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Submission type: Research Article

**Molecular Evolution of Ecological Specialisation: Genomic Insights from the  
Diversification of Murine Rodents**

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capture, Murinae, positive selection

## Abstract

Adaptive radiations are characterised by the diversification and ecological differentiation of species, and replicated cases of this process provide natural experiments for understanding the repeatability and pace of molecular evolution. During adaptive radiation, genes related to ecological specialisation may be subject to recurrent positive directional selection. However, it is not clear to what extent patterns of lineage-specific ecological specialisation (including phenotypic convergence) are correlated with shared signatures of molecular evolution. To test this, we sequenced whole exomes from a phylogenetically dispersed sample of 38 murine rodent species, a group characterised by multiple, nested adaptive radiations comprising extensive ecological and phenotypic diversity. We found that genes associated with immunity, reproduction, diet, digestion and taste have been subject to pervasive positive selection during the diversification of murine rodents. We also found a significant correlation between genome-wide positive selection and dietary specialisation, with a higher proportion of positively selected codon sites in derived dietary forms (i.e. carnivores and herbivores) than in ancestral forms (i.e. omnivores). Despite striking convergent evolution of skull morphology and dentition in two distantly related worm-eating specialists, we did not detect more genes with shared signatures of positive or relaxed selection than in a non-convergent species comparison. While a small number of the genes we detected can be incidentally linked to craniofacial morphology or diet, protein-coding regions are unlikely to be the primary genetic basis of this complex convergent phenotype. Our results suggest a link between positive selection and derived ecological phenotypes, and highlight specific genes and general functional categories that may have played an integral role in the extensive and rapid diversification of murine rodents.

## Significance statement

It is currently unclear whether bursts of rapid ecological diversification, which are the hallmarks of adaptive radiation, are associated with corresponding shifts in selective pressures across the genome. We address this question by generating and analysing 38 whole exomes from across the radiation of murine rodents, a group of over 700 ecologically diverse species. We find that genes associated with immunity,

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3 57 reproduction, and dietary processes have been subject to pervasive positive selection.  
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5 58 We also find a correlation between genome-wide positive selection and dietary  
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7 59 specialisation, with a higher proportion of positively selected sites in derived dietary  
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9 60 forms (i.e. carnivores and herbivores) when compared to ancestral forms (i.e.  
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11 61 omnivores). Our results provide a link between rapid ecological diversification and the  
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13 62 pattern and pace of molecular evolution in protein coding genes.  
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17 64 **Introduction**  
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19 65 Adaptive radiations provide natural experiments which allow us to characterise the  
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21 66 diversification and convergent evolution of species in response to ecological forces  
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23 67 (Schluter 2000; Yoder et al. 2010; Stroud and Losos 2016). Repeated phenotypic  
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25 68 shifts and convergent evolution in response to similar environmental pressures  
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27 69 provide indirect evidence for adaptive evolution (Losos and Ricklefs 2009; Salzburger  
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29 70 2009; Elmer et al. 2010; Elmer and Meyer 2011; Losos 2011). While the evolutionary  
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31 71 patterns that underlie adaptive radiation and diversification have been studied for  
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33 72 many decades at a phenotypic level, advances in DNA sequencing methodologies  
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35 73 now allow a genomic view of adaptive radiation (Loh et al. 2008; Schluter and Conte  
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37 74 2009; Jones et al. 2012; Losos et al. 2013; Supple et al. 2013; Berner and Salzburger  
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39 75 2015; Lamichhaney et al. 2015; Tollis et al. 2018; Daane et al. 2019; Li et al. 2019;  
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41 76 Marcionetti et al. 2019; Martin et al. 2019). Despite this, many genomic studies have  
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43 77 primarily focused on small numbers of exemplar taxa. Genome-wide data from across  
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45 78 the taxonomic and phenotypic diversity of species-rich adaptive radiations are  
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47 79 generally lacking (but see Lamichhaney et al. 2015; Malinsky et al. 2018), as are  
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49 80 broad-scale links between molecular evolution and periods of rapid ecological  
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51 81 diversification. Consequently, it remains unclear if the pronounced ecological and  
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53 82 phenotypic shifts that are hallmarks of adaptive radiations are also associated with  
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55 83 corresponding shifts in the pace and pattern of molecular evolution across the  
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57 84 genome.  
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60 86 The opening of novel ecological niche space can facilitate adaptive radiation, and  
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62 87 this has classically been characterised with examples of island colonisation (Schluter  
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64 88 2000). Following colonisation and subsequent adaptive radiation, nascent species face

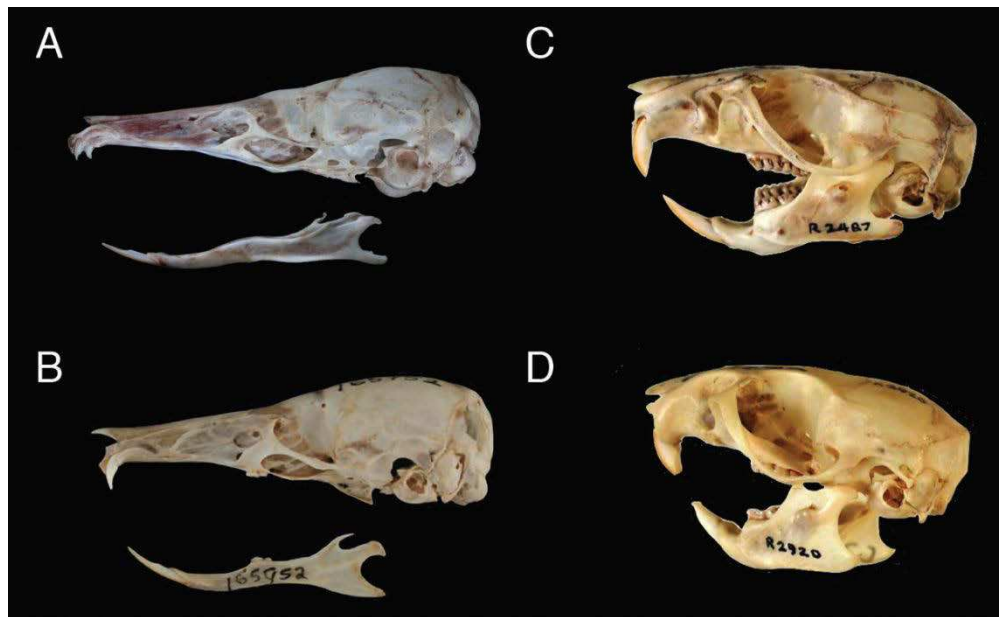
89 novel assemblages of biotic and abiotic factors. Particular functional categories of  
90 genes or pathways are expected to be under pervasive positive selection, i.e. positive  
91 selection in multiple lineages, as they enable adaptation to disparate, novel, and  
92 changing environments. In studies within and between species, recurrent positive  
93 selection is consistently recovered on genes associated with immune function  
94 (Castillo-Davis et al. 2004; Nielsen et al. 2005; Shultz and Sackton 2019) and  
95 reproduction (Swanson and Vacquier 2002; Swanson et al. 2003; Castillo-Davis et al.  
96 2004; Nuzhdin et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2004; Nielsen et al. 2005; Turner and  
97 Hoekstra 2006), respectively thought to be driven by host-pathogen evolutionary arms  
98 races and sexual selection. Additionally, signatures of positive selection across other  
99 functional categories of genes may reveal additional ecological factors of adaptive  
100 diversification (e.g. Kosiol et al. 2008). Clades that have undergone adaptive radiation  
101 in geographically constrained areas (e.g. on islands) often exhibit extensive  
102 phenotypic disparity among species due to ecological character displacement (Losos  
103 1990; Grant and Grant 2006). In these cases, positive selection presumably also acts  
104 on genes underlying ecologically relevant traits such as diet, body size, or  
105 microhabitat niche (e.g. Shultz and Sackton 2019). However, it is unclear to what  
106 extent bursts of rapid speciation, phenotypic evolution, and ecological specialisation  
107 also trigger shifts in molecular evolution across the genome.

109 Murine rodents represent greater than 10% of all living mammalian species (> 700  
110 species in subfamily Murinae; Burgin et al. 2018). Their diversity is the result of a  
111 recent (ca. 12 Myr) radiation, and murine species have repeatedly colonised most  
112 areas of the Eastern Hemisphere (Fabre et al. 2013; Aghová et al. 2018; Rowe et al.  
113 2019). Recurring colonisation and multiple, independent adaptive radiations have led  
114 to extensive phenotypic diversity within Murinae, including a large range in body size  
115 (3–2700 g; Denys et al. 2017), diet (omnivorous, herbivorous and carnivorous; Rowe  
116 et al. 2016a), microhabitat niche (terrestrial, arboreal, semi-aquatic; Nations et al.  
117 2019; Nations et al. 2020), and reproductive output (4 – 24 mammae; Denys et al.  
118 2017). Given this process of repeated adaptive radiation in murines, genes associated  
119 with their ecological diversity and specialisation (e.g. diet, reproduction, or  
120 microhabitat) may have been subject to pervasive positive selection across multiple  
121 lineages.

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123 Across the diversity of murine rodents, there are numerous examples of highly  
124 specialised morphologies, including cases of repeated convergent phenotypic  
125 evolution (Esselstyn et al. 2012; Rowe et al. 2014). One exceptional murine example  
126 of convergence is the independent evolution of vermivorous so called “shrew rats” on  
127 both the Indonesian island of Sulawesi (Murinae: Rattini) and the Philippine island of  
128 Luzon (Murinae: Hydromyini), with the most extreme examples among these groups  
129 being *Paucidentomys vermidax* (a species monotypic within its genus; Esselstyn et al.  
130 2012) on Sulawesi, and *Rhynchomys* spp. (Rickart et al. 2019) on Luzon. Both are  
131 nested within independent, endemic clades of carnivorous rats on the two islands,  
132 respectively (Jansa et al. 2006; Rowe et al. 2016a; Rickart et al. 2019). Most murine  
133 species are omnivores, and previous work has reconstructed the ancestral dietary state  
134 for the group as omnivorous (Rowe et al. 2016). Subsequent to their independent  
135 shifts to carnivory, species in the genera *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys* have  
136 converged on a phenotype that is exceptional among Murinae, with highly elongated  
137 rostra, slender mandibles, and greatly reduced or absent molars (Fig. 1; Esselstyn et  
138 al. 2012; Martinez et al. 2018; Rickart et al. 2019). These species share a common  
139 ancestor approximately 10 – 12 million years ago, near the base of all Murinae (Rowe  
140 et al. 2016a; Aghová et al. 2018; Rowe et al. 2019), and are isolated on oceanic  
141 islands, precluding any role for gene flow. As such, this striking ecomorphological  
142 convergence may be associated with convergent changes at the genomic level.  
143 Independent fixation of shared ancestral variation could also contribute to these  
144 observations, but this seems most unlikely to bridge 12 million years of independent  
145 evolution (Arendt and Reznick 2008). While convergence at particular coding sites  
146 within genes is unlikely to be directly associated with complex convergent phenotypes  
147 (Foote et al. 2015), common sets of genes may show parallel signatures of positive  
148 selection, or relaxed selection in convergent species (Bergey et al. 2018; Dixon and  
149 Kenkel 2019; Sahm et al. 2019). In *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys*, ecological  
150 selective pressures which drove the evolution of their striking, shared phenotype may  
151 be linked to convergent shifts in selective pressures on genes associated with their  
152 derived diet and craniofacial or tooth development (Charles et al. 2013).

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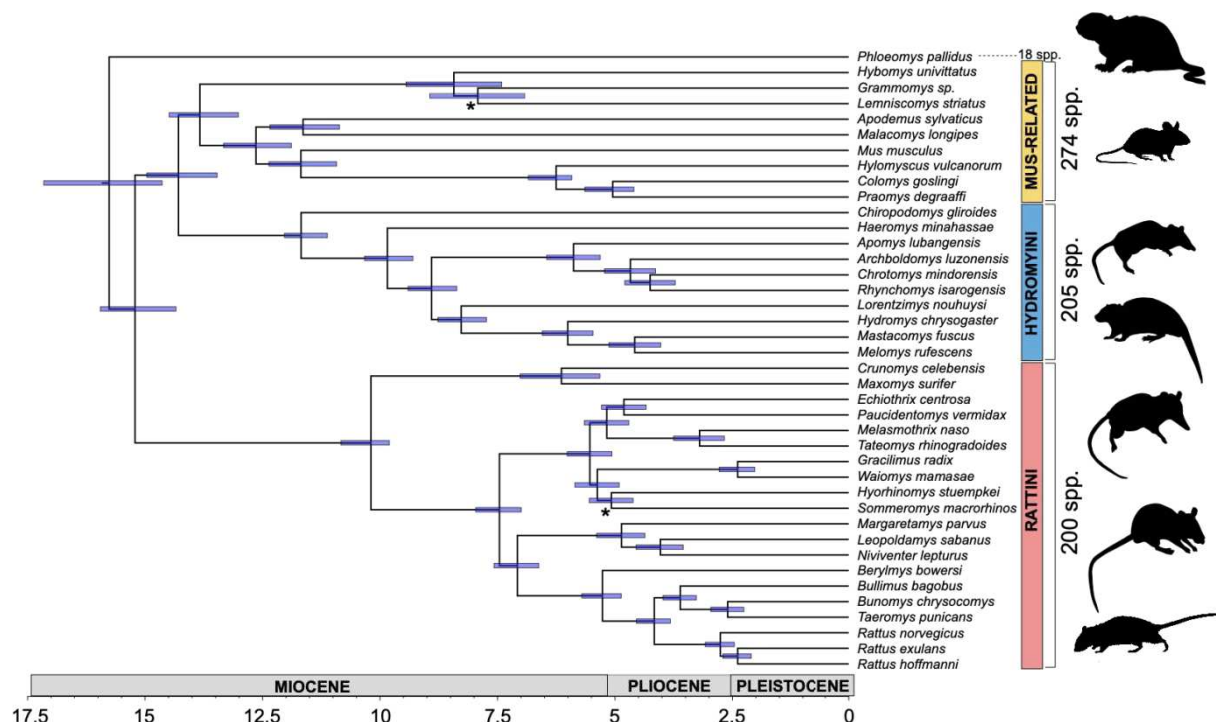
**Figure 1** Exceptional convergence of craniofacial morphology and dentition in worm-eating specialists; A) *Paucidentomys vermidax* (Muridae: Rattini) and B) *Rhynchomys labo* (Muridae: Hydromyini), compared to two generalist species belonging to the same respective clades; C) *Rattus fuscipes* (Muridae: Rattini), and D) *Pseudomys shortridgei* (Muridae: Hydromyini). Photos by A) D. Paul, Museums Victoria, B) modified from Rickart et al. (2019) with permission, C) and D) M. Rawlinson, C. Accurso and K. Walker, Museums Victoria

Murine rodents are also important model organisms, both in laboratory studies and in the wild, with *Mus musculus* and *Rattus norvegicus* among the most well-studied mammalian species (Mouse Genome Sequencing Consortium 2002; Gibbs et al. 2004; Guénet 2005; Phifer-Rixey and Nachman 2015). Despite their utility as model organisms, these generalist species represent only a miniscule fraction of the ecomorphological diversity in the broader murine radiation. Comparative genomic studies have not previously examined broader Murinae, and as such there is no prior understanding of the interactions between genes, traits, and ecology in this group. Repeated, nested adaptive radiations within Murinae, extensive diversity and recurrent ecomorphological specialisation make murine rodents an ideal system for testing correlates between trait evolution, convergence, and rapid molecular evolution. A broad-scale, comparative approach is warranted to begin to unlock what is largely an

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176   untapped natural system for characterising genomic responses to ecological  
177   opportunity.  
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179       Here, we generate sequence data for > 14,000 protein-coding genes from 38 species  
180   spanning the phylogenetic breadth of murine diversity, and spanning multiple  
181   adaptive radiations within the subfamily, with focused sampling from independent  
182   radiations in the Philippines and Sulawesi. Using these data, we identify genes and  
183   gene categories with signatures of pervasive positive selection across Murinae, test if  
184   heterogeneity in positive selection across lineages is associated with ecological traits  
185   (i.e. diet, microhabitat, reproductive output, and body size), and screen for evidence of  
186   convergent molecular evolution between *Rhynchomys* and *Paucidentomys*, an extreme  
187   example of ecomorphological convergence in murines.  
188  
189   **Results**  
  
190   *Phylogenetic reconstruction*  
  
191       Using data from 1,360 phylogenetically informative exons, we inferred a  
192   consistent, well-supported species tree topology in both IQ-TREE 1.6.1 (Nguyen et al.  
193   2015) and SVDquartets (Chifman and Kubatko 2014, Fig. 2) for 38 species  
194   (supplementary table S1). These species covered the phylogenetic breadth of  
195   subfamily Murinae, including representatives from Asian, Australian, and African  
196   radiations, and were also representative of the substantial ecomorphological variation  
197   of murine rodents, i.e. dietary, microhabitat, and body size variation. Almost all nodes  
198   (n = 71) received 100% bootstrap support across all approaches implemented. Two  
199   nodes received less support in more than one analysis, but no nodes were consistently  
200   poorly supported. Across the full dataset, average coverage ranged from 25 – 57X,  
201   with full mapping and coverage statistics per-sample summarised in supplementary  
202   table S2.  
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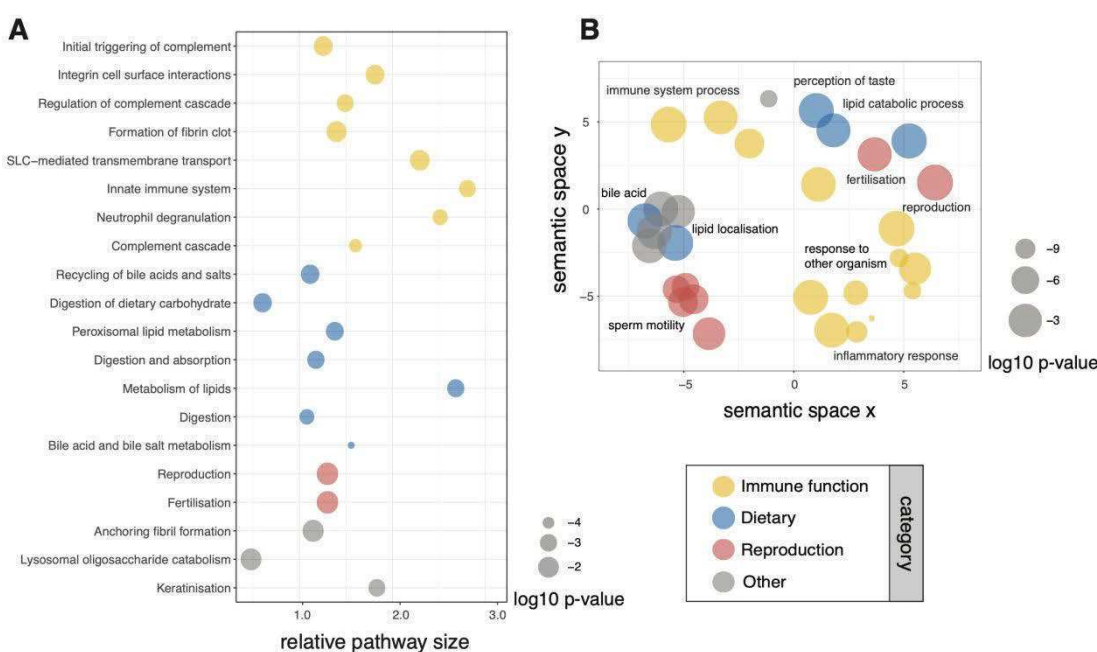
**Figure 2** Time-calibrated phylogeny of sampled murine species generated in MCMCtree, with a consistent topology estimated in both IQ-TREE and SVDquartets. All phylogenetic analyses were based on a subset of 1,360 loci (Roycroft et al. 2020a). Nodes with less than 100% support using more than one branch support approach are indicated with an asterisk. Species numbers to the right of the phylogeny indicate the total number of described species in each of the three main murine clades, with *Phloeomys pallidus* the sole representative in this study of the tribe Phloeomyini.

### *Pervasive positive selection across Murinae*

Across the murine phylogeny, site models in codeml 4.9i (Yang 2007) revealed 1,383 genes (out of 14,229 tested, supplementary table S4) with consistent evidence for sites under positive selection ( $p < 0.05$ , using a Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate correction; FDR), using both individually inferred gene trees (*gene tree topology* dataset) and the species tree (*species tree topology* dataset). Among these, we identified 42 over-represented Reactome pathways (Jassal et al. 2020) and 29 over-represented KEGG pathways (Kanehisa et al. 2016) using g:Profiler (Raudvere et al. 2019; supplementary tables S5 and S6). These pathways were largely involved in immune, digestive, taste, and reproductive functions (Fig. 3a). Additionally, there

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were 53 ‘molecular function’, 116 ‘biological process’ and 38 ‘cellular component’ GO category terms significantly over-represented (supplementary table S7). Over-represented biological processes also broadly included terms associated with immunity, reproduction, digestion, and taste (Fig. 3b). Over-represented molecular functions included peptidase and lipase activity, taste reception, and immune receptor activity. Over-represented cellular components included sperm morphological parts and immunity-related components, including secretory granule and cellular membranes.



**Figure 3** Over-represented functions of genes under pervasive positive selection ( $p < 0.05$ ) across Murinae using annotations from A) Reactome pathways, and B) Gene Ontology biological process categories, grouped using REVIGO semantic clustering (similarity threshold = 0.5). Circle size represents  $\log_{10}$  p-value for the significance of over-representation; colours indicate functions related to the immune system, dietary processes, and reproduction.

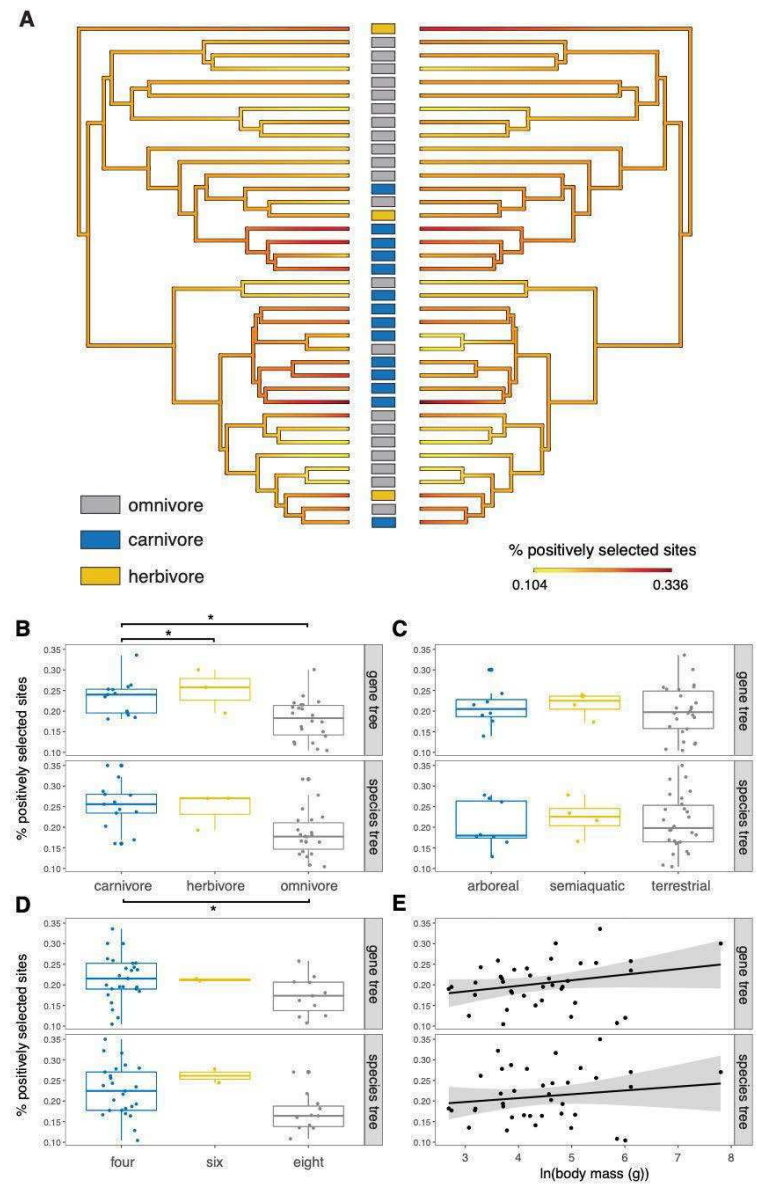
### 243 *Ecological predictors of genome-wide positive selection*

244 Overall, branch-specific values of positive selection estimated using aBSREL  
 245 (Smith et al. 2015) in HyPhy 2.5.14. (Pond et al. 2005) revealed substantial  
 246 heterogeneity in the proportion of sites under selection among murine lineages (Fig.  
 247 4a; supplementary table S8), which was not explained by variation in terminal branch  
 248 length (*gene tree topology*:  $R^2 = 0.025$ , *species tree topology*:  $R^2 = 0.008$ ). This  
 249 pattern of heterogeneity was consistent in analyses of the *species tree topology* and  
 250 *gene tree topology* datasets ( $R^2 = 0.70$ ). Dietary state (carnivorous, herbivorous, or  
 251 omnivorous) was a significant predictor (*gene tree topology*:  $p = 0.0026$ , *species tree*  
 252 *topology*:  $p = 0.045$ ) of mean proportion of sites under positive selection, when taking  
 253 into account phylogenetic relatedness in a PGLS regression. There was also a  
 254 significant difference (*gene tree topology*:  $p = 0.0094$ , *species tree topology*:  $p =$   
 255  $0.0052$ ) between dietary states in the mean proportion of sites under positive selection  
 256 in a phylogenetic ANOVA, with carnivores being higher than omnivores (Fig. 4b;  
 257 *gene tree topology*:  $p = 0.045$ , *species tree topology*:  $p = 0.012$ ). Despite the small  
 258 number of herbivores in this dataset ( $n = 3$ ), herbivores had significantly higher values  
 259 than omnivores in the *gene tree topology* dataset ( $p = 0.045$ ) but not the *species tree*  
 260 *topology* dataset ( $p = 0.082$ ). These patterns were also consistent using the topology-  
 261 free pairwise dN/dS values estimated in codeml, where both carnivores ( $p = 0.003$ )  
 262 and herbivores ( $p = 0.044$ ) had significantly higher dN/dS values than omnivores. All  
 263 models that jointly accounted for diet and relative population size (approximated by  
 264 average heterozygosity across the whole-exome, and based only on third codon  
 265 position sites) did not recover contemporary population size as a significant predictor  
 266 for the mean proportion of sites under selection (whole exome estimate: *species tree*  
 267 *topology* p-value = 0.21, *gene tree topology* p-value = 0.46, third codon estimate:  
 268 *species tree topology* p-value = 0.25, *gene tree topology* p-value = 0.67).

270 There was no significant effect of microhabitat (Fig. 4c), reproductive output (no.  
 271 of mammae; Fig. 4d), or body mass (Fig. 4e) on the proportion of sites under positive  
 272 selection in either PGLS or phylogenetic ANOVA analyses; however, the number of  
 273 mammae was significantly correlated with the number of positively selected sites  
 274 before, but not after phylogenetic correction. The proportion of positively selected  
 275 sites across digestion-related genes was no more correlated with dietary state, than the

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proportion of positively selected sites across genes with non-digestive functions. Similarly, the proportion of positively selected sites across reproduction-related genes was no more correlated with number of mammae, than across genes with function unrelated to reproduction. Over-representation and functional enrichment tests of genes that were most correlated with dietary specialisation (top 5% and 10%, and Spearman’s  $\rho$  values), did not yield any significant functional categories or pathways. This suggests that the increase in positive selection across genes in dietary specialists is not restricted to genes directly related to, or associated with, digestion, but potentially a suite of interacting genes in other functional categories across the genome.



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**Figure 4** Heterogeneity in genome-wide positive selection and ecological predictors. A) average percentage of sites under positive selection plotted as a heat map on the species tree topology with dietary states indicated at the tips, calculated with aBSREL in HyPhy using either the *species tree topology* (left) or *gene tree topology* (right, with terminal branches matched to the species tree topology for visualisation) datasets. B) Comparison of average percent sites under positive selection across dietary states (carnivorous, herbivorous, or omnivorous), C) microhabitats (arboreal, semiaquatic, or terrestrial), D) number of mammae, and E) log of body mass. Significance values are derived from phylogenetic ANOVA (\* = FDR corrected  $p < 0.05$ )

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#### 300 *Shared positive and relaxed selection*

301 Across both the *species tree topology* and *gene tree topology* datasets, 39 genes  
302 were consistently detected under shared positive selection in both *Rhynchomys labo*  
303 and *Paucidentomys vermidax* using the aBSREL test for positive selection  
304 (supplementary table S9). For all 39 positive genes, the standard aBSREL model was  
305 a better fit (AICc) to the data than models accounting for multinucleotide mutations  
306 (MNMs; aBSREL + Double and aBSREL + Double + Triple). Among these genes  
307 was the Androgen Receptor (*Ar*) gene, which encodes a transcription factor known to  
308 influence bone morphogenesis through interaction with the *RUNX2* transcription  
309 factor. However, the number of total genes under shared positive selection in both of  
310 these strikingly convergent vermivorous rodents was not significantly greater than  
311 expected by chance, nor greater than the number of genes under shared positive  
312 selection in a non-convergent control comparison between *Mastacomys fuscus* and  
313 *Echiothrix centrosa* (59 convergent genes selected in the *species tree topology* and  
314 *gene tree topology* datasets). In addition, consistent signatures of relaxed selection in  
315 both *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys* were detected in 14 genes across both the  
316 *species tree topology* and *gene tree topology* datasets (supplementary table S10).

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318 *Convergent amino acid profile shifts*

319 After filtering, 47 genes showed strong evidence (posterior probably > 0.9) for site-  
320 based, convergent amino acid profile shifts using PCOC (Rey et al. 2018;  
321 supplementary table S11). We did not identify any significantly over-represented  
322 functional terms among these genes, nor at lower PCOC score thresholds. Among  
323 these genes, *Cdon* is associated with human disease phenotype pathways (HP)  
324 ‘abnormality of the nasal cavity’, ‘cleft-lip’, ‘single median maxillary incisor’ and  
325 ‘midnasal stenosis’. In the two convergent vermivores, *Cdon* has undergone a  
326 significant shift in amino acid profile at site 414, where both *Rhynchomys* and  
327 *Paucidentomys* have independently experienced a shift from polar to non-polar  
328 residues. *Cdon* was also under significant positive selection in *Paucidentomys* but not  
329 in *Rhynchomys*.

330

331 **Discussion**

332 We found that genes associated with immune, reproductive, and dietary processes  
333 have been subject to pervasive positive selection across the murine radiation. We also  
334 recovered a higher proportion of positively selected sites in derived dietary forms (i.e.  
335 carnivores and herbivores) than in omnivorous species (the ancestral state, Rowe et al.  
336 2016a), suggesting a link between ecological forces of diversification and rates of  
337 putatively adaptive molecular evolution. Consistent with expectations, genes involved  
338 in craniofacial morphology, tooth development, and diet were among those with  
339 shared selective shifts in convergent worm-eating species. Our results highlight  
340 functional categories of genes that may have played an integral role in the repeated  
341 radiation and extensive dietary diversification of murine rodents.

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343 *Pervasive selection on immunity and reproductive genes*

344 We found strong evidence for pervasive positive selection on genes and pathways  
345 associated with the immune system and reproduction in Murinae. Numerous  
346 immunity- and reproduction-related GO, KEGG, and Reactome terms were  
347 significantly overrepresented among genes that experienced positive selection across  
348 the radiation. Many previous studies have identified that genes associated with  
349 immune function (Schlenke and Begun 2003; Castillo-Davis et al. 2004; Nielsen et al.

2005) and reproduction (Swanson and Vacquier 2002; Swanson et al. 2003; Castillo-Davis et al. 2004; Nuzhdin et al. 2004; Zhang et al. 2004; Good and Nachman 2005; Nielsen et al. 2005; Dean et al. 2008; Turner et al. 2008) are common targets of recurrent positive selection, and on average, tend to evolve faster than other protein coding genes. More recently, comparative genomic studies at both deep and shallow taxonomic scales indicate that these patterns are consistent across all scales of animal divergence (Nielsen et al. 2005; Kosiol et al. 2008; Roux et al. 2014; Cagan et al. 2016; Cicconardi et al. 2017; Sahm et al. 2019; Shultz and Sackton 2019). The strong signal of positive selection on immune and reproduction-related genes across Murinae confirm that these pervasive patterns remain consistent during species diversification, in consort with rapid evolution of ecologically significant phenotypes.

The adaptive immune system of animals is subject to constant pressure from rapidly evolving pathogens with shorter generation times than their hosts (Woolhouse et al. 2002). This co-evolutionary ‘arms race’ is a source of selective pressure and is thought to cause rapid adaptive evolution in immunity-related genes (Nielsen et al. 2005; Kosiol et al. 2008). Response to co-evolutionary change may similarly explain rapid evolution of reproductive proteins, with previous studies suggesting that sperm competition and sexual conflict are key drivers of positive directional selection (Wyckoff et al. 2000; Swanson and Vacquier 2002; Torgerson et al. 2002; Swanson et al. 2003). The set of reproductive genes under pervasive positive selection across murines in our results include a number of genes which have previously been identified as under positive selection in other mammals, including *Zp3* (Swanson and Vacquier 2002; Jansa et al. 2003; Turner and Hoekstra 2006), which contains the primary species-specific sperm binding site, as well as the egg-binding proteins *Adam2* and *Spam1* (Torgerson et al. 2002). The coevolution of male and female reproductive proteins may be associated with the eventual development of barriers to fertilisation, reproductive isolation, and subsequent speciation (Swanson and Vacquier 2002). There is substantial divergence in sperm morphology between closely related murine species (e.g. Breed 2000; McLennan et al. 2017; Pahl et al. 2018), which may contribute to the rapid evolution of prezygotic isolation between populations. Accelerated evolution, or increased positive selection, in reproductive genes in murine rodents may be linked, in part, to the rapid speciation of murines in both allopatry, and via ecological niche partitioning in spatially limited island systems. Future

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comparative studies may reveal whether diversifying selection, and positive selection, on immunity and reproductive genes is more intense during adaptive radiation, compared to background rates, as nascent species encounter novel pathogens, and rapidly diversify to fill available ecological niches.

*Pervasive positive selection on dietary and taste-associated genes*

We also found significant overrepresentation of functional categories associated with diet (digestion and taste), which is likely related to the exceptional ecological diversity and success of murine rodents. Recent work has also identified selection on bitter-taste genes in the desert-adapted rodent, *Peromyscus eremicus* (Tigano et al. 2020). Pervasive positive selection in diet-related genes has not previously been identified across a recent radiation. A study of six mammalian genomes (Kosiol et al. 2008) identified positive selection on starch digestion and bitter taste genes in primates, but not in two murine species (*M. musculus* and *R. norvegicus*). This contrast highlights the importance of taxon sampling in detecting associations between ecological diversification and genomic adaptation, with our study examining this pattern across the broad phylogenetic and ecological diversity of murine rodents. At a broader scale, previous research suggests that dietary evolution may be associated with changes in gene copy number (Feng et al. 2014; Li and Zhang 2014; Pajic et al. 2019), gene family expansions (Whiteman et al. 2012; Gloss et al. 2019; Seppey et al. 2019), or loss of gene function (Kim et al. 2016; Hu et al. 2017; Hecker et al. 2019). For example, the evolution of carnivory across mammals at a broad scale is associated with repeated loss of sweet and bitter taste receptors (Jiang et al. 2012). However, our results provide the first strong link between rapid ecological diversification of species, including repeated evolution of dietary specialisation, and recurrent positive selection on multiple genes in functional categories related to dietary processes. Trophic niche is a crucial driver of phenotypic evolution (Price et al. 2012) and in the case of murine rodents, is arguably the main axis of differentiation between species, especially in island systems across the Indo-Australian Archipelago (e.g. Rowe et al. 2014; 2016a; 2016b). Pervasive positive selection on genes associated with diet, digestion, and taste in a clade with extensive dietary disparity provides a compelling link between ecological novelty, phenotypic evolution, and putatively adaptive molecular evolution.

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3 417 *Derived dietary states are associated with rapid molecular evolution*  
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5 418 As well as triggering pervasive positive selection across dietary genes, the  
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7 419 evolution of dietary specialisation in the murine species examined in our study was  
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9 420 significantly correlated with a genome-wide increase in the average proportion of sites  
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11 421 under positive selection, as well as higher overall dN/dS. This pattern was most  
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13 422 compelling in carnivores (a derived state in murines; Rowe et al. 2016a), where there  
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15 423 was a significantly higher average proportion of positively selected sites than in  
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17 424 omnivores (the ancestral state). This pattern was similar in herbivores, but only  
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19 425 significant when using the *gene tree topology* dataset or a pairwise (topology-free)  
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21 426 contrast. Although there were only three herbivorous species in this study, these  
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23 427 species represent three independent transitions to herbivory. The elevated dN/dS may  
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25 428 result from long-term small effective population size ( $N_e$ ), via increased fixation of  
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27 429 deleterious mutations which are incorrectly inferred as signatures of positive selection  
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29 430 (Ohta 1993; Deinum et al. 2015), or alternatively a large  $N_e$  resulting in increased  
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31 431 adaptive efficacy (Gossmann et al. 2010). However, our comparative analyses found  
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33 432 no significant effect of average heterozygosity (as a proxy for  $N_e$ ). Similar patterns are  
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35 433 evident in deeper-time comparisons among mammals, with increased signatures of  
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37 434 molecular adaptation in carnivores (i.e. Felidae) when compared to omnivores  
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39 435 (Hominidae) and herbivores (Bovidae; Kim et al. 2016). Our finding of an increase in  
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41 436 positive selection at a genome-wide scale in carnivorous, and to a lesser extent in  
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43 437 herbivorous murines, suggests that the evolution of dietary specialisation may have  
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45 438 triggered increased positive selection on a suite of interacting traits (Goldman-Huertas  
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47 439 et al. 2015), and subsequently affected many loci in the genome.  
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50 441 Whether rates of molecular evolution, or positive selection, can be generally  
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52 442 associated with the evolution of adaptive ecological traits remains an open question,  
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54 443 and few specific examples exist. Temperate lacertid lizards were recently found to  
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56 444 have experienced a genome-wide decrease in molecular evolution relative to tropical-  
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58 445 and desert-adapted species (Garcia-Porta et al. 2019). Body size is a consistent  
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60 446 predictor of neutral molecular evolutionary rate across broad taxonomic scales, with  
447 larger species expected to have slower rates due to longer generation times (Bromham  
448 2002; Berv and Field 2018). A recent study suggested an extension of this  
449 generalisation to positive selection in birds, finding that body size was linked to

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450 variation in the proportion of positively selected sites (Shultz and Sackton 2019). In  
451 contrast to diet, there was no significant correlation between positive selection and  
452 any other traits tested in our comparative phylogenetic analyses, including body size.  
453 Although the murine species examined here vary by two orders of magnitude in body  
454 size (20 – ~2000 g), differences in generation time may be insufficient to affect  
455 relative evolutionary rates.

456  
457 *A genomic basis for convergent evolution of worm-eating rodents?*

458 There were not more genes under shared selective shifts (positive or relaxed) in the  
459 convergent worm-eating rodents *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys* when compared to  
460 the non-convergent control comparison, *Mastacomys* and *Echiothrix*. These results are  
461 consistent with a recent study of shared positive selection in the convergent marsupial  
462 thylacine and eutherian canid (Feigin et al. 2018), suggesting that positive selection  
463 has not acted on the same genes in phenotypically convergent species more often than  
464 in general forms. However, comparing the number of genes under shared positive  
465 selection may be a relatively conservative benchmark for detecting molecular  
466 convergence. As such, it remains possible that the genes we recovered are linked to  
467 the evolution of the convergent phenotypes of *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys*.

468  
469 For example, we found shared positive selection on the Androgen Receptor (*Ar*)  
470 gene, which encodes a transcription factor known to influence bone morphogenesis  
471 through interaction with the *RUNX2* transcription factor (Baniwal et al. 2009).  
472 Variation between species in the number and ratio of short repeats in *RUNX2* has  
473 previously been associated with variation in mammalian cranial length (Fondon and  
474 Garner 2004; Sears et al. 2007; Pointer et al. 2012; Ritzman et al. 2017), and *RUNX2*  
475 also shows signatures of an ancient selective sweep after the divergence of  
476 anatomically modern humans from other archaic lineages (Green et al. 2010). Given  
477 shared signatures of positive selection and its pivotal role in mammalian bone  
478 metabolism (Kawano et al. 2003), the *Ar* transcription factor represents a potential  
479 candidate gene contributing to the evolution of elongated craniofacial morphology in  
480 *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys*.

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3 482 Additionally, shared positive selection and amino acid shifts in taste-receptor genes  
4 483 *Tas2r113* and *Tas2r114*, and relaxed selection in the glucose transporter gene *Slc2a2*,  
5 484 (part of the Reactome pathway '*Intestinal absorption*'), recapitulate the evolution of  
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7 485 dietary specialisation across Murinae at a broad scale. We also detected convergent  
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9 486 shifts in amino acid profile in the gene *Cdon*, associated with craniofacial and tooth  
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11 487 development. However, genes involved in patterning and development of morphology  
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13 488 are often highly pleiotropic (Sivakumaran et al. 2011), and changes at the coding level  
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15 489 likely have consequences for the function of the gene in many different contexts. As  
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17 490 such, parallel amino acid changes are thought to rarely be directly associated with  
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19 491 phenotypic convergence (Foote et al. 2015). While the genes listed above can be  
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21 492 incidentally linked to either craniofacial morphology or diet, the majority of genes we  
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23 493 detected with convergent selective signatures in *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys* do  
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25 494 not have obvious links to their convergent phenotype.  
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28 496 Increasing evidence implicates regulatory elements controlling pleiotropic genes in  
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30 497 the evolution of complex traits (Prud'homme et al. 2006; Kvon et al. 2016; Feigin et  
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32 498 al. 2018; Roscito et al. 2018), especially in loss-of-function phenotypes such as limb  
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34 499 loss in snakes (Kvon et al. 2016) and eye degeneration in subterranean mammals  
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36 500 (Roscito et al. 2018). In such cases, changes in the timing and level of gene  
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38 501 expression via evolution in regulatory regions may underlie the evolution of  
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40 502 convergent phenotypes. Expansion or contraction of gene families also likely  
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42 503 contributes to patterns of convergent evolution (e.g. Hoffmann et al. 2010;  
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44 504 Whittington et al. 2010). Given the restricted genomic scope of whole exome data,  
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46 505 future work examining whole genomes from across Murinae may shed light on the  
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48 506 contribution of gene family evolution, non-coding regions, and regulatory elements.  
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50 507 More broadly, information about the function of genes in unique morphological and  
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52 508 ecological contexts may not be captured by model species, from which their  
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54 509 functional annotations are derived. As such, any functional relevance for the majority  
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56 510 of genes under convergent selection in *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys* remains  
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58 511 unclear. Inclusion of species representing extreme morphological adaptation in  
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60 512 laboratory studies, including developmental studies, may reveal novel gene function  
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514 513 and gene interactions previously unknown from classic model species.

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515 **Conclusion**

516 Multiple, nested adaptive radiations within Murinae have resulted in repeated and  
517 convergent ecological specialisations, and we recover evidence for this at the genomic  
518 level. Pervasive positive selection on diet-related genes across the radiation, and an  
519 increase in positive selection in dietary specialists, suggests a link between ecological  
520 drivers of diversification and molecular evolution. We highlight both categories of  
521 genes, and specific genes, which may have played an integral role in the repeated  
522 invasion by murine rodents of novel ecological niches, and in the convergent  
523 evolution of worm-eating specialists. Our findings demonstrate the utility and  
524 opportunity for leveraging murine rodents as an emerging model system for  
525 understanding adaptive processes. Given the enormous phenotypic and species  
526 diversity of Murinae, and their existing genomic resources, murine rodents represent a  
527 largely untapped resource for studies of evolutionary processes.

529 **Materials and Methods**

530 *Taxon sampling*

531 We selected 38 representatives of rodents from the subfamily Murinae, including  
532 representatives from Asian, Australian and African radiations. We additionally  
533 included the model murine species *Mus musculus* (genome assembly GRCm38) and  
534 *Rattus norvegicus* (genome assembly Rnor6), with final sampling including ten  
535 species from tribe Hydromyini, 20 species from tribe Rattini, nine species from the  
536 *Mus*-related clade (tribes Apodemini (1), Arvicanthini (3), Murini (1), Malacomyini  
537 (1), and Praomyini (3)), and one species of Phloeomyini. Together, these species are  
538 representative of the substantial ecomorphological variation of murine rodents,  
539 including dietary, microhabitat, and body size variation. In this comparative  
540 framework, we assume that individual samples are representative of species-specific  
541 adaptations and acknowledge that some signatures could reflect local adaptation  
542 within species. Tissues were obtained from museum collections (see supplementary  
543 table S1 for details), where vouchers are permanently curated. These specimens were  
544 collected according to the relevant legal and ethical requirements of each country.

### 545 *Sample preparation, whole-exome capture and sequencing*

546 Total genomic DNA was extracted from liver or muscle tissue using a Qiagen  
547 DNeasy Blood and Tissue Kit, following the manufacturer protocol. DNA library  
548 preparation followed the Meyer and Kircher (2010) protocol. Target regions were  
549 enriched using two NimbleGen SeqCap EZ 1 mouse whole-exome capture reactions  
550 (Fairfield et al. 2011), targeting 54.3 Mb of exonic regions based on the *Mus musculus*  
551 reference genome (NCB137/mm9). These 203,225 target loci represent exons from  
552 nearly all protein-coding regions in *M. musculus* excluding known pseudogenes, and  
553 highly similar multi-copy gene families including olfactory receptor genes (a large  
554 paralogous gene family in murines). The use of *M. musculus* whole-exome  
555 enrichment probes has proven efficient across approximately 7.5 million years  
556 divergence (Sarver et al. 2017). Enriched libraries were sequenced across two lanes of  
557 Illumina NextSeq 550 paired-end, two lanes of Illumina NextSeq 550 single-end, one  
558 lane of MiSeq, and one lane of HiSeq 4000.

### 560 *Obtaining a database of putatively single-copy loci among Murinae*

561 To generate an initial reference set of putatively single-copy exons across Murinae,  
562 we first used liftOver (Hinrichs 2006) to convert *Mus musculus* (mm9) nucleotide  
563 target regions from the whole-exome bait-design (Fairfield et al. 2011) to orthologous  
564 co-ordinates in the *Rattus norvegicus* (Rn5) genome. The final reference set excluded  
565 any loci that could not be aligned between both the mm9 and Rn5 genomes, spanning  
566 ~12 million years of murine evolution. We also removed any exons from the  
567 reference set which had more than one internal hit of > 95% amino acid identity  
568 within either the mm9 or Rn5 genomes, which would suggest they represent recent  
569 duplications. This filtering resulted in a final set of 162,566 exons from 18,797 genes  
570 and was used as the reference for all subsequent analyses.

### 572 *Sequence assembly and alignment*

573 We processed raw sequence data using ECPP v1.1.0, largely following the  
574 workflow described in Roycroft et al. (2020a), but with some modifications. Briefly,  
575 raw reads were de-duplicated using FastUniq v1.1 (Xu et al. 2012) and quality  
576 trimmed using Trimmomatic (Bolger et al. 2014). Cleaned reads for assembled *de*

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*novo* using TRINITY 2.4 (Grabherr et al. 2011; Haas et al. 2014) to generate a sample-specific contig file for each of 38 sequenced species. Using the filtered, putatively single-copy murine loci described above, we identified the best matching contigs in each assembly using tblastn. Using BLAST coordinates, we extracted local matches from assembled contigs to create a sample-specific reference for mapping. We then mapped the cleaned reads to the sample-specific reference using BBmap (version 35.82, Bushnell B. 2015, sourceforge.net/projects/bbmap/) with minid=0.8. Mapping and coverage statistics per-sample are summarised in supplementary table S2. Consensus sequences and variants were called using the mpileup2cns command in VarScan v2.3.7 (Koboldt et al. 2012). Consensus sequences were then collated across all samples for each exon and were aligned using MAFFT v7.310 (Kato and Standley 2013).

*Data filtering and post-hoc paralog detection*

We only included exons in the final dataset which were successfully captured and mapped for at least 27 of 38 samples. To screen for lineage-specific paralogs that were not detected in initial filtering, we calculated average heterozygosity for each sample in each alignment. Alignments with two or more samples with > 3% average heterozygosity (Teasdale et al. 2016; Roycroft et al. 2020a) were excluded, as these may represent loci with pervasive paralogy. We assumed that cases where only one sample had > 3% average heterozygosity represented lineage-specific duplications and removed only that sample from the alignment. A total of 89,621 exons were retained, that were concatenated into 14,229 gene alignments for analysis.

*Phylogenetic analyses*

For phylogenetic analysis, we reduced the full dataset to alignments to a previously qualified, murine-specific set of 1,360 phylogenetically informative single-copy exons (Roycroft et al. 2020a) and estimated the maximum likelihood (ML) phylogeny in IQ-TREE 1.6.1 (Nguyen et al. 2015) from a concatenated supermatrix partitioned by codon position (i.e. three global partitions). We used ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017) to determine the best substitution model for each partition, and executed 1000 ultrafast bootstrap replicates, using UFBoot2 (Hoang et al. 2017). We also

estimated support in IQ-TREE using two-tiered resampling of genes and sites (–bspec  
GENESITE), an approach which we previously showed provided more accurate  
estimates of uncertainty in phylogenomic datasets (Roycroft et al. 2020a). To verify  
this inferred ML topology, we estimated the species tree topology using the coalescent  
approach SVDquartets (Chifman and Kubatko 2014) implemented in PAUP\* v4.0a  
(Swofford 2002). We used MCMCtree (Yang 2007) to estimate time-calibrated  
branch lengths, with the ML topology inferred in IQ-TREE, a GTR+ $\Gamma$  substitution  
model, an uncorrelated  $\Gamma$  relaxed clock, and using the approximate likelihood  
calculation (Thorne et al. 1998; Reis and Yang 2011). We used three secondary  
calibrations from Aghová et al. (2018) that best matched our sampling of Murinae: the  
MRCA of Rattini (95% HPD 9.91 – 12.67 Ma), the MRCA of Sahul Hydromyini  
(95% HPD 6.48 – 8.34 Ma) and the MRCA Praomyini (95% HPD 5.98 – 7.84 Ma).  
Samples were drawn every 1,000 MCMC steps from a total of  $10^7$  steps, with a burn-  
in of  $10^5$  steps. Convergence was assessed by comparing parameter estimates from  
two independent runs, with all effective sample sizes greater than 200.

Mendes and Hahn (2016) showed that estimates of positive selection derived from a  
fixed species tree can be subject to false positives when the individual genealogical  
history conflicts with the species tree. To help combat this in downstream molecular  
evolution analyses, we estimated individual gene trees from each alignment in IQ-  
TREE 1.6.1 (Nguyen et al. 2015) using ModelFinder (Kalyaanamoorthy et al. 2017)  
to select the single best fitting substitution model for each gene.

### *Detecting genes under positive directional selection*

For all 14,229 orthologous genes, we ran two site-based models in codeml 4.9i, the  
M1 and M2 models (Yang 2007). The M1 model allows for two  $\omega$  (dN/dS) rates  
across sites ( $\omega < 1$  and  $\omega = 1$ ), whereas M2 allows three rates ( $\omega < 1$ ,  $\omega = 1$  and  $\omega >$   
1). Evidence of pervasive positive selection at particular sites can be inferred when  
the M2 model is a significantly better fit for that gene than the M1 model. Using a  
likelihood ratio test (LRT), we compared log-likelihood estimates for models M1 and  
M2 to identify genes with sites under positive selection across the murine phylogeny.  
These tests were performed using both the species tree and gene tree as the reference  
topology. We calculated LRT  $p$ -values using chi-squared distribution (d.f. = 2) and

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corrected for multiple tests at a  $p < 0.05$  threshold, using a Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) correction. Genes were considered to have sites under positive selection only if both the LRT was significant after correction, and at least one site was significantly selected using a Bayes Empirical Bayes (BEB) test (posterior probability  $> 0.95$ ; Yang et al. 2005) against both the species tree and gene tree.

*Functional overrepresentation of genes under pervasive selection*

Using g:GOST in g:Profiler (Raudvere et al. 2019), we tested for overrepresentation of GO terms, KEGG pathways (Kanehisa et al. 2016) and Reactome pathways (Jassal et al. 2020) among genes identified as being under significant positive selection in site model tests. We used a custom background including all tested genes and applied an FDR correction for multiple comparisons ( $p < 0.05$ ). To visualise over-represented functional categories, we used REVIGO (Supek et al. 2011) to generate semantic clustering of GO biological process (GO:BP), molecular function (GO:MF) and cellular component (GO:CC) terms (allowing 0.5 term similarity).

*Branch-specific selection pressures*

While site-based models can identify genic sites under significant positive selection across multiple lineages in a phylogeny, they do not provide information about heterogeneity in selection throughout time and across lineages. To investigate this, we used the flexible branch-site test aBSREL (Smith et al. 2015) in HyPhy 2.5.14. (Pond et al. 2005) to estimate  $\omega$  values and proportion of sites under positive selection for each terminal branch in the tree. To reduce potential false positive rates due to tree misspecification (Mendes and Hahn 2016), we applied two approaches to estimating branch-specific selection in aBSREL. First, we estimated values for all terminal branches and genes using the fixed species tree topology: the *species tree topology* data set. Second, we inferred selection across branches and genes using each individually estimated gene tree: the *gene tree topology* data set.

*Positive selection and ecomorphological variation*

For each terminal branch, we calculated the mean proportion of sites under positive selection across all genes in aBSREL, to obtain a genome-wide estimate of the

proportion of sites under positive selection for each species. To first visualise heterogeneity in positive selection across the tree, we used the R function *contMap* in *phytools* (Revell 2012) to plot values from both the *species tree topology* and *gene tree topology* datasets as a heat map on the species tree. To additionally estimate the strength of positive selection for each species using a topology-free approach, we calculated average pairwise dN/dS across all species-pair comparisons using *codeml* (Yang and Nielsen 2000). To test whether this proportion of sites under positive selection, or strength of selection (dN/dS) were correlated with ecological factors, we obtained dietary, microhabitat, reproductive, and body mass data for each species from the literature (Smith et al. 2003; Breed and Ford 2007; Rowe et al. 2016a; Rowe et al. 2016b; Nations et al. 2019; Roycroft et al. 2020b). We coded species according to their diet (carnivore, omnivore, or herbivore), their microhabitat (terrestrial, arboreal, or semi-aquatic), and their reproductive output, (based on the number of mammae for each species, supplementary table S3). Using the time-calibrated species tree inferred in *MCMCtree*, we performed phylogenetic generalised least squares (PGLS) regression and phylogenetic ANOVA with a Bonferroni correction in *phytools* (Revell 2012), to test the effects of diet, microhabitat, reproductive output, and body size on genome-wide positive selection. Further, because effective population size ( $N_e$ ) can affect estimates of positive selection (Ohta 1993; Gossman et al. 2010; Deinum et al. 2015), we jointly modelled the additive and interacting effects of average exome-wide heterozygosity, and third codon position heterozygosity (as proxies for  $N_e$ ), with ecological traits in the comparative analysis.

To further determine whether there was an interaction between gene function, positive selection, and ecological traits, we used GO annotations and *Gene ORGANizer* (Gokhman et al. 2017) classifications to identify genes with function in the digestive (1,657 genes) and reproductive systems (2,077 genes). We then estimated the mean percent of positively selected genes across digestive and non-digestive genes, and reproductive and non-reproductive genes. Using the same approach described above, we ran PGLS and phylogenetic ANOVA with dietary state or number of mammae as the predictor, respectively. Using a binary measure of dietary state (1 = specialist; i.e. herbivore or carnivore, 0 = generalist; i.e. omnivore), we also performed a Spearman's rank correlation test to determine which genes showed the highest correlation between positively selected sites and lineages with

708 dietary specialisation. Using g:Profiler, we tested for over-representation of functional  
 709 categories in the top and bottom 10% and 5% of genes, and performed functional  
 710 enrichment analysis using the calculated Spearman's  $\rho$  value for each gene.

#### 712 *Branch-specific convergence in positive and relaxed selection*

713 We tested for branch-specific convergent positive selection by performing a  
 714 branch-site test in aBSREL across all genes, with two phenotypically convergent  
 715 vermivorous rodents, *Paucidentomys vermidax* and *Rhynchomys labo*, set as  
 716 foreground branches. All analyses were repeated using both the *species tree topology*  
 717 and *gene tree topology* datasets. A recent study showed that multinucleotide  
 718 mutations (MNMs) may cause false inferences in branch-site tests of positive  
 719 selection (Venkat et al. 2018). For genes where we detected positive selection in both  
 720 *Paucidentomys* and *Rhynchomys*, we accounted for this by applying models that allow  
 721 double and triple MNMs using the --multiple-hits Double and --multiple-hits  
 722 Double+Triple options in HyPhy 2.5.14. As MNM models include additional  
 723 parameters compared to the standard aBSREL model, we compared AICc scores from  
 724 standard aBSREL, aBSREL + Double and aBSREL + Double + Triple, and retained  
 725 results from the model with the lowest AICc score. To further determine whether  
 726 there were more shared genes under positive selection in *Paucidentomys* and  
 727 *Rhynchomys* than in other non-convergent murine forms, we repeated all analysis  
 728 using a non-convergent 'control' comparison, i.e., by comparing genes under positive  
 729 selection in the graminivorous Australian rodent *Mastacomys fuscus* (tribe  
 730 Hydromyini), and the carnivorous Sulawesi shrew rat *Echiothrix centrosa* (tribe  
 731 Rattini) as the foreground test branches. These control species are phylogenetically  
 732 equidistant to the *Paucidentomys* (tribe Rattini) and *Rhynchomys* (tribe Hydromyini)  
 733 comparison and occur along comparable terminal branch lengths in the tree.

734  
 735 To test for genes with evidence for shared relaxation of selection in *Paucidentomys*  
 736 and *Rhynchomys*, we ran RELAX in HyPhy 2.5.14 using both the *species tree*  
 737 *topology* and *gene tree topology* datasets. For comparison, relaxation analyses were  
 738 also repeated using the same non-convergent species pair as above, *Mastacomys*  
 739 *fuscus* and *Echiothrix centrosa*. All p-values were corrected for multiple tests at a  $p <$   
 740 0.05 threshold, using a Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate (FDR) correction.

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742 *Detecting convergence site-based functional shifts*

743 To detect potential convergence of positively selected sites in *Paucidentomys*  
744 *vermidax* and *Rhynchomys labo*, we tested all genes for evidence of convergent amino  
745 acid shifts using PCOC (Rey et al. 2018). This approach applies a CAT model (Quang  
746 et al. 2008) of protein evolution in a species-tree context to detect convergent shifts in  
747 amino acid profile along branches with convergent phenotypes. To filter for only sites  
748 with strong evidence for convergent profile shifts, we set a posterior probability  
749 threshold of  $> 0.9$  for all PCOC, OC and PC output.

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751 **Data Availability**

752 Processed sequence alignments underlying the analyses in this manuscript will be  
753 made available in the Dryad Digital Repository. Raw sequence reads are available via  
754 the NCBI Sequence Read Archive under BioProject ID PRJNA705792, BioSample  
755 accession numbers SAMN18102763 – SAMN18102800, SRA accession numbers  
756 SRR13848278 – SRR13848315. Code used to process sequence data is available at  
757 <https://github.com/Victaphanta/ECPP/>

758

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**Figure Legends**

**Figure 1** Exceptional convergence of craniofacial morphology and dentition in worm-eating specialists; A) *Paucidentomys vermidax* (Muridae: Rattini) and B) *Rhynchomys labo* (Muridae: Hydromyini), compared to two generalist species belonging to the same respective clades; C) *Rattus fuscipes* (Muridae: Rattini), and D) *Pseudomys shortridgei* (Muridae: Hydromyini). Photos by A) D. Paul, Museums Victoria, B) modified from Rickart et al. (2019) with permission, C) and D) M. Rawlinson, C. Accurso and K. Walker, Museums Victoria

**Figure 2** Time-calibrated phylogeny of sampled murine species generated in MCMCtree, with a consistent topology estimated in both IQ-TREE and SVDquartets. All phylogenetic analyses were based on a subset of 1,360 loci (Roycroft et al. 2020a). Nodes with less than 100% support using more than one branch support approach are indicated with an asterisk. Species numbers to the right of the phylogeny indicate the total number of described species in each of the three main murine clades, with *Phloeomys pallidus* the sole representative in this study of the tribe Phloeomyini.

**Figure 3** Over-represented functions of genes under pervasive positive selection ( $p < 0.05$ ) across Murinae using annotations from A) Reactome pathways, and B) Gene Ontology biological process categories, grouped using REVIGO semantic clustering (similarity threshold = 0.5). Circle size represents  $\log_{10}$  p-value for the significance of over-representation; colours indicate functions related to the immune system, dietary processes, and reproduction.

**Figure 4** Heterogeneity in genome-wide positive selection and ecological predictors. A) average percentage of sites under positive selection plotted as a heat map on the species tree topology with dietary states indicated at the tips, calculated with aBSREL in HyPhy using either the *species tree topology* (left) or *gene tree topology* (right,

with terminal branches matched to the species tree topology for visualisation)  
datasets. B) Comparison of average percent sites under positive selection across  
dietary states (carnivorous, herbivorous, or omnivorous), C) microhabitats (arboreal,  
semiaquatic, or terrestrial), D) number of mammae, and E) log of body mass.  
Significance values are derived from phylogenetic ANOVA (\* = FDR corrected  $p <$   
0.05)

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