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1	Mandibular molar root and	pulp	cavity	y morphology	in Homo	naledi and	l other	Plio-Pleistocene
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- 2 hominins
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- 17
- 18 Keywords: Tooth root morphology; Root canal morphology; Homo sp.; Australopithecus africanus;
- 19 Paranthropus robustus; Paranthropus boisei

#### 21 Abstract

22 The craniomandibular morphology of Homo naledi shows variable resemblances with species 23 across Homo, which confounds an easy assessment of its phylogenetic position. In terms of skull shape, H. naledi has its closest affinities with Homo erectus, while mandibular shape places it closer 24 25 to early Homo. From a tooth crown perspective, the smaller molars of H. naledi make it distinct 26 from early Homo and H. erectus, Here, we compare the mandibular molar root morphology of six 27 H. naledi individuals from the Dinaledi Chamber to those of African and Eurasian Plio-Pleistocene fossil hominins (totalling 183 mandibular first, second and third molars). The analysis of five root 28 29 metric variables (cervical plane area, root length, root cervix volume, root branch volume, and root 30 surface area) derived from microCT reconstructions reveals that the molar roots of H. naledi are 31 smaller than those of Homo habilis, Homo rudolfensis, and H. erectus, but that they resemble those 32 of three Homo sp. specimens from Swartkrans and Koobi Fora in size and overall appearance. 33 Moreover, though H. naledi molar roots are similar in absolute size to Pleistocene Homo sapiens, 34 they differ from H. sapiens in having a larger root volume for a given cervical plane area and less taurodont roots; the root cervix-to-branch proportions of H. naledi are comparable to those of 35 Australopithecus africanus and species of Paranthropus. Homo naledi also shares a metameric root 36 volume pattern  $(M_2 > M_3 > M_1)$  with Australopithecus and Paranthropus but not with any of the 37 38 other Homo species  $(M_2 > M_1 > M_3)$ . Our findings therefore concur with previous studies that found 39 that H. naledi shares plesiomorphic features with early Homo, Australopithecus, and Paranthropus. 40 While absolute molar root size aligns H. naledi with Homo from North and South Africa, it is 41 distinguishable from these in terms of root volumetric proportions.

### 42 Introduction

43 Homo naledi, from the late Middle Pleistocene of South Africa, is characterized by a mosaic of 44 ancestral and derived craniodental and postcranial anatomical features (Berger et al., 2015; Hawks et al., 2017 and references therein). Despite its relatively recent date of 236–335 ka (Dirks et al., 45 2017: Hawks et al., 2017), H. naledi retains a number of presumably ancestral features shared with 46 47 eastern and southern African early Homo, Australopithecus, and Paranthropus (e.g., small body 48 size, small brains both absolutely and relative to body size, curved manual phalanges, absence of styloid process on the third metacarpal, distally increasing mandibular molar size gradient, 49 posteriorly directed humeral head, and flared ilium; Berger et al., 2015; Kivell et al., 2015; 50 51 Feuerriegel et al., 2017; Garvin et al., 2017; VanSickle et al., 2017). In other anatomical 52 characteristics (e.g., limb proportions, minimal body size dimorphism, proximal carpal anatomy, foot morphology) it shares derived features with Homo sapiens, Homo heidelbergensis, and Homo 53 54 neanderthalensis (Harcourt-Smith et al., 2015; Kivell et al., 2015; Garvin et al., 2017). Analyses of 55 skull morphology have yielded conflicting signals; a study of cranial shape suggests that H. naledi is phenetically similar to H. erectus (Laird et al., 2017), while an analysis of mandibular shape 56 places H. naledi more closely with basal Homo (i.e., Homo habilis; (Schroeder et al., 2017). Thus, 57 58 the phylogenetic place of H. naledi remains ambiguous (Dembo et al., 2016), but the emerging 59 picture is one of a taxon that overlaps in time and possibly space with early H. sapiens but remains 60 anatomically distinct. Such anatomical differences hint at possible marked ecological and behavioral differences between H. sapiens and H. naledi. 61

From a dental perspective, H. naledi has fairly small postcanine teeth with simple, crenulationfree crowns, lacking mass additive traits (Berger et al., 2015; Irish et al., 2018). The mandibular molar crown area gradient is  $M_1 < M_2 < M_3$  (Berger et al., 2015; Hawks et al., 2017), which is the generally observed pattern in early hominins, including H. habilis (Evans et al., 2016). Yet, its

mandibular first molar crowns are buccolingually narrower than those of Australopithecus sediba, 66 H. habilis, Homo rudolfensis, and early H. erectus (from Africa and Georgia; (Berger et al., 2015; 67 Hawks et al., 2017). The mandibular premolars are somewhat molarized, with an expanded talonid, 68 69 uniformly two-rooted P<sub>3</sub>, and variably two-rooted P<sub>4</sub>, which distinguishes H. naledi from H. habilis 70 (see Berger et al., 2015). Likewise, the mandibular premolars of H. erectus from Georgia (P<sub>3</sub>) and 71 Homo antecessor from Spain (P<sub>3</sub> and P<sub>4</sub>) are also said to be two-rooted (Bermúdez de Castro et al., 72 1999, 2014). The anterior teeth (incisors and canines) of H. naledi have crown and root dimensions 73 most similar to those of modern H. sapiens and are smaller than those of early Homo (Le Cabec et 74 al., 2017).

75

#### 76 Tooth root morphology in fossil hominins

The external and internal morphology of both anterior (incisors and canines) and postcanine 77 78 tooth (premolars and molars) roots has been used to unravel the taxonomic status of, and the 79 phylogenetic relationships among, fossil hominins (Abbott, 1984; Wood et al., 1988; Kupczik and Hublin, 2010; Emonet et al., 2012; Le Cabec et al., 2013; Emonet et al., 2014; Moore et al., 2016). 80 81 In particular, the assessment of the number and configuration of mandibular premolar roots has 82 revealed two distinct P<sub>3</sub> morphoclines in hominins deriving from the ancestral form with a circular mesiobuccal root and a buccolingually extended distal root (Wood et al., 1988). Generally, while H. 83 erectus and modern humans, as well as P. robustus, have simplified and reduced P3 roots, 84 85 Paranthropus boisei has molar-like P<sub>3</sub> roots (Wood, 1988). However, more recent studies have 86 demonstrated that there is considerable variation in premolar root morphology within a single 87 species and even within an individual (Kupczik et al., 2005; Shields, 2005; Moore et al., 2015; Moore et al., 2016), which would argue against the unrestricted validity of this trait in phylogenetic 88 89 studies.

90 In this regard, molar root morphology appears to be more useful as at least the number of roots is less variable than that of premolars. Generally, the mandibular molars of hominins have two 91 92 separated blade-like roots. In some modern human populations, high occurrences of three-rooted 93 mandibular first molars (the mesial and distal roots plus a distinct distolingual accessory root) have 94 been reported (e.g. Turner, 1971; Scott et al., 2018). Sperber (1974) also noted three-rooted M<sub>3</sub> in 95 two South African hominin specimens (P. robustus SK841b with an accessory mesiobuccal root 96 and A. africanus TM1518 with an accessory mesiolingual root. In the majority of two-rooted mandibular molars, both mesial and distal root portions are flattened mesiodistally, but the mesial 97 98 root is buccolingually broader than the distal. In P. robustus from Swartkrans, the mesial root of the 99  $M_1$  has been described to be larger than the distal one, while the opposite is the case for the  $M_2$ 100 (Robinson, 1956; Sperber, 1974). There are no reported root length data for the P. robustus M<sub>3</sub>, but 101 the mesial root was described to be directed vertically downward, while the distal root points 102 distally and tapers (Robinson, 1956). Robinson (1956) was also the first to notice that the mesial roots of the M<sub>1</sub> in P. robustus exhibited a longitudinal depression (or gutter) on the mesial face of 103 104 the root ending in a bifid or double apex of the root. In cross-section this is called a dumbbell-105 shaped root (see Fig. 1), and it has also been observed in the mesial roots of  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  of other 106 early hominins, such as Australopithecus afarensis, P. boisei, H. habilis, and H. rudolfensis (Ward 107 et al., 1982; Kullmer et al., 2011). Although there is some overlap in the extent of this mesiodistal root constriction in earlier hominins, the roots of later Homo (i.e., H. erectus and H. sapiens) appear 108 to be more circular, without a constriction (Robinson, 1956; Kullmer et al., 2011). 109

Bifurcation height in the molars (i.e., the point where the root cervix splits into the mesial and distal root branches; see Fig. 1) can vary considerably within and between species. Following observations by Gorjanovic-Kramberger (1907, 1908) and Adloff (1907) on the molar roots of H. neanderthalensis from Krapina, Keith (1913) introduced the term 'taurodontism' to describe the

114 enlargement of the cervix and underlying pulp chamber at the expense of length of the root 115 branches. Based on the varying degree of the apical displacement of the floor of the pulp chamber, 116 molars have been classified into cyno-, hypo-, meso- and hypertaurodont forms using the so called 117 taurodont index (Keene, 1966; Constant and Grine, 2001). While the anthropological and clinical dental assessment of taurodontism has traditionally been done using 2D lateral radiographs. 118 119 Kupczik and Hublin (2010) used 3D surface models of mandibular molars and quantified the 120 relative proportion of the volume of the root cervix and root branches, expressed as the volumetric 121 bifurcation index. These authors found that hypertaurodont M2 and M3 with completely fused roots 122 containing a single enlarged pulp cavity were common in H. neanderthalensis; in contrast, Kupczik 123 and Hublin (2010) found no hypertaurodont molar roots in their sample of Late Pleistocene and 124 recent H. sapiens. The pulp chamber and root canals house the dental pulp, blood vessels and 125 nerves. The pulp tissue contains, among other things, odontoblasts, which deposit dentine at the 126 periphery of the chamber during tooth development and in response to applied stimuli such as caries, trauma and wear (Berkovitz et al., 2002). It has been suggested that large pulp cavities of H. 127 128 neanderthalensis may be an adaptation to a high-attrition dietary regimen because it allows for the deposition of secondary and tertiary dentine on the pulp walls following the loss of enamel and 129 coronal dentine and thus prolongs tooth longevity (Blumberg et al., 1971; Constant and Grine, 130 131 2001; Kupczik and Hublin, 2010; Benazzi et al., 2015).

132

#### 133 Aim of the study

By using the morphology of the mandibular molar roots, this study aims to shed further light on the taxonomic status of H. naledi compared to other Plio-Pleistocene fossil hominins from Africa and western Eurasia. Given the generally plesiomorphic signal of the dentition (Berger et al., 2015; Hawks et al., 2017) and similarities in mandibular shape (see Schroeder et al., 2017), we expect that H. naledi will be more similar in root form to early Homo than to H. sapiens and H.

139 neanderthalensis, with which it overlaps in time.

140

### 141 Materials and methods

142 Sample

143 A total of 183 mandibular first, second and third molars of three fossil hominin genera 144 (Australopithecus, Paranthropus and Homo) were selected for this study (Table 1, Supplementary 145 Online Material [SOM] Table S1). The specimens derive from collections housed at the following 146 institutions: University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa; Ditsong National Museum 147 of Natural History, Pretoria, South Africa and Iziko South African Museum, Cape Town, South 148 Africa; National Museums of Kenya, Nairobi, Kenya; Sackler School of Medicine, Tel Aviv 149 University, Tel Aviv, Israel; Institut National des Sciences de l'Archéologie et du Patrimoine, 150 Rabat, Morocco; Geologisch-Paläontologisches Institut der Universität Heidelberg, Heidelberg, 151 Germany; and the National Museum, Belgrade, Serbia. The H. naledi sample consisted of 13 152 mandibular molars belonging to six individuals from the Dinaledi Chamber of the Rising Star Cave 153 in South Africa. The comparative Homo sample includes H. habilis and H. erectus (Kenya), H. 154 rudolfensis (Malawi), H. heidelbergensis (Mauer and Balanica), H. neanderthalensis (various Eurasian sites), Pleistocene H. sapiens (also known as early anatomically modern humans) from 155 156 Morocco (Dar es-Soltan, El Harhoura, and Irhoud), South Africa (Die Kelders and Equus Cave) and Israel (Qafzeh), as well as Homo sp. indet. from Kenya (Koobi Fora) and South Africa (Swartkrans 157 158 and Cave of Hearths), respectively. Although KNM-ER 1805 has been assigned to H. habilis 159 (Wood, 1991), SK 15 from Swartkrans Member 2 to H. erectus (Grine, 2005; Ungar et al., 2006), 160 and Cave of Hearths to H. sapiens rhodesiensis (Tobias, 1971), there does not seem to be a

161	consensus on the taxonomic status of these specimens and we therefore took a more conservative
162	approach by not assigning these fossils to any species. The same applies to SK 45 from Member 1
163	of Swartkrans, which resembles H. habilis more than it does H. erectus according to Grine (2005).
164	In addition, with the exception of Amud 1 and Tabun C2, we used previously published data for H.
165	heidelbergensis (see Skinner et al., 2016), H. neanderthalensis, and recent H. sapiens for
166	comparison (see Kupczik and Hublin, 2010).
167	
168	Microcomputed tomography imaging and image processing
169	The H. naledi dental remains were scanned on Nikon Metrology XTH 225/320
170	microtomography (microCT) scanner housed at the University of the Witwatersrand. The remaining
171	fossil hominin mandibles, with the exception of the Equus Cave (EQ H-71/33) and Die Kelders
172	Cave (SAM AP 6242) specimens, were scanned using a BIR ACTIS 225/300 high-resolution
173	industrial microCT system or a SkyScan 1172 microtomographic scanner of the Max Planck
174	Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig, Germany. The isometric voxel size ranged
175	between 0.03 and 0.09 mm. EQ H-71/33 was scanned at ID 19 of the European Synchrotron
176	Radiation Facility (Grenoble, France) with a voxel size of 0.03 mm, while SAM AP 6242 was
177	scanned on a ScanCo 20 microCT system (Department of Biomedical Engineering, Stony Brook
178	University, NY, USA) with a voxel size of 0.016 mm. All resulting CT images were filtered using a
179	three-dimensional median filter (kernel size of 1) followed by a mean of least variance filter (kernel
180	size of 1) following Kupczik and Hublin (2010). The filtering results in more homogenous dental
181	tissue classes (enamel, dentine, pulp, bone) and allocates pixels with intermediate gray-scale values
182	at tissue interfaces (e.g., enamel-dentine, dentine-pulp) to the appropriate tissue (Wollny et al.,
183	2013). Each filtered dataset was imported into Avizo 9.1 (ThermoFisher Scientific <sup>TM</sup> , Waltham,
184	MA, USA) and, where possible, the enamel, dentine, and pulp were segmented using a combination

185 of semiautomatic thresholding and manual editing of the images. Some fossil specimens did not allow for a separation of the enamel from the coronal dentine, due to low contrast, and were thus 186 187 segmented as one tissue material (i.e., dentine). After segmentation, triangulated surface models 188 were generated using the constrained smoothing algorithm in Avizo. Subsequently, each molar model was virtually bisected into its anatomical crown and root parts by using a best-fit plane 189 190 defined by up to 20 equally spaced points along the cementoenamel junction in Avizo. An 191 additional plane parallel to this cervical plane was placed through the center of the internadicular 192 surface (the bifurcational plane) to divide the roots into the root cervix and root branch (Fig. 1).

193

#### 194 Tooth root morphometric analysis and statistical analysis

195 Observed variations in tooth root and pulp cavity morphology were described and visually 196 shown through screenshots of the 3D molar models. The following terminology was used for 197 describing variation in pulp morphology (Fig. 1): 1) pulp chamber = situated inside the crown and 198 root cervix and houses nerves and blood vessels; 2) mesial root canal = thin, circular structure in the 199 mesial roots extending from the base of the pulp chamber into the root branch; the inferior alveolar 200 nerve and blood vessels enter through a single or double opening in the apex ; 3) distal root canal = 201 elliptical or buccolingually flat conduit in the distal roots usually with a single foramen at the apex. 202 Furthermore, the following variables were quantified from the sectioned molar models (Fig. 1): root length (RL, in mm), cervical plane area (CPA, in mm<sup>2</sup>), root surface area (RSA, in mm<sup>2</sup>), total 203 root volume (RV), root cervix volume (V<sub>cervix</sub>) and root branch volume (V<sub>branch</sub>), all in mm<sup>3</sup>. To 204 205 quantify the level of bifurcation, we computed a volumetric bifurcation index (VBI, in %) following 206 Kupczik and Hublin (2010):  $V_{cervix} / (V_{cervix} + V_{branch}) \times 100$ . Corresponding with the classification 207 scheme of Keene (1966) a value of 0-24.9% denotes a cynotaurodont molar, a value of 25-49.9% a

208 hypotaurodont molar, a value 50–74.9% a mesotaurodont molar, and a value of 75–100% a

- 209 hypertaurodont molar. Bivariate associations between CPA and both RSA and RV were
- 210 investigated using Pearson's correlation coefficient and ordinary least squares regression. A
- 211 principal component analysis (PCA) using RL, CPA, V<sub>cervix</sub>, and V<sub>branch</sub> was conducted to compare
- tooth root morphology of H. naledi to the other fossil hominins in bivariate space. Moreover, a non-
- 213 parametric multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) with pairwise PERMANOVAs
- between all pairs of taxonomic groups as a post hoc test was used to test for significant differences.
- All statistical analyses were performed in PAST v. 3.20 (Hammer et al., 2001).

216

## 217 **Results**

### 218 Comparative molar root and pulpal morphology

219 Lateral and apical views of the mandibular molar roots of the fossil hominins are presented in Figures 2 and 3, respectively. Detailed descriptions of the root and pulp morphology of each of the 220 fossil specimens investigated here are presented in SOM S1 and illustrated in SOM Figs. 1–5. With 221 222 the notable exception of the M<sub>2</sub> of U.W. 101-001 (H. naledi), Mauer, Irhoud 11, Qafzeh 9, and Oafzeh 25 (also the M<sub>3</sub>), all fossil hominins have mandibular molars with well-separated, blade-like 223 mesial and distal roots when viewed laterally (Fig. 2, SOM Figs. S1–S5). It is noteworthy that in H. 224 225 naledi the distal roots of the M<sub>3</sub> are buccally offset relative to the mesial roots when viewed apically (Fig. 3). The deflection of the distalmost root is also observed in Homo sp. from Swartkrans (SK 226 15) and in P. robustus (Fig. 3; SOM Fig. S5). Moreover, in the H. naledi specimens U.W. 101-001, 227 228 361, 516 and 1261 the mesial and distal root apices of the M<sub>3</sub> show a depression on the buccal (U.W. 101-361 and 1261) or lingual (U.W. 101-001 and 516) aspect, which appears to be related to 229 230 the inferior alveolar canal (Fig. 2; SOM Fig. S1). This feature is not observed in any of the other 231 hominins. In all hominins, the mesial roots generally have bifid root apices, which correspond with

232	two separated	root canals	inside th	e root,	while most of	of the	distal roots	house	a single	2
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buccolingually expanded root canal (Fig. 4; SOM Figs. S1–S5). In cross section, the mesial roots

have a figure-of-eight shape, whereas the distal roots are comma-shaped (Figs. 1 and 3). Unlike in

the South African and Eurasian Pleistocene H. sapiens, where the root apices taper, in H. naledi the

mesial root tips are set apart mesiodistally (SOM Figs. S1 and S4). The pulp chambers of the H.

237 naledi molars are of low height in coronal-apical direction, similar to those of H. rudolfensis, H.

sapiens (Irhoud 11), Homo sp. from Swartkrans, A. africanus, P. boisei and P. robustus (Fig. 4;

SOM Figs. S1, S2, and S5). These are unlike the tall pulp chambers of H. erectus, H.

heidelbergensis, H. neanderthalensis and H. sapiens (except Irhoud 11; Fig. 4; SOM Figs. S2–S4).

241

242 Molar root metrics and root volumetric proportions

Summary statistics are presented in Table 2 (individual specimen values are given in SOM Table
S1). Overall, H. naledi root volumes fall within the same range as A. africanus, H.

245 neanderthalensis, Pleistocene H. sapiens, and Homo sp. (Koobi Fora and Swartkrans), but are

246 markedly smaller than those of P. boisei, P. robustus, H. rudolfensis, H. habilis, H. erectus, and H.

heidelbergensis. In H. naledi, the M<sub>2</sub> has the largest root volume followed by the M<sub>3</sub> and M<sub>1</sub> (Fig.

5). Similar metameric variation is found in A. africanus, P. robustus, and Homo sp. from

249 Swartkrans, while late Homo (H. erectus, H. heidelbergensis, H. neanderthalensis, and H. sapiens)

tend to have larger M<sub>1</sub> than M<sub>3</sub> roots. Paranthropus boisei is the only hominin where the root

251 metameric variation is  $M_3 > M_2 > M_1$  (Fig. 5).

Homo naledi molar roots have volumetric bifurcation values of  $\leq 43\%$  throughout all molar

253 positions (with the exception of the M<sub>3</sub> of U.W. 101-1142, which has a value of 53%; SOM Table

S1) and are thus classified as hypotaurodont (Table 2; Fig. 6). While the M<sub>2</sub> roots of the P. boisei

specimen KNM-ER 3230 are cynotaurodont (17%), hypotaurodont molars are also found in the two

256	Paranthropus species (in particular at M <sub>1</sub> ) and in the Homo sp. specimens from Koobi Fora (KNM-
257	ER 1805: $M_2 = 37\%$ , $M_3 = 30\%$ ) and Swartkrans (SK 45: $M_1 = 30\%$ , $M_2 = 34\%$ ), but not SK 15 ( $M_1$
258	= 46%, $M_2$ = 46%, $M_3$ = 56%) and Cave of Hearths ( $M_1$ = 48%; SOM Table S1). The molar roots of
259	H. habilis and H. erectus are also hypotaurodont, while H. rudolfensis is mesotaurodont (Fig. 6;
260	SOM Table S1). The hypotaurodont molars of H. naledi are contrasted by the meso- and
261	hypertaurodont molar roots of late Homo species (specifically Pleistocene H. sapiens from Equus
262	Cave and Qafzeh) with values $\geq$ 50%, in particular at M <sub>2</sub> and M <sub>3</sub> (Table 2; SOM Table S1; Fig. 6).
263	
264	Bivariate associations
265	Cervical plane area (CPA) is highly correlated with both RV and RSA in all three molar
266	positions (Table 3; Fig. 7; SOM Figs. S6 and S7). Relative to CPA, H. erectus, H. heidelbergensis,
267	H. neanderthalensis, Homo sp. KNM-ER1805 ( $M_3$ only) and P. boisei ( $M_2$ and $M_3$ only) have
268	relatively large root volumes, as indicated by the positive regression residuals (Fig. 7; SOM Fig.
269	S6). Likewise, H. naledi $M_1$ and $M_2$ have relatively large RV for a given CPA, while the $M_3$ has a
270	RV as expected for its CPA (Fig. 7; SOM Fig. S6). In contrast, A. africanus, H. habilis, H.
271	rudolfensis, Homo sp. from Swartkrans, and H. sapiens (both Pleistocene and recent) have
272	relatively small molar RV for a given CPA (Fig. 7; SOM Fig. S6, negative residuals). The same
273	relationship is largely observed when RSA is considered (SOM Fig. S7).
274	

## 275 Principal components analysis and PERMANOVA

276 Principal component loadings reveal that, for all three molar positions, RL, CPA and V<sub>branch</sub>

277 contribute most to the first component (PC1), whereas V<sub>cervix</sub> contributes most to the second (PC2;

Table 4). Homo naledi forms a separated cluster from the remainder of the sample in all three molar

279	positions (Fig. 8). Along PC1, H. naledi is most comparable to H. sapiens (Pleistocene and modern)
280	and H. neanderthalensis, which reflects its small root size. Along PC2, H. naledi overlaps with P.
281	boisei and P. robustus, which reflects the hypotaurodont root morphology captured in the univariate
282	analysis above. Australopithecus africanus overlaps with some Pleistocene H. sapiens, H.
283	neanderthalensis, and P. robustus. Perhaps with the exception of the $M_1$ of SK 15, which is similar
284	to that of the Pleistocene H. sapiens from Temara, the molar roots of the Homo sp. fossils from
285	Swartkrans and Koobi Fora are closer to H. naledi than to any other African Homo (Fig. 8; SOM
286	Fig. S8). Homo erectus (in particular the $M_1$ ) also forms a separate cluster from the rest of the fossil
287	hominins and does not bear much resemblance with the H. naledi hypodigm.
288	The PERMANOVAs revealed significant differences across the taxonomic groups at all three
289	molar positions (M <sub>1</sub> : $F = 16.89$ ; M <sub>2</sub> : $F = 12.86$ ; M <sub>3</sub> : $F = 10.65$ ; all $p < 0.0001$ ). The pairwise
290	PERMANOVAs as a post hoc test between all pairs of groups showed some significant differences
291	(at $p < 0.05$ ) for M <sub>1</sub> (SOM Table S2): between H. naledi and recent H. sapiens; between recent H.
292	sapiens and H. neanderthalensis, Pleistocene H. sapiens and P. robustus; and between H.
293	neanderthalensis and P. boisei. For the $M_2$ , pairwise significant differences were found between P.
294	robustus and H. neanderthalensis, and between P. robustus and both Pleistocene and recent H.
295	sapiens (SOM Table S3). No significant pairwise difference was found in M3 (SOM Table S4).
296	

## **Discussion**

When root size and proportion as well as metameric variation collectively are taken into account,
H. naledi shows a mix of ancestral (early Homo, A. africanus, P. boisei, and P. robustus) and
derived (late Homo) features (Figs. 4–8). Homo naledi has markedly smaller roots than those of
eastern African H. rudolfensis, H. habilis, and H. erectus but shares similar root and pulp (H.

302 rudolfensis only) proportions with these taxa (Table 2; Figs. 4–8). In contrast, H. naledi has molar 303 root sizes comparable to Pleistocene H. sapiens but, unlike these, has different root proportions (i.e., 304 they are less taurodont with a narrow pulp chamber in H. naledi; see Table 2; Figs. 4–6). 305 Interestingly, the three Homo fossils from Swartkrans (SK 45 from Member 1 and SK 15 from 306 Member 2) and Koobi Fora (KNM-ER 1805), which have been assigned by some to H. erectus, 307 Homo sp. indet., and H. habilis, respectively (Broom and Robinson, 1949, 1950; Robinson, 1961; 308 Wood, 1991; Grine, 2005; Ungar et al., 2006; Grine et al., 2009; Moggi-Cecchi et al., 2010), bear 309 the largest resemblance in overall appearance (i.e., root size, proportion and metameric variation) 310 with the H. naledi hypodigm (see Figs. 3-6 and 8). Both H. naledi and Homo sp. SK 15 exhibit 311 distal M<sub>3</sub> roots which are buccally offset relative to the mesial roots; a feature they share with P. 312 robustus (Fig. 3). In H. naledi this root deflection in conjunction with the observed depression on 313 the buccal aspect of both the mesial and distal M<sub>3</sub> roots appears to be related to the passage of the inferior alveolar canal running parallel to the M<sub>3</sub> root rather than beneath it as can be seen in A. 314 africanus Stw 498c (Fig. 3; SOM Figs. S1 and S5). 315

Homo naledi and Homo sp. SK 15 are also similar in terms of the corono-apical constriction of 316 317 the pulp chamber, which is also found in African early hominins but not in late Homo with the 318 exception of H. sapiens from Irhoud (Fig. 3). Meso- and hypertaurodont molars are the result of 319 enlarged pulp cavities and these are particularly common in H. heidelbergensis and H. 320 neanderthalensis (Kupczik and Hublin, 2010; Skinner et al., 2016). This trait is suggested to be an 321 adaptation to counter marked occlusal wear because a large pulp chamber may allow for the deposition of secondary dentine on the walls of the pulp (Blumberg et al., 1971; Constant and 322 323 Grine, 2001), although the physiological mechanism may be different across species. For example, it was found that in worn molars of Middle Pleistocene H. neanderthalensis the pulp horns and 324 325 walls were obliterated with secondary deposition, while in hypotaurodont molars of late Pleistocene H. sapiens from North Africa dentine was predominantly deposited on the roof and floor in the
center of the pulp chamber (Kupczik and Hublin, 2010). Although some of the M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub> of H.

naledi are heavily worn with dentine exposure (e.g., U.W. 101-001 and U.W. 101-361; see SOM

329 Fig. S1), there is no indication of an obliterated pulp chamber or root canal.

330 Moreover, while SK 15 has relatively smaller roots when scaled to cervical plane area compared 331 to both H. naledi and SK 45 (root surface area only; see Fig. 7; SOM Fig. S7), it shares with H. naledi the same root size gradient ( $M_2 > M_3 > M_1$ ; see Fig. 5). This gradient is also found in A. 332 333 africanus, P. robustus, and P. boisei specimen KNM-ER 15930 (KNM-ER 729 has  $M_2 = M_3 > M_1$ ) but not in any of the other Homo fossils, including H. erectus and Pleistocene H. sapiens from 334 North Africa and the Near East  $(M_2 > M_1 > M_3; Fig. 5)^1$ . Since the H. erectus/late Homo root 335 336 volume sequence is also found in two African great apes, Pan troglodytes and Gorilla gorilla 337 (Kupczik, 2003), this may in fact constitute the plesiomorphic state; thus, it is derived in A. 338 africanus, P. robustus, P. boisei and H. naledi. In contrast, cervical plane area follows the previously reported crown area gradient of  $M_3 > M_2 > M_1$  (Table 2), which is also present in H. 339 340 habilis but not in H. erectus or late Homo (see Berger et al., 2015; Evans et al., 2016; Hawks et al., 341 2017).

It has recently been suggested that the Middle Pleistocene Cave of Hearths mandible, which has been assigned to H. sapiens rhodesiensis (Tobias, 1971), could belong to H. naledi (Berger et al., 2017). However, this is unlikely given that the Cave of Hearths mandible differs from the latter in several dental morphological features including occlusal topography of the M<sub>2</sub> (Berthaume et al., 2018), overall premolar and molar crown morphology (L.K.D., pers. obs.) and, as shown here, M<sub>1</sub> root morphology (SOM Figs. S2, S3, and S7). In fact, both external root form (e.g., the tapering

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It appears that KNM-ER 1805 has the same root size sequence as H. naledi and SK 15 (Fig. 2); however, we did not report the  $M_1$  root metrics here because the tooth is partially broken at the cervix.

348 mesial M<sub>1</sub> root) and the morphology of the root canals of the Cave of Hearths specimen resemble 349 those of Middle and Upper Pleistocene H. sapiens from North Africa (Irhoud 11), South Africa (Die 350 Kelders, Equus Cave) and Qafzeh (see Kupczik and Hublin, 2010: Fig. S1; SOM Figs. S2 and S4). 351 These results suggest that this specimen is most closely affiliated with samples of fossil H. sapiens (or potentially H. rhodesiensis if the early part of the H. sapiens lineage is distinguished at the 352 353 species rank). Other notable African Middle Pleistocene Homo fossils, such as the ca. 700 ka 354 Tighenif 2 from Algeria (Geraads et al., 1986), differ in mandibular molar root volume and 355 metameric variation from H. naledi and rather fall within the upper range of the Aterian H. sapiens 356 (Kupczik and Hublin, 2010; Zanolli and Mazurier, 2013). Based on the data in Zanolli and Mazurier 357 (2013: Table 1), the sequence of root volumes of Tighenif 2 follows the  $M_2 > M_1 > M_3$  pattern seen in late Homo ( $M_1 = 951.07 \text{ mm}^3$ ,  $M_2 = 1051.29 \text{ mm}^3$ ,  $M_3 = 773.39 \text{ mm}^3$ ). Although there are no root 358 359 metric data available for the mandibular teeth of H. erectus from Dmanisi, at least the mandible 360 D211 is distinct from the H. naledi lower molar roots inasmuch as the M<sub>1</sub> appears to be larger than the  $M_2$  (see also Hawks et al., 2017). Moreover, while the  $M_1$  has clearly separated roots, the  $M_2$ 361 362 and M<sub>3</sub> roots of D211 appear to be fused or hypertaurodont (see Margvelashvili et al., 2013: their Fig. 2). In contrast, the molars of the mandibles D2735 and D2600 have separated mesial and distal 363 364 roots. It is also interesting to note that, on visual inspection of the reconstructions of the Dmanisi 365 teeth (see Margvelashvili et al., 2013), the large mandible D2600 has long and distally curved molar roots with a high bifurcation, while the smaller D2735 (comparable in size with D211) has 366 concomitantly shorter and straight molar roots. Unlike in the Dmanisi sample, the differences in 367 molar root morphology within the H. naledi sample investigated here do not appear to be as 368 marked. 369

### 371 **Conclusions**

372 The present findings on mandibular molar root morphology concur with those of previous 373 studies that H. naledi is characterized by a mosaic of ancestral and derived cranial and postcranial features. Thus, while absolute molar root size aligns H. naledi with late Homo, including Middle 374 375 and Late Pleistocene H. sapiens from South Africa (Cave of Hearths, Die Kelders, Equus Cave) and 376 North Africa (Irhoud, Temara, Dar-Es-Soltan), this species shares hypotaurodont roots and a root 377 size gradient with early Homo and Paranthropus. The latter root traits likely constitute the ancestral condition and are thus symplesiomorphies between H. naledi and these earlier hominins. Although 378 379 this study did not necessarily aim to resolve the phylogenetic relationships of H. naledi per se, the 380 present findings shed some light of the possible evolutionary trends of hominins in eastern and 381 southern Africa. If specimens like Cave of Hearth are indeed much older than our sample of H. naledi, it points to an ancient origin for the modern human molar root pattern and suggests that it is 382 383 unlikely that modern humans derive substantial ancestry from H. naledi. Since molar root form has 384 the advantage of being conservative in its phenotypic expression and roots are often better preserved than crowns in the fossil record, molar root morphological characters may prove useful in 385 386 future studies on the evolutionary relationships in hominins in general.

387

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#### 598 Figure legends

**Figure 1.** Microtomography-based 3D-reconstructions of a modern human left  $M_2$  (center) and pulp cavity morphology (left) in mesiolingual view. The tooth was virtually trisected into the crown, root cervix and root branch at the cervical plane and bifurcational plane, respectively (right). The area between the crown and the root cervix is the cervical plane area (CPA). Root length (RL) was measured at the mesial root as the projected distance between the cervical plane and the root tip. The cross-sections illustrate the shape of the mesial and distal root in the apical third of the root (bottom).

606

Figure 2. Microtomographic-based 3D reconstructions of mandibular molars in fossil hominins in
buccal view: a) U.W. 101-1261 (right); the arrows indicate a depression in the apices of the mesial
and distal roots of the M<sub>3</sub>; b) SK 15 (right); c) Irhoud 11 (left); d) Amud 1 (left); e) HCRP-UR501
(right M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub>); f) KNM-ER 1802 (left M<sub>1</sub> and M<sub>2</sub>); g) KNM-ER 1805 (left); h) KNM-ER 730
(left); i) STW 404 (left); j) SK 23 (left); k) KNM-ER 729 (right). M<sub>1</sub> is to the left of the molar row.
Note that the right molar rows are horizontally flipped. m=mesial, l=lingual.

613

614 Figure 3. Microtomographic-based 3D reconstructions of mandibular molars in fossil hominins in

615 apical view: a) U.W. 101-001 (right M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); b) U.W.101-1261 (right M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); c) U.W.101-1142

616 (right  $M_2-M_3$ ); d) U.W.101-361 (left  $M_2-M_3$ ); e) U.W.101-516 (left  $M_3$ ); f) SK 15 (right  $M_1-M_3$ );

617 g) KNM-ER 730 (left M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); h) KNM-ER 1805 (left M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); i) Irhoud 11 (left M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); j)

 $618 \qquad Qafzeh \ 2 \ (left \ M_1-M_3); \ k) \ EQ-H71-33 \ (left \ M_2-M_3); \ l) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Amud \ 1 \ (left \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Amud \ 1 \ (left \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Amud \ 1 \ (left \ M_2-M_3); \ l) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Amud \ 1 \ (left \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Amud \ M_1-M_2 \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_2-M_3); \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_1-M_3); \ m) \ Mauer \ M_1-M_2 \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_2-M_3); \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_3-M_3); \ m) \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_3-M_3); \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_3-M_3); \ m) \ m) \ m) \ Mauer \ (right \ M_3-M_3)$ 

619 M<sub>3</sub>); n) Stw 498c (left M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); o) SK 23 (left M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>); p) KNM-ER 15930 (left M<sub>1</sub>–M<sub>3</sub>). Mesial is

620 to the top and buccal to the right. The arrows indicate a buccally deflected distal M<sub>3</sub> root relative to

621 the mesial root. Note that the left molar rows are horizontally flipped. m=mesial, b=buccal.

623	Figure 4. Pulp chamber morphology of mandibular second molars in H. naledi compared to other
624	hominin species in lateral view: a) A. africanus (Stw 498c), P. robustus (SK 1586), and P. boisei
625	(KNM-ER 729) with low pulp chambers; b) species of Homo with low pulp chambers (left to right:
626	HCRP-UR 501, SK 15, Irhoud 11, and UW101-1142); c) species of Homo with tall pulp chambers
627	(left to right: KNM-ER 992, BH1, and Tabun II C2). All molars are aligned using the lower
628	horizontal line marking the lower border of the pulp cavity. The upper line marks the upper border
629	of the pulp cavity of H. naledi.
630	
631	Figure 5. Box-and-whisker plot of mandibular molar root volume (in mm <sup>3</sup> ). The horizontal lines
632	depict medians, the boxes indicate the lower and upper quartile, respectively, and the lower and
633	upper whiskers show the lowest and highest value, respectively.
634	
635	Figure 6. Relative proportions of cervical and root branch volumes (scaled to 100%) in Plio-
636	Pleistocene fossil hominins
637	
638	<b>Figure 7.</b> Bivariate plot of molar root area against cervical plane area in a) $M_1$ , b) $M_2$ , and c) $M_3$ .
639	Ordinary least square regression line (solid) and 95% confidence intervals (dashed) are shown.
640	
641	Figure 8. Bivariate plots of second vs. first principal components (PC2 vs. PC1) using four root
642	metrics: a) $M_1$ ; b) $M_2$ ; c) $M_3$ . Abbreviations: Aa = Australopithecus africanus; Hb = Homo
643	heidelbergensis; He = Homo erectus; Hh = Homo habilis; Hn = Homo neanderthalensis; Hnl =

- 644 Homo naledi; Hr = Homo rudolfensis; Hs = recent Homo sapiens; HsP = Pleistocene Homo sapiens;
- 645 Pb = Paranthropus boisei; Pr = Paranthropus robustus.
- 646



647







A. africanus

P. robustus

P. boisei



b

с



N

Homo sp.



H. sapiens



H. naledi

H. erectus

H. rudolfensis

R

H. heidelbergensis



10 mm















© PC 2 (29.0%)



# **Table 1**

# 656 Sample list.

Taxon	Accession number (source)	$M_1$	$M_2$	M <sub>3</sub>	Total
Australopithecus africanus	Sts 52b, Stw 498c, Stw 404 (ESI)	3	3	1	7
Paranthropus boisei	KNM-ER 729, KNM-ER 3230, KNM-	3	3	2	8
	ER 15930 (NMK)				
Paranthropus robustus	SK6, SK23, SK25, SK858,	8	9	2	19
	SK843.846a, SK1586, SK1587ab,				
	SKW5, SKX4446, TM1600 (DNM)				
Homo sp. indet. (South Africa)	SK15, SK45 (DNM), Cave of Hearths	3	2	1	6
	(ESI)				
Homo sp. indet. (Kenya)	KNM-ER 1805 (NMK)	0	1	1	2
Homo erectus	KNM-ER 730, KNM-ER 992, KNM-	3	2	1	6
	WT 15000B (NMK)				
Homo habilis	KNM-ER 1802 (NMK)	1	1	0	2
Homo heidelbergensis	BH1 (NMB), Mauer (GPIH)	2	2	1	5
Homo naledi	U.W. 101-001, U.W. 101-361, U.W.	5	3	5	13
	101-377, U.W. 101-516, U.W. 101-				
	582, U.W. 101-1142, U.W. 101-1261,				
	U.W. 101-1287b (ESI)				
Homo neanderthalensis	Amud 1, Tabun II C2 (TAU); and see	18	15	14	47

Kupczik and Hublin (2010)

Homo rudolfensis	HCRP-UR 501 (CMCK)	0	1	0	1
Homo sapiens (Pleistocene)	EQ-H71-33 (ISAM), Irhoud 11	11	10	9	30
	(INSAP), Qafzeh 2, Qafzeh 9, Qafzeh				
	11, Qafzeh 25 (TAU), SAM AP 6242				
	(ISAM); and see Kupczik and Hublin				
	(2010)				
Homo sapiens (recent)	See Kupczik and Hublin (2010)	12	16	8	36

657 Abbreviations: BH = Mala Balanica Cave, Serbia; CMCK = Cultural and Museum Centre,

658 Karonga, Malawi; DNM = Ditsong National Museum of Natural History, Pretoria, South Africa;

659 ESI = Evolutionary Studies Institute, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa;

660 EQ = Equus Cave, South Africa; GPIH = Geologisch-Paläontologisches Institut der Universität

661 Heidelberg, Heidelberg, Germany; HCRP-UR = Hominid Corridor Research Project, Uraha,

662 Malawi; INSAP = Institut National des Sciences de l'Archéologie et du Patrimoine, Rabat,

663 Morocco; ISAM = Iziko South African Museum, Cape Town, South Africa; KNM-ER = National

664 Museums of Kenya, east of Lake Turkana (formerly Lake Rudolf); KNM-WT = National Museums

of Kenya, West Turkana; NMB = National Museum, Belgrade, Serbia; NMK = National Museums

of Kenya, Nairobi; SK = Swartkrans, South Africa; SKW = Swartkrans, Witwatersrand, South

667 Africa; SKX = Swartkrans, Excavations, South Africa; Sts = Sterkfontein type site; Stw =

668 Sterkfontein, Witwatersrand, South Africa; TAU = Tel Aviv University, Israel; TM = Transvaal

669 Museum, South Africa; U.W. = University of Witwatersrand, South Africa.

# **Table 2**

671 Summary statistics (sample, mean and standard deviation).

	Taxon	n <sup>a</sup>	Root	Cervical	Root surface	Root volume	Cervical root	Root	Volumetric
			length	plane area	area [mm <sup>2</sup> ]	[mm <sup>3</sup> ]	volume	branch	bifurcation index
			[mm]	[mm <sup>2</sup> ]			[mm <sup>3</sup> ]	volume	[%]
								[mm <sup>3</sup> ]	
$M_1$	A. africanus	3 (2)	14.67	119.56	707.31	836.81	391.73	445.07	47.59
			0.72	0.35	149.78	126.88	36.93	140.97	8.63
	P. boisei	3 (1)	20.15	155.81	1077.03	1709.86	604.63	1105.23	35.73
			2.41	30.04	_	139.25	113.15	220.28	8.83
	P. robustus	8 (7)	18.48	130.17	1011.16	1244.12	411.10	833.02	35.36
			2.88	18.33	217.81	269.04	137.80	143.40	11.17
	H. habilis	1	18.62	143.30	865.00	1229.35	564.97	664.38	45.96
					_	_	_		_

H. rudolfensis	1	14.87	113.93	826.36	1049.15	526.37	522.78	50.17
		_		_	_	_	_	
H. erectus	3	19.68	98.92	893.63	1197.22	539.78	657.44	45.22
		0.50	2.08	57.01	38.80	62.89	98.63	6.60
H. naledi	5	13.20	79.37	627.61	703.12	237.81	465.31	33.52
		1.07	9.02	98.62	97.48	56.32	49.46	3.90
Homo sp. (SK)	2	14.55	89.63	696.23	690.39	262.24	428.15	37.88
		2.69	3.10	203.89	12.72	84.28	71.56	11.51
H. heidelbergensis	2	16.39	94.88	684.48	1002.91	572.15	430.76	56.71
		0.29	3.51	30.09	153.46	131.97	21.49	4.48
H. neanderthalensis <sup>b</sup>	19	15.63	87.43	566.52	760.15	419.22	340.93	54.62
		1.55	11.13	95.32	171.92	137.98	99.08	9.33
H. sapiens (Pleistocene) <sup>b</sup>	11	15.38	89.75	576.36	742.65	351.35	391.30	48.29

		(10)	1.79	11.25	108.48	162.20	55.86	117.84	6.51
	H. sapiens (recent) <sup>b</sup>	12	13.69	71.76	424.62	485.02	237.90	247.12	49.27
			0.94	7.02	65.58	104.04	58.52	70.09	7.25
$M_2$	A. africanus	2	15.89	146.11	834.49	1108.00	528.78	579.22	48.51
			1.24	31.90	140.61	146.61	63.61	189.60	9.98
	P. boisei	3 (1)	20.16	171.41	1154.19	2033.11	637.52	1395.58	30.86
			0.65	41.25		395.62	305.33	324.09	13.89
	P. robustus	9 (8)	18.22	155.49	1107.32	1518.66	522.39	996.28	34.06
			1.56	20.50	196.49	244.97	144.06	148.94	5.45
	H. habilis	1	17.48	177.50	959.59	1466.41	582.31	884.10	39.71
				_	—	_	_	_	
	H. rudolfensis	1	16.72	179.89	1056.66	1518.19	769.47	748.72	50.68

H. erectus	2	19.79	105.19	957.35	1373.50	621.59	751.92	44.42
		0.99	18.28	24.52	138.49	288.86	150.37	16.55
H. naledi	3	14.63	102.62	704.33	936.85	386.37	550.47	40.78
		1.09	14.92	38.82	140.85	109.79	69.81	7.05
Homo sp. (SK)	2	14.15	117.70	740.51	907.66	363.45	544.21	39.69
		1.82	15.63	111.17	74.68	107.41	32.72	8.57
Homo sp. (KF)	1	15.64	120.56	956.46	950.19	348.67	601.52	36.69
			_	_	_	—	_	
H. heidelbergensis	2	17.39	108.40	693.44	1123.01	678.91	444.10	60.33
		0.45	19.98	14.62	57.99	92.89	34.90	5.15
H. neanderthalensis <sup>b</sup>	16	16.47	92.50	551.20	835.19	596.53	238.66	70.65
		2.10	11.14	100.22	190.02	236.46	168.74	18.99
H. sapiens (Pleistocene) <sup>b</sup>	9	16.01	98.53	577.19	807.06	463.78	343.28	60.57

			1.37	15.40	120.02	183.45	64.45	197.60	18.37
	H. sapiens (recent) <sup>b</sup>	16	13.99	71.66	397.32	464.55	340.23	124.32	75.75
			1.74	11.10	88.11	118.18	146.69	142.36	25.21
<b>M</b> <sub>3</sub>	A. africanus	1	13.79	130.24	683.14	887.66	470.74	416.92	53.03
			_	_	_	_	_	_	
	P. boisei	2 (1)	19.10	196.46	1111.63	2109.38	701.21	1408.17	33.19
			0.04	86.32	_	513.52	179.40	334.12	0.42
	P. robustus	2	17.93	145.51	935.72	1324.93	523.52	801.41	38.83
			0.33	29.92	100.06	247.50	194.16	53.34	7.40
	H. erectus	1	17.98	104.19	845.74	1194.73	470.77	723.96	39.40
				_	_	_		_	
	H. naledi	7	14.55	101.04	585.93	864.51	393.85	470.66	45.31
			2.27	11.13	36.24	162.85	122.75	128.10	10.81

Homo sp. (SK)	1	11.37	114.18	599.31	773.90	436.65	337.25	56.42
		—		_	_	_	—	_
Homo sp. (KF)	1	14.55	90.52	1130.92	871.60	263.31	608.29	30.21
		_		_	_		_	_
H. heidelbergensis	1	17.40	101.09	586.30	910.96	602.38	308.58	66.13
		—		—	—		_	—
H. neanderthalensis <sup>b</sup>	15	16.39	82.58	488.53	763.08	627.84	135.24	80.66
		2.22	8.32	69.48	171.65	248.58	138.99	18.04
H. sapiens (Pleistocene) <sup>b</sup>	8	15.30	85.25	458.46	638.95	403.45	235.50	64.62
		1.62	13.02	73.29	107.08	61.65	115.67	15.11
H. sapiens (recent) <sup>b</sup>	8	12.49	68.82	322.33	380.02	251.96	128.06	72.84
		1.82	16.00	122.05	150.80	50.85	137.93	23.73

<sup>a</sup> Sample size in parenthesis for RSA only.

<sup>b</sup> Data partially from Kupczik and Hublin (2010).

## 674 **Table 3**

675

Molar	A/V	n	Pearson's r correlation	Slope	Confidence intervals <sup>b</sup>
M1	Area	65	0.87 <sup>a</sup>	1.28	1.09, 1.47
	Vol	69	0.90 <sup>a</sup>	0.88	0.77, 0.98
$M_2$	Area	65	0.90 <sup>a</sup>	1.24	1.09, 1.37
	Vol	68	0.91 <sup>a</sup>	0.81	0.72, 0.90
<b>M</b> <sub>3</sub>	Area	44	0.82 <sup>a</sup>	1.31	1.02, 1.62
	Vol	45	0.87 <sup>a</sup>	0.81	0.56, 0.93

Ordinary least squares regression statistics for cervical plane area against root surface area (A) and

676 root volume (V) in hominin mandibular molars.

677 <sup>a</sup> p < 0.0001, permutation test (n = 9999).

678 <sup>b</sup> 95% bootstrapped (n = 1999).

679

# 681 **Table 4**

Molar	Variable	PC1	PC2	PC3
M <sub>1</sub>	RL	0.511	0.180	-0.789
	СРА	0.528	-0.292	0.504
	V <sub>cervix</sub>	0.449	0.762	0.351
	V <sub>branch</sub>	0.510	-0.549	-0.040
	% variance	75.842	14.9	7.366
$M_2$	RL	0.527	0.241	-0.772
	СРА	0.569	-0.231	0.518
	Vcervix	0.342	0.797	0.367
	V <sub>branch</sub>	0.531	-0.504	-0.025
	% variance	63.511	25.376	9.76
<b>M</b> <sub>3</sub>	RL	0.498	0.384	-0.739
	СРА	0.582	-0.295	0.440
	V <sub>cervix</sub>	0.383	0.684	0.489
	V <sub>branch</sub>	0.516	-0.546	-0.145
	% variance	58.547	28.993	11.176

682 Principal components analysis (PCA) component loadings.

 $683 \qquad \text{Abbreviations: CPA} = \text{cervical plane area; ; RL} = \text{root length; } V_{\text{branch}} = \text{root branch volume; } V_{\text{cervix}} =$ 

684 cervical root volume.