

## Ancient Mitogenomes Shed Light on the Evolutionary History and Biogeography of Sloths

Frédéric Delsuc, Melanie Kuch, Gillian C Gibb, Emil Karpinski, Dirk Hackenberger, Paul Szpak, Jorge Martinez, Jim I Mead, H. Gregory Mcdonald, Ross D E Macphee, et al.

## ► To cite this version:

Frédéric Delsuc, Melanie Kuch, Gillian C Gibb, Emil Karpinski, Dirk Hackenberger, et al.. Ancient Mitogenomes Shed Light on the Evolutionary History and Biogeography of Sloths. Current Biology - CB, 2019, 10.1016/j.cub.2019.05.043 . hal-03120660v1

## HAL Id: hal-03120660 https://hal.science/hal-03120660v1

Submitted on 22 Oct 2019 (v1), last revised 5 Feb 2021 (v2)

**HAL** is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers. L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

## **Ancient Mitogenomes Shed Light on the Evolutionary**

# 2 History and Biogeography of Sloths

- 3 Frédéric Delsuc,<sup>1,13,\*</sup>, Melanie Kuch,<sup>2</sup> Gillian C. Gibb,<sup>1,3</sup>, Emil Karpinski,<sup>2,4</sup> Dirk
- 4 Hackenberger,<sup>2</sup> Paul Szpak,<sup>5</sup> Jorge G. Martínez,<sup>6</sup> Jim I. Mead,<sup>7,8</sup> H. Gregory
- 5 McDonald,<sup>9</sup> Ross D. E. MacPhee,<sup>10</sup> Guillaume Billet,<sup>11</sup> Lionel Hautier,<sup>1,12</sup> and
- 6 Hendrik N. Poinar<sup>2,\*</sup>

## 7 Author list footnotes

- 8 <sup>1</sup>Institut des Sciences de l'Evolution de Montpellier (ISEM), CNRS, IRD, EPHE, Université de
- 9 Montpellier, Place Eugène Bataillon, 34095 Montpellier Cedex 5, France
- <sup>2</sup>McMaster Ancient DNA Centre, Department of Anthropology, McMaster University, 1280 Main
- 11 Street West, Hamilton, ON L8S 4L8, Canada
- <sup>12</sup> <sup>3</sup>Wildlife and Ecology Group, School of Agriculture and Environment, Massey University,
- 13 Centennial Drive, Hokowhitu, Palmerston North 4410, New Zealand
- <sup>4</sup>Department of Biology, McMaster University, 1280 Main Street West, Hamilton, ON L8S 4L8,
- 15 Canada
- <sup>5</sup>Department of Anthropology, Trent University, 1600 West Bank Drive, Peterborough, ON K9L
- 17 0G2, Canada
- <sup>6</sup>Instituto Superior de Estudios Sociales, CONICET-Instituto de Arqueología y Museo,
- 19 Universidad Nacional de Tucumán, San Martín 1545, CP4000 San Miguel de Tucumán,
- 20 Argentina
- <sup>21</sup> <sup>7</sup>The Mammoth Site, Hot Springs, Hot Springs, SD 57747, United States of America
- <sup>8</sup>East Tennessee State University Natural History Museum, 1212 Suncrest Drive, Johnson City,
- 23 TN 37615, United States of America

- <sup>9</sup>Bureau of Land Management, Utah State Office, 440 West 200 South #500, Salt Lake City, UT
- 25 84101, United States of America
- <sup>10</sup>Division of Vertebrate Zoology/Mammalogy, American Museum of Natural History, Central
- 27 Park West & 79th Street, New York, NY 10024, United States of America
- 28 <sup>11</sup>Centre de Recherche en Paléontologie Paris (CR2P), UMR CNRS 7207, Sorbonne
- 29 Université, Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle, 57 Rue Cuvier, 75005 Paris, France
- 30 <sup>12</sup>Mammal Section, Life Sciences, Vertebrate Division, The Natural History Museum, Cromwell
- 31 Road, South Kensington, London SW7 5BD, United Kingdom
- 32 <sup>13</sup>Lead contact
- 33 \*Correspondence: <u>frederic.delsuc@umontpellier.fr</u> (F.D.), <u>poinarh@mcmaster.ca</u> (H.N.P.)
- 34

## 35 Keywords

- 36 Ancient DNA; Mitogenomics; Phylogenetics; Molecular dating; Extinct sloths; Morphology;
- 37 Convergence; Biogeography; GAARlandia.
- 38

## **GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT**



#### 42 **SUMMARY**

43 Living sloths represent two distinct lineages of small-sized mammals that independently evolved 44 arboreality from terrestrial ancestors. The six extant species are the survivors of an evolutionary 45 radiation marked by the extinction of large terrestrial forms at the end of the Quaternary. Until 46 now sloth evolutionary history has mainly been reconstructed from phylogenetic analyses of 47 morphological characters. Here we used ancient DNA methods to successfully sequence 10 48 extinct sloth mitogenomes encompassing all major lineages. This includes the iconic continental 49 ground sloths Megatherium, Megalonyx, Mylodon, and Nothrotheriops, and the smaller endemic 50 Caribbean sloths Parocnus and Acratocnus. Phylogenetic analyses identify eight distinct 51 lineages grouped in three well-supported clades and whose interrelationships are markedly 52 incongruent with the currently accepted morphological topology. We show that recently extinct 53 Caribbean sloths have a single origin but comprise two highly divergent lineages that are not 54 directly related to living two-fingered sloths, which instead group with Mylodon. Moreover, living 55 three-fingered sloths do not represent the sister-group to all other sloths but are nested within a 56 clade of extinct ground sloths including *Megatherium*, *Megalonyx*, and *Nothrotheriops*. 57 Molecular dating also reveals that the eight newly recognized sloth families all originated 58 between 36 and 28 million years ago (Mya). The early divergence of recently extinct Caribbean 59 sloths around 35 Mya is consistent with the debated GAARlandia hypothesis postulating the 60 existence at that time of a biogeographic connection between northern South America and the 61 Greater Antilles. This new molecular phylogeny has major implications for reinterpreting sloth 62 morphological evolution, biogeography, and diversification history.

#### 64 INTRODUCTION

65 Sloths (Xenarthra; Folivora) are represented today by six living species, distributed in tropical 66 forests throughout the Neotropics and conventionally placed in two genera: Choloepus, the two-67 fingered sloths (two species), and *Bradypus*, the three-fingered sloths (four species). Tree sloths 68 typically weigh 4-8 kg and are strictly arboreal. However, the living species represent only a 69 small fraction of the past Cenozoic diversity of sloths. More than 100 genera of sloths have been 70 systematically described, including the large-bodied species of the Pliocene and Pleistocene 71 popularly known as ground sloths of the Ice Age. This includes the giant ground sloth 72 (Megatherium americanum) with an estimated body mass of more than 4000 kg, and Darwin's 73 ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii), named for Charles Darwin who collected its first fossil remains. 74 Like their closest xenarthran relatives (anteaters and armadillos), sloths originated in South 75 America and successfully invaded Central and North America prior to the completion of the 76 Isthmus of Panama [1]. Pleistocene North American representative taxa include the Shasta 77 ground sloth (Nothrotheriops shastensis) and Jefferson's ground sloth (Megalonyx jeffersonii) 78 whose range extended up to Alaska. Late Quaternary ground sloths went extinct ~10.000 years 79 before present (yrbp) as part of the megafaunal extinction that occurred at the end of the latest 80 glaciation [2]. However, sloths also reached a number of Caribbean islands, giving rise to an 81 endemic radiation best known from Quaternary taxa (Megalocnus, Neocnus, Acratocnus, and 82 *Parocnus*) [3] that became extinct only shortly after the appearance of humans in the Greater 83 Antilles ~4,400 yrbp [4]. When and how sloths colonized the West Indies is still disputed. The 84 oldest accepted fossil evidence dates from the Early Miocene of Cuba [5], although discoveries 85 in Puerto Rico [6,7] demonstrate that terrestrial mammal possibly including sloths, were already 86 in the Greater Antilles by the Early Oligocene. These findings would be consistent with the 87 debated GAARlandia (GAAR: Greater Antilles + Aves Ridge) paleobiogeographic hypothesis

postulating the existence of a land bridge via the Aves Ridge that would have briefly emerged
between 35 and 33 Mya and connected northern South America to the Greater Antilles [6].

90 Until recently, the phylogenetic relationships of sloths were almost exclusively investigated 91 from analyses of morphological data. Cladistic analyses using maximum parsimony [8-11] and 92 Bayesian reconstructions [12] based predominantly on craniodental characters have 93 consistently recovered topologies defining five major sloth lineages, currently recognized as 94 families. In these phylogenetic reconstructions, modern three-fingered sloths always appear as 95 the sister-group of all other sloths and are considered to have retained a number of ancestral 96 characters [8]. Extant two-fingered sloths are also consistently found close to or nested within 97 Caribbean sloths as the sister-group of either Acratocnus [3] or Neocnus [8,12] and are 98 classified within Megalonychidae, together with other extinct sloths related to Megalonyx. It is 99 noteworthy, however, that there is currently no fossil that could be convincingly assigned to the 100 two independent lineages that led to extant tree sloths [13]

101 The vast majority of Quaternary sloth taxa became extinct so recently that numerous 102 remains in the form of bones, teeth, fragments of skin with hair and osteoderms, claws with their 103 keratinous sheaths, and paleofeces are still well preserved. The amount of subfossil material 104 available makes sloths an ideal group to leverage the power of ancient DNA to decipher their 105 radiation. In a pioneering study, Höss et al. [14] tested 45 samples from diverse sloth taxa, but 106 only two specimens of Darwin's ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii) from Mylodon Cave (Chile) 107 yielded short mitochondrial ribosomal gene fragments. Recently, a bone from the same cave 108 with high endogenous DNA content allowed assembly of a high-quality complete mitogenome 109 for Mylodon darwinii using shotgun sequencing [15]. Exceptional preservation of paleofecal 110 material of the extinct Shasta ground sloth (Nothrotheriops shastensis) from Gypsum Cave 111 (Nevada) enabled characterization of its diet by ancient DNA barcoding of plant remains [16,17]. 112 Paleofeces from this cave also yielded short PCR-amplified mitochondrial [18] and nuclear [19]

sequences allowing investigation of the phylogenetic affinities among extinct and extant sloths. Nowadays, DNA capture-based targeted enrichment is emerging as the method of choice in ancient DNA studies. It has recently been used to reconstruct partial mitogenomes for *Nothrotheriops shastensis* and *Mylodon darwinii* [20]. Moreover, it has been demonstrated that baits designed from ancestral sequences reconstructed from extant xenarthran mitogenomes can improve capture success from species for which there is no closely related extant taxa such as the extinct glyptodont *Doedicurus* [21].

120 Both molecular [14,15,18–20] and morphological [8,9,12] phylogenetic studies have 121 supported the diphyletic origin of the two living sloth genera implying an independent evolution 122 of arboreality from terrestrial ancestors. However, molecular studies are actually in conflict with 123 morphological inferences regarding the precise phylogenetic positions of extant sloths in 124 strongly supporting a close relationship between Choloepus and Mylodon [14,15,18,20] and 125 firmly grouping Bradypus with Nothrotheriops [18–20]. In order to understand the causes of this 126 incongruence, we used ancient DNA techniques to sequence the mitogenomes of 10 extinct 127 Quaternary sloths. Phylogenetic analyses of these new mitogenomic data support a topology 128 that is markedly incongruent with the currently accepted morphological framework. Our results 129 have major implications for interpreting sloth morphological evolution and should stimulate a 130 complete rethinking of our current understanding of the evolutionary history of this group.

131

#### 132 **RESULTS**

#### 133 Ten new ancient sloth mitogenomes

Using capture baits designed from ancestral sequences inferred using available xenarthranmitogenomes [21], we successfully captured, sequenced, and assembled nearly complete

136 mitogenomes for 10 ancient sloth samples representing the six extinct genera Mylodon. 137 Megatherium, Megalonyx, Nothrotheriops, Parocnus, and Acratocnus, and encompassing all 138 major late Quaternary sloth lineages (Table 1). Radiocarbon dates for these samples ranged between 10,395  $\pm$  40 radiocarbon years before present (<sup>14</sup>C yrbp) for *Acratocnus* ye and 45,800 139 ± 2000 <sup>14</sup>C yrbp for *Megalonyx jeffersonii*. Samples stemmed from diverse locations including 140 141 temperate and tropical regions of the continental Americas and the Greater Antilles, and from 142 different sources with osteological material and paleofeces. For five of the 10 samples, de novo 143 assembly of captured reads reconstructed a single contig covering the targeted mitogenome. To 144 ensure that our results were reproducible between experiments, we attempted capture using the 145 ancestrally designed baits on a Mylodon darwinii sample (Lib67) and succeeded in replicating 146 the identical mitogenome previously assembled from the same sample, but via shotgun 147 sequencing [15]. Moreover, mitogenomes from three different paleofecal samples, attributed to 148 an undetermined Megatheriinae from Peñas de las Trampas (Argentina) dated between 19,610-12,510 <sup>14</sup>C yrbp [22,23] yielded nearly identical sequences (99.9% identity). The mitogenomes 149 150 from these three samples were 97% identical to one obtained from a bone of the extinct giant 151 ground sloth Megatherium americanum. This level of mitochondrial sequence divergence 152 typically falls within the intraspecific diversity of extant sloths [24] and implies that these 153 paleofeces likely came from Megatherium americanum.

To assess the authenticity of our ancient sloth mitogenomes, we examined the fragment length distributions and the presence of DNA damage in all mapped reads. As expected, reads were short (Table 1) and showed expected DNA damage patterns (Figure 1). Damage patterns differed between osteological material and paleofeces, with osteological samples showing higher levels of DNA damage with up to 41% cytosine deamination on the oldest bone sample, *Megalonyx jeffersonii* (45,800<sup>14</sup>C yrbp). Our youngest Caribbean sloth samples from the Republic of Haiti also showed substantial levels of deamination (up to 33% for *Acratocnus ye* 

161 and up to 35% for *Parocnus serus*). The mapped reads from the three *Megatherium* 162 americanum paleofecal samples from Peñas de las Trampas in the extremely arid Argentinean 163 Puna, and the paleofeces of the Shasta ground sloth (*Nothrotheriops shastensis*) from Rampart 164 cave exhibited the lowest levels of post-mortem damage (up to only 7% for Megatherium 165 americanum Lib X18) and the highest average read lengths (Table 1). However, this seemingly 166 better preservation may be due the Uracil-DNA glycosylase and Endonuclease VIII treatment 167 used during library preparation from paleofeces [25]. The well-preserved Mylodon darwinii bone 168 found in Mylodon cave showed an intermediate level of DNA damage (up to 15%). In contrast, 169 the Mylodon darwinii osteoderm sample from the same cave presented a higher DNA damage 170 pattern similar to other osteological samples (up to 36%). Such patterns of post-mortem 171 mutations and short read lengths typical of ancient DNA molecules support the endogenous 172 origin of the reads captured from our ancient samples.

173

#### 174 Mitogenomic phylogeny of living and extinct sloths

175 Phylogenetic analyses of our dataset using both maximum likelihood and Bayesian approaches 176 resulted in a topology that was markedly incongruent with the morphological tree (Figure 2). The 177 molecular phylogeny identified eight major lineages belonging to three strongly supported 178 clades, with interrelationships (Figure 2A) that are in strong conflict with morphological analyses 179 (Figure 2B). In particular, the family Megalonychidae as currently conceived was polyphyletic, 180 with three independent origins recovered for its constitutive members (extinct Jefferson's ground 181 sloth Megalonyx jeffersonii, extinct Caribbean sloths, and extant two-fingered sloths). While the 182 Caribbean sloth group was unambiguously monophyletic (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> = 100 / BP<sub>IO-TREE</sub> = 100 / 183 PP<sub>MrBaves</sub> = 1.0 / PP<sub>PhvloBaves</sub> = 1.0), *Parocnus serus* and *Acratocnus ye* nevertheless belonged to 184 two deeply divergent lineages. However, this Caribbean clade was not closely related to modern 185 two-fingered sloths, nor to Jefferson's ground sloth, which is in sharp contrast to morphological

186 inferences (Figure 2B). In fact, Caribbean sloths appeared to represent the sister-group to all 187 other sloths, even though this position remained statistically uncertain (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> = 30 / BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub> 188 = 41 / PP<sub>MrBaves</sub> = 0.68). Extant two-fingered sloths (*Choloepus* spp.) were closely related to 189 extinct Darwin's ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii) with strong statistical support from all methods 190 (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> = 98 / BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub> = 100 / PP<sub>MrBayes</sub> = 1.0 / PP<sub>PhyloBayes</sub> = 1.0). Most phylogenetic 191 reconstruction methods also supported the grouping of Jefferson's ground sloth (Megalonyx 192 *jeffersonii*) with the Shasta ground sloth (*Nothrotheriops shastensis*) (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> = 74 / BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub> = 193 78 / PP<sub>MrBaves</sub> = 1.0). These two extinct lineages were the sister-group of modern three-fingered 194 sloths (Bradypus spp.) with good support (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> = 75 / BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub> = 89 / PP<sub>MrBaves</sub> = 1.0 / 195 PP<sub>PhyloBaves</sub> = 1.0). Three-fingered sloths thus did not represent the sister-group of all other sloth 196 species as had been concluded by morphological studies (Figure 2B). Instead, they were firmly 197 nested within a strongly supported clade composed of the extinct giant ground sloth 198 Megatherium together with Megalonyx and Nothrotheriops (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> = 85 / BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub> = 94 / 199  $PP_{MrBaves} = 1.0 / PP_{PhyloBaves} = 1.0$ ).

200

#### 201 Molecular dating of the sloth radiation

202 The molecular chronogram obtained under the autocorrelated lognormal (LN) relaxed clock 203 model (Figure 3A) revealed an ancient origin of the eight newly identified sloth lineages. Their 204 rapid diversification occurred in a narrow time window of less than 10 million years (Myr), in the 205 Late Eocene / Early Oligocene, between approximately 36 and 28 Mya. The two earliest 206 divergences within the sloth radiation almost perfectly coincided with the Eocene / Oligocene 207 boundary (33.9 Mya). The early emergence of Caribbean sloths (Node 1) was estimated at  $35 \pm$ 208 5 Mya and the separation of the two other major clades of sloths (Node 4) at  $34 \pm 5$  Mya. The 209 ancient monophyletic origin of Caribbean sloths was compatible with the GAARlandia

210 hypothesis (35-33 Mya). The ancient divergence between the two Caribbean sloths (Node 2) 211 was estimated to 29 ± 5 Mya. Within the second major sloth clade (Node 3), modern two-212 fingered sloths (Choloepus spp.) and the extinct Darwin's ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii) also 213 diverged 29 ± 5 Mya. Within the third major sloth clade (Node 5), the extinct giant ground sloth 214 (Megatherium americanum) split from the other three lineages at  $31 \pm 5$  Mya, modern three-215 fingered sloths diverged from the extinct Jefferson's ground sloth (Megalonyx jeffersonii) and 216 Shasta ground sloth (*Nothrotheriops shastensis*) at  $29 \pm 5$  Mya (Node 7), which in turn 217 separated at 28 ± 5 Mya (Node 6). Posterior density distributions of mean divergence times 218 illustrated the synchronicity of many divergences among the eight sloth lineages (Figure 3B). 219 Very similar distributions centering on the Early to Late Oligocene transition at 29 Mya were 220 obtained for the divergences between Parocnus and Acratocnus (Node 2), Choloepus and 221 Mylodon (Node 3), and Bradypus versus Megalonyx + Nothrotheriops (Node 7). Similarly, the 222 age distributions of the two earliest splits (Nodes 1 and 4) were centered on the Eocene / 223 Oligocene boundary and contemporaneous with the proposed GAARlandia land bridge.

224

#### 225 Reconstruction of the ancestral sloth dental formula

226 The sloth dentition in most taxa shows a morpho-functional distinction between an anteriorly 227 located caniniform and the molariforms that form the tooth row (Figure 4A). In order to 228 reinterpret dental character evolution on a sloth phylogeny including most available fossils, we 229 used our newly inferred molecular topology as a backbone in maximum likelihood and 230 parsimony reconstructions of ancestral character states performed on the morphological matrix 231 of Varela et al. [12]. Both methodologies retrieved consistent results, but reconstructions of the 232 sloth ancestral dental formula differed depending on whether the molecular backbone was 233 enforced or not (Figure 4B). All reconstructions proposed an ancestral dental formula of five

upper and four lower teeth for sloths, in association with the absence of diastema, and the
caniniform shape of the anterior most teeth (Figure 4; characters 2(0), 6(0), 19(1), and 21(0)).
The main differences involved the size of the upper (Cf) and lower (cf) caniniforms. When
considering the topology of the unconstrained morphological analyses, the reduced condition of
the caniniforms (characters 13(0) and 14(0)) was reconstructed as ancestral, while
reconstructions using a molecularly constrained topology retrieved large caniniforms (characters
13(1) and 14(1)) as the ancestral state.

241

#### 242 **DISCUSSION**

#### 243 A revised phylogeny and taxonomy for living and extinct sloths

244 Our mitogenomic tree revisits the phylogenetic relationships among living and extinct sloths 245 compared to the currently accepted morphological picture. Mitochondrial genomes have 246 limitations as phylogenetic markers with cases of mito-nuclear discordance resulting from 247 ancient hybridization events reported in mammals [26,27]. The relatively short internal branches 248 might also reflect the occurrence of incomplete lineage sorting. However, a parallel study of 249 sloth phylogeny based on ancient nuclear collagen proteins independently corroborates our 250 mitogenomic results [28]. The high congruence observed between the mitochondrial and 251 nuclear genome results provides substantial evidence for the newly proposed sloth phylogeny.

Based on this extensively revised phylogeny and reevaluated timescale, we propose a new taxonomic framework for sloths (Folivora), in which the eight molecularly identified lineages are recognized as distinct families (Figure 2A). Some of these molecular lineages correspond to traditional families: Bradypodidae, Mylodontidae, Megatheriidae, and Nothrotheriidae. However, Megalonychidae as classically defined is polyphyletic and should be divided into distinct

257 families. We propose that the family Megalonychidae be restricted to genus Megalonyx and 258 meaningfully related genera, and to classify extant two-fingered sloths of the genus Choloepus 259 in the monotypic family Choloepodidae. As the two distinct lineages of Caribbean sloths 260 diverged at about the same time as the other newly defined families, we propose respectively 261 elevating the Acratocnini and Parocnini tribes [3] to family level into Acratocnidae and 262 Parocnidae. Finally, we recommend reorganizing sloth superfamily names and content so that 263 they correspond to the three strongly supported main clades recovered in all our analyses 264 (Figures 2A): Megalocnoidea (Acratocnidae and Parocnidae), Mylodontoidea (Mylodontidae and 265 Choloepidae), and Megatherioidea (Megatheriidae, Megalonychidae, Nothrotheriidae, and 266 Bradypodidae). This newly proposed taxonomic framework would hopefully be adopted in 267 systematic paleontological studies to reassess the numerous Cenozoic fossil taxa for which 268 molecular data are inaccessible. Such a reassessment is needed to make sense of the rich 269 sloth fossil record in light of available molecular data.

270

#### 271 Reinterpreting sloth evolution in light of the new molecular phylogeny

272 The new molecular results are in strong conflict with cladistic [3,8,10,29] and Bayesian [12] 273 analyses of morphological characters (Figure 2). However, in the details, analyses of 274 morphological characters provide only limited statistical support for most proposed suprafamilial 275 relationships. Gaudin [8] recognized that alternative hypotheses respectively placing Bradypus 276 with Megatheriidae and Choloepus with Mylodontidae, as suggested by early molecular studies 277 [14,18] and confirmed by our analyses, could not be statistically rejected. The Bayesian analysis 278 of Varela et al. [12] also provides a tenuous phylogenetic signal as indicated by the large 279 proportion of nodes receiving posterior probability < 0.95. These observations illustrate the

280 limited power of existing morphological matrices for resolving higher-level phylogenetic281 relationships within sloths.

282 Such an apparently high level of incongruence between morphology and molecules is 283 reminiscent of the case of placental mammals until molecular studies [30] revealed an 284 unsuspected high level of morphological homoplasy [31]. Our new molecular phylogenetic 285 framework likewise suggests that numerous morphological characters used to reconstruct sloth 286 interfamilial relationships must have evolved convergently. The most striking example of 287 morphological convergence in sloths concerns Megalonychidae. The molecular evidence 288 demonstrates that, as currently defined, Megalonychidae is polyphyletic, with three independent 289 origins for the lineages represented by Megalonyx, Choloepus, and the Caribbean sloths. Yet 290 the monophyly of this clade has been consistently retrieved in morphological studies [3,8,10,12]. 291 Gaudin [8], for example, recovered 20 unequivocal synapomorphies supporting 292 Megalonychidae, most of which were related to features of the trenchant caniniforms (Figure 4). 293 The strength of this argument depends on the validity of the assumption that tooth row structure 294 as seen in *Bradypus* is ancestral, while that of *Choloepus* is derived, which was ultimately 295 influenced by the early branching position of *Bradypus* on the sloth morphological phylogeny [8]. 296 The dental formula of extinct and extant sloths is surprisingly conservative, as it never exceeds 297 five upper and four lower teeth (Figure 4). However, the homology between the upper and lower 298 caniniforms in Choloepus and Bradypus has recently been reinterpreted based on 299 developmental data. Hautier et al. [32] showed that the dental pattern of Bradypus might 300 represent a neotenic condition with the retention of a deciduous caniniform and the absence of a 301 functional caniniform in adults. They suggested that a large permanent caniniform as observed 302 in Choloepus could represent the ancestral condition for sloths. Our ancestral reconstruction 303 under the molecular constraint indicating large caniniforms as the most likely ancestral state for 304 sloths is in line with this developmental scenario, as well as with the presence of a large

caniniform in *Pseudoglyptodon*, considered to be the earliest fossil sloth [33]. This finding that
dental homologies have been misinterpreted between the two living sloth genera mitigates the
potential weight of dental features related to the size and shape of the caniniforms in
phylogenetic and systematic studies. In all cases, the utmost caution should be used when
coding dental features that are prone to functional convergence.

310 An unexpected outcome of our molecular investigation is that the endemic Caribbean sloths 311 are not closely related to extant two-fingered sloths of the genus Choloepus, but instead 312 represent one of the three main clades of the sloth radiation. This is a radical departure from the 313 prevailing morphological consensus that has prevailed for decades [3,10,34]. Gaudin [8], 314 however, also noted that Choloepus shares a number of craniodental characters with 315 Mylodontidae that he interpreted as convergences. In light of our results confirming the close 316 relationship between Choloepus and Mylodon revealed by previous molecular studies 317 [14,15,18,20], these characters might in fact constitute true synapomorphies for this clade as 318 originally intuited in pre-cladistic studies of comparative anatomy [35,36]. Moreover, our results 319 challenge the position of living three-fingered sloths of the genus *Bradypus* as the sister-group 320 to all other sloths retrieved in most morphological studies [8–10,12]. Instead, we found strong 321 support for Bradypus being nested within a clade of extinct ground sloths, including the Shasta 322 ground sloth Nothrotheriops as proposed by previous molecular studies [18–20], but also the 323 giant ground sloth Megatherium americanum, and Jefferson's ground sloth Megalonyx 324 jeffersonii (Figure 2A). Here also Gaudin [8] noticed a number of seemingly convergent 325 morphological features between Bradypus and Megatheriidae, which ought to be re-evaluated 326 as signatures of common ancestry as suggested by early anatomical studies [35–37].

327

328

#### 329 A new timescale for sloth evolution and biogeography

330 Our molecular dating results unveil a rapid diversification at the base of the sloth radiation with 331 an almost synchronous origin of the three main clades at the Eocene / Oligocene boundary ~35 332 Mya followed by the divergence of all eight major lineages in a narrow time window framing the 333 Early Oligocene between 31 and 28 Mya (Figure 3). This time period corresponds to a global 334 glacial maximum characterized by the formation of the Antarctic ice sheet and the set up of the 335 circum-Antarctic oceanic current following the abrupt decrease in terrestrial temperature at the 336 Eocene-Oligocene transition [38]. In South America, this prompted the transition from humid 337 tropical forest environments to drier and more open habitats [39]. According to our molecular 338 estimates these environmental changes might have triggered the diversification of sloth families 339 among other mammalian herbivore communities. The fossil record nevertheless implies at most 340 an Early Miocene origin for most sloth families [40]. Our results favor a long-fuse model of sloth 341 diversification, with molecular estimates of interfamilial divergences predating their 342 paleontological origin by more than 10 Myr. This model invites a reconsideration of the 343 taxonomic status of Oligocene sloth fossils with uncertain relationships, such as Orophodon, 344 Octodontotherium, and Deseadognathus, in light of the apparent antiquity of the newly defined 345 families.

346 Unsurprisingly, given the major differences between morphological and molecular 347 topologies, our mitogenomic timescale markedly contrasts with the one recently obtained by 348 Varela et al. [12] using a Bayesian morphological clock model combined with tip-dating. This 349 directly affects the timing of the origins of the two living sloth lineages given their revised 350 phylogenetic positions. With regard to three-fingered sloths, their divergence from all other 351 sloths was estimated at ~40 Mya with morphological data [12], whereas our estimate places the 352 separation of *Bradypus* from its relatives *Nothrotheriops* and *Megalonyx* at ~29 Mya (Figure 3). 353 However, the most notable inconsistency between morphological and molecular estimates

354 concerns the timing of the Caribbean sloth radiation, formerly thought to include extant two-355 fingered sloths (Choloepus) based on morphological data. The morphological clock results place 356 the divergence between Acratocnus and Parocnus at only ~8 Mya and the divergence between 357 Parocnus and Choloepus at ~5 Mya [12]. In striking contrast, our molecular timescale indicates 358 that the two monophyletic Caribbean sloth genera diverged ~29 Mya, which is almost identical 359 to our dating of the separation of *Choloepus* and *Mylodon* (Figure 3). So ancient a divergence 360 between the species Acratocnus ye and Parocnus serus, both endemic to Hispaniola [3], implies 361 an early diversification of insular sloths within the West Indies. The megalocnoids subsequently 362 diversified (Figure 5), likely in part through island-island vicariance as the land masses 363 comprising present day Cuba-Hispaniola-Puerto Rico drifted apart in the Miocene [41]. The 364 early fossil record for the diversification of Caribbean sloths is, however, very limited. A partial 365 femur of uncertain affinities found in the Early Oligocene of Puerto Rico was tentatively 366 attributed to "Megalonychidae" (species A in Figure 5; [6]). The only other non-Quaternary fossil 367 is Imagocnus zazae from the Early Miocene of Cuba, which has clear folivoran affinities (Figure 368 5; [42]). Given the deep divergence between Parocnidae and Acratocnidae, it is likely that other 369 ancient sloth fossils remain to be found in the Greater Antilles. Overall, our molecular dating 370 results show that recent Quaternary extinctions wiped out six of the eight newly identified sloth 371 families that originated in the Early Oligocene more than 28 Mya, including two ancient endemic 372 Caribbean sloth lineages.

From the biogeographical point of view, the rapid radiation of the three major sloth lineages, including the Caribbean clade, is consistent with a single colonization of the Caribbean islands taking place around 35 Mya. This estimation would be compatible with the debated GAARlandia hypothesis, which postulates the brief existence 33-35 Mya of a land bridge that subaerially united northernmost South America and the Greater Antilles-Aves Rise magmatic arc [6,41] (Figure 5). This landspan is thought to correspond to the uplift of the Aves Ridge, a paleo-island

379 arc that is now submerged in the Caribbean Sea, west of the current Lesser Antilles. As 380 originally conceived, the GAARlandia hypothesis was based on mammal distributions, and 381 attempted to explain how several South American groups might have managed to reach the 382 islands without invoking overwater dispersal. More recently, molecular phylogenies obtained for 383 other terrestrial Caribbean mammals have mostly rejected the hypothesis, because the origin of 384 the investigated taxon was either too ancient in the case of solenodontids [43,44] or too recent 385 for capromyid [45] and sigmodontine [46] rodents, and primates [47]. Sloths are thus the first 386 Caribbean mammalian group for which molecular dating based on mitogenomics provides 387 support for GAARlandia. The dispersal of other terrestrial Caribbean taxa may have been 388 enabled by this temporary dispersal corridor, including a genus of toads [48] and three different 389 groups of spiders [49–51]. The existence of this dispersal corridor would also explain the 390 presence of caviomorph rodent fossils of South American origin in the Greater Antilles by the 391 Early Oligocene [7].

392 Overall, our new molecular phylogenetic framework and timescale tell a story of sloth 393 evolution very different from that of the one previously told by morphology alone. Our results 394 have important implications for reinterpreting many aspects of sloth evolution that have been 395 previously based on the morphological phylogenetic picture such as morpho-functional 396 adaptations [9], body size evolution [52,53], and macroevolutionary patterns [12]. We hope our 397 study will stimulate a complete rethinking of the evolutionary history of sloths with reassessment 398 of morphological characters in light of the significant amount of convergence revealed by the 399 new molecular framework.

400

401

#### 403 ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

404 We thank Suzanne Jiguel, Marie-Dominique Wandhammer, Andrew Currant, Régis Debruyne, 405 Adolfo F. Gil, Alex D. Greenwood, Svante Pääbo, François Pujos, Rodolpho Salas Gismondi, 406 and David Steadman for access to sloth specimens, John Southon for radiocarbon dating, 407 Philippe Münch, Pierre-Henri Fabre, Fabien Condamine, Laurent Marivaux, and Pierre-Olivier Antoine for discussions on the biogeographical context, Rémi Allio for his help with ggridges, 408 409 and Renaud Lebrun for access to the MRI microCT facilities. This work was supported by grants 410 from the Centre National de la Recherche Scientifique (CNRS), the Scientific Council of the 411 Université de Montpellier (UM), the Investissements d'Avenir managed by Agence Nationale de 412 la Recherche (CEBA, ANR-10-LABX-25-01; CEMEB, ANR-10-LABX-0004), Agence Nationale 413 de la Recherche (GAARAnti, ANR-17-CE31-0009), the Natural Sciences and Engineering 414 Research Council of Canada (NSERC, no. RGPIN04184-15) and the Canada Research Chairs 415 programme. This is contribution ISEM 2019-092-SUD of the Institut des Sciences de l'Evolution 416 de Montpellier.

417

#### 418 AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

- 419 Conceptualization: F.D., H.N.P.; Data curation: M.K., E.K., H.N.P.; Formal analysis: F.D., L.H.,
- 420 G.B.; Funding acquisition: F.D., L.H., H.N.P.; Investigation: M.K., G.C.G., E.K., D.H., P.S.,
- 421 H.N.P.; Resources: F.D., J.G.M., J.I.M., H.G.M., R.D.E.M., H.N.P.; Supervision: F.D., H.N.P.;
- 422 Validation: F.D., H.N.P.; Visualization: F.D., L.H.; Writing original draft: F.D., L.H.; Writing –
- 423 review & editing: F.D., M.K., G.C.G., E.K., J.G.M., H.G.M., R.D.E.M., G.B., L.H., H.N.P.

#### 425 DECLARATION OF INTERESTS

426 The authors declare no competing interests.

427

#### 428 FIGURE LEGENDS

429 Figure 1. DNA damage profiles of mapped mitochondrial reads for the 10 different

430 **libraries.** The fragment misincorporation plots represent the frequency of cytosine deamination

431 per position at both strands of mapped sequence reads (5' C=>T and 3' G=>A).

432

433 Figure 2. Mitogenomic versus morphological phylogenies of living and extinct sloths. (A) 434 Maximum likelihood phylogram obtained with RAxML under the best partition model for sloth 435 mitogenomes. Values at nodes represent maximum-likelihood bootstrap percentages under the 436 best partition model using RAxML (BP<sub>RAxML</sub>) and IQ-TREE (BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub>), and clade posterior 437 probabilities under the best partition model using MrBayes (PP<sub>MrBayes</sub>) and the CAT-GTR mixture 438 model using PhyloBayes (PP<sub>PhyloBayes</sub>). An asterisk (\*) indicates strong support from all statistical 439 indices (BP  $\ge$  95 and PP  $\ge$  0.99) whereas a dash (-) indicates that the node was not recovered 440 with the corresponding method. Taxa in bold are those sequenced in this study. Colors highlight 441 the eight newly proposed families and bullets (•) the three new superfamilies. Complete 442 phylograms are available as Figures S1-S4. See also Tables S1-S3. (B) Time-calibrated 443 phylogenetic relationships among the main sloth lineages as reconstructed from morphological 444 data showing the five currently recognized families: Bradypodidae (limited to the extant three-445 fingered sloths in the genus *Bradypus*), Mylodontidae (extinct sloths related to *Mylodon*), 446 Megatheriidae (extinct sloths related to *Megatherium*). Nothrotheriidae (extinct sloths related to

*Nothrotheriops*), and Megalonychidae (including extinct sloths related to *Megalonyx*, extinct
Caribbean sloths, and extant two-fingered sloths of the genus *Choloepus*) (modified from [12]).
Dash lines highlight the incongruence between the molecular and the morphological topologies.
Silhouettes are from phylopic.org.

451

Figure 3. Time-calibrated phylogeny of modern and ancient sloths based on complete 452 453 mitogenomes. (A) Bayesian chronogram obtained using PhyloBayes under the CAT-GTR+G4 454 mixture model and the best-fitting autocorrelated lognormal (LN) relaxed molecular clock model. 455 Colors highlight the eight newly proposed families. The complete chronogram with 95% 456 credibility intervals is available as Figure S5. (B) Bayesian posterior density distributions of 457 divergence dates for the seven numbered nodes representing the diversification of the eight 458 newly recognized sloth families. The main geological periods follow the geological time scale of 459 the Geological Society of America (E, early; M, middle; L, late; Paleo., Paleocene; Pli., Pliocene; 460 P., Pleistocene). Silhouettes are from phylopic.org.

461

462 Figure 4. Reinterpretation of dental evolution in sloths under the new phylogenetic 463 framework. (A) 3D reconstructions of the skulls of a two-fingered sloth (Choloepus didactylus 464 UM 789N; left) and a three-fingered sloth (Bradypus tridactylus MZS 03557; right) showing the 465 six characters used for reconstructing the sloth ancestral dental features with states illustrated 466 following Varela et al. [12]: character #6, diastema [(0) absent or rudimentary; (1) elongate]; 467 #13, size of upper caniniform (Cf) [(0) smallest tooth; (1) greatly enlarged; (2) neither the 468 smallest nor enlarged]; #14, size of lower caniniform (cf) [(0) smallest tooth; (1) greatly enlarged; 469 (2) neither the smallest nor enlarged]; #19, morphology of Cf/cf [(0) molariform; (2) caniniform; 470 (3) incisiform]; #21, position of Cf relative to the anterior edge of the maxilla [(0) right at the

edge; (1) near the edge; (2) well-separated from the anterior edge]; #23, fossa on palatal
surface of maxilla posterior to Cf [(0) absent; (1) present]. (B) Schematic representations of the
upper and lower tooth rows in *Choloepus* (left) and *Bradypus* (right), and maximum likelihood
reconstructions of the sloth ancestral dental morphotype based respectively on the
unconstrained (left) and constrained (right) ML topologies using a molecular backbone inferred
from the morphological character matrix of Varela et al. [12].

477

478 Figure 5. Biogeographical context of the extinct Caribbean sloth radiation. Distribution of 479 sloth fossil remains in the Greater and Lesser Antilles with recent Quaternary extinct species (†) 480 and Tertiary fossils (\*) (adapted from [3]). Species sequenced in this study are shown in bold. 481 Species A corresponds to a small femur found in the Oligocene of Puerto Rico with uncertain 482 sloth affinities [6]. The Aves Ridge is an ancient volcanic arc that is now entirely submerged in 483 the Caribbean Sea. The dashed arrow indicates the hypothesized GAARlandia land bridge 484 linking northern South America to the Greater Antilles around the Eocene-Oligocene transition 485 (33-35 Mya) resulting from the uplift of the Aves Ridge at that time. Bathymetric map courtesy of 486 NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information.

487

#### 488 TABLE LEGEND

489 **Table 1:** Sample origins, radiocarbon dates, and mitogenome assembly statistics.

490

#### 492 **STAR \* METHODS**

493	Key resources table
494	Contact for resource sharing
495	Experimental model and subject details
496	Method details
497	Data and software availability

498

#### 499 CONTACT FOR RESOURCE SHARING

Further information and requests for resources should be directed to, and will be fulfilled by the
lead contact author Frédéric Delsuc (Frederic.Delsuc@umontpellier.fr).

502

#### 503 EXPERIMENTAL MODEL AND SUBJECT DETAILS

504 The 10 extinct sloth samples used in this study come from different specimen sources and are 505 stored in natural history museums in Europe, USA, and Argentina (Table 1). For Darwin's 506 ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii), we used two different samples both collected at Mylodon Cave 507 (Última Esperanza, Chile) in the form of a bone (NHMUK PV M8758) stored at the Natural 508 History Museum (London, UK) and a skin sample with osteoderms (MNHN 1905-4) stored at the 509 Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle (Paris, France). The Mylodon bone NHMUK PV M8758 510 was previously used to obtain a complete mitogenome using shotgun sequencing [15] of the 511 same library as the one used here for sequence capture. For Jefferson's ground sloth 512 (Megalonyx jeffersonii), we used a bone (PMA P98.6.28) collected at Big Bone Cave (TN, USA)

513 and conserved at the Academy of Natural Sciences of Drexel University (Philadelphia, PA, 514 USA). For Shasta's ground sloth (*Nothrotheriops shastensis*), we used a paleofeces (RC L12 515 #1) collected at Rampart Cave (AZ, USA) and conserved at the Desert Lab at Arizona State 516 University and collected by the late Paul S. Martin. For the giant ground sloth (Megatherium 517 americanum), we had access to a rib bone sample (MAPB4R 3965) from Los Chaceras 518 (Argentina) conserved in the Museo de la Asociación Paleontológica (Bariloche, Río Negro, 519 Argentina). We also used three paleofeces from two different layers (C.2C Layer 2, C.2E Layer 520 4 1, C.2E Layer 4 2) attributed to an undetermined Megatheriinae from Peñas de las Trampas 521 1.1 archeological site (Catamarca, Argentina) and deposited in the Institute of Archaeology and 522 Museum of the National University of Tucumán (IAM-UNT; Tucumán, Argentina). Our analyses 523 have shown that those paleofeces most likely came from the giant ground sloth (Megatherium 524 americanum). Finally, for the two Caribbean sloths Acratocnus ye and Parocnus serus, we used 525 a mandible with molars (UF 76365) and a bone (UF 75452) collected at two different localities 526 from the Département de l'Ouest of the Republic of Haiti, respectively. Both samples are stored 527 in the collections of the Florida Museum of Natural History (Gainesville, FL, USA).

528

#### 529 METHOD DETAILS

#### 530 Radiocarbon dating

Aliquots of freeze-dried ultrafiltered gelatin prepared from each sample were radiocarbon dated
by the Keck Carbon Cycle AMS facility of the University of California Irvine (USA).

533

#### 534 DNA extraction and library preparation from bone

535 Subsampling of bones was done in a dedicated ancient DNA laboratory facility at the McMaster 536 Ancient DNA Centre for Mylodon darwinii MNHN 1905-4 (40 mg), Mylodon darwinii NHMUK PV 537 M8758 (300 mg), Acratocnus ye UF 76365 (360 mg), Parocnus serus UF 75452 (360 mg), 538 Megalonyx jeffersonii PMA P98.6.28 (300 mg), and Megatherium americanum MAPB4R 3965 539 for which three subsamples were taken from the rib cross section (187-285 mg). Each 540 subsample was further reduced to small particle sizes of 1-5 mm using a hammer and chisel. 541 The subsamples were then demineralized with 0.5 M EDTA (pH 8.0) for 24 h at room 542 temperature with agitation, and the supernatant removed following centrifugation. The pellets 543 were digested using a Tris-HCI-based (20 mM, pH 8.0) proteinase K (250 µg/mI) digestion 544 solution with 0.5% sodium lauroyl sarcosinate (Fisher Scientific), 1% polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP, 545 Fisher scientific), 50 mM dithiothreitol (DTT), 2.5 mM N-phenacyl thiazolium bromide (PTB, 546 Prime Organics), and 5 mM calcium chloride (CaCl2). Proteinase digestions were performed for 547 24 h at room temperature with agitation. Following centrifugation, the digestion supernatants 548 were removed and pooled with the demineralization supernatants. This process was repeated 549 three to four times, pooling supernatants with the original rounds. Organics were then extracted 550 from the pooled supernatants using phenol:chloroform:isoamyl alcohol (PCI, 25:24:1), and the 551 resulting post-centrifugation aqueous solution was again extracted with chloroform. The final 552 aqueous solution was concentrated using 10 kDA Amicon centrifuge filters (Millipore) at 4000 x 553 g or 14,000 x g depending on filter volume used (Amicon Ultra 0.5 ml or Amicon Ultra 4 ml), with 554 up to four washes of 0.1x TE buffer (pH 8) to provide a final desalted concentrate of 50 µl. For 555 Megatherium americanum MAPB4R 3965, demineralization and digestion were carried out 556 similarly to other bone samples, with modifications based on in-house optimization. Pooled 557 demineralization and digestion supernatants were extracted using the "Method B" extraction 558 procedure outlined in Glocke and Meyer [54], except eluted off the column in 50 µl of EBT. 559 Extraction blanks were carried alongside each sample during the entire extraction procedure to 560 monitor for possible external contamination during handling.

561 Ancient DNA extracts and extraction blanks were finally purified with a MinElute column 562 (Qiagen) to 50 µl EBT and converted to a double-stranded, Illumina sequencing library 563 according to the protocol developed by Meyer and Kircher [55] with the following modifications: 564 1) the reaction volume for blunt-end repair was reduced to 40 µl with 25ul template; 2) all SPRI 565 purification steps were substituted by spin column purification (MinElute PCR purification kit. 566 Qiagen), and 3) adapter ligation was performed overnight at 16°C. For Megatherium 567 americanum MAPB4R 3965, three libraries (L1043, L1044, and L1045) were generated from the 568 three independent subsamples of the same specimen. These libraries were constructed from 20 569 µl of each purified extract as input in 40 µl reactions as above, with modifications in the End 570 Repair step to accommodate the switch from NEBuffer 2 to NEBuffer 2.1, and the removal of 571 Uracil-DNA glycosylase and Endonuclease VIII treatment.

#### 572 DNA extraction and library preparation from paleofeces

573 Subsampling of paleofeces was performed in a dedicated ancient DNA laboratory facility at the 574 McMaster Ancient DNA Centre for Megatherium americanum IAM-UNT C.2C Layer2 (160 mg), 575 Megatherium americanum IAM-UNT C.2E Layer4 1 (140 mg), Megatherium americanum IAM-576 UNT C.2E Layer4 2 (120 mg), and Nothrotheriops shastensis RC L12 #1 (130 mg). Using 577 tweezers and scalpels subsamples were further reduced to small particle sizes of 1-5 mm. Each 578 subsample was then incubated with a Guanidinium thiocyanate buffer (6 M GuSCN, 20 mM Tris 579 (pH 8.0), 0.5% sodium lauroyl sarcosinate, 8 mM DTT, 4% PVP, and 10 mM PTB for 20 h at 580 37°C with agitation, and the supernatant removed following centrifugation. 500 µl of supernatant 581 were then purified using MinElute columns eluting to a final volume of 25 µl with 0.1x TE plus 582 0.05 % Tween. Extraction blanks were carried alongside each sample during the entire 583 extraction procedure to monitor for possible external contamination during handling.

584 Ancient DNA extracts and extraction blanks were converted into Illumina blunt-ended 585 libraries as described by Meyer and Kircher [55] with the following modifications: 1) the reaction 586 volume for blunt-end repair was reduced to 50 µl with 25 µl template; 2) buffer Tango (10x) was 587 substituted with NE Buffer 2 (10x); 3) BSA was added to the blunt-end repair reaction at a final 588 concentration of 0.1 mg/ml; 4) T4 polynucleotide kinase was reduced to a final concentration of 589 0.4 U/µl; 5) Uracil-DNA glycosylase and Endonuclease VIII were added to the blunt-end repair 590 reaction at a final concentration of 0.1 U/ $\mu$ l and 0.4 U/ $\mu$ l respectively; 6) the blunt-end repair 591 reaction was incubated at 37°C for 3 h without the addition of T4 DNA polymerase and again 592 after the addition of T4 DNA polymerase at a final concentration of 0.2U/µl at 25°C for 15 min 593 and 12°C for 15 min; 7) all SPRI purification steps were substituted by spin column purification 594 (MinElute PCR purification kit as suggested by Kircher et al. [56]); 8) adapter concentration in 595 the ligation reaction was reduced to 0.25  $\mu$ M of each adapter as suggested by Kircher et al. [56]; 596 9) adapter ligation was performed overnight at 16°C; 10) Bst polymerase was increased to a 597 final concentration of 0.4 U/µl; and 11) no purification step was performed after adapter fill-in 598 with Bst polymerase but instead, the enzyme was heat inactivated at 80°C for 20 min following 599 Kircher et al. [56].

#### 600 Library indexing, qPCR assay, target enrichment, and sequencing

601 Constructed libraries were then double-indexed with P5 and P7 indexing primers [56] in a 50 µl 602 reaction containing 1x Herculase II Reaction Buffer, 250 µM each dNTP, 0.5x EvaGreen, 400 603 nM of each primer, 0.5 µl Herculase II Fusion DNA Polymerase, and 10 µl library. Cycling 604 conditions were 95°C for 2 min, 10 amplification cycles of (95°C for 15 sec, 60°C for 20 sec, 605 72°C for 30 sec), and a final extension of 72°C for 3 min. Amplifications were performed using a 606 MJ thermocycler (BioRad). Reactions were purified again with MinElute to 15 µL EBT. For 607 Megatherium americanum MAPB4R 3965, heat-deactivated libraries were indexed using 12.5 µl 608 of template with unique P5 and P7 indexes, with an increased primer concentration (750 nM)

609 and 1X KAPA SYBR®FAST gPCR Master Mix as this method produces less PCR artifacts than 610 Herculase II Fusion DNA Polymerase. To ensure that libraries contained endogenous DNA after 611 preparation, and that the blank extract libraries did not, each indexed library was subjected to a 612 quantitative PCR assay specifically targeting a 47 bp portion of the xenarthran mitochondrial 613 16S rRNA gene using primers Xen 16S F2 and Xen 16S R2 [21]. The following protocol 614 employing 1 µL of the library in a total reaction volume of 10 µl was used: 1x PCR Buffer II, 2.5 615 mM MgCl2, 250 µM dNTP mix, 1 mg/ml BSA, 250 nM each primer, 0.5x EvaGreen, 0.5 U 616 AmpliTag Gold.

617 To maximize the capture of mitochondrial DNA from potentially divergent extinct sloth taxa, 618 the 5207 RNA baits previously designed using ancestral sequence reconstruction from a 619 representative sample of xenarthran mitogenomes were used [21]. These baits target the whole 620 mitogenome except the control region that is too repetitive to be reliably assembled with short 621 reads and too variable to be aligned among xenarthrans. The corresponding MYbaits targeted 622 enrichment kits were synthesized by Arbor Biosciences (https://arborbiosci.com/). A first round 623 of enrichment at 50°C was performed, followed by a second round at 55°C using 7.47 µl of 624 indexed library for 36-39 h, following the manufacturer's protocol. Phosphate-group end-blocked 625 oligonucleotides matching one strand of the regions flanking the 7 bp indexes of the library 626 adapters were included. A quantity of 25 ng of baits per reaction was used as it has been shown 627 to be sufficient for very sensitive capture of a small target region [57]. Following hybridization, 628 the reaction was cleaned according to the suggested protocol except that we used 200 µl rather 629 than 500 µl volumes of wash buffers for each wash step, to accommodate a 96-well plate-630 format. Hot washes were performed at 50-55°C. The enriched library was eluted and then 631 purified with MinElute to 15 µI EBT, which we then re-amplified according to the protocol above 632 and again purified this time to 10 µI EBT. For Megatherium americanum MAPB4R 3965,

enrichment was carried out using the optimized protocol outlined in Karpinski et al. [58] using 5
µl of purified indexed library and 100 ng of bait set.

The enriched libraries were size-selected for fragment between 150 bp to 600 bp, pooled, and sequenced at McMaster Genomics Facility on the Illumina HiSeq 1500 system using the TruSeq Rapid (v1) chemistry with initial hybridization on the cBot. Each lane included a 1% spike-in of Illumina's PhiX v3 control library. Paired-end reads of either 2 x 90 bp (*Megatherium americanum* libraries) or 2 x 110 bp (all other libraries) were generated, along with dual 7 bp indexing on both runs.

#### 641 Mitogenome assembly and annotation

642 Adapter and index tag sequences were trimmed from raw sequence reads using CutAdapt 643 v1.16 [59]. Trimmed reads were then imported into Geneious Prime [60]. For each sample, 644 reads were mapped against the *Homo sapiens* reference mitogenome sequence (NC 012920) 645 using the "Low Sensitivity / Fastest" mapping strategy of Geneious Prime. Matching reads were 646 excluded as human contamination and de novo assembly of the remaining reads was then 647 performed using the metagenomic assembler MEGAHIT v1.1.1 [61]. Mitochondrial contigs were 648 then identified by mapping MEGAHIT contigs of each sample against its closest reference 649 xenarthran genome using the "High Sensitivity / Medium" mapping option of Geneious Prime. In 650 the five cases for which multiple contigs were identified, draft partial mitogenomes were created 651 by filling regions that lacked any coverage with question marks. Iterative mapping of 652 deduplicated reads was then conducted using the "Low Sensitivity / Fastest" mapping strategy 653 of Geneious Prime until there were no further improvements in extending coverage into the gap 654 regions of the consensus sequence. The resulting partial mitogenomes were scanned by eye to 655 check for the inclusion of any conflicting reads that might represent contaminants. The final 656 partial mitogenomes were annotated by manually reporting annotations after pairwise alignment

with their closest xenarthran reference mitogenome using MAFFT v7.388 G-INSI [62] within
Geneious Prime. The depth of coverage was estimated by remapping deduplicated reads to
each partial mitogenome using the "Low Sensitivity / Fastest" mapping strategy of Geneious
Prime.

#### 661 **DNA damage analyses**

To check the authenticity of our newly obtained mitogenomes, we examined the patterns of DNA damage caused by post-mortem mutations using mapDamage v2.0.8 **[63]**. We screened our sequenced libraries for the presence of an excess of C-T and G-A transitions by mapping non-duplicated reads against their corresponding reconstructed consensus mitogenomes.

#### 666 Mitogenomic dataset construction

667 We selected available mitogenomes for 25 living xenarthran species that are representative of 668 the xenarthran diversity. We then added previously obtained mitogenomes from the extinct 669 glyptodont (Doedicurus sp.) and extinct Darwin's ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii), as well as our 670 10 newly generated mitogenome sequences, and three afrotherian outgroup taxa. A careful 671 comparison between our nearly complete Nothrotheriops shastensis mitogenome obtained from 672 a paleofecal sample from Rampart Cave in Arizona and that of a partial mitogenome (9364 bp) 673 from Gypsum Cave in Nevada produced by Slater et al. [20] revealed a number of discrepancies 674 resulting in only 7183 identical sites between the two sequences. As most of these differences 675 are likely the result of sequencing or assembly errors in the Slater et al. [20]'s Nothrotheriops 676 sequence, as previously shown also for Mylodon darwinii [15], we have used our more complete 677 and accurate sequences for these two taxa. All mitochondrial genes except the mitochondrial 678 control region, which has not been sequenced for most of the extinct taxa, were extracted from 679 the mitogenome annotations. The 24 tRNA and the two rRNA genes were then aligned at the 680 nucleotide level using MAFFT G-INSI within Geneious Prime, and the translation-align option

was used to align the 13 protein-coding genes based on their amino acid sequences. Selection
of unambiguously aligned sites was performed on each individual gene data set with Gblocks
v0.91b [64] using default relaxed settings and the codon option for protein-coding genes. The
final concatenation contained 15,157 unambiguously aligned nucleotide sites for 40 taxa.

#### 685 Phylogenetic reconstructions

686 The best-fitting partition schemes and associated optimal models of sequence evolution were 687 determined using both PartitionFinder v2.1.1 [65] and ModelFinder [66]. In both cases, the 688 greedy algorithm was used starting from 42 a priori defined partitions corresponding to the three 689 codon positions of the 13 protein-coding genes ( $3 \times 13 = 39$  partitions), the 12S (1) and 16S 690 rRNAs (1), and all 24 concatenated tRNAs (1). Branch lengths have been unlinked and the 691 Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) was used for selecting the best-fitting partition scheme in 692 all cases (Tables S1-S3). Maximum Likelihood reconstructions were conducted under the best-693 fitting partitioned models with both RAxML v8.1.22 [67] and IQ-TREE v1.6.6 [68] linking 694 branches across the best-fitting partitions. Maximum Likelihood bootstrap values (BP<sub>RAXML</sub> and 695 BP<sub>IQ-TREE</sub>) were computed by repeating the same ML heuristic search on 100 nonparametric 696 bootstrap pseudo-replicates.

697 Bayesian phylogenetic inference under the best-fitting partition model was conducted using 698 MrBayes v3.2.6 [69] with model parameters unlinked across partitions. Two independent runs of 699 four incrementally heated Metropolis Coupling Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMCMC) starting 700 from a random tree were performed. MCMCMC were run for 10,000,000 generations with trees 701 and associated model parameters sampled every 1000 generations. The initial 2500 trees of 702 each run were discarded as burn-in samples after convergence check as determined by 703 monitoring the average standard deviation of split frequencies (ASDSF) between the two runs 704 (ASDSF < 0.05) and effective sample size (ESS > 100) and potential scale reduction factor

(1.00 < PSRF < 1.02) values of the different parameters. The 50% majority-rule Bayesian</li>
 consensus tree and associated clade posterior probabilities (PP<sub>MrBayes</sub>) were then computed
 from the 15,000 combined trees sampled in the two independent runs.

708 Bayesian phylogenetic reconstruction was also conducted under the CAT-GTR+G4 mixture 709 model using PhyloBayes MPI v1.7b [70]. Two independent Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) 710 starting from a random tree were run for 18,000 cycles with trees and associated model 711 parameters sampled every cycle. The initial 1800 trees (10%) sampled in each MCMC run were 712 discarded as the burn-in after convergence checking by monitoring the ASDSF between the two 713 independent runs (<0.05) and the effective sample sizes (ESS > 1000) of the different 714 parameter values using PhyloBayes diagnostic tools *bpcomp* and *tracecomp*, respectively. The 715 50% majority-rule Bayesian consensus tree and the associated posterior probabilities 716 (PP<sub>PhyloBayes</sub>) was then computed using *bpcomp* from the remaining combined 32,400 (2 x 717 16,200) trees.

#### 718 Molecular dating

719 Dating analyses were conducted using PhyloBayes v4.1c [71] under the site-heterogeneous 720 CAT-GTR+G4 mixture model [72] and a relaxed clock model with a birth-death prior on 721 divergence times [73] combined with soft fossil calibrations [74]. As calibration priors, we used 722 five node intervals as determined from the fossil record following Gibb et al. [75]: 1) 723 Paenungulata (maximum age 71.2 Mya, minimum age 55.6 Ma); 2) Xenarthra (maximum age 724 71.2 Mya, minimum age 58.5 Mya); 3) Pilosa (maximum age 65.5 Mya, minimum age 31.5 725 Mya); 4) Vermilingua (maximum age 61.1 Mya, minimum age 15.97 Ma); and 5) Tolypeutinae 726 (maximum age 37.8 Mya, minimum age 23.0 Mya). The ancestral Folivora node was left 727 unconstrained. The prior on the root of the tree (Placentalia) was set at 100 Mya according to

Meredith et al. [30]. The topology was fixed to the tree previously inferred in the RAxML, IQ TREE, and MrBayes analyses under the best fitting partition model.

730 Selection of the best-fitting clock model was performed using the cross-validation procedure 731 as implemented in PhyloBayes. The autocorrelated lognormal model (LN; [76], the uncorrelated 732 gamma (UGAM) relaxed clock model [77], and a strict molecular clock (CL) model were 733 compared. The cross-validation tests were performed by dividing the original alignment in a 734 learning set of 13,642 sites and a test set of 1515 sites. The overall procedure was randomly 735 replicated 10 times for which a MCMC chain was run on the learning set for a total 1100 cycles 736 sampling posterior rates and dates every cycle. The first 100 samples of each MCMC were 737 excluded as the burn-in period for calculating the cross-validation scores averaged across the 738 10 replicates in order to determine the number of time a given model fits the data better than the 739 reference model. Cross-validation tests indicated that both the autocorrelated lognormal (LN) 740 and the uncorrelated gamma (UGAM) models offered a much better fit to our mitogenomic 741 dataset than a strict molecular clock (CL) model (LN vs. CL: 32.5 ± 7.0; UGAM vs. CL: 29.3 ± 742 6.9). Between the two relaxed clock models, LN was the best fitting model (LN vs. UGAM:  $3.2 \pm$ 743 2.8).

744 The final dating calculations were conducted using PhyloBayes under the best-fitting CAT-745 GTR+G mixture model and an autocorrelated lognormal relaxed clock with a birth-death prior 746 on divergence times combined with soft fossil calibrations. We run two independent MCMC 747 chains for a total 50,000 cycles sampling parameters every 10 cycles. The first 500 samples 748 (10%) of each MCMC were excluded as the burn-in after convergence diagnostics based on 749 ESS of parameters using *tracecomp*. Posterior estimates of divergence dates were then 750 computed from the remaining 4500 samples of each MCMC using the *readdiv* subprogram. 751 Posterior density plots of mean divergence times were then computed by using the R packages

ape v5.0 [78] to extract mean dates from sampled chronograms and ggridges v0.5.1 [79] to plot
the overlapping distributions.

754

#### 755 Ancestral reconstructions of dental characters

756 Maximum likelihood reconstruction of sloth phylogeny was performed on the morphological 757 matrix of Varela et al. [12] using RAxML under the MK+GAMMA model with: 1) the same 758 topological constraint that the original authors used in their Bayesian reconstructions, and 2) the 759 molecular topology used as a backbone constraint. Maximum likelihood estimation of ancestral 760 character states was then conducted for six dental characters using Mesquite v3.6 [80] using 761 the Mk model on the two ML topologies previously obtained with RAxML. A similar investigation 762 was realized using maximum parsimony for the tree search with the same matrix and 763 constraints using PAUP\* v4.0b10 [81] and for the estimation of ancestral character states using 764 Mesquite. The six dental characters from Varela et al. [12] are: #6, diastema ([0] absent or 765 rudimentary; [1] elongate); #13, size of Cf ([0] smallest tooth; [1] greatly enlarged; [2] neither the 766 smallest nor enlarged); #14, size of cf ([0] smallest tooth; [1] greatly enlarged; [2] neither the 767 smallest nor enlarged); #19, morphology of Cf/cf ([0] molariform; [2] caniniform; [3] incisiform); 768 #21, position of Cf relative to the anterior edge of the maxilla ([0] right at the edge; [1] near the 769 edge; [2] well-separated from the anterior edge); #23, fossa on palatal surface of maxilla 770 posterior to Cf ([0] absent; [1] present).

High-resolution microtomography (microCT) of the skulls of a two-fingered sloth (*Choloepus didactylus* UM 789N; Université de Montpellier, France) and a three-fingered sloth (*Bradypus tridactylus* MZS 03557; Musée Zoologique de Strasbourg, France) was performed at the
Montpellier Rio Imaging (MRI) platform using a Microtomograph RX EasyTom 150 with X-ray

source 40-150 kV. The 3D reconstructions of the skulls were performed with Avizo 9.4.0
(Visualization Sciences Group).

777

## 778 DATA AND SOFTWARE AVAILABILITY

Annotated mitogenomes have been deposited in GenBank (Accession Numbers MK903494-

780 MK903503) and the corresponding raw Illumina reads in the European Nucleotide Archive

781 (PRJEB32380). Additional data, including capture bait sequences, alignments, and trees can be

retrieved from zenodo.org (DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.2658746).

783

## 784 **REFERENCES**

Woodburne, M.O. (2010). The Great American Biotic Interchange: Dispersals,
 Tectonics, Climate, Sea Level and Holding Pens. J. Mamm. Evol. *17*, 245–264.

787 2. Martin, P.S., and Klein, R.G. (1989). Quaternary Extinctions: A Prehistoric
788 Revolution (University of Arizona Press).

3. White, J., and MacPhee, R. (2001). The sloths of the West Indies: A systematic
and phylogenetic review. In Biogeography of the West Indies, C. Woods and F. Sergile,
eds. (CRC Press), pp. 201–235.

Steadman, D.W., Martin, P.S., MacPhee, R.D.E., Jull, A.J.T., McDonald, H.G.,
 Woods, C.A., Iturralde-Vinent, M., and Hodgins, G.W.L. (2005). Asynchronous extinction
 of late Quaternary sloths on continents and islands. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *102*, 11763–
 11768.

7965.MacPhee, R.D.E., Iturralde-Vinent, M.A., and Gaffney, E.S. (2003). Domo de797Zaza, an Early Miocene vertebrate locality in South-Central Cuba, with notes on the

tectonic evolution of Puerto Rico and the Mona passage. Am. Mus. Novit. *3394*, 1–42.

MacPhee, R.D.E., and Iturralde-Vinent, M.A. (1995). Origin of the Greater
Antillean land mammal fauna, 1: New Tertiary fossils from Cuba and Puerto Rico. Am.
Mus. Novit. *3141*, 1–32.

Vélez-Juarbe, J., Martin, T., Macphee, R.D.E., and Ortega-Ariza, D. (2014). The
earliest Caribbean rodents: Oligocene caviomorphs from Puerto Rico. J. Vertebr.
Paleontol. *34*, 157–163.

805 8. Gaudin, T.J. (2004). Phylogenetic relationships among sloths (Mammalia,
806 Xenarthra, Tardigrada): the craniodental evidence. Zool. J. Linn. Soc. *140*, 255–305.

9. Pujos, F., Gaudin, T.J., De Iuliis, G., and Cartelle, C. (2012). Recent advances on
variability, morpho-functional adaptations, dental terminology, and evolution of sloths.
J. Mamm. Evol. *19*, 159–169.

10. Gaudin, T.J. (1995). The ear region of edentates and the phylogeny of the
Tardigrada (Mammalia, Xenarthra). J. Vertebr. Paleontol. *15*, 672–705.

Amson, E., Muizon, C., and Gaudin, T.J. (2017). A reappraisal of the phylogeny
of the Megatheria (Mammalia: Tardigrada), with an emphasis on the relationships of the
Thalassocninae, the marine sloths. Zool. J. Linn. Soc. *179*, 217–236.

Varela, L., Tambusso, P.S., McDonald, H.G., and Fariña, R.A. (2019). Phylogeny,
macroevolutionary trends and historical biogeography of sloths: insights from a
Bayesian morphological clock analysis. Syst. Biol. *68*, 204–218.

Pujos, F., De Iuliis, G., and Cartelle, C. (2017). A paleogeographic overview of
tropical fossil sloths: Towards an understanding of the origin of extant suspensory
sloths? J. Mamm. Evol. *24*, 19–38.

14. Höss, M., Dilling, A., Currant, A., and Pääbo, S. (1996). Molecular phylogeny of
the extinct ground sloth Mylodon darwinii. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. *93*, 181–185.

15. Delsuc, F., Kuch, M., Gibb, G.C., Hughes, J., Szpak, P., Southon, J., Enk, J.,
Duggan, A.T., and Poinar, H.N. (2018). Resolving the phylogenetic position of Darwin's
extinct ground sloth (Mylodon darwinii) using mitogenomic and nuclear exon data. Proc.
Biol. Sci. *285*.

Poinar, H.N., Hofreiter, M., Spaulding, W.G., Martin, P.S., Stankiewicz, B.A.,
Bland, H., Evershed, R.P., Possnert, G., and Pääbo, S. (1998). Molecular coproscopy:
dung and diet of the extinct ground sloth Nothrotheriops shastensis. Science *281*, 402–
406.

17. Hofreiter, M., Poinar, H.N., Spaulding, W.G., Bauer, K., Martin, P.S., Possnert, G.,
and Pääbo, S. (2000). A molecular analysis of ground sloth diet through the last
glaciation. Mol. Ecol. *9*, 1975–1984.

834 18. Greenwood, A.D., Castresana, J., Feldmaier-Fuchs, G., and Pääbo, S. (2001). A
835 molecular phylogeny of two extinct sloths. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. *18*, 94–103.

Poinar, H., Kuch, M., McDonald, G., Martin, P., and Pääbo, S. (2003). Nuclear
gene sequences from a late Pleistocene sloth coprolite. Curr. Biol. *13*, 1150–1152.

Slater, G.J., Cui, P., Forasiepi, A.M., Lenz, D., Tsangaras, K., Voirin, B., de
Moraes-Barros, N., MacPhee, R.D.E., and Greenwood, A.D. (2016). Evolutionary
relationships among extinct and extant sloths: the evidence of mitogenomes and
retroviruses. Genome Biol. Evol. *8*, 607–621.

21. Delsuc, F., Gibb, G.C., Kuch, M., Billet, G., Hautier, L., Southon, J., Rouillard, J.M., Fernicola, J.C., Vizcaíno, S.F., MacPhee, R.D., *et al.* (2016). The phylogenetic
affinities of the extinct glyptodonts. Curr. Biol. *26*, R155–R156.

845 22. Martínez, J.G., Aschero, C.A., Powell, J.E., and Rodríguez, M.F. (2004). First
846 evidence of extinct megafauna in the Southern Argentinian puna. Curr. Res. Pleistocene
847 *21*, 104–107.

848 23. Martínez, J.G. (2014). Contributions to the knowledge of natural history and

archaeology of hunter-gatherers of Antofagasta de la Sierra (southern Argentinian
puna): the case of Peñas de las Trampas 1.1. In Hunter-gatherers from a high-altitude
desert. People of the Salt Puna (northwest Argentina). BAR International Series. Oxford:
Archaeopress, E. L. Pintar, ed., pp. 71–93.

Ruiz-García, M., Chacón, D., Plese, T., Schuler, I., and Shostell, J.M. (2018).
Mitogenomics phylogenetic relationships of the current sloth's genera and species
(Bradypodidae and Megalonychidae). Mitochondrial DNA Part A *29*, 281–299.

856 25. Rohland, N., Harney, E., Swapan, M., Nordenfelt, S., and Reich, D. (2015).

Partial uracil–DNA–glycosylase treatment for screening of ancient DNA. Philos. Trans. R.
Soc. B Biol. Sci. *370*, 20130624.

26. Li, G., Davis, B.W., Eizirik, E., and Murphy, W.J. (2016). Phylogenomic evidence
for ancient hybridization in the genomes of living cats (Felidae). Genome Res. *26*, 1–11.

Kumar, V., Lammers, F., Bidon, T., Pfenninger, M., Kolter, L., Nilsson, M.A., and
Janke, A. (2017). The evolutionary history of bears is characterized by gene flow across
species. Sci. Rep. *7*, 46487.

Presslee, S., Slater, G., Pujos, F., Forasiepi, A.M., Fischer, R., Molloy, K., Mackie,
M., Olsen, J.V., Kramarz, A., Taglioretti, M., *et al.* (2019). Collagen proteomics provides
novel insights into relationships of tree sloths and their extinct relatives. Nat. Ecol. Evol. *In press*.

Pujos, F., De Iuliis, G., Argot, C., and Werdelin, L. (2007). A peculiar climbing
Megalonychidae from the Pleistocene of Peru and its implication for sloth history. Zool.
J. Linn. Soc. *149*, 179–235.

30. Meredith, R.W., Janečka, J.E., Gatesy, J., Ryder, O.A., Fisher, C.A., Teeling, E.C.,
Goodbla, A., Eizirik, E., Simão, T.L.L., Stadler, T., *et al.* (2011). Impacts of the
Cretaceous terrestrial revolution and KPg extinction on mammal diversification. Science *334*, 521–524.

- 875 31. Springer, M.S., Meredith, R.W., Teeling, E.C., and Murphy, W.J. (2013).
- Technical Comment on "The Placental Mammal Ancestor and the Post–K-Pg Radiation of
  Placentals." Science *341*, 613–613.
- B78 32. Hautier, L., Gomes Rodrigues, H., Billet, G., and Asher, R.J. (2016). The hidden
  teeth of sloths: evolutionary vestiges and the development of a simplified dentition. Sci.
  Rep. *6*, 27763.
- 33. McKenna, M.C., Wyss, A.R., and Flynn, J.J. (2006). Paleogene pseudoglyptodont
  xenarthrans from Central Chile and Argentine Patagonia. Am. Mus. Novit., 1–18.
- 883 34. McKenna, M.C., and Bell, S.K. (1997). Classification of mammals: above the 884 species level (Columbia University Press).
- 885 35. Guth, C. (1961). La région temporale des Edentés.
- 886 36. Patterson, B., and Pascual, R. (1968). The fossil mammal fauna of South
  887 America. Q. Rev. Biol. *43*, 409–451.
- Webb, S.D. (1985). The interrelationships of tree sloths and ground sloths. In
  The evolution and ecology of armadillos, sloths, and vermilinguas, pp. 105–112.
- 890 38. Colwyn, D.A., and Hren, M.T. (2019). An abrupt decrease in Southern
- Hemisphere terrestrial temperature during the Eocene–Oligocene transition. Earth
  Planet. Sci. Lett. *512*, 227–235.
- 39. Dunn, R.E., Strömberg, C.A.E., Madden, R.H., Kohn, M.J., and Carlini, A.A.
  (2015). Linked canopy, climate, and faunal change in the Cenozoic of Patagonia.
  Science *347*, 258–261.
- McDonald, H.G., and De Iuliis, G. (2008). Fossil history of sloths. In The biology
  of the Xenarthra, S. F. Vizcaíno and W. J. Loughry, eds. (University Press of Florida),
  pp. 39–55.
- 899 41. Iturralde-Vinent, M., and MacPhee, R.D. (1999). Paleogeography of the

Caribbean region: implications for Cenozoic biogeography. Bull. Am. Mus. Nat. Hist. *238*, 1–95.

MacPhee, R.D.E., and Iturralde-Vinent, M.A. (1994). First Tertiary land mammal
from Greater Antilles: an Early Miocene sloth (Xenarthra, Megalonychidae) from Cuba.
Am. Mus. Novit., 13.

905 43. Brace, S., Thomas, J.A., Dalén, L., Burger, J., MacPhee, R.D.E., Barnes, I., and
906 Turvey, S.T. (2016). Evolutionary history of the Nesophontidae, the last unplaced recent
907 mammal family. Mol. Biol. Evol. *33*, 3095–3103.

908 44. Springer, M.S., Murphy, W.J., and Roca, A.L. (2018). Appropriate fossil
909 calibrations and tree constraints uphold the Mesozoic divergence of solenodons from
910 other extant mammals. Mol. Phylogenet. Evol. *121*, 158–165.

911 45. Fabre, P.-H., Vilstrup, J.T., Raghavan, M., Der Sarkissian, C., Willerslev, E.,
912 Douzery, E.J.P., and Orlando, L. (2014). Rodents of the Caribbean: origin and
913 diversification of hutias unravelled by next-generation museomics. Biol. Lett. *10*,
914 20140266.

915 46. Brace, S., Turvey, S.T., Weksler, M., Hoogland, M.L.P., and Barnes, I. (2015).
916 Unexpected evolutionary diversity in a recently extinct Caribbean mammal radiation.
917 Proc. R. Soc. B Biol. Sci. *282*, 20142371.

47. Woods, R., Turvey, S.T., Brace, S., MacPhee, R.D.E., and Barnes, I. (2018).
Ancient DNA of the extinct Jamaican monkey Xenothrix reveals extreme insular change
within a morphologically conservative radiation. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., 201808603.

48. Alonso, R., Crawford, A.J., and Bermingham, E. (2012). Molecular phylogeny of
an endemic radiation of Cuban toads (Bufonidae: Peltophryne) based on mitochondrial
and nuclear genes: Origin and diversification of Cuban toads. J. Biogeogr. *39*, 434–451.

924 49. Crews, S.C., and Gillespie, R.G. (2010). Molecular systematics of Selenops
925 spiders (Araneae: Selenopidae) from North and Central America: implications for

926 Caribbean biogeography. Biol. J. Linn. Soc. *101*, 288–322.

927 50. Chamberland, L., McHugh, A., Kechejian, S., Binford, G.J., Bond, J.E.,

928 Coddington, J., Dolman, G., Hamilton, C.A., Harvey, M.S., Kuntner, M., et al. (2018).

929 From Gondwana to GAARlandia: Evolutionary history and biogeography of ogre-faced

930 spiders (Deinopis). J. Biogeogr. *45*, 2442–2457.

51. Tong, Y., Binford, G., Rheims, C.A., Kuntner, M., Liu, J., and Agnarsson, I.
(2019). Huntsmen of the Caribbean: Multiple tests of the GAARlandia hypothesis. Mol.
Phylogenet. Evol. *130*, 259–268.

934 52. Pant, S.R., Goswami, A., and Finarelli, J.A. (2014). Complex body size trends in
935 the evolution of sloths (Xenarthra: Pilosa). BMC Evol. Biol. *14*. Available at:
936 http://bmcevolbiol.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/s12862-014-0184-1 [Accessed
937 October 10, 2018].

53. Toledo, N., Bargo, M.S., Vizcaíno, S.F., De Iuliis, G., and Pujos, F. (2017).
Evolution of body size in anteaters and sloths (Xenarthra, Pilosa): phylogeny,
metabolism, diet and substrate preferences. Earth Environ. Sci. Trans. R. Soc. Edinb. *106*, 289–301.

942 54. Glocke, I., and Meyer, M. (2017). Extending the spectrum of DNA sequences
943 retrieved from ancient bones and teeth. Genome Res. *27*, 1230–1237.

Meyer, M., and Kircher, M. (2010). Illumina sequencing library preparation for
highly multiplexed target capture and sequencing. Cold Spring Harb. Protoc. *2010*,
pdb.prot5448.

56. Kircher, M., Sawyer, S., and Meyer, M. (2012). Double indexing overcomes
inaccuracies in multiplex sequencing on the Illumina platform. Nucleic Acids Res. *40*, e3.

57. Enk, J., Rouillard, J.-M., and Poinar, H. (2013). Quantitative PCR as a predictor of
aligned ancient DNA read counts following targeted enrichment. BioTechniques *55*,
300–309.

58. Karpinski, E., Mead, J.I., and Poinar, H.N. (2017). Molecular identification of
paleofeces from Bechan Cave, southeastern Utah, USA. Quat. Int. *443*, 140–146.

954 59. Martin, M. (2011). Cutadapt removes adapter sequences from high-throughput
955 sequencing reads. EMBnet.journal *17*, 10–12.

60. Kearse, M., Moir, R., Wilson, A., Stones-Havas, S., Cheung, M., Sturrock, S.,
Buxton, S., Cooper, A., Markowitz, S., Duran, C., *et al.* (2012). Geneious Basic: An
integrated and extendable desktop software platform for the organization and analysis
of sequence data. Bioinformatics *28*, 1647–1649.

61. Li, D., Luo, R., Liu, C.-M., Leung, C.-M., Ting, H.-F., Sadakane, K., Yamashita, H.,
and Lam, T.-W. (2016). MEGAHIT v1.0: A fast and scalable metagenome assembler
driven by advanced methodologies and community practices. Methods San Diego Calif *102*, 3–11.

62. Katoh, K., Kuma, K., Toh, H., and Miyata, T. (2005). MAFFT version 5:
improvement in accuracy of multiple sequence alignment. Nucleic Acids Res. *33*, 511–
518.

967 63. Jónsson, H., Ginolhac, A., Schubert, M., Johnson, P.L.F., and Orlando, L. (2013).
968 mapDamage2.0: fast approximate Bayesian estimates of ancient DNA damage
969 parameters. Bioinformatics *29*, 1682–1684.

64. Castresana, J. (2000). Selection of conserved blocks from multiple alignments for
their use in phylogenetic analysis. Mol. Biol. Evol. *17*, 540–552.

972 65. Lanfear, R., Frandsen, P.B., Wright, A.M., Senfeld, T., and Calcott, B. (2017).

973 PartitionFinder 2: new methods for selecting partitioned models of evolution for

molecular and morphological phylogenetic analyses. Mol. Biol. Evol. *34*, 772–773.

66. Kalyaanamoorthy, S., Minh, B.Q., Wong, T.K., von Haeseler, A., and Jermiin, L.S.
(2017). ModelFinder: fast model selection for accurate phylogenetic estimates. Nat.

977 Methods *14*, 587.

978 67. Stamatakis, A. (2014). RAxML version 8: a tool for phylogenetic analysis and 979 post-analysis of large phylogenies. Bioinformatics *30*, 1312–1313.

980 68. Nguyen, L.-T., Schmidt, H.A., von Haeseler, A., and Minh, B.Q. (2015). IQ-TREE:
981 a fast and effective stochastic algorithm for estimating maximum-likelihood phylogenies.
982 Mol. Biol. Evol. *32*, 268–274.

83 69. Ronquist, F., Teslenko, M., van der Mark, P., Ayres, D.L., Darling, A., Höhna, S.,
84 Larget, B., Liu, L., Suchard, M.A., and Huelsenbeck, J.P. (2012). MrBayes 3.2: Efficient
85 Bayesian phylogenetic inference and model choice across a large model space. Syst.
86 Biol. *61*, 539–542.

70. Lartillot, N., Rodrigue, N., Stubbs, D., and Richer, J. (2013). PhyloBayes MPI:
phylogenetic reconstruction with infinite mixtures of profiles in a parallel environment.
Syst. Biol. *62*, 611–615.

Partillot, N., Lepage, T., and Blanquart, S. (2009). PhyloBayes 3: a Bayesian
software package for phylogenetic reconstruction and molecular dating. Bioinformatics
25, 2286–2288.

P3 72. Lartillot, N., and Philippe, H. (2004). A Bayesian mixture model for across-site
heterogeneities in the amino-acid replacement process. Mol. Biol. Evol. *21*, 1095–1109.

995 73. Gernhard, T. (2008). The conditioned reconstructed process. J. Theor. Biol. *253*,
996 769–778.

74. Rannala, B., and Yang, Z. (2007). Inferring speciation times under an episodic
molecular clock. Syst. Biol. *56*, 453–466.

999 75. Gibb, G.C., Condamine, F.L., Kuch, M., Enk, J., Moraes-Barros, N., Superina, M.,
1000 Poinar, H.N., and Delsuc, F. (2016). Shotgun mitogenomics provides a reference
1001 phylogenetic framework and timescale for living xenarthrans. Mol. Biol. Evol. *33*, 621–
1002 642.

1003 76. Thorne, J.L., Kishino, H., and Painter, I.S. (1998). Estimating the rate of

1004 evolution of the rate of molecular evolution. Mol. Biol. Evol. 15, 1647–1657.

1005 77. Drummond, A.J., Ho, S.Y.W., Phillips, M.J., and Rambaut, A. (2006). Relaxed 1006 phylogenetics and dating with confidence. PLoS Biol. *4*, e88.

1007 78. Paradis, E., and Schliep, K. (2019). ape 5.0: an environment for modern

1008 phylogenetics and evolutionary analyses in R. Bioinformatics *35*, 526–528.

1009 79. Wilke, C.O. (2017). Ggridges: Ridgeline plots in'ggplot2'. R Package Version 04.

1010 80. Maddison, W., and Maddison, D. (2001). Mesquite: a modular system for 1011 evolutionary analysis.

1012 81. Swofford, D.L. (2001). PAUP\*: Phylogenetic analysis using parsimony (and other1013 methods) 4.0. B5.

Species	Common name	Family	Sample type	Radiocarbon 14C age BP	Museum	Specimen voucher	Library	Origin	Mean read length (bp)	Mean coverage	MEGAHIT mito Contigs
Mylodon darwinii	Darwin's ground sloth	Mylodontidae	HP1502 Skin with osteoderms	13,360 ± 40	Muséum National d'Histoire Naturelle (Paris, France)	MNHN 1905-4	Lib_16	Mylodon Cave (Última Esperanza, Chile)	44.5	567X	5
Mylodon darwinii	Darwin's ground sloth	Mylodontidae	HP1554 Bone	12,880 ± 35	Natural History Museum (London, UK)	NHMUK PV M8758	Lib_67	Mylodon Cave (Última Esperanza, Chile)	54.3	465X	1
Megalonyx jeffersonii	Jefferson's ground sloth	Megalonychidae	HP1652 Bone	45,800 ± 2000	Academy of Natural Sciences of Drexel University (Philadelphia, PA, USA)	PMA P98.6.28	Lib_69	Big Bone Cave (TN, USA)	56.2	271X	1
Nothrotheriops shastensis	Shasta ground sloth	Nothrotheriidae	HP1904 Paleofeces	28,460 ± 320	The Desert Lab, Arizona State University (Tempe, AZ, USA)	RC L12 #1	Lib_X32	Rampart cave (AZ, USA)	88.4	402X	1
Megatherium americanum	Giant ground sloth	Megatheriidae	HP3613 Rib bone	19,050 ± 80	Museo de la Asociación Paleontológica (Bariloche, Argentina)	MAPB4R 3965	Lib_1043, Lib_1044, Lib_1045	Los Chaceras (Bariloche, Argentina)	57.5	2277X	4
Megatherium americanum	Giant ground sloth	Megatheriidae	HP2087 Paleofeces	12,920 ± 190 - 12,510 ± 240*	Institute of Archaeology and Museum of the National University of Tucumán (Tucumán, Argentina)	C.2C_Layer 2	Lib_X18	Peñas de las Trampas 1.1 (Catamarca, Argentina)	93.9	192X	1
Megatherium americanum	Giant ground sloth	Megatheriidae	HP2093 Paleofeces	19,610 ± 290*	Institute of Archaeology and Museum of the National University of Tucumán (Tucumán, Argentina)	C.2E_Layer 4_1	Lib_X23	Peñas de las Trampas 1.1 (Catamarca, Argentina)	63.2	108X	7
Megatherium americanum	Giant ground sloth	Megatheriidae	HP2095 Paleofeces	19,610 ± 290*	Institute of Archaeology and Museum of the National University of Tucumán (Tucumán, Argentina)	C.2E_Layer 4_2	Lib_X25	Peñas de las Trampas 1.1 (Catamarca, Argentina)	81.8	335X	1
Acratocnus ye	Hispaniolan ground sloth	Acratocnidae	HP1655 Mandible with molar	10,395 ± 40	Florida Museum of Natural History (Gainesville, FL, USA)	UF 76365	Lib_58	Trouing de la Scierie (Département de l'Ouest, Republic of Haiti)	49.6	135X	10

Parocnus serus	Greater Haitian	Parocnidae	HP1602 Bone	NA	Florida Museum of Natural History	UF 75452	Lib_54	Trouing Marassa (Département de	55.2	66X	17
	ground sloth				(Gainesville, FL, USA)			l'Ouest, Republic of			
								Haiti)			

\* dated by Martínez [23]. NA : not available.





0.2 substitution per site







Current Biology, Volume 29

## **Supplemental Information**

## Ancient Mitogenomes Reveal the Evolutionary

### History and Biogeography of Sloths

Frédéric Delsuc, Melanie Kuch, Gillian C. Gibb, Emil Karpinski, Dirk Hackenberger, Paul Szpak, Jorge G. Martínez, Jim I. Mead, H. Gregory McDonald, Ross D.E. MacPhee, Guillaume Billet, Lionel Hautier, and Hendrik N. Poinar



# Figure S1. Maximum likelihood mitogenomic tree inferred under the best-fitting partitioned model using RAxML. Related to Figure 2. Maximum-likelihood bootstrap percentages are indicating at nodes (100 replicates). Tree is rooted on midpoint. Scale is in mean number of substitutions per site.



# Figure S2. Maximum likelihood mitogenomic tree inferred under the best-fitting partitioned model using IQ-TREE. Related to Figure 2. Maximum-likelihood bootstrap percentages are indicating at nodes (100 replicates). Tree is rooted on midpoint. Scale is in mean number of substitutions per site.



### Figure S3. Bayesian consensus mitogenomic tree inferred under the best-fitting

partitioned model using MrBayes. Related to Figure 2. Clade posterior probabilities (PP) are indicated at nodes. Tree is rooted on midpoint. Scale is in mean number of substitutions per site.



# **Figure S4. Bayesian consensus mitogenomic tree inferred under the CAT-GTR+G**<sub>4</sub> **mixture model using PhyloBayes. Related to Figure 2.** Clade posterior probabilities (PP) are indicated at nodes. Tree is rooted on midpoint. Scale is in mean number of substitutions per

site.



**Figure S5. Bayesian mitogenomic chronogram. Related to Figure 3.** This chronogram was inferred under the CAT-GTR+G<sub>4</sub> mixture model and an autocorrelated lognormal model of clock relaxation using PhyloBayes. Time scale is in million years.

Subset	Best Model	# Sites	Subset Partitions
1	GTR+I+G	7,875	12S, 16S, tRNAs, ND5_p1, CYTB_p1, ATP6_p1, ND1_p1, ND3_p1, ND4L_p1, ND4_p1, ND2_p1, ATP8_p3, ATP8_p2, ATP8_p1, COX1_p1, COX3_p1, COX2_p1, ND6_p1, ND6_p2
2	GTR+I+G	3,554	COX1_p2, COX2_p2, COX3_p2, CYTB_p2, ND1_p2, ATP6_p2, ND4_p2, ND5_p2, ND2_p2, ND4L_p2, ND3_p2
3	GTR+I+G	3,554	CYTB_p3, ND2_p3, ND1_p3, ND5_p3, COX1_p3, ND4_p3, ND3_p3, ND4L_p3, ATP6_p3, COX2_p3, COX3_p3
4	GTR+I+G	174	ND6_p3

\* Settings: A priori partitions (42), Branch lengths (Unlinked), Models (GTR+G, GTR+I+G), Model selection (BIC), Search (Greedy).

 Table S1. Detailed results of the PartitionFinder analysis for RAxML. Related to Figure 2.

Subset	Best Model	# Sites	Subset Partitions
1	GTR+F+I+G4	2,710	12S, 16S, CYTB_p1
2	GTR+F+I+G4	1,218	ATP6_p1, ND1_p1, ND3_p1, ND4L_p1, ND4_p1
3	TVM+F+I+G4	2,552	ATP6_p2, CYTB_p2, ND1_p2, ND2_p2, ND3_p2, ND4L_p2, ND4_p2, ND5_p2
4	TIM3+F+I+G4	968	ATP6_p3, COX1_p3, COX2_p3
5	TN+F+I+G4	198	ATP8_p1, ATP8_p2, ATP8_p3
6	TIM2e+I+G4	513	COX1_p1
7	TPM2+F+I+G4	1,002	COX1_p2, COX2_p2, COX3_p2
8	TIM2e+I+G4	489	COX2_p1, COX3_p1
9	TIM3+F+I+G4	2,586	COX3_p3, CYTB_p3, ND1_p3, ND2_p3, ND3_p3, ND4L_p3, ND4_p3, ND5_p3
10	TVM+F+I+G4	954	ND2_p1, ND5_p1
11	TN+F+I+G4	174	ND6_p1
12	TVM+F+G4	174	ND6_p2
13	TIM2+F+I+G4	174	ND6_p3
14	GTR+F+I+G4	1,445	tRNAs

\* Settings: A priori partitions (42), Branch lengths (Unlinked), Models (All), Model selection (BIC), Search (Greedy).

 Table S2. Detailed results of the ModelFinder analysis for IQ-TREE. Related to Figure 2.

Subset	Best Model	# Sites	Subset Partitions
1	GTR+I+G	7,743	12S, 16S, tRNAs, ATP8_p1, ND2_p1, ATP6_p1, ND3_p1, ND1_p1, ND5_p1, CYTB_p1, ND4L_p1, ND4_p1, COX1_p1, COX2_p1, COX3_p1, ND6_p1, ND6_p2
2	GTR+I+G	3,620	COX1_p2, COX2_p2, ATP8_p2, ND5_p2, ND2_p2, ATP6_p2, ND4_p2, ND3_p2, ND1_p2, COX3_p2, CYTB_p2, ND4L_p2
3	GTR+I+G	3,620	COX3_p3, ND4_p3, ND3_p3, ND4L_p3, CYTB_p3, ND2_p3, ND5_p3, ND1_p3, ATP8_p3, COX2_p3, ATP6_p3, COX1_p3
4	GTR+I+G	174	ND6_p3

\* Settings: A priori partitions (42), Branch lengths (Unlinked), Models (JC, K80, SYM, F81, HKY, GTR, JC+G, K80+G, SYM+G, F81+G, HKY+G, GTR+G, JC+I, K80+I, SYM+I, F81+I, HKY+I, GTR+I, JC+I+G, K80+I+G, SYM+I+G, F81+I+G, HKY+I+G, GTR+I+G), Model selection (BIC), Search (Greedy).

Table S3. Detailed results of the PartitionFinder analysis for MrBayes. Related to Figure2.