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On the evolution of shape and size divergence in *Nebria* (*Nebriola*) ground beetles (Coleoptera, Carabidae)

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Ground beetles include many species of rather recent evolutionary origin that are extremely similar in their external morphology. We used geometric morphometrics to quantify the relative degree of morphological divergence in three closely related polytypic alpine species of the genus Nebria, subgenus Nebriola (Nebria cordicollis, N. laticollis and N. fontinalis). To examine evolutionary patterns, we adopted a hierarchical design, using both shape and size to discriminate between species, subspecies within species, and populations within subspecies. A semilandmark-based approach was used to describe the pronotum, elytron, and median lobe of the aedeagus. The three closely related species diverged significantly in shape and size. There were clear inter-specific differences in the shape of external traits (elytron and pronotum) and of the median lobe of the aedeagus. Furthermore, species also diverged in body size, and in the relative size of traits (evaluated by computation of their static allometries). Shape differences among subspecies and populations were more limited. However, the three subspecies of N. cordicollis considered, N. c. cordicollis, N. c. kochi and N. c. winkleri, showed three distinct body sizes and differences in relative size of the elytron. A few size differences were also evident between distinct populations. These results seem to suggest that size may diverge more rapidly than shape in Nebriola ground beetles. Both at the species and subspecies level, body size order was not reflected in the relative size order, indicating that body size and relative size of traits do not necessarily evolve in concert.

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Key words: Geometric morphometrics, Inter and intraspecific differences, Evolutionary patterns, Ground beetles, Carabidae, subgenus *Nebriola*.

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Introduction

43	Morphological traits are traditionally used to assess taxonomic differences and
44	phylogenetic relationships among arthropods. Morphology may also be useful for the
45	study patterns of divergence among species, subspecies and populations. Within this
46	framework, speciose groups that include polytypic species may be of particular interest.
47	These groups are usually of recent origin, with species and subspecies so similar in their
48	external morphology that molecular analyses are often used to test the validity of
49	taxonomic entities, notably those that have been established on the grounds of
50	traditional qualitative, morphological analyses. Numerous examples are available
51	among the beetles (Coleoptera).
52	Ground beetles (Carabidae) include speciose groups and/or polytypic species whose
53	evolutionary differentiation took place during or after the Quaternary ice ages. The
54	Nebria gregaria group on the Queen Charlotte Islands (Alaska) represents a notable
55	example of rapid evolution. Composed of five morphologically similar species, it is
56	considered to be a taxon for which the repeated isolation of populations in glacial
57	refugia has played an important role in the promotion of speciation (Kavanaugh, 1992).
58	However, phylogenetic analyses based on molecular data, obtained from five regions of
59	mitochondrial and genomic DNA, revealed a lack of interspecific differentiation,
60	suggesting that divergences might represent local variation of a single species (Clarke et
61	al., 2001). Analogously, the results of genetic divergence within the Palaearctic species
62	Carabus auronitens (based on allozyme polymorphism) does not mirror conventional
63	subspecific taxonomy, as there are at least two subspecies (C. auronitens auronitens and
64	C. auronitens festivus, Turin et al., 2003) that are not separated genetically, and several
65	other subspecies (Deuve, 1994) that are partially contradictory (Drees et al., 2010).

66 In a number of studies, ground beetle morphology seems to be more informative 67 than genetics, and distinct morphological differences may be observed despite little 68 divergence in molecular markers. Sister species and populations of the genus *Pogonus*, 69 for example, could be differentiated using ecological characters, but were not 70 recognized by screening neutral DNA polymorphisms (Dhuyvetter et al., 2007). 71 Analogously, Carabus arrowianus exhibits marked morphological diversity among 72 geographical populations in body and genital sizes, and this was found to be supported 73 by significant but not large genetic divergences (Nagata et al., 2009). 74 Several morphometric studies have shown how rapidly changes in body size and 75 shape can evolve. Thus inter- and intraspecific divergences may readily arise. Genitalia, 76 for example, are considered to be among the fastest evolving morphological traits in 77 arthropods (Eberhard, 2010, 2011; Pizzo et al., 2006a, 2006b, 2008). Rapid 78 diversification of male genitalia was described in ground beetles of the genus Carabus 79 subgenus Ohomopterus (Sasabe et al., 2007, Takami & Sota, 2007), which also 80 exemplifies one of the most outstanding cases of mechanical isolation (Sota & Kubota, 81 1998). Knowledge of the genetic architecture underlying genital evolution is still 82 limited. Recent molecular analyses (genetic linkage maps and analyses of quantitative 83 trait loci) have shown that the interspecific difference in the genital morphologies (three 84 male copulatory structures and two traits derived from female vaginal appendices) were 85 determined by a relatively small number of genes with marked phenotypic effects 86 (Sasabe et al., 2007, 2010). 87 Although the relevance of traditional morphological studies to the reconstruction of 88 evolutionary divergence patterns cannot be dismissed, landmark-based geometric 89 morphometrics is now able to score shape and size changes often undetectable by

90 traditional morphological studies and even classical morphometric approaches 91 (Bookstein, 1991; Rohlf & Marcus, 1993; Marcus et al., 1996; Adams et al., 2004; 92 Slice, 2007; Mitteroecker & Gunz, 2009). Using this technique, morphological traits can 93 be studied to reveal patterns of divergence at different spatio-temporal scales, 94 highlighting both major differences between well-differentiated species and minor 95 differences arising during the first steps of evolutionary divergence. 96 In ground beetles, geometric morphometrics has been used to discover cryptic 97 species (Faille et al., 2007, Dujardin et al., 2010) and to assess differentiation at a 98 micro-geographical scale within Carabus auronitens and C. nemoralis (Alibert et al., 99 2001). The technique has also been successfully applied to genetic analyses of the short-100 range species Carabus solieri, the phylogeographic pattern of which (Garnier et al., 101 2004) was then a posteriori successfully confirmed by geometric morphometrics 102 analyses based on male genitalia (Garnier et al., 2005, 2006). 103 The ground beetle subgenus *Nebriola* Daniel, 1903 (genus *Nebria* Latreille, 1802), 104 which encompasses several stenoecious high altitude species prevalently distributed in 105 the Western Alps (Marazzi, 2005), represents an excellent opportunity for testing the 106 potential of geometric morphometrics to unveil inter- and intra-specific evolutionary 107 divergence patterns. Six species are traditionally ascribed to the subgenus *Nebriola*: 108 Nebria cordicollis Chaudoir, 1837, N. fontinalis Daniel & Daniel, 1890, N. lariollei 109 Germiny, 1865, N. laticollis Dejean, 1826, N. morula Daniel & Daniel, 1891 and N. 110 pictiventris Fauvel, 1888. Two other species have been recently described: Nebria 111 praegensis Huber & Molenda, 2004, from the German Black Forest (although it was 112 considered as a subspecies of cordicollis by Ledoux & Roux, 2005) and Nebria 113 gosteliae Huber, Szallies, Baur & Giachino, 2010, from the Italian Pennine Alps.

According to traditional classification criteria, differences between these *Nebriola* taxa involve morphological traits, e.g. the shape of pronotum, elytron, median lobe of the aedeagus, and chaetotaxy (Ledoux & Roux, 2005). Since the habitus is rather constant throughout the subgenus, traditional qualitative morphology is limited in recognizing species and, above all, subspecies. This has caused great uncertainty in establishing the taxonomic rank to be attributed to the taxa described so far (Bari, 1971; Bisio, 1998). Genetic sequences obtained from mitochondrial DNA analyses, although suggestive that several of the species listed above may represent phylogenetically separate entities, failed to give conclusive results about phylogenetic relationships at both subspecies and species levels (Huber *et al.*, 2010).

In this paper we focused on three closely related polytypic species belonging to subgenus *Nebriola*, namely *Nebria cordicollis*, *N. laticollis* and *N. fontinalis*. We 0used geometric morphometrics to quantify the relative degree of morphological divergence and, indirectly, to assess the validity of entities established on the basis of traditional morphological studies. To reveal evolutionary patterns at different spatio-temporal scales, we adopted a hierarchical design, using both shape and size, to discriminate between taxonomic entities at three levels: species, subspecies within species, and populations within subspecies.

Although the paper is focused on divergence patterns of shape and size *per se*, we also test hypotheses explaining the rapid evolution of differences between pairs of originally allopatric sister taxa when they meet (the phenomenon of reinforcement).

Material and methods

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138 The three species considered are morphologically quite similar. *Nebria laticollis* shows 139 almost parallel elytra and has a more curved median lobe of the aedeagus, whereas N. 140 cordicollis and N. fontinalis have the elytra progressively enlarged posteriorly, and 141 moderately curved median lobes. These last two are currently differentiated by the 142 shape of labial palps and setation of the hind legs and last ventrites (Ledoux & Roux 143 2005). They are characterized by similar but distinct ecological habits. *Nebria* 144 cordicollis is a petrophilous species dwelling in the alpine belt from 2100–3000 m a.s.l., 145 where it may be found around snow patches, moraines and other stony habitats (Bisio, 146 1998). Nebria fontinalis dwells in cold spring-waters (from +1 to -1°C) and can be 147 found from 1460–2700 m (Focarile & Casale, 1978), while Nebria laticollis has similar 148 ecological habits, being found in cold springs and streamlets at 1500–2500 m (Ledoux 149 & Roux, 2005). 150 The chorology of these species has been thoroughly investigated over the last 30 151 years. According to Ledoux & Roux (2005), the present taxonomic status of the three 152 species may be summarized as follows: Nebria laticollis includes two subspecies from 153 the French and Western Italian Alps; Nebria fontinalis includes two subspecies from the 154 Swiss and Italian central Alps; and *Nebria cordicollis* includes nine subspecies from the 155 Swiss and Italian Central Alps and Southwestern Germany (Black Forest). A tenth 156 subspecies, N. cordicollis winkleri, described by Bari (1971), is considered by Casale & 157 Vigna Taglianti (1993) and Vigna Taglianti (2005) to be strictly endemic to Monte 158 Camino, Piedmont. 159 Subspecies-level analyses took into account three subspecies of *N. cordicollis*, 160 namely N. c. cordicollis, N. c, kochi and N. c. winkleri. Finally, population-level

161 analyses focused on three populations of N. c. cordicollis and N. c. kochi separately. 162 The populations were tentatively identified on the basis of the geographic location (N. c. 163 cordicollis collected in Anzasca Valley, Ayas Valley and Gressoney Valley, and N. c. 164 kochi collected in Orco Valley, Lanzo Valley and Soana Valley). Collection localities 165 are shown in Fig. 1. 166 Most of the specimens used in the analyses were obtained from northern Italy 167 (Aosta Valley, Piedmont and Lombardy) and Switzerland, or borrowed from museums 168 and private collectors (see acknowledgements). Part of the material was collected in the 169 field during the summers of 2009 and 2010. Details of the number of specimens 170 considered in this hierarchical design at species, subspecies and population level are 171 given in Table 1. 172 In the laboratory, specimens were cleaned and re-hydrated with distilled water for 4 173 hours. While the right elytron and the pronotum did not require any further preparatory 174 treatment, the aedeagus was extracted, cleared in boiling KOH 5% for 1 min, and 175 mounted on a piece of translucent acetate using entomological glue. The anatomical 176 structures were then photographed, taking care to present them in the same plane. 177 Photographs of the median lobe of the aedeagus, right elytron and pronotum were taken 178 using a Leica Z16Apo stereoscopic dissecting scope (Leica Microsystems AG, Wetzlar, 179 Germany) and stored using database LAS v 2.5.0 (Leica Application Suite) for 180 measurement. The same datasets were then employed for the geometric morphometrics 181 analyses, employing Rohlf's tps series software.

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A semilandmark-based approach (Bookstein, 1989, 1991) was used to characterize the shape variation of the pronotum, right elytron and median lobe of the aedeagus. Using tpsDig 2.16 (Rohlf, 2010a), 13 points were placed on the marginal side of the median lobe of the aedeagus, 16 on the right half pronotum and 12 on the right elytron; for each structure, the configuration was chosen following the criteria of homology (Bookstein, 1991). To capture overall shape variation of the curved parts of these anatomical features, the semilandmarks method was applied, coding the points as landmarks and semilandmarks (Figs. 2-4) by tpsUtil 1.47 (Rohlf, 2010b). For the geometric morphometrics analyses, the datasets were chosen taking care that the samples sizes were larger than the number of variables (i.e., the Relative Warps). Using a Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) the effects of translation, rotation, and scale (Rohlf, 1990; Rohlf & Slice, 1990) were removed.

The Maximum Pronotum Width measures (see statistical analyses below) were taken with LAS v 2.5.0 software (Leica Application Suite).

Statistical analyses

201 Shape

To test whether the variation in shape in each dataset was small enough to have an adequate approximation of the linear tangent space to the non-linear Kendall shape space, we employed tpsSmall v1.20 (Rohlf, 2003) on each landmark configuration.

206	Generalized Procrustes Analysis (GPA) was carried on each dataset as implemented
207	in tpsRelw 1.49 (Rohlf, 2010c) for the semilandmarks data, and the aligned
208	configuration, the centroid size values, and Relative Warps scores were retained for
209	further analyses. For each anatomical feature, we drew scatterplots of the shape
210	variation within the sample summarized by the Relative Warps (abbreviated RWs)
211	(PASW Statistics 18, IBM SPSS).
212	In the semilandmarks-based approach, less than the total Relative Warps scores are
213	sufficient to reach 100% of the overall shape variation (Tocco et al., 2011). Thus, we
214	employed only the RW scores that gave 100% of overall shape variation for the
215	statistical analyses (i.e. 22 out of 28, 15 out of 20, and 18 out of 22 as for pronotum,
216	elytron and median lobe of the aedeagus, respectively), and discarded the others.
217	Canonical Variate Analysis (CVA) was performed to obtain a classification matrix
218	based on shape variation of traits (Reddy et al., 2005, Sheets et al., 2006, Gómez-
219	Robles et al., 2011) using PASW Statistics 18. In all analyses, the number of Relative
220	Warps was less than that of cases within each group (i.e. specimens, in our case).
221	Percentages of correct classifications were cross-validated through the leave-one-out
222	option, each case being classified by the functions derived from all cases other than the
223	one in question.
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225	Size
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227	Body size
228	As a proxy for body size, the Maximum Pronotal Width (MaxPW) measure was chosen
229	from those commonly used in morphometric analysis of ground beetles (Ribera et al.,

230 1999; Huber et al., 2010; Laparie et al., 2010) because its consistency, and to avoid the 231 mutual malposition of the different body parts and the subsequent measurement 232 artefacts (Garnier et al., 2005), depending also on how the measure is employed for 233 many other coleopterans (Pizzo et al., 2011, 2012). 234 Differences among groups (species, subspecies or populations) and between sexes 235 were tested by Nested ANOVA (groups*sex, sexes nested into groups), after data 236 normalization (using pronotum width). Pairwise comparisons among groups were based 237 on estimated marginal means, with Bonferroni adjustment. 238 239 Size of each anatomical trait 240 The centroid size (the square root of the sum of squared distances of a set of landmarks 241 defining the structure from the centroid, or centre of gravity) is approximately 242 uncorrelated with shape for small isotropic landmark variation (Bookstein, 1991: 243 Dryden & Mardia, 1998; Mitteroecker & Gunz, 2009), and is therefore used to estimate 244 size divergence patterns of the structures independent of shape. The centroid size values 245 of the elytron, pronotum and median lobe of the aedeagus were therefore saved as a 246 separate variable; and the ln-transformed values were used as an estimate of traits size. 247 It is well known (Stern & Emlen, 1999; Gayon, 2000; Frankino et al., 2005; 248 Shingleton et al., 2007, 2008) that the size of each anatomical trait may depend on body 249 size (allometry). To compare the size of different traits it is therefore necessary to consider their size relative to body size (i.e. the relative size of the trait). To inspect 250 251 inter- and intraspecific differences of relative size, we first computed their static 252 allometries. A preliminary inspection of scatterplots of body size (In-transformed 253 MaxPW) vs. ln-transformed centroid size values of pronotum, elytron and median lobe

of the aedeagus did not reveal any significant deviation from linearity. Thus, linear regression models were used to fit these distributions.

Levene's test was used to check the assumptions for parametric tests. To remove the effect of body size, in the ANCOVA the In-transformed MaxPW was set as a covariate when comparing the In-transformed centroid sizes within the proposed groups for each anatomical feature. We tested the homogeneity of slopes by adding a fixed factor by covariate interaction (crossed effect) to the full factorial ANCOVA. If the interactions between the covariate and the fixed factor were not significant, slopes were assumed to be equal and a regression line through each group of points, all with the same slope, was fitted. This common slope was a weighted average of the slopes of the different groups. The final test in the ANCOVA was to address the null hypothesis that all Y-intercepts of the regression lines with a common slope were the same. All analyses were conducted by PASW Statistics 18.

Results

Shape

A very good correspondence between shape and tangent space was found for all anatomical traits (slope = 0.999; correlation = 1.000), indicating that the geometrical heterogeneity of the sample was small enough to allow subsequent geometric morphometric_analyses.

Divergence between species was evident. Plots of the first two RW scores (explaining about 60% of the variance) suggested that all the considered traits were different in shape, displaying for each trait three distinct, partly overlapping clusters of

points (Fig. 5). Considering those RW values that explained more that the 5% of variation, for the pronotum five RWs accounted for about 86.53% of explained variance, for the elytron four RWs gave 83.46%, and for the medial lobe of aedeagus the five RWs gave 87.8%. In the CVA, percentages of correct classification in cross validation were high (more than 95% in most cases), especially for the median lobe of the aedeagus, which gave rise to 100% of correct predicted classifications for two groups out of three (Table 2).

Divergence between subspecies and populations was much less evident. Plots of the first two RW scores did not show distinct clusters (not shown here). According to the CVA results, high percentages of correct classification (about 90%) were found for the pronotum of the subspecies *N. cordicollis winkleri* and the Lanzo Valley population of the subspecies *N. cordicollis kochi* only, while the other values had lower significance (Table 2).

Body size

Mean body sizes and nested ANOVA results are reported in Table 3. It should be noted that, whatever the level considered, no significant differences between sexes were detected. At the species level, *N. fontinalis* was significantly smaller than each of the other two species. The subspecies of *N. cordicollis* showed three distinct body sizes, *N. c. winkleri* being significantly larger than *N. c. kochi* which in turn was significantly larger than *N. c. cordicollis*. Differences between populations were not significant, with the noticeable exception of the population of *N. c. cordicollis* from Anzasca Valley, which was significantly smaller than that from Gressoney Valley.

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Levene's test ensured that the adjustments of allometric functions to a linear scaling in the form $y = y_0 + ax$ were statistically correct in the case of the median lobe of the aedeagus of species, elytra of species and subspecies, and pronotum of species, subspecies and populations.

The interaction of ln MaxPW * group was never significant, with the exception of the median lobe of the aedeagus of one species (*N. fontinalis*) and the pronotum of one population of *N. cordicollis cordicollis*. In these two cases, the species and the population with different slope of the regression line was removed and Levene's tests and ANCOVAs re-run on the remaining two groups.

Subsequent pair-wise comparisons of intercepts (sequential Bonferroni corrections applied) highlighted widespread significant size divergences between all species. In particular: the relative size of the pronotum and elytron of *N. cordicollis* was significantly larger than those of *N. fontinalis*, and both of these were significantly larger than those of *N. laticollis*; and the relative size of the median lobe of the aedeagus of *N. cordicollis* was significantly larger than that of *N. laticollis* (Table 4).

Divergences were also significant in subspecies for the elytron (*N. cordicollis kochi* having a larger elytron than *N. c. winkleri* and *N. c. cordicollis*) (Table 4). Some significant pairwise differences in the relative size of the pronotum were also ascertained for populations of *N. c. kochi*.

Discussion

Our geometric morphometric analyses made clear that the three closely related polytypic species considered, i.e. *Nebria cordicollis*, *N. fontinalis* and *N. laticollis*, significantly diverged in shape and size.

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Shape and size of external traits

The shape of the external traits (elytron and pronotum) were clearly different among species, as suggested by the presence of rather distinct clusters of points in the Relative Warp Analyses and by high percentages of correct classification in CVA (higher than 95%). The shape of external traits may depend on ecological factors and represent adaptive divergence. It has been shown, for example, that body shape of *Damaster* blaptoides, a representative snail-feeding species in Japan, is correlated with the size of land snails consumed by the species, suggesting that food resources as well as geographic isolation may have promoted adaptive divergence of external morphology in snail-feeding carabid beetles (Konuma et al., 2010). Species also diverged in body size, *N. fontinalis* being significantly smaller than each of the other two species, and in relative size of external traits, the sizes of the pronotum and elytron of N. cordicollis being significantly larger than those of N. fontinalis, and both of these species showing significantly larger traits than N. laticollis (pair-wise comparisons of intercepts). Variations in body size may also be driven by ecological determinants. The body sizes of most *Ohomopterus* species are positively correlated with annual mean temperature, representing the converse to Bergmann's rule as in many other poikilotherms (Sota et al., 2000). Ecological requirements of the three Nebriola species were partly distinct (N. cordicollis was a petrophilous species found in

moraines and other stony habitat whereas N. fontinalis and N. laticollis were typical of

cold streamlets). Their geographic distributions were also partly different (*N. laticollis* is found in the French and Western Italian Alps, whereas *N. fontinalis* and *N. cordicollis* are found in the Swiss and Italian Central Alps). We therefore suggest that in these stenoecious high altitude *Nebriola* species, both size and shape of external traits may have diverged, at least in part, as a result of geographical isolation and different natural selection regimes.

Shape of male genitalia

The shape of the median lobe of the aedeagus was apparently different in the three species, with poorly- or non-overlapping clusters of points in the Relative Warp Analyses, and percentages of 100% for two species (i.e. *N. cordicollis* and *N. laticollis*) out of three in CVA. These results are consistent with the important role of genitalia in inter-specific divergence processes. Rapid interspecific genital divergence has generally been attributed to shape, rather than size, variation, and a number of studies have emphasized the evolutionary independence of genital shape and size (Arnqvist & Thornhill, 1998; Macdonald & Goldstein, 1999; Sota *et al.*, 2007). In dung beetles, a pilot study on genital evolution in *O. taurus* provided the first evidence that male genitalia (paramere morphology) has diverged across recently established exotic populations (Pizzo *et al.*, 2008). In contrast to body size, the evolution of genital morphology is considered to be independent from adaptation to the external environment and mainly driven by sexual selection (Eberhard, 2010, 2011).

Our results on male genitalia may support the hypothesis of "reinforcement" – the rapid evolution of differences between pairs of allopatric sister taxa when they finally

meet across a more or less wide area (Usami et al., 2006; Sota & Tanabe, 2010; Masly,

2012). As shown by the map, the very similar *N. cordicollis* and *N. laticollis* have a contact area where reinforcement may have operated and, interestingly, these two species show marked differences in median lobe curvature.

Considering all the above, in keeping with Nagata *et al.* (2009), we hypothesize that in the subgenus *Nebriola*, Pleistocene fluctuation may have promoted the divergence of species by geographical isolation and natural selection, and that reinforcement phenomena may have occurred in a few instances.

Shape and size results, taken together, indicate that the three taxa are valid species. This suggests that, in spite of the great constancy of the morphological *habitus* within the subgenus *Nebriola*, traditional qualitative morphology was effective in recognizing the different taxa at the species level.

Our hierarchical design also considered differences among subspecies and populations. In both cases, eventual divergences in shape, if any, were poorly detectable. This result is in keeping with the great uncertainty in subspecies designation expressed by several authors (Bisio, 1998; Ledoux & Roux, 2005) and suggests great caution in considering *Nebriola* subspecies as valid taxonomic units. However, the subspecies of *N. cordicollis* showed three distinct body sizes and also exhibited significant differences in relative size of the elytron. A few size differences were also evident between distinct populations. All the above seem to suggest that, with respect to external traits, size might have been the first morphological characteristic to diverge in evolution of these beetles.

Finally, it should be noted that *N. fontinalis*, the smallest species, did not show the smallest external traits. Likewise, the subspecies *N. cordicollis winkleri*, which has the largest body size, did not have the largest elytron. These results suggest that inter-

397	specific divergence of body size and relative size of traits do not necessarily evolve in
398	concert, in keeping with previous data from dung beetles (Macagno et al., 2011).
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608	[Figure captions; set from these separated captions; also for Tables]
609	
610	Figure 1. Collection localities of specimens used in geometric morphometric analyses.
611	Species are indicated with different symbols. Grey dots = <i>Nebria cordicollis</i> ; black dots
612	= Nebria laticollis; open dots = Nebria fontinalis.
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615	Figures 2-4. Landmark configurations of pronotum, median lobe of aedeagus, and right
616	elytron. 2, pronotum: points 1, 5, 12–14 and 16 are landmarks, points 2–4, 6–11 and 15
617	are semilandmarks; 3, elytron: points 1–3 and 10–12 are landmarks, points 4–9 are
618	semilandmarks; 4, median lobe of aedeagus: points 1–3 and 10–13 are landmarks,
619	points 4–9 are semilandmarks.
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621	
622	Figure 5. Shape divergence among species. Scatterplots of first two Relative Warps
623	scores obtained from Relative Warp Analysis of Nebria cordicollis (grey dots), Nebria
624	fontinalis (open dots) and Nebria laticollis (black dots).
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526	Table legends
527	
528	Table 1. Number of specimens used in geometric morphometric analyses.
529	
530	Table 2. Shape divergence. CVA of species, subspecies and populations considered.
531	Percentages of predicted group membership from cross validation are given.
532	Percentages higher than 90% are in bold type.
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535	mm (proxy for the body size) of the three species, subspecies and populations
536	considered. Differences between sexes were tested by Nested ANOVA (groups*sex).
537	Pairwise comparisons among groups were based on estimated marginal means, with
538	Bonferroni adjustment. No significant differences between sexes and no significant
539	interactions between sexes and groups were detected. *** <0.001 ** <0.01.
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541	Table 4. Relative trait size divergence between species, subspecies and populations
542	shown as the difference between intercepts of static allometries of the median lobe of
543	the aedeagus, elytron, and pronotum (full-factorial ANCOVAs with sequential
544	Bonferroni correction applied). In each comparison the first group has the largest trait
545	size. Only comparisons which passed both Levene's tests and the interaction of ln Max
546	PW*group tests (P> 0.05) are shown. *** <0.001 ** <0.01.
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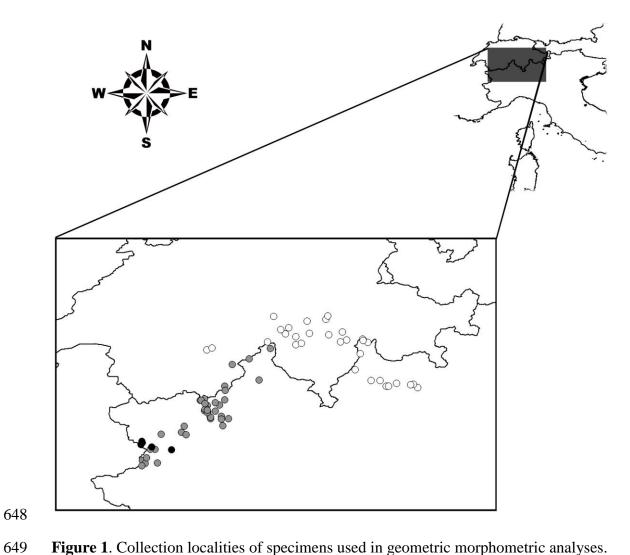
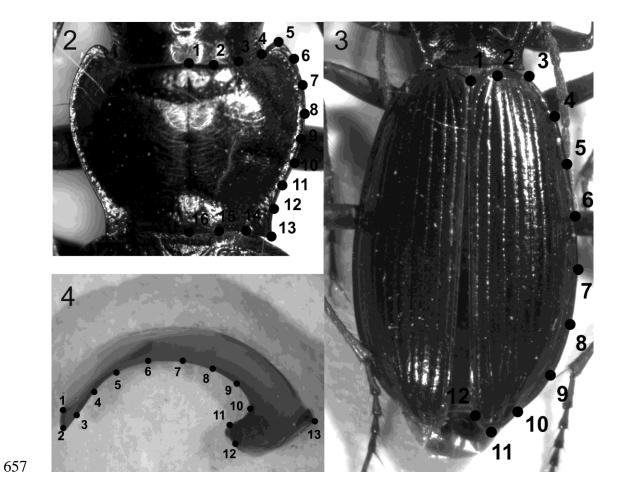


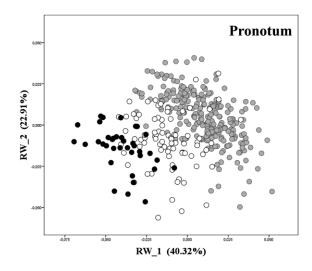
Figure 1. Collection localities of specimens used in geometric morphometric analyses.

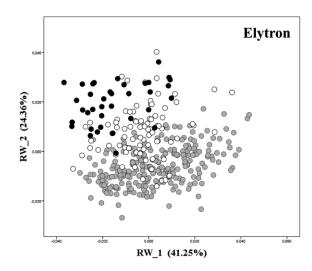
Species are indicated with different symbols. Grey dots = $Nebria\ cordicollis$; black dots

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Figures 2-4. Landmark configurations of the pronotum, median lobe of the aedeagus and right elytron. **2,** pronotum: the points 1, 5, 12-14 and 16 are landmarks, the points 2-4, 6-11 and 15 are semilandmarks; **3,** elytron: the points 1-3 and 10-12 are landmarks, the points 4-9 are semilandmarks; **4,** median lobe of the aedeagus: the points 1-3 and 10-13 are landmarks, the points 4-9 are semilandmarks.





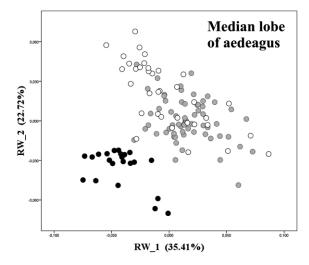


Figure 5. Shape divergence among species. Scatterplots of the first two Relative Warps scores obtained from the Relative Warp Analysis of *Nebria cordicollis* (grey dots), *Nebria fontinalis* (open dots) and *Nebria laticollis* (black dots).

Table 1. Number of specimens used in geometric morphometric analyses.

Level		Pronotum	Elytron	Median lobe of aedeagus
	N. cordicollis	238	238	63
cies	N. fontinallis	82	82	36
Species	N. laticollis	37	37	22
	Tot	357	357	121
	N. cordicollis cordicollis	93	93	22
ecies	N. cordicollis kochi	110	110	21
Subspecies	N. cordicollis winkleri	35	35	20
3 2	Tot	238	238	63
	N. cordicollis cordicollis			
	Anzasca Valley	38	38	18
	Ayas Valley	32	32	21
	Gressoney Valley	34	34	23
ions	Tot	104	104	62
Populations	N. cordicollis kochi			
Po	Orco Valley	63	63	40
	Lanzo Valley	44	44	36
	Soana Valley	33	33	18
	Tot	140	140	94

Table 2. Shape divergence. CVA of species, subspecies and populations considered.

Percentages of predicted group membership from cross validation are given.

Percentages higher than 90% are in bold type.

Species		Predicted Group Membership			
	-	N. cordicollis	N. fontinalis	N. laticollis	Total
	N. cordicollis	98.8	1.2	0.0	100
Pronotum	N. fontinalis	3.7	96.3	0.0	100
Pro	N. laticollis	0.0	5.4	94.6	100
	N. cordicollis	98.0	2.0	0.0	100
Elytron	N. fontinalis	4.9	90.2	4.9	100
園	N. laticollis	0.0	2.7	97.3	100
ope dias	N. cordicollis	100.0	0.0	0.0	100
ian le deag	N. fontinalis	2.8	97.2	0.0	100
Median lobe of aedeagus	N. laticollis	0.0	0.0	100.0	100
Subspec	cies	P	redicted Group Members	hip	
	-	N. cordicollis kochi	N. cordicollis winkleri	N. cordicollis cordicollis	Total
ш	N. cordicollis kochi	78.2	3.6	18.2	100
Pronotum	N. cordicollis winkleri	8.6	91.4	0.0	100
Pro	N. cordicollis cordicollis	17.2	0.0	82.8	100
	N. cordicollis kochi	53.6	18.2	28.2	100
Elytron	N. cordicollis winkleri	14.3	74.3	11.4	100
豆	N. cordicollis cordicollis	20.4	15.1	64.5	100
ope gus	N. cordicollis kochi	57.1	28.6	14.3	100
Median lobe of aedeagus	N. cordicollis winkleri	25.0	65.0	10.0	100
Median lobe of aedeagus	N. cordicollis cordicollis	4.5	9.1	86.4	100
Populat N cordi	tions icollis cordicollis -	P	redicted Group Members	hip	
		Anzasca Valley	Ayas Valley	Gressoney Valley	Total
Ħ	Anzasca Valley	63.2	31.6	5.2	100
Pronotum	Ayas Valley	25.0	68.8	6.2	100
P.	Gressoney Valley	5.9	5.9	88.2	100
g.	Anzasca Valley	73.6	13.2	13.2	100
Elytro	Ayas Valley	6.3	81.2	12.5	100
<u> </u>	Gressoney Valley	11.8	11.8	76.4	100
obe	Anzasca Valley	61.1	27.8	11.1	100
Median lobe of aedeagus	Ayas Valley	38.1	61.9	0.0	100
	Gressoney Valley	21.7	8.7	69.6	100
Populat N. cordi	tions icollis kochi -	P	redicted Group Members	hip	
		Orco Valley	Lanzo Valley	Soana Valley	Total
E E	Orco Valley	82.5	9.5	8.0	100
Pronotum	Lanzo Valley	6.8	90.9	2.3	100
<u> </u>	Soana Valley	9.1	9.1	81.8	100
ų.	Orco Valley	73.0	15.9	11.1	100
Elytron	Lanzo Valley	20.5	79.5	0.0	100
	Soana Valley	15.2	6.1	78.7	100
lobe	Orco Valley	65.0	17.5	17.5	100
Median lobe of aedeagus	Lanzo Valley	25.0	55.6	19.4	100
Median lobe of aedeagus		16.7	16.7	66.6	100
Me	Soana Valley	10.7	10.7	66.6	100

Table 3. Mean body sizes expressed as means \pm SD of the Maximum Pronotum Width in mm, (proxy for the body size) of the three species, subspecies and populations considered. Differences between sexes were tested by Nested ANOVA (groups*sex). Pairwise comparisons among groups were based on estimated marginal means, with Bonferroni adjustment. No significant differences between sexes and no significant interactions between sexes and groups were detected. *** <0.001 ** <0.01.

Level					
	N. cordicollis	N. fontinalis	N. laticollis	Differences among groups F	Significant pairwise comparisons (P<0.05)
Species	2.306 ± 0.131	2.138 ± 0.079	2.269 ± 0.114	67.027 ***	(1) vs (2) (2) vs (3)
	N. cordicollis kochi	N. cordicollis winkleri	N. cordicollis cordicollis	Differences among groups F	Significant pairwise comparisons (P<0.05)
Subspecies	2.301 ± 0.110	2.485 ± 0.086	2.247 ± 0.109	50.445 ***	(1) vs (2) (1) vs (3) (2) vs (3)
	Anzasca Valley	Ayas Valley	Gressoney Valley	Differences among groups F	Significant pairwise comparisons (P<0.05)
Populations N. cordicollis cordicollis	2.220 ± 0.116	2.235 ± 0.116	2.284 ± 0.114	5.299 **	(1) vs (3)
	Orco Valley	Lanzo Valley	Soana Valley	Differences among groups F	Significant pairwise comparisons (P<0.05)
Populations N. cordicollis kochi	2.294 ± 0.128	2.309 ± 0.081	2.346 ± 0.139	1.959 n.s.	-

Table 4. Relative trait size divergence between species, subspecies and populations shown as the difference between intercepts of static allometries of the median lobe of the aedeagus, elytron and pronotum (full-factorial ANCOVAs with sequential Bonferroni correction applied). In each comparison the first group has the largest trait size. Only comparisons which passed both Levene's tests and the interaction of ln Max PW*group tests (P> 0.05) are shown.*** <0.001 ** <0.01.

Trait	Level	Comparison	Mean Difference	Sig.
Pronotum	Species	N. cordicollis vs N. fontinalis	0.020	**
		N. cordicollis vs N. laticollis	0.083	***
		N. fontinalis vs N. laticollis	0.063	***
	Subspecies	N. cordicollis kochi vs N. cordicollis cordicollis	0.004	ns
		N. cordicollis winkleri vs N. cordicollis kochi	0.005	ns
		N. cordicollis winkleri vs N. cordicollis cordicollis	0.009	ns
	Populations N. cordicollis kochi	Orco Valley vs Lanzo Valley	0.040	***
		Soana Valley vs Orco Valley	0.006	ns
		Soana Valley vs Lanzo Valley	0.046	***
Elytron	Species	N. cordicollis vs N. fontinalis	0.066	***
		N. cordicollis vs N. laticollis	0.039	***
		N. fontinalis vs N. laticollis	0.073	***
	Subspecies	N. cordicollis kochi vs N. cordicollis winkleri	0.055	**
		N. cordicollis kochi vs N. cordicollis cordicollis	0.021	**
		N. cordicollis winkleri vs N. cordicollis cordicollis	0.017	ns
Median lobe of aedeagus	Species			***
		N. cordicollis vs N. laticollis	0.052	