size varied considerably among populations (Fig. 4A). This may be related to different age structure 442 of the populations: sampling at different periods may lead to an overrepresentation of young or old 443 animals, skewing the size distribution towards small or large body size (Renaud et al., 2017b). Such a 444 confounding factor may be especially important in a species in which neonates already display hair 445 and open eyes, and can therefore rapidly leave the nest. Age structure may also contribute to the large body size observed for most specimens from Cairo, that are mentioned to have been 446 447 maintained in captivity for some time.

448 Estimating the degree of insular size increase is all the more difficult, due to the lack of sufficient data 449 for African spiny mice. Nevertheless, among Eastern Mediterranean spiny mice, the continental 450 Cilician Acomys displayed the smallest body size. Differences between Cypriot and Cretan mice may 451 be related to local differences in competition and predation. For instance, the least weasel (Mustela 452 nivalis) has been intentionally introduced by Phoenicians and Greeks on the Mediterranean islands, 453 with the aim of controlling commensal rodents following their stowaway introduction (Rodrigues et 454 al., 2017). The weasels introduced in antiquity (Lehmann & Nobis, 1979), however went extinct in 455 Cyprus (Rodrigues et al., 2017), further relieving mammalian predation pressure on Cypriot Acomys.

456 In contrast, molar size varied greatly among Crete, Cyprus and Cilicia, and even within Crete. This 457 apparently surprising uncoupling between molar and body size is due to the fact that even if molar 458 size is correlated to body size at a broad taxonomic scale, it is not necessarily the case at a population 459 level, because the first molar erupts early after birth and is therefore not affected by subsequent 460 growth (Renaud et al., 2017b). The most obvious decoupling between body and molar size regards 461 the populations from Western Crete and Cairo, being of relatively large body size but extremely small 462 molar size (Fig. 4C). Similar uncoupling is not uncommon and has been observed for instance in wood 463 mice (Apodemus sylvaticus) from Ibiza (Renaud & Michaux, 2007).

464 The large variation in molar size may echo an under-evaluated variation in the African continent, as 465 suggested by the large variation in tooth size observed in Khartoum, Sudan (Fig. 4B). It could also 466 have an adaptive component, for instance related to a polarity in rainfall in Crete, western regions 467 receiving more rainfall and thus hosting different ecosystems. Indeed, larger tooth size 468 ("macrodonty") has been proposed to occur in some insular small mammals, as a response to diet 469 shifts (Vigne et al., 1993). Large teeth with a massive outline, as those of Eastern Crete, might be 470 favoured in dry habitats, in order to process more efficiently hard food, resistant to comminution 471 (Renaud et al., 2005).

472

473 Conclusion

Genetic, chromosomal and morphometric results were congruent to underline a strong geographic
structure in Eastern Mediterranean spiny mice (*Acomys cahirinus* sensu lato) and especially within
Crete. A complex history of multiple introductions is probably responsible for this structure. Insular
isolation coupled with habitat shift must have further promoted a pronounced and rapid
morphological evolution in molar size and shape on Crete and Cyprus.

479 As a consequence, the species A. nesiotes (Cyprus), A. cilicicus (Cilicia, Turkey) and A. minous (Crete) 480 are clearly nested within A. cahirinus (group cah9 in (Aghová et al., 2019)) and are only defined by 481 their geographic distribution. Due to their isolated distribution and morphological characteristics, "nesiotes" and "cilicicus" names may be maintained for describing subspecific evolutionary units. A. 482 483 minous encompasses populations with different haplotypic composition and morphometric 484 characteristics, and therefore it does not correspond to a homogeneous evolutionary unit. A more 485 thorough sampling of the African continent, as well as further genetic data including nuclear genes, 486 would be required for a better understanding of the complex history of translocation and evolution 487 in isolation that led to the amazing morphological diversity in modern Cretan and more generally, 488 Eastern Mediterranean spiny mice.

490 Acknowledgements

- 491 We thank the three anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments. The sampling in Turkey
- 492 benefited from a funding by the Zonguldak Bulent Ecevit University project (no 2012-10-06-10) to
- 493 Mustafa Sözen and Ferhat Matur.
- 494

495 References

- Adams CD, Otarola-Castillo E. 2013. geomorph: an R package for the collection and analysis of
 geometric morphometric shape data. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* 4: 393-399.
- 498 Adams CD, Rohlf FJ, Slice DE. 2013. A field comes of age: geometric morphometrics in the 21th
 499 century. *Hystrix, The Italian Journal of Mammalogy* 24: 7-14.
- Aghová T, Palupčíková K, Šumbera R, Frynta D, Lavrenchenko LA, Meheretu Y, Sádlová J, Votýpka J,
 Mbau JS, Modrý D, Bryja J. 2019. Multiple radiations of spiny mice (Rodentia: *Acomys*) in dry
 open habitats of Afro-Arabia: evidence from a multi-locus phylogeny. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 19: 69.

Auffray J-C. 1993. Chromosomal divergence in house mice in the light of palaeonotlogy: a colonization-related event? *Quaternary International* 19: 21-25.

- Barome P-O, Lymberakis P, Monnerot M, Gautun J-C. 2001. Cytochrome *b* sequences reveal *Acomys minous* (Rodentia, Muridae) paraphyly and answer the question about the ancestral
 karyotype of *Acomys dimidiatus*. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 18: 37-46.
- Ben Faleh A, Granjon L, Tatard C, Boratyński Z, Cosson J-F, Said K. 2012. Phylogeography of two
 cryptic species of African desert jerboas (Dipodidae: Jaculus). Biological Journal of the
 Linnean Society 107: 27-38.
- Bookstein FL. 1997. Landmark methods for forms without landmarks: morphometrics of group
 differences in outline shape. *Medical Image Analysis* 1: 225-243.
- Bouckaert R, Vaughan TG, Barido-Sottani J, Duchêne S, Fourment M, Gavryushkina A, Heled J,
 Jones G, Kühnert D, De Maio N, Matschiner M, Mendes FK, Müller NF, Ogilvie HA, du
 Plessis L, Popinga A, Rambaut A, Rasmussen D, Siveroni I, Suchard MA, Wu CH, Xie D,
 Zhang C, Stadler T, Drummond AJ. 2019. BEAST 2.5: An advanced software platform for
 Bayesian evolutionary analysis. *PLoS Computional Biology* 15: e1006650.
- 519 Caumul R, Polly PD. 2005. Phylogenetic and environmental components of morphological variation:
 520 skull, mandible, and molar shape in marmots (*Marmota*, Rodentia). *Evolution* 59: 2460-2472.
- 521 Chatti N, Ganem G, Benzekri C, Catalan J, Britton-Davidian J, Saïd K. 1999. Microgeographical
 522 distribution of two chromosomal races of house mice in Tunisia: pattern and origin of habitat
 523 partitioning. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Biological Sciences (serie B) 266:
 524 1561-1569.

525 Cucchi T. 2008. Uluburun shipwreck stowaway house mouse: molar shape analysis and indirect clues 526 about the vessel's last journey. *Journal of Archaeological Science* 35: 2953-2959.

527 Cucchi T, Kovács ZE, Berthon R, Orth A, Bonhomme F, Evin A, Siahsarvie R, Darvish J, Bakhshaliyev
 528 V, Marro C. 2013. On the trail of Neolithic mice and men towards Transcaucasia:
 529 zooarchaeological clues from Nakhchivan (Azerbaijan). *Biological Journal of the Linnean* 530 Society 108: 917-928.

531 Darriba D, Taboada GL, Doallo R, Posada D. 2012. jModelTest 2: more models, new heuristics and 532 parallel computing. *Nature Methods* 9: 772.

533 Denys C, Gautun J-C, Tranier M, Volobouev V. 1994. Evolution of the genus Acomys (Rodentia, 534 Muridae) from dental and chromosomal pattern. Israel Journal of Zoology 40: 215-246. 535 Dray S, Dufour A-B. 2007. The ade4 package: implementing the duality diagram for ecologists. 536 Journal of Statistical Software 22: 1-20. 537 Frynta D, Palupčíkova K, Bellinvia E, Benda P, Skarlantová H, Schwarzová L, Modry D. 2010. 538 Phylogenetic relationships within the *cahirinus-dimidiatus* group of the genus Acomys 539 (Rodentia: Muridae): a new mitochondrial lineage from Sahara, Iran and the Arabian 540 Peninsula. Zootaxa 2660: 46-56. 541 Gazave E, Catalan J, Da Graça Ramalhinho M, Da Luz Mathias M, Nunes M, Dumas D, Britton-542 Davidian J, Auffray J-C. 2003. The non-random occurrence of Robertsonian fusionin the house mouse. Genetical Research 81: 33-42. 543 544 Giagia-Athanasopoulou EB, Rovatsos MT, Mitsainas GP, Martimianakis S, Lymberakis P, Angelou L-545 XD, Marchal JA, Sánchez A. 2011. New data on the evolution of the Cretan spiny mouse, 546 Acomys minous (Rodentia, Murinae), shed light on the phylogenetic relationships in the 547 cahirinus group. Biological Journal of the Linnean Society **102**: 498-509. 548 Gingerich PD, Smith BH, Rosenberg K. 1982. Allometric scaling in the dentition of primates and 549 prediction of body weight from tooth size in fossils. American Journal of Physical 550 Anthropology 58: 81-100. 551 Gouy M, Guindon S, Gascuel O. 2010. SeaView Version 4: A multiplatform graphical user interface 552 for sequence alignment and phylogenetic tree building. Molecular Biology and Evolution 27: 553 221-224. 554 Guindon S, Dufayard J-F, Lefort V, Anisimova M, Hordijk W, Gascuel O. 2010. New algorithms and 555 methods to estimate maximum-likelihood phylogenies: assessing the performance of PhyML 556 3.0. Systematic Biology 59: 307-321. 557 Hayden L, Lochovska L, Sémon M, Renaud S, Delignette-Muller M-L, Vicot M, Peterková R, 558 Hovorakova M, Pantalacci S. 2020. Developmental variability channels mouse molar 559 evolution. *eLife* **9:** e50103. 560 Horwitz LK, Tchernov E, Hongo H. 2004. The domestic status of the early Neolithic fauna of Cyprus: a 561 view from the mainland. In: Peltenburg E and Wasse A, eds. Neolithic revolution: new 562 perspectives on Southwest Asia in light of recent discoveries on Cyprus. Oxford: Oxbow books. 563 135-148. 564 Karetsou A, Andreadaki-Vlasaki M, Papadakis N. 2001. Crete-Egypt: three thousand years of cultural 565 links, Catalogue. In: Hellenic Ministry of Culture DoPaCA, ed. 566 Kryštufek B, Vohralík V. 2009. Mammals of Turkey and Cyprus. Rodentia II: Cricetinae, Muridae, 567 Spalacidae, Calomyscidae, Capromyidae, Hystricidae, Castoridae. In: Kryštufek B and Vohralík 568 V, eds. *Mammals of Turkey and Cyprus*. Univerza na Primorskem: Koper. 569 Lanfear R, Frandsen PB, Wright AM, Senfeld T, Calcott B. 2017. Partitionfinder 2: New methods for 570 selecting partitioned models of evolution for molecular and morphological phylogenetic 571 analyses. Molecular Biology and Evolution 34: 772-773. 572 Lavrenchenko LA, Nadjafova RS, Bulatova NS. 2011. Three new karyotypes extend a Robertsonian fan in Ethiopian spiny mice of the genus Acomys I. Geoffroy, 1838 (Mammalia, Rodentia). 573 574 Comparative Cytogenetics 5: 423-431. 575 Ledevin R, Chevret P, Ganem G, Britton-Davidian J, Hardouin EA, Chapuis J-L, Pisanu B, Mathias 576 MdL, Schlager S, Auffray J-C, Renaud S. 2016. Phylogeny and adaptation shape the teeth of 577 insular mice. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London, Biological Sciences (serie B) 283: 578 20152820. 579 Ledevin R, Quéré J-P, Michaux JR, Renaud S. 2012. Can tooth differentiation help to understand 580 species coexistence? The case of wood mice in China. Journal of Zoological Systematics and 581 Evolutionary Research 50: 315-327. 582 Librado P, Rozas J. 2009. DnaSP v5: a software for comprehensive analysis of DNA polymorphism data. Bioinformatics 25: 1451-1452. 583

584 Lomolino MV. 1985. Body size of mammals on islands: the island rule reexamined. The American 585 Naturalist 125: 310-316. 586 Lomolino MV. 2005. Body size evolution in insular vertebrates: generality of the island rule. Journal 587 of Biogeography 32: 1683-1699. 588 Macholán M, Zima J, Cervená A, Cervený J. 1995. Karyotype of Acomys cilicicus Spitzenberger, 1978 589 (Rodentia, Muridae). Mammalia 59: 397-402. 590 McDonough MM, Šumbera R, Mazoch V, Ferguson AW, Phillips CD, Bryja J. 2015. Multilocus 591 phylogeography of a widespread savanna-woodland-adapted rodent reveals the influence of 592 Pleistocene geomorphology and climate change in Africa's Zambezi region. Molecular 593 Ecology 24: 5248–5266. Millien V. 2006. Morphological evolution is accelerated among island mammals. PLoS Biology 4: 594 595 e321. 596 Nicolas V, Bryja J, Akpatou B, Konecny A, Lecompte E, Colyn M, Lalis A, Couloux A, Denys C, 597 Granjon L. 2008. Comparative phylogeography of two sibling species of forest-dwelling 598 rodent (Praomys rostratus and P. tullbergi) in West Africa: different reactions to past forest 599 fragmentation. Molecular Ecology 17: 5118-5134. 600 Nicolas V, Granjon L, Duplantier J, Cruaud C, Dobigny G. 2009. Phylogeography of spiny mice (genus 601 Acomys, Rodentia: Muridae) from the south-western margin of the Sahara with taxonomic 602 implications. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* **98:** 29-46. 603 Payne S. 1995. Appendix 5.1: The small mammals. In: Shaw JW and Shaw M, eds. The Kommos region 604 and the houses of the Minoan town. Part 1: the Kommos region, ecology and Minoan 605 industries. Princeton: Princeton University Press. 278-291. 606 Rambaut A. 2012. Figtree v1.4. http://tree.bio.ed.ac.uk/software/figtree/. Rambaut A, Drummond AJ, Xie D, Baele G, Suchard MA. 2018. Posterior summarisation in Bayesian 607 608 phylogenetics using Tracer 1.7. Systematic Biology 67: syy032. 609 Renaud S, Alibert P, Auffray J-C. 2017a. Impact of hybridization on shape, variation and covariation 610 of the mouse molar. *Evolutionary Biology* **44:** 69-81. 611 Renaud S, Hardouin EA, Quéré J-P, Chevret P. 2017b. Morphometric variations at an ecological 612 scale: Seasonal and local variations in feral and commensal house mice. Mammalian Biology 613 **87:** 1-12. 614 Renaud S, Ledevin R, Souquet L, Gomes Rodrigues H, Ginot S, Agret S, Claude J, Herrel A, Hautier L. 615 **2018.** Evolving teeth within a stable masticatory apparatus in Orkney mice. *Evolutionary* 616 Biology 45: 405-424. 617 Renaud S, Michaux J, Schmidt DN, Aguilar J-P, Mein P, Auffray J-C. 2005. Morphological evolution, 618 ecological diversification and climate change in rodents. Proceedings of the Royal Society of 619 London, Biological Sciences (serie B) 272: 609-617. 620 Renaud S, Michaux JR. 2007. Mandibles and molars of the wood mouse, Apodemus sylvaticus (L.): 621 integrated latitudinal signal and mosaic insular evolution. Journal of Biogeography 34: 339-622 355. 623 Renaud S, Pantalacci S, Auffray J-C. 2011. Differential evolvability along lines of least resistance of 624 upper and lower molars in island house mice. PLoS ONE 6: e18951. 625 Rodrigues M, Bos AR, Schembri PJ, Lima RFd, Lymberakis P, Parpal L, Cento M, Ruette S, Ozkurt SO, 626 Santos-Reis M, Merilä J, Fernandes C. 2017. Origin and introduction history of the least 627 weasel (Mustela nivalis) on Mediterranean and Atlantic islands inferred from genetic data. 628 Biological Invasions 19. 629 Rohlf FJ, Slice D. 1990. Extensions of the Procrustes method for the optimal superimposition of 630 landmarks. Systematic Zoology 39: 40-59. 631 Ronquist F, Teslenko M, Mark Pvd, Ayres D, Darling A, Höhna S, Larget B, Liu L, Suchard MA, 632 Huelsenbeck JP. 2012. MrBayes 3.2: Efficient Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model 633 choice across a large model space. *Systematic Biology* **61**: 539-542.

- Shaw JW. 2000. Chapter 1: the architecture of the Temples and other buildings. In: Shaw JW and
 Shaw MC, eds. Kommos IV: the Greek Sanctuary, part 1. Princeton: Princeton University
 Press. 37-56.
- Vigne J-D. 1999. The large 'true' Mediterranean islands as a model for the Holocene human impact
 on the European vertebrate fauna? Recent data and new reflections. In: Benecke N, ed. *The Holocene history of the European vertebrate fauna: modern aspects of research*. Leidorf:
 Archäologisches Institut Eurasien. 295-322.
- 641 Vigne J-D, Cheylan G, Granjon L, Auffray J-C. 1993. Evolution ostéométrique de *Rattus rattus* et de
 642 *Mus musculus domesticus* sur de petites îles: comparaison de populations médiévales et
 643 actuelles des îles Lavezzi (Corse) et de Corse. *Mammalia* 57: 85-98.
- Volobouev V, Auffray J-C, Debat V, Denys C, Gautun J-C, Tranier M. 2007. Species delimitation in the
 Acomys cahirinus-dimidiatus complex (Rodentia, Muridae) inferred from chromosomal and
 morphological analyses. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* 91: 203-214.
- **Zima J, Macholán M, Piálek J, Slivková L, Suchomelová E. 1999.** Chromosomal banding pattern in the
 Cyprus spiny mouse, *Acomys nesiotes. Folia Zoologica* **48**: 149-152.

Area	Region	Locality	Code	Ν	Ν	New accession
				UM1	Dloop	numbers
Crete	West (W)	Chania – Akrotirio	CHA	5	1	MT001851
		Lefka Ori	LEFKO	5	1	MT001845
		Chania – Souda	SOU	3	1	MT001848
		Hills facing Elafonisos island			1	
		Kournas Lake			1	
	Central (C)	Almyros Gorge, Linoperamata	LINO	6	1	MT001852
		Kokkini Hani	KOKH	8	1	MT001844
		Stalida Mochos	STAL	3	1	MT001846
		Piskopiano	PISKO	5	2	MT001847
						MT043301
		Towards Kokkini Chani	РКОК	20	1	MT001853
	East (E)	Siteia	SIT	6	2	MT001849
						MT001850
		Vai			2	
Cyprus		Cap Greco	СҮР	6	5	MT001854-58
		Agirdag			1	
		Cinarli			1	
		Zafer Burnu, Cap Andreas			1	
Turkey	Cilicia (CIL)	Narlıkuyu	NAR	8	6	MT001830-35
		Ayaş	AYA	4	3	MT001836-38
		Karaahmetli, Hüseyinler,	KAR	7	5	MT001839-43
		Kumrukuyu				
		Silifke			2	
		NA			1	
Libya		Mts. Akakus			1	
Egypt	Cairo	Cairo	CAIRO	8	2	
	Assouan	Abu Simbel			2	
Sahara	Sahara	Sudan (Kharthoum)	SAH	3		
		Chad (Yogoum)	SAH	1		
		Chad (Tibesti plateau)			1	
Fossil	Central	Kommos	Fos-	3		
Crete	Crete		KOM			

653	Table 1. Sampling	for morphometric and	genetic analyses. Re	gion, area within reg	gion, locality of
			0	0 - /	j - j j -

trapping and its code are provided. N UM1: number of first upper molars included in the analysis. N

Dloop: number of Dloop sequences in the present study. In bold the number of newly acquired

656 sequences.

Method	Variable(s)	Region	Sex	Interaction
ANOVA	HBL	< 0.0001	0.8050	0.9425
	UM1 CS	< 0.0001	0.1679	0.7630
ProcANOVA	UM1 Shape	< 0.0001	0.0133	0.0028

Table 2. Sexual dimorphism in molar size and shape, taking into account the regions. Probabilities of
 ANOVA are given for size univariate parameters (HBL: head + body length; UM1 CS: first upper molar
 centroid size) and of Procrustes ANOVA for shape data (aligned coordinates).

666 Figure Captions

Figure 1. Sampling localities and examples of first upper molars (UM1) in the various populations of *Acomys* considered in this study. All belong to the *cahirinus s.l.* group. Spiny mice from the island of Crete are designated as *A. minous*, those from the island of Cyprus as *A. nesiotes* and those confined to a small area in Cilicia (Asia Minor, Turkey) as *A. cilicicus*. Nomenclature of the cusps is indicated on one molar tooth of *A. cilicicus*. The boxes indicate the color code of the areas in figures for morphometrics. For abbreviations of some localities (LINO, STAL, PISKO) see Table 1. All teeth to the same scale (scale bar bottom right).

674

Figure 2. Bayesian phylogeny of D-loop haplotypes of *Acomys cahirinus s.l.*. Posterior probability and
bootstrap support are indicated for each node. " – " indicates that the node is not supported in the
phylogeny reconstructed with PhyML.

678

Figure 3. Network and geographic distribution of the D-loop haplotypes. A. Median-joining haplotype
network. B. Geographic repartition of the haplotypes. Each haplotype is identified by the same color
code on both figures.

682

Figure 4. Size variation of *Acomys cahirinus* s.l. A. Body size (Head + Body Length) in the modern populations from Crete, Cyprus, Turkey, Cairo and Sahara. B. Size of the first upper molar (UM1) in the same populations; fossils from Kommos (Iron Age, Crete) are also included. C. Relationship between body and molar size. The Chadian specimen among the Sahara sample is indicated by "Chad" or "C". The arrow with "No UM3" points to a young specimen without erupted third molar.

688

Figure 5. Shape differentiation of the first upper molar between the different populations of Acomys 689 690 cahirinus s.l., including the fossil teeth from Kommos (Iron Age, Crete). A. Morphospace defined by the 691 first two axes of a PCA on the aligned coordinates of the points delineating the outline of the first upper 692 molar. Each dot corresponds to a tooth. "C" indicates the Chadian specimen in the Sahara sample. B, 693 C: Deformation along the PC axes. Arrows point from the shape corresponding to the minimal score, to the shape corresponding to the maximal score (B: PC1; C: PC2). D. Means of the geographic group 694 695 in the morphospace defined by the first two axes of a bgPCA. Distance between grid bars: d=0.02. 696 Abbreviations: cf. Table 1.

Figure 6. Allometric shape differentiation of the first upper molar. A. Allometric shape variation. Size is estimated by the centroid size of the UM1; shape by the Common Allometric Component (CAC). "C" indicates the Chadian specimen in the Sahara sample. B. Allometric deformation. Arrows point from the shape corresponding to the minimal centroid size, to the shape corresponding to the maximal centroid size. C. Means of the geographic group in the morphospace defined by the first two axes of a bgPCA on the residuals of a regression of the aligned coordinates vs. size. Distance between grid bars: d=0.02.

704

Figure 7. Karyotypic variation of *Acomys cahirinus* s.l. in the Eastern Mediterranean area. The pie charts
indicate the proportion of the 2*n* numbers in the different populations. Data from GiagiaAthanasopoulou et al. (2011).



Figure 1. Sampling localities and examples of first upper molars (UM1) in the various populations of *Acomys* considered in this study. All belong to the *cahirinus s.l.* group. Spiny mice from the island of Crete are designated as *A. minous*, those from the island of Cyprus as *A. nesiotes* and those confined to a small area in Cilicia (Asia Minor, Turkey) as *A. cilicicus*. Nomenclature of the cusps is indicated on one molar tooth of *A. cilicicus*. The boxes indicate the color code of the areas in figures for morphometrics. For abbreviations of some localities (LINO, STAL, PISKO) see Table 1. All teeth to the same scale (scale bar bottom right).



717

Figure 2. Bayesian phylogeny of D-loop haplotypes of *Acomys cahirinus sensu lato* (i.e. including *A*.

719 *minous, A. nesiotes* and *A. cilicicus*). Posterior probability and bootstrap support are indicated for

each node. " – " indicates that the node is not supported in the phylogeny reconstructed with PhyML.



721

Figure 3. Network and geographic distribution of the D-loop haplotypes. A. Median-joining haplotype
 network. B. Geographic repartition of the haplotypes. Each haplotype is identified by the same color

724 code on both figures.



Figure 4. Size variation of *Acomys cahirinus* s.l. A. Body size (Head + Body Length) in the modern populations from Crete, Cyprus, Turkey, Cairo and Sahara. B. Size of the first upper molar (UM1) in the same populations; fossils from Kommos (Iron Age, Crete) are also included. C. Relationship between body and molar size. The Chadian specimen among the Sahara sample is indicated by "Chad" or "C". The arrow with "No UM3" points to a young specimen without erupted third molar.



732

733 Figure 5. Shape differentiation of the first upper molar between the different populations of Acomys 734 cahirinus s.l., including the fossil teeth from Kommos (Iron Age, Crete). A. Morphospace defined by the 735 first two axes of a PCA on the aligned coordinates of the points delineating the outline of the first upper molar. Each dot corresponds to a tooth. "C" indicates the Chadian specimen among the Sahara sample. 736 B, C: Deformation along the PC axes. Arrows point from the shape corresponding to the minimal score, 737 738 to the shape corresponding to the maximal score (B: PC1; C: PC2). D. Means of the geographic group in the morphospace defined by the first two axes of a bgPCA. Distance between grid bars: d=0.02. 739 740 Abbreviations: cf. Table 1.



Figure 6. Allometric shape differentiation of the first upper molar shape. A. Allometric shape variation.
Size is estimated by the centroid size of the UM1; shape by the Common Allometric Component (CAC).
"C" indicates the Chadian specimen among the Sahara sample. B. Allometric deformation. Arrows
point from the shape corresponding to the minimal centroid size, to the shape corresponding to the
maximal centroid size. C. Means of the geographic group in the morphospace defined by the first two
axes of a bgPCA on the residuals of a regression of the aligned coordinates vs. size. Distance between
grid bars: d=0.02.







Figure 7. Karyotypic variation of *Acomys cahirinus* s.l. in the Eastern Mediterranean area. The pie charts
indicate the proportion of the 2*n* numbers in the different populations. Data from GiagiaAthanasopoulou et al. (2011).

763 Supplementary Informations

764

- 765 **Supplementary Figure 1.** Chronogram obtained with BEAST. Values on the nodes represent medians
- of estimated divergence date, and the horizontal bars show 95% highest posterior density of these
- restimates. Red stars indicate the positions of three fossil constrains used for the calibration of
- 768 molecular clock.



Supplementary Table 1. Accessions of the sequences used in the dating analysis. Lineages and groups defined as in Aghova et al. (2019).

Genus	Species	Lineage	Group	Cytb	D-loop	IRBP	RAG1
Acomys	cineraceus	Cah1	cahirinus	MH044976	MH044879	MH044739	MH044833
Acomys	sp. 2	Cah2	cahirinus	AJ012022			
Acomys	sp. 1	Cah3	cahirinus	AJ010564			
Acomys	johannis	Cah4	cahirinus	FJ415483	FJ415544	MH044740	MH044818
Acomys	dimidiatus	Cah5	cahirinus	MH044985	MH044888	MH044767	MH044829
Acomys	mullah	Cah6	cahirinus	MH044992	MH044845	MH044742	MH044834
Acomys	sp. B	Cah7	cahirinus	KX290493	MH044857	MH044764	MH044826
Acomys	sp. A	Cah8	cahirinus	MH045013	MH044858	MH044761	MH044836
Acomys	cahirinus	Cah9_Lineage A	cahirinus	MH045014	MH044837	MH044772	MH044832
Acomys	cahirinus	Cah9_Lineage B	cahirinus	FJ415480	FJ415541	MH044773	MH044831
Acomys	sp. Cah10	Cah10	cahirinus	MH045016		MH044753	MH044817
Acomys	chudeaui	Cah11	cahirinus	FJ415534	FJ415595		
Acomys	chudeaui	Cah11	cahirinus	MH045006		MH044755	MH044822
Acomys	louisae	Dji	cahirinus	MH044903			MH044805
Acomys	louisae	Dji	cahirinus	MH044900		MH044735	
Acomys	sp. C	lgn1	cahirinus	MH045020	MH044850	MH044747	MH044813
Acomys	sp. Ign2	lgn2	cahirinus	MH044971	MH044859	MH044743	MH044807
Acomys	ignitus	lgn3	cahirinus	MH044968	MH044875	MH044756	MH044812
Acomys	kempi	lgn4	cahirinus	MH045033	MH044855	MH044744	MH044809
Acomys	russatus	Rus	russatus	MH044905	MH044885	MH044733	MH044788
Acomys	muzei	Muz	spinosissimus	FJ415487	FJ415548		
Acomys	muzei	Muz	spinosissimus	MG434400		MG434355	
Acomys	ngurui	Ngu	spinosissimus	MG434388		MG434353	
Acomys	ngurui	Ngu	spinosissimus	MG434396		MG434354	
Acomys	ngurui	Ngu	spinosissimus	MG434414		MG434358	
Acomys	selousi	Sel	spinosissimus	Z96068			
Acomys	spinosissimus	Spi	spinosissimus	MG434385		MG434352	
Acomys	subspinosus	Sub	subspinosus	FJ415486	FJ415547	MH044731	MH044787
Acomys	percivali	Wil1	wilsoni	MH044950	MH044854	MH044783	MH044792
Acomys	sp. 'Magadi'	Wil2	wilsoni	AJ010560			
Acomys	aff. percivali	Wil3	wilsoni	MH044911	MH044873	MH044780	MH044795
Acomys	wilsoni	Wil4	wilsoni	MH044912	MH044862	MH044774	MH044797
Deomys	ferrugineus		OUTGROUP	FJ415478	FJ415539	AY326084	
Lophuromys	flavopunctatus		OUTGROUP	EU349754		AY326091	AY294950
Lophuromys	sikapusi		OUTGROUP	AJ012023		AJ698899	KC953515
Uranomys	ruddi		OUTGROUP	HM635858	FJ415540	EU360812	DQ023454

Subset	Best Model	Sites number	Partition names
1	TRN+I+G	335	Cytb_pos1
2	HKY+I+G	335	Cytb_pos2
3	HKY+G	335	Cytb_pos3
4	K80+I	1319	<pre>IRBP_pos3, RAG1_pos1, RAG1_pos2, IRBP_pos1</pre>
5	HKY+G	659	IRBP_pos2, RAG1_pos3
6	HKY+I+G	526	Dloop

Supplementary Table 2. Substitution models used in the BEAST analysis.