1 ORIGINAL ARTICLE

2	Capuchin monkey biogeography: understanding Sapajus Pleistocene range					
3	expansion and the current sympatry between Cebus and Sapajus					
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39	ABSTRACT						
40							
41	Aim						
42	Our aim was to examine gracile capuchin (Cebus) and robust capuchin monkey						
43	(Sapajus) diversification, with a focus on recent Sapajus expansion within Amazonia.						
44	We wanted to reconstruct the biogeographical history of the clade using statistical						
45	methods that model lineages' occupation of different regions over time, to evaluate						
46	recently proposed "Out of Amazonia" and "Reinvasion of Amazonia" hypotheses as						
47	alternative explanations for the extensive geographic overlap between reciprocally						
48	monophyletic gracile (Cebus) and robust (Sapajus) capuchin monkeys.						
49							

50

Location

51 Central and South America.

52

53 Methods

54	We reconstructed a time-calibrated molecular phylogeny for capuchins under Bayesian
55	inference from three mitochondrial genes. We then categorized 12 capuchin clades
56	across four Neotropical centres of endemism and reconstructed the biogeographic
57	history of the capuchin radiation using six models implemented in 'BioGeoBEARS'.
58	We performed a phylogeographic analysis for a robust capuchin clade that spans the
59	Atlantic Forest, Cerrado, Caatinga and Amazonia.
60	
61	Results
62	We find support for a late Miocene vicariant Cebus-Sapajus divergence and a
63	Pleistocene Sapajus invasion of Amazonia from the Atlantic Forest. Our new analyses
64	confirm Sapajus diversified first in the Atlantic Forest, with subsequent range
65	expansion into widespread sympatry with Cebus in Amazonia, as well as multiple
66	expansions into drier savanna-like habitats. We do not find mitochondrial molecular
67	congruence with morphological species distinctions for Sapajus flavius, S. cay, S.
68	macrocephalus, S. libidinosus and S. apella; instead, these five morphological types
69	together form a single widespread clade (Bayesian posterior probability = 1) with
70	geographic substructure and shared ancestry during the Pleistocene.
71	
72	Main conclusions
73	Our results support vicariance dividing ancestral capuchin populations in Amazonia
74	versus the Atlantic Forest, and a Pleistocene "Amazonian invasion" by Sapajus to

explain the present day sympatry of *Cebus* and *Sapajus*.

76 77 Keywords Amazonia, Atlantic Forest, BEAST, phylogeography, Caatinga, Cebus 78 kaapori, Cerrado, RASP Biogeography, range expansion, Sapajus flavius 79 80 **INTRODUCTION** 81 82 Neotropical primates are the major diurnal mammalian radiation in the 83 Neotropics, and include over 140 species found across Amazonia, the Andes, the 84 Atlantic Forest, and even habitats such as the Llanos, Caatinga, Cerrado and Central 85 Grasslands that are too hot and dry to support many types of mammals. Neotropical 86 primate diversity is highest within the tropical rainforest habitat in Amazonia. Major 87 questions include whether Neotropical primates diversified first in Amazonia, and how 88 and when they spread throughout the various biomes they now inhabit. 89 The wide distribution of capuchin monkeys, with species ranging from Central

America to northern Argentina, makes them a potential model system for addressing
questions of Neotropical primate biogeography. Capuchins comprise two major forms,
the more lightly built gracile capuchin, *Cebus*, and the robust capuchin, *Sapajus*.
Although recent studies have confirmed the genetic distinctiveness of these two lineages
(Lynch Alfaro *et al.*, 2012a; Martins Jr. *et al.*, 2014), key questions remain regarding
their present day distribution, including the extensive sympatry between Amazonian *Cebus* and *Sapajus* species.

97 Two competing hypotheses have been posited to explain current capuchin
98 distributions (Lynch Alfaro *et al.*, 2012a). The "Out of Amazonia" (OOA) hypothesis
99 places the ancestral range for all capuchins in Amazonia, an initial diversification of
100 both crown robust and crown gracile capuchins within Amazonia, and subsequent

independent and recent invasions of non-Amazonian regions by both gracile and robust
capuchins (Lynch Alfaro *et al.*, 2012a). The "Reinvasion of Amazonia" (ROA)
hypothesis proposes that gracile capuchins, *Cebus*, diverged from robust capuchins, *Sapajus* early in capuchin evolutionary history; crown *Cebus* originated in Amazonia
and crown *Sapajus* in the Atlantic Forest; and the presence of *Sapajus* in the Amazonia
today reflects a recent invasion from the Atlantic Forest into *Cebus*-occupied territory
(Lynch Alfaro *et al.*, 2012a).

108 Phylogeographic analyses using pure dispersal models strongly support the 109 "Reinvasion of Amazonia" hypothesis (Lynch Alfaro et al., 2012a), and as such have 110 transformed the interpretation of capuchin taxonomy, conservation biology, 111 morphology and ecology (see Lynch Alfaro et al., 2012b, 2014, 2015b; Matthews, 112 2012; Rylands et al., 2013; Martins Jr. et al., 2014; Oliveira et al., 2014; Boubli et al., 113 2015; Schneider & Sampaio, 2015; Wright et al., 2015). However, limitations of these 114 studies have left key predictions of the OOA hypothesis untested. For example, Lynch 115 Alfaro et al. (2012a) and Nascimento et al. (2015) provided limited sampling of eastern 116 Amazonia and Cerrado/Caatinga localities, which have the potential to strongly 117 corroborate the OOA scenarios. In addition, capuchin monkey biogeography has yet to 118 be interpreted in light of models that integrate processes beyond pure dispersal 119 (Ronquist, 1997; Ree et. al., 2005; Ree & Smith, 2008; Landis et. al., 2013). 120 Here we assemble an expanded sampling of capuchin monkeys across their 121 range and conduct new biogeographic analyses using recently developed statistical 122 approaches. Our overall goal is to test hypotheses explaining capuchin biogeography 123 (Boubli et al., 2012; Lynch Alfaro et al., 2012a; Nascimento et al., 2015; Ruiz-Garcia et 124 al., 2016). We thus assemble a new cytochrome b + D-loop + cytochrome oxidase I 125 matrix with three times the samples and more comprehensive spatial and taxonomic

126 sampling compared to Lynch Alfaro et al. (2012a). We produce a detailed phylogeny 127 for capuchin monkeys, with all major lineages represented, to confirm the monophyly 128 of Cebus and Sapajus and to recover major clades within the capuchin radiation. We 129 compare alternative biogeographical scenarios using a flexible framework for inferring 130 spatial histories that allows for a number of different mechanisms causing range 131 expansion or contraction. We assess whether the employment of a more complete 132 genetic dataset and statistical methods with expanded models increase support for 133 previous conclusions about capuchin biogeographical evolution or support new 134 scenarios altogether. Our sampling allows us to address two new biogeographic 135 hypotheses for this clade. The first hypothesis postulates vicariance between Amazonia 136 and the Atlantic Forest. Divergence between Sapajus and Cebus is caused by isolation 137 of ancestral capuchin populations in the Atlantic Forest versus Amazonian habitats, 138 respectively, with subsequent expansion of *Sapajus* into sympatry with Amazonian 139 Cebus ("Reinvasion of Amazonia" hypothesis). The second, opposite, hypothesis 140 postulates vicariance within Amazonia due to the formation of the Amazon River. 141 Capuchins arise in Amazonia, and subsequently Cebus is isolated north of the Amazon 142 River, with Sapajus isolated south of the Amazon River and expanding into the Atlantic 143 Forest. Sympatry occurs with subsequent crossing of Amazon River in both directions 144 ("Out of Amazonia" hypothesis). 145

146 MATERIALS AND METHODS

147

148 DNA extraction, amplification, sequencing and alignment

149

150	We sequenced three mitochondrial genes, cytochrome b (Cyt b, 1133 bp), D-loop
151	(1244 bp) and cytochrome oxidase I (COI, 673 bp), for 108 capuchin samples from
152	poorly known or previously unsampled localities and species (see Table S1 in Appendix
153	S1). For <i>Cyt b</i> and D-loop we used primers and PCR protocols from Lynch Alfaro <i>et al</i> .
154	(2012a) and Boubli et al. (2012). We adapted COI primers and protocols from Ward et
155	al. (2005) (see Appendix S2). We combined the 108 new samples with 40 samples
156	analysed previously by Lynch Alfaro et al. (2012a) and 13 new samples with reliable
157	species identification extracted from GenBank, totaling 161 capuchin samples. Note
158	that samples from Ruiz-Garcia et al. (2016) were not available for use in this study. We
159	used only sequences over 500 bp long to improve clade support (Nascimento et al.,
160	2015). We used the most recent comprehensive taxonomic review for capuchins
161	(Rylands et al., 2013), in relation to specimen morphology and collection locality, to
162	assign species names to samples (locality data in Figure 1 and Table S1 in Appendix
163	S1). Although the limitations of mitochondrial DNA studies are well understood, $Cyt b$,
164	D-loop and COI have performed well in capturing phylogeny and biogeographical
165	history in a wide range of species (Tobe et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2011; Robins et al.,
166	2014). In addition, mtDNA sequence can be reliably generated from museum "crusties"
167	and skins using now standard protocols (e.g., Lynch Alfaro et al., 2012a, 2015a; Mercês
168	<i>et al.</i> , 2015).

169

170 Phylogenetic Reconstruction

171

We used MRBAYES 3.2.6 (Ronquist *et al.*, 2012) to reconstruct the phylogenetic relationships among capuchins, using *Saimiri* as an outgroup. We partitioned *Cyt b* and COI by codon for the analysis and ran the Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) for 50

175	million generations. We used 'sumt' to calculate the Bayesian consensus tree. We then
176	used BEAST 1.8.1 (Drummond et al., 2012) to reconstruct a time tree appropriate for
177	our biogeographical analyses by pruning the alignment to a single exemplar taxon for
178	each recovered well-supported clade. We considered branch lengths and recovered
179	polytomies in addition to posterior probabilities at nodes when distinguishing clades.
180	This resulted in a new, pruned alignment with 13 tips, representing 12 capuchin clades
181	and one outgroup. We specified a HKY + G model of nucleotide substitution and
182	partitioned by codon, using Cyt b only to avoid branch length bias due to missing data
183	in the other genes. We used Saimiri as an outgroup and the fossil Neosaimiri (Kay,
184	2015) to calibrate the split at 12.5 Ma (lognormal prior, offset=12.5, mean=0, SD=1)
185	between capuchins and squirrel monkeys for the time tree. We ran the MCMC analysis
186	for 100 million generations, sampling states every 10,000 generations with a Yule prior
187	on the diversification rate, and an uncorrelated, lognormal relaxed molecular clock.
188	
189	Biogeographical modelling
190	
191	Biogeographical scenarios In addition to testing for evidence for "Out of Amazonia"
192	versus "Reinvasion of Amazonia" hypotheses (see Introduction), we tested for
193	reciprocal monophyly for Sapajus in Amazonia (S. macrocephalus + S. apella); the
194	Cerrado + Caatinga + Central Grasslands (S. cay + S. libidinosus); and the Atlantic
195	Forest (S. flavius + S. xanthosternos + S. robustus + S. nigritus). Lack of reciprocal
196	monophyly across habitats would suggest multiple independent invasions and
197	convergent adaptations to habitat types by independent Sapajus lineages.
198	

199 Historical biogeography To test alternative hypotheses of capuchin origins and 200 radiation we used the R-package 'BioGeoBEARS', a recently developed flexible 201 maximum likelihood framework for inferring spatial histories (Matzke, 2013, 2014; see 202 Buckner et al., 2015 and Lynch Alfaro et al., 2015a for its recent application to primate 203 taxa). 'BioGeoBEARS' software allows for a statistical comparison of a suite of models 204 that include alternative biogeographic processes related to cladogenesis and that allow 205 for species distributions across multiple regions (Matzke, 2014). 206 Our tree was pruned to include one representative tip for each 'species' 207 recovered in the MRBAYES analysis. We lumped Sapajus flavius, S. cay, S. libidinosus, 208 S. apella, and S. macrocephalus (Sapajus clade 4, see below) as one species. This 209 resulted in a new, pruned alignment with 12 tips. We coded presence/absence in four 210 major geographic regions for each tip based on known species distribution using 211 Rylands et al. (2013): Atlantic Forest (AF), Cerrado/Caatinga/Central Grasslands (CC), 212 Amazonia (AM), and Central America/Andes (CA). We used the pruned, time-213 calibrated tree with regional coding in 'BioGeoBEARS' (Matzke, 2013; Matzke, 2014). 214 Our candidate pool consisted of six models: DEC, DEC-J, DIVA, DIVA-J, 215 BAYAREA-LIKE, BAYAREALIKE-J and we used model weights calculated from 216 corrected Akaike information criterion (AICc) to identify the best model or set of 217 models for our data (Matzke, 2014). 'BioGeoBEARS'script is available in Appendix 218 S2. 219 220 *Phylogeographical reconstruction of widespread Sapajus*To examine phylogeographic 221 patterns for a widespread robust capuchin group recovered in the MRBAYES tree, we

222 performed both symmetric and asymmetric discrete states phylogeographic analyses in

223 BEAST under a constant size coalescent prior. These analyses allowed us to take into

224 consideration the uncertainty in the relationships by simultaneously estimating the 225 topology and the distribution history. To compare the asymmetric and symmetric 226 analyses for their fit to our data, we performed marginal likelihood estimation (MLE) 227 using path sampling (PS) and stepping stone (SS) sampling (Beale, 2012, 2013). We 228 used the default priors for the MLE. We categorized the locality of each tip for the 229 widespread Sapajus clade in the Bayesian consensus tree as occurring in one 230 biogeographical 'region' (Figure 2). We divided Amazonia into four regions using the 231 Amazon River and two major tributaries, Negro and Madeira, as described by Wallace 232 (1852) and later Cracraft (1985): Guianas (GU), Negro (NE), Inambari (IN), Rôndonia 233 (RO). We also separated the drier open ecosystems Central Grasslands, Cerrado and 234 Caatinga (CC), from the Atlantic Forest (AF). These regions were modified from 235 Jameson Kiesling et al. (2015) and Cracraft (1985). As mtDNA is inherited maternally, 236 it tracks the movement of female lineages over time. Capuchin monkeys are female 237 philopatric with male-biased dispersal (Lynch Alfaro et al., 2014), so tracing female 238 lineage was a conservative test for the amount of movement over time in this taxon. 239 Within Amazonia, we tested for isolation by river barriers for widespread 240 Sapajus. If gene flow within Amazonian capuchin populations was restricted to major 241 interfluves, we expected a pattern of closely related subclades within, not across, four 242 major Amazonian regions delineated by the Amazon River and its major tributaries. 243 Evidence for the river barrier hypothesis was found for the sister group to capuchins, the 244 Amazonian squirrel monkeys (Lynch Alfaro et al., 2015a), as well as for marmosets and 245 tamarins (Buckner et al., 2015). Robust capuchin lineages with clades spanning 246 multiple interfluves would provide evidence against rivers as significant isolating 247 mechanisms.

248

- **RESULTS**
- 251 Capuchin Phylogenetics

253	We find strong support for reciprocally monophyletic clades of gracile and
254	robust capuchins in the phylogenetic reconstruction from MRBAYES (Figure 3a). Our
255	truncated species time tree from BEAST (Figure S1 in Appendix S3) estimates the
256	mean divergence time between Sapajus and Cebus at 5.8 Ma [95% higher posterior
257	density (HPD) = 2.24 - 10.94] (late Miocene).
258	For robust capuchins we recover strong support for the clades S. xanthosternos
259	(posterial probability $[pp] = 1$) and <i>S. nigritus</i> ($pp = 1$), but little evidence for
260	reciprocally monophyletic 'species' clades for the rest of Sapajus. Two S. robustus
261	samples form a weakly supported clade ($pp = 0.74$). All other robust capuchins form
262	one large widely distributed clade ('Sapajus CLADE 4,' pp = 1), comprising S. apella,
263	S. macrocephalus, S. cay, S. libidinosus, and S. flavius. Subclades within this group are
264	not always congruent with morphological hypotheses about robust capuchin species, a
265	result concordant with the mitochondrial results from Ruiz-García and colleagues
266	(2012, 2016). Most strikingly we find S. apella sensu stricto to be extensively
267	paraphyletic with respect to other Sapajus species. Within the widespread clade, we
268	recover several geographical subclades: (1) S. flavius (pp = 0.95); (2) S. libidinosus
269	together with eastern S. apella (pp =0.80); (3) S. cay from Paraguay and Rondônia/Mato
270	Grosso plus <i>S. apella</i> from Guaporé and Apuí ($pp = 0.81$); (4) <i>S. cay</i> from Chapada dos
271	Guimarães and S. apella from Alta Floresta, both in Mato Grosso, Brazil ($pp = 1$); (5) S.
272	<i>apella/macrocephalus</i> ($pp = 1$) from north of the Amazon and Solimões rivers, as well
273	as from regions just south of the Amazon River near the Xingu and Tapajos rivers, and

274 just south of Manaus, together reaching all four Amazonian quadrants, as far northwest 275 as Colombia; (6) S. apella/macrocephalus (pp = 0.95) from Brazil and Peru. Minimum 276 clade ranges for each of the six subclades of the widespread Sapajus clade are 277 geographically coherent though several do not match current morphological hypotheses 278 about robust capuchin taxonomy (Figure 3c). 279 Within Cebus, we recover eight strongly supported clades: Cebus versicolor 280 forms a clade (pp = 1) with *C. cesarae* within the Magdalena river valley in the 281 Colombian Andes, as part of a larger clade including C. capucinus in Panama and 282 Colombia (pp = 1), and *C. imitator* in Central America (pp = 1). In the eastern Andes, 283 C. brunneus (pp = 1) is sister to C. leucocephalus (pp = 1). Within Amazonia, there is 284 strong support for a C. unicolor + C. albifrons clade (pp = 1). C. yuracus forms a clade 285 with one C. unicolor sample (pp = 1) in western Brazil and Ecuador, and C. o. olivaceus 286 + C. o. castaneus + C. kaapori form a strongly supported clade (pp = 1). Our C. kaapori 287 sample is from the holotype, collected by Queiroz (1992), from the type locality Chega-288 Tudo, in Carutapera Municipality, Maranhão State, Brazil. Here we provide a correction to the original Queiroz (1992) for the coordinates of that locality, 02°20'S 46°05'W 289 290 (Table S1 in Appendix S1).

291

292 Reconstruction of Capuchin Biogeographical History

293

Model weights based on AICc favoured the DEC model (Table 1, Figure 4). Under this scenario the ancestral capuchin population is inferred to have had a wide range that included both Amazonia and the Atlantic Forest. The divergence between *Sapajus* and *Cebus* is a vicariance event, where *Sapajus* is isolated in the Atlantic Forest, while the lineage leading to gracile *Cebus* is isolated in Amazonia. Crown

299	Sapajus is recovered with a distribution restricted to the Atlantic Forest, with
300	subsequent rapid expansion to the Caatinga/Cerrado/Central Grasslands and Amazonia
301	regions at about 500 ka. This means that Cebus, established in Amazonia at
302	approximately 2.4 Ma, diversified for about 2 million years before the appearance of
303	any Sapajus clade in that region.
304	For crown Cebus, a single expansion event to the Central America/Andes region
305	occurred at ~2.2 Ma, with subsequent range contractions to just Central America/Andes
306	for the lineage leading to C. capucinus, C. imitator and C. versicolor, and to Amazonia
307	only for both the lineage leading to C. brunneus (note that the "Amazonia" region
308	extends to the northern Venezuelan coast; see Figure 4), and for the lineage leading to
309	C. unicolor.
310	
311	Reconstruction of widespread Sapajus radiation
312	
313	We do not find any statistical difference in support for the symmetric versus the
314	asymmetric analyses (K \approx 0). Both the phylogeographical reconstructions detail the
315	explosive Pleistocene range expansion throughout Amazonia, Cerrado, Caatinga and
316	southern grasslands for Sapajus (Figure 2 and Figure S2 in Appendix S3). In the
317	asymmetric reconstruction, robust capuchins enter Amazonia by a single expansion
318	from AF to RO at around 300-500 ka, with a second unique expansion across the
319	Amazon River to GU at 200 ka, and at least two independent expansions across the
320	Madeira River from RO to IN. There is also evidence for expansion from GU to IN, and
321	IN to GU, as well as back-crossing from both IN and GU to RO. No strong
322	geographical pattern demarcates rivers as firm barriers separating the four Amazonian
323	regions; instead, there has been significant and recurrent recent movement by Sapajus

324 across the Amazon, Solimões, Madeira and Negro rivers. Sapajus also spread from RO 325 three times into the Cerrado/Caatinga (CC) region, all within the last 200 ka. 326 The addition of a distribution partition to our BEAST analysis provides support 327 for the monophyly of Sapajus robustus (0.93) and its position as the sister group to a 328 widespread Amazonian-Grasslands-Atlantic Forest clade (pp = 1.0). Sapajus robustus is 329 restricted to the Atlantic Forest, making it clear that the explosive radiation of robust 330 capuchin monkeys began with a recent migration into Amazonia and grasslands. 331 A significant difference between our asymmetric and symmetric BEAST 332 analyses is related to S. flavius. In the symmetric BEAST phylogeography analysis, S. 333 flavius is recovered as the sister group to Sapajus CLADE 4 (Figure S2 in Appendix 334 S3). On the other hand, S. flavius is embedded within the widespread clade in the 335 asymmetric analysis (Figure 2), suggesting an expansion back into the Atlantic Forest 336 from the Amazonia/Grasslands regions.

337

338 **DISCUSSION**

339

340 Our expanded sample set with comprehensive representation of capuchin species 341 provides further support for the monophyly of robust and gracile capuchins with a split 342 at 5.8 Ma. A late Miocene Sapajus-Cebus split was previously supported using 343 combined nuclear and mitochondrial data in Perelman et al. (2011) (6.0 Ma, 95% 344 confidence interval 3.13-9.35 Ma) and Springer et al. (2012) (5.7 Ma average, 3.55-8.33 345 Ma composite 95% min-max). However, these time trees did not include all capuchin 346 species; here we add *Cebus kaapori*, *C. versicolor*, and *Sapajus flavius*. One exception 347 to monophyly of *Cebus* and *Sapajus* has been recently reported in Ruiz-Garcia *et al.* 348 (2016), where some *Cebus albifrons sensu lato* individuals from the Colombian Eastern

349 Llanos and Ecuadorian Amazonia displayed Sapajus mitochondrial haplotypes,

350 suggesting the possibility of localized past or present introgression across these two

351 genera. Unfortunately, neither sequences nor morphological data are publicly available

352 for any of these individuals at this time.

Our biogeographical analyses reconstruct a widespread capuchin ancestral distribution across forested areas of South America, from Amazonia to the Atlantic Forest, supporting Amazonia versus Atlantic Forest vicariant origin for *Cebus* and *Sapajus*. The distribution of *Sapajus* exclusively in the Atlantic Forest until recently, and *Cebus* exclusively in the Amazonia and Central America/Andes regions from early on, suggests a cladogenetic event (vicariance) led to their initial diversification in isolation.

360 Throughout capuchin evolution, the Brazilian Shield (within AF, CC, RO 361 Regions) and Guiana Shield (within GU) have been constant highland regions 362 undergoing few physical changes in configuration but perhaps experiencing changes in 363 floral assemblages related to climate (Aleixo & Rossetti, 2007). The divergence 364 between Sapajus and Cebus, dated consistently at approximately 6 Ma, coincides with 365 floral assembly of the Cerrado (4-8 Ma), as indicated by the onset of diversification of 366 many Cerrado plant lineages (Simon et al., 2009). The coincidence in timing of the 367 divergence between robust and gracile capuchins and of the Cerrado assemblage 368 suggests that the development of the Cerrado may have acted as a vicariant agent, 369 especially given the reconstructed distributions of ancestral *Sapajus* (Atlantic Forest) 370 and Cebus (Amazonia). The only extant capuchins distributed in CC belong to our 371 widespread Sapajus CLADE 4 - which invaded those biomes only in the last 500 kyr, 372 and have recent cranial and post-cranial adaptations to drier habitats (Wright *et al.*, 373 2015).

374	Combining information from our biogeographical and phylogeographical
375	analyses, we find strong evidence that all of the Atlantic Forest robust capuchin species
376	are monophyletic clades, with the exception perhaps of S. flavius, which was found as
377	part of the widespread Sapajus 'clade 4' in our MRBAYES phylogeny. Major Amazonian
378	rivers do not appear to be strong barriers for dispersal or gene flow for Sapajus, with up
379	to twelve examples of dispersal across significant Amazonian rivers demonstrated
380	through our BEAST analysis by just the sampling included in this study.
381	
382	Gracile capuchin biogeography and phylogenetics
383	
384	In our analysis, Cebus shows strong geographical divisions, suggesting a
385	widespread ancestor diversified in Amazonia and was split by range expansion and
386	subsequent range contraction in the Andes and Central America. The Amazonian group
387	(C. yuracus, C. unicolor, C. albifrons, C. olivaceus and C. kaapori) is about the same
388	age as the CA group (C. capucinus, C. imitator, C. versicolor, C. cesarae, C.
389	leucocephalus and C. brunneus). The recently discovered Cebus kaapori was initially
390	considered to be a subspecies of C. olivaceus (Harada & Ferrari, 1996), but other
391	morphological taxonomists have argued that it is a unique species (Groves 2001, 2005;
392	Silva-Júnior, 2001), with some morphological characteristics more similar to C.
393	albifrons sensu lato (Masterson, 1995). In our MRBAYES analysis, Cebus kaapori is
394	recovered within the strongly supported C. olivaceus clade. A close relationship
395	between C. kaapori and C. olivaceus makes sense, as C. o. castaneus is the gracile
396	capuchin geographically most proximate to C. kaapori. Cebus versicolor is recovered as
397	sister to C. cesarae. This is concordant with geographical distribution as both species
398	are found in isolated pockets of the Magdalena Valley in Colombia. MtDNA COII

analysis of *Cebus albifrons sensu lato* by Ruiz-García *et al.* (2010) found *C. cesarae*and *C. pleei* as sister to *C. versicolor*.

401

402 Robust capuchin biogeography and phylogenetics

403

404 Our phylogeographic analysis suggests robust capuchins were able to colonize 405 an array of divergent habitat types all within a very short time period, in the last 1 Myr. 406 Robust capuchins show evidence of multiple moves within and between all regions, 407 except that they are absent from the Central American and Andean region. This may be 408 explained because their arrival at the foot of the eastern Andes was so recent that the 409 mountain range was already fully formed and impassable (Lynch Alfaro *et al.*, 2012a).

410 Consistent with this recent explosive radiation, we find little support for the 411 internal topology of a morphologically diverse and geographically expansive clade of 412 robust capuchins. Morphological species contained in this group include S. libidinosus, 413 S. cay, S. flavius, S. macrocephalus, and S. apella. While there is significant individual 414 variation within *Sapajus* populations, these five morphological species each display 415 distinct morphological patterns with clear geographic correspondence (Silva-Júnior, 416 2001), possibly as a consequence of repeated founder effects. While the recent 417 divergence times among all the Amazonian and open region grasslands capuchins (all 418 under 400 Ka) suggest there probably has not been time enough for speciation among 419 these morphological types, our data do point to geographical clades that deserve further 420 study for their morphological and behavioural population characteristics. For example, 421 morphological differences between S. macrocephalus north and south of the Amazon 422 River have already been described (Rylands et al., 2013); our analysis here provides 423 new hypotheses for geographic boundaries between major population centers within

424 Amazonian *Sapajus*, and suggests the need for new morphological and morphometric
425 analyses for undersampled regions. We suggest nuclear genomic methods will be
426 necessary to provide a complementary perspective to help resolve the relationships
427 within this clade.

428 Rapid Pleistocene expansion throughout Amazonia has been recovered for the 429 sister taxon to capuchin monkeys, the squirrel monkeys (Chiou et al., 2011; Lynch 430 Alfaro et al., 2015a). Sapajus presence today in western Amazonia is explained in the 431 BEAST phylogeography analysis as resulting from two distinct pathways: one was 432 expanding from RO west across the Madeira River, into IN, and then spreading north 433 into NE. The second was a move first from RO across the Amazon River into GU, then 434 expansion west across the Negro River into NE, and from there south to IN. The exact 435 distribution of S. macrocephalus in western Amazonia is contested (Groves, 2001, 436 2005; Silva-Junior, 2001). Rylands et al. (2013) depict S. macrocephalus morphological 437 diversity with Brazilian, Peruvian, Bolivian and Colombian forms; one explanation for this variation congruent with our results is that western Amazonia has been colonized 438 439 multiple times from different Sapajus seed populations from different parts of 440 Amazonia. In contrast, most of Sapajus diversity in eastern Amazonia can be explained 441 by a single founder event from AF into RO, and another single founder event from RO 442 into GU, with some later expansions back to RO from GU. 443 Sapajus cay has been the subject of controversy within robust capuchin taxonomy, 444 and two major authorities (Groves, 2001, 2005; Silva-Junior, 2001) disagree 445 significantly about its distribution, in part due to differences in the localities of samples 446 available in each of their studies. Sapajus cay (sensu Rylands et al., 2013) is recovered 447 here as paraphyletic, with evidence for at least two distinct *Sapajus* populations moving 448 independently into gallery forests in more open habitat types. Sapajus cay samples from

449 Paraguay, Rondônia, and Mato Grosso cluster with S. apella from Rondônia; while S. 450 cay from northern central Mato Grosso forms a clade with nearby S. apella from Alta 451 Floresta. These two populations have apparently converged morphologically to a lighter 452 pelage phenotype in the drier, open regions. Sapajus libidinosus (sensu Rylands et al., 453 2013) marks a third expansion into CC from Amazonian Sapajus, with a resultant 454 lighter pelage (Figure 2). All expansions into drier habitats appear to have occurred in 455 the last 200-100 kyr, similar to findings for other Neotropical primates (Lynch Alfaro et 456 al., 2015b).

457 We expected to recover Sapajus flavius as sister to S. xanthosternos because of 458 geographical proximity or sister to S. *libidinosus* based on a gradation of morphology 459 between the two morphotypes (Silva, 2010); or possibly sister to all other Sapajus 460 species, based on its unusual morphology (Lynch Alfaro et al., 2012a). In our BEAST 461 phylogeography and MRBAYES analyses, Sapajus flavius is recovered as part of the 462 widespread Sapajus CLADE 4 (Figure 2 and 3b). However, in the symmetric BEAST 463 phylogeography analysis, S. flavius is recovered as the sister group to Sapajus CLADE 464 4 (Figure S2 in Appendix S3), suggesting all four Atlantic Forest Sapajus taxa may 465 have diverged from each other first prior to Sapajus expansion into other regions. Given 466 the difference in topology and the range of support values among analyses, the 467 phylogenetic placement of S. *flavius* remains uncertain, though close phylogenetic 468 affinity to Sapajus CLADE 4 is clear. 469

470 Sympatry between robust and gracile capuchins

471

472 Overall, our data and analyses support the "Reinvasion of Amazonia" hypothesis
473 (Lynch Alfaro *et al.*, 2012a) by *Sapajus* as indicated by the ancestral reconstructions of

the crown *Cebus* and crown *Sapajus* clades. The two capuchin genera diversify in
isolation, with *Sapajus* species only later invading a *Cebus*-occupied Amazonia at about
500 kya. The BEAST phylogeography analysis shows *Sapajus* invasion of Amazonia
occurring first in Rondonia (south-western Amazon) and quickly spreading to all four
quadrants of Amazonia. The recovered timing of entry into sympatry for gracile and
robust capuchins indicate an event in Amazonia less than 1 Ma, as a result of *Sapajus*counter-invasion into a region already occupied by *Cebus*.

481

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669 SUPPORTING INFORMATION

- 670 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article:
- 671 Appendix S1 Details of individual and GenBank accession numbers.

	672	Appendix	S2 Supplementary	details of methods.
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- 673 **Appendix S3** Supporting results.
- 674
- 675 **BIOSKETCH:**
- 676
- 677 Marcela G. M. Lima is a biologist interested in biogeography, phylogenetics and
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- 679 M.G.M.L., J.C.B., M.E.A. and J.W.L.A. designed and ran phylogenetic and
- biogeographic analyses and developed the article; M.G.M.L., J.S.S.J., A.M., A.L.,
- 681 I.P.F., J.P.B., F.R., H.Q., M.N.S., A.D.F. and J.W.L.A. collected and curated sample
- material; M.G.M.L., A.M. and I.P.F. generated new genetic sequences; K.C.,
- 683 M.G.M.L., J.C.B. and J.L.A. designed maps and figures; and all authors contributed to

684 the writing of the article.

- 685
- 686 Editor: Alexandre Antonelli
- 687
- 688 Tables
- 689
- 690 **Table 1** Comparison between models estimated in 'BioGeoBEARS'. For each model
- 691 implemented in the analysis are shown: values of log-likelihood (LnL), numbers of
- 692 parameters and Akaike's information criteria (AIC, Δ AIC and AICc Weight).
- 693

Model	LnL	No. Parameters	AICc	ΔAICc	AICc Weight
DEC	-17.29	2	39.92	0	0.68
DIVALIKE	-18.9	2	43.14	3.22	0.14
BAYAREALIKE	-21.41	3	51.81	11.9	0
DEC+J	-17.19	3	43.38	3.46	0.12
DIVALIKE+J	-18.61	3	46.22	6.3	0.03
BAYAREALIKE+J	-18.61	3	46.22	6.3	0.03

694 Figure Legends

695

696 Figure 1 Maps of capuchin monkey sample provenance: (a) Cebus, (b) Sapajus. 697 Figure 2 Asymmetric discrete states time tree for the widespread clade of robust 698 capuchin monkeys with ancestral state reconstruction for regions of ancestral nodes and 699 map delineating centres of endemism used for the BEAST phylogeography analyses: 700 GU: Guianas; NE: Negro; RO: Rondonia; IN: Inambari; CC: Caatinga, Cerrado and 701 Central Grasslands; AF: Atlantic Forest. Branches are colour-coded to regions from 702 inset map. Posterior probabilities are shown as asterisks for above 0.95 and as circles 703 for between 0.70 and 0.95. 704 Figure 3 Bayesian consensus tree for capuchin phylogeny: (a) Cebus and Sapajus 705 phylogeny and (b) details of *Sapajus* CLADE 4; (c) map with minimum convex 706 polygons to show geographic distribution of major subclades within the widespread 707 Sapajus clade. Subclades are presented as minimum convex polygons that connect 708 sample localities. Branches are colour-coded to regions from polygons map. Posterior 709 probabilities are shown as asterisks for above 0.95 and as circles for between 0.70 and 710 0.95. Sample species ID and number correspond to Table S1 in Appendix S1. 711 Figure 4 'BioGeoBEARS' ancestral range reconstruction of capuchin monkeys using 712 the DEC model. CA = Central America/Andes; AM = Amazonia; CC = Caatinga, 713 Cerrado and Central Grasslands; AF = Atlantic Forest. Inset map for four regions of 714 analysis.

715