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The phylogenetic position of fossil platyrrhines with respect to extant ones is not clear yet. 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 lineages* hypothesis argues for an evolutionary continuity of all platyrrhine lineages. Despite dental morphology may reflect a certain degree of homoplasia, a significant genetic signal has been detected, reflecting phylogenetic relationships among extant taxa. A geometric morphometric analysis of a 15 landmark-based configuration was applied to a sample of 802 platyrrhines' first and second lower molars representing all living families and subfamilies (62 species). A Linear Discriminant Analysis was applied to derive the *post-hoc* probability of classification of 11 fossil Platyrrhines and 1 fossil anthropoid from El Fayum within the extant comparative collection. The phenetic affinities within the fossil specimens and with the extant groups were used to test hypotheses of Platyrrhine diversification and evolution. The reduced geometric morphometric molar shape variation observed within both the fossil and living taxa suggest that morphological stasis, a slow rate of phenotypic change, may explain the great similarities between both groups. 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. Phenotypic diversification of molar shape was already settled during the Middle Miocene, which may reflect either that platyrrhines share a retention of a primitive molar shape or that an early divergence between two parallel shapes, *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like, would be the ancestral precursors to all other forms, with *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like morphologies already present in the early stem platyrrhines.

Morphometric variation of extant platyrrhine molars: taxonomic implications for fossil platyrrhines

Mónica Nova Delgado,^a Jordi Galbany,^{a-b} and Alejandro Pérez-Pérez^a

^a Secció d'Antropologia, Departament de Biologia Animal, Universitat de Barcelona, Av. Diagonal 643, 08028 Barcelona, Spain.

^b Center for the Advanced Study of Human Paleobiology, Department of Anthropology, George Washington University, 800 22nd Street NW, Ste 6000, Washington DC 20052, USA.

***Corresponding author:**

Dr. Alejandro Pérez-Pérez

martinez.perez.perez@ub.edu

Tf. +34-934021460

Dept. Animal Biology (Anthropology). Av. Diagonal 645, 08028 Barcelona – Spain.

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ABSTRACT

The phylogenetic position of fossil platyrrhines with respect to extant ones is not clear yet. 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 lineages* hypothesis argues for an evolutionary continuity of all platyrrhine lineages. Despite dental morphology may reflect a certain degree of homoplasia, a significant genetic signal has been detected, reflecting phylogenetic relationships among extant taxa. A geometric morphometric analysis of a 15 landmark-based configuration was applied to a sample of 802 platyrrhines' first and second lower molars representing all living families and subfamilies (62 species). A Linear Discriminant Analysis was applied to derive the *post-hoc* probability of classification of 11 fossil Platyrrhines and 1 fossil anthropoid from El Fayum within the extant comparative collection. The phenotypic affinities within the fossil specimens and with the extant groups were used to test hypotheses of Platyrrhine diversification and evolution. The reduced geometric morphometric molar shape variation observed within both the fossil and living taxa suggest that morphological stasis, a slow rate of phenotypic change, may explain the great similarities between both groups. 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. Phenotypic diversification of molar shape was already settled during the Middle Miocene, which may reflect either that platyrrhines share a retention of a primitive

42 molar shape or that an early divergence between two parallel shapes, *Callicebus*-like and
 43 *Saguinus*-like, would be the ancestral precursors to all other forms, with *Callicebus*-like and
 44 *Saguinus*-like morphologies already present in the early stem platyrrhines.

INTRODUCTION

Platyrrhine evolution is controversial. Despite 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), the phylogenetic position of some living taxa and the affinities of fossil specimens are still uncertain. Currently, two different viewpoints have been proposed about 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, phylogenetically unrelated to the crown platyrrhines, that went extinct (along with some Antillean species) lacking modern descendants (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, is indicative 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, the datings of the fossil specimens and the 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 analyses of both extinct and extant forms may be a useful tool to gain further insight into this debate on evolutionary continuity (Cardini and Elton, 2008; Klingenberg and Gidaszewski, 2010), since tooth development is under strong genetic control (Jernvall and Jung, 2000). Indeed, dental 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). We have recently reported a significant phylogenetic signal of molar morphology in some Platyrrhine taxa (Nova Delgado et al., 2015), with closely related species exhibiting common phenotypic traits.

Affinities of the fossil platyrrhine primates

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 *Dolichochebus* (Chubut Province, Argentina) have been included within the Cebinae (Rosenberger, 2011), whereas *Neosaimiri* has been considered a direct ancestor of the extant *Saimiri*, ~~with~~ which

92 shares a symmetric molar shape pattern (Rosenberger et al., 1990a; 1991a). Its molars exhibit
 93 sharp cusps, well-developed distal cusps, buccal cingulum, a strong buccal flare, and a distinct
 94 post-entoconid notch on molars only found in *Saimiri* and *Laventiana* (Rosenberger et al., 1991a,
 95 1991b; Takai, 1994; Tejedor, 2008). *Laventiana* is a synonym of *Neosaimiri* (Takai, 1994;
 96 Meldrum and Kay, 1997), although it has been suggested to be more primitive than *Neosaimiri*
 97 (Rosenberger et al., 1991b). *Laventiana*'s teeth closely resemble those of *Saimiri* and *Cebus-*
 98 *Sapajus*; it shows thick-enamel, bunodont molars exhibiting a small buccal cingulum and an
 99 angular cristid obliqua, lacking buccal flare (Rosenberger et al., 1991b). *Dolichocebus* has been
 100 suggested to be a member of the *Saimiri* lineage, mainly for its interorbital fenestra considered a
 101 derived feature in squirrel monkeys (Tejedor, 2008; Rosenberger et al., 2009; Rosenberger,
 102 2010). However, Kay and colleagues (Kay et al., 2008; Kay and Fleagle, 2010) argued that
 103 *Dolichocebus* is a stem platyrrhine and that the description of the orbital region was probably
 104 affected by postmortem damage. *Aotus dindensis* was first described as a sister taxon of *Aotus*
 105 (Setoguchi and Rosenberger, 1987), although Kay (1990) has suggested that it is probably
 106 conspecific with *Mohanamico hershkovitzi*, which may be closely related to the callitrichines,
 107 especially *Callimico*, due to their morphological similarities in the canine and the second
 108 premolar. *Aotus dindensis* is included into the Pitheciidae (Rosenberger et al., 1990a) and
 109 *Callicebus* has been classified within the Homunculinae, along with *Aotus* and some Argentinian
 110 and Caribbean fossil primates (Rosenberg, 1981, 2002, 2011). Tejedor and Rosenberger (2008)
 111 proposed that *Homunculus* is likely the ancestral pitheciine because although it shows a primitive
 112 dental morphology, it notably resembles that of *Callicebus*. The two taxa show rectangular-
 113 shaped molars, small incisors and non-projecting canines, a trait shared with *Carlocebus*
 114 (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).

Soriacebus, another fossil included in the same monophyletic clade, would represent the earliest Pitheciinae taxon (Perez et al 2013), which it shares anatomical traits on the anterior dentition and the mandibular shape (Fleagle et al., 1987; Fleagle, 1990; Fleagle and Tejedor, 2002; Tejedor, 2005). Some dental traits of *Soriacebus* (premolars-molars size, lower molar trigonid, and reduction hypocone) may suggest a link with the Callitrichines, but Kay (1990) has considered them to be homoplasies and has placed *Soriacebus* as stem platyrrhine. *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 intercusp distance and augmentation of the mesial and distal crown breadths (Cooke et al., 2011), a feature also seen in *Insulacebus toussaintiana*, a Caribbean primate. Rosenberger (2002) argued that *Xenothrix* is closely related to *Aotus* and *Tremacebus* by the enlargement of the orbits and the central incisors enlargement, 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 (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*, it was interpreted by Meldrum and Kay (1997) as 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*; both 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; Nova Delgado et al., 2015; Singleton et al. 2011; White 2009). However, in Platyrrhini 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., 2014). The aim of the present study was to use the two-dimensional (2D) GM variability of occlusal shapes of lower molars (M_1 and M_2) of extant Platyrrhini primates to assesses the affinities of the Patagonian, Colombian and Antillanean fossil taxa with the extant forms and to estimating the efficiency of molar shape for discriminating fossil specimens.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

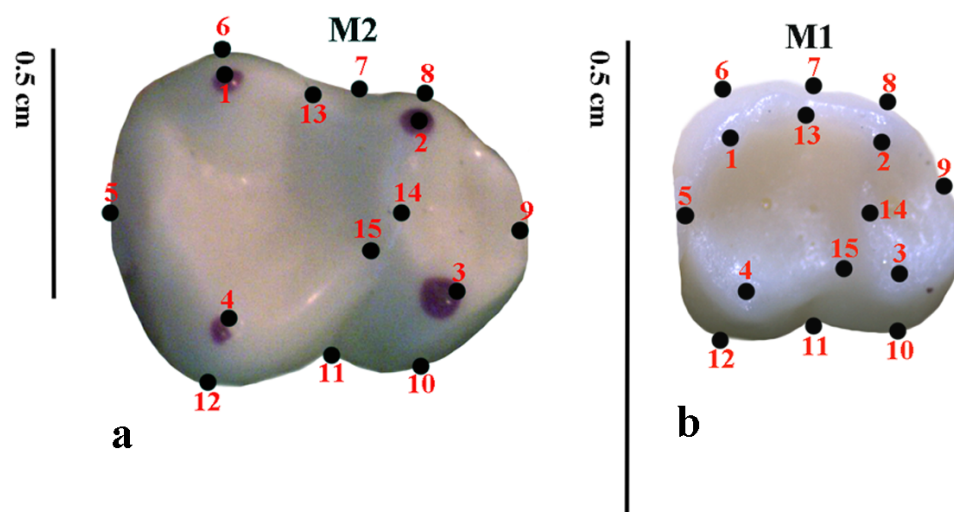
Images of the dental crowns, in occlusal view and including a scale line, of 12 holotype fossil platyrrhine specimens and one fossil from Fayum (*Proteopithecus sylviae*), used as an outgroup, were obtained from the literature. The platyrrhine fossil specimens included 12 genera (*Soriacebus*, *Dolichocebus*, *Homunculus*, *Carlocebus*, *Neosaimiri*, *Laventiana*, *Mohanamico*, *Aotus*, *Stirtonia*, *Nuciruptor*, *Cebupithecia*, and *Xenothrix*), discovered in Argentina, Colombia and Jamaica, and dated to between Holocene and 35 Ma (Table 1).

The extant comparative samples (Table 2) consisted in 802 adult individuals representing all recognized platyrrhine groups (3 families, 18 genera, 61 species, one subspecies), whose 2D and 3D morphometric variability of lower molars has ~~partially been~~ analysed (Nova Delgado et al., 2015). Dental casts were obtained from original specimens housed at various institutions: 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. Only unworn teeth were studied. 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., 2014). The images of the dental crowns of the fossil specimens, obtained from the literature, were imported into Adobe Photoshop and scaled to the same resolution (400 dpi) than those of the extant specimens. In both cases, the images were 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 was adapted from

184 Cooke (2011) and consisted of 15 landmarks (Table 3). The tips of the four main cusps
 185 (protoconid, metaconid, hypoconid and entoconid) defined the molar occlusal polygon. The
 186 crown outline was represented by eight landmarks, which included two landmarks on fissure
 187 intersections, four corresponding to maximum crown curvatures, and two in the mid mesio-distal
 188 line on the crown perimeter. Further, three landmarks were used to represent the positions of the
 189 crests (Fig. 1). Landmark recording was performed with TPSDig v 1.40 (Rohlf, 2004) and
 190 landmark coordinates were then imported into MorphoJ (Klingenberg, 2011). The most
 191 commonly employed method to remove the information unrelated to shape variation is the
 192 generalized procrustes analysis (GPA) (Rohlf, 1999, 2005). GPA is based on a least squares
 193 superimposition approach that involves scaling, translation and rotation effects so that the
 194 distances between the corresponding landmarks are minimized (Rohlf, 1999; Rohlf and Slice,
 195 1990; Rohlf and Marcus 1993; Goodall, 1991; Adams et al., 2004). After the procrustes
 196 superimposition, the covariance matrix of all the compared shapes is used to derive a Principal
 197 Components Analysis (PCA) (Zelditch et al., 2004).



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

The PCAs of M_1 and M_2 morphometric variability of the extant species was used to explore dental affinities of the fossil specimens with the extant comparative platyrrhine sample. *One-way* ANOVA comparison was carried out to evaluate statistically significant between subfamilies. The procrustes coordinates of the extant samples were used to make a Linear Discriminant Function analyses (LDA) to classify the ungrouped fossil specimens (Zelditch et al., 2004). LDA maximizes differences between groups but allows classifying isolated cases based on their distances to the group centroids of the extant taxa. The probability that a case belongs to a particular group is proportional to the distance to the group centroid (Kovarovic et al., 2011). The reliability of the classification was estimated from the *post-hoc* correct classification probability after cross-validation (*pcc*), and the *a posteriori* probability 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), and 4) a genus level (*Cebus*, *Sapajus*, *Saimiri*, *Callithrix*, *Mico*, *Cebuella*, *Callimico*, *Leontopithecus*, *Saguinus*, *Aotus*, *Callicebus*, *Cacajao*, *Chiropotes*, *Pithecis*, *Lagothrix*, *Brachyteles*, *Atelles*, *Allouatta*). The LDF and *One-way* ANOVA 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) explained 42.06 % of total shape variance (PC1 30.60%; PC2 11.46%). Positive scores on PC1 corresponded to molars with a broad occlusal polygons and a mesiodistally rectangular outline; whereas a negative PC1 score was indicative of a relatively quadrangular outline and slight buccolingually rectangular occlusal polygon, characterized by a mesio-lingual displacement of the distal cusps (entoconid and hypoconid) and a disto-lingual one of the mesial cusps (metaconid and protoconid). Positive scores on PC2 indicated a rectangular occlusal polygon and a mesiodistally rectangular outline, whereas negative score on PC2 reflected molars with relatively quadrangular outline and a slightly rectangular occlusal polygon, wider on the buccal side.

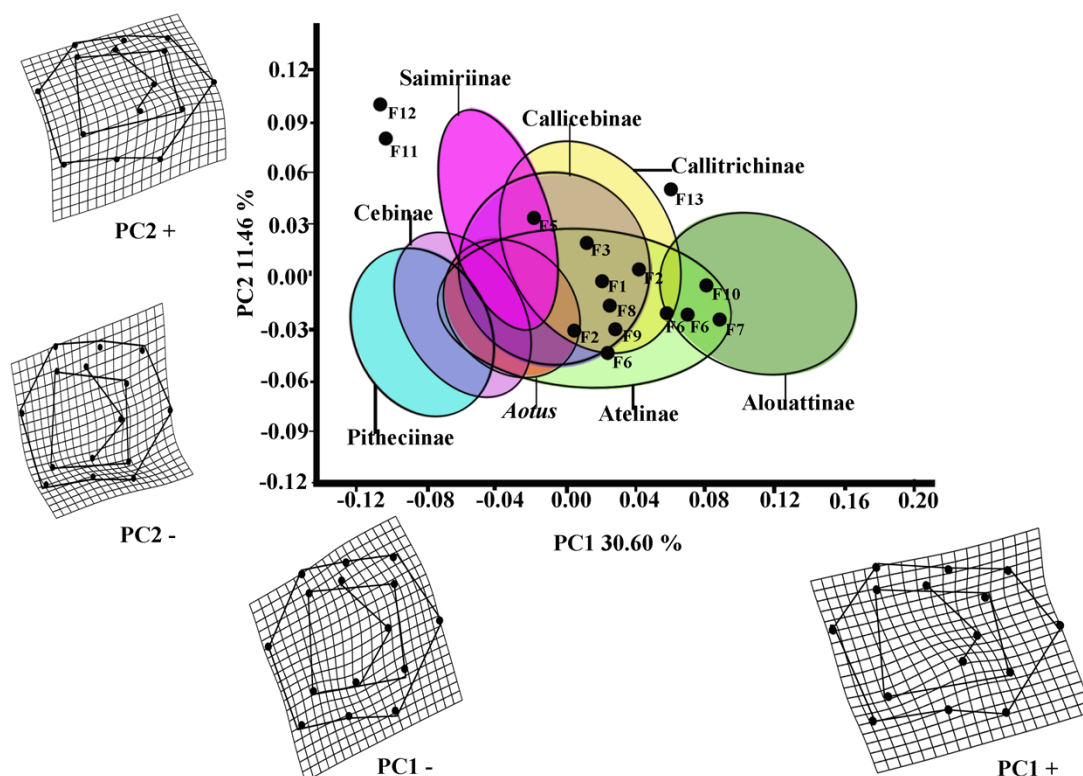


Figure 2. Scatterplot of the first two principal components (PCs) derived from the PCA of M_1 shape variability of Platyrrhini. Grids indicate the deformations associated with the extreme values of each principal component.

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238 In the PC1 *versus* PC2 plot (Fig. 2) the 95% confidence ellipses of the subfamily groups
 239 greatly overlapped. However, the *One-way* ANOVA analyses detected statistically significant
 240 differences between the groups (PC1: $F=361.0$ $P < 0.0001$; PC2: $F=39.7$ $P < 0.0001$).
 241 Alouattinae clearly clustered on the positive scores of PC1, whereas Pitheciinae and Cebinae
 242 greatly overlapped on the most negative scores of PC1. The rest of the groups (Saimirinae,
 243 Callicebinae, Callitrichidae, Atellidae and Aotinae) showed intermediate values for PC1. For the
 244 function (PC2), all groups greatly overlapped, though Saimirinae, Callitrichinae and Callicebinae
 245 showed somewhat ~~higher~~ ^{higher} PC2 scores than the rest. Most of the fossil specimens showed
 246 positive PC1 scores, except *Carlocebus* (F5) and especially *Nuciruptor* (F11) and *Cebupithecia*
 247 (F12) that had negative PC1 and positive PC2 scores. Most extinct forms overlapped with the
 248 extant platyrrhines, within Callicebinae, Callitrichinae and Atellinae, except *Xenothrix* (F13) and
 249 *Nuciruptor* and *Cebupithecia*.

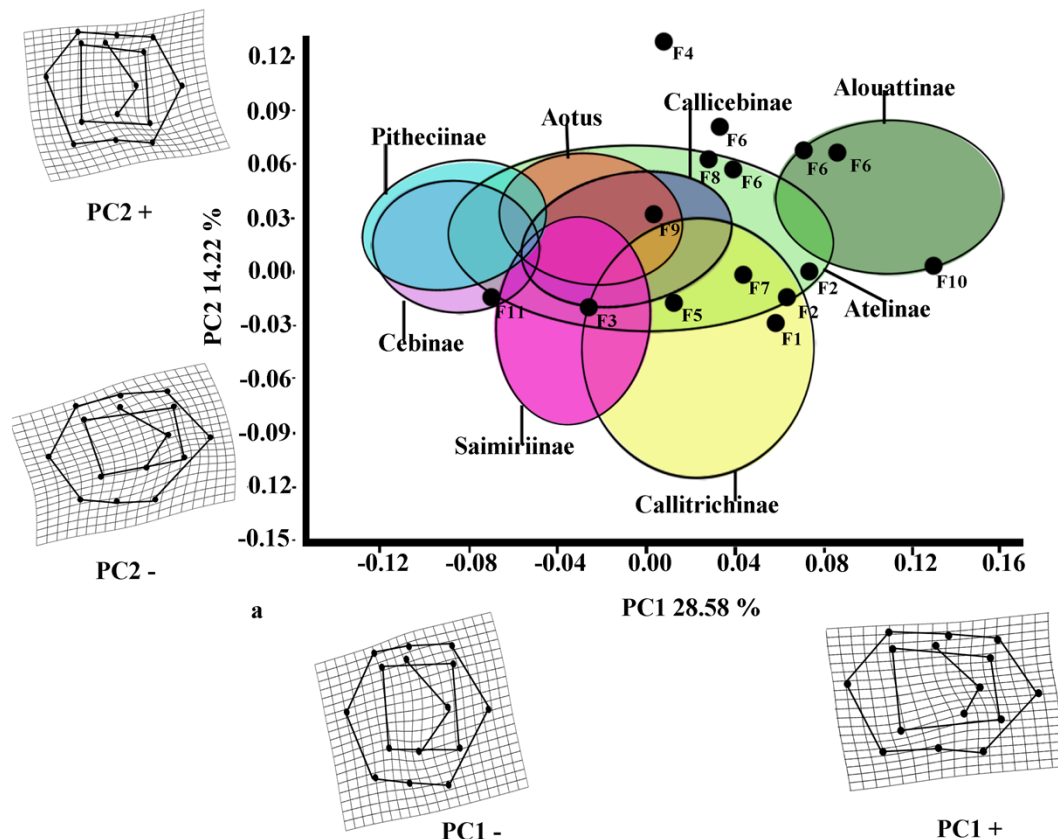


Figure 3. Scatterplot of the first two principal components (PCs) derived from the PCA of M_2 shape variability of Platyrrhini. Grids indicate the deformations associated with the extreme values of each principal component.

The first two PCs for M_2 (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 M_2 were similar to those observed for M_1 , whereas positive PC2 scores for M_2 corresponded to the negative ones on PC2 for M_1 , and negative ones on PC2 for M_2 were equivalent to the positive score of PC2 for M_1 . The PC1 *versus* PC2 plot (Fig. 3) showed similar distributions of the subfamilies to those for M_1 , although greater separations between groups were observed. Further, a *One-Way* ANOVA of the two first PC scores showed that dental shapes among subfamilies

were statistically distinct (M_2 ; PC1: $F=455.8$ $P < 0.0001$; PC2: $F=102.6$ $P < 0.0001$). 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 Atellinae, Callitrichinae and Atellinae, although *Stirtonia* (F10), *Dolichocebus* (F3) and *Nuciraptor* (F11) clearly fell within the Alouattinae clade, and *Nuciraptor* (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.

Discriminant analyses of the fossil specimens

The *post-hoc* percentages of correct classification after cross-validation (*pcc*) were high both for M_1 (Table 4a, range = [85.7–88.0%]) and M_2 (Table 4b, range = [84.7–90.6%]). In both cases the highest *pcc* value was obtained when Groves' *subfamily* factor was discriminated. The range of differences between *pcc* values before and after cross-validation was [1.3–4.7%] and in both teeth the *genus* discriminant factor showed the highest decrease in *pcc*. The difference in *pcc* 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 4). 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

284 56.0% (*family*) for M₁ and 68.3% (*family*) for M₂, and the highest one for DF2 was 44.0%
 285 (*family*) for M₁ and 32.8% (*subfamily R*) for M₂.

286 Regarding the classification of the fossils specimens, the ranges of the *a priori* classification
 287 probabilities varied depending on the discriminant factor used (Table 4; Fig. 4, showing the
 288 landmark configurations of the fossil specimens analysed). *Mohanamico* showed a high
 289 probability of belonging to the callitrichines clade, as well as *Carlocebus*, although the
 290 probability was smaller for M₂. Both *Neosaimiri* and *Soriacebus* showed high probabilities of
 291 belonging to the callitrichines for M₁, though to Callicebinae/Homonculinae for M₂.
 292 *Cebupithecia* (M₂ not available) and *Nuciruptor* neotypes showed a high probability of
 293 belonging to the pitheciid clade. In contrast, *Xenothrix* (M₂ not available) likely belonged to
 294 *Callithrix*, despite in the PCA this fossil specimen did not fall within the Callitrichinae range.
 295 *Stirtonia* was assigned to the Atelidae clade, and to *Alouatta* at the genus level (except for
 296 Rosenberger's *subfamily* factor for M₂). *Laurentiana* was also classified into the atelids for M₁, but
 297 was more closely related to the callitrichids for M₂. *Aotus dindensis* showed a high probability of
 298 belonging to *Aotus* taxa for M₁, but *Callicebus* was the group with the greatest affinity for M₂.
 299 Finally, *Proteopithecus* showed a high resemblance to *Saimiri* for M₁, but to *Callimico* for M₂.

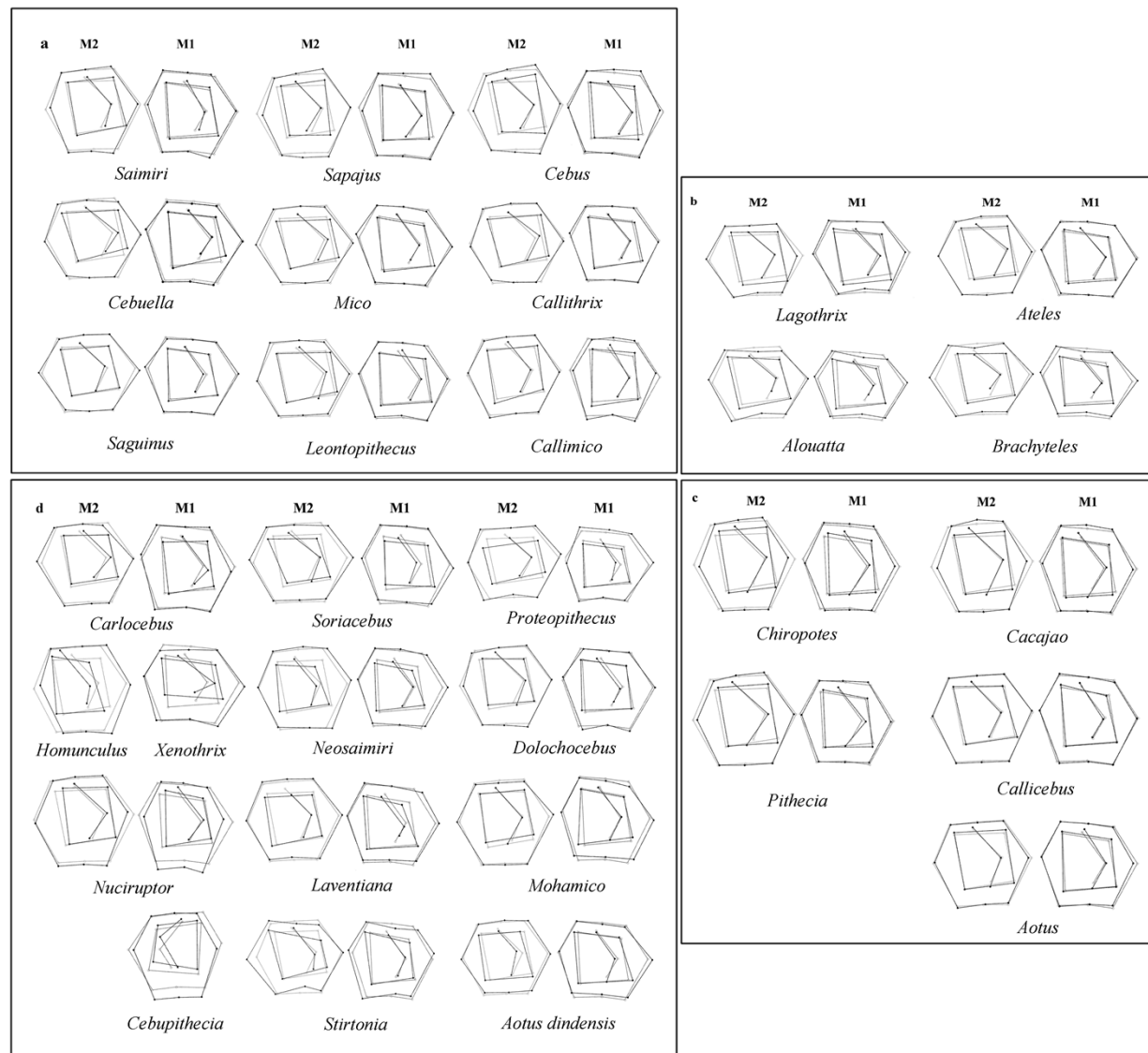


Figure 4. First and second molar shapes of the extinct fossil platyrrhines used in this study.

DISCUSSION

Proteopithecus sylviae (F1) showed molar shape resemblances with the platyrrhines. Although many dental and postcranial features of *P. sylviae* are considered to be symplesiomorphic traits of all anthropoids, it is considered a stem anthropoid (Kay, 1990, 2014). However, the recently discovered *Perupithecus ucayaliensis*, from the Late Eocene, exhibits

similarities with *Proteopithecus*, as well as with *Talahpithecus* and *Oligopithecidae* (Bond et al., 2015). The upper molars of *Perupithecus* are similar to those of the calitrichines, but their morphology more closely resemble that of *Proteopithecus* and *Talahpithecus* (Bond et al., 2015). *Proteopithecus sylviae* differs from extant and extinct platyrrhines in having a distomesially expanded molar and a rectangular occlusal polygon (especially M₂) (also described in *Xenothrix*). If the Fayum fossil is a sister taxon to platyrrhines, the interspecific variation of molar shape would have shown relatively little change through time molars shapes in platyrrhines would represent a retention of the primitive ancestral form. The LDA showed a high probability of *P. sylviae* belonging to the Cebidae clade, suggesting that the molar of the earliest ancestors of platyrrhines might have exhibited close similarities to *Saimiri-Callimico*. This resemblance matches with the description of *Branisella* – a South American Oligocene fossil primate (Rosenberger, 2002; Rosenberger et al., 2009) – that shows a *Saimiri*-like M₂ morphology and a *Callimico*-like upper P² (Rosenberger, 1980). However, the shapes of both molars of *P. sylviae* more closely resembled those of *Callimico* than of *Saimiri*. In addition, its subtriangular upper molars also show similarities with *Callimico* (Bond et al., 2015). If *P. sylviae* was a sister taxon to platyrrhines, it is likely that the ancestral molar shape of pre-platyrrhines would have been similar to the molar shape of *Callimico*. By contrast, if *P. sylviae* was a stem species, *Callimico* dental anatomy would represent a retention of the primitive pre-anthropoid molar shape.

Early Miocene platyrrhines from Patagonia

The Early Miocene fossils were mainly assigned to either *Callicebus* or *Sagunus* in the LDA. *Dolichocebus* (F3) was classified as a pitheciid, mainly by having a square occlusal polygon, but while the PCA for M₁ placed this specimen in the callicebinae range, a morphological similarity

with saimiriinae was seen for M_2 (Fig. 3a). In contrast, *Soriacebus* (F2) was related mainly to the callitrichid clade, but for M_2 the probability of belonging to this group was small (Table 4). *Soriacebus* showed a rectangular occlusal polygon on M_2 , and its ectoconid was inclined distolingually. Regarding callitricids, although *Soriacebus* also showed differences in cusp configuration, the callitricids and *Soriacebu* 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, *Soriacebus* may represent the first branching of pitheciids. Although marmosets are considered a derived clade (e.g. Chatterjee et al., 2009; Perelman et al., 2009; Jameson Kiesling et al., 2014), it is likely that their relationship with *Soriacebus* may be due to the fact that callitrichines exhibit primitive traits on their molars, which might indicate that both taxa share the retention of a rectangular contour of the occlusal polygon. *Carlocebus* (F5) was classified as a callitrichinae by the LDA but it more closely resemble *Callicebus* than marmosets in the shape contour and square alignment of cusps in both molars. *Homunculus* (F4) was placed outside the range of Patagonian forms (Fig. 2a), but 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 the pitheciids and, unlike pitheciids, *Homunculus* cusps were more distally placed and the trigonid was almost as broad as the basin-like talonid, which indicates that although sharing some traits with pitheciids, its position is still highly uncertain. It is likely that some Patagonian lineages became extinct without direct descendants, but other taxa could have significantly diversified after migrating north in South American.

Middle Miocene platyrrhines from Colombia and the Caribbean

Most Miocene fossils were catalogued as callitrichines, specifically into the *Saguinus* clade, except *Nuciraptor*, *Cebupithecia*, *Aotus dindensis*, and *Stirtonia*. The fossil specimens mainly differed from the extant forms (excepting *Alouatta* and *Brachyteles*) in their rectangular-shaped molar, which indicates that a rectangular-shaped molar may represent a plesiomorphy retention in the Patagonian fossils. Thus, the trend toward ovoid molar shape might be a derived feature in many living forms. *Laventania* (F7) exhibits distally oriented cusps on M₁, showing considerable resemblances with some atelid groups, which results in a confusing classification between atelids and *Callicebus* in the LDA (Table 4). The trend to rectangular shape for M₁ in *Laventania* differs notably from the phylogenetic relationship between Cebinae and Saimiriinae. Nonetheless, when M₂ was analyzed, the fossil was classified as a member of the Callitrichinae clade. As with *Laventania*, some neotypes of *Neosaimiri* (F6) were classified in distinct taxonomic groups (Table 4). Despite this, *Neosaimiri* was associated to the Cebidae family, although the molar shape was found to have more affinities with callitrichines than *Saimiri*. *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 a distinct genus. According to their molar shape, *Mohanamico* and *A. dindensis* may be classified into different species. Both fossils showed a relatively rectangular molar outline, although M₂ in both species were slightly square shaped. In fact, the LDA for M₁ (Fig. 2a) placed the two forms close to each other, likely because the two forms might have shared ecological niches; *Mohanamico* and *A. dindensis* were found in the same locality and at the same stratigraphic level (Kay, 1990). However, the LDA classification probabilities are different in the two taxa: *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 the cusps that were buccally oriented, which resembles the condition in most extant pitheciinae. *Cebupithecia* and *Nuciruptor* had close affinities with the Pitheciidae clade (Table 4), although they were not placed within 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 pitheciids (Meldrum and Kay, 1997; Kay et al., 2013; Kay, 2014).

The sister relationship between *Stirtonia* and *Alouatta* was classified was shown both LDA analyses (99.9% probability for M₁ and 94.0% for M₂). Likewise, the PCA showed that *Stirtonia* was placed close to the 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, similar to the *Cebuella* configuration.

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

As a whole, the reduced morphological variability observed in platyrrhin molars shape suggests a slow rate of phenotypic change. A morphological stasis (a different concept to the *long lineages hypothesis*) would explain the low interspecific variation seen between extinct and extant lineages and between Early Miocene platyrrhines (including *P. sylviae*) and forms from La Venta. This small phenotypic variation – as well as the reduced dietary diversification in platyrrhines compared to carnivores – could be due to developmental and functional constraints, given the significant role of dental occlusion during mastication (Gómez-Robles and Polly 2012).). This ecological constraint might derive from a phenotypic adaptation of the main platyrrhine families in the Amazon rainforest (Jameson Kiesling et al. 2014). Following an African origin scenario, and taking into account the oldest fossil found in Peru, *Perupithecus* (Bond et al., 2015), it is likely that the ancestor of the extant platyrrhines could have exhibited a *Callimico*-like molar shape. *Saguinus* and *Callicebus* were the main assigned groups for the Patagonian fossils in the LDA and, thus, both *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like morphologies might have been presented in the stem platyrrhines. At present both *Callicebus* and *Saguinus* show a high species diversity and geographic dispersion (Rylands and Mittermeier 2009), which might have diversified in the Amazon basin during platyrrhine evolution (Ayres and Clutton-Brock, 1992; Boubli et al., 2015). It is feasible that *Callicebus* and *Saguinus* molar shape would be an ancestral precursor for all extant forms and, thus, Middle Miocene platyrrhines molar shape would represent evolutionary continuity in molar shape pattern from earlier fossils along with new molar pattern, such as *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 platyrrhine specimens. The results show that morphological stasis

explains the low phenotypic changes in both extinct and extant platyrrhines, probably due to the ecological constraint, causing by phenotypic adaptation of platyrrhine in a relative narrow ecological niche. Early and Middle Miocene platyrrhines show similar molar shape pattern, while *Alouatta*-like and Pitheciinae-like molar patterns were incorporated in the Colombian fossils. The similarities among all the fossil samples studied 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, *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like, would be the ancestral precursors to all other forms; and 3) *Callicebus*-like and *Saguinus*-like morphologies could have been present in the early stem platyrrhines.

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

670 Fossils	Location	Age (Ma)	Phylogenetic position	Specimen number and
671 reference				
672 F1 <i>Proteopithecus sylviae</i>	Fayum, Egypt	33.9 -28.4 ^a	stem anthropoid ^b	CGM 42209; Miller and Simons
673 (1997)				
674 F2 <i>Soriacebus</i> spp.	Pinturas Formation,	17 ^c	stem platyrrhine ^d /	MACN-SC 2 ¹ , MACN-SC 5 ²
675	Santa Cruz Province,		Pitheciidae ^e	MPM-PV 36 ³ ; Tejedor (2005)
676	Argentina			
677				
678 F3 <i>Dolichocebus gaimanesis</i>	Gaiman,	20 ^f	stem platyrrhine/	MPEF 5146; Kay et al. (2008)
679	Chubut Province,		sister to <i>Saimiri</i> ^g	
680	Argentina			
681				
682 F4 <i>Homunculus</i> spp.	Santa Cruz Formation,	16.5 ^h	stem platyrrhine/	MACN-A5969; Tejedor and
683 Rosemberger				
684	Santa Cruz Province,		Pitheciidae	(2008)
685	Argentina			
686				
687 F5 <i>Carlocebus</i> spp.	Pinturas Formation,	18-19 ⁱ	stem platyrrhine/	MACN-SC 266; Fleagle (1990)
688	Santa Cruz Province,		Pitheciidae	
689	Argentina			
690				
691 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 ,
692	Colombia			UCMP 39205 ⁶ , IGM-KU 89002 ⁷ ,
693				IGM-KU 39034 ⁸ , IGM-KU 89053 ⁹ ,
694				IGM-KU 89130 ¹⁰ ; Takai (1994)
695				
696 F7 <i>Laventiana annectens</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	sister to <i>Saimiri</i> /	IGM-KU 880; Rosemberger et al.,

697		Colombia		synonymy with	(1991b)
698				<i>Neosaimiri</i> ^l	
699					
700	F8 <i>Mohanamico hershkouitzi</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	sister to <i>Callimico</i> ^m	IGM 181500; Kay (1990)
701		Colombia			
702					
703	F9 <i>Aotus dindensis</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	sister to <i>Aotus</i> ⁿ /	IGM-KU 8601; Kay (1990)
704		Colombia		coespecific with	
705				<i>Mohanamico</i> ^o	
706					
707					
708	F10 <i>Stirtonia</i> spp.	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	sister to <i>Alouatta</i> ^p	UCPM 38989; Kay et al. (1987)
709		Colombia			
710					
711	F11 <i>Nuciruptor rubricae</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	Pitheciidae ^q /	IGM 251074; Meldrum and Kay
712	(1997)				
713		Colombia		stem Pitheciinae ^r	
714					
715	F12 <i>Cebupithecia sarmientoni</i>	La Venta, Huila,	13.5 -11.8	Pitheciidae/	UCMP 38762; Meldrum and Kay
716	(1997)				
717		Colombia		stem Pitheciinae	
718					
719	F13 <i>Xenothrix macgregori</i>	Jamaica	Holocene ^s	stem platyrrhine/	AMNHM 148198; MacPhee and
720		Horovitz		retaded to <i>Callicebus</i> ^t	(2004)
721					
722	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;				
723	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				
724	et al., 1997 ^j ; Rosenberger et al., 1991b ^k ; (Takai, 1994; Meldrum y Kay 1997) ^l ; Rosenberger et al., 1990b ^m ; (Setoguchi and				

725 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;
 726 MacPhee and Horovitz 2004^t

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

Table 2. Comparative sample of extant Platyrrhini specimens included in the analysis of the fossils specimens. The total number of M₁ and M₂ teeth studied (N) and the provenance (Collection) are indicated.

Genus / species	N	Collection ^a
Subfamily: Cebinae		
<i>Cebus</i> (gracile capuchins)		
<i>C. albifrons</i>	9	MZUSP, MNRJ
<i>C. olivaceus</i>	6	MNRJ
<i>Sapajus</i> (robust capuchins)		
<i>S. apella</i>	14	MZUSP
<i>S. libidinosus</i>	15	MNRJ
<i>S. nigritus</i>	15	MNRJ
<i>S. robustus</i>	15	MNRJ
<i>S. xanthosternos</i>	7	MNRJ
Subfamily: Samiriinae		
<i>Saimiri</i> (squirrel monkeys)		
<i>S. boliviensis</i>	17	MZUSP, MNRJ
<i>S. sciureus</i>	25	MZUSP, MNRJ
<i>S. ustus</i>	18	MZUSP, MNRJ
<i>Saimiri vanzolinii</i>	8	MNRJ
Subfamily: Callitrichinae		
<i>Callithrix</i> (marmosets from Atlantic Forest)		
<i>C. aurita</i>	11	MNRJ

756	<i>C. geoffroyi</i>	15	MNRJ
757	<i>C. jacchus</i>	21	MZUSP
758	<i>C. kuhli</i>	20	MNRJ
759	<i>C. penicillata</i>	14	MNRJ
760	<i>Mico</i> (marmosets from Amazon)		
761	<i>M. argentata</i>	21	MZUSP, MNRJ
762	<i>M. chrysoleuca</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
763	<i>M. emiliae</i>	6	MZUSP
764	<i>M. humeralifer</i>	16	MZUSP
765	<i>M. melanura</i>	8	MZUSP, MNRJ
766	<i>Cebuella</i> (pygmy marmoset)		
767	<i>C. pygmaea</i>	7	MZUSP
768	<i>Callimico</i> (goeldi's marmoset)		
769	<i>C. goeldi</i>	4	MZUSP
770	<i>Leontopithecus</i> (lion tamarins)		
771	<i>L. chrysomelas</i>	5	MZUSP, MNRJ
772	<i>L. rosalia</i>	17	MZUSP, MNRJ
773	<i>Saguinus</i> (tamarins)		
774	<i>S. fuscicollis</i>	13	MZUSP
775	<i>S. imperator</i>	10	MZUSP
776	<i>S. labiatus</i>	9	MZUSP, MNRJ
777	<i>S. midas</i>	22	MZUSP, MNRJ
778	<i>S. mystax</i>	13	MZUSP, MNRJ

779	<i>S. niger</i>	14	MNRJ
780	Subfamily: Aotinae		
781	<i>Aotus</i> (owl or night monkeys)		
782	<i>A. azarae</i>	4	MZUSP, MNRJ
783	<i>A. nigriceps</i>	9	MZUSP, MNRJ
784	<i>A. trivirgatus</i>	21	MZUSP
785	Subfamily: Callicebinae		
786	<i>Callicebus</i> (titi monkeys)		
787	<i>C. bernhardi</i>	5	MNRJ
788	<i>C. cupreus</i>	14	MZUSP, MNRJ
789	<i>C. hoffmanni</i>	12	MNRJ
790	<i>C. moloch</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
791	<i>C. nigrifrons</i>	8	MNRJ
792	<i>C. personatus</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
793	Subfamily: Pitheciinae		
794	<i>Cacajao</i> (uakaris)		
795	<i>C. calvus</i>	14	MZUSP, MNRJ
796	<i>C. melanocephalus</i>	9	MZUSP, MNRJ
797	<i>Chiropotes</i> (bearded sakis)		
798	<i>C. albinasus</i>	18	MZUSP, MNRJ
799	<i>C. satanas</i>	15	MZUSP, MNRJ
800	<i>Pithecia</i> (sakis)		
801	<i>P. irrorata</i>	17	MZUSP, MNRJ

802	<i>P. monachus</i>	7	MZUSP, MNRJ
803	<i>P. pithecia</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
804	Subfamily: Atelinae		
805	<i>Lagothrix</i> (woolly monkeys)		
806	<i>L. cana</i>	7	MNRJ
807	<i>L. lagotricha</i>	8	MZUSP
808	<i>Brachyteles</i> (muriquis)		
809	<i>B. arachoides</i>	16	MZUSP, MNRJ
810	<i>B. hypoxanthus</i>	5	MNRJ
811	<i>Ateles</i> (spider monkeys)		
812	<i>A. belzebuth</i>	2	RBINS
813	<i>A. chamek</i>	15	MNRJ
814	<i>A. marginatus</i>	20	MZUSP
815	Subfamily: Alouatinae		
816	<i>Alouatta</i> (howler monkeys)		
817	<i>A. belzebul</i>	15	MZUSP
818	<i>A. caraya</i>	15	MZUSP, MNRJ
819	<i>A. discolor</i>	10	MNRJ
820	<i>A. guariba</i>	5	MZUSP, MNRJ
821	<i>A. g. clamitas</i> †	15	MNRJ
822	<i>A. nigerrima</i>	10	MNRJ
823	<i>A. palliata</i>	15	HLP
824	<i>A. seniculus</i>	15	MZUSP

825 *A. ululata* 7 MNRJ

826 † Subspecies of *Alouatta guariba*

827 ^a Institutional abbreviations: MZUSP: Museu de Zoologia Universidade de São Paulo (Brazil);

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

829 **Table 3.** Landmarks considered for the geometric morphometrics analysis of dental crown shape.
830

831	Landmark	Type	Definition
832	1	2	Tip of the distolingual cusp (entoconid)
833	2	2	Tip of the mesiolingual cusp (metaconid)
834	3	2	Tip of the mesiobuccal cusp (protoconid)
835	4	2	Tip of the distobuccal cusp (hypoconid)
836	5	3	Most distal point of the mid mesiodistal line on the crown outline
837	6	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the entoconid*
838	7	3	Point on the dental crown outline at the lingual groove
839	8	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the metaconid*
840	9	3	Most mesial point of the mid mesiodistal line on the crown outline
841	10	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the protoconid*
842	11	3	Point on the dental crown outline at the mesial groove
843	12	2	Point of maximum curvature directly below the hypoconid*
844	13	2	Midpoint between the preentocristid and postmetacristid*
845	14	2	Lowest point on the protocristid*
846	15	2	Lowest point on the crista oblique*

847 * Landmarks follow definitions by Cooke (2011)

Table 4. Summary of the DFA, 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. *Soriacebus*^{1, 2, 3} and *Neosaimiri*^{4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10} corresponding to the holotypes numbered on Table 1b.

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

858	(M ₁)	Family	%	Subfamily by G%		Subfamily by R%		Genus	%
859	<i>Proteopithecus</i>	Cebidae	99.6	Saimiriinae	99.2	Cebinae	99.9	<i>Saimiri</i>	99.3
860	<i>Soriacebus</i> ¹	Cebidae	99.9	Callitrichinae	99.9	Callitrichinae	99.8	<i>Saguinus</i>	89.6
861	<i>Soriacebus</i> ²	Cebidae	99.1	Callitrichinae	76.6	Callitrichinae	94.0	<i>Callithrix</i>	69.1
862	<i>Dolichocebus</i>	Cebidae	86.5	Callicebinae	77.9	Homunculinae	67.4	<i>Callicebus</i>	86.4
863	<i>Carlocebus</i>	Cebidae	97.0	Callitrichinae	94.2	Callitrichinae	83.7	<i>Callithrix</i>	87.1
864	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁴	Pitheciidae	48.5	Atelinae	48.8	Callitrichinae	52.2	<i>Saguinus</i>	78.7

865	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁵	Cebidae	98.4	Callitrichinae	97.5	Callitrichinae	97.3	<i>Saguinus</i>	99.6
866	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁶	Cebidae	97.0	Callitrichinae	76.5	Callitrichinae	94.6	<i>Saguinus</i>	72.2
867	<i>Laventiana</i>	Atelidae	94.6	Atelinae	44.5	Atelinae	94.9	<i>Callicebus</i>	53.0
868	<i>Mohanamico</i>	Cebidae	96.2	Callitrichinae	87.3	Callitrichinae	70.3	<i>Leontopithecus</i>	65.4
869	<i>Aotus dindensis</i>	Pitheciidae	59.0	Aotinae	99.7	Homunculinae	97.4	<i>Aotus</i>	98.7
870	<i>Stirtonia</i>	Atelidae	98.9	Alouattinae	99.9	Atelinae	98.2	<i>Alouatta</i>	99.9
871	<i>Nuciraptor</i>	Pitheciidae	99.7	Callicebinae	99.5	Homunculinae	83.6	<i>Callicebus</i>	63.3
872	<i>Cebupithecia</i>	Pitheciidae	96.5	Pitheciinae	92.1	Pitheciinae	65.3	<i>Chiropotes</i>	59.2
873	<i>Xenothrix</i>	Pitheciidae	75.8	Callicebinae	30.5	Homunculinae	61.9	<i>Callithrix</i>	90.7

874 **b) M₂**

875		Family%		Subfamily by G %		Subfamily by R %		Genus %	
876	DF1		68.3		45.6		47.6		43.5
877	DF2		31.7		29.0		32.8		22.6
878	Classification		89.5		93.3		90.3		88.7
879	Cross-validation		88.2		90.6		89.0		84.7

880	(M₂)	Family	%	Subfamily by G %	Subfamily by R%	Genus	%
881	<i>Proteopithecus</i>	Cebidae	99.4	Callitrichinae 82.3	Callitrichinae 80.3	<i>Callimico</i>	86.7

882	<i>Soriacebus</i> ¹	Cebidae	65.6	Callicebinae	81.6	Homunculinae	58.4	<i>Saguinus</i>	74.6
883	<i>Soriacebus</i> ³	Atelidae	77.1	Callitrichinae	96.7	Callitrichinae	98.0	<i>Saguinus</i>	65.6
884	<i>Dolichocebus</i>	Cebidae	50.7	Callicebinae	92.6	Homunculinae	90.1	<i>Callicebus</i>	92.6
885	<i>Homunculus</i>	Pitheciidae	91.4	Callicebinae	93.7	Homunculinae	97.3	<i>Callicebus</i>	99.9
886	<i>Carlocebus</i>	Cebidae	55.6	Callitrichinae	58.8	Callitrichinae	50.4	<i>Mico</i>	72.5
887	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁷	Cebidae	98.3	Callicebinae	92.9	Cebinae	35.8	<i>Callicebus</i>	67.2
888	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁸	Cebidae	64.9	Callicebinae	61.2	Homunculinae	93.7	<i>Saguinus</i>	65.1
889	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ⁹	Cebidae	99.5	Callitrichinae	61.3	Callitrichinae	51.7	<i>Saguinus</i>	92.3
890	<i>Neosaimiri</i> ¹⁰	Cebidae	98.9	Callicebinae	84.6	Callitrichinae	71.9	<i>Saguinus</i>	98.3
891	<i>Laventiana</i>	Cebidae	99.9	Callitrichinae	99.8	Callitrichinae	99.7	<i>Saguinus</i>	40.8
892	<i>Mohanamico</i>	Cebidae	97.7	Callitrichinae	94.9	Callitrichinae	94.6	<i>Saguinus</i>	99.9
893	<i>Aotus dindensis</i>	Cebidae	84.4	Callicebinae	88.9	Homunculinae	76.1	<i>Callicebus</i>	96.5
894	<i>Nuciruptor</i>	Pitheciidae	89.7	Pitheciinae	89.7	Pitheciinae	73.0	<i>Pithecia</i>	49.4
895	<i>Stirtonia</i>	Atelidae	81.8	Alouattinae	86.0	Callitrichinae	92.1	<i>Alouatta</i>	94.

