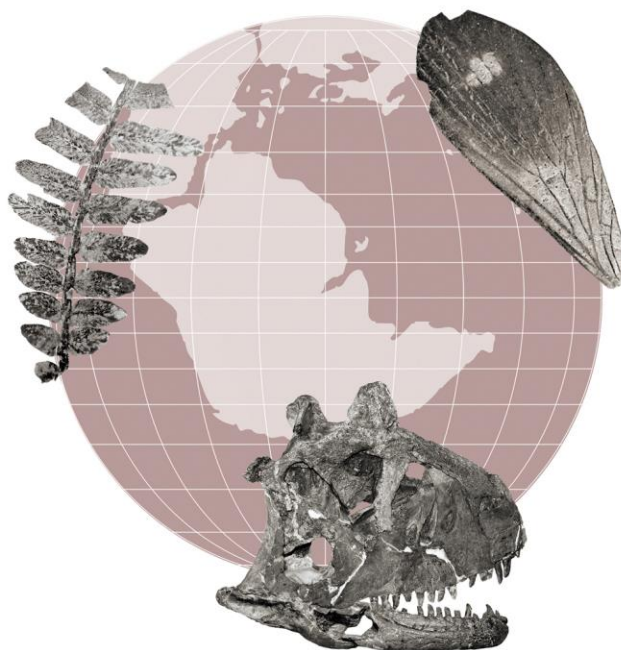




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1 THE INFRAORBITAL FORAMEN IN SPARASSODONTA (MAMMALIA,
2 METATHERIA), EXTINCT NATIVE PREDATORS OF SOUTH AMERICA

3

4 CATALINA SUAREZ¹, CHARLÈNE GAILLARD¹, ROSS D.E. MACPHEE², AND
5 ANALÍA M. FORASIEPI¹

6 ¹Instituto Argentino de Nivología, Glaciología y Ciencias Ambientales (IANIGLA),
7 CCT-CONICET Mendoza, Av. Ruiz Leal s/nº, Parque General San Martín, 5500,
8 Mendoza, Argentina. catasuarezg@gmail.com; charlene.gaillard.pal@gmail.com;
9 acanthodes@gmail.com

10 ²Division of Vertebrate Zoology, Department of Mammalogy, American Museum of
11 Natural History, 200 Central Park West, 10024-5102, New York, U.S.A.
12 macphee@amnh.org

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16 Running Header: SUAREZ *ET AL.*: INFRAORBITAL FORAMEN IN
17 SPARASSODONTA

18 Short Description: This study investigates the infraorbital foramen (IOF) size and its
19 implications for the paleoecology of sparassodonts, focusing on *Thylacosmilus*.

20

21 Corresponding author: Catalina Suarez, catasuarezg@gmail.com

Abstract. The Sparassodonta were the dominant mammalian predators in South America during much of the Cenozoic. Among them, *Thylacosmilus atrox*, with its hyperdeveloped upper canines and bizarre anatomy, has drawn considerable attention. This study investigates infraorbital foramen (IOF) size and its implications for the paleoecology of sparassodonts, focusing on *Thylacosmilus*. Using computed tomography (CT), micro-computed tomography (μ CT), and comparative analyses, we examined the relationship between IOF area (IOF_{area}) and certain anatomical correlates, including foramen rotundum area (FR_{area}), several endocranial structures, and skull dimensions. Comparisons were made within Sparassodonta and to marsupials and carnivorans. Our results reveal that greater variation in IOF_{area} exists among sparassodonts compared to marsupials, with some large borhyaenoids exhibiting disproportionally large IOF_{area}. Notably, *Thylacosmilus* displays intrataxon variation in IOF_{area}. Contrary to previous studies, which concluded that *Thylacosmilus* possessed a relatively small IOF that might have been consistent with scavenging behavior, our findings indicate that IOF_{area} in *Thylacosmilus* does not substantially differ from that of the active predators in our sample. This study highlights the anatomical diversity of IOF in sparassodonts and underscores the complexity of making behavioral inferences from partial cranial morphology.

Keywords. Maxillary nerve. Infraorbital nerve. Foramen rotundum. *Thylacosmilus*.

Resumen. EL FORAMEN INFRAORBITARIO EN SPARASSODONTA

(MAMMALIA, METATHERIA), LOS DEPRDADORES NATIVOS

SUDAMERICANOS. Los Sparassodonta fueron los principales mamíferos

depredadores de América del Sur durante el Cenozoico. Entre ellos, *Thylacosmilus*

atrox, con sus caninos superiores hiperdesarrollados y su peculiar anatomía, ha atraído

considerable la atención. Este estudio investiga el tamaño del foramen infraorbitario

47 (IOF) y sus implicancias para la paleoecología de los Sparassodonta y en particular
48 *Thylacosmilus*. Utilizando tomografías computarizadas (CT) y micro-tomografías
49 computarizadas (μ CT), así como análisis comparativos, se examinó la relación entre el
50 área del IOF (IOF_{area}) y aspectos anatómicos como el área del foramen rotundum
51 (FR_{area}), algunas estructuras endocraneales y las dimensiones del cráneo en varios
52 Sparassodonta, comparándolos con marsupiales y carnívoros. Nuestros resultados
53 revelan una mayor variabilidad en la IOF_{area} entre los esparasodontes en comparación
54 con los marsupiales, con algunos grandes borhyaenoides presentando un área
55 desproporcionalmente grande. Notablemente, *Thylacosmilus* muestra una variación del
56 IOF_{area} entre individuos. En contraste con previos estudios que afirmaban que
57 *Thylacosmilus* poseía un IOF relativamente pequeño que implicaría un comportamiento
58 carroñero, nuestros hallazgos indican que el IOF de *Thylacosmilus* no difiere
59 sustancialmente del de los depredadores activos de nuestra muestra. Este estudio resalta
60 la diversidad anatómica del IOF de los Sparassodonta y la complejidad de realizar
61 inferencias paleoecológicas a partir del análisis parcial de la morfología craneal.
62 **Palabras clave.** Nervio maxilar. Nervio infraorbitario. Foramen rotundum.
63 *Thylacosmilus*.

64 SPARASSODONTA (MAMMALIA, METATHERIA), A WHOLLY EXTINCT CLADE OF SOUTH
65 AMERICAN METATHERIANS, were the only mammalian predators on that continent for
66 most of the Cenozoic. Although sparassodonts were a diverse group, the taxon that has
67 received the most attention is *Thylacosmilus atrox*, sometimes called the “marsupial
68 saber-tooth” in reference to its extremely hypertrophied maxillary canines. Previous
69 authors have recognized notable variation among specimens of *Thylacosmilus*, and we
70 follow Goin & Pascual (1987) in recognizing a single, highly variable species. In the
71 absence of any obvious extant ecological analogues, making inferences about its
72 paleoecology has proven difficult (see Riggs, 1934; Marshall, 1976; Wroe *et al.*, 2013;
73 Janis *et al.*, 2020; Suarez *et al.*, 2023; Wroe & Sansalone, 2023). Although its dental
74 battery as a whole suggests hypercarnivory (e.g., great reduction of the protocone,
75 talonid basin, participants in the crushing mechanism; and a strong development of
76 cutting blades: preparacrista, postmetacrista, and paracristid), it has recently been
77 questioned whether it was an active predator, as opposed to a scavenger, given its
78 supposedly “relatively small” infraorbital foramen (IOF), among other features (Janis *et*
79 *al.*, 2020; Janis, 2024; but see Discussion). A “relatively small” IOF was thought to
80 imply a “lesser amount of sensory feedback from the muzzle and, hence, lesser ability
81 for precise positioning of the canine” (Janis, 2024: 9).

82 Most cranial apertures are multipurpose, providing ingress/egress for both
83 nerves and the blood vascular system. How much of a foramen’s cross-sectional area is
84 devoted to the passage of soft tissues may vary considerably across taxa, making it
85 difficult to make functional inferences alone. In the case of the IOF, however, available
86 comparative evidence indicates that its primary component is always nervous,
87 occupying as much as 80–90% of the cross-sectional area of the foramen (IOF_{area};
88 Sánchez-Villagra & Asher, 2002; Wible, 2003; Muchlinski, 2008; Evans & Lahunta,

2012). The vascular component, if any, is usually quite small. The infraorbital nerve (ION) is a branch of the maxillary nerve, which leaves the cranial cavity via the foramen rotundum (FR; if present as a separate foramen). The ION's general sensory field is the middle of the face, which includes the muzzle, and any specialized external structures connected with it, such as vibrissae. As vibrissae relay tactile information concerning the environment, head position, obstacles and so forth, it is reasonable to ask whether IOF_{area} is correlated with the amount of sensory information an animal receives along this pathway.

Previous analyses have focused on normalizing IOF size to the general size of the skull, as a way of indexing the relationship of IOF_{area} to vibrissae number or proportion. Translating that information into inferences about behavior or ecology is largely based on conditions in eutherians (e.g., Luo, 2007; Muchlinski, 2010a,b; Wilson *et al.*, 2012; Gill *et al.*, 2014; Muchlinski *et al.*, 2020). Little attention has been given to marsupials, the metatherian crown group (but see Muchlinski, 2010b), and apart from brief comments on some groups (e.g., Engelman & Croft, 2014; Janis *et al.*, 2020; Janis, 2024), IOF morphology has not been studied in detail for this clade.

Using μ CT it is possible to make wide anatomical analyses, such as comparing IOF_{area} to portions of the brain (as visualized from endocast reconstructions) involved with vision, audition, and olfaction (e.g., Gaillard *et al.*, 2021, 2023, 2024). By focusing on *Thylacosmilus* and its close relatives, we explore inter- and intra-specific variability of IOF_{area} in sparassodonts in relation to skull dimensions and specific areas of the brain. Here we make comparisons to their closest extant relatives (marsupials) and plausible ecological analogues (carnivorans) to elucidate the possible role(s) of IOF contents. One hypothesis of interest in this regard is the metrical relationship between IOF_{area} and foramen rotundum area (FR_{area}), which we explore in some detail.

114 **Institutional abbreviations.** **AMNH VP**, Department of Vertebrate Paleontology,
 115 American Museum of Natural History, New York, USA; **CORD-PZ**, Museo de
 116 Paleontología, Facultad de Ciencias Exactas, Físicas y Naturales de la Universidad
 117 Nacional de Córdoba, Córdoba, Argentina; **FMNH P**, Field Museum of Natural
 118 History, Paleontological collection, Chicago, USA; **MACN**, Museo Argentino de
 119 Ciencias Naturales ‘Bernardino Rivadavia’ (MACN-A, Ameghino collection; MACN-
 120 Ma, Mammal collection; MACN-Pv CH, Paleovertebrados, Chubut collection), Ciudad
 121 Autónoma de Buenos Aires, Argentina; **MCNAM-PV**, Colección de Paleontología de
 122 Vertebrados, Museo de Ciencias Naturales y Antropológicas Juan Cornelio Moyano,
 123 Mendoza, Argentina; **MLP-PV**, Colección de Paleontología de Vertebrados, Museo de
 124 La Plata, La Plata, Argentina; **MMP**, Museo Municipal de Ciencias Naturales de Mar
 125 del Plata “Lorenzo Scaglia”, Mar del Plata, Argentina; **MPM-PV**, Colección de
 126 Paleontología de Vertebrados, Museo Regional Provincial “Padre M. J. Molina”, Río
 127 Gallegos, Argentina; **NMB**, Naturhistorisches Museum Basel, Basel, Switzerland; **PVL**,
 128 Paleontología de Vertebrados Lillo, Facultad de Ciencias Naturales e Instituto Miguel
 129 Lillo, San Miguel de Tucumán, Argentina; **TMM-M**, Texas Memorial Museum,
 130 Mammal collection, Austin, USA; **YPM-VPPU**, Princeton University collection, Yale
 131 Peabody Museum of Natural History, New Haven, USA.
 132 **Anatomical abbreviations.** C/c, upper/lower canines; **FR**, foramen rotundum; I/i,
 133 upper/lower incisors; **IOF**, infraorbital foramen; **ION**, infraorbital nerve; **M/m**,
 134 upper/lower molars; P/p, upper/lower premolars.
 135 **Other abbreviations.** **BM**, body mass; **CS**, cranium size (i.e., geometric mean of
 136 cranial shape in Muchlinski, 2010a,b); **CT**, computed tomography; **μCT**, micro-
 137 computed tomography; **LDA**, Linear Discriminant Analysis; **ln**, natural logarithm;

138 **PCA**, Principal Component Analysis; R^2 , coefficient of determination; **S1–3**,
139 Supplementary Online Information table 1–3; **SE**, Smearing Estimate.
140 **Dental formula.** The conventional primitive metatherian dental formula followed in
141 this contribution is: I 1–5 / i 2–5, C/c 1, P/p 1–3, M/m 1–4 (e.g., see Voss & Jansa,
142 2009; Goin *et al.*, 2016; Beck *et al.*, 2022, and literature cited). For postcanine
143 homology considering ontogeny and character evolution in high-level mammalian
144 phylogeny see for example Lockett (1993) and O’Leary *et al.* (2013).

145

146 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

147 **Material**

148 Table 1 lists the sparassodont specimens that are our primary focus and certain
149 marsupials included to provide a phylogenetic framework. Comparative information on
150 other metatherians, placental carnivorans, and primates taken from the literature
151 (Muchlinski, 2010a,b) is provided in Tables S2–3.

152 Analyses comparing IOF_{area} with FR_{area}, olfactory bulbs, and orbital convergence
153 are based on tomographic measurements collected from our specimens set (Table 1).

154 **Methods**

155 **Image processing and measurements.** Specimens were studied via CT and μ CT scans.

156 Scanning parameters and related data are given in Table S1 for each examined
157 specimen. CT scans were initially processed in the open software Image J (Schneider *et*
158 *al.*, 2012) to enhance contrast and reduce file size. Tridimensional models were
159 generated by segmentation using the software Avizo/Amira (Zuse Institute Berlin and
160 Visualization Sciences Group, 1995–2012) and the open software 3D Slicer (Fedorov *et*
161 *al.*, 2012). Linear measurements of the skull were taken on CT scans using 3D Slicer v.
162 5.2.2 for Linux. Measurements of the IOF_{area} and FR_{area} were taken directly in 3D Slicer

using the Markups module (Fig. 1). To accomplish this, orthogonal CT sections were reoriented as follows: the axial and sagittal planes were oriented parallel to the canal, and the coronal plane was oriented perpendicular to them (Fig. 1.1–1.3). A closed curve was drawn along the margin of the foramen on the coronal slice so that the area enclosed would be transverse to the canal (Fig. 1.1, 1.4–1.5). The area surrounded by that curvature, corresponding to the foramen area, was calculated by the software. These measurements correspond to those presented by Muchlinski *et al.* (2020) with the difference that those authors used latex casts instead of virtual 3D meshes of the canals. In some specimens, the borders of the FR or IOF were incomplete due to breakage. In those cases, we measured the rostralmost portion of their preserved transverse areas. Linear cranial length and bizygomatic width measurements follow Muchlinski (2010a,b).

Figure 1 here

Most of the specimens in our sample have a single aperture of IOF. However, in specimen NMB c.2526 of *Thylacinus cynocephalus*, we detected multiple apertures of IOF. For our analysis, we summed the individual apertures into a total area. Regarding Sparassodonta, accessory foramina around IOF were observed in specimen YPM-VPPU 15701 of *Borhyaena tuberosa* (Sinclair, 1906; not included in our sample set). In the absence of CT, it is unclear if both openings are for the ION (i.e., in this case, we would expect that both facial openings connect with the maxillary canal) or if at least one of the openings is for vasculature only (e.g., diploic or emissary foramina, justifying excluding it from the analysis). In addition, by surface inspection Babot *et al.* (2002) mentioned that specimen PVL 4187 of *Callistoe vincei* exhibits multiple apertures of

IOF. However, CT scanning reveals that two accessory foramina appear only on the right side of the cranium, and directly lead to the alveolar space of P3 without connecting to the maxillary canal. We interpret that their content was most likely vascular and/or indirectly related to the ION (e.g., superior alveolar nerve and vessels) and consequently excluded from our measurement of the IOF_{area}.

The measurements taken in this study are given in Table 1. The complete dataset of measurements compiled from Muchlinski (2010a,b) and additional estimations made in the present study are provided in Tables S2–3. The angles of orbital convergence and olfactory bulb percentages were taken from Gaillard *et al.* (2023, 2024) and Gaillard (2024).

Analyses. In our initial analyses we explored several datasets and variables not only using bivariate plots but also PCA and LDA, to ensure a consistent analytical approach across datasets with varying numbers of variables. Even when we retained for discussion those analyses with only two variables (as ones we considered the most informative; Fig 2), we decided to show their PCA and LDA results in the Supplementary Online Information Figures (Figs. S2–3), as these approaches allowed to visualize the data in a transformed space more clearly than in a biplot (e.g., visualize the different groups and their overlaps). While bivariate plots effectively illustrate direct relationships, PCA and LDA provide standardized, orthogonal axes that can reveal underlying patterns and maximize group separation, respectively. This multivariate approach facilitates direct comparison of results across all analyses and helps to identify features that may not be immediately apparent from raw variable plots alone (Jolliffe & Cadima, 2016; James *et al.*, 2021; Greenacre *et al.*, 2022).

Bivariate regression analyses (XY plots) were conducted in Microsoft Excel. Exploratory analyses, including PCA and LDA, were made using the open software

213 PAST (Hammer *et al.*, 2021). The IOF_{area} was examined in comparison to the general
214 cranium size (CS), using the geometric mean of cranial shape (calculated based on
215 cranial length and maximum bizygomatic width) as body size correction, following
216 Muchlinski (2010b).

217 Dataset 1 (i.e., Sparassodonta, Marsupialia, and Carnivora; Tables 1, S2) was
218 used to compare the ln(IOF_{area}) and ln(CS) in an XY plot (Fig. 2.1; S1). We also made
219 exploratory analyses with this dataset (Figs. S2–3; Tables S4–5).

220 Dataset 2 (i.e., Sparassodonta and Marsupialia variables measured from CT
221 scans, plus Primates sample from Muchlinski, 2010a; see Tables 1, S3) was used to test
222 differences among body size correction parameters. We compared the ln(IOF_{area}) with
223 the ln(CS) and ln(BM) using XY plots (Figs. S4–5). Primates were included to leverage
224 the extensive dataset from Muchlinski (2010a) for this comparison. BM estimations
225 (Table 1) for non-borhyaenoid sparassodonts (when possible, excepting one incomplete
226 specimen of *Cladosictis patagonica*) were made based on M2 length, following Zimicz
227 (2012). For borhyaenoids, we used orbital-occiput length (OOL; when possible,
228 excepting incomplete *Patagosmilus goini*), following Van Valkenburgh (1990), to avoid
229 underestimation produced by dental variables (see Prevosti *et al.*, 2012).

230 We hypothesized that enhancement in other sensory areas of the head could
231 compensate for a diminution in certain sensory capabilities. Dataset 3 (i.e.,
232 Sparassodonta and Marsupialia measured from CT scans; see Table 1) was used to
233 contrast the “relative” IOF_{area} (following Muchlinski, 2010b) with other measurable
234 parameters related to other cranial sensory areas (Table S1): the percentage of braincase
235 endocast volume filled by the olfactory bulbs (Macrini, 2006; Macrini *et al.*, 2007; Fig.
236 S6) and the angle of orbital convergence (Gaillard *et al.*, 2023; Fig. S7). In the two last-

named analyses, we did not separately discriminate specimens but instead used average data for each species.

The last parameter to be evaluated was FR_{area} , selected because of the anatomical relationship between it and the distal part of the maxillary nerve (aperture to IOF). We compared the relation between the $\ln(FR_{area})$ and the $\ln(CS)$ (Fig. 2.2), and between the $\ln(IOF_{area})$ and $\ln(FR_{area})$ (Fig. 2.3), using Dataset 3. Additionally, we calculated the ratio between the FR_{area} and IOF_{area} , to obtain a measurable index to express the differences in these areas (Table 1). The closer the index to 1, the more similar the areas. The lowest values show the largest area difference, meaning a relatively larger IOF.

RESULTS

We compared body size correction parameters (CS and BM) and found no considerable differences in our results (Figs. S4–5). However, since BM estimation is particularly challenging for groups like sparassodonts, which lack extant representatives (e.g., Nelson *et al.*, 2024), we focused here on the results obtained using the CS (i.e., geometric mean in Muchlinsky, 2010a,b) as a proxy for body size.

With some exceptions (see below), marsupials display a consistent relationship between IOF_{area} and CS, as IOF_{area} is proportionally similar across the entire size spectrum of species in our marsupial sample (Fig. 2.1). However, among marsupials, *Thylacinus cynocephalus* has an IOF_{area} relatively larger than that of other members of this group (including dasyurids) and plots near sparassodonts. Among sparassodonts, there are some species in which the IOF_{area} is proportionally larger than expected for their CS (e.g., *Arctodictis*, *Borhyaena*, *Callistoe*, and *Thylacosmilus* compared to *Cladosictis*; Fig. 2.1).

Figure 2 here

Specimen MPM-PV 3625 of *Borhyaena tuberosa* does not closely group with other specimens of this species. This may be an artefact, as this specimen was analyzed with a medical scanner, which potentially affects the precision of measurements. For this reason, we focus on other specimens of this species (YPM-VPPU 15120, digitalized with μ CT; and MPM-PV 4380, with results congruent with the YPM specimen).

Contrasting the IOF_{area} and the CS, sparassodonts partially overlap with marsupials and completely plot inside the range of variation found in carnivorans (Figs. 2.1, S1). Compared to other taxa, sparassodonts show a more pronounced positive allometry in IOF size, as indicated by the more positive slope of the regression line (Fig. 2.1). This result is probably a consequence of differences in IOF size between borhyaenoids and hathliacynids. Additionally, the exploratory analyses show a slight predominance of the $\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}})$ variable in the PCA (Fig. S1), with sparassodonts closer to this variable than to the $\ln(\text{CS})$. This is even more evident in the LDA (Fig. S2) where the $\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}})$ discriminant is more dominant and the sparassodont species are much closer to each other. These results imply that the IOF_{area} is not entirely proportional to total skull size but tends to be disproportionately bigger in larger sparassodonts.

Among sparassodonts, contrasting results were observed for small (hathliacynids) vs. large (borhyaenoids) species in our sample. Borhyaenoids show relatively larger IOF than hathliacynids. Within Hathliacynidae, there is comparably little intraspecific variation in IOF_{area} relative to the CS compared to Borhyaenoidea (Fig. 2.1). Among Borhyaenoidea there is not a close grouping graphically among

specimens of the same species nor a clear pattern of relationship between the evaluated parameters (Fig. 2). From our analyses we highlight two main results: (1) large borhyaenoids such as *Arctodictis sinclairi*, *A. munizi*, *Borhyaena tuberata*, *Callistoe vincei*, and *Thylacosmilus atrox* have proportionally larger IOF_{area}; and (2) in *Thylacosmilus atrox*, IOF_{area} varies among different individuals of the same species (Table 1; Fig. 2).

Another relationship of interest is relative IOF_{area} plotted against relative volume of the olfactory bulbs (Fig. S6). Mammals with larger olfactory bulbs relative to total braincase endocast volume have demonstrably better olfactory capabilities than mammals with smaller bulbs (e.g., Gittelman, 1991). Given this relationship, we expected that sparassodont species with smaller olfactory bulbs would have less developed olfactory capabilities, raising the possibility that other sensory modalities, such as those innervated by the ION, might have been enhanced. However, no clear pattern of enhancement in the form of a larger relative IOF_{area} compared to olfactory bulbs was found (Fig. S7).

When relative IOF_{area} is plotted against the angle of orbital convergence (Fig. S7) we observe that, for all sparassodonts and marsupials with larger infraorbital foramina, there is a similar pattern of having smaller angles of orbital convergence. We recognize the difficulty and uncertainty of recovering a true pattern using our small sample size. However, assuming that a similar result could be obtained with a larger sample, this might indicate some relationship between the organization of the orbits and the sensitivity of the snout in metatherians, where the role of specialized organs like the vibrissae or rhinarium is enhanced when 3D vision is limited.

Evaluating the variability of the IOF_{area} compared to the FR_{area}, we observe four main results: (1) sparassodonts have a proportionally larger FR_{area} compared to other

metatherians (Fig. 2.2); (2) sparassodonts have a higher dispersion in their FR_{area} values, compared to the CS (Fig. 2.2) and IOF_{area} (Fig. 2.3); (3) the relationship between IOF_{area} and FR_{area} remains relatively more constant in hathliacynids than in most analyzed borhyaenoids; and (4), some borhyaenoids (i.e., *Arctodictis sinclairi*, *A. munizi*, *Borhyaena tuberata*, *Prothylacynus patagonicus*, and the specimen FMNH P14531 of *Thylacosmilus atrox*—but not MMP 1443-M and MLP-PV 35-X-4-1—; see discussion) have disproportionally larger IOF relative to the FR. These observations are supported by a lower index FR_{area}/IOF_{area} (values lower than 0.35; Table 1). Hathliacynids are within the range of the marsupials evaluated (FR_{area}/IOF_{area} values higher than 0.35).

DISCUSSION

Despite the limitations of small sample size, sparassodonts display more variation overall than extant marsupials. Some taxa with disproportionally large IOF size compared to CS (e.g., *Arctodictis*, *Borhyaena*, *Callistoe*, some specimens of *Thylacosmilus*) are more similar to carnivorans than to marsupials (Fig. 2.1).

Among extant species, placental mammals with a short snout usually have a smaller IOF (Kästner, 2014; Davis *et al.*, 2021). However, this pattern is not evident in sparassodonts, as borhyaenoids (e.g., *Arctodictis*, *Borhyaena*) with shorter snouts have a relatively larger IOF compared to hathliacynids (e.g., *Cladosictis*) with longer snouts and smaller IOF_{area} . Additionally, in some of the sparassodonts studied, such as *Thylacosmilus atrox*, IOF_{area} shows the largest variation encountered in our mammal sample. This result is consistent with the degree of anatomical variability of this species reported previously (see Riggs, 1934; Goin & Pascual, 1987; Marshall, 1976).

Some previous studies considered that *Thylacosmilus* had a relatively small infraorbital foramen (Janis *et al.*, 2020; Janis, 2024). However, we found that, although

337 the IOF_{area} of *Thylacosmilus atrox* is smaller than in the largest felids (including saber-
 338 tooth cats, such as *Smilodon populator*—with a relative IOF_{area} of 1.57 vs. 1.06 in *T.*
 339 *atrox*; Figs. 2, 3), it is larger than in several other felids and carnivorans with a similar
 340 CS, and is among the largest within our metatherian sample (Fig. 2). According to Janis
 341 (2024) the “small infraorbital foramen and the “virtual lack” of incisors” are
 342 characteristic of scavengers rather than active predators. The author links the small
 343 IOF_{area} of *Thylacosmilus* to a “lesser amount of sensory feedback from the muzzle and,
 344 hence, lesser ability for precise positioning of the canine”. This correlation is
 345 controversial because no studies are showing a direct correlation between the size of
 346 IOF_{area} and the efficiency of ION sensory fibers with regard to canine positioning. The
 347 ION receives sensory information not only from the canine but also from the skin and
 348 mucous membranes around the middle of the face (Evans & Lahunta, 2012; Standring,
 349 2016) including the maxillary region and rhinarium (Patrizi & Munger, 1966; Gasser &
 350 Miller Wise, 1972; Muchlinski, 2008, 2010a). Additionally, as seen in our results (Fig.
 351 2), several extant active predators (e.g., *Felis chaus*, *F. pardalis*, *F. silvestris*, *Lynx*
 352 *canadensis*, *Puma concolor*) have IOF_{area} measurements that are even smaller than those
 353 of *Thylacosmilus*. In addition, sparassodonts with a bone-breaker morphology (typical
 354 of scavengers, e.g., borhyaenids; Zimicz, 2012) have an IOF_{area} larger than in
 355 *Thylacosmilus*, whether comparison of this area is made to the FR or the CS. It is also
 356 important to note that at least one pair of lower incisors has been previously reported for
 357 *Thylacosmilus* (Goin and Pascual, 1987). They are smaller than in other borhyaenoids,
 358 but the evidence is insufficient to determine whether a reduction in incisor number had
 359 actually occurred (more than one pair may have been present according to Goin &
 360 Pascual, 1987). In any case, a reduction in this part of the dentition is not characteristic
 361 of mammalian scavengers, obligate (e.g., Rieger, 1981) or facultative (e.g., Bekoff,

1977; Moehlman & Hayssen, 2018; Hayssen & Noonan, 2021). Janis (2024) concludes that *Thylacosmilus* probably does not qualify as a strict ecological analog of saber-tooth felids, and that its predatory behavior would not be the same, despite prior studies describing their broad similarities in their overall morphology and function (e.g., Wroe *et al.*, 2013, Melchiona *et al.*, 2021). At the same time, we agree with Janis (2024) that, in light of the unique anatomy of *Thylacosmilus*, finding analogies is probably not straightforward.

Figure 3 here

Recent studies (e.g., Muchlinski, 2010a,b; Mitchinson *et al.*, 2011; Muchlinski *et al.*, 2020; Milne *et al.*, 2021; contrary to Kay & Cartmill, 1977; Muchlinski, 2008) have concluded that it is not currently possible to reconstruct vibrissal patterns or coverage—or, for that matter, any soft-tissued rhinarial or facial structure—in a completely extinct group. However, deserving of some attention is the relative size relationship between the IOF_{area} and the FR_{area} among sparassodonts, where the IOF is seen to be disproportionately large in the larger borhyaenoids sampled here (i.e., *Arctodictis munizi*, *A. sinclairi*, *Borhyaena tuberata*, *Prothylacynus patagonicus*, and the holotype of *Thylacosmilus atrox*; Fig. 2.2–2.3; see Table 1, with FR_{area}/ IOF_{area} relationship lower than 0.35). This list also includes the recently extinct marsupial wolf *Thylacinus cynocephalus* and the extant semi-aquatic didelphid *Chironectes minimus* (Table 1). In the particular case of *Thylacosmilus*, we found that the relationship between the IOF and FR varies among the different specimens evaluated (which is consistent with the known large morphological variation of this taxon). Following this index, the largest contrast between IOF and FR is found in the holotype (FMNH

P14531), while in the remaining specimens, the index is similar to that of the extant active predator *Dasyurus hallucatus*.

The infraorbital canal in mammals is occupied by the infraorbital nerve and vascular components (Sánchez-Villagra & Asher, 2002; Muchlinski, 2008), the infraorbital artery and vein. As the FR transmits the maxillary division of the trigeminal nerve (cranial nerve V), we would expect that the difference between FR and IOF areas would be more or less constant among the species evaluated if the IOF nerve bundle size remained proportionally the same. The marked difference in FR and IOF areas, as seen particularly in larger borhyaenoids, may imply that other occupants of the infraorbital canal (i.e., blood vessels) varied in ways that cannot be predicted from currently available indicia. In short, the size of IOF in these taxa does not directly reflect nerve size and/or enhanced facial sensation.

CONCLUSIONS

The relative area of the IOF in sparassodonts exhibits a broad range of variation, overlapping with data for carnivorans and large marsupials. Notably, taxa such as *Arctodictis*, *Borhyaena*, *Callistoe*, and some specimens of *Thylacosmilus* have a disproportionately large IOF_{area} relative to their skull size, resembling in this regard carnivorans more than marsupials. *Thylacosmilus atrox* shows intraspecific variation in IOF_{area}. In addition, its IOF_{area} is comparable to that of some of the active predators included in our analysis, challenging the idea that its IOF_{area} can be correlated with scavenging behavior.

The most interesting pattern we observed among sparassodonts is the relationship between IOF_{area} relative to FR_{area} (Fig. 2.3), with the IOF disproportionately larger in the largest borhyaenoids sampled. Smaller sparassodonts (hathliacynids)

follow the same regression line as extant marsupials. Looking at the residuals of the relationship, hathliacynids show IOF larger than the average marsupial, but in the same general range as dasyurid marsupials (i.e., extant analogues in a roughly comparable niche). We interpret this to imply that the structure of their facial sensory areas would have been closely comparable to that of extant taxa. However, because of the lack of any relationship between the sensory areas analyzed in this study and foramina sizes in large borhyaenoids (*Arctodictis munizi*, *A. sinclairi*, *Borhyaena tuberata*, and *Thylacosmilus atrox*), we suggest that intraclade difference between small and large taxa is probably due to the presence and size of IOF vasculature.

The use of μ CT scans and advanced software for 3D modeling offers a comprehensive method for studying functionally important cranial apertures. At the same time, this study highlights the complexity of interpreting the paleobiology of extinct species and emphasizes the need for multifaceted approaches in paleontological research.

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644

645 **Figure captions**

646

647 **Figure 1.** Methodology used to measure the infraorbital foramen area using CT-scans
 648 (see Methods). **1**, section with the coronal plane (red) perpendicular to the infraorbital
 649 canal at the level of the infraorbital foramen; **2**, section with the axial plane (green)
 650 parallel to the main axis of the infraorbital canal; **3**, section with the sagittal plane
 651 (yellow) parallel to the main axis of the infraorbital canal; **4**, general view of a 3D
 652 model of a cranium showing the orientation of the planes; **5**, same as 4 with the cranium
 653 in transparency and the infraorbital canal in blue.

654 **Figure 2.** XY plot graphics contrasting natural logarithms (ln) of: **1**, infraorbital
 655 foramen area (IOF_{area}) vs. Cranium size (CS; i.e., geometric mean) in Sparassodonta,
 656 Marsupialia, and Carnivora (Dataset 1); **2**, foramen rotundum area (FR_{area}) vs. CS in
 657 Sparassodonta and selected marsupials (Dataset 3); **3**, IOF_{area} vs. FR_{area} in
 658 Sparassodonta and selected marsupials (Dataset 3; see methods).

Figure 3. Rendered views of three-dimensional models of two saber-tooth skulls showing the infraorbital foramen (IOF) for comparative purposes. **1**, *Thylacosmilus atrox* holotype (FMNH P14531); **2**, *Smilodon populator* (MACN-Pv 18057).

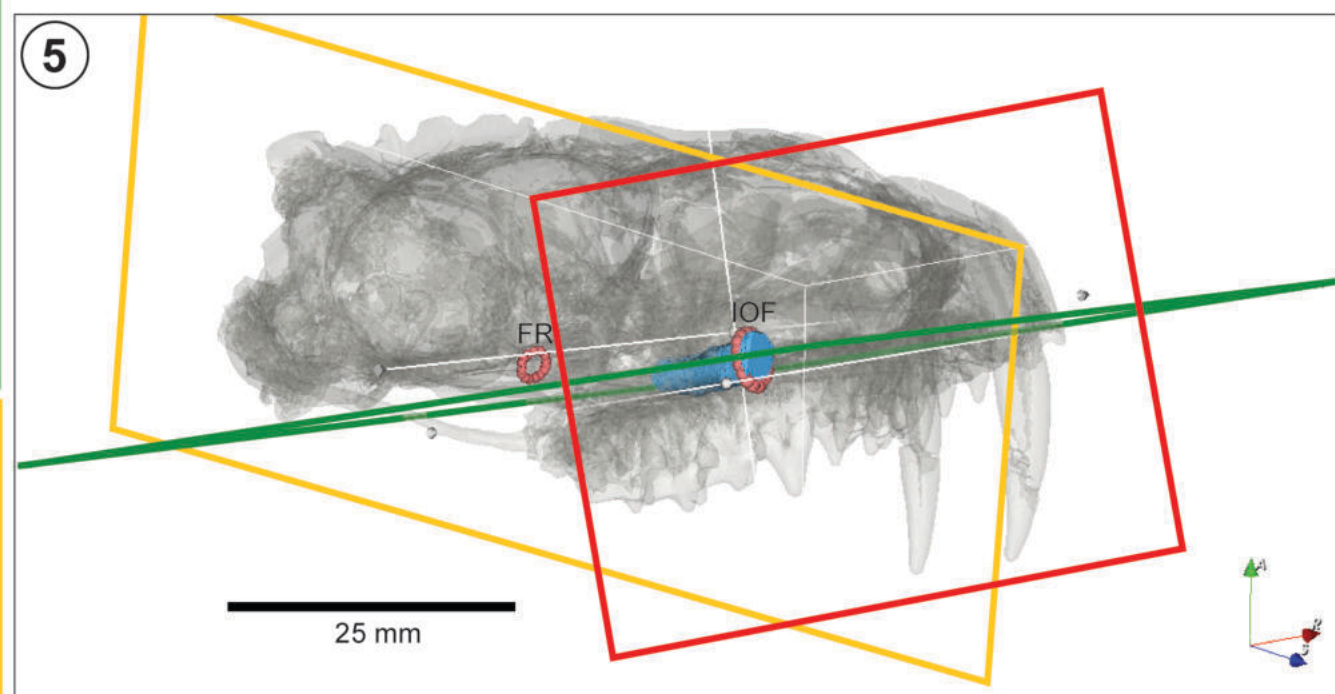
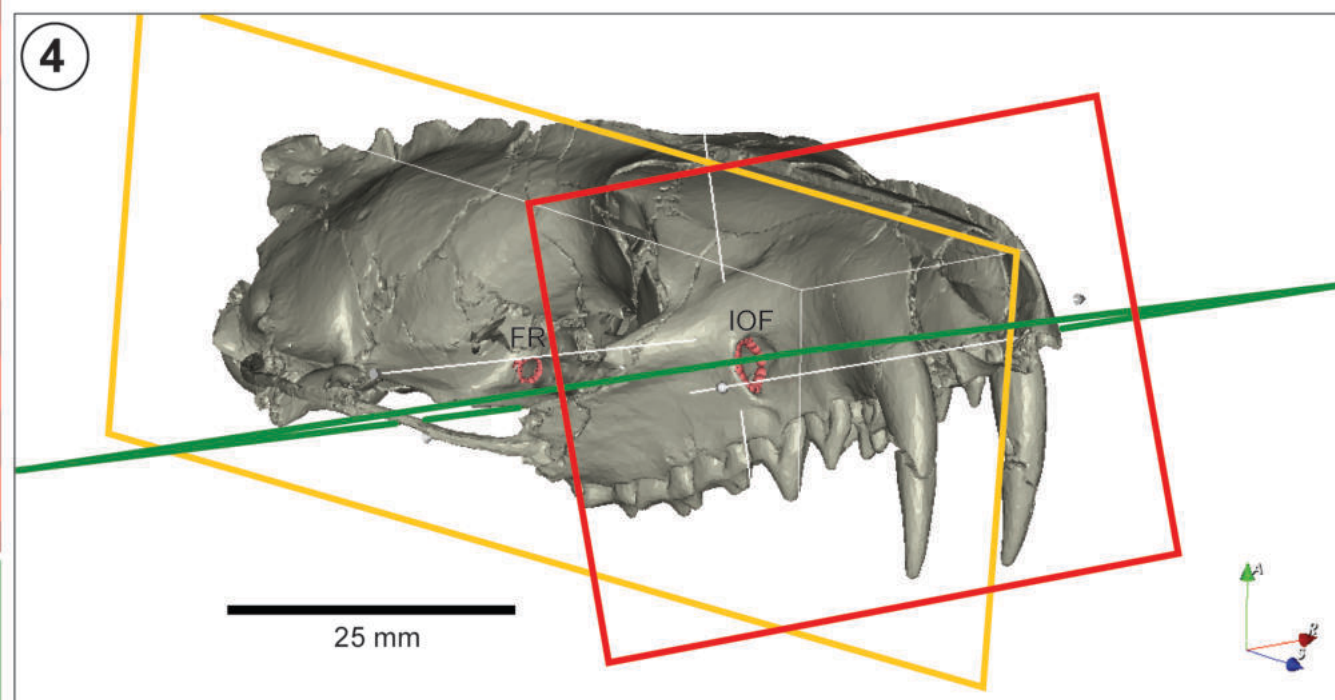
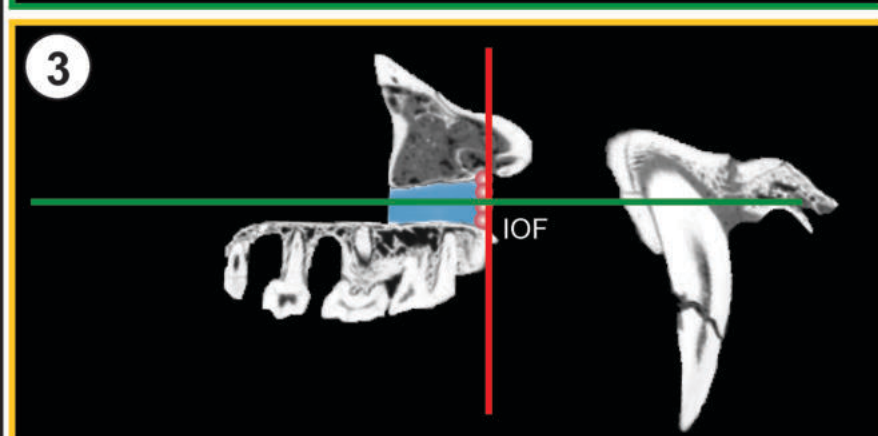
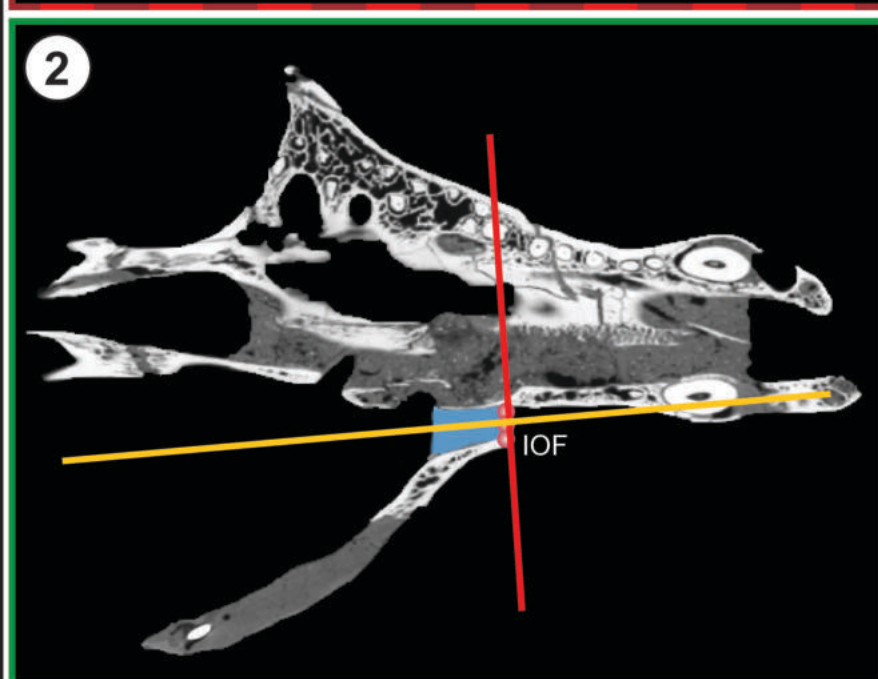
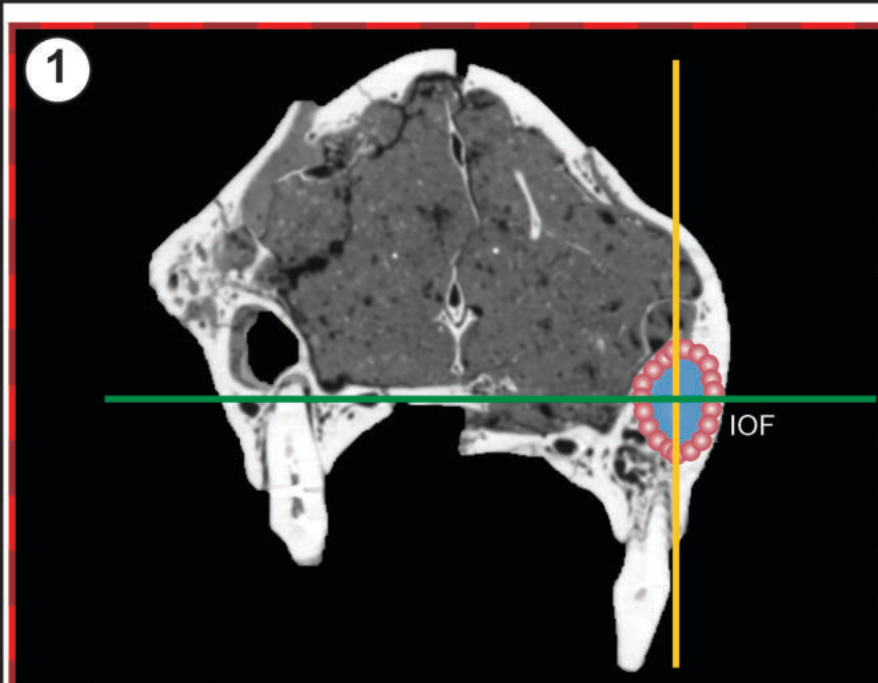
TABLES

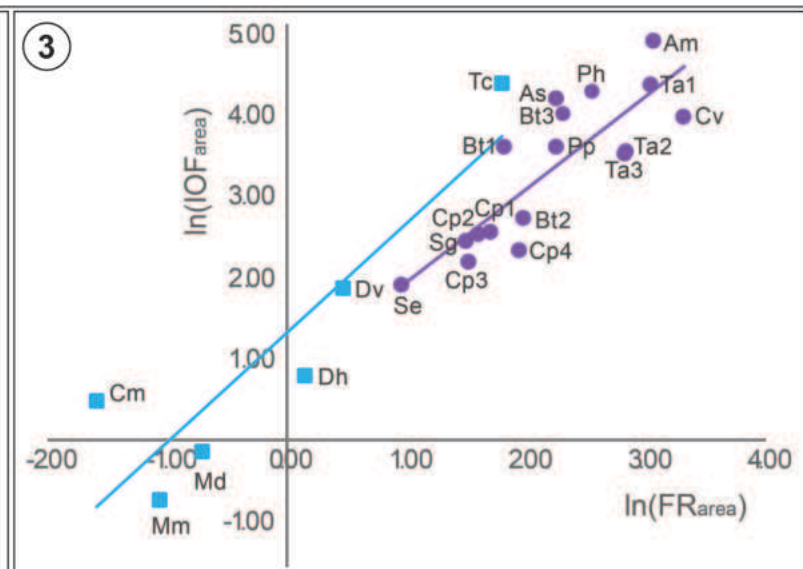
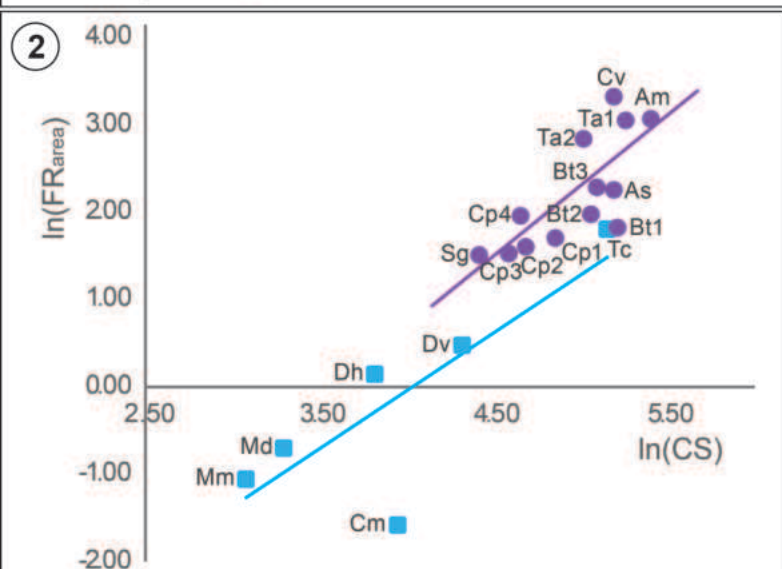
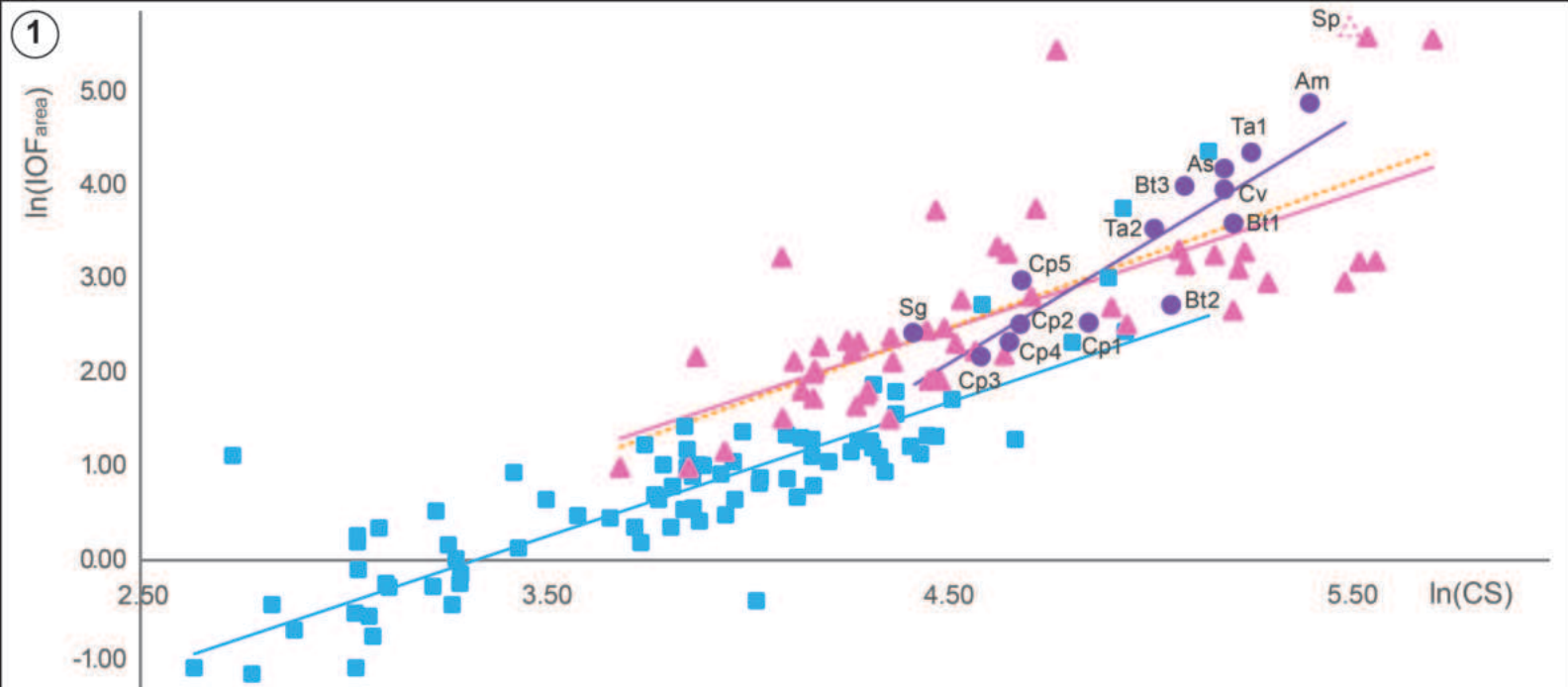
Table 1. Measurements from CT scans and estimations for Sparassodonta and Didelphidae. Infraorbital foramen (IOF_{area}) and foramen rotundum (FR_{area}) areas are shown in mm². Body mass (BM) was estimated through equations (Eq.) based on: (1) orbital occiput length (Van Valkenburgh, 1990); and (2) M2 length (Zimicz,2012). The cranium size (CS = geometric mean) and relative IOF_{area} follow Muchlinski (2010b).

SUPPLEMENTARY ONLINE INFORMATION

Supplementary Figures.

Supplementary Tables.





TAXONOMIC ABBREVIATIONS

Am <i>Arctodictis munizi</i> CORDPZ121	Se <i>Sipalocyron externus</i> MACN-Pv CH1911
As <i>Arctodictis sinclairi</i> MLP-PV 85-VII-3-1	Sg <i>Sipalocyron gracilis</i> AMNH-VP 9254
Bt1 <i>Borhyaena tuberata</i> MPM-PV 4380	Sp <i>Smilodon populator</i> MACN-Pv 18057
Bt2 <i>Borhyaena tuberata</i> MPM-PV 3625	Ta1 <i>Thylacosmilus atrox</i> FMNH P14531
Bt3 <i>Borhyaena tuberata</i> YPM-VPPU 15120	Ta2 <i>Thylacosmilus atrox</i> MMP 1443-M
Cv <i>Callistoe vincei</i> PVL 4187	Ta3 <i>Thylacosmilus atrox</i> MLP-PV 35-X-4-1
Cp1 <i>Cladosictis patagonica</i> MACN-A 5927	
Cp2 <i>Cladosictis patagonica</i> MPM-PV 3645	Cm <i>Chironectes minimus</i> MACN-Ma 24300
Cp3 <i>Cladosictis patagonica</i> MPM-PV 4323	Dh <i>Dasyurus hallucatus</i> TMM M-6921
Cp4 <i>Cladosictis patagonica</i> MPM-PV 4326	Dv <i>Didelphis virginiana</i> TMM M-2517
Cp5 <i>Cladosictis patagonica</i> YPM-VPPU 15170	Md <i>Monodelphis domestica</i> AMNH 261241
Ph <i>Pharsophorus</i> sp. MCNAM-PV 4957	Mm <i>Marmosa murina</i> NMB 5014
Pp <i>Prothylacynus patagonicus</i> YPM-VPPU 15700	Tc <i>Thylacynus cynocephalus</i> NMB c.2526

REGRESSIONS

Line	Equation	R ²
1. Sparassodonta	$\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}}) = 2.6153 \ln(\text{CS}) - 9.6510$	0.7966
Marsupialia	$\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}}) = 1.4340 \ln(\text{CS}) - 4.7060$	0.7175
Carnivora	$\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}}) = 1.4338 \ln(\text{CS}) - 4.0080$	0.5121
Carnivora+Sparass.	$\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}}) = 0.6810 \ln(\text{CS}) - 0.4400$	0.5643
2. Sparassodonta	$\ln(\text{FR}_{\text{area}}) = 1.5989 \ln(\text{CS}) - 5.7334$	0.5707
Marsupialia	$\ln(\text{FR}_{\text{area}}) = 1.3232 \ln(\text{CS}) - 5.3663$	0.6532
3. Sparassodonta	$\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}}) = 1.1399 \ln(\text{FR}_{\text{area}}) + 0.8166$	0.6948
Marsupialia	$\ln(\text{IOF}_{\text{area}}) = 1.3406 \ln(\text{FR}_{\text{area}}) + 1.3181$	0.8029

■ Marsupialia
 ● Sparassodonta
 - - - Carnivora+Sparassodonta
 ▲ Carnivora
 ▲ *Smilodon populator*

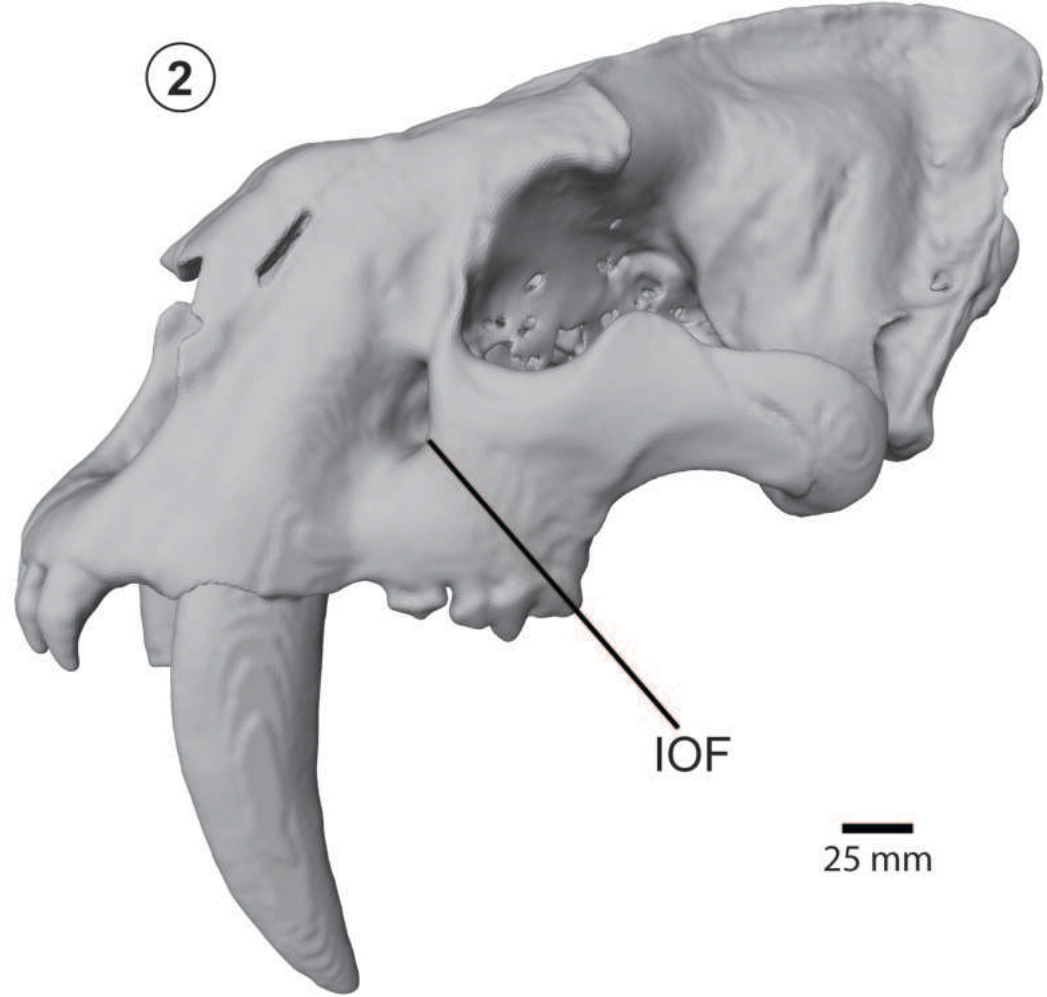
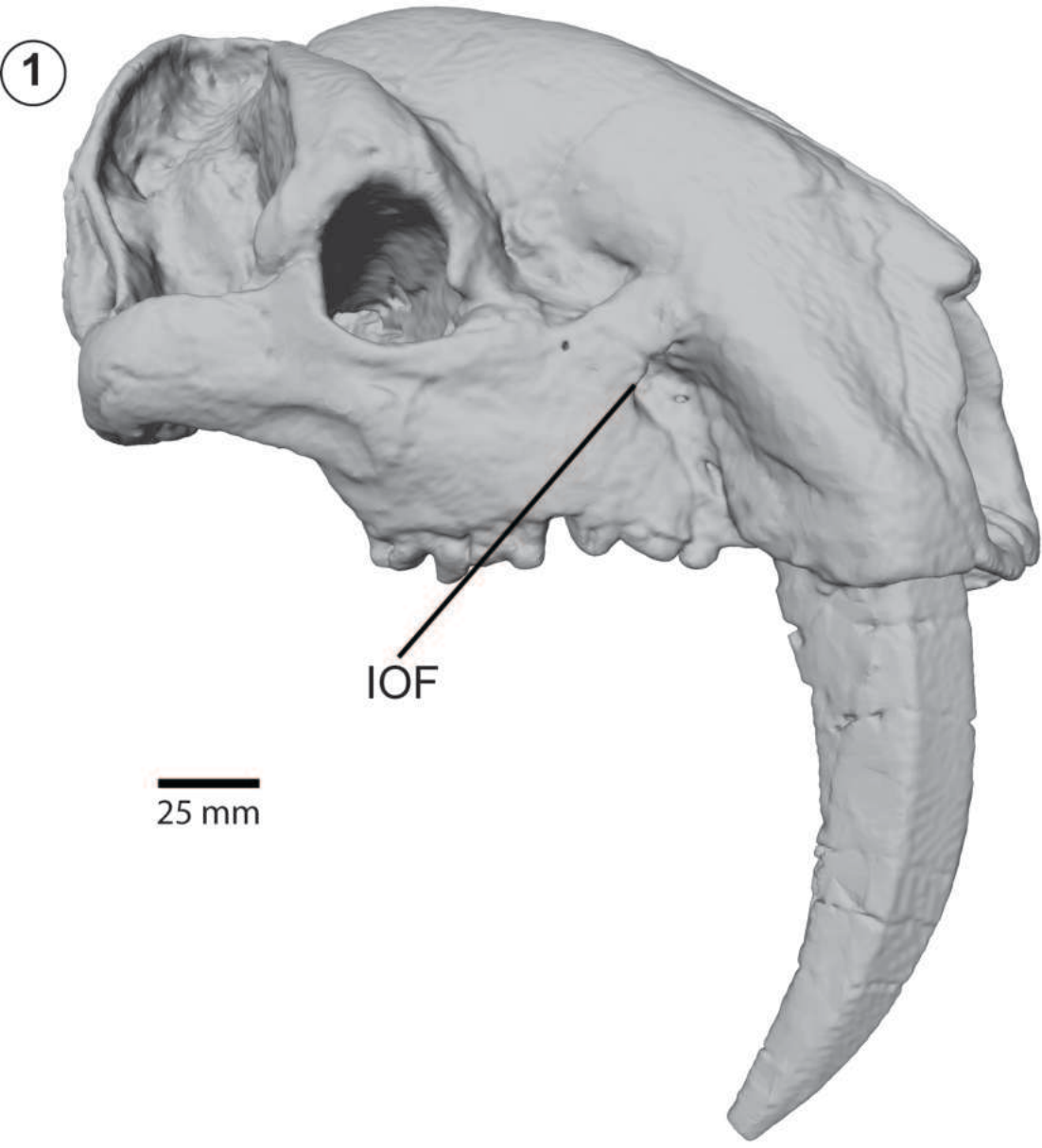


TABLE 1. Measurements from CT scans and estimations for Sparassodonta and Didelphidae. Infraorbital foramen (IOF_{area}) and foramen rotundum (FR_{area}) areas are shown in mm². Body mass (BM) was estimated through equations (Eq.) based on: (1) orbital occiput length (Van Valkenburgh, 1990); and (2) M2 length (Zimicz, 2012). The cranium size (CS = geometric mean) and relative IOF_{area} follow Muchlinski (2010b).

Species	Specimen	IOF _{area}	FR _{area}	FR _{area} /IOF _{area}	CS	Relative IOF _{area}	BM (kg)	Eq.	Olfactory bulbs (%)	Orbital convergence (°)
<i>Arctodictis munizi</i>	CORDPZ121	132.10	21.30	0.16	222.62	1.09	156.01	1	6.70	-
<i>Arctodictis sinclairi</i>	MLP-PV 85-VII-3-1	65.64	9.46	0.14	179.97	1.06	64.78	1	7.80	53.10
<i>Arminiheringia auceta</i>	MACN-A 10970-10972	59.91	-	-	-	-	29.74	2	-	-
<i>Borhyaena tuberata</i>	MPM-PV 3625	15.27	7.18	0.17	157.80	0.85	40.33	1	-	56.60
<i>Borhyaena tuberata</i>	MPM-PV 4380	36.64	6.17	0.47	184.12	0.94	59.82	1	-	58.10
<i>Borhyaena tuberata</i>	YPM-VPPU 15120	54.88	9.88	0.18	163.00	1.07	47.74	1	5.70	-
<i>Callistoe vincei</i>	PVL 4187	52.33	27.50	0.53	179.93	1.01	22.28	2	8.80	-
<i>Cladosictis patagonica</i>	MACN-A 5927	12.64	5.46	0.43	128.52	0.90	6.53	2	4.50	86.10
<i>Cladosictis patagonica</i>	MPM-PV 3645	12.45	4.95	0.40	108.45	0.99	6.72	2	4.10	76.90
<i>Cladosictis patagonica</i>	MPM-PV 4323	8.79	4.56	0.52	98.31	0.96	11.00	1	5.30	49.40
<i>Cladosictis patagonica</i>	MPM-PV 4326	10.26	7.02	0.68	105.51	0.96	5.30	2	3.90	59.40
<i>Cladosictis patagonica</i>	YPM-VPPU 15170	19.88	-	-	108.79	1.09	5.22	2	4.50	-
<i>Patagosmilus goini</i>	MLP-PV 07-VII-1-1	45.46	-	-	-	-	19.79	2	-	-
<i>Pharsophorus</i> sp.	MCNAM-PV 4957	73.25	-	-	-	-	75.07	1	-	-
<i>Prothylacynus patagonicus</i>	MACN-A 5931-5932	-	-	-	130.03	-	25.95	2	5.80	-
<i>Prothylacynus patagonicus</i>	YPM-VPPU 15700	35.96	9.51	0.26	-	-	21.47	2	5.30	-
<i>Sipalocyon externus</i>	MACN-PV CH1911	6.73	2.62	0.39	-	-	2.27	2	5.80	60.70
<i>Sipalocyon gracilis</i>	AMNH-VP 9254	11.37	4.49	0.39	83.15	1.13	3.06	2	5.80	54.30
<i>Sipalocyon</i> sp.	MPM 4316	5.57	-	-	-	-	2.55	2	5.60	59.50
<i>Thylacosmilus atrox</i>	FMNH P14531	77.88	20.90	0.27	192.55	1.06	69.55	1	3.20	34.80
<i>Thylacosmilus atrox</i>	MMP 1443-M	34.42	16.95	0.49	151.37	1.02	35.11	1	6.40	30.70
<i>Thylacosmilus atrox</i>	MLP-PV 35-X-4-1	33.55	16.90	0.50	-	-	33.87	1	-	-
<i>Chironectes minimus</i>	MACN-Ma 24300	1.63	0.20	0.13	52.09	0.89	0.83	2	4.30	46.80
<i>Dasyurus hallucatus</i>	TMM M-6921	2.21	1.16	0.52	45.65	1.01	0.87	2	8.00	46.60
<i>Didelphis virginiana</i>	TMM M-2517	6.53	1.60	0.25	75.27	1.09	2.86	2	11.00	50.90
<i>Marmosa murina</i>	NMB 5014	0.48	0.35	0.57	21.70	0.87	0.05	2	-	-
<i>Monodelphis domestica</i>	AMNH 261241	0.86	0.49	0.72	27.01	0.95	0.12	2	10.92	43.41
<i>Thylacinus cynocephalus</i>	NMB c.2526	79.44	6.04	0.08	172.97	1.39	20.56	2	6.15	63.80