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The phylogenetic position of many fossil platyrrhines with respect to extant ones is not yet clear. Two main hypotheses have been proposed: the *layered* or *successive radiations* hypothesis suggests that Patagonian fossils are Middle Miocene stem platyrrhines lacking modern descendants, whereas the *long lineage* hypothesis argues for an evolutionary continuity of all fossil platyrrhines with the extant ones. Our geometric morphometric analysis of a 15 landmark-based configuration of platyrrhines' first and second lower molars suggest that morphological stasis may explain the reduced molar shape variation observed. Platyrrhine lower molar shape might be a primitive retention of the ancestral state affected by strong ecological constraints throughout the radiation the main platyrrhine families. The Patagonian fossil specimens showed two distinct morphological patterns of lower molars, *Callicebus* -like and *Saguinus* -like, which might be the precursors of the extant forms, whereas the Middle Miocene specimens, though showing morphological resemblances with the Patagonian fossils, also displayed new, derived molar patterns, *Alouatta*- like and *Pitheciinae* -like, thereby suggesting that despite the overall morphological stasis of molars, phenotypic diversification of molar shape was already settled during the Middle Miocene.

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ABSTRACT

The phylogenetic position of many fossil platyrrhines with respect to extant ones is not yet clear. Two main hypotheses have been proposed: the *layered* or *successive radiations* hypothesis suggests that Patagonian fossils are Middle Miocene stem platyrrhines lacking modern descendants, whereas the *long lineage* hypothesis argues for an evolutionary continuity of all fossil platyrrhines with the extant ones. Our geometric morphometric analysis of a 15 landmark-based configuration of platyrrhines' first and second lower molars suggest that morphological stasis, may explain the reduced molar shape variation observed. Platyrrhine lower molar shape might be a primitive retention of the ancestral state affected by strong ecological constraints throughout the radiation the main platyrrhine families. The Patagonian fossil specimens showed two distinct morphological patterns of lower molars, *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like, which might be the precursors of the extant forms, whereas the Middle Miocene specimens, though showing morphological resemblances with the Patagonian fossils, also displayed new, derived molar patterns, *Alouatta*-like and *Pitheciinae*-like, thereby suggesting that despite the overall morphological stasis of molars, phenotypic diversification of molar shape was already settled during the Middle Miocene.

INTRODUCTION

Platyrrhine evolution is controversial. However, most researchers agree that they most likely constitute a monophyletic clade derived from African ancestors (Fleagle and Kay, 1997; Takai et al., 2000; Kay et al., 2004; Oliveira et al., 2009; Bond et al., 2015), although the phylogenetic position of some living taxa and the affinities of some fossil specimens are still uncertain. Currently, two different viewpoints have been proposed regarding the evolutionary history of the earliest platyrrhines and their overall relationships with extant forms. The “long lineages” hypothesis argues that the oldest known Patagonian fossils (16–20 Ma) are to be included within the extant Platyrrhines (Rosenberger, 1979, 1980, 1981, 1984; Rosenberger et al., 2009; Tejedor, 2013), whereas the “layered or successive radiations” hypothesis suggests that these fossils constitute a geographically isolated stem group, phylogenetically unrelated to the crown platyrrhines, that went extinct (along with some Antillean species) (Kay, 2010; 2014; Kay and Fleagle, 2010; Kay et al., 2008). According to Kay (2014), the divergence of modern lineages occurred in the tropics. The Late Oligocene and Early Miocene platyrrhines would have branched off from the ancestral lineage when climatic conditions in Patagonia became unfavorable and the Andean uplift was a potential barrier to their dispersal. However, Tejedor (2013) has suggested that *Chilecebus* (20 Ma), a fossil specimen (Tejedor, 2003) from the western Andean cordillera, south of Santiago de Chile, indicates that the Andean mountains did not constitute a biogeographic barrier. Tejedor (2013) argued that a paleobiogeographic corridor throughout western South America would have allowed for a continental connectivity between the north and the southernmost fossil platyrrhines. Unfortunately, dating of the fossil specimens and fossil-based approaches for calibrating the molecular phylogeny support both models. Perez et al. (2013) have estimated a crown platyrrhine origin at around 29 Ma (27–31), which allows

for the inclusion of the fossil Patagonian primates into a crown Platyrrhini lineage showing evolutionary continuity with the Middle Miocene lineages. In contrast, Hodgson et al. (2009) have dated their origin between 16.8 and 23.4 Ma, suggesting an unlikely relationship of the early Miocene fossils with the crown platyrrhine clade (but see different temporal models in Goodman et al., 1998; Opazo et al., 2006; Chatterjee et al. 2009; Perelman et al. 2011; Wilkinson et al. 2011; Jameson Kiesling et al. 2014).

Molar morphology has been widely used to determine the phylogenetic positions of extinct specimens with respect to living forms (e.g., Kay, 1990; Rosenberger et al., 1991a, b; Benefit, 1993; Meldrum and Kay, 1997; Miller and Simons, 1997; Horovitz and MacPhee, 1999; Kay and Cozzuol, 2006; Kay et al., 2008), since tooth development is under strong genetic control (Jernvall and Jung, 2000). Recent studies have reported that molar shapes carries strong phylogenetic signals, and can be useful tool for establishing taxonomic affinities between extant and extinct catarrhine primates (Nova Delgado et al., 2015a; Gamarra et al., 2016), and also in some Platyrrhine taxa (Nova Delgado et al., 2015b), with closely related species exhibiting common phenotypic traits.

Affinities of the fossil platyrrhine primates based on dental morphology

Until now, a total of 31 Early Miocene Platyrrhini fossil genera have been so far reported in the South American continent and the Caribbean: 11 in La Venta (Colombia), 8 in the Argentinian Patagonia, 4 in the Greater Antilles, 5 in Brazil, and 1 each in Chile, Bolivia and Peru (Tejedor, 2013; Bond et al., 2015). *Neosaimiri*, *Laventiana* (La Venta, Colombia) and *Dolichocebus* (Chubut Province, Argentina) have been included in Cebinae (Rosenberger, 2011). *Neosaimiri* is considered a direct ancestor of the extant *Saimiri* due to its similar molar shape (Rosenberger et

al., 1990a; 1991a). Its molars exhibit sharp cusps, well-developed distal cusps, buccal cingulum, a strong buccal flare, and a distinct post-entoconid notch on molars only found in *Saimiri* and *Laventiana* (Rosenberger et al., 1991a, 1991b; Takai, 1994; Tejedor, 2008). *Laventiana* is sometimes considered a synonym of *Neosaimiri* (Takai, 1994; Meldrum and Kay, 1997), although it has been suggested to be more primitive than *Neosaimiri* (Rosenberger et al., 1991b). *Laventiana*'s teeth closely resemble those of *Saimiri* and *Cebus-Sapajus*; it shows thick-enamel bunodont molars exhibiting a small buccal cingulum and an angular cristid obliqua, lacking buccal flare (Rosenberger et al., 1991b). *Dolichocebus* has been suggested to be a member of the *Saimiri* lineage, mainly for its interorbital fenestra considered a derived feature in squirrel monkeys (Tejedor, 2008; Rosenberger et al., 2009; Rosenberger, 2010). However, Kay and colleagues (Kay et al., 2008; Kay and Fleagle, 2010) argued that *Dolichocebus* is a stem platyrrhine and that the description of the orbital region was probably affected by postmortem damage.

On the other hand, *Aotus dindensis* was first described as a sister taxon of extant *Aotus* (Setoguchi and Rosenberger, 1987), although Kay (1990) has suggested that it is probably conspecific with *Mohanamico hershkovitzi*, which may be closely related to the callitrichines, especially *Callimico*, due to their morphological similarities in the canine and the second premolar. *Aotus dindensis* is included into the Pitheciidae (Rosenberger et al., 1990a) within the Homunculinae subfamily, along with *Aotus*, *Callicebus* and some Argentinian and Caribbean fossil primates (Rosenberger, 1981, 2002, 2011). However, molecular phylogenetic analyses have repeatedly rejected a link between *Aotus* and Pitheciids (e.g. Hodgson et al., 2009; Osterholz et al., 2009; Wildman et al., 2009), placing it as a basal cebid. Tejedor and Rosenberger (2008) proposed that *Homunculus* is likely an ancestral pitheciid because although

it shows a primitive dental morphology, it notably resembles that of *Callicebus*. The two taxa show rectangular-shaped molars, small incisors and non-projecting canines, a trait shared with *Carlocebus* (Fleagle, 1990). Nonetheless, unlike *Callicebus*, the molars of *Homunculus* exhibit well-marked crests and prominent cusps (Tejedor, 2013), and an unusual paraconid on the lower first molar (also found in *Dolichocebus*; Kay et al., 2008). Another fossil from the early Miocene known as *Soriacebus* was initially included by Rosenberger (1990) as an early pitheciinae, due to its resemblance on the anterior dentition (Fleagle et al., 1987; Fleagle, 1990; Fleagle and Tejedor, 2002; Tejedor, 2005). However, some dental traits of *Soriacebus* (premolars-molars size, lower molar trigonid, and reduction hypocone) bear resemblance also with the callitrichines. Indeed, Kay (1990) argues that such similarities traits found between *Soriacebus* and pitheciins or with callitrichines are due to homoplasy, rather than phylogenetic relationships among such lineages (Kay, 1990). According to Kay (1990) *Soriacebus*, *Carlocebus*, *Homunculus* as all Patagonian fossils should be considered stem platyrrhines.

Xenothrix is a Late Pleistocene Caribbean fossil from Jamaica that shows a callitrichine-like dental formula (2132; MacPhee and Horovitz, 2004), low relief molars and a narrowing of intercuspal distance and augmentation of the mesial and distal crown breadths (Cooke et al., 2011), a feature also seen in *Insulacebus toussaintiana*, another Caribbean primate. Rosenberger (2002) argued that *Xenothrix* is closely related to *Aotus* and *Tremacebus* by the enlargement of the orbits and the central incisors, while MacPhee and Horovitz (2004) suggested a possible Pitheciidae affinity, due to its low relief molar pattern. Nonetheless, the puffed cusps and the lack of crenulation on the molar crown discriminate the Jamaican fossil from the Pitheciidae, suggesting that is likely that *Xenothrix* does not belong to crown platyrrhine group (Kay, 1990; Kinzey, 1992).

Cebupithecia and *Nuciruptor*, two Colombian Middle Miocene genera, also share some traits with the extant Pitheciidae family, mostly in the anterior dentition but also in their low molar cusps and poorly developed crests (Kay, 1990; Meldrum and Kay, 1997). *Nuciruptor* does not exhibit several of the shared traits among Pitheciines (projecting canine and small or absent diastema). *Cebupithecia*, although considered to be more derived than *Nuciruptor* (Meldrum and Kay 1997), was interpreted by Meldrum and Kay (1997) as an example of convergent evolution and, thus, not a direct ancestor of extant pitheciines. Finally, *Stirtonia* (originally from Colombia but also recovered from Acre State, Brazil) exhibits similar dental size and morphology to extant *Alouatta*; showing molar teeth with sharp and well-formed crests, a long cristid oblique, small trigonid, and spacious talonid basin (Hershkovitz 1970; Kay et al., 1987; Kay and Frailey, 1993; Kay and Cozzuol, 2006; Kay, 2014).

Numerous studies have examined landmark-based geometric morphometrics (GM) of molar shape for studying patterns of inter-specific variation and their implication in phylogeny and ecological adaptations (e.g., Bailey 2004; Cook 2011; Gómez-Robles et al., 2007, 2008, 2011; Martínón-Torres et al., 2006; Singleton et al., 2011; White 2009 Nova Delgado et al., 2015a,b; Gamarra et al., 2016). However, in Platyrrhine primates, GM of molar shape has mainly focused on dietary adaptations (Cooke, 2011), rather than to predict the phylogenetic attribution of unclassified specimens (Nova Delgado et al., 2015a).

The aim of the present study is to use two-dimensional (2D) GM to quantify and analyze occlusal shape variation of lower molars (M_1 and M_2) of extant Platyrrhini primates to assess the affinities of the Patagonian, Colombian and Antillean fossil taxa with the extant forms and to estimating the efficiency of molar shape for discriminating fossil specimens.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

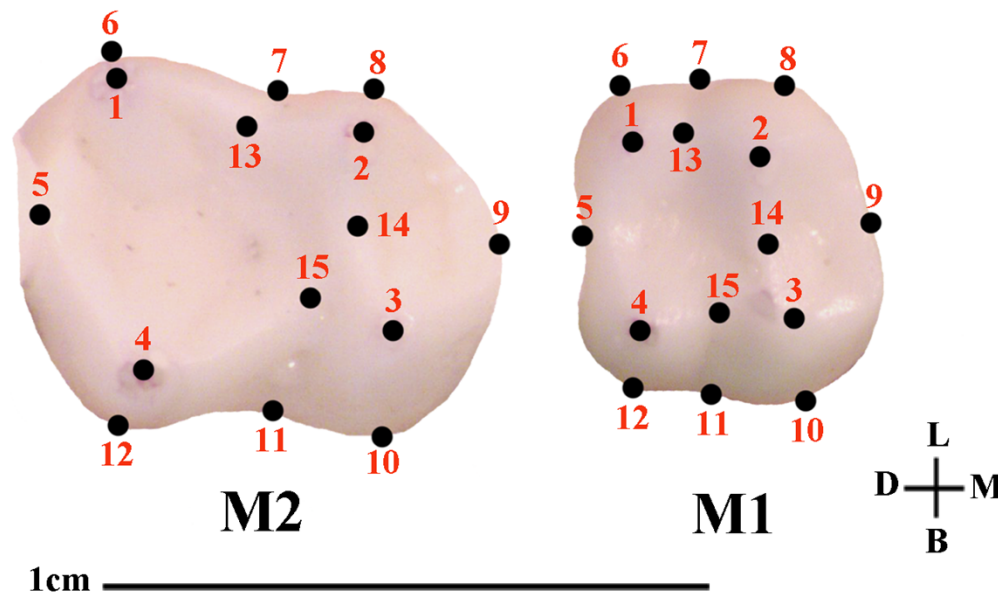
Images of the dental crowns, in occlusal view and including a scale line, of 12 holotypes fossil platyrrhine specimens and one fossil from Fayum (*Proteopithecus sylviae*), were obtained from the literature (Table 2). The platyrrhine fossil specimens included 12 genera (*Soriacebus*, *Dolichocebus*, *Homunculus*, *Carlocebus*, *Neosaimiri*, *Laventiana*, *Mohanamico*, *Aotus*, *Stirtonia*, *Nuciraptor*, *Cebupithecia*, and *Xenothrix*), discovered in Argentina, Colombia and Jamaica, and dated to between Holocene and early Miocene (Table 1).

The extant comparative samples consisted in 802 adult individuals representing all recognized platyrrhine groups (3 families, 18 genera, 61 species,; Table 2), whose 2D and 3D morphometric variability of lower molars has already been analysed in some platyrrhine species (Nova Delgado et al., 2015b). Dental casts were obtained from original specimens housed at Museu de Zoologia Universidade de São Paulo (MZPS), Museu Nacional do Rio de Janeiro (MNRJ) in Brazil, and from Hacienda La Pacífica (HLP) in Costa Rica. The casts were made following published protocols (see Galbany et al., 2004, 2006). 2D images of molar occlusal surfaces of the extant specimens were taken with a Nikon D70 digital camera fitted with a 60-mm optical lens held horizontally on the stand base, at a minimum distance of 50 cm. The dental crown was imaged with a 0° of tilt with the cervical line perpendicular to the camera focus (Nova Delgado et al., 2015a). Images of fossil dental crowns were obtained from the literature and imported to Adobe Photoshop, where they were scaled to the same resolution (400 dpi). The images both for the extant and the fossil specimens were scaled to 5mm and standardized to right side, with the mesial border facing to the right, the distal border to the left, and the lingual and buccal sides facing upward and downward, respectively. All images were saved at high resolution (1600 × 1200 pixel) in JPEG format.

Geometric morphometric analysis

Geometric Morphometrics (GM) quantifies shape differences between biological structures using a set of digitized homologous points (landmarks) in two-dimensional or three-dimensional spaces (Bookstein 1991; Adams et al. 2004; Slice 2005). Landmarks are numerical values (coordinates) that reflect the location and orientation of each specimen in the morphospace (Slice, 2007). The two-dimensional (2D) landmark protocol used in this study has been previously used in different research performed in molars of catarrhines and platyrrhines (Nova Delgado et al., 2015a, b; Gamarra et al., 2016), which included the same standardized definitions scaled and orientation. The configuration consisted of 15 landmarks: molar occlusal polygon was defined by the four tips of the cusps (protoconid, metaconid, hypoconid and entoconid). The crown outline was represented by eight landmarks, which included two landmarks on fissure intersections; four corresponding to maximum crown curvatures; and two in the mid mesio-distal line on the crown perimeter. Further, three landmarks were used to represent the positions of crests (Table 3 and Fig. 1) (Cooke, 2011). Landmark recording was performed with TPSDig v 1.40 (Rohlf, 2004) and landmark coordinates were then imported into MorphoJ (Klingenberg, 2011). The most commonly employed method to remove the information unrelated to shape variation is the generalized procrustes analysis (GPA) (Rohlf, 1999, 2005). GPA is based on a least squares superimposition approach that involves scaling, translation and rotation effects so that the distances between the corresponding landmarks are minimized (Rohlf and Slice, 1990; Goodall, 1991; Rohlf and Marcus 1993; Rohlf, 1999; Adams et al., 2004). After the procrustes superimposition, the covariance matrix of all the compared shapes is used to derive a Principal Components Analysis (PCA) (Zelditch et al., 2004).

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196

197 **Figure 1.** Set of landmarks used in the geometric morphometrics analyses. a) M₂; *Alouatta*
 198 *guariba* 23177 MNRJ; b) M₁; *Sapajus libidinosus* 23246 MNRJ.

199

200 The PCA of M₁ and M₂ morphometric variability of the extant species were used to explore

201 dental affinities of fossil specimens within the extant comparative platyrrhine sample. The

202 resulting PCs were used to conduct Linear Discriminant Function analysis (LDA). ~~Because~~ PCA

203 transforms original high-dimensional data, and removes the irrelevant and redundant dimensions

204 (Zelditch et al., 2004). LDA maximizes differences between groups but allows classifying

205 isolated cases based on their distances to the group centroids of the extant taxa. The probability

206 that a case belongs to a particular group is proportional to the distance to the group centroid

207 (Kovarovic et al., 2011). The reliability of the classification was estimated from the *post-hoc*

208 correct classification probability after cross-validation (*pcc*), and the *a posteriori* probability

209 score was used as the probability that a fossil belongs to a particular group. Several LDAs were

made considering different discriminant factors: 1) family (Cebidae, Atelidae, Pitheciidae), 2) the subfamily-level classification proposed by Groves (2005) (Subfamily G) (Cebinae, Saimiriinae, Callitrichinae, Pitheciinae, Callicebinae, Aotinae, Atelinae, Alouattinae), 3) the subfamily classification by Rosenberger (2011) (Subfamily R) (Cebinae, Callitrichinae, Pitheciinae, Homunculinae, Atelinae) (Table 4), and 4) a genus level (*Cebus*, *Sapajus*, *Saimiri*, *Callithrix*, *Mico*, *Cebuella*, *Callimico*, *Leontopithecus*, *Saguinus*, *Aotus*, *Callicebus*, *Cacajao*, *Chiropotes*, *Pithecis*, *Lagothrix*, *Brachyteles*, *Atelles*, *Allouatta*). The LDA analyses were carried out with SPSS v.15 (SPSS, Inc. 2006).

RESULTS

Principal components analyses

The first two PCs of the PCA analysis of M_1 for all platyrrhines (Fig. 2) explain 42.06 % of total shape variance (PC1 30.60%; PC2 11.46%). Positive scores on PC1 correspond to molars with a broad occlusal polygons and a mesiodistally rectangular outline; whereas a negative PC1 score are characterized by a relatively quadrangular outline and slight buccolingually rectangular occlusal polygon resulted by displacement of distal cusps (entoconid and hypoconid) to mesiolingually and mesial cusps (metaconid and protoconid) to distal-lingually side respectively. Positive scores on PC2 molar indicate a rectangular occlusal polygon and a mesiodistally rectangular outline, whereas negative score on PC2 reflect molars with relatively quadrangular outline and slight rectangular occlusal polygon more widely displaced to buccally side.

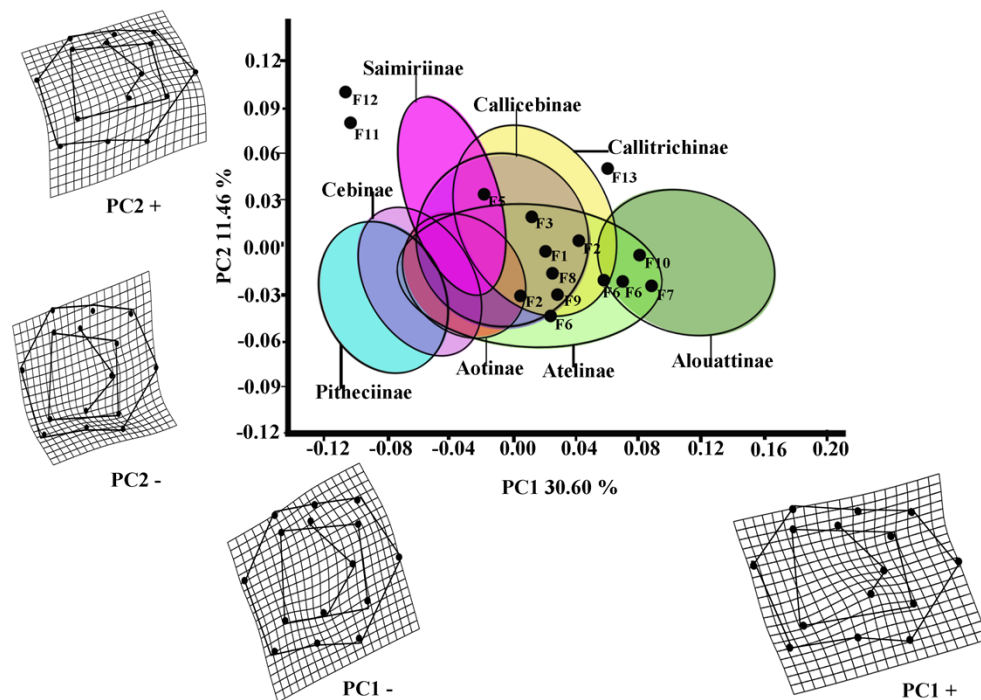
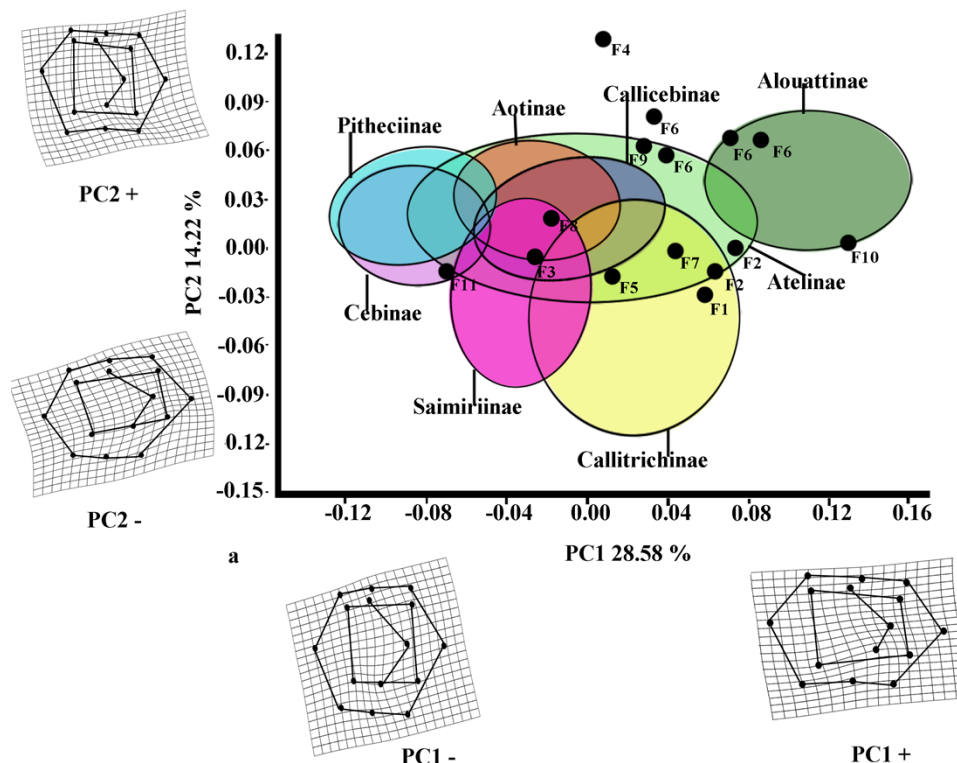


Figure 2. Scatterplot of the first two principal components (PCs) derived from the PCA of M_1 shape variability of Platyrrhini. Grids indicate the deformations associated with the extreme values of each principal component. Ellipses represent the subfamily-level classification proposed by Groves (2005). The letters F and numbers in figure represent the fossils listed in Table 1.

Despite the PCA does not discriminate groups, the plot of PC1 versus PC2 (Fig. 2, including 95% confidence ellipses of the subfamily groups) shows differences between subfamilies. Alouattinae clearly cluster on the positive scores of PC1, whereas contrast Pitheciinae and Cebinae greatly overlap on the most negative score of PC1. The rest of the groups (Saimiriinae, Callicebinae, Callitrichidae, Atellidae and Aotinae) show intermediate values for PC1 and greatly overlap. For the second PC function (PC2), all groups greatly overlap, though

Saimirinae, Callitrichinae and Callicebinae show somewhat higher PC2 scores than the rest. Most of the fossil specimens showed positive PC1 scores, except *Carlocebus* (F5) and especially *Nuciruptor* (F11) and *Cebupithecia* (F12) that had negative PC1 and positive PC2 scores. Most extinct forms overlapped with the extant platyrrhines, within Callicebinae, Callitrichinae and Atellinae, except *Xenothrix* (F13), *Nuciruptor* and *Cebupithecia*.

The first two PCs for M₂ (Fig. 3) accounted for 42.80% of the total variance (PC1: 28.58%; PC2: 14.22%). The molar shape changes for positive and negative PC1 scores for M₂ were relatively similar to those observed for M₁, whereas positive PC2 scores for M₂ corresponded to the negative ones on PC2 for M₁, and negative ones on PC2 for M₂ were equivalent to the positive score of PC2 for M₁. The PC1 *versus* PC2 plot (Fig. 3) showed similar distributions of the subfamilies to those for M₁, although greater separations between groups were observed. Alouattinae showed the largest, positive scores for PC1, and Pitheciinae and Cebinae the most negative scores, with the other groups showing again intermediate values. Callitrichinae and Saimiriinae were placed mainly on the negative score of the PC2 axis, although overlapped somewhat with the other groups. Most fossil specimens again clustered on positive scores for PC1 and PC2, mainly within the dispersion of Callitrichinae, although *Stirtonia* (F10), and some specimens of *Neosaimiri* clearly fell within the Alouattinae clade, *Dolichocebus* (F3) within Saimiriinae, and *Nuciruptor* (F11) was closer to Cebinae and Pitheciinae on the negative scores of PC1. *Homunculus* (F4) did not fall at all within any extant taxa, showing highly positive PC2 scores.



266

267 **Figure 3.** Scatterplot of the first two principal components (PCs) derived from the PCA of M₂
 268 shape variability of Platyrrhini. Grids indicate the deformations associated with the extreme
 269 values of each principal component. Ellipses represent the subfamily-level classification
 270 proposed by Groves (2005). The letters F and numbers in figure represent the fossils listed in
 271 Table 1.

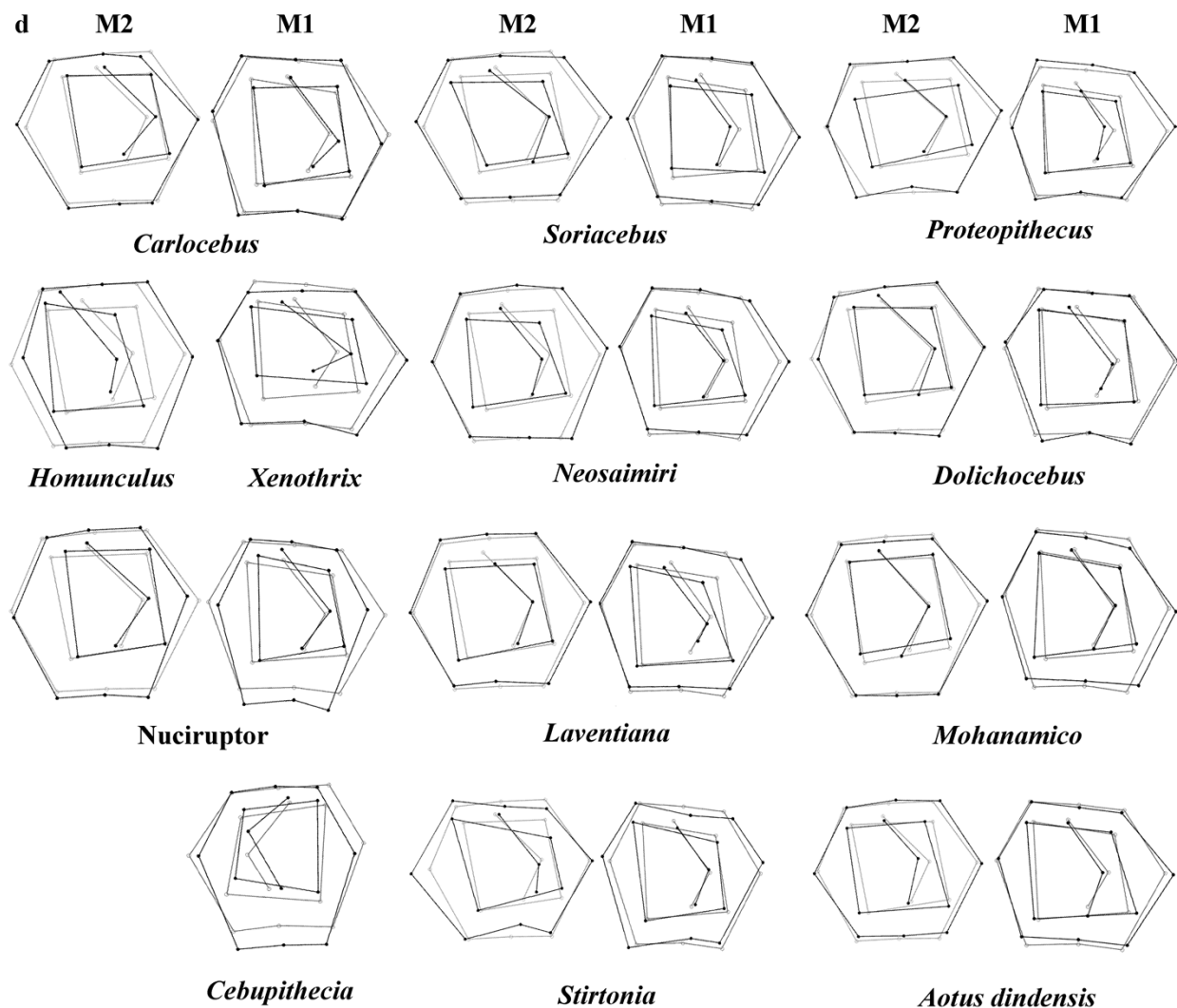
272 Discriminant analyses of the fossil specimens

273 The *post-hoc* percentages of correct classification after cross-validation (*pcc*) were high both
 274 for M₁ (Table 4a, range = [85.7–88.0%]) and M₂ (Table 4b, range = [84.7–90.6%]). In both
 275 cases the highest *pcc* value was obtained when Groves' *subfamily* factor was discriminated. The
 276 range of differences between *pcc* values before and after cross-validation was [1.3–4.7] and in
 277 both teeth the *genus* discriminant factor showed the highest decrease in *pcc*. The difference in *pcc*
 278 values between Groves' (Cebinae, Saimiriinae, Callitrichinae, Pitheciinae, Callicebinae, Aotinae,

Atelinae, Alouattinae) and Rosenberger's (Cebinae, Callitrichinae, Pitheciinae, Homunculinae, Atelinae) *pcc* values were 2.3% for M_1 and 1.6% for M_2 (Table 5). The percentage of total variance explained by the first two discriminant functions (DF1, DF2; Table 4) for all discriminant factors ranged from 63.3% (*genus*) to 100% (*family*) for M_1 , and from 66.1% (*genus*) to 100% (*family*) for M_2 . The highest percentage of total variance explained by DF1 was 56.0% (*family*) for M_1 and 68.3% (*family*) for M_2 , and the highest one for DF2 was 44.0% (*family*) for M_1 and 32.8% (*subfamily R*) for M_2 .

Regarding the classification of the fossils specimens, the ranges of the *a priori* classification probabilities varied depending on the discriminant factor used (Table 5; Fig. 4 shows the landmark configurations of the fossil specimens analysed). *Mohanamico* showed a high probability of belonging to the callitrichines clade, as well as *Carlocebus*, although the probability was smaller for M_2 . Both *Neosaimiri* and *Soriacebus* showed high probabilities of belonging to the callitrichines for M_1 , though to Callicebinae/ Homunculinae for M_2 . *Cebupithecia* (M_2 not available) and *Nuciruptor* neotypes showed a high probability of belonging to the pitheciid clade in LDAs. In contrast, *Xenothrix* (M_2 not available) likely belonged to *Callithrix*, despite in the PCA this fossil specimen did not fall within Callitrichinae range. *Stirtonia* was assigned to the Atelidae clade, and to *Alouatta* at the genus level, except for Rosenberger' *subfamily* factor for M_2 . *Laventiana* was also classified into the atelids for M_1 , but was more closely related to callitrichines for M_2 . *Aotus dindensis* showed a high probability of belonging to *Aotus* taxa for M_1 , but *Callicebus* was the group with the greatest affinity for M_2 . Finally, *Proteopithecus* showed a high resemblance with *Saimiri* for M_1 , but with *Callimico* for M_2 .

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304

305 **Figure 4.** First and second molar shapes of the extinct fossil platyrrhines used in this study.

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307

308 DISCUSSION

309 The positions of the anthropoid form *Proteopithecus sylviae* (F1) in the morphospace and its

310 molar shapes showed pattern resemblance to that of platyrrhines. However, because many dental

and postcranial features of *P. sylviae* are considered to be symplesiomorphic characters of all anthropoids, so it is placed as the stem anthropoid (Kay, 1990, 2014). The recent discovery of *Perupithecus ucayaliensis*, probably from the Late Eocene, suggests that this fossil exhibits similarities with *Proteopithecus*, also with *Talahpithecus* and Oligopithecidae (Bond et al., 2015). The upper molars of *Perupithecus* are slightly resembled to the callitrichines, but its morphology is more similar with *Proteopithecus* and *Talahpithecus* (Bond et al., 2015). *Proteopithecus sylviae* differed from the extant and extinct platyrrhines in having a molar distomesially expanded, marked by a rectangular shape of the occlusal polygon (especially on M₂) (also seen in *Xenothrix*). Thus, if the Fayum form likely was a sister taxon to platyrrhines, the interspecific variation of shape would have shown relatively little change. This could mean that the main traits of molars shapes in platyrrhines represent retention of a primitive ancestral form. Moreover, the LDA showed a high probability of *P. sylviae* belonging to the Cebidae clade, suggesting that the molar of the earliest ancestors of platyrrhines must have exhibited close similarity to *Saimiri-Callimico*. This resemblance matches with the description of an Oligocene primate fossil found in South America, *Branisella* (Rosenberger, 2002; Rosenberger et al., 2009), whose morphology indicates that the structural characteristics of M₂ may have been *Saimiri*-like, and the upper P² a *Callimico*-like (Rosenberger, 1980). However, both molar shapes of *P. sylviae* were more closely resembles to *Callimico* than *Saimiri*. Furthermore, the subtriangular upper molars of *Perupithecus*, show relative similarity with *Callimico* (Bond et al., 2015). Thus, if *P. sylviae* was a sister taxon of platyrrhines, is likely that the hypothetical ancestral molar shape of pre-platyrrhine would have been similar to a molar of *Callimico*. By contrast, if *P. sylviae* was a stem species, *Callimico* would show retention of primitive pre-anthropoid platyrrhine molar shape.

Early Miocene platyrrhines from Patagonia

The fossils recovered from Early Miocene strata have been highly debated by Kay (1990, 2010, 2014), who argued that most of the traits used to identify phylogenetic affinities show high levels of homoplasy. The present work alone cannot reject the successive radiations or the long lineages hypotheses, nor can confirm which ~~of both~~ is correct. However, studying phenotypic similarities and differences of molar shapes, allowed us to explore morphological patterns between extinct and extant taxa. For example, the PCA indicated that the two PCs did not have a large variance, however can observe differences to subfamily levels (Fig. 2 and 3). Also, although fossils were not very spread out in the morphospace, many of them were located mainly into Calicebinae and Callitrichinae range (except to *Homunculus* for M₂). This means that the main traits observed in fossil platyrrhines are related to affinities for both subfamilies.

The Early Miocene fossils were mainly assigned to two taxa by the LDA; ~~a~~-*Calicebus*-shaped and ~~a~~-*Sagunus*-shaped. For example, *Dolichocebus* (F3) were classified as a pitheciid, mainly by having a square occlusal polygon (Table 4). However, although the PCA for M₁ placed this specimen in the Calicebinae range, a morphological similarity with Saimiriinae was seen for M₂ (Fig. 3a). In contrast, *Soriacebus* (F2) was related mainly to the callitrichine clade, but for M₂ the probability of belonging to this group was small (Table 4). Because, *Soriacebus* showed a rectangular occlusal polygon on M₂ and the ectoconid was inclined distolingually. Regarding callitrichines, although *Soriacebus* also showed differences in cusp configuration, the callitrichines and *Soriacebus* share a C-shaped distal side and a somewhat straight lingual-side contour (mostly seen in *Saguinus*). Kay (1990) reported that many dental features of marmosets and *Soriacebus* were convergent. In contrast, Rosenberger et al. (1990b) suggested that there are

some similarities with callitrichines (development of hypoconids and entoconids in the talonid). However, based on the anterior teeth, they concluded that *Soriacebus* represents the first branch of pitheciines. Although marmosets are considered derived lineages (e.g. Chatterjee et al., 2009; Perelman et al., 2009; Jameson Kiesling et al., 2014), it is likely that the relation with *Soriacebus* may be due to the fact that callitrichines exhibit primitive traits on their molars, which means that both taxa share a retention of rectangular contour and occlusal polygon shape. In the case of *Carlocebus* (F5), it was classified as a Callitrichinae in the DFA. However, it has been shown to be more similar with *Callicebus* than marmosets, such as the shape contour and quadrate alignment of cusps in both molars. *Homunculus* (F4), was placed outside the range of Patagonian forms in the PCA (Fig. 2a), whereas the LDA indicated a high probability of belonging to Pitheciidae (ca. 91–99%; Table 4), and especially to *Calliecebus*. Nonetheless, *Homunculus* molar showed an asymmetrical shape compared to pitheciid forms. Furthermore, unlike pitheciids, *Homunculus* cusps were predominantly inclined toward the distal side and the trigonid was almost as broad as the basin-like talonid, which means that although sharing some traits with pitheciids, its position is highly uncertain.

Middle Miocene platyrrhines from Colombia and the Caribbean Xenothrix

Many of these fossils were mostly catalogued as callitrichines, specifically into the *Saguinus* clade, except *Nuciruptor*, *Cebupithecia*, *Aotus dindensis*, and *Stirtonia*. One of the major differences between these primates and the extant forms (excepting *Alouatta* and *Brachyteles*) was the rectangular-shaped molar (see *Xenothrix* below). This phenetic similarity among phylogenetically distinct groups of extinct primates indicates that a rectangular-shaped molar almost certainly represents a plesiomorphy in the Patagonian fossils. Thus, the trend toward ovoid molar

shape might be a derived feature in many living forms. *Laventania* (F7) exhibited distally oriented cusps on M_1 , showing considerable resemblance with some atelid groups, which provided a confusing classification between atelids and *Callicebus* in the LDA (Table 5). Thus, the trend to rectangular shape for M_1 in *Laventania* differs notably from the phylogenetic relationship with Cebinae and Saimiriinae. Nonetheless, when M_2 was analyzed, the fossil was classified as member of the Callitrichinae clade. As with *Laventania*, some neotypes of *Neosaimiri* (F6) were classified in completely distant taxonomic groups (Table 4). However, despite these results, *Neosaimiri* was principally associated to the Cebidae family, although the molar shape was found to have more affinities with callitrichines than *Saimiri*. On the other hand, *Mohanamico* (F8) and *Aotus dindensis* (F9) have been considered by Kay and collaborators (Meldrum and Kay, 1997; Kay 2014) to belong to the same genus, despite Takai et al. (2009) suggested that *A. dindensis* should be assigned to distinct genus. According to their molar shape, *Mohanamico* and *A. dindensis* may be classified into different species. Both fossils showed a relative rectangular shape of the outline, as well as in the occlusal polygon, although M_2 in both species were slightly square shaped. In fact, PCA for M_1 (Fig. 2a) showed that the two forms were placed closer to each other. Thus, similar molar shape might be due to the fact that the two forms must have shared relatively similar ecological niches, likely because *Mohanamico* and *A. dindensis* were found in the same locality and at the same stratigraphic level (Kay, 1990). However, the LDA indicated that the probability of classification was different for both groups. *Aotus dindensis* was mainly related to *Aotus/Callicebus*, whereas *Mohanamico* was assigned to Callitrichinae (Table 4). In the case of *Nuciruptor* (F11) and *Cebupithecia* (F12), the occlusal views in both species were relatively rounded, with a slightly rectangular alignment of cusps, and buccally oriented, which resembles the condition in most extant Pitheciinae.

Moreover, the LDA indicated that *Cebupithecia* and *Nuciruptor* had a close affinity with the Pitheciidae clade (Table 4). However, despite the two neotypes clustered close to the pitheciids, they were not placed into the extant species range (except *Nuciruptor* on M₂) (Fig. 2a). Several studies have suggested that, although there are important characteristics that have been associated with the living taxa, both fossils should be considered stem pitheciines (Meldrum and Kay, 1997; Kay et al., 2013; Kay, 2014).

The sister relationship between *Stirtonia* and *Alouatta* was classified in the LDA with a 99.9% probability for M₁ and 94.0% for M₂. Likewise, the PCA showed that *Stirtonia* was placed close to howler monkeys (Figs. 2a and 3a). However, differences between *Stirtonia* and *Alouatta* were mainly seen in the occlusal polygon of M₂. The metaconid of *Stirtonia* was located near the protoconid and the ectoconid was distolingually inclined, somewhat similar to the *Cebuella* configuration. This relationship was reflected in the high percentage of probability at the subfamily level, Callitrichinae (Table 5).

Finally, *Xenothrix* (F13), the Caribbean platyrrhine form, has been allied with pitheciids (Rosenberger, 2002; Horovitz and MacPhee, 1999). In the LDA, *Xenothrix* was mainly attributed to pitheciids, but at the genus level, it was assigned to *Callithrix* (Table 4). Thus, some resemblance with marmosets could be interpreted as convergent evolution. However, the relationship between *Xenothrix* and pitheciids was highly uncertain, given that its molar morphology (especially the occlusal configuration) differs from that of the pitheciids. It is likely that *Xenothrix* could be a single branch that evolved independent of crown platyrrhines, as was suggested by some investigations that proposed an early Antillen arrival (Iturralde-Vinent and MacPhee, 1999; MacPhee and Iturralde-Vinent, 1995; MacPhee and Horovitz, 2004; Kay et al., 2011; Kay, 2014).

426 The slow rate of phenotypic changes on molar shapes suggests that morphological stasis
 427 (different concept to long lineages hypothesis) explains the low interspecific variation between
 428 extinct and extant lineages and between Early Miocene platyrrhines (including *P. sylviae*) and
 429 forms from La Venta, in comparison to extinct and extant catarrhines (Nova Delgado et al.,
 430 2015a; Gamarra et al., 2016). This small phenotypic variation could be due to development and
 431 functional constraints, given the role in occlusion and mastication (Gómez-Robles and Polly
 432 2012). Further, due to the relative low diversification in diet of platyrrhines (for example
 433 compared with carnivores). This ecological constraint may be related to the fact that the
 434 phenotypic adaptation of main platyrrhine families could have happened in Amazon rainforest
 435 (Jameson Kiesling et al. 2014). Following an African origin scenario, and taking into account
 436 the phenotypic similarity of the most recent discovered and oldest fossil found in Peru,
 437 *Perupithecus* (Bond et al., 2015), it is likely that the ancestor of extant platyrrhines could have
 438 exhibited a *Callimico*-like molar shape. We also observed that *Saguinus* and *Callicebus* were the
 439 main assigned groups for Patagonian fossils by LDA, also in the PCA. It could mean that: there
 440 were a *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like morphology in early stem platyrrhines, or that both
 441 taxa represent the earliest offshoot Patagonian molar shapes. Currently, *Callicebus* and *Saguinus*
 442 present relatively high diversity of species and geographic range (Rylands and Mittermeier
 443 2009). The *Callicebus* and *Saguinus* species richness probably are related to expansion and
 444 diversification of both clades in the Amazon basin, during the period of platyrrhine evolution
 445 (Ayres and Clutton-Brock, 1992; Boubli et al., 2015). Thus, it is feasible that *Callicebus*, as well
 446 as *Saguinus*, molar shape would be an ancestral precursor for the existing forms. Moreover, the
 447 Middle Miocene platyrrhines indicate continuity in molar shape pattern with the early fossils,

incorporating also new molar shapes not observed in the Patagonian forms: the *Alouatta*-like and the Pitheciinae-like forms.

CONCLUSIONS

This study develops a dental model based on molar shapes of M_1 and M_2 to explore phenotypic variation in extinct and extant platyrrhines. Our results showed that morphological stasis explains the low phenotypic changes in extinct and extant platyrrhine, probably due to the ecological constraint, causing by phenotypic adaptation of platyrrhine in a relative narrow ecological niche. Early and Middle Miocene platyrrhines shared a relative similar shape pattern, while other patterns as *Alouatta*-like and Pitheciinae-like were incorporated in the Colombian fossils. The relation between both fossil samples could be due to: 1. All platyrrhine molar shapes share a primitive retention of the ancestral state. 2. An early divergence between two parallel shapes; a *Callicebus*-like and a *Saguinus*-like, which would be the ancestral precursors to all other forms. 3. A *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like morphology have also been seen in the early stem platyrrhines.

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710

711 **Table 1:** List of fossils used in the study.

712	Fossils	Location	Age (Ma)	Phylogenetic position	Specimen number and
713	reference				
714	F1 <i>Proteopithecus sylviae</i>	Fayum, Egypt	33.9 -28.4 ^a	stem anthropoid ^b	CGM 42209; Miller and Simons
715	(1997)				
716	F2 <i>Soriacebus</i> spp.	Pinturas Formation,	17 ^c	stem platyrrhine ^d /	MACN-SC 2 ¹ , MACN-SC 5 ²
717		Santa Cruz Province,		Pitheciidae ^e	MPM-PV 36 ³ ; Tejedor (2005)
718		Argentina			
719					
720	F3 <i>Dolichocebus gaimanesis</i>	Gaiman,	20 ^f	stem platyrrhine/	MPEF 5146; Kay et al. (2008)
721		Chubut Province,		sister to <i>Saimiri</i> ^g	
722		Argentina			
723					
724	F4 <i>Homunculus</i> spp.	Santa Cruz Formation,	16.5 ^h	stem platyrrhine/	MACN-A5969; Tejedor and
725	Rosemberger				
726		Santa Cruz Province,		Pitheciidae	(2008)
727		Argentina			
728					
729	F5 <i>Carlocebus</i> spp.	Pinturas Formation,	18-19 ⁱ	stem platyrrhine/	MACN-SC 266; Fleagle (1990)
730		Santa Cruz Province,		Pitheciidae	
731		Argentina			
732					
733	F6 <i>Neosaimiri fieldsi</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8 ^j	sister to <i>Saimiri</i> ^k	IGM-KU 89029 ⁴ , IGM-KU 89019 ⁵ ,
734		Colombia			UCMP 39205 ⁶ , IGM-KU 89002 ⁷ ,
735					IGM-KU 39034 ⁸ , IGM-KU 89053 ⁹ ,
736					IGM-KU 89130 ¹⁰ ; Takai (1994)
737					
738	F7 <i>Laventiana annectens</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	sister to <i>Saimiri</i> /	IGM-KU 880; Rosemberger et al.,

739		Colombia	synonymy with	(1991b)
740			<i>Neosaimiri</i> ^l	
741				
742	F8 <i>Mohanamico hershkouitzi</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8 sister to <i>Callimico</i> ^m	IGM 181500; Kay (1990)
743		Colombia		
744				
745	F9 <i>Aotus dindensis</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8 sister to <i>Aotus</i> ⁿ /	IGM-KU 8601; Kay (1990)
746		Colombia	coespecific with	
747			<i>Mohanamico</i> ^o	
748				
749				
750	F10 <i>Stirtonia</i> spp.	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8 sister to <i>Alouatta</i> ^p	UCPM 38989; Kay et al. (1987)
751		Colombia		
752				
753	F11 <i>Nuciruptor rubricae</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8 Pitheciidae ^q /	IGM 251074; Meldrum and Kay
754	(1997)			
755		Colombia	stem Pitheciinae ^r	
756				
757	F12 <i>Cebupithecia sarmientoni</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8 Pitheciidae/	UCMP 38762; Meldrum and Kay
758	(1997)			
759		Colombia	stem Pitheciinae	
760				
761	F13 <i>Xenothrix macgregori</i>	Jamaica	Holocene ^s stem platyrrhine/	AMNHM 148198; MacPhee and
762			retaded to <i>Callicebus</i> ^t	Horovitz (2004)
763				
764	References used in the table: Miller and Simons 1997 ^a ; Kay 1990 ^b ; Fleagle et al., 1987 ^c ; (Kay, 2010; 2014 ^r ; Kay and Fleagle, 2010;			
765	Kay et al., 2008 ^f) ^d ; (Rosenberger, 1979 ^g ; Tejedor 2000 ^g ; Tejedor and Rosenberger, 2008 ^h) ^e ; Rosenberger, 1979 ^g ; Fleagle 1990 ⁱ ; Flynn			
766	et al., 1997 ^j ; Rosenberger et al., 1991b ^k ; (Takai, 1994; Meldrum y Kay 1997) ^l ; Rosenberger et al., 1990b ^m ; (Setoguchi and			

767 Rosenberg, 1987; Takai et al., 2009)ⁿ; Meldrum y Kay, 1997^{o,q}; (e g., Hershkovitz P 1970; Kay et al., 1987)^p; Cooke et al., 2011^s;
 768 MacPhee and Horovitz 2004^t

769 Institutional abbreviations: CGM: Cairo Geological Museum; MPM-PV: Museo Regional Provincial Padre Manuel Jesús Molina, Río
 770 Gallegos, Argentina; MPEF: Museo Paleontológico E. Feruglio, Trelew, Chubut Province, Argentina; MACN, MACN-SC/A: Museo
 771 Argentino de Ciencias Naturales “Bernardino Rivadavia,” Buenos Aires, Argentina; SC/A denotes locality; IGM, IGM-KU: Museo
 772 Geológico del Instituto Nacional de Investigaciones Geológico-Mineras, Bogotá, Colombia; KU denotes Kyoto University; UCPM:
 773 University of California Museum of Paleontology, Berkeley, California; AMNHM: Division of Vertebrate Zoology Mammalogy,
 774 American Museum of Natural History.

775 **Table 2** List of the specimens included in this analysis of M₁ and M₂. The Subfamily-level
776 classification was proposed by Groves (2005).

777	Genus / species	M ₁₋₂	Collection ^a
778	Subfamily: Cebinae		
779	<i>Cebus</i> (gracile capuchins)		
780	1 <i>C. albifrons</i>	9	MZUSP, MNRJ
781	2 <i>C. olivaceus</i>	6	MNRJ
782	<i>Sapajus</i> (robust capuchins)		
783	3 <i>S. apella</i>	14	MZUSP
784	4 <i>S. libidinosus</i>	15	MNRJ
785	5 <i>S. nigritus</i>	15	MNRJ
786	6 <i>S. robustus</i>	15	MNRJ
787	7 <i>S. xanthosternos</i>	7	MNRJ
788	Subfamily: Samiriinae		
789	<i>Saimiri</i> (squirrel monkeys)		
790	8 <i>S. boliviensis</i>	17	MZUSP, MNRJ
791	9 <i>S. sciureus</i>	25	MZUSP, MNRJ
792	10 <i>S. ustus</i>	18	MZUSP, MNRJ
793	11 <i>S. vanzolinii</i>	8	MNRJ
794	Subfamily: Callitrichinae		
795	<i>Callithrix</i> (marmosets from Atlantic Forest)		
796	12 <i>C. aurita</i>	11	MNRJ
797	13 <i>C. geoffroyi</i>	15	MNRJ

798	14	<i>C. jacchus</i>	21	MZUSP
799	15	<i>C. kuhlii</i>	20	MNRJ
800	16	<i>C. penicillata</i>	14	MNRJ
801	<i>Mico</i> (marmosets from Amazon)			
802	17	<i>M. argentata</i>	21	MZUSP, MNRJ
803	18	<i>M. chrysoleuca</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
804	19	<i>M. emiliae</i>	6	MZUSP
805	20	<i>M. humeralifer</i>	16	MZUSP
806	21	<i>M. melanurus</i>	8	MZUSP, MNRJ
807	<i>Cebuella</i> (pygmy marmoset)			
808	22	<i>C. pygmaea</i>	7	MZUSP
809	<i>Callimico</i> (goeldi's marmoset)			
810	23	<i>C. goeldii</i>	4	MZUSP
811	<i>Leontopithecus</i> (lion tamarins)			
812	24	<i>L. chrysomelas</i>	5	MZUSP, MNRJ
813	25	<i>L. rosalia</i>	17	MZUSP, MNRJ
814	<i>Saguinus</i> (tamarins)			
815	26	<i>S. fuscicollis</i>	13	MZUSP
816	27	<i>S. imperator</i>	10	MZUSP
817	28	<i>S. labiatus</i>	9	MZUSP, MNRJ
818	29	<i>S. midas</i>	22	MZUSP, MNRJ
819	30	<i>S. mystax</i>	13	MZUSP, MNRJ
820	31	<i>S. niger</i>	14	MNRJ

821 **Subfamily: Aotinae**

822 *Aotus* (owl or night monkeys)

823 **31** *A. azarae* 4 MZUSP, MNRJ

824 **32** *A. nigriceps* 9 MZUSP, MNRJ

825 **33** *A. trivirgatus* 21 MZUSP

826 **Subfamily: Callicebinae**

827 *Callicebus* (titi monkeys)

828 **34** *C. bernhardi* 5 MNRJ

829 **35** *C. cupreus* 14 MZUSP, MNRJ

830 **36** *C. hoffmannsi* 12 MNRJ

831 **37** *C. moloch* 16 MZUSP, MNRJ

832 **38** *C. nigrifrons* 8 MNRJ

833 **39** *C. personatus* 16 MZUSP, MNRJ

834 **Subfamily: Pitheciinae**

835 *Cacajao* (uakaris)

836 **40** *C. calvus* 14 MZUSP, MNRJ

837 **41** *C. melanocephalus* 9 MZUSP, MNRJ

838 *Chiropotes* (bearded sakis)

839 **42** *C. albinasus* 18 MZUSP, MNRJ

840 **43** *C. satanas* 15 MZUSP, MNRJ

841 *Pithecia* (sakis)

842 **44** *P. irrorata* 17 MZUSP, MNRJ

843 **45** *P. monachus* 7 MZUSP, MNRJ

844	46 <i>P. pithecia</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
845			
846	Subfamily: Atelinae		
847	<i>Lagothrix</i> (woolly monkeys)		
848	47 <i>L. cana</i>	7	MNRJ
849	48 <i>L. lagotricha</i>	8	MZUSP
850	<i>Brachyteles</i> (muriquis)		
851	49 <i>B. arachoides</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
852	50 <i>B. hypoxanthus</i>	5	MNRJ
853	<i>Ateles</i> (spider monkeys)		
854	51 <i>A. belzebuth</i>	2	RBINS
855	52 <i>A. chamek</i>	15	MNRJ
856	53 <i>A. marginatus</i>	20	MZUSP
857	Subfamily: Alouatinae		
858	<i>Alouatta</i> (howler monkeys)		
859	54 <i>A. belzebul</i>	15	MZUSP
860	55 <i>A. caraya</i>	15	MZUSP, MNRJ
861	56 <i>A. discolor</i>	10	MNRJ
862	57 <i>A. guariba</i>	5	MZUSP, MNRJ
863	58 <i>A. g. clamitas</i> [†]	15	MNRJ
864	59 <i>A. nigerrima</i>	10	MNRJ
865	60 <i>A. palliata</i>	15	HLP
866	61 <i>A. seniculus</i>	15	MZUSP

870 MNRJ: Museu Nacional do Rio de Janeiro (Brazil); HLP: Hacienda La Pacífica.

Table 3. Landmarks considered for the geometric morphometrics analysis of dental crown shape.

872

873	Landmark	Type	Definition
874	1	2	Tip of the distolingual cusp (entoconid)
875	2	2	Tip of the mesiolingual cusp (metaconid)
876	3	2	Tip of the mesiobuccal cusp (protoconid)
877	4	2	Tip of the distobuccal cusp (hypoconid)
878	5	3	Most distal point of the mid mesiodistal line on the crown outline
879	6	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the entoconid*
880	7	3	Point on the dental crown outline at the lingual groove
881	8	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the metaconid*
882	9	3	Most mesial point of the mid mesiodistal line on the crown outline
883	10	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the protoconid*
884	11	3	Point on the dental crown outline at the mesial groove
885	12	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the hypoconid*
886	13	2	Midpoint between the preentocristid and postmetacristid*
887	14	2	Lowest point on the protocristid*
888	15	2	Lowest point on the crista oblique*

889 * Landmarks follow definitions by Cooke (2011)

Table 4. A comparison of platyrrhines at the subfamily level classifications

Genus	Subfamily by Groves (2005)	Subfamily by Rosenberger (2011)
<i>Cebus</i>	Cebinae	Cebinae
<i>Sapajus</i>		
<i>Saimiri</i>		
<i>Callithrix</i>	Callitrichinae	Callitrichinae
<i>Mico</i>		
<i>Cebuella</i>		
<i>Callimico</i>		
<i>Leontopithecus</i>		
<i>Saguinus</i>		
<i>Aotus</i>	Aotinae	Homunculinae
<i>Callicebus</i>	Callicebinae	
<i>Cacajao</i>	Pitheciinae	Pitheciinae
<i>Chiropotes</i>		
<i>Pithecia</i>		
<i>Lagothrix</i>	Atelinae	Atelinae
<i>Brachyteles</i>		
<i>Ateles</i>		
<i>Alouatta</i>	Alouattinae	

Table 5. Summary of the LDA, including the percentage of variance for the two discriminant function (DF1 and DF2), the percentage of original grouped cases correctly classified and the percentage of cross-validated. Further, the percentage of probability that each case (fossil) belongs to the predicted group. Family: Pitheciidae, Cebidae, Atelidae; subfamily by Groves (2005) (Subfamily by G): Aotinae, Cebinae, Saimiriinae, Callitrichinae, Pitheciinae, Callicebinae, Atelinae, Alouattinae; subfamily by Rosenberger (2011) (Subfamily by R): Cebinae, Callitrichinae, Pitheciinae, Homunculinae, Atelinae; Genus: The names are listed in Table 2. *Soriacebus*^{1, 2, 3} and *Neosaimiri*^{4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10} corresponding to the holotypes numbered on Table 1.

a) M₁

	Family%	Subfamily by G %	Subfamily by R %	Genus %
DF1	56.0	50.5	42.4	49.0
DF2	44.0	19.1	29.1	14.2
Classification	88.7	91.3	88.2	91.0
Cross-validation	87.4	88.0	85.7	86.3

906	(M ₁)	Family	%	Subfamily by G%		Subfamily by R%		Genus	%
907	<i>Proteopithecus</i>	Cebidae	99.6	Saimiriinae	99.2	Cebinae	99.9	<i>Saimiri</i>	99.3
908	<i>Soriacebus</i> ¹	Cebidae	99.9	Callitrichinae	99.9	Callitrichinae	99.8	<i>Saguinus</i>	89.6
909	<i>Soriacebus</i> ²	Cebidae	99.1	Callitrichinae	76.6	Callitrichinae	94.0	<i>Callithrix</i>	69.1
910	<i>Dolichocebus</i>	Cebidae	86.5	Callicebinae	77.9	Homunculinae	67.4	<i>Callicebus</i>	86.4

911	<i>Carlocebus</i>	Cebidae	97.0	Callitrichinae	94.2	Callitrichinae	83.7	<i>Callithrix</i>	87.1
912	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁴	Pitheciidae	48.5	Atelinae	48.8	Callitrichinae	52.2	<i>Saguinus</i>	78.7
913	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁵	Cebidae	98.4	Callitrichinae	97.5	Callitrichinae	97.3	<i>Saguinus</i>	99.6
914	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁶	Cebidae	97.0	Callitrichinae	76.5	Callitrichinae	94.6	<i>Saguinus</i>	72.2
915	<i>Laventiana</i>	Atelidae	94.6	Atelinae	44.5	Atelinae	94.9	<i>Callicebus</i>	53.0
916	<i>Mohanamico</i>	Cebidae	96.2	Callitrichinae	87.3	Callitrichinae	70.3	<i>Leontopithecus</i>	65.4
917	<i>Aotus dindensis</i>	Pitheciidae	59.0	Aotinae	99.7	Homunculinae	97.4	<i>Aotus</i>	98.7
918	<i>Stirtonia</i>	Atelidae	98.9	Alouattinae	99.9	Atelinae	98.2	<i>Alouatta</i>	99.9
919	<i>Nuciruptor</i>	Pitheciidae	99.7	Callicebinae	99.5	Homunculinae	83.6	<i>Callicebus</i>	63.3
920	<i>Cebupithecia</i>	Pitheciidae	96.5	Pitheciinae	92.1	Pitheciinae	65.3	<i>Chiropotes</i>	59.2
921	<i>Xenothrix</i>	Pitheciidae	75.8	Callicebinae	30.5	Homunculinae	61.9	<i>Callithrix</i>	90.7

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926 **b) M₂**

927		Family%	Subfamily by G %	Subfamily by R %	Genus %
928	DF1	68.3	45.6	47.6	43.5
929	DF2	31.7	29.0	32.8	22.6
930	Classification	89.5	93.3	90.3	88.7
931	Cross-validation	88.2	90.6	89.0	84.7

932	(M₂)	Family	%	Subfamily by G %	Subfamily by R%	Genus	%
933	<i>Proteopithecus</i>	Cebidae	99.4	Callitrichinae 82.3	Callitrichinae 80.3	<i>Callimico</i>	86.7
934	<i>Soriacebus</i> ¹	Cebidae	65.6	Callicebinae 81.6	Homunculinae 58.4	<i>Saguinus</i>	74.6
935	<i>Soriacebus</i> ³	Atelidae	77.1	Callitrichinae 96.7	Callitrichinae 98.0	<i>Saguinus</i>	65.6
936	<i>Dolichocebus</i>	Cebidae	50.7	Callicebinae 92.6	Homunculinae 90.1	<i>Callicebus</i>	92.6
937	<i>Homunculus</i>	Pitheciidae	91.4	Callicebinae 93.7	Homunculinae 97.3	<i>Callicebus</i>	99.9
938	<i>Carlocebus</i>	Cebidae	55.6	Callitrichinae 58.8	Callitrichinae 50.4	<i>Mico</i>	72.5
939	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁷	Cebidae	98.3	Callicebinae 92.9	Cebinae 35.8	<i>Callicebus</i>	67.2
940	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁸	Cebidae	64.9	Callicebinae 61.2	Homunculinae 93.7	<i>Saguinus</i>	65.1
941	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁹	Cebidae	99.5	Callitrichinae 61.3	Callitrichinae 51.7	<i>Saguinus</i>	92.3
942	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ¹⁰	Cebidae	98.9	Callicebinae 84.6	Callitrichinae 71.9	<i>Saguinus</i>	98.3
943	<i>Laventiana</i>	Cebidae	99.9	Callitrichinae 99.8	Callitrichinae 99.7	<i>Saguinus</i>	40.8

944	<i>Mohanamico</i>	Cebidae	97.7	Callitrichinae	94.9	Callitrichinae	94.6	<i>Saguinus</i>	99.9
945	<i>Aotus dindensis</i>	Cebidae	84.4	Callicebinae	88.9	Homunculinae	76.1	<i>Callicebus</i>	96.5
946	<i>Nuciruptor</i>	Pitheciidae	89.7	Pitheciinae	89.7	Pitheciinae	73.0	<i>Pithecia</i>	49.4
947	<i>Stirtonia</i>	Atelidae	81.8	Alouattinae	86.0	Callitrichinae	92.1	<i>Alouatta</i>	94.0

948