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Author contributions

EGC and OA conceived and designed the project. EGC, MR, FR, and OA designed and performed the experiments. FR and OA performed the field trip and sample collection. EGC, FR, MR, and OA analyzed the context of the information. EGC and OA wrote the paper. EGC, MR, FR, and OA revised and edited the manuscript.

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1 **AMPHI-AMERICAN NEOGENE TELEOSTEAN TROPICAL FISHES**

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9

10 **Abstract**

11 During the last 20 years of paleontological expeditions in different sedimentary basins of
12 Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Jamaica, Trinidad, Panama, the Dominican Republic
13 and Venezuela, teleost otoliths have been found along the Tropical Western Central Atlantic
14 (TWCA) and the Tropical Eastern Central Pacific (TECP); these otoliths relate to the amphi-
15 American distribution of fishes and the paleoceanographic and paleoenvironmental changes in
16 the region during the Cenozoic. This study analyzes of the marine fish fossil based on
17 comprehensive species records belonging to the Neogene period and listed at the generic
18 level. Joint classification and ordination techniques were used to identify and analyze data
19 comprising 169 genera belonging to 56 families and 20 orders, which were mostly
20 represented by the demersal species that inhabit shallow waters. Analyses of principal
21 components were used to calculate the covariance and the variance between formations,
22 countries, basins, and age. The results showed that the main faunistic changes along the
23 geochronological sequence in the Neogene basins of tropical America were a consequence of

24 paleoenvironmental changes.

25

26 **Key words:** paleobiogeography, marine paleoenvironment, tropical America, otolith, fossil
27 fish.

28

29 **1. Introduction**

30 During the last 20 years, paleontological expeditions conducted in the Neogene
31 sedimentary basins in almost 45 formations from ten countries/basins of Tropical America
32 have revealed that the presence of fossil bony fishes with extraordinary body sizes is a myth.
33 The early natural history from the New World in Columbian times excessively promotes the
34 discoveries of giant fishes and minimizes the importance of small to medium sizes demersal
35 fishes (Keegan, 1989; Asuá and French, 2016). However, with few exceptions, most of the
36 Teleostean fossil species records are even smaller than the living counterparts.

37 Contextual interpretation of stratigraphical information and microfacies reveals that these
38 fossil fishes inhabited sandy and mudstone bottoms in shallow water, some of which are
39 associated with ancient estuarine systems in the Proto-Caribbean, pre-Amazon delta, and
40 exceptionally, in coastal marine areas influenced by upwelling.

41 Teleostean otolith and diagnostic bones of Neogene fishes are thoroughly preserved in
42 several Miocene to Pleistocene basins in countries along the tropical western central Atlantic
43 (TWCA) and the tropical eastern central Pacific (TECP). However, the preservation of
44 articulate fossil skeletons is rare; therefore, diagnostic structures of isolated bones have been
45 used for taxonomical identification.

46 Most of the studies of Neogene teleostean fish associations published in the last decade

47 from tropical America were focused on the taxonomic scope of families (e.g., Myctophidae:
48 Schwarzahans and Aguilera, 2013; Sciaenidae: Aguilera et al., 2016; Carapidae, Ophidiidae
49 and Bythitidae: Schwarzahans and Aguilera, 2016; Ariidae: Aguilera and Marceniuk, 2018;
50 Diodontidae: Aguilera et al., 2017; Tetraodontidae: Aguilera et al., 2018), whereas other
51 contributions discussed the context of fish assemblages by countries/formations (e.g.,
52 Trinidad: Nolf, 1976; Dominican Republic: Nolf and Stringer, 1992; Costa Rica: Laurito,
53 1996; Jamaica: Stringer, 1998; Ecuador: Landini et al., 2002; Brazil: Aguilera et al., 2014;
54 Venezuela: Nolf and Aguilera, 1998; Aguilera and Rodrigues de Aguilera, 2001; Núñez-
55 Flores, 2017).

56 The exceptional teleostean fish paleodiversity in the TWCA and TECP provides a valuable
57 opportunity to understand the origin of modern fauna and to elucidate the macroevolutionary
58 responses in coastal fauna affected by: (1) the paleoceanographic and paleoenvironmental
59 changes in the region as a consequence of tectonic dynamics between the Caribbean, the
60 North and South American plates, the Nazca and Cocos plates, with all interacting during the
61 geographic configuration of the Proto-Caribbean and the orogenesis of the greater and lesser
62 Antilles islands (Bachmann, 2001; Coates et al., 2005; Pindell et al., 2005; Pindell and
63 Kennan, 2009; Montes et al., 2019); (2) the rise of the Andes cordillera, which isolated the
64 inflow of the northern drainage system of the Amazonian effluents to the Proto-Caribbean
65 (Rod, 1981; Díaz de Gamero, 1996; Shephard et al., 2010; Aguilera et al., 2013); (3) the onset
66 of the transcontinental Amazon River (Damuth and Kumarm, 1976; Wolff and Carozzi, 1984;
67 Brandão and Feijó, 1994; Silva et al., 1998; Figueiredo et al., 2009; Watts et al., 2009;
68 Rossetti et al., 2015); (4) the Miocene marine incursion in northwestern South America
69 (Hoorn et al., 2017; Jaramillo et al., 2017); (5) the sea level and climate changes during the
70 Oligocene-Miocene global cooling Mi-1 and Miocene Climatic Optimum (Haq et al., 1987;
71 Zanchos et al., 2001; Kominz et al., 2008; Stewart et al., 2017); and (6) the severance of the

72 Central American Seaway (CAS) by the uplift of the Talamanca cordillera and the complete
73 isolation of the Atlantic/Pacific oceans by the Panamanian isthmus, and the final
74 configuration of the Caribbean Sea (Montes et al., 2012, 2015; Coates and Stallard, 2013;
75 O’Dea et al., 2016; Jaramillo et al., 2017; Molnar, 2017; Jaramillo, 2018).

76 A paleobiogeographical review of biotic responses as a consequence of CAS isolation was
77 made at length by Leigh et al. (2013) and corroborated the chronological dynamics of
78 paleoceanography and paleoenvironmental influences of the Caribbean and Amazon River
79 within the context of fish fauna distribution (Echeverry and Gallo, 2015).

80 Phylogenies, the divergence time of origin, and the diversification of modern species use
81 fossil species records as references for calibrating the molecular clock (retrospective
82 molecular age) (e.g., Anguilliformes: Santini et al., 2013; Apogonidae: Mabuchi et al., 2014;
83 Ariidae: Marceniuk et al., 2012; Batrachoididae: Greenfield et al., 2008; Centropomidae:
84 Tringali et al., 1999; Diodontidae: Yamanoue et al., 2011; Haemulidae: Tavera et al., 2012;
85 Lutjanidae: Gold et al., 2011; Sciaenidae: Lo et al., 2015; Tetraodontidae: Arcila and Tyler,
86 2017); however, future research in evolutionary trends could support an accurate
87 interpretation about the diversification of tropical species.

88 The similarity of the marine fauna preserved in Miocene sediments from Ecuador,
89 Colombia, Costa Rica, Panama, and Venezuela promoted the designation of the Gatunian
90 Faunal Province (between TCWA and TECP), named after the late Miocene Gatun Formation
91 in Panama (Woodring, 1974; Petuch, 1982, 1988, 2004; Landau et al., 2008). In contrast, the
92 fauna after the closure of the Isthmus of Panama was sufficiently distinct to warrant the use of
93 the term Pliocene Caribbean Province (Landau et al., 2008). Both provinces reflect the
94 lithostratigraphic sequences across the Caribbean and the shift from one to the other broadly
95 records a widespread biological extinction and turnover in the TCWA and TECP marine

96 fauna.

97 Based on the compositional structure of fish assemblages preserved in fossil bones, teeth,
98 and otoliths, the Gatunian Faunal Province can be divided into five sub-provinces: Antillean,
99 Costa Rican, Panamanian, Venezuelan, and Western Central Atlantic (Aguilera et al., 2011;
100 Aguilera and Páes, 2012). The relationship of the Brazilian equatorial fish faunas amongst
101 these sub-provinces has yet to be explored.

102 In this study, we used detailed basinal information from teleostean fossil fishes to more
103 comprehensively expose the biogeographical and geochronological dynamics of the tropical
104 fishes of the Americas, following the country, basin, and age trends. We also connected the
105 observed macroevolutionary differences with the tectonic and paleoenvironmental context,
106 showing that extinction and the biotic turnover were related to paleoenvironmental changes
107 and habitat loss. This is because habitat loss plays a major role in extinction and geographic
108 isolation as a consequence of paleoceanographic and geographic changes (e.g., onset of the
109 Amazon and Orinoco delta; complete uplift of Isthmus of Panama), thus triggering vicariance.

110

111 **2. Materials And Methods**

112 **2.1. Study Area**

113 The Neogene tropical America teleostean otolith fish assemblages were obtained from nine
114 countries/basins (Fig.1) during paleontological expeditions in Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica,
115 Ecuador, Panama, and Venezuela, and they were reviewed and organized under the scope of:
116 (1) The Federal University of Pará, the Museu Paraense Emilio Goeldi and the Federal
117 Fluminense University, Brazil (Pirabas Paleontology Project), (2) the Universidad del Norte,
118 Colombia (La Guajira Paleontology Project), (3) the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute,
119 Panama (Panama Paleontology Project), and (4) the Francisco de Miranda University,

120 Venezuela (Venezuelan Paleontology Project). Specimens from Trinidad and the Dominican
121 Republic were studied based on additional samples and collections at the Basel Museum of
122 Natural History and the Smithsonian National Museum of Natural History in Washington
123 D.C. Data from Jamaica as well as complementary information were retrieved from published
124 literature (Supplementary table 1).

125 All formations and locations were described by stratigraphic age, countries, and basins
126 following the stratigraphic information detailed in relevant literature (e.g., Schwarzhans and
127 Aguilera, 2013; Aguilera et al., 2016). The stratigraphic data follow the International
128 Chronostratigraphic Chart (ICS: Cohen et al., 2013), edition 2019/05, modified in the context
129 of the Neogene fish records of tropical America (Fig. 2) by Schwarzhans and Aguilera (2013)
130 and Aguilera et al. (2016).

131

132 **2.2. Sampling design**

133 For the taxonomic list of species, we adopted the most recent published fossil species
134 descriptions per country, basin, and stratigraphic age. In addition, we used novel unpublished
135 data. For this study, the taxonomy was normalized according to the standard ecological and
136 paleontological methods (Foote and Miller, 2007; Greffard et al., 2011; Carrillo-Briceño et
137 al., 2018). A comparative analysis of fine versus coarse taxonomic resolution may be
138 adequate for trends of paleobiogeographic and paleoenvironmental analyses. However,
139 despite the highest possible level of taxonomic resolution to diminish distortions caused by
140 preservation and sampling biases, endemic groups, and nomenclatural issues, we chose the
141 generic level, such as the most accurate taxonomy, to be analyzed. However, fossil records of
142 few relevant families without generic and specific identifications are included as well (e.g.,
143 Gobiidae, gen. sp. ind.). Biases in the analyses can be attributed to rare taxa that occur as

144 singletons in a country/basin or the absence of (unpreserved or not yet studied) taxa in a
145 specific country/basin (e.g., Cuba and Puerto Rico).

146 Most of the fossil fish were recovered from different expeditions (except for a few units),
147 and most of them corresponded to independent field trips using different collecting methods
148 (e.g., bulk samples vs. individual outcrop picking). Additionally, fossil preservation,
149 taxonomic research, and the available published data are different in terms of identification
150 level. Finally, the stratigraphic sequences along tropical America show a preservation gap.
151 The stratigraphical position, facies analyses, paleodepth interpretations, and analysis of
152 associated fauna are the main data for paleoenvironmental interpretations.

153 **2.3. Data analysis**

154 The data of fish genera occurrences were arranged in a matrix formed by 30 columns and
155 171 rows, and each genus was assigned an Identification Code (ID) consisting of the first four
156 letters. Each country and basin were represented in columns (nine countries) in five
157 stratigraphic ages (EM: early Miocene, MM: middle Miocene, LM: late Miocene, PI:
158 Pliocene, and PE: Pleistocene). A row represents the genera occurrence for each country/basin
159 (Supplementary table 2).

160 To verify whether a fossil fish assemblage structure changed according to the
161 geochronological periods, a Permutational Analysis of Variance (PERMANOVA) was
162 conducted on both the quantitative and qualitative data. The similarity matrix was built using
163 Euclidean distance, and permutation of residuals was performed under reduced model to
164 compare all periods (Anderson et al., 2008).

165 An ordination technical principal component analysis (PCA) was applied to the
166 sedimentary basins to detect spatial or temporal patterns of the smallest available taxonomic

167 records (genera) along with the stratigraphic age. The analysis was performed with CANOCO
168 version 4.5 software (TerBraak and Smilauer, 2002).

169 Differences in the taxonomic structure between basins of specific countries sampled in the
170 tropical Americas were tested by calculating the average taxonomic distinctness ($\Delta+$) and the
171 variation in the taxonomic distinctness ($\Lambda+$) following the procedure of Clarke and Warwick
172 (1999). To determine the $\Delta+$ and $\Lambda+$, which measure the degree to which genera are
173 taxonomically related to each other and the degree to which taxa are highly or poorly
174 represented, respectively a presence/absence matrix of all the basins was used as well as an
175 aggregation matrix with five taxonomic levels (genera, family, order, class, and phylum). The
176 average taxonomic distinctiveness is not dependent on the sampling effort (Clarke and
177 Warwick, 2001). Furthermore, a test can be constructed for the null hypothesis that a species
178 list (species richness S) from one locality (or time) has the same taxonomic distinctness
179 structure as the 'master' list (e.g., of all species in that biogeographic region) from which it is
180 drawn. This is ensured by simple randomization: If "s" species are observed in a particular
181 sample, repeated drawings are made at random of "s" species from the master list and $\Delta+$ is
182 computed for each drawing, thus creating a funnel and a 95% probability range of values of
183 $\Delta+$ expected under the null hypothesis, in which the true $\Delta+$ can be compared. Values below
184 the lower probability limit suggest biodiversity that is 'below expectations'. This process can
185 be performed for a range of sub-list sizes and the limits plotted against S to obtain a 95%
186 'funnel' of expected values (the funnel arises from the uncertainty being greater for smaller
187 sub-list). This can be repeated for $\Lambda+$, thus providing a second 95% funnel set. $\Delta+$ and $\Lambda+$
188 were calculated from the master list of all genera using the Taxdtest subroutine of the
189 PRIMER v6 Program (Clarke and Gorley, 2006). To calculate the average indices' taxonomic
190 distinctness and their variation, the basins of VMM (Venezuela middle Miocene), VPE
191 (Venezuela Pleistocene), CRMM (Costa Rica middle Miocene), TPI (Trinidad Pliocene), JPI

192 (Jamaica Pliocene) were excluded because only one or two genera are present, which is
193 insufficient for calculating these indices (Clarke and Warwick, 1999).

194 Abbreviations used in the text and figures are as follows: BR: Brazil; CO: Colombia; CR:
195 Costa Rica; DR: Dominican Republic; E: Ecuador; J: Jamaica; P: Panama; T: Trinidad; V;
196 Venezuela; EM: early Miocene (23.03–20.43 Ma); MM: middle Miocene (15.97–13.65 Ma);
197 LM: late Miocene (11.61–7.25 Ma); PI: Pliocene (5.33–2.59 Ma); PE: Pleistocene (1.81–0.13
198 Ma); FM: Formation.

199

200 **3. Results**

201 **3.1 Fish assemblage**

202 A total of 169 genera of fossil teleostean fishes were identified by their otoliths (except
203 *Chilomycterus* and *Lagocephalus*) for the Miocene-Pleistocene fossiliferous formations from
204 tropical America (Figs. 3-7, Tables 1-5), distributed in 20 orders and 56 families. The most
205 representative families and the numbers of genera of the ichthyofauna were: Sciaenidae (29),
206 Myctophidae (16), Ophidiidae (11), Ariidae (9), Bythitidae (6), Congridae (6), Haemulidae
207 (6) and Sparidae (5). These genera accounted for 52% of the total frequency of the fish
208 assemblage and were mainly associated with deposits in shallow water, near-shore
209 environments, or coastal marine areas with upwelling influences.

210 **3.2. Stratigraphic distribution and frequency of teleostean fish genera by age**

211 The permutational variance analysis (PERMANOVA) showed no significant difference
212 between the Miocene, Pleistocene and Pliocene (Pseudo-F= 0.81249, P= 0.468).

213 Our PCA indicated that the early Miocene was characterized by two distinctive fish
214 assemblages of the tropical equatorial Atlantic coast, where PC1 was represented by fishes

215 from the Venezuela basin that explained 63.7% of the variance. This assemblage was
216 characterized by the dominance of Sciaenidae that inhabited shallow waters. PC2 indicated
217 that the fishes recorded in the Colombia basin explained 22.5% of the variance. This
218 assemblage was characterized by the diversity of Sciaenidae and Myctophidae. The first two
219 PCA axes explained 86.5% ($0.637 + 0.225$) of the variability of this data (Fig. 3, Table 1).

220 During the middle Miocene, the fish assemblages showed affinities with the Atlantic
221 corridor and amphi-American fossil fish distribution among the basin. PC1 was represented
222 by the Trinidad basin, which explained 40.2% of the variance. The assemblage was
223 dominated by genera of Sciaenidae, Myctophidae, Congridae, and Ophidiidae. PC2 was
224 represented by the Brazilian basin, which explained 31.5% of the variance, as represented by
225 the records of Sciaenidae and Ariidae. The first two PCA axes explained 71.7% ($0.402 +$
226 0.315) of the variability (Fig. 4, Table 2).

227 In the late Miocene, fossil fish assemblages were associated with the Panama basins,
228 explaining 40.8% of the variance in the PC1. This assemblage was represented by genera of
229 Sciaenidae and Haemulidae. PC2 came from the Dominican Republic basins, explaining 25.3
230 % of the variance, and the assemblage was represented by the genera of Sciaenidae,
231 Myctophidae, and Bythitidae. The first two PCA axes explained 74.1% of the data variability
232 (Fig. 5, Table 3).

233 PC1 from the Pliocene was represented by the Ecuador basin, explaining 31.9% of the
234 variances and was characterized by the Haemulidae, Paralichthyidae, Clupeidae, Congridae,
235 and Sciaenidae genera. PC2 in this age was from Panama and Costa Rica, which explained
236 20.7% of the variance, and the fish assemblage was represented by the Myctophidae genera.
237 The first two PCA axes explained 52.6% of the variability (Fig. 6, Table 4).

238 During the Pleistocene, PC1 from the Panama and Costa Rica basins explained 62.2% of
239 the variance, as characterized by the dominance of Myctophidae and Ophidiidae genera,
240 whereas PC2 from the Panama basin explained 23.9 % of the variance, being dominated by
241 the Bythitidae and Ophidiidae genera. The first two PCA axes explained 86.1% of the
242 variability (Fig. 7, Table 5).

243 3.3. Context of taxa by paleoenvironment

244 Most of the genera evaluated in this study inhabited shallow tropical waters of a less than
245 100 m depth (e.g., Ariidae and Sciaenidae). However, exceptional fish faunas represented by
246 open marine mesopelagic Myctophidae have been recorded from coastal marine
247 paleoenvironments with upwelling influences. Other genera are typical pelagic fish during the
248 adult stage, but during their juvenile stage, these genera were found near the coast (e.g.,
249 Carangidae and Clupeidae). There was a high diversity of fish associated with soft bottoms
250 (e.g., Paralychthidae and Cynoglossidae), rocky bottoms, and/or coral reefs (e.g., Sparidae
251 and Haemulidae), and brackish and/or estuarine areas (e.g., Mugilidae and Centropomidae)
252 (Tables 2–6).

253 3.4. Potential use of a fish assemblage in the geochronological approach

254 In this study, we registered exceptional records of extinct species from a specific
255 stratigraphic age. Examples include †*Frizzellithus* Schwarzhans, 1993 and †*Protonebris*
256 Aguilera, Schwarzhans and Béarez, 2016, occurring exclusively in the early Miocene;
257 †*Amazonsciaena* Aguilera, Schwarzhans and Béarez, 2016 occurring only in the middle
258 Miocene; and †*Cantarius* Aguilera, Moraes-Santos, Costa, Ohe, Jaramillo and Nogueira,
259 2013, †*Equetulus* Aguilera and Schwarzhans, 2014, †*Protolarimus* Aguilera and
260 Schwarzhans, 2014 and †*Xenotolithus* Schwarzhans, 1993, from the early Miocene to late

261 Miocene. Representative images of these fossil genera are included in Figure 8. All records
262 are consistent in the tropical American Neogene basins (Supplementary figure 1, 2).

263 *3.5 Average taxonomic distinctness and variation of the taxonomic distinctness*

264 The $\Delta+$ represented in these areas of tropical America was 55. The $\Delta+$ model built at the
265 sedimentary basin level showed that most of the values within the 95% confidence intervals
266 were statistically different, except for the late Miocene of Costa Rica, Pliocene of Venezuela,
267 and Pleistocene of the Ecuador and Trinidad basins (Fig. 9.1). The index of $\Delta+$ followed the
268 same behavior, where the sedimentary basins were within the 95% confidence interval. The
269 early and late Miocene of Trinidad (greater variation of the taxonomic distinctness $\Delta+$), early
270 Miocene of Colombia, late Miocene and Pleistocene of Ecuador, and Pliocene of Venezuela,
271 which are located outside of the trusted channel (Fig. 9.2).

272

273 **4. Discussion**

274 **4.1 Paleoeology**

275 The fossil teleostean fish assemblage from tropical America during the early Miocene to the
276 Pleistocene is characterized by a high diversity of genera that inhabit coastal marine
277 environments. The 169 genera recorded from nine sedimentary basins include 158 extant and
278 11 extinct genera reflecting a wide geographical distribution, heterogeneous environments,
279 and different stratigraphic arrangements.

280 The number of recognized teleostean genera increased from the early Miocene to the late
281 Miocene (125 genera) and then decreased toward the Pliocene (115 genera) (Fig. 10). This
282 was consistent with observations made from fossil sharks and ray diversity from the Neogene
283 of the tropical Americas (Carrillo-Briceño et al., 2018) and mollusks (Jackson et al., 1993),

284 the latter of which reached its highest abundance and diversity during the late Miocene in
285 Panama.

286 The families that presented the greatest number of genera throughout all ages were as
287 follows: Sciaenidae [inner shelf, estuarine freshwater, common in Angostura, Cantaure,
288 Canoa, Cercado, Gatun and Manzanilla formations, and dominant in Pirabas Urumaco and
289 Rio Banano formations (Aguilera et al., 2016)], Myctophidae [mesopelagic, common in
290 Brasso, Cantaure, Gurabo, Mao and Onzole formations, and dominant in Armuelles, Bowden,
291 Burica, Cayo Agua, Cercado, Chagres, Cubagua, Escudo de Veraguas, Gurabo, Nancy Point,
292 Swan Cay, Shark Hole Point, and Tobade formations (Schwarzahns and Aguilera, 2013)],
293 Ophidiidae [benthic on shelf to bathybenthic, common in Angostura, Canoa, Cercado and
294 Onzole formations (Schwarzahns and Aguilera, 2016)], Congridae [shelf, littoral, common in
295 Baitoa, Bowden, Brasso, Cantaure, Gurabo, Manzanilla, Mao, Nariva, Pirabas, and Tamana
296 formations (Nolf, 1976; Nolf and Stringer, 1992; Nolf and Aguilera, 1998; Stringer, 1998;
297 Aguilera et al., 2014)], and Ariidae [inner shelf, estuarine, freshwater, and common in
298 Cantaure, Manzanilla, Pirabas, and Urumaco formations (Aguilera et al., 2013, 2020)].

299 The Sciaenidae dominate the generic diversity in the early Miocene, late Miocene, and
300 Pleistocene. The genera diversity of Myctophidae was dominant during the Pliocene, and
301 Ophidiidae was dominant in the middle Miocene (Fig. 11). This result shows that most
302 locations sampled for the Gatunian Province reflected a wide range of shallow marine
303 environments with an exceptional upwelling influence in coastal marine areas.

304 The dominance of Sciaenidae fossil genera in this "trans-American" marine region during
305 the Miocene to the Pleistocene could be attributed to the area being considered a
306 diversification center of Sciaenidae since at least the early Miocene (Sasaki, 1989; Xu et al.,
307 2014; Lo et al., 2015; Aguilera et al., 2016). This diversification is due to their resilience

308 under high salinities associated with their life history (Costa et al., 2014). This family inhabits
309 mostly marine shallow waters (except *Protosciaena*, which can live at depths as low as 600
310 m) as well as brackish and estuarine environments, but some are exclusively freshwater taxa
311 (Chao, 1976; Cook et al., 2012; Aguilera et al., 2016).

312 The environmental preferences of ancient to modern Sciaenidae were transitional from
313 euryhaline to marine and freshwater (Lo et al., 2015; Cooke et al., 2011). Additionally, the
314 hydrological systems located in the northern part of South America, which are associated with
315 the western Amazon mega-wetlands of Pebas and the shifts of the paleo-Amazon and paleo-
316 Orinoco, offered a favorable setting for the evolution of the Sciaenidae (Torres, 2006;
317 Beheregaray et al., 2015; Aguilera and Rodriguez de Aguilera, 2003; Aguilera et al., 2016).

318 The exceptional fish fauna diversity, as represented by open marine mesopelagic
319 Myctophidae in the Neogene Marine biota of tropical America (Schwarzahns and Aguilera,
320 2013), has been recorded from coastal marine paleoenvironments with upwelling influences
321 [e.g., the Cantaure and Cubagua formations in Venezuela (Nolf and Aguilera, 1988; Aguilera
322 and Rodrigues de Aguilera, 2001), the Cercado, Gurabo, and Mao formations in the
323 Dominican Republic (Nolf and Stringer, 1992), and the Bowden Formation in Jamaica
324 (Stringer, 1998)]. Multiple studies exist for both Holocene dredged sediments (Schwarzahns,
325 2013) and Mio-Pliocene sediments (e.g., Schwarzahns and Aguilera, 2013) where the
326 abundance of Myctophidae can directly be related to a pelagic environment. However,
327 Myctophidae are so common that one can also find specimens in shallow water environments,
328 albeit subordinately (Schwarzahns, personal communication). This result does not contradict
329 the occurrences of fossil Myctophidae in shallow water sedimentary deposits at the coastal
330 margin of Proto-Caribbean islands at the oceanfront, which is bounded by a submarine trench
331 and is influenced by oceanographic events such as the force of coastal upwelling. Opposing
332 that is the fish assemblage from the coastal plain and shallow water of the Pirabas Formation

333 in Brazil (Aguilera et al., 2014) or the fish assemblage of the Urumaco Formation in
334 Venezuela (Sánchez-Villagra and Aguilera, 2006); both do not contain a single otolith of
335 Myctophidae.

336 **4.2. Geochronological correlation of fauna**

337 The faunal changes along the geochronological sequence in Neogene tropical America
338 basins following unequivocal paleoenvironmental associations were in accordance with the
339 following points: (1) The early Miocene evolutionary response (turnover) to the global
340 cooling episode and the Mi-1 glaciation (Stewart et al., 2017; Egger et al., 2018) during the
341 Oligocene-Miocene, as characterized by the South Caribbean (Venezuela and Colombia
342 Basin) show a Western central Atlantic corridor faunal assemblage. (2) The middle Miocene
343 assemblage relationship of the tropical Atlantic corridor was characterized by the Trinidad
344 and Brazil basins and their associated fauna, with connectivity to the sedimentary basin of
345 Ecuador (Fig.12). (3) The Trinidad assemblages from the middle Miocene, with the influence
346 of the Atlantic/Pacific seaway, were replaced by the Caribbean group (Panama, Dominican
347 Republic and Venezuela) in the Late Miocene as consequence of the Andes uplift, the origin
348 of the transcontinental Amazon River, and the onset of the Amazon delta. (4) The Panama and
349 Costa Rica Pliocene assemblages form a strongly linked Central America group separated
350 from an Ecuadorian group, and the Caribbean islands (Trinidad, the Dominican Republic, and
351 Venezuela) show an additional group. These new arrangements appear to be closely related to
352 the uplift of the Isthmus of Panama and the generic diversification (turnover). (5) The
353 Pleistocene assemblages are the new faunal arrangement for the Caribbean (Costa Rica and
354 Panama) with fauna from Ecuador (Fig.13). The paleoceanographic, geographic,
355 hydrographic, and climate changes are unique natural conditions showing that the marine
356 fauna can be the best macroevolutionary response to the environmental changes.

357 **4.3. Chrono-bioindicators**

358 Until now, otoliths of fossil fishes have been used for biostratigraphic purposes, but
359 admittedly with mixed results. Unpreserved or eroded otolith and disarticulate fish skeletons
360 (mostly not diagnostic) as well as gaps without a uniform distribution into the rock matrix are
361 the main obstacles to an accurate validation. However, the use of fossil otoliths as a
362 geochronological approach from the Neogene tropical America (Fig. 3) suggest that six
363 genera of Sciaenidae and one of Ariidae are useful for stratigraphic purposes at the genus
364 level. The Sciaenidae genera are represented by †*Frizzellithus* (Cantaure FM, Venezuela;
365 Castillete and Jimol FMs, Colombia) and †*Protonebris* (Castillo FM, Venezuela) recorded
366 exclusively from the early Miocene, †*Amazonasciaena* (Pirabas FM, Brasil), exclusively from
367 the middle Miocene, and †*Equetulus* (Pirabas FM, Brasil; Castillete FM, Colombia; Cantaure
368 and Urumaco FMs, Venezuela; Taira and Gatún FMs; Panama and Angostura FM, Ecuador),
369 †*Protolarimus* (Cantaure and Urumaco FM Venezuela, Castillete FM Colombia) and
370 †*Xenotolithus* (Pirabas FM, Brasil; Manzanilla and Brasso FM, Trinidad), which ranged from
371 the early Miocene to the late Miocene. The Ariidae are represented by †*Cantarius* (Cantaure
372 FM, Venezuela; Castillete FM, Colombia), which ranged from the early Miocene to the late
373 Miocene. Aguilera et al. (2016) noted that because of their high speciation, the diversification
374 and extinction of individual lineages in the evolution of Sciaenidae presented a rich and dense
375 otolith record, whose distribution may be related to paleoenvironmental changes in time and
376 space.

377 **4.4. Taxonomic relationship**

378 During the late Miocene, the fish of Panama had the highest taxonomic distinctness
379 (Fig.10) compared to the other basins, and had relatively high richness, which implied that
380 this type of marine system had paleoenvironmental characteristics that allowed a more diverse

381 ichthyofauna. Unlike sedimentary basins that had values below the confidence limit, these
382 samples may be associated with possible habitat disturbances because some habitat types may
383 have naturally lower taxonomic distinction values than others. According to Clarke and
384 Warwick (1998), taxonomic distinction values do not fall below the lower limit of the 'funnel'
385 unless the habitats degrade in some way. For example, the fish assemblages from the central
386 Atlantic-South Caribbean corridor supported by Colombia early Miocene (COEM) and
387 Trinidad early Miocene (TEM) diversity were affected by the marine assemblage of a fluvial-
388 deltaic system of the mega-Amazon (Wesselingh et al., 2001; Hoorn, 2010). In the Pliocene
389 Ecuador (EPE), a cyclic sedimentation pattern that may be interpreted as repeated sea-level
390 oscillations (Cantalamessa et al., 2005) that probably affected the taxonomic structures of the
391 fishes.

392

393 **5. Conclusion**

394 A complete statistical approach of otolith records from the Neogene of the tropical Americas
395 reveals abundant and diverse demersal fish from all included basins. Sciaenidae and Ariidae
396 were important elements in all Miocene and Pliocene samples and showed a consistently high
397 diversity, including regionalization, over space and time. The paleoceanographic, geographic,
398 hydrographic, and climate changes triggered the turnover and the diversity of present day
399 tropical amphiamerican fish fauna.

400

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418

419 Author contributions

420 EGC and OA conceived and designed the project. EGC, MR, FR, and OA designed
421 and performed the experiments. FR and OA performed the field trip and sample
422 collection. EGC, FR, MR, and OA analyzed the context of the information. EGC and OA
423 wrote the paper. EGC, MR, FR, and OA revised and edited the manuscript.

424

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716 **Figures, tables and legends**

717 Fig. 1. Maps of the sampled regions. 1. Ecuador (1.1) and Brazil (1.2); 2. Costa Rica (2.1)
718 and Panama (2.2–2.5); 3. Colombia (3.1), Venezuela (3.2–3.3), Trinidad (3.4) and the
719 Dominican Republic (3.5); and 4. Jamaica. (Modified from Aguilera et al., 2016).

720 Fig. 2. Stratigraphic correlation chart depicting stratigraphic positions of otoliths obtained
721 from the countries and basins of the tropical Americas. (Modified from Schwarzahns and
722 Aguilera, 2013; Aguilera et al., 2016).

723 Fig. 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) arranged by genera (blue) and country-basin
724 (red) from the early Miocene of tropical America. Abbreviations, COEM: Colombia early
725 Miocene; DEM: the Dominican Republic early Miocene; TEM: Trinidad early Miocene;
726 and VEM: Venezuela early Miocene (for genera abbreviation see Table 1).

727 Fig. 4. Principal components analysis (PCA) arranged by genera (blue) and country-basin
728 (red) from the middle Miocene of tropical America. Abbreviation, BMM: Brazil middle

729 Miocene; CRMM: Costa Rica middle Miocene; EMM: Ecuador middle Miocene; and
730 TMM: Trinidad middle Miocene (for genera abbreviation see Table 2).

731 Fig. 5. Principal components analysis (PCA) arranged by genera (blue) and country-basin
732 (red) from the late Miocene of tropical America. Abbreviation, CRLM: Costa Rica late
733 Miocene; DLM: Dominican Republic late Miocene; ELM: Ecuador late Miocene; PLM:
734 Panama late Miocene; TLM: Trinidad late Miocene; and VLM: Venezuela late Miocene;
735 (for genera abbreviation see Table 3).

736 Fig. 6. Principal components analysis (PCA) arranged by genera (blue) and country-basin
737 (red) from the Pliocene of tropical America. Abbreviation, CRPI: Costa Rica Pliocene;
738 DPI: The Dominican Republic Pliocene; EPI: Ecuador Pliocene; JPI: Jamaica Pliocene;
739 PPI: Panama Pliocene; TPI: Trinidad Pliocene; and VPI: Venezuela Pliocene (for genera
740 abbreviation see Table 4).

741 Fig. 7. Principal components analysis (PCA) arranged by genera (blue) and country-basin
742 (red) from the Pleistocene of tropical America. Abbreviation, CRPE: Costa Rica
743 Pleistocene; EPE: Ecuador Pleistocene; PPE: Panama Pleistocene; TPE: Trinidad
744 Pleistocene; and VPE: Venezuela Pleistocene (for genera abbreviation see Table 5).

745 Fig. 8. Selected Ariidae and Sciaenidae otoliths from the Neogene of tropical America as a
746 potential geochronological fossil guide. 1–3, *Cantarius nolfi* Aguilera, Moraes-Santos,
747 Costa, Ohe, Jaramillo and Nogueira, 2013, Castilletes FM, early Miocene, Colombia; 4–5.
748 *Amazonasciaena rossettiae* (Aguilera and Schwarzahns, 2014), Pirabas FM, middle
749 Miocene, Brazil; 6–7, *Frizzellithus longicaudatus* (Nolf and Aguilera, 1998), Castilletes
750 FM, early Miocene, Colombia; 8–9, *Equetulus amazonensis* Aguilera and Schwarzahns,
751 2014, Pirabas FM, middle Miocene, Brazil; 10–12, *Equetulus davidandrewi* (Nolf and

752 Aguilera, 1998), Cantaure FM, early Miocene, Venezuela; 13, *Equetulus fitchi*
 753 (Schwarzahns, 1993), Manzanilla FM, late Miocene, Trinidad; 14–16, *Protolarimus*
 754 *henrici* (Nolf and Aguilera, 1998), Cantaure FM, early Miocene, Venezuela; 17–18,
 755 *Protolarimus? mauryae* Aguilera and Schwarzahns, 2014; Pirabas FM, middle Miocene,
 756 Brazil; 19–21, *Xenolithus retrolobatus* Aguilera and Schwarzahns, 2014, Pirabas FM,
 757 middle Miocene, Brazil; 22–24, *Xenolithus sasakii* Schwarzahns, 1993, Manzanilla
 758 FM, late Miocene, Trinidad; 25–27, *Xenolithus sineostialis* Aguilera, Schwarzahns and
 759 Bearez, 2016, Manzanilla FM, late Miocene, Trinidad. Scale bar = 2 mm. (Original
 760 Sciaenidae photos courtesy of W. Schwarzahns and modified from Aguilera et al. 2014).

761 Fig. 9. Average taxonomic distinctness ($\Delta+$) and variation of the taxonomic distinctness
 762 ($\Lambda+$) (1 and 2, respectively) for the fish groups of the sites sampled from the Miocene to
 763 the Pleistocene of tropical America. A 95% confidence funnel obtained from the global
 764 species list is shown in continuous lines and the theoretical average of $\Delta+$ and $\Lambda+$ is
 765 shown in a segmented line.

766 Fig. 10. Stratigraphical frequency of fossil fish genera in the Neogene Tropical Western
 767 Central Atlantic and Tropical Eastern Pacific. Green: observed, blue: projected, and
 768 yellow: extinct. EM: early Miocene; MM: middle Miocene; LM: late Miocene; PI:
 769 Pliocene; and PE: Pleistocene.

770 Fig. 11. Geochronologic sequence of sedimentary basins by country-age of tropical America.
 771 Early Miocene (Colombia, the Dominican Republic, Trinidad and Venezuela) to middle
 772 Miocene (Brasil, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Trinidad and Venezuela).

773 Fig. 12. Geochronologic sequence of sedimentary basins by country-age of tropical America.
 774 Late Miocene (Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Panama, Trinidad and

775 Venezuela), Pliocene (Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Jamaica, Panama,
776 Trinidad and Venezuela) and Pleistocene (Costa Rica, Ecuador, Jamaica Panama and
777 Venezuela).

778 Fig. 13. Most frequent families with the highest number of genera of tropical American fish.

779 EM: early Miocene; MM: middle Miocene; LM: late Miocene; PI: Pliocene; PE:
780 Pleistocene. green: Sciaenidae, orange: Myctophidae, gray: Ophidiidae, yellow:
781 Congridae, blue: Ariidae

782 Table 1. Early Miocene abbreviations and remarks used in Figure 3.

783 Table 2. Middle Miocene abbreviations and remarks used in Figure 4.

784 Table 3. Late Miocene abbreviations and remarks used in Figure 5.

785 Table 4. Pliocene abbreviations and remarks used in Figure 6.

786 Table 5. Pleistocene abbreviations and remarks used in Figure 7.

787

788 **Supplementary material**

789 Supplementary table 1. References of fossil fish records by authors, formations, ages,
790 countries, and basins. (Modified of Aguilera et al., 2011)

791 Supplementary table 2. Fossil otoliths of fish organized by country, family, genera, ID and
792 age.

793 Supplementary figure 1. Fossil otoliths fish of tropical Americas and geochronological
794 distribution of families and genera.

795 Supplementary figure 2. Fossil otoliths fish of tropical Americas and geochronological
796 distribution of families and genera.

797

Journal Pre-proof

Early Miocene

Axis 1					Continue...				
Venezuela Basin (VEM)					Colombian Basin (COEM)				
ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat	ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat
ALBU	Albulidae	<i>Albula</i>	0.1298	Demersal	PLOT	Plotosidae	<i>Plotosus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
APOG	Apogonidae	<i>Apogon</i>	0.1298	Reef-associated	POLX	Polymixiidae	<i>Polymixia</i>	0.1298	Demersal
ARIOP	Ariidae	<i>Ariopsis</i>	0.1298	Demersal	ILIS	Pristigasteridae	<i>Ilissha</i>	0.1298	Pelagic
BAGR	Ariidae	<i>Bagre</i>	0.1298	Demersal	NEOP	Pristigasteridae	<i>Neoopisthopterus</i>	0.1298	Pelagic
CANT	Ariidae	† <i>Cantarius</i>	0.1298	†	APLO	Sciaenidae	<i>Aplodinotus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
CATH	Ariidae	<i>Cathorops</i>	0.1298	Demersal	ATRA	Sciaenidae	<i>Atractoscion</i>	0.1298	Demersal
NOTA	Ariidae	<i>Notarius</i>	0.1298	Demersal	EQUE	Sciaenidae	† <i>Equetulus</i>	0.1298	†
PORI	Batrachoididae	<i>Porichthys</i>	0.1298	Demersal	FRIZ	Sciaenidae	† <i>Frizzellithus</i>	0.1298	†
BREG	Bregmacerotidae	<i>Bregmaceros</i>	0.1298	Demersal	LARI	Sciaenidae	<i>Larimus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
TRAC	Carangidae	<i>Trachurus</i>	0.1298	Demersal	PANE	Sciaenidae	<i>Paranebris</i>	0.1298	Demersal
HARE	Clupeidae	<i>Harengula</i>	0.1298	Pelagic	PARL	Sciaenidae	<i>Paralonchurus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
OPIS	Clupeidae	<i>Opisthonema</i>	0.1298	Pelagic	PARQ	Sciaenidae	<i>Pareques</i>	0.1298	Demersal
PELL	Clupeidae	<i>Pellona</i>	0.1298	Pelagic	PLAG	Sciaenidae	<i>Plagioscion</i>	0.1298	Demersal
CONG	Congridae	<i>Conger</i>	0.1298	Demersal	PLAR	Sciaenidae	† <i>Protolarimus</i>	0.1298	†
HILD	Congridae	<i>Hildebrandia</i>	0.1298	Demersal	PLYC	Sciaenidae	<i>Polycirrus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
PCON	Congridae	<i>Paraconger</i>	0.1298	Demersal	PRNE	Sciaenidae	<i>Protonebris</i>	0.1298	Demersal
CHIL	Diodontidae	<i>Chilomycterus</i>	0.1298	Demersal	PROT	Sciaenidae	<i>Protosciaena</i>	0.1298	Demersal
ORTH	Haemulidae	<i>Orthopristis</i>	0.1298	Demersal	STEL	Sciaenidae	<i>Stellifer</i>	0.1298	Demersal
HYPO	Hemirhamphidae	<i>Hyporhamphus</i>	0.1298	Pelagic	ANCH	Sparidae	<i>Archosargus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
PYTH	Heterenchelyidae	<i>Pythonichthys</i>	0.1298	Demersal	SPAD	Sparidae	<i>Sparidarum</i>	0.1298	Demersal
MYRI	Holocentridae	<i>Myripristis</i>	0.1298	Demersal	SPHYA	Sphyraenidae	<i>Sphyraena</i>	0.1298	Demersal
LACT	Lactariidae	<i>Lactarius</i>	0.1298	Mesopelagic	PEPR	Stromatidae	<i>Peprilus</i>	0.1298	Demersal
LOBO	Lobotidae	<i>Lobotes</i>	0.1298	Demersal					
OCYU	Lutjanidae	<i>Ocyurus</i>	0.1298	Reef-associated					
STEI	Merlucciidae	<i>Steindachneria</i>	0.1298	Demersal					
MUGI	Mugilidae	<i>Mugil</i>	0.1298	Demersal	ARIO	Ariidae	<i>Ariopsis</i>	0.1503	Demersal
UPEN	Mullidae	<i>Upeneus</i>	0.1298	Demersal	DIAP	Myctophidae	<i>Diaphus</i>	0.1503	Mesopelagic
CERA	Myctophidae	<i>Ceratoscopelus</i>	0.1298	Mesopelagic	HYGO	Myctophidae	<i>Hygophum</i>	0.1503	Mesopelagic
MYCT	Myctophidae	<i>Myctophum</i>	0.1298	Mesopelagic	OPHS	Sciaenidae	<i>Ophioscion</i>	0.1503	Demersal
OPIG	Opistognathidae	<i>Opistognathus</i>	0.1298	Demersal	CENT	Engraulidae	<i>Cetengraulis</i>	-0.2254	Pelagic
CITH	Paralichthyidae	<i>Citharichthys</i>	0.1298	Demersal	LUTJ	Lutjanidae	<i>Lutjanus</i>	-0.2254	Demersal
BEMB	Percophidae	<i>Bembrops</i>	0.1298	Demersal	SNYD	Carapidae	<i>Snyderidia</i>	-0.2254	Demersal
					UMBR	Sciaenidae	<i>Umbrina</i>	-0.2254	Demersal

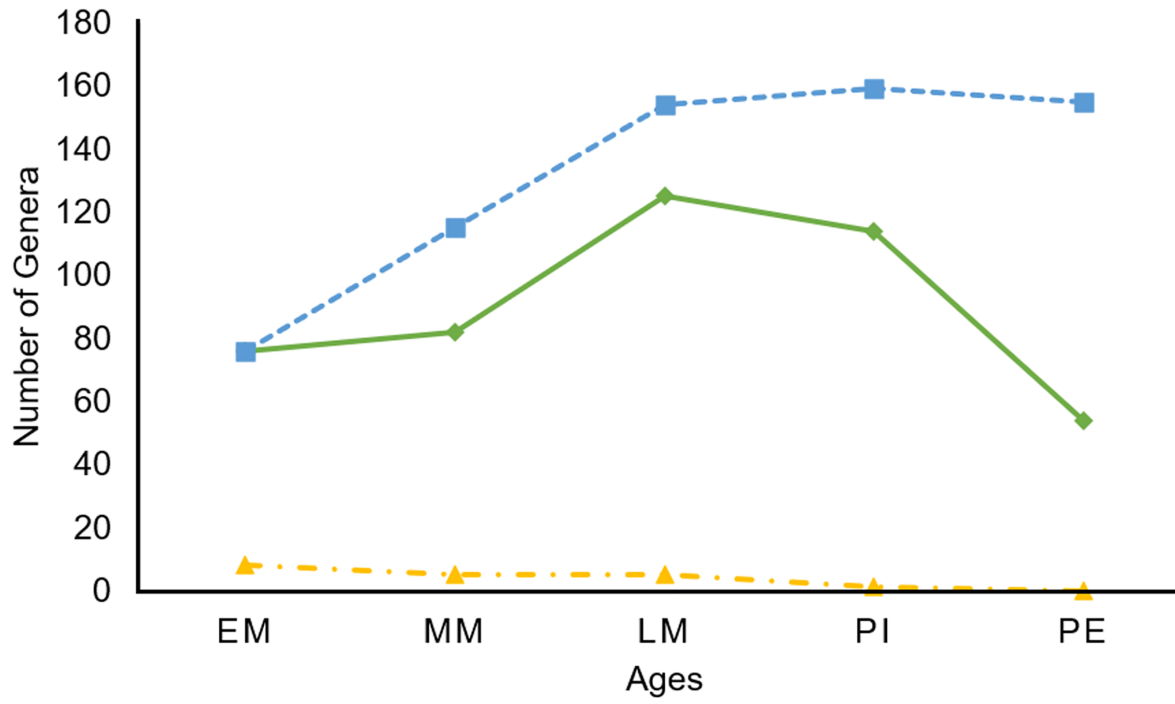
Late Miocene

Late Miocene										
Panamá and Venezuela basins (PLM and VLM)					Continue...					
Axis 1	ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat	ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat
	PRAS	Acropomatidae	<i>Parascombrops</i>	0.1312	Demersal	CITH	Paralichthyidae	<i>Citharichthys</i>	0.1312	Demersal
	APOG	Apogonidae	<i>Apogon</i>	0.1104	Reef-associated	SYAC	Paralichthyidae	<i>Syacium</i>	0.1312	Demersal
	BAGR	Ariidae	<i>Bagre</i>	0.1312	Demersal	PRTO	Sciaenidae	<i>Protosciaena</i>	0.1492	Demersal
	MEMB	Atherinidae	<i>Membras</i>	0.1312	Pelagic	SCIA	Sciaenidae	<i>Sciaena</i>	0.1312	Demersal
	BREG	Bregmacerotidae	<i>Bregmaceros</i>	0.1492	Demersal	CTEN	Sciaenidae	<i>Ctenosciaena</i>	0.1104	Demersal
	TRAC	Carangidae	<i>Trachurus</i>	0.1312	Demersal	POLY	Sternoptychidae	<i>Polyipnus</i>	0.1492	Mesopelagic
	OPIB	Clupeidae	<i>Opisthonema</i>	0.1492	Pelagic	MAUR	Sternoptychidae	<i>Maurolicus</i>	0.1312	Mesopelagic
	HARE	Clupeidae	<i>Harengula</i>	0.1312	Pelagic	SAUR	Synodontidae	<i>Saurida</i>	0.1492	Demersal
	HILD	Congridae	<i>Hildebrandia</i>	0.1492	Demersal	PRIO	Triglidae	<i>Prionotus</i>	0.1492	Demersal
	ARIO	Congridae	<i>Ariosoma</i>	0.1104	Demersal	Axis 2 Dominican Republic Basin (DLM)				
	SYMP	Cynoglossidae	<i>Symphurus</i>	0.1312	Demersal	ALBU	Albulidae	<i>Albula</i>	0.1578	Demersal
	ANCH	Engraulidae	<i>Anchoa</i>	0.1312	Pelagic	ARIU	Ariidae	<i>Gen., sp. Ind.</i>	0.1373	Demersal
	ENGR	Engraulidae	<i>Engraulis</i>	0.1104	Pelagic	DINE	Bythitidae	<i>Gen., sp. Ind.</i>	0.1578	Demersal
	GERR	Gerreidae	<i>Gerres</i>	0.1312	Demersal	CALA	Bythitidae	<i>Calamopteryx</i>	0.1373	Reef-associated
	EUCI	Gerreidae	<i>Eucinostomus</i>	0.1104	Demersal	CARA	Carapidae	<i>Carapus</i>	0.1373	Demersal
	POMA	Haemulidae	<i>Pomadasys</i>	0.1492	Demersal	CYNG	Cynoglossidae	<i>Cynoglossus</i>	0.1373	Reef-associated
	ORTH	Haemulidae	<i>Orthopristis</i>	0.1312	Demersal	MOHA	Gerreidae	<i>Moharra</i>	0.1373	Demersal
	HAEM	Haemulidae	<i>Haemulon</i>	0.1104	Demersal	HYPO	Hemirhamphidae	<i>Hyporhamphus</i>	0.1373	Pelagic
	LACT	Lactariidae	<i>Lactarius</i>	0.1104	Bathydemersal	PYTH	Heterenchelyidae	<i>Pythonichthys</i>	0.1373	Demersal
	LUTJ	Lutjanidae	<i>Lutjanus</i>	0.1492	Demersal	HYGO	Myctophidae	<i>Hygophum</i>	0.1373	Mesopelagic
	STEI	Merlucciidae	<i>Steindachneria</i>	0.1312	Demersal	MYCT	Myctophidae	<i>Myctophum</i>	0.1373	Mesopelagic
	GADL	Moridae	<i>Gadella</i>	0.1312	Demersal	BROT	Ophidiidae	<i>Brotula</i>	0.1578	Demersal
	MUGI	Mugilidae	<i>Mugil</i>	0.1492	Demersal	PLOT	Plotosidae	<i>Plotosus</i>	0.1373	Demersal
	LAMP	Myctophidae	<i>Lampadena</i>	0.1312	Mesopelagic	BAIR	Sciaenidae	<i>Bairdiella</i>	0.1443	Demersal
	NEOB	Ophidiidae	<i>Neobythites</i>	0.1312	Demersal	MENT	Sciaenidae	<i>Menticirthus</i>	0.1373	Demersal
	LONC	Opistognathidae	<i>Lonchopisthus</i>	0.1492	Demersal	DIPL	Sparidae	<i>Diplodus</i>	0.1578	Demersal
	OPIG	Opistognathidae	<i>Opistognathus</i>	0.1312	Demersal					

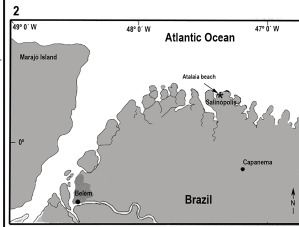
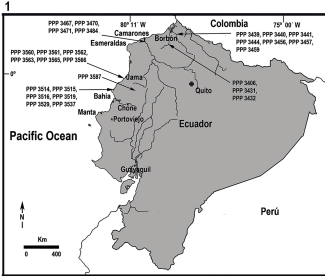
Pliocene

Axis 1					Axis 2				
Ecuador Basin (EPI)					Panama and Costa Rica basins (PPI and CRPI)				
ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat	ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat
ARIU	Anidae	<i>Gen., sp. Ind.</i>	0.1509	Demersal	PRAS	Acropomatidae	<i>Parascombrops</i>	0.2061	Demersal
PORI	Batrachoididae	<i>Porichthys</i>	0.1505	Demersal	CALA	Bythitidae	<i>Calamopteryx</i>	0.2061	Reef-associated
BREG	Bregmacerotidae	<i>Bregmaceros</i>	0.1505	Demersal	LOBI	Myctophidae	<i>Lobianchia</i>	0.2061	Demersal
TRAC	Carangidae	<i>Trachurus</i>	0.1765	Demersal	HAEM	Haemulidae	<i>Haemulon</i>	0.1869	Demersal
CETN	Centropomidae	<i>Centropomus</i>	0.1509	Demersal	ALBU	Albulidae	<i>Albula</i>	0.1775	Demersal
CLUP	Clupeidae	<i>Clupea</i>	0.1509	Pelagic	BENT	Myctophidae	<i>Benthoosema</i>	0.1775	Epipelagic
OPIS	Clupeidae	<i>Opisthonema</i>	0.1264	Pelagic	DIPL	Sparidae	<i>Diplodus</i>	0.1775	Demersal
RHEC	Congridae	<i>Rhechias</i>	0.1264	Demersal	POLY	Sternoptychidae	<i>Polyipnus</i>	0.1775	Mesopelagic
RHYG	Congridae	<i>Rhynchoconger</i>	0.1264	Demersal	SPAR	Sparidae	<i>Sparus</i>	0.1775	Demersal
SYMP	Cynoglossidae	<i>Symphurus</i>	0.1509	Demersal	NEOB	Ophidiidae	<i>Neobythites</i>	0.1583	Demersal
ANCH	Engraulidae	<i>Anchoa</i>	0.1509	Pelagic	UMBR	Sciaenidae	<i>Umbrina</i>	0.1474	Demersal
ORTH	Haemulidae	<i>Orthopristis</i>	0.1509	Demersal	SAUR	Synodontidae	<i>Saurida</i>	0.1412	Demersal
POMA	Haemulidae	<i>Pomadasy</i>	0.1509	Demersal	PLOT	Plotosidae	<i>Plotosus</i>	0.1209	Demersal
ANIS	Haemulidae	<i>Anisostrema</i>	0.1264	Reef-associated	BATH	Bathyclupeidae	<i>Bathyclupea</i>	0.1136	Demersal
LACT	Lactariidae	<i>Lactarius</i>	0.1509	Demersal	CARG	Carangidae	<i>Gen., sp. Ind.</i>	0.1136	Demersal
LUTJ	Lutjanidae	<i>Lutjanus</i>	0.1765	Demersal	GERR	Gerreidae	<i>Gerres</i>	0.1136	Demersal
STEI	Merlucciidae	<i>Steindachneria</i>	0.1765	Demersal	OCYU	Lutjanidae	<i>Ocyurus</i>	0.1136	Reef-associated
LAEM	Moridae	<i>Laemonema</i>	0.1264	Demersal	GADL	Moridae	<i>Gadella</i>	0.1136	Demersal
OPIG	Opistognathidae	<i>Opistognathus</i>	0.1509	Demersal	DION	Myctophidae	<i>Diogenichthys</i>	0.1136	Pelagic
SYAC	Paralichthyidae	<i>Syacium</i>	0.1765	Demersal	LAMP	Myctophidae	<i>Lampadena</i>	0.1136	Pelagic
CITH	Paralichthyidae	<i>Citharichthys</i>	0.1509	Demersal	TRIP	Myctophidae	<i>Triphoturus</i>	0.1136	Pelagic
ISOP	Sciaenidae	<i>Isopisthus</i>	0.1264	Demersal	MYCT	Myctophidae	<i>Myctophum</i>	0.1136	Mesopelagic
STEL	Sciaenidae	<i>Stellifer</i>	0.1264	Demersal					
MAUR	Sternoptychidae	<i>Maurollicus</i>	0.1509	Demersal					

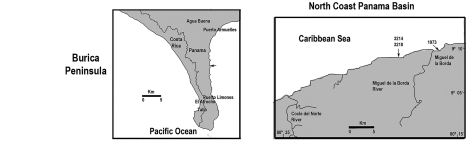
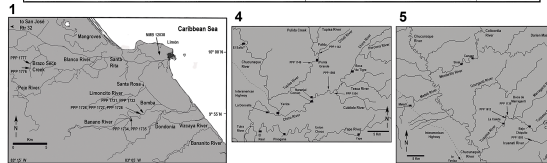
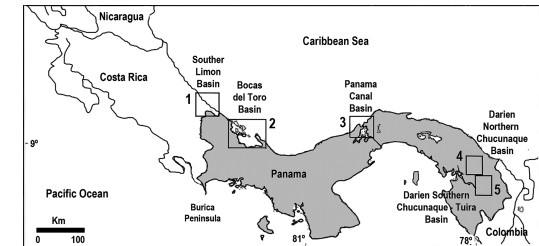
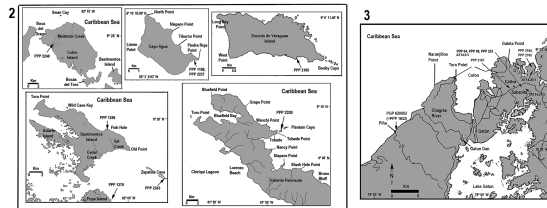
Pleistocene									
Axis 1					Continue...				
Costa Rica and Panama basins (CRPE and PPE)									
ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat	ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat
PRAS	Acropomatidae	<i>Parascombrops</i>	0.1917	Demersal	BROT	Ophidiidae	<i>Brotula</i>	0.1917	Demersal
ALBU	Albulidae	<i>Albula</i>	0.1049	Demersal	OTOP	Ophidiidae	<i>Otophidium</i>	0.1917	Demersal
APOG	Apogonidae	<i>Apogon</i>	0.1917	Reef-associated	LEPO	Ophidiidae	<i>Lepophidium</i>	0.1194	Demersal
ARIO	Ariidae	<i>Ariopsis</i>	0.1917	Demersal	NEOB	Ophidiidae	<i>Neobythites</i>	0.1049	Demersal
PORI	Batrachoididae	<i>Porichthys</i>	0.1917	Demersal	LONC	Opistognathidae	<i>Lonchopisthus</i>	0.1917	Demersal
BREG	Bregmacerotidae	<i>Bregmaceros</i>	0.1917	Demersal	OPIG	Opistognathidae	<i>Opistognathus</i>	0.1049	Demersal
CALA	Bythitidae	<i>Calamopteryx</i>	0.1049	Reef-associated	CITH	Paralichthyidae	<i>Citharichthys</i>	0.1917	Demersal
OGIB	Bythitidae	<i>Ogilbichthys</i>	0.1049	Reef-associated	SYAC	Paralichthyidae	<i>Syacium</i>	0.1917	Demersal
CETN	Centropomidae	<i>Centropomus</i>	0.1049	Demersal	PRTO	Sciaenidae	<i>Protosciaena</i>	0.1049	Demersal
PCON	Congridae	<i>Paraconger</i>	0.1049	Demersal	POLY	Sternoptychidae	<i>Polyipnus</i>	0.1917	Demersal
RHYG	Congridae	<i>Rhynchoconger</i>	0.1049	Demersal	Axis 2				
SYMP	Cynoglossidae	<i>Symphurus</i>	0.1917	Demersal	Panama Basin (PPE)				
ANCH	Engraulidae	<i>Anchoa</i>	0.1049	Pelagic	ID	Family	Genera	Score	Habitat
EUCI	Gerreidae	<i>Eucinostomus</i>	0.1049	Demersal	BOTH	Bothidae	<i>Gen. et sp. Ind.</i>	0.2114	Demersal
GOBI	Gobiidae	<i>Gen. sp. Ind.</i>	0.1917	Demersal	DINE	Bythitidae	<i>Gen. sp. Ind.</i>	0.2114	Demersal
HAEM	Haemulidae	<i>Haemulon</i>	0.1917	Demersal	ECHI	Bythitidae	<i>Echiodon</i>	0.2114	Demersal
PRTO	Lutjanidae	<i>Pristipomoides</i>	0.1917	Demersal	CLUP	Clupeidae	<i>Clupea</i>	0.2114	Pelagic
LUTJ	Lutjanidae	<i>Lutjanus</i>	0.1049	Demersal	CONG	Congridae	<i>Conger</i>	0.2114	Demersal
COEL	Macrouridae	<i>Coelorhynchus</i>	0.1917	Reef-associated	PYTH	Heterenchelyidae	<i>Pythonichthys</i>	0.2114	Demersal
STEI	Merlucciidae	<i>Steindachneria</i>	0.1049	Demersal	OCYU	Lutjanidae	<i>Ocyurus</i>	0.2114	Reef-associated
GADL	Moridae	<i>Gadella</i>	0.1917	Mesopelagic	OPHD	Ophidiidae	<i>Ophidion</i>	0.2208	Demersal
DIAP	Myctophidae	<i>Diaphus</i>	0.1917	Mesopelagic	CHER	Ophidiidae	<i>Cherublemma</i>	0.2114	Demersal
MYCT	Myctophidae	<i>Myctophum</i>	0.1917	Mesopelagic	PLOT	Plotosidae	<i>Plotosus</i>	0.2114	Demersal
BENT	Myctophidae	<i>Bentosema</i>	0.1049	Mesopelagic	SAUR	Synodontidae	<i>Saurida</i>	0.2114	Demersal



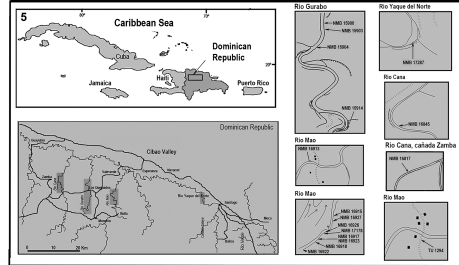
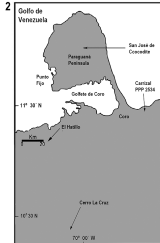
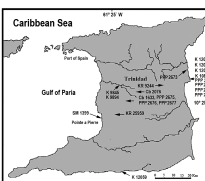
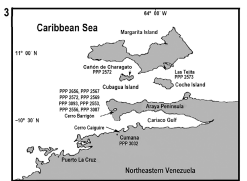
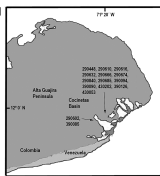
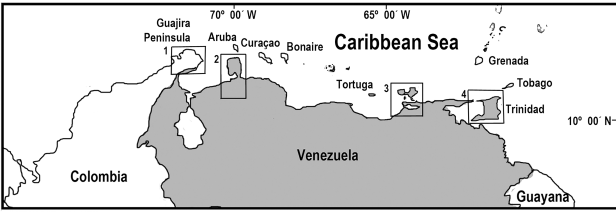
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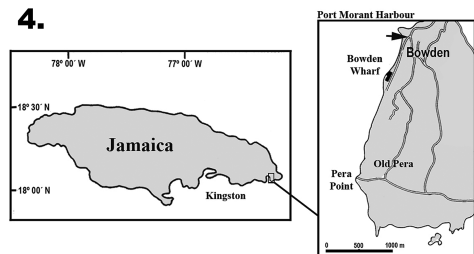
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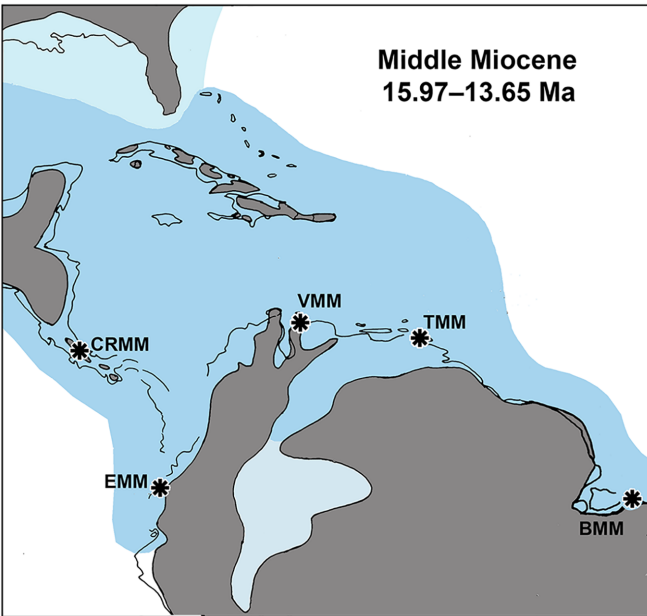
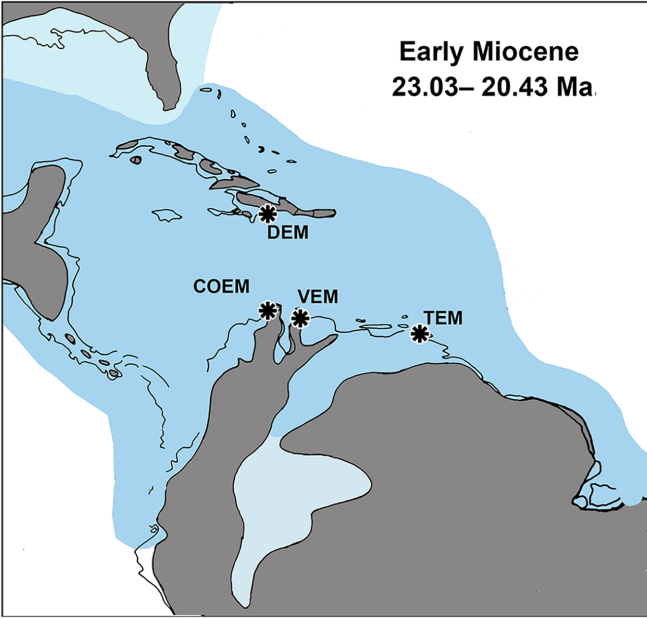


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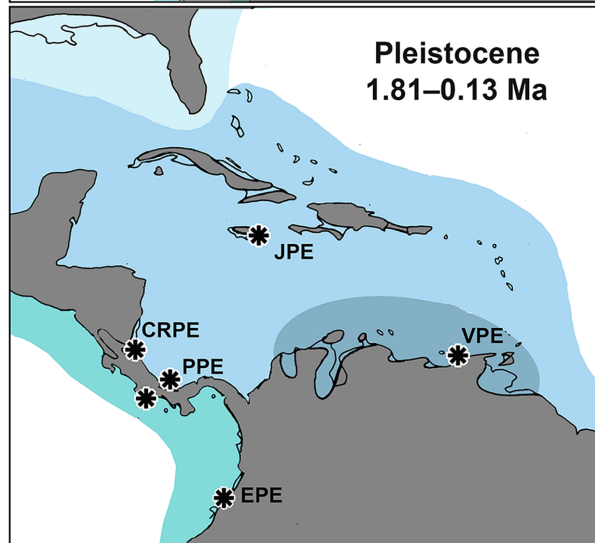
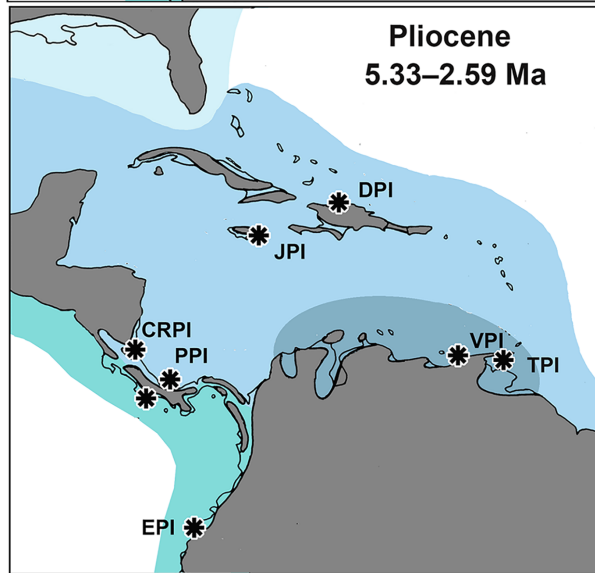
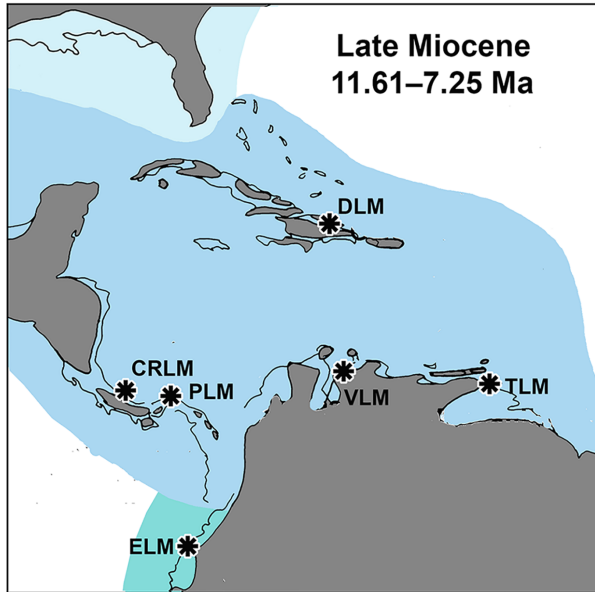


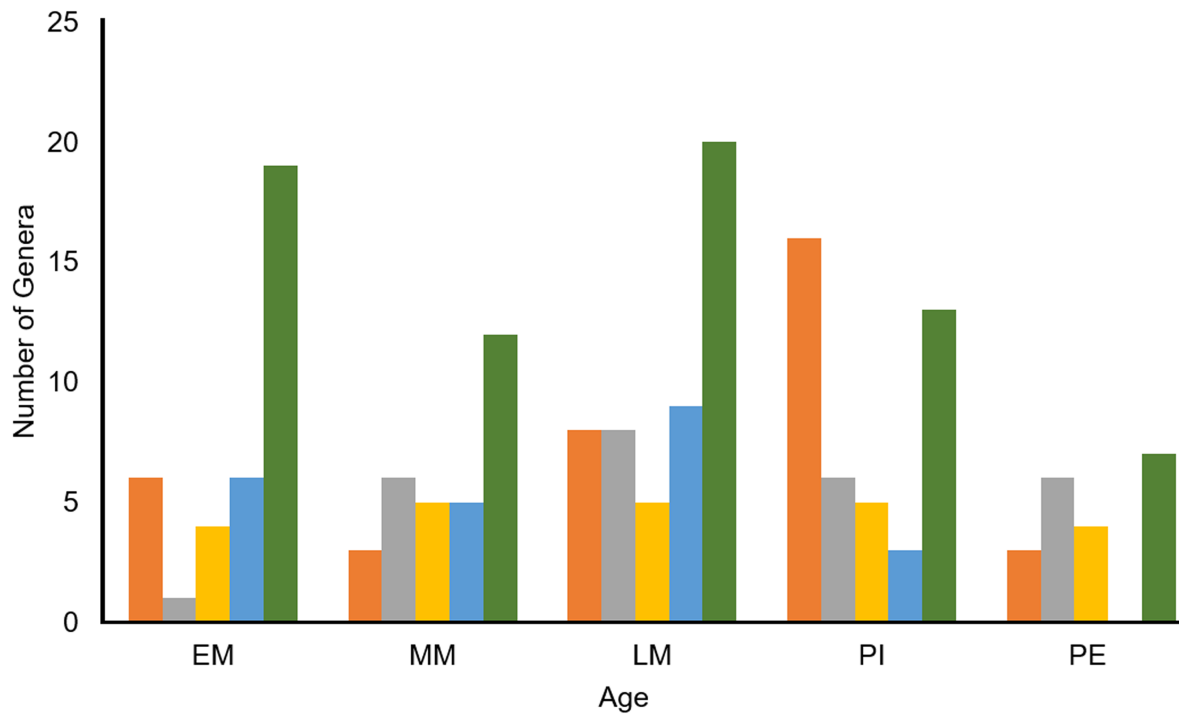
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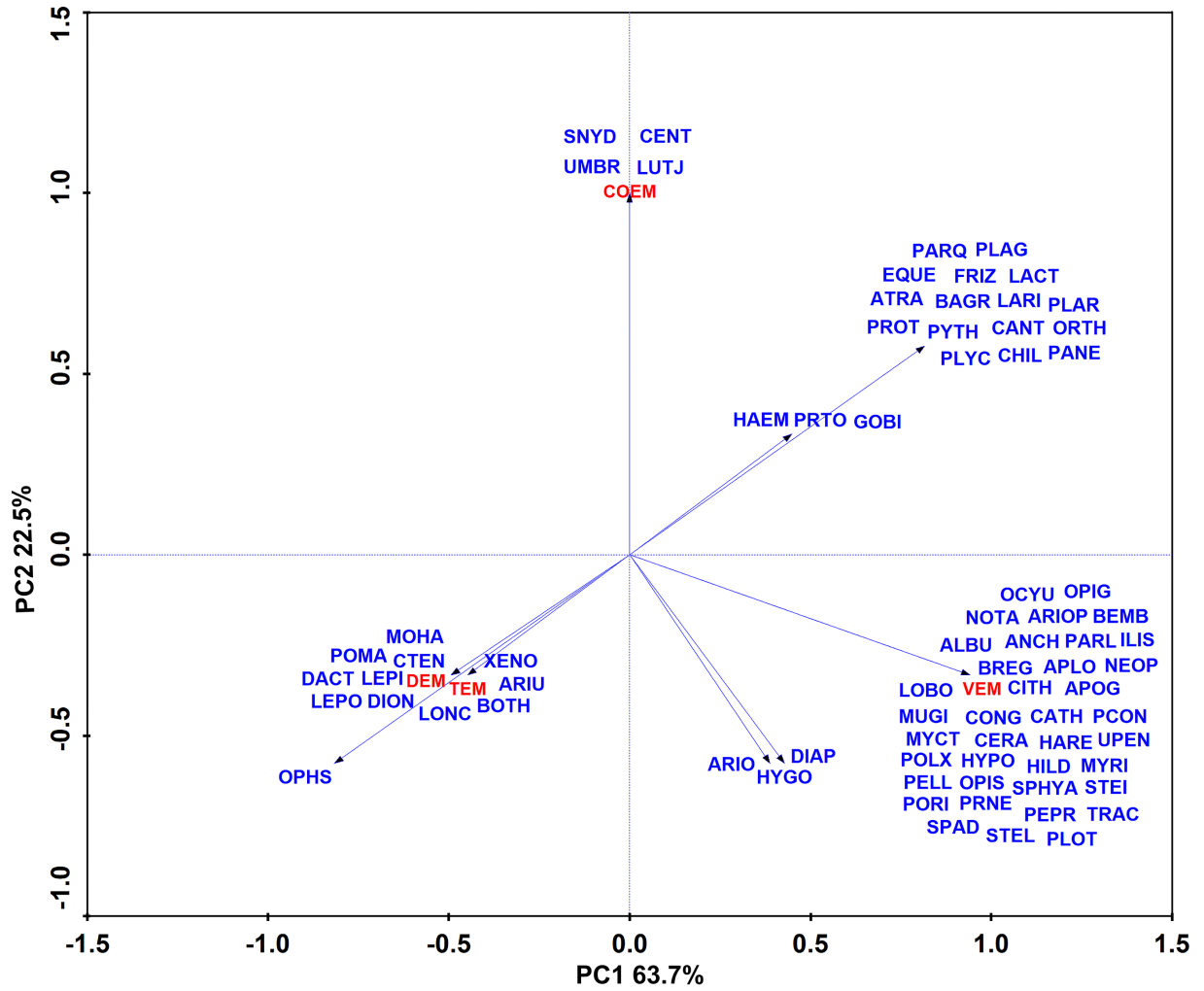


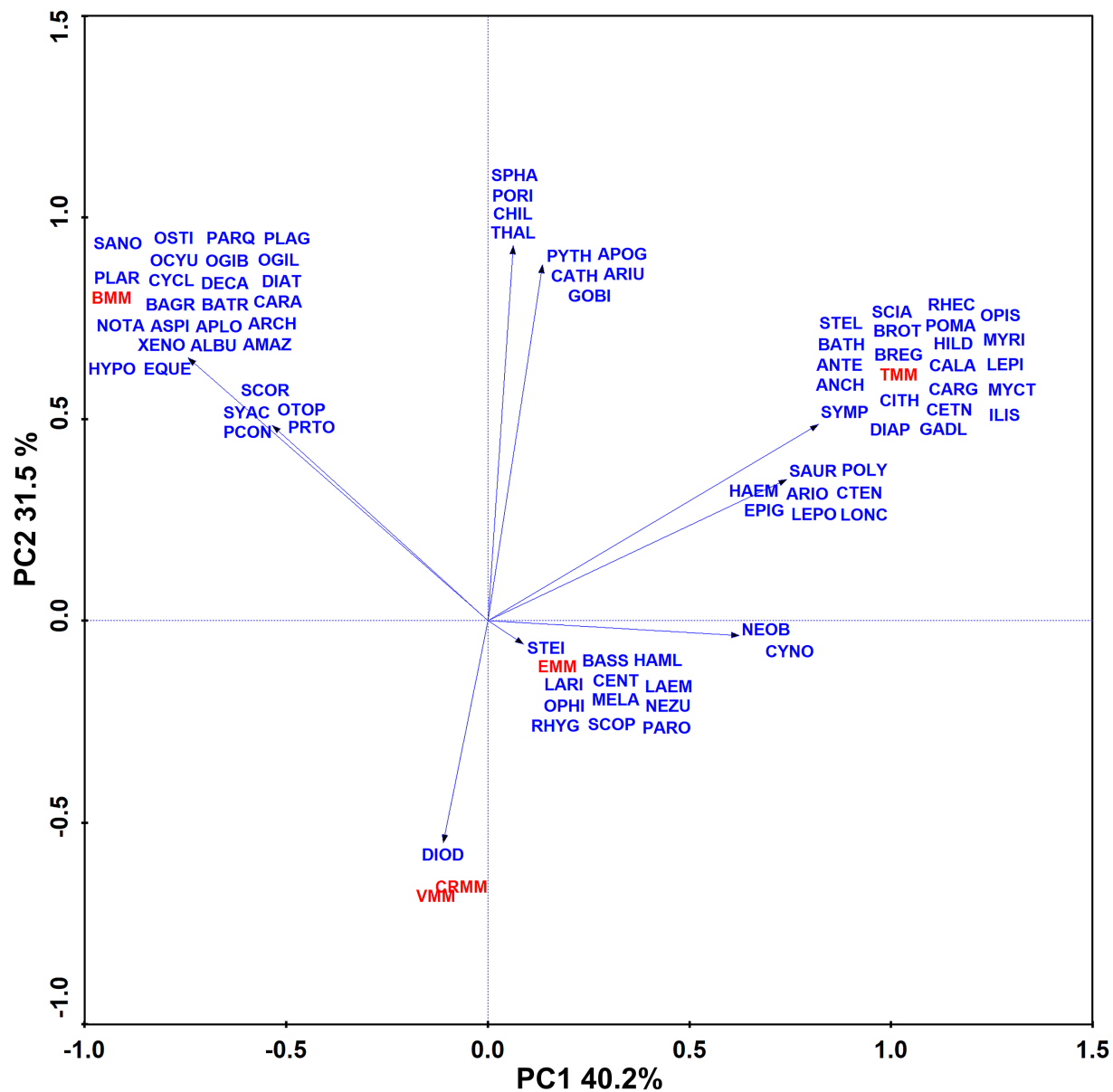
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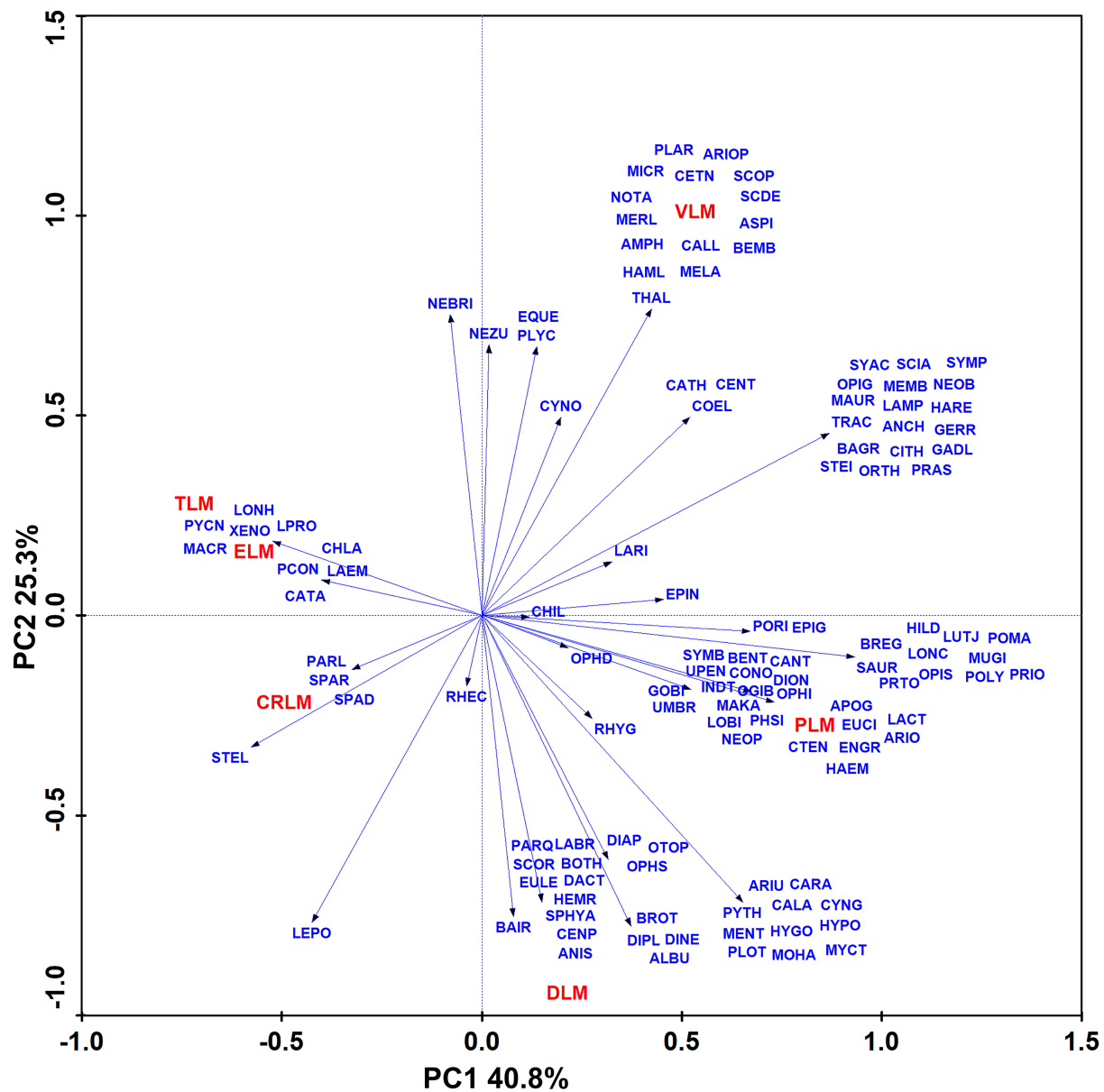


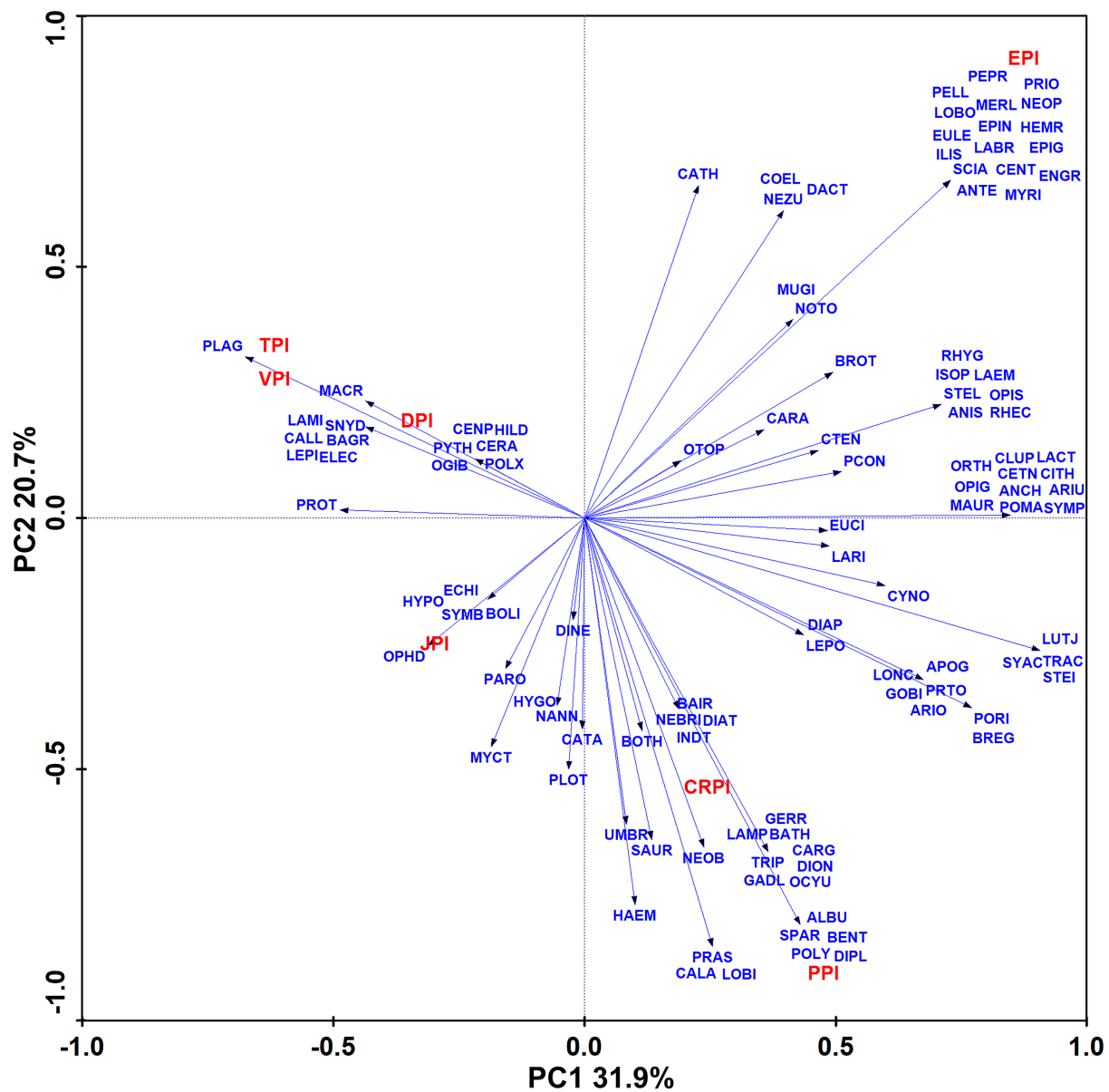


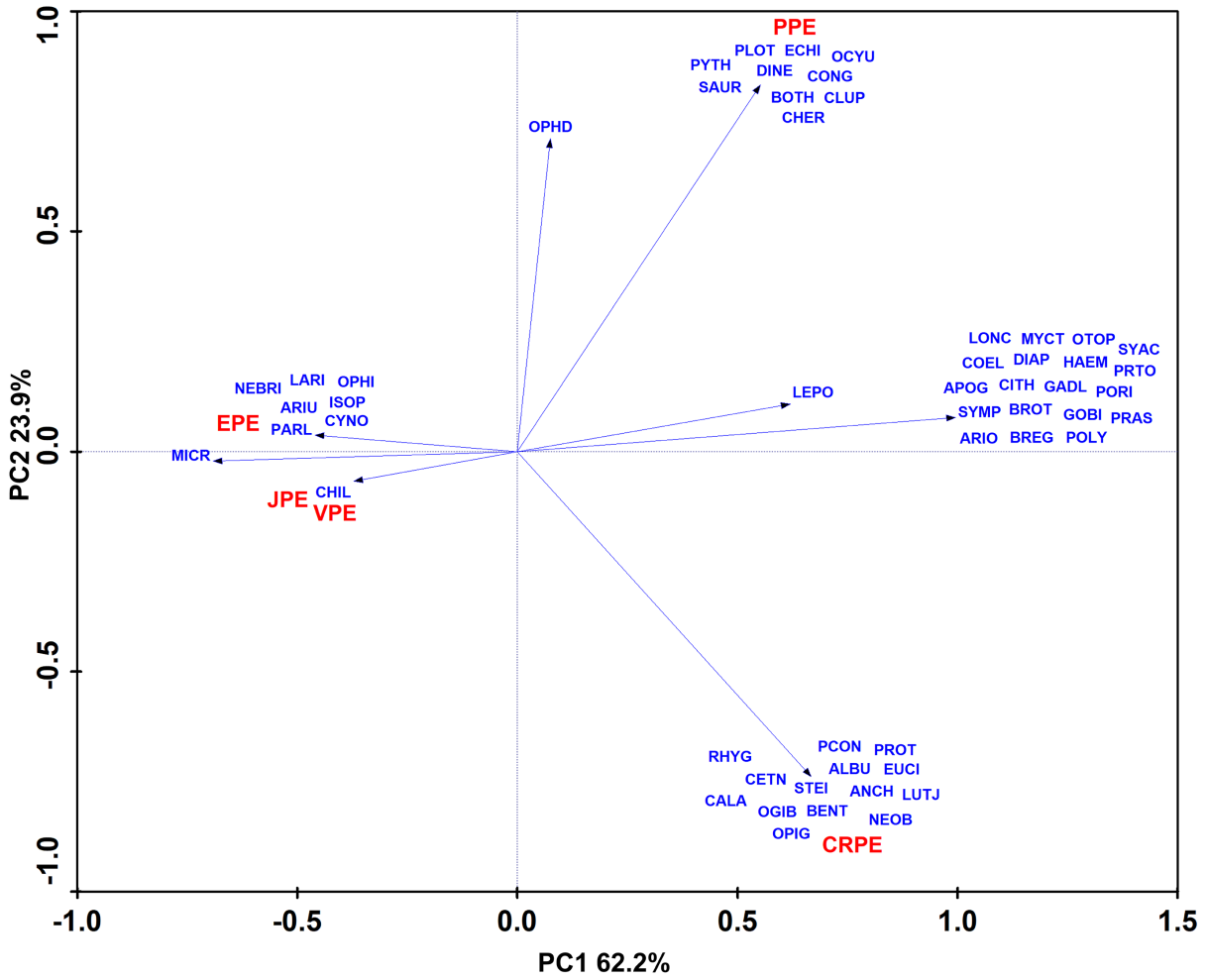
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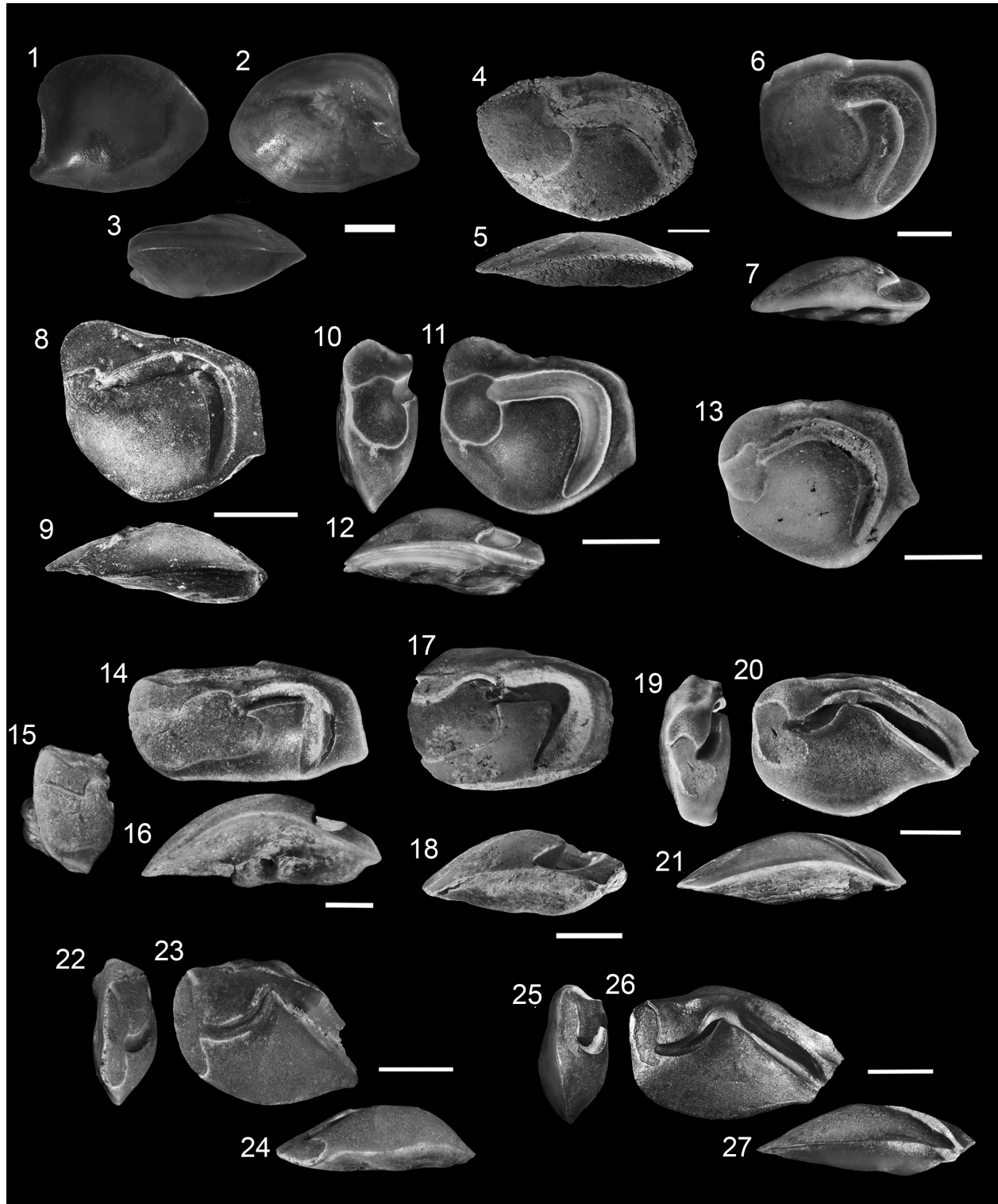


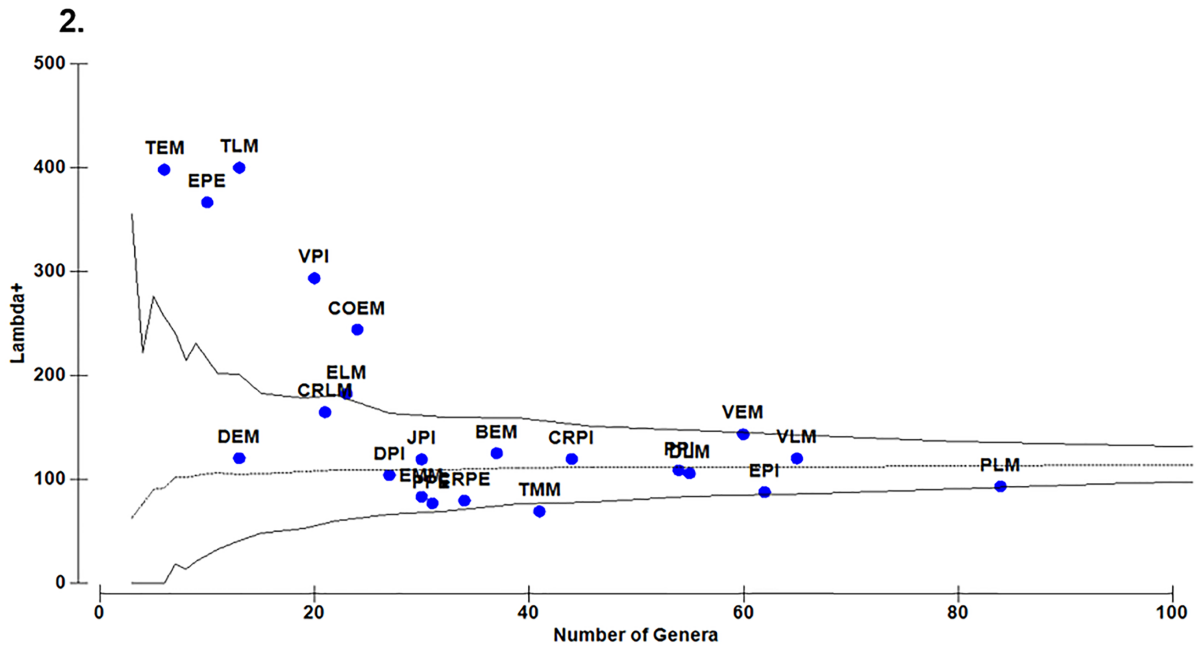
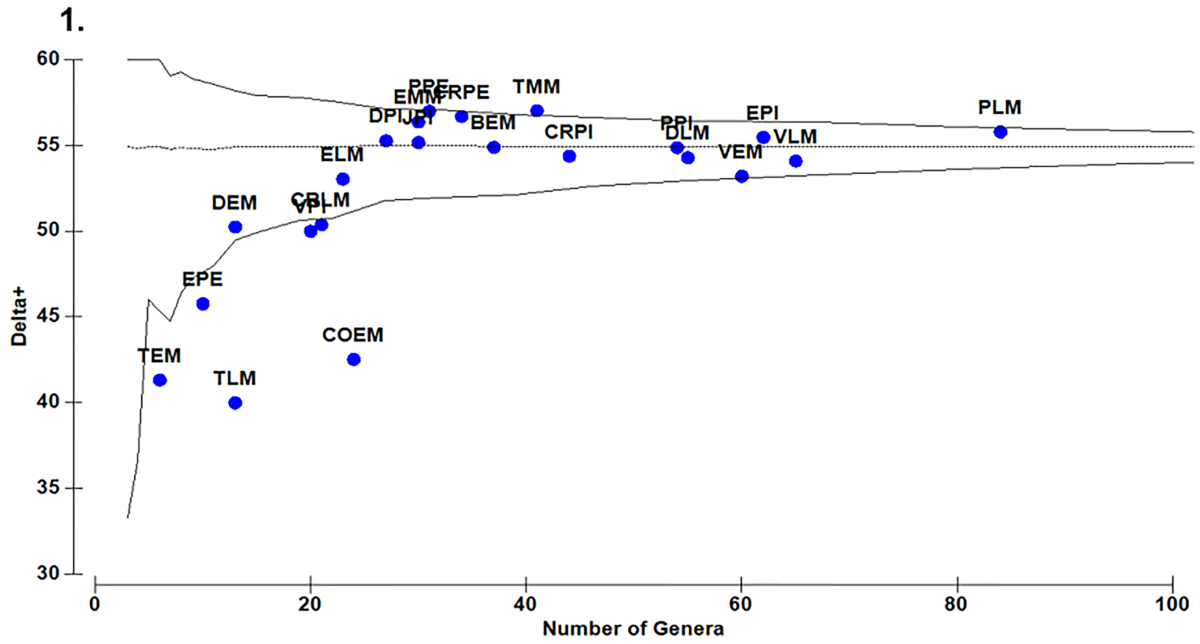












Highlights

- Review of Teleostean fossil otoliths from tropical America
- Paleobiogeographic analyses of Neogene fish assemblage
- Fish otoliths may be used as geochronoindicators

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The authors of the entitle manuscript “AMPHI-AMERICAN NEOGENE TELEOSTEAN TROPICAL FISHES ” **have no competing interests to declare.**

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