

# The hidden anatomy of paranasal sinuses reveals biogeographically distinct morphotypes in the nine-banded armadillo (*Dasypus novemcinctus*)

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**Background.** With their Pan-American distribution, long-nosed armadillos (genus *Dasypus*) constitute an understudied model for Neotropical biogeography. This genus currently comprises seven recognized species, the nine-banded armadillo (*D. novemcinctus*) having the widest distribution ranging from Northern Argentina to the South-Eastern US. With their broad diversity of habitats, nine-banded armadillos provide a useful model to explore the effects of climatic and biogeographic events on morphological diversity at a continental scale.

**Methods.** Based on a sample of 136 skulls of *Dasypus* spp. belonging to six species, including 112 specimens identified as *D. novemcinctus*, we studied the diversity and pattern of variation of paranasal cavities, which were reconstructed virtually using  $\mu$ CT-scanning or observed through bone transparency.

**Results.** Our qualitative analyses of paranasal sinuses and recesses successfully retrieved a taxonomic differentiation between the traditional species *D. kappleri*, *D. pilosus* and *D. novemcinctus* but failed to recover diagnostic features between the disputed and morphologically similar *D. septemcinctus* and *D. hybridus*. Most interestingly, the high variation detected in our large sample of *D. novemcinctus* showed a clear geographical patterning, with the recognition of three well-separated morphotypes: one ranging from North and Central America and parts of northern South America west of the Andes, one distributed across the Amazonian Basin and central South America, and one restricted to the Guiana Shield.

**Discussion.** The question as to whether these paranasal morphotypes may represent previously unrecognized species is to be evaluated through a thorough revision of the *Dasypus* species complex integrating molecular and morphological data. Remarkably, our recognition of a distinct morphotype in the Guiana Shield area is congruent with the recent discovery of a divergent mitogenomic lineage in French Guiana. The inflation of the second medialmost pair of caudal frontal sinuses constitutes an unexpected morphological diagnostic feature for this potentially distinct species. Our results demonstrate the benefits of studying overlooked internal morphological structures in supposedly cryptic species revealed by molecular data. It also illustrates the under-exploited potential of the highly variable paranasal sinuses of armadillos for systematic studies.

1 **The hidden anatomy of paranasal sinuses reveals biogeographically**  
2 **distinct morphotypes in the nine-banded armadillo (*Dasypus***  
3 ***novemcinctus*)**

4

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18

19 **Abstract**

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23 distribution ranging from Northern Argentina to the South-Eastern US. With their broad  
24 diversity of habitats, nine-banded armadillos provide a useful model to explore the effects of  
25 climatic and biogeographic events on morphological diversity at a continental scale.

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27 112 specimens identified as *D. novemcinctus*, we studied the diversity and pattern of variation of  
28 paranasal cavities, which were reconstructed virtually using  $\mu$ CT-scanning or observed through  
29 bone transparency.

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31 taxonomic differentiation between the traditional species *D. kappleri*, *D. pilosus* and *D.*  
32 *novemcinctus* but failed to recover diagnostic features between the disputed and morphologically  
33 similar *D. septemcinctus* and *D. hybridus*. Most interestingly, the high variation detected in our  
34 large sample of *D. novemcinctus* showed a clear geographical patterning, with the recognition of  
35 three well-separated morphotypes: one ranging from North and Central America and parts of  
36 northern South America west of the Andes, one distributed across the Amazonian Basin and  
37 central South America, and one restricted to the Guiana Shield.

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40 complex integrating molecular and morphological data. Remarkably, our recognition of a distinct  
41 morphotype in the Guiana Shield area is congruent with the recent discovery of a divergent  
42 mitogenomic lineage in French Guiana. The inflation of the second medialmost pair of caudal  
43 frontal sinuses constitutes an unexpected morphological diagnostic feature for this potentially  
44 distinct species. Our results demonstrate the benefits of studying overlooked internal  
45 morphological structures in supposedly cryptic species revealed by molecular data. It also

46 illustrates the under-exploited potential of the highly variable paranasal sinuses of armadillos for  
47 systematic studies.

## 48 **Introduction**

49 Detection of cryptic diversity and pertinent delimitation of extant taxonomic entities constitute a  
50 major challenge of current-day biological research as it may have critical implications on  
51 biodiversity conservation policies (Carstens et al., 2013). Cryptic species can be defined as “two  
52 or more species that are, or have been, classified as a single nominal species because they are at  
53 least superficially morphologically indistinguishable” (Bickford et al., 2007: 149). According to  
54 this definition, the absence of diagnostic morphological characters may have impeded the  
55 recognition of species. Depending on the case, this absence might be real (*i.e.*, populations of  
56 two cryptic species do not differ significantly in their entire anatomy) or spurious (*i.e.*,  
57 morphological differences have been overlooked).

58         Advanced methods of micro computed tomography ( $\mu$ CT) now enable an unprecedented  
59 assessment of internal anatomical structures, which can help uncover previously concealed  
60 morphological differences between taxa. The development of these non- destructive methods  
61 permits internal anatomy to be easily and systematically investigated in many taxa. These  
62 methodological improvements offer great opportunities for morphology-based phylogenetic  
63 research. In mammals, internal cranial structures certainly present a great wealth of  
64 phylogenetically informative anatomical features (e.g., Farke, 2010; Macrini, 2012; Ruf, 2014;  
65 Billet, Hautier & Lebrun, 2015), possibly as many as the external surface of the skull. There is  
66 therefore a possibility that this large proportion of previously poorly explored morphological  
67 data contains undetected morphological differences between alleged cryptic taxa.

68           The pan-American nine-banded armadillo (*Dasypus novemcinctus*) presents the largest  
69 distribution of any living xenarthran species (McDonough and Loughry 2013), and constitutes an  
70 interesting model for Neotropical phylogeography. Several subspecies (five to seven) have been  
71 recognized within this species but their delineation and recognition are not consensual (Cabrera,  
72 1958; McBee and Baker, 1982; Wetzel et al., 2008; McDonough & Loughry 2013). In fact, most  
73 potential diagnostic characters for these subspecific distinctions are seldom detailed, often  
74 inconstant, or based on a limited number of observations (e.g., Peters, 1864; Allen, 1911;  
75 Lönnberg, 1913; Hamlett, 1939; Hooper, 1947; Russell, 1953). Taxonomy and phylogeny in  
76 long-nosed armadillos (Dasypodidae, sensu Gibb et al., 2016) particularly suffer from strong  
77 disagreement between morphological and molecular data (Castro et al., 2015; Gibb et al., 2016).  
78 Even though it was more focused on higher taxonomic levels, a recent study suggested the  
79 existence of an unrecognized species in French Guiana based on mitochondrial data (incl.  
80 mitogenomes) (Gibb et al., 2016). The Guianan entity has never been distinguished from other  
81 *D. novemcinctus* on a morphological basis, and might thus represent another striking case of  
82 cryptic species.

83           In order to explore if internal parts of the skull contain a useful phylogenetic signal, we  
84 investigated the internal paranasal sinuses and recesses (Rossie, 2006), whose complex structure  
85 has largely been ignored by morphologists working on the systematics of long-nosed armadillos  
86 (genus *Dasypus*). Based on  $\mu$ CT images of skulls, we reconstructed virtually the entire network  
87 of paranasal spaces in *Dasypus* species with a particular focus on specimens of *D. novemcinctus*  
88 covering the entire geographic range of the species. The observed patterns are described and  
89 discussed considering traditional taxonomic entities of long-nosed armadillos and in light of  
90 most recent molecular findings. A focus is made on the discriminatory power of these concealed

91 characters in armadillos and on their utility for diagnosing taxonomic units previously regarded  
92 as cryptic.

93

94

## 95 **Materials & Methods**

### 96 *Specimens and $\mu$ CT-scanning*

97 The total number of investigated specimens is composed of 136 skulls of *Dasypus* spp. harvested  
98 from various institutions worldwide (see details in Table S1), among which 112 were identified  
99 as *D. novemcinctus*, 1 as *D. sabanicola*, 13 as *D. kappleri*, 4 as *D. hybridus*, 3 as *D.*  
100 *septemcinctus*, and 3 as *D. pilosus*.

101         Among this sample, we virtually reconstructed the internal paranasal spaces in 51  $\mu$ CT-  
102 scanned specimens belonging to *D. novemcinctus* (n=47), *D. kappleri* (n=1), *D. hybridus* (n=1),  
103 *D. septemcinctus* (n=1), and *D. pilosus* (n=1). Among the 47 *D. novemcinctus* specimens, 7 were  
104 considered juveniles, including a potential stillborn (NMNH 020920); the 40 remaining being  
105 adults or subadults. Age classes (juveniles vs subadults or adults) were determined based on the  
106 stages of eruption of the teeth (Ciancio, Castro & Asher, 2012), on suture closure, and on size.  
107 The 47 *D. novemcinctus* specimens came from: United States (n=3), Mexico (n=4), Guatemala  
108 (n=1), Nicaragua (n=1), Costa Rica (n=1), Panama (n=1), Colombia (n=6), Venezuela (n=2),  
109 Ecuador (n=2), Peru (n=2), Bolivia (n=2), Paraguay (n=1), Guyana (n=3), Suriname (n=2),  
110 French Guiana (n=3), Brazil (n=12; see a list of different states in Table S1), and Uruguay (n=1).  
111 Digital data of all 51 specimens were acquired using X-ray micro computed tomography ( $\mu$ CT).  
112 Most specimens were scanned on the X-ray tomography imagery platform at the Université de  
113 Montpellier (France) and on the  $\mu$ CT-scan platform of the Imaging and Analysis Centre of the

114 British Museum of Natural History (London, UK); one (MNHN.ZM-MO 2001.1317) was  
115 scanned at the Museum National d'Histoire Naturelle (France) in Paris (AST-RX platform).  
116 Detailed information about the scans and acquisition parameters can be found in Table S1.  
117 Three-dimensional reconstructions and visualizations of the frontal sinuses were performed using  
118 stacks of digital  $\mu$ CT images with AVIZO v. 6.1.1 software (Visualization Sciences Group  
119 2009).

120 An additional subset of 65 *D. novemcinctus*, 1 *D. sabanicola*, 12 *D. kappleri*, 3 *D.*  
121 *hybridus*, 2 *D. septemcinctus* and 2 *D. pilosus* specimens was added to the sample mentioned  
122 above. These additional specimens correspond to:

- 123 i) skulls not available for  $\mu$ CT-scanning but that allowed observing frontal sinuses  
124 boundaries through bone transparency through direct observations or photographs  
125 (NB: this was not possible for all observed skulls, some being insufficiently  
126 prepared or having no transparency of the frontal bone);
- 127 ii)  $\mu$ CT-scanned skulls whose paranasal cavities were not virtually reconstructed but  
128 their boundaries observed with ISE-Meshtools (Lebrun, 2008) with an artificial  
129 cutting of the specimen following a coronal section and with the software  
130 Landmark 3.6 (available at <http://graphics.idav.ucdavis.edu/research/EvoMorph> ;  
131 Institute for Data Analysis and Visualisation ©) with the option transparent  
132 surface rendering.

133 These two methods helped us to increase the number of investigated specimens and, most  
134 particularly, to include a paratype specimen of *D. sabanicola* (Mondolfi, 1968) (Table S1) (see  
135 discussion for a word on the status of *D. sabanicola*). In order to identify a cavity observed with

136 these alternative methods, we used similarities in position, shape, and topographical relationships  
137 with sinuses or recesses defined in virtually reconstructed specimens.

138

139

#### 140 *Nomenclature of paranasal anatomy*

141 To our knowledge, no detailed description of paranasal cavities exists for extant armadillos,  
142 except for histological slices in Reinbach (1952a & b). A maxillary recess is mentioned and  
143 figured in *Euphractus* (Wible & Gaudin, 2004) and brief notes were reported on the soft  
144 paranasal anatomy in *Dasypus* (Soares da Silva et al., 2016). The most extensive work on  
145 paranasal spaces in Cingulata concerns in fact some glyptodonts (Fericola et al., 2012), whose  
146 sinuses are very different from that of long-nosed armadillos. For these reasons, our  
147 nomenclature follows several conventions used in other taxa, as detailed below. The standard  
148 practice for paranasal sinuses is to name them after the bones they excavate (Novacek, 1993); we  
149 respected this practice for all the cavities we detected (i.e., both sinuses and recesses). The  
150 identity of the bones housing these cavities was determined through the examination of juvenile  
151 specimens that display clearly visible bone sutures. Following recent works by Maier (2000),  
152 Rossie (2006), and Farke (2010), we made a distinction between sinus and recess for paranasal  
153 cavities. Paranasal sinuses are pneumatic and mucosa-lined spaces that are located in the bones  
154 surrounding the nasal chamber (Rossie, 2006; Curtis & Van Valkenburg, 2014). Contrary to  
155 sinuses that are found between two layers of cortical bones (e.g., frontal), paranasal recesses are  
156 defined as simple concavities of the nasal cavity, and are not associated with active bone removal  
157 (Farke, 2010; Rossie, 2006). Hereafter, we employed the terms sinus or recess accordingly.  
158 However, some cavities may apply to both definitions, with the posterior part expanding into the

159 bone while the anterior part only represents a concavity. In order to avoid confusion in giving  
160 two names to a single structure, we called sinuses the cavities that were at least partly comprised  
161 between two layers of a cortical bone. Because there are often several sinuses or recesses within  
162 a given bone (e.g., frontal, maxillary), we also used the English equivalents of positional terms of  
163 the *Nomina Anatomica Veterinaria* (NAV, 2005) for the paranasal sinuses when feasible (e.g.,  
164 caudal frontal sinus). It was not possible to elaborate robust homology hypotheses for all cavities  
165 of the paranasal region because they are found in large numbers and may represent  
166 neoformations when compared to the common terminology. Consequently, we complemented  
167 the common terminology with a numbering system that allows distinguishing the numerous  
168 frontal recesses and sinuses found in long-nosed armadillos. The terminology for turbinal bones,  
169 which are only briefly mentioned for spatial localization of paranasal cavities, is based on Van  
170 Valkenburgh, Smith & Craven (2014) and Maier & Ruf (2014).

171

172 *Institutional abbreviations:* AMNH, American Museum of Natural History, New York, USA;  
173 BMNH, British Museum of Natural History (Natural History Museum), London, UK; IEPA  
174 Instituto de Pesquisas Científicas e Tecnológicas do Estado do Amapá in Macapá, Brazil;  
175 KWATA, Kwata Association collection, Cayenne, French Guiana; LSU, Louisiana State  
176 University, Baton Rouge, LA, USA; MBUCV Museo de biología de la Universidad central de  
177 Venezuela; MHNG, Muséum d'Histoire Naturelle in Geneva, Switzerland; MNHN.ZM.MO,  
178 collections “Zoologie et Anatomie comparée, Mammifères et Oiseaux” of Muséum National  
179 d'Histoire Naturelle, Paris, France; MUSM Museo de Historia Natural-Universidad Nacional  
180 Mayor de San Marcos, Lima, Peru; NMNH, National Museum of Natural History, Smithsonian

181 Institution; Washington, DC, USA; RMNH, Naturalis Biodiversity Center, Leiden, Netherlands  
182 (Rijksmuseum van Natuurlijke Historie); ROM, the Royal Ontario Museum in Toronto, Canada.

183

184 *Anatomical abbreviations and measurements*: CFS, caudal frontal sinus (numbered from 0 to 5);

185 FR, frontal bone; LA, lacrimal bone; LTC, length total cranium, measured from the anterior

186 nasal tip to the posteriormost extent of the nuchal occipital crests; NA, nasal bone; NSP,

187 nasopharynx; RFR, rostral frontal recess (numbered from 1 to 3); RL, lacrimal recess (numbered

188 from 1 to 2); RMXC, caudal maxillary recess; RMXR, rostral maxillary recess, ZA, zygomatic

189 arch.

190

191

## 192 **Results**

### 193 *Observations common to all long-nosed armadillos (genus Dasypus)*

194 In all investigated long-nosed armadillos, paranasal sinuses and recesses consistently excavate

195 the same three bones of the cranial face and vault: the lacrimal, the maxillary and the frontal.

196 Sinuses are present only in the frontal bone of *D. novemcinctus*, *D. pilosus*, and *D. kappleri*; they

197 are absent or weakly marked in *D. hybridus* and *D. septemcinctus* (Fig. 1). Only the posterior

198 pneumatic parts of the frontal bone form sinuses whereas, more anteriorly, the pneumatization of

199 the frontal bone forms recesses, which are in direct contact with the underlying turbinals all

200 along their anteroposterior length. In most adult individuals of *D. novemcinctus* (see more details

201 below) and *D. kappleri*, the frontal sinuses are almost entirely bordered by the posterior part of

202 the fronto- and ethmoturbinals ventrally. In all species, the frontal sinuses and recesses regularly

203 increase in height toward the front. The number of sinuses and recesses varies intragenerically  
204 and these structures will be described hereafter.

205         In all *Dasypus* species, recesses are positioned dorsolaterally in the paranasal cavity.  
206 These recesses represent large free-of-bone spaces in the nasal cavity, generally separating  
207 turbinal bones medioventrally from the bones that build up the cranial walls. The lacrimal  
208 recesses are in contact with the mass of fronto- and ethmoturbinals medially, whereas the  
209 maxillary recesses are bordered by the naso- and maxilloturbinals ventromedially . Two distinct  
210 lacrimal recesses are invariably present and are separated by the bony cover of the nasolacrimal  
211 duct. Two recesses, variably individualized, excavate the maxillary bone (Fig. 1) and are  
212 bordered by the nasolacrimal duct ventrolaterally. These maxillary cavities may well be  
213 homologous to the maxillary sinus found in other mammals, but they are here designated as  
214 recesses following the rationale specified in the Material and Methods Section.

215         In addition to the taxonomic and geographic variation described below, variable levels of  
216 intra-individual asymmetry appear to affect all species and all paired paranasal spaces under  
217 consideration here. This asymmetry is not directional, it is ubiquitous and present in most if not  
218 all specimens, which suggests a case of fluctuating asymmetry (Van Valen, 1962). The species  
219 *D. kappleri* seems to be characterized by stronger levels of asymmetry than the species *D.*  
220 *novemcinctus* (see below).

221

### 222 ***Juveniles of D. novemcinctus***

223 In addition to delivering critical information on the identity of bones housing the various sinuses  
224 and recesses, the study of juvenile individuals provided some clues on the growth pattern of the  
225 paranasal pneumatization in the nine-banded armadillo. Juveniles show a less tight medial

226 contact between paired medial sinuses, such as the rostral frontal recesses (which may split in  
227 RFR1 and RFR1', see below) or the caudal frontal sinuses (Fig. 2). Compared to adults, caudal  
228 frontal sinuses (CFS) are less expanded posteriorly in juveniles and do not lie above the most  
229 posterior part of the mass of fronto- and ethmoturbinals.

230         A very young specimen (likely a stillborn, AMNH 33150) shows that very early  
231 ontogenetic phases of paranasal pneumatization start with a weak individualisation of the caudal  
232 maxillary recess, whereas no other sinus or recess is individualized and the turbinals are not yet  
233 ossified. The large cavity excavated in the posterior part of the frontals in this specimen does not  
234 represent a sinus but a transverse canal, presumably for the frontal diploic vein (Wible and  
235 Gaudin, 2004) (Fig. 3). Other juveniles in our dataset clearly correspond to later ontogenetic  
236 stages, as indicated by their size: LTC= AMNH33150 38,93mm; LSU3244 66,14mm; NMNH  
237 020920 72,89mm; AMNH133259 68,85mm (NB: LTC ~ 90-105mm in adults; Hautier L.,  
238 unpublished data). This age difference is confirmed by their stage of dental eruption: first  
239 decidual bicuspid tooth erupting in AMNH 33150; dP1-dP7 present in LSU3244 and NMNH  
240 20920; dP1-dP7 and alveolus of M1 present in AMNH 133259 (see Ciancio et al., 2011). The  
241 juvenile series shows that paranasal pneumatization and turbinal ossification just barely started in  
242 perinatal stages lesser than 40% adult skull length (AMNH 33150; Fig. 3) whereas these  
243 structures are well-developed in later stages with dp1-dp7 erupted and with ~70% of adult skull  
244 length (Fig. 2).

245

#### 246 ***Observations common to all adults of nine-banded armadillos (D. novemcinctus)***

247 Skulls of adult *D. novemcinctus* are more pneumatized than juvenile ones (Figs. 2-4). All adult  
248 *D. novemcinctus* present a similar pattern of sinuses: posteriorly, a number of 5 to 6 paired CFS

249 generally cover dorsally the posterior part of the mass of fronto- and ethmoturbinals (Figs. 1, 4  
250 and 5). One medialmost and often reduced pair of CFS was identified as variably present and  
251 designated as CFS 0, in order to start numbering from 1 for the invariably present CFS. The set  
252 of CFS form a continuous transversal chain of dorsal paranasal spaces between the orbits (Fig.  
253 5). While the posterior part of each CFS is comprised between two layers of cortical bone, the  
254 anterior part is always bordered ventrally by the fronto- and ethmoturbinals (Fig. 5). Anterior to  
255 the CFS, the frontal bone houses several pairs of rostral frontal recesses (RFR). These recesses  
256 show variable shapes (see below), but can be at least divided in two main areas: a medial recess  
257 generally elongated (RFR1) and/or subdivided anteroposteriorly (RFR1 & RFR1'), and a recess  
258 or group of recesses that excavate the frontal bone more laterally up to the lacrimal recesses  
259 (RFR2-3) (Fig. 1). Topographical criterions were used for establishing homologies and  
260 numbering of the CFS, with the CFS 0-1 always located directly posterior to the RFR1 and the  
261 CFS2-4 located posterior to the RFR2-3. In our sample of *D. novemcinctus*, the RFR1 are always  
262 bordered posteriorly by one or two pairs of CFS in our sample of *Dasypus novemcinctus*. When  
263 two pairs are present, the medialmost (or anteriormost in a few specimens; see below), CFS 0, is  
264 always the smallest. Therefore, we consider that the medialmost pair is CFS1 when only one pair  
265 is present (Figs. 1 and 4).

266

### 267 ***Northern morphotype of D. novemcinctus***

268 Thirty nine (39) specimens from North and Central America and from the Pacific coast of  
269 eastern Ecuador are attributed to this morphotype (Figs. 1, 4 and 6). Specimens attributed to this  
270 group originate from (in alphabetical order of countries): Belize, Colombia (Antioquia  
271 Department), Costa Rica, Ecuador (Provinces El Oro and Pichincha), Guatemala, Honduras,

272 Mexico (Sinaloa, Tabasco, Oaxaca, Colima, Jalisco, and an undetermined locality  
273 (NMNH179172) for the adults, San Luis Potosi and Morelos for the juveniles), Nicaragua, and  
274 USA (states of Mississippi, Texas, Florida, Kansas, and Louisiana). The main diagnostic feature  
275 for this group is the anteroposterior elongation of the CFS2 to 5; in addition, the left and right  
276 CFS2 are obliquely orientated and contact each other posterior to the CFS1. Another distinctive  
277 feature of this morphotype is the subdivision and the relative shortening of RFR1. As for the  
278 Southern morphotype (see below), the number of CFS pairs in this group varies from 5 to 6,  
279 because the CFS0 pair is either very reduced or absent. The CFS1 are rather small, shorter than  
280 the more lateral CFSs and bordered posteriorly by the contacting pair of CFS2. The CFS2 and/or  
281 CFS3 are the largest CFSs within this group, and though they do not contact posteromedially,  
282 each CFS3, similarly to the CFS2, bends or orientates obliquely toward the midline posteriorly.  
283 The CFS4 can be as elongated as the CFS2-3 or slightly smaller; the CFS5 are more reduced.  
284 The median rostral frontal recesses are subdivided into two anteroposterior pairs RFR1 and  
285 RFR1' and contrast with the long RFR1 of the Southern morphotype. The posterior pair, the  
286 RFR1, apparently forms earlier within the ontogenetic sequence as it is clearly more developed  
287 than RFR1' in two juvenile specimens from Mexico (Fig. 2). The shape of RFR1 in adults is  
288 rather square whereas the anterior pair, RFR1', is usually slightly more elongated  
289 anteroposteriorly. Lateral to the RFR1 and RFR1', the RFR2 and 3 are often well separated  
290 (distinction often better marked than in the Southern group); the RFR3 is immediately lateral to  
291 the RFR2. The same applies to the caudal and rostral maxillary recesses (RMXC & RMXR),  
292 which are often better separated in this morphotype compared to the Southern morphotype; the  
293 caudal maxillary recess is posterolateral to the rostral one and located just anterior to the lacrimal  
294 recess 2.

295           The specimen AMNH 40984 from southwest Ecuador is attributed to this Northern group  
296 because of the presence of large and posteriorly convergent CFS2 and short and subdivided  
297 RFR1-RFR1' (Fig. 4). The other specimen from western Ecuador, BMNH 16.7.12.37, also  
298 shows these characters through bone transparency. Nevertheless, on the virtual reconstruction of  
299 AMNH 40984, the lateral RFR2-3 appear more subdivided than in other members of this  
300 morphotype, and also more than in other morphotypes. In addition, the anterior edge of its  
301 medialmost CFS (CFS 0) is shifted anteriorly. These unique characters could not be checked on  
302 the specimen observed on photos only.

303

#### 304 ***Southern morphotype of D. novemcinctus***

305 Fifty one (51) specimens (incl. the paratype of *D. sabanicola*) spanning the Amazon Basin  
306 (excluding the Guiana Shield) and including the southernmost distribution of the species in  
307 Uruguay show a distinct pattern of paranasal spaces (Figs. 4 and 6). Specimens attributed to this  
308 group thus span the Southern range of *D. novemcinctus* and originate from the following  
309 countries (in alphabetical order): Bolivia (states of Beni, Pando and Santa Cruz), Brazil (states of  
310 Amazonas, Para, Goias, Santa Catarina, Mato Grosso, Mato Grosso do Sul, Minas Gerais, São  
311 Paulo, Rio Grande do Sul and Espirito Santo), Colombia (Meta and Magdalena departments),  
312 Ecuador (Morona Santiago Province), Paraguay, Peru (regions of Ucayali, Ayacucho and San  
313 Martín), Uruguay, and Venezuela (states of Anzoátegui and Apure (state of the paratype of *D.*  
314 *sabanicola*)). The distinctive features of the Southern pattern of paranasal spaces mostly consist  
315 in an anteroposteriorly reduced posterior chain of caudal frontal sinuses and an elongated rostral  
316 frontal recess 1 (Figs. 1 and 4). In this group, the CFS0 are variably present. When present, they  
317 are generally smaller than the more lateral CFS1 to 5. The CFS1 always contact each other

318 medially, or just at their posteromedial corner if the CFS0 are present. In most specimens, the  
319 CFS are much shorter anteroposteriorly than the rostral frontal recess RFR1, usually around a 1/2  
320 or 1/3 ratio. Some specimens referred to this morphotype show more balanced ratios but the  
321 anteroposterior length of the CFS never exceeds that of the RFR1. The CFS1 to 4 are usually of  
322 similar length and width, the areas of the CFS 1 and 2 may just slightly exceed that of the others  
323 in average. The lateralmost caudal frontal sinus that lies immediately medial to the orbital rim,  
324 i.e. the CFS5, is generally shorter than the other CFS.

325         Additionally, many individuals of that group show a weak distinction or even a fusion  
326 between the RFR2 and 3 (Figs. 1 and 4). Though the RFR2 and 3 are in average less separated  
327 than in other groups of *D. novemcinctus*, this character is not stable within the Southern group.  
328 Ontogenetic data are unfortunately lacking to state on a possible influence of development on  
329 this feature. When not completely fused, the RFR 2 and 3 are often separated by a short bony  
330 ridge posteriorly.

331         The maxillary recesses are located dorsal to the nasolacrimal duct and (antero)lateral to  
332 the RFR1. As for the RFR2 and 3, the caudal and rostral maxillary recesses are variably distinct;  
333 in average, they are less separated than in the other groups.

334

### 335 ***Guianan morphotype of D. novemcinctus***

336 Seventeen (17) specimens are attributed to this group and originate from: Brazil (Amapa State),  
337 French Guiana, Guyana and Suriname. The most conspicuous diagnostic feature of this group is  
338 the strong inflation of the CFS2, which is by far the largest caudal frontal sinus (Figs. 1, 4, 5 and  
339 6). These hypertrophied CFS2 occupy most or all the pneumatized frontal area between the  
340 orbits up to the level of the anterior edge of the posterior zygomatic root posteriorly. More

341 precisely, it is the posterior part of the CFS2 that is hypertrophied and borders all or most other  
342 CFSs on their caudal side. The anterior part of the CFS2, which is sandwiched between CFS1  
343 and CF3, is as narrow as the CFS3-4. The outline of CFS2 often exhibits a complex irregular  
344 pattern and pairs are clearly asymmetric in all specimens (Fig. 4).

345         The CFS0 are variably present as in other groups. When present, they are rather small,  
346 clearly elongated transversally and entirely bordered by the CFS1 posteriorly. In comparison to  
347 other morphotypes, the CFS0 are slightly shifted anteriorly relative to other CFSs. The size and  
348 shape of the CFS1 is also variable. In specimens with no CFS0, the CFS1 are much reduced and  
349 rather square-shaped (AP 207; Fig. 4). In specimens with CFS0, the CFS1 are relatively larger  
350 and can extend as far posteriorly as the hypertrophied CFS2. In such case (MNHN.ZM-MO  
351 2001-1317), they are transversally thin and sandwiched between the pairs of CFS2 (Fig. 4). In  
352 one specimen (MNHN.ZM-MO 1996-587), the CFS1 seems to be partly fused posteromedially  
353 with the CFS2 on both sides. The CFS3 and 4 are considerably smaller than the CFS2, and are  
354 similar in size as in the Southern morphotype. The CFS5 is generally smaller than CFS3-4, and  
355 can be absent (*e.g.*, MNHN.ZM-MO 2001-1317).

356         The configuration of the RFR1 is variable, as they seem to be irregularly divided into an  
357 anterior RFR1' and posterior RFR1. The limits between these two subdivisions are not only  
358 variable between individuals of this morphotype, they are also labile intra-individually: the  
359 subdivisions may be marked on one side of the skull, not on the other (ROM 32275) or it may  
360 follow another path (MNHN.ZM-MO 1995-553), or the boundaries may be irregularly marked  
361 overall (marked on some portion, then absent, and then marked again a little farther away;  
362 NMNH 339668). As in the Southern morphotype, the RFR2 and 3 are poorly distinguishable in

363 most Guianan specimens (but this is also variable), except for a posterior demarcation that is  
364 almost always present.

365         The lacrimal recesses 1 and 2 are very similar to that of the other morphotypes, also  
366 delimited by the nasolacrimal duct. The intensity of the separation between the rostral and caudal  
367 maxillary recesses is variable, but these recesses are otherwise very similar to other  
368 morphotypes.

369

### 370 ***Problematic Specimens from Panama, Venezuela and Colombia***

371 Five specimens (AMNH 32356, 37356, NMNH 281290 from Colombia, BMNH 5-7-521 from  
372 Merida, Venezuela and NMNH 171052 from Panama) show somewhat intermediate  
373 morphologies between the Southern and Northern morphotypes (Fig. 4). They all present CFS  
374 and RFR1 of similar length and do not show a medially contacting pair of CFS2 (though close in  
375 AMNH 37356). The RFR1 are usually not subdivided, except in the Venezuelan specimen and,  
376 to a lesser extent, in the Colombian AMNH 32356. The CFS2 and 3 do not represent the largest  
377 CFS except in the Colombian AMNH 32356 and 37356. These specimens therefore show a  
378 combination of features characterizing the Southern and Northern groups.

379 In addition, the probable stillborn specimen AMNH 33150 from Colombia could not be referred  
380 to any morphotype because its paranasal spaces are not fully developed yet (Fig. 3).

381

### 382 ***Other Dasypus Species***

383 *Greater long-nosed armadillo (D. kappleri)*

384 The *D. kappleri* specimens present a large pneumatization of their paranasal region, as in *D.*

385 *novemcinctus*. However, all *D. kappleri* specimens exhibit less numerous, but wider and longer

386 finger-shaped CFS than *D. novemcinctus*. In fact, this may be due to various partial or complete  
387 fusions of the CFS with the RFR, which we tentatively identify as follows: the CFS1 and RFR1  
388 are fused and occupy the medialmost region (but not posteriorly in some specimens; see below),  
389 the CFS2-3 are fused with the RFR2-3 (Fig. 1). We consider that the caudal end of these  
390 structures are homologous to the CFS since it is found between two layers of frontal bone. In  
391 some specimens, a blunt bony bridge still marks a separation between these sinuses and recesses.  
392 This general pattern is typical of the species, yet the arrangement of paranasal cavities largely  
393 varies intraspecifically. Two groups can be distinguished: specimens from the Guiana Shield  
394 display fused CFS1-RFR1 that reach the posterior boundary of the other CFS, whereas  
395 specimens from more western locations have the right and left CFS2 that contact posteriorly in  
396 the midline (Fig. S1). The relative sizes of the CFS also vary a lot, but the fused CFS2-3 with  
397 RFR2-3 are in most cases the largest ones. In addition, most of these recesses show a substantial  
398 amount of asymmetry, probably higher than in *D. novemcinctus*. Other recesses are grossly  
399 similar in size and location to those described for *D. novemcinctus*.

400

#### 401 *Hairy long-nosed armadillo (D. pilosus)*

402 The investigated specimens of *D. pilosus* probably resemble the most the *D. novemcinctus*  
403 groups (Fig. 1). Conversely to *D. kappleri*, specimens of *D. pilosus* show caudal frontal sinuses  
404 well-individualized from the rostral frontal recesses. However, there is some variation in the  
405 shape of the caudal frontal sinuses. In the only scanned specimen of *D. pilosus*, the caudal frontal  
406 sinuses are barely recognizable as they do not excavate the frontal bone (not found between two  
407 layers of frontal bone); they are located just dorsal to the mass of fronto- and ethmoturbinals. In  
408 fact, they rather represent thin cell-shaped recesses with irregular outlines, which are sandwiched

409 between the frontal bone dorsally and the fronto- and ethmoturbinals ventrally. Conversely, the  
410 two additional specimens of *D. pilosus* observed through bone transparency show slightly longer  
411 caudal frontal sinuses/recesses that are better delineated. In any case, these caudal cell-shaped  
412 frontal sinuses/recesses are in all three specimens comparable to the CFS of *D. novemcinctus*  
413 groups in their number (4 to 5 pairs), dorsal outline and location. The rather short anteroposterior  
414 extent and reduced mediolateral width of these CFS-like structures in *D. pilosus* are most  
415 reminiscent of the pattern seen in the Southern group of *D. novemcinctus*. The more anterior  
416 recesses resemble the RFR1 and RFR2-3 of the same Southern group, especially the  
417 un(sub)divided and elongated RFR1. Remarkably, the lacrimal recesses are more elongated  
418 anteroposteriorly than in other *Dasypus* species.

419

420 *Southern long-nosed armadillo* (*D. hybridus*) and *seven banded armadillo* (*D. septemcinctus*)  
421 These two species are here described together because they exhibit strong similarities in their  
422 pattern of paranasal cavities and could not be distinguished in our sample. These two small-sized  
423 species show the least pneumatized skulls among our adult sample of *Dasypus*. Both species  
424 present RFR1 that are transversely narrow and curved, never in contact medially, and thus partly  
425 recall the configuration seen in young *D. novemcinctus* specimens (see above) (Figs. 1-2). In  
426 addition, specimens of both species have poorly defined CFS, i.e., the fronto- and  
427 ethmoturbinals fill in most of the space just ventral to the cranial vault made by the frontals and  
428 the CFS are very thin dorsoventrally. The frontal bones are in fact poorly pneumatized and show  
429 a thin diploe. Other cavities (rostral frontal recesses, lacrimal and maxillary recesses) show a  
430 pattern and extent grossly similar to that of other *Dasypus* species.

431

## 432 **Discussion**

### 433 *Distribution and significance of paranasal pneumatization in mammals and armadillos*

434 Paulli (1900a; 1900b) first provided detailed descriptions of paranasal cavities based on sagittal  
435 and transverse osteological sections of mammalian skulls. With the recent development of  $\mu$ CT  
436 and virtual modeling of internal structures, the paranasal sinuses and recesses could be more  
437 systematically and precisely studied in extant mammals such as vombatiform marsupials,  
438 carnivorans, artiodactyls, and primates (e.g., Rossie, 2008; Farke, 2010; Curtis & Van  
439 Valkenburg, 2014; Maier & Ruf, 2014; Sharp, 2016). Though not yet thoroughly investigated  
440 with modern techniques, these structures are also known to occur in many other groups of  
441 placental mammals (Paulli, 1900a; Paulli, 1900b; Edinger, 1950; Novacek 1993) and may  
442 constitute convergently lost symplesiomorphic placental features (Foster & Shapiro, 2016).

443         The ubiquitous distribution of these structures in several clades of amniotes (Witmer,  
444 1999) long raised questions regarding the potential functional role of paranasal pneumatization.  
445 As noted by Farke (2010: 988), cranial pneumatization such as paranasal sinuses “remains one of  
446 the most functionally enigmatic and debated structures within the vertebrate skull”. Indeed,  
447 researchers have long speculated on the potential functional role of these air-filled chambers, and  
448 proposed a wealth of hypotheses (Blanton & Biggs, 1969; Blaney, 1990; Marquez, 2008), most  
449 of which remain, as of today, untested. However, one of the current dominating hypotheses  
450 regards sinuses as functionless structures influenced by constraints inherent to bone growth and  
451 patterning (Witmer, 1997; Smith et al., 2005; Farke, 2010 and citations therein). In fact, sinuses  
452 may just opportunistically fill space where bone is not mechanically necessary (Curtis & Van  
453 Valkenburg, 2014) and reduce skull mass in return (Curtis et al., 2015). This might be  
454 compatible with the fact that the presence and extent of sinuses may, at least in some instances,

455 be linked to size increase and to the shape of the bone in which they are contained (Weidenreich,  
456 1941; Zollikofer et al., 2008; Farke, 2010; Curtis et al., 2015; Krentzel & Angielczyk, 2016; Ito  
457 & Nishimura, 2016; Sharp & Rich, 2016). Though these alternative architectural explanations do  
458 not preclude the existence of functional advantages (e.g., to dissipate mechanical stress during  
459 biting; Tanner et al., 2008), it seems that there is no overarching explanation for the function of  
460 sinuses (Curtis et al., 2015).

461         A substantial variation of paranasal sinuses shape and outline has long been noted in  
462 many taxa at the interspecific, intraspecific, and intra-individual levels (e.g., Paulli, 1900a;  
463 Paulli, 1900b; Novacek, 1993; Farke, 2010; Curtis & Van Valkenburg, 2014). These  
464 observations clearly suggest that these structures have a non-negligible propensity to vary greatly  
465 in mammals. It is questionable whether or not their high variability (sensu Hallgrímsson & Hall,  
466 2005) could make paranasal sinuses good markers of phylogenetic history. Interestingly, the  
467 highly variable shape and size of the frontal sinus in modern humans proved to be largely  
468 inherited from parents to children (Szilvássy, 1982) and is used in forensic science for individual  
469 and population identifications (e.g., Kim et al., 2013). At higher taxonomic levels, a significant  
470 phylogenetic signal was detected in the pattern of paranasal sinuses of primates and bovid  
471 artiodactyls (Rossie, 2008; Farke, 2010), but the size and shape of frontal sinuses were rather  
472 weakly linked with phylogenetic groupings in Carnivora (Curtis & Van Valkenburg, 2014).  
473 Similarly, the diversity of maxillary sinuses in macaques was not linked to phylogeny (Ito &  
474 Nishimura 2016) even though these structures were at least in part controlled by intrinsic genetic  
475 factors (Ito et al., 2015).

476         In the case of long-nosed armadillos, the clear discrete differences in patterns of paranasal  
477 sinuses observed between the different species and subgroups of *Dasybus* (*D. novemcinctus*, *D.*

478 *kappleri*, *D. pilosus*, *D. septemcinctus* and *D. hybridus*) argue for a high discriminatory power  
479 and a good phylogenetic signal carried by these structures within the genus. The fluctuating  
480 asymmetry (Van Valen, 1962) tentatively identified for these structures in armadillos suggests  
481 that they are also impacted by random perturbations of developmental processes (Klingenberg,  
482 2010). Curiously, early anatomical accounts of paranasal anatomy disagreed on the presence of  
483 sinuses in long-nosed armadillos. While Cuvier (1845) and Weinert (1925) correctly observed  
484 the presence of such structures in long-nosed armadillos, other early authors overlooked it  
485 (Paulli, 1900b; Zuckerkandl, 1887 (as cited in Weinert, 1925)). In fact, frontal sinuses were still  
486 considered absent in armadillos as a whole in recent anatomical works (Novacek, 1993). Our  
487 results clearly contradict these considerations and investigation of paranasal cavities in some  
488 Chlamyphoridae, the sister group of Dasypodidae within Cingulata (Gibb et al., 2016), even  
489 reveals homoplastic evolution of these structures in armadillos. Frontal sinus or recesses are  
490 absent in the extant chlamyphorid *Euphractus sexcinctus* (Wible & Gaudin, 2004) and some  
491  $\mu$ CT-scanned specimens of *Cabassous unicinctus* (MNHN.ZM.MO 1953-457) and *Zaedyus*  
492 *pichiy* (MNHN.ZM.MO 1917-135) do not show any free-of-bone space between the frontal and  
493 the fronto- and ethmoturbinals (personal observations). On the other hand, an extensive system  
494 of paranasal sinuses exists in the extinct glyptodont *Neosclerocalyptus* (Fericola et al., 2012).  
495 Further comparisons are needed in extant and fossil forms (see sinuses in the fossil *D. punctatus*,  
496 Castro et al., 2013), as these structures might provide potentially interesting characters for the  
497 understanding of higher-level relationships within the order (Delsuc et al., 2016).

498

499 ***Relevance of paranasal sinuses for the systematics of long-nosed armadillos***

500 Our detailed investigation of paranasal cavities in *Dasypus* species revealed an important  
501 variation at different levels. We briefly described the ontogenetic pattern of the paranasal sinuses  
502 and recesses, which may start individualizing in perinatal stages (see also Reinbach, 1952a & b).  
503 Postnatal juvenile specimens show CFS that are less developed posteriorly when compared to  
504 adult specimens, revealing the late posterior growth of these structures. Second, as indicated  
505 above, adults show clear differences between traditionally recognized species, mostly in the  
506 configuration of the CFS and RFR. Besides the large variation seen within *D. novemcinctus* (see  
507 below), clear differences can be observed between *D. kappleri*, *D. pilosus* and the sister species  
508 *D. hybridus* - *D. septemcinctus*. The greater long-nosed armadillo (*D. kappleri*) probably has the  
509 most divergent morphology regarding these sinuses and recesses with the fusion of its CFS and  
510 RFR. In contrast, these structures are better separated in all other long-nosed armadillos  
511 reconstructed here. This is congruent with the early diverging position of *D. kappleri* in the  
512 phylogeny of long-nosed armadillos (Gibb et al., 2016). Our sample for *D. kappleri* is also  
513 characterized by a substantial variation, which is partly structured geographically: specimens  
514 from the Guiana Shield show a CFS1-RFR1 that reaches the posterior level of other CFS,  
515 whereas this is not the case in other specimens originating from more western areas in South  
516 America (Fig. S1). Interestingly, these two allopatric groupings are congruent with the new  
517 taxonomic subdivision proposed by Feijo & Cordeiro-Estrela (2016), with a revised *D. kappleri*  
518 species restricted to the Guiana Shield area, and a new species (*D. pastasae*) found from the  
519 eastern Andes of Peru, Ecuador, Colombia, and Venezuela south of the Orinoco River into the  
520 western Brazilian Amazon Basin. These preliminary results now require a larger sample,  
521 including specimens referred to *D. beniensis* (Feijo & Cordeiro-Estrela, 2016), in order to further  
522 test species delimitation in the *D. kappleri* complex.

523           The pattern of paranasal cavities of the hairy long-nosed armadillo (*D. pilosus*) is more  
524 similar to the Southern morphotype of *D. novemcinctus* than to any other morphotype, which  
525 may have important implications on the reconstruction of its phylogenetic affinities. Castro et al.  
526 (2015) found this species to be the sister group of all other species attributed to the genus  
527 *Dasybus*, and therefore proposed to place it in its own genus *Cryptophractus*. This early  
528 diverging position and generic status is in disagreement with a more recent mitogenomic  
529 analysis, which retrieved *D. pilosus* in a more nested position within the genus *Dasybus*, with *D.*  
530 *kappleri* representing the earliest diverging species (Gibb et al., 2016). Remarkably, our findings  
531 may provide new morphological arguments for such a nested position of *D. pilosus* as  
532 unambiguously supported by molecular data. The related species *D. septemcinctus* and *D.*  
533 *hybridus*, for their part, closely resemble each other, as it could have been expected given their  
534 overall morphological resemblance and their phylogenetic proximity. This observation adds to  
535 the growing body of evidence that these two parapatric species might in fact represent a single  
536 taxonomic entity with a large distribution (Abba & Superina, 2010; Gibb et al., 2016).

537           Most importantly, the variation within the nine-banded armadillo (*Dasybus*  
538 *novemcinctus*) allowed clearly separating three distinct geographical groups based on the pattern  
539 of paranasal cavities (Fig. 6). These individual subsets do not exactly correspond to traditional  
540 subspecies proposed for the nine-banded armadillo (McBee & Baker, 1982) though the  
541 distinction between the Northern and Central American (Northern morphotype) and the Southern  
542 American (Southern morphotype) groups may recall some subspecific boundaries (see below). In  
543 fact, although bone transparency often offers the possibility to observe the boundaries between  
544 the frontal sinuses and recesses, it seems that these characters have long been overlooked in  
545 cingulate systematics. The most interesting result lies in the distinction of a well-characterized

546 entity restricted to the Guiana Shield area. Guianan nine-banded armadillos are distinguished by  
547 an inflated CFS2 in comparison to all other armadillos investigated here. The irregular outline of  
548 the CFS2 varies greatly among individuals belonging to the Guianan morphotype but its large  
549 size relative to other CFS appears distinctive. While nine-banded armadillos from the Guiana  
550 Shield have never been distinguished as a subspecies (i.e. they were until now considered as part  
551 of the subspecies *D. novemcinctus novemcinctus* Linnaeus 1758; Wetzel et al., 2008),  
552 mitochondrial data showed that populations from French Guiana may represent an early  
553 diverging and previously unrecognized lineage clearly separated from other *D. novemcinctus*  
554 (Gibb et al., 2016). Specimens from French Guiana present unexpectedly distant mitochondrial  
555 D-loop region (Huchon et al., 1999) and divergent mitogenomes (Gibb et al., 2016) from the  
556 invasive US populations of nine-banded armadillos. Based on these new data, nine-banded  
557 armadillos from French Guiana are supposed to have diverged 3.7 Ma ago from a clade formed  
558 by other *D. novemcinctus*, *D. sabanicola*, *D. mazzai* and *D. pilosus* (Gibb et al., 2016). In this  
559 regard, the new data on paranasal cavities deliver unprecedented and very enlightening results:  
560 there exists a discrete morphological signal of internal cranial structures that supports the  
561 distinctness not only of French Guianan specimens, but also of specimens from Suriname,  
562 Guyana and the state Amapa in Brazil (Fig. 6). Based on this distribution, we refer to this entity  
563 as specimens from the Guiana Shield (or Guianan specimens) whereas we do not know the exact  
564 outline and boundaries of the range occupied by these distinctive armadillos. Taken together with  
565 recent mitogenomic data (Gibb et al., 2016) and analyses of cranial shape variation (Hautier L.,  
566 unpublished data), the paranasal autapomorphies found in this study make a strong case for the  
567 distinction of nine-banded armadillo specimens from the Guiana Shield as a potentially new  
568 species. The discovery of discrete paranasal characters supporting this purportedly distinct

569 species demonstrates the necessity to study internal anatomy for a truly integrative taxonomy.  
570 The number and delimitation of subspecies recognized within *D. novemcinctus* has long been a  
571 matter of debate among armadillo taxonomists (Cabrera, 1958; McBee & Baker, 1982; McBee,  
572 1999; Wetzel et al., 2008; McDonough & Loughry 2013). Alongside the Guianan morphotype,  
573 the study of paranasal cavities also permitted to distinguish a mostly North and Central American  
574 morphotype (Northern group) and another South American morphotype (Southern group), which  
575 largely comes from the Amazon area (Fig. 6). The Northern morphotype is characterized by i) an  
576 anteroposterior elongation of the CFS2 to 5, with the obliquely oriented pair of CFS2 contacting  
577 each other posteromedially, and ii) subdivided and relatively shortened RFR1. The area where  
578 this morphotype is found fully covers the proposed repartition of the subspecies *D. novemcinctus*  
579 *mexicanus* (Peters, 1864), *D. novemcinctus davisii* Russel 1953, and part of *D. novemcinctus*  
580 *fenestratus* Peters 1864, and *D. novemcinctus aequatorialis* Lönnberg 1913 (McBee & Baker,  
581 1982; Wetzel et al., 2008; McDonough & Loughry, 2013). It is generally well distinguished from  
582 the Southern morphotype, which is characterized by an anteroposteriorly reduced posterior chain  
583 of CFS and an elongated RFR1 (Fig. 6). The area occupied by specimens belonging to this  
584 morphotype corresponds mostly to the subspecies *D. novemcinctus novemcinctus* (to the notable  
585 exception of the Guiana Shield area) and may also cover the distribution of *D. novemcinctus*  
586 *mexicanae* Hagmann 1908 (Wetzel et al., 2008).

587         Problematic specimens whose pattern of paranasal sinuses is not easily referable to one of  
588 the three main morphotypes are present in Panama and in the eastern parts of Colombia and  
589 Venezuela (Fig. 6). This geographic area also partly corresponds to the subspecies *D.*  
590 *novemcinctus fenestratus* (Wetzel et al., 2008). The partial incongruence of these internal data  
591 with recognized subspecies of *D. novemcinctus* raises important taxonomic issues. In addition,

592 these challenging results may also call into question the validity of the debated species *Dasypus*  
593 *sabanicola* (Mondolfi, 1968; Abba & Superina, 2010; Gibb et al., 2016), whose paratype  
594 MBUCV 439 exhibits the pattern of paranasal cavities of the *D. novemcinctus* Southern  
595 morphotype. However, this paratype represents a subadult specimen (Mondolfi, 1968), which  
596 casts doubts on the growth stage exhibited by its paranasal cavities (NB: other specimens  
597 attributed to this species could not be checked). The possibility also exists that this morphotype  
598 represents a plesiomorphic condition within the genus, since *D. pilosus* also exhibits a similar  
599 pattern. The question as to whether or not the three *D. novemcinctus* paranasal morphotypes  
600 represent natural taxonomic entities is now to be evaluated through a thorough revision of the  
601 *Dasypus* species complex that should integrate various morphological aspects and substantial  
602 molecular data (Hautier L., unpublished data; Arteaga M-C., unpublished data). The case of the  
603 problematic specimens found in Colombia, Venezuela and Panama clearly illustrates this  
604 necessity.

605         The existence of different morphotypes within the large geographical range of *D.*  
606 *novemcinctus* also raises the possibility that divergent paranasal morphologies reflect adaptation  
607 to different local climatic and environmental conditions. Yet, the potential functional benefits for  
608 selecting one of these paranasal patterns remain obscure. Though we cannot discard that these  
609 structures have different functions and architectural constraints, genetic drift might have also  
610 played an important role in the differentiation of these labile structures. Geographical and  
611 environmental barriers, the Andes in particular, seem to separate some of these cranial  
612 morphotypes (see also Hautier et al., unpublished data), a pattern that emphasizes the role played  
613 by the Andean uplift in the diversification of several xenarthrans species (Moraes-Barros and  
614 Arteaga, 2015).

615

616

## 617 **Conclusions**

618 As an early worker on *Dasyopus* systematics, Hamlett (1939: 335) noted that in spite of the  
619 dispersion of *D. novemcinctus* through many geographical regions, “it remains so uniform that it  
620 is apparently impossible to find external variations sufficiently constant to be of subspecific  
621 rank”. In fact, he suspected that cranial characters could offer the only promise for subspecific  
622 analysis of the species. These words resonate particularly, as the strong geographical imprint  
623 found in the variation pattern of paranasal cavities sheds new light on the delimitation of *D.*  
624 *novemcinctus* and its subspecies. As demonstrated in this work, the investigation of frontal  
625 sinuses may help to uncover previously overlooked phylogenetic subsets within the large  
626 geographic range of nine-banded armadillos. This study highlights the under-exploited potential  
627 of internal characters for systematic studies and their utility for detecting otherwise potentially  
628 cryptic species. The strong variation and high discriminatory power found in the paranasal  
629 sinuses of armadillos is even strangely reminiscent of the extremely variable frontal sinuses of  
630 modern humans which can be used as forensic fingerprints (Kim et al., 2013) and kinship  
631 markers (Szilvássy, 1982; Slavec, 2005). In addition to its great potential for extant species, the  
632 study of the paranasal spaces also constitutes a promising approach to provide new informative  
633 characters for the phylogenetic placement of fossil species of the genus *Dasyopus* (e.g., see partly  
634 exposed frontal sinuses in *D. punctatus*; Castro et al., 2013).

635

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659

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## 894 **Figure legends**

895 **Figure 1.** Dorsal views of virtually reconstructed skulls of long-nosed armadillos species, with  
896 bone transparency showing internal paranasal sinuses and recesses in light blue. A-C, *D.*  
897 *novemcinctus*; D, *D. pilosus*; E, *D. hybridus*; F, *D. septemcinctus*; G, *D. kappleri*. See Material  
898 and Methods for the abbreviations. Scale-bar: 10mm.

899

900 **Figure 2.** Paranasal sinuses and recesses in juvenile individuals of *Dasypus novemcinctus*,  
901 virtual reconstructions of skulls in lateral (A, C, E) and dorsal views (B, D, F), with and without  
902 bone transparency. See Material and Methods for the abbreviations. Scale-bar: 10mm.

903

904 **Figure 3.** Virtual reconstruction of the skull of the stillborn specimen AMNH 33150, *Dasypus*  
905 *novemcinctus*, with bone transparency leaving the caudal maxillary recess and cavity for the  
906 frontal diploic vein apparent. A, dorsal view; B, lateral view.

907

908 **Figure 4.** Dorsal views of virtually reconstructed skulls of adult specimens of *Dasypus*  
909 *novemcinctus* clustered by morphotypes of paranasal anatomy as described in the text. A-F,  
910 northern morphotype; G-L, southern morphotype; M-P, Guianan morphotype; Q-R, problematic  
911 specimens (see text). Bone transparency leaves apparent the paranasal recesses and sinuses in  
912 light blue. Scale bar: 10 mm.

913

914 **Figure 5.**  $\mu$ CT transversal slices through the skull of *D. novemcinctus* individuals showing  
915 details of the internal paranasal anatomy for each morphotype (A, northern; B, southern; C,  
916 Guianan). Slices were made at similar transversal locations at the posterior end of the anterior  
917 root of the zygomatic arch. See Material and Methods for the abbreviations. Scale-bar: 10mm.

918

919 **Figure 6.** Summary map showing the geographical distribution of nine-banded armadillo  
920 specimens (*Dasypus novemcinctus*) investigated in this study and their attribution to a paranasal  
921 morphotype. Each morphotype is represented by a schematic dorsal view of skulls (in grey) on  
922 which the paranasal sinuses and recesses are drawn (in blue, yellow, or green for each  
923 morphotype). Specimens reported with a star denote the absence of geographical information  
924 besides the country of origin.

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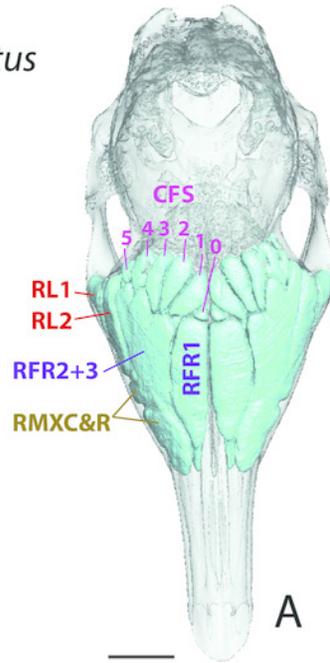
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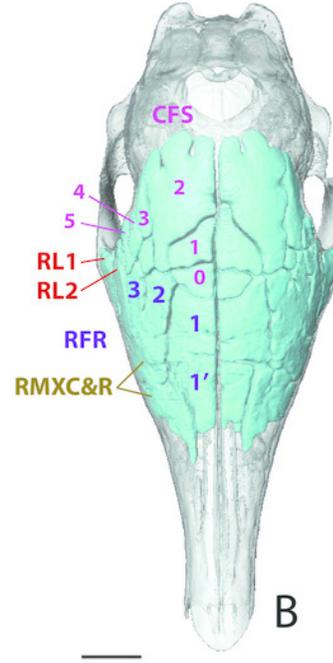
# Figure 1

Figure 1. Dorsal views of virtually reconstructed Dasypus skulls with internal paranasal sinuses

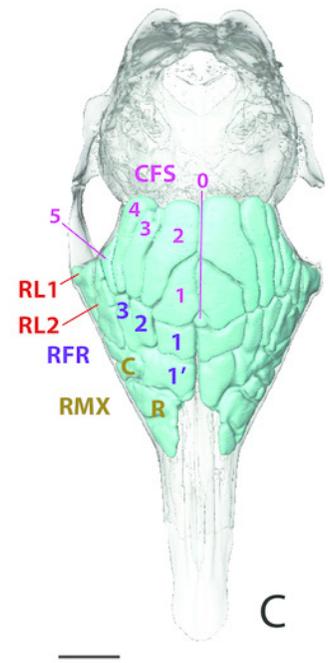
Dorsal views of virtually reconstructed skulls of long-nosed armadillos species, with bone transparency showing internal paranasal sinuses and recesses in light blue. A-C, *D. novemcinctus*; D, *D. pilosus*; E, *D. hybridus*; F, *D. septemcinctus*; G, *D. kappleri*. See Material and Methods for the abbreviations. Scale-bar: 10mm.

*Dasypus novemcinctus*LSU 12306  
Peru, Ucayali

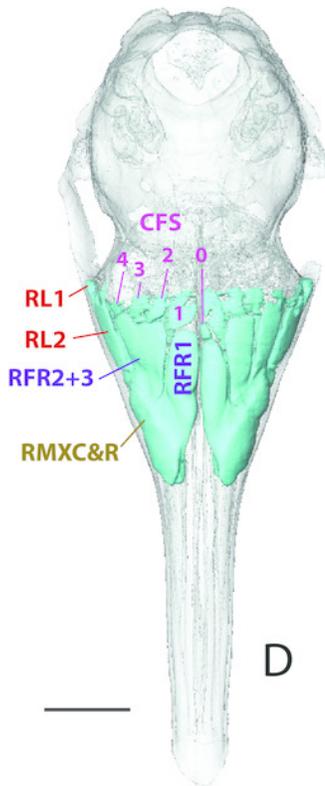
A

NMNH 339668  
Guyana

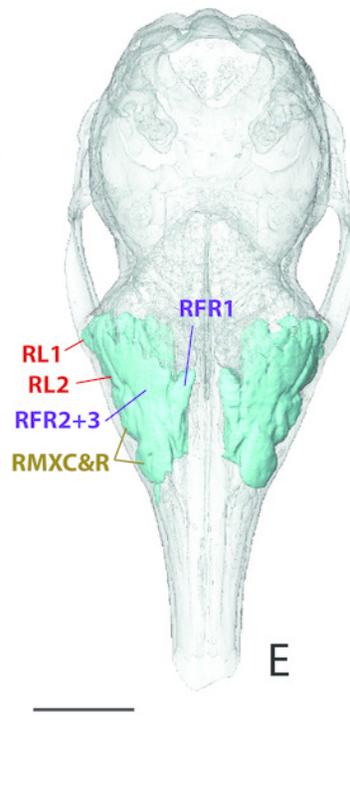
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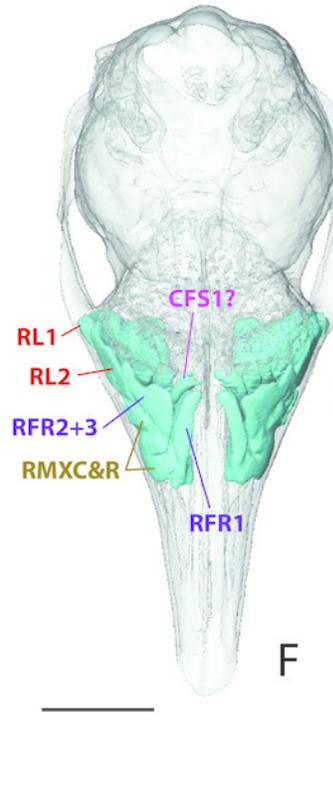
C

*Dasypus pilosus*  
BMNH 94-10-1-13

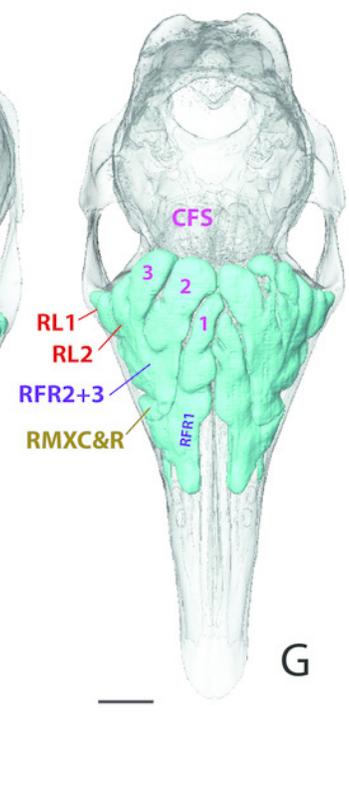
D

*Dasypus hybridus*  
AMNH 205721

E

*Dasypus septemcinctus*  
BMNH 3-9-5-155

F

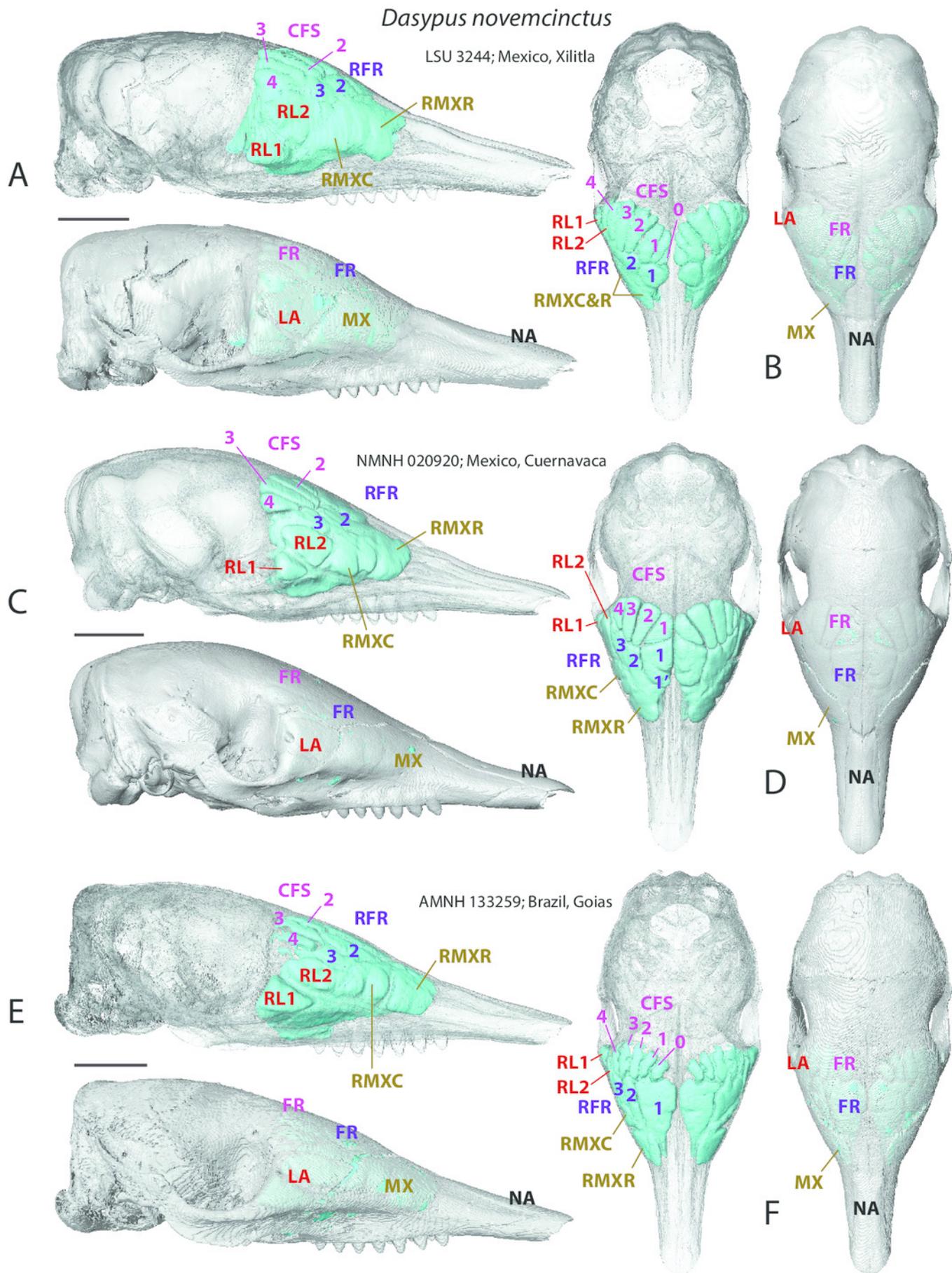
*Dasypus kappleri*  
NMNH 388210

G

## Figure 2

Figure 2. Paranasal sinuses and recesses in juvenile individuals of *Dasypus novemcinctus*

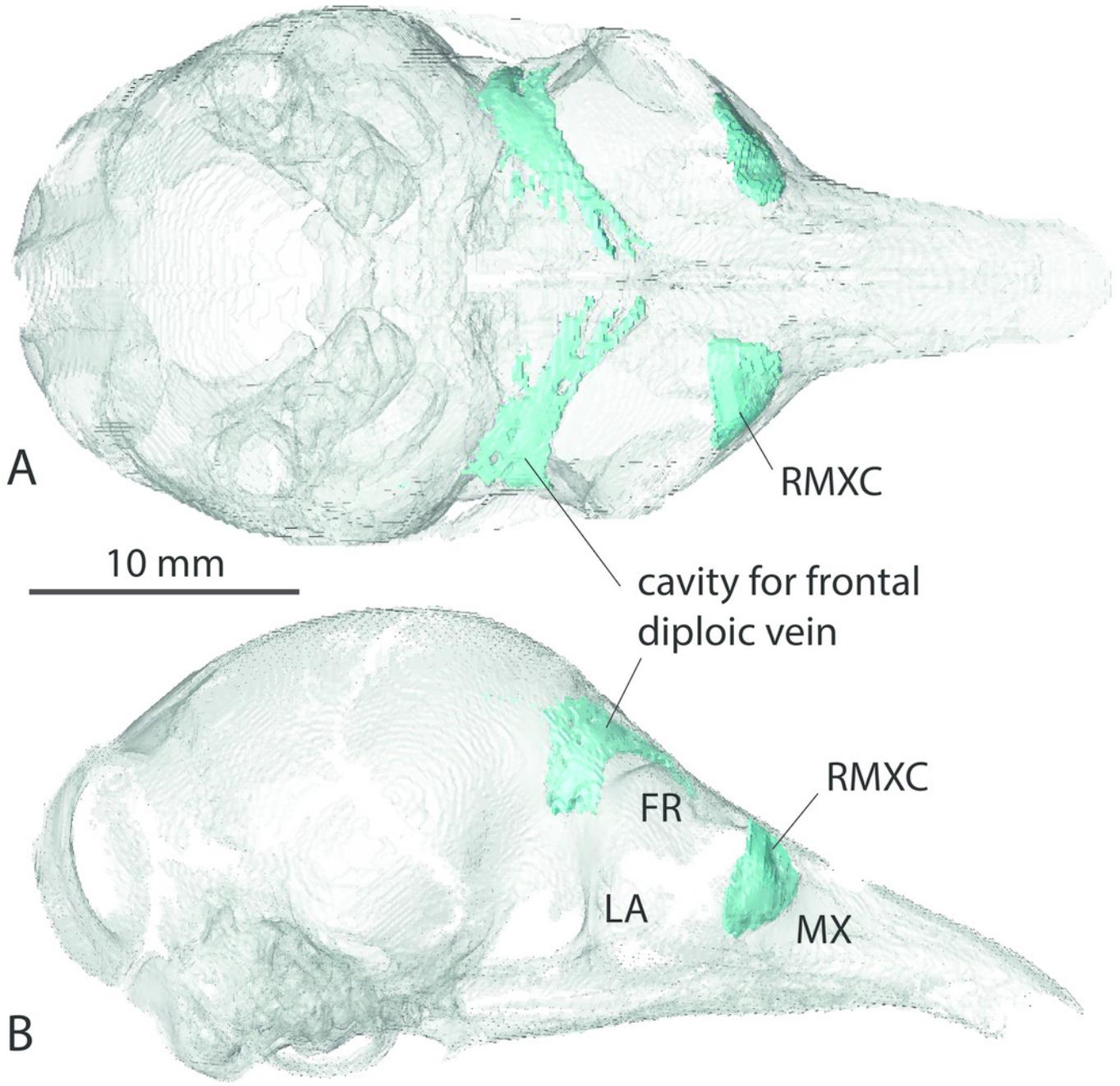
Paranasal sinuses and recesses in juvenile individuals of *Dasypus novemcinctus*, virtual reconstructions of skulls in lateral (A, C, E) and dorsal views (B, D, F), with and without bone transparency. See Material and Methods for the abbreviations. Scale-bar: 10mm.



## Figure 3

Figure 3. Virtual reconstruction of the skull of the stillborn specimen AMNH 33150, *Dasypus novemcinctus*

Virtual reconstruction of the skull of the stillborn specimen AMNH 33150, *Dasypus novemcinctus*, with bone transparency leaving the caudal maxillary recess and cavity for the frontal diploic vein apparent. A, dorsal view; B, lateral view.

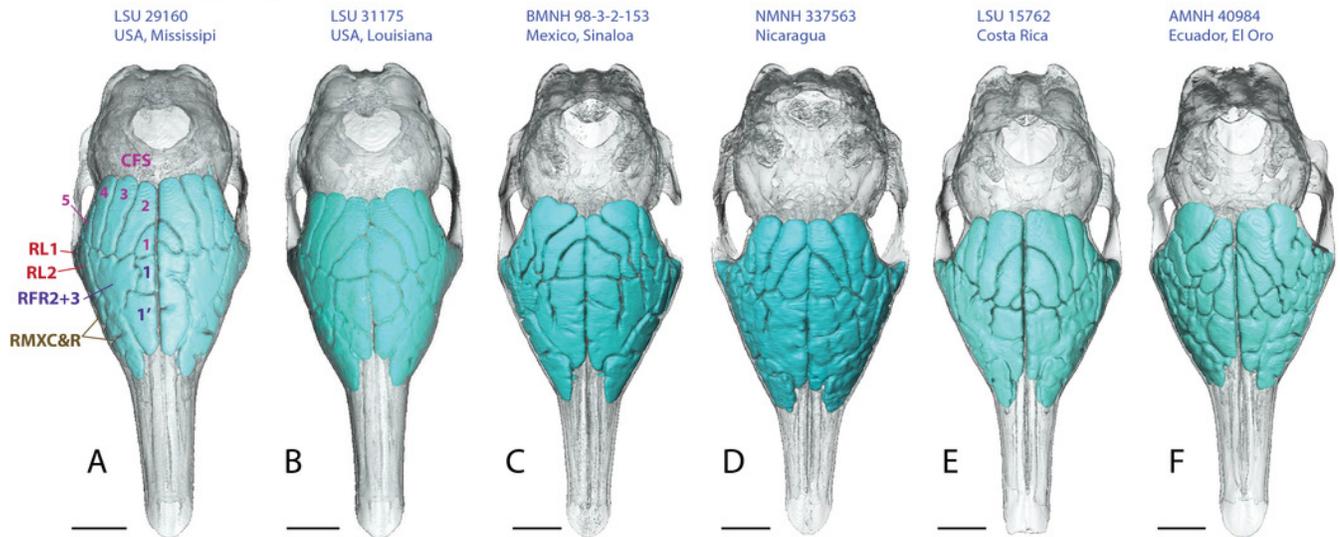


## Figure 4

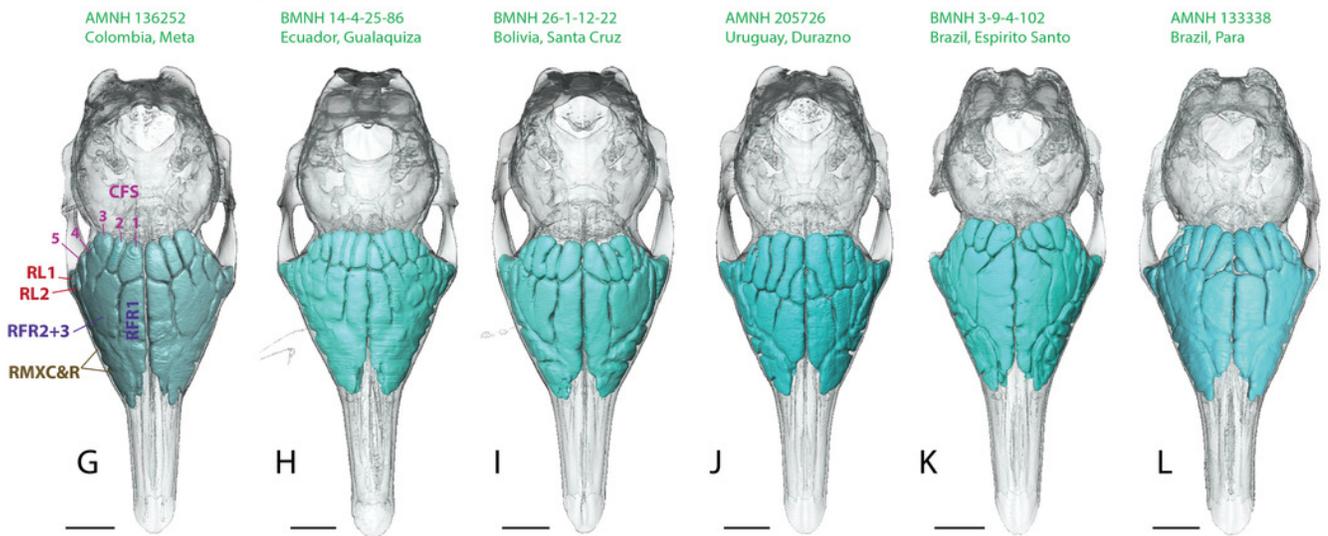
Figure 4. Dorsal views of virtually reconstructed skulls of adult specimens of *Dasypus novemcinctus* clustered by morphotypes of paranasal anatomy as described in the text.

A-F, northern morphotype; G-L, southern morphotype; M-P, Guianan morphotype; Q-R, problematic specimens (see text). Bone transparency leaves apparent the paranasal recesses and sinuses in light blue. Scale bar: 10 mm.

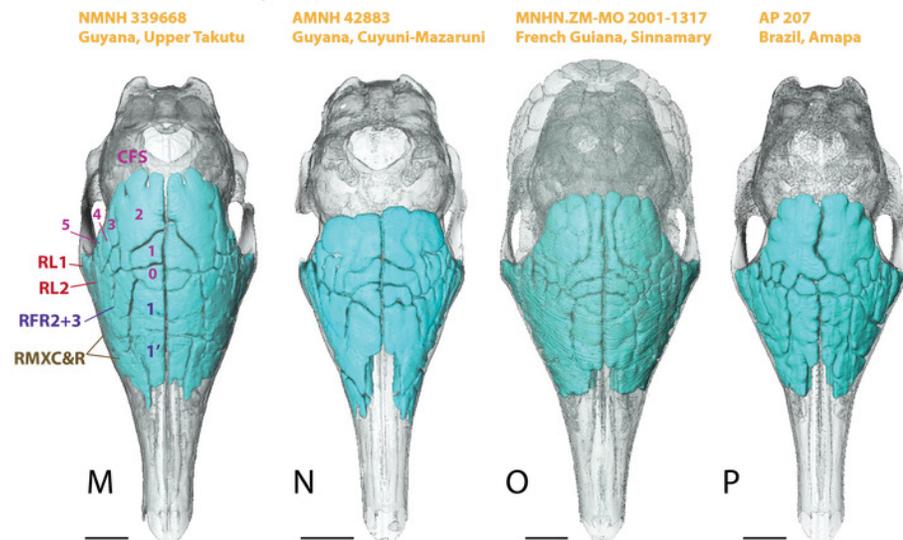
## Northern morphotype



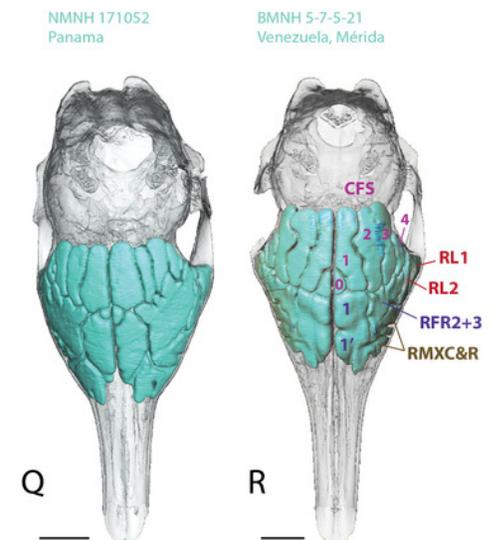
## Southern morphotype



## Guianan morphotype



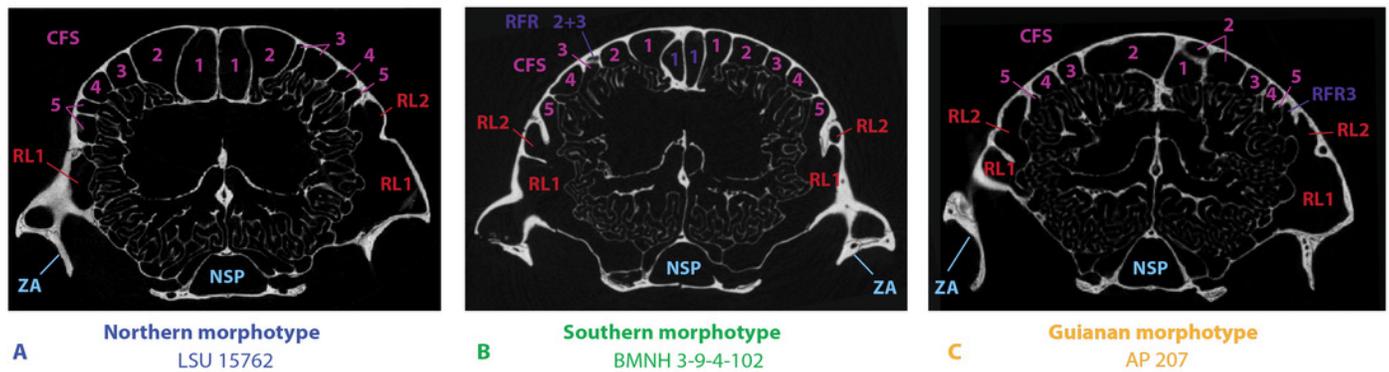
## Problematic specimens



## Figure 5

Figure 5.  $\mu$ CT transversal slices through the skull of *D. novemcinctus* individuals showing details of the internal paranasal anatomy for each morphotype (A, northern; B, southern; C, Guianan).

Slices were made at similar transversal locations at the posterior end of the anterior root of the zygomatic arch. See Material and Methods for the abbreviations. Scale-bar: 10mm.



## Figure 6

Figure 6. Summary map showing the geographical distribution of nine-banded armadillo specimens (*Dasypus novemcinctus*) investigated in this study and their attribution to a paranasal morphotype.

Each morphotype is represented by a schematic dorsal view of skulls (in grey) on which the paranasal sinuses and recesses are drawn (in blue, yellow, or green for each morphotype). Specimens reported with a star denote the absence of geographical information besides the country of origin.

