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Phylogenetic analysis of Ceratophryidae (Anura: Hyloidea) including extant and extinct species

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The Neotropical frog family Ceratophryidae is composed of wide-mouthed frogs with stout bodies. Living species of the family are consistently recovered as a monophyletic group, but with disparities among analyses regarding internal relationships. Ceratophryidae presents one of the richest fossil records in Anura. Nevertheless, phylogenetic analyses including both extant and extinct species are still scarce, and the position of fossils is persistently debated. In this sense, the systematics of the family has changed considerably in the last decade with the exclusion of *Baurubatrachus pricei* (Late Cretaceous), *Beelzebufo ampinga* (Late Cretaceous) and *Wawelia gerholdi* (early Miocene). Herein, a morphologically based phylogeny for Ceratophryidae, including living species (11 spp.) and fossil specimens (10 spp.), is used as a background to discuss the evolutionary history of the family and its classification. We phylogenetically placed *Baurubatrachus pricei*, *Beelzebufo ampinga* and *Wawelia gerholdi* as non-ceratophryids. We recovered a monophyletic Ceratophryidae: *Lepidobatrachus* and *Ceratophrys* form a clade, with *Chacophrys* as its sister group. Our analysis corroborates the *C. cornuta* and *C. aurita* groups. Among fossils, *L. australis* and *C. sagani* were recovered as valid species based on autapomorphies, and *C. rusconii* was found to be the sister of all *Ceratophrys. Ceratophrys ensenadensis*, *C. ameghinorum*, *C. aurita* NHMUK PV OR18895/6 and *C. sagani* belong to the *C. aurita* group. We also discuss homoplasies in Ceratophryidae, divergence-time estimates, and the evolution of ploidy and a dorsal shield in the family.

Keywords: Lissamphibia; palaeontology; systematics; taxonomy

Introduction

Ceratophryidae is a well-supported clade (Frost et al. 2006; Fabrezi & Quinzio 2008; Pyron & Wiens 2011; Faivovich et al. 2014; Jetz & Pyron 2018; Streicher et al. 2018) including large, robust, wide-mouthed frogs, with stout bodies and a hyperossified skeleton resulting from peramorphic heterochrony (Fabrezi 2006). The family (sensu Faivovich et al. 2014; Frost 2021) contains the genera Ceratophrys Wied-Neuwied, 1822 (eight spp.), Chacophrys Reig & Limeses, 1963 (one sp.) and Lepidobatrachus Budgett, 1899 (three spp.). Ceratophrys is the most speciose, comprising two species groups: the cornuta group, containing C. calcarata Boulenger, 1890, C. cornuta (Linnaeus, 1758), C. stolzmanni Steindachner, 1882 and C. testudo Andersson, 1945; and the C. aurita group, containing C. aurita (Raddi, 1823), C. cranwelli Barrio, 1980, C. joazeirensis Mercadal, 1986 and C. ornata (Bell, 1843) (J. D. Lynch 1982; Faivovich et al. 2014).

The family is usually recovered within Neobatrachia, most frequently within Hyloidea, but with unstable sister relationships. Ceratophryidae has been recovered as sisto the group including Pelodryadidae, ter Phyllomedusidade and Hylidae (Haas 2003); sister to Telmatobiidae (Wiens et al. 2005; Faivovich et al. 2014; Sabbag et al. 2018); sister to all other Neobatrachia (Fabrezi 2006); sister to Batrachylini (Frost et al. 2006); sister to Telmatobiinae (Grant et al. 2006); sister to Hylidae (Roelants et al. 2007; Streicher et 2018; Hime *et al.* 2020); al. sister to Odontophrynidae (Fabrezi & Quinzio 2008; Gómez & Turazzini 2021); sister to a large clade within Hyloidea (Pyron & Wiens 2011); sister to the clade composed of Telmatobiidae and Alsodidae (Zhang et al. 2013); and sister to the clade Hylidae plus Hemiphractidae (Feng et al. 2017).

Relationships within the family have been extensively studied, based on phenotypic characters of adults (J. D. Lynch 1982; Peri 1994; Wild 1997; Fabrezi 2006;

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Fabrezi & Ouinzio 2008; Vieira 2012), adults and larvae (J. D. Lynch 1982; Wild 1997; Vieira 2012), immunological data (Maxson & Ruibal 1988) and molecular markers (Faivovich et al. 2014). The family is consistently recovered as monophyletic, but the internal relationships are not firmly established, and all three generic arrangements have been recovered: Ceratophrys as sister to the clade Chacophys plus Lepidobatrachus (Maxson & Ruibal 1988; Peri 1994; Fabrezi 2006; Faivovich et al. 2014; Frazão et al. 2015; Hutter et al. 2017; Brusquetti et al. 2018; Hime et al. 2020); Chacophys as sister to the clade Lepidobatrachus plus Ceratophrys (J. D. Lynch 1982; Wild 1997; Fabrezi & Ouinzio 2008: Faivovich et al. 2014: Gómez & Turazzini 2021); and Lepidobatrachus as sister to the clade composed of Chacophys and Ceratophrys (Frost et al. 2006; Grant et al. 2006; Vieira 2012).

Ceratophryidae has a rich fossil record, ranging from the late Miocene (11-5 million years [Ma]) to the late Pleistocene (11,000 years), with nearly 40 fossil specimens recognized (see Nicoli 2019; Barcelos et al. 2020; Gómez and Turazzini 2021). Six of them are determined to the species level: Ceratophrys ameghinorum Fernicola, 2001; C. ensenadensis Rusconi, 1932; C. prisca Ameghino, 1899; C. rusconii Agnolin, 2005; Lepidobatrachus australis Nicoli, 2015; and, most recently, Ceratophrys sagani Barcelos, Almeida-Silva, Santos & Verdade, 2020. Seven of the specimens are fossil representatives of extant species: Ceratophrvs ornata (Reig 1958; Vergnaud-Grazzini 1968; Peri 1993a; Pardiñas 2001; Pérez-Ben et al. 2019) and C. aurita (Günther 1859; Barcelos et al. 2020). More than 30 specimens are still not determined, currently assigned only to generic status (Ceratophrvs or Lepidobatrachus). Species exclusively known from fossils from the Late Cretaceous (Baurubatrachus pricei Báez & Peri, 1989 and Beelzebufo ampinga S. E. Evans et al. 2008) and early Miocene (Wawelia gerholdi Casamiquela, 1963) once attributed to the family were recently doubted as ceratophryids (e.g. Agnolin 2012; Faivovich et al. 2014; Nicoli et al. 2016; Báez & Gómez 2018). These three species proposed fossil were as related to Calyptocephallidae, a taxon that also includes frogs with hyperossified skulls (Agnolin 2012; Nicoli et al. 2016; Báez & Gómez 2018). Currently, the oldest known ceratophryid fossil is Ceratophrys sp. MD-CH-06-165 from the upper Miocene of the Arroyo Chasicó Formation, Buenos Aires Province, Argentina (Nicoli et al. 2017).

The number of fossil specimens known for Ceratophryidae and the low number of specimens determined to species level, as well as a few inaccurate identifications, have motivated many studies on the

classification of ceratophrvid fossils (e.g. Fernicola 2001; Nicoli 2015, 2016, 2017, 2019; Nicoli et al. 2016, 2017; Báez & Gómez 2018). Nevertheless, the fossil representatives of Ceratophrvidae were included in a phylogeny together with the extant ones only recently (Gómez & Turazzini 2021). Phylogenetic analyses including fossils may improve the accuracy of phylogenies and increase the number of resolved nodes, regardless of the phylogenetic inference method (Gómez 2016; Koch & Parry 2020; Koch et al. 2021). The study of fossils can contribute to the proposition of new characters and revision of old ones, bringing light to homologous structures and revealing relationships between living groups (Patterson 1981; Marjanović & Laurin 2019). It is especially interesting to discuss two emblematic characters present among ceratophrvids: polyploidy and the dorsal shield. Polyploidization events, when not disrupting or impeding development, would be advantageous by increasing genotypic variation, and have been discussed as an important speciation driver among eukarvotes (Ohno 1970; Prince & Pickett 2002; Woodhouse et al. 2009; Peng 2019). The dorsal shield is one of the integumentary calcifications in vertebrates (Trueb 1973), and evolved independently in many anuran taxa (i.e. Alytidae, Brachycephalidae, Bufonidae, Ceratophryidae, Dendrobatidae, Hylidae, Leptodactylidae, Microhylidae, Pelobatidae, Rhacophoridae and Ranidae; Quinzio & Fabrezi 2012 and references therein). It is usually associated with protection against desiccation and with water balance (Elkan 1968; Toledo & Jared 1993), and understanding the evolution of this character may shed light on the palaeoenvironment during ceratophryid evolution.

The goals of this paper are to: (1) propose a phylogeny including extant species and fossil specimens taxonomically assigned to Ceratophryidae; (2) re-assess the phylogeny of the clade using morphological characters; (3) use a phylogenetic analysis to assert the position of extinct species within Ceratophryidae first proposed based on overall similarities; and (4) discuss the phylogenetic affinities of *Baurubatrachus pricei*, *Beelzebufo ampinga* and *Wawelia gerholdi*. We also discuss homoplasies in Ceratophryidae, divergence-time estimates, and the evolution of ploidy and the occurrence of a dorsal shield in the family.

Material and methods

As most fossils are known only from preserved skulls, we primarily used cranial characters, but a few postcranial characters were also included. Characters were constructed upon direct examination of specimens from museum collections (e.g. fossils, dry skeletons, alizarinred- cleared and stained specimens), examination of micro-computed tomographic (μ CT)-scanning images taken from voucher specimens, images from Morphosource (http://morphosource.org/), and radiographs. We checked the species identity of all specimens scanned using the literature and comparisons to museum collections (Supplemental Material 1).

We studied one or more specimens from each extant species of Ceratophryidae (except for Ceratophrys testudo), and seven fossil specimens, i.e. Ceratophrys ameghinorum, C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6 (C. cornuta of Günther 1859), C. ensenadensis, C. ornata (Vergnaud-Grazzini 1968, here referred as Ceratophrys sp. MNHN UN (unnumbered specimen from Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle), C. rusconii, C. sagani and Lepidobatrachus australis. We also included Beelzebufo ampinga S. E. Evans et al. 2008, Baurubatrachus pricei Báez & Peri 1989 and Wawelia gerholdi Casamiquela 1963, formerly attributed to Ceratophrvidae (S. E. Evans et al. 2008, 2014; Báez et al. 2009). Specimens were examined under a Zeiss Stemi V11 stereomicroscope at the Universidade Federal do ABC (UFABC), and other available devices in visits to the collections of the Museo de Ciencias Naturales de La Plata (MLP) and the Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales 'Bernardino Rivadavia' (MACN). Lepidobatrachus australis was coded using photographs available in Tomassini et al. (2011) and Nicoli (2015), and Ceratophrys aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6 was coded using photographs available in Nicoli (2019) and others provided by the Natural History Museum, London (NHMUK). We supplemented our first-hand observations with descriptions and figures from the literature (Supplemental Material 1).

The Laboratory of Computerized Tomography at the Museu de Zoologia da USP (MZUSP) provided some of the μ CT-scanned specimens (Supplemental Material 1). The μ CT-scan images were prepared in a Phoenix v|tome|x m microfocus μ CT scanner Version 2.3.0.1032 (General Electric Company, Wunstorf, DE; voltage = 85 kV, current = 170 μ A). Parameters of the resulting μ CT-scan images were: pixel size 0.2, voxel size 0.04521586, resolution 96 dpi and number of images 2500. All specimens were scanned using a tungsten target, a background medium of air and no filter and were rendered as 16-bit TIFFs. The μ CT-scan images were analysed in 3DSlicer software, version 4.10.1 (Fedorov *et al.* 2012).

We used Mesquite software, version 3.6 (Maddison & Maddison 2018) to generate the character data matrix, and performed the tree analysis using new technology software (TNT version 1.5; Goloboff *et al.* 2008;

Goloboff & Catalano 2016) to run the phylogenetic analysis. In cases of an unknown character state (e.g. when a particular element is not preserved in the fossil specimen) or logical inconsistency, characters were coded as unknown. We performed a traditional search for random addition sequences with a 'random seed' value of 1, 10,000 replications, and 10 cladograms saved per replication. We used 'tree bisection and reconnection' (TBR) as the branch-swapping algorithm, collapsing trees after search. Our characters were unordered (Caetano-Anollés et al. 2018). We estimated parsimony jackknife absolute frequencies (Farris et al. 1996), using new technology (1000 replicates) and we used 10,000 replicates in TNT to calculate Bremer support (Bremer 1994). We also calculated consistency (CI; Kluge & Farris 1969) and retention (RI; Farris 1989) indices in TNT.

Phylogenetic analysis was performed using a data matrix of 99 morphological characters, including characters from J. D. Lynch (1982), Peri (1994), Wild (1997), Fabrezi & Quinzio (2008), Nicoli (2015) and Báez & Goméz (2018), sometimes rephrased following Sereno (2007), and 33 new characters. Our data matrix includes 18 terminals in the ingroup (11 extant species, five extinct ones and two fossil representatives of extant species). Additionally, 15 terminals are in the outgroup based on the results presented by J. D. Lynch (1971), Haas (2003), Wiens et al. (2005), Frost et al. (2006), Roelants et al. (2007), Zhang et al. (2013), Faivovich et al. (2014), Feng et al. (2017), Báez & Gómez (2018); Jetz & Pyron (2018), Sabbag et al. (2018), Streicher et al. (2018) and Hime et al. (2020): Alsodes nodosus (Alsodidae), Baurubatrachus pricei (extinct species), Beelzebufo ampinga (extinct species), Calyptocephalella gavi, Telmatobufo venustus, Wawelia gerholdi (extinct species) (Calyptocephalellidae), Cycloramphus asper (Cycloramphidae), Fritziana fissilis (Hemiphractidae), Pseudis paradoxa (Hylidae), Hylodes asper (Hylodidae), Telmatobius degener and Te. thompsoni (Telmatobiidae). The phylogenetic trees were rooted on Calyptocephalella gavi. We provide a list of characters with comments in Supplemental Material 1, and character 61 is figured in Supplemental Material 2. A Nexus file of our matrix is available as Supplemental Material 3. We applied parsimony ancestral state reconstruction for characters 69 (ploidy) and 73 (dorsal shield) in the software R (R Development Core Team 2021), using the package Claddis 0.6.6 (Lloyd 2016). We discuss time of divergence based on the literature (e.g. Nicoli 2015; Nicoli et al. 2017).

Notes on species not included

Ceratophrys testudo Andersson, 1945. Andersson (1945) proposed that this extant species was closely

related to *C. calcarata.* J. D. Lynch (1982) synonymized it with *C. cornuta.* Mercadal (1988) resurrected *C. testudo* based on morphological, morphometric and cytological differences. Peri (1993b), based on a broad comparative scope, proposed that the holotype of *C. testudo* is a *C. cornuta* juvenile specimen. We only had access to an X-ray and lateral-view images of the holotype, housed in the Naturhistoriska Riksmuseet Stockholm (Swedish Museum of Natural History), Sweden. As the character coding based on the available images was not accurate, we excluded the species from our analysis.

Ceratophrys prisca Ameghino, 1889. This extinct species was described by Ameghino (1899) from Monte Hermoso, Buenos Aires, Argentina. Fernicola (2001) revised the specimens of Rovereto and gave *species inquirenda* (species of doubtful identity) status to the holotype specimen of Ameghino (1899), which is currently lost (Fernicola 2001; Nicoli 2014, 2019).

Ceratophrys prisca var. subcornuta MACN 14319 and 14323. Rovereto (1914) described and illustrated the specimen MACN 14319. Fernicola (2001) revised Rovereto's fossils and included new specimens in the sample (e.g. MACN 14325), assigning them all to C. ameghinorum. We verified through direct observation that the specimen MACN 14319 is deformed, possibly a product of taphonomic artefact. The deformation was not mentioned in Rovereto (1914) or in Fernicola (2001). Hence, we preferred not to include morphometric measurements or bone shape observations obtained from this specimen for further comparisons. The specimen MACN 14323 is a highly fragmented skull that was grossly restored and was never described or illustrated. We do not agree with the classification of this fossil by Mercadal de Barrio & Barrio (2002) because of differences in the skull bones of MACN 14323 compared to all other specimens assigned to Ceratophrys prisca var. subcornuta (i.e. MACN 14319 and MACN 14325), e.g. smooth medial portion of the nasals. The specimen was proposed as Ceratophrys sp. (Nicoli 2019). We suggest that MACN 14323 should be re-assessed.

Institutional abbreviations

FML, Fundación Miguel Lillo, Argentina; KU, Kansas University, USA; MACN, Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales 'Bernardino Rivadavia', Argentina; MD-CH, Arroyo Chasicó collection, Museo Municipal de Ciencias Naturales 'Carlos Darwin', Argentina; MLP, Museo de La Plata, Argentina; MNHN, Muséum national d'Histoire naturelle, France; MZUSP, Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo, Brazil; NHMUK, Natural History Museum, London, UK; PVL, Colección Paleontología Vertebrados del Instituto 'Miguel Lillo', Argentina; SMNH, Swedish Museum of Natural History, Sweden; UFABC, Universidade Federal do ABC, Brazil; UFFRJ, Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil; UNESP, Universidade Estadual Paulista 'Júlio de Mesquita Filho', Brazil; USNM, Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History, USA; YPM, Yale Peabody Museum, USA.

Results

Phylogenetic analysis

Our phylogenetic analysis resulted in six equally short cladograms with 273 steps, 30 terminals and 99 characters. Nodes in the outgroup and within the Ceratophryidae were mostly resolved, and the synapomorphies of the clades are listed below. The strict consensus summarizes our results (Fig. 1; CI = 0.476; RI = 0.737).

We recovered Ceratophryidae as monophyletic, supported by the following four synapomorphies (Bremer support 2; 93% jackknife): teeth condition, non-pedicellate (56-1); maxilla, pars facialis in the orbital region decreases abruptly in height (63-1); parasphenoid, total length of the alae, reduced (77-0); clavicle nearly straight shaped (82-1). The family is recovered as sister to a clade that comprises Baurubatrachus pricei and Beelzebufo ampinga (Bremer = 2). This clade [Ceratophryidae + Ba. pricei and Be. ampinga] is sister to a clade composed of Telmatobufo and representative taxa of Telmatobiidae, Hemiphractidae, Alsodidae, Hylidae, Hylodidae and Cycloramphidae. We also recovered Ceratophrys and Lepidobatrachus as monophyletic, and Chacophrys (supported by autapomorphic characters) as the sister to the clade [Lepidobatrachus plus Ceratophrys]. The autapomorphies that support Chacophrys are: nasals, partially covered by exostosis (character 2-1); cultriform process of parasphenoid reaching planum antorbitale (character 30-0); occipital condyles with a contiguous medial articulation (character 49-1); premaxillae with divergent alary process in frontal view (character 57-1); absence of expansion of transverse process in vertebra IV (character 87-0); complete ossification of pubis, reaching acetabular portion Synapomorphies (character 89-2). supporting Ceratophrys as the sister clade to Lepidobatrachus (Bremer = 2; 77% jackknife) are: zygomatic ramus of squamosal in contact with the maxilla and nasal (character 22-2); otic ramus of squamosal expanded and overlapping the prootic (character 23-2); otoccipital, edges of the suprapterygoid fenestra mineralized (character 47-1); orbital flange of pars facialis of maxillae not



Figure 1. Strict consensus of six most parsimonious trees from the analysis using 30 terminals and a matrix of 99 characters. Bremer support values are indicated above nodes; values below nodes are parsimony jackknife frequencies. Nodes lacking values have < 50% jackknife frequencies. The three major phylogenetic groups within Ceratophryidae are shown within coloured blocks: *C. aurita* group (dark grey box), *C. cornuta* group (light grey box), and *Lepidobatrachus* genus (grey box).

participating in the formation of the orbit (character 62-1); maxilla and quadratojugal fused (character 65-1); post-temporal fenestrae present (character 66-1); ossification of the posteromedial process of hyoid invading the hyoid plate (character 79-1); and transverse process of vertebra III well expanded (character 86-2). Relationships among species of *Lepidobatrachus* were not resolved, but the clade (Bremer = 2; 63% jackknife) is well supported by nine synapomorphies: skull bones not forming a single akinetic unit (character 3-0); wide squamosal and maxilla, (character 17-1); one vomerine tooth (character 34-1); palatine angled anterolaterally in relation to skull longitudinal axis (character 40-1);



Figure 2. Optimization of ceratophryid characters on the strict consensus tree. A, ploidy (character 69); B, dorsal shield (character 73). Optimization for ploidy (grey=octaploid, white=diploid) and dorsal shield (grey=presence, white=absence) based on parsimony. The clade circles represent the most parsimonious ancestral states. Light grey circles with question marks denote unknown states.

footplate with a concave/globous ornamentation (character 53-0); long alary process of premaxilla (character 58-1); sloping dorso posteriorly (character 60-1); quadrate located well posterior relative to occipital condyle (character 67-3); and the presence of dermal ossification on parahyoid (character 80-1). Divergences among the most parsimonious trees are: *L. asper* and *L. llanensis* as sister species, or *L. laevis* as the sister of all *Lepidobatrachus*.

Ceratophrys was recovered as monophyletic (Bremer >16; 86% jackknife) supported by: anterior margin of orbits posterior to skull mid-length (character 5-1); supraorbital flange of frontoparietals angled dorsally (character 13-1); frontoparietal, postorbital and interorbital portions about the same width (character 14-1); frontoparietal and squamosal contact anteriorly to crista parotica (character 16-1); squamosal, otic plate extending posteriorly at about the same level as the occipital condyles (character 25-1); ventral process of anterior ramus of pterygoid present (character 31-1); presence of odontoids or ridges on ventral surface of palatine (character 39-1); and crista parotica ventrally positioned in relation to the dorsal edge of epiotic eminences (character 45-1). Ceratophrys rusconii is the sister taxon of all species of Ceratophrys. The relationships among the crown clade of Ceratophrys species are almost fully resolved. The synapomorphies supporting the C. cornuta group (Bremer = 3) (C. stolzmanni, C. cornuta and C.

calcarata) are: presence of the supraorbital crest of squamosal (character 20-1); squamosal otic ramus width less than half frontoparietal width at the level of crista parotica (character 24-0); and otic plate extending beyond the occipital condyles (character 25-2). The *C. aurita* group is composed of *C. joazeirensis*, *C. ornata*, *C. cranwelli*, *C. ensenadensis*, *C. ameghinorum*, *C. sagani*, *C. aurita* NHMUK PV OR18895/6, and *C. aurita* group includes *C. sagani*, *C. aurita* NHMUK PV OR18895/6 and *C. aurita*.

Character optimization: ploidy and dorsal shield

Our optimization suggests that octaploidy was acquired in the *C. aurita* group, except by *C. cranwelli* (Fig. 2A). Although this approach does not estimate tip states, octaploidy may have occurred in four fossil representatives (*C. ameghinorum*, *C. ensenadensis*, *C. sagani* and *C. aurita* NHMUK PV OR18895/6), while the ancestor of the *Ceratophrys* crown group was diploid. *Ceratophrys rusconii* is the only known extinct species in the genus supposedly not affected by this chromosomal process, as it lies outside of the *C. aurita* group. Since octaploidy was present in the ancestor of the *C. aurita* group, the emergence of 8n (2n = 8x) species seems to have occurred directly from a 2n ancestor, in our optimization. Despite these findings, it is important to highlight the absence of tetraploidy among terminals, which makes it impossible to obtain 4n states by this approach. However, these results suggest that genome quadruplication may have played an important role in diversification in the *Ceratophrys aurita* group. Furthermore, we recovered the ancestral state of the extinct and extant species of *Lepidobatrachus* as diploid.

Another emblematic character in Ceratophryidae is the presence of a dorsal shield. It would have evolved twice in ceratophryids according to our optimization results: in the ancestor of the C. aurita group and in the ancestor of Lepidobatrachus (Fig. 2B). This optimization was more probable than an origin at the most recent common ancestor of clade Ceratophrvs plus Lepidobatrachus followed by a reversion in the C. cornuta group. The dorsal shield may have been present in four fossil specimens (indeed, recorded in C. ensenadensis and C. ameghinorum, and expected in C. sagani and C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6). Still, the dorsal shield was expected to be absent in the ancestor of the crown group of Ceratophrys. The only species of Lepidobatrachus without a dorsal shield is L. laevis, but the polytomy obtained hampers discussions on the origin of the character in the group.

Discussion

We present a phylogenetic hypothesis for the family Ceratophryidae, including all extant (except for C. testudo) and extinct (except for C. prisca) species, plus two fossil representatives of extant species (i.e. C. aurita and C. ornata). Ceratophryidae was recovered as a monophyletic group, and the relationships within the family (Fig. 1) are similar to those obtained by J. D. Lynch (1982), Wild (1997), Fabrezi & Ouinzio (2008) and Gómez & Turazzini (2021) based on morphological datasets, and by Faivovich et al. (2014) based on molecular markers. Below, we discuss the different phylogenetic positioning of species among those analyses. The sister relationship we recovered between Ceratophrvidae and other anurans is novel both relating to the fossil species Baurubatrachus pricei and Beelzebufo ampinga, and if considering only extant taxa, to include a clade formed by Telmatobufo (Calyptocephalellidae), Telmatobiidae, Hemiphractidae, Alsodidae, Hylidae, Hylodidae and Cycloramphidae.

Faivovich *et al.* (2014) recovered *Chacophrys* as the sister clade to *Lepidobatrachus* using direct optimization, and *Chacophrys* as the sister clade to *Ceratophrys* plus *Lepidobatrachus* by performing static parsimony

analysis. Our topology is congruent with the ones obtained by Faivovich et al. (2014) with static parsimony analysis, i.e. recovering Chacophrys as the sister plus Ceratophrys Lepidobatrachus. clade to Unfortunately, most recent analyses resulting from molecular datasets include too few representatives of the family to allow a discussion of internal relationships (Feng et al. 2017; Streicher et al. 2018; Jetz & Pyron 2018). Hime et al. (2020) included one representative of each genus of Ceratophrvidae and obtained a result different from ours, and similar to the direct optimization of Faivovich et al. (2014): Ceratophrys sister to the clade Chacophrys plus Lepidobatrachus. The strict consensus obtained by Gómez & Turazzini (2021) is not resolved at the node of Ceratophryidae, but if one considers their majority rule consensus from an unconstrained analysis under equal weight, the relationship recovered is the same as ours: Chacophrvs as sister to Ceratophrys plus Lepidobatrachus. The phylogenetic relationships among the genera of Ceratophryidae remain inconclusive, but the clade Ceratophrys plus Lepidobatrachus is recovered more frequently in analyses with morphological characters, and the clade Chacophrys plus Lepidobatrachus is recurrently recovered in molecular-based ones.

Gómez & Turazzini (2021)'s analysis is the most similar to ours in both scope and sample. The results we obtained are about the same regarding more inclusive groups, as Ceratophryidae was recovered as monophyletic, the relationships among genera are the same, and the groups C. aurita and C. cornuta are present. The phylogenetic relationships within Ceratophrvs, especially concerning the fossil representatives, are very incongruent, however. Most fossil terminals of Gómez & Turazzini (2021) were recovered within the C. ornata group or related to this group. Most fossil terminals in our analysis, in contrast, were recovered within the C. aurita group. Those authors synonymized extinct species (C. ensenadensis and C. rusconii) as C. ornata, and recovered C. joazeirensis in a polytomy with all Ceratophrys (except Ceratophrys sp. MNHN UN). In comparison, we present C. rusconii as sister to all Ceratophrys, Ceratophrys sp. MNHN UN in a polytomy with C. aurita and C. cornuta group, and C. ensenadensis as a distinct species related to the C. aurita group.

Taxonomic accounts

Chacophrys. Chacophrys is a monotypic genus. The status of *Ch. pierottii* was doubted by J. D. Lynch (1982) but corroborated by Maxson & Ruibal (1988) based on immunological data, and further on the description of its tadpole and ontogeny (Wild 1999). Gómez & Turazzini (2021) recovered eight autapomorphies for *Chacophrys*

in the majority rule consensus, but not in the strict consensus tree. One autapomorphy is related to skull elements and all others concern postcranial elements. We present six unequivocal autapomorphies (with four characters concerning skull elements) supporting *Chacophrys* as a distinct genus.

Lepidobatrachus. Our analysis recovers Lepidobatrachus as monophyletic. However, the internal relationships of the genus were not resolved and the propositions present in Barrio (1968)'s revision of the genus remains valid. Peri (1994) and Vieira (2012) proposed Lepidobatrachus laevis as sister clade to L. asper plus L. llanensis. In previous works, Lepidobatrachus asper was recovered as the sister clade to L. laevis plus L. llanensis (Faivovich et al. 2014; Brusquetti et al. 2018; Gómez & Turazzini 2021). Gómez & Turazzini (2021) did not recover unambiguous synapomorphies for Lepidobatrachus, but presented an osteological diagnosis for the genus based on more than 50 characters. Here, we propose nine unambiguous supporting synapomorphies for the genus (seven of them new).

Lepidobatrachus australis is an extinct species, known exclusively from fossils. It was first mentioned by Tomassini *et al.* (2011), who detailed the morphology of the specimen and assigned it to *L. laevis*. Later, this specimen was revised and described by Nicoli (2015) who raised it to species status. Gómez & Turazzini (2021) allocated this extinct species within the total group of *Lepidobatrachus*. We recognize all the autapomorphies discussed by Nicoli (2015), and we corroborate its phylogenetic allocation and its status as an extinct species by the addition of two autapomorphies: nasal partially covered by exostosis (character 2-1), and post-temporal fenestra absent (character 66-0).

Ceratophrys. Our analysis presents Ceratophrys including four extinct species known exclusively from fossils, and two fossil representatives of extant species. The genus is supported by six synapomorphies. We recovered the species groups proposed by J. D. Lynch (1982). In our topology, the C. cornuta group is formed by C. calcarata, C. cornuta and C. stolzmanni. The C. aurita group is formed by C. ameghinorum, C. aurita, C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6, C. cranwelli, C. ensenadensis, C. joazeirensis, C. ornata and Ceratophrys sagani. The relationships obtained within the C. aurita group are unique compared to others available in the literature (i.e. J. D. Lynch 1982; Peri 1994; Wild 1997; Vieira 2012; Faivovich et al. 2014; Gómez & Turazzini 2021). However, they agree with previous analyses (i.e. J. D. Lynch 1982; Peri 1994) in the closer relationship between C. aurita and C. ornata compared to C. cranwelli.

Ceratophrys ameghinorum was recovered as part of the C. aurita group. The specimen was first described by Rovereto (1914) and assigned to C. prisca. Rovereto (1914) classified four additional specimens as C. prisca var. subcornuta, C. prisca var. intermedia, C. prisca var. gigantea and C. prisca plesiotype. These specimens classified by Rovereto (1914) were re-assessed by Fernicola (2001) and described as a new species known only from fossils, C. ameghinorum, in honor of Carlos and Florentino Ameghino. We recognize all of Fernicola's (2001) autapomorphies. Ceratophrys ameghinorum was found as sister to the crown clade formed by C. aurita, C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6 and Ceratophrys sagani (4 Bremer: 79% jackknife), with five supporting synapomorphies: the presence of a lateral crest on squamosal and maxilla (character 18-1); presence of an oblique crest on the lateral margin of the orbit (character 19-1); presence of a supraorbital crest of the squamosal (character 20-1); otic plate of squamosal extends beyond the occipital condyles (character 25-2); and presence of the lateral plate of the squamosal (character 26-1). Gómez & Turazzini (2021) recovered a partially congruent relationship between C. ameghinorum and C. aurita. Nonetheless, given the polytomic nature of Gómez & Turazzini (2021)'s results, a strict comparison is not possible.

Ceratophrys cornuta (Linneaus, 1758) was the first species recognized in the genus, followed by C. aurita (Raddi, 1823), a new species presenting a dorsal shield, and C. megastoma (Spix, 1824) in which the dorsal shield is absent. Günther (1858) described the morphology of C. cornuta, and commented that C. cornuta specimens present a bony dorsal shield, while C. megastoma does not. He also stated that C. megastoma does not possess an interorbital crest. The descriptions suggest that Günther (1858) misidentified C. aurita as C. cornuta, and that C. megastoma is a synonym of C. cornuta. Günther (1859) described two fossil specimens of Ceratophrys cornuta (NHMUK PV OR18895/6) from Lagoa Santa, Minas Gerais, Brazil, but once more the characters described match those of C. aurita. Báez & Gasparini (1977) referred to C. cornuta fossil specimens from Lagoa Santa of Günther (1859) as C. aurita, without explanation. Faivovich et al. (2014) and Nicoli (2019) commented on the taxonomic rectification of C. cornuta NHMUK PV OR18895/6, addressing these fossils as closely related to the C. aurita-C. joazeirensis clade. Barcelos et al. (2020) proposed that these specimens are fossil representatives of C. aurita, and this status was later corroborated (Gómez & Turazzini 2021). We recovered the fossil C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6 nested within the C. aurita clade, bearing diagnostic characters of C. aurita, and no autapomorphies. Thus, the fossil specimens could not be distinguished from *C. aurita*, as they share the same characters as *C. aurita* extant species.

Ceratophrys sagani was described in Barcelos *et al.* (2020) and hypothesized as closely related to the *C. aurita–C. joazeirensis* clade. We recovered *C. sagani* in a polytomy with *C. aurita* and *C. aurita* NHMUK PV OR18895/6, supported by the presence of: anterior portion of the nasals widened (character 7-1); squamosal with marked depressions between crests (character 21-1); and oblique crest on the lateral margin of the orbit, and the oblong-shaped choanae (character 72-1). We corroborate the species status of the extinct *C. sagani*, based on the following autapomorphies: concave epiotic eminences in the posterior view of the otoccipital (character 50-1); and vomer and sphenethmoid suture fenestrated (character 74-2).

Ceratophrvs ensenadensis was described by Rusconi (1932) using four fossil specimens: three from the Frederico Hennig private collection (i.e. no. 480, no. 481, and one specimen not numbered), and one specimen from Museo de Ciencias Naturales de La Plata, Argentina, not numbered and identified as 'Ceratophrys ? ornata' at the time. The species was synonymized to C. ornata (Báez & Gasparini 1977). The holotype (no. 480) was proposed by Sanchíz (1998) and Nicoli (2014, 2019) as species inquirenda (species of doubtful identity). We searched for one specimen in the Museo de La Plata unsuccessfully. Luckily, specimens no. 480 (currently PVL 699-skull) and no. 481 (currently PVL 767vertebral column) were discovered in the collection of the Museo del Instituto Miguel Lillo, Tucumán, Argentina. Ceratophrys ensenadensis was proposed as Ceratophrys sp. by Nicoli (2019), and later synonymized with C. ornata (Gómez & Turazzini 2021). Our analysis presents C. ensenadensis as sister to C. ameghinorum plus C. aurita, C. sagani and C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6. Ceratophrys ensenadensis is considered here a valid species, based on the presence of one autapomorphy: vomer with one vomerine tooth (character 34-1).

We recovered *C. cranwelli* as sister to *C. ensenaden*sis plus *C. ameghinorum* and the polytomy composed of *C. aurita*, *C. aurita* NHMUK PV OR18895/6 and *C.* sagani. Peri (1993a) could not find osteological differences between *C. cranwelli* and *C. ornata*, except for the apophyses of the footplate of the columella. Later topologies are also incongruent to ours: *C. cranwelli* was recovered as sister to the clade *C. aurita* plus *C.* ornata (Peri 1994), as sister to the clade *C. aurita* plus *C. calcarata* and *C. cornuta* (Wild 1997), as sister to *C.* ornata (Faivovich et al. 2014), and as sister to the *C.* ornata group (Gómez & Turazzini 2021). Ceratophrys joazeirensis was presented as sister to both C. ornata (Mercadal 1986) and C. aurita (Faivovich et al. 2014). We recovered C. joazeirensis as sister to C. ameghinorum, C. aurita, C. sagani and C. aurita NHMUK PV OR18895/6. The species status of C. joazeirensis was doubted by Nicoli (2019), suggesting C. aurita and C. joazeirensis as synonyms, but recent works argue for its validity (e.g. Gómez & Turazzini 2021). We present four supporting autapomorphies for this species: squamosal and maxilla wide (character 17-1); vomer with thread-like postchoanal process (36-1); medial portion of postchoanal process angled posteriorly (38-2); and vomer and sphenethmoid suture forming a concavity (74-1).

The *C. cornuta* group is composed of *C. stolzmanni* as sister to the clade *C. calcarata* plus *C. cornuta* (Bremer = 3), congruent to those of Faivovich *et al.* (2014) and Gómez & Turazzini (2021), but incongruent with Peri (1994) and Vieira (2012), both of which recovered *C. stozmanni* as sister to all *Ceratophrys* species.

Ceratophrys rusconii was described by Agnolin (2005). That author considered the species closely related to C. ornata and C. cranwelli. The specimen was assigned as species inquirenda (species of doubtful identity) and proposed as *Ceratophrvs* sp. (Nicoli 2019). Gómez & Turazzini (2021) recovered it as a fossil representative of C. ornata. Our results (Fig. 1) recovered C. rusconii as sister to all other Ceratophrys species (Bremer = 5; 80% jackknife). We justify this positioning of C. rusconii due to the fragmentary nature of this specimen, resulting in many missing values (37% of characters scored as missing) and the presence of a set of plesiomorphic traits (e.g. absence of oblique, supraorbital and lateral crests on the squamosal and maxilla, absence of depressions on the squamosal). There were no autapomorphies for this terminal, even though we included in our matrix the ones presented by Agnolin (2005). This result corroborates Nicoli's (2019) suggestion that the autapomorphic traits proposed for C. rusconii may be variation and not sufficient to allow species determination. Therefore, the species status of Ceratophrys rusconii remains unclear.

Ceratophrys sp. MNHN UN from Bolivia was briefly described by Vergnaud-Grazzini (1968) and was recently proposed as *Ceratophrys* sp. (Nicoli 2019). *Ceratophrys* sp. MNHN UN was recovered as sister to all *Ceratophrys* in the analysis of Gómez & Turazzini (2021). We could not identify an unambiguous phylogenetic positioning of *Ceratophrys* sp. MNHN UN. The specimen was allocated in a polytomy with *C. aurita* and *C. cornuta* groups, in which half of the most parsimonious trees show that *Ceratophrys* sp. MNHN UN is

more closely related to the *C. aurita* group, and the other half shows that *Ceratophrys* sp. MNHN UN is more closely related to the *C. cornuta* group. A further re-assessment of *Ceratophrys* sp. MNHN UN is necessary to understand its phylogenetic position.

Casamiguela (1963) described Wawelia gerholdi, from the Miocene of 'Lif Mahuida', Río Negro, Argentina, as a new species of Ceratophryidae. The holotype was revised by Báez & Peri (1990) and its phylogenetic affinities were doubted. Nicoli et al. (2016) revised the character coding for the holotype of Wawelia gerholdi and changed four character states. Nicoli et al. (2016) considered Wawelia to be a junior synonym of *Calvptocephalella*, proposing it as Calyptocephalella gerholdi comb. nov. Wawelia gerholdi was recovered here as a non-ceratophrvid, but we cannot discuss its position further as we recovered Calyptocephalellidae as paraphyletic. We suggest additional efforts on the systematics of Wawelia through a broader approach focusing on Calvptocephalellidae to address the question.

Báez & Peri (1989) described *Baurubatrachus pricei* from the Late Cretaceous of Peirópolis, Bauru Group, Minas Gerais, Brazil, as related to Ceratophryidae. The phylogenetic affinity of *Ba. pricei* was doubted and this species was recovered outside Ceratophryidae (Nicoli *et al.* 2016). Subsequently, complete preparation of the holotype revealed new information and the specimen was revised. *Baurubatrachus pricei* was recovered within Calyptocephallidae (Báez & Gómez 2018). We present *Ba. pricei* outside Ceratophryidae, sister to *Beelzebufo ampinga*, supported by: posterior portion of otic plate of the squamosal extending beyond the level of the occipital condyles (character 25-2); and the quadrate located well posterior to the occipital condyles (character 67-3).

S. E. Evans et al. (2008) described the extinct species Beelzebufo ampinga from the Late Cretaceous of the Mahajanga Basin, Madagascar, and allocated it within Ceratophryidae, as sister to Ceratophrys. S. E. Evans et al. (2014) did a more extensive description of fragmentary elements and corroborated the phylogenetic positioning of Beelzebufo ampinga within Ceratophryidae. More recently, the character coding and phylogenetic positioning of Be. ampinga has been doubted (Ruane et al. 2011; Agnolin 2012; Faivovich et al. 2014) and it also falls within Calyptocephalellidae (Agnolin 2012). Ruane et al. (2011) demonstrated that the temporal likelihood of an evolutionary relationship of Be. ampinga with Ceratophryidae is low, and this misplaced fossil could influence divergence-time estimations in phylogenies. Báez & Gómez (2018) recovered Beelzebufo as a non-Ceratophryidae. We coded Be.

ampinga in our analysis and the species was allocated together with Baurubatrachus as sister to Ceratophrvidae. This phylogenetic relationship is supported by the following synapomorphies: the existence of a contact between the frontoparietal and squamosal (character 15-1); width of the squamosal otic ramus narrower than half frontoparietal width at the level of the crista parotic a (character 24-1); parasphenoid alae in contact with the medial ramus of the pterygoid (character 28-1): transverse process of vertebra III much larger than the width of the corresponding neural arch (character 85-2); and transverse process of vertebra IV much larger than the width of the corresponding neural arch (character 88-2).

In our analysis, Calyptocephalellidae was recovered as paraphyletic, with Telmatobufo and Wawelia not closely related, and Baurubatrachus and Beelzebufo as sister to Ceratophryidae. By contrast, Ceratophryidae and Calyptocephalellidae were recovered as sister clades in some analyses based on morphological characters (e.g. Báez et al. 2009; S. E. Evans et al. 2014). This sister relationship was also independently recovered in analyses considering only extant species (e.g. Wiens *et al.* 2005). The sister relationship between Ceratophryidae and Calyptocephalellidae, and placement of Baurubatrachus and Beelzebufo as members of Calyptocephalellidae, are uncertain and demand efforts to include more characters and terminals in new analyses as well as better knowledge on the comparative anatomy of extant members of these families.

Comparison with Gomez & Turazzini's (2021) phylogeny

Because the Gómez & Turazzini (2021) analysis is the most recent one to include a broad sample of extant and extinct species of ceratophryids, we made careful comparisons among characters and character codifications mainly to identify where our analyses agree and to understand disagreements. The matrix of Gómez & Turazzini (2021) consists of 256 characters, but there are 36 uninformative ones, with all terminals scored as the same state. Among those that vary, we recognized duplicate characters that describe essentially the same structure, but using different nomenclature (e.g. characters 9 and 167: otic plate/lamella alaris; and characters 73 and 223: parahyoid/dorsal dermal ossification). We disagree with other character statements that mix neomorphic and transformational features (e.g. characters 114 and 149), and with the coding of others (e.g. characters 26, 73, 80, 99, 143). Furthermore, we also had difficulty recognizing some characters not accompanied by comments or illustrations (e.g. characters 36 and 158). Some incongruences between our results may be a

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consequence of these differences in coding decisions. Both our study and that of Gómez & Turazzini (2021) present leading phylogenies to propose explanatory hypotheses for the evolution of ceratophryids including fossils. Despite our efforts, we perceive that the ontogeny and osteology of some species (e.g. *C. joazeirensis*, *C. stolzmmanni* and *C. testudo*) remain remarkably poorly known. This certainly influences the character proposition and coding decisions in analyses and should be addressed in future studies.

Morphological homoplasies

One of the most conspicuous characters in the ceratophryid skull is the differing degree of hyperossification. Sets of cranial bones are known to exhibit modular evolution (Bardua et al. 2020) and the expression of hyperossification leads to severe modifications in the skull modules, such as bony articulation between the squamosal and maxilla, and a suspensorium with a posteriorly shifted jaw joint (Fabrezi et al. 2016; Paluh et al. 2020). These characteristics substantially increase the angle of the mouth opening and the bite force, making frogs with hyperossified skulls capable of feeding on large vertebrate prey (Trueb 1973; Lappin et al. 2017; Fabrezi et al. 2019; Paluh et al. 2020). It is common for phylogenetic analyses that include characters related to hyperossification to present homoplasies and result in artificial groupings (Báez & Gómez 2018; Paluh et al. 2020). With this in mind, we constructed the character statements considering all of the knowledge gathered for the relationship between homologous elements related to hyperossification, and focused on characters and character states approaching only phylogenetic-level variation. We prevented the influence of tokogenetic and ontogenetic variations using information on ceratophrvid ontogeny and osteology (e.g. Peri 1994; Wild 1997; Fabrezi 2006), and raising the number of specimens analysed per terminal. Hyperossification influences directly the coding of 18 characters in our phylogeny (i.e. characters 1-4, 10, 17-22, 39, 41, 56, 65, 67, 69 and 70). Polymorphic characters were coded as missing.

The expression of a hyperossified phenotype occurs independently more than 25 times in extant anuran lineages, being recorded in Pelobatidae and Pipidae (three times), Ranoidea (eight times), Hyloidea (18 times) and Calyptocephalellidae (once) (Paluh *et al.* 2020). *Baurubatrachus pricei*, *Beelzebufo ampinga* and *Wawelia gerholdi* are hyperossified extinct species, all formerly proposed as related to Ceratophryidae. Phylogenies with broader scopes allowed the revision of those fossils, presenting them as related to other hyperossified taxa (e.g. Nicoli *et al.* 2016; Báez & Gómez 2018).

Trueb (1973) studied hyperossification in frogs and recognized three major dermostosis patterns in Anura, i.e. exostosis, co-ossification and casquing. Paluh et al. (2020) reconstructed the evolutionary history of cranial hyperossification in Anura and tested the influence of behaviour and microhabitat in the expression of hyperossification. Ceratophryid characters influenced by hyperossification were approached in detail through an ontogenetic perspective (e.g. Wild 1997). The non-pedicellated fang-like teeth phenotype was generated by two independent ontogenetic trajectories, i.e. paedomorphic and peramorphic (producing hyperossification) developmental patterns (Fabrezi 2001). Furthermore, the interpretation of the enlargement of the jaws in Ceratophrvidae was interpreted to be caused by peramorphosis/hyperossification (Fabrezi 2006; Paluh et al. 2020). Exostosis occurs widely in Ceratophrys, and our topology suggests that an extreme phenotype evolved in two independent lineages (crown clade of C. aurita group, and C. cornuta group). Representatives of those two clades that currently occupy humid environments (e.g. C. aurita and C. cornuta) exhibit a set of crests on the maxilla and squamosal. It is not possible to discuss whether those crests were inherited from an ancestor that occupied similar environments or a semi-arid palaeoenvironment. Additionally, those crests could be maintained by other pressures as well (e.g. variation in the type of prey, phragmotic behaviour, evapotranspiration, or temperature control).

In Ceratophrys, the degree of hyperossification is so advanced that the sutures between bones are obliterated, forming bony ankyloses, and resulting in a single akinetic skull unit (Peri 1994; Wild 1997). This ankylosis partially influences the recognition and coding of some character states (e.g. character 10, shape of the anterior edge of the frontoparietal). However, the use of µCT scanning enables better visualization of the bone suture morphology in some specimens (see comment in Supplemental Material 1). The dermal ornamentation pattern on the surfaces of the skull bones was tentatively used in comparative studies (e.g. Rusconi 1932; Scanferla & Agnolin 2015) and in a phylogeny (Gómez & Turazzini 2021, character 143) to infer the relationship of fossil species with extant species of Ceratophryidae. Wild (1997) observed that the pitted ornamentation in C. cranwelli and C. ornata does not vary with size (age). However, that characteristic was observed to be tokogenetically and ontogenetically variable in C. aurita and Lepidobatrachus (Peri 1994; Wild 1997). The potential phylogenetic information of this character has been doubted (Nicoli 2017, 2019).

Finally, the phylogenetic analysis of J. D. Lynch (1982) presented the otic plate shape as a character that

differentiates the species of the C. aurita group (subquadrate) from those of the C. cornuta group (lanceolate), but its convergent nature was never discussed. Our topology indicates that otic plate shape has evolved two times independently. The sub-quadrate otic plate convergently occurs in C. stolzmanni (C. cornuta group), and the lanceolate otic plate convergently occurs in C. ameghinorum (C. aurita group), independently. However, close observation reveals that the lanceolate otic plate in C. ameghinorum is wide and angled dorsally, whereas in species of the C. cornuta group (i.e. C. cornuta and C. calcarata) it is acute and laterally directed. Additionally, the sub-quadrate otic plate in C. stolzmanni is more acute, while in species of the C. aurita group the sub-quadrate otic plate is wide. Our topology implies that the sub-quadrate otic plate is the plesiomorphic character state and a reversion occurred in C. stolzmanni.

Character optimization: ploidy and dorsal shield

Polyploidy can affect evolutionary patterns in a complex way, through the emergence of new interaction pathways for gene expression as a modification from an ancestral pattern (Wertheim et al. 2013). Furthermore, genetic variability generated by polyploidy could increase abiotic stress tolerance (Novikova et al. 2020). The occurrence of polyploidy among amphibians has been associated with the temperature stress to which zygotes are potentially exposed (Mable et al. 2011). Once polyploidy emerged, divergent processes may lead at least one of the original genes to perform slightly different functions (M. Lynch 2004), affecting both protein sequences and their regulatory control. Due to this variability, genome duplications can substantially amplify the genetic variation of a species. Our results suggest that octaploidy arose in the most speciose and widely distributed clade of Ceratophryidae, the C. aurita group (see Barcelos et al. 2020 for a map with the species distribution). However, more detailed studies are necessary to understand the particular case of ceratophryid frogs.

Ceratophrys aurita, *C. joazeirensis* and *C. ornata*, of the *C. aurita* group, are known to be octaploid (Beçak *et al.* 1967; Bogart 1967; Schmid *et al.* 1985; Soares-Scott *et al.* 1988; Vieira *et al.* 2006). All other ceratophryids are known or inferred to be diploids (Bogart 1967; Morescalchi 1967; Barrio & Rinaldi de Chieri 1970; Mercadal 1981). Our topology suggests that the paradigm of diploid-octaploid sister species for *C. cranwelli–C. ornata* (J. D. Lynch 1982; Faivovich *et al.* 2014) is not recovered when the extinct species are put together in the analysis. Nonetheless, the reversion from a polyploid to a diploid state in *C. cranwelli*, as suggested by Faivovich *et al.* (2014), is not recovered here. Our results indicate a transition from a diploid to an octaploid phenotype, when *C. ornata* is closely related to the remaining species of the *C. aurita* group (Fig. 2).

Reumer & Thiebaud (1987) developed a technique to infer the ploidy level based on the measurement of osteocyte lacunae, which was later used to infer the ploidy of fossil specimens related to Ceratophrys (Mercadal de Barrio & Barrio 2002). However, Mercadal de Barrio & Barrio (2002) assigned the taxonomic identity of several fossil specimens without explanation. They proposed that the MACN 14325 fossil specimen presented 4n (2n = 4x) polyploidy and thus considered it to represent Ceratophrys prisca var. subcornuta, whereas MACN 14322 was interpreted as diploid and assigned to Ceratophrys sp. However, these two fossil fragments, MACN 14322 (maxilla, squamosal and quadrate fragments) and MACN 14325 (other skull bones), in fact represent a single restored skull. Because the species represented by those glued fragments is uncertain, we excluded the inferred ploidy from Mercadal de Barrio & Barrio (2002) from our discussion. Despite the challenges of testing the origin and frequency of polyploidization events along the Ceratophrys lineage (Vieira et al. 2006; B. J. Evans et al. 2012), we suggest that there was a complex evolutionary history of polyploidization in Ceratophrys, encompassing unknown diploid extinct species that contributed to the genomes of extant octaploid species (i.e. C. aurita, C. joazeirensis and C. ornata). Furthermore, the possibility of a missing tetraploid species closely related to the C. aurita group is not ruled out, as the expected transition to a genome duplication would be diploid to a tetraploid, and then to an octaploid. The origin of polyploidy in Ceratophryidae, through allopolyploidy, autopolyploidy or both, remains undetermined (Schmid et al. 2015). Cytogenetic studies encompassing the inclusion of several specimens of diploid and octaploid species of Ceratophrys are needed to further understand the polyploidization process in this group of frogs (Vieira et al. 2006).

The dorsal shields of ceratophryids are formed by bony plates resting on the neural spines of the presacral vertebrae (Fabrezi 2006). The dorsal shield is present in extant species of the *C. aurita* group (i.e. *C. aurita*, *C. cranwelli*, *C. joazeirensis* and *C. ornata*), *L. asper* and *L. llanensis*, and is absent in *Chacophrys pierottii* and *L. laevis*, and in the *C. cornuta* group (Peri 1994; Wild 1997). Dorsal shields in *L. asper* and *L. llanensis* are formed by one or two plates in the vertebral column, that are located in a median position (Peri 1994), and differentiate at premetamorphic larval stages – 45 and 37, respectively (Quinzio & Fabrezi 2012). In the C. aurita group, there are more than three plates located in the vertebral column medially, but also extending laterally, and data from C. cranwelli indicate the number of plates can vary with age (Peri 1994; Wild 1997; Quinzio & Fabrezi 2012). In the C. aurita group, differentiation occurs after metamorphosis (Ouinzio & Fabrezi 2012). In C. aurita, these plates are ankylosed to the neural spines of vertebrae, whereas in other species, the plates are attached to the vertebrae by ligaments (Peri 1994; Wild 1997; Fabrezi 2006). The differences observed in the dorsal shield morphology and formation are congruent with the results of our character optimization, suggesting this character arose twice, independently, in Lepidobatrachus and the C. aurita group. It is not clear what environmental pressures led to the expression and fixation of this homoplastic characteristic in extinct (e.g. C. ameghinorum and C. ensenadensis) and extant species of Ceratophrvs and Lepidobatrachus. Our results on ploidy and dorsal shield optimization, and the placement of new fossils within the C. aurita group, point to a complex evolutionary history. Future analyses on ancestral state reconstructions based on trees with branch length information may shed light on this issue.

The age of the ceratophryid fossils and divergence-time estimates

Divergence-time analyses based on genetic data are severely influenced by fossils as calibration points (Near et al. 2005). The erroneous phylogenetic position of a fossil or the assignation of a misleading geological age of fossil-bearing rocks can lead to inaccurate divergence time estimates (Lee 1999; Benton & Avala 2003; Conrov & van Tuinen 2003). Also, the inclusion of fossils in phylogenetic analyses has been strongly recommended to allow an accurate inference of the relationship of those fossils with other taxa and prevent misleading calibration points (Parham et al. 2012; Sterli et al. 2013). Beelzebufo ampinga and Baurubatrachus pricei were misguidedly used as calibration points for Ceratophryidae, and the indepth study made by Báez & Gómez (2018) revealed that these fossils are not in fact related to Ceratophryidae. The time of origin and diversification of Ceratophrvidae (both the stem and crown groups) are still under debate. There are hypotheses for the origin of the crown group during the early Miocene (Roelants et al. 2007; Wiens 2007; Pyron 2014; Feng et al. 2017; Hutter et al. 2017), middle Miocene (Ruane et al. 2011; Frazão et al. 2015; Hime et al. 2020), late Oligocene (Roelants et al. 2011; Brusquetti et al. 2018), late Eocene (Heinicke et al. 2009) and early Eocene (Jetz & Pyron 2018).

The availability of multiple fossils as calibration points provides variance in the age estimate for a given clade and generates confidence intervals on molecular age estimates (Smith & Peterson 2002; Pardo et al. 2020). The only fossil of the crown group of Ceratophryidae recently used as a calibration point was Lepidobatrachus australis for Lepidobatrachus (Brusquetti et al. 2018). Here, we placed five fossil specimens in ceratophrvid phylogeny and, based on current knowledge (Fernicola 2001; Nicoli 2015; Nicoli et al. 2017; Gómez & Turazzini 2021), present calibrations for three nodes of the family. Ceratophrvs sp. MD-CH-06-165 (late Miocene 9.02-8.7 Ma; Zárate et al. 2007) is known as the most ancient record of Ceratophryidae and Ceratophrys. It was included in a phylogenetic analysis (Gómez & Turazzini 2021) and recovered in a polytomy within Ceratophrys. Lepidobatrachus australis (late Miocene–early Pliocene, ~7.25–3.6 Ma; Cione et al. 2007) is the most ancient representative of Lepidobatrachus, indicating that Ceratophrys and Lepidobatrachus were already well differentiated from each other during the late Miocene. Lepidobatrachus australis MMH 85-12-2a is recovered within Lepidobatrachus in our analysis; this allocation is congruent with comparative studies (Tomassini et al. 2011; Nicoli 2015) and the phylogeny of Gómez & Turazzini (2021). Following this reasoning, we could conjecture that the origin of Ceratophryidae may be older than expected, as Chacophrvs is the earliest lineage that diverged in the family. However, the absence of a fossil representative of Chacophrys prevents further discussion of this topic. Ceratophrys ameghinorum MACN 14318 is the earliest record of a representative of the C. aurita group. The presence of a highly differentiated species such as C. ameghinorum in sediments of the upper Miocene-lower Pliocene (~6.8-4 Ma; Cione et al. 2007) suggests the split between the C. aurita and C. cornuta groups happened much earlier. The diversification pace of the ceratophryid lineage is not well established, and the inclusion of those fossils as calibration points would increase the accuracy of phylogenetic inferences and divergence-time estimates.

Conclusions

Our results support a monophyletic Ceratophryidae, with *Chacophrys* as sister to the clade *Ceratophrys* plus *Lepidobatrachus*. The relationships of Ceratophryidae to other anuran families remain unclear. The fossils once included in Ceratophryidae – *Wawelia, Baurubatrachus* and *Beelzebufo* – are recovered outside the family, but the last two are closely related to ceratophryids. The *C. cornuta* and *C. aurita* groups are valid; the *C. aurita* group is the most speciose, comprising most of the

fossil species described in Ceratophryidae so far. Despite the numerous studies on diverse aspects of ceratophryid evolution, there is much to be done on character variation, especially those related to hyperossification, polyploidy and polymorphisms including extant and fossil specimens.

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