

1 STRUCTURAL ASSESSMENT OF ARCH-LIKE BONES: RODENTS' JAW AS A CASE
2 STUDY

3
4 Aldo Iván Vassallo

5 Department of Biology – IIMyC Instituto de Investigaciones Marinas y Costeras;

6 CONICET, University of Mar del Plata

7 Funes 3250, Mar del Plata, Argentina

8 Email: avassall@mdp.edu.ar

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10 ABSTRACT

11 Bone strength is determined by the mechanical properties of bone material, and the size and
12 shape of the whole bone, *i.e.* its architecture. The mandible of vertebrates has been
13 traditionally regarded as a beam oriented in relation to main masticatory loads, *i.e.* the
14 longer dimension of its cross section being parallel to the load. Rodents follow this pattern
15 but, in addition, their mandible possesses an intriguing arch-like shape that is apparent
16 when seen in the lateral view. Little attention was given to the structural capacity of this
17 trait. The central feature of an arch is that it can withstand a greater load than a horizontal
18 beam. The objective of this study was to modeling the rodent mandible like an arch to
19 evaluate its structural strength. The bending moment in an arch-like mandible was 15 to 25
20 % lower with respect to a beam-like mandible. Further, bending varies with mandible
21 “slenderness” and incisor procumbency, a functionally relevant rodent trait. In the rodent
22 *Ctenomys talarum* (Caviomorpha; Ctenomyidae), bone stress was substantially reduced
23 when the mandible was modeled as an arch-like structure as compared with a beam-like
24 structure, and safety factors were 11-34 % higher. The shape of rodents’ mandible might

25 work as an adaptation to high and repeatedly applied loads resulting from a unique feeding
26 mode: gnawing.

27

28 *Key words:* bone architecture; mandible; *Ctenomys*; biomechanics; Rodentia

29

30 INTRODUCTION

31 Not infrequently, biological structures and certain man made devices share a
32 common design due to restrictions imposed by physical laws. For example, the mandible of
33 vertebrates can be regarded as a beam of expected orientation in relation to main loads
34 imparted by teeth and muscles, namely the longer dimension of its cross section being
35 parallel to the load (*e.g.* Hildebrand and Goslow, 2001). The mandible of rodents follows
36 this general pattern but, in addition, it possesses an intriguing arch-like shape that is
37 apparent when seen in the lateral view. Indeed, the rodent mandible seems to be “designed”
38 following the shape of the elongated incisor roots which in some instances reach the
39 proximity of the condyle (Cox and Hautier, 2015). While curved, ever-growing incisors for
40 gnawing have been the subject of numerous studies (Ungar, 2010), little attention has been
41 given to the structural capacity and distinctive architecture of rodent mandible. This is an
42 important issue since it is subjected to both high and repeatedly applied loads resulting
43 from a unique feeding mode: gnawing.

44 The mandible of vertebrates functions as a third-order lever: the in force and out-
45 force are on the same side of the pivot (mandible articulation), being the out-force farther to
46 the pivot than the in-force. During food processing, bending of the mandible mainly in the
47 vertical plane results from this anatomical configuration (Fig.1). As other bones, the
48 mandible must have adequate structural strength to withstand the stresses to which it is

49 subjected during mastication (*e.g.* Thomason, 1991; Wroe and Milne, 2007; Cox et al.,
50 2012). The strength of bones is determined by two different attributes, the mechanical
51 properties of the bone material *per se*, and the size and shape of the whole bone, *i.e.* its
52 architecture (Currey, 2006). This study focuses on the architecture of the mandible in
53 rodents, one of the most speciose groups of mammals which also evolved a highly
54 specialized masticatory apparatus (Feldhamer et al., 2007).

55 The central feature of an arch-like structure is that it can withstand a much greater
56 load than a horizontal beam can support. This capacity results from the fact that a load
57 applied on an arch has the effect of forcing the material together instead of apart thus
58 eliminating tensile stresses (*e.g.* Curcio, 1968; Ambrose and Tripeny, 2012). Bone can
59 resist compression but is weak when tensile stresses are applied to it (Currey, 2006). Hence,
60 the hypothesis is proposed herein that the arch-like shape of rodents' mandible might work
61 as an adaptation to increase strength against loads imparted by muscle action and reaction
62 forces on teeth. Under this hypothesis it could be predicted structural material savings (*e.g.*
63 bone) in the rodent mandible.

64 The other major feature, well known by former builders and architects, is that the
65 slenderness of an arch-like structure (*i.e.* the quotient between *span* and *rise*; Fig. 2) affects
66 its strength (O'Connor, 1994; Benaim, 2008). The "slenderness" of rodents' mandible is
67 affected by incisor procumbency: how incisors are directed outward. Hence, follow the
68 second hypothesis of the present study: incisor procumbency and mandible slenderness
69 could affect its strength by changing the bending moment acting upon the rodent mandible.

70 To test these hypotheses, the objectives of this study were: 1) To model the
71 mandible of rodents as an arch-like structure in order to evaluate its structural strength, and
72 to compare it with that of a beam-like mandible; 2) Analyze the relationship between

73 incisor procumbency, mandible slenderness and bending moment; 3) To assess the
74 structural strength for a real case, a mandible belonging to the chisel-tooth digging rodent
75 *Ctenomys talarum*, for which there are measurements of bite force; and finally 4) To
76 compare the amount of bone present in the mandible of different rodent species with other
77 mammals.

78

79 MATERIAL AND METHODS

80 *Modeling the rodent mandible like an arch.*- The form of the rodent mandible,
81 considering the hemi mandible in lateral view, was assumed to be a semicircular arch. The
82 distance between the mandibular condyle and the tip of the incisor is, architecturally
83 speaking, the *span* of an arch (Fig. 2). The maximum height of the mandible (*i.e.* the
84 distance between the line connecting the condyle and the tip of the incisor, and the farthest
85 point of the mandibular corpus in lateral view (Fig. 2) is assumed to be the *rise* of the arch
86 (Benaim, 2008). The anterior *abutment*, which provides the thrust reaction force (Fig. 2) is
87 supplied by the substrate/food being gnawed whereas the posterior is supplied by the
88 glenoid fossa (thrust: the outward force exerted by an arch, Curcio, 1968).

89 In order to compare the strength of a rodent mandible to that of a theoretical beam-
90 like mandible it was assumed that the type of bending to which the mandible is subjected
91 consists of a *three point bending*, that is the in-force and out-force are on the same side of
92 the pivot (mandibular articulation). Consequently, the method of sections and its equations
93 of equilibrium (for example Ozkaya and Nordin, 1999) were used to calculate forces,
94 moments, and stresses (see below).

95

96 bending in a beam (section a) = $x \cdot R$ (1)

97

98 Where the bending in a beam is the product of the reaction force R at one end of the
99 beam multiplied by distance to the section to being analyzed, x (Fig. 3).

100 In order to estimate the bending moment of different sections of the mandible when
101 it is modeled as an arch, the following equation (Curcio, 1968) was used:

102

103 bending in an arch (section a) = bending in a beam (a) – HTR · h (2)

104

105 Where HTR is the horizontal component of thrust reaction force TR which was
106 trigonometrically calculated as: $HTR = TR \cdot \cos \alpha$ (α = angle determined by the tangent
107 line at the incisor tip and the line connecting the incisor tip with the condyle; Fig. 2); h is
108 the height of the arch in the section (a) (Fig. 3).

109 Though other values can be chosen, in the present analysis the mandibular span was
110 set at 40 mm. The mandible was under a reaction force of 20 N applied upon the incisor.
111 This value was chosen because it matches with those experimentally measured in living
112 specimens using a bite force transducer (Becerra et al., 2011; 2013). The total length of the
113 beam was the same as for the mandibular span, 40 mm. The height of the arch (h) at two
114 sections, one quarter (10 mm) and in the middle (20 mm), were trigonometrically assessed.

115 Because muscle load is much greater than mandible mass, in the present analysis it
116 was assumed that the weight of the mandible is negligible regarding to the production of
117 bending.

118 *Analyzing the relationship between incisor procumbency and bending moment.-*
 119 Incisor procumbency (equivalent to angle α in Fig. 2) affects “mandibular slenderness”, i.e.
 120 the quotient rise/span, and this in turn could affect bending moment through changing the
 121 direction of thrust (Benaim, 2008). For different values of incisor procumbency, within the
 122 range measured in different rodent species (Table 1), bending moments were estimated
 123 using equation (2). The relationship between incisor procumbency angle α and
 124 measurements of the mandibular arch is given by the following equation, which was
 125 obtained by deriving the function *arch of circle* in its intersection with the abscissa (which
 126 coincides with the line connecting the incisor tip and the condyle):

$$127 \quad \alpha = \text{Procumbency angle} = \arctan \left(\frac{s}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{s^2}{8r} + \frac{r}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{s^2}{4}}} \right) \quad (3)$$

128 Where s is span (or condyle-incisive length) and r is rise (or maximum height of the
 129 mandible) (Fig. 2).

130 Lower incisor procumbency (angle α in Fig. 2) in the studied rodent species was
 131 calculated using equation (3). For this aim, the distance between the mandibular condyle
 132 and the tip of the incisor (= *span*), and the maximum height of the mandible (= *rise*) were
 133 measured using a digital calipers (0.01 mm).

134 *Assessing the structural strength for a real case, the mandible of Ctenomys*
 135 *talarum.-* Tensile and compression stress in a *C. talarum* (Thomas, 1898; Rodentia;
 136 Ctenomyidae) mandible, resulting from an incisor bite, were compared assuming an arch-
 137 like versus a beam-like structure of the same length. The mandible of an adult specimen of
 138 the species *C. talarum*, body mass 153 g, was scanned at Embrapa (San Pablo, Brasil;
 139 www.embrapa.br), using a Bruker microCT Skyscan1172. The distance between the

140 mandibular condyle and the tip of the incisor (span) was of 30.2 mm. A series of 1860
 141 projections were recorded covering 360° resulting in voxel sizes of 22 μmm.
 142 Reconstruction of the tomographic projection data was done using the NRecon
 143 Reconstruction 64-bit package (<http://www.skyscan.be/>). Different sections (Fig. 5) along
 144 the mandible, including the incisor, mandibular corpus, and angular process, were selected
 145 to estimate their structural strength. The section modulus of these mandible sections (dental
 146 roots were included) were assessed using the Moment Macro application of ImageJ 1.41 by
 147 W. Rasband—National Institute of Health, rsb.info.nih.gov/i. Stress in the selected sections
 148 were calculated using the equation (Alexander, 1989):

$$149 \quad \text{Stress} = \frac{\text{bending moment}}{\text{section modulus}} \quad (4)$$

150 Estimations of bending moment in the selected sections were based upon biting
 151 forces experimentally measured in adult specimens (Becerra et al., 2011). As in other
 152 rodent species, *C. talarum* possesses a complex array of jaw adductor muscles which exert
 153 distributed loads at different locations of the mandible. For simplicity, based upon
 154 published anatomical studies (Woods, 1972; Vassallo, 1998), a common resultant of muscle
 155 forces was positioned one third of the distance from the condyle to the incisor tip (Fig. 5),
 156 hence a punctual load was assumed in the analysis. Reaction forces at the incisor and
 157 mandibular condyle were 19.1 N (Table 3 in Becerra et al., 2011) and 43.2 N, respectively,
 158 equilibrated by a jaw adductor force of 62.3 N (Fig. 5). These values were derived based
 159 upon the rotational equilibrium equation:

$$160 \quad R_I \cdot M_I = MF \cdot M_M \quad (5)$$

161 Where R_I is the reaction force at incisor, M_I is the moment arm of R_I , M_F is the
 162 assumed overall resultant of adductor muscle force and M_M is its moment arm (Fig. 5).

163 Safety factors were calculated using published values of ultimate strength of bone
 164 (133 MPa in tension; 193 MPa in compression; Currey, 2006) and dividing by stress values
 165 estimated for the different mandible sections (Alexander, 1989; Ozkaya y Nordin, 1999). It
 166 was assumed that the material properties of bone are constant along the length of the
 167 mandible.

168 *Comparing the amount of bone in the mandible of rodents and other mammals.-* A
 169 first approach to assess the amount of bone material present in the mandible of different
 170 mammal species, searching for possible structural material savings, can be done by
 171 weighing cleaned mandibles and using some measure of mandible size, for example the
 172 condyle-incisive length. These two variables were measured in museum specimens
 173 belonging to different mammalian species. One to four adult specimens of the following
 174 species housed in the Museo Municipal de Ciencias Naturales Lorenzo Scaglia (Mar del
 175 Plata; Argentina) were measured: Rodentia: Fam. Caviidae: *Cavia pamparum*; *Kerodon*
 176 *rupestris*; *Galea musteloides*; *Dolichotis pataginum*; *Hydrochoerus hydrochaeris*;
 177 *Microcavia australis*; Fam. Myocastoridae: *Myocastor coipus*; Fam. Chinchillidae:
 178 *Lagostomus maximus*; *Chinchilla lanigera*; Fam. Octodontidae: *Octodon degus*;
 179 *Spalacopus cyanus*; Fam. Ctenomyidae: *Ctenomys talarum*; *C. tuconax*; Fam. Cricetidae:
 180 *Akodon azarae*. *Holochilus brasiliensis*; *Scapteromys* sp.; Fam. Geomyidae: *Thomomys*
 181 *bottae*. Other mammal species: *Canis familiaris*; *Felis catus*; *Cerdocyon thous*; *Lycalopex*
 182 *gymnocercus*; *Oncifelis geofroyii*; *Galictis cuja*; *Mephitis mephitis*; *Conepatus chinga*;
 183 *Puma concolor*; *Panthera onca*; *Herpailurus yagouaroundi*; *Otaria flavescens*;
 184 *Leptonychotes weddellii*; *Tayassu pecari*; *Ozotoceros bezoarticus*; *Ovis aries*; *Dasypus*

185 *hybridus*; *Callithrix* sp.; *Didelphis albiventris*. The amount of bone material in the studied
186 species was assessed and compared by regression analysis assuming Model II (standardised
187 major axis regression, SMA) (Sokal and Rohlf 1995; Warton et al., 2006) using the
188 software SMATR (Falster et al., 2006).

189

190 RESULTS

191 *Arch-like vs. beam-like mandibles.*- Depending on the location of the section being
192 analyzed, reduction in the bending moment in an arch-like mandible with respect to a
193 beam-like mandible can reach 15-25 % for mandibles approaching 70° of incisor
194 procumbency (Fig. 4b).

195 *Effect of procumbency.*-The bending moment acting on a rodent mandible modeled
196 as an arch varies with incisor procumbency which affects mandible slenderness. The lowest
197 values of bending occur near 60° of incisor procumbency (Fig. 4a). As shown in Table 1,
198 the species *Dolichotis patagonum*, whose lower mandible is shaped as a slender arch, is
199 near this value of procumbency. The bending moment increases when procumbency
200 approaches 90°. Hence, the mandible of *Octodon degus* and *Myocastor coipus* (Table 1)
201 may experience the highest values of bending moment. (Fig. 4).

202 *Structural strength for a real case.*- The cross section of the mandible of the rodent
203 *C. talarum*, at different places along it, varies both in shape as well as in bone thickness
204 (Fig. 5). Estimated values of tension and compression stress vary from 5 to 40 MPa
205 depending on the section considered (Table 2). The stress values were 13-25 % lower when
206 the mandible was modeled as an arch-like structure as compared with a beam-like structure.
207 Accordingly, safety factors were 11-34 % higher when the mandible was modeled as an
208 arch (Table 2).

209 *Saving of structural material.*- Although there is considerable overlap between data
210 points, the amount of bone present in the mandible seems to be lower in species of rodents,
211 especially those of smaller body size, as compared with the sample of mammals. In fact, the
212 y-intercept of rodents' fitted line was lower than that of other mammals (Fig. 6). A test for
213 common slope across groups produced significant differences ($P=0.03$) between SMA
214 regressions of rodents vs. other mammals.

215

216 DISCUSSION

217 Analyzing the capacity to avoid structural failure of different skeletal parts has been
218 the focus of recent research on evolutionary morphology (Soons et al., 2010). The
219 mandibular apparatus of rodents, which is adapted to process hard food items, is
220 particularly capable of producing strong bite forces (Van Daele et al., 2009; Becerra et al.,
221 2012; Vassallo and Antenucci, 2015). Therefore it must be able to withstand large reaction
222 forces received on incisors, molars, and jaw condyle. Further, due to repeated loading
223 resulting from gnawing, fatigue can be expected in different regions of the skull and
224 mandible. In line with this, there is evidence that in the blind mole-rat *Myospalax*,
225 continuous physical pressures of digging on incisors lead to cell and tissue fatigue, resulting
226 in perforation of the palatal bone in ageing individuals (Zuri and Terkel, 2001). How the
227 loads transmitted to the bones in different regions of the skull and mandible resisted during
228 chewing? As stated above, the mechanical properties of biological materials are, *per se*, an
229 important factor in bone strength (Currey, 2006). For example, it has been shown that
230 adaptive changes in the incisor enamel microstructure are related to the use of the incisors
231 to dig in certain rodent species, a behavior known as chisel-tooth digging (Vieytes, 2007).
232 Energy absorption by viscoelastic cranial sutures is another mechanism to withstand the

233 loads produced during chewing (Herring, 2008). On the other hand, the size and shape of
234 the bone itself, *i.e.* its architecture, is the other factor involved in structural strength (*e.g.*
235 Rayfield et al., 2001).

236 The objective of this study was to model the rodent mandible like an arch in order to
237 evaluate its structural strength. The results show that the bending moment may be
238 substantially reduced in a mandible if it has an arch-like shape rather than a beam-like
239 shape. Depending on the mandible section being considered, and taking into account
240 interspecific variation in “incisor procumbency-arch slenderness”, the reduction in bending
241 moment can reach values between 15-25 %. This fact is consistent with the hypothesis that
242 the arch-like shape of rodents’ mandible might work as an adaptation to increase strength
243 against loads imparted by both muscle action, and reaction forces on teeth.

244 Ecological and behavioral factors affect rodents’ incisor procumbency. For
245 example, the incisors of subterranean tooth-digging rodents are strongly projected forward
246 to improve the angle of attack against the soil (Mora et al., 2003). Table 1 shows that
247 mandibular incisor procumbency, in different rodent species, vary between 90 to 70
248 degrees. This fact determines, at one end, a mandible which resembles a semicircular
249 *roman* arch (incisor procumbency = 90°) or, at the other end, the shape of a slender arch
250 (incisor procumbency ~ 70°). Results in Fig. 4 show that slender rodent mandibles probably
251 experience lower bending stresses. It has been shown that the reduction of bending moment
252 in slender architectural arches is due to an increase in the horizontal component of thrust
253 (see Fig. 2, 3; Curcio, 1968).

254 Contrary to what happens with an architectural arch where the size and shape of its
255 cross section remains approximately constant throughout, all along the mandible of
256 *Ctenomys*, and presumably in other mammals, the amount of bone that must withstand

257 loads varies greatly (Fig. 5). In the anterior part of the mandible it is formed solely by the
258 incisor (Fig. 5 section a), while at the level of diastema the incisor is surrounded by alveolar
259 bone (Fig. 5 section b). The cross section of the mandible is massive where it houses the
260 roots of the molars and incisors (Fig. 5 section c), contrary to the thin angular process (Fig.
261 5 section d). Given this variation in the amount of bone in different sections of the
262 mandible, estimated values of tension and compression stress (calculated based on
263 experimentally obtained bite forces from Becerra et al., 2011) vary between 5.4 to 40.9
264 MPa (compression), and 5.4 to 42.6 MPa (tension) (Table 2). Safety factors calculated at
265 sections corresponding to the incisor and angular process were lower than those for the
266 diastema and mandibular corpus where the cross section of the mandible is massive. In
267 general, estimated safety factors in *Ctenomys* mandible (range 6.9-28.3) were greater than
268 to those obtained by Thomason and Russell (1986) for the rostrum of the marsupial
269 *Didelphis* (range 1.8-11). Maybe this difference is related to the fact that, in addition to
270 strong bite events, the mandible of rodents would confront fatigue due to repeated loading
271 from gnawing. In both studies safety factors were greater than those calculated for long-
272 bones, which vary from 1.4 to 5 according to a study by Biewener (1983).

273 The significant differences observed in the amount of bone present in the mandible
274 of different rodent species (arch-like mandibles) with respect to other mammalian species
275 (beam-like mandibles) (Fig. 6) indicate that in the former, there would be bone material
276 savings which is what might be expected under the arch hypothesis. This is a striking fact
277 because the data available so far indicate that rodents, despite their relatively small size, are
278 among the mammals capable of exercising proportionately higher bite forces (*e.g.* Becerra
279 et al., 2014) and, consequently, the mandible and other cranial structures must withstand

280 high loads. Here it was shown that an arch shaped mandible can convert these high loads in
281 relatively lower bending moments.

282 CONCLUSIONS

283 Some researchers have drawn attention to the curvature of certain bone elements,
284 and its functional implications. For example, Bertram and Biewener (1988) suggests that
285 the longitudinal curvature that characterize the long bones of terrestrial mammals increases
286 the predictability of the pattern and distribution of stresses compared with straight long
287 bones, which is of importance to cope a highly variable loading environment. A reduction
288 of the bending moment might be an important factor influencing the design of bone
289 subjected to both high and repeatedly applied loads. Arch-shaped bones might be found in
290 vertebrate species more often than usually thought (Cubo et al., 1999; Macintosh et al.,
291 2015). It is worth noting that it is not necessary that a structure possess a pure geometrical
292 form (*e.g.* parabola, catenary, semicircular) to perform as an arch (Benaim, 2008).
293 Therefore, this analysis could be extended to the study of bone morphology and its
294 mechanical properties in other vertebrate species.

295

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391 FIGURE LEGENDS

392 Fig. 1 Carnivore mandible (Felidae) subjected to three point bending. The mandible is
 393 shown turned upside down for ease of comparison with a beam. M: temporalis muscle force
 394 (for simplicity, the line of action is sketched vertically); MC: mandibular condyle; R_C:
 395 reaction force at the canine; R_{MC}: reaction force acting upon the mandibular condyle. Note
 396 that the in-force (M) and out-forces exerted by dental elements are on the same side of the
 397 pivot (mandibular condyle), a condition known as third-order lever. Insert: complete skull
 398 with mandible.

399

400 Fig. 2 The mandible of rodents modeled like an arch. A mouse mandible is shown turned
 401 upside down to highlight the analogy with the arch in architecture. TR: thrust reaction
 402 force; HTR and VTR: horizontal and vertical components of thrust reaction force,
 403 respectively; AP: angular process; MC: mandibular condyle. α = incisor procumbency:
 404 angle determined by the tangent at incisor tip. Photography on the left: *Casa del Puente*, by
 405 Architect Amancio Williams, City of Mar del Plata, Argentina.

406

407 Fig. 3 Forces and parameters producing bending in an arch and a beam. “a”: section in
 408 which the bending stress is analyzed; x: distance between section “a” and the end of the
 409 arch or beam; h: arch height in the section “a”. R: reaction force. TR, HTR and VTR: ibid

410 Fig. 2.

411

412 Fig.4 a: Bending moment in an arch-like rodent mandible under a reaction force of 20 N
 413 resulting from an incisor bite, at one quarter (10 mm) and at half of its length (20 mm).

414 Condyle – incisive length = 40 mm (see Methods). b: Reduction (%) in bending moment in

415 an arch-like mandible with respect to a beam-like mandible. Rectangle: reduction in
416 bending for the range of measured incisor procumbencies in Table 1.

417

418 Fig. 5 Mandible of *Ctenomys talarum* and cross sections taken into account to estimate
419 tension and compression stresses. 4, 7, 13 and 26 mm: distances from the tip of the incisors
420 to each section. Sections: a, incisor; b, diastema; c, molars; d, angular process. R_I : reaction
421 force at incisor; R_{MC} : reaction force at mandibular condyle; MF: adductor muscle force
422 resultant. M_I and M_M are the moment arms of R_I and MF, respectively. Scale bar: 1 cm.

423

424 Fig. 6 Amount of bone material present in the mandible of different mammal species. A
425 common slope test yielded significant differences ($P=0.03$) between the regression of
426 rodents vs. other mammals.

427

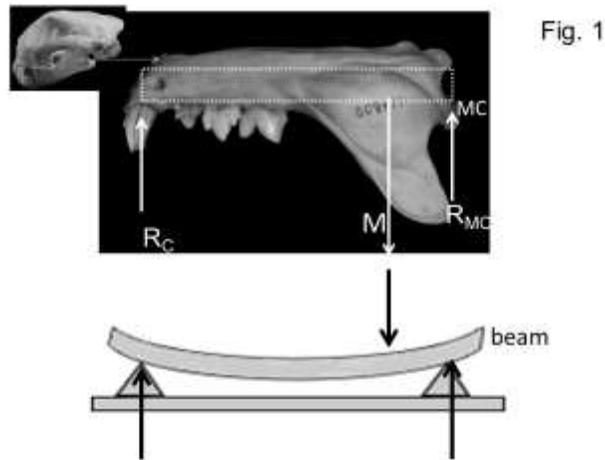


Fig. 2

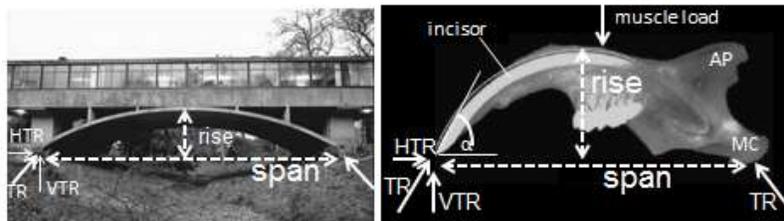
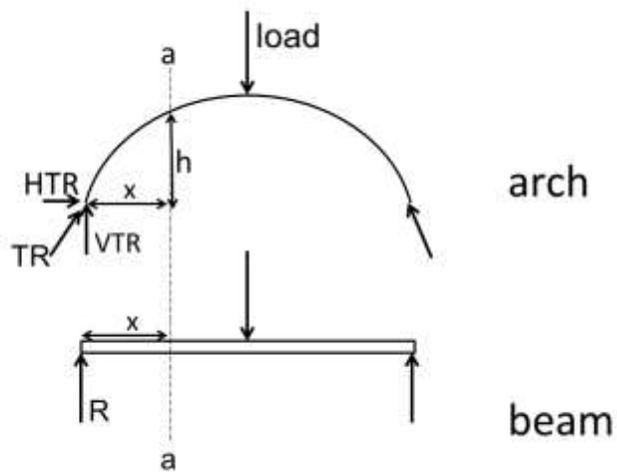


Fig. 3



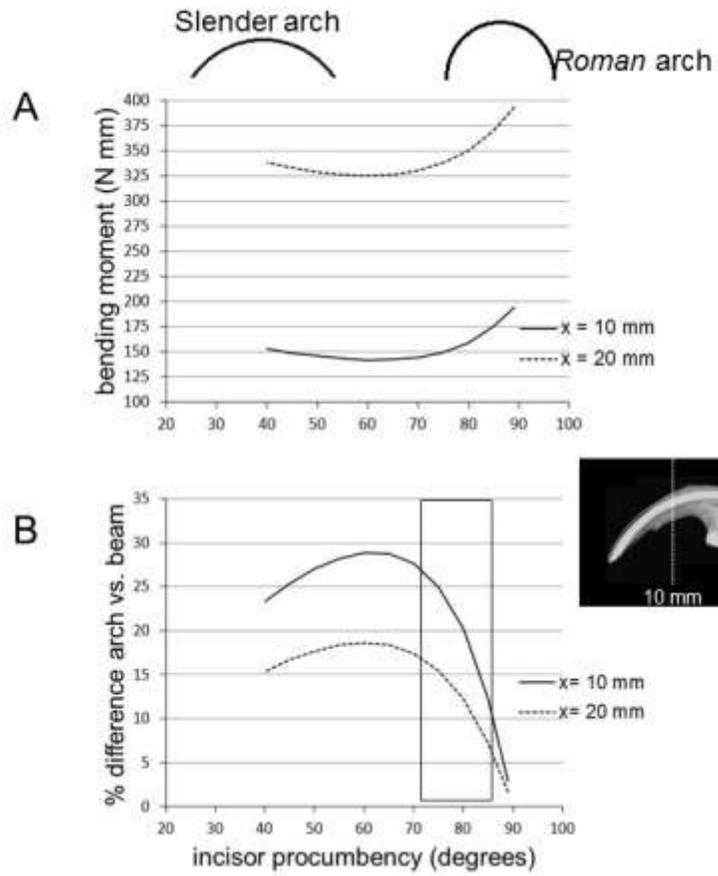


Fig. 4

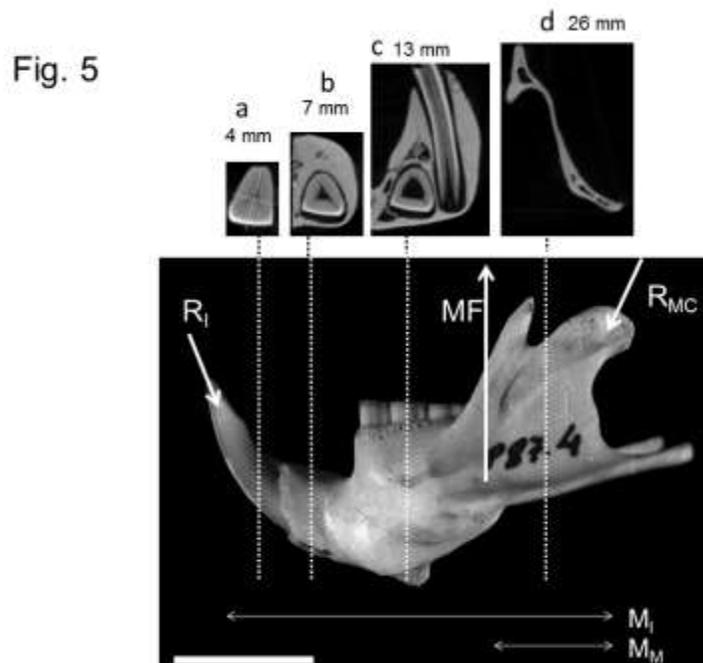


Fig. 6

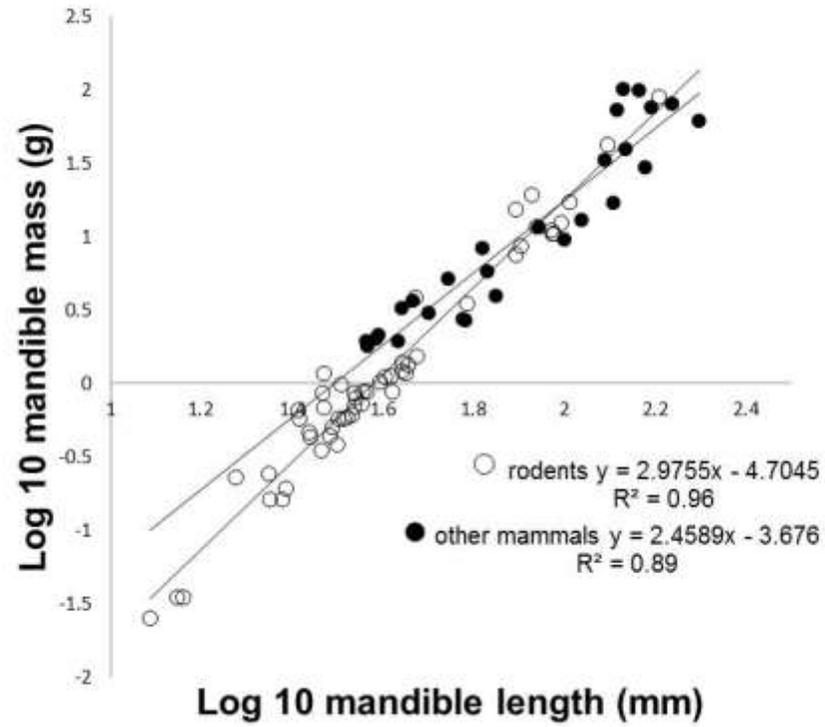


Table 1. Measurements of arch curvature and incisor procumbency in the mandible of different rodent species. Condyle-incisive length, and maximum height of the mandible = *span* and *rise* of the mandibular arch, respectively (see Fig. 2). * lagomorpha ** values supplementary to *Thomas' angle* (Landry 1957).

Species	Condyle-incisive length (mm)	maximum height of the mandible (mm)	Incisor procumbency (degrees)**
<i>Dolichotis patagonum</i>	93.7	24.6	71°
<i>Myocastor coipus</i>	84.6	32.8	82.7°
<i>Lagostomus maximus</i>	78.2	22.1	73.3°
<i>Chinchilla lanigera</i>	43.7	13.2	74.6°
<i>Octodon degus</i>	26.1	11	85.1°
<i>Hydrochoerus hydrochaeris</i>	180	55	75.6°
<i>Cavia aperea</i>	42.6	13.6	77°
<i>Ctenomys talarum</i>	29.7	10.9	81.1°
<i>Akodon azarae</i>	16.2	5.1	76.3°
<i>Oryctolagus cuniculus*</i>	75	23	75.7°

Table 2.- Stress experienced at different sections (a, b, c, d; see Fig. 5) of a rodent mandible (*Ctenomys talarum*; Caviomorpha; Ctenomyidae), and percentage difference assuming a beam versus arch-like structure for the jaw. Safety factors based upon bone ultimate strength of 133 MPa (tension) and 193 MPa (compression) (Currey, 2006).

Jaw section		4 mm			7 mm			13 mm			26 mm		
		a			b			c			d		
		beam	arch	%	beam	arch	%	beam	arch	%	beam	arch	%
Stress	Tension (MPa)	25.7	19.2	25.3	10.2	8.2	19.6	6.2	5.4	12.9	57.2	42.6	25.5
	Compression (MPa)	20.9	15.6		10.1	8.1		6.3	5.4		55.0	40.9	
Safety factor	Tensión	5.2	6.9	32.7	13.1	16.3	24.4	23.9	26.6	11.3	2.3	3.1	34.8
	Compression	9.2	12.4		19.2	23.9		25.4	28.3		3.5	4.7	