



## Neotropical mammal diversity and the Great American Biotic Interchange: spatial and temporal variation in South America's fossil record

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Journal Name:	Frontiers in Genetics
ISSN:	1664-8021
Article type:	Review Article
Received on:	30 Aug 2014
Accepted on:	10 Dec 2014
Provisional PDF published on:	10 Dec 2014
www.frontiersin.org:	<a href="http://www.frontiersin.org">www.frontiersin.org</a>
Citation:	Carrillo JD, Forasiepi A, Jaramillo C and Sánchez-villagra M(2014) Neotropical mammal diversity and the Great American Biotic Interchange: spatial and temporal variation in South America's fossil record. <i>Front. Genet.</i> 5:451. doi:10.3389/fgene.2014.00451
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38 **1. Introduction**

39

40 The Neotropics (Neotropical region *sensu lato* of Morrone (2014)) supports an extremely  
41 large diversity of living mammals. Currently there are around 1500 recognized species which  
42 represent in the order of 30% of the total world mammal diversity. Included are endemic  
43 groups such as marsupials (opossums), xenarthrans (sloths, armadillos, and anteaters),  
44 caviomorph rodents (capibaras, spiny rats, chinchillas), platyrrhine monkeys, and  
45 phyllostomid bats (Patterson and Costa, 2012). The variety of biomes found in the Neotropics  
46 (lowland rainforest, savannas, mountain forest, scrublands, and deserts) could provide a  
47 partitioned environment enhancing species richness (Tews et. al., 2004).

48

49 The current Neotropical mammal fauna is the result of a long evolutionary history. The  
50 Cenozoic (66–0 Ma) in South America was characterized by long term geographical isolation  
51 with the evolution of an endemic fauna (Simpson, 1980). Sporadic dispersal events from other  
52 geographic areas interrupted this isolation introducing novel clades into South America  
53 including caviomorph rodents during the middle Eocene (~41 Ma) and platyrrhine monkeys  
54 during the late Oligocene (~26 Ma) (Pascual, 2006; Antoine et al., 2012; Croft, 2012; Goin et  
55 al., 2012). The isolation of South America’s mammal fauna ceased by ~10–7 Ma, when  
56 proximity, and then permanent connection was established with Central America. This  
57 connection initiated a massive faunal exchange between North America (NA) and South  
58 America (SA). This event is known as the Great American Biotic Interchange (GABI)  
59 (Simpson, 1980; Webb, 1985). The classic interpretation places the onset of the GABI by  
60 ~3.0 Ma, with some early migrations during the late Miocene from SA to NA by ~9 Ma and  
61 from NA to SA by ~7 Ma. Other studies using dated molecular phylogenies across a wide  
62 range of taxa indicate an important part of the interchange may have predated the permanent  
63 land connection by ~3 Ma (Koepfli et al, 2007; Cody et. al, 2010; Eizirik et al, 2010; Eizirik,  
64 2012). The core of the GABI is composed by a series of major migration “waves” during the  
65 Pliocene–Pleistocene (2.5–0.012 Ma) (Webb, 2006; Woodburne, 2010). Recently, several NA  
66 mammals have been reported from the late Miocene deposits, ~10 Ma, within the Amazon  
67 basin. These include a dromomerycine artiodactyl, gomphotheres, peccaries, and tapirs which  
68 suggest a more intense earlier connection (Campbell Jr et al., 2000; 2010; Frailey and  
69 Campbell, 2012; Prothero et al., 2014). However, the taxonomy and age of some of these  
70 fossils have been questioned (Alberdi et al., 2004; Lucas and Alvarado, 2010; Lucas, 2013).  
71 In Amazonia, Pleistocene terraces are built from older Cenozoic deposits (Latrubesse et al.,

72 1997), resulting in non-contemporaneous associations (Cozzuol, 2006). Even with these  
73 concerns in mind, in the last decades the presence of northern forms in South America is  
74 becoming better understood.

75

76 During the late Miocene (11.6–5.3 Ma) and early Pliocene (5.3–3.6 Ma), the GABI was  
77 taxonomically balanced, as predicted by the MacArthur-Wilson species equilibrium  
78 hypothesis, with similar number of NA and SA families participating in the interchange  
79 (Webb, 1976; Marshall et al., 1982). During the Pleistocene, NA mammals appeared to have  
80 diversified exponentially in SA, resulting in an overall prevalence of NA over SA-derived  
81 mammals. This could be the result of competitive displacement (Webb, 1976; Marshall et al.,  
82 1982; Webb, 1991), but this has not been subjected to rigorous analyses. In contrast,  
83 ecological replacement has been demonstrated for extinct metatherians and placental  
84 carnivores (Prevosti et al., 2013).

85

86 Vrba (1992) analyzed the GABI in the context of the “habitat theory” (i.e. physical  
87 environmental changes are the main drivers of “distribution drift”) and highlighted the  
88 importance of environmental changes over biotic interactions as the major cause of the biotic  
89 turnover. Webb (1991) proposed that the Pleistocene glaciations and the widespread  
90 development of savannas in the Neotropics facilitated dispersals during the GABI of savanna-  
91 adapted mammals. Woodburne (2010) agreed with Webb’s model and related the pulses of  
92 faunistic movements to the glaciations and sea level changes of the Pliocene and Pleistocene.  
93 However, most recent evidence does not support the widespread expansion of savannas in the  
94 tropics during glacial times (Behling et al., 2010). The GABI was dynamic with bidirectional  
95 migrations (Carlini et al., 2008b; Castro et al., 2014) and with reciprocal exchanges within a  
96 single lineage (e.g., procyonids; Baskin, 1989; Forasiepi et al. 2014; and felids; Prevosti,  
97 2006).

98

99 Potential biogeographic barriers or corridors along with environmental changes controlled  
100 patterns of movements (Webb, 1991; Woodburne, 2010). The Andes are currently an  
101 important biogeographic feature in South America extending for about 8000 km from  
102 Venezuela to Argentina, reaching average heights of about 4000 masl and maximum  
103 elevations up to 7000 masl (Ramos, 1999). The present day elevations of the northern and the  
104 north central Andes (north of 20°S) were reached during or soon after the late Miocene (Mora

105 et al., 2009) and may have constituted a colonization corridor during the GABI (Patterson et  
106 al., 2012 and references therein).

107

108 A full understanding of the GABI is difficult because of the difference in fossil sampling  
109 between low and high latitudes (Figure 1). Even with the major recent advances in  
110 Neotropical paleontology (Kay et al., 1997; Campbell Jr, 2004; MacFadden, 2006; Sánchez-  
111 Villagra et al., 2010; Antoine et al., 2012), our knowledge of this large portion of territory that  
112 comprises the neotropics, twice the size of Europe and almost as large as North America is  
113 scarce (Croft, 2012).

114

115 In this contribution, we investigate biogeographic patterns for the middle and late Miocene  
116 (15.9–5.3 Ma) in SA at the initiation of the GABI. We review the temporal and geographical  
117 distribution of fossil mammals during the GABI and discuss the special significance of the  
118 fossil record from northern SA to understand the patterns and dynamics of the interchange.

119

## 120 **2. Materials and methods**

121

122 Species lists from several middle and late Miocene–Pliocene mammal associations (La Venta,  
123 Fitzcarrald, Quebrada Honda, Collon Curá, Urumaco, Acre, Mesopotamian, Cerro Azul,  
124 Chiquimil, Andalhuala, Monte Hermoso, Inchasi and Uquía) were compiled from several  
125 sources (Goin et al., 2000; Cozzuol, 2006; Reguero and Candela, 2011; Brandoni, 2013;  
126 Tomassini et al., 2013; Tejada-Lara et al., in press) and other references available in the  
127 Paleobiology Database (PBDB) (Alroy, 2013), to which we added 450 references with  
128 records of Neogene fossil mammals from the Americas (Figure 2–3; Supplementary Material  
129 1–2). We obtained latitude and paleolatitude from each locality from the PBDB (Table 1) and  
130 estimated the distance in km among localities using Google Earth. Localities were coded for  
131 presence/absence at the generic level (Supplementary Table 1). The biochronology refers to  
132 the South American Land Mammal Ages (SALMA) and the calibration of the boundaries of  
133 Tomassini et al., (2013, modified from Cione et al., 2007) and Cione and Tonni (1999; 2005).  
134 Genera were used as taxonomic unit (including taxonomic identifications with *cf.* and *aff.*  
135 qualifiers). Lower taxonomical levels are still unresolved for several localities and data is  
136 incomparable.

137

138 We analyzed closely contemporaneous fossil mammal associations from SA using the Bray-  
 139 Curtis binary dissimilarity index. This reaches a maximum value of 1 when there are no  
 140 shared taxa between the two compared communities. The Vegan package (Okasanen et al.,  
 141 2013) was used to perform a cluster analysis with average grouping method and a Nonmetric  
 142 Multidimensional Scaling (NMDS) set to two dimensions (axes) and 1000 runs. We compared  
 143 tropical and temperate Miocene localities, and in order to account for differences in the  
 144 sample size, we set the number of taxa equal to the assemblage with the lowest richness  
 145 within the subgroup and calculate Bray-Curtis dissimilarity by resampling with replacement  
 146 1000 times all the localities. The Vegan package was used to obtain genera accumulation  
 147 curves for tropical assemblages, using the random method. All analyses were performed in R  
 148 (R Core Team, 2013).

149  
 150 We obtained records for late Miocene to late Pliocene land mammals for NA and SA from the  
 151 PBDB. We classified each genus as North or South American if the taxon or its ancestor were  
 152 in either NA or SA before 10 Ma. We compared the geographic distribution (tropical vs  
 153 temperate) and time of first appearance datum (FAD) of GABI migrants in the continent  
 154 (Supplementary Material 3 and Supplementary Table 2). In order to account for the age  
 155 uncertainty of each FAD, we generate 1000 different random values between the maximal and  
 156 minimal age estimate and calculate the mean and standard deviation of the age estimate for  
 157 each record.

158  
 159 **3.1 Study sites**

160  
 161 We selected faunal associations from the tropical and temperate regions of South America  
 162 which all together span from the middle Miocene (~15 Ma) to the late Pliocene (~2 Ma), a  
 163 critical time period for the GABI. The study sites cover a wide latitudinal gradient across the  
 164 continent (Table 1).

165  
 166 **Table 1.** Modern and ancient latitude and elevation of the faunal assemblages used in this  
 167 study.

Faunal association	Latitude	Paleolatitude	Elevation	Paleoelevation	Biome
La Venta	~ 3° N	~ 2.6° N	~380 m	“lowland”	Tropical
Fitzcarrald	~ 10.5° S	~ 12° S	< 300 m	“lowland”	Tropical

## Mammal Neotropical diversity and GABI

Quebrada Honda	~ 22° S	~ 22° S	~ 3500 m	~ 2600 ± 600 m	Temperate
Collón Curá	~ 40° S	~ 41° S	~ 800 m	?	Temperate
Urumaco	~11° N	~ 11° N	< 100 m	“lowland”	Tropical
Acre	~10° S	~ 10.5° S	< 300 m	“lowland”	Tropical
Mesopotamian	~ 32° S	~ 32° S	< 100 m	“lowland”	Temperate
Cerro Azul	~37° S	~ 37° S	~150 m	“lowland”	Temperate
Chiquimil	~27°S	~ 27° S	1000-2500 m	?	Temperate
Andalhuala	~27°S	~ 27° S	1000-2500 m	?	Temperate
Monte Hermoso	~ 38° S	~ 38° S	< 100 m	“lowland”	Temperate
Inchasi	~19° S	~ 20° S	~ 3220 m	?	Temperate
Uquíá	~ 23° S	~ 23° S	~ 2800 m	~ 1400-1700 m	Temperate

169

### 170 3.1.1. La Venta

171

172 La Venta is one of the best-studied fossil assemblages from the Neotropics and includes  
 173 freshwater fishes, crocodiles, turtles and different mammal clades (Kay et al., 1997). These  
 174 come from the Honda Group in the central Magdalena valley, Colombia (Figure 2). Its age is  
 175 constrained by radiometric and paleomagnetic data. The assemblage of La Venta served as the  
 176 basis for defining the Laventan SALMA (middle Miocene, 13.5–11.8 Ma) (Madden et al.,  
 177 1997).

178

### 179 3.1.2. Fitzcarrald

180

181 The localities of the Fitzcarrald assemblage are found along the Inuya and Mapuya rivers in  
 182 the Amazon of Peru (Figure 2) from the Ipururo Formation, interpreted as middle Miocene  
 183 (Laventan Age) (Antoine et al., 2007; Tejada-Lara et. al, in press). The vertebrate assemblage  
 184 includes fishes, turtles, crocodiles, snakes and 24 mammalian taxa (Negri et al., 2010, Tejada-  
 185 Lara et.al, in press).

186

### 187 3.1.3 Quebrada Honda

188

189 Quebrada Honda is located in southern Bolivia at ~21°S latitude, 20 km north of the  
 190 Argentine frontier and at an elevation of about 3500 m (Figure 2). The fossil-bearing deposits  
 191 crop out in the valley of the Honda River and its tributaries. Paleomagnetic and radioisotopic  
 192 data provide an extrapolated age of 13–12.7 Ma for the fossil bearing beds (MacFadden et al.,  
 193 1990). Multiple proxies to estimate paleoelevation of the Central Andean Altiplano have

194 yielded values between 1000-2000m for the middle Miocene (Garzione et. al, 2008);  
195 however, a most recent study using clumped isotope thermometry on paleosol carbonates  
196 inferred an earlier uplift for the Altiplano, with Quebrada Honda at about  $2600 \pm 600$  m and a  
197 mean annual temperature of  $\sim 9 \pm 5^\circ$  C (Garzione et. al, 2014). The assemblage includes about  
198 30 mammals representing metatherians, xenarthrans, rodents, astrapotheres, litopterns and  
199 notoungulates and correspond to the Laventan SALMA (Croft, 2007).

200

#### 201 **3.1.4 Collon Curá**

202

203 The Collón Curá Formation is largely exposed at the west of Nord-Patagonian Massif  
204 (Neuquén and Río Negro provinces, and Norwest Chubut Province). The rich vertebrate  
205 association is represented by reptiles, birds, and principally mammals: metatherians,  
206 xenarthrans, rodents, notoungulates, litopterns, and astrapotheres (Kramarz et al., 2011). The  
207 fossil mammals collected in the vicinities of the Collón Curá river by Santiago Roth in the  
208 late 19<sup>th</sup> Century are the basis for the definition of the Colloncuran SALMA, although a  
209 critical review of most of the findings is still pending. Several radiometric dates for the Collón  
210 Curá Formation indicate ages between 15.5 and 10 Ma for the vertebrate association (e.g.  
211 (Rabassa, 1974; Marshall et al., 1977; Rabassa, 1978; Bondesio et al., 1980; Mazzoni and  
212 Benvenuto, 1990; Madden et al., 1997).

213

#### 214 **3.1.5 Urumaco**

215

216 The Urumaco sequence is found in the Falcón State in northwestern Venezuela (Figure 2). It  
217 includes the Querales, Socorro, Urumaco, Codore and San Gregorio formations, which  
218 together span from the middle Miocene to late Pliocene (Quiroz and Jaramillo, 2010). The  
219 Urumaco sequence shows a high diversity of crocodylians (Scheyer et al., 2013) and  
220 xenarthrans (Carlini et al., 2006 a,b; 2008 a,c). We focus our analysis on the Urumaco  
221 Formation. Linares (2004), on the basis of a mammal list of undescribed material suggested a  
222 middle to late Miocene age. However until a detail taxonomic revision is conducted, the  
223 biostratigraphic correlation of the Urumaco association remains tentative.

224

#### 225 **3.1.6 Acre**

226



227 The Acre region in the southwestern Amazonia includes several fossiliferous localities which  
228 would represent different time intervals considering the geological and palinological evidence  
229 (Cozzuol, 2006). Fossil vertebrates come from the Solimões Formation of the state of Acre,  
230 Brazil and Peruvian and Bolivian localities from the Madre de Dios Formation (Negri et al.,  
231 2010) (Figure 2). The vertebrate assemblage is very diverse and includes fishes, snakes,  
232 lizards, birds, turtles, crocodiles, and mammals including whales, dolphins, manatees and a  
233 diverse assemblage of terrestrial forms. The Acre mammal assemblage has been referred to  
234 late Miocene, Huayquerian SALMA (Cozzuol, 2006; Ribeiro et al., 2013) or included also in  
235 the Pliocene, Montehermosan SALMA (Cozzuol, 2006). Campbell Jr et al. (2001) reported  
236  $^{40}\text{Ar}/^{39}\text{Ar}$  dates of  $9.01 \pm 0.28$  Ma for the base of the Madre de Dios Formation and  $3.12 \pm 0.02$   
237 Ma near the top.

238

### 239 **3.1.7 Mesopotamian**

240

241 The continental mammals of the Mesopotamian assemblage come from the lower levels of the  
242 Ituzaingó Formation, which crops out along the cliffs of the Paraná River in Corrientes and  
243 Entre Ríos provinces, north-east Argentina (Figure 2). The vertebrate assemblage is rich and  
244 includes fishes, crocodiles, birds and mammals (Cione et al., 2000; Brandoni and Noriega,  
245 2013). It differs taxonomically from other associations in Argentina at the same latitudes and  
246 this was explained by a southern extension of the northern realm (Cozzuol, 2006). The age of  
247 the Mesopotamian assemblage has been largely debated (Cione et al 2000 and references  
248 therein); it is currently assigned to the late Miocene, Huayquerian SALMA (Cione et al.,  
249 2000) or also extended into the Chasicoan SALMA (Brandoni, 2013; Brunetto et al., 2013).  
250 The dating of 9.47 Ma for the upper levels of the lower Paraná Formation (Pérez, 2013)  
251 represents a maximum limit for the Mesopotamian assemblage.

252

### 253 **3.1.8 Cerro Azul**

254

255 Several localities in central east Argentina (La Pampa and Buenos Aires provinces) have  
256 provided abundant fossil vertebrates from the Cerro Azul and Epecuén formations which are  
257 considered geologically correlated (Goin et al., 2000). This assemblage includes reptiles, birds  
258 and a rich mammal association. These units are assigned to the late Miocene, Huayquerian  
259 SALMA (Goin et al., 2000; Montalvo et al., 2008; Verzi and Montalvo, 2008; Verzi et al.,  
260 2011) on the basis of mammal biostratigraphy. This association is currently the most complete

261 list for this age (Goin et al., 2000). The possibility of extension into the late Pliocene cannot  
262 be discarded for some localities assigned to the Cerro Azul Formation (Prevosti and Pardiñas,  
263 2009).

264

### 265 **3.1.9 Chiquimil**

266

267 The Chiquimil Formation is exposed in north-west Argentina (Catamarca Province) and is  
268 divided in three members. The Chiquimil A (Riggs and Patterson, 1939; Marshall and  
269 Patterson, 1981) or El Jarillal Member (Herbst et al., 2000; Reguero and Candela, 2011)  
270 provided a rich fossil record. The mammalian association has been assigned to the late  
271 Miocene, Huayquerian SALMA (Reguero and Candela, 2011). A dating in the middle section  
272 of the Chiquimil Formation indicated ~ 6.68 Ma (Marshall and Patterson, 1981).

273

### 274 **3.1.10 Andalhuala**

275

276 The Andalhuala Formation is exposed in the Santa María Valley in north-west Argentina  
277 (Catamarca Province). This is a classical fossiliferous unit of the South American Neogene  
278 with abundant and diverse fossil remains, including plants, invertebrates, and vertebrates  
279 (Riggs and Patterson, 1939; Marshall and Patterson, 1981). Basal levels of the Andalhuala  
280 Formation have been dated to ~ 7.14 Ma (Latorre et al., 1997) and ~ 6.02 Ma (Marshall and  
281 Patterson, 1981) while a tuff sample close to the upper part of the sequence was dated to  
282 ~3.53 Ma (Bossi et al., 1993). The mammal association has been referred to the  
283 Montehermosan–Chapadmalalan SALMAs (Reguero and Candela, 2011).

284

### 285 **3.1.11 Monte Hermoso**

286

287 The Monte Hermoso Formation is exposed in the Atlantic coast at the south west of Buenos  
288 Aires Province, Argentina. This unit has provided fishes, anurans, reptiles, birds, and a  
289 diverse mammal association. Recent biostratigraphic and biochronological analyses  
290 (Tomassini and Montalvo, 2013; Tomassini et al., 2013) have recognized a single biozone  
291 (the *Eumysops laeviplicatus* Range Zone) in the Montehermosan Formation which is the base  
292 for the Montehermosan SALMA. The Montehermosan was restricted to the early Pliocene  
293 between <5.28 and 4.5/5.0 Ma by considering the dating of 5.28 Ma in levels with

294 Huayquerian mammals and paleomagnetic correlations in the upper Chapadmalal Formation  
295 (Tomassini et al., 2013).

296

### 297 **3.1.12 InChasi**

298

299 The locality of InChasi is found in the eastern cordillera in the department of Potosí, Bolivia at  
300 an elevation of about 3220 masl and ~19°S latitude (Figure 2). The mammal assemblage  
301 includes 10 mammals, representing xenarthra, rodentia, and native ungulates (Litopterna and  
302 Notoungulata) (Anaya and MacFadden, 1995). Paleomagnetic analysis indicates an age of  
303 about 4–3.3 Ma. The analysis of the mammal association first suggested Montehermosan  
304 and/or Chapadmalalan ages (MacFadden et al., 1993). A later revision (Cione and Tonni,  
305 1996) correlated InChasi with the Chapadmalalan, although probably older than the classical  
306 Chapadmalalan sections at the Atlantic coast.

307

### 308 **3.1.13 Uquía**

309

310 The Uquía Formation crops out in the Quebrada de Humahuaca, Jujuy province, north  
311 western Argentina at an elevation of ~2800 masl and ~23°S latitude (Figure 2). The Uquía  
312 Formation is divided in three units: the Lower Unit was assigned to the late Chapadmalalan,  
313 the Middle Unit to the Marplatan (Vorhuean, Sanandresian), and the Upper Unit to the  
314 Ensenadan (Reguero et al., 2007; Reguero and Candela, 2011). <sup>40</sup>K - <sup>40</sup>Ar data from a volcanic  
315 tuff (“Dacitic tuff”) in the Lower Unit provided ~3.0 Ma. Another tuff (U1) dated as 2.5 Ma is  
316 the boundary between the Middle and Upper Unit. The geological and paleontological  
317 evidence suggested that during the late Pliocene the area was a wide intermountain valley at  
318 about 1700–1400 masl (Reguero et al., 2007).

319

## 320 **4. Results**

321

### 322 **4.1 Middle and late Miocene–Pliocene mammal faunas from SA**

323

324 In the NMDS analysis (stress value = 0.083), the analyzed South American localities are  
325 primarily grouped by age and secondarily by geographic position (Figure 4A). The NMDS1  
326 clearly separates middle Miocene, late Miocene and Pliocene localities and for the middle and  
327 late Miocene assemblages, the NMDS2 separates tropical from temperate localities. For the

328 middle Miocene (Colloncuran, Laventan), the cluster analysis separates the tropical  
329 assemblages of La Venta (~2.6°N paleolatitude) and Fitzcarrald (~12.5°S paleolatitude) from  
330 the southern Collon Curá (~41.3°S paleolatitude) and Quebrada Honda (~22.3°S  
331 paleolatitude). For the late Miocene (Huayquerian–Montehermosan), Urumaco (~10.9°N  
332 paleolatitude) appears outside the groups formed by Acre (~10.5°S paleolatitude) and  
333 Mesopotamian (~32.5°S paleolatitude), another cluster includes the Argentinean assemblages  
334 of Andalhuala (~26.8°S paleolatitude), Chiquimil (~27.0°S paleolatitude), Cerro Azul  
335 (~37.0°S paleolatitude), and Monte Hermoso (~38.9°S paleolatitude). Finally, the early  
336 Pliocene (Chapadmalalan–Marplatan) temperate associations from Inhasi (~19.9°S  
337 paleolatitude) and Uquía (~23.4°S paleolatitude) cluster together, although there are no  
338 tropical assemblages to compare with. If we compare only faunal assemblages from the same  
339 time period (middle Miocene, late Miocene and Pliocene), there is a positive relationship  
340 between the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity and the distance of each pair of assemblages studied  
341 (Figure 4B).

342

343 The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity values with resampling calculated for the tropical, temperate  
344 and tropical vs. temperate assemblages for the middle and late Miocene shows that all the  
345 assemblages are very different (Figure 4C). The Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between middle  
346 Miocene tropical (La Venta and Fitzcarrald) and temperate (Quebrada Honda and Collon  
347 Curá) assemblages compared to the dissimilarity between tropical vs temperate are found to  
348 be statistically significant. Dissimilarity values of middle Miocene tropical (mean=0.830) are  
349 lower than middle Miocene tropical vs temperate (mean=0.956) (Mann-Whitney U,  $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ );  
350 whereas middle Miocene temperate dissimilarity (mean=0.964) is higher than middle  
351 Miocene tropical vs. temperate dissimilarity (Mann-Whitney U,  $p = 2.87 \times 10^{-15}$ ). For the late  
352 Miocene, dissimilarity of tropical assemblages (Acre and Urumaco) is lower (mean=0.873)  
353 than tropical vs temperate (mean=0.969) (Mann-Whitney U,  $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ ). We also found  
354 difference between temperate assemblages (Mesopotamian, Chiquimil, Andalhuala, Cerro  
355 Azul, and Monte Hermoso; mean=0.899) and tropical vs. temperate dissimilarity (Mann  
356 Whitney U,  $p < 2.2 \times 10^{-16}$ ).

357

358 The number of PBDB collections was used to generate accumulation curves for the tropical  
359 assemblage (Figure 5). Each collection represents a geographic and stratigraphic point where  
360 the fossils have been found and provide a good proxy for sampling effort. We excluded from  
361 the analysis the Acre collection with unknown stratigraphic provenance. The accumulation

362 curves show that generic richness for tropical assemblages is underestimated, even for the  
363 better known assemblage of La Venta.

364

#### 365 **4.2 Temporal and spatial distribution patterns of GABI**

366

367 The cumulative first appearance datum (FAD) of non-native taxa for both NA and SA  
368 continents (Figure 6A, Supplementary Table 2) shows that first migrations are recorded in the  
369 temperate region (cumulative FAD mean=2 by 10 Ma), represented by the ground sloths  
370 *Thinobadistes* (Mylodontidae) and *Pliometanastes* (Megalonychidae) recorded at McGehee  
371 Farm, Florida (Hirschfeld and Webb, 1968; Webb, 1989). During the late Miocene (12–5  
372 Ma), the number of FAD is similar between the tropics (cumulative FAD mean = 6 by 5 Ma)  
373 and temperate (cumulative FAD mean= 7 by 5 Ma). In the tropics, the oldest records of  
374 migrants are those from the Acre region in Peru (Campbell Jr et al., 2010; Prothero et al.,  
375 2014) of disputable age (Alberdi et al., 2004; Lucas and Alvarado, 2010; Lucas, 2013).  
376 During the Pliocene (between 3 to 4 Ma) there is an increase in the number of FAD at higher  
377 latitudes (cumulative FAD mean=21), but this is not recorded in the tropics (cumulative FAD  
378 mean=9). Finally, during the Pleistocene (2–1 Ma) a higher number of FADs are recorded in  
379 tropical and temperate regions. Most of the collections in the PBDB with records of land  
380 mammals in the Americas are in the temperate region and are younger than 4 Ma (Figure 6B).

381

### 382 **5. Discussion**

383

#### 384 **5.1. Middle and late Miocene–Pliocene mammal faunas from SA**

385

386 The NMDS1 shows that a strong temporal component establishes the dissimilarity  
387 relationships among the faunas. In addition, an important influence of the geographic position  
388 is reflected in the distribution of the faunas along the NMDS2 axis. There is a positive  
389 relationship between the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity values and the distance between faunas  
390 (Figure 4 A-B).

391

392 For the middle Miocene, Colloncuran–Laventan faunal associations, a differentiation between  
393 the tropical assemblages of La Venta and Fitzcarrald, and the southern Quebrada Honda and  
394 Collon Curá was observed (Figure 4A). The middle latitude fauna Quebrada Honda appears  
395 unique, although it is closer to the slightly older and temperate Collon Curá than to the

396 contemporaneous tropical faunas of La Venta and Fitzcarrald (Croft, 2007; Tejada-Lara et al,  
397 in press). The reconstructed paleoenvironment for the middle Miocene Monkey Beds  
398 assemblage at La Venta considered an estimated annual rainfall between 1500 and 2000 mm  
399 using diet, locomotion and body size indices of the mammal community (Kay and Madden,  
400 1997a;b).

401  
402 For the late Miocene assemblages, the NMDS indicates a high dissimilarity between the  
403 tropical faunas of Urumaco and Acre. For the Urumaco mammal assemblage, xenarthrans and  
404 rodents are the most conspicuous elements, but further studies on other clades promise to  
405 document a higher diversity than currently recognized. The temperate assemblages of  
406 Chiquimil, Andalhuala, Cerro Azul, and Monte Hermoso cluster together and the  
407 Mesopotamian is between this group and Acre (Figure 4A).

408  
409 After taking into account the differences in sample size, we found that the dissimilarity values  
410 of tropical assemblages (mean=0.830 for middle Miocene, and mean=0.879 for late Miocene)  
411 and late Miocene temperate assemblages (mean=0.899 for late Miocene) are lower than the  
412 values for tropical vs. temperate assemblages (mean=0.956 for middle Miocene and mean=0.  
413 969 for late Miocene) (Figure 4C). Consequently, the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between  
414 faunas of the same age and biome is lower than between faunas of different biomes (tropical  
415 vs. temperate); although, the mean dissimilarity values in all cases are high (> 0.8).

416  
417 As shown by the accumulation curves (Figure 5), the generic richness of the tropical  
418 assemblages studied are underestimated. A more comprehensive knowledge of tropical faunas  
419 is needed to better understand the paleodiversity patterns and paleobiogeography in the new  
420 world.

421

## 422 **5.2. Temporal and spatial distribution patterns of GABI**

423

424 The cumulative FAD across time of GABI participants in each continent shows that the GABI  
425 was a gradual process that began in the late Miocene (~10 ma) (Figure 6A). The early phase  
426 of GABI (pre GABI *sensu* Woodburne (2010)) is characterized by a small number of  
427 migrants, with a mean cumulative FAD =6 between 4–5 Ma in the tropics and a cumulative  
428 FAD=7 in the temperate region. The land connection between the two continents occurred at  
429 the Isthmus of Panama, located within the tropical zone. Therefore, it would be expected that

430 the Neotropics record the earliest GABI immigrants, but older immigrants have been found at  
431 higher latitudes.

432

433 The findings reported by Campbell and colleagues (Campbell Jr et al., 2010; Frailey and  
434 Campbell, 2012; Prothero et al., 2014) in the Acre region of the Amazon basin, assigned to  
435 late Miocene (~9 Ma) sediments would represent the oldest NA immigrants. However, the  
436 dromomerycine artiodactyl, peccaries, tapirs, and gomphotheres have not been found in other  
437 late Miocene localities in SA and these findings await further clarifications. In SA, the most  
438 frequent pre-GABI elements are procyonids recorded in several late Miocene–Pliocene  
439 (Huayquerian–Chapadmalalan) SA localities since ~7.3 Ma (Cione et al., 2007; Reguero and  
440 Candela, 2011; Forasiepi et al., 2014). The evidence of the fossil record combined with the  
441 living species distribution suggests that much of the evolutionary history of procyonids  
442 occurred in the Neotropics, possibly in SA (Eizirik, 2012). Molecular studies have predicted  
443 that the diversification of the group occurred in the early Miocene (~20 Ma), with most of the  
444 major genus-level lineages occurring in the Miocene (Koepfli et al. 2007, Eizirik et al. 2010;  
445 Eizirik, 2012). This scenario requires a bias in the fossil record, claims an evolutionary history  
446 for procyonids in SA that largely precedes the GABI, and suggests an arrival into SA long  
447 before previously thought as for several other mammalian clades (Almendra and Rogers, 2012  
448 and references therein).

449

450 Since 4 Ma, the number of FAD at higher latitudes rapidly increases and this trend continues  
451 during the Pleistocene. In contrast, the number of FAD in the tropics remains low during the  
452 Pliocene (cumulative FAD mean=9 by 2–3 Ma), but rapidly increases during the Pleistocene.  
453 A large difference in the number of PBDB collections across time and latitude is observed for  
454 land mammals for the last 12 Ma (Figure 6B). Most records come from higher latitudes and  
455 are younger than 4 Ma, by the time the FAD increases; this suggest that temporal and  
456 geographic patterns of GABI are influenced by the sampling bias towards high latitudes and  
457 the higher number of Pliocene–Pleistocene records.

458

459 The migration of northern taxa into SA after the completion of the land bridge by ~3 Ma was  
460 correlated with supposed expansion of savannas and grasslands in the Neotropics during  
461 glacial periods (Webb, 1991; Webb 2006; Leigh et al., 2013). The expansion of savannas  
462 during glacial times has been questioned (Behling et al., 2010). If this is the case, the Andes  
463 could have served as route of migration of northern taxa towards temperate environments in

464 SA (Webb, 1991), as NA taxa seem to have been more successful in temperate biomes  
465 whereas SA taxa dominate in the tropics (Webb, 1991; Webb, 2006; Leigh et. al, 2014).

466

## 467 **6. Conclusions**

468

469 The dissimilarity analysis primarily grouped the faunal assemblages by age and secondarily  
470 by geographic distribution. The dissimilarity values among the fossil faunal assemblages  
471 analyzed support the differentiation between tropical and temperate assemblages in SA during  
472 the middle Miocene (Colloncuran–Laventan) and late Miocene (Huayquerian–  
473 Montehermosan). The mid-latitude, middle Miocene assemblage of Quebrada Honda has  
474 higher affinities with the slightly older and temperate Collon Curá than with the tropical  
475 assemblages of La Venta and Fitzcarrald. For the late Miocene, the temperate assemblages of  
476 Chiquimil, Andalhuala, Cerro Azul, and Monte Hermoso cluster together, while the  
477 Mesopotamian is between this group and the tropical assemblages of Acre and Urumaco.

478

479 The cumulative FAD across time and latitude shows that faunistic movements related to  
480 GABI began during the late Miocene (~10 Ma) with the oldest records found at higher  
481 latitudes. The number of FAD remained relatively low until 4–5 Ma when FAD starts to  
482 increase, peaking during the Pleistocene.

483

484 The study of paleodiversity patterns and paleobiogeography in the Americas is challenged by  
485 the sampling bias towards higher latitudes and the still scarce data from tropical faunas. The  
486 interpretation of the temporal and geographic patterns of GABI is likely influenced by these  
487 sampling issues.

488

## 489 **Conflict of interest statement**

490

491 The authors declare that the research was conducted in the absence of any commercial or  
492 financial relationships that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest.

493

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495



496 Conceived and designed: JDC, AMF, CJ, MRS-V. Compiled bibliographic data: JDC, AMF,  
497 CJ. Analyzed data: JDC, CJ. Wrote the paper: JDC, AMF. All authors contributed to the final  
498 interpretation and editing of the manuscript.

499

## 500 **Acknowledgements**

501

502 We are grateful to V. Rull, and the topic editors T. Pennington and J. E. Richardson for the  
503 invitation to contribute to this volume and two anonymous reviews for the valuable  
504 comments. We thank A.A. Carlini, M. Bond, F. Prevosti and the group of Evolutionary  
505 Morphology and Paleobiology of Vertebrates (Zurich), in particular G. Aguirre-Fernández  
506 and M. Stange, for valuable comments. A. Cardenas and J. Alroy contributed to the data  
507 available at the PBDB. Thanks go to Smithsonian Institution, The Anders Foundation,  
508 Gregory D. and Jennifer Walston Johnson, NSF OISE-EAR-DRL 0966884 and NSF EAR  
509 0957679 and to A.A. Carlini and J.D. Carrillo-Briceño for the support during our work in  
510 Urumaco. We thank the authorities at the Instituto del Patrimonio Cultural of the República  
511 Bolivariana de Venezuela and the Alcaldía Municipio de Urumaco for their generous support.  
512 Juan Carrillo was supported by Swiss National Fund SNF 31003A-149605 to M. R. Sánchez-  
513 Villagra.

514

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845

846 Figure 1. Number of collections in the Paleobiology database (PBDB) across latitude for land  
847 mammals in North America (gray boxes) and South America (white boxes) for each 1 ma  
848 period in the last 12 ma. The boxplot shows the mean and standard deviation of the latitude of  
849 the PBDB collections for each time interval.  
850

851 Figure 2. Middle and late Miocene – Pliocene main fossil sites for land mammals in South  
852 America. Triangles = middle Miocene; circles = late Miocene; squares = Pliocene.  
853

854 Figure 3. Chronostratigraphy, South American Land Mammal Ages (SALMAs) and temporal  
855 distribution of the faunal assemblages discussed in the text. Colloncuran: 15.7 – 14 Ma  
856 (Madden et al., 1997) Laventan: 13.5–11.8 Ma. (Madden et al., 1997); Mayoan: 11.8 – 10  
857 Ma. (Flynn and Swisher III, 1995); Chasicuan: 10– ~8.5 (Flynn and Swisher III, 1995) ;  
858 Huayquerian = ~8.5 – 5.28 Ma. (lower age following (Cione and Tonni, 2001; Reguero and  
859 Candela, 2011) and upper age following (Tomassini et al., 2013); Montehermosan = 5.28 –  
860 4.5/5.0 Ma. (Tomassini et al., 2013); Chapadmalalan = 4.5/5.0 – 3.3 (Tomassini et al., 2013);  
861 Marplatán = 3.3 – ~2.0 Ma (lower age following (Tomassini et al., 2013) and upper age  
862 following (Cione and Tonni, 1999; Cione et al., 2007); Ensenadan = ~2.0 – <0.78(0.5?) Ma.  
863 (Cione and Tonni, 1999; Cione et al., 2007); Bonaerian = <0.78(0.5?) – 0.13 Ma. (Cione and  
864 Tonni, 1999); Lujanian = 0.13–0.08 Ma (Cione and Tonni, 1999).  
865

866 Figure 4. A, NMDS plot of the faunal associations using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity; triangles =  
867 middle Miocene; circles = late Miocene; squares = Pliocene. The grey lines show the  
868 clustering result. B, Bray-Curtis dissimilarity relationship with distance in km, between each  
869 locality pair. We include only localities pairs which are within the same time interval (middle  
870 Miocene, late Miocene, Pliocene), red= tropical-tropical pair; blue = temperate-temperate  
871 pair; black = tropical–temperate pair. C, Density histograms of the Bray-Curtis dissimilarity  
872 values among the different faunal associations analyzed for the middle and late Miocene,  
873 red=only tropical faunas, blue= only temperate faunas, black= tropical vs. temperate faunas.  
874

875 Figure 5. Accumulation curves estimated with random method for the tropical faunal  
876 associations, shaded areas represent the 95% confidence interval.  
877

878 Figure 6. A, Cumulative first appearance datum (FAD) of GABI participants in North and  
879 South America for each million year since 12 Ma; red= FADs record in the tropics, blue=  
880 FADs record in the temperate regions. Solid circles represent the mean and dashed lines the  
881 standard deviation. B, Number of collections with records of land mammals in the  
882 Paleobiology database (PBDB) for each million year since 12 Ma; red = collections in the  
883 tropics, blue= collections in the temperate region.  
884



Figure 1.TIFF

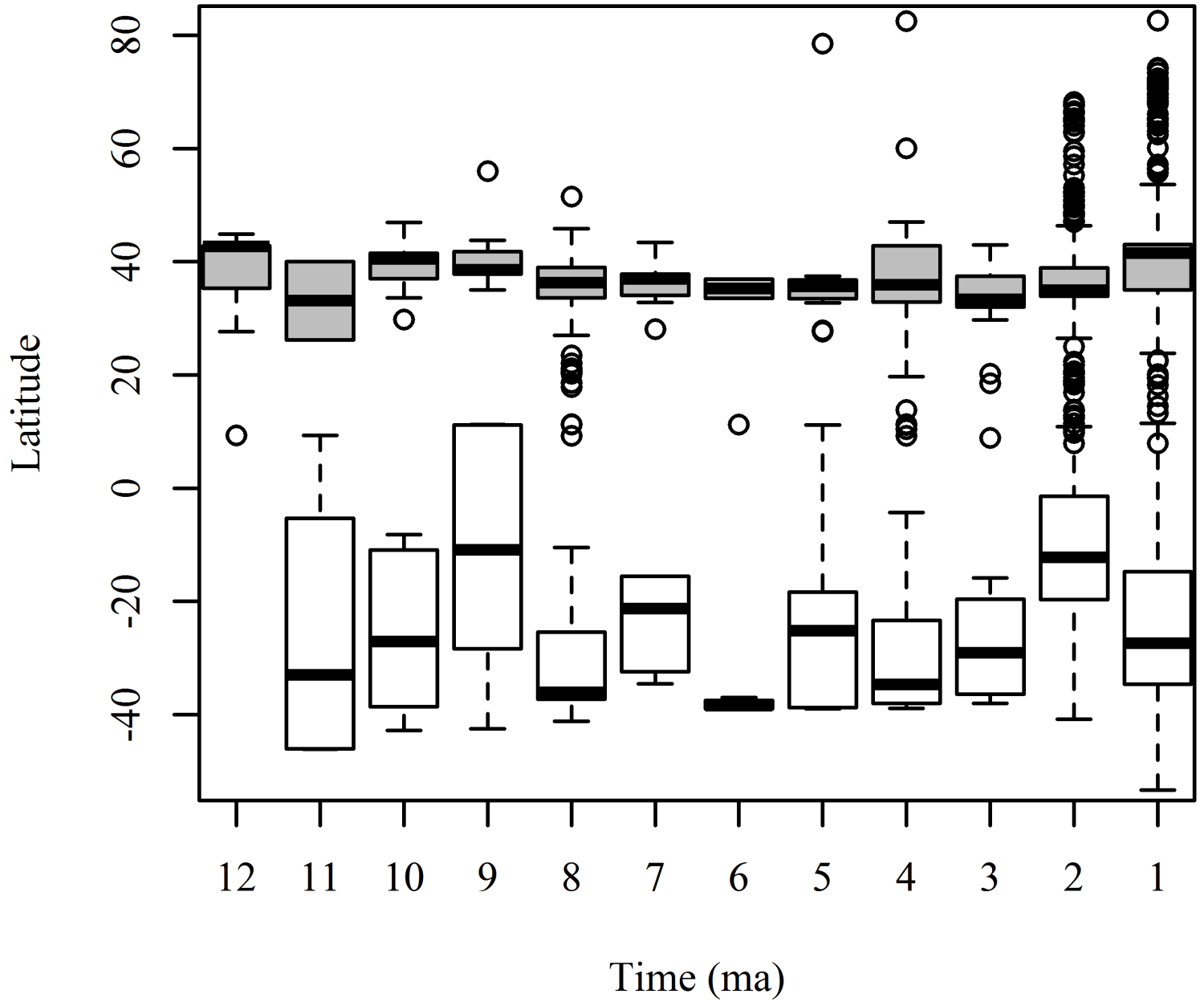
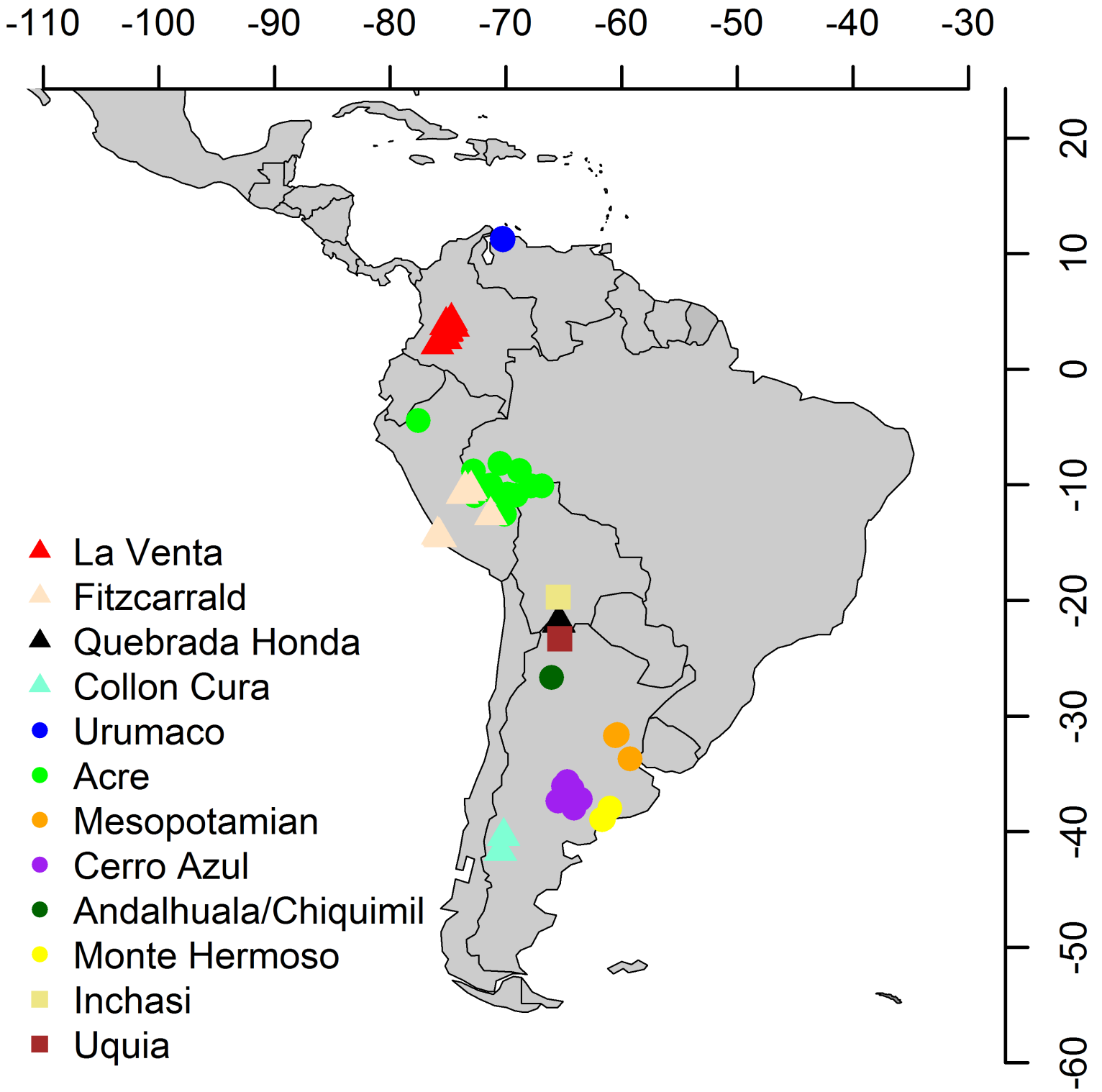
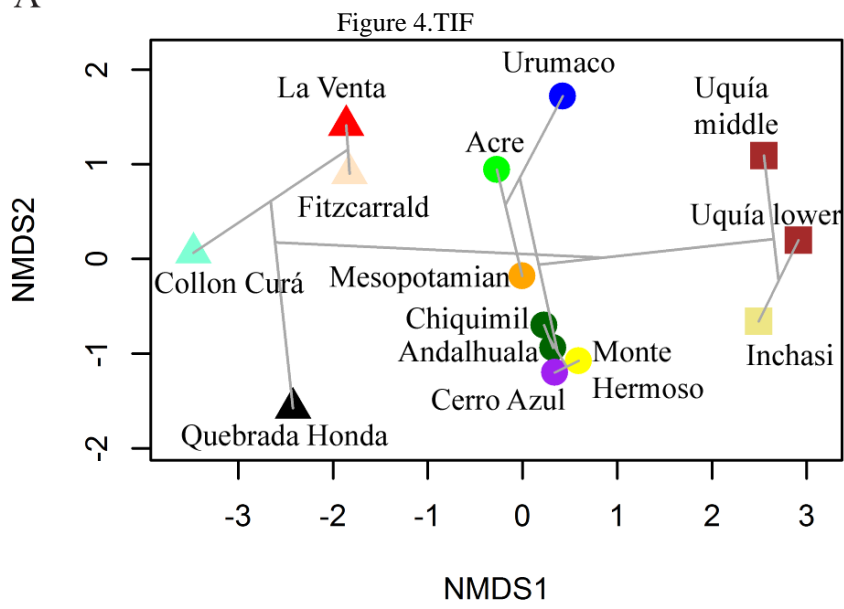


Figure 2.TIFF

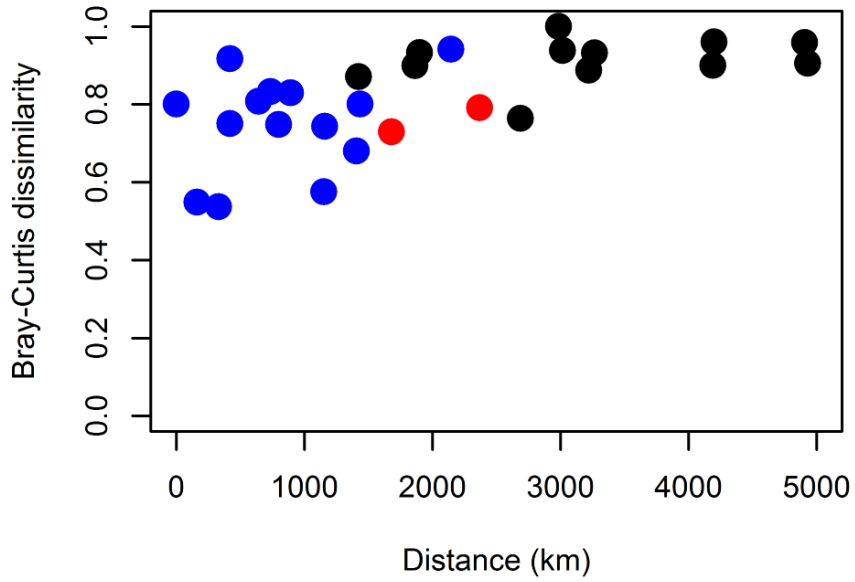


Ma	Period	Epoch	Stage/Age	SALMA	Faunal assemblages		
0.12	Quaternary	Pleistocene	Middle	Lujanian	Uquía		
0.5				Bonaerian			
			1	Calabrian		Ensenadan	
				2		Gelasian	Marplatan
3	Pliocene	Messinian	Chapadmalalan	Inchasi	Urumaco - Cerro Azul - Andalhuala - Chiquimil		
4				Monte hermosan		Monte Hermoso	
5	Miocene		Tortonian	Huayquerian		Mesopotamian	Acre
6							
7		Mayoan					
8		Servallian	Laventan	La Venta Fitzcarrald Quebrada Honda			
9				Langhian	Colloncuran	Collon Curá	
10							
11							
12							
13							
14							
15							

A



B



C

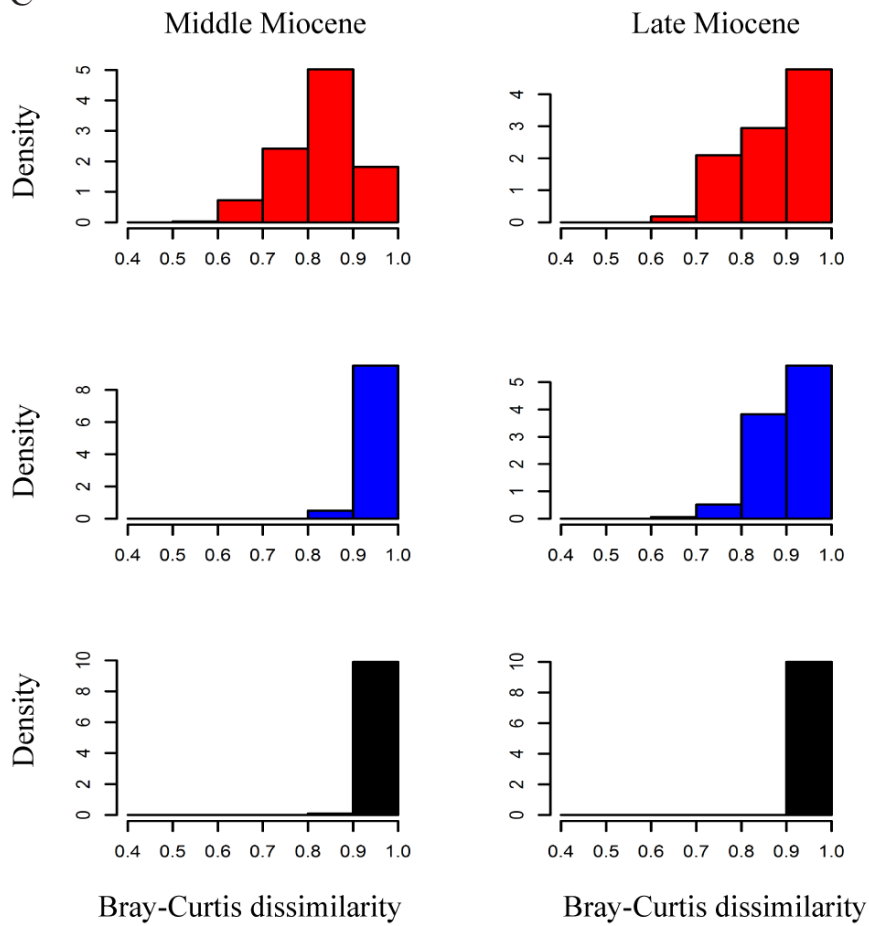


Figure 5.TIFF

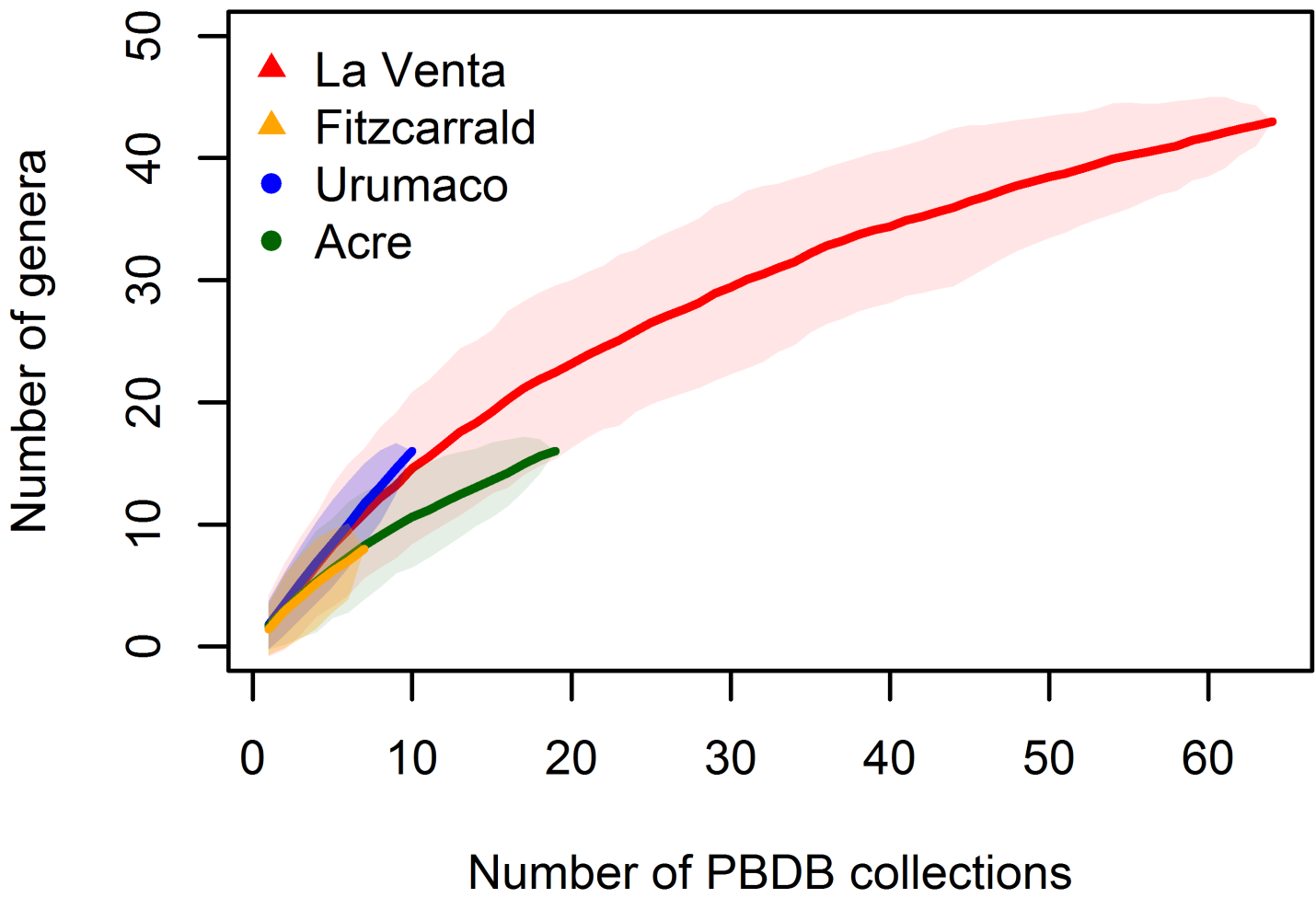


Figure 6.TIF

