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Big, Bad, and Beautiful: Phylogenetic Relationships of the Horned Frogs (Anura: Ceratophryidae)

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Abstract. The horned frog family, Ceratophryidae, currently comprises three genera and 12 extant species, distributed from the Caribbean lowlands to the Pampean grasslands. Horned frogs are fossorial species that are remarkable in terms of their adult and larval morphology, karyotype, behavior, and other aspects of their biology. In this paper we present a molecular phylogenetic analysis with the goals of: (1) exploring the relationships among the species of Ceratophryidae; (2) studying the evolution of polyploidy; (3) studying the evolution of cocoon formation and larval development duration associated with surviving in semiarid environments; and (4) reviewing the ceratophryid fossil record that could be relevant as calibration points in molecular divergence estimations. The analysis included 11 of the 12 extant species and, when possible, multiple exemplars per species, as well as multiple outgroups. Sequence data were obtained on seven mitochondrial and six nuclear genes for up to 8200 bp per specimen. Our results indicate that the individual monophyly of Ceratophrys and Lepidobatrachus is well corroborated. The monotypic Chacophrys is recovered as the sister taxon of Lepidobatrachus, but with Jackknife frequency < 50%. Lepidobatrachus asper is the sister taxon of L. laevis + L. llanensis. Relationships within Ceratophrys are congruent with an earlier proposal, with a clade composed of the species possessing a dorsal bony shield (Ce. aurita, Ce. cranwelli, Ce. joazeirensis, and Ce. ornata), and another clade composed of Ce. stolzmanni, Ce. calcarata, and Ce. cornuta. Unlike earlier proposals, the octoploid species (Ce. aurita, Ce. joazeirensis, and Ce. ornata) are not monophyletic, as the diploid Ce. cranwelli, and Ce. ornata are sister taxa. This result implies an ambiguous optimization of ploidy levels, with either a single origin of octoploidy with a subsequent reversal to diploidy, or two independent origins of octoploidy being equally parsimonious; both alternatives are quite unusual from the perspective of chromosome evolution. Our results suggest that ceratophryids diversified in semiarid environments and three independent events resulted in three species subsequently occupying temperate or tropical humid areas. This early diversification in semiarid areas explains the retention of characteristics associated with these environments (like the production of a cocoon of dead skin during estivation, and possibly an accelerated larval period and development) in species present in humid areas. A revision of the fossil record of this family of frogs indicates that there are only two fossil remains that could serve as calibration points for molecular clock estimation, but a number of issues associated with them preclude their use.

Keywords. Ceratophrys; Chacophrys; Divergence time estimation; Fossil calibration; Hyloides; Karyotype evolution; Lepidobatrachus; Semi-arid environments.

INTRODUCTION

"Irritandolo si avventa, e afferra con la sua larga e monstruossa bocca ció che gli si presenta, e fa sentire una grandissima, ma rauca voce." First description of aggressive behavior in a ceratophryid frog (Ceratophrys aurita) by Giuseppe Raddi (1823).

Although not reaching the level of pop culture icons like the T-Rex or panda, horned frogs have gained a special place in the view of the general public: Their relatively large size and bizarre, and in some species colorful, aspect, coupled with their aggressiveness leave a long lasting impression on anyone that has ever had the

chance to meet one alive, not to mention, get bitten by one.

The horned frog family, Ceratophryidae, currently comprises three genera and 12 extant species. *Ceratophrys* includes eight extant species that are the most colorful ceratophryids and collectively are distributed from the Caribbean lowlands in Colombia and Venezuela to central Argentina, including the arid coastal areas of northern Peru and southern Ecuador, the Amazon basin, the Caatinga in NE Brazil, the Cerrado in central Brazil, the Atlantic Forest, the Gran Chaco, and the Pampean grasslands. *Lepidobatrachus*, the Budgett's frogs, includes three species that are inhabitants of the Gran Chaco. *Chacophrys pierottii* is so far known only from the drier western section of the Gran Chaco.

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Interest in ceratophryids far exceeds their curious appearance. Among other aspects of their biology, their anatomy, larval morphology, ontogeny, diet, behavior, and karvology have been capturing the attention of herpetologists for a long time. The unique larval morphology in Lepidobatrachus and unusual larval morphologies of Chacophrys and Ceratophrys are well documented (Miranda-Ribeiro, 1923; Parker, 1931; Cei, 1968; Faivovich and Carrizo, 1992; Quinzio et al., 2006), as are several aspects of their anatomy and development (Fritzsch et al., 1987; Wassersug and Heyer, 1988; Ruibal and Thomas, 1988; Lavilla and Fabrezi, 1992; Ulloa Kreisel 2000, 2002; Vera Candioti, 2005; Fabrezi and Quinzio, 2008; Fabrezi and Lobo, 2009; Fabrezi, 2011; Bloom et al., 2013; Fabrezi and Cruz, 2014; Quinzio and Fabrezi, 2014), and a unique sound-producing mechanism in the larvae of Ceratophrys (Natale et al., 2011; Salgado Costa et al., 2014). The ontogeny of the postcranial skeleton and the massive skull have been well studied (Wild 1997, 1999; Fabrezi, 2011; Quinzio and Fabrezi, 2012; Ziermann et al., 2013), as has variation in the distinctive muscles employed in feeding and locomotion (Limeses, 1963; 1964; Reig and Limeses, 1963; Fabrezi and Lobo, 2009; Fabrezi et al., 2014); their carnivorous diet was recently reviewed by Schalk et al. (2014). The characteristic aggressive behavior of ceratophryids has been known since Raddi's (1823), Günther's (1882), and Hudson's (1892) pioneering observations, and described in detail by Barrio (1963). All ceratophryids are characterized by having a basic chromosome number of x = 13; however, interesting variation in ploidy level caught the attention of researchers in the 1960s (Beçak et al., 1967; Bogart, 1967; Morescalchi, 1967; Bogart, 1967; Barrio and Rinaldi de Chieri, 1970; Mercadal, 1981; Schmid et al., 1985; Soares-Scott et al., 1988; Vieira et al., 2006). Whereas Chacophrys pierottii and the three species of Lepidobatrachus are diploid (2n = 2x = 26), there are also diploid (2n = 2x = 26) and octoploid species (2n = 8x = 104) in *Ceratophrys*, yet no extant taxa are known to be tetraploid or hexaploid.

Ceratophryids are generally fossorial and are active during the rainy season regardless of whether they inhabit semiarid environments with a highly seasonal climate, humid grasslands, or rainforests (Fernández and Fernández, 1921; Vellard, 1948; Barrio, 1968a, b; Duellman and Lizana, 1994). When active, adults of Lepidobatrachus are mostly aquatic, whereas Ceratophrys and Chacophrys are more terrestrial. When humidity decreases, at least some ceratophryids are known to burrow into humid soil and produce a cocoon of dead skin that significantly decreases water loss in the dry soil during estivation (McClanahan et al., 1976, 1983; Bastos and Abe, 1998); according to an anecdotal report in captivity, they can persist in this situation for 20 months (Pisanó and Paz, 1954). Furthermore, most ceratophryids have an enlarged distal prehallical element that provides support for a heavily keratinized

metatarsal spade used for digging (Fabrezi, 2001). Rapid larval development is known to occur in some species (Quinzio et al., 2006; Fabrezi, 2011).

A series of contributions by Barrio (1963), Limeses (1963, 1964, 1965a, b, 1968), Reig (1972), Reig and Cei (1963), Reig and Limeses (1963), and Lynch (1971) established the distinctiveness of the three genera currently included in Ceratophryidae on the basis of multiple sources of evidence. This distinct group received different ranks from tribe to family (Lynch, 1971, 1982; Heyer, 1975; Cei, 1980; Laurent, 1986), but its monophyly has never been questioned, possibly due to the number of diagnostic characters, several of which are today considered synapomorphies or putative synapomorphies advanced by the authors mentioned above.

The first quantitative analysis of the relationships of ceratophryids was Heyer's (1975) study of leptodactylid frogs using the monothetic group method, in which he included one exemplar each of *Ceratophrys* (*Ce. calcarata*) and *Lepidobatrachus* (*L. laevis*). Lynch (1982) presented a phylogenetic hypothesis focused on *Ceratophrys* on the basis of 20 phenotypic characters, with transformations polarized a priori. In a similar way, Mercadal (1986) presented a scheme of relationships for the species of *Ceratophrys* based on six characters. Maxson and Ruibal (1988) presented an analysis of albumin immunological distances among *Chacophrys*, one species of *Lepidobatrachus*, and five species of *Ceratophrys*.

The monophyly of Ceratophryidae was first tested in a modern, quantitative context using two exemplars (*Ceratophrys ornata* and *Lepidobatrachus laevis*) in the phylogenetic study of Haas (2003) on the basis of mostly larval morphology. Subsequent analyses of molecular data (e.g., Darst and Cannatella, 2004; Wiens et al., 2005, 2006: Supp. Data; Frost et al., 2006; Grant et al., 2006; Roelants et al., 2011: Supp. Data; Pyron and Wiens, 2011; Pyron, 2014: Supp. Data) using similar exemplars (or some including *Chacophrys pierottii* as well), corroborated the monophyly of this clade, always with high support. Fabrezi (2006) and Fabrezi and Quinzio (2008) obtained similar results using phenotypic characters of adults and larvae, with different datasets and taxonomic sampling.

Although species now included in *Chacophrys* and *Lepidobatrachus* have been considered species of *Ceratophrys* (Boulenger, 1919; Nieden, 1923; Parker, 1931; Vellard, 1948; Lynch, 1971), the limits of the latter have also changed, previously including a number of species now in the odontophrynid genus *Proceratophrys* (Boulenger, 1882; Cochran, 1955). The monotypic genus *Chacophrys* was considered first a synonym of *Ceratophrys* (Lynch, 1971) and then a putative hybrid between *Ce. cranwelli* and *L. llanensis* (Lynch, 1982). No support was found for this by Maxson and Ruibal (1988) or Faivovich and Carrizo (1992), and this hypothesis was rejected experimentally by Alt and Alt (1993).

Lynch (1971) presented the first comments on the complete composition of Ceratophrys as it is mostly considered today, whereby he included Ce. aurita (Raddi, 1823), Ce. calcarata Boulenger, 1890, Ce. cornuta (Linnaeus, 1768), Ce. ornata (Bell, 1843), Ce. pierottii Vellard, 1948, Ce. stolzmanni Steindachner, 1882, and Ce. testudo Andersson, 1945. Subsequently Barrio (1980) described Ce. cranwelli, and Mercadal de Barrio (1986) described Ce. joazeirensis. Lynch (1982) considered Ce. testudo a junior synonym of Ce. cornuta, whereas Mercadal de Barrio (1988) and Perí (1993) considered it a valid species. After an attempt to delimit the species of *Lepidobatrachus* by Reig and Cei (1963), Barrio (1968a, b) presented a thorough taxonomic review of the genus, clearly differentiating the three species currently included in the genus: L. asper Budgett, 1899, L. laevis Budgett, 1899, and L. llanensis Reig and Cei, 1963.

The fossil record assigned to Ceratophryidae is particularly abundant in comparison with the sparse fossil record of anurans in general (e.g., Sanchiz, 1998). Since the 19th century, several anuran fossil remains have been associated with this family (Günter, 1859; Ameghino, 1899), including remains from the Cretaceous (Báez and Perí, 1989; Evans et al., 2008, 2014) to the Holocene (Stoessel et al., 2008), and from Madagascar (Evans et al., 2008, 2014) to western Argentina (Casamiquela, 1963; Báez and Perí 1990; Contreras and Acosta 1998).

As summarized above, this small family of frogs has received relatively extensive attention; however, one aspect of the group that is essential for a complete understanding of their evolution is glaringly lacking: a robust phylogenetic hypothesis based on total evidence and broad taxon sampling. The abundance of information available on ceratophryids makes this group an ideal subject for a total evidence analysis. Furthermore, such a hypothesis is necessary in order to synthesize the vast amount of knowledge accumulated over decades of research on these fascinating frogs and to interpret their evolution in an explicitely historical framework. In anticipation of such a study, here we present the results of a molecular phylogenetic analysis of ceratophryids with the goals of: (1) exploring the relationships among its species, (2) studying the evolution of polyploidy, (3) studying the evolution of cocoon formation and larval development duration associated with surviving in semiarid environments, and (4) reviewing the ceratophryid fossil record that could be relevant as calibration points in molecular divergence time estimations.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Taxon sampling

We included exemplars of *Chacophrys pierottii*, all three species of *Lepidobatrachus*, and seven of the eight

species of *Ceratophrys*. The missing species, *Ce. testudo*, has not been collected since its original description and is known only from its holotype, a juvenile specimen (Andersson, 1945). Sequences for multiple specimens per species were available for all species except for *Ce. calcarata*, *Ce. ornata*, and *Ce. stolzmanni*.

Outgroups were selected on the basis of the results of Frost et al. (2006), Grant et al. (2006), Pyron and Wiens (2011), Fouquet et al. (2013), and Pyron (2014). Due to the incongruent or poorly supported position of Ceratophryidae in most of these analyses, we included as outgroups exemplars of the families in the clades recovered by the different analyses as closely related to Ceratophryidae. These include: Allophrynidae (Allophryne); Alsodidae (Alsodes, Eupsophus, and Limnomedusa); Bufonidae (Amazophrynella, Bufo, Duttaphrynus, Melanophryniscus, Nannophryne, and Rhinella); Centrolenidae (Celsiella, Cochranella, Espadarana, Hyalinobatrachium, Ikakogi, Nymphargus, and Vitreorana); Cycloramphidae (Cyclorhamphus and Thoropa); Hylodidae (Crossodactylus and Hylodes); Odontophrynidae (Macrogenioglottus, Odontophrynus, and Proceratophrys); and Rhinodermatidae (Insuetophrynus and Rhinoderma). Of special concern are Batrachylidae and Telmatobiidae, which were recovered as sister taxa of Ceratophryidae in several analyses with variable support (Faivovich et al., 2005; Frost et al., 2006; Grant et al., 2006; Fouquet et al., 2013; Blotto et al., 2013). From these we included one species of Atelognathus, the monotypic Hylorina, and one species of Batrachyla. We included just five species of *Telmatobius*; however, we consider this to be adequate considering that the levels of molecular diversity in this genus so far appear to be notably low (e.g., De la Riva et al., 2010; Sáez et al., 2014). We further included exemplars of other hyloid families and rooted the optimal trees with a hemiphractid, Stefania evansi.

Character sampling

The analysis included up to 8,200 bp per specimen. The mitochondrial gene sequences produced for this project include portions of cytochrome oxidase I (COI), cytochrome b, 12S, the intervening tRNAVal, 16S, and a fragment including the complete upstream section of 16S, the intervening tRNA^{Leu}, NADH dehydrogenase subunit 1 (ND1), and tRNA^{Ile} which was first incorporated by Wiens et al. (2005). The nuclear gene sequences produced include portions of seven in absentia homolog 1 (mistakenly called "Seventh in absentia" by Faivovich et al., 2005), exon 1 of rhodopsin, tyrosinase, recombinationactivating gene 1 (RAG-1), proopiomelanocortin A gene (POMC; first employed by Wiens et al., 2005), and exon 2 of chemokine receptor 4 (CXCR4, first employed by Biju and Bossuyt, 2003). All the primers employed are the same as those employed by Faivovich et al. (2005),

with the addition of 16S-frog and tMet-frog (fragment of 16S + tRNA^{Leu} + ND1 + tRNA^{Ile}; Wiens et al., 2005), CytbAR-H (used with MVZ15 to obtain a larger fragment of cytochrome b than the one employed by Faivovich et al., 2005; Goebel et al., 1999), POMC-1 and POMC-2 (Wiens et al., 2005), and CXCR4-C and CXCR4-G (Biju and Bossuyt, 2003). For COI we employed the primers AnF1-AnR1 designed by Mariana L. Lyra (ACHAAYCAY-AAAGAYATYGG; CCRAARAATCARAADARRTGTTG).

DNA isolation and sequencing

Whole cellular DNA was extracted from ethanolpreserved tissues with the DNeasy (QIAGEN, Valencia, CA) isolation kit. Amplification was carried out in a 25-µl-volume reaction using Fermentas TAQ and reagents. For all the amplifications, the PCR program included an initial denaturing step of 30 s at 94°C, followed by 35 (mitochondrial gene fragments) or 45 (nuclear gene fragments) cycles of amplification (94°C for 30 s; 48-64°C for 30 s; 72°C for 60 s), with a final extension step at 72°C for 6 min. Polymerase chain reaction amplification products were cleaned using Exo I/SAP (Fermentas), and sequenced by a third party using fluorescent-dye labelled terminators (ABI Prism Big Dye Terminators v. 1.1 cycle sequencing kits; Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA) with an ABI 3730XL (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA); all samples were sequenced in both directions to check for potential errors. Chromatograms obtained from the automated sequencer were read and contigs made using the sequence editing software Sequencher 3.0. (Gene Codes, Ann Arbor, MI). Complete sequences were edited with BioEdit (Hall, 1999). See Appendix S1 for a list of specimens and locality data, and Appendix S2 for Gen-Bank numbers.

Phylogenetic analysis

The rationale for using parsimony as an optimality criterion was advanced by Farris (1983) and discussed, among others, by Goloboff (2003) and Goloboff and Pol (2005). The phylogenetic analyses included treatment of DNA sequences both as dynamic homologies and as static homology hypotheses. The consideration of sequences as dynamic homologies simultaneously with tree searches has been discussed and justified by Wheeler (1996, 2002, 2012), De Laet (2005), Kluge and Grant (2006), and Grant and Kluge (2009). Static alignments (multiple alignments) independent of tree searches are the most common procedure in molecular phylogenetics, regardless of the omnipresent and ignored problem of the lack of an optimality criterion to choose among competing alignments. Though our sympathies rest with direct

optimization, we realize that many colleagues disagree, and so, with the objective of collegiality, we performed a multiple sequence alignment (see below) and analyzed it using both parsimony and Bayesian inference.

The phylogenetic analysis under direct optimization was performed with POY5.1.1 (Varón et al., 2010, 2011), using equal weights for all transformations (substitutions and insertion/deletion events). Sequences of 12S, 16S, tRNA $^{\rm Val}$, tRNA $^{\rm Leu}$, and tRNA $^{\rm Ileu}$ were preliminarily delimited in sections of putative homology (Wheeler et al., 2006), and equal-length sequences of protein-coding genes were considered as static alignments to accelerate the searches.

Searches were performed using the command "Search". This command implements a driven search building Wagner trees using random addition sequences (RAS), Tree Bisection and Reconnection (TBR) branch swapping followed by Ratchet (Nixon, 1999), and Tree Fussing (Goloboff, 1999). The command (Search) stores the shortest trees of each independent run and does final tree fusing using the pooled trees as a source of topological diversity. The resulting topologies were submitted to a final round of TBR using iterative pass optimization (Wheeler, 2003).

Phylogenetic analyses using POY were executed in parallel using the Museu de Zoologia da Universidade de São Paulo's high-performance computing cluster Ace, which consists of 12 quad-socket AMD Opteron 6376 16-core 2.3-GHz CPU, 16 MB cache, 6.4 GT/s compute nodes (= 768 cores total), eight with 128 GB RAM DDR3 1600 MHz (16×8 GB), two with 256 GB (16×16 GB), and two with 512 GB (32×16 GB), and QDR 4X InfiniBand (32 GB/s) networking.

We also performed a multiple alignment with MAFFT v.7 (Katoh and Standley, 2013). For the regions of 12S, tRNAVal, and 16S, and the fragment including the complete upstream section of 16S, the intervening tRNA^{Leu}, NADH dehydrogenase subunit 1 (ND1), and tRNA^{Ile} we employed the alignments generated with Q-INS-i strategy (secondary structure of RNA is considered), whereas the alignments for the remaining genes were generated with G-INS-i (global homology considered). For the phylogenetic analysis using parsimony we employed T.N.T Willi Hennig Society Edition (Goloboff et al., 2008). Searches were done using the new technology search under search level 50, which included sectorial searches, tree drift and tree fusing (Goloboff, 1999), and requesting the driven search to hit the best length 100 times. Parsimony Jackknife absolute frequencies (Farris et al., 1996) were estimated using new technology as well requesting 10 hits with driven searches, for a total of 1,000 replicates. Trees were edited with FigTree (Rambaut, 2014).

For the bayesian analysis, models for each partition were chosen with jModelTest v0.1.1 (Posada, 2008), a modification of Modeltest (Posada and Crandall, 1998). First, second, and third codon positions were treated as

separate partitions for each protein-coding gene. The regions of 12S, $tRNA^{Val}$, 16S, $tRNA^{Leu}$ and $tRNA^{Ile}$ were treated as a single partition for model selection. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was used to select the best fitting model for each gene (Pol, 2004; Posada and Buckley, 2004). Bayesian analyses were performed in MrBayes 3.2 (Ronquist et al., 2012) in the CIPRES web cluster (Miller et al., 2010). Analyses consisted of four runs, each consisting of two replicate Monte-Carlo Markov Chains. Each run used four chains and default settings of priors (Dirichlet for substitution rates and state frequencies, uniform for the gamma shape parameter and proportion of invariable sites, all topologies equally likely a priori, and branch lengths unconstrained: exponential). Two analyses running 60 million generations were performed (with a burn-in fraction of 0.20). Stabilization of resulting parameters was evaluated using Tracer (Rambaut et al., 2014). Uncorrected p-distances were calculated in PAUP* (Swofford, 2002).

RESULTS

The analysis using direct optimization resulted in 10 equally parsimonious tree/alignment combinations of 38,965 steps, swapping of these topologies under iterative pass resulted in no topological changes and a treelength of 38,844 steps; one of the optimal topologies is shown in Fig. 1; see Figure S1 for outgroup topology. The best length was hit 354 times. The analysis of static parsimony resulted in six equally parsimonius trees of 39,780 steps. Relationships of Ceratophryidae recovered in the Bayesian analysis are the same as those of the direct optimization (see Figure S2) and are not further discussed. All conflict among equally parsimonius trees in the direct optimization and static parsimony analyses is restricted to internal relationships among exemplars of *Ceratophrys* cranwelli, Chacophrys pierottii, and Lepidobatrachus llanensis. The monophyly of Ceratophryidae, as well as the individual monophyly of Ceratophrys and Lepidobatrachus are supported in these analyses with 99-100% Jackknife frequency. The position of *Chacophrys pierottii* is poorly supported, being the sister taxon of Lepidobatrachus in the analysis using direct optimization, and the sister taxon of Ceratophrys + Lepidobatrachus in the static parsimony analysis. Other than this difference, all analyses recovered the same topology for Ceratophryidae. Lepidobatrachus asper is the sister taxon of a clade with 100% Jackknife frequency composed of *L. laevis* + *L. llanensis*.

Ceratophrys is composed of two main clades. One of these, with 60% Jackknife frequency, includes Ce. stolzmanni as the sister taxon of a clade composed of Ce. calcarata + Ce. cornuta (100% Jackknife frequency). The other clade (100% Jackknife frequency) includes Ce. aurita + Ce. joazeirensis as the sister taxon of Ce. cranwelli + Ce. ornata.

DISCUSSION

Outgroups

The inclusion of multiple outgroups was intended to present a stringent test of the monophyly of Ceratophryidae and its possible relationships with other clades. As such, we consider our results only in that context, and do not consider our analysis to constitute a test of previous hypotheses regarding relationships among other clades.

Our results recover relationships among outgroups that, overall, differ little from other studies in that exemplars of most currently recognized hyloid families (Centrolenidae, Hylidae, Dendrobatidae, Bufonidae, Odontophrynidae, Hylodidae, Batrachylidae, Alsodidae, and Rhinodermatidae) are monophyletic (Figure S1). Unlike other studies (Frost et al., 2006; Pyron and Wiens, 2011; Fouquet et al., 2013; Pyron, 2014: Supp. Data), our results failed to recover the monophyly of Leptodactylidae, obtaining instead a non-monophyletic Leiuperinae, distantly related to Leptodactylinae + Paratelmatobiinae. Like other studies, Cycloramphidae is not recovered monophyletic, and Limnomedusa is obtained in an alternative position. Relationships among most clades have jackknife frequencies < 50%. A sister group relationship between Telmatobiidae and Ceratophryidae has been obtained by some studies with different taxon sampling (Faivovich et al., 2005; Wiens et al., 2005; Grant et al., 2006; Blotto et al., 2013; Fouquet et al., 2013) but not in the re-analyses of GenBank sequences by Pyron and Wiens (2011) and Pyron (2014) or the present analysis, where these groups are only distantly related.

Ceratophryid relations

Our results highly support the individual monophyly of *Ceratophrys* and *Lepidobatrachus*, unlike recent analyses of GenBank sequences by Pyron and Wiens (2011) and Pyron (2014), in which *Ceratophrys* was found to be paraphyletic with respect to *Chacophrys* and *Lepidobatrachus*. We detected a number of problems with misidentified sequences in their analyses (See Appendix S3). However, these involve accidental chimeras among different species of *Ceratophrys*, a clade with a well-corroborated monophyly in our analysis, so they probably do not explain, by themselves, the non-monophyly of this genus found by these authors.

The phylogenetic position of *Chacophrys* among ceratophryids has been contentious. In the molecular analyses of Grant et al. (2006) and Frost et al. (2006), who included one exemplar of each genus, *Lepidobatrachus* was found to be the sister taxon of *Chacophrys* + *Ceratophrys*. Fabrezi (2006) used a diverse outgroup sampling, 80 phenotypic characters of adults and larvae, and exemplars

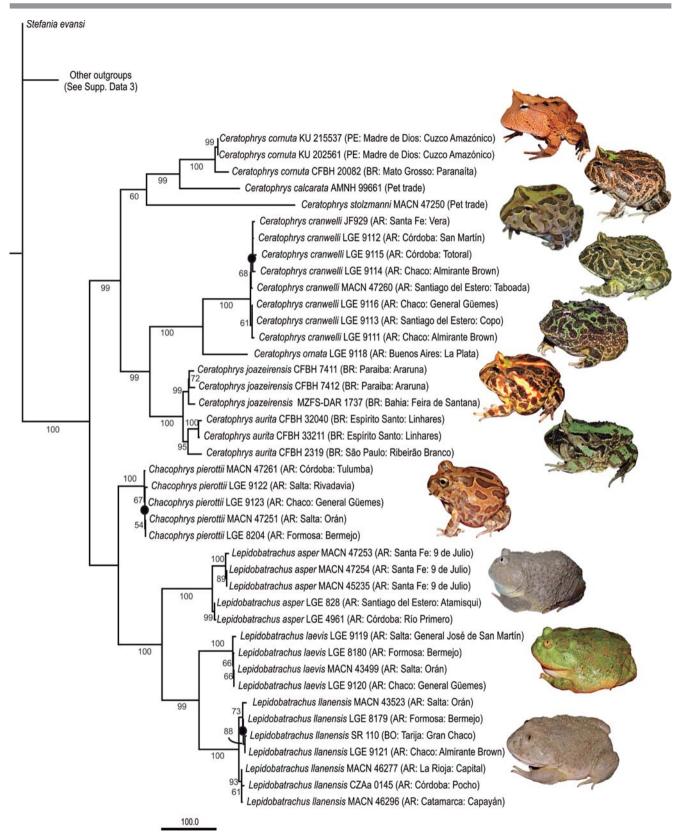


Figure 1. Phylogenetic relationships of Ceratophryidae as recovered in one of the 10 most parsimonious trees obtained with direct optimization (length 38,844 steps) under equal weights for all transformations. Black circles indicate nodes that collapse in the strict consensus. Values around nodes are parsimony jackknife frequencies estimated for the static alignment analyzed with parsimony in T.N.T. with gaps as fifth state. Nodes lacking values have < 50% jackknife frequencies. See Figure S1 for outgroup relationships. Institutional collection codes follow Sabaj Pérez (2014), with the exceptions noted in Appendix S1.

of Ceratophryidae *Chacophrys, Ce. cranwelli, L. laevis,* and *L. llaensis,* resulting in the topology *Ceratophrys* + (*Chacophrys* + *Lepidobatrachus*). Fabrezi and Quinzio (2008) greatly reduced the outgroup sampling of Fabrezi (2006), while expanding and modifying the characters, and found a topology that included *Chacophrys* + (*Ceratophrys* + *Lepidobatrachus*).

The present analysis is the first to combine a dense character sampling, with most known extant diversity of Ceratophryidae and extensive outgroup sampling of exemplars of most nobleobatrachian families. Despite these efforts, our results indicate an unsupported position of *Chacophrys* as the sister taxon of *Lepidobatrachus*, with a Jackknife frequency value < 50% (Fig. 1).

Considering that our taxon sampling of extant species in the family is nearly complete, this lack of supported resolution could have several explanations that mostly belong to speculation. It could be a simple methodological problem, such as the absence of informative characters for the relevant node resulting from insufficient character sampling. In this respect, we look forward to the combination of our data with a phenotypic dataset incorporating all the available informative variation in ceratophryids in a total evidence analysis that could further test the relationships of *Chacophrys* with *Ceratophrys* and Lepidobatrachus. On the other hand, we might also be missing important parts of the diversity that arose during the evolutionary history of the family, resulting in a depauperate extant diversity. Similar arguments could be raised for the 60% jackknife support for the monophyly of Ce. stolzmanni + (Ce. calcarata + Ce. cornuta).

Chacophrys

Chacophrys pierottii has a wide distribution in the western Chacoan region. It occurs in Alto Paraguay, Boqueron, and Presidente Hayes in Paraguay (Brusquetti and Lavilla, 2006); Chuquisaca, Santa Cruz and Tarija, in eastern Bolivia (De la Riva et al., 2000); and Santiago del Estero, Chaco, Formosa, and in the dry Chacoan areas of Córdoba, La Rioja, San Luis, San Juan, and Catamarca in Argentina. Our study includes specimens from Chaco, NW Córdoba, Formosa, La Rioja, and Salta. 16S p-distances among them are very low, 0.0–0.2% (Table S1.1). The biology of *Chacophrys pierottii* remains poorly known and is restricted to sparce information on natural history of their tadpoles (Faivovich and Carrizo, 1992; Quinzio et al., 2006), diet of juveniles (Pueta and Perotti, 2013), aggressive behavior, and advertisement and aggressive calls (Lescano, 2011).

Lepidobatrachus

Whereas there is extensive evidence supporting the monophyly of *Lepidobatrachus*, this hypothesis has not

been tested in the context of an analysis that includes all the extant species. Previous studies (Fabrezi, 2006; Fabrezi and Quinzio, 2008) have included L. laevis and L. llanensis, or only L. laevis (Frost et al., 2006; Pyron and Wiens, 2011; Pyron, 2014), or only L. llanensis (Darst and Cannatella, 2004; as Lepidobatrachus sp., see Appendix S3).

Our sampling of Lepidobatrachus asper includes specimens from distant localities within the main area of distribution of this species in Argentina (Barrio, 1968a, b; Faivovich, 1994) in southern Santiago del Estero, along the salt flats of the Saladillo river (type locality of L. salinicola now considered a junior synonym of L. asper) to northeastern Córdoba, and northern Santa Fe and southwestern Chaco provinces, with two isolated records in western Corrientes. The species has also been recorded in a few localities in the Paraguayan Chaco (Faivovich, 1994), including its type locality, from which we lack samples. Barrio (1968a, b) noticed differences in pigmentation in adults from populations in northern Santa Fe and Santiago del Estero provinces, but considered this to be geographic variation. The sequences from our specimens differ minimally (0.2–0.5%, see Table S1.2). It is possible that populations from Argentina are actually continuous, as the westernmost known localities for L. asper in Santa Fe are not very distant from those in eastern Córdoba. Although L. laevis and L. llanensis have been studied extensively from different perspectives during the last 30 years (e.g., most papers dealing on Lepidobatrachus cited throughout this paper), L. asper remains the least known species of the genus.

Our sampling of Lepidobatrachus laevis and L. llanensis includes specimens from a few distant localities from throughout their known ranges, particularly in Argentina, but also from Bolivia (*L. llanensis*). There are two main areas of the distribution of *L. llanensis*. One includes the extreme western Chacoan plains, in Catamarca, Córdoba, and La Rioja, and the other includes the Chacoan plains of eastern Salta, northern Santiago del Estero, northern Chaco, and central-western Formosa. It is possible that the population known in the Bolivian Chaco (Reichle et al., 2004) belongs to the same area (16S p-distances between that sample and those from Salta and Chaco are 0.0-0.4%; Table S1.2), while there is an isolated record in northern Paraguay (Faivovich, 1994; Brusquetti and Lavilla, 2006). The 16S p-distance among our exemplars from both areas is 0.9% (see Table S1.2).

Lepidobatrachus laevis is known from a number of localities in eastern Salta, Chaco, central-western Formosa, and Santa Fe in Argentina, Chuquisaca, Santa Cruz and Tarija, in Bolivia (De la Riva et al., 2000), and Alto Paraguay, Boquerón, and Presidente Hayes, in Paraguay (Brusquetti and Lavilla, 2006). 16S p-distances among our exemplars from localities in Chaco, Salta, and Formosa, in Argentina are quite low (0.0–0.2%, see Table S1.2). A number of known areas of distribution for the three

species, particularly in Paraguay, have not been sampled. Although we know no reasons why these could be relevant for our phylogenetic analysis, they would provide a more complete idea of the level of intraspecific sequence variation.

Ceratophrys

Our optimal topology is mostly congruent with the non-quantitative phylogenetic proposal of Lynch (1982) for Ceratophrys, with the notable exception of the relationship between Ce. cranwelli and Ce. ornata. Lynch suggested that Ce. aurita and Ce. ornata were sister taxa on the basis of their octoploid karyotype (Ce. joazeirensis was not yet described at that time). In a non-quantitative phylogenetic hypothesis, Mercadal (1986) even considered Ce. joazeirensis to be the sister taxon of Ce. ornata on the basis of the octoploid karyotype, with this clade being considered the sister taxon of Ce. cranwelli. These hypotheses are not supported by our results. Lynch (1982) further recognized two subgenera in Ceratophrys: a nominal subgenus including Ce. aurita, Ce. cranwelli, and Ce. ornata, and the subgenus Stombus for Ce. calcarata, Ce. cornuta, and Ce. stolzmanni. Although our results are congruent with this proposal, these subgeneric names enjoyed no subsequent usage, so we are agnostic about them.

Our results show that our exemplars of Ceratophrys aurita from Espírito Santo and São Paulo are the sister taxon of the exemplars of Ce. joazeirensis from Bahia and Paraiba. The molecular divergence between the two species in the 16S fragment is 1.2–1.5% (see Table S1.3), only slightly greater than the intraspecific distances of Ce. aurita (0.9%). Curiously, the 16S distances between our specimen of Ce. aurita from southern São Paulo and those from Espírito Santo (0.9%) are only slight less than the 16S distance between that specimen and Ce. joazeirensis from Bahia (1.2%). Ceratophrys joazeirensis has been considered an endemic species of the semiarid Caatinga of northeastern Brazil. It is known from a few localities from Rio Grande do Norte southwards to northern Bahia and recently was recorded in the Cerrado in central Minas Gerais (Maciel et al., 2013). Since its original description there has been an emphasis on the morphological similarities between Ce. joazeirensis and Ce. cranwelli (Mercadal, 1986; Mercadal de Barrio and Barrio, 2002; Vieira et al., 2006), mostly their color pattern, and their distribution in semiarid areas. Our results strongly support the monophyly of Ce. aurita + Ce. joazeirensis, suggesting that the supposed similarity of Ce. joazeirensis and Ce. cranwelli should be reassessed. Furthermore, recently published photographs (Maciel et al., 2013: fig. 1A; Santana et al., 2014: fig. 2) show color patterns in specimens identified as Ce. joazeirensis that, if anything, resemble Ce. aurita. In fact, the dorsal patterns of non-captive bred individuals of the four species of Ceratophrys inhabiting semiarid areas, and *Chacophrys pierottii* in general, are remarkably similar.

Considering the low number of exemplars of both Ceratophrys aurita and Ce. joazeirensis and the intraspecific sequence divergence in Ce. aurita, a densely sampled phylogeographic study including exemplars of both of these species from throughout their distributions is needed. Such a study could shed light on the taxonomic status of Ce. joazeirensis and the history of apparent habitat switching in this clade (see below). The biology of both of these species remains remarkably poorly known.

Ceratophrys cranwelli and Ce. ornata have been repeatedly considered "diploid-octoploid counterparts" or a "diploid-octoploid cryptic species pair" (Bogart and Wasserman, 1972; Barrio, 1980; Mercadal, 1981, 1986; Mercadal de Barrio, 1987; Mercadal de Barrio and Barrio, 2002). However, this cannot necessarily be taken to mean that these two species are sister taxa, although this is recovered with high support in our analysis (Fig. 1). The meaning of the expression "diploid-octoploid counterparts" is ambiguous in a phylogenetic context, as it could be interpreted to mean sister species (e.g., Bogart and Wasserman, 1972) or be devoid of an explicit phylogenetic meaning (Beçak et al., 1970; Batistic et al., 1975; Beçak and Beçak, 1998; Martino and Sinsch, 2002). In the latter sense, Mercadal (1986) considers Ce. cranwelli and Ce. ornata a "diploid-octoploid cryptic species pair" yet suggests that Ce. cranwelli is the sister taxon of Ce. joazeirensis.

Ceratophrys cranwelli and Ce. ornata are the two better-known species in the genus and have been studied from multiple perspectives, many times as the sole exemplars of Ceratophrys. Their sister group relationship provides an explicit historical context for examining these numerous, varied studies.

Ceratophrys stolzmanni is a poorly known species that only recently has attracted attention (Ortiz et al., 2013). It is known to occur in xeric environments of the Pacific coastal dry shrub and deciduous forests around the gulf of Guayaquil in the province of Manabí, Ecuador, to northern Peru (Ortiz et al., 2013). Peters (1967) recognized populations from both areas as different subspecies, the nominal one in Peru and Ce. stolzmanni scaphiopeza in Ecuador; however it is unclear if the gaps separating these populations are real or the result of inadequate sampling. The diagnostic characters provided by Peters (1967) for both subspecies pertain mostly to skin texture and perceived skin thickness. We have no experience with this species in particular, but our experience with other ceratophryids indicates that the status of Ce. stolzmanni scaphiopeza requires serious reevaluation. The aspects of the reproductive biology of the Ecuadorian populations recently reported by Ortiz et al. (2013) is all that has been published on the biology of Ce. stolzmanni, and almost all of that was done in captivity.

Ceratophrys calcarata is another poorly known species that has been referred to marginally in the literature. Ruthven's (1922) brief report on its aggressiveness, La Marca's (1986) description of its tadpole, Murphy's (1976) observations on pedal luring behavior on a captive specimen, and Schalk et al.'s (2014) report on stomach contents remain the only information available about this species. Its geographic distribution also deserves some clarification, as both Rivero (1961) and Lynch (1982) referred to populations in the state of Apure, Venezuela, but Rueda et al. (2004) stated that these records require corroboration. Schalk et al. (2014) refer to a voucher specimen from the state of Amazonas, in Puerto Avacucho. This would confirm that Ce. calcarata has a much broader distribution. An actual comparison of populations of the semiarid Caribbean lowlands, the main area where the species is known, with those of Amazonia, would be the minimum needed to assess if a taxonomic reevaluation of the latter is necessary.

Ceratophrys cornuta is the most widely distributed species of ceratophryid, being present in the Amazon basin, with records from Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Peru, Ecuador, and the Guyanas. Our samples include one exemplar from Cuzco Amazónico, Peru, and one from Mato Grosso, Brazil, separated by ca. 1200 km (airline). The 16S sequences differ in only 0.5–0.6% (Table S1.4). A full study on this species is necessary to better understand the extent of its variation. The biology of this species is relatively well known (Duellman and Lizana, 1994; Duellman, 2005; Pyke and Ray, 2006), although possibly less than would be expected for such a widely distributed species.

The only extant species of Ceratophryidae missing in our analysis is *Ceratophrys testudo*. This species is only known from its holotype, a juvenile specimen, and has been considered a valid species distinct from *Ce. cornuta* by Mercadal (1988) and Perí (1993a). These authors based their position on comparisons with a low number of juveniles of the latter (one available to each author), and therefore not taking into account possible intraspecific and geographic variation of the most widely distributed species of ceratophryid. The status of *Ce. testudo* should be carefully reassessed.

Dry habits die hard: Diversification in semiarid environments

A number of peculiar characteristics in ceratophryids, like the formation of a cocoon of dead skin to reduce water loss (McClanahan et al., 1976) and the short larval period and accelerated growth rates (Fabrezi, 2011; Fabrezi and Cruz, 2014), have been considered specializations associated with semiarid environments, where ephemeral pools dry fast and adults estivate during extensive dry periods.

The reduction of water loss to the surrounding dry soil in fossorial anurans is attained through a decrease in skin permeability or an increase in the osmolarity of body fluids (Shoemaker et al., 1992). Lepidobatrachus llanensis was well studied in this regard by McClanahan et al. (1976, 1983) and is known to produce a cocoon of up to 50 unshed layers of stratum corneum. The accumulation of the layers is accompanied by a rapid decrease in evaporative water loss in laboratory conditions, reaching a minimum after about a month (McClanahan et al., 1983). In natural conditions it has been believed that the cocoon functions by preventing water loss to the dry soil (Shoemaker et al., 1992), as recently demonstrated for Litoria australis (Reynolds et al., 2010).

Cocoon production has been observed to occur in the three species of Lepidobatrachus (McClanahan et al., 1976, 1983; J. Faivovich, pers. obs.; J. C. Stazzonelli, pers. comm.), Chacophrys pierottii (J. Lescano, pers. comm.), Ceratophrys cranwelli (as Ce. ornata, McClanahan et al., 1976), Ce. joazeirensis (C. Jared and M.M. Antoniazzi, pers. comm.), Ce. aurita (Bastos and Abe, 1998), Ce. ornata (Canziani and Cannata, 1980; Jared and Antoniazzi, pers. comm.; F. Kolenc, pers. comm.), and Ce. stolzmanni (P. Janzen, pers. comm.). There are no references to cocoon formation in Ce. calcarata and Ce. cornuta. Our results, however, suggest its occurrence in these species on the basis of parsimony, and that a cocoon was present as well in the hypothetical ancestor of Ceratophryidae. Interestingly, Ce. aurita and Ce. ornata inhabit the Atlantic Forest and the Pampean grasslands, respectively; although these areas present different degrees of seasonality, both have levels of humidity that far exceed those of the Chacoan region and the Caatinga (Bucher, 1982; McNaughton et al., 1993). Most other anurans known to produce cocoons are from semiarid or arid environments or subhumid regions with a prolonged dry season (for review see Hillman et al., 2009).

Short larval periods and accelerated growth rates have been documented in the wild by Fabrezi (2011) for Chacophrys pierottii, Lepidobatrachus laevis, and L. llanensis (15–18 days), and Ceratophrys cranwelli (20–24 days). Ruibal and Thomas (1988) reported 30 days to complete metamorphosis in captive-bred L. laevis and mentioned that for some larvae it took just 20 days. In captive-bred Ce. stolzmanni, metamorphosis was found to be completed in 20-32 days (Ortiz et al., 2012), whereas in captive-bred Ce. ornata metamorphosis was completed in 30 (Kollros and Bovbjerg, 1997) or 32-36 days (Honneger et al., 1985). No information is available about the length of larval periods of the other ceratophyids. Recently, Fabrezi and Cruz (2014) reported that Ce. cranwelli, Ch. pierottii, L. laevis, and L. llanensis show low activity of the thyroid glands during larval development and particularly during the metamorphic climax, contrary to what has been assumed to occur in anurans (Etkin, 1936).

In general, data on the duration of larval periods in anurans is scarce, and it seems reasonable that comparisons of larval periods should be done with precaution, particularly when some have been studied in the wild and others in captivity. Considering this, we are reluctant to assume that the developmental times in *Ceratophrys ornata* and *Ce. stolzmanni* are necessarily the same as in *Ce. cranwelli*; however, we should note that the overlapping (*Ce. stolzmanni*) or continuous ranges of development time (*Ce. ornata*) are quite suggestive of a common mechanism underlying their short developmental times and accelerated growth rates. This requires further testing, and this could be approached both with field observations and studies on the histology of the thyroid glands (e.g., Fabrezi and Cruz, 2014).

The optimization of habitats on our hypothesis indicates that most diversification in ceratophryids occurred in semiarid environments, with three independent transitions to different humid environments (Fig. 2). One of

these is associated with the origin of *Ceratophrys cornuta* that is widespread in the Amazon basin. Another is associated with the origin of *Ce. aurita*, which occurs throughout the Atlantic Forest, and the other is associated with the origin of *Ce. ornata* in the humid Pampean grasslands. The inference that ceratophryids diversified primarily in semiarid environments provides an elegant phylogenetic explanation for the occurrence of a cocoon in at least *Ce. aurita* and *Ce. ornata* (Fig. 2). In the same way, if at least *Ce. ornata* is confirmed to have a short larval period and accelerated growth rates, our hypothesis would provide a historical explanation for that phenomenon as well.

The persistence of a plesiomorphic cocoon formation in species inhabiting humid areas might also occur in other anuran radiations associated with arid or semiarid environments. A potentially similar situation to our finding in ceratophryids might be that of the clade composed of the species of the pelodryadine hylid genus *Litoria* that were formerly placed in *Cyclorana*. At least two species

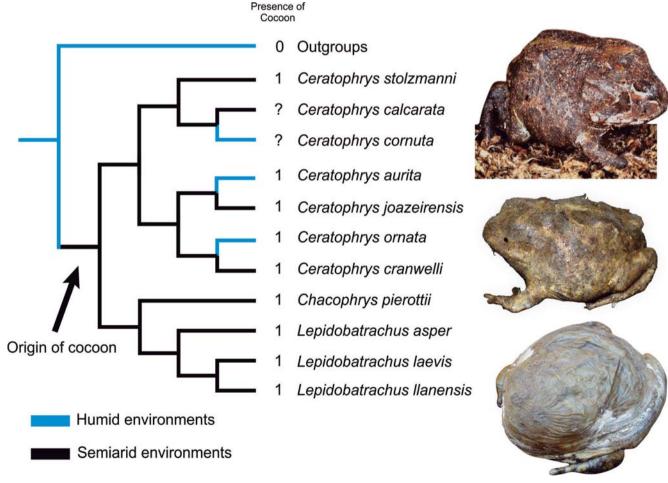


Figure 2. Transformations in the environments occupied by ceratophryid frogs during the evolutionary history of the group in relation to the occurrence of cocoon formation, a mechanism that prevents water loss during estivation. Our results indicate a primary diversification of ceratophryid frogs in semi-arid environments (black), with at least three different events leading to the occupation of humid environments (blue), providing an explanation for the occurrence of cocoon formation in those species. The cocooned specimen on the upper right is *Chacophrys pierottii* (Photo by J. Lescano), the one in the center is *Ceratophrys stolzmanni* (Photo by P. Jenzen), and the one on the lower right is *Lepidobatrachus laevis* (Photo by J.C. Stazzonelli).

are known to estivate by forming cocoons in subhumid to wet tropical areas in northern Australia, as done by other closely related species in semiarid or arid environments (Withers, 1995, 1998; Withers and Thompson, 2000). Unfortunately the occurrence of estivation and cocoon formation is still unknown in several species of this clade, and although there are phylogenetic hypotheses available for this clade, the relationships among most of its species remain poorly supported and unstable in different analyses (Rosauer et al., 2009; Pyron and Wiens, 2011).

Groom et al. (2013) recently noticed that Ceratophrys ornata does not present a depressed metabolic rate during estivation, as occurs in other estivating frogs, adding that a limited response has been observed in Ce. aurita as well (Bastos and Abe, 1998) and generalizing that this might be the common condition in *Ceratophrys*. However, this is not what occurs in Lepidobatrachus, where McClanahan et al. (1983) reported metabolic depression in cocooned L. llanensis to 25% of the resting metabolic rate, as is known to occur in several estivating frogs from semiarid or arid environments (e.g., the limnodynastid genus Neobatrachus and some species of the hylid genus Litoria formerly included in Cyclorana; Withers, 1993). Neither of the species of Ceratophrys on which Groom et al. (2013) generalized to all Ceratophrys inhabit semiarid environments, so this generalization requires further testing. It could be that the species studied so far show modifications associated with estivation in less unpredictable environments than those of their close relatives inhabiting semiarid environments. This situation occurs in the clade of pelodryadines mentioned above. Whereas species from semiarid and subhumid areas are known to estivate and form cocoons, the metabolic rate depression is less pronounced in the few species studied from subhumid and tropical areas (Withers and Thompson, 2000).

Canziani and Cannata (1980) showed that the rate of evaporative water loss in *Ceratophrys cranwelli* (considering them as Chacoan populations of *Ce. ornata*) is lower than in *Ce. ornata*, whereas the rehydration rate is higher in the former than in the latter. They also conclude that bladder capacity is greater in *Ce. cranwelli* than in *Ce. ornata*. On the basis of our results, it is possible that the reduced rate of evaporative water loss, the lower rate of dehydration, and the larger bladder capacity of *Ce. cranwelli*, are actually ceratophryid plesiomorphies associated with their original diversification in semiarid environments.

Another characteristic present in ceratophryids that has been associated with the reduction of evaporative water loss is the presence of co-ossified dermis in the skull and dorsal bony shields (DeMar, 1966; Elkan, 1968; Trueb, 1970; Ruibal and Shoemaker, 1984). Cranial co-ossification has been shown in some hylids to greatly decrease evaporative water loss with respect to the non co-ossified skin (Seibert et al., 1974), and to greatly reduce overall water loss when associated with water

conservation behavior (Andrade and Abe, 1997). The presence of a bony shield has been suggested as a possible mechanism of water retention (DeMar, 1966; Ruibal and Shoemaker, 1984), although there is still no experimental evidence. More recently, osteoderms and integumental dermal bone in general have been suggested to be involved in the buffering of CO₂ (Janis et al., 2012).

The calcified or Eberth-Katschenko (E-K) layer of the dermis, has also been related to reduction of water loss. The E-K layer is located in the dermis between the *stratum spongiosum* and the *stratum compactum*. It consists of glycosaminoglycans associated with mineral deposition as calcium. Its putative function as preventing water loss in anurans has been inferred mainly by its occurrence in terrestrial species and its absence in most aquatic species (Elkan, 1968, 1976; Toledo and Jared, 1993).

Our optimal topologies recover Lepidobatrachus asper as the sister taxon of L. laevis + L. llanensis (Fig. 1). This is an interesting result in that both *L. asper* and *L. lla*nensis share the presence of a dorsal bony shield (Barrio, 1968a, b; Quinzio and Fabrezi, 2012). A dorsal bony shield also occurs in the four species of one of the two major clades of Ceratophrys (Ce. aurita, Ce. cranwelli, Ce. joazeirensis, and Ce. ornata), where it is a larger shield differing from that in Lepidobatrachus in being composed of several individual plates, instead of one or two medial elements (Lynch, 1982; Quinzio and Fabrezi, 2012). Furthermore, shields of Lepidobatrachus develop during premetamorphic stages, whereas shields of Ceratophrys develop postmetamorphically, sometime between juvenile and adult stages (Quinzio and Fabrezi, 2012). In the context of our results, the optimization of the sole presence of a dorsal shield indicates its independent origin within Ceratophrys and in Lepidobatrachus. Furthermore, its optimization is ambiguous in the latter genus, being explained as either an origin in the common ancestor of Lepidobatrachus and a subsequent loss in *L. laevis* or as two independent origins in L. asper and L. llanensis. Note, however, that this optimization is contingent on the poorly supported position of *Chacophrys* as the sister taxon of *Lepidobatrachus*.

Fabrezi (2006) referred to DeMar's (1966) hypothesis that the presence of a bony shield would reduce evaporative water loss through the skin in dissorophid temnospondyls and considered that it provided a reasonable explanation for the occurrence of a shield in some species of *Ceratophrys* and *Lepidobatrachus*. She also suggested that the occurrence in the mostly aquatic *L. llanensis* of a relatively smaller shield than the one occurring in some *Ceratophrys* might be related to a loss of selective advantage. This scenario is not supported by our results because the optimization indicates that bony shields are not homologues in both groups.

The E-K layer is known to occur in *Ceratophrys cranwelli*, *Ce. ornata*, *Ce. stolzmanni*, *Chacophrys pierottii*, *Lepidobatrachus asper*, *L. laevis*, and *L. llanensis* (Elkan, 1968,

Mangione et al., 2011; Quinzio and Fabrezi, 2012). Its occurrence is unknown in the other species of Ceratophrys, but in the context of our results its presence is predicted on the basis of parsimony. As this layer is, in general, absent in aquatic species (Elkan, 1968, 1976), the presence of the E-K layer in Lepidobatrachus deserves some comments. Although species of Lepidobatrachus are aquatic, they estivate. For this reason the presence of the E-K layer, if at all related to prevention of water loss, might be related to an aquatic mode of life interrupted by prolonged estivation, as might be the presence of other characters related with prevention of water loss (e.g., cocoon formation). Interestingly, Litoria platycephala, the most aquatic species of the former members of Cyclorana (Robinson and Cappo, 1989) parallels Lepidobatrachus in this sense. In Litoria platycephala the E-K layer is present (Bayomy et al., 2002) and during the dry season this species estivates and forms a cocoon (Withers, 1995). In any case, only experimental data can shed light on the function of the E-K layer.

The diversification of a clade that mainly inhabits semiarid environments In South America, such as Ceratophryidae, is also congruent with the inferred climatic history of the continent. During Mesozoic times, extensive areas with seasonally dry conditions developed on almost the entire surface of the extant South American territory (e.g., Parrish, 1987; Scotese et al., 1999; Hay and Floegel, 2012; Woodburne et al., 2014). Since the mid-Cretaceous and during the Cenozoic, the extension and particular conditions of these areas have varied, influenced by the break-up of Gondwana, the uplift of the Andes, and the succession of a series of marine transgressions that occurred during these times (e.g., Parrish, 1987; Scotese et al., 1999; Gregory-Wodzicki, 2000; Hartley, 2003; Hoorn et al., 2010; Hay and Floegel, 2012; Le Roux, 2012; Woodburne et al., 2014). Although the pattern of diversification of Ceratophryidae could be framed in several of these scenarios, the lack of a temporal context for this pattern prevents us from venturing a guess about the particular events that could have caused their diversification.

The strange turns of polyploidy

Polyploidy as a phenomenon in anurans has been reviewed several times from different perspectives (e.g., King, 1990; Beçak and Kobashi, 2004; Green and Sessions, 2007; Schmid et al., 2010; Mable et al., 2011; Evans et al., 2012). The most recent review (Evans et al., 2012) listed 61 cases of polyploid species. This figure reduces to 52 when ignoring cases of occasional triploids in normally diploid species, and to at least 17 independent occurrences in a phylogenetic context (data not shown). When compared with the more than 6,400 extant species

of the group (Frost, 2014), it is fair to say that polyploidy is quite uncommon in anurans. An interesting situation is the reduced number of cases of multiple polyploid species in relatively restricted clades, regardless of whether polyploidy is explainable by common ancestry or not. One of these few clades in which polyploidy occurs in multiple species is Ceratophryidae, and in that regard, our results provide some points for discussion.

Ceratophryids include three polyploid species that, having 2n = 8x = 104, are among the few known cases of octoploidy in anurans: *Ceratophrys aurita, Ce. joazeirensis,* and *Ce. ornata* (Bogart, 1967; Beçak et al., 1967; Schmid et al., 1985; Soares-Scott et al., 1998; Vieira et al., 2006). All other ceratophryids are known or inferred to be diploids (Morescalchi, 1967; Bogart, 1967; Barrio and Rinaldi de Chieri, 1970; Mercadal, 1981).

The optimization of ploidy levels on our optimal topology shows that the strongly supported monophyly of *Ceratophrys cranwelli* and *Ce. ornata* implies an ambiguous optimization for the origin of the octoploid chromosome complement from a diploid complement (Fig. 3). Both interpretations, as a single origin in the common ancestor of the four species of that clade and a subsequent reversal to diploidy in *Ce. cranwelli* (Fig. 3A), *or* an independent origin of octoploidy in the common ancestor of *Ce. aurita* + *Ce. joazeirensis* and in *Ce. ornata* (Fig. 3B), are equally parsimonious. This situation has been suggested without additional comments by Mercadal (1986) and Vieira et al. (2006), when they considered that *Ce. joazeirensis* might be the sister taxon of *Ce. ornata*.

If polyploidy is uncommon in anurans, octoploidy is even more so, having been reported only in the three species of Ceratophrys, Pleurodema cordobae (Valetti et al., 2009), and eight species of Xenopus (Evans et al., 2012, and citations therein). Whereas P. cordobae is nested within a tetraploid clade (Faivovich et al., 2012), octoploid species of *Xenopus* are all hypothesized to have resulted from independent hybridization events among tetraploid parental species (Evans et al., 2005). The fact that polyploidy is so uncommon in anurans makes both equally parsimonious optimizations of polyploidy in ceratophryids most unusual. In the absence of any evidence of hybridization, the possible independent origin within a clade of four extant species of such a rare ploidy level for amphibians is perplexing. Alternatively, the reversion from an octoploid complement to a diploid complement is equally curious. A revision of available phylogenetic information on all polyploid anurans indicates that there is only a single known case of a transformation from a plesiomorphic polyploid complement to a derived diploid complement: the diploid Silurana tropicalis originates from a tetraploid ancestor (Evans et al., 2004).

Ceratophrys constitutes a unique instance among the anurans because no taxa with intermediate ploidy levels between diploid and octoploid (i.e., tetraploid and/

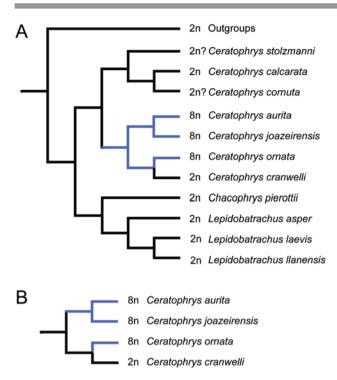


Figure 3. Evolution of ploidy levels in ceratophryid frogs. The optimization of ploidy levels on our optimal topology indicates an ambiguity involving the origin of octoploidy, with two equally parsimonious scenarios, involving either (**A**) a single transformation from diploidy (black) to octoploidy (blue), with a subsequent reversal to diploidy in *Ceratophrys cranwelli*, or (**B**) two independent origins in the common ancestor of *Ce. aurita* + *Ce. joazeirensis*, and in *Ce. ornata*. Both alternatives are remarkable in the context of our knowledge on amphibian chromosome evolution. See discussion for further comments. The diploid complements in *Ce. cornuta* and *Ce. stolzmanni* have been inferred on the basis of erythrocyte size by Mercadal (1981).

or hexaploid) are known. This situation raises the question of whether the octoploid species arose directly from diploid ancestors (which would be unique in vertebrates) or from taxa with intermediate ploidy levels. Mercadal de Barrio and Barrio (2002), using the technique developed by Reumer and Thiebaud (1987) to measure osteocyte lacunae, presented a survey of inferred ploidy levels in fossil remains associated with Ceratophrys in Argentina, from Pliocene to Holocene. Extrapolating from osteocyte lacunae of two specimens each of Ce. cranwelli and Ce. ornata, they inferred the occurrence of diploids, octoploids, and for the first time in Ceratophrys, tetraploids in the fossil specimens, some of which were from the same horizon and locality. Unfortunately, their survey did not include a detailed reassessment of the identity of each remain, most of which are listed as Ceratophrys sp. Therefore, the number of species involved in the analysis of Mercadal de Barrio and Barrio (2002) and their relationship to Ce. cranwelli + Ce. ornata remain unclear. The relationships of these fossil remains with the extant species of Ceratophrys require further study, as their putative intermediate ploidy levels would shed further light on the origin and evolution of polyploidy in this group of frogs.

Ceratophryid fossil record: More doubts than calibration points

A number of fossil anurans have been attributed to Ceratophryidae and considered evidence of its putative Mesozoic origin, early diversification, and wider, probably Gondwanan, past distribution (Casamiquela, 1963; Báez and Perí, 1989, 1990; Evans et al., 2008, 2014). However, the taxonomic placement of several of these remains is questionable, particularly the older ones, leading us to conclude that evidence is lacking to allow us to perform a relaxed molecular clock dating analysis of ceratophryids.

Two Cretaceous anurans have been attributed to Ceratophryidae: Beelzebufo ampinga, from Madagascar (Evans et al., 2008, 2014), and, tentatively, Baurubatrachus pricei, from Brazil (Báez and Perí, 1989; Sanchiz, 1998). The single known specimen of the latter was recently reprepared, showing new characters that allow questioning its ceratophryid affinities (A.M. Báez, pers. comm). Similarly, all ceratophryid synapomorphies recognized by Evans et al. (2008, 2014) in the fragmentary material of Beelzebufo ampinga seem to have been misinterpreted (A.M. Báez, pers. comm.; L. Nicoli, pers. obs.). A cursory examination of the morphological dataset employed by Evans et al. (2014) identifies a minimum of 25 errors in scoring (see Appendix S4) that suggest the need of a thorough reevaluation of their data set. Such an endeavor is beyond the scope of the present paper, but in the meantime we consider that there is no evidence associating Beelzebufo with ceratophryids. The immediately younger putative fossil ceratophryid, Wawelia geroldhi, from Miocene sediments of northern Patagonia (Casamiquela, 1963; Báez and Perí, 1990), has recently been reanalyzed and its ceratophryid affinities rejected (L. Nicoli et al., unpubl. data).

A fragmentary maxillary arcade from the Late Miocene of west-central Argentina has also been attributed to Ceratophryidae (Contreras and Acosta, 1998). However, this material was originally studied with a significant amount of sediment still adhered to the fossil. In addition, the material remains undescribed and the reasons for its association with Ceratophryidae have not been discussed. A recent revision of this material after a more extensive preparation allows it to be assigned to Ceratophryidae with some confidence, as it possess the synapomorphies proposed for the group that can be evaluated in the remains (i.e., non-pedicellate teeth; lack of distinguishable pars palatina on the anterior region of the maxilla, mentomeckelian indistinguishably fused to dentary; mentomeckelian forming large, acute, and robust medial fang; L. Nicoli et al., unpubl. data). However, this specimen shares some character states with different extant ceratophryids and possesses several character states that are unique among ceratophryids (i.e., a unique shape of articulation of maxilla and premaxilla involving several

character states), and thus, it is unknown at this time if it belongs to the crown or stem of the group.

All other fossil ceratophryids were assigned to extant genera, particularly *Ceratophrys* (for list see Nicoli, 2014). The only fossil record of *Lepidobatrachus* is a single specimen recently attributed to a new, fossil species of the genus (Tomassini et al., 2011; Nicoli, in press). This specimen was collected in Late Miocene-Early Pliocene sediments of the Farola Monte Hermoso locality, on the Atlantic coast of Buenos Aires province, Argentina. The oldest fossil material certainly attributed to *Ceratophrys*, the fossil species *Ce. ameghinorum*, was also collected in Farola Monte Hermoso in sediments deposited during the Late Miocene-Early Pliocene (Fernicola, 2001; Tomassini et al., 2013).

A series of specimens from Pleistocene sediments of Buenos Aires province were referred to the fossil species of Ceratophrys ensenadensis Rusconi, 1932, and Ce. rusconi Agnolin, 2005. The validity of the former has been questioned (Báez and Gasparini, 1977; Perí, 1993b), as it has been diagnosed on the basis of the shape of nasals, considered to be more robust and anteriorly projected than in extant Ceratophrys, and the structure of dermal ornamentation. Both characters, however, are included within the variation observed in Ce. cranwelli and Ce. ornata (which so far are osteologically indistinguishable). Similarly, Ce. rusconi has been diagnosed on the basis of proportions involving roofing bones and fenestrae of the skull, characters that are also included in the observed variation of Ce. cranwelli + Ce. ornata (L. Nicoli, pers. obs.). Several other Quaternary fossils were attributed to Ceratophrys without specific allocation (for list see Nicoli, 2014).

Two fossil skulls from the Quaternary of Lagoa Santa, Minas Gerais, Brazil, are the single record attributed to an extant ceratophryid species. Günther (1859) identified them as remains of Ceratophrys cornuta; however, photographs of these fossils (provided by the Natural History Museum, London, UK) indicate that they differ from *Ce. cornuta* in several character states. Among them, the presence of a series of conspicuous crests in the nasal, maxilla, and squamosal (absent in Ce. cornuta) and a subquadrangular lamella alaris of the squamosal, ending slightly posteriorly to the level of the occipital condyle (lanceolate, terminating far posterior to the level of the occipital condyles in Ce. cornuta). Although the latter character state is observed in several species of Ceratophrys (e.g., Ce. aurita, Ce. joazeirensis, Ce. cranwelli, Ce. ornata), the conspicuous crests on the nasal, maxilla, and squamosal are only present in Ce. aurita and Ce. joazeirensis (Pires-Gayer, 1984; Vieira et al., 2006).

This brief review indicates that the three oldest fossil remains that could had been used to constrain the minimum age of divergence of Ceratophryidae simply cannot be employed because they present inadequate evidence supporting a close relationship to Ceratophryidae. Considering that the phylogenetic position of the Late

Miocene fossil from San Juan remains unknown, and that its age is within the range of that of the remains assignable to extant genera, it does not represent a relevant calibration point. This leaves *Ceratophrys ameghinorum* and the undescribed fossil species of *Lepidobatrachus*, both from the Late Miocene–Early Pliocene, as the two oldest calibration points for the crown group Ceratophryidae for a molecular clock exercise. At this point, however, we see a number of issues associated with this possibility.

First among these issues is the fact that none of the fossil species has been included in a phylogenetic analysis, and their exact position cannot be inferred based on available evidence. Whereas the ages of *Ceratophrys ameghinorum* and the new fossil species of *Lepidobatrachus* could be used to establish hard minimum bounds for prior parametric distributions for the most recent common ancestors of both *Ceratophrys* and *Lepidobatrachus*, we find it to be a poor substitute for actual phylogenetic knowledge and prone to induce errors in estimation, particularly for such a reduced clade. The inclusion of the relevant fossils for calibrating phylogenetic analyses has been strongly advised (Parham et al., 2012; Sterli et al., 2013), however this has not been the case in most approaches to amphibian temporal history.

The second issue deals with the chronostratigraphy of the geologic units in which the two possible calibrating fossils have been found. Neither numerical ages nor magnetostratigraphical studies exist for the Monte Hermoso Formation (MHF) exposed at Farola Monte Hermoso. Thus, the precise age of this unit cannot be established. The estimation of its age was done by the correlation of MHF with the presumably nearly contemporary formations with known ages. The chronological sequence of the different geological units is ideally determined by their physical succession (deeper units are older) in regions where several of these units are represented in the same sequence. Unfortunately, the Late Cenozoic units of the Buenos Aires province are lithologically uniform and, thus, geologically indistinguishable (Deschamps, 2005; Zarate, 2005). Each of these units is characterized, however, by its own paleontological remains, which consist of taxonomic assemblages of mammals and include a series of taxa with relative short biochrons. These characteristic assemblages define a series of biostratigraphic zones (Cione and Toni, 2005; Deschamps, 2005). Therefore, the chronological sequence of the different units could be determined by the known sequence of these biostratigraphic zones, which in some cases of the Late Cenozoic units of the Buenos Aires province are provided by sequences where these units are preserved superposed (Cione et al., 2007). In this way, the MHF has been considered to be deposited between the Late Miocene and the Early Pliocene (Cione et al., 2007). A recent attribute to this unit of a more defined lapse during the Early Pliocene (Tomasssini et al., 2013) is fundamentally based on the comparison of the "evolutionary stage" of the involved taxa, a rationale that has been questioned

specifically for the Late Cenozoic units of the Buenos Aires province (Cione and Toni, 1995).

Even if the hard minimum bounds for the prior parametric distributions of both calibrating points could be established as the minimum possible age of their chronostratigraphic provenance (Late Miocene), we see no reasonable way to establish the other parameters of the prior distribution curve (the mean and standard deviation, in the case of a prior lognormal distribution), a limitation noticed by several authors (e.g., Ho and Phillips, 2008; Lee and Skinner, 2011; Parham et al., 2012). In our specific case, the fact that the two calibration points are from the same locality and (uncertain) horizon—and could at least be associated with the respective most recent common ancestors of Ceratophrys and Lepidobatrachus—makes the selection of the soft maximum bound a matter of trying to set limits as to when the most recent common ancestor of Ceratophryidae could have occurred. Some authors have established soft maximum bounds on the basis of relatively rich and well-studied faunal associations in which the presence of outgroups serves as taphonomic-preservation controls using ecological/taxonomic equivalents (Bottjer and Jablonski, 1988), and where no remains of the group of interest could be found, therefore inferring its absence (e.g., Pérez and Pol, 2012). In our case, there are no well-documented Cenozoic fossil anuran faunas in South America where ceratophryids could be said to be absent (or for that matter, any other anuran group; Báez, 2000).

The lack of support in this and previous analyses for the relationships of Ceratophryidae with other hyloids is also problematic. Furthermore, the lack of relevant hyloid fossils that pass the criteria established by Parham et al. (2012) for fossil calibrations and that are clearly referable to any of the nodes of nobleobatrachians only complicates the establishment of a soft maximum bound. We also refrain from exporting calibrations from previous exercises with anurans, because we find that most of them have been based on very few paleontological calibrations (when not based on geotectonic events), for very large samplings, and with little if any meaningful discussion. For all the reasons above, we conclude that it would be premature to perform a relaxed molecular clock dating analysis for ceratophryids.

A final point that requires mention is that the uncorrected p-distances of the 16S fragment among ceratophryid species are relatively low when compared with other anurans (e.g., Fouquet et al., 2007; Padial et al., 2009), with sister species differing as little as 1.2–1.5% (Ceratophrys aurita–Ce. joazeirensis; Table S1.3) or 1.6–2.3% (Lepidobatrachus laevis–L. llanensis; Table S1.2) to 4.2–4.4% (Ce. calcarata–Ce. cornuta; Table S1.4). How this relates to the tempo of diversification of the group is difficult to establish at this time. Interestingly, observations in captivity (Honegger et al., 1985; Marangoni et al.,

2009) indicate that sexual maturity is reached very early (a minimum of 158 days after metamorphosis in *Ce. ornata*; 301 days in *Ce. cranwelli*), suggesting short (annual?) generation times. However, Fabrezi and Quinzio (2008) reported 4–11 lines of arrested growth in adults of Chacoan ceratophryids, suggesting longer minimum generation times. The problem should be studied in detail.

Ceratophryidae is a fascinating frog clade. Knowledge on their phenotypic diversity and biology has been accumulating for a long time and at a particular fast pace in the last decade. Our study presents the first phylogenetic hypothesis for the whole group and provides the necessary historical framework for the study of its diversification and evolution.

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ONLINE SUPPORTING INFORMATION

The following Supporting Information is available for this article online:

- **Appendix S1.** Locality data for the vouchers of the sequences produced for this study and relevant ceratophryid sequences downloaded from GenBank.
- **Appendix S2.** List of GenBank accessions.
- **Appendix S3.** Problems with GenBank Sequences employed in previous studies.
- **Appendix S4.** Some of the scoring problems in the phenotypic dataset of Evans et al. (2014).
- **Figure S1.** Topology of the outgroup taxa recovered in the ten most parsimonious trees obtained with direct optimization (length 38,965 steps) under equal weights for all transformations. Values around nodes are parsimony jackknife absolute frequencies estimated for the static alignment analyzed with parsimony in T.N.T. with gaps as fifth state. Nodes lacking values have < 50% jackknife frequencies. See Figure 1 for ceratophryid relationships.
- **Figure S2.** Results of the Bayesian analysis using the static alignment. Values around nodes are Posterior Probabilities. Nodes with values < 0.5 are collapsed. See Appendix S1 for complete locality data.
- **Table S1.** Genetic distances among 16S sequences of ceratophryids.

Appendix S1

Locality data for the vouchers of the sequences produced for this study and relevant ceratophryid sequences downloaded from GenBank.

Abbreviations: R.N.: Ruta Nacional (National road). R.P.: Ruta Provincial (Provincial Road). Underlined numbers belong to vouchers of sequences downloaded from GenBank. Institutional codes follow Sabaj Pérez (2014), with the exceptions of MZFS-DAR, which stands for Divisão Anfíbios e Répteis, Museu de Zoologia de Feira de Santana, Universidade Estadual de Feira de Santana, Feira de Santana, Bahia, Brazil; SR, field number of Steffen Reichle; and JF, field number of Julián Faivovich (to be accesioned in MACN).

Ceratophrys aurita (*n* = 3): BRAZIL: **Espírito Santo**: Linhares, CFBH 33211; Linhares: Estrada Linhares-Fazenda Luzitánia, CFBH 32040; **São Paulo**: Ribeirão Branco, CFBH 2319.

Ceratophrys calcarata (n = 1): Pet trade, AMNH 99661.

Ceratophrys cornuta (n = 3): BRAZIL: **Mato Grosso**: Paranaíta, CFBH 20082; PERU: Madre de Dios: Cuzco Amazonico 200 m.a.s.l., <u>KU 202561</u>, <u>KU 215537</u>. Ceratophrys cranwelli (n = 8): ARGENTINA: **Chaco**: Almirante Brown: Picada Principal ETA, 13 km W R.P. 61, LGE 9111; Almirante Brown: R.P. 61, 36 km NE Taco Pozo, LGE 9114; General Güemes: Juana Azurduy, 62 km W. Miraflores, LGE 9116; **Córdoba**: San Martín: R.N.158, 7 km W Villa María, LGE 9112; Totoral: Estancia Santa Catalina, LGE 9115; **Santa Fe**: Vera: Ea. Las Gamas, JF 929; **Santiago del Estero**: Copo: Los Pirpintos, LGE 9113; Loreto: Laprida, LGE 9117; Gral. Taboada: R.P. 21, 10 km SE Añatuya, MACN 47260.

Ceratophrys joazeirensis (*n* = 3): BRAZIL: **Paraiba**: Araruna: Parque Estadual Pedra da Boca, CFBH 7411–2; **Bahía**: Feira de Santana, MZFS-DAR 1737.

Ceratophrys ornata (*n* = 1): ARGENTINA: **Buenos Aires**: La Plata: La Plata, Parque Sicardi, LGE 9118.

Ceratophrys stolzmanni (n = 1): Pet trade, MACN 47250.

Chacophrys pierottii (*n* = 5): ARGENTINA: **Chaco**: General Güemes: 22 km SE Comandancia Frías, LGE 9123; **Córdoba**: Tulumba: R.N. 60, 6.8 km SE Lucio V. Mansilla, MACN 47261; **Formosa**: Bermejo: Laguna Yema, LGE 8204; **Salta**: Orán:

Pichanal: R.P. 5 and Rio San Francisco, MACN 47251; **Salta**: Rivadavia: R.P.13, 10 km W El Ocultar, LGE 9122.

Lepidobatrachus asper (n = 5): ARGENTINA: **Córdoba**: Rio Primero: 8 km N Las Saladas, LGE 4961; **Santiago del Estero**: Atamisqui: R.N. 9, km 1013, LGE 328. **Santa Fe**: 9 de Julio: R.N. 98, 5 Km E Tostado, MACN 47253–4; 9 de Julio: Independencia, MACN 45235.

Lepidobatrachus laevis (n = 4): ARGENTINA: **Chaco**: General Güemes: 10km NW Misión Nueva Pompeya, LGE 9120; **Formosa**: Bermejo: Laguna Yema, LGE 8180; **Salta**: Orán: Pichanal: R.P. 5 and Rio San Francisco, MACN 43499; General José de San Martín: R.P. 81, 21 km SE R.N. 34, LGE 9119.

Lepidobatrachus llanensis (n = 7): ARGENTINA: Chaco: Almirante Brown: R.P. 61, 36 km NE Taco Pozo, LGE 9121; Córdoba: Pocho: Salinas Grandes, between El Chacho and Piedrita Blanca, CZAa 0145; Catamarca: Capayan: R.N. 60, 4 km NW San Martín, MACN 46296; Formosa: Bermejo: Laguna Yema, LGE 8179; La Rioja: Capital: R.P. 25, 44.3 km SE R.N. 38, MACN 46277; Salta: Orán: Pichanal: R.P. 5 y Rio San Francisco, MACN 43523; BOLIVIA: Tarija: Gran Chaco: 50 Km SE Villamontes, SR 110.

Appendix S2

List of GenBank accessions

The sequences generated for this article are in **bold**. Those vouchers with an asterisk (*) are the specimens from which the original sequence(s) were produced. Voucher numbers are reported only for sequences generated for this project. For others, refer to the GenBank accession number. Institutional codes follow Sabaj Pérez (2014), with the exceptions of MZFS-DAR, which stands for Divisão Anfibios e Répteis, Museu de Zoologia de Feira de Santana, Universidade Estadual de Feira de Santana, Feira de Santana, Bahia, Brazil; SR, field number of Steffen Reichle; and JF, field number of Julián Faivovich (to be accesioned in MACN). Other abbreviations: COI: cytochrome oxidase I; Cytb: cytochrome b; CXCR4: exon 2 of chemokine receptor 4; ND1: NADH dehydrogenase subunit 1; POMC: proopiomelanocortin A; RAG-1: recombination-activating gene 1; RHOD: exon 1 of rhodopsin; SIAH: seven in absentia homolog 1; TYR: tyrosinase.

Species	Voucher	12S- tRNA ^{Val} - 16S	16S- tRNA ^{Leu} - ND1- tRNA ^{IIe}	COI	Cytb	CXCR4	РОМС	RAG1	RHOD	SIAH	TYR
Acris crepitans		AY843559	GQ366290		EF988131	EF107468	EF988231	AY844358	AY844533	AY844762	EF988305
Adenomera andreae		KC520683	HQ290944	KC520689	JQ321766		KC604061	KC604037	KC604094		KC520698
Allobates femoralis		AY364543	HQ290951	DQ502811	HQ290531		HQ290831	DQ503327	DQ503215	DQ503077	HQ290891
Allophryne ruthveni		AY843564	AY819458		AY843786	KF534373	AY819077	EU663432	AY844538	AY844766	KC604076
Alsodes neuquensis	MACN 37942*	AY843565	JX204017	JX203891	AY843787		KP295561	AY844362	AY844539	AY844767	
Amazophrynella minuta		AY843582	AY819462	DQ502828	AY843804	DQ306496	AY819081	DQ503337	AY844555		EF364362
Anomaloglossus megacephalus		DQ502128	JQ742285	DQ502835	DQ502559			DQ503343	DQ503234	DQ503095	DQ503162
Atelognathus patagonicus	MACN 37905*	AY843571		JX203909	AY843793	KP295515	KP295562	AY844368	AY844545	AY844773	AY844027
Batrachyla leptopus	MACN 38008*	AY843572	JX204029	JX203910	AY843794	KP295516	KP295563	AY844369	AY844546	AY844774	AY844028
Bufo japonicus		AB303363	AB303363	AB303363	AB303363	AB612061	JN653306	AB612057			AB612059
Celsiella revocata		EU663379; EU663019	EU663113				EU663204	EU663479			
Ceratophrys aurita	CFBH 2319	KP295604		KP295685	KP295727	KP295517	KP295564	KP295585	KP295704	KP295644	KP295665
Ceratophrys aurita	CFBH 33211	KP295605	KP295540	KP295686	KP295728		KP295565	KP295586	KP295705	KP295645	
Ceratophrys aurita	CFBH 32040	KP295606		KP295687	KP295729	KP295518	KP295566	KP295587	KP295706	KP295646	KP295666
Ceratophrys calcarata	AMNH 99661	KP295607	KP295541		KP295730			KP295588	KP295707	KP295647	KP295667
Ceratophrys cornuta	CFBH 20082	KP295608	KP295542	KP295688		KP295519	KP295567	KP295589	KP295708	KP295648	KP295668
Ceratophrys cornuta	KU202561	HQ290947	HQ290947		HQ290527		HQ290827				HQ290887
Ceratophrys cornuta	KU215537	AY819342; DQ679376	AY819472			DQ306491	AY819091	DQ679269			
Ceratophrys cranwelli	LGE 9111	KP295609	KP295543	KP295689	KP295731	KP295520	KP295568	KP295590	KP295709	KP295649	KP295669
Ceratophrys cranwelli	LGE 9112	KP295610	KP295544	KP295690				KP295591	KP295710	KP295650	KP295670
Ceratophrys cranwelli	LGE 9113	KP295611	KP295545								
Ceratophrys cranwelli	LGE 9114	KP295612	KP295546					KP295592		KP295651	

Ceratophrys cranwelli	LGE 9115	KP295613	KP295547		KP295732				KP295711	KP295652	KP295671
Ceratophrys cranwelli	MACN 47260	KP295614	KP295548								
Ceratophrys cranwelli	LGE 9116	KP295615									
Ceratophrys cranwelli	JF 929	AY843575	JX204030		AY843797						
Ceratophrys joazeirensis	CFBH7412	KP295616		KP295691	KP295733		KP295569	KP295593	KP295712	KP295653	KP295672
Ceratophrys joazeirensis	CFBH7411	KP295617		KP295692	KP295734	KP295521	KP295570	KP295594	KP295713	KP295654	KP295673
Ceratophrys joazeirensis	MZFS-DAR 1737	KP295618									KP295674
Ceratophrys ornata	LGE 9118	KP295619	KP295549	KP295693	KP295735	KP295522	KP295571	KP295595	KP295714	KP295655	KP295675
Ceratophrys stolzmanni	MACN 47250	KP295620	KP295550	KP295694	KP295736	KP295523	KP295572	KP295596	KP295715		KP295676
Chacophrys pierottii	MACN 47251	KP295621	KP295551		KP295737	KP295524	KP295573	KP295597	KP295716	KP295656	KP295677
Chacophrys pierottii	LGE 9122	KP295622	KP295552	KP295695	KP295738	KP295525			KP295717	KP295657	KP295678
Chacophrys pierottii	LGE 9123	KP295623									
Chacophrys pierottii	MACN 47261	KP295624									
Chacophrys pierottii	LGE 8204	KP295625	-					-		-	
Cochranella granulosa		EU663370; EU663010	EU663104	FJ766604		EF107460	EU663195	EU663469			
Colostethus pratti		HQ290969	HQ290969	DQ502865	HQ290547		HQ290847	DQ503361	DQ503247	DQ503112	HQ290907
Crossodactylodes septentrionalis		KC603957; KC603958		KC603985	KC603963		KC604048	KC604033	KC604105		KC604077
Crossodactylus schmidti		AY843579	JX204031	DQ502738	AY843801; HQ290528		HQ290828	DQ503298	AY844552	AY844780	AY844031
Cycloramphus boraceiensis		DQ283097		DQ502856	DQ502588			DQ503357	DQ283813	DQ282675	DQ282924
Dendropsophus nanus		AY549346	GQ366298		AY549399	GQ365985	AY819123	AY844437	AY844634	AY844852	
Duttaphrynus melanostictus		AY458592	AY458592	AY458592	AY458592	DQ306508	DQ158317	EU712821	DQ283967	DQ282815	
Edalorhina perezi		AY843585			AY843807				AY844558	AY844784	
Engystomops freibergi		EF011553				JN970147					JN970328
Epipedobates boulengeri		HQ290997	HQ290997	DQ502742	HQ290574		HQ290874	DQ503301	DQ283768	DQ282653	DQ282902
Espadarana prosoblepon		JX564857	JX564857	FJ766591	JX564857	AY364193	AY819085	EU663453	AY364404	AY844776	
Eupsophus roseus		AY843587	JX204054	DQ502852	AY843808		KC604074		AY844560	AY844786	AY844036
Hyalinobatrachium fleischmanni		DQ283453	EU663136				EU663224	EU663504	DQ284043		
Hydrolaetare cf. caparu		KC603953; KC603954		KC603988	KC603975		KC604050	KC604035	KC604107		KC604081
Hyla japonica		AB303949	AB303949	AB303949	AB303949			AY844420	AY844615	AY844833	AY844078
Hylodes phyllodes		DQ283096		DQ502873	DQ502606			DQ503367	DQ503253	DQ282674	DQ282923
Hylorina sylvatica		JX204222									
Hyloxalus chlorocraspedus		DQ502080		DQ502800	DQ502511			DQ503325	DQ503212	DQ503074	DQ503153
Hypsiboas multifasciatus		AY843648	GQ366299	JN970762	AY843887	GQ365986	GQ366036	AY844436	AY844633	AY844851	AY844093
Ikakogi tayrona		EU663358; EU662999	EU663093				EU663183	EU663457			
Insuetophrynus acarpicus	IZUA 3606*	JX204223		JX203938	KJ562949	KP295526		JX204088	JX204152	JX204285	
Lepidobatrachus asper	MACN 47253	KP295626	KP295553	KP295696	KP295739	KP295527	KP295574	KP295598	KP295718	KP295658	KP295679
Lepidobatrachus asper	LGE 328	KP295627	KP295554	KP295697	KP295740	KP295528	KP295575		KP295719	KP295659	KP295680
Lepidobatrachus asper	MACN 47254	KP295628	KP295555	KP295698	KP295741						
Lepidobatrachus asper	MACN 45235	KP295629									
Lepidobatrachus asper	LGE 4961	KP295630									
Lepidobatrachus laevis	MACN 43499	KP295631	KP295556	KP295699	KP295742	KP295529		KP295599	KP295720	KP295660	KP295681
Lepidobatrachus laevis	LGE 9119	KP295632		KP295700	KP295743	KP295530	KP295576	KP295600	KP295721		KP295682

Lepidobatrachus laevis	LGE 9120	KP295633									
Lepidobatrachus laevis	LGE8180	KP295634									
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	SR 110	KP295635			KP295744				KP295722		
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	MACN 43523	KP295636	KP295557	KP295701	KP295745	KP295531	KP295577	KP295601	KP295723	KP295661	KP295683
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	LGE 9121	KP295637	KP295558		KP295746			KP295602	KP295724	KP295662	
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	CZAa 0145	KP295638	KP295559								
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	LGE8179	KP295639									
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	MACN 46277	KP295640									
Lepidobatrachus llanensis	MACN 46296	KP295641									
Leptodactylus latrans	MACN 38648*	AY843688		KC603989	AY843934	DQ306492	KP295578	AY844470	AY844681	AY844890	KC604082
Limnomedusa macroglossa ¹	MACN 38641; LGE 9168	AY843689		KC593345	AY843935	KP295532	KP295579	AY844471	AY844682	AY844891	AY844128
Lithodytes lineatus	AMNH A166426*	AY326012	HQ290949	KC604003	JQ321833	KP295533	KC604060	AY844472	AY844683		AY844129
Litoria caerulea		AY843692	GQ366301	AY883980	AY843938	GQ365988	AY819149		AY844685	AY844893	AY844131
Macrogenioglottus alipioi		KC593360	KC593353		FJ685665			KC593355	KC593357	KC593363	KC593367
Mannophryne trinitatis		DQ502131		DQ502838	DQ502562; DQ341164			DQ503345	DQ503236	DQ503097	
Melanophryniscus klappenbachi	FML 24093*	AY843699		DQ502739	AY843944	KP295534	KP295580	DQ503299	DQ283765	AY844899	
Myersiohyla kanaima		AY843634	GQ366307		AY843868	GQ365994		AY844422	AY844617	AY844835	AY844079
Nannophryne variegata	MACN 41519*	DQ158494			KP295747	DQ306515	DQ158335				
Nymphargus bejaranoi	MNK 5242*	AY843576	EU663155		AY843798	KP295535	EU663239	EU663522	KP295725	AY844777	AY844029
Odontophrynus achalensis	MLP 4766	KP295642	KP295560		KP295748		KP295581	KP295603	KP295726	KP295663	KP295684
Odontophrynus americanus	MACN 43992*	AY843704	JX204059	JX203939	AY843949	KP295536	JX298141	FJ685706	AY844695	AY844901	JX298239
Paratelmatobius cardosoi		EU224404									
Phrynomedusa marginata		GQ366234	GQ366313		GQ365923			GQ366078	GQ366109	GQ366167	GQ366199
Phyllobates vittatus		DQ502152	FJ882833	DQ502854	AF324039	EF107459		DQ503355		DQ503105	DQ503166
Phyllodytes luteolus		AY843721	GQ366314		AY843966		GQ366043	AY844494	AY844708	AY844913	AY844150
Phyllomedusa sauvagii		GQ366283	GQ366333		GQ365971	GQ366018	GQ366065	GQ366094	GQ366152	GQ366193	GQ366217
Physalaemus cuvieri	MACN 38640*	AY843729	JX204060		AY843975	KP295537	AY819096	AY844499	AY844717	AY844922	
Pleurodema brachyops	AMNH-A 139118*	AY843733		KP295702	AY843979	KP295538	KP295582	AY844503	AY844721	AY844926	
Proceratophrys avelinoi ²	MACN 47401*	KP295643			FJ685671		KP295583	FJ685711	KF214204	KP295664	DQ282903
Proceratophrys melanopogon		KF214120; KF214142			KF214164		GQ345270	KF214181	KF214239		
Proceratophrys minuta		KF214113; JX982965			JX982961			JX982969	KF214215		
Proceratophrys schirchi		KF214112; FJ685701			FJ685681			FJ685721	KF214214		
Pseudis minuta		EF152996	GQ366339		AY843985	GQ366028	GQ366070	AY844505		AY844929	
Pseudopaludicola falcipes	MACN 38647*	AY843741		KP295703	KC593350	KP295539	KC604051	AY844507	AY844728	AY844930	AY844168
Rheobates palmatus		EU342508	HQ290967	DQ502925	HQ290545		HQ290845		DQ503271		DQ503172
Rhinella arenarum		AY843573	JX204061		AY843795	DQ306529	DQ158271	AY844370	AY844547	AY844775	
Rhinoderma darwinii	MACN 41522*	DQ283324	JX564891	DQ502858	JX564891	AY364192	KP295584		AY364403	DQ282813	
Rupirana cardosoi		KC593361	KC593354	KC603987	KC593351; KC603964	KC593348	KC604049	KC604034	KC604106		KC593368
Scinax staufferi		AY843761	GQ366340		AY844006	GQ366029	GQ366071	AY844523	AY844748		AY844183
Scythrophrys sawayae		EU224417							DQ283815		DQ282926
Stefania evansi		AY843767	AY819490				AY819108	DQ679307	AY844755	AY844950	AY844189
Telmatobius bolivianus		JF703234	JF703234	JF703234	JF703234			AY583344	AY844757	AY844952	

Telmatobius niger	AY326015	FJ882751								
Telmatobius truebae	AY819348; DQ679378	AY819478				AY819097	DQ679271			
Telmatobius vellardi	JX564897	JX564897		JX564897						
Telmatobiusverrucosus ³	DQ283040		DQ502743	GU060617						
Thoropa taophora ⁴	DQ283331	GQ345254	DQ502874	FJ685662	GQ345193	GQ345271	FJ685702	GQ345307	GQ345320	JX298241
Trachycephalus typhonius	AY549362	GQ366341		EU034077	GQ366030	AY819132	EU034147	AY364396	AY844912	DQ347161
Vitreorana eurygnatha	AY843595	EU663135*		AY843814			EU663502	AY844567	AY844793	

¹The voucher of *Limnomedusa macroglossa* MACN 38641 was employed for the sequence of POMC (KP295579), while the voucher LGE 9168 for the sequence of CXCR4 (KP295532).

²The voucher of *Proceratophrys avelinoi* is the same specimen reported by Frost et al. (2006) as JF 1947. The sequence of H1 (DQ283038) from this specimen by Frost et al. (2006) is partially contaminated with *Odontophrynus* sp. (as shown by BLAST when internal regions of the sequence are compared). This fact possibly explains the non-monophyly of *Proceratophrys* in the direct optimization analysis of Fouquet et al. (2013), since *P. avelinoi* is sister to *Odontophrynus* and *Macrogenioglottus*. This sequence is here replaced by another produced from the same voucher (KP295643). Additionally, the rhodopsin sequence (DQ283769) of the same voucher also produced by Frost et al. (2006) has an important number of ambiguities and mismatches with other species of *Proceratophrys*. As we have been unable to produce a new rhodopsin sequence from that voucher, we did not include the original sequence in our analysis.

³The rhodopsin sequence (DQ283770) from *Telmatobius verrucosus* produced by Frost et al. (2006) is conservatively excluded from the analysis based on several ambiguities in variable regions of that gene.

⁴The voucher identified as *Thoropa miliaris* in Frost et al. (2006) belongs to a population which subsequently has been shown to be *Thoropa taophora* by Feio et al. (2006).

References not cited in the main text

Feio, R. N., Napoli, M. F., Caramaschi, U. 2006. Considerações taxonômicas sobre *Thoropa miliaris* (Spix, 1824), com revalidação e redescrição de *Thoropa taophora* (Miranda-Ribeiro, 1923) (Amphibia, Anura, Leptodactylidae). *Arquivos do Museu Nacional, Rio de Janeiro* 64:41–60.

Appendix S3

Problems with GenBank Sequences employed in previous studies

As evidenced from uncorrected p-distances (see table S1) and preliminary phylogenetic analyses (results not shown), there are a number of GenBank sequences of ceratophryids that belong to misidentified species. These are discussed below.

There are sequences corresponding to three specimens identified as *C. ornata* without locality data that must be re-identified as *C. cranwelli*. These include:(1) sequences from the voucher VUB 1006 identified as *Ceratophrys ornata* by Biju and Bossuyt (2003), Roelants and Bossuyt (2005), Bossuyt et al. (2006), Roelants et al. (2007), and Van Bocxlaer et al. (2009), with the GenBank numbers FJ882777, DQ347035, DQ347168, AY523718, AY364218, AY364188, AY364399, AY523774, AY948886. Fouquet et al. (2013; Supplementary data 2) already expressed concerns about the identity of this voucher, and we corroborate its misidentification. (2). The pet shop specimen without voucher number, from which Zhang et al. (2013) sequenced a partial mitochondrial genome (JX564858). (3) The single sequence of 16S produced (AF124111) by Vences et al. (2000) from the voucher ZFMK 66749.

Sequences (JX298407, JX298365) of *Ceratophrys* sp. (voucher AF2125, from "Brazil: Capitão Gervasio de Oliveira, Piauí") produced by Fouquet et al. (2012) must be assigned to *C. joazeirensis*, based on uncorrected p-distances of cytochrome b and phylogenetic analysis (results not shown). The ribosomal genes (AY326019, no locality available) produced by Darst and Cannatella (2004) and labeled *Lepidobatrachus* sp. actually belong to *L. llanensis* (see table S1).

As a partial consequence of the problems with misidentified specimens of *C. cranwelli*, the terminal labeled *Ceratophrys ornata* by Pyron and Wiens (2011) is actually a chimera of sequences of *C. cornuta*, *C. cranwelli* and *C. ornata*. The sequences of 12S (DQ347035), 16S (FJ882777), CXCR4 (AY364188), Rhodopsin (AY364399), SILC8A3 (AY948886), and Tyrosinase (DQ347168) from the voucher VUB 1006 deposited in GenBank as *C. ornata*, must be considered *C. cranwelli* instead. Only the sequence of Cytochrome b (L10983) is from a specimen correctly identified as *C. ornata* (voucher MVZ.AG 48). Additionally, the sequence of POMC (AY819091) from the terminal labeled as *C. ornata* correspond to *C. cornuta*. Wiens et al. (2005) deposited this sequence in GenBank identified as *C. ornata*, possibly a

lapsus calami, since in the publication they use the correct name, *C. cornuta*. The voucher reported is KU 215537, the same assigned to several additional sequences produced from this voucher and assigned to *C. cornuta* (DQ679269, DQ306491, AY819176, AY819472, AY819255, AY819342, DQ679376), and the reported locality for this voucher is "Peru: Madre de Dios: Cuzco Amazonico, 15 km E Puerto Maldonado, 200 m", a region were only *C. cornuta* is present (Duellman, 2005).

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Ceratophrys ornata JX564858	-								
2	Ceratophrys ornata VUB 1006	0.004	-							
3	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9113	0.004	0.000	-						
4	Ceratophrys ornata LGE 9118	0.025	0.021	0.021	-					
5	Ceratophrys ornata ZFMK 66749	0.004	0.000	0.000	0.022	-				
6	Lepidobatrachus sp. TNHC 62497	0.066	0.062	0.062	0.060	0.063	ı			
7	Lepidobatrachus llanensis SR 110	0.067	0.064	0.064	0.062	0.065	0.005	-		
8	Lepidobatrachus laevis LGE 9119	0.060	0.056	0.056	0.049	0.057	0.018	0.016	-	
9	Lepidobatrachus asper MACN 47253	0.051	0.048	0.048	0.049	0.048	0.035	0.037	0.034	-

Table S1. Uncorrected p-distances between the 16S fragment of some vouchers of species included in the present study and GenBank sequences assigned to wrong species. See Supp. Data 1 for locality data of specimens included in this study.

References not cited in the main text

- Bossuyt F., Brown R.M., Hillis D.M., Cannatella D.C., Milinkovitch M.C. 2006. Phylogeny and biogeography of a cosmopolitan frog radiation: Late cretaceous diversification resulted in continent-scale endemism in the family Ranidae. *Systematic Biology* 55:579–94.
- Roelants K., Bossuyt F. 2005. Archaeobatrachian paraphyly and pangean diversification of crown-group frogs. *Systematic Biology* 54:111–26.
- Roelants K., Gower D.J., Wilkinson M., Loader S.P., Biju S.D., Guillaume K., Moriau L., Bossuyt F. 2007. Global patterns of diversification in the history of modern amphibians. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences (USA)* 104:887–92.

- Van Bocxlaer, I., Biju, S.D., Loader, S.P., Bossuyt, F. 2009. Toad radiation reveals into-India dispersal as a source of endemism in the Western Ghats-Sri Lanka biodiversity hotspot. *BMC Evolutionary Biology* 9:131.
- Vences, M., Kosuch, J., Lötters, S., Widmer, A., Jungfer, K. H., Kohler, J., Veith, M. 2000. Phylogeny and classification of poison frogs (Amphibia: Dendrobatidae), based on mitochondrial 16S and 12S ribosomal RNA gene sequences. *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* 15:34–40.

Appendix S4

Some of the scoring problems in the phenotypic dataset of Evans et al. (2014)

All characters included in the dataset of Evans et al. (2014) are those of Fabrezi (2006), as modified and renumbered by Báez et al. (2009). Below we report problems arising from the scoring of these characters mostly in terminals newly included by Evans et al. (2014).

Ch. 5. Frontoparietal, nature of midline contact.

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 5: 2 (fused along entire length), correct score5: 1 (sutured or partially fused).

Ch.6. Frontoparietal fenestra, sphenethmoid contribution (This character was not considered in the final analysis).

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 5: - (not-comparable), correct score 5: 0 (completely surrounded anteriorly by sphenethmoid).

Ch.10. Squamosal, development of otic ramus.

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 10: [01] (absent or rudimentary; overlapping crista parotica), correct score 10: 1 (overlapping crista parotica).

Ch. 11. Squamosal, development of zygomatic ramus.

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 11: 0 (reduced), correct score 10: 1 (moderately developed ending free).

Ch. 17. Premaxilla, lingual process. Lingual process, a definition employed by Baez et al. (2009) is a confusing term for the projection of the pars palatina of the premaxilla

that extends to the maxilla, that most authors (e.g. Perí, 1993; Wild, 1997; Fernicola, 2001; Nicoli, 2014) had termed maxillary process. This likely induced a confusion that lead Evans et al. to several errors in the scoring of this character. For example, Evans et al. (2014: fig. 12C, D) described this process in *Beezelbufo ampinga*, as dorsal maxillary process, but scored it as absent in the same taxon, and in some taxa correctly scored originally by Báez et al. (2009).

Beezelbufo ampinga scored as 17: 0 (absent), correct score 17: 1 (present).

Ceratophrys ornata scored as 17: 0 (absent), correct score 17: 1 (present).

Chacophrys pierottii scored as 17: 0 (absent), correct score 17: 1 (present).

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 17: 0 (absent), correct score 17: 1 (present).

Calyptocephalella gayi scored as 17: 1 (present), correct score 17: 0 (absent).

Ch. 21. Pterygoid, length of anterior ramus.

Calyptocephalella gayi scored as 21: 0 (long, reaching antorbital planum), correct score 21: 1 (short).

Ch. 37. Presacral vertebrae, imbrication of posterior-most four neural arches. Imbrication implies that the neural arch of a vertebra is posteriorly projected overlapping the neural arch of the following vertebra, covering completely the neural canal.

Chacophrys pierottii scored as 37: 0 (imbricate), correct score 37: 1 (non-imbricate).

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 37: 0 (imbricate), correct score 37: 1 (non-imbricate).

Ch. 38. Presacral vertebrae, height of neural spines in anterior presacrals.

Chacophrys pierottii scored as 38: 0 (low), correct score 38: 1 (high).

Ch. 39. Presacral vertebrae, orientation of transverse processes of 6th presacral.

Chacophrys pierottii scored as 39: 2 (transverse processes of 6th presacral markedly forward oriented), correct score 39: 0 (nearly perpendicular to axial axis).

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 39: 2, correct score 39: 0.

Calyptocephalella gayi scored as 39: 2, correct score 39: 0.

Ch. 40. Presacral vertebrae, length of transverse processes of the posterior presacrals relative to the sacral diapophyses. In *Calyptocephalella gayi* the transverse processes are long and its length decrease gradually from Presacral IV in caudal direction. Only the last presacral vertebra has transverse processes shorter than the sacral diapophyses; the anterior vertebrae have transverse processes nearly equal or longer than the diapophyses. This condition is not included in the defined character states [(0) clearly shorter; (1) equal to subequal].

Calyptocephalella gayi erroneously scored as 40: 0 (clearly shorter).

Ch. 49. Omosternum.

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 49: 0 (absent), correct score 49: 1 (present).

Ch.50. Omosternum, degree of ossification.

Odontophrynus americanus scored as 50: - (not comparable), correct score 50: 0 (completely cartilaginous).

Ch. 52. Sternum, degree of ossification. The sternum of Ceratophryidae is a plate. This plate is always ossified or calcified to some degree, varying among the different species and the individual age (Reig and Limeses, 1963; Wild, 1993; Silva-Vieira, 2006, pers. obs). These conditions were not considered in the character states of Evans et al. (2014): (0) completely cartilaginous; (1) with ossified style. The character state attributed to the three species of Ceratophryidae included is not an appropriate description of their morphology.

Ceratophrys ornata erroneously scored as 52: 0 (completely cartilaginous).

Chacophrys pierottii erroneously scored as 52: 0 (completely cartilaginous).

Lepidobatrachus laevis erroneously scored as 52: 0 (completely cartilaginous).

Ch. 57. Scapula, maximum diameter of glenoid fossa relative to the scapular shaft.

Calyptocephalella gayi scored as 57: 2 (less than one half), correct score 57: 1 (between one and one half).

Ch. 59. Clavicle-scapular relation.

Chacophrys pierottii scored as 59: 1 (abutting medially), correct score 59: 2 (fused).

Ch. 66. Ilium, well-developed dorsal crest on iliac shaft

Chacophrys pierottii scored as 66: 1 (present), correct score 66: 0 (absent).

Some additional comments about character states scored for Beezelbufo ampinga.

- Ch. 1. Nasals, medial contact [scored as 1:? (unknown)]. A partially preserved median suture was described in the nasal of *Beezelbufo ampinga* (Evans et al, 2014, pag. 12). However, the medial contact of nasals was scored as unknown in the matrix, without further comments.
- Ch.16. Premaxilla, palatine shelf [scored as 16: 1 (absent)]. The absence of pars palatina in the premaxilla is one of the synapomorphies proposed for Ceratophryidae by Fabrezi and Quinzio (2008) in the context of their analysis. In all species of *Ceratophrys*, however, the pars palatina is present in immature individuals during development and projects dorsally until fusing with the pars facialis, being practically indistinguishable, in adults. Its only remnants are the maxillary process occurring in all ceratophryids, and the palatine process occurring in species of *Lepidobatrachus* and *Chacophrys*. The taxonomic distribution of this character state in most neobatrachians, however, is poorly known. For example in the Odontophryinidae having most heavily ossified skulls (e.g., *Macrogenioglottus alipioi*) the pars palatina is projected dorsally, being almost indistinguishable from the pars facialis. The diversity in structure and development of the pars palatina in anurans requires a reassessment before its condition in *Beelzebufo ampinga* could be considered homologous to the one occurring in ceratophryids.
- **Ch. 33.** Hyoid plate, calcifications [scored as 33: 0 (absent)]. A cartilaginous hyoid plate could not be preserved in a fossil specimen and, thus, it presence cannot be evaluated.

Ch.47. Free intervertebral discs in subadults [scored as 47: 0 (absent)]. In extant anurans, the presence of intervertebral discs can be observed in subadults stages in some taxa (e.g. Wiens 1989; Hall Larsen, 1998). These discs, however, can fuse during development with the contiguous vertebral centra and not be evident in adults. This character cannot be evaluated in the presumably adult remains of *Beezelbufo ampinga*.

Specimens examined for comparisons

- Institutional collection codes follow Sabaj-Pérez et al. (2014). Most specimens are dry skeletons; clear and stained specimens have an asterisk.
- Calyptocephalella gayi MACN 45741–3. Osteology also described by Reinbach (1939), Reig (1960a), Lynch (1971), Muzopappa and Báez, 2009.
- Ceratophrys aurita MLP 1280; C. calcarata AMNH 177036; C. cranwelli MLP 273; FML 5472, 5474-7; C. ornata MLP 137, 247, FML 1193. Osteology also described by Lynch (1971, 1982), Perí, (1993a), Pires Gayer (1984), Wild (1997), Silva-Vieira (2006), Fabrezi (2006), Fabrezi and Lobo (2008), Quinzio and Fabrezi (2012), Fabrezi et al. (2014).
- Chacophrys pierottii FML 1019-1–2*, 9012*. Osteology also described by Barrio (1968), Reig and Limeses (1963), Wild (1999), Fabrezi (2006), Fabrezi and Lobo (2008), Fabrezi et al. (2014).

Lepidobatrachus asper FML 5469–70; L. laevis FML 13703–4, 13709, 1089; L. llanensis CENAI 8519*, FML 420, 1016, 5220–1, 1089. Osteology also described by Reig, (1960b), Lynch (1971), Fabrezi (2006), Fabrezi and Lobo (2008), Quinzio and Fabrezi (2012), Fabrezi et al. (2014).

Macrogenioglottus alipioi: CFBH 4261.

Odontophrynus americanus CENAI 3938–9, 3939, 3942, MACN 25236, 25237; FCEN 781-15*, 1286-1–2*.

References not cited in the main text

Muzzopappa P., Báez A.M. 2009. Systematic status of the mid-Tertiary neobatrachian frog *Calyptocephalella canqueli* from Patagonia (Argentina), with comments on the evolution of the genus. *Ameghiniana* 46:113–125.

Reig O.A. 1960a. Las relaciones genéricas del anuro chileno *Calyptocephalella gayi* (Dum. & Bibr.). *Actas y Trabajos del Primer Congreso Sudamericano de Zoología, La Plata* 1: 113–131.

Reig O.A. 1960b. La anatomía esquelética del género *Lepidobatrachus* (Anura,Leptodactylidae), comparada con la de otros ceratofrinos. *Actas y trabajos del Primer*Congreso Sudamericano de Zoología, La Plata 1:134–147.

Reinbach W. 1939. Untersuchungen über die Entwicklung des Kopfskeletts von Calyptocephalus gayi. Jenaische Zeitschrift Für Naturwissencschaft 72:211–362.

Figure S1

Topology of the outgroup taxa recovered in the ten most parsimonious trees obtained with direct optimization (length 38965 steps) under equal weights for all transformations. Values around nodes are parsimony jackknife absolute frequencies estimated for the static alignment analyzed with parsimony in T.N.T. with gaps as fifth state. Nodes lacking values have < 50% jackknife frequencies. See Figure 1 for ceratophryid relationships.

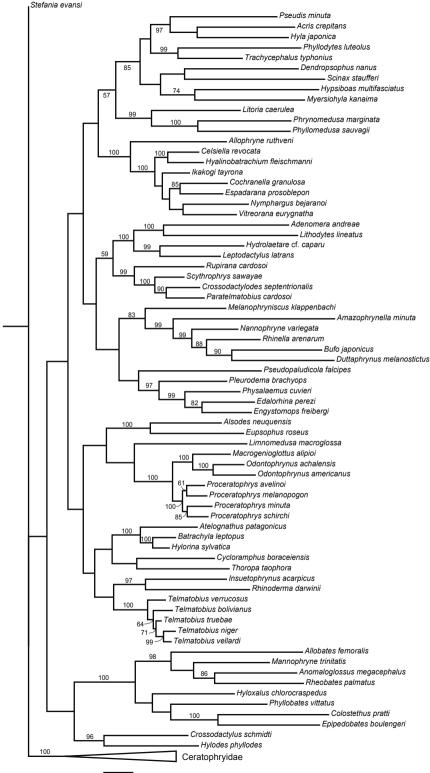
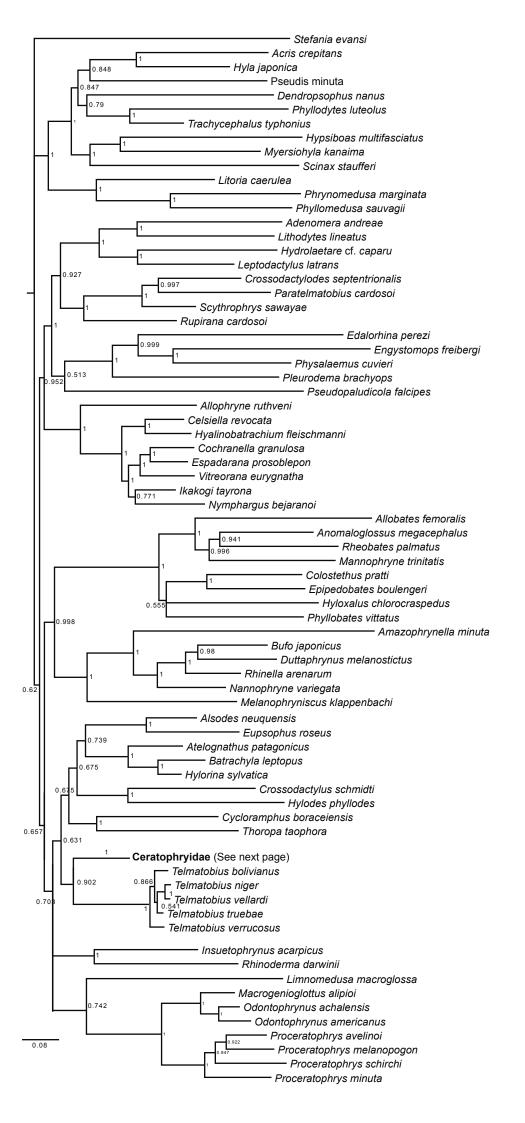


Figure S2

Results of the Bayesian analysis using the static alignment. Values around nodes are Posterior Probabilities. Nodes with values < 0.5 are collapsed. See Appendix S1 for complete locality data.



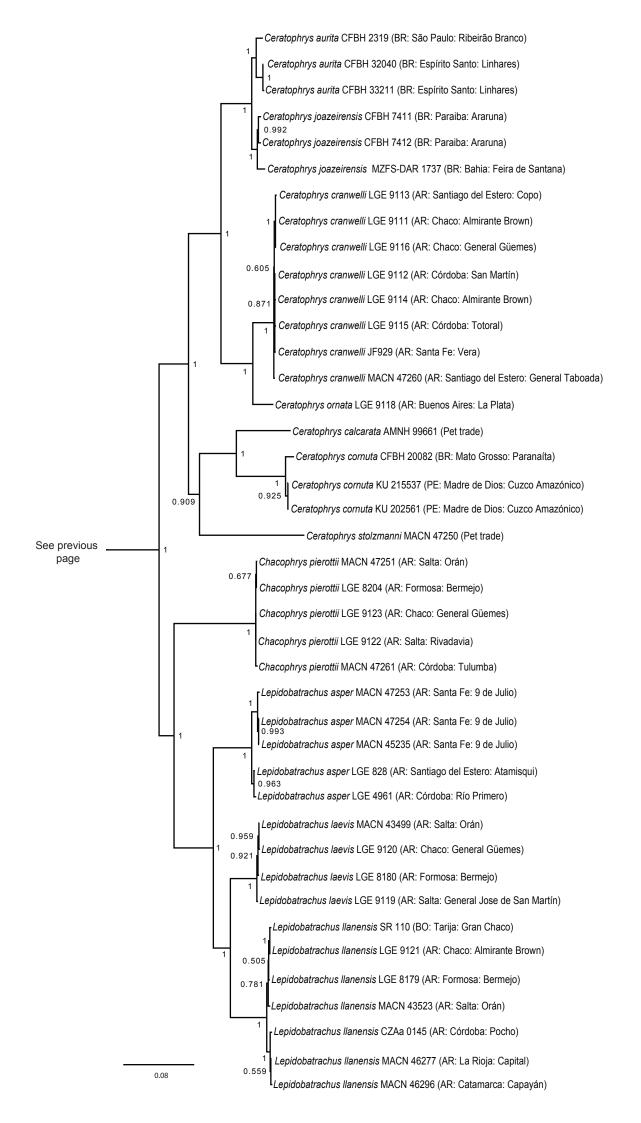


Table S1

Genetic distances among 16S sequences of ceratophryids

Table S1.1. Uncorrected p-distances between the 16S fragment among specimens of *Chacophrys pierottii*. See Appendix S1 for complete locality data.

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Chacophrys pierottii MACN 47251. AR: Salta: Orán	-				
2	Chacophrys pierottii LGE 9122. AR: Salta: Rivadavia	0.002	i			
3	Chacophrys pierottii LGE 9123. AR: Chaco: General Güemes	0.002	0.000	ı		
4	Chacophrys pierottii MACN 47261. AR: Córdoba: Tulumba	0.002	0.000	0.000	-	
5	Chacophrys pierottii LGE 8204. AR: Formosa: Bermejo	0.000	0.002	0.002	0.002	-

Table S1.2. Uncorrected p-distances between the 16S fragment among specimens of the three species of *Lepidobatrachus*. See Appendix S1 for complete locality data.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Lepidobatrachus asper LGE 328. AR: Santiago del Estero: Atamisqui	-															
2	Lepidobatrachus asper LGE 4961. AR: Córdoba: Rio Primero	0.000	-														
3	Lepidobatrachus asper MACN 47253. AR: Santa Fe: 9 de Julio	0.005	0.005	-													
4	Lepidobatrachus asper MACN 47254. AR: Santa Fe: 9 de Julio	0.004	0.004	0.002	ı												
5	Lepidobatrachus asper MACN 45235. AR: Santa Fe: 9 de Julio	0.004	0.004	0.002	0.000	-											
6	Lepidobatrachus laevis MACN 43499. AR: Santa: Orán	0.034	0.034	0.035	0.034	0.034	-										
7	Lepidobatrachus laevis LGE 9119. AR: Salta: General Jose de San Martín	0.032	0.032	0.034	0.032	0.032	0.002	-									
8	Lepidobatrachus laevis LGE 9120. AR: Chaco: General Güemes	0.034	0.034	0.035	0.034	0.034	0.000	0.002	ı								
9	Lepidobatrachus laevis LGE 8180. AR: Formosa: Bermejo	0.034	0.034	0.035	0.034	0.034	0.000	0.002	0.000	-							
10	Lepidobatrachus llanensis SR110. BO: Tarija: Gran Chaco	0.039	0.039	0.037	0.035	0.035	0.018	0.016	0.018	0.018	-						
11	Lepidobatrachus llanensis MACN 43523. AR: Salta: Orán	0.039	0.039	0.037	0.035	0.035	0.018	0.016	0.018	0.018	0.004	ı					
12	Lepidobatrachus llanensis LGE 9121. AR: Chaco: Almirante Brown	0.039	0.039	0.037	0.035	0.035	0.018	0.016	0.018	0.018	0.000	0.004	1				
13	Lepidobatrachus llanensis LGE 8179. AR: Formosa: Bermejo	0.037	0.037	0.035	0.034	0.034	0.018	0.016	0.018	0.018	0.004	0.004	0.004	-			
14	Lepidobatrachus llanensis CZAa 145. AR: Cordoba: Pocho	0.044	0.044	0.039	0.041	0.041	0.023	0.021	0.023	0.023	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	-		
15	Lepidobatrachus llanensis MACN 46277. AR: La Rioja: Capital	0.044	0.044	0.039	0.041	0.041	0.023	0.021	0.023	0.023	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.000	-	
16	Lepidobatrachus llanensis MACN 46296. AR: Catamarca: Capayán	0.044	0.044	0.039	0.041	0.041	0.023	0.021	0.023	0.023	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.009	0.000	0.000	-

Table S1.3. Uncorrected p-distances between the 16S fragment among specimens of *Ceratophrys aurita*, *C. cranwelli*, *C. joazeirensis*, and *C. ornata*. Appendix S1 for complete locality data.

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1	Ceratophrys joazeirensis CFBH 71412. BR: Paraiba: Araruna	-														
2	Ceratophrys joazeirensis CFBH 71411. BR: Paraiba: Araruna	0.004	ı													
3	<i>Ceratophrys joazeirensis</i> MZFS-DAR 1737. BR: Bahia: Feira de Santana	0.002	0.002	ı												
4	<i>Ceratophrys aurita</i> CFBH 2319. BR: São Paulo: Ribeirão Branco	0.015	0.014	0.012	-											
5	<i>Ceratophrys aurita</i> CFBH 33211. BR: Espírito Santo: Linhares	0.015	0.014	0.012	0.009	-										
6	Ceratophrys aurita CFBH 32040. BR: Espírito Santo: Linhares	0.015	0.014	0.012	0.009	0.000	-									
7	Ceratophrys ornata LGE 9118. AR: Buenos Aires: La Plata	0.044	0.042	0.041	0.035	0.039	0.039	-								
8	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9111. AR: Chaco: Almirante Brown	0.042	0.041	0.039	0.033	0.042	0.042	0.023	-							
9	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9112. AR: Córdoba: San Martín	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.041	0.041	0.021	0.002	-						
10	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9113. AR: Santiago del Estero: Copo	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.041	0.041	0.021	0.002	0.000	-					
11	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9114. AR: Chaco: Almirante Brown	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.041	0.041	0.021	0.002	0.000	0.000	-				
12	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9115. AR: Córdoba: Totoral	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.037	0.037	0.019	0.005	0.004	0.004	0.004	-			
13	Ceratophrys cranwelli MACN 47260. AR: Santiago del Estero: General Taboada	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.041	0.041	0.021	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	-		
14	Ceratophrys cranwelli LGE 9116. AR: Chaco: General Güemes	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.041	0.041	0.021	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000	=	
15	Ceratophrys cranwelli JF929: AR: Santa Fe: 9 de Julio	0.040	0.039	0.037	0.032	0.041	0.041	0.021	0.002	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.004	0.000	0.000	-

Table S1.4. Uncorrected p-distances between the 16S fragment among specimens of *Ceratophrys calcarata*, *C. cornuta*, and *C. stolzmanni*. See Appendix S1 for complete locality data.

		1	2	3	4	5
1	Ceratophrys stolzmanni MACN 47250. Pet Trade	-				
2	Ceratophrys calcarata AMNH 99661. Pet Trade	0.072	1			
3	Ceratophrys cornuta CFBH 20082. BR: Mato Grosso: Paranaita	0.056	0.044	-		
4	Ceratophrys cornuta KU 202561. PE: Madre de Dios: Cuzco Amazonico	0.058	0.042	0.005	-	
5	Ceratophrys cornuta KU 215537. PE: Madre de Dios: Cuzco Amazonico	0.060	0.042	0.006	0.000	-