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The neocortex of cetartiodactyls. II. Neuronal morphology of the visual and motor cortices in the giraffe (*Giraffa camelopardalis*)

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Abstract The present quantitative study extends our investigation of cetartiodactyls by exploring the neuronal morphology in the giraffe (*Giraffa camelopardalis*) neocortex. Here, we investigate giraffe primary visual and motor cortices from perfusion-fixed brains of three subadults stained with a modified rapid Golgi technique. Neurons ($n = 244$) were quantified on a computer-assisted microscopy system. Qualitatively, the giraffe neocortex contained an array of complex spiny neurons that included both “typical” pyramidal neuron morphology and “atypical” spiny neurons in terms of morphology and/or orientation. In general, the neocortex exhibited a vertical columnar organization of apical dendrites. Although there was no significant quantitative difference in dendritic complexity for pyramidal neurons between primary visual ($n = 78$) and motor cortices ($n = 65$), there was a significant difference in dendritic spine density (motor cortex > visual cortex). The morphology

of aspiny neurons in giraffes appeared to be similar to that of other eutherian mammals. For cross-species comparison of neuron morphology, giraffe pyramidal neurons were compared to those quantified with the same methodology in African elephants and some cetaceans (e.g., bottlenose dolphin, minke whale, humpback whale). Across species, the giraffe (and cetaceans) exhibited less widely bifurcating apical dendrites compared to elephants. Quantitative dendritic measures revealed that the elephant and humpback whale had more extensive dendrites than giraffes, whereas the minke whale and bottlenose dolphin had less extensive dendritic arbors. Spine measures were highest in the giraffe, perhaps due to the high quality, perfusion fixation. The neuronal morphology in giraffe neocortex is thus generally consistent with what is known about other cetartiodactyls.

Keywords Dendrite · Morphometry · Dendritic spine · Golgi method · Brain evolution

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Introduction

In our companion paper on cetartiodactyls (Butti et al. 2014b), we documented the neuronal morphology of three cetacean species (bottlenose dolphin, minke whale, and humpback whale). Here, we explore the neuronal morphology of the giraffe (*Giraffa camelopardalis*) for the first time. Although the long-necked-giraffe's status as the tallest extant land mammal has resulted in extensive investigation of its vertebral column (Solounias 1999; Badlangana et al. 2009) and cardiovascular system (Nilsson et al. 1988; Badeer 1997), few studies have examined the giraffe brain beyond gross anatomy (Friant 1968). Recent investigations have begun to explore the

implications of an elongated neck in the anatomy of brainstem nuclei (Badlangana et al. 2007a; Bux et al. 2010) and the corticospinal system (Badlangana et al. 2007b); nevertheless, apart from some initial descriptions of neurons in selected ungulates (Barasa 1960), the morphology of cortical neurons in the giraffe remains unknown. As part of an ongoing project documenting neocortical neuromorphology in previously unexplored large brained mammals (Jacobs et al. 2011), the current study may further our understanding of which aspects of neuronal morphology are general to all vertebrates, and which are specific to particular species. To that end, the present investigation documents the neuronal morphology of the primary motor and visual cortices of the giraffe.

Within the superorder Laurasiatheria, giraffes belong to the clade Cetartiodactyla (order Artiodactyla; suborder Ruminantia). Giraffidae emerged from Pecora in the Oligocene period, with Giraffini diverging from their closest living relative, Okapini, approximately 19 million years ago (Hassanin and Douzery 2003). Extant laurasiatherian species (e.g., giraffe, cat, dog, horse, sheep, cow, seal, hippopotamus, dolphin, whale) exhibit considerable diversity in terms of physiology, behavior, brain mass, and encephalization quotient (Radinsky 1981; Fernández and Vrba 2005; Boddy et al. 2012), and thus may provide insight into the complexities and evolutionary plasticity of mammalian neocortical evolution. In particular, comparison of evolutionary patterns and modern phylogenomic techniques underscore a close relationship between cetaceans and artiodactyls, which have recently been grouped in the clade Cetartiodactyla (Nikaido et al. 1999; Murphy et al. 2004; Price et al. 2005). It should be noted that the Artiodactyla suborder Ruminantia appears to be most closely related to hippopotami and cetaceans, and composes a clade referred to as Cetruminantia (Graur and Higgins 1994; Shimamura et al. 1997). As such, it would be reasonable to expect similarities in the organization of the brain among related species within cetartiodactyls (Hof and Sherwood 2005, 2007; Sherwood et al. 2009). For example, in the pygmy hippopotamus (*Hexaprotodon liberiensis*) and cetaceans (bottlenose dolphin, *Tursiops truncatus*; minke whale, *Balaenoptera acutorostrata*; humpback whale, *Megaptera novaeangliae*), a variety of complex neocortical neurons have recently been documented, with spiny neurons existing along a continuum from those that appeared more pyramid-like to those that differ from the “typical” (i.e., primate/rodent-like) pyramidal neuron in terms of morphology and/or orientation (Butti et al. 2014a, b). In contrast, aspiny cortical neurons appear relatively uniform and morphologically conserved across eutherian mammals

(Hof et al. 1999; Sherwood et al. 2009). Given the close relationship between certain large artiodactyls (e.g., Hippopotomidae) and cetaceans (Shimamura et al. 1997; Ursing and Arnason 1998; Nikaido et al. 1999; Price et al. 2005), we expect comparable neuromorphological features across giraffes, the pygmy hippopotamus, and cetaceans. Such a comparative perspective provides a focal point of the current investigation.

The giraffe, with a brain mass of between 400 and 700 g (Crile and Quiring 1940; Mitchell et al. 2008), has a relatively long gestation period and a relatively complex sociobehavioral environment (Pérez-Barbería and Gordon 2005; Shultz and Dunbar 2006). They reside within a fission–fusion, mostly matrilineal social structure characterized by considerable flexibility in herd size (Van der Jeugd and Prins 2000; Bashaw et al. 2007; Bercovitch and Berry 2013; Carter et al. 2012). Several types of social interaction have been documented: urine assessment to determine female reproductive status, mate guarding of receptive females (Bercovitch et al. 2006), and neck rubbing for social cohesion and bonding (Coe 1967; Tarou et al. 2000). Auditory and particularly visual senses seem well developed (Innis 1958). The giraffe has a visual acuity of 25–27 cycles per degree, which is approximately half that of humans, but substantially higher than that seen in most other Cetartiodactyls (Coimbra et al. 2013). The extent to which giraffes communicate vocally remains unclear, although it has been suggested that they are among several species (e.g., okapi, rhinoceros, elephants, whales) that may use infrasound (Bashaw 1993). These behaviors, coupled with a relatively large brain size, suggest considerable cognitive ability in giraffes.

The relationship between cognitive abilities and cortical neuronal morphometry remains elusive in giraffes because their cerebral cortex remains largely unexplored (DeFelipe et al. 2002), with only one recent study examining giraffe cortex directly (Badlangana et al. 2007b). Therefore, in addition to qualitative classification of neuronal types, the present study quantitatively investigated regional variation, with a focus on the numerically dominant pyramidal neurons, in primary motor and visual cortices. Although increased dendritic complexity has been associated with enhanced processing demands in higher order primate cortices (Elston 2003, 2007; Jacobs and Scheibel 2002), there appears to be no a priori reason to expect differences in cortical processing across primary cortical areas (Jacobs et al. 2001; Clemo and Meredith 2012). As such, we expect pyramidal neuron dendritic extent to be similar between giraffe primary motor and visual cortices.

Materials and methods

Specimens

Tissue was obtained from three (G1, G2, G3) subadult male giraffes (2–4 years of age) euthanized with an intravenous overdose of sodium pentobarbital (for details, see Dell et al. 2012). Briefly, after being perfused through the common carotid artery with 0.9 % saline solution and a fixative of 4 % paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer, each brain was placed in fixative, weighed (G1: 610 g, G2: 527 g, G3: 480 g), and post-fixed in 4 % paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (Manger et al. 2009). In postmortem examinations, the brains of all animals exhibited no obvious gross neuroanatomical abnormalities. Tissue blocks (3–5 mm-thick) were dissected from the cortical surface and stored in 1 % sodium azide in 0.1 M phosphate buffer for 3 months prior to staining. The present study was approved by the Colorado College Institutional Review Board (#011311-1) and the University of the Witwatersrand Animal Ethics Committee (2008/36/1).

Tissue selection

Cortical blocks (3–5 mm-thick) were removed from the right hemisphere. Tissue from the primary motor cortex, located anteriorly on the dorsomedial aspect of the neocortex (Badlangana et al. 2007b), was removed approximately 1–2 cm lateral to the longitudinal fissure; tissue from the primary visual cortex, located posteriorly on the dorsomedial aspect of the neocortex, was removed approximately 2–3 cm lateral to the longitudinal fissure (Fig. 1). Tissue was coded to prevent experimenter bias,

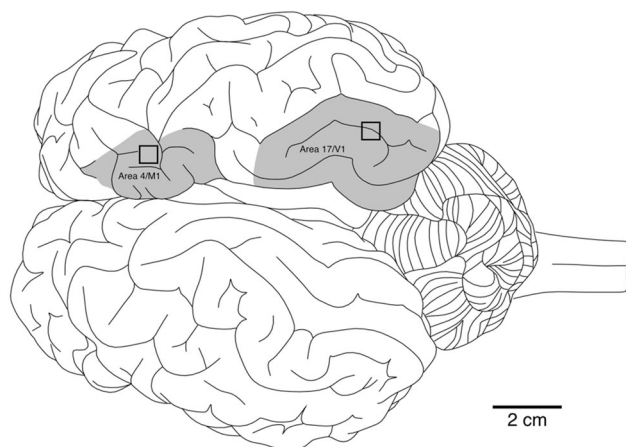


Fig. 1 Dorsal view of a giraffe brain illustrating the primary motor and visual cortices from which tissue blocks were selected for staining. Adapted from Fig. 2 in Badlangana et al. (2007b)

stained via a modified rapid Golgi technique (Scheibel and Scheibel 1978b), and sectioned serially at 120 μm with a vibratome (Leica VT1000S, Leica Microsystems, Buffalo Grove, IL, USA). Tissue blocks adjacent to those removed for Golgi analysis were examined with a routine Nissl and myelin stain to reveal cytoarchitectonic characteristics. To determine laminar thickness, sample measurements for each layer were averaged in Nissl stains across 10 sections from each cortical region.

Neuron selection and quantification

Neurons ($n = 244$) were analyzed across the three giraffes from motor ($n = 125$: G1, 78; G2, 11; G3, 36) and visual cortices ($n = 119$: G1, 67; G2, 13; G3, 39), with more neurons from G1 ($n = 145$) and G3 ($n = 75$) than from G2 ($n = 24$) due to inconsistent staining. Neurons were selected for tracing based on established criteria (Roitman et al. 2002; Anderson et al. 2009; Jacobs et al. 2011; Lu et al. 2013), which required an isolated soma near the center of the 120 μm section, with as fully impregnated, unobscured, and complete dendritic arbors as possible (i.e., no beading or interruptions). To provide a comprehensive analysis of giraffe neuromorphology, neurons were selected to encompass representative typologies, and were quantified under a planachromatic 60 \times oil objective (NA 1.4) along x -, y -, z -coordinates using a NeuroLucida system (MBF Bioscience, Williston, VT, USA) interfaced with an Olympus BH-2 microscope equipped with a Ludl XY motorized stage (Ludl Electronics, Hawthorne, NY, USA) and a Heidenhain Z-axis encoder (Schaumburg, IL, USA). A MicroFire Digital CCD 2-megapixel camera (Optronics, Goleta, CA, USA) mounted on a trinocular head (model 1-L0229, Olympus, Center Valley, PA, USA) displayed images on a 1,920 \times 1,200 resolution Dell E248WFP 24-in. LCD monitor. Somata were traced first at their widest point in the two-dimensional plane to provide an estimate of the cross-sectional area. Subsequently, dendrites were traced somatofugally in their entirety, recording dendritic diameter and quantity of spines, without differentiating morphological types of spines. Dendritic arbors were not followed into adjacent sections, with broken ends and ambiguous terminations identified as incomplete endings.

Neurons were traced by two investigators (TH and DK). Intrarater reliability was determined by having each rater trace the same soma, dendritic segment, and spines 10 times. The average coefficient of variation for soma size (3.8 %), dendritic spine number (DSN 7.2 %) and total dendritic length (TDL 3.9 %) indicated little variation in the tracings. Intrarater reliability was further tested with a split plot design ($\alpha = 0.05$), which indicated no significant difference between the first five tracings and the last five

tracings. Interrater reliability was determined through comparison of 10 dendritic system tracings with the same tracings completed by the primary investigator (BJ). Interclass correlations across soma size, DSN, and TDL averaged 0.98, 0.95, 0.99, respectively. An analysis of variance (ANOVA, $\alpha = 0.05$) indicated no significant differences among the tracers for the three measures. Additionally, the primary investigator reexamined all completed tracings under the microscope to ensure accuracy.

Neuron descriptions and dependent dendritic/spine measures

Descriptively, neurons were classified according to somatodendritic criteria (Ferrer et al. 1986a, b; Jacobs et al. 2011) by considering factors such as soma size/shape, presence of spines, laminar location, and general morphology. Quantitatively, centrifugal nomenclature was used to characterize branches extending from the soma as first-order segments, which bifurcate into second- and then third-order segments, and so on (Bok 1959; Uylings et al. 1986). In addition to quantifying soma size (i.e., surface area, μm^2) and depth from the pial surface (μm), we examined six other measures that have been analyzed in previous studies (Jacobs et al. 2011): dendritic volume (Vol μm^3 , the total volume of all dendrites); total dendritic length (TDL μm , the summed length of all dendritic segments); mean segment length (MSL μm , the average length of each dendritic segment); dendritic segment count (DSC, the number of dendritic segments); dendritic spine number (DSN, the total number of spines on dendritic segments); and dendritic spine density (DSD, the average number of spines per μm of dendritic length). Additionally, dendritic branching patterns were analyzed using a Sholl analysis (Sholl 1953), which quantified dendritic intersections at 20- μm intervals radiating somatofugally. All descriptive measures are presented as mean \pm standard deviation (SD) unless noted otherwise (e.g., Table 3).

Independent variables and statistical analyses

Descriptive statistics obtained for the six dependent measures were aggregated by neuron type and brain region. For inferential statistical analysis of regional dendritic differences, only pyramidal neurons were examined (using SPSS release 19.0.0.1), with dendritic systems as the unit of analysis. In the past, we have used a nested repeated measures design (PROC NESTED; SAS) to analyze regional cortical dendritic differences. The present study, however, expanded this analysis by incorporating the main effects of three Brains (G1, $n = 88$ pyramidal neurons; G2,

$n = 7$ pyramidal neurons; G3, $n = 48$ pyramidal neurons) and the nested effect of two Regions (motor and visual cortices) within Brain. Three subsequent levels of analysis were completed: (1) a cluster analysis to provide an initial descriptive overview of dendritic distributions, (2) a series of decision trees to explore potentially significant relationships between Brain and Region for each dependent measure, and (3) a generalized linear equations (GENLIN) framework to assess whether overall variability in the measure could be modeled. Each of these is explained in detail below.

Insofar as dendritic measures may be distributed differently within nested effects, a two-stage cluster analysis of Brains, and Regions nested within Brains, was performed using Akaike's Information Criteria for Brains G1 and G3 with both Brain, and Region within Brain entered as effects and a forced solution of four clusters. For this cluster analysis, Brain G2 was excluded due to a small sample size. Within each cluster, dependent variable distributions were examined to characterize the data. Log-likelihood distances were used with standardization of the dependent measures to define similarity.

Because brains may differ from each other for a variety of reasons, a CHAID decision tree framework (Hawkins and Kass 1982), with a parent node size set to 20 and child node size set to 10 with Brain forced in as the first effect and Block nested within Brain as the second effect, was used to explore possible asymmetric effects such as differential relevance of Block within Brain. This analysis was chosen because the three Brains could have differences in their structures that would not be apparent from conventional *t* tests or an ANOVA. In addition, this form of analysis is crucial for understanding results with small sample sizes and reveals which Brains were similar/different from each other. Specifically, possible differences were evaluated for (1) Brain main effect with six tests across the 2 Brains on the 6 dendritic measures and (2) the Region within Brain effect with 18 tests across 2 Regions evaluated for 6 dependent measures across 3 Brains.

To summarize the relationships between the dependent variables, and the nested and main effects, a bootstrap of 100 runs was used to secure robust maximum likelihood estimations (RMLE) within the analytical framework of GENLIN tested with a variety of links and distributions. GENLIN enables analyses that separate distributional characteristics of the dependent measures (e.g., normal versus probit) from the transformation used to estimate the model (e.g., identity or no transformation, Cauchit for a multinomial mixture). A variety of distribution and link functions were evaluated after examining the descriptive results. The small sample size warranted the use of the

bootstrap estimations of RMLE effects. Six such analyses, one for each dependent variable, were performed, with five χ^2 statistics calculated for each model: (1) improvement over a model fit with just the intercept term, (2) overall goodness of fit and three significance tests of the (3) intercept, (4) Brain and (5) Region nested within Brain.

Results

Overview

Nissl and myelin stains suggested an absence of a clear layer IV in the primary motor cortex, but not in primary visual cortex (Fig. 2). The relative thickness of all laminae across both cortical regions is provided in Table 1, with layers I and III in both regions being relatively thick. The overall high quality of Golgi preparations is evident in photomicrographs (Figs. 3, 4), which reveal well impregnated, relatively complete dendritic systems. In general, pyramidal-like neurons in both regions exhibited long (up to $\sim 1,500 \mu\text{m}$) apical dendrites which, in extending up to layers I and II, contributed to the vertical, columnar

organization of the neocortex. Spiny neurons were found at all depths, with considerable variation in dendritic density and length. Quantitative data broken down by cortical region and neuron type are presented in Table 2, which indicates that spiny neurons in motor cortex (excluding the gigantopyramidal neurons found only in motor cortex) tended to exhibit greater dendritic (by 39 % for Vol, 13 % for TDL, 0 % for MSL, 11 % for DSC) and spine (by 26 % for DSN, and 14 % for DSD) extent than those in visual regions. Individual spiny neuron tracings are depicted for the visual cortex in Fig. 5, and for the motor cortex in Fig. 6. Spiny neuron tracings are provided in Fig. 7, and Sholl analyses for all neuron types are illustrated in Fig. 8. Below, we provide more detailed descriptions of spiny and aspiny neuron types based on examination of all Golgi-stained sections as well as the quantified neurons themselves.

Spiny neurons

Typical pyramidal neurons ($n = 143$; Figs. 3a, d, 4e, 5A–J, 6A–H), considered “typical” because they resemble those in anthropoid primate and murid rodent models, were the

Fig. 2 Photomicrographs of Nissl (a, c) and myelin (b, d) stained sections through the primary motor (a, b) and primary visual (c, d) cortices with the layers labeled. Note the large pyramidal neurons in layer V of the primary motor cortex (a) and the lack of layer IV in this cortical area. Layer IV appears to be present in the primary visual cortex (c) as does the stria of Gennari in the lower half of layer IV (d). Scale bar 500 μm

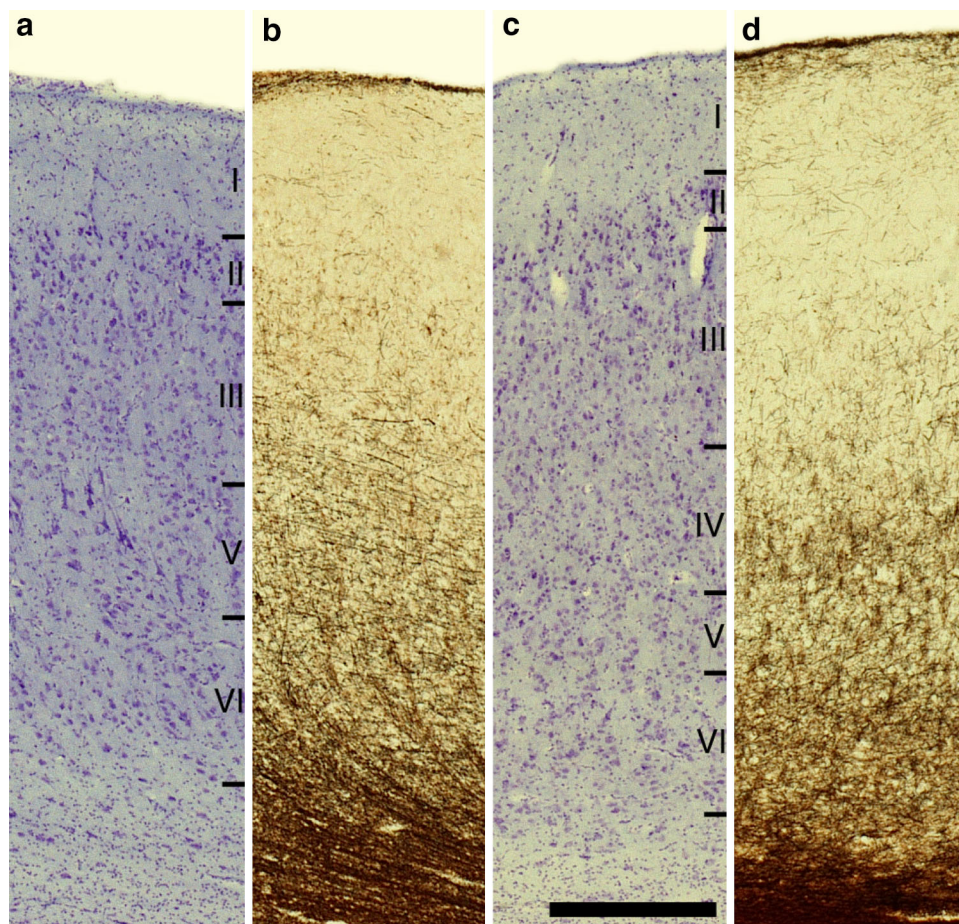


Table 1 Laminar and cortical thickness (in μm , mean \pm SD) in giraffe cortex

	Motor	Visual
Layer I	379 \pm 17	255 \pm 19
Layer II	180 \pm 33	134 \pm 12
Layer III	516 \pm 59	293 \pm 24
Layer IV	–	180 \pm 19
Layer V	157 \pm 24	176 \pm 16
Layer VI	359 \pm 57	287 \pm 15
Total cortical thickness	1,591 \pm 90	1,325 \pm 36

most prominent neuron type traced in both primary motor ($n = 78$) and visual cortices ($n = 65$). Somata, located at an average depth of $\sim 1,000 \mu\text{m}$ (Table 2), were usually triangular with a single, sometimes bifurcating apical dendrite and an average of 4.93 ± 1.53 primary basilar dendrites that radiated in all directions to form a circular skirt. Superficial pyramidal neurons tended to have more widely divergent apical dendrites whereas deeper pyramidal neurons exhibited longer apical dendrites with fewer bifurcations. All dendrites were relatively spiny (DSD = 0.83, Table 2). Sholl analysis indicated that pyramidal neurons exhibited an intersection pattern similar to, but slightly less complex than the larger magnopyramidal and gigantopyramidal neurons described below (Fig. 8c).

Magnopyramidal neurons ($n = 10$; Figs. 5R, S, 6P, Q), located in both cortical regions at an average depth of $\sim 1,400 \mu\text{m}$ (Table 2), were morphologically similar to pyramidal neurons but were much larger in terms of Vol (by 122 %), TDL (by 17 %), MSL (by 15 %) and soma size (by 102 %; Table 2). They displayed an average of 7.6 ± 3.13 primary basilar dendrites per neuron. The dendrites of magnopyramidal neurons were marginally less spiny (DSD = 0.76) than those of pyramidal neurons. Sholl analysis revealed a higher density of basilar dendritic intersections for magnopyramidal neurons than for pyramidal neurons (Fig. 8b).

Gigantopyramidal neurons ($n = 6$, Figs. 4a, g, 6K, L), located only in the motor cortex, were the largest neurons examined, particularly in terms of Vol (113 % > magnopyramidal neurons, and 375 % > pyramidal neurons), but also in terms of TDL (47 % > magnopyramidal neurons, and 72 % > pyramidal neurons), MSL (10 % > magnopyramidal neurons, and 26 % > pyramidal neurons), and soma size (80 % > magnopyramidal neurons, and 265 % > pyramidal neurons; Table 2). The fusiform somata, located at an average depth $\sim 1,500 \mu\text{m}$, typically extended a single apical dendrite, although one gigantopyramidal neuron exhibited a fork-like soma (Ngowyang 1932) with two, parallel, ascending apical dendrites (Figs. 4g, 6K). The basilar dendrites of gigantopyramidal

neurons resembled the perisomatic, circumferential dendrites of Betz cells described by Scheibel and Scheibel (1978a) and were the highest in number as compared to all other neuron types (an average of 13 ± 5.5 primary dendritic segments/neuron). Dendrites were highly spiny, with a DSD (0.91) equal to that of extraverted neurons (Table 2). Sholl analyses indicated that gigantopyramidal neurons, despite their relatively short basilar dendrites, were characterized by a higher density of basilar dendritic intersections than any other neuron types (Fig. 8a).

Extraverted neurons ($n = 35$, Figs. 3e, 4d, 5K–M, 6M–O), located in both cortical regions at an average depth $\sim 600 \mu\text{m}$ (Table 2), were the most superficial neuron type. These were roughly comparable to pyramidal neurons in terms of quantitative dendritic measurements, although basilar dendritic number (3.89 ± 1.7 primary dendritic segments/neuron) and extent were lower than in pyramidal neurons. This is the only neuron type where apical dendritic length was greater than basilar dendritic length (by 5.27 %). Somata ranged from triangular to globular in shape with apical bifurcations at or immediately above the soma such that there were two individual, ascending branches. DSD (0.91) was equal to that of gigantopyramidal neurons (Table 2). Sholl analyses indicated that apical dendrites had a higher density of intersections than did other neuron types, although basilar dendritic intersections were the lowest density among all other spiny neuron types (Fig. 8d).

Horizontal pyramidal neurons ($n = 17$, Figs. 3i, 5P, Q, 6I, J), located in both cortical regions at an average depth of $\sim 1,300 \mu\text{m}$, exhibited an apical dendrite that extended laterally or obliquely ($<45^\circ$) from a triangular soma. Most of these (15 of 17) were located deep in the sulcus, with the rest located in intermediate sulcal regions. Basilar dendrites (4.41 ± 1.94 primary dendritic segments/neuron) radiated from the soma in all directions and tended to be quite long relative to basilar dendrites in other spiny neurons. Overall, horizontal pyramidal dendrites were moderately spiny (DSD = 0.67; Table 2). Sholl analyses revealed a pattern similar to that observed in pyramidal neurons (Fig. 8e). Axons, when visualized, initially extended towards the basilar dendrites but typically turned to travel parallel to the apical dendrite.

Crab-like neurons ($n = 4$, Figs. 3c, 5N, O), traced only in the visual cortex, had oval or rounded somata (at an average depth of $\sim 1,100 \mu\text{m}$) from which dendrites (4.5 ± 0.58 primary dendritic segments/neuron) radiated symmetrically from opposite ends. These horizontally, bi-tufted neurons (Jacobs et al. 2011) were the smallest of all spiny neuron types, with the lowest spine values as well (Table 2). Sholl analyses indicated that crab-like neurons had the lowest density of basilar dendritic intersections and shortest dendritic length of all spiny neurons (Fig. 8f).

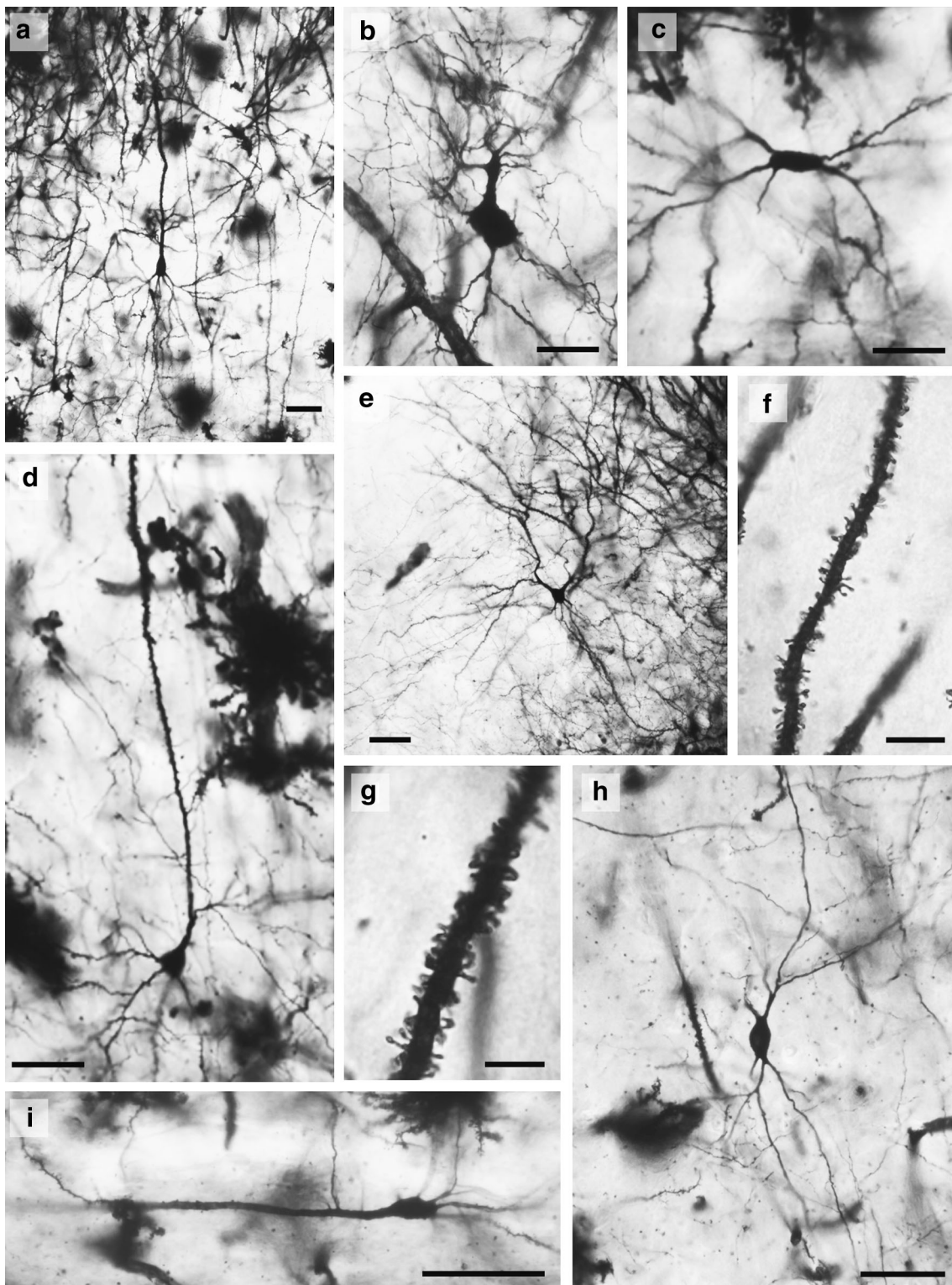


Fig. 3 Photomicrographs of Golgi-stained neurons in the primary visual cortex: pyramidal neurons (**a**, **d**); neurogliaform neuron (**b**); crab-like neuron (**c**); extrverted neuron (**e**); higher magnification of

basilar (**f**) and apical (**g**) dendritic segments; aspiny neuron (**h**); horizontal pyramidal neuron (**i**, see also Fig. 5P). Scale bar (**a**, **c**–**e**, **h**, **i**) 100 μ m. Scale bar (**b**, **f**, **g**) 50 μ m

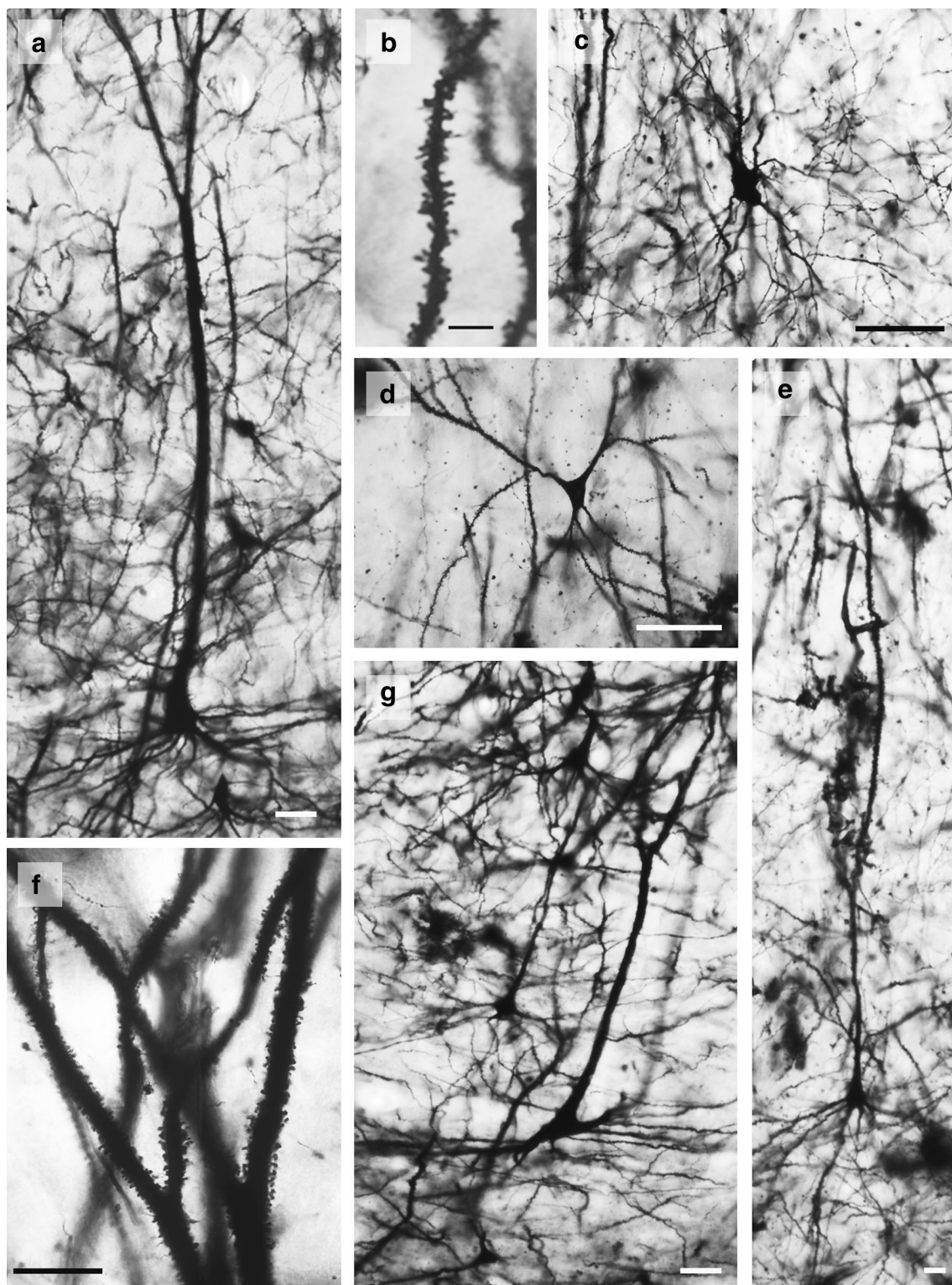


Fig. 4 Photomicrographs of Golgi-stained neurons in the primary motor cortex: gigantopyramidal neurons (**a**, see also Fig. 6L; **g**, see also Fig. 6K); higher magnification of basilar (**b**) and apical

(**f**) dendritic segments; neurogliaform neuron (**c**); extraverter neuron (**d**, see also Fig. 6O); pyramidal neuron (**e**). *Scale bar* (**a**, **c**–**f**) 100 μ m. *Scale bar* (**b**, **g**) 50 μ m

Table 2 Summary statistics (mean \pm SEM) for each type of giraffe neuron quantified in primary motor and visual cortices

Type	<i>n</i>	Vol	TDL	MSL	DSC	DSN	DSD	SoSize	SoDepth
Spiny									
Motor									
Gigantopyramidal	6	68,547 \pm 33,632	7,882 \pm 2,201	101 \pm 9	78 \pm 22	7,232 \pm 2,270	0.91 \pm 0.10	1,184 \pm 246	1,494 \pm 190
Extraverted	19	19,298 \pm 7,461	4,566 \pm 1,149	79 \pm 8	58 \pm 14	4,264 \pm 947	0.94 \pm 0.10	374 \pm 112	616 \pm 181
Horizontal	7	17,645 \pm 5,503	4,649 \pm 2,149	72 \pm 16	63 \pm 16	3,307 \pm 1,406	0.73 \pm 0.13	432 \pm 110	1,177 \pm 412
Magnopyramidal	4	34,896 \pm 8,348	5,662 \pm 1,198	93 \pm 9	61 \pm 12	4,790 \pm 1,005	0.86 \pm 0.15	634 \pm 77	1,481 \pm 275
Pyramidal	78	16,659 \pm 7,002	4,809 \pm 1,296	80 \pm 12	61 \pm 13	4,119 \pm 1,263	0.86 \pm 0.17	349 \pm 106	968 \pm 421
Visual									
Crab-like	4	4,923 \pm 1,111	2,711 \pm 596	64 \pm 5	43 \pm 8	1,192 \pm 310	0.46 \pm 0.16	207 \pm 21	1,132 \pm 121
Extraverted	16	12,560 \pm 4,689	4,441 \pm 815	74 \pm 13	61 \pm 12	3,953 \pm 1,128	0.88 \pm 0.14	346 \pm 113	625 \pm 225
Horizontal	10	9,731 \pm 4,391	3,343 \pm 704	79 \pm 14	43 \pm 8	2,155 \pm 878	0.63 \pm 0.15	304 \pm 103	1,432 \pm 565
Magnopyramidal	6	30,412 \pm 14,413	5,186 \pm 1,295	91 \pm 13	57 \pm 10	3,518 \pm 904	0.70 \pm 0.19	671 \pm 339	1,385 \pm 358
Pyramidal	65	11,889 \pm 5,381	4,295 \pm 1,149	79 \pm 12	54 \pm 14	3,435 \pm 1,384	0.79 \pm 0.18	293 \pm 71	1,012 \pm 418
Aspiny									
Motor									
Aspiny	5	6,360 \pm 4,302	2,538 \pm 768	93 \pm 24	28 \pm 6	0	0	282 \pm 66	1,262 \pm 420
Neuroglial	6	4,677 \pm 1,636	4,193 \pm 1,211	43 \pm 18	103 \pm 21	0	0	267 \pm 93	1,363 \pm 321
Visual									
Aspiny	15	6,038 \pm 3,221	2,815 \pm 1,180	70 \pm 18	41 \pm 13	0	0	288 \pm 60	1,003 \pm 301
Neuroglial	3	5,248 \pm 1,088	4,660 \pm 945	38 \pm 5	126 \pm 38	0	0	263 \pm 46	1,157 \pm 60

n number of neurons of a given type traced in each cortical region, *Vol* volume (in μm^3) of all dendritic branches in a neuron, *TDL* total dendritic length in μm (i.e., the summed length of all dendritic branches in a neuron), *MSL* mean segment length in μm (i.e., average length of individual dendritic branches), *DSC* dendritic segment count (i.e., the number of dendritic segments per neuron), *DSV* dendritic spine number (i.e., the total number of spines per neuron), *DSD* dendritic spine density (i.e., the number of spines per μm of dendritic length), *SoSize* neuronal soma size in μm^2 , *SoDepth* depth of the neuronal soma in μm from the pial surface

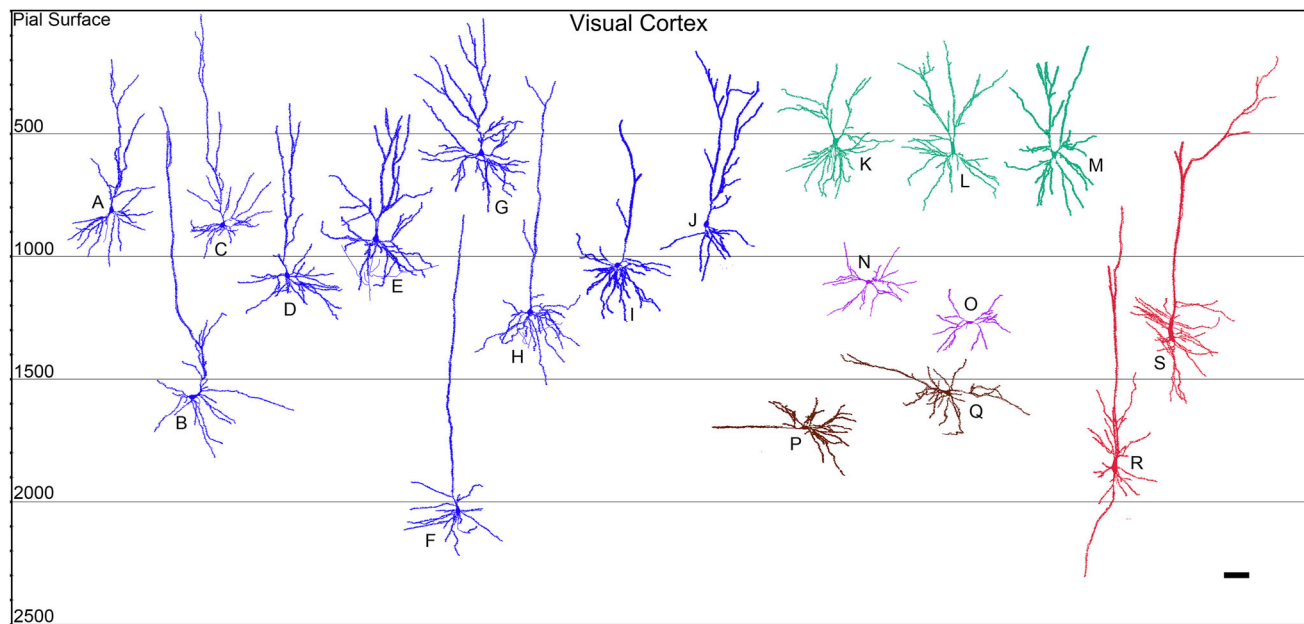


Fig. 5 Sample neuroLucida tracings of spiny neurons in the giraffe primary visual cortex indicating relative soma depth from the pial surface (in μm): pyramidal neurons (A–J); extraverted neurons (K–

M); crab-like neurons (N, O); horizontal pyramidal neurons (P, Q); magnopyramidal neurons (R, S). Scale bar 100 μm

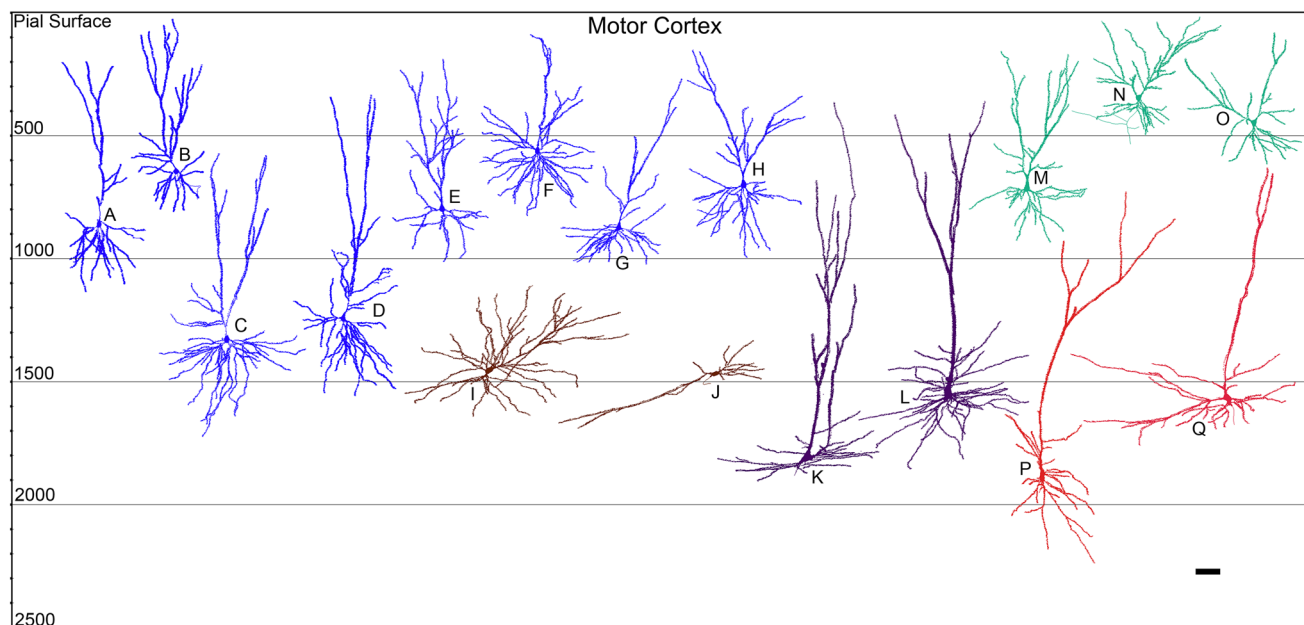


Fig. 6 Sample neuroLucida tracings of spiny neurons in the giraffe primary motor cortex indicating relative soma depth from the pial surface (in μm): pyramidal neurons (A–H); horizontal pyramidal

neurons (I, J); gigantopyramidal neurons (K, L); extraverted neurons (M–O); magnopyramidal neurons (P, Q). Scale bar 100 μm

Aspiny neurons

Aspiny neurons ($n = 20$, Figs. 3h, 7A–E, 7I–L) were distributed at various depths (averaging $\sim 1,700 \mu\text{m}$; Table 2) in both cortical regions. They were

characterized by rounded somata with straight, minimally branching dendrites (8.85 ± 4.88 primary dendritic segments/neuron) that extended up to $600 \mu\text{m}$. Two subtypes of aspiny neurons were noted: multipolar neurons, which possessed multiple dendrites that extended radially in all

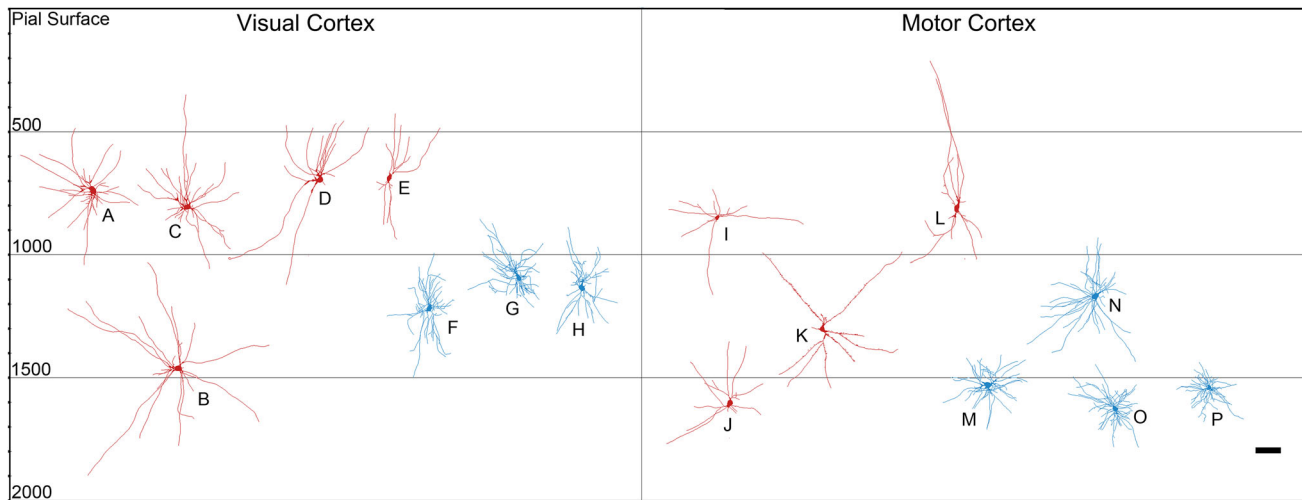


Fig. 7 Sample neuroLucida tracings of aspiny neurons in giraffe primary visual (A–H) and motor cortices (I–P) indicating relative soma depth from the pial surface (in μm): multipolar aspiny neurons

(A–D; I–K); bitufted aspiny neurons (E, I); neurogliaform neurons (F–H; M–P). Scale bar 100 μm

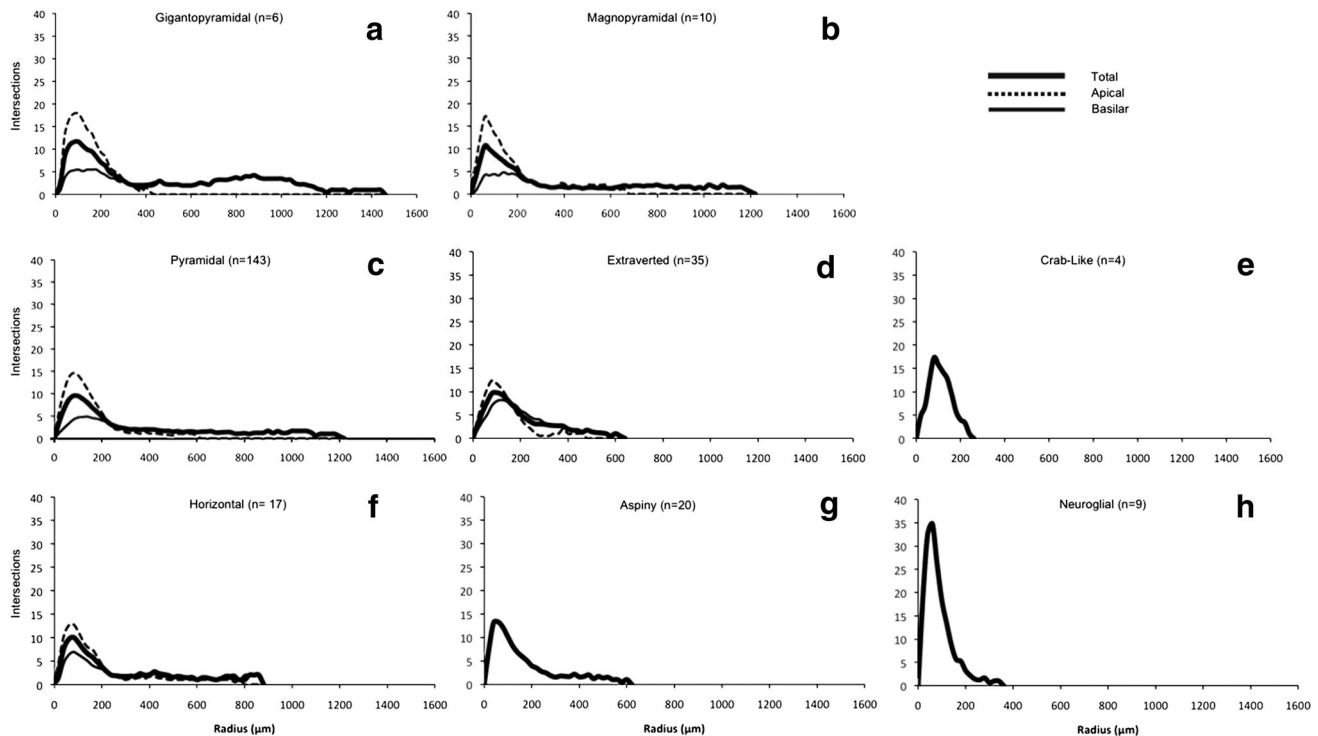


Fig. 8 Sholl analyses of eight cell types indicating relative basilar, apical, and total dendritic complexity of branching patterns. Dendritic intersections were quantified at 20- μm intervals using concentric rings. Neurons a–f were spiny and neurons g and h were aspiny. a–

c had relatively long apical dendrites whereas d, e had shorter apical dendrites. For all cells, relative dendritic intersections peaked before 200 μm . Apical dendrites either extended much further than the basilar dendrites (a–c) or were of similar length (d, e)

directions from the soma (Figs. 7A–D, I–K), and bitufted neurons (Figs. 3h, 7E, L), which exhibited two dendritic tufts that extended from opposite poles of the soma. Sholl analyses indicated that aspiny neurons had the

lowest density of dendritic intersections of all neuron types (Fig. 8g).

Neurogliaform neurons ($n = 9$, Figs. 3b, 4c, 7F–H, M–P), also referred to as “spiderweb” cells (Ramón y Cajal

1922) or “clewed” cells (Valverde 1971), were traced throughout the cortical layers (average depth $\sim 1,300 \mu\text{m}$; Table 2) and exhibited a dense dendritic plexus that arose in all directions from a rounded soma. Dendrites (9.44 ± 2.13 primary dendritic segments/neuron) extended an average of $400 \mu\text{m}$ with most bifurcations occurring close to the soma. DSC for neurogliaform neurons was 189 % greater than DSC for other aspiny neurons (Table 2). Accordingly, Sholl analyses revealed the highest density of dendritic intersections close to the soma, with

nearly twice as many intersections as any other neuron type (Fig. 8h).

Regional dendritic variation

Inferential analyses of regional differences were focused only on pyramidal neurons. Review of cluster analysis indicated considerable and varying skew and kurtosis in the distributions of pyramidal dendritic measures between the two Brains (G1 and G3) and two Regions (Motor and

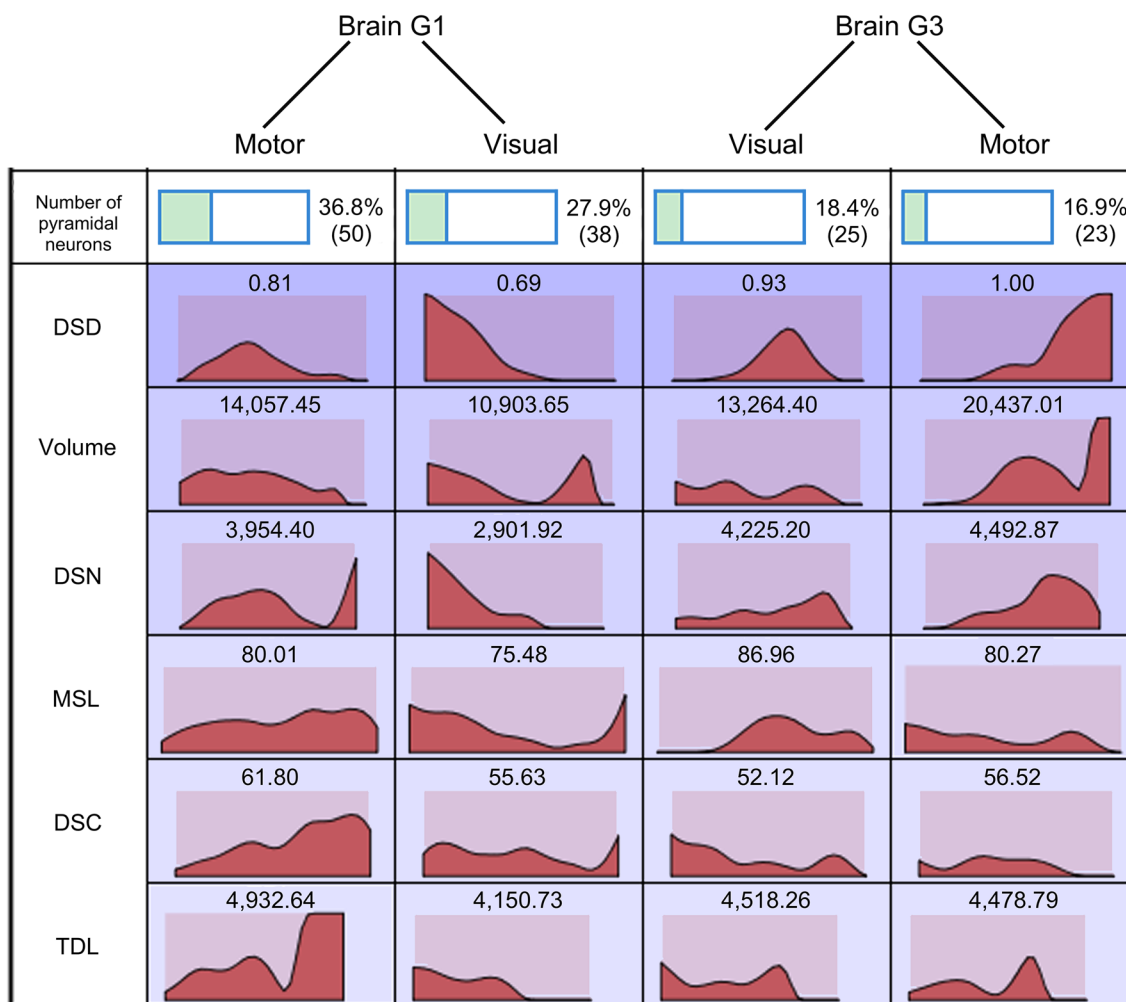


Fig. 9 A cluster analysis characterizing the six dendritic measures of pyramidal neurons ($n = 136$) for Brains G1 ($n = 88$) and G3 ($n = 48$) and the visual and motor Regions within those Brains. Because only a small number of pyramidal neurons ($n = 7$) were traced in Brain G2, it was excluded from the cluster analysis. Four clusters emerged, one for each combination of Brains G1 and G3 and their two Regions. The first row of the figure provides the number and percentages of pyramidal neurons falling within each Region of each Brain (e.g., 50 neurons of the 136 total were from the motor region of Brain G1, or 36.8 %). Subsequent rows indicate the distributions of each dendritic measure (e.g., DSD, Volume, DSN, MSL, DSC,

TDL—see Table 2 for abbreviations) for each cluster, with the mean of these measures above each histogram for that cell (e.g., $\text{Mean}_{\text{DSD}} = 0.81$ for the Motor Region of G1). The dependent measures are arranged in relative order of importance from top to bottom. This qualitative depiction of the data reveals that the distributions across Visual and Motor Regions within Brain vary considerably, even for the same dependent measure. For example, although DSD looks normally distributed for the Visual region within Brain G3, comparing across brains on DSD reveals considerable skew and kurtosis in the distributions shown in the corresponding cells. See text for further details

Visual, Fig. 9). This heterogeneity underscored why conventional statistical tests were inappropriate for additional quantitative analyses. Decision trees results were inconsistent, with significant Brain and asymmetric Region effects for DSD on Brains G2 and G3 versus G1, and significant Brain and asymmetric Region effects for Vol on Brains G2 and G3 versus G1. These distributional results motivated the use of a GENLIN model with a normal distribution and an identity link function. Four of the dependent variable models had a significant Brain main effect and three had a significant Region within Brain effect, but only the model for DSD fit the data (Table 3), indicating a significant difference between Regions for DSD (motor cortex > visual cortex) but also underscoring the extensive variability within the data.

Discussion

Grossly, the giraffe brain appears to be roughly the same size as the horse (*Equus caballus*) brain (Mean_{weight} = 599 g; Cozzi et al. 2014). Cytoarchitecturally, insofar as giraffe visual cortex exhibits a layer IV, it may differ slightly from cetartiodactyls such as the pygmy hippopotamus (Butti et al. 2011) and several cetacean species (Morgane et al. 1988; Glezer and Morgane 1990; Hof et al. 2005; Hof and Van der Gucht 2007; Oelschläger 2008; Butti et al. 2014a), which display an agranular cerebral cortex lacking in a detectable layer IV across all regions. Further, the cytoarchitecture of the giraffe cerebral cortex contrasts with that of primate primary visual cortex, which exhibits an extraordinarily expanded layer IV that is divided into multiple sublaminae and a primary motor cortex characterized by a lower cell packing

density, increased overall cortical thickness, and a predominance of large pyramidal neurons in layer V (Brodmann 1909). Before firm conclusions can be reached, however, more in depth examination of laminar differentiation using molecular signatures (e.g., the *RORB* gene) is warranted to determine the exact extent of layer IV in the giraffe as well as other cetartiodactyls (Zeng et al. 2012).

In terms of neuronal morphology, giraffe neurons appear similar to those documented in other cetartiodactyls, particularly in ungulates (Barasa 1960) and cetaceans (Butti et al. 2014b). However, there are also some important differences, both in terms of neuron types and specific morphologies. Giraffe neocortex exhibits an array of complex spiny neurons with singular or narrowly bifurcating apical dendrites contributing to a largely vertical columnar organization similar to typical rodent/primate cortical organization (Mountcastle 1997; Innocenti and Vercelli 2010). Quantitatively, although spiny neurons in the motor cortex tended to be more complex than those in the visual cortex, inferential analysis of pyramidal neurons suggested that only DSD measures indicated a consistent significant regional difference in favor of the primary motor region. Further interpretation of these results first requires consideration of several methodological issues.

Methodological considerations

Many of the general constraints that apply to Golgi-stained human materials also apply here, and have been outlined in more detail elsewhere (Jacobs and Scheibel 2002; Jacobs et al. 2011): (1) lack of historical information on the subjects (Jacobs et al. 1993); (2) a small sample size in terms

Table 3 Evaluation of effects in initial exploratory models

Dependent variable ^a	Overall model compared to intercept only model ^b	Model fit Pearson χ^2 ^c	Model fit conclusion	Intercept Wald χ^2	Brain main effect Wald χ^2	Block within Brain Wald χ^2
DSC	n.s.	χ^2 (137) = 25,940.9, $p \leq 0.000$	Model does not fit the data	χ^2 (1) = 775.5, $p \leq 0.000$	n.s.	n.s.
DSD	χ^2 (5) = 64.5, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (137) = 2.9, $p > 0.05$	Model fits the data	χ^2 (1) = 5,207.0, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (2) = 58.4, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (3) = 19.7, $p \leq 0.000$
DSN	χ^2 (5) = 28.7, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (137) = 2.1E8, $p \leq 0.000$	Model does not fit the data	χ^2 (1) = 662.8, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (2) = 15.6, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (3) = 20.8, $p \leq 0.000$
MSL	χ^2 (5) = 16.7, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (137) = 19,160.3, $p \leq 0.000$	Model does not fit the data	χ^2 (1) = 7,525.9, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (2) = 19.1, $p \leq 0.000$	n.s.
TDL	n.s.	χ^2 (137) = 2.1E8, $p \leq 0.000$	Model does not fit the data	χ^2 (1) = 811.2, $p \leq 0.000$	n.s.	n.s.
Vol	χ^2 (5) = 51.2, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (137) = 4.5E9, $p \leq 0.000$	Model does not fit the data	χ^2 (1) = 480.2, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (2) = 26.2, $p \leq 0.000$	χ^2 (3) = 35.2, $p \leq 0.000$

^a See Table 2 for abbreviations

^b A significant result indicates that we can reject H_0 that the model is no better than a model with just the intercept term

^c A significant result indicates that we can reject H_0 that the model fits the data (adequately captures sources of variability)

of subjects, with an uneven, limited sampling of neurons among these subjects (Jacobs and Scheibel 1993); (3) inherent issues with fixation and Golgi impregnations (Williams et al. 1978; Braak and Braak 1985) and attenuated dendritic measures because of section thickness (Jacobs et al. 1997); (4) underestimation of spines in light microscopy (Horner and Arbuthnott 1991); and (5) problems of neuronal classification (Germroth et al. 1989; Masland 2004; Bota and Swanson 2007; DeFelipe et al. 2013) based solely on somatodendritic architecture (Nelson et al. 2006; The Petilla Interneuron Nomenclature Group et al. 2008), particularly when biased by an essentially Euarchothoglires-centric nomenclature in the literature (Manger et al. 2008).

It should be noted that comparative neuroanatomical statements based on Golgi impregnations are inherently constrained because one cannot definitively determine the presence or absence of cell types. As such, one can only make general observations about the relative number or distribution of cell types either within or across species. Currently, although cytoarchitectural studies have delineated the giraffe primary motor cortex (Badlangana et al. 2007b), the lack of functional information about regions sampled in the present study preclude firm morphological-functional correlations in these regions, as has been done in primates (Elston and Rosa 1998a, b; Jacobs et al. 2001). Nevertheless, two factors suggest the correct identification of these two cortical regions in the current sample: (1) the presence of gigantopyramidal neurons in the primary motor cortex that resemble Betz cells (Betz 1874), and (2) the presence of magnopyramidal neurons in the primary visual cortex that resemble the solitary gigantopyramidal cells of Meynert (Chan-Palay et al. 1974). As such, the present neuromorphological descriptions should be relatively accurate depictions of primary motor and visual cortices in the giraffe.

Spiny neurons

Spiny neurons in the giraffe ranged from those that were pyramidal-like (e.g., pyramidal, magnopyramidal, gigantopyramidal, and extraverted neurons) to those that were more atypical in orientation (e.g., horizontal pyramidal neurons) or structure (e.g., crab-like neurons). Beyond the results highlighted below, specific comparisons of neuronal types for each dendritic measure in different cortical regions across species (e.g., giraffe, bottlenose dolphin, minke whale, and humpback whale) can be made by comparing Table 2 of the present paper with Table 1 in Butti et al. (2014b). The most frequently traced neuron in the giraffe was the pyramidal neuron, which usually exhibited either a single apical shaft with associated apical oblique branches similar to what typifies primate pyramidal

neurons (de Lima et al. 1990), or an acutely bifurcating apical dendrite similar to what is common in some ungulates, the pygmy hippopotamus, and cetaceans. Specifically, within ungulates, giraffe pyramidal neurons appear morphologically similar to those of the pig and sheep, but differ considerably from those in the horse and cow (Barasa 1960; Ferrer et al. 1986b), both of which exhibit more widely bifurcating, V-shaped apical dendrites that resemble those found in the elephant (Jacobs et al. 2011). Giraffe pyramidal neurons tend to resemble the typical pyramidal neurons (i.e., possessing a prominent apical dendrite that may bifurcate some distance from the soma) rather than the multiapical pyramidal neurons found in the pygmy hippopotamus (Butti et al. 2014a). Moreover, giraffe pyramidal neurons appear qualitatively similar to those in cetaceans, particularly in terms of apical dendritic morphology (Garey et al. 1985; Ferrer and Perera 1988; Butti et al. 2014b). Nevertheless, one pyramidal neuron variant that is prominent in cetaceans does not appear in the giraffe cortex: tritufted pyramidal neurons, which exhibit three primary dendritic branches, namely an apical and two basilar dendrites at 90° angles to each other (Butti et al. 2014b). At this point, it remains unclear whether this particular variant does not exist in the giraffe or whether they simply did not stain. The quantitative attributes of pyramidal neurons are discussed below.

Morphologically similar to giraffe pyramidal neurons are the much larger magnopyramidal neurons, which were found exclusively in deeper cortical layers. These neurons are common in laurasiatherians, having been documented in classical language areas in humans (Braak 1978; Hayes and Lewis 1995), and in primate visual cortex as the solitary cells of Meynert (Meynert 1867; le Gros Clark 1942; Hof et al. 2000). In the giraffe, magnopyramidal neurons in visual cortex resemble Meynert neurons in the primate, both in terms of morphology and in terms of their relatively equal spacing (~400 µm between neurons; Chan-Palay et al. 1974). This spacing is slightly less than the ~500 µm noted in the humpback whale (Butti et al. 2014b). Quantitatively, magnopyramidal neurons in the giraffe were similar in both Vol and TDL to those documented in the minke whale (Butti et al. 2014b), making them larger than those observed in the dolphin (by 82 % for Vol, and by 23 % for TDL), but smaller than those observed in the humpback whale (by 72 % for Vol, and by 66 % for TDL). Functionally, to the extent that these neurons evolved in a species that migrated into open territory, where increased visual dependence is necessary for predator detection and survival, their presence in the visual cortex of the current study may underscore the importance of visual abilities in giraffes, especially considering that somatic volume of these neurons has been demonstrated to correlate with habitat type in primates (Sherwood et al. 2003; Coimbra

et al. 2013). Within ungulates, the giraffe magnopyramidal neurons clearly resemble pig gigantopyramidal neurons (Barasa 1960) as well as the magnocellular neurons observed in layer V of the putative motor cortex in the pygmy hippopotamus (Butti et al. 2014a); however, both pig and pygmy hippopotamus magnopyramidal neurons have apical dendrites that tend to bifurcate further away from the soma than in the giraffe.

Substantially larger than the magnopyramidal neurons were the spine-rich gigantopyramidal neurons found in the deeper layers of giraffe motor cortex. Although the term “Betz cell” has usually been reserved for gigantopyramidal neurons in layer Vb of human (and, by extension primate) motor cortex (Braak and Braak 1976; Rivara et al. 2003; Sherwood et al. 2003), Betz (1874) himself noted smaller variants in dogs, and others have applied the term to gigantopyramidal neurons in non-primate species (cats: Crawford and Curtis 1966; Kaiserman-Abramof and Peters 1972; rats: Phillis and Limacher 1974). However, in the absence of information about the pigmentoarchitecture, specific connectivity, and functional attributes, it is impossible to determine if giraffe gigantopyramidal neurons meet the defining criteria for Betz cells. In the present study, these neurons had a soma size ($\sim 1,200 \mu\text{m}^2$) comparable to human Betz neurons (Sasaki and Iwata 2001), but were notably larger than those observed by Badlangana et al. (2007b) in giraffe motor cortex based on Nissl staining ($\sim 600 \mu\text{m}^2$). Distinguishing magnopyramidal from gigantopyramidal neurons based on soma size is difficult (Walshe 1942), especially because their dimensions are known to overlap (von Bonin 1938; Rivara et al. 2003). As such, the gigantopyramidal neurons noted in cresyl violet stains by Badlangana et al. (2007b) may be the same as the magnopyramidal neurons quantified in the present Golgi study (soma size = $\sim 656 \mu\text{m}^2$), or they may simply be smaller variants of gigantopyramidal neurons. Regardless, both the extensive dendritic Vol and the distinctive presence of a large number (i.e., ~ 13) of circumferential dendrites per neuron, which falls within the range (i.e., 7–15) for Betz cells (Betz 1874), indicate morphological similarity between the traced gigantopyramidal neurons in the giraffe and human Betz cells. Whether these similarities extend to the functional realm remains unclear.

Much smaller in scale is a neuronal type found across many species, the extraverted neuron, which has been documented in (semi-) aquatic (cetaceans: Kraus and Pilleri 1969a, b; Ferrer and Perera 1988; Glezer and Morgane 1990; Hof and Van der Gucht 2007; pygmy hippopotamus: Butti et al. 2014a) and terrestrial species (opossums, bats, hedgehogs, monkeys: Sanides and Sanides 1972; quokkas: Tyler et al. 1998; giant elephant shrews and anteaters: Sherwood et al. 2009; elephants: Jacobs et al. 2011). Its

appearance as the second most prominent neuronal type traced in the giraffe motor and visual cortices is therefore not surprising, and is consistent with our own observations in cetaceans (Butti et al. 2014b). Overall morphology was typical of extraverted neurons described previously, with a relatively wide apical dendritic array that was more extensive than the more limited basilar dendritic system (Sanides and Sanides 1972). Quantitatively, extraverted neurons in the giraffe were larger in both Vol and TDL than those documented in the dolphin (by 182 % for Vol, and by 170 % for TDL) and minke whale (by 46 % for Vol, and by 100 % for TDL), but similar to those observed in the humpback whale (Butti et al. 2014b). Although originally believed to represent a more primitive type of cortical neuron (Sanides and Sanides 1972; Morgane et al. 1985), it seems more likely that extraverted neurons are common in those species (e.g., giraffe, cetaceans, pygmy hippopotamus, and African elephant) that possess predominantly agranular cortices (Jacobs et al. 2011; Butti et al. 2014a, b). Functionally, the wide apical bouquet of extraverted neurons in these species facilitates communication within superficial layers, where many thalamocortical afferents tend to synapse (Sanides and Sanides 1972; Ferrer 1987, 1989; Ferrer and Perera 1988; Deacon 1990).

The two atypical spiny neuron types traced in the giraffe, horizontal pyramidal and crab-like neurons, both appear to facilitate horizontal integration within the cortex based on the domain covered by their dendritic arrays (van Brederode et al. 2000). Consistent with reports in carnivores, artiodactyls, and primates, horizontal pyramidal neurons in the giraffe were located mainly in deep regions of the sulcus (Ferrer et al. 1986b). Horizontal pyramidal neurons have been documented in several species at various cortical depths (bat, rat, dog: Ferrer et al. 1986b; Ferrer 1987; human: Meyer 1987; rodents: Miller 1988; elephant: Jacobs et al. 2011), including a variety of cetaceans (Kraus and Pilleri 1969a, b; Garey et al. 1985; Ferrer and Perera 1988). Giraffe horizontal neurons tended to be smaller (in terms of Vol and TDL) but similar in morphology to those observed in the deep cortical layers of minke and humpback whales (Butti et al. 2014b). In the giraffe, however, these neurons are located over a broader range of cortical depths (600–2,900 μm). As in minke and humpback whales, the giraffe horizontal pyramidal neurons express roughly the same dendritic extent as pyramidal neurons, with a basilar array that appears more extensive than that observed in layer VI of several other species (Ferrer et al. 1986a, b). The axons of the giraffe horizontal neurons travel parallel with the apical dendrite, much as depicted in the dog and sheep (Figs. 6 and 9 in Ferrer et al. 1986a), further indicating horizontal integration within the cortex. In contrast to the horizontal pyramidal neuron, the crab-like neuron appears to have no counterpart in the cetacean

neocortex (Butti et al. 2014b), although such a limited sample from a Golgi impregnation is far from conclusive. At this point, we cannot rule out that these neurons may be (a variant of) spiny stellate neurons (White and Rock 1980; Lübke et al. 2000), and their location in the middle of the visual cortex is consistent with this possibility. Similar, albeit larger versions of these neurons have been documented in the elephant cerebral cortex (Jacobs et al. 2011). Although precise function of these crab-like neurons remains unknown, they resemble the bipolar neurons (Fig. 9 in Ferrer et al. 1986b) and atypical pyramidal neurons with multiple horizontal branches (Fig. 6 in Ferrer et al. 1986b) described in the sheep and dog.

The qualitative characteristics of these spiny neurons in the giraffe lead to two general observations. First, apical dendritic morphology in the giraffe cortex closely resembles that in cetaceans (Butti et al. 2014b) insofar as most apical dendrites are either singular, or narrowly bifurcating after considerable distance from the soma. This is markedly different from the widely bifurcating, V-shaped apical dendrites documented in the elephant (Jacobs et al. 2011, Fig. 10). As such, at least some cetartiodactyls appear to fall between the largely single apical dendritic architecture exhibited by anthropoid primate and murid rodents (Escobar et al. 1986; Meyer 1987; de Lima et al. 1990; Innocenti and Vercelli 2010) and the widely bifurcating apical dendritic structure exhibited by elephants (Jacobs et al. 2011). Second, despite many similarities in spiny neurons between giraffes and cetaceans, there are also some clear differences insofar as several spiny neuron types documented in cetaceans do not appear in the present sample: (1) atypical variations of a variety of documented pyramidal neurons (i.e., inverted, flattened, multiapical, bitufted, and tri-tufted; Ferrer and Perera 1988; Marino et al. 2007; Butti et al. 2014b), and (2) Sternzelle, a multipolar, apical-less neuron that appears to be specific to the cetacean neocortex (Kraus and Pilleri 1969b). Such neuromorphological differences within cetartiodactyls, if real rather than the result of sampling biases, should not be surprising as clear differences in the complement of neuron morphological types have also been documented in the neocortex within other clades (e.g., Afrotheria, Bianchi et al. 2011).

Aspiny neurons

The current findings are consistent with the observation that the dendritic morphology of aspiny neurons appears highly conserved among mammals (Hof et al. 1999; Sherwood et al. 2009). Giraffe aspiny interneurons in the present sample were characterized by several well-recognized dendritic morphologies (e.g., multipolar, bitufted, and neurogliaform), which have been identified in several species (Ferrer et al. 1986a, b; Hassiotis and Ashwell 2003;

Povysheva et al. 2007; Bianchi et al. 2011; Jacobs et al. 2011), including cetaceans (Garey et al. 1985; Ferrer and Perera 1988; Butti et al. 2014b). These morphologies were similar across both primary motor and visual cortices. Quantitatively, the Vol and TDL of aspiny neurons in the giraffe were generally much smaller than in the humpback whale (Butti et al. 2014b). Giraffe multipolar and bitufted aspiny neurons had extensive dendritic radii ($\sim 500\text{--}600\ \mu\text{m}$, Fig. 8g) that are generally longer than documented in the rat (50–400 μm , Kawaguchi 1995), cat (50–400 μm , Peters and Regidor 1981; Somogyi et al. 1983), and echidna (100–400 μm , Hassiotis and Ashwell 2003). In comparison to cetaceans, the giraffe aspiny dendritic radius was longer than documented in the striped dolphin (100–300 μm , Ferrer and Perea 1988), bottlenose dolphin ($\sim 300\ \mu\text{m}$), and minke whale ($\sim 300\text{--}375\ \mu\text{m}$; Butti et al. 2014b), and about the same as that observed in the humpback whale ($\sim 470\text{--}575\ \mu\text{m}$, Butti et al. 2014b). The giraffe aspiny dendritic radius is roughly comparable to that observed in humans ($\sim 500\text{--}8,000\ \mu\text{m}$, Meyer 1987; Kisvárdy et al. 1990) and macaque monkeys ($\sim 500\ \mu\text{m}$, Lund and Lewis 1993), but smaller than the 1,000- μm length in the elephant (Jacobs et al. 2011).

Similar results obtained for the giraffe neurogliaform neurons, which appear to be larger than reported in some species (e.g., cat: Thompson and Bannister 2003; rat and monkey: Povysheva et al. 2007) but smaller than those observed in the elephant (Jacobs et al. 2011). In the present sample and consistent with the observations of Ferrer et al. (1986b), they exhibited many more primary dendritic branches than did other aspiny neurons, but their dendrites tended to be shorter. Comparison with cetacean neurogliaform neurons is not possible because there is only minimal reference to the possibility of this neuronal type in cetaceans (Glezer and Morgane 1990). Finally, the relatively large size of these giraffe interneurons, which are presumably γ -aminobutyric acid- (GABA-) ergic (Kisvárdy et al. 1986; Hof et al. 1996; The Petilla Interneuron Nomenclature Group et al. 2008), suggests the possibility of widespread inhibitory influences during cortical processing (Constantinidis et al. 2002).

Regional variation between giraffe motor and visual cortices

Although spiny neurons in motor cortex tended to exhibit greater dendritic extent and spine numbers than in visual cortex, there were too few of each neuronal type to allow for meaningful statistical comparisons. Even for pyramidal neurons, the differences in distribution measures among the four clusters demonstrated considerable variability in giraffe neuronal morphology. This conclusion

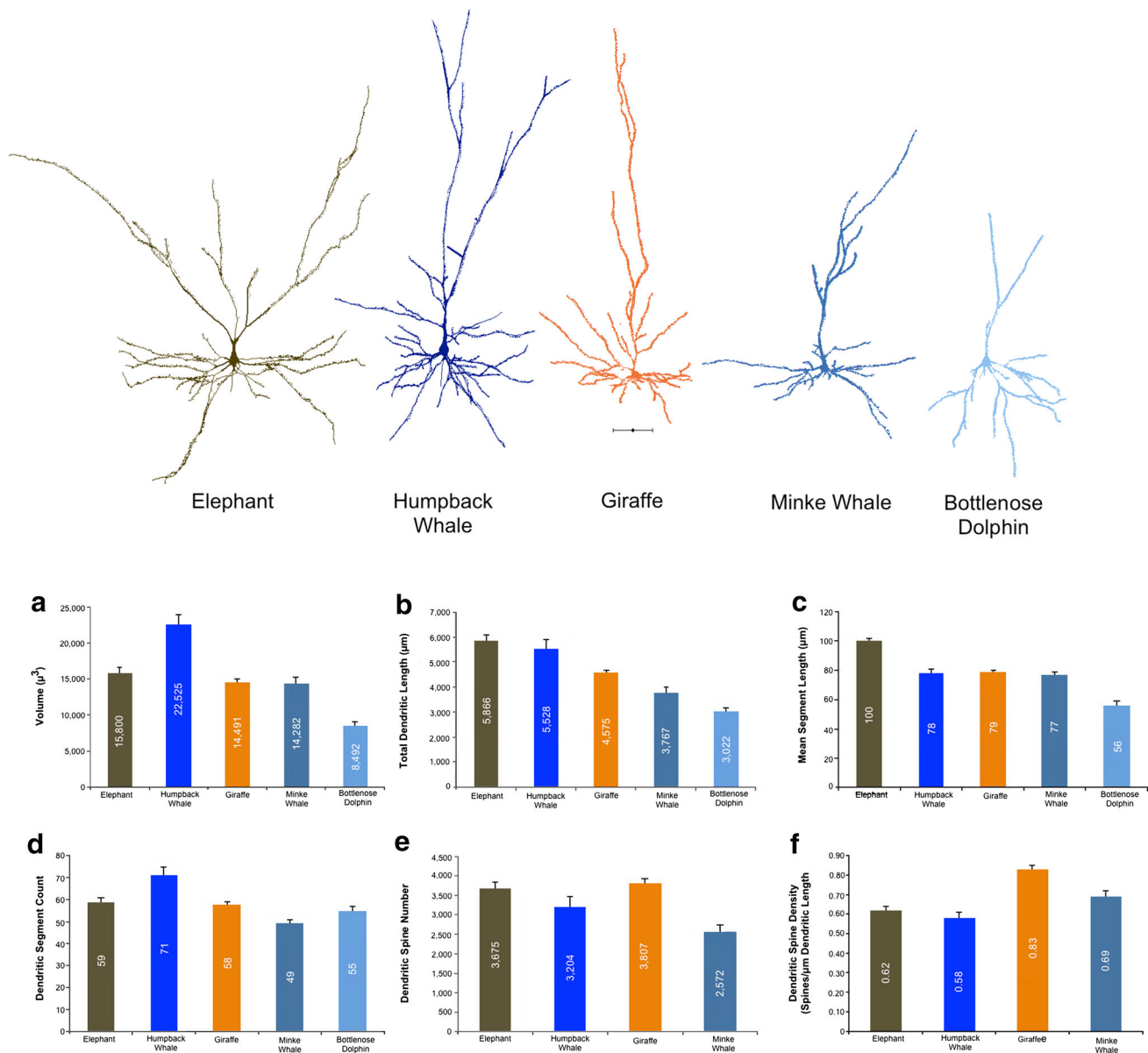


Fig. 10 NeuroLucida tracings of representative pyramidal neurons in the frontal cortex of the elephant, visual cortex in humpback whale, giraffe, and minke whale, and in anterior temporal cortex of bottlenose dolphin. Note the widely bifurcating apical dendrite in the elephant and the more narrowly bifurcating apical dendrites in cetartiodactyls. Neurons were chosen to represent the approximate averages for each species in terms of total dendritic length. Dependent measures of typical pyramidal neurons across each species are presented in *bar graphs* for relative Vol (a), total dendritic length, TDL (b), mean segment length, MSL (c), dendritic segment count,

DSC (d), dendritic spine number, DSN (e), and dendritic spine density, DSD (f). Note that the elephant data represent only superficial pyramidal neurons. Quantitative dendritic measures (Vol, TDL, MSL, DSC) indicate that the elephant and humpback whale generally had more extensive dendrites than giraffes, whereas minke whale and bottlenose dolphin had less extensive dendritic arbors. Spine measures (DSN, DSD) were highest in the giraffe and elephant, perhaps due to perfusion fixation and stain quality. Note that DSN and DSD for the bottlenose dolphin are not included due to poor impregnation. *Scale bar* 100 µm

was further supported by the significant differences in the decision tree results. The inability to fit models to the current giraffe data thus suggests that there are multiple sources of dendritic measure variability, and that the present results may be due to actual neural differences and/or may be artifacts of staining.

Quantitative comparison of pyramidal neurons across species

To further our understanding of the quantitative morphological characteristics of giraffe cortical neurons, we compared the current results with those from other species

Table 4 Demographics of species in pyramidal neuron comparisons arranged by brain mass (high to low)

	Elephant ^a	Humpback Whale ^b	Minke Whale ^b	Bottlenose Dolphin ^b	Giraffe
Age/sex	20–30 year-old adult males ($n = 2$)	Juvenile male ($n = 1$)	Young female ($n = 1$)	Adult, unknown age/gender ($n = 1$)	Sub-adult male ($n = 3$)
Fixation method ^c	Perfusion	Immersion (AT < 8 h)	Immersion (AT < 48 h)	Immersion (AT < 2 h)	Perfusion
Region sampled ^d	RH visual and frontal cortices	LH visual, frontal, anterior, and posterior temporal cortices	LH visual and motor cortices	LH visual and anterior temporal cortices	RH motor and visual cortices
Mean _{Soma depth} (μm) ^e	794 \pm 289	1,173 \pm 327	1,222 \pm 575	792 \pm 289	988 \pm 419
Mean _{Brain mass} (g)	4,990	3,603	1,810	1,250	539
Mean _{Soma size} (μm^2) ^f	516 \pm 123	524 \pm 98	370 \pm 84	357 \pm 140	324 \pm 96
$n_{\text{Pyramidal neurons}}$	40	20	24	33	143

^a From Jacobs et al. (2011)

^b From Butti et al. (2014b)

^c AT autolysis time

^d RH right hemisphere, LH left hemisphere

^e The soma depth (mean \pm SD) in the elephant is less because only superficial (as opposed to deeper) pyramidal neurons were included

^f Soma size is represented by mean \pm SD

quantified with the same methodology. Specifically, we compared the dendritic morphology of pyramidal neurons in the giraffe with the same measurements obtained from pyramidal neurons in different cortical regions of the African elephant and three cetacean species (bottlenose dolphin, minke whale, and humpback whale; see Table 4). Although these are clearly not ideal comparisons due to the number of uncontrolled factors (e.g., small sample size, subjects of different ages, regional and associated functional cortical variations, perfusion vs. immersion fixation), methodologically similar quantitative analyses provide at least a preliminary, relative measure for such comparisons among these species.

A total of 260 pyramidal neurons were compared for dendritic (Vol, TDL, MSL, DSC) and spine (DSN, DSD) measures, as well as for soma size (Table 4). Results are summarized graphically in Fig. 10. In terms of Vol, the humpback whale had much higher values than the other species, with the dolphin being the lowest (Fig. 10a). TDL revealed the giraffe to be roughly in the middle, the elephant and humpback whale at the upper end, and the minke whale and bottlenose dolphin at the lower end (Fig. 10b). MSL was lowest in the dolphin, but was much higher in the elephant than in the other species (Fig. 10c), which is consistent with previous observations suggesting that cortical neurons in the elephant are characterized by less branchy but particularly long dendrites (Jacobs et al. 2011). For DSC, the humpback whale value was higher than all of the other species, with the minke whale being lowest (Fig. 10d). Elephant and especially giraffe pyramidal neurons generally exhibited the highest spine values (Fig. 10e, f), perhaps reflecting the quality of the perfusion

fixation used for these brains, and subsequent high stain quality, over the immersion fixation for the cetacean brains (Morest and Morest 2005).

Although dendritic systems may scale with brain size within a particular lineage (Elston et al. 2006; Elston and Manger 2014), and although we have previously documented a consistent positive correlation between soma size and dendritic extent in humans (Jacobs et al. 2001, 2011), individual dendritic and spine measures do not consistently differentiate the species in the present sample. The current data cannot resolve whether dendritic measures scale with brain size across these diverse species, in part because (1) a confluence of several dendritic/spine measures may be needed to detect species differences (Jacobs et al. 2014), and/or (2) dendritic and especially spine measures are confounded by differential fixation and stain quality across brains. Nevertheless, there does appear to be a positive relationship between brain mass and soma size in some studies (Haug 1987; Purves 1988; Changizi 2001; Sherwood et al. 2003). In the present sample, soma size and brain mass increased in a similar manner (Table 4): giraffe < dolphin < minke whale < elephant and humpback whale. Indeed, a Spearman's rho correlation between soma size and brain mass was positive ($r_{(260)} = 0.52$, $p = 0.0001$). Further, Spearman's rho correlations between soma size and dendritic measures were positive for all measures except DSD (Vol: $r_{(260)} = 0.62$, $p = 0.0001$; TDL: $r_{(260)} = 0.49$, $p = 0.0001$; MSL: $r_{(260)} = 0.34$, $p = 0.0001$; DSC: $r_{(260)} = 0.32$, $p = 0.0001$; DSN: $r_{(260)} = 0.20$, $p = 0.001$; DSD: $r_{(260)} = -0.19$, $p = 0.002$). These findings contribute to existing data on the relationship between neuronal measures and brain

mass, a multifaceted relationship complicated by functional design principles and lineage-specific deviations (Haug 1987; Kaas 2000; Changizi 2001; Elston et al. 2001; Harrison et al. 2002; Wittenberg and Wang 2007).

In conclusion, the present study provides the first documentation of neuronal morphology in the giraffe neocortex, which exhibits a variety of extensively spiny neuron types arranged in a predominantly vertically oriented cortical architecture. Several similarities appear to exist between the giraffe and other cetartiodactyls. In particular, giraffe cortices, like those in cetaceans, but not other artiodactyls, exhibit pyramidal neurons with either singular or narrowly bifurcating apical dendritic shafts, and superficial layers that contain extraverted neurons. However, clear differences between giraffe and cetacean cortices are also apparent in the relative presence/absence of Sternzelle, neurogliaform neurons, crab-like neurons, and several pyramidal neuron variants (e.g. the tri-tufted pyramidal neuron). In these ways, giraffes may be more closely aligned with other artiodactyls than they are to cetaceans, although more comparative research is clearly required. Quantitatively, pyramidal neuron morphometry tentatively places giraffes in the middle of a cross-species comparison for dendritic measures, with the elephant and the humpback whale at the upper end, and the minke whale and dolphin at the lower end. Nevertheless, data are limited at this point because of methodological issues, with more extensive neuromorphological studies across a variety of large-brained mammals of different brain sizes required for a clearer picture to emerge.

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