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Miocene fossils from the south-eastern Pacific shed light on the last radiation of marine crocodylians

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Miocene fossils from the south-eastern Pacific shed light on the last radiation

2	of marine crocodylians
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The evolution of crocodylians as sea dwellers remains obscure because living representatives are
basically freshwater inhabitants and fossil evidence lacks crucial aspects about crocodylian
occupation of marine ecosystems. New fossils from marine deposits of Peru reveal that
crocodylians were habitual coastal residents of the south-eastern Pacific (SEP) for approximately
14 million years within the Miocene (ca. 19-5 Ma), an epoch including the highest global peak of
marine crocodylian diversity. The assemblage of the SEP comprised two long and slender-
snouted (longirostrine) taxa of the Gavialidae: the giant <i>Piscogavialis</i> and a new early diverging
species, Sacacosuchus cordovai. Although living gavialids (Gavialis and Tomistoma) are
freshwater forms, this remarkable fossil record and a suite of evolutionary morphological
analyses reveal that the whole evolution of marine crocodylians pertained to the gavialids and
their stem relatives (Gavialoidea). This adaptive radiation produced two longirostrine ecomorphs
with dissimilar trophic roles in seawaters and involved multiple transmarine dispersals to South
America and most landmasses. Marine gavialoids were shallow sea dwellers, and their Cenozoic
diversification was influenced by the availability of coastal habitats. Soon after the richness peak
of the Miocene, gavialoid crocodylians disappeared from the sea, probably as part of the marine
megafauna extinction of the Pliocene.

1. Introduction

During the Mesozoic, archaic crocodylomorphs achieved anatomical and physiological
specialisations for a pelagic marine lifestyle as in no other time in the history of Earth [1-4]. In
contrast, extant members of the crown clade (i.e. crocodylians) are mostly semi-aquatic,
freshwater animals and only some species of the genus Crocodylus (e.g. Cr. porosus, Cr. acutus)
regularly wander into coastal, saltwater settings [5-7]. Adaptations to withstand different
salinities (e.g. presence of lingual salt glands or a keratinised buccal cavity), however, occur not
only in Crocodylus, but also in strictly freshwater taxa, such as the Malayan and the Indian
gharials, Gavialis gangeticus (Gmelin, 1789) and Tomistoma schlegelii (Muller, 1838) [8,9],
suggesting that the common ancestor of Longirostres [sensu 10] had a marine ecology [11].
Gavialis, Tomistoma and their fossil kin (crown clade Gavialidae) typically possess long
and slender snouts. Fossils suggest that several extinct gavialids had marine habits since they
have been recovered from contexts depicting a wide range of salinities, including marginal to
fully marine areas (e.g. [12-19]). These fossils are documented from most landmasses and such
broad distribution requires crossing sea barriers to be explained [20-22]. Recent studies
established that the last radiation of crocodylomorphs into marine environments occurred in the
late Cretaceous with little or no marine diversity throughout the Cenozoic [3,4,23,24].
The rich fossil record from the south-eastern Pacific (SEP) in the coastal desert of Peru
has revealed invaluable data about the evolution of marine vertebrates and their ecosystems for
the last 42 million years (e.g. [25-27]). Along with whales, earless seals, penguins, and aquatic
sloths, most of the Neogene localities of the Pisco Formation have yielded well-preserved
remains of crocodylians [26,27], until now represented by one giant gavialid species,
Piscogavialis jugaliperforatus Kraus, 1998 [13].

Here, we present a new gavialid from the same marine deposits of the East Pisco Basin. In contrast to *Piscogavialis*, which is part of a widely diversified clade of gavialids in South America, this second taxon is related to species from other landmasses that were formerly allied to *Tomistoma* within the tomistomines (*sensu* [17]), emphasising the competence of gavialid crocodylians as marine voyagers. New finely preserved fossils of both taxa reveal that this crocodylian assemblage had a prolonged residence along the coasts of the SEP, an area dominated by the nutrient-rich waters of the Humboldt Current System where these cold-blooded animals are now lacking [28]. We investigated the phylogenetic relationships of the new gavialid and the evolutionary and environmental implications of the long-lasting occupation of crocodylians in the SEP. Based on this record and a comprehensive fossil database, we use phylogenetic, biogeographic, richness, and geometric morphometric analyses to characterise the evolution, diversification, and decline of crocodylians in marine environments.

2. Geological context, palaeoenvironment, and age

The Chilcatay and Pisco formations of the East Pisco Basin document long-lasting marine transgressions that affected about 350 km of the SEP (southern Peru) during the Neogene (electronic supplementary material) [26,27,29]. Recent radiometric datings improved the chronological constraints on these deposits in the Ica-Pisco Valleys and the Sacaco area (figure 1a), which as a whole range from the early Miocene (ca. 25 Ma) to the late Pliocene (ca. 2.7 Ma) [30-32]. Fossils of the new gavialid and *Piscogavialis* are documented since ~19 Ma in the Chilcatay Formation and extensively recovered in the late Miocene deposits of the Pisco Formation in both areas (figures 1a,b, S2 and S3). The Peruvian record is particularly rich in the late Miocene-earliest Pliocene strata of the Pisco Formation at Sacaco, with the last crocodylian

remains documented at ca. 4.85 Ma (figure 1a,b) [27]. During this time interval, the Sacaco area
was a shallow marine environment connected to the open ocean and comprising protected
embayments, rocky headlands, and small islands (figure 1b) [26,27]. A similar environment is
depicted for most fossiliferous deposits of the Chilcatay and Pisco formations at the Ica-Pisco
valley [31,32].
3. Systematic Palaeontology
Crocodyliformes Hay, 1930; Crocodylia Gmelin, 1789; Longirostres (Cuvier, 1807) as defined
by [10]; Gavialidae (Adams, 1854)
Sacacosuchus cordovai gen. et sp. nov.
Etymology: Sacaco after the rich fossiliferous area from where most remains were found
cordovai after colleague and professor Jesús Córdova, to honour his brave and unconditional
support to develop palaeontology in Peru.
Holotype: Vertebrate Palaeontology Collection of the Natural History Museum of San
Marcos University (MUSM) 162, nearly complete skull (figure 2a,b,e,f and S4)
Type Locality and Horizon: Sud-Sacaco west (SAS-w; figure 1), Sacaco sub-basin,
northern Arequipa, Peru; Pisco Formation, late Miocene, dated to ca. 6.33 Ma [27].
Referred specimens: MUSM 160, partial skull of a juvenile, Locality SAS-w (figure 2i);
MUSM 161, partial skull of a sub-adult, Locality Montemar north (MTM-n; figure 2c,d,g,h and
S5), late Miocene, ca. 8.0 Ma; MUSM 163, left dentary preserved until the fourteenth dentary
alveolus, Locality Aguada de Lomas (AGL; figure S2), late Miocene, ca. 8.85 Ma; (electronic
supplementary material).

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Diagnosis: Sacacosuchus cordovai is a relatively medium to large, longirostrine gavialid diagnosed by the following unique combination of characters: premaxillae not expanded relative to the maxillae; nasals in contact with the external naris; 14 maxillary teeth; fifth and ninth to twelfth maxillary tooth alveoli enlarged; large, roughly circular orbits; deep splenial symphysis. Differs from all other gavialids by having ventral margins of the orbit low and barrel vault-shaped; postorbital bar lanceolate in cross-section with the external plane facing anterolaterally; rostral process of quadratojugal long along the ventral margin of the infratemporal fenestrae and no dorsal process bordering its posterior margin.

General comparative description: Sacacosuchus cordovai possesses a slender, long, and parallel-sided snout that expands gradually posterolaterally into a robust, triangular orbital and postrostral cranium (figure 2a,c,i). The snout is tubular in cross-section with slightly sinuate margins along the dental series. In lateral view, the snout describes a wide dorsal curvature (figure 2e,g). The rostral length/skull length index is 0.79, similar to that of Gavialis gangeticus (0.76-0.79). However, the rostral width/postorbital width index is 0.22, lower than those of T. schlegelii (0.34), Piscogavialis (0.27) and G. gangeticus (0.25), and equivalent to 'thoracosaurs' (0.22-0.23). The skull table is wide and rectangular in outline, like *Gavialis*, in contrast to the trapezoidal and relatively smaller one of *T. schlegelii*. The supratemporal fenestrae are wider than long and bear sharp, overhanging borders with the skull table, as in *Paratomistoma* and 'Tomistoma' coppensi [14]. The parietal interfenestral bar is relatively slender. The infratemporal fenestrae are roughly triangular, with a gentle curve at the dorsal angle. The choana is relatively large and basically triangular in outline. The dorsally oriented narial opening is elongated and heart-shaped. The occipital plate is vertical and not visible in dorsal view. Although not fully preserved, suborbital fenestrae show an elongated teardrop shape. The skull

bears five and 14 alveoli in the premaxilla and maxilla, respectively. The fifth maxillary alveoli are larger than the fourth and the sixth, but the largest alveoli consist of the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth tooth positions.

The prefrontals, the single frontal, and the postorbitals are not raised along the orbital margins, thus the typical everted orbital margins of most crocodylians are not present in *Sacacosuchus* (character 137-0). The demarcation between the parietal on the skull table and the anterior border of the fenestrae is sharp, with the parietal even overhanging these fenestrae, as in *'Tomistoma' coppensi* and *Paratomistoma* (character 152-3). The squamosal surface of the skull table slopes lateroventrally, as in *Gryposuchus* and *Paratomistoma* (character 156-0), and in contrast to the planar skull table of *T. schlegelii* and *Crocodylus*.

The dentary bears ~17-18 alveoli and the dentary symphysis extends posteriorly up to the level of the ninth-tenth dentary tooth loci (character 49-2), where they meet the wedge-like rostral process of the united splenials, as in *T. schlegelii*. Body length estimation [33] for *Sacacosuchus* type specimen is 432 cm (details in electronic supplementary material).

4. Results and discussion

(a) Two Neogene crocodylians in the south-eastern Pacific

The Lagerstätte fossil record of the East Pisco Basin reveals that two crocodylian taxa had occupied coastal marine environments of the SEP for approximately 14 million years (*ca.* 19 to 5 Ma), an interval that comprises much of the Miocene (figure 1*a*). This record spans the warm phase of the middle Miocene and the following global cooling trend [34]. Warm conditions likely prevailed in the shallow, coastal marine environments of the SEP during the whole interval [27]. Environmental and climatic conditions during the late Miocene were optimal for marine

crocodylians even in Chile, 1600 km south of Sacaco, where *Piscogavialis* bones (SGO-PV-834; RS-G personal observation) have been documented [35].

The crocodylian remains of the East Pisco Basin were recovered in association with a typical marine vertebrate fauna, including whales, earless seals, seabirds, sharks, and bony fishes [26,27]. Remains of *Sacacosuchus* and *Piscogavialis* consist of cranial and postcranial bones in partial or full anatomical connection (figures S2 and S3). The *Sacacosuchus* record includes individuals at various ontogenetic stages (figure 2), suggesting that these crocodylians actually lived, died, and were buried in marine waters. In contrast to the finely preserved marine vertebrate remains [13,27,29], fossils of continental origin in the Pisco Basin are limited to a handful of isolated bones [27].

With an estimated body length of 431 cm, *Sacacosuchus* was a medium-sized crocodylian while *Piscogavialis* was a giant, almost twice as long (~776 cm; see electronic supplementary material). Despite its large size, the latter was probably a specialist in acquiring rapid small targets (e.g. fishes) while *Sacacosuchus* had a more generalized diet (see below). Isolated bones of large individuals (cf. *Piscogavialis*) document the existence of crocodylians up to the youngest vertebrate-bearing deposits, dated at 4.85 Ma (early Pliocene; figure 1a). The sedimentary record was commenced again in Sacaco by *ca.* 2.7 Ma with no more crocodylian remains [27]. Andean tectonics at *ca.* 4.5 Ma [36] and a eustatic drop of sea level in the Pliocene [37] likely contributed to the end of Pisco sedimentation and the disruption of the coastal environments. The extirpation (and extinction) of crocodylians from the SEP thus happened at some point during the Pliocene and was probably caused by the reduction of continental flooding and the establishment of cool waters of the Humboldt current system [27,37,38].

(b) Sacacosuchus and gavialid phylogeny

We conducted tip-dated Bayesian and maximum parsimony analyses of morphological
characters to determine evolutionary relationships of Sacacosuchus cordovai within the
crocodylians (methods in electronic supplementary material). We included in the data matrix the
slender-snouted South American taxon Charactosuchus fieldsi [39]. However, initial analyses
proved that currently known fragments of this taxon are uninformative for establishing its
phylogenetic affinities, thus it was excluded from the following searches. Our tip-dated
approaches retrieved distant relationships between living Gavialis and Tomistoma, as suggested
by other morphological analysis using this method [40]. Instead, our maximum parsimony
analysis with equal weighting recovered close relationships of <i>Tomistoma</i> and <i>Gavialis</i> among
living crocodylians, in line with molecular analyses [10,41,42] and a recent morphological
approach [43]. Morphological 'tomistomines' (sensu [43,44]) are the earliest diverging
gavialoids (sensu [45]), yet low supported. The long and slender-snouted 'thoracosaurs' from the
Cretaceous-early Eocene interval have been usually allied to 'gharials' (sensu [46]) in
morphology-based analyses [47,48]. Here, they are positioned deeply nested within the
Gavialidae, as a clade sister to 'gharials.' However, we identified several plesiomorphic features
in 'thoracosaurs' [43] lacking in 'gharials' and even across Longirostres (see electronic
supplementary material). As their position also provides significant temporal incongruence to the
crown clade Gavialidae [40,43], we constrained searches to force 'thoracosaurs' outside of
Longirostres and set the Palaeocene species Argochampsa krebsi as a floating taxon. This
constraint resulted in a tree insignificantly longer ($p > 0.05$), in which 'thoracosaurs' are
recovered as the sister clade of <i>Borealosuchus</i> + Crocodylia and <i>Argochampsa</i> within

203 Gavialidae. *Eogavialis* from the Eocene of Africa is recovered as the closest relative of *Gavialis*. 204 Subsequent analyses and discussions follow this phylogenetic hypothesis (figure 3a). 205 Sacacosuchus is deeply nested within the Gavialidae, as part of a polytomy (node 90) 206 with some morphological 'tomistomines' (i.e. Gavialosuchus eggenburgensis and 207 Thecachampa), and a large clade leading to advanced gavialids. Node 90 is supported by having 208 a vomer entirely obscured by maxillae and premaxillae (character 100-0), pterygoid surface and 209 choanal margins flushed (character 123-0), and quadrangular, wider than long, supratemporal 210 fenestrae (character 191-1). The divergence of Sacacosuchus occurred after that of T. schlegelii 211 but much earlier than the divergence of any other clade of Neotropical gavialids known so far. 212 Indeed, our analysis supports for independent origins of Sacacosuchus, Aktiogavialis, 213 gryposuchines (sensu [21]), and an Eocene Peruvian form coded for these analyses and currently 214 under study (MUSM 1513; figure 3a). Thus, phylogenetics cluster Sacacosuchus within 215 morphological 'tomistomines' and suggest a complex evolutionary history for Neotropical 216 gavialids. 217 218 (c) Marine crocodylian biogeographic history and diversity 219 Phylogenetic analysis indicates that crocodylians recovered from estuarine or marine 220 depositional settings exclusively pertain to the gavialoid clade (figure 3a; node 96). Although 221 extant Gavialis and Tomistoma species are freshwater forms, marine habits were widely 222 distributed among gavialoids and were probably the ancestral condition of the group [49]. The 223 optimal biogeographic reconstruction provided by a statistical dispersal-vicariance analysis (S-224 DIVA; electronic supplementary material) points to the northern European (D) and Peri-Tethyan 225 coasts (C) as the most likely ancestral ranges for gavialoids (node 96) [18,43]. Standing diversity

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and estimated richness analyses (electronic supplementary material) show that the diversity of marine gavialoids increased from their origination to the early Eocene (figures 3a and 4), when non-crocodylian crocodylomorphs (i.e. dyrosaurids and thoracosaurs) thrived in marine environments [4,47,48,50]. The group soon dispersed to Asia and declined in northern Europe by the late Eocene. Presumed ancestral ranges of the Gavialidae (node 92) might have included the Peri-Tethys and Asia (CF; figure 3a,b), with 100% of marginal probability. Because the Palaeocene Argochampsa is deeply nested within the Gavialidae, a late Cretaceous origin for the clade is suggested, in contrast to the Eocene origination proposed by molecular clock estimates [42]. Other gavialids recovered in our analysis are no older than Eocene. From the Peri-Tethys, gavialids colonised North America (A) and South America (B), the latter movement giving rise to Sacacosuchus cordovai (node 90). Aktiogavialis, gryposuchines, and MUSM 1513 are additional clades from the Americas that might have originated within the Peri-Tethys [20,45]. In the late Eocene, ancestors of gryposuchines and *Eogavialis + Gavialis* (node 80) occupied BC, BF or BCF, each range with equal marginal probability (figure 3a,b). The late Eocene and Oligocene seem to be characterised by low crocodylian standing diversity in marine environments (figure 4a,b) [4,51]. However, the middle and late Miocene witnessed pronounced origination rates (figure \$14b), leading to the largest richness peak of marine forms in the crocodylian history (figures 3a and 4a,b). This richness reflects the extensive adaptive radiation of gavialids in most landmasses, particularly in the Americas and the Peri-Tethys [13,16,20,21]. The East Pisco Basin record of Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis corresponds with this time interval, which is characterised by the Middle Miocene Climatic

Optimum (17 to 15 Ma) and a progressive global cooling with relatively small sea-level fluctuations compared to the Oligocene or Plio-Pleistocene values [34,37,38].

A rapid and sustained global decline of marine gavialids started in the late Miocene and continued until their complete vanishing at the middle or late Pliocene, probably as part of the marine megafauna extinction of that epoch [38]. Non-marine gavialids survived in Asia but declined elsewhere [20]. In general, freshwater crocodylians show a subtle demise at this timelapse but their richness was recovered by the end of the Pliocene, with the diversification of *Crocodylus* (figure 3a).

Ancestrally, gavialoids had marine habits, dispersed across marine barriers, and invaded freshwater environments multiple times in different landmasses (figure 3*a*). The Peri-Tethys might have been the centre for multidirectional marine dispersals of the gavialids, yet timing incongruence on the origin of the clade persists.

(d) What is a marine crocodylian?

The phylogenetic Principal Component Analysis (pPCA; methods in electronic supplementary material) indicates that marine taxa were all longirostrine forms. Disparate morphospace occupations within this rostral shape suggest additionally that two different ecomorphs roamed ancient marine environments (figure 5). Advanced marine gavialoids, such as *Piscogavialis* and *Eogavialis*, had an extremely long rostrum, enlarged teeth restricted to the tip of the snout and an adductor chamber resembling that of the living *Gavialis gangeticus* [52]. These animals performed low-bite-force and fast movements of the jaws and were predators of small and rapid targets [20]. 'Thoracosaurs' might belong to this ecomorph (figure 5). In comparison, morphological 'tomistomines', such as *Thecachampsa*, had a more powerful bite, larger teeth

close to the jaw joints, and their snout was usually less attenuated than in advanced gavialoids, suggesting a diet composed of a wider range of prey sizes [20].

Marine crocodylians were essentially shallow marine inhabitants. These environments have been proposed for several taxa of gavialoids by taphonomic, geologic, and isotopic data [12-19,22,53, electronic supplementary material] and are consistent with their locomotion-related anatomy. Because marine crocodylians show no significant differences in the axial skeleton and the hindlimbs relative to living forms, they are inferred to have swum by using axial undulatory movements and terrestrial-adapted limbs (plesiopedal) [54]. This locomotion pattern is incompatible with breathing during prolonged or fast swimming and thus restricts predation to an explosive ambushing behaviour in shallow waters, as has been proposed for other reptiles during incipient adaptations to a marine lifestyle [54].

If marine crocodylians were limited to shallow marine environments, their diversification and extinction would have been driven by the availability of coastal habitats and might have been extensively disturbed by global sea-level changes. We would also expect that marine crocodylians and open-ocean predators (hydropedal with a stiff trunk: e.g. odontocete cetaceans) responded differently to evolutionary drivers. For example, changes in odontocete communities are documented worldwide and attributed to a mix of physical and biological factors, in which niche scalation and a pelagic lifestyle played distinct roles [23,55]. Instead, sea-level fluctuations with effects on coastal habitats have been identified as a main driver of crocodylomorph diversification in marine environments [3,4,51]. The peaks in origination rates and standing diversity of the Miocene coincide with a period of relatively high and stable sea level, and essentially corresponds to the flourishing of gavialid crocodylians in extensive continental flooding areas across the Peri-Tethys and the SEP [26,27,30,31,56]. By the Pliocene, the rapid

demise of marine crocodylians concurs with lower sea surface temperature, decreasing sea-level [37] and, a drastic reduction of neritic habitats [38].

Bones show no features unique to marine crocodylians. Similar patterns of longirostry and locomotion anatomy are also observed in freshwater taxa [20] (figure 5). However, certain morphologies, such as protruding orbital margins or blunt snouts, would not be found in marine crocodylians because these evolved exclusively associated with an ecology of freshwater environments [46,57]. Intriguingly, the sole living genus with populations in marine areas, *Crocodylus*, does not have a longirostrine condition (figures 3*a* and 5). Dispersal across marine barriers occurred widely within this taxon but most (if not all) of the fossil record from America, Europe, Asia, Oceania, and Africa was recovered from deposits indicating fluvial and lacustrine environments [58,59]. Even fossils of the saltwater crocodile, *Crocodylus porosus*, come from freshwater deposits [60,61] and the late Miocene *Crocodylus checchiai*, the species linking Neotropical and African *Crocodylus*, was recovered from a marginal marine formation in which vertebrates of continental origin prevail [62]. Fossils examined under multiple assessments (taphonomy, stable isotopes, palaeohistology) should provide further insights on the functional roles of ancient and modern marine crocodylians.

5. Conclusions

Sacacosuchus cordovai belongs to the crown clade Gavialidae with ancestors in the Peri-Tethys that migrated to South America crossing marine barriers. This kind of dispersal was multidirectional and characterised the diversification of gavialids in coastal areas, although the timing is still poorly constrained. Extant *Gavialis* and *Tomistoma* are freshwater survivors within a predominantly marine group. The crocodylian marine ecology was restricted to longirostrine

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forms of the gavialoids, in contrast to the variety of clades and rostral shapes that evolved in freshwater ecosystems. Within this longirostrine morphotype, two distinct ecomorphs with dissimilar trophic roles thrived in seawaters. The evolution of Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis in the coastal, flooded areas of the SEP is an exemplar of the adaptive radiation of gavialoids in marine ecosystems. As semi-aquatic predators, gavialoids occupied shallow coastal habitats and got a peak in marine richness during the Miocene, when relatively high and stable sea levels occurred. Soon after, these marine crocodylians suffered a drastic decline, probably triggered by the global loss of shallow marine areas. The demise of the longirostrine, marine crocodylians roughly coincides with the marine megafauna extinction of the Pliocene. **Acknowledgments.** We thank W. Aguirre for the fossil preparation; M. Norell, J. Flynn, D. Kirizian, C. Mehling, and L. Vonnnahme (AMNH), C. de Muizon and S. Bailón (MNHN), E. 'Dino' Frey (SMNK), R.Schoch (SMNS), and R. Hulbert (UF) for access to comparative collections; C. Brochu for providing crocodylian photographs; A. García for taking pictures of T. lusitanica. D. Pol, J., Tejada-Lara, L. Hostos, D. Adams, M. Collyer, and J. Clarke for providing valuable insights. E. Coombs and A. Goswami for performing 3D scans of some Sacacosuchus specimens. Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis (exclusive of the type) specimens are permanently deposited at the Museo de Historia Natural, UNMSM (MUSM), Lima, Peru. Author contributions. R.S.-G. designed the research, wrote the manuscript and performed systematic and morphometric research, with additional writing contributions from all authors. R.S.-G. and S.J. performed anatomical studies. D.O., T.D.V, and P.B. provided geological data and DO performed diversity analyses. P.R. performed tree calibration and biogeographic analyses. All authors contributed to the discussions and interpretation of the results.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Fossil record of <i>Sacacosuchus</i> and <i>Piscogavialis</i> in the Neogene deposits of the Pisco
Basin, southern Peru. (a) Schematic stratigraphic columns of the Chilcatay (yellow) and Pisco
(light blue) formations with crocodylian-bearing localities at the Ica-Pisco Valleys (left; from ca.
20 to 7 Ma) and the Sacaco area (from ca. 9.38 to 4.85 Ma). (b) Location and map of the East
Pisco basin showing the Chilcatay (yellow) and Pisco (blue) deposits within putative continental
flooded areas (in white). Map modified from [31]. AGL, Aguada de Lomas; CCO-n, Cerro
Colorado norte; CCO-s, Cerro Colorado sur; CLQ, Cerro Los Quesos; COM, Comatrana; CVT,
Correviento; ELJ, EL Jahuay; MTM, Montemar; MTM-n, Montemar norte; MTM, Montemar;
SAO-e, Sacaco east; SAS-w, Sud-Sacaco west; SUL, Sula Site; YAU, Yauca; ZAM, Zamaca.
Figure 2. Photograph and schematic drawing of the skulls of <i>Sacacosuchus cordovai</i> gen. et sp.
nov. from Sacaco at different ontogenetic stages. Adult specimen (holotype: MUSM 162) in
dorsal (a), ventral (b), right lateral (e), and occipital (f) views. Sub-adult specimen (MUSM 161)
in dorsal (c), ventral (d), left lateral (g; inverted), and occipital (h) views. Juvenile specimen
(MUSM 160) in dorsal (i) view. ba, basioccipital; bs, basisphenoid; CH, choana; cq,
cranioquadrate foramen; ec, ectopterygoid; ec.mx, maxilla surface for ectopterygoid; EN,
external naris; eo, exoccipital; f, frontal; fcp, foramen carotideum posterior; IF, incisive foramen;
ITF, infratemporal fenestra; j, jugal; j.la, lacrimal surface for jugal; j.mx, maxilla surface for
jugal; l, lacrimal;; ls, laterosphenoid; m5, m,9, m14, maxillary tooth positions; mx, maxilla;
n.pm, premaxilla surface for nasal; na, nasal; OR, orbit; p, parietal; pa, palatine; pa.mx, maxilla
surface for palatine; pf, prefrontal; pm, premaxilla; p3, p4, premaxillary tooth positions; po,
postorbital; pt, pterygoid; q, quadrate; qj, quadratojugal; qj.q, quadrate surface for quadratojugal;

542 s, shelf; so, supraoccipital; sq. squamosal; STF, supratemporal fenestra; SOF, suborbital fenestra; 543 v, foramen vagus; xii, foramen for hypoglossal nerve. All photographs to the same scale. Scale 544 bar equals 5 cm. 545 **Figure 3.** Phylogenetic position of *Sacacosuchus cordovai* and other marine taxa (represented by 546 their skulls) within the Crocodylia, with ancestral range reconstructions provided by S-DIVA. (a) 547 Time-calibrated, strict consensus tree on the constrained and equal weighted analysis. 548 Crocodylians found in marine deposits pertain to the gavialoid clade. The ancestral range 549 reconstructions are summarised as pie charts and shown for critical nodes of the Gavialoidea (73: 550 Eogavialis + Gavialis; 79: Gryposuchinae; 81: Aktiogavialis; 82: Argochampsa, Aktiogavialis, 551 advanced gavialids; 83: 'gharials' + MUSM 1513; 86: Miocene African forms; 89: 552 Thecachampsa species; 90: Sacacosuchus, Gavialosuchus, Thecachampsa + unnamed node 88; 553 92: Gavialidae; 96: Gavialoidea), Crocodylidae (99: node 97 + Cr. porosus); and 'thoracosaurs' 554 (121). Geographic areas of distribution are represented by colours and capital letters. Wide bars 555 within branches show stratigraphic range of taxa. White arrows at the branches of gryposuchines, 556 Gavialis, and Tomistoma schlegelii indicate major shifts from marine to freshwater habitats. 557 Eocene palaeomap (b) is from Blackey [63]. 558 **Figure 4.** Diversity of crocodylians during the last 90 my. (a) Observed range-through 559 (OR) diversity of crocodylian genera (OR bys: red dashed line), OR of marine (OR mg: blue 560 solid line) and non-marine genera (OR n-mg; black solid line) calculated per chronostratigraphic 561 stages. (b) Estimated richness based on the Chao1 extrapolation estimator calculated per 562 chronostratigraphic stages (red dots) and second-order Jackknife richness estimator calculated 563 using 3-million years time bins for marine (mg: blue line) and non-marine (n-mg: black line)

crocodylian genera. Grey solid line represents a smoothed global sea level curve after Miller et al. [37] and the orange solid line a global mean temperature curve after Zachos et al. [34]. The time spam of the south-eastern Pacific gavialid crocodylians record (SEP C) encompasses the estimated highest peak of genera and species of marine forms. PLI, Pliocene.

Figure 5. The pPCA of the snout of the Crocodylia defined by PC1 and PC2. Black dots denote non marine taxa and blue dots (with or without skulls) correspond to extinct taxa (gavialoids and *Thoracosaurus*) recovered from marginal to fully marine environments and the living saltwater crocodile, *Crocodylus porosus*. Positive values of PC1 depict forms with longirostrine ecomorphs. All gavialoids pertain to these ecomorphs but bearing large variation along positive and negatives values of PC2, with morphological 'tomistomines' restricted to the positive values and 'gharials' confined to the negative values. The sole 'thoracosaur' included in this analysis is positioned close to the 'gharial' ecomorph. Grey polygon encompasses the gavialoid morphospace and blue areas correspond to distinct ecomorphs of marine gavialoids within the morphological 'tomistomines' (upper) and 'gharials' (lower).

Miocene fossils from the south-eastern Pacific shed light on the last radiation

2	of marine crocodylians
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- 24 ecomorphs
- 25

Abs	stra	ct
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The evolution of crocodylians as sea dwellers remains obscure because living representatives are
basically freshwater inhabitants and fossil evidence lacks crucial aspects about crocodylian
occupation of marine ecosystems. New fossils from marine deposits of Peru reveal that
crocodylians were habitual coastal residents of the south-eastern Pacific (SEP) for approximately
14 million years within the Miocene (ca. 19-5 Ma), an epoch including the highest global peak of
marine crocodylian diversity. The assemblage of the SEP comprised two long and slender-
snouted (longirostrine) taxa of the Gavialidae: the giant Piscogavialis and a new early diverging
species, Sacacosuchus cordovai. Although living gavialids (Gavialis and Tomistoma) are
freshwater forms, this remarkable fossil record and a suite of evolutionary morphological
analyses reveal that the whole evolution of marine crocodylians pertained to the gavialids and
their stem relatives (Gavialoidea). This adaptive radiation produced two longirostrine ecomorphs
with dissimilar trophic roles in seawaters and involved multiple transmarine dispersals to South
America and most landmasses. Marine gavialoids were shallow sea dwellers, and their Cenozoic
diversification was influenced by the availability of coastal habitats. Soon after the richness peak
of the Miocene, gavialoid crocodylians disappeared from the sea, probably as part of the marine
megafauna extinction of the Pliocene.

1. Introduction

During the Mesozoic, archaic crocodylomorphs achieved anatomical and physiological
specialisations for a pelagic marine lifestyle as in no other time in the history of Earth [1-4]. In
contrast, extant members of the crown clade (i.e. crocodylians) are mostly semi-aquatic,
freshwater animals and only some species of the genus Crocodylus (e.g. Cr. porosus, Cr. acutus)
regularly wander into coastal, saltwater settings [5-7]. Adaptations to withstand different
salinities (e.g. presence of lingual salt glands or a keratinised buccal cavity), however, occur not
only in Crocodylus, but also in strictly freshwater taxa, such as the Malayan and the Indian
gharials, Gavialis gangeticus (Gmelin, 1789) and Tomistoma schlegelii (Muller, 1838) [8,9],
suggesting that the common ancestor of Longirostres (sensu [10]) had a marine ecology [11].
Gavialis, Tomistoma and their fossil kin (crown clade Gavialidae) typically possess long
and slender snouts. Fossils suggest that several extinct gavialids had marine habits since they
have been recovered from contexts depicting a wide range of salinities, including marginal to
fully marine areas (e.g. [12-19]). These fossils are documented from most landmasses and such
broad distribution requires crossing sea barriers to be explained [20-22]. Recent studies
established that the last radiation of crocodylomorphs into marine environments occurred in the
late Cretaceous with little or no marine diversity throughout the Cenozoic [3,4,23,24].
The rich fossil record from the south-eastern Pacific (SEP) in the coastal desert of Peru
has revealed invaluable data about the evolution of marine vertebrates and their ecosystems for
the last 42 million years (e.g. [25-27]). Along with whales, earless seals, penguins, and aquatic
sloths, most of the Neogene localities of the Pisco Formation have yielded well-preserved
remains of crocodylians [26,27], until now represented by one giant gavialid species,
Piscogavialis jugaliperforatus Kraus, 1998 [13].

Here, we present a new gavialid from the same marine deposits of the East Pisco Basin. In contrast to *Piscogavialis*, which is part of a widely diversified clade of gavialids in South America, this second taxon is related to species from other landmasses that were formerly allied to *Tomistoma* within the tomistomines (*sensu* [17]), emphasising the competence of gavialid crocodylians as marine voyagers. New finely preserved fossils of both taxa reveal that this crocodylian assemblage had a prolonged residence along the coasts of the SEP, an area dominated by the nutrient-rich waters of the Humboldt Current System where these cold-blooded animals are now lacking [28]. We investigated the phylogenetic relationships of the new gavialid and the evolutionary and environmental implications of the long-lasting occupation of crocodylians in the SEP. Based on this record and a comprehensive fossil database, we use phylogenetic, biogeographic, richness, and geometric morphometric analyses to characterise the evolution, diversification, and decline of crocodylians in marine environments.

2. Geological context, palaeoenvironment, and age

The Chilcatay and Pisco formations of the East Pisco Basin document long-lasting marine transgressions that affected about 350 km of the SEP (southern Peru) during the Neogene (electronic supplementary material) [26,27,29]. Recent radiometric datings improved the chronological constraints on these deposits in the Ica-Pisco Valleys and the Sacaco area (figure 1a), which as a whole range from the early Miocene (*ca.* 25 Ma) to the late Pliocene (*ca.* 2.7 Ma) [30-32]. Fossils of the new gavialid and *Piscogavialis* are documented since ~19 Ma in the Chilcatay Formation and extensively recovered in the late Miocene deposits of the Pisco Formation in both areas (figures 1a,b, S2 and S3). The Peruvian record is particularly rich in the late Miocene-earliest Pliocene strata of the Pisco Formation at Sacaco, with the last crocodylian

remains documented at <i>ca.</i> 4.85 Ma (figure 1 <i>a</i> , <i>b</i>) [27]. During this time interval, the Sacaco area
was a shallow marine environment connected to the open ocean and comprising protected
embayments, rocky headlands, and small islands (figure 1b) [26,27]. A similar environment is
depicted for most fossiliferous deposits of the Chilcatay and Pisco formations at the Ica-Pisco
valley [31,32].
3. Systematic Palaeontology
Crocodyliformes Hay, 1930; Crocodylia Gmelin, 1789; Longirostres (Cuvier, 1807) as defined
by [10]; Gavialidae (Adams, 1854)
Sacacosuchus cordovai gen. et sp. nov.
Etymology: Sacaco after the rich fossiliferous area from where most remains were found
cordovai after colleague and professor Jesús Córdova, to honour his brave and unconditional
support to develop palaeontology in Peru.
Holotype: Vertebrate Palaeontology Collection of the Natural History Museum of San
Marcos University (MUSM) 162, nearly complete skull (figure 2a,b,e,f and S4)
Type Locality and Horizon: Sud-Sacaco west (SAS-w; figure 1), Sacaco sub-basin,
northern Arequipa, Peru; Pisco Formation, late Miocene, dated to ca. 6.33 Ma [27].
Referred specimens: MUSM 160, partial skull of a juvenile, Locality SAS-w (figure 2i);
MUSM 161, partial skull of a sub-adult, Locality Montemar north (MTM-n; figure $2c,d,g,h$ and
S5), late Miocene, ca. 8.0 Ma; MUSM 163, left dentary preserved until the fourteenth dentary
alveolus, Locality Aguada de Lomas (AGL; figure S2), late Miocene, ca. 8.85 Ma; (electronic
supplementary material).

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Diagnosis: Sacacosuchus cordovai is a relatively medium to large, longirostrine gavialid diagnosed by the following unique combination of characters: premaxillae not expanded relative to the maxillae; nasals in contact with the external naris; 14 maxillary teeth; fifth and ninth to twelfth maxillary tooth alveoli enlarged; large, roughly circular orbits; deep splenial symphysis. Differs from all other gavialids by having ventral margins of the orbit low and barrel vault-shaped; postorbital bar lanceolate in cross-section with the external plane facing anterolaterally; rostral process of quadratojugal long along the ventral margin of the infratemporal fenestrae and no dorsal process bordering its posterior margin.

General comparative description: Sacacosuchus cordovai possesses a slender, long, and parallel-sided snout that expands gradually posterolaterally into a robust, triangular orbital and postrostral cranium (figure 2a,c,i). The snout is tubular in cross-section with slightly sinuate margins along the dental series. In lateral view, the snout describes a wide dorsal curvature (figure 2e,g). The rostral length/skull length index is 0.79, similar to that of Gavialis gangeticus (0.76-0.79). However, the rostral width/postorbital width index is 0.22, lower than those of T. schlegelii (0.34), Piscogavialis (0.27) and G. gangeticus (0.25), and equivalent to 'thoracosaurs' (0.22-0.23). The skull table is wide and rectangular in outline, like *Gavialis*, in contrast to the trapezoidal and relatively smaller one of *T. schlegelii*. The supratemporal fenestrae are wider than long and bear sharp, overhanging borders with the skull table, as in *Paratomistoma* and 'Tomistoma' coppensi [14]. The parietal interfenestral bar is relatively slender. The infratemporal fenestrae are roughly triangular, with a gentle curve at the dorsal angle. The choana is relatively large and basically triangular in outline. The dorsally oriented narial opening is elongated and heart-shaped. The occipital plate is vertical and not visible in dorsal view. Although not fully preserved, suborbital fenestrae show an elongated teardrop shape. The skull

bears five and 14 alveoli in the premaxilla and maxilla, respectively. The fifth maxillary alveoli are larger than the fourth and the sixth, but the largest alveoli consist of the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth tooth positions.

The prefrontals, the single frontal, and the postorbitals are not raised along the orbital margins, thus the typical everted orbital margins of most crocodylians are not present in *Sacacosuchus* (character 137-0). The demarcation between the parietal on the skull table and the anterior border of the fenestrae is sharp, with the parietal even overhanging these fenestrae, as in *'Tomistoma' coppensi* and *Paratomistoma* (character 152-3). The squamosal surface of the skull table slopes lateroventrally, as in *Gryposuchus* and *Paratomistoma* (character 156-0), and in contrast to the planar skull table of *T. schlegelii* and *Crocodylus*.

The dentary bears ~17-18 alveoli and the dentary symphysis extends posteriorly up to the level of the ninth-tenth dentary tooth loci (character 49-2), where they meet the wedge-like rostral process of the united splenials, as in *T. schlegelii*. Body length estimation [33] for *Sacacosuchus* type specimen is 432 cm (details in electronic supplementary material).

4. Results and discussion

(a) Two Neogene crocodylians in the south-eastern Pacific

The Lagerstätte fossil record of the East Pisco Basin reveals that two crocodylian taxa had occupied coastal marine environments of the SEP for approximately 14 million years (*ca.* 19 to 5 Ma), an interval that comprises much of the Miocene (figure 1*a*). This record spans the warm phase of the middle Miocene and the following global cooling trend [34]. Warm conditions likely prevailed in the shallow, coastal marine environments of the SEP during the whole interval [27]. Environmental and climatic conditions during the late Miocene were optimal for marine

crocodylians even in Chile, 1600 km south of Sacaco, where *Piscogavialis* bones (SGO-PV-834; RS-G personal observation) have been documented [35].

The crocodylian remains of the East Pisco Basin were recovered in association with a typical marine vertebrate fauna, including whales, earless seals, seabirds, sharks, and bony fishes [26,27]. Remains of *Sacacosuchus* and *Piscogavialis* consist of cranial and postcranial bones in partial or full anatomical connection (figures S2 and S3). The *Sacacosuchus* record includes individuals at various ontogenetic stages (figure 2), suggesting that these crocodylians actually lived, died, and were buried in marine waters. In contrast to the finely preserved marine vertebrate remains [13,27,29], fossils of continental origin in the Pisco Basin are limited to a handful of isolated bones [27].

With an estimated body length of 431 cm, *Sacacosuchus* was a medium-sized crocodylian while *Piscogavialis* was a giant, almost twice as long (~776 cm; see electronic supplementary material). Despite its large size, the latter was probably a specialist in acquiring rapid small targets (e.g. fishes) while *Sacacosuchus* had a more generalized diet (see below). Isolated bones of large individuals (cf. *Piscogavialis*) document the existence of crocodylians up to the youngest vertebrate-bearing deposits, dated at 4.85 Ma (early Pliocene; figure 1a). The sedimentary record was commenced again in Sacaco by *ca.* 2.7 Ma with no more crocodylian remains [27]. Andean tectonics at *ca.* 4.5 Ma [36] and a eustatic drop of sea level in the Pliocene [37] likely contributed to the end of Pisco sedimentation and the disruption of the coastal environments. The extirpation (and extinction) of crocodylians from the SEP thus happened at some point during the Pliocene and was probably caused by the reduction of continental flooding and the establishment of cool waters of the Humboldt current system [27,37,38].

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(b) Sacacosuchus and gavialid phylogeny

We conducted tip-dated Bayesian and maximum parsimony analyses of morphological characters to determine evolutionary relationships of Sacacosuchus cordovai within the crocodylians (methods in electronic supplementary material). We included in the data matrix the slender-snouted South American taxon *Charactosuchus fieldsi* [39]. However, initial analyses proved that currently known fragments of this taxon are uninformative for establishing its phylogenetic affinities, thus it was excluded from the following searches. Our tip-dated approaches retrieved distant relationships between living Gavialis and Tomistoma, as suggested by other morphological analysis using this method [40]. Instead, our maximum parsimony analysis with equal weighting recovered close relationships of *Tomistoma* and *Gavialis* among living crocodylians, in line with molecular analyses [10,41,42] and a recent morphological approach [43]. Morphological 'tomistomines' (sensu [43,44]) are the earliest diverging gavialoids (sensu [45]), yet low supported. The long and slender-snouted 'thoracosaurs' from the Cretaceous-early Eocene interval have been usually allied to 'gharials' (sensu [46]) in morphology-based analyses [47,48]. Here, they are positioned deeply nested within the Gavialidae, as a clade sister to 'gharials.' However, we identified several plesiomorphic features in 'thoracosaurs' [43] lacking in 'gharials' and even across Longirostres (see electronic supplementary material). As their position also provides significant temporal incongruence to the crown clade Gavialidae [40,43], we constrained searches to force 'thoracosaurs' outside of Longirostres and set the Palaeocene species Argochampsa krebsi as a floating taxon. This constraint resulted in a tree insignificantly longer (p > 0.05), in which 'thoracosaurs' are recovered as the sister clade of *Borealosuchus* + Crocodylia and *Argochampsa* within

Gavialidae. *Eogavialis* from the Eocene of Africa is recovered as the closest relative of *Gavialis*. Subsequent analyses and discussions follow this phylogenetic hypothesis (figure 3*a*).

Sacacosuchus is deeply nested within the Gavialidae, as part of a polytomy (node 90) with some morphological 'tomistomines' (i.e. Gavialosuchus eggenburgensis and Thecachampa), and a large clade leading to advanced gavialids. Node 90 is supported by having a vomer entirely obscured by maxillae and premaxillae (character 100-0), pterygoid surface and choanal margins flushed (character 123-0), and quadrangular, wider than long, supratemporal fenestrae (character 191-1). The divergence of Sacacosuchus occurred after that of T. schlegelii but much earlier than the divergence of any other clade of Neotropical gavialids known so far. Indeed, our analysis supports for independent origins of Sacacosuchus, Aktiogavialis, gryposuchines (sensu [21]), and an Eocene Peruvian form coded for these analyses and currently under study (MUSM 1513; figure 3a). Thus, phylogenetics cluster Sacacosuchus within morphological 'tomistomines' and suggest a complex evolutionary history for Neotropical gavialids.

(c) Marine crocodylian biogeographic history and diversity

Phylogenetic analysis indicates that crocodylians recovered from estuarine or marine depositional settings exclusively pertain to the gavialoid clade (figure 3*a*; node 96). Although extant *Gavialis* and *Tomistoma* species are freshwater forms, marine habits were widely distributed among gavialoids and were probably the ancestral condition of the group [49]. The optimal biogeographic reconstruction provided by a statistical dispersal-vicariance analysis (S-DIVA; electronic supplementary material) points to the northern European (D) and Peri-Tethyan coasts (C) as the most likely ancestral ranges for gavialoids (node 96) [18,43]. Standing diversity

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and estimated richness analyses (electronic supplementary material) show that the diversity of marine gavialoids increased from their origination to the early Eocene (figures 3a and 4), when non-crocodylian crocodylomorphs (i.e. dyrosaurids and thoracosaurs) thrived in marine environments [4,47,48,50]. The group soon dispersed to Asia and declined in northern Europe by the late Eocene. Presumed ancestral ranges of the Gavialidae (node 92) might have included the Peri-Tethys and Asia (CF; figure 3a,b), with 100% of marginal probability. Because the Palaeocene Argochampsa is deeply nested within the Gavialidae, a late Cretaceous origin for the clade is suggested, in contrast to the Eocene origination proposed by molecular clock estimates [42]. Other gavialids recovered in our analysis are no older than Eocene. From the Peri-Tethys, gavialids colonised North America (A) and South America (B), the latter movement giving rise to Sacacosuchus cordovai (node 90). Aktiogavialis, gryposuchines, and MUSM 1513 are additional clades from the Americas that might have originated within the Peri-Tethys [20,45]. In the late Eocene, ancestors of gryposuchines and *Eogavialis* + Gavialis (node 80) occupied BC, BF or BCF, each range with equal marginal probability (figure 3a,b). The late Eocene and Oligocene seem to be characterised by low crocodylian standing diversity in marine environments (figure 4a,b) [4,51]. However, the middle and late Miocene witnessed pronounced origination rates (figure S14b), leading to the largest richness peak of marine forms in the crocodylian history (figures 3a and 4a,b). This richness reflects the extensive adaptive radiation of gavialids in most landmasses, particularly in the Americas and the Peri-Tethys [13,16,20,21]. The East Pisco Basin record of Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis corresponds with this time interval, which is characterised by the Middle Miocene Climatic

Optimum (17 to 15 Ma) and a progressive global cooling with relatively small sea-level fluctuations compared to the Oligocene or Plio-Pleistocene values [34,37,38].

A rapid and sustained global decline of marine gavialids started in the late Miocene and continued until their complete vanishing at the middle or late Pliocene, probably as part of the marine megafauna extinction of that epoch [38]. Non-marine gavialids survived in Asia but declined elsewhere [20]. In general, freshwater crocodylians show a subtle demise at this timelapse but their richness was recovered by the end of the Pliocene, with the diversification of *Crocodylus* (figure 3*a*).

Ancestrally, gavialoids had marine habits, dispersed across marine barriers, and invaded freshwater environments multiple times in different landmasses (figure 3a). The Peri-Tethys might have been the centre for multidirectional marine dispersals of the gavialids, yet timing incongruence on the origin of the clade persists.

(d) What is a marine crocodylian?

The phylogenetic Principal Component Analysis (pPCA; methods in electronic supplementary material) indicates that marine taxa were all longirostrine forms. Disparate morphospace occupations within this rostral shape suggest additionally that two different ecomorphs roamed ancient marine environments (figure 5). Advanced marine gavialoids, such as *Piscogavialis* and *Eogavialis*, had an extremely long rostrum, enlarged teeth restricted to the tip of the snout and an adductor chamber resembling that of the living *Gavialis gangeticus* [52]. These animals performed low-bite-force and fast movements of the jaws and were predators of small and rapid targets [20]. 'Thoracosaurs' might belong to this ecomorph (figure 5). In comparison, morphological 'tomistomines', such as *Thecachampsa*, had a more powerful bite, larger teeth

close to the jaw joints, and their snout was usually less attenuated than in advanced gavialoids, suggesting a diet composed of a wider range of prey sizes [20].

Marine crocodylians were essentially shallow marine inhabitants. These environments have been proposed for several taxa of gavialoids by taphonomic, geologic, and isotopic data [12-19,22,53] and are consistent with their locomotion-related anatomy. Because marine crocodylians show no significant differences in the axial skeleton and the hindlimbs relative to living forms, they are inferred to have swum by using axial undulatory movements and terrestrial-adapted limbs (plesiopedal) [54]. This locomotion pattern is incompatible with breathing during prolonged or fast swimming and thus restricts predation to an explosive ambushing behaviour in shallow waters, as has been proposed for other reptiles during incipient adaptations to a marine lifestyle [54].

If marine crocodylians were limited to shallow marine environments, their diversification and extinction would have been driven by the availability of coastal habitats and might have been extensively disturbed by global sea-level changes. We would also expect that marine crocodylians and open-ocean predators (hydropedal with a stiff trunk: e.g. odontocete cetaceans) responded differently to evolutionary drivers. For example, changes in odontocete communities are documented worldwide and attributed to a mix of physical and biological factors, in which niche scalation and a pelagic lifestyle played distinct roles [23,55]. Instead, sea-level fluctuations with effects on coastal habitats have been identified as a main driver of crocodylomorph diversification in marine environments [3,4,51]. The peaks in origination rates and standing diversity of the Miocene coincide with a period of relatively high and stable sea level, and essentially corresponds to the flourishing of gavialid crocodylians in extensive continental flooding areas across the Peri-Tethys and the SEP [26,27,30,31,56]. By the Pliocene, the rapid

demise of marine crocodylians concurs with lower sea surface temperature, decreasing sea-level [37] and, a drastic reduction of neritic habitats [38].

Bones show no features unique to marine crocodylians. Similar patterns of longirostry and locomotion anatomy are also observed in freshwater taxa [20] (figure 5). However, certain morphologies, such as protruding orbital margins or blunt snouts, would not be found in marine crocodylians because these evolved exclusively associated with an ecology of freshwater environments [46,57]. Intriguingly, the sole living genus with populations in marine areas, *Crocodylus*, does not have a longirostrine condition (figures 3a and 5). Dispersal across marine barriers occurred widely within this taxon but most (if not all) of the fossil record from America, Europe, Asia, Oceania, and Africa was recovered from deposits indicating fluvial and lacustrine environments [58,59]. Even fossils of the saltwater crocodile, *Crocodylus porosus*, come from freshwater deposits [60,61] and the late Miocene *Crocodylus checchiai*, the species linking Neotropical and African *Crocodylus*, was recovered from a marginal marine formation in which vertebrates of continental origin prevail [62]. Fossils examined under multiple assessments (taphonomy, stable isotopes, palaeohistology) should provide further insights on the functional roles of ancient and modern marine crocodylians.

5. Conclusions

Sacacosuchus cordovai belongs to the crown clade Gavialidae with ancestors in the Peri-Tethys that migrated to South America crossing marine barriers. This kind of dispersal was multidirectional and characterised the diversification of gavialids in coastal areas, although the timing is still poorly constrained. Extant *Gavialis* and *Tomistoma* are freshwater survivors within a predominantly marine group. The crocodylian marine ecology was restricted to longirostrine

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forms of the gavialoids, in contrast to the variety of clades and rostral shapes that evolved in freshwater ecosystems. Within this longirostrine morphotype, two distinct ecomorphs with dissimilar trophic roles thrived in seawaters. The evolution of Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis in the coastal, flooded areas of the SEP is an exemplar of the adaptive radiation of gavialoids in marine ecosystems. As semi-aquatic predators, gavialoids occupied shallow coastal habitats and got a peak in marine richness during the Miocene, when relatively high and stable sea levels occurred. Soon after, these marine crocodylians suffered a drastic decline, probably triggered by the global loss of shallow marine areas. The demise of the longirostrine, marine crocodylians roughly coincides with the marine megafauna extinction of the Pliocene. **Acknowledgments.** We thank W. Aguirre for the fossil preparation; M. Norell, J. Flynn, D. Kirizian, C. Mehling, and L. Vonnnahme (AMNH), C. de Muizon and S. Bailón (MNHN), E. 'Dino' Frey (SMNK), R.Schoch (SMNS), and R. Hulbert (UF) for access to comparative collections; C. Brochu for providing crocodylian photographs; A. García for taking pictures of T. lusitanica. D. Pol, J., Tejada-Lara, L. Hostos, D. Adams, M. Collyer, and J. Clarke for providing valuable insights. E. Coombs and A. Goswami for performing 3D scans of some Sacacosuchus specimens. Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis (exclusive of the type) specimens are permanently deposited at the Museo de Historia Natural, UNMSM (MUSM), Lima, Peru. Author contributions. R.S.-G. designed the research, wrote the manuscript and performed systematic and morphometric research, with additional writing contributions from all authors. R.S.-G. and S.J. performed anatomical studies. D.O., T.D.V, and P.B. provided geological data

and DO performed diversity analyses. P.R. performed tree calibration and biogeographic

analyses. All authors contributed to the discussions and interpretation of the results.

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Figure captions

Figure 1. Fossil record of Sacacosuchus and Piscogavialis in the Neogene deposits of the Pisco
Basin, southern Peru. (a) Schematic stratigraphic columns of the Chilcatay (yellow) and Pisco
(light blue) formations with crocodylian-bearing localities at the Ica-Pisco Valleys (left; from ca .
20 to 7 Ma) and the Sacaco area (from ca. 9.38 to 4.85 Ma). (b) Location and map of the East
Pisco basin showing the Chilcatay (yellow) and Pisco (blue) deposits within putative continental
flooded areas (in white). Map modified from [31]. AGL, Aguada de Lomas; CCO-n, Cerro
Colorado norte; CCO-s, Cerro Colorado sur; CLQ, Cerro Los Quesos; COM, Comatrana; CVT,
Correviento; ELJ, EL Jahuay; MTM, Montemar; MTM-n, Montemar norte; MTM, Montemar;
SAO-e, Sacaco east; SAS-w, Sud-Sacaco west; SUL, Sula Site; YAU, Yauca; ZAM, Zamaca.
Figure 2. Photograph and schematic drawing of the skulls of <i>Sacacosuchus cordovai</i> gen. et sp.
nov. from Sacaco at different ontogenetic stages. Adult specimen (holotype: MUSM 162) in
dorsal (a), ventral (b), right lateral (e), and occipital (f) views. Juvenile specimen (MUSM 160)
in dorsal (c), ventral (d), left lateral (g; inverted), and occipital (h) views. Sub-adult specimen
(MUSM 161) in dorsal (i) view. ba, basioccipital; bs, basisphenoid; CH, choana; cq,
cranioquadrate foramen; ec, ectopterygoid; ec.mx, maxilla surface for ectopterygoid; EN,
external naris; eo, exoccipital; f, frontal; fcp, foramen carotideum posterior; IF, incisive foramen;
ITF, infratemporal fenestra; j, jugal; j.la, lacrimal surface for jugal; j.mx, maxilla surface for
jugal; l, lacrimal;; ls, laterosphenoid; m5, m,9, m14, maxillary tooth positions; mx, maxilla;
n.pm, premaxilla surface for nasal; na, nasal; OR, orbit; p, parietal; pa, palatine; pa.mx, maxilla
surface for palatine; pf, prefrontal; pm, premaxilla; p3, p4, premaxillary tooth positions; po,
postorbital; pt, pterygoid; q, quadrate; qj, quadratojugal; qj.q, quadrate surface for quadratojugal;

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s, shelf; so, supraoccipital; sq. squamosal; STF, supratemporal fenestra; SOF, suborbital fenestra; v, foramen vagus; xii, foramen for hypoglossal nerve. All photographs to the same scale. Scale bar equals 5 cm. **Figure 3.** Phylogenetic position of *Sacacosuchus cordovai* and other marine taxa (represented by their skulls) within the Crocodylia, with ancestral range reconstructions provided by S-DIVA. (a) Time-calibrated, strict consensus tree on the constrained and equal weighted analysis. Crocodylians found in marine deposits pertain to the gavialoid clade. The ancestral range reconstructions are summarised as pie charts and shown for critical nodes of the Gavialoidea (73: Eogavialis + Gavialis; 79: Gryposuchinae; 81: Aktiogavialis; 82: Argochampsa, Aktiogavialis, advanced gavialids; 83: 'gharials' + MUSM 1513; 86: Miocene African forms; 89: Thecachampsa species; 90: Sacacosuchus, Gavialosuchus, Thecachampsa + unnamed node 88; 92: Gavialidae; 96: Gavialoidea), Crocodylidae (99: node 97 + Cr. porosus); and 'thoracosaurs' (121). Geographic areas of distribution are represented by colours and capital letters. Wide bars within branches show stratigraphic range of taxa. White arrows at the branches of gryposuchines, Gavialis, and Tomistoma schlegelii indicate major shifts from marine to freshwater habitats. Eocene palaeomap (b) is from Blackey [63]. **Figure 4.** Diversity of crocodylians during the last 90 my. (a) Observed range-through (OR) diversity of crocodylian genera (OR bys: red dashed line), OR of marine (OR mg: blue solid line) and non-marine genera (OR n-mg: black solid line) calculated per chronostratigraphic stages. (b) Estimated richness based on the Chao1 extrapolation estimator calculated per chronostratigraphic stages (red dots) and second-order Jackknife richness estimator calculated using 3-million years time bins for marine (mg: blue line) and non-marine (n-mg: black line)

crocodylian genera. Grey solid line represents a smoothed global sea level curve after Miller et al. [37] and the orange solid line a global mean temperature curve after Zachos et al. [34]. The time spam of the south-eastern Pacific gavialid crocodylians record (SEP C) encompasses the estimated highest peak of genera and species of marine forms. PLI, Pliocene.

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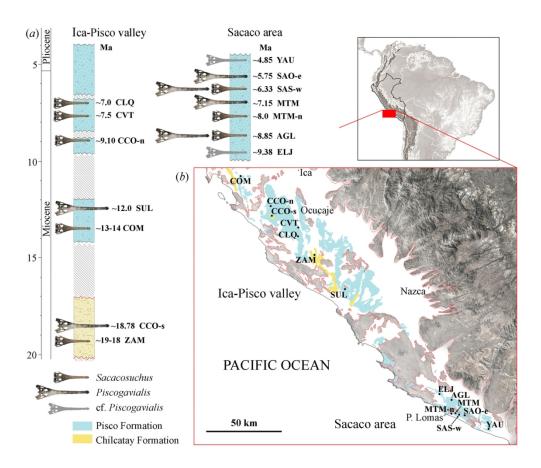


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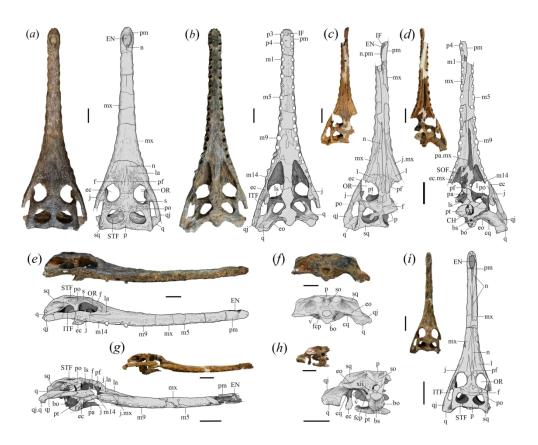


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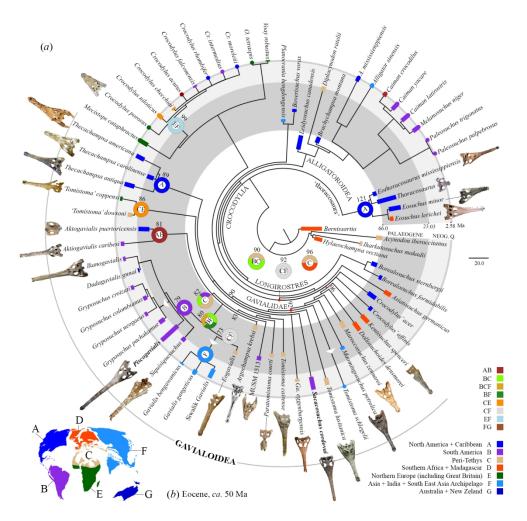


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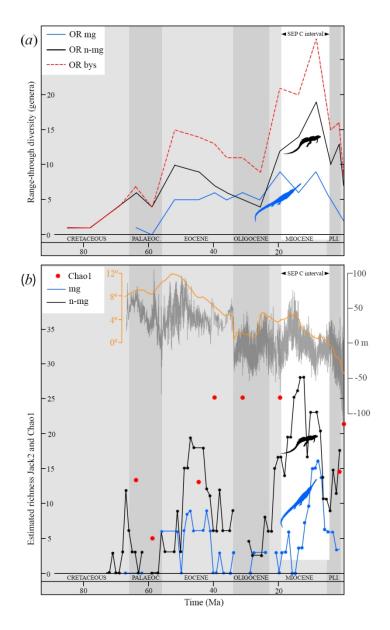


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82x139mm (300 x 300 DPI)

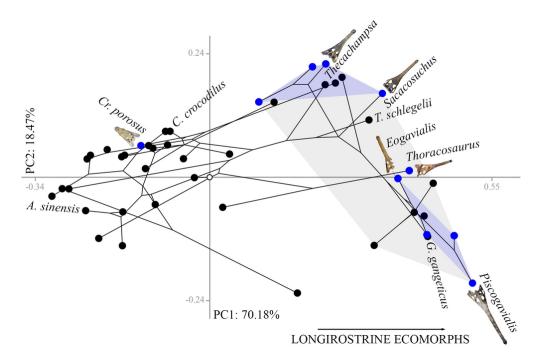


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84x56mm (300 x 300 DPI)