

Fossils know it best: Using a new set of fossil calibrations to improve the temporal phylogenetic framework of murid rodents (Rodentia: Muridae)

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1	Title
2	Fossils know it best: using a new set of fossil calibrations to improve the temporal
3	phylogenetic framework of murid rodents (Rodentia: Myomorpha: Muroidea:
4	Muridae)
5	
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25	Running title: Dated phylogeny of Muridae

26 Abstract

27 Murid rodents (Rodentia: Myomorpha: Muroidea: Muridae) represent the most diverse and abundant mammalian group. In this study, we reconstruct a dated phylogeny of the family using 28 29 a multilocus dataset (six nuclear and nine mitochondrial gene fragments) encompassing 160 30 species representing 82 distinct murid genera from four extant subfamilies (Deomyinae, 31 Gerbillinae, Lophiomyinae, and Murinae). In comparison with previous studies on murid or 32 muroid rodents, our work stands out for the implementation of multiple fossil constraints within 33 the Muridae thanks to a thorough review of the fossil record. Before being assigned to specific 34 nodes of the phylogeny, all potential fossil constraints were carefully assessed; they were also 35 subjected to several cross-validation analyses. The resulting phylogeny is consistent with previous phylogenetic studies on murids, and recovers the monophyly of all sampled murid 36 37 subfamilies and tribes. Based on nine controlled fossil calibrations, our inferred temporal 38 timeframe indicates that the murid family likely originated in the course of the Early Miocene, 39 23.0-16.0 million years ago (Ma), and that most major lineages (i.e. tribes) have started 40 diversifying ca. 10 Ma. Historical biogeography analyses support the Paleotropical origin for 41 the family, with an initial internal split (vicariance event) followed by subsequent migrations 42 between Afrotropical and Indomalayan lineages. During the course of their diversification, the 43 biogeographic pattern of murids is marked by several dispersal events toward the Australasian 44 and the Palearctic regions, mostly from the Indomalaya. The Afrotropical region was also 45 secondarily colonized at least three times from the Indomalaya, indicating that the latter region 46 has acted as a major centre of diversification for the family.

47

48 Keywords

49 Fossils, historical biogeography, molecular dating, Muridae, Mus, Rattus

51 **1. Introduction**

With about 150 genera and more than 730 recognized species, Muridae is the most diverse family of mammals (Musser and Carleton, 2005). Collectively murids have colonized highly distinct ecological niches, adapting to a wide array of environments ranging from warm (deserts or tropical forests) to cold habitats (high altitude mountain ranges, tundra; Vaughan et al., 2011). Life habits in murids are also diverse, as the family encompasses amphibious, arboreal, fossorial, or terrestrial taxa (Michaux et al., 2007; Musser and Carleton, 2005).

58 All murid species are native to the Old World (Musser and Carleton, 2005), but some 59 species (especially the black rat *Rattus rattus Linnaeus*, the Norway rat *Rattus norvegicus* 60 (Berkenhout) and the house mouse Mus musculus Linnaeus) now have a worldwide distribution 61 due to commensalism and dissemination by humans. Murid species diversity is especially high 62 in the Australasian and Indomalayan regions which accommodate half of the species diversity 63 of the family (Rowe et al., 2016a). Second to that is the species diversity in the Afrotropical region (more than 200 species; Musser and Carleton, 2005). By contrast, there are much less 64 65 native murid taxa in the Palearctic region (e.g. Apodemus Kaup, Diplothrix Thomas, or 66 Tokudaia Kuroda).

67 The history of murid systematics is complex and convoluted with numerous changes 68 occurring in the past sixty years (see Table 1 for a summary). Simpson (1945) divided 69 representatives of family Muridae (as currently understood) into two separate families: 70 Cricetidae (with subfamilies Gerbillinae, Lophiomyinae and others) and Muridae (subfamilies 71 Murinae and Otomyinae). Chaline et al. (1977) considered "murid" rodents to belong to four 72 families: Cricetidae (including Lophiomyinae), Gerbillidae, Muridae (exclusively Murinae) 73 and Nesomyidae (including Otomyinae). Lavocat (1978) simplified this classification by 74 recognizing only two families: Muridae (Murinae) and Nesomyidae (in which he included 75 Gerbillinae, Lophiomyinae and Otomyinae). Another major change was later made by Carleton

76 and Musser (1984), who defined family Muridae in the broad sense with no less than 14 77 subfamilies (including Gerbillinae, Lophiomvinae, Murinae and Otomvinae). Following the introduction of molecular systematics, changes in the classification of family Muridae 78 79 continued at a fast rate. Using molecular phylogenetics Chevret et al. (1993a) demonstrated that 80 Acomvs I. Geoffroy is not a member of the subfamily Murinae but belongs to a separate 81 monophyletic clade including *Deomys* Thomas, *Lophuromys* Peters and *Uranomys* Dollman. 82 All four genera were assigned to the subfamily Deomyinae, which is closely related to the 83 Gerbillinae. In another study, Chevret et al. (1993b) showed that Otomyinae are closely allied 84 to the tribe Arvicanthini, thus unequivocally constituting a subset of the subfamily Murinae at 85 the tribe level (Ducroz et al., 2001; Jansa and Weksler, 2004). Jansa and Weksler (2004) also 86 strongly suggested that Lophiomyinae belonged to the Muridae. Only part of these proposals 87 was followed by Musser and Carleton (2005) who recognized the following five subfamilies in 88 the family Muridae: Deomyinae, Gerbillinae, Leimacomyinae, Murinae and Otomyinae. 89 Nowadays the most consensual classification agrees on five subfamilies: Deomyinae (four 90 genera and ca. 42 species), Gerbillinae (16 genera and ca. 103 species), Leimacomyinae (only 91 one species, possibly extinct; Kingdon, 2015), Lophiomyinae (only one species) and Murinae 92 (129 genera and ca. 584 species; see the review of Granjon and Montgelard, 2012).

Musser and Carleton's (2005) comprehensive catalogue listed 730 species in the family Muridae. Estimates of species diversity in this family are very likely not definitive, as new murid taxa are being regularly described (e.g. Carleton et al., 2015; Esselstyn et al., 2015; Missoup et al., 2016; Mortelliti et al., 2016; Rowe et al., 2016a). Expected and ongoing raise in species number can be accounted for by an increased focus on poorly known regions with high levels of endemism, especially in tropical Asia and Africa. It is also linked with the development of integrative taxonomy studies, where molecular genetic approaches are able to

100 detect taxa and geographical regions with high cryptic diversity (e.g. Bryja et al., 2014, 2017;

101 Ndiaye et al., 2016).

102 Because of the high species richness of the family, determining the precise timing of its 103 radiation is of particular paleobiogeographic interest. Several dated estimates for the age of 104 Muridae are available owing to studies either focusing on the order Rodentia (Adkins et al., 105 2001, 2003; Fabre et al., 2012; Montgelard et al., 2008), on the superfamily Muroidea 106 (Muroidea; Schenk et al., 2013; Steppan et al., 2004) or on various murid subsets (e.g. Bryja 107 et al., 2014; Chevret and Dobigny, 2005; Dobigny et al., 2013; Fabre et al., 2013; Pagès et al., 108 2016; Rowe et al., 2008, 2011, 2016b). However, no clear consensus could be reached for the 109 age of the family Muridae. Indeed, age estimates derived from all aforementioned studies are 110 far from being congruent, likely because their datasets have not been designed for this particular 111 purpose. In addition, all these studies used very diverse dating procedures, some of them relying 112 on substitution rate calibrations (e.g. Arbogast et al., 2001; Nicolas et al., 2008) whereas others 113 used fixed ages (e.g. the putative *Mus/Rattus* split at 12 Ma; Steppan et al., 2004), very distant 114 fossil constrains (Adkins et al., 2003; Fabre et al., 2012; Montgelard et al., 2008) or primary 115 calibrations using various fossil constraints within or outside the family Muridae (e.g. Bryja et 116 al., 2014; Pagès et al., 2016; Rowe et al., 2016b; Schenk et al., 2013).

117 For fossil-based calibrations of molecular clocks, it is crucial: (i) to properly assign and 118 place fossils on the tree, and (ii) to correctly estimate the age of fossil-bearing formations 119 (Parham et al., 2012; Sauquet et al., 2012). Unfortunately the fossil record of oldest murids is 120 quite fragmentary and mostly consists of isolated teeth and mandible remains, thus sometimes 121 making taxonomic identification difficult. The earliest representatives for the family Muridae 122 include the tribe Myocricetodontini with genera such as *†Myocricetodon* Lavocat, *†Dakkamys* 123 Jaeger and †Mellalomys Jaeger (Jacobs and Flynn, 2005; Lazzari et al., 2011). Extinct members 124 of the genus *†Potwarmus* Lindsey could be considered as a stem group of the subfamily

125 Murinae based on detailed analyses of dental morphology (Lazzari et al., 2011; López 126 Antoñanzas, 2009; Wessels, 2009). The earliest unequivocal representative of the subfamily 127 Murinae is the genus *†Antemus* Jacobs (Jacobs and Downs, 1994; Jacobs and Flynn, 2005; 128 Kimura et al., 2015). *†Antemus* possesses a new cusp (anterostyle, also known as t1), which is 129 a synapomorphy of Murinae. The earliest record of *†Antemus chinjiensis* is dated at 13.8 Ma 130 (Jacobs et al., 1990) based on specimens from the locality YGSP 491, Chinji Formation in the 131 Potwar Plateau, Pakistan (Jacobs, 1977). In the fossil record of the Potwar Plateau, two more 132 derived fossil genera are of particular interest: *†Karnimata* Jacobs and *†Progonomys* Schaub. 133 Based on the relative position of the anterostyle to the lingual anterocone on M1, Jacobs (1978) 134 hypothesized that *†Karnimata* is related to *Rattus* and that *†Progonomys* is a member of the 135 lineage including Mus. Hence, their first stratigraphic occurrence has been used to define the 136 widely used Mus/Rattus calibration (ca. 12 My; Jacobs and Downs, 1994). However, in 2015, 137 Kimura et al. revisited these fossils from a paleontological perspective and proved this 138 calibration point to be controversial. They showed that *†Karnimata* is a member of the 139 Arvicanthini-Millardini-Otomyini clade rather than a member of the lineage encompassing the 140 genus Rattus and its relatives (i.e. tribe Rattini). Therefore, they demonstrated that the 141 continuous fossil record of the murine rodents from the Potwar Plateau actually provides a 142 minimum age for the most recent common ancestor of the lineages leading to Arvicanthis 143 Lesson and *Mus* (= *Mus/Arvicanthis* split).

Recent progresses in divergence dating analyses lead us to revisit results previously obtained by favouring the implementation of a new set of well-justified primary fossil calibrations within a Bayesian framework. In comparison to previous studies (listed above), our study can be considered as medium-sized in terms of taxonomic sampling, and essentially focused on the family Muridae. But our study stands out for rigorous evaluation of the fossil data for this highly diverse mammalian family. The present study has four main objectives: (i)

to design a comprehensive multi-marker molecular dataset for the family Muridae, (ii) to review the murid fossil record in order to identify reliable and suitable primary fossil calibrations, (iii) to provide a reliable estimate of the timing of diversification of the family using multiple fossil calibrations, and (iv) to lean on the resulting dated phylogeny to reconstruct the biogeographic history of the family using up-to-date analytical approaches.

155

156 **2. Material and Methods**

157 *2.1. Taxon sampling*

158 For this study, new DNA sequences were generated for five murid species (Acomys cf. 159 cineraceus, Acomys subspinosus (Waterhouse), Acomys wilsoni Thomas, Arvicanthis niloticus 160 (Desmarest), Arvicanthis neumanni (Matschie) see Appendix A). Though we largely relied on 161 GenBank data for this work, it is worth underlining that our research group generated thousands 162 of murid sequences (all deposited in GenBank) in the past 15 years (we used some of these 163 sequences for 44 species included in this study). In total, our dataset (Appendix A) encompasses 164 160 murid species representing 82 of the 151 known murid genera. All four extant subfamilies 165 (if considering the Togo mouse from Leimacomyinae to be extinct) of Muridae are included. 166 For the largest subfamily Murinae, we included representatives of all 10 tribes that have been 167 defined by Lecompte et al. (2008): Apodemini, Arvicanthini, Hydromyini, Malacomyini, 168 Millardini, Murini, Otomyini, Phloeomyini, Praomyini and Rattini. As outgroup taxa, we 169 selected five species of the family Cricetidae (from subfamilies Arvicolinae, Cricetinae, 170 Neotomyinae and Tylomyinae), which constitutes the sister group of Muridae (Fabre et al., 171 2012). Finally, the tree was rooted using *Calomyscus baluchi* Thomas, a representative of the 172 more distant family Calomyscidae (Fabre et al., 2012). All species names followed Musser and 173 Carleton (2005) and Monadjem et al. (2015).

175 2.2. DNA extraction, sequencing and molecular matrix

DNA was extracted using a Qiagen[®] DNeasy Blood and Tissue kit (Qiagen, Hilden, 176 Germany) following the manufacturer's instructions. Two nuclear gene fragments were 177 178 targeted using the following combinations of polymerase chain reactions (PCR) primers: 179 IRBP217 and IRBP1531 (Stanhope et al., 1992) for the fragment of the 'interphotoreceptor 180 retinoid binding' (IRBP) gene: RAG1F1705 and RAG1R2951 (Teeling et al., 2000) for a 181 fragment of the 'recombination activating gene 1' (RAG1) gene. For PCR protocols, see Bryja 182 et al. (2017) and Teeling et al. (2000), respectively. PCR products were Sanger sequenced in both directions using the BigDye[®] Terminator chemistry (Thermo Fisher Scientific) either in 183 the Institute of Vertebrate Biology on an 'Applied Biosystems[®] 3130xl Genetic Analyzer', or 184 185 commercially through the GATC Biotech company (Konstanz, Germany). New sequences were 186 deposited in GenBank under accession numbers KY634246 to KY634250.

187 The newly generated sequences were further combined with data from GenBank. The 188 resulting matrix (see Appendix A) encompasses the following six nuclear and nine 189 mitochondrial gene fragments: 'acid phosphatase 5' (AP5), BRCA1, intronic portion of 190 'Peripheral benzodiazapine receptor variant' (BZRP), 'growth hormone receptor' (GHR), IRBP 191 and RAG1, for the nuclear genes, and '12S ribosomal RNA' (12S), '16S ribosomal RNA' 192 (16S), 'ATP synthase 8' (ATPase8), 'cytochrome c oxidase I' (COI), 'cytochrome oxidase II' 193 (COII), 'cytochrome b' (Cytb), 'Aspartic acid transfer RNA' (tRNA-Asp), 'Lysine transfer 194 RNA' (tRNA-Lys), 'Serine transfer RNA' (tRNA-Ser), for the mitochondrial genes. For nine 195 taxa (Acomys cf. cineraceus, Acomys wilsoni Thomas, Aethomys chrysophilus (de Winton), 196 Aethomys hindei (Thomas), Aethomys kaiseri (Noack), Aethomys silindensis Roberts, 197 Arvicanthis nairobae J.A. Allen, Arvicanthis neumanni and Thallomvs paedulcus (Sundevall), 198 gene fragments were concatenated from two individuals to minimize the amount of missing 199 data. For all protein-coding genes, we used Mesquite 3.2 (Maddison and Maddison, 2007) to

check the coding frame for possible errors or stop codons. The sequences of several markers
(i.e. 12S, 16S, intronic portion of BZRP, tRNA-Asp, tRNA-Lys and tRNA-Ser) were variable
in length; their alignment was accomplished using MUSCLE (Edgar, 2004) with default
settings.

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2.3. Phylogenetic analyses

206 Phylogenetic analyses were conducted using both Bayesian inference (BI) and 207 maximum likelihood (ML). Analyses were performed on the online computer cluster CIPRES 208 Science Gateway (Miller et al., 2010; www.phylo.org) and on the high performance computing 209 (HPC) cluster hosted in the Centre de Biologie pour la Gestion des Populations (CBGP) in 210 Montferrier-sur-Lez, France. For both phylogenetic analytical approaches, we carried out 211 partitioned analyses to improve phylogenetic accuracy (Nylander et al., 2004). The molecular 212 dataset was divided a priori into 33 partitions: we used three partitions for each of the protein-213 coding genes (AP5, ATPase8, BRCA1, COI, COII, Cytb, GHR, IRBP and RAG1) and one 214 partition for each of the rRNA-tRNA genes (12S, 16S, tRNA-Asp, tRNA-Lys and tRNA-Ser) 215 as well as the BZRP intronic portion. The best partitioning scheme and substitution models 216 were determined with PartitionFinder 1.1.1 (Lanfear et al., 2014) using a greedy heuristic 217 algorithm; because of the risk of over-parameterization associated with the high number of 218 specified partitions, the 'unlinked branch lengths' option was chosen over the 'linked branch 219 lengths' option. The Bayesian information criterion (BIC) was also preferentially used to 220 compare partitioning schemes and substitution models following the recommendation of 221 Ripplinger and Sullivan (2008).

222 PartitionFinder (based on BIC) identified the same three partitions for both BI and ML 223 analyses: two partitions are associated with a Generalized-Time-Reversible ($GTR + \Gamma + I$) model

and one partition is associated with a Hasegawa-Kishino-Yano (HKY + Γ +I) model (see Table 225 2).

226 Bayesian inference analyses were carried out using MrBayes v3.2.6 (Ronquist et al., 227 2012b). Two independent runs with four MCMC (one cold and three incrementally heated 228 chains) were conducted: they ran for 50 million generations, with trees sampled every 1,000 229 generations. A conservative 25% burn-in was applied after checking for stability on the log-230 likelihood curves and the split-frequencies of the runs. Support of nodes for MrBayes analyses 231 was provided by clade posterior probabilities (PP) as directly estimated from the majority-rule 232 consensus topology. Following Erixon et al. (2003), nodes supported by PP ≥ 0.95 were 233 considered strongly supported.

Maximum likelihood analyses were performed using RAxML v8.2.8 (Stamatakis, 2014). Because this software does not allow simpler substitution models, we used three partitions with a General Time Reversible (GTR + Γ +I) model (see Table 2). The best ML tree was obtained using heuristic searches with 100 random addition replicates. Clade support was then assessed using a non-parametric bootstrap procedure with 1,000 replicates. Following Hillis and Bull (1993), nodes supported by bootstrap values (BV) \geq 70 were considered strongly supported.

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2.4. Evaluation of suitable fossil calibrations

Following the recommended criteria of Parham et al. (2012) for fossil calibrations, we rigorously compiled a list of potential candidates from the paleontological literature and eventually retained 18 candidate fossils (see Table 3). The candidate fossils possess the information for the collection site, unique identification number, and the state of preservation along with justification for the age of the fossil (i.e., age of fossil-bearing formation and stratigraphic level, preferably with an absolute age by radiometric dating and/or reliable relative age estimates, for example, by magnetostratigraphy).

In the next step, diagnostic morphological characters were reassessed to determine whether they could be reliably used as minimum age constraints in our phylogeny, either as crown or stem calibrations. Seven fossils were discarded following this step (see the 'Results' section).

253 For the remaining 11 fossils, we used the cross-validation procedure developed by Near 254 and Sanderson (2004) and Near et al. (2005). The following approach was used: (i) we 255 identified potential inconsistencies within the 11 remaining fossil calibrations, and (ii) we 256 explored the impact of the inclusion of each of these fossils on our divergence time estimates. 257 Each of the 11 fossil constraints was enforced at a time in a specific Bayesian relaxed-clock 258 (BRC) analysis to estimate the ages of the remaining nodes (see also section 2.5). First, the sum 259 of the squared differences between the molecular and fossil age estimates (SS) was calculated 260 (for more details see Near and Sanderson, 2004). All calibration points were then ranked based 261 on the magnitude of its SS score; here the fossil with the greatest SS score is assumed to be the 262 most inconsistent with respect to all other fossils in the analysis (Near and Sanderson, 2004). 263 Second, we calculated the average squared deviation, *s*, for all fossil calibrations in the analysis. 264 Following the method of Near et al. (2005), we removed the fossil with the greatest SS score 265 and recalculated s with the remaining fossil calibration points. This process was pursued until 266 only the two fossil calibration points with the lowest and second lowest magnitudes of SS 267 remained (Near and Sanderson, 2004). The rationale behind this procedure is to assess whether 268 calibration points are approximately equally informative and accurate (Near et al., 2005): if it 269 is the case the magnitude of s should only decrease by a small fraction whenever a fossil 270 calibration is removed.

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272 2.5. Bayesian relaxed-clock analyses

273 Although divergence time dating is now a well-established cornerstone of evolutionary 274 biology, there is still no widely accepted objective methodology for converting data from the 275 fossil record to calibration information of use in molecular phylogenies (Drummond and 276 Bouckaert, 2015). In the last few years, several methodological approaches to better implement 277 fossil calibrations have been developed, for instance allowing one to directly include fossil 278 lineages in phylogenies ('total-evidence dating'; Pyron, 2010; Ronquist et al. 2012a) or to 279 account for information on the density of the fossil record ('fossilized birth-death (FBD) 280 process'; Stadler, 2010; Heath et al., 2014). However, for our study, a 'total evidence dating' 281 approach was not applicable since it would have required the coding of a morphological matrix 282 for both fossils and extant taxa, which is problematic given the fragmentary nature of muroid 283 fossils. The use of the FBD methodology was also not envisioned because the fossil record of 284 muroid rodents is too sparse. Instead, we relied on a node-dating approach in which fossil 285 information is enforced on specific nodes through the use of parametric distributions.

286 Following our assessment of the murid fossil record and the results of cross-validation 287 analyses, nine fossil calibrations were finally retained for the dating procedure (for more 288 information, see Tables 3 and 4, and Appendix B). Five of them were defined based on fossil 289 material collected in the Siwalik Group of Pakistan (*†Antemus chinjiensis*, *†Karnimata darwini* 290 Jacobs, †cf. Karnimata sp., †Mus sp. and †Abudhabia pakistanensis Flynn and Jacobs). Three 291 additional accepted fossils originate from 6.1 Ma fossils discovered in the Lemudong'o locality 292 in Kenya (*†Aethomvs* sp., *†Arvicanthis* sp. and *†Gerbilliscus* sp.), and the last retained fossil 293 calibration constraint is defined by the 9.6 Ma fossil of *†Parapodemus lungdunensis* Schaub. 294 Priors for fossil constraints were defined by using either uniform or lognormal statistical 295 distributions in two separate analyses. Statistical distributions were bounded by the minimum 296 ages provided by the fossil constraints and a conservative maximum age (ca. 25 Ma) for the 297 root derived from the study of Schenk et al. (2013; see Table 4). In a preliminary way (see

section 2.4 of the Material and Methods), BRC analyses were also conducted using one fossilconstraint at a time to carry out cross-validation analyses.

Bayesian relaxed-clock analyses were conducted with BEAST v1.8.4 (Drummond et al., 2012) using uncorrelated lognormal relaxed clocks (Drummond et al., 2006). To limit the risk of over-parameterization: (i) we used three clock models (based on PartitionFinder results, Table 2); and (ii) we enforced a guide tree that corresponds to the topology with the best clade support (this topology corresponds to the topology obtained with MrBayes; see the 'Results' section). For the tree speciation model, a birth death process (Gernhard, 2008) was used in order to better account for extinct and missing lineages.

307 BEAST .xml files were modified to implement the path-sampling procedure for Bayes 308 factor (B_F) estimation following the recommendations of Baele et al. (2013). Out of the two 309 calibrations, the calibration procedure with lognormal prior has the best harmonic mean (-310 208117.74 versus -208262.58 for the procedure with a uniform prior) and is recovered as the 311 best-fit calibration procedure with a statistically significant B_F of 289.68 (B_F>10, Kass and 312 Raftery, 1995). The final analysis (with nine verified fossil constraints and lognormal prior 313 distribution for calibration constraints) was carried out by two independent runs each with 50 314 million generations and trees sampled every 5,000 generations. We used a conservative burn-315 in of 12.5 million generations per run. Post burn-in trees from both analyses were further 316 combined using the LogCombiner module of BEAST. Convergence of runs was assessed 317 graphically under Tracer v.1.6 and by examining the ESS of parameters.

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319 *2.6. Historical biogeography*

Ancestral biogeography was reconstructed using the R package 'BioGeoBEARS' (Matzke, 2013). Data for species' ranges were obtained from the International Union for Conservation of Nature website (https://www.iucn.org/). Five major biogeographic areas were

323 defined on the basis of Olson et al. (2001): A, West Palearctic (from Western Europe to the 324 Ural Mountains, including North Africa); B, East Palearctic (from the Urals to Japan); C, 325 Indomalaya (from Afghanistan through the Indian subcontinent and Southeast Asia to lowland 326 southern China, and through Indonesia as far as Java, Bali, and Borneo, west of the Wallace 327 line); D, Australasia (Australia, New-Zealand, Papua-New-Guinea and neighbouring small 328 islands); E, Afrotropics (Africa, northern part excluded). Dispersal rate between adjacent areas 329 was fixed to 1 (A-B; B-C), whereas the dispersal of 0.7 (A-E; C-D) and 0.3 (B-D; B-E) was 330 specified for long-distance dispersal or whenever a geographical barrier had to be crossed. 331 Dispersal was disallowed between geographical areas separated by two or more areas (A-D; D-332 E). Six models of geographic range evolution were compared in a likelihood framework: (i) 333 Dispersal-Extinction Cladogenesis model (DEC) similar to Lagrange (Ree and Smith, 2008), 334 which parameterizes dispersal and extinction; (ii) DEC +J model (Matzke, 2013; 2014), which 335 adds founder-event speciation with long-distance dispersal (cladogenesis, where daughter 336 lineage is allowed to jump to a new range outside the range of the ancestor; Matzke, 2013) to 337 the DEC framework; (iii) Dispersal Vicariance Analysis (DIVA; Ronquist, 1997); (iv) DIVA 338 with long-distance dispersal (DIVA +J; Matzke, 2013); (v) Bayesian inference of historical 339 biogeography for discrete areas (BayArea; Landis et al., 2013); and (vi) BayArea with long-340 distance dispersal (BayArea +J; Matzke, 2013). Model fit was assessed using the Akaike 341 information criterion (AIC) and likelihood-ratio tests (LRT).

- 342
- **343 3. Results**

344 *3.1. Phylogeny of Muridae*

Our multilocus dataset representing all major lineages of the family Muridae is 10,482 bp
long with 42.5% missing data. Both BI and ML analyses yield similar topologies (see Fig. 1 for
the topology inferred under BI, and Fig. S1 in Appendix D for the best-fit ML tree), as indicated

by a high proportion of shared nodes (160 out of 162). BI and ML analyses differ only in the position of *Pelomys fallax* (Peters) and *Zyzomys argurus* (Thomas), but their placements are not significantly supported in either analysis. Clade support is moderate to high on average; if considering the number of nodes that are supported by PP \ge 0.95 or BV \ge 70%, BI analyses yield a slightly more robust topology (135 well-supported nodes) compared to the ML tree (122 well-supported nodes).

Phylogenetic analyses confirm the monophyly of the family Muridae, of all its four
constituent subfamilies, as well as of the previously defined tribes of the subfamily Murinae
(Fig. 1). On the contrary, the phylogenetic position of some genera (e.g. *Acomys* I. Geoffroy, *Dasymys* Peters, *Golunda* Gray, *Melomys* Thomas, *Micaelamys* Ellerman, *Pelomys* Peters, *Oenomys* Thomas and *Otomys* F. Cuvier) within particular tribes was only partly supported.

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3.2. Evaluation of suitable fossil calibrations

361 We summarized all fossils considered in this study in Table 3 and Appendix B regarding 362 taxonomic information and specification for prior settings (see also Figure 2 for their respective 363 positions within the tree). Five out of 18 preselected fossils (i.e. *†Parapelomys robertsi* Jacobs, 364 *†Potwarmus primitivus*, *†Preacomys kikiae* Geraads, *†cf. Progonomys* sp. Schaub and *†aff.* 365 Stenocephalomys Frick) were excluded from further analyses because the scarcity of 366 paleontological interpretation about their phylogenetic relationships impeded assigning them to 367 specific nodes of the phylogeny (Appendix B). We also excluded fossils of Acomys and 368 Lemniscomys Trouessart from the Lemudong'O locality, Kenya (Manthi, 2007), because first 369 upper molars, which possess the most diagnostic characters in the murine dentition, are not 370 described from the locality (Table 3; see more details also in Appendix B). The two-step cross-371 validation procedure resulted in a further reduction of the fossil set of possible calibration 372 points. Specifically, we excluded two fossils: one is a 2.4 Ma fossil identified as the genus

Gerbillus Desmarest, while the other one corresponds to a 6.1 Ma fossil identified as the genus *Mastomys* Thomas (Appendix C). The rationale is that (i) these two fossil calibrations exhibited the largest magnitude of SS, and that (ii) their removal also resulted in a very high (fivefold) decrease in *s* (see Appendix C for more details). As a result of the latter series of selection steps, nine fossils were finally retained for divergence dating (see Figure 2 for their position on the tree, Table 4 for specification of priors, and Appendix B for more details on all considered fossils).

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3.3 Historical biogeography and divergence dating

Among the six models of geographic-range evolution compared in a likelihood framework in BioGeoBEARS, the Dispersal-Extinction Cladogenesis model with founderevent speciation (DEC +J) was chosen because of its best likelihood and AICc associated scores (lnL=-117.1, AICc=240.4; Table 5).

The dated tree resulting from the BRC analyses is shown in Figure 2 while dating estimates for all internal nodes are provided in Table 6, and results of ancestral distribution reconstructions are presented in Figure 3. The most recent common ancestor (MRCA) of Muridae originated during the early Miocene (median age of 19.3 Ma; 95% highest posterior density (HPD): 17.06-21.92 Ma) in the Afrotropical and Indomalayan bioregions.

Three subfamilies (Deomyinae, Gerbillinae and Lophiomyinae) belonging to the same clade started their diversification in the Afrotropics. Within this clade, a first split occurred *ca*. 18.6 Ma (95% HPD: 16.35-21.11 Ma) between the Lophiomyinae and the clade encompassing the Deomyinae and Gerbillinae. Deomyinae started their diversification *ca*. 14.6 Ma (95% HPD: 12.68-16.82 Ma) while Gerbillinae started theirs *ca*. 12.2 Ma (95% HPD: 10.46-14.16 Ma). In Deomyinae and Gerbillinae, several lineages were able to colonize the Palearctic region

from the Afrotropics (in our dataset, this concerns *Acomys russatus* (Wagner) and *Gerbillus gerbillus* Olivier).

399 The subfamily Murinae originated in the Indomalayan region during the middle Miocene 400 (median age of 14.2 Ma; 95% HPD: 12.70-16.07 Ma); the corresponding basal split separated 401 the Phloeomyini and all remaining murines ('core murines' sensu Steppan et al. 2005). The 402 next major split occurred in the Indomalava between Rattini and the remaining tribes of 403 Murinae (median age of 12.3 Ma; 95% HPD: 11.28-13.62 Ma), with an origin of Rattini 404 estimated at 10.4 Ma (95% HPD: 9.23-11.93 Ma). The ancestral area of Rattini was also 405 inferred to be the Indomalaya; during the course of their diversification, a few taxa colonized 406 Australasia (e.g. Bunomys andrewsi (J.A. Allen), Melasmothrix naso Miller and Hollister, 407 Paruromys dominator Thomas and Rattus leucopus (Gray)) as well as the West and East 408 Palearctic (e.g. Micromys minutus (Pallas) and Diplothrix legata (Thomas)). The Hydromyini 409 split from the remaining Murinae at *ca*. 11.9 Ma (95% HPD: 10.95-13.10 Ma); although basal 410 lineages of this tribe are currently found in the Indomalaya (e.g. Archboldomys luzonenzis 411 Musser, Apomys datae (Meyer), Apomys hylocoetes Mearns, Chrotomys gonzalesi Rickart and 412 Heaney, Chiropodomys gliroides (Blyth) and Rhynchomys isarogensis Musser and Freeman), 413 a specific and diverse lineage of Hydromyini also colonized and radiated in the Australasia ca. 414 8.1 Ma (95% HPD: 7.22-9.09 Ma). The clade gathering Apodemini, Malacomyini, Murini and 415 Praomyini likely originated in the Afrotropics, with several lineages secondarily colonizing the 416 Indomalaya and the West and East Palearctic. The split between Malacomyini (which remained 417 in the Afrotropics) and Apodemini (which dispersed and differentiated mainly in the West and 418 East Palaearctic) is estimated at ca. 10.2 Ma (95% HPD: 9.33-11.39 Ma). Murini started to 419 diversify in the Indomalaya at ca. 7.2 Ma (95% HPD: 6.24-9.29 Ma). The intense radiation (51 420 extant species, Monadjem et al., 2015) of Praomyini occurred in the Afrotropics (median age 421 of 6.8 Ma for the MRCA of Praomyini; 95% HPD: 6.06-7.77 Ma). The Indomalayan Millardini

split from the predominantly Afrotropical Arvicanthini + Otomyini tribes at *ca*. 10.8 Ma (95%
HPD: 9.88-12.04 Ma). The respective first diversifications within Arvicanthini, Millardini and
Otomyini are estimated at *ca*. 8.8 Ma (95% HPD: 7.92-9.72 Ma), 9.2 Ma (95% HPD: 7.7210.75 Ma) and 4.9 Ma (95% HPD: 4.12-5.98 Ma), respectively. The position of Asian *Golunda*within Arvicanthini is not resolved (Fig. 1); the dispersal to Indomalaya of the lineage leading
to the extant *Golunda* species at *ca*. 8.5 Ma (95% HPD: 7.33-9.57 Ma; as suggested in Fig. 3)
should therefore be taken with caution.

- 429 **4. Discussion**
- 430 *4.1. Selection of taxa and molecular markers*

Our sampling of 160 species from 82 genera represents 22% of known murid species diversity and more than half of the generic diversity of the family Muridae. When one compares our sampling effort to previous studies (Table 7), only the study of Fabre et al. (2012) relied on a better sampling for the family Muridae (302 species from 105 genera, i.e. about 41% of known species diversity). In the study of Schenk et al. (2013), 18% of murid species are included. The number of sampled murid species is also lower in Lecompte et al. (2008) and Rowe et al. (2008) because their studies focussed on specific tribes and subfamilies.

438

439 *4.2. Calibration of molecular clock and divergence dating*

Using the classical *Mus/Rattus* calibration as prior for divergence dating often lead to an underestimation of the age of the subfamily Murinae, inferring median ages that are generally comprised between 13.3 to 12.0 Ma. Only the most recent studies (e.g. Rowe et al., 2016b) used the correct *Mus/Arvicanthis* calibration with a prior median age of 11.1 Ma (as suggested by Kimura et al., 2015). This resulted in the estimation of Murinae age of *ca*. 14.0 Ma (Rowe et al., 2016b), which is consistent with our study (Table 6).

446 Other fossils frequently used for molecular clock calibration are from the genus 447 *†Parapodemus*. Recent studies used these fossils in two ways: the first occurrence of 448 *†Parapodemus* sp. (Martín-Suáres and Mein, 1998) in the late Miocene in Europe (Lungu, 449 1981; see Appendix B) was used to calibrate the MRCA of 'Apodemurini' (representing the 450 split between Apodemini+Malacomyini and Murini+Praomyini; Fabre et al., 2013; Rowe et al., 451 2011). Another calibration point is based on the discovery of *Parapodemus pasquierae* 452 Aguilar and Michaux, from 'Lo Fournas 6' site (Roussillon, France). Authors postulated that 453 the latter species and the smaller *†Parapodemus lugdunensis* co-occurred during the same time 454 period 'MN10' (Aguilar et al., 1999; Montuire et al., 2006), dated approximately at 9.7 Ma 455 (Mein, 2003). Michaux et al. (2002) considered the differences between these two species as 456 representative of the split between the large *Apodemus mystacinus* Danford and Alston and all 457 smaller Apodemus species from the subgenus Sylvaemus, but they used a younger age of 7.0 458 Ma as a prior for their divergence. Numerous authors followed this calibration (e.g. Bryja et al., 459 2014; Fabre et al., 2013; Lecompte et al., 2008; Schenk et al., 2013) even if there is no clear 460 rationale for it. The estimated dates of MRCA of Apodemini range from 7.5 Ma (Rowe et al. 461 2016b; Schenk et al., 2013) to 9.6 Ma (Bryja et al., 2014; Michaux et al., 2002; Lecompte et 462 al., 2008). In our study, we conservatively used the *†Parapodemus lugdunensis* fossil as a stem 463 constraint for Apodemini and this placement resulted in an estimation of their MRCA at 9.0 Ma 464 (95% HPD: 7.92-10.13 Ma).

There are several localities in Africa (e.g. Lukeino Formation, Winkler, 2002; Lemudong'o, Ambrose et al., 2007; Manthi, 2007) where fossil representatives of *Arvicanthis* were identified. These fossils were used for molecular clock calibration in several studies with a prior MRCA for the genus at 6.1 Ma (e.g. Fabre et al., 2013; Rowe et al., 2011). The fossils from Lemudong'o were also used, in a less conservative way, by Bryja et al. (2014): based on early records of †*Otomys* sp. (*ca.* 5.0 Ma; Denys, 1990), †*Aethomys* sp., †*Arvicanthis* sp.,

471 *†Lemniscomys* sp. (from Lemudong'o = 6.1 Ma; Ambrose et al., 2007; Manthi et al., 2007) and 472 other relevant samples where these and related genera were absent (9.50-10.50 Ma; Mein et al. 473 2004), they set the split between Arvicanthini and Otomyini within 6.08-9.54 Ma. This 474 calibration resulted in an estimation of the MRCA for the tribe Arvicanthini at 7.8 Ma (Bryja 475 et al., 2014), which is about 1 million year younger than our own estimate (Table 6). Rowe et 476 al. (2016b) used as minimum age 8.7 Ma for the split between Arvicanthis and Otomys based 477 on the study of Kimura et al. (2015) that set minimum and maximum ages for locality Y388, 478 where *†Karnimata darwini* was found. This calibration resulted in an estimated MRCA of 479 Arvicanthini at 8.5 Ma. In our study, we instead used the age of an older locality (Y182; median 480 age of 9.2 Ma) where *†Karnimata darwini* was also found (Jacobs, 1978; Kimura et al., 2015), 481 in order to set a crown calibration for the Arvicanthini/Millardini/Otomyini clade. This 482 placement resulted in an estimation of their MRCA at 8.8 Ma (95% HPD: 7.92-9.72 Ma) (Table 483 6).

484

485 4.3. Historical biogeography with focus on faunal exchanges between the Afrotropics and
486 the Indomalaya

487 Our study could not resolve the origin of murid rodents, but it was either in the Afrotropics 488 or in the Indomalaya. Our inferred ancestral tropical range for the MRCA of murids is consistent 489 with the fact that most extant murid taxa are still distributed in warm and moist tropical areas. 490 During the Early Miocene (23.0-16.0 Ma), the rotation of Africa and Arabia, and finally the 491 collision with Eurasia formed a landbridge between Africa and Eurasia (the so-called 492 'Gomphotherium landbridge'; Rögl, 1999). During this time period, early murids colonized 493 both geographical regions. The subsequent reopening of the Mediterranean-Indo-Pacific 494 seaway ('Indo-Pacific recurrence'; Rögl, 1999) separated Africa from Eurasia again, thus 495 giving rise to the main clades of Afrotropics and Indomalaya rodents. Three subfamilies,

496 Deomyinae, Gerbillinae and Lophiomyinae, then likely diversified in the Afrotropics (Chevret 497 and Dobigny, 2005; Ndiave et al., 2016; Schenk et al., 2013, this study; Figure 3). This 498 hypothesis is supported by paleontological records since the oldest fossils tied to these 499 subfamilies were found in the Afrotropics (e.g. late Miocene Acomys, Gerbilliscus, Lophiomys 500 and *†Preacomys* from East Africa; Winkler et al. 2010 and references therein). The subfamily 501 Murinae started to diversify in Indomalaya, most probably in Southeast Asia, where we can 502 also find the hitherto highest phylogenetic diversity, including the oldest offshoots of this clade 503 (e.g. the ancestor of Phloeomyini probably lived in the Philippines, those of Rattini and 504 Hydromyini in South-east Asia, etc.; Fabre et al., 2013).

505 During the Middle Miocene (16.0-11.6 Ma), the Mediterranean-Indo-Pacific seaway 506 closed again at the beginning of the Serravallian ca. 13.8 Ma ('Parathethys Salinity Crisis'; 507 Rögl, 1999), co-incidentally with a global cooling that caused vegetation shifts and a general 508 aridification (Prista et al., 2015). The newly formed landbridge (Rögl, 1999) allowed repeated 509 dispersals of murine rodents from Asia to both Africa and Eurasia. Murine fossil records 510 provide clear evidence for connections between the Indomalaya, the Palearctic, and the 511 Afrotropics. Among them, there are two conspicuous examples: (i) *Progonomys* was recorded 512 in many Indomalayan Middle Miocene localities (Jacobs and Flynn, 2005) as well as in the 513 Palearctic region (Algeria: Wessels, 2009; China: Qiu et al., 2004; Egypt: Heissig, 1982; 514 France: Mein et al., 1993; Spain: Weerd, 1976); and (ii) the oldest records of *Parapelomvs* 515 spp. were found synchronously in Africa (8.5 Ma; Chorora, Ethiopia; Geraads, 2001) and in 516 Pakistan (ca. 8.0 Ma; Jacobs and Flynn, 2005). During this period, representatives of several 517 murine tribes occurred in the Afrotropics (Arvicanthini, Malacomyini, Otomyini and 518 Praomyini) and the Indomalaya (Millardini, Murini, Rattini, and basal lineages of Hydromyini). 519 The last faunal interchange of murid taxa between Africa, Asia and Western Palearctic (Benammi et al., 1996; Sabatier, 1982; Sen, 1977, 1983; Winkler, 2002) is coincident with 520

521 Messinian Salinity Crisis ca. 6 Ma during the Late Miocene (Hsü et al., 1973, 1978). During 522 this period of global sea level depression (Hag et al., 1987) Africa and Arabia were reconnected 523 through Neguev-Sinai landbridge ('Levantine corridor', Fernandes et al., 2006) and landbridge 524 in the Bab-el-Mandeb (Bosworth et al., 2005). In murids, evidence to support this faunal 525 exchange can be found in the African subgenus Nannomys (genus Mus), which colonized 526 Afrotropics and started there its radiation ca. 5.2 Ma (Bryja et al., 2014). A possible example 527 for an opposite west-to-east migration is the genus Golunda, which belongs to the Arvicanthini 528 tribe. In a predominantly Afrotropical clade, Golunda is the only genus that occurs in the 529 Indomalaya, probably since the end of Miocene (Ducroz et al., 2001; Fig. 3). However, one 530 should be cautious with this scenario since the position of Golunda within Arvicanthini is not 531 well supported (Fig. 1). Africa-to-Asia dispersals at the Miocene/Pliocene boundary have been 532 also recorded in other taxa, such as rodents (e.g. Myomyscus yemeni (Sanborn and Hoogstraal); 533 our unpubl. data), reptiles (e.g. Varanus vemenensis: Böhme et al., 2003, Portik and Papenfuss 534 2012; *Hemidactylus* geckos: Šmíd et al. 2013; *Echis* vipers: Pook et al. 2009) and hamadryas 535 baboons (Winney et al. 2004).

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537

5. Conclusion and perspectives

538 In this study, we provided an improved multilocus dated phylogeny for the highly 539 speciose family Muridae. Both our dating and historical biogeography analyses suggest that the 540 family originated during the Early Miocene, and subsequently gave rise to four extant 541 subfamilies: three in the Afrotropical region (Deomyinae, Gerbillinae and Lophiomyinae) and 542 one in the Indomalaya (Murinae). Our study also supports a dynamic biogeographic scenario 543 in which repeated colonisation events occurred in the Australasian (Hydromyini, Rattini), 544 Afrotropical (Malacomyini, Praomyini, Arvicanthini, Otomyini) and Palearctic (Apodemini) 545 regions. One of the strong aspects of this study lies in the assessment and treatment of fossil

546	data (Appendix B); such data is likely to be useful for further studies investigating the timing
547	of diversification of rodents, or even mammals in general. For an easy access to all
548	corresponding fossil records, we have made data available on the Date-a-Clade Website
549	(http://palaeo.gly.bris.ac.uk/fossilrecord2/dateaclade/index.html), Paleobiology Database
550	(<u>http://fossilworks.org/</u>) and TimeTree Database (<u>http://timetree.org</u>).

551

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564

565 **Authors' contributions:** GJK, GD, LG, JB conceived the ideas; TA collected genetic 566 data (including new genotyping); YK, TA collected and analysed paleontological data; TA, 567 GJK performed phylogenetic analyses; TA, JB, GJK wrote the first version of the manuscript 568 that was then implemented by all authors.

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- 923 Figure titles

924	Figure 1. Molecular phylogeny of family Muridae based on Bayesian inference (BI) in
925	MrBayes. Very similar topology was obtained also by maximum likelihood (ML)
926	analysis in RAxML (see Appendix D). Red points show nodes supported in BI
927	analysis (posterior probability $PP \ge 0.95$), blue points show high bootstrap support
928	in ML analysis (bootstrap BV \ge 0.70). Violet nodes are supported by both analyses.

- Figure 2. Divergence dating analysis of family Muridae. Nodes show medians of times to most
 recent common ancestor (MRCA), node bars indicate 95% HPD intervals. Latin
 numbers in yellow squares indicate positions of fossil constrains selected by
 multiple-step evaluation and used for final analysis (see Table 4 for more details).
- Figure 3. Ancestral reconstruction for family Muridae with BioGeoBEARS (DEC+J; d=0.008;
 e=0; j=0.0246; LnL=-117.11). Five biogeographical areas are represented using
 different colours: A, West Palearctic (dark blue); B, East Palearctic (light blue); C,
 Indomalaya (green); D, Australasia (yellow); E, Afrotropics (red).
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940 Tables:

941	Table 1: Brief summary of taxonomic changes in the family Muridae. The taxonomic position
942	of particular lineages has changed significantly and they were either considered as
943	separate families, or included in other families outside Muridae (names of families
944	are in bold).
945	Table 2: PartitionFinder results showing optimum partitioning schemes and best fit models
946	for each analysis (RAxML, MrBayes, BEAST). Settings: BIC, unlinked branch
947	lengths, greedy algorithm.
948	Table 3: Overview of 18 candidate fossils with stratigraphic age, locality and relevant references. For
949	more details see Appendix B.
950	Table 4: Overview of fossils finally selected for divergence dating, with parameters of uniform
951	and lognormal prior distribution.
952	Table 5: Comparison of models used for BioGeoBEARS; likelihood scores (LnL), number of
953	parameters (numparams), dispersal rate (d), extinction rate (e), free parameter controlling
954	the relative probability of founder-event speciation events at cladogenesis (j), corrected
955	Akaike Information Criterion (AICc), and AICc model weights.
956	Table 6: Results of divergence dating analysis. Time to the most common ancestor (MRCA) is
957	shown as median in Ma, with 95% highest posterior density (HPD). Estimates from
958	previous studies dealing with divergence dating of murid rodents are reviewed here
959	for comparison.
960	Table 7: Comparison between previous relevant studies.
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963 Supplementary material

- 964 Appendix A. List of taxa and genetic markers.
- 965 Appendix B. Description of considered fossils.
- 966 Appendix C. Results of cross-validation of fossil constraints.
- 967 Appendix D. Maximum likelihood phylogenetic tree.

Table 1: Brief summary of taxonomic changes in the family Muridae, The taxonomic position of particular lineages has changed significantly and they were either considered separate families or included in other families outside Muridae (name of families are in bold).

Simpson (1945)		Chaline et al. (1977)	Lavocat (1978)	
Cricetidae	Lophiomyinae	Cricetidae	Lophiomyinae	Nesomyidae	Lophiomyinae
	Gerbillinae	Gerbillidae			Gerbillinae
Muridae	Murinae	Muridae	Murinae		Otomyinae
	Otomyinae	Nesomyidae	Otomyinae	Muridae	
Carleton and Mus	sser (1984)	Musser and Ca	arleton (2005)	Granjon and N	Montgelard (2012)
Muridae	Lophiomyinae	Cricetidae	Lophiomyinae	Muridae	Lophiomyinae
	Gerbillinae	Muridae	Otomyinae		Gerbillinae
	Murinae		Gerbillinae		Murinae
	Withinac				
	Otomyinae		Murinae		Deomyinae
			Murinae Deomyinae		Deomyinae Leimacomyinae

Table 2: PartitionFinder results showing optimum partitioning schemes and best fit models for each analysis (RAxML, MrBayes, BEAST). Settings: BIC, unlinked branch lengths, greedy algorithm.

Analysis	N. of part	Best sub. model	Subsets
RAxML	3	GTR+I+G GTR+I+G GTR+I+G	12S, 16S, ATPase8_pos1-pos2, COII_pos1-pos2, COI_pos1-pos2, CYTB_pos1-pos2, tRNA-Asp, tRNA-Lys, tRNA-Ser ATPase8_pos3, COII_pos3, COI_pos3, CYTB_pos3 AP5_pos1-pos3, BRCA_pos1-pos3, BZRP, GHR_pos1-pos3, IRBP_pos1-pos3, RAG_pos1-pos3
MrBayes and BEAST	3	GTR+I+G HKY+I+G GTR+I+G	12S, 16S, ATPase8_pos1-pos2, COII_pos1-pos2, COI_pos1-pos2, CYTB_pos1-pos2, tRNA-Asp, tRNA-Lys, tRNA-Ser ATPase8_pos3, COII_pos3, COI_pos3, CYTB_pos3 AP5_pos1-pos3, BRCA_pos1-pos3, BZRP, GHR_pos1-pos3, IRBP_pos1-pos3, RAG_pos1-pos3

Fossil	Final	Reason for	Age (Ma)	Ι	Dating	Fos	sils	
	analysis	excluding		Method	References	Site	References	
† <i>Potwarmus primitivus</i> (Wessels)	No	Equivocal placement	16.0	magnetostratigraphy	time scale of Ogg and Smith (2004)	Pakistan, Potwar Plateau, YGSP591	Lindsay (1988), Wessels (2009)	
† <i>Antemus chinjiensis</i> Jacobs	Yes (1)		13.8	magnetostratigraphy	Jacobs and Flynn (2005)	Pakistan, Potwar Plateau, YGSP 491	Jacobs et al. (1989)	
†cf. <i>Progonomys</i> sp. Schaub	No	Equivocal placement	11.6	magnetostratigraphy	time scale of Ogg and Smith (2004)	Pakistan, Potwar Plateau, YGSP 83, YGSP 504	Jacobs and Flynn (2005), Cheema et al. (2000), Kimura et al. (in prep.)	
†cf. <i>Karnimata</i> sp. Jacobs	Yes (2)		11.2	magnetostratigraphy	Kimura et al. (2015) by time scale of Ogg and Smith (2004)	Pakistan, Siwalik Group, Nagri Formation, YGSP 791, YGSP 797,	Jacobs and Flynn (2005); Kimura et al. (2015)	
† <i>Parapodemus</i> <i>lungdunensis</i> Schau	Yes (3)		9.6	magnetostratigraphy	Daxner-Höck (2003)	France, Dionay	Lungu (1981), Mein et al. (1993), Renaud et al. (1999)	
† <i>Karnimata darwini</i> Jacobs	Yes (4)		9.2	magnetostratigraphy	Kimura et al. (2015) by time scale of Ogg and Smith (2004)	Pakistan, Siwalik Group, Dhok Pathan Formation, YGSP 182	Jacobs (1978); Kimura et al. (2015)	
† <i>Abudhabia pakistanensis</i> Flynn and Jacobs	Yes (5)		8.7	magnetostratigraphy	Flynn and Jacobs (1999) by time scale of Ogg and Smith (2004)	Pakistan, Siwalik Group, Dhok Pathan Formation, YGSP387	Flynn and Jacobs (1999)	
† <i>aff. Stenocephalomys</i> Frick	No	Equivocal placement	8.5	$^{40}K/^{40}Ar$	Geraads et al. (2002), Suwa et al. (2015)	Ethiopia, Chorora	Geraads (2001)	
† <i>cf. Parapelomys</i> Jacobs	No	Equivocal placement	8.5	$^{40}K/^{40}Ar$	Geraads et al. (2002), Suwa et al. (2015)	Ethiopia, Chorora	Geraads (2001)	

Table 3: Overview of 18 candidate fossils with stratigraphic age, locality and relevant references. For more details see Appendix B.

Table 3 (continued)

Fossil	Final	Reason for	Age (Ma)	Ι	Dating	Fo	Fossils		
	analysis	excluding		Method	References	Site	References		
† <i>Preacomys kikiae</i> Geraads	No	Equivocal placement	8.5	$^{40}{\rm K}/^{40}{\rm Ar}$	Geraads et al. (2002), Suwa et al. (2015)	Ethiopia, Chorora	Geraads (2001)		
† <i>Mus</i> sp. Linneaus	Yes (6)		8.0	magnetostratigraphy	Kimura et al. (2015) by time scale of Ogg and Smith (2004)	Pakistan, Siwalik Group, Dhok Pathan Formation, YGSP 547	Kimura et al. (2013; 2015)		
† <i>Acomys</i> sp. I. Geoffroy	No	missing M1	6.1	⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar	Deino and Ambrose (2007)	Kenya, Lemudong'o, locality 1	Manthi (2007)		
† <i>Aethomys</i> sp. Thomas	Yes (7)		6.1	⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar	Deino and Ambrose (2007)	Kenya, Lemudong'o, locality 1	Manthi (2007)		
† <i>Arvicanthis</i> sp. Lesson	Yes (8)		6.1	⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar	Deino and Ambrose (2007)	Kenya, Lemudong'o, locality 1	Manthi (2007)		
† <i>Gerbilliscus</i> sp. (Thomas)	Yes (9)		6,1	⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar	Deino and Ambrose (2007)	Kenya, Lemudong'o, locality 1	Manthi (2007)		
† <i>Lemniscomys</i> sp. Trouessart	No	missing M1	6.1	⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar	Deino and Ambrose (2007)	Kenya, Lemudong'o, locality 1	Manthi (2007)		
† <i>Mastomys</i> sp. Thomas	No	cross- validation	6.1	⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar	Deino and Ambrose (2007)	Kenya, Lemudong'o, locality 1	Manthi (2007)		
† <i>Gerbillus</i> sp. Desmarest	No	cross- validation	2.4	geochronology (BKT-3 tephra), ⁴⁰ K/ ⁴⁰ Ar, ⁴⁰ Ar / ³⁹ Ar; sedimentology	Kimbel et al. (1996), Campisano and Feibel (2008)	Ethiopia, Hadar, AL894	Reed (2011)		

Table 4: Overview of fossils finally selected for divergence dating, with parameters of uniform and lognormal prior distribution.

	Fossil	Position	Stem/Crown	Age (Ma)	Uniform distribution		Lognormal distribution		
					Min	Max	Offset	Log	Mean
1	<i>†Antemus chinjiensis</i>	crown Murinae	crown	13.8	13.24	25.29	13.24	1.0	3.2
2	†cf. Karnimata sp.	Mus/Arvicanthis split	crown	11.2	10.47	25.37	10.47	1.0	4.0
3	†Parapodemus lugdunensis	Apodemus/Tokudaia split	stem	9.6	8.93	25.41	8.93	1.0	4.5
4	†Karnimata darwini	TMRCA Millardini/Otomyini/Arvicanthini	crown	9.2	8.52	25.42	8.52	1.0	4.6
5	$\dagger A budhabia$ pakistanensis	Gerbilliscus/Desmodillus split	crown	8.7	8.01	25.43	8.01	1.0	4.7
6	† <i>Mus</i> sp.	Murini	stem	8.0	7.29	25.45	7.29	1.0	4.9
7	<i>†Aethomys</i> sp.	Aethomys	stem	6.1	5.34	25.50	5.34	1.0	5.5
8	<i>†Arvicanthis</i> sp.	Arvicanthis	stem	6.1	5.34	25.50	5.34	1.0	5.5
9	<i>†Gerbilliscus</i> sp.	Gerbilliscus	stem	6.1	5.34	25.50	5.34	1.0	5.5

Table 5: Comparison of models used for BioGeoBEARS; likelihood scores (LnL), number of parameters (numparams), dispersal rate (d), extinction rate (e), free parameter controlling the relative probability of founder-event speciation events at cladogenesis (j), corrected Akaike Information Criterion (AICc), and AICc model weights.

	LnL	numparams	d	e	j	AICc	AICc_wt
DEC	-133.724	2	0.005	0.000	0.000	271.525	0.05181
DEC +J	-129.826	3	0.004	0.000	0.008	265.806	0.90415
DIVALIKE	-146.958	2	0.007	0.000	0.000	297.993	9.2665e-08
DIVALIKE +J	-132.856	3	0.004	0.000	0.012	271.866	0.04369
BAYAREALIKE	-178.311	2	0.005	0.036	0.000	360.698	2.2423e-21
BAYAREALIKE +J	-137.687	3	0.003	0.000	0.014	281.528	0.00035

Table 6: Results of divergence dating analysis. Time to the most common ancestor (TMRCA) is shown as median in Ma, with 95% highest posterior density

 (HPD). Estimates from previous studies dealing with divergence dating of murid rodents are reviewed here for comparison.

TMRCA	median	2.5%	97.5%	Steppan et al. (2004)	Lecompte et al. (2008)	Rowe et al. (2011)	Fabre et al. (2012)	Fabre et al. (2013)	Schenk et al. (2013)	Bryja et a <i>l</i> . (2014)	Rowe et a (2016b)
Muridae	19.3	17.06	21.92	22.5			~33-23		~21.0		
Lophiomyinae*	18.6	16.35	21.11								
Gerbillinae	12.2	10.46	14.16	9.3			~23-5		~10.0		
Deomyinae	14.6	12.68	16.82	13.1			~23-5		~13.0		
Murinae	14.2	12.70	16.07	12.0	12.3	13.3	~23-5		~14.5		~14.0
"core Murinae"	12.3	11.28	13.62	10.3	11.3			11.60	~12.5		~12.5
Phloeomyini	9.8	7.72	11.85		8.6				~10.0		~10.5
Rattini	10.4	9.23	11.93		9.7			8.70	~11.0		~11.0
Hydromyini	10.4	9.31	11.71		8.9				~11.0		~11.0
Malacomyini	3.4	2.35	4.60							4.4	
Apodemini	9.0	7.92	10.13		9.6				~7.5	9.5	~7.5
Murini	7.2	6.24	8.29		6.6	5.3			~6.0	7.4	~6.5
Praomyini	6.8	6.05	7.77		7.6				~5.0	6.8	~6.0
Millardini	9.2	7.72	10.75								
Otomyini	4.9	4.12	5.98						~6.0	3.8	~3.0
Arvicanthini	8.8	7.92	9.72		8.4	7.3			~7.5	7.8	~8.5

* offshoot from Gerbillinae + Deomyinae

 Table 7: Comparison between previous relevant studies.

Author	Focus	Subfamilies	# genera	# species	Fossils in Muridae	# genetic markers
Fabre et al. (2012)	Rodentia	4	105	302	0	11 (8)*
Schenk et al. (2013)	Muroidea	4	85	136	4	4
our study	Muridae	4	82	160	9	15
Rowe et al. (2008)	Hydromyini (outgroup all Murinae + Gerbillinae+Deomyinae)	3	66	78	2	8
Lecompte et al. (2008)	Murinae	3	46	83	2	3

* 11 genetic markers for Rodentia, only 8 for Muridae









