Breaking the mold: telescoping drives the evolution of more integrated and heterogeneous skulls in cetaceans (#67337)

First submission

Guidance from your Editor

Please submit by 25 Nov 2021 for the benefit of the authors (and your \$200 publishing discount).



Structure and Criteria

Please read the 'Structure and Criteria' page for general guidance.



Raw data check

Review the raw data.



Image check

Check that figures and images have not been inappropriately manipulated.

Privacy reminder: If uploading an annotated PDF, remove identifiable information to remain anonymous.

Files

Download and review all files from the <u>materials page</u>.

- 5 Figure file(s)
- 1 Table file(s)
- 2 Raw data file(s)
- 2 Other file(s)

ı

Structure and Criteria



Structure your review

The review form is divided into 5 sections. Please consider these when composing your review:

- 1. BASIC REPORTING
- 2. EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN
- 3. VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS
- 4. General comments
- 5. Confidential notes to the editor
- You can also annotate this PDF and upload it as part of your review

When ready submit online.

Editorial Criteria

Use these criteria points to structure your review. The full detailed editorial criteria is on your guidance page.

BASIC REPORTING

- Clear, unambiguous, professional English language used throughout.
- Intro & background to show context.
 Literature well referenced & relevant.
- Structure conforms to <u>PeerJ standards</u>, discipline norm, or improved for clarity.
- Figures are relevant, high quality, well labelled & described.
- Raw data supplied (see <u>PeerJ policy</u>).

EXPERIMENTAL DESIGN

- Original primary research within Scope of the journal.
- Research question well defined, relevant & meaningful. It is stated how the research fills an identified knowledge gap.
- Rigorous investigation performed to a high technical & ethical standard.
- Methods described with sufficient detail & information to replicate.

VALIDITY OF THE FINDINGS

- Impact and novelty not assessed.

 Meaningful replication encouraged where rationale & benefit to literature is clearly stated.
- All underlying data have been provided; they are robust, statistically sound, & controlled.



Conclusions are well stated, linked to original research question & limited to supporting results.

Standout reviewing tips



The best reviewers use these techniques

	n
	N

Support criticisms with evidence from the text or from other sources

Give specific suggestions on how to improve the manuscript

Comment on language and grammar issues

Organize by importance of the issues, and number your points

Please provide constructive criticism, and avoid personal opinions

Comment on strengths (as well as weaknesses) of the manuscript

Example

Smith et al (J of Methodology, 2005, V3, pp 123) have shown that the analysis you use in Lines 241-250 is not the most appropriate for this situation. Please explain why you used this method.

Your introduction needs more detail. I suggest that you improve the description at lines 57-86 to provide more justification for your study (specifically, you should expand upon the knowledge gap being filled).

The English language should be improved to ensure that an international audience can clearly understand your text. Some examples where the language could be improved include lines 23, 77, 121, 128 – the current phrasing makes comprehension difficult. I suggest you have a colleague who is proficient in English and familiar with the subject matter review your manuscript, or contact a professional editing service.

- 1. Your most important issue
- 2. The next most important item
- 3. ...
- 4. The least important points

I thank you for providing the raw data, however your supplemental files need more descriptive metadata identifiers to be useful to future readers. Although your results are compelling, the data analysis should be improved in the following ways: AA, BB, CC

I commend the authors for their extensive data set, compiled over many years of detailed fieldwork. In addition, the manuscript is clearly written in professional, unambiguous language. If there is a weakness, it is in the statistical analysis (as I have noted above) which should be improved upon before Acceptance.



Breaking the mold: telescoping drives the evolution of more integrated and heterogeneous skulls in cetaceans

Mónica Buono Corresp., 1, Evangelos Vlachos 2

Corresponding Author: Mónica Buono Email address: buono@cenpat-conicet.gob.ar

Background: Along with the transition to the aquatic environment, cetaceans experienced profound changes in their skeletal anatomy, especially in the skull, including the posterodorsal migrations of the external bony nares, the reorganization of skull bones (= telescoping) and the development of a remarkably cranial asymmetry (in odontocetes). Telescoping represents an important anatomical shift in the topological organization and sutural contact of cranial bones; however, the impact of these changes in the connectivity pattern and integration of the skull has never been addressed. Methods: Here, we apply the novel framework provided by the Anatomical Network Analysis to quantify the organization and integration of cetacean skulls, and the impact of the telescoping process in the connectivity pattern of the skull. We built the anatomical networks for 14 cetacean skulls and estimated network parameters related to their anatomical integration, complexity, heterogeneity, and modularity. This dataset was analyzed in the context of the broad tetrapod skull sample as well. **Results:** The skulls of crown cetaceans (Neoceti) occupy a new tetrapod skull morphospace, with better integrated, more heterogeneous and simpler skulls in comparison to other tetrapods. Telescoping adds connections and improves the integration of those bones involved in the telescoping process (e.g., maxilla, supraoccipital) as well as other ones (e.g., vomer) not directly affected by telescoping. Other underlying evolutionary processes (such as basicranium, specializations linked with hearing adaptations) would also be responsible for the changes in the connectivity and integration of palatal bones. We also find prograde telescoped skulls of mysticetes distin for an increased heterogeneity, modularity and integration, whereas retrograde telescoped skulls of odontocetes are characterized by higher complexity. In mysticetes, as expected, the supraoccipital gains relevance and centrality in comparison to odontocetes, increasing the heterogeneity of the skull network. In odontocetes, an increase in the numbers of connections and complexity is probably linked with the dominant movement of paired bones in retrograde telescoping, such as the maxilla. Extant mysticetes (Eubalaena,

PeerJ reviewing PDF | (2021:10:67337:0:2:NEW 3 Nov 2021)

¹ Instituto Patagónico de Geología y Paleontología, CCT CONICET-CENPAT, Puerto Madryn, Chubut, Argentina

² CONICET and Museo Paleontologico Egidio Feruglio,, Trelew, Chubut, Argentina



Caperea and Balaenoptera) distinguish by having, comparatively, more integrated and modular skulls, whereas extinct baleen whales (Aetiocetus, Yamatocetus and Piscobalaena) have more heterogeneous and less integrated skulls. Odontocetes do not show a clear evolutionary trend that allows distinct living and fossil forms; this might relate to the broad range of skull specialization developed by this group owever, a better integration by clustering, probably enhanced by the main movement of paired bones, and a moderate heterogeneity (might be moted by the increased relevance of the vomer) are identified as the main evolutionary trend followed by the retrograde skull of extant odontocetes.



1	Breaking the mold: telescoping drives the evolution of more integrated and heterogeneous
2	skulls in cetaceans
3	
4	Mónica Romina Buono ¹ , Evangelos Vlachos ²
5	
6	¹ Instituto Patagónico de Geología y Paleontología, CCT CONICET-CENPAT, Puerto Madryn,
7	Chubut, Argentina.
8	
9	² CONICET — Museo Paleontológico Egidio Feruglio, Trelew, Chubut, Argentina
10	
11	Corresponding author: Mónica Romina Buono
12	Boulevard Brown 2915, Puerto Madryn, Chubut, 9120, Argentina
13	Email address: buono@cenpat-conicet.gob.ar
14	
15	



ABSTRACT

17	Background: Along with the transition to the aquatic environment, cetaceans experienced
18	profound changes in their skeletal anatomy, especially in the skull, including the posterodorsal
19	migrations of the external bony nares, the reorganization of skull bones (= telescoping) and the
20	development of a remarkably cranial asymmetry (in odontocetes). Telescoping represents an
21	important anatomical shift in the topological organization and sutural contact of cranial bones;
22	however, the impact of these changes in the connectivity pattern and integration of the skull has
23	never been addressed.
24	Methods: Here, we apply the novel framework provided by the Anatomical Network Analysis to
25	quantify the organization and integration of cetacean skulls, and the impact of the telescoping
26	process in the connectivity pattern of the skull. We built the anatomical networks for 14
27	cetacean skulls and estimated network parameters related to their anatomical integration,
28	complexity, heterogeneity, and modularity. This dataset was analyzed in the context of the
29	broad tetrapod skull sample as well.
30	Results: The skulls of crown cetaceans (Neoceti) occupy a new tetrapod skull morphospace,
31	with better integrated, more heterogeneous and simpler skulls in comparison to other tetrapods.
32	Telescoping adds connections and improves the integration of those bones involved in the
33	telescoping process (e.g., maxilla, supraoccipital) as well as other ones (e.g., vomer) not directly
34	affected by telescoping. Other underlying evolutionary processes (such as basicranium
35	specializations linked with hearing adaptations) would also be responsible for the changes in the
36	connectivity and integration of palatal bones. We also find prograde telescoped skulls of
37	mysticetes distinct for an increased heterogeneity, modularity and integration, whereas
38	retrograde telescoped skulls of odontocetes are characterized by higher complexity. In
39	mysticetes, as expected, the supraoccipital gains relevance and centrality in comparison to
40	odontocetes, increasing the heterogeneity of the skull network. In odontocetes, an increase in





41	the numbers of connections and complexity is probably linked with the dominant movement of
42	paired bones in retrograde telescoping, such as the maxilla. Extant mysticetes
43	(Eubalaena, Caperea and Balaenoptera) distinguish by having, comparatively, more integrated
44	and modular skulls, whereas extinct baleen whales (Aetiocetus,
45	Yamatocetus and Piscobalaena) have more heterogeneous and less integrated skulls.
46	Odontocetes do not show a clear evolutionary trend that allows distinct living and fossil forms;
47	this might relate to the broad range of skull specialization developed by this group. However, a
48	better integration by clustering, probably enhanced by the main movement of paired bones, and
49	a moderate heterogeneity (might be promoted by the increased relevance of the vomer) are
50	identified as the main evolutionary trend followed by the retrograde skull of extant odontocetes.
51	
52	
53	
54	
55	
56	
57	
58	
59	
60	
61	
62	
63	
64	



66

67

68

69

70

71

72

73

74

75

76

77

78

79

80

81

82

83

84

85

86

87

INTRODUCTION

The skull of crown cetaceans (= Neoceti) experimented dramatic changes throughout its evolutionary history, related to the arrangement of cranial bones and the acquisition of a novel feature in mammalian skull configuration: the elescoping (i.e., skulls with a combination of extensive bones overlap and extreme proximity of anterior and posterior cranial elements; Miller, 1923; Roston & Roth, 2019). Cetacean telescoping is not only evident by the radical changes in the position of bones, but also promotes changes in the connections between bones and the arrangements of cranial sutures, with large areas of bone overlap (= horizontal sutures) (Roston & Roth, 2019). This represents a new level of bone-suture configurations, breaking the typical mammalian skull design and exploring which might bias the exploration of new ecological and behavioural strategies. Within neocetes, two types of telescoping are recognized (Fig. 1): one dominated by the posterior expansion of anterior bones (= retrograde cranial telescoping sensu Churchill et al., 2018) typical of odontocetes, and the other dominated by forwarding movement of posterior bones (= prograde cranial telescoping sensu Churchill et al., 2018) found in mysticetes (Miller, 1923; Kellog, 1928a,b). A recent morphometric analysis of the skull of odontocetes suggested three phases in the evolution of facial morphology and cranial telescoping the first phase, in which the lateral expansion of the maxilla is limited and the intertemporal region is broadly dorsally exposed, and premaxilla, nasal and external bony nares are anterior to the orbits (typical of Xenorophiidae and Simocetus, among other stem forms); the second phase, in which a further posterior displacement

of the nares and surrounding bones (nasal, premaxilla and maxilla) is observed, intertemporal

region is not evident in dorsal view (this condition is described for wapatiids and squalodontids);



and the final phase characterized by an increased overlap of frontal and maxilla (observed in crown odontocetes) (Churchill et al., 2018). Among mysticetes or baleen whales, different types of telescoping are described by Miller (1923; P:20-22) characterizing the main families of baleen whales; however, quantitative analysis as those performed by Churchill et al. (2018) in odontocetes (which include a small sample of mysticetes) is still required.

Despite telescoping was investigated in the last years from different methodologies and approaches (e.g., Churchill et al., 2018, Roston & Roth, 2019), the impact of the novel suture configurations in the topographical organization and integration of the cetacean skull has never been addressed. Anatomical Network Analysis (AnNA) has recently emerged as a new tool to quantify the complexity of anatomical structures as a function of their pattern of organization, in which bones and suture joints are modeled as the nodes and links of a network (Raskin-Gutman & Esteve-Altava, 2014). This methodology allows studying a level of morphological information that has been seldom analyzed, the level of connections, complementing an integral morphological approach (Esteve-Altava, 2013). The solid theoretical foundations of the AnNA (Esteve-Altava, 2013; 2014; Raskin-Gutman & Esteve-Altava, 2014) allowed its successful application in various anatomical structures, like the mammalian skeleton (Powell et al., 2018), tetrapod skull (e.g. Esteve-Altava et al., 2013a, b; Esteve-Altava & Rasskin-Gutman, 2014; Lee, Esteve-Altava & Abzhanov, 2020) and tetrapod limbs (Molnar et al., 2017; Esteve-Altava et al., 2018, Fernández et al., 2020), among many other studies.

This work is placed within the context of the broad tetrapod skull sample of Esteve-Altava et al. (2013a), which revealed that the reduction in the number of skull bones during tetrapod evolution has increased the complexity of the connectivity pattern under a regime of important structural constraints. In this study, we expand this framework and apply Anatomical



Network Analysis to examine the organization and integration of archaeocetes, odontocetes and mysticetes skulls. In addition, we would like to assess if telescoping has also affected the connectivity pattern of the skulls of these animals that have re-conquered the pelagic marine environment. Additionally, we look for significant differences in the connectivity pattern between the two types of cetacean telescoping at the skull and individual bone level, which would add meaningful interpretations applicable to ongoing neontological and paleontological discussions.

MATERIALS & METHODS

Sample

We constructed networks of 14 cetacean skulls covering the main lineages of cetaceans, three stem cetacea or archaeocetes (*Pakicetus*, Protocetidae, *Dorudon*), six mysticetes (*Aetiocetus*, *Yamatocetus*, *Piscobalaena*, *Eubalaena*, *Caperea*, and *Balaenoptera*), and five odontocetes (*Albertocetus*, *Waipatia*, *Notocetus*, *Physeter* and *Tursiops*) based on the most complete published skulls and/or first-hand examinations (see supplemental Table S1 and Data S1). For Protocetidae, due to the lack of complete skulls in known taxa, we constructed an average protocetid skull network based on specimens of different species. In the case of *Tursiops* — the only cetacean included in the Esteve-Altava et al. (2013a) dataset — the anatomical network is new and based on our own observations. Even though the telescoped sutures of cetaceans present a different pattern in comparison to other mammals (Roston & Roth, 2019), they were modeled in the anatomical networks as links with the same weight.



134

135

136

137

138

139

140

141

142

143

144

145

146

147

148

149

150

Anatomical Network analysis

The cetacean networks were included in the dataset of Esteve-Altava and collaborators (2013a), expanding the tetrapod's sample. The anatomical networks were digitized in Gephi (Bastian, Heymann & Jacomy, 2009) and five main descriptors were used to characterize the networks: Density (D, the complexity of the anatomical structure), Heterogeneity (H; the differentiation of the connected parts), Average Clustering Coefficient (C; the anatomical integration of the various bones with their surroundings), Parcellation (P, the degree of anatomical modularity of the network); Average path length (L; the anatomical integration of the various bones related to their effective proximity), based on Esteve-Altava et al. (2013a; b; 2014; 2018, 2019), and Esteve-Altava & Rasskin-Gutman (2014); Parcellation was calculated as in Fernández et al., (2020). Our data are summarized in Table 1: see supplemental information as well. For the analysis at the individual bone level, we used the *Clustering Coefficient* of each bone, and the three main centrality measures: the Degree Centrality (how many connections a bone has), Closeness Centrality (the average of the shortest path of a node with any other node of the network), and *Betweenness Centrality* (how many times a node is included in the shortest path of any other pair of nodes) (Esteve-Altava 2013). The various graphs, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) under correlation (normalized var-covar), and PERMANOVA were performed in PAST v. 4.0 (Hammer et al., 2001).

151

152

153

154

155

Phylogeny

For the analysis of network descriptors within a phylogenetic context, we constructed a composited phylogeny following Martinez Cáceres et al., (2017) for archaeocetes, Marx et al., (2019) for mysticetes and Viglino et al., (2021) and Boessenecker et al., (2017) for odontocetes.



The network descriptors were optimized and mapped under maximum parsimony in the TNT 1.5 software (Goloboff & Catalano, 2016).

158

159

160

161

162

163

164

165

166

167

168

169

170

171

172

173

174

175

176

177

178

RESULTS

Cetaceans skull networks within tetrapod morphospace

The first two PCAs explained the 80 % of the variation of the tetrapod skull (PC1: 69,21%; PC2:20,06%; Fig. 2). PC1 represents a variable of overall integration (based on higher clustering, lower path length) and complexity (higher density) (Fig. 2, inset), and all cetacean skulls score positive along the PC1, being clearly more integrated in comparison with other tetrapod groups (dinosaurs, sauropsids, turtles, synapsids, squamates), but less integrated than some mammals and some amphibians. PC2 mostly sorts the skulls according to their heterogeneity vs. their complexity (Fig. 2, inset), and most derived cetaceans are placed in the morphospace with higher heterogeneity values. Thus, the skulls of neocetes occupy a previously unoccupied place in the tetrapod skull morphospace, with better integrated and more heterogeneous skulls in comparison with other tetrapods (except some birds). Besides, cetaceans explore quite different morphospace in comparison with other mammals, mostly because of they have more heterogeneous skulls. *Pakicetus* and protocetids are placed close to the region of the morphospace occupied by amphibious/semiaquatic forms, with skulls that are less integrated and simpler in comparison with most crown cetaceans. These results reflect not only the increase in the numbers of connections of skull bones (increased integration) in crown cetaceans but also the acquisition of more irregularly distributed connections of some of these bones (increased heterogeneity) within the network, suggesting a new level of organization of the cetacean skull in their transition to the modern lineages. PERMANOVA analysis supports this conclusion,



showing a statistically significant difference between the skulls of aquatic and terrestrial tetrapods (p= 0.0069) and between cetaceans and non-cetacean mammals (p=0.0001), suggesting a unique network specialization of cetaceans skull even within mammals (Table S2).

182

183

184

185

186

187

188

189

190

191

192

193

194

195

196

197

198

199

200

201

179

180

181

Skull networks specializations of cetaceans

A more detailed PCA analysis focused only on cetaceans (and including an additional variable of modularity, Parellation) showed that the first two PCs explain nearly the 70% of the recorded variation (PC1: 48,53%%; PC2:22,58%; Fig. 3; Table 1). In this case, the skull of crown cetaceans explores two different and mostly well-separated morphospaces, based on heterogeneity, integration, complexity and modularity. Mysticetes form a group of points that are mostly distinct from odontocetes (with a small overlap) and archaeocetes are segregated by having simpler, more heterogeneous and modular skulls (Fig. 3b-c). Extant baleen whales Eubalaena, Caperea and Balaenoptera separately plot from the remaining mysticetes by having, comparatively, more integrated and modular skulls, whereas extinct baleen whales (Yamatocetus and Piscobalaena) and toothed whales (Aetiocetus) have more heterogeneous and less integrated skulls. On the other hand, odontocetes explore a broader morphospace, forming a group of points from negative to positive values along PC1 (between -3 and 1,5) reflecting a great variation of skull network organization. As a general pattern, the skull of odontocetes is more complex in comparison with mysticetes (Fig. 3b); however, both groups show a similar (and remarkable) increase in the integration of several bones with their immediate surroundings, more evident in the extant forms of both groups. The enlargement of odontocetes morphospace is expected as this group exhibits great anatomical variability in the facial skull configurations, with *Physeter* plotting far apart from the remaining odontocetes (on the I quadrant; Fig. 3a) and the opposite



position for the stem odontocete *Albertocetus* on the II quadrant. Therefore, three groups of odontocetes can be identified: i) one comprising *Physeter* and *Notocetus* with more complex and homogeneous skulls; ii) other only occupied by *Waipatia*, with a more heterogeneous but less integrated and modular skull; iii) and finally a group of points including *Tursiops* and *Albertocetus* (overlapping in this point with the morphospace of mysticetes), with more modularized, heterogeneous and less integrated skulls.

Pakicetus presents the most typical mammal skull network, with less integrated and more homogeneous skulls. Conspicuously, *Pakicetus* plots close to *Dorudon* based on having skulls with a similar integration (close values of clustering and parcellation; Fig. 3c-d), but separately of protocetids when the same descriptors are considered. PERMANOVA test only show a statistically significant difference between the skulls of mysticetes and archaeocetes (Fig. 3, inset).

Integration of bones within the networks

Overall, all the bones of cetacean skulls show a similar number of connections (Degree; Fig 4a; Fig. S1); however, mysticetes and odontocetes have one or two more connections (i.e., some bones in mysticetes and odontocetes could-reach 14 connections) in comparison with archaeocetes, suggesting an increase in the complexity of integration of the bones within the skull networks. Whereas the median of connections is roughly similar between the groups, the distribution of the connections is different between the two Neoceti clades. Mysticetes show more bones with low (2–4) and intermediate (5–7) number of connections, compared to odontocetes with a more intermediate and high number of connections (Fig. 4a). The frontals are, in both groups, those bones with the higher number of connections (13–14), whereas the most





226

227

228

229

230

231

232

233

234

235

236

237

238

239

240

241

242

243

244

245

246

247

connected von connected von connected of odontocetes could have more connections compared to the most connected vomer of the mysticetes (14 over 12) (Fig. S1). The integration of the bones with their surroundings (Clustering Coefficient) shows (Fig. 4b; Fig.S2) that both mysticetes and odontocetes have bones in their skulls that are better or less integrated compared to those in archaeocetes skulls. Closeness centrality (i.e. how close the bones are to each other) does not show significant differences between the groups, although odontocetes have, comparatively, more bones that are closer to each other compared to mysticetes (Fig. 4c). Bones with high Closeness Centrality are the frontals, the vomer and the supraoccipital. Bet entrality values (Fig. 4d; Fig. S3) indicate bones that hold central positions in the skull networks, suggesting that the skulls of both odontocetes and mysticetes have bones with more central positions compared to those in archaeocetes. Among these groups, some odontocete bones achieve the highest betweenness centrality value (172.87, the vomer in *Albertocetus*). Again, the vomer and the frontals are by far the most important bones in terms of Betweenness Centrality (Supplemental data S2; Fig. S4). When we compare the individual metrics of the bones that are mainly involved (both

When we compare the individual metrics of the bones that are mainly involved (both directly and indirectly) in the telescoping process (supraoccipital, frontal, vomer, maxilla, premaxilla, and nasal) some interesting observations emerge. These allow tracing the different types of telescoping in odontocetes and mysticetes to the connectivity pattern of the individual bones. The clearest, and statistically significant, separation between the two groups is found in the vomer (Fig. 4e–g). The vomer of odontocetes has more connections (12–14) compared with the vomer of mysticetes (10–12), and it is also much more integrated with its surroundings (Fig. S1). On the other hand, the vomer is the most central bone in the odontocete *Albertocetus*, although the vomer of the mysticete *Piscobalaena* is quite close as well. The greater integration



of the vomer in odontocetes reflects the retrograde type of telescoping: as pairs of bones that are directly connected to the vomer (e.g., premaxillae and maxillae) retrocede and gain connections, the integration of the vomer increases. Similarly and as expected, the retrograde telescoping causes increased integration in the maxillae and premaxillae of most odontocetes.

The supraoccipital, which is the main bone involved in the prograde telescoping of the mysticetes, gains importance reflected in the higher values of Closeness and Betweenness Centralities in most derived mysticetes (Fig. 4e–g). With the exception of the outlier odontocete *Physeter*, the supraoccipital of the mysticetes has a more central position compared to the supraoccipital of the odontocetes with the same number of connections (Fig. 4e–g).

The frontals are bones that receive additional connections under both types of telescoping. However, the reception of additional connections of pairs of anterior bones in retrograde telescoping slightly increases the integration of the frontals in odontocetes, while they assume a similar central position in both odontocetes and mysticetes (Fig. 4e–g).

Organizational modularity of skull cetacean networks

The detection of modules in anatomical networks is a matter of ongoing debate (see Esteve-Altava, 2020 and references therein). In general, the skulls of modern cetaceans are more modular (higher parcellation) compared with archaeocetes (Table 1). Extant mysticete skulls are more modularized in comparison with extant odontocetes; with increased modularity in *Balaenoptera* and *Eubalaena* (P=0,797; P= 0,795 respectively) and a remarkable decrease in *Physeter* (P=0,666). The best modularity solutions consistently recover four main modules: 2 dorsolateral, 1 palatal and another in the posterodorsal region in both archaeocetes (e.g., *Dorudon*), mysticetes (e.g., *Yamatocetus*), and odontocetes (e.g., *Notocetus*) in both symmetric



and asymmetric reconstructions (Fig. 5). In some cases, the posterodorsal module could be divided into a left and right portion (e.g., *Eubalaena* and *Caperea*; Fig. 5). Given the various issues in the reconstruction of the modules, we refrain from discussing their boundaries in detail.

DISCUSSION

Telescoping promotes a new path in the connectivity of cetacean skull

During their transition to the aquatic environment, cetaceans experienced profound changes in their skeletal anatomy, especially in the skull. Among the most remarkable changes are the posterodorsal migration of the external bony nares, the reorganization of the skull bones (= telescoping) and the development of a remarkably cranial asymmetry (characteristic of odontocetes) (Miller, 1923; Fordyce & Muizon, 2001; Berta et al., 2014; Marx et al., 2016). Cranial telescoping represents an important key innovation in the evolution of Neoceti and might be linked to facilitating breathing while they are submerged, structural reinforcement of the vertex to avoiding fractures during the air-breathing movements, the development of filter-feeding in mysticetes and/or echolocation in odontocetes (Miller, 1923; Fleischer, 1976, Heyning & Mead,1990; Oelschlager, 1990; Churchill et al., 2018; Roston & Roth, 2019). Besides, it represents an important anatomical shift in the topological organization and sutural contact of cranial bones (Miller, 1923; Roston & Roth, 2019), and thus in the connectivity of the skull elements. Our study is the first attempt to analyze the patterns of skull connectivity in cetaceans captured through the lens of anatomical networks.

Our results show that, along with the transition to the fully aquatic lifestyle, the cetacean skull underwent a remarkable reorganization of the connectivity pattern that allowed the exploration of a new tetrapod morphospace. While archaeocetes (specially *Pakicetus* and protocetids) still remain in the known morphospace for other non-cetaceans mammals, with



295

296

297

298

299

300

301

302

303

304

305

306

307

308

309

310

311

312

313

314

315

316

comparatively less integrated and more complex skulls, modern cetaceans (Neoceti) follow the path towards more heterogeneous, better integrated and simpler skulls (Fig. 5; Fig. S5-11). Telescoping, as well as the other modifications of the skull linked to feeding (e.g. filter-feeding in mysticetes) and hearing (e.g. echolocation in odontocetes), are important key innovations that drive the evolution of modern cetaceans (Cranford, Amundin, & Norris, 1996; Fordyce & Muizon, 2001; Marx et al 2016; Bouetel, 2005). Telescoping caused a profound reorganization of skull bones and changes in the configurations of the sutures (Miller, 1923; Kellog, 1928a,b; Churchill et al., 2018; Roston & Roth, 2019;), reaching a new level of topological organization which breaks the molds of mammalian skull. Besides, telescoping promotes contact between bones that otherwise would not be possible (e.g. occipital and rostral bones), and the increase of the numbers of connections are more evident in the crown Mysticeti and Odontoceti (87–92 and 98–101 respectively; Fig. 5; Fig. S6) where telescoping reaches its full development (in terms of the degree of overlaps of facial bones). The bones that reach the widest range of variations in the number of connections are the supraoccipital (5–11), frontals (6–14), maxillae (5–11), but also the pterygoids (4–9), presphenoid (3–9), basisphenoid (3–9), alisphenoid (2–6) and ethmoid (2– 9) (). These results suggest that the rearrangement of facial and occipital bones impacts not only the numbers of connections of those bones directly involved in telescoping (e.g., maxilla, supraoccipital) but also in other ones (e.g., palatal) not directly affected by telescoping (see further discussion below). One of the network descriptors that better define the evolution of the cetaceans skull is the heterogeneity, which shows an important increase at the base of the Pelagiceti, and even further in the Neoceti clade (Fig. 5 and Fig. S6). In terms of anatomical networks, heterogeneity

reflects a disparity in the number of connections among the skull bones, indicating different



hierarchy levels of the parts of a network (i.e. anisomerism; Esteve-Altava et al., 2013a; Rasskin-Gutman & Esteve-Altava, 2014). In tetrapods, the increase of the specialization of individual bones has been linked to the appearance of new unpaired bones by fusion of paired ones (Esteve-Altava et al., 2013a). Cetaceans do not present variations in the numbers of bones by loss or fusion in the different groups analyzed (except *Dorudon* and *Physeter*; Fig S7); however, our results show that the unpaired bones ratio (a measure of anisomerim; Esteve-Altava et al., 2013a) is higher in cetaceans in comparison with other tetrapods that have the same bone number (Fig. S12), suggesting an increase in the specialization of individual bones. We hypothesize that telescoping, otherwise, bone loss or fusion, provides an alternative mechanism to increase the connectivity pattern of unpaired bones and thus increase the heterogeneity of the skull networks.

Another hallmark path that marks the evolution of the connectivity pattern of modern cetaceans is the increase of the integration of the skull (Fig.5 and Fig. S9-S10) Our results show that average path length, along with clustering, appears to be good descriptor of telescoped skulls, both reflecting an increasing morphological complexity and integration of the bone elements of the skull in this new level of organization. The bone overlap and the proximity of occipital-rostral elements affect directly the connectivity of those bones involved in the telescoping process, but indirectly also affect the sutural relationship of other ones. There is an important increase in the integration by clustering of maxilla, premaxilla, supraoccipital, parietal and nasals, but also in palatal bones, such as palatine, pterygoid and vomer, and the alisphenoid (the latter reaches the higher values of clustering in some mysticetes). The topological reorganization of palatal bones during telescoping, mainly the covering of the palatine and alisphenoid by the pterygoid, has been suggested in the pioneering work of Miller (1923) but not extensively studied in modern analyses (e.g. Churchill et al., 2018; Roston & Roth, 2019).



Besides, changes in the distribution and sutural contacts of these bones along with the evolution of different groups, but not directly linked with the telescoping process, have also been reported (Muller, 1954; Fraser & Purves, 1960; Boutel & Muizon, 2006). In addition to the telescoping process, the skull of neocetes has experienced profound changes associated with the developments of air and vascular sinus systems and the modifications in the ear region (Fraser & Purves, 1960; Reidenberg & Laitman, 2008; Mead & Fordyce, 2009). In particular, the air sinus system develops in the basicranium and orbital region, extending mainly over the surface of pterygoids, palatines, basisphenoid, and alisphenoids, with variations in their development and configurations of their bone-correlates among the different groups of neocetes (see Fraser & Purves, 1960 for a detailed analysis). We speculate that the increase in the integration of neocetes skull was achieved not only with the changes associated with the telescoping process but also with all the morphological modifications that occur in the basicranium linked with the specialization to underwater hearing and deep diving.

Telescoped skulls, especially in crown mysticetes and odontocetes (Fig. S9), reach the shortest average path length, suggesting that bones of the skull are more integrated by proximity. One of the main obvious anatomical changes coupled with telescoping is the extreme reduction or loss of the intertemporal region— by the reduction of the dorsal exposition of frontal and parietal in the roof of the skull— contributing to the "shortening" of the occipital-rostrum distance (Miller, 1923; Kellogg, 1928a; Roston & Roth, 2019). The better integration of the skull by proximity results in a better speed of the information within the skull network, especially between two key regions traditionally associated with important functional correlates —feeding and brain support respectively—.



363

364

365

366

367

368

369

370

371

372

373

374

375

376

377

378

379

380

381

382

383

Moreover to the increase in the integration and heterogeneity in neocetes, there is a marked shift toward an increment of modularity from non-telescoped to telescoped skulls (Fig. 5; Fig.S11). Connectivity modules differ from variational modules — sensu Esteve-Altava, 2017 in that they reflect the topological arrangement of anatomical units, not their shapes; thus information of connectivity modules should be presented as a complement of the information generated with the variational modules (Raskin-Gutman & Esteve-Altava, 2014; Esteve-Altava, 2017). Unfortunately, studies on the variational modules in cetacean skulls are very scarce and only focus on odontocetes (del Castillo et al., 2017; Churchill et al., 2018). The amount of modules identified depends if the models of modularity identified a development correlation (in which case they identified 3 modules; del Castillo et al., 2017) or a functional correlation (between 5–10 modules; Churchill et al., 2018). Our analysis shows a mean of four connectivity modules for neocetes, with a variable number in odontocetes (between 3–5) and a more constant number in mysticetes (most with 5 modules), associated with the rostrum and orbital (recovered in symmetric modules), basic ranium (including in a variable array of the bones of the floor of the cranium as well as palatal bones) and cranium regions (including the bones that form the cranial vault and the squamosals). These organizational modules are more closely related to the basicranium, neurocranium and rostrum modules reported by del Castillo et al., (2017), and suggest a basic connectivity modularity pattern of the neocete skull. Due to sutures representing the physical link between the elements of the networks, and in neocetes telescoped sutures acquired a novel configuration—being points of contact, growth but also of extensive bone overlap; Roston & Roth, 2019—, it is likely that the sutures more than bones itself, mark an important constraint in the topological arrangement of the anatomical units and, thus, in their



connectivity. Underlying developmental processes, growth and/or biomechanical functions are, in the end, the main responsible for the origin of connectivity modules (Klingenberg, 2008).

Mysticetes and odontocetes skull networks specializations

Two main patterns of telescoping can be traced in mysticetes and odontocetes, with important differences in the topographical organization of the skull bones. In mysticetes, telescoping is dominated by the forward movement of the supraoccipital and parietal until the orbit level, while only a narrow medial part of maxilla extends posteriorly interlocking with the frontal (but not covering at all). In odontocetes, rostral elements, maxilla and premaxilla, extend backwards approaching the supraoccipital; in this case, maxilla spread over almost all the surface of the frontal, including the supraorbital process (Miller, 1923; Fig. 1). Different development sequences of bone ossification and sutures closure have been identified as the underlying process that influences the skull anatomy of both groups (Perrin, 1975; Lanzetti, 2019). What is the impact of these disparate skull anatomical organizations of odontocetes and mysticetes in the network organization?

Within an evolutive fram ork, prograde telescoped skulls of mysticetes distinct for increased heterogeneity, modularity and integration (especially by clustering) while retrograde telescoped skulls of odontocetes follow the path of increasing complexity, reaching the higher number of total connections (Fig 5; Figs S5–S11). Both lineages show a similar integration by path length, at least at the base of mysticetes and odontocetes as well as at the point of diversification of crown lineages. This suggests that one of the main characteristics of the telescoping process, — shortening of the occipital-rostrum distance— impacts the integration by the proximity of the skull network in a similar way, independently of the telescoping



408

409

410

411

412

413

414

415

416

417

418

419

420

421

422

423

424

425

426

427

428

429

specialization followed by each group. In mysticetes, heterogeneity is mainly driven by the increased role of unpaired bones within the network. As expected, the supraoccipital gains relevance and centrality in the networks in comparison to odontocetes and also achieves a high number of connections if we compare it with an archetypal odontocete skull as *Tursiops* (*Physeter* reaches 11 connections however the morphology of this skull is quite disparate from other odontocetes due to the extreme posterior extension of the maxillae and the lack of one nasal; see further discussion below) (Supplemental data S2). On the other hand, the increased connections and, thus, complexity in the skull network of odontocetes, are probably linked to the dominant movement of paired bones in retrograde telescoping, such as the maxilla, which gains connections and integration not only in its own node but also in its surroundings. No remarkable differences are observed between odontocetes and mysticetes in the connections/integration/centrality of other bones also affected by telescoping, such as premaxillae, frontals, nasals and parietals (Fig 4e-g; Table X SOI). On the contrary, the vomer, alisphenoid, and pterygoids show conspicuous differences between both groups in the numbers of connections, centrality and integration. This result provides evidence that, again, even though telescoping defines the quite distinct anatomical configuration of the skull of mysticetes and odontocetes, there is not a broad effect in the connectivity pattern of all the bones directly involved in these processes. Besides, our results invite us to re-evaluate the role of palatal and sphenoid bones in the evolution of the skull of modern cetaceans and might consider them as the "hidden hands" that play a key role in the improvement of connection and integration of the different elements of the skull. Future works should focus on analyzing with more detail the anatomical reorganization of these regions, and their correlation (or lack of it) either with the telescoping or with the evolution of air sinus systems, or both.





431

432

433

434

435

436

437

438

439

440

441

442

443

444

445

446

447

448

449

450

451

452

Additionally to the different paths identified in odontocetes and mysticetes, some particular evolutionary trends distinguish the different lineages of both groups (Fig. S5-S11). Among mysticetes, the toothed whale *Aetiocetus* presents the smallest number of connections of the whole mysticete sample and the simpler and less integrated by proximity skull. This pattern of skull connectivity is consistent with the poorly telescoped skull of this taxon, reflected in a non-telescoped supraoccipital, and a broadly exposed parietal and frontal in the skull roof (e.g. Deméré & Berta, 2008). Furthermore, the skull of the toothless mysticetes Yamatocetus distinguish by, comparatively with Aetiocetus, a more pronounced telescoped supraoccipital, but still retaining a long intertemporal region. These small anatomical changes might explain the slight increase in the complexity, integration by proximity, and heterogeneity observed in *Yamatocetus* in comparison with *Aetiocetus*. Within crown mysticetes, outstanding differences can be observed in the anatomical networks of balaenids (*Eubalaena*), neobalaenines (*Caperea*), and balaenopterids (Balaenoptera). The skull of Eubalaena and Caperea distinc high heterogeneity, complexity and modularity (in all the cases the higher values among the extant taxa), and also by reaching the better integration by proximity—the "shorter skulls" considering the average path length and with their surrounding (especially in *Eubalaena*) (Figs. S6-S11). Balaenids and neobalaenines have a conspicuous telescoping process, dominated by the pronounced anterior expansion of the supraoccipital, which extends beyond the level of the orbit excluding the parietal from the vertex of the skull. Besides, the nasal and ascending process of the premaxilla and maxilla do not protrude into the occipital region, defining a sub-rectilinear suture between occipital-rostral bones (Miller, 1923 pl: 8; Bouetel, 2005). The increase of the structural disparity (=heterogeneity) of the skull networks of *Eubalaena* and *Caperea* is probably related to the



leading role that some unpaired bones —i.e. supraoccipital, the bone that reaches the higher closeness centrality and clustering values; Fig. 4f— achieved during its characteristic telescoping process. Besides, the "shortening" of the skull evident by the shorter path length is extreme in these taxa and correlates with the pronounced proximity of the occipital-rostral elements observed in balaenids and neobalaenines. This, together with the high complexity of the skull, suggest a network system with strong functional and developmental codependence between the parts, but also with important structural constraints that might be driven by the very specialized skim feeding method of these whales (Werth, 2004; Bouetel, 2005).

Within an evolutionary context, the skull of *Balaenoptera* is the most homogeneous, less complex and better-integrated with their surredings in comparison with the other extant mysticetes analyzed (Fig. S6-S11). Balaenopterids display a more extreme telescoped skull, with both rostral and occipital elements moving in similar proportions: maxilla, premaxilla and nasals project backwards, until the half-level of the orbit, while the supraoccipital extends forward meeting the rostral bones almost the same level (Miller, 1923; pl 8,5). This configuration determines a strong interdigitation of occipital-rostral bones, which has an important biomechanical function supporting the forces induced during the lunge feeding (Lambertsen, Ulrich & Straley, 1995; Bouetel, 2005). We hypothesized that balaenopterids telescoping promotes skull networks with similar structural connections, since there is no specialization of some elements over others, but reaching a better integration of the surrounding elements of the network. Conversely, balaenopterids exhibit variations in the shape and contacts of some bones in the vertex, which has been used as a taxonomic source to diagnose species (see for example Wada, Oishi & Yamada 2003; Yamada, 2006). We speculate that, as expected for anatomical





systems with low density (Rasskin-Gutman & Esteve-Altava 2014), variation and phenotypic plasticity enhance the evolution of less complex skulls in balaenopterids.

Odontocetes also exhibit some particular evolutionary trends within the different
lineages, even though there is no clear differentiation between network specialization followed
by extinct and extant forms (Fig. 5; Fig. S5-S11). The skull network of <i>Albertocetus</i> , a stem
Odontoceti (e.g., Uhen, 2008; Churchill et al., 2016), shows the small numbers of connections of
all the odontocete sample, together with the less complex and less integrated by proximity skull.
This is probably related to, comparatively, the less advanced stage of telescoping observed in
Albertocetus, evidencing in the little posterior projection of the ascending process of the
premaxillae, poorly lateral expansion of maxillae and the broad exposition of the parietals and
frontal in the roof of the skull (phase one sensu Churchill et al., 2018). Within crown
odontocetes, Plastanistoids (sensu Muizon, 1987) represented by the extinct forms Waipatia and
Notocetus, exhibit a mosaic in their networks skull descriptors, with density and integration by
proximity being close to the values of extant odontocetes, while integration by clustering,
heterogeneity and modularity represent extreme and unique values —i.e., Waipatia is the most
heterogeneous and the least modular skull of all the odontocetes sample while Notocetus, on the
opposite, side represents the most homogeneous and one of the most modular skulls—. A more
advanced stage of telescoping is patent in platanistoids, with an almost absent intertemporal
region and a more pronounced posterior expansion of maxilla, premaxilla and nasals (phase II of
Churchill et al., 2018). This progress in telescoping is reflected in the increase of the number of
connections, complexity and integration of the skull in comparison to stem odontocetes.
Nevertheless, our results suggest that the connectivity pattern of platetoids does not follow a



clear evolutionary trend; rather, it reflects an experimentation phase that matches those proposed for the evolution of skull eco-morphological strategies of the group (Viglino et al., 2021).

Finally, extant odontocetes (Delphinidae and Physeteridae) show disparate patterns of skull connectivity, especially by the bizarre morphology of *Physeter* (Fig. S5-S11). While *Tursiops* represents a more archetypical stage of retrograde telescoping (i.e with a broad overlap of the maxilla and frontal bones; Fig. 1), *Physeter* has an extreme telescoped skull, with a highly asymmetrical facial region, and the loss of a skull bone (Flower, 1868, figs.1-2). The higher density and integration by proximity and with the surrounding of all the odontocete sample is reached by *Physeter*. This is not unexpected due to the pronounced shortening of occipital-rostral distance and, thus, the gain of bones contacts —in for example the maxillae and supraoccipital (supplemental data S2)—, as well as for the increase of complexity by the loss of one nasal bone (as suggested by Esteve-Altava et al., 2013a for the evolution of tetrapod skulls). Leaving aside this outlier skull morphology, a better integration of the bones with their surroundings, probably enhanced by the main movement of paired bones, as well as a moderate heterogeneity (might-be promoted by the increased relevance of the vomer in the skull network) can be traced as a distinct connectivity evolutionary pattern of the retrograde skull of extant odontocetes.

Conclusions

Telescoping is one of the most remarkable changes in the anatomy of the cetacean skull, and has been associated with a plethora of morpho-functional explanations. Along with changes in the shape of bones and sutures, our studies show that telescoping also promotes profound changes in the topographical organization of the skull, and thus in its connectivity and integration. Modern cetaceans explore a new morphospace in comparison to other tetrapods (and





521

522

523

524

525

526

527

528

529

530

531

532

533

534

535

536

537

538

539

540

541

even with other mammals), with better integrated, slightly simpler, and mainly more heterogeneous skulls. This represents a break in the mammalian skull mold, triggering the exploration of new morphospaces. Telescoping increases the anisomerism of the skull by specialization of unpaired bones, as those directly involved in the telescoping process (e.g. supraoccipital) or other ones (i.e. vomer) are not obviously affected by telescoping. It is also possible that telescoping together with all basic ranium specializations linked with hearing adaptations are the main responsible for the changes in the connectivity and integration of neocetes skull. Our findings also support a distinct connectivity pattern in mysticetes and odontocetes, with prograde telescoped skulls of mysticetes distinct for an increased heterogeneity, modularity and integration while retrograde telescoped skull of odontocetes characterized for being more complex. Besides, retrograde telescoping causes increased integration in the maxillae and premaxillae of most odontocetes while prograde telescoping of mysticetes promotes a greater relevance and centrality of unpaired bones (i.e. the supraoccipital). Additionally, particular evolutionary trends in the connectivity pattern of the skull were identified within the different groups of odontocetes and mysticetes, many of them coupled with the different stages of the advance of the telescoping (for example between extinct and extant forms) but also with feeding, hearing and other ecological specializations acquired for different lineages throughout their evolutionary history. Finally, our results show that not all shape variations observed along the evolution of cetaceans skull have a direct impact on the topological organization and connectivity of the elements of this complex structure; this reinforces the idea that Anatomical Networks are a complementary tool to the other areas of morphological research which need to be further explored.

542



543	Acknowledgments
544	We thank Florencia Paolucci (MLP-CONICET) and Mariana Vilgino (CONICET-CENPAT) for
545	helpful discussions in the construction of anatomical networks of <i>Physeter</i> and <i>Notocetus</i> , and
546	Marta Fernández for their suggestions in the draft version of the manuscript. We also thank
547	Anahi Formoso (CENPAT) for the revision of the English grammar.
548	References
549	Bastian M, Heymann S, Jacomy M. 2009. Gephi: an open source software for exploring and
550	manipulating networks. In International AAAI Conference on Weblogs and Social Media,
551	Paris. (doi:10.13140/2.1.1341.1520)
552	Berta A, Ekdale EG, Cranford TW. 2014. Review of the cetacean nose: form, function, and
553	evolution. The Anatomical Record 297(11): 2205-2215 DOI 10.1002/ar.23034.
554	Bianucci G, de Muizon C, Urbina M, Lambert O. 2020. Extensive diversity and disparity of the
555	early Miocene Platanistoids (Cetacea, Odontoceti) in the Southeastern Pacific (Chilcatay
556	Formation, Peru). Life 10(3): 1–62 DOI 10.3390/life10030027.
557	Boessenecker RW, Ahmed E, Geisler JH. 2017. New records of the dolphin Albertocetus
558	meffordorum (Odontoceti: Xenorophidae) from the lower Oligocene of South Carolina:
559	encephalization, sensory anatomy, postcranial morphology, and ontogeny of early
560	odontocetes. PLoS One 12(11): e0186476 DOI 10.1371/journal.pone.0186476.
561	Bouetel V, de Muizon, C. 2006. The anatomy and relationships of <i>Piscobalaena nana</i> (Cetacea,
562	Mysticeti), a Cetotheriidae ss from the early Pliocene of Peru. Geodiversitas 28(2): 319-
563	395.



564	Churchill M, Martinez-Caceres M, Muizon Cd, Mnieckowski J, Geisler JH. 2016. The origin of
565	high-frequency hearing in whales. Current Biology 26(16): 2144-9 DOI
566	10.1016/j.cub.2016.06.004
567	Cranford TW, Amundin M, Norris KS. 1996. Functional morphology and homology in the
568	odontocete nasal complex: implications for sound generation. Journal of Morphology
569	228:223–285 DOI 10.1002/(SICI)1097-4687(199606)228:3<223::AID-JMOR1>3.0.CO;2-
570	3
571	Del Castillo DL, Viglino M, Flores DA, Cappozzo HL. 2017. Skull ontogeny and modularity in
572	two species of Lagenorhynchus: morphological and ecological implications. Journal of
573	morphology 278(2): 203-214. DOI 10.1002/jmor.20629.
574	Deméré TA, Berta A. 2008. Skull anatomy of the Oligocene toothed mysticete Aetioceus weltoni
575	(Mammalia; Cetacea): implications for mysticete evolution and functional anatomy.
576	Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society 154 (2): 308–352 DOI 10.1111/j.1096-
577	3642.2008.00414.x.
578	Esteve-Altava B. 2013. Structural analysis of network models in tetrapod skulls: evolutionary
579	trends and structural constraints in morphological complexity, integration and
580	modularity. Doctoral dissertation, Universitat de València.
581	Esteve-Altava B. 2017. Challenges in identifying and interpreting organizational modules in
582	morphology. Journal of Morphology 278(7): 960-974 DOI 10.1002/jmor.20690.
583	Esteve-Altava B. 2020. A node-based informed modularity strategy to identify organizational
584	modules in anatomical networks. Biology open 9(10): bio056176. DOI
585	https://doi.org/10.1242/bio.056176



586	Esteve-Altava B, Marugan-Lobon J, Botella H, Rasskin-Gutman D. 2013a. Structural
587	constraints in the evolution of the tetrapod skull complexity: Williston's Law revisited
588	using network models. Evolutionary Biology 40: 209-219 DOI 10.1007/s11692-012-
589	9200-9
590	Esteve-Altava B., Marugán-Lobón J, Botella H, Bastir M, Rasskin-Gutman D. 2013b. Grist for
591	Riedl's mill: a network model perspective on the integration and modularity of the humar
592	skull. Journal of Experimental Zoology Part B: Molecular and Developmental Evolution
593	320(8): 489-500 DOI 10.1002/jez.b.22524.
594	Esteve-Altava B, Rasskin-Gutman D. 2014. Theoretical morphology of tetrapod skull networks.
595	Comptes Rendus Palevol 13(1): 41-50 DOI 10.1016/j.crpv.2013.08.003.
596	Esteve-Altava B, Marugán-Lobón J, Botella H, Rasskin-Gutman D. 2014. Random loss and
597	selective fusion of bones originate morphological complexity trends in tetrapod skull
598	networks. Evolutionary Biology 41(1): 52-61 DOI 10.1007/s11692-013-9245-4.
599	Esteve-Altava B, Molnar JL, Johnston P, Hutchinson JR, Diogo R. 2018. Anatomical network
600	analysis of the musculoskeletal system reveals integration loss and parcellation boost
601	during the fins-to-limbs transition. Evolution 72(3): 601-618 DOI 10.1111/evo.13430.
602	Esteve-Altava B, Pierce SE, Molnar J L, Johnston P, Diogo R, Hutchinson JR. 2019.
603	Evolutionary parallelisms of pectoral and pelvic network-anatomy from fins to limbs.
604	Science advances 5(5): eaau7459 DOI 10.1126/sciadv.aau7459.
605	Fernández MS, Vlachos E, Buono MR, Alzugaray L, Campos L, Sterli J, Herrera Y, Paolucci, F.
606	2020. Fingers zipped up or baby mittens? Two main tetrapod strategies to return to the
607	sea. Biology letters 16(8): 20200281 DOI 10.1098/rsbl.2020.0281.



608	Fleischer G. 1976. Hearing in extinct cetaceans as determined by cochlear structure. Journal of
609	Paleontology 50:133-152.
610	Flower WH. 1868. On the osteology of the cachalot or sperm-whale (<i>Physeter macrocephalus</i>).
611	Transactions of the Zoological Society of London 6: 309-372
612	Fraser FC, Purves PE. 1960. Hearing in cetaceans: evolution of the accessory air sacs and the
613	structure and function of the outer and middle ear in recent cetaceans. Bulletin of the
614	British Museum (Natural History). Zoology 7: 1-140
615	Fordyce RE, de Muizon C. 2001. Evolutionary history of cetaceans: a review. In: Mazin J-M, de
616	Buffr enil V, eds. Secondary adaptation of tetrapods to life in water. Munchen: Verlag
617	Dr. Friedrich Pfeil, 169-233.
618	Goloboff PA, Catalano SA. 2016. TNT version 1.5, including a full implementation of
619	phylogenetic morphometrics. Cladistics 32: 221-238 DOI 10.1111/cla.12160.
620	Hammer Ø, Harper DA, Ryan, PD. 2001. PAST: Paleontological statistics software package for
621	education and data analysis. Palaeontologia electronica 4(1): 1-9.
622	Heyning J, Mead JG. 1990. Evolution of the nasal anatomy of cetaceans. Sensory abilities of
623	cetaceans. New York: Plenum Press. p 67–79.
624	Kellogg R. 1928a. The history of whales-their adaptation to life in the water. <i>The Quarterly</i>
625	Review of Biology 3(1): 29-76.
626	Kellogg R. 1928b. The history of whales-their adaptation to life in the water (concluded). <i>The</i>
627	Quarterly Review of Biology 3:174–208.
628	Klingenberg CP.2008. Morphological integration and developmental modularity. Annual Review
629	Of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 39: 115-132 DOI
630	10.1146/annurev.ecolsys.37.091305.110054



631	Lanzetti A. 2019. Prenatal developmental sequence of the skull of minke whales and its
632	implications for the evolution of mysticetes and the teeth-to-baleen transition. Journal of
633	anatomy 235(4): 725-748 DOI 10.1111/joa.13029.
634	
635	Lee HW, Esteve-Altava B, Abzhanov A. 2020. Evolutionary and ontogenetic changes of the
636	anatomical organization and modularity in the skull of archosaurs. Scientific reports
637	10(1): 1-13.
638	Martínez-Cáceres M, Lambert O, de Muizon C. 2017. The anatomy and phylogenetic affinities
639	of Cynthiacetus peruvianus, a large Dorudon-like basilosaurid (Cetacea, Mammalia)
640	from the late Eocene of Peru. <i>Geodiversitas</i> 39(1): 7-163 DOI 10.5252/g2017n1a1.
641	Marx FG, Lambert O, Uhen MD. 2016. Cetacean paleobiology. West
642	Sussex: John Wiley & Sons.
643	Marx FG, Post K, Bosselaers M, Munsterman DK. 2019. A large Late Miocene cetotheriid
644	(Cetacea, Mysticeti) from the Netherlands clarifies the status of Tranatocetidae. PeerJ 7:
645	e6426 DOI 10.7717/peerj.6426
646	Mead JG, Fordyce RE. 2009. The therian skull: a lexicon with emphasis on the odontocetes.
647	Smithsonian Contributions to Zoology 627:1–261.
648	Miller GS. 1923. The telescoping of the cetacean skull. Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections
649	76:1–55.
650	Molnar J, Esteve-Altava B, Rolian C, Diogo R. 2017. Comparison of musculoskeletal networks
651	of the primate forelimb. Scientific reports 7(1): 1-11 DOI 10.1038/s41598-017-09566-7.
652	Muizon C de. 1987. The affinities of <i>Notocetus vanbenedeni</i> , an early Miocene Platanistoid
653	(Cetacea, Mammalia) from Patagonia. American Museum Novitates 2904:1–27.



654	
655	Muller J. 1954. Observations on the orbital region of the skull of the Mystacoceti. Zoologische
656	Mededelingen 32(23): 279-290.
657	
658	Oelschläger HA. 1990. Evolutionary morphology and acoustics in the dolphin skull. In: Thomas
659	JA, Kastelein RA, eds. Sensory abilities of cetaceans, Vol. 196. New York: Plenum
660	Press, 137-162.
661	Perrin WF. 1975. Variation of spotted and spinner porpoise (genus Stenella) in the eastern
662	Pacific and Hawaii. Bulletin of the Scripps Institution of Oceanography 21: 1-206.
663	Powell V, Esteve-Altava B, Molnar J, Villmoare B, Pettit A, Diogo R. 2018. Primate modularity
664	and evolution: first anatomical network analysis of primate head and neck
665	musculoskeletal system. <i>Scientific reports</i> , 8(1): 1-10 DOI 10.1038/s41598-018-20063-3
666	Rasskin-Gutman D, Esteve-Altava B. 2014. Connecting the dots: anatomical network analysis in
667	morphological EvoDevo. Biological Theory 9(2):178-93. DOI 10.1007/s13752-014-
668	0175-x
669	Reidenberg, J. S., & Laitman, J. T. (2008). Sisters of the sinuses: cetacean air sacs. The
670	Anatomical Record: Advances in Integrative Anatomy and Evolutionary Biology 291(11):
671	1389-1396 DOI 10.1002/ar.20792.
672	Roston RA, Roth VL. 2019. Cetacean skull telescoping brings evolution of cranial sutures into
673	focus. The Anatomical Record 302(7):1055-1073 DOI 10.1002/ar.24079.
674	Uhen MD. 2008. A new Xenorophus-like odontocete cetacean from the Oligocene of North
675	Carolina and a discussion of the basal odontocete radiation. Journal of Systematic
676	Palaeontology 6(4): 433-452.





677	Viglino M, Gaetán CM, Cuitiño JI, Buono MR. 2021. First toothless platanistoid from the early
678	Miocene of Patagonia: the golden age of diversification of the Odontoceti. Journal of
679	Mammalian Evolution 28(2): 337-358 DOI 10.1007/s10914-020-09505-w.
680	
681	Wada S, Oishi M, Yamada TK. 2003. A newly discovered species of living baleen whale. Nature
682	426(6964): 278-281 DOI 10.1038/nature02103.
683	Werth AJ. 2004. Models of hydrodynamic flow in the bowhead whale filter feeding apparatus.
684	Journal of Experimental Biology 207(20): 3569-3580 DOI 10.1242/jeb.01202
685	Yamada TK, Chou LS, Chantrapornsyl S, Adulyanukosol K, Chakravarti, SK, Oishi, Wada S,
686	Yao CJ, Kakuda T, Tajima Y, Arai K, Umetaoi A, Kuribara N. 2006. Middle-sized
687	balaenopterid whale specimens (Cetacea: Balaenopteridae) preserved at several
688	institutions in Taiwan, Thailand, and India. Memoirs of the National Science Museum,
689	Tokyo 44: 1-10.



Table 1(on next page)

Main descriptors of the cetacean sample analyzed.

C, average clustering coefficient; D, density; H, heterogeneity; K=connections; N, nodes; P, parcellation; PL, average path Length; UBR, unpaired bone ratio.



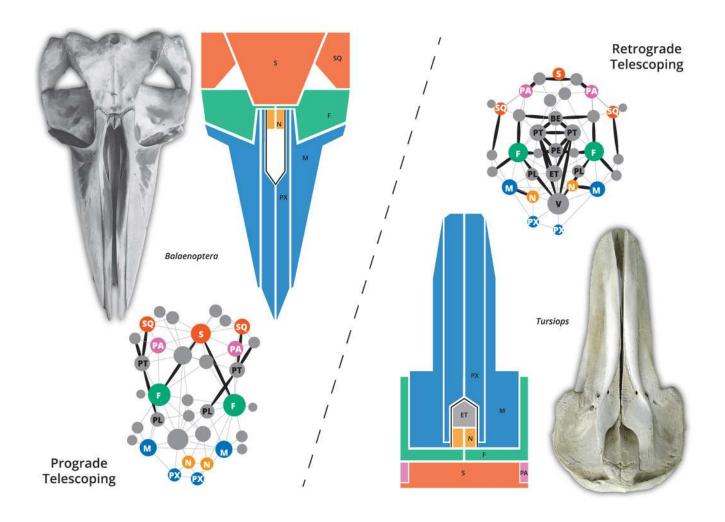
Taxon	Group	Category	N	K	D	PL	C	Н	P	UBR
Pakicetus	"Archaeoceti"	Extinct	35	99	0.166	2.334	0.391	0.404	0.731	0.2
Protocetidae	"Archaeoceti"	Extinct	35	102	0.171	2.366	0.540	0.435	0.744	0.2
Dorudon	"Archaeoceti"	Extinct	33	88	0.167	2.333	0.408	0.497	0.722	0.21
Aetiocetus	Mysticeti	Extinct	35	82	0.138	2.464	0.501	0.568	0.789	0.2
Yamatocetus	Mysticeti	Extinct	35	86	0.145	2.370	0.428	0.578	0.746	0.17
Piscobalaena	Mysticeti	Extinct	35	85	0.143	2.450	0.478	0.533	0.738	0.17
Caperea	Mysticeti	Extant	35	92	0.155	2.338	0.474	0.561	0.790	0.2
Eubalaena	Mysticeti	Extant	35	99	0.166	2.292	0.490	0.563	0.795	0.2
Balaenoptera	Mysticeti	Extant	35	87	0.146	2.447	0.494	0.514	0.748	0.2
Albertocetus	Odontoceti	Extinct	35	88	0.148	2.536	0.476	0.476	0.761	0.2
Waipatia	Odontoceti	Extinct	35	101	0.170	2.382	0.401	0.552	0.650	0.2
Notocetus	Odontoceti	Extinct	35	109	0.183	2.321	0.461	0.424	0.744	0.2
Tursiops	Odontoceti	Extant	35	98	0.165	2.418	0.477	0.543	0.738	0.2
Physeter	Odontoceti	Extant	34	107	0.191	2.196	0.493	0.501	0.666	0.2

2

3

The two different types of telescoping in modern cetaceans, from skull to network.

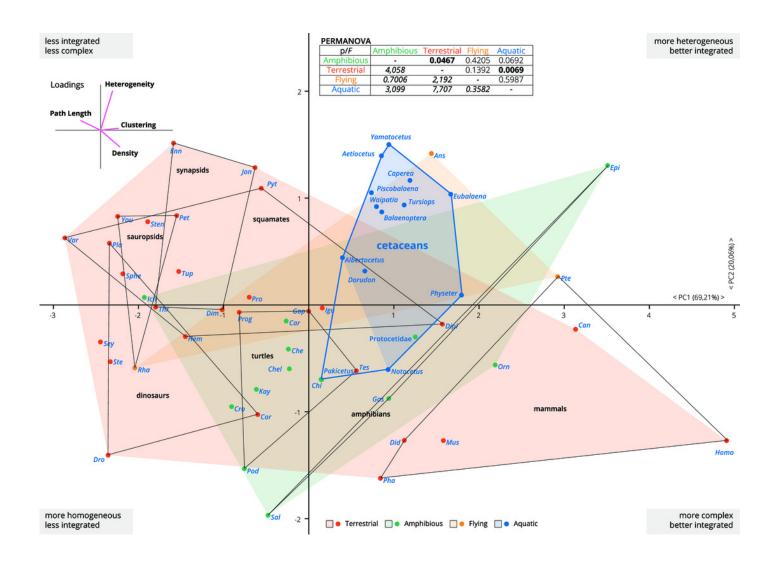
Although superficially—(dorsally) connectivity pattern of the two different types of telescoping is rather similar (see the simplified drawings), under the hood the bones are connected in a quite different way. In the prograde telescoping seen in mysticetes (here represented by *Balaenoptera* spp) additional connections are seen in the supraoccipital and the ventro-lateral parts of the skull. In the retrograde telescoping seen in the odontocetes (illustrated by *Tursiops*), numerous new connections are modeled in the internal (e.g. vomer) and ventral parts of the skull (corresponding to the palatal region).



PCA of the skull networks of various tetrapods, based on the initial dataset of Esteve-Altava et al. (2013a) and the added cetacean sampling herein.

Sampling includes taxa adapted to terrestrial, aquatic, amphibious and flying lifestyles and from many important tetrapod clades. The first two PCs explain nearly 80% of the variation (PC1: 69,21%; PC2:20,06%) and period separating the skulls of tetrapods based on their heterogeneity, integration (based on clustering and path length) and complexity (based on density). Those placed in the first and second quadrants show skulls that are better integrated, further divided into those with more heterogeneous (first quadrant) or more complex (fourth quadrant) skulls. Those tetrapods placed in the second and third quadrants show skulls that are less integrated, further divided into those with more homogeneous (third quadrant) or simpler (second quadrant) skulls. Most derived cetaceans explore a previously unoccupied region for other non-flying tetrapods, with integrated skulls that are quite heterogeneous. Also, the morphological variation that the cetaceans exhibit is significantly different from the variation of all other sampled mammals. Abbreviations: Ans, Anser; Can, Canis; Car, Carettochelys; Che, Chelodina; Chel, Chelydra; Chi, Chisternon; Cor, Corythosaurus; Cro, Crocodylus; Did, Didelphis; Dim, Dimetrodon; Dipl, Diplometopon; Dro, Dromaeosaurus; Enn, Ennantosaurus; Epi, Epicrionops; Gas, Gastrotheca; Gop, Gopherus; Hem, Hemitheconyx; Ich, Ichthyostega; Igu, Iguana; Jon, Jonkeria; Kay, Kayentachelys; Orn, Ornithorhynchus; Pet, Petrolacosaurus; Pha, Phascolarctos; Pla, Plateosaurus; Pod, Podocnemis; Pro, Procolophon; Prog, Proganochelys; Pte, Pteropus; Pyt, Python; Rha, Rhamphorhynchus; Sal, Salamandra; Sey, Seymouria; Sphe, Sphenodon; Ste, Stegosaurus; Sten, Stenocercus; Tes, Testudo; Thr, Thrinaxodon; Tup, Tupinambis; Var, Varanus; You, Younginia.

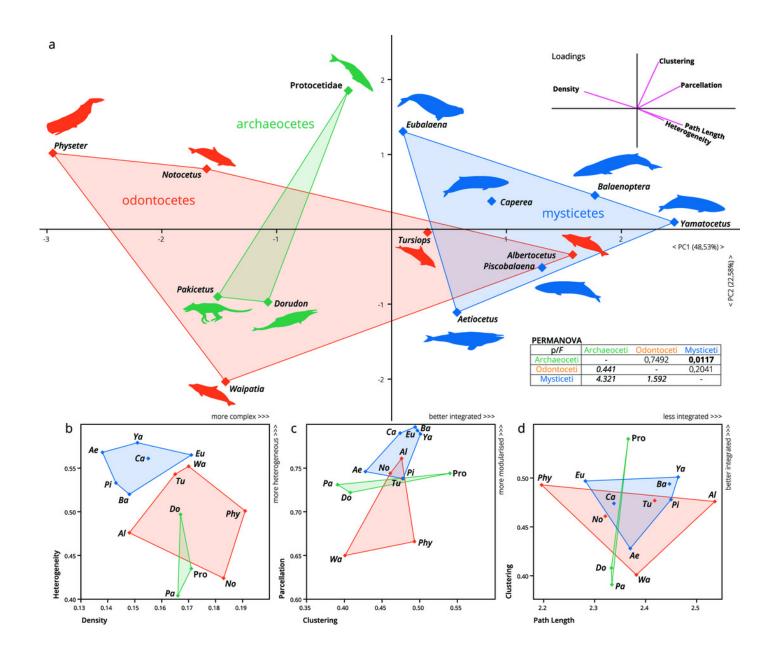




A detailed PCA of the skull networks of cetaceans, based on the sampling herein

(a) Sampling includes "Archaeoceti", Odontoceti, and Mysticeti. The first two PCs explain nearly 70% of the variation (PC1: 48,53%%; PC2:22,58%) and permit separating the skulls of cetaceans based on their heterogeneity, integration (based on clustering and path length), complexity (based on density), and modularity (based on parcellation). All sampled mysticetes are placed in the morphospace defined generally by simpler skulls (first and fourth quadrants), further divided into those also having integrated and more modular skulls (e.g., Eubalaena and Balaenoptera) or those with more heterogeneous and less integrated skulls (e.g., Piscobalaena and Aetiocetus). All archaeocetes and most odontocetes are placed in the morphospace defined by skulls that are, comparatively, more complex (second and third quadrants), further divided into those with better integrated and more homogeneous skulls (e.g., Physeter and Protocetidae) and those with less integrated and less modular skulls (e.g., Waipatia and Dorudon). However, odontocetes display the greatest morphological variation. (b-d) Whereas both odontocetes and mysticetes have similar integration (albeit odontocetes display a broader spectrum), mysticetes are clearly distinguished by more heterogeneity and modular skulls, compared to the more complex skulls of odontocetes. Silhouettes have been downloaded by phylopic.org under the following credits: Pakicetus (Conty, CC-BY), Dorudon, Aetiocetus (M. Keesey, public domain), Protocetidae (N. Tamura, vectorized by M. Keesey, CC-BY), *Physeter* (M. Michaud, public domain), general Odontoceti, *Tursiops*, general Mysticeti, *Eubalaena*, *Balaenoptera*, *Caperea* (C. Huh, CC-BY-SA). Abbreviations: Ae, Aetiocetus; Al, Albertocetus; Ba, Balaenoptera; Ca, Caperea; Do, Dorudon; Eu, Eubalaena; No, Notocetus; Pa, Pakicetus; Phy, Physeter; Pi, Piscobalaena; Pro, Protocetidae; Tu, Tursiops; Wa, Waipatia; Ya, Yamatocetus.



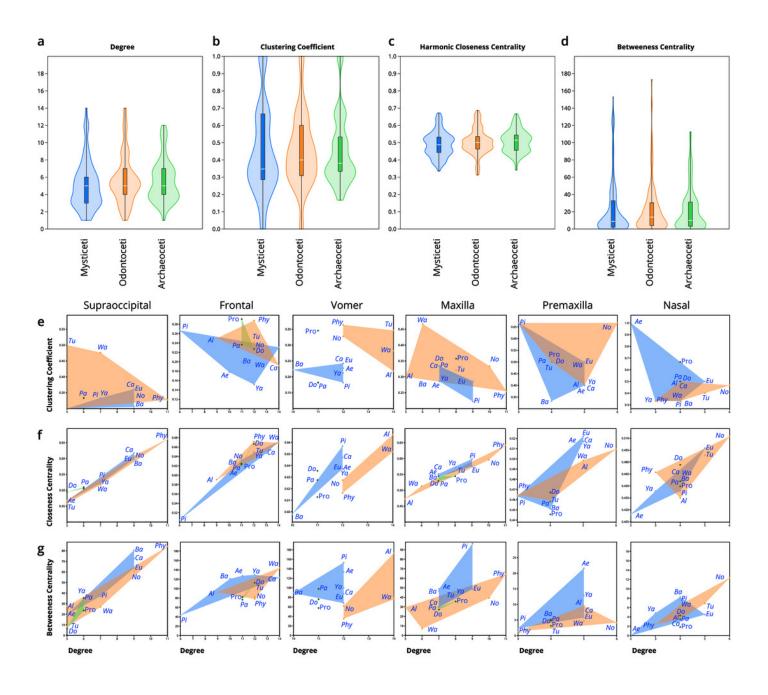




Network analysis of the cetacean skull at the individual bone level, based on selected network descriptors of the individual bones.

a-d, Violin plots with included box plots of the Degree (**a**), Clustering Coefficient (**b**), Harmonic Closeness Centrality (**c**), and Betweeness Centrality (**d**) of all skull bones of archaeocetes (green), odontocetes (orange), and mysticetes (blue). **e-g**, scatter plot of the Clustering Coefficient (**e**), Harmonic Closeness Centrality (**f**), and Betweeness Centrality (**g**) vs. the Degree of the main bones involved at the two types of telescoping in odontocetes (orange) and mysticetes (blue).





Anatomical networks, recovered network modules and the evolution of the main network descriptors under parsimony in a phylogenetic framework

The phylogeny is based on Martinez Cáceres et al., (2017) for archaeocetes, Marx et al., (2019) for mysticetes and Viglino et al., (2021) and Boessenecker et al., (2017) for odontocetes. See supplemental figures for detailed mapping.

