

1 **The first fossil skull of an anteater (Vermilingua, Myrmecophagidae) from**
2 **northern South America, a taxonomic reassessment of *Neotamandua* and a**
3 **discussion of the myrmecophagid diversification**

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12
13 **Abstract.**—The evolutionary history of the South American anteaters, *Vermilingua*, is
14 incompletely known as consequence of the fragmentary and geographically biased nature of
15 the fossil record of this group. *Neotamandua borealis* is the only recorded extinct species from
16 northern South America, specifically from the Middle Miocene of La Venta area,
17 southwestern Colombia. A new genus and species of myrmecophagid for La Venta, Gen. et
18 sp. nov., is here described based on a new partial skull. Additionally, given that the co-
19 occurring species of Gen. et sp. nov., *N. borealis*, was originally referred to as *Neotamandua*,
20 the taxonomic status of this genus is revised. The morphological and taxonomic analyses of
21 these taxa indicate that Gen. et sp. nov. may be related to *Tamandua* and that the justification

22 of the generic assignments of the species referred to as *Neotamandua* is weak or insufficient.
23 Two species previously referred to as *Neotamandua* (*N. magna* and *N.? australis*) were
24 designated as *species inquirendae* and new diagnostic information for the redefined genus and
25 its type species, *N. conspicua*, is provided. Together, these results suggest that the
26 diversification of Myrmecophagidae was taxonomically and biogeographically more complex
27 than what has been proposed so far. Considering the new evidence, it is proposed a synthetic
28 model on the diversification of these xenarthrans during the late Cenozoic based on the
29 probable relationships between their intrinsic ecological constraints and some major abiotic
30 changes in the Americas.

31

32 **Introduction**

33 The anteaters of the suborder Vermilingua are part of Xenarthra, one of the more inclusive
34 clades in the evolutionary tree of the placental mammals (Eutheria) and a characteristic group
35 in the land mammal assemblages of the middle-late Cenozoic of the Americas (McDonald et
36 al., 2008; Foley et al., 2016; Halliday et al., 2016; Feijoo and Parada, 2017). Within
37 Xenarthra, Vermilingua belongs to Pilosa, a clade that also includes the sloths, i.e.,
38 Tardigrada. Today, Vermilingua comprises the genera *Cyclopes* (pygmy anteaters), *Tamandua*
39 (collared anteaters) and *Myrmecophaga* (giant anteaters). These genera groups ten extant
40 species, most of which (seven) belong to *Cyclopes*, according to the most recent exhaustive
41 taxonomic revision (Miranda et al., 2017). The classic phylogenetic hypothesis reunites
42 *Tamandua* and *Myrmecophaga* in the family Myrmecophagidae, while *Cyclopes* is located in
43 a basal position with respect to Myrmecophagidae as the only recent form of the family

44 Cyclopedidae (Engelmann, 1985). With the connotation of a superior taxonomic hierarchy
45 (i.e., at the family level; Barros et al., 2008; Gibb et al., 2015), according to an early
46 evolutionary divergence (Hirschfeld, 1976; Delsuc et al., 2001; Gibb et al., 2016) and in
47 recognition of a more extended use in the scientific literature, the names Myrmecophagidae
48 and Cyclopedidae are used here, instead of Myrmecophaginae and Cyclopiniae *sensu* Gaudin
49 and Branham (1998), respectively. However, the taxonomic content of Myrmecophaginae and
50 Cyclopiniae, including extinct forms, is considered as transferable to their counterparties
51 (McDonald et al., 2008).

52 The living anteaters, whose mean body mass ranges from ~0.4 to 30 kilograms (Gaudin
53 et al., 2018), are highly, morphologically specialized mammals due to their remarkable
54 skeleton and soft-anatomy modifications, which are closely related to their myrmecophagous
55 diets, i.e., diets consisting of at least 90% of ants/termites (Redford, 1987; McDonald et al.,
56 2008). Many of these adaptations, anatomically located in the skull and jaws, are associated
57 between themselves in several ways, being part of the architecture of an integrated functional
58 system of food apprehension and ingestion. Among these features, the following are some of
59 the most noteworthy: rostral elongation and narrowing, basicranial-basifacial axis curvature,
60 complete loss of teeth, gracile jaw, reduction of the adductor jaw muscles, unfused jaw
61 symphysis and protrusible long tongue (Reiss, 2001; Gaudin and McDonald, 2008; McDonald
62 et al., 2008). Several of these morphological specializations are convergent with those
63 described for other myrmecophagous mammals such as the pangolins (Pholidota) and the
64 aardvarks (Tubulidentata), so it is not surprising that early systematic researchers erroneously
65 proposed close common ancestry of Vermilingua with these Old world groups based on their
66 superficial similarities (e.g., Engelmann, 1978; Norman and Ashley, 1994).

67 In spite of their unique biology and ecology, at least in the context of the land mammals
68 of the Americas, the evolutionary history of the anteaters is largely obscured by their poor,
69 fragmentary and geographically biased fossil record (Hirschfeld, 1976; Gaudin and Branham,
70 1998; McDonald et al., 2008). Generally, five valid genera and nine species are recognized in
71 the fossil record of Vermilingua, two genera and two species of which have extant
72 representatives, i.e., *Myrmecophaga tridactyla* and *Tamandua tetradactyla*.
73 Myrmecophagidae groups nearly all of these fossil taxa (only one genus and one species for
74 Cyclopedidae) in a general biochron that begin ca. 18 million years ago (Mya), most of them
75 distributed throughout the Neogene (McDonald et al., 2008). But while the record of this
76 family for the latter period is taxonomically more diverse than that for the Quaternary, it also
77 poses more difficulties in the systematic framework of the implicated taxa. The oldest member
78 of Myrmecophagidae is *Protamandua rothi*, from the late Early Miocene of the Province of
79 Santa Cruz, southern Argentina (Ameghino, 1904). This species has been well validated from
80 a pair of incomplete skulls and several postcranial bones, but the validity of other co-occurrent
81 putative vermilinguan (myrmecophagid?) taxa is, at least, questionable (Hirschfeld, 1976;
82 McDonald et al., 2008). For the early Middle Miocene has been reported a myrmecophagid
83 doubtfully assigned to *Neotamandua*, and yet used to create a new species from isolated
84 humeral remains (*N.? australis*; Scillato-Yané and Carlini, 1998). In the latter genus,
85 postcranial material of a medium-to-large sized anteater from La Venta area, southwestern
86 Colombia, was also allocated with some uncertainty (Hirschfeld, 1985). The description of
87 this material represents the only nominal extinct species from northern South America.
88 *Neotamandua* chronologically extends to the Late Miocene and Early Pliocene with the
89 species *N. magna* (Ameghino, 1919), *N. greslebini* (Kraglievich, 1940) and *N. conspicua*

90 (type species; Rovereto, 1914), all of which come from northwestern Argentina (Provinces of
91 Catamarca and Tucumán). This genus is typically recognized as morphologically similar
92 (even directly ancestral) to *Myrmecophaga*, although the latter is smaller in body size
93 (Hirschfeld, 1976; Gaudin and Branham, 1998). Considering the very few anatomically
94 correlatable elements on which the different species referred to as *Neotamandua* are based,
95 Hirschfeld (1976) and Scillato-Yané and Carlini (1998) suggested that this genus could be
96 paraphyletic. Furthermore, the latter authors proposed the hypothesis that *Neotamandua* is
97 composed by two distinct evolutionary lineages: the one more closely related to
98 *Myrmecophaga* and other to *Tamandua*. In turn, these two lineages would have diverged in
99 allopatry in South America, in such a way that the geographic origin of *Myrmecophaga* is
100 located in northern South America, while that of *Tamandua* is in southern South America.

101 In this article, we describe the first fossil skull of a myrmecophagid (and vermilinguan)
102 from northern South America. This specimen was collected in the Middle Miocene of La
103 Victoria Formation of La Venta area, Colombia. This allowed us to revise the taxonomic
104 status of *Neotamandua*, as it is the only nominal taxon previously reported for the same region
105 and geological unit in Colombia. The results prompt the development of a discussion on a
106 model of diversification for Myrmecophagidae in which new and previous hypothesis about
107 this evolutionary event are synthesized. This contribution is intended to reevaluate, expand and
108 integrate biotic and abiotic evidence related to the diversification of this fascinating mammal
109 group, emphasizing on the biogeographic role of tropical, low latitude regions of the
110 Americas.

111

112 **Material and methods**

113 The cranial specimen described for the first time here for Colombia (VPPLT 975) comes from
114 a light-brown mudstone layer in the Llano Largo field, around 2 Km northeast of La Victoria
115 town, Municipality of Villavieja, Department of Huila (Fig. 1). Strata of the La Victoria
116 Formation outcrop there, within the paleontologically relevant area of La Venta. La Victoria
117 Formation is a geological unit of ~500 m in thickness which is mainly composed by
118 bioturbated mudstones (Anderson et al., 2016). These sedimentites are interrupted by very
119 continuous, coarse-to-fine grained sandstones with crossbedding and erosive bases. According
120 to the lithostratigraphic scheme of Guerrero (1997; Fig. 1), the new skull was found at a level
121 stratigraphically close (<20 m) and below the Chunchullo sandstone beds, i.e., the lower part
122 of the La Victoria Formation. This corresponds to the unit referred to as “Unit between the
123 Cerro Gordo and Chunchullo sandstone beds”. As described by the same author, this unit,
124 whose thickness ranges from ~80 to 160 m, is predominantly composed of mudstones and
125 some interlayers of sandstones. This sedimentary body bears abundant plutonic and volcanic
126 fragments from the lower Jurassic basement of the Honda Group (Saldaña Formation), as well
127 as clasts of volcanic rocks formed in the magmatic arc of the Cordillera Central of Colombia
128 during the Middle Miocene (Anderson et al., 2016).

129 The general paleoenvironment inferred for the La Victoria Formation is a meandering
130 fluvial system (except for the Cerbatana conglomerate, associated to an anastomosed system)
131 with significant soil development in flood plain zones (Guerrero, 1997). The ages calculated
132 by Guerrero (1997) and Flynn et al. (1997) using magnetic polarity stratigraphy and
133 geochronology, indicate sedimentary deposition took place in an interval of 13.8–12.5 Mya.
134 These results have recently been reinforced by the U-Pb geochronology of detrital zircons
135 recovered in this formation (Anderson et al., 2016), showing an age range of 14.4 ± 1.9 □

136 13.2 ± 1.3 Mya. This interval coincides approximately with the early Serravalian, sub-stage of
137 the Middle Miocene.

138 With some nomenclatural modifications, cranial measurements are based on those of
139 Hossotani et al. (2017) (Fig. 2; see Anatomical Abbreviations). All these measurements are in
140 millimetres (mm). The description of the new skull of La Venta includes a rough body mass
141 estimation of the respective individual from a traditional allometric approach. All these data
142 and analyses are compiled in the Supplementary material (Appendices S1 and S3). For the
143 taxonomic analysis of the genus *Neotamandua*, the justifications of the generic allocations for
144 the referred species (at least doubtfully) were revised in all the relevant scientific literature.
145 These species are: *Neotamandua conspicua* Rovereto, 1914 (type species); *Neotamandua*
146 *magna* Ameghino, 1919; *Neotamandua greslebini* Kraglievich, 1940; *Neotamandua borealis*
147 Hirschfeld, 1976; *Neotamandua? australis* Scillato-Yané and Carlini, 1998. Additionally,
148 some observations were made on the holotypes of *N. conspicua* (MACN 8097) and *N.*
149 *borealis* (UCMP 39847) to reexamine the described characteristics for these species in the
150 original publications (Rovereto [1914] and Hirschfeld [1976], respectively). The conceptual
151 model of Plotnick and Warner (2006) for the identification of taxonomic wastebaskets was
152 applied to *Neotamandua*. From the foregoing and the designation of the specimen FMNH
153 P14419 as epitype of *N. conspicua*, a diagnosis for *Neotamandua* was proposed. See a list of
154 all the studied fossil specimens in the Appendix S1 of the Supplementary material.

155 On the other hand, considering that Hirschfeld (1976), in her description of *N. borealis*,
156 did not include morphological comparisons based on postcranial bones of this species and
157 homologous elements of species referred to as *Neotamandua* from southern South America,
158 we performed this task and a preliminary character distribution analysis from postcrania of

159 these taxa to explore the hypothesis that they are closely related. Forcibly, *N. magna* and *N.?*
160 *australis* are excluded from the comparisons since they do not have osteological elements
161 correlated with those of *N. borealis* (or any other species referred to as *Neotamandua*).
162 Additionally, as a result of the loss of its holotype (McDonald et al., 2008), comparisons with
163 *N. greslebini* are based exclusively on the non-illustrated description by Kraglievich (1940).
164 Other comparisons include postcranium collected by Juan Méndez in 1911 in the upper
165 Miocene of the Andalhuala locality, Province of Catamarca, Argentina. This material was
166 assigned to *Neotamandua* (*Neotamandua* sp.) without a reference publication. McDonald et
167 al. (2008) manifested doubt about this taxonomic assignment (*Neotamandua?*), but these
168 authors simultaneously speculated that it might be the lost holotype of *N. greslebini*.

169 Following McKenna and Bell (1997), the genus *Nunezia* is considered a junior synonym
170 of *Myrmecophaga*. Myological inferences are based on Hirschfeld (1976) and Gambaryan et
171 al. (2009).

172 *Repositories and institutional abbreviations.*—CAC: Cátedra de Anatomía Comparada,
173 Facultad de Ciencias Naturales y Museo, Universidad Nacional de La Plata; FMNH: Field
174 Museum, Chicago, IL., USA; ICN: Instituto de Ciencias Naturales, Facultad de Ciencias,
175 Universidad Nacional, Bogotá, Colombia; MACN: Museo Argentino de Ciencias Naturales
176 ‘Bernardino Rivadavia’, Buenos Aires, Argentina; MLP: Museo de La Plata, Facultad de
177 Ciencias Naturales y Museo, Universidad Nacional de La Plata, La Plata, Argentina; MPT:
178 Museo Provincial de Tucumán, Tucumán, Argentina; UCMP: University of California
179 Museum of Paleontology, Berkeley, CA., USA; VPPLT: Museo de Historia Natural La
180 Tatacoa, La Victoria, Huila, Colombia; YPM: Peabody Museum, Yale University, New
181 Haven, CT, USA.

182 *Anatomical abbreviations.*—Abbreviations of equivalent measurements by Hossotani et al.,
183 (2017) in parenthesis. FL, frontal length; GSL (SL), greatest skull length; MBW (NC),
184 maximum braincase width; ML, maxilla length; NL, nasal length; NW (NB), nasal width; PL,
185 parietal length.

186

187 **Systematic paleontology**

188 Superorder Xenarthra Cope, 1889

189 Order Pilosa Flower, 1883

190 Suborder Vermilingua Illiger, 1811

191 Family Myrmecophagidae Gray, 1825

192 New genus

193 *Type species.*—Gen. et sp. nov. (see below).

194 *Diagnosis.*—As for the type species by monotypy.

195 *Etymology.*—[this space is left in blank intentionally]

196 *Remarks.*—We propose the creation of Gen. nov. partly based on direct or indirect
197 comparison between the holotypic skull of the only known and type species, Gen. et sp. nov.,
198 and cranial/postcranial material assigned to the species *Neotamandua borealis* and *N.*
199 *conspicua* (see below the sections “Revised taxonomy of the genus *Neotamandua*” and
200 “Systematic account for *Neotamandua*”).

201

202

Gen. et sp. nov.

203 *Holotype*.—VPPLT 975, anterior portion of a skull, without jugals nor premaxillae.

204 *Diagnosis*.—Middle sized myrmecophagid, slightly smaller than *Tamandua* and even more
205 than *Neotamandua*. It can be differentiated from other genera/species of anteaters by the
206 following combination of cranial features: relatively width rostrum, similar to *Tamandua*;
207 narrow and strongly tapered nasals toward their anterior end; anteroposterior length of the pre-
208 orbital section of frontals equal to more than two thirds of the anteroposterior length of nasals;
209 jugals inserted from the same level of the most anterior border of the lacrimal; anterior portion
210 of the orbit more laterally extended in the superior wall in the inferior one, without forming a
211 conspicuous dome as in *Neotamandua conspicua*.

212 *Description*.— The rostrum is proportionally shorter and more robust than those in
213 *Myrmecophaga* and *N. conspicua* (see below), but less than in *Tamandua*. In dorsal view, it is
214 very similar to the skull of *Tamandua*, with at least four characteristics remarkably different
215 with respect this extant genus: (1) lower rostrum; (2) rostrum more regularly tapered; (3)
216 narrower and more anteriorly tapered nasals; (4) pre-orbital section of the frontals more
217 anteroposteriorly elongated. In dorsal view, the rostrum shows a slight bulge in its middle
218 part, similar to that in *Tamandua* and *Myrmecophaga*. However, in VPPLT 975 this bulge is
219 even subtler than in the living myrmecophagids. Apparently, the nasals are shorter than
220 frontals and are poorly exposed in lateral view. The jugals are absent by preservation, but it is
221 possible to recognize their insertion location, which is more anterior than in *Myrmecophaga*,
222 but more posterior than in *Tamandua*. Associated to the insertion of the jugal, there is a
223 reduced posterolateral process of the maxilla in comparison with that of *Myrmecophaga*,
224 similar in *Tamandua*. The right side of the skull preserves better the lacrimal zone, but it is

225 simultaneously more deformed around the fronto-maxillary suture than in the left side. The
226 lacrimal is longer in its anteroposterior axis than in that dorsoventral. The same bone is
227 proportionally smaller than in *Tamandua* and even more than in *N. conspicua*. It has a
228 triangular outline (at least anteriorly), similar to *Myrmecophaga* and unlike *Tamandua*
229 (irregularly rounded, ovated, or, infrequently, sub-triangular lacrimal). The maxilla is not part
230 of the orbit. The superior wall of the orbit is more laterally expanded than the inferior wall,
231 without forming a conspicuous dome as in *N. conspicua*. This is similar to the condition
232 observed in *Myrmecophaga* and differs from that in *Tamandua*, in which the inferior wall is
233 prominent given that it is more laterally expanded. It is not possible to recognize lacrimal nor
234 orbital foramina. In ventral view, the dorsal border of the orbit is regularly concave. The
235 palatines are less laterally extended than in *Tamandua* and apparently there are no palatine
236 “wings” (noticeable lateral expansions of the palatines), unlike *N. conspicua*.

237 *Etymology*.—[this space is left in blank intentionally]

238 *Remarks*.—See cranial measurements taken for this new species and other myrmecophagids in
239 the Table 1. The estimated body mass for this individual is ca. 3.9 Kg (Appendix S3 of the
240 Supplementary material). As consequence of the preservation, some sutures in VPPLT 975 are
241 distinguishable in dorsal and lateral views, but virtually no suture is clearly detectable in
242 ventral view.

243

244 **Revised taxonomy of the genus *Neotamandua***

245 *Taxonomic history and discussion on the taxonomic status of Neotamandua*.—The genus
246 *Neotamandua* was proposed by Rovereto (1914) based on a posterior portion of a skull

247 (MACN 8097), which was collected from upper Miocene-to-Pliocene strata of the Province of
248 Catamarca, Argentina. The name *Neotamandua*, literally meaning ‘new tamandua’, was
249 coined by Rovereto in allusion to the cranial similarity of the type species, *N. conspicua*, with
250 the extant genus *Tamandua*, rather than with *Myrmecophaga*. This detail would be historically
251 paradoxical, as will be shown below. It is important to note that Rovereto (1914) did not
252 provide a diagnosis for *Neotamandua*, but he just briefly described the holotype of *N.*
253 *conspicua*, emphasizing its elongated parietals. However, this feature, more comparable with
254 that in *Myrmecophaga* than that in any other myrmecophagid, was correlated with the
255 anteroposterior length of the parietals in *Tamandua*. A few years after Rovereto’s work,
256 Carlos Ameghino (Ameghino, 1919) used a pelvis (MPT 58) recovered in contemporary strata
257 from the Province of Tucuman, Argentina, to create a new species, *N. magna*. Despite the
258 taxonomic assignment of this pelvis to *Neotamandua*, Ameghino discussed that, alternatively,
259 this species could belong to other genus of larger body size, as Kraglievich (1940) also held.
260 Formally, *N. magna* has not been reevaluated, but McDonald et al. (2008) suggested that,
261 given that this species was transferred to *Nunezia* by Kraglievich (1934), and *Nunezia* is
262 considered a junior synonym of *Myrmecophaga* (Hirschfeld, 1976; McKenna and Bell, 1997),
263 then *N. magna* should be included in the latter genus, i.e., *Myrmecophaga magna* comb. nov.
264 (unpublished). Indeed, the morphological differences cited by Ameghino (1919) and
265 Kraglievich (1940) between the pelvis of *N. magna* and that of *M. tridactyla* (e.g., greater
266 width and ventral flattening of the intermediate sacral vertebrae) do not seem sufficient to
267 consider a generic distinction between these species.

268 Two decades later, Kraglievich (1940) proposed a new species based on postcranium
269 collected in the upper Miocene of the Province of Catamarca. This was initially assigned to *N.*

270 *conspicua*. According to Kraglievich, the then new species, *N. greslebini*, is easily identifiable
271 by its large size, intermediate between those of *N. conspicua* and *N. magna*. Similar to
272 Rovereto (1914), this author correlated with *Tamandua* his generic assignment of *N.*
273 *greslebini* to *Neotamandua*, considering the similarity between the fossil specimens of this
274 species and homologous elements of the living collared anteater (Kraglievich, p. 633). The
275 holotype of *N. greslebini* is missing or mixed up with material labelled with generic names of
276 extinct anteaters (i.e., *Neotamandua* and *Palaeomyrmidon*) in the Museo Argentino de
277 Ciencias Naturales (MACN), in Buenos Aires, Argentina (McDonald et al., 2008).

278 Already in the second half of the 20th century, a controversy about a possible
279 synonymy between *Neotamandua* and *Myrmecophaga* arose. This means that there was a
280 radical paradigmatic shift in myrmecophagid systematics from the early 20th-century
281 perspectives which considered that *Neotamandua* is closely related to *Tamandua*, to the late
282 20th century ones which considered that *Neotamandua* was even a serious candidate to be a
283 junior synonym of *Myrmecophaga*. This historical change began with the non-cladistic
284 systematic analysis of Hirschfeld (1976), in which *Neotamandua* was originally proposed as
285 the direct ancestor (anagenetic form) of *Myrmecophaga*. In the same work, Hirschfeld created
286 the first and, until now, only nominal extinct species of Vermilingua and Myrmecophagidae
287 for northern South America, *N. borealis* (Middle Miocene of Colombia). Given the scarcity
288 and fragmentation of the specimens referred to as *Neotamandua*, Hirschfeld (1976)
289 recognized the need to revise the taxonomic validity of *N. conspicua*, *N. magna* and *N.*
290 *greslebini*. Indeed, she went beyond and stated that *Neotamandua* species could be
291 representatives of more than one single genus. However, her assignment of *N. borealis* to
292 *Neotamandua* was based primarily on the idea that the fossils she studied are “considerably

293 more advanced than those known from the Santacruzan [late Early Miocene], closer to the
294 Araucanian [Late Miocene-Pliocene] species and...to the line leading to *Myrmecophaga* than
295 *Tamandua*" (Hirschfeld, p. 421). For this author, many postcranial traits of *N. borealis* are
296 intermediate between *Tamandua* and *Myrmecophaga*. As a questionable methodological
297 aspect, it is important to note that Hirschfeld (1976) did not make osteological comparisons
298 with the southern species of *Neotamandua*, only with postcrania of *Protamandua*, *Tamandua*
299 and *Myrmecophaga* (extant species of the two latter genera).

300 In implicit reply to Hirschfeld (1976), Patterson et al. (1992) highlighted the
301 morphological similarities between the unpublished skull FMNH P14419, catalogued as *N.*
302 *conspicua* in the Field Museum, and the modern skulls of *Myrmecophaga*. For these authors,
303 FMNH P14419 only differs from skulls of the living giant anteater in its smaller size.
304 Consequently, Patterson et al. (1992) suggested to synonymize *Neotamandua* and
305 *Myrmecophaga*, with nomenclatural priority for the latter. Nevertheless, Gaudin and Branham
306 (1998) provided (weak) support for the validity of *Neotamandua* through a comprehensive
307 phylogenetic analysis of Vermilingua. Their results indicate that *Neotamandua* is an
308 independent taxon based on two autapomorphies, being one of them ambiguous and the other
309 one unambiguous. The latter is the horizontal inclination of the glenoid. In the only most
310 parsimonious tree recovered by Gaudin and Branham (1998), *Neotamandua* is closely related
311 to *Myrmecophaga*, not *Tamandua*, as opposed to Rovereto (1914) and Kraglievich (1940).

312 Finally, the last species referred, with doubt, to the genus was *N.? australis* (Scillato-
313 Yané and Carlini, 1998). The holotype of this species consists only of a humerus (MLP 91-IX-
314 6-5) collected in the lower Middle Miocene of the Province of Río Negro, Argentina. Scillato-
315 Yané and Carlini (1998) highlighted some similarities of this material with the humerus of

316 *Tamandua*. They also expressed considerably uncertainty in assigning it to *Neotamandua*, not
317 only by its fragmentary nature, but from the idea of Hirschfeld about the non-natural (i.e.,
318 non-monophyletic) status of this genus. Without performing a phylogenetic analysis, these
319 authors proposed a hypothesis that *N. borealis* is closely related to *Myrmecophaga*, while *N.*
320 *conspicua* and *N. ? australis* are closer to *Tamandua*. If this hypothesis is correct, *N. borealis*
321 does not belong to *Neotamandua* as consequence of the application of the nomenclatural
322 priority principle.

323 In summary, multiple historical factors, including the lack of a diagnosis, insufficient
324 number of anatomically correlatable/highly diagnostic postcranial elements and, especially,
325 absence of cranial-postcranial associations, aroused the relatively arbitrary use of
326 *Neotamandua* as a wastebasket taxon, i.e., a residual genus deriving from weak and/or
327 inadequate systematic analysis. According to the conceptual model of Plotnick and Warner
328 (2006), *Neotamandua* has five (from a total of seven) properties of a genus potentially
329 classifiable as wastebasket: (1) it is an old name (i.e., more than one century to the present);
330 (2) it is [relatively] rich in species (five species, i.e., the most speciose extinct genus of
331 *Vermilingua*); (3) it has a [relatively] high number of occurrences; (4) it has wide temporal
332 and geographic distributions; (5) it [primarily] groups together specimens poorly preserved
333 and/or difficult to identify. To these five properties we may add the lack of a diagnosis, which
334 is related in some way to the property number two of the Plotnick-Warner model, i.e., genera
335 diagnosed from generalized characters, probably plesiomorphies or easily recognizable
336 characters.

337 As it was shown, *Neotamandua* has been invoked as a directly ancestral form of
338 *Tamandua*, or, more recently, of *Myrmecophaga*, from its morphological characteristics in

339 common with these two extant genera. But precisely because of this character mosaic, the
340 generic allocation of isolated postcranial remains of myrmecophagids potentially referable to
341 *Neotamandua* should not be reduced or exclusively focused on their comparison with the
342 crown-group, but should also consider the effect of possible homoplasies (e.g., those related to
343 ecological convergences), plesiomorphies and limitations of the fossil record (Plotnick and
344 Warner, 2006). In other words, the apparent affinity between isolated postcranial elements of
345 any Neogene anteater and their homologous in *Myrmecophaga* is not enough to make a
346 reliable generic allocation in *Neotamandua*; diagnostic information of the latter genus is
347 needed, preferably autapomorphies, which enable it to be individually identified and not
348 simply as a set of forms similar to *Myrmecophaga*.

349

350 *Comparisons between northern and southern species referred to as Neotamandua.*— See the
351 Table 2 and 3 for comparisons of postcranial measurements between these species.

352 *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini*.—Both *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini* show two
353 longitudinal, parallel radial ridges, of which the lateral ridge is higher and reaches a more
354 distal level than the cranial one. This is similar to the condition observed in *Myrmecophaga*
355 and differs from the distally convergent radial ridges of *Tamandua*. In *N. borealis*, the lateral
356 ridge is even more distally extended than in *N. greslebini*, in such a way that the flanks of this
357 structure contact the lateral border of the styloid process. According to Kraglievich (1940), in
358 the Argentinean species this ridge ends at an intermediate level between the distal end of the
359 cranial ridge and the styloid process.

360 The type material of *N. borealis* includes a proximal epiphysis and part of the diaphysis of a
361 right tibia. According to Kraglievich (1940), the holotype of *N. greslebini* includes two
362 fragments of a tibia, one of them proximal and the other one distal. Both Hirschfeld and
363 Kraglievich claimed greater overall similarity between the tibial fragments of these species
364 and the homologous parts of *Tamandua*, rather than *Myrmecophaga*. This way, the mid-
365 section of the tibiae both of *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini* is not as strongly triangular as in
366 *Myrmecophaga*. Rather, this bone segment may vary from gently triangular to sub-rounded in
367 these two species referred to as *Neotamandua*, not as rounded as in *Tamandua*.

368 Hirschfeld (1976) described the astragalus of *N. borealis* (Fig. 4) as intermediate in
369 morphology and size between those in *Tamandua* and *Myrmecophaga*. In contrast,
370 Kraglievich (1940) stated that the astragalus of *N. greslebini* closely resembles that of
371 *Tamandua*. New observations enable us to determine that, in dorsal view, the astragalus of *N.*
372 *borealis* is more similar to that in *Tamandua* than *Myrmecophaga* as consequence of a lateral
373 side of the trochlea larger than the medial one (trochlear asymmetry). As *N. greslebini*, the
374 regular concavity in which is inserted the *flexor digitorum fibularis* tendon extends
375 posteroventrally like a well-defined wedge (“pointed shape” in Kraglievich’s words) and it
376 contacts the calcaneal facets across the entire width of the latter. In ventral view, the
377 arrangement of the calcaneal facets in *N. borealis* is a kind of “transition” between that in
378 *Myrmecophaga* and *Tamandua*. In *N. borealis*, the ectal and sustentacular are largely
379 separated by a wide and deep sulcus, but there is an incipient connection. This condition is
380 approximately comparable to that described by Kraglievich (1940) for *N. greslebini* and
381 differs from the fully separated calcaneal facets in *Protamandua* and *Tamandua*. In this sense,
382 Kraglievich was not very explicit in pointing out the degree of development of the connection

383 between these facets, but it is inferred that it is not exactly wide as in *Myrmecophaga* when he
384 wrote that “...these calcaneal articulations are, *apparently*, posteriorly fused...” (italics are
385 ours; Kraglievich, p. 635).

386 Similar to *N. greslebini*, *N. borealis* has a narrow fibular calcaneal facet, which is located
387 laterally and in a slightly different plane with respect to that of the ectal facet (Fig. 4). In both
388 of the former species, the *sustentaculum* is less medially projected than in *Myrmecophaga*.
389 They also show an accessory facet in the anterior end of the calcaneum that articulates with
390 the astragalar head, similarly to *Tamandua*. In all the aforementioned taxa, this facet is closer
391 (even in contact) to the cuboid facet. In *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini*, the cuboid facet is
392 transversely ovate and concave. A unique feature in common for them is the presence of a
393 short tendinous groove (shorter than in *Myrmecophaga*) and strongly concave (Fig. 4). It is the
394 continuation of the longitudinal and conspicuous ridge that runs the calcaneum in its lateral
395 side. The latter separates tendons of the *fibularis longus* and *accessorius* muscles (Hirschfeld,
396 1976; Gambaryan et al., 2009). In *N. borealis*, this ridge is more conspicuous than in
397 *Tamandua* and less than in *Myrmecophaga*.

398 *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp.—See the Table 3 for comparison of postcranial
399 measurements between these species. The distal epiphysis of the radius in *Neotamandua* sp.
400 (MACN 2408) is more massive than that in *N. borealis*. In the latter species, the distal end of
401 the radius is relatively stylized, similar to *Tamandua*. However, the morphologies of *N.*
402 *borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp. are more comparable between them. In distal view, the styloid
403 process of these species is more elongated and posteriorly oriented than in *Tamandua*. In the
404 latter extant genus, the transverse axis (longer axis) of the facet for distal articulation is
405 forming an angle close to 45° with respect to the plane of the anterior side of the radius, while

406 this axis is nearly parallel with respect that plane in *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp. This
407 difference gives a non-rotated appearance to the distal radius of the compared *Neotamandua*
408 species, unlike the same epiphysis in *Tamandua*. In anterior view, the distal articulation facet
409 of *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp. is visible in wedge shape pointing towards the medial
410 border. Additionally, in the same view, this facet exhibits comparable exposures in both of the
411 latter species, considerably more than in *Tamandua*. The posterior side of the distal epiphysis
412 is from flat to slightly concave in *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp., unlike the convex
413 posterior side in *N. greslebini* (this observation could suggest that the material of
414 *Neotamandua* sp. is not the holotype of *N. greslebini*, as speculated by McDonald et al., 2008)
415 and *Tamandua*. The distal extension of the lateral ridge in *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp. is
416 similar.

417 The astragalus of *Neotamandua* sp. (MACN 2406) is only represented by the astragalar body.
418 The medial trochlea is smaller than the lateral trochlea, but this asymmetry is lower than in *N.*
419 *borealis*. In addition, these sections of the trochlea are proportionally less separated in the
420 latter species than in *Neotamandua* sp. On the other hand, the calcaneum is fragmentary in
421 *Neotamandua* sp. (MACN 2411). As in the case of the astragalus, the preserved portion is the
422 bone body. The ectal facet is sub-triangular in shape in *Neotamandua* sp., while it is
423 approximately sub-oval in *N. borealis*. The sustentacular facet is more medially extended in
424 the latter species than in *Neotamandua* sp. In both species, the cuboid facet is partially visible
425 in dorsal view, particularly in *Neotamandua* sp. In the same view, the lateral ridge is slightly
426 exposed in *N. borealis*, not so much as in *Neotamandua* sp.

427 *Discussion.*—The former comparisons allow for recognizing a few morphological
428 similarities and differences between homologous postcranial elements of *N. borealis*, *N.*

429 *greslebini* and *Neotamandua* sp. It is considered that some similarities in these species are
430 potentially diagnostic at the genus level, namely the sub-rounded to gently triangular shape of
431 the tibial mid-section; ectal and sustentacular facets incipiently connected in the astragalus;
432 and a short tendinous groove in the lateral side of the calcaneum (Table 4). These similarities
433 seem to support the hypothesis that these northern and southern South American species
434 referred to as *Neotamandua* are closely related and, consequently, that they are correctly
435 included in the same genus. Alternatively, these common features could be
436 symplesiomorphies of a hypothetical lineage of myrmecophagids more late diverging than
437 *Protamandua* and apparently closer to *Myrmecophaga* than *Tamandua*. Provisionally, from
438 the analysis presented, it is proposed to circumscribe the genus *Neotamandua* to the nominal
439 species *N. conspicua* (type species), *N. greslebini* and *N. borealis*. Since *N. magna* and *N.?*
440 *australis* are doubtfully assigned to *Neotamandua* or its allocation in this genus has been
441 seriously questioned (McDonald et al., 2008; this work), they are considered *species*
442 *inquirendae*, following the International Code of Zoological Nomenclature (Ride et al., 1999).
443 To denote the questionable generic allocation of *N. magna* is suggested the use of inverted
444 commas, i.e., ‘*N.*’ *magna*. The material referred to as *Neotamandua* sp. seems correctly
445 referred to this genus, but it should be further tested. It is possible that these specimens
446 correspond to a new species.

447 The diagnosis for *Neotamandua* proposed below is largely based on the designation of the
448 specimen FMNH P14419 as epitype for the type species (see below), *N. conspicua*, after
449 considering the fragmentary nature of the holotype of this taxon (MACN 8097; Rovereto,
450 1914), and, consequently, its ambiguity or lack of some taxonomically relevant features,
451 particularly in the rostrum. In addition, the potentially diagnostic postcranial features for

452 *Neotamandua* that has been identified above are also incorporated in the new diagnosis until
453 cranial-postcranial associations are found and studied.

454

455 **Systematic account for *Neotamandua***

456 Suborder Vermilingua Illiger, 1811

457 Family Myrmecophagidae Gray, 1825

458 Genus *Neotamandua* Rovereto, 1914

459 *Type species*.—*N. conspicua* Rovereto, 1914.

460 *Other species*.—‘*N.*’ *magna* Ameghino, 1919; *N. greslebini* Kraglievich, 1940; *N. borealis*
461 Hirschfeld, 1976; *N. ? australis* Scillato-Yané and Carlini, 1998.

462 *Diagnosis*.—Middle-to-large sized myrmecophagid, larger than *Tamandua* but smaller than
463 *Myrmecophaga*. It can be differentiated from other vermilinguans by the following
464 combination of characteristics: in dorsal view, rostrum strongly tapered towards its anterior
465 end (more than in any other myrmecophagid), with a regular transition in width from the
466 anterior portion of the frontals to the anterior end of the nasals; reduced lacrimal which is not
467 part of the orbit; jugal inserted in posteroventral position with respect to the lacrimal and
468 slightly projected in posterodorsal direction; frontal forming a dorsal dome at the orbit level;
469 hard palate well extended towards the posterior end of the skull, close to the ventral border of
470 the occipital condyles; squamosal (= posterior) zygomatic process dorsally inclined; presence
471 of palatine “wings”; horizontal inclination of the glenoid (Gaudin and Branham, 1998); sub-
472 oval to gently triangular shape of the tibial mid-section; ectal and sustentacular facets

473 incipiently connected in the astragalus; short tendinous groove in the lateral side of the
474 calcaneum.

475 *LSID*.—urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:4EC0ABE1-C013-4113-9956-5DBD6E79FCEA

476

477 *Neotamandua conspicua* Rovereto, 1914

478 *Holotype*.—MACN 8097, posterior portion of a skull.

479 *Epitype*.—FMNH P14419, nearly complete skull but with fractured rostrum and partially
480 eroded frontals and parietals.

481 *Diagnosis*.—See the diagnosis for *Neotamandua* above. The postcranial diagnostic features
482 included there do not belong to material known for this species.

483 *Occurrence*.—MACN 8097 is from an indeterminate locality in the Santa María Valley,
484 Province of Catamarca, Argentina (Rovereto, 1914). Probably from the Andalhuala
485 Formation. Upper Miocene (McDonald et al., 2008; Bonini, 2014; Esteban et al., 2014).

486 FMNH P 14419 is from the Corral Quemado area, Province of Catamarca, Argentina. Corral
487 Quemado Formation. Lower Pliocene (Bonini, 2014; Esteban et al., 2014). This specimen was
488 collected by Robert Thorne and Felipe Méndez during the Second Captain Marshall Field
489 Paleontological Expedition, which was led by Elmer S. Riggs and developed in Argentina and
490 Bolivia in 1926–1927 (Simpson, pers. comm.; Riggs, 1928). In the Field Museum, where it is
491 deposited, has been catalogued as *N. conspicua*. There are no known referential publications
492 that support the taxonomic assignation to this species, except in Gaudin and Branham (1998)
493 and, now, in this work from direct comparison with its holotype.

494 *Description.*—The skull FMNH P14419 is anteroposteriorly elongated, with a general
495 architecture which is more similar to that in *Myrmecophaga* than *Tamandua*. In dorsal view,
496 both the rostrum, in general, as well as the nasals, in particular, are anteriorly tapered. The
497 pre-orbital section of the frontals is proportionally less elongated than in *Myrmecophaga*. The
498 lacrimal has a sub-triangular outline and its anteroposterior and dorsoventral lengths are
499 similar, unlike *Myrmecophaga*, whose lacrimal is triangular and more anteroposteriorly
500 elongated. The insertion of the jugals is more ventral and posterior than in *Myrmecophaga* and
501 even more than *Tamandua*. Each jugal is slightly tapered by mediolateral compression in its
502 posterior end and it is posterodorsally projected, instead of posteroventrally as in
503 *Myrmecophaga*. The posterolateral process of the maxilla contacts the entire anterior and
504 ventral borders of the lacrimal. The orbital ridge is less prominent than in *Myrmecophaga*.
505 The superior orbital wall is laterally expanded, forming a roof more developed than in
506 *Myrmecophaga*. At the orbit level, the palatines are also laterally expanded, forming palatine
507 “wings”. These structures make the anterior hard palate look wider than the posterior palate.
508 The posterior end of the hard palate is less ventrally projected, as opposed to *Tamandua* and
509 *Myrmecophaga*. In lateral view, the squamosal zygomatic processes are dorsally inclined,
510 contrary to the ventral inclination of the same bone projection in *Tamandua* and
511 *Myrmecophaga*. This feature would be a convergence with *Cyclopes*. The braincase is
512 proportionally larger than in *Myrmecophaga*, but smaller than in *Tamandua*. The tympanic
513 bulla is less developed than in *Tamandua*. The external auditory meatus has subcircular to
514 circular shape, similar to *Myrmecophaga* (ovated in *Tamandua*). In *N. conspicua* the same
515 opening is located in a posterodorsal position, as *Myrmecophaga* and in contrast with
516 *Tamandua*, in which it has an anterodorsal position. Despite the palatopterygoid suture is not

517 well preserved, it appears to be more similar to the irregular suture in *Myrmecophaga*, with a
518 posteriorly opened, asymmetrical “V” shape, than the regular suture in *Tamandua*, with an
519 anteriorly opened, symmetrical “V” shape. There is no interpterygoid vacuity where a soft
520 palate could be established, similar to *Myrmecophaga*. The occipital condyles are
521 proportionally larger than in *Myrmecophaga*.

522 *LSID*.—urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:C4DC62D5-6470-4A04-B152-D42ED3BA332C

523 *Remarks*.—The cranial measurements taken for FMNH P14419 are shown in the Table 1.

524

525 **Discussion**

526 *Systematic implications*.—This work includes the first description of a new, valid extinct
527 genus for Myrmecophagidae in the last century, i.e., Gen. nov. Likewise, it constitutes a novel
528 taxonomic comprehensive reassessment for *Neotamandua* since the work by Hirschfeld
529 (1976). The results suggest that there are still critical gaps in our knowledge on the
530 composition and diversity of the Neogene assemblages of these xenartrans, particularly in the
531 tropical region of South America. With the inclusion of Gen. et sp. nov. (Fig. 6),
532 Myrmecophagidae now comprises at least five genera (three of them fully extinct) and 11
533 nominal species (eight extinct species), namely [the dagger means extinct species]:
534 *Protamandua rothi*[†]; *Neotamandua? australis*[†]; *Neotamandua borealis*[†]; Gen. et sp. nov.[†];
535 ‘*Neotamandua magna*[†]’; *Neotamandua greslebini*[†]; *Neotamandua conspicua*[†]; *Myrmecophaga*
536 *caroloameghinoi*[†]; *Myrmecophaga tridactyla*; *Tamandua tetradactyla*; and *Tamandua*
537 *Mexicana* (McDonald et al., 2008; this work). Of these taxa, only two genera and two species
538 have fossil occurrence in northern South America: *N. borealis* (Middle Miocene of Colombia;

539 Hirschfeld, 1976) and Gen. et sp. nov. (Middle Miocene of Colombia; this work) (Fig. 7). The
540 latter taxon is a small-to-middle sized myrmecophagid, comparable but slightly smaller than
541 *Tamandua*. The general morphology of the skull of this new anteater resembles more to that
542 of *Tamandua* than any other known taxon. It shows remarkable features such as: (1) strongly
543 tapered nasals toward its anterior rostrum; (2) relatively low rostrum and anterior section of
544 frontals; (3) large pre-orbital section of frontals; and (4) strongly triangulated (anterior)
545 lacrimal. The tapering of nasals is a characteristic in common with *N. conspicua*, but in the
546 latter species the entire rostrum is tapered, not only the nasals, as Gen. et sp. nov. The
547 relatively low rostrum and anterior section of frontals seems to indicate a plesiomorphy, given
548 that this feature is apparently present in *P. rothi*. A large pre-orbital section of frontals is
549 shared, in (nearly) extreme condition, by *N. conspicua* and, especially, *Myrmecophaga*, but it
550 should be noted that in Gen. et sp. nov. there is no such as elongated skull. And, finally, the
551 strongly triangulated (anterior) lacrimal in the latter species is superficially similar to that in
552 *Myrmecophaga*. Estimates of cranial measurements and features (rostrum length, exposure of
553 the maxilla in the orbit and curvature of the basicranial-basifacial axis) used for coding the
554 characters with numbers 4, 8, 9 and 42 of the character list by Gaudin and Branham (1998),
555 enable us to tentatively infer the phylogenetic position of Gen. et sp. nov. as a taxon included
556 within the clade *Tamandua* + *Neotamandua* + *Myrmecophaga* and located in a polytomy with
557 *Tamandua*. Under this preliminary phylogenetic analysis, which is not presented in the results
558 section because there is not enough information for coding the new taxon, *Protamandua* is
559 well supported as the most basal myrmecophagid as consequence of sharing several character
560 states with non-Myrmecophagidae Vermilingua (i.e., *Cyclopes* and *Palaeomyrmidon*; for
561 more details, see Gaudin and Branham, 1998). For future studies, the subfamilial name

562 “Myrmecophaginae” is tentatively suggested for all the Myrmecophagidae more late
563 diverging than *Protamandua*, including possibly Gen. et sp. nov. In this sense, new and more
564 complete material referable to the latter taxon is required to shed light on its phylogenetic
565 position.

566 On other hand, the taxonomic analysis of *Neotamandua* and its referred species
567 indicates that these taxa were based on a poorly supported taxonomy. Other case of extinct
568 vermilinguans with flawed systematics in low levels of the taxonomic hierarchy was noted by
569 McDonald et al. (2008) with regard to genera and species proposed from isolated postcranial
570 elements of putative myrmecophagids or even members of new, distinct families from the
571 Early Miocene of Santa Cruz, southern Argentina. These authors, partially based on
572 comparisons by Hirschfeld (1976), argued that the number of taxa claimed for that area and
573 interval (seven genera and nine species; e.g., *Promyrmephagus*, *Adiastaltus*; Ameghino, 1894)
574 has been artificially inflated, even though it is still possible to revalidate taxa other than the
575 well validated species *P. rothi* (McDonald et al., 2008). All these research problems in
576 systematics imply the need to regularly reevaluate the taxonomy of extinct anteaters through
577 reexamination, when possible, of previously described material and the study of new
578 specimens. While it is true that the fossil record of Vermilingua is poor and fragmentary in
579 comparison, for instance, with that of other xenartrans such as the Tardigrada, the sampling
580 effort should be increased in order to have greater recovery of fossil material for this group,
581 especially in areas known for their preservation potential (e.g., southern and northwestern
582 Argentina, southwestern Colombia).

583 Even though, no diagnosis for this genus was found through the reevaluation of the
584 taxonomic status of *Neotamandua*. The newly proposed diagnosis includes multiple cranial

585 and potential postcranial characteristics, which uphold that *Neotamandua*, whether it is a
586 natural group or not, certainly contains species that do not belong to *Myrmecophaga*, despite
587 their great resemblance with the latter. This outcome is congruent with the taxonomic opinion
588 of Gaudin and Branham (1998) and is at odds with Patterson et al. (1992). Now, can we
589 confidently say that *Neotamandua* is monophyletic from current evidence? As previously
590 defined by other workers, *Neotamandua* may be composed of successive basal species or
591 genera in relation to the hypothetical clade of *Myrmecophaga* (i.e., *My. tridactyla* + *My.*
592 *caroloameghinoi*). If that is correct, *Neotamandua* would be paraphyletic by definition, since
593 it excludes some of its descendants (Serenio et al., 1991). This possible pattern of basal
594 paraphyly is consequence of a taxonomy that is not defined by clades, but grades (Huxley,
595 1958; Wood and Lonergan, 2008). The monophyly of *Neotamandua*, as was redefined here
596 (i.e., *N. conspicua* + *N. greslebini* + *N. borealis*), is tentatively supported by three potential
597 synapomorphies shared by two of its species whose postcranium is known (*N. greslebini* and
598 *N. borealis*): (1) sub-oval to gently triangular mid-section of the tibia; (2) ectal and
599 sustentacular facets incipiently connected in the astragalus; (3) short tendinous groove in the
600 lateral side of the calcaneum. However, the synapomorphic conditions of these features for
601 *Neotamandua* need to be further tested from systematic analysis of new, more complete
602 and/or associated material of Gen. et sp. nov. and species referred to as *Neotamandua*. That
603 would enable us to assess more adequately the global morphological variability and character
604 distribution in Miocene myrmecophagids more late diverging than *Protamandua*. In turn,
605 when there is a better knowledge of such distribution, it is more likely to disentangle the
606 taxonomic identities and affinities of the *Neotamandua* species in order to corroborate the
607 monophyly of this genus. For the moment, the hypothesis of Hirschfeld (1976) that

608 *Neotamandua* is not monophyletic is, in principle, less probable if the *species inquirendae*
609 ‘*N.*’ *magna* and *N.?* *australis* are excluded from the genus, as it was decided here, than if they
610 are retained within it. The exclusion of the *species inquirendae* does not affect the hypothesis
611 that *Neotamandua* is closer to *Myrmecophaga* than any other known nominal genus.
612 Consequently, the type species of *Neotamandua*, *N. conspicua*, is reiterated as closer to
613 *Myrmecophaga* than *Tamandua*, in line with the phylogeny of Gaudin and Branham (1998)
614 and unlike the hypothesis of Scillato-Yané and Carlini (1998).

615 Finally, the material referred to as *Neotamandua* sp. that was used in this study to make
616 comparisons with *N. borealis*, seems correctly allocated in that genus, but it might eventually
617 be assigned to a new species with very large body size, larger than *N. greslebini*. This is
618 partially conditioned to the clarification of the taxonomic status of ‘*N.*’ *magna*, which is a
619 species comparable in body size to *Neotamandua* sp., so they could be (or not) the same
620 taxon.

621

622 *The diversification of Myrmecophagidae.*—McDonald et al. (2008) pointed out that since the
623 highly incomplete fossil record of Vermilingua, several fundamental questions on the
624 evolution of this group, including morphological trends and the acquisition of ecological
625 preferences in its distinct taxa, are largely unknown. Likewise, they highlighted some
626 uncertainty related to the divergence times of possible sub-clades. However, several
627 inferences and hypotheses about the evolutionary history of anteaters and, particularly, the
628 myrmecophagids, can be outlined from the current evidence, including that presented in this
629 work. Following Pascual and Ortiz-Jaureguizar (1990), McDonald et al. (2008) and Toledo et
630 al. (2017), the next discussion is based on multiple paleobiological, ecological and

631 biogeographic aspects as major constraints and/or consequences of the myrmecophagid
632 evolution.

633 The diversification of Myrmecophagidae was a macroevolutionary event that occurred
634 through the Neogene, at least as early as the Burdigalian (Early Miocene), according to the
635 minimal age estimated for the most basal genus, i.e., *Protamandua*. The beginning of this
636 diversification is approximately overlapped in time with the onset or development of similar
637 events in other higher taxa in South America, such as the xenartrons Megatherioidea,
638 Mylodontidae, Glyptodontidae and Dasypodini (Croft et al., 2007; McDonald and De Iuliis
639 2008; Bargo et al., 2012; Carlini et al., 2014; Boscaini et al., 2019), or the South American
640 native ungulates Pachyrukhinae, Mesotheriinae and Toxodontidae related to *Pericotoxodon*
641 and *Mixotoxodon* (Seoane et al., 2017; Armella et al., 2018a; Armella et al., 2018b). This
642 pattern shows the importance of the Early Miocene, particularly the Burdigalian, as a critical
643 interval for the diversification of multiple South American land mammal lineages. In light of
644 the geographic provenance of *Protamandua*, the most probable ancestral area for
645 Myrmecophagidae is southern South America (Fig. 7). The paleoenvironmental conditions
646 inferred for the Early Miocene of this area are considerably warmer and more humid
647 (1000–1500 mm/year) than today, with presence of a subtropical dry forest (Iglesias et al.,
648 2011; Quattrocchio et al., 2011; Kay et al., 2012; Brea et al., 2017; Raigenborm et al., 2018).
649 In line with this reconstruction, Palazzesi et al. (2014) reported that southern Argentina
650 harboured in the Early Miocene a plant richness comparable to that documented today for the
651 Brazilian Atlantic Forest, in southeastern Brazil. Similar to *Tamandua*, *Protamandua* would
652 have preferred forested habitats and would have had semiarbooreal habits (Gaudin and
653 Branham, 1998; McDonald et al., 2008; Kay et al., 2012). Whether the ancestral condition of

654 substrate use in Myrmecophagidae is arboreal, as held by Gaudin and Branham (1998), the
655 preference for open biomes (e.g., savannah) and terrestriality in *Myrmecophaga* (and possibly
656 in *Neotamandua*) is a derived condition (McDonald et al., 2008; Toledo et al., 2017). The
657 semiarboreal habits of *Tamandua* are explained from niche conservatism or, alternatively,
658 from convergence with *Protamandua* if the ancestor of *Tamandua* was hypothetically
659 terrestrial.

660 Since their particular, low basal metabolic rates and myrmecophagous diets (McNab,
661 1984, 1985), it is likely that the global warm recovery during the early Neogene (Early
662 Miocene to early Middle Miocene; including the Middle Miocene Climatic Optimum or
663 MMCO; Fig. 8), linked to a latitudinal temperature gradient reduction and an expansion of the
664 tropical (warm) forest belt towards higher latitudes in the continents (including South
665 America; see Anderson, 2009; Herold et al., 2011; Morley, 2011; Palazzesi et al., 2014), has
666 influenced the evolutionary differentiation of the myrmecophagids, maybe predominantly *in*
667 *situ* as in the climatically-induced evolution of other small Cenozoic mammals (Fortelius et
668 al., 2014), such as *Protamandua*. This differentiation would have been triggered by an
669 increase in the suitable area in terms of preferred biomes (warm forests in this case) and,
670 especially, temporarily sustained availability of social insects for their feeding (McDonald et
671 al., 2008; Kay et al., 2012; Toledo et al., 2017). Indeed, extant termites and ants (Termitidae
672 and Formicidae, respectively) concentrate the vast majority of their biomass (and species
673 richness) in the tropics and warm subtropical regions (Hölldobler and Wilson, 1990; Tobin,
674 1995; Davidson and Patrell-Kim, 1996; Eggleton et al., 1996; Davidson et al., 2003; Ellwood
675 and Foster, 2004; Keller and Gordon, 2009). This ecogeographic pattern is consistent with the
676 fossil record of the former higher taxa, which shows a strong tropical niche conservatism from

677 their respective evolutionary origins in the Late Cretaceous/Early Paleogene (see below;
678 Archibald et al., 2011; LaPolla et al., 2013; Guénard et al., 2015; Bourguignon et al., 2017).

679 According to Blois and Hadly (2009), the responses of mammalian taxa to climate
680 change throughout the Cenozoic are causally interconnected. These responses at the level of
681 individual taxa may include changes in abundance, genetics, morphology and/or distributional
682 range, and they may instigate multitaxa responses such as diversification events comparable to
683 that placed on the root of the evolutionary tree of Myrmecophagidae. This case of a
684 cladogenetic event possibly induced by climate contrasts in kind of biome with those that have
685 been repeatedly documented for intervals of grassland expansion (e.g., Equidae, Bovidae,
686 Cervidae, Ochotonidae, Hippopotaminae; MacFadden, 2000; Bouchenak-Khelladi et al., 2009;
687 Boisserie and Merceron, 2011; Ge et al., 2013).

688 In the Middle Miocene, *N. ? australis*, *N. borealis* and Gen. et sp. nov. exhibit a mosaic
689 of morphological features in common with *Tamandua* and/or *Myrmecophaga*, as well as some
690 exclusive characteristics, which suggest an early, important increase in morphological
691 disparity in Myrmecophagidae and possibly the evolutionary divergence of those lineages
692 comprising its crown-group. This coincides with the interpretation of Hirschfeld (1976),
693 according to which the lineages that included the extant genera of Myrmecophagidae
694 differentiated morphologically at least from the Friasian (Middle Miocene). Likewise, it is
695 compatible with the results of the molecular phylogenies by Delsuc et al. (2001, 2012) and
696 Gibb et al. (2016), which estimated that the evolutionary divergence of *Tamandua* and
697 *Myrmecophaga* occurred in the late Middle Miocene, ca. 13 Mya. On the other hand, relative
698 body sizes inferred for the Middle Miocene taxa show an apparent trend towards body size
699 increase in comparison with the basal taxon *Protamandua*. During this interval, the

700 myrmecophagids have a wide geographic distribution in South America (Fig. 7), from low to
701 medium-high latitudes. This is in line with the evolution of larger body sizes since the
702 increase in this attribute occurs, the foraging area also increases and, with it, the distributional
703 range, according the general foraging strategy of the extant myrmecophagids (Naples, 1999;
704 Toledo et al., 2017; Gaudin et al., 2018). The co-occurrence pattern of *N. borealis* and Gen. et
705 sp. nov. in La Venta area in Colombia constitutes the earliest pattern of this kind for
706 Myrmecophagidae until pending systematic revisions for putative taxa from the Early
707 Miocene of Santa Cruz, Argentina, are carried out. These revisions would make it possible to
708 determine whether there are two or more co-occurrent myrmecophagid taxa in the latter area.
709 The fact that *N. borealis* and Gen. et sp. nov. are probably not sister taxa would imply a non-
710 sympatric diversification followed by a dispersal of at least one of the involved taxa. The
711 habitat preference of Gen. et sp. nov. in the paleoenvironmental mosaic of La Venta area (Kay
712 and Madden, 1997; Spradley et al., 2019) is thought to be a tropical forest (semiarboreal?) by
713 analogy with *Protamandua*, while it is proposed a more generalized habitat selection for *N.*
714 *borealis* in line with the paleobiological inference of predominantly terrestrial locomotion for
715 the latter taxon by Hirschfeld (1976). If this held true, it would open the possibility that *N.*
716 *borealis* was the oldest myrmecophagid inhabiting zones with semi-open or even open
717 vegetation (see below).

718 The morphological and probably taxonomic diversification of Myrmecophagidae
719 continued in the Late Miocene. Inferred body sizes range from larger than *Tamandua* and
720 nearly comparable to *Myrmecophaga*. Considering the wide geographic distribution during the
721 Middle Miocene, there is probably a geographic bias in the fossil record of the
722 myrmecophagids during the Late Miocene as the only known occurrences are *Myrmecophaga-*

723 like forms from northwestern Argentina (Fig. 7). If *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini* are sister
724 taxa, as it seems, that would mean that there was a biogeographic connection for
725 Myrmecophagidae between northern and southern South America in the late Middle/early
726 Late Miocene. This inference is congruent with the paleobiogeographic analyses of Cozzuol
727 (2006) and Carrillo et al. (2015), according to which the affinities between several Late
728 Miocene, northern and southern South American land mammal assemblages are strong or, at
729 least, not so distant as those between Middle Miocene assemblages from the same regions.
730 This pattern might be explained from the geographic shrinks of the Pebas Mega-Wetland
731 System and the Paranean Sea in the Middle-Late Miocene transition (Aceñolaza and
732 Sprechmann, 2002; Cozzuol, 2006; Salas-Gismondi et al., 2015). It is also possible that the
733 expansion of open biomes in South America during the Late Miocene has facilitated this
734 biotic connection, as it has been acknowledged in the case of other mammal taxa (e.g.,
735 Glyptodontinae, a xenartran group as Myrmecophagidae; Ortiz-Jaureguizar and Cladera,
736 2008; Oliva et al., 2010). Indeed, from a paleoenvironmental viewpoint, the (partial?) co-
737 occurrence of '*N. magna*, *N. greslebini* and *N. conspicua* in northwestern Argentina is
738 important inasmuch as this pattern is related, for the first time in the evolutionary history of
739 Myrmecophagidae, to savannahs that were well developed with respect to other kinds of
740 vegetation cover (Latorre et al., 1997; Brandoni et al., 2012; Cotton et al., 2014; Amidon et
741 al., 2017; Zimicz et al., 2018). On the basis of the foregoing and by generalization of
742 morphological and ecological features of the living vermilinguans, e.g., less dependence on
743 trees related to greater taxonomic and/or ecological diversity of consumed insects (Hirschfeld,
744 1976; Montgomery, 1985a; Rodrigues et al., 2008; Toledo et al., 2017; Table 5), it is
745 hypothesized that, as early as the late Middle Miocene, with the triggering of a global cooling

746 (Fig. 8), *Neotamandua* was involved in a niche evolution process within Myrmecophagidae
747 which implied a significative increase in dietary diversity as myrmecophagous and expansion
748 of substrate use and biome selection. Probably the species of this genus preferred the frequent
749 use of the ground by biomechanical constraints and made inroads into largely open
750 environments as humid savannahs, without excluding the use of forested environments, as
751 *Myrmecophaga* usually does (Fuster et al., 2018; Gaudin et al., 2018). The former model is
752 further supported according to the evolutionary response pattern to major climatic-
753 vegetational changes documented by Badgley et al. (2008) in a faunal sequence of land
754 mammals from the Late Miocene of southern Asia, according to which the trophic niche
755 evolution and, particularly the expansion of this attribute, in conjunction with habitat changes,
756 are related to an increase in the probabilities of local and regional survivorship in the studied
757 lineages.

758 On the other hand, the fossil record of the crown-group genera, *Tamandua* and
759 *Myrmecophaga*, is confined to the Pliocene-Pleistocene, but the evolutionary (morphological)
760 divergence of *Myrmecophaga* would date back at least to the late Middle Miocene according
761 the first appearance of *Neotamandua*, i.e., *N. borealis*. Under this assumption, the hypothesis
762 of '*N.*' *magna* as a species of *Myrmecophaga* is perfectly feasible. In any case, the
763 biogeographic dynamics of the two extant myrmecophagid genera may have been constrained
764 by their respective ecological tolerances and, these in turn, by the rapidly changing habitat and
765 biome distribution in the Americas during at least the last five or six million years (de Vivo
766 and Carmignotto, 2004; Salzmann et al., 2011; Sniderman et al., 2016; Amidon et al., 2017;
767 Roberts et al., 2018; Grimmer et al., 2018). This applies especially to the case of *Tamandua*
768 since this taxon is less generalist in relation to habitat selection than *Myrmecophaga*

769 (McDonald, 2005). Considering the hypothesis of niche expansion for *Neotamandua*, the
770 differentiation of *Myrmecophaga* would have accentuated this putative evolutionary trend
771 through stronger preference for open environments, which is consistent with the general
772 paleoenvironment of savannah in the Early Pliocene of the area where occurs the oldest
773 species of the latter genus, i.e., *My. caroloameghinoi* (Zavala and Navarro, 1993; McDonald
774 et al., 2008).

775 The myrmecophagid evolution has a late episode with the complete formation of the
776 Panama Land Bridge (PLB) in the terminal Neogene (Coates and Stallard, 2013; O’dea et al.,
777 2016; Jaramillo, 2018). *Myrmecophaga tridactyla* invaded and colonized Central- and
778 southern North America (northern Mexico) at least as early as the Early Pleistocene (Shaw
779 and McDonald, 1987; Fig. 7). This dispersal event is part of the Great American Biotic
780 Interchange (GABI), specifically the episode referred as GABI 2 (Woodburne, 2010). Today,
781 the northern boundary of this species is located in northern Central America, over 3000 Km to
782 the south of the northernmost fossil record (Gaudin et al., 2018). This distributional difference
783 was interpreted by Shaw and McDonald (1987) in the light of the occurrence of warmer and
784 more humid conditions in the Early Pleistocene of southern North America (southern United
785 States-northern Mexico) than today in the same area. These conditions would have enabled
786 *Myrmecophaga* to colonize subtropical savannahs with permanent availability of insects
787 included in its diet (Croxen III et al., 2007; McDonald, 2005). However, due extirpation,
788 subsequent climatic-vegetational shifts (desertification) during the Late Pleistocene would
789 have forced a range shrinkage of this taxon towards lower latitudes (McDonald, 2005;
790 Ferrusquía-Villafranca et al., 2017). The distributional range pattern of tropical taxa expanded
791 towards southern North America during some intervals of the Pleistocene has been well

792 supported from the records of multiple taxa other than *Myrmecophaga*, including mammals
793 and sauropsids (Shaw and McDonald, 1987; Moscato and Jasinski, 2016; Ferrusquía-
794 Villafranca et al., 2017).

795 As *Myrmecophaga* did, *Tamandua* also colonized (or evolved in) northern continental
796 territories outside South America. This is supported from the occurrence of *Tamandua* sp. in
797 the terminal Pleistocene of Central Mexico (Arroyo-Cabrales et al., 2004; Ferrusquía-
798 Villafranca et al., 2010; Fig. 7). In its northern zone, the current distributional area of *T.*
799 *mexicana* includes latitudes comparable with that of the referred fossil record for this species
800 (Navarrete and Ortega, 2011). Central Mexico is part of the transitional area between the
801 current Neotropical and Nearctic regions, called Mexican Transition Zone (MTZ; Halffter and
802 Morrone, 2017). All these observations, in conjunction with the above interpretation of the
803 Neogene biogeographic and environmental patterns, suggest that Myrmecophagidae kept
804 throughout its evolutionary history a niche conservatism associated with tropical (warm)
805 habitats (a case of phylogenetic niche conservatism or PNC; see Cooper et al., 2011; Fig. 8),
806 possibly in parallel with the same pattern in species groups of its prey insects (Thompson,
807 1994). Even more, the fact that Myrmecophagidae currently accumulates its highest species
808 richness in the warmest and wettest belt of the Americas (Hayssen, 2011; Navarrete and
809 Ortega, 2011; Miranda et al., 2017; Gaudin et al., 2018) is further interpreted as evidence that
810 this higher taxon represents support for the tropical niche conservatism hypothesis (TCH;
811 Wiens and Donoghue, 2004; Wiens and Graham, 2005). However, in line with the discussion
812 above, this major ecological constraint in Myrmecophagidae is not only related to
813 environmental thermal tolerance (see McNab [1985] for an analysis on the
814 thermophysiological constraints of the Xenarthra; McNab [1984] also discussed the same

815 issue for myrmecophagous mammals), as emphasized by TCH, but it is also driven by food
816 availability, at least by limiting or preventing historical colonization of low-productivity
817 regions far from the tropics (Shaw and McDonald, 1987; McDonald, 2005; Šímová and
818 Storch, 2017; Fig. 8).

819

820 **Conclusion**

821 The systematic evidence presented here suggests that probably the diversification of
822 Myrmecophagidae is taxonomically and biogeographically more complex than previously
823 thought. This insight is based on the description of the new taxon Gen. et sp. nov. for the
824 Middle Miocene of Colombia (co-occurrent species of *N. borealis*) and the determination of
825 *Neotamandua*, as previously defined, as a wastebasket taxon which is probably formed by
826 species belonging to more than one single genus. While Gen. et sp. nov. possibly has affinities
827 with *Tamandua*, more information is needed to test its phylogenetic position within
828 Myrmecophagidae. On the other hand, *N. borealis*, *N. greslebini* and *Neotamandua* sp. share
829 postcranial features (potential synapomorphies) that imply some grade of kinship between
830 them. Therefore, the two nominal species among the former ones are provisionally kept within
831 *Neotamandua*. Alternatively, these features may also constitute symplesiomorphies of a
832 hypothetical lineage which is apparently close to *Myrmecophaga*. The remaining nominal
833 species referred to as *Neotamandua*, i.e., '*N.*' *magna* and *N.*? *australis* were designated as
834 *species inquirendae*. Overall, it is necessary to develop new systematic revisions, including
835 new phylogenetic analyses similar to that by Gaudin and Branham (1998), using new material
836 referable to Gen. et sp. nov. and the referred species to *Neotamandua*, so as to obtain enough

837 evidence to solidly determine the phylogenetic position of the new species from La Venta and
838 corroborate the putative monophyletic status of *Neotamandua*. In line with the foregoing
839 considerations, the paleontological exploration of Neogene sedimentary units in northern
840 South America and northern Argentina is crucial to improve our understanding of the
841 diversification of Myrmecophagidae.

842

843 **Disclosure statement**

844 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

845

846 **Acknowledgements**

847 A lot of people and institutions have contributed in distinct ways to the development of this
848 research. We would like to specially thank A. Vanegas and his family; the group of defenders
849 of the paleontological heritage *Vigías del Patrimonio Paleontológico La Tatacoa* (Colombia);
850 C. Jaramillo (Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute, Panama); and all the staff of the Museo
851 de Historia Natural La Tatacoa (Colombia) for assistance and providing access to the holotype
852 of the new species described for La Venta. We thank A. Kramarz (MACN, Argentina), K.
853 Angielczyk (FMNH, United States), W. Simpson (FMNH, United States) and P. Holroyd
854 (UCMP, United States), E. Flórez (ICN, Colombia), A. Carlini (CAC, Argentina) and I.
855 Olivares (MLP, Argentina) gave permission to study extinct and extant anteater specimens in
856 collections under their care. We are also grateful to S. Vizcaíno and S. Bargo (MLP –
857 CONICET, Argentina) as they provided photos of postcranial specimens labelled as

858 *Neotamandua* sp. in the MACN; D. Brinkman and J. Henderson (YPM, United States) shared
859 photos of a skull of *Protamandua rothi* (YPM-15267); M. Pound (Northumbria University,
860 United Kindom) and C. Hossotani (Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso do Sul, Brazil)
861 kindly helped by facilitating their postgraduate theses; and J. Zachos (University of California
862 – Santa Cruz, United States) gave permission to reuse part of the data for his Cenozoic global
863 temperature curve. Finally, J. Gonzalez was the paleoartist who exquisitely recreated the new
864 anteater from La Venta. Financial support given by the following institutions: CONICET
865 (Internal Doctoral Fellowship); Field Museum (Science Visiting Scholarship); University of
866 California Museum of Paleontology (Welles Fund).

867

868 **Statement of data archiving**

869 The nomenclatural acts contained in this work are registered in Zoobank:

870 [identifier Gen. et sp. nov.]

871 *LSID*. urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:4EC0ABE1-C013-4113-9956-5DBD6E79FCEA

872 *LSID*. urn:lsid:zoobank.org:act:C4DC62D5-6470-4A04-B152-D42ED3BA332C

873

874 **Accesibility of supplemental data**

875 Data available from the Dryad Digital Repository: [intentional blank space]

876

877 **References**

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Geographic and stratigraphic provenance of the skull VPPLT 975 of the new taxon described here and the holotype of *Neotamandua borealis* (Hirschfeld, 1976). (1), location of the Department of Huila in Colombia; (2), location of the fossil area of interest, i.e., northern of La Venta area, in the Department of Huila (small rectangle); (3), location of the fossil site (black star), near the La Victoria town; (4), stratigraphic scheme of Guerrero (1997) for La Venta area, with approximate stratigraphic provenance of VPPLT 975 and the holotype of *N. borealis*.

Figure 2. Cranial measurements used in this work. All of them are based on Hossotani et al. (2017). Nomenclatural modifications from these measurements are shown in the section of Anatomical Abbreviations. (1), skull of *Tamandua* in dorsal view; (2), the same skull in ventral view. *Abbreviations.* FL, frontal length; GSL, greatest skull length; MBW, maximum braincase width; ML, maxilla length; NL, nasal length; NW, nasal width; PL, parietal length.

Figure 3. Holotypic skull (VPPLT 975) of Gen. et sp. nov. (1), dorsal view; (2), right lateral view; (3), ventral view; (4), left lateral view; (5), anatomical drawing in dorsal view; (6), anatomical drawing in right lateral view. *Abbreviations.* fr, frontal; ji, jugal insertion; la, lacrimal; mx, maxilla; na, nasal; or, orbit. Scale bar equal to 30 mm.

Figure 4. Two very informative postcranial bones of the holotype (UCMP 39847) of *Neotamandua borealis* (Hirschfeld 1976). (1), right astragalus, dorsal view; (2), right astragalus, ventral view; (3), left calcaneum, dorsal view; (4), left calcaneum, lateral view; (5), anatomical drawing of the astragalus in dorsal view; (6), anatomical drawing of the astragalus in ventral view; (7), anatomical drawing of the calcaneum in dorsal view; (8), anatomical drawing of the calcaneum in lateral view. *Abbreviations.* af, calcaneal accessory facet; cf, cuboid facet; ct, calcaneal tuber; ef, ectal facet; ff, fibular facet; h, astragalar head; lr, lateral ridge; lt, lateral trochlea; mt, medial trochlea; sf, sustentacular facet. Scale bar equal to 20 mm.

Figure 5. Epitype (FMNH P14419) of *Neotamandua conspicua*. (1), dorsal view; (2), right lateral view; (3), ventral view; (4), left lateral view; (5), right hemimandible; (6), left hemimandible; (7), anatomical drawing in dorsal view; (8), anatomical drawing in ventral view; (9), anatomical drawing in left lateral view. *Abbreviations.* ab, auditory bulla; fr, frontal; j, jugal; la, lacrimal; mx, maxilla; na, nasal; oc, occipital condyles; pal, palatine; par, parietal; ptb, pterygoid bulla; pte, pterygoid; sq, squamosal; szp, squamosal zygomatic process. Scale bar equal to 80 mm.

Figure 6. Reconstruction of the external appearance in life of Gen. et sp. nov. (close-up view). In the background, individuals of the macraucheniid *Theosodon* (left) and the alouattine *Stirtonia* (upper right corner) in the tropical forest of La Venta, late Middle Miocene of Colombia.

Figure 7. Geographic and chronological distribution of the myrmecophagid fossil records during the Late Cenozoic. Note the only two fossil records of these xenartrons outside South America in the Pleistocene of southern and northern Mexico (*Tamandua* sp. and

Myrmecophaga tridactyla, respectively). Based on information compiled by McDonald et al. (2008). Original references in the same work and, largely, in the main text here.

Figure 8. Chronological collation of data on: (1), biochrons of the myrmecophagid genera or questionable grouping (horizontal solid bars and dashed line, respectively); (2), distribution of the highest latitudinal fossil records (northern and/or southern) of myrmecophagids (horizontal solid bars) and approximate, chronologically discrete latitudinal ranges of tropical rainforest plus tropical and subtropical dry broadleaf forest (i.e., frost-free areas [mean annual temperatures higher than 15°C] with significant rainfall, at least seasonally; large vertical rectangles); (3), general trend curve of global temperature and climatic episodes during the Late Cenozoic: [a] early Neogene warm recovery, including the thermal peak in the late Early-early Middle Miocene known as Middle Miocene Climatic Optimum or MMCO; [b] Middle Miocene climatic transition; [c] late Middle-Late Miocene cooling; [d] Early Pliocene warming; [e] Late Pliocene-Pleistocene cooling and glaciations. The vertical dashed line indicates the time of complete formation of the Panama Land Bridge, which represented thereafter a fundamentally continuous physical connection between South- and North America. Paleocological data used for the plot in “B” is from the following references: Huntley and Webb III (1988); Toby Pennington et al. (2000); Williams et al. (2004); Williams (2009); Chan et al. (2011); Morley (2011); Kay et al. (2012); Pound (2012); Pound et al. (2012); Forrest et al. (2015); Lohmann et al. (2015); Dowsett et al. (2016); Sniderman et al. (2016); Henrot et al. (2017); Frigola et al. (2018). The temperature curve in “C” is based on Zachos et al. (2001, 2008) and it is reproduced with permission.

Table captions

Table 1. Cranial measurements (in mm) for the holotype of Gen. et sp. nov. and other myrmecophagid species.

Table 2. Comparison of some postcranial measurements (in mm) between *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini*. Data for the latter species after Kraglievich (1940).

Table 3. Comparison of some postcranial measurements (in mm) between *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp.

Table 4. Distribution of some postcranial characters of species referred to as *Neotamandua* and other myrmecophagid taxa. The characters marked with asterisk contain potentially diagnostic character states (synapomorphies?) for *Neotamandua*.

Table 5. Taxonomic breadth in diet (genus level) of extant genera of Vermilingua and habitat preference of their MDCs (genera or species groups considered main dietary components).

Key for the references: (1) Best and Harada (1985); (2) Fuster et al. (2018); (3) Gallo et al. (2017); (4) Gaudin et al. (2018); (5) Gómez et al. (2012); (6) Hayssen (2011); (7) Hayssen et al. (2012); (8) Jiménez et al. (2018); (9) Lubin and Montgomery (1981); (10) Medri et al. (2003); (11) Miranda et al. (2009); (12) Montgomery (1981); (13) Montgomery (1985a); (14) Montgomery (1985b); (15) Morales-Sandoval (2010); (16) Navarrete and Ortega (2011); (17) Redford (1985); (18) Rodrigues et al. (2008); (19) Sandoval-Gómez et al. (2012).

Measurement	Gen. et sp. nov. ^a	<i>P. rothi</i> ^b	<i>N. conspicua</i> ^c	<i>T. tetradactyla</i> ^d	<i>M. tridactyla</i> ^e
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Table 1. Cranial measurements (in mm) for the holotype of Gen. et sp. nov. and other myrmecophagid species

GSL	80.7*	77*	210**	125.7	327.5
NL	30.9	□	~110	38.2	127.5
NW	4.8	□	11.1	7.7	14.2
Measurement		<i>N. borealis</i>	<i>N. greslebini</i>		
FL	□	~27	□	53.1	143.9
MBW	□	36	~51	42.2	60.4
PL	□	~20	□	20.1	26

- a. VPPLT 975 (holotype)
- b. YPM-15267
- c. FMNH P14419
- d. Mean of a sample of (sub) adults, n = 8 (Appendix 2, Supplementary material)
- e. Mean of a sample of (sub) adults, n = 10 (Appendix 2, Supplementary material)

*Incomplete skull. Rough estimate of GSL for Gen. et sp. nov. from a simple linear model based on some skull measurements for *Tamandua* (see Supplementary Material) is equal to 118.6 mm.

**Fractured rostrum

Table 2. Comparison of some postcranial measurements (in mm) between *N. borealis* and *N. greslebini*. Data for the latter species after Kraglievich (1940).

Maximum distal width of the radius	16.5	29
Maximum proximal width of the tibia	29.5	46
Measurement	<i>N. borealis</i>	<i>Neotamandua</i> sp.
Proximo-distal length of the astragalus	41.5	55
Maximum width of the astragalus	16.4	20.5

Table 3. Comparison of some postcranial measurements (in mm) between *N. borealis* and *Neotamandua* sp.

Maximum distal width of the radius	16.5	35
Maximum width of the tibial articulation of the astragalus	20	24
Maximum width of the calcaneum	20	~21

1317

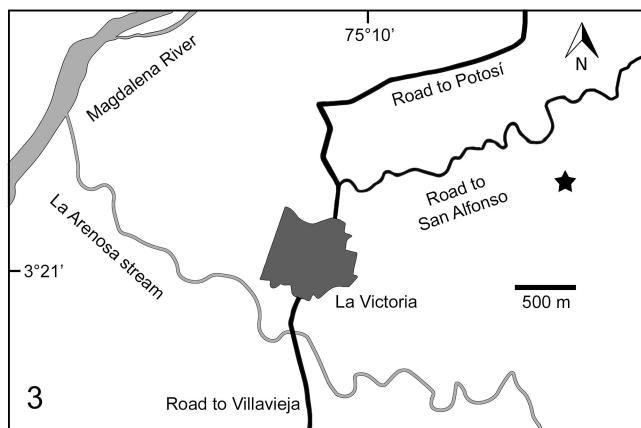
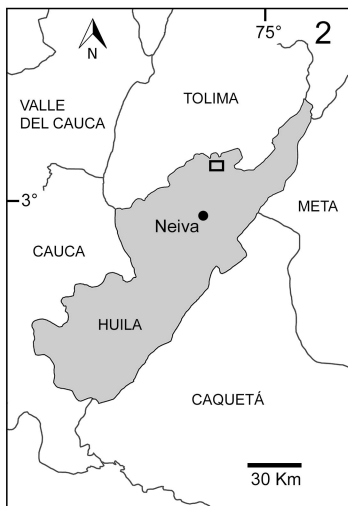
Table 4. Distribution of some postcranial characters of species referred to *Neotamandua* and other myrmecophagid taxa. The characters marked with asterisk contain potentially diagnostic character states (synapomorphies?) for *Neotamandua*.

	<i>N. borealis</i>	<i>N. greslebini</i>	<i>Neotamandua</i> sp.	<i>Protamandua</i>	<i>Tamandua</i>	<i>Myrmecophaga</i>
Relative body size	Medium to large	Large	Very large	Small	Medium	Very large
Character						
1. Arrangement of the radial ridges	Parallel ridges	Parallel ridges	Parallel ridges	NA	Distally convergent ridges	Parallel ridges
2. Rotated appearance of the distal radius	Absent	Absent	Absent	Absent	Present	Absent
3. Tibial mid-section*	Sub-rounded to gently triangular	Sub-rounded to gently triangular	NA	NA	Rounded	Strongly triangular
4. Arrangement of the ectal and sustentacular facets in the astragalus*	Largely separated, but with an incipient connection	Largely separated, but with an incipient connection	NA	Fully separated	Fully separated	Widely connected
5. Tendinous groove in the lateral side of the calcaneum*	Short	Short	NA	Absent	Absent	Long

Table 5. Taxonomic breadth in diet (genus level) of extant genera of Vermilingua and habitat preference of their MDCs (genera or species groups considered main dietary components). Key for the references: (1) Best and Harada (1985); (2) Fuster et al. (2018); (3) Gallo et al. (2017); (4) Gaudin et al. (2018); (5) Gómez et al. (2012); (6) Hayssen (2011); (7) Hayssen et al. (2012); (8) Jiménez et al. (2018); (9) Lubin and Montgomery (1981); (10) Medri et al. (2003); (11) Miranda et al. (2009); (12) Montgomery (1981); (13) Montgomery (1985a); (14) Montgomery (1985b); (15) Morales-Sandoval (2010); (16) Navarrete and Ortega (2011); (17) Redford (1985); (18) Rodrigues et al. (2008); (19) Sandoval-Gómez et al. (2012).

Extant anteater genera	Termite genera	Ant genera	Some MDCs	Habitat preference of MDCs	References
<i>Cyclopes</i>	0	8	<i>Camponotus</i> <i>Dolichoderus</i> <i>Solenopsis</i>	Rainforest, seasonally dry tropical forest; trees	1, 7, 11, 13, 19
<i>Tamandua</i>	7	17	<i>Nasutitermes</i> <i>Camponotus</i> <i>Crematogaster</i> <i>Solenopsis</i>	Seasonally dry tropical forest, rainforest; trees and ground	3, 6, 9, 12, 14, 15, 16
<i>Myrmecophaga</i>	8	31	<i>Cornitermes</i> <i>Syntermes</i> <i>Atta</i> <i>Solenopsis</i> <i>Camponotus</i> <i>Acromyrmex</i> <i>Pheidole</i>	savannah, grassland; ground	2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 14, 17, 18, 19

Figure 1



4

Lithology	Unit
	Cerbatana cglm.
	Unit between
	Tatacoa ssb.
	Unit between
	Chunchullo ssb.
	Unit between
	Cerro Gordo ssb.
	Unit below

← *Neotamandua borealis*



← VPPLT 975



ssb. sandstone beds
cglm. conglomerate

Fine grained sedimentites (mudstones, claystones)

Massive and geographically extended sandstones

Clast-supported conglomerate

★ Fossil locality (specimen VPPLT 975)

Figure 2

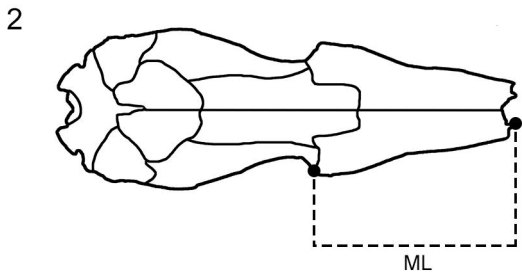
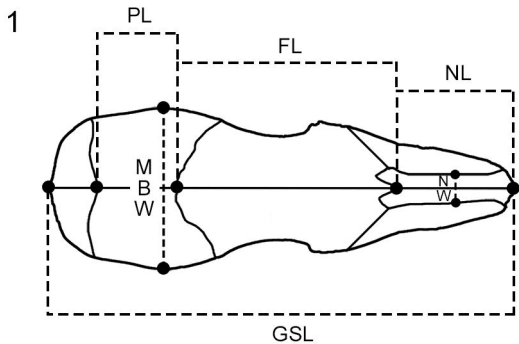


Figure 3

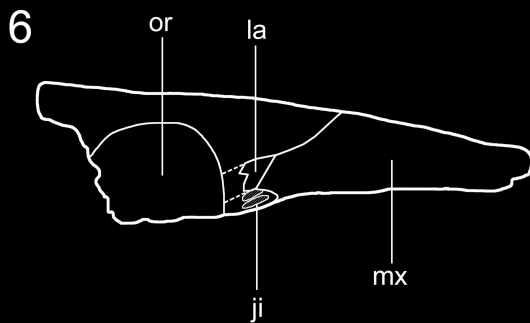
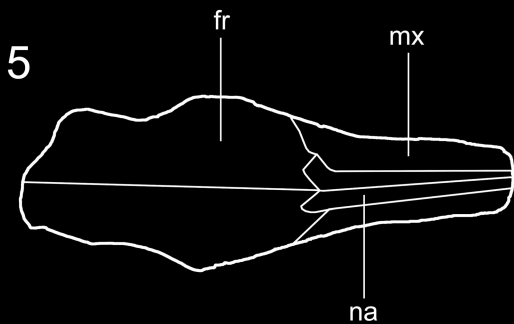
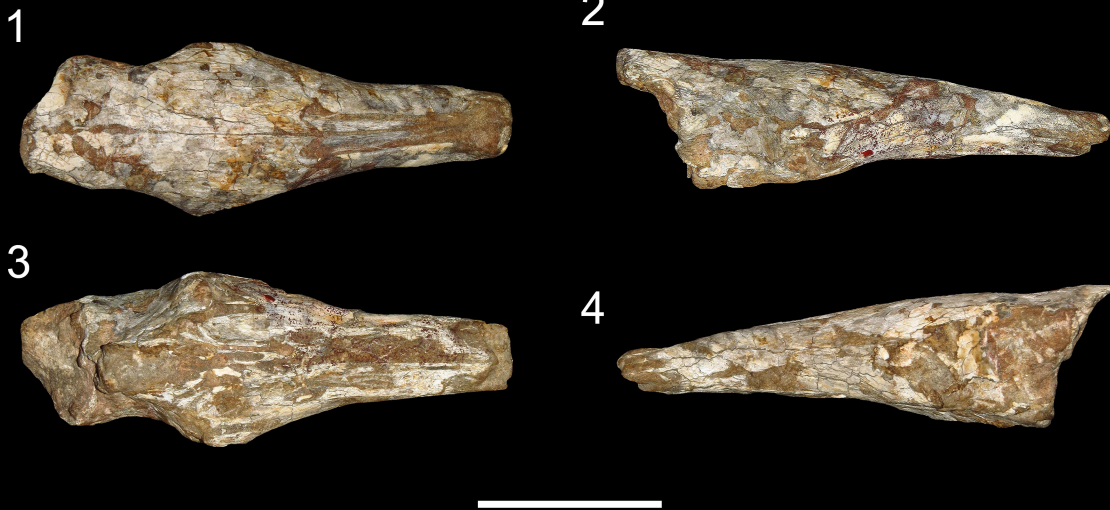


Figure 4

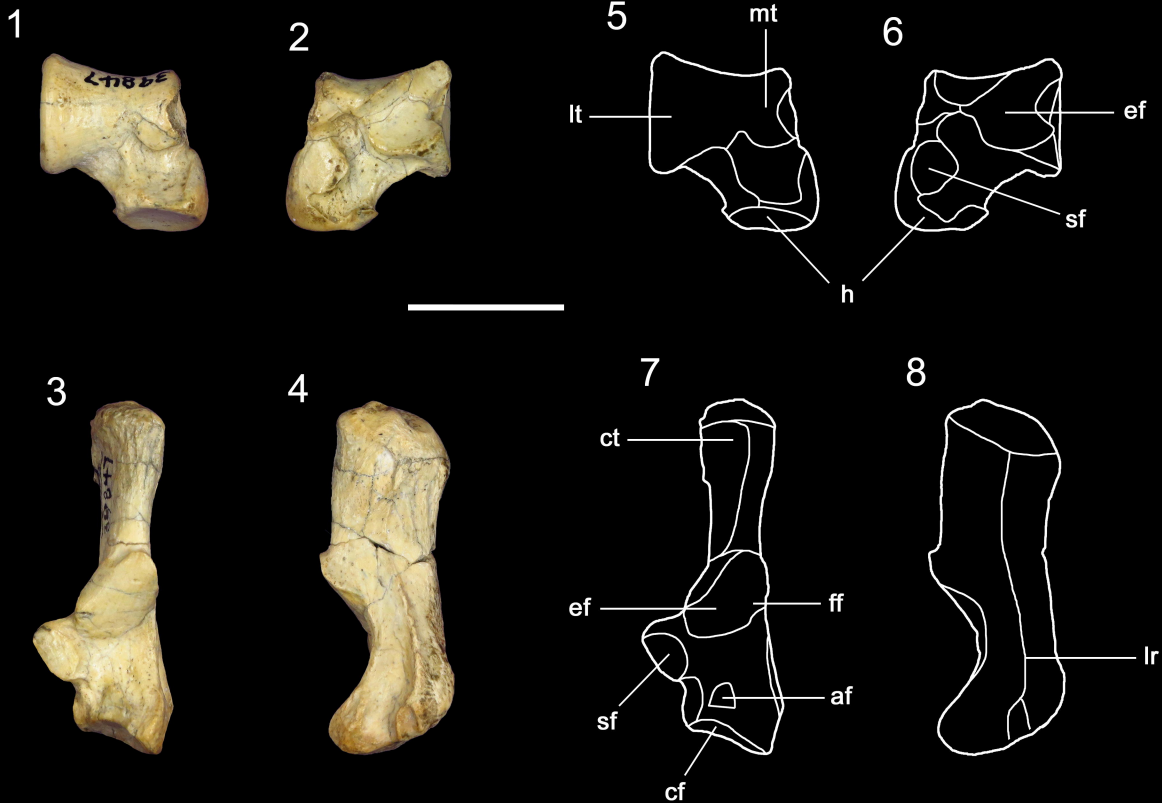


Figure 5

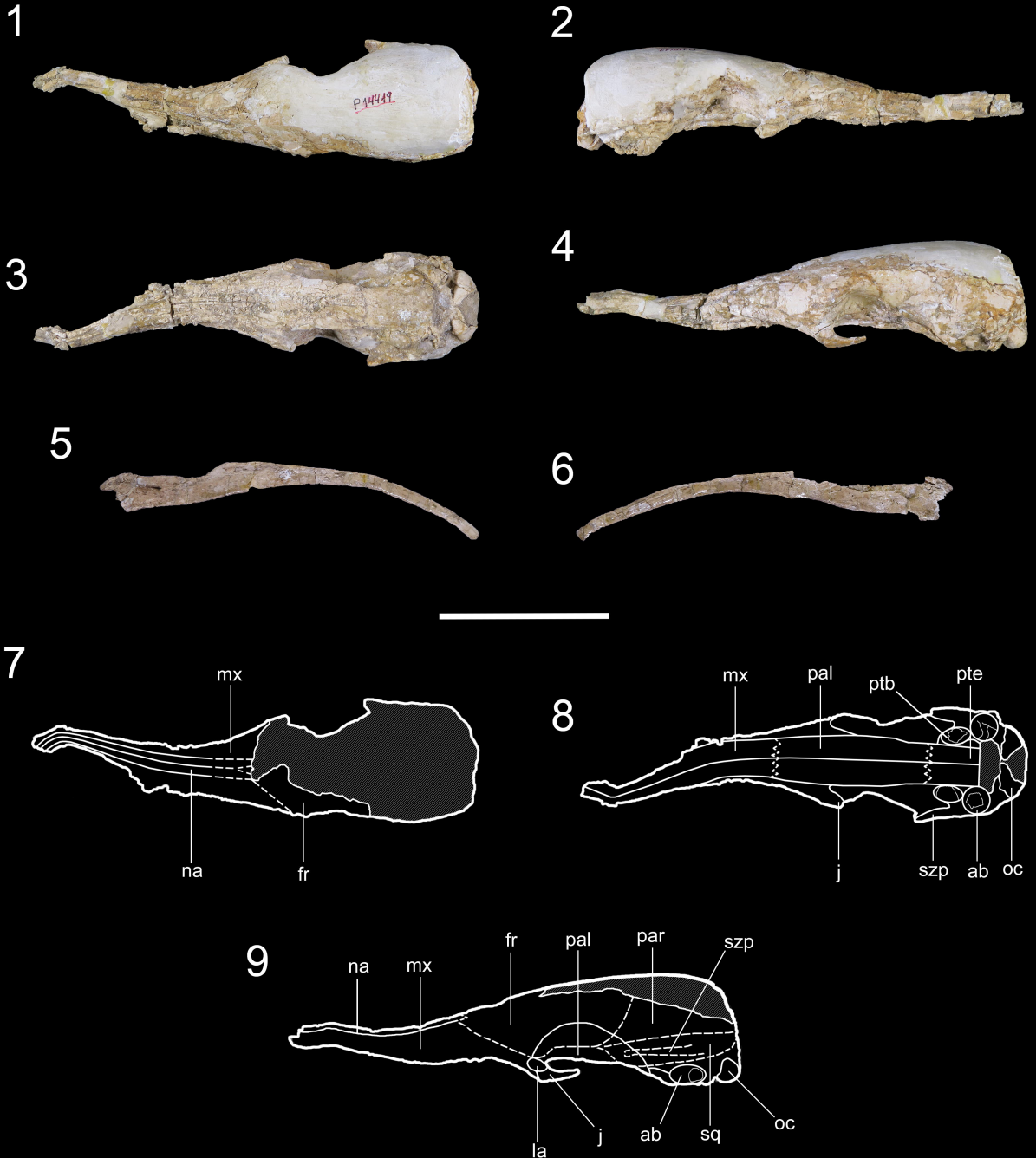


Figure 6



Figure 7



Figure 8

